



Manonmaniam Sundaranar University

*DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE AND CONTINUING EDUCATION
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B.A. ENGLISH (SIXTH SEMESTER)

INTRODUCTION TO LITERARY THEORY & CRITICISM

From the Academic Year 2023-2024 onwards

Prepared by

DR. P. VEDAMUTHAN

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

MANONMANIAM SUNDARANAR UNIVERSITY

TIRUNELVELI - 627012

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Learning Objectives

L01	To familiarize learners with western literary theory and criticism with an emphasis on the most prominent theorists, texts, schools, and ideas.
L02	To equip learners with ideas related to the theory and criticism of literary texts.
L03	To intensify students' proficiency in the skills at the heart of a liberal education
L04	To help them think critically about a range of literary theories.
L05	To emphasize learners on the careful reading of primary theoretical texts, with attention as well to historical and social contexts.

INTRODUCTION TO LITERARY THEORY & CRITICISM

Unit	Details
I	<p>Marxism</p> <p>The formation of the Intellectuals & Hegemony & Separation of Powers – Antonio Gramsci – Prison Notebooks (Pg. 5, 245 – 246)</p> <p>Ideology & Ideological State Apparatuses- Lenin & Philosophy & Other essays – Louis Althusser (Pg. 85 – 126)</p>
II	<p>Feminism</p> <p>20 years on: A literature of their own revisited- From Bronte to Lessing – Elaine Showalter (Pg.xi –xxx)</p> <p>When Goods Get Together (pp.107-110) from This Sex Which Is Not One. – Luce Irigaray</p>
III	<p>Post Structuralism</p> <p>Jacques Derrida Structure, Sign and Play from Modern Criticism and Theory: A Reader – David Lodge (Pg. 108 – 123)</p> <p>Truth and Power-Power and Knowledge / What is an Author? – Michael Foucault (Pg. 109 – 133)</p>
IV	<p>Post-Colonial Studies</p> <p>Passive Resistance and Education – Mahatma Gandhi (Pg. 88 – 106)</p> <p>The Scope of Orientalism (Pg. 29-110) Edward said</p>
V	<p>Indian Literature- Definition of category in Theory Classe, Nations, Literature (Pg. 243-285) – Aijaz Ahmad</p> <p>Ecocriticism, Humanism, Neohumanism, Historicism, New Historicism</p>

TEXT BOOKS (Latest Editions)	
1.	A History of English Criticism. George Saintsbury. Atlantic Publishers & Distributors,2017
2.	Critical Approaches to Literature David Daiches New Delhi: Orient Longman, 2016
References Books	
(Latest editions, and the style as given below must be strictly adhered to)	
1.	B. Rajan & A.G George, Makers of Literary Criticism, New Delhi: Asia Publishing House, 2015
2.	S.Ramaswami The English Critical Tradition. Macmillan India Limited,2015
3.	D.J. Enright & E.D English Critical Texts, eds D.J. Enright & E.D. Kolkata: Oxford University Press, Chickera,2017
Web sources	
1.	http://www.ksu.edu/english/eiselei/eng1795

UNIT I

MARXISM

THE FORMATION OF THE INTELLECTUALS & HEGEMONY & SEPARATION OF POWERS – ANTONIO GRAMSCI

In Antonio Gramsci's Prison Notebooks, the concepts of intellectuals, hegemony, and the separation of powers are deeply intertwined. Gramsci defines these terms to explain how a ruling class maintains control not just through force, but through cultural and ideological consent.

THE FORMATION OF THE INTELLECTUALS

Gramsci argues that "all men are intellectuals," but not all have the function of intellectuals in society. He distinguishes between two types:

Organic Intellectuals: These are created by a specific social group (like the industrial bourgeoisie or the working class) to give that group homogeneity and an awareness of its function. They are the "deputies" of the dominant group, organizing social hegemony and state coercion.

Traditional Intellectuals: These are thinkers (like ecclesiastics, philosophers, and academics) who survive from previous socio-economic structures. They see themselves as autonomous and independent of the ruling class, though Gramsci argues they are ultimately linked to the existing power structure.

HEGEMONY

For Gramsci, Hegemony is the "spontaneous" consent given by the great masses of the population to the general direction imposed on social life by the dominant fundamental group.

- It is practiced through Civil Society (schools, churches, media).
- It ensures that the values of the ruling class are seen as "common sense" by the subaltern (lower) classes.
- When "consent" fails, the state resorts to "Legal" Coercion through the military and police.

SEPARATION OF POWERS

Gramsci provides a unique Marxist critique of the liberal doctrine of the Separation of Powers (Legislative, Executive, Judicial). He argues that:

The Illusion of Independence: The separation is largely an ideological product of the struggle between the old feudal world and the new capitalist world.

A Unified Goal: While these branches appear independent, in a "hegemonic" state, they all function toward the same end: maintaining the stability of the ruling class.

The Role of the Executive: Gramsci notes that in modern states, the Executive often becomes the "real" power, while the Legislature becomes a site for organized "public opinion" that doesn't necessarily challenge the core structure of the state.

"The separation of powers... is the product of a struggle between the organic intellectuals of the various classes... but in the final analysis, the State is the entire complex of practical and theoretical activities with which the ruling class not only justifies and maintains its dominance, but manages to win the active consent of those over whom it rules."

DETAILED SUMMARY

Antonio Gramsci's reflections on the **formation of intellectuals**, developed primarily in the *Prison Notebooks*, challenge traditional understandings of who intellectuals are and how they function in society. Against the common belief that intellectuals constitute a distinct, autonomous social group devoted solely to ideas, Gramsci argues that all social classes produce their own intellectuals, and that intellectual activity is inseparable from social, economic, and political life.

Gramsci begins by rejecting the notion of the "traditional intellectual" as a timeless or neutral figure. Traditional intellectuals—such as priests, philosophers, teachers, and men of letters—tend to see themselves as independent from class relations, presenting their role as universal and continuous across history. Gramsci, however, insists that this apparent autonomy is an ideological illusion. These intellectuals are historically produced and are closely linked to earlier dominant classes, particularly the landed aristocracy and the Church. Their claim to neutrality often serves to stabilize existing power relations by masking their real function within systems of domination.

In contrast, Gramsci introduces the concept of the organic intellectual, a figure that emerges directly from the life and needs of a particular social class. Organic intellectuals are not defined primarily by formal education or scholarly pursuits, but by their role in organizing, articulating, and giving coherence to the experiences and interests of their class. For example, under capitalism, the bourgeoisie produces organic intellectuals such as managers, technicians, economists, and legal experts who help structure economic production and maintain ideological leadership. Similarly, the working class must generate its own organic intellectuals to challenge bourgeois hegemony and develop an alternative worldview.

Central to Gramsci's argument is the idea that intellectual formation is tied to labour and social function. He famously states that "all men are intellectuals," but not all men perform the social function of intellectuals. Every individual engages in thought, planning, and interpretation within their daily activity, yet only some are socially recognized and organized as intellectuals. This distinction allows Gramsci to democratize intellectual activity while still acknowledging the material structures that regulate who gains authority and visibility as an intellectual.

Education plays a crucial role in this process of formation. Gramsci criticizes educational systems that reinforce class divisions by separating mental and manual labour. He advocates for a unitary, humanistic education that combines technical competence with critical and historical awareness. Such an education would enable subaltern classes to produce intellectuals capable of leadership, not merely technical efficiency. Without this conscious formation, the working class risks remaining politically fragmented and ideologically subordinate.

Ultimately, Gramsci links the formation of intellectuals to his broader theory of hegemony. Intellectuals are essential in constructing and maintaining hegemony by disseminating values, norms, and worldviews that secure consent rather than relying solely on coercion. For revolutionary change to occur, a new class must develop its own intellectuals who can create a counter-hegemonic culture. Thus, for Gramsci, the formation of intellectuals is not an abstract philosophical issue but a decisive terrain of political struggle.

In the *Prison Notebooks*, Antonio Gramsci develops the concept of **hegemony** to explain how ruling classes maintain power not only through force but through consent. Moving beyond

classical Marxist emphasis on economic domination and state coercion, Gramsci argues that political power in modern societies depends on the ability of a dominant class to present its interests as universal and natural, securing the active agreement of subordinate groups.

Hegemony operates through the interaction of political society and civil society. Political society includes institutions of direct coercion such as the government, police, and military, while civil society encompasses schools, churches, the media, and cultural practices. In stable capitalist societies, hegemony is exercised primarily within civil society, where dominant values and worldviews are disseminated and normalized. Coercion remains in reserve, but consent is the principal mechanism of rule.

Central to the maintenance of hegemony is the role of intellectuals. Gramsci distinguishes between traditional intellectuals, who appear autonomous but are historically linked to ruling classes, and organic intellectuals, who emerge from and articulate the experiences of specific social groups. The ruling class relies on its organic intellectuals to organize culture, morality, and ideology, thereby sustaining hegemonic leadership. Conversely, revolutionary change requires the working class to produce its own intellectuals capable of constructing an alternative worldview.

Gramsci emphasizes that hegemony is not static but a process marked by struggle and negotiation. Subaltern groups may partially accept dominant ideology while also resisting it, creating spaces for counter-hegemonic movements. Political transformation therefore depends on a prolonged “war of position,” in which cultural and ideological leadership is contested within civil society before direct political power can be seized.

Ultimately, Gramsci’s theory of hegemony reveals that domination in modern societies is secured less by force than by cultural leadership. Genuine social change, he argues, requires not only economic restructuring but the creation of a new hegemonic order grounded in alternative values, institutions, and forms of collective consciousness.

In the *Prison Notebooks*, Antonio Gramsci does not treat the separation of powers as a neutral or purely legal principle. Instead, he analyzes it as a historically produced political arrangement that functions within a specific balance of social forces. For Gramsci, the division between the

legislative, executive, and judicial branches must be understood in relation to hegemony, civil society, and the role of the modern state in maintaining bourgeois domination.

Gramsci challenges the liberal assumption that the separation of powers automatically guarantees freedom and democracy. While acknowledging its role in limiting overt authoritarianism, he argues that the formal division of state powers often conceals the real unity of class power operating behind constitutional structures. In capitalist societies, the state does not simply govern through coercion but through consent, and the separation of powers becomes one mechanism through which this consent is organized and stabilized.

Central to Gramsci's analysis is his expanded concept of the state, which includes both political society (institutions of coercion such as government, courts, police, and military) and civil society (schools, churches, media, and cultural institutions). The separation of powers operates primarily within political society, but its effectiveness depends heavily on civil society. Laws, executive decisions, and judicial rulings gain legitimacy because they are supported by cultural norms, moral values, and intellectual leadership produced in civil society.

Gramsci pays particular attention to the judiciary, which liberal theory treats as independent and neutral. He argues that judicial independence is relative rather than absolute. Courts function as part of the state's hegemonic apparatus by interpreting laws in ways that align with dominant social interests. Thus, even when formally separated from the executive and legislature, the judiciary often reinforces existing power relations rather than challenging them.

Similarly, Gramsci views the legislative and executive branches not as opposing forces but as elements of a broader political unity. In periods of stable hegemony, their separation appears balanced and consensual. However, during moments of crisis—when consent weakens—the executive tends to absorb legislative functions, leading to what Gramsci calls “Caesarism” or authoritarian centralization. This demonstrates that separation of powers is contingent, not permanent.

For Gramsci, then, the separation of powers is less a safeguard of liberty than a technique of governance within bourgeois democracy. It helps manage class conflict by dispersing authority, slowing radical change, and presenting domination as lawful and rational. The real question is not

how powers are separated institutionally, but which class exercises leadership across the state and civil society.

Ultimately, Gramsci frames the separation of powers as a superstructural expression of material relations. Without transforming the underlying economic and cultural foundations of society, constitutional arrangements alone cannot produce genuine democracy. True political transformation requires the creation of a counter-hegemonic order, not merely the reorganization of state powers.

IDEOLOGY & IDEOLOGICAL STATE APPARATUSES - LOUIS ALTHUSSER

In this influential essay, Louis Althusser re-evaluates the Marxist theory of the State, moving beyond the idea of the State as a simple tool of force. He explores how the ruling class maintains power not just through violence, but by shaping how we think and see the world.

The Reproduction of the Conditions of Production:

Althusser begins by stating that for any society to survive, it must reproduce its conditions of production. This means it must reproduce:

- The Productive Forces: Ensuring there are enough raw materials and tools.
- The Existing Relations of Production: Ensuring there are workers who are willing and able to work for the owners.

Critically, Althusser argues that workers aren't just paid; they are "reproduced" through the education system, which teaches them skills and, more importantly, subjection to the ruling ideology.

RSA vs. ISA

Althusser distinguishes between two different "Apparatuses" that the State uses to maintain control:

Repressive State Apparatus (RSA)

- Includes the Government, Administration, Army, Police, Courts, and Prisons.

- Functions primarily by violence or force (physical or administrative).
- Usually belong to the “Public” domain.
- Unified and centralized.

Ideological State Apparatus (ISA)

- Functions primarily by ideology.
- Includes Religion, Education, Family, Law, Politics, Trade Unions, Communications (Media), and Culture
- Often belong to the “Private” domain (e.g., churches, families).
- Plural, diverse, and relatively autonomous.

The Primacy of the Educational ISA

Althusser argues that in modern capitalist societies, the School has replaced the Church as the dominant ISA.

- Schools take children from all classes and “drum” into them several years of “know-how” wrapped in ruling-class ideology.
- By the time students leave school, they have been sorted into roles (workers, managers, or elites) and have internalized their “natural” place in the hierarchy.

Theory of Ideology

Althusser provides two famous definitions of ideology that move away from the idea that it is simply a “lie” or a “falsehood”:

Thesis I: Ideology represents the imaginary relationship of individuals to their real conditions of existence.

Ideology isn’t a distorted mirror of reality; it is a way for people to experience their world.

We don’t see the “real” complex economic systems; we see “our” job, “our” boss, and “our” country.

Thesis II: Ideology has a material existence.

Ideology is not just an idea in your head; it exists in actions and practices. You go to church, you stand for the national anthem, or you follow a specific curriculum. These are material rituals that reinforce belief.

Interpellation

This is Althusser's most famous concept. He argues that ideology "acts" or "functions" in such a way that it "recruits" subjects among the individuals.

Interpellation: The process by which ideology "hails" or calls out to us.

Example: A policeman shouts, "Hey, you there!" When you turn around, you become a subject. You have recognized yourself as the person being spoken to and have accepted the authority of the system.

The "Subject" and the "SUBJECT" Althusser

notes a double meaning:

- Small-s subject: A free-thinking individual with agency.
- Big-S SUBJECT: A person who is "subjected" to a higher authority (God, the State, the Boss).

He argues that ideology gives us the illusion that we are free individuals (small-s), which is precisely what makes us obedient servants (Big-S) to the system.

DETAILED SUMMARY

Louis Althusser's essay "Ideology and Ideological State Apparatuses (Notes towards an Investigation)" is one of the most influential Marxist texts of the twentieth century. In it, Althusser rethinks classical Marxist ideas of ideology, the state, and power, shifting attention from repression alone to the subtle mechanisms through which capitalist societies reproduce themselves. His central concern is how the conditions of production are reproduced across generations, not merely economically but ideologically.

Althusser begins by revisiting the Marxist concept of the state. Traditional Marxism emphasized the Repressive State Apparatus (RSA) institutions such as the army, police, courts, and prisons that function primarily through violence or coercion. Althusser does not reject this view but argues that it is incomplete. Modern capitalist societies rely far more on consent than force. To explain this, he introduces the concept of Ideological State Apparatuses (ISAs), which operate predominantly through ideology rather than repression.

Althusser identifies a range of ISAs, including the educational system, the family, religion, the legal system, political parties, trade unions, the media, and cultural institutions such as literature and art. Unlike the RSA, which is unified and centralized, ISAs are multiple, relatively autonomous, and often located in the private sphere. However, despite their apparent independence, they ultimately function to support the ruling class by reproducing the dominant ideology.

A key argument of the essay is that the reproduction of labour power requires more than wages. Workers must also acquire the skills, discipline, and attitudes necessary to function within capitalist relations of production. Althusser argues that this ideological reproduction is primarily carried out by the education system, which he identifies as the dominant ISA in modern societies. Schools teach not only technical knowledge but also obedience, punctuality, respect for authority, and acceptance of hierarchy. In this way, education prepares individuals to accept their place within the social order as “free” subjects while internalizing capitalist norms.

Althusser’s most famous and controversial claim is that ideology has a material existence. He rejects the idea that ideology is merely a set of false ideas or illusions imposed from above. Instead, ideology exists in practices, rituals, and institutions. For example, religious belief is not simply an internal conviction but is enacted through practices such as prayer, confession, and attendance at church. Ideology thus shapes individuals’ everyday behavior, embedding itself in lived experience.

Another foundational concept introduced in the essay is interpellation. Althusser argues that ideology functions by “hailing” individuals and transforming them into subjects. When an individual recognizes themselves as the subject addressed by ideology, such as responding to a police officer calling “Hey, you!”- they become positioned within existing power relations. Importantly, individuals experience this process as natural and voluntary, not imposed. Ideology works precisely because it makes subjects believe they are acting freely.

Althusser also asserts that there is no ideology except by the subject and for subjects. Subjectivity itself is an ideological effect, not a pre-existing essence. This claim marks a decisive break from humanist Marxism, which assumed a stable human subject capable of revolutionary consciousness. For Althusser, subjects are always already embedded in ideology; there is no position outside it from which pure truth can be accessed.

Despite his emphasis on ideology's power, Althusser does not argue that resistance is impossible. He notes that ISAs are sites of class struggle, not perfectly unified mechanisms of domination. Contradictions within and between ISAs allow for ideological conflict and transformation. However, such struggle must be understood structurally rather than in terms of individual consciousness or moral awakening.

In the final sections, Althusser connects his theory of ideology to his broader philosophical project of anti-humanism and structural Marxism. He argues that Marx's true scientific break occurred when he abandoned humanist categories such as "man" and "essence" in favor of analyzing structures, relations, and processes. Ideology, from this perspective, is not a moral failure but a necessary feature of social life.

In conclusion, "Ideology and Ideological State Apparatuses" redefines how power operates in modern societies. Althusser shows that domination is sustained not only through force but through everyday practices that shape subjects' beliefs, identities, and desires. The essay's insights have had a lasting impact on literary theory, cultural studies, feminism, postcolonial theory, and discourse analysis, making it a foundational text for understanding ideology as lived, material, and deeply embedded in social institutions.

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Explain the concept of hegemony as proposed by Antonio Gramsci.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Outline the relationship between civil society and political society in Gramsci's theory.	K2	CO3	PO3
3.	Explain the idea of separation of powers in relation to Marxist thought.	K3	CO3	PO3
4.	Describe the concept of ideology in Louis Althusser's writings.	K2	CO2	PO2
5.	Identify the differences between Repressive and Ideological State Apparatuses.	K2	CO2	PO2

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Essay Questions			
1.	Analyze the concept of cultural hegemony in the writings of Antonio Gramsci.	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Discuss the process of interpellation in Althusser's theory of ideology.	K4	CO4	PO4
3.	Assess the relevance of Marxist theory in contemporary society.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Critically examine the differences between classical Marxism and structural Marxism.	K6	CO6	PO6
5.	Discuss how Gramsci redefines Marxist theory through cultural analysis.	K5	CO5	PO5

UNIT – II

FEMINISM

20 YEARS ON-ELAINE SHOWALTER

In the "20 Years On", Elaine Showalter reflects on the impact of her landmark 1977 study and addresses the evolution of feminist literary theory since its original release.

The Legacy of the "Three Stages"

Showalter revisits her influential framework for how women's writing developed. She maintains that women's literature is a subculture that evolved through three phases:

- Feminine (Imitation): Writing to meet male standards.
- Feminist (Protest): Writing to challenge male authority.
- Female (Self-Discovery): Writing to explore a unique female identity and experience.

She uses this revised introduction to argue that these stages were never meant to be rigid "boxes," but rather a way to see a continuous tradition instead of a few "isolated geniuses."

The Defense of "Gynocritics"

Showalter coined the term Gynocriticism to describe the study of women as writers (as opposed to "feminist critique," which studies women as readers of male texts).

- The Conflict: She addresses the 1980s shift toward "Gender Studies" and French theory (which argued that gender is a linguistic construct).
- The Stance: Showalter defends her historically-grounded approach. She argues that even if "gender" is a social construct, the real-life experiences of women as daughters, mothers, and workers in a patriarchal system create a shared literary history that cannot be ignored.

Expanding the Canon

The "revisited" pages acknowledge that the original book focused primarily on white, middle-class British writers.

- She reflects on the growth of Black feminist criticism and lesbian aesthetics.

- She admits that the "literature of their own" has become much more diverse and global than she initially mapped out, shifting from a single "tradition" to a "multivocal" landscape.

From Brontë to Lessing

Showalter uses the trajectory from Charlotte Brontë to Doris Lessing to show the path of the "female" writer:

- The Brontës represent the struggle to find a voice within the constraints of the Victorian "Feminine" phase.
- Doris Lessing represents the modern "Female" phase, where the fragmented, psychological, and political realities of women's lives are laid bare without seeking male approval.

The "Introduction" serves as a bridge. It moves from the 1970s goal of recovery (finding lost women writers) to a 1990s/2000s goal of integration—ensuring women's literature is not a "sidebar" to history, but a central, self-sustaining tradition with its own internal logic.

DETAILED SUMMARY

In "Twenty Years On: A Literature of Their Own Revisited – From Brontë to Lessing," Elaine Showalter reflects on, reassesses, and updates the arguments she first developed in *A Literature of Their Own* (1977). The essay marks both a continuation and a self-critical revision of her pioneering work in feminist literary history, particularly her concept of gynocriticism—the study of women's writing as a distinct literary tradition.

Showalter begins by situating her original project within the feminist movements of the 1970s. *A Literature of Their Own* aimed to recover neglected women writers and to demonstrate that women's writing in England formed a coherent literary tradition, shaped by shared social constraints rather than by biological essentialism. She had divided this tradition into three phases: the Feminine (imitation of male norms), the Feminist (protest against patriarchy), and the Female (self-discovery and artistic autonomy). In revisiting the book twenty years later, Showalter acknowledges both its influence and its limitations.

One of the central concerns of the essay is exclusion. Showalter admits that her earlier model privileged white, middle-class, heterosexual British women and failed to account adequately for

differences of race, class, nationality, and sexuality. Feminist criticism, she notes, had since been transformed by postcolonial theory, Black feminism, lesbian studies, and cultural studies, all of which challenged the idea of a single, unified female literary tradition.

Showalter also reassesses the canon-formation project of feminist criticism. While recovery work was politically necessary, she recognizes the danger of replacing one rigid canon with another. The focus, she suggests, should shift from constructing a fixed tradition to understanding women's writing as multiple, hybrid, and historically contingent.

Importantly, Showalter defends feminist criticism against charges of essentialism, arguing that acknowledging common patterns in women's writing does not deny difference. Instead, she emphasizes a plural feminist methodology, open to interdisciplinary approaches and theoretical flexibility. Writers from Charlotte Brontë to Doris Lessing, she argues, should be read not as representatives of a single "women's voice" but as participants in complex cultural and ideological negotiations.

In conclusion, "Twenty Years On" represents a mature reassessment of feminist literary history. Showalter reaffirms the importance of feminist criticism while embracing its evolution toward greater inclusivity and theoretical self-awareness. The essay underscores that women's literature is not a closed tradition but an ongoing, dynamic field of inquiry, shaped by changing social realities and critical perspectives.

THIS SEX WHICH IS NOT ONE-LUCE IRIGARAY

In the final pages of *This Sex Which Is Not One*, Luce Irigaray pivots from a critique of how women are exploited to a vision of how they might be liberated.

The Great Refusal

Irigaray posits a "what if" scenario: What if the "goods" (women) refused to go to market? She argues that the patriarchal social order is entirely dependent on the exchange of women between men. If women were to stop participating in this exchange, refusing to be the "currency" that mediates relationships between men, the entire symbolic and economic structure of society would collapse.

Disruption of the “Hom(m)osexual” Order

She uses a pun on the French word *homme* (man) to describe the current state of society as “hom(m)osexual.”

- The Critique: Men do not actually relate to women; they relate to other men through the bodies of women (as fathers, husbands, or pimps).
- The Intervention: When women “get together,” they break this circuit. By forming direct relationships with each other, they cease to be the passive objects that facilitate male social bonds and instead become active subjects.

A New Economy of Pleasure

Irigaray describes a “feminine economy” that stands in stark contrast to the masculine one.

- Masculine Economy: Based on ownership, scarcity, accumulation, and the “phallic” rule of the “One.”
- Feminine Economy: Characterized by abundance and fluidity. Because woman is “not one” (referring to her plural anatomy and multiple sites of pleasure), her exchange is not about loss or gain, but about a “perpetual outpouring” where nothing is used up or exhausted.

Speaking “Otherwise”

The text ends with a call to develop a new language. Irigaray suggests that women should:

- Mimic the roles they’ve been given to expose the masks.
- Speak to one another in a way that doesn’t follow the “linear” logic of men, but rather the “auto-erotic” and plural logic of their own bodies.

Key Quote: “The ‘goods’ can also exist as other than objects of exchange... if they could at last enter into a relation of ‘commodity’ to ‘commodity’ that would no longer be mediated by any ‘standard of value.’”

DETAILED SUMMARY:

Luce Irigaray’s *This Sex Which Is Not One* is a foundational text of French feminist theory that critiques Western philosophy, psychoanalysis, and language for their deep-rooted phallogentrism.

Drawing on and revising Freudian and Lacanian psychoanalysis, Irigaray argues that dominant

systems of knowledge recognize only one sex—the male—while woman functions as a lack, mirror, or negative of man rather than as a subject in her own right.

At the core of Irigaray's argument is the claim that Western culture is structured by a logic of the One. This logic privileges unity, singularity, and identity, values historically associated with the masculine subject. Woman, by contrast, is defined through absence or deficiency—Freud's concept of "penis envy" and Lacan's symbolic order both position female sexuality as secondary and incomplete. Irigaray contests this framework, insisting that female sexuality cannot be understood within a system that measures it by male norms.

The title *This Sex Which Is Not One* refers to Irigaray's reconceptualization of female sexuality as plural, diffuse, and multiple rather than singular and centered. She famously uses the metaphor of the female sexual anatomy particularly the two lips, to suggest a sexuality that is non-hierarchical, self-touching, and non-teleological. This multiplicity resists phallic models of desire that focus on climax, penetration, and possession. Female sexuality, for Irigaray, is not oriented toward lack or completion but toward continuous, relational pleasure.

Language and discourse are central to Irigaray's critique. She argues that existing linguistic structures are masculine, organized around mastery, linear logic, and opposition. As a result, women can speak only by adopting male discourse, which inevitably distorts or silences female experience. Irigaray proposes the development of a feminine language or *écriture féminine*, characterized by fluidity, repetition, and contradiction. Rather than offering a fully formed alternative language, she performs this strategy in her own writing style, which is poetic, fragmented, and deliberately disruptive of philosophical norms.

Irigaray also critiques the political economy of sexuality under patriarchy. She argues that women function as commodities exchanged between men, a system evident in marriage, kinship, and social institutions. In this economy, women's bodies and sexuality are regulated and appropriated to sustain male bonds and patriarchal power. Female desire is thus not only misrepresented but actively suppressed.

Importantly, Irigaray does not reject psychoanalysis outright. Instead, she engages in a strategy of mimicry, exaggerating and repeating masculine discourses in order to expose their internal

contradictions. By speaking “as woman” within male systems of thought, she destabilizes their claim to universality and neutrality.

Critics have accused Irigaray of biological essentialism, particularly because of her reliance on anatomical metaphors. However, Irigaray insists that her use of the body is symbolic rather than deterministic. The female body serves as a site for reimagining subjectivity and relationality, not as a fixed biological destiny.

In conclusion, *This Sex Which Is Not One* calls for a radical rethinking of subjectivity, desire, and language. Irigaray argues that true sexual difference has never been realized in Western culture because woman has not yet been recognized as a subject. By affirming multiplicity over unity and relation over domination, Irigaray opens the possibility of a new symbolic order in which women can speak, desire, and exist beyond the constraints of phallogocentric thought.

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Explain Elaine Showalter’s concept of women’s literary tradition.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Describe the stages of women’s writing identified by Showalter.	K2	CO2	PO2
3.	Discuss the significance of feminist criticism in literature.	K3	CO3	PO3
4.	Explain the metaphor of “commodification” in Irigaray’s work.	K3	CO3	PO3
5.	Identify the key themes in feminist literary theory.	K2	CO2	PO2

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO

Essay Questions				
1.	Evaluate Luce Irigaray's critique of patriarchal structures.	K5	CO5	PO5
2.	Discuss the role of language in constructing gender identities.	K4	CO4	PO4
3.	Evaluate the contribution of feminist theory to contemporary criticism.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Compare different feminist approaches to literary analysis.	K5	CO5	PO5
5.	Analyze the evolution of women's writing as discussed by Elaine Showalter.	K4	CO4	PO4

UNIT III

POST-STRUCTURALISM

STRUCTURE, SIGN, AND PLAY IN THE DISCOURSE OF THE HUMAN SCIENCES - JACQUES DERRIDA

Jacques Derrida's "Structure, Sign, and Play in the Discourse of the Human Sciences" is one of the most influential texts of the 20th century. Originally delivered as a lecture in 1966, it effectively launched Deconstruction and signalled the transition from Structuralism to Post-structuralism.

The "Event" and the Rupture

Derrida begins by suggesting that an "event" has occurred in the history of the concept of "structure." Previously, structures were always thought to have a center—a point of origin or truth that anchored the system (e.g., God, Man, Self, Essence).

- **The Function of the Center:** The center organizes the structure but, paradoxically, is exempt from the rules of the structure. It limits "play" (the movement of meaning) by providing a fixed ground.
- **The Rupture:** The "event" is the moment when the center was finally interrogated. Thinkers realized that the center is not a fixed physical thing, but a function or a mental construct. This led to the realization that there is no absolute "truth" outside of the system of signs.

Critique of Structuralism (Claude Lévi-Strauss)

Derrida uses the work of anthropologist Claude Lévi-Strauss to illustrate the tension within structuralism.

- **The Nature/Culture Opposition:** Lévi-Strauss famously divided human behavior into "Nature" (universal) and "Culture" (governed by specific laws). However, he encountered the "incest taboo," which is both universal (nature) and a law (culture).
- **Bricolage:** Derrida highlights Lévi-Strauss's concept of the bricoleur—someone who uses whatever tools are at hand to solve a problem, even if those tools are "broken" or conceptually flawed. Derrida argues that we are all bricoleurs because we must use the language of the system (metaphysics) to critique that same system.

The Concept of “Play”

Once the “center” is removed, the elements within a structure enter a state of play.

- **Play vs. Presence:** In traditional thought, we seek “presence” (an immediate, certain meaning). Derrida argues that meaning is never fully present; it is always deferred through a chain of signs.
- **Infinite Substitutions:** Because there is no center to stop the movement, one signifier simply leads to another signifier. Meaning is “totalized” not by reaching a final truth, but by the infinite movement of these signs.

Two Interpretations of Interpretation

Derrida concludes by identifying two ways of looking at structure, language, and “play”:

- **The Sad/Nostalgic:** This view mourns the loss of the center. It dreams of a lost origin and seeks to find a “truth” or a “fixed point” that no longer exists.
- **The Joyous/Nietzschean:** This is the “affirmation of play.” It does not seek a center or an origin. It embraces the uncertainty and the infinite possibilities of meaning without needing a “ground” to stand on.

Key Takeaway

Derrida isn’t saying that structures don’t exist; he is saying they have no transcendental signified (an ultimate meaning). We must continue to use the language of structure while simultaneously recognizing its instability.

“The center is not the center.”—This encapsulates Derrida’s point: the thing that gives a structure its meaning is actually outside the structure and cannot be proven.

DETAILED SUMMARY:

In “Structure, Sign, and Play in the Discourse of the Human Sciences,” Jacques Derrida critiques the foundations of Western structuralist thought and announces what he calls an “event” or rupture in the history of ideas. Delivered at the 1966 Johns Hopkins conference, the essay challenges the assumption that structures—whether linguistic, cultural, or philosophical—possess a stable center

that guarantees meaning. Derrida argues that this belief in a center is a metaphysical inheritance that limits genuine thinking about difference and meaning.

Derrida begins by examining the concept of structure in Western thought. Traditionally, a structure is understood as a system of elements governed by a fixed center. This center—such as God, reason, truth, or the human subject—organizes and stabilizes the structure while remaining outside the play of its elements. Although structuralism sought to analyze relations rather than essences, Derrida argues that it paradoxically retained the idea of a center, thereby reproducing metaphysical assumptions.

The “event” Derrida identifies is the moment when thinkers began to question the necessity of a center. Once the center is recognized as a construct rather than a natural foundation, the structure enters into “free play.” Play refers to the endless substitution of elements within a system, where meaning is never fixed but constantly deferred. Derrida emphasizes that play is not chaos; it is the condition that makes meaning possible, but without final closure.

This insight leads Derrida to a rethinking of the sign. In Saussurean linguistics, the sign consists of the signifier and the signified, with meaning produced through difference. Derrida radicalizes this idea by arguing that the signified is never fully present; it too functions as a signifier in an infinite chain of differences. There is no ultimate meaning outside language to stabilize interpretation. This logic later becomes central to Derrida’s concept of *différance*, the simultaneous process of difference and deferral.

Derrida illustrates his argument through a critique of Claude Lévi-Strauss, particularly his analysis of myths. Lévi-Strauss treats myth as a system without an origin, yet Derrida shows that he still relies on oppositions such as nature and culture, which function as implicit centers. Derrida does not dismiss Lévi-Strauss but uses his work to demonstrate how structuralism remains caught within metaphysical frameworks it seeks to escape.

A key tension in the essay is between nostalgia and affirmation. Derrida contrasts the desire for a lost origin or center with an affirmative acceptance of play. He advocates the latter, suggesting that abandoning the search for absolute foundations allows for more open, creative, and ethical engagement with meaning.

In conclusion, “Structure, Sign, and Play” marks a decisive shift from structuralism to poststructuralism. Derrida does not argue that structures cease to exist, but that they lack fixed centers and are defined by play and instability. Meaning, therefore, is never final or self-present but always produced through differences within language and culture. The essay fundamentally reshapes approaches to philosophy, anthropology, and literary criticism by challenging the very idea of stable meaning and foundational truth.

TRUTH AND POWER-MICHEL FOUCAULT

In his seminal essay “What is an Author?”, Michel Foucault performs a “genealogy” of the author, moving away from the biographical individual to analyze the “author-function.” He argues that the author is not a natural, creative source of meaning, but a functional principle used by society to organize, limit, and control the circulation of discourse.

The Effacement of the Individual

Foucault begins by addressing the “death” of the author, a concept popularized by Roland Barthes. However, Foucault’s interest lies less in the “death” of the writer and more in the “space” left behind. He notes that in modern literature, writing is no longer a tool for immortality, but a process of self-sacrifice where the writer’s individuality must disappear. This leads to a fundamental problem: if the author is gone, how do we define a “work”? Foucault argues that there is no objective way to distinguish between a “literary” text and a writer’s casual notes or laundry lists, revealing that our definition of a “work” is an arbitrary social construct.

The Four Characteristics of the Author-Function

The core of the essay defines the author-function—a set of criteria that distinguishes certain texts from everyday speech. First, the author-function is linked to legal and institutional systems. Historically, authors were identified primarily so they could be held responsible (and punished) for transgressive or heretical ideas. Second, the function is not universal. In the Middle Ages, scientific texts required an author’s name to be “true,” while stories were often anonymous. Today, the reverse is true; we value scientific truth regardless of the person, but a literary work is considered incomplete without an authorial name.

Third, the author-function is a complex operation that constructs a “rational entity.” Critics and readers project a sense of unity, consistency, and “genius” onto a collection of texts to create a coherent persona. Finally, the function creates a multiplicity of selves. Foucault points out that the “I” who writes a preface is different from the “I” who narrates the story or the “I” who presents a mathematical theorem.

Founders of Discursivity

Foucault distinguishes between “ordinary” authors and what he calls “founders of discursivity,” such as Karl Marx or Sigmund Freud. These figures did more than write books; they produced the rules and possibilities for an entire field of knowledge. To be a “Freudian” is to engage in a constant “return to the origin”—re-examining the founder’s texts to produce new insights. This distinguishes the humanities from the hard sciences, where a “return” to Galileo or Newton is a matter of historical interest rather than a requirement for current scientific progress.

Power, Knowledge, and the Regulation of Meaning

Ultimately, Foucault views the author as a tool of power. By assigning a text to a specific author, society limits the “danger” of unrestricted meaning. We use the author’s “intent” to stop the text from meaning anything we want it to mean. The author is, therefore, a “regulator” of discourse who prevents the free circulation and consumption of ideas. Foucault concludes by looking toward a future where the author-function might disappear, replaced by a system where we no longer care about the identity of the speaker, but focus instead on the power dynamics and social utility of the discourse itself.

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Describe the idea of deconstruction.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Discuss the notion of “center” in structuralism.	K3	CO3	PO3
3.	Explain Foucault’s concept of power and knowledge.	K2	CO3	PO3

4.	Identify the key principles of post-structuralism.	K2	CO2	PO2
5.	Explain Foucault's concept of authorship.	K2	CO3	PO3

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Essay Questions			
1.	Analyze Derrida's critique of structuralism in "Structure, Sign and Play."	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Discuss the role of discourse in shaping knowledge systems.	K4	CO4	PO4
3.	Analyze the relationship between language and meaning in post-structuralism.	K4	CO4	PO4
4.	Critically examine the rejection of fixed meaning in post-structuralist thought.	K6	CO6	PO6
5.	Compare Derrida and Foucault's approaches to theory.	K5	CO5	PO5

UNIT IV

POST COLONIAL STUDIES

PASSIVE RESISTANCE AND EDUCATION – MAHATMA GANDHI

This essay explores the profound intersection of Mahatma Gandhi's philosophy on Passive Resistance (Satyagraha) and his visionary approach to Education. For Gandhi, these were not two separate fields of study, but rather a unified method for achieving both individual self-mastery and national independence.

The Essence of Satyagraha: Soul-Force over Physical Force

In his writings, Gandhi clarifies that Passive Resistance is a misnomer for what he calls Satyagraha, or "Truth-force." He argues that while passive resistance is often viewed as a weapon of the weak, Satyagraha is the supreme weapon of the spiritually strong. It is based on the conviction that no power on earth can subdue a soul that has ceased to fear physical consequences.

Gandhi posits that Satyagraha requires a specific type of courage: the courage to suffer without retaliation. He suggests that the use of violence is a sign of failure in one's own argument. By inviting suffering upon oneself rather than inflicting it on the adversary, the Satyagrahi seeks to "melt" the heart of the opponent and reveal the truth of the situation. This process, however, is impossible without a rigorous foundation in self-discipline and character.

The Failure of Modern Education

Gandhi's critique of the education system, specifically the colonial model, is rooted in its obsession with "literacy" at the expense of "morality." He argues that simply teaching a child to read, write, and calculate does not make them a better human being. In fact, if literacy is used for selfish or immoral ends, it becomes a tool for harm rather than good.

To Gandhi, the goal of education should be the "all-round drawing out of the best in child and man—body, mind, and spirit." He notes that the existing system ignored the "heart" (character) and the "hand" (labor), producing individuals who were intellectually developed but spiritually bankrupt and physically incapable of self-sustenance.

Education as the Foundation of Resistance

The link between education and resistance lies in the cultivation of virtue. Gandhi outlines several “observances” that are essential for a student who wishes to serve their country:

- Truth and Fearlessness: Without these, Satyagraha is impossible. Education must teach a student to value truth above life itself.
- Chastity and Self-Control: Gandhi believed that mental and physical energy must be conserved through self-restraint to be channeled into social service.
- Manual Labor: By integrating crafts (like spinning or agriculture) into the curriculum, Gandhi aimed to bridge the gap between the elite and the masses, fostering a sense of dignity in labor.

Conclusion: The Path to Swaraj

Ultimately, Gandhi’s writings on these pages suggest that Swaraj (Self-Rule) cannot be achieved merely by changing the people in power. True Swaraj begins with the individual. A nation of people who are truly educated—meaning they are masters of their own senses and committed to non-violence will naturally become a nation that cannot be enslaved.

In this light, education is the preparation for resistance. It equips the citizen with the moral strength to say “no” to injustice, not through the barrel of a gun, but through the irresistible power of a disciplined conscience.

THE SCOPE OF ORIENTALISM-EDWARD SAID

In the first chapter of *Orientalism*, titled “The Scope of Orientalism,” Edward Said establishes the foundational definitions of his critique, moving from a broad historical survey to the specific psychological and political structures that allowed the West to dominate the East.

He argues that Orientalism is not merely a collection of lies or myths, but a systematic discipline by which European culture was able to manage and even produce the Orient politically, sociologically, militarily, and ideologically.

Defining the “Orient” as a Cultural Construct

Said begins by asserting that the “Orient” is not a natural, inert fact of nature. Instead, it is a man-made entity. He explores how European writers, scholars, and administrators created a binary between “Us” (the familiar, rational West) and “Them” (the mysterious, irrational East).

This binary served a specific purpose: by defining the Oriental as the “Other,” the European could define themselves as the pinnacle of civilization. Said notes that this wasn’t just an academic exercise; it was an act of power. To “know” something in the Orientalist sense was to have authority over it.

The Power of Imaginative Geography

One of the most critical concepts in these pages is imaginative geography. Said explains how the West drew mental and physical boundaries that separated “our” space from “their” space.

- **Arbitrary Boundaries:** Europeans assigned traits to the “Orient” (sensuality, despotism, backwardness) regardless of the actual diversity of the people living there.
- **The Orient as a Stage:** The East became a theatrical stage upon which the West acted out its own fantasies and fears.
- **Textual Attitude:** Said highlights a “textual attitude” where experts prioritized what was written in books over the reality of the people they encountered. If a living Egyptian didn’t match the description in a classical text, the Egyptian was considered “wrong” or a “degraded” version of his ancestors.

Projects and Administration: Napoleon’s Influence

Said uses Napoleon Bonaparte’s 1798 invasion of Egypt as a pivotal case study in how Orientalism shifted from vague ideas to administrative reality.

- **The Scholar-Soldier:** Napoleon did not just bring an army; he brought a team of scientists and philologists.
- **The Description de l’Égypte:** This massive multi-volume work sought to document every inch of Egypt, effectively “capturing” the country on paper before it was even fully conquered on the ground.
- **The Expert’s Authority:** This created a precedent where the Western “expert” claimed to understand the Orient better than the Orientals understood themselves.

The Resilience of Orientalist Thought

Toward the end of the chapter, Said discusses how these ideas became self-perpetuating. Once the “Orient” was codified into a set of academic rules, it became almost impossible for a Westerner to look at the Middle East without the lens of these prejudices.

He argues that Orientalism is a hegemonic discourse, it is so deeply embedded in Western thought that it feels like common sense. It provided the intellectual justification for colonialism: if the Orient is inherently incapable of self-rule or logic, then Western intervention is not only justified but “civilizing.”

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
Paragraph Questions				
1.	Explain Gandhi’s concept of passive resistance.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Discuss the concept of Orientalism as defined by Edward Said.	K3	CO3	PO3
3.	Describe the representation of the East in Western discourse.	K2	CO2	PO2
4.	Describe the concept of cultural domination.	K2	CO2	PO2
5.	Identify the key ideas in postcolonial criticism.	K2	CO2	PO2

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
Essay Questions				
1.	Examine the role of education in shaping national identity according to Gandhi.	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Discuss the relationship between colonial power and representation.	K4	CO4	PO4

3.	Assess the impact of colonial discourse on cultural identity.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Critically examine the legacy of colonialism in contemporary society.	K6	CO6	PO6
5.	Evaluate the role of knowledge in maintaining colonial dominance.	K5	CO5	PO5

UNIT V

INDIAN LITERATURE

DEFINITION OF 'CATEGORY' IN THEORY, CLASSES, NATIONS, LITERATURE— AIJAZ AHMAD

In his seminal work *In Theory: Classes, Nations, Literatures*, specifically within the chapter “The Politics of Admissibility,” Aijaz Ahmad critiques how the “Third World” is constructed as a literary category in Western academia. He argues that this categorization is not a neutral act of scholarship but a reflection of global power dynamics and post-structuralist ideologies.

The Construction of the “Third World”

Ahmad begins by challenging the three-world theory—the division of the globe into the First (Capitalist), Second (Socialist), and Third Worlds. He argues that the category of “Third World Literature” is fundamentally flawed because it is defined solely by its relationship to colonialism and nationalism.

Unlike Western literature, which is allowed to explore the complexities of the human condition, Ahmad suggests that literature from Asia, Africa, and Latin America is reduced to a single “category”: the national allegory. He famously critiques Fredric Jameson’s assertion that all Third World texts are necessarily allegories of the nation, arguing that this ignores the internal class struggles and diverse social realities within these countries.

The Role of the Post-Colonial Intellectual

A significant portion of this section examines the “admissibility” of certain authors into the Western canon. Ahmad argues that:

- **The Gatekeeper Effect:** Only certain texts—usually those written in or translated into English are recognized.
- **Class Position:** The intellectuals who define these categories are often migrants or academics based in the West. They speak for the “Third World” while being removed from its local languages and immediate material struggles.

- The Erasure of Socialism: Ahmad is deeply critical of how post-colonial theory has replaced Marxist categories of “class” and “mode of production” with cultural categories like “hybridity” and “fragmentation.”

Literature as a Global Commodity

Ahmad argues that the “category” of literature is now dictated by the global market. For a work to be “admissible” in the West, it must fit a specific narrative of anti-colonial resistance or exoticism. This creates a feedback loop where writers from the Global South produce works that satisfy the theoretical cravings of Western departments of “Post-Colonial Studies.”

Ahmad’s essay serves as a rigorous defense of historical materialism. He insists that we cannot understand literature by grouping it into abstract geographical categories. Instead, we must look at the specific class formations and material conditions of the society in which the text was produced. By dismantling the “Third World” category, Ahmad calls for a more nuanced, socialist approach to global literary studies.

Key Takeaway: For Ahmad, the “category” is a tool of containment. It flattens the vast linguistic and political diversity of non-Western societies into a digestible, singular “other” for Western consumption.

SI. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Describe the relationship between nation and literature.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Discuss the concept of ecocriticism.	K3	CO3	PO3
3.	Explain the role of context in literary interpretation.	K2	CO3	PO3
4.	Describe the connection between literature and ideology.	K3	CO3	PO3
5.	Identify the scope of Indian literary theory.	K2	CO2	PO2

SI.	Questions	LOCF Mapping
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No.		Level	CO	PO
Essay Questions				
1.	Analyze Aijaz Ahmad's critique of the concept of "Indian Literature."	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Discuss the role of humanism in shaping literary thought.	K4	CO4	PO4
3.	Analyze the theoretical framework of new historicism.	K4	CO4	PO4
4.	Evaluate the influence of socio-political context on literature.	K5	CO5	PO5
5.	Critically examine the intersection of ideology and literary production.	K6	CO6	PO6