## COMPLEX CODA

Duhumbi shares with Dirang Tshangla (Das Gupta 1986 and Zhāng 1986 in Bodt 2012: 199) and Bjoka Tshangla (Grollmann 2014:40) a limited number of occurrences of preserved syllable-final consonant clusters.

Bodt (2012: 198-201) first reported the existence of superficially homonymous minimal pairs in Bhutan Tshangla verb roots. After analysis of the choice of allomorphs characteristic of a certain conjugational class as well as comparative evidence from Dirang and Pemako Tshangla I concluded that there must have been an underlying coda consonant cluster in part of these attestations. Since then, further analysis of what was coined as the Yabrang variety of Tshangla has provided more evidence. In fact, this Yabrang variety itself has turned out to be an archaic sociolect, geographically more widespread among small, socio-economically weaker sections of certain remote Tshangla communities between the Gamri and Kholong rivers in north-eastern Trashigang and south-eastern Trashi 'Yangtse in Bhutan. These sociolects are rapidly disappearing through confirmation to the standard variety of Tshangla, increased levels of education and rural-urban migration. Although new data of both Yabrang and Dirang Tshangla have allowed to discern conclusive evidence of syllable-final clusters in Tshangla since then, this has yet to be committed to a publication.

More recently, Grollmann (2014: 40) similarly reported from Bjokapakha Tshangla that allomorphic variation in the verbal morphology not conform the morphophonological patterns evidences coda consonant clusters, but that the phonotactic rule not permitting coda consonant clusters suppresses them. Her attestations include  $cam \sim camp$  'be about to, try';  $gan \sim gant$  'grow old, age';  $gir \sim girt$  'turn; cluster';  $lam \sim lamp$  'learn';  $non \sim nonk$  'face, find, get';  $sor \sim sort$  'change'; and *shim ~ shimp* 'put in order, tidy up'.

For the current discussion, it is sufficient to report the existence of Tshangla coda consonant clusters, all involving a nasal or trill followed by a plosive or glottal stop, the most common combinations including /mp/, /rt/ and perhaps /nt/ and /ngk/.

Similarly, the Duhumbi coda clusters all involve a syllable-final nasal or trill followed by an unreleased dental or bilabial stop. Choice of conjugational class, Da or Ta, has earlier been shown to depend on an underlying syllable-final fricative /s/. Coda consonant clusters can be no exception to that, resulting in the positioning of coda consonant clusters of three consonants, the final consonant of which necessarily has to be an /s/, i.e. /-mps, -rts, -ngks/. The Duhumbi syllable-final consonant clusters appear to be an archaic treat and might be relevant from a historical-comparative point of view, but their extremely restricted occurrence makes it hard to come to any strong conclusions. There may well be more occurrences of these coda clusters in the lexicon. However, identifying them has proved extremely difficult. Unless the speaker strongly articulates the coda cluster or all possible occurrences are checked in waveforms and spectrograms, they might not have been detected. Nonetheless, a number of rather convincing minimal pairs is presented here, of which audio recordings exist for future reference.

The hitherto attested clusters are *-mp*, *-ngk* and *-rt*. All the occurrences of these coda clusters are summarised in Table 1, with waveforms and spectrograms for several examples provided for illustration.

## Table 1. The Duhumbi coda clusters

coda cluster	lexeme
-mp	camp {ta} [tcampॆ] 'to surrender'
	$hamp \{ta\} [hamp]$ 'to learn, study, read'
	$lamp \{ta\} [lamp]$ 'to parch (finger millet)'
	<i>jamp</i> { <i>ta</i> } [dʑampॆ] 'to become cured'
	$ramp \{ta\} [ramp]$ 'to wither'
	<i>thimp</i> { $ta$ } [ $t^{h}$ im $\vec{p}$ ] 'to sink'
	<i>timp</i> { <i>ta</i> } [timp] 'to become finished'
-rt	<i>nort</i> $\{ta\}$ [no.t] 'to err'
	$durt \{ta\} [dust]$ 'to rot; to overcook'
	$ngart \{ta\} [nart]$ 'to win'
	nyirtkum [pirt kum] 'wrinkle'
-ngk	$dingk \{ta\} [dink]$ 'to pull along a thread'
	$gink \{ta\} [gink]$ 'to soar, to fly high'
	$jangk \{ta\} [dzaŋk]$ 'to study, to read'
	$zingk \{ta\} [zink]$ 'to lead along'
	zhangk(ta) [ $zank$ ] 'to get up, to rise (H.)'
-nt	$nant \{ta\}$ [nan ~ nant] 'to add'?



<u>Figure 1:</u> *ram* {*da*} [1amda:] 'to tear; harvest' [CHUK130115D] vs. *ramp* {*ta*} [1amp ta:] 'to wither' [CHUK130115D]

In context, this minimal pair is provided in *waloq nishi ganggpu ram-long-bey* [wal<sub>2</sub>? nici gaŋpu ram-loŋ-bej] '3PL.AGT paddy all harvest-PRF-COP1.OK' 'they have harvested all the paddy' [CHUK310115B] and *nishi gangpu ramp-long* [nici gaŋpu Jap-mloŋ] 'paddy all wither-PRF' 'all the paddy has withered' [CHUK310115B]. Notice the metathesis between the bilabial plosive and the

bilabial nasal in *ramp-long* [Jap-mlɔŋ] wither-PRF, with the bilabial plosive becoming the onset of the next segment *-long*. In *ram-long-be* [Jam-lɔŋ-be:] harvest-PRF-COP1.OK this is not observed.



<u>Figure 2</u>. *ram-long-bey* [1am-lonj-bej] 'harvest-PRF-COP1.OK' [CHUK310115B] vs. *ramp-lon* [1ap-mlon] 'wither-PRF' [CHUK310115B]

There is additional evidence for the -mp cluster in the lexeme  $ramp \{ta\}$  'to wither' from Tshangla, cf. TSB  $ram \sim ramp \{pe\}$  'to be ruined', e.g.  $p^{hai}rap$ - $dz_{2}g$ -mala 'the house has become ruined', cf. also Duhumbi  $rap \ chat \{da\}$  [Iap tc<sup>h</sup>at] 'to become extinct'. The archaic Tibetan cognate, however, does not have a complex cluster:  $red \{pa\} \sim reb \{pa\}$  '[arch] dried out/ withered [IW]'

The following near-minimal pair shows that in the case of  $ngart \{ta\}$  [nat] 'to win', here in its imperative form ngartma [nat ma:], there is a constriction towards the end of the first syllable resulting in a clear pause or break between the two syllables. Although difficult to see in the spectrogram, speakers adjust the vocal tract by bringing forward the tongue to alveolar position, producing a co-articulated unreleased dental plosive [t]. In the case of ngarma [nama:] 'tough' there is no such constriction, and the two syllables flow into over smoothly.



<u>Figure 3.</u> ngart-ma [ŋaɪt-ma:] 'win-imp' [CHUK310115B] vs. ngar-ma [ŋaɪ-ma:] 'tough' [CHUK310115B]

A similar minimal is the minimal pair between  $dur \{da\}$  'to run' and  $durt \{ta\}$  'to rot; to become overcooked' as explained between the two elicited minimal pair sentences in [CHUK121015A(175)es].

[CHUK121015A(175)es] *sha ama duronglong* [ca: ?ama: dui-?ɔŋ-lɔŋ] cattle mother run-go-PRF 'the cow has run away'.

[CHUK121015A(175)es] *shoyya sha durtonglong* [cɔj-ja? ca: duɪt-?ɔŋ-lɔŋ] bull-GEN meat rot-go-PRF 'the bull's meat has become rotten'.

The following spectrogram of the words *hamp-ma* [hampma:] read, study-imp 'study!' and *ham-ma* [ham:a:] smell-imp 'smell' spoken in succession shows the distinction between the two roots. In *ham-ma*, short vowel /a/ and the length of the bilabial nasal, twice as long as in *hamp-ma*, are clearly visible. In *hamp-ma* there is a clear closure at the end of the nasal, and the bilabial plosive is actually even released. Moreover, we observe a falling pitch in both syllables of *hamp-ma*, whereas the pitch is fairly level throughout in *ham-ma*.



<u>Figure 4:</u> *ham-ma* [ham:a:<sup>h</sup>] smell-IMP 'smell' [CHUK310115B] vs. *hamp-ma* [hampma:<sup>h</sup>] read, study-IMP 'study!' [CHUK310115B]

The audio material, in addition to the above example, also provides examples in context, such as *jige odzop le hamp-ma* [jige: odzop le hampma:] letter good do study-IMP 'study {the letters} hard!' [CHUK310115B] and *cis ham-ma* [cis ham:a:] smell smell-IMP 'smell it {the smell}!' [CHUK310115B].

As for the reconstructed Proto-Khispi-Duhumbi roots, **\*hamps** STUDY, READ, cf. also Proto-Tshangla **\*lamp** 'read, study' (Bodt 2012: 200) and **\*ham** SMELL are proposed. In light of additional evidence from the other Western-Kho-Bwa languages the latter is reconstructed as **\***HNAM SMELL at the Proto-Western-Kho-Bwa level, in contrast to Proto-Tshangla **\***NAMS SMELL (Andvik 1999: 105-106).

The next example juxtaposes the root *lamp* 'parch' to the root *lam* 'search; be cold'. Again, the spectrogram for *lamp* {*ta*} clearly shows a released bilabial plosive. Note that any apparent differences in length of the segments is due to the speed of pronunciation.



Figure 5: lam {da} [lam] 'search; be cold' [CHUK310115B] vs. lamp {ta} [lamp] 'parch' [CHUK310115B]

These tokens in context are provided in *koypu lamp-ta* [kɔŋpu lampta:] finger millet parch-ADV 'parching finger millet' [CHUK310115B] and *sojnam lam-da* [sɔjnam lamda:] alms beg-ADV 'begging for alms' [CHUK310115B].

The next example presents an attestation of a coda /ŋk/-cluster. It is the honorific verb *zhaŋk* {*ta*} 'construct; rise, get up'. This verb is a Bodish loan, cf. Tib. *bźen* 'rise, get up (H)', TSD [zaŋk] 'construct; rise, get up (H)', TSB [zɛŋ] 'construct; rise, get up (H)'. The only minimal pair is with the name of the place *Zhang* [zaŋ] (modern spelling Jang) located in Tawang. Note how the onset is palatalised.



In the spectrogram of *zayk*, most obvious is the pause following the velar stop.

<u>Figure 6.</u> *zaŋk* {*ta*} [*z*<sup>j</sup>aŋk] 'construct; rise, get up-adv (H)' [CHUK110115C]

Unlike the bilabial nasal /m/, the velar nasal does not geminate in morphological constructions that result in this phoneme in consecutive coda and onset, with the next onset characterised by the onset of regular pulses in the sound wave.



The verb zaŋk can be found in context in *woj-jo? gonpa hin zaŋk-loŋ* [wɔj-jɔ² gɔnpa hin z<sup>j</sup>aŋklɔŋ] 3SG-AGT monastery one construct-PFV 'he has constructed a monastery' [CHUK310115B] and *rinpote<sup>h</sup>e namsaŋ duktsu zaŋk-loŋ* [Jinpɔ:tc<sup>h</sup>e: namsaŋ duktsu: z<sup>j</sup>aŋklɔŋ] Rinpoche morning early rise-PFV 'rinpoche has woken up early in the morning' [CHUK310115B]. The proper noun *zaŋ* can be found in *woj zaŋ-ŋa budun be*? [wɔj zaŋŋa: budun be<sup>?</sup>] 3SG Zhang-GEN person COP1 'he is a person of Zhang' [CHUK310115B].

There are several minimal pairs without recordings. The first one is for the verb *diŋk* {*ta*} 'pull along thread': *budun diŋdiŋ* person healthy 'the healthy person' vs., e.g. *dejju hwaŋ diŋk-ŋi* yesterday thread pull along-PRET 'yesterday the thread got pulled along' and *hwaŋ diŋk-ta jokkor tut-oŋ-loŋ* thread pull.along-ADV spindle fall-go-PRF 'pulling the thread along the spindle had fallen down'.

The second is for the verb *tcamp* {*ta*} 'surrender' vs. *tcam* {*da*} 'be comfortable', e.g. *coj pis-k<sup>h</sup>o hin tcamp-ni* bull two-LOC one surrender-PRET 'from two bulls one surrendered' vs. *naŋ dejju gari naŋ-k<sup>h</sup>o tcam-ni=ni*? 2SG yesterday car in-LOC comfortable-PRET=Q1 'were you comfortable in the car yesterday?'. The same root *cam* ~ *camp*, though with an unrelated semantic content, also occurs in Bjokapakha Tshangla, cf. Grollmann (2014: 284).

Other (near-)minimal pairs include  $dzayk \{ta\}$  'study' vs.  $dzay \{da\}$  'fall', ziņk {ta} 'take along' vs. zin 'internode';  $t^{h}imp \{ta\}$  'sink' vs.  $t^{h}im \{ta\}$  'let go off'.

The ramifications for historical-comparative linguistics of the Bodish languages and Tshangla, in which many of the Duhumbi lexemes with complex coda clusters have cognates, is a point of future research and investigation.