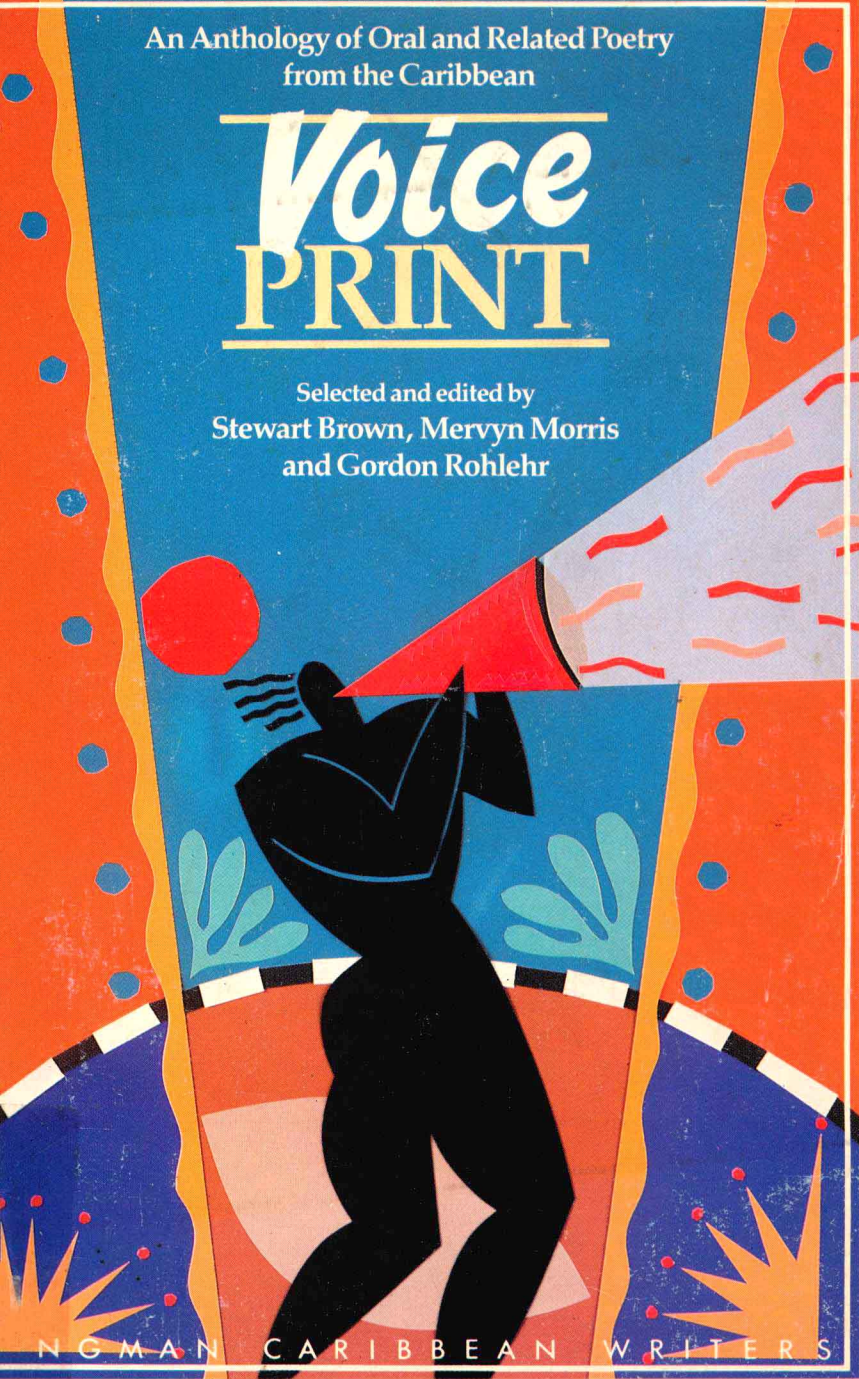


An Anthology of Oral and Related Poetry
from the Caribbean

Voice PRINT

Selected and edited by
Stewart Brown, Mervyn Morris
and Gordon Rohlehr



NGMAN CARIBBEAN WRITERS

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Gordon Rohlehr

with a

introduction by Gordon Rohlehr

江苏工业学院图书馆
藏书章

Longman 

Longman Group UK Limited
Longman House, Burnt Mill, Harlow
Essex CM20 2JE, England
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Longman Jamaica Limited
P O Box 489
Newport West
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Longman Caribbean (Trinidad)
Boundary Road
San Juan
Trinidad

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First published in *Longman Caribbean Writers* 1989
Second impression 1990

Set in 9/10 pt Baskerville
Produced by Longman Group (FE) Ltd
Printed in Hong Kong

ISBN 0 582 78629 0

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

Voiceprint: an anthology of oral and related poetry from the Caribbean.
(Longman Caribbean Writers).

I. Poetry in English. Caribbean writers, to 1985—Anthologies
I. Brown, Stewart, 1951—II. Morris, Mervyn, 1937—III. Rohlehr,
Gordon, 1942—
811'.008'091821

ISBN 0-582-78629-0

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the following for permission to reproduce copyright material;

the author, Michael Aarons for his poem 'For Indira Gandhi'; the author's agents for the poems 'Man to Pan' and 'Listen Mr Oxford Don' by John Agard; Almo/Irving Music Publications for the songs 'Rat Race' and 'Talkin' Blues' by Bob Marley; Edward Arnold Ltd for the poem 'Ol' Higue' by Wordsworth McAndrew from *Caribbean Poetry Now* ed. by Stewart Brown (pub. Hodder & Stoughton); the author, Edward Baugh for his poems 'Nigger Sweat' and 'The Warner Woman'; the author, Louise Bennett for her poems 'Roas' Turkey', 'Cousin Joe', 'Me Bredda' and 'Cuss-Cuss'; Bogle L'Overture Publications Ltd for the poem 'Language Barrier' by Valerie Bloom and 'Carousel' by Lucinda Roy in *Touch Mi Tell Mi!* by Valerie Bloom; the author, Edward Kamau Brathwaite for his poems 'Stone (for Mikey Smith)', 'Kingston in the Kingdom of this World', 'Cherries' and 'Flutes'; Mrs Kathleen Calliste for the poem '474 Years of Pain and Suffering' and the calypso 'Isms/Schisms' by Leroy Calliste; Jonathan Cape Ltd for the poem 'Hawk' from *The Gulf* by Derek Walcott; Caribbean Contact for the poems 'Kaisoman' by Lasana Kwesi; Caribbean Contact and Writers Union of Trinidad and Tobago for the poem 'Prince Street' by Kasi Senghor; the author, Faustin Charles for his poems 'The Red Robber', 'Carnival' and 'Greenidge'; Chatto & Windus Ltd and Minorities Arts Advisory Service Ltd for the poem 'Mama Dot Warns Against an Easter Rising' from *Mama Dot* by Fred D'Aguiar; The Copyright Organisation of Trinidad and Tobago Ltd for the calypsos 'Deaf Pan Men' by Willard Harris (Relator), 'Bass Man' by Winston Bailey (Mighty Shadow) and 'Dis Place Nice' by Emerold Phillip (*Brother Valentino*); the author, Christine Craig for her poems 'For Roberta Flack & Sisters' and 'For the Sax Player'; the author, Joseph Cummings for his poem 'A Voice from de Grave'; the author, David Dabydeen for his poem 'Two Cultures'; Faber & Faber Ltd for the poems 'Tales of the Islands: Chapter VI', 'The Spoiler's Return' and 'The Saddhu of Couva' from *Collected Poems* by Derek Walcott; Farrar, Straus and Giroux Inc for the poem 'For Harry Simmons' from *Another Life* by Derek Walcott, © 1973 Derek Walcott; the author, John Figueroa for his poem 'On

his Grandmother's Death'; Garland Publishing Inc for the poem 'Litany' from *First Poems* by George Campbell (1981); the author, Dr Michael Gilkes for his poem 'Son of Guyana'; the author, Lorna Goodison for her poems 'Sister Mary and the Devil', 'Road of the Dread' and 'Mother the Great Stones Got to Move'; the author, A L Hendriks for his poem 'Grandmother'; the author, Kendel Hippolyte for his poems 'Zoo Story' and 'Mammon'; the author, Elsworth Keane for his poems 'Brung-skin Gyurl', 'Shaker Funeral', 'Calypso Dancers' and 'Per Capita Per Annum'; the author, Paul Keens-Douglas for his poem 'Jus' Like Dat' from *Tell Me Again* (Keensdee Productions Ltd, Trinidad, 1979); the author, Anthony Kellman for his poem 'Song of Praise'; the author, Cameron King for his poem 'The Country Black Black'; the author, Knolly La Fortune for his poem 'Carnival Rhapsody'; Lawrence & Wishart Ltd for the poem 'My Song is for all Men' by Peter Blackman; the author, John Robert Lee for his poem 'Letter'; the author Mervyn Morris for his poems 'Malefactor (Left)' and 'Malefactor (Right)'; the author, Ian McDonald for his poem 'God's Work'; the author, Anthony McNeill for his poems 'For the D', 'The Catherine Letter I' and 'Ungod on The Day of the Egg'; the author, Roger McTair for his poems 'March February Remembering' and 'Ganja Lady' © Roger McTair 1988; the author, Brian Meeks for his poem 'March 9, 1976'; the author, Pamela Mordecai for an excerpt from the first movement of her poem 'Southern Cross' and her poem 'Last Lines'; New Beacon Books Ltd for the poems 'Mulatta Song' from *I Am Becoming My Mother* by Lorna Goodison (1986), 'Me As Well – The Blackman' from *Foundations* by John La Rose (1966), 'Valley Prince' from *The Pond* by Mervyn Morris (1973); Oxford University Press for the poem 'Chain of Days' from *Chain of Days* by James Berry (1985); the author, Opal Palmer Adisa for her poem 'Ethiopia Under A Jamaican Mango Tree'; Panrun Collective for the poems 'Panrun II' and 'Instant Ting' from *The Whirlwind* by Abdul Malik Decoteau, © Abdul Malik (Panrun Collective London, 1988); the author, Raoul Pantin for his poems 'Pilar' and 'Journey'; the author, Velma Pollard for her poems 'Fly' and 'Screws Loose'; Mrs Iris Roach for the poems 'Hard Drought', 'Verse in August', 'I am the Archipelago' and 'Transition' by Eric Merton Roach; the author, Andrew Salkey for his poem 'Maurice'; the author, Dennis Scott for his poems 'Uncle Time', 'Dreadwalk', 'Apocalypse Dub', 'Lemonsong', 'Guard-ring' and 'More Poem'; the author, Olive Senior for her poem 'The Despatcher'; the author, A J Seymour for his poems 'The Legend of Kaieteur' and 'Tomorrow Belongs to the

People'; the author, P D Sharma for his poem 'Government Memorandum'; the author, Barbara Ferland for her poem 'Ave Maria'; the author, Philip Sherlock for his poems 'Trees His Testament'; Mrs Nerissa Smith for the poems 'Mi Cyaan Believe It' and 'Trainer' by Michael Smith; Sparrow's Hideaway, a division of Sparrow's Enterprises Ltd, for the songs 'Dan is the Man in the Van' and 'Capitalism Gone Mad' by Slinger Francisco (Sparrow); the author, Bruce St John for his poems 'Friends' and 'With Respect'; Uprising Culture on behalf of the author, for the poem 'Book So Deep' by Brother Resistance; Virago Press Ltd for the poems 'Granny in de Market Place' from *Long Road to Nowhere* by Amryl Johnson, © Amryl Johnson 1985 (pub. Virago Press 1985) and 'Invitation' from *The Fat Black Woman's Poems* by Grace Nichols, © Grace Nichols (Printed by Virago Press 1984); the author, Lester Efebo Wilkinson for his poems 'Epilogue . . . 1978' and 'Petit Careme' from *That Man May Live*; Writers Union of Trinidad & Tobago for the poems 'Trini' by Selwyn Bhajan, 'Hey Alfie' and 'Cadence' by Anson Gonzalez, © Anson Gonzalez, from *Collected Poems 1964-1969*, The New Voices, Diego Martin, 1979, 'Down Beat', 'Pan Drama', 'Wreck', 'Shaka's Cycle' by Victor Questel, © Marian Questel, first published in *Near Mourning Ground*, The New Voices, Diego Martin, 1979, 'Absence' by Victor Questel, © Marian Questel, first published in *Hard Stares*, The New Voices, Diego Martin, 1982.

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Introduction

'The Shape of that Hurt'

(i)

It is only since the 1970s that the term 'oral tradition' began to be consistently used in connection with certain developments in West Indian poetry. Before then the debate concerned the viability of 'dialect' as a medium for poetry, and was an extension of the troubled issue of the nexus between education, speech, class, status and power. Creole dialects were thought of as belonging to the semi-literate and poor. To argue, as some linguists did and still do, that Creole is simply another language, neither better nor worse than any other, was to ignore the social and political nature of language. To speak about the vitality and expressiveness of Creole was to sentimentalise warm folksiness without wanting to share in the anguish of its decrepitude, and to display the contempt of a complacent intelligentsia, who secretly wanted to reinforce their superior social status by keeping the mass of the people uneducated.

Nowhere has the 'dialect' versus 'standard' polemic been more bitter than in the question of whether serious poetry can grow out of a dialect base. Since it was widely believed that dialect was a restricted code, incapable of expressing abstract ideas, sublimity or complexities of thought and feeling, the functions permitted dialect were those of drama and energetic folksy humour. While West Indian novelists had from the 1920s begun to reveal the widening possibilities of Creole dialects as flexible literary languages, West Indian poets, with a few notable exceptions, made relatively little use of them. A visible gap also existed between quasi-poetic folk forms such as the mento, chant and calypso, and the formal poetry of the schoolmen. The debate about the status, nature and potential of dialect did little to close this gap, serving rather to harden the prejudices at either edge of the chasm.

One useful concept, however, did emerge, which influenced the direction of literary criticism: that of a 'continuum' stretching

between Creole and Standard English, from which speakers naturally selected registers of the language which were appropriate to particular contexts and situations. The notion of a continuum made sense of what West Indian novelists had been doing for some time, that is, exploring the whole range of language and speech registers open to them. The poets also needed to recognize that alternative registers were accessible to them and to liberate, through an openness to all available voices, such word-shapes as these voices might suggest.

If continuum theory revealed a potential for Creole as a language, the concept of an oral tradition made immediately accessible a virtually limitless range of prosodic, rhetorical, and musical shapes, which inevitably became the basis of new making. Roughly paralleling both the folk/urban and the Creole/Standard continua was an aesthetic one:

... stretching between forms derived from an oral paradigm ... and forms suggested by various aspects of modernist aesthetics ... While some writers are able to accommodate both extremes with relative ease, others have been involved in an intense dialectic in which the extremes appear as thesis and antithesis ... The notion of an aesthetic continuum allows us to understand and accept the existence of both types of writer.¹

This anthology is partly concerned with poetry based on an understanding of the oral tradition. The inclusion of selections from Claude McKay, Louise Bennett, Philip Sherlock, early Arthur Seymour and Elsworth Keane, illustrates the experiments with voice, fable and rhythm that were taking place fifty years ago. These experiments increased in the 1960s, gaining sudden depth with the publication of Edward Kamau Brathwaite's *Rights of Passage, Masks and Islands* (1967-69). Brathwaite's trilogy, later to be published in a single volume as *The Arrivants* (1973), absorbed and improvised on earlier efforts at orality ranging from Akan traditional drum-poets, through Caribbean pioneers, Afro-American musicians and poets, and the Beat poets. Out of this web of ancestors Brathwaite wove a network of sound-skeins, in which the full folk/modernist continuum was included.²

After the appearance of *The Arrivants*, the terms of the aesthetic debate had to change. On the one hand, the issue hardened into an absolute struggle between two opposite camps; on the other, one became aware of the range and versatility of the oral tradition as a source of creative extension into new poetic forms.

The oral tradition is a heritage of song, speech and performance visible in such folk forms as the litanic work songs, chants, battle songs, Queh Queh songs, hymns, thousands of calypsos, mentos and reggae songs, sermons of both the grass-roots and establishment churches, riddles, jokes and word-games. Societies such as Guyana and Trinidad, with their large East Indian communities, possess at least two alternatives to the European models enshrined in the education system. A few calypsos and several songs which blend Hindi and English, suggest that an intercreolization³ process has been taking place between African and Indian folk elements. The potential of this blend has not been recognized by either community, even though nearly two decades ago musicians such as Joe Harriott, Elsworth Keane, Coleridge Goode and the Johnny Mayer Quintet, had already illustrated the possibilities of fusing Indian classical music and black people's classical music, Jazz.⁴

Music, because it has been the means of preserving linkages between the Caribbean and non European sensibility, has become the container of a wealth of alternative rhythms, a few of which have begun to inform the poetry of the Caribbean. Songs were the Caribbean's first poems, though for a long time, poets limited themselves to the standard ballad style of the Anglo-Scottish tradition. Hence Claude McKay's *Constab Ballads* and a great deal of Louise Bennett were patterned on the iambic tetrametric quatrain shapes of hymns, and Burns's ballads. Prosodic achievement here had to be confined to the tension created through the counterpoint of Jamaica Creole speech rhythms and the fixed metric cage of the stanza. It is in the heightened dramatic situations of Louise Bennett's street poems 'Candy Seller' and 'South Parade Peddler', with their 'tracings' and aggressive performance, that the interplay between voice and metre is greatest.

An illustration of the dominance of the quatrain is seen in the work of Antonio Jarvis from St Thomas, who in 1935 published a small collection of verse entitled *Bamboula Dance*. This title would have led one to expect the shaping influence of the bamboula drums, of Congolese origin, with their warlike rhythms, which were known throughout the Archipelago both before and after Emancipation. One might also have expected Jarvis to draw on the bamboula songs, whose function in St Thomas had once paralleled that of the Kalinda chants and satirical banter songs of mid to late nineteenth century Trinidad and Martinique. This is not the case. *Bamboula Dance* is standard

hymn-book stuff, whose culturally biased content explains its formal limitation.

Can I in pride mock sad buffoons
Who ape ancestral circumstance?
My fathers, too, these thousand moons
Cavorted in some tribal dance.

I can still feel, when drumbeats call
The pulsing blood new rhythms take
As garment-like refinements fall
Unconscious longings spring awake.

My honoured sire now would say,
For all his solemn high degrees
That drums recall Nigerian play
And drown out later dignities.

Few naked tribesmen yet remain
To dance the sacred dance for rain.⁵

The poem is a sonnet in iambic tetrameter, and though it speaks of an African heritage which is still sufficiently powerful to produce the 'pulsing new rhythms' of the St Thomas Bam-boula dance, and awaken the 'unconscious longings' which lie beneath the flimsy cloak of 'refinements', that heritage of sound, rhythm and orality contributes nothing to its making. Despite its subversive power, the alternative tradition is recognized negatively as the misguided and nostalgic concern of 'sad buffoons/Who ape ancestral circumstance?' There is a genuine confusion and contradiction here in how 'heritage' is perceived.

Jarvis identifies his father in this poem as a spokesman for Western Atlantic education and civilization, whose 'solemn high degrees', are drowned out by the older Nigerian heritage. Western dignity is defeated by the childishness of an engrained savagery. In another little poem entitled 'Atavistic', Jarvis describes his 'alien sire' as 'Nordic', and himself as the meeting point of contradictory ancestral tendencies.

I whose dark ancestors played
Where the Nile's first drop was laid
Have within me Nordic blood
Pulsing like the tide at flood.

Dowered by an alien sire
Is it strange my tropic fire
Often cools to virtuous fear
When nice brown girls venture near?

The epithet 'alien' which he applies to his father suggests that the heritage of Nordic blood, here depicted as powerfully alive, is also strangely cold and distant. It represents 'virtue', but it also represents inhibition, the death of Eros, which is illustrated by his inability to respond to the beauty of women of his own ethnicity.

Jarvis thinks in terms of stereotypes which had been established in the European mind centuries before the twentieth⁶ and are still present in the Caribbean today. Africa equals drum, naked tribesmen cavorting, play, passion and backwardness; Europe equals refinement, culture, education, intelligence, virtue and self-control. According to the rigid mathematics of such stereotyping which climaxed in the mid-nineteenth century with Arthur de Gobineau's *The Inequality of Human Races*, the psyche of the person of mixed racial heritage became a battlefield of conflicting elements. Since the African aspect of a mixed colonial heritage was under constant official and personal censorship,⁷ the 'mulatto of culture' was faced with the choice of either total negation of, or subversive self-identification with the black ancestor. Since progress, thought and enlightenment were thought to be exclusively Western and 'Nordic', and colonial education entrenched and reinforced such prejudice, the Caribbean mulatto of culture was programmed to believe totally in the white ancestor.

The affirmation of the white ancestor and denial or degraded perception of the black one, was most visible whenever the question of an aesthetic arose. The rigidly stereotyped terms of perception described above, lay beneath the bitter arguments concerning West Indian poetry as late as the 1970s. If in 1935 Jarvis could censor the 'new rhythms' engendered in the 'pulsing blood' by the call of drumbeats, with the argument that the New World mulatto had moved beyond the naked tribesmen whose 'sacred dance for rain' had lost its meaning, Eric Roach would bitterly condemn the emergence of these new rhythms in the poetry of the 1970s, employing the same terms as Jarvis.

Are we going to tie the drum of Africa to our tails and bay like mad dogs at the Nordic world to which our geography and history tie us?

We have been given the European languages and forms of culture in the traditional aesthetic sense, meaning the best that has been taught, said and done.⁸