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Review Essay: Recovering Thirties Fiction

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1	Recoveries	1
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4	With the following presentations by Elinor Taylor and Joseph Pridmore of a	4
5	number of working-class- and left-oriented novels from the 1930s, Key Words	5
6	is inaugurating a new regular feature, aimed at the recovery and re-assessment	6
7	of neglected, marginalised or forgotten figures and texts from radical, socialist	7
8	and labour history. Readers are invited to propose suitable subjects for	8
9	future issues, and to submit, should they wish, their own contributions for	9
10	consideration. Should review copies of nominated books be required, please	10
11	contact the reviews editor with full details of publication at stan.smith@ntu.	11
12	ac.uk, and we shall endeavour to obtain them.	12
13		13
14		14
15	Recovering Thirties Fiction	15
16		16
17	Introduction	17
18	In 1989 Andy Croft outlined the prevailing myths about the literature of the	18
19	1930s, Auden's 'low dishonest decade'. In the wake of the renunciation by	19
20 21	so many writers of their youthful commitment to the 'God that failed', 1 the	20 21
22	period came to be seen as one characterised by 'a naïve, careless and treacherous	22
23	literature of zealotry'. Croft argued against the tendency to reduce 1930s	23
24	writing to the work of a small group of familiar names - Auden, Spender,	24
25	MacNeice, Day Lewis, Orwell and Isherwood – and against over-dependence	25
26	on their subsequent recantations, which had created the image of the 1930s	26
27	as 'politically gutted, imaginatively emptied' (Croft, 169). Croft wondered	27
28	what version of the 1930s might take the public imagination from a different	28
29	selection of texts and authors: instead of A.J. Cronin, Lewis Jones; instead of	29
30	Winifred Holtby, Storm Jameson (154).	30
31	A survey of recently reissued novels of the 1930s suggests that the	31
32	political and imaginative possibilities of the decade are being recovered. The	32
33	Library of Wales has republished Lewis Jones's Cumardy and We Live, and	33
34	Jack Jones's Black Parade. New editions of John Sommerfield's May Day and	34
35	Simon Blumenfeld's Jew Boy have recently reappeared from London Books.	35
35	The list could also include Storm Jameson's In the Second Year (Trent Editions,	35
37		37
38	1 See Arthur Koestler et al., The God that Failed: Six Studies in Communism (London: Hamish	38
39	Hamilton, 1950).	39
40	2 Andy Croft, 'Forward to the 1930s: The Literary Politics of Anamnesis', in ed. Christopher Shaw and Malcolm Chase, The Imagined Past: History and Nostalgia (Manchester: Manchester	40
41	University Press, 1989), 151.	41

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2004) and the New York Review of Books Classics edition of Sylvia Townsend 1 Warner's Summer Will Show (2009). A long out-of-print novel of the Battle of 2 Cable Street, Frank Griffin's October Day, has also recently been republished 3 with an introduction by Croft to coincide with the seventy-fifth anniversary 4 of that event. Meanwhile the Association for Scottish Literary Studies has 5 produced a volume of two novels by the Glasgow writer Dot Allan, including her distinctive 1934 work Hunger March.

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The reappearance of such texts as Sommerfield's and Lewis Jones's is indicative of the ambiguous presence of the 1930s in the popular imagination. In one way, their appearance might be a sign of the decline of Communism as an ideological bête noire. The kind of fervent renunciation of Communism that shaped the 1930s myth in the postwar era has begun to seem remote. In another way, the recovery of these texts might be seen as an affirmation of the renewed relevance of that decade. Since 2008 the 1930s has become the standard reference point for discussing the current economic crisis.³ The restaging of the Jarrow March in late 2011, the seventy-fifth anniversary of the original event, suggests the continuing resonance of that decade as a by-word for crisis.

The ambiguities of our present relation to the 1930s can be found in the way the republished texts are presented. Take, for example, John Sommerfield's May Day. The novelist John King's introduction to the book seems at points to be 21 offering a kind of apology for Sommerfield's politics, while still asserting that 'Idealistic literature, whether naïve or not, is more important than ever' (16). King presents Sommerfield as an optimistic and sociable man whose 'belief in the individual' underpinned his strategy in the novel (12). It is not easy to concur on this second point. The strategy of the text can just as easily be read as working very deliberately against the over-valuation of the individual in an attempt to shift its emphasis on to specifically social relations. Sam Jordison's Guardian review of the republished novel amounted to a denunciation of its ('spectacularly wrong') political premises, while acknowledging clear parallels to the present-day. The novel, Jordison suggested, was a failure because it did not depict problems in an 'individual' enough manner.⁵ It is apparent that the 32 myth of the 'red decade', in which writers naively aligned themselves with Communism to the detriment of their art, still persists. The cliché is only bolstered by the reprinting of Sommerfield's own reappraisal of his text,

See, for example, Jon Hilsenrath, Serena Ng and Damian Paletta, 'Worst Crisis Since '30s, With No End Yet In Sight', Wall Street Journal (18 September 2008): online edition.

John Sommerfield, May Day (1936; London: London Books, 2010). Introduction by John 40

Sam Jordison, 'A Misplaced May Day Dream for the Masses', at guardian.co.uk, 29 April 2011

written for its republication in 1984, which, while not quite a declaration of apostasy, expresses the author's rather predictable assessment of it as 'early '30s Communist romanticism' ('Postscript', Sommerfield, 243).

Hywel Francis's foreword to the Library of Wales volume of Lewis Jones's two novels Cwmardy and We Live expresses a comparable set of anxieties.⁶ Francis almost seems to want to detach Jones from his role in the Communist 6 Party. Jones, Francis writes, was 'a mayerick in the best sense of the word', and certainly not a party 'apparatchik' (x). It might be nearer the mark to say that 8 Jones was both these things. It is disingenuous to overlook the fact that he was a major organisational force in the Party. That Francis wants to paint Iones as a rambunctious and mischievous character is to reprise the assumption that there was a clear distinction between those Communists who were puppets of the Party and those who, for well-meaning but mistaken reasons, aligned themselves with it. Francis's reasons for characterising Jones like this are, of course, not difficult to grasp, nor should they be dismissed. It may well be necessary to bring the author to life this way at a time when ideological commitment is viewed with great suspicion. Jones, like Sommerfield, is presented as the antithesis of the ideologue: he is remembered for his 'love of the people and compassion' (xi). These reservations about presentation are minor, and outweighed by the value of the novels themselves in helping to recover, albeit in a mediated way, another view of the 1930s: of possibility as well as failure. I shall discuss at greater length below two writers whose work provides the opportunity for a rather different vision of the era.

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Frank Griffin: October Day

The recent republication of Frank Griffin's 1939 novel of the Battle of Cable Street, October Day, is another sign of this more positive attitude to the decade. Republished by New London Editions to coincide with the seventy-fifth anniversary of that event, when the British Union of Fascists were prevented by popular opposition, organised by the Communist Party and others, from marching through the East End of London, the novel follows a cast of Londoners brought together, more of less accidentally, by a groundswell of popular outrage at the BUF's intentions. Griffin uses a comparable technical strategy to that of Sommerfield: a group of characters whose narratives crisscross the political action taking shape in the city. The bus conductor Bert, 'a picture of progressive youth' (59), forms a relationship with the homeless and unhappy Elsie, recently released from prison; the unemployed and harassed

Lewis Jones, Cwmardy; & We Live (1937; 1939. Cardigan: Parthian: Library of Wales, 2006). Foreword by Hywel Francis.

Frank Griffin, October Day (1939; Nottingham: Five Leaves Publications, 2011).

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Joe Slesser escapes the irritations of his impoverished domestic situation to 1 go to the march, where he strikes up a friendship with a Communist couple, 2 Claire and Calvin. Meanwhile a policeman, Harold Thurgood, who has been 3 conducting an affair with the dissipated widow Lady Stroud, who is also Elsie's 4 former employer, is on duty at the march. Griffin was a Communist Party 5 5 member, and the text has its didactic moments. Claire and Calvin function mainly to provide a political commentary for the benefit of the other 7 characters, often in a long-winded and rather unrealistic manner. This is odd, since elsewhere in the text Griffin demonstrates an excellent ear for dialogue. 9 Perhaps deliberately, however, Calvin's sermonising tendencies can also appear 10 comic. The manic intensity with which he accosts the hapless and initially apolitical Joe does seem humorously overblown: "Of course it's right!" Calvin exclaimed, and turned again to Slesser, seizing him by the lapels of his coat' 13 (95).14

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October Day's vision of political action is a vision of a community in carnival mode, of a 'mighty and glorious festival' (125). Occasionally it 16 becomes cartoonish, as when "But just wait till there's t'revolution," declares an old woman, "Then there'll be sights, there won't 'arf!" before throwing a rock at Lady Stroud's car, "The thin-gutted, staring cow!" (110). Apparently anticipating these objections, the 'Author's Note' assures the reader that the scenes contained are based on the facts as recorded by the cameramen of the newspaper, 'to which any doubting reader is referred' (13). There are moments where the propagandist line seems a too strong, as, for example, when Lady Stroud declares that "What we need in England is a strong man at the top, someone like Hitler, to keep these people in order" (175). It is a commonplace that such views were held in such circles, but the dialogue nonetheless feels forced.

Griffin's Joe emerges as a human being: contrary, often naïve, drily humorous in spite of his circumstances. His eventual politicisation, which amounts to nothing more radical than a decision to join a union, comes as a consequence of discovering that both fascism and the state are, in the novel, indiscriminate 31 in the targets of their violence. He is more indignant than furious: 'He hadn't 32 caused the rotten trouble. He was neither a Red nor a Black. He hadn't charged at the van and tried to bash up the fascists, but they'd tried to get him for it just 34 the same as if he had' (78). He ends up in a fight with a group of Fascists who mistake him for a Jew, in spite of his indignant protestations to the contrary (165).

However, this is above all a novel of human relationships forged, intensified and transformed by the experience of collective action, and demonstrates that, in spite of contemporary scepticism, explorations of political development need not negate the credible depiction of individual lives and struggles. At 41

the novel's end, Elsie has moved into Bert's flat, and Joe has made things up with his wife, who he realises is as much a victim of circumstances as he is: 2 'It's this being on the dole, her having to worry about the food and the rent 3 and the kids, that does it' (218). Thurgood's affair with Lady Stroud has turned 4 sour, and, after nearly strangling her to death, he commits suicide. Griffin's 5 novel lacks the experimental reach of Sommerfield's, and works from less theoretically-involved premises. May Day begins with an epigraph from Marx, and is overt about its attempt to fashion a narrative method out of dialectical materialism: 'In this whirlpool of matter-in-motion, forces are at work creating history ... Every true story of today is the story of this struggle. 8 Griffin, though a Communist, starts and ends with a simpler proposition: 'If you stood together you could 11 win; you were invincible. There were so many of you that no power on earth could resist you, once you stood together.'9 Griffin's community, united in anti-fascist action, is likely to be less 'spectacularly wrong' for contemporary 14 readers than Sommerfield's jarring 'Demonstrate for a free Soviet Britain!' It 15 is a fast-paced, funny and human account of an event now disappearing from 16 living memory, supported by Croft's detailed introduction that frames the text 17 with biographical detail and original reviews. 18

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Dot Allan: Makeshift and Hunger March¹¹

Questions of authorial politics in the depiction of social upheaval are unavoidably raised when reading the republished edition of two novels about interwar Glasgow life, Dot Allan's Makeshift and Hunger March, originally published in 1928 and 1934 respectively. Allan was a middle-class woman who made a career as a journalist, novelist, and short story writer at a time when it was still unusual for a woman of her background to do so. The introductory essay by Moira Burgess is enlightening: a thoroughly researched and informative background to a writer who is no longer well known. Biographical information about Allan is scant. Burgess draws attention to her involvement with Scottish PEN, though the details of the duration and extent of her participation are too sparse to support any conclusions about its relevance to the novels presented here, as Burgess acknowledges. However, her comments on Allan's involvement are suggestive. She reports that in 1950, along with several other significant women writers, including Marion Lochhead and Elisabeth Kyle, Allan undertook fundraising work for PEN. Of this activity, Burgess makes the rather odd comment that, 'In the interests of Scottish literature

- 38 Sommerfield, May Day, 26. Griffin, October Day, 162.
- 39 Sommerfield, May Day, 26.
- 40
- Dot Allan, Makeshift and Hunger March (1928; 1934). Introduction by Moira Burgess 41 (Glasgow: Association for Scottish Literary Studies, 2010).

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one would rather have seen these considerable writers getting on with their 1 writing, as, it appears, all the men were doing' (xi). There is perhaps something 2 of a throwaway tone to this comment, but it does indicate a critical tendency 3 to assume that a writer's best interests are served by a refusal to engage with 4 political activity, and that such engagements can only be to the detriment of the writer's work. The Glasgow Herald considered Allan's involvement with the organisation significant enough to describe her as 'a strong supporter' in its 7 obituary, 12 which might suggest a more sustained and principled commitment 8 than Burgess's characterisation allows for.

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The lack of information available would be less problematic if Allan had 10 not written, in *Hunger March*, an intensely, but very elusively, political work. This novel raises considerable problems with the terms in which Allan is presented. Burgess acknowledges the weaknesses of her writing, chiefly its melodramatic tendencies and its faltering attempts to construct credible working-class characters. Both these are genuine problems with her work. Burgess's tone is in one way apologetic, but there is also an excusatory note: 'Perhaps, as a West 16 End lady and a dutiful daughter, she was shackled by the inhibiting influence of the very conventions she depicts, and felt she could not go so far' (xxii). This may well be a reasonable speculation, but it casts a particular light on the novels themselves. The two novels are strikingly different from one another. Makeshift, originally published in 1928, concerns an aspiring middle-class poet, Jacqueline Thayer, and her negotiation of the demands of family and romance with her quest for self-expression. It contains some striking phrases, but is overall a quite conventional novel, bound to a rather Victorian plot in which freedom comes from an unexpected inheritance, allowing Jacqueline both to escape the prospect of an unsatisfactory marriage and to pursue artistic selffulfilment. The naïve Jacqueline finds herself at the mercy of men and, of 'the cruel snobbery of the servant class 'in her pursuit of escape from a life in which she is always expected to 'make shift' and be content with 'second best' (143).

Alongside the work of contemporaries such as Sylvia Townsend Warner 31 and Rosamond Lehmann, Allan's Makeshift seems conservative. It does little to prepare the reader for the second novel republished here, Hunger March. This novel, which originally appeared in 1934, is a deeply strange and unsettling piece of work. At the level of structure, it resembles both Sommerfield's May Day and Griffin's October Day. It is a narrative of short scenes confined to a single day, featuring a range of characters all linked in some way by the hunger march about to convene in Glasgow's George Square. Like May Day and October Day, Hunger March features no single main protagonist, moving

'Obituary: Dot Allan, Novelist and Journalist', The Glasgow Herald, 4 December 1964,17.

instead between several clusters of characters. One group is comprised of a 1 middle-class woman, Mrs MacGregor, her employee, Mrs Humphry, and Mrs 2 Humphrey's unemployed son, Joe. Another cluster involves Arthur Joyce, a 3 businessman grieving for his son, lost in the First World War, and Joyce's two 4 clerks, Charlie Wren and Celia. Another, looser narrative thread brings together 5 Jimmy, a journalist, Adèle Elberstein, a singer in Glasgow for a concert, and Carlo, an Italian hotel worker under Mussolini's regime. A Communist leader, Hamish Nimrod, makes several brief appearances. The narrative, like Sommerfield's, shifts between these characters, sketching out the connections and intersections of their lives.

But where Sommerfield announces his intent with the words of Marx and with a meditation on the forces of history, Allan's novel begins with a long, strange 'Proem' that establishes *Hunger March*'s unsettling premise:

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The first hunger march took place in Egypt. Joseph's sons, the ten brethren of Joseph, come to seek corn when the famine was in their own land, the land of Canaan, were the first hunger marchers. They marched, not as our ex-servicemen, our neo-pagans, our paid incendiaries, our honest men and our Communist do, brandishing crude weapons, shouting defiance, but in the peaceful manner of a pastoral people whose faith in neighbourly charity is undefiled. (195)

This image, taken from the Book of Genesis, reveals the moralising tendency of the novel as a whole. Hunger marches for Allan seem to have a metaphysical aspect as instances of a perpetual injustice. These opening phrases reveal a troubling belief in an orderly, moral kind of suffering. The 'peaceful manner of a pastoral people' seems to be preferable to the modern hunger march, with its threatening, disorderly tones. This characterisation of modern urban protest continues: 'So, centuries later, modern hunger marches, bearing rude weapons, blaring harsh music, were to encircles our cities' squares, our Government buildings, voicing the prayer of Joseph's brethren: Give Us Bread!' (198). This is written from the point of view of the disturbed spectator. Allan's phrasing suggests that history is something that happens to people, apparently without reason or agency: Paris awoke to the cry one wet October morning in the early days of the French Revolution' (198). The novel seems to abhor the untidiness and inconvenience the march brings, lamenting that, far from being 'a splendid outpouring of humanity knit together by a common cause', the march becomes 'a shuffling mob trailing half-heartedly at the heels of their leaders; a mob wasting its strength in shouts of imprecation, in paroxysms of passion as objectless as they are pitiful to behold' (203). This distaste is coupled with an anti-technological streak running through the text. The generation

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marching now are 'made outcast, one half, by the machine' (200). Man still 1 asserts his 'right to live' above the din of the machines, but the integrity of this 2 entreaty seems to have been lost and corrupted: 'His brain, addled by confused 3 justice, by the jargon of diverse politicians, and stupefied by the incessant din 4 of clattering machinery, works only in spurts' (201).

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The narrator of the 'Proem' declares that there is a moral and spiritual 6 obligation to assist, but this appears as a philanthropic, not a political impulse. 7 Throughout the text the march appears as a kind of memento mori: 'There but 8 for the grace of God, go I!' (201). A mixture of presumption and indifference 9 tends to characterise Allan's treatment of the poor. This is apparent when Arthur Joyce's clerk, Celia, tries 'to imagine what it would feel like to be 11 unemployed, to go from day to day weighted by a sense of failure (237). Celia has already decided exactly what unemployment must be like: she assumes it 13 is attended by a debilitating sense of failure. Thus the empathetic effort she is making is superfluous. Mrs Humphrey's employer, Mrs MacGregor, looks upon the marchers with the kind of baffled pity that is the novel's dominant reaction. She wonders: 'had they assembled here of their own free will with the object of displaying, as Eastern beggars do, their sores to the world?' (370). Hunger March is not insensitive to the indignity of unemployment, but 19 its expressions of that apprehension are troubling. The cub reporter limmy, whose own class position is far from secure, wonders about the unemployed man drawing his dole: 'Did it ever occur to him he was an unwelcome guest of the white-collar brigade, that his needs were draining its resources, choking like a heap of filth a strong clear stream?' (322). It occurs to Jimmy that perhaps the 'white collar brigade' has not made such a good job of things, but he too lapses into the anti-technological assumptions made elsewhere. The problem, he thinks, is that the 'workshops were so cluttered' and thus there are not enough clear spaces open to the sky' (323). The novel's insights into social injustice, to which it is certainly not blind, break down because they continually dissolve into such anti-modern generality.

A generalised preference for order over disorder emerges clearly and troublingly in the plotline concerning the Italian hotel employee, Carlo, a refugee from Mussolini's regime. On hearing of the march, Carlo is so frightened by the prospect of unrest and disorder that he commits suicide. It is 'a dread of political meddlers, of Fascists, of all who dare authority and dabble in affairs of state' that disturbs the balance of Carlo's mind and provokes him to suicide (253). His body is glimpsed by the singer Adèle Elberstein, who interprets it as a sign of the horrors that lurk in the attic rooms of the servant 38 class from which, thanks to her sexual manipulation of men, she has escaped: 'Top floor, typical top floor' (318).

Carlo's violent death, however, resonates ironically. In spite of his terror of unrest, at no point in the novel does the hunger march present any threat to 2 order beyond a temporary disturbance. This ironic undermining of the march's 3 significance is most clear in the treatment of the unemployed character, Joe, 4 son of the long-suffering Mrs. Humphrey. Joe's limited experience of the 5 world, occasioned by his inability to find work and consequent complete dependence on his mother, leads him to a naïve commitment to Communism. His inexperience conspires with his reading of Marxist writers to condition a Pavlovian kind of response: 'any stray orator had only to utter the words "tyrants", "capitalists", to touch the little live switch which lit up the boy's brain' (246). Joe's mother thinks he has 'some dark strain of his blood which 11 rebelled against life as it was. Joe wanted to destroy things, to smash them for all the world like a wee laddie who has no more sense that to break up its toys' (342). One plotline in the novel follows Joe as he assaults one of Joyce's clerks, and, believing that he has killed him, flees: 'He hadn't struck intentionally 16 at a human being, alive and palpitating like himself. He had only hit out at Capitalism, at cruelty. And they would hang him for that' (313). Temporarily, 17 he feels surrounded by 'an air of importance' (311). But it is no surprise to 18 discover that the clerk recovers fully; in *Hunger March* it seems impossible that 19 Joe could ever do anything of any consequence. His belief that he has struck a blow in the class war is ridiculed as simply the fantasy of a young, workless man. The association of the march with young male impulses is reiterated by Arthur Joyce, the businessman, who sees the procession as boys, boys of all nations, a host of pink-cheeked, confiding youths like [his son] Jerry, ready for 24 the sake of the wingéd dream conceived by their ardent minds to run their breasts upon a spear' (332). In Joyce's eyes, the demonstration is no different from the First World War: an expression of young men's willingness to die for 28 a cause.

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Ultimately, what is offered is a decidedly individualist set of solutions. The technocratic order - bringing with it the loud noise and chaos that is so abhorred in the novel - has produced an overcrowded world from which 31 escape must be made. Charlie Wren has an extraordinary vision of the hunger march eventually encircling the whole world: a great protest against 33 'a God who had put them into the world and then left them to fend in it for themselves' and in which each was 'fighting neither for nation nor for party; he was fighting neither for supremacy nor for riches, but simply to gain a foothold in an overcrowded world' (409). For Charlie, as for Celia, the only way through this vision of total war is through marriage, the 'protection of man and woman from that terrible loneliness inseparable from life in an overcrowded realm', a partial release from the 'struggle to communicate' (406). For Jimmy, the resolution is a full spiritual conversion. He decides to follow his father and

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grandfather into the Church, believing, at the novel's close, that 'freedom of 1 the spirit has nothing to do with one's way of living' (421). He believes that 2 'no kind of political adjustment, no state of Communism, or of perfervid Nationalism was going to save the country' (421).

Hunger March is an extraordinary piece of imaginative work, unsettling not 5 because its grasp of politics is slight, but because it is written with the full force of moral and ideological conviction. The terms in which this republished text is presented, as the work of a middle-class woman, rather inexperienced and inept at dealing with the realities of social injustice, seem inadequate for interpreting the strength of its assertions. The novel's ironic structures serve 10 to deprive its working-class characters of agency to an extent that is difficult 11 to attribute to simple lack of familiarity. A more thorough analysis would pursue the ironic currents of the text, to give a fuller account of its complex configurings of the relation between individuals and the impersonal forces on which the novel is premised. Moreover to construct an account of 1930s 15 writing that is not, in Croft's phrase, 'politically gutted, imaginatively emptied' demands an appraisal of such texts as Allan's alongside the more politically clear-cut work of Sommerfield, Griffin and Jones. Historical distance, and the profound alteration of the political landscape, has meant that the work of these three writers may be read in a less hostile light than they would have encountered in earlier decades. The same distance should enable a reevaluation of works such as Allan's, which resounds with political messages no less alien and radical.

> Elinor Taylor 24 Regent's College, London 25

Walter Brierley: Means-Test Man

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Raymond Williams's lifelong involvement with working-class life and history pervades all his extensive body of sociocultural studies, novels and literary engagements, while his pioneering of recovery research for neglected and overlooked working-class writing helped shape this field of study as we know it today. Key Words is therefore an appropriate forum in which to talk about Means-Test Man, Walter Brierley's superior working-class novel of 1935, reprinted in a new edition by Spokesman in 2011. This reappearance might strike a note more ominous than celebratory, however, in the light of that 37 novel's publication history. As with its mid-1930s first edition and the previous Spokesman reprint of 1983, a worsening economic climate has made Brierley's account of the damaging effects of long-term unemployment all too topical.

The latest edition's back-cover copy is quick to remind us of this, and Andy Croft's introduction to the 1983 version, also reproduced here, has taken on the same relevance now that it had then.

Croft's name will be familiar to readers of *Key Words*, and his *Red Letter Days:* 4 British Fiction in the 1930s remains the authoritative text on the literary moment 5 to which Brierley belongs.² In his introduction he contends that *Means-Test* 6 Man is 'one of the most powerful and original English novels of the 1930s'.³ Croft argues that its especial strength comes from Brierley's focus on the 8 implications of joblessness and dependency on state relief entirely within the individual experience of one small family, as they spend a week waiting for the visit of the eponymous government inspector. This approach eschews a much more common tendency in 1930s working-class writing, which was to adopt socialist-inflected themes of mass resistance and collective action. These are all but absent from Means-Test Man, a silence that has proved both controversial and provocative for those tackling the novel.

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Methuen, the original publishers, boasted in 1935 that 'It is almost the duty of every intelligent British man and woman to read this book [...] and to face up to the facts in it'. 4 Many favourable early reviews agreed: Croft describes in his introduction glowing write-ups from the *Economist* and *TLS*, and adds Oliver Baldwin's remark that 'every MP should read it'. 5 Croft also notes one dissenting voice, however, that 'was to set the tone for subsequent responses from the Left to the novel' (xiii). It belonged to Ernie Wooley, who wrote in the Daily Worker:

The weakness of the book, recognizable, perhaps, only to those who have experienced long periods of unemployment is that the unemployed worker who sits timidly at home waiting for the investigator is not the rule, but the exception [...] A book which brought out this fighting spirit of the unemployed would have been a much greater use to the working-class'.6

Wooley's militant tone is more than just bluster. The 'fighting spirit of the unemployed' he refers to had been demonstrated in the decade and a half leading up to Means-Test Man's year of publication, by which time five of the six National Unemployed Workers' Movement hunger marches on London had taken place, as too had two of the three Jarrow Marches. Though these achieved only little in terms of immediate state assistance, they succeeded in

- Andy Croft, Red Letter Days: British Fiction in the 1930s (London: Lawrence & Wishart, 1990).
- 38 Brierley, Means-Test Man, xv.
- Christopher Hilliard, To Exercise our Talents: The Democratization of Writing in Britain (Cambridge, MA and London: Harvard University Press, 2006), 148. 40
- Brierley, Means-Test Man, xii.
 - The Daily Worker, 22 May 1935; cited in Brierley, xiii.

Walter Brierley, Means-Test Man (1935); Nottingham: Spokesman, 2011.

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galvanising unemployed workers into repeated political action on a nationwide 1 level. This is not even to mention the General Strike of 1926, the Great Lock-2 out of 1921, or such earlier events as the transport strikes of 1911–12 which occurred during Brierley's childhood. In an earlier issue of Key Words I wrote, 4 with an unknowing echo of Wooley that has become appropriate here, that by the mid-1930s 'Collective social protest was the historical norm rather than the exception'.8

In working-class writing published around the same time as Means-Test Man this 'fighting spirit' is more starkly evident than in Brierley's novel. Walter 9 Greenwood, Lewis Jones and James Hanley, for example, all wrote novels in the 1930s that feature strikes or collective mass action, and not merely in the spirit of passively reflecting contemporary social conditions of the time. Rather, these social conditions have a decisive bearing on plot and character 13 development. In Greenwood's Love on the Dole (1933), for example, the agitator Larry Meath dies as a result of injuries inflicted by police batons during a demonstration. Hanley's *The Furys*, published in the same year as *Means-Test* Man, contains a mass gathering to protest such institutionalised brutality and also a strike which, according to one of the characters, is in support of coal miners: "They want us to support the miners. Poor bastards! They always do it dirty on the miners".'10

We might reasonably expect Means-Test Man's Jack Cook, who is an unemployed miner, to take more than a passing interest in such matters while they are occurring up and down the country. Instead, though, Brierley shows us a world where it's next to impossible to imagine anyone in the village of Wingrove (a slightly fictionalised version of Waingroves in Derbyshire, the author's birthplace) rising up in industrial action or organised protest. The closest Jack ever comes to engaging with such debates is in Chapter Two, 'Sunday', for him 'The worst day of the week, the most trying, the most deadening', 11 and 'a dangerous day, too, when a moment's weakness might lead to the very core of domestic accord being poisoned or ripped away' (66). His interior monologue continues:

But there was no danger of that from his side, his hate was general, not 33 based on envy of another. He softened as he came down to particulars, his wife, his child, another out-of-work; he did not feel like breaking shop

- 35 For a full account, see Peter Kingsford, The Hunger Marchers in Britain (London: Lawrence & 37
- 38 See my article 'Gender and Community in Working-Class Writing', Key Words 5 (2007–8), 39
- Walter Greenwood, Love on the Dole (London: Jonathan Cape, 1933).
- James Hanley, The Furys (1935; Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1985), 106.
- Brierley, Means-Test Man, 64.

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windows for their sakes or chivvying Members of Parliament; it was just a sorrow, just a sadness because things were as they were. (66–7)

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3 lack's perspective on violent protest is simply to dismiss the concept, in generalising terms, as something that exists outside his experience. Conflicts 5 in the personal and domestic spheres, meanwhile, are far more important and take precedence. This is symptomatic of the novel as a whole. Jane's attitudes, by contrast, are somewhat more complex. There are four separate instances in the novel's week-long span where Jane displays accord, albeit of the crudest 9 possible kind, with radical ideologies. These politicised moments are sudden 10 flashes and often occur as a direct response to external stimuli - one, for example, happens when Jane is jolted out of a pleasant reverie by a woman who 12 barges past her in the street, and another when her infant son John comes home 13 crying after being hit by their loutish neighbour Mr. Jinks. For all that these incidents fill her with ire, Jane remains politically ill-informed. She grasps basic 15 notions of inequality, as is revealed by such internal reflections as 'Thousands 16 of harassed men, women and children were penned in with them, beings with no independence, no freedom, underfed, underclothed, not trusted' (55), but 18 although we are told 'behind her hate and anger was a strong activity reaching 19 out towards something definite' (102), she never arrives at it. In her rage over 20 Jinks's behaviour, Jane almost immediately conflates the man with a cabinet minister whose picture she remembers seeing in the paper: 'In that moment 22 she had felt near her enemy somehow ... A suggestion of wildness had swept 23 her' (102). The connections Jane draws to relate lived experience to a wider external politics are arbitrary, and as with her husband (albeit via a somewhat 25 different route) any attempt to do so inevitably leads her back to her personal 26 and private sufferings: the difficulty of running a household on state benefits, her material deprivations, and the impending humiliation of the Means-Test 28 man's visit. 29

One can see how the character of Jane might have been turned to comic effect by an author seeking to trivialise the growing trend towards violent political protest in 1930s Britain. Brierley, however, takes care to never reduce her to a twentieth-century Mrs. Malaprop, generating mere humour by putting her own flawed interpretations onto matters which the reader understands far better. The resultant impression of Jane is far darker and more disturbing. Her incipient socialism grants her only a means of indulging the self-destructive anger and hatred engendered by her circumstances, not a productive outlet for those emotions. Although we may not be able to picture her joining a picket line or participating in a riot, Brierley illustrates plainly that her 'strong moods' (101), to use Jane's own phrase, are a damaging force to her personal happiness and the fragile domestic harmony of the Cook household.

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Here, as elsewhere in the novel, Brierley might be heard to sound a 1 cautionary note about the extreme forms of political activism. Such elements 2 of Means-Test Man may have influenced the conclusion of critics such as 3 Wooley and, more recently, Roy Johnson, that the author appeared not radical 4 enough for his radical era, too much of an establishment figure, somehow 5 not quite authentically working-class. Andy Croft cites in his introduction Johnson's assertion that Brierley, 'in every possible way [...] represents the 7 working man as the middle-class would like him to be; but not, fortunately, as 8 he often is' (xiv). 12 In this interpretation, Jack Cook and his creator become 9 a conciliatory voice in a world steadily descending into unrest, crying out for 10 good old-fashioned working-class endurance, constancy and above all, calm, in the face of increasingly uncertain times.

Such assessments of Means-Test Man not only fail to give due consideration to Brierley's project of articulating the Cook family crisis only in the terms that they themselves understood, but also overlook a fundamental characteristic of the world he depicts. There is simply little potential for unrest in Wingrove, as there is hardly any unemployment. What we see is a pit village that is getting by more or less as well as it has ever done, in which Jack and the handful of other out-of-work characters are very much in a small minority. On each of the five weekday mornings of the novel, Jack listens to a veritable parade of hobnailedbooted workers tramping past his home along the one high street:

Some were close, just on the other side of the hedge, others were on the far side of the road; men's voices and steps were slow, dragging at times, boys and young men seemed more cheerful, laughs passed among them and happy banter about girls and sport. Salutes, invariably 'Mornin', were exchanged as the miners going up to the Pirley and Pentland pits met those going down the hill to Tenby, Blackley, and the mines in the little valley below Pinton.¹³

With five different locales boasting operational pits, all within walking distance, this small corner of Derbyshire seems to be positively booming. As Croft reminds us, Brierley is writing of the Notts-Derby coalfield, where employment figures were comparatively high (xv), while the mass unemployment and consequent organised working-class protest that lies behind Wooley's invocation of a 'fighting spirit' was much more characteristic

12 Croft calls our attention to Johnson's 'The Proletarian Novel', Literature and History 2 (October 1975), 84-95, and 'Walter Brierley: Proletarian Writing', Red Letters 2 (Summer

Brierley, Means-Test Man, 94.

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of urban centres, particularly Liverpool and Manchester. 14 The nearest city to 1 Wingrove is Derby, ten miles away, which in the 1930s as now was a relatively 2 small and rural county seat with 'little tradition of trade-union militancy or 3 political activity'. ¹⁵ Brierley is aware, more than many of his detractors, of the determining influence of local milieu on personal and collective working-class 5 experience. 6

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From the beginning to the end of the novel Jack wrestles ceaselessly with feelings of angst, ostracism, restlessness and shame, not so much because he has no job but because most of the other men he knows do. This turmoil is played out to such an extent that some readers may lose patience before the conclusion. But Brierley means us to understand that any frustration or exasperation we may feel is more than shared by his hero. Jack's feelings are drawn wholly from Brierley's personal experience. In an early published piece he wrote of how 'the dependence on the state for money without having honestly earned it has made me creep within myself, losing faith in everything except my own capabilities, closely examining, sometimes even suspecting, friendly gestures' (xv). Much the same is what faces Jack in Means-Test Man. He refuses to be seen in the street when the pits let out and colliers returning home might meet him, and takes his Sunday walks in a neighbouring village where nobody knows him by sight. His reason for this is simply that he is receiving Public Assistance, and believes that in Wingrove 'The villagers knew all this and some pitied, some looked the other way, fearing pauperism to be infectious or as a state incompatible with their own' (80). On buying a concessionary ticket for a cricket match, 'Anger, hate, bitterness coursed through him, he burned with some kind of shame' (28), while even accepting a cigarette from a man who happens to be in work prompts a paragraph of agonising. When Jack is queueing in the Labour Exchange waiting to sign on, his thoughts express the extent of the abjection and outcast status he attaches to those in his condition:

One thing was common to all the different types in the queue without a name - to every member of every type: in some it was stronger than in others, but the consciousness of being below was there – being below the normal level of living in other senses than the economic. This fact was patent when the men were in the Exchange, more so than when they were in the street, for the very presence of the manager or supervisor brought

14 See Harold Hikins (ed.), Building the Union: Studies on the Growth of the Workers' Movement, Merseyside 1756–1967 (Liverpool: Toulouse Press, 1973) and Strike: The Liverpool Transport Workers' Strike 1911 (Liverpool: Toulouse Press, 1980); and Bob Holton, British Syndicalism 1900–1914: Myths and Realities (London: Pluto Press, 1976).

15 Brierley, Means-Test Man, xv.

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a silence about the rank, there was a kind of fear that a word might bring 1 official eyes on them to their detriment. (168–9)

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For many readers this may chime discordantly with George Orwell's words in The Road to Wigan Pier. 16 Writing of how he met unemployed workers on his return from Burma in 1928, Orwell states: 'the thing that horrified and amazed me was to find that many of them were ashamed of being unemployed [...] the attitude towards unemployment in those days [was that] it was a disaster which happened to you as an individual and for which you were to blame' (78–9). However, Orwell charted a decided shift in working-class attitudes over the nine years between that time and the publication of Wigan Pier. In an oft-quoted exemplum, he imagines two fictitious coal-miners and asserts that 12 ten years ago, it was the case that 'So long as Bert Jones across the street is still at work, Alf Smith is bound to feel himself dishonoured and a failure. Hence that frightful feeling of impotence and despair which is almost the worst evil of unemployment' (79). This, however, had changed by 1937:

When people live on the dole for years at a time they grow used to it, and drawing the dole, though it remains unpleasant, ceases to be shameful. Thus the old, independent, workhouse-fearing tradition is undermined, just as the ancient fear of debt is undermined by the hire-purchase system. In the back streets of Wigan and Barnsley I saw every kind of privation, but I probably saw much less conscious misery than I should have seen ten years ago. The people have at any rate grasped that unemployment is a thing they cannot help. It is not only Alf Smith who is out of work now; Bert Jones is out of work as well, and both of them have been 'out' for years. It makes a great deal of difference when things are the same for everybody. (80–1)

There's a danger in setting too much store by the sweeping statements of George Orwell – Wigan Pier in particular contains some famously dubious ones - but even if we take his words to reflect a broad reality, Jack Cook becomes an anachronistic figure. Just two years before Orwell's book, so close to the end of the decade of change he identifies, and after three years of unemployment, Jack's feelings remain identical to those of Alf Smith in the first instance. There's no fellow-feeling with the Bert Joneses, and certainly no sense that joblessness in Jack's community is tolerable because everybody's in the same boat. The examples from Brierley's novel above, especially the sequence in the Labour Exchange, illustrate clearly enough that in Wingrove drawing the dole is still both unpleasant and shameful.

George Orwell, The Road to Wigan Pier (1937; London: Secker & Warburg, 1997).

The village can appear an anachronism in other ways too. Combined with the frequent sumptuous invocations of the Derbyshire countryside (the author 2 admired Hazlitt, and in 1930 submitted a homage to him as his application 3 for a National Miners' Welfare Scholarship), the cricket matches on the green, 4 Sunday school, Jack's roguish friend Kirton who enjoys poaching, and a long tradition of coal mining that's still by and large healthy, the picture of Wingrove can seem more like a fantasised rural idyll than a realistic portrayal of Britain during the rapid social and technological changes of the mid-1930s (x). It is the threat to that idea of a happy and timeless rural existence, a threat posed in part by rising unemployment and the clinical depersonalisation of state responses, that concerns Brierley the most.

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All these ideas converge in the looming figure of the Means-Test man himself. What he stands for, rather than what he is, allows Brierley to turn his uneventful visit into a truly dramatic climax, in which the reader suffers as the Cooks do and understands completely their suffering. The Means-Test man, who is relatively young, walks with a 'faint swagger', rides a motorcycle, slicks back his hair and wears a 'thick gold-coloured ring' announces even in his physical appearance a grounding in contemporary mid-1930s fashions and attitudes, all of which look strikingly vulgar in the more genteel and homely Wingrove. His coolly officious manner, businesslike rather than friendly – 'callous' is Jane's word (263) - represents a government whose approach to helping those in need has become less and less compassionate. Jack and Jane dread having such a man in their home because decent, respectable workingclass people of their generation simply do not throw open their private financial troubles to prying strangers, nor should ever be reduced to going cap-in-hand to those strangers for the money they need to live on. While the Means-Test man is inspecting their Co-op book, the couple looks on in mute outrage at the indignity:

Jack glanced at Jane. He was tired of standing here and she looked tired too. But he couldn't have sat down, and he was sure Jane couldn't; that would seem as if they felt a certain amount of comfort, which they certainly did not. They were wanting him to get it over with and go quickly. The master and mistress of a household - the two heads of a home - husband and wife in their castle – English. And this man sat here at the table where grace used to be said, where friends used to come and laugh over tea, always on the first Sunday of the year, that nearest John's birthday. And this man sat where those friends had sat, he was like a lord and they stood trembling before him. (262–3)

Brierley, Means-Test Man, 257.

Recoveries

1	It's that concept of an old, working-class Englishness, one of unspoken	1
2	customs, expectations and values, which Brierley fears so deeply for. The	2
3	castles he speaks of are under siege, by the nation's leaders on the one hand	3
4	with their Means-Test and their prowling investigators, and on the other,	4
5	tacitly expressed through Jane and her angry politicised moments, by a new	5
6	working class that chooses organised and sometimes violent resistance over	6
7	a stoical bearing-down. Means-Test Man is one of the last novels recording	7
8	the strengths as well as the vulnerabilities of this traditional working-class	8
9	mentalité, increasingly eroded by the bureaucratic and disciplinary regimen of	9
10	an indifferent state, only fleetingly aware of the impending catastrophe which	10
11	was to close this low dishonest decade.	11
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