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## Word Order in Epigraphic Gəʿəz<sup>1</sup>

MARIA BULAKH, Moscow

### I. Introduction

In the discussion of word order in Gəʿəz, the epigraphic data is only sporadically brought into consideration, and no systematic analysis of the epigraphic evidence has been offered so far. But even the data of Classical Gəʿəz has not yet been properly analysed as far as the order of subject, object and verb is concerned. It is usually claimed that the neutral word order in Gəʿəz is V–S–O (e.g., Dillmann 1907: 503; Gragg 1997: 255; Weninger 2001: 1764). An even more specific claim has been made by J. Tropper (2002: 227), who declares that the unmarked word order in Gəʿəz is V–S–O–A (which means that the adverbial phrase follows the verb, the subject and the object). Such statements are usually illustrated by a few examples of V–S–O phrases in Gəʿəz, and are supposed to display the neutral word order. No statistical analysis of any large corpus of Gəʿəz texts has ever been attempted; no systematic investigation of the word order of translated texts in comparison to the (mostly Greek) originals has been carried out. Much better studied is the order of the noun and its modifiers in Classical Gəʿəz (Caquot 1952; Schneider 1959; Gai 1981).

As in the case of many other aspects of grammar, valuable information on word order in early Gəʿəz can be provided by Gəʿəz inscriptions found on the territory of modern Eritrea, northern Ethiopia, Sudan and the Yemen and dated to the first millennium A.D. The language (or rather a group of linguistic varieties) represented by these inscriptions and henceforth referred to as Epigraphic Gəʿəz (EG), is closely related to the so-called Classical Gəʿəz (CG) – a form of the same language known from the majority of manuscripts and described in native and western grammars. Although some

<sup>1</sup> The present article is based on a paper delivered at the 17<sup>th</sup> International Congress of Ethiopian Studies, Addis Abāba, 2–6 November 2009. I am grateful to the Russian Foundation for Humanities for the support of this research (grant 12–04–00092a). Warm thanks go to my tutor Leonid Kogan and to Sergey Loesov for their attentive reading of the manuscript and for their comments and improvements. I appreciate the kind help of Alessandro Bausi, who likewise carefully read the paper and made a number of valuable amendments and insightful remarks. I am deeply grateful to Yakov Testelet, who gave me some advice on the theoretical aspects of the paper. The kind assistance of Maria Haralambakis, who proofread the English text, is also highly appreciated. Needless to say, I am responsible for all errors.

of the texts found in the manuscripts belong to the Aksumite period (i.e. to the epoch when Gəʕəz was still a spoken language), these texts are translations, mostly from Greek. Moreover, they are likely to have undergone substantial changes in the course of their manuscript transmission. The inscriptions are thus the only extant Aksumite texts in Gəʕəz created by its native speakers and known to us in their original form. Therefore, EG proves to be of high value for research on any aspect of early Gəʕəz grammar. One cannot claim, of course, that the inscriptions truthfully reflect the vernacular Gəʕəz of the time of their creation. It is quite likely that their language differed in one way or another from the spoken language: it probably used some special formulas and clichés, foreign influence might have been stronger, etc. Still, the epigraphic corpus includes texts of various genres (from short phrases of commemorative or votive character up to lengthy royal inscriptions with an elaborate structure incorporating narrative and votive parts, as well as prescriptive texts) and, therefore, is not likely to reflect one single literary norm seriously divergent from the spoken language. The value of this evidence considerably increases if it is compared with the data of CG. It is only when these two independent bodies of evidence corroborate each other that one can safely make a claim concerning the early Gəʕəz grammar.

No final statement on word order in Gəʕəz can therefore be made unless a systematic analysis of word order in the whole corpus of early Gəʕəz inscriptions is carried out. The present article is intended to present the results of such an analysis.

The EG texts are quoted mostly according to *RIÉ* (thus, consonantal gemination is not marked, but *ə* and *Ø* are distinguished, although the two features are not distinguished in the script). Omitted graphemes are sometimes restored in brackets (<>) in *RIÉ*; these restorations are also reproduced here. For non-vocalized inscriptions, a reconstructed vocalization is provided, marked with \*\*. In the reconstructed vocalized versions the punctuation signs (word dividers) are omitted; alternative reconstructions are sometimes provided in brackets, preceded by a slash: \*\**sahabəwwo(/wā)*. Whenever an EG form differs from that of CG, the corresponding CG form is given in brackets after the reconstructed EG vocalization: \*\**maffas* (cp. CG *manfas*). Some minor differences between the usual orthography of EG and CG are preserved in the reconstructed vocalization, notably the writing CaH rather than CāH (\*\**dabaʔku*, cp. CG *dabāʔku*). Uncertain and problematic vocalic reconstructions are provided with a question mark: ?\*\**wa-zə-ʔəbn*. Proper names of uncertain patterns are left unvocalized: \*\**ʔgb*; in translations they are rendered in capital letters without vowels: ?GB. Some other lexemes, the vocalic reconstruction of which is obscure, are also left unvocalized. In the reconstructed forms mimation is given in upper register: *ʔmzm* \*\**ʔəm-zə<sup>m</sup>*

‘then, after that’. In the translation, unclear words are substituted by question marks; a question mark put before a whole sentence or a whole translation shows the uncertainty of the example or its interpretation.

## II. Practical difficulties

Before presenting the discussion of the material, some preliminary remarks are in order, explaining some general difficulties arising from the nature of the epigraphic corpus. In view of these difficulties, the results of the analysis become less definite than one would wish.

First of all, the number of complete sentences which can be reliably identified is not very high in the epigraphic corpus. For the present investigation, 276 sentences (32 of them from duplicate inscriptions<sup>2</sup>) with transitive or intransitive predicates, or with verbal copulas, have been collected, of which 57 are rather dubious and allow various interpretations, so that the word order is a matter of discussion.

Consider, for instance, the following passage (RIÉ 192: 9–10): *wbmnt / ybrh / gzm*. It is left untranslated by R. Schneider (1974: 780–781), although he does offer some tentative identifications of the roots of the lexemes *ybrh* and *gzm* (identification of the first unit – *\*\*wa-həmmuntu* = CG *wa-?əmmuntu* ‘and they’ – is unproblematic). One can tentatively identify the second word with the verbal form *hbrh* in RIÉ 192: 15 (*whbrh / bhyl / ?gzbr* ‘and ? by the might of God’), parsing *ybrh* as imperfect 3<sup>rd</sup> pers. masc. pl. with an object suffix 3<sup>rd</sup> pers. masc. sg. and *hbrh* as the corresponding form in the perfect.<sup>3</sup> The meaning of this verb remains obscure, but the context suggests a meaning like ‘to resist (someone), to defend oneself (against someone)’, or perhaps just ‘to fight (someone)’. The word *gzm* is identified by Schneider with the root *gzm* ‘to cut’; since its syntactical position hardly allows to interpret it as a verbal form, one can see in it a kind of adverb derived from the

<sup>2</sup> Duplicate inscriptions have less value for the statistical analysis. Nevertheless, they were included in my statistical evaluations, mostly because the syntactic arrangement is sometimes different in duplicate inscriptions (cp. below examples [109] and [126]). Preservation of the same word order in several versions is, therefore, also informative. Nevertheless, in each section of this paper it is made clear how many examples come from different versions of the same text.

<sup>3</sup> The grapheme *-h* as the marker of the object suffix or the possessive suffix is typical of the inscription in question (RIÉ 192: 17: *knn-h* ‘he judged him’, cp. CG *k<sup>w</sup>annan-o*; RIÉ 192: 26: *m?k-hm* ‘I conquered them’, cp. CG *mo?k-omu*; RIÉ 192: 1: *b?kt-h* ‘in his praise’, cp. CG *ba-?akk<sup>w</sup>atet-u*); the same is true about the causative marker, which appears as *h-* rather than *?* (RIÉ 192: 35: *blstn \*\*hal?alatanni* ‘she raised me’, cf. CG *?al?alatanni*). For the forms with pronominal suffixes, one can offer tentative vocalizations only, such as *\*\*k<sup>w</sup>annana-hu*, *\*\*mo?ku-homu*, *\*\*ba-?akk<sup>w</sup>atet-hu*, respectively.

same root (something like ‘fiercely’, lit. ‘cuttingly’). On the basis of these considerations, one can propose a translation ‘and they resist him fiercely’, with the word order S–V(+ PronO)–Adv. Still, one has to keep in mind that the whole interpretation is quite dubious and several alternative readings can be offered. For instance, *ybrh* can be interpreted as a verbal form with no object pronoun and *h* belonging to the root (note that Schneider indeed considers this word to be related to the root *brh* ‘to shine’), and *gzm* (*-m* possibly belonging to the pronominal suffix *\*\*omu*) can be seen as its direct object. The word order would then be S–V–O. At the same time, the word order can sometimes be transparent even if no exact translation of the relevant sentence is at hand. This is the case of RIÉ 187: 10 (*waʔəlaʔəla / ʕarazna / ʔəhazna / wamokəhna* ‘and we took and put in fetters all those whom we ‘pierced’<sup>4</sup>): although the precise meaning of the verb *ʕarazna* remains unknown, the structure of the sentence is quite transparent.

Quite often the limits of the sentence cannot be established with certainty. This happens, for example, when a phrase is taken from a broken context, where the preceding or the subsequent words are unreadable; a possibility should always be kept in mind that these damaged parts contain some further constituents belonging to the phrase in question, as in RIÉ 195 I: 8: ... *sadada = ʔəhəzāba = ʔəmkə[dma = ...* ‘he banished the peoples from the pre[sence of ...’ (one cannot be absolutely sure whether an overt subject precedes the predicate or not).

But even if the whole phrase is well preserved and all the lexemes are identifiable, it is sometimes difficult to understand whether one deals with one complex sentence or with two (or more) simple ones. Consider, for example, the initial sentence of the inscription RIÉ 254: 1: *ʔana ʔ-r-k-y katalaku b-g-γəs ʕarəkta* ‘I, ʔRKY, killed a friend (fem.) in the morning’.<sup>5</sup> This sequence of words can be seen, alternatively, as two independent sentences, a nominal one (*ʔana ʔ-r-k-y* ‘I (am) ʔRKY’) and a verbal one (*katalaku b-g-γəs ʕarəkta* ‘I killed a friend (fem.) in the morning’). Still more complicated is the situation with the initial lines of the Anza inscription (RIÉ 218: 1–4): *ʕhf / bzt / ngś / ʔgb / zḥwlt / zʔh / ʕhbw / ʔgb / ḥzb*. This passage is understood as one phrase by Conti Rossini (1942), who reconstructs it as *\*\*ṣəḥəfa bzt nəguśa ʔgb zā-ḥawəltə ziʔahu səḥəbu(/bo/bəwwə) ʔgb ḥəzb* ‘BZT, king of ʔGB, wrote this obelisk of his, which the people pulled to ʔGB’. Littmann (1952) divides it into two separate phrases, introducing some other minor corrections and

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Arb. *ḡaraza* ‘piquer quelque chose avec un aiguille’ (BIBERSTEIN-KAZIMIRSKI 1860, II 454, LANE 1955–56: 2246). For the alternative translation ‘to rob’ cf. DAE IV, p. 26, NÖLDEKE 1913: 698 (cf. also GUIDI 1916–18: 750).

<sup>5</sup> Littmann’s interpretation in DAE IV, p. 69 (according to Littmann, *ʕarəkət* ‘friend’ is an euphemism for ‘snake’).

alternative interpretations: (1) *\*\*šahafa ba-zəntu* (cp. CG *ba-zəntu*) *nəguša ገብ ረሳ-ሐወልታ ረሳህ* ‘king of ገGB wrote here this obelisk of his’ and (2) *\*\*sahabəwwo ገብ ረሳህ* ‘the people of ገGB pulled it’ (with appositional relationship between the words *ገብ* and *ረሳህ*). A few other interpretations have been offered (Drewes 1962: 65, Sergew Hable Sellassie 1972: 89), including the recent one by Kropp (2006, with a survey of previous scholarship). Still further possibilities of division can be taken into consideration: one can treat the words *ረሳህ* / *ረሳ* not as a complement of the verb *ሰረፈ* but rather as a separate phrase (*\*\*šahafa bzt nəguša ገብ ረሳ(/ረሳ)-ሐወልታ ረሳህ ሰረፈ(/ረሳ) ገብ ረሳህ* ‘BZT, king of ገGB, wrote (this): This stele is his. His people pulled it to ገGB’; cf. also discussion below, section IV.4, under example [91]) or as a topicalized object of the verb *ሰረፈ* (*\*\*šahafa bzt nəguša ገብ ረሳ(/ረሳ)-ሐወልታ(/ረሳ) ረሳህ ሰረፈ(/ረሳ) ገብ ረሳህ* ‘BZT, king of ገGB, wrote (this): This stele of his, his people pulled it to ገGB’). Finally, one might consider *ገብ* as an ethnonym rather than a place name, and, syntactically, as a subject rather than an adverbial phrase. Clearly enough, none of these interpretations is certain, and consequently, the value of such evidence for the present purpose is quite low.<sup>6</sup>

In the following two examples, a relatively plausible interpretation can only be achieved if a broader context of the inscription (as well as parallel texts) is taken into consideration.

RIÉ 189: 40–41: *zawahabani / ገገረሳ / samāy / dəwā / ረሳ / 214 / dəwā / ገሰጽ / 415 ...*

‘what the Lord of Heaven gave me (is) the male captives 214, the female captives 415 ...’

RIÉ 192: 43–44: *wəwəhbn / ገገረሳ / bədmh / mrd / wbdhrh / mrd / ረሳ / (... ) / bnt / wdገገ (...)* ‘and what God gave me in the first campaign as well as in the second campaign (is) the male captives ... [numbers] and women and children ... [numbers]’

In theory, for both phrases alternative interpretations are possible: the first part can be treated as an independent sentence, with the second part added as a chain of noun phrases: ‘The Lord of Heaven gave me this: the male captives 214, the female captives 415 ...’; ‘and God gave me this in the first campaign and in the second campaign: the male captives ... [numbers] and women and children ... [numbers]’. Syntactically and morphologically such analysis is fully legitimate (treating the element *\*\*za* not as a relative pronoun, but as a demonstrative pronoun ‘this’ in the accusative). However, all other sentences conveying the meaning ‘God gave me this’ (and employing the unambiguous demonstrative *zəntu*) occur after the enumeration of the spoils acquired in the campaign rather than before it (RIÉ 190: 42, RIÉ 191: 33). In other words, in Gəʿəz inscriptions the demonstrative *zəntu* is used anaphorically rather than cataphorically. In the absence of convincing examples of cataphoric usage of a

<sup>6</sup> Conversely, the results of this research are potentially relevant for preferring one of the proposed interpretations to the others.

demonstrative pronoun, the traditional interpretation of the examples mentioned above is to be preferred, with *\*za-* as a relative pronoun and the whole construction a nominal sentence with a relative clause as subject. One can observe that in both cases the relative clause may also be regarded as a modifier of the subsequent noun ('the male captives that the Lord of Heaven gave me (are) 214, the female captives (are) 415 ...', 'the male captives that God gave me in the first campaign as well as in the second campaign (are) ... [numbers] and women and children ... [numbers]'). This analysis (proposed by Littmann in DAE IV, p. 81) seems less preferable, first of all because of the extreme rarity of Rel-N word order in EG: this order is pragmatically marked and usually employed with relative clauses consisting of a bare verbal form (see below, section IV.2).

Another case where comparison between various sentences with the same syntactic structure is necessary for their correct understanding are the following constructions employing the word *gādā* 'tribute'.

RIÉ 187: 5–6: ... *bahəya / rakabana / ?aba?alkəso / nəguśa / ?a[<sup>g</sup>ezā]t / məsla / həzbu / wa-bo?a / gādā*

RIÉ 186: 7–8: *wbhym / bʔm / gdm / ngš[m] / ?gdtm / sʔwtm*

RIÉ 186: 10–11: *wbhym / bʔm / gdm / ngšm / gbzm / sblm*

RIÉ 192: 47: *wbd / gbʔ / gd / kl / ?gd / wyt*

The vocalized inscription RIÉ 187 shows that the last verbal form appears in the stem 01 and is thus intransitive ('to enter', Dillmann 1970: 524–525, Leslau 1987: 114). It excludes the possibility that in RIÉ 186: 7–8 or in RIÉ 192: 47 other stems (such as 02 with a causative meaning – *\*bawwə?a* and *\*gabbə?a* respectively, both unattested in CG) are employed. According to the interpretations which are currently available (DAE IV, pp. 22, 26; Schneider 1974: 785), the noun phrases *?aba?alkəso*, *ngš[m] / ?gdtm*, *ngšm / gbzm* and *kl / ?gd / wyt* are to be understood as subjects, whereas the substantive *gādā* is an adverbial adjunct dependent on the intransitive verbs *bo?a* and *gab?a*. However, Nöldeke (1913: 697–698) already offered for RIÉ 186 and 187 a more straightforward and syntactically less cumbersome interpretation: *wa-bo?a gādā* 'and the tribute came'. Within this interpretation, the text admittedly becomes less informative as it leaves it to the reader to guess who exactly was the tribute-bearer (most probably, the same *?aba?alkəso*). Such a structure is, however, by no means improbable: in formulaic parts of the inscriptions, designations of tribute could well function as subjects of intransitive verbs, the bearer left unexpressed or attached to the subject as a genitival complement.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>7</sup> For an interesting parallel cf. the early inscription RIÉ 218: 4–5: *?tw bkšt ?\*\*?atawa baḳ<sup>w</sup>ʔet/bāḳ<sup>w</sup>ʔet/baḳ<sup>w</sup>ʔāt/bəḳ<sup>w</sup>ʔāt* 'the benefit came'.



Within this approach, one obtains the following vocalizations and interpretations.

RIÉ 187: 5–6: ... *bahəya / rakabana / ʔabaʔalkəʕo / nəguśa / ʔa[g<sup>w</sup>ezā]t / məsla / həzbu / waboʔa / gādā* ‘there ʔabaʔalkəʕo, king of ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt, found us, and the tribute came in’

RIÉ 186: 7–8: *wbhym / bʔm / gdm / ngš[m] / ʔgdtm / swšwtm \*\*wa-ba-həya<sup>m</sup> boʔa<sup>m</sup> gādā<sup>m</sup> nəguśa<sup>[m]</sup> ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt<sup>m</sup> swšwt<sup>m</sup>* ‘and there the tribute of SWŠWT, king of ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt, came in’

RIÉ 186: 10–11: *wbhym / bʔm / gdm / ngšm / gbzm / sblm \*\*wa-ba-həya<sup>m</sup> boʔa<sup>m</sup> gādā<sup>m</sup> nəguśa gbz sbl* ‘and there the tribute of SBL, king of GBZ, came in’

RIÉ 192: 47: *wbd / gbʔ / gd / kl / ʔgd / wyl \*\*wa-ba-zə gabʔa gādā k<sup>w</sup>əllu ʔaggāda* (cp. CG *ʔangāda*) *wyl* ‘and in this the tribute of all the tribes of WYTL came in’

A striking example of the uncertain nature of the EG material is the reinterpretation of a number of epigraphic passages proposed in Drewes 1999. In each re-analysed passage, the phrase as read by Drewes displays the S–V–O order instead of the traditional division into two separate phrases: an introductory list of titles and an independent verb-initial sentence. Consider, for example, RIÉ 188: 1–6: [*ʕe*]zānā / *walda / ʔəle / ʕamidā / bəʔəşəya / [ha]len / nəguśa / ʔaksum / waza / həmer / [wa]za / raydān / waza / sabaʔ / waza / salḥen / waza / şəyāmo / waza / bəgā / waza / kāsu / [wa]lda / maḥrəm / zaʔayətmarwāʔ / la[da]r / dabʔu / şarane* ..., traditionally understood as ‘ʕezānā, son of ʔəle ʕamidā, man of Ḥalen, king of ʔaksum and of Ḥəmer and of Raydān and of Sabaʔ and of Salḥen and of Şəyāmo and of Bəgā and of Kāsu, son of Maḥrəm which is unconquerable to the enemy. The Şarane waged war...’. Within Drewes’ analysis, the whole passage is considered one single sentence, with the initial noun phrase functioning as subject and the proper name *şarane* as a direct object: ‘ʕezānā, son of ʔəle ʕamidā... waged war against the Şarane’ (the plural form of the verb is then to be understood as pluralis majestatis, in accordance with the style of the royal inscriptions). Within the present work, Drewes’ interpretation is accepted as more plausible, although in view of the considerable distance between the first word of the assumed compound subject and the predicate, it is still tempting to see two separate sentences here (‘ʕezānā, son of ʔəle ʕamidā..., son of Maḥrəm which is unconquerable to the enemy. He waged war against the Şarane’).

Needless to say, only one interpretation of a dubious phrase can be accepted in a statistical evaluation such as the one undertaken in the present work. In view of the uncertainty of the choice between various possibilities, such cases should be taken with a great deal of caution. One also has to keep in mind that the degree of uncertainty varies from one case to another and cannot be strictly evaluated. Within the present study, no attempt has been made to establish a consistent and sufficiently elaborated notation of the degree of certainty for the examples under scrutiny, which were simply subdivided into dubious (with a question mark) or certain (no question



mark). The former group includes highly unclear passages with uncertain readings and obscure meanings as well as relatively transparent phrases for which two or more alternative interpretations are possible. The latter group includes: (1) transparent passages for which only one reading and interpretation is possible, (2) less transparent passages whose different interpretations do not relate to the word order, and (3) phrases for which an alternative analysis is theoretically possible, but in fact unlikely and therefore ignored in the present study.

\* \* \*

In spite of the many difficulties and uncertainties outlined above, the syntactic material provided by the EG corpus clearly remains an important source of information on word order in early Gəʕəz, which cannot be ignored in any research on Gəʕəz syntax.

The main part of the present contribution (section III) presents the results of the analysis of all verbal sentences of the epigraphic corpus with regard to the position of phrase constituents. All in all, 249 phrases with verbal predications (198 in main clauses, including 20 from duplicate inscriptions, and 51 in subordinate clauses, including 6 from duplicate inscriptions) and 27 copular phrases (26 in main clauses, 6 of them from duplicate inscriptions, and 1 in a subordinate clause) have been analysed. The nominal sentences of EG, not treated in this study, will be dealt with in a future publication. In section IV, the order of constituents in noun phrases is discussed. Section V contains information on the order of some other constituents which are relevant for word order typology. In section VI, the main results of the present study are summed up.

### III. Word order in verbal clauses in EG

In the present contribution, the following three types of clauses will be subsumed under “verbal clauses”: intransitive verbal clauses, transitive verbal clauses (both types belonging to clauses with verbal predication), and clauses with non-verbal predicates but containing verbal copulas (for this division see, e.g., Dryer 2007: 224).

#### III.1. Sentences with overt subject and object in EG

Gəʕəz inscriptions provide no direct and solid evidence on the order of subject, object and verb in transitive clauses. Indeed, whenever epigraphic evidence is used in the discussion of word order of Gəʕəz, examples quoted have no explicit subject. Thus, the examples adduced in Weninger 2001: 1764 display V–O word order rather than V–S–O word order. Drewes (1999: 179–182), who provides an extensive list of epigraphic passages, prefers to speak of V–S word

order rather than V–S–O. The reason is obviously the lack of material: in the corpus of EG, in itself relatively small, only a few phrases can be gathered that contain both an overt nominal subject and an overt nominal object. At the same time, the rarity of such phrases is by no means a peculiarity of the EG corpus, being rather a common tendency in texts produced in any language: as Dryer (1997, section 4) observes, clauses containing both a noun subject and a noun object “do not occur very often in texts and may occur even less often in natural conversation”.

The list below presents all EG sentences with a verbal predicate, an overt subject and an overt direct object:<sup>8</sup>

V–S–O

[1] RIÉ 191: 37–38: *wʾrʾyn / ʾgzʾ / bʾr / kdsb* \*\**wa-ʾarʾayanni ʾəgzizʾa bəher kəddāsehu* ‘and God showed me his holiness’

[2] ? RIÉ 180: *tbsl / mzlt / lʾrg / wllmk* ?\*\**ta(/tā)bʾəllo mzltu la-ʾrg wa-la-lmk* ?‘let his ? bring wealth to (?deities) ?RG and LMK’ (interpretation according to Kropp 1994)

V–O–S

[3] ? RIÉ 198: [ʾ] *mḥdn zgl / bʾstr wmdr dmʾm / wngś / .hyhy ḥkf zšḥf / z[gl]* \*\**[ʾa]mah-dana za-gl ba-ʾastar wa-mədr ʾdamiʾomu wa-nəguś .hyhy ḥkf za-šəbafa za-[gl]* ?‘HKF who wrote this (basin) entrusted this basin to ʾastar and Mədr ʾtogether’ (this analysis is far from unquestionable; especially the word *dmʾm* allows various vocalizations and interpretation; for alternative interpretations cf., e.g., Drewes 1962: 70).

<sup>8</sup> Note that the nouns which accompany verbs of motion and indicate the goal, even though they may be formally in the accusative, are not treated here as direct objects. The main criterion adopted to distinguish between an adverbial accusative and accusative of direct object is, as Hug (1993: 106) puts it, the syntactic one: whereas direct object becomes the subject when the verb is passivized, the adverbial phrase in accusative preserves its accusative marker if the same transformation is applied to the verb which governs it. Of course, the data of EG is limited and one has to resort to the data of CG in order to find out the syntactic behaviour of the corresponding passive stem (*t*-stem) or passive participle for a given verb of motion. Whenever the verb has a passive stem or a passive participle with the noun designating the place of destination functioning as a subject or as a head noun respectively, the construction in question is treated as verb + direct object. Otherwise, the construction is treated as verb + adverbial phrase. E.g., the collocation *bašḥa hağara* ‘he reached the city’ (and similar examples with the verb *bašḥa*) would be treated as verb + adverbial phrase since the transformation of a sentence with the verb *bašḥa* into passive does not seem to affect the noun in the accusative. In the available examples the participle *bəsuḥ*, morphologically passive, is used only to qualify the agent of the transformed verb: *bəsuḥa ʾamtān* ‘qui ad justam aetatem pervenit’, *bəsuḥ wəsta təruf* (Dillmann 1970: 547) ‘he who reached (perfection) in the virtues’. Consequently, the phrases like RIÉ 189: 28 (*wa-bašəḥku / kəsu* ‘and I reached Kāsu’) or RIÉ 190: 19 (*ʾmzm / bšḥm / sšwtm / dmw[m]* \*\**ʾəm-zə<sup>m</sup> bašḥu<sup>m</sup> sarāwit<sup>m</sup> dmw<sup>[m]</sup>* ‘from there the troops reached DMW’; for *r* instead of *ś* cf. below, example [114]) are not counted as examples of V–O and V–S–O, respectively.

S–V–O

- [4]RIÉ 189: 45–46: *ṭəgziʾa / samāy / yaṣnəʾ / mangəštəya* ‘Lord of Heaven may strengthen my kingdom’
- [5]RIÉ 192: 34: *ymn / ṭgzbbḥr / [gbr]t / ḥyl* <sup>\*\*yamāna ṭəgziʾabəḥer [gabra]t ḥayla</sup> ‘the right hand of God made strength’ (from Ps 117:15; note that the word order corresponds to that of LXX and may have been influenced by the Greek version)
- [6]RIÉ 232: 9–11: *zabalaʾa / šəgāya wasatiya / daməya / ʾiyəṭəʾəmā / lamot* ‘the one who ate my flesh and drank my blood will not taste death’ (here again one can suspect preservation of the word order of the original, although the phrase is not a direct rendering from the Bible but, as indicated in Kropp 1999: 173, rather a contamination of two different pieces: Jn 6: 54 and Jn 8: 52)
- [7]RIÉ 192: 20–21: *ṭmlky / ygb<?> / lt / bkly* <sup>\*\*ṭamlākəya yāgabbə<?> lita baḳaləya</sup> ‘my Lord brings for me revenge’ (quotation from Ps 17:48; the word order does not strictly follow the original, although both have S–V–O)
- [8]? RIÉ 198: 1–4: *[ʾezānā / walda / ʾəle / ʾamidā] ... dabʾu / ʾa[g<sup>w</sup>ezāta /]* ‘[ʾezānā, son of ʾəla ʾamidā] ... waged war against ʾa[g<sup>w</sup>ezāt]’ (interpretation according to Drewes 1999: 183–185, cf. also Sergew Hable Sellassie 1972: 93; cf. also section II)
- [9]? RIÉ 188: 1–6: *[ʾe]zānā / walda / ʾəle / ʾamidā ... dabʾu / ʾarane / mangəstomu / ʾa[ʾā]n* ‘[ʾe]zānā, son of ʾəla ʾamidā ... waged war against ʾarane, whose kingdom is ʾafān’ (interpretation according to Drewes 1999: 183–185; cf. also d’Abbadie 1878: 21, Müller 1894: 40; cf. also section II)
- [10]? RIÉ 183 III: 1–4: *ṭmlḥm ngś / ʾḥt / smṭ z ʾmṣ? / yns mʾs / wsmṭ* <sup>\*\*ṭəm-labm nəgus ʾabatta səmaṭa za-ʾamṣəʾa(/ʾo) yənsā maʾsa wa-səmaṭa</sup> ‘from the cow, (let) the king (take) one flank, let the one who brought (it) take the skin and flank’ (interpretation according to Drewes 1962: 52)

O–V–S

- [11]RIÉ 191: 39–40: *ṭmz / ymsn / wymšt / wysb[r / w]z / nšt / wʾmsn / yšt / ṭgzbbḥr* <sup>\*\*ṭəmma-za yāmāssəno wa-yənaśśəto wa-yəsabbə[ro wa-]za naśəto wa-ʾāmāsəno yəśśəto</sup> (cp. CG *yənsətto*) *ṭəgziʾabəḥer* ‘if (there is one) who destroys it and demolishes it and breaks it, may (lit. [and] may) God demolish him who demolished and destroyed (it)’ (in the apodosis, the object is expressed by the relative clause *z / nšt / wʾmsn* ‘who demolished and destroyed’)
- [12]RIÉ 190: 42: *ḍntm / wḥbnm / ṭgzṭm / śmym* <sup>\*\*zanta<sup>m</sup> wəhabanna<sup>m</sup> ṭəgziʾa<sup>m</sup> samāy<sup>m</sup></sup> ‘God of Heaven gave us this’
- [13]RIÉ 191: 33: *znt / wḥbn / ṭgz / bḥr* <sup>\*\*zanta wəhabanni ṭgz</sup> (cp. CG *ṭəgziʾa*) *bəḥer* ‘God gave me this’
- [14]RIÉ 195 II: 19: *wazanta = gabra = lita = ṭəgziʾa = bəḥ[er]* ‘and God made this for me’
- [15]? RIÉ 225: 1: *zgb[r / dʿbr]* <sup>\*\*za-gabra dʿbr</sup> ‘DʿBR made this’ (interpretation according to Schneider 1972: 112)

Besides, there are several further clauses with overt subject and object. In these clauses, either subject or object is expressed by a personal pronoun (sometimes followed by a noun appositionally connected with it) which occupies a separate position within the phrase:

V–O–PronS

[16]RIÉ 192 A: 4–5: ... *dbʔku / wɣtl / ʔn / wʕzb \*\*dabaʔku wɣtl ʔana wʕzb* ‘I, WʕZB, waged war against WYTL’

PronS–V–O

[17]RIÉ 254: 1: *ʔana ʔ-r-k-y katalaku b-g-γəs ʕarəkta* ‘I, ʔRKY, killed a friend (fem.) in the morning’ (but cf. the discussion above, section II)

[18]RIÉ 191: 34: *wʕd.h / wʔt / wʕbn / sm / ʕby \*\*w-ʕd.h wəʔətu wəhəbanni səma ʕabiya* ‘and ʔ he gave me a great name’

[19]? RIÉ 191: 7–12: *ʔn / klb / ʔl / ʔsbʔ ... brdʔt / [ʔgzʔb]ʔr / dbʔk / ʔgzt \*\*ʔana kāleb ʔəlla ʔəsbəhā ... ba-rədʔata [ʔgziʔabə]ʔer dābaʔku ʔagʷezāta* ‘I, Kāleb ʔəlla ʔəsbəhā, ... with the help of God waged war against the ʔagʷezāt’ (interpretation according to Drewes 1999: 192; cf. also section II)

[20]? RIÉ 189: 1–7: *[ba]ʕayla / ʔgziʔa / samāy / [zaba] / samāy / wamədr / mawāʔi / lita / ʔana / ʕ[zā]nā ... baʕayla / ʔgziʔa / kʷəlu / dābaʔku / nobā* ‘by the power of the God of heaven who is in the heaven and on the earth victorious for me, I, ʕzānā, by the power of the God of everything waged war against Nobā’ (interpretation according to Drewes 1999: 182; cf. also section II)

As one can see, the number of main clauses with both overt subject and object is comparatively low (10 % of the whole corpus). Moreover, this material does not exhibit any consistent pattern: the extant examples can be classified into four types of word order: V–S–O, V–O–S, S–V–O, O–V–S. Of these, the word order V–S–O, usually claimed to be the basic one in early Gəʕz, is in fact among the least frequent (two examples only, one of them highly dubious). The most common types of word order are rather those with verb occupying the middle position: S–V–O (4 secure cases + 3 dubious cases + 4 cases with a personal pronoun as subject) and O–V–S (4 secure cases + 1 dubious case).

A similar situation can be observed in dependent clauses: examples with both overt subject and object are extremely rare (3 cases among 51 extant dependent clauses with verbal predicate + 1 case with a personal pronoun as subject) and display different types of word order:

S–V–O

[21]RIÉ 192: 17–18: *wbhy / smʕk / kʔgzʔr / kennh / ldʔr \*\*wa-ba-həya samaʕku k-ʔgzi-ʔabəher kʷannanabu* (cp. CG *kʷannano*) *la-dʔr* ‘and there I heard that God judged DʔR’

V–O–S

[22]? RIÉ 189: 9: *sobe / gəʕʔa / ʔəbzāba / mangurto / wəḥasā / wəbārya / wəʕali[ma / ] [da]bʔa / kəyəḥ / dābʔ* ‘when the red army oppressed the people of Mangurto and ḥasā and Baryā and the black army’ (this highly uncertain interpretation is based on vocalization and restoration offered in RIÉ)<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> A different vocalization and interpretation – reading *[sa]bʔa* rather than *[da]bʔa* – is found in DAE IV, p. 37; cf. also LITTMANN 1950: 120. Still another solution is offered in DREWES 1962: 98, n. 2, who considers the final words to be two coordinate noun phrases

O–V–S

[23]RIÉ 189: 17–18: *ʔanza / dəwā / waməhrəkā / yāgabəʔ / ʔəḥzābəya* ‘while my people delivered the captives and booty’

Subordinate clauses with an overt pronominal subject:

PronS–V–O

[24]RIÉ 191: 3–4: [*d*]w<ʔ>t / wḥbn / mngšt / ʃnʃ \*\*za-wəʔətu wəḥabanni mangəšta ʃənuʃa ‘who gave me strong kingdom’

Thus, the claim that early Gəʿəz is a V–S–O language is so far not confirmed by the epigraphic evidence: the majority of clauses with both overt subject and object are not verb-initial. But does it mean that the data of EG contradicts this claim? Hardly so: As one can easily notice, clauses with overt object and subject show no preference for *any* type of word order. Therefore, at this stage of the investigation, one can only claim that EG – similarly to CG – was a language with a flexible word order, and that the choice for a certain word order type was usually dictated by the principle that the marked topic should occupy the initial position.<sup>10</sup> It is also clear that certain types of word order correlate with specific information structures. Thus, in four out of five O–V–S sentences the object is expressed by a demonstrative pronoun, which can easily be interpreted as a marked topic. Another factor which should be taken into consideration is the influence of the Greek original. Such an influence can be posited for those S–V–O phrases which are quotations from Biblical texts (RIÉ 192: 20–21, 192: 34, 232: 9–11).

*wa-šali[m] [da]bʔ kayəḥ dabʔ* ‘and the black war, (and) the red war’, drawing parallel to the Arabic expression *ḥarb-u l-ʔaḥmar-i wal-ʔaswad-i* ‘war against the whole world’, lit. ‘war of/against the red and the black’. The advantage of Drewes’ interpretation is the treatment of the final pairs of words as syntactic parallels, as actually suggested by their semantic correspondence. Its disadvantage is that the whole construction is syntactically disconnected from the rest of the sentence. Another major obstacle (ignored by Drewes) is that *dabʔ* has different endings in the first and the second phrases, which of course obscures the parallelism. This obstacle may admittedly disappear in view of the sporadic reduction of a final *-a* into *-ə* or  $\emptyset$  in EG, as in RIÉ 187: 7: *sobe / gaʃʃan* (cp. CG *gaʃʃanna*) / *wakatal* (cp. CG *katala*) ‘when he oppressed us and killed’. This consideration allows one, incidentally, to amend interpretation as a whole: as soon as the latter words are considered as apocopated forms of *\*kayəḥa dabʔa*, it becomes possible to regard two final phrases as syntactically and semantically parallel and to interpret them as ‘and he (Ṣarane) waged war against the black, waged war against the red’, which still can be seen as rewording of the Arabic expression (‘he waged war against the whole world’). The word order, according to this latter interpretation, would be V–O in the initial part (*gaʃʃa / ʔəḥzāba / mangurto / wəḥasā / wəḥārya*) and O–V in the final part.

<sup>10</sup> Cf. the analysis of word order in Biblical Hebrew carried out in Givón 1977, as well as the results of Groß’ investigation (1996: 152) whose conclusions at least partly coincide with Givón’s.

The data of EG is thus clearly insufficient to tell us with certainty what the basic word order in early Gəʕəz was. It can be stated that the word order was flexible and probably pragmatic-sensitive, both with respect to subject and object. Four out of six possible combinations of subject, object and verb are registered in the EG corpus (only the types S–O–V and O–S–V are absent).

### III.2. EG as VO language

Since the attempt to classify EG in terms of the classical six-way typology faces serious obstacles, it seems justified – at least for practical reasons – to resort to the alternative, four-way typology. Proposed by Dryer (1997), it is based on two separate parameters: order of subject and verb and order of object and verb. In terms of this typology, a language can belong to one of the following types: VS & VO, SV & VO, SV & OV, or VS & OV. As argued by Dryer, the four-way typology is superior to the classical typology in several aspects. As for the types which it does not distinguish (such as VSO and VOS), they have in fact many features in common and can conveniently be regarded as belonging to one major type. The splitting of one criterion (order of subject, verb and object) into two independent criteria (order of subject and verb vs. order of object and verb) is justified since it is only the order of object and verb which correlates with a number of other features (the Branching Direction Theory explains these correlations in terms of harmony between fully recursive phrasal categories on the one side and the non-phrasal categories on the other).

It is indeed the four-way classification that allows one to use most fruitfully the epigraphic evidence for establishing the type of word order in early Gəʕəz. The analysis of the object position in the same 198 main clauses has yielded the following, quite unambiguous, results:

Word order V–O:

90 secure examples (16 from duplicate inscriptions)

24 questionable examples (3 from duplicate inscriptions)

Word order O–V:

10 secure examples

1 questionable example

Eleven phrases with pre-verbal objects are those quoted above under O–V–S (examples [11]–[15]) and those listed immediately below (note also the example [22] and the alternative interpretation of its final part as an O–V phrase, cf. fn. 9):

[25]RIÉ 187: 10–12: *wa[la] [ʔabaʔa]lkəʕo / nəguša / ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt / baka / ʔadagnāhu* ‘and we left (alone) only [ʔabaʔa]lkəʕo, king of ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt’ (for CG *bakka* ‘only’ cf. Dillmann 1970: 523)

[26]RIÉ 187: 10: *waʔəlaʔəla / ʔarazna / ʔəhazna / wamoqəhna* ‘and we took and put into chains all those whom we ‘pierced’

- [27]RIÉ 189: 11–12: *watanbālana / waḥawāryāna / za[fana][w]ku / lotu / yəsməṣwo / bedomu* ‘and they plundered our ambassador and our messenger that I sent to him so that he listens to him’
- [28]RIÉ 186: 6–7: *wzm / ʔbym / ykṭlwm \*\*wa-za<sup>m</sup> ʔabaya<sup>m</sup> yəkattələwwo<sup>m</sup>* ‘and they kill (him) who refused’
- [29]RIÉ 192 B: 9: *dt / mḥdk / lḏhgšn / lʔgzbḥr \*\*zatta* (cp. CG *zanta*) *mḥḍakku* (cp. CG *ʔamāḥḍanku*) *la-za-haggasanni* (cp. CG *ʔangasanni*) *la-ʔgzbḥr* (cp. CG *ʔagziʔabəḥer*) ‘I entrusted this to God, who enthroned me’
- [30]? RIÉ 191: 36–37: *wgbzh / ḥnšk / wḥdsk \*\*wa-gabazahu<sup>11</sup> ḥanašku wa-ḥaddasku* ‘and I built and sanctified his ‘gabaz’ (the word *gabaz* probably refers to a kind of sanctuary, cf. Schneider 1974: 777; for its tentative identification with the cathedral of Aksum Şəyon cf. Habtemichael Kidane 2005: 599–600)

It may be observed that five among the O–V sentences ([12]–[15] and [29]) have a demonstrative pronoun as the direct object, which is likely to be interpreted as a marked topic. In three other sentences – [25], [26], [28] – the position of the object can be motivated by the necessity to mark the contrastive topic shift, in all these sentences the object is opposed to the object or subject of the preceding or following clause. Cf. the whole context: RIÉ 187: 10–12: *waʔəlaʔəla / ʔarazna / ʔaḥazna / wamoḥəḥna / wa[la] [ʔabaʔa]lkəso / nəguša / ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt / baka / ḥadagnāhu* ‘and we took and put into chains **all those whom we pierced**, and we left (alone) only **[ʔabaʔa]lkəso, king of ʔag<sup>w</sup>ezāt**’; RIÉ 186: 6–7: *wzm / ..m / ybm / yḏḥ[n]m / wzm / ʔbym / ykṭlwm \*\*wa-za<sup>m</sup> [ʔoho]<sup>m</sup> yəbe<sup>m</sup> yəḍəḥ(h)[ən]<sup>m</sup> wa-za<sup>m</sup> ʔabaya<sup>m</sup> yəkattələwwo<sup>m</sup>* ‘and **(he) who [agreed]** is safe, and they kill **him who refused**’ (or, rather: ‘and as for **(him) who [agreed]**, he is safe; and as for **(him) who refused**, they kill him’). In two cases – [27] and [30] – the preverbal object seems to be a marked focus or a newly introduced topic.

Thus, the preferred word order in the main sentences in EG was clearly V–O.

The situation in subordinate clauses confirms this statement.

V–O:

23 secure examples (6 from duplicate texts)

4 questionable examples

O–V:

3 secure examples:

- [31]RIÉ 189: 17–18: *ʔanza / dəwā / waməḥrəkā / yāgabəʔ / ʔəḥzābəya* ‘while my people delivered the captives and booty’
- [32]RIÉ 192 A: 4–5: *ʔḏ / dt / ʔtʔmn ...* ‘while I believe this ...’
- [33]RIÉ 189: 22: *waʔanza / ʔəḥmārihomu / yāsaṭəmu* ‘and while they were drowning their boats’

<sup>11</sup> Cf. fn. 3.



This list can be expanded with the sentence from RIÉ 192, where the direct object is introduced by the *nota accusativi kiyā-*:

[34]RIÉ 192: 14: *ʔl / kyɣ / hɣšn \*\*ʔalla kiyāya haggasuni* (cp. CG *ʔangaʔuni*) ‘who (pl.) made me king’

It seems that the pragmatic factors triggering the use of O–V object in main clauses are also active in the subordinate clauses (in [31] and [33], the marked focus can be posited, whereas [32] and [34] are probably instances of marked topic).

### III.3. EG as VS language

Statistical evidence for the subject position in main clauses is as follows.

Word order V–S:

34 secure examples (1 from a duplicate text)

15 questionable examples

Word order S–V:

14 secure examples

9 questionable examples

As one can see, the preference for V–S over S–V order is not so markedly pronounced, especially in comparison with the obvious predominance of V–O over O–V order. However, 7 of the S–V phrases are Biblical quotations<sup>12</sup>, which can be influenced by the word order of the original. In most cases, the word order of the Greek original is preserved. Here belong examples [5], [6], [7] adduced above, as well as the following phrases.

[35]RIÉ 192: 25–26: *klbm / ʔhzb / ʔktn \*\*k<sup>w</sup>alləhomu*<sup>13</sup> (cp. CG *k<sup>w</sup>allomu*) *ʔahzāb ʔakatanni* (cp. CG *ʔagatanni*) ‘all peoples surrounded me’ (from Ps 117: 10)

[36]RIÉ 192: 35: *ymn / ʔg[z]bhr / hlʔtn \*\*yamāna ʔagziʔabəher halʔalatanni* (cp. CG *ʔalʔalatanni*) ‘the right hand of God raised me’ (from Ps 117: 16)

[37]RIÉ 192: 21: *ʔgzbbhr / ydbʔ / lkem \*\*ʔagziʔabəher yəḏabbəʔ lakəmu* ‘God fights for you’ (from Ex 14: 14)

Still, whatever the role of Greek in the formation of the flexible word order in early Gəʕz might have been, it is clear that pre-verbal subjects in EG are not restricted to translations from Greek. Moreover, there is one example where V–S in the Greek original corresponds to S–V in EG:

[38]RIÉ 232: 13–14: *məwtān / yətnasəʔu* ‘the dead will rise’ (cp. Is. 26: 19: ἀναστήσονται οἱ νεκροί)

Of special interest are sentences whose subject is an independent personal pronoun (sometimes followed by nouns which are either coordinate sub-

<sup>12</sup> A survey of Biblical quotations in the EG corpus can be found in KNIBB 1999: 46–54 and BEAUCAMP et al. 1999–2000: 39, n. 98.

<sup>13</sup> Cf. fn. 3.

jects or appositions). The following data about the word order in such sentences is at hand.

V–PronS:

4 secure examples

1 questionable example:

[39]? Ricci 2003, fig. 9:1: *šbʃk / ʔmbt / lbs* [ʃ] ʔ\*\**šabʃku ʔana bt lbs* ʔ<sup>1</sup>I, BT LBS, wrote’ (so Ricci 2003; this reading, however, is problematic since there is no word-divided separating *ʔm* from the following signs; alternatively, one might consider *ʔmbt* to be a proper name, but in such case the presence of the verbal form of 1<sup>st</sup> person would be highly unusual)

PronS–V:

13 secure examples (3 of which are Biblical quotations)

3 questionable examples

Clearly enough, in sentences with pronominal subjects the word order S–V predominates over V–S. This is in full agreement with the results obtained by Givón for Biblical Hebrew (1977: 196–197), and one can assume that the factors behind the EG picture are largely the same as those posited by Givón for Biblical Hebrew.

Thus, some of the examples with PronS–V order can be classified as **marked topic-shifting** (note that in some cases special discourse markers are employed, such as *-hi* in [41] and [44], *-ssa* in [41] or *lalli-* in [43]):

[40]RIÉ 232: 9–11: *zabalaša šəgāya / wasatiya / daməya / ʔiyətəšəmə / lamot / waʔana ʔanašəʔa* ‘he who ate my flesh and drank my blood will not taste death, and I will raise ʔhim/her’<sup>14</sup> (from Jn 6: 54 and Jn 8: 52)

[41]RIÉ 191: 25–26: *wʔzzkm / ymšʔ / ʔr[ʔ] / bʔrm / [k]m / ʔsrʔ / wʔmbs / lʔk / wʔdrk* \*\**wa-ʔazzakomu yā(/ya)mšəʔu ʔəri[ta] bəheromu [ka]ma ʔsraʔ* (cp. CG *ʔəsrāʔ*) *wa-ʔana-hi-ssa laʔakku wa-ʔadarku* ‘and I ordered them that they bring the elite of their land so that I judge (them); **as for me, I** sent and I stayed’

[42]RIÉ 192: 8–9: *dbʔk / sb / gʃʃn / dʔr / wdbʔ / ʔʔzby / wl / wʔhss / wʔmnt / ybrh / gzm* ... \*\**dabaʔku soba gafʃanni dʔr wa-dabʔa ʔəzəbəya wl wa-wʔss wa-həmmuntu* (cp. CG *ʔəmmuntu*) *ybrh gzm* ‘I waged war when DʔR oppressed me and waged war against my peoples WL and WʔSS, and they ʔresisted him ʔfiercely ...’ (cf. discussion in section II)

[43]RIÉ 188: 9–11: *fanaʔna / sarəwita / sarwe / maʔazā / wasarwe / dāk<sup>w</sup>en / wasarwe / ʔarā / walalina / talawna / waʔadarna / məgbāʔa / marād / ʔālāhā* ‘we sent the

<sup>14</sup> It remains unclear whether the *ʔanašəʔa* stands for *ʔanašəʔā* (with confusion of 4<sup>th</sup> and 1<sup>st</sup> orders in syllables with laryngeals due to the merger between historical \**a* and \**ā* in such contexts, as in late Gəʿəz) or for *ʔanašəʔo* (with graphic confusion of the 7<sup>th</sup> and 1<sup>st</sup> orders affecting “two-leg” letters; for a similar phenomenon in the manuscript Abbā Garimā III cf. ZUURMOND 1989: 27). The latter reading is preferable as it strictly corresponds to the source of the quotation.

troops: the troop of Maḥazā, the troop of Dāk<sup>w</sup>en, the troop of Ḥarā, and (and as for us,) we ourselves followed and stayed at ʿālā(hā), the gathering place of the army’

[44]RIÉ 191: 14–15: *wmtw / [sr]wt / gn / wmtn / ws.t / wzšml / wʾnh / dbʾk / msl / s[r]wt / hgry \*\*wa-maṭṭawu [sarā]wita gn wa-mṭn wa-s.t wa-zšml wa-ʾana-bi dabaʾku māsla sa[rā]wita hagarəya* ‘and they accepted the troops GN and MṬN and S.T and ZŠML and (as for me,) I fought together with the troops of my country’

[45]RIÉ 191: 20–21: *γ]kil / hst / wʾnh / tlwk / msl / šymy \*\*γə]kattəl hst wa-ʾana-bi talaw-ku māsla šəyyumiya* ‘they kill ḤST and (as for me,) I followed with my officials’

Two phrases (admittedly, Biblical quotations whose word order corresponds exactly to that of LXX) obviously represent **contrastive topic shift**:

[46]RIÉ 195 II: 26–27: *ʾəmun[tusa = baʾafrās = wabasaraḡalāt = wa]nəḥnasa = naʿābi = basəma = ʾəgziʾa = bə]her* ‘they (are great) through horses and chariots and we are great through the name of God’ (from Ps 19:8)

[47]RIÉ 195 II: 27–28: *[ʾəmutusa] taʿāksu = wawadku wanəḥnasa = tanśāʾna* ‘they stumbled and fell down and we rose up’ (from Ps 19:9)

Besides this, a specific pattern of usage of pronominal subjects – not mentioned by Givón in his analysis of Biblical Hebrew syntax, where he concentrates on 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronouns – has been detected: overt 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns can occur as pre-verbal subjects at the beginning of the inscription. In the majority of cases they are followed by a proper name as a modifier and thus function as special devices of identifying the author of the text.<sup>15</sup> Cf. examples [17], ? [19], ? [20] and

[48]RIÉ 202: *ʾn / yhd gbrk \*\*ʾana yhd gabarku* ‘I, YHD, made (it)’ (less likely *\*\*ʾana yhd gabrəka* ‘I, YHD, am your slave’).

These sentences can perhaps be classified as **semantically emphatic-cleft contexts** in Givón’s terminology: [48] ‘I, YHD, (am the one who) made (it)’; [17] ‘I, ʾRKY, (am the one who) killed a friend (fem.) in the morning’, etc. Similarly, another case, no. [18], where there seems to be no immediate reason for using the overt pronoun, can be tentatively seen as an example of an emphatic-cleft context. Cf. the whole context (RIÉ 33–34): *znt / whbn / ʾgz / bhr / zkyh / tʾm[nk /]wšd.h / wʾt / whbn / sm / šby \*\*zanta wababanni ʾəgzi bəher* (cp. CG *ʾəgziʾa bəher*) *za-kijāhu taʾama[nku] wa-šd.h wəʾətu wababanni səma šabiya* ‘this gave me God, in whom I believed, and ? he gave me a great name’, with the overt personal pronoun probably functioning as emphazier of the subject: ‘... and ? (it was) he (who) gave me a great name’.

For the examples [49] and [50] below, the main factor triggering the pre-verbal position of the subject is equally uncertain. Both are conditional clauses in which the subject is a chain of coordinate constituents, the first of

<sup>15</sup>This type of subject can also be post-verbal. In fact, such examples constitute the majority of pronominal subjects in post-verbal position: cf. [16], ? [39]; also RIÉ 193 I: 3–5; RIÉ 222: 1–2.

which is a personal pronoun. The pronoun is prominent pragmatically and bears the main stress (note that the verb is in the singular and thus agrees only with this constituent rather than with the whole chain<sup>16</sup>):

[49]RIÉ 188: 26–28: *laʔəma / boza / naśato / wanaḳalo / wəʔətu / wabəḫeru / wazamadu / layətnaḳal / wayətnaśat* ‘if there is (one) who demolishes it and removes it, let him and his land and his relative be removed and demolished’

[50]RIÉ 189: 50–51: *laʔəməbo / zanaḳalo / waʔamāsano / wanaśato / wəʔətu / wazamadu / yaśara[w] / wayətnaḳal* ‘if there is (one) who eradicates it and destroys it and demolishes it, let him and his relative be eradicated and removed’

It may be that the pre-verbal position of the subject group is motivated here by the necessity to underscore the topic-switching (the referent introduced in the protasis becomes the new topic in the apodosis) or by the general tendency of putting overt pronominal subjects before the verb. Note that in one case (example [51] below) a similar chain of coordinate constituents functions as a nominal adjunct and the pronominal constituent surfaces as a bound rather than as an independent pronoun. This chain occupies a post-verbal position, although its pragmatic role is presumably the same as that of the respective constituents in [49] and [50].<sup>17</sup>

Although some of the phrases mentioned above are Biblical quotations where influence from the Greek original might be suspected (examples [40], [46] and [47]), such cases do not constitute the majority of PronS–V sentences. Greek influence is therefore unlikely to play any significant role in the formation of the word order patterns of such sentences.

For the subordinate clauses, statistical evidence for the subject position is as follows.

- V–S:
  - 11 secure cases
  - 2 questionable cases
- S–V:
  - 3 secure cases

Predominance of the V–S type is somewhat more pronounced in subordinate clauses (81 % V–S vs. 19 % S–V) than in main clauses (68 % V–S vs. 32 % S–V); cf. Givón 1977: 239 for the discussion of factors favouring the post-verbal subject in these environments. The pre-verbal position is nevertheless preferred if the subject is expressed by an independent personal pronoun:

<sup>16</sup> Cp. REVELL 1993: 74–77 for the use of a singular verb with a compound subject in Biblical Hebrew to mark the first constituent of the subject group as the principal actor.

<sup>17</sup> Cp. also HOLMSTEDT 2009: 11–12 on similar coordinate phrases in Biblical Hebrew, which constitute the majority of V–PronS sentences in this language.

V–PronS:

1 secure example

PronS–V:

5 secure examples

One remarkable trend can be observed: in main clauses, the V–S word order is common when the verb is in the perfect, whereas the imperfect and the jussive forms appear to be more flexible with respect to the word order. Thus, among 54 sentences of the V–S type<sup>18</sup> only 7 (or 13 %) have the main verb in the imperfect or the jussive, whereas in the remaining cases it is in the perfect. As for the 39 sentences displaying the S–V word order, 25 of them have their predicates in the perfect, whereas in 14 cases (or 36 %) it is in the imperfect or the jussive. This picture is in agreement with the claim that a temporally sequenced event line (in Gəʕəz obviously associated with the perfect) favours the initial position of the verb (cf. Payne 1995: 454).

#### III.4. Word order in sentences with verbal copulas

The assumption that the neutral word order in EG still implies the initial position of the verb is corroborated by the evidence collected from the sentences with verbal copulas. The clauses with verbal copulas are likely to have some properties in common with clauses which employ full-fledged verbs, and one is justified to expect some sort of correlation between the position of a true verbal predicate and that of a verbal copula with respect to their subjects. Therefore, sentences with verbal copulas have also been considered in the framework of the present contribution.<sup>19</sup>

Out of 24 sentences with the verbal copula *kona* in the main clause (6 examples from duplicate inscriptions), 20 (3 from duplicate inscriptions) display *kona* in the initial position (V–S). It is only in one sentence (repeated thrice in duplicate inscriptions) that the subjects precede the verbal copula (S–V):

[51]RIÉ 185 II, 21–22: *wlʔmb / zʔm[s]n / lzʔbn / ʃll / wnkt / lykn / wzmd / wʔwld \*\*wa-la-ʔamma-bo za-ʔamā[sa]no la-zə-ʔəbn ʔsalalo wa-nəket la-ʔəkuno wa-zamadu(/do) wa-waldu(/do)* ‘and if there is (one) who destroys this stone, let darkness and harm befall (lit. be for) him and his relative and his son’ (cf. also duplicate inscriptions RIÉ 185 I, 21–22, RIÉ 185 bis I, 24, RIÉ 185 bis IIC, 40)

These 20 examples can be supplemented by one, admittedly dubious, example of a V–S sentence with the copular verb *kona* in a subordinate clause:

<sup>18</sup> Main clauses with nominal and pronominal subjects are counted here.

<sup>19</sup> Within the present approach, all the occurrences of *kona* were counted as examples of copular usage, even though in some cases one can argue that it is employed as a full-fledged verb. This question, however important, bears no influence on the results of the present investigation.

[52]? RIÉ 192: 10–11: *ttks / wkl / dd? / ykwnh[m] / ʔgzbbʁ / ʔywh \*\*ttks wa-kl za-dʔ ʔə-kawwənahom[mu]*<sup>20</sup> *ʔəgzibəher* (cp. CG *ʔəgzibəher*) *ʔi-ʔawāha* ‘TTKS and KL, to whom God is not mild’

Thus, the behaviour of the verbal copula *kona* – both in main and subordinate clauses – largely supports the case for the neutral verb-initial word order in early Gəʿəz.

The situation with the verb *hallawa* (treated here as a copula, although its status in EG – a locative/equational copula or a full-fledged verb – is rather unclear) is less illustrative: both passages where it seems to be used with overt arguments come from highly problematic inscriptions whose interpretation can be at best tentative.

The first example comes from the inscription on a clay jar discussed in Wendowski et al. 2001:

[53]? Wendowski et al. 2001: *mr hl+s zlt kfr+ grmnt*. In Wendowski et al. 2001: 193 this phrase is read as *m[ʔ]r hls zlt kfr grmn*, vocalized as *\*\*məʁ ballo-ssa za-lottu kʷəfāra gərumān*, and understood as ‘it is (only for) a moment that (one can wear) the garments of the majestic (ones)’ (‘Es währt (nur) einen Augenblick, in welchem (man) das Gewand des Gewaltigen (trägt)’). Both reading and translation are not without difficulties. Thus, the insertion of *ʔ* into the first word looks suspicious since on the copy provided *ibid.* 103 there is hardly any space for a letter between *m* and *r*. The final symbol is read as *t* in the first line, but exactly the same symbol in the second line is not treated as part of the text. The word *kfr* can rather be understood as referring to the object that bears the inscription (cf. CG *kafar* ‘basket; container for measuring, bushel’, Leslau 1987: 276, Dillmann 1970: 879). The first word, if read as *mr*, can be vocalized as *māri* and understood as ‘priest’ (cf. Leslau 1987: 362, Dillmann 1970: 168). If read as *mʁ*, it can be vocalized as *maʁar* ‘honey’ (cf. Leslau 1987: 326, Dillmann 1970: 207). But even if some of these suggestions are accepted, the structure of the sentence remains the same: NP + copular verb *hallo* with a particle *-ssa* + relative clause (prepositional phrase + noun phrase).

The second one comes from the Safra inscription, discussed at length by Drewes (1962: 30–64), whose interpretation is only tentative and leaves many questions unanswered.

[54]? RIÉ 183 IV: 3–5: *wblw / ʔld / wmsg ʔ\*\*wa-hallawo ʔld wa-msg* ‘and there are (i.e., are due) to him *ʔld* (‘money’ according to Drewes 1962: 53) and *msg* (‘butter’ according to Drewes 1962: 37)’

Thus, in the first of these two questionable passages the subject precedes the copula and in the second one the copula occupies the initial position. These examples cannot have any relevance for the statistical picture presented above.

\* \* \*

<sup>20</sup> Cf. fn. 3.

The extant evidence makes it possible to describe the word order in EG as displaying a rigid position for the object but a flexible one for the subject, with a predilection towards post-verbal subjects unless they are independent pronouns. The latter condition almost certainly relates to the pragmatic role of independent pronouns as marked topic or focus: as in most Semitic languages, pronominal subjects in Gəʕəz do not normally surface when they refer to an unmarked topic<sup>21</sup>.

#### IV. Word order in noun phrases in EG

##### IV.1. The position of adjective

In Classical Gəʕəz, as shown by Gai (1981: 258–260), the neutral position of the adjective is after the noun it qualifies. This is in perfect agreement with the data from EG, where the majority of noun phrases with adjectives as modifiers display the word order “qualified – qualifier”, i.e. N–Adj:

- [55]RIÉ 191: 1: *ʔgzʔbhr / hyl / wsnʔ \*\*ʔgziʔabəher hayyāl wa-ʕənuʔ* ‘mighty and strong God’ (from Ps 23:8; the Greek word order is preserved)
- [56]RIÉ 191: 1–2: *ʔgzʔbhr / hyl wst / dbʔ \*\*ʔgziʔabəher hayyāl wəsta dābʔ* ‘God, mighty in war’ (from Ps 23:8; the Greek word order is preserved)
- [57]RIÉ 191: 3–4: *mngst / snʔ \*\*mangəsta ʕənuʕa* ‘mighty kingdom (acc.)’
- [58]RIÉ 191: 7: *mfs / kds \*\*maffas* (cp. CG *manfas*) *kəddus* ‘Holy Spirit’
- [59]RIÉ 192: 1: *wmfs / [kds]m \*\*wa-maffas* (cp. CG *manfas*) *[kəddus]<sup>m</sup>* ‘and [Holy] Spirit’
- [60]RIÉ 193: 1–2: *wamanfas- : kədu-* ‘and Holy Spirit’
- [61]RIÉ 193:II: 2: *waman-fas- : k-du-* ‘and Holy Spirit’
- [62]RIÉ 192: 36: *smk / kds \*\*səməka kəddusa* ‘your holy name (acc.)’
- [63]RIÉ 250: 1: *ʔ-bəʔəsi : ʕāmāḏ-* ‘from the unjust man’ (from Ps 139:2; the Greek word order is preserved)
- [64]RIÉ 250: 2–3: *ʔ-bəʔəs- gaf-ʔ-* ‘from the violent man’ (from Ps 139:2; the Greek word order is preserved)
- [65]RIÉ 191: 2–4: *ʔyss / kr[s]ts / wld / ʔg<z>ʔ / bhr / mawʔ / zʔmnk / bt \*\*ʔiyasus krəstos walda ʔgziʔa bəher mawāʔi za-ʔamanku bottu* ‘Jesus Christ, son of God, victorious, in whom I believed’
- [66]RIÉ 189: 25: *waʔəngabenāwe / kəbra*<sup>22</sup> ‘and a honorable nobleman (acc.)’
- [67]RIÉ 191: 34: *sm / ʕby \*\*səma ʕabiya* ‘a great name (acc.)’
- [68]? RIÉ 202: 1: *dāwit / gəbʕāwi* ‘Dāwit the Egyptian’ (although the word *gəbʕāwi* probably functions here as a proper name, it undoubtedly has an attributive origin: “the Egyptian Dāwit”; therefore, this name can be used here as a piece of evidence for the position of adjective in EG)

<sup>21</sup> Cf. HOLMSTEDT 2009: 9 for Biblical Hebrew. A different point of view is expressed by GROß (1996: 150–151), who disregards the pragmatic factors triggering the use of overt pronominal subjects.

<sup>22</sup> Rather, *kəbərə*.



Among these 14 examples, four are quotations from the Greek Bible, and another four involve the fixed expression *manfas kəddus* (in which a Greek influence could also be suspected). Still, the cumulative evidence of the epigraphic corpus, supported by the data from CG, seems sufficient to confirm the hypothesis that the neutral word order in EG was N–Adj.

As far as the reverse (Adj–N) order is concerned, EG data also agrees with the CG picture. As in CG (for which see Caquot 1952: 487–489 and Schneider 1959: 69–70), this order is less common than the Adj–N order. Statistics for the Adj–N word order yielded by the epigraphic corpus occupy an intermediate position between the figures obtained by Caquot (who investigated the syntax of the Book of Enoch) and those by Schneider (whose corpus included various texts of the Aksumite and post-Aksumite period). In EG there are 3 certain and 2 dubious examples of Adj–N order (26 % of the collected phrases), opposed to 13 certain and 1 dubious case of N–Adj order. For CG, Caquot (1952: 487) has 45 examples of Adj–N order (14 %) against 278 examples of N–Adj order. Schneider 1959: 69 has 112 phrases of the structure Adj–N (34 %) and 221 phrases of the structure N–Adj. He observes that the majority of Adj–N examples come from fixed expressions employing a certain number of frequently used adjectives, viz. *kəddus* ‘saint’, *ṣabiy* ‘great’, *bəṣuʾ* ‘blessed’ (cf. also Gai 1981: 259–260).

Three certain examples of Adj–N word order in EG are the following.

[70]RIÉ 232: 11–12: *ʔama daḥāri / ṣəlat* ‘on the last day’ (from Jn 6: 54; the Greek word order is preserved)

[71]RIÉ 192: 43–44: *bkdmb / mrd \*\*ba-kaḍāmi-hi marād* ‘in the first attack’

[72]RIÉ 192: 44: *wbdḥrb / mrd \*\*wa-ba-daḥāri-hi marād* ‘and also in the last attack’

The first example comes from a late inscription and is rather uninformative, since the word order can be influenced by the language of the original.

The remaining two examples are more interesting. These are noun phrases from the same inscription which belong to two coordinate prepositional phrases within the same clause. The translation given above is equivalent to that of Schneider (1974: 785): “lors la première expédition et lors de la dernière expédition”. What is different is the vocalization: in Schneider’s version it is *\*\*ba-kaḍāmihu marād wa-ba-daḥārihu*<sup>23</sup> *marād*, where possessive suffixes are attached to the adjective rather than to the noun – a construction which is highly atypical of Gəʿəz and requires a special explanation. If one continues to regard the final *-h* as part of the possessive suffix, several alternative interpretations of various degree of plausibility can be considered, such as *\*\*ba-kaḍmehu marād wa-ba-dəḥrehu marād* ‘before the attack and after the attack’ or *\*\*ba-kaḍāmihu marād wa-ba-daḥārihu marād* ‘in the first of the attack

<sup>23</sup> Schneider has *badəḥarahu*, obviously a typographical error.

and in the second of the attack' (in both cases with omitted *la*-<sup>24</sup>). However, none of them is truly satisfactory, and they all become redundant as soon as one ventures to vocalize the final syllables as *\*\*hi* 'and, also', in the framework of the well-known construction *-hi ... wa- ... -hi* 'both, (this) as well as (that)' (cf. Dillmann 1970: 2: *-hi ... wa-...-hi* 'et-et, cum-tum, ut-ita', with such examples as Gen 41:11: *wa-halamna halmā ?ana-hi wa-wə?ətu-hi* 'we have dreamt a dream, I as well as he').

The particle *-hi*, alongside its conjunctive function, can be used to render a special emphasis on the word to which it is attached (Dillmann 1970: 2). This is obviously the reason why this particle is employed in the emphatic coordination (in terminology of Haspelmath 2007: 2–3, 15–17), which stresses the contrast between the coordinated elements and puts the emphasis on both of them. The presence of this type of coordination in RIÉ 192: 43–44 is not accidental: the author of the inscription obviously strived to stress that the numbers he was going to present included spoils of *two* expeditions. In the constructions in question, the adjectives are used in a restrictive sense and legitimately bear the main stress: the new information is introduced by the semantically opposed adjectives, rather than by the head nouns.

This is obviously the reason why the "inverted" (rather than the "neutral") word order has been chosen here. In view of the CG evidence (Gai 1981: 258–260), one can claim with certainty that the word order Adj–N in this sentence marks (together with the coordinator *-hi ... wa-...-hi*) a special pragmatic stress on the restrictive adjectives.

Two further putative examples of the Adj–N word order can be adduced, in which no pragmatic stress on the adjective can be discerned. Both examples are highly questionable and are adduced here for the completeness's sake only. Both come from heavily damaged inscriptions RIÉ 193 and RIÉ 194.

[72]? RIÉ 194: 9–10: *wfnwkw : ynšr : ?ksm : dhr : mngsty \*\*wa-fannawkwəwo yənaššər ?aksum ?dəhura mangəštəya* 'and I sent him so that he watches ?aksum, my ?blessed kingdom'. The meaning 'to bless' for the verb *dəhara* is known from CG (Leslau 1987: 129, Dillmann 1970: 1111), and the existence of a passive adjective *\*dəhur* 'blessed' is quite conceivable. In principle, it can even be seen as a modifier of the noun *?aksum*, in which case the word order would still be N–Adj. However, it is semantically more likely that the adjective in question modifies the word it precedes: the entire noun phrase *dhr mngsty \*\*dəhur mangəštəya* 'my blessed kingdom' thus becomes an appositional attribute of the proper name *?aksum*.

[73]? DAE IV, 12, pp. 31–32 (the corresponding passage is presented as unreadable in RIÉ 193): *waš-w-k- : d-m-m- : š-w- \*\*wa-sewoku* (cp. CG *dewawku/dewoku*) *?dəmuma šewā* (cp. CG *dewā*) 'and I captured ?marvelous booty' (cf. DAE IV, p. 44)

<sup>24</sup> For the few similar examples with omitted *la*- in CG see DILLMANN 1907: 427.

Still another phrase where Adj–N word order has been posited is RIÉ 189: 9–10: *wašali*[*m* /] [*da*]*bʔa* / *kaṃəḥ* / *dabʔ* (cf. the discussion under [22] above, with fn. 9). However, if the interpretation offered in the fn. 9 is accepted, the phrases in question cannot be considered as examples of the Adj–N word order.

Summing up: the neutral position of the adjective in EG is after the head noun; the reverse word order, Adj–N, is a marked one, and there is one reliable example when it is used to express a special emphasis on the adjective. This picture corresponds exactly to that of CG.

#### IV.2. Relative clauses

Almost all the relative clauses in EG (54 examples, 11 rather questionable, 7 from duplicate inscriptions) follow their head nouns. This is in agreement with the general word order typology, which claims that a V–O language has usually N–Rel (rather than Rel–N) word order (Dryer 2008a; 1991: 455–456; no verb-initial languages with Rel–N order seem to be known at present).

In the corpus under scrutiny, only two passages have been found where relative clauses possibly precede the head noun<sup>25</sup>:

[74]RIÉ 192: B9: *dt* / *mḥdk* / *lḏhgśn* / *lʔgzbḥr* *\*\*zanta maḥḍakku* (cp. CG *ʔamāḥḍanku*) *la-za-baggaśanni* (cp. CG *ʔangasanni*) *la-ʔgziʔabəḥer* ‘this I entrusted to God, who made me a king’. The fact that the preposition *\*la-* is repeated twice (before the relative pronoun *\*za-* and before the noun *\*ʔgziʔabəḥer*) makes it possible to analyse the first constituent as a headless relative clause connected to the head noun as an apposition: ‘this I entrusted to (him) who made me a king, to God’ (cf. DILLMANN 1907: 481 on the repetition of *la-* before appositional constituents). This theoretical analysis, however, does not undermine the fact that, on the surface level, the modifying relative clause precedes rather than follows the modified noun (a similar, appositive, analysis of relative clause for relative constructions with “inverted” order in Tigre was considered in RAZ 1980: 238). The function of the “inverted” order is probably, as in the case of Adj–N, a pragmatic one. This case, however, is obviously one of a non-restrictive relative clause: the author of the inscription, supposed to be a monotheist, could have meant only ‘to God, who made me king’ and not ‘to the god who made me king’. One is tempted to compare this usage with the Tigre picture, for which RAZ (1980: 238–239) argues that a relative clause with “inverted” order “has an interpretive force and also places emphasis on the word denoted by the antecedent”. Still, as will be shown below (example [75]), the “inverted” word order can also be used for restrictive modifiers both in Tigre and in Gəʕəz.

[75]RIÉ 189: 25–26: *waʔəla* / *moto* / *magabt danok<sup>w</sup>e* / 1 / *dagale* / 1 / *ʔanak<sup>w</sup>e* / 1 / *ḥawāre* / 1 / *karkārā* / 1 / *mārihomu* / 1 / ... ‘the chiefs that died (are) Danok<sup>w</sup>e 1, Dagale 1, ʔanak<sup>w</sup>e 1, ḥawāre 1, Karkārā 1, their priest (1) ...’. This interpretation has been rejected in Bulakh 2009:408 in favour of the following one where the relative clause functions as

<sup>25</sup> Cp. the predicative interpretation of other potential examples of Rel–N (RIÉ 189: 40–41 = DAE IV, 11, pp. 40–41 and RIÉ 192: 43–44), cf. discussion in section II.

the predicate: ‘those who died (are:) the chiefs Danok<sup>w</sup>e (1), Dagale 1, ṽanak<sup>w</sup>e, Ḥawāre 1, Karkārā 1, their priest 1 ...’. As argued in this study, the phrase *ṽala moto* is semantically related to both *magabt* and *māri* and, therefore, must be syntactically linked to both of these phrases as well. Still, discrepancy between semantic and syntactic links is registered elsewhere in EG. Cf., e.g., RIÉ 188: 17–18: *wa-kona / kəṭla / ṽəd / zaṽa[ṽā]n / 503 / waṽanəst / 202* ‘and (the number of) the killed men of ṽafān was 503, and (the number of) women – 202’, where the nominal complement *za-ṽafān* semantically qualifies both *ṽəd* and *ṽanəst*, but syntactically is linked to *ṽəd* only. If the phrase *ṽala moto* is interpreted as a modifier of *magabt*, the reverse order Rel–N is easy to explain in terms of special emphasis laid on the modifier, which has here a restrictive and contrastive value (unlike in [74]): those chiefs who died are opposed to the previously mentioned ones who were captured (RIÉ 189: 23–26: *waḏewawku / magabta / kalṽeta / 2 / ... waṽasmā-tihomu / ṽəsākā / 1 / butāle / 1 / waṽəngabenāwe / kābra<sup>26</sup> / waṽala / moto / magabt danok<sup>w</sup>e / 1 / dagale / 1 / ṽanak<sup>w</sup>e / 1 / ḥawāre / 1 / karkārā / 1 / mārihomu / 1 / ...* ‘and I captured two 2 chiefs ... and their names (are) ṽəsākā 1 Butāle 1, and a great nobleman; and the chiefs **that died** (are) Danok<sup>w</sup>e 1, Dagale 1, ṽanak<sup>w</sup>e 1, Ḥawāre 1, Karkārā 1, their priest (1) ...’). Cf. the employment of the “inverted” word order Adj–N in the examples [70], [71] and [72], also with restrictive and contrastive modifiers. Significantly, the same restrictive/contrastive usage of the “inverted” word order N–Adj is registered in Tigre: cf. the expression *ṽəb-la ṽənkəṽā la-gəbub* ‘by its **blunt** side’ which is contextually opposed to *ṽəb-la gaṽṽā la-bākəṽ* ‘by its **sharp** edge’ (Littmann 1910: 13). Unfortunately, no evidence about a similar usage of “inverted” word order with relative clauses in Tigre is at hand.

Thus, one can safely claim that the neutral position of the relative clause in EG is after the head noun, assuming that the reverse order, Rel–N, could be sometimes – very rarely – employed to mark special emphasis laid on the modifier, or perhaps even on the modified, as in [74] (for both potential examples of the reverse order alternative interpretations cannot be excluded). The fact that, in spite of the rather high number of examples, only two potential cases of the reverse order have been registered suggests that the position of the relative clauses was more rigid than that of adjectival modifiers. This, again, is in full agreement with the general typology of word order: cross-linguistically, V–O languages usually have N–Rel word order rather than Rel–N; at the same time, they have no restrictions on the mutual order of adjective and noun (Dryer 2008a; 2008b). In Dryer (1992: 107–108), this difference is explained in terms of opposition between non-phrasal constituents (like adjectives) and phrasal constituents (like relative clauses). This opposition is a syntactic one and the phrasal constituent remains such even if it contains one lexeme only (the noun phrase *water* is a phrasal constituent exactly in the same way as *cold water* or *water of the Pacific Ocean*). Nevertheless, it is worth noting that in both exceptional examples from the

<sup>26</sup> Rather, *kābərə*.

EG corpus the relative clauses consist of bare verbal forms only, and that the same is true of most of the extant CG examples (Gai 1981: 260–261; cf. also Dillmann 1907: 530)<sup>27</sup>, such as Deut 33: 11 (*lāsla ʔalla ʔətkāwwaməw-wo darru* ‘upon the enemies who oppose him’) or Lev 19: 9 (*ʔi-təʔrəyu za-wadka ʔəkla* ‘gather not up the corn which has fallen aside’). What may count here is the adjectival use of the relative clauses. In Classical Gəʿəz, a verb with a relative pronoun can be employed as a functional substitute of an adjective (Kapeliuk 2003: 178; cp. Kapeliuk 2002: 41–42 for such use of Amharic relative verbs). One may argue that *ʔəla / moto*, which obviously functions in [75] as an equivalent of the adjective ‘dead’, was perceived by the speakers as an adjective, thus, as a non-phrasal constituent.

Still, one may persist in considering the relative clauses under scrutiny as phrasal constituents, and to relate the possibility of the inverted order directly to the length of the relative clause. In this case, this phenomenon has to be treated in the light of Hawkins’ Performance Theory (1994). Hawkins has shown that rules of word order are influenced by the so-called “principle of Early Immediate Constituents”: the higher the ratio of the immediate constituents with respect to the number of words within the constituent recognition domain, the more preferable is the linear order (*ibid.* 76–77). What is crucial for the problem under scrutiny is that the word order is sensitive to the actual number of words within the constituents: the same principle may govern the order of relative clauses in Gəʿəz. Still, it may be observed that in his discussion of interaction between performance and grammar Hawkins (*ibid.* 87–93) describes situations not quite identical to what occurs in Gəʿəz. He is aware of readjustments of basic word order if the non-basic order becomes preferable due to the principle of Early Immediate Constituents. In the present case, the word order can be inverted when there is no preference for either word order. If the relative clause consists of more than one content word, the basic word order becomes preferable according to the principle of Early Immediate Constituents, and this may account for the fact that in EG the inverted order is never used with more-than-one-word relative clauses.

#### IV.3. The position of a genitive complement

In the synthetic genitive constructions, only N–Gen word order is possible in Gəʿəz. This restriction is motivated morphosyntactically. The synthetic genitive construction in Gəʿəz, as in many other Semitic languages, allows neither any change of word order nor insertion of a third element between the head and the dependent noun. Thus, in *wald-a nəguś* ‘son of a king’ the possessive

<sup>27</sup> Among 20 passages dealt with by Gai, no less than 16 consist of a bare verbal form.

relation between the two nouns is marked not only by the ending *-a*, but also by the word order and by the immediate adjacency of the two terms. As for the analytic genitive constructions, in theory both orders are possible, but, as will be shown below, only the N–Gen order is present in EG.

Genitive complements attached through the *nota genitivi* *za-* are discussed in Bulakh 2009. Among the extant examples of nominal complements (37 cases altogether), no reliable examples with the complement preceding the head noun have been found.

Nominal complements attached through the preposition *la-* and copied through a possessive pronoun are uncommon in the EG corpus. There are three secure examples:

[76]RIÉ 192: 1: *bʔkttb / [ʔ]bm / wʔldm / wmfʃ / [kds]m \*\*ba-ʔakk<sup>w</sup>atetəhu<sup>28</sup> la-[ʔa]b<sup>m</sup> wa-wald<sup>m</sup> wa-maffas* (cp. CG *manfas*) [*kəddus*]<sup>m</sup> ‘in praise of the Father and the Son and the [Holy] Spirit’

[77]RIÉ 192: 33–34: [*z*]bnm / ldry *\*\*zabanomu la-darəya* ‘the back of my enemies’ (from Ps 17: 40)

[78]RIÉ 232: 3: *məḫātəwiha / lagenā* ‘the eve of Christmas’

One is less certain but still possibly represents the same construction:

[79]RIÉ 185 bis II: 3–4: *wld / lmḫrm \*\*waldu la-məḫrəm* ‘son of Məḫrəm’. The presence of the pronominal suffix is not expressed graphically since the inscription is unvocalized. Still, it is reasonable to interpret this phrase as a periphrastic construction with *la-* and the pronominal suffix instead of considering other, less frequent and less typical possessive constructions, such as *\*\*wald la-məḫrəm* (despite the fact that the latter type is also registered in CG, cf. Dillmann 1907: 470–471).

In all these noun phrases, the order is N–Gen.

Four additional examples discussed below (of various degrees of plausibility; even the first and most convincing one comes from a damaged inscription and therefore is not absolutely certain) are clearly different from the canonical periphrastic genitive construction with copying pronouns since the preposition *la-* is missing. Such a usage, however, is also known from CG (see Dillmann 1907: 427), e.g., *ʔafuhu walda ziʔahu* ‘mouth of his son’ (Dillmann 1866: 14), and one is justified to treat it as a special, less common variety of the periphrastic construction. The exact relationship between these two types and conditions triggering the use of the periphrastic construction without *la-* lie beyond the scope of this paper. As far as its main purpose is concerned, it suffices to state that in this case, too, the genitive modifier follows the head noun in EG:

[80]RIÉ 195: 13: [*man*]faḫu = ʔaḫzābəya = warada ‘half (or part) of my people descended’. The reconstruction [*man*]faḫu (see Müller 1972: 72, 73) is based on a parallel passage, also heavily damaged (see example [81]).

<sup>28</sup> Cp. fn. 3.



- [81]RIÉ 195: 11: ...]marān = wamanfaku = ʔa[h... <sup>26</sup>and half (or part) of [my peo]ple'. The last word is convincingly reconstructed by Müller (1972) as ʔa[hzābəya]. Examples [80] and [81] clearly corroborate each other and both likely exemplify the construction under scrutiny.
- [82]? RIÉ 218: 6–7: šwh šhb / 520 <sup>27</sup>\*\*šə(ʔa)wāhu šhb 'beer in jar (lit. 'beer of jar') – 520'. Reconstruction of this phrase as a periphrastic genitive construction with a possessive suffix and without *la-* is not unproblematic<sup>29</sup>. The semantic relationship between the head noun and the modifier here is not of the kind which usually allows periphrastic constructions with copying pronouns in CG: according to Schneider 1959:49, the latter is used for true possessive relationship only, whereas RIÉ 218: 6–7 implies an attributive relationship ("a jar beer"). Littmann (1952: 7–8), apparently followed by Hable Sellassie (1972: 89) and Drewes (1962: 37, 67) considered the final *-h* to be a marker of the accusative. Within an alternative explanation, *-h* can be analyzed as the definite article (or, better, a possessive pronoun functioning as the definite article), known also from CG (Dillmann 1907: 426): <sup>28</sup>\*\*šə(ʔa)wāhu 'the beer'. The phrase would then be interpreted as an appositional collocation: 'the beer – 520 jars'.
- [83]? RIÉ 185 I, 8: wbgʕm / wʔnsthm / ʕwd <sup>29</sup>\*\*wa-baggā<sup>m</sup> wa-ʔənsəsāhu<sup>m</sup> ʕawd 'and sheep and beasts of burden'. The expression ʔənsəsā ʕawd 'beasts of burden' is also known from the vocalized inscription RIÉ 188: 22. The translation is based on the corresponding term in the Greek version (RIÉ 270: 14, cf. DAE IV, p. 15), although the semantic motivation in Gəʿəz is different from that of Greek (κτηνῶν νοτοφόρων[v]) and English (*beasts of burden*). Cf. Nöldeke 1913: 697, who renders ʕawd (lit. 'circle') as "Hof" ('area' in Dillmann 1970: 1000), and understands the whole expression as "Tiere des Gehöftes". In any case, ʔənsəsā ʕawd is an idiomatic expression and, as such, is better to be understood as a complex word rather than a syntactic construction<sup>30</sup>, and it is somewhat strange to find it transformed into a periphrastic genitive construction. Moreover, the latter is usually restricted to true possessive constructions (Schneider 1959: 49), whereas the expression ʔənsəsā ʕawd is a clear example of an attributive genitive construction. Therefore, it is doubtful that wʔnsthm / ʕwd reflects a living expression of the spoken language. In view of these factors, Littmann (DAE IV, p. 15) suspected a scribal error or even the use of *h* to mark the length of *ā*. The former possibility is no serious explanation at all, whereas the latter one is highly implausible since such orthographic usage is not attested anywhere else in EG. This phrase should rather be analyzed as a result of artificial modifications characteristic of the "pseudo-Sabaic" inscriptions, where graphic exponents of the possessive suffixes can be more or less mechanically attached to nouns, in the same way as the final *m* was added to almost every word in these inscriptions. Note that the duplicate inscriptions RIÉ 185 bis II, 13

<sup>29</sup> It is not quite clear whether KROPP (2006), who translates the phrase as 'beer in jars', analyses its syntactic structure in this way.

<sup>30</sup> Synthetic genitive constructions in Gəʿəz can be used as a means of forming complex nouns, whose morphological behaviour is different from that of simple genitive constructions. Cf. *beta krəstiyān* 'church' (lit. 'house of Christians') whose status as an independent lexeme can be clearly seen from the way it attaches the plural marker *-āt*: *beta krəstiyānāt* or *ʔabyāta krəstiyānāt*, instead of <sup>30</sup>\*ʔabyāta krəstiyān, expected for a canonical genitive construction (DILLMANN 1907: 466).



and 185 bis I: 10 make use of the synthetic construction, which in one case (RIÉ 185 bis I, 10) is even written as one word. A detailed analysis of discrepancies between the inscriptions 185 and 185 bis can be found in Sima 2003/2004, where possible reasons behind these deliberate modifications are also discussed<sup>31</sup>.

Whatever the interpretation of these questionable examples may be, one can state confidently that the EG corpus has no examples – certain or hypothetical – of periphrastic genitive constructions with the modifier preceding the head. This picture fully agrees with the word order typology, which predicts that the verb-initial languages – unlike S–V–O languages – have a strong preference for the N–Gen word order (Dryer 1991: 464–465; 1992: 91). In this respect, EG does not differ much from CG, where the Gen–N word order does sporadically occur (Dillmann 1907: 428, 466), but is extremely rare at least as far as genitive constructions with the *nota genitivi za-* are concerned. Gai (1981: 260) quotes three examples (Lev 25: 21, Gen 37: 7, Deut 4: 32), and Schneider (1959: 56) only two. Neither Gai nor Schneider provide any explicit statistical evidence about the Gen–N word order in the analytic constructions with *la-*, but among 30 examples quoted by Schneider (1959: 49–53) this order occurs only twice.

#### IV.4. Position of the demonstrative pronoun

In CG, demonstrative pronouns and other determiners usually precede the head nouns (Dillmann 1907: 476; Schneider 1959: 67–68). The same picture is observed in EG, where this word order is present in all the available examples (admittedly, not very numerous). Nine cases are fully reliable.

[84]RIÉ 185 I, 19–20: [ʔw]šbfn / zt / šbftm \*\*wa-šabafna zätta šəbfata ‘and we wrote this inscription’ (with duplicates in RIÉ 185 bis I, 21–22, RIÉ 185 bis IIC, 31–33; remarkably, all these examples have z \*\*zā rather than zt \*\*zātta)

[85]RIÉ 185 I, 22: lzʔbn \*\*la-zə-ʔəbn ‘this stone’ (with duplicates in RIÉ 185 II, 22; RIÉ 185 bis I, 24; RIÉ 185 bis IIC, 39)

<sup>31</sup> In fact, the vocalic reconstruction proposed above is not quite certain. From the syntactic point of view, *-m* is more likely to represent mimation. However, in the version of the same inscription in Ethiopic writing the final *-m* is not omitted in this case, and one has to assume that the writers of the Ethiopic version considered this *-m* a part of a 3<sup>rd</sup> pers. pl. possessive pronoun. In this case, one should vocalize the version in South-Arabic script as <sup>ʔ</sup>\*\*wa-baggəsomu wa-ʔənsəsāhomu sawd, assuming that the possessive suffix does not mark the genitive relation between ʔənsəsā and sawd, but rather is governed by the whole noun phrase: ‘and their sheep and their beasts of burden’. Such an analysis, however, creates a morphosyntactic problem: the head of a synthetic possessive construction in Gəʔz cannot normally attach a possessive pronominal suffix (DILLMANN 1907: 464; compare the grammatically correct construction in RIÉ 185 bis II, 13: wʔms / sawdm \*\*wa-ʔənsəsā sawdomu ‘their beasts of burden’, with ʔənsəsā sawd treated as a complex noun).

- [86]RIÉ 185 bis I, 26: *lǝʔbn* *\*\*la-zə-ʔəbn* ‘this stone’  
 [87]RIÉ 189: 40: *zādaset* ‘this island’  
 [88]RIÉ 189: 49: *zamanbara* ‘this throne (acc.)’  
 [89]RIÉ 191: 38: *db / z / mnbr* *\*\*diba zə manbar* ‘upon this throne’  
 [90]RIÉ 200: *zəʔəbn* ‘this stone’  
 [91]RIÉ 218: 2–4: *zḥwlt / zḥ* *\*\*zā(/zə) ḥawəlt ziʔabu* ‘this stele is his’ (cf. Kropp 2006; cf. also discussion in section II). The syntactic relationship between the demonstrative and the noun can also be interpreted as attributive (with a tentative vocalization *\*\*zə/zā ḥawəlt ziʔabu* ‘this (is) his stele’). Such an interpretation is, however, less attractive: an attributive use of an independent possessive pronoun *ziʔabu* (instead of a more usual possessive pronominal suffix) requires a special explanation. Conversely, if this is a predicative possessive construction, the use of an independent possessive pronoun is obligatory: in fact, it is the only way to express predicative possession with a pronominal dependent constituent in Gəʿəz. This is why Kropp’s interpretation is followed here.

[92]RIÉ 210: *znt : mḵld* ‘this basin’

Three additional examples are more doubtful:

- [93]? RIÉ 198 I (B): *zgl* *\*\*za-gl* ‘this basin (acc.)’  
 [94]? RIÉ 201: *zəʔəbn* ‘this stone’ (note, however, that the reading of RIÉ does not coincide with that of DAE IV, 16, p. 49)  
 [95]? RIÉ 217: *wzʔbn* *\*\*wa-zə-ʔəbn* ‘and this stone’ (the phrase comes from a broken fragment and hence both vocalization and interpretation are highly hypothetical)

There is only one example where the demonstrative might appear to follow the head noun<sup>32</sup>:

- [96]? DAE IV, 12, p. 25: *nagara za.ta sam-ʕəya* ‘having heard ʔthis speech’. Even in Littmann’s copy the demonstrative *za[n]ta* is not distinctly legible. The editors of RIÉ were able to read neither *-n-* in *za[n]ta* nor the preceding word (RIÉ 193: 25: [...]z-t- : *sam-ʕəya*). This example is, therefore, far from reliable, although one has to admit that Littmann’s interpretation in DAE IV, p. 43 makes perfect sense.

All in all, the epigraphic evidence clearly shows that the normal position of the demonstrative adjectival pronoun was before the head noun. This word order was seldom (if ever) reversed in EG.

The word order Dem–N–Dem, typical of Tigre and Tigrinya, is not registered in EG, but it is interesting to observe that in one case a similar construction is used with the numeral *ʔəbadu* ‘one’ (cf. section IV.6, example [130]).

<sup>32</sup> In RIÉ 184 D: 3–4 the words *ʔgd z* could be interpreted as a noun (for instance, identified with CG *ʔəngədā* ‘stranger’) modified by a demonstrative pronoun *zə* (with the word order N–Dem). There is, however, a more suitable solution: *z* can be analyzed as part of the conjunction *za-kama* ‘as, even as, just as, according to...’ (LESLAU 1987: 284, DILLMANN 1970: 826). RIÉ 184 D: 4 would read thus: *z : km / ʔydlw* *\*\*za kama ʔi-ʔədallə-wwo* ‘as it does not behoove him’.

#### IV.5. Position of the quantifier *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* ‘all, whole’

In CG, the quantifier *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* mostly precedes the head noun (Schneider 1959: 67). In EG, this picture is clearly observable as a trend, but the proportional difference is less pronounced. For CG, Schneider was able to record only two cases of *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* following the head noun. He does not give the exact number of the opposite examples (in his study constructions with *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* are counted together with demonstratives and some other determinatives), but there is no reason to doubt that the number of attestations of *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* in Schneider’s sample by far exceeds that attested in the epigraphic corpus. There are only five secure examples of *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* preceding the noun in EG, which are opposed to one reliable example of *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* following the noun.

*k<sup>w</sup>əllu*–N:

[97] RIÉ 191: 6: *bkl / fnwy \*\*ba-k<sup>w</sup>əllu fənāwəya* ‘in all my paths’

[98] RIÉ 191: 9–10: *wkl / ṣrbm \*wa-k<sup>w</sup>əllu ṣarab<sup>m</sup>* ‘and (of) all Arabs’

[99] RIÉ 192: 25–26: *klbm / ṣzbz \*\*k<sup>w</sup>əlləhomu<sup>33</sup> ṣəbzəb* ‘all peoples’

[100] RIÉ 192: 47: *kl / ṣgd / wytl \*\*k<sup>w</sup>əllu ṣaggāda* (cp. CG *ṣangāda*) *wytl* ‘all tribes of WYTL’

[101] RIÉ 267 II: *k<sup>w</sup>əlo / məd-ra* ‘the whole land’

N–*k<sup>w</sup>əllu*:

[102] RIÉ 186: 13–14: *ṣngdm / mṣnm / klm \*\*ṣangāda<sup>m</sup> mṣn<sup>m</sup> k<sup>w</sup>əllu<sup>m</sup>* ‘all tribes of MṢN’

In principle, this picture can be interpreted chronologically rather than statistically. Four out of five examples displaying the *k<sup>w</sup>əllu*–N word order come from the inscriptions RIÉ 191 and 192 (6<sup>th</sup> cent.), whereas the only example with the reverse order is registered in RIÉ 186 (4<sup>th</sup> cent.). One can suspect some sort of diachronic evolution, with free word order gradually shifting to a mostly fixed position of *k<sup>w</sup>əllu* before the head noun. The extant data, however, is too scanty to draw a definite conclusion.

#### IV.6. Position of the numerals

According to Dillmann (1907: 488), numerals usually precede the counted objects in CG. This neutral word order (Num–N) is only rarely inverted. The pragmatic evaluation elaborated by Gai (1981: 261–262) claims that the pragmatic stress normally lays on the numerals, while the inverted word order marks those rare situations when it is the noun that bears the main stress.

Dillmann (1907: 488) interprets phrases with numerals as appositional or attributive phrases, with the counted object as the head and the numeral as its attribute: *ṣāsṣarta wa-kəlṣetta ṣāmata* ‘twelve years (acc.)’ (Gen 14: 4). It is only in some exceptional cases that numerals clearly function as heads of synthetic genitive constructions and govern the nouns denoting counted objects (*ibid.* 486–487): *ḥamməsta ṣədaw* ‘five men’ (Gen 47: 2).

<sup>33</sup> Cf. fn. 3.

In the EG corpus, the word order Num–N is observed in the majority of cases, although the “inverted“ word order is also well represented: out of 36 pertinent phrases 10 examples (thus, 28 %) have the order N–Num.

The Num–N order is attested in 26 cases, 20 reliable (6 from duplicate inscriptions) and 6 questionable.<sup>34</sup>

Num–N

- [103]RIÉ 187: 24: *śalāsatu / sarāwāt* ‘three armies’  
 [104]RIÉ 188: 15–16: *ʔarbaʕtu / ʔangāda* ‘four tribes (acc.)’  
 [105]RIÉ 188:16–17: *māsle / kəlʔe / daḳu* ‘with his two children’  
 [106]RIÉ 189: 16: *ʔəsṙā / waśalusa / māwāʔala / 23* ‘23 twenty three days (acc.)’  
 [107]RIÉ 185 I, 4: *sdstm / ngštm \*\*səddəstu<sup>m</sup> nagašt<sup>m</sup>* ‘six kings’ (duplicated in RIÉ 185 bis I, 6, RIÉ 185 bis II, 7)  
 [108]RIÉ 185 I, 6–7: *dz / sdstw / ngštm [...]* *\*\*zazza səddəstu nagašt* ‘of each of the six kings [...]’ (duplicated in RIÉ 185 bis I, 8–9 and, in a slightly different version, in RIÉ 185 bis II, 10–11: *zsdst / ngšt / 4400 [...]* *\*\*za-səddəstu nagašt 4400 [...]* ‘of six kings 4400 [...]’)  
 [109]RIÉ 185 I, 12: *ʔrbštm / ʔwrḫm \*\*ʔarbaʕta<sup>m</sup> ʔawrāḫa<sup>m</sup>* ‘four months (acc.)’ (duplicated in RIÉ 185 bis I, 13–14)  
 [110]RIÉ 185 II, 18: *lsdst / ngšt 25140 [...]* *\*\*la-səddəstu nagašt 25140 [...]* ‘for six kings 25140 [...]’ (duplicated in RIÉ 185 bis IIC, 21–22)  
 [111]RIÉ 186: 18: *lʔrbštm / srwtm \*\*la-ʔarbaʕtu<sup>m</sup> sarāwit<sup>m</sup>* ‘to four armies’  
 [112]RIÉ 193: 9: 100 : *ś-r- \*\*100 [məʔəta] śora* ‘100 bulls (acc.)’  
 [113]DAE IV, 13: 15: *ʔahada : ʔ-l-[f-] : ʔabā[gə]f- \*\*ʔahada ʔəlfə ʔabāgəʕa* ‘ten thousand sheep (acc.)’ (lit. ‘one ten-thousand sheep’)  
 [114]RIÉ 190: 40: *rlsm / mʔtm \*\*śalāsā<sup>m</sup> məʔət<sup>m</sup>* ‘thirty hundred’ (the South Arabian graphemes *r* and *ś* are sometimes confused in RIÉ 190 because of their graphic similarity, cf. Schneider 1974: 769; the vocalization *\*\*śalās/śəls məʔət* ‘three hundred’ is unlikely since this phrase probably belongs, together with [115], to the expression for ‘thirty three hundred’: *\*\*śalāsā<sup>m</sup> məʔət<sup>m</sup> wa-śalastu<sup>m</sup> məʔət<sup>m</sup>*)  
 [115]RIÉ 190: 40: *wślstm / mʔtm \*\*wa-śalastu<sup>m</sup> məʔət<sup>m</sup>* ‘and three hundred’  
 [116]RIÉ 190: 34: *wʔlʔtm / rlstm / mʔtm \*\*wa-śalāsā<sup>m</sup> śalastu<sup>m</sup> məʔət* ‘and thirty three hundred’ (note the absence of the conjunction *wa-* which in CG practically always

<sup>34</sup> In the statistic evaluation below, only cases in which there is an obvious syntactic relationship between the numeral and the noun are considered. Accordingly, examples like [75] are not counted since the numerals in such cases are unlikely to be real constituents of the phrase, being rather asyndetically inserted into it as explanatory notes. One has to admit, however, that in some cases it is virtually impossible to choose between two alternative interpretations of a numeral or graphic cipher. Thus, examples like [125] may also be considered as asyndetic insertions. Within the present investigation, all numerals which appear in words (rather than in numerical figures) are interpreted here as true constituents of the phrase. Most (but not all) numerals given in numerical figures (mostly following the nouns counted and usually occurring in lists similar to those of [125] or [75]) are discarded as asyndetic insertions. That the N–Num word order occurs frequently in lists has already been observed by GAI (1981: 262).

appears as a linking element in complex numerals, cf. Dillmann 1907: 369; for *r* instead of *ś* cf. [114])

- [117]? RIÉ 183 I, 16–17: *?ht ślt* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**ṛahatti ṣalat* ‘one day’ or <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**ṛahatta ṣalata* ‘one day (acc.)’ (the latter vocalization is proposed in Drewes 1962: 48, where this expression is rendered as ‘le premier jour’ in spite of the fact that *?ht* is a cardinal rather than an ordinal number)
- [118]? RIÉ 183 III, 2: *?ht / smṭ* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**ṛahatta səmaṭa* ‘one <sup>2</sup>flank/moiety (acc.)’ (cf. Drewes 1962: 51–52)
- [119]? RIÉ 183 III, 5: *?ht / ḥg* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**ṛahatti ḥəgg* <sup>2</sup>‘one law’ (cf. Drewes 1962: 52)
- [120]? RIÉ 191: 27–28: ... *śṣr / mṭ* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**...ṣa]śru məṭət* ‘ten hundred’ or <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**...ṣa]śrā məṭət* ‘twenty hundred’
- [121]? RIÉ 263: 8: *samana* = *ṣal*[... (cp. CG *samāna / samuna ṣalata / ṣalatāta / ṣalat / ṣalatāt*) <sup>2</sup>‘eight days (acc.)’
- [122]? RIÉ 190: 17: *rlstm / dš* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**śalastu<sup>m</sup> dš* ‘three ?’ (for *r* instead of *ś* cf. [114])

The word order N–Num is attested in 10 cases: 9 reliable (3 examples from duplicate inscriptions) and 1 rather questionable.

N–Num

- [123]RIÉ 187: 7–8: *laṣalata / ṣāsrā* 20 ‘for twenty 20 days’ (note that the numeral is attached as a **dependent** constituent of the genitive construction)
- [124]RIÉ 189: 23: *wadəwawku / magabta / kəlṛeta / 2* ‘and I captured two 2 chiefs’
- [125]RIÉ 185 II: 19–20: *mśl / zwrk / ?hd / 1 / wzbr / ?[h]d / 1 / wzsrk / ślst / 3* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**məsla za-warḥ ṛahada* 1 *wa-za-barur ṛa[ḥa]da* 1 *wa-za-ṣariḥ ṣalasta* ‘one (acc.) statue of gold, and one (acc.) of silver, and three (acc.) of copper’ (duplicated in RIÉ 185 I, 18–19, RIÉ 185 II, 20, RIÉ 185 bis II, C 27–31)
- [126]RIÉ 185 bis II, C 3–4: *ṛwrḥ / ṛrbṣt* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**ṛawrāḥa ṛarbaṣta* ‘four months’ (note that the duplicate inscriptions employ the reverse order, cf. [109])
- [127]RIÉ 192: 13: *mśfth / ṛrbṣt* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**masāfəttihu* (cp. CG *masāfəttihu*) *ṛarbaṣtu* ‘his four governors’
- [128]RIÉ 190: 7: *lśltm / ṣśrm* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**la-ṣalat(/ta) ṣāśru* ‘for ten days’ or <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**la-ṣalat(/ta) ṣāsrā* ‘for twenty days’
- [129]? RIÉ 218: 5: *ślt / 15* <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**ṣalata* 15 <sup>2</sup>‘15 days (acc.)’ (so Drewes 1962: 65, Kropp 2006;<sup>35</sup> cf. *ibid.* for a review of alternative interpretations, such as Conti Rossini 1942: 28, Littmann 1952: 6, which also presume N–Num order; other alternative versions are possible, e.g., ‘the 15<sup>th</sup> day’, which is, however, less attractive because the form of the governing verb does not agree with the noun *ślt*, presumably fem. sg.)

Finally, two cases (one from a duplicate inscription) are registered where the numeral is put both before and after the noun, possibly in order to render the distributive meaning.

Num–N–Num

- [130]RIÉ 185 II: 16–18: *wfttnhm / ll?hd / ngś / ?hd* [/4190 / *lh*]<sup>m</sup> <sup>2</sup>\*\*\**wa-fatatnāhomu lalla-ṛahadu nəguś ṛahadu* [4190 *lah*]<sup>m</sup> ‘and we apportioned to each king [4190 catt]le’.

<sup>35</sup> Cp. also SERGEW HABLE SELASSIE 1972: 89, with a rather liberal vocalization/reconstruction of the text.

Duplicated in RIÉ 185 bis II, C 17. The reduplication of the numeral apparently marks the distributive, although this meaning is already expressed by the preposition *\*lalla-*. The insertion of the numeral is thus superfluous and may be motivated stylistically. Note that in both “pseudo-Sabaic” versions of the same text (RIÉ 185 I and RIÉ 185 bis I) the numeral is missing altogether (cf. Sima 2003/2004: 277). Full reduplication of a numeral as a marker of distributive is well attested throughout Semitic, notably in CG (Dillmann 1907: 373–374). However, Dillmann quotes only bare numerals as reduplicated (*ʔaḥadu ʔaḥadu* ‘each one’) and does not mention the possibility of Num–N–Num order, which on the whole appears highly atypical of Gəʕəz. One wonders whether a Cushitic influence can be seen here, similar to that which, according to Leslau 1945: 78, resulted in Dem–N–Dem order in Tigre and Tigrinya.

As far as non-vocalized inscriptions are concerned, the exact nature of the syntactic relation between the numeral and the noun counted cannot be ascertained. However, a few examples available from vocalized inscriptions show that the relation was attributive, with the counted object as head (as in [103], [104], [106], [124]). At least once (example [123]), the genitive relation is attested<sup>36</sup>, but the head of the genitive construction here is not the numeral (as in CG) but rather the noun counted. This construction, unknown from CG, is difficult to explain (cf. DAE IV, p. 26 as well as Nöldeke 1913: 698). Still, one may venture to compare it to the constructions of the type *māya ʔəsum*, where the semantic relation between the head and the governed constituent of the genitive construction is that of the modified and the modifier (cf. Dillmann 1907: 461–462). The same kind of syntactic transformation can be assumed in the present case: *ʔəsum māy* ‘sweet water’ > *māya ʔəsum*, lit. ‘water of the sweet’ = *ʔəsrā ʔəlat* ‘twenty day(s)’ > *ʔəlata ʔəsrā*, lit. ‘day of twenty’. This transformation implies that the numerals in EG were seen as appositional modifiers governed by the nouns. One wonders whether the reverse order (numerals as heads) is a later development in CG, perhaps under foreign (Arabic?) influence: it seems unlikely that these two types coexisted in early Gəʕəz.

A typological assessment of the EG data on order of numeral and noun testifies once again to conservatism of early Gəʕəz. EG shows clear preference of Num–N word order, although the reverse order is also present. According to Dryer (1992: 118–120), non-African V–O languages usually exhibit the Num–N order, but in the majority of African V–O languages it is rather the N–Num order that is common. That Gəʕəz follows the non-African pattern which is hardly surprising given the fact that the local influence on Gəʕəz was consid-

<sup>36</sup>The reconstructed vocalization of the above mentioned unvocalized inscriptions implies the attributive rather than genitive construction, following the usual syntax of CG. Still, it is not to be excluded that in some of them, a genitive construction similar to that of no. [123] was used.

erably shorter than in the case of most of its neighbors. Indeed, quite a number of prominent local grammatical features only marginally affected Gəʕəz or are altogether missing from it (cf. Bulakh – Kogan 2010: 296–297).

## V. Order of some other constituents relevant for the word order typology

### V.1. The order of the copula and the predicate

The order of the predicate and the copula in copular sentences usually correlates with the order of the object and the verb respectively (Dryer 1992: 93–94). The data of EG, scanty as it is, demonstrates that early Gəʕəz did observe this correlation.

The verbal copula *kona* mostly occurs with numerals as predicates. In all relevant passages the copula precedes the predicate. The only (rather dubious) example where the predicate is an adjective is ? RIÉ 192: 10–11: *dd? / ykwnh[m] / ?gzbhʀ / ?ywh \*\*za-d? yəkawwənahō[mu] ?əgzibəher* (cp. CG *?əgzibəher*) *ʔi-yawāha* ‘to whom God is not mild’ (see example [52]), where the word order is equally Cop–Pred.

The copula *hallawa*, too, precedes its predicate in the only example where it seems to be used as a locative copula with a prepositional phrase as a predicate:

[131] RIÉ 194: 2: *ʔmz : blk : b.ʔksm \*\*ʔənza halloku ba-ʔaksum* ‘while I am in ʔaksum’

Since no examples are attested which show the reverse order, one can reasonably claim that the predicate in EG followed the verbal copula.

### V.2. Order of prepositional phrases

In agreement with the typological expectations (Dryer 1992: 92–93), prepositional phrases in EG tend to occur on the same side of the verb as the object, thus following the verbal forms. In the available EG corpus, 129 secure examples of V–PP order have been detected (25 from duplicate inscriptions); 23 examples displaying the same order are rather questionable. Pre-verbal prepositional phrases are conspicuously less frequent: 23 secure examples (5 from duplicate inscriptions), which can be expanded with 4 dubious cases.

### V.3. Position of adverbs of manner

The order of adverbs of manner is known to correlate cross-linguistically with the order of objects and that of prepositional phrases (Dryer 1992: 93, 122–125). However, as far as one can judge by the epigraphic evidence, no such correlation was present in early Gəʕəz. Interestingly, this fact is in agreement with the Branching Direction Theory. This theory predicts the harmony between the order of prepositional phrase and the verb and that of



object and verb, but does not predict that the position of adverbs of manner should correlate with the order of object and verb (although the existence of such a correlation is empirically known, cf. Dryer 1992: 122–125).

The only adverb of manner which is relatively frequent in EG is *dāḥna* (rather *dāḥəna*) ‘safely’ (seven attestations). In four passages (RIÉ 188: 22–23, 192: 37–38, 192: 39, 192: 43) it is used post-verbally, in three others (RIÉ 189: 33, RIÉ 189: 37, RIÉ 190: 15–16) it precedes the verb. There are two other lexemes which can tentatively be identified as adverbs of manner: *gzm* ‘fiercely’ (see the extensive comment in section II) and *dəmura* ‘jointly’. Each of them occurs only once in the EG corpus, *gzm* is post-verbal (RIÉ 192: 9), whereas *dəmura* is pre-verbal (RIÉ 187: 30). As far as one can see from the usage of *dāḥna*, the position of adverbs of manner with respect to the verbal forms was probably free in EG.

## VI. Conclusions

The results of this survey can be summarized in the following way.

- 1) The word order V–O clearly predominates over O–V.
- 2) There is a preference for the V–S order over S–V, which is less transparent than in the case of V–O. There are reasons to assume that the S–V order is pragmatically marked.
- 3) The normal word order in sentences with verbal copulas was Cop–S.
- 4) The word order N–Adj predominates over Adj–N. The latter type of word order certainly is pragmatically marked, at least in some cases.
- 5) The word order N–Rel is used almost exclusively. There are only two potential Rel–N examples.
- 6) In the analytic genitive constructions, the word order is always N–Gen.
- 7) In the noun phrases with demonstratives, the word order is almost exclusively Dem–N.
- 8) The quantifier *kʷəllu* ‘all, whole’ can precede or (more rarely) follow the head.
- 9) In the constructions with numerals, the preferred word order is Num–N, although N–Num is not infrequent.
- 10) Genitive constructions involving numerals governed by the noun counted can be used as an alternative to the attributive construction.
- 11) In copular sentences, the predicate follows the copula.
- 12) Prepositional phrases usually follow the verb.
- 13) Adverbs of manner can both precede and follow the verb.

In terms of Dryer’s word order typology (1997), Epigraphic Gəʕəz should be classified as VS & VO language,<sup>37</sup> although the order of subject and verb is more flexible than that of object and verb (thus, EG seems to be close to the “partially classifiable languages” of the type SV/VS & VO discussed *ibid.*, section 5.2.). The features 1, 5, 6, 11 and 12 testify that Gəʕəz (unlike the rest of Ethio-Semitic languages) represents the classical Semitic type of a right-branching language. Two features deviate from a consistent right-branching system: position of subject and position of adverb of manner (both are fairly often attested pre-verbally).<sup>38</sup>

The features of word order in Epigraphic Gəʕəz are mostly in agreement with the evidence of Classical Gəʕəz. Deviations from the CG grammar are not many (features 8–10). As far as the quantifier *kʷallu* and the numerals are concerned, the relative frequency of the “inverted” word order (N–*kʷallu* and N–Num) is apparently higher than in CG. Nevertheless, both in EG and in CG the structures *kʷallu*-N and Num–N are more common. One can surmise that these types of word order were predominant already in EG, but this predominance was probably less rigid than in CG.

The genitive construction with the numeral as the governed constituent is unattested in CG and one may wonder whether the reverse genitive construction, with the numeral as the head, is a late innovation in Gəʕəz.

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<sup>37</sup> DRYER (1997, section 2) regards a word order as basic if the ratio between this and the reverse order is no less than two-to-one. According to this criterion, V–S is the basic order in EG. Still, as Dryer himself acknowledges, this division is somewhat arbitrary (especially for a language like EG, with a limited corpus of texts), and in any case, the differences in relative frequency between V–O and V–S order in EG are worth noting.

<sup>38</sup> I am aware of two epigraphic examples which may be suspected to represent features of a left-branching or verb-final system. The first one is the example [10], with backward gapping (which, according to ROSS 1970, correlates with the S–O–V word order). The second case is the direct speech preceding the reporting verb in RIÉ 189: 8–9: *sobe / tamakaḥa / wa-ṯi-yəfaləs / ṯəm-takazi / yəbe / ṯəḥ[zā][ba] / nobā* ‘when the people of Nobā boasted and said: “I will not withdraw from Takazi”’ (this potential instance of “African” word order in early Gəʕəz received due attention by Littmann in DAE IV, p. 36; cf. also NÖLDEKE 1913: 700). To what degree any of these features may indeed correlate with the verb-final word order remains, to the best of my knowledge, a rather moot question. In the absence of a comprehensive typological investigation and in view of the scantiness of the available epigraphic evidence, one should refrain from drawing any serious conclusions.

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## Summary

The paper offers the results of analysis of word order throughout the epigraphic corpus of Gəʿəz. This evidence is mostly in agreement with the data from Classical Gəʿəz and confirms that early Gəʿəz represents the classical Semitic type of a right-branching language: objects and prepositional phrases mostly follow the verbs, and relative clauses and genitive complements usually follow the head nouns. At the same time, some differences between the syntax of Classical Gəʿəz and Epigraphic Gəʿəz have been registered, notably in the behaviour of numerals.