

CONVERGENCE AND DIVERGENCE IN BOZAL SPANISH: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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Afro-Hispanic language is attested from the 15th century to the early 20th century in Spain, Africa, and Latin America. The speech of *bozales* (slaves born in Africa and speaking Spanish only imperfectly) has frequently been used as evidence for monogenetic theories of Hispanic Creole formation, based on structural parallels and possibly Afro-Portuguese roots. The present study reviews the principal Afro-Hispanic manifestations over a period of more than 300 years, and traces those structures most frequently cited in monogenetic Afro-Iberian theories. The overall conclusion is that, while such cases as Papiamentu, Colombian Palenquero, and 19th century Cuban/Puerto Rican *bozal* language point to common origins or mutually shared influences, most other Afro-Hispanic language forms suggest merely imperfect learning and incipient pidginization which arose spontaneously each time Spanish and African languages came into contact.

1. *Introduction*

Monogenetic theories of Romance-based Creole formation cluster around a postulated Afro-Portuguese base, variously ascribed to medieval Mediterranean Sabir or lingua franca, to a form of pidginized maritime Portuguese that was spread around Africa and Asia from the 15th to the 18th century, or to an Afro-Lusitanian Pidgin and later Creole that developed in the Portuguese *feitorias* or slaving stations in São Tomé, Annobon, Cabo Verde, Fernando Poo, and Brazil.¹ In the case of creoles with ostensible French, English, or Dutch bases, the required relexification and expansion of the original proto-creole has been the subject of much controversy and hypothetical reconstruction, while in the area of Iberian and particularly

Spanish-based Creoles, the inherent similarities are greater and the cited evidence is more ambiguous in its possible interpretation. The present study is dedicated to a comparative overview of Afro-Hispanic language, from the 15th century to the present, with a view toward assessing (1) the nature and extent of essential structural similarities among the various dialects; (2) the demonstrable Afro-Hispanic dialects; and (3) the relative possibilities of transfer or spontaneous generation of creole structures in the various Afro-Hispanic dialects. This survey is offered since, although the claim has frequently been made that African slaves brought to Spanish America already spoke some form of Pidgin or Creole Portuguese (which later became extended in certain cases to full-blown creoles, while in other cases rapid decreolization in favor of regional Spanish took place), most studies have considered only a narrow range of evidence.

2. *The Data*

There is evidence for the existence of Africanized (sub-Saharan) varieties of Spanish beginning in the middle of the 15th century, since southern Spain, especially Seville, contained a significant population of black slaves and freedmen.² Many of the black Spaniards came from Portugal, where nearly half the population of metropolitan Lisbon was constituted by black Africans and their descendants, and 15th century dramatists in both Spain and Portugal give literary evidence for the halting, broken attempts of these Africans to speak the metropolitan languages of the time. Slaves born or raised in Africa and who spoke Spanish or Portuguese only imperfectly were known as *bozales*, and literary "black" Spanish and Portuguese became popular in numerous dramatic sketches of the Golden Age, in the 16th and 17th centuries.³ At the beginning of the 17th century, evidence from Spanish America, particularly the Caribbean region and coastal Mexico, indicates that *bozal* Spanish was already recognized as a distinct variety in those territories.⁴ Following these early indications, literary and folkloric testimony of Afro-Hispanic language is virtually nonexistent until the end of the 18th century, when "black" Spanish again becomes a popular theme in poetry and narrative (Lipski 1985a; Jackson 1976a, 1976b). The 19th century saw the flowering of the *habla bozal* in Cuban and Puerto Rican literature, but testimony of distinctly Afro-Hispanic language also comes from the Dominican Republic, Venezuela, Mexico, Colombia, Ecuador, Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay, Peru, and Central America.⁵

Finally, at the present time, Afro-Hispanic dialect pockets exist in various regions of Latin America: the Samaná and *pororó* dialects of the Dominican Republic (González and Benavides 1982, Megenney in press), the Chota Valley of Ecuador (Lipski 1986a), and occasional vestigial elements in Loíza Aldea, Puerto Rico (Mauleón Benítez 1971), the Chocó region of Colombia (Granda 1977, Montes Giraldo 1974), and possibly Cuijila, Mexico (Aguirre Beltrán 1958) and central Cuba (García González and Valdés Acosta 1978, Valdés Bernal 1976). Also to be reckoned with is the region of sub-Saharan Africa, where Spanish is spoken in conjunction with several African languages (Granda 1984, 1985; Lipski 1984, 1985c).

In addition to the above cases of Africanized Spanish language usage, more stable long-lasting creole dialects were formed in several regions, the most noteworthy being the *palenquero* of Palenque de San Basilio in Colombia (Escalante 1954, Bickerton and Escalante 1970, Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli 1983, Friedemann and Cross 1979), the *congo* dialect of northeastern Panama (Joly 1981; Lipski 1985b) and arguably Papiamentu of the Netherlands Antilles, in which the relative proportion of Spanish and Portuguese elements continues to be debated.⁶ Outside of Africa and Latin America, a Spanish-based Creole (Chabacano) continues to be spoken in the Philippines in which, while African elements have rarely been directly postulated, the Afro-Asian Creole Portuguese element is frequently cited as the primary source (Whinnom 1956; Molony 1973, 1977, 1978; Frake 1971; cf. also Lipski forthcoming a, b).

At one time or another, nearly all of the dialects just mentioned have figured in discussions regarding the prior existence of a Pan-American Creole or Pidgin *bozal* Spanish, and its putative Afro-Portuguese input. In the remaining remarks, we shall examine first the common structures which most frequently serve as evidence for monogenetic/Afro-Lusitanian theories, next those structural elements common to most past and present Afro-Hispanic dialects and finally the likelihood of former widespread and essentially uniform Afro-Hispanic Creoles.

3. *Possible Afro-Lusitanian Elements*

The Afro-Hispanic dialects most frequently included in comparative analyses aimed at supporting Afro-Portuguese monogenetic theories are Colombian Palenquero, 19th century Cuban and Puerto Rican (literary) *bozal* Spanish, and Papiamentu. These speech modes are compared with

Portuguese-based Creoles in Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Annobon, São Tomé, and Príncipe, and occasionally southern and southeast Asia.⁷ Of the three Afro-Hispanic dialects in question, at least two are the result of very special circumstances, which it may be argued militate in favor of their exclusion from global theories of all-pervasive Spanish-based Creoles. Colombian Palenquero is ostensibly the result of a slave insurrection at the end of the 16th century, in which a handful of slaves escaped from Cartagena and formed a fortified *palenque*, to which were added subsequent 17th century arrivals, with all early residents contributing various but as yet undetermined quantities of African (predominantly Niger-Congo) and Spanish/Portuguese elements.⁸ Papiamentu is the distillate of several centuries' of slave trading in Curaçao, in which the island was used as a slave depot and where a natural linguistic alembic was further aided by maritime traffic with Europe, Africa, and the American colonies. The influence of Portuguese-speaking Sephardic Jews arriving from Brazil also had an impact on the development of Papiamentu, which is arguably more Portuguese- than Spanish-based (Granda 1973, 1974; Gosslinga 1979; Hartog 1968). Although major Papiamentu features are shared by many Afro-Portuguese Creoles, as are key lexical items, the contact between slaves, freedmen, and *cimarrones* from Curaçao and coastal areas of Venezuela and later with other Caribbean islands is not without significance, and a natural cross-fertilization appears to have taken place between the "broken Spanish" (*español arañado*) of the *curazoleños* and Spanish speakers.⁹ For at least a century, Papiamentu has been undergoing decreolization in the direction of (Venezuelan) Spanish, and this process may have occurred, at a slower pace, from the very beginning. Even the case of 19th century Cuban and Puerto Rican *bozal* Spanish is not without problems, since around the turn of the 19th century, attestations of Afro-Hispanic speech in these two territories change dramatically, away from forms common to earlier centuries and to other Latin American areas, and closer to Afro-Lusitanian Creoles, including Palenquero and Papiamentu (Lipski forthcoming c). The new creole structures coexisted with more "traditional" Afro-Hispanic patterns, but the extraordinary parallels with Papiamentu may be due to factors other than an originally common creole base. With the boom of the Caribbean sugar plantations beginning at the end of the 18th century, current labor sources were inadequate, and massive importation of black slaves and freedmen was initiated in territories containing significant Afro-Hispanic populations which by that time had already been partially integrated, lin-

guistically and socially, into the Spanish American fabric. The new arrivals came not only from Africa (the true *bozales* whose languages, including Yoruba and Kikongo, survived in Cuba until a few decades ago) but also from other Caribbean islands, principally the Dutch slave depot at Curaçao. Evidence exists that Papiamentu was spoken in Cuba and Puerto Rico during the first decades of the 19th century (Granda 1973, 1974; Alvarez Nazario 1970, 1972a; Bachiller y Morales 1883; Diaz Soler 1981; Morales Carrión 1978), and the intermingling of Papiamentu, vestigial *bozal* Spanish of earlier generations, and regional popular Spanish appears to have played a decisive role in the formation of 19th century Caribbean *bozal* speech. The combination of these caveats suggests that while convincing cases may be made for genetic relationships among the three Afro-Hispanic speech modes in question, these same dialects result from special circumstances which preclude the uncritical extension of conclusions to other Afro-Hispanic speech modes. Bearing these considerations in mind, let us briefly consider putative parallels among Afro-Hispanic Creoles.

(a) Frequently cited as a key factor is the use of the second person singular pronoun *bo(s) < vos*, instead of *tú*. This pronoun is found in Palenquero and Papiamentu, but is very rare in Cuban *bozal* Spanish (e.g., Ballegas 1946:92), and is not found in Puerto Rican texts (Alvarez Nazario 1974:190); *vos* is also found in most Portuguese-based Creoles in Africa and Asia, and in Philippine Creole Spanish. At the same time, use of *vos* is common in many Spanish American regions, including parts of coastal Venezuela, and *vos* was used vestigially in Cuba (but not in Puerto Rico) until well into the 20th century, precisely in the region whence come the few examples of *vos* in *bozal* Spanish (López Morales 1971:136-42). During the Golden Age, use of *vos* was still frequent in peninsular Spanish, whereas nowadays it is a regional Latin Americanism. In peninsular *bozal* Spanish of the 16th and 17th centuries, there is no extraordinary preference for *vos*; in fact this form is relatively infrequent in comparison with *tú*, *vossa merce(d)* (which later gave Spanish *usted*) and other indirect forms of address.¹⁰ Among other Afro-Hispanic manifestations in Latin America, use of second-person forms of address generally follows regional Spanish usage; thus *tú* is found in texts from Mexico, Venezuela, most of Colombia, Peru (in alternation with *vos*--López Albújar 1966:72), northwestern Ecuador, and even in such areas of widespread *voseo* as Argentina and Uruguay. The Panamanian *negros congos* use *tú* exclusively both in the *congo* dialect and in the local Spanish dialect, despite the fact that other

areas of Panama are characterized by the *voseo* (Lipski 1985b, Robe 1960). Among contemporary (non-Creole) Afro-Hispanic dialects, only the Chota Valley dialect of Ecuador regularly employs *vos* (Lipski 1986a), and this follows regional Spanish usage.

(b) Neutralization of pronominal case, usually in favor of disjunctive pronouns. In addition to the use of *vos*, Palenquero and Papiamentu employ variants of the disjunctive pronoun *mi* for subjects and objects, but such usage is not attested in 19th century Caribbean *bozal* texts (Alvarez Nazario 1974:190), except in imitation of Haitian Creole speakers' Pidgin Spanish in the Dominican Republic (Juan Antonio Alix, in Rodríguez Demorizi 1973:267-90).¹¹ Among Afro-Lusitanian Creoles, use of *mi* and *amí* (frequently reduced phonetically to *mi*) is the rule, and this form alternates with derivatives of the subject pronoun *eu* in Asian Portuguese Creoles; in Philippine Creole Spanish, only the Spanish subject pronoun *yo* is used, and there is no evidence of *mi* or similar disjunctive variants having been used in the past.¹² Use of (a)*mí* as subject is found in the earliest *bozal* Portuguese texts from 15th and early 16th century Portugal, and it appears that the Pidgin Portuguese formed during this time period solidified into the creoles of Annobon, Cape Verde, and São Tomé, and subsequently Palenquero and Papiamentu (Naro 1978, Leite de Vasconcellos 1933, Teyssier 1959, Goodman 1964:36). The earliest Spanish *bozal* texts also use this pattern; for example from Reinoso (1950:111): *a mí llamar Comba de terra Guinea* 'my name is Comba from the land of Guinea'. However, *mi* is not used as subject among attestations of Latin American *bozal* Spanish even in the Caribbean region, which suggests that this form was not in widespread use among Afro-Hispanics in the late 18th and 19th centuries elsewhere in Spanish America.

(c) Use of subject pronouns as possessives. Papiamentu and Palenquero, as well as Afro-Lusitanian and French Creoles regularly use some variant of the subject pronouns as possessive markers, sometimes postposed to the respective nouns; for example from Palenquero: *bo é mamá mí nu* 'you are not my mother' and *pueblo mí ta pelí lengua ané* 'my people are losing their language' (Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli 1983:130, 147); Papiamentu *nan buki ta riba mesa* 'their book is on the table' and *bo bukinan ta riba mesa* 'your books are on the table' (DeBose 1974:68). Such usage is conspicuously absent in Latin American *bozal* Spanish, even in the Caribbean, and is also absent in Latin American Spanish texts of previous centuries. Among vestigial Spanish dialects in which no Afro-Lusitanian

connection is present, occasional use of subject pronouns as possessives does occur from time to time; for example, from vestigial Trinidad Spanish comes (Lipski 1986b): *la sarga e buena pa uté cabeza* willow [bark] is good for your head'. As a variant of this pattern, the combination of the preposition *de* + pronoun instead of the possessive adjectives *mi*, *tu*, *su*, etc. has at times been cited as a common thread in Caribbean *bozal* Spanish, with possible connections to other Afro-Iberian Creoles such as Philippine Creole Spanish, Palenquero, Papiamentu, and some African and Asian Portuguese Creoles (e.g., Alleyne 1980:11-3; Taylor 1971; Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli 1983:149; Goilo 1953:70). However, such usage has never been common in *bozal* Spanish dialects, current, 19th century, or Golden Age; at the same time, the use of *de nosotros* instead of *nuestro(s)* and *usted(es)* instead of *su(s)* is common in many contemporary Latin American Spanish dialects (Kany 1951:68-70).

(d) Use of the third person plural subject pronoun (usually postposed) as a nominal plural marker. This combination is usual in Papiamentu (e.g., *buki* 'book', *bukinan* 'books'), as well as in most French Creoles, and may have occurred in 19th century Caribbean *bozal* speech in the form of the pronoun *nan* (variant *lan*) of possible Papiamentu origin:¹³ *como lan gallo cuando pelea* 'like roosters when they fight' (Cuba; Cruz 1974:118); *me garra po nan pasa* 'he grabs me by the [woolly] hair (Puerto Rico; Alvarez Nazario 1974:387). However, this form, while at times used as definite article and possibly as a nominal plural marker (always preposed, unlike in Papiamentu), was never used as a true subject pronoun in *bozal* Spanish. It is also possible that the final /n/ of *lan/nan* results from the nasalization of the final /s/ of the definite articles *los/las*, since this process is also attested for *bozal* Spanish (Lipski forthcoming c; Perl 1981; Valdés Bernal 1978; Cruz 1974:37; Benítez del Cristo 1930:132; Bachiller y Morales 1883:100-1). Significantly, Palenquero does not use the third person plural pronoun to signal nominal plurality, but rather employs the (preposed) marker *ma*: *ma ngaina utere é ten pete* 'your chickens stink' (Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli 1983:148).

(e) Use of invariant third person subject pronouns, of the form *ele/ela* for the singular, and *eles* (Papiamentu *nan*, Palenquero *ané*) for the plural (e.g., Otheguy 1975; Granda 1968, 1978; Alleyne 1980:11-3). The scarcity of *nan* among *bozal* Spanish dialects has already been discussed, but use of a single third person variant (usually *nelle*, cf. Cruz 1974:168; Alvarez Nazario 1974:190) instead of the normal masculine/feminine dyad is found

variably in 19th century Caribbean *bozal* speech: *si yo lo tené uno niño como nelle, yo va muri de cumentamienta* 'if I had a child like her, I would die of happiness' (Cuba; Cruz 1974:117-8). Use of invariable third person pronouns is normal in Philippine Creole Spanish, in Asian Portuguese Creole, and in most Afro-Lusitanian dialects, including Papiamentu and Palenquero. In other attestations of *bozal* Spanish, there is occasional confusion of *él* and *ella* and of *ellos* and *ellas*, but systematic neutralization in favor of a single third person form is not reflected in any known text, although such may have occurred for some *bozal* communities.

(f) Loss of the copula. Loss or nonexistence of a copulative verb is characteristic of many Afro-Iberian Creoles and occurs as an occasional variant in nearly all of them; this feature has been cited as a common Afro-Hispanic trait (Ziegler n. d.; Perl 1982; Alvarez Nazario 1959:46, 1974:115-20). However, all principal Afro-Hispanic Creoles, including Papiamentu and Palenquero, offer an alternative to the zero option; Papiamentu has *ta*, presumably derived from the verb *estar*, while Palenquero has both *ta* and *é* (Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli 1983:130). In 19th century Caribbean *bozal* Spanish several examples of loss of the copula are found, in alternation with correct and incorrect use of the copulative verbs *ser* and *estar*;¹⁴ substantially the same holds for other Afro-Hispanic dialects in Latin America, although use of some form of the copula is the general rule. For example, from *Los novios catedráticos* (Benítez del Cristo 1930:133): *tú so ma sabroso que la jomjolí con la guarapo, cuerpo tuyó tan bonito . . .* 'you are sweeter than honey and sesame, your body [is] so pretty . . .' Philippine Creole Spanish contains no copula, although this appears to be an imitation of the Philippine languages which have shaped the various Chabacano dialects, none of which employs a copula in the Romance fashion. In Golden Age *bozal* Spanish and Portuguese, the copula was frequently present, in the form of the verb *sar*, apparently a blend of *ser* and *estar* (Alvarez Nazario 1974:121; Naro 1978:342; Lipski forthcoming c). The confusion of *ser* and *estar* (at times resulting in the verb *santa[r]*), leading either to blended forms or apparently capricious variation, has occurred throughout the existence of Afro-Hispanic speech, and is found in Palenquero and occasionally in the Chota Valley dialect of Ecuador, as well as cropping up from time to time in non-Africanized vestigial Spanish (Lipski 1986a; 1986b; González and Benavides 1982; Megenney in press; Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli 1983:131-2).

(g) Lack of gender and number agreement in nouns and adjectives.

Most Romance-based Creoles have eliminated the original systems of marking nominal and adjectival gender and frequently number, although in the latter case external morphemes such as a subject pronoun may be used to indicate plurality. From the earliest attestations of Africanized Spanish and Portuguese, gender and number have been unstable and variable, usually resulting in incorrect assignment of gender, partial lapses in adjectival-nominal agreement, use of incorrect articles, use of singular forms for plural referents and vice versa. However, with the exception of established creoles such as Papiamentu, Chabacano, and Palenquero, such neutralization was never carried to completion, if the evidence of Afro-Hispanic texts is to be believed. At the same time, instability and reduction of gender/number is one of the most frequent characteristics of learners' and foreigners' Spanish (Gonzo and Saltarelli 1983; Gili Gaya 1960, 1972; Hernández Pina 1984; Plann 1979), and of the Spanish dialect of Equatorial Guinea (Lipski 1984, 1985c), as well as figuring prominently in vestigial Spanish (Saltarelli and Gonzo 1977, Lipski 1986b); it is, in fact, a function of imperfect learning or the erosion of grammatical systems.

(h) Loss of definite and indefinite articles. With respect to Standard Spanish and Portuguese, many Afro-Iberian dialects show drastic reductions in the use of articles, especially the definite article for generic functions, and the indefinite article with purely existential force. Despite the fact that this feature has been pointed out as a common feature of Afro-Hispanic Creoles (e.g., by Alvarez Nazario 1959:46; Perl 1982; Granda 1968, 1978), loss of articles is neither complete nor systematic in any dialect (cf. Janson 1984). Rather, as with reduction of nominal inflection, loss of articles is sporadic, somewhat idiosyncratic, and subject to modification during the first stages of decreolization, as well as in the beginning stages of language erosion. In the latter context, loss of articles is a key feature of vestigial Spanish dialects and idiolects. A typical example from *bozal* Spanish is: *gallo ta nan so mi amo* 'the roosters are in the sun, master' (Puerto Rico; Alvarez Nazario 1974:385).

(i) Loss of prepositions. Loss of possessive and material *de* and of directional *a* is frequent in *bozal* Spanish, and in other Afro-Iberian dialects (Alvarez Nazario 1959, 1974; Ziegler n. d.; Perl 1982, n. d.; Otheguy 1975; Granda 1968, 1972, 1978). Loss of the same prepositions is also frequent in vestigial Spanish, and even in nonstandard variants of non-Creole Spanish (Lipski 1986b; Kany 1951: chap. 10), given the minimal phonetic substance of the prepositions, and the fact that *de* is frequently reduced to [e] or [i] in

rapid colloquial speech, while *a* is frequently absorbed by preceding or following vowels (e.g., *él va a cantar* 'he is going to sing'). With respect to Standard Spanish, many specimens of *bozal* Spanish contain high rates of loss of *de* and *a*, but this is not sufficient to postulate a common origin for Afro-Hispanic Creoles, in view of the above observations. Typical examples from *bozal* Spanish are: *ya yo jablá mimo hoy [con] don Ciriaco* 'I already talked to Mr. Ciriaco today' (Benítez del Cristo 1930:132); *bamo [a] la casa Mundo* 'let's go to Mundo's house' (Cabrera 1983:517).

(j) Use of *tener* 'to have' instead of *haber* 'for there to be' as the existential verb. Historically, Spanish *haber* suffered a modification from the original Latin meaning 'to have' to its present existential force, as well as being used as an auxiliary verb in the perfect tenses; the original meaning is retained in fixed forms such as *haberes* 'possessions', *tener en su haber* 'to have in one's possession'. Modern *tener* derives from a word meaning 'to hold' and is not normally used as an existential verb. In many English- and Romance-based Creoles, including Philippine Chabacano and even popular (non-Creole) Brazilian Portuguese, the verb 'to have' has developed an existential meaning, and this has been cited as evidence of monogenetic (Afro-Lusitanian) origin for *bozal* Spanish dialects (Megenney 1984, 1985a; Granda 1968). While use of *tener* in *bozal* speech may indeed come from an earlier proto-creole, this is not a necessary conclusion, since use of existential *tener* is also found in vestigial Spanish of many regions, and even in some popular Latin American Spanish dialects with no demonstrable Afro-creole connection. For example, in Louisiana *isleno* Spanish we find *a [en] casa [de] loh muchacho tiene una harmónica* 'at the fellows' house there is a harmonica', and in vestigial Mexican Spanish in the United States: *tiene muchos ranchos allí* 'there are a lot of ranches there' (Lipski 1986b, d). Even among *bozal* Spanish texts, use of *tener* with existential force is quite rare; one example (Cabrera 1969) is: *en botica tien de tó* 'in the drugstore there is everything'. Much more frequent is the use of *haber*, albeit with highly nonstandard forms and syntactic patterns: *yo lo ve craramiente que lo habé en la mundo quiene me lo tené infisión y güena goluntá* 'now I clearly see that there are people in the world who like me and wish me well' (Cruz 1974:230).

(k) Categorical use of normally redundant subject pronouns. Standard Spanish permits and even requires elimination of subject pronouns in cases of semantic redundancy (Rosengren 1974), and the categorical employment of these pronouns in creole dialects has often been cited as a decisive com-

mon feature, a natural consequence of minimal verbal differentiation (e.g., Perl 1982, Othe guy 1975). However, even in non-Creole Spanish dialects categorical use of subject pronouns may arise when, for example, natural processes of consonantal reduction (e.g., /s/ > [h] Ø; /n/ > [ñ] Ø) partially obliterate verbal endings; this has occurred in some parts of Andalusia and in Caribbean Spanish (Lipski 1977, Monéjar 1970, Poplack 1980). Vestigial Spanish of many areas also features a high percentage of subject pronouns, in some cases perhaps due to calquing from English, and in others to a simple loss of a rule of deletion under conditions of redundancy (Lipski 1986b).

(l) Constructions based on a preposition (frequently *para*) + subject pronoun + infinitive instead of a subordinate clause involving the conjunction *que* and a subjunctive verb form: *pa tú tener = para que tú tengas* 'in order for you to have'. This combination has at times been claimed as a creole remnant in several Caribbean Spanish dialects (Alvarez Nazario 1959:46), and is found among many Afro-Hispanic Creole dialects. At the same time, the same combination is frequent in popular Spanish of southern Spain and the Canary Islands, and is attested in many areas of Latin America (Kany 1951:159; Padrón 1949:164; Flórez 1946:377), as well as being a concomitant of many vestigial Spanish dialects, at times with a disjunctive object pronoun instead of the more usual subject pronoun: *pa ti tené un bote tieneh que sé sosedano americano* 'in order for you to have a [fishing] boat, you must be an American citizen', from Louisiana *isleno* Spanish (Lipski forthcoming d). It is likely that this construction has arisen spontaneously in more than one area, since it results from the reduction of a marked conjugated form to the maximally unmarked infinitive. It occurs in Spanish child language (Gili Gaya 1960:29, 1972) and has also occurred in Portuguese, where a conjugated "personal infinitive" has arisen (Maurer 1968).

(m) The frequent Caribbean preposing of *más* in negative expressions (*más nada* 'no more', *más nunca* 'never again'), instead of the more usual phrase-final position, has been claimed as the result of an earlier Portuguese-based Creole language (Megenney 1985a). The Portuguese connection is quite likely, but the presence of this construction in Caribbean Spanish is more likely due to the heavy Canary Island influence, in which such constructions (apparently due to earlier Galician-Portuguese maritime contacts) are common (D'Albuquerque 1953; Lorenzo Ramos 1976; Pérez Vidal 1944; Kany 1951:363-4; Torres Stinga 1981; Alvarez Nazario

1972b:95).

(n) Postposed demonstratives, of the form *piera ese* 'that rock' (Cabrera 1983:108), are found in many Afro-Iberian Creoles, and have been claimed as evidence in monogenetic theories (Taylor 1971, Ziegler n. d., Otheguy 1975). Clearly Spanish and Portuguese predominantly use preposed demonstratives, but in colloquial Spanish, postposed demonstratives are by no means unusual: *el hombre ese* 'that man', *el trabajo este* 'this job'. Within *bozal* Spanish texts, postposed demonstratives are used very infrequently, alternating with preposed demonstratives and lack of demonstratives.

(o) In the lexical dimension, a number of items have been claimed at one time or another to point to a common origin for Afro-Iberian Creoles, although none is found in all dialects. The portmanteau preposition *na* (found in many African and Asian Portuguese Creoles, in Philippine Creole Spanish, Papiamentu and Palenquero, and in other *bozal* dialects¹⁵) with varying values including 'on', 'in', 'to', has been attributed to Portuguese *na* < *em + a* 'in the (fem.)'.¹⁶ This form may have a multiple locus, given its phonological simplicity as a maximally unmarked CV element and the nature of creoles, pidgins, and *bozal* speech as approximative varieties. In Philippine Creole Spanish, *na* may come from native Philippine articles, while in Caribbean/Atlantic Creoles, *na* may have a single or multiple West African origin (Alleyne 1980:130). Even within *bozal* Spanish, *na* may stem from the frequently observed process of progressive nasalization, or from reduction of *nada* 'nothing', at times used in conjunction with following nouns in *bozal* speech.

Use of *caba(r)* < *acabar* with the meaning 'after' is found in Palenquero, Philippine Creole Spanish, and Papiamentu, and occasionally in Caribbean *bozal* Spanish, as well as in many African and Asian Portuguese Creoles (Megenney 1984; Whinnom 1956). Other recurring items include *vira(r)* 'to turn, become', *vai/bai* 'to go', *ma* 'but', *(que) cosa* 'what', and *(que) lado* 'where'; all of these elements may have a Portuguese base, possibly stemming from earlier Portuguese maritime contacts rather than from a single proto-creole.¹⁷ These same items are absent in most *bozal* Spanish attestations, from the 16th to the 20th century, with the exception of the three special dialects, and it is difficult to justify their inclusion as essential elements of any monogenetic theory.

(p) Perhaps the most frequently cited structural parallel among Afro-Iberian Creoles is the use of verbal aspectual particles in combination with

unconjugated verb stems; the particle *ta* is used for present/imperfective and durative aspect, with *yal/ja* and sometimes *ba* a frequent concomitant in the past/imperfective.¹⁸ In the future/irrealis series, more variation exists, with *lo* < Ptg. *logo* 'later' being a common denominator in many instances. In particular, *ta* and its variants occurs in Palenquero, Papiamentu, Philippine Creole Spanish, and most African and Asian Portuguese Creoles, and its existence in these dialects is a strong bit of evidence in favor of a common origin or at least mutually shared influences. Among *bozal* Spanish dialects, however, the combination *ta* + *V_{inf}* is found only in 19th century Cuban and Puerto Rican texts, where this construction alternates with the archetypical *bozal* pattern of partially or incorrectly conjugated verb forms. Typical examples include: *siempre ta regalá dinero a mí* 'he always gives me money' (Puerto Rico; Alvarez Nazario 1974:384); *horita ta bení pa cá* 'soon she will come here' (Cuba; Morales 1976:188). In a detailed study (Lipski forthcoming c), I have traced the appearance of *ta* + *V_{inf}* combinations in *bozal* Spanish and have demonstrated that such expressions were unknown in Golden Age Spanish and Portuguese texts, despite the fact that Afro-Iberian dialects such as those of Annobon, São Tomé, Palenquero, Saramaccan, and Papiamentu were apparently formed during this time period; among Latin American *bozal* texts, no trace of aspectual particles is found in any region other than Cuba and Puerto Rico, and in the latter countries only following the turn of the 19th century.¹⁹ While the existence of aspectual particles in Palenquero and Papiamentu is likely the result of common or shared Afro-Iberian antecedents, the presence of such particles in 19th century Cuban and Puerto Rican *bozal* speech is more likely the consequence of the importation of Papiamentu- and other creole-speaking slaves into these nations around the beginning of the 19th century (Alvarez Nazario 1959; 1974:65, 218-9; Granda 1973). An overview of Puerto Rican *bozal* texts reveals only a small number of cases of the aspectual particle *ta* (Alvarez Nazario 1974:193-4), and the same texts also mention the presence of Curaçao natives in Puerto Rico; while Cuban texts provide more examples, the most frequently employed imitations of *bozal* speech, in literature, theater, and popular culture, do not use such constructions, but merely employ a somewhat random assortment of incorrectly assigned conjugated verb forms.²⁰ In many cases, *ta* is used an invariant form of the copulative verb *estar* in combination with adjectives, which when distorted in *bozal* speech may appear to take the form of a verbal infinitive; for example, the 19th century Cuban writer Creto Gangá wrote *yo ta morí*

(Cruz 1974:36) which is preferably translated as 'I am dead' [Sp. *yo estoy muerto*, using the regularized participle *morido*] than as 'I am dying'; also found is *yo ya son libre, yo ta casá* 'I'm free now, I'm married' (Cruz 1974:67); we see a true progressive construction in *yo lo ta dibindo la casa* 'I am owing [on] the house' (Cruz 1974:133). In the 19th century play *Los novios catedráticos* we also find *ya yo ta contento* 'now I am happy' (Benítez del Cristo 1930:133) and similar examples of the ambiguous use of *ta*.

4. Similarities and Differences in bozal Spanish

The preceding overview has demonstrated considerable disparities among *bozal* Spanish manifestations, in which the three special Latin American cases (Papiamentu, Palenquero, and 19th century Cuban/Puerto Rican *bozal* speech) form a nucleus of shared characteristics which suggest Afro-Iberian origin, whereas other Afro-Hispanic manifestations over a period of nearly four centuries, exhibit more diversity. The very earliest attempts at representing *bozal* Spanish, in 16th century Spain, are merely imitations of contemporary Portuguese literary patterns, while also reflecting the speech of slaves recently arrived from Portugal. From the middle of the 16th century until the beginning of the 20th, *bozal* Spanish existed in its own right in various regions, with the following shared features:

- (1) Unstable and variable nominal gender and, occasionally, number inflection.
- (2) Unstable verb conjugation, manifested as incorrect conjugated forms (often gravitating toward the 3rd person singular) and occasional uninflected infinitives.
- (3) Variable loss of definite and indefinite articles.
- (4) Variable loss of prepositions, especially *a* and *de*.
- (5) Occasional confusion of pronominal case (usually involving the first person singular pronouns), at times resulting in use of disjunctive pronouns as subject (*mí saber*) and at other times in the use of subject pronouns as verbal or prepositional objects (*para yo*).
- (6) Frequent phonetic and phonological deformation, at times reflecting regular processes (loss of syllable-final /s/, /l/ and /r/; neutralization and interchange of syllable-final /l/ and /r/; neutralization of /r/ and /ř/ and of /l/ and /d/), and equally as often representing more idiosyncratic deformations and misidentifications.²¹

Of the above features common to Peninsular and Latin American

bozal Spanish, all are frequently found in vestigial Spanish worldwide in which no African connection can be demonstrated. They are also found in the non-Creole Spanish of Equatorial Guinea and in cases of marginal bilingualism with non-African languages in such areas as Mexico (Siade 1974) Paraguay (Meliá 1974, 1980; Usher de Herreros 1976; Gifford 1973 Granda 1979; Welti 1979), Argentina (Quant and Irigoyen 1980), Peru (Cerrón-Palomino 1976), Ecuador (Muysken 1981b), Venezuela (Riley 1952), etc. Moreover, features (1), (4), and (6) are frequently found in popular rural Spanish of many regions, and features (2) and (5) are not unknown in nonstandard Spanish dialects. All of these characteristics are natural consequences of imperfect learning, of the possible interference of a variety of non-Romance languages, of the lack of a wide pool of adequate native speaker models, and of the absence of individual and societal monitoring and feedback mechanisms that would partially counteract reductive tendencies. The fact that the same features are found in established Romance- and English-based Creoles is less indicative of potentially common origins than of quasi-universal tendencies of drift, reduction, and structural simplification. In particular, none of the features points convincingly to an Afro-Iberian base for general *bozal* Spanish. In Cuba, Pichardo (1836:liii) noted that *bozales* spoke "un castellano desfigurado, chapurrado, sin concordancia, número, declinación ni conjugación . . ." [a disfigured, blubbering Spanish, without concordance, number, declinations, or conjugations]; this description is more appropriate for an emergent pidgin than for a well-established creole governed by a system of rules and endowed with consistency across the linguistic community. Although it is unlikely that Pichardo was totally free of the ethnocentric bias which frequently ascribed totally chaotic and distorted patterns to black speakers (as suggested by his somewhat disparaging remarks about Chinese speakers' Spanish), he evidently had considerable firsthand experience with *bozal* Spanish. His observations and examples are consistent with those of other 19th and 20th century Cuban observers of *bozal* Spanish, none of whose descriptions suggests a stable usage which might signal an incipient creolization.

5. Homogeneity of bozal Spanish across Time and Space

It is evident that African slaves brought to Spain or Latin America and who learned Spanish as a second language would speak the latter language

imperfectly, and that under conditions of social marginality such as characterized large sugar plantations as well as communities of *cimarrones*, the offspring of such *bozal* Spanish speakers might also speak the language less than perfectly. In other conditions, however, it is assumed that *bozal* speech was by definition a transitory phenomenon, which arose and fell each time the Spanish language passed from the generation of recently arrived African slaves to their children (López Morales 1980; Montori 1916:112-8; Mintz 1971; Alleyne 1971; Bachiller y Morales 1883:100-1; Laurence 1974:487; Alzola 1965:365). We may even question the existence of homogeneous patterns of *bozal* Spanish, such as found, for example, in Golden Age literature, since purely literary devices, stereotyping, exaggeration, and metaphorical language may have been responsible for the texts which we consider today as legitimate examples of 16th and 17th century Afro-Hispanic language (Lipski 1985a). The earliest *bozal* Spanish of the Golden Age is demonstrably an imitation of the Africanized Portuguese already spoken in Lisbon, but it is not equally clear that African slaves in 16th century Seville continued to speak such Portuguese-influenced *bozal* Spanish (Weber de Kurlat 1962, Russell 1973, Naro 1978). Available evidence indicates that all but the most recently arrived generation spoke "normal" Spanish which, however, was of no interest for literary stereotyping (Russell 1973:237-8). It has also been suggested (Russell 1973:239) that a literary *habla de negros* may have been used to represent not *bozal* Spanish but dialogues carried out entirely in African languages. The Pidgin Portuguese which is assumed to have arrived from Lisbon with the new arrivals may also have been "Hispanized" by Spanish writers for ease of recognition by an audience unaccustomed to any variety of either Portuguese or creole (Russell 1973:237). Thus there is no guarantee that "black" Spanish widely existed in Spain except in the minds of poets and dramatists, and a comparison of literary texts over a period of nearly a century suggests that once the *negro* became a comic figure (since virtually without exception *bozal* speakers were portrayed as buffoons or at best as unwilling victims of fate), imitation of an established stereotype took precedence over linguistically accurate portrayals.

In Latin America, there is no doubt that some form of Africanized Spanish arose in each situation in which large-scale importation of African slaves occurred. The same as in Spain, however, it appears that the offspring of such *bozal* speakers learned regional popular varieties of Spanish, and that any attempt to portray the speech of *criollo* blacks as any different

from that of their non-black counterparts stems from literary exaggeration and racist stereotypes, many of which characterize Latin American literary representation of blacks even today (Lipski 1985a). Until the advent of black Latin American writers toward the end of the 19th century, all literary portrayals of *bozal* Spanish came from white writers, nearly all of whom depicted *bozal* speakers in humorous, comic, and carnivalesque modes. Beginning in the second half of the 19th century, literary examples of Latin American "black" Spanish contain few if any creole-like grammatical modifications, and few phonological modifications that are not characteristic of regional popular Spanish dialects. What is found is an attempt at literary phonetic transcription of popular speech tendencies, common to rural uneducated speakers of all races in the regions in question, and at times also found in the colloquial speech of educated individuals. This tendency was extended by black writers like Nicolás Guillén, Candelario Obeso, Adalberto Ortiz, Nicomedes Santa Cruz, Arnoldo Palacios, and others, whose "black" speech is in reality indistinguishable from that of non-black compatriots of comparable sociocultural situations (Arrom 1950:128).

The survey of grammatical tendencies common to Latin American *bozal* Spanish indicates that none is likely to have resulted from the propagation of an initial common creole from one zone to another. In each region where Africanized Spanish is attested, the characteristics are those of a spontaneously formed pidgin, or at best of an advanced stage of foreigner talk, which eventually merged with local varieties of Spanish. There is also little evidence to suggest literary imitation of Latin American *bozal* Spanish between countries in Latin America, such as occurred in Golden Age Spain and Portugal; despite evident exaggeration and burlesque, it appears that writers in each area gave some approximation of the speech that they actually heard among African slaves and their descendants. Only in the case of the triad of Papiamentu, Palenquero, and 19th century Cuban/Puerto Rican *bozal* speech is there highly suggestive evidence of both common origins and of an Afro-Lusitanian basis, and it has been seen that in this case mutual influences may not be entirely ruled out. In conclusion, although Africanized Spanish was widely represented in Latin America over a period of nearly 300 years, it is suggested that a high degree of homogeneity never existed from one region to another, except for those features resulting naturally from imperfect learning, and that any early Afro-Lusitanian basis either disappeared among later shipments of slaves or was subsequently neutralized once the recently arrived *bozales* came into contact with sub-

stantial Spanish-speaking populations. The preceding remarks, while based on a wide range of data, must nonetheless be revised in the light of future documentary discoveries, which will undoubtedly occur as the investigation of the Latin American slave trade continues. This simply underscores the need for an expanded cross-disciplinary perspective in creole studies, particularly in the case of historical and demographic data regarding the Afro-American connection.

NOTES

1) Among the more prominent studies which advance some version of the Afro-Portuguese monogenetic hypothesis are: Granda (1968, 1978), Naro (1978) Valkhoff (1966), Taylor (1971, 1977), Whinnom (1956, 1965, 1977), Hancock (1975), Voorhoeve (1973), Alvarez Nazario (1974), Megenney (1984, 1985a), Perl (1982, 1984, 1985, n. d.); somewhat different approaches are suggested by Hesseling (1933), Alleyne (1980), Dalby (1971). For more information on the medieval lingua franca or Sabir, cf. Hadel (1969), Collier (1976), Whinnom (1977), Coates (1971), Schuchardt (1909).

2) The principal sources are Pike (1967), Vila Vilar (1977), Carriazo (1954), Sanders (1982), Raimundo (1933), Giese (1932), Sancho de Sopranis (1958), Larrea Palacín (1952).

3) The major studies are those of Weber de Kurlat (1962), Chasca (1946), Jason (1967), Castellano (1961), Alvarez Nazario (1974), and Granda (1978).

4) The first major examples come from Sor Juan Inés de la Cruz and Gabriel de Santillana in the second half of the 17th century (Mansour 1973:61); for other early Mexican examples, cf. Megenney (1985b), Mendoza (1956).

5) In addition to the previously cited studies, cf. the following. For Cuba: Bachiller y Morales (1883), Yacou (1977), Alzola (1965), Cruz (1974), García González (1978), Montori (1916), García González et al. (1984), Valdés Bernal (1978), Guirao (1938), López Morales (1971), Dihigo (1915), Arrom (1942, 1950), Fernández de Castro (1943), Benítez del Cristo (1930), Suárez y Romero (1947), Villaverde (1979); many of the examples of 19th century Cuban *habla bozal* are found in the folkloric materials of Lydia Cabrera (1969, 1970, 1976, 1979, 1983); for Puerto Rico: Mason and Espinosa (1918, 1929); for the Dominican Republic, cf. Morales (1976), Torres Morales (1959), Alix (1961), Rodríguez Demorizi (1973:266-86; 1975:103-9, 251-64); for Mexico: Aguirre Beltrán (1958); for Venezuela: Aretz de Ramón y Rivera (1955:72); tres corona na mi mano 'three crowns in my hand'.

6) The debate on the status of Papiamentu is far from over; for some relevant considerations, cf. Birmingham (1970, 1976a, 1976b), Andersen (1974), Hesseling (1933), Van Wijk (1958), Wood (1972a, 1972b), Munteanu (1974), DeBose (1974).

7) The principal exponents are Granda (1978), Naro (1978), Megenney (1984, 1985a), Perl (n. d.) Otheguy (1975), Alvarez Nazario (1974), Valkhoff (1966), Whinnom (1956); for contrary opinions cf. López Morales (1980, 1983).

8) Granda (1978), Friedemann and Patiño Rosselli (1983), Friedemann and Cross (1979), Bickerton and Escalante (1970), Escalante (1954), Ochoa Franco (1945), Arrazola (1970).

9) For a historical and linguistic panorama, cf. Granda (1973, 1974), Alvarez Nazario (1970, 1972a), Acosta Saignes (1967), Brito Figueroa (1961), Bachiller y Morales (1883).

10) Principal sources of Afro-Hispanic language in Golden Age literature include Góngora's *En la fiesta del santísimo sacramento* and *Al nacimiento de Cristo nuestro señor* (1980), Simón Aguado's *Entremés de los negros* (Cotarelo y Mori 1911:231-5), Gil Vicente's *O clérigo da beira, Fragoa d'amor, Nao d'amores* (1834, 1907), Quiñones de Benavente's *El negrito hablado* (Rosell 1874:29-39), Sánchez de Badajoz' *Farsa teologal, Farsa de Moysen, Farsa de la ventera*, (Barrantes 1882, 1886), Rodrigo de Reinoso's *Coplas a los negros y negras* (1950), Lope de Rueda's *Comedia llamada Eufemia, Comedia de los engañados, Coloquio de Tymbria* (1908), Antonio Ribeiro Chiado's *Auto das regateiras* (1970), Feliciano de Silva's *Segunda Celestina* (Mack 1973), Lope de Vega's *El santo negro Rosambuco, La madre de la mejor, Villancico, and El capellán de la virgen* (1917, 1964), a text by Henrique da Mota (Leite de Vasconcellos 1933).

11) One very questionable example of *mi* as subject pronoun comes in the 19th century Cuban novel *Cecilia Valdés* (Villaverde 1979:175): *mi recorde, niña 'I remember ma'am'*. All other bozal examples in this novel (which is characterized by considerable literary exaggeration and stereotyping) use *yo* as subject.

12) Cf. the survey in Lipski (forthcoming a); for up-to-date information on Portuguese-based Creoles, cf. Valkhoff (1966, 1975), Ferraz (1978) Boretzky (1983), Hancock (1973), Batalha (1974), Smith (1979), Barrena (1957), Wilson (1962), Günther (1973), Lopes da Silva (1957), Scantamburlo (1981), Goilo (1953); for an overview and comparative study, Mugler (1983).

13) Alvarez Nazario (1959:46; 1974:197) and Valkhoff (1966:96) consider this possibility, while DeBose (1974) suggests that Papiamentu *nan* may come from Spanish *están* or Portuguese *estam* (sic).

14) Cf. Alvarez Nazario (1974:115-20; Otheguy (1975), Ziegler (n. d.), Perl (1982, 1985, n. d.), Granda (1968), Lipski (1985a) for examples and analysis.

15) For example in Venezuela; cf. Aretz de Ramón y Rivera and Ramón de Rivera (1955:72); *tres corona na mi mano* 'three crowns in my hand'.

16) E.g., by Whinnom (1956, 1965), Taylor (1971), Megenney (1984, 1985a); for an assessment of *na* in Philippine Creole Spanish cf. also Lipski (forthcoming a).

17) For example, Megenney (1984, 1985a), Whinnom (1956, 1965), Batalha (1960), Hesseling (1905:68), Taylor (1971), Naro (1978).

18) A partial list of investigators who have used the existence of particles like *ta* as evidence of a common origin for Afro-Iberian Creoles and for the existence of a Afro-Lusitanian basis for Caribbean bozal Spanish includes Granda (1968, 1969, 1972, 1978), Alvarez Nazario (1959, 1974), Taylor (1971), Alleyne (1980:11-3), Ziegler (n. d.), Perl (1982, n. d.), Otheguy (1975), Megenney (1984, 1985a), Naro (1978). For an alternative interpretation, cf. Muysken (1981a).

19) One example comes from the Dominican Republic, in a poem by Alix purporting to represent a Haitian Creole speaker's rudimentary attempts at speaking Spanish (Rodríguez

Demorizi 1973:270): *manque tu tâ dí que no* 'although you say no'. The existence of aspectual particles in this context is not surprising, given their usage in Haitian Creole.

20) For example, Cruz (1974) for the extensive works of Creto Gangá, Benítez del Cristo (1930) for the well-known play *Los novios catedráticos*, and the synthetic studies of Arrom (1942, 1950:109-45), Fernández de Castro (1943), Guirao (1938), and the anthologies of Albornoz and Rodríguez (1980), and Ballagás (1946), Mansour (1973), Morales (1976), and Ruiz del Vizo (1972).

21) The present study has deliberately ignored the frequent claims that phonological modifications in Caribbean Spanish may have African origins; this topic has been dealt with in Lipski (1985c, 1986c). Cf. Montes Giraldo (1974) Otheguy (1975), Alvarez Nazario (1974), Almedros (1959), Alzola (1965), Goodgall de Pruna (1970), Valdés Bernal (1978), Guy (1981), Perl (1981), Cuervo (1927), and Ploae Hangau (1977) for a variety of suggestions as to the African origins or impulse of phonological modifications of Latin American Spanish.

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