

Popular Postcolonial Masculinities: Gangsters and Soldiers in Maghrebi- French Cinema

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1 Popular Postcolonial Masculinities: Gangsters and Soldiers in Maghrebi- 2 French Cinema

3 Abstract

4 This article explores the relationship between popular Hollywood and postcolonial
5 masculinities, through the Maghrebi-French films *Days of Glory* (2006) and *Outside*
6 *the Law* (2010). I focus on how the films foreground the place of Maghrebi-French
7 men in France and French history, at the expense of women, by mimicking more
8 popular and universally familiar versions of masculinity: namely, the gangster and the
9 soldier. What does it mean when Fanon's (1961) 'new Algerian man' meets *Saving*
10 *Private Ryan* (1998) and *The Godfather* (1972)? This question is answered through
11 readings of the films that take into account the films' specific (anti)colonial histories
12 and postcolonial presents, and their cultural intermediation between seemingly
13 disparate gender and race paradigms. By exploring the ways in which these films
14 reimagine French colonial histories of World War Two and the Algerian War of
15 Independence, this article raises questions about the synchronistic appropriation of film
16 genre that allows for subordinated and racialised masculinities to be both empowered
17 by, and disruptive of, hegemonic forms of masculinity. Popular, in relation to cinema,
18 is understood as commercial and accessible (Bergfelder, 2015; Faulkner, 2016), and
19 thought of as a kind of 'taste' (Bourdieu, 1984) that appeals to broader publics with the
20 cultural capital to engage with it, whilst the postcolonial, normally circulated in cinema
21 networks associated with 'art' and the 'auteur', is characterized by financial and artistic
22 independence, experimentation and niche audience markets. This article, through
23 reading these films' construction and contestation of masculinities, analyses the
24 productive tensions that emerge between popularly entertaining men and postcolonial
25 political men, and asks how bringing them together might challenge dominant
26 masculine forms, and disrupt boundaries between popular culture and the postcolonial
27 more broadly.

28 Keywords: postcolonial; masculinity; maghrebi-french cinema; popular; film

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34 **Introduction**

35 In Rachid Bouchareb's gangster-inspired anti-colonial epic *Outside the Law* (2010), eldest
36 son Messaoud confesses his guilt to his mother. Kneeling at her deathbed in Nanterre, Paris,
37 he reflects on what he has become through his role in the Algerian War of Independence
38 (1954-1962):

39

40 I've killed people. A lot of people. With these hands. I strangled them. Mother... I strangled
41 them. I was forced to do it. God is my witness. To give my son a better life. I did it all for
42 him. I did it all for him. And, since then, I only know death. I only know death, Mother.
43 Forgive me, Mother.

44

45 The close-up of Messaoud's increasingly anguished face, his missing eye hidden by
46 the darkness on one side of the shot, encourages audience empathy with him, with both the
47 dark and the light, the handsome and the ugly, sides of his face that complicate his violence
48 and his masculinity. This contrast signals towards Messaoud's transformation in the film:
49 from respected former soldier in the light, to troubled gangster in the dark. The masculinities
50 at stake in the film are thus neither one nor the other, but represent a transformation of
51 specific (post)colonial masculinities at the intersection with popular masculinist cinematic
52 genre.

53 Therefore, this article interrogates the ways in which *Outside the Law* (2010), as well
54 as Bouchareb's earlier combat-inspired *Days of Glory* (2006), draw upon and combine
55 Hollywood masculine types with the specific production of masculinities in (post)colonial
56 France and Algeria. Through detailed insights into two particular characters, one from each
57 film, this article will demonstrate that Maghrebi-French men on screen embody and reject in
58 various ways hegemonic masculinities within the colonial and anti-colonial spaces of the
59 films. This paper therefore interrogates the ways in which the films actively deploy and re-
60 appropriate popular masculinist film genre, shedding new light onto critical postcolonial
61 relationships pertaining to tropes such as colonial violence, anti-colonialism, Mother country,
62 rites of passage, father figures and infantilisation.

63 In doing so, I put forward the idea of popular postcolonial masculinities, drawing on
64 and contributing to recent scholarship on what has been termed 'hybrid masculinities' (Coles,
65 2009; Arxer, 2011; Bridges, 2014; Bridges and Pascoe, 2014), which observes and cautions
66 against the tendency of hegemonic masculinities to selectively appropriate marginalised
67 gendered identities. In order to expand upon this literature, I propose that by drawing on

68 critical postcolonial notions of hybridity and masculinity (Fanon, 1961; Bhabha, 1984; Said,
69 1994), it is possible to consider a more productive hybrid masculinity, through which
70 racialised masculinities are negotiated in colonial spaces of violence and shared experiences
71 of war. Articulated using the ‘imperial language’ (Said, 1994) of popular Hollywood cinema,
72 the marginalised postcolonial masculinities that are at the heart of beur cinema in France
73 represent a potential challenge to the white man’s authority over history and masculinity. By
74 postcolonialising popular masculinities in this way, this article contributes more broadly
75 towards exposing the contradictions and conflicts in hegemonic masculinity, and the unequal
76 gendered and racialised structures of power that enable dominance over women and other
77 categories of subordinated men.

78

79 **Beur to Blockbuster**

80 Set during World War Two, *Days of Glory* (2006) follows Algerian and Moroccan
81 infantrymen from recruitment in North Africa onto the battlefields of Italy and France,
82 centring the contributions made to the war effort by Arabs and Berbers fighting in Général de
83 Gaulle’s Free French Army. They fight a battle on two fronts however, combating not only
84 the Nazi war machine, but colonial racism and discrimination within their own army.
85 Bouchareb’s sequel, American gangster-inspired *Outside the Law* (2010), tells the story of
86 the Algerian War of Independence (1954-1962) from the perspective of three immigrant
87 brothers in Paris, each of whom fight and resist the French in their own way. It must also be
88 noted, that Bouchareb uses the same actors in both films, with Roschdy Zem (Messaoud),
89 Jamel Debbouze (Said), and Sami Bouajila (Abdelkader) playing characters with the same
90 names in *Days of Glory* (2006) and *Outside the Law* (2010). Furthermore, director Rachid
91 Bouchareb has more recently looked to the USA commercially and aesthetically, foraying
92 directly into Hollywood with a trilogy of films: *Just like a Woman* (2012), starring Sienna
93 Miller; *Two Men in Town* (2014) starring Forest Whitaker and Harvey Keitel; and *Belleville*
94 *Cop* (2018) starring French actor Omar Sy.

95 Whilst it is well-established that Hollywood’s cultural hegemony means that people
96 all over the world are familiar with American films (Lukinbeal, 2004), and therefore use
97 them as points of reference, France and French cinema have since the end of World War Two
98 consciously resisted its reach (Buchsbaum, 2017), favouring their own unique cinematic style
99 characterised by the auteur, art and transgression (Beugnet, 2007). However, director Rachid
100 Bouchareb’s appropriation of Hollywood conventions within his recent films *Days of Glory*
101 (2006) and *Outside the Law* (2010), as well as their relative international success, reflects an

102 important aesthetic, commercial and cultural shift in French, as well as beur and Maghrebi-
103 French, cinemas.

104 Coined in the 1980s, the term beur was deployed by young Arab men in France to
105 refer to their interstitial position between France and North Africa, and to foster a new
106 generational subjectivity that demanded to be recognised. This fed into the creation of a body
107 of films concerned with articulating self-expression and community, whilst challenging rigid
108 notions of French Republicanism and national identity. By the 1990s, beur cinema had
109 established itself ‘as a cinema of community identification’ (Bloom, 1999: 472). As Tarr
110 (2005: 3) has argued, ‘films by and about beurs offer a touchstone for measuring the extent to
111 which universalist Republican assumptions about Frenchness can be challenged and
112 particular forms of multiculturalism envisaged and valued’. Beur cinema therefore became
113 increasingly adept at dealing with, and countering dominant notions of and issues pertaining
114 to, delinquency, coming of age, generational conflict and masculinity (Bloom, 1999).
115 Departing from the first-generation protagonists and miserabilist style which characterised
116 1970s émigré film (Higbee, 2013), beur cinema began to draw on popular French genres such
117 as comedy, creating “desirable and streetwise male characters” (Tarr, 2005) in order to reach
118 a more diverse “crossover” French audience. In making commercially viable films and
119 achieving popularity beyond minority-ethnic audiences, one of the key challenges for beur
120 filmmakers was the ‘delicate negotiation... in exposing the negative treatment of Maghrebi-
121 French youth, without adopting an excessively hostile stance towards a French society in
122 which, ultimately, they have a stake’ (Higbee, 2013: 11). Therefore, the aim of beur cinema
123 was not necessarily to ‘empower the beur’ but rather, by the 1990s, to appeal to the ‘liberal-
124 critical conscience’ (Tarr, 1993: 342). Moving towards a more Hollywood-influenced
125 mainstream, epitomised by Bouchareb’s most recent films, is unusual for filmmakers in
126 France, and is therefore significant in a number of ways, as the cultural histories and
127 conventions of Hollywood permeate how colonial histories are remembered, allowing
128 neglected stories a wider reach, and offering possibilities for how new postcolonial
129 relationships and masculinities are envisaged in the popular sphere.

130 It is also important to consider that Bouchareb’s films *Days of Glory* (2006) and
131 *Outside the Law* (2010) were released amidst growing tensions in the French banlieues. The
132 language used by the Interior Minister at the time of the 2005 riots, Nicolas Sarkozy, and just
133 prior to the release of *Days of Glory* (2006), referred to rioters as ‘racaille’ (scum), and called
134 for the banlieues to be ‘cleaned with a power hose’ to rid them of the ‘gangrene’ that was
135 mostly non-white and ‘violent’ young men (Mucchielli, 2009; Hussey, 2014). In October

136 2005, the death of two young boys in a Parisian suburb after being chased by police, sparked
137 these riots across French cities. The boys hid in an electricity substation after ‘instinctively’
138 fleeing police on the way home from a football match, and were accidentally electrocuted to
139 death. Three weeks of violence (Mucchielli, 2009) ensued in protest at the deaths, in which
140 images of burning cars and buildings, and young men of the banlieue clashing with police,
141 consistently rolled on television screens in France and beyond. Dubbed the ‘French Intifada’
142 (Hussey, 2014), media narratives intersected with Islamophobic discourses, conflating young
143 male anger with Islamic ‘uprising’.

144 Whilst responding to negative discourses around beur masculinity, Maghrebi-French
145 filmmakers have done very little to combat the dominance of male protagonists in
146 (post)colonial stories. Rather, filmmakers have sought ways to reshape the image of the beur
147 male in France. As Tarr (1995; 2004; 2005) points out in her work on masculinities in beur
148 cinema, there is a perceived need amongst beur and Maghrebi-French male filmmakers to
149 tread carefully in representing disempowered masculinity, that seeks to make beur men more
150 culturally visible in French society. In short, this means finding ways to present versions of
151 beur and Arab masculinity that will be acceptable for White French audiences. Therefore, in
152 situating these men in their historical and cinematic contexts, the films *Days of Glory* (2006)
153 and *Outside the Law* (2010) can be seen to historicise the aforementioned troubled
154 relationship between the French Republic and its male beur youth, and in drawing on
155 Hollywood masculine types to do so, they represent a shift in cinematic approach to make
156 beur men more visible, in new ways. The films therefore engage in cultural re-appropriation,
157 the strategic process of which the next section addresses by engaging literature on hegemonic
158 masculinities and Hollywood genre, and by taking this forward through postcolonial insights
159 into recent research on ‘hybrid masculinities’.

160

161 **Popular Postcolonial Masculinities**

162 Masculinities are unfixed, unstable and contested across different spaces and temporalities.
163 This has been well established within studies that consider gendered identities as socially and
164 culturally constituted (Connell, 1995; Kimmel, 1996; Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005;
165 Hirschelmann and van Hoven, 2005; Gorman-Murray and Hopkins, 2014). Connell’s (1995)
166 influential concept of ‘hegemonic masculinity’ places emphasis on the actual patterns of
167 practices amongst men, that ultimately foster sustained male dominance over women, whilst
168 also highlighting the key sexual, class and ethnic differences of ‘multiple masculinities’.
169 Consequently, hegemonic masculinity has to defend, and compete for, its position of

170 dominance, in order to impose itself and create ‘subordinate’ men, as well as ‘subordinated’
171 women. Therefore, hegemonic masculinity relies not only on its subordination of women, but
172 on hierarchical relationships with other men, with the ‘global normative’ (Connell, 1995)
173 constructed as white, middle class and heterosexual.

174 Cinematic representations of masculinity, particularly through Hollywood, have of
175 course been important in creating and framing the ways in which these discourses are made
176 powerful, and through which expectations and conventions of ‘real masculinity’ (Aitken and
177 Lukinbeal, 1997) are shaped. Two of the most dominant and enduring ‘versions’ of
178 masculinity in the cinema have been the ‘gangster’ (Spicer, 2003; Gardaphé, 2006) and the
179 ‘soldier’ (Eberwein, 2007; Donald and MacDonald, 2011), epitomized by films such as *The*
180 *Godfather* (1972), *Once Upon a Time in America* (1984), *The Big Red One* (1980) and
181 *Saving Private Ryan* (1998). These masculine types are not only presented as ‘ideal models’
182 for ‘real men’, but models to be re-appropriated and subverted by subordinated masculinities,
183 producing new ‘hybrid masculinities’.

184 Before I examine the literature on hybrid masculinities, let us consider how traits of
185 hegemonic masculinity identified by Connell (1995) and through film (Clarke, 2006), such as
186 leadership, heroism, bravery and brotherhood are positioned as normative in Hollywood
187 cinema. ‘Authentic’ sequences in combat films for example, work to naturalise ideologies
188 such as masculinity in an environment of war (Gates, 2005), often through narrative
189 strategies such as the father-son relationship, and acts of violence as part of the coming of age
190 ritual, through which masculinity is able to reproduce itself without the presence of women.
191 The narrative of masculinist films, particularly combat and gangster genres, offer
192 opportunities for anxieties about masculinity to be resolved. This is achieved through
193 performances of strength and virility (Aitken and Lukinbeal, 1998) which work to assuage
194 fears of instability and weakness. Whilst these genres and their masculinist archetypes are
195 fluid, adapting in different social and political contexts, they have largely retained their
196 whiteness over time. Therefore, whilst *Days of Glory* (2006) and *Outside the Law* (2010)
197 reproduce, and crucially mimic, hegemonic gender norms in their narratives, they work to
198 reveal the gendered white normativity of Hollywood masculinities.

199 Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) recognised the need to consider hegemonic
200 masculinity’s continual state of change, and of particular interest in this article, the ways in
201 which subordinated or marginalised masculinities can ‘influence and challenge dominant
202 forms’ (Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005). In light of this critique, scholars have responded
203 in conceptualising ‘hybrid masculinities’ (Arxer, 2011; Bridges, 2014; Bridges and Pascoe,

204 2014), highlighting the gendered and sexualized power dynamics between men, through
205 which hegemonic masculinities are transformed, and ultimately empowered, through the
206 ‘selective incorporation’ of elements from subordinated and marginalised masculinities, as
207 well as perceived feminine (Messerschmidt, 2010) and non-white (Hughey, 2012) identity
208 traits. Scholars have largely observed these patterns amongst mostly heterosexual, middle-
209 class white men, in which their privilege allows them to be ‘flexible’ with their identities
210 (Bridges and Pascoe, 2014). For example, Bridges (2014) addresses how heterosexual men
211 defined aspects of their identities as ‘gay’, in order to distance themselves from the less
212 desirable aspects of masculinity, whilst retaining ‘a “masculine” distance from
213 homosexuality’ (Bridges, 2014: 59). The hybrid masculinities scholarship thus far, therefore
214 argues that hegemonic masculinities largely perpetuate and reproduce gender inequality
215 (Bridges and Pascoe, 2014), actually increasing domination over others through the
216 appropriation of alternative masculinities (Arxer, 2011).

217 Through readings of the films *Days of Glory* (2006) and *Outside the Law* (2010), this
218 article reveals the possibilities for cultural *re*-appropriation, in which historically
219 marginalised men and masculinities draw upon and adapt traits and codes associated with
220 hegemonic masculinities. Coles (2009) similarly emphasises the need to examine the
221 contestations between men, paying attention to the ways in which subordinated men find
222 ways to subvert and challenge their marginalised position in drawing on, and assuming,
223 dominance. In contributing to this emerging trend of masculinities scholarship, Maghrebi-
224 French masculinities are shown to be articulated and constituted through discourses of race,
225 in colonial spaces, and in relation to hegemonic white masculinities, exemplified
226 cinematically by Hollywood male genre types, namely the gangster and the soldier.

227 Drawing on the notion of the ‘hybrid’ in relation to masculinities in Maghrebi-French
228 films demands a consideration of the postcolonial. Issues of mimicry, syncretism and
229 (re)appropriation occupy central tensions at the heart of the films examined in this article. As
230 a key concept in postcolonial studies, the notion of hybridity is generally used to describe the
231 ‘mixing’ of people and cultures, which for Bhabha (1984) resists fixity and signals to the
232 fluidity of identity, culture and nation, producing subjectivities that are ‘neither one nor the
233 other’, but ‘something new’ and ‘in-between’. Edward Said (1994) similarly argues that in
234 resisting forms of cultural imperialism, the decolonising writer ‘re-experiences, adopts, re-
235 uses and re-lives’ in order to both self-assert and challenge the myth of purity. In the case of
236 Maghrebi-French cinema, using, exploring and playing with genre results in the potential
237 deterritorialisation of French identity, avoiding definitive categorisation and resisting the

238 demands of assimilation, using the language of the powerful (in this case film genre) to have
239 their voices heard.

240 Furthermore, as its critics have noted (Brah and Coombes, 2000), the concept of
241 hybrid formations between cultures often relies on the perceived pre-existence of two distinct
242 and therefore 'essentialised' cultures, hybridised only upon encounter with one another. It is
243 therefore crucial that any engagement with it must be considered in its particular
244 environment, in which the circumstances of its cultural formation, and its effects, are
245 specifically addressed. In their mimicry of Hollywood gangster and combat masculinities,
246 Bouchareb's films attest to the possibility of a strategic mimicry of popular masculinistic film
247 genre which, in Bhabha's (1984: 127) words, represent the potential of both 'resemblance
248 and menace'. This is to say that the masculinities in the films can be seen as the same, 'but
249 not quite', which necessitates asking whether they succeed in disrupting and perhaps
250 uncovering colonial and/or hegemonic structures, or whether they invert them, in a
251 resemblance that is suggestive of the colonised man internalising his colonial inferiority.
252 Bouchareb's films can be seen as a menacing intervention, posing a threat to the almost
253 exclusively white masculinist identity of popular gangster and combat cinema and the
254 hegemonic masculinities they imaginatively shape.

255

256 ***Outside the Law's* (2010) Anti-Colonialist Gangster**

257

258 Violence is a cleansing force. It frees the native from his inferiority complex and from his despair
259 and inaction; it makes him fearless and restores his self-respect

260 (Fanon, 1961: 94).

261

262 Both the gangster and the anti-colonialist fighter are defined by their positions within
263 contested social environments, where criminal activity and violence are crucial to the pursuit
264 of transgressive and empowering versions of masculinity (Fanon, 1961; Gardaphé, 2006). As
265 a genre centred on men, the gangster film predictably relegates women, and negotiates
266 masculinity almost exclusively between men in an environment of 'masculine testing'
267 (Krutnik, 2006). It is important to note that the Hollywood gangster genre here differs from
268 'gangsta' or 'hood' films (Masood, 1996), through which stories are told specifically of the
269 African-American 'urban' experience. The Hollywood gangster film on the other hand,
270 particularly associated with Italian-American 'mafia' (see Gardaphé, 2006), typically focuses
271 on a somewhat tragic outlaw with whom audiences are encouraged to identify, and

272 characterised narratively by the gangster's gradual rise and sharp fall in his transgressive
273 pursuit of wealth and status, and in his conflict with authority. Whilst its archetypal traits
274 have adapted over time, and in different social and political contexts, these narrative
275 conventions remain popular, as do the genre's classical iconographic features, such as the use
276 of very dark colours and low-level lighting in the mise-en-scene, as well as its use of urban
277 settings, and props such as formal clothing, money and cars (Gardaphé, 2006; Krutnik, 2006).
278 Key to the constitution of masculinity in *Outside the Law* (2010) is the specific reframing and
279 resignification of racialised anti-colonial masculinities through the lens of popular American
280 gangster genre. For the three Algerian brothers in the film, Abdelkader the intellectual leader
281 of the National Liberation Front (FLN), Said the pimp and boxing promoter, and Messaoud
282 the military commander turned anti-colonialist fighter, their different roles within the film
283 demonstrate the malleability of postcolonial masculinity when re-framed through popular
284 gangster genre. Focusing specifically on Messaoud Souni, I will argue that the film works to
285 re-signify the political justifications for anti-colonialist violence, and therefore imaginatively
286 reshape postcolonial masculinity.

287 Prior to becoming an FLN 'gangster', Messaoud serves as a soldier in the French
288 Army in its war to retain Indochina, rising to the rank of Commander. A humiliating defeat
289 for the French, Vietnamese independence in 1954 signalled the beginning of the end for the
290 French Empire (Stora, 2004) and, in the film, forces Messaoud to return to his family, not in
291 Algeria but to their new home in the Nanterre bidonville (shantytown), just outside Paris,
292 France. Injured and captured by the Viet Minh, Messaoud is reunited with his mother and
293 brothers, arriving at the family home in his military uniform and brandishing a severe wound
294 where his left eye once was. His younger brother Said is impressed by his uniform, medals
295 and the phallic insignia, as he casually shrugs off 'just the war', maintaining a tough persona
296 in public. His mother, feeling insecure and unprotected by her youngest son, the 'bandit' Said
297 from whom she refuses to accept money, his presence back in her life re-fortifies the family
298 unit. Inside the 'temporary' hut the family call home, Messaoud and his mother are framed
299 sitting at the table in a static shot, in which the camera does not move around or cut away,
300 remaining continuously on mother and son, reflecting the apparent stability and security
301 brought to the domestic space by Messaoud. She gently instructs him to fulfil his role as a
302 father and husband, and to retain the expected gender norms regardless of the social
303 disruption and displacement brought by war and exile. In addition to commenting on the
304 masculine roles being fashioned out for the Algerian man, it is also important to highlight, in
305 line with Donadey's (2016) critique of the film, in that instead of representing the many

306 Algerian women who fought and participated in the War of Independence (see Vince, 2015),
307 the mother is reduced to the upholder of traditions, and enforcer of fixed gender roles.

308 However, despite his mother's efforts to preserve the traditional family unit, and thus
309 maintain Messaoud's normative position as provider and protector, their geographical and
310 cultural displacement heightened by the violent conflict with the French threatens this
311 particular route to securing his masculine identity. MacMaster (2012: 36) highlights this
312 'crisis for Algerian male virility', caused by the 'temporary' destabilisation of traditional
313 gender roles brought on by the scale and ferocity of the violence. These challenges do not
314 prevent Messaoud from marrying Zohra, nor do they prevent him becoming a father, as
315 Zohra bears him a son shortly after their marriage. His commitment to the FLN and his other
316 brother Abdelkader, who leads the fight in France, does however impede on his abilities to
317 maintain a relationship with his wife and new born son. The first intrusion of the violence of
318 the war can be seen at their wedding, in which the police raid the bidonville, prompting an
319 angry outburst from Messaoud. Most telling with regards to the tension between family and
320 masculine virility however, is Abdelkader's rallying of male support for his cause after the
321 police attack them. He appeals directly to the men of the bidonville, deliberately tapping into
322 their anxieties about being able to 'defend their women and children' from the French. He
323 succeeds, and the following day scores of men sign up to the FLN pledging to pay the
324 revolutionary tax and to join the fight.

325 Fighting is not simply a way of defending and restoring the conservative values of the
326 family, and the masculine role of protector that is dependent on its stability, but for Fanon
327 (1961) it is fundamental to recovering the male identity diminished by colonialism, and
328 battered in the protracted battle against it. Violent resistance is therefore inevitable, and it
329 does not simply emerge from a rational desire for nationhood, but from the male body itself
330 and 'the tonicity of the muscles' (Seshadri-Crooks, 2002: 91). In order to maintain focus on
331 this Fanon-inspired dilemma Messaoud's brother Abdelkader emotionlessly dictates to him
332 that there is no room for family in this war, contradicting his earlier rallying cry to the fragile
333 virility of impoverished Algerian men.

334 As a gangster genre film, or as a film that heavily draws on its classic style,
335 iconography and conventions, this tension for Messaoud between family and the fight is
336 important for the 'identity-challenging loss' (Gardaphé, 2006) he suffers. In one of the
337 earliest lines from the ultimate cinema gangster, Don Vito Corleone, in *The Godfather* (1972)
338 declares: 'A man who doesn't spend time with his family can never be a real man'. This
339 sense of loss, specifically emasculation or as Fanon (1961) more radically interprets it,

340 'castration', is recognised as a momentum that propels both the anti-colonialist's
341 transformation from 'victim to sheer force of power' (Seshadri-Crooks, 2002), and the
342 gangsters strive for power and control over their lives. Messaoud's identity-challenging loss
343 is felt indirectly. It is caused primarily by the constraints and pressures put on him by the
344 FLN itself, particularly its leader, his brother Abdelkader. Therefore, *Outside the Law's*
345 (2010) account of emasculation, and reinvented anti-colonial masculinity, paints a picture in
346 which men are prevented from fulfilling normative masculine roles in society, because of an
347 honour-bound duty to their brothers-in-arms. This 'temporary' barrier to his virile role as
348 masculine protector, must be, according to Fanonian conceptions of the 'new Algerian man',
349 and the conventions of the gangster genre, overcome at all costs by Messaoud.

350 The gendered concerns that characterise Messaoud situate him, and *Outside the Law*
351 (2010) more generally, within a broader cultural paradigm of masculinities, working to
352 disavow persistent sexual anxieties that are pronounced in colonial Algeria, and one that
353 finds parallels in the real-world context of the contemporary banlieue described earlier. What
354 Fanon (1961) describes as the 'muscular tension' fostered by the 'native man's' emasculation
355 and masculinised humiliation, though caused directly in this case by his own comrades, must
356 be 'released' via 'expressive action' (Seshadri-Crooks, 2002). To resist this call to arms
357 would result in further 'cowardice and dishonour' (Nagel, 1998). It is precisely cowardice
358 and dishonour that Messaoud is being asked to root out of the Algerian community, as he
359 directs his violence not only towards the French, but also towards those Algerian men who
360 are not fully committed to the cause of Independence. The 'libidinal core' of anti-colonial
361 violence and resistance thus breaks down the conventional codes of morality, legitimated by
362 the assault of colonialism on the 'gendered norms of the body' (Seshadri-Crooks, 2002).
363 Returning to Messaoud then, if, as Don Corleone suggests, he 'can't be a real man' because
364 he 'doesn't spend time with his family', how is he to remedy this deficiency? As an anti-
365 colonialist Algerian 'gangster' characterised by his 'humble origins and stylish dress',
366 wielding his power with 'sexuality and guns', and situated in a 'racially charged context'
367 (Gardaphé, 2006), Messaoud, in the second half of the film, appears in scenes characterised
368 by hyper-masculine and spectacular displays of violence to the point of excess.

369 Messaoud's public displays of violence are not only motivated by a libidinal charge to
370 assuage internal angst about his male identity, but also by a basic loyalty to his brother
371 Abdelkader, by desires to avenge the colonialist violence done to his family, and perhaps in
372 his most important departure from the classic gangster, to achieve independence for his
373 country and therefore secure the future of his young son. The saturation of his sequences of

374 gun fights with gangster iconography then, in this particular postcolonial context of the
375 Algerian War of Independence, is inseparable from the power dynamics of the relationship
376 between coloniser and colonised. Crucially in this case, the French police in *Outside the Law*
377 (2010) are not typical American cops, but are specifically empowered by the right-wing-
378 influenced and government-sanctioned terrorist organisation The Red Hand, who are charged
379 with eliminating and terrorising the FLN in Paris.

380 It is the combination of these multiple justifications that drags Messaoud into a spiral
381 of violence and leads him to confess his guilt to his mother, as described at the beginning of
382 this article. The family matriarch serves solely to support her sons, and in the sequence in
383 which her eldest son Messaoud confesses to her, she is a silent and forgiving repository used
384 to justify his violent actions. This confession scene fills with symbolic meaning his exposure
385 and framing in the spectacular gun fights. Stylistically, the ‘light’ in which Messaoud was
386 shrouded in the earlier scenes when still wearing his military uniform contrasts with the
387 ‘dark’ sequences of gangster violence that follow.

388 Nowhere is his performance more excessive than in the final shootout of the film.
389 After smuggling automatic weapons into France from West Germany, the police are informed
390 of the FLN’s location and move to ambush Messaoud and the other FLN fighters.
391 Overwhelmed by their numbers and firepower, many of the FLN fighters are killed or forced
392 to retreat, leaving Messaoud to stand up to the police largely by himself with nothing but a
393 handgun. Standing in between two period Simca cars pockmarked by bullet holes, framed
394 again in the dark of night, yet faintly illuminated by the glow of car headlights, Messaoud
395 looks stylishly like a Hollywood gangster, and typically strong and brave, traits associated
396 with both gangster and anti-colonial masculinities. Remaining true to the gangster narrative
397 proves to be Messaoud’s downfall, since he is shot on retreating with Abdelkader and dies in
398 the car of his brother Said who has come to their rescue, uttering ‘tell Mother, my wife and
399 my son. Tell them to forgive me’.

400 Messaoud’s death however, unlike a gangster’s death which typically results from his
401 self-indulgent life-style and individualistic rise to power, is an act of selfless sacrifice to
402 protect his brother, and as he himself insists on several occasions, a Free Algeria for his only
403 son. We can therefore locate *Outside the Law’s* (2010) representation of violence, through the
404 particular character of Messaoud, at the nexus of anti-colonialism and Algerian nationalism,
405 and their relation to a masculinistic identity-formation that is inspired by the American
406 gangster genre. Whilst such a framing of violence in the film works to contextualise and
407 empower the beur youth of the contemporary French banlieues, it further functions to situate

408 both that contemporary unrest and French-Algerian colonial history within a popular genre
409 that has historically reflected anxieties about, and transformations of, masculinities
410 (Gardaphé, 2006). The film mimics traits of the American gangster film in ways that
411 transform Messaoud, deflecting his violent trajectory in relation to male identities informed
412 by the American gangster genre, and through which it is possible to distinguish the different
413 political justifications for and complexities of anti-colonialist violence. Therefore, the film's
414 play on genre is suggestive of the possibilities of a different kind of 'hybrid masculinity' that
415 speaks back to power. Appropriating the most dominant and enduring cultural traits of
416 American gangster cinema, and incorporating elements of Fanon's political thinking that
417 empower marginalised men, Bouchareb's *Outside the Law* (2010) shines a light on neglected
418 colonial histories.

419

420 ***Days of Glory's* (2006) Infantilised Colonial Soldier**

421

422 The soldier hero has proved to be one of the most durable and powerful forms of idealised
423 masculinity within Western cultural traditions since the time of the Ancient Greeks

424 (Dawson, 1994: 1).

425

426 If, in *Outside the Law* (2010), Messaoud's overbearing masculinity, supported by his anti-
427 colonialist stance and gangster framing, is never really put into question, in *Days of Glory*
428 (2006), Said's subdued masculinity is constantly threatened and so much derided that he must
429 set out to prove his identity as a man from the very start. For Jamel Debbouze's small and
430 boyish character, the army and the battlefield function as spaces of transition for his
431 masculinity, a process of initiation in which he is hoping to climb the social ladder and grow
432 from being in Said's words, a boy of 'total poverty' in Algeria, to becoming a man of status
433 in France. For the other characters in the film, these spaces present different opportunities
434 and challenges for masculine identity as aspiring colonel, Abdelkader, views the Army not
435 just as a chance to prove himself worthy as a Frenchman, but rather naively as a vehicle for
436 racial equality amongst men, whilst tough marksman, Messaoud, finds love with a white
437 French woman and envisions France as a place he can call home. Therefore, the combat
438 genre conventions serve different roles for different characters in the film, and take on new
439 meaning in this specifically (post)colonial milieu. The transformative possibilities of the
440 Army and the battlefield as 'rite of passage' however, are not realised for Said, and his
441 journey is largely one of failure of passage, of not-yet becoming a man. Owing to his failed

442 transformation, Said occupies an ambiguous role in the film's narrative, situated between the
443 colonial discourses on the feminised and infantilised Algerian, often manifesting in his
444 relationship with his pied-noir Sergeant, and the anti-militaristic embodiment of the innocent
445 and boyish soldier of World War Two.

446 Academic research on soldier masculinities (Dawson, 1994; Eberwein, 2007; Donald
447 and McDonald, 2011) has suggested that war texts of different kinds tend to represent the
448 same conventionally 'manly and unmanly behaviours', codes and values that serve to develop
449 and influence masculinities. For Dawson (1994), for example, soldier 'heroes' take shape
450 imaginatively through what he refers to as 'adventures' of war, in which 'military virtues'
451 such as aggression, strength, courage and endurance are pictured as easily attainable. For
452 centuries, young men fascinated by war have been consuming and sharing stories and images
453 of war, 'through which their own masculinity could be imaginatively secured' (Dawson,
454 1994: 4). Traditional gendered types have been socially constructed, not just in films, and
455 largely produced to encourage emulation. They have been set against unconventional
456 gendered types, which must be avoided, and contrast strongly with the 'ideal' types. In times
457 of war, the Army serves as an 'initiation rite' (Mahdi et al, 1987), through which young men
458 can learn and become 'manly' or fail to learn and remain 'unmanly' (Donald and McDonald,
459 2011), resulting in a 'failed' masculinity, subsequently equated with femininity.

460 However, the systems of gendering that are at stake in *Days of Glory* (2006) and
461 *Outside the Law* (2010) are inflected by racialised regimes of power. Situated in its specific
462 colonial context, and released in France at a time of perceived crisis for beur masculinities,
463 *Days of Glory* (2006) opens up the possibility of interrogating more closely the constitution
464 of beur and Maghrebi-French masculinities at the crossroads of colonialism and World War
465 Two, and in relation to hegemonic masculinities, in this case represented through Said's
466 father-son relationship with his white pied-noir Sergeant. This has implications for the
467 conceptualisation of hybrid masculinities, as the cinematic synthesis of gendered colonial
468 discourses and popular combat genre in *Days of Glory* (2006) reframes emasculated and
469 victimised men, endowing the colonial soldier (see Smith, 2004; Maghraoui, 2014) with the
470 power to resist and eradicate colonial dependency.

471 The opening scene of *Days of Glory* (2006) sets up the narrative as one of masculine
472 opportunity, as the local caïd walks through Said's small Algerian hometown encouraging the
473 men to reach out to France and enlist in the Free French Army to 'liberate her'. The Army,
474 and the War, are opportunities for the boys to become men, the Saviours of a Mother in
475 distress: France. Some scholars have noted the film's representation of the soldiers voluntary

476 enlisting, as opposed to ‘conscription’ (Hargreaves, 2007; Coly, 2008; Higbee, 2013),
477 criticising the film for its omission of ‘the forced and often violent mobilisation of colonial
478 African troops’ (Coly, 2008: 98). This forced and violent conscription, however, does not
479 have to conceal the equally interesting phenomenon of voluntary enlisting, that Bouchareb
480 chose to highlight in *Days of Glory* (2006) but which critics have been quite reticent to
481 explore so far. By showing the colonial soldiers who enlisted and, more specifically, by
482 focusing on a handful of personal stories of men who ‘wanted’ to fight for France,
483 Bouchareb’s narrative of the Algerian soldier conscientiously eschews the stereotype of the
484 emasculated victim.

485 Responding to the call-to-arms comes Said, framed solitarily in a darkened alleyway
486 separate from the long line of eager men that follow the caïd. Demonstrating his isolation
487 from the male group, he walks slowly without any real conviction towards the off-screen
488 group of men who can be heard in the distance, when he is overtaken by a young and eager
489 boy rushing keenly to join the commotion. Here, already, there is a question asked not just
490 about his masculinity and his ‘manliness’, which might have been expressed through a macho
491 performance of brave and enthusiastic enlistment, but of his maturity and adulthood as the
492 young boy sweeps past him. This sense of infantilisation is further emphasised as his mother
493 calls him back, pleading with him not to go to war, concerned that he will not return safely to
494 her. His response, ‘don’t worry about me, mother. I can manage’, signals his conscious desire
495 to ‘become a man’ by going to war, to prove not just his manliness but his successful
496 transition to adulthood, to independence from his mother as a man of status in France. This
497 introduction to the character sets up the expectation that Said is going to struggle in the
498 theatre of war, and resonates with many narratives that audiences are accustomed to in
499 Western and Hollywood cinemas about the plight of young, boyish and untrained men being
500 sent off to die on the battlefields of Europe. However, the tragic futility of young men
501 fighting wars abroad takes on different meanings here, as the transition from childhood to
502 adulthood is inflected by French colonialism, the ensuing emasculation of the Algerian man,
503 and his determination to reclaim and reassert his independent masculinity.

504 The first stage of Said’s transition from mummy’s boy to soldier man is a test of his
505 ‘manliness’ at a training camp in Italy, in which the film’s ensemble cast is first brought
506 together. Whilst the groups’ marksman, Messaoud, demonstrates his phallic strength with the
507 expert use of a rifle, Said makes a disastrous attempt to take the grenade hanging from his
508 shirt as instructed by his Sergeant, Martinez, since he detonates it in the process. As Martinez
509 throws the grenade away at a safe distance before it explodes, then hits Said in the groin with

510 the butt of his gun, Said retains a naïve and boyish look on his face. His failure to simply
511 handle a small grenade is juxtaposed with the calm and controlled handling of the huge
512 weapon fired by Messaoud, who passes the test of his soldier masculinity with flying colours,
513 whilst Said fails miserably. Nonetheless, the ‘test of masculine endurance’ (Donald and
514 MacDonald, 2011) in general, will occur not in training but on their first battle. Taking cover
515 from machine-gun fire, the platoon led by pied-noir Sergeant Martinez are pinned down
516 behind a rock. After exchanging a look with his Sergeant, Said takes the grenade, the weapon
517 that threatened his masculinity in training, bites the pin out and successfully kills the German
518 machine-gunner, enabling the men to progress and win the battle. Under the watchful eye of
519 his new father-figure Martinez, Said begins to overcome that particular threat to his soldier
520 masculinity: the inability to wield a weapon. His demonstration of masculine endurance leads
521 him to become Martinez’s man-servant, or ‘ordonnance’. I will come back later to the
522 importance of this relationship, between colonised man Said and pied-noir Sergeant
523 Martinez, to explain how Said constructs or de-constructs his masculinity vis-à-vis Martinez.

524 The soldiers’ reward for their victory in Italy is to ‘go home’, to France. In Provence,
525 the men celebrate with local people, and Said ends up boasting of his part in their victorious
526 battle to a young White French woman. The brief conversation of Said and the French
527 woman is framed in a series of reverse high and low angle shots that position the French
528 woman above Said, perched on the back of a truck. Whilst the high-angle shot frames Said
529 beneath the white woman, emphasising his relatively small size and accentuating the power
530 relations between the two of them, Said is heard to brag about his heroic killing of the
531 machine-gunning Germans. As he goes on telling her, ‘I free a country, it’s my country’, she
532 grabs his hand, looks into his eyes with a smile on her face, and responds flirtatiously, ‘your
533 country’s all you like?’. However, he completely misses the sexual innuendo, and replies
534 formally, ‘Inch’Allah, we’ll beat Germany. Thank you very much’. As he takes leave of her,
535 she looks, quite understandably, disappointed and even rejected. This *mise-en-scène* of Said
536 reveals that power relations and racialised hierarchies are constructed along axes of gender
537 and sexuality (see Sinha, 1995; and Puar, 2007). In combat films, it is expected that men,
538 particularly when liberating a place or coming ‘home’, will be seen chasing women. Said’s
539 awkward exchange with the woman, by uncovering the racial power dynamics at play,
540 contradicts orientalist discourses on Arab and Muslim masculinities which are represented as
541 sexually deviant and preying on white women (see Shaheen, 2001). The ‘failed’ encounter
542 does, however, pose a further threat to Said’s dream of soldier hero, with all his virility,

543 strength and heterosexuality. The issue is not that he *cannot* win a woman, but that he lacks
544 the *desire* to do so.

545 This brings me back to the way in which Said's masculinity is constructed and de-
546 constructed, not by his interactions with women, but rather by his relationship with Sergeant
547 Martinez. Sedgwick's (1985) influential work on what she calls 'homosocial desire' posits
548 that men develop supportive bonds with one another that reinforce their masculinity, through
549 their shared desire for a woman. Since there is no such woman between them, their close
550 relationship earns Said the nickname of Aicha from his peers, as they mock him for being the
551 Sergeant's pet. As with the 'Motherland' herself, Said could be said to represent the
552 feminised object in their relationship.

553 Despite the taunts, Said remains close to Martinez. Still, as his earlier interaction with
554 the French woman anticipates, Said's relationship with his pied-noir superior is also far from
555 being placed on equal terms, and develops to reveal feelings of fear and revulsion. It becomes
556 clear that the masculinity of White settler (or 'pied noir') Martinez is involved in and
557 dependent on the subordination of other men (see Sinha, 1995), since it is built on a
558 differentiation from the Arab man. This clear dichotomy between White and Arab is put into
559 question as Said discovers a photograph of Martinez' Arab mother in the Sergeant's shirt
560 pocket. Martinez brands him as 'scum', which resonates with the rhetoric that Interior
561 Minister Sarkozy used for the 2005 riots. Martinez is not only made vulnerable by this
562 racialised 'dirtiness', but also by an impingement on his masculinity, which materialises itself
563 as Said tries to forge a homosocial bond through their Arab mothers. In forcing Martinez to
564 confront his 'métissage', he is violently rejected by him, and told he will be killed should his
565 Arab mother be mentioned again. Said has not only failed, according to the norms of genre,
566 in his encounter with a French woman, but also failed in creating a successful homosocial
567 bond through which he could have made his masculinity more secure.

568 Martinez's reaction to anxieties inherent to his White settler masculinity may also be
569 an ominous sign of his decline. *Days of Glory* (2006) is haunted by the spectre of the
570 Algerian War of Independence, following which hundreds of thousands of pied-noirs left
571 Algeria for France (see Eldridge, 2010). Whilst there is not the scope in this article to fully
572 explore pied-noir masculinities, it is clear that Martinez holds some importance in Said's
573 personal battle for independence. This is demonstrated as the regiment is later ambushed in
574 The Vosges mountains in North-East France, with Sergeant Martinez being critically injured
575 in the attack, and carried over to his last battlefield by the other men. Said visits him on his

576 deathbed in Alsace where the regiment await reinforcements, and declares solemnly: ‘I hope
577 you die’. After this catharsis, and having learnt from their previous dispute when Martinez
578 rejected Said’s attempt at connecting through their shared ethnic heritage, it is possible for
579 Said to break free from his master, and take his place alongside his brothers-in-arms in the
580 final spectacle of the film. During his last battle, he successfully wields weaponry and fights
581 like his comrades. In an expressive montage, he is pictured clutching and aiming his gun like
582 the other men, his phallic weaponry attesting to his manliness in the spectacle of war.

583 At the very end, however, Said, concerned with Sergeant Martinez’ welfare, and
584 fearing for his own life, dodges bullets and bombs to reach the room where Martinez lies
585 dying. Having rushed to his bedside while the firefight with the German Army is still going
586 on, he wilfully spends his final moments alongside his Sergeant. In this futile bid to rescue
587 Martinez and carry him outside the house, they are both killed by a rocket-launcher fired at
588 close-range, and the pair is left lying side-by-side, their hands almost touching. Said’s
589 returning to his racist Sergeant undoes the work he has accomplished to prove his worth on
590 this last battlefield, and make his masculinity comply with what is expected from him in a
591 combat genre film. Still, on the plus side, he shows a tenderness towards another man, which
592 is permitted in such homosocial arrangements (Sedgwick, 1985), and it is this homosocial
593 affection that effectively binds pied-noir and Algerian masculinities. At that point in history,
594 the infantilised Algerian man, represented by Said, fails to free himself from his reliance on
595 his master.

596 Bouchareb’s *Days of Glory* (2006) appropriates the masculine tropes of the combat
597 film genre in order to comment upon the ways in which colonialism is gendered. While the
598 colonising master ends up developing a dependency on his freed slave, the colonised man
599 seems to remain momentarily unable to disavow threats to his masculinity and sexuality, and
600 to free himself completely. Said’s is not only a story about ‘failed’ masculinity. It is a
601 complex narrative representing the ‘unmanly’ man who will succeed in leading, but falls
602 short of being completely independent or, in other words, fails in ‘not leaving behind’ the
603 colonising master. Said’s masculinity is distinct from the masculinities present in
604 conventional combat films, and is tied up to its (post)colonial context. From the viewpoint of
605 the White coloniser, the codes and values emerging from this type of narrative are to be
606 avoided rather than emulated (Donald and MacDonald, 2011). Said’s masculinity has not yet
607 broken its chains, but the White settler has now become dependent on its ultimate freedom
608 for the survival of his own.
609

610 **Conclusion**

611

612 Decolonization is quite simply the replacing of a certain ‘species’ of men by another ‘species’ of men
613 (Fanon, 1961: 35).

614

615 This article has argued that subordinated Maghrebi-French men, situated in-between
616 historical colonial environments and contemporary racialised contexts, are transformed by
617 incorporating traits of dominant and hegemonic masculinities. It has been argued that in
618 drawing on Hollywood gangster and combat genres, which have since their inception been
619 repositories for post-war angst about the ‘crisis of masculinity’, the men of the films attempt
620 to endow themselves with power and resist victimisation. Therefore, Bouchareb’s films, *Days*
621 *of Glory* (2006) and *Outside the Law* (2010) are able to foreground the place of Maghrebi-
622 French men in France and beyond by mimicking more popular versions of masculinity. By
623 paying attention to the potentially productive and transgressive ways in which representations
624 of racialised masculinities can be empowered through the re-appropriation and subversion of
625 typically-masculine film genres, I contribute to a more expansive understanding of ‘hybrid
626 masculinities’ (Bridges and Pascoe, 2014), the geographies of which are revealed to be
627 imaginatively produced and contested. In combining recent scholarship on masculinities
628 (Arxer, 2011; Bridges, 2014; Bridges and Pascoe, 2014; Gorman-Murray and Hopkins, 2014)
629 with geographies of film (Aitken and Lukinbeal, 1998; Lukinbeal, 2004) and postcolonialism
630 (Bhabha, 1984; Said, 1994), this article demonstrates how paradigms of gender and race are
631 shaped, exposed and challenged in place, and marginalised identities cinematically
632 constructed in multifaceted cultural exchanges through shared, though unequal, historical
633 experiences.

634 Specifically, Messaoud’s masculinism in *Outside the Law* (2010) illustrates how an
635 anti-colonialism concerned with the rehabilitation of Algerian masculinity can be given new
636 life in merging with American gangster film and pursuing some transgressive versions of
637 masculinity. Said’s masculine identity in *Days of Glory* (2006) is situated within tales of
638 World War Two and Hollywood combat films, spaces of transition where boys become men.
639 These transitional spaces are used to foreground how popular narratives of war actually show
640 the different ways in which colonialism is gendered. *Days of Glory* (2006) deploys the
641 common ‘rite of passage’ trope of the combat film, transforming it into a postcolonial ‘rite of
642 passage’ for the eradication of colonial dependency and the birth of a better ‘species’ of men.

643 Largely departing from the standard depiction of the disempowered (and victimised)
644 men of the banlieue, Bouchareb's *Days of Glory* (2006) and *Outside the Law* (2010) cloak
645 their Muslim men in the white dress of Hollywood genre types, with meaningful differences
646 linked to the colonial contexts in which they are framed. Tarr (2005) has suggested that beur
647 cinema, when making beur men 'more visible', has always avoided the construction of
648 masculinities that could be perceived as threatening by predominantly White audiences.
649 Bouchareb's mainstream movies continue to 'tread carefully' in this sense, the masculinistic
650 identity-formation of his male Algerian characters infusing the marginalised and emasculated
651 Algerian man with the virility and strength traditionally associated with the White hegemonic
652 men of gangs and armies. By reframing his male characters in recognisable ways however,
653 Bouchareb's 'popular' cinema remains disruptive and subversive, and the postcolonial
654 masculinities he creates move closer to the centre, displacing the White man's monopoly on
655 history and hegemonic masculinities (Connell, 1995; Bridges and Pascoe, 2014).
656 Masculinities are produced in relation to one another, through cultural and cinematic
657 negotiations of simultaneously conflicting and interrelated paradigms of masculinity (Connell
658 and Messerschmidt, 2005; Bridges and Pascoe, 2014). This article has further illustrated that
659 the intercultural 'merging' or 'fusion' that makes these new masculinities possible on the big
660 screen contributes to conceptions of hegemonic yet hybrid masculinities – to the conception,
661 in short, of a freer species of men.

662

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666

667

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