## PHONETICS

## SOUNDS AND PHONEMES

Brahui has nine pure vowel sounds: a, $\bar{a}, i, \bar{i}, u, \bar{u}, e, \bar{e}$ and $\bar{o}$. The articulation of these sounds is determined by the parameters given in Table 1

Acoustically, these sounds are close to the corresponding Hindustani or Tamil sounds.

The short vowel $u$ following a noise consonant and preceding a long $\bar{a}$ generally takes the form of a non-syllabic $w$, being a free variant of $u$ in that position, e.g. suār (or swār) 'horseman', juān (or jwān) 'good'.

Table 1

| Articulating <br> pert of tongue <br> Height <br> in mouth | Front | Central | Back |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Close | $\bar{i}$ | $i$ |  |
| Medium | $\bar{e}$ | $e$ |  |
| Open |  |  | $\bar{u}$ |

Short and long vowals are the easiest to distinguish in stressed syllables (the stress generally falls on a long syllable). In words containing several long vowels the unstressed long vowels are often reduced quantitatively till they become short.

Nasalised vowels occur rarely, mainly in borrowad words, e.g.
 teen", sirōn ${ }_{z}$ "luté. Most words containing nasalised vowels have parallel variants with non-nasalised vowels instead of the nasalised ones.

Brahui stress is quantitative-dynamic and weak. The position of the stress is traditional (not fixed). As a rule, the stress tends to fall on the beginning of the word. In words containing a long vowel, the stress falls on the long syllable; in words containing geminated consonants or consonant clusters, the stress generally falls on the vowel preceding these consonants or consonant clusters.

The consonants, of which there are twenty-nine $(p, b, t, d, T, D$, $k, g,{ }^{\prime}, f, s, z, t h, R, c, j, s h, z h, x, g h, y, r, l, v, m, n, N, \tilde{n}, n^{g}$, fall into noise consonants and sonants, and are classified as shown in Table 2 according to the place and manner of their formation.

The articulation and the acoustic quality of these sounds (except Ih and ") are similar to those of Hindustani and Tamil consonants.

The liquid $v$ in the final syllable of a word after a short $a$ is generally pronounced as a bilabial, in all other positions it is pronounced as a labiodental.

The voiced fricative velar $g h$ is pronounced in the same way as the voiceless velar $x$ and differs from the latter only in that in its pronunciation the vocal cords vibrate, e.g. gharib 'poor' (cf. xaräb 'bad').

The voiceless laryngeal plosive ' (glottal stop) is more typical of Arabic and other Semitic languages; in Dravidian languages, besides Brahui, it occurs only in Kurukh, Kuvi and Kui. A glottal stop at the beginning of a word can be heard in many words which start with a so-called rough glide (Knacklaut) in German, e.g. 'alling 'to take' (cf. alle 'all' in German).

The voiceless lateral consonant $/ h$ diffes from the sonant / in that in its pronunciation the vocal cords do not vibrate and there is a considerable noise, e.g. 'a/h 'take(it)'. A final English / following

a voiceless consonant (e.g. in the word bott/e) gives an approximate idea of this Brahui sound.

The articulation and the acoustic effect of the velar nasial sonant ${ }_{n}{ }^{g}$ coincide with those of the English ng, e.g. pink 'names' (cf. Eng. pink). In the combination $n g$, the consonant $g$ is always pronounced distinctly, e.g. bing '(he) heard'.

The retroflex consonants $T, D, R$ and $N$ are articulated by the tip of the tongue pressed against the hard palate behind the alveoli. Their articulation may vary perceptibly from purely retroflex, in which the underneath of the tip of the tongue is either pressed against the hard palate or (in the case of $R$ ) taps on the hard palate behind the alveoli, to cacuminal, in which the blunt edge of the tongue touches the hard palate, e.g. ciT 'rope', Dak 'cut', iR 'sister', vanD'share'.

Besides the preceding sounds, borrowed words occasionally contain a pharyngeal fricative $h / 22,982-983 /$, e.g. bahā 'price', āhaR 'summer'. Also, the aspirated consonants kh, gh, ch, jh, Th, Dh, th and $d h$ are frequently encountered as free variants of the corresponding pure plosives and affricates; originally they were probably borrowed from Indo-Aryan languages, but are now often found in both indigenous words and words borrowad from Iranian, e.g. khask (parallel with kask) '(he) died', bhāz (oarallel with bäz) 'much', 'many', bhalun (parallel with balun) 'big'.

All the preceding sounds, with the exception of the sonants $n g$. $\tilde{n}, N$ and the vowel $e$, constitute independent phonemes and are encountered in words irrespective of their position and the neighbouring sounds. The sonants $n g, \tilde{n}$ and $N$ occur only before a plosive or an affricate of the corresponding place of articulation, i.e. the sonant $n g$ is encountered only before the plosive $k$ or $g$, the sonant $\tilde{n}$ before the affricate $c$ or $j$ and the sonant $N$ before $T$ or $D$. These three sonants are variants of the phoneme $n$ in the preceding positions.

The use of the short vowel $e$ is restricted positionally in a peculiar way: it does not occur in initial syllables or when stressed in such cases only $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$ is encountered), e.g. il' $/ \bar{e} /{ }^{\prime} i l l e$ 'leave (it) alone', bi'sē '(he) baked'/'bise '(he) may bake'. This circumstance leads us to regard the short vowel $e$ as a positional variant of the long vowel $\bar{e} / 26,7-9 /$.

## PHONETIC PROCESSES

Assimilation. The most widespread cases of assimilation in Brahui are those of partial regressive place assimilation of the nasal sonants $n$ and $m$ to the plosives which follow them, e.g. bin 'listen (sing.)'-bimbō 'listen (pl.)', bimpà 'don't listen (sing.)', bing '(he) heard'; 'am 'very'-'ande 'that very'. Besides, there frequently occur optional assimilations of the $n g+b / p \rightarrow m b / m p$ type, e.g. rasēng 'come (sing.)'-rasēngbō or rasēmbō 'come (pl.)', rasēngpa or rasémpa 'don't come (sing.)'. Assimilation of' to $s$ before a plosive consonant has been observed only in the stem of one verb, $\mathrm{ka}^{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{ing}$ 'to die': $k a^{\prime}$ 'die'-kaspa 'don't die (sing. l', kask '(he) died'.

Partial progressive assimilation is regularly observed when the
formant $-k$ - of the Simple Past tense is added to verb stems ending in -n, e.g. kuning 'to eat' (the stem kun-)-kung '(he) ate up'.

Connecting (euphonic) sounds and syllables are not morphemes; they serve to join various suffixes to bases and stems or to other suffixes. The part of such connecting elements in Brahui is played by -a-, -i-, -u-, -e-, - $\bar{e}-,-a s-,-u s-,-g h-,-R-,-n-,-T$ - and -in.

The connecting vowel -a-is used in the singular of substantival forms to join the formants of the genitive, dative and comitative cases to monosyllabic words, and the formant of the locative case to bases ending in a consonant (and, optionally, to monosyllabic bases in a); it is also used in verbs to join the formant of the Pluperfect, $-s$-, to those of the Simple Past, $-k$-, -(i)s- (optionally, parallel with the connecting vowel -u-l, e.g. mār 'son'-gen. sing. māranā; bā 'mouth'dat. sing. bàaki; $\overline{\text { ont }}$ 'bag'-com. sing. lōtatō; xarās 'bull'-loc. sing. xarāsati; xalling 'to strike', 'to hit'-xalkas- or xalkus- (in the Pluperfect).

The connecting vowel -e-is used in the plural of substantival forms to join the formants of the instrumental, comitative, ablative and lative cases to a base, e.g. /ōt 'bag'-instr. pl. Iōtātear, com. pl.位ātetō, abl. pl. Iōtāteãn, lat. pl. Iōtāteāy.

The connecting vowel $-\bar{e}$ - is used in the plural of substantival forms to join the formants of the dative, locative, adessive and terminative cases to a base, e.g. urā 'house'-dat. pl. urātēki, loc. pl. urātēTT, ades. pl. urātēk, term. pl. urātēk $k \bar{a}$.

The connecting consonant $-g h$ - is used optionally in the singular of substantives to join the formants of the ablative and lative cases to bases ending in $-a /-\bar{a}$ (except monosyllabic ones), in the plural of substantives to join the formant of the plural $-\bar{a} k$ to bases ending in -a, and in adjectives to join the suffix of the definite form -ā to bases ending in -a/-ā, e.g. urā 'house'-abl. sing. uräghān (also urāān); bāva 'father' - lat. sing. bävaghāy (also bävaäy); parra 'wing' -nom. pl.
parragh $\bar{a} k$ (also parrā̄k); zēbā 'beautiful'-definite form zēbāghä (also zēbāā).

The connecting consonant $-R$ - is used optionally in the singular of the substantives and pronouns obtained by the substantivisation of the genitive case form, to join the formants of the dative, instrumental, comitative, ablative, lative, adessive and terminative cases, e.g. Tlumnā 'brother's property'-dat. sing. ìlumnāRki (also îlumnāki).

The connecting vowel $-u$-is used in verb forms to join the formants of person to the suffixes $-k$ - and -(i)s-in the Simple Past and the Past Continuous, as well as to join the formant of the Past Perfect $-n$ - and the formant of the Pluperfect $s$ - to the formants of the Simple Past $-k$ - and -(i)s-, e.g. xalling 'to strike'-xalkuT 'l struck', (a)xalkuTa 'I was striking', Past Perf. stem xalkun-, Plu. stem xalkus-.

The connecting vowel -i- is used in verb forms to join the formant of the plural of the imperative mood $-b \bar{o}$ and the formants of the negative form to the stem, e.g. saling 'to stand'-imp. pl. salibō (also salbō ), neg. stem salip(a)-, salit(a)-/also salp(a)-, salt(a)-/.

The connecting syllables -us- and -as- are used optionally in Pluperfect and conditional mood forms to join the formants of person, e.g. xalkususuT 'I had struck' (also xalkusut), binösasas 'if (he) had heard', '(he) would have heard' (also binōsas).

The connecting consonant $-n$ is used after substantival forms in the dative, comitative or terminative case and after definite-form adjectives ending in - $\bar{o}$, when they precede a positive Present tense form of the link-virb anning 'to be', both the words being pronounced as a single intonation unit, e.g. kul nä mārakin (māratōn) e'all/this/ /is/ for (with) your son'; num cunakkōn ure 'you /are//still/ young'. The connecting elements $-T$ and -in are used in analogous cases with substantives in the lative ( $-T$ ) and the adessive (-in), e.g. $\bar{o} n \bar{a}$ mōn nusxalāy $e^{e}$ 'its face is turned towards the mill'; kul nā māriskin e 'every. thing is in your son's possession'. The connecting consonant $-n$ is used optionally before words beginning with a vowel or a dental plosivi e.g. kanā mārātōn tūlh'sit down/beside/ my son'.

Gemination of Consonants. In short monosyllabic words (bases/stems) ending in the consonant $k, c, p$ or $f$, and also in most short monosyllabic words (bases/stems) ending in $T$ or $D$, the final consonants are geminated when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to them, e.g. 'uc 'camel'-'uccāk 'camels' ; pif 'lung'-piffäk'lungs'; $k a D$ ' pit'-kaDDak' pits'. Gemination of the final consonant in words of this type also takes place when they are followed by another word beginning with a vowel, both the words being pronounced as a single intonation unit (e.g. positive Present tense forms of the link-verb anning 'to be', Present-Future or Past Continuous forms of verbs with the prefix a-, etc.), e.g. dā 'ullt asilo asitt $e$ 'this horse is a thorough. bred one' (with asit 'one'); 'icc atifara 'I will not give anything' (with 'ic 'nothing').

Gemination of consonants in verb forms takes place when a suffix beginning with a consonant is added to short monosyllabic stems ending in a vowel, e.g. bass 'he came' (from the stem ba- and the tense formant $-s$-), atippëre 'you do not understand' (from the stem ati- and the negative form formant $-p-$ ), kattavēs'you did not do' (from the stem $k a-$ and the negative form formant $-t a-\%$. Exceptions are the negative forms of the verbs banning 'to come', manning 'to become' and tining 'to give', in which no such gemination occurs.

## an excursion into the history of sounds

The sound correspondences established in the comparative phonetics of Dravidian languages over the last decades make it possible to get a general idea of the history and development of individual sounds in Brahui words of Dravidian origin proper. It should be borne in mind, however, that the correspondences under consideration have in most cases been established only with respect to the first (root) syllable, and that the causes determining the different development of the same sounds are often still unknown. 14

14 As M.B. Emeneau notes, "In numerous etymologies the etymologists fail to show the correspondences stated. Most frequently this happens because the statements given are too simple and need to be qualified in terms of the phonetic or morphologic al contexts. Often enough, however, such qualifications have not yet

| Brahui <br> sounds | Proto-Dravidian <br> sounds |
| :--- | :---: |
| $a<a$ |  |
| $\bar{a}-\bar{a}$ |  |


$7 \longrightarrow T$

mir- 'to smear' : *meZ-
dir 'water' : *nïr
mistkun 'old' : *mut(t)-
curr- 'to flow out' : *cor-
kēragh 'bottom' : *kTZ-
xan 'eye' : *kaN
curr- 'to flow out' : *cor-
kubēn 'heavy' : *cuma-'to lift'
ba(r)- 'to come' : *var-
bar- 'to come' : *var
tör- 'to hold' : *toR- 'to touch'
xar 'angry': *karr- 'black'
urā 'house' : *uL'inside'
kēragh 'bottom' : *kiZ
been discovered $\%$ 30, 19/. As Emeneau stresses in another place,
"Brahui is most tantalising because of the meagreness of its inherited Dravidian vocabulary. This very meagreness makes it at times difficult to state phonetic correspondences or to identify etymologies with any confidence" $/ 26$, VII/.

15 For detailed etymologies, see A Dravidian Etymological
Dictionary by T. Burrow and M.B. Emeneau /16/.
Brahui
sounds
Proto-Dravidian sounds

karrak 'bank' : *kara
karrak 'bank' : *kara
xarr- 'to walk' : *kaRa.'to cro
xarr- 'to walk' : *kaRa.'to cro
'arr-'to tear' : *arr.
'arr-'to tear' : *arr.
bil'bow' : *vil
bil'bow' : *vil
('\ü|-'to howl' : *üL.
('\ü|-'to howl' : *üL.
p\overline{a}/h 'milk' : *pa\overline{l}
p\overline{a}/h 'milk' : *pa\overline{l}
tèlh 'scorpion' : *tēL
tèlh 'scorpion' : *tēL
malh 'son' : *maxa
malh 'son' : *maxa

