17 Papiamento
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17.1 Introduction
Papiamento is spoken on the leeward Netherlands Antilles (Curacao and Bonaire) and on Aruba, and by migrants from these areas in the Netherlands and elsewhere. The total number of speakers is perhaps 200,000. It is a fairly well established creole, in which a number of newspapers are published, possessing its own literary tradition, an official spelling, and playing some role in the educational system (see chapter 6). In fact, Aruba has one official spelling, more etymological in nature (The sound /k/ for instance, is represented as k in words derived from Dutch, and as c and qu in words derived from Spanish), and Curacao and Bonaire another one, more phonological in nature (k everywhere). Here we use Curacaoan orthography.

Papiamento emerged in the second half of the 17th century, and is primarily based on Portuguese and Spanish. Although a number of theories have been proposed for its origin, we will follow Goodman’s (1987) account, who stresses the role of the Sephardic Jews, who were expelled from formerly Dutch northern Brazil, and arrived on Curacao from 1659. The earliest form of Papiamento is assumed to be largely Portuguese in its lexicon; later extensive contact with Spanish has obscured this early contribution. In addition it has some African and Amerindian vocabulary, as well as words from Dutch and English.

At the end of the 18th century there were 16,000 blacks on the island of Curacao, both slaves and freedmen, and 5500 whites, including 1500 Sephardic Jews. Of the 2400 slaves in 1683, only 25% worked in the plantations. In the 18th century, the majority of plantations employed 5 slaves or less. The overall impression is that the cradle for Papiamento was far more a société de habitation than a société de plantation, to use Chaudenson’s terminology (1992; see chapter 2). Thus it is more like the creole of Reunion, which is close to French, in this respect, than like the maroon creoles like Saramaccan or the ‘deep’ plantation creoles like Sranan or Haitian. In fact, its relative typological distance from Ibero-Romance may need to be explained in terms of the fact that Dutch, and not Spanish or Portuguese, was the colonial language from 1634 onward. Papiamento is not directly related to another Portuguese-based or Spanish-based creole, though there may be links to the Portuguese element in Saramaccan (Smith 1987).

A priest, Padre Schabel, mentions a kind of ‘broken Spanish’ in his diary from 1705. The
earliest written attestations in the language date from 1775. Wood (1971) has published a love letter written by a Sephardic Jew from that year, which closely resembles the modern language. There is also a written dialogue between two servants from the same year. In fact, these early written testimonies are the beginning of a long tradition of writing in Papiamento, including quite a bit of poetry, some popular novels, literary narrative prose, school books, catechisms, and in recent years a number of newspapers and magazines, scholarly texts, educational materials, reglements, etc. An example of the way Papiamento serves as a urban vernacular is given in the three advertisements from a popular daily newspaper.

Their translation is as follows:

(a) You want to sell your Japanese car? You want a good price? Come by today at: Rooi Catootje Auto Park, and we'll buy it for CASH on the spot!

(b) Caracas, every weekend! 3 days/3 nights. Departure (Thursday night). Return (Sunday morning). 4 days/4 nights. Departure (Wednesday night). Return (Sunday morning). ... Adults (2 or 3 in a bedroom) 248/263 Antillean guilders. Return ticket by plane. Tips for the porter at the airport and the hotel. Transport by bus airport/hotel/airport. Stay in the Plaza Catedral hotel. Call us right now at ...
Have you already heard of the Brand Bonus Polis? Brand Bonus Polis is the new policy introduced by Prome Seguro with wide coverage. Brand Bonus polis gives you a bonus on your insurance premium to compensate all the years you have paid a premium for your fire insurance. So it does not matter with which company you were insured. Remember that only Prome Seguro has got it. Get our information. At Prome Seguro ... (near the Viaduct).

Notice the use of English loans (pronounced as in Dutch), such as kësh, wikënt, and tips, and the coexistence of the non-adapted Dutch loan Brand Bonus Polis and the adapted loan polisa ‘(insurance) policy’. Pasashi ‘ticket’ has the French form (presumably via Dutch) but the meaning of Spanish pasaje. Much of the vocabulary is very similar to Spanish, such as salida ‘departure’ and regreso ‘return’ or even a direct loan such as ida i buelta ‘return, round trip’. In other cases the relation with Spanish and Portuguese is less direct, e.g. djaweps for ‘Thursday’ (<Sp. (dia) jueves) and djarason ‘Wednesday’, where Spanish has miércoles.

17.2 Sound system

The best information on the Papiamento sound system can be gathered from the work of Römer (e.g. 1992, which contains a posthumous synthesis of his work).

There are ten vowels in Papiamento, which can be presented as in (1) (spelling given in parentheses):

(1)   | i | y(ü) | u |
     | e | ø(ü) | o |
     | e(è) | o(ò) | a |

There are 24 consonant phonemes, as in:

(2)   | p | t | tç(ch) | k | b | d | dz(dj) | g | f | s | š(sh) | x(g) | h | m | n | ñ |
     | l, r | w | j(y,j) |

There are two main stress patterns in Papiamento, penultimate and ultimate. Penultimate
stress is the regular pattern for words ending in vowels or in -er, -el, -en (where e represents a schwa rather than a full vowel): *kuminda* ‘food’, *korda* ‘remember’, *liber* ‘free’. Words ending in any other speech sound generally have stress on the last syllable: *kantor* ‘office’, *kurason* ‘heart’, *robes* ‘wrong’. The largest group of exceptions consists of verbs of three or four syllables, which are distinguished from other words of the same length by the fact that they are always stressed on the final syllable; this is indicated in Papiamento orthography by means of an acute accent: *kumindá* ‘greet’, *ekiboká* ‘make a mistake’. There is also a sizable number of bisyllabic exceptions, such as *doló* ‘pain’, *muhe* ‘woman’, *masha* ‘a lot’, *piská* ‘fish’.

Römer (1992) describes tonal phenomena in Papiamento. We find level high and low tones, which in many - but by no means all - cases correspond to accented and unaccented syllables, respectively. A major class of exceptions is formed by the bisyllabic verbs. These have a Low High pattern with the Low tone realised on the accented syllable, as in *pone* ‘to put’, *kwérde* ‘to wind’, *labá* ‘wash’. There are minimal pairs such as *papa* ‘porridge; the Pope’ with a High Low pattern, and *papa* ‘dad’ with a Low High tonal pattern (Römer 1992). Joubert (1991) lists 251 pairs of bisyllabic words which can be distinguished only by their tone patterns. In the vast majority of these cases (+230), a Low High pattern over a bisyllabic word is a verb, a High Low pattern is a noun: *bíaaha* [Low High] ‘to travel’/[High Low] ‘voyage’, *warda* [Low High] ‘to wait, to keep, to guard’/[High Low] ‘guard service, guard post’. However, the tone alternation cannot be purely the result of a derivational rule (e.g. nominalization through tonal shift). For some 85 of these pairs, there is no lexical relationship between the verb and the noun: *sala* [Low High] ‘to salt’/[High Low] ‘living room’, *para* [Low High] ‘to stand, to stop’/[High Low] ‘bird’.

### 17.3 Morphology and lexicon

The best recent survey of Papiamento morphology is Dijkhoff (1993), a work primarily devoted to nominal compounds and lexicalized syntactic formations. Dijkhoff shows that constructions which at first sight seem syntactic or phrasal in nature, of the type *n di N*’n of *N’, in fact have many lexical characteristics. They may undergo reduction processes, as in *lensi saku* (< kerchief of pocket) ‘handkerchief’, and often have a specialized or shifted meaning, as in *kabei boto* (< head of boat) ‘the front part of a boat; lift’.

Among the affixes, there are cases where the element is only borrowed in conjunction with a set of lexical items, with which it is combined already in the donor language. Examples include Spanish suffixes in Papiamento (Dijkhoff 1993) such as -*shon* (< Sp. -ción) in *akumula-shon* ‘accumulation’ and *akusa-shon* ‘accusation’. From these cases no evidence for productive morphology can be distilled. Cases in which an affix is borrowed include Papiamento -*dó* (<Sp. -*dor*), cf. (3a). It can be applied freely to recipient language items (3b), and is not restricted in its application (3c):
Like -dó, -mentít, as in the name of the language itself, is a highly productive affix, and not restricted to Spanish/Portuguese bases.

The particle nan is used to pluralize nouns and noun phrases (see also chapter 21). It is used particularly with definite noun phrases, and is a clitic rather than a true affix.

### 17.4 Syntax

#### 17.4.1 Basic word order

The basic word order in Papiamentu is not unlike that of other creole languages:

(4) **Su - tma - Verb - IO - DO - PP**

The indirect object precedes the direct object both with full noun phrases, as in (5a), and with pronouns, as in (5b,c):

(5) a. Maria a duna Wanchu un buki.
   Mary give John a book
   'Mary gave John a book.'

b. Maria a dunami un buki.
   'Mary gave me a book.'

c. Maria a dunami e.
   'Mary gave me it.'

Notice that here Papiamentu permits the order IO - DO, which is prohibited in Spanish and Portuguese.

The category tma will be discussed in 17.4.4. There is one deviation here from (4), since the lo ‘future’ precedes rather than follows the subject pronoun. This optional alternate order is possible only with mi ‘I’, bo ‘you’, and e ‘she/he/it’. The same phenomenon occurs with the future marker bai and the personal pronouns mi and yu in Tok Pisin.
When there is a preposed locative or temporal phrase, it is possible to switch the order of subject and verb. Both (a) and (b) are grammatical:

(7)  
(a) Riba e isla aki un mion hende ta biva.
    'On this island a million people live.'
(b) Riba e isla aki ta biva un mion hende.
    'On this island live a million people.'

There is a verb + particle construction that seems limited to the verbs *bai* 'come' and *bini* 'go' and the particle *bèk* (<Eng. *back*):

(8) Wanchu a bini kas bèk
    'John has come back home.'

However, sometimes Dutch particle constructions, such as *bel ... op* 'telephone', are borrowed:

(9) Lo mi bèl bo òp.
    'I will call you.'

### 17.4.2 The copula

In contrast with other creole languages, Papiamento has a clearly defined set of adjectives, which can occur in attributive, and in predicative position preceded by a copula. The following examples show that the locative, (10), predicative, (11)-(13), and presentational or equative, (14), functions of the copula are all fulfilled by the same explicit copula *ta*, no matter whether the predicate is a noun phrase, prepositional phrase, or adjective:

(10) Mi ta na kas. 'I am in the house.'
(11) Mi ta Pedro. 'I am Pedro.'
(12) Mi ta un yu di Korsow. 'I am a native son / an islander / a Curaçaoer.'
(13) Mi ta grandi. 'I am big.'
(14) Esaki ta Maria. 'This is Mary.'
However, we will see below that the existential copula is not *ta* but *tin* (where Portuguese has *tem* and Spanish *hay*).

### 17.4.3 Passive and fronting rules

Papiamento is unique among Caribbean creoles in having a passive construction similar to that found in the European lexifiers, i.e. one in which the agent is optionally realised in a PP (introduced by *dor di* or *pa*, a passive auxiliary appears (*wordu* or *ser* in free variation), and the verb appears in the passive participle form. The passive with the auxiliary *wordu* is illustrated in (15), which contains a realisation of the agent in a *dor di*-phrase.

(15) *E pòtrêt aki a wordu saká dor di e mucha hòmber.*
the picture here past be taken through of the child male
‘This picture was taken by the boy.’

Participle forms are formed in two distinct ways, following a so-called Iberian and a Dutch pattern.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iberian</td>
<td><em>morde</em> ‘bite’- <em>morde</em> ‘bitten’, <em>dividi</em> ‘divide’- <em>dividi</em> ‘divided’, <em>harka</em> ‘rake’- <em>harká</em> ‘raked’, <em>pupu</em> ‘relieve oneself / dirty by excrement’-<em>pupá</em> ‘dirtied by excrement’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td><em>ferf</em> ‘paint’- <em>heferf</em> ‘painted’, <em>wèldér</em> / <em>wèldro</em> ‘weld’- <em>hewèldér</em> / <em>hewèldro</em> ‘welded’, <em>tren</em> ‘train’- <em>hetren</em> ‘trained’, <em>dal</em> ‘hit’- <em>hedal</em> ‘hit’</td>
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</table>

Apart from passive, there are three types of fronting in Papiamento (see chapter 24). First, it is possible to focus on noun phrases or prepositional phrases, often but not necessarily preceded by *ta*. An example is (18):

(18) *Ta e buki m’a dunabu.*
foC the book isg=past give=2sg
‘I gave you the book.’

One of the advertisements has an example of subject focus:

(19) *Korda si: ta Prome Seguro so tin-e.*
remember if foc Prome Seguro alone have=3sg
‘Remember: only PROME SEGURO has it.’

Frequently, though not obligatorily, and without much of a change in meaning, questioned constituents are focused:
(20) (Ta) kiko bo tin den bo man?
FOC what 2SG have in 2SG hand
‘What (is it that/do) you have in your hand?’

In a second type of structure, the verb is fronted and repeated:

(21) Ta duna m’a dunabu e buki. (Predicate cleft)
FOC give ISG=PAST give=2SG the book
‘I GAVE you the book.’

However, it is possible to include an emphatic adverb with the fronted predicate:

(22) Ta djis fia m’a fiabo e buki.
FOC just lend ISG-PAST lend=2SG the book
‘I have just lent you the book (not given it).’

In the third construction a noun phrase or prepositional phrase is fronted without focusing it, and without ta:

(23) Un dia mi tabata kana na Punda.
One day ISG PAST=PR walk LOC Punda
‘One day I was walking downtown Willemstad.’

Here the fronted element is interpreted as background information or as an already established topic. Construction (23) is distinguished from a focus construction through its intonation.

The focus element ta resembles the copula, and it may be negated, but not modified for TMA, and neither can the object pronoun be included:

(24) a. No ta duna m’a dunabu e buki.
NEG FOC give ISG=PAST give=2SG the book.
‘I didn’t GIVE you the book.’
b. *tabata e buki mi tabata dunabu
PAST=PR the book ISG PAST=PR give=2SG
c. *ta dunabu m’a dunabu e buki
FOC give=2SG ISG=PAST give=2SG the book
17.4.4 TMA and gerundive clauses

The Papiamento TMA system is not quite like that of other Caribbean creoles. It has been described in great detail by Maurer (1988) and Andersen (1990). There are basically five TMA markers, with roughly the meanings indicated:

(25) ta present, progressive
    tabata imperfective past (Aruba has tawata)
    a perfective, past
    lo future, potential
    sa habitual

While often a is interpreted as past (and glossed as such here), its aspectual rather than tense character is clear in examples such as:

(26) M’a kasi kla.
    ISG=PAST almost ready
    ‘I am almost done.’

In addition to the distinction between two kinds of past tense, there is the striking feature of a gerundive system. In (27) this participle is overtly expressed with the marker -ndo:

(27) E ta kana bai bini [papiando den dje mes].
    ‘He walks back and forth talking to himself.’

This suffix can be attached to many verbs. However, the participle can also be expressed by the combination ta + verb in a number of constructions. Consider first perception complements:

(28) E-l-a weta un homber yongotá ei bou [ta saka awa ku un makutu].
    3SG=PAST see a man knelt there down PR take water with a bucket
    ‘He saw a man kneeling (lit. knelt) down below taking out water with a bucket.’
    (Andersen 1990)

With telic verbs, the absence of ta in perception complements implies that the completion of the act is witnessed, according to Maurer (1988: 267), citing unpublished work by Muller. Consider the contrast in (29):
(29)  
   a. M’a miré kap e palu.
       ‘I saw him cut the tree (including the moment the tree fell down).’
   b. M’a miré ta kap e palu.
       ‘I saw him cutting the tree (but not necessarily also the final result of the act of cutting).’

Some verbs take a _ta_ complement:

(30)  
   a. E-l-a bin ta trata nan malu.
       ‘He started treating them badly.’
   b. E-l-a kumisá ta kome djente.
       ‘He started grinding his teeth.’

   (Andersen 1990)
   (Maurer 1988: 262)

A third context is adverbial clauses:

(31)  
   Kuantu aña nan tin [ta kana tre’i dokter].
       ‘How many years have they been [running after doctors]?’

Finally, there is a type of relative clause using this form:

(32)  
   ... e plantashi ta yen di hende [ta kòrta i piki tabaku].
       ‘... the plantation was full of people [cutting and picking tobacco].’

   (Maurer 1988: 264)

The relationship between constructions with _ta_ and constructions with _ndo_ requires much further analysis; sometimes they appear to be interchangeable, but not always.

17.4.5 Serial verbs

Some kinds of serial verbs are extremely frequent in the language, but the total range is more limited than in some other Caribbean creoles, like those of Surinam, it appears. Particularly frequent are cases where the second verb indicates a direction for the action of the first verb:

(33)  
   Cha Tiger a _hala_ stul _pone_ na _mesa_.
   Cha Tiger _past_ drag chair _put_ _loc_ table
   ‘Cha Tiger dragged a chair to the table.’

   (Baart 1983: 142)

(34)  
   Mi ta _lastrabo_ bai _fiernu_.
   _15sg pr drag=2sg_ go _hell_
   ‘I drag you to hell.’

   (Baart 1983: 78)
Some combinations, such as *bula bai* 'fly go' are lexicalized to the extent that the two verbs can undergo predicate cleft together, (35):

(35) Ta bula bai nos ta bula bai Hulanda.

\[ \text{foc} \quad \text{fly go we} \quad \text{pr} \quad \text{fly go Holland} \]

'We really fly to Holland.'

This is not possible generally, e.g. with a combination such as *kore sali* 'run go out of':

(36) *Ta kore sali hopi hende kore sali for di sine.

\[ \text{foc} \quad \text{run go out many people} \quad \text{run go out out of} \quad \text{cinema} \]

'Many people really run away from a cinema.'

The aspectual element *kaba* 'already' (< Romance *acabar* 'finish') may have been a serial verb earlier; in present-day Papiamento there is no reason not to treat it as an adverb. An example from the advertisements:

(37) Bo a tende kaba di Brand Bonus polis?

\[ 2\text{sg} \quad \text{past} \quad \text{hear} \quad \text{already of Brand Bonus policy} \]

'Have you heard already about the Brand Bonus policy?'

17.4.6 Pro-drop, object clitics

In chapter II we discussed the matter of pro-drop, i.e. the possibility of pronominal elements to be absent. Unlike Spanish, ordinary pronoun subjects cannot be absent in Papiamento, (37b). Neither is it possible to have a subject to the right of the verb, (38c):

(38) a. E ta kome.

\[ \text{he} \quad \text{pr} \quad \text{eat} \]

'He is eating.'

b. *ta kome

\[ \text{pr} \quad \text{eat} \]

'He is eating.'

c. *ta kome Maria

\[ \text{pr} \quad \text{eat} \quad \text{Maria} \]

'He is eating Maria.'

However, with impersonal subjects sometimes there is no subject present:
With expletive, semantically empty, subjects lexical elements are prohibited:

(40) a. Tin baliamentu. b. *Nan tin baliamentu
there is dance 3PL there is dance
'There is a dance.'

The same holds for weather verbs, except when a (restricted) lexical subject is used, as in (41c):

(41) a. Tabata yobe. b. *E tabata yobe. c. Awa tabata yobe
past-PRA rain water past-PRA
'It rained.'

The different classes of null subjects can occur in subordinate contexts as well, as shown by the grammaticality of (42)-(43):

(42) Mi ta kere (ku) ta bende sapatu ei.
ISG PR believe (that) PR sell shoes there
'I believe they sell shoes there.'

(43) Mi ta hañá (ku) ta muchu lat pa nos bai.
ISG PR think (that) COP very late for 1PL go
'I think it is too late for us to go.'

When its subject is extracted out of an embedded complement clause of a verb such as kere 'believe', the trace is null. This is what we mentioned in chapter 11 as a violation of the [that trace] filter:

(44) Ken bo ta kere (ku) ___ ta parse mi tata?
'Who do you believe (that) ___ resembles my father?'

A second issue is the status of object pronouns. It is clear that they are phonologically attached to the verb, as we saw already. Further examples are:
(45) Bo a dunami e buki.
  2SG PAST give=1SG the book
  ‘You have given me the book.’

(46) Nos lo kumpré kësh mesora.
    we FUT buy-it cash right away
    ‘We will buy it from you for cash right away.’

Ordinarily, there is no special form for the object pronoun:

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<th>subject</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>poss.</th>
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<tr>
<td>mi</td>
<td>mi</td>
<td>mi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo</td>
<td>bo/bu</td>
<td>bo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>su</td>
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<td>nos</td>
<td>nos</td>
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<tr>
<td>bosnan</td>
<td>bosnan</td>
<td>boso(nan)</td>
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<tr>
<td>nan</td>
<td>nan</td>
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The apparent exception is the second person, which in Curaçao Papiamento becomes *bu*:

(48) Mi ta mirabu.
    ‘I am looking at you.’

In perception complements, where it is really the subject of the complement clause, we have *bu* as well:

(49) Mi ta mirabu ta sali.
    ISG PR see=2SG PR leave
    ‘I see you leaving.’

This shows that the effect is in part phonological: it has to do with the fact that *bo* is a clitic on the preceding verb. Notice that *bo* does not cliticize onto the verb when it is a possessive pronoun in a noun phrase:

(50) Mi ta mira [bo tata].
    ISG PR see 2SG father
    ‘I see your father.’
Nor does it cliticize onto the verb when it is the subject of a finite complement clause:

(51) Mi ta kere [bo parse mi tata].
    ISG PR believe 2SG resemble ISG father
    ‘I believe you resemble my father.’

Nonetheless, there is some reason to assume that there are syntactic object clitics in Papiamento, but only with specific reflexive verbs. Consider the following contrast:

(52) a. Mi ta sinti mi/mi mes un tiki tristu.
    ‘I feel a bit sad.’

b. Mi ta sinti *mi/mi mes dor di e deken.
    ‘I feel myself through the blanket.’

When used with an experiencer interpretation as in (52a), meaning ‘to have a certain feeling’, sinti + object pronoun is acceptable. When used with an agent interpretation as in (52b), meaning ‘to feel a texture’, it is not, presumably because of Principle B of the Binding Theory (Chomsky 1981) which states that pronouns must be referentially free, i.e. not anaphorical, in their domain. Thus ordinarily bare pronouns cannot be used reflexively.

We will assume that the sinti+mi version of (52a) has the structure in (53), where mi is a clitic and is linked to an empty anaphoric element in the predicate:

(53) Mi ta sinti+mi [(null anaphor) un tiki tristu].
    ISG PR feel+ISG [... a bit sad]

Further reading
Although Papiamento is a well-known and relatively well-described language, there is no standard work in English that deals with the full complexities of the language. Maurer (1988) deals with tense, mood, and aspect in great detail. Dijkhoff (1993) is a detailed study of nominal morphology. Kouwenberg & Murray (1994) is a useful general sketch.