

# Pocomania Rituals and Identity in Andrew Salkey's a Quality of Violence (1959)

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## Abstract

Introduction-The quest for identity construction knew its apogee in the burgeoning Caribbean literature of the 1950's, a period marked by a great tide of immigration to London and the exile of a significant number of West Indian writers. This exile generation of West Indian writers, including leading figures such as George Lamming, Samuel Selvon, Andrew Salkey, Edward Kamau Brathwaite, V.S Naipaul, was concerned with depicting their West Indian experience and dealing with issues revolving around liberty and identity. The representation of rituals is a leitmotif in a wide range of Caribbean novels. The return to the culture of the folk and the minute depiction of traditional performances can be construed as a means whereby West Indian writers seek to rewrite the community and excavate its voice by commemorating communal values and belief systems, hence showing that their culture has its own validity and should be valued on its own terms.

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## *Index terms*—

## 1 Pocomania Rituals and Identity in Andrew

Salkey's a Quality of Violence (1959) Lamia ZAIBI "One of the most enduring-and most appropriated and misunderstood-markers of cultural difference and stability in both Africa and India is ritual." (Gilbert and Tompkins, 55) In Post-colonial drama: theory, practice and politics (1996), Helen Gilbert and Joanne Tompkins argue that the critical study of rituals has focused on drawing the commonalties between ritual actions rather than the specificities and differences between them. They hence put emphasis on the importance of reading rituals as culture specific enactments which have a special function and purpose. This perspective will be taken into account in the analysis of Afro-Jamaican rituals in A Quality of Violence (1959) as a means whereby cultural difference is articulated and maintained.

In this article, I will attempt to show, through a close reading of Andrew Salkey's A Quality of Violence, the way the representation of rituals functions as a site of resistance and liberation. My choice to study this sample novel is directed at demonstrating how Afro-Jamaican rituals, like Pocomania, are used as a backdrop to restore the sense of community and contribute in forging national identity. Special attention will be given to the way rituals are a site of collective memory as they open a discursive space for expressing communal values. This will allow revealing the inextricable link between ritual enactments and identity construction. Indeed, Pocomania ritual plays a central role in the novel as it determines and shapes the course of events. Much room is given to religious practices and their vital role in the daily lives of the community members. Much of the action is set within the framework of rites and religious enactments which mould the flow of the narrative and trigger the main events.

The story is about the St. Thomas Parish community struck by a drought and the different responses to it. The drought triggers a series of events marked by intense antagonism between characters. In the opening pages, the reader is introduced to the ongoing conflict between the black masses and the small class of land owners. The rift widens when the black majority resorts to African-inspired religious rituals to bring water to

44 the land. In direct opposition to the large (and basically nameless) peasant group who seek Author: University  
 45 of Manouba. e-mail: l.zaibi@tunet.tn salvation in Pocomania and its rituals of sacrifice and dance, the Marshalls  
 46 and the Parkins are sceptical about these practices. This is the dramatic context within which the social and  
 47 racial composition of the Jamaican society is examined by Salkey. In the first part of this article, I will try to  
 48 provide a brief overview on the syncretic nature of ritualistic practices in an attempt to show how the seeds of  
 49 resistance lie within this very hybrid nature. In the second part, I will show the way ritual enactments are a site  
 50 for expressing the community's culture, shedding light on their liberating and regenerative power. In the last  
 51 part of this article, I will draw conclusions on Salkey's ambivalent representation of rituals of sacrifice in terms  
 52 of the dialectics of empowerment and destruction.

53 My close reading will be informed by Helen Gilbert and Joanne Tompinks' analysis of rituals as a site where  
 54 the community is given prominence as rites are enacted to preserve the order and the continuity of the community  
 55 (55). It will also be grounded on the premises of K. Brathwaite, F. Fanon and W. Harris who each differently  
 56 highlight the healing power and liberating force of the spiritual practices and the way they are a "collective  
 57 survival mechanism." 1 I.

## 58 2 Introduction

59 he quest for identity construction knew its apogee in the burgeoning Caribbean literature of the 1950's, a period  
 60 marked by a great tide of immigration to London and the exile of a significant number of West Indian writers. This  
 61 exile generation of West Indian writers, including leading figures such as George Lamming, Samuel Selvon, Andrew  
 62 Salkey, Edward Kamau Brathwaite, V.S Naipaul, was concerned with depicting their West Indian experience and  
 63 dealing with issues revolving around liberty and identity.

64 The representation of rituals is a leitmotif in a wide range of Caribbean novels. The return to the culture of  
 65 the folk and the minute depiction of traditional performances can be construed as a means whereby West Indian  
 66 writers seek to rewrite the community and excavate its voice by commemorating communal values and belief  
 67 systems, hence showing that their culture has its own validity and should be valued on its own terms.

68 However, the West Indian writers' treatment of ritualistic practices can be read as the background against  
 69 which they draw upon the "spiritual trauma" which the indigenous people of the Caribbean and Africans brought  
 70 to the plantations have undergone (Saillant, 89). Hence, one cannot read rituals without taking into account the  
 71 specificity of the Caribbean experience.

## 72 3 II.

### 73 The Syncretic Nature of Afro-Caribbean Rituals

74 The West Indian colonial experience has a salient religious aspect. The colonial plantation system led to the  
 75 mercantilist trade called the Middle Passage and the long history of exploitation of Africans as cheap labour.  
 76 African slaves worked on the plantations and were subjected to the rule of their masters. They were not only  
 77 uprooted from their land but also from their history and culture, particularly their religious practices. They  
 78 were led and often forced to adopt the Christian values and way of life, and were gradually co-opted into the  
 79 socio-political structure of the Christian culture in which they were more often than not seen as belonging to the  
 80 lowest rung of the social ladder.

81 However, the Christian indoctrination upon which the imperial enterprise is based has not resulted into a  
 82 complete erasure of the existing belief-systems but rather into a double spiritual heritage which accounts for the  
 83 birth of syncretic religious practices. The various Caribbean religious practices, such as Pocomania in Jamaica  
 84 and Voodoo in Haiti, to name but a few are an amalgamation of African and Christian beliefs. They were born  
 85 out of a process of cultural exchange and cultural Creolisation. Kamau Brathwaite's idea that this process of  
 86 cultural exchange and intermixing results in the production and emergence of novel forms that are totally a "new  
 87 construct," though they accommodate strands from the dominant culture, finds a parallel in E. Glissant's model.

88 Glissant's definition of Creolisation in terms of what he calls the "poetics of relation" and the "poetics of  
 89 becoming" is worth mentioning (qtd. in Britton, 12). The former refers to the construction of a relation that  
 90 opens up a space for diversity and difference, which is positive in the sense that the contact with a different  
 91 culture allows the creation of new forms; the latter implies that all the cultural forms and modes emerging out of  
 92 this contact bear their own specificity and difference, in the sense that they are totally reworked and transformed  
 93 into something new, something mainly Caribbean in spirit and essence. My discussion of the syncretic nature  
 94 of Afro-Caribbean belief systems is informed by Kamau Brathwaite's key phrase "torn and new," 2 Voodoo and  
 95 Pocomania are emblematic of this dialectics for they engage with Christianity, accommodate Christian elements  
 96 such as biblical images, reinterpret and transform them into idiosyncratic and distinctive forms in concordance  
 97 to the Caribbean context. They work through a blending of Christian doctrine and African elements and are  
 98 in a sense a synthesis of both belief-systems. Both Pocomania and which sheds light on the predicament of  
 99 the Caribbean archipelago, its history of slavery and colonisation and the way this very fragmentation made up  
 100 for the emergence of new Caribbean cultural forms (qtd. in Arnold et al., 258). It is a good entry into the  
 101 way Afro-Caribbean beliefs have been altered, distorted and transformed into something new. It implies that  
 102 Caribbean cultural forms are somehow the relics of a shattered past that bear the legacy of the past traumas

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103 especially that of the "Middle Passage"; it is this shattering that allows for an outlet for resistance and liberation  
104 from the domineering forces of oppression.

105 Afro-Caribbean religious practices are hence inscribed within a dialectics of incorporation and transformation,  
106 marking the paradigm shifts from a monolithic belief system to a polytheistic one. They do not work through  
107 binary oppositions of either/or but form "new anti-monolithic models of cultural exchange and growth" (Ashcroft,  
108 183). As such, they are neither completely African nor totally Christian, but in-between belief-systems based on  
109 turning sameness into difference and difference into sameness, hence offering unstable and ambivalent alternatives  
110 (Young, 26). This neither-nor nature of Afro-Caribbean religions is a break from essentialist and monolithic  
111 religions, and a celebration of flexible and ever changing religious practices.

112 In a sense, the appropriation of the coloniser's belief-system dovetails an act of usurpation and transformation.  
113 It brings into play a double process of resistance. On the one hand, it works through a subtle process of  
114 undermining and investing the coloniser's belief system, thus challenging the essentialism upon which Eurocentric  
115 power is grounded. The very act of 'Creolising' and 'Africanising' Christian belief-systems is in itself a radical  
116 act of resistance for it entails an act of tarnishing and distortion. On the other hand, it is the very act of  
117 transformation which is an exquisite moment of creativity. 2 The expression is taken from Brathwaite's poem  
118 "Jouvert" in his trilogy *The Arrivants* (1969). It is used to describe the ritual of the Trinidad Carnival, referring  
119 to the creativeness of the Steel Band and the way its reworking of the Christian ritual of Easter resulted into new  
120 rhythms: "hearts/ no longer bound/ to black and bitter/ ashes in the ground// now walking/ making// making/  
121 with their//rhythms some/thing torn//and new". Voodoo can be regarded as a by-product of this double spiritual  
122 heritage which results in the creation of polytheistic belief-systems in which the power of Ashanti and Yoruba  
123 deities co-exist with biblical images and figures. Salkey teases this duality and tug of war between between African  
124 pagan and Western Christian Culture." (E. Brathwaite, 219-220) There are many instances in the narrative where  
125 there is an explicit reference to the syncretic nature of the Caribbean spiritual heritage. The detailed account  
126 of the different stages of the ceremony (such as the initiation prayers, in which the new members are brought  
127 in front of Dada Johnson and his deputy and touched on their forehead with honey and dirt), as well as the  
128 bible reading, reveals the process of appropriation. Through the figure of Mr Marshall, who plays the role of an  
129 observer and spectator of the ceremony, Salkey brings to attention the "new twist the meeting-yard" has given  
130 to the Bible:

131 "After a moment they broke into the chant: 'keep foot when you go to the house of God; ready yourself to  
132 hear; give sacrifice of fools; don't rash up yourself; watch your mouth, don't utter anything before God because  
133 Him in heaven and you is on the earth!' Marshall nudged Brother Parkin and said in a whisper: "The bit you  
134 just hear? You recognize it? Brother Parkin said: yes, man. Ecclesiastes. Yes, Ecclesiastes V, I-2. Them change  
135 it up, though."(60)

136 The focus on the spiritual heritage of St. Thomas has a double function. First, it has a religious dimension as  
137 it is part and parcel of the sacred life of the community. Second, it has a social dimension for it is at the core of  
138 the community's everyday life and a site for expressing its culture. In this perspective, Africanderived Jamaican  
139 religious beliefs, like Pocomania, are a marker of cultural identity, and thus a site of resistance.

140 They are endowed with a redemptive force which can partly be accounted for by the fact that the "African  
141 orientation towards evil" is of paramount at the heart of the Jamaican belief systems. In the Jamaican African  
142 experience, there is strong emphasis on the idea of freedom for, as Dianne M. Steward Points out: "African-  
143 derived Jamaican religions, like Myal, Kumina, Revival Zion, Obeah, Native Baptism or Rastafari, share the  
144 common concern of combating evil, disease, misfortune, and supporting reconciliation, harmony, well-being and  
145 human fulfilment." (182) III.

## 146 4 Rituals as Sites of Communal Empowerment

147 The liberating force emanating from ritualistic practices operates on two overlapping levels. On the one hand,  
148 the performance of rites allows for the creation of a surrogate world which procures the participants with a sense  
149 of freedom from daily forms of oppression and an escape from their mundane reality. On the other hand, the  
150 creation of this realm is, in turn, a recreation of the world of ancestors, that is, a way to renew a lost bond and  
151 free oneself from the traumas of the past.

152 The reader is drawn into the world of drums percussion and the underlying dances. It is a different way  
153 of life that is represented and valued, an authentic one governed by Pocomania. Rites and dances of sacrifice,  
154 accompanied by hymns and mento music, colour the life of the community. The community members strive to  
155 mould nature and organise sacrifices to implore its clemency. They practise a variety of rites set by the ancestors  
156 to do away with the evil forces believed to hover around and bring water to the land. The entire ceremony is  
157 framed around the concern to fight social ills and bring a certain order into their chaotic life.

158 The collective force the ritual procures to its adherents emanates from the fact that it is focalised on community  
159 values. Indeed, it is the community which shapes the discourse of the performer and is actually the essence of the  
160 performance. This allows Dada Johnson to create a definite space where the community members translate into  
161 action their own way of seeing reality. Indeed, he provides them ritually with an alternative vision and a new  
162 way to cope with the manifold social problems. He strengthens their feeling of belonging to the community and  
163 provides them with the spiritual tools that may help them understand their present situation and envisage their  
164 future. As Victor Turner points out, rituals are endowed with the power to redress what he terms as "the social

165 dramas of everyday life” enabling the community to ”scrutinize, portray, understand and then act on itself.” (qtd.  
166 in Taylor, 99)

167 The power of the ritual to unify the group stems from the metaphysical and divine power conferred to Dada  
168 Johnson, the leader of the Pocomania cult. Indeed, he is jointly consumed by the idea of serving ”Giant X” 3  
169 ”He knew now that he was the time-serving Giant X, that he was also the master of the Giant X, and and of  
170 being the controller of power. He clearly states it in the episode preceding the fight scene that represents the  
171 apogee of the ceremony: 3 Giant X has a double meaning: it refers both to the almighty God and the cross road  
172 / the meeting yard. Reading Giant X as a reference to the crossroad is informed by the fact that it is part of the  
173 Jamaican folk tradition where ceremonies like Pocomania used to take place in Crossroads thus the meaning of  
174 the letter X. The idea of the performer and the cultist as « serviteurs » of God refers to the way they incarnate  
175 themselves in the bodies of ”serviteurs” mainly through possession.

176 For further reading on the idea of ’serviteurs’, see Patrick Taylor, *The Narrative of Liberation: Perspectives*  
177 *on Afro-Caribbean Culture and Politics* (London: Cornell University Press, 1989), p. 98.

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180 maybe, one day, he would be the slaughterer of the Giant X.” (68)

181 It is these two impulses that drive his ritualistic performance and the trance mood he gets into. He defines  
182 and sets himself discursively as a bearer and fulfiller of the expectations of the worshippers and spectators, as  
183 one endowed with a mission -that of reshaping and recreating faith in the parish. He positions himself, through  
184 the skilful use of spiritualist resources such as his capacity to make prophecies, as the sole person liable to instil  
185 harmony on the land. His prophecies revive hope and ensure a belief in the force of the community, in the service  
186 of collective interest:

187 ”I give those people plenty to believe in. I give them a cause to have a faith [?] He thus creates a discursive  
188 space in which he brings into play the liberating power of ritualistic practices and their latent capability to save  
189 the life of individuals and change their fortune. Through Dada Johnson’s reiteration of his ultimate power to  
190 exorcise the devil out of the land and bring about liberation, solace and sympathy, Salkey touches upon the  
191 liberating and soothing role of rituals. This finds an echo in the preliminary chants that precede the last stage  
192 of the ceremony:

193 ”We must lash the devil out of the land. We must lash good water into the land [?] St Thomas is a dry place,  
194 is a wrong place [...] St Thomas is going to be a water place, is going to be a garden place, is going to be a  
195 promise like the Promised Land.” (69)

196 The mob mobilisation reaches its climax in the ritualistic fight between Dada Johnson and his deputy, in which  
197 each is prodded into a suicidal mood, fervently lashing themselves to death. The spiritual power of the combat  
198 reinforces the sense of community. It is emblematic of death rituals, enacted as part of rituals of sacrifice typical  
199 of Afro-Caribbean belief-systems. The latter bears common traits with the Ceremony of the Souls in Haiti which  
200 frees the spirit of a dead person facilitating his passage into the afterlife. It is animated by chants and prayers  
201 that stir the individual’s sense of commitment and duty to die for the sake of the community.

202 The preliminary chants as well as the final prayers reveal the key role rituals play in ensuring the continuity  
203 of the community. They also pinpoint the heroic stance of the community members and their willingness to die  
204 in an act of absolute surrender for liberation from manifold forms of oppression. This rite of sacrifice takes a  
205 symbolic significance in the sense that it is a prerequisite for the survival of the communal folk culture:

206 ”If skin is to cut with lash, then come we lash the skin till water come down and wet the land. If the skin is to  
207 break with lash, then come we break the skin till water come down and wet the land. If man must dead with the  
208 lash, then come we dead and make water wet we and the land.” (69) Indeed, the power of rituals to assert and  
209 preserve the viability of the community is at work in death rituals. Death rituals, like Pocomania and Myal, can  
210 be read as a cultural and political action in the sense that they stand for the refusal of a culture to die. In this  
211 sense, the ceremonious death of Dada Johnson and his deputy translates the cultists’ desire to leave their mark;  
212 it can also be regarded as an act of recovery of the right to act, to intervene and change the course of history. In  
213 short, it is a symbolic act of reassertion of communal rites and therefore a marker of cultural identity.

214 Moreover, rites are a site of collective memory in the sense that the dance of Sacrifice is a moment of  
215 remembering the past through the recreation of the world of ancestors. The latter is a way to reconnect with  
216 Africa and African ancestors and thus retrieve and recuperate African culture. Re-establishing links with Africa  
217 by speaking to the history of the Middle Passage and acknowledging the traumas of the past accounts for reading  
218 the dance of sacrifice as a tool of resistance.

219 The Pocomania dance is a unique moment where the mob is communally drawn in the spiritual realm to  
220 exorcise the evil spirits believed to be the cause of all the ills of the community. The dance of sacrifice is a space  
221 in which group unity is at its height: a space in which both participants and spectators vibrate together and  
222 go into a state of complete immersion. Hymns of sacrifice, the utterance of pocomaniacal doxologies, raucous  
223 singing and the erratic gyrating movements, as well as the use of the dead rooster, are performative tools used  
224 to create stupor and intensify the trance mood into which the performers are immersed: ”As if seized by the  
225 fever generated by the chanting sisters, the deputy jumped back from the Giant X, dropped the cutlass, picked

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226 up the white rooster and wrung the neck [?]They were offering through the blood of the rooster, the gratitude  
227 of the meeting-house for the coming season of rain and plenty [?] The deputy still holding the dead rooster and  
228 imitating its jerking motions [?] spun about in concentric circles, the neck of the rooster sprinkled jets of blood  
229 around the meeting yard. Pocomaniacal doxologies were uttered by everyone.” (61-62)

230 The dance is a space where the cult performers acquire power from communication with their ancestors.  
231 The concomitant use of repeated gestures and the fastidious manipulation of objects fraught with a symbolic  
232 dimension, as well as the sacrifice of animals, allow the dancer to enter a state of trance. The beating of drums,  
233 the spinning movements of the body achieving power, and the singing of tempos are Volume XIV Issue I Version  
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236 performance elements that establish communion with the forces of possession.

237 The continuous drum beating, associated with rhythmic movements, take the dancer, by forceful spasms, onto  
238 the way to recall, and call upon, the ancestors. The collective trance mood is heightened by spirit possession, a  
239 way to establish and recreate links with the dead. It marks a moment of transformation of the cult performer  
240 whereby he attempts to reach communion with divine power. It is spirit possession that produces a communal  
241 spiritual energy and thus exerts power over the group.

242 Through spirit possession, the dancer conjures spirits, revives the dead and recreates the realm of ancestors  
243 which, in a sense, is a re-enactment and revival of lost bonds. As such, the dance becomes a site of collective  
244 memory fraught with a psychic dimension; it is a moment of liberation from the wounds and traumas of the past.  
245 Fanon explains the liberating and purging force of the dance of possession in the following way: "the circle of the  
246 dance is a permissive circle [in which] may be deciphered as in an open book the huge effort of a community to  
247 exorcise itself, to liberate itself, to explain itself." (1965, 45) The inextricable link between ritual dance and its  
248 psychic dimension is apparent in the limbo dance which becomes an exercise where the traumas of the Middle  
249 Passage are relived and re-enacted. Wilson Harris's explanation of the power of the limbo is worth reiterating:

250 "A profound art of compensation which seeks to re-play a dismemberment of tribes and to invoke at the same  
251 time a curious psychic re-assembly of the parts of the dead god or dead gods. And that reassembly [...] is a  
252 creative phenomenon of the first importance in the imagination of a people violated by economic fates." (qtd in  
253 Pin-Chia Feng, 21)

254 Harris uses the limbo dance 4 4 The limbo dance involves two people standing with a stick between them, and  
255 a third person moving under the stick face upwards back bent without the knees touching the ground. The stick  
256 is lowered after each pass, and in some instances, the stick is lit a fire. The limbo displays the limberness of the  
257 dancer, the capacity to be supple and acrobatic, so the word limbo is tied to the word limber. The connection  
258 to the limbo of Catholicism—that place of being in between, is an intellectual extension that may be tied directly  
259 to the dance. Nonetheless, the immediate reference to the limbo is to the dance. In his poem "The Limbo",  
260 Brathwaite posits that the dance is a slave ship limbering dance used to make slaves stay fit while on the ships.  
261 He further argues that its re-enactment of slave society is a way to ritualise the journey across the Atlantic, the  
262 journey of burial (baptism) in the sea and resurrection on the other side, a narrative of the rite of passage from  
263 pain and struggle to survival. Wilson Harris refers to the folk dance and the further symbolic meaning of that  
264 dance.

265 to refer to the folk dance, replete with an enigmatic symbolic dimension. Indeed, the dancer creates, through  
266 corporal signs or body language, a temporal space calling upon the realm of ancestors. The limberness of the  
267 dancer is thus emblematic of the in-between state in which the unconscious and conscious overlap; hence the  
268 dance is an ecstatic moment of complete liberation. The symbolic dimension of the ritualistic dances is echoed  
269 in Brathwaite's insistence that it is a re-enactment of the journey of slaves and the traumatic experience of the  
270 Middle passage. It is in this sense that it can be read as a narrative of the rite of passage from pain to survival,  
271 where past and present overlap, on the way to redemption, a key step to envisage the future.

272 IV.

## 273 8 Conclusion

274 However, the spiral of inter-communal violence which sparks off by the end of the novel implies the double  
275 representation of Afro-Jamaican ritualistic practices as sites of empowerment and destruction. By Centring the  
276 narrative on rituals, Salkey suggests that Caribbean culture has its own validity and ethos. Yet, he points to the  
277 way violence, set within the framework of ritualistic practices, may result into chaos and the further disintegration  
278 of the community.

279 Collective acts of violence, such as the sacrificial death of both Dada Johnson and his deputy and the ritual  
280 death of Mother Johnson stoned to death by the crowd, serve to explore the fundamental violence of human nature  
281 and collective, irrational and spontaneous violence that may grow out of a sense of frustration and wretchedness,  
282 in the face of a particular social situation. This is the background against which Salkey criticises violence as a  
283 quality of life, a way to cope with the negative social conditions. The various deaths, resulting from violence, act  
284 as a warning against this form of non-organised and inward-directed violence.

285 Hence, the very representation of the tragic fate that has befallen the islanders is used in the narrative to re-  
286 imagine a 'community' where class unity and positive morality prevail. Salkey demonstrates that the challenge of  
287 the future therefore lies in the need to develop positive morality, a prerequisite for liberation from the tarnishing  
288 effects of colonialism, and the sole way to grapple with the uncertain power dynamics of the neocolonial condition.  
289 Salkey understands change in terms of the 'will to action' and the capacity and willingness of men to change  
290 their condition (Nazareth, 36).

291 By rendering the experience of the peasant class from within, through the focus on rituals, Salkey manages  
292 to make the West Indian novel a space in which the peasant, regain subjectivity and their capacity to speak.  
293 He thus paved the way for the examination of the politics of syncretic religion in an ambivalent and complex  
294 way. The region-specific depiction of the Jamaican experience of indoctrination and the sharp cultural conflict  
295 that typify the neo-colonial state of affairs somehow manages to transcend the region and come to represent the  
296 Caribbean experience as a whole.

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299 In a sense, this work establishes the ground for the forthcoming generation of writers and serves as a culmination  
300 for earlier attempts at craving a space for one's voice and building national identity.

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Figure 1:

Figure 2:

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<sup>1</sup>For further reading, see: Frantz Fanon, *The Wretched of the Earth*, trans. Constance Farrington (New York: Grove Press, 1965), Kamau Brathwaite, *Roots* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1993) and Wilson Harris, *Tradition, the Writer and Society: Critical Essays*

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