



# Mainstream

## THE POWERS' TRIAL

*Phillip Bonosky*

## CRISIS IN THE AMERICAN NOVEL

*John Howard Lawson*

*Robert Forrey*

*Anton Refregier*

BUCHENWALD

*W. H. Lawrence*

THE PURE IN HEART (A Story)

*John R. Salter Jr.*

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GOOD, TOUGH FIGHT

October, 1960

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# Mainstream

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## “dig down”

WE HAVE witnessed a number of stirring events in the last year. Progressive forces spoke out loudly for peace and end to the Cold War. Three capitalist satellites—Turkey, South Korea, and Japan, moved further out of the orbit of Cold War alliances. In Africa and Latin America, resistance to Wall Street domination has been dramatically heightened. In our own Southern states Negro students “sat in” at lunch counters in a campaign to end discrimination.

No one can doubt that progressive forces made tremendous strides in 1960 and there is good reason to believe that 1961 will even more advances.

It is extremely important that *Mainstream* continue to publish articles, stories and poems with a progressive point of view, for if we don't who will? Often an author sends us a piece with a note which begins, “I am sending this to you because no other magazine would be able to publish it even if they wanted to. . . .”

WE BEGIN a new decade confident that you, the readers of *Mainstream*, will continue to give it your support. It is only through your generosity that we will be able to meet the costs of publishing which, like everything else, are constantly rising. The absolute minimum which we require for the following year is \$500. Continued publication requires sacrifices on everybody's part: editors who serve on the board without salary; authors who contribute material without remuneration; and subscribers who not only renew their subs faithfully but also dig down, at a time like this, and send whatever they can by check, cash or money order to keep America's last progressive cultural magazine on its feet.

—The Editors.

## THE SECOND AMERICAN TRAGEDY

PHILLIP BONOSKY

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Mr. Bonosky, a member of the Editorial Board of *Mainstream*, is author of the novel *Burning Valley* (International Publishers, N. Y.). He has been traveling in Eastern Europe and the U.S.S.R., and sat in on the Powers trial in Moscow.

Moscow.

**S**ITTING in the dock with Francis Gary Powers and being judged along with him was that other America which, like him, wanted only to make some money, buy a house and a filling station and "be independent." For that it didn't really matter what one did, especially if one was asked as Powers at his trial maintained he was asked, merely "to flip on some switches" in an airplane flying over a country so high nothing could possibly reach it. For flipping on some switches as you flew from Pakistan to Norway you could receive \$2500 a month. What could be easier?

This trial, through which I sat with such a feeling of anguish for our "average America," was as much an American tragedy as was the story that Theodore Dreiser told in his classic of a generation ago. Francis G. Powers sat in the dock as Clyde Griffith sat in his cell trying to understand how he had come to such a sordid end when all he wanted was to succeed and be rich and live in the approved style of the American Dream. Dreiser indicted the whole concept of that American Dream when it was still more dream than nightmare. Now it is indicted again, for all the world to see. The 31-year-old American pilot, born in Kentucky, son of a poor shoe repairer, escaped the fate of his father and flew high. Like Icarus of old, he was brought down again; but

had nothing to tell the world except that, as a typical American, he had been willing to do anything if paid for it.

I say that this is the second American tragedy and that all of "average" America, so lovingly portrayed in our slick fiction and slick advertisements, sits in the dock with Powers. It is a tragedy only because those who victimized Powers (and I could not see him as other than a victim, though he was a willing victim in the beginning) have not yet been caught. Mr. Nixon and Mr. Dulles, and Mr. Eisenhower should be really sitting in that dock: for it is their policies which have come to such a catastrophe and which have been exposed before the entire world as the cold and brutal policy of men with only one aim in mind: world conquest through terror.

A moment sometimes comes in the history of a nation when its honor and its character are placed in the hands, not of its chief spokesmen for defense, but in the hands of one of its lowliest, most typical, most average of its citizens. This becomes an acid test of that country's real quality as it expresses itself through its most modest representative. We know these heroes from history; our past is full of them.

And this moment in the Cold War found Francis G. Powers suddenly thrust into the world spotlight as the defender of America's honor as its unforeseen spokesman. Here was the celebrated "average American" of whom the world had heard so much. He was the most pampered, the most blessed by circumstances, he lived well, and the way he lived was advertised throughout the world as the way in which all mankind should live, and to fight for that way of life was the sacred duty of all Americans, even if it included atomic warfare.

Francis Powers was born poor, but, like millions of other Americans, he had "gotten his chance to rise." He went much farther than most people in the world do: he acquired a higher education and could be assured of a decent income, if not an overpowering one. Wasn't he, therefore, running over with gratitude and love for the System that opened up these possibilities for him? Was not People's Capitalism his dream, his vindication? What would he say of it when the crucial moment to defend it came upon him?

To make sure, in the final instance, of his loyalty, it was sealed with a contract that was to give him \$2500 a month.

And yet, Mr. Powers, American, born and raised in Kentucky, in the final analysis, did not stay bought. It was not Mr. Nixon who was sent by plane across the USSR. Perhaps he would have made a better defense of Wall Street's foreign policy than did Powers. For when the average American was asked whether he did well or ill by the

American people when he took the U-2 plane across the USSR, he said: "I did them an ill service," and he added: "I am sincerely sorry."

I thought, sitting in the audience among several thousand other spectators in the Hall of Columns in Moscow, that among many things that the trial of Francis G. Powers was proving, it proved one other thing: no matter how deluded, how misled, how steeped in illusion the American people may at any one time be, and how willing they seem to be to "pull the switch" and leave it up to those whose business it was "to think about those things," nevertheless the potential always exists in them, as it did in Powers, to say at the last, late but not too-late: "I am sincerely sorry that I had anything to do with it. . . . I am not a personal enemy of the Russian people who have treated me very well. . . ."

Powers was equipped with a poison pin to kill himself in case of capture. When he was actually captured, he did nothing of the sort. He did not try to use the rubles to bribe his captors, nor offer them gold rings, nor watches, nor did he unfurl the comical banner he had been issued by high-level strategists of the CIA which said, in 14 languages, among them Russian: "I am an American and I do not speak Russian. I am in need of food, shelter and help. I shall do you no harm. If you can help me, you will be rewarded."

Of the Russian people Powers only knew what he read in books and what he had been told in indoctrination sessions in the air force. Apparently the CIA believes that before a gold watch any Russian will sell out his country. But when it came to the test, Powers did not even use this comic opera paraphernalia, but admitted immediately that he was an American when he was caught by the ordinary Russians who first found him. When he was questioned, he admitted everything. At the court session, he thanked the men who captured him, explaining that they had been very humane in their treatment of him, and he admitted, in answer to Roman Rudenko, the prosecuting attorney's comment, that he had no illusions at all that he could have bribed these Soviet citizens.

Nor did he attempt to blow up the plane, either in the air or on the ground, as he had been instructed to do if such an emergency arose. Why not? Was it because he suspected that he would blow himself up with it? That poison pin left no doubt in his mind as to what Colonel Shelton preferred him to do if the worst happened. Then, to cap it all, he knew that that \$1,000 a month which was held back, according to the terms of his contract, to be paid only upon the "successful completion of his mission," was gone now forever. The mis-

ion was not completed; his future house and filling station were never to be. The American Dream had been exploded above Sverdlovsk by a Soviet rocket. What loyalty then had he left and to whom? Powers had never belonged to a political party, he said, nor had he ever voted. Obviously he had expected less via the ballot box for his personal future than via the dollar, quickly made and in abundance.

This revelation of his political indifference both amused and amazed the Soviet people who listened to him and who read his testimony with such great avidity. For they had recognized "the average American" in him, and he remained consistent in that role until the very end. If he managed to escape complete banality, it was only because it was evident that a spark had come to life in him and that brain which had been content to leave all such questions as war and peace, the Summit meeting and so forth to "the people who sent me," was beginning to function for the first time.

When he was asked by the chairman of the Military Collegium, Lt. Gen. Victor Borislebsky, who along with two people's assessors, tried the case, whether by crossing the USSR border on such a flight on the very eve of the Summit meeting he knew he might be jeopardizing that meeting, Powers replied: "The Summit was very far from my mind." And when he was further asked if he didn't realize such a provocation could have started a war his answer was: "The people who sent me should think of these things. My job was to carry out the order." And if his order had been to carry and drop an atomic bomb?

In any case, by the end of the trial, it was evident that Powers had lost all confidence in "the people who should think." It is obvious to him that they are unable to think, or at least to think like human beings, among whom Powers pleaded that he be included in spite of everything. In his final appeal to the judges he said: "Try to judge me not as an enemy but as a human being. . . ."

The court so judged him. It was, in fact, another revelation in the crucial shift of moral values from one world to the other that the strongest argument that stood in Powers' favor for leniency was not that he was a middle-class boy trying to make good, but that he came from a workingclass family and had known what it was to be poor. This fact affected the entire Soviet public, which had started the case very heavily prejudiced against Powers in whom they saw today's reincarnation of the American fliers who dropped bombs on Hiroshima, or the Nazis who had millions of martyred Europe into the gas chambers.

It would be too much to say that they ever got to feel more for

him than a reluctant pity for his backwardness and ignorance and weakness in allowing himself to be used as a tool. His backwardness and political ignorance were all the more inexplicable to them since he was a college graduate. The Soviet public find it very hard to associate a higher education with Powers' confessions of ignorance of the world in which he lived. Through him they caught a glimpse of an America which left them absolutely unenvious of anything that can be found there. For one must always remember that, far above automobiles, air-conditioning and comfortable apartments, the Soviet people demand that a higher civilized human being be shown to them, a human being who is cultured, who possesses a wide sympathy with the world's oppressed, and who has a broadly humanist approach to life. In that respect, Mr. Powers failed them utterly. You could hear all over Moscow the judgment of the people: Americans will do anything for money.

Powers was the representative of America for those three days before the world, and when he came to examine his conscience, he found little in it that would pass for "patriotism" or love for that strange country of ours which is so unloved except by the workers, by the Communists who love it for what they have known of its best traditions and more for what they know it can be. But Powers felt no such love in his moment of truth. In this lies the whole Achilles heel of American class policy, and there is no escape from the fatal implication of it.

The entire world press was present at the trial. It was scrupulously "fair." Powers had every opportunity to defend himself, to contradict the testimony of others, and his defending attorney, Mikhail Grinov, represented his case effectively and even brilliantly. I could see the CBS reporter examining Powers through his opera glasses, watching and watching to see, now too late, what it was that made him tick. How could it be—this is his agonizing problem—that this same Powers who in America, one feels comfortably trapped and obediently happy in his wall-to-wall traps and his status dreams—how could it be that he has changed from that de-humanized product of American mass-myth into this man giving evidence that convicts his own country in the eyes of the world? And yet this time few are tempted to cry: "Brain washing." For as any observer here saw for himself, Powers was painfully and obviously trying to think for himself for perhaps the first time in his life. Then, of course, one scarcely expects a coherent answer from a CBS correspondent when asked: "Would you have used that poison needle? Even for \$2500 you'll never collect?"

Characteristic, too, of the morality involved was the stipulation



the contract he signed (a fact that astounded the Soviet public) that he would not collect that withheld \$1000 a month until his mission was ended successfully. Powers cited this as the reason why he had to make the flight when he was ordered, eve of the Summit or not. It was a club over his head.

The U.S. policy-makers miscalculated in this instance in such an appalling way one shudders to think of what future blunders they are capable of, if they continue along the same course, as they show every sign of doing. The fact, too, that neither of the Presidential candidates has voiced any regret over the episode, and that Nixon has instead used to raise the banner of anti-Communism which was last in the bloody hands of Hitler, Mussolini and Hirohito, has gone far to toughen up the opinion of the Soviet people that they must continue their wise and flexible policy of peaceful struggle for coexistence and support of all anti-imperial forces now rising to the surface all over the world.

The Soviets are proud of the way in which their four soldiers cast adrift for over 40 days in the ocean had endured that ordeal. They view in those ordinary soldiers the proud product of their socialist system. They feel no sense of respect whatsoever for Powers and the policy which sent him to them, an unwilling present of the Cold War. They show no hostility to Powers' family which came every day to the trial and sat stoical through the proceedings. No attempt was made in either the newspapers or by the prosecuting attorney to rouse passions against Powers, unlike what was done in the USA against the Rosenbergs. Powers was not badgered in court, nor insulted, nor were any attempts made to entrap him or expose him through tricky cross-examination, though Powers was stubborn in his arguments that he was only formally connected, almost like a passive instrument, to the purpose of the spy flight.

His defending attorney was effective in his defense and summing up; effective certainly since the recommendation of 15 years imprisonment which the prosecutor made was not accepted by the court. Powers was given 10 years, the first three to be spent in prison, and the next presumably in a corrective labor camp or colony.

It is a very mild sentence, in view of the circumstances. When it was pronounced the entire audience broke into applause. It was generally well-received by the Soviet public, which saw in it further evidence of the generous spirit towards its misled enemies that the Soviets are capable of, if only they show a shred of repentance and the prospect of reforming themselves.

Powers does show that possibility. It's a pity he has to take his

post-graduate course in human education in a prison in the USSR even though such prisons are quite decent, as I have seen from direct observation.

But perhaps in the end he will benefit by it. If all the other "average Americans" of which he is such an accurate specimen could also benefit by it, then even his ordeal will have been worth what it cost him. The world cannot afford a mass American tragedy, for that will be the tragedy of the whole world.

### **New Publication**

A new progressive youth publication made its first appearance this month. Subscriptions to *New Horizons for Youth*, which will be published monthly, are only \$1. The address is Youth Publications, Inc., 799 Broadway, Room 235, New York 3, N. Y.

# STYRON: DARKNESS AND FIRE IN THE MODERN NOVEL

JOHN HOWARD LAWSON

---

The author is a world-renowned playwright, screen-writer, and critic. His *Theory And Technique of Playwriting* has just been published as a paperback. Drama Books, Hill and Wang, N. Y.

IT MAY seem unfair to burden the work of a single young novelist with reflections on the course of American fiction. Yet Styron's work is so brilliant and yet so murky, so shadowed with darkness and consumed with fire, that it may serve as an intensified example of concepts and tendencies that are less violently presented in the books of other writers.

Styron's most recent novel is thoughtfully reviewed in the September issue of *Mainstream*. I cannot quarrel with Mike Newberry's conclusion that it "totters so often on the edge of failure." I would go further, and say that it not only totters on the edge but falls into the abyss. It is this tragic deficiency—tragic because Styron's qualities of poetry and passion are as striking as his lack of clarity—that makes the whole course of his writing worthy of careful and sympathetic analysis.

The deterioration of promising talent is such a common phenomenon in our literature that it has ceased to shock critics. Norman Mailer and James Jones wrote massive first novels which derived their social and personal emotion from the impact of military experience. Both authors revealed their immaturity when they attempted to deal with the realities of American life.

There are cases of similar deterioration in the work of older writers. Dos Passos, moved to anger and understanding by the First

World War and the troubled years that followed, has become a crabbed reactionary who can no longer write with sense or feeling. Steinbeck, appearing a decade later, rose to near greatness in *The Grapes of Wrath* at the end of the thirties, and then descended to his present commercial exploitation of the sins and sorrows of "picturesque" Mexican-Americans.

Styron, born in 1925, was extravagantly praised when his first book, *Lie Down in Darkness*, appeared in 1951. The sensitivity and power of the book seemed to promise that a serious representative of a new generation of writers had emerged. Yet this first novel has many of the weaknesses which are more largely displayed in *Set This House on Fire*. Both books are touched with fire and poetic beauty. But the poetry is all too often marred by purple passages and pretentious mannerisms.

Both books combine realistic and minute observation with a stream of consciousness technique, heightened to frenzy in the musings of people who are intoxicated. Both books tend to repeat situations, and even metaphors and phrases, so that what at first strikes us as unbridled vigor and imagination is finally identified as a lack of sustained invention.

In spite of these limitations, Styron is a gifted and dedicated writer: he may be described as dedicated, because he attempts to fulfill the function of the artist, to explore human motives and values in the context of contemporary reality. He sees that there is something wrong with our society; he sees that the trouble is reflected in an apparent paralysis of purpose and breakdown of morality; he is not content merely to observe the ill-effects; he tries to understand and probe their meaning. It is in this respect, in the structure of social thought, that the new novel marks a retreat, a decline from the promise of the earlier work.

In examining the relationship between the two novels, it must be borne in mind that there is an interval of nine years between them. During this period, Styron published a short anti-war novel, *The Long March*, in 1952. It tells of a group of marines in training for service in Korea, and is a harsh diatribe against military stupidity and barbarity. These men were "as helpless as children" before the horror of war "for six years they had slept a cataleptic sleep, dreaming blissfully of peace." The tale centers around Colonel Templeton's order that the battalion go on a crazy march of thirty-six miles at night. "I don't want my marines doping off," says the Colonel, "they're going to act like marines." The leading figure in the story is a Jewish Captain Mannix who "had a violent contempt for gibberish, the boy-scout password

which replaced ordinary conversation in the military world." Mannix is rebellious, but he can do nothing, and his anger collapses in futility. *The Long March* shows that Styron, like so many of his generation, regards military order as a symbol of the degrading conformity that destroys initiative and hope in our society. Appearing shortly after *Lie Down in Darkness*, it defines in a simple allegory the social problem which is inherent in the first novel and with which the author has struggled during the period of silence that ended with the appearance of *Set This House on Fire*.

LET us now turn back to the first book, *Lie Down in Darkness* and consider the statement of the social problem. The book is conducted around a single event—the funeral of Peyton Loftis, a young woman who has committed suicide in New York. The body is brought back to Port Warwick, Virginia, and the whole history of the girl and her family is covered in retrospect while the hearse is moving toward the cemetery.

It is a history of total disaster. It begins with the drunken meditations of Milton Loftis, the father, and it goes back over his wasted life, his passion for the lovely child, Peyton. His wife, Helen, was always jealous of Peyton, and all her emotion was centered on the younger, mentally defective daughter, Maudie. Milton recalls the beginnings of his affair with Dolly Bonner, who is riding with him to the funeral, the break-up of his marriage, Peyton's wedding, her death in New York. The events are told chiefly in a stream-of-consciousness technique, partly through Milton's memories, and partly through his blurred, indicated response to the drama around him. The story ends with the final meeting between Milton and his wife at the cemetery, when in a momentary "red flash of violence," he threatens to kill her.

The frame of reference is obviously Freudian. It is so obvious that it seems to be super-imposed on material which does not lend itself to the psychoanalytical interpretation. There is nothing in the fabric of the narrative to convince us that the father's incestuous feeling for his daughter is at the heart of his disaster. When he kisses her on the lips at a drunken moment at her wedding, the revelation is curiously unautomatic. It is a repetition of what we already know, and it comes as an absurd gesture, an incident in their lost lives.

Yet the author's insistence that this is a "classic" tragedy of incest complicates the conceptual weakness which prevents the novel from attaining the stature of tragedy. Styron feels the tragic plight of middle-class people, whose lives are frustrated by their lack of purpose, their de-

votion to false values, their fevered search for emotional stability. But he is unable to place the horror in a fully realized social setting, and therefore the horror is elliptical, and unrealized in its full depth.

The psychoanalytical interpretation is related to the use of intoxication as the motivating force of the novel. A great novel might be written about alcoholism. But drunkenness is not the theme of the story; it is used, as the Freudian frame of reference is used, to convey a larger social meaning. But the meaning is clouded by the use of these devices. The disaster that overtakes the Loftis family is neither due to excessive drinking nor to incest wishes.

STYRON'S technique consists largely in establishing a rather solemn bourgeois occasion—a family reunion, the fatal illness of a child, a wedding—and then destroying it in drunken confusion. These situations achieve a high level of humor, as well as rising to a dimension of terror. But it is a little as if Chekhov's plays were transformed into drunken revels, dissolving the reality of frustration in the fumes of whiskey.

I have noted that the technique is repetitious. Milton's drunkenness at the country club is duplicated in Charlottesville when Maude is dying, and again at Peyton's wedding. Yet Styron possesses a compassion which justifies comparison with Chekhov. These are not evil people. They are not the mindless seekers after sensation who wander through the pages of so many contemporary novels. They are truly representatives of their class.

Milton and his wife and daughter are eager for love and usefulness. While the haze of drunkenness in which Milton moves expresses his lost condition, there is never any confusion in the story concerning essential moral values. The man who marries Peyton and tries to save her is a minor character who appears late in the novel. Nonetheless he is by far the most positive figure. Harry is a Jewish painter who fought with the Lincoln Brigade in Spain, and his closest friend is Lennie, whose life he saved on the Ebro River in 1937. Harry is a serious painter; his love for Peyton is genuine, deep and poetic.

The last scene between Harry and Peyton takes place shortly after Hiroshima. Peyton has deceived him with other men. She comes to Harry in drunken agony. He remembers how he has compared her to Dante's Beatrice, and his words are really the key to the book's meaning: "I'd like to sit around like I think I remember we used to do and talk about color and form and El Greco . . . Blessed Beatrice." She interrupts him, saying, "Don't," but he continues: "There are a lot

ings I'd like to talk about. Do you realize what the world's come to? Do you realize that the great American commonwealth just snuffed out a hundred thousand innocent lives this week?"

The flash of larger meaning is brief. But the words about art and Hiroshima afford an insight into the writer's thought. The girl, reeling and lost, wandering through the bleak streets, seems to be pursued by nameless furies. Yet the author knows, and we know, that the curse on her is not nameless and that she is not alone; she is part of *us*, and *us* is doomed by the waste of creativity and life that is the way of our world.

The final passages of *Lie Down in Darkness*, illuminate Styron's purpose, and enable us to understand his difficulty in mastering his art. The difficulty is sharply revealed in the novel published nine years later. In the earlier book, Harry, the artist, the man of good will, the gentle hero (and veteran of the crucial struggle in Spain), feels responsible for Peyton's suicide, but he cannot save her.

In *Set This House on Fire*, the central figure is another artist, Cass Kinsolving, driven and tortured in his search for artistic fulfillment and personal salvation. It is a mistake to say, as Mike Newberry does, that this novel is a struggle of "evil versus evil," and that all the characters have similar philosophies and bespeak the same social degeneration." This may be the critic's viewpoint, but it is plainly not that of the novelist.

Cass Kinsolving is a man of good will, a talented painter. His feeling toward his wife is ambivalent, but he wants to stabilize his marriage and he is devoted to his four children. Styron does not excuse his alcoholic aberrations or his infidelities, but Cass is a man struggling with whatever strength he can muster against the destruction that threatens him.

THUS the novel enlarges on the theme of *Lie Down in Darkness*—the desperate fight for fulfillment and creativity in an environment that mocks and denies these aspirations. Styron sees the threat of evil being both psychological and environmental, in the heart as well as in the social situation. But he is dealing seriously with the relationship between the human personality and the society in which we live, and his work must be examined and judged on these terms.

The method and structure of *Set This House on Fire* repeat the pattern of the first novel. There is a present drama, with long retrospective narratives covering the lives of the principal characters; there are interlarded reveries in which consciousness moves in darkness to flashes

of revelation; there is the combination of sensitive poetry with gaudy overwriting; there is the constant repetition of similar incidents.

But it lacks the tight structure of the earlier book. This is large due to its more ambitious scope. The author's search for social definition, for the reasoned splendor of tragedy, leads only to multiplied confusion. The clue to the structural difficulty lies in the central situation. The immediate action takes place in a single night, and involves rape and murder. The retrospective narratives are badly organized: this is in part because the story is told by an observer, Peter Leverett, who has no emotional part in the events; since he has only known one of the two main characters, Mason Flagg, his reminiscences can relate only to Flagg and the history of Cass Kinsolving is chiefly conveyed in a later conversation with Peter, some years after the occurrences took place. Cass's drunken stream of consciousness during his wanderings in Europe (which is the essence of his story) much reach us third-hand: Cass tells it to Peter, who reports it to the reader.

The awkwardness of this structure is evident. But, like all structural problems, it springs from the author's conceptual difficulty, his uncertainty concerning his social viewpoint and meaning. The trouble is most sharply defined in the central situation. The meaning of the rape and murder is blurred, and the action is blurred. The love peasant girl, Francesca, was raped earlier in the evening by Mason Flagg. But it turns out that, just before the murder, she was raped again, the time being brutally assaulted by a half-witted Italian. Shortly after this Cass murders Flagg by throwing him off a cliff. Later the Italian girl dies. She confesses to only one person that she was assaulted by the mad Italian, and he conceals the truth. Thus it can be assumed by the police that Flagg assaulted her and then committed suicide, enabling Cass to avoid suspicion and go free.

The mere telling of this plot exposes its absurdity. But it also exposes with unusual clarity, the way in which an author is bound and restricted by his thesis. Every move in the rape-murder situation is necessitated by the meaning which the author intends to convey. The elementary conflict in the novel is between Cass and Flagg, the rich man who is the personification of the evil that threatens to destroy the artist. Cass must be justified in killing Flagg. Therefore, Flagg must be guilty of raping the peasant girl, the symbol of innocence and beauty. But it would be psychologically false to suggest that Flagg would violate the girl so brutally as to cause her death. Yet he must be suspected of this attack in order to give an excuse for his apparent suicide. The police theory that Flagg committed suicide is essential to the whole



cheme. It enables Cass to tell his story to the narrator, but, more profoundly, it permits Cass to live so that he can find a measure of relief and salvation.

HAVING examined the crime which forms the climax, we can grasp the root-idea underlying the action. The moment of maximum intensity, the rape and murder in the Italian village, is the crowning point of the retrospective narrative, which establishes the social framework, the corruption and decline of American society, the frustration of the creative spirit.

The narrator comes from Port Warwick, Virginia, the town which is the setting of *Lie Down in Darkness*. Early in the book, he returns here to visit his father, a "rare and prodigious man," the only true liberal I think I have ever known." The old beauty of Port Warwick has been destroyed by modern industry. His father says: "These are miserable times. . . . Empty times. Mediocre times. You can almost sniff rot in the air." The theme recurs again and again. Cass speaks of America's "degradation of its teachers and its men of mind and character, and its childish glorification of scoundrels and nitwits and movie trash."

Mason Flagg, the wealthy dilettante, with his false concern for art, his perverse and horrible sexuality, his determination to dominate and corrupt everyone around him, is the evil incarnate that is betraying America. In a sense, Flagg is "the enemy" described by Thomas Wolfe in the *Credo* that concludes his last novel: "I think the enemy is here before us, with a thousand faces, but I think we know that all his faces wear one mask. I think the enemy is single selfishness and compulsive greed."

Peter speaks of his own former subservience to Flagg in words that are reminiscent of Wolfe: ". . . that slick, arrogant, sensual, impenitently youthful, American and vainglorious face to which I had paid for so long my guilt-laden fealty. . . ."

Yet Flagg never emerges as a convincing or menacing figure. Flagg's actions, his earlier history and his conduct at Sambuco, make him more ridiculous than dangerous. The American film company which is on location at the villa is supposedly illustrative of American corruption; but the motion picture people are cardboard clichés, and their vices are more vacuous than venal.

More basically, Flagg's relationship to Cass is clouded. He controls the drunken artist, because he has money. He forces him to paint a shamefully obscene picture. He makes him perform clownish and dis-

reputable acts before the Hollywood visitors, and it is even suggested that Cass is persuaded to put on an imitation of perverse sexual acts. Flagg has a homosexual interest in the artist, but this is merely hinted because Cass is too decent, too capable of redemption to permit any such physical violation.

One feels that the author is straining to make the degradation of Cass more explicit, so as to justify the killing of Flagg. But the trouble is that "the enemy" cannot be symbolized by a wealthy fool like Flagg, who is too frail a vessel to hold the weight of meaning imposed upon him. The forces that really threaten Cass are not adequately suggested by the millionaire. His trouble goes back into his past life and is only vaguely related to his cruel patron. Cass suffered a mental breakdown as a result of his military experience during the Second World War, and was under psychiatric care. He decided to become a painter, and then found himself at war with bourgeois society.

Flagg is related to the war through his lies about his "heroism." Actually, we find out that he used his influence and money to avoid service. He has made up a fantastic story of adventures as an O.S.S. officer who was parachuted into Yugoslavia. This fabrication is an ironic comment on the false values the bourgeoisie attach to military prowess.

Styron's hatred of bourgeois pretensions is intense, and is especially directed against religious hypocrisy. His favorite device, as in his earlier novel, is the development of a smug and formal bourgeois situation which explodes into its opposite. In *Set This House on Fire*, these situations are as repetitious as in *Lie Down in Darkness*, and much less integrated in the main movement of the story. These tangential adventures include the tale of the pious young Seventh Day Adventist who is revealed as a teen-age harlot; the devout Catholic couple on a pilgrimage to Rome who turn out to be crooked gamblers.

Cass is the enemy of corrupt and conventional conduct. But he is also guilt-ridden, tortured by his feeling that he is part of this bourgeois world which inhibits his creativity and clouds his reason. His guilt is specifically related to his feeling as a white Southerner that he has participated in shameful treatment of Negroes.

The book has its share of anti-Italian, anti-Semitic, anti-Negro stereotypes. Yet Cass speaks of his nightmares being "tied up with Negroes, Negroes in prison, Negroes being gassed, me being gassed, Negroes watching me while I was being gassed. . . ." Cass remembers his participation in destroying the cabin of a Negro who had failed to pay an installment on a small radio. He is haunted by his part in this: "Certain things are so monstrous there is no atonement for them, no redemption."

STYRON is manifestly opposed to oppressors and despoilers. Yet he cannot frame his indictment so that it achieves any potency. The conflict between the rich man and the artist lacks social extension, because the premise of the conflict and the murder is false. Styron has moved from the Freudian frame of reference to existentialism. While he sees that something is wrong with American society, and that the rich and powerful bear the responsibility, he sees no way out, no hope for change.

The existentialist frame of reference is more pervasive than the psychoanalytical element in *Lie Down in Darkness*; it is apparently more deeply felt; it is certainly more fully integrated in the structure.

The individual, crushed and bruised by the "absurdity" of the human condition, must find an existentialist mode of action. The murder is "absurd," because it is morally wrong and accomplishes no social result. Yet it is necessary for Cass, because he has no other way of asserting his personality. Cass says that he despises politics. The killing is a substitute for the confrontation with social and political reality.

Styron does not attempt to excuse the crime. Cass, describing his feeling when he found he could escape, says: "A crime was a crime, I shouted, and I would suffer for it." But he is not punished, and he achieves a sort of peace, an existentialist fulfillment of himself, which enables him to live and work.

The inadequacy of the idea accounts for the sprawling structure. The faults in writing arise from the struggle between the author's social anger and his feeling that the trouble is mystic and hidden in the soul. The attempt to create a menacing atmosphere in these terms necessarily produces feeble phrasing: "Dementia seemed to hover over the city like a mist. . . . I was caught up in some endless circle of self-loathing and venom and meanness."

The purple passages that occasionally marred his previous work assume a darker hue of purple. Styron seems at times to realize that he is failing to get his effect, and he strains to overcome the difficulty. The result—melodramatic clichés: "Gut churning with fear . . . fingers of pain encircling his heart caused him to sink to earth like a stricken deer." The training for effect explains the use of obscene language, which has no artistic justification, and is often seriously objectionable.

Yet, with all these negative aspects, the failure of *Set This House on Fire* is the failure of a brilliant and sensitive writer. Styron is affected by the ideas and pressures that shape our contemporary culture. The system of ideas in his last novel is as much the product of current literary fashions as the dirty words which mar the felicity of his style. It may be too much to ask that Styron face the fact that he himself is abetting the

corruption of life and art to which he has declared his passionate opposition.

At the end of the novel, Cass prepares to go back to America:

"Some thing about the dawn made me think of America and how the light would come up slowly over the Eastern coast. . . . And I kept thinking of the new sun coming up over the coast of Virginia and the Carolinas, and how it must have looked from those galleons, centuries ago, when after black night, dawn broke like a trumpet blast, and there it was immense and green and glistening against the crashing seas. And suddenly I wanted more than anything in my life to go back there. And I knew I would go."

Styron's authentic spirit, and his lyricism, are in these lines. And there is conviction in them, and hope. Perhaps he will have the courage to rediscover America, seeing it as it is, emerging from darkness into light, a new world as potent with promise as it was when the galleons first sighted the green shores.

# WHITMAN TO WOLFE

ROBERT FORREY

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THE publication of Elizabeth Nowell's biography of Thomas Wolfe should encourage new evaluations of one of America's most controversial writers.\* Miss Nowell's book is heavily documented with facts, for she was for years Wolfe's literary agent and personal friend. There is in the book, however, no real attempt to draw conclusions from the facts. The biography is loosely organized around the idea that Wolfe's life was a continual search for father figures.

The wealth of material in the biography does enable the reader to go beyond the limitations of its approach. There is quoted, for example, the insightful remark by Henry Seidel Canby about Wolfe's novel, *Of Time and the River*:

It is in the direct tradition of these earlier anguished spirits and great seekers on our soil, Thoreau, Melville, Whitman. It is in the tradition, but with a momentous difference for which the break-up of the twenties and Mr. Wolfe's own idiosyncracies are responsible.

Wolfe is not only *in* the great traditon of Thoreau, Melville, and Whitman; he is, in important respects, the end of that tradition. In Wolfe we get the tail end of the liberal tradition in American literature which

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\*Elizabeth Nowell, *Thomas Wolfe: A Biography*. Doubleday & Co. New York. \$5.95.

reached its peak in the progressive period of American capitalism before the Civil War.

The hope of this tradition had been a nation of small property owners competing under conditions of permanent economic equality. Such an ideal was conceivable then, for the average people of America enjoyed a degree of economic and political independence and the term "free enterprise" was not just a meaningless phrase. That a fairly equal distribution of private property was the economic ideal of American liberalism, of this there is little doubt. The poet who best expressed the aspirations of the American people in the period, Walt Whitman, was quite explicit on this point:

The true gravitational-hold of liberalism in the United States will be a more universal ownership of property, general homesteads, general comfort—a vast, intertwining of reticulation of wealth. As the human frame, or, indeed, any object in this manifold universe, is best kept together by the simple miracle of its own cohesion, and necessity, exercise and profit thereof, so a great and varied nationality, occupying millions of square miles, were firmest held and knit by the principle of the safety and endurance of the aggregate of middling property owners.

Whitman tried to sketch an outline for democracy modeled on conditions which were really only a temporary phase of American capitalism. This democracy depended for its success, in Whitman's words, upon "men and women with occupations, well-off. owners of houses and acres, and with cash in the bank. . . ." But this was middle class democracy which tended to exclude, especially as time went on, numbers of wage earners who had no such security and were helpless in depressions and economic dislocations. This class of property-less workers pointed to a tendency of American capitalism which threatened middle-class democracy. The proletariat posed a problem which that democracy found difficult to deal with, and forced Whitman to say such things as, "ungracious as it may sound, and a paradox after what we have been saying, democracy looks with suspicious, ill-satisfied eye upon the very poor, the ignorant, and those out of business."

There was however nothing accidental about the growing number of property-less and poor, as there was nothing accidental about the eventual breakdown of bourgeois democracy. As Lenin wrote, the "transformation of competition into monopoly is a most important—if not the most important—phenomena of modern capitalism. . . ." In his belief that democracy could be founded on private property, Whitman expressed the illusions as well as the aspirations of the Americans of the period. As the Russian critic D. S. Mirsky said:

Whitman is the poet of American democracy of the fifties and sixties, with its strengths and limitations. He is the poet of its illusions about a new humanity already born and having only to grow and develop normally. He gave the most grandiose political expressions to these illusions. But with all his genius he bears the ineffaceable impress of that democracy's provincialism and anti-revolutionary character.

Whitman himself saw that property and competition were turning into their opposite; that instead of strengthening and broadening freedom they were stifling it. In the prose writings of Whitman's later life, he as much as admits that the democracy he had prophesied in *The Leaves of Grass* was not materializing. In *Democratic Vistas*, a prose work published in 1871, he said the chief aim of life in America was "to feverishly make money during one half of it, and by some 'amusement,' perhaps foreign travel, flippantly kill time the other half. . . ." American society had decayed since the forties and fifties and become, in Whitman's words, "cankered, crude, superstitious and rotten." He went on:

I say we had best look our times and lands searchingly in the face, like a physician diagnosing some deep disease. Never was there, perhaps, more hollowness at heart than at present, and here in the United States. Genuine belief seems to have left us. The underlying principles of the States are not honestly believed in. . . . Nor is humanity believed in. What penetrating eye does not everywhere see through the mask? The spectacle is appalling.

The word that came to haunt Whitman above all others was "business." It had become, he said, the all devouring word of American life. He compared it to the serpent in the fable that "ate up all the other serpents; and money-making is our magician's serpent, remaining today the sole master of the field." He thought the "depravity of the business classes . . . not less than has been supposed but infinitely greater."

In the later Whitman we can see the liberal tradition becoming disillusioned with its own ideals. In Wolfe we can see these ideals turning into their opposite, and having a negative rather than a positive value attached to them. One such ideal that was eventually inverted in the liberal tradition was the concept of the individual.

In *Leaves of Grass* Whitman wanted to portray a model democratic man—the average American individual. When *Leaves of Grass* first appeared, short-sighted critics accused Whitman of unbridled egotism.

How, they asked, could one dare to write about themselves the way Whitman did?

Walt Whitman am I, a Kosmos, of mighty Manhattan the son. . . .

What these critics overlooked was the fact that the Walt Whitman of the *Leaves* is a type, not a particular person. Whitman called on American authors to "incarnate, to endow a literature with grand and archetypal models—" which is what he himself tried to do in the *Leaves*. His "Song of Myself" is not a song about himself but of the average American. The Walt Whitman of the poem is an amalgam of the mass of Americans—workers, farmers, artisans, and small merchants, who came to consciousness of themselves as the dominant class in the United States of the forties and fifties. The Walt Whitman of the *Leaves* reflects the energy and optimism of this class. The Poem itself is exhilarating insofar as it reflects the enthusiasm of Americans of the age for life and experience.

In Wolfe the individual defines himself in opposition to the masses. Individualism replaces individuality. It was one of Wolfe's strongest convictions that man is essentially a lonely animal and that no man can truly communicate with his brother. The profound sense of loss and transiency which the Wolfean hero feels is in part the impotency of individualism. The individual has all he can do in Wolfe's novel to maintain his own alienated identity. The mere passage of time and the apparent anonymity of the crowd stand as a threat to Wolfe, for he was always afraid of being swallowed up in the hugeness of America, with its vast territory and millions of people.

There is a qualitative difference in the way the ego relates to experience in Wolfe and Whitman. In the *Leaves of Grass* Whitman, confident, cocky even, ambles through America. In Wolfe the ego frantically expands to encompass the American experience, but being only an individual the attempt is doomed to failure. The most recurring theme in Wolfe is the lament "O Lost. Lost."

And yet it was characteristic of Wolfe, as an heir to the democratic tradition, to insist he was one of the people, a revolutionary leader. But he spoke of "revolutionary" in a very individualistic sense. As he wrote to his editor, Maxwell Perkins, "When I say that I am a Revolutionary, I know that you will never for a moment think of me as some one who is usually referred to in America as a 'radical.' You know that my whole feeling toward life could not be indicated or included under such a category."



Wolfe felt that the working man's best friend was not the communist but the artist; his deepest resentment was reserved not for capitalists but for the critics, who were always crucifying the creative individual.

I believe that I myself not only know the workers and am a friend of the worker's cause but that I am myself a brother to the workers, because I am myself, as every artist is, a worker. . . . I know furthermore that at bottom there is no difference between the artist and the worker. They both come from the same family, they recognize and understand each other instantly. They speak the same language. They have always stood together. And I know that our enemies, the people who betray us, are these apes and monkeys of the arts, who believe in everything and believe in nothing, and who hate the living [working?] man no matter what lip service they may pay to us.

When Wolfe said that the artist was "life's strongest man, earth's greatest hero," he did not mean the same thing that Whitman had meant when he said the poet should be the champion of the people. Whitman is a champion because he stood with, not apart from the people. Wolfe was inclined to divorce himself from the people, to go it alone. Perhaps that is why, at the age of thirty-four, he had to confess he was weary, tired, dispirited, and worn out." He wrote, in connection with one of his trips to Europe:

I came "abroad" to be alone, but what I am really tired of, what I am sick to death of, what I am exhausted and sickened and fed up to the roots of my soul with, is being *alone*. I am tired of myself, I am tired of being with myself, I am surfeited.

Perhaps it was Wolfe's chief limitation as a writer that he failed to find in the average people of America his best source of inspiration. Even this limitation, Wolfe was forced to do what Plekhanov thought most romantic artists do when they are fed up with "the sordidness, tedium and the vulgarity of bourgeois existence"; they idealize and negate the bourgeois mode of life.

From his first novel to his last, the best alternative Wolfe can offer to the bourgeois types he so disliked was the completely alienated individual, like his brother Ben, in *Look Homeward, Angel*, and the blind beggar Blaine, of *You Can't Go Home Again*. Wolfe's heroes are angels, like Ben, or devils, like Blaine, in whose utter estrangement from bourgeois society Wolfe pretends to see some profound comment upon life.

Judge Blaine is a usurious old lecher who specializes in high interest loans to poor Negroes. Wolfe pretends to see in Blaine an essential good man corrupted by an evil town. Like the blind sage of Greek drama or the wise fool of Shakespeare, Blaine, we are to believe, understands life better than anybody else. It is he who tells the young hero of the book that he can't go home again. It is to alienated type like Blaine that Wolfe turns for inspiration. "Perhaps," as Wolfe says of him, "he was the key to this whole tragedy."

An even better example of the outcast type is the suicide, C. Green, Chapter 29 of *You Can't Go Home Again*. Whitman had called for "grand and archetypal models." What Wolfe gives us in Green is an archetypal failure—the lonely individual in a society dominated by the corporation.

No, no. He was no voyager of unknown seas, no pioneer of western trails. He was life's little man, life's nameless cipher, life's manswarm atom, life's American—and now he lies disjected and exploded on a street in Brooklyn. . . . Poor, shabby, and corrupted cipher! Poor, nameless, and exploded atom! Poor little guy! He fills us Concentrated Blotters of the Universe with fear, with shame, with awe, with pity, and with terror—for we see ourselves in him.

Wolfe makes much of the fact that the name of the hotel from which the suicide leap was made was the Admiral Drake. Drake lived in an adventurous age of exploration and played the part of the hero, whereas Green the little guy in the age of monopoly capitalism is forced to lead an excruciatingly frustrated life. The only act by which Green can seem to assert his individuality is self-destruction. It is just the individual quality to the act of suicide that makes Green such a perfect example of the alienated type—of the extension of alienation to the point of self-negation. This is an idealization of negation because what we have in the end, in the case of Green, is a bloodied streetcorner in Brooklyn, as, in the case of Ben in *Look Homeward Angel*, what we have is a phantom who escapes into the shadows of life and finally "to the hills beyond" in death.

Not only the concept of the individual but that of private property and "free enterprise" become in Wolfe the opposite of what they had promised to become in the period of the *Leaves of Grass*. In *Look Homeward, Angel* Wolfe's alienation from bourgeois property and commercial relations is expressed primarily in his reaction against his mother, the Eliza Gant of the novel.

In social evolution Eliza Gant stands somewhere between

miser of the feudal period and the financier of the period of monopoly capitalism. Like the financier, she knew that money was not being properly used unless it was invested. This was a law of capitalist development that her side of the family knew well. "Not merely to possess property," Wolfe wrote, "but to draw interest from it as well was part of the religion of her family." In this respect Eliza is to be distinguished from classical skinflints, like Moliere's Harpagon and Balzac's Grandet, who, ignorant of the power capital had to reproduce itself when invested, buried their money in the ground.

But Eliza still shows the provincial character of the Southern petty bourgeoisie, still strongly tied to the land and the ways of the old order. She was something of a peasant in her distrust of the more advanced form of capitalist relations. Money and interest from investments was not for her; she had to have her wealth in the palpable form of property. It was not enough for her that a man have money—even a great deal of money. Her criteria of success was property. She thought a man was crowned with infamy if it could be said of him: "He hasn't a stick of property to his name."

She understood life only in terms of property. When she looked at the town, she saw it "in the pattern of a gigantic blueprint. She knew the history of every piece of valuable property—who bought it, who sold it, who owned it in 1893, and what it was worth now." "She was obsessed. She talked real estate unendingly. She spent half her time talking to real estate men; they hovered about the house like flesh-flies." Eliza demanded everything show a profit, even her own home, so she turned it into a boarding house, just as Wolfe's own mother had done. "Dixieland," as it is called in the novel, became "the heart of her life."

In his father, Wolfe hoped he had found a principle by which he could negate the property world of his mother. That is why Wolfe romanticizes his father, a sculptor of headstones, as the artist and seeker—the hater of property and bourgeois respectability. The boy sees in the father "a silent horror of selling for money the bread of one's table, the shelter of one's walls. . . ." Because he was unalterably opposed to the mother's plans for making money, the father appeared to Eugene in *Look Homeward, Angel* in a glowing light. The father says quite early in the story: "I hope I never own another piece of property as long as I live. It is nothing but a curse and a care, and the tax-collector gets it all in the end."

But it turns out that Gant is not so much opposed to the spending of money as he is to the making of it. The father, in his own way, turns out to be as selfish as the mother.

Gant, for all his hatred of land ownership . . . would have like ready and unencumbered affluence—the possession of huge sums of money in the bank and in his pocket, the freedom to travel grandly, to go before the world spaciouly.

Grant was just as selfish in regard to experience as Eliza was in regard to property. Eugene comes to realize that "his father's life had devoured whatever had served it, and that few men had had more sensuous enjoyment, or had been more ruthless in their demands on others."

The boys turns from his father to his brother in search of a principle by which to negate property. It is Ben who questions the basis of their life most searchingly. Ben says to Eliza:

"My God, my God, where are we going? What's it all about? . . . Look at his life. Look at yours. No light, no love, no comfort—nothing. . . . Mama, mama, in God's name, what is it? What do you want? Are you going to strangle us all? Don't you own enough? Do you want more string? Do you want more bottles? . . . Don't you own enough? Do you want the town?"

What dramatic resolution there is in *Look Homeward, Angel* is the result of Eugene's departure from his family for the North with this dramatic repudiation on his lips: "To hell with the real estate! I want none of your dirt. I hate it."

Wolfe's next two novels after *Look Homeward, Angel*, *Of Time and the River*, and *The Web and the Rock*, are rich in incident and detail, but they show the protagonist in flight without clearly showing what it is he is fleeing from.

In *You Can't Go Home Again*, Wolfe's last novel, he returns to the contradictions engendered by private property, but this time it is not just his mother who is obsessed with money-making but all of America. The important event which separates the two books, one which accounts in part for Wolfe's deeper understanding of life, was the crash in 1929. From this catastrophe Wolfe learned that the problems he dealt with in *Look Homeward, Angel* were not confined to one family but were rather of national scope, and it was not his mother or her family alone who were the cause of the trouble but rather the huge corporations which controlled almost every aspect of American life.

Wolfe convincingly describes the bankruptcy of bourgeois society in *You Can't Go Home Again*, but for all that he somehow never transcends the limitations of the liberal tradition. To the last Wolfe distrusted and feared the masses. In one of the rare cases where he tried to deal with

working people under capitalism, the results were not very successful. I am thinking of the two elevator operators in *You Can't Go Home Again*. These two get trapped in an elevator during a fire and suffocate. The irony is that their death is attributable to the carelessness and indifference of the wealthy occupants whom they were trying to evacuate from the building. While the scene is intended to point up the callousness of the rich and the foolishness of any loyalty to them on the part of working people, in fact, what the scene does better than anything else is to show Wolfe's inability to attain real insight into the lives of any but his own class. The problems of working people are neither quite so dramatic or so simple as suffocating in elevators.

The failure of the liberal tradition, if we take Wolfe as our example, is that, once it had shown property was not a basis of true democracy, it was not able then to go on and show that it is the people themselves and not the individual standing apart by himself who can make American democracy a reality.

Miss Nowell's book confirms what has generally been suspected: Wolfe's writing is strongly autobiographical. Hers is a literary biography of the first order. But a full study of Wolfe and his work has yet to be written. When it is Miss Nowell's biography will probably be drawn upon extensively.

## THE PURE IN HEART

LARS LAWRENCE

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The following story is an excerpt from *The Hoax*, an installment of a multi-volume work of fiction by Lars Lawrence entitled *The Seed*. This volume will be published by John Calder in London. The first two books in the series, *Morning Noon and Night* and *Out of the Dust*, appeared in 1954 and 1956.

Those volumes sketched four critical days in the southwestern industrial town of Reata. An eviction results in a riot in the course of which a prisoner escapes, a sheriff and two workers are killed, hundreds of coal-miners and their wives and children are terrorized, their leaders jailed on murder charges after an irregular hearing.

Frank Hogarth, a labor lawyer, is summoned from Los Angeles to defend the workers, but, refused permission to practice law in Reata, he moves on to the capital city of Hidalgo in search of legal and financial aid for the defense. There, wealthy Doctor Pan Parmalee and her lover Petty Pierce give a cause party for the Reata workers at which Hogarth is the main speaker, the guests mostly intellectuals and members of the local art colony. For a general account of the embattled union the reader is referred to Mr. Salter's article elsewhere in this issue.

AT THE TOP of the steps leading down into the living-room Frank made a megaphone of her hands. "Friends," she said, "you've all seen my etchings—now wouldn't you like to admire my Hogarth?"

She got the friendly squeak she had hoped for. Joining in the laughter she put out her hand and drew Frank up the steps beside her. Before she finished her affectionate introduction everyone seemed to have f

then what a frost the party really was; they settled down as if they looked forward to enjoying themselves.

However, as Frank began recounting the events leading up to the Mata riot, he seemed as deliberate as an orator launching into a two-hour harangue. Perhaps her impression was due to the fact that she had heard the story before; but if she herself was fidgetty, she was sure this restless bunch would never hold still for it.

This night was hoodooed, and Pet, the smart cookie, had foreseen it. He had given her hell last night, after the Hogarths' departure, for combining a party with a political meeting—and how right he had been! He was always doing that, underestimating Pet and getting into jams in consequence. . . .

"In order to escape the exorbitant rents charged by the coal company," Frank's voice rolled on, "the miners squatted on what they believed to be public land, put up their own huts and lived in them for years. Then, one day, a man came to them saying that *he* owned that land and demanding payment for title to it. That man was State Senator Jaques Mahoney. Most of the miners were working then; they felt they could afford to pay. They signed papers agreeing to make certain periodic payments.

"Now mind you, I don't at this moment question Senator Mahoney's legal right to evict those who couldn't pay. That is a matter between him and his conscience—and ours."

Pan noted with dismay that one of the native workers, Jacobo Galgos, was nodding in his sofa corner, and Lydia Kovacs and Steve Sena were elbowing him to keep him awake. Poor man—he was probably exhausted by a long day's work, and Pan was sure the sofa was more comfortable than his own bed. He ought to be allowed to enjoy it. Hurry, Frank!

"After they had reestablished the Fernández family in their home, the people decided to take up the whole question of the evictions with the officials. All the next day they tried to find the Mayor. They returned to his office again and again. At last, late in the day, they were informed that he had been 'called out of town.' And on the second morning they were shocked to learn that Mr. Fernández had been arrested——"

Her guests were beginning to hang on his words at last when all at once the front door burst open and a man's voice cried, "Shirkers of the world, unite! You have nothing to lose but your brains!"—followed by tremendous whoop of laughter.

Pan recognized the chronically late Worthington Short and his dinner guests—Anna Forrest, Stanton Walls, the Blyes (*mère et fille*), Pixie Pan, and a sad young man Pan didn't know—all of them more than half-

crooked. Frank, finding it impossible to compete with a circus, turned in the direction of the door and grinned his good-fellow grin.

Pan sped to the vestibule, finger on lip and hissing loudly, not with any hope of silencing so irresponsible a scene-stealer as Worthy Short but to demonstrate to Frank that she was at least trying. As she might have expected, the newcomers all took up her hissing, exaggerated noisily, then berated each other for being so loud. They were so outraged that under any other circumstances Pan would have broken down and laughed.

Their apologies for "disturbing divine service" were as disturbing as their entrance. Insincerely they begged Frank's pardon, then proceeded to halloo and wiggle their fingers at friends in the living-room before relinquishing the upstage eminence of the stairs.

Getting them seated almost unseated the rest of the room. They stumbled over others' feet, upset ashtrays into people's laps, clumped themselves together into inadequate spaces from which they begged to be extricated: "*Would you mind dreadfully moving over so we can sit together? Wonnnderful, thank you.*" Even after they were down they borrowed each other's cigarettes and matches, repainted mouths, combed hair, and tossed out the last crumb of wit before surrendering the floor with an air of "*Now you show me*" . . .

The return of quiet gave Pixie Ryan an irresistible opportunity to go his piercing wolf-whistle and roll his eyes, calling attention to Anglique Blye, a sexy little minx straight out of a Paris convent who was sitting with her chubby little legs crossed and her skirt "unconsciously hiked above the knee. At the sound she blushed ever so prettily, hid her head at the wrathful whispers of chère maman, and hastily lowered the curtain on the tableau.

Just as Frank was opening his mouth to resume, Worthy Short turned his lips to Stanton Walls's ear and asked in a high falsetto, "Daddy, what does Uncle Pet sprinkle the pollen?" And whooped.

"Short!" Pan megaphoned over the din, "be worthy of your hire and shut up!"

But it seemed everybody had to embroider on the crack, and it was another minute before Frank could relax his by-now stiff smile. "May I," he said. "Thank you."

That ought to hold 'em, Pan thought—unless it antagonizes them.

Frank's confidence grew as he built up to his climax—the riot, the terror, the raids—and pictured a whole city in the grip of vengeful men. Pan no longer worried about his ability to hold their attention. Pet was listening with his mouth open. Even Worthy Short's pink plu-



countenance looked wholly absorbed. Only Jacobo Gallegos had surrendered to sleep, and no one thought to nudge him any more.

" . . . When I say 'hundreds' were terrorized, have you any clear idea of what that means? There are fewer than fifty people in this room. Suppose now *that door* was suddenly smashed to splinters by armed thugs, who then proceeded to crack our skulls with pistol-butts and blackjacks and drag us off to the Pen—just down that road!—on charges of "conspiring to commit murder!—and locked us up in the death house next to the electric chair!"

Pan saw that many besides herself were feeling an irrational anxiety, though they masked it with nervous giggles.

Then Frank gave them the wide friendly smile. "Don't worry, it can't happen here. This is not Reata. Not yet! But as sure as you sit there it can and *will* happen here if we look away and do nothing while it happens to our neighbors in Reata . . ."

Inevitably there came a let-down when Frank began explaining why he had left Reata and come to Hidalgo; but Pan calculated hopefully that another two or three minutes should see him through.

". . . In Reata I was effectively stymied. I was not allowed to interview witnesses. In fact, I was turned away by force of arms.

"However, you may well be asking yourselves another question: Why did I come *here*—to Hidalgo—rather than to some other city?

"My friends, I came here because I knew this was a community of the pure in heart—"

Frank was utterly taken aback by their roar of laughter. He tried several times to continue, but they wouldn't let him until they had laughed their fill.

"You know," he told them, shaking his finger, "you're too modest. Because it's true. It has always been the function and privilege of artists to uphold the dignity and the rights of man—to reaffirm humanist principles in every age. Of this you should be proud."

They looked so embarrassed that Pan had difficulty repressing a giggle. Ah, she understood them so well! They had always thought of the role of art as being to shock, to startle, to *épater* the bourgeois, rather than to defend his victims. They had been made to feel like moral lepers so long, by busybodies who censored their plays, derided their pictures and denounced their private lives, that the very idea of their upholding old-fashioned moral values seemed to them ludicrous. If they gave a moment's thought to "the dignity of man," it was to scout such a notion as stuffy and outmoded. How often had she heard them agree together that since the abolition of the anthropocentric universe by Copernicus, and espe-

cially since the reduction of human nature to blind unconscious instinct by Freud, man had lost all human dignity and slipped back into the company of worms, in life as in death.

She too had laughed at Frank's characterization of artists as the pure in heart. She too had always thought of them as misfits in their own time, no matter how eloquently their work might speak to future generations. How many invalids and madmen crowded her gallery of immortals. How many sots and lechers, hopheads and queers . . .

Suddenly her world was upside down. For an instant it was as if she heard again the jeers of the elegant marionettes whom she had told during a suffrage debate: "If women are wiser than men, it's because they've never been free to be as stupid." It seemed in retrospect to have been an inspired phrase. And so Frank Hogarth seemed no longer the rather heavy-handed propagandist she had thought him till now, but a penetrating and creative spirit, while those who felt embarrassed by what they considered his sentimentality seemed less like creative artists than insensitive bourgeois, *épatés* and dumb in the face of the eternal verities of art—mere clods disguising their conventionality by a mask of unconventional wit, wilfully eccentric poems and paintings, or psychological deviations. She tried to hold the thought and relate it more exactly to her experience in the fight for suffrage; but even as she began to examine it it faded, and presently her world was turned back, right side up, and Frank seemed either very naive or very stupid to be lecturing intellectuals on the function of the intellect.

". . . In any case you can be proud of your city; for the very first lawyer I approached here agreed wholeheartedly to associate himself with the defense——"

Pan herself led the applause with a "Bravo!" Frank had returned to firm ground.

"Thanks to Paul Schermerhorn, the undefended are now defended. The accused at last have counsel—which they should have had days ago.

"Much ground has been lost through these delays. Nevertheless I say to you with confidence, echoing the words of General Foch at the Marne, 'Hard-pressed on my right, my centre giving way, I find the situation excellent—I attack!'"

Even before the applause was over, members of Worthy's party began a movement in the direction of the bar.

# BUCHENWALD

*ANTON REFREGIER*

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The author is a painter and muralist who is well known in this country and abroad for both his art and his efforts on behalf of peace.

**N**OT so long ago in the press, there were stories of the neglect of the Memorial in the former concentration camp of Dauchau—near Munich in the German Federal Republic. This reminded me of my recent visit to Buchenwald, in the other part—in the German Democratic Republic, commonly known as East Germany.

Early one morning, I left the East Berlin Airport and after an hour's flight, landed at Erfurt. And then by car, drove through the lovely countryside to Weimar—a town of old winding streets, little squares, and the houses of Goethe and Schiller. We drove through the town out into the countryside again. A winding road cut through a pine forest, to the gate of the concentration camp—Buchenwald. The iron gate was well ornamented, obviously the work of a fine craftsman, in the center a legend—**TO EACH HIS OWN**. The gate that opened only once for thousands and thousands of people.

Here, I was met by a guide, a man who himself had survived 8 years of imprisonment. The vast area covered with fine crushed stone from the nearby quarry was now empty. Formerly, rows upon rows of barracks stood here. Now there was only the entrance with a long wire fence rusting but formerly charged with electric current—the fat, ugly, chimney and the low houses of the crematorium—a museum at the opposite end—and way at the other end of this vast, empty area, a tall post with metal spikes and a cart half-full of stone. Down below, stretching in all directions, a soft, lyrical landscape. A horrible contrast—the beauty of



THE OLD WIRE FENCE

*Buchenwald*



*Marek*

*Buchenwald*

*VISITORS*

nature and the ugly work of man. On the way to the crematorium, we stopped by a spot now covered with grass. This place, my guide said, the Nazis called ROSE SQUARE. For punishment, prisoners stood here barefooted, on the sharp edges of stone—stood here for hours bleeding.

The crematorium was dim and quiet. I don't remember if the quietness was in the room or in us standing there before the open doors of the furnaces. A wreath of fresh flowers with a blue ribbon was lying on the floor. We just stood there, for the reality was overwhelming.

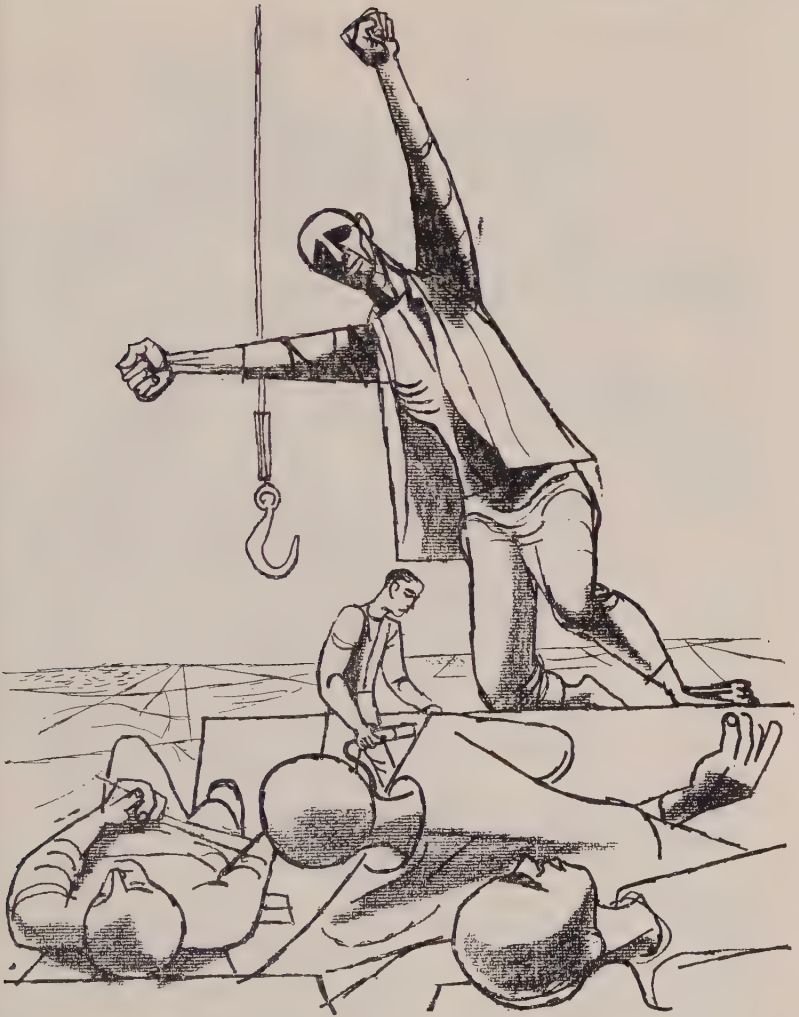
We passed the torture room. An ingenious execution room. And, finally, the dissection room. Neat and white-tiled with a tile block in the center where the doctors verified their medical experiments. Out through a door to the courtyard, we passed by the portable gallows now grey with age, its hooks rusting.

Again we crossed the empty area where less than two decades ago men were suffering and dying. In the very first days, an Underground was organized, my guide said. Over 800 people in 11 language groups methodically worked saving lives and keeping up the courage of others. This post used to hang the men by their bound wrists, their arms twisted towards the back of their necks. And any man arriving here who was tattooed was automatically condemned to death. For he was the favorite subject of Elsa Koch. His body was skinned. The skin cured and the anchors, eagles, hearts and girls and other fanciful tattoos were made into lampshades.

Many groups were entering the gate. Visitors from various parts of the German Democratic Republic, from West Germany, and, literally, from all over the world.

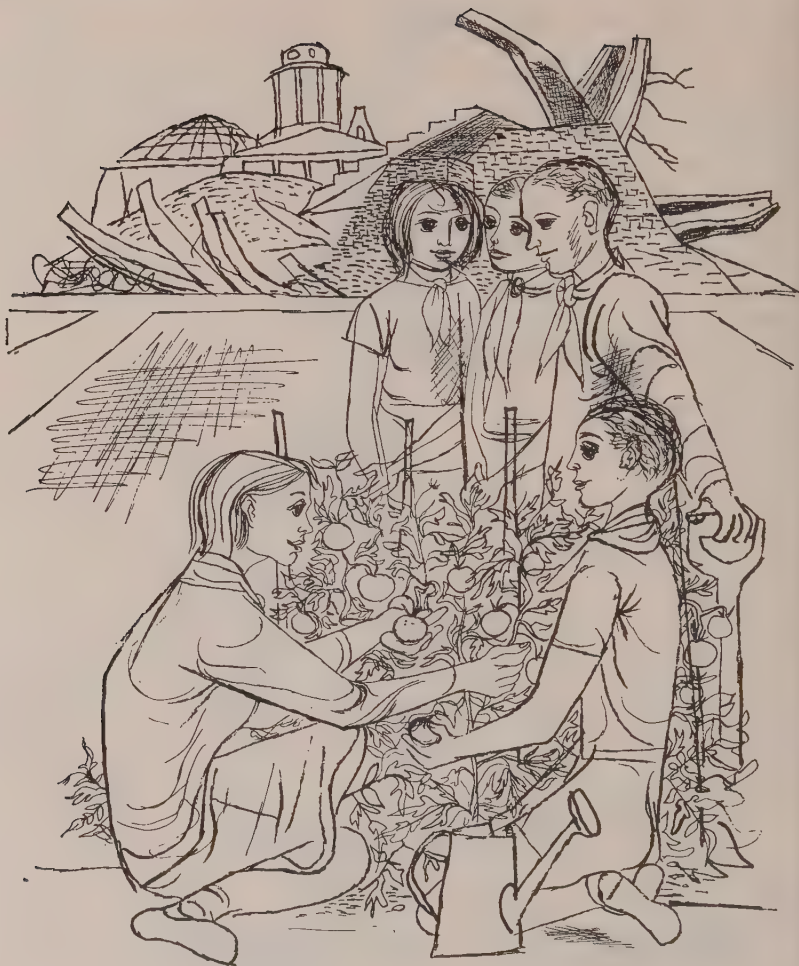
We entered the museum. In photographs and documents, the rise of Nazism is traced here. Starting with the end of the first World War, the rise and defeat of the revolutionary movement, photographs of Hindenburg, Hitler, and Hitler's backers, the German business men and financiers and the financiers from outside Germany. In one section of this vast hall, there is a heap of children's shoes—so eloquently speaking of the dead children. Another exhibit—a bolt of cloth woven from women's hair. A radio smuggled into the camp and a small radio built by the prisoners. And the weapons. Photographs of the Heroes of the Underground. And, finally, photographs of the prisoners in their striped garments, who after liberating themselves, greeted the British soldiers outside the camp.

A visit to the former camp of Buchenwald is a deep and terrible experience but the exhibit does not allow one to walk away in sorrow alone. One feels a deep respect for the courage and endurance of man.



MEMORIAL UNDER CONSTRUCTION

*Buchenwald*



BERLIN\*

*\* The destruction in the background was present during the artist's first visit in 1959 but entirely cleaned away on his return in 1960.*



On the way out, I bought an illustrated book—a memento of Buchenwald—and in it I read: "In Weimar, Goethe and Schiller created for the glory and fame of Germany and for the good of the world; and everyone, sometime in his life, moved by their words, paid respect to these writers. Not far from Weimar, is another place which became world famous. It is not far—an hour's walk up the hill. But after all, don't be frightened—YOU will return. . . ."

"Fifty-five thousand people died here," said my guide. "And you must remember that there were many Germans among them. The first people to die in the concentration camps were Germans." This, I thought, is important to remember. "Many guilty people escaped from here to the Western Zone," he continued, "doctors responsible for brutal experiments that maimed and killed people. There was Dr. Eisner and Dr. Dook. One even practiced in Western Germany until public opinion forced his flight abroad."

Some distance away, carved into a slope against a vast landscape flowing into the horizon is a huge Memorial. Blocks of stone, carved with the history of the Nazi terror and the resistance of man, line the staircase ascending to the Plaza of Nations. They are inscribed with the names of the many countries the prisoners came from. On either side, round pits, the common graves. And, again, a staircase rising to a bronze group. This is the work of one of the leading German sculptors of the German Democratic Republic—Fritz Cremer. It is a powerful and beautifully conceived group of emaciated men unbroken in spirit. This sculpture like all the art I saw here is in the continuing tradition of the best of the humanist art of Kaethe Kollowitz, Lembruck and Barlach. The Memorial was under construction—several figures lying on the ground grotesquely paraphrasing the bodies of men we have all seen in hundreds of photographs.

Further on, as a setting to the sculpture, rises a huge bell tower. Here I read the inscription—"Our purpose—the complete destruction of nationalism. Our goal—the construction of a new world in peace and freedom." Inside the tower, is an empty shell. A wooden staircase, hugging its sides, rises to the top and in the center, impressed in the floor, is a large bronze plaque—the work of Waldemar Grzimek. Engraved in the plaque are the feet of men standing on thorns as if seen from below and surrounded by the names of all the concentration camps in Germany. As I stood there in the quiet, a group of children came through the door carrying a wreath of flowers. They lowered it to the bronze plaque thus joining their gift to the many others. . . . A steady stream of flowers brought by groups of people coming from everywhere.

Five years it took to build the Buchenwald Memorial—a vast sum of money—the labor of a vast number of people. “It is good to know I said to my guide, “that this was done by your people at a time when housing was badly needed and clothing and food and schools.” “But he said, “this Memorial, we needed too.”

As I looked down on the valley below, I thought how fantastic—people were living there in the comfort of Weimar—warm in the winter—their children playing in the sunshine of the summer—and, here, not a mile away, among the pine trees, smoke constantly poured out of the chimney of the crematorium, burning the flesh of human beings. Families of Weimar spent a quiet evening at home, perhaps, at that very moment people were dying in the gas chambers and wasting away from the killing work in the quarry.

As I was thinking these thoughts, my guide said: “When the British and Americans came, they made every inhabitant of the town of Weimar come to Buchenwald to see the death—to smell the stench—to look into the eyes of those still living.”

I got into the car, and again entered the town of Weimar. We drove by the house of Goethe and the house of Schiller and into a square where on the side of a three story building, hung a huge, blue, banner with Picasso's dove. This was for everyone to see in the shadow of Buchenwald.

# SONGS OF IMPATIENCE

MORDECHAI AVI-SHAUL

---

"Ach diese Lucke! diese entsetzliche  
Lucke, die ich hier in meinen Busen fuhle"\*  
(Goethe)

## I

### YOUR HAND, BROTHER

Quick, quick, a hole's in my chest,  
On the left side, there is a hole,  
There is a hole in my heart.  
Call for the doctor  
For there is a hole in my chest.  
Electricity flows through me in the prisons of Algiers,  
Iron breaks my bones in the jails of Pretoria,  
And in the fortress of Burgos they gouge out my eyes.  
There is a hole in my heart  
And the knife cuts through the hole  
One hundred and seventy times every second.

Do not believe the unbelievers.  
There is a hole in my chest, a deadly hole.  
If there is a physician, call him now  
For there is a hole in my heart.

\*"Oh this hole, this dreadful  
Hole that I feel here in my chest."

Do not stare upon my impatience.  
 Run—every minute is centuries.  
 In Angola they snatch my child from me,  
 In Saigon they make me drink the poison of vipers,  
 In Seoul the scorpion strikes at my neck.

Oh, brother, your hand—  
 Your warm, living hand, brother—  
 Your hand in mine  
 As long as I breathe  
 For one part of me will not be broken  
 They will not break my spine.

Give me your hand—heal me.  
 Do not tarry over the hole,  
 You, whose eyes have seen the inferno,  
 You, the wounded of the race,  
 You, witnesses to the columns of smoke,  
 Do not be serene in judgment.  
 Quick—every minute is centuries,  
 Every pulse beat a knife in my heart.  
 Give me your hand, brother,  
 Clasp your hand firmly to mine.

## II

### TWO YEARS

Come, said to me the generous white master,  
 You'll strengthen your body so wasted,  
 Come with me, said the noble white master,  
 And your pagan soul will be cleansed.  
 Wages is honey so sweet  
 And wonder advises the drink—  
 Come, and without any fuss,  
 Or else . . ! And that's all.  
 Come, dig me stones of fire and water  
 From out of the womb of earth.  
 You'll see, they are more beautiful than the stars in the sky—  
 And two years later

The Chapter will be finished,  
Clad in trousers and tie  
You shall go back to the Kraal—unexpected.  
Where is the wife? The children?—Dear me!  
All the world is breathless  
They will measure you, front and back:  
Hang it all, ha, ha, ha, ha!  
Who is this black scarecrow?  
Jewels will jingle—every limb adorned with them—  
The hut will be gone, and a house you build, a palace . . .  
Domkop,\* the hut is but a grave!

I went with the generous white master  
To strengthen my body so wasted,  
I went with the noble white master  
To cleanse my pagan soul.  
He gave me my wages  
And sold me his drinks.  
I went out without any fuss,  
for else . . . ! And that's all.  
For him I dug up stones of fire and water  
From out of the womb of earth,  
And truly, they were more beautiful than the stars in the sky—

Two years went by  
And the chapter was finished.  
And without tie and trousers  
I came back to the Kraal—unexpected.  
Where is my wife? Where are my children?—Dear me!  
All  
    the world  
        is breathless—  
They measure me, front and back,  
Hang it all, oh, oh, oh, oh!  
Who is this black skeleton?  
His ribs rattling . . . every limb of him cracked—  
The hut is gone, and in Cape Town a palace is built . . .  
The hut . . . the hut is but dust and ashes.

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\* Domkop = fool (in the African-Boer language).

## III

## PASS CARD

My white lord,  
 Here is my pass:  
 It is stamped on my arms with hot irons,  
 Engraved on my back with your horse-whip.  
     But it is worth the price. Destiny is generous,  
     My old mother waits for me in the Kraal,  
     And washes away the dirt of the town  
     Where no Kaffir may lodge.  
     My child plays in the depths of the sewers  
     Burning in fever at night . . . father, father.  
     His little hands reaching up to the stars.

Here is my pass:  
 My arm sowed the dawn on the Cape of Dreams,  
 In my chest silicosis, reward of the diamond,  
 My back bleeding with the load of pillory.  
 And here is your signature:  
 A scar,  
 And it reads:  
 Allowed to pass and to die in the shade of the Lord of Hosts.  
     But it is worth the price,  
     Here and there, destiny is generous,  
     Without iron or whip or barbed wire.  
     But down in the Kraal before dawn  
     My wife's soul flew away from the threshold.  
     And I hear my children laugh—laugh—  
     In their dreams, so near is the far-away.

Here is my pass:  
 The hammer: my fist,  
 My eye which will lighten my coast,  
 My heart which overflows to the very ends of my landscape.  
     But it is worth the price:  
     Bring back my generations,  
     Oh, desert of Kalahari, dress me with your violet cloak,  
     Witwatersrand  
     Give me back the salt of my sweat,

For my time has come.  
The earth so drank its fill,  
Let my fountains swell up from deep under,  
The stammering of my tongue which licked the flames  
Will be cured by their liquid.  
They will break the chains which have cut deep into the  
    flesh of Africa,  
Three miles deep, from sea to sea.

Africa, dark!—  
White lord, do you see her destiny's mark?  
    Here, in the palm of my hand  
I hold of her dawn the Pass Card.

Tel-Aviv, 1960.

*Translated from the Hebrew by Bilha Babr.*

# IUMM&SW: THE GOOD, TOUGH FIGHT

JOHN R. SALTER, JR.

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## *I. A Couple of Words*

**F**EW stories in history are as colorful as are those relating to the struggles of the American worker, who through his labor union has striven long and hard to escape the status of an exploited creature within a vast industrial culture. He has had to battle mightily indeed against those forces founded upon ignorance and reaction to further his dignity and well being as a member of mankind.

The Machiavellian tendencies of capitalism have, for the time being at least, shaped the course of mass population growth and increasing technology in such a way that fear, apathy, and ignorance course throughout the United States of America.

Yet the International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers (Ind.), in the face of the most embittered opposition from all sides, has survived, expanded and conducted its fight for its membership and a better America in a far more than merely satisfactory fashion.

## *Sketching the Context*

**K**NOWN in its early days as the Western Federation of Miners, the Mine-Mill union was formed in 1893 following violent and bloody labor upheavals in the Coeur d'Alene mining district of northern Idaho. Against the power absorbing growth of gigantic industrial corporations which—in the mining industry as elsewhere within the United States were callous regarding the welfare of those whom they employ



—the western miners, millmen and smeltermen incorporated into their organization the very finest strains of radicalism and the most resourceful and tough aspects of the frontier tradition.

From the time of its inception to the present, IUMM&SW has crusaded with vigor and competence for the cause of the working people. Through both industrial and political action, it has been responsible for such advances as the cutting of long working days—some once as high as sixteen and eighteen hours—to eight. It has raised wages from a barely subsistence level to the point where its members now eat and live in the fashion to which people are entitled. It has secured safety conditions infinitely better than those of the pre-union days when lead and arsenic poisoning and lung-eating silicosis were rife and mine cave-ins occurred at close intervals and with great loss of life and limb. It has obtained well equipped and well staffed hospitals in the metaliferrous industry camps and has fought for and secured far better housing in the company towns than was once the case when privy-like sacks were common. It was instrumental in the expansion of the American Federation of Labor, was the prime founder of the Industrial Workers of the World, and in the 'thirties and 'forties it was an integral and most active component of the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

One of the most democratic of all unions in organizational structure, theory, and practice, IUMM&SW has crusaded in every conceivable fashion for the furtherance of civil rights and civil liberties for everyone, whether the individual concerned is a rank-and-file member of Mine-Mill, or whether he is a member of a political, religious, national, or racial minority with no IUMM&SW connection. The union has stumped successfully for increased public welfare measures for all Americans and, in the towns where it exists as a collective bargaining agency, it has performed extremely well as a constructive community force with respect to civic problems.

And, unlike most American unions and self-styled liberal bodies, Mine-Mill has resolutely held—no matter the nature and degree of the opposition—to a genuine, *fundamentally progressive* course.

AND there has been much opposition. All through its history, the antagonists of IUMM&SW have mustered a wide variety of repressive techniques: the killing and maiming of union organizers and pickets, the deportation and blacklisting of unionists, raids from rival labor unions including many of the "company union" sort, strike-breaking injunctions, and framed-up charges against its spokesmen and

membership. This has been quite true indeed whether the struggle was back in the 1890's or early 1900's at Coeur d'Alene, Telluride, Cripple Creek, Lead—or at Boise, in 1907, when Clarence Darrow successfully defended the hulking prophet of the miners, William D. Haywood, against a false murder charge manufactured by the mine owners. It was true in the Arizona of 1917 where, at Bisbee on the Mexican border on a hot July day, a self-termed "loyalty-league" deported 1200 striking miners into the desert without food or water. It was true in the great organizing campaigns of the 'thirties and 'forties in the Tri-State region of Kansas, Missouri and Oklahoma and down in the iron mining sections of Tennessee and Alabama when the Klux Klan crawled forth from its hole in the ground. For businessmen characteristically deliver nothing but the most vicious type of opposition when the vision of socio-economic democracy rises upon the horizon.

But the anti-IUMM&SW campaign was particularly intensive during the 1950's—when the United States government joined forces with the traditional enemies of the union, to overtly try its hand in a strike-breaking, union-wrecking role.

Cold War fear and hysteria and an anti-union campaign were sparked and threaded and molded together in the machines of the reactionaries—and the poisonous product flowered like jimson weed in post World War II days to permeate nearly every section of America. Forthwith the officialdom of the CIO—of which Mine-Mill was a member—became increasingly cautious and conservative. In 1949 and 1950, the CIO expelled and forced out twelve of the so-called "left-wing" unions which had, without compromise, refused to follow the detrimental house-broken line being laid down by leaders of the multi-union federation. One of the left-wing unions was IUMM&SW, whose sins included negative criticism of the Marshall Plan, a championing of the cause of the Wallace Progressive Party, a hostile view of the Taft-Hartley Act, and the greatest bogey of all—alleged domination by the Communist Party. And, once out of the CIO, Mine-Mill found itself the recipient of a number of extraordinarily vindictive thrusts calculated to either irreparably hamstring it or destroy it completely. Opposed viciously by management, it was also raided without mercy by AFL and CIO unions—which displayed no qualms regarding use of the "red-bait." The raiding campaigns netted some IUMM&SW locals and opposition from the bosses smashed a few, but—unlike many of the other left-wing unions which were subsequently destroyed by such a double-smash—Mine-Mill had a long, long history of entrenched

worker militancy and loyalty in its jurisdictional area. The doughy mine union recouped most of its losses and even organized a substantial amount of new territory and, thus, expanded to an appreciable degree.

When it became obvious that management and right-wing union pressure was not enough, the government moved in.

IN 1952, the Senate Internal Security Committee, led by the late Pat McCarran of Nevada, and staffed by such worthies as J. B. Mathews and Harvey Matusow, hauled some of the most prominent Mine-Mill spokesmen before it, in a futile attempt to prove "Moscow domination" in a IUMM&SW strike in which, ironically enough, it had been the mining concerns and not the union, who had refused to bargain. The command of the government was in Grant County, New Mexico in late 1952 and early 1953, when Mine-Mill Local 890, led by Juan Chacon and Clinton Jencks, assisted a Hollywood group in filming "Salt of the Earth," based on a prolonged and successful IUMM&SW strike which had occurred at Hanover, New Mexico the year before. Intermixed with the burning of homes of union members, the brutal assaults on Mine-Mill officials and friends, and the formation of a vigilante committee which told union militants, "Clear out of Grant County in twelve hours or be carried out in black boxes," the U.S. Department of Immigration deported, on a minor technicality, leading lady Rosura Revueltas to her native Mexico. In 1954, Clinton Jencks, then an International Representative of IUMM&SW was, on the flimsy and sketchy testimony of Harvey Matusow, convicted in a Dixiecrat courtroom in El Paso of perjuring himself on the non-Communist Taft-Hartley affidavits. Years later, Matusow announced that he'd lied, and eventually, in 1957, Jencks was released by the Supreme Court. In 1954 again, the National Labor Relations Board attempted to strip, through de-certification procedures, the bargaining rights of IUMM&SW, charging that Idaho-born Maurice Travis, at that time International Secretary-Treasurer, had committed perjury when he had signed the non-Communist Taft-Hartley oath. The Supreme Court later killed this maneuver which, had it been successful, would have eventually led to the complete destruction of Mine-Mill. Travis, however, was singled out in 1955, charged and eventually convicted of Taft-Hartley oath perjury. He appealed and received a new trial, at which he was again found guilty. And in 1957, the Subversive Activities Control Board held almost half a year of hearings calculated to prove the "Communist domination" of the mine union. The hearings were eventually recessed with no decision being announced.

*III. The Crucible of 1959*

**T**HE severest test of any labor union comes either during a prolonged and embittered and far-flung strike, or during a well developed legal attack. When the two occur simultaneously, the union involved is on extremely dangerous ground. In varying degrees, such a combination of circumstances and methodology had been most instrumental in almost completely wrecking such dissident groups as the Industrial Workers of the World. In the late summer, fall, and early winter of 1959 IUMM&SW faced the most crucial assault of its entire history when it became embroiled not only in the largest and longest copper strike to ever hit the industry, but also in an intense legal struggle with the federal government.

In mid-1956, a federal grand jury began sitting in "secret" session in Denver and, at the same time, agents of the FBI commenced to drift quietly through the hard-rock industry towns falling within the jurisdiction of Mine-Mill, and hopefully asking a great many management officials and others questions regarding knowledge of the alleged "Communist domination" of the union. The month of November, 1956 saw government authorities hand down indictments against thirteen top Mine-Mill staff members and Maurice Travis who had left the union some time before, charging them with "conspiracy" to file false non-Communist Taft-Hartley affidavits in the period between 1949 and 1956. After each was released on five thousand dollars bail, they waited for many, many months before being informed that their trial date was set for October, 1959.

The particular date of the judicial proceedings is of no small importance. It was common knowledge to both union, management, and much of the informed public in the geographical sections concerned that upon the expiration of the copper industry collective bargaining contracts in the summer of 1959, there was (owing to the declining state of the copper market and the subsequent stockpiling of the metal and to the generally widespread and increasing opposition to unionism) an excellent chance of a lengthy strike. When the trial date was finally set, many felt that it was no coincidence that the Denver conspiracy trial of IUMM&SW would coincide with the strike. It is almost universally accepted by those cognizant of the general background that the government had engaged in a move calculated to hit Mine-Mill when it was financially weakest and to level it to the ground.

It is pertinent, then, to note that, in the late spring of 1959, as the contracts at Phelps-Dodge, American Smelting and Refining, Kennecott

Anaconda, Magma and lesser concerns, came to expire—and as the trial date moved closer—the employers showed no desire whatsoever to come to any sort of terms with Mine-Mill and thus avert a strike. The union was aware of the thin ice upon which it had been placed, and had absolutely no desire to institute walk-out action. Later, it said:

For three months we copper workers tried everything short of strike to move the corporations. We patiently tried to negotiate. Twice we reduced our bargaining proposals. We enlisted the efforts of the U.S. Conciliation Service. We were always ready to meet at any time with the companies. . . . Even after a secret ballot strike vote on June 30 had authorized a walkout by a Yes vote of over 90 per cent, we still waited six weeks before striking. During all this time, the corporations just continued to say "No," and made no counter proposals of any kind.

In the middle of August, 1959, with the trial date less than two months away, Mine-Mill—troubled by the specter of permanent unemployment, faced with increasing job elimination, caught with static wages in an inflationary context, and sorely worried about rising medical costs and slipping working conditions—called out 30,000 of its 125,000 man membership, and struck the entire American copper producing business in the most widespread, and what was to be the most prolonged, strike in the history of the industry.

In October, 1959, pickets walked in front of the mines, mills, and smelters in the hot barren desert towns of the Southwest, and in the high, mountain communities of the Northwest where the winter winds were already beginning to blow. They stood in front of the scattered copper refineries in such cities as Omaha and Buffalo. And while union negotiating committees attempted to bargain with unyielding and recalcitrant management officials—the government, in Denver, opened its case against IUMM&SW.

Witnesses brought by the government—ten in number—included a motley collection of former Mine-Mill members, one of whom, James Peterson, had left the union staff bracket to accept a much higher paying position as labor relations expert for the Kennecott Corporation. Others, such as former Executive Board officials Kenneth Eckert and Bill Mason, had—when the union had been under its especially bitter attack from all sides some years before—left IUMM&SW for the rival AFL and CIO unions. A prime informer in the government's string was Art Morales, who had once been simultaneously receiving money from four different sources: a job in the mines, part-time em-

ployment as a Mine-Mill staff man, the Communist Party, and the FBI—this latter group having paid him on a “so much per each report” basis. Such a piece-work arrangement had inspired Morales to be most prolific and, in a six year period, he had received nearly \$13,500 from the Department of Justice. Of even more notorious nature was John Lautner, never connected with Mine-Mill, a man who had been for years a prominent official of the Communist Party and who, when the red-hunt had begun, had become a star witness and “Communist expert” for a host of government prosecutors and investigating outfits. One after another, those comprising the side of the government attempted to prove that the fourteen defendants had merely “pretended” to resign from the Communist Party in order to sign the Taft-Hartley oath. None were very successful at all in establishing such “proof” and even the highly skilled and resourceful Lautner could only mention a Communist Party gathering in New York City where it was decided that the left-wing unions would be better off if they would sign the Act. But no matter how much he skirted the issue, he could not specifically involve IUMM&SW or any of the defendants in question.

The trial dragged on and on. Out on the strike front, the corporations steadfastly refused to even make a shallow pretense at bargaining. In the regions where the shut-down was in progress, anti-union elements of all sorts flocked around the copper concerns in denouncing the “red” union. As October drew to an end, the company anti-union strategy suddenly took an ominous turn. In the little mining community of Superior, Arizona—only organized in late 1957 after a hard fought campaign which brought to an end nearly sixty years of open shop status—the controlling corporation, Magma, instituted a throw-out-the-union, back-to-work movement. Seizing a handful of die-hard “company pets” who had not, owing to Arizona’s right to work law, joined the union, and a scattering of embittered and disgruntled straws-in-the-wind, the Magma concern persuaded these malcontents to circulate petitions calling for an NLRB union recall election calculated to wreck the union and terminate the strike. With ill-concealed enthusiasm, the dominant Arizona newspaper, *The Arizona Republic*—voice of the extreme right wing of the Goldwater-dominated Arizona Republican Party—came forth with a banner, front-page headline which proclaimed, “Mine Union Doomed.” It was quite easily seen that the *Republic* hoped that the strike and the IUMM&SW would collapse.

In mid-November Nathan Witt, a most competent and prominent New York City labor lawyer, came to Phoenix. Witt, in the company

of Mine-Mill staff men, and officials and rank-and-file of the embattled Superior local, presented evidence to the NLRB regional officials of such nature as to conclusively indicate that the Magma corporation was illegally attempting to coerce workers into rejecting IUMM&SW. A bitter hassle ensued at the NLRB offices, and the entire matter was finally sent to Washington for a decision. The Washington NLRB office, however, acting with unusual dispatch and apparently ignoring the evidence garnered by Witt and others, shot back a reply that a Superior NLRB recall election would have to be held. Angry at what it felt was additional evidence of federal collusion with the mining corporations, IUMM&SW poured its best staff members into Superior in an attempt to hold the battle lines at that sector.

By now, however, back-to-work movements were flaring up sporadically at Douglas, Arizona and Ely, Nevada, with the perpetrators being essentially the same sort of anti-unionist species as was the case at Superior. At another Magma corporation town—San Manuel, Arizona—an incipient wreck-the-union campaign resulted in a clash between Mine-Mill stalwarts and company followers with the followers claiming that their recall petitions were being forcibly destroyed by the unionists. Local newspapers began to step up their campaign against the strikers, with the Denver conspiracy trial news being prominently displayed and with red-baiting quite a common feature. At Ray, Arizona, Kennecott officials began to send strikebreakers through the picket lines. When Mine-Mill called out its membership en masse for picketing, the company secured an injunction from a copper-collared judge and, when the union ignored the "legal" decree and continued to turn back the strikebreakers, law officials moved in and arrested the IUMM&SW militants, charging them with contempt of court. A wave of bitterness and angry dissention began to course through most of mining Arizona, and much of the West, and in the more easterly outposts of the struggling union.

Few doubted that IUMM&SW was in a grave condition. The massive legal defense efforts, coupled with mounting strike needs, had nearly emptied its treasury and it was receiving virtually no financial aid from anyone. Its two major surviving left-wing brethren, the International Longshoremens and Warehousemen's Union of Harry Bridges, and the United, Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America, both having had severe difficulties of their own with the government, sent what they could spare. A scattering of farm organizations, liberal groups, friendly individuals, and a few AFL-CIO local unions, sent contributions, most of a merely token nature. From the leaders of the AFL-CIO, Mine-Mill received nothing save a continuation of the old

hostility. Indeed, some AFL-CIO unions attempted to "raid" Mine-Mill striking locals, tactics which, had they succeeded, would have broken the strike in those areas. Only a few non-IUMM&SW unionists were perceptive enough to realize what was at stake. In an Arizona AFL-CIO delegates meeting, an official of a staid and quite respectable craft workers' local arose and, in the face of embarrassed hostility from the remainder of the federation unionists, told them bluntly that:

"Go on. Carry out your grudge against Mine-Mill. Don't contribute a dime to those guys packing the pickets up in the mine country. Don't contribute a penny to the defense of those officials in Denver—who aren't making half the salary you are and who are working twice as hard and who, despite the fact that their freedom could not be more in jeopardy, are spending as much time as they can away from the trial, trying to negotiate with the copper bosses. So just go right ahead and refuse to help Mine-Mill, but remember: If Mine-Mill goes, particularly in Arizona where its militancy has been about all that's kept our union movement going, your own organizations will eventually go, and you'll play right into the hands of the Goldwaters and the industrial bosses."

In the mine, mill and smelter towns the pickets continued their march. In Denver, the IUMM&SW legal staff pointed out that, along with the conflicting and highly ambiguous testimony from the government witnesses, there were also such points to consider as the fact that three of the defendants had never signed the Taft-Hartley oaths during the period in which the so-called "conspiracy" was said to have occurred; that the Taft-Hartley oath proviso was repealed by the September 1959 Landrum-Griffin Act; and that "A conspiracy indictment . . . permits [the prosecution] to drag in witnesses and evidence which would be excluded in an ordinary criminal trial and which often have little or nothing to do with the individual defendants."

The defense presented twenty witnesses, including rank-and-file unionists, some Chamber of Commerce folk, and even an open-minded corporation official, all of whom testified to the good character of the accused. When the IUMM&SW defense, however, brought in a well-known Quaker labor attorney, Stewart Meacham, who had volunteered his services to testify in behalf of Mine-Mill regarding specific details revolving around the union's decision to sign the Act, the court refused to hear him.

It was now early December, and a great many observers on all sides had come to realize that the outcome of the approaching NLRB union recall election at Superior might well symbolize not only the success



the failure of the copper workers' strike, but perhaps the very survival of Mine-Mill itself. A few days before the controversial election was to be held, IUMM&SW rushed venerable International President, John Clark, into the strike-torn community, to use his tough and militant personality to hold the local together. With a personal history in the hard-rock union movement dating back to 1915 and the days of the Western Federation of Miners—the great hey-day of American left-wing unionism—John Clark was well qualified to institute constructive remedial action at Superior. Calling a series of mass meetings, Clark spoke for hours to miners, townspeople, civic leaders, and even defectors. A shrewd analyst, he was fully aware of the role of the womanfolk in any successful strike and, in old fashioned "single-jack" fashion, he visited home after home, sitting at kitchen tables, drinking coffee, and explaining to men, women and children the position of the union and what they stood to gain if they could but hold out a little longer. He was successful and, a day before the election, the Mine-Mill women marched out of their homes, carrying picket signs which called upon their men to stand by IUMM&SW and the strike, and with their children paraded up and down the tense streets. Election day dawned in Superior, with seventy-odd state troopers, sheriff's men, and city police on hand. But the Superior strikers (including many who had come from temporary employment in California and New Mexico) voted five to one to retain their IUMM&SW local and continue the struggle. Within a matter of hours, the throw-out-the-union, back-to-work movements had collapsed all over the West.

And so the strike was fought on, but up in Denver—where the fate of the union rested not in its own hands, but in those of a judge and jury—both prosecutor and defense summarized and rested their cases, and the judge released two of the defendants for total lack of evidence. At the jury found the remainder of the IUMM&SW spokesmen guilty. Subsequently, in March, 1960 sentences from eighteen months to three years, laced with heavy fines, were levied. The Mine-Mill defense, backed by a number of socially aware and interested private citizens, all feeling the conduct of the government's case and the verdict of the jurors to be most questionable, filed an appeal.)

Suddenly, in mid-December, with the copper stockpile declining in value and apparently realizing that IUMM&SW would not die, American Smelting and Refining reluctantly came to terms, granting—in substance—the Mine-Mill demands.

Magma followed, then Kennecott, and finally, in January, 1960, the remainder of the copper corporations conceded defeat.

*IV. A Last Word*

Said one union official, not too long after the last of the demands had been ratified by the rank-and-file, and the last picket sign had been—for the time being—laid down:

It was a fight for survival, and nothing less. Even in the early days, our union never faced what we've just gone through—not even really in the Cripple Creek and Coeur d'Alene strikes or during the Haywood trial. The only thing that pulled us through was our past and present tradition of militancy, liberalism, and rank-and-file democracy. We won—there is no question of that—but with all of the opposition and our almost total lack of money and the hardships our people went through, we can only say that if we had been the rotten and terrible and sorry outfit our enemies have made us out to be, we could have never won. But we're a pretty damn good outfit—and so we did achieve our grandest victory. And let me tell you: we'll go on to win a hell of a lot more of them.

And, not so very far away at all, a man could almost imagine that I saw the shadowy figures of Haywood, Joe Hill, Frank Little, Debs, and many others indeed, nodding their battle-scarred heads and smiling an extremely friendly way.

## CORRECTION

In the review of John Beecher's *In Egypt Land*, in September's issue, the town had been spelled incorrectly. The complete correct address is: Rampart Press, P.O. Box 1506, Scottsdale, Arizona.

## *books in review*

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### **Exhilarating**

A THEATRE IN YOUR HEAD, by Kenneth Thorpe Rowe. Funk and Wagnalls. New York. \$6.95.

**A** *Theatre in Your Head* is a healthy and exhilarating book about a subject which is, so far as our country is concerned, if not sick unto death, at least existing in an invalid state with no immediate prospect of recovery. The author, who is professor of playwriting and the history of the drama at the University of Michigan, does not take up the sad situation in which the theatre find itself today. He is an optimist. "This is a dynamic age and drama is the most dynamic form of literature, which may be one reason for the growing response to drama as reading as well as to the theatre." He has a rhapsodic and contagious love for the stage and an encyclopedic knowledge not only of the dramatic literature but also of the varied practical activities that go on behind the stage as well as on it, transforming a sheaf of dialogue with some sparse stage directions and scene descriptions into the living art work conceived by the playwright.

It is with these contributory activities

that the book concerns itself, although there is abundant description as well of actual plays and their styles. The author takes up step by step the role of the various "collaborators" necessary to a playwright; the producer, director, scene designer and actors. Drawing upon his own considerable experience in play production and memories of outstanding theatrical achievements, he shows how truly creative are these contributions, requiring not only technical command but also artistic imagination, and calling upon the collaborators' own experience and feeling for life. His intention is to help the reader visualize a live production while reading a play.

It is a good book in this respect, although one doubts whether any book, even one so well-informed as this, can supplant the feeling for the theatre that comes from periodically seeing a first-class production of a good play. It is a book that one can profitably read along with the practice of playgoing itself. And there's the rub. The theatre is suffocating from the embrace of "free enterprise," better termed, in this area, gross commercialism. It has dwindled to almost nothing as a factor in the cultural life of the vast majority of people in the

country. One can assemble impressive looking statistics about the theatrical productions put on at universities and the summer stock performance near vacation resorts, but what is crucial is how little theatre falls within the reach of the average person engaged in making a living. Television is no help, for the few good TV plays that can be seen, while better than nothing, are *ersatz* theatre, without the sense of stage, the interrelation of living people moving on it, and the rapport between actor and audience, that are the heart of a theatrical experience.

In New York City, the one city in the country with a pretense at a thriving theatrical life, there are less than half the theatres that the city had twenty-five years ago, rentals are accordingly astronomically high, and ticket prices have similarly climbed to the stratosphere. Most actors suffer from chronic unemployment, there are no permanent repertory groups which raise the stature of acting itself, and the process of hiring actors resembles a slave market. A play that doesn't possess glamor for the carriage trade or the visiting politicians, salesmen, buyers, and convention-attending business men whose expense accounts are the lifeblood of the theatrical box-office, suffers sudden death. The theatre has become primarily a tourist attraction. The "collaborator" whom Professor Rowe discusses least, because his aesthetic contribution is nil, namely the "angel," has come to be the decisive force. He puts up the necessary money with the mental attitude of a stock market speculator. Most of the activity on Broadway now centers about the concoction of a successful musical comedy, and where a few years ago motion picture companies played a

prominent role as "angels," now the rich phonograph record companies have entered the field, gambling for the stream of gold that comes from the sale of an original-cast album of a "hit" musical like *South Pacific* or *My Fair Lady*. At this moment, three forthcoming Broadway musical comedies have been invested in to the tune of \$400,000 each, by record companies. In the face of this lottery psychology, what hopes are there for a writer who, inspired by the great tradition of Sophocles and Shakespeare, Ibsen and Shaw, simply wants to write a good play?

There is some hope for the future of the American stage in the fact that enthusiasts like Professor Rowe are around. His tastes are broad. He likes every sort of play, written in poetry and written in prose, realistic, symbolic, expressionistic and epic. All he asks is that it show some respect for the high standards set by the art, and, whether comic or tragic, a serious interest in real life, both that of the outer world and that of the mind. It is a real distinction of his book that the one play which he chooses to reprint in full, and analyze scene by scene, is Theodore Ward's *Our Lan'*, which deals with the Reconstruction era following the Civil War, telling of the struggles of the Negro slaves, who had won their freedom, for the land that had been promised them, and the betrayal of these promises. A beautifully written, poetic and stirring drama, parts of which appeared in *Masses and Mainstream*, it was acclaimed in 1947 by critics as one of the best plays of the year but had unfortunately all too short a run.

Reading this play, the value of which

s been enhanced rather than detracted from by the passage of time, he realizes how much the American people lose by not being able to see his work on a stage, let alone the rest of Theodore Ward's twenty plays, eight of which are full length dramas. And he realizes how much the people are being robbed on a larger scale of the heritage which is rightfully theirs and which Professor Rowe writes with such love.

SIDNEY FINKELSTEIN

## Trail Blazer

THE GENTLEMAN FROM MISSISSIPPI: OUR FIRST NEGRO SENATOR, By Elizabeth Lawson. Introduction by William L. Patterson. 63 pp. with frontispiece and bibliography. Published by the author, Box 316, Times Square Post Office, New York City 36. 35 cents.

HIRAM Revels was only a footnote in a few forgotten books till Miss Lawson gave us our first overall interpretation of him in this carefully documented pamphlet. A man of action rather than a literary person, he left no autobiography beyond fourteen pages of handwritten notes presumably dictated to a daughter more than a generation after the close of the Reconstruction era. Very little about him is to be found in the annals of Mississippi, now represented in the Senate by Stennis and the infamous Eastland. Apart from patient gleaning of obscure sources, Miss Lawson has given American history one of its most vivid portrayals of one of its most outstanding characters.

As Wendell Phillips described him, Senator Revels was "the Fifteenth Amendment in flesh and blood." He

was, as Mr. Patterson states in his introduction, the living symbol of that popular upheaval when "former slaves and poor whites marched onto the stage of history to take over the political posts once reserved for their former masters." He had to fight, even to claim the seat to which he had been legally elected, with southern Senators from the border states conducting a traditional filibuster to keep a colored colleague from being sworn. Minister and educational leader by profession, he served in our national legislature for only one year, since he'd originally been elected to finish the unexpired term of a Mississippi bourbon.

Yet the indelible mark of this Negro statesman can be traced in all the battles that are being fought for equality and integration in the South today. Miss Lawson shows, by a minute examination of his votes in Congress, that he prefigured all these struggles; that, with far-seeing vision and courage, he realized that the final emancipation of the South's masses was indivisible in terms of race yet could scarcely be accomplished until the least free—the Negroes—were accorded their natural right of complete and functioning citizenship.

On larger levels, he was also the inspired spokesman for all of America's Negro population, North and South. Less than a week after he was sworn in, he presented a petition from the Negroes of Philadelphia asking that Congress enact a bill sponsored by Senator Stewart of Nevada "to secure all persons by federal statute, the equal protection of the laws." Eventually the principles of the bill became incorporated into the Fifteenth Amendment which is the legal peg of the contemporary southern struggle.

REVELS contested the readmission of Georgia in 1870, demanding that Georgia first reinstate twenty-eight Negro senators and representatives expelled from its legislature. This outrage, he declared in his maiden speech as a Senator, would gravely endanger "the safety and protection of the loyal white and colored population of those states lately in rebellion." For like all the twenty-one Negro Reconstruction Congressmen who followed him, he believed that he had been chosen to advance the political and social interests of both Negro and poor white.

Another speech of his, demanding school desegregation and an end to Jim Crow travel restrictions can, as Miss Lawson declares, "be used today without changing a word." And what a pity that the progressive forces of America do not reprint that speech for broadside distribution wherever schools are currently segregated, whether in Hiram Revels' regressed Mississippi or in New York City with its peculiar form of uniracial classroom.

"It matters not how colored people act," he commented bitingly while a Senator, "it matters not how well they behave themselves, how intelligent they may be, the prejudice against them is equally great as it is against the most low and degraded colored man."

Miss Lawson's portrayal of Revels has evoked a wide response throughout America and particularly from colored Americans now fighting this last stage of the long-unfinished struggle for emancipation. It has been reviewed favorably and enthusiastically by Negro newspapers, large and small. The noted historian, Joel A. Rogers, recommended it highly to his legion of readers in the *Pittsburgh Courier*. The *Afro-American* newspapers, a major

publishing chain, devoted a lead editorial to the work. An intelligent, preciative summary appeared in *Chicago Defender*.

With absolute honesty, Miss Lawson concedes Revels' weaknesses, including his major one of capitulation to the principles of the Southern Democratic party. Why he finally aligned himself with the neo-Confederate reaction is also still a matter of speculation among the handful of southern progressive historians. Perhaps the answer is to be found in a question largely neglected by scholars—the divisions between the educated Negro leadership of the Reconstruction period and their untrained mass following.

Yet Hiram Revels blazed a trail that Negro and forward-looking white southerners can yet follow. The trail grows wider as the neo-Confederacy of James Eastland and Orval Faubus finally only the exits given it by history.

CLAY CALVERT

## Potpourri

THE LIBERAL HOUR, by John Kenneth Galbraith. Houghton Mifflin, \$3.50.

JOHN Kenneth Galbraith's *The Liberal Hour* is a random collection of essays on just about everything under the sun, from peaceful competition with the Russians to the trials and tribulations of the gentleman farmer in Vermont. Addressing himself to a select audience of "reconciling and reasonable men and women," the author appears before us in his most expansive mood. Galbraith shuns the professorial stance; he does not seek to convince or convert his readers,

ly to amuse them. For this reason there is very little of real interest in any of these essays; but no one can say that they are dull. Galbraith's chief delight is to supply us with the most commonplace observations in a new and witty form. Thus he reveals to the unsuspecting public that Henry Ford was something of a fraud (certainly the mildest thing which could be said about him); that the image of Dwight D. Eisenhower created by the American press in 1952 did not fully correspond to the real Eisenhower; and that Calvin Coolidge did very little to prevent the Great Depression (which nobody can deny). On the other hand, it cannot be said that *The Liberal Hour* does not contain more than a few really original discoveries. Thus Galbraith denounces as pure "slander" the notion that the U.S. foreign aid program after World War II was motivated by any other consideration save pure generosity; the idea of buying commodities to help fight the cold war apparently never entered anyone's head. And Galbraith does not believe that the "problem of race relations" is a major weakness of American society because "we are on the whole aware" of its importance. It must be a great comfort for the embattled lunch counter demonstrators to learn that Professor Galbraith is "aware" of their situation. But it would be unfair to expect the good professor to task in a serious way, since he is not really serious himself. In these days of "massive introspection," what Galbraith cares more than anything else is "our terrible solemnity." If we persist in taking ourselves seriously, he reminds us, we will never be able to compromise, we will not be sufficiently "reduced." It is good to know that in these

troubled times there is at least one man who can still proclaim, "What, me worry?"

Yet *The Liberal Hour* is not necessarily a total loss. After all, Galbraith is not only a professional wit, but also a leading light in the Democratic academic braintrust. His views are the views of the Kennedy liberals in general; should the Democrats win in November, Galbraith will undoubtedly be consulted in the formulation of administration fiscal policy. For this reason, some of Professor Galbraith's comments, particularly on the subject of public planning, are of more than casual interest.

The first essay in *The Liberal Hour* deals with the subject of "peaceful competition" with the Soviet Union, and it is this theme which dominates Galbraith's approach to the question of government planning. If capitalism is to defeat socialism in peaceful competition, it must learn to deal more successfully than in the past with such problems as unemployment, inflation, arms spending, urban decline and cultural inadequacies. Since private enterprise does not appear to be able to solve these problems on its own, some form of government "leadership" is called for. In other words, Professor Galbraith would like to adopt the public organization and planning characteristic of a socialist society while at the same time retaining our cherished private property in all its purity. Galbraith looks for a resurgence of the New Deal, not because he is concerned about America, but because he is worried by the Soviet Union. Like most "Kennedy liberals," he stands for public planning only because he can see no other way to "beat the Russians."

How does this approach to government "leadership" work out in practice? According to Galbraith, one of the chief weaknesses in the American economy is runaway inflation. In order to prevent inflation, it is necessary to prevent constant price increases in key industries, such as steel or automobiles. Since these industries are unwilling to regulate themselves, Galbraith concludes that some form of government control ("supervised self-regulation") is called for. So far so good. But at the same time, Galbraith also demands government *wage* controls. Each year, labor, management and the government would decide upon a "reasonable" wage for workers in key industries; "unreasonable" strikes would be prohibited. If a wage increase should be granted, then management could legitimately demand a compensating price hike. In other words, Professor Galbraith's "cure" for inflation puts the worker at the mercy of a federal regulatory commission, while at the same time it does not really bar the way to further price increases. Does anyone doubt in what manner James Mitchell's Department of Labor would administer such a law? Because Galbraith is not really concerned about the welfare of the American people, but only with "beating the Russians," his version of public planning is worse than no planning at all.

Is government "leadership" therefore impossible—or at any rate undesirable—in a class society such as our own? Not necessarily. The factor which is missing from Galbraith's calculations, and from the liberal approach in general, is the role of the American people and the progressive movement within it. Under the New Deal, pro-

gressive forces in America were able to compel the government to act—to a certain extent—in behalf of the interests and needs of the American people. Such positive achievements as Social Security typify the real gains made through public planning during this period. But similar gains will never be made in the future merely because someone wants to "beat the Russians." Nor will they be achieved simply through the goodwill of a few liberal professors. Only the mass participation of millions of Americans, united around the slogans of peace, economic security and civil rights, can once more infuse a positive content into the exercise of government "leadership."

R. F. SHAW

## Sharp Satire

THE ABSENCE OF A CELLO, by Ira Wallach. Little Brown and Co., Boston. 1960.

IRA Wallach has made another contribution in addition to his already famous collection of humorous works. *The Absence of A Cello* basically is concerned with the attitudes, misconceptions and practical problems of intellectuals in their dealings with the world of business. The action pivots on the conflict between a small intellectual group and a personnel director of a large corporation.

Andrew Pilgrim, physicist and player of cellos and horses, feels forced both by financial necessity and a sense of personal failure to offer his services to big business. Before these services can be accepted Andrew must unde-



in examination in his "home environment" by a personnel director, Otis Clifton, to determine whether his attitudes and temperament are those of a corporation man, "a team player." With the aid of Perry Blewitt, executive trainee in the Wharton School of Finance and boy friend of Andrew's daughter Joanna, Andrew and his wife Celia, a medieval scholar, prepare to beat Mr. Clifton at his own game by presenting a picture of insipid normalcy. (Among other things this requires the absence of Andrew's cello from the living room.)

What at first seems a straightforward confrontation between two hostile camps, the intellectual and big business, becomes more and more complicated as Otis Clifton grows increasingly enigmatic and as the personal contradictions of the characters come to the fore: Andrew, who is in danger of transgressing his own nature; Celia, who has sacrificed her own intellectual career for husband and home and now wonders if the new turn of events is really worth new sacrifices; Joanna Andrews, who at nineteen seems a level-headed fifty as she suppresses the impractical, earthy sides of her nature; Marian Jellicoe, Andrew's widowed sister, who hides her physical attraction for Otis Clifton under the masks of sarcasm and self-sacrifice; Perry Blewitt, who is chained to the concept of "the acceptable," and who has stifled his own development in a sisterly relationship with Joanna; Grant Littlewood, engineer turned electrical contractor, who hates his job but is trying to put Andrew in the same position; and Otis Clifton, who appears as a stolid seeker after talented mediocrity but is actually a player of horses and a crusader for genius.

Ultimately Otis Clifton is both catalyst and therapist for the personal contradictions of the characters. By the end of the novel practically everyone has been forced into a painful examination of his basic nature, and in the process many pet conceptions and defenses are turned inside out. The old clichés of individualism and conformity, genius and mediocrity, hypocrisy and sincerity, are smashed and then placed in the context of a real world with real people where intellectual superiority does not necessarily mean moral superiority.

*The Absence of A Cello* is a carefully worked out novel with a cutting edge of sharp satire on the American scene. The dialogue stays witty and satisfying from beginning to end. The Wallach touch keeps things bubbling even in the most serious satire, as for example Grant's wife Emma, who indulges in shop-lifting forays not out of financial need but on the theory "that in this world those who carry on an incessant guerrilla warfare lead happier and fuller lives."

One might regret that Mr. Wallach did not develop some of the darker facets of the relationship between science and big business. However, though *The Absence of A Cello* would then be more significant it would not be as amusing.

CHUCK WILSON

## On Melville

THE LETTERS OF HERMAN MELVILLE, edited by Merrel R. Davis and William H. Gilman, Yale University Press. \$6.50.

THE LONG ENCOUNTER, SELF AND EXPERIENCE IN THE

WRITINGS OF HERMAN MELVILLE, by Merlin Bowen. The University of Chicago Press. \$5.00.

**T**WO more books are added to the long shelf of Melville scholarship. *The Letters* are 271 in number, 42 of which are printed for the first time. This volume represents the first full collection of Melville's correspondence, and will be a valuable aid to future Melville scholarship. "All the letters are interesting as Melville documents," the jacket blurb states, but actually the collection will probably appeal mainly to specialists. I doubt if most readers would be interested in many of the letters. Take No. 2 for example:

"Mr. Melville takes great pleasure in presenting to Mr. Weed the accompanying copy of *Typee*—and much regrets not seeing him this morning."

But the notes attached to the letters are probably the most valuable part of the book, and they represent years of research on the part of the editors.

Davis and Gilman, the editors, have already produced important studies of Melville, the former of *Mardi*, the novel which preceded *Moby Dick*, and the latter of *Redburn*, perhaps Melville's most autobiographical work. Both men, if I recall correctly, received their doctorates from Yale. Their own work and the letters they have collected and which have been published by Yale University in this volume are part of the best Melville scholarship in this country. Along with Jey Leyda's *Melville Log*, this school of Melville criticism has avoided the Freudian approach. Instead of concentrating on Melville's psyche, they have examined instead the actual events which make up the life and age of Melville and

brought this to bear on their treatment of his writing. The chief limitation of this school is its disinclination to do much with the wealth of material they have painstakingly accumulated. Gilman's book on *Redburn*, for example, clearly shows the central role which the erratic tempo of life under mercantile capitalism had upon Melville's development. First his father, then his brother were ruined in the financial crises of the period, and finally the family itself was split up, with Melville taking to sea, as a direct result of economic crises. But Gilman seems reluctant to follow this avenue too far, lest he wind up "oversimplifying" things with economic interpretations.

Mr. Bowen, with his *The Long Encounter*, is a horse of another color. Both book and author are products of the University of Chicago, where scholars do not hesitate to take a stand, especially in favor of God and the individual. In many ways *The Long Encounter* stands at the other end of the spectrum. Mr. Bowen studiously avoids contaminating his analysis with any biographical or historical facts. Bowen is after what is "relatively permanent and central" in Melville's "thought and imagination," which is to say he does not get bogged down in history but deals with Melville's "timeless confrontation of the uncovered self and the mysterious universe about it."

**T**HERE are three stances for the self, Bowen says: defiance, submission, and, which is closest to Melville's own point of view, a position of "armed neutrality." The book is built around an examination of three types of characters in Melville's work who

fall roughly into one of these categories. The interaction of these three types is the drama of the self.

Mr. Bowen is an intelligent critic who knows his Melville thoroughly. Unfortunately, if he knows anything else about Melville other than the texts, he manages not to show it in this work. His avowed purpose is to avoid making application of any of the historical and literary material on Melville that has been gathered by a generation of Melville scholars. Just what the advantages of such a scholarly blackout are one can not easily see. It may of course be related to the subjectivist-individualist bent that characterizes much of the work of what

has become known as the "Chicago School."

In all fairness to the author, it must be noted that he does not see *Billy Budd* as Melville's testament of acceptance.

Rather than staying just with *Billy Budd*, where the ambiguities allow opposite interpretations, Mr. Bowen moves on to *Clarel*, a long poem written by Melville late in life, to show that Melville never was able to acquiesce. The contradictory character of reality, which Melville's genius apprehended in his work, never allowed him to fall into the comfortable but false unity of religious ideals where all moral distinctions disappear in a horrible whiteness.

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