Gullah Grammar Sketch
David B Frank
SIL International

0. Introduction

The name Gullah pertains to a language and a culture with a distinct heritage centered in the southeastern US along the coastal areas of South Carolina and Georgia, but extending into the southern coastal area of North Carolina and the northern coastal area of Florida. The name Geechee is preferred as a cultural identifier in some places, particularly in Georgia; and to show the unity of the culture, the combined name Gullah Geechee is now often used. Probably the name Gullah came from that of the Gola people in coastal western Africa, whose language and culture pre-date the modern names of the countries they still inhabit, namely Liberia and Sierra Leone.  

The first published application of that name to a language is John Bennett's 1908 article in the South Atlantic Quarterly titled "Gullah: A Negro Patois," which starts out, "There is a patois spoken in the mainland and island regions, bordering the South Atlantic Seaboard, so singular in its sound as constantly to be mistaken for a foreign language. It is found in no other portion of the South. Ordinary negro dialect found in books has no resemblance to it." In 1926, Reed Smith wrote a booklet called "Gullah," published as Bulletin of the University of South Carolina number 190. He wrote, "The term Gullah is a little-known word for a less-known people. It is applied to a special group-type of Negroes, limited historically and geographically to the sea-islands and the narrow tide-water strip bordering the coast counties of South Carolina and Georgia and a small section of north-east Florida. The language spoken by these Negroes constitutes a patois unique among the dialects of the United States."

The most important and most detailed exposition of the Gullah language is Lorenzo Dow Turner's 1949 landmark work Africanisms in the Gullah Dialect, based on a couple of decades of fieldwork and research. Turner was the first to recognize Gullah for what it was: a creole language with roots in West Africa. He wrote in his preface, "Gullah is a creolized form of English revealing survivals from many of the African languages spoken by the slaves who were brought to South Carolina and Georgia during the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth. These survivals are most numerous in the vocabulary of the dialect but can be observed also in its sounds, syntax, morphology, and intonation.... The purpose of this study is to record the most important of these Africanisms and to list their equivalents in the West African languages." We are indebted to Turner for collecting many Gullah names and other words and painstakingly tracing their origin back to West African sources, and particularly for the data he includes in his book in the form of narratives that he recorded from Gullah speakers and wrote phonetically, adding his translation of them. He even left sound recordings of these narratives.

The existence of Gullah as a language can be attributed to the fact that West Africans from various language groups were forcibly brought together in what became the United States, and some, because of their knowledge of rice culture back in their homeland, were set up to work relatively independently in the southeastern coastal area to produce rice. Without a language in common, of necessity the enslaved Africans created a new language based in the input they had available. Gullah is a creole language, that is, it is a language formed in an identifiable period of time—typically in the context of colonization and enslavement—to serve the need for communication when there is no language in common. Creoles can be distinguished from pidgins, which are more ad hoc in nature and are nobody's mother tongue. Prototypically, what starts off as a pidgin develops into a creole when it is passed on to children as their mother tongue and becomes the language of a community, taking on a more definite form in the process. Gullah is considered an English Creole, as opposed, for example, to a French or Portuguese or Dutch Creole, in that among the languages that went into its formation, English was politically dominant and contributed to the biggest and most recognizable portion of its vocabulary. The purest, most distinctive form of a creole language is in technical terms called the basilect, and in the case of Gullah, the basilectal form is known as "deep Gullah." As the original formation of such a language is known as creolization,
so also when a creole language is in prolonged contact with its lexifier language, it typically undergoes a process called **decreolization** whereby it gradually loses some of its distinctiveness and comes to resemble more its lexifier language, in the case of Gullah being English.

Thus Gullah is in a class with other languages that arose in similar circumstances, called creole languages. There are a number of English, French and other creole languages that developed especially, but not exclusively, in the Atlantic part of the New World, as seen in the following map.

Creole languages are typically stigmatized, considered not to be real languages, symptoms of ignorance, bastardizations of “real” languages, labeled as “broken.” Older speakers can tell stories of being disciplined for speaking “broken English,” or even of having the Gullah “beaten out of them.” Parents, hoping for a better life for their children, have avoided passing the language on to their children or even exposing them to it for fear it will hinder their thinking and ability to communicate. English was perceived as the language of upward mobility.

The 2010 US census listed the number of speakers of Gullah as 350, which is a completely unreliable, presumably self-reported, figure. No proper language survey has been conducted to count the number of speakers of Gullah, and it is likely that none ever will get done. But besides the stigmatization problem, another complication is that due to the decreolization process, there is no clear way to mark where Gullah leaves off and English takes over. Having said that, there are markers of Gullah’s distinctiveness as a language, as I will present in the following discussion.

There is the issue of bilingualism and code switching. Different language varieties might be used in different contexts. Even if someone is recognized as being a Gullah speaker, it might not be clear whether that person speaks Gullah as a first language and English as a second language, or vice-versa. Due both to normal processes of language change and due to stigmatization, the encroachment of English means that Gullah is a doubly-endangered language.

But one should not take from this that Gullah is not appreciated as a language. Gullah has always had its context where it is not only been needed for communication but also valued for its richness of expression. It is a strong marker of cultural identity and social solidarity that people may hide at times from outsiders but do not want to lose. Over the past few decades, even attitudes toward Gullah as publicly expressed have changed dramatically. The publication of the New Testament of the Bible in Gullah has played some role in this shift in attitudes. Concern has been expressed among people who self-identify as of Gullah heritage that a valuable cultural treasure is in danger of being lost. In 2009 the Gullah Geechee Cultural Heritage Corridor Commission conducted a series of twenty-one public meetings along the Gullah Geechee Corridor and asked, “What are the three features of the Gullah Geechee culture that you think must be protected, preserved or continued? What must

---

5 I was told of one person who denied being a Gullah speaker, when asked by an interviewer. When the interviewer asked someone else about this man, whether he wasn’t a Gullah speaker, the response was, “Oh, yeah, he a Gullah speaker. He speak it real bad.”
remain for future generations?" The most common answer was “the language,” “the speech itself,” “our original language,” “the idioms of the Gullah Geechee need to be taught,” “oral traditions,” “the language, storytelling.” This paper presents some of the ways Gullah is distinctive as a language in terms of its linguistic categories, constructions, and usages.

Note that the orthography used in this paper for writing Gullah is adapted from English orthography. Wherever the pronunciation of a Gullah word is significantly different from the pronunciation of the corresponding English word, the spelling is adapted to reflect the Gullah pronunciation. Examples are *nough* ‘enough’, *cona* ‘corner’, *deysef* ‘themselves’, and *chullun* ‘children’. It is an imperfect system. A danger in writing Gullah this way is that it might contribute to the misimpression that Gullah is a corrupted form of English. The advantage is that this orthographic convention makes written Gullah accessible to both English speakers and Gullah speakers who are not linguists but who are literate in English. Occasionally in this paper Gullah words are written phonetically, with square brackets [], or phonemically, with slashes //.

1. Phonology

Each language has its distinctive sound system. The phones and phonemes of Gullah are not the same as those of English, nor the possible consonant clusters and syllable shapes, nor the intonation. Virtually all Gullah words are taken from English or some other language, but in the borrowing, phonological adjustments are made so that the words fit into the natural sound patterns.

### Gullah vowel phonemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>front</th>
<th>central</th>
<th>back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near-close</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>ʊ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close-mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open-mid</td>
<td>ε</td>
<td>ð</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td>ɑ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- diphthongs: ɑi, ɑʊ, ɔi
- nasal vowels: ẽ, ə̃, õ, ɑ̃

### Gullah consonant phonemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bilabial</th>
<th>labiodental</th>
<th>alveolar</th>
<th>postalveolar</th>
<th>palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stop</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ɳ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fricative</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affricate</td>
<td>tf</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cʧ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateral</td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approximant</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gullah Grammar Sketch
English has several fricative phonemes that Gullah lacks: the voiced bilabial fricative /v/, and the voiceless interdental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/. As a result, when English words were borrowed into Gullah, the English /v/ was manifested in Gullah as /b/ or /w/, as in hab ‘have’, dob ‘dove’, willage ‘village’, wittle (or bittle), ‘victuals’. English words with a voiced or voiceless th sound correspond to Gullah words with a /t/, /d/, or /z/, as in anything ‘anything’, dout ‘without’, and lezza ‘leather’. Gullah does not have the [a] vowel phoneme that some dialects of English have, so, for example, wod in Gullah corresponds to English ‘word’. It is normal for languages to adapt the pronunciation when borrowing words from another language, even if they do not change the spelling.

The possible consonant clusters and syllable shapes in Gullah overlap with those of English but are not exactly the same. Though Gullah has an /r/ sound, it does not have it in the post-vocalic position; that is, it occurs in the onset of a syllable but not in the coda, as exemplified by Gullah critta ‘creature’ and demarra maanin ‘tomorrow morning’. Clusters of /str/ and /ftr/ are not allowed at the beginning of a syllable in Gullah but other clusters are allowed, as in scrange ‘strange’, scraight ‘straight’, swimp ‘shrimp’.

The intonation of Gullah is markedly different from English. Outsiders hearing the language remark that it has a melodic quality and for the most part they cannot understand what was said. It sounds like the foreign language that it is. If the only differences between Gullah and English were that Gullah took English words and gave them an odd pronunciation, we might be inclined to describe Gullah as a dialect of English rather than as a distinct language. But we are looking at what makes Gullah structurally distinctive, starting with the phonology. The distinctiveness of Gullah becomes even more clear when we examine the grammar.

### 2. Word Morphology

One of the most important things to note about Gullah word structure is that words are basically monomorphemic. Languages of the world vary in morphological complexity, from isolating languages like Gullah that have one morpheme per word, to agglutinative languages that attach subject and object markers to a verb, making it into a complete sentence by itself. English is somewhere in between. Gullah contrasts with English, where it is common for words to have complex stems and inflectional or derivational affixes. Gullah words do not take prefixes and suffixes and are not broken down into smaller meaningful parts. Nouns have an invariant form and do not take a plural suffix. Verbs in Gullah, too, keep a consistent shape are not declined or inflected for tense, person or number. That is not to say that Gullah sentences do not keep track of time, or that knowing when something took place as expressed in Gullah is all a matter of context and guesswork, as some outsiders have claimed who do not understand the system. There is a very definite system at work, different from the system at work in English. This will be explained more completely in the next section.

Gullah verbs fall into two classes, which we label as stative and nonstative (see Frank 2007). It is not just a matter of semantics. Stative verbs such as lab ‘love’ or hab ‘have’ behave somewhat differently in relation to transitive or nontransitive nonstative verbs such as nyam ‘eat’ or wok ‘work’. Again, the significance of this difference will be explained more completely in the next section. This works in Gullah like the stative/active verb system that Welmers (1973:346) describes for Niger-Congo languages such as Yoruba: “For statives, a reference to present time may use the same construction that refers to past time if an active verb is used.... In Yoruba, the construction in question is the simplest construction in the language, consisting of only a pronoun and a verb root.”

Gullah has a symmetrical pronoun system, with a second-person plural pronoun oona (or another pronunciation such as hunna) that apparently comes from an African language and is shared with other Caribbean English Creole languages such as Jamaican. Gender is not distinguished in the Gullah pronoun set, which contributes to its symmetricality: the Gullah pronoun e corresponds to English he/she/it.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SUBJECTIVE</th>
<th></th>
<th>OBJECTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>singular</td>
<td>plural</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person</td>
<td>ya</td>
<td>oona</td>
<td>ya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>dey</td>
<td>um</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Gullah pronominal system

There are separate but overlapping subjective and objective pronoun sets. Unlike the English /me/my distinction, Gullah does not have a different, third set of pronouns for possessive. In Gullah, for both nouns and pronouns, possession is indicated by syntactic position. This will be further explained in the next section.
3. Phrase and Sentence Structure

Gullah has its own rules of grammar, and in this section we will look into distinctive noun phrase, verb phrase and clause structures in the language. The noun phrase consists of a head noun optionally preceded by various modifiers—specifier, number, adjectives—and optionally followed by a plural marker and/or a relative clause.

\[ \text{NP} = \text{predeterminer + specifier + number + adjective + NOUN + plural} \]

All parts of the noun phrase are optional except for the head noun itself. The specifier slot can be filled by a definite or indefinite article (a/de), or by a noun or pronoun or an embedded NP. If a noun or pronoun appears in this position before the head noun, then its role is one of possession. Here are some examples:

- a nyoo man
  - ‘a young man’
- seben leetle chullun
  - ‘seven little children’
- de biggity preacha
  - ‘the conceited preacher’
- all me fren dem
  - ‘all my friends’
- ya wife sista dem
  - ‘your wife’s sisters’
- de shree black hoss dem
  - ‘the three black horses’

The third-person objective pronoun dem serves as the plural marker in Gullah. It is not just coincidence that the plural marker takes the form of the third-person plural pronoun. This pattern has been noted as a tendency for creole languages in general. For example, in Haitian French Creole, the third-person plural pronoun is yo, and yo goes after the head noun in Haitian to make the noun plural.

It has already been noted that Gullah verbs are not declined or inflected for tense or for number agreement with the subject. The Gullah verb phrase is distinctive in that, instead of verbs being marked for tense with a suffix like the English –ed or aspect like the English –ing to denote time and continuity, separate words—particles—go before the verb to mark tense, mood and aspect. The following is the set of preverbal tense-mood-aspect markers in Gullah:

- been: anterior tense
- gwine: prospective mood
- da: imperfective aspect
- done: completive aspect

All four of these tense-mood-aspect markers would rarely, if ever, co-occur in the same verb phrase, but the relative order is as follows:

\[ \text{VP} = \text{done + been + da + gwine + VERB} \]

The combination of been + da is common and takes the form beena. We have also already noted that two categories of verbs are stative and nonstative, which have different syntactic behaviors.

Before giving examples of verb phrases, it is necessary to reintroduce the distinction made in the previous section between stative and nonstative verbs, since the two sub-classes behave differently with respect to time reference. Gullah works basically the same way that Welmers (op cit) noted for Niger-Congo languages, whereby stative verbs have a default time reference of present state, but nonstative verbs (which Welmers calls active verbs) have a default time reference of past. This fact has been a cause of confusion for some outsiders to the language, who have incorrectly concluded that there are no rules for time reference in Gullah; it is all a matter of context. On the contrary, there is a very definite system at work, which becomes more evident once the distinction is made between stative and nonstative.

In order to show how the verb phrase works in Gullah, it is necessary to have two charts—one for stative verbs and one for nonstative. Some examples of stative verbs in Gullah are hab ‘have’, wahn ‘want’, lob ‘love’, tink ‘think’, and know ‘know’. Again, the distinction is based not just on semantics, nor on transitivity, but on how this sub-class of verbs behaves in the context of the larger verb phrase to denote time reference:

- A hab a heapa money.
  - ‘I have a lot of money.’
- E hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she has a lot of money.’
- E been hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she had a lot of money.’
- E beena hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she used to have a lot of money.’
- E gwine hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she will have a lot of money.’
- E been gwine hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she was going to/would have a lot of money.’
- E done hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she already has a lot of money.’
- E done been hab a heapa money.
  - ‘He/she already had a lot of money.’

**Stative verb phrase construction**
Note that the imperfective aspect marker da does not normally go before a stative verb, with the exception of the combination of been + da = beena. The explanation is that stative verbs do not need the addition of an imperfective aspect marker to make them present reference. This contrasts them with nonstative verbs, for which the simple, unmodified verb in the context of a declarative sentence has the default meaning of past time reference. The addition of the imperfect aspect da before a nonstative verb makes the time reference either present or timeless, e.g., Dev da go can mean either “They are (presently) going” or “They (usually) go.”

The tense marker been can be put before a nonstative verb, but in this case the meaning is not simply past, but what creolists call anterior tense. The term refers to a prior time. In the case of stative verbs, which have the default meaning of present, the addition of been before the verb makes the time reference past. For nonstative verbs, which are already by default past time reference, been before the verb makes it past-past, i.e., pluperfect. The following verb phrase chart, like the previous one, is taken from Frank 2007:162.

A gii ya de money. ‘I gave you the money.’
A da gii ya de money. ‘I give/am giving you the money.’
A been gii ya de money. ‘I had given you the money.’
A beena gii ya de money. ‘I was giving/used to give you the money.’
A gwine gii ya de money. ‘I will give you the money.’
A been gwine gii ya de money. ‘I was going to/would give you the money.’
A done gii ya de money. ‘I already gave/have already given you the money.’
A done been gii ya de money. ‘I had already given you the money.’

Nonstative verb phrase construction

The following are some examples of nonstative verbs in Gullah:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gullah</th>
<th>French Creole</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aks</td>
<td>‘to ask’</td>
<td>‘to expect’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>‘to bring’</td>
<td>‘to take’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceebe</td>
<td>‘to deceive’</td>
<td>‘to carry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>‘to come’</td>
<td>‘to walk’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cyaa</td>
<td>‘to carry’</td>
<td>‘to work’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>git</td>
<td>‘to get’</td>
<td>‘to sleep’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pick</td>
<td>‘to pick’</td>
<td>‘to hear’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tense marker been can be put before nonstative verbs, but in this case the meaning is not simply past, but what creolists call anterior tense. The term refers to a prior time. In the case of stative verbs, which have the default meaning of present, the addition of been before the verb makes the time reference past. For nonstative verbs, which are already by default past time reference, been before the verb makes it past-past, i.e., pluperfect. The following verb phrase chart, like the previous one, is taken from Frank 2007:162.

A gii ya de money. ‘I gave you the money.’
A da gii ya de money. ‘I give/am giving you the money.’
A been gii ya de money. ‘I had given you the money.’
A beena gii ya de money. ‘I was giving/used to give you the money.’
A gwine gii ya de money. ‘I will give you the money.’
A been gwine gii ya de money. ‘I was going to/would give you the money.’
A done gii ya de money. ‘I already gave/have already given you the money.’
A done been gii ya de money. ‘I had already given you the money.’

Nonstative verb phrase construction

The following are some examples of nonstative verbs in Gullah:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gullah</th>
<th>French Creole</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aks</td>
<td>‘to ask’</td>
<td>‘to expect’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>‘to bring’</td>
<td>‘to take’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceebe</td>
<td>‘to deceive’</td>
<td>‘to carry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>‘to come’</td>
<td>‘to walk’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cyaa</td>
<td>‘to carry’</td>
<td>‘to work’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>git</td>
<td>‘to get’</td>
<td>‘to sleep’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pick</td>
<td>‘to pick’</td>
<td>‘to hear’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A theme of this paper is that Gullah has much in common with other creole languages, not just in origin and sociolinguistic dynamics, but also in structure, while at the same time Gullah is structurally different from English in some key respects. Thus Gullah is not to be classified as an Indo-European—specifically West Germanic—language like English, but rather as a member of a different class of languages called creoles. To help make this point, a comparison is made between Gullah and another creole language with which this author is intimately familiar, Saint Lucian French Creole. The following table is copied from Frank 2007:164.

As a French Creole rather than an English Creole, almost all of the words of Saint Lucian Creole are different from Gullah, yet there are striking similarities in structure. In neither Gullah nor Saint Lucian Creole are the words declined or inflected with prefixes and suffixes. In Saint Lucian Creole and in Gullah, and in Creole languages in general, tense, mood and aspect are applied to verbs in the form of preverbal particles, and in the same sequence, and to denote the same time reference. The Saint Lucian Creole tense-mood-aspect markers ka, té, and kay correspond to Gullah da, been, and gwine for the meanings of progressive, anterior and prospective.

Turning our attention from noun and verb phrase structure to clause structure, we note that Gullah is an SVO language, meaning that clause subjects, verbs and objects normally occur in that order. English, too, is an SVO language, as are creole languages in general and many other languages such as Hausa, Arabic and Yoruba, though there are languages that have a different normal order like SOV or VSO, or may be unrestrained in the order of subjects, verbs and objects. As is the case with any language that lacks case marking on nouns to signal clause roles, having a well-established normal sequence within a clause is important for the interpretation of the clause.
What is especially interesting about Gullah clause structure is the copula construction. In fact there are three different copula constructions in Gullah that all correspond to just one in English using “is” as a copula verb. The first of these we call an equative clause, which has da as a copula verb. The equative clause involves two noun phrases—subject and complement—conjoined by da, as in the following examples:

**Equative Clause = NP + da + NP**

- *Ya da David.* ‘You are David.’
- *E da me fada.* ‘He is my father.’
- *Dis man da de leada.* ‘This man is the leader.’
- *Dis time yah da a ebit time.* ‘This time here is an evil time.’
- *Da God wok.* ‘[It] is God’s work.’
- *Who ya da?* ‘Who are you?’

One of the most obvious features of Gullah speech is that da is frequently heard, pronounced [də]. The same form is used both as a progressive aspect marker before nonstative verbs and as a copula verb itself.

The second type of copula construction in Gullah is the locative clause, which uses the locative copula dey, which means something like ‘is (located)’, and what comes after dey is an adverbial or a prepositional phrase that describes a location. Here are some examples:

**Locative Clause = NP + dey + NP**

- *E dey dey.* ‘He/she/it is there.’
- *Dey dey dey.* ‘They are there.’
- *We sista dem dey yah wid we.* ‘Our sisters are here with us.’
- *De cat dey een de house.* ‘The cat is in the house.’

Note that dey is used only in present reference. Been is used for past reference, same as with da.

In some contexts, Gullah has a null copula. Whereas an equative clause involves the copula da followed by a noun phrase, and a locative clause has the copula dey, a third type of copula construction in Gullah is the descriptive clause. In a Gullah descriptive clause, there is a subject noun phrase or pronoun followed by a complement in the form of an adjective or adjective phrase or a descriptive prepositional phrase that describes the subject.

**Descriptive Clause = NP + Adj/PP**

- *E nice.* ‘He/she/it is nice.’
- *Dem skeeta bad.* ‘Those mosquitoes are bad.’
- *E mo olda den me.* ‘He/she is older than I.’
- *Dat gyal purty down.* ‘That girl is quite attractive.’
- *Ya ain good fa nottin.* ‘You are not good for anything.’
- *E een a fambly way.* ‘She is in a family way (i.e., pregnant).’

In present time reference, the Gullah descriptive clause has no explicit copula verb, but Gullah equative, locative and descriptive clauses all share been as a past tense copula verb form.

### 4. Lexicon

Like any other language, Gullah has thousands of words; the number has not been calculated. Most Gullah words are borrowed from English, while some can be traced to various African languages. There are some words that have made their way into English by way of Gullah, such as “tote,” “mojo,” “gumbo,” “chigger,” “goober,” and “jukebox.” There have been attempts over the years to present Gullah word lists or simple dictionaries, the first appearing in 1888 as an appendix to Charles Colcock Jones Jr’s collection of *Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GLOSSARY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above, avenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agg, egg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All ob er suiten, quickly and unexpectedly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arter, after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrur, each, either</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As, ask</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bectite, baptism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bogue, to beg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barrou, broar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beber, beaver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedool, without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben, bend, bent, been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample from *Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast*, by Charles Colcock Jones Jr. (1888)
In 1922, newspaper publisher and politician Ambrose E. Gonzales, too, published a collection called The Black Border: Gullah Stories of the Carolina Coast (With a Glossary). Gonzales took a different approach to writing Gullah, using apostrophes to show where a Gullah word seems to be missing something in comparison with the English standard. He claimed to have documented 1700 Gullah words and names.  

More recently, the late Virginia Mixson Geraty published a sort of dictionary of the Gullah language under the title Gulluh Fuh Oonuh: A Guide to the Gullah Language, based on Gonzales (1922), using apostrophes to show where letters are “missing.”

A need remains for a proper Gullah dictionary, and a desire for such a dictionary has been expressed within the Gullah community. It would preferably be made with Gullah words spelled orthographically, but with phonetic pronunciations added. It should have parts of speech listed, and different senses of the words, illustrative sentences, and etymologies. It should include data from historical texts such as Turner (1949) and possibly Jones (1888) and Gonzales (1922), and also contemporary Gullah data. It should have cross-references to other similar dictionaries, including the Dictionary of American Regional English (Cassidy et al 1985), the Dictionary of Bahamian English (Holm and Shilling 1982) and the Dictionary of Carribean English Usage (Allsopp 2003). This author has made some steps toward compiling such a dictionary, and the following are some example entries:

---

6 It is possible to find a Websters Gullah-English Thesaurus Dictionary for sale online at www.amazon.com/Websters-Gullah-English-Thesaurus-Dictionary/dp/0497835053/. The author is listed as Philip M Parker, and the publication date 2008. It seems what Parker has done is harvest the words from Ambrose Gonzales’ 1922 Gullah glossary, without attribution, after the copyright expired. The information about Gullah in this “thesaurus dictionary” is unreliable.
ainty [ˈɛŋi] INTERJ. tag question: isn’t it (so)? didn’t it? doesn’t it? aren’t it?  
Dem wittle good fa sho, ainty? This food is really good, isn’t it? A gwine git dey oal, ainty? I am going to get there early, aren’t i? (See also ain, cyahn.) < English isn’t it.

bukra [ˈbʊkə] N. white person. (Compare Bahamian buckra ‘white man’ as attested in DBE; Caribbean backra ‘white person, white man’ as attested in DCEU.) < Efik mbakara ‘master’.

da [da] v. to be. Mista Green da me oncle. Mr. Green is my uncle. ADV. imperfective aspect marker. A da gii ya de money. I am giving you the money.

dem [dɛm] PRON. 1) third-person plural objective pronoun; them; those. Dat wa A tell dem yestiddy. That’s what I told them yesterday. Dem people ain hab nottin fa nyam. Those people don’t have anything to eat. 2) pluralizer, after a noun. De ooman dem ain say nottin. The women didn’t say anything. 3) and others. We see Mary dem oba ta de maakut. We saw Mary and the others over at the market. < English them.

demarra [dɛˈmæra] ADV. tomorrow. E da gwine dem demarra. She is going there tomorrow. (See also: yestiddy, taday, tareckly.) < English tomorrow.

down [daʊn] ADV. emphasizer: truly, quite, exceedingly. De beah been mad down. The bear was quite angry. A Gullah down. I am truly Gullah. E faddown an e been hut down. He fell down and was badly hurt. biggity down arrogant. (See also too, tommuch.)

jook [dʒʊk] v. to poke, stab. Dey jook um fa see ef e been dead. They poked it to see if it was dead. ADV. disorderly, disheveled, wicked, of ill repute. Ya ain fa go ta de jook jaint an listen ta dat music. You must not go to the juke joint and listen to that music. (Compare Bahamian jook ‘to poke, stab or wound (somebody or something)’ as attested in DBE; Caribbean jook, juck, juke ‘to poke, stab’ as attested in DCEU.) < Fulani jukka ‘to poke’.

nyam [nʌm] v. to eat. De boy nyam all the wittle cause e been dead. The boy ate all the food because he was quite hungry. (See also wittle.) < Fulani nyami ‘to eat’.

wensoneba [ˈwɛnsənebə] ADV. whenever. Wensoneba we de gwine dey, dey dey dey too. Whenever we go there, they are there too. (Syn: all time; see also whosoneba, wasononeba, weheba.) < English whenever.

5. Texts

Important collections of Gullah texts include Jones 1888 and Gonzales 1922, and especially the fourteen texts that Turner collected in 1932–33 and published in 1949, transcribed phonetically and with English translation. Turner made sound recordings of these published texts and other Gullah texts on aluminum and lacquer discs, which are archived at the Indiana University Archives of Traditional Music and were eventually digitized. The following narrative text, about an earthquake in 1886, was told by Rosina Cohen of Edisto Island, SC. It appears here in a slightly different form from how Turner presented it in his book, written here orthographically instead of phonetically.

Di Earthquake, told by Rosina Cohen (from Turner 1949:268)


Tell—disya same man weh I da stay dey now—him granfada say, “Oona stan still,” say, “I see—I see earthquake fo tiday.”

Dat was a night een August. I dohn know di date. I cyaan tell ya I kno di date, ka I ain know di date. I wohn lie, say I know di date, bot I know da August. An dey—it jes a go up come dong. An if ya hab wata, ya—if ya hab wata een ya pail, ebit bit—ebit bit taan oba. An e mek a big—wen di earthquake sorta little cease an ya go een di fiel, e gi you—e mek a big, wite—big, wite hole, like a grabe, like a grabe. An di sand wite! Now we fraid, ka dey say da gwine fall een on us. Dat dey di di earthquake now. Dat is di earthquake. An ya neba—dem bukra had fa mek we shut op dat hole. Dat is di earthquake—weh di earthquake big. Ya ondastan? Earthquake big dey, big dey. O, yes! earthquake big dey, big dey. O, yes! Earthquake big dey. Oo! Earthquake! Big earthquake! Oo!

My chillun all been big one. O, yes! Dey all been big one. Dey all hab dey sense. Dey all jes a cry. Why, da all rong dis section could I yeddyyi hoopin an holla—all rong, an so moanful. An Calwary couldn hole di people. Di chuch inside jes as tick; outside ebryting da cry: “O, Lawd! O, Lawd! We done! We ain know who tis.” Edward Whaley say: “No!” say, “I see disya ain gone kill ya, bot it is di earthquake.”

Den e fas sorta little null a little bit—sorta little null, ke ebryting da now gone sink dong, ya know. So e die so—di earthquake. Say da gwine dat a way. I tell ya, all right.
Here is another Gullah text, told by Leo Gaston of Coosawhatchee, SC, and recorded and transcribed by this author:

**Di Root Ooman, told by Leo Gaston**

Leh me tell ya a story. Is paat ob it een Gullah an paat ob it not. Dis happen een Coosawhatchee. It haffa do wid witchcraft as well. Okay?

Mista Jim—I’m not gonna say lass name, okay?—had a faam nex to Miss Rachel house. Di hog git out. So, Mista Jim raisin cain, tellin dem chirren dey betta come git dey hog. So Miss Rachel sen dem boys oba deh ta git di hog.

Mista Jim raise cain an kick one a di boys. So Miss Rachel went an ask um, “Jim, I know di hog hab git out, an, uh, I wahn know, I sen dem chirren oba dey fa git um, an you kick my boy.” Say, “Mista Jim, weh ya foot yak dat boy wid?”

“Dis foot right yah.”

Say, “Fo sundown dis ebenin ya fa tek ax fa cut um off.”

 Sho rough, Jim cut his foot off wid de ax. Now dis was di root ooman. You dohn fool wid di root ooman.

Beginning in 1979, a project was conducted to translate the New Testament of the Bible into Gullah, and it was published in 2005. The following is a sample page from the Gullah *Nyew Testament*:

**sample page from De Nyew Testament, translated by the Sea Island Translation Team (2005)**

Gullah is an endangered language, and there is a great need to collect more information, such as in the form of oral histories and traditional folktales. These texts would be valuable for the content, but if they could be audio recorded and transcribed in a way that is faithful to the form of the Gullah speech, they would be most valuable as a record of how Gullah is still spoken.
6. References


Jones Jr, Charles Colcock. 1888. *Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. (Republished in 2000 by the University of Georgia Press under the title *Gullah Folktales of the Georgia Coast*.)


