Philippe Claudel’s *Le Rapport de Brodeck* as a Parody of the Fable, or the Holocaust Universalised

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**Abstract:**
This article examines Philippe Claudel’s 2007 novel *Le Rapport de Brodeck* which, while alluding to the events of the Holocaust, parodies tropes and narrative structures characteristic to fables and fairy tales. While analysing the author’s simultaneous inscription and subversion of the fabulous genre, I speculate about the possible reasons for his narrative choices and consider the meanings that Claudel’s indirect representation of the Nazi genocide potentially generates. Given the widespread view of the Holocaust as sacred and unique, the article problematises the novel’s universalisation of the Jewish tragedy, which Claudel achieves precisely by drawing on genres that shun historical and geographical specificity, and that aim to convey timeless and universal truths.

**Keywords:** Holocaust; Philippe Claudel; postmodernism; fable; fairy tale; Derrida; parody; animal rights
Nothing, anywhere can be compared to Auschwitz.

Elie Wiesel

[I]n their behavior towards creatures, all men [a]re Nazis.

Isaac Bashevis Singer

We Germans, who are the only people in the world who have the only decent attitude towards animals, will also assume a decent attitude towards these human animals. But it is a crime against our own blood to worry about them.

Heinrich Himmler

Ce que l’animal est privé de la possibilité de témoigner selon les règles humaines d’établissement du dommage, et qu’en conséquence tout dommage est comme un tort et fait de lui une victime ipso facto. [...] C’est pourquoi l’animal est un paradigme de la victime.

Jean-François Lyotard

Il savait que […] le bacille de la peste ne meurt ni ne disparaît jamais, qu’il peut rester pendant des dizaines d’années endormi dans les meubles et le linge, qu’il attend patiemment dans les chambres, les caves, les malles, les mouchoirs et les papierasses, et que, peut-être, le jour viendrait où, pour le malheur et l’enseignement des hommes, la peste réveillerait ses rats et les enverrait mourir dans une cité heureuse.

Albert Camus

**Le Rapport de Brodeck: A Novel about the Holocaust?**

In her study of third-generation Holocaust writers Ruth Franklin reinterprets Elie Wiesel’s oft-cited criticism of fictionalisations of the Jewish tragedy¹ as an indication that Holocaust fiction can never be uniquely about its subject.² This is because ‘[a]rt makes comparisons; it encourages empathy; it awakens the imagination.’³ Franklin then enlists Wiesel’s dictum, as well as his statement that ‘[a] memorial unresponsive to the future would violate the memory of the past’,⁴ in her endorsement of writing that opens up the Holocaust to comparisons with other manifestations of evil. Originally illustrated with English-language texts, Franklin’s position can be extended to some of the novels examined by the present study. Indeed, Aaron’s *Le Nom de Klara*, Littell’s *Les Bienveillantes*, Haenel’s *Jan Karski*, Humbert’s *L’Origine de la violence*, and Philippe Claudel’s *Le Rapport de Brodeck*, which will be the focus of the present article, all display the tendency to generalise the Holocaust.

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¹ ‘A novel about Treblinka is not a novel, or else it is not about Treblinka’.
³ Franklin, 242.
⁴ Franklin, 242.
Predictably, such a narrative approach to the representation of the Jewish tragedy has vexed those who insist upon the sanctity and uniqueness of the Jewish tragedy, and who believe that writing about the Shoah is best left to direct witnesses, or, in case of fictionalisations, that novelists should abide by realist narrative conventions. This is why much of Holocaust literature so far has been rooted in time and place, uneasily lending itself to examination through a historical lens or to being enriched by our knowledge of contemporary events. Put differently, this literature has been ‘characterized by [its] subject matter, itself embedded in time and place: the physical and psychological conditions in the ghettos and camps of the Second World War.’ It is therefore unsurprising that Jan Karski or Les Bienveillantes came under fire for their anachronistic approach to history, or indeed for their universalisation of the Holocaust, which Littell achieves by replotting the Nazi genocide as a modern version of Oresteia. As for Haenel, his circular novel scores the same goal by inscribing the Jewish catastrophe into the never-ending cycle of violence.

Antithetically, other critics echo Hayden White’s reservations about the suitability of nineteenth-century narrative conventions in Holocaust literature and heed his correlated call for forms that, unlike realism, would be detached from the practices of the nation-state behind the Final Solution. For instance, Efraim Sicher believes that Holocaust literature must burst the boundaries of canonical narrative structures, since ‘[t]he incredible invites the surreal, and the absurdity of mass death defies narrative conventions of life-stories, the Bildungsroman, or the epistolary form.’ And, should these generic forms be deployed, ‘they could only come out ironically parodied or inverted’. However suspicious of certain emplotment modes in Holocaust literature, White himself concedes that even ‘comic’ or

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7 Schreiber, 4.
10 Sicher, XII.
11 Sicher, XII.
12 Sicher, 4.
‘pastoral’ forms may prove acceptable if used in ‘a pointedly ironic way and in the interest of making a metacritical comment […] on versions of the facts [thus] emplotted.’\footnote{White, 40.}

This is precisely what Philippe Claudel undertakes in \textit{Le Rapport de Brodeck} [henceforth \textit{Brodeck}] that both inscribes and challenges canonical narrative structures, hence following the model of ‘historiographic metafiction’. Coined by Linda Hutcheon, the term points to postmodern literature’s extensive self-reflexivity and parodic character, which are accompanied by its paradoxical efforts ‘to root itself in that which both self-reflexivity and parody appear to short-circuit: the historical world.’\footnote{Linda Hutcheon, \textit{A Poetics of Postmodernism: History, Theory, Fiction} (New York: Routledge, 1988), 10.} Implicitly complying with this definition, \textit{Brodeck} unmistakably speaks of the Holocaust while styling itself on the fairy tale and fable; set in a vaguely specified time and locale, and steeped in animal and floral imagery, the novel invokes familiar examples of the two parodied genres. Yet, if such a narrative approach would be unlikely to raise ethical objections in conjunction with other historical situations, when applied to the Holocaust it could easily be judged morally unsound. Though appreciative of allegory’s potential to link ‘disparate faces of historical experience’\footnote{Debarati Sanyal, \textit{Memory and Complicity: Migrations of Holocaust Remembrance}, New York: Fordham University Press, 2015, 50.} and to be ‘a potent vector of intervention and critique’,\footnote{Sanyal, 53.} Debarati Sanyal deems it ‘a risky mode of engaging history’.\footnote{Sanyal, 52.} This is because ‘[i]ts transpositions cycle through distinctive histories and can transform a singular event such as the Nazi genocide into a hollowed-out structure of eternal recurrence’,\footnote{Sanyal, 52.} reducing precise events to pure textuality, diminishing their historicity or even making them irrelevant.\footnote{Sanyal, 53.} Oddly, no such concerns have been raised by \textit{Brodeck}’s spatiotemporal obliqueness. Unlike \textit{Les Bienveillantes}, which also engage characteristically postmodern parody, Claudel’s novel has met with quasi-unanimous acclaim, winning several important literary prizes and becoming a set text in schools across France and beyond.\footnote{Brodeck won the Prix Goncourt des Lycéens (2007), the Prix des Libraires du Québec (2008), the Prix des Lecteurs—Le Livre de Poche (2009) and the Independent Foreign Fiction Prize (UK, 2010).} Recently, \textit{Brodeck} has been adapted as \textit{bande dessinée} whose reception was also overwhelmingly positive.\footnote{Manu Larcenet, \textit{Le Rapport de Brodeck}, 2 vols. (Paris: Dargaud, 2015-2016).} More pertinently, Claudel’s allegorising approach has been praised as a strategy of ‘transparency, detachment and silence’ that prevents a ‘trivialisation of
of] the Holocaust’ and ‘ensure[s] that a respectful distance/objectivity is maintained’.\textsuperscript{22} While this may well have been Claudel’s design, the fact remains that the writer’s displacement of the Holocaust from its spatiotemporal context can be a risky transformation of a historical phenomenon into a paradigm that, in Sanyal’s terms, ‘illustrates a universal rule, with all the historical and ethical distortions that ensue’.\textsuperscript{23}

It is with these ethical considerations in mind that I will now investigate Claudel’s refusal to embrace historical realism, which I construe as symptomatic of the import of Anglophone postmodern literary theory and praxis in contemporary French culture, of the growing temporal distance between the Holocaust and the moment of enunciation, and of the author’s lack of personal connection to the Jewish catastrophe. To see how Claudel negotiates the figure of allegory and other fairy-tale motifs and structures in relation to an event often thought both singular and sacred, I will first comment on Brodeck’s simultaneous espousal and undercutting of the two ancient genres. In so doing, I will discuss Claudel’s both intertextual references to popular fairy tales and use of recognisable fabulous themes and tropes. My analysis will then move on to the meanings born out of the novelist’s reliance on animal imagery, which, while aligning Brodeck with the beast fable, unmistakably alludes to the Nazis’ dehumanisation of Jews. But, by animalising men and anthropomorphising beasts, Claudel shifts the human/non-human divide also in the other direction, wherein I recognise his countersignature to Derrida’s destabilisation of the man-animal disjunction. While thus confirming his allegiance to anti-foundationalist movements and philosophies that include deconstruction and that anticipated postmodernism, Claudel, I will argue, inscribes his dark tale into the by now well established—albeit still controversial—tradition of analogising industrial farming and slaughter of animals to the Holocaust. Having contextualised Brodeck with the work of animal rights advocates, I will close the article with speculations about Claudel’s motives for borrowing narrative structures and imagery from Aesop or the Grimm Brothers, and about his novel’s ramifications for our understanding of the Jewish catastrophe.

\textit{Brodeck} is the ninth work of fiction of a prolific and successful writer and filmmaker, who, although classified as a third-generation author,\textsuperscript{24} is not a descendant of survivors, nor is he even Jewish. If Claudel’s interest in World War II springs from his origins in Lorraine,

\textsuperscript{22} France Grenaudier-Klijn, ‘Landscapes Do Not Lie: War, Abjection and Memory in Philippe Claudel’s Le Rapport de Brodeck’, Essays in French Literature and Culture 47 (Nov. 2010), 87-107 (pp. 94-5).
\textsuperscript{23} Sanyal, 48.
whose landscape has been punctuated with military cemeteries and monuments by the twentieth century’s two major conflicts, his preoccupation with the Holocaust proceeds from his self-acknowledged belief that all postwar literature must somehow address it. Given the Holocaust’s status as the ultimate manifestation of the oppression of the Other, Claudel’s belief is actualised as his consistent exploration of the theme of the individual’s alterity and consequent social marginality. However, Brodeck remains the author’s only work dealing with the Jewish tragedy per se: cast as a concentration camp survivor’s testimony, the novel recounts events that uncannily evoke the Holocaust. To summarise Brodeck, its action takes place shortly after the eponymous protagonist’s return from captivity. Consequently, rather than on l’univers concentrationnaire, the novel focuses on the Ereigniës, as the protagonist-narrator euphemistically dubs the assassination of a benevolent and enigmatic stranger recently arrived in his village. Initially, de Anderer, as the newcomer is called in the local dialect, intrigues his down-to-earth hosts with his theatrical clothes, impressive erudition and eloquence, sophisticated manners, and uncharacteristic kindness towards animals. Yet, the stranger’s difference, as reflected in his name, soon stirs up unwelcome memories of the villagers’ wartime crimes towards those unlike themselves, including Brodeck. Having killed the Anderer’s two animals as the ultimate warning, the peasants murder the man himself and then cover up the traces of their act by feeding the victim’s body to the mayor’s pigs. Finally, they ask Brodeck—who is educated and possesses a typewriter—to justify their murder before the local authorities, a demand with which, anxious not to share the Anderer’s fate, the protagonist reluctantly complies. Produced for administrative purposes and under duress, this report is, like official historiography, factual, chronological, logically structured and serving the interests of those who commissioned it. In contrast, the alternative and clandestine account of the Anderer’s assassination (which is supposedly the text we are reading), is fragmented, dotted with metatextual comments regarding its production, and vacillating between several temporal levels. It is from the analeptically-narrated episodes that we learn of Brodeck’s traumatic childhood in war-torn Europe; of his arrival in the village in the company of an old woman called Fé dorine; of his studies in the neighbouring country’s capital where he met his future wife Emélia and witnessed racial violence; of the invasion,

26 Greenhouse.
27 In his work Claudel has addressed stigmatisation of ex-convicts (Le Bruit de trousseaux (2002), Il y a longtemps que je t’aime (2008)), the plight of immigrants (La Petite Fille de Monsieur Lihn (2005)), or mental illness (Avant l’hiver (2013)).
pacification and occupation of the protagonist’s village by the neighbouring state’s army; and, finally, of the physical and mental tortures Brodeck suffered during his two-year detention.

Otherwise the action is set in an unnamed village located ‘sur les marges du monde’ and nestling in a sylvan, mountainous landscape, in which one critic has recognised Alsace. This remote place borders a Germanic country, whose cultural and linguistic affinity with Brodeck’s region is such that the peasants call its inhabitants ‘Fratergekeime’. As unspecific as the novel’s locale is its timeframe: the story opens in the aftermath of a war triggered by the Fratergekeime’s attack on Brodeck’s homeland and bearing many hallmarks of World War II. Although Claudel scrupulously avoids direct historical references, in the novel’s temporal setting we easily recognize the Nazi era, which renders the allegory unsettlingly transparent. Indeed, while the Fratergekeime’s red-and-black banners are thinly disguised Nazi flags, the ghettos, cattle trains, selections and executions of the camp’s prisoners, or indeed the camp’s heavy wrought-iron gate, are all familiar symbols of the Holocaust. Likewise, the Fremdër, as are called those with uncharacteristically dark hair and swarthy complexion, stand in for the Jews. What also speaks for such identification is the fact that Brodeck is circumcised and knows a language displaying characteristics of both Yiddish and Hebrew. Additionally, the protagonist’s fellow deportees—Simon Fripman and Moshe Kelmar—bear Jewish-sounding names. Finally, what Claudel calls Pürische Nacht brings to mind Kristallnacht, as are known the attacks on synagogues and Jewish businesses that swept through German cities in November 1938. On the fatal night, Brodeck walks through streets lined with shattered glass from broken shop windows, before coming across three youths who tantalise their victim using Jewish stereotypes: ‘Et regardez son nez à cette crevure! Leur nez, c’est ça qui les trahit! Et leurs gros yeux, leurs gros yeux qui leur sortent de la tête, pour tout voir, pour tout prendre!’

Notwithstanding these glaring analogies between Brodeck’s story and the Holocaust, Claudel systematically, to borrow Barthes’s words, ‘déconforte (peut-être jusqu’à un certain ennui), fait vaciller les assises

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28 Philippe Claudel, Le Rapport de Brodeck (Paris: Livre de Poche/Stock, 2009), 64. Further references to Le Rapport de Brodeck will be given in the text as (B, 64). All the translations come from Philippe Claudel, Brodeck, trans. by John Cullen (New York: Anchor Books, 2010).


30 Some wording has been changed here.
historiques, culturelles, psychologiques du lecteur’31 [‘discomforts (perhaps to the point of a certain fatigue), unsettles the reader’s historical, cultural, psychological assumptions’]. He does so by replacing historical realism with allegory, a strategy that I will now frame with the rudiments of the discussion about the singularity of the Holocaust, and with instances of parodic deployment of fabulous and parabolic narrative modes in Holocaust literature.

The Uniqueness of the Holocaust and the Deployment of Fairy-Tale Motifs in Holocaust Fiction

‘The Holocaust is unique in structure’,32 writes Raul Hilberg, which is why, in Henryk Grynberg’s words, ‘those who universalise [it] are not enlarging its significance but rather reducing it.’33 Such a position recapitulates the conception of the Holocaust that prevailed until the mid-1980s, when Martin Broszat’s demand for the Nazi era to be treated as any other historical period opened what is known as the Historikerstreit [Historians’ debate].34 Since then, while the proponents of the Holocaust’s singularity have been stressing the totalising dimension of the Final Solution,35 the ‘various processes, techniques, and methods of destruction characteristic of the Holocaust’,36 or the fact that the Nazi genocide was an assault on the fundamental tenets of the Judeo-Christian civilisation,37 their opponents have been warning against the multifarious dangers of isolating the Holocaust from the course of history. Irving Howe, for example, states that ‘it is a grave error to make, or ‘elevate’, the Holocaust into an occurrence outside of history, a sort of diabolic visitation,’ since it can ‘tacitly absolve its human agents of their responsibility’.38 Similarly, Saul Friedländer notes that the uniqueness argument entails the risk of rendering the Holocaust ‘fundamentally

34 Stone, 34-6.
35 Stone quotes Yehuda Bauer’s observation that ‘Nazi ideology saw in the Jew the non-human antithesis of what is considered to be the human ideal’, Steven Katz’s remark about the Germans’ ‘intention to murder the Jews in toto’, and Lucy Dawidowicz’s comment on the ‘differentiative intent of the murderers’. Stone, 186-87.
37 Quoted by Stone, 186.
irrelevant for the history of humanity and the understanding of the “human condition”.

In other words, the Holocaust can become seen, to quote Dan Stone, as an unfortunate ‘aberration in the otherwise [...] onwards and upwards march of history’, as a solely Jewish concern, or as an event beyond grasp and explanation.

And yet as World War II recedes into the past, the Holocaust may eventually yield to what Gavriel Rosenfeld calls ‘normalisation’, a term implying the ‘abnormal’ for highly traumatic nature of the Nazi genocide. This ‘normalisation’ can be either ‘organic’, that is related to the passage of time, or ‘prescriptive’, that is pursued in ‘aggressive fashion’. The latter can be achieved through ‘relativisation’, ‘universalisation’ or ‘aesthetisation’, each approach having different emphases and ramifications for Holocaust memory. Yet, in Rosenfeld’s view, all three strategies ‘reflect a desire to make a given historical legacy no different from any other and can thus be seen as part of a larger attempt to reduce its prominence in current consciousness, if not to render it forgotten altogether.’

That novelists have been similarly careful not to ‘normalise’ the Jewish tragedy transpires from the already mentioned predominantly canonical character of Holocaust literature. According to Sidra DeKoven Ezrahi, Holocaust writers see themselves chiefly as ‘witnesses or transmitters of historical events that are fixed in time and space’. That said, Ezrahi allows for historically-liberated Holocaust novels, as exemplified by Jerzy Kosinski’s The Painted Bird (1965).

Likewise, Lawrence Langer recognises the writers’ urge to ‘circumvent the literal realities of l’univers concentrationaire’ and ‘discover legitimate metaphors that might suggest without actually describing […] its world’. Conversely, Leslie Epstein criticises Kosinski for turning the Holocaust into a symbol; while denying the fact that both the victims and the perpetrators ‘were all too human’, the Polish Jewish novelist transforms, claims Epstein, the concentrationary universe into ‘a fantasyland’ located outside history.

Yet, Kosinski is not the only writer to have reached for fairy-tale themes and structural devices in Holocaust fiction. Other authors include Yaffa Eliach, Jonathan Safran Foer, John

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39 Quoted by Stone, 192.
40 Stone, 192.
42 Rosenfeld, 17-18.
Boyne or Eve Bunting. Whereas Amy Matthews and Lydia Kokkola are sceptical about these novelists’ departure from the realism, Margarete Landwehr believes fairy tales to provide particularly apt allegories for Holocaust stories. This is because they help represent events that defy all logic and reason, and resolve ‘the tension between historical knowledge’ and ‘emotional understanding’.

In Landwehr’s view, this tension is central to the portrayal of the Nazi genocide, which means that by borrowing fairy-tale conventions Holocaust narratives encourage our identification and empathy with their heroes. Moreover, since fabulous characters are usually ordinary people with fears and weaknesses, or even marginalised outsiders, the fairy tale offers a suitable template for the story of the Germans’ oppression of Europe’s diasporic community. Finally, since they foreground the anxiety of confronting overwhelming and destructive natural forces, fairy tales can convey the terror felt by Jewish victims.

Reiterating some of Landwehr’s points, Philippe Codde attaches the use of fabulous motifs to third-generation writers, who, hoping to bridge ‘the epistemological abyss that separates them from this inaccessible era […] take the imaginative leap’ and saturate their narratives with mythological and fantastic elements. In so doing, these authors frequently unearth the fairy tales’ original violence and horror, as exemplified by Jane Yolen’s Briar Rose (1992) that narrates the slaughter of Chelmno Jews with references to Little Red Riding Hood, Bluebeard’s Castle, Hansel and Gretel, The Piped Piper of Hamelin and The Sleeping Beauty. Implicitly following Codde, Anna Hunter asserts that the insertion of fairy-tale elements into Holocaust narratives is the thing of third-generation writers who, unlike the survivors or their children, cannot rely on the narrator’s perceived authority, and so this authority must come from within the text itself. She adds that, notwithstanding the apparent incongruity of the Jewish catastrophe and the fabulous world, there are similarities between

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46 Lydia Kokkola, Representing the Holocaust in Children’s Literature (New York: Routledge, 2003), 41-2; Amy T. Matthews, Navigating the Kingdom of Night (Adelaide: University of Adelaide Press, 2013), 61-84.
48 Landwehr, 154.
49 Landwehr, 156.
50 Landwehr, 157.
52 Codde, 67-9. Other examples of the use of fairy-tale structures in retelling the Holocaust are Judy Budnitz’s If I Told You Once (1999) or Louise Murphy’s The True Tale of Hansel and Gretel (2003).
the two highly conventionalised canons: the fairy tale and the ‘Holocaust story’. Then, while agreeing with Landwehr on the enhancement of readers’ engagement through the use of fairy-tale structures in Holocaust narratives, Hunter notes that these structures can also provide a screen between the audience and the depicted horrors.

**Brodeck as a Dark Fairy Tale**

Despite his awareness of Adorno’s prohibitive dictum, an awareness manifest in Brodeck’s burning of his poetry books on his liberation (B, 45), Claudel not only writes a Holocaust novel, but also abandons realism for fairy-tale tropes and structural elements. His narrative approach is anticipated as of his novel’s opening chapter, which, untypically for this resolutely atemporal story, mentions the year 1812, which happens to be when the Brothers Grimm first published their fairy tales. The chapter also stages the fairy godmotherly figure of Fédorine who rescued Brodeck after his native village had been reduced to ashes. Importantly, Claudel structures the scene of Brodeck’s and Fédorine’s first encounter with elements of *Snow White* and *The Piped Piper of Hamelin*, yet, in a recognizably postmodern manner, he subverts the two tales’ key elements: while the apple is turned from a tool of persecution into a token of kind-heartedness, the piper metamorphoses from a figure of vengeance into one of motherly compassion: ‘[Fédorine] a fouillé dans sa besace et en sortit une pomme d’un beau rouge luisant. Elle me l’a tendue. […] J’ai suivi la vieille femme aux pommes comme si elle avait été un joueur de flûte.’ (B, 28) ‘[Fédorine] dug in her bag, brought out a beautiful, gleaming red apple, and handed it to me. […] I followed the old woman with the apples as if she were a piper.’] Claudel then reinforces the connection between Fédorine and the world of make-believe by describing her as ‘une sorcière cabossée’

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55 Hutcheon, 3.
(B, 28) [‘a battered old witch’]. She is also portrayed as a purveyor of fabulous stories in which

des objets parlent, où des châteaux en une nuit traversent des plaines et des montagnes, où des reines dorment durant mille ans, où des arbres se muent en seigneurs, où leurs racines se dressent, enlacent des gorges et les étouffent et où certaines sources peuvent guérir les blessures et les immenses chagrins. (B, 85)

(objects speak, chateaux cross mountains and plains in a single night, queens sleep for a thousand years, trees change into noble lords, roots spring from the earth and strange people, and springs have the power to heal festering wounds and soothe overwhelming grief.)

Set in Tibipoï, a land populated by elves, gnomes and trolls who speak Tibershoï, a language humans cannot understand (B, 155), Fédorine’s stories are exemplified with the tale about a poor tailor Bilissi who one day opens the door to three masked and armed knights. Combined with the simultaneously enigmatic and ill-foreboding sentence closing the first chapter—
‘C’est ainsi bien souvent quand il est bien trop tard’ (B, 19) [‘Things are often thus, when it is far too late’]—, the image sets the tone for the gloomy and frightening tale in which Bilissi’s story is embedded. Later we learn that the knights were the envoys of a King who had ordered three suits from Bilissi, yet, instead of payment, bestowed doom on the tailor: the first two commissions were followed by the death of Bilissi’s wife and mother, and the third one was to be rewarded with the arrival of a daughter whom the tailor, however, believed to already possess. Given the composition of Brodeck’s own family, Bilissi’s story must be deciphered as, on the one hand, a projection of the protagonist’s concern about Fédorine, Emélia and Emélia’s daughter, Poupchette, in a world gripped by arbitrary violence, and, on the other, a hint at Claudel’s choice to set his novel in the swampy terrain of allegory.56

The author’s intentions are confirmed by an intertextual reference to Camus’s La Peste, generally read as a veiled account of the Occupation or even, as do Langer or Sanyal, the Holocaust.57 If Marie Bornand attributes Camus’s indirect representation of l’univers

56 Sébastien Hogue observes similarities between Bilissi’s tale and La Petite Fille de Monsieur Lihn, whose eponymous protagonist deludes himself about having a baby granddaughter. Hogue suggests that Fédorine, Emélia and Poupchette are but a product of Brodeck’s imagination, which would undermine the protagonist’s narratorial reliability. Sébastien Hogue, ‘Oublier ou se souvenir? Culpabilité et mémoire dans Le Rapport de Brodeck de Philippe Claudel’, Masters dissertation, Université de Laval, 2015, 92-3.

57 For Langer, the scene of the agony of M. Othon’s young son is ‘an imaginative mask’ for historical situations such as the murder of children of Zamość by Scherpe and Hantl in Auschwitz. Langer, 132-4. For Sanyal, the hallmarks of the Holocaust are ‘the disposal of bodies in mass graves, the stench of the crematoria, [and] the cold bureaucratic efficiency of the administration.’ Sanyal, 63. Conversely, for Sicher, to read La Peste as an allegory of the Holocaust not only distorts the meaning of Camus’s novel but also underestimates the horror of Auschwitz. Sicher, 5.
concentrationnaire to his lack of direct experience thereof. Langer explains it by arguing that historical situations such as the murder of the children of Zamość at Auschwitz must be ‘embraced [by writers] with a determination to invent a form and a language commensurate with a world where children’s destiny is to fall down “like cut blades of grass”.’ In the same vein, Sanyal interprets Camus’s dismantling of the dichotomies between chronicle and allegory as a sign that only figurative language can evoke certain catastrophic histories. As we will see, similar conclusions can be drawn about Brodeck, whose protagonist-narrator, like Dr Rieux, intends to produce an objective, anonymous and artless report, yet ends up creating an oneiric and symbolic narrative. And, although in Brodeck the plague is, unlike in Camus’s novel, only one of many figures of intolerance, violence and death, Claudel happens to mention it in anticipation of his description of Pürische Nacht. On the fatal day, Brodeck is reading a book on the history of the plague, a subject that in itself points to the recurring rather than one-off character of the evil that both Camus and Claudel metaphorise as deadly disease. An illustration shows three hooded corpse collectors and a forlorn and frightened child standing in an otherwise deserted street. The men’s indifference towards the boy contrasts with the interest shown to him by a rat that scrutinises him ‘avec malice et ironie’ (B, 223) [‘with a malicious and ironic look’]. Later, when walking through the district of Kolesh, which, alluding to a fairy-tale setting, Claudel endows with ‘une dimension scintillante, merveilleuse et féerique’ (B, 224) [‘a sparkling, marvelous, magical dimension’], Brodeck watches three youths butcher to death an old man, before being menaced himself. If the three aggressors echo the corpse collectors featured in the afore-discussed illustration, the boy corresponds to Brodeck himself whom Pürische Nacht has mentally taken back to his traumatic childhood. Finally, the rat becomes personified by Brodeck’s friend, Ulli Rätte, who, inoffensive in peacetime, becomes a tormentor in wartime, just as Camus’s rats turn from the city’s inconspicuous inhabitants into harbingers of death. Claudel’s description of Pürische Nacht therefore reveals his wish to wrest the Holocaust from its historical singularity, without, however, de-Judaizing it, as suggested by his numerous—albeit veiled—references to anti-Semitism. He achieves this by seeking out the commonalities of different instances of violence—the plague, the war that left Brodeck an orphan, the racism preceding

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59 Langer, 134.
what seems to be World War II—and by exploiting the figure of the plague that, since Camus’s novel, has functioned as a potent symbol of evil.

Claudel’s universalising strategy becomes apparent in his use of fairy-tale motifs, such as the numbers that are thought to be magical.\(^6\) As of the novel’s beginning we observe the author’s predilection for 3, which is the most commonly used number in fairy tales.\(^6\) Apart from the already-quoted examples, in Brodeck characters and objects often come in threes: the crows assisting at the hangings in the concentration camp, the dead bodies Brodeck comes across in Kolesh, the judges of the protagonist’s report, the Fremdër girls whom the villagers rape and murder, or the categories of pigs in the mayor’s sties. Also, as in fairy tales, where episodes are repeated three times,\(^6\) Bilissi receives three visits from the King’s envoys, the mayor clears his throat three times when speaking to Brodeck, and, after the slaughter of the Anderer’s animals, the stranger’s accusatory lamentations can be heard on three consecutive nights. As for other magical numbers, seven men denounce the protagonist to the Fratergekeime, after which he is sent on a train journey lasting six days.

Just as Claudel’s obvious predilection for symbolically-charged numbers, the one-dimensional and polarised characterisation of his protagonists is a recognizable element of the world of make-believe. An excellent example of this is Orschwir, the village mayor and wealthy pig farmer, who is portrayed as exceedingly ugly and, through the description of his house as labyrinthine, is metonymically aligned with the Minotaur (B, 47). Orschwir’s external traits reflect his interiority, as manifest in his keen collaboration with the Fratergekeime, his instrumental role in the Anderer’s murder, or the fact that he earns his living from farming and—by implication—from animal suffering. As in fairy tales, which ‘thrive on simplification, focusing on polar opposites rather than on the complex continuum that connects them’,\(^6\) Orschwir or Brodeck’s prying neighbour, Göbbler, are starkly opposed to the Anderer who, with his culture, wisdom and moral rectitude, outshines even other positive figures found in the novel. Also, while many of Brodeck’s characters seem only too real, the Anderer is repeatedly identified as illusory. He is described as having come out of a variety show, a puppet theatre (B, 62), or ‘une vieille fable pleine de poussière et de mots perdus’ (B, 194) [‘a dusty old fable full of obsolete words’]. He is also likened to a

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\(^6\) Other elements are overtly familiar and deliberately exaggerated figures, polarised characterisation, or aphorisms. Grenaudier-Klijn, 90.
\(^6\) Ashliman, 7.
\(^6\) Ashliman, 7.
ringmaster, a fairground entertainer, or the Teufeleuzeit, a mythical creature reputed to feed on children (B, 63).

A more problematic example of polarised characterisation are the novel’s female protagonists, whose portrayal betrays Claudel’s almost unreserved reliance on stereotypical constructions of gender established by fairy tales. Indeed, the great majority of Brodeck’s women are passive, kindly and motherly figures who act as men’s saviours and who, with the protagonist’s realisation that only men were present at Schloss’s inn during the Ereigniēs, are opposed to the predatory males. It is noteworthy that, as hinted by its name that translates into English as ‘castle,’ the inn plays the role of a key fairy-tale ingredient. As the meeting place of the mysterious Erweckens’Bruderschaft, whose members take weighty decisions in great secrecy, Schloss’s inn is connoted to doom, malevolent power and violence. Aptly, this is where Brodeck’s fate is sealed after the Fratergekeime ask the villagers for the handover of all the Fremdēr, and where only a few years later the Anderer will be murdered. The inn stands in direct contrast to Mother Pitz’s café, which, exuding an air of cosy homeliness, is patronised mostly by women. Like Fédorine, who rescues Brodeck-the-child and, years later, Emélia after she is raped by the village men, Mother Pitz is a saviour figure providing the protagonist with comfort and council. Although only hypothetical, no less positive is the role of Gerthe Schloss in the life of her husband, who believes that had his wife been alive, he would have had the strength to resist the Fratergekeime. Likewise, what helps Brodeck survive the camp is the thought of his wife, whose profession as lace maker associates her with the icon of silent domesticity depicted by Vermeer’s famous painting De kantwerkster.

However, once again following the pattern established by historiographic metafiction that simultaneously inscribes and challenges narrative conventions, Claudel destabilises the fairy-tale ideal of persecuted beauty embodied by Rapunzel or Cinderella, and, in his own novel, by Emélia. He does so with the character of the wife of the camp’s commander whose good looks, blondness and position of young mother jar with her sadistic voyeurism captured in the nickname given to her by the camp’s inmates, the Zeilenesseniss (the woman who eats souls). In the novel’s most brutal scene, the commander’s wife thrives on the spectacle of the daily hanging as she is tenderly nursing her baby. Her character thus undercuts not only the fairy-tale model of feminine beauty but also that of feminine evil, as instantiated by the cannibalistic witch from Hansel and Gretel. Having said that, the commander’s wife shows

65 This may be a reference to anti-Semitic prejudice, whose themes include the Jews’ using the blood of Christian children for baking matzos for Passover.
66 Cf. Blubeard’s Castle, Jack and the Beanstalk or Beauty and the Beast.
much affinity with Snow White’s beautiful and jealous stepmother, and even more so with Maleficent from Disney’s 1959 adaptation of the story as Sleeping Beauty. Known as ‘Mistress of All Evil,’ Maleficent is also elegant and sinister, and her pet is a raven, a cousin of the camp’s three crows, with which the Zeilenesseniss shares an appetite for the sight of the other’s death. With the commander’s wife Claudel also parodies the stereotype of a sadistic female Nazi created by popular culture. Incidentally, like the statuesque blond featured by the 1974 horror film Ilsa: She-Wolf of the S.S., the Zeilenesseniss is killed by the inmates on the camp’s liberation. If such stereotypes are meant to convey Nazi sadism, female violence being more culturally aberrant than male brutality, Clau
del further heightens this effect by figuring the Nazi female as a Madonna.

It is with Brodeck who, unlike a fairy-tale hero or indeed a survivor in a canonical Holocaust narrative, is a morally ambiguous figure, that Claudel definitely breaks with the convention of oversimplified characterisation. Already the protagonist’s opening protestation of his innocence—‘Je m’appelle Brodeck et je n’y suis pour rien’ (B, 11) [‘I’m Brodeck and I had nothing to do with it’]—suggests his attempt to disculpate himself, rendering his blamelessness suspect. Brodeck’s victimhood is openly problematised when he belatedly confesses that during the interminable train journey to the camp he and Kelmar stole water from a young mother, thus precipitating her and her child’s death. Brodeck’s sense of culpability is amplified by the suicidal death of Moshe, who, haunted by his deed, lets himself be killed by the guards. The protagonist also feels guilty about having withstood all the possible tortures and humiliations in the camp, which culminated in his becoming ‘Brodeck the Dog’ and which he perceives in terms of collaboration. The ultimate source of the protagonist’s culpability is his perceived complicity in the Ereigniës, which, it needs stressing, replicates the Fratergekeime’s brutalisation of the Fremdër, including Brodeck himself. That by testifying on behalf of the Anderer’s assassins the protagonist becomes embroiled in their crime, is confirmed by his use of the first person singular in his report (B, 22). This self-incrimination proceeds from Brodeck’s awareness that, had he been present at the killing, he would not have come to the Anderer’s rescue. The distance between the protagonist and the actual murders further diminishes when he realises that, like the other

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68 Frost, 154.
69 Like other aspects of l’univers concentrationnaire described by Claudel, this episode recalls Levi’s experience of thirst in Auschwitz. Levi confesses that, together with another prisoner, he drank water stagnating in a pipe without sharing it with their fellow inmates. Levi, 60-1.
men, he withheld the crime from his women: ‘Au fond, j’étais comme les autres, comme tous ceux qui m’entouraient et qui m’avaient chargé de ce Rapport dont ils espéraient qu’il allait les disculper.’ (B, 115) [‘At the bottom, I was like the others, like all those who surrounded me and charged me with writing the Report, which they hoped would exonerate them.’]

By creating a morally dubious character Claudel not only rules out the reader’s full identification with Brodeck, thus subverting the paradigm of a positive fairy-tale hero, but also challenges the conventional conception of the Holocaust based on the Manichean distinction between victims and perpetrators. With his central character’s sense of complicity with his tormentors, Claudel inscribes his tale into the more nuanced understanding of l’univers concentrationnaire that has emerged with Primo Levi’s identification of the ‘grey zone’ as a space where the victims were forced to collude with their executioners, or with the theorisations of the ‘Survivor Syndrome’ as the sense of shame at having lived through the hell that killed so many.\(^70\) Finally, with Brodeck’s feeling responsible for the Anderer’s murder, Claudel integrates bystanders into the previously uncomplicated dichotomy of tormentors and victims, implicitly endorsing the position that, because those passively watching inevitably facilitated the perpetrators’ work, the category of the bystander can never be neutral.\(^71\)

**Brodeck and the Animal Fable**

Perhaps the most significant element of the world of make-believe found in Claudel’s novel is the strong presence of floral and animal imagery, which confirms not only the story’s engagement with the genres of fairy tale and (beast) fable, but also its universalising ambition. In other words, Claudel frames the Holocaust with man’s centuries-old hierarchical thinking, and, by connotation, subjugation and exploitation of other animals, both human and non-human. Already the novel’s sylvan setting, which, in the light of the traditional association between Germanness and trees, seems like a natural one for this story with a Germanic flavour, positions Brodeck within the fairy-tale convention. The forest, especially


one with an unspecified geographical position, is ‘a common fairy tale locale’ that usually ‘designates danger, even possible death’, although it can also signify freedom. If France Grenaudier-Klijn rightly notes that Claudel opposes the forest to both the Breughelesque village and the perilous capital, she overlooks its fairy-tale duality. For, not only can the forest be a place of leisurely strolls or refuge, and a source of aesthetic pleasure, or, as in Brodeck’s case, livelihood, but also a menacing force that in the protagonist’s anguished mind becomes metonymically connected to the Fratergekeime, should these be stand-ins for the real-life Nazis. This connection is achieved with the image of the forest on the march and threatening to smother the hut where, when composing his alternative report, Brodeck hides from his neighbours’ ill-founded curiosity. The image of marching trees can be traced back to German iconography, where the national love of forests has been at times linked to militarism, as in the Nazis’ (ab)use of the sylvan metaphor. Pursuing the anthropomorphic trope, which is a well-established literary device in fairy tales, Claudel figures the forest as an all-engulfing element set on destroying Brodeck and his family. During an outing to the woods the protagonist notices that a pond has tripled in size—an ominous sign in itself—and that the trough standing in the middle of it and once capable to stirring pleasant associations with a vessel, now resembles a tomb. Disturbed by this morbid vision, Brodeck hurries back to Emélia and Poupchette of whom he has lost sight. As if in a nightmare, he slips on the marshy ground and sinks into holes and quagmires that emit ‘des bruits qui ressemblaient à des plaintes mourantes’ (B, 202) [‘sounds like the groans of the dying’].

Endowed with contradictory significations, in Claudel’s novel the forest is home to many symbolically-invested plants, two of which deserve closer scrutiny. Believed to be trumpets played by the dead, which is reflected in their French name—‘trompettes de la mort’—, the black mushrooms Brodeck receives from Ernst-Peter Limmat are confirmed in their sinister symbolism when the protagonist’s former teacher betrays him by joining the two other judges of Brodeck’s report and, by extension, of Brodeck himself. The other plant is the valley periwinkle mentioned by Kelmar as an antidote to the horrors of the deportation. It is in the memory of the massacred student that the protagonist vainly searches for the beautiful and
delicate flower until he locates it in the Anderer’s almanac of local flora. Yet, the stranger casts doubt on the flower’s reality by saying that ‘[c]e qui est dans les livres n’existe pas toujours’ (B, 286) [‘things in books don’t always exist’], thus questioning the referential value of the written word. Read metatextually, the Anderer’s pronouncement may be alluding to the unreliability of Brodeck’s official report or even to the fictitiousness of Claudel’s text itself.

In Brodeck even more prominently than plants figure animals, which aligns Claudel’s novel with the beast fable, as popularised by Aesop, Ivan Krilov, George Orwell or—in relation to the Holocaust—Art Spiegelman. Animals also feature abundantly in other types of fables and in fairy tales, where they are anthropomorphised and where they ‘draw attention to questions about what differentiates human from animal by manipulating the standard marker of boundary between the two categories’. With the Nazis’ dehumanisation of the Jews being a trope of survivors’ testimonies, it is understandable that some Holocaust writers have reached for animal imagery. The two most notable examples are The Painted Bird and Maus (1986), although their authors’ approaches could not be more different. Whereas Kosinski’s imagery is metaphorical, Spiegelman’s is allegorical, which means that, like a classical beast fable, Maus resorts to zoomorphic recasting of humans: Jews are mice, Germans cats, Poles pigs, and Americans dogs. Brodeck is hence closer to The Painted Bird, which, lacking precise historical and geographical markers, and being equivocal about its protagonist’s identity, aspires to the fable’s universality. Kosinski’s intention to take his reader ‘into a timeless and mythical land’ is further corroborated by his novel’s title being inspired by Aesop’s ‘The Bird in Borrowed Feathers’, or by the mini-fables studding the text.

Likewise, Brodeck is punctuated with parables featuring animals and designed to teach humans moral lessons. Chronologically, the first mini-fable is the one presented to the peasants by the captain of the occupying forces as a way of encouraging them to expel the Fremdër living in their midst. A parody of Hitler and, more generally, of the Nazis who

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78 For a discussion of Spiegelman’s use of animal imagery, see Stanislav Kolář, Seven Responses to the Holocaust in American Fiction (Ostrava: Universum, 2004), 152-56.
79 DeKoven Ezrahi, 152.
81 Kolář, 60.
keenly used animal behaviour to make larger arguments about humans,\textsuperscript{82} Adolf Buller urges the villagers to emulate butterflies \textit{Rex flammæ}, that, in favourable conditions, accommodate other types of insects, but when danger arises, sacrifice individuals of different species. Later, a similar point is made by Orschwir who hopes to dispel Brodeck’s qualms by analogising men to pigs that he describes as creatures ‘sans cœur et sans esprit. Sans mémoire aussi. […] Ils ne connaissent pas le remords. Ils vivent.’ (\textit{B}, 51) [‘with no heart and no mind. With no memory either. […] They know nothing of remorse. They live.’] The three categories of animals found in the mayor’s sties are meant to represent the three stages in life: innocence, gratuitous violence and what Orschwir calls ‘wisdom’, but what in reality is viciousness and moral corruption. Unsurprisingly, it is the most mature pigs that the mayor recommends Brodeck emulate, thus urging him to forget the villagers’ crimes. As we can see, with these two vignettes Claudel inverts the animal fable’s function, which is to teach humans beasts’ exemplary behaviour; instead, men are encouraged to become selfish, ruthless and unrepentant.

Concerned with the puzzling death of foxes, which Brodeck investigates in his professional capacity, the final parable shows animals behaving like humans. Disappointing as it is, the mystery is never fully resolved; instead, Brodeck hypothesises that, resembling men through their intelligence and capacity to kill for sheer pleasure, the foxes have committed mass suicide. As with the novel’s other aspects, we find a clue to this perplexing episode in the writings of Levi who states that, unlike in the camps where people ‘lived […] like enslaved animals’, reduced to basic needs and physiological functions, once liberated, they saw their feeling of guilt resurface. By committing suicide, which, Levi stresses, ‘is an act of man and not of the animal’, survivors punished themselves for having outlived their fellow inmates.\textsuperscript{83} In this context, the foxes allegorise those unable to live with their wartime memories, like Kelmar or Diodème, a would-be writer and Brodeck’s alter-ego whose suicide is precipitated by the \textit{Ereigniës}. Without having known the camps, Diodème cannot live with the bystander’s or—in the case of Brodeck’s deportation—collaborator’s guilt. The place where he ends his days speaks volumes, for he kills himself where the villagers buried the \textit{Fremdër} girls and where the \textit{Anderer} would contemplate the river.

Claudel’s use of animal imagery is extended through an abundance of metaphors exploiting various species’ underlying connotations, which indicate Claudel’s awareness of

\textsuperscript{82} Boria Sax, \textit{The Animals in the Third Reich: Pets, Scapegoats and the Holocaust} (New York: Continuum, 2000), 22.
\textsuperscript{83} Levi, 56-7. These suicides include those of Jean Améry, Kosinski, Tadeusz Borowski or Paul Celan.
man’s affinity with his scaly or fury cousins, and his sympathetic attitude towards animals. This is illustrated by the unanimity between the camp guards and the crows scavenging on prisoners’ corpses, or by the comparison of Schloss, who is a repentant collaborator, to an animal scratching at Brodeck’s door and then, once he enters, to rat droppings. By likening Fédorine to a bird knowing that it will die with the onset of winter, Claudel elicits the reader’s sympathy for the old woman, while the analogy between the Anderer’s notebook, which he gently strokes, and a tamed animal underlines the stranger’s kindness towards his zoological fellow creatures. With the comparison of broken shop windows to open jaws of dead animals Claudel in turn amplifies the horror of Pürische Nacht, while the image of a goose force-fed with knowledge conveys the greed of the villagers who sponsored Brodeck’s studies and the protagonist’s unease in the capital.

The afore-quoted similes and metaphors are occasionally taken further with characters lastingly merging with beasts, as best exemplified by Göbbler, an abhorrent character who helps Claudel to foreground the parallel between animal farming and racial violence. His name being a conflation of the names of Himmler, the founder of the SS and administrator of the death camps, and Goebbels, Hitler’s Minister of Propaganda, Göbbler is identified with the real-life Nazis. To dispel any doubt that may remain as to Claudel’s intentions, Brodeck’s neighbour shares his occupation with Himmler who ‘[a]fter his commercial failure as a chicken breeder, elected to become a breeder of human beings.’ Fittingly, Göbbler is a truly repulsive and terrifying character, who exudes ‘l’odeur des crottes de poules et de leurs plumes, une odeur écoeurante, corrompue comme celle des tiges pourries’ (B, 317) ‘the smell of chicken feathers and chicken droppings, […] a sickening, corrupt odour as of rotting flower stems’ and whom Claudel endows with grey pointy teeth, like those of some fantastic creature. Göbbler also has inhuman eyes, which, described as frozen or like those of dead people (B, 253), search for Brodeck’s as if wanting to gouge them out (B, 159). The chicken farmer’s speculative ruthlessness is evidenced when he gratuitously kills a snail that the narrator sympathetically describes as having ‘un corps fin et délicatement dessiné, plein d’une grâce innocente’ (B, 34) ‘delicately marked body, full of innocent grace’. With his

84 Levi, 79.
85 Levi, 332.
86 Levi, 189.
87 Levi, 194.
88 Levi, 225.
89 Levi, 211.
cruel gesture that echoes the peasants’ drowning of the Anderer’s horse and donkey, and the murder of the Anderer himself, Göbbler menaces Brodeck, reminding him of his vulnerability.

**Homo Homini Lupus Est**

Claudel’s use of animal imagery provides a vehicle for Brodeck’s central theme, which is the blurring of the border between men and beasts, and which is captured by the aphorism ‘[l]’homme est un animal qui toujours recommence’ (B, 175) [‘man is an animal that always starts over’]. In the article’s final part I will demonstrate that Claudel’s novel shifts the human/animal divide both ways, vilifying men as beasts, and humanising animals. The latter is illustrated by the Anderer’s horse and donkey, whose anthropomorphism is conveyed with their human names, exceptional docility and ability to communicate with their master. To the villagers’ astonishment, the Anderer talks to Mademoiselle Julie and Monsieur Socrate, who then respond with meaningful looks and ‘des mots d’animaux’ (B, 64) [‘animal words’]. Yet, although the creatures seem to have walked straight out a beast fable, Claudel again playfully subverts the narrative convention within which he is working; by naming the donkey after the founder of Greek philosophy he questions the traditional portrayal of the ass as an incarnation of stupidity, stubbornness and ill-will. In the same vein, with Ohnmeist, the mongrel that owes his name to his rejection of the dog’s customary role,91 Claudel challenges the pseudo-scientific notion of pedigree/pure race and undermines the canonical portrayal of dogs as man’s loyal servants, as in La Fontaine’s ‘The Wolf and the Dog’. More human than animal, the stray shuns the company of other dogs and, by mourning the Anderer, proves capable of feelings usually attributed to humans.

Claudel nonetheless does draw on the traditional symbolism of man’s canine companion when he emblematizes his protagonist’s loss of dignity in the camp with the figure of ‘Brodeck the Dog’. As in Lafontaine’s fable, which teaches us, in Judith Still’s words, ‘that agreeing to be a servant, or slave, only moderates the violence that will be meted out’,92 Brodeck is subjected to a series of torturous procedures that result in his self-acknowledged dehumanisation: ‘On m’a enfermé au loin d’où toute l’humanité s’était retirée et où ne demeuraient plus que des bêtes sans conscience qui avaient pris l’apparence des hommes.’ (B,

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91 Ohnmeist derives from the German words ‘ohne’ (without) and ‘Meister’ (master).
I was confined in a distant place from which all humanity had vanished, and where there remained only conscienceless beasts which had taken on the appearance of men.

After being held in a shed so small that he can neither stand nor lie down, Brodeck is put in charge of the latrines, and, ultimately, is reduced to the status of a dog. It needs pointing out that the details of Brodeck’s animalisation diverge from Holocaust testimonies that foreground the experience of cattle trains, branding with a tattoo, lack of privacy when using the toilet, or the nakedness of men being herded into gas chambers in a fashion that Charles Patterson demonstrates to resemble industrialised slaughter. Instead of these stock images, Claudel opts for hyperbole and fantastic imagery, as instantiated by the use of a butcher’s hook in the daily hanging, a scene whose realism is further compromises by the presence of a malevolent beauty and three crows. Finally, Claudel shows Brodeck being literally downgraded to the role of his tormentors’ canine servant:

Nous devions nous tenir à quatre pattes, comme les chiens, et prendre la nourriture en nous servant de nos bouches, comme les chiens. [...] Il fallait que je marche […], avec un collier et une laisse. Il fallait que je fasse le beau, que je tire la langue, que je lèche leurs bottes. Les gardes ne m’appelaient plus Brodeck mais Chien Brodeck (B, 30).

[We had to go down on all fours, like the dogs, and eat our food without using anything but our mouths, like the dogs. […] I had to crawl around […] on all fours, wearing a collar attached to a leash. I had to strut and turn around in circles and bark and dangle my tongue and lick their boots. The guards stopped calling me ‘Brodeck’ and started calling me ‘Brodeck the Dog.’]

Intentionally or not, Claudel actualises the use of the deprecatory term ‘dog’ in relation to Jews, a term that, though less commonly employed than ‘rat’ or ‘vermin’, is firmly

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93 Patterson observes similarities between the tube that was used in Belżec, Sobibór and Treblinka to feed Jews into gas chambers and that used in slaughterhouses. He notes that, like the guards at Sobibór and Treblinka who called the tube Himmelfahrtstrasse (Road to Heaven), an American food scientist calls the conveyor she designed to funnel animals their deaths ‘Stairway to Heaven.’ Charles Patterson, Eternal Treblinka: Our Treatment of the Animals and the Holocaust (New York: Lantern Books, 2001), 112-13. For Levi, these dehumanising practices were intended to show that ‘[t]hese are not Menschen, human beings, but animals.’ Levi, 89-90. At the level of language, the verb used to describe to the prisoners’ intake of food was ‘fressen’, which is used in relation to animals. James A. Tyner, Genocide and the Geographical Imagination: Life and Death in Germany, China, and Cambodia (Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield, 2012), 12.

94 Brodeck’s animalisation largely mirrors Levi’s discussion of ‘useless violence’, which he exemplifies with the lack of spoons in Auschwitz. Without spoons ‘the daily soup could not be consumed in any other way than by lapping it up as dogs do’. Levi, 91. Emphasis added.

95 This is exemplified by the film Der Ewige Jude, which opens with the image of swarming rats and the narrator’s explanation: ‘Just as the rat is the lowest of animals, the Jew is the lowest of human beings.’ Quoted by Patterson, 48. Cf. Amon Goeth’s tirade in Schindler’s List, where the sadistic Nazi compares Helen Hirsch to a rat. Dan MacMillan, ‘Dehumanisation and the Achievement of Schindler’s List’, in The Holocaust: Memories and History, ed. by Victoria Khiterer (Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2014), pp. 311-34 (pp. 325-6).
grounded in the history of anti-Semitism. While dogs—often alongside pigs—have been perceived by various cultures as loci of impurity, the image of the ‘Jewish dog’ has accompanied the rise of the Catholic Church.\footnote{Kenneth Stow, \textit{Jewish Dogs: An Image and Its Interpreters} (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 2006), VIII. Cf. Patterson, 44, 47.} Furthermore, survivors recall that when setting their German shepherds on Jewish prisoners, whom they addressed as ‘dogs’, the guards called their animals ‘men’.\footnote{Patterson invokes the case of Kurt Franz’s dog Barry in Treblinka, or the Jaworzno camp where similar commands were issued. Patterson, 123-4.} 

 Appropriately, Brodeck’s dehumanisation culminates in his loss of speech. That this dehumanisation, to which the protagonist attributes his survival, is meant to constitute the antithesis of human culture and dignity, is confirmed by the narrator’s observation that ‘[l]a poésie ne connaît pas les chiens’ (B, 46) ‘[p]oetry knows nothing of dogs’. Likewise, Claudel opposes Brodeck’s renunciation of self-respect and education to the unaltering moral rectitude of his mentor, who, predictably, perished in the camp. The narrator thus echoes Levi’s remark that in Auschwitz culture was mostly a disadvantage,\footnote{Levi, 106.} which is why many chose to ‘simplify and barbarise themselves to survive’.\footnote{Levi, 115.} The novel, however, ends on a positive note, showing Brodeck leave behind the morally corrupt village and explicitly styling him on Aeneas, who, after the fall of Troy, founded the city of Rome.

\textbf{Conclusions: Why the Fable?}

Although Claudel’s appropriation of the fable’s narrative framework is, as I have demonstrated, typical of postmodern writers’ complex relationship with well-established narrative models,\footnote{Hutcheon, 22-36.} the question remains why Holocaust fiction should engage a critical dialogue with genres whose suitability can be challenged on many levels. Firstly, while fairytales and fables are generally considered unserious and/or as belonging with children’s literature, their universalising character potentially clashes with the Holocaust’s alleged uniqueness. Correlatedly, the fable’s statutory or even performative character, and its consequent connection to authority, fit rather poorly with a story about persecuted otherness. Indeed, Derrida anthropomorphises the fable as the proverbial Lion whose authority proceeds not so much from the rule of law as from his enunciatory powers and physical prowess: ‘Eh bien, j’ai raison parce que oui, j’ai raison parce que oui, je m’appelle le lion et que vous allez
m’écouter, je vous parle, prenez peur, je suis le plus vaillant’[^101] [‘Well, I am right because yes, I’m right because yes, I’m called Lion and, you’ll listen to me, I’m talking to you, be afraid, I’m the most valiant’]. If for Derrida the fable is the voice of the sovereign whose reign is inexorably tainted with dictatorship[^102], Carol Ann Duffy’s poem ‘Mrs Aesop’ reveals that ‘although fossilised into common sense’, fables are but a ‘simulacrum of knowledge’, ‘pretend knowing’, ‘false knowing’, and, hence, ‘a mythical narrative’[^103]. Consequently, by playing with fabulous motifs Claudel may be solidifying the Jewish tragedy into a paradigm of evil or into a myth, which would in turn undermine the Holocaust’s perceived singularity, preclude the possibility of historicising it and, ultimately, open it up to negationist positions.

Such criticism can be countered with the novel’s manifestly parodic deployment of fabulous themes and structures. Extending Bornand’s afore-cited elucidation of Camus’s allegorical approach to Brodeck, I argue that by flaunting his novel’s interdiscursivity, Claudel foregrounds his condition as a non-Jewish non-survivor with a purely textual knowledge of the Holocaust. This argument is supported by Brodeck’s easily recognizable intertextual references to both testimonial writings[^104] and fictionalised accounts of the Nazi era, including Kosinski’s The Painted Bird or Bob Fosse’s Cabaret (1972).[^105] Yet, while renarrativising familiar tropes of the Holocaust, Claudel, as we have seen, systematically displaces them. He thereby frustrates our expectations to the effect of defamiliarising the Holocaust and, consequently, resensitising us to its horrors. That Claudel’s narrative choices show the author’s both belief in the need to testify (even for non-witnesses) and awareness of his own lack of moral authority, also transpires from his choice to model his novel on a survivor’s account, and from Brodeck’s self-confessed reluctance to report on events that, for lack of direct experience, he relates using conjecture or others’ testimonies. Taking further the analogy between author and narrator, from Brodeck’s self-incrimination we can infer Claudel’s position that we are all implicated in the Nazi crime and that this extended complicity ‘entangles us’, in Sanyal’s view, ‘into cultural forms that bear witness to the horrors of history through modes of affiliation rather than identification.’[^106] By electing as his

[^102]: Still, 5.
[^103]: Still, 308.
[^104]: Hogue, 43-52.
[^105]: The slaughter of the Anderer’s animals invokes the killing of Natalia Landauer’s dog.
[^106]: Sanyal, 14.
cultural form a genre operating with a limited range of themes and narrative devices, Claudel, rather than solidifying the Holocaust into a myth, critiques its mythologisation through its repeated textualisations, which, by reusing emblematic elements, become highly constructed, or even formulaic.107

Another reason for Claudel’s choice to draw on the fable seems to be to drive home the dangers of shifting the human/non-human divide. Yet, rather than limiting himself to lamenting the Nazis’s dehumanisation of the Jews, the author also construes the Holocaust as a paradigm for man’s abuse of animals. Hence, unlike Spiegelman’s beast fable that shows no concern for real animals,108 Brodeck is visibly sympathetic towards nonhuman creatures. The novel’s condemnation of our exploitation of animals is indicated by the fact that Göbbler and Orschwir, who are collaborators and key players in the Ereigniës, are both livestock breeders. By associating the two repugnant characters with animal farming Claudel may be alluding to the background of high-placed Nazi officials,109 and thus seeking the Holocaust’s roots in the ‘eternal Treblinka’, as Isaac Bashevis Singer dubbed the industrial breeding and slaughter of animals.110 In so doing, Claudel is following in the footsteps of novelists such as J. M. Coetzee,111 Marguerite Yourcenar or indeed the Nobel Prize winning Yiddish-language writer; of scholars such as Derrida, Boria Sax, David Sztybel, Dominick LaCapra, Patterson, Roberta Kalechovsky or Karen Davis,112 and of philosophers such as Adorno who stated that

107 Anna Richardson, ‘In Search of the Final Solution: Crime Narrative as a Paradigm for Exploring Responses to the Holocaust’, European Journal of English Studies 14.2 (August 2010), 159-71 (pp. 159-60).
108 De Angelis argues that while Spiegelman’s visual metaphor exposes the lie behind the artificial hierarchy established by the Germans, it ‘take[s] at face value the artificial hierarchy that virtually all cultures throughout history have established between humans and other species’. Richard De Angelis, ‘Of Mice and Vermin: Animals as Absent Referent in Art Spiegelman’s Maus’, IOCA (Spring 2005), 230-49 (p. 231).
111 In The Lives of Animals (1999) Elizabeth Costello, whose lectures also draw on the beast fable, compares the horrors of animals’ lives and deaths to the horrors of the Third Reich. Angi Buettner, Holocaust Images and Picturing Catastrophe: The Cultural Politics of Seeing (Farnham: Ashgate, 2011), 109-10. For a discussion of Singer’s compassion towards animals, see Patterson, 169-200.
'Auschwitz begins whenever someone looks at a slaughterhouse and thinks: they’re only animals'.113 Varyingly wary of such an analogy, these writers, some of whom are Jewish or even descendants of Holocaust survivors,114 have all linked the Nazis’ treatment of Jews to, in Derrida’s words, ‘la violence industrielle, mécanique, chimique, hormonale, génétique, à laquelle l’homme soumet depuis deux siècles la vie animale.’115 ['the industrial, mechanical, chemical, hormonal, and genetic violence to which man has been submitting animal life for the last two centuries. '] Claudel’s espousal of the view that man’s domestication, or rather—to ditch the misleading euphemism—subjugation of wild animals had laid the ground for Western hierarchical and racial thinking,116 transpires from his novel’s finale in which Brodeck’s departure coincides with Ohnmeist’s return to the wild and metamorphosis into a fox, the dog’s ‘undomesticated’ form. The affinity and tacit understanding between the two ‘canine’ figures make it possible to read this ending as their rejection of the of slavery imposed upon them by those thinking themselves superior to animals and even some fellow humans.

Finally, Claudel may have been prompted to reach for genres staging timeless and universal phenomena by the fact that, unlike the Nazis’ anti-Semitic rage that lasted some twelve years, our abuse of animals has been, to quote Coetzee’s protagonist, ‘without end, self-regenerating’.117 That for the author the Holocaust transcends the barbed-wire fences and wrought-iron gates is confirmed by his focus on the postwar re-enactment of wartime violence through the murder of the Anderer, the all-embracing symbol of otherness. In this light, fairy tales and fables, with their cautionary agenda, suit Claudel’s simultaneously pessimistic and moralistic vision of post-Auschwitz humanity, a vision that, however, keeps a critical distance from its narrative form, thus stopping short of professing false knowledge or wielding dictatorial power, as postulated by Carol Ann Duffy and Derrida. Briefly, however we may judge Claudel’s narrative strategy, it is beyond all doubt that it sustains the sombre message of Brodeck which, like La Peste, warns us against future resurgence of violence, yet without sharing Camus’s faith in the power of human solidarity in the struggle against evil.

113 Quoted by De Angelis, 235.
114 MacDonald, 418.
116 Patterson, 27.
117 Quoted by De Angelis, 244.