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Brokpa nominal morphology

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ABSTRACT

The Brokpa language marks noun phrases for plurality and for case. While the five case markers of the language are relatively conservative in form and function compared to other Tibetic languages, the plural marker has been completely innovated. This paper discusses form and function of these markers and will make some relevant comparative observations.

KEYWORDS

Brokpa language, Tibetic languages, nominal morphology, agentive, genitive, dative, ablative, comitative

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1 Introduction

The present paper discusses the nominal morphology of the Brokpa language.¹ This includes number, discussed in section 2, and the five case markers agentive, genitive, dative, ablative and comitative, discussed in section 3. In addition to a description of these morphemes, some historical and comparative notes compare them to those of related languages. For this comparison, Written Tibetan, Dzongkha and Choca-ngacakha will be used for this comparison within the Tibetic subgroup of Trans-Himalayan. Note that, while Written Tibetan will be used to compare Brokpa to an earlier stage of the language, Written Tibetan is not itself an ancestor of Brokpa. However, Written Tibetan is considered to be very similar to Old Tibetan (cf. Beyer 1992: 36–38; Tournadre 2014: 107). In the areal context, Brokpa has close contact with the non-Tibetic languages Tshangla and Dakpa (cf. Bodt 2012: 274; 302–304), which will be considered as well whenever appropriate.

2 Number

Number in Brokpa is marked with the morpheme *=ba* denoting plurality, while singular is never marked. However, if the plurality of the referent is already clear from context, the plural marker *=ba* may be omitted. The plural is always marked at the end of a noun phrase and its scope goes beyond the directly preceding word, which is why it is considered a clitic, similarly to the case markers, for which this analysis is described in section 3. In combination with certain morphemes, *=ba* has an allomorph *=bak*. Examples of the plural marker *=ba* are given in sentences (1) and (2), while its allomorph *=bak* is shown in (3). In all three examples, the pluralized noun phrase has been emphasized in order to better illustrate the scope of the plural.

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¹ For general information about the Brokpa language and the Brokpa Documentation and Description Project as well as for the list of abbreviations and the transliteration of Written Tibetan used in this issue, see Gerber/Grollmann (this issue).

(1) *on miwa māle ku:gin na*

one **mi=ba** máŋle ku:-gin na
 and.then people=PL communal.work instruct-NMLZ.AGT COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘They instruct people to do communal work’ [VH]

(2) *one kat kan daŋ p^hrugubadi tsul lo lokφenas*

one **katpo** **kanmo** **daŋ** **p^hrugu=ba=di**
 and.then old.man old.woman and child=PL=DEF
 tsu=la lo lok-pe na=se
 here=DAT again return.PST-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM=REP
 ‘The old people and the children turned back again.’ [BO]

(3) *one ot tamdi t^hi mi canbaxe t^ho:*

one oti tam=di **t^hi** **mi** **canma=ba=k^he** t^ho:
 and.then DEM.PROX talk=DEF outside person other=PL=FOC hear
 ‘Other people from outside had heard of this talk.’ [YS]

As has already been mentioned, the plural marker does not stand in a privative opposition with a zero marked singular. Thus, lack of the plural morpheme does not necessarily denote singularity of the referent. If it is clear from the context that more than one referent is present or if explicit mention of plurality is not needed, the marking of plurality is optional, as seen in (4). Sentence (4a) can have singular or plural referents depending on context. On the other hand, sentence (4b) invariably refers to more than one horse.

(4) a. *ot tá na*

oti tá na
 DEM.PROX horse COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘This is a horse.’ or ‘These are horses.’

b. *ot tába na*

oti tá=ba na
 DEM.PROX horse=PL COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘These are horses.’

Similarly, if a quantifier implies the presence of multiple referents, the plural is not marked, as can be seen in sentence (5). While the plural marking is necessary in (5a) because it is not implied by the context, it can be omitted in (5b), as the word *kanjo* ‘all’ clearly implies that more than one dog did bite.

(5) a. *kiba k^hoŋ muksəŋ*

kí=ba k^hoŋ múk-səŋ
 dog=PL 3PL bite-PST.SEN

‘The dogs bit them.’

b. *ki kaŋŋo rupne k^hoŋ muksəŋ*

kí kaŋŋo rupne k^hoŋ múk-səŋ
 dog all together 3PL bite-PST.SEN

‘All the dogs bit them together.’

The same phenomenon can be observed when an exact number of referents is stated, such as in sentence (6). The quantifying numeral makes the plural marker =*ba* redundant, which is why the noun remains unmarked.

(6) *one k^hoŋ sum-ŋeraŋ tas eso ʈo-cina*

one k^hoŋ sum-ŋeraŋ tas eskur ʈo-cina
 and.then 3PL three-all.of now school go.PRS-PRS.ALLO

‘All three of them are going to school now.’ [MF]

In the same way, the plural marking of the copula complement in sentence (7) is not present, since the plurality is clearly implied by the plural marking of the proximal demonstrative pronoun *oba*, which can be segmented into the proximal deictic root *o-* and the plural =*ba*, rendering an additional marking with =*ba* redundant. In such cases, the plural is always marked on the demonstrative pronoun and not on the denoted noun itself.

(7) a. *oba ŋegi ki na*

oba ŋe=gi kí na
 DEM.PROX.PL 1SG.GEN=GEN dog COP.EQ.ASM

‘These are my dogs.’

b. * *oba ŋegi kí=ba na*
 DEM.PROX.PL 1SG.GEN=GEN dog= PL COP.EQ.ASM

intended: ‘These are my dogs.’

However, although the Brokpa plural pronouns inherently refer to multiple referents, they may bear an additional plural marking. In fact, plural pronouns are marked with =*ba* about as frequently as other nouns. The plural marker =*ba* on a plural pronoun is shown in sentence (8), whereas sentence (9) demonstrates that the plural marking on the personal pronouns is not obligatory. Note that both, (8) and (9), are from the same story (‘Strawberry Incident [SI]’ in Leki et al., this issue) and that sentence (9) without plural-marked pronoun is uttered before (8) with a marked pronoun, showing that it cannot be assumed that the marking is simply lacking due to the fact that the plurality has already been explicitly marked beforehand.

(8) *on parpareu niba tsemtse*

one parpareuŋ ní=ba tsemtse
 and.then sometimes 1PL.EXCL=PL play.PST
 ‘And in between we played.’ [SI]

(9) *on ní ʃosin di saradi eso teaŋ t^hopcina*

one ní eskur ʃo-sin di sara=di
 and.then 1PL.EXCL school go.PRS-CVB1 TOP lunch=DEF
 eskur teaŋ t^hop-cina
 school plain achieve-PRS.ALLO

‘When we go to school, we get lunch at school.’ [SI]

The allomorph =*bak* has so far exclusively been attested before the focus morpheme =*k^he* and in the paucal morpheme =*baxɛik* discussed below, where =*bak* combines with the indefinite article =*ɛik*.²

The combination of a plosive and a fricative or an aspirated plosive (for which, in turn, a lenition to fricatives often takes place) often causes an assimilation of the plosive. Thus, since =*bak* is only attested before =*k^he* and =*ɛik*, it is always realized as [bax]. Etymologically, the plural morpheme can be traced back to the Tshangla plural =*bak* (see historical and comparative notes below). Since there is a synchronic explanation for the overt form [bax], =*bak* is analyzed based on its etymology with an underlying final stop rather than a fricative. It can be assumed that the final /k/ has been lost in all other environments, leading to the more prevalent allomorph =*ba*. Example (10) shows that both plural allomorphs occur in similar semantic and phonological contexts.

(10) a. *p^hruguba kaŋjoʃe jabena*

p^hrugu=ba kaŋjo=ʃe jap-pe na
 child=PL all=AGT do-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘All the children did it.’

b. *p^hrugubaxk^he jabe na*

p^hrugu=bak=k^he jap-pe na
 child=PL=FOC do-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘All the children did it.’

² The indefinite article =*ɛik* also occurs independently, as demonstrated in sentence (a).

(a) *one ʃe auɛ jena*

one ʃe au=ɛik jena
 and.then 1SG.AGT older.male.parallel.cousin=INDF COP.EX.ASM
 ‘And I had an older cousin.’ [SI]

Paucal number only coding a few tokens of a group can be marked by adding either of the paucal markers =*lal* or =*baxeik*. The latter is clearly composed of the plural allomorph =*bak* and the indefinite article =*eik*. Since the paucal meaning cannot be derived from the individual meanings of its components, =*baxeik* is considered a single grammaticalized morpheme. On the other hand, the origin of the morpheme =*lal* is unclear. It does not seem to be derived from any other morpheme such as the dative marker =*la*, which is often realised as [l] (see chapter 3.3). Examples of the paucal are listed in (11), where the listed variants are all semantically identical. It can be observed that when using =*lal*, the plural marking with =*ba* may be omitted, as in (11b). So far, no difference has been noted between the meaning of the two paucal morphemes. It is however possible, that =*baxeik* refers to indefinite referents rather than a few tokens of a group.

(11) a. *kibalal eili na*

kí=ba=lal eí-pe na
 dog=PL=PAUC1 die-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘Some of the dogs died.’

b. *kilal eili na*

kí=lal eí-pe na
 dog=PAUC1 die-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘Some of the dogs died.’

c. *kibaxeik eili na*

kí=baxeik eí-pe na
 dog=PAUC2 die-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘Some of the dogs died.’

Just like the plural, the paucal can be followed by a case marker, as is demonstrated in sentence (12).

(12) *lupunbaxeikje eucin jo lapcina*

lopon=baxeik=je eukcen jo lap-cina
 teacher=PAUC2=AGT strong COP.EX.EGO say-PRS.ALLO
 ‘Some of the teachers used to say I am strong.’

Historical and comparative notes. In Written Tibetan, no single morpheme is used to express plural. However, plurality may be expressed optionally through so-called ‘number words’ (DeLancey 2003: 263). Just like in Brokpa, those number markers are antecedent to potential case markers (Hahn 1994: 52) and the exact number of referents can be expressed with a numeral instead (Hahn 1994: 51; Beyer 1992: 220–221). As in Brokpa, the plural marker may be omitted if plurality can be inferred from context (Schwieger 2006: 42). The most common number words are མཚོ *tsho*, རྣམས་ *rnams* and ཅག *cag* (DeLancey 2003: 263). Hahn (1994: 50) also cites the particles དག *dag*, ལག *phrag* (on

collectives of certain numbers) and ཅུ *cog* (only on the demonstrative pronoun ཅོ 'o) which may indicate plural under certain circumstances. However, the use of these particles is restricted and not productive (cf. Hahn 1994: 50–52; Beyer 1992: 230). For all of these markers, a phonological change to the Brokpa plural marker =*ba* seems implausible. Rather, it can be assumed that the Brokpa morpheme is a loan from the neighbouring Tshangla³ language, where the plural is marked by =*bak* (cf. Bodt 2012: 203; Grollmann, in press). It seems very probable that the morpheme has been borrowed from Tshangla, since the Brokpa people and the Tshangla share a long history of contact and cultural affinity and a number of nativised loans from Tshangla into Brokpa have already been observed (cf. Bodt 2012: 311).

3 Case

Brokpa distinguishes five case markers, which will be discussed in the following subsections: the agentive =*je* (section 3.1), the genitive =*gi* (section 3.2), the dative =*la* (section 3.3), the ablative =*ne* (section 3.4) and the comitative =*day* (section 3.5). Table 1 provides a short overview of the Brokpa case markers and the main semantic roles they cover.

Case (gloss)	Morpheme	Role
Agentive (AGT)	= <i>je</i>	Agent
Genitive (GEN)	= <i>gi</i>	Possessor, Modifier
Dative (DAT)	= <i>la</i>	Location, Possessor, Goal, Recipient, Bene-/Maleficiary, Stimulus
Ablative (ABL)	= <i>ne</i>	Source
Comitative (COM)	= <i>day</i>	Companion

Table 1. Brokpa case markers

Brokpa marks case at the end of the respective noun phrase (so-called *Gruppenflexion*), just as Tibetan does (cf. Hill 2015: 920). As such, case markers are always located at the end of the modified noun phrase, thus not exclusively following nouns but also adjectives or numerals, as seen in sentence (13).

³ Note that Tshangla is not considered to be part of the Tibetic subgroup but rather an independent subclade of Trans-Himalayan (van Driem 2014: 22).

(13) *namei esinje ŋa gautsor teuki*

namei **eeen=je** ŋa gautsor teúk-pe
 weather good=AGT 1SG happiness put.inside-NMLZ.PST

‘The good weather makes me happy.’

Additionally, the scope of the case marker goes beyond the directly preceding element, such as in sentence (14), where it is the whole noun phrase, *k^hoe na:si do: canma=ba=la* ‘to another of his yak herder friends’ that is marked with the dative =la. Further examples of the clitic behaviour of the case markers is given for the genitive in (15) and for the comitative in (16).

(14) *oni k^hue:teik je aeaŋ k^hoe nas do: canmal teik lagoŋe teun [...]*

one k^hue-teik je aeaŋ **k^hoe** **na:si**
 and.then times-one 1SG.GEN maternal.uncle 3SG.GEN yak.herder

do: **canma=ba=la** teik lap-go-pe teuŋ-ne
 friend other=PL=DAT one say-must-NMLZ.PST happen-CVB2

‘Once it happened that my uncle had to tell something to another of his yak herder friends [...]’ [NC]

(15) *ri meti tecomigi leak ko tsuk*

ri **me-pe** **teo-mi=gi** leaka ko tsuk
 mountain not.exist-NMLZ.PST make-NMLZ.ACT=GEN work head put.on

‘They began the work of destroying the mountain.’ [BO]

(16) *i: cimgindaŋ ni k^hue:teik preaŋne jal k^him tsiti*

i: **cim-gin=daŋ** ni k^hue-teik preaŋ=ne ja=la
 grandmother be.dead-NMLZ.AGT=COM 1PL.EXCL times-one hut=ABL up=DAT

c^him tei-pe
 house go.PST-NMLZ.PST

‘My late grandmother and I were once walking up home from the yak herder’s place.’ [YE]

Thus, all case markers have been analyzed as clitics, similarly to the plural, since they do not necessarily follow the head noun directly and their scope encompasses the whole noun phrase (cf. DeLancey 2003; Genetti 1993).

3.1 Agentive =je

The Brokpa case marker =je may mark both the agent and the instrument of a verbal action. However, this marking is largely pragmatically conditioned, which is fairly typical of Tibetic languages (cf. DeLancey 2011). Since the agentive marking with =je is mostly conditioned by the pragmatic context of the utterance, it marks semantically agentive arguments rather than subjects of a transitive verb, which is why it is not analyzed as an ergative. As such, the agentive marker is mostly employed when the agent cannot be inferred from context or if the speaker wants to emphasize its agentivity. Thus, it is used regularly but by no means as frequently as other case markers in natural speech, as can be seen in the texts in Leki et al. (this issue).

Examples of the agentive marking in non-elicited speech can be found in (17), where the agent of the action is marked with =je, whereas the patient remains unmarked. Example (17) shows the beginning of the story of the bat and the vulture (labelled [BV] in Leki et al., this issue). While in (17a) the vulture is acting as the one who eats people and is thus marked with the agentive, in (17b) it is the bat who performs the verbal action of subduing and thus bears the agentive marker =je, while the vulture bears no case marker.

(17) a. *taŋbo koje mi sacinase*

taŋbo ko=je mi sa-cina=se
 first vulture=AGT person eat.PRS-PRS.ALLO=REP

‘The vulture used to eat people.’ [BV]

b. *ta mi samiteúkmiği ton komεφagoje ko tu.mi jam nekap tóninase*

ta mi sa-mi-teúk-mi=gi ton
 now person eat.PRS-NEG.FUT-put.inside-NMLZ.ACT=GEN reason

komεin^haŋgo=je ko t^hu:-mi jap-ne nekap
 bat=AGT vulture subdue-NMLZ.ACT do-CVB2 idea

tón-pe na=se
 take.out-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM=REP

‘To stop it from eating people, the bat had some ideas to try to subdue the vulture.’ [BV]

Due to the largely pragmatic conditioning of the agentive marking, it is possible that the agent of a transitive verb is unmarked or that the subject of an intransitive verb is marked with the agentive, as demonstrated in sentences (18) and (19) respectively. In (18), the agent need not be marked, since he can be inferred from the context. In (19) the agentive marking only serves the purpose of emphasizing the agentivity of the subject – here the speaker. Both sentences in (19) are correct in the appropriate context. Sentence (19a), can be used if the speaker wants to emphasize that it is him who is going and not someone else, which is not the case in (19b).

(18) *ŋa lakpa tup-taŋ-pe*

ŋa lakpa tup-taŋ-pe
 1SG hand cut.apart-do-NMLZ.PST
 ‘I cut my hand off.’

(19) a. *ŋe ʈo-coʔ*

ŋe ʈo-coʔ
 1SG.AGT go.PRS-PRS.EGO
 ‘I’m going.’

b. *ŋa ʈo-coʔ*

ŋa ʈo-coʔ
 1SG go.PRS-PRS.EGO
 ‘I’m going.’

Answers to questions with *sú=je* ‘who= AGT’ demand a referent marked with the agentive. Thus, in (20) the answer to the question ‘Who cut the wood?’ requires the subject to be marked with the agentive, while the neutral utterance in (21) does not.

(20) a. *syi ɛiŋ tuʈi*

sú=je ɛiŋ tuʈi
 who=AGT wood cut.apart-NMLZ.PST
 ‘Who cut the wood?’

b. *ŋe tuʈe*

ŋe tuʈe
 1SG.AGT go.PRS-PRS.EGO
Answer: ‘I cut [the wood].’

(21) *ŋa tuʈe*

ŋa tuʈe
 1SG cut.apart-NMLZ.PST
 ‘I cut [the wood].’

The agentive *=je* can be used to mark the instrument of an action. A single sentence may contain both the marking of the agent as well as that of the instrument, as can be seen in sentence (22) and the sentences in (23) below.

(22) *ne teinje φosəŋ*

ne tein=je p^hok-səŋ
 1SG.AGT urine=AGT hit-PST.SEN

‘I peed on someone.’ (lit. ‘I hit someone with urine.’)

Just as with the marking of the agent, the morpheme =je may be omitted when an instrument role is involved. Thus, both sentences in (23) have the same meaning. The morpheme =je may be omitted in (23a), since it is clear from the context that the axe was used for cutting. Formally, no difference between the marking of the agent and the marking of the instrument can be found, which is why =je is considered a single polysemous morpheme rather than two distinct homophonous morphemes with the same etymological source. This is not surprising, given the areal linguistic context, as will be detailed in the historical and comparative notes below.

(23) a. *ne auje eiŋ deri duφtuk*

ne au=je eiŋ teri tup tuk
 1SG.GEN older.brother=AGT tree axe cut.apart COP.EX.ACQ

‘My brother cut the tree with an axe.’

b. *ne auje eiŋ deri je duφtuk*

ne au=je eiŋ teri=je tup tuk
 1SG.GEN older.brother=AGT tree axe=AGT cut.apart COP.EX.ACQ

‘My brother cut the tree with an axe.’

As could be observed in sentences (18) through (23) (with the exception of (18), (19b) and (20)), the agentive is not always overtly marked with =je after words ending in vowels or in pronouns. Further examples are given in (24) and (25). However, the purely vocalic marking of the agentive occurs only after the vowel *a*, which becomes *e*, i.e. there is no overt agentive marker =je. An exception to this is the plural marker =ba (which historically was =bak), which is never realised as [be], as demonstrated in sentence (26). After *u* the agentive is often only realised as *i*, occasionally fronting the final *u* to *y*, such as in *syi* (from *sú=je* ‘who=AGT’) in sentence (20) above, but not always, as seen in (25).

(24) *merakpe paktsal paktsa mato no:ε lak mena*

merakpa=je paktsa=la paktsa mato no:εε lap-ki
 merak.person=AGT animal.skin=DAT animal.skin only animal.skin say-NFIN

mena
 COP.EX.NEG.ASM

‘People from Merak call the animal skin only *paktsa*, not *no:εe*.’ [MU]

(25) *on mibaxe k^ho p^hui k^hergalenas laφena*

one mi=ba=k^he k^ho p^hu=je k^her-ga:-pe
 and.then person=PL=FOC 3SG.M village.deity=AGT take-leave-NMLZ.PST
 na=se lap-pe na
 COP.EQ.ASM=REP say-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM

‘People said he was taken away by the village deity.’ [VD]

(26) *εotsin di jiba jⁱ teuŋbaço k^hoe k^hai naŋ teise sisi torgoxinas*

εot-sin di jⁱ=ba jⁱ teuŋku-co=ba=je k^ho=gi
 jump-CVB1 TOP 1PL.EXCL=PL 1PL.EXCL small-COMPR=PL=AGT 3SG.M=GEN
 k^ha=gi naŋ tei=se sisi tor-go-cina=se
 mouth=GEN inside what=REP strawberry throw-must-PRS.ALLO=REP

‘When he jumps, we the smaller ones, we have to throw, um, strawberries in his mouth.’ [SI]

As such, a vocalic allomorph =e (which is raised to *i* after high vowels) of the agentive occurring after vowels seems possible. However, while all words ending in *a* change their coda to *e* in the agentive case, this is not consistently done for all other vowels, as could be seen in (17), where the vulture, *ko*, was marked as *ko=je* and not, as might be expected, **koe* or **køe*. The assumption of a historical final consonant in /ko/ which has been lost later in time is implausible, since Brokpa *ko* ‘vulture’ corresponds to Written Tibetan ་(ཁོ) *go* (*bo*). The same can be said for *ri=je* (WT ་(རི) *ri* ‘mountain’) in sentence (27) below. It might be hypothesized, that after *i* the form =je is used, since otherwise *i* would be expected after a high vowel, which caused a merger of the case marker and stem coda so that the agentive became covert in this context. Since the agentive is only marked when the speaker wants to highlight the agentivity, a covert, untraceable marker would need reinforcement.

(27) *di ri o riye k^hɔl k^hoi φotaŋla nima kapcinas*

di ri oti ri=je k^ho=la k^ho=gi p^hotaŋ=la
 TOP mountain DEM.PROX mountain=AGT 3SG.M=DAT 3SG.M=GEN palace=DAT
 nima kap-cina=se
 sun cover-PRS.ALLO=REP

‘The mountain, that mountain shielded him, his palace from the sun.’ [OS]

The singular personal pronouns also show considerable variation when they take the agentive, especially the first person singular pronoun *ŋa* (agentive *je*) and the second person singular *c^ho* (agentive *k^he*). It may well be possible that an allomorph =e following the pronouns caused the alternating stems (that is, *ŋa=e > ŋe > je*). However, it is unclear what led to the de-palatalization of the onset of *c^ho* ‘you’ (2SG) before =e. For the third person pronouns, *k^ho* (agentive *k^hoe*) and *mo* (agentive *moe*), the segmentation *k^ho=e* and *mo=e* seems straightforward.

Table 2 shows the agentive forms of the singular pronouns alongside their regular unmarked forms. Note that no such stem alternation is present in plural pronouns.

person	unmarked	agentive
1SG	<i>ŋa</i>	<i>ŋe</i>
2SG	<i>c^ho</i>	<i>k^he</i>
3SG.M	<i>k^ho</i>	<i>k^hoe</i>
3SG.F	<i>mo</i>	<i>moe</i>

Table 2. Brokpa agentive singular pronouns

While the alternating pronoun stems clearly point towards an allomorph =*e*, it cannot consistently be identified after vowels. It is possible, that nowadays the form =*je* is starting to be generalized, thus replacing the use of a historically present allomorph =*e*. Why this is not the case following the vowel *a* is, however, unclear.

Historical and comparative notes. The Brokpa agentive =*je* shows considerable similarities with the ergative of other Tibetic languages. Written Tibetan has the morpheme ལྱིས་ -*kyis* ~ ལྱིས་ -*gis* ~ ལྱིས་ -*gyis* ~ ལྱིས་ -*gis* ~ ལྱིས་ -*is*, which marks both ergative and instrumental case (Tournadre 2010: 102–103). Of these Written Tibetan allomorphs, especially ལྱིས་ -*gyis* is very reminiscent of the Brokpa agentive =*je*. Regarding the Brokpa allomorph after vowels, nowadays it can be found both as =*i* and =*e*. However, etymologically, the form =*e* seems more plausible, presumably corresponding to Written Tibetan ལྱིས་ -*gis* or ལྱིས་ -*is*. It can be assumed that =*e* is raised to *i* after high vowels, such as *u* or *y*.

As for other Tibetic languages, the corresponding marker (often dubbed ‘ergative’) can clearly be traced back to the same source: Dzongkha ergative is marked by ལྱིས་ ~ ལྱིས་ ~ ལྱིས་ -*gi*.⁴ As in Brokpa, it can be used for the instrument of a verbal action. Additionally, it is also rather used to highlight the agentive nature of marked subjects instead of being a classic ergative consistently marking the subjects of transitive verbs (Tshering & van Driem 2019: 187–179). The same can be said of Choca-ngachakha (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 76). The ergative is marked with -*gi* after consonants and -*ki* ~ -*i* after vowels (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 76–77). As such, the Brokpa agentive does not stand out in the Tibetic context in neither form nor function.

3.2 Genitive =*gi*

The Brokpa genitive is marked with =*gi* and expresses the affiliation of the marked noun with another. Typically, the head follows the dependent marked with =*gi*. An example of the genitive is given in (28), where the same meaning (‘This is our dog.’) is expressed in both sentences. As can

⁴ The rules of spelling of the orthographic form are based on conventions from Classical Tibetan and the orthographic final grapheme of the preceding word (Tshering & van Driem 2019: 178).

be seen in sentence (28b), the possessor can follow the possessed element semantically, although they are separated by a phrase boundary.

(28) a. *ot jigi kí na*

oti	ni=gi	kí	na
DEM.PROX	1PL.EXCL=GEN	dog	COP.EQ.ASM

‘This is our dog.’

b. *ot kí jigi na*

oti	kí	ni=gi	na
DEM.PROX	dog	1PL.EXCL=GEN	COP.EQ.ASM

‘This is our dog.’ (more accurately: ‘This dog is ours.’)

In connected speech, the genitive marking may be omitted if the connection between the head and the dependent is clear from context. This is especially true in constructions with so-called relator nouns (see DeLancey (2003: 264) for a discussion of the term and Mittaz (this issue [a]) for a description of relator nouns in Brokpa), where a location is specified with a relator noun such as *tsé* ‘top, peak’, *naŋ* ‘inside’, *tʰi* ‘bottom’, thus leading to a more specific meaning concerning the location of the object (such as ‘in, inside of’ in the case of *naŋ*). This is demonstrated in sentence (29), where a genitive after *paku* ‘purse’ might be expected. Example (30) shows that the marking of the genitive is, however, not impossible in constructions with relator nouns.

(29) *ne paku naŋla rup jo*

ne	paku	naŋ=la	rup	jo
1SG.GEN	purse	inside=DAT	money	COP.EX.EGO

‘There’s money in my purse.’

(30) *tsʰogi naŋ do tomtaŋ otein jasin tsʰo kʰo:*

tsʰo=gi	naŋ	do	tom-taŋ	oteins	jap=sin	tsʰo	kʰo:
lake=GEN	inside	stone	throw-do	thus	do-CVB1	lake	boil

‘They were throwing stones into the lake; doing so, the lake boiled.’ [LS]

Similar to the agentive marker, the genitive is often phonetically reduced after vowels in natural speech and can cause assimilation of the preceding final vowel. As such, an allomorph consisting of only a vowel is just as plausible for the genitive as it is for the agentive. However, similar to the agentive which is still often realised as =*je* after vowels and not as =*e*, the same holds true for the genitive, which may also be realised as =*gi* without influencing the preceding vowel. A genitive =*gi* following a word ending in *a* may lead to final *a* being realised as *e* or *i*, such as in the example (31a), where underlying *merakpa=gi* ‘merak.person=GEN’ is realised as *merakpe*. However, (31b) shows that this is not consistently done.

(31) a. *unl merakpi o:ɛik sâteanla jō*

unla merakpa=gi o:=ɛik sâtean=la jon
 previously merak.person=GEN boy=INDF Sakteng=DAT come
 ‘Some time ago, a Merak boy came to Sakteng.’ [MU]

b. *brokpagi mar tɛ^hora tɛ^ho t^hanɣi korn teik lapna*

brokpa=gi mar tɛ^hora teo t^hanɣ=gi kor=ne teik
 Brokpa=GEN butter cheese make way=GEN about=ABL one
 lap na
 say COP.EQ.ASM

‘I talk about the way the Brokpa make butter and cheese.’ [MB]

The same can be said for word-final *u* and *o* before the genitive, which are often fronted to *y* and *ø* respectively or may be deleted entirely. The genitive may be reduced to =*i* in this case. After *o*, a similar behaviour as after *a* is possible as well (that is, *o* becomes *e* and no overt genitive marker is present). Examples for genitive after *u* are given in (32), while (33) shows the genitive after *o*. After final *e* and *i*, however, the genitive is usually realised as =*gi*. The reason for this is probably again that the genitive would otherwise be untraceable – similar to the agentive =*je* discussed earlier.

(32) *do tɛ^hygi thil tuk*

do tɛ^hu=gi t^hî=la tuk
 stone water=GEN bottom=DAT COP.EX.ACQ

‘The stone is under the water.’

(33) a. *on gom jebi tsam tei dynɛan jap*

one go:ma jebo=gi tsam tei dynte^han jap
 and.then evening king=GEN nearby go.PST party do

‘[...] and in the evening they went to the king’s place for a party.’ [BO]

b. *k^hegi bome miŋ teina*

k^he=gi bomo=gi miŋ teí na
 2SG.GEN=GEN daughter=GEN name what COP.EQ.ASM

‘What is your daughter’s name?’

In a similar vein to the agentive, the singular personal pronouns are influenced by the following genitive. The first and second person singular have the same stem when marked with the genitive as when marked with the agentive, that is, first person *ŋa* plus genitive becomes *ne=gi* and second person *c^ho* plus genitive becomes *k^he=gi*. Sometimes the genitive marker =*gi* is not present, rendering the form identical to the agentive pronouns. This is also the case for the third person

pronouns, male *k^ho* and female *mo*, which may simply be marked with =*gi*, or occur as *k^hoe* ~ *k^hoi* and *moe* ~ *moi* respectively. Table 3 shows both possible genitive forms for the singular personal pronouns. Again, no such distinction is present for the plural pronouns, which are simply marked with =*gi*.

person	unmarked	genitive
1SG	<i>ŋa</i>	<i>ŋe=gi</i> ~ <i>ŋe</i>
2SG	<i>c^ho</i>	<i>k^he=gi</i> ~ <i>k^he</i>
3SG.M	<i>k^ho</i>	<i>k^ho=gi</i> ~ <i>k^hoe</i> ~ <i>k^hoi</i>
3SG.F	<i>mo</i>	<i>mo=gi</i> ~ <i>moe</i> ~ <i>moi</i>

Table 3. Brokpa genitive singular pronouns

Thus, again an allomorph consisting only of a vowel can be assumed, possibly =*i*. This would explain the apparent ‘loss’ of the velar onset of the morpheme =*gi* in many instances. Additionally, it would explain alternation for the first person pronouns, which may have arisen in a similar manner as the agentive pronouns. Thus, *ŋa=i* became *ŋe* ~ *ŋi* which in turn became *ŋe*. A similar change could have led to *k^he*. The additional marking with the genitive in *ŋe=gi* and *k^he=gi* may be a newer addition in order to prevent confusion with the agentive.

Historical and comparative notes. Like the agentive, the Brokpa genitive can clearly be traced back to the same source as the genitive case markers of other Tibetic languages. In Written Tibetan, the genitive is marked with ལྱི *-k^hyi* ~ ལྱི *-gi* ~ ལྱི *-gyi* ~ ལྱི *-yi* ~ ལྱི *-’i* and can be used to modify the noun following the marked element directly. It is most commonly used to mark affiliation and attributes (cf. Tournadre 2010: 105; Hahn 1994: 79–82). Brokpa genitive =*gi* thus clearly corresponds to Written Tibetan ལྱི *-gi*. The allomorph after the vowels /a, u, o/ presumably corresponds to Written Tibetan ལྱི *-yi* ~ ལྱི *-’i*. Similarly, the Dzongkha genitive is formed with the suffix ལྱི ~ ལྱི ~ ལྱི *-gi* or ལྱི *-i* after some but not all words ending in vowels (Tshering & van Driem 2019: 111). This case marker is homophonous with the agentive, just as it is in Choca-ngachakha, where it is *-gi*. After vowels, however, the Choca-ngachakha genitive is marked with *-yi* ~ *-gi* (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 77).⁵

Additionally, in Dzongkha it may be the case that the genitive allomorphs *-gi* and *-i* are both combined. This is particularly true in the first singular possessive, *ngégi* ‘my’ from the first person singular pronoun *nga* and the genitive (Tshering & van Driem 2019: 111). This is reminiscent of the Brokpa genitive pronouns for the first and second person singular. Possibly, Brokpa may have had such a double marking with *-i-gi* ‘GEN-GEN’ as well, which gave rise to the forms of the personal pronouns *ŋe=gi* ‘1SG.GEN-GEN’ and *k^he=gi* ‘2SG.GEN-GEN’.

⁵ The exact conditioning for this allophony after vowels is not explained (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 77).

3.3 Dative =la

The Brokpa dative is marked with =la, which is often reduced to [l] in natural speech. The dative is used for expressing locations, beneficiaries and maleficiaries, goals, possession, time-periods and final states of transformations.

Sentence (34) shows the dative indicating the location, while it marks both destinations of *joŋ* ‘come’ in example (35) and the destination of *cur* ‘throw’ in (36).

(34) *ŋa mo lɥasala jo*

ŋa	mo	lú	jap-sa=la	jo
1SG	3SG.F	song	do-NMLZ.LOC=DAT	COP.EX.EGO

‘I was where she was singing.’

(35) *[...] one desin teik meral joŋ desin teik sâteaŋla joŋφenas*

one	desin	teik	merak=la	joŋ	desin	teik	sâteaŋ=la
and.then	group	one	Merak=DAT	come	group	one	Sakteng=DAT
	joŋ-pe		na=se				
	come-NMLZ.PST		COP.EQ.ASM=REP				

‘[...] one group came to Merak and one group came to Sakteng.’ [AC]

(36) *sisi φal oteins curgoxinas*

sisi	p ^h a=la	oteins	cur-go-cina=se
strawberry	there=DAT	thus	throw-must-PRS.ALLO=REP

‘We thus have to throw the strawberries there.’ [SI]

Possession can be expressed by marking the possessor with the dative =la and an unmarked possessed element. This construction does not differentiate between alienable and inalienable possession, as can be seen in the (37) with the alienable possession of cows and (38) with the inalienable possession of a father. Example (38) also shows that negative possession is formed in the same way but using the appropriate negative copula.

(37) *mol pa jaɕik jena*

mo=la	pa	jaɕik	jena
3SG.F=DAT	cow	100	COP.EX.ASM

‘She has a hundred cows.’

(38) *ŋala ap me?*

ŋa=la	apa	me
1SG=DAT	father	COP.EX.NEG.EGO

‘I don’t have a father.’ [MF]

The dative also marks the final state of a transformation or change, as can be seen in sentence (39). Together with the ablative =*ne*, which marks the starting-point of the process, full transformations can be described, such as in sentence (40).

(39) *eiŋ tʰalal jurtuk*

eiŋ tʰala=la jur tuk
tree ash=DAT change COP.EX.ACQ

‘The tree turned to ash.’

(40) *nam ŋonbone marbul jurtuk*

nam ŋonbo=*ne* marbo=*la* jur tuk
sky blue=ABL red=DAT change COP.EX.ACQ

‘The sky changed from blue to red.’

The dative =*la* also marks both beneficiary and maleficiary, as seen in sentences (41) and (42) respectively. The recipient of the verbal action is marked in sentence (43), while in (44) the dative =*la* marks the addressee.

(41) *kʰe ŋala dojabna ŋe cʰol dojapko*

kʰe ŋa=*la* do: jap na ŋe cʰo=*la* do: jap-ko
2SG.AGT 1SG=DAT friend do COP.EQ.ASM 1SG.AGT 2SG=DAT friend do-ADH

‘If you help me, I will help you.’

(42) *ŋe mol duŋjo?*

ŋe mo=*la* duŋ-co?
1SG.AGT 3SG.F=DAT beat-PRS.EGO

‘I beat her.’

(43) *ei mi je ŋal tæeik cʰoŋtæinsəŋ*

ei mi =je ŋa=*la* tæe: =eik cʰoŋ-tæin-səŋ
cat=AGT 1SG=DAT rat=INDF bring-give.PST/IMP-PST.SEN

‘The cat brought me a rat.’

(44) *one ŋe i: ei mginla tæi ŋam na lam tisin [...]*

one ŋe i: ei m-gin=*la* tæi ŋam
and.then 1SG.GEN grandmother be.dead-NMLZ.AGT=DAT what sound

na lap-ne [i]-sin
 COP.EQ.ASM say-CVB2 ask-CVB1

‘When I asked my late grandmother saying “What sound was that?” [...]’ [YE]

In addition, the dative can mark a stimulus as can be seen in (45). While the wolf, the stimulus of the fear, is not expressed in (45a), it is marked with the dative when present in (45b). Note that as soon as the wolf becomes the agent in (45c), it is not marked with the dative =*la*.

(45) a. *riboŋ ɛik tuk*

riboŋ ɛik tuk
 rabbit be.afraid COP.EX.ACQ

‘The rabbit is afraid.’

b. *riboŋ ɸarala ɛikne tɛare deti na*

riboŋ p^hara=*la* ɛik-ne tɛar-pe te-pe na
 rabbit wolf=DAT be.afraid-CVB2 hide-NMLZ.PST stay.PST-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM

‘The rabbit was afraid of the wolf, so it hid itself.’

c. *ɸare riboŋ ɛik tɛucina*

p^hara=*je* riboŋ ɛik-tɛúk-cina
 wolf=AGT rabbit be.afraid-put.inside-PRS.ALLO

‘The wolf makes the rabbit afraid.’

Historical and comparative notes. When comparing the Brokpa dative to Written Tibetan it becomes clear that Brokpa =*la* covers the function of both the Written Tibetan dative (or allative, according to Hill 2004) འ -*la* and the Written Tibetan locative འ -*na*. While the Written Tibetan dative འ -*la* marks the benefactive, possessor or the superessive, inessive or allative location of an action (cf. Tournadre 2010: 106), the locative འ -*na* expresses inessive-locative meanings where no movement is involved (cf. Tournadre 2010: 110). Beyer (1992: 267–269) distinguishes these two cases, which he calls locus roles, by the boundedness of the location where the action takes place: the dative/allative འ -*la* is used to mark the location in a closed area and the locative འ -*na* is used in non-bounded spaces. It can be assumed that the Brokpa locative =*la* has the same source as the dative/allative morpheme འ -*la* but has generalized its meaning to include that of the Written Tibetan locative འ -*na*, which has in turn been eliminated. It is not uncommon that the function of the dative/allative and the locative are covered by a single morpheme in modern Tibetic languages. Choca-ngachakha, for example, uses a single morpheme *-le* ~ *-ge* ~ *-nge* ~ *-e*.⁶ Its meaning is said to be “dative as well as locative and allative” (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 78). However, some Tibetic languages have retained a distinction, such as Dzongkha: The Dzongkha locative suffix འ -*na* indicates location or destination, whereas the goal or site of an activity is marked with འ -*lu*, called

⁶ The allomorphy is conditioned as follows: *-le* after /t, n, p, r/, *-ge* after /k/, *-nge* after /ng/ and *-e* after /m/ or vowels (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 78). The morpheme also pharyngalises the preceding vowel.

dative or ‘target’ case (Tshering & van Driem 2019: 111–112). A similar function is also described for the locative/dative case marker *-ga* of the non-Tibetic language Tshangla, which marks recipients, goals, bene-/maleficiaries, locations, possessors and end-states of transformations (cf. Andvik 2010: 155–160).

3.4 Ablative =ne

The Brokpa ablative *=ne* expresses movement away from the source or starting-point of an action, be it a location, a state or a moment in time, such as in (46). As mentioned above in section 3.3, the ablative also marks the starting state of a transformation.

- (46) *lum dukne c^hoŋɸe na*
 lum duk=ne c^hoŋ-pe na
 alcoholic.drink Bhutan=ABL bring-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM
 ‘Lum is brought from Bhutan.’

Just as with the locative, the ablative can be used together with relator nouns, whenever the movement away from a certain place is expressed, as can be seen in (47), where *=ne* combines with the relator noun *tsé* ‘top’.

- (47) *dzju eiŋ tsene mala pruga:soŋ*
 tɛju eiŋ tsé=ne ma=la pru-ga:-soŋ
 small.bird tree top=ABL down=LOC fall.off-leave-PST.SEN
 ‘The bird fell from the tree.’

Similarly, the place of origin is also marked with the ablative, although there is not necessarily a movement away from it, as can be seen in (48). The speaker states that he is originally from eastern Bhutan without necessarily implying that he has left.

- (48) *on ŋa duk ɛrtɛo=ne jin lap-pe*
 one ŋa duk ɛrtɛo=ne jin lap-pe
 and.then 1SG Bhutan eastern.part=ABL COP.EQ.EGO say-NMLZ.PST
 ‘I said “I’m from the eastern part of Bhutan”.’ [MP]

Historical and comparative notes. The function of the Brokpa ablative *=ne* corresponds to the Written Tibetan ablative case ལས་ *-las* and the elative case ཅས་ *-nas*. These are described as ‘source roles’ by Beyer (1992: 267–270). Written Tibetan ablative ལས་ *-las* marks the source of an action when it is the surface of an object, whereas the Written Tibetan elative ཅས་ *-nas* is used in a broader context and marks the temporal or locational source of an action (cf. Beyer 1992: 267–270). Hill (2012: 10–11) describes the difference as being dependent on the transcending of a boundary: The elative ཅས་ *-nas* implies that a boundary has been overstepped, whereas the ablative ལས་ *-las* does not. He further states that only ཅས་ *-nas* is used in combination with relator nouns and that only ལས་

-las can be used as a comparative (Hill 2012: 16; 18). While the Brokpa ablative *=ne* cannot be used as a comparative, the other functions of the Written Tibetan ablative and elative are united in Brokpa *=ne*. The merger of ablative ལས་ *-las* and elative རྩས་ *-nas* is also attested in other Tibetic languages: The point of origin of a verbal action is marked with the ablative suffix ལས་ *-le* in Dzongkha (Tshering & van Driem 2019: 112). For Choca-ngachakha, Tournadre & Rigzin (2015: 79–80) describe the marker *-leki* ~ *-geki* ~ *-ngeki* ~ *-eki* whose allomorphs are distributed exactly as those of the Choca-ngachakha dative and suggest that it has been innovated from a combination of the dative *-le* ~ *-ge* ~ *-nge* ~ *-e* and the ergative *-gi* ~ *-yi*. Still, the function of marking the origin or source of an action, both cross-boundary or inside a boundary are marked with the same morpheme, just as in Brokpa.

As for the form of Brokpa *=ne*, it can be assumed that the morpheme can be traced back to རྩས་ *-nas* since historically the combination of syllable final <-as> became *e* (see Rüfenacht & Waldis, this issue). Interestingly, while the Brokpa dative *=la*, which merges the functions of both, Written Tibetan dative ལ་ *-la* and locative རྩ་ *-na*, can be traced back to the case marker beginning with <l>, the Brokpa ablative *=ne*, which merged ལས་ *-las* and རྩས་ *-nas*, starts with <n>.

3.5 Comitative *=dan*

The Brokpa comitative *=dan* denotes a companion of the subject of a verbal action. It is however, only seldomly used. More often, the word *dan* appears as a conjunction of two noun phrases which can be translated as ‘and’ as can be seen in (49).

- (49) [...] *ser dan kiŋku doxɸenas*
 ser dan kiŋku dok-pe na=se
 blood.pheasant and red.billed.chough arrive-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM=REP
 ‘[...] the blood pheasant and the red-billed chough came.’ [BV]

While the comitative *=dan* and the conjunction *dan* can clearly be traced back to the same source, they behave differently both syntactically and semantically in the modern language. Whereas the conjunction has to stand between the two noun phrases it connects (such as in (50a), where the variant (50b) is incorrect), the comitative marker is usually used as a clitic on the last element of a noun phrase, as demonstrated in (51). If two noun phrases are present in order to specify who the companion marked with *=dan* accompanies, the companion marked with *=dan* usually follows the unmarked subject, as can be seen in (53) and (54a). It is probable that these syntactic differences between the comitative and the conjunction arose in order to avoid confusion of the comitative with the conjunction.

- (50) a. *moe toptɛ kaŋjo kí dan ɛimi=la tɛin-soŋ*
 moe toptɛ kaŋjo kí dan ɛimi=la tɛin-soŋ
 3SG.F.AGT food all dog and cat=DAT give.PST/IMP-PST.SEN
 ‘She gave all the food to the dog and the cat.’

- b. * moe toptee kaŋjo kí eimi daŋ=la tein-soŋ
 3SG.F.AGT food all dog cat and=DAT give.PST/IMP-PST.SEN

inteded: ‘She gave all the food to the dog and the cat.’

Sentence (51) shows the comitative when only one subject, the father *apa*, is present. Since *apa* ‘father’ is followed by the plural pronoun *kʰoŋ* ‘they’ and it is specified that two (*ni*) people are present, it is not possible to analyze =*daŋ* as a conjunction (i.e. ‘father and them’), since otherwise at least three people would need to be present. The person with whom he travels is not explicitly mentioned in the sentence, since he is already known from context, having been mentioned two sentences earlier (for the full text, see ‘Village Deity [VD]’ in Leki et al., this issue).

- (51) [...] *apdaŋ kʰoŋ ni nam teitina*

apa=daŋ kʰoŋ ni nambu tei-pe na
 father=COM 3PL two together go.PST-NMLZ.PST COP.EQ.ASM

‘[...] he and his father were traveling together.’ [VD]

Sentence (51) also demonstrates that a single referent marked with =*daŋ* is referred to by plural pronouns, since it inherently implies that some other referent is present, even if it is not explicitly stated. This is also the case in sentence (52). In fact, most cases of the comitative =*daŋ* in natural speech favour this construction, i.e. a single referent marked with =*daŋ* followed by the appropriate plural pronoun or number.

- (52) *profesor dzozdaŋ ni ni undagif- unda pʰre tʰaŋgi kon lapna*

profesor dzoz=daŋ ni ni unda pʰre tʰaŋ=gi
 Professor George=COM 1PL.EXCL two for.the.first.time meet way=GEN

kor=ne lap na
 about=ABL say COP.EQ.ASM

‘I talk about how Professor George and I first met.’ [MP]

When both referents are explicitly stated, =*daŋ* is often replaced by the word *nambu* ‘together’. It is possible to mark a noun with the comitative =*daŋ* and use *nambu* in the same sentence, such as in (53), although in this case =*daŋ* is often omitted due to redundancy. Especially when *daŋ* ‘and’ is also used in the sentence, the comitative is not used in order to prevent confusion. Thus, while sentence (54a) is not wrong, (54b) would be strongly favoured.

- (53) *ki mibombodaŋ nambo ga.səŋ*

ki mi bombo=daŋ nambu ga:-soŋ
 dog human big=COM together leave-PST.SEN

‘The dog and the big person left together.’

(54) a. *ŋa au daŋ augi k^himamdaŋ tɛiti*

ŋa au daŋ au=gi c^himam=daŋ tɛi-pe
1SG older.brother and older.brother=GEN wife=COM go.PST-NMLZ.PST

‘I went with my brother and his wife.’

b. *ŋa au daŋ augi k^himam nambu tɛiti*

ŋa au daŋ au=gi c^himam nambu tɛi-pe
1SG older.brother and older.brother=GEN wife together go.PST-NMLZ.PST

‘I went with my brother and his wife.’ (more accurately: ‘Me, my brother and his wife went together.’)

Historical and comparative notes. The Brokpa comitative =*daŋ* clearly corresponds to Written Tibetan ་ང *dang*, which has been described as a case marker by Beyer (1992: 270–271) under the label ‘accompaniment role’. Based on the fact that Written Tibetan ་ང *dang* ‘behaves like other cases’ (Hill 2004: 8), both Hill (2004: 83–84) and Tournadre (2010: 98; 113) describe it as an associative case instead of a conjunction. In fact, the Written Tibetan marker can also be used to connect two noun phrases, like the homophonous Brokpa conjunction *daŋ*. A similar associative case marker *dang* can also be found in Choca-ngachakha, where it has a similar function, although it is described as often being optional and to have a ‘marginal status’ in the case system (Tournadre & Rigzin 2015: 79).

4 Conclusion

The Brokpa language has one plural marker, =*ba*, two paucal markers, and five case markers. The agentive =*je* marks the agent or the instrument of an action. The genitive =*gi* marks the modifier or the possessor and thus links it to the head noun. The dative =*la* can be used in many contexts as it marks the location where an action takes place or ends, as well as the recipient, the beneficiary or maleficiary of an action and can be used to form possessive constructions. Further, Brokpa has an ablative case =*ne*, which marks the source of an action, a transformation or a point in time as well as a marginal comitative case =*daŋ* which marks the companion of an action. However, instead of the comitative =*daŋ*, the word *nambu* ‘together’ is often used to express the same meaning.

The comparison of form and function of the markers with morphemes of the other Tibetic languages Written Tibetan, Dzongkha and Choca-ngachakha shows, that the Brokpa case markers can all be traced back to an earlier stage of the language. An overview of the Brokpa morphemes compared to the corresponding morphemes in Written Tibetan (WT), Dzongkha and Choca-ngachakha is given in table 4.

Case (WT)	Written Tibetan	Brokpa	Dzongkha	Choca-ngachakha
Ergative	<i>-kyis ~ -gis ~ -gyis</i> <i>~ -yis ~ -'is</i>	= <i>je</i>	<i>-gi</i>	<i>-ki ~ -i</i>
Genitive	<i>-kyi ~ -gi ~ -gyi</i> <i>~ -yi ~ -'i</i>	= <i>gi</i>	<i>-gi</i>	<i>-gi ~ -yi</i>
Dative	<i>-la</i>	= <i>la</i>	<i>-lu</i>	<i>-le ~ -ge ~ -nge ~ -e</i>
Locative	<i>-na</i>		<i>-la</i>	
Ablative	<i>-las</i>	= <i>ne</i>	<i>-le</i>	<i>-leki ~ -geki ~ -ngeki ~ -eki</i>
Elicative	<i>-nas</i>			
Comitative	<i>-dang</i>	= <i>dang</i>	—	<i>-dang</i>

Table 4. Comparison of Brokpa cases with related forms

As is often the case, some innovations occurred, such as two functional mergers of case markers which were historically distinct: Written Tibetan dative ལའི *-la* and locative ལྟའི *-na* have merged to Brokpa dative =*la*, whereas the Written Tibetan ablative ལས་ *las* and the elative རྩ་སྟེ *-nas* have merged in the Brokpa ablative =*ne*. It can be observed that while the Brokpa dative preserved the form with the initial <l>, the ablative preserved the forms with the onset <n>, thus eliminating the form starting with <l>, ལས་ *-las*.

Additionally, the plural marker =*ba* has been completely innovated and has clearly been borrowed from the plural =*bak* of the neighbouring Tshangla language, which is not part of the Tibetic subclade of Trans-Himalayan. This borrowing, along with numerous Tshangla loans in the Brokpa lexicon, showcase how even basic number categories can be borrowed from other languages.

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