# THE FUNDAMENTALS OF AMHARIC 

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## DEDICATION

To all who seek to learn the Amharic language for the furtherance of Christ's Kingdom in Ethiopia this book is affectionately and prayerfully dedicated. C. H. D.

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I wish gratefully to acknowledge my indebtedness to the writings of those who have gone before me in the field of Amharic studies. Especially helpful have I found C. H. Armbruster's very scholarly "Initia Amharica", with which I myself first studied the language, and the valuable course of lessons, "A Beginner's Amharic Grammar", by D. M. Davies and E. F. Lister, which has been my constant companion during the past few years of teaching.

I would also express my deep gratitude to those Ethiopian friends, who, by checking the Amharic examples, giv. ing their opinions on doubtful points etcetera, have rendered invaluable assistance in the preparation of this book.

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C.H.D.

The only way to master a language is by constant intercourse with those who speak that language. This is how a child assimilates his own mother tongue. It is the natural method; and although school-work and study have their place, they are no substitute for it. The only way therefore that you will ever learn Amharic is by living in close contact with Ethiopians.

It is well to remember, however, that in the matter of learning a language, as in other respects, an adult and a young child are not exactly the same. The adult, indeed, is at a serious disadvantage. Not only is it well nigh impossible for him to live with the people of a foreign country in that same close and intimate relationship which, as a child, he enjoyed with his own people; but, also, his mind is no longer virgin soil; he has, in particular, acquired a strong subconscious bias in favour of the sounds and constructions of his own language, which maies it very difficult for him to assimilate with accuracy those of any other. As a child the assimilation of his mother tongue went on concurrently with the development of his mind. It was therefore a very gradual process, but in the long run extremely thorough and accurate. Now, as an adult, when he tries to learn a foreign language, his mind, being already developed, may enable him to attainmore quickly to speech, but this speech will not only tend to be very limited in scope but will also be liable to grave inaccuracy, which once he has accustomed himself to, he may never after be able to throw off. The advantage then weighs heavily on the side of the child.

But the adult (at least the educated adult) possesses one compensatory faculty, and this he must not fail to call to his aid. It is his ability to reason -- to think things out. If he tries to learn a forcign language simply by "picking it up by ear", as he did his mother tongue, the results are likely to be of a very poor quality. His ear is no longer capable of doing the work without some support from his reason. Certainly it is still only through his ear m- by hearing the national speak -- that he can really absorb and assimilate the language into his innermost being, yet unless at the same time he uses his reason to systematise what he hears, his own speech will tend to be more or less of the "pidgin" variety. Unlike the small child, he needs in a measure to rationalize the underlying principles. To avoid inaccuracy he needs to supplement his now imperfect ear with a knowledge of the rules. And this is especially so in the case of agrammatically complex language like Amharic.

Make no mistake about it; you will never learn Amharic properly unless you live in close and constant contact with Ethiopians. It is only thus that you can be continuously receiving, through your ear, the mam terials necessary for building your linguistic edifice. But this edifice will be in danger of turning out cracked and formless unless, at the same time, your reason, by discovering some system in the language, is able to provide you with a foundation to build on and a design to follow. Hence the necessity of study. Besides just listening and trying to talk, you will have to search out the why and the wherefore; you will need to have things explained. It is to help you here that this book has been written. It represents an attempt to systematise Amharic for you; to supply you with the explanations.

## The Use of an Informant As already explained, the bulk of your learning must be done through intercourse

 with Ethiopians. You should therefore contrive to spend a good proportion of your day talking or working with them. But besides this you will need the regular (preferably daily) help of an educated Ethiopian informant (he should be English speaking, at least while you are a beginner). You can use him to question and to practise on; he can correct your mistakes, tell you new words and help you with pronunciation, spelling, etc. Once you have learnt the main grammatical constructions you can start reading books and newspapers with him. But remember, he, like everyone else, speaks his native language by instinct, not by knowing the rules; and even though he has been taught grammar at school, he has never had to analyse his own speech or work out its constructions as the foreign student needs to do. While, therefore, he can be very helpful as your informant, you should not expect him to take the initiative as though he were your teacher. He will tell you if something is right or wrong, but often he cannot tell you why; and if you press him to give you an explanation, in trying to help he may only mislead you. His usefulness will depend on how you use him.Building up a Vocabulary Though the words used in the examples are sufficient in number to supply you with the basis of a vocabulary, lists of words to be learnt are not a feature of this book. New words are best learnt not from lists but direct from the Ethiopians (or at a later stage by reading books, etc.). If, especially, they are first met with during conversation, the association with their proper context will help you both to understand them aright and to remember them. You should, however, write down such new words, as and when they occur (as well as phrases, idioms, etc.) in a list of your own, for which purpose you should carry about a special note book. Your Ethiopian informant must
help you in the compilation and checking of this list. If in conversation, for instance, you fail to understand an apparently important word, or, conversely, if you are unable to express yourself for want of some word, you can make a note of it and ask him about it later. From this ever lengthening list you should keep refreshing your memory until the new words, etc. are assimilated.

Do not rely too much on the dictionary.Meanings given without a context can be very misleading.

## The Use of This Book This book is designed for use both by the beginner and the more advanced student.

 It is not arranged as a graded course of study, but each subject is treated separately and as a whole under its own heading. This arrangement should present no difficulty to the more advanced student, who will, rather, find it convenient for purposes of reference. But the beginner, unable by himself to select the best order of study, or to discriminate between the elementary and the advanced, will need to be guided through the mass of information which confronts him. For this purpose a suggested course of study is outlined in the following pages. In this outline the order of study is indicated by the sectional numbers (i.e. the numbers which appear in the margin throughout the Grammar . As an extra help all sections of the Grammar included thus in the course are marked by a vertical line at the side of the page. In the case of any footnotes which belong to these sections, but which for the time-being may be ignored, this vertical line is omitted, just as it is for other portions of the Grammar not included in the course.The period required to complete this "Beginner's Course" will naturally depend on the ability of the student and on how many hours per day he is free for language work. But a missionary who has no other assignment may reasonably expect to get through in three or four months. Having done so, however, he must on no account imagine that he has now covered all the ground that is of any practical importance, and that he can henceforth abandon his grammatical studies. This is very far from the case, for several very important items have not yet been touched upon. His position, rather, is that he has now a sufficient grounding in the elements to be able to find his own way through the rest of the book, the order of study being no longer a matter of major importance. On completion of the 'Beginner's Course", therefore, he should go straight on with "Changed Stem Derived Forms", "Compounds of hi ", "Reported Speech" and the many other items so far untouched. He should also again go over the subjects already studied filling in the gaps, i. e. those portions, both in the text and in the footnotes, which, having been omitted from the "Beginner's Course", are not marked with a vertical line.

Beginners will find it helpful to adopt the following procedure (where applicable):
(a) Study the sections in the order shown in the "Beginner's Course" (as many as convenient at one time), checking on the pronunciation of all Amharic words and sentences with your informant.
(b) Learn by heart all the Amharic examples given (you will in this way develop a feeling for Amharic constructions and ways of expression). Get your informant to hear you on them; as also on all verb conjugations, etc.
(c) Taking the examples which you have learnt as patterns, make up other sentences on the same lines by substituting other words.
(d) Go out among the people and use what you have learnt.

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3. 

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## The Characters

1. Modern Amharic has inherited its system of writing from ancient Arabic by way of the language of the old kingdom of Axum, Ge'ez, which is still the classical and ecclesiastical language of Ethiopia. The roots, then, of Amharic orthography, like those of the language itself, are Semitic; the characters being designed to express the typically Semitic sounds used in the speech of those ancestors of the Ethiopians who, in ancient times, came across the Red Sea from south-west Arabia. 1 But while Hebrew, Arabic and othermembers of the Semitic family (including Ge'ez ${ }^{2}$ ) are notable for the profusion of their difficult gutteral sounds, Amharic, being a Semitic dialect superimposed on a substantially Hamitic population, has lost these. The alphabet, therefore, contains a number of characters which originally represented Semitic gutterals but which are no longer pronounced as such. This is why there are four different characters which today are all used alike for the consonant $h$, and are largely interchangeable in spelling ( $v, 4$ and $\boldsymbol{h}^{3}$ ). Similarly, there are two characters which today are used alike as consonantiess letters ( $\mathcal{A}$ and 0 ), two which are used alike for $s(\mathbb{A}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ ), and two for the "explosive" $\xi(8$ and 0 ).

While, fortunately for the European student, the typically Semitic gutterals have been lost, Amharic possesses a set of "explosive" consonants which are equally "foreign" to him ( $\boldsymbol{\phi} \boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\infty} \quad \boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ ). These must be practised until mastered. It is not good enough just to fall back on the corresponding nonexplosive sounds.

Naturally, during the long course of history various changes and additions have been made to the alphabet, the most important of these being the imposition of seven vowel forms on to its original system of consonantal characters. 4 As it now stands, then, it possesses 33 primary characters, each representing a consonant (except for the two consonantless characters mentioned above), and each having 7 variations in form to indicate the vowel which follows the consonant. These 33 sets of 7 forms are the "ordinary characters"; but besides them there are also a number of "diphthong characters", each representing a consonant and a following vowel with a w sound (or, in one case, a y sound) interposed between them. There are differences of opinion amongst Ethiopians as to how many of these "diphthong characters" are really permissible. In writing, none of them is indispensable because the same sounds can always be represented by combinations of the ordinary characters. But many of them are in common use and, on the whole, they cannot be ignored.
2. When learning the Amharic alphabet notice that while there is no recognised system of "continuous", or "flowing", handwriting, such as that used by Europeans, yet in some cases the form of a character as commonly written is not identical with its printed form. The writing, then, must be learned from an educated Ethiopian, chosen, if possible, for his good, clear "hand". Suffice it here to say that in order to retain something of the traditional character of Ethiopian calligraphy the following rules should be observed:-
(1) Make your letters with heavy downward strokes, light connecting cross strokes and no upward strokes at all (except incidentally, when bringing your pen into position for the next downward stroke).
(2) In making a letter, move progressively from left to right (i.e. complete first the left hand part, then the middle and lastly the right; do not "hop about" backwards and forwards).
3. The Amharic characters are set out in the table below, together with the transliterations used to represent their sounds in this book. But the actual sounds must be learned from an Ethiopian.

Notice first, however, the following points regarding the vowels of the $\mathbf{7}$ forms:-
The 1st form vowel, transliterated $y_{\text {, }}$ normally has the sound of e in "her" (or French "le"); but if affected by the "saturation" of a consonant ${ }^{\text {F }}$ it becomes more like the vowel of a 5 th form.

1. It can be demonstrated that, still further back, these characters must have sprung from the same stem as other ancient alphabetical systems, such as the Greek and Latin. But this is beside our present point.
2. Also its more direct modern descendants, Tigrinya and Tigre.
3. The 1st of the 7 vowel forms is used to designate the character as a whole, without any particular vowel being specified.
4. In Semitic languages generally the consonants are all-important. They are the permanent framework of a word, while the vowels filling the intervening spaces are subject to variation.
5. See Sections 11 and 12 re "Saturation".

The 1st forms of $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{H}$ hand $\boldsymbol{p}$ Iare irregular in having the 4 th form vowel sound (transliterated a). But $\overline{\mathrm{h}}$, the remaining " h ", is regular.

The 2nd form vowel, transliterated $u$, has the sound of 00 as in "mood", sometimes shortened to the sound of oo in "wood".

The 3rd form vowel, transliterated $i$; has the sound of ea as in "seat", sometimes shortened to the sound of i as in "sit"。

The 4th form vowel, transliterated a, has the sound "ah", as in bath", car; sometimes shortened to the sound of $u$ as in "but". 3

The 5th form vowel, transliterated e, resembles the sound of a as in "late" (a little "flatter"), but is sometimes shortened to the sound of e as in "let". It is commonly pronounced with a slight y preceding; but do not overdo this.

The 6 th form vowel, transliterated $i$, is like the short $i$ in "sit", but a little "flatter". Note, however, that an Ethiopian, when demonstrating the theoretical pronunciation of this vowel is accustomed to make it much "flatter" than it usually is in speech.

The 6th form alone can drop its vowel and is, therefore, the form to be used whenever a consonant is required by itself.

The 7th form vowel, transliterated o, lies between the vowel sounds in "coat" and "caught" but is nearer to the latter, 4 It is pronounced short in some words, but not as short as the o in "cot". Sometimes a slight w sound is pronounced before it.

## Punctuation:

4. The following signs are used, some indigenous and some borrowed from European orthography:-

()

European Equivalent
Indicates the end of a word (it is omitted in much modern printing, but not in writing.)


Apart from : and $z$, none of these signs is used with much consistency, Amharic punctuation being in practice very loose.

A word which is unfinished at the end of one line is continued without any connecting sign at the beginning of the next. The absence of , at the end of the line (at least when this sign is being used) is sufficient to show that the word is not yet complete.

1. See Section 1 re Semitic gutterals.
2. British, not American, pronunciation.
3. Those whose native language is English often show a strong tendency to neutralise a final a, i.e. to pronounce it like $\sharp$, as is done in English words; especially names whose final vowel is a (e.g. America). In Amharic a, final or otherwise, must be given its full value, e.g. $\lambda^{\sigma \%}$ eh is pronounced Americah.
4. It is very commonly mispronounced by those whose native language is English and who therefore confuse it with the English long 0 , as in "pole". Actually it is much closer to the French au, as in "Paul".

| ORDINARY CHARACTERS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Form | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th | 6th | 7th | 1st | 3rd | 4th | 5th | 6th | 4th |
| Ge＇ez Name | 967 | hon | －ran | Lando | －490n | ne：n | And | 987 | － | 140no | \％ra | AE： | 4－0． |
| Vowel Translit． | ä | u | 1 | a | e | i | 0 | we | wi | wa | we | wi | ya |
| Cons．Translit． | 0 | $\underline{1}$ | 4 | 4 | 4 | $v$ | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | $n$ | 0 | ${ }^{1}$ | 4 | 4 | A | 0 |  |  | 2 |  |  |  |
| h | ¢ | ¢． | ${ }^{4}$ | d | \＆ | $\boldsymbol{\text { ¢ }}$ | d |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| m | on | am． | \％ | 97 | ${ }^{42}$ | 9 | 9 |  |  | 29 |  |  |  |
| S | ${ }^{*}$ | $1{ }^{1}$ | ${ }^{2}$. | 4 | 吅 | $\mu$ | $\psi^{*}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{r}^{1}$ | 4 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 6 | c | 8 |  |  | 2゙3 |  |  | $\bar{Z}$ |
| S | 1 | 0 | 1. | $\pi$ | A | 0 | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
| sh | $\bar{\pi}$ | \％ | R． | 7 | $\pi$ | \％ | \％ |  |  | 7 |  |  |  |
| k | 中 | \＄ | \＄ | ＇ | \＆ | \＄ | 4 | E | \＄ 4 | 央 | \＄ | ${ }^{-1}$ |  |
| $\mathrm{b}^{2}$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | $\cdots$ | n |  |  | 0 |  |  |  |
| $t$ | $\cdots$ | 1 | 1 | F10 | t | 7 | ＋ |  |  | $\pm$ |  |  |  |
| ch | 5 | F | 7 | \％ | \％ | 7 | 7 |  |  | T |  |  |  |
| h | 4 | 7 | 4 | ； | \％ | 1 | 0 | \％ | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 |  |
| n | 3 | 3. | 2 | f | 8 | 3 | $i$ |  |  | S |  |  |  |
| $\underline{\mathrm{n}}$ | 3 | 7 | T | 7 | $\pi$ | 3 | \％ |  |  | 3 |  |  |  |
| none | $\mathrm{h}^{3}$ | 8 | $\mathrm{h}_{4}$ | $\hat{\chi}$ | \％ | $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ | $\lambda$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| k | h | 7 | $n$ | $h$ | h | n | h | $n$ | ha | $h$ | 3 | ${ }^{+}$ |  |
| h | n | F | \％ | T | \％ | K | 奀 |  |  | 方 |  |  |  |
| w | $\pm$ | $\square_{1}$ | 4 | ¢ | 4 | © | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| none | 0 | $0 \cdot$ | 9 | 3 | 2 | 6 | $P$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| z | H | 17 | $1{ }^{\text {H }}$ | 4 | 14 | 7 | H |  |  | H |  |  |  |
| $2 h^{4}$ | 7 | 76 | $\underline{T}$ | $T$ | T | Tr | 7 |  |  | T |  |  |  |
| y | $p$ | $\underline{p}$ | $\hat{A}$ | 8 | $p$ | $\underline{R}$ | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| d | 9 | P | 3 | 8 | 9 | 8 | 8 |  |  | $\underline{g}$ |  |  |  |
| j | $\underline{T}$ | 豆 | 真 | 京 | 5 | E | \％ |  |  | 5 |  |  |  |
| g | 7 | 7 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 9 | 1 | 7 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 7 |  |
| t | m | m | m． | 9 | $\underline{1}$ | $T$ | n |  |  | 9． |  |  |  |
| ch | ¢ | 60） | 4 | 4 | 4 | F | 0 |  |  | 0. |  |  |  |
| p | K | \％ | 2 | \％ | 8 | ${ }^{*}$ | ＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathbf{S}^{5}$ | 8 | 8. | 8 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 8 |  |  | 8. |  |  |  |
| $s^{5}$ | $\square$ | 0 | 2 | 9 | 2 | 6 | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $f$ | 4 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 6 |  |  | \％ |  |  |  |
| p | $T$ | ${ }^{7}$ | T | 5 | T | T | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

1．When this consonant is doubled it is rolled like a Scotch $x$ ．Otherwise aflip of the tongue is enough．
2．The consonant of $n$ ，when not doubled or initial，is apt to be pronounced very softly，the lips not quite meeting，almost like $a \operatorname{listen}$ to the $b$ gounds in $k i n k M)$ ．This is，in fact，the character which is used，with a stroke over it，to transliterite the letter $t$ in foreign words，e．g．Aript ：Soviet．

3．Since both the consonantless characters in their 1 st forms（ h and 0 ）are pronounced as a ，the alphabet offers no means of expressing a consonantless \＆A＂concocted＂letter，＂ K is sometimes used， but this is not needed for any true Amharic word（except ejaculations like $\pi \mathbb{K} \|$ ！on the rare occasions when they are written down－see Section 268 on Interjections）．

4．This is like the a in＂measure＂，or the soft French $g$ as in＂garage＂．
5．The transliteration＂ts＂，commonly used for this consonant is misleading．The sound is rather an ＂explosive＂s．If at first you find it hard to＂explode＂，the addition of a $t$ may help，but try later to el－ iminate this：
6. A detailed and exhaustive description of Amharic sounds and their behaviour is not attempted in this book, for correct pronunciation can only be gained by intercourse with Ethiopians. Nor, therefore, has any attempt been made at an exact phonetic transliteration. Where transliteration into Latin characters has seemed necessary, for purposes of grammatical explanation, the spellings given in the table of characters 1 are used. But such spellings make no claim to represent the subtle variations to which sounds are liable in different combinations and contexts; and, apart from this occasional explanatory use, transliterations are not given at all. From the beginning, the sound of every Amharic character, every new word, every example and every verbal form met with in the course of study should be carefully learned with the help of an Ethiopian. This method will give far better results than the most elaborate system of phonetics.

There are, however, a few principles which the student must grasp; firstly, that he may know what to listen for in the Ethiopian's speech and, secondly, because they are fundamental to a right understanding of the grammatical structure of the language:-

## The Doubling of Consonants

7. This is of primary importance. Amharic consonants are often pronounced, but not written, double. This contrasts with the English, in which consonants are often written double but still pronounced single (e.g. the $t$ sound in "ditty" is no more double than it is in "pity"). The Amharic doubled consonant is not pronounced as two unconnected single ones, but as one unbroken consonant of double length. 2 In English even, consonants are pronounced double in this way when the final consonant of one word is the same as the initial consonant of the next: e.g. this song, run now, top peg (compare with the corresponding single consonant sounds in: this is, runner, topic, hot egg).

In Amharic this doubling is often done with emphasis. It should even be exaggerated by the learner (who at any rate must speak with deliberation at first), in order that his ear may grow accustomed to feel the necessity for it in the right places. He must ascertain for every new word that he learns whether there are any doubled consonants in it. If he neglects to do this (as experience has shown to be the usual tendency) it is hardly too much to say that his Amharic will never be good. It is essential, then, for purposes of learning, to adopt some sign to indicate doubling, and always to use it when new words are written down to be learnt. In this book the sign ". is used. ${ }^{3}$

In spite of the fact that the Amharic orthography itself has no sign for it, the doubling of a consonant often completely changes the meaning of a word:
e.g.
hn (ala) he said
Kin (al-1E) he is present, there is
74 (gäna) still, yet
7 ̈ (găn-na) Christmas
nむ (såfi) tailor


The first of these examples ( $\boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{n}$ and $k \hat{i}$ ) also serves to illustrate the fact that the do ling of a consonant often causes the preceding vowel to be pronounced short. 4 . Listen to an Ethiopian saying these two words, and compare the two pronunciations of $h$
8. As a general rule a doubled consonant, in order to be properly pronounced double, needs a vowel on both sides of it. Thus many words end with a consonant (i.e. a 6th form) which, though theor etically double, actually remains single until some added suffix supplies the vowel needed to enable it to be pronounced double. Such consonants are called "potentially double", our sign for which is ( $\cdot-1$ e.g. arefor (brother), ayeät (my brother).

1. For which see Section 4.
2. i.e. It is dwelt on, but the term "double" as here used is not mathematical; sometimes a "doubled" consonant is more pronouncedly "double" (i.e. dwelt on longer) than at other times.
3. But it must be remembered that this is no part of Amharic orthography and is meaningless to Ethiopians. Moreover, as the latter pronounce their doubled consonants entirely by instinct, when questioned as to whether a consonant is doubled or not, their opinion is frequently unreliable. It is better to listen to them saying a word than to question them about it.
4. For the vowel sounds see Section 3.

Other words end with a doubled 6th form whose doubling is heard even without a suffix, a slight $\bar{F}$ being pronounced after the consonant, e. g. afl $4 \mathbb{D}-$ (it is correct) is pronounced likkf năw. 1 Or if the following word begins with a vowel the two words are simply run together in pronunciation, e.g. Af

9. Certain consonants have a special tendency to be dwelt on, and are sometimes pronounced more or less double in cases where, grammatically, one would expect them to be single. These are the consonants of if $\boldsymbol{T} P$ and $\boldsymbol{a}$.
10. When two identical consonants are adjacent with no vowel between them it is normal for them to fuse into one double consonant in pronunciation (and sometimes also in writing, especially in verb forms 2 ):


## The Saturation of Consonants:

11. Certain consonants have the power on certain occasions 3 to absorb the vowel $i$, or the similar vowel e, when either of these follows them. This "absorption" changes their nature and they become "saturated" consonants (i.e. consonants saturated with the absorbed vowel). Thus, for instance, if (on such an occasion) the consonant $s$ is followed by the vowel i, the latter is "absorbed" by the former, which is thereby transformed into the "saturated" consonant sh;i.e. h. becomes $\overline{\mathrm{n}} .4$

The corresponding "Absorbent" and "Saturated" letters are as follows:-5

| Absorbent | Saturated |
| :---: | :---: |
| f (w) | T |
| + | \% |
| \% | 5 |
| R | $\underline{5}$ |
| H | Tr |
| m (8 $\mathrm{B}_{\text {) }}$ | c |
| $n$ | P |

12. But whether or not a "saturated" consonant owes its "saturation" on any particular occasion to the process of "absorption" described above, it is, at any rate, a consonant which seems to contain the vowel i within it. Furthermore this vowel sometimes "seeps out" into an adjacent vowel, either changing it into a diphthong or giving it a "lighter" tone.

The "saturated" letters if and $f$, especially, are liable to affect a preceding vowel in this way. For instance, $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{i l} \bar{\beta}_{3}$ (I understand), though its transliteration, letter by letter, would be gubban̆, is actually pronounced gabbain ; i.e. the saturated consonant in has changed the preceding vowel into a diphthong. Or again, 3 ( I am), though its two letters transliterate into năñ, is actually pronounced more like neñ; i.e. the saturated consonant $\hbar$ has "lightened" the tone of the preceding vowel. But perhaps the commonest example of a saturated consonant affecting the preceding vowel is in the plural suffix al. This is pronounced oich, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma y}^{\circ} n c \neq 7$ (chairs), though its transliteration is wämburoch, is pronounced wämbär oich. 7

1. Similarly, in the case of a word ending in two consonants is often pronounced between them and the initial consonant of the next word, e.g. nit frab (they are three) is pronounced sosty nachchäw
2. See Sections 115 and 116 on the Union of like Consonants in Verbs.
3. Namely, in the conjugation of verbs and the formation of some of the verbal nouns.
4. What, for the sake of illustration, we call "Absorbent" and "Saturated" consonants are in more technical language, "Apical" and "Palatal" consonants respectively. By bringing the tongue into position to pronounce the vowel 1 , one transforms the Apical consonants into the corresponding Palatal consonants. Thelatter, then, being sounded with the tongue set as for $i$, seem to be "saturated" with that vowel.
5. For convenience they are given in the 1st form.
6. Notice that the pair $h$ and $n$ do not, in spite of appearances, belong to this Absorbent-Saturated class.
7. This plural suffix is badly mispronounced by many whose native language is English; not because they cannot make the sound, but because their mental picture of a long " 0 " (English type), followed by 7 , predisposes their ear against "hearing" the Ethiopians' pronunciation. Thus, in missionary circles, one constantly hears the last syllable, say, of $\omega \mathrm{g}^{\circ} \boldsymbol{n c} \mathrm{e}^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$ pronounced like that of "approach". Furthermore one foreigner will imitate another foreigner in the matter. It is better to imitate the Ethiopian!

As following vowels， 1 only and $\Psi$ are liable to be affected in this way．The effect produced is，again， a＂lightening＂in tone，the $z$ in the direction of an $e$ ，and the $i$ in the direction of an $i$ ．Of all the saturated consonants，this is most noticeable with ．This affects its own \＆so strongly that the 1 st form $P$ is often pronounced as the 5 th form $p$ ；and it affects its own $\%$ so strongly that the 6 th form $e$ is often pronounced as the 3 rd form $\boldsymbol{P} .2,3$

The Contraction of Adjacent Vowels．
13．When two vowels meet they are often contracted into one．This may happen in two ways：－
（a）By assimilation，i．e．the＂swallowing＂of the weaker vowel by the stronger．
This process involves chiefly the vowels $Y$ ， $\begin{gathered}a \\ \text { and } a \text { ．The first of these is the weakest of all vowels and }\end{gathered}$ liable to be assimilated（＂swallowed＂）by any other．The second weakest is $a_{0}$ ，which，while strong enough to assimilate 1 ；is itself assimilated by others，especially a：


（b）By union，$i_{i} e$ ．the＂marriage＂of two vowels of like kind：



The Assimilation of a Preceding by a Following Consonant．
14．With some combinations of adjacent consonants，in promunciation but not always in spelling，the second assimilates（＂swallows＂）the first（i．e．the assimilation is retrogressive），thereby becoming doubled．

```
e.g. \#̈̈中h- (awwalkku) I knew, is pronounced awwakku}
    6.\̂%h (f:allagg) you (m) looked for, is pronounced fallakk(i)5
    fHT (yazsh) you (f) took hold, is pronounced yashsh(i)
    \lambdacar (irsu) he, it, is often pronounced, and written, 咅. Issu
```



```
    \lambdaA&弓⿱口丂口
```

Consonantal Vowels．
15．The＂consonants＂of $m$ and $p$ are really vowels acting as consonants，as are their English equivalents $w$ and $y(e, g$ ，wet $=u e t$ ，yet $=$ iet）．Hence their 6 th forms， $\boldsymbol{a}$－and $\boldsymbol{g}$ whenever the 6 th form vowel is dropped，are themselves pronounced as the vowels $u$ and i respectively：
e．g．he he is，it is，is pronounced näu
i\＆come（f）is pronounced näi

1．The vowel following a consonant is，of course，its own vowel，i．e．the one expressed by the form of the character．

2．A vowel can be affected thus by the proximity of a＂saturated＂consonant，even when another con－ sonant stands between them，Listen，for instance to the 1st $:$ in hefing（it is not），or the $2 n d$ in $6.4 \pi$ （Foreigner）．

3．Just as the consonant of $P$（which is actually a consonantal vowel－see Section 15）is＂saturated＂ with the vowel i and tends to＇lighten＂the tone of other vowels in proximity to it，so the consonant of $\boldsymbol{m}$ （which is also a consonantal vowel）is，in effect，saturated with the vowel n，and sometimes＂darkens＂the tone of another vowel in proximity to it，e．g．the i of $\boldsymbol{w}$（water）approaches $u$ in pronunciation．This is really because the lips are now in position to make the vowel u，just as，with the＂saturated＂palatals，the tongue was in position to make the vowel $i$ ．But since a different vowel is involved we do not class $\omega$ with the＂saturated＂letters．

4．There are some instances of a strong vowel assimilating another equally strong vowel．In such cases the assimilation is retrogressive，i．e．the second vowel assimilates the first．

5．This assimilation takes place with the 1 st sing，and 2nd masculine singular Simple Perfect of all verbs whose last radical is 4 or 7 ．

6．This assimilation of 1 by $r$ may take place in the negative of any verb beginning with the radical 4 ．

These consonantal vowels are frequently used in the spelling of combinations of two vowels:
e.g. 2h (gia) may also be spelt

```
\(29 \quad 99\)
29 95
7.9 9. (or with the diphthong 7 )
14. 74 (or with the diphthong 7.)
```

Interchangeable Sounds.
16. Certain pairs of sounds are sometimes interchangeable:-
(a) $h$ and $k: ~ e . g . ~ v \rho$ or $h f$ (twenty)
(b) and e: e.g. TAT or TAK (clear)
(c) $n$ and m (before b): e.g. arnc or arnc (chair)
(d) a and ha (at the beginning of a word): e.g. $\lambda$ goh or ugn (fifty)
(e) $j$ and $z h$ : $e_{0} g$. Eff or iffl (hyena)

The Pronunciation of $I$ before an Initial $r$.
17. The vowel $s$ is sometimes pronounced (and written) before an initial $r$, without affecting the sense of


This tendency is especially marked in the case of an initial 6 th form $c$ when, in effect, the vowel $I$ is transposed from its position after to a position before the consonant:

```
e.g. cin (rigib; dove) generally becomes \lambdac|fn (trgib).
    c& (rida; help, masculine) generally becomes ACf (irda).
```

The Transposition of Consonants.
18. In colloquial Amharic, especially amongst the less educated, there is a tendency to reverse the order of consonants:

```
e.g. &.76. (it supported) may become 7f̈.6
```



```
    morafly (axe) may become arcmig
```


## Accent or Syllabic Stress.

19. In Amharic words the stress is fairly evenly distributed among the syllables, without, usualiy, a strong accent on any. Thereis, indeed, some accentuation, but, as with the pronunciation generally, its subtleties can only be mastered through intercourse with the Ethiopian. Suffice it here to remark that:-
(a) There is often a slight accent on the first syllable of a word.
(b) A doubled consonant is liable to cause the accentuation both of the preceding and of the following syllables, but especially of the former.
20. The "root" of an Amharic verb consists in a number of "root letters", or "radicals" (most commonly three). To indicate person, tense, mood, etc, the forms of these radicals can change; prefixes and suffixes also can be attached; but the radicals themselves remain, and so identify the verb for us. For instance the
 find that the 2nd radical has assumed the 6 th form ( 7 ), and the 3 rd radical the 3 rd form ( 6 ); also that 7 is prefixed and $\lambda n \boldsymbol{H}$ is suffixed. But, with all these changes and additions, the three radicals, $n, g$, and $r$, are still present to tell us what verb we have.
21. The simplest part of a verb is its 3rd masculine singular Simple Perfect Tense: e.g. Hït he told. This part, which we call the "Root Form", is used to name the verb as a whole, just as the Infinitive is used to name an English verb. Thus we say that the verb "to tell" is sïL .
22. The conjugation of an Amharic verb divides into three 'Moods": the Indicative Mood (stating), the Imperative Mood (ordering) and the Infinitive Mood (verbal nouns).

The Indicative Mood.
23. The Indicative Mood consists in Tenses and Participles. While the tense schemes of Europeanlanguages divide up primarily on the basis of time (Past, Present and Future), in the Amharic tense scheme, though time divisions are not without importance, the great dividing line runs, rather, between "Perfect Action" and "Imperfect Action". "Perfect Action" is action viewed as completed, or as one complete whole (and therefore, sometimes, momentary). "Imperfect Action" is action viewed as uncompleted, hence continuing or continuous. Naturally, Perfect Action, being something completed, most commonly coincides with Past Time (e.g. I wrote, I have written, I had written); but sometimes this is not so (e.g. I shall have written). Likewise Imperfect Action, being something uncompleted, most commonly coincides with Present or Future Time (e.g. I write, I am writing, I shall write); but again not invariably so (e.g. I was writing).
24.

THE INDICATIVE MOOD: TENSE SCHEME
(Using nill , break, as a Pattern Verb)

|  |  | PERFECT ACTION | IMPERFECT ACTION |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{S} \\ & \mathrm{I} \\ & \mathrm{M} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \mathrm{T} \\ & \mathrm{E} \\ & \mathrm{~N} \\ & \mathrm{~S} \\ & \mathrm{E} \\ & \mathrm{~S} \end{aligned}$ | Simple Perfect Tense <br> Añく he broke | Simple Imperfect Tense (Contingent) enfl $\quad$ he breaks Only used when verb is negative or dependent. |
| P L E | PARTICIPLE | Perfect Participle (Gerund) Henc $\quad$ he -- broken (used with auxiliary verb) he having broken (used alone) | Imperfect Participle (Contingent) henfac: breaking (used with auxiliary verb) Not used alone |
| C O M P O | $\begin{aligned} & \text { PRESENT } \\ & \text { TIME } \\ & \text { WITH } \\ & \text { AUXILIARY } \\ & \text { VERB } \\ & \text { Kî̉ } \end{aligned}$ | Present Perfect Tense (Perfect Participle + Aux. Verb Kî) <br> anckä he has broken | Present Imperfect Tense (Imperfect Participle + Aux, Verb $\mathbf{k N}$ ) <br> suncia he is breaking he will break <br> Also acts for Simple Imperfect Tense (he breaks) when an affirmative main verb. |
| U N D | PAST TIME WITH AUXILIARY VERB IIl | Past Perfect Tense (Perfect Participle + Aux. Verb yĭl ) <br> note yific he had broken | Past Imperfect Tense (Imperfect Participle + Aux. Verb 3 inc ) <br> ednc sïc he was breaking |

The meanings given in this chart are only an approximation. For instance while the translation of the Simple Perfect Tense is given as the English Past Tense (he broke), it is actually a general Perfect Tense, and might equally well be translated by the English Perfect Tense (he has broken), and sometimes even, when it is a dependent verb, by the English Pluperfect (he had broken) or Future Perfect (he will have broken).

There are two simple parts on the Perfect side of the chart: the Simple Perfect Tense and the Perfect Participle, commonly called the Gerund. These are the two Perfect "elements" of the verb. But on the Imperfect side there is only one simple part, which means that the verb has only one Imperfect "element". This, known as the Contingent, is used both as an Imperfect Participle (with auxiliary verbs) and also, when the verb is negative or dependent, as a Simple Imperfect Tense (i.e. without an auxiliary verb). Its meaning, thus, is contingent on its use, hence the name.

The Gerund ${ }^{1}$ as a Perfect Participle, corresponds roughly to the English Past Participle (though since it indicates complete rather than past action it is sometimes better translated by an English Present Participle). Like the English Past Participle it is used either with an auxiliary verb to form a compound tense ( infini he has broken; nfe inc: he had broken), or as itself the verb of a dependent clause: e.g.
\$A4-7 Anc: $1 \mathrm{il}:$ Having broken the lock, he went in,
The Contingent, as an Imperfect Participie, corresponds roughly to the English Present Participle. But, unlike the latter, it is not used alone as the verb of a dependent clause, but only with auxiliary verbs to form compound tenses ( \&ind $\dot{\mathbf{A}}$ he is breaking, ginc tilc he was breaking).

Notice that in the formation of compound tenses the auxiliary verb $k \ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}$ (shortened here to $\boldsymbol{h a}$ ) is suf-
 (shortened here to silc stands as a separate word after the participle ( nflc sinc , enfl sinc ). ${ }^{2}$

Notice that the Present Perfect Tense, though it speaks of action already past, is, in fact, a Present Tense, because its reference is to present time; it indicates action now complete (now = present; complete = perfect; hence the name: Present Perfect): e.g. $\ddagger A \not \subset\}$ dflchä -, he has broken the lock, means that the lock is now broken.

The Present Imperfect Tense likewise has reference to present time, for it indicates action at present not yet completed (i.e. present and imperfect). But that which at present is not yet completed is actually continuing into the future, Future Time therefore is included in the range of this tense: gindu $\hat{A}$ he is breaking, or, he will break.

The two auxiliary verbs, kî and ink, both have a use as ordinary, independent verbs, the former meaning "he is present" and the latter meaning "he was". For their conjugation see Section $102(2$ and 3), under Irregular Verbs.

1. For convenience the Gerund is included as part of the Indicative Mood; to which, indeed, it most frequently belongs. Nevertheless as it commonly shares the mood of the verb on which it depends, it can also be Imperative or Infinitive in mood (see Section 132 under Uses of the Gerund).


2. The Tense Scheme is more limited for Negative, Relative and Subordinate Verbs:--1

The Indicative Mood: Limited Tense Scheme
(Using $\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{K}<$, break, as a Pattern Verb)

|  |  | PERFECT ACTION | IMPERFECT ACTION |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S <br> I <br> M <br> P <br> L <br> E | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{T} \\ & \mathbf{E} \\ & \mathrm{~N} \\ & \mathbf{S} \\ & \mathrm{E} \\ & \mathbf{S} \end{aligned}$ | Simple Perfect Tense <br> カึ̆८ he broke. <br> Also acts for Present Perfect Tense; he has broken <br> Can act for all Perfect Tenses of Relative and Subordinate Verbs. | Simple Imperfect Tense <br> (Contingent) <br> RAnC he breaks <br> Also acts for Present Imperfect Tense: he is breaking, he will break. Can act for all Imperfect Tenses of Relative and Subordinate Verbs. |
|  | PARTICIPLES | $\uparrow$ | $\uparrow$ |
| C O M | PRESENT <br> TIME with Auxi liary Verb hī | 0 | 1 |
| P O U N D | PAST <br> TIME <br> with <br> Auxiliary Verb หก̆て | Past Perfect Tense <br> (Perfect Participle + Auxiliary Verb $\boldsymbol{7} \boldsymbol{Z}$ <br> dife silc he had broken <br> (In the Negative the Simple Perfect acts for the Perfect Participle: <br> hañilig silc he had not broken) | Past Imperfect Tense (Imperfect Participle + Auxiliary Verb yitc ) Rntic siic he was breaking |

Note: The arrows indicate that instead of the Compound Present Tenses the corresponding SimpleTenses must be used.

The Imperative Mood.
26. This has two tenses: the Jussive Tense and the Imperative Tense.

The Jussive corresponds to the kind of English Imperative which employs the auxiliary "let" (let me break, let him break, etc.). This applies anly to the 1st and 3rd persons in English, but the Amharic Jussive is a complete tense with all persons. 2

The Imperative Tense corresponds to the English 2nd person Imperative (break!). It is an incomplete tense, possessing only the 2nd persons (masculine singular, feminine singular and plural). It is derived from the Jussive by dropping the 2nd person prefix of the latter: e.g. 2nd masculine Jussive: finnc , Imperative; nnc (break!).
The Infinitive Mood.
27. This consists of three verbal nouns:--

1) The Infinitive (the name of the action): annc, to break, breaking.
2) The Agent (the name of the performer of the action): inc , a breaker.
3) The Instrument (the name of the instrument, means or place used to perform the action). This is derived from the Infinitive by the addition of the suffix ia: anncs, an instrument, means or place used for breaking.
1. The term Subordinate Verb is used in this book for the verb of a dependent clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction.
2. The 2nd persons, however, are only used in the negative.
3. From the above description of the three moodsit can be seen that a verb possesses certain primary, or 'principal', parts; and that any other part of its conjugation is derived from one or other of these:--

| MOOD | PRINCIPAL PART | DERIVED PARTS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Indica- <br> tive | Simple Perfect Tense <br> Contingent <br> Gerund | Negative Past Perfect Tense <br> Present Imperfect and Past Imperfect Tenses <br> Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses |
| Impera- <br> tive | Jussive Tense | Imperative Tense |
| Infini- <br> tive | Infinitive | Instrument |
| (Product $)^{1}$ |  |  |

In the tables of Principal Parts in this book all "personal" parts (i.e. those of the Indicative and Imperative Moods) are given in the 3rd person masculine singular.

## The Basic Verb Groups

29. As already remarked, the most common kind of Amharic verb has three radicals (e.g. dilk break). In the 3rd person masculine singular of the Simple Perfect Tense (the "Root Form") of such verbs all three radicals are in the 1st form. But there are many verbs with other formations $-=$ with different numbers of radicals and with radicals having different forms -- and these manifest differences in conjugation. Hence the necessity to classify the verbs according to the number and the forms of their radicals. Classified thus, we find that they fall into five basic Groups, most of which are subdivided. We further find that there are a number of "Derived Forms" -- derivatives of the basic groups (which are dealt with later). The scheme then has its complications; but it is some comfort to know that once its principles have been mastered extremely little irregularity will be encountered.
30. Some of the different verb formations can be accounted for by "contraction". This means that at some time during the evolution of the language the stem has contracted, one of its radicals being lost (as a separate radical) by union with the preceding radical: e.g. amo has contracted to $\mathrm{A}^{4 \pi}$ (hear), ${ }^{2}$
31. Unless changed in this way by contraction the radicals of the Root Form of any verb are regularly all in the 1st form. Sometimes, however, a 7th form radical is found; but this is because the 7th form, owing to the similarity in sound is habitually treated as the equivalent of the 1 st form diphthong: e.g. \&Z゙m =中 $\mathrm{Z} \boldsymbol{m}$ (cut). 3,4
32. A most important element in a verb is its penultimate (i.e. last but one) radical. This is like the pivot of the verbal stem. Except in some contracted verbs from which it has been lost (i.e. Group III), it always doubles in the Simple Pprfect Tense. 5 In other parts of the conjugation it may or may not double, according to the "type" of the verb. We use the word "type", as distinct from "group" with reference to this doubling of the penultimate radical.
33. Derived from the Agent of some verbs is another verbal noun, the "Product". This is the name of what is produced by the action, and might be included in the Infinitive Mood if it were found more often and constructed with greater regularity in relation to the verb conjugations (see Section 161 under Noun Forms).
34. Contraction sometimes accounts for verbs with the same basic form being quite unrelated in meaning: e.g. ${ }^{\circ} \ell$ have mercy on (a contraction of mul )
35. Group III-3 verbs, only, have a radical which is regularly 7th form, not 1 st form. But this is a result of contraction. A 7 th form radical in any other kind of verb is simply the equivalent of a 1 st form diphthong (even when the character concerned does not possess a true ist form diphthong; e.g. q9 $\boldsymbol{n}$, fill).
36. Likewise in those parts of the verb which require the radical concerned to be in the 6th form, it is the 2 nd form which, through similarity of sound, is treated as the equivalent of the 6 th form diphthong: e.g. \$ $\langle T=\phi \cdot \Delta T$ (cut!).
37. The very rare cases of verbs having t as their penultimate radical are also exceptional, since the consonant h cannot properly be doubled: e.g. FquR (become one).

In verbs of Type A the penultimate radical doubles only in the Simple Perfect. In verbs of Type $B$ the penultimate radical doubles throughout the conjugation. In verbs of Type $C$ the penultimate radical doubles in the Simple Perfect and the Contingent.

Thus, of the five basic Groups, we find that Groups I and II are both subdivided into Type A and Type B; Group III, having lost its pemultimate radical has no "type"; while all verbs of Groups IV and V belong to Type C.

## Group I

33. Definition: Uncontracted Three-Radical Verbs. ${ }^{1}$

Subdivisions: Type A and Type B.
Pattern Verbs: I-A nilc , break; I-B 6 人X̌ , want, seek.

| PRINCIPAL PARTS | I-A | I-B |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | กก̣̆ | $6{ }^{\text {an7 }}$ |
| Contingent | grinc | C6.0̈\% |
| Gerund | Inf: | $6 \ddot{A}$ |
| Jussive | sinnc: | 66.ä9 |
| Infinitive | ountic. | 9080i9 |
| Agent | nn6 | dint |

Notice that the stems of these verbs end in consonants (as they do with all verbs except those of Groups II and V). This means that the last radical is always a vowelless 6 th form, except when some other form is required to supply the vowel of a suffix. For instance in the Root Form, fiic, the actual stem is niic ; the added vowel $\&$ is simply the 3 rd masculine singular personal suffix, standing for "he", "it". Likewise the vowels which appear at the end of the Gerund and Agent are simply suffixes.

The Indicative Mood.
34. Notice that in the Indicative Mood there is no difference between Type $A$ and Type $B$ verbs, apart from the doubling of the penultimate radical.
35.

The Simple Perfect Tense

I-A, Stem: ninc

| nilco- | $(\text { niich })^{2}$ | I broke ${ }^{3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nîcu | ( milch ) | you (m) broke |
| Aİ¢ |  | you (f) broke |
| nill |  | he, it broke |
| oilu\% |  | she broke |
| ถĭtc | ( añch | we broke |
| Aîbote |  | you (pl) broke |
| तfic. |  | they broke |

I-B. Stem: 4

| ciñu | $(\text { k } 67 \%)^{4}$ | I wanted, sought |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6. C ¢ | $\left(\text { \& }{ }^{\text {ñonn }}\right)^{4}$ | you (m) wanted, sought |
| 6X7\% |  | you (f) wanted, sought |
| <Xi7 |  | he, it wanted, sought |
| 6ïnt |  | she wanted, sought |
| 6.1073 | ( 6N73 ) | we wanted, sought |
| 603? |  | you (pl) wanted, sought |
| Cü7 |  | they wanted, sought |

1. The definitions given in this book for the different kinds of verbs must be understood only as convenient generalizations; since verbs which have the same formation and conjugation today can, for practical purposes, be grouped together, though in some cases their origins may actually have been widely different. The definitions, then, are aimed at helping the student to understand the structure and behaviour of the verb form as it now is, rather than at historical accuracy as to the evolution of every individual verb.
2. Colloquially the suffix $\pi_{3}$ is often added to the 1 st singular suffix, 0 or ${ }^{\text {nith}}$ without effect to the meaning (this is really the object suffix, "me"; see Section 196 on Object Suffixes); e.g. näcov妾 or nïch ${ }^{-3 /}$, I broke.
3. Also, 'I have broken", etc. See Sections 24 and 25 on the Tenses.
4. See Section 14 on the Assimilation of a Preceding by a Following Consonant.

Notes on the above：－－
The 1st singular and 2nd singular personal suffixes are，respectively，$v \cdot$ and $v$ or in and $h .1$ The former we call the＂h suffixes＂and the latter the＂$k$ suffixes＂．The＂$h$ suffixes＂are regarded as more correct，but the＂ksuffixes＂are commoner in speech．

The 1 st singular suffix，$v$－or $n$ ，is commonly＂breathed＂or whispered rather than spoken；and in the case of $\psi$ the $h$ is aspirated concurrently with and after the，$u$ ，instead of before it，the resulting sound being something like our exclamation of disgust，＂ugh！＂The treatment of the final $v$－of the 2nd person plural suffix a解v is similar，resulting in a sound rather like a sneeze， 2,3 ．

The alternative ist plural suffix， 3 ，is found especially in literary Amharic．
The 3rd plural form，in this or any other tense，serves also for the 2nd and 3rd polite singular：e．g．， nïs means not only＂they broke＂，but also＂you（polite，singular）broke＂and＂he，she（polite，singular） broke＂． 4
36.

I－A．Stem：Dillc

| スnflc | I - －breaking 5 |
| :---: | :---: |
| TAflc | you（m）－－＇breaking |
| 7nfle | you（f）－－breaking |
| Satc | he，it－－breaking |
| Ftilc | she－－breaking |
| 230ffc | we－－breaking |
| Tant | you（pl）－－breaking |
| リnfle | they－－breaking |

The Contingent
I－B：Stem：\＆${ }^{\text {A }}$

## haïq I－－wanting，seeking

T6．＇̃7 you（m）－－wanting；seeking
76\％\％you（f）－－wanting，seeking
R6ili he，it－－wanting，seeking
76．il she - wanting，seeking
天 $\overline{3}$ äף we－－wanting，seeking
76．ฝ7 you（pl）－－wanting，seeking
\＆GÄ7 they－－wanting，seeking

37．In the 2 nd feminine singular of verbs 6 whose final radical is absorbent 7 the suffix $i$ is absorbed．The final radical，thereby，becoming saturated，should logically take a 6 th form，but in practice it often remains 3rd．Either form is permissable，both in writing and pronunciation．Thus，using ohlf，take（I－A），as our


38．With verbs 6 whose first radical is $k$ or 8 the $I$ of the personal prefixes is assimilated ${ }^{9}$ by the stronger vowel a．Thus，using Ximil ，wash（ $\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{A}$ ），as our pattern verb，we have the following Contingent forms：－－

| kTn | I－－washing |
| :---: | :---: |
| Frn | you（m）－－washing |
| Fra． | you（f）－－washing |
| 97 fl | he，it－－washing |
| Trn | she－－washing |
| रST0 | we－－washing |
| ratir | you（pl）－－washing |
| Prit | they $=-$ washing |

1．See Section 16 on Interchangeable Sounds．
2．These peculiarities of pronunciation largely disappear when the suffix concerned is followed by an－ other suffix（such as an object suffix）．

3．The pronunciation of these suffixes must，as usual，be learned from the Ethiopian．The latter， however，when asked to demonstrate，is apt to give a theoretically correct pronunciation，which accords with the spelling rather than with his ordinary speech．But the student must persuade him to speak as he would in conversation．

4．See Section 210 on Polite Forms．
5．For the sake of brevity the meaning of the Contingent is given in these conjugations as that of the Imperfect Participle only（ $\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{-}$ breaking，etc．）．But it must not be forgotten that，when the verb is negative， relative or subordinate the Contingent is not a participle but a tense：I break，etc．（See Sections 24 and 25， Tense Scheme Charts）．

6．This applies to verbs of all groups．
7．See Section 11 on the Saturation of Consonants．
8．The same applies to Causative verbs，which have the prefixes $\boldsymbol{h}$ and $\mathrm{h} \boldsymbol{h}$ ．
9．See Section 13 （a）under the Contraction of Adjacent Vowels．


I am breaking, shall break, break you (m) are breaking, will break, break you (f) are breaking, will break, break he, it is breaking, will break, breaks she is breaking, will break, breaks we are breaking, shall break, break you (pl) are breaking, will break, break they are breaking, will break, break

I am wanting, shall want, want 4 you (m) are wanting, will want, want you (f) are wanting, will want, want he, it is wanting, will want, wants she is wanting, will want, wants we are wanting, shall want, want you (pl) are wanting, will want, want they are wanting, will want, want
40. The 2nd feminine singular Contingent of verbs whose final radical is absorbent unites with the auxiliary verb thus:

The Past Imperfect Tense

|  | sincu $)^{5}$ | I was breaking |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| +oncc 3ifc | silcu) | you (m) were breaking |
| Trinc yif. | stic't ) | you (f) were breaking |
| Pdric sic | 514. | he, it was breaking |
| 7n-nc sfic. | 3ict) | she was breaking |
|  | Sincen) | we were breaking |
| +in¢ silic | 3inco ${ }^{\text {c }}$ ) | you (pl) were breaking |
|  | 3154) | they were breaking |

41. 

## I-A

|  |  | \%ficar $)^{5}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -B |  | 3Ĭct ) |
|  | 76.ถ̆z 5Ĭc | 3nict ) |
|  | R6. C 9 \% ${ }^{\text {Inc. }}$ | 3ilc) |
|  | * 4 ¢̆9 silc: |  |
|  |  | 3浻c3) |
|  | *6.Ä7 silic | 9nlatur |
|  |  | 3恧4) |

I was breaking you ( m ) were breaking you (f) were breaking he, it was breaking she was breaking we were breaking you ( pl ) were breaking they were breaking
(Contingent + Auxiliary Verb ;inc )

I was wanting, seeking
you (m) were wanting, seeking you (f) were wanting, seeking he, it was wanting, seeking she was wanting, seeking we were wanting, seeking you (pl) were wanting, seeking they were wanting, seeking

1. Other possible spellings of these 2nd feminine singular forms are:-

2. Notice the final $\notin$ of the auxiliary verb $\hbar \bar{K}$ is dropped. Amharic generally avoids leaving a weak vowel (kor $i$ ) at the end of a word without a following connection. When the suffix a is required to indicate the personal pronoun "he" or "it", it cannot be dropped, but in this compound tense "he" or "it" is already indicated by the personal prefix of the Contingent, $f$. The athen is redundant and disappears.
3. Notice that the Contingent suffix u disappears. This is a case of the retrogressive assimilation of one strong vowel by another. See Section 13 (a) footnote, on Retrogressive Assimilation.
4. Or I am seeking, shall seek, seek, etc.
5. The alternative forms of personal suffix (described in Section 35 under The Simple Perfect Tense) are permissable with the auxiliary verb iilc as with other Simple Perfect Forms.

Note that，since the person is already indicated by the participle（in this case the Imperfect Participle or Contingent），the auxiliary verb，iñ is mosi commonly impersonal，i．e．without any per sonal suffixes at all（ sinc ），or，occasionally，retaining the 3rd masculine singular form（ $\mathbf{3} \boldsymbol{f i} \ell$ ）for all persons． 1 The personal forms（as given in the brackets above）can，however，be used，and are found especially in literary Amharic．
42.

I－A．Stem：nanc．
तीf：I having broken 2
Incu you（m）having broken
Ancí you（f）having broken
NHE he，it having broken
dilk she having broken
nflus we having broken

n•กイ．（D－they having broken

## The Gerund

I－B。Stem：GÖq
GiZiz I having wanted，sought GiAn you（m）having wanted，sought 6 Ä7T you（f）having wanted，sought GÄt he，it having wanted，sought 60̈3 she having wanted，sought 6．A7 7 we having wanted，sought KÄク章U．you（pl）having wanted，sought 6．Aํow．they having wanted，sought

Notes on the above：－
In the 1st singular of the Gerund，and nowhere else in the conjugation，the last radical doubles． 3
Notice that the 2nd masculine and feminine singular，the 1 st plural and the 3 rd plural suffixes are the same as the corresponding suffixes of the Simple Perfect，except that they now all commence with a．Only the 2nd plural suffix is exactly the same here as it is in the Simple Perfect．

43．In the 1 st singular Gerund of verbs 3 whose final radical is absorbent this radical becomes saturated by the absorption of the e suffix．It remains，nevertheless，in the 5 th form 4 except when followed by an a（see below under Present Perfect Tense），Thus ans becomes whe（I having taken）．
44.

The Present Perfect Tense

$$
\text { (Gerund + Auxiliary Verb } \mathbf{\lambda X} \text { ) }
$$

I－A．

|  | ＋kntu | $=$ nnctou |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nflus | ＋Kถ้̆ | ＝Ancta |
| dnct | ＋KXT | $=$ Ancta |
| กice | ＋ $\boldsymbol{k} \chi_{\text {cos }}$ | ＝Ancke |
| Ant． | ＋ $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ | $=$ f16－${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| 0.103 | ＋ KN | $=\mathrm{AnCF} \mathrm{A}^{\circ}$ |
|  |  | $=$ กnatat ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Anlar | ＋$\chi^{2}$ | Onct |

I have broken you（ m ）have broken you（f）have broken he，it has broken she has broken we have broken you（ pl ）have broken they have broken

1．This is not a commonform，as the personal suffix y serves no useful purpose and is therefore more likely to be dropped．See Section 39 on the Present Imperfect Tense（footnote）．

2．For the sake of brevity only one meaning is given in these Conjugations for the gerund．But it must not be forgotten that there are other possible translations；Anc̈ for instance，could also mean，＂I - broken＂ （with auxiliary verb）or＂I breaking＂（see Section 24 on Tense Scheme）．

3．This applies to verbs of all groups．
4．On rare occasions spelt with a 1st form．See Section 12 on Effects of Saturation．
5．Other possible spellings of these 1 st singular forms are：

6．Other possible spellings of these 3 rd masculine forms are：

7．Other possible spellings of these 2nd plural forms are：


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 6"̈ }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 6 \ddot{2} 73+\hbar \ddot{\mathrm{N}}=6 \times 24 \mathrm{~A}
\end{aligned}
$$

I have wanted, sought you (m) have wanted, sought you (f) have wanted, sought he, it has wanted, sought she has wanted, sought we have wanted, sought you (pl) have wanted, sought they have wanted, sought

Notice that, as the person is already expressed by the suffix of the Gerund, the auxiliary verb, kik. drops its personal suffix for every person except ' $I$ " and "she".
45. The 1st singular Gerund of verbs whose final radical is absorbent unites with the auxiliary verb thus:

The Past Perfect Tense
46.

I-A.

I-B.


1. had broken
you ( m ) had broken you (f) had broken
he, it had broken
she had broken we had broken you (pi) had broken they had broken

I had wanted, sought you (m) had wanted, sought you ( $f$ ) had wanted, sought he, it had wanted, sought she had wanted, sought we had wanted, sought you (pl) had wanted, sought they had wanted, sought 5

The Imperative Mood.
47. In this mood, unlike the Indicative, there is a difference between the stem formations of the Type A and Type $B$ verbs, over and above the usual difference of doubling.

I-A. Stem: nnc.

Jussive Tense
Anflc ( AnAC ) let me break thac Fhat ennc let him, it break Finc let her break 33nac let us break 7nlly P.ins let them break

Imperative Tense
inc break ( m )

MnG break ( f )

M04 break (pl)

1. See footnote number 5; page 19.
2. See footnote number 6 ; page 19.
3. See footnote number 7, page 19.
4. The remarks made about the auxiliary verb sili as used in the Past Imperfect Tense (Section 41) apply also to its use in the Past Perfect Tense.
5. Sometimes fZA (the 3rd masculine singular Present Perfect of $C 4$, live) is used impersonally as an auxiliary instead of sî̃c , e.g. giz nncu fZ゙A? What had you ( m ) broken? its use commonly indicates surprise: e.g. guz ficu fZa : You (m) had really broken all this:

Jussive Tense $\quad$ Imperative Tense

,
eb. $\overline{\hat{\circ}}$ ? let him, it seek
+6Äๆ let her seek

 CGÄ7\%
let us seek
let them seek

$$
\text { 6ìq seek }(m)
$$

$$
\text { 6.À } 7 . \text { seek }(f)
$$

4.87 seek (pl)

Notes on the above:--
Notice that the Jussive of the Type B verb is identical with its Contingent. This is the case with all Type B verbs, of whatever Group.

The 1st singular Jussive is given in its simple (theoretical) form, but in practice it is always used with the conjunction A, "to", prefixed (as shown in the bracket), ${ }^{2}$ which, however, has no effect on the sense.

For the 2 nd persons (masculine, feminine and plural) the Imperative, not the Jussive, forms are used in all affirmative commands. The 2nd persons of the Jussive, therefore, are only required for the negative, there being no negative of the Imperative forms.

The 2nd and 3rd persons polite as usual borrow the 3rd plural form, which in this Mood is limited to the Jussive. The 2nd polite Imperative is therefore correctly supplied by the 3rd plural Jussive; but sometimes the 2nd plural Imperative is used instead: e.g. "Break" (polite) can be ennk or n $\boldsymbol{6}$.
48. In the Jussive of any verb whose first radical is $\lambda$ or $\boldsymbol{o}$ contraction takes place between the vowel of the personal prefixes and the first radical, as in the Contingent. In the Type B verb the resulting Jussive forms are, again, identical with those of the Contingent; but the forms of the Type A verb (Jussive and Imperative) are as follows:

I-A. Stem: 7nn

| Jussive Tense |  | Imperative Tense |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hmpl (Amn) | let me wash |  |
| Tnn |  | Kmn wash (m) |
| Tmil |  | hnil. wash (f) |
| Pmen | let him, it wash |  |
| 7 ma | let her wash |  |
| x 3 \%nd | let us wash |  |
| +mir |  | hnit wash (pl) |
| $\boldsymbol{R} \mathbf{m i n}$ | let them wash |  |

49. The Jussive is used not only for giving commands but also for asking questions which require a command for their answer. 3 e.g. enac: Shall he break? Adili? Shall I seek? 4
50. Only "seek" is given here as a translation, because it is very unlikely that in the Imperative Mood the verb would have the sense of "want".
51. Except in the negative, when, instead it takes a negative prefix.
52. It is actually just as natural to use the Imperative Mood for asking questions which require a command for their answer as it is to use the Indicative Mood for asking questions which require a statement for their answer, which, of course, we do in English.
53. It would be wrong in such cases to attempt a literal translation of the English by using the Present Imperfect Tense.
54. Again in this mood, except for the Agent, there is a difference between the Type A and Type B stem formations, over and above the usual difference of doubling.

|  | I-A |  | I-B |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Infinitive: | notnc. | to break, breaking | aubin9 | to want, wanting, |
| Agent: | N06 | breaker | Q4\% | to seek, seeking wanter, seeker |
| Instrument: | mmathes | instrument, etc. for breaking | ancints | instrument, etc. for seeking 1 |

51. With verbs whose final radical is absorbent 2 absorption takes place in both the Agent and the Instrument, thus:--

Agent: onf becomes ant or orf 3

52. In verbs whose first radical is $\hat{h}$ or $0^{2}$ the Infinitive prefix $m$ always unites with the first radical to become ${ }^{47}$. This is the case even with Type A verbs, whose first radical is otherwise a 6th form in the Infinitive. With these verbs, therefore, there is no difference in stem formation, apart from the doubling, between the Type A and Type B Infinitives (as there is with other verbs); thus:--

Kत̂n think (I-B), has Infinitive aqion (Instrument aqin? )
53. In the interest of accurate speech it is of primary importance for the student to know whether a verb belongs to Type A or Type B. 5 If, when he meets a new verb, he learns only its Root Form, he will be ignorant on this point, for there is no distinction between Types A and B in the Simple Perfect Tense. He must therefore learn some other part of the verb as well. In all other parts there is the difference in the matter of doubling; but since this is not indicated in writing, and is easily missed by the untrained ear, it does not afford a very solid basis for distinction. As we have already seen, the parts of the verb which more clearly distinguish between the two types are the Jussive (with its derivative, the Imperative) and the Infinitive (with its derivative, the Instrument), in both of which a 6th form first radical indicates Type $A$ and a 1 st form first radical indicates Type $B$. Of these the Infinitive, especially, is useful for distinguishing not only between the Types but also between the Groups, and it is therefore recommended that this be regularly learnt "in one breath" with the Root Form. Thus, for instance, the verb "to say" should not be
 but as " 6A7 an\&in' " (showing that it is Type B). Only with verbs whose ist radical is $h$ or 0 is the Imperative recommended for this purpose rather than the Infinitive, since with these, as already shown, the Type A and Type B Infinitives manifest a difference only in the matter of doubling. Thus, for instance, the verb "to wash" should be learnt as " Kän Xinn" (showing that it is Type A), and the verb "to think" as " hin $k$ inn " (showing that it is Type B). If the student assiduously follows these recommendations from the start he will later be saved much doubt in his mind and much inaccuracy in his speech. 6 .

1. Only the one meaning is given, as an "instrument" or "means for wanting" is not likely.
2. This applies to verbs of any group.
3. The following Agent forms are irregular:--

Kinn carpenter, from K 3 m construct (I-B)
3.3. merchant, from sif. trade (I-B)

But these are occupational nouns rather than ordinary Agent forms. In both cases the verb also makes

4. In both Agent and Instrument forms (especially the latter) a final "I" sometimes fails to absorb the $i$ of the suffix: e.g. owîn liken, make a picture (I-B), has as its Agent onỉe or añh.

5. This distinction applies to the two very important Groups, I and II (with their subdivisions).
6. For the sake of brevity verbs are given in their Root Form only in this book. The student should, nevertheless, add their Infinitive or Imperative, as recommended, when learning them.

54．The meaning of a verb offers no indication as to its type；except that if it has intransitive or stative sense it is not so likely to be Type B，since Type B verbs are generally transitive．These are，moreover， far fewer in number than Type A．

55．There are a few verbs which are sometimes treated as Type $A$ and sometimes as Type B，without change of meaning：e．g．THH，put on shroud．In some cases the Type A and Type B forms may have dif－ ferent，but related meanings：e．g．oninn．I－A，resemble，seem；añin I－B，liken，make a picture．In other cases，again，the verb form is found in both Types，but with quite unrelated meanings：e．g．mild I－A，be－ come tight：mï中 I－B，watch，wait for．

56．The following is a selection of common Group I verbs，for use in practicing the conjugation：－－

| I－A |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| n ${ }^{\text {मop }}$ | grow accustomed to |
| onでm | choose |
| 0\％${ }^{\text {a }}$ | steal |
| कでm | cut |
| ทit | tell |
| ¢ ${ }_{\text {¢ }}^{\text {¢ }}$ | believe |
| $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\text { ö }} \boldsymbol{\text { ¢ }}$ | know |
| n\％． | open（trans．） |
| nza | divide，pay |
| mz\％ | descend |
| $\boldsymbol{m}{ }^{\text {d }}$ 中 | fall |
| Hin | rain |
| RZ̈n | reach，arrive |
| R2̇\％ | become dry |
| 7 M n | kill |
| mZ゙1 | sweep，clean |
| mīn | fry |
| 6.9 el | wish，permit |


| I－B |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | request，beg |
| त＂m | change（trans．） |
| mohn | return（trans．），answer |
| 9 HC | try |
| 中中 | boil，i．e．cook in water（trans．） |
|  | become dirty |
| Fthon | hurry |
| Kito | treat（medically） |
| 耳̈く | begin（trans．） |
| më¢ | ask，visit |
| anm | add，put more on |
| 6 2 n | finish（trans．） |
| Rị̆ 1 | pray |

## Group II

 57．Definition：Contracted Three－Radical Verbs with a vowel instead of the last radical． Subdivisions：

II－1．（Types A and B）：The final vowel is $a$ ，representing the lost radical 0 on $k$ or 0




Notice that the consonant of what now stands as the final radical is in reality the penultimate radical． Hence its doubling．


1．When the final radical of a verb is a saturated letter，it is usual for no distinction to be made be－ tween it and an absorbent radical，in those parts of the verb where the latter becomes saturated by the ab－


2．The usual vowel absorptiontakes place whenever the radical standing last is absorbent，even though， through the contraction of the verb，it is not the true last radical．

3．When there is no following vowel the doubling of the penultimate radical can only be potential（for Potential Doubling see Sec．8）．

4．See Sec． 56 （footnote）on verbs with final radical saturated．

Notice that the final vowel of a Group II verb represents a lost last radical and is therefore part of the stem．Only verbs of Groups II and V have stems which end，thus，with vowels（the stems of all other verbs end with consonants）．Since，then，the final vowel is not a suffix 1 but belongs to the stem，it cannot be re－ moved except in the following cases：－－
（a）When assimilated by a following vowel． 2
（b）When replaced by the substitute radical 7 （this replacement is only in the Gerund；in the Infinitive the vowel and the substitute radical stand together．）
（c）In the Contingent，Jussive and Imperative of Group II－2 verbs，where，as a weak vowel without any contribution to make to the meaning，it is allowed to＂drop off the end＂． 3

It is especially important to remember that the stem ends in a vowel in the case of a Group II－2 Simple Perfect（which should be carefully compared with the Simple Perfect of a Group I verb）．

Notice that the 1st singular and 2nd masculine singular＂k suffixes＂of the Simple Perfect cannot be used when the stem ends with a vowel．

The Indicative Mood．
58.

| II－1－A． | Stem：$\square^{\text {ä\％}}$ |  | II－1－B．， |  | Stem： | ก5\％ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | nay | I heard |  |  | nhe． | I measured |
|  | ก็す\％ | you（m）heard |  |  | ATH | you（m）measured |
|  | 69\％\％ | you（f）heard |  |  | 両页 | you（f）measured |
|  | ${ }^{\text {amp }}$ | he，it heard |  |  | Nin | he，it measured |
|  |  | she heard |  |  | nht | she measured |
|  |  | we heard |  |  | （ $\mathrm{A}^{\text {易 }}$ ） | we measured |
|  |  | you（pl）heard |  |  | ה ${ }^{\text {ata }}$ | you（ pl ）measured |
|  | तö． | they heard |  |  | nir | they measured |
| $\underline{\text { I－2－A．}}$ | Stem： $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{0}$ |  | II－2－B． |  | Stem： | $n{ }^{T}$ |
|  | ถ̆ד̆แ• | I gave |  |  | n Pb－ | I separated |
|  | กั้̈ | you（m）gave |  |  | ลP̈บ | you（m）separated |
|  | त̇m̈＇i | you（f）gave |  |  | ATt | you（f）separated |
|  |  | he，it gave |  |  | $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\text { AP }}$ | he，it separated |
|  | － $\mathrm{mb}^{\text {a }}$ | she gave |  |  | AP第 | she separated |
|  |  | we gave |  | A ${ }^{3} 3$（ | A ${ }^{\text {b }}$ ） | we separated |
|  |  | you（pl）gave |  |  | ns\％ | you（pl）separated |
|  |  | they gave |  |  | nip | they separated |

59. 

II－1－A．

| Stem：${ }^{\text {a }} 7$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 絓7 | I－－hearing |
| $7{ }^{747}$ | you（m）－－hearing |
|  | you（f）－－hearing |
| enor | he，it－－hearing |
| $7{ }^{79}$ | she－－hearing |
| \＄30\％ | we－－hearing |
| 「万边 | you（pl）－－．hearing |
| （100 | they -- hearing |


| Stem： | 入 ${ }^{\text {B }}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2n¢゙ | I－－measuring |
| FAfi | you（m）－－measur |
| 才 \( |  |
| ) hi． | you（f）－－measuring |
| ent | he，it - measuring |
| ＋N゙i | she－－measuring |
|  | we－－measuring |
| ＋ | you（pl）－－measuri |
|  | they－－measuring |

1．Though in the Root Form，and elsewhere，it assimilates or unites with the suffix．（See Sec． 13 on the Contraction of Adjacent Vowels）．

2．See Sec． 13 （a）under The Contraction of Adjacent Vowels（including the footnote on Retrogressive Assimilation）．

3．As mentioned elsewhere（Sec．39，footnote）Amharic generally avoids leaving a weak vowel at the end of a word with nothing following to＂support＂it．

60.

| hiog ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | I am hearing 1 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | you（m）are hearing |
| ＋naminti | you（f）are hearing |
| R $\mathrm{S}^{\text {ana }}$ | he，it is hearing |
| $7{ }^{49}$ a 7 | she is hearing |
|  | we are hearing |
|  | you（pl）are hearing |
| ¢ ${ }^{\text {am\％}}$ | they are hearing |

II－1－B．

| スก๓ヘั่ | I |
| :---: | :---: |
| キก๓ถั่ | you（m）are giving |
| $7 \operatorname{con}^{\text {anc }} 2$ | you（f）are giving |
| $8 \cdot \mathrm{~m}_{0}$ | he，it is giving |
| ¢ $\dagger$ ¢ñ | she is giving |
|  | we are giving |
| 7n¢йtu． | you（pl）are giving |
| enmer | they are giving |

## The Present Imperfect Tense

| Antint | I am measuring 1 |
| :---: | :---: |
| ＋afiñ | you（m）are measuring |
| tnhy | you（f）are measuring |
| ¢ntia | he，it is measuring |
| 7anit | she is measuring |
| 23＾5n\％ | we are measuring |
| 小n放要上 | you（pl）are measurin |
| Conit | they are measuring |

II－2－B．
Kns̈ut I am separating 1 $7 \cap$ in $v$ you（ m ）are separating ＋n enfa，he，it is separating $7 n \hat{X} 7$ she is separating

 enër they are separating
61.

II－1－A，
 etc．

II－2－A．

knt hinc（ iñcu $)$ I was giving
etc．
62.
$\underline{I I-1-A_{8}}$

 おがTob they having heard

The Past Imperfect Tense

II－2－A．

| Stem：${ }^{\text {arm }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| ¢T ${ }_{\text {易 }}$ | I having given |
| ATty ${ }^{1}$ | you（m）having given |
| ATth | you（f）having given |
| dTf | he，it having given |
| dip | she having given |
| dTr ${ }^{2}$ | we having given |
| ntirtu | you（pl）having given |
| AT小宜 | they having given |

II－2－B．

|  |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

I having separated you（m）having separated you（f）having separated he，it having separated
irf he，it having given
ont she having given she having separated we having separated you（pl）having separated
ntorr they having separated
63.

The Present Perfect Tense
II－1－B．

|  | I have heard |
| :---: | :---: |
| n90＋${ }^{\text {a }}$ | you（m）have |
| d $9^{\circ}+\mathrm{ta}$ | you（f）have hear |
|  | he，it has heard |
| ${ }^{7}$ | she has heard |
|  | ve |
|  | 1） |

nй＊iy．${ }^{2}$ I have measured Ah̆ry
Afittin you（f）have measured
Anftin he，it has measured
antrit she has measured
nhta we have measured

Ant $\boldsymbol{q}_{\mathrm{K}}^{\mathrm{K}}$ they have measured
II－2～A．
п－2－B．

| Arints ${ }^{2}$ | I have given |
| :---: | :---: |
| T＋4 | you（m）have given |
| dr＋ta | you（f）have given |
| ITrR¢ ${ }^{2}$ | he，it has given |
| －rit | she has given |
|  | we have given |
|  | you（pl）have given |
| กT＋中A | they have given |

A官宇届 ${ }^{2}$ I have separated AB＋4A you（m）have separated
ABFIt you（f）have separated
ABf俞 2 he，it has separated

ADTG we have separated
negratuk ${ }^{2}$ you（ pl ）have separated

64.

II－1－A．

etc．
II－2－A．
กptit süc（sïcu－）I had given
etc．
The Past Perfect Tense
II－1－B．
Añ silc（ süct ）I had measured etc．

II－2－B
A户⿱丷天心 silic（ sïcu：）I had separated etc．

The Imperative Mood．
65．II－1－A．Stem： $\mathrm{n}^{\text {qq }}$

Jussive Tense
Ning（Anबq）let me hear
خत ${ }^{4}$
7 กoq
enaq let him，it hear
$7 \pi^{04}$ let her hear

Thow．let them hear
ehow

Imperative Tense
naq $\quad$ hear（ m ）

กथ\％hear（f）
now．hear（pl）

1．See Sec． 115 ，footnote，on consonantal union in the Gerund of Group II verbs whose penultimate radical is $\boldsymbol{m}$ or $R$ ．

2．There are other possible spellings，as noted under Group I（Sec．44，footnotes）．

Jussive Tense


let her measure
方苜 (at

II-2-A $\quad$ Stem: ITP
Jussive Tense
hirt ( Ant ) let me give

eat let him, it give 7 OT let her give \%3nt let us give 7inn Pirl let them give

Imperative Tense
aif measure (m)
Аї. measure•(f)

A7* measure (pl)

Imperative Tense
 nar give (pl)

AR ( $\boldsymbol{A}^{6}$ ) separate (f)
$\boldsymbol{n} \ddot{\mathbf{p}} \quad$ separate (pl)

II-1-B
anit to measure, measuring
A measurer
anafy instrument, etc. for measuring

II-2-B


$o n n \bar{g}$
instrument, etc, for separating

Notice that in verbs whose stem ends with a vowel， 1 the suffixes of both the Agent and Instrument are attached directly to the penultimate radical consonant． 2

67．The following is a selection of common Group II verbs，for use in practicing the conjugation：－－

|  | I－1－A | II－1－B |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| q0ï 3 fill | $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\text { ® }} 6$ lack | 中 9 | rob |
| anjo hit | min go out，come out， ascend | 中 7 | paint，spread on， anoint |
| comi 4 come | H．3 shut |  | lie down，go to sleep |
| 朔．work，make | 7 TI enter | ＋ | replace |
| $4 \overline{\text { ¢ }} 5$ forget | 7\％buy，rule | $\boldsymbol{m}$ \％ | drink |
| C\％3 5 help | 74．push |  |  |
| 0ï eat | m̈̈．call，become pure |  |  |
| 0弟 suffice | 64 boil（intrans．） |  |  |
|  | In－2－A | II－2 |  |
|  | ariil become late（evening） | $\pi 7$ | accompany，escort |
|  | く瓦 sprinkle（liquid） | ＋${ }_{\text {P }}($ | wait，await，remain |
|  | 中 $\ddot{L}$ remain（without）${ }^{8}$ |  |  |
|  | 大ï rub |  |  |
| $\because$ | $\boldsymbol{\hbar}_{\mathbf{p}}^{\mathbf{p}} \quad$ see |  |  |
|  | 6．h grind |  |  |

Notice that（with the important exception of $\boldsymbol{n} \ddot{m}, \notin \ddot{Z}$ and the defective verb $\boldsymbol{h}^{9}$ ）in nearly all（ II－2 verbs the penultimate radical is saturated． 10

1．i．e．Verbs of Groups $I I$ and $V$ ．
2．The vowel which represents the last radical is assimilated，and，in the case of the Infinitive，the substitute radical， 7 ，disappears with it．The last radical，therefore，is without representation in those two forms．

3．For the use of this verb see Sec． 337 （a）．

5．See Sec． 17 on the Pronunciation of $y$ before an initial $x$ ．
6．For the use of this verb see Sec． 335 （b）．
7．Used as a Type A verb in northern or classical Amharic．
6．For the meaning of this verb see Sec． 335 （a）．
 under Irregular Verbs．

10．This is because the lost last radical was，in most cases，$p$ ；whose consonant $J$ ，being the con－ sonantal equivalent of $i$（see Sec． 15 on Consonantal Vowels）has suffered absorption ：e，g，ondp $\longrightarrow, \operatorname{con}$

## Group III

68．Definition：Contracted Three－Radical Verbs，with a vowel instead of the penultimate radical．
Subdivisions：
III－1：The middle vowel is a，representing the lost radical $\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\theta}$
e．g．הkh $\longrightarrow$ th send
III－2：The middle vowel is e or 3 ，representing the lost radical $p$ ：

III－3：The middle vowel is 0 ，representing the lost radical a



| Principal Parts | III－1 | III－2 |  | II－3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | Ah | with e |  | Tion 5 |
| Contingent | e大h | $\boldsymbol{e m h}$ | STit | C\％＇90 |
| Gerund | An | m，${ }^{\text {a }}$（north） | $\mathrm{min}^{4}$（north） | in ${ }^{5}$（north） |
|  |  | as（south） | Tm（south） | \％\％P（south） |
| Jussive | enh | Cmin | cetap 5 | erig |
| Infinitive | $a \mathrm{nh}$ | math | 00 Tf | $\cdots{ }^{\circ} 9^{\circ}$ |
| Agent | An． |  | $\mathrm{THB}_{6}(76)^{3}$ | $\mathrm{ci}^{\text {cor }} 3$ |

Notes on the above：－－
Group III verbs，having no penuitimate radical，belong to no＂type＂．But their middle vowel changes in certain parts，（reflecting thereby the form－changes of the radicals of the original uncontracted verb），and it is these vowel changes which must be learnt．${ }^{6}$ Notice that they occur in the same parts for Groups III－2 and III－3；while Group III－1 is somewhat different． 7

1．In such cases the consonant $y$ of the lost radical $p$ ，being equivalent to $i$ has suffered absorption by the first radical，which has thereby become saturated．

2．The Agent，a noun，is，of all the Principal Parts，the least verbal．This fact is reflected in the forms of III－2 and III－3 Agents，in that they generally retain the consonantal sound of the radical which is lost from the verb itself．It is，in fact，typical for nouns and adjectives related to contracted verb forms to retain the radical which the verb has lost（though this is not always the case）：e．g．onf．m $\mathbf{F}$ ，book，and
Rimbil，writing，are both related to the III－1 verb \＄4，write，which has lost the radical $\boldsymbol{t}$ ．
3．The very few verbs belonging to Group III－2 manifest little uniformity in their Agents：e．g．y．（go）


4．A 3rd form $\mathfrak{f}$ is sometimes found instead of the 6 th form $\bar{\pi}$ ．
5．As mentioned in Sec． 31 （footnote），only verbs of Group III－3 have a radical which is regularly and necessarily 7 th form．In any other kind of verb a 7 th form radical is simply the equivalent of a 1 st form diphthong．

6．In both the Basic and the Derived Forms（i．e．Causatives etc．），these vowel changes suggest that the original uncontracted verbs were all Type A．This is especially clear in II－1 verbs，whose middle vo－ wel is a whenever the penultimate radical of a I－A verb would be 1 st or 4 th form（ e 。g．Jussive：fonhth $\longrightarrow$
gint ；Agent $n k h$ ．$\longrightarrow A$ ．$)$ ，but becomes $I$ whenever the penultimate radical of a I－A verb would be 6th form（e．g．Contingent：enth $\longrightarrow$ ein ）．

It is not so clear in III－2 and III－3 verbs：but，obviously，had their original uncontracted form been Type $B$ ，the penultimate radical，being doubled throughout，would not so readily have become lost．Thus， while，for instance，mët has contracted to ma，the similar verb mép（ask），being Type B，has remained uncontracted．Conversely，therefore，it can be assumed that any Group I verb with a penultimate $P$ or os which has survived intact（ $e_{0} g$ 。 Ap̈on ，name；näl．，hide）is a Type $B$ verb（unless the first radical is $k$ or D，as hカ̈中，know，I－A）．

7．Groups III－2 and III－3 are always parallel in their behaviour，in the Derived as well as the Basic forms．This is because it is the two very similar consonantal－vowel letters，$p$ and $a$ ，which their midm dle vowels respectively represent；whereas the middle vowel of a III－1 verb represents quite a different kind of letter．

A peculiarity of Groups $\mathrm{II}-2$ and $\Pi$ II-3 is that they possess two forms of Gerund. The form most generally used in the spoken language of the capital is the southern; the northern being the more literary or classical form.

A Group III verb resembles a Group II verb in that they are both biliteral; yet the stem of the Group III verb, not having lost its last radical, does not end in a vowel; nor does it require the substitute last radical, 7 in its Gerund and Infinitive. This latter fact, apart from all other differences, enables immediate differentiation between the two Groups, provided that the Infinitive is always learnt together with the Root Form, as previously advocated. 1
e.g. Contrast[An anht, give (II-2-A) with fim ontr sell (III-2)

Since the Group III stem ends with a consonant, the attachment of prefixes, suffixes and auxiliary verbs is in every respect as for Group 1 . The complete conjugation, therefore, follows automatically from the above Principal Parts.
69. The following is a selection of common Group III verbs, for use in practicing the conjugation:

|  | III-1 | III-2 |  | III-3 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4ก | paint, draw | \% $\%$ | go | urs | become, be, happen |
| य1 | laugh, smile |  |  | $9 p+$ | become hot |
| 7n | cough, sharpen |  |  | $9{ }_{\text {P }}$ | die |
| now | kiss |  |  | C.m | run |
| F | be able |  |  | \$00 | stand, stop |
| PA | pass the day |  |  | 96 | live, dwell |
| 9 m | swallow |  |  | $\mathrm{H}_{4}$ | turn (intrans) |
| PH | take hold of |  |  | $\operatorname{mom}(800)^{3}$ | fast |
| P) | be saved, get well |  |  | cost 4 | shout, make noise |
| 94 | throw down, away |  |  |  |  |

Notice that III-2 verbs are extremely few in number. Apart from t\% an tin and the irregular verb ta (leave) ${ }^{5}$ there are no common Basic III-2 verbs.

Notice also that III-3 is a substantially intransitive Group.

1. There are two exceptions whose Infinitives are entirely misleading on this point. They are: (a) the II-2-A verb $\quad$ 角, flee, which has anirregular Infinitive onft (like Group III); and (b) the irregular III-1 verb Kn ; say, whose Infinitive is ant (like Group II). See Secs. 104 (1) and 105 (2) under Irregular Verbs.
2. A further means of distinguishing between the two Groups lies in the fact that in Group II-2 the final radical (actually the penultimate) is nearly always saturated, while this appears never to be the case with the last radical of a Group III verb.

Group II-1 verbs, of course, always end with a and are not, therefore, so liable to be confused with Group III verbs.
3. See Sec. 16 on Interchangeable Sounds.
4. When one of the radicals of a verb (other than the penultimate) is $h$, since this consonant cannot be doubled there is a tendency to substitute the consonant k for it in those formations where doubling would nor-
 changeable Sounds).
5. For its conjugation see Sec . 104 (2) under Irregular Verbs.

## Group IV

70．Definition：Uncontracted Four－Radical Verbs．
Subdivisions：None；all verbs of this Group belong to Type C． 1
Pattern Verb：on $\langle\ddot{n} 厶$, ，examine．

| Principal Parts | IV |
| :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | $\cdots{ }_{0}$ |
| Contingent |  |
| Gerund | ${ }_{\text {ancsob }}$ |
| Jussive | Rumciac： |
| Infinitive | anamicioc |
| Agent | 00 Cc 46 |

Notice that：－－
The first radical is 1 st form throughout．
The second（or ante－penultimate 2 ）radical is 1 st form when the penultimate radical is doubled；other－ wise 6th form．

The penultimate radical takes the same forms as that of a I－B verb（like dif）．
The last radical，as in any verb whose stem ends with a consonant，is always a 6th form，except when some other form is required to supply the vowel of a suffix．

In using these verbs it is some help to remember that，owing to the behaviour of the second radical， described above，the stem has three syllables in those parts of the verb in which the penultimate radical doubles（i．e．the Simple Perfect and Contingent）；otherwise only two．

71．The following is a selection of Group IV verbs，for use in practicing the conjugation：－－

|  | become verdant Alfït | crack，split（trans．） |  | throw |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ansitc | change（money）T＜＂\％om | translate，interpret | Sthon | be startled |
| anotic | testify ．Fbäd | breathe | 7nîm | turn over，copy |
| （1ヵก̈\％ | become skillful，रı7in civilized | limp | prounh | taste sour |
| nnîn | gather，collect（trans．）hatin | prevent，forbid | m＜rïl | doubt，suspect |
| nifit | pass a while miø̈n | wipe | aqẫn | wrap up |
|  |  | Group V |  |  |

72．Definition：Contracted Four－Radical Verbs，with a vowel instead of the last radical． Subdivisions：All verbs of this Group belong to Type C．

V－1：The final vowel is a，representing the lost radical $u, h, A, h$ ， $\boldsymbol{f}$

$$
\text { e.g. H3Th } \longrightarrow H 3.3 \quad \text { forget }
$$

V－2：The final vowel is $\underset{z}{\boldsymbol{z}}$ ，representing the lost radical P ．


| Principal Parts | V－1 | V－2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | H．）． | 701\％ |
| Contingent | Q 13.5 | C20－13\％ |
| Gerund | H39？ | $7 \mathrm{Fr\mid}$ |
| Jussive | SH7， | 87018 |
| Infinitive | cobl37 | a070nT年 |
| Agent | 132. |  |

1．For definition of Type C see Sec． 32.
2．Since the penultimate radical is the＂pivot＂of the verb stem，the position of another radical in re－ lation to the penultimate radical is of greater significance than its position in relation to the first radical． Hence the value of the term＂ante－penultimate＂．

Notice that no new elements appear in the Group V Principal Parts; for these verbs are contracted Group IV verbs, and conjugate as Group IV, except in their contracted end, where they are identical with Group II, (their stem, of course, ending with a vowel).
73. The following is a selection of Group $V$ verbs, for use in practicing the conjugation:--

|  | V-1 | V-2 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nc. | become strong | coscill | spring (water) |
| 哏宫 | measure (with forearm) | กิกั่ | grow weary (of) |
| HC3 | stretch out, spread out | H7 1 | delay, be late |
| 7 Tl | build in stone etc. | ¢T\% ${ }^{1}$ | become poor |
| 6.3 | burst | $710{ }^{1}$ | go to market |

Both Groups V-1 and V-2 are small, possessing very few common verbs.
Group V-2 verbs are liable to be confused with Group I verbs. But learning the Infinitive together with the Root Form will, as usual, make the distinction clear. 2

Notice that nearly all verbs of Group V-2, like those of Group II-2, have a saturated penultimate radical. 3

## The Derived Forms of Verb

74. From the five Basic verb forms other forms are regularly derived. These "Dexived Forms" can be classified as:--
A. "Unchanged Stem" Derived Forms

Direct Causative Indirect Causative Passive
B. "Changed Stem" Derived Forms (Simple, Direct and Indirect Causative, Passive).
A. "Unchanged Stem" Derived Forms of Verb.

## Direct and Indirect Causative Forms

75. $K$ is prefixed to a Basic form to express direct causation (abbreviation: $\mathrm{D}_{0} \mathrm{C}_{0}$ ). kit is prefixed to a Basic form to express indirect causation (abbreviation: I. C.).
```
e.g. II-1-A. abm̆ come
    D.C.II-1-A. Kom\ddot{m}}\mathrm{ bring (i.e.cause to come by direct handling)
    I.C. II-1-A. hinom\ddot{q}}\mp@subsup{}{}{4}\mathrm{ cause to come, have brought
```

Notice that the Direct Causative form must not be confused with verbs whose first radical is $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ (such


1. Colloquially the Jussive and Infinitive of V-2 verbs ending in $P$ are sometimes treated irregularly,


2. A nearly infallible indication as to the Group also lies in the fact that the penultimate radical (which stands last) of a Group $\mathrm{V}-2$ verb is almost invariably saturated, while the last radical of a Group I verb very rarely is. Important exceptions to this are the two I-B verbs $2 \ddot{\beta} \boldsymbol{p}$ pray, and whe remit (sin).
3. In Group V-2, unlike Group II-2, there are no common exceptions to this.
4. If the 1st radical of the verb is $\boldsymbol{n} w$ or $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, it assimilates the $\boldsymbol{n}$ of the I.C. prefix, thereby be-

5. A Direct Causative form often serves as the transitive equivalent of an intransitive Basic form:

0."an h hait He boiled the water (trans.; = He caused the water to boil by direct action on it).
6. The Indirect Causative of a Basic form which is transitive may convey either active or passive sense, whichever suits the direct object used with it. Thus, with the Indirect Causative of the transitive verb cotin, finish.

## (I-B):--


Mrov-3 hncatiniv. I will havelthe work finished ( $=$ I will cause the work to be finished).
An Indirect Causative can, indeed, take both objects at once:

78. Indirect Causative forms may give permissive as well as causative sense, especially in the negative:
 (i.e. The noise stops one sleeping).
79. The distinction between direct and indirect causation is not always clearly defined. Many verbs do not possess both forms (the one which is most commonly lacking being the Direct Causative). In such cases the existing form often has to serve for the missing form. Thus, for example: Nidp̈̈m (I.C., I-B) may either express true indirect causation: "cause to sit", or, since the verb has no Direct Causative form, it may also express direct causation: "put down" (the latter being in this case the commoner use).
80. Many Direct Causative forms have an active but not causative sense, the Basic forms from which they
 its derived forms.

The Conjugation of Causative Forms.
81. The addition of a causative prefix, $h$ or $\boldsymbol{k} h$, to a Basic form may or may not affect the stem formations in conjugating. Actually, as the following tables show, it is only verbs of Type A and of Group III (which are contracted Type A verbs 2) whose Causative conjugations differ in their stem formations from the Basic.
82.

Conjugation of Causatives (other than Group III)

|  | Type A Verbs | Types B and C Verbs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| D.C. <br> in <br> $h$ | Remain Type A verbs, but 1st <br> form radicals in Gerund; <br> Jussive and Agent become 6th <br> form. | Conjugate as Basic |
| I.C. <br> in <br> $\boldsymbol{h} \boldsymbol{n}$ | Conjugate as Type B Verbs. | Conjugate as Basic. |

e.g. Type B: hn'm, water (D.C., II-1-B), conjugates as its Basic m̈̈q, drink.
 But Type A: hhoö̈ , cause to come ( $\mathrm{I}_{4} \mathrm{C} ., \mathrm{II}-1-\mathrm{A}$ ), does not conjugate like its Basic, amï) (II-1-A) but like an ( $\boldsymbol{\Pi}-1 \mathrm{~B}$ ) - its Infinitive is aqnonäq $\boldsymbol{t}$.

1. An $I_{0} C$. form is the normal means of rendering "have" in this sense (to "have" something done).
2. As in the Basic so in the Causative forms, the variations of the middle vowel of a Group III verb reflect the form-changes of the radicals of the original uncontracted verb.
 with those of Basic forms：

| Principal Parts | D．C．I－A | D．C．II－1－A | D．C．II－2－A |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | neizl 1 | ไ， | K7\％ |
| Contingent | gec：l | gimm | $\rho_{7} 7$ |
| Gerund | heck | Kg゙qfor | K9\％ |
| Jussive | Percal | $\boldsymbol{\rho F W}$ | 9\％高 |
| Infinitive | 999く\％ |  | 9737 |
| Agent | $\lambda \mathrm{K}_{2} \mathrm{~L} \mathrm{Z}_{4} 2$ |  |  |

83. 

Conjugation of Group III Causatives

|  | III－1 Verbs | III－2 and III－3 Verbs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{D}_{0} \mathrm{C}_{0} \text { in } \\ & K_{\text {and }} \text { and } \\ & \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{o}} \text { in } \end{aligned}$ | Conjugate as Basic except that the 4th form becomes 6th form in the Jussive． | Conjugate as Basic except that the middle vowel of the Gerund is normally as in Basic north－ ern form． |

 Ien（Imperative de．3）．

III－2：\％R，go（Basic），has Gerund YR（northern）or $\% 8$（southern），but hh\％R，let pass（I．C．），has Gerund kM\％s．
 has Gerund $\boldsymbol{h}^{a 0 \cdot}$ ．

## Passive Forms

84．A transitive verb is rendered passive by the addition of the prefix $+\cdots$
e．g．đî̉z break（I－A）
＋inila be broken（ $P_{0}, 1-A$ ）
Notice that this Passive form must not be confused withverbs whose first radical is + （such as +tin ， plant；惨 lie down，go to sleep）。 4

If the active verb is a Causative form，to render it passive the causative prefix must first be removed： 5,6
e．g．Kelï7 do（D．C．，I－A） tRZ̈T be done（P．，I－A）

85．In some cases the Passive form is used to give reflexive，as well as passive，sense：
e．g．九ïn wash（I－A）
Finn be washed（passive sense）：wash one＇s self（reflexive sense）．

1．This very common verb， $\boldsymbol{h}^{\boldsymbol{Z}} \mathrm{K}_{7}$ ，is often shortened to $h\langle 7$ in speech．
2．D． $\mathrm{C}_{6}$ ，I－A verbs conjugate exactly like Basic Group IV verbs whosefirst radical is $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$（e．g．Ksïn limp；Kirin ，sneeze），except that the latter，being Type C，double their penultimate radical in the Con－ tingent．

D．C．，II－A verbs would be equally close to Basic Group V verbs with 1st radical $\boldsymbol{h}$ but apparently no such Group V verbs exist．

3．Although this verb belongs to Type A，its penultimate radical tends to be slightly＂dwelt on＂in the Contingent．See Sec． 9 on consonants which have a special tendency to be＂dwelt on＂．

4．．This presents little difficulty to those who have a good grasp of the Basic forms．The most mis－ leading are the few Group IV verbs（Basic）whose first radical is $+\left(\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{g} .+1 \mathrm{om}\right.$ ，translate：tion， breathe），for in the Simple Perfect they are exactly like Passive Group I verbs．But a knowledge of the Infi－ nitive will dispel all doubt．

5．This applies more especially to D．C．forms，as I．C．forms are not often made passive．
6．In certain rare cases of $I_{0} C$ ．forms being made passive only the $\%$ is removed from the $I_{\text {．}} C$ ．pre－ fix，the $n$ being retained．See Sec． 98 （footnote）．
86. A Passive form of ten serves as the intransitive equivalent of a transitive Basic form:


 nonnow nha. started at ten o'clock).
87. That the passive, reflexive and intransitive senses are closely related can be seen from the following examples:
nola? măn: He returned my pen (active and transitive).

w!. $n$ detin: He returned to the shop (intransitive); = He took himself back to the shop (reflexive).
88. There are many verbs which are passive in form but active in meaning: e.g. totim, carry (P., I-B);中tin , receive ( $\mathrm{P} ., \mathrm{I}-\mathrm{B}$ ). As a second passive prefix cannot be added it is impossible to give passive sense to such verbs. Thus, for example, "The loads were carried by porters", must be expressed actively: "Porters carried the loads".

## 89. The Conjugation of Passive Forms.

Rule 1. Those Principal Parts of the verb which have no prefixes (Simple Perfect, Gerund and Agent) simply add the passive prefix + , but in other respects are identical with the Basic form.

Rule 2. In those Principal Parts of the verb which have prefixes (Contingent, Jussive and Infinitive) the following takes place: --
(a) The Passive prefix + is assimilated by the first radical, which thereby becomes doubled.
(b) The first and penultimate radicals remain in the 1 st form throughout. The forms of the other radicals are as in the Basic verb.
(c) The penultimate radical doubles according to Type C (irrespective of the Type of the Basic form). 1

Since the Imperative is a derivative of the Jussive, its formation, like that of the Jussive, is governed by Rule 2. But since it lacks the personal prefixes of the Jussive, its passive prefix + is not assimilated by the first radical, which therefore, does not double.

In verbs whose first radical is $\lambda$ or 0 the passive prefix and the first radical unite to form . This $\Rightarrow$ is retained throughout the conjugation, and in those Principal Parts which are governed by Rule 2 it doubles as the first radical.

Note: The above rules are followed in their entirety by uncontracted verbs (Groups I and IV). Contracted verbs (Groups II, III and V) follow them in so far as their contractions permit. $2^{2}$

1. This means, in effect, that of the parts governed by Rule 2 the Contingent, only, doubles its penultimate radical.
2. Verbs of Group III are especially handicapped here, in that they have no penultimate radical and can therefore belong to no "type". Nevertheless, their middle vowel reflects, as usual, the forms of the first two radicals as they would have been, had the penultimate radical not been lost. Under Rule 2 these would both have remained constant in the 1 st form, with the result that, in those parts governed by Rule 2 , there is now no variation in the middle vowel.
（Compare these with the corresponding active forms；which are given as pattern verbs for the Basic Groups）．

| Governed by | Principal Parts | P．I－A | P．I－B | P．II－1－A | P． $11-1-\mathrm{B}$ | P．II－2－A | P．II－2－B |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rule 1 | Simple <br> Perfect Gerund Agent | ＋Aĭ́ <br> the <br> thing | +6 ล̆ 7 <br>  <br> $+6 .{ }_{2}$ | $\boldsymbol{1} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ <br>  <br>  |  |  | ＋ $\boldsymbol{A P}$ <br> Tnkf <br>  |
| Rule 2 | Contingent Jussive （Imperative 1 Infinitive | عäñ： <br> Röñc <br> tinc <br> moiñ． | R2Xㄱ <br> e．6．n9 <br> ＋6．17 2 <br> － 20.07 | （0）${ }^{3} 9$ <br>  <br> ＋${ }^{a}$ <br> 000 ñ 97 | CÖh <br> gi้h <br> ＋Ah 2 <br>  |  | RHE <br> pëf <br> tae 2） <br> onịn |


| Governed by | Principal Parts | P．III－1 | P．III－2 | P．III－3 | P．IV | P．V－1 | P．V－2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rule 1 | Simple <br> Perfect <br> Gerund <br> Agent | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Hh } \\ & \text { tah } \\ & \text { thh. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \operatorname{T\pi } m \\ +\pi n^{* *}+\pi m^{*} \\ +\pi q^{2}(+\pi m) \end{gathered}$ |  |  <br> ＋adcgo <br> ＋0nc：96 |  |  |
| Rule 2 | Contingent Jussive （Imperative 1 Infinitive | 8．7月 <br> Bïh <br> ＋4h <br> $0 \times$ 亿h | RUT efit $+7$ antit |  |  <br>  <br> roncamc． <br> aö̈bcame | RH5，${ }^{3}$ <br>  <br> TH3？ <br> 00ilizo7 | （ 17017 <br> （ 70.174 <br>  <br>  |

Notice that the Infinitive，being itself Type C（except for Group III），is no longer of any value for in－ dicating the Type of the Basic form．Indeed，none of the Principle Parts of a Passive form distinguishes， in writing，between Types A and B．Only the spoken Gerund and Agent reveal a difference，in the matter of doubling．Thus with Passive verbs of Groups $I$ and $I$ ，in cases when the Basic or Direct Causative form is not known，it is good to memorize the Gerund，instead of the Infinitive，together with the Root form．

In comparing the Passive Principal Parts with the corresponding Basic forms，notice how in many cases（especially in the contracted verbs）all that there is to distinguish the passive from the active is the doubling of the first radical．This，then，must on no account be neglected．

91．The I．C．prefix $\boldsymbol{h} \boldsymbol{n}$ is sometimes attached to Passive forms（especially those whose first radical is $\bar{\lambda}$
 III－1 verb $+{ }^{\circ} 4$ learn）．But these are active verbs and are conjugated as Indirect Causative， 3 not as Pas－ sive，forms（the passive + however，remaining throughout，as though it were the first radical 4）．

$$
*(\text { North }) \quad * * \text { (South })
$$

1．The Imperative is not one of the Principal Parts，but because of its peculiar treatment in the Pas－ sive verb（mentioned under Rule 2，above），it is included here，in brackets，below its parent form，the Jus－ sive．

2．The penultimate radicals of all Passive Imperatives should，according to Rule 2，be single．In the case of Passive verbs whose Basic form is Type B，however，the penultimate radical is，in practice，often pronounced double： $\mathrm{e} . \mathrm{g}$ ．for＂Sit down（m）＂中中并p is frequently heard instead of t中odep（from the P．，I－B verb，t中 $\mathfrak{m}_{m}^{m}$ ）．
 Changed Stem forms．But this is dealt with under Changed Stem Derived Forms（Sec．98）．

4．This treatment of the passive + as the first radical will，in effect，turn a Group I verb into a Group IV verb：$e_{.}$．the I．C．，P．I－B verb，hotwï（cause to be forgiven），is conjugated as an I．C．IV verb．

B．＂Changed Stem＂Derived Forms of Verb．
92．While the Derived Forms of Verb so far dealt with（Causatives and Passives）are derived from Basic forms by the addition of prefixes，there are others which are derived by the process of changing the stem of the Basic form，various modifications being thereby given to the sense of the latter．These＂Changed Stem＂forms may，further，have a Causative or Passive prefix added， 1 Causative and Passive Changed Stem forms，in fact，are commoner than the＂simple＂Changed Stem forms．

93．There are three ways in which the Basic stem of a verb can，thus，be changed：－－
1）The Primary Internal Change（abbreviation：1 Int．C．S．）；in which the ante－penultimate radical is changed into the 4th form： 2 e．g．nih，rise（dust etc．；I－A），makes the ${ }^{1}$ Int．C．S．form nis），rise with a start（from sleep，etc．）．

2）The Secondary Internal Change（abbreviation：${ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．）；in which the letter of the penultimate ra－ dical is inserted in the 4 th form before the penultimate radical：
e．g．nill ，break（I－A），makes the ${ }^{2}$ Int．$C . S$. form naĩc ，shatter．
inỉn ，overturn（IV），makes the P．${ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．form Finninn ，be completely upset．
3）The External Change（abbreviation：Ext．C．S．）；in which a 6th form（most commonly 3 ）is attached to the beginning of the stem，invariably preceded by a Direct Causative or Passive prefix． 3 This change is only made to verbs of Type C（i．e．those belonging to Groups IV and V，and also Int．C．S．verbs of other groups 4）， 5 ：
e．g．中m中n ，beat repeatedly（IV），makes the P．Ext．C．S．forms＋3中m中n，tremble，shiver；and the D．C．Ext．C．S．formhz中n中m，cause to tremble，shiver．
 P．Ext．${ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．form＋htrijaw，race．

94．In Indirect Causatives of Internally Changed Stem verbs the $n$ of the prefix $k$ is nearly always as－ similated by the first radical，which thereby becomes doubled．In writing，therefore，there is no difference



But Direct Causatives of Internally Changed Stem verbs are relatively rare，so that when $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ is prefixed the first radical is generally found to be double as well（showing that it is an Indirect Causative form）． 6

1．Or both together：hit－．
2．As previously mentioned，definitions of the different verb forms given in this book are only conven－ ient generalizations；for the extremely intricate evolution of the Semitic verb is a study quite beyond our present scope．Thus there are many＂Changed Stem＂verbs which do not，actually，owe their form to any of the＂changes＂here described；but，since they are now identical both in formation and conjugation with verbs whose stems have undergone these＂changes＂，they may for practical purposes be classed with them． The＂simple＂lint．C．S．forms，in fact，are largely of this kind．For example，the verb liz（have pity）is actually a contraction of an old four radical stem $\langle\hat{Z}$ an lint．C．S．II－1 verb－－apparently derived from a Basic $\Pi-1$ stem，$\langle\ddot{i}$ ，which does not exist．

3．This means that Ext．C．S．verbs are never＂simple＂or Indirect Causative．
4．Since these also belong to Type C；see Sec． 99 on the Conjugation of Changed Stem Forms（Rule 1）．
5．Under the heading of Ext．C．S．verbs we include，for purposes of practical convenience，what is really another quite distinct derived form：the Frequentative．Verbs of this class，which are identical in form with Ext．C．S．IV（i．e．four－radical）verbs，are actually contractions of five－radical verbs not now found；which in their turn were derived from three radical verbs by the process of repeating the last two radicals，in order to introduce frequentative sense．The following is an example of this evolutionary pro－ cess：－

Original noun：c911，dove（a fluttering bird）$\longrightarrow 3$ radical verb stem：cin！，flutter，wave about， be loose $\longrightarrow 5$ radical frequentative verb stem：L7ll！（not now found）
$\longrightarrow$ P．Ext．C．S．IV form：TCin7n keep fluttering，waving（intrans．）
D．C．Ext．C．S．IV form：hcinain keep fluttering，waving（trans．）
6．An example of an $I_{0} C$ ．Int．$C_{0} S_{.}$verb which retains the prefix $k n$ in full is hic． $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{K}}$ ，intimidate （ $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{C} .{ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．form of 4 K ，fear，II－1－A）．Others which do not lose the $a$ are the I．C．，P．Int．C．S． forms（i．e．those which prefix hit）．

95．Variations，mostly slight，of the above scheme of stem changes are found with certain classes of verbs：－－
1）Group III verbs，having no penultimate radical can make no 1 Int．＂change＂，except by reverting to their uncontracted Group I form．This is done by a few III－3 verbs：e．g．qüo（the uncontracted form of


Group III verbs cannot，for the same reason，make the 2 Int．＂change＂in the normal manner．They do it，however，by reduplicating the letter of the first radical instead of that of the penultimate radical．
e．g．Rd write（III－1）makes ${ }^{2}$ Int．Cos．form RRd．write hurriedly，scribble．
4e．go（III－2）makes I．C． 2 Int．$C_{0} S_{\text {．}}$ form hites 1 manage（cause to go，＂run＂）．

2）Verbs of Groups I and II whose first radical is $k$ or $o$ do not make the 1 Int．＂change＂（for the ob－ vious reason that the 4 th forms of these letters are pronounced the same as their 1st forms）．But some of them make a P． 2 Int．C．S．form，in which the sound a of the first radical is lost（apparently by confusion with the a of the added 4th form letter）；and also an Indirect Causative of this Passive form：e．g．Kidp
 cause to know each other，introduce．

3）The 2 Int．$C_{0} S_{\text {．}}$ form of some $\Pi-1$ verbs tends to reduce its first radical to a 6 th form after a Pas－ sive or Causative prefix；thereby producing，in effect，an Ext．C．S．form．

 age，comfort．

96．It will be appreciated that，with all the possible combinations of prefixes and stem changes，the num－ ber of possible Derived Forms is considerable．But no one Basic Form possesses all of them．A typical example is tife，tell（I－A），which，though it does not make an External＂change＂，is found in the following forms：－－

| Basic | Hic | tell |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| P． | Hitc | be told |
| I．C． | Minic | cause to tell，cause to be told |
| P． 1 Int．C．S． | Tcit | speak，talk |


| I．C． 1 Int．C．S | 入ら゙7\％ |
| :---: | :---: |
| I． $\mathrm{C}_{\text {op }} \mathrm{P}_{0} 11$ Int．C．S． |  |
| P． 2 Int， $\mathrm{C}_{0} \mathrm{~S}_{0}$ |  |
| $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{C} .2$ Int． $\mathrm{C} . \mathrm{S}_{\text {。 }}$ | Kर．${ }^{\text {² }}$ |

cause to speak cause to talk much talk，converse speak to，address

97．It is clear from the examples already given that the＂changing＂of a basic stem results in a modification of the sense；but it is not so easy to trace any system in that modification．A uniform system，indeed，there is none，for the same＂change＂in two different verbs does not necessarily modify their meaning in the same way．Moreover many Changed Stem verbs have no apparent sense relationship at all with any Basic form． Certain tendencies in sense modification，however，are obvious 5：－－

1）Int．C．S．forms，both primary and secondary，very commonly have reciprocal sense（in which case they are called Reciprocal Verbs）：


 C．S．）．

1．$h$ is used instead of $y$ because the I．C．prefix requires a doubled first radical（see Sec． 69 foot－ note）；but，even in the Basic form，he is often used instead of te（see Sec． 16 on Interchangeable sounds）．

2． 2 Int．C．S．III－3 forms show the widest divergence from the normal．By making the original first radical a 4 th form（diphthong）they become，in effect，III－1 verbs，and conjugate as such．

3．In such verbs the passive prefix + is retained throughout the conjugation，as it is in the＂Unchanged


4．This has now become，in effect，a D．C．form，but without affecting the meaning．
5．The meanings given with the following examples are ones which illustrate the particular tendency under consideration and are，on the whole，common．Changed Stem verbs，however，frequently have se－ veral possible meanings．
 each other (I. C. 2 Int.C.S.)
 ( $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{o}}, \mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{c}} 2 \operatorname{Int} \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{s}}$ )。

An Int. Cos. form may act as the Reciprocal of a Causative form: e. g. hith, find (D.C. II-2-A);


Or a 2 Int. $C_{0} S_{.}$form may act as the reciprocal of a 1 Int, $C_{e} S_{s}$ form:
milt, pass a while (IV); thcît, say good-bye to (P. 1 Int. C. S.); thbnĭt, say good-bye to each other (P. 2 Int. $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{S}_{0}$ ).
2) Int. C.S. forms also tend to give figurative sense:


3) I. C. Int. $C_{0} S_{0}$ forms sometimes, also, give the sense of "help to. . .", "incite to. . .","join in. .": e.g. 7niln , turn over (IV); Kiniln , help to turn over (I.C.1.Int. C.S.).

4) P. ${ }^{1}$ Int. C. S. forms sometimes indicate nature, habit (the tendency to the action rather than a single act): e, g, wino finhö : The dog will bite (from Basic sfin I-A); but or

5) 2 Int. C.S. forms commonly indicate slightness. This sometimes results in a distributive sense-the idea of a little here and there, or a little for each. It may also result in a sense of gradualness.
e.g. Län , become wet (I-A); दोп̈n , become a little damp( 2 Int.C.S.).
$\langle\dot{h}$, forget (II-1-A); $4 i \grave{i}$, forget slightly ( 2 Int. C. S. ).




6) 2 Int. $C_{0} S_{\circ}$ forms may also indicate intensity; and thence, sometimes, reiterated action.

7Nifin , turn over (IV); 7NAfin , completely upset, turn over and over (2 Int. C.S.).

coño , return (trans.; I-B); tanin , go back (P. I-B); 中ooñ̈n , go back and forth (P. 2. Int. C. S.).
7) Ext. C. S. forms (both with and without an Int. C.S.) are often onomatopoeic (i.e. the meaning of the word is suggested by the sound), and are thus used especially to indicate movements and noises. In such cases they are probably forms which came into being for the sake of their imitative sounds, without actually being derived from Basic verbs; and even where corresponding Basic verbs exist there may be no sense relationship with them, but only one of form.




1 Int. C. S. II-1).



K'inhin , cluck (D. C. Ext. 1 Int. C. S. I-1).
+3 oran , whisper (P. Ext. 1 Int. C.S. IV).

1. See Sec. 105 (6) under Slightly Irregular Verbs.

98．A class of verbs which might be designated pseudo 1 Int．C．S．forms are the Indirect Causatives of Pas－ sives of Group I verbs whose first radical is h or 0 ：e．g．hntü中，make known（from häp，know； I－A）．hn欮h ，cause to vomit（from hüh ，disturb；I－B）．These，having a 4th form before the penul－ timate radical，resemble 1 Int．C．S．forms，and are conjugated as such．${ }^{1}$

99．The Conjugation of Changed Stem Forms．
In spite of the great diversity of Changed Stem forms，they are all governed by two simple rules for their conjugation：－－
Rule 1．These verbs conjugate as Group IV（active and passive）in so far as they can．They therefore be－ long to Type C，irrespective of the Type of their Basic form．
Rule 2．The new element 2 introduced in the changing of the stem remains，without further change of form， throughout the conjugation．

These rules jointly have the effect that in Int．C．S．verbs（but not Ext．C．S．）all radicals before the pen－ ultimate radical are constant in form throughout the conjugation．
100.

The following tables，containing a selection of Changed Stem verbs in their Principal Parts，illustrate the working out of the principles embodied in the above rules．If these simple principles are grasped there is no need to think of the very wide range of C．S．forms as so many new conjugations．They are all in the same class．

Active（i．e．Simple，D．C．and I．C．）Changed Stem Forms

| Principal Parts | 1 Int ．C．S．I | 1 Int．C．S．II－1 | 1 Int．C．S．II－2 | 1 Int．C．S．IV | I．C． 1 Int．C．S． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | bless | become loose | tell q lie | mix |  |
|  | nefin |  |  |  |  |
| Contingent | nench | $\begin{aligned} & \ln \hat{1} \\ & \text { AAq } \end{aligned}$ | ¢中 |  |  |
| Gerund Jussive | nch | AAf | ¢п¢ | Rna¢ |  |
| Infinitive | onfich | 00117 | 中面7 | oarnnt |  |
| Agent | n＜th． | 48．（ 18. |  | 8.814 |  |


| Principal Parts | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { D. C. } 1 \text { Int.C.S. } \\ \mathrm{I}-1 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { I. C. } 1 \text { Int. } \\ & \text { C.S. IV } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { I. C. } 1 \text { Int. } \\ & \text { C. } S . \mathrm{V}-1 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 2 Int．C．S．I | $\underset{\mathrm{H}-2}{\substack{\text { 2. Int. } \\ \hline}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | become clear | dismiss | prepare | shatter | completely destroy |
| Simple Perfect | Kn\％ | häfiit | kî\％ | mainl | $6.8{ }^{\text {P }}$ |
| Contingent | ¢п⿺． | Pfigit | STich | dinhic | CGrip |
| Gerund | hncer | Kत̆¢ | hĭcer | harlic | $4{ }^{\text {Fig }}$ |
| Jussive | Pne | Px̧tht | STis | endic | C6． $\mathrm{F}_{1} \mathrm{E}$ |
| Infinitive | 9716.7 |  | －70\％997 | oonimic | Tospr |
| Agent | Nnc |  |  |  | 6．8\％（ 6.6 ） |

1．There is another small class of verbs which，somewhat similarly，can be regarded as pseudo Ext． C．S．forms．These are P．，I．C．，P．forms；they are built up as follows：
＋aqi learn（P．III－1）
Kntayc teach（I．C．，P．III－1）
titme be taught（P．，I．C．，P．III－1）－used in much the same way as tafc，but not very common．
thith be even，straight（P．2，Int．C．S．form of ntinn，be equal；I－B）．
hnthtiin make even，straighten（I．C．，P． 2 Int．C．S．I－B）
tiththin be made even，straightened（P．，I．C．，P．Int．C．S．I－B）．
Notice that the additional passive prefix causes the disappearance of $h$ from the I．C．prefix．The re－ maining ot then has the appearance of the added 6th form of an Ext．C．S．The formation is，in fact，the same as that of a rare Ext．C．S．form in which the added 6th form is placed before a passive prefix：e．g． tht 4 ，pillow oneself（P．Ext．C．S．，P．III－1）．

2．This means the 4th form ante－penultimate in internally changed stems，and the initial 6 th form in externally changed stems．


Notes on the above Principal Parts:--
Notice how, in accordance with Rule 1, each radical takes the form of the corresponding radical of a Group IV verb (i.e. first radical follows Group IV first radical; penultimate radical follows Group IV penultimate radical, etc.), except where, under Rule 2, it cannot change its form. 2 Int.C. S. IV verbs present a complication here, since they have one more radical than a Basic IV verb. To conjugate them correctly the positions of the radicals must be reckoned not from the first radical but from the penuitimate radical. ${ }^{2}$ Thus the second radical will not correspond to the Basic IV second radical, but, being two places back from the penultimate radical, to the Basic IN first radical. The first radical, then, having nothing else to follow, will also follow the Basic IV first radical. This means that the first two radicals, both following the Basic IV first radical, are both 1st form throughout. The ante-penultimate radical, being the added one, is (under Rule 2) constant at any rate, so that in these 2 Int.C.S. IV verbs, as in all Int. C.S. verbs, no radical before the penultimate radical can change its form.

Naturally 1 Int.C.S. II verbs, with the "changed" radical constant (under Rule 2), and the final vowel standing as usual for the lost radical, can follow Group IV in practically nothing except in becoming Type C.

Group III verbs are, once again, handicapped; having nopenultimate radical, they cannot become TypeC. The added initial letter of the 2 Int.C.S. is constant in form (under Rule 2), but the vowel of the second syllable (i, e. the Basic stem) reflects, as usual, the forms of the first two radicals as they would have been had the penultimate radical not been lost; and we find that it so works out that this vowel in a simple C.S. form is the same as in the Basic form, in a C.S. Causative the same as in the ordinary Causative, and in a C.S. Passive the same as in the ordinary Passive. The curious 2 Int. III-3 form, as already mentioned, by changing its original vowel to an a becomes, in effect, a 2 Int. III-1 verb, and conjugates as such.

Notice that the addition of a causative prefix to a Changed Stem form does not effect its conjugation; which, indeed, is always the case with Type C verbs. ${ }^{3}$

1. Normally pronounced, and likely also to be written, hnçか ; see Sec. 115 under Union of Libs Consonants in Verbs (especially footnote on verbs of Groups IV and $V$ ).
2. See Sec. 70 (footnote) on position of radicals in relation to penultimate radical.
3. See Sec. 82, under Causative Forms.


Notes on the above Principal Parts:-
It is, of course, the Passive Group IV conjugation that must be followed (under Rule 1) by Passive C. S. verbs.

Passive Ext. C. S. verbs are the only Passive forms whose first radical does not have to double in those parts where the prefix + is assimilated. The added 6 th form and the first radical, without any vowel between them, together have the value of a doubled radical, so there is no need for further doubling.

1. Or $\uparrow 7 \pi / h \mathrm{~h}$. See Sec. 16 on Interchangeable Sounds.
2. Notice that although there is no 1st form diphthong of $\boldsymbol{T}$, yet (as explained in Sec. 31, on the forms of the radicals) the 7 th form 7 is its equivalent; and this is demonstrated by the fact that the 7 th form penultimate radical becomes a 4th form diphthong in the Agent.

## Irregular Verbs

101．There are very few irregular verbs in Amharic，for nearly every verb in the language fits into the scheme of Basic Groups and Derived Forms already outlined．Even the few verbs which manifest some ir－ regularity have（with the sole exception of ho．）obvious affinities with one or other of the Basic Groups or Derived Forms．

## Common Defective Verbs．

102．1） 30.
This is not a true verb form at all，and hence it is the only verb which cannot be classed in a Group． It consists in the syllable $;$ the Object Suffixes． 1

| 源 | I am |
| :---: | :---: |
| 31 | you（m）are |
| 5 | you（f）are |
| \％P\％ 2 | you（pol）are |
| 10． | he，it is 3 |
| 974 | she is |
| 375 | we are |
| cive | you（pl）are |
| c；ior | they are；he，she（pol）is |

The one tense which this verb possesses is a regular Group I Simple Perfect．It acts as the Past Tense both of $5 \mathbf{m}$（above）and of $k X$（below）． 7

| 3 Ọç | nïch $)^{81}$ was，was present |
| :---: | :---: |
| silct（ | ifich ）you（m）were，were present |
| sict | you（f）were，were present |
| sĭ＜${ }^{9}$ | he，it，was，was present；there was |
| 3 OlC | she was，was present；there was |
| tîc（ | sincs ）we were，were present |
|  | you（pl）were，were present |
| 3 ll | they 10 were，were present； |

1．Since these are objective pronouns（me，you，him，etc．），\％may originally have had some inter－ jectory meaning，like＂Behold＂．Thus，for instance，A is a boy＂．

2．The 2nd singular（pol）object suffix is alternatively $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ or $\boldsymbol{\rho +}$ ．
3．For the English＂It is I＂，etc．，Amharic requires agreement between the verb＂to be＂and the pre－ dicative pronoun：
e．g．It is I．
効 3 （lit．I am Io）。
Is it you（m）？$\lambda 3+3 v$ ？（lit．Are you you？）．


4．Alternative form， 3 年，is often used colloquially $=$－the result of confusion with the personal suf－ fix of the Simple Perfect．

5．Or 513 ，an alternative form of the object suffix being 3 ．
6．In its historical derivation this is the same verb as 94 ，live（III－3）．
7．Unlike the Simple Perfect Tense of other verbs，sïl always has a Past Tense meaning（except when used conditionally：＂It would be＂etc．，see Sec．285．B 1 a，footnote）．

8．See notes on the personal suffixes of the Simple Perfect Tense；Sec． 35.
9．The 3rd masculine singular form ill is often shortened to sifc，both when used as an auxiliary verb and otherwise．

10．As with all true verb forms the 3rd plural is also used for the polite＂you＂，＂he＂and＂she＂；see Sec． 210 on Polite Forms．

## 3) $k \ddot{i}$

The one tense which this verb possesses is a regular Group II-2 Simple Perfect form, which, however, has a Present Tense meaning.


> I am present you (m) are present you (f) are present he, it is present; there is she is present; there is we are present you (pl) are present they are present; there are
4) P й $\mathfrak{P}^{0}$

This is the negative of $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{X}$ (above).


I am not present you (m) are not present you (f) are not present he, it is not present; there is not she is not present; there is not we are not present you (pl) are not present they are not present; there are not
5) $\hbar \in R$ त̈ ${ }^{-1}$

This serves as the negative of 100 (above), unlike which, however, it is a true verb form.

| herturgo | 1 am not |
| :---: | :---: |
| heräug | you (m) are not |
| \%er*it\% | you (f) are not |
| \%esiñ | he, it, is not |
|  | she is not |
|  | we are not |
|  | you (pl) are not |
|  | they are not |


(a) They are all defective in possessing only one tense, which is a Group II-2 Simple Perfect form.
(b) They are all irregular in that their Simple Perfect form has a Present Tense meaning.


(d) pog is still further irregular in that, when it is a dependent verb, its stem changes from pô to nï (e.g. an nity, because she is not present; phino , he who is not present). ${ }^{2}$
103. The above defective verbs are used to render various parts of the following English verbs:--

1) The verb "to be"

This is made up as follows:--

Past Tense: yllu
All other parts are supplied by $\boldsymbol{V}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\prime}$, become (III-3)。 3

1. Sometimes herägs.
2. The disappearance of the negative suffix $g^{\circ}$ is regular, as this is at any rate not used with dependent verbs (see Sec. 117, Rule 1).
3. Since $\mathbf{3 0}$ is neither a Contingent nor a Simple Perfect Form, it cannot take a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun, and is therefore only used as a main verb, u's then has to substitute for it as a dependent verb:
e.g. The some it is good; but ry nitut because it is good.
n't ine yo. y he is a bad man; but
n4. now purbo he who is a bad man. The negative of $\dot{P}^{\prime}$, is even preferred to $k \boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ as a dependent verb, although the latter, being a Simple Perfect form, can be used as such. Thus, for "because it is not good", Tf MMAUP' is more likely than pte ingrif. But both are correct.
2) The verb "to be present", "there is"

This is made up as follows:--
Present Tense: hī (negative: pӥq")
Past Tense: ific ${ }^{1}$
All other parts are supplied by ci\&, live (III-3).
3) The verb "to have"

There is no true verb "to have" in Amharic, but the thought can be expressed in various ways, as suited to the context. The most general method is to use the 3rd persons of the verb "to be present" ( $k$ ï etc.; see above) with the object suffixes:

| e.g. |  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  |
| :---: | :---: |

I have a son (lit. A son is present to me).
You (m) have a daughter (iit, a daughter is present to you). 2
We have children (lit. Children are present to us).
The woman has no child (lit, The woman, a child is not present to her).
The man had children (lit. The man, children were present to him).
You (f) will have children (lit. You (f) children will be present to youke 4
Very Irregular Verbs.
104. These are:--

1) $k n \cdot s a y 5$

This is an irregular Group III-1 verb. Its Passive is MMn, a regular P. III-1 verb; which shows that Kn is really a mutilated form of na. Not only has it lost the initial consonant brom a number of its parts, but it also displays other irregularities in its Jussive and Infinitive, the latter, arnt, having the Group II-2 formation (like, for instance olp7, the Infinitive of $\overline{\mathrm{h} P}$, see; I-1-A). It is essentially a Group III verb, however, with a stem ending with a consonant. 6 Its principal parts may be compared with those of in (Sec. 68).
 loquial Amharic a compound tense, prig sific , is often used.
2. Sometimes in colloquial Amharic the masculine form of $h n_{\text {, }}$ is used with a feminine noun: $e_{.} g$.

3. This is an "Introductory Nominative", i.e. a noun or pronoun used in the nominative case because it is the logical, though not the grammatical, subject of the sentence.
4. Some other ways of translating "have" (as suited to various contexts) are as follows:--

With $h-3 \mathrm{C}$ (with) and verb "to be":

With nn (possessor of) and verb "to be":
no-pan in cnt zam: The man has (lit. is possessor of) an inheritance,
With IH (take hold of: III-1):
73Hn KAf'th-s゚ a I have no money with me (lit. I have not taken hold of money).
With $k \ddot{\ddot{n}}$ (lack: II-1-A)

With $\mathrm{K7} 7 \%$ (get: D.C. II-2-A):

With ki + infixed n . (to the disadvantage of):

5. Apart from its normal meaning, "say", hin , has a wide range of uses:-
(a) With names etc. it renders "call"; especially in the passive ("be called"):

(b) It is the verbal form used in making compound verbs (see Secs. 106-114 on Compounds of ha).
(c) It is the essential element in the Direct Speech construction (see Secs. 279-282, under Reported Speech).
(d) It is used with N3号v or N3ginu ('like this") to describe an action:
e. g. $\lambda \boldsymbol{i r} \boldsymbol{y}$, ena a It goes like this (said while demonstrating the action).
(e) Its Imperative has an interjectory use: "Come on!", "Go on!" (See Sec. 269 (19) under Interjections).
6. In contrast to that of $k$ ĭ ; e.g. KAur or hAir, I said; hîu I am present.

Principal Parts
Simple Perfect
Contingent
Gerund
Jussive
Infinitive
Agent

Irreg．III－1
あ
en
－1｜r
ena
Gint
ne（regular）

2）tow leave
This is an irregular $\mathrm{II}-2$ verb．Its Principal Parts may be compared with those of the regular $\pi \mathrm{m}$ ， sell（Sec．68）．

| Principal Parts | Irreg．III－2 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | ＋m | （regular） |
| Contingent | ctas－ | （2nd f． $7+\mathrm{f}^{\text {e }}$ ） |
| Gerund | 7－4 |  |
| Jussive | ¢＋0\％ | （2nd f． $7+$＋e $)$ |
| Infinitive | $00+00$ | （regular） |
| Agent | ＋ | （or＋ef） |

3） 7 want，seek
This is the only one－letter verb in the language．It has the formation and conjugation of a II－1－A verb less the 1 st radical（and hence also the doubling of the penultimate radicai）．It is synonymous with cill ， （I－B），the latter being used，rather，in modern speech．

| Principal Parts | II－1－A less first rad． |
| :---: | :---: |
| Simple Perfect | 7 |
| Contingent | er |
| Gerund | Ter |
| Jussive | 87 |
| Infinitive | $\cdots 7$ |
| Agent | － |

A＂euphonistic＂$\lambda$ is sometimes added before the consonant，sh，in the Simple Perfect and the Im． perative，but this has no grammatical significance．

## Slightly Irregular Verbs．

105．A few verbs，which are substantially regular，are found to display some slight irregularity，or to pose sess perhaps one irregular part．The following list，while not exhaustive，includes the most important：－

1）anö come（II－1－A），has irregular Imperative（but not Jussive）：if（m），；e（f），；（pl）．
2）第 flee（II－2－A），has irregular Infinitive：onti（like III－2），

4）$\lambda^{\text {aq4 }}$ be pleasing，beautiful（D．C．II－1），is confused with an unused Basic I－A form，hew ，whose
 beautiful．
5）KTi申n tilt upwards（D．C． 1 Int．C．S．I），follows Type B instead of Type $C$（as other Changed Stem verbs），doubling its penultimate radical throughout．



Cases of irregular Agents and instruments are mentioned in Sec． 51 ，footnotes．

## Compounds of $k \boldsymbol{n}$

（＂Kh Verbs＂）
106．Many compound verbs are constructed by placing some word before the verb $\lambda A$（hence＂$\lambda \wedge$ Verbs＂）．
Since Kn means＂say＂it is probably that the original verbs of this kind were simply expressions des－ cribing real or imaginary speech，such as are still very common，
 nisa nitar XFI，$\lambda \Lambda=2$ When I pushed it hard it said，＂I won＇t！＂（i．e．It refused）．

Thus we have a verb $\mathrm{hg}^{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{A}$ ，$\lambda \boldsymbol{n}$ ，refuse<br>navsa．go hh kna And when I hit it it said＂Kwakwa＂（i．e．It rattled）．<br>Thus we have a verb ${ }^{3}$ Kn ，rattle，clatter，knock．

This last is an example of a verb which describes an action by imitating its sound－－the most direct form of

 has some sense of＂saying＂．

But today the majority of＂$\lambda \boldsymbol{A}$ Verbs ${ }^{H}$ do not imitate speech or sound，the verb $\mathrm{k} \boldsymbol{n}$ being used in them simply as the operative word（i．e．with its persons，tenses etc．to supply a means of conjugating），but with－
 high（from $n \underset{Y}{i} \lambda \boldsymbol{A}$ ，be high）．This does not mean，however，that onomatopoeism is no longer present， for even in cases where the＂ $\mathrm{A} A$ Verb＂does not imitate a sound，its own sound is ofter，nevertheiess ex－

 up with onomatopoeism，and thereby furnishes the Ethiopian with a favorite and extremely vivid means of expression．

107．Some of the words compounded with Kn have，in the first place an independent use of their own，their special use with $\mathrm{x} \boldsymbol{n}$ being purely secondary：

sh All right！，which gives us 解 hat agree．
 ＊n quickly，which gives us for $k n$ ，found chiefly in Imperative：fin na be quicit


108．But most words compounded with 6 are forms which properly belong to the＂s therb＂and have no independent use． 4 Such forms most commonly end witha consonant，which is doubled and in pronunciation links up with the first letter of hn（a device which greaty increases the expressiveness of the phrase；for the more the doubling is emphasized the more forcefully is the sense expressed）；e．g．चty hat（she stayed quiet，said nothing）is pronounced＂zim－maläch＂．But this doubling is less prominent，or even omit－


1．This combination，a negative 1 st person Simple Imperfect followed by the verb hn actually forms a special class of kn verb indicating refusal：


These frequently drop the negative suffix $g^{\circ}$

A curious feature，which sometimes appears when the negative $\boldsymbol{g}^{\circ}$ is thus omitted，is that the object． suffix attached to the negative verb is not in the person appropriate to the point of view of the subject of that yerb but of the subject of $k \boldsymbol{h}$ ．


But when the negative $g r$ is not dropped the object suffix will be in the logical person：


2．For $\lambda 9^{\circ}$ ． ．see Sec． 269 on the Interjections．
被stes salty（lit．It says＂Salt salt＂）。

4．Excepts sometimes，an interjectory use，when the Imperative of $k \boldsymbol{t}$ can still be understood：气．g．than（Go slow！）can be reduceat to th！（Slow！）

109．The word preceding $\lambda \hat{n}$ is sometimes reduplicated，the purpose being to indicate repetition，continuity or progression．



The same device may also be employed to indicate reciprocity：
e．g．m．${ }^{3} \boldsymbol{h}$ ，go close up；m，m hn ，go close together．${ }^{1}$
110．There are two main divisions of＂$k \boldsymbol{N}$ Verbs＂，which can be designated（1）Primitives，and（2）Deriva－ tives：
1）Primitives．
These are themselves original verbs and not just forms based on other verbs． 2 The following are ty－ pical examples：－－

| 中啇 h | go slow，be careful，quiet |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | be silent，say nothing |
|  | be，become high |
| H\％ HA | be，become low |
| AR可 Kn | come up，rise |
|  | start getting light |
|  | appear，＂turn up＂ |

中管 hn sit down
Hक्\％$k \boldsymbol{n}$ be silent，say nothing
7\％hit be，become calm
hitin be，become high

FÄ（年ベ）Kn not care about，neglect
AR－五 th come up，rise
si $k$ in be pleased（impersonal）${ }^{3}$
$\$ C_{E}^{T}$ h $h$ be displeased（impersonal）${ }^{3}$
榾Kn occur to，remember（impersonal）${ }^{4}$
2）Derivatives．
In these the words compounded with hn are derived from ordinary verbs．There are two standard pat－ terns on which they are fairly regularly formed：－－
a）The＂Weak＂Form；in which the 1st and penultimate radicals are both 1 st forms，except as affected by contraction in the basic verb．This is used to introduce an element of＂slightness＂into the sense of the original verb． 5 The following are typical examples：

| 中く云相 | approach a little， | from | 中て̈n | approach（I－A）． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pass on a little， | from | Kik | pass（I－A）． |
|  | become，be dark | from | m中2 | become，be black（I－A）． |
|  | change a little（intrans．）， | from | ＋तั̈m | 6change（intrans．；I－B）． |
| $3 \boldsymbol{\pi} \times$ | become，be light（in colour）， | from | $4{ }^{4}$ | become，be white（II－1－A）． |
| amith | become a little late（evening）， | from | $\cdots$ | become late（evening）（II－2－A）． |
| い\＄hn | smile，laugh slightly， | from | 叫中 | laugh（III－1）． |
|  | go a short way， | from | 88 | go（III－2）． |
|  | become，be rather warm， | from | P ${ }^{\text {P }}$ | become hot（III－3）． |
| 7－3nti kn | stoop a little， | from | ¢7－ | stoop（D．C．IV）． |
| nctann | get a little stronger， | from | 㶡馬 | get strong（V－1）． |
|  | get slightly bored，weary of， | from | ถイ\％ | get bored，weary of（V－2）． |

b）The＂Strong＂Form，in which the 1st and penultimate radicals are both 6th forms．In Group I and II stems the penultimate radical is generally，but not invariably，doubled．This form is used to introduce

1．The verb from which $m^{3}$ hn is derived is tm？go right up against，take shelter（P．II－1－B），the reciprocal form of which，tmp；means the same，only stronger，as mom kn（see Sec． 97 （i）on Reciprocal Verbs）．

2．This does not mean that they are never related to other verbs；but，where they are，it is probably the ordinary verb which is derived from the＂hil Verb＂rather than the reverse：e．g．ah kn（rattle，
 gives us the P．Ext． 1 Int．C．S．IV verb t3m＠nin（same meaning）．

3．See Sec． 146 under Impersonal Verbs．
4．See Sec． 142 under Impersonal Verbs．
5．With which，however，in colloquial Amharic it is often practically synonymous．
6．The Passive form is given as the parent verb in cases where the＂ $\mathrm{h} \boldsymbol{i}$ Verb＂corresponds in the meaning to the Passive rather than to the Basic form．
an element of intensity into the sense of the original verb． 1 The following are typical examples：－－

| TC̈\％\％ | be amazing， |
| :---: | :---: |
| －fTh h | snap（intrans．）， |
| $n^{3} 3 \mathrm{hn}$ | start up violently（from sleep）， |
| qut kn | boil quickly（intrans．）， |
|  | completely stop coming， |
| －1hnif kn | become completely rotten，soaked， |
|  | burst suddenly， |
|  | get very bored，weary of， |



111．In the above examples（both＂Weak＂and＂Strong＂Forms）the sense of the original verb is modified in a regular and predictable manner．But there are some Derivative＂kn Verbs＂whose sense modification is not so regular and predictable：
 gular），but also for＂turn round＂，＂face about＂．

HE KA ，from HC，turn（intrans．；II－3），is not only used for＂turn a little＂（regular），but also for ＂make way＂，＂get out of the way＂．

納安 KA ，from kïh，pass（I－A），though a＂Strong＂Form，is used for move along a little，move over． 4

In extreme cases of divergence from the original sense the＂KA Verb＂may as well be regarded as Primitive：
e．g．n＋q̈ Kn，suddenly appear
خÄ́九 Kn ，vanish，
from（？）nT\＆
from（？）$x$ ion ，dream（I－B）．

112．Sometimes the sense of slightness or intensity is further increased by the reduplication of the last two radicals，on the pattern of a Frequentative Verb． 56 e．g．๓ion，get dark（I－B），makes the following＂hn Verbs＂：－－
＂Weak＂Form
＂Strong＂Form

6ung ha get rather dark

qüğ $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{n} \quad$ get very dark

＋R11A中，become mixed（P． 1 Int．IV），makes the following＂ha Verbs＂：－－

＂Weak＂Form

snnit $k n$ become rather mixed
Rnithía kn become just a little mixed
R－nが事 $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{n}$ become very mixed
＂Strong＂Form


1．In introducing an element of slightness or intensity into the meaning，these Derivative＂Kn Verbs＂ are very similar to the 2 Int．C．S．derived forms（see Sec．97．5，6）．．But while the 2 Int．C．S．verb is li－ able to give either sense，the＂Kn Verb＂，with its two distinct forms，is more explicit．

2．See footnote 6 ，page 57.
3．This of course，is only one of the possible meanings of +4 ；see Sec． 335 （a）．
4．$=4 \boldsymbol{4} \boldsymbol{\$} \mathrm{hn}$
5．For Frequentative Verbs see sec． 93 （3）footnote．
6．This reduplication of the last two radicals may also indicate repetition or reiteration，in the same way as the reduplication of the word itself（see Sec． 109 above）．


$$
\pi \ddot{\partial} \ddot{B} \text { hn flash; }
$$


$n \hat{x} \ddot{F} n \ddot{A}{ }^{2}$
hn keep flashing

## Causatives of " $\mathbf{k n}$ Verbs"

113. "Kn Verbs" are rendered Direct Causative by the substitution of heZ̈1 , do (D.C. I-A), for Kn . They are made Indirect Causative by the substitution of $\boldsymbol{K X \frac { \pi } { 7 }}$, nominate (i.e. cause to be called or "said"; I. C. II-2-B) for $h \boldsymbol{h}$.


KÄ

Nouns formed from " Kn Verb" Stems.
114. As previously mentioned, the words compounded with $\lambda \boldsymbol{A}$ generally have no independent use; but nouns are formed from many of them by the addition of the suffix $\boldsymbol{*}$; for which see Sec. 166, under Nouns,

## The Union of Like Consonants in Verbs.

115. The principle of the union of like consonants when adjacent plays an important part in the conjugations of some verbs. 1 These are verbs which have their penultimate and last radicals alike (e.g. näl , fly). All that is required for the union of such radicals is that both be single (which rules out Type B verbs), and that there should be no vowel between them--the first of the two, then, must be in the 6 th form. 2 .

Parts of a I-A verb in which these conditions are fulfilled are:
The Contingent: Rnca $\longrightarrow \boldsymbol{e n c}$
The Gerund: ncr: (but 1st singular is ncí )



In a 1 Int.C.S. I verb (e.g. Afin , touch with hand, stroke) the conditions are fulfilled in:--
The Gerund: $\quad$ pinh $\longrightarrow$ Rif
The Jussive: $\quad$ ginn $\longrightarrow$ in
In D.C. I-A verbs (e.g. Ksiln, read) the conditions are fulfilled in the Contingent at any rate; but in the Gerund and Jussive, since two 6th form radicals stand together and they cannot both be vowelless, the fulfilment of the conditions depends on whether one elects to give a vowel to the first or the second 6th form (either way being permissible):-The Contingent: Piflil $\longrightarrow$ Pritit But the Gerund can be either $\lambda$ rap (pronounced anbibo) or $\lambda 30$; and the Jussive can be elther $\quad$ f7nn (pronounced yanbib) or 97 符, 4

1. This principle, that two adjacent single consonants of the same kind unite to form one double con: sonant, is dealt with in Sec. 10, under the Doubling of Consonants.
2. Although such union is practically invariable in speech, the two radicals are still sometimes written separately.
3. In spoken (but not written) Amharic such union also commonly takes place in the Gerund of Group II verbs whose penultimate radical is $m$ or $f$; but this is really a case of the assimilation of the preceding by a following consonant, for which see Sec. 14.
e.g. The Gerund of arom (come) is aup $\uparrow$, but is commonly pronounced mät-to.

The Gerund of $\mathrm{h} \ddot{\mathrm{I}}$ (give) is $\boldsymbol{A} T \uparrow$, but is commonly pronounced sät-to.
The Gerund of 3 (drive) is $\$ 8 .+$, but is commonly pronounced nát-to.
But when, as in the last case, the combination is dt, it is sometimes pronounced as rt instead of as a double tt : e.g. se:4 may be pronounced närto.
4. The same might be expected to apply to the Gerund and Jussive of Group IV verbs whose last two radicals are alike (e.g. monifth, twist), and to the Gerund of Group V verbs whose penultimate radical is + (e.g.ncir, become strong). But in these cases the 6 th form vowel, $i$, is regularly pronounced between the two like consonants, and so prevents their union: e.g. the Gerunds aifon and nciof are pronounced respectively tảmzízo and bärtĩto .

In Int.C.S. derived forms of these Groups, however, the union of the consonants is liable to take place

116. When the two uniting radicals are absorbent the absorption of the 2 nd feminine suffix $i$, results in the saturation of both of them together, except sometimes in the gase of $A$


## The Formation of Negatives

117. 

Rule 1. A verb is made negative by the prefixing of $\hbar A$ (or, for the Infinitive, $\lambda \boldsymbol{n}$ ). The suffix 91 is also normally added, provided that the verb is both a main verb and in the Indicative Mood. 2
Rule 2. When the negative prefix kA comes in contact with the personal prefixes of the Contingent or Jussive, contraction takes place, as follows:--

|  | - |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  | $=$ hebin |
|  |  |

(These four examples cover all the personal prefixes.)
Rule 3. The Gerund, the auxiliary verb $\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}$, the Imperative Tense, the Agent 3 and the Instrument have no place in the negative conjugation, 4 The parts of the verb, therefore which can be made negative by the application of Rules 1 and 2 are:-- 5
(a) The Simple Perfect
 I did not break (Simple Perfect). I have not broken (acting for Present Perfect).
شAiñco-go nilc: 6 had not broken (Past Perfect).
(b) The Simple Imperfect (Contingent)
e.g.

> henavogo henavog zïc a:
(c) The Jussive

| e.g. | KAYP: |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  | \%e.9r |

Let me not go. Shall I not go?
Do not come (m).
Let us not stand. Shall we not stand?
Let them not come in. Shall they not come in?
not to drink, not drinking.

1. Or ${ }^{\text {tot }}$
2. i. e. Dependent verbs do not take the negative suffix $p$, nor main verbs in the Imperative Mood.
3. Exception: hn甲中 a non-knower, i.e. an ignorant person.
4. In some northern dialects a negative Gerund is found. But the student can ignore this.
5. For the Indicative tenses, when negative, refer also to the Limited Tense Scheme chart (Sec. 25).
6. As the Gerund is ruled out of the negative conjugation its place is taken in negative compound formations by the Simple Perfect (which is the only other Perfect element that the verb possosses).
7. Since there is no negative of the Imperative Tense, the Jussive is used for the 2nd persons.
8. Only Substantival Infinitives which clearly have the character of nouns are made negative (see Sec. 126 under Uses of the Infinitive):
e.g. \$l anconnt hive: By my not eating butter I became thin.

The following further examples（Simple Perfect，Simple Imperfect and Jussive）will serve to illustrate more fully the application of the above rules：－－ 1

Negative Simple Perfect．

|  | or |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | or |  |
| そАๆАT\％ |  |  |
| その1990 |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| \％AT中同 $39^{\circ}$ | or |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

I did not finish，have not finished
you（ m ）did not wipe，have not wiped you（f）did not throw away，have not thrown away he did not see，has not seen she did not get lost，has not gotten lost we did not receive，have not received you（pl）did not do，have not done they did not get bored，have not gotten bored

Negative Simple Imperfect．


Negative Jussive．

| KA¢\％ | let me not hold；shall I not hold？ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | do not sit down（m） |
| \％ 7 ma | do not wash（f） |
|  | let him not become，be；shall he not become，be？ |
| K，${ }^{\text {ch }}$ | let her not pick up；shall she not pick up？ |
| K＞ancas | let us not examine；shall we not examine？ |
| K， 7 n X 4 | do not let pass（pl） |
|  | let them not seek；shall they not seek？ |

I do not，shall not know；am not knowing you（ m ）do not，will not find；are not finding you（f）do not，will not go；are not going it is not，will not be necessary she does not，will not forget；is not forgetting we do not，shall not live；are not living you（pl）do not，will not give；are not giving they do not，will not，get broken；are not being broken
let me not hold；shall I not hold？
do not sit down（m）
do not wash（f）
let him not become，be；shall he not become，be？
let her not pick up；shall she not pick up？
let us not examine；shall we not examine？
let them not seek；shall they not seek？
118．The negative suffix $g^{\circ}$ is sometimes transferred to the preceding word，the negation being thereby shown to apply specifically to this word：e．g．norçg kfo．中？Doesn＇t he know Amharic？Similarly if $\boldsymbol{q}^{\prime \prime}$ ，used as an Indefinite suffix， 2 or as a conjunction meaning＂and＂，＂even＂etc．， 3 ＂is attached to one of the words preceding the negative verb，the negative suffix $g^{\circ}$ is sometimes dropped（as though the other $\boldsymbol{g}$ were acting for it）：

## e．g． <br> คキプ hater：I am not going anywhere <br> 

Special Negative Construction．
119．There is another negative construction（quite distinct from the regular negative conjugation outlined a－ bove）which is used for asking negative questions which expect an affirmative answer：－－ 4

The participle（Gerund or Contingent）is followed by the auxiliary verb in the negative（written as a se－ parate word，and generally impersonal，$i_{0} e_{0}$ in the $3 r d$ masculine singular for all persons）：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e.g. } \quad \text { mänu pïgr ? You (m) have finished, haven't you? } \\
& \text { af少 KASİL9" ? She had gone out, hadn't she? }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { R.6.4 KASilk'? They were afraid, weren't they? }
\end{aligned}
$$

1．All these examples，like the former ones given under Rule 3，are assumed to be main verbs；the suffix $g$ is therefore added where the mood is Indicative（see Rule 1 above）．

2．See Sec．219，on Indefinite Pronouns．
3．See Sec． 260 （2），under Conjunctions．
4．As with the French＇n＇est－ce pas？＂，or the German＂nicht wahr？＂．

## Verbs of＂Becoming＂ <br> （＂Become Verbs＂）

120．A feature which has an important effect on the practical application of the Amharic tense scheme is that verbs which are used to describe a state 1 commonly do so by indicating，not the state itself，bur the initial entry into the state．Thus，while English would say＂He is sitting＂，i．e．＂He is in the state of sit－ ting＂，Amharic says＂He has sat down＂，i．e．＂He has entered into the state of sitting＂or＂He has become seated＂．The English verb，then，has the sense of＂being＂（＂He is sitting＂）but the Amharic verb has the sense of＂becoming＂（＂He has become seated＂）．The result is that where English，in describing state， would use an Imperfect tense or participle，Amharic uses the corresponding Perfect tense or participle： 2 e．g．＂He is sitting＂（Present Imperfect Tense）is rendered t中tn $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{A}$＂He has become seated＂（Present Perfect Tense）． 3
＂He was sitting＂（Past Imperfect Tense）is rendered t中宇a jïc＂He had become seated＂（Past Perfect Tense）．
 seated＂（Perfect Participle）．

On the occasions when Amharic，in describing state，uses an Imperfect tense，it means that the entry into that state（the＂becoming＂）is not yet completed，and，therefore，that the＂being＂in that state is still future：e．g．f．גamA（Present Imperfect Tense）renders＂He will sit＂（Future Tense）．

When，however，these＂Become Verbs＂are employed to describe action rather than state，their sense of＂becoming＂is lost and they use the tenses in the normal manner：


Uses of the Infinitive

121．The Infinitive is a verb－noun，as it partakes of the nature both of a verb and of a noun．In that it des－ cribes an action it is verbal，and in that it is the name of that action it is substantival（i．$e_{\text {a }}$ a noun）．Since it is verbal it can be the verb of a clause，but it can never be the main verb of a sentence． 4

English possesses two verb－nouns：the Infinitive（e．g．to eat）and the Verb－noun in＂ing＂（e．g．eating） 5 Both of these are translated by the Amharic Infinitive．

122．The preposition $n$ is very often prefixed to the Infinitive（corresponding closely to the＂to＂of the Eng－ list Infinitive）．This combination，i．e． 1 ＋Infinitive，is really an adverbial phrase of purpose（e．g．A＂ppt $\rightarrow \boldsymbol{H}_{\boldsymbol{H}}=$ He got up to see；lit．he got up for seeing）．But it is used so frequently without specific reference to purpose that it must be regarded as itself a form of Infinitive．We will call it then the＂Adverbial Infi－ nitive＂，as opposed to the plain Infinitive without $n$ ，which we will call the＂Substantival Infinitive＂．

There is some difference between these two forms of Infinitive in use．The Substantival Infinitive is naturally the one employed when the sense is more definitely substantival（ $1, e$ ．when the noun character is prominent），and in such cases it corresponds to the English Verb－noun in＂ing＂rather than to the English Infinitive．Conversely it will probably be the Adverbial Infinitive which is employed when the sense is more

1．This includes quality，size etc．See also on Adjectival Verbs（Sec．184）．
2．In terms of our Tense Scheme chart（Sec．24），one has to cross over from the right hand side to the corresponding space on the left hand side．

3．The Simple Perfect can be used as an alternative to the Present Perfect，and is in fact especially favoured by some＂Become Verbs＂；e．g． $\mathrm{n}^{\mathbf{p}}$ It is enough（lit．It became enough）；m\％＂It is lost（lit．It be－ came lost）．But the Present Perfect，as its name suggests，has more specific reference to present state， and is therefore generally preferable．

4．See Sec．274，under Compound Sentences．
5．The same form as the Present Participle，but with quite a different use．
definitely adverbial, i.e. when the function of the Infinitive is to qualify another verb; and in this the use of the Adverbial Infinitive is seen to be very close to that of the English Infintiive. There is, nevertheless, considerable overlapping, and the two forms are very often interchangeable. Their respective spheres of use may be summarized as follows:--
(a) To express purpose, the Adverbial Infinitive must be used:


(b) To complete the sense for another verb, either form can be used:



(c) In all other cases the Substantival Infinitive must be used:
 coctur hipu: - I saw your running.



123. As the above examples illustrate, the Infinitive, like an ordinary verb, can take an object or an attribute (but not an object suffix); while in its more substantival use it is also just like an ordinary noun in acting as the subject or object of another verb, prefixing prepositions, suffixing the definite article or the possessive suffixes, etc.
124. An Amharic Infinitive is often best rendered in English by an abstract noun of action, but unlike the latter it distinguishes between the active and the passive sense:
 tle.



The theft (lit. being stolen) of our cattle made us very sad.
By payment of (lit. paying) my debt you (m) saved me.

Its payment (lit. being paid) was my salvation (iit. being saved).
125. The Infinitive (more especially the Adverbial Infinitive) has an equivalent in a + Contingent. These two forms are largely interchangeable; but the latter must be employed whenever it is necessary to add an object suffix (even in the more substantival use), since the Infinitive itself cannot take one. As dependent verbs both of these forms generally have the same subject as the verb on which they depend. 1 With English Infinitives this is often not so, but in such cases Amharic prefers to use $878 .+$ Contingent. 2
126. Substantival Infinitives are made negative by the addition of the prefix $k n 3$

But Infinitives expressing purpose or completing the sense for another verb (whether Adverbial or Substantival) are not found in the negative. 4
127. The Infinitive as the subject of $\boldsymbol{3} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ - is used colloquially to indicate what has to be done:


anpluga. 9\% KARA: But the broom is worn out (lit. finished).


1. If the two subjects are not the same grammatically, then, at least, they are likely to be so logically; as, for instance, when the verb is impersonal (for which see Sec. 138).
2. The points mentioned in this paragraph are dealt with in Sec. 265 (4 and 5) on the conjunctions a and nis.
3. See also Sec. 117, Rule 3 (d) footnote, under the Formation of Negatives.
4. A + Contingent, also is very rarely used in the negative. But there are a number of other devices which can be employed instead:






5. $\quad 1 \Phi=3 \omega \cdot+$ suffix a, the latter meaning "Why then" etc. (see Sec. 269 (23) under Interjections).
6. For the use of the Infinitive to express Imminence see Sec. 298 (b), under the Idiom.
7. The Gerund is a Perfect Participle, corresponding most nearly to the English Past Participle, like which it can be used either in connection with an auxiliary verb to form a compound tense, ${ }^{1}$ or itself as the verb of a dependent clause. 2

In the latter use, it is most normally translated by an English Past Participle:

But since it denotes complete action rather than past time it is sometimes better rendered with an English Present Participle:

129. The type of dependent clause which has a Gerund as its verb is adverbial; and since a clause may well consist solely of the verb form, the Gerund is often a complete clause in itself, and therefore, in effect, an adverb:
 thne ali中: He fell wounded.

130. The Gerund and the verb on which it depends have the same subject (if not grammatically, at least logically, as illustrated by the second example below). 67


Provided, thus, that its subject is the same as that of the other verb, a Gerund may be used to render "after":

131. While English nearly always co-ordinates two actions performed by the same person, with the conjunction "and" or some equivalent, Amharic very frequently subordinates one to the other by expressing the first with a Gerund (though it is perhaps of no less importance). 910

When more than two actions are performed a succession of Gerunds can be used, without any co-ordinating "and";

132. Sharing its subject, the Gerund is apt to be very closely associated with the verb on which it depends, especially when, as an adverb, it is coupled together with that verb. 11 In this close association it partakes not only of the latter's time sense (i.e. past, present or future; as the above examples show) but also of its

1. See Sec. 24 on The Tense Scheme.
2. See Sec. 274 under Compound Sentences.
3. $\boldsymbol{n}+$ Contingent of $\boldsymbol{\lambda \$ 0 n}$ or $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \|_{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}$ is sometimes added after the Gerund without especially changing

4. This is especially the case (a) when the Gerund of $K n$ is used in reporting speech (as in this example); and (b) when a Gerund is used as an adverb (i.e. a one-word adverbial clause; see next paragraph).
5. See Sec. 257 under Adverbs.
6. Thougn this can be taken as a rule, in practice there is some looseness in the matter.
7. An exception is when a Gerund is used before a verb of perception (such as $\boldsymbol{\lambda f}$, see; h7\% , find) to describe the state, not of the subject but of the object of that verb:

8. For the use of the conjunction $h$ 股
9. "Go and --", "Come and --", however, are usually expressed with two co-ordinated Imperatives,

10. Similarly, by using the subordinating conjunctions $\lambda \boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $n$, both of which give the sense of an Imperfect participle; see Secs. 264 (9) and 265 (2) under Conjunctions.
11. The second example in Sec. 131 (above) illustratesthis; compare m7n7 (the Gerund which is coupled together with the main verb) with the other Gerunds.
mood (Indicative, Imperative or Infinitive):

| e.g. |  <br> 入ot 1ntv h8: <br>  | I went into the shop and saw -- Indicative Mood. Go into the shop and see -- Imperative Mood. They want to go in and see -- Infinitive Mood. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| It can even partake | of its negation: |  |
| e.g. |  | You (f) did not go in and see it. |

133. When the Gerund and the verb on which it depends have the same pronoun object, a single object suffix attached to the latter verb will express it for both of them:

But when the pronoun object is not common to both verbs the Gerund takes its own object suffix.


## Abnormal Uses of the Contingent

134. The normal uses of the Contingent, whether as a participle or a tense, are covered in the sections on Verbs, Relative Pronouns, Subordinating Conjunctions etc. A few abnormal uses, however, must also be mentioned:--
135. There are two 3rd masculine singular Contingent forms which have a special use as adverbs of comparison: 1


These are both compounded with h (than) in the Comparative construction, for which see Sec. 290. But their use is not confined to comparative sentences:


From $\operatorname{\rho A\phi }$ comes the idiomatic expression PA\$7 $\boldsymbol{P}^{\circ}$, an adverbial accusative form meaning "and especially", "moreover": e.g. RA\&39 A
136. Another 3rd masculine singular Contingent form which has a special use is gua (from kifn , be equal to; I-B2), which may be translated "amounting to", "as much as" 13 It is common in such expressions as:-gor giva how much? (lit. amounting to what?) Run SUA this much (lit. amounting to this) go390 pua however much

It is also used with relative phrases, thus:


Sua can also indicate approximation:
e.g. ani SUA about a hundred (lit. amounting to a hundred). 4
137. Apart from its use with ordinary auxiliary verbs (in the regular tense formations etc.), the Contingent is sometimes found with föl (start: I-B) acting as the auxiliary verb. When gare is employed in this way, like the auxiliary verb 3 ific it drops its personal suffixes.
e.g.


1. These Contingent forms with special uses (Secs. 135 and 136) appear, actually, to be relative forms which have dropped the relative py.
2. For the interchangeability of $h$ and $k$ see Sec. 16; also Sec. 32 (footnote) on $h$ as a penultimate radical.
3. As can be seen from the examples, sua is still sufficiently verbal to take a direct object.
4. See Sec. 295 (c), under How to Express Approximation.
5. It is not obligatory to use $\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathbf{W}} / 4$ in this way. It can equally well be used as an ordinary verb, taking


## Impersonal Verbs

138．Impersonal Verbs are verbs which are used in the 3rd person singular（＂it＂）while the＂Iogical subject＂ of the sentence（generally a living being）is treated as the object．

In the sentence＂I feel pain when I walk＂the verb is personal，having as its subject the 1 st person sin－ gular pronoun＂I＂，which is quite logically the subject of the sentence．But in＂It pains me to walk＂the verb is impersonal，because although the sense is unchanged and the＂logical aubject＂therefore the same as before，the＂grammatical subject＂is now the 3rd person singular pronoun＂It＂，while the＂logical sub－ ject＂is treated as the direct object，＂me＂．

Amharic Impersonal Verbs are of two kinds：（1）＂Real Subject＂Impersonals，and（2）＂Unreal Subject＂ Impersonals． 1

## 1）＂Real Subject＂Impersonals．

139．There are verbs which have a real subject of their own，apart from the logical subject of the sentence． They are in fact ordinary verbs which happen，commonly，to be used in the 3rd person singular，simply because their meaning is such as commonly to demand something inanimate as the subject－often an action； 2 Since it is just the same in English，this can be illustrated from the English example above（Sec．138），＂It pains me to walk＂．In this example it is the action，＂to walk＂which＂pains me＂．This actien therefore， represented by the pronoun＂it＂，is a real subject to the verb＂pains＂；though，as we have seen，it is not the＂logical subject＂of the sentence．

Amongst Amharic impersonal verbs are some whose meaning requires the＂logical subject＂to be treat－ ed as a direct object，and some whose meaning requires it to be treated as an indirect object．But in so far as the plain object suffix can stand for either direct or indirect object， 3 there is no need to distinguish between the two，unless the object is expressed as a separate word．
e．g．$\lambda^{\boldsymbol{P}+\boldsymbol{t}}$ ，defeat（of an attempted action），commonly takes a direct object：
（a）With an object suffix only：
 could manage it）．But $+\mathbb{T}$ ，be possible，commonly takes an indirect object：

（b）With the object expressed as a separate word： 4 AhUt tFrnta It was possible for my sister． 5
140 As the above examples show，a＂logical subject＂，as the object of an impersonal verb，can，when stand－ ing as a separate word，take the suffix 3 or the prefix $\boldsymbol{A}$ in the usual manner．Actually，however，it of－ ten takes neither，but is treated as the true subject．In such cases，standing in grammatical isolation from the verb，it is known as an Introductory Nominative， 6


1．The dividing line between them is not always very distinct．Some verbs are used in both ways．
2．Being ordinary verbs，however，there is no objection to their being used with some other subject where the context requires it：
e．g．ance fafilcta：it will be difficult for me to go（Impersonal use）．
\＃h干ずん
3．This is not always the case，as some＂Real Subject＂Impersonals take an infixed preposition before the object suffix：


```
    an+p% \X-fí%=
    We must wait.
```

4．The object suffix will probably be retained as well．
5．With many of these verbs the＂logical subject＂can be treated either as the direct or indirect object：


$\mathrm{hr}^{3}+7$＋men ：It suited you（m）（direct object）．
$17++\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{v}$ ：It was convenient to you（m）（indirect object）．
6．This Introductory Nominative is a common feature of Amharic，and not confined to use with imper－ sonal verbs：e．g．I now at thanan That man，his house has been burned．
See also Sec． 103 on the Verb＂to have＂（footnote）．

141．The subject of these verbs commonly being an action，the question arises whether to express that ac－ tion with a Substantival or an Adverbial Infinitive；English offers a choice in the matter：
e．g．It pains me to walk（＂to walk＂is like the Amharic Adverbial Infinitive）． Walking pains me（＂Walking＂is like the Amharic Substantival Infinitive）．

With Amharic the question amounts to whether or not to use $\boldsymbol{n}$ before the Infinitive．The answer is that se－ veral of these verbs can be used either way；but while it is never wrong to use the Substantival Infinitive （i．e．without n），with many verbs the Adverbial Infinitive（i．e．with n）must be avoided：
e．g．，$N$ nFï （be difficultl can take either：


But with +7 in（behove，be fitting）only a Substantival Infinitive should be used：

When either a or $h 7 f^{0}+$ the Contingent is substituted for the Infinitive（as is necessary if an object suffix has to be added ${ }^{2}$ ）the distinction between Substantival and Adverbial no longer holds，as the prefixed $A$ or h3s must in any case be retained：
e．g．A中ma－Rinitisa To punish him behoves me；i．e．I ought to，must punish him．


142 The following is a selection of verbs commonly used as＂Real Subject＂Impersonals，together with some indications as to their use：－－

| Verb | Group | Translate <br> literally | ed <br> equivalent pers． verb | Logical Subject ${ }^{3}$ treated as： | Infinitive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ＋㴎 | P．III－1 | be possible | be able，can | Indirect Object | Withor without |
| k中t | D．C．III－1 | defeat（of at－ tempted action） | not manage，fail | Direct Object | W1th or without |
| ＋h3 | P. III-1 | be beyond（ones power） | not be able to ma－ nage | Direct Object | With or without |
| tam | P． $11-2 . B$ | suit，be con－ venient |  | Direct or Indirect Object | With or without |
| Katric | I．C．I－B | cause difficulty， be difficult |  | Direct or Indirect Object | With or without |
| Kncint | L．C．I－B | be necessary | need | Indirect Object | With or without |
| ＋773 | P．I－1－A | behove，be fit－ ting | ought，deserve | Indirect Object | Without |
| mºm | I－A | profit，be use－ ful |  | Direct or Indirect Object | Without |
| ＋$\square_{6}^{6}$ | P．II－1－A | be felt | feel | Direct or Indirect Object | Without |
| ＋ïn $k$ 为 | ＂Mn Verb＂ | occur（of me－ mory） | remember | Direct Object | Without |
| U＇ | III－3 | become，happen | （with infixed A） succeed | Indirect Object （Infixed $\boldsymbol{n}$ ） | With or without |
| $\mathrm{Knc}^{4}$ | Defect II－2 | be（present） | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (with infixed a ) } \\ & \text { must } \end{aligned}$ | Indirect Object （infixed 1 ） | Without |
| $\cdots 0$ й | I－A | seem，resemble | think | Indirect Object | Without |

1．The Infinitive alone is Substantival；with $\boldsymbol{A}$ prefixed it is Adverbial；as explained in Sec．122，under the Uses of the Infinitive．

2．See Sec． 125 under The Uses of the Infinitive；see Sec． 265 （ 4 and 5）under Conjunctions．
3．As already mentioned with many of these verbs the＂logical subject＂can be treated either as the direct or indirect object．There is，in fact，such＂looseness＂in this that the indications given are in se－ veral cases，not so much rules as recommendations．

4．As a＂Real Subject＂Impersonal，without the infixed $\cap$ ，Wilis used for＂have＂．But this is dealt with in Sec． 103 （3），under Irregular Verbs．

5．See Sec． 250 （1，b）under Infixed Prepositions．

The following examples further illustrate the use of these verbs:-
 ncg. nmgn efigin: We feel the cold very much (lit. The cold is felt very much to us).

 I remembered that it was lost (lit. Its being lost occurred to me). I think it is the end now (lit. Now it seems to me the end).

## 2) "Unreal Subject" Impersonals.

143 These are verbs which have no real subject of their own, apart from the "logical subject" of the sentence. In their meaning they have to do with feelings or sensations, both physical and emotional.

With a "Real Subject" Impersonal, as we have seen, the pronoun, "it", stands for something which really fulfills the function of a subject. But with an "Unreal Subject" Impersonal, though the pronoun is still there (inherent in the Amharic verb form), and is therefore, in respect of grammatical form, the subject, yet it does not stand for any true performer of the action, and, in fact, has no meaning apart from the meaning of the verb itself. It is therefore an unreal subject.

Though such verbs are not a typical feature of English as they are of Amharic, yet some English verbs are occasionally used in this way. We can say, for instance "It pains me in my leg'" writhout any reference to, and possibly in ignorance of, the cause of the pain. We are thinking only of the action of "paining" and not of what is performing that action. In this case "it" stands for nothing outside the sense of the verb itself. It might be argued that "it" stands for the "pain" which "pains me", but this "pain" is at any rate implicit in the sense of the verb, 1 "It" therefore, is not a real subject.

The two kinds of impersonal verbs show a marked contrast in their use, for what would be the subject of a "Real Subject" Impersonal must, with an "Unreal Subject" Impersonal be expressed adverbially:
 4.7 being the subject).



 My stomach is troubling me (a "Real Subject" Impersonal; vP being the subject). I feel ill (lit. It has "ached" me) in my stomach (an "Unreal Subject" Impersonal; $u^{\prime \prime} 7$ being an adverbial accusative form ${ }^{2}$ ).

Another point of contrast is that, while most "Real Subject" Impersonals are not exclusively impersonal, and, as ordinary verbs, are often used without object suffixes (e.g. Ha efinar it is possible tom day), "Unreal Subject" Impersonals, being more truly impersonal, are rarely found without them. $\$$

Further, unlike "Real Subject" Impersonals, "Unreal Subject" Impersonals are commonly treated as "Become Verbs": 4 e.g. co ${ }^{\frac{\text { TA }}{A}}$ I am hungry (lit. It has "hungered" me). 5

Again, in contrast to "Real Subject" Impersonals, which are frequently causative or passive in form, the typical "Unreal Subject" Impersonal is a Basic form. 6

1. In Ambaric the corresponding noun is sometimes used in this way as the subject of an "Unreal Subject" Impersonal verb. But it adds nothing to the meaning (except perhaps emphasis) and so is hardly a real subject: e.g. $4-1 \%$ (lit. It "hungered" me) I became hungry,

4n 4 - $\mathrm{n}^{3}$ (lit. Hunger "hungered" me) ]
2. For adverbial accusatives see Sec. 256, under Adverbs.
3. Except in expressions like fî gna! It makes (one) happy!, fricaa! It is amazing! But in such cases the verbs are hardly being used as "Unreal Subject" Impersonals.
4. For "Become Verbs" see Sec. 120.
5. But this is not always so, for instance "I am glad" can just as well be rendered Rïl enfía (Pre-

6. Verbs used to express physical reactions, which are commonly causative in form, are "borderline cases", being sometimes "Real Subject" and sometimes "Unreal Subject" Impersonals:
e.g.


144 With＂Unreal Subject＂Impersonals，the＂logical subject＂is treated as the direct object：

It is，however，very common to express the＂logical subject＂，when a separate word，as an Introductory Nominative： 1
e．g．


145 The typical＂Unreal Subject＂Impersonal is one of a trio of related verb forms．These three forms are：－
（a）The＂Unreal Subject＂Impersonal Verb．
In form it is Basic（e．g． 60 Rhow ）；in meaning it has reference to feeling；it is generally used as a ＂Become Verb＂．
e．g．nnconit cap－A ：She is（feels）hungry through her not eating．

（b）The Intransitive Personal Verb．
In form it is Passive（ $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{g} .+6 \mathrm{n}$ ）or Basic（e．g．\＆f̈rm）；its meaning is as（a），but with the emphasis on fact rather than feeling；as（a）it is generally used as a＂Become Verb＂．
e．g．пnamit tcniti：She is hungry（i，e，undernourished）through her not eating．

（c）The Transitive Personal Verb（which may be used as a＂Real Subject＂Impersonal）．
In form it is Causative（e．g．himn ，heñon）；it is not used as a＂Become Verb＂；if used as a＂Real Subject＂Impersonal it treats the＂logical subject＂as a direct rather than an indirect object；and its subject， when an Infinitive，is generally without $\boldsymbol{A}$ ．
e．g．Knandit kncaja：Her not eating has made her hungry．

146 The following is a selection of common＂Unreal Subject＂Impersonals，together with their correspon－ ding Personal forms：－－

| ＂Unreal Subject＂ Impersonal Verbs | Group | Translation（equivalent English Personal Form） | Intransitive <br> Personal Verb | Transitive Personal Verb |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Köncom | I－A | become，be ill，feel pain | －－man | そう家の |
| 40 | III－1 | become，be hungry | 18.17 | そうく－0 |
| m ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | II－1－A | become，be thirsty | 1009 | K1m ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Fil | I－B | get into，be in difficulty | ＋F゙iく | 人n7Fit |
| 日3゙ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | I－A | get into，be in distress |  | 入hast |
| 7400 | I－A | become，be amazed | ＋1\％00 | K1720u |
| Rfiom | I－A | become，be tired | fitiom | herinom |
|  | $\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{A}$ | become，be cold | nZ9 | $x \cap z$ |
|  | V－2 | become，be weary，bored | กn ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | スヘヘ̣ |
| RTikn | ＂Kn Verb＂ | become，be glad | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { RK Th } \\ \text { den } \end{array}$ | RAK K |
| 中L ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | ＂hat Verb＂ | become，be displeased |  |  |

1．For the Introductory Nominative see Sec． 140.
2．A comparison of these examples under（b）with those under（a）above（the English）will reveal the subtle difference in meaning between the two kinds of verb．This difference is so slight as often to be im－ perceptible．The sense，however，of the Intransitive Personal Verb，with its reference to fact，is apt to be stronger than that of the＂Unreal Subject＂Impersonal Verbs，with its reference to feeling．The following



The Noun

Gender

147 Amharic has two genders: masculine and feminine. Males are, of course, of masculine gender, and females of feminine gender (whether persons or animals).

The masculine gender also serves, generally, for the neuter. This means that inanimate objects, which in English would be spoken of as "it", are in Amharic generally spoken of as "he".

But, occasionally inanimate objects are treated as feminine, i.e. spoken of as "she". In practice there are no rigid rules as to when this should be, for the same word may sometimes be made masculine and sometimes feminine, according to the fancy of the speaker. 1 . But, for the guidance of the student, it can be said that while an inanimate object can always, if desired, be treated as masculine, there are certain things, or certain kinds of things, which tend to be treated as feminine (rather as in English we have a tendency to speak of a country or a ship as "she", although it would not be wrong to say "it"). In this way, we find that the sun and moon, the earth, countries, abstract qualities and intangible things (like the soul) are commonly made feminine; and likewise mules and motor-cars.

There is also a special "diminutive use" of the feminine gender, by which nouns, normally masculine,

 imals, when there is no reference to their sex, are often treated as feminine: e.g. heq中 ( $\Phi$ is the feminine definite article) is generally used for "the rat", the actual sex being unknown. 2
148. The gender of an Amharic noun is not indicated by its own form, but by that of the verb of which it is the subject, or of an article or pronoun in agreement with it:
e.g.

|  | H |
| :---: | :---: |
| dinao | the (masculine) doctor |
| -10409 | that (masculine) teach |

AC rit She is a child (girl)。


Where necessary, however, the sex of living beings can be indicated by either mist, male, or h $\boldsymbol{7}$, female, being placed before the noun:
e.g. are af boy, son
o3p: 1 ? $\quad$ ram (i.e. male sheep) ${ }^{4}$


Plurals.
149. Nouns are made plural by the addition of the suffix of

If the noun ends with a vowel there is the option of retaining or omitting this vowel in the plural, 6 When


A final $\rho$ may likewise be omitted in the plural: e.g. ncs, slave; adgatit or net. slaves.

1. The Ge'ez grammarians may claim that certain words must be feminine. But Amharic, after all, is not Ge'ez, and in the normal Amharic usage there is great elasticity.
2. Feminine forms are often used even for small boys. This is a way of expressing affection.
3. Exceptions are certain Ge'ez nouns (and adjectives likewise) which have survived in Amharic. The


 bees).
4. For grammatical gender the Ge'ez words tnot masculine, and kint, feminine, are used.
5. Except with one syllable ppuns, the loss of whose only vowel would change them almost beyond ree cognition: e.g. fic, fruit; scop , fruits.
 scholars.

150 Some words inherited from Ge＇ez still use the Ge＇ez plural forms．These are found especially in re－ ligious and literary language：－－

1st type adds suffix 23 e．g．onguc ，teacher；apgul． 3 ，teachers．


In ordinary colloquial Amharic，however，it is rarely necessary to use Ge＇ez plurals．For instance，hht （star）has a Ge＇ez plural hPhnt（3rd type），but it is quite normal in speech to use the ordinary Amharic plural form，hinit Sometimes the two forms are combined，the Amharic plural suffix being added to the Ge＇ez plural form：nPhneq常1．

151 When English would use a plural，Amharic very frequently uses the＂Collective Singular＂．This use of the singular is not unknown in English：e．g．He has black hair（meaning＂black hairs＂）．Amharic，however， goes much further，tending to use singular instead of plural forms whenever a collection，mass or kind－－as distinct from separate individuals－－is in view．This is more likely with things or animals than with per－ sons，as the latter are more naturally viewed as individuals． 2 But even with persons it is not uncommon． After nlt（many）， $13 \boldsymbol{\gamma}$（how many）and the numerals，it is especially common，since these are by them－ selves sufficient to indicate plurality．


The Definite Article．

Bring some chairs（lit．Bring chair）．${ }^{3}$
Take three forks（lit．Take three fork）．
I want many eggs（lit．I want much egg）．
It is only for children（lit．It is only for child）．
I don＇t want lemons（lit．I don＇t want lemon），${ }^{3}$
How many people came？（lit．How many person came）．${ }^{4}$
ed）．
table）．

152 The definite article（＂the＂）as used for masculine singular nouns，and both masculine and feminine plural nouns，is the suffix u：

| e．g． | ก．7． | house； | 日F | the house． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 亿串㝑 | houses； | 几里第 | the houses． |
|  | 公阵章 | women； | b郘 | the women． |

When the noun ends with a vowel this suffix is spelt $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$－


The definite article as used for feminine singular nouns is also a suffix，but it has three alternative forms：－．．


When the noun ends with a vowel，the 1 of $i t$ and $i t$ is spelt $e$
e．g．RC．fowl（cock or hen）；fegt：the hen．
 is reciprocal．They are：an eaquq等 brothers（to each other），nutaqu7 sisters（to each other）


They are the girls＇brothers．
2．Thus，when inanimate objectş are coordinated with a conjunction（＂and＂）it is normal for the verb


3．Whether singular or plural sense is understood depends，in such a case，on the context．
4．The use of the Collective Singular may result in loss of concord between different parts of speech in the matter of singular and plural．Thus，in this example，while the noun is singular the verb might be plural：n3＊narmer ？Amharic usage with regard to number（i．e．singular and plural）is，indeed，very loose．

5．The article $\Phi$ is not generally used with the two words f 7 and Af，except when they are adjectival： h． $\boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{P}$ the female one；$\Delta \dot{p} \Phi$ the young one（f）．

153 In Amharic the use of the definite article is more an optional matter than in English, for it is often omitted, or left unexpressed, though its sense is understood from the context. 1

This is especially the case in adverbial phrases of place (where even English shows the tendency to some extent):


 (nnckи ^R Kïu


> They were on the ground. He came from the kitchen. She went to town. There is (some) on the table. There is none inside the house. 23

Special Colloquial Form of Personal Nouns.
154 The nouns har (when it means "man", not "person") and ot (when it means "woman", not "female"), as well as several common nouns of relationship, in colloquial Amharic often add the suffixes i. \& (or í
$\ddot{\rho}$ ), masculine, and if., feminine -- but only when used with reference to one person, not collectively or in the plurals. The definite articles $\oplus(m)$ and $\Phi(f)$ are further added (though not necessarily in the case of the two nouns already mentioned).


The Indefinite Article.
155 It is never essential to use an indefinite article ("a", "an"), but when, for the sake of clarity, the desirability of one is felt, the numeral $火 7 R$ (one) is made to serve the purpose. This is often the case when the possibility of a singular noun being understood as a Collective Singular might otherwise result in ambiguity: 6
 (collective singular).




The Accusative Suffix.
156 A noun is shown to be in the accusative case, i.e. the direct object of a verb ${ }^{7}$ by the addition of the suffix 3. But in spoken (as opposed to literary) Amharic this is generally omitted except when the noun is definite. Definite nouns are those which denote something defined, or distinguished from others of the same kind. As a practical guide we can classify them as follows:--

1. Just as, for instance, in English we often omit the conjunction "that": e.g. "He said he was coming" instead of "He said that he was coming".
2. Apart from such phrases, indiscriminate omission of the definite article is not to be recommended for beginners.
3. As in English one definite article is sometimes made to serve for more than one noun:
e.g.

Bring the hammer, saw and pliers.
4. Thus "the woman" can be rendered in a variety of ways: htt, dtt , atipq . Colloquially the last is the commonest.
5. The ordinary form, na , however, is used when the sense is collective or generic.
6. It is also the case in possessive constructions where, in spite of the absence of a definite article, the sense will probably be understood as definite unless an indefinite article is added: e.g. pirave fot , the
 (see Sec, 241 (4)). Likewise also with relative constructions (see Sec. 234).
7. The object of a preposition does not take the accusative case, as it does in English.
(a) Nouns which have a definite article suffixed.
(b) Nouns which have a possessive pronoun suffixed. 1
(c) Proper nouns, i.e. names. 2

Since both the definite article and the possessive pronoun are suffixes, in practice one becomes accustomed to using the accusative 3 whenever the objective noun offers one of these two suffixes for it to be attached to. Otherwise, except with names, one customarily leaves it out ${ }_{3}$

| e.g. |  <br>  | Take (m) the cup. Pick up (m) the cups. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | I broke my cup. |
|  | Pr¢3n3 TLat | Call (m) John. |
| But |  <br>  | Bring (m) a knife. I asked many people. |

Derived Noun Forms.
157. Nouns are commonly derived from verbs, as well as from other parts of speech, according to more or less standard patterns. A knowledge of these patterns, or forms, is often a great help towards understanding the meaning of a noun. The following are important:--

The Infinitive.
158. This is dealt with in sections on the Verb and Uses of the Infinitive. 67

The Agent.
159. Its formation is dealt with in sections on the Verb (see tables of Principal Parts, etc.).

It denotes the performer of the action of the verb, and is equivalent to the English agent form in "er": e.g. RG , writer; Fr. ${ }^{2} 6$, speaker. 8 But while in English the form in "er" is also used for the instrument (e.g. typewriter, opener), in the Amharic the Agent and Instrument forms are quite distinct.

As a verbal noun the Agent retains sufficient of the verbal character to be able to take an object:


An Agent can be adjectival as well as substantival:

The Agent is sometimes used to express what is planned or arranged for the future:

| 納中6 3 | I shall be remaining behind (lit. I am a remainer). |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | That house is to come down (lit. That house is a 'tumbler-down'). |

The Instrument.
160. Its formation is dealt with in sections on the Verb.

1. For the suffixed possessive pronouns see Sec. 194.
2. We do not here include nouns which are modified by a demonstrative pronoun or an independent possessive pronoun, since with them it is the pronoun, not the noun, which takes the accusative suffix.
3. The object suffix on a relative verb, acting as it does for the definite article, is another suffix which invites the attachment of the accusative 3 (see Sec. 234 under Relatives).
4. When the word to which it is attached ends with a consonant (i, $e_{, ~ a ~}^{0}$ 6th form) the suffix 3 is usually preceded by a slight I, P-क7nz is, thus, pronounced yohannisin
5. In many cases, the process of derivation has been the reverse, i.e. the verb, etc. has been derived from the noun. But it will serve no useful purpose to make this distinction.
6. For the uses of the Infinitive see Secs. 121-127.
7. For the use of an Infinitive as the object of some other part of the same verb see Sec. 163 (footnote).
8. The agent of a verb with passive meaning must be rendered in English by a relative or an adjectival past participle: e.g. $\$ 6.42$, he who (that which) is wanted, the wanted orie.

It denotes the instrument，means，or place employed for performing the action of the verb．It has the following uses：－－
 pars 94ns XPma pharfinn analus pt sor？

## A broom is necessary．

Fetch the kettle（iit．boller of water）．
Where is the＂bus－stop？
（b）With prefixed（to it or preceding word）to make it adjectival：
e．g．punkof alqt hax ninu a I want some writing paper．
（c）With A prefixed（to it or preceding word）to expre




The clothes washing basin leaks．
We will take it for drinking out of．
I bought it for the children to sit on．
He gave her the thread to play with．

## The Product Form．

161 This denotes what is produced by the action of the verb．${ }^{1}$ Its formation is based on that of the Agent，${ }^{2}$ as follows：－－

The 1st form first radical of the Agent becomes 6th form（this is the main distinction between the two）． The penultimate radical generally doubles，irrespective of the Type of the parent verb．${ }^{3}$

The is suffix of the Agent tends to become e：but there is confusion between these two vowels when fi－ nal，and so this is not invariable．At any rate either vowel is liable to disappear by absorption．The fol－ lowing examples illustrate these points：－－

| 6.7 | ，tumble down（house etc．）（I－A）， | has Agent 6．4． 5 ，and Product | ¢ | ruin． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $m$ mp | ，ask（1－B）， | has Agent mp，and Product | p9t | ，question． |
| mis | ，call，invite（II－1－A）， | has Agent me ，and Product | 9 | ，call，invitatio |
|  | ，draw out，extract（II－1－A）， | has Agent 中g：，and Product |  | extract． |
| 7n | sell（III－2）， | has Agent $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{C}} \mathrm{b}$ ，and Product | 万．${ }^{\text {P }}$ | ，sale． |
| taram | ，translate（IV）， | has Agertscroq，and Product | ＋ $\mathrm{c}^{304}$ | ，translation． |
| cosida | ，change（money；IV）， | has Agent an 3 H，and Product | 903H6 | ，small change．${ }^{4}$ |

The Manner Form．${ }^{5}$
162 This denotes the manner in which the action of the verb is performed．Its normal construction is that of the＂root form＂of the I．C．${ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．derived form of the verb， 6 but with the penultimate radical sing－ le and the final vowel dropped：

| and the | ，proach（I－A）， | has | hinah | manner of preaching．${ }^{7}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| －2． | ，work（11－1－A）， | has | xixycic | ，manner of working． |
| 合 | ，give（II－2－A）， | has |  | manner of giving． |
| \％ | ，write（III－1）， | has | ${ }^{1} \times 8$ | manner of writing． |
| 28 | ；go（III－2）， | has | 大 h ¢ C | manner of going． |
| 56 | live（III－3）， | has | hscic | ，manner of living． |
| minc | teatify（IV）， | has | teibthhc | manner of testifying． |
| 49 | burst（V－1）， | has | hasent | manner of bursting． |

1．For the use of the Product Form as an object for its own verb see Sec． 163 （footnote）．
2．But it is not a regular part of the verb conjugation like the Agent．Only a relatively small number are found，

3．But not always：e．g． 54 ，fruit；ficy ；translation．Sometimes in Group IV examples a slight i pronounced before the penultimate radical suggests a doubling which is hardly perceptible in the conson－ ant itself：e．g．7Anfe，pronounced giliib（b）ach（b）a eh（see Sec． 8 under The Doubling of Consonants），

4．It appears that Product Forms are never constructed from Derived，but only from Basic Verb forms．Thus，for instance，the D．C．verb hin，（bear fruit；D．C．II－1－A），while it makes a normal D．C． Agent，hfid，has the Product Form \＆\＆（fruit），which is made from the Basic，not the D．C．stem．

5．While＇it is not treated as a regular part of the verb conjugation，like the Agent and Instrument，yet it exists for a large proportion of the Basic verb forms．

6．For which see Secs． 93 （2）and 94，under Changed Stem Forms．
7．When the verb is transitive，the sense may also be passive：e．g．＂manner of being preached＂，etc．

Sometimes in meaning it acts for a Derived form of verb rather than for the Basic form（which may not even be in use）：


Some variations on the normal formation are found：－
（a）The ${ }^{1}$ Int．C．S．form is sometimes used instead of the ${ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．form．This is chiefly with Group IV verbs；in fact it is the normal with those Group IV verbs whose stem consists of a twice repeated pair of radicals：

（b）Verbs whose first radical is $h$ or generally use the I．C．P．${ }^{2}$ Int．C．S．form：
e．g．hdid ，know（I－A），has hithpin，manner of knowing．

But Group IV venbs of this kind，and some others，are irregular in treating the first radical as the causative prefix：

e．g．
（c）Many verbs of Groups II－2 and V－2 whose final consonant is saturated add 7 ，as in the Infinitive：

（d）In some cases the added 6th form of an Ext． $\mathrm{C}_{.} \mathrm{S}_{\mathbf{\prime}}$ form is retained，together with the D．C．prefix： e．g．Kinnion，hang（D．C．Ext．C．S．IV）， has $\boldsymbol{K}^{3}$ minat，manner of hanging．

Forms with a final it．
163．These are commonly abstracts，the names of actions etc．，and therefore have much the same force as the substantival Infinitive，or sometimes as the Product Formid

| e．g．Coliom ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | length， | related to the verb | Ciño | ，become long（I－A）． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8ta ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | prayer， | related to the verb | غ̇ı？ | ，pray（I－B）． |
|  | patience， | related to the verb | $\xrightarrow[\sim]{\sim}$ | ，be patient（P．I－B）． |
| 707 | diligence， | related to the verb | ＋3 | ，be diligent（II－1－A）． |
| －6tim | outcome， | related to the verb | 由芴 | ，come out（II－1－A）． |
| $\boldsymbol{\omega}-\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{7}$ | lie， | related to the verb | 9 | ，tell a lie（1Int．C．S．II－2）． |
| 79010．7 | learning， | related to the verb | ＋07L | ，learn（P．III－1）． |
| $00 .+7$ | heat， | related to the verb | p中 | ，become hot（III－3）． |
| AC．J＊ | strength， | related to the verb | 143） | ，become strong（V－1）． |

1．Such forms as this appear to result from a confusion with Group III－1；e．g．hỉk from R\＆，write，
2．Amharic，unlike English，has no aversion to using the related verb and noun together．On the con－ trary verbal nouns such as（a）the Infinitive，（b）the Product Form，（c）the Form with final it，and（d）the Form consisting only of 6 th forms，tend to be used as the direct objects of their corresponding verbs（es－ pecially $b$ and d）：

| e．g． | （a） |  | He feared a great fear． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | （c） | 小n¢ ¢fcy\％ 6 |  |
|  | （b） |  | She made（lit．translated）a good translation． |
|  | （d） | conhy |  |
|  | （a） | nt aqK力 PRTMA： | He thinks bad thoughts（lit．thinking）． |
|  | （b） |  | They asked a question． |
|  | （c） |  | Let us pray（prayer）． |
|  | （d） | Añ̃U3 Anị： | Put on（m）your clothes． |
|  | （d） |  | He made much profit（lit．He caused much excess to be in excess |

164. These are similar in sense to the above (Forms with a final $\geqslant$ ), but are often concrete rather than abstract, being closer to the Product Form than to the Infinitive. 1


Forms with the suffix +
165. These, like the Forms with a final 7 , are generally abstract verbal nouns similar in gense to Substantival Infinitives. The suffix thas the force of the English "-ness".

166. This suffix is used especially to make noun forms from words compounded with the verb kin : ${ }^{3}$


$$
\text { gives } H{ }^{3} \text { silence, saying nothing. }
$$

gives Ritr or Rity gladness. gives tifr slowness; quietness, gives hest height. gives 0 PC; forgiveness, pardon.
 gives 8 pry calmness. gives 9 Po, lamentation.

Forms with the suffix- $\overline{2}$.
167. This suffix, attached generally to nouns, produces nouns (and adjectives) which are similar in sense to Agents, indicating occupations, habits and qualities. 4 Sometimes (especially after the vowel a) it becomes $+\boldsymbol{F}$
e.g.

traveller, builder in stone, proud person,
from the noun antre:
road. from the noun from the noun from the noun
$19^{\circ}+\boldsymbol{f}$ stone structure.
workman,
sick person, from the noun

When this suffix is attached to a noun formed with the suffix $\Rightarrow$, the final a of the latter is dropped:


1. See footnote no. 2, page 83.
 marvelous (I-A); one dear, from wefe, love (I-A); haha, forbidden, from han̆in, prevent, forbid (IV).
2. For Compounds of 74 see Secs. 106-114.
3. It is also used to form ordinal numbers. See Sec. 186 under The Numerals.
4. These farms can largely be used as adjectives as well as nouns. Some indeed are adjectives rather
than nouns:
e.g.
nontin powerful,
true, habity true,
from the noun
from the noun
,3ea 10.37
power. truth.
5. A variation of the suffix $i{ }_{i}{ }^{\prime \prime}$ is -1 . This is used in the names of languages:
e.g. hace? Amharic;
2AT Galla;
KYTh. Hit English. ${ }^{1}$

Forms with the suffix ${ }^{3} 7$.
169. This suffix is attached to nouns and adjectives to make nouns denoting attributes, quallites and occupations. It has the force of the English "-ness", "-hood" or "-ship". 2


Ge ${ }^{7} \mathrm{ez}$ Compound Forms.
170. There are several compound nouns, survivals from the $\mathrm{Ge}^{1} \mathrm{ez}$, which consist of two nouns linked together by an $\ddot{a}$, suffixed to the first, which gives the sense of "of":


This compound form is especially common in names:


In some cases the sense order of the two nouns is reversed:

171. The word most commonly found in this construction is $n A$, an old Semitic word meaning "lord" (the O.T. Baal). In modern Amharic, when used by itself, nA means "husband"; but the form nA (as it becomes when compounded with other nouns) has the sense of "owner of", "possessor of", and is frequently employed both for persons (of either sex) and for things:
e.g. An arh. tow in He has a car (lit. He is owner of a car). ${ }^{4}$

An wnt AXF cito She has three children (it. She is possessor of three children). ${ }^{4}$

ni wiff fic rem. This is the one costing two dollars (i.e. possessing the price of two dollars). Though generally written as a separate word, in is, in effect, a prefix, like a preposition. This is shown by its union with a Demonstrative: e.g. MAII, 973 30-? Who is the owner of this 35

The Ge'ez compound form nint, while its original sense was obviously "owner of the house", in modern usage either means "owner" (of anything) or is employed for polite reference to husband or wife:
e.g. Poricic. nabt $3 \boldsymbol{\omega}=\mathrm{b}$ He is the owner of the car.
nartep Ruc coror? Is your (pol) $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { husband } \\ \text { wife }\end{array}\right]$ well?



e.g.
pent holiness,
from the adjective
from the noun
phin holy.
the physician, or the verb htion treat medically (I-B).
3. The suffixed 3 of this example is for the Adverbial Accusative (Sec. 256).
4. See Sec. 103 (3), footnote, on ways of translating the verb "have".
5. See Sec, 212, under Demonstratives.
172. An adjective precedes the noun which it modifies: ${ }^{1}$ e.g. herz Anh yen: It is old clothing. 2 attracts the definite article from the noun: ${ }^{3}$
e.g. Anip the clothing

Kezor and the old clothing.
If there is more than one adjective, the first will take the definite article:
e.g. heza- Aq An the old white clothing.

The possessive suffix, unlike the definite article, is not attracted to the adjective but remains attached to the nown. This difference often helps in distinguishing between the definite article -u (masculine "the") and the possessive suffix - 4 ("his"); and, again, between the definite article $p$ (feminine "the") and the possessive suffix $\Phi$ ("her"):
e.g. Anf the clothing, his clothing sifas the female goat, her goat
hczow Aft the old clothing rixpq gifa the big female goat
Kez Anit his old clothing
TAX GFA9 her big goat
When a noun is preceded by an adjective, then, there is actually place for both a definite article and a possessive suffix, and so it is not uncommon for them to be used together. e.g. $\quad h E^{2} Z \pi$ Anh the old clothing of mine


When a noun, preceded thas by an adjective, is the direct object of a verb, the accusative 3 is attached to whichever of these two suffixes is there to accommodate it. If both are present, then the 3 is attached to both. 4

| e.g. | hczaory Ann Tim: hCz Ant 7 Tm: <br>  | He sold the old clothing. He sold his old clothing. He bought the old clothing of mine. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

173. The adjective sometimes takes the plural suffix o in agreement with its noun; but this is only essential when it also has to carry a definite article:
e.g.

new pencils;
 the new pencils.
174. Some common adjectives, by reduplicating one of their letters, make a special "reduplicated form", which is used, optionally, to give plural or "collective singular" force:

175. Only $v \cdot \ddot{i}$ (all, the whole) appears as an exception, as it generally follows. But this is actually because it is itself a noun ( $v-\mathcal{A}$ ), and in such cases is standing in apposition to the other noun. As a noun it can take a definite article or a possessive suffix: e.g. offeq uf, all the soldiers (lit. the soldiers, the all); $\& 1$ times used adjectivally as well: e.g. v.XZth , always; w-\% $\$ \%$, every day.
176. Of course, the adjective comes later when it is part of the predicate:
e.g. $\quad A \cdot n+\pi C Z 300=$ His clothing is old.
177. Except in cases when adjective and noun are so closely associated as to form a compound noun: e.g. $\quad$ itas $0, \pi+4$ the prime-(lit. general) minister.
178. w-it is exceptional here, for while it takes 3 when standing alone ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{b}$ - $\mathrm{F} \boldsymbol{3}$, mifora They took all), it is commonly used without it when following another noun (e.g. ofpo vir ainen They took all my things).

Like other adjectives, these forms can take the plural suffix -0 整 in agreement with a plural noun, but are forced to do so only when they have to carry a definite article:
e.g.


(Plural)
(Collective Singular)
We will cut down the tall
trees.
175. Distributive or selective sense is conveyed by reduplicating the complete adjectives:
 hers)?
Pick some beautiful flowers (i.e. Select beautiful ones from among the flowers).
176. Adjectives may be used by themselves as nouns. In this case the word "one", which is generally added in the English, does not have to be translated:

When an adjective used as a noun is in the plural, it must, of course, take the plural suffix $-\frac{1}{4}$ :

177. The normal method of rendering a noun adjectival is to prefix the preposition ? (of):

Derived Adjective Forms.
178. Some of the derived forms described under Nouns (as mentioned there) can also be adjectives. ${ }^{2}$ But there are others which are more typically adjectives than nouns; ${ }^{3}$, such as the following:
Forms with the suffix-a $q$
179. This suffix, which is attached to nouns, has the sense of "appertaining to". One of its uses is to indicate nationality.


Forms with the suffix -a go
180. This suffix approximates to the English "-ous":


Forms with the suffix-a


1. This $P$ is sometimes even placed before adjectives, especially foreign adjectives imported into Amharic, adjectives of nationality, etc.


2. Especially the Agent, the Form consisting only of 6 th forms and the Form with suffix $-\overline{5} \bar{F}$ (or-I $\overline{7}$ ) (Sections 159, 164, 167, 168).
3. Although, like all adjectives, they can be used as nouns.

182．These forms，for which there are generally corresponding verbs，describe qualities and shapes：

| e．g． | 4 an ${ }^{\text {ancm }}$ <br> fithe ヘกッド ms？ <br>  7． $\boldsymbol{A}^{67} \boldsymbol{7}$ | dirty， <br> crooked，twisted， <br> rough， <br> soft，smooth， <br> flat， <br> hard， <br> vigorous，virile， |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

related to the verb
\＆ related to the verb inswam related to the verb related to the verb related to the verb related to the verb related to the verb

## Thic

aヘ̃̌̆́n
Mänk
mitic
7ームむ
become dirty（I－B）．
become crooked，twisted（I－A）．
become rough（Int．C．S．I）．
become soft，smooth（IV）．
flatten out（IV）．
become hard（IV）．
become vigorous，virile（IV）．

Reduplicated Noun Forms．
183．These consist of twice repeated nouns，the two words being linked together by＂a＂which is suffixed to the first．This construction gives the sense of＂having the nature of．．．．＂：
nct nki metal，metalic（i．e．having the nature of iron）
A，it effeminate（i．e．having the nature of a woman）
中mn 中ma
leafy，leaf－like（of vegetables）．${ }^{\text {I }}$

## Adjectival Verbs

184．Where English would use an adjective together with the verb＂to be＂，Amharic frequently expresses the complete thought with a verb alone．Such verbs we call Adjectival Verbs，because the sense of an ad－ jective is inherent in them．

These verbs tend to be treated as＂Become Verbs＂； 2 which means that although we may use the verb ＂to be＂in translating them into English，their actual meaning is that of an adjective plus the verb＂to be－ come＂．Thus，the Amharic verb is used in a Perfect tense where the English verb＂to be＂would be in an Imperfect tense：$e_{0} g$ ．the Simple Perfect form：hlle，lit．＂it became heavy＂，renders the English＂it is heavy＂．

But sometimes Adjectival Verbs are used with the sense of the verb＂to be＂rather than that of the verb ＂to become＂；so that＂it is heavy＂can also be rendered，literally，by the Present Imperfect form ．©hofin． 3

For most common adjectives corresponding Adjectival Verbs exist：


In some cases，however，there has been a divergence in sense between the adjective and the verb：e．g．the verb corresponding in form to $\bar{T}$ ，good，is $m{ }^{2}$ ，become，be pure，clear（II－1－A）．

1．This form is also used for nouns：
e．g． 27 2T，ornaments，from 2f，decoration．
2．For which see Section 120.
3．This is especially the case when it is not just a present or momentary（i．e．Perfect）state that is in view，but rather a normal and coptinuous（i．e．Imperfect）attribute．Thus，while nile means＂it is heavy＂ in the sense that＂it is felt to be heavy now；heaviness is its state at the moment＂，fnelpa means＂it is heavy＂in the sense that＂it is a heavy object，now and always；heaviness is its normal attribute＂．

This explains why the two important adjectival verbs of comparison，nim（I－A），and tरin（P．III－1） are generally used with the sense of＂to be＂rather than＂to become＂：e．g．R』AMA ，it is greater：

 have not enough money（literally，Money became insufficient for me）．

There is a tendency to treat an Adjectival Verb as a＂Become Verb＂when it is relative，even if it is one which is otherwise generally not so：

4．Other examples may be found alongside their corresponding adjectives in Sections 180 and 182，un－ der Derived Adjective Forms．

| 185． | k3P1 | 1 | 66 |  | ${ }^{2} 11$ |  | mep 6 | 100 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ＋ | 1－N年 | 2 | 名 | ug 3 | 20 |  | リイ7 | 200 |  |  |
| 1 | Ynt | 3 | \％6 | UP k3 ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | 21 | 7 T | $7_{6}{ }^{8}$ | 1，000 |  |  |
| \％ | h＜ 4 | 4 | － | und | 30 |  |  | 10，000 |  |  |
| 8 | ngint | 5 | 4 | hca | 40 |  | 1 Gnapl 1 | 1，000，000 |  |  |
| 3 | nënt | 6 | 4 | リプか ${ }^{4}$ | 50. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | dq\％ | 7 | \％ | IA $A^{5}$ | 60 |  |  |  |  |  |
| \％ |  | 8 | 2 | 笛 | 70 |  |  |  |  |  |
| \％ | Нム空 | 9 | T | ก4738 | 80 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | $\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{H} \mathbf{C}$ | 10 | 3 | Hm＇ | 90 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Compound numbers are put together thus： |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 634 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | cop hca | 29037 | 1948 |

Since the Ethiopian figures，like Roman figures，are not suitable for arithmetic，the European figures are now very widely known and used．But the Ethiopian figures are still found in places where no arithmetic is involved（in the dating of letters，numbering of pages etc．），and it is therefore important to know them．

Notice that the sign iused to indicate the end of a word is not used after figures．

## The Ordinal Numbers．

186．These are formed from the Cardinal Numbers by the addition of the suffix $(\ddot{\mathrm{a}})$ 穹 e．g．

1．For the feminine the Ge＇ez form $\hbar 7{ }^{2}+$ is sometimes used
2．In the compound numbers $11,21,31$ etc．$k 3 R^{-}$frequently becomes vier
3．Colloquially often $h ?$
4．Or そg＂か
5．Or heh
6．Or k3f ane
7．The letter， $\boldsymbol{i}$ is often used instead of the figure．
8．Or The
9．Or 1 K．
10．Old，or Bible，Amharic：औAfy
11．Ethiopian figures are not likely to be used for such high numbers．
12．Other words for＂first＂are：－



（b）$\omega+\overrightarrow{5}$ ．This is an adjective formed from $6 \boldsymbol{T}$（face，front，before）and therefore means＂fore－ most＂，＂former＂．It is the opposite of $\overline{\lambda k}$＂which means＂hindermost＂，＂last＂．Both are liable to prefix P．
 of monarchs：e．g．中gat Shen＂NA ，Haile Sellassie I．

13．In the titles of monarchs＂the second＂is rendered porqe（from the verb Rifo，repeat，I－A）e．g．


Fractions．
187．These are made，as in English，by placing a cardinal number before an ordinal number（but the ordinal is not in the plural as it is in English）： e．g．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ant Könt范 }
\end{aligned}
$$

> three-fifths
> seven-tenths

The following special fractional words are also used：－－

| ๆq゙9\％1 | Nh゙on 2 （a）half 3 |
| :---: | :---: |
| d．a | （a）third |
| 4 | （a）quarter |

But in arithmetic it is usual to use the regular forms：


Fractions are linked to the whole number with $h$ ，or its alternative +
 two（whole）and a sixth
 four and a half
 eleven and three quarters．
188．The word $\lambda$ 展（hand）is used in colloquial idiom to indicate a proportion or a fraction： e．g．hhrif ant he may Three parts（out of four）of his cattle are lost．


Multiples（＂Times＂etc．）．
189．The English＂times＂is rendered by 2it．time（in the singular）． K7R 2． H once U－NF ZH twice 0h7 2H three times hlow 2.16 four times ${ }^{4}$ etc．


190．The two nouns $\boldsymbol{h e x}^{\text {es }}$（lit，hand）and hrt（＂fold＂${ }^{5}$ ）are used in a manner somewhat similar to 2H．Pre－ ceded by the appropriate numeral，they both give the sense of＂m－fold＂，＂－－times as much＂，＂－－times as many＂，＂－－times as big＂．


Without a numeral hrf means＂double＂and can be used as a noun or adjective：but as a noun it may be preceded by $1-n \ddagger$ just as by the other numerals：


＂Of＂with Numerals．
191．＂Of＂is rendered by $h$ or + （lit．from）；the numeral，at the same time，taking the definite article：

Even when the noun with the prefixed $h$（or $t$ ）is not expressed，the definite article suffixed to the numer－ al will still convey the sense of＂of them＂（or＂of us＂，＂of you＂－－as the context demands）：

1．Or $7{ }^{\pi q} h$

3．While $\boldsymbol{q}^{7} 7 \mathrm{f}$ ，which can be a noun or an adjective，is used both numerically and quantitively，kith ， when it means＂half＂，is generally a noun and its use is chiefly with numbers，As an adjective it normally means＂equal＂．

4．When designating a number of literal＂times＂or＂occasions＂，zit is often reduced to the suffix－e：



Pï if hatoinf：nco iñc＝At that time I was not yet born．
5．The verb＂to fold＂is hत̈́c．（I－A）．

Instead of this definite article a possessive suffix may be used：
e．g．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { One of us will be made chief }{ }^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Distributive Numerals（＂Apiece＂，＂Each＂）。
192．A numeral is rendered distributive by being reduplicated－as is also the numeric interrogative n3t ：


How many each shall I give them？Give them two apiece．${ }^{3}$

2．These two suffixes（the definite article and possessive suffix）can be attached，with the same effect，
 e．g．
 many of them
htyt T中虾 a few of you

3．See also Sec． 227 on Distributive and Inclusive Pronouns．

## Personal Pronouns．

193．As the subject of a verb，the personal pronoun is inherent in the verb form，and is therefore dealt with in the sections on Verbs．Other forms of personal pronouns are：（A）Possessive Suffixes，（B）Object Suf－ fixes and（C）Independent Personal Pronouns．

## A．The Possessive Suffixes．

194 These，which are equivalent to the English possessive pronouns，are suffixed to the nouns which they modify．They are as follows：－

| －e | my |
| :---: | :---: |
| （1） p 12 | your（m） |
| －（1）${ }^{1}$ | your（f） |
| $7^{3}$ | your（pol） |
| －u4 | his，its |



195 These suffixes are attached to their nouns as follows（notice the modifications in spelling when the noun ends with a vowel：－－

| 大il？ | father | 1．70 | master |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 式t | my father | 2，740 | my master |
| kitu | your（m）father | 2，小1 | your（m）master |
| 大int | your（f）father | 7， $\boldsymbol{r} \times 1$ | your（f）master |
| ¢ 179 | your（pol）father | 2，小9 | your（pol）master |
| 大it | his，its father | 2，Fow－ | his，its master |
| hï $7{ }^{6}$ | her father | $2 \boldsymbol{j}$ | her master |
| kinder | our father | 3，嵒7 | our master |
|  | your（pl）father | 3，小－需い | your（pl）master |
|  | their（his，her pol）father |  | their（his，her pol）master |
| 8.10 | fowl | Mhe | cup |
| PRep | my fowl | A\％fa | my cup |
| 8 Cu | your（m）fowl | त4， | your（m）cup |
| Rrem | your（f）fowl | net | your（f）cup |
| RefP | your（pol）fowl | W\％${ }^{\text {\％}}$ | your（pol）cup |
|  | his，its fowl | AK，${ }^{\text {a }}$ | his，its cup |
| Red | her fowl | M4T | her cup |
| 20木年7 | our fowl |  | our cup |
|  | your（pl）fowl | 发大で | your（pl）cup |
| R0k\％ 9 | their（his，her pol）fowl | か入菏 | their（his，her pol）cup |

1．The $\ddot{i}$ ，shown in a bracket，is heard when the noun ends with a consonant：e．g．knïu ，your（m） father，pronounced abbatïh；$k \ddot{t}+6$ ，your（ $f$ ）father，pronounced abbatish．This shows a contrast with the corresponding suffixes of the Simple Perfect tense，which are pronounced with little or no $i$ before them：e．g．Ähcu，you（m）broke，pronounced säbbärh；nthcio，you（f）broke，pronounced säbbärsh．

2．$n$ is sometimes substituted for $v$ before an accusative 3 ，in which case it is not preceded by it
e．g．hiltht，your（m）father（accusative），pronounced abbatkïn．
3．In this，as well as in other 2nd person polite suffixes，the consonant wis hardiy perceptible：
e．g．反intq，your（pol）father，is pronounced abbat（u）o．
4．This is identical in form with the masculine definite article．
5．This is identical in form with the feminine definite article， $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$ ．
6．When the noun ends with a consonant the 4th form diphthong，if it exists for that letter，can be used： kift her father．For the diphthongs see the chart of Characters（Sec．4）．
7．Other spellings are：
8．Other spellings are：
9．Other spellings are：
10．Other spellings are：
11．Other spellings are：
12．Other spellings are：


Notice that all plural nouns end with a consonant，and so attach the possessive suffixes as shown for


B．The Object Suffixes．
196 These are the equivalent of the English objective personal pronouns，and are suffixed to the verbs of which they are the object（direct or indirect）．They are as follows：－－


| $-\mathrm{a}-\frac{4}{3}(-3)$ | her |
| :---: | :---: |
| －a 易u | you（pl） |
| －a | them（him，her pol） |

197 If the verb form ends with a vowel these suffixes are attached without complication（apart from the us－ ual union of like vowels and assimilation of the weaker vowel by the stronger ${ }^{1}$ ）：


| $34 \%$ | they told |
| :--- | :--- |
| $37 \pi^{3}$ | they told me |

tifu they told you（m）
37ヶ\％they told you（ f ）
Ginif（＋）he wanted you（pol）
Y74．9（7）they told you（pol）
3ifr－7 2 they told him，it
314.4 t 2 they told her
$3743^{3}$（ 3743 ）they told us
37 Hen 子u 3 they told you（pl）
sirn我家 they told them（him，her pol）
（him，her pol）

| ＋ | he having heard |
| :---: | :---: |
| 何禹気 | he having heard me |
| ¢ケ゚サ！ | he having heard you（m） |
| הリ゙アT | he having heard you（f） |
| 4\％゚¢P（7） | he having heard you（pol） |
| तfopt | he having heard him，it |
|  | he having heard her |
| APR＋（3） | he having heard us |
|  | he having heard you（pl） |
|  | he having heard them （him，her pol） |


|  | ask（f） <br> ask me |
| :---: | :---: |
| m苞中a． <br> の点中虏7 <br> mber（ -7 ） | ask him，it ask her ask us |
|  | ask them（him，her pol） |

198 If the verb form ends with a consonant（i．e．a 6th form）a＂cushion vowel＂must be inserted between it and the initial consonant of an object suffix． 9 This＂cushion vowel＂is $\ddot{a}$ ，except before the object suffixes $-v$ and－ $\boldsymbol{i}$ when it is $i .10$

1．For which see Sec． 13 on The Contraction of Adjacent Vowels．





7．Other spellings are：mp中虾，meqpit．

9．i．e．No＂cushion vowel＂is needed when the initial sound of the object suffix is，itself，a vowel． The object suffix $\sigma \cdot$ ，although it sounds like a vowel，$u$ ，is technically a consonant，$w$ ；and 50 requires a ＂cushion vowel＂．But the object suffix $-\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{\tau})$ which is pronounced very close to－o（ 7 ）with less consis－ tency，is sometimes given a＂cushion vowel＂and sometimes not．

10．But $-\boldsymbol{v}$ sometimes takes the cushion vowel $\ddot{\partial}$ ．

This means，in effect，that a final 6th form is changed to a 1 st form before the object suffixes 3 ，, $\mathbf{3}$ and（optionally）$p(\eta) ; 2$ while before $v$ and $\pi$ it remains 6 th form but is pronounced with its vowel（i）． The other object suffixes all begin with a vowel（a），and therefore require no＂cushion vowel＂before them．


Sndtan
Rmés 1
Smé中示
$\boldsymbol{R}$ の日大中
emedo．
Cméty
emëq ${ }^{2}$
Cmb祀U

let him ask me
let him ask you（m） let him ask you（f）
（ $\mathrm{Pm} \boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{q} \boldsymbol{q}(7)$ ）
let him ask you（pol）
let him ask him，it let him ask her let him ask us let him ask you（pl） let him ask them （him，her，pol）
m̈क 701
ตค゙ф＂
mp中\}P (7) (mpq3P(*))
mítsom m̈中g



we asked you（m）<br>we asked you（f）<br>we asked you（pol）<br>we asked him，it<br>we asked her<br>we asked you（pl） we asked them（him，her， pol）

199 The personal verb endings 7 （for 2 nd feminine in the Simple Perfect and Gerund）and（for 3rd fe－ minine in the Simple Perfect），being saturated consonants，are treated as having their own vowel，and do not，therefore，require a＂cushion vowel＂after them like other consppantal verb endings：


The same applies to an absorbent consonant which has become saturated by absorbing a suffixed i： e．g．$\quad 0-h \bar{f} \infty$ ，take（f）it（from $\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{f}$ ．）．But，inconsistently，it does not apply to a final radical which is


200 With compound tenses the object suffix is attached to the participle（the Gerund or the Contingent）and not to the auxiliary verb（ $k i n$ or $3 i l C$ ）．Those which are formed with ill（the Past Perfect and the Past Imperfect）present no complications because the auxiliary verb is written as a separate word：e．g．
 ＊ï．（the Present Perfect and the Present Imperfect）the participie and the auxiliary verb are knit together as one word（and in some cases，even，the final yowel of the former is＂overlapped＂by the initial vowel of
 to be disengaged．The object suffix is then inserted between them（with a＂cushion vowel＂as required），and the whole compound formation is again＂sealed up＂and treated as one word．





All persons of the two tenses formed with $k X$ take the object suffixes in this manner．But there is one irregularity：in the 3rd plural Present Imperfect the suffix（u）of the auxiliary verb is dropped when an ob－ ject suffix is inserted：
e．g．RAhf ．They will send（3rd plural Present Imperfect of $\boldsymbol{1 h}$ ；III－1）


1．But－v sometimes takes the＂cushion vowel＂ä，
2．When this final 6 th form is 0 （in the 2nd masculine Simple Perfect and Gerund），in order to supply the right vowel sound（ä：）for the＂cushion vowel＂，it must be changed not to but to the．g．métv you （ m ）asked，but mép＇fis you（m）asked us．

3．See Sec． 105 on Slightly Irregular Verbs．
4．Though elsewhere we have called this＂assimilation＂，we speak here of＂overlapping＂，because the vowel which had disappeared reappears as soon as the two words are disengaged．

5．Obviously since the suffixed $u$ of the Contingent has now reappeared，a second suffixed $u$ on the au－ xiliary verb is felt to be redundant．


Present Perfect Tense
I have written it． You（m）have examined her． You（f）have told us． He has chosen you（pl）． She has sold them． We have called you（m） You（pl）have kissed me． They have robbed you（f）．

201 The suffix ${ }^{\circ}$ ，whether used as a negative suffix or as a conjunction，is placed after an object suffix：
e．g．kAding 1 he did not give us

## Present Imperfect Tense



henfintano they will not kill them
and I finished it
202 An object suffix can be used even when the object has already been expressed as a noun or independent pronoun，provided that that object is definite．In such cases the object suffix is quite redundant，adding no－ thing to the sense，and yet the use is very common．


hloty hert $\}$ ，

203 Although either a direct or an indirect object can be expressed as an object suffix they cannot both be suffixed at once．Most commonly an object suffix is a direct object；but some verbs which tend to take both a direct and an indirect object（e．g．Añ，give；$\quad \boldsymbol{i n c}$ ，tell）generally use the object suffix for the indirect object，preferring even to use it redundantly for the indirect object，and to leave the direct object unexpres－ sed，rather than to use it for the latter：

204 With some verbs the objective sense of the object suffix is so indirect as to require the preposition
 him．${ }^{2}$

205 For the infixing of the prepositions $\cap$ and $n$ between the verb and the object suffix see Secs，248－251 under Prepositions．

C．The Independent Personal Pronouns．
206 Although，as we have seen，the personal pronouns are inherent in the verb forms，or attached to nouns and verbs as suffixes，yet there are occasions when they need to be expressed independently，i．e．as se－ parate words．The Independent Personal Pronouns，then，are as follows：－－

| \％ | I | $\boldsymbol{k c o s} 3$ | she |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 237 | you（m） | 入chatave 3,4 | he，she（pol） |
| 大72 | you（f） | \％ | we |
| hcosp ${ }^{3}$ | you（pol） | 8 87＋5，6 | you（pl） |
| Acho 3 | he，it | 23catr 3，5 | they 7 |

1．Notice that there is no difference in spelling between this and hanärga，we did not give． The object suffix，3，however，is doubled．This is not the only case where there may be confusion be－ tween an object suffix and the personal suffix of a verb form．

2．With lỉn＂be greater（I－A），it requires the preposition＂than＂：e。g．enAnča he is great－ er than $I$ ．

3．The $c$ is often omitted，in which case the adjacent $s$ is doubled in compensation；see Sec． 14 on The Assimilation of a Preceding by a Following Consonant．

4．This is really an old 3 rd person plural form（see footnote on＂they＂）．
5． $\boldsymbol{N B}^{\pi}$ is a plural prefix used with some pronouns．An alternative（literary）form is $\boldsymbol{h i n}^{\prime \prime}$ ．
6 Or 太今\％


207 These pronouns are used especially for emphasis and contrast: e.g. nqheriva I shall try.


When the direct object of a verb they take the accusative 3

208 They are also the form of personal pronoun used with prepositions: ${ }^{1}$

| e.g. Aks | or | A2 | to, for me |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OR $\mathrm{K}^{\prime}+$ | or | omg3t | to you |
|  | or | bcif 26 | with |

## 209 Prefixing the preposition P (of) results in an Independent Possessive Pronoun: <br> e.g. ith my box MTH PY 70-n The box is mine.

This Independent Possessive Pronoun takes the accusative 7 whether it stands before a noun or by itself:


It is sometimes given a definite article for emphasis
e.g. phom pir iave Where is mine?

## "Polite Forms"

210 These are the personal forms of the verb and the pronouns which are used in addressing someone (i.e. a 2 nd person), or with reference to someone (i.e. a 3 rd person), whose age or standing warrants respectful treatment. Though they are largely borrowed from the 3rd person plural they are exclusively singular in meaning, there being no special "polite forms" for plural use. They are summarized in the following table 2:~-

| Polite Form of: |  | 2nd Person Singular | 3rd Person Singular |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Verb ${ }^{3}$ | borrows 3rd person plural forms | borrows 3rd person plural forms |
| Pronoun | Possessive Suffix <br> Object Suffix <br> Indep. Pers. Pronoun | has its own form $p$ has its own form $\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathrm{t})$ has its own form 2 Ch" | borrows 3rd pers. plur, form: a foborrows 3rd pers. plur. form: a for borrows 3rd pers. plur. form: Xchīn- |

1. Except when the prepositions $\cap$ and 1 are infixed before object suffixes (see Secs. 248-250).
2. We do not here include the polite forms of the Demonstrative, for which see Sec. 211.
3. Not including 30*, which is not a true verb form and uses the object suffixes for its persons.

211

|  |  | Masculine |  |  | Feminine |  |  | Polite |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| This． | Nominative Accusative | $e_{e v y^{1}}^{1}$ | or | $\begin{aligned} & \ln ^{2}, 3 \\ & e_{5} \pi_{3}^{2} 2,4 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { or } \\ & \text { or } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { eq72,5 } \\ & e^{2}+3^{2} \end{aligned}$ |  |
| That． | Nominative Accusative | $\stackrel{\rho}{\rho \gamma}$ | or | P379 |  |  |  |  |


| These． | Nominative |  | or | $2,8$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Accusative | nhinu3 ${ }^{1}$ | or | \％ivs 2；8 |
| Those． | Nominative | 入ing ${ }^{1}$ | or | A |
|  | Accusative | 大位？${ }^{1}$ | or |  |

212 After prefixes（and this includes all prepositions）the masculine and feminine singular demonstratives become：－－
e．g．

| $\ddot{H . U}$ | this（m） |
| :---: | :---: |
| Hi\％ | this（f） |
| iif | that（m） |
| 京院 | that（f） |
| cause of this，therefore ke this one（ f ） <br> that man |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| ith that girl |  |

This construction supplies the words for＂here＂and＂there＂：－
ailu or $\lambda i \boldsymbol{i} . \boldsymbol{v}$ here（lit．at this）
ififs or hiifs there（lit．at that） 16
When the prefixed preposition is $\boldsymbol{\omega P}$（to）or hzf（like）the resultant form is sometimes shortened， thus：－－

| meïg | becomes | $00 \mathrm{~L}, \mathrm{v}$ | （to this，hither） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mREIS | becomes | 00 F 5 | （to that，thither） |
| k7filiv | becomes | 27， 0 | （like this） |
| h3Ritif | becomes | 237． 9 | （like that） |

1．The standard and more literary form．
2．Common in colloquial Amharic．
3．Generally pronounced yihe．
4．Other variations are：evis ，evif ，enist ．
5．Generally pronounced yichchi．
6．These＂Polite＂forms were originally plurals．They are used with reference to those whose age or standing warrants especially respectful treatment：e．g．h＇iv \％aqĭ̈ this old gentleman．


9．Or
10．Generally pronounced yachchi．
11．Or $\mathrm{z}^{2}$
12．Or h7\％$^{2}$


15．Notice that prepositional prefixes of more than one letter are not now written as separate words．
16．\＄hy and $\boldsymbol{i n f} f$ are used much more commonly for＂here＂and＂there＂，respectively，than nill v and oing．But the latter pair are often used instrumentally for＂by this（way）＂and＂by that（way）＂： e．g． Min． $\boldsymbol{v}$ ．7\％e．Let us go this way．

## But these shorter forms are not used when the demonstrative is adjectival（i，e．before a noun）：  <br> But h7filu h7C forn It is like this country．

213 A definite article is often suffixed to a demonstrative；like the English word＂same＂it makes backward reference to what has just been spoken of．The form of definite article used with all demonstratives，wheth－ er masculine，feminine or plural，is $-u$ ．

```
e.g.
```




```
と．sig h heitur hercal＝
\(30-800=\)
```



This same boy is to－day a great man．
This same woman became his wife．
Go and do likewise（lit．like this same）．
It is the same thing（lit．that same）．
They are the same ones（lit．these same）．${ }^{1}$

214．A demonstrative with the definite article attached is also used to point out something（or someone）that has been asked for or whose whereabouts has been under question． 2 In this use an object suffix 3 often takes the place of the definite article for the feminine singular demonstratives．

| e．g． | p＇no sixar or | S暂早 | Here it（he）is！ There she is！ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Here they are ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |

To these combined forms one can further add the infixed preposition $n$ with its attached object suffix：${ }^{3}$

| e．g． | g＇耳0－Äy | Here it is for you（m）！ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Here she is for you（f） |

Interrogative Pronouns．
215.

|  | Singular |  | Plural |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Nominative | Accusative | Nominative | Accusative |
| What Who 4 | ${ }_{09}^{90}{ }_{9}$ | $\begin{gathered} 9 \times 3 \\ 9.73 \end{gathered}$ | $\frac{903}{93}$ | $x^{903}$ |

Notice that while the 3 of $9^{03}$ is single，the 7 of $\operatorname{lig}^{-19}$ is potentially double．
Notice also that while 903 remains uninflected， $07 \%$ takes the suffix 3 in the accusative and the prefix $\lambda_{i}$ in the plural．
 and ${ }^{4 \%}$ by reduplicating the singular form（alone or with $\ddagger$ ，and）：

073073 or $077 \%$ ay？who（pl）

These reduplicate forms ask for a detailed or itemized answer：

Who（pl）came？Three school－children came．

Who were they？They were Werku，Bayyene and Zennebech．
 mean＂for nothing＂，＂just＂：e．g．h3Apmenñ He gave it to me for nothing；He just gave it to me．
2．Like the French＂Voici＂or＂Voila＂．
3．As otherwise used with verbs．
4．Or＂What＂with reference to namesie，g．aprit aly yor－？
What is your（f）name？phtryor hquz
io What is the name of the town？
5 In colloquial Amharic ays is often shortened to $\%$ ．

216．Another form for＂what＂is＂7ec 1 ，but this is only used with parts of the present tense of the verb ＂to be＂：

The $c$ of $\mathfrak{g o z e c}$ is generally dropped in which case the initial $n$ of the verb doubles in compensation and the two words are treated as one：


What is it？
How are you（pol）？（lit．like what are you？）${ }^{3}$

217．Both the masculine definite article and the possessive suffixes are sometimes found attached to $g^{0} \%$ ：
e．g．g゙3U3 TんĂふス̆u？What of yours are you（m）looking for？
218．Other Interrogative Pronouns are：


Indefinite Pronouns．
219．A sense of comprehensiveness，and thence indefiniteness，is imparted by the suffix－ 9 （sometimes－701），${ }^{5}$ which，used to form indefinite pronouns，corresponds to the English＂any－＂or＂－ever＂：


These indefinite pronouns are used chiefly with（a）negative verbs and（b）conditional verbs：


pivo hayenvo I did not go anywhere（＝I went nowhere）． 6

（b）
oqjor nam ：Whoever comes（lit．if anyone comes）．

220．Other indefinite pronouns with similar use are：－－




221．When，in English，an indefinite pronoun is used with inclusive sense，Amharic often uses a relative construction followed by $u \hat{i}$（all）：
e．g．

##  <br> 

Tell（m）me whatever（anything）you hear（lit．Tell me all that you hear）． They preach wherever they go（lit．They preach in all to which they go）．

1．This is probably a contraction of 973 IVE $=$ ，what thing．
2．＂What is it？＂can also be 23 sow．But this shorterform has come to be used more when the sense is＂What＇s the matter？＂＂What＇s wrong ？＂etc．

3．See Sec． 14 on the Assimilation of a Preceding by a Following Consonant
4．$n$＂\％is often used for＂how much＂in asking prices．
5．Used with $v \cdot K$ ，and numerals with the definite article，the sense is comprehensive rather than in－ definite．


6．Amharic possesses no negative pronouns（nobody，nothing，nowhere etc．）．These must，therefore． be rendered with an affirmative pronoun and a negative verb，as illustrated by these examples．


```
    The impersonal "something", "anything" is rendered by k3e. mac (lit. a thing).
e.g. K"e nar nf3 gmmFA: Somebody is knocking (at) the door.
```




223．The impersonal＂one＂，＂you＂，also，is rendered by $\boldsymbol{\lambda} 3 \mathrm{R}^{-}$nave or $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ；or sometimes by using the verb in the 3rd person plural（＂they＂）：


When one falls ill one＇s body gets weak． In the lowlands one（lit．they）wears thin clothing．

224．Other impersonal pronouns are：－－
K7h or Xhn （masc．）

|  $\begin{aligned} & 8777 \\ & 27+1 \end{aligned}$ | （fem．）so－and－so what＇s－its－name what＇s－his（her）－name |
| :---: | :---: |

The Emphatic and Reflexive Pronoun．
225．The English＂self＂，in both emphatic and reflexive ${ }^{2}$ uses，is rendered by 6n（lit．head）．The appro－ priate object suffix is attached，and，in reflexive use，the accusative 3 is added．

4037 7安 $7 \quad$ She killed herself（reflexive use）．
In the emphatic use，ln with the preposition P prefixed renders＂own＂：

The Reciprocal Pronoun．
226．The English＂each other＂is rendered by XCn ICn＋Possessive Suffix．This is generally used to－ gether with a reciprocal verb． 4
e．g．

hcin nncofar tosfor：They abused each other．
But as the reciprocal verb is quite adequate by itself to give reciprocal sense，the reciprocal pronoun， hch nch is not very commonly used in speech．

Distributive and Inclusive Pronouns．
227．The English＂each＂and＂every＂are rendered（a）by the device of repetition， 5 and（b）by prefixing 末户̆ and suffixing（generally，except with numbers）the definite article or a possessive suffix．In（a）the em－ phasis is more distributive，as it is with＂each＂while with（b）the emphasis is more inclusive，as it is with ＂every＂．But this distinction cannot always be made．




1．The word＂else＂，used with an impersonal pronoun etc．，is rendered by th（other）：
e．g．$\quad$ nn ho－7ntit：$\quad$ Someone else has gone in．
sh hic：$\lambda$ eliphg：：Nothing else will do．
But notice that the possessive＂someone else＇s＂is often rendered pion－alone：

2．With some verbs reflexive sense is conveyed by the Passive form，see Sec． 85.
3．Another way of rendering＂own＂is an idiomatic use of the relative of the verb $7 \boldsymbol{H}$（rule，buy）：e．g．

e．g．Pクilla bor：It is my own．
4．For reciprocal verbs see Sec． 97 （1）under Changed Stem Forms．
5．See also Sec． 192 on Distributive Numerals．This device of repetition，or reduplication，is further employed to give a sense of continuity，like the English＂along＂：

 nj3r3str each（one）of us．




## He brings vegetables every day．

He receives his money every three days．
They returned each to his house（lit．to each of their houses）． 1,2
 preposition assimilates the $h$（see examples above）．

The Relative Pronoun．
228．The relative pronoun（who，which，that）is the prefix $P$ ，which must be attached either to a Simple Perfect or to a Contingent form．

The tenses used by relative verbs are indicated in the Limited Tense Scheme chart，which should be studied（Sec．25）．From this chart it will be seen that there is a range of four possible tenses（the Simple Perfect，the Simple Imperfect，the Past Perfect and the Past Imperfect）；but that the Simple Perfect can act for all Perfect tenses，and the Simple Imperfect for all Imperfect tenses．In practice it is，in fact， these two simple tenses which are generally employed－except occasionally when one of the compound tenses is required for the sake of greater exactness．
（a）The relative pronoun with the Simple Perfect（using the verb fin，III－3，as a pattern），

| PCatu＊ | （ $n$－ |
| :---: | :---: |
| PCPTU | （ $n$ ） |
| prept |  |
| $\mathrm{PCO} \mathrm{m}_{6}$ |  |
| PCEn ${ }^{\text {P }}$ |  |
| Plitz | （3） |
|  |  |
| PCAR |  | I who ran，have run，etc． you（m）who ran，have run，etc． you（f）who ran，have run，etc． he who，it which ran，has run，etc． she who ran，has run，etc． we who ran，have run，etc． you（ pl ）who ran，have run，etc． they who，which，ran，have run，etc．

（b）The relative pronoun with the Simple Imperfect or Contingent（using the verb Rïp ，I－B，as a pattern）．
When the relative pronoun $p$ is prefixed to a Contingent a＂buffer＂consonant $\ddot{g}$ is placed between it and the personal prefixes．Notice how this $\%$ unites with the latter．

| e．g． | pgoqÄR <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> คプギRÄค <br>  |
| :---: | :---: |

I who pray，am praying etc． you（ m ）who pray，are praying etc． you（f）who pray，are praying etc． he who prays，is praying etc． she who prays，is praying etc． we who pray，are praying etc． you（pl）who pray，are praying etc． they who pray，are praying etc．

Since the two simple tenses act as well for the compound tenses，it is usually the main verb，with its wider range of tenses which indicates the time（past，present，future）；failing which the general context should make it clear：

| e．g． |  | She brought（near）food which had got cold． We do not want food which has got cold． I saw children who were reading． Are there any children who read？ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

1．خ $\ddot{\boldsymbol{r}}$ can also be used with relative verbs；in which case，like a preposition，it assimilates the re－ lative pronoun $?$ ．

nझálit everywhere－lit．in every（place）in which it is．
 ＂each＂by itself＂etc．：

They sat down separately，each by himself．

On the occasions when the compound tenses are used，the relative pronoun must be prefixed to the au－ xiliary verb silc（a Simple Perfect form），never to the participle： 1
e．g．

they who had died（Past Perfect）
you（ m ）who were sorrowing（Past Imperfect）．

229．In the negative，relative verbs，not being main verbs，do not take the suffix $g^{2} 2$ ．The relative pro－ noun $P$ and，with the Contingent，the＂buffer＂$\overline{j p}$ precede the negative prefix $h A$ ，and unite with it，as shown by the following examples：
（a）The relative prono
SACPTV
SACPTi
PACant
PACMT
SACPT3．
PAR：M第
SACR
（h．）
（h）
negative Simple Perfect．

> I who did not run, have not run, etc.
> you (m) who did not run, have not run, etc.
> you (f) who did not run, have not run, etc.
> he who, it which, did not run, has not run, etc.
> she who did not run, has not run, etc.
> we who did not run, have not run, etc.
> you (pl) who did not run, have not run, etc.
> they who, which, did not run, have not run, etc.
（b）The relative pronoun with the negative Simple Imperfect（or Contingent）．
P＂MARAR
pä゙羊Räp
pompana．
pagex
payxár

p

I who do not pray，am not praying，etc．
you（ m ）who do not pray，are not praying，etc．
you（f）who do not pray，are not praying，etc．
he who does not pray，is not praying，etc．
she who does not pray，is not praying，etc．
we who do not pray，are not praying，etc．
you（ pl ）who do not pray，are not praying，etc．
they who do not pray，are not praying，etc．
230．A relative clause is adjectival．It therefore occupies the position of an adjective，i．e．immediately before the noun which it modifies ${ }^{3}$（notice that this is the reverse of the English order）：

Like an ordinary adjective，also，a relative clause can stand alone and act as a noun：
e．g．great ones（an ordinary adjective standing as a noun）．

231．Like an ordinary adjective，again，a relative clause can take a definite article，and attracts it from the nown which it modifies．But here is a difference：the definite article used with relatives is identical in form，whether masculine，feminine or plural，with the 3 rd person masculine singular object suffix（comp－ lete with its＂cushion vowel＂），i．e．or +4 （after $u$ and 0 ）． 5


When the compound tenses are used，as it is the auxiliary verb（ ilil ）which takes the relative pronoun， so also it is the auxiliary verb which takes the definite article：e．g．，the
 AgTCe a girl who was reading it．${ }^{7}$

1．In this construction the auxiliary sï\＆does not so often drop its personal suffixes as at other times．
2．See Sec． 117 （Rule 1）under The Formation of Negatives．
3．But，like an ordinary adjective，it follows an independent pronoun to which it stands in apposition： e．g．$\quad$ iz htar．I the bad one．is pmint．a．I the one who does wrong．

4．Occasionally $\neq$ is used instead of $\dot{t}: e_{0} g$ ．Pilith or Plilt ，they who entered．
5．For the obiect suffixes and their＂cushion vowels＂see Secs．196－199．
 with relative verbs．

7．An exception is the occasional suffixing of $\overline{0} 7$ to the auxiliary verb instead of to the participle：


Naturally when a relative verb has, thus, a definite article suffixed, it will also take the accusative if the following noun, or the relative clause itself, is the direct object of another verb;

e.g. prinapary af ghian<br>

He will help the boy who prays.
He will not help the ones who do not pray.
232. Again like an ordinary adjective, a relative takes the preposition governing its following noun. In this case, however, the relative pronoun $f$ is assimilated by the preposition (just as the possessive $f$ is as. similated by another preposition). This disappearance of $p$ is not so serious when the verb is a Contingent, because the "buffer" $F$ is still present to reveal a relative construction; but with the Simple Perfect it results in a "hidden relative", i.e. one whose presence can only be understood from the context or the general structure of the sentence.


for the soldiers who will die
with the soldiers who have died (a "hidden relative"). ${ }^{1}$
In cases when the relative clause contains more than just the relative verb (with its prefixes and suffixes), the preposition is, inconsistently, still prefixed to the relative verb and not placed at the beginning of the clause, in spite of the fact that the "adjective" consists in the whole clause ${ }^{2}$
e.g. nhcs acit nappt ajiget about the soldiers who died in the Korean war.
233. The relative pronoun, $p$, remains the same ( $\mathrm{i}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{o}}$ is uninflected) whatever its case. While this makes for simplicity, it does not always make for clarity; because, with no inflexion to tell him whether $P$ is in the nominative, accusative, dative etc., the student may have difficulty in finding the right translation for it. Its meaning, in fact, can only be discovered from the wording of the sentence or from the context as a whole. This is illustrated in the following examples, which show how the one uninflected must be translated in various different ways according as its context demands (in this case without even the verb form to which it is prefixed changing):--

the boy 3 who told her the news (the relative pronoun "who" is the subject of the relative verb, i.e. in the nominative case).

the news ${ }^{3}$ which the boy told her (the relative pronoun "which" is the object of the relative verb, $i_{0} e$. in the accusative case).
the woman ${ }^{3}$ to whom he told the news (the relative pronoun "whom" is the indirect object of the relative verb, i. e. in the dative case).

Ag phitat at
the woman ${ }^{3}$ whose child told her (the relative pronoun "whose" is possessive, $\mathrm{i}_{.} \mathrm{e}$. in the genitive case).
234. Notice that, in the translations of the above examples, the definite article "the" appears each time, although in the Amharic the relative verb does not have a definite article but an object suffix ( a 7). The fact is that, except with the compound tenses, there is no room for both object suffix and definite article together; ${ }^{4}$ so that when the former is present the sense of the latter, if required by the context, just has to be

1. Before the Simple Perfect prepositional prefixes of more than one letter tend, as usual, to be written as separate words; before the Contingent this is less common. Either way, however, they behave as prefixes and assimilate the relative $P$.
e.g. in pqpot $\rightarrow$ in qrot(about those who died).
2. An exception is found in the common idiomatic phrases $23979 \%$, what kind of, and 838. one like this. The following question and answer illustrate their use:
Q. 038.7 $\boldsymbol{\rho} \mathrm{K}$

With what kind of pen do you write? With one like this.
Another exception is when the relative verb is preceded by a numeral:
e.g. In Ant palinctrica He spoke about three things which had been lost.
3. Since the Amharic order of relative and noun is the reverse of the English order, a great help towards finding the right translation is to take the noun which, in Amharic, follows the relative verb, and place it at the beginning in the English.
4. Actually they are sometimes used together in the northern dialects:
e.g. Pitint afe the boy who told her
pyotyeit mine the road by which we shall go.
But the student should not regard such uses as normal.
understood. A definite sense can, indeed, generally be assumed from the presence of an object suffix; and if, on the contrary, a specifically indefinite sense needs to be expressed, the indefinite article ( $\mathrm{h} 3 \mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{F}}$ ), or some other word indicating indefiniteness, will probably be added:
e.g. h3e mam- phith Af: a boy who told her the news.

Notice, further, in example (iii), that while the English has a definite article (with "woman") where the Amharic has none, the Amharic has the object suffix $a *$ where the English does not have the equivalent "her". In other words the Amharic object suffix a 4 is, apparently, standing for the English definite article "the". This seeming confusion between the object suffix and the definite article is quite a feature of the Amharic relative construction. It is natural enough that there should be confusion when the object suffix is the 3 rd masculine singular, as its form is then identical with that of the definite article ( $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{g} . \mathrm{p} 84 . \mathrm{i}$ d97 might mean "people who wrote it" or "the people who wrote"). But we find that the other 3rd person object suffixes (feminine and plural) also are frequently used in place of the definite article. Whenever, in fact, the relative verb has a definite object, direct or indirect, it is normal, if not obligatory, to use an object suffix instead of a definite article:
e. g. poithänor n. $\boldsymbol{7} \quad$ the woman who is seeking (there is no object and so an object suffix cannot be used; $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ - is the definite article).

the woman who is looking for the girl ("the girl" is the direct object; the object suffix a * therefore is used).
 a Far, therefore is used)。

Philcy A\% the woman whom you told ("whom" is the direct object; the object suffix a. $\boldsymbol{7}$ therefore, is used).

An object suffix, when the sense is definite, takes the accusative $\geqslant$ just like the definite article:
 I called the child who told her.
235. When, in English, the relative pronoun is governed by a preposition (e.g. to whom, with which, etc.) in Amharic the preposition is not prefixed to the relative pronoun itself, but to a corresponding personal pronoun. If the prepositional sense is such as can be supplied by either of the infixed prepositions, if or $\overline{\mathrm{n}}, 1$ this personal pronoun can be the object suffix:

This is the servant girl for whom we bought a dress.
 The day on which they arrived was Monday.
 My servant has swept the room in which I sleep.

The country to which you ( pl ) are journeying is called Heaven. I don't know the matter about which he (pol) spoke.

But if a preposition other than the infixed $\bar{n}$ or $\ddot{X}$ is needed instead of the object suffix the independent personal pronoun is used; or, alternatively, the appropriate possessive suffix can be attached to the noun corresponding to the preposition. ${ }^{2}$

( n ) Кm7
The woman beside whom I sat is my sister.
The possessive suffix is also commonly employed to supply the sense of the preposition "of", i. $e_{\text {。 }}$ when the relative pronoun is in the genitive case--"of which", "of whom", "whose" (this is actually the same construction as in the last example):

But frequently an infixed $n$ or $\boldsymbol{n}$ is also used, adding to the possessive sense a sense of advantage or disadvantage:

236. In many sentences containing relative clauses we find that there are two prepositions, and as the English and Amharic constructions are no different, the process of translating from English into Amharic is

1. For the meanings of the infixed $\ddot{i}$ and $\ddot{n}$ see Sec. 250 , under Prepositions.
2. Where such a noun exists this is preferable. For these nouns see Secs. 246 (under Prepositions) and 254 (under Adverbs).
3. See also example (iv) in Sec. 233 (above).
apt to be confusing．However，one must simply bear in mind that the preposition which governs the noun has to be prefixed to the relative verb，as described in Sec．232；while the one which in English governs the relative pronoun has to be treated as in Sec． 235 （above），and is，in fact，most commonly rendered by the infixed n or A before an object suffix：
e．g．He（pol）expelled them from the land on which they were living．

Let us go to－day to the place to which we did not go yesterday．

I cannot wait until the hour at which you（pl）eat lunch．

I have not heard anything about the prisoners for whom I wrote．

## 

She is not seen with her neighbors amongst whom she lives．


237．In colloquial Amharicit is very common to place an emphasised word or phrase before the verb＂to be＂ and to add a relative after it． 1 In quick speech the $\boldsymbol{p} \bar{T}$ of a relative contingent is generally reduced to $\lambda \ddot{\boldsymbol{p}}$ on such occasions．



It is（1it．they are）my brothers who sent it．


Where is it that it is？（i．e．Where is it？）

Where is it that you（pl）are going？
Who（lit．Whom）is it that you（pol）want？

238．The relative clause is a favourite in Amharic speech and is often used where English would prefer a simpler construction（as in the case of some of the above examples）．The relative pronoun and verb must never be neglected or dropped out，as so frequently they are in English：

| e．g． | P\＄6A7w 9e3t 4\％3a | ch） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | AKA． 18 |  |

239．The relative clause，being adjectival，is often used where English would employ an ordinary adjective or an adjectival past participle：
e．g．pinnin h3amitron wood（lit．wood which has rotted）
paín fobr ripe fruit（lit．fruit which has ripened）
pt中ed ansua a tornhandkerchief（lit．a handkerchief which has been torn）
Pa゙ど気等 lost sheep（lit．sheep which have got lost）
240．Owing to the assimilation of the relative pronoun $\rho$ by the preceding preposition，a relative construc－ tion is sometimes，in itself，indistinguishable from a subordinating conjunction construction．But the rest of the sentence will normally make the meaning plain：



Have you（ m ）heard about the lion which he killed？（a preposi－ tion with a relative construction）．
He was very proud because he had killed the lion（a subordinating conjunction construction）．

1．See Sec．273，with footnote，under Sentence Order．

## A. Simple Prepositions.

241. These all end with a (with the exception of $k$ ). They are prefixed to nouns, pronouns and adjectives. If the word to which they are prefixed begins with the vowel a the $\ddot{a}$ of the preposition may be assimilated by the stronger vowel. Similarly if the word begins with the vowel 1 this may be assimilated by the stronger - But these contractions are optional. 1

 words. 2 But this is just a spelling preference and does not alter the fact that they have the nature of prefixes just like the shorter prepositions, as is shown by their contraction with following words:


Notice that the word governed by a preposition retains its nominative form, unlike the English where it becomes accusative: e.g. A (h)\& for me.

The Simple Prepositions are:--

1. (This has two fundamental senses:
(a) As the sign of the Locative Case it indicates "place where", also "time when"; and is translated: at, on, in. 3,4

When used of 'place" (but not "time") it has an alternative $\lambda$.


hbt pKgr
幺inu 3on:


It is not in the house. It is here (lit, at this). We got in at night.
(b) As the sign of the Instrumental Case it indicates the instrument, means, or way; and is translated: with, by, by means of, through.


In regard to the preposition used, Amharic does not distinguish between an instrument and an agent. The Instrumental $\cap$, therefore, is also used to indicate an agent:
e.g. $n 77 w=+\pi b_{0}=$ It was written by the king.
2. $n$ This is the sign of the Dative Case (i.e. it indicates the indirect object of the verb), and is translated: to (of the indirect object), for.

n3therdith n I will work for you.
3. $n$ (or + ). This is the sign of the Ablative Case, and is translated: from, of (when synonymous with "from").
e.g. ny
nร̆ 97 Rypa?
Who of ( = from) us will go?
t-flit fwct: : It is made (lit. has been made) of (= from) iron.

1. See Sec. 13 (a) under the Contraction of Adjacent Vowels.
2. Except nnt it and $\lambda \boldsymbol{A n} h^{\prime \prime}$.

3. When indicating "place where", "on" and "in" are more usually rendered by the compound prepositions $n-\lambda 6$ and $n$-an respectively.

It is also the preposition of comparison：than．
e．g．
AKo hmaf eigina：
The wide one is better than the narrow one．
In literary Amharic it also has a locative use identical with that of（for＂place where＂but not for ＂time when＂）：
e．g．
hang It is in the bedroom．${ }^{1}$

4．P This is the sign of the Genitive（or Possessive）Case，and is translated：of，－－－－＇s． e．g．PKThcemat

5．$\omega g$ This indicates direction，and is translated：to，towards．${ }^{4}$
$\lambda$ is sometimes substituted for $\Omega \&$（but not so commonly as it is for $\boldsymbol{n}$ ；see above）．
e．g．

 He ran to school． They looked towards the mountains． Come（m）here（lit．to this）．

6．In This has two fundamental senses：
（a）It indicates cause，and is translated：for the sake of，because of．
e．g．

All my trouble is for the sake of my mother．

（b）It indicates subject matter，and is translated：about，concerning，on the subject of．
 She wrote about the war．
He（pol）spoke on the subject of Faith．
7．$\lambda 7$ ．This indicates similarity or accord，and is translated：like，according to．

He walks like an old man．

According to the rumor they are arriving tomorrow．

1．A further use of $h$ is to render＂in＂when division into two or more parts is described： e．g．hu•AT $+\Phi$ なी：It was torn in two．

2．This is as the second of the two English translations given above（the servant＇s wife）；with which the Amharic further agrees in dropping the definite article from the second noun（aqit）and retaining only the one with the possessive noun（ $k$ Thinf ）．This is not a case of the usual transference of the definite article from the noun to a preceding adjective，for the definite article truly belongs to Kifinc and not to ant（as is clear in this case from its being masculine）．The second noun aqd，then，has simply lost its definite article，though the definite sense is still understood；and this is the normal when is used．In some cases，however，when the possessive noun has no definite article of its own，it does take the definite article belonging to the second noun：
e．g．p川なar－गHM $\quad$ the newspaper of to－day（i．e．to－day＇s newspaper）；

3．As with ordinary adjectives，if the following noun is the direct object of a verb the accusative 3 is suffixed where there is a definite article or a possessive suffix：


phore：And 3 nantua I put on my Sunday clothes．
4． $\boldsymbol{\sigma R}$ like the locative n ，is apt to be omitted before place names etc．：


5．Notice that in is not so often used to mean＂because of＂when looking backward to a past cause（ex－ cept in the common phrase niniv，because of this）．In such cases one of the compound prepositions，$h$－ ptsy（as a result of）or $n$ ghist（by reason of），will probably be preferable：


8．In（or $k n$ ）This indicates negation， 1 and is translated：without，except．


9．スinh（or Ant ），optionally compounded with e＜th This is used（a）of Time，and（b）of Distance：
（a）For Time it is translated：until，up to，by．
e．g． Ahh aqy fich mild 3 ：

We waited until evening．
They will finish by twelve o＇clock．
（b）For Distance it is translated：as far as，up to，to．

Figuratively it can also mean＂including＂：
e．g．vito anin inh AgT：All came，including the children．
10．Ant This is generally used with nouns of direction，and is translated：on the－－－－side．
e．g．$\quad$ an＋b．t on the front side natin $\quad$ on the rear side ni＋的 $\quad$ on the right hand side ni $+7 \%$ on the left hand side
 These forms are really $h(+)$ and $\lambda i n(\lambda A+$ ）joined to the plural prefix $N \bar{H}$ ．They therefore indicate plurality（i．e．something added to something else），and are translated：along with，together with．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e.g. hiv93中 } 1 n 7: \text { can also be translated: including. } \\
& \text { B. Compound Prepositions. } \\
& \text { She went in together with her infant. } \\
& \text { Be } \quad \text { We have bought the land along with (i }
\end{aligned}
$$

242．These consist of one of the simple prepositions，generally $\mathrm{fl}^{2}$ or $h^{3}$ ，and another word following the noun（or pronoun）．The following selection includes the most common：


1．For the use of $h n$ with the Infinitive see Sec． 117 under the Formation of Negatives．
2．$\lambda$ can still replace $\cap$ when＂place where＂is indicated，
3．In some compound prepositions $i$ and $h$ are more or less interchangeable．But，generally，their fundamental meanings afford some guide as to which should be used：while the locative indicates location， and therefore proximity or contact，with $h$（from）there is an inherent sense of separation．

4．Occasionally＂against＂．
5．While $\mathrm{h}-32$（ $工 \boldsymbol{C}$ ）is＂with＂of association generally，0－H38，is＂with＂of association in a more specifically locative sense．Thus，for example，while nicit T means＂with them＂without，ne－ cessarily，any reference to location，nicich H3P＂means＂with them＂in the sense of＂located with them＂． But neither of these two prepositions must be used for the instrumental＂with＂，which is $\boldsymbol{n}$ ；see Sec． 241 （1．b）．

6．This preposition is sometimes loosely used for＂near＂．
7．Or chha（see Sec． 16 on Interchangeable Sounds）．
8．More literally＂in the middle of＂：e．g．nem37\％avitia ，in the middle of the road．
9．Sometimes also nit＋C or $n+\$ C$ ．
 house is on the Palace side，in the Palace direction．

```
23. n-2H
24. {-19%h3!9
e.g. n\T% m.\{
hm<k,Hor ne
hHG:F InE
```



```
hHong鉒 2c
กร゙士 km7\
```



at the time of by reason of
inside the box upon the table above the trees
in front of the curtain with my relatives beside her mother between the pit and the fence

He died instead of us．

25．$n-1 \varphi+4$
26．$n$－19fe
as a result of 1 ever since，since，for 2

hifp ontu
around our compound since that
nanounsab ct nct opposite the door
n $\omega$ OHH 09 g $\quad$ on the far side of the river
 （ $=$ through）the market．

I knew him since my
childhood．
久苗中心音 a
 wG大保：for two months．

243．In order to indicate＂motion to＂or direction，the locative $\boldsymbol{n}$ of a compound preposition may be replaced by $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ．Likewise to indicate＂motion from＂it may be replaced by $h$ ．

```
e.g.
```




It was on top of the cupboard．
I got up on top of the cupboard．
I got down from on top of the cupboard．${ }^{3}$
244．When one prepositional prefix is placed before another it is apt to assimilate（＂swallow＂）it：${ }^{4}$

quarter to four

The preposition which is most usually assimilated is the possessive $P$ ，since other prepositions fre－ quently haveto beadded before posessive phrases，This has the result that when another preposition appears alone before a noun（or pronoun），the sentence will often make no sense unless an invisible（i．e．assimil－
 （We went to the shop of the merchant）．It is quite normal，even for one $p$ to be assimilated by an－ other $P$ ；and in this way more than one $P$ may disappear in the same sentence：
e.g. py,ifoo- ikp. the shop of the merchant

245．The assimilation of $P$ by another preposition explains the construction of most of the compound pre－ positions：


the time of the war
at the time of the war
Thus we arrive at a compound preposition： $0-2 H$ ，at the time of．
246．In this way we find that the majority of words used with $n$ or $h$ to form compound prepositions have an independent use as nouns．Most important amongst them are a group of noun－adverbs denoting position （for which see Sec．254）．These may be given personal force by means of possessive suffixes，the result－ ing form being the equivalent of the corresponding preposition with a personal pronoun：


 other：



2．＂For＂with reference to past time only（see example）．
3．These substitutions of $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \ell$ and $h$ for $a$ may be regarded as cases of the assimilation of one pre－ position by another；for which see next paragraph（Sec．244）．

4．But not always；$n$ ，for instance，often stands before $n$ or $\sigma \mathscr{R}$ without assimilating it：
e．g．hnot kur pefina：It is better now than before．

248. While, in English, any appropriate preposition may be placed between a verb and the following objective pronoun (e.g. he worked for me, with me, against me, above me, beside me, etc.), in Amharic the only two prepositions which can be treated thus, i.e. placed between a verb and the object suffix, are 0 and $n$. Since verb and object suffix are treated as one word these prepositions are inserted as infixes between them. In this position their consonant is always doubled, and they combine with the object suffixes to form the following units:-


These combined units are attached to their verbs in the same way as simple object suffixes, except that their "cushion vowel" is always i":

| e.g. fullat | he makes it; |  | he works with |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 774 | tell me; | 77CÅ | tell for me. |

249. Since only $n$ and $a$ can be used with object suffixes, for other prepositions one must resort to the independent personal pronoun, even when no emphasis is required:

This, however, is not necessary as often as might be imagined, because the infixed $n$ and $n$ between them cover a remarkably wide range of meanings. $n$, especially, has a much wider scope when infixed than it has as an ordinary prefixed preposition.
250. Possible meanings of the infixed $n$ and $n$ may be summarized as follows:-

$$
\text { 1. } \quad \text { n }
$$

(a) The usual meanings of the ordinary prefixed preposition:-Locative: at, on, in.
Instrumental: with, by, by means of, through.

24n-ït" I wrote with it.
(b) Against, to the disadvantage of.

This use of $n$ often has no equivalent in normal English (see second example below).

The judge gave judgement against her.
Our child has died (to our disadvantage).

It can generally be assumed that some such sense is intended when the object of the preposition is a living person--the other uses being more for "things":

He arose against him (a living person).
He got up on it, or by means of it (a "thing").
Akin to this idea of disadvantage is the sense of obligation which is often expressed by the infixed $\boldsymbol{n}$ when used with the verbs $k \hat{i}$ and hilc :

```
e.g. angaA SNifun You must pay.
```


(c) $n$, when infixed, acts for a number of other prepositions which themselves cannot be infixed. These are its own compounds $n-\infty-n T$, inside, and $n-n \in$, upon; ${ }^{2}$ and also -- but chiefly with relative verbs -- in, about; ${ }^{3} \omega \rho$, to; and $h$, from (this last only with relative verbs).

1. This, in fact, is the ordinary way of translating "must" and "had to".
2. The simple preposition I at any rate includes "in" and "on" amongst its meanings.
3. But not in, for the sake of, because of.
e.g.

```
M程cat:
```





Much gold was found inside it. ( $\mathbf{n}=\mathbf{n}-\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{n T}$ )
Add another on top of it. $\quad(\Omega=\pi-n \rho)$
Think about it.
( $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}=\mathbf{n}=\mathbf{n}$ )
The province to which we are going is far. $\quad(\mathbf{n}=\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{f})$
I have not seen the town from which she came. ( $n^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{n}$ )

Notice that it is the context, and more particularly, the sense of the verb, which determines the correct translation of $\mathbf{n}$.
2. $n$
(a) The usual meanings of the ordinary prefixed preposition:-to (of the indirect object), for.

(b) In favour of, to the advantage of. This use of $n$ often has no equivalent in normal English (see second example below).

## e.g. R

The judge gave judgement in his favour.

251. A, as the sign of the dative case, is always used before the indirect object of a verb, when this is a noun or an independent pronoun. But, when the indirect object is an object suffix, confusion may arise; for, while with some verbs 1 must still be used (infixed), with many others the object suffix alone will carry the dative sense. 1

What did he reply to the woman? ( A used with a noun).
What did he reply to her? (infixed $\boldsymbol{n}$ used with object suffix).

|  <br>  | He lent money to his sister ( a used with a noun) He lent money to her (object suffix alone). |
| :---: | :---: |

Most verbs which habitually take an indirect object tend to use an object suffix alone for it (i, e. without the infixed $n$ ). Such are: तăn, give (II-2-A); fîc , tell (I-A); $\hbar \wedge$, say (Irreg. III-1); anhin , seem

 pay (1-A).

If the infixed $n$ is ever used with such verbs as these it will probably mean "for" rather than "to": e.g. hániz he paid (to) me; hánáz he paid for me.

Amongst the verbs which normally use the infixed $n$ for their indirect object are: oonin , return, reply (I-B); RL, write (III-1); \&ंश $\Omega$, permit (I-A). 2

1. Rather similarly in English some verbs must have "to" before the objective pronoun, while others can use the objective pronoun alone: e.g. "he spoke to me", "he told me".
2. Since it also means "for", it might appear that $A$ ' is infixed to express the dative "to" only with those verbs whose sense implies some advantage to the indirect object. But while it is true that verbs whose sense involves no advantage at all do not generally infix $n$ for their dative ( $\mathrm{e} . \mathrm{g} . \boldsymbol{q} \mathrm{i}$, wint ), there are other verbs whose sense does imply advantage which are also used without n (e.g. än , trn ).

## The Adverb

A．Ordinary Adverbs

## Primitive Forms

252．The following are common：－－


## Compounded Forms

253．Most of these are combinations of a preposition and some other word，and are really，therefore，short adverbial phrases．The following are common：－

| 大ï．u 8 | here | Kailiv |  | therefore |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 用fig 9 | there |  |  | by himself |
| 83875 | again 10 |  |  | where？whither？ |
| U－大゙2H | always 11 |  | 17 |  |
| 大397e 7．th 12 | sometimes 14 |  |  | how？ 18 |
|  | everywhere ${ }^{14}$ |  |  |  |
| nk3e．nj 13 | somewhere | ลn\％o3 |  | why？ |

## Noun－Adverbs of Position

254．These are words which are used both as nouns and adverbs to describe place or time：${ }^{19}$


1．Or nfon
2．＂Not yet＂when standing by itself as the answer to a question is 19 30＊（lit．it is still）．But the verb $3 \pi^{\circ}$ ，often takes one of the other personal forms，as appropriate to its context：
e．g．Q．antin？Has she finished？Not yet．
3．Words denoting days are used both as nouns and adverbs．See also the names of the days of the week（Sec．354）

5．This follows the noun or the pronoun to which it applies：

6．Like the English＂only＂， n事 $^{2}$ also has a more or less conjunctival use：

7．Also spelt po it must sometimes be translated＂what＂；e．g．np市 nïn A On what side？
8．Less commonly nỉi，（see Sec． 212 under Demonstratives）．
9．Less commonly niif（see Sec． 212 under Demonstratives）．
10．Other translations of＂again＂are un⿻丷木斤＂（especially with negative verbs）and eqfo（Sec．258）．
11．Other translations of＂always＂are në゙2нar，HOTC．
12．Often shortened to $\hbar 387 \mathrm{~m}_{\mathrm{w}}$ ．
13．In such phrases the words $n \neq$ and hqd（both meaning＂place＂）are interchangeable．
14．Other translations of＂everywhere＂are：nழ̈
15．The appropriate possessive suffix is used：An和＂，by myself，etc．
16．This is a contraction of os et．．
17．This is a contraction of h38 pit．
18．When the reference is to an action rather than to a state，$\lambda 3 \rho_{0} 7$ and $\lambda 38 g^{\circ} \%$ are frequently com－ pounded with the Gerund of KRZ7）do（D．C．I－A）：


19．They are also used to form compound prepositions；see Sec． 242 and 246.
20．As a noun 6．7 means＂face＂．
21．Or mhtia ，see Sec． 16 on Interchangeable Sounds．

Even though these can function by themselves as adverbs, since they are also nouns they often have the locative $n$ prefixed when used adverbially.

| e.g. |  | The inside is red |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | OR m-it mitu | He went into the inside |
|  | ha-it mïn $=$ | He came out from inside |
| ( 0 ) | 0.ht Pumba | He works inside |

> ( $\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{h T}$ is here used as a noun). ( $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \boldsymbol{h T}$ is here used adverbially).
B. The Adverbial Use of other Parts of Speech.

Nouns and Adjectives with the Instrumental 0 prefixed.
255. The standard method of rendering a noun or adjective adverbial is to prefix the instrumental $\boldsymbol{n}$; the resulting form being, actually, a short adverbial phrase:


## The Adverbial Accusative

256. A noun in the accusative case may act as an adverb with "specifying" sense. This "adverbial accusative" construction is bound up with the fact that some Amharic verbs take two direct objects: e.g. AX3

 A-lin $\boldsymbol{3}$ kinniu:n I put his clothes on. They therefore both take the accusative 3. But the latter has adverbial force, as it specifies how the child was dressed (the English "inhis clothes" is an adverbial phrase). It can, therefore, also be called an "adverbial accusative". In cases where similar accusative forms are used with intransitive verbs it is more logical to call them adverbial accusatives than direct objects. ${ }^{2}$


U゚S3 horan She has pain in her abdomen.

P\% 2.H. 3 hirion. She saw him at that time.

As with ordinary direct objects, where the noun is indefinite the accusative 3 is commonly omitted:


## Gerunds Used as Adverbs

257. It is a normal function of the Gerund (Perfect Participle) to act as the verb of an adverbial clause: e.g.


 the verb, it is apt to be more of an adverb than a clause, and as an adverb it tends to have the time sense of the English Present Participle rather than of the Past Participle. ${ }^{6}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e.g. } \varpi \overrightarrow{C l}
\end{aligned}
$$

1. Although Rug is an adjective, the preposition $\mathbf{n}$ is so frequently omitted in the adverbial use that it can practically be regarded as an adverb as well. This is especially noticeable in greetings etc.; see Sec. 342 (b).
2. This use is common with passive, reflexive and impersonal verbs: see examples,
3. nit $\rho_{3} 2 \mathrm{H}$ is also used, though having both the preposition $\cap$ and the accusative suffix 3 (either of which would be sufficient to give adverbial force) it is an illogical form.
4. The adverbial accusative construction is also used with the verb "to be":

He was naked ( $=$ in his nakedness).
5. See also Sec. 129 under Uses of the Gerund.
6. Except when it is a "Become Verb"; see the last example.

She silently（lit．staying quiet）sat down．
Let us go together（lit．associating）．
I gladly（lit．being glad）agreed．
We work sitting（lit．having sat down）．
258．There are a few Gerunds which have come to be treated as pure adverbs．Having lost their verbal character they are used impersonally，i．$e_{\text {．}}$ in the 3rd masculine singular form throughout．Thus，for ex－
 1if：She also bought a little butter（or Again she bought a little butter）。 But，where the sense requires
 Having repeated her prayer she lay down．Other important adverbial Gerunds of this kind are：中尺q formerly（from 中象 $\infty$ ，precede；I－A）．
hf fully；with a negative verb：never，not at all（from hip，assemble，concentrate：I－A）．
259．Adverbial Gerunds are sometimes used before the verb＂to be＂with explanatory force，a following re． lative being understood if not expressed：

With what money did you buy it？

It is having borrowed money that I bought it）．

## The Conjunction

## A. Co-ordinating Conjunctions.

260. These are used to co-ordinate words, phrases, clauses and sentences. The following are important:--

$$
\text { 1. } \dot{s}^{1} \text { and, for. }
$$

In its primary meaning, "and", its function is to link 2 elements together, connecting that to which it is suffixed with that which follows:

It is when suffixed to a verb that it sometimes gives the sense of "for" rather than "and", referring back to that which has preceded it:

That these two uses are not as unrelated as at first appears is shown by the following example:

[He is a little child and he is tired.
He is tired, for he is a little child.
2. $-\operatorname{To}^{2}$ and, too, also, even either.

This connects that to which it is suffixed with that which has gone before. Rather, therefore, than just linking two elements together, it adds, or attaches, a new element to one which is already present:
e.g. $\mathrm{n}^{\infty} \mathrm{F}$

When it is a phrase or a clause which is added (as opposed to a single word), the go is suffixed to the first or some other suitable word in it:


It is especially in conditionals that $\boldsymbol{g}$ gives the sense of "even";

Even if we lock it, it will not stop thieves.
It is with negative verbs that $g$ gives the sense of "either":

They did not ask us either.
Even the first of two or more co-ordinated words can take go in which case it resembles the English "both":

3. The interrogative equivalent of $g^{2}$ is $n^{2}$ :

 and $\dot{\gamma}$ like the English, "What about--":
e.g. Q. is herîu-i $\boldsymbol{h}^{3}+{ }^{+h}$ ?

I shall go; and what about you?

Well, as for me, I have too much work.

1. Often pronounced, and sometimes written, as a separate word: $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\xi}$.
2. Sometimes doubled when the following word begins with a vowel.
3. When attached to a verb in the Present Perfect or Present Imperfect $\boldsymbol{y o}^{\circ}$ can be infixed like an object suffix (in which case it is doubled). But, unlike the object suffix, it may also be placed after the auxiliary verb:

4. its sometimes used with reference to some question just raised, like the English phrase "As

e.g. hantur:
5. The co-ordination of more than two nouns can be achieved in a variety of ways (as in English). The following can be recommended:--
(a) Placing $\boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ between the last two nouns (as is done with "and" in English):

(b) Suffixing to each noun, except or including the first:

Every kind is found--lions, elephants, giraffes, buffaloes.
(c) When there are three nouns only, suffixing $\underset{\mathcal{F}}{ }$ to the first and $\mathcal{F}^{\sim}$ to the last:

6. 73 inc $73^{1}$ but, however.

While 37. 77 , like the English "but", always stands between the two co-ordinated sentences, 97 , like the English "however", is commonly inserted in the middle of the second sentence.


Her husband was ill, now, however, he has recovered.
7. mege: ${ }^{2}$ (or arng ) or.

OR.g-mpga renders "either mon or"



8. 83 罝 but, on the contrary.

23\% has a sense of protest or contradiction. It ends its clause, being placed after the verb.

## 

But let us go! (i,e. Why are you keeping me waiting?)
700. X7\% ${ }^{2}$

But it is! (i.e. I don't agree with you that it is not).
It is used after the affirmative clause when an affirmative and a negative clause stand together in contrast: 3


When the two clauses have the same verb (affirmative and negative) the presence of $\lambda \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\text {, }}$ enables it to be left out of the affirmative clause if desired (as in English with "but"):

9. n7arv well then, then, so, therefore ${ }^{5}$

10. anfo after all, then.

When a question is expressed or in mind arith may be used instead:


1. Less commonly 3473 .
2. Colloquially are is also used.
3. It is preferable, but not essential, to put the affirmative clause first. In the English it is often the reverse.
4. In English, the sense of "on the contrary", though understood; is not generally expressed, $\lambda 7 \boldsymbol{\Omega}$. therefore, is often best left untranslated.

5. Fh3 $\rho^{1}$ (the reason) and $A n \rho^{\circ} \%$ (why) are both used as co-ordinating conjunctions with the sense of "the reason being", "because"; especially in cases where the use of the subordinating conjunction inn (because) would be awkward:

It is not possible for the time being; because if we make it in the Rains it will get rain on it and be spoiled.


## B. Subordinating Conjunctions.

261. A subordinating conjunction introduces a subordinate clause, subordinating it to the principal clause of the sentence. 2 The verb of a subordinate clause is a subordinate verb, and its tense scheme is, in principle, as shown in the Limited Tense Scheme Chart, to which reference should, again, be made (Sec. 25). From this chart it will be seen that subordinate verbs, like relative verbs, are used in four tenses (the Simple Perfect, the Simple Imperfect, the Past Perfect and the Past Imperfect), but that the Simple Perfect can act for all the Perfect tenses and the Simple Imperfect for all Imperfect tenses. This means that the two compound Past tenses are largely ruled out, and that choice is made between the two simple tenses, according to whether the action is Perfect or Imperfect.

However, while this is the principle, we find that in practice most of the subordinating conjunctions do not even offer this small choice; because their use, to-day, is limited to the one or the other of the two simple tenses. In other words, in most cases, when a particular conjunction is required, there is no option but to use it with the particular tense to which it is bound; irrespective of the action being Perfect or Imperfect, or the time Past, Present or Future. As used to-day, only two of the subordinating conjunctions ( An , because; $\mathbf{\lambda 3 \boldsymbol { R }}$, as) really offer a free choice between the Simple Perfect and the Simple Imperfect tenses; and the choice must be made, as with the relative pronoun, according as the action is Perfect or Imperfect. These two conjunctions can also be used with the two compound Past tenses, but this is not generally necessary, except, occasionally, for the sake of clarity.

We see then that some of these conjunctions are used with the Simple Perfect and some with the Simple Imperfect, while two of them can be used with both. But a further complication lies in the fact that, of those used with the Simple Imperfect (i.e. the Contingent), some are prefixed to the plain Contingent form, while others require the insertion before it of the "buffer" $-y^{\prime \prime}$ of the relative construction ${ }^{3}$ We can, therefore, classify the Subordinating Conjunctions as follows:-
I. Conjunctions used with the Simple Perfect.
II. Conjunctions used with the Simple Imperfect:
(a) with the plain Contingent form.
(b) with the "buffer" $-\frac{10}{6}$ before the Contingent form.

These conjunctions are often the same words as corresponding prepositions; 4 and, just as the prepositions are prefixed to nouns and pronouns, so the conjunctions are prefixed ${ }^{5}$ to verbs, In the examples given below, notice that the conjunctions used with the Simple Perfect ( 1 ) and those used with $f^{5}$ before the Contingent (II-B) are like the prepositions in that they (or, in compound conjunctions, their prefixed parts) end with a 1st form. But those used with the plain Contingent (II-A), though they may otherwise be the same words, end with a 6 th form. Notice how these 6 th forms, like the "buffer"- 9 , unite with the personal prefixes of the Contingent.

1. Or phifpg , "and the reason".
2. Or to another dependent clause.
3. For which see Sec. 228 (b), under the Relative Pronoun.
4. This is the same in English; for instance in "after the holidays", "after" is a preposition ("holidays" being a noun), but in "after they go" it is a conjunction ("go" being a verb).
5. With the exception of H3P (to, that), which follows its verb and has no prefixed part.
6. A conjunction used with the Simple Perfect.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { taice nst }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sexe mbi } \\
& \text { nocis策 } 9 x_{1} 1 \\
& \text { nsiex Pey nd }
\end{aligned}
$$

after I descended, descend; have descended, etc.
after you (m) descended, descend, have descendes. etc.
after you (f) descended, descend, have descerded, etc.
after he, it, descended, descends, has descended, etc.
after she descended, descends, has descended, etc.
after we descended, cescend, have descended, etc.
after you ( pl ) descended, descend, have descended, etc.
after they descended, descend, have descended, etc.

Conjunctions of more than one letter used with the Simple Parfect, like the corresponding prepositions, tend to be written as separate words. 2 But this does not alter the fact that they are essentially prefixes, just like the shorter conjunctions.
e.g. to bilucior because I descended, etc.

II $a_{e}$ A conjunction used with the plain Contingent
(Conjunction: ${ }^{\text {a }}$; if. Verb: wh, work; $\Pi$ - $1-A$ ).

| f13z ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 1f I work, worked, am working, etc. |
| :---: | :---: |
| N174\% | if you (m) work, worked, are working, etes. |
|  | If you (f) work, worked, are working, etc. |
|  | if he, it, works, worked, is working, etc. |
| 17tura | if she works, worked, is working, etc. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { now } \\ & \text { nitur } \end{aligned}$ | if we work, worked, are working, etc. |
| Hawe | if you (pl) work, worked, are working, etc. if they work, worked, are working, atc. |

II. b. A conjunction used with $g^{\prime \prime}$ before the Contingent


262. Naturally, when a conjunction is prefixed before a negative prefix, or a verb whose first radical is $k$ or $D$, the usual contraction of vowels takesplace (though for the Simple Perfect this is optional):




263. In the examples given with the following synopsis notice how it is often the main verb, with its wider range of tenses, which supplies the time sense of the subordinate verb.

1. The usual alternative personal suffixes found with this tense are, of course, permissable.
2. Except $\mathrm{hi}^{\mathbf{H}}$.
3. A verb introduced by a subordinating conjunction, not being a main verb, does not take the nega. tive suffix ${ }^{g}$ (see Sec. 117, Rule 1, under the Formation of Negatives).
I. Conjunctions used with the Simple Perfect. ${ }^{1}$
4. 5. [
if.
This has a special, and not very common, use, which is dealt with under Conditionals (Sec. 285. B.2.c). Though in form it is the equivalent of the Contingent, in use it is not so.]
1. n-2k when (used chiefly when the action is perfect, but not necessarily past).

When they came I opened the door.
When (i, e. at the moment when) they come, open (m) the door.
2. n-wap as often as

As often as he lies down he goes to sleep.
3. $h$
(i) since (of time),
(ii) since (of cause), (iii) if.



It is many years since I came to Ethiopia. Since she is a small child she does not drink coffee. If we don't push the car will not start.
4. In (negative) ntc. ${ }^{2}$ unless. Since "unless" means the same as "if" with a negative, in (if) with a negative gives the same meaning as h-a中C (which at any rate takes a negative). $1+6$, therefore, is redundant, except for extra emphasis.

5. $h$-mh $u$ since. This is more specifically for time than $h$ alone. It serves to bring out contrast with former state.
 th).
 personal forms). This "since", therefore, has the sense of "starting from".
 She has prayed (ever) since she heard the Gospel.
6. $h-n>1$ after.

7. $\lambda \stackrel{\text { He }}{ }$ Although this can only be used with the Simple Perfect tense its function is to supply an Imperfect Participle, the imperfect equivalent of the Gerund (Perfect Participle) when used as the verb of a dependent clause. 3 Its subject, like that of the Gerund, is normally the same as that of the verb on which it depends. 4


$\lambda \dot{\mathbf{i}}$, then, is used to indicate a continuous, or continuously repeated, action performed concurrently with another, probably more important, action, and normally by the same person.
8. Throughout the following synopsis of Subordinating Conjunctions, wherever the meanings are numbered the numbers indicate the corresponding examples.

## 2. Also nnt+C or ( $n+ \pm C$ ).

3. See Sec. 128 under Uses of the Gerund.
4. Though there is not invariably grammatical identity of subjects, there is normally at least a logical concord (see Sec. 130 under Uses of thesGerund).
5. This sentence can also be translated using the English conjunction "while": "While he goes to school he eats his breakfast". But "while" is not the exact equivalent of $\lambda \ddot{\boldsymbol{P}}$, because "while" goes with the principal action ("he goes to school"), whereas $\mathbf{h P}^{\prime \prime}$ goes with the incidental action ("he eats").
6. Though these two participle forms are otherwise so similar in use, there is a difference when two or more of either of them are used in one sentence. Two or more Gerunds do not require co-ordination (see Sec. 131 under the Uses of the Gerund), but two or more verbs with $\lambda \ddot{f}$ are normally linked with a co-ordinating conjunction ("and"):



## nptanañ́n gehlan:

An example of its use for continuously repeated action is:
He learns going to and fro (i.e. He goes daily to school--he is a day-student).
10. ( Xhh until. In theory this conjunction is one which can be used with the Simple Perfect; but in practice this is rarely heard, as $\lambda$ inh with the Contingent is used for Past as well as for Present and Future time.)
11. an * because. ${ }^{1}$

12. $\lambda 7 \boldsymbol{R}$ * (i) as (of similarity), (ii) as (of accord), (iii) as (of momentary time), (iv) that (of In-





* These are the only conjunctions which offer an open choice between the Simple Perfect and Simple Imperfect tenses. ${ }^{4}$ Notice, then, that in all the examples given here, the use of the simple Perfect is determined by the action being perfect.

These two conjunctions, as previously mentioned, can also be used with the Past Perfect and Past Imperfect tenses. In such cases it is the auxiliary verb, sifl, itself a Simple Perfect form, which takes the conjunction. Thus, example (iv) under $73 \%$ might alternatively (and with greater exactness) be rendered:

II. Conjunctions used with the Simple Imperfect.
(a) Those used with the plain Contingent form.
265.

If your (m) father calls, run quickly. And when she asked her brother he said, 'I don't know".
2. $n$ when. This is used for both (i) perfect, and (ii) imperfect action, When the latter it can also be translated "while" or "as". It also serves to supply (iii) an Imperfect Participle, like hé ; but does not stress the continuity or repeatedness of the action so much. It is used in preference to $\lambda \boldsymbol{\beta}$. when (iv) the subject of its verb (i, $e$ of the Imperfect Participle) is different from that of the verb on which it depends, which may happen when the latter is a verb of perception.





When we went to market we bought many things.
When (While, As) we were going to market we talked on the way.
He read it eating his breakfast. ${ }^{5}$
I saw him eating his breakfast. 6

1. The conjunction nn, unlike the preposition in, when it means "because of", has no objection to looking backward to a past cause; see Sec. 241 (6), footnote.
2. H7R is also used in titles, captions etc., as the equivalent of "How":

How David killed Goliath.
3. Contrast with example no. (iii) in Sec. 266 (5).
4. Though 23 . has a wider use with the Simple Perfect than it has with the Simple Imperfect (i. $e_{0}$ with ${ }^{\circ}$ before the Contingent) -- see meanings given under the se two headings.
5. $n+$ Contingent not only serves as an Imperfect Participle of the kind which is the verb of a dependent clause (like $\lambda \ddot{\boldsymbol{p}}+$ Simple Perfect), but also, sometimes, as the equivalent of the Imperfect Participle ( $i_{6} e_{.}$the plain Contingent) in the formation of the Past Imperfect tense:

6. Compare the last two examples with the examples given under $\lambda$ \% ; Sec. 264 (9)。
7. i (negative): (i) without, (ii) before (for the latter meaning nat is sometimes added after the verb).

 He went to bed without eating his supper.
Swallow (m) this medicine before you eat your supper.
8. to. (i) $A$ Contingent is the equivalent of the Infinitive. The two constructions are interchange. able; except that (ii) the former must be used when there is an object suffix, as this can never be attached to an Infinitive. 1 The subject of either is usually the same as that of the verb on which it depends, 2,3

She wants to help the student.
She wants to help him.
9. $n 3 \mathbf{R}^{4}$ that, in order that, so that, etc. This indicates (i) purpose, (ii) desire, and (iii) result (with negative verbs). It is very close in meaning to a (above), and is used (iv) to translate an English Infinitive whose subject is different from that of the verb on which it depends.
e.g.



They shut the gate in order that beggars should not come in. I desire that you ( pl ) should consider this.
He is busy (lit. He has hold of work), so (i.e. with the result that) he will not come to-day. She wants us to help the student. 5, 6, 7, 8
6. zan- (ezan is, optionally, added after the verb) (i) until (ii) by the time that. It can also give the sense of (iii) so much that, such - that.
e.g. (i) तinh


Wait (pl) until we have finished.
By the time that you ( pl ) have dressed breakfast will be ready.
They were in such difficulty that they despaired (lit. cut hope).
7. -H3P to, that. This, the only co-ordinating conjunction without a prefix, is found in literary and Bible Amharic, but is rarely heard in speech. It has the same uses as $A$ and $\lambda \boldsymbol{P} \boldsymbol{P}$ (above).

(b) Those used with grofore the Contingent.
266.

1. Nith ( $\quad$-ch is optionally added after the verb). This has the same meanings as hith with the plain Contingent (above). The latter is commoner, except with negatives, when this form with gr must be used.

2. But it should also be noted that while $A$ is very rarely used with a negative, the Infinitive, at least in its substantival use is quite commonly made negative (see Sec. 126, with footrotes, under Uises of the Infinitive).
3. When this is not the case it is preferable to use h 7 f + Contingent; Sec. 265 (5).
4. See also Sec. 125 under Uses of the Infinitive.
5. Though, in form, this corresponds to the 338 used with the Simple Perfect, in meaning it is not this A3e, with the plain Contingent, but k. k ? with ge before the Contingent, which does so. It must be mentioned, however, that Bible Amharic often fails to make this distinction between the two Contingent forms and uses $\lambda 3 f_{i}$ where ordinary spoken Amharic would use $k 3 \rho g^{\prime \prime}$
6. Compare this example with the examples given ustier a, where the two subjects are the same.
7. Notice that, in the English, what is really the sutiect of the Infinitive is expressed as the object of the main verb ("us"). This is an illogical anglicism arid must not be carried over into Amharic. The sense is not that "She wants us", but that "She wants that we help", which is how Amharic expresses it.
8. Knsi + Contingent is often used (with some appropriate main verb implied but not expressed) to give the sense of an Imperative or Jussive, but stronger:

9. $n^{1}$ ( end is occasionally added after the verb), than (that), rather than (that).

10. $n$-ncit before. This gives the same sense as $n+$ negative Contingent the more normal translation of "before").

11. in * because.

12. 23P. * (i) as (of similarity), (ii) as (of accord), (iii) that (of Indirect Speech).




* As previously noted, these are the two conjunctions which offer an open choice between the Simple Perfect and Simple Imperfect tenses. Notice, then, that in all the examples given here the use of the Simple Imperfect is determined by the action being imperfect.

As these two conjunctions can also be used with the two compound Past tenses, we might, for instance,

267. The assimilation of the relative pronoun $P$ by a preposition ${ }^{3}$ probably expiains the origin of some of the co-ordinating conjunctions. Thus, for instance, the subordinate clause ilidi- zith (when they arrived) means substantially the same as the relative construction neZ̈t ( iff) qH (at the time on which

 which he tells me). It is, in fact, very hard to draw a line of distinction between these two constructions. 4
268. The irregular verb 40 . (i. $e_{\text {。 }}$ the Present Tense of the verb "to be"), being neither a Simple Perfect nor a Contingent form, cannot be used with subordinating conjunctions. Whenever the verb is subordinate the appropriate part of $v^{\prime \prime}$ (become) must be substituted (see Sec. 103 (1) under Irregular Verbs).
 fore can take those conjunctions proper to the Simple Perfect, but not those whose use is confined to the Contingent. The one exception is that $\mathrm{K} \hat{\mathrm{I}}$ is allowed to take n (which is otherwise peculiar to the Contingent), 6, 7





I have heard that there is much wheat there.
We can't if our mother is not here.
It is because they are not fools.
They are not lazy while their chief is present.

1. Though in form this is the same as th used with the Simple Perfect, the two do not correspond in meaning.
2. Contrast with example no. (iv) in Sec. 264 (12).
3. See Sec. 232, under the Relative Pronoun.
4. But they do not always have the same meaning when identical in form; see Sec. 240 under the Relative Pronoun.
5. See Sec. $102(3,4,5)$ under Irregular Verbs.
6. Kí also takes hinh (until), but zinh is theoretically permissable with any Simple Perfect (see Sec. $264(10)$ )used with $k i n$ it gives the sense of "as long as":

7. $n+\lambda \prime \hat{\prime}$ is often used after $n+$ Contingent of another verb (or after a Gerund if it is a "Become Verb") to describe the state of a person at the time when something happens:


## The Interjection

269. Amharic has many words and expressions whose use is more or less interjectory. These sometimes stand alone and are sometimes inserted or "slipped" into a sentence. Exact English equivalents are not always easy to find for them, and their subtler shades of meaning can only be grasped by hearing them in use. The following are common:--

270. Also used for a casual "Thank you" (See Sec. 349 (d) on how to say "Thank you"),

271. This probably originated as the Imperative of the verb in (touch; II-1-A). Its feminine form is $\mathbf{7 3} \mathbf{7 \%}$ and its polite form n 3 h .
 etc. Also commonly placed before the Imperative of tap-(leave; Irreg. III-2) -- hC tan Stop it won't you (m)!
 or lom (let him die); i.e. May you die, or May he (the Emperor) die, if I am lying.
272. A shortening of $n 3 \rho_{0}+$, how.
273. Or me 7490 Both $7 \ell \cdot$ and $949^{\circ}$ mean "wonderful".
274. Placed before another word (the object of wonder) me renders "Oh!"
e.g. $\quad \mathbb{R}$ HGf! $\quad O h$, the rain!
275. This is best used with the infixed $n$ and an object suffix:

276. This is the Imperative of hn (say), and can be used in any of its personal forms. It is often used to introduce ma entairy when one feels that it is time to say good-bye (the plural at is, then, generm ally used for the polite:
e.g. nit ms entäzis = Well then, good-bye (pol).
277. A contraction of thf $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, $\rho$ ( $\boldsymbol{A}$ ), (And) beyond that? Another expression which is very similarly used is znin , And afterwards?

## PART FOUR：THE SENTENCE

## Sentence Order

A．Simple Sentences．
270．These are sentences containing only one verb，and therefore consisting of only one clause；which is of course，a＂principal clause＂．

Since the personal inflexion of a verb expresses a pronoun subject，a verb form standing alone is a complete sentence，consisting of subject and verb：e．g。 Chu．Iforgot．By the addition of an object suf－ fix this one word becomes a sentence consisting of subject，verb and object：$e_{0} g_{0}$ दhurt Iforgot it． If，however，an adjectival verb ${ }^{1}$ is used the verb form alone is a complete sentence consisting of subject，


271．When subject，object or attribute are independent of the verb form，the normal，but not invariable， order is as follows：－－

1．Subject
2．Object or Attribute
3．Verb
The order of the different kinds of adverbs 2 and their position in relation to the other parts of the sen－ tence is far from rigid；but the following may be taken as a rough guide：－－
（a）Adverbs of Time （Answering question＂when？＂）

（d）Adverbs of Place
（Answering question＂where？＇）
Precede Attribute。
（c）Adverbs of Manner
（Answering question＂how？＂）

The numbers and letters given with the following examples designate the parts of the sentence as shown above．
（i）Sentence with Object：
（a） 7137
（1） $\boldsymbol{h} \boldsymbol{\pi} \cdot \mathrm{b}$
（b）In Hyi．
（2）Kise 万3T4
（c）$n \lambda \mu^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{C} \cdot \mathrm{n} \mathrm{C}$
（d）honf
（3） $7 \ddot{n}:$

Yesterday，because of the rain，my father bought an umbrella from the market for ten dollars．
（ii）Sentence with Attribute：
（1）evtaq6
（a）$\times 9$（c） 0 （c）
（2）K3 $\mathrm{K}_{6}^{7}$
（3） $3 \dddot{\mathrm{n}} 2:$
Last year this school－boy was first in English．

272．A device which may disrupt the normal order，as shown above is to give the place before the verb ${ }^{3}$ to the emphasized word or phrase，$i_{0} e_{0}$ that on which the interest of the sentence hinges．
e．g．（i）Normal order：
 stone．
（ii）When the point of interest is what the workmen are to repair with the stone：

The workmen will repair our road with the stone．
1．For adjectival verbs see Sec． 184.
2．The term＂adverb＂is used here to include adverbial phrases．
3．In an attributive sentence it is the place before the attribute；since attribute and verb are practi－


Now，because of this，he has become rich．
(iii) When the point of interest is when they will repair our road:

(iv) When the point of interest is the material to be used:

An interrogative word or phrase, since the whole interest of the question hinges on it, is generally given this pivotal place:

| $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{g}$ 。 | ? | Wh will repair oux road? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | aebsge gay gniot? | What will the workmen repair with the stone? |
|  |  | When will the workmen repair our road? |

273. 

Another device, which is very common colloquially (and not unknown in English) is to begin with the word or phrase on which the interest chiefly hinges; this is followed by the verb (unlessit is itself the verb), after which the rest of the sentence is added like an explanatory after thought ${ }_{c}$ e.g.

```
z\ddot{* yom-nlom:}
0-ภ8, 77HT-3*
```




```
pq {o. nTv ?
```

It's he, the thief (i.e. He is the thief). Take it, the money.
She was beautiful, my aunt.
Have they returned, from their country?
Where is it, your house? ${ }^{1}$

## B. Compound Sentences.

274. 

These are sentences containing a principal clause and one or more dependent clauses; the verb of the principal clause being the main verb of the sentence.

The verb of a dependent clause must be one of the following:--
(a) An Infinitive -- see Secs. 121-127 on the Uses of the Infinitive.
(b) A Gerund -- see Secs. 128-133 on the Uses of the Gerund.
(c) A relative Verb - see Secs. 228-240 on the Relative Pronoun.
(d) A Subordinate Verb ${ }^{2}$ - See Secs. 261-268 on the Subordinating Conjunctions.
275.

Each dependent clause is a compact unit, following within itself the same order as the Simple Sentence; its verb, therefore, coming last. ${ }^{3}$ But as all dependent clauses are either substantival, adverbial or adjectival, they occupy the places of nouns, adverbs and adjectives respectively in the order of the principal clause, whose own verb comes last of all.

One of the examples given under Simple Sentences, above, was:

We can convert this into a compound sentence by, for instance, replacing its adverb of time ( $k g^{0} \boldsymbol{f}$ ) with


Before the rains started this school-boy was the one who surpassed all others in English.
276.

But the structure of a compound sentence may be further complicated by a dependent clause itself being compound. To demonstrate this we will start with:


1. This device is very frequently employed with a relative construction following the verb "to be"; Sec. 237 under the Relative Pronoun.
2. We use the term "Subordinate Verb" for the kind of dependent verb which is introduced by a subordinating conjunction.
3. Except, obviously, where followed by a suffix or the second word of a compound conjunction or


In this sentence we have an adverbial clause，
 main verb 1 ff ．This adverbial clause we will now make compound by the addition of another adverbial clause，ntion $A$


The thief，while he was hurriedly starting，seeing the watchman，fled．


The thief，while he was hurriedly starting to open my trunk，seeing the watchman fled．
In this sentence we find that the order of dependence moves backwards from the main verb：Xef is de－
 typical feature of Amharic compound sentences．${ }^{1}$

Again，in the above example we see that the subject of the sentence（ Ano－），since it precedes all the dependent clauses，is very far removed from its main verb．But，actually，it cquld have been given a later

It is especially desirable to treat the subject of the sentence thus if the first dependent clause has a differ－ ent subject．It is best，in fact，to place the subject of the sentence either at the head of its own principal clause at the end，or at the head of a dependent clause of which it is also the subject（i．e．not at the head of a clause which has a different subject）：


The neighbours，because they were startled，hearing the watchman shouting，arrived at a run．${ }^{2}$

## Questions

277．There are two kinds of questions：－
1．Questions whose interrogative sense is conveyed by an inherently interrogative pronoun or adverb．The most important of these interrogative words are：－－

| Pronouns ${ }^{3}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{903}$ |  | what |
|  |  | who |
| a3t |  | how many |


|  | Adverbs ${ }^{4}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m雨 |  | when |
| P\％ |  | where |
| h38．7 | （ hzPgan ） | how |
| A ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | （ n ¢9³） | why |


| e．g． | がる 亿只中？ <br> gay gest ho som？ <br> aq R mï，虫A？ <br>  |
| :---: | :---: |

What did they steal？
What kind of thing（article）is it？${ }^{5}$
Who will ask？
Whom did you（ pl ）choose？
1．Because of this，when translating Amharic compound sentences into English，it is often the best procedure，having first found the subject，to go straight to the main verb at the end，and then move back－ wards clause by clause．

2．In cases when a Gerund or an Imperfect Participle formed with \＃＂stands alone with nothing else in its clause，it is normally treated as an adverb and not as a separate clause，the subject of the following verb，therefore，being placed before，not after it；
e．g．
But






The thief，getting up，fled．
The thief fled crying out．
Seeing the watchman the thief fled．

The thief fled crying out in fear．
3．For fuller treatment see Secs．215－218，under the Pronouns．
4．For fuller treatment see Secs．252， 253 under Adverbs．
5．Notice that＂of＂in＂What kind of ．．．＂is not translated into A mharic．


```
13+ 414?
```




```
pt RRÅ?%
```




Which shall I take？
How many were they？
At what time shall we finish？
When did he（pol）arrive？
Where do they pray？
How did you（m）start？
Why did she hurry to－day？${ }^{1}$

2．Questions which contain noinherently interrogative pronoun or adverb。 ${ }^{2}$ In these the interrogative sense is conveyed in three ways：－ 3
（a）Simply by raising the vocal tone on the last syllable（the commonest method in speech）．
（b）By adding $\omega \ell$ ；also with raised tone（fairly common in speech）． 4
（c）By suffixing－is pronounced（i）nì ；also with raised tone（the more literary form）．
e．g．$\quad$ orepar nĩ ？（with raised tone on the final ä） nop－por kX ape！（with raised tone on afe）


Is the man present？

## Reported Speech

278．Notice that the grammatical term，Reported Speech，includes much more than true（ $i_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{o}}$ ．literally spo－ ken）speech．The following English examples，for instance，all contain the identical＂reported speech＂ construction，but only in the first is it true speech that is reported：－－

He tells me that he will do it（true＂spoken＂speech）．
She has written that he will do it（reported writing）．
They think that he will do it（reported thought）．
I know that they will do it（reported knowledge）．
Amharic，like English，can report speech＂directly＂and＂indirectly＂．The uses of the two construc－ tions overlap（ $i_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{e}_{\text {．one of }}$ of has a choice between them）；but in Amharic，while the Direct Speech construc－ tion is generally preferred for reporting what has been actually spoken or has been thought，verbs which have to do with perception rather than with speech or thought（see，find，know etc．）only use the Indirect Speech construction．

A．The Direct Speech Construction．
279．In this construction the＂speech＂is always reported by some part of the verb $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{n}$ ，say（including its derived forms：十月n，be said；than，say to each other）．The＂speech＂is the direct object of this verb， which it therefore immediately precedes．ha can itself be the main verb，but when some other verb（tell， ask，write，etc．）is the main verb，Kn becomes a dependent verb．As such it is most often a Gerund，giving the sense of＂saying＂；but $\lambda \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{p}+$ Simple Perfect and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}+$ Contingent are，in this construction，practically interchangeable with the Gerund．




They say that grain is dear this year ${ }^{5}$
My grandmother asked me what time it was．
He informed me that the rope was broken．
We promised to visit them every week．
Because he had said that he might not come I did not wait for him．

1．See，further，on the position of these interrogative words，in Sec． 272.
2．These are the kind of questions which are answered with＂yes＂or＂no＂．
3．In English and other European languages the interrogative sense of such questions is conveyed by a reversal of the order of pronoun and verb：$e_{\text {．}}$. ．＂You have＂（statement）；＂Have you？＂（question）．Am－ haric does not employ this device．

4．This of following the 2nd persons of the Simple Perfect of nö（hear）serves as a means of attract－


5．Literally＂They say＇Grain is dear this year＂．While Amharic prefers Direct Speech in reporting ＂true speech＂and thought，Indirect Speech is the more normal in English．For most of these Direct Speech examples，therefore，the English translation is given in Indirect Speech．



``` It is said that he (pol) is a kind man.
```



```
\({ }^{1}\) It is written that the earth will be destroyed by fire.
```

Nin may also be used in the Infinitive in this construction:


I have heard that a week from to-day is a big feast. ${ }^{2}$
280. As the Direct Speech construction is commonly used to report thought, the verb hn often renders "think" or "intend" rather than "say":


She entered the shop intending to buy a new dress. ${ }^{3}$
281. In questions 903 (what) takes the place of the reported speech before $\lambda \boldsymbol{n}$

What shall I answer them?
282. The sending of messages logicaily requires a double Direct Speech construction, using the verb kn twice.


"He has said, I will help you in the afternoon".).
(lit. Say to her "I will help you in the afternoon").
B. The Indirect Speech Construction.
283. "Indirect Speech" is always constructed as a subordinate clause introduced by the subordinating conjunction $\lambda 7 \ell$; for which see Secs. 264 (12) and 266 (5).

Indirect Speech subdivides into (1) Indirect Statements, and (2) Indirect Questions:

1. Indirect Statements.

There is little to add to what has been said about the use of the conjunction $\overline{3} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{e}$ ("that" of Indirect Speech) in the sections on subordinating conjunctions. The following further examples will suffice here:



He informed me that the rope was broken. 4
I know (that ${ }^{5}$ ) she will get into much difficulty. (lit. I know that much difficulty will get her).
2. Indirect Questions.

The conjunction $k 7 R$ is used for Indirect Questions as well as for Indirect Statements (as already mentioned. All "Indirect Speech" requires it). It thus contrasts with its English counterpart "that", which is used only for Indirect Statements and not for Indirect Questions. The absence of "that", in fact, renders the English Indirect Question difficult to recognize as Indirect Speech, and so leads to confusion in translating.

1. Notice that since the main verb is passive, the Gerund used in reporting the "speech" is also passive.
2. This Infinitive ant, used with the verb "to be", supplies the normal translation of the English verb "mean"; i.e. "it means" is rendered "it is to say":

## e.g. Q. nintipu y"n aynt no ?

What does "Christian" mean?

What does it mean (to say) that he is a Christian? Sometimes the verb 40 is omitted, in which case aqnit giver mans he "that means" "that is to sar".

3. $\lambda \boldsymbol{A}$ is also used to express intention with $A$ + Infinitive, $A+$ Contingent or $\lambda\rangle 8$ + Contingent, instead of with Direct Speech; although each of the se three constructions can express intention by itself:

(synonymous with the above example).
4. See the same expressed with Direct Speech, above (Sec. 279).
5. Notice that the Amharic $\lambda$; 9 . cannot be dropped as can the English "that".

Just as there are two kinds of ordinary question: (a) those containing inherently interrogative words (pronouns and adverbs), and (b) those without them ${ }^{1}$; so, when these two kdnds are reported and become "Indirect Speech", they appear as two kinds of Indirect Question: (a) those which are introduced by inherently interrogative words, and (b) those which are not -- but which, in English, are introduced by "if" or "whether".
(a) Indirect Questions introduced by inherently interrogative words.
 containing such a word, is placed immediately before the conjunction 278.



Tell (f) him where the needle was found.

(b) Indirect Questions which, in English, are introduced by "if" or "whether".

The conjunction h3R is prefixed to an auxiliary verb if? (generally uninflected for persons, and often shortened to $\mathrm{UP}^{7}$ ), which, for Perfect action, follows a Gerund, and, for Imperfect action, follows a Contingent:

I have not heard whether the girl has arrived.


The verb $\mathrm{K} \ddot{\mathrm{A}}$ and of itself can be used without the auxiliary; in which case the construction is identical with that of an Indirect Statement:

C. Alternative Constructions used for Reported Speech.
284. The following constructions are frequently used instead of the Direct or Indirect Speech constructions:--

1. An Infinitive with a possessive suffix as the direct object of the verb.

|  |
| :---: |

Tell ( m ) them that I have come.
I did not hear that you (pol) were ill.
2. A Relative Clause as the direct object of the verb ( $=$ an Indirect Question).

I don't know at what time you (pl) eat supper. ${ }^{2}$

They showed us where 3 they have their lessons (lit. learn).

I did not see what was inside.
3. With the verb onin , seem, a Relative Clause is commonly used instead of an Indirect Statement. ${ }^{4}$
e.g. $\boldsymbol{p} \boldsymbol{y}$

4. The English double Indirect Question constructed, with "whether, if. . . or not" after some negative verb like "I don't know", can be translated in a variety of ways:-. 5
e. g. 'I don't know whether they have gone or not" (Perfect Action) can be:--

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (using two Jussives). }
\end{aligned}
$$

1. See Sec. 277 on Questions.
2. See the same expressed as a true Indirect Question above; Sec. 283 (2a).
3. "Where" = "the place in which". But in this construction "place" is often left out and simply has to be understood.
4. It is safest always to use the Relative construction, though the Indirect Speech construction is sometimes met with.
5. Those illustrated here are recommended, but they are not the only possibilities.
6. Notice that a negative Gerund is supplied, as always, by the negative Simple Perfect (without since it is not a main verb); see Sec. 117 (Bale 3 (a), footnote).
"I don't know whether they are going or not" (Imperfect Action) can be:--

 eqg hers kionqi=
(a true Indirect Question construction). (using two Infinitives and a possessive suffix). (using two Jussives).

When it is the verb "to be" which follows "whether" or "if" Amharic commonly uses the Jussive for :

We have not heard whether it is big or small.
We did not hear whether it was big or small.
285. A Conditional Sentence consists of a principal clause (the Apodosis) and a subordinate clause (the Protasis) introduced by the conjunction "if". Two ways of rendering this "if" are explained under Subordinating Conjunctions; they are $\mathbf{h}+$ Simple Perfect (Sec. 264 (4)) and $+1+$ Contingent (Sec. 265 (1)). But there are other ways besides these; and, indeed, Amharic offers a confusingly large variety of possibilities in the expression of conditional thought. The following, then, is a summary of conjunctions and verb forms used for the purpose, which, if not exhaustive, includes all that the student will need.
A. Open Conditionals.

|  | Subordinate Clause | Principal Clause |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Present or Future Time n + Contingent ${ }^{1}$ e.g. 047 0.973h <br> If he knocks at the door | Any appropriate tense mprab $37 c^{3}=$ tell (m) me at once. |
| b. | h + Simple Perfect e.g. मढ hABifl $=$ <br> If it does not rain to-day | ditto <br> an37g. Kilh aqj elec.中A: <br> the road will dry by the evening. |
| c. | h3Rups (or X3Rur3 ${ }^{2,3 \text { ) following }}$ a Relative Simple Perfect, a Relative Contingent or a plain Contingent. <br>  <br> If I meet him in town <br>  <br> If you (m) are going <br>  <br> If they prevent me | ditto <br>  <br> I will ask him. <br>  <br> please take this for me. <br>  <br> I have taken the trouble in vain. |
| 2. ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Past Time <br> n + Contingent <br>  <br> If she arrived in Addis Ababa yesterday | Any appropriate tense <br>  <br> she is sure to visit us to-day. |
| b. | n + Simple Perfect <br>  <br> If they finished that one | > ditto <br>  <br> they will have started another by now. |
| c. |  <br>  <br> If she drank the medicine ${ }^{6}$ | ditto <br>  why didn't she get well? |

1. $n+$ Contingent is the most general way of rendering an "if" clause. It can be used for all kinds of Conditionals, and, as will be seen, heads every sub-division in this summary.
2. This use of $\$ 3 \mathrm{giP}^{\prime \prime}$ ) to give the sense of "if" is probably borrowed from the Indirect Question (see Sec. 283 (2b)) with which, because it too expresses uncertainty, the Conditional construction is easily confused (in English also there is liable to be confusion, both constructions using "if").
3. In Conditionals, as in Indirect Questions (see Sec. 283 (2b)), \%3Rip! can also be used by itself (with personal inflexions):


 by schant (perhaps):

In case they should come we will get their room ready.
4. Notice that, the relative form being a contingent, the translation is "If you are going" rather than "If you go".
5. The negative Simple Perfect will, as usual, serve for the negative Gerund (see Sec. 117, Rule 3 (a), footnote). Not now being a main verb it will not take the suffix $g^{a}$.
 well?

## B. Improbable and Impossible Conditionals

|  | Subordinate Clause | Principal Clause |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. a . | Present or Future Time $n+$ Contingent <br>  If he told us the truth | ```Past Imperfect Tense 1 nycmaverica= 2 we should help him.``` |
| 2. a . | Past Time <br> Past Contingent $(+ \text { se })^{3}$ <br>  <br> If he had told us the truth |  |
| b. | nuF? (TR: ${ }^{3}$ following a Gerund e. g. 2nltu 0.1P3 ( ce: If you ( m ) had gone in | Past Perfect Tense ${ }^{1,5}$ h? you would have found him |
| c. ${ }^{6}$ | a + Simple Perfect ( + PC) <br> e.g nmpif (cic) <br> If she had asked |  |

286. Sometimes one of the two clauses of a conditional sentence is used alone, the other being understood but not expressed:

| e.g. |  | I should be glad! (the subordinate clause is unexpressed). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | nuen-m? | And (what) if they do insult me? (the principal clause is unexpressed). |

## Comparatives and Superlatives

287. In Amharic there is no comparison of adjectives and adverbs as there is in English, but the simple form serves for the comparative and superlative forms as well. Thus, for example, the simple form <epro has to serve not only for "long", but also for "longer" and "longest"; or again, the simple form nit has to serve not only for "much", but also for "more" and "most"; or again, the simple form $\boldsymbol{+ 1} \boldsymbol{t}$ " has to serve not only for "quickly", but also for "more quickly" and "most quickly". Since, then, the word itself remains uninflected some other means must be adopted to show when it has comparative or superlative force.

Besides the ordinary adjectives and adverbs, however, adjectival verbs ${ }^{7,8}$ are extensively used in comparative and superlative constructions; and in comparatives, are generally preferable to their corresponding adjectives. Thus, for instance, while "it is longer" is quite correctly rendered Le.9" $3 \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot$, a more
 that a further possibility would be plitom sar:

1. Or $\mathrm{n}+$ Simple Perfect ( + sïc ), as for 2.c below.
2. For the verb "to be" sïc is used alone:

If he told us the truth it would be good.
3. Ic (the Gerund of the verb ic, live) is shown in a bracket as being optional. It emphasizes the impossibility, or great improbability, of the condition being fulfilled. It can even be used for present or


would mean "If he did tell us the truth--but it is not likely that he will--we should help him" (compare with example under ia above).
4. Notice that this example, when ice is omitted, is identical with the example given for 1a, above. As so often when subordinating conjunctions are used, it is the context which determines the time sense of the verbs.
5. Or Past Imperfect Tense, as for 1 a and 2a above.
6. This is the special use of $\mathrm{n}+$ Simple Perfect mentioned in Sec. 264 (1) under Subordinating Conjunctions. It is a unique use in that $\boldsymbol{n}$ is prefixed not only to the subordinate verb but also to the main verbs
7. For Adjectival Verbs see Sec. 184.
8. These include adjectival " in Verbs"; see Secs. 110-112.

288．Comparative sense is conyeyed by the preposition $h$（or $t$ ），than：




（ii）tage ut hith for caqikn $=3$



My bed is longer than the wall（ii and iii are preferable to i）．

Their father is fatter than all the children（ii and iii are preferable to i）．
You（m）returned more quickly yesterday than tomday．

But the comparative sense may still be there when $h(t)$ and its following noun or pronoun are no longer expressed：

A．KPY KA．2U Cilloo：
Yes，your（m）bed is longer．
289．While most adjectival verbs，like their corresponding adjectives，are truly comparative only when the
 are three which have an inherently comparative sense：－－ 6

| ＠ĭm | surpass，be bigger，greater（ $\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{A}$ ） |
| :---: | :---: |
| K\％ | be less，smaller（I－A） |
| ＋rin | be better（ P ．III－1） |
| knn hen en | Addis Ababa is bigger than Dessie．${ }^{7}$ ， |
|  | That hut（lit．nest）is smaller． 9 |
|  | This road is better． |

290．There are two 3rd masculine singular Contingent forms which in Comparatives are often compounded with the comparative preposition $\boldsymbol{A}$（or $\boldsymbol{t}$ ）．They are $\boldsymbol{\rho}_{\mathrm{A}} \boldsymbol{\phi}$（from A中，be preeminent；III－1），which gives the sense of＂more＂，＂rather＂，and R』AT（from Anai be greater，I－A），which gives the sense of＂more＂ 10 The 3rd masculine singular relative form pinm，and the Gerund hnan（in the appropriate personal form）are similarly used，both giving the sense of＂more＂．These four words are found more in adverbial than in adjectival Comparatives．





He loves his mother more than his father．
We have dug more ground to－day than yesterday．
They speak more plainly than we do．
She studies more than her comrades．

2．Or $\angle H^{\circ}$ PA

4．Or $\quad \mathrm{KCC}$ Pn
5．Except that when a verb is used as a＂become verb＂（as adjectival verbs frequently are）it is liable to imply comparison with a former state．For example，if $\left\langle\hat{H} /{ }^{\prime}\right.$ is used to mean＂it has become long＂，the implication is that＂it is now longer than it was before＂．In this way，then，any adjectival verb has a stron－ ger tendency to comparative sense then its corresponding adjective．

6．A fourth，A中，be preeminent（III－1），might be added to this list，but in modern Amharic it is hardly ever heard，except，in the language of prayer，for＂to be magnified＂（ $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{g}$ ，is\％ent Thy Name be magnified！）；and also in the special use of its Contingent；for which see Sec． 135 and 290.

7．With the help of an adverbial phrase，ainn can supply a comparative for other adjectives；while N\％，in the same manner，is used to give the opposite sense：

He is older but knows less（lit．In age he is greater but in knowledge he is smaller．
8．A comparative adverb may be produced by prefixing $n$ to the relative（i，e．adjectival）form of nim （as per Sec．255）：

$9_{0}$ n＇s can also mean＂to be insufficient＂，i．e．＂to be less than required＂：

10．See Sec．135，under Abnormal Uses of the Contingent．
291. Superlative sense is conveyed by the use of the definite article:
 when required, rendered by $h(t) .2$

Appropriate words like $t-\hat{K}$, $n \boldsymbol{n} \%$ etc. can be added to strengthen the superlative sense, but they are not an essential part of the superlative construction.


292. When an adjectival verb is used, the definite sense will be clear from the context, though an actual definite article cannot be suffixed unless the verb is a relative:

In an adverbial Superlative, likewise, it is only by using a relative verb that the definite article can be accommodated:

293. No distinction is made, as it is in English, between true Superlatives and those Comparatives which are, like Superlatives, expressed with a definite article:
e.g. $\quad \boldsymbol{K}_{2}$

This means that, whenever the English has "the", the Amharic construction will be as for a Superlative

1. In this superlative use, as elsewhere (see Sec. 153), the definite article is liable to omission, the definite sense simply being understood from the context. Thus, without affecting its meaning, this example


20; See Sec. 241 (3) under Prepositions.

## PART FIVE: DIOM AND USAGE <br> The Idiom

294. A knowledge of words and grammatical constructions will not alone enable the student to speak good Amharic. He must also learn the Ambaric idiom -- the "way of putting things" -- which is so different from that of the European language. Unless he starts doing that at an early stage he will naturally tend to translate everything word for word from his own language; and the danger then is that his ear, in course of time, will have grown so accustomed to his own ways of expression that it will fail to distinguish between them and those of the Ethiopian. Apart from this, also, he will sometimes find that Amharic posseses no exact equivalent of the word which he wishes to translate from his own language; and then, unless he discovers the idiomatic "way round" he will have no means at all of expressing himself.

The following pages offer a selection of these peculiarly Amharic uses -- ways of saying things which the student will find heneeds to say. A mastery of such idioms will enable him to express himself in cases when direct translation from the English is out of the question. ${ }^{1}$
295. How to express Approximation.
(a) By using purcid or ( pl ) filfait (lit. it will be, they will be).
e.g. Ptinnin hif uf Bifgit: The people who gathered were about twenty.
(b) By using h3e (lit. one).

(c) By using gua (lit. amounting to). ${ }^{2}$
e.g. PThndint aqf uf gua sinka The people who gathered were about twenty.

Any or all of the above may be used together:

(d) By using aff (lit, to). This is especially used for time. For wider approximation $9 \times 9$ (around) may be added.

 Around fifty died.
(e) By using ${ }^{[6}$ (lit. and) or $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ g.g. (or):


296. How to express Probability.
(a) By using elufa (lit. it will be) as an uninflected auxiliary verb following a participle (Gerund or Contingent); or alone, with personal inflexions.



 They are probably soldiers.


Is it likely to rain today?
Yes, it probably will.
(b) By using $a+$ negative Contingent followed by negative Contingent of $\$ \underset{L}{Z}$ (remain). ${ }^{3}$ This denotes greater probability or near certainty.
e.g. nfoonar he.tヶ9n

They will most probably escape (or They are sure to escape; lit. They will not remain without escaping).

1. Many such idiomatic uses have already been dealt with in the course of the grammar.
2. See Sec. 136, under Abnormal uses of the Contingent.
3. For the meaning of this verb see Sec. 335 (a).

297．How to express Fixed Arrangement．
（a）By using $A+$ Contingent followed by sa．or yinc（sometimes personally inflected）．


（b）By using an Agent with the verb＂to be＂．See Sec． 159 on The Agent．
298．How to express Imminence．
（a）By using $A+$ Contingent followed by sor．or sfic（sometimes personally inflected）．
 I am about to go．
nome tinc：（sifkr）He（pol）was about to call．
In the case of a subordinate clause introduced by in（when），the verb in（personally inflected）com－ monlytakes the place of soo or stîc ：
 advantage）． 1
（b）By using the Infinitive on＋Possessive Suffix followed by sor or silc（uninflected）． This construction gives a stronger sense of imminence．
e．g． $\operatorname{cosiden}$
I am about to go．
They were about to start．

The sense of imminence may further be emphasized by placing eficm－${ }^{2}$ at the beginning：

I am just about to go．
299．How to express Progressive Development．Gradual Change etc．
（a）By using $\lambda$ ．
e．g．Х



e．g．蹻鱼 wht They gradually grew fatter．

300．How to express Constant and Customary Action．
By using it Contingent followed by the verb cil（live，III－3）．
e．g．PT7\％日
301．How to express Future Perfect Action．
By using $\lambda$ inh（Preposition）or kin（Conjunction）．

They will have arrived by Saturday．
He will have eaten everything by the time we arrive．
The perfect sense can be emphasized by using a Gerund before the verb $\${ }^{\prime \prime}$ in the Present Imper－ fect Tense：

When the sense of the main verb entails the idea of something being finished，to add emphasis the Gerund of mün may be placed before it：

302．How to say＂in the act of＂．
By using n－n\＆with an Infinitive or other verbal noun．



When I went in he was in the act of shaving．
It is not convenient now；she（pol）is working（i．e．in the act of work）．

1．This is the construction used to express intention（see Sec． 280 under Direct Speech）．Thus Aジチ～nA could also be translated＂When I was intending to set off．＂
2．See Sec．214，under Demonstratives．
303. How to say " almost", "nearly".
(a) By using either one of the constructions given for expressing Imminence, (Sec. 298, above).

ancozaty- 30 - a






You (pl) have almost finished (you are about to finish).
We are nearly there (= We are about to arrive).
It is nearly six (= twelve) $o^{\prime}$ clock.
When it was almost finished I bought a new one.
(b) By using the verb $\oplus \ddot{Z}\left(\right.$ remain, II-2-A) ${ }^{1}$



e.g.

You (pl) have almost finished (lit. You have drawn near to the end).

You (pl) have almost finished (lit. There remains to you only a little for you to finish).
304. How to say "through"
(a) By using the preposition 7 (by).
e.g. nlovint in: :

He got in through the window.
(b) By using the preposition 0-nti-A (by way of).


(c) By using the preposition $n$-anun̈d (among, between).
e.g. $\quad$ athex apuha +314:

They journeyed through the mountains.
(d) By using the premosition $\boldsymbol{n}-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \boldsymbol{h} \boldsymbol{T}$ (inside).

(e) By using the verb Nill (pass; I-A).
e.g. nacis. रinc.7: We went through the desert.
(f) By using the verb Hind (get through; I-A).

(g) By using the verb $n \underset{\text { nit }}{ }$ (pierce; II-I-A).

(h) By using the verb $\underset{\sim}{\text { fin }}$ (creep through; I-A).

(i) By using the yerb cünh (flow down, out; I-A), or its Direct Causative form ha.în
e.g. ncoo- sciAn: $\quad$ The rain comes through the roof ( $=$ The roof leaks).
305. How to say "too", "too much".
(a) By using a plain adjective or adjectival verb (with the appropriate emphasis). ${ }^{3}$

1. For the meaning of this verb see Sec. 335 (a).
2. If is possible to use the basic form, $+\mathbb{Z n}$ in the same way.
3. Of the two the adjectival verb brings out the sense of "too" more clearly and is, therefore, generally preferable.
e．g．Arönch hitc som a
 Alt 3on： nH：

The trousers are too short． II is too much．
（b）By using nmg or Xéa（lit．very）before an adjective or adjectival verb．



The trousers are too short．
（c）By using an adjectival verb with the infixed preposition $n$（＂to the disadvantage of＇）and an object suffix．
e．g．A
The trousers are too short for me．
（d）By using $\boldsymbol{h} 3 \mathrm{R}$＋negative Contingent with an adjective or adjectival verb． e．g．



306．How to say＂ever＂，＂never＂．
（a）For past time，＂ever＂is rendered by a Gerund followed by theverb k̈̈中（know；I－A）in the Pre－ sent Imperfect Tense，and＂never＂by the same construction but with the verb $\boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\phi}$ in the neg－ ative．


No，I have never been．

 Do you（f）ever visit her？
 meaning＂completely＂）with a negative verb．

For extra emphasis this construction can be combined with the construction given under（a）above．

Have you（f）never seen her？
307．How to say＂although＂，＂even if＂。
（a）By using $n \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}$ ins or $\mathrm{H}_{3}{ }^{2}$

（b）By using go gr $^{\circ}$（lit，anything），either alone or in conjunction with（a）．
e．g．ร03g a，hahar hatarga


Although（＝Even if）they forbid me I shall not stop．
Even if they do forbid me I shall not stop．
（c）By using the suffixed conjunction go 3

Even if the owner forbids me I shall not stop．
308．How to say＂whether．．．or＂．
（a）When there are two nouns，by placing
between them．${ }^{4}$

Whether it is tea or coffee I will drink（it）．
（b）When an affirmative and a negative are in contrast，by placing an affirmative and a negative con－ tingent side by side with each other，each with 1 （if）prefixed and，frequently，一 $\boldsymbol{F}^{\prime \prime}$（and）suffixed．
 Whether he wants or not he will be sent．
（c）In an Indirect Question，as described in Sec． 284 （4）under Reported Speech．

1．For the grammatical form of $n{ }^{\text {ti }}$ see Sec． 258 under Gerunds used as Adverbs．With an af－ firmative verb hi sometimes gives the sense of the English suffix＂－－ever＂：e．g．

Whatever has happened to that girl？
2． 13 h is a more literary or classical form．
3．For which see Sec． 260 （2）．
4．See also Sec． 260 （12），under Conjunctions．

309．How to say＂early＂．
（a）By using（ n ） 7 AR （early in the morning），

He will get up and leave early．${ }^{1}$
（b）By using the Gerund of $\phi$ 㗓 $n \boldsymbol{n}$（be a little earlier）．
e．g． 37 中R ${ }^{\circ}$ fliv $\mathrm{G} \approx \quad$ Come（m）early（ $=$ a little earlier）tomorrow．
（c）By using 1 I2t（in time）．
e．g．02． H 7グ3：
We got in early． 2
（d）By using 471 harZ̈n $9^{\circ}$ ：（the hour has not arrived），etc．
 ASt nefrn 更家々：They started（too）early．
（e）By using neant（before evening，night，draws on），etc．

310．How to say＂late＂．
（a）By using the verb $\boldsymbol{\phi} \ddot{\mathrm{F}}$（wait；II－2－B）or HT⿳亠丷厂阝（delay；V－2）．
 H7e＋7 $193:$ We arrived late．


Don＇t be late（ m ）．
（b）By using the verbs cäg（draw on，morning；I－A）and anía（draw on，evening，night；II－2－A）or their Direct Causative forms．
e．g． Chat


It is late（morning）．
It is late（evening or night）．
They returned very late（in the evening or at night）．

e．g．her is is hasay It is（too）late now．
 She came late．
（d）By using（n）$b \boldsymbol{A} \rightarrow$（at night）．

311．How to say＂ago＂．
（a）By using h－fiait（before）．

（b）By using PHC（lit．of today）．

312．How to say＂in＂（of time）．
（a）By using h－n3（after）．
e．g．hr中事中＂
Come back（m）in a few days．
（b）By using pHG（lit．of today）．

（c）By using the Gerund of $\Phi$（wait；II－2－B）．

（d）When＂in＂means＂within＂，not＂after＂，0－a－ht is used．

313．How to say＂before＂when specifying a time period preceding an event．By using $a+$ Contingent，or
$n_{+}$a noun，followed by the time period and $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{L}}+\mathrm{C}$（frequently，but not invariably，with an object suffix）．

2．This is often，but not always，used with the sense of＂before dark．＂

## 



There are various other possibilities, for instance:--



314. How to say "after" when specifying a time period following an event. By using:

 married.


315. How to say " since" when specifying a time period following an event.

By using $\boldsymbol{n}+$ Simple Perfect followed by the time period with a possessive suffix or the verb for with an object suffix.


316. How to say "How often?"
(a) By using dintr nayt followed by an appropriate noun of time.


(b) By using nëņ? followed by an appropriate noun of time. ${ }^{2}$


(c) When an inclusive time period is named, by using n7\% 2,4

How often do you (m) see him in a week?
317. How to say " some".
(a) By leaving it untranslated.
e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi}+\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{3}$ :

We drank some milk.
(b) By using r中; (a little, a few) -- whena small quantity or number is referred to (for quantity $\begin{aligned} & \text { 苟 }\end{aligned}$ can also be used).

Add (m) some salt.

Some people are standing outside (lit, at the door).
(c) By using k3q3e (lit. one one) -- when a smaller number are distributedamongst a larger number (i. e, one here and one there amongst manv).

 shic: :

(d) By using ${ }^{\text {Iq7h }}$ (lit. half) when a considerable proportion of the whole is referred to.


He ate some and gave the rest to me.

1. On the analogy of the distributive pronoun construction, for which see Sec. 227 (a).
2. On the analogy of the distributive pronoun construction, for which see Sec. 227 (b).
3. Notice that h3gife is a singular construction; but since Amharic is not strict about concord in number its noun or verb may be plural (as in this example). It can even take a plural suffix itself:


318．How to say＂fast＂and＂slow＂of clocks and watches．As shown in the following examples：－－


```
49t mg 2人 中C.LA=
n3t RGTc4:
dgt eqe.aqA =
nSt mg z1 e&C.A :
```

My watch is fast ( $\quad \Phi \boldsymbol{q}^{\circ} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{n}$, be a little early).

My watch is slow（
My watch goes fast（


My watch goes slow．
319．How to say＂prefer＂．
（a）By using the verb
 I prefer to finish this evening．
（b）By using the verb aëf（love；I－A）．

It is the elder which he prefers．
（c）By using the verb anm（chose；I－A）．

They preferred death to denying their Master．

320．How to say＂use＂（verb）．
（a）By using the verb
e．g．v＊ヘ̈ 2 H X 15 久Atw
We always use it（lit．work with it）． It has not yet been used（lit．worked with）．
（b）By using the verb h\＆で．（do；D．C．I－A）following $\AA+$ appropriate noun（oftenan Instrument．See Sec． 160 （c））．

（c）By using the verb m＂̈n（be useful；I－A）or its Passive form taiqan（be profited）．




321．How to say＂feel＂．




I feel the heat．
They felt sorrow．
（b）By using the verb fïn（feel with the hand；Int．${ }^{1} \mathrm{C} . \mathrm{S}$ ．I），or，sometimes，fïn（touch lightly with the hand； 1 Int．C．S．D．



She went about feeling（her way）in the dark． The doctor had felt（pol）my chest，

322．How to say＂hurt＂（verb）．
（a）When referring to the sensation of pain，by using the verb häom（pain，ache；I－A），or its Indirect Causative form，„h

（b）When referring to injury or harm done，by using 70 芝 damage，harm；II－1－A），or its Passive form $+70 \ddot{8}$


1．See Sec． 142 under Impersonal Verbs．
2．See Secs．143－146 under Impersonal Verbs．

323．How to say＂stop＂．
（a）By using the verb \＆an（stand，come to a standstill；III－3），or its Direct Causative form， K\＄an（bring to a standstill）．

The car stopped．
Stop（m）here（car etc．）．
The noise stopped．
（b）By using the verb to（leave；irreg．III－2）．

（c）By using the verb hatin（prevent；IV）．
e．g．גท
（d）By using the verb $\lambda \ddot{\mathrm{F}} \mathrm{Z}$ n（cut short；I．C．${ }^{1}$ Int．C．S．I－A）．

324．How to say＂hope＂（verb）．
By using the nown tic（hope），either with theverb＂to have＂（ kïme etc．），or with the verb kgiz （do；D．C．I－A）．


The Direct Speech construction is sometimes used（chiefly with $\quad$ HK KRZi7）${ }^{1}$ ．



325．How to say＂promise＂（verb）．
By using the noun tif（hope）with the verb An̈（give；II－2－A）．That which is promised can be expressed with either the Direct or the Indirect Speech construction．
e．g．


Since＂giving hope＂is not necessarily thesameas promising，it is sometimes best to add ame（full）


326．How to say＂keep a promise＂．
By using the noun ${ }^{\prime} A\left(\begin{array}{c}\text {（word）} \\ \text {（ }\end{array}\right.$ （complete，fulfill；I－B），mî́中（guard，keep；I－B），大hïદ（honour；D．C．I－A）．
e．g．虫 23 的的交：


She kept her promise．
They have kept their promise． He is one who keeps his promise．

327．How to say＂break a promise＂．
（a）By using the negative of any of the constructions given above for＂keep a promise＂．

You（m）have broken your promise．
（b）By using the verb hifin（I－A）or its noun nnnt These imply deliberate deceit or denial of the promise．
e．g．h－linya $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { kflity saran }\end{array}\right]$ You（m）have broken your promise（i．e．You have cheated）．

328．How to say＂pretend＂．
 resemble，seem）．



1．For the Direct Speech construction see Sec． 279.
 likewise the verb $\Phi$ Äg（joke，have fun；I－B）when the pretense is in play．
e．g．Uh．g＇anhn gforna：
He pretends（deceitfully）to be a doctor．

He pretends（in play）to be a doctor．
329．How to say＂think＂。
（a）When referring to





## Think（ pl ）about that．

I thought I would increase his wage（for him）． We had thought to dismiss him．
（b）When referring to an impression received，by using the verb anän（seem；I－A）．
e．g．Ravinis̃ ：I think so，
h，

I don＇t think so．

She thinks that the rains are over．

We don＇t think that they will oppose us．${ }^{1}$
Supper is ready，I think．
330．How to say＂lose＂．
（a）By using the yerb m\＆（get lost，disappear；II－1－A）．${ }^{2}$

The pick－axe is lost．
This year they have lost many thousands of dollars．
（b）By using the verb mA（throw down；III－1）－－when an object has been carelessly dropped or left somewhere．

I had lost my rain－coat somewhere．
Where is it that you（ m ）lost it？
331．How to say＂drop＂（trans．）．
（a）By using the verb $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ ：${ }^{\circ}$（fall；I－A）with the infixed ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ and an object suffix．

（b）By using the verb $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{n}}$（throw down；III－1）．This implies an element of carelessness．
e．g．$\lambda$ クタititnce：Don＇t drop it！
332．How to say＂happen＂．
（a）By using the verb irt（become；III－3）．

| e．g． | 903 $\mathrm{fl}_{6}$ ？ | What has happened？ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | I don＇t know what has happened． |
|  | gor uti？ | What has happened to them？ |

（b）By using the verb＋\＆．Z̈？（be done；P．I－A）．

333．How to say＂decide＂，＂make up mind＂．
By using the verb ${ }^{2}$ 若m（cut；I－A），with or without the noun kinn（thought）．



He （pol）has not yet decided．
I have made up my mind to have a house built．

334．How to say＂guess＂．
（a）By using the verb onin（seem；I－A）．

Guess（ m ）what this is（＝What do you think this is？）
（b）By using the verb $\boldsymbol{\eta} \ddot{\boldsymbol{m}}+\boldsymbol{+}$（estimate；I－B），or its noun $\boldsymbol{q} \boldsymbol{q} \boldsymbol{\phi} \boldsymbol{\gamma}$（estimation）．

A combination of（a）and（b）can also be used：


Guess（pl）how many．
Guess（f）who has come？

1．For the use of a relative construction with anin see Sec． 284 （3）under Reported Speech．
2．The Direct Causative form hm4 is used for＂destroy＂rather than＂lose＂．
335. Inherently Negative Verbs.

There are two common verbs whose sense is inherently negative and for which there are no exact equivalents in English. They are: --
(a) 中" or something remains undone. In different contexts, therefore, it may be translated: "remain with-out--", "be left undone", "not to--", "fail to--", " be cancelled", etc.



They failed to send me an answer.
Q. $\quad$ gin 7. H R.CHA age?

Is it lunch time yet?
Not yet, there is still a quarter of an hour to go.


Last year there was evening teaching; but it is discontinued now.
Don't do what I said before; there is some other work.
From the sense of cancellation, which is found in the last two examples, it is not far to the idea
 meaning " pardon" "forgive"; and from this is derived RXC; a noun meaning "pardon", "forgiveness'。
(b) $h^{m}$ (II-1-A). This means "lack", "be without", hence " not to have", "fail to find" etc.



Because he had 2 no small changehegave (it) meon credit.
I looked and looked but could not find it.
336. Idiomatic uses of the Verb $\mathrm{PH}_{\mathrm{H}}$, hold, take hold of (III-1).
 "bring" and "take", if the action of "bringirg" or "taking" is only incidental to" coming" or "going" it is common to use instead the Gerund of $\rho_{H}$ before $\boldsymbol{m} / \boldsymbol{m} \%$ or some other appropriate verb.


 I shall take my shoes to the shoemaker's. but guTn RTC ג\%qău:s I shall take an umbrella with me.

Similarly, $\rho H$ by itself gives the sense of "to have with one ". e.g. \$At- dita? Have you (f) the key with you? ${ }^{2}$
(b) While English speaks of a person "catching" a cold, Amharic more reasonably speaks of a cold, or other sickness, catching the person:

I have caught a cold. ${ }^{3}$
337. Uses of the verb $q \times i{ }^{\circ}:$, fill (II-1-A). ${ }^{4}$
(a) $4 p^{\prime \prime}$ is more loosely used than most Amharic verbs, as it can be both transitive and intransitive, and can take as its subject either the person, the substance or the vessel (container etc.) involved in the act of filling. It can also take either the substance or the vessel as its direct object.






The man filled the bucket with water.
Water filled the bucket.
The bucket became full of water. ${ }^{6}$

1. For the derivation of nouns from " $\lambda \boldsymbol{A}$ Verbs" see Sec. 114, under Compounds of hA
2. See also Sec. 103 (3), footnote, on ways of translating "have".
3. See also Sec. 340.
4. Another form of the verb is mań (also II-1-A).
5. This is an adverbial accusative: see Sec. 256.

6 Very similar sense can be conveyed by a use of the passive verb: nafar noy $+\mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{in}}^{\mathrm{n}}$ The bucket was filled with water.
（b）This verb is often used with reference to numbers，money，time，etc．to indicate completion：



That is not a complete hundred．
Awaken（ m ）me when the hour is up．
（c）The 3rd masc．sing．of the Present Perfect，quita is used idiomatically for＂There is plenty＂；


338．Verbs which are used to translate＂burn＂etc。
 サ，品


$\begin{array}{ll}\text {（b）sëgry } & \text {（I－A）} \\ \text { hifig } & \text {（D．C．I－A）}\end{array}$



（c） $6 . \stackrel{\text { 号 }}{ } \quad(\mathrm{II}-2-\mathrm{A})$
＋4．${ }^{\circ}$（P．${ }^{1}$ Int．C．S．II－2－A）

－nt 2．th ebsa ：

（d）thon（I－B）
hrhon（D．C．I－B）
卜rhon（P．I－B）




burn（trans．）
be burned
Burn（ m ）all the rubbish，
Our register（＝account book）hasbeen burned to our dis－ advantage．
burn（intrans．），catch a light
light（fire）
The stove is no good；the fire won＇t burn．
Light（ $f$ ）the fire．
The fire has not yet been lit．
burn（trans．）（especially of sensation）；burn up（figur－ atively；often used for time or money）．
burn（ $i_{0}$ e o be burning by nature ${ }^{1}$ ）。
I felt the saucepan and it burned me．
It takes（lit．burns up）much time．
When there is too much red pepper the food ${ }^{2}$ burns．
apply heat in some way，burn with hot iron etc．，hence：
iron（clothes），brand，cauterize，shoot．
be feverish（impersonal ${ }^{3}$ ）
be ironed，branded，etc．
Please（f）iron my shirt for me． He burns（brands）his sign on their backs．
They aimed their rifles and shot at us．
I have a burning fever．

339．Adverbial Expressions of Time derived from the verb $中{ }^{3}{ }^{3} n$（precede：I－A）．
中e．q（an uninflecting Gerund） 4 formerly，in the old days． $5^{\circ}$
（1中！．g
中象が
recently，the other day（approx．within the last week）．
just now， 6 a short while ago（within the last hour or So）．
$\lambda\rangle \psi \stackrel{P}{\rho} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}$（Gerund of the I．C．form；it inflects for persons）first（of two or more actions）：
中．＂in $\cdot n^{\circ}$（Gerund of the Weak Form＂kn Verb＂；it inflects for persons）a little earlier，${ }^{7}$ hït．U 中 before now，previous to this．

1．See Sec， 97 （4）under Changed Stem derived forms of Verb．
2．There is no translation for the Ethiopian food mp＂Sauce＂hardly gives the true sense。
3．See Sec．144，footnote，on verbs used to express physical reactions．
4．See Sec， 258 under Adverbs．
5．中erp has much the same use as e．e．（or p．t．）．Both refer commonly，but not invariabl to time long past．

6．＂Just now＂in a still more immediate sense is translated kor＂（now）．
7．See Sec． 309 （b）on How to Say＂Early＂．

340．Some further Idiomatic Phrases etc．
1．Idiomatic uses of خ3中Aq：，sleep． 1


I went to sleep（lit．Sleep took me）．${ }^{2}$ I became sleepy（lit．Sleep gripped me）．
2．＂Let alone＂，＂Not only＂．

I won＇t do it for five dollars，let alone two．

He does not yet know the alphabet，let alone to read．

Not only can she speak the language（or，Let alone speaking the language），she can write it aswell．
3．＂What has that to do with you？＂etc．



ACOT 90\％300？

What has that to do with you（m）？
What has that to do with him？
What has that to do with you（m）？
What has that to do with him？

4．＂For nothing＂．
（a）When it means＂free＂．

（b）When it means＂in vain＂．
0月3士 A 4 ？：


They are to be had for nothing．
It was for nothing． 3

We went to the trouble for nothing．
You pushed me on purpose．
It came open by itself（i．e．of its own accord）．

Let it stay shut．

7．TVC：म4．
Leave（f）it open．
Our eucalyptus trees are being cut，one here and one there．


It comes to eight dollars．
That is true what you（f）say．
They are lying。

（lit．＂It is my fortune＂－good or bad as indicated by the context）． 5 ．

903 n4．3：


It doesn＇t matter to me．
What does it matter？What of it？
1．The verb corresponding to this noun is $\mathrm{h} 3 \mathrm{~A} \mathrm{~A}_{4}^{4}$ ．（D．C．Ext．${ }^{1}$ Int．C．So V－1）which means ＂doze off＂．

2．To avoid ambiguity it is sometimes necessary to use this idiom rather than the verb $\boldsymbol{r}$ （II－1－B），since the latter can mean either＂go to sleep＂，＂sleep＂or＂lie down＂．

3．See Sec． 213 （footnote）uncer Demonstratives．
4．The appropriate possessive suffix is used．

6．The appropriate object suffix is used．

|  |  | It won＇t matter；fill make no difference；If will be all right． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13. | ก\＄Cのn 2H： 7 | recently，soon． |
|  |  | during this week． |
|  | noAgt hyse ¢\％ | one day，once upon a time． |
| 14. | 0．97h（n．s3n n．p7n） | at least |
|  |  | at most |
| 15. | 入ーロ葠の ntap（ntar） | especially，mostly． <br> especially，particularly． <br> and especially；and what＇s more；moreover． |
|  |  |  |
| 16. |  | most of it． |
|  |  | most of them． |
| 17. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { anouth } \\ & \text { nibnct } \end{aligned}$ | After all this－－；By the way，－－． Oh，by the way，－－！ |
| 18. |  ntと $0+6$ ． | to and fro；back and forth． in turn． |
| 19. | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \lambda 3 R+n \cos g a r \\ \lambda 3 R \text { Ach } \\ \text { nn\$nḧmer } \end{array}\right]$ | usually，generally． in general． |
| 20. |  | There is sure to be one；There is sure to be some（lit． It will not be lost． |

## MISCELLANEOUS USAGES，etc．

Greetings and Farewells．
341．Mr entäiz：${ }^{4}$（lit．May He give health on my behalf）is the most general expression both of greeting and farewell．It can be used at any time of day，alone or to preface other expressions of greeting or farewell（such as those given below）．Of all these expressions it is the only one which remains the same whatever person is addressed．

342．The following further expressions of greeting and farewell must be inflected according to the per－ son addressed i，e．they must be given the appropriate 2 nd person form（masc．，fem．，pol．or plur．） but for convenience they are all shown here in the $2 n d$ person polite form．


1．This can also be used with an object suffix：e．g．P3g heAug a il won＇t hurt you（m）；You＇ll be all right．

2．See Sec．135，under Abnormal Uses of the Contingent，
3．The appropriate possessive suffix is used．
4．Generally contracted in speech by the omission of $f$ ms（B） $\boldsymbol{A T A B Z}$
(b) For use at particular times.

One of the following verbs is chosen, as appropriate to the time and occasion:-
 pass the night (I-A). pass the day (III-1). pass the morning (D. C. I-A). pass the evening (D.C. II-2-A). pass a few days or weeks (IV). pass a few months, or longer (lit. pass the rains; 1-A).
These are used as follows (taking $\lambda \hat{R} C$ as an example):--
On meeting in the morning

(D) Rug 2R\&?

On parting at night: (I) evg esta:
How have you passed the night?
Have you passed the night well?
Pass the night well! ${ }^{2}$
343. When, in greeting, some such question as those given above is asked (How are you? How have
 This may either be used by itself or to preface a real answer to the question:
e.g. Q. k7R9"3 597?


How are you?
May God be praised!
May God be praised, I am well.

After this a counter question may be asked:

And you, how are you?
344. Greetings for Special Occasions.

These are generally prefaced with $\lambda 7 h 3$, which in this use is an expression of felicitation. The following are a selection of the more useful, together with their approximate English equivalents and the standard answers employed: -- 5

## h3h R R $\frac{\text { Greetings }}{\text { (7) }}$

Congratulations! My felicitations!
A3by nfuc 7it: $=$
Congratulations on your safe arrival! Welcome!

May the Lord make you well!

Congratulations on your recovery!

May the Lord comfort you!

A. happy Christmas!

A happy Easter!




1. The Present Perfect may be used instead of the Simple Perfect: NYRF\% her<PA
2. This is the ordinary way of saying "Good-night". For the other 2nd persons it will be;


3. Though otherwise it means "even", h>h3, as an expression of felicitation, has no English equivalent and practically defies translation.
4. For convenience, again, the 2nd person polite forms are used. The other 2nd person forms must, of course, be substituted as appropriate.







A happy New Year!
345. How to send greetings:
"The word for "greeting" is




ungor ; the following are examples of its use: -Give ( m ) my greetings.

They sent their greetings to all of you.

How to say "Yes" and "No".
346. "Yes".
(a) When answering a question, "Yes" is rendered XP3 (often shortened in speech to Xove).
(b) As a reply to a call, "Yes" is rendered: --
(i) $k \mathrm{~h}^{7}$ : - lit. "Lord"; used for a male person, superior or equal.
(ii) $\mathrm{x}^{\mathbf{\circ}} \boldsymbol{7} \mid$ : - lit. "Madam"; used for a female person, superior or equal.
(iii) of : - familiar and casual.
347. "No".

There are three ways of rendering "No": --
(a) pri̛ (lit. There is not).
(b) hesifo (lit. It is not). This is used chiefly in answering questions of which the verb is 7a. (this use actually comes under (c) below). But it can also be used in answering other kinds of questions; it is then somewhat stronger than phir:
 at the same time.
e.g. Q.
A.
Has it dried?
No it has not.
Q. T\& 30.1
A.
Is it good?

No, it is bad.

How to say "Please" and "Thank you".
348. "Please".
(a) The ordinary word for "please" is nati -- followed by the appropriate 2 nd person possessive

(b) A more casual "please" can be rendered by hint, for the meaning of which see Sec. 269 (18) on Interjections.

1. The appropriate names must be used, as explained in Sec. 358.

2. "Thank you".
(a) Lit. May God give on my behalf (i. e. May God repay you for me). This is a serious and formal expression of gratitude. ${ }^{3}$
 pression of gratitude.
(c) Tit Lit. Well done! This is used as an informal expression of appreciation of some service rendered, say, by a servant or a child.
(d) h $\ddot{\mathrm{h}}:=$ Lit. All right. This is commonly used as an informal acknowledgement of something received.

Another way of expressing gratitude is to bow, without necessarily saying anything. When a gift is given respectful gratitude may be shown by bowing while receiving it with both hands.

How to ask Pardon, etc.
350. The following expressions are given as for the 2nd person polite (except the first, which is a noun and therefore impersonal). The appropriate changes must of course be made for the other second persons.

| (a) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| (b) |  |
| (c) |  |
| (d) |  |
| (e) |  |

pardon!
I beg your pardon.
Excuse me.
Forgive me.
Forgive me ( = Grant me mercy).
Notice the Passive forms for (c), (d) and (e): --

I was excused.

(e) $\quad+\pi \mathrm{Cu}=$

I was forgiven.
I was forgiven ( $=$ Mercy was granted me).
Telling the Time.
351. There is six hours' difference between Ethiopian and European time reckoning: mid-day or midnight is therefore Ethiopian six o'clock. The terms used in telling the time are: --

| as? (lit. hour) | o'clock |
| :---: | :---: |
| 9.中. ${ }^{\prime}$ | minute (s) |
| h or f ( $\mathrm{lit}^{\text {a }}$ and ${ }^{5}$ ) 6 | past (after) |
| n pre (lit. to --- lacking) ${ }^{6}$. | to (before) |
| e.g. h6itnst | four o'clock (European 10:00). |
|  | five minutes past two (European 8:05). |
|  | a quarter past nine (European 3:15). |
|  | half past eleven (European 5:30). |
|  | twenty minutes to one (European 6:40). |
|  | a quarter to three (European 8:45) |
|  | omitted, especially the latter: |
|  | If is now 9:25 (European 3:25). |

1. Often contracted in speech, but in different ways; $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{g}$. by the omission of Ahb


2. Alternative but less common expressions are:--
 be used).
finfotiz May He grant long life (lit. cause to remain) on my behalf.
3. The appropriate 2 nd person object suffix can beadded: e.g. haonfisp;rivo a I thankyou (polite).
4. See Sec, 187, under Fractions.
5. 7.\% is the Product Form (see Sec. 161) of the verb 7ön , belacking (I-A). Apart, however, from this special use in telling the time, it is generally used today with the sense of "affair", " matter".

352．While there are no exact equivalents of our a．m．and p．m．，where necessary the part of the day in which the hour falls can be specified：－－




at twelve o＇clock in the morning（European 6：00 a．mo）． one o＇clock in the evening（lit．one hour from sundown－－ European 7：00 p．m．）．
at half past three in the evening（European 9：30 p．m．）． at nine o＇clock in the night（European 3：00 a．m．）．
noon，mid－day．${ }^{1}$
midnight．（ גїn mit）
in the afternoon． 4

The Days of the Week．
354．These are：－－

| hth．${ }_{\text {c }}$ | Sunday | $\boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{\omega l} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}$ | Thursday |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $0{ }^{\text {\％}}$ | Monday | $9 \mathrm{C} \cdot \mathrm{n}$ | Friday |
| 97nns | Tuesday | \＄90\％ | Saturday |
| C． 05 | Wednesday |  |  |

 She will go to market on Monday．But they are also used as adjectives before $\boldsymbol{\phi} \mathbf{\prime \prime}$ or ant 7 （both meaning＂day＂）：

| $e_{\text {。 }} \mathrm{g}$ 。 | $\operatorname{Con} \phi 3 \text { efnay } \ddot{A}=$ | They fast on Wednesday． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | She had gone to market on Monday |

The Months．
355．The Ethiopian year has 12 months of 30 days each and one miniature month of 5 days（ 6 days in leap year）added to make up the full year：－－

| $\frac{\text { Ethiopian Month }}{\operatorname{mon} \mathrm{in} \angle \boldsymbol{F}^{\mathrm{P}}}$ |  | Nearest English Equivalent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | September |
| かゆT゚ |  | October |
| ${ }^{4} 9 \mathrm{C}$ |  | November |
| 小「4400 |  | December |
| PC |  | January |
| Phtit |  | February |
| an 3 （1） |  | March |
| －29\％9 |  | April |
| 9707 |  | May |
|  |  | June |
| ¢9゚ロ |  | July |
| 2\％hí |  | August |
| 2203 |  | The Miniature Month |

The Seasons．
356．In common usage the year is divided into two main seasons：－－
n： $\boldsymbol{0}$ ，the Dry Season（approximately from end September to mid June）．
HCg゚7，the Big Rains（approximatelv from mid June to end September）．
1．＂Noon＂or＂mid－day＂may also be translated $\Phi \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{F} \mathrm{C}$ ，but this means＂the middle of the day＂ （i．$e$ ．when the sun is around its highest）rather than exactly 12：00 $0^{\circ} \mathrm{clock}$ ．

2．This is a contraction of hatint
3．Or nisf mine
4．Similarly，＂in the for enoon＂is sometimes，though less commonly，rendered hnga nat
5．The more classical（i．e．Ge＇ez）form used on calendars is $\mathbf{d i t b}$
6．See Sec． 241 （1a），footnote on the omission of $n$
7．When $\Delta \boldsymbol{A}$ ．is used in this way the reference is generally to past time．

But two other seasons are sometimes spoken of（periods which are otherwise reckoned as part of n．${ }^{\text {）：}}$－
R\＆e，the time of flowers after the Big Rains（approximately October－December）． IAM，the time of the Small Rains（approximately February－April）．

The Years．
357．The Ethiopian Calendar is approximately 7 years， 8 months behind the European，the first month of the year being oonh $\boldsymbol{F}^{\circ}$

358．The years run in cycles of four，each named after one of the four Evangelists：
ач少中

| e．g．The year | T0py | （European 1956－57）is | Hav\％${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The year | TEX | （European 1957－58）is | Hosy a9C\％${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| The year |  | （European 1958－59）is | $\mathrm{Han}^{\text {an }}$ |
| The year | TEP7 | （European 1959－60）is | How |

Dating．
359．In dating，the name of the month comes first，followed by the day and then the year．The equiv－



Terms of Polite Address．
360．There are three degrees of polite address（or polite reference）：－－

This is used for monarchs and their consorts．



 esty the Empress．
（b）AonA（feminine Adムt）${ }^{3} \quad$ Highness（adjectival form）．
This is used for members of royal families，and often renders＂Prince＂or＂Princess＂．
e．g．AD－A $\mathbb{P} \boldsymbol{f}:=\mathrm{Oh}$ ，Highness！


（c）hnic（feminine nold ）Honourable．
This is used for any rank below royalty，including commoners．
e．g．hirc：urg：Oh，Honourable Sir！


## Letter Writing

361．One of the terms of polite address given in Sec． 360 （nearly always the third，of course）is used both in addressing the envelope and at the beginning of the letter．The date is written as de－ scribed in Sec． 359 at the head or foot of the sheet．

1．In writing $\phi 3$ is often shortened to $\phi$
2．Or $\quad$ ；the first three figures are often omitted．
3．A Ge＇ez plural form is used：A0－13（m）．
4．A Ge＇ez plural form is used： $4 \mathrm{H} \cdot \mathrm{CB}$（m）．
5．A form of address similar to the above is used for bishops：nob


The following specimens will give an idea of the general form of an Amharic letter：－－
1）A letter to a male friend．

> Panginan mite 7 m :
> P「スが AT3 \$TC 2035:
> 大R.n Kn! :








 n中n thin arcf90：

2）A letter to a lady．


3）A short note to a business aquaintance．


 pamin7 fuc 3 学：






4）An application to the Municipality．



そs．n hnn
nitc ưe：






 k中cnnue：：
homall


5）An invitation to a prayer meeting．












nncofin auexp年c
hu\＆手：

6）An invitation to His Highness Ras $\qquad$ ，to a School sports day．

> KR 4na trouct Rt ernt AT3 \&. 7015そ\& त あ月!:

AO－A 4n M7A：
AO－A URE I

 7s pagtr parct hcop nowonhtr atos sapf Tanty pohmit Rngr den h7e9f\％ fnfera：



 4r 7n＋manta：

 ＋7 nyetfat aphac hiarcaz：

hif has：
138.

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