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CHAPTER 12

Variation in Preposition Use in the Virgin Islands Dutch Creole (VIDC) Cluster

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ABSTRACT

There is a growing consensus that the varieties of Virgin Islands Dutch Creole (VIDC) - often referred to as Negerhollands - should not be viewed as a single language, but rather as a language cluster of related varieties. However, there has been only limited systematic comparison of the varieties in the cluster as to their structural characteristics. We will try to fill this gap in this chapter by charting a specific construction: the supra-locative prepositional phrases in two varieties of VIDC: the 20th century data recorded by Josselin de Jong and the variety in the 18th century religious texts. A systematic search in the VIDC data is possible because of the data base constructed for this language with the support of Clarin-NL. We will try to contrast the feature studied with those found in 17th century Dutch informal writings and in two relevant West-African languages: Akan and Ewegbe. The theoretical model used here derives from the notion of feature pool.

12.1 Introduction

There is a growing consensus that the varieties of Virgin Islands Dutch Creole (VIDC) - often referred to as Negerhollands - should not be viewed as a single language, but rather as a language cluster of related varieties (Muysken 1995; Van Rossem and Van der Voort 1996; Sabino 2012; see also Van Sluijs et al., 2016), which also show considerable internal variation (Van Sluijs 2016). However, there has been only limited systematic comparison of the varieties in the cluster as to their structural characteristics. Building in part on Bakker (2014), we will try to fill this gap in this chapter by charting a specific construction: the supra-locative prepositional phrase of the type \((n)a\)bo\((no)\) ‘on’ in two varieties of VIDC: the 20th century data recorded by Josselin de Jong (1926), and the

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variety in the 18th century religious texts. A systematic search in the VIDC data is possible because of the NEHOL data base constructed for this language with the support of Clarin-NL. We will try to contrast the feature studied with those found in 17th century Dutch informal writings and in two relevant West-African languages: Akan and Ewegbe.

The theoretical framework adopted here involves the notion of ‘feature pool’ (Mufwene 2001). In this framework, creole languages are constructed out of a number of possible features and elements available in the multilingual speech community in which the creole emerged: the so-called feature pool. This framework is interesting for us because the VIDC cluster contains ‘layers’, corresponding to the variouslects in the complex early community and to the various ‘authors’ of texts. Regarding the variable involved here there exist:

(a) a ‘Dutch’ layer of simple prepositions, including op ‘on’ and boven ‘above’;
(b) an ‘Atlantic creole’ layer including the general locative preposition na;
(c) West-African substrate patterns which include [NP + LOCATION] and [LOC + NP + LOCATION].

In the extant corpus these layers compete, and have a variable distribution.

In section 12.2 we briefly mention some points in the history of VIDC and briefly discuss the sources. Section 12.3 focuses on the variable: prepositions in VIDC. In section 12.4 Atlantic na and possible substrate influence is discussed, and in section 12.5 relevant preposition use in 17th century Dutch. Sections 12.6 and 12.7 present the findings for 18th and 20th century VIDC, followed by some discussion, conclusions and suggestions in section 12.8.

12.2 VIDC: History and Sources

Here we briefly mention some points in the history of VIDC, referring the reader to Van Sluijs (2016) and Van Rossem (2017) for further detail.

12.2.1 History

While St. Thomas was probably inhabited by Arawakan groups since 300 BC, in 1672 the first European settlers arrived at what then became the Danish Antilles. However, many settlers did not come from Denmark, and particularly settlers from Zealand and Flanders were dominant in the new colony, which soon became a plantation colony. In 1673 enslaved Africans started being imported, particularly from Ghana. Around 1700 there must have been a nascent Creole language with Flemish and Zealandic as the main lexifier varieties. Caribbean Dutch functioned as a lingua franca in the colony, and the Moravian missionary community started using the creole. In fact, in 1736 there is the first mention in any Caribbean source of the term Carriolsche ’Creole’ for the language, as we find the first intentions use VIDC as a missionary language. The language flourished throughout the colony through much of the 18th century, but by 1843 English Creole has largely replaced VIDC.

12.2.2 Documentation and Sources

There is a rich array of 18th century sources, which require, however, considerable philological interpretation (Van Rossem 2017). In 1742 the first printed texts appeared on the island with traces of VIDC, and from that year until 1843 there has been a steady stream of missionary translations into VIDC by the Moravian Brethren and the Danish Lutheran Church. There are also letters of enslaved Africans from the early period, partly in Dutch, partly in VIDC. The first printed grammar of any creole language is also about VIDC and dates from 1770, by J.M. Magens. Oldendorp’s (1777) manuscript grammar dates from 1770 as well, and was first printed in a shorter version
(the complete version appeared as Oldendorp 2000: 681–724). His dictionary is from 1767/68 (Stein 1996). An anonymous grammar written by Moravian Brethren at the beginning of the 19th century was used by Hesseling (1905). Internationally, VIDC started being studied in 1805 when the historical linguist Rask made a typological comparison of Greenland Inuit and VIDC. In 1871 Van Name compared VIDC to other Caribbean creoles and in 1881/1887 Pontoppidan published his contributions. Hesseling published his anthology of historical sources and 18th century texts in 1905, and in 1922–1923 De Josselin de Jong carried out fieldwork among speakers of whom he thought would be the last ones. However in 1936 Nelson unexpectedly had the opportunity to still compile a word list after interviewing speakers of Dutch Creole, which was used by Reinecke (1937).

In the 1960–80s fragments of the language as remembered by the last speakers were recorded by Sprauve (1976), Adams Graves (1977), and Sabino (1990). The demise of Alice Stevens in 1987 marked the end of the spoken language.

Starting around 1980 and until now 2015, a group initially inspired by the work of Peter Stein and later involving Hans den Besten and Pieter Muysken (who together supervised Hein van der Voort and Cefas van Rossem) started exploring the missionary archives. This led to various book publications (e.g. van der Voort and van Rossem 1996; Stein and van der Voort 1996), and much of the digitalized material was made available electronically via the NEHOL database with the financial and technical support of Clarin-NL through the work of Robbert van Sluijs.

The eighteenth century VIDC texts that were used are given in Table 12.1.

For 17th and 18th century Dutch we used the intercepted letters in Dutch written by seamen and colonists in the 17th and 18th centuries and kept in British National Archives in Kew Gardens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Clarin</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Zinzendorf Farewell Letter</em></td>
<td>1739, 1742</td>
<td>3.1.1</td>
<td>First known text written in VIDC, translation of <em>Gebeden en Liederen</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gebeden en Liederen voor die swart Broeder-Gemeenten na S. Thomas, S. Croix en S. Jan.</em></td>
<td>1765</td>
<td>HERRN65A</td>
<td>First printed hymnbook in VIDC by the Moravian Brethren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gospel Harmony 321</em></td>
<td>Around 1773, before 1780</td>
<td>3.2.1.1_35</td>
<td>First 35 sections of translation of S. Lieberkühn’s <em>Gospel Harmony</em> by Moravian missionary J. Böhner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gospel Harmony 322</em></td>
<td>Around 1780</td>
<td>3.2.1.1_35</td>
<td>First 35 sections of second translation of <em>Gospel Harmony</em> by J. Böhner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gospel Harmony 3231</em></td>
<td>Around 1790</td>
<td>3231_1_35</td>
<td>First 35 sections of <em>Gospel Harmony</em>, edited and written by J.C. Auerbach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gospel Harmony 3232</em></td>
<td>Around 1795</td>
<td>3232_1_35</td>
<td>First 35 sections of <em>Gospel Harmony</em>, Unfinished manuscript, probably used for printed <em>Gospel Harmony</em> (1833)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Old Testament</em></td>
<td>Between 1780 and 1785</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>Translation of the Old Testament into VIDC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 12.1:* 18th century sources used for VIDC.
Since this chapter focuses on locative prepositions, we provide some general remarks on locative prepositions and some background information on prepositions in VIDC.

12.3.1 Prepositions in Creoles: Analytical Framework


A further distinction is between +/- functional locatives (a slightly different distinction is made by Zwarts 1997): I can go to the bank functionally, for typical banking things (e.g. to cash a check) or purely physically, to get nearer a specific building. Functional locatives are typically not configurational. Consider ‘I am going home’ versus ‘I am going to my house’.

In this chapter we focus on both configurational, and non-configurational non-functional locative prepositions in VIDC.

12.3.2 Non-locative Prepositions

There are a number of prepositions in VIDC, of which most have Dutch etyma (sometimes homophonous with an English source), with the exception of te:, most likely from Portuguese, listed in Table 12.2.

The most striking absent Dutch prepositions, at least in the 20th century materials, are aan, which is dative (‘to’) and sometimes locative (‘near’) in Dutch, and Dutch te ‘at’/tot ‘until’. There are sporadic uses of aan in the 18th century missionary texts:

(01) zoo als Hem ha dot voor yoe aan het Kruis (311)
like 3SG PST die for 2SG at DET.N CROSS
‘Like He dies for you at the cross.’

(02) En as JESus a wandel na <↑die> Galile aan Zeekant (321: 23)\(^1\)
and when Jesus PST walk LOC DET Galilee at sea.side
‘and when Jesus walked near Galilee at the sea side’

However, it is clear in (01) from the use of a non-VIDC neuter determiner that this is a fixed Dutch expression. For (02) the other translations of the same sentence do not have aan.\(^2\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>astor/-u</th>
<th>after</th>
<th>&lt; Du achter, E after</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fa(n)</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>&lt; Du van</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fo</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>&lt; Du voor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gliek, liek</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>&lt; Du gelijk, E like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mi/me:/met</td>
<td>with</td>
<td>&lt; Du met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sondor/-du</td>
<td>without</td>
<td>&lt; Du zonder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>te:</td>
<td>until</td>
<td>&lt; Po até</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12.2: Non-locative prepositions in 20th century VIDC.

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\(^1\) For the notational conventions in the examples, see Van Rossem and Van der Voort (1996: XII–XIII).

\(^2\) [322: 23: En as Jesus a wandel na kant van die Galilean Zee], [3231: 23: Toen noe Jesus a wandel bij die See van Galilea].
12.3.3  **Locative Prepositions Without na**

A number of locative prepositions, all with Dutch etyma, are formed without *na* in the 20th materials, as listed in Table 12.3.

Some of them, *kan* and *mel/mid*l, correspond to a noun in Dutch. In the 18th century materials, these are combined with *na* and take the preposition *van* ‘of’, which is a clear indication of their nominal status at the time:

1. (03) En as Jesus a wandel na *kant van* die Ga=lilean Zee (322: 23) and when Jesus *pst* walk *loc* side of *det* Galilean sea ‘and when Jesus walked at the side of the Galilean sea’

2. (04) Em set nabin die Tempel na *mid=del van* die Leerar-s (322: 9)³ 3sg sit inside *det* Temple *loc* midst of *det* teacher-PL ‘He sits inside the temple in the middle of the teachers.’

12.3.4  **Locative Prepositions with na**

Finally, there is a class of prepositions that involve the non-configurational locative *na*, which is often claimed to have a Portuguese etymon, the pro-clitic combination *em+a* ‘in+DET.F’. Configurational locatives are formed combining this *na* (which can be reduced to *a* or omitted altogether) with a Dutch-etymon preposition, which is generally bisyllabic. See Table 12.4.

In this chapter we will focus exclusively on all forms related to *((n)a)bo(no)* ‘on’, from this list.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bi</th>
<th>near</th>
<th>&lt; Du bij</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>de:</td>
<td>through</td>
<td>&lt; Du door</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ini</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>&lt; Du in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it (fa)</td>
<td>out of</td>
<td>&lt; Du uit (van)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kan</td>
<td>near, next to</td>
<td>&lt; Du kant ‘side’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mel/mid*l</td>
<td>in the middle of</td>
<td>&lt; Du middle ’middle’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ron</td>
<td>around</td>
<td>&lt; Du rond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12.3:** Locative prepositions without *na*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>na</th>
<th>locative</th>
<th>&lt; ? Po na ‘in.DET.F’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)asta/-u</td>
<td>behind</td>
<td>&lt; Du achter, E after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)bini</td>
<td>into, inside</td>
<td>&lt; Du binnen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)biti</td>
<td>outside</td>
<td>&lt; Du buiten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)bo(no)</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>&lt; Du boven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afø (fa(n))</td>
<td>in front of</td>
<td>&lt; na + Du voor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a) molec</td>
<td>below</td>
<td>&lt; Du omlaag (dialectal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)obu</td>
<td>onto, over</td>
<td>&lt; Du over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)ondæ/-u</td>
<td>under</td>
<td>&lt; Du onder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12.4:** Locative prepositions with *na*.

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³ See also [3231: 28 a gooi em *na Meddel* onder sender], where the locative noun is followed by the preposition *onder*, resulting in ‘in the midst among them’.
12.4 Atlantic *na* and Possible Substrate Influence

12.4.1 Atlantic *na*

As shown in (Boretzky 1983: 195) and further argued in detail in Corum (2015), there was a widely used Atlantic creole general locative preposition *na* in use. We find it in Portuguese lexifier creoles such as Principe and Guinée-Bissau, in Papiamentu, in the Surinamese creole cluster, as well as in VIDC. In Haitian, there is a form *nâ*, but this may be derived from French *dans* [dâ] ‘in’. Very likely, the form was part of a number of the pidgins that were used in the Atlantic slave trade.

In the Surinam creole cluster and in VIDC this *na* may be combined with a locative element, as noted above, to mark a configurational locative. This possibility is absent in Papiamentu and in Haitian. However, the location of the locative element varies. It can be post-noun phrase, resulting in [na + NP + X], in Saramaccan and optionally in early Sranan, and pre-noun phrase, resulting in [na + X + NP] both in earlier and later Sranan and in all varieties of VIDC.

12.4.2 Gbe

Gbe adpositional phrases are head-initial, with prepositions preceding their complement (Aboh 2010: 227; see also Ameka 2003)). Aboh assumes a simple structure as in (05b):

\[(05) \text{a. } Kofi } \text{zé } \text{kwie } \text{xlàn } \text{Ásib} \\
\quad \text{Kofi take-perf money to Asib} \\
\quad \text{‘Kofi sent money to Asiba’} \\
\text{b. } [PP ][\text{xlàn}] [\text{DP }\text{Ásibá}]\]

While prepositions have a verbal origin, the class of locative postpositions has a nominal origin. In inland dialects the possessive marker *fê* is required with them, but in coastal dialects this is absent. Thus the overall pattern is illustrated in (06):

\[(06) \text{Akaçi } \text{le } \text{kpl~a } (fê) \text{ ta.me} \\
\quad \text{lamp be_at.pres table-def (poss) above} \\
\quad \text{‘The lamp is above the table.’ (Ameka and Essegbey, 2006: 363).}\]

12.4.3 Akan

In Akan the locative preposition (07b) also functions as a locative verb (07a):

\[(07) \text{a. } \text{ɔ-wo } \text{Eugene} \\
\quad \text{3sg-be.at Eugene} \\
\quad \text{‘He is in Eugene.’} \\
\text{b. } \text{o hun } \text{no } \text{wɔ } \text{Eugene} \\
\quad \text{ipl see 3pl in Eugene} \\
\quad \text{‘We saw them in Eugene.’ (Payne 1997: 87)}\]

As a preposition, it cannot receive person marking.

In addition, there are postpositions to mark a specific configurational location:

\[(08) \text{Ntoma no } \text{señ ahoma no } \text{so} \\
\quad \text{Cloth det hang rope det top} \\
\quad \text{‘The cloth is/hangs on the clothes line.’ (Ofori 2006: 156)}\]
Variation in Preposition Use in the Virgin Islands Dutch Creole (VIDC) Cluster

We will briefly mention a few aspects of locative preposition usage in Dutch, drawing on the corpus of captured letters.

12.5 Dutch (17/18th c): Letters

The Dutch adpositional system is far too complicated to describe here in any detail. There are at least three categories of elements involved:

- pre- or postpositions (where the latter are often directional in modern Dutch)
- adverbs, which are often morphologically complex (at least diachronically) and contain a be- prefix and an –en suffix.
- particles of the verb, which can be separated from it as the verb appears in second position

Some examples are given in Table 12.5.

12.5.2 Naar Boven in 18th Century Dutch

One possibility is that naar boven in 18th century Dutch was a model for na bobo. It is often used directionally, as in (10) or translocationally, as in (11).

(10) zo dat wij (...) genootzaakt waaren na boven te gaan.
so that we forced were to go
so that we (...) were forced to go upstairs. (to the deck)

(Cape of Good Hope, May 31, 1781) NAAR + BOVEN: ‘upstairs’

(11) ons leger met den Prins van orangie (...) is naer boven int
our army with the Prince of Orange is up in.the

Lant van keulen om de france daer te doen verhuijsen
Land of Cologne for the French there to make move

‘Our army with the Prince of Orange (...) is up in the country of Cologne to make the French move there.’ (Hoorn, November 30, 1672)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre/postposition</th>
<th>adverb</th>
<th>particle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>op/over ‘on’</td>
<td>boven ‘above’</td>
<td>op-bellen ‘phone’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uit ‘out’</td>
<td>buiten ‘outside’</td>
<td>uit-steken ‘stick out’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in ‘in’</td>
<td>binnen ‘inside’</td>
<td>in-kopen ‘to shop’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beneden ‘beneath’</td>
<td>ne(d)er ‘down’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12.5: Simplified schematic overview of the Dutch adposition system.
12.5.3 The Preposition op in 18th Century Dutch

The preposition *op* ‘on’ is frequently used, and may be a very general locative, as in the following two examples:

(12) Sr. Pieter Cnoll Coopman woonende in het
Sr. P. C. merchant residing in the
Fort op Batavia.
Fort on Batavia (Hoorn, 1672)
‘Mr. Pieter Cnoll merchant residing in the Fort in Batavia.’

(13) Wiens vader predicaat is in den classis van
whose father preacher is in the classis from
Alckmaar tot Egmont op zee
Alkmaar to Egmont on see (Hoorn, 1672)
‘whose father is a preacher in the church region from Alkmaar to Egmont aan Zee.’

12.6 VIDC (18th c)

12.6.1 The Earliest Sources

In the materials of Von Zinzendorf (1739) we find standard Dutch examples such as (14), where *boven* is nominal:

(14) God zegen all met segen van *boven*
‘God bless all with blessing from above.’

However, there are also some much more creole-like data. In the following *na* co-occurs with *op* in the same sentence, recalling the generalized *op* in the 18th century letters:

(15) Die tyd mi a wes *na* Poppo op Africa
then 1SG PST be LOC Poppo on Africa
‘Then I was in Poppo in Africa.’

In the first printed translation of the VIDC hymns (1765) we find the complex preposition that later became common. Notice this does not mean ‘above of’ here, but ‘on’.

(16) Mee joel Sabbath *na* bovo die Stoel van joe Vader,
with 2SG Sabbath LOC-ABOVE DET chair of 2SG Father
‘With/and your Sabbath on the Chair of your Father’

However, we also find the simplex preposition *boven*:

(17) Noe Joe God *bove* allemaal, geloofd *na* Eewigheid!
now 2SG God above all praised LOC eternity
‘Now you(r) God above all, praised in eternity!’

12.6.2 VIDC: First Translation of Gospel Harmony (Before 1780)

In the first translation of the Gospel Harmony (around 1773, before 1780) we find productive use of the complex preposition, sometimes used adverbially as a directional, as in (18), sometimes as a true preposition, as in (19) and (20).
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(18) Sender a loop na-boven na Jerusalem
3PL PST go LOC-above naar/LOC Jerusalem
‘They went up to Jerusalem.’ German source: hinauf

(19) Ons Tata sender a ka bed.aan na-boven deese Berg
1PL father 3PL PST PRF worship LOC-above this mountain
‘Our fathers had worshipped on this mountain.’ German source: auf

(20) maar a wees alltid Dag en Nacht na-bovo die Berg-en
but PST be always day and night LOC-above DET mountain-PL
‘but . . . was always day and night on the mountains.’

12.6.3 VIDC 18th: op

However, the translations also contain cases of the more Dutch-like preposition op. In (21) and (22) it could be part of a fixed Dutch expression:

(21) Vor set ons Voët[-“t”] sender op die Pad van Vrede (321: 5)
for put 1PL foot 3PL on DET path of peace
‘to put our feet on the path of peace’

(22) eer die Mensch Soon sal sitt op die Troon (322: 81)
before DET man son FUT sit on DET throne
‘before the Son of Man shall sit on the Throne’

However, in (23) there is an apparent contrast between op, which is supra-locative, and the more general locative na:

(23) die a see: Op die Berg-en (na Rama)
DET PST say on DET mountain-s LOC Rama
‘He said: in the mountains at Rama.’

In some cases, there appears to be use of op as a calque on the German original auf in a translation:

(24) die a wees duis=ter op die Afgrond. (325a: 1)
3SG PST COP dark on DET abyss
‘There was darkness above/in the abyss.’ (Finster auf der Tiefe, Luther 1912)

12.6.4 Variation in 18th Century Use of Naboven

There appears to be variation in the use of naboven in the 18th century materials. The manuscript for the translation of the Old Testament (325, Job 20: 11), presented alternatives:

(25) En leei met em {op|naboven} die Stof.
and lay with 3SG on|LOC.above DET dust
‘and lay with him on the dust.’

The variation is of two kinds: variation in the forms encountered, and variation in the meaning of the expression. In the Gospel Harmony manuscripts 321 and 322 we find naboven, na boven, nabovo, na bovo, and in 3231 and 3232 naboven with the alternatives boven, boven op.
12.6.5 The Adverb/Preposition Boven in Later Texts

In later texts we also find the use of bare *boven*, possibly under English influence:

(26) Wat ben *boven* die, dat ben van die Quaat
what COP above that, that COP from/of DET Evil (321: 25)
‘What is above of it, is from the Evil’ (English Gospel Harmony, Lieberkühn 1771: ‘cometh of Evil’)

(27) Die Jünger no\ben *boven* si Baas
DET disciple NEG\COP above 3.POSS master (321: 25)
‘The disciple is not above his master’ (English Gospel Harmony 1771)

(28) en a staan *boven* over die Plaats
and PST stand above over DET place
‘and stood above of the place’ (3231: 7)
(English Gospel Harmony 1771: ‘stood over where (...’)

12.6.6 Distribution in Texts in the 18th Century Materials

The distribution of the locative prepositions is presented in Table 12.6.

It is striking that in these materials the most frequent locative marker, by far, is *op*, both locational and directional. The combination *na-boven* and its variants is relatively infrequent, though more frequent in the earlier than in the later translations. Bare *boven* is not frequent, and is sometimes used adverbially. *Bovenop* always has a clear supra-locative interpretation in these materials.

It should be borne in mind that the general locative creole preposition *na* is much more frequent than these alternatives, as shown in Table 12.7:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>locational</th>
<th>directional</th>
<th>adverbial</th>
<th>locational</th>
<th>directional</th>
<th>adverbial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Before 1780</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boven</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>op</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bovenop</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na boven, naboven</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1790–95</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>3231</td>
<td>322</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boven</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>op</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bovenop</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na boven, naboven</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12.6: The distribution of the locative prepositions in the 18th century materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All na</th>
<th>#na#</th>
<th>#na# LOC</th>
<th>#na# DIR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>321 (before 1780)</td>
<td>940</td>
<td>511</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3232 (about 1795)</td>
<td>972</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12.7: The occurrence of locative *na* in some of the 18th century materials.

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4 The # mark spaces is the original manuscript.
The preposition *na* can be both locational and directional. In 3232 locative *na* is often replaced by *in* ‘in’ or *op* ‘on’. The use of *na* should be studied separately because of its multifunctional use and high frequency.

### 12.6.7 Alternatives in the Texts Used

As pointed out in Van Rossem (2017), an interesting perspective on preposition choice in the 18th century texts is gained from the practice of providing several alternatives, reflecting the struggle of the translators in choosing between different varieties, vernacular creole or more standard, and remaining faithful to the original text. An example is the following:

(29) mi Tegenparteyder fonk met *s*i* Oogo {na[op]} mi. (325c: Job 16)

1sg opponent sparkle with 3sg.pos eye loc 1sg

‘My adversary sparkles with his eyes upon me.’

(Luther 1912: funkelt mit seinen Augen auf mich)

Here the German original has *auf* and the translator is choosing between *op* and *na*.

Alternatives found are listed below. All appear only once in the entire Clarin-NEHOL Corpus, unless otherwise indicated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Variants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>op</td>
<td>met, na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na</td>
<td>op, naboven, tot, op, van</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The preposition *op* is often replaced by *na*, but also by many other prepositions, suggesting its wide spread as an all purpose oblique in at least some varieties of 18th century VIDC.

### 12.7 The 20th Century VIDC Materials

#### 12.7.1 General Overview

The main form in the texts collected by de Josselin de Jong (1926) (although there is considerable variation in the form) is supra-locative preposition(s) {((n)a)bo(no)}, besides the extremely frequent general locative and directional *na*, of course. An example:

(30) mi ki ju sit **abo** do stul nou

1sg see 2sg sit on det chair now

‘I see you sitting on the chair now.’ (dJdJ 1926:67, Roberts)

Thus we find the following forms, as listed in Table 12.8

In Nelson (1936) only *bo* is found.6

There does not appear to be any functional specialization of any of these prepositional form variants. The main contrast with forms with or without preceding *(n)a* (a has developed out of *na*)

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5 Other examples are 321: 45: JESus a wees alleenig op die Land, en no a ka kom tot sender (na[op die Bood.]) [321: h.3: En Petrus a kik sterk op em met Johannes, en a see: Kik /op[na/ ons.] [325c: 67: En si Gebeenden moet betaal si verborgen S"..." en leei met em (op[naboven]) di Stof, where Luther has: und sie werden sich mit ihm in die Erde legen.

6 Den Besten and Van Rossem (2013): 15: on - bo, 909: Put something on the table[+]< / > - Du th’got bo th’ tafl., 1127: Wipe your feet on the mat. – Fek yo fot bo di mat., 1129: The fowl (hen) is there on the roof of the house. – Di hundu bin da bo di hus., 1130: It has flown upon the house. – Ka fik bo di hus
Table 12.8: Morpho-phonological variants of *na bono* in the 20th century materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bo/bu</th>
<th>142</th>
<th>bono</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abo</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>nabono</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nabo</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

is with *na > a*. The preposition [a] marks location in a broad sense, and goal in a broad sense, [bo] marks supralocation.7 A further indication that there is no functional specialization of individual form variants is the finding that they alternate in a wide variety of contexts, including cases where they co-occur idiomatically with specific predicates, such as *wak* ‘wait’:

(31) bli da staan werán lo wak bo Bru Hon
stay there stand again IPFV wait on brother dog

‘[he] stopped there again, waiting for Brother Dog’

(dJdJ 1926:51, Roberts) (cf. Du wachten op)

(32) ju kaa listáá mi lo wak nabono ju
2SG PRF let 1SG IPFV wait on 2SG

‘You have kept me waiting for you.’

(dJdJ 1926:25, Prince)

Rather, there is individual variation, since Prince is the only one of De Josselin de Jong’s nine informants to use *nabono* and uses it wherever others use *(a)bo*

The items *op* (< Du op) and *abobo* (< Du boven) occur as adverbs as well. Furthermore, *op* can occur as a particle, so that we can double *op*:

(33) Di kabáí a lep op op a himúl. Motion
det horse PST leap up up LOC sky

‘The horse leapt up towards the sky.’

(dJdJ 1926:15, Joshua)

(34) jaa, ju kaa ho, wa do here abobo kaa see: Motion/location
yes 2SG PRF hear what DET lord above PRF say

‘Yes, you heard, what the Lord above said’

(dJdJ 1926:52, Roberts)

Note that the two are different in meaning *Op* is always upwards motion/direction; *abobo* can be used for both.

As noted, *op* often occurs as a verb particle, in the case of *dink op* ‘remember’, ‘think of’, *op* has fused with the verb and phonologically eroded; but also newly replaced by *bo* ‘on’.8

(35) Ham see, am no kam dingkóó.
3SG say 3SG NEG can remember

‘He said, he could not remember.’

(dJdJ 1926:18)

(36) di frou parat a fraa di man as am nu kan
DET woman parrot PST ask DET man if 3SG NEG can

**ding** bo weni
think on when

---

7 Den Besten (letter den Besten, 2 November 1993, see also Den Besten and Van Rossem 2013): “Isabella Sylvester’s *bo* in the sense of ‘on (the roof of)’ and ‘upon’ in two sentences said by her, however, most probably does not reflect Danish *paa* (på). It derives from Dutch *boven* via Creole Dutch *abo/abobo/nabobo*, which consists of the all-purpose locative preposition *na* and *boho* (from Du. *boven*).”

8 In the 18th century materials we find *dink op na* or *dink op*: [321: 5: en vor dink na si heilig Verbond], [322: 5: en dink op na si heilig Verbond], [3232: 5: en a dink op na Si heilig Verbond].
‘The female parrot asked the male one if he could not think of/remember when...’
(dJdJ 1926:41)

12.7.2 Expression of Source:

While the element *na* has many locative uses, it cannot be used as an expression of source by itself. By contrast *fa(n)* can:

(37) Ju fo bli een jaa mi ons fo ju nee amfa ons
    2SG mod stay one year with 1PL before 2SG take 3SG of 1PL
    You must stay with us for one year before you take her from us.
    (dJdJ 1926:14, Joshua)

The combination *fa bo* can mark supralocational source:

(38) A^n no kan kri di jung fa boo shi rigi.
    3SG NEG mod getDET boy of on 3s.poss back
    ‘It [a horse] couldn’t get the boy from his back.’ (dJdJ 1926:15, Joshua)

Finally, there also be an elative meaning added in (it) *fa bo*:

(39) Fo ma se paséé di wurum kri teki sinpiwiri,
    COMPL make say pass DET worm get piece aloe. vera
    shini di hopo a twee, krou alma di grun slim it fa bo di.
    cut 3.INAN open LOC two scratch all DET green slime out of on 3.INAN
    ‘To make the worms go away, get a piece of aloe vera, cut it open in two, scratch all the
    green slime out of it.’
    (dJdJ 1926:66)

12.7.3 Distribution in Texts in the 20th Century Materials

Table 12.9 gives an overview of the distribution in the materials of De Josselin de Jong (1926):

It is clear that the form *op*, which is so common in the 18th century materials, is no longer used as a preposition. Variants of *na bono* are now just about the only forms used. It is clear that the wide variety of morpho-phonological variants of *na bono* is also reflected at the individual level.

Table 12.10 presents use of the supra-locative prepositions in dJdJ 1926 per speaker, showing that there was considerable variation (Van Sluijs 2016).

12.8 Discussion, Conclusions and Suggestions for Further Research

The general use of reduced variants of *na bono* in the 20th century materials, to the detriment of *op* and *boven*, which were used with some frequency in the 18th century texts, attests to the strong influence that the Atlantic pidgin and the West African languages had in the genesis of VIDC in its vernacular form used by the descendants of the enslaved Africans. The Atlantic pidgin contributed the general use of *na*, which is pervasive in VIDC, while the West African languages contributed the combination of *na* with a specific location marker to indicate configurational supra-location. The Dutch strong form *boven* and the generalized vernacular Dutch location marker *op* all but disappeared in the 20th century materials, and only survived as adverbs or verb particles.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>locational</th>
<th>directional</th>
<th>adverbial</th>
<th>particle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ config</td>
<td>− config</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Op</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((n)a)bo(no)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>104</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bobu</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abobo</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12.9: Distribution of supra-locative prepositions in the 20th century materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bo</th>
<th>(it) fa bo</th>
<th>*</th>
<th>(n)abo</th>
<th>**</th>
<th>(na)bono</th>
<th>bobu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+dir</td>
<td>−dir</td>
<td>−dir</td>
<td>−dir</td>
<td>+dir</td>
<td>−dir</td>
<td>−dir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+con</td>
<td>-con</td>
<td>+con</td>
<td>-con</td>
<td>+con</td>
<td>-con</td>
<td>+con</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testamark</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T’mark/X</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joseph</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
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<td>Christian</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roberts</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Joshua uses fa bo, Testamark/X and Roberts it fa bo
**Testamark and Roberts each use nabono once
***Joshua uses bono, Prince nabono

Table 12.10: Use of the supra-locative prepositions in the 20th century materials per speaker.

Thus, from the available forms in the original feature pool, only a few elements survived as prepositions. It requires detailed analysis to see whether all these forms were really part of the creole in the first place, or simply impositions from European languages by the missionaries, and whether the vernacular Dutch of the Virgin Islands was clearly separate from the creole (Van Rossem 2017).

Even the article length discussion of a singular construction, supra-locative prepositions, barely does justice to the data. Much more needs to be said about the specific meanings conveyed, and the philological interpretation of the material. It would also be useful to consider the other configurational prepositions involving na + location. Do they show the same patterns of adaptation and selection as nabono?

Casting the net even wider, it would be very interesting to compare the data in VIDC with partly similar, partly different developments in other creole languages, including Berbice Dutch Creole, the Surinam Creole cluster, and Papiamentu.

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9 There are two cases where op is indeterminate/ambiguous between being a directional preposition, or a verb particle.
10 Here, op is followed by/co-occurs with a directional AP headed by preposition a, and as a whole follows op as a verb particle expressing upwards motion. As an adverb, op could be said to be some kind of reduplication.
11 In six of the thirty occurrences of op as a verb particle, it expresses upwards motion, just as English ‘up’ (as in ‘he jumped up’). In the other twenty-four occurrences op occurs in more or less idiomatic expressions, such as hou op ‘stop’ (< Dutch hou op ‘stop’, lit. hold up), tu op ‘put away, store’ (lit., ‘close up’); tu ‘close’ < Dutch toe ‘closed’), fn op mi ‘encounter’ (lit. ‘find up with’), and cases where op has a destructive meaning, as in ru op ‘wreck up’, skee op “tear up”, sni op “cut up”, trample op “trample up”.

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Acknowledgements

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