

# 1 Overview

## 2 Phonology

Amharic has several interesting phonological features, including a three-way contrast for stops: voiced, voiceless, and ejective. This distinction also exists for affricates, and the syllable structure of the language allows for quite heavy syllables (at least CVCC). There are seven vowel phonemes, and at least nineteen consonant phonemes.

### 2.1 Consonant Phonemes

Table 1 shows the consonant phonemes in Amharic.

Table 1: Consonant Phonemes

	Bilabial	Labiodent.	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b		t t' d			k k' g	ʔ
Nasal	m		n				
Trill			r				
Fricative		f	s z	ʃ			h
Approximant					j		
Lat. approx.			l				

Other sounds: w (labio-velar approximant)

Affricates: tʃ, tʃ', ts', dʒ

The plosives in Amharic are /p b t t' d k k' g ʔ/. There is a two-way contrast for labial stops (voiced and voiceless). Both sounds occur word-initially, as can be seen in (1).

- (1) /pasti/ 'pastry'  
      /bado/ 'empty'

Alveolar and velar stops have a three-way contrast between voiced, voiceless, and ejective variants. These can be seen in (2) and (3).

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <p>(2) /tako/ 'high heel'<br/>      /t'abja/ 'station'<br/>      /dar/ 'edge'</p> | <p>(3) /kibrit/ 'lighter'<br/>      /k'oda/ 'skin'<br/>      /gabja/ 'blanket'</p> |
|---|--|

The glottal stop was not observed word-initially, but it does occur word-medially. It is not clear whether it is a phoneme in the language; there are no close minimal pairs, and it is often deleted.

- (4) /gaʔat/ 'large bite'  
      /ga:t/ 'large bite (said quickly)'

Amharic has at least two nasal consonant phonemes. /m/ and /n/ occur word-initially, as in (5). The palatal nasal only occurs word-medially, and so it may be an allophone of [n].

- (5) /milas/ ‘tongue’  
/nifas/ ‘wind’

- (6) /amariɲa/ ‘Amharic’

In the rest of the paper, the palatal nasal is represented with <nj>.

There is one trill in the language, /r/, which has a good minimal pair with /g/ in (7). We also see a word-initial example in (8).

- (7) /bɛr/ ‘door’  
/bɛg/ ‘lamb’

- (8) /rɛɕim/ ‘tall’

There are five fricative phonemes in Amharic, /f s z ʃ h/. All of these occur word-initially, as seen in (8).

- (9) /fɛɾɛs/ ‘horse’  
(10) /samba/ ‘lung’  
(11) /zimb/ ‘fly’  
(12) /ʃuka/ ‘fork’  
(13) /hod/ ‘belly’

Additionally, there are four affricates in the language, including a voiced, voiceless, and ejective variant of /tʃ/. There were no word-initial examples of the non-ejective /tʃ/, so it may not be a phoneme in the language.

- (14) /tʃʼɛɾɛkʼa/ ‘moon’  
(15) /tsʼɛhaɟ/ ‘sun’  
(16) /ɕoro/ ‘ear’  
(17) /ainotʃu/ ‘eyes’

Approximants in Amharic include /l/, /j/, and /w/, which all occur word-initially.

- (18) /ləlit/ ‘night’  
/jimari/ ‘bless you’  
/wɛf/ ‘bird’

/w/ also occurs as part of the diphthong /aw/.

## 2.2 Vowel Phonemes

Table 2 shows the vowel phonemes in Amharic.

The front and mid high vowels /i/ and /ɨ/ occur word-initially and word-finally in (15) and (16), but the back vowel /u/ does not occur word-initially (and is shown word-finally in (15)). However, the morpheme /-u/ is a definite marker in the language, so /u/ we have reason to suspect that it is a phoneme.

Table 2: Vowel Phonemes

i	ĩ	u
e ɛ		o
		ɑ

Diphthongs: ej, aj, ɛw, ɑw

- (19) /iju/ ‘look at it’  
/pasti/ ‘pastry’

- (20) /ibet/ ‘house’  
/jimari/ ‘bless you’

Mid vowels in Amharic include /e/, /ɛ/, and /o/. All occur word-initially and word-finally, as seen in (17), (18), and (19).

- (21) /eli/ ‘turtle’  
/ɑjne/ ‘my eye’

- (22) /ɛrɛ/ ‘really?’

- (23) /oromina/ ‘language of Oromo people’  
/doro/ ‘chicken’

The only low vowel is /ɑ/, which occurs word-initially and word-finally.

- (24) /asa/ ‘fish’

Amharic has four diphthongs, /aj ej ɛw ɑw/. /ɛw/ does not occur word-initially, so it may not be a phoneme. In some cases, these may be better analyzed as a vowel and a consonant.

- (25) /ajt/ ‘mouse’  
(26) /k’ej/ ‘red’  
(27) /jɛsatʃɛw/ ‘their (formal)’  
(28) /bɛlaw/ ‘I ate’

## 2.3 Syllables

There are several different syllable types in Amharic.

- (29) (V) /eli/ ‘turtle’  
(30) (CV) /milas/ ‘tongue’  
(31) (CVC) /wɛf/ ‘bird’  
(32) (CVCC) /wɛrk/ ‘gold’  
(33) (CCV) /arɪŋgwade/ ‘green’

In general, we see CCV syllables only with glides as the second consonant. As in (25), (CVCC) syllables are also possible. So, we may propose a general template for syllable structure that looks like (C)(G)V(C)(C), where G is a glide. However, we see no CGVCC syllables, so there may be a limit to how many consonants are in a syllable.

## 2.4 Orthography

The following orthography was created for easier transcription of Amharic and is used in the rest of the paper.

Table 3: Vowels		
<i>í</i> [i]	<i>ī</i> [ī]	<i>u</i> [u]
<i>é</i> [e]		<i>o</i> [o]
<i>e</i> [ɛ]		<i>a</i> [a]

Consonants remain largely the same as their IPA equivalents, with the exception of the affricates.

Table 4: Consonants						
Bilabial	Labiodental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
p b		t t' d			k k' g	'[ʔ]
m		n				
		r				
	f	s z	sh[j]			h
				y[j]		
		l				
Other sounds: w (labio-velar approximant)						
Affricates: ch[tʃ], ch'[tʃ'], ts', j[ɕ]						

### 3 Pronouns

Subject pronouns have the following forms in Amharic:

Table 5: Subject pronouns

<i>iné</i>	I
<i>ante</i>	you (m)
<i>anchí</i>	you (f)
<i>isu</i>	he
<i>iswa</i>	she
<i>inya</i>	we
<i>inante</i>	you (pl)
<i>inesu</i>	they

These pronouns only occur as the subjects of sentences, and they occur before objects and verbs. This provides some evidence that Amharic is an SOV language.

- (1) *iné rejim neny*  
I tall be\1S  
'I am tall.'
- (2) *ante rejim neh*  
you-M tall be\2MS  
'You (m) are tall'
- (3) *anchí rejim nesh*  
you-F tall be\2FS  
'You (f) are tall'
- (4) *isu rejim new*  
he tall be\3MS  
'He is tall'
- (5) *iswa rejim nat*  
she tall be\3FS  
'She is tall'
- (6) *inya rejim nen*  
we tall be\1P  
'We are tall'
- (7) *inante rejim nachu*  
you\P tall be\2P  
'You (pl) are tall'
- (8) *inesu rejim nachew*  
they tall be\3P  
'They are tall'

Additionally, the language has demonstrative pronouns (like ‘this’ and ‘that’). These pronouns are gendered, and the form of the copula agrees with the gender of the pronoun. In (9), we see that the verb *new* ‘to be’ is in the masculine form, which agrees with the masculine demonstrative pronoun *ihé* ‘this’. In (10), *nat*, the third person feminine form of the copula, agrees with the feminine demonstrative pronoun *ichí* ‘this’.

- (9) *ihé k’ey wef new*  
 this red bird be\3M  
 ‘This is a red bird’<sup>1</sup>
- (10) *ichí gwadenya-ye nat*  
 this friend-1S.POSS be\3F  
 ‘This is my (female) friend.’
- (11) *inezí k’ey wef-och nachew*  
 these red bird-P be\3P  
 ‘These are red birds’

By changing the word order, these can also be used as determiners as in (12).

- (12) *inezí wef-och k’ey nachew*  
 these bird-P red be\3P  
 ‘These birds are red’

There is evidence of possessive pronouns, but we only see a single example in the data.

- (13) *yené* ‘mine’

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<sup>1</sup>In these glosses, 3F means third person feminine singular, 3P means third person plural, etc.

## 4 Possession

There are two different strategies for possession in Amharic, both of which are used for alienable and inalienable possession.

### 4.1 Suffixes

In this pattern, the person and number of the possessor is shown by a suffix on the possessed noun. Second and third person singular suffixes distinguish between male and female, but the plural forms are not gendered.

- (1) *doro-é* ‘my chicken’  
*doro-ih* ‘your (m) chicken’  
*doro-ish* ‘your (f) chicken’  
*doro-u* ‘his chicken’  
*doro-wa* ‘her chicken’

The second person masculine suffix also occurs as *-ih*.

- (2) *ij-ih* ‘your (m) hand’

All plural suffixes begin with *ach-*. These suffixes may be further analyzable as *-ach-in*, *-ach-un*, and *-ach-ew*.

- (3) *doro-achin* ‘our chicken’  
*doro-achun* ‘your (pl) chicken’  
*doro-achew* ‘their chicken’

### 4.2 Contrast forms

Additionally, Amharic has several contrast forms for possession. These forms place the stress on the possessor and convey a meaning like ‘MY hand.’ Each of these can also be expressed with a suffix form as in the previous section.

Table 6: Contrast forms			
<i>ye-né ij</i>	‘my hand’	<i>ij-é</i>	‘my hand’
<i>y-ante ij</i>	‘your (m) hand’	<i>ij-ih</i>	‘your (m) hand’
<i>y-anchí ij</i>	‘your (f) hand’	<i>ij-ish</i>	‘your (f) hand’
<i>ye-su ij</i>	‘his hand’	<i>ij-u</i>	‘his hand’
<i>ye-swa ij</i>	‘her hand’	<i>ij-wa</i>	‘her hand’
<i>ye-nya ij-och</i>	‘our hands’	<i>ij-och-achin</i>	‘our hands’
<i>?ye-nante ij-och<sup>2</sup></i>	‘your (pl) hands’	<i>ij-och-achun</i>	‘your (pl) hands’
<i>yenesu ij-och</i>	‘their hands’	<i>ij-och-achew</i>	‘their hands’

Possessive forms like ‘Rachel’s hand’ are constructed similarly. As shown in (5), these constructions do not work with the suffix forms in the previous section.

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<sup>2</sup>This form was never elicited, but we did see *yenanté mets’af* ‘your (pl) book’.

(4) *ye Rachel ij* ‘Rachel’s hand’

(5) *\*Rachel ijwa* ‘Rachel’s hand’

(6) *ye Abe ij* ‘Abe’s hand’

We can see in (4) and (6) that these forms are the same for male and female.



## 5 Reflexives

Reflexives are formed with the noun *iras*, which may be derived from *ras* ‘head.’ *iras* is the object of the sentence and takes a possessive and a *-n/-ny* object suffix. In (1), we see the paradigm for the verb *metat’eb* ‘to wash.’

- (1) *metat’eb* ‘to wash’
- |                     |                     |                             |
|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>iras-é-ny</i>    | <i>tat’eb-kuwin</i> | ‘I washed myself’           |
| <i>iras-i-n</i>     | <i>tat’eb-k</i>     | ‘You (m) washed yourself’   |
| <i>iras-ish-in</i>  | <i>tat’eb-sh</i>    | ‘You (f) washed yourself’   |
| <i>iras-u-n</i>     | <i>tat’eb-e</i>     | ‘He washed himself’         |
| <i>iras-wa-n</i>    | <i>tat’eb-ech</i>   | ‘She washed herself’        |
| <i>iras-achin</i>   | <i>tat’eb-en</i>    | ‘We washed ourselves’       |
| <i>iras-achun</i>   | <i>tat’eb-achu</i>  | ‘You all washed yourselves’ |
| <i>iras-achew-n</i> | <i>tat’eb-u</i>     | ‘They washed themselves’    |

Each of these forms of *iras* has an added *-n/-ny/-in* object suffix unless the possessive suffix already ends in *n*<sup>3</sup>. The *-ny* form occurs after the tense *-é* suffix in the 1S form, and the *-in* form occurs after *-ish*. This may be a result of the cluster *\*ishn* not being allowed in the language. (2) and (3) show the glosses of two of the forms.

- (2) *iras-é-ny*                      *tat’eb-kuwin*  
 REFL-1S.POSS-OBJ wash-1S  
 ‘I washed myself’
- (3) *iras-i-n*                      *tat’eb-k*  
 REFL-2SM.POSS-OBJ wash-2SM  
 ‘You (m) washed yourself’

The verb form is conjugated as we expect from section ??<sup>4</sup> on subject person marking. It agrees with the subject of the sentence, which either occurs before the object or only as a verbal suffix (as seen here).

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<sup>3</sup>This is probably an object suffix that occurs throughout the language. This requires some more data to prove.

<sup>4</sup>This will point to the actual section in the final write-up...

## 6 Commands

There are four different command forms in Amharic for male, female, and plural recipients in addition to the hortative form. These forms agree with the recipient using a verbal suffix in the male, female, and plural forms, and a prefix in the hortative form.

### 6.1 Command affixes

The different command forms are encoded through affixes which are attached to the verb root. In the case of vowel-final verb roots, the final vowel is dropped when there is a suffix (as in (2)). In consonant-final verb roots, there is no suffix in the masculine imperative form, and the verb form consists of only the verb root. This can be seen in (5). The hortative forms in (4) and (8) consist of a verbal prefix *in-* or *ini-* which is attached to the verb root.

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| (1) <i>téñ-a-∅</i><br>sleep-2M.IMP<br>'sleep! (to a man)' | (5) <i>ambib-∅</i><br>read-2M.IMP<br>'read! (to a man)'   |
| (2) <i>téñ-í</i><br>sleep-2F.IMP<br>'sleep! (to a woman)' | (6) <i>ambib-í</i><br>read-2F.IMP<br>'read! (to a woman)' |
| (3) <i>téñ-u</i><br>sleep-2P.IMP<br>'sleep! (pl)'         | (7) <i>ambib-u</i><br>read-2P.IMP<br>'read! (pl)'         |
| (4) <i>ini-téñ-a</i><br>sleep-2H.IMP<br>'let's sleep!'    | (8) <i>in-ambib</i><br>read-2H.IMP<br>'let's read'        |

These forms are negated using the prefix *at-* in the masculine, feminine, and plural forms. This can be seen for the verb *met's'af* 'to write' in (9), (10), and (11). In the hortative form, the prefix *an-* is used in the negative form instead of *in-*.

- |  |
|--|
| (9) <i>at-its'af-∅</i><br>NEG-write-2M.IMP<br>'don't write! (to a man)'    |
| (10) <i>at-its'af-í</i><br>NEG-write-2F.IMP<br>'don't write! (to a woman)' |
| (11) <i>at-its'af-u</i><br>NEG-write-2P.IMP<br>'don't write! (pl)'         |
| (12) <i>an-its'af</i><br>2H.IMP.NEG-write<br>'let's not write'             |

These forms are summarized in table 7.

Table 7: Command affixes		
form	positive	negative
2M	-∅	<i>at-</i> , -∅
2F	- <i>í</i>	<i>at-</i> , - <i>í</i>
2P	- <i>u</i>	<i>at-</i> , - <i>u</i>
2H	<i>in-</i> / <i>- V</i> , <i>ini-</i> / <i>-C</i>	<i>an-</i>

## 6.2 Phonological changes

In addition to the affixes, the root vowel changes for some verbs in the imperative form. Examples of this include *merot* ‘to run’ and *mehéd* ‘to go’, which are shown in (13) and (14).

- (13) *merot* ‘to run’ → *rut* ‘run! (to a male)’
- (14) *mehéd* ‘to go’ → *híd* ‘go! (to a male)’
- (15) *mets’af* ‘to write’ → *ts’af* ‘write! (to a male)’

This process occurs in one-syllable verb roots. We can put together the following correspondences in (16):

- (16) 1. *é* → *í*
- 2. *o* → *u*
- 3. *a* → *a* (no change)

In the case of /*é*/ and /*o*/, these vowels are being raised, but we do not see a similar process with /*a*/ as seen in (15).

In the feminine forms of many commands, the consonant before the /-*í*/ suffix becomes palatalized. This can be seen in 17 and 18, and appears to only occur with /*t*/ and /*d*/.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(17) <i>t’ech’-í</i><br/>drink-2F.IMP<br/>‘drink! (to a female)’</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(18) <i>híj-í</i><br/>go-2F.IMP<br/>‘go! (to a female)’</li> </ul> |
|--|---|

This can be captured with the following phonological rule. This does not appear to be a general rule in the language and may be specific to commands.

- (19) voiceless stop → palatalized / *- í*

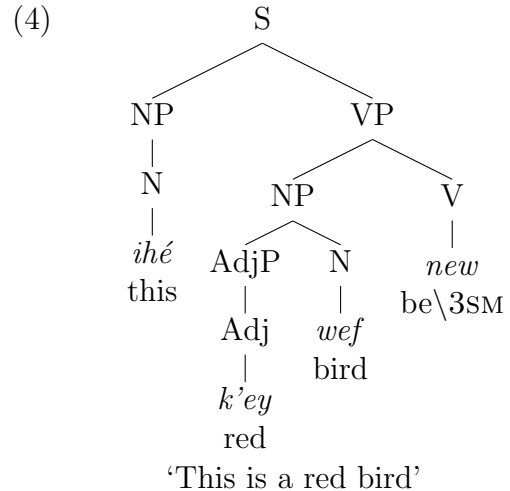
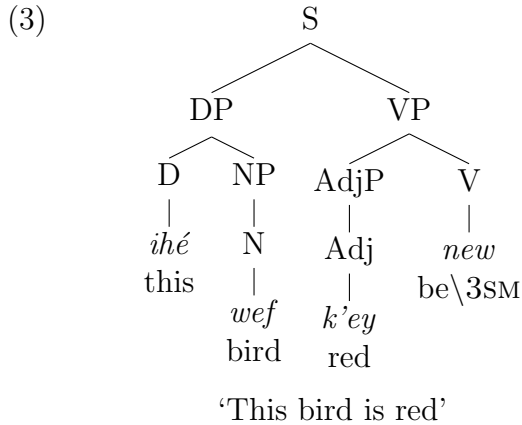
## 7 Copular sentences

### 7.1 Structure

The ‘be’ element is the verb *new* (here in the masculine form; all forms can be seen in table 8). Copular sentences have the form SOV. The complements in each of these sentences can be phrases headed either by nouns, the class of words that includes things, or by adjectives, the class of words that are used to modify nouns. These two possibilities are shown in (1) and (2).

- (1) *wef-och tinishíyé nachew*  
 bird-P small be\3P  
 ‘The birds are small’<sup>5</sup>
- (2) *Arsema temarí nech*  
 Arsema student be\3SF  
 Arsema is a student

The difference between these phrases is sometimes dependent on word order. In (3), *k’ey* ‘red’ is a complement of the verb. In (4), it modifies the noun phrase, which is a complement of the *new*.



The forms of the subjects and complements are the same. Amharic appears to track arguments using word order, and there are no indications of case in copular sentences.

### 7.2 Copula forms

Table 8 lists the forms of the copula in the positive and negative.

The word order is SOV in both the positive and negative. The only difference between affirmative and negative is the form of the copula.

- (5) *iné temarí neny* ‘I am a student’

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<sup>5</sup>In these glosses, 3SF means third person singular feminine, P means plural, etc.

Table 8: Copula forms

form	affirmative		negative	
1S	neny	‘I am’	aydelehum	‘I am not’
2SM	neh	‘You (m) are’	aydelehim	‘You (m) are not’
2SF	nesh	‘You (f) are’	aydeleshim	‘You (f) are not’
3SM	new	‘He is’	aydelem	‘He is not’
3SF	nech/nat	‘She is’	aydelechim	‘She is not’
1P	nen	‘We are’	aydelenim	‘We are not’
2P	nachu	‘You (pl) are’	aydelachum	‘You (pl) are not’
3P	nachew	‘They are’	aydelum	‘They are not’

- (6) *ante temarí neh* ‘You (m) are a student’
- (7) *anchí temarí nesh* ‘You (f) are a student’
- (8) *isu temarí new* ‘He is a student’
- (9) *iswa temarí nech* ‘She is a student’
- (10) *inya temaríyoch nen* ‘We are students’
- (11) *inante temaríyoch nachu* ‘You (pl) are students’
- (12) *inesu temaríyoch nachew* ‘They are students’
- (13) *iné temarí aydelehum* ‘I am not a student’
- (14) *ante temarí aydelehim* ‘You (m) are not a student’
- (15) *anchí temarí aydeleshim* ‘You (f) are not a student’
- (16) *isu temarí aydelem* ‘He is not a student’
- (17) *iswa temarí aydelechim* ‘She is not a student’
- (18) *inya temaríyoch aydelenim* ‘We are not students’
- (19) *inante temaríyoch aydelachum* ‘You (p) are not students’
- (20) *inesu temaríyoch aydelum* ‘They are not students’

## 8 Verbs

Maybe an overview here?

### 8.1 Subject person marking

In Amharic, subject person marking differs in each tense.

#### 8.1.1 Past positive, negative

In the past tense, there are different affixes depending on whether the verb root ends in a consonant or a vowel. Example (1) lists the different forms for a verb ending in a consonant.

- |                                       |   |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| (1) <i>mezemir</i> ‘to sing’          |   |
| <i>zemer-ku</i> <sup>6</sup> ‘I sang’ | <i>al-zemer-ku-m</i> ‘I didn’t sing’          |
| <i>zemer-k</i> ‘You (m) sang’         | <i>al-zemer-k-im</i> ‘You (m) didn’t sing’    |
| <i>zemer-sh</i> ‘You (f) sang’        | <i>al-zemer-sh-im</i> ‘You (f) didn’t sing’   |
| <i>zemer-e</i> ‘He sang’              | <i>al-zemer-e-m</i> ‘He didn’t sing’          |
| <i>zemer-ech</i> ‘She sang’           | <i>al-zemer-ech-im</i> ‘She didn’t sing’      |
| <i>zemer-en</i> ‘We sang’             | <i>al-zemer-en-im</i> ‘We didn’t sing’        |
| <i>zemer-achu</i> ‘You (pl) sang’     | <i>al-zemer-achu-m</i> ‘You (pl) didn’t sing’ |
| <i>zemer-u</i> ‘They sang’            | <i>al-zemer-u-m</i> ‘They didn’t sing’        |

By contrast, (2) shows the forms for a verb root ending in a vowel.

- |                                   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| (2) <i>mesrat</i> ‘to work’       |   |
| <i>sera-w</i> ‘I worked’          | <i>al-sera-w-m</i> ‘I didn’t work’          |
| <i>sera-h</i> ‘You (m) worked’    | <i>al-sera-h-im</i> ‘You (m) didn’t work’   |
| <i>sera-sh</i> ‘You (f) worked’   | <i>al-sera-sh-im</i> ‘You (f) didn’t work’  |
| <i>sera</i> ‘He worked’           | <i>al-sera-m</i> ‘He didn’t work’           |
| <i>sera-ch</i> ‘She worked’       | <i>al-sera-ch-im</i> ‘She didn’t work’      |
| <i>sera-n</i> ‘We worked’         | <i>al-sera-n-im</i> ‘We didn’t work’        |
| <i>sera-chu</i> ‘You (pl) worked’ | <i>al-sera-chu-m</i> ‘You (pl) didn’t work’ |
| <i>ser-u</i> ‘They worked’        | <i>al-ser-u-m</i> ‘They didn’t work’        |

For both types of verbs, the past negative is formed with the *al-* prefix and the *-im* suffix. All V-final forms preserve the final root vowel with the exception of the third-person plural form *seru*. In this form, the final vowel is dropped and replaced with the *-u* suffix; otherwise, it would be indistinguishable from the 3SM form. These two paradigms are summarized in table 9.

#### 8.1.2 Present/future positive, negative

In the present tense, there are several different forms for the positive and negative. Each form requires a prefix and a suffix, which is summarized in table 10. The different forms of *merot*’ are shown in (3).

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<sup>6</sup>Arsema was unsure if this form was correct, and also provided *zemerkuwin*

Table 9: Past subject affixes

form	C-final	V-final
1S	- <i>ku</i>	- <i>w</i>
2SM	- <i>k</i>	- <i>h</i>
2SF	- <i>sh</i>	- <i>sh</i>
3SM	- <i>e</i>	- $\emptyset$
3SF	- <i>ech</i>	- <i>ch</i>
1P	- <i>en</i>	- <i>n</i>
2P	- <i>achu</i>	- <i>chu</i>
3P	- <i>u</i>	- <i>u</i>

(3) *merot* ‘to run’

<i>iné i-rot’-al-ew</i> ‘I run’	<i>iné al-rot’-im</i> ‘I don’t run’
<i>ante ti-rot’-al-eh</i> ‘You (m) run’	<i>ante at-rot’-im</i> ‘You (m) don’t run’
<i>anchí ti-roch’-al-esh</i> ‘You (f) run’	<i>anchí at-roch’-im</i> ‘You (f) don’t run’
<i>isu yí-rot’-al-e</i> ‘He run’	<i>isu ay-rot’-im</i> ‘He doesn’t run’
<i>iswa ti-rot’-al-ech</i> ‘She run’	<i>iswa at-rot’-im</i> ‘She doesn’t run’
<i>inya in-rot’-al-en</i> ‘We run’	<i>inya an-rot’-im</i> ‘We don’t run’
<i>inante ti-rot’-al-achu</i> ‘You (pl) run’	<i>inante at-rot’-um</i> ‘You (pl) don’t run’
<i>inesu yí-rot’-al-u</i> ‘They run’	<i>inesu ay-rot’-um</i> ‘They don’t run’

In the positive forms, *-al* occurs after the verb root and may represent the present tense. The four different prefixes separate the forms into four different groups, as shown in table 10. This grouping seems arbitrary; it puts all 2nd person forms in one group along with the 3rd person feminine (group 2), while other third person forms are grouped (group 3) and first person forms are not grouped (groups 1 and 4).

Table 10: Present/future affixes

form	positive	negative	group
1S	<i>i- -al-ew</i>	<i>al- -im</i>	1 ( <i>i- / al-</i> )
2SM	<i>ti- -al-eh</i>	<i>at- -im</i>	2 ( <i>ti- / at-</i> )
2SF	<i>ti- -al-esh</i>	<i>at- -im</i> + palatalization	2 ( <i>ti- / at-</i> )
3SM	<i>yí- -al-e</i>	<i>ay- -im</i>	3 ( <i>yí- / ay-</i> )
3SF	<i>ti- -al-ech</i>	<i>at- -im</i>	2 ( <i>ti- / at-</i> )
1P	<i>in- -al-en</i>	<i>an- -im</i>	4 ( <i>in- / an-</i> )
2P	<i>ti- -al-achu</i>	<i>at- -um</i>	2 ( <i>ti- / at-</i> )
3P	<i>yí- -al-u</i>	<i>ay- -um</i>	3 ( <i>yí- / ay-</i> )

These sentences may then be glossed like in (4) and (5), where G1 represents the group 1 prefix.

(4) *iné i-rot’-al-ew*  
 I G1.PRES-run-PRES-1S  
 ‘I run’

(5) *ante ti-rot’-al-eh*  
 2SM G2.PRES-run-PRES-2SM  
 ‘You run’

The negative forms of each have a prefix that changes depending on which group the form is in, and the person marker is dropped. Each of these prefixes may be a variation of the *al-* prefix, which is found in the past tense, and just like the past tense, each form has the *-im* suffix for negation. The prefixes represent the group of the person marking, the present tense, and negation, as shown in (6) and (7).

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <p>(6) <i>iné al-rot'-im</i><br/> I G1.PRES.NEG-run-NEG<br/> 'I don't run'</p> | <p>(7) <i>ante at-rot'-im</i><br/> 2SM G2.PRES.NEG-run-NEG<br/> 'You don't run'</p> |
|--|---|

## 8.2 Object person marking in transitive verbs

In transitive verbs, the direct object is marked by a verbal suffix which occurs after the subject suffix (listed in table 10). In this way, the verb agrees with both the subject and the direct object. (8) shows the paradigm for the verb *mak'if* 'to hug.'

- (8) *mak'if* 'to hug'
- |                    |                      |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| <i>ak'if-e-ny</i>  | 'He hugged me'       |
| <i>ak'if-e-h</i>   | 'He hugged you (m)'  |
| <i>ak'if-e-sh</i>  | 'He hugged you (f)'  |
| <i>ak'if-e-w</i>   | 'He hugged him'      |
| <i>ak'if-at</i>    | 'He hugged her'      |
| <i>ak'if-e-n</i>   | 'He hugged us'       |
| <i>ak'if-achu</i>  | 'He hugged you (pl)' |
| <i>ak'if-achew</i> | 'He hugged them'     |

There are several phonological processes that change the surface forms of the affixes. For example, in (9), the third-person masculine singular subject is dropped when the object affix begins with a vowel. Additionally, in (10), the affix occurs with an initial *w* which does not occur in other forms. This *w* may be inserted after consonants in the 3SF, 2P, and 3P forms, but this is blocked by the underlying *-e* in (9).

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <p>(9) <i>ak'if-∅-at</i><br/> hug-3SM.SUBJ-3SF.OBJ<br/> 'He hugged her'</p> | <p>(10) <i>ak'if-ach-wat</i><br/> hug-2P.SUBJ-3SF.OBJ<br/> 'You (pl) hugged her'</p> |
|---|--|

These forms are summarized in table 11.

Additionally, we have evidence that suggests that indirect objects work similarly. In these examples, the direct object comes before the verb, and the indirect object occurs as a verbal suffix. The verb agrees with the subject and the indirect object in (11).

- (11) *mest'et* 'to give'



Table 11: Subject and object suffixes

form	object
1S	<i>-ny</i>
2SM	<i>-h</i>
2SF	<i>-sh</i>
3SM	<i>-t, -w</i>
3SF	<i>-(w)at</i>
1P	<i>-en</i>
2P	<i>-(w)achu</i>
3P	<i>-(w)achew</i>

<i>mets'af set'-ech-iny</i>	‘She gave me a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-ih</i>	‘She gave you (m) a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-ish</i>	‘She gave you (f) a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-u</i>	‘She gave him a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-at</i>	‘She gave her a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-in</i>	‘She gave us a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-achu</i>	‘She gave you (pl) a book’
<i>mets'af set'-ech-achew</i>	‘She gave them a book’

In several of these forms, *i* is inserted before the object prefix. This is common throughout the language, and we would expect *i* to be inserted as the default vowel.

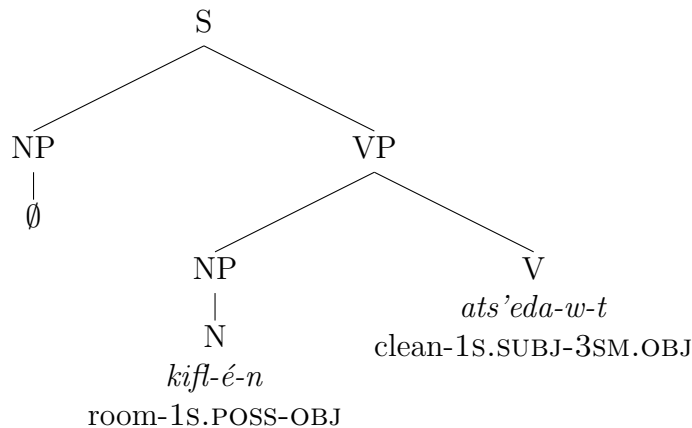
## 9 Causatives

Causatives are marked with the verbal prefix *as-*. In the causative form, the verb agrees with the causer (in the subject position) and the causee (in the object position). This is different from the non-causative form, in which the verb agrees with the subject and the object of the sentence, as seen in (1) with the verb *mats'dat* 'to clean.' However, the object is marked with the object suffix *-n* in both forms. We can see the causative form in (2).

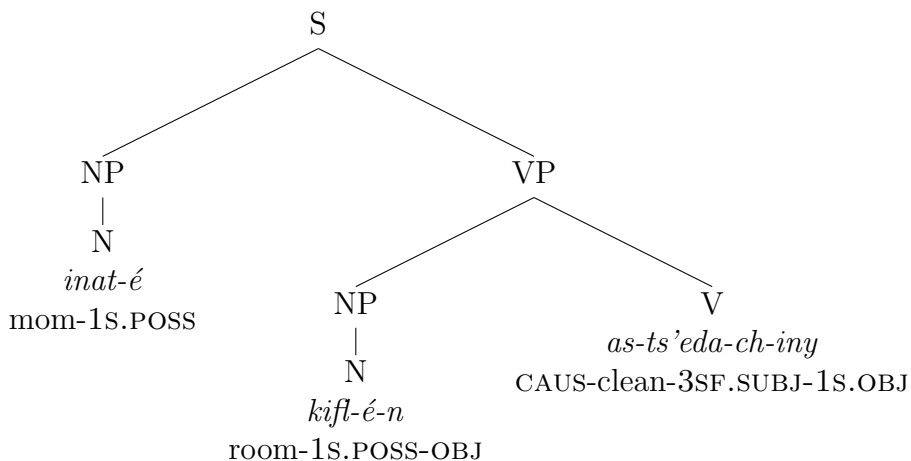
- (1) *kifl-é-n*                      *ats'eda-w-t*  
 room-1S.POSS-OBJ clean-1S.SUBJ-3SM.OBJ  
 'I cleaned my room'
- (2) *inat-é*                      *kifl-é-n*                      *as-ts'eda-ch-iny*  
 mom-1S.POSS room-1S.POSS-OBJ CAUS-clean-3SF.SUBJ-1S.OBJ  
 'My mom made me clean my room'

(3) and (4) show the structures of both sentences.

(3)



(4)



## 10 Dependent clauses

TODO: Add an intro here.

### 10.1 Complement clauses

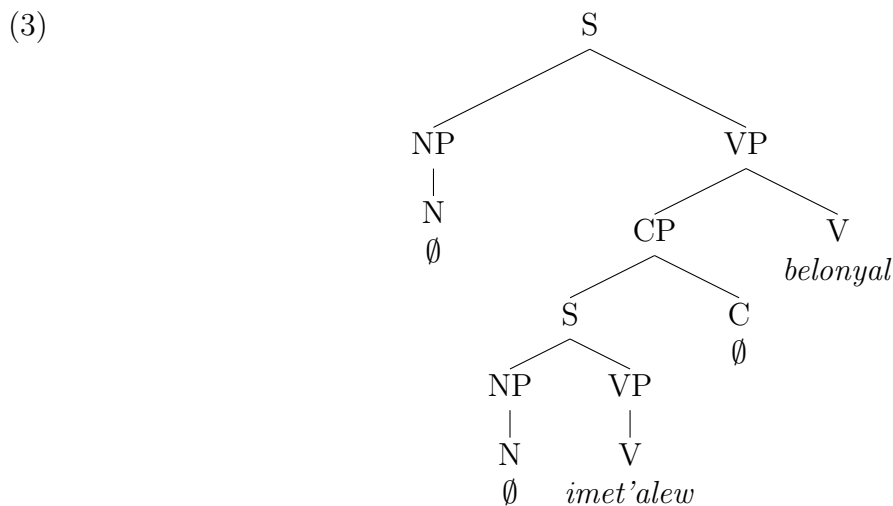
There are several types of complement clauses in Amharic.

#### 10.1.1 Null complementizer

In some cases, complement clauses are formed without an explicit complementizer. This can be seen in (1) and (2).

- (1) *i-met'-ale-w*                      *belo-∅-ny-al*  
 G1.PRES-come-PRES-1S said-3SM.SUBJ-1S.OBJ-al  
 ‘He said, “I am coming”’<sup>7</sup>
- (2) *k'onjo nat*            *t'eye-kuwin*  
 pretty be\3SF asked-1S  
 “‘Is she pretty?’ I asked’

In these sentences, the CP is the object of the main verb. These sentences have the following structure:



#### 10.1.2 Complementizer prefixes

There are several examples of verbal prefixes that function as complementizers. In many of these examples, *inde-* is used; this is shown in (4) and (5).

- (4) *inde-mí-met'a*                      *belo-∅-ny-al*  
 COMP-3SM.COMP-come\3SM.PAST said-3SM.SUBJ-1S.OBJ-al  
 ‘He said that he’s coming’

---

<sup>7</sup>The meaning of this -al suffix is unknown.

- (5) *temarí inde-hon-ku tenager-ku*  
 student COMP-be-1S.SUBJ said-1S.SUBJ  
 ‘I said that I am a student’

Another such prefix is *ke-*, which functions similarly in (6).

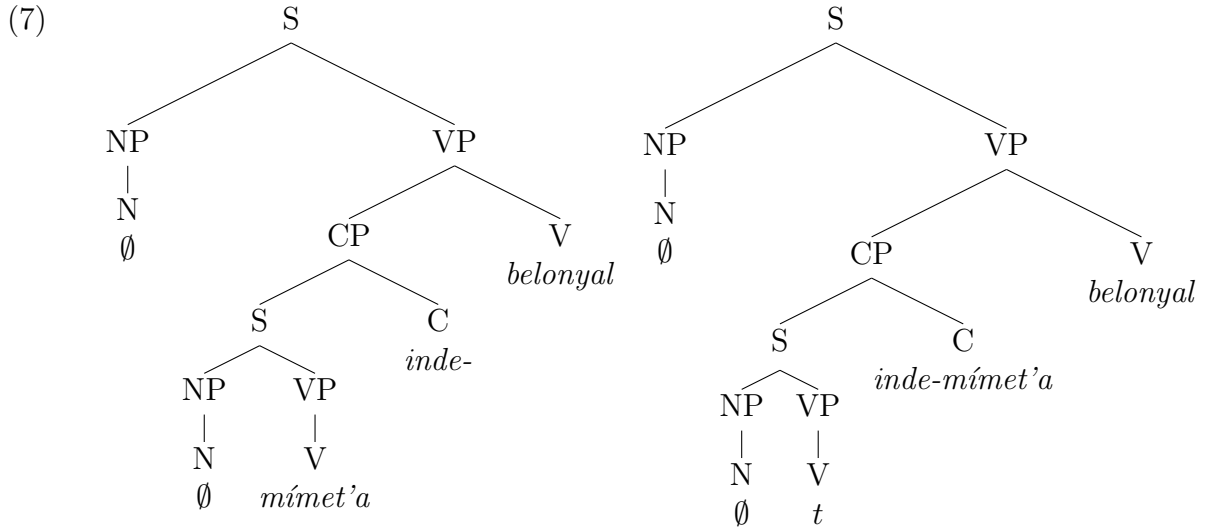
- (6) *k'onjo ke-hon-ech t'eye-kuwin*  
 pretty COMP-be-3SF asked-1S  
 ‘I asked if she was pretty’

In some examples, these prefixes are accompanied by a variation of *-mi-* and even a verbal suffix in the 1SF, 2P, and 3P forms. It is unclear when these are used, as they occur in forms like (4) but not in forms like (5). This paradigm is shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Complementizer forms

1S	<i>meblat inde-mi-felig</i>	‘that I want to eat’
2SM	<i>meblat inde-mit-felig</i>	‘that you (m) want to eat’
2SF	<i>meblat inde-mit-felig-í</i>	‘that you (f) want to eat’
3SM	<i>meblat inde-mí-felig</i>	‘that he wants to eat’
3SF	<i>meblat inde-mit-felig</i>	‘that she wants to eat’
1P	<i>meblat inde-mini-felig</i>	‘that we want to eat’
2P	<i>meblat inde-miti-felig-u</i>	‘that you (pl) want to eat’
3P	<i>meblat inde-felig-u</i>	‘that they want to eat’

(7) shows the structure of these sentences; the second tree shows how the verb moves up to the complementizer *inde-*. As in the previous examples, the CP is the object of the verb *belonyal*.

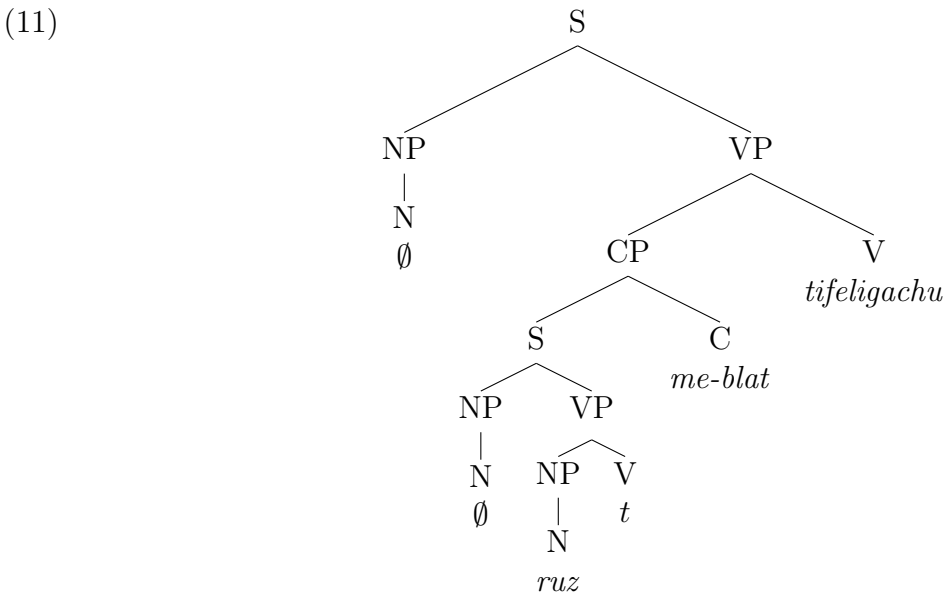


### 10.1.3 Infinitives

Infinitives are formed with the verbal prefix *me-* and function like other prefix complementizers. This is shown in (8), (9), and (10).

- (8) *me-blat i-felig-ale-w*  
 INF-eat G1.PRES-want-PRES-1S  
 ‘I want to eat’
- (9) *me-blat inde-mifelig negro-Ø-nya*  
 INF-eat COMP-want told-3SM.SUBJ-1S.OBJ  
 ‘He told me that he wants to eat’
- (10) *ruz me-blat ti-felig-achu wey?*  
 rice INF-eat G2.PRES-want-2P right?  
 ‘You all want to eat rice, right?’

The structure of these sentences is shown in (11). The verb *blat* ‘eat’ moves up from the V to the C (*me-*).



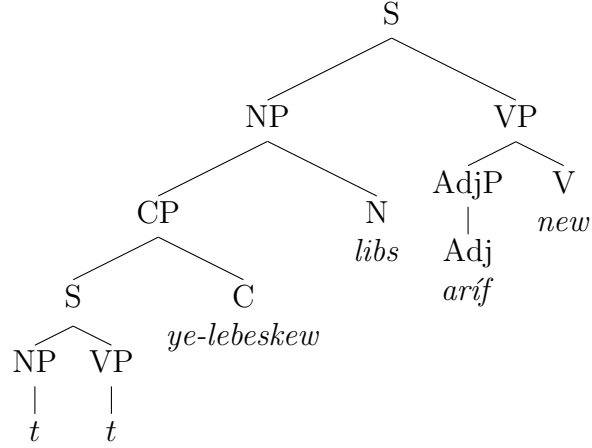
## 10.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses in Amharic use the relativizer *ye-* and function like other CPs in the language. Since Amharic is a head-final language, relative clauses occur before the nouns they modify. In subject relative clauses, the verb in the relative clause agrees with the noun that the clause modifies as the subject and the object within the clause as the object. This can be seen in (12).

- (12) *ye-lebes-ke-w*                      *libs*                      *aríf new*  
REL-wear-2SM.S-3S.O clothes nice be\3S  
'What you are wearing is nice'

The structure of this sentence can be seen in (13). There is a gap at the subject of the embedded CP, and the verb moves up to the complementizer.

(13)



In object relative clauses, the relativized noun is the direct object. The verb in the relative clause agrees with the noun it modifies as the object and the subject of the relative clause as the subject. This can be seen in (14).

- (14) *ye-sera-w-t*                      *buna yet new*  
 REL-make-1S.S-3S.O coffee where be\3S  
 ‘Where is the coffee I made’

The structure of this sentence can be seen in (15). There is a gap at the object of the relative clause, and the verb moves up to the complementizer.

(15)

