

INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY IN OROMO

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Waakweya Olani entitled: *Inflectional Morphology in Oromo*, and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts (Linguistics) complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Abstract

This study provides relatively detailed descriptions of inflectional morphology in the Oromo language. It identifies occurrence patterns of morphemes and draws rules for inflections in the language. Although it focuses basically on inflectional morphology, it, in some ways, deals with derivational processes and syntactic structures for comparison and relational analysis.

A degree of fusion of morphs and morphological occurrences of inflectional formatives have been thoroughly dealt with. The thesis describes the inflectional forms of, essentially, nouns and verbs. However, words occurring in the subject position (nominals) and verb-related words occurring in the predicate position have also been examined. Since the two word classes (nouns and verbs) are mostly the ones that undergo inflection, they determine the inflectional characteristics of the language.

The thesis consists of five chapters which are concerned, respectively, with: introduction in which preliminaries and methodology are treated, literature review which deals with some related concepts and previous works on Oromo, nominal inflection (including nouns, pronouns and adjectives), verb inflection (including verbs and adverbs) and conclusion. Number, singulative, gender and case are considered in the nominal inflection. Verb inflection is described in terms of inherent and agreement properties of grammatical function. In the descriptive chapters, distribution of morphemes and their allomorphs, along with their hosts, have been examined. This thesis provides a relatively more comprehensive and detailed description of inflectional morphology in Oromo, and hence the research outcomes are more focused to forms and functions of inflections.

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List of Abbreviations and Symbols

→ - brings, changes to	Impf imperfective
* ungrammatical	Ind Indefinite
1 first person	Inf infinitive
2 second person	Inst instrumental
3 third person	Juss jussive
Abl ablative	Loc locative
ABS absolutive	m masculine
Asso Associative	MD middle voice
Aux auxiliary	Mod modality
ABen Auto benefactive	Neg negative
Ben beneficiary/benefactive	Nom nominative
CAUS causative	∅ zero morpheme
Conv converb	Pas passive
Cop copula	Perf perfective
Ep epenthesis	pl plural
Emph Emphasis	PRG progressive
f feminine	Ref Reflexive
Foc focus	sg singular
Gen genitive	Sing singulative
Imp imperative	VN Verbal noun

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background

Oromo is one of the languages of the Cushitic family in the Afro-Asiatic super family (phylum). It is called Afaan Oromoo by the speakers of the language. The present study uses ‘Oromo’ referring to both the language and the people as this is commonly used in the literature. Several varieties of Oromo are spoken in Ethiopia, Kenya and some parts of Somalia. In Ethiopia, Oromo is the largest ethnic group, and the language is spoken over a vast area of the country. According to the 2007 census of Ethiopian population, about 37 percent of the country’s population is speaker of Oromo. It is currently a medium of instruction at first and second cycles of elementary school level in Oromia regional state. At this level, all subjects are taught in Oromo. At the secondary and preparatory levels, Oromo is offered as a subject. It is also given as a field of study at the university level. Furthermore, Oromo is a language of mass media and administration in the Oromia regional state and in the mass media at the federal level of the country, Ethiopia besides Amharic which is the major federal language.

Various studies have been conducted on the Oromo language since the nineteenth century. The research outcomes include grammars and descriptions of the various aspects of the language. The earliest works on Oromo deal with the grammar and lexicography of the language. Tutcheck (1844) and Viterbo (1887) are perhaps the earliest works on the Oromo grammar and lexicon. Onesimos Nasib translated the bible into Oromo using the Ethiopic syllabary at the end of the eighteenth century (1899) along with other short literary materials some of which were done with Aster Gano (cf. Mekuria 1995). Word formation was part of the works of grammar in both categories of inflection and derivation. Inflection signals grammatical relationships of lexical items in syntactic constructions but derivation results in new words.

1.2 The People and the Language

As is indicated in section 1.1 above, the population of Oromo is the largest ethnic group in Ethiopia. The people make up significant population size in the horn of Africa. They reside in the largest federal state of central Ethiopia. The Oromo language is widely spoken in Ethiopia in its several dialects including Wallaga, Booranaa, Arsi, Harar, Tulama and Wollo varieties. Some other dialects are spoken in the neighboring countries of Kenya, Somalia and Sudan.

The Oromo language consists of 27 phonemic consonants including the phonemes *p*, *v* and *z* that are used in loan words only; 24 of the consonants are native to the language (Gragg 1974: 174; Lloret 1997: 495; Griefenow-Mewis 2003: 13).

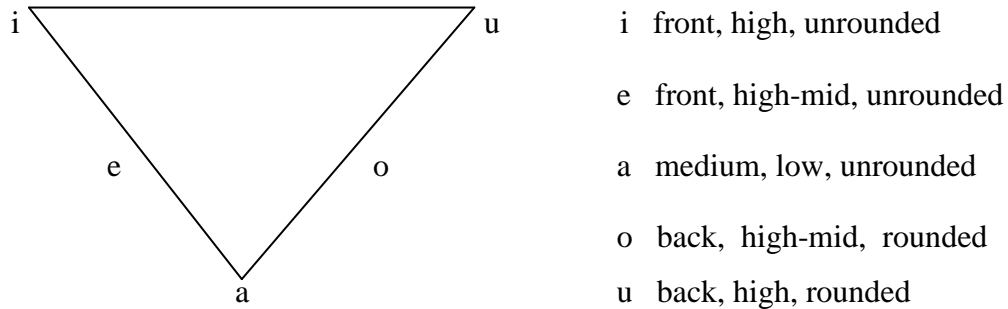
Table 1. Oromo Consonant Phonemes

		Bilabial	Labio-ental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	Voiceless	(p)		t	č	k	ʔ
	Voiced	b		d	ǰ	g	
	Ejective Vls	pʼ		tʼ	čʼ	kʼ	
	Implosive Vd			ɗ			
Nasals	Voiced	m		n	ɲ		
Trill	Voiced			r			
Lateral	Voiced			l			
Fricatives	Voiceless		f	s	š		h
	Voiced		(v)	(z)			
Glides	Voiced	w			j		

The phonemes in this phonemic chart of Oromo are from Gragg's (1976: 174) inventory. The phonemes [š], [č], [pʼ], [d], and [ɲ] are written in the orthography of the language using two letters (diagraphs) as *sh*, *ch*, *ph*, *dh*, and *ny* respectively. Phonemes [pʼ], [tʼ], [čʼ], [kʼ] are ejectives with egressive velaric initiation; they all are voiceless because the vocal tract has no any movement in articulation. The alveolar implosive phoneme *ɗ* is the only sound articulated by glottalic ingressive suction initiation with vocalic articulation.

Oromo has five short vowels with corresponding five phonemic long vowels. Length is represented by doubling the short vowels.

Figure 1. Oromo Vowel Phonemes



Gemination and length which are formed by doubling the respective consonants and vowels make semantically contrastive word pairs. Consonant cluster is occurrence of two or more different consonants together. Consonant cluster is impermissible word initially and finally in Oromo (Gragg 1976: 176). The epenthetic vowel [i] settles such an occurrence.

There are four types of syllable structures in Oromo. These are CV, CVC, CVV and CVVC. Onset position is always occupied because neither word nor syllable begins by a vowel (Wako 1981; Griefenow-Mewis 2003).

Such morphophonemic processes as assimilation, dissimilation, deletion and metathesis are prevalent in Oromo. Assimilation is feature sharing between phonemes to be more similar. It can be either partial or total; its direction can be progressive or regressive, and its proximity is mostly contiguous. For example, *did-t-e* → *did-d-e* ‘she refused’ is total assimilation by progressively shared voice feature (Lloret 1997: 507).

Undergoing the morphophonemic process of dissimilation, neighboring segments may become more different to avoid inconvenience of pronunciation. For example, *guddoo* ‘big’ (f. sg) → *gud-guddoo* ‘big’ (f. pl) → *gur-guddoo* ‘big’ (f. pl). This indicates that the phonemes *d* and *g* are difficult to be pronounced together so that dissimilation occurs. Deletion is another morphophonemic process utilized to avoid inconvenience of pronunciation; for instance, *sagal* ‘nine’ → *saglaffaa* ‘ninth’, the final vowel on the base is deleted.

Epenthesis is insertion of a vowel or consonant to avoid impermissible occurrence of consonant cluster. This is based on phonotactic constraints of the language. For example, *mars-n-e* → *mars-i-n-e* ‘we revolved/encircled’. The vowel *i* is an epenthetic element to avoid the cluster with its long form *wird* initially and finally (Lloret 1997: 510). For easier pronunciation phonemes are transposed; for instance, *afraffaa* → *arfaffaa* ‘fourth’.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Depending on the typology of the language, the morphology of words may be isolating, concatenative (agglutinative), or fusional (cf. section 2.1). Some scholars categorize word forms of languages as analytic, synthetic and polysynthetic. While analytic languages are simple isolating, synthetic and polysynthetic are inflecting, of course, the latter type being languages with long word-forms. Most languages of Semitic typology are nonlinear or of fusional type. For example, in Amharic /s-b-r/ is a root for 'break' which can result in different derived words by inserting various vowel patterns, that is, without sequential morphs. The arrangement structure of a word's constituent units across languages is governed by morphological rules in the respective languages.

Morphology studies the word structure of a language derivationally and inflectionally. The latter is meant for the construction of sentences. They are realized in a sentence though their structure is analyzed within a word. As Aronoff and Fudeman (2011:168) state "derivation gives you new lexemes, and inflection gives you the forms of a lexeme that are determined by syntactic environment". Consequently, the derived word can change its placement in a sentence but the inflected form is made to occur in a specific position in a given syntactic context.

Many grammar books which involve the treatment of derivation and inflection have been produced on the Oromo language. A separate and close examination of the latter seems to be lacking. Declension is the modification of nominals (nouns, adjectives and pronouns) for grammatical functions while conjugation is the change of the verb form to fit a syntactic context. (Janda and Townsend 2002).

The motivation for this study was the absence of a comprehensive study on the inflectional morphology in the Oromo language. Thus, the study attempted to answer the following research questions in relation to Oromo.

- i. What is the structural distinction between root, stem, and inflected forms?
- ii. What are the occurrence patterns of inflectional morphemes?
- iii. What relational and/or differing forms are observed in inflectional occurrences distinct from derivational patterns?
- iv. What are the characteristics of inflectional morphemes?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

The general objective of this research is to describe and explain inflectional morphology in Oromo. The description focuses on the formal and functional characteristics of the inflectional morphemes in the language.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

This study aims to achieve the following specific objectives.

- (a) To identify and classify inflectional morphemes.
- (b) To classify inflectional phonemes and characterize the relationship between root, stem and inflected forms.
- (c) To show the occurrence pattern of inflectional morphemes.
- (d) To compare the pattern of inflectional morphemes with that of derivational morphemes.
- (e) To identify the rule(s) of inflectional processes.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Morphology takes a significant share in standardizing the grammar of a language (Dominguez 1991:47). Thus, a relatively detailed study of the Oromo inflectional morphology would contribute to the standardization of the Oromo language. In addition, the research outcome could be useful for preparing materials of pedagogical purposes at various levels, and for the refinement of the grammar and lexicography of the language. It would also help those who are keen to conduct further research either on the present topic or other related issues.

1.6 Scope of the study

This work is delimited to inflectional morphology only; it does not deal with details of derivational morphology in Oromo. It involves, however, some aspects of syntactic properties while investigating morphology in syntax. As Booij points out, “Inflection is the grammatical subsystem that deals with the proper form of words in specific syntactic contexts.” (2009:2). Among the various dialects of Oromo, this research is based on the Mecha (Wallaga) variety. Although the data are drawn from one dialect, the outcome of the study will generally portray features of inflectional morphology observed in the Oromo language.

1.7 Limitation

The present study was undergoing several problems related with time and finance allocation. Scarcity of time and budget, which were the major hurdles of this investigation, made it less comprehensive and limited to analysis of some specific data. Had the research been done using sufficient time and budget, it could have been profound with more detailed work. In addition to these, the inconveniences regarding internet usages and availability of books in the library can be raised. The poor internet connection was hindering or delaying access to some necessary reference materials so that time wastage was happening.

1.8 Theoretical Framework and Research Methodology

The general route designed for this research is the descriptive approach. As for methodology, I will depend both on my introspection and informants for data. I will analyze words morpheme by morpheme and provide description of the units, their patterns and correlations. The two sections below, 1.8.1 and 1.8.2, outline the theoretical frameworks in relation with the present topic and the methodology employed respectively.

1.8.1 Theoretical Framework

Theories treat morphology in different ways. In this section, few of the competing theories are summarized in their approaches to morphology and particularly to inflection. Then I attempted to identify the theoretical guideline I adopt for my research.

In generative morphology, semantic and syntactic features are associated with phonological form. It is about how the abstract mental item is realized in the phonological form. Different forms of one lexeme are considered as the mental competence which includes the potential forms of words. When it comes to performance, the word is tested for its grammaticality. The competence is attributed to the behavior that human beings have as an innate linguistic knowledge. The way children say words (goed, mans, etc) and the way the parents correct them are indicated for justification of the mental innate behavior of a language because the children are trying to generalize with what they already know (regular past forms and plural forms) (Spencer 1994; Zheng 2007; Stump 2001).

Inflectional morphology is a syntactic locus for the functional theory of morphology. The functionalist morphology is about the relationship between form and function. The theory

describes function of a word in the context of a sentence. For example, affixation on a verb happens when the verb moves from one functional head to another. According to this theory inflection is rather syntactic not morphological because a word's modification is motivated by the syntax (Pollock 1989).

Prosodic theory of nonconcatenative morphology follows root-and-pattern morphology called CV skeleton. The morphological changes such as infixation and reduplication form words inflectionally or derivationally. The theory uses segmental tiers to associate morphemes and roots. The consonantal strings as a root node get inflected by insertion of other segments (vowels) shown by the tiers. The theory introduces templates in terms of mora (μ), syllable (δ), foot (F) and prosodic word (PrWd). As a principle of prosody, these templates need to be fulfilled. The schematic morphology of root and morpheme association accounts for inflection. The theory uses levels of prosody (prosodic categories) to be associated by segmental tiers. These are prosodic word (Wd), foot (F), and syllable (δ). Counting the melodic pattern of the word helps to identify between syllables and/or affixes (McCarthy 1981). Languages of the Semitic family refer to this approach.

Word-syntax theory is concerned with describing words in the general grammatical principles rather than word formation rules. Headedness principle is suggested by this theory and shown by tree of percolation. Percolation is the projection of headedness property from the affix to the lexical item or to the stem. According to this theory, affixes carry the property of headedness as they change word class and meaning of words. The problem is with inflectional morphology which changes neither word class nor meaning. For example, /-s/ in /cat-s/ is just marking plurality but do not change the word class of /cat/. The morpheme /-s/ characterizes as plural form in its grammatical aspect that it can be a head. Therefore, the theory can also apply to inflectional forms (Lieber 1980).

Description of language is the concern of Basic Linguistic Theory which gives a guide to analysis and interpretation of human languages. It states that describing a language data is the way to theory in which general competence and insights of linguists determine the quality of outcomes of the description. Cumulative knowledge of linguists is essential for deriving a valid theory through detailed explanation of language structures. Theories are inductively derived from description of languages on the basis of evidence and justification. According to Basic Linguistic Theory, languages are better described in their own terms. Since no two languages are quite the

same in their features, languages should importantly be described in their own way of occurrences, especially, in the cases of absence of theoretical terms for the analysis of units of a language (Dixon 2010; Dryer 1997). The present study is concerned with description of inflection for which I employed Basic Linguistic Theory.

1.8.2 Research Methodology

1.8.2.1 Data Collection

Three research instruments were employed for data collection. The primary one was introspection because I am a native speaker of Oromo particularly the western (Wallaga) variety. Corpus data and discussion with some natives were also intended to be sources of the necessary data. Involving few natives as informants is for confirmation purpose; discussing with them was helping my data to be genuine enough. Two of my informants Endashaw Jiru and Birhanu Diriba reside in Addis Ababa whereas the other one, whose name is Nasibu Gudina, lives in Nekempt whom I was visiting in time gaps. The data collected were paradigms of word-forms and sentences with relevant patterns. Sentences are utilized for relational consideration as inflection is a morpho-syntactic feature. Corpus data and discussion with other natives took place next to provision of the necessary data through introspection. The corpora was collected by reading texts and grammar books, and also by recording short narratives written in Oromo.

1.8.2.2 Data Analysis

The data were used in phonemically transcribed version which is similar with the Oromo language's orthography except some phonemes that are specific to the language. The orthography uses almost the same characters with the IPA alphabet. Words were analyzed into morphs and then glossed. The English equivalents were provided for the data used in the analysis. Morpheme(s) were examined for their forms and functions and described in their pattern of occurrence. After careful examination of the data, exemplary interpretation was provided in chapters three and four. Finally, based on the analysis and interpretation conclusions were drawn.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

In this section, the works which touch on inflectional morphology in Oromo were surveyed so as to shape and direct the aim of the present study. In sections 2.1 and 2.2, definition of related terms and concepts of inflectional morphology were provided respectively based on how scholars view it. These helped to determine how they would be employed in the present study. In 2.3, the concept of word was explained and, in 2.4 morphemes was made clear as inflectional analysis utilizes these. Then, inflectional categories were dealt with in 2.5. Next, the particular works on the related issue of the Oromo language were surveyed in 2.6.

2.1 Definition of Related Terms

The basic terms that deserve consideration in inflection include root, stem, base, affix and word form. These terms are identified in this section.

Root is the unit containing the basic lexical meaning (notion) in its form which is not further decomposed into smaller units. Kebede (2009: 32) defines root as a minimal form which takes affixes. Stroomer (1987: 37) puts the definition of 'root' as an irreducible form conveying lexical meaning of a word. Therefore, it can be considered as the smallest unit of a word that carries the lexical notion.

A 'stem' refers to a form containing root (and affix) to which other affix is added. It is usually a word form with constituents of a root and, especially, derivational affixes because derivational affixes precede the inflectional ones (cf. section 2.2 below). 'Base' is a form that is an underlying word in a language. It has no affixes but is meaningful and grammatical in its own. Griefenow-Mewis (2001: 41) defines base in Oromo as a form with no case ending or affix which is usually found in dictionary. Word form is a form that contains the root and derivational and/or inflectional affixes. An 'affix' refers to any morphological element appended to root exclusive of the root (cf. Kebede 2009: 32).

2.2 Concepts of Inflectional Morphology

Inflection, with its root '*flect*' or '*flex*', is the modification of a word for grammatical purpose without changing the basic lexical meaning. According to Aronoff and Fudeman (2011:159) "Every sentence is a syntactic frame with positions for a series of words". So, inflection is the change of a word's shape for grammatical purpose. Scholars define inflectional morphology in different ways. Some view the structure of inflected forms in terms of morpho-syntactic properties¹ whereas others consider it as an autonomous entity that can be analyzed by itself without considering the syntactic property. Lexical theory of morphology claims that associations between an inflected word's morpho-syntactic properties and its morphology are listed in the lexicon itself. This shows that an inflectional morpheme has its own lexical entry that specifies the grammatical properties with which it combines (Stump 2001:1). On the other hand, Katamba (1993:45) states that inflectional affixes like markers of singular and plural number in nouns, and tense in verbs, are required by the syntax. The syntactic environment determines the form of the noun or the verb. This view shows that in any inflectional word, the inflectional affix is syntactic as it is required by the syntax, but the root and its derivational affix is morphological because it is likely to create a new dictionary item.

As stated above, inflection is change of the form of a word for grammatical usage. By contrast, derivation is the alternate word form which changes its meaning and word class. Both of them are concerned with changing the forms of words and they can be expressed by affixal or non-segmentable means. There are many points that make inflectional morphology distinct from derivational morphology. The general difference is that inflectional morphology deals with modification of a word to indicate grammatical functions whereas derivational morphology is about changing the form of a word to derive another word from an existing word or to change the word's grammatical class. Scholars state varieties of points that distinguish inflectional morphology from derivational morphology. Some of these are: 1) inflection does not change the basic lexical meaning and grammatical category of the word but derivation changes lexical meaning and word class. For example, in English *killed* and *killer*; both are words formed from the root *kill*. The first is an inflected word while the second is derived; 2) inflection is the realization of morpho-syntactic features like case, number, etc. but derivation is concerned with

¹ Morpho-syntactic property is the grammatical function that is denoted by the form of a word and the context of the sentence. In this case both word and sentence determine the form that a word can have.

the internal change of a word (meaning and word class); 3) inflection is more productive than derivation, that is, inflectional affixes are relatively freer to occur on words whereas derivational affixes are selective; 4) inflectional affix is preceded by derivational one(s) when attached to a lexical root; 5) inflected forms are less likely to be stored in the lexicon than derived lexemes (Aronoff and Fudeman 2011; Katamba 1993; Bickel and Nickols 2007).

Based on the way morphological strings are applied on stems, languages are classified into three major types: (1) Isolating, (2) agglutinating and (3) fusional. Isolating languages tend to have no morphology at all. An independent morpheme carries grammatical information. Agglutinating languages consist of a stem with one, or in some cases, more sequential affixes that can easily be separated. In such languages, morphemes and morphs are in one-to-one identifiable correspondence. Fusional languages often use a single form representing various morphemes that is a form can indicate several functions. Contrary to what is observed in isolating and agglutinating languages, the fusional ones do not display one-to-one correspondence between morphs and morphemes. Some scholars make classification of morphological typology as analytic, synthetic and polysynthetic (incorporating). In analytic languages, grammatical categories are represented by independent morphs. In synthetic languages, morphs of grammatical information are attached to roots or stems concatenatively. Polysynthetic languages are similar to the synthetic ones except that in the former concatenated morphs in a word are many and the word is long. In view of the above explanation and previous works, I considered that Oromo is typologically a synthetic (fusional) language.

2.3 Word

Inflection, though motivated by syntactic context, operates on words. For this reason, it is necessary to discuss briefly the concept of word. A word has internal structure related to the arrangement of its constituent morphemes. There are three different morphological models of word analysis in structural theory of morphology: The first one is Item and Arrangement model which was developed to analyze a word into its constituent parts. It describes a word in terms of root and morpheme(s) though the approach was criticized for its incompatibility to the use of ablaut² and other suppletive forms³. The second one which is known as Item and Process

² Ablaut is a use of a word with internal alteration so as to complete a paradigm.

approach is concerned with phonological modification of a derived lexical item. The third is Word and Paradigm approach which was developed to deal with inflectional morphology. It takes the word form as a basic unit of analysis and takes into account the variables as a paradigm. According to Halle's (1973:8) model of word formation, each morpheme is stored in the lexicon as a monomorphemic entity. Thus, morphemes come-up with a potential word under word formation rules. These words should then pass through filter to be a dictionary word. However, Aronoff (1976:51) argues that the items stored in the lexicon are words. Words are, therefore, formed by morphological operations on words, that is, a word is made up of word stem and other morpheme(s). Aronoff further claims that sometimes there are meaningless morphemes so that we cannot consider them as a morpheme and a unit of meaning, and morphological operation had better be applied to words rather than morphemes. Applying morphological processes to words rather than morphemes is to mean that stems account for morphological structure while morphemes are mostly coming for modification of the stem (Stump 2001; Anderson 1995; Dixon and Aikhenvald 2003).

Word is not just the lexeme, the abstract vocabulary item with a particular meaning. It has different physical realizations of the lexeme called word form which is used in speech and in writing. According to Katamba (1993:17f.) an abstract vocabulary item is called lexeme whereas a grammatical word is a lexeme that is associated with morpho-syntactic properties. A grammatical word is different from a phonological word in that the latter may consist of more than one grammatical word in which one may associate with the other for pronunciation since it lacks stress and independent realization. Such is the case of clitics in which an independent word needs a host word in an utterance. For instance, the English definite particle *the* which is sometimes referred to as a clitic, is pronounced with a host word thus forming a phonological word. Owens (1985:60) states two sorts of preverbal clitics (*ni, oli/gadi*) as markers of focus in Oromo inflection. This thesis was based on the grammatical word because it is the morpho-syntactic form where inflection is expressed by affixes carrying grammatical function in a sentence.

³ Suppletive is the grammatical use of a form with a different root to make a paradigm complete.

2.4 Morpheme

The term morph is the smallest phonological and meaningful unit into which a word can be divided. It represents variation of phonological realizations of a single morpheme, that is, it forms an allomorph which is one of the forms with which a morpheme can be realized. An allomorph is said to be in complementary distribution where it cannot occur in the environment another allomorph of the same morpheme may occur. Morpheme is an abstract invariant lexical or grammatical unit which can phonologically be realized by one or more forms. Combining a root (a morpheme) and another morpheme(s) constitutes a word which serves as a syntactic unit. A morpheme indicates a grammatical property to make its host used in a particular paradigmatic environment in a sentence. As stated in Katamba (1993:39), “morphs are listed as allomorphs of the same morpheme if they are in complimentary distribution”. Varieties of morpheme structures exist across languages: Zero morpheme is an indication of a grammatical function by a phonologically null affix, or empty segmental realization. A good example is the English pronoun /you/ which has no morpheme to identify between variations of number (plural/singular). On the other hand, empty morpheme is a segmental piece that takes an affixal position for no function; it does not correspond to any meaning. For example, in English word /sens-u-al/, the morpheme /-u-/ does not have any function (Anderson , in press).

Two morphemes of different functions may formally surface as a single morph. Such a morph, which is called a portmanteau, is used in specific languages (e.g. in French, à ‘to’ + le ‘the m.’ > au). The morphs are coextensive and they completely coincide in a single seemingly undecomposable form. On the other hand, cumulative morph shows cumulation of different functions in a single marker (morph). It is a joint realization of inflectional categories. For example, in English the morph /-s/ in the verb /take-s/ indicates person, number and tense on action verbs in a sentence. It denotes three different grammatical functions, it is thus called cumulative morpheme. Another morphemic term, syncretism shows words in a paradigm (of the same lexeme) with different morpho-syntactic features but identical in form. The formal difference is syncretized or neutralized (Stump 2001; Aronoff and Fudeman 2011; Anderson , in press).

Clitic, a physically dependent morpheme, is a unit that cannot stand alone but which represents a function independently. It needs a word as its host for its phonological realization. Hudson

(2001:252), “clitic is a word whose whole is an affix”. Though in few languages clitic can be considered functioning as a word, it cannot be pronounced alone, unless attached to a host. Clitic is distinct from affix as follows: An affix functions at word level and the phonological realization is on a word with a syntactic function whereas clitic needs a word only for its phonological realization but the function is syntactic. In addition, clitic may attach to different syntactic categories but affix attaches to a particular (single) syntactic category. As Hudson (2001:1) puts, “Clitics are a challenge for any view of architecture of grammar because they straddle the boundaries between words and morphemes, and between syntax and morphology”. Therefore, clitic may be an intermediate unit between a word and morpheme which is phonologically bound but syntactically free. Proclitic attaches word-initially whereas enclitic attaches word-finally likewise prefix and suffix of affix. These are the two commonest clitic types based on their placement. In some cases endoclititic (attaches word internally) and Mesoclititic (attaches between stem and other affixes) may exist.

Some literature indicates that clitic is neither word nor affix. As defined above, clitic is a morpheme that is considered as a free standing word in its syntactic characteristics, but it depends phonologically on a host, like an affix; a word is, but, an autonomous unit in both syntactic and phonological aspects. According to Kari 2002, clitics are not uttered by their own and they do not constitute a morphologically complex unit whereas words do (p 180). Clitics and words may, however, share features in that they both are not categorically restricted in attachment with words, and that they both head phrases satisfying the criteria of subcategorizing predicates into smaller units. Let me sum up by taking a point from Dixon and Aikhenvald (2003:43), it indicates that clitics occupy an intermediate position between a phonological word and an affix. So, with little similarities between clitic and word, it can be noted that clitic is a unit smaller than word though larger than affix.

2.5 Inflectional Categories

Grammatical functions that trigger inflection of any kind on a word class are inflectional categories. Based on a particular word class and for what inflectional category it basically or inherently inflects, we can classify inflections into declensions and conjugations. Declension is concerned with inflections of nominals whereas conjugation refers to inflectional verb forms.

Jensen (1994) points out that if properties mark the word class they purely refer to, they form declension (of nouns, pronouns and adjectives) and conjugation (of verbs).

Inflectional categories are classified into inherent and agreement properties of a word class based on what they basically refer to as an inflectional membership and what they trigger for inflection. Inherent inflectional category means the grammatical function that basically triggers inflection of a particular word class. A grammatical property for which a word gets inflected may be out of the basic domains in which the inflection occurs for contextual agreement. Such cause of inflection is called agreement property. For example, person, number and gender are inherently properties of nouns but they trigger inflection on verbs for agreement. In the latter case, the inflection is contextual not inherent. Booij (1995:2) states that inherent inflection is noticed when there is no context for its relevance but contextual inflection is needed by syntax for agreement.

Generally, grammatical properties may basically refer to a particular word class as follows: 1) number, gender, case and definiteness mark nouns and pronouns, 2) comparison marks adjectives, 3) tense, aspect, mood, voice mark verbs. When these inflectional categories mark their basically relevant word class, the inflection is inherent. On the other hand, when the inherent inflectional category of a particular word class triggers the marking of another, the inflection is contextual or assigned because it is required by the syntactic context.

2.6 Previous Studies on Inflection in Oromo

I already indicated in section 1.1 that studies have been conducted on Oromo since the nineteenth century. Although the inflectional morphology of Oromo has not been comprehensively dealt with so far, the topic has been treated in descriptive works in various degrees.

Viterbo (1892) presents declension and conjugation in Oromo. It considers that nouns inflect for definiteness, gender, number and case. It also deals with the conjugation patterns in four types of moods. These are indicative, subjunctive, imperative and conditional moods. According to this work, Oromo can be treated in terms of tenses of the verbs in terms of aspect (perfective, imperfective) with present and future forms.

Praetorius (1893) deals with the grammar of Oromo. In its morphology part, the work describes the language in its noun and pronoun inflection under number, gender, case. Verb inflection is

also presented in relation to perfective and imperfective aspects, mood and infinitive forms. In addition, it deals with some inflectional forms of affixes in the Oromo language.

Hodson and Walker (1922) contains brief description of the grammar of the language. It deals with verb forms in four different conjugation types. These are classified as non-derived verbs, verbs derived from other word classes, intransitive verbs, and the -EIS- class verbs⁴. It considers different conjugational forms in terms of tense, aspect, mood and voice. Declensions of nouns, pronouns and adjectives are also provided precisely with indication of their relevant inflectional categories. For example, adjective is said to be declined for number and comparison.

Moreno (1939) is based on Boorana dialect for the concern for the grammar of Oromo. In its description of morphology, it presents nouns, adjectives and pronouns with their grammatical properties of inflection. The book shows verb conjugations in perfective, imperfective, subjunctive, imperative, infinitive and gerund forms.

Da Thiene (1939) explains declensions of Oromo noun for gender, number and case. It presents ten different patterns of conjugation for verbs with brief description and example paradigms under each conjugation type.

Nordfeldt (1947) presents five declension types of Oromo singular nouns marked for gender, case and number. It shows that adjectives are declined for gender, number and comparison. Regarding verb forms, different conjugation patterns are discussed under indicative, subjunctive, imperative, jussive, infinitive and conditional forms. It describes conjugation of verbs in eight subdivisions based on changes that happen to roots of verbs and their inflectional characteristics.

Launhardt (1973) claims that the [accusative] case is the basic form of Oromo noun that means the underlying form. It identifies five possible forms of the nominative case in terms of the morphemes added. These are 1) suffixing /-n/ to the noun, 2) suffixing /-i/ to the noun or making no change, 3) suffixing /-ni/ instead of /-a/, 4) suffixing /-i/ instead of /-a/, and 5) suffixing /-ti/ instead of /-a/. Types 3, 4 and 5 apply to the basic forms of nouns ending in /-a/. Inflection of verbs in Oromo is presented being conjugated in perfect and imperfect forms. The work identifies ten conjugations of verbs providing explanation.

⁴ According to Hodson and Walker (1922) verbs are called –EIS- class because they can be used distinctively as – eis in certain persons. Example: *ati geisa* “you reach” *išin geisi* “she reaches”

The description of phonology, morphophonemics (like phonological processes), morphology and syntax of Wolega Oromo was done by Gragg (1976). It considers inflectional morphology of nouns and adjectives for gender, number, definiteness and case with comparison forms of adjectives. Pronouns are also presented in their case distinction. It briefly describes verb inflection in terms of suppletive, passive, causative, frequentative forms along with affirmative, imperative and jussive moods. It states that the root form in Oromo is -C final.

In the work of examining the extent to which adjectives and nouns share inflectional patterns, Baye (1981), in the description of Substantives in Oromo, is concerned with inflection of nouns and adjectives besides derivational and syntactic forms. In the inflection section, it classifies between the uninflected and inflected adjectives and nouns with their common inflectional properties indicated under the inflected ones.

In his BA essay, Aberra Nefa (1982) presents seven inflectional suffix types of Oromo verbs. These are subject, number, gender, tense, mood, voice and aspect suffixes. Under each inflectional suffix, the essay provides detailed examples and interpretations. It deals with verb inflection only; it doesn't touch on other inflectional word classes in Oromo.

Haimanot (1984) describes the pronominalization process in Oromo. It indicates several types of pronoun inflections based on their surface forms and functions considering how they replace nouns, but it does not describe changes of their phonological forms as their function varies. Inflectional characteristics of pronouns are considered in the essay, especially, in terms of their positive and negative forms as well as their case distinctions.

Mohammed and Zaborski (1990) describes inflectional morphology of Oromo nominals, verbs and adverbs providing data in orthography of the language. It considers examples for inflection as follows: marking nouns for gender, number, definiteness and case; pronouns for possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, reciprocal, and reflexive forms; adjectives for gender, number and comparison. In addition, the handbook presents inflection of Oromo verbs in terms of aspect, voice, tense, along with 'to be' verbs, and middle forms.

Based on Boorana dialect of Oromo in Kenya, Stroomer (1995) describes phonology, morphophonemics and grammatical relations in the language. In the morphology section, it considers that nouns are marked for gender, number and definiteness; adjectives for gender and

number. It also deals with Oromo pronouns in their subject, possessive, reflexive and reciprocal forms. The book touches on inflection of verbs as suffixed markers of person, gender, number, tense and mood. Grammatical relations between words are represented by using suffixes and clitics. The book can be an important reference for the present study though some forms do not fit for the Wallaga dialectal variety.

Griefenow-Mewis (2001) in the book *A Grammatical Sketch of Written Oromo*, describes inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns with examples and interpretations. It provides conjugation of verbs under imperative, jussive, indicative, infinitive moods along with tense. However, the description of morphological analysis is sketchy as the topic indicates.

The previous works on Oromo are concerned with the grammar and lexical aspects of the language. Inflectional morphology is considered part of various described features and the research outcomes are less/not focused, for instance, on occurrence patterns of inflectional morphemes. The present study will attempt to describe inflectional patterns in a relatively more detailed way. It also will investigate operational characteristics of morphemes, roots and stems in Oromo. This work would be different in its full concern of inflection, and consideration of some more forms left undescribed in the previous studies.

CHAPTER THREE

Inflection of Nominals

Word classes of nouns, pronouns and adjectives can be described under nominals. Nominals (cf. Section 1.3) are inflected for various grammatical properties in Wallaga Oromo. The change of form of nominals for grammatical purposes is referred to declension. This chapter provides similarities and distinctions among declensions of the nouns, pronouns and adjectives along with the way they behave in inflection. In doing so, the forms of root, stem and word will be identified as well.

All nouns in Wallaga Oromo end in vowel with few exceptions ending in particular consonants whereas all roots end in consonant. Inflectional suffixes are appended to roots or stems. Derivational suffixes change the root into a stem on which inflectional morphemes can be suffixed. Inflectional suffixes can also be applied on the base words (the object form in Oromo). This happens whenever nouns occur with inflectional suffixes in object paradigm because the base word is the object form in the Oromo language. Noun declension, like verb inflection, is a major operation. The grammatical properties and occurrence patterns on noun declension would be described in the sections below.

3.1 Noun Inflection

Almost all nouns in Oromo end with a vowel except for a few of them which end in specific consonants like *n*, *l*, *t*. Inflectional categories that are inherent to nouns exist in four major types. These are marking number, singulative, gender, and case. Number and gender are inherent categories while case is relational because it is signaled in a sentence by the paradigmatic form in which it is used (Gragg 1976: 182; Griefenow-Mewis 2001: 41). The singulative form is significant in Wallaga Oromo.

3.1.1 Number

Wallaga Oromo distinguishes between plural and singular nouns. Plural nouns are marked in different ways. Several types of suffixes can be attached to nouns to make plural forms. In collective nouns, some exist in plural form only (e.g. *hamaamota* ‘bride servants’) whereas some

others have the same singular and plural forms like *ilkaan* ‘tooth/teeth’. In some cases, the plural marker varies based on semantic nature of the noun.

Table 2. The Plural Morph *-(o)ota* on Nouns

Base form	Inflected form	Gloss
<i>waggaa</i>	<i>wagg-oota</i>	‘years’
<i>gowwaa</i>	<i>goww-oota</i>	‘fools’
<i>ganda</i>	<i>gand-oota</i>	‘kebeles’
<i>hayyuu</i>	<i>hayy-oota</i>	‘scholars’
<i>kitaaba</i>	<i>kitaab-ota</i>	‘books’
<i>k’aama</i>	<i>k’aam-ota</i>	‘bodies’
<i>diina</i>	<i>diin-ota</i>	‘enemies’
<i>leenc’a</i>	<i>leenc’-ota</i>	‘lions’

As seen in Table 2, the occurrence variation between *-ota-* and *-oota-* is based the penultimate syllable of a base noun. When the penultimate syllable contains short vowel, *-oota-* is suffixed but when it contains long vowel *-ota-* is suffixed for plurality of the nouns. These allomorphs occur in complementary distribution based on the phonological nature of the noun hosts that is the vowel length of penultimate syllables in the nouns. It occurs with \pm animate nouns.

Table 3. Plural Forms of Kinship Terms

Base forms	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>eessuma</i>	<i>eessum(m)-an</i>	‘uncles’ (through mother)’
<i>wasiila</i>	<i>wasiil(l)-an</i>	‘uncles’ (through father)’
<i>ilma</i>	<i>ilma-an</i>	‘sons’

Nouns of kinship terms are marked for plurality by the morpheme *-an*, which follows either geminate consonant or short /a/. The morpheme triggers the consonant to be geminate when it is appended. It may also occur by lengthening the final short /a/ on the base word when the base noun ends in short /a/ followed by gemination or consonant cluster.

Table 4. Plural Morphs -lee, -olii, -olee, -ilee

Base forms	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>buʔaa</i>	<i>buʔaa-lee</i>	‘profits’
<i>baatii</i>	<i>baatii-lee</i>	‘months’
<i>jaarsa</i>	<i>jaars-olii</i>	‘elders’
<i>gaangee</i>	<i>gaang-olii</i>	‘mules’
<i>k’aama</i>	<i>k’aam-olee</i>	‘bodies’
<i>aanaa</i>	<i>aan-olee</i>	‘districts’
<i>kitaaba</i>	<i>kitaab-ilee</i>	‘books’
<i>daaba</i>	<i>daab-ilee</i>	‘organizations’

The morph *-lee* is suffixed to inanimate nouns that end in long vowel as in Table 4 whereas its allomorph *-olii* is suffixed to animate nouns with a long vowel in the preceding syllable and which end in short vowel. The plural marker *-ilee* is suffixed to inanimate nouns whereas *-olii* is used with animate nouns. The allomorph *-olee* can be used with \pm animate nouns. Both *-olee* and *-ilee* are suffixed to the nouns with long vowel in the penultimate syllable.

Table 5. Plural Morph -een

Base forms	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>muka</i>	<i>muk-een</i>	‘woods’
<i>farda</i>	<i>fard-een</i>	‘horses’
<i>gaara</i>	<i>gaar(r)-een</i>	‘mountains’
<i>mana</i>	<i>man(n)-een</i>	‘houses’

Non-human nouns are marked for plurality by the morph *-een* suffixed to the noun roots. It is appended to two syllabic nouns that end in short /a/ sound. If the allomorph is preceded by glides and nasals, it makes the consonants to be geminate.

The plural marker *-an* can be preceded by the geminate consonant *-ww-* when it is appended to nouns with long terminating vowels, but the nouns can be \pm animate like the domains of the plural morpheme *-(o)ota*.

Table 6. Plural Forms of ± animate Nouns by -an

Base form	Plural form	Meaning
<i>hojii</i>	<i>hojii-ww-an</i>	‘works’
<i>murtoo</i>	<i>murtoo-ww-an</i>	‘decisions’
<i>balaa</i>	<i>balaa-ww-an</i>	‘accidents’
<i>koree</i>	<i>koree-ww-an</i>	‘councils’

As in Table 6, ± animate nouns may take the plural morph *-an* but the phonological form of the nouns, that they end in vowel length, makes the morph preceded by the geminate phoneme */-ww-/* for settling occurrence of impermissible number of vowels. The consonant is doubled because of that the morph *-an* occurs following geminate consonant. + abstract nouns are members of this morpheme which is preceded by the epenthetic element */-ww-/*. All the suffixes in tables above are utilized for a noun ending in a vowel(s).

Some nouns are used in the same form in singular and plural paradigms. Syntactic context and relational consideration is peculiar proof for identifying status of such nouns in terms of their number (plural/singular).

Table 7. Special Forms in Plurality of Nouns

Noun type	Base form	Plural form	Meaning
Body parts	<i>ilkaan</i>	<i>ilkaan-Ø</i>	‘tooth/teeth’
	<i>k’uba</i>	<i>k’uba-Ø</i>	‘finger/fingers’
Irregular forms	<i>goromsa</i>	<i>gorommii</i>	‘heifers’
	<i>farda</i>	<i>faradoo</i>	‘horses’
Plural only	-	<i>hamaamota</i>	‘bride servants’
	-	<i>ijoollee</i>	‘children’

Nouns that name body parts are the same in their singular and plural forms. Plural forms of some nouns are apart from the ones indicated above; they seem to be irregular plural forms as in the third row of Table 7. Nouns which name things with the notion of generality like *ijoollee* ‘children’ are used in plural form only. They don’t have singular forms or we can’t stripe the base forms out of the inflected.

Some nouns code between their singular and plural forms by the final syllables on their base forms; for example, *waraabessa* ‘hyena’ vs. *waraabeyyii* ‘hyenas’. Such forms seem to be contrastive in their final syllable *-ssa* and *-yyii* on the lexical item.

In some cases, members of the different categories of plural markers can be possibly alternated for taking number marker; for instance, *fard-een* ‘horses’ or its alternate form *fard-oota* ‘horses’, *kitaab-ilee* ‘books’ or the alternate form *kitaab-ota* ‘books’ can be used. Different markers of plurality can be used together on a noun of kinship term; for example, *fira* ‘relative’ → *firoota* ‘relatives’/*fir-oot(t)-an* ‘relatives’. The ± animate nouns can be pluralized by different morphs based on the phonological form and choice of the base word.

There are multiple of forms to make nouns plural, and these are appended to nouns on the basis of the language’s internal segmental and auto-segmental (gemination and vowel length) occurrence pattern as well as semantic type of the nouns.

In Wallaga Oromo, a proper noun can be suffixed with the associative marker *-faa* to identify a group referring to human; that is, the morpheme *-faa* is suffixed to someone’s name in the group. It is mostly suffixed on interrogative pronoun *eeñnu* ‘who’ in questions (cf. section 3.2.3).

Table 8. Associative Marker *-faa*

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>Kuulanii</i>	<i>Kuulanii-faa</i>	‘Kulani and others’
<i>eeñnu</i>	<i>eeñnu-faa</i>	‘whom and others’
<i>Kuulanii</i>	<i>Kuulanii-n-faa</i>	‘Kulani-Nom-and others’
<i>eeñnuu</i>	<i>eeñnuu-n-faa</i>	‘who and others’

The morpheme *-faa* can be appended to proper nouns and interrogative pronouns either in nominative case paradigm or in the object form as in Table 8. The nominative markers precede the associative marker as in the table above.

[1] (a) *an-i Soolanee-faa waam-ee-n ĵir-a [waam-Ø-ee-ra]*
 I-Nom Solane (and others) call-Conv⁵-1sg AUX-Impf

‘I have called Solane along with the others’

In example [1] (a) *-faa* is used with object form of nouns and it identifies the group inclusive of the noun host. In this example, the predicate phrase *waameen ĵira* ‘I have called’ becomes *waameera* ‘I have called’ which indicates the form of grammaticalization, the diacronic process, in which meaning reduction occurs for grammatical function.

3.1.2 Singulative

The singulative marker shows that noun is marked for being used as single form which may or may not be definite. This grammatical property is marked in Wallaga Oromo using *-iĉĉa* (for masculine) and *-ittii* (for feminine). In some studies, these two markers have been considered to be definiteness markers (cf. Nordfeldt 1947:26; Launhardt 1973: 107; Gragg 1976:181; Mohammed and Zaborski 1990:10); while, Oromo doesn’t have any overt marker of definiteness which means a specified noun that can be either singular or plural. However, the singulative marker entails definiteness being with singular nouns in Oromo.

Table 9. Singulative Forms

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>nama</i>	<i>nam-iĉĉa</i>	‘a/the man’
<i>gurbaa</i>	<i>gurb-iĉĉa</i>	‘a/the boy’
<i>intala</i>	<i>intal-ittii</i>	‘a/the girl’
<i>dubartii</i>	<i>dubart-ittii</i>	‘a/the woman’

The morpheme *-iĉĉa* in the inflected form in Table 9 is considered as the object/citation form which can be varied to *-iĉĉ-i* whose final *-i* marks nominative case. Both the morphs *-iĉĉa* and *-ittii* tend to be singulative markers embodying the property of definiteness. The sentence below provides an example for an indefinite singulative form:

⁵ In a sentence, two verbs can be used simultaneously to show sequence of actions in which the preceding verb(s) are marked by vowel length in Oromo. The marked form is called converb; it makes one speculate that there is another action following. For example, *inni duŋ-ee rafe* ‘He came and slept’

[2] (a) *nam-ičča tokko waam-ee-n duf-e*
 man-Sing:ABS one call:1sg-Conv-1sgm come:1sg-Perf

‘I came after calling a man’

In example [2] (a), *-ičča* shows that shows an indefinite singulative property. Therefore, the basic functions of the morphemes (*-ičča* and *-ittii*) are marking the singulative property. Had they been definiteness markers, they could have possibly been used with plural nouns; but that is not permissible. The function of these morphemes as definite, however, can be understood on the basis of semantic aspect of the sentence.

3.1.3 Gender

Two types of gender, that is, masculine and feminine, exist in Oromo (Gragg 1976:180; Mohammed and Zaborski 1990:5; Griefenow-Mewis 2003:22). These are identified through gender marking suffixes, or lexically by using different words for masculine and feminine forms. The distinct words for masculine and feminine like *adaadaa* ‘aunt’ and *eessuma* ‘uncle’ are also used in Oromo. Gender indicating words can be used for animals and they are placed immediately after or before the nouns they belong to. The most common contrastive pair of words used in this way is *kormaa* ‘male (m.)’ vs. *daltuu* ‘female (f.)’. Consider the table below.

Table 10. Gender Distinction in Nouns

Base form	Masculine		Feminine	
	Inflected form	Meaning	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>gurbaa</i>	<i>gurbaa</i>	‘boy’	<i>intala</i>	‘girl’
<i>gessuma</i>	<i>eessuma</i>	‘uncle’	<i>adaadaa</i>	‘aunt’
<i>mararaa</i>	<i>marar-aa</i>	‘dear boy/man’	<i>marar-tuu</i>	‘dear girl/woman’
<i>boonaa</i>	<i>boon-aa</i>	‘proud boy/man’	<i>boon-tuu</i>	‘proud girl/woman’
<i>sooressa</i>	<i>sooressa</i>	‘rich man’	<i>soorettii</i>	‘rich girl/woman’
<i>ogeessa</i>	<i>ogeessa</i>	‘techincian’	<i>ogeettii</i>	‘technician lady’

In Table 10, the first two examples are distinguished for gender lexically. The third and fourth nouns that are derived from verbs indicate that the long *-aa* suffixed to the verb root or to a C-final stem marks masculine gender whereas the suffix *-tuu* makes verbal nouns in feminine gender. Lexically gender coding nouns distinguish between masculine and feminine genders by

their contrastive final syllables as *-ssa* vs. *-ttii*. Such nouns that are derived from adjectives indicating gender distinction. Proper nouns may also code gender distinction by varying their final vowel like Gaaddisaa (m.) vs. Gaaddisee (f.) in Oromo.

Some nouns may end in derivational morpheme *-tuu*, and they are used with no gender distinction (they are epicene). Even though they seem to end in the feminine form, the nouns are gender neutral. Each example below is either masculine or feminine:

- [3] (a) *hat-tuu* ‘thief’
(b) *kadat-tuu* ‘beggar’

In [3] (a) and (b), the roots are verbs. They become nouns by the suffix *-tuu*.

In Wallaga Oromo, non-human nouns, as the ones below, are syntactically used as feminine.

- [4] (a) *aduu* ‘sun (f.)’
(b) *daččee* ‘land (f.)’

Examples [4] (a) and (b) show that non-human nouns are considered as only feminine gender in Oromo. Such nouns can be used with feminine gender marker *-ittii*; however, its function is either feminine or diminutive marking. For example, *saree* ‘dog’ → *sar-ittii* ‘dog-f’. The noun *saree* ‘dog’ is considered feminine gender or diminutive form so that they normally take the marker of singulative property in the feminine form (Baye 1981: 18).

3.1.4 Case

The relational category, case, is a grammatical relationship of nouns or pronouns to other words in a sentence. Faarlund (2004: 16) defines case as a morphosyntactic category which is construed in its syntagmatic occurrence. Languages differ especially in morphological case rather than syntactic case. “Syntactic Case is universal, while morphological case is language-specific” (Mcfadden 2004:3). Wallaga Oromo marks nouns for case. According to Nordfeldt (1947: 22) there are six types of cases in Oromo: nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative and vocative ones; he considers the absolutive case as the primitive form of nouns. Several cases exist in Oromo encompassing syntactic and semantic bases of case assignment⁶ with distinct

⁶ Occurrences of core cases with their formal variations in Oromo are syntactic and morphological. On the other hand the morphological forms of peripheral cases like instrumental and genitive are semantic cases.

inflectional markers for each. These include: nominative, absolutive, genitive, dative, ablative, instrumental, beneficiary, vocative, locative cases. They show their semantic roles on the basis of syntactic relational structures.

3.1.4.1 Nominative

In Wallaga Oromo, nouns that are used as subject of intransitive verbs and agent of the transitive verbs take the inflectional morpheme for the nominative case. The nominative case is marked by four different morphs of allomorphic variation occurring in complementary distribution. The allomorphs for the nominative case are *-n*, *-ni*, *-i* and \emptyset .

Table 11. Nominative Case on Nouns

Base forms	Inflected Forms	Meaning
<i>siree</i>	<i>siree-n</i>	‘bed’
<i>hirriba</i>	<i>hirrib-ni</i>	‘sleep’
<i>morma</i>	<i>morm-i</i>	‘neck’
<i>bišaan</i>	<i>bišaan-∅</i>	‘water’

The difference in the phonological realization of the nominative case markers arises from the phonological nature of the nouns. The marker *-n* occurs after a terminating long vowel of a noun including the derived nouns. For a noun base that ends in short vowel, the final vowel is dropped and *-ni* is suffixed to mark nominative case. It makes either gemination or consonant cluster. The allomorph *-i* is appended to noun roots or $-C_1C_1$ and $-C_1C_2$ final stems. Nominative case can also be marked by zero morph when the noun ends in consonant as in the last noun in Table 11 above; the case is understood by considering placement of the noun and the syntactic function it conveys.

Some consider the unit *-ti* as a separate nominative case marker (Launhardt 1973: 40; Griefenow-Mewis 2003: 42). The morpheme *-ti* is used as an optional extension of genitive case marker as in *mana namaa-ti* ‘house of man’ as it occurs after the genitive marker, vowel length (Gragg 1976: 183). It is a copula in a possessive construction (Ishetu 1981: 12). It can also be used as a phonological variant of the morpheme *-ni* in nominative case. The nominative case allomorph *-ni* undergoes phonological processes and gets changed to *-ti*, for example, *bofa*

‘snake ABS’ - *bof-ni* ‘snake Nom’ - *bof-ti* ‘snake Nom’ in which *-ti* results from partial assimilation process in the shares vocal feature between the segments /f/ and /t/. In some Oromo dialects it is pronounced as *bofni* without undergoing the phonological process.

When the focus marker *-tu* is suffixed to a noun in the subject position, no case marker is used. Debela and Ronny (2003: 165) and Baye (1988: 371) state that the morpheme *-tu* is a contrastive focus marker of nominal. Baye (1988) indicates that this contrastive focus phenomenon is construed in context because it contrasts the focused nominal with other presupposed constituents providing context.

[5] *nam-ičča-tu na waam-e*
 man-Sing-Foc me call-Perf
 ‘It is the man who called me’

Example [5] illustrates that the nominative case marker *-tu* marks a focused subject in the contrastive context of the others.

3.1.4.2 Absolutive

The base form of noun is the unmarked one the so called absolutive case in Oromo it is an underlying noun that occurs in the object position without an inflectional suffix. In addition, we will be having all the final vowels with their long forms as markers of object paradigm if we consider Oromo as an object marked language. It usually ends in vowel(s) which Gragg (1976: 194) states as ‘stem-formatives’. Owens (1985: 18) defines the absolutive case as the citation form used in the object paradigm. These forms are considered as inherent stems used in the position of direct object. Oromo is a marked-nominative language in which the object is unmarked. Inherent noun like *kitaaba* ‘book’ is treated in the absolutive case.

Consonant ending nouns occur with the suffix *-n* in the object position. Sometimes an object seems to be marked; for example, *Galaanii(n)* ‘Galaan-(Emph)’ According to this example, in consonant ending nouns, it seems that the morpheme *-n* can be appended to citation form in the same way as on pronouns; for example, *isaanii-n* ‘them-Emph’. Perhaps the suffix *-n* is a focus marker on object since the language is object unmarked in terms of case. Pronouns and demonstratives seem to be distinguishing between subject and object forms as in *is-ni* ‘he-Nom’

vs. *is-a* ‘he-Acc’; however, this form is not compatible for all pronouns as well as nouns. It calls for more explanation.

3.1.4.3 Dative

Wallaga Oromo marks an indirect object known as dative case, which is also called oblique case. Dative case signals a noun that takes the position before or after the direct object with the function of telling ‘for whom’ or ‘to whom’ the action is done as semantic criteria. Two different markers can be suffixed to nouns in order to mark the dative case. Dative case uses *-f* as commonly occurring suffix in this case (Owens 1985: 105). Consider the following examples:

Table 12. Nouns in Dative Case Forms

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>nama</i>	<i>namaa-f</i> / [namaa] ⁷	‘for man’
<i>muč’aa</i>	<i>muč’aa-f</i> / [muč’aa]	‘for baby’
<i>loon(i)</i>	<i>loonii-f</i> / [loonii]	‘for cattle’
<i>abbaa</i>	<i>abbaa-tti</i>	‘to father’
<i>jaarsa</i>	<i>jaarsa-tti</i>	‘to father’
<i>Galaan</i>	<i>Galaan(i)-tti</i>	‘to father’

The dative case markers are the two underlying morphs of inflectional suffixes which are *-f* and *-tti*. These morphs are distinctly used in Wallaga Oromo; their basic functional difference falls between that the morph *-tti*, which is basically adpositional form (Owens 1985: 112), signals goal or addressee whereas the suffix *-f* shows addressee with a sense of beneficiary in dative case. Another difference is that *-f* occurs after long vowel but *-tti* can be appended to any noun in the same function (see Table 12). Vowel length is used as a surface form in the same function on which the suffix *-f* is realized in the underlying form. The morpheme *-tti* occurs as in *muč’aa-tti* ‘to boy’, making the same construction with dative forms in semantic consideration.

The suffix *-tti* makes the sentence semantically distinct from the other marker (*-f*) in the dative case. For example, *k’aršičča isa-tti kenni* ‘give the money to him’. In this sentence, the money is

⁷ All data of the language under analysis is written in phonemically transcribed form; wherever the phonetic form is needed brackets are used; which means, the uttered form is enclosed in brackets

supposed to be staying with ‘him’ for a short period of time⁸. However, in the sentence *k’aršičča isaa-f kenni* ‘Give him the money’, the sentence indicates that the money will be possessed by ‘him’. Therefore, occurrence of *-tti* and *-f* may signal semantic difference in Oromo.

According to Griefenow-Mewis (2003: 45), the dative case markers mentioned above (*-f* and *-tti*) are not the only ones used in Wallaga Oromo. It considers several markers inclusive of these suffixes. The dative case is marked by *-f* and *-tti* as the underlying inflectional forms which means they are the formal occurrences of inflection in our competence. However, when *-f* is appended to nouns that end in short vowel, the vowel needs to be lengthened being triggered by the suffix because it behaves to occur after long terminating vowel. In the surface form, which is the uttered form, vowel length only seems to be a dative case marker, but it is only occurring in performance for utterance that it is not one of the allomorphs of the dative case; underlyingly there exists the suffix *-f*.

Nouns that seem to end in consonants can also be suffixed by the dative case marker *-f* after vowel length. Such nouns can be followed by a high front vowel *-i* as a copula, so that the case is marked by adding the suffix *-f* following vowel length. Even though the noun *loon* ends in consonant as in Table 12, the underlying dative case form is done in the same way with that of *nama+f* becomes *namaa+f*. It will be *loon(i)+f* which becomes *loonii+f*. The long vowel without the final *-f* can be said; for example, *ani loonii okaa haame* ‘I cut grass for cattle’. In this sentence the noun *loonii* ‘for cattle’ is in the dative case paradigm whose underlying form is *loonii-f* ‘for cattle’.

3.1.4.4 Genitive

The case marked on nominals for indication of possession is known as genitive case. Of course, genitive case is broader than possession inclusive of purpose, source, reference, etc. The marker of genitive case in Wallaga Oromo nouns is vowel length, which is lengthening a short ending vowel of a noun. According to Ishetu (1981:13), genitive case is formed in two ways: by prefixing *kan* and lengthening the last vowel (or suffixing *-i* to final consonant of the possessor noun; and by juxtaposing the thing possessed and the possessor in that order and lengthening the final vowel of the possessor if it is short (or suffixing *-i* after -C). However, all about genitive is

⁸ The preverbal clitic *as* can be used before a verb to indicate that the object remains with the addressee for a short time. For example, *ulee sana as kenni* ‘Give me that stick’

the vowel length only on the possessor noun. In possession, if the vowel of the noun possessor is already long, occurrence of the possessed noun just before the noun possessor signals the genitive case. Using *kan* before the possessor and lengthening the short terminating vowel is also the other way of constructing genitive forms in syntactic form. It does not make gender distinction in Wallaga Oromo; however, in some other varieties like Hararghe, varying the initial letter to /t/ makes gender difference. Thus, *tan* is used referring to feminine gender. The following table may clarify the point more:

Table 13. Noun Forms in Genitive Case

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>farda</i>	<i>fardaa</i>	‘of horse’
<i>bišaan</i>	<i>bišaani</i>	‘of water’
<i>muč’aa</i>	<i>muč’aa</i>	‘of baby’

Vowel length is the marker of genitive case on a noun as in the table above. The vowel length on the genitive noun occurs by the position of the possessed noun right before. If the noun ends in short vowel, it is lengthened. When the noun base ends in long vowel, positioning the possessed noun right before the noun possessor indicates genitive case as a phrasal form like *uffata muč’aa* ‘clothes of baby’.

3.1.4.5 Instrumental

Using of instruments or a means of doing something is termed as the instrumental case. In Wallaga Oromo, it is marked by *-n*. The instrumental case marker is utilized based on the spelling of the nouns in almost similar way with that of the dative case as discoursed so far.

Table 14. Nouns in Instrumental Case Forms

Base forms	Inflected forms	Meaning
<i>miila</i>	<i>miilaa-n</i>	‘by leg’
<i>ʔeeboo</i>	<i>ʔeeboo-n</i>	‘by spear’
<i>summii</i>	<i>summii-n</i>	‘by poison’

As is clear from the examples, the instrumental case marker is *-n* which occurs following long vowel. For a noun that ends in short vowel, the ending vowel is lengthened to append a marker of instrumental case. Nouns ending in consonant are followed by the copular vowel *-i* which is lengthened before suffixing the instrumental case marker *-n* in the same way with that of the preceding example. Other elements especially copulas can be suffixed to nouns preceding the instrumental case marker indicating cleft system in semantics as in example sentence below.

[6] *kop'ee namaa-tii-n deem-i*
 shoe man:Gen-Cop-Inst go-2sg:Imp
 ‘Go in someone’s shoe’

Copulas are placed before instrumental case marker *-n* to indicate the instrumental from in cleft system, but they are not applicable for the nouns that end in short vowel; for instance, **harka-daa-n* ‘hand-Cop-Inst’. They precede *-n* when the terminating vowel of the noun is long vowel and the case is instrumental, for example, *?eeboo-n* ‘Spear-Nom’ or *?eeboo-daa-n* ‘spear-Cop-Inst’. Its sense shows that the copulas make the instrumental case easily understandable fulfilling that the suffix *-n* follows lengthened vowel rather than the already long vowel. In the cleft system, *?eeboo-daa-n* ‘spear-Cop-Inst’ is to mean *kan fajjadame ?eeboo-da* ‘what he used is spear’. However, this thesis focuses on the overt morphology only that it doesn’t enter into the details of the cleft system.

Instrumental case is marked on the adjectives or demonstratives if any. When a noun is modified by an adjective, it is the adjective that is marked for the instrumental case. An exceptional usage of instrumental case in Wallaga Oromo occurs when the marker is seen on the verb just as on the noun; for example, *deem-ii-n go-2sg:Imp-Inst* ‘use it to go’ This example is the verb inflection for case. Such form can also mean take this horse away in addition to the indicated meaning and function.

3.1.4.6 Ablative

The source, origin or from where a movement begins is expressed by the ablative case which is marked by vowel length in Wallaga Oromo. For nouns that end in long vowel, long *-aa* and *-ii* following copular elements *-da* and *-ti* respectively are used to show ablative case. The table below may provide examples:

Table 15. Nouns in Ablative Form

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>ĵimma</i>	<i>ĵimmaa</i>	‘from Jimma’
<i>Adaamaa</i>	<i>Adaamaa-daa</i>	‘from Adama’
<i>ŝanan</i>	<i>ŝananii</i>	‘from Shanan’

Vowel length is about lengthening of a short vowel, especially, referring to long *-aa* and *-ii* to mark ablative case. Nouns that end in long vowels are marked for ablative case by placing copulas *-da* or its allomorph *-ti* before the lengthened final vowel of the case. The interesting point is that such form distinguishes ablative case from the object form of nouns in its morphology. For Example, **Adaamaa duf-Ø-e* ‘He came to Adama’. In this sentence, the noun *Adaamaa* ‘Adama’ is the absolutive noun which may indicate locative or object or else ablative, but when it becomes *Adaamaa-daa duf-Ø-e* ‘He came from Adama’, the noun form *Adaamaadaa* ‘Adama:Abl’ is clear to be in the ablative form.

4.1.4.7 Locative

Locative case is marked by the suffix *-tti*, and tells location for some occurrence, goal or addressee. This case seems to be antonym to the ablative case in that it is “to” whereas the ablative case “from” is in the opposite direction. Owens (1985: 110ff) states *-tti* as locative case in addition to that it considers the morpheme (*-tti*) as suffix appended to human noun indicating goal as postposition.

Table 16. Nouns in Locative Case

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>Nak'amte</i>	<i>Nak'amte-tti</i>	‘at Nekempt’
<i>mana</i>	<i>mana-tti</i>	‘at home’
<i>galma</i>	<i>galma-tti</i>	‘in hall’
<i>aangoo</i>	<i>aangoo-tti</i>	‘by authority’

Locative case as in the table above, indicates location. It may also indicate goal or addressee as in *aangoo-tti* ‘authority-Loc’ which shows addressee, but it may indicate goal when appended to human as in *nama-tti* ‘to man’.

3.1.4.8 Beneficiary

In wallaga Oromo, gaining from the result of something is marked on nouns by a suffix *-f* that follows long vowel, and called beneficiary or benefactive case. Beneficiary is used referring to gaining from result of some happening whereas benefactive case marks for benefitting from something. In this paper, such marking is indicated by beneficiary.

Table 17. Nouns in Beneficiary Case

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>Waak'a</i>	<i>Waak'aa-f</i>	‘for God’
<i>hojii</i>	<i>hojii-f</i>	‘for work’

The paradigmatic forms above indicate that the beneficiary marker *-f* after long final vowel on a noun point out that there are gains from something. Since the same marker is appended for dative case, the verb type and semantic aspect determines beneficiary. The noun in the beneficiary occurs with intransitive verbs. Such constructions are widely used in Wallaga Oromo.

Table 18. Difference between Dative and Beneficiary

Case Type	Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
Dative	<i>muč'aa</i>	<i>uffata muč'aa-f / [muč'aa] biti</i>	‘Buy the baby clothes’
	<i>nama</i>	<i>k'aršii namaa-f / [namaa] kenni</i>	‘Give the man money’
Beneficiary	<i>muč'aa</i>	<i>muč'aa-f dufe</i>	‘he came for the baby’
	<i>nama</i>	<i>namaa-f gammada</i>	‘he gets happy for others’

Although case marker and morphological form of dative and beneficiary seem the identical, the verb type with its arguments determines the case type. If the verb is constructed with direct and oblique objects, the oblique one is in the dative form whereas when the verb is intransitive or linking verb for the benefit of someone, the noun form is in the beneficiary case by using

monovalent or bivalent verbs. Number of arguments and semantic features need to be considered for the distinction between dative and beneficiary cases.

3.1.4.9 Vocative

Some languages have vocative case which marks the noun representing the entity (animate) we address. It is a verbal means of calling attention. In Wallaga Oromo, there are various ways of marking the vocative case. One is using the word 'yaa' referring to the addressee which is syntactic form.

Table 19. Vocative Nouns

Base form	Inflercted form	Meaning
<i>nama</i>	<i>nama-na</i>	'(you) guy'
<i>ɟara</i>	<i>ɟara-na</i>	'(you) guys'

The suffix *-na* which marks vocative case is appended to a noun which is two syllabic and ending in short vowel with harmonic occurrence of vowels. Its full word form *nana* is used after nouns that end in long vowel; for example, *gurbaa nana* 'you boy!' It seems that the suffix *-na* occurs in allomorphic variant of its full word form *nana* as vocative case marker. Sometimes the suffix *-na* can be used representing the word *kana* 'this'. For example, *bara-na* 'this year'. It can be identified based on the syntagmatic occurrence of the nouns with such particle. The marker of vocative case with incorporation of strong feeling *-na* or its full word form *nana* can never be used with proper nouns.

3.2 Pronoun

Another declensional class in the nominals, which is inflected for a number of categories, is pronoun. Inflection of pronouns is complex because it is less regularly patterned than noun inflection. That is it contains several suppletive forms of inflection phonological forms in their functional variation. Pronouns are inflected for properties of number, gender, singulative and case like the noun inflection. Launhardt (1973) describes some forms of pronoun inflection in the attempt to provide how to learn the Oromo language.

3.2.1 Personal Pronoun

Personal pronouns in Wallaga Oromo appear complex forms of inflectional indications. They distinguish their inflectional forms forms in through their internal phonological forms or by suppletive forms in which complete replacement of the word indicates inflection in the language. The absolutive form of pronoun is the base form in the same way with noun that is the object form. It also distinguishes between masculine and feminine gender.

Table 20. Personal Pronoun

Person	Root	Citation/object form	Subject	Possessive adjectives
1sg	<i>n-</i>	<i>(a)na</i>	<i>(a)n-i</i>	<i>koo</i>
1pl	<i>n-</i>	<i>nu</i>	<i>nu-i</i> [<i>nuti</i>]	<i>keeñña</i>
2sg	-	<i>si</i>	<i>ati</i>	<i>kee</i>
2pl	<i>is-</i>	<i>isin</i>	<i>isin-Ø</i>	<i>keessan</i>
3sgm	<i>is-</i>	<i>isa</i>	<i>is-ni</i> [<i>inni</i>]	<i>isaa</i> [<i>saa</i>]
3sgf	<i>is-</i>	<i>isee</i> [<i>išee</i>]	<i>išee-n</i>	<i>isee</i> [<i>šee</i>]
3pl	<i>is-</i>	<i>isaan</i>	<i>isaan-Ø</i> [<i>isaan</i>]	<i>isaanii</i> [<i>saanii</i>]

Regarding the core case distinction in pronouns, the nominative case is marked in the same way with nouns applying the four allomorphs (cf. section 3.1.4.1). The first person plural *nu* ‘us’ in the object form is marked for nominative case by the allomorph *-i* as *nu-i* → *nu-t-i* ‘we’. The impermissible occurrence of V_1V_2 in Oromo is settled by the epenthetic consonant *-t-* which in other dialects is *-j-* becoming *nu-j-i* ‘we’. Second person singular *si* ‘you’ does not have a clear root; it seems to be diachronically metathetic element from the root *is-* ‘pronoun notion’ because this root is applicable for all pronouns, except first persons (calls for more study). The nominative form of *si* ‘you’ is *ati* ‘you:Nom’ by suppletive form through complete replacement for grammatical function, so that it is not analyzed into **at-i* ‘You-Nom’ because its whole is inflected form. Although the object pronouns are from the meaningless roots /*n-*/ and /*is-*/, they are considered absolutive because there is no specific marker of object form.

In the pronouns 3sgm and 3sgf, *isa* ‘him’ and *ise* ‘her’, the final vowels show gender distinction. Vowel *-a* sound is associated to masculine whereas the vowel *-e* sound is related with feminine

gender as in *Nagaasa* ‘masculine’ vs. *Nagaase* ‘feminine’. Therefore, they are like gender coding base forms of pronouns. In the 3sgf form, *ise* → *išee* undergoing phonological process of palatalization by movement of tongue *s* → *š* /-high-mid front vowel.

Second person plural pronoun *isin* and third person plural pronoun *isaan* are also used as honorific words referring to a single person. The citation or object forms are considered as the base forms of pronouns. Haymanot (1984: 8) distinguishes forms of 2pl pronoun *isin* and *isini* as object and subject forms respectively showing the same form for 3pl *isaan* and *isaani*. However, consonant ending nominals are marked for nominative case by zero morpheme. The optional *-i* suffixed to nominals is for copular construction as *kun isaan-i* ‘these them-Cop’.

The controversial issue of marking pronouns in Oromo for accusative case is considered by several studies. Haimanot (1984: 19) used object pronouns in accusative case forms by the morpheme *-n* without describing their phonological distinction in advance; Debela and Meyer (2003: 174) marks pronouns of accusative case by *-Vn*. It puts two paradigms of object forms of pronouns as the base forms and the marked accusative forms.

Table 21. Object Pronouns

Persons	Object Pronouns	
	Without suffix <i>-Vn</i>	with suffix <i>-Vn</i>
1sg	<i>na</i>	<i>ana-an</i>
2sg	<i>si</i>	<i>si-in</i>
1pl	<i>nu</i>	<i>nu-un</i>
2pl	<i>isin</i>	<i>isin-iin</i>
3pl	<i>isaan</i>	<i>isaan-iin</i>

Debela and Meyer (2003: 174)

My view is contrary with the works of the above mentioned studies, in this regard, that the issue of accusative case is never raised in this work. It has been indicated that Oromo is an absolutive language in which object is not marked for accusative case by particular morpheme(s). The base (citation) forms of the pronouns are absolutely the object forms that we don’t have object markers. Next, the marked form is incompatible for 3sg pronouns that they have to remain in

their base forms. The other, the morpheme *-Vn* will be *-VVn* for the C-final nouns. Therefore, the discourse related marked forms of the object pronouns can be seen in the table below:

Table 22. Object Pronouns and Emphatic Forms

Persons	Object Pronouns	
	Absolutive	Emphatic
1sg	<i>na</i>	<i>anaa-n</i>
2sg	<i>si</i>	<i>sii-n</i>
1pl	<i>nu</i>	<i>nuu-n</i>
2pl	<i>isin</i>	<i>isin(ii)-n</i>
3pl	<i>isaan</i>	<i>isaan(ii)-n</i>

Pronouns in object forms are marked by the morpheme *-n* which triggers the preceding vowel to be lengthened if it is short. Several morphemes behave like occurring after vowel length only. The marked object forms of pronouns are functionally for showing emphasis; not accusative case as we already have the absolutive case in object forms. These forms are situation based that they are understood more in discourse. For example, *Inni isaanii-n waam-Ø-e* he-Nom them-Emph call-3sgm-Perf ‘he called them’ has the meaning ‘it’s them whom he called’ in relation with other participants of the discourse. The equivalent forms for 3sg pronouns seem to be suffixing the copula *-da* for emphasis as *isa-da* ‘him-Emph’ and *išee-da* ‘her-Emph’.

The nominative and objective forms of the pronouns can be seen in Table 22 above. Pronouns are inflected for several types of cases. The dative case is marked by *-f* and *-tti*. However, in some cases pronouns in the oblique case remain in the object form as in *gaaffii si gaafate* ‘he asked you a question’; no any marker. The base form of a pronoun functions as dative case.

[7] *is-ni [inni] bišaan sii-f [sii] kenn-Ø-e*
 he:Nom water you-Dat give-3sgm-Perf

‘He gave you water’

Example [7] uses *-f* to indicate dative case whereby vowel length can also be used as its surface form. The morph *-tti* can also mark mark dative case as in *išee-n ergaa na-tti him-t-e* ‘she told me a message’ on the basis of meaning though in other contexts it can function as adposition. For

example, *saree-n na-tti fig-Ø-e* ‘A dog ran to me’ in which *-tti* is an adposition showing goal to mean towards.

Double usage of dative case pronouns is permissible in Wallaga Oromo. The pronoun which is placed before the direct object shows focus on the indirect object, and is suffixed by *-f* whereas the second one appears in vowel length only whose underlying form is the same. The examples below illustrate more:

[8] (a) *is-ni anaa-f badaasa naa-f [naa] kenn-Ø-e*
 he-Nom me-Dat award me:1sg-Ben give-3sgm-Perf
 ‘He gave me an award’

(b) *in-ni išee-f kop’ee bit-Ø-ee-fii*
 he-Nom her-Dat shoe buy-3sgm-Conv-Ben
 ‘He bought her shoes’

As in example [8] (a), the first person pronouns can be used in double form. It seems that when the dative pronouns occur before the direct object, the pronoun is suffixed by *-f* and it conveys focus. However, the pronoun of the dative case which is placed after the direct object uttered in vowel length only whose underlying form is with the suffix *-f*. Sentence [8] (b) indicates that third person pronouns do not allow the double appearance of the dative pronouns because on the final position of the sentence, *-fii* is suffixed to the verb following a lengthened vowel whose function is similar with the doubled pronouns in other pronouns.

Personal pronouns are also inflected for ablative case. The adpositional particle *-irraa* marks ablative case on pronouns.

Table 23. Pronouns in Ablative Form

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>ana</i>	<i>ana-irraa [narraa]</i>	‘from me’
<i>si</i>	<i>si-irraa [sirraa]</i>	‘from you’

The ablative forms of pronouns indicating source is made by using the adposition *-irraa* because this adposition has got the meaning ‘from’ in its long final vowel. It seems that this is the only marker of ablative case on pronouns.

Wallaga Oromo distinguishes between possessive adjectives⁹ and possessive pronouns. Possessive adjectives are used with nouns being encliticized whereas possessive pronouns are used alone in sentences, and thus they are syntactic forms. The particle *kan* is prefixed to the possessive adjectives to form possessive pronouns that can stand alone in a sentence to indicate possession as in *kankoo* ‘mine’. Such forms are usually constructed with the copulas *da* or *-ti*. The obligatory difference in the usage of the copulas is that the first and second person plural possessive pronouns *kankeñña* ‘ours’ and *kankeessan* ‘yours’ are used with the copula *da* only. The copular element *-ti* can be used with the other possessive pronouns ending in long vowel; but *da* can be used replacing *-ti* for the purpose of focus on the possession.

3.2.2 Reflexive and Intensive Pronouns

Both reflexive and intensive pronouns are differently used in Oromo. According to Launhardt (1973: 234), both the markers *of(i)-* ‘self (reflexive)’ and *mataa* ‘self (intensive)’ are for reflexive pronouns; however, from syntactic constructions we can understand that the former is for reflexive whereas the latter makes intensive pronouns.

3.2.2.1 Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns show that an action refers back to the subject. They are formed by prefixing the particle *of(i)-* on possessive adjective forms of pronouns. A reflexive pronoun may come either right after its antecedent or after some words in a sentence and it remains reflexive regardless of changing its syntactic placement. Launhardt (1973: 233) indicates that subject and object cases are similarly unmarked.

⁹ Pronouns that are used with a noun and somehow modifying the noun in terms of its kind and identity are used as possessive adjectives. They are pronouns used as adjectives.

Table 24. Reflexive Pronouns (Subject)

Base form	Reflexive form	Meaning
<i>ana</i>	<i>ofūkoo</i>	‘myself’
<i>si</i>	<i>ofūkee</i>	‘yourself’
<i>isa</i>	<i>ofūisaa</i>	‘himself’
<i>išee</i>	<i>ofūšee</i>	‘herself’
<i>nu</i>	<i>ofūkeeñña</i>	‘ourselves’
<i>isin</i>	<i>ofūkeessan</i>	‘yourselves’
<i>isaan</i>	<i>ofūisaanii</i>	‘themselves’

Reflexive pronouns are inflected for several cases like nominative case as in *ofūisaanii ijaarani* ‘themselves built it’ and dative case as in *ofūkee-f* ‘yourself-Dat’. Dative case is marked by *-f* on the reflexive pronouns.

3.2.2.2 Intensive Pronouns

Intensive pronouns are formed in different ways from that of the reflexive ones. The intensive form *mataa* is procliticized to the possessive adjective form and it is syntactic aspect. Nominative case markers are suffixed to the word *mataa* preceding the possessive adjectives occurring with the intensive marker because it is usually placed right after its antecedent. Pronouns of this category are inflected for subject, object, dative cases and beneficiary.

Table 25. Cases in Intensive Pronouns

Case type	Intensive form	Meaning
Nominative	<i>mataa-n-koo</i>	‘myself’
	<i>mataa-n-saa</i>	‘himself’
Objective	<i>mataa-kee</i>	‘yourself’
	<i>mataa-šee</i>	‘herself’
Dative	<i>mataasaa-f</i>	‘for himself’
	<i>mataakee-f</i>	‘for yourself’

Intensive pronouns emphasize the subject. The nominative case marker *-n* is suffixed to the intensive pronoun *mataa* ‘self (intensive)’ in the subject paradigm. The intensive pronouns come right after the nominative nouns or pronouns to indicate intensity or emphasis. The object forms of intensive pronouns occur in the absolutive form. Intensive pronoun occurs in the dative case being suffixed by the marker *-f* on the intensive pronoun. In both object forms and dative cases the intensive pronouns occur right after the object or citation forms of pronouns or after corresponding nouns.

Intensive pronouns are used in subject or object positions following their antecedent nouns or pronouns; hence, they are inflected for nominative case. They are also inflected for dative case by the marker *-f* suffixed to the intensive pronoun.

[9] *Dabaloo-n ana mataa koo-f t’alayaa erg-ee ĵir-a [erg-ee-ra]*
 Dabaloo-Nom me self my-Dat letter send:3sgm-Conv Aux-Impf

‘Dabalo sent me a letter’

When an intensive pronoun is used as a dative case, the direct object noun or pronoun is followed by intensive pronoun. The intensive pronoun is inflected for the case where as the pronoun in the direct object form remains in its base form as in [8].

3.2.3 Demonstrative and Interrogative Pronouns

Demonstratives and interrogative pronouns have case as their common inflectional category though the latter is marked for more number of cases than the former in Wallaga Oromo. Demonstrative adjectives occur after nouns to modify the noun (antecedent) whereas demonstrative pronouns are used alone in a sentence either in subject or object positions. Interrogative pronouns are marked for nominative, genitive and dative cases.

3.2.3.1 Demonstratives

Inflection of demonstrative adjectives and pronouns distinguishes between nominative and absolutive forms. When demonstratives are used with nouns as adjectives as in *man-ni kun-i* ‘this house’, they are marked for nominative case following the nouns they are modifying. Demonstrative pronouns are also marked for nominative case as in *kun-i mana* ‘this is a house’.

Table 26. Demonstratives

Base form	Nominative form	Gloss
<i>kana</i>	<i>kun(i)</i>	this:Nom ‘this’
<i>sana</i>	<i>sun(i)</i>	that:Nom ‘that’

The distinction between the absolutive and nominative forms is not the final vowel change, but the internal vowel /u/ makes the inflectional form in the use of ablaut in which vowel change shows inflection. Occurrence of *-i* at the end in the nominative case as *kuni* ‘this:Nom’ and *sun(i)* ‘that:Nom’ is dialectal variation.

Even though these are basically pronouns, they can be used as adjectives modifying nouns. The plural form *kanneen* ‘these’ points to near things in object form. However, it is also possible to opt with the singular demonstrative pronouns *kana* ‘this’ for plural antecedents in Wallaga Oromo.

[10] *nam-oota kanneen waam-i*
man-pl:ABS these call:2sg-Imp
‘call these persons’

As in example [10], demonstrative adjective or pronoun can be used in plural form, but its singular correspondent can also occur without meaning change as in *ɟabb-oota kana fuud-ii deem-i* ‘Take these calves away’. The singular form *kana* ‘this’ can also be used along with plural forms.

3.2.3.2 Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns undergo inflection for different grammatical properties. They are marked for number distinguishing between plural and singular. In addition, they are marked for cases as subject, object, genitive and dative forms. Launhardt (1973: 246) states that *-tu* suffixed to the object form in order to mark focus in the nominative case.

Table 27. Interrogative Pronouns

Case	Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
Dative	<i>eeññu</i>	<i>eeññuu-f</i>	‘for whom’
	<i>maal(i)</i>	<i>maalii-f</i>	‘for what’
Beneficiary	<i>eeññu</i>	<i>eeññuu-f</i>	‘for whom’
	<i>maal(i)</i>	<i>maalii-f</i>	‘for what’
Genitive	<i>eeññu</i>	<i>eeññuu</i>	‘whose’
	<i>maal</i>	<i>maalii</i>	‘of what’
Foc.(Nom.)	<i>eeññu</i>	<i>eeññu-tu</i>	‘who’
	<i>maal(i)</i>	<i>maat-tu</i>	‘what’

Nominative forms of interrogative pronoun are used in focused forms by the morpheme *-tu* which is a nominal focus marker. It indicates focused subjects are used in the nominative case. Both dative and beneficiary cases are formed in the same morphology that they both are marked by the morpheme *-f*. The distinction between them is syntactic and semantic (cf. section 3.1.4.8). The genitive case marker, vowel length, can be used with interrogative pronouns as in Table 27. Interrogative pronoun *eeññu* is marked by *-n* in the object form. The morpheme is basically functional for showing emphasis but it occurs with the interrogative pronoun embodying the sense of objective indication.

[11] *eeññuu-n* *waam-t-e?*
 who-Emph call-2sg-Perf
 ‘Whom did you call?’

Example [11] shows that interrogative pronoun occurs in object form being suffixed by *-n* whose function is marking an emphatic object.

3.2.4 Indefinite and Reciprocal Pronouns

3.2.4.1 Indefinite Pronouns

Several indefinite pronouns are available in Wallaga Oromo and they undergo inflection. They are marked for number and case. The case indicated by indefinite pronouns between nominative and absolutive cases is rather syntactic because it is not morphologically distinctly marked. Indefinite pronouns can be marked for genitive and dative cases also. Launhardt (1973: 247) classifies indefinite pronouns into three based on their usage. According to him, there are indefinite pronouns referring to person only, those referring to animals and things only, and those referring to persons, animals and things. Indefinite pronouns are marked for few inflectional categories.

Table 28. Indefinite Pronouns

Base forms	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>nama</i>	<i>nam-uu</i>	‘nobody’
<i>eeññu</i>	<i>eeññu-llee</i>	‘whomever’
<i>kam</i>	<i>kam-llee</i> [<i>kam-i-llee</i>]	‘whichever’
<i>eessa</i>	<i>eessa-llee</i>	‘wherever’

The morpheme *-lee*, which means ‘ever’, gives the property of indefiniteness to pronouns when it is appended to them. These indefinite pronouns are mostly used in negative constructions especially in jussive and imperative forms. The indefinite pronouns make contrastive relation between nominative and absolutive cases in syntactic forms though they are morphologically the same. Here is an example sentence:

- [12] (a) *namuu daree hin jeek'-n-e*
 man:Nom class Neg disturb-Neg-Perf
 ‘Nobody disturbed the class’

In example [12] (a), the indefinite pronoun is in the nominative case though it can also be used in the object position. The suffix *-uu* make indefinite pronouns when they are suffixed to the

lexical item *nam-* which basically serves as a noun root when considered alone. It adds the property of indefiniteness as the stem *namuu* ‘nobody’.

3.2.4.2 Reciprocal Pronouns

In Wallaga Oromo, reciprocity is expressed by *wal(i)* ‘each other’. This particle is inflected for dative, beneficiary cases as follows. The base form *wal* is as an object object.

Table 29. Reciprocal Pronouns

Case	Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
Dative	<i>wal</i>	<i>walii-f</i>	‘for eachother’
Beneficiary	<i>wal</i>	<i>walii-f</i>	‘for eachother’

The reciprocal pronoun used as dative case is formed by suffixing *-f* whereas the next example in the table above indicates that *wal* is suffixed by the same morpheme *-f* for beneficiary cases. The difference is construed from their syntagmatic forms.

The reciprocal pronoun can be suffixed by *-n* to mean ‘together’ though the marker seems to occur with the reciprocal pronoun only.

- [13] (a) *Marartuu-fi Immiruu-n walii-n jiraat-u*
 Marartuu and Imiruu-Nom each other-Loc live:3PI-Impf
 ‘Marartu and Imiru live together’

The suffix *-n* as in example [13] represents the shortened form of *wal-wajjin* ‘together’ which has undergone the diachronic process of grammaticalization in which meaning and lexical form is reduced into grammatical form and function (cf. Hopper and Traugott 2003:1).

Adpositions like *-tti* ‘toward’ and *-irraa* ‘from’ are used with reciprocal pronouns showing goal and source respectively as *wal-tti* [*wal-i-tti*] eachother-Loc ‘eachother-toward’, and *wal-irraa* eachother-Abl ‘eachother-from’. They are appended to the pronouns as adpositions are morphological in Oromo. The adpositions *-tti* and *-irraa* are used in morphology of nominal indicating the meaning ‘towards’ and ‘from’ respectively. The reciprocal pronoun *wal* can also

be used as a direct object occurring just before verb in its unmarked form (absolute) as in *isaan wal jaallatu* ‘they love each other’.

3.3 Adjectives

In Wallaga Oromo, adjectives are inflected following the nouns they modify in a sentence. That is when the noun is in the nominative case the adjective is marked for the same case; the same is true when they occur with nouns in object paradigm. They mostly occur in harmony with nouns. Adjectives can be considered as a peripheral word class of inflectional morphology as they mimic nouns they modify in several ways. This section attempts to describe inflectional categories of adjectives and occurrence patterns of their markers. Almost all adjectives end in vowel sounds in which change of the vowels or suffixing markers account for inflection of the adjectives.

3.3.1 Inflectional Categories of Adjectives

The inflectional categories or properties of adjectives are the same with that of nouns. Adjectives are inflected for number, gender, singulative and case like nouns; however, sometimes they are marked differently from nouns. For instance, adjectives, unlike nouns, are inflected by reduplication to mark plurality.

When adjectives occur with nouns in sentences, number is marked on both of them. Nouns are marked for plurality (cf. section 4.1.1), but adjectives are marked for number by reduplication of its initial syllable (CV, CVC), or by the plural suffix *-(o)ota*. In the former way of marking plurality, the initial syllable reduplication co-occurs with the final vowel shift from *-aa* to *-oo* when the adjectives end in long *-aa*. The latter way of marking number in adjectives is the same with that of nouns. According to Baye (1981: 29) and Launhardt (1973: 313) the suffix *-(o)ota* shows plurality in adjectives. Here different ways of marking plural adjectives with examples:

Table 30. Plural Forms of Adjectives

Form of inflection	Singular	Plural m./f.
Lexical coding	<i>sooressa</i> ‘rich:m.’ <i>bayeessa</i> beautiful:m <i>koʔeettii</i> ‘busy:f.’	<i>sooreyyii</i> ‘riches’ <i>bayeeyyii</i> ‘beautifuls’ <i>koʔeeyyii</i> ‘busies’
Reduplication	<i>guddaa</i> ‘big’ <i>furdaa</i> ‘fat’ <i>č’imaa</i> ‘strong’	<i>gud-guddoo</i> [gur-guddoo] ‘bigs’ <i>fur-furdoo</i> [fu-furdoo] ‘fats’ <i>č’i-č’č’imoo</i> ‘strongs’
-(o)ota	<i>hamaa</i> ‘cunning’ <i>gowwaa</i> ‘foolish’ <i>gamna</i> ‘wise’	<i>ham-oota</i> ‘cunnings/bads’ <i>goww-oota</i> ‘foolishes’ <i>gamn-oota</i> ‘wises’

The lexically coded adjectives distinguish between singular and plural forms by their contrastive final syllables *-ssa* and *-ttii*. The plural number is also marked by reduplication whereby the final vowel shifts from long *-aa* to *-oo* occurs for most adjectives of such form. Reduplication of the initial CV or CVC syllable can be a marker of plural number. This occurs on adjectives that are formed from other part of speech and on the compound adjectives like *harka-k’alʔeessa* ‘poor:sg’ → *harka-k’alʔeeyyii* ‘poor:pl’. The third row of Table 30 shows that the suffix *-(o)ota* is also a marker of plurality on adjectives.

In Oromo, the base forms of adjectives are normal to be used with masculine as in *gurraačča* ‘black:m.’, that is, they are basically masculine related. Inflection occurs when we make them fit for the feminine as *gurraattii* ‘black:f.’. Variation of the final syllables on these adjectives is lexical form seemingly suffixal forms of feminine gender *-ittii* and *-ičča* of masculine. This is for adjectives that can also be used as nouns. Adjectives that are invariable between gender distinctions also exist in Oromo. Look at the examples below:

Marked Gender on Adjectives

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>
<i>ham-aa</i> ‘cunning/bad:m.’	<i>ham-tuu</i> ‘cunning/bad:f.’
<i>d̄eer-aa</i> ‘tall/long-m.’	<i>d̄eer-tuu</i> ‘tall/long-f.’
<i>furd-aa</i> ‘fat:m.’	<i>furd-oo</i> ‘fat:f.’
<i>k’alʔaa</i> ‘thin:m.’	<i>k’alʔ-oo</i> ‘thin:f.’

The phrases above exemplify that adjectives following a nominative noun are marked for nominative case whether the adjective is occurring either in suffixation or reduplication. The same rules (markers) of nouns apply for the adjectives for nominative case (cf. section 3.1.4).

Table 31. Summary of Case Inflection Realized on Adjectives

Case	Marker	Example
Nominative	<i>-n, -ni, -i</i>	<i>furdaa-n</i> fat-Nom <i>gamn-i</i> wise-Nom
Absolutive	No marker	<i>guddaa</i> big/respected-ABS <i>gamna</i> wise-ABS
Dative	<i>-f</i>	<i>c'imaaf</i> strong-Dat 'for strong' <i>adiif</i> white-Dat 'for white'
Genitive	Vowel length	<i>hamaa</i> cunning/bad-Gen 'of cunning/bad' <i>guraaccaa</i> black-Gen 'of black'
Instrumental	<i>-n</i>	<i>deeraa-n</i> tall/long-Inst 'by tall/long' <i>k'al?oo-n</i> thin-Inst 'by thin'
Beneficiary	<i>-f</i>	<i>muraasaf</i> few-Ben 'for few' <i>gudaf</i> big/respected-Ben 'for big/respected'

As indicated in table 31, the nominative case is marked by four allomorphs whereas the absolutive case is the unmarked object form. Dative case is marked by the underlying suffixes *-f*. Genitive case is marked by vowel length on the noun or pronoun possessor. The instrumental and beneficiary cases are marked by *-n* and *-f* respectively. These are suffixed to the nouns or pronouns under the case.

CHAPTER FOUR

Inflections of Verbs

Verbs are the most significant class in undergoing several inherent and agreement inflection and thus complexity of conjugational occurrences is noticeable. As Katamba (1993:220) indicates, “in most languages the verb shows greater morphological complexity than any other word class”. This chapter focuses on various inflectional forms of verbs in terms of root and stems. The inflection is considered in its positive and negative forms. In section 4.1 below, verb roots in their occurrence with affixes will be illustrated providing relevant examples. Next, inflectional properties of verbs in their inherent and agreement categories will be discussed in section 4.2. Finally, in 4.3, inflection on verbs will be dealt with.

4.1 Verbs and Inflection

In the Oromo language, the base stems of verbs are the infinitive (verbal noun) forms ending with morpheme *-uu* as in *mur-uu* cut-VN ‘to cut/cutting’. We can classify the verbs in Oromo into three types as action/stative, auxiliary and copula. The action verbs can be used in different derivational forms like causative and passive constructions. Auxiliary verbs, which occur as helping verbs, can be considered as action/main verbs when they are used in the absence of another action verb in a sentence. They are basically functioning as helping verbs being with other action verbs in a sentence. The invariable particles functioning as copula do exist in the language. They are *dā* and its negative form *miti*, but the positive copula *dā* can be varied to *-ti*, which usually occurs in genitive construction or *-i*, which occurs with nouns or pronouns ending in consonant.

Verb inflection happens for inherent and agreement properties. Inherent properties are the basic members of a word class triggering inflection on that word class whereas agreement properties indicate inflection of a word class for properties out of its members (cf. section 2.4). Besides inflection of their inherent properties, verbs are inflected for agreement purposes based on forms of their root or stems. We can identify two types of verbs according to the root forms and their agreement properties. The majority of verbs are conjugated in a regular manner to occur in agreement with subject as Oromo refers to a subject agreement inflection on verbs. The other rare verbs whose root ends in consonants /ʔ/, /h/, /d/, /j/ and whose inflected forms happen in

special ways with their vowel change seem to be irregular verbs. The conjugational pattern of the regular and irregular verbs can be shown as follows:

Table 32. Conjugation of Action Verbs in Positive Form

	Person	Verb root	Agreement		Perf.	Inflected Form	Gloss
			Per.	Num			
Regular verb	1sg	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-∅	-	-e	<i>raf-∅-e</i>	‘I slept’
	2sg	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-t	-	-e	<i>raf-t-e</i>	‘you slept’
	3sgm	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-∅	-	-e	<i>raf-∅-e</i>	‘he slept’
	3sgf	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-t	-	-e	<i>raf-t-e</i>	‘she slept’
	1pl	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-∅	-n	-e	<i>raf-n-e</i>	‘we slept’
	2pl	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-t-	-an	-i	<i>raf-t-an-i</i>	‘you slept’
	3pl	<i>raf-</i> ‘sleep’	-∅-	-an	-i	<i>raf-an-i</i>	‘they slept’
Irregular verbs	1sg	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-∅	-	-e	<i>daw-∅-e</i>	‘I weaved’
	2sg	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-t	-	-e	<i>daw-t-e</i> [<i>doofte</i>]	‘you weaved’
	3sgm	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-∅	-	-e	<i>daw-∅-e</i>	‘he weaved’
	3sgf	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-t	-	-e	<i>daw-t-e</i> [<i>doofte</i>]	‘she weaved’
	1pl	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-∅	-n	-e	<i>daw-n-e</i> [<i>doofne</i>]	‘we weaved’
	2pl	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-t-	-an	-i	<i>daw-t-an-i</i> [<i>dooftani</i>]	‘you weaved’
	3pl	<i>daw-</i> ‘weave’	-∅-	-an	-i	<i>daw-an-i</i>	‘they weaved’

In the above conjugation of the verb root *raf-*, the perfective marker *-e* which is varied to *-i* used with second and third person plural pronouns. The morpheme *-t-* marks person on verbs as an agreement suffix. However, in other context, it marks person and gender as a cumulative morpheme. Therefore, the morpheme can be considered as an agreement marker of person and gender on verbs. Here are examples:

- [15] (a) *an-i raf-∅-e*
 I-Nom sleep-1sg-Perf
 ‘I slept’
- (b) *at-i raf-t-e*
 you-Nom sleep-2sg-Perf
 ‘You slept’

In [15] (b), the morpheme *-t-* marks second person singular pronoun in contrast with its unmarked (zero morphemic) correspondent on first person singular as in [15] (a). It also conveys a feminine gender when the verb is used with the third person singular pronoun as is seen in Table 32. Haimanot (1984: 11) indicates that the morph *-t-* is a person agreement marker for second singular and plural, third singular feminine types of pronouns; the rest are marked by zero morphemes. However, the agreement marker *-n-* seems to be a cumulative morpheme conveying person and number functions in first and third plural pronouns. Example, *raf-n-e* ‘We slept’ in which the suffix *-n-* agrees with the first person and plural pronoun. In general, the suffix *-t-* marks the verb to distinguish between genders or persons which are contextually identified.

Negative forms of the verb conjugation in Table 32 above are done by using the negative proclitic *hin-* and the dependent suffix *-n-* after the verb. For instance, *hinraf-n-e* ‘Neg sleep-Neg-Perf’ is the negative form for all the varied forms in the table. In negative perfective aspect, the verb form is uniform across the paradigm. No agreement marker is used. The perfective marker is similarly *-e* which follows the dependent negative suffix *-n-*. In imperfective forms, the suffix *-u* can be considered as the dependent negative marker along with the proclitic *hin* except for second and third person plural pronouns whose marker is *-an* instead. These are also the markers of imperfective aspect.

Transitive and intransitive verbs whose roots end in the glottal phonemes */ʔ/*, */h/*, the implosive */d/* and the palatal */j/* (like *hod-* ‘suck’, *doʔ-* ‘explode’ and *moʔ-* ‘win’), behave differently conjugating when they take any consonant initial morph and hence the agreement markers of such forms. They are not followed by a consonant. Based on this, when a suffix that begins in consonant is to happen on a verb root or stem that ends in one of these segments, they are deleted and followed by the preceding vowel length. However, in some cases the preceding vowel may be changed. The following table can make it clearer.

Table 33. Consonant Deletion in Conjugational Forms

Person	Root	Inflected form	Agr.		Asp.	Gloss
			Per.	Num		
1sg	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-∅-e</i>	<i>-∅-</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘I won’
2sg	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-t-e</i> [<i>moote</i>]	<i>-t-</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘you won:sg’
3sgm	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-e</i>	<i>-∅-</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘he won’
3sgf	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-t-e</i> [<i>moote</i>]	<i>-t-</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘she won’
1pl	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-n-e</i> [<i>moone</i>]	<i>-∅</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>-e</i>	‘we won’
2pl	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-t-an-i</i> [<i>mootan(i)</i>]	<i>-t-</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>-i</i>	‘you won:pl’
3pl	<i>moʔ-</i>	<i>moʔ-an-i</i>	<i>-∅</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>-i</i>	‘they won’

As Table 33 indicates, a marker that begins with consonant causes deletion of the terminating glottal segments and others /j/ and /d/ which is followed by the preceding vowel length. Such form does not occur with 1sg, 3sgm and 3pl subjects because the conjugational agreement morphemes of these subjects do not begin with consonant; there is no change with status of the vowel because the morphs appended are vowel or vowel initial.

With regard to the verbs that may also change their preceding vowels usually from low *a* into the high mid vowels. This occurs in both transitive and intransitive verbs. Example, *gaj-s-e* → *geesse* ‘she reached’, *daw-n-e* → *doo-f-n-e* ‘we weaved’, *kaaj-s-e* → *keesse* ‘she put’. These can be considered as irregular verbs since their inflectional forms are special. Phonological process of total assimilation accounts for the change of the palatal segment /j/ into /s/. What makes these forms irregular is that they not only change their consonant which might be attributed to phonological process but also vowel change occurs. On the other hand, the low vowel can be realized as back, high-mid vowel being in length and the segment *f* happens by phonological process of partial assimilation in its conjugation as in *daw-n-e* → *doo-f-n-e* ‘we weaved’, in which the change of vowels from low *a* into high-mid vowels is subject to irregularity. Therefore, they tend to be construed as irregular verbs.

Verb stems are formed by several markers including the passive *-am-*, the causative *-s-* or *-si(i)s*, and the autobenefactive or the middle voice */-at-/* suffixed to the verb roots or other stems. The conjugational forms might vary across different types of verbs.

Table 34. Autobenefactive Verbs in Conjugation

Person	Stem	Inflected form	Agr.		Asp.	Gloss
			Per	Num		
1sg	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-d-e [bitadde]</i>	<i>-d-</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘I bought:ABen’
2sg	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-t-e</i>	<i>-t-</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘You:sg bought:ABen’
3sgm	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-∅-e</i>	<i>-∅</i>	-	<i>-e</i>	‘he bought:ABen’
3sgf	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-t-e</i>	<i>-t-</i>		<i>-e</i>	‘she bought:ABen’
1pl	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-n-e</i>	<i>-∅</i>	<i>-n</i>	<i>-e</i>	‘We bought:ABen’
2pl	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-t-an-i</i>	<i>-t-</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>-i</i>	‘You:pl bought:ABen’
3pl	<i>bitat-</i>	<i>bitat-∅-an-i</i>	<i>-∅</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>-i</i>	‘They bought:ABen’

The table above shows that verb stems are inflected by occurring with the markers of grammatical functions that occur following the derivational suffixes. Autobenefactive verbs show distinct conjugational form with 1sg subject in occurrence of agreement morphemes in verbs. The autobenefactive verb with this subject is suffixed by the morpheme *-d-* as its agreement marker. Mohammed and Zaborski (1990: 22) considers *-add* as a morpheme of reflexive, middle voice and hence autobenefactive which is appended to verb root. However, I argue that the agreement marker *-d-* should be considered here because if we consider *-add* itself as one morpheme it could be difficult to stripe the roots out on the verb forms like *ñaat-d-e* ‘I ate’ which disitinctly shows the functional differences of the morphemes. The agreement autobenefactiv/middle voice suffix is *-at* which undergoes phonological process of assimilation with the agreement marker *-d-*. The suffix *-d-* shares its features to the final /t/ of the marker *-at* as *bitat-d-e* → *bitad-d-e* ‘I bought:ABen’. The occurrence pattern of these markers is regular in that way with such verbs.

4.2 Verb Inflection

Different inherent and agreement grammatical categories account for the inflection of verbs in Oromo. The inherent ones are aspect, mood, and voice whereas the agreement properties include person, number, gender and case. Several studies, especially the earlier ones, consider tense in

the inflectional categories of verbs in the Oromo language (Hodson and Walker 1922: 29; Nordfeldt 1947:117; Launhardt 1973: 71; Gragg 1976: 189; Mohammed and Zaborski 1990: 7; Griefenew-mewis 2003: 72ff). From the three major tenses present, past and future, Oromo mainly identifies between past and non-past in its morphology because the morphological markers do not distinguish each tense types. For example, present and future tenses are not distinctly marked in the morphology of the language when tense is considered. Owens (1985: 82) distinguishes between past and imperfective in which the imperfective conveys present and future tenses. Therefore, the morphological distinctions that are overtly marked on verbs point to aspect rather than tense (Dabala and Meyer 2003: 162; Kebede 2009: 41). However, some extent of tense related concept is also found in the Oromo language. Some grammatical forms need tense-wise consideration which can be categorized under the two aspect types.

4.2.1 Inherent Inflectional Properties of Verbs

Booij (1995: 2) identifies verbal inflection as tense, aspect, mood and voice adding that the important categories are three being tense, aspect and mood. The three main functional domains of inherent verb inflection in the Oromo language are aspect, mood and voice with some indications of tenses.

4.2.1.1 Aspect

Comrie (1976: 3) states, “Aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation”. According to his view, in aspect languages, perfective aspect has relation with inchoative¹⁰ forms that it conveys state changes. Aspect is context related which morphologically distinguishes between completeness and incompleteness of an action. It is bound with situation and duration unlike tense which is just about time of an event in relation with the speech time. In the Oromo language the roots or stems of verbs, usually ending in consonant, take inflectional morphemes showing distinction between perfective and imperfective aspects (Dabala and Meyer 2003:162). Heine (1981), as stated in Kebede (2009:41), notes, “these two aspects are distinguished primarily by their suffix vowel, which is *-a* (and its allomorphs *-i* and *-u*) for the imperfect and *-e* (and its allomorph *-i*) for the perfective.” The continued actions are categorized as imperfective aspect whereas a short and completed action can be considered as perfective aspect. Dehl (1985) as stated in Bybee and Dehl (1989:84) says a

¹⁰ Verbs that show change of state on its own are inchoative forms.

perfective verb denotes a single event that happens which is seen as a whole regardless of duration. In their two major parts showing past and non-past, Oromo verbs are marked for such distinction of aspect. Perfective aspect can, of course, be illustrated in connection with a sense of past tense. The concept of perfectness is that an action is prior to a specific moment in time whereas the imperfectness is connected with an action in process or in progress.

[16] *iʃee-n hoj-ičča t'umur-t-e*
 she-Nom work-Sing finish-3sgf-Perf

‘She finished the work’

The perfect form indicates an action is complete at a specific time in the past as in example [16]. Imperfective aspect indicates a longer lasting action as in *dufaa jira* ‘he is coming’. When an action in progress is indicated by applying an auxiliary verb, it occurs with a sense of existing in some kind of experience. Therefore, the marker *-aa* of progressive suffix is appended to the action verb in its semantic compatibility with the auxiliary *as*. The progressive marker *-aa* seemingly a verbal noun is converbally used in Oromo being grammaticalized for present progressive form (Banti 2003: 9).

Oromo identifies between past and non-past which can be considered in aspectual property. The markers of perfective and imperfective aspects *-e* and *-a* respectively occur on main verbs. When tense is considered, the perfect tenses and progressive tenses occur with auxiliaries *jir-* (present form) and *tur-* (past form) with their forms of agreement in inflection. Hence, the agreement markers are suffixed to the auxiliary verbs. The auxiliary verb always follows the main verb in a sentence. The aspect is, mainly, noticed on the converbal or progressive verb forms.

Table 35. Aspectual Distinction on Verbs

Verb type	Root	Perf form	Gloss	Impf form	Gloss
Action	<i>kuf-</i>	<i>kuf-e</i>	‘fell-Perf’	<i>kuf-a</i>	‘fall-impf’
Auxiliary	<i>jir-</i>	<i>jira</i> (present)	‘exist-Perf’	<i>jira</i> (present)	‘exist-impf’
	<i>tur-</i>	<i>ture</i> (past)	‘exist-Perf’	<i>ture</i> (past)	‘exist-impf’

The difference between perfective and imperfective is marked on the main verbs, so that when the auxiliary verbs are used, the converbal forms with the auxiliaries distinguish between and

imperfective aspect in connection with tense. The markers of perfective and imperfective aspects are *-e* and *-a* on action verbs respectively. The converbal form with *-ee* as in *duf-ee* ‘come-Conv’ is perfective whereas the progressive form with *-aa* as in *duf-aa* ‘come-PRG’ is imperfective with tense considered. Look at the following examples in sentences.

[17] (b) *Fufaa-n mana bul-ee ĵir-Ø-a*
 Fufaa-Nom home spend night-Conv:Perf Aux-3sgm
 ‘Fufa has spent the night at home.’

(b) *Fufaa-n mana bul-ee tur-Ø-e*
 Fufaa-Nom home spend night-Conv:Perf Aux-3sgm
 ‘Fufa had spent the night at home’

As in examples [17] (a) the perfect form but present is like present perfect tense form provided by auxiliary verb *ĵir-* ‘exist’. The converbal forms *bulee* ‘spend night-Conv’ determines aspect of the sentence. Both of the sentences (a) and (b) above are perfective aspect based on the forms of the converbs, and the perfective aspect marker *-e* is noticed on those verbas. Utilization of the auxiliary verbs shows the sense of tense. Considering the final vowels of the auxiliaries in aspect distinction is irrelevant. Shifting the converb marker *-ee* to the progressive marker *-aa* changes the aspect of both sentences into imperfective aspect in the same construction. What determines in the aspectual distinction is the inflectional form of the action verb occurring before the auxiliaries in a sentence. In progressive and perfect tense forms, when the first person singular noun or pronoun becomes subject of a sentence the obligatory agreement marker *-n* follows the lengthened forms of the markers of converbal construction as in *mana bul-ee-n tur-e* ‘I had spent the night at home’ The agreement marker *-n* functions to keep the meaning of the sentence if the independent subject pronoun is left out. The subject is understood from the verb suffix. The occurrence of the suffix *-n* is for the purpose of the subject agreement (cf. section 4.2.3.1).

Different forms of sentences in perfective aspect can be the same in their negative constructions. For example, the sentence *Fufaan mana hin bul-n-e [bul-le]* ‘Fufa didn’t spend the night at home’ is the negative form for different forms in the perfective aspect. It is formed by the preverbal negative particle *hin* and the dependent suffix on the verb *-n-*. Both of these elements are used together at the same time.

Table 36. Summary of Perfective and imperfective aspects

Aspects	Person	Root <i>mur-</i> 'cut'	Agreement		Asp.	Inflected form
			Per.	Num.		
Perfective	1sg	<i>mur-</i>	-∅	-	-e	<i>mur-∅-e</i>
	2sg	<i>mur-</i>	-t	-	-e	<i>mur-t-e</i>
	3sgm	<i>mur-</i>	-∅	-	-e	<i>mur-∅-e</i>
	3sgf	<i>mur-</i>	-t	-	-e	<i>mur-t-e</i>
	1pl	<i>mur-</i>	-∅	-n	-e	<i>mur-n-e</i> [<i>mur-r-e</i>]
	2pl	<i>mur-</i>	-t	-an	-i	<i>mur-t-an-i</i>
	3pl	<i>mur-</i>	-∅	-an	-i	<i>mur-an-i</i>
Imperfective	1sg	<i>mur-</i>	-∅-	-	-a	<i>mur-∅-a</i>
	2sg	<i>mur-</i>	-t	-	-a	<i>mur-t-a</i>
	3sgm	<i>mur-</i>	-∅-	-	-a	<i>mur-∅-a</i>
	3sgf	<i>mur-</i>	-t	-	-i	<i>mur-t-i</i>
	1pl	<i>mur-</i>	-n-	-	-a	<i>mur-n-a</i> [<i>mur-r-a</i>]
	2pl	<i>mur-</i>	-t	-	-u	<i>mur-t-u</i>
	3pl	<i>mur-</i>	-∅-	-	-u	<i>mur-∅-u</i>

The table above shows the suffixal vowels *-e* and *-a*, essentially, distinguish perfective and imperfective aspects as is noticed in the Oromo language. However, the allomorph *-i* is used with 2pl and 3pl subjects for perfective aspect marking. On the other hand, *-i* marks imperfective aspect when it is used with 3sgf subject, and the suffix *-u* is an imperfective aspect marker occurring with 2pl and 3pl subjects. Therefore, the markers *-i*, and *-u* are allomorphs of the aspect marker *-a* occurring in complementary distribution whereas the marker *-i* occurs as allomorphic variant of *-e* for perfective aspect. When the auxiliaries are used in the perfect and progressive tenses, the auxiliaries are followed by converbal form of main verbs, and aspect is also shown on the converbal or progressive verb forms.

4.2.1.2 Mood

Mood is the attitude of the speaker towards an utterance. It is originally from the word 'mode' which means a specific way of doing something. Modality, which is also originated from 'mode', is more ideal and is about the existence of a particular way of speaking. According to Arin (2003: 15), modality is connected with the involvement of the speaker's attitude and non-factivity in any utterance whereas the factive is truth or reality. In connection with the styles of

speech which arises from involvement of feeling, Oromo has several types of moods from which four modal forms indicative, imperative and jussive are considered in this work.

4.2.1.2.1 Indicative mood: which involves making statements and asking questions constitutes the most common clause type in Oromo. In its construction, yes/no question is similar with declarative sentence except the final vowel length along with intonational relevance on the question form (Debela and Rooney 2003:182).

[18] *Boruu-n kitaaba barreess-Ø-e*
Boruu-Nom book:ABS write-3sgm-Perf
‘Boru wrote a book’

The subject is placed at the beginning of declarative sentences as in examples [18]. However, in interrogative sentences also, the subject is placed at the beginning. What makes interrogative is intonational variation. Actually, the subject can be placed either at the beginning or at the end of a sentence in both declarative and interrogative sentences. This is a kind of topicality shift from subject to object or theme in syntactic consideration.

4.2.1.2.2 Imperative Mood: In Oromo, the imperative begins by the object as it precedes the verb in word order of the language. Intransitive verbs are used at the beginning of the sentence in the form of the subject ‘you’ understood. However, it may happen following motion verbs like *deemuu* ‘to go’ or *kaʔuu* ‘to stand’ in their converbal forms. The motion verbs often precede the objects of transitive verbs, and they happen in the terminating vowel length.

A verb in its agreement form of number may occur at the before an imperative verb. Such form of verb is used in a converbally marked verb as in *kaʔ-ii deem-i* ‘stand and go-2sg:Imp’, it can be followed by either an intransitive verb or an object of a transitive verb.

[19] *kitaaba sana fid-i*
book:ABS that:ABS bring-2sg:Imp
‘Bring that book’

Sentence [19] implies that an object in its absolute form often occurs at the beginning of imperative sentences. Modifiers of the object may occur following it as sister words in the noun phrase in the object form. In addition to verbs and objects, modifiers of verbs (adverbs) may also

occur at the beginning of an imperative sentence as in *ǰabeess-ii k'ab-i* 'catch firmly'. When the modifiers or other verbs begin the imperative verb, they agree with the subject in harmony with the imperative verb.

Imperative verbs are also inflected by suppletive form using a completely different word of inflection. For example, the word *koott-* 'come' which is inflected for singular and plural number by the markers *-u* and *-aa* respectively is used only in the imperative form. The verb *dıf-* is not used in imperative construction but in the indicative form.

Table 37. Imperative Form by Suppletive

Person	Verb root	Inflected form	Marker	Meaning
2sg	<i>dıf-</i>	<i>koott-u</i>	<i>-u</i>	'(you) come'
2pl	<i>dıf-</i>	<i>koott-aa</i>	<i>-aa</i>	'(you guys) come'

The verb root *koott-* is an imperative form of the verb root *dıf-* 'come'. After it becomes in imperative mood by inflection through the use suppletive form, it identifies between the understood subject 2sg and 2pl form by agreement markers *-u* and *-aa* respectively. This suppletive form is typical to imperative form whereby the other modal forms occur with the verb root *dıf-* instead. Therefore, occurrence of the verb *dıf-* in imperative form is ungrammatical as in **dıf-i* 'come-Imp'. In affirmative imperative sentences, the converb agrees with the subject in number and occurs in harmony with the imperative verb in its final vowel.

Negative forms of verbs in imperative sentences occur in a little bit special way. The particle *hin* and the dependent suffix *-n* both mark negativity. The suffix *-aa* marks mood and plural number the verb of an imperative form.

Table 38. Affirmative and Negative Verbs in the Imperative mood

Verb types	Affirmative Imperative							
	Person	Verb root	Imp	Inflected Verb		Gloss		
Action	2sg	<i>bit-</i>	<i>-i</i>	<i>bit-i</i>		'(you sg) buy'		
	2pl	<i>bit-</i>	<i>-aa</i>	<i>bit-aa</i>		'(you pl) buy'		
ABen.	2sg	<i>bit-at-[bit-ad-]</i>	<i>-u</i>	<i>bit-at-u [bitadû]</i>		'(you sg) buy:ABen'		
	2pl	<i>bit-at-[bit-ad-]</i>	<i>-aa</i>	<i>bit-at-aa [bitadâaa]</i>		'(you pl) buy:ABen'		
Negative Imperative								
	Person	Neg.	Verb root	Imp	Neg	Imp	Inflected verb	Gloss
Action	2sg	<i>hin</i>	<i>bit-</i>	<i>-i-</i>	<i>-n</i>	-	<i>hin bit-i-n</i>	'Don't buy'
	2pl	<i>hin</i>	<i>bit-</i>	-	<i>-n</i>	<i>-aa</i>	<i>hin bit-i-n-aa</i>	'Don't buy'
ABen.	2sg	<i>hin</i>	<i>bit-at-[bit-at-]</i>	<i>-i-</i>	<i>-n</i>	-	<i>hin bit-at-i-n</i>	'Don't buy:ABen'
	2pl	<i>hin</i>	<i>bit-at-[bit-at]</i>	-	<i>-n</i>	<i>-aa</i>	<i>hin bit-at-i-n-aa</i>	'Don't buy:ABen'

The table indicates distinct forms of imperative verbs in their affirmative and negative occurrences. It shows that in the positive form, imperative mood with singular subject is marked by *-i-* and *-u* on ordinary verbs and autobenefactive/middle verbs respectively. When plural subject is used, the marker of mood together with number will be *-aa* for normal verb and for the autobenefactive and the middle voice ones. The markers *-u* and *-aa* in positive imperatives occurring with autobenefactive verbs are preceded by the morpheme *-d-* which marks the mood being with the agreement markers. In the negative forms of imperatives, the same marker *-i-* marks the person, number and mood occurring before the dependent negative suffix when singular subject is used. The same way applies for autobenefactive or the middle verbs. However, a plural subject along with mood is marked by *-aa* which is appended after the dependent negative suffix *-n* for both the autobenefactive and normal verbs.

When a verb occurs at the beginning of the negative imperative form, the converbal form marked by *-ee* or *-ii* is used. The terminating long vowel on the converb functions for identifying singular and plural numbers respectively. The interesting point is that in the negative form of imperative mood with plural subject, the second person singular marker *-i-* seems to be still occurring as in Table 30. Its function seems, but, no more related with person, number and mood marking, it will change to be like an epenthetic element for keeping the occurrence of the dependent suffix *-n* after vowel (which will be lengthened); for example, *hin k'ab-n-aa* → *hin k'ab-i-n-aa* 'Don't catch-Ep-Neg-2pl' in which the vowel *-i* has the function of epenthesis.

4.2.1.2.3 Jussive Mood: Debela and Meyer (2003: 182) states that imperative and jussive have semantic and morphological features in common. Jussive mood is marked by the pre-verbal particle *haa* and the dependent suffix *-u* or *-i* on the verb. They co-occur in a sentence to mark mood and aspect. The suffixes mainly mark imperfective aspect. This construction is, however, rather syntactic. Here are few examples:

[20] (a) *gurb-ičč-i* *haa* *duf-Ø-u*
 boy-Sing-Nom Juss come-3sgm-Impf

‘Let the boy come’

(b) *isaan* *haa* *duf-an-i*
 they:Nom Juss come-3pl:Impf

‘Let them come’

Jussive sentences are constructed with the types 3sgm, 3sgf, 1pl and 3pl subjects. All the subjects in the jussive sentence occur in the nominative case. Examples [20] (a) and (b), indicate that the suffixes co-occurring with the preverbal particle *haa* are *-u* and *-i* that are used with singular and plural subjects respectively. Jussive mood is basically conveyed in the preverbal particle *haa* in the syntactic form. From the seven pronouns in Oromo, four of them, as mentioned above in comment of examples [20], are constructed in jussive form whereas the two second person singular *ati* and plural *isin* are in imperative form. The first person singular pronoun *ana* ‘I’ does not occur in jussive form. Here are few examples:

Negative forms of the jussive sentences is similar across the pronouns used which means the verb in the negative jussive doesn’t occur agreeing with subject in number and person. The negative jussive sentences are formed by the proclitic *hin* along with its coexisting dependent suffix *-n* on the verb. First person plural subject occurs only in positive jussive form.

Table 39. Summary of Marking Jussive Mood

Jussive Mood						
Person	Jussive	Root	Agr.	Asp.	Inflected form	Gloss
3sgm	<i>haa</i>	<i>deem-</i>	-Ø-	- <i>u</i>	<i>haa deem-u</i>	‘Let him go’
3sgf	<i>haa</i>	<i>deem-</i>	- <i>t-</i>	- <i>u</i>	<i>haa deem-t-u</i>	‘Let her go’
3pl	<i>haa</i>	<i>deem-</i>	- <i>an</i>	- <i>i</i>	<i>haa deem-an-i</i>	‘Let them go’
1pl	<i>haa</i>	<i>deem-</i>	- <i>n-</i>	- <i>u</i>	<i>haa deem-n-u</i>	‘Let us go’
Negative Jussive Mood						
Person	Neg	Root	Agr	Neg	Inflected form	Gloss
3sgm	<i>hin</i>	<i>deem-</i>	-	- <i>n</i>	<i>hin deem-i-n</i>	‘Don’t let him go’
3sgf	<i>hin</i>	<i>deem-</i>	-	- <i>n</i>	<i>hin deem-i-n</i>	‘Don’t let her go’
3pl	<i>hin</i>	<i>deem-</i>	-	- <i>n</i>	<i>hin deem-i-n</i>	‘Don’t let them go’
1pl	<i>hin</i>	<i>deem-</i>	-	-	-	-

The suffix *-u* and its allomorph *-i*, occurring with the preverbal particle *haa*, marks jussive mood in positive construction. The morph *-u* is suffixed to verb root or stem with 3sgm, 3sgf, and 1pl subjects whereas *-i* occurs with 3pl subjects in jussive mood.

In positive jussive forms the verb occurs in agreement with the subject in number and person whereas in negative, it doesn’t distinguish among the subjects. The form *hin deemiin* which literally means ‘don’t go’ is used with all the three person types except with the first person plural one. Of course, negative form in the jussive mood is rare and situation based in which this expression might occur in giving a negative response to the question *haa deemuu?* ‘Shall we let him go?’ which will be *hin deem-i-n* Neg go-Juss-Neg ‘don’t let him go’. Before the dependent negative marker *-n*, the vowel *-i* marks jussive mood being supported by the context.

4.2.1.3 Voice

Voice is a verb form that relates action of a verb with its participants (or arguments). It tells us if the subject performs or receives the action indicated by the verb. When the subject performs the action the voice is active whereas the form in which the subject receives the action is passive voice. Using sentence types in which the verb form is changed for the purpose of such grammatical function is inflectional. According to several theories like Government and Binding

theory and minimalist approach, passive formation is a syntactic process in which the subject object exchange happens so that subject in active becomes object in the passive form and vice versa. The lexical-functional approach treats passive formation as a morphological process. Being in favor of the Lexical-functional approach, Wondwossen (2012:10) considers that passive formation in Oromo is purely morphological as it is formed by adding the morpheme *-am* on transitive verbs. Based on the Lexical-functional approach, this thesis treats voice as morphological form in inflection. The passive morpheme *-am*, in Oromo, is an invariable morpheme across subjects and aspects. Voice involves all valency changing verb forms including causative and middle; however, my consideration in this thesis is the most common ones – active and passive forms. Here are few examples in the table below:

Table 40. Active and Passive Verbs

Voice	Root	Marker	Inflected form	Meaning
Active	<i>kut-</i>	-	<i>kut-e</i>	‘cut’
	<i>gurgur-</i>	-	<i>gurgur-e</i>	‘sold’
Passive	<i>kut-</i>	<i>-am-</i>	<i>kut-am-e</i>	‘was cut’
	<i>gurgur-</i>	<i>-am-</i>	<i>gurgur-am-e</i>	‘was sold’

In the table above, the examples indicate verb forms for voice change in perfective aspect. In both perfective and imperfective aspects, the morpheme *-am-* invariably marks the passive voice in contrast with the unmarked active form. The verb form contains the morpheme *-am* in its passive voice. Although lexical-functional approach is applied and hence morphological inflectional occurrence of voice is dealt with, in the syntactic consideration, the demoted agent subjects become object with the suffixed instrumental marker *-n* which occurs after vowel length in passive construction.

4.2.2 Copular Constructions

A copula is a kind of verb that functions to link a subject with predicate nominative or predicate adjective. The invariable copulas in the language are *da* and its negative form *miti*. Other copulas *-ti* (in genitive constructions) and *-i* (with nouns that end in consonant) are also functional in the language. In addition to these copular words or suffixes, the final short vowels on some nouns and adjectives can be considered as copula in the language.

Table 41. Copular Forms

Base forms	Copular forms	Meaning	Copulas for focus	Meaning
<i>farda</i>	<i>farda-Ø</i>	‘is horse’	<i>farda-da</i>	‘is horse’
<i>isa</i>	<i>isa-Ø</i>	‘is him’	<i>isa-da</i>	‘is him’
<i>goota</i>	<i>goota-Ø</i>	‘is brave’	<i>goota-da</i>	‘is brave’
<i>bišaan</i>	<i>bišaan-i</i>	‘is water’	<i>bišaan-i-da</i>	‘is water’
<i>loon</i>	<i>loon-i</i>	‘are cattle’	<i>loon-i-da</i>	‘are cattle’
<i>aannan</i>	<i>aannan-i</i>	‘is milk’	<i>aannan-i-da</i>	‘is milk’
<i>raammoo</i>	-	-	<i>raammoo-da</i>	‘is worm’
<i>muč’aa</i>	-	-	<i>muč’aa-da</i>	‘is baby’
<i>adii</i>	-	-	<i>adii-da</i>	‘is white’

Nominas that end in short vowel, especially, in *-a* are understood for the covert copula in sentences as in *nuti tokko* ‘we are one’. Zero morpheme in the table above is to indicate that the copula is understood in a sentence to exist with no any phonological form. The vowel *-i* is a copula on *-C* final nominal which can formally and functionally be identified in the language, Oromo. According to Debela and Meyer (2003: 172), the copula *-da* is a focus marker. It states that direct objects are marked for contrastive focus by the copula *-da*, and adjuncts are also used with this copula in focus indication. As can be seen in the table above, the function of the copula *-da* is pervasively for focus marking except after long vowel in which its occurrence is obligatory the function is linking the subject to the complement. Therefore, the final short vowels can be considered copula whereas the copula occurring with such forms is contrastive marker of predicate adjective or object the copular verb itself. Ishetu (1981: 9ff) treats *-da* as a morpheme with allomorphic occurrence with *-i*, *-ti*, and *Ø*, but it is a morphological copula that functions as focus marker being a verbal nature semantically.

When *-C* final nominal is suffixed by *-i* and *-da* at the same time, it will be clear that the vowel *-i* is copula, and the copula *-da* is functionally shifted to focus marking. This is because the copula *-da* is optional element and it does not bring meaning change if it is removed. The remaining *-i* makes sense of copular function in the presence of *-da* and in its absence. We can also understand this from occurrence of the negative correspondent of *-da* which is *miti*. It doesn’t occur with vowel *-i* at copular position, **kun bišaan-i-miti* ‘This is not water’ because both are

copulas that they cannot be used together. The negative copula can be used instead of all the positive copulas.

[21] (a) *kun* *bišaan-i*
 this:Nom water-Cop
 ‘This is water’

(b) *kun* *bišaan-i-da*
 this:Nom water-Cop-Foc
 ‘This is water’

These two sentences in example [21] (a) and (b) are the same in content, except the focus phenomenon that the copula *-da* adds on sentence (b). The positive copula *da* occurs in the function as verb when it follows long vowel.

The copula *-ti* occurs in genitive construction only so that it is in complementary distribution with the other copulas mentioned above. Isetu (1981: 12) indicates that the morpheme *-ti* is a copula used in genitive construction, and it is contrary to analysis of Gragg (1976: 183 which considers it as optional possessive marker. Owens (1985: 105) considers *-ti* as an intrusive element following genitive case marker (vowel length). This work is on the side of Isetu (1981); the copular variant *-ti* has the function of linking a genitive nominal in the predicate with a subject. It can be used twice if the double genitive forms are noticed in a sentence.

[22] *kun* [*mana* [*abbaa koo-ti(i)*]-*ti*]
 this:Nom house father my-Cop -Cop
 ‘This is the house of my father’

The double genitive form in a sentence makes the copula *-ti* to be duplicated with the number of the genitive forms in Wallaga Oromo. This shows that the copula is tied with the genitive marker as in example [22]. It seems that the negative copula *miti* also occurs in the same way taking the place of the second copula as *kun* [*mana* [*abbaa koo-ti*] *-miti*]. However, in dialectal variation, only one copula is also used.

4.2.3 Agreement Properties of Verbs

Agreement, which can be construed as an instance of inflection, is a change in a form of a word depending on the other word/words to which it relates. Several grammatical features are marked by agreement properties. The agreement inflection occurs on a word when it is triggered by the grammatical categories that do not refer to its domain of the inherent inflectional/grammatical categories. Inflection of agreement occurs based on the context of a sentence and it is an additional marker to corroborate (or confirm) the argument¹¹ used. Booij (2009:7) states that a contextual inflection tends to be peripheral to inherent inflection. Therefore, the contextual or agreement properties function to confirm the appropriateness of relating the syntactic arguments and the theme of the verb on the basis of the grammar of a particular language. Verbs are marked by different agreement markers in Oromo.

4.2.3.1 Suffixes of Agreement in Oromo

Oromo is a suffixing language in which other affix types do not exist. Its agreement markers are for the subject agreement only. Kebede (2009:43) considers that verbs are marked for person by *-n* (1pl), *-t* (2sg) and *-ti* (3sgf) on roots or stems. However, the agreement morpheme for third person singular feminine is rather *-t* instead of *-ti*. The verb occurs in agreement with subject in person, number and gender in Oromo. Zero morphemes are also used on verbs for some properties especially for third person singular masculine subject agreement. Some agreement properties are indicated by syncretism in which different grammatical functions are marked by the same form.

¹¹ A sentence may use one or two or three arguments based on the content of syntactic theme. The participants (subject, object, etc.) of an action of a verb are arguments in a sentence.

Table 42. Person, Number and Gender Agreement Markers in verbs

Person	Verb root	Agreement		Asp.	Inflected Form	Gloss
		Per.	Num.			
1sg	<i>duf-</i>	-Ø-	-	- <i>e</i>	<i>duf-Ø-e</i>	‘I came’
2sg	<i>duf-</i>	-t-	-	- <i>e</i>	<i>duf-t-e</i>	‘You (sg) came’
3sgm	<i>duf-</i>	-Ø-	-	- <i>e</i>	<i>duf-Ø-e</i>	‘He came’
3sgf	<i>duf-</i>	-t-	-	- <i>e</i>	<i>duf-t-e</i>	‘She came’
1pl	<i>duf-</i>	-Ø	-n	- <i>e</i>	<i>duf-Ø-n-e</i>	‘We came’
2pl	<i>duf-</i>	-t	-an	- <i>i</i>	<i>duf-t-an-i</i>	‘You (pl) came’
3pl	<i>duf-</i>	-Ø	-an	- <i>i</i>	<i>duf-Ø-an-i</i>	‘They came’

The table above shows the agreement between the subject pronouns and verbs by the markers suffixed on a verb. For the plural person types (subjects), the verb is marked for agreement separating person and number unlike the singular subjects whose agreement morpheme represents both person and number features of agreement. The two way agreement marking, as seen in Table 42, is clearly noticed on 2pl subject that marks person and number by distinct morphemes *-t-* and *-an* respectively.

The first person singular pronoun shows special occurrence of agreement. The pronoun suffix occurs, especially, with copulas and auxiliary verbs and in progressive tense forms. It can be marked on verbs by zero morpheme whereas it is also marked by *-(a)n* appended on verbs or on other word types in predicate. For example, *mugaa-n jira* ‘I am slumbering’. In this sentence, the subject is understood to be ‘I’ from the suffix *-n* on the progressive verb. It’s clear that subject agreement on verbs is realized verb internally that is before aspect markers; however, 1sg pronoun can occur at the final position of verbs. Ofcourse it does occur not only with verbs but also with different word categories in the predicate phrase. Debela and Meyer (2003: 179) states that the morpheme *-(a)n* is an agreement marker for first person singular subjects. It seems that the suffix *-(a)n* is the pronoun itself behaving as a morphological element appended to different word classes in the predicate phrase. Wherever it occurs, its function is distinguishing the subject in the form of agreement.

Table 43. The Agreement Suffix *-(a)n*

Base form	Inflected form	Gloss
<i>leenč'a</i>	<i>leenč'a-n</i>	lion-1sg
<i>har?a</i>	<i>har?a-n</i>	today-1sg
<i>harka</i>	<i>harkaa-n-an</i>	'hand-Inst-1sg'
<i>Waak'a</i>	<i>Waak'aa-f-an</i>	'God-Ben-1sg'
<i>dufuu</i>	<i>duf-ee-n</i>	'come-Conv-1sg'
<i>kana</i>	<i>kana-n</i>	'this-1sg'
<i>č'ima</i>	<i>č'ima-n</i>	'strong-1sg'

In the table above, all the words occurring with the morpheme *-(a)n* are different either in word category or in their paradigmatic function though some of them are clearly distinguished when they are put in sentence. Here is one example sentence:

- [23] *an-i barataa č'ima-n fil-e*
 I-Nom student:VN strong-1sg select-Perf

'I selected an intelligent student'

The suffix *-n* on the adjective *č'ima* 'strong' in example [23] functions as an agreement marker for the subject. In such occurrence of the morpheme *-(a)n* in a sentence, presence of the subject *an-i* 'I-Nom' is not obligatory as the morpheme distinguishes it. It occurs just for emphasis of the nominative case. When two converbs occur in a sentence, the agreement marker of first person singular subject can occur on either of them.

- [24] *deem-ee ilaal-ee-n deebi?-a*
 go-Conv watch-Conv-1sg return-Perf

'I will go, watch and come back'

In example [24], the first two verbs are in converbal construction either of which can be suffixed the 1sg marker *-(a)n*. In Wallaga Oromo, the form *ilaal-ee-n* 'watch-Conv-1sg' can also be used as *ilaal-ee-t-an* 'watch-Conv-Ep-1sg', in which the epenthetic consonant *-t-* is inserted between the converbal suffix and the pronoun suffix when the the morpheme begins with the optional vowel *-a-* which can be varied to *-i-* as in *bor-in* 'tomorrow-1sg'(dialectal).

The morphemic pronoun *-(a)n* can also occur with functional words like the focus marker *hin* which marks action of a verb in focus. Several studies like Baye (1988: 368); Debela and Meyer (2003: 166) state that the preverbal element *hin* marks focus on the verb seemingly obligatory with intransitive verbs in declarative sentences. My point is apart from explaining focus marking systems; but it is to show the relation between *hin* and *nan* both occurring preverbally to avoid the confusion in the functional and formal occurrences between the two.

The preverbal element *nan* is formed from combination the reducible focus marker *(h)in* and the 1sg marker *-(a)n* under phonological processes of deletion. It forms up a portmanteau [*nan*] by combining the two separate elements.

$$(h)in \text{ 'Foc' } + (a)n \text{ '1sg' } \rightarrow inan \rightarrow [nan]$$

It means, the preverbal element *nan* portrays both focus and 1sg marking. This is because of several reasons: 1, the 1sg marker *-(a)n* can occur with different words in the predicate phrase (cf. Table 43) which means inclusive of the functional elements like *hin*. 2, the 1sg pronoun doesn't occur with the focus marker *hin* but with *nan* instead which means *nan* can replace the function of *hin*. 3, the preverbal element *nan* restricts the subject whereas *hin* doesn't function like this.

Table 44. Preverbal Elements *nan* and *hin*

Person	Root	<i>nan</i> 'Foc'	<i>(h)in</i> 'Foc'
1sg	<i>fid-</i>	<i>nan fid-a</i>	-
2sg	<i>fid-</i>	-	<i>hin fid-t-a [fid-d-a]</i>
3sgm	<i>fid-</i>	-	<i>hin fid-Ø-a</i>
3sgf	<i>fid-</i>	-	<i>hin fid-t-i [fid-d-i]</i>
1pl	<i>fid-</i>	-	<i>hin fid-n-a [fin-n-a]</i>
2pl	<i>fid-</i>	-	<i>hin fid-t-u [fid-d-u]</i>
3pl	<i>fid-</i>	-	<i>hin fid-an-i</i>

When *nan* occurs preverbally in parallel with the occurrence of *(h)in*, its function is focus marking in the obligatory form hand in hand with 1sg marking. Therefore, when the 1sg marker *-(a)n* is a 1sg pronoun marker which can also combine with *(h)in* for focus marking. Haimanot

(1984: 9) considers *nan* as an obligatory prefix for first person singular pronoun in the same function with the focus marker *hin* though it doesn't describe its internal form in terms of function. However, it is, in my view, a portmanteau¹² like preverbal element containing both (*h*)*in* of focus and *-an* of first person singular pronoun.

Autobenefactive and middle voice are marked by the suffix *-at-* in Oromo. Even though both are marked by the same morpheme, they are semantically distinct. The autobenefactive form indicates that a subject performs something for its own benefit whereas the middle voice is about an action that is more closely connected with the subject for the same function in being benefactive.

Table 45. The Middle Voice Verb Forms

Subject	Root	Inlected forms
1sg	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-d-e</i> [<i>dik'-ad-d-e</i>] 'wash'
2sg	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-t-e</i> 'wash'
3sgm	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-Ø-e</i> 'wash'
3sgf	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-t-e</i> 'wash'
1pl	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-Ø-n-e</i> 'wash'
2pl	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-t-an-i</i> 'wash'
3pl	<i>dik'</i> -	<i>dik'-at-Ø-an-i</i> 'wash'

In Table 36, the morpheme *-at-* functions to mark an middle verb form because the action is performed on the affected agent, though, it is for the purpose of getting benefitted. The same marker *-at-* indicates the autobenefactive voice in which the action is performed on another thing (compare with ABen – Table 34); the benefitted subject is more affected in the middle form than the one in the autobenefactive counterpart (Shimelis 2009: 4). The morpheme *-at-* can be followed by the agreement marker *-d-* with first person singular subject as *indik'-at-d-e* → *dik'-ad-d-e* 'bought for myself', or it can be followed by *-n-* with first person plural subject as in *dik'-at-n-e* → *bit-an-n-e* 'bought for ourselves. It undergoes phonological process of assimilation

¹² When two or more elements of different form and function are combined together as one functional unit we call it a portmanteau. It seems one element containing two separate forms.

forming *-add* and *-ann* respectively which seem to be variants of the autobenefactive or the middle forms.

4.3 Adverbs in Inflection

Basically, many adverbs are derived from other parts of speech in Oromo. However, some words are fit to be categorized as adverbs (Nordfeldt 1947: 184). Almost all adverbs including the derived ones can be suffixed by *-uma* which makes the point of the adverb in focus. Example, *as-uma tur-n-a [tur-r-a]* ‘We will stay here’. Derived words from other parts of speech or phrasal forms are prominently used as adverbs in the language. Some stems derived from other word classes undergo inflection to agree with the subject in a sentence. The agreement marker is applied, particularly, on the adverbs that are derived from verbs.

[25] *inni barfat-ee duf-Ø-e*
 he:Nom late-Conv come-3sgm-Perf
 ‘He came late’

The adverbs that occur in agreement with subject are those which are derived from verbs. They occur in harmony with verbs showing agreement with subject in person, number and gender. As example [25] shows, the adverbs occur in the form of converbs with final vowel length.

Adverbs behave like nominal for that they can occur in nominative case taking the suffixes *-i*, *-n* and *-ni* of the nominative markers. During this, they are used as an adverbial noun subject. Adverbs are basically categories of predicate phrase that they cannot be treated in nominal inflection because they modify verbs. According to Baye (1986: 65) illustration, although adverbs are functionally verb restricting words, they behave like nominal taking markers of nominative case. It considers adverbs as part of nominals based on their inflectional behavior and that they occur with adpositions taking *-f* meaning ‘for’ as in *harʔaa-f* ‘for today’ whereas adpositions are basically occurring with nominals only.

Table 46. Adverbs in Nominative Case

Base form	Inflected form	Meaning
<i>harʔa</i>	<i>harʔ-i</i>	‘today’
<i>bakkee</i>	<i>bakkee-n</i>	‘outside’
<i>ala</i>	<i>al-ni [al-li]</i>	‘outside’

Adverbs in the nominative case are used as nominal they occur with the nominative case markers as seen above. However, their basic function and lexical class is predicative that the function as verb modifiers which, obviously, can be categorized in the predicat phrase of a sentence.

Adverbs undergo inflectional morphology for the agreement purposes. Agreement properties like number, gender and person are marked on the adverbs derived from verbs and they are constructed in converbal forms. Many adverbs can be inflected for case in which the markers of nominative, locative, ablative cases can be suffixed to adverbs.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

Oromo is a suffixal language in both derivational and inflectional morphology. The root form is usually meaningless and ends in consonant. Almost all word classes undergo inflectional morphology. Since several forms are indicated by the suffixes, there is a tendency to convey wider message in a short sentence that means fewer words may represent wider message in the language. A single morpheme has several grammatical functions as cumulative form. Syncretism and zero morphemes are significant, especially, in verb inflection. These are the tokens for justifying that the Oromo language is highly fusional, in which morphs are fused together for grammatical functions. Concatenation of the morphs seems complex.

The Oromo language is free of following its own SOV word order rule in a sentence because it is a morphologically marked language for case. Arguments of a predicate (theme) can be placed anywhere in a sentence as the marker is an indication of its paradigmatic property. The marked nominative language, Oromo, mostly marks the non-focused subjects. The focused ones are marked for nominative case by the focus marker itself.

Inflection of nominals follows the system in which all sister words of a noun in a noun phrase are declined in the same ways with the head noun. Nominals are inflected for the inherent grammatical categories of number, gender and singulative along with the relational category, case. Besides the irregular forms of plurality, number is marked by several types of morphs in which a member word of one type can be used with the other type. Definiteness has no any clear morpheme in Oromo. Nordfeldt (1947: 25) indicates that indefinite article is lacking in the language; however, both definite and indefinite nouns are not clearly and morphologically marked. Definiteness, though, can be conveyed under singulative markers having no any marker of its own. Masculine and feminine gender is distinctly marked by *-icca* and *-ittii* respectively for singulative property.

In inflection of nominals for cases, nominative case is marked by four allomorphs *-n*, *-ni*, *-i* and \emptyset occurring in complementary distribution. Absolutive case is the unmarked form which is considered as the base (object) form. Such are considered as the citation forms which Gragg (1976: 194) states that they end in vowels, called stem formatives. Dative case is marked by two underlying morphs *-f* and *-tti* though in surface forms vowel length only can be used in such

grammatical function. In genitive case, vowel length is used as a morpheme marking possession on nominals. It is also a marker of ablative case to mean ‘from’ conveying source, origin or starting point of something. The instrumental case marker *-n* occurs following a lengthened vowel on a noun. It can rarely be marked on verbs as in *farda kana deemii-n* ‘use this horse to go’. The morpheme *-f* marks beneficiary or benefactive case occurring after vowel length like that of dative case. It is used with the monovalent verbs. Locative case, which indicates a place where something happens, is marked by the suffix *-tti* in inflection. The last but not least case, vocative, can be marked morphologically by the enclitic *-na*. Pronoun inflection is declined for the same grammatical categories with the noun and follows almost the same rule of inflection. However, it involves more complex morphemic elements and suppletive forms than that of nouns. Double usage of pronoun in the dative case is permissible in Wallaga Oromo; one is placed before the direct object for emphatic purpose and the other is after.

In Oromo, reflexive forms and the middle forms are marked separately on separate or the same part of speech though their function is related. Reflexive is marked by *ofii*+pronoun as in *ofiisaa* ‘himself’ whereas the middle form is marked by the morpheme *-at-* suffixed on a verb root or stem. When they both occur on verbs, the proclitic, *of-*, marks reflexive form indicating that the action reflects back to the subject whereas the suffix *-at-* as the middle voice marker indicates that the affected subject is benefitted from the action. The middle voice indicates that the subject is more closely tied to the action of the verb in its affectedness. “The middle types involve a greater conceptual fusion between the initiating and the affected aspects of an entity than corresponding reflexive types (Shimelis 2009: 4). For some verb roots or stems that end in low vowel and /t/, the markers of aspect or mood are preceded by the morpheme *-d-* as in *naat-d-e* → *naad-d-e* ‘I ate’. Therefore, *-t* of the middle marker *-at-* is totally assimilated with the morpheme *-d-* which is an agreement marker for, especially, first person singular subject.

First person singular pronoun can be considered to occur in special agreement inflection. The 1sg marker *-(a)n* occurs as a suffix on one of the word classes in the predicate part with a covert or overt subject. It is also suffixed to the functional element *hin* to form a portmanteau like element *nan* combining *hin* and *nan* through phonological process as $(h)in + an \rightarrow inan \rightarrow [nan]$ which is used in parallel with *hin* as focus marker.

Object pronouns are marked by the morpheme *-n* following vowel length showing emphasis on the object form. This is understood more in discursive forms that the marker is to mean ‘it is not

someone else but'. Example, *anaa-n waam-Ø-e* 'me-Emph call-3sgm-Perf is to mean he called me not someone else.

Aspect, modality and voice are the inherent inflectional categories of verbs whereas person, number, gender and case are the agreement categories. Verbs distinguish between past and non-past and the forms indicate perfective and imperfective aspects in their inflectional morphology. A sense of tense also exists in the language though aspectual forms are more pervasive than tense. The perfective and imperfective aspects are, essentially, distinguished by the respective suffixes *-e* (or allomorph *-i*) and *-a* (or allomorphs *-i* and *-u*) on action verbs. Verbs are also morphologically inflected for different types of modality. Indicative mood is a statement form which is marked by the morphemes of perfective and imperfective aspects. Imperative mood is marked for modality using the morpheme *-i* (or allomorph *-u* and *-aa*) on the imperative verb. In negative forms, *hin* is used before the verb with the dependent negative marker *-n* on the verb after lengthened vowel of imperative marking (eg. *hin deem-i-n* 'don't go'). For second person plural subject, the long *-aa* of imperative marking follows the negative suffix *-n* in which the preceding *-i* turns to epenthetic function. Jussive mood is basically marked by a separate word *haa* before the verb in positive form, but the suffixes *-u* and *-i* on the verb is morphological.

Converb is morphologically marked in Oromo by lengthening the final vowel of a verb which is used before another verb in sequencing simultaneous events. This form can also be considered as adverbs that emerge from verbs as in *daf-ee deeme* 'he went away hurriedly'. The long *-ee* on the first word marks the adverb in converbal construction.

Except the copulas, the other verbs are subject to inflectional morphology in Oromo. In copular construction of a sentence, the predicate phrase can be conveyed without an overt verb. Some suffixes can be preceded by copula as is *eeboo-daa-n adams-Ø-e* 'He hunted with a spear'. In this example, the instrumental case marker *-n* is preceded by the copula *-da-*. In such occurrences, the copula functions to show cleft system in instrumental case for the easy understanding of the case in its morphology.

Agreement markers realized in verbs for plural subjects is two-way system in which person and number is separately marked by separate morphemes like *duf-t-an-i* 'come-2-pl-Perf'. This is contrastive singular forms in which one cumulative morpheme conveys both person and number features of agreement.

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Appendix A

Even though the data collected are, essentially, from introspection and informants, written texts have also been considered in order to look for some patterns in the Oromo language. Here is a sample text in this regard.

Imala Namicha Gamnaa (Oduu Durii Afaan Oromoo)

Yeroo durii, namni gamni tokko biyya gaara qabeessa tokko keessa jiraata ture. Biyyittiin baay'ee bareedduudha; garuu, yeroo hunda nyaata gaarii argachuun rakkisaa dha. Namoonni biyyittii kanaa gara biyyoota gaara dhabeessaatti deemuuf murteessani. Yeroo cabbiin baquu jalqabu, qabeenya isaanii hunda borsaa isaaniitti naqatu. Hamilee gaddaan makameen namtichi gammii fi olloonna isaa bakkee kana gadhiisanii ka'ani.

Namtich gamni kun akkuma manaa bahaniin waan tokko hubate. Guyyaadhaa guyyaatti utuma deemaa jeranii, irreen isaa inni mirgaa isa burkutaa'e¹. Akka fagaachaa deemaniin dadhabaa dhufan. Waan sadii namticha gamna kana dinqisiisani: tokkoffaa, yeroo mandara keessa dhaabatu hunda dadhabbiin irreesaa itti dhaga'ama; lamaffaa, yeroo imaltoonni biyya kana irraa deeman galgala galgala abidda birratti walga'anii odeessan irreen isaa jaabaachuu isaa hubate. Kalqi isaa inni sadaffaan immoo baay'ee isa dinqisiise. Yeroo irree isaa dugada isaa duuba godhatu, dhukubnii fi ofjibbinsi tokko illee itti hin dhaga'amu.

Guyyaa tokko namtichi gamni kun ni jeeqame. Akkuma borsaa isaa dadachaasee karaa gaaraa kanarra deemaa jiruun olloota isaa borsaa qabatanii fuuldura isaa jiran arge. Namootni kaanis irree isaanii duuba isaaniitti garagalchuun akka deemaa jiran hubate. Akkuma itti hiiqaa dhufeen, namoota dulloomaniif akkasuma irree isaanii funyoodhaan hidhataniiran² arge.

Maaliif akkas godhataniiru? Jedhee ajaa'ibame.

Dhumaratti biyyoota gaarreen hin qabne kanarra gahani. Qilleensi isaa qorraa ture. Dacheen ishee midhaan, bosonni ishee immoo saanqaa manaaf ta'an oomishti. Jireenyi kan hamilee qabdu fakkaatti³. Abdii godhatan, irreen isaanii burkutaa'uu irraa kan hafe. Dadhabbi cimaa kana kan fide qilleensa biyya gaara dhabeessaa kana irraan kan ka'edha oduun jedhu jira.

Namootni tokko tokkommoo biyya kana keessa turuuf, akkamittiin akka jiraattan barachuu qabu jedhu.

Namootni dulloomanii fi ijooleen hojjechuu qabu. Lafa qulqulleessan, midhaan facaasan, akkasumas muka mana haaraa ijaaruuf qopheessan. Namni biyya gaara qabeessa keessaa wayyaa hodhu tokko kootii irreen butute kana iddootti deebisee hodhe. Akkasumas kootii gogaa irraa hojetame kootii kana irratti dachaasuun ba'aa ulfaataan akka hin quuqne godhe. Garuu kootii haraadhuma kanaanuu hojiin akka garaatti hajjetamuu hin dandeenye waan harka tokko qofaa fayyadamaniif.

Namtichi gamni kun ammas waa haaraa tokko hubate. Tokkoffaa, akkam isaan dhukkubu illee ijoolleen ammas irree isaaniitti fayadamuun hojii jalqabuu isaanii hubate. Lammafaa, namtichi gamni kun kan inni hubate, yeroo namootni biyya gaara qabeessa kana irraa dhufan mana tokko keessatti walga'an, akkasumas balbala isaanii fi foddaa isaanii yeroo cufatan dadhabbiin hunda irraa akkasumas namoota dullooman irraallee ni bada. "Dhuguma" jedhu namootni baayeen, "kuni qilleensi biyya gaara dhabeessaa rakkina tokko qabaachuu isaa agarsiisa." Namootni baay'een furmaatni kanaa manoota qilleensa hin galchine biyya gaara dhabeessa kana keessatti ijaaruudha yaada jedhu irratti walii galani. Garuu, namtichi gamni kun baayee ajaa'ibame yeroo ijoolleen dadhabanii turan ala yeroo taphatanii fi hojjetan jabaachaa dhufuu isaanii yeroo argu.

Namtichi gamni kun⁴ namoota ollaa isaa biyya gaara qabeessa irraa dhufan osoo irree tokkittiin mana ijaarrachuuf yaalanii arge. Namootni kun haala kanaan rakkachuu isaanii sodaa guddaan itti dhaga'ame. Kootichi haaraan harkuma tokkoon dafanii dafanii⁵ akka hojetan isaan gargaare. Garuu bonni dhufaa jiraatu illee manas ta'e midhaan kan isaaniif xumuramaa jiru hin jiru haala ammaan yoo itti fufan.

Namtichi gamni kun ijoollee arge sana irraa waan tokko barate. Isa dhukubaa jiraatu irra irree isaa jabeeffachuu kan dand'u yoo hojii cimaa ittiin hojete qofaadha. Bonni waan dhufaa jiruuf mana isaa hojjetachuu akka qabu hubate⁶. Garuu, mana isaa osoo ganni hin dhufiin fixuu kan danda'u yoo harka isaa lama fayyadame qofaa akka ta'e beeka. Namtichi gamni kun mana isaa dafee fixuuf guyyaatti yeroo ta'e irree isaa jabeessuu irratti akka dabarsuu qabu murteesse.

Akkuma jedhe namtichi gamni kun irree isaa jabeessuu fi mana isaa hojeechuu itti fufe. Osoo ganni hin dhufiin mana isaa fixate.

Namootni biyya gaara qabeessa sana irraa dhufan gariin osoo midhaan hin ga'iniif fi osoo mana isaanii hin fixatiin waan cabbiin itti bu'eef ni dhumani. Waan hojichi nu jalaa dhaabbata jedhanii yaadaniif suuta hojjetaa turani.

Adopted from: [online \(free-english-lessons..../wmjourneyoromic.html\)](http://online(free-english-lessons..../wmjourneyoromic.html)

Some samples of notes from the text

- ¹ An enchoative verb which shows a change in state by itself.
- ² Action verb is used with auxiliary in a sentence so that it may show perfect tenses; for instance, /hid-at-anii dʒiru/ - [hid-at-anii-r-u] or [hid-at-anii-r-an] 'they have tied'. The two surface forms are for dialectal variation. They are used in perfective aspect.
- ³ Some non-human and inanimate things are used as feminine gender in Wallaga Oromo. The noun *dʒireen-ni* [dʒireen-ni] 'life:Nom' is used in this gender.
- ⁴ In a noun phrase of Oromo, the head noun and other modifiers of the noun are inflected for the same case and number. Gender is also distinguished through such markings though in Wallaga Oromo, demonstratives do not mark gender difference. In Harar Oromo it is distinguished by varying the segments /t/ and /k/. Example, *kana* 'this: m', *tana* 'this: f.'
- ⁵ Unlike reduplication of adjectives which is considered as a token of plurality, adverbs can also be reduplicated as a word which is for emphasis only.
- ⁶ The middle MD in Oromo is marked by the suffix *-at*. It is grammatically related with reflexive form but this form expresses the agent being affected by his/her own action in a closer morphological and semantic unity.

Appendix B

This is to provide the translation of the story under appendix A, which has been considered as a sample the tales for data collection of the study as a secondary instrument.

Journey of the Wise Man (A fable on the Oromo Language)

A long time ago, there was a wise man living in a mountain country. The country was beautiful, but it was always difficult to find enough food. The people of the High Country decided that they would travel together to the Low Country. When the snow began to melt, they packed all they owned into their wagons. With anticipation mixed with sadness, the wise man and his neighbors left their High Country homes.

The wise man noticed something strange taking place soon after they began their journey. As they traveled day after day, his right arm began to feel stiff. The further they traveled from the High Country, the weaker it became. Three things puzzled him. First, his arm always felt the weakest whenever they stopped in a village. Secondly, he noticed that when the travelers from the High Country gathered around a fire at night to talk among themselves, his arm became strong again. His third discovery puzzled him the most. When he put his arm behind his back, it no longer felt stiff and useless.

One day the wise man was startled. As his wagon rounded a bend in a high mountain road, he looked down on his neighbors' wagons ahead of him. He realized that many others were also holding an arm behind their back. As he looked more closely, he saw that some older people had even tied their arm in place with a rope.

Why, he wondered, was this happening?

At last they reached the Low Country. The weather was warm. The fields would produce grain and the forests would supply lumber for their houses. Life looked promising. Promising, that is, except for their weak arms. It was rumored that the Low Country's air caused this strange weakness. Some of the people even said they must learn to live with this weakness if they wanted to stay in the Low Country.

The adults and children set to work. They cleared the land, planted crops, and prepared lumber to build their new homes. A High Country tailor sewed a new kind of coat that would hold the

useless arm in place. He also put leather on the coat so the shoulder could push heavy loads. Even with the new coat, however, work was slow because everyone used only one arm.

Again, the wise man noticed a strange thing. First, he noticed that even though it caused them pain the children soon began using their weak arm again. Secondly, the wise man noticed that whenever the High Country people met together in their first buildings, if they shut all the doors and windows, strength returned to the arms of even the oldest men and women. "Surely," most said, "this proves that the Low Country air is at fault." Most agreed that the only solution was to build houses so strong that all Low Country air could be kept outside. But the wise man was puzzled most because the children seemed to become stronger while playing and working outside in the Low Country air.

The wise man watched his High Country neighbors trying to build their houses while using only one arm. He became fearful for his people's welfare. The new coat helped them work faster with one arm. But winter was coming and neither the houses nor the crops would be ready if everyone continued to work with one arm behind their back.

The wise man learned a lesson from the children. He realized that even though it was painful using his weak arm for hard work was the only way to make it strong again. Because winter was coming, he knew that he could not stop working on his house in order to spend all his time trying to make his arm strong. But he also knew that he could not finish his house before winter unless he used both arms. The wise man decided that if he was to finish his house before winter, he must spend some time each day strengthening his arm so that he could finish his house more quickly. The wise man spent time each day both strengthening his arm and working on his house. He finished his house before winter.

Some High Country people perished that winter because the snow came before their crops were harvested and their houses finished. They had worked slowly every day because they were afraid to stop working on their houses long enough to strengthen their weak arm.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own original research work. Wherever works of other people are used, their contributions in my thesis are properly acknowledged and duly referenced to the literature. The work was done under the guidance of my advisor Dr. Shimelis Mazengia whose sincere and supportive roles on my behalf is unforgettable.

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