

# **The verbal system in Gyeli**

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Linguistisches Kolloquium, November 20, 2012

## **1 Introduction**

### **1.1 The verbal system within the dissertation 'A Grammar of Gyeli'**

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## 1.2 The Gyeli language

- ISO 639-3: gyi
- 'Pygmy' hunter-gatherers in southern Cameroon and Equatorial Guinea (4000-5000 speakers scattered in a vast area)
- Bantu A80 (Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Benue-Congo, Bantoid, Southern, Narrow Bantu, Northwest, A, Makaa-Njem (A.80))
- Controversial status: language (Ethnologue) vs. dialect (Bahuchet in prep.)
- Gyeli also known under the names Bagyeli, Bakola, Bajelli, Bako, Bogyel, Likoya, Babinga...
- Contact with farming communities of other Bantu languages (Basaa, Kwasio, Bulu, Fang, Ewondo, Bakoko, Yasa)
- Endangered language because of change of subsistence
- Different varieties of Gyeli depending on contact language
- *Ngòló* variety of my dissertation spoken in the Bulu region
- Data: mostly own fieldwork within framework of a DoBeS (Documentation of Endangered Languages) project, previous work by Renaud (1976) concentrates on variety in contact with Mvoumbo speakers and on phonology + nominal morphology; there are significant differences between the two varieties/descriptions in terms of lexicon, phonology and morphology

## 1.3 The Bantu verb

The typical verb structure in Bantu languages has a verb root with slots to both its left and its right, as shown in Table (1).

Slot	Pre-initial	Initial	Post-initial	Pre-radical	<b>Radical</b>	Prefinal	Final	Post-final
Function	TAM, NEG, clause type	Subject concord	TAM, NEG, clause type	Object concord	<b>Root</b>	TAM, valence change	TAM	participant, NEG, clause type

Table 1: The Bantu verb structure (adapted from Güldemann, course materials 'Grammar and information structure in Bantu languages', WS 2011/12)

(1) Swahili

ni-ta-ku-zi-andik-i-a    barua  
 1S-FUT-2S.OM-10.OM-write-APP-F 10.letter

'I will write the letters to you.'

## 2 The Gyeli verb structure

- Gyeli is more limited in the verbal slots than typical Savannah Bantu languages as shown in Table (2)
- Gyeli is significantly more isolating than Savannah Bantu languages such as Swahili. I analyze subject, object and most negation markers as free morphemes which are not bound to the verb root. Only tonally marked tense, verb extensions (valence change) and negation in the present tense are bound to the verb root.

Slot	Radical	Prefinal	Post-final
Function	Root	valence change	participle, NEG, clause type (?)

Table 2: The Gyeli verb structure

### (2) Gyeli

mè lúmélé wè  
1S.PST send.PST 2S

'I sent you.'

### 2.1 The phonological structure of the verb root

Gyeli verb roots are either monosyllabic, bisyllabic or trisyllabic (in extended forms.)

#### + Vowel distribution in Gyeli verb roots

- Tables (3) through (5) show the distribution of vowels in verb roots of various syllable lengths; the database includes at this point 268 verbs.
- Gyeli verb roots are most commonly bisyllabic. Trisyllabic verbs include probably at least historically a verb extension.

#### Monosyllabic

- Monosyllabic verbs most commonly have a mid /ɛ, ɔ/ or low /a/ vowel. Among these, front vowels are more frequent than back vowels as shown in Table (3).
- If the vowel is nasalized, then it is most likely /ã/. Nasalization probably spread from a former nasal coda that got lost.

plain vowels	i	u	e	o	ɔ	ε	a
	1	1	1	1	7	11	14
nasal vowels	ĩ	ũ	ẽ	õ	õ̃	ẽ̃	ã
	1	1	-	-	1	-	11
diphthongs	iε	uɔ	ua				
	2	2	1				

Table 3: Distribution of vowels in monosyllabic verb roots (total: 56)

### Bisyllabic

- While high vowels /i, u/ and front high-mid /e/ occur in V1 position, they (almost) never occur in V2 position.
- Mid vowels /ε, ɔ/ are the most common in V2 position and less frequent in V1.
- Only the low vowel /a/ is common in both V1 and V2.
- Mid vowels only pair up with other mid vowels.
- Two vowels of the same quality only include /ɔ, ε, a/.
- Common pairings are /i/ + /ɔ/, /i/ + /ε/, /u/ + /ɔ/, /u/ + /ε/, /a/ + /ɔ/, /a/ + /ε/, and /a/ + /a/

V2/ V1	i (1)	u (-)	e (1)	o (14)	ɔ (56)	ε (51)	a (36)	ẽ (3)	ε: (2)
i (39)	-	-	-	3	16	12	6	2	-
u (31)	1	-	-	1	11	10	9	-	-
e (7)	-	-	-	3	2	1	1	1	1
o (6)	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	-	-
ɔ (5)	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	-
ε (17)	-	-	-	-	9	8	-	-	-
a (44)	-	-	1	7	15	10	10	-	1
a: (6)	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	-	-
ã (2)	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-
õ̃ (1)	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
iε (2)	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-

Table 4: Distribution of vowels in bisyllabic verb roots (total: 160)

### Trisyllabic

- Vowels of every quality can occur in V1 position, but the most common are high vowels /i/ and /u/.
- In trisyllabic verbs, high vowels do not occur at all in V2 and V3 position, but only the mid vowels /ε/ and /ɔ/ and the low vowel /a/.
- The most common pairing in V2 and V3 is /ε/ + /ε/ followed by /a/ + /a/. Combinations of /ε/ and /a/ exist, but are rare.

- The back mid vowel /ɔ/ (and combinations with /ɛ/) exist, but are very rare.

V2 + V3/ V1	ɛ + ɛ (32)	a + a (6)	ɛ + a (2)	e? + a (1)	a + ɛ (3)	ɔ + ɔ (1)	ɔ + ɛ (1)
i (13)	9	1	2	1	-	-	-
u (16)	10	4	-	-	1	1	-
e (2)	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
o (3)	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
ɔ (3)	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
ɛ (4)	3	-	-	-	1	-	-
a (5)	2	1	-	-	1	-	1

Table 5: Distribution of vowels in trisyllabic verbs (total: 46)

### + Consonant distribution in Gyeli verb roots

Syllables in Gyeli verb roots are always open, unlike in noun roots which allow nasals as a coda.

#### Monosyllabic

- The most common onset in a monosyllabic verb root in Gyeli is a plosive, followed by a fricative, then liquid /l/ and nasals /m/ + /n/.
- Some voiced plosive and fricative counterparts are missing, namely /g/ and /z/.
- Palatalized and labialized onsets are common.

plain C (31)					
plosives	p	b	t	d	k
18	4	4	2	4	4
fricatives	v	w	s	dj	
8	4	1	2	1	
liquids	l				
3	3				
nasals	m	n			
2	1	1			
with accompaniment (25)					
palatalized	dy	gy	vy	ny	
12	4	3	1	4	
labialized	bw	kw	lw		
9	3	3	3		
rest	bv	nt	nd	nj	
4	1	1	1	1	

Table 6: Distribution of consonants in monosyllabic verb roots (total: 56)

#### Bisyllabic

- In bisyllabic verb roots in Gyeli, plosives are the most common consonants in C1 position, followed by fricatives and palatalized consonants.

- There is a significant imbalance between voiced and voiceless plosives: the voiced counterparts of /t/ and /k/ are almost missing. This is not true for /b/ and the affricate /dj/.
- While liquids, glides and nasals are not very common in C1, they are more frequent in C2, especially /l/.
- Palatalized and labialized consonants only occur in C1 (except for /ndy/), prenasalized stops only in C2.
- Voiced stops are more frequent in C2; the glottal stop only occurs in C2.
- Labiodental fricatives are missing in C2 as well as /p/.

C1 plain (107)							
plosives	p	b	t	d	k	g	'
<b>58</b>	9	<b>14</b>	<b>16</b>	1	<b>17</b>	1	-
fricatives	f	v	s	z			
<b>24</b>	1	9	<b>14</b>	-			
affricates	ts	dj					
9	2	7					
liquids	l						
9	9						
glides	y	w					
5	-	5					
nasals	m	n					
2	2	-					
C1 accomp. (48)							
palatalized	dy	ky	gy	sy	my	ny	
<b>24</b>	6	1	<b>12</b>	1	1	3	
labialized	bw	tw	kw	sw	lw	mw	
19	<b>11</b>	1	4	1	1	1	
rest	dv	bv	tf	dz	pf		
4	1	1	1	1	1		
C2 plain (114)							
plosives	p	b	t	d	k	g	'
39	-	<b>12</b>	3	9	5	5	5
fricatives	f	v	s	z	dj		
11	-	-	9	2	-		
liquids	l						
30	<b>30</b>						
glides	y	w					
19	8	<b>11</b>					
nasals	m	n					
15	<b>10</b>	5					
C2 accomp. (31)							
	mb	nd	ŋg	ndy			
	16	9	2	4			

Table 7: Distribution of consonants in bisyllabic verb roots (total: around 150)

### Trisyllabic

- In trisyllabic verbs, possible consonants in C3 are quite restricted.
- The most common C3 is /l/.
- Plosives in C3 include only /d, k, g/, only /s/ appears as a fricative.
- There are no accompanied consonants in C3.

plosives (4)	d (1)	k (1)	g (2)
fricatives (7)	s (7)		
liquids (31)	<b>l (31)</b>		
glides (1)	w (1)		
nasals (2)	n (2)		

Table 8: C3 in trisyllabic verb roots (total: 45)

### + Tones in Gyeli verb roots

- Level tones are more frequent than contour tones, the contour HL more frequent than LH.
- In bisyllabic verb roots, a L on the second mora is most frequent.
- In trisyllabic verbs, two L on the last two moras are most frequent.

monosyllabic 56	L 20	H 16	HL 13	LH 7
bisyllabic 160	H H 15	L L <b>57</b>	H L <b>59</b>	L H 12
	H HL 1	H LH 1	L HL 2	L LH -
	LH H 1	LH L 2	HL H 3	HL L 10
	trisyllabic 46	H L L <b>29</b>	L L L <b>14</b>	H H H 2

Table 9: Tone patterns in Gyeli verb roots

### + Questions

- Should the section on the phonological structure of verb roots belong in the phonology chapter?
- Which consonants pattern with which vowels? → tendency that /t/ occurs often with /i/ and /b/ clusters with mid and low vowels.
- I have to look closely into vowel harmony. Also other phonological rules need to be investigated more systematically.

- Something to discuss: Verb roots always end in a vowel. So far, I do not talk about these final vowels in a typical Bantu 'final vowel' sense though because this vowel does not carry any information on TAM and varies highly in vowel quality (i.e. there is no meaning attached to a specific vowel). The fact that the final vowel drops in verbal derivation is phonologically conditioned and does not undermine this analysis.

## 2.2 Subject marking

- Verbs are preceded by the subject.
- The subject can be nominal and/or pronominal as in (3), and does not require a special subject marker on the verb as for instance Swahili does.

- (3) a. pfúmá wé  
king.1 die.PST  
'The king died.'
- b. pfúmá à wé  
king.1 1S.PST die.PST  
'The king died.'

Table (10) shows the subject pronouns in the present tense. The tones on subject pronouns change in different tenses as will be discussed in section (4.1).

First person	1S <i>mé</i>	1P <i>yá</i>
Second person	2S <i>wé</i>	2P <i>bé(-yà)</i>
Third person	cl. 1 (3S) <i>nyé/á</i> cl. 3 <i>wé</i> cl. 5 <i>lé</i> cl. 7 <i>yé</i> cl. 9 <i>nyé</i> cl. 14 <i>bí</i>	cl. 2 (3P) <i>bá</i> cl. 4 <i>mí</i> cl. 6 <i>má</i> cl. 8 <i>bí</i>

Table 10: Gyeli subject markers in the present tense

## 2.3 Object marking

Table (11) lists the object pronouns.

First person	1S <i>mè</i>	1P <i>bì/bì(-yè)</i>
Second person	2S <i>wè</i>	2P <i>bwě</i>
Third person	cl. 1 (3S) <i>nyè</i> cl. 3 <i>wò</i> cl. 5 <i>lò</i> cl. 7 <i>yò</i> cl. 9 <i>nyò</i> cl. 14 <i>byò</i>	cl. 2 (3P) <i>bò</i> cl. 4 <i>myò</i> cl. 6 <i>mò</i> cl. 8 <i>byò</i>

Table 11: Gyeli object markers



Gyeli does not mark objects in the preradical slot as in a Bantu typical verb structure. Objects both nominal and pronominal follow the verb as in (4).

- (4) a. mé wùmbé bá-kúbò SVO<sub>NOM</sub>  
 1S.PRES want 2-chicken  
 'I want (the) chicken.'
- b. mé wùmbé b̀ SVO<sub>PRO</sub>  
 1S.PRES want 2  
 'I want them.'

#### + Objects in transitive clauses

- In a transitive clause, a nominal object receives a H tone on its noun class prefix which is underlyingly L.
- Pronominal objects are always L.
- This seems to be true in all tenses.

#### + Objects in ditransitive clauses

In a ditransitive clause, the indirect object (recipient) follows the verb, the direct object (patient) follows the indirect object, no matter if the objects are nominal or pronominal as in (5).

- (5) a. mé kíyà wé kúbò SV IO<sub>PRO</sub> DO<sub>NOM</sub>  
 1S.PRES give 2S chicken.1  
 'I give you the/a chicken.'
- b. mé kíyà wé nyè SV IO<sub>PRO</sub> DO<sub>PRO</sub>  
 1S.PRES give 2S 1.OBJ  
 'I give it to you.'

The position of the indirect and the direct object can be inverse if the indirect object is preceded by a benefactive (?) marker as in (6).

- (6) mé kíyà bwálè bà wè SV DO<sub>NOM</sub> IO<sub>PRO</sub>  
 1S.PRES give pirogue.14 BEN? 2S  
 'I give you the pirogue.'

It seems also to be possible to get an applicative/benefactive (?) reading as in (7).

- (7) mé kwànè wè kù SV IO<sub>PRO</sub> DO<sub>NOM</sub>  
 1S.PRES sell 2S rat.1  
 'I sell the/a rat for you.'

#### + Questions

- Is there any pattern to the distribution of the 3S subject markers *nyé/á*?
- Emphatic pronouns?
- Where should this part go in the dissertation? Verb phrase or clauses?

### 3 Verbal derivation

- Gyeli verbal derivation is anchored in the prefinal slot in the verb structure.
- Formation of verb extensions: last vowel of verb root is deleted and then the extension gets attached as in Table (12)
- Tones on verb extension depend on the tense and will be discussed in the next section; tonal marking in this section is based on the present tense
- Productive verb extensions in Gyeli include applicatives, causatives, reciprocals (see Table (12)); there may be others such as the reversive which are not productive anymore
- Not every verb takes all of the possible extensions, verbs that take all extensions are rather an exception (9 out of 74 tested)
- Every verb root seems to only take one extension, unlike in for instance Swahili which allows multiple verb extensions

Basic verb form	Applicative	Causative	Reciprocal
lúwò 'bite'	lúw-èlè 'bite sb'	lúw-èsè 'make sb get bitten'	lúw-àlà 'bite each other'

Table 12: Productive verb extensions

#### 3.1 Reciprocals

- The most productive extension is the reciprocal.
- Out of 74 tested forms, 54 basic verb forms allow a reciprocal extension.
- For some basic verb forms, Gyeli does not have any reciprocal form, while its closest relative, Mabi, has it: *pímbè* 'try' > *pímbàlà* 'try together' or *lâ* 'count' > *lángàlà* 'count each other'.

'mutuality'	'togetherness'
<i>bédtàlà</i> 'lift each other' < <i>bédtò</i> 'go up'	<i>vémbàlà</i> 'sniff together' < <i>vémbò</i> ?
<i>bínàlà</i> 'hit each other' < <i>bìyó</i> 'hit'	<i>díàlà</i> 'eat together' < <i>dè</i> 'eat'
<i>kìyàlà</i> 'taste each other' < <i>kìyè</i> 'try'	<i>nyùlàlà</i> 'drink together' < <i>nyùlè</i> 'drink'
<i>vólàlà</i> 'help one other' < <i>vó'ò</i> 'calm oneself'	<i>kósàlà</i> 'cough together' < <i>kósè</i> 'cough'
<i>dyúwàlà</i> 'understand each other' < <i>dyúwò</i> 'hear'	<i>pámàlà</i> 'show up together' < <i>pámò</i> 'show up'
<i>gyíwàlà</i> 'call each other' < <i>gyíwò</i> 'call'	<i>téjàlà</i> 'get up together' < <i>téjà</i> 'get up'
<i>kwàlàlà</i> 'love each other' < <i>kwàlè</i> 'love'	
<i>tsíndàlà</i> 'push each other' < <i>tsíndó</i> 'push'	

Table 13: Semantics of the Gyeli reciprocal extension

- Reciprocal extensions in Bantu languages usually carry a meaning of reciprocity and mutuality. This is also the case in Gyeli.
- In some cases, namely in those verbs which do not inherently carry a sensible reciprocal meaning, the reciprocal form rather expresses togetherness as shown in Table (13).
- The default meaning is, however, reciprocity which is much more frequent (44 vs. 6 clear cases).
- In some cases, the distinction between reciprocity and togetherness is less clear and the meaning includes perhaps both as in: *gyámbàlà* 'having wild sex' → *gyámbò* 'prepare', *sùbàlà* 'having an orgasm together' → *sùwò* 'jouir' or *vísàlà* 'snuggle' → *vísò* 'cover'. These cases may explain, why the reciprocal can extend its meaning towards togetherness.
- There are special cases where the reciprocal extension either does not correspond to the typical meanings of mutuality or togetherness or to the reciprocal form *-ala*.
  - special semantics? *t<sup>h</sup>úàlà* 'make small pieces (fish, bread)' → *t<sup>h</sup>ùwò* 'crush'
  - special form: *vúàsà* 'shake one another' → *vùèsè* 'shake' → *vù* 'leave' → remnant of the causative form?

### 3.2 Applicative and causative

- The applicative/dative verbs are transitive; most often, their dative object fulfills the semantic role of a beneficiary (Schadeberg 2003: 74).
- The causative extension is added to both transitive and intransitive verbs (Schadeberg 2003: 73); semantically, it often has the meaning of causing sth, e.g. *gyígèsè* 'teach' = 'make sb learn' derived from *gyígbè* 'learn'.
- The categories of applicative and causative seem to be in the process of merging or at least becoming less productive.
- In 45 tested cases, there is only either an applicative or a causative form, but not both.
- In 20 tested cases, there is neither an applicative nor a causative form.
- Applicative forms are more numerous than causative forms (39 vs. 28 out of 74 basic verb forms).

Applicative	Causative
<i>gyám̀b̀è̀l̀è̀</i> 'prepare for sb' → <i>gyám̀b̀</i> 'prepare'	<i>djì̀s̀è̀</i> 'feed sb' → <i>d̀è̀</i> 'eat'
<i>là̀ng̀è̀l̀è̀</i> 'pass sb' → <i>l̀á̀</i> 'pass'	<i>f̀ù̀l̀è̀s̀è̀</i> 'put down' → <i>f̀ù̀l̀</i> 'descend'
<i>nỳù̀m̀b̀è̀l̀è̀</i> 'smell sth' → <i>nỳù̀m̀b̀</i> 'smell (like sth)'	<i>gỳí̀g̀è̀s̀è̀</i> 'teach' → <i>gỳí̀g̀k̀è̀</i> 'learn'
<i>t̀í̀è̀l̀è̀</i> 'disturb sb' → <i>t̀í̀è̀</i> 'walk around'	<i>nỳù̀l̀è̀s̀è̀</i> 'make sb drink' → <i>nỳù̀l̀è̀</i> 'drink'
<i>s̀ù̀ẁè̀l̀è̀</i> 'pour sth' → <i>s̀ù̀ẁó̀</i> 'spill'	<i>s̀ó̀l̀è̀s̀è̀</i> 'make undress' → <i>s̀ó̀l̀é̀</i> 'undress'

Table 14: Applicative and causative extensions in Gyeli

### + Semantics of applicatives and causatives in Gyeli

#### - Default case

- Applicatives usually take a meaning of doing sth for sb.
- Causatives usually have the meaning of causing sth.

#### - Unclear semantic relation

- *gỳí̀ẁ* 'call' → *gỳí̀ẁè̀l̀è̀* 'dive'
- *ts̀í̀b̀è̀l̀è̀* 'make sb work' → *ts̀í̀b̀* 'grind'

#### - Applicative form, but causative meaning

- *nỳí̀ng̀è̀l̀è̀* 'insert' → *nỳí̀* 'enter'
- *ts̀í̀b̀è̀l̀è̀* 'make sb work' → *ts̀í̀b̀* 'grind'
- *nd̀à̀ng̀è̀l̀è̀* 'make sb cross' → *nd̀à̀* 'cross'
- *gỳí̀m̀b̀è̀l̀è̀* 'make sb dance' → *gỳí̀m̀b̀* 'dance'

#### - Causative form, but applicative meaning?

- *b̀à̀ẁè̀s̀è̀* 'carry sth' → *b̀à̀ẁè̀* 'carry'
- *f̀ú̀β̀è̀s̀è̀* 'rinse' → *f̀ú̀β̀è̀* 'be clean'

'do sth for sb' (applicative) can also be expressed analytically as in (8); another way to express 'make sb to do sth' (causative) is given in (9).

(8) *mé gyâ gyá mpá'à wô*  
 1S.PRES sing song.7 for 2S  
 'I sing a song for you.'

(9) *mé nzí sá nà wé dyò*  
 1S.PRES PROG make QUOT 2S laugh  
 'I make you laugh.'

### 3.3 Non-productive extensions?

There may be other extensions that are much less or even not at all productive anymore:

- *-wɔ* reversive: *djɪ* 'open' → *djɪwɔ̀* 'close'
- *-wɔ* also shows up in positional verbs: *kʰúdɔ̀wɔ̀* 'lean over', *sɛ̀ŋgyɔ̀wɔ̀* 'lean against something', *gyíɛ̀wɔ̀* 'lean back on'
- *-ega* ? as *vidègà* 'turn', *djìnègà* 'melt'

## 4 Tense and aspect

### 4.1 Tense

- Gyeli has four tenses: one present (PRES) tense, one future (FUT) tense and two past tenses which I call past (PST) and anterior past (ANT.PST).
- Tense is marked tonally in PST, FUT and PST and only receives a segmental marker in the ANT.PST.

#### + Present

The present tense is marked by a H tone on the subject marker and a 'default' tonal marking on the verb root. Examples are given in Table (15).

σ	<i>mé ké</i> 'I walk' <i>mé ndà</i> 'I cross' <i>mé bwě</i> 'I catch' <i>mé lâ</i> 'I count'
σσ	<i>mé gyíɓ̀</i> 'I call' <i>mé bìyɔ̀</i> 'I hit' <i>mé gyàgà</i> 'I buy'
σσσ	<i>mé dzímèsè</i> 'I extinguish' <i>mé nyùmbèlè</i> 'I smell sth'

Table 15: Present tense verbs

#### + Past

The 'simple' past tense is marked by a L tone on the subject marker and a tonal change on the verb root as summarized in Table (16). Table (17) gives some examples in comparison to the present tense.

$\sigma$	L → HL (or in some cases H as in <i>mé dè</i> 'I eat' → <i>mè dé</i> 'I ate') H → H (anything else happening??) contour tones HL and LH seem not to change
$\sigma\sigma$	H L → H H L H → H H L L → L H H H is still missing among my examples as well as contour tones
$\sigma\sigma\sigma$	H L L → H H H L L L → L H H

Table 16: Tonal patterns in past tense verbs

	Present	Past
$\sigma$	<i>mé ké</i> 'I go' <i>mé ndà</i> 'I cross' <i>mé bwě</i> 'I catch' <i>mé lâ</i> 'I count'	<i>mè ké</i> 'I went' <i>mè ndâ</i> 'I crossed' <i>mè bwě</i> 'I caught' <i>mè lâ</i> 'I counted'
$\sigma\sigma$	<i>mé gyíbò</i> 'I call' <i>mé bìyó</i> 'I hit' <i>mé gyàgà</i> 'I buy'	<i>mè gyíbó</i> 'I called' <i>mè bíyó</i> 'I hit (PST)' <i>mè gyàgá</i> 'I bought'
$\sigma\sigma\sigma$	<i>mé dzímèsè</i> 'I extinguish' <i>mé nyùmbèlè</i> 'I smell sth'	<i>mè dzímésé</i> 'I extinguished' <i>mè nyùmbélé</i> 'I smelled sth'

Table 17: Past tense verbs in comparison to present

#### + Anterior past

- The anterior past tense is marked by the auxiliary *bwă* 'have' (see Table (18)).
- The subject marker has a L tone as in the PST tense.
- The verb root has a 'default' tonal pattern as in the present.

$\sigma$	<i>mè bwă ké</i> 'I went (long ago)' <i>mè bwă ndà</i> 'I crossed (long ago)' <i>mè bwă bwě</i> 'I caught (long ago)' <i>mè bwă lâ</i> 'I counted (long ago)'
$\sigma\sigma$	<i>mè bwă gyíbò</i> 'I called (long ago)' <i>mè bwă bìyó</i> 'I hit (long ago)' <i>mè bwă gyàgà</i> 'I bought (long ago)'
$\sigma\sigma\sigma$	<i>mè bwă dzímèsè</i> 'I extinguished (long ago)' <i>mè bwă nyùmbèlè</i> 'I smelled sth (long ago)'

Table 18: Anterior past tense verbs

#### + Future

The future tense is marked by a long vowel in the subject marker which is tonally either H H or H L (I'm not sure) and a 'default' tonal pattern on the verb root.

	Present	Future
σ	<i>mé ké</i> 'I go' <i>mé ndà</i> 'I cross' <i>mé bwě</i> 'I catch' <i>mé lâ</i> 'I count'	<b>méé ké</b> 'I will go' <b>méé ndâ</b> 'I will cross' <b>méé bwě</b> 'I will catch' <b>méé lâ</b> 'I will count'
σσ	<i>mé gyíḃḍ</i> 'I call' <i>mé bìyó</i> 'I hit' <i>mé gyàgà</i> 'I buy'	<b>méé gyíḃó</b> 'I will call' <b>méé bíyó</b> 'I will hit' <b>méé gyàgá</b> 'I will buy'
σσσ	<i>mé dzímèsè</i> 'I extinguish' <i>mé nyùmbèlè</i> 'I smell sth'	<b>méé dzímésé</b> 'I will extinguish' <b>méé nyùmbélé</b> 'I will smell sth'

Table 19: Future verbs in comparison to present

## 4.2 Aspect

- Aspect in Gyeli is marked by verbs such as 'come', 'finish' or 'be'.
- In the following, I present different aspects that I found so far (even though I cannot say anything conclusive). Other aspects may exist in Gyeli, but I have not seen any other neither in my elicitations nor in annotated texts.

### + Progressive

#### **nzí** 'come'

- *nzí* 'come' occurs in many other forms: *nzyé, njé, nzîè*
- Verbs indicating aspect follow the subject (pronoun) and precede the verb root as in (10).

(10) *mé      nzí      ké*  
1S.PRES PROG go  
'I am walking.'

While the construction in (10) also occurs in others tenses by changing the tonal pattern on the subject marker, progressive constructions in tenses (other than the present?) often become more complex including the auxiliary *bé* 'be' as in (11).

- (11) a. *mè      **bé** mè      nzí      ké*  
1S.PST be 1S.PST come go  
'I was walking.'
- b. *méé      **bé** mè      nzí      ké*  
1S.FUT be 1S.PST? come go  
'I will be walking.'
- c. *mè      bwă **bé** mè      nzí      ké*  
1S.PST have be 1S.PST come go  
'I was walking (a longt time ago).'

The aspect marker *nzí* 'come' can occur twice in a clause as in (12). In (12a), the auxiliary *bé* 'be' is used as well. (12b) shows, however, that the occurrence of the auxiliary is not obligatory.

- (12) a. m̀è n̄zì b́é m̀è n̄zì gyám̀b̀d̀ b́é-d̀èẃ  
 1S.PST come be 1S.PST come prepare 8-food  
 'I was preparing food.'
- b. m̀è n̄zì m̀è n̄zìè gyám̀b̀d̀ à n̄zìè gyím̀b̀d̀  
 1S.PST come 1S.PST come prepare 3S.PST come danse  
 'While I was preparing food he was dancing.'

*b́é* and *n̄zì* are also used with stative verbs such as 'be.cold' as in (13). I do not know yet, however, if this is a regular pattern with stative verbs (I have not worked on stative verbs in particular yet).

- (13) mà-jíẃ mà b́é má n̄jé v̀d̀  
 6-water 6 be 6 come be.cold  
 'The water was cold.'

#### + Perfective

##### *l̄s* 'come'

There is another verb for 'come', namely *l̄s*. According to speakers' judgement, it is a borrowing from Basaa. It is not used in the progressive aspect as *n̄zì*, but indicates that an event has just come to an end as in (14).

- (14) à l̄s k̄a ḱé  
 3S.PST come ? go  
 'He just left (il vient de partir).'

The *k̄a* is a mystery to me, I don't know what it is. It shows up in other constructions such as in (15) and (16).

- (15) á gyám̀b̀d̀-lé k̄a  
 3S.PRES prepare-Neg ?  
 'He doesn't cook.'

- (16) s̄a mb̀d̀ s̄a mé kyà kwám̀d̀ rí yí búlé-lé k̄a  
 thing.7 for thing.7 1S.PRES put bag.9 LOC 7 break-NEG ?  
 'No matter what I put in the bag, it doesn't break.'

##### *sílê* 'finish'

The default aspect marker for perfective is *sílê* 'finish' and occurs in both past tenses as illustrated in (17).

- (17) a. bà sílê d̀è  
 3P finish eat  
 'They have eaten.'
- b. m̀è bw̄ǎ sílê tsìl̀d̀  
 1S.PST have finish write  
 'I finished writing (a long time ago).'

#### + Habitual/Iterative

Habitual and iterative aspect is expressed by repetition. For habitual events, either the verb is repeated as in (18a) or other parts of the clause are repeated as in (18b).



- (18) a. *mé gyámbò gyàmbò bé-dèwò*  
 1S.PRES prepare prepare 8-food  
 'I usually prepare food.'
- b. *mé vòβá ménò nà ménò mà-wúlá ntúò*  
 1S.PST get.up day.7 COM day.7 5-hour six  
 'Every morning, I get up at 6 o'clock.'

Besides repetition, the regular occurrence of an event can also be expressed lexically as in (19).

- (19) *mé làdó nà nyè ŷsè*  
 1S.PRES meet COM 3S often  
 'I meet him often/regularly.'

Iterativity is expressed by duplication of the verb as in (20). I do not know if other elements of the clause can be repeated as well as in (18b).

- (20) *à nzí kósè kòsè nà kúyú*  
 3S.PST PROG cough cough SIM evening.7  
 'He coughed a lot yesterday.'

#### + Questions

- Are (some of) these aspect constructions serial verb constructions?
- What is *mò*?

- (21) a. *mè bwě mò yò*  
 1S.PST catch ? 7OBJ  
 'I already caught it.'
- b. *mè bwě yò*  
 1S.PST catch 7OBJ  
 'I caught it.'
- c. *\*mè dyú mò nyè*  
 1S.PST kill ? 3S  
 'I killed him already.'
- d. *\*mè sá mò yò* (but works in Mabi)  
 1S.PST do ? 7OBJ  
 'I already did it.'
- e. *mè gyá mò yò*  
 1S.PST sing ? 7OBJ  
 'I just sang it [the song]. ('Je viens de le chanter.')
- f. *mé wómbèlè mò*  
 1S.PRES sweep ?  
 'I'm sweeping. ('Je suis en train de balayer.')

## 5 Negation

While negation in the present tense is marked by a negation affix on the verb root, negation is marked by a negation word that precedes the verb root. (I am not quite sure about the accuracy of the tones in this part.)

### + Present

Negation in the present tense is marked by a negation suffix on the verb root as in (22).

- (22) a. mé nyé-lé  
1S.PRES see-NEG  
'I don't see.'
- b. mé nyé-lé bá-kù  
1S.PRES see-NEG 2-rat  
'I don't see any rats.'

### + Past

- In the past tense, there seem to be two different negation words, *pálè* 'jamais?' and *sàlé* which speakers translate as 'know' ('connaître'). It could also be related the verb *sá* 'do'.
- It is probably not by coincidence that both words include -lé, the negation suffix of the present tense. For *pálè*, however, I cannot reconstruct its historical origin at the moment.
- I am also not really sure about the semantic difference between the two forms. Example (23) represents the meaning differences as I understand them at the moment, but more research needs to be done on that.

- (23) a. mè pálé làdó nà nyè  
1S.PST NEG.PST meet COM 3S  
'I never met him.'
- b. mè sálé làdó nà nyè  
1S.PST NEG.PST meet COM 3S  
'I didn't meet him.'
- c. mè sálé djí wúndè  
1S.PST NEG.PST open window.7  
'I did not open the window.'

### + Questions

- How do I analyze the negation words synchronically? Do I assume a NEG suffix, at least for *sàlé*, or do I have to say that the negation words are synchronically unparseable?
- How do I gloss the two different negation words?
- What about negation in the anterior past? So far, speakers gave me the same form as for the 'simple' past tense, but I'm not sure whether there is really not an anterior past negation.

+ **Future**

The future tense, just as the past, has a negation word *kálé* that is in its form very similar to the negation words of the past tense. Again, I cannot reconstruct its historical origin. There is a verb *kà* 'promise', but I do not know whether it stems from this verb.

- (24) a. *mè kálé dè*  
 1S.? NEG.FUT eat  
 'I will not eat.'
- b. *mè kálé gyàgà bá-kù*  
 1S.? NEG.FUT buy 2-rat  
 'I will not buy rats.'

## 6 Open questions beyond the verb phrase

How do I analyze and gloss the following paradigm meaning 'x, it is that'?

NC	noun	?	OBJ?	ID	DEM?	ANA?
cl. 1 'woman'	<i>mùdâ</i>	<i>wê</i>	<i>nyé</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>nú</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 2 'women'	<i>bùdâ</i>	<i>bê</i>	<i>bó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>bá</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 3 'coconut'	<i>mbàngá</i>	<i>wê</i>	<i>wó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>wú</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 4 'coconuts'	<i>mì-mbàngá</i>	<i>myê</i>	<i>myó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>mí</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 5 'fishtrap'	<i>lè-lá</i>	<i>lê</i>	<i>ló</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>lé</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 6 'fishtraps'	<i>mà-lá</i>	<i>mâ</i>	<i>mó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>má</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 7 'plantain'	<i>kwándó</i>	<i>yê</i>	<i>yó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>yí</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 8 'plantains'	<i>bè-kwándó</i>	<i>byê</i>	<i>byó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>bí</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 9 'bag'	<i>kwámó</i>	<i>nyê</i>	<i>nyó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>nyí</i>	<i>ndè</i>
cl. 14 'pirogue'	<i>bwálè</i>	<i>byê</i>	<i>byó</i>	<i>wé</i>	<i>bí</i>	<i>ndè</i>

Table 20: Personal deixis paradigm

AGR class	DEM.PROX	DEM.DIST
1	<i>nû</i>	<i>núú</i>
2	<i>bá</i>	<i>báá</i>
3	<i>wó</i>	<i>wóó</i>
4	<i>mí</i>	<i>míí</i>
5	<i>lê</i>	<i>léé</i>
6	<i>má</i>	<i>máá</i>
7	<i>yê</i>	<i>yéé</i>
8	<i>bé</i>	<i>béé</i>
9	<i>nyî</i>	<i>nyíí</i>
14	<i>bí</i>	<i>bíí</i>

Table 21: Demonstratives in Gyeli

## Abbreviations

1S	first person singular	HL	falling tone
1P	first person plural	ID	identificational marker
2S	second person singular	IO	indirect object
2P	second person plural	L	low tone
3S	third person singular	LH	raising tone
3P	third person plural	NC	noun class
AGR	agreement	NEG	negation
ANA	anaphoric	NOM	nominal
ANT	anterior	OBJ	object
APP	applicative	OM	object marker
BEN	benefactive	PRES	present
C	consonants	PRO	pronoun
CAUS	causative	PROG	progressive
cl.	class	PROX	proximal
COM	comitative	PST	past
DEM	demonstrative	QUOT	quotative
DIST	distal	SIM	similative
DO	direct object	TAM	tense, aspect, mood
F	final vowel	V	vowel
FUT	future	σ	syllable
H	high tone		

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