

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE FOCUS SYSTEM IN OROMO
A FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH

TAHA YASSIN

JUNE, 1990
ADDIS ABABA

THE FOCUS SYSTEM IN OROMO

(A FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH)

A Thesis

Presented to

The School of Graduate Studies

Addis Ababa University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirement for the Degree of

Master of Arts in Linguistics

BY

TAHA YASSIN

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE FOCUS SYSTEM IN OROMO
A FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH

BY
TAHA YASSIN

Institute of Language Studies

Approved by

Dr. Klaus Wedekind..... *K. Wedekind*
Advisor

..... *Livingstone Woldehassimbi* *L.W.*
Examiner

..... *Alemagehu Haile* *GH*
Examiner

.....
Examiner

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My deepest and heartfelt thanks are due to Dr. Klaus Wedekind, my advisor, who has been of invaluable assistance to me from the very beginning up to the end. I consider it an excellent opportunity to have been able to write this paper under his guidance.

I am also indebted to Dr. Baye Yimam who helped me by giving insightful critical comments and constructive guidance. I am grateful to my friend Bekale Seyoum for his useful comments and assistance in developing this research.

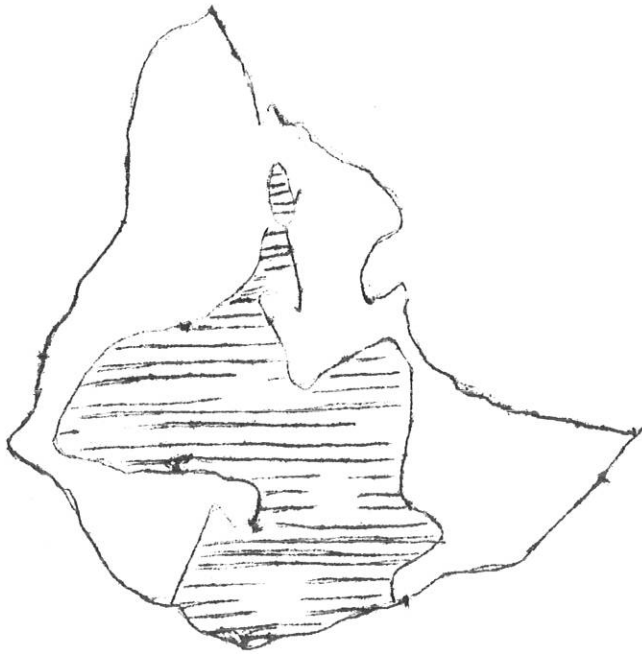
I would like to thank Ato Abdurahim Adem, Ato Asfaw Ammena for their kindness in helping as informant and Woizerit Guenet Tafere who patiently and carefully typed the final draft. And finally, I thank friends and colleagues who directly or indirectly helped me to the completion of this research.

ABSTRACT

This study deals with the function of focus in Oromo. It attempts to show the different mechanisms in which focus functions are realized. Dik (1978) developed the theory of FG with the view point of functional nature of a language. It is stated in his study that Pragmatic Function is one of the three levels of Functional nations. Focus is regarded as one of the four Pragmatic Functions. Focus presents what is relatively the most important or salient information in a given setting. Even though Focus is a universal feature of any language, the types, the scopes, the functions and distribution of Focus vary from language to language. The study examines the types, the scopes, the functions and ^{distribution of fo} ~~all~~ Oromo in the light of Dik (1978) and (1989).

The study has three chapter. In Chapter One the Statement the Significance, the Objectives, the Limitations and Methods of the study are introduced. In addition, previous related studies in Oromo are also included. The theoretical framework of Functional Grammar with the aim of introducing the basic concepts of FG in general and the treatment of focus as a pragmatic function in particular are described in Chapter Two. The Third Chapter discusses the various focus functions in the language. The focalizing devices, the types, the scopes and functions of focus are raised and discussed. Finally, the study presents the summary of the preceding chapters.

Distribution of Oromo in Ethiopia According to
Harry Stroomer (1987:x1)



1. Raya Oromo
2. Wollo Oromo
3. Wollega Oromo
4. Shoa Oromo
5. Harar Oromo
6. Arsi Oromo
7. Borena Oromo

1.1 Key to Abbreviations

A	-	Addressee
Ag	-	Agent
FG	-	Functional Grammar
d	-	definite
FM	-	Focus Marker
Foc	-	Focus
Go	-	Goal
imp	-	imperfective
ind	-	indefinite
nom	-	nominative
NP _c	-	Noun phrase
Obj	-	Object position
p	-	piece of information
pf	-	perfective
S	-	Speaker
Subj	-	subject
Vd	-	Voiced
Vls	-	Voiceless
VP	-	Verb phrase

1.2 Key to Symbols

P ₁	-	Clause initial position
P ₂	-	Left dislocated position
X, Y	-	Arbitrary category or function
1ps	-	First person singular
2ps	-	Second person singular
3ms	-	Third person singular
3p1	-	Third person plural
ϕ	-	Arbitrary predicate
δ	-	Differential or variation
\emptyset	-	Zero function
	-	Singular

CONTENTS

	<u>PAGE</u>
	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
Map on the Distribution of Oromo	iv
Key to Abbreviations	v
Key to Symbols	1
Chapter One: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Statement of the Study	1
1.2 Significance of the Study	2
1.3 Objective of the Study	2
1.4 Limitation and Scope of the Study	3
1.5 Methods of the Study	3
1.6 Review of Related Literature	3
Notes	11
Chapter Two: FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR	12
2.1 Methodological Principles of FG	14
2.1.1 Pragmatic Adequacy	15
2.1.2 Psychological Adequacy	15
2.1.3 Typological Adequacy	15
2.2 FG and its Descriptive Devices	16
2.2.1 No Transformations	16
2.2.2 No Filtering Devices	17
2.2.3 The Treatment of Lexical Items	17
2.3 Functions and Categorical properties of FG	17
2.4 Organizations of FG (Levels of Representation)	19
2.5 Pragmatic Functions	19
2.5.1 Components of pragmatic Information	20
2.5.2 Assignment of Pragmatic Functions	22
2.6 Focus	23
2.6.1 Focus and its Operations	24

2.6.2 Parameters Determining Different
Types of Focus

2.6.3 Cross Linguistic Manifestations of
Functions of Focus 30

2.6.4 Types of Focus System 31

Notes 35

36

Chapter Three: FOCUS SYSTEM IN OROMO

3.1 Focalizing Devices in the Oromo
Language 36

3.1.1 Prosodic Prominence 37

3.1.2 Word Ordering 44

3.1.3 Special Focus Markers 47

3.1.4 Special Focus Constructions 54

3.2 Scope of Focus in Oromo 57

3.2.1 Focus on the Predication
as a whole 58

3.2.2 Focus on some Constituents
of predication 58

3.2.3 One Focus or More 59

3.3 Types of Focus in the Oromo Language 60

3.3.1 Assertive Focus 60

3.3.2 Counter Assertive Focus 61

3.3.3 Exhaustive Listing Focus 61

3.3.4 Polar Focus 62

3.3.5 Counter Assertive Polar Focus 62

3.4 Function of Focus in Oromo 63

3.4.1 Completive Focus 63

3.4.2 Selective Focus 64

3.4.3 Replacing Focus 64

3.4.4 Expanding Focus 68

3.4.5 Restricting Focus 69

3.4.6 Parallel Focus 70

Notes 72

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION 73

REFERENCES 75

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the study

This study is an attempt to examine the nature of focus constituents in Oromo following the theoretical framework of Dik (1978). Reference is also made to Dik (1989) Functional Grammar, hereafter FG. It is hoped that the knowledge of the function of focus in Oromo would facilitate our understanding of structures designating the most important or salient information in Oromo discourse. The study presents the informational status of focus constituents involved within the wider communicative setting in which they occur along with their types and functions. In general the study concentrates on:

- a) the focalizing devices
- b) the types of focus
- c) the scope of focus
- d) the function of focus
- e) the distribution of focus

1.2 Significance of the study

The Oromo language is spoken widely in Ethiopia. It is also one of the three major languages of the country, in terms of the number of its speakers. Estimation of the number of speakers of Oromo in Ethiopia vary to a considerable extent. According to M.L. Bender (1976), for example, they are estimated at 8 million, while according to Boxter as stated in Stroomer (1987:1) they are about 26 million.

It is noted that the language has at least seven regional dialects' (Stroomer, 1987: XI).

This study may have the following contributions:

1. It may open new perspectives for the general study of the language and for the subject matter which relates grammatical structures to meanings, language use and situational contexts.
2. It may help in the preparation of Oromo language manuals which presuppose discourse analysis, error analysis and analysis of learners' needs.
4. It may contribute to the study of other Cushitic languages or dialects.

1.3 Objective of the study

Even though it is believed that consideration of pragmatic features is important in the systematic study of the language, most of the studies made on Oromo so far have not been concerned with this aspect of the language. The main objective of this study is hence to describe such functional aspects.

1.4 Limitation and scope of the study

The present study is limited in at least two ways:

1. It is limited to types, scopes and functions of focus in the Oromo of Ethiopia.

2. it is theoretically limited to the pragmatic approach.

1.5 Methods of the study

Since pragmatic functions are largely dependent on linguistic expressions or verbal interactions between speakers and addressees, most of the materials used in the study are results of field work with native speakers of the language. The recorded utterances are analyzed in light of the desired objective.

In addition to the recording of data, written documents such as news-papers and books were examined for the contextual meaning and uses of particles, words, and focus markers. Oromo radio programs were also monitored in order to observe the variations in focalizing expressions. In addition to this, my native intuition of the language has been used. Nazareth, my home town, is the place where the Eastern dialect, one of the seven dialects shown in the map above is spoken. It is also a town where many Eastern Oromo speakers such as those from the Arsi and Bale people come together for various purposes.

1.6 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The studies of the Oromo language, as Andrzej Zaborski (in Bender et al, (1976:67)) stated go back to the 17th century, that is, to Hiob Ludolf's study of Oromo.

Starting from that time onwards a number of foreigners such as Germans, Italians, Americans, Britishers and French have tried to study the language and its dialects. Joint studies of Oromo were also made by Ethiopians and foreigners.

Particular attention was given by the department of Ethiopian languages and literature which encourages its senior students to describe the various languages of Ethiopia, including Oromo.

Because of this, a number of Ethiopians have done a lot in the descriptive study of the language.

According to Baye (1986), the studies may be broadly classified into three types on the basis of their content and purpose. These comprise dictionaries, pedagogical grammars, and descriptive sketches. In addition to these there are proverbs, folk tales, religious verses, and translations of the Bible. However, this review is limited only to works related to focus.

A closer examination of the Oromo of Borena was made by Andrzejewski's (1959) in My Recent Research into the Galla Dialects. His attention was on the comparison of four southern Oromo dialects and their tonal differences.

According to this study tone patterns are correlated with grammatical forms, and not with lexical items. He also deals with the different functions of the verbal prefix hin-. The contextual meanings of hin- in reference to tone is also discussed.

The article 'Galla' written by M.L. Bender, Mulugeta Ettafa and Lloyd Stinson (1976) deals with the grammar of the Oromo language in general. According to this study the Verb of Oromo is composed of two main forms- the imperfect and the perfect. These two forms give emphasis to aspect rather than to tense. The derivation of verbs and the changes that take place in the process are pointed out. In the section dealing with syntax, nouns, adjectives, pronouns and verbs are described with their syntactic properties. The formal word order of Oromo in a simple sentence is also shown. According to the study, the constituent which represents the emphasis comes at the initial position of a sentence. The study also points out that temporals and determiners often precede the subject.

Even though this study does not use the term "focus" to indicate the most important or the salient information, it has pointed out one of its manifestations, that is, word order.

Gene Cragg's Oromo of Wollega (1976) summarizes the studies of the Oromo language. In his introduction, he divides the previous studies of the Oromo language into:

- a) earlier observation
- b) missionary efforts
- c) secular efforts

This article deals with the phonology, the morphonology and the syntax of the Wollega Oromo. In fact, it is one of the works that has pointed out the presence of focus markers in Oromo. According to this study, focus is identified by such particles as -uu, -llee, -uma, -oo and such elements follow Nps, and other particles follow VPs (predicates). Because his objective is just to describe the general features of the language, Gragg did not go into the further discussion of focus, focalizing devices, their types, and their scope.

Jonathan Owen's (1985) study of the grammar of the Oromo of Harar describes the phonology, the morphology and the syntax of this dialect. He points out the presence of tone-High and Low. According to his study -ni is a focus marker in the Oromo of Harar. However, he does not show other types and the functions of focus.

A paper under the title "The prefix hin in Wollega Oromo" by John Saeed (1989) is a recent study of the focus of this language.

Saeed describes hin-as an affirmative and negative focus marker in the verb. He points out that there are affirmative focus and question focus. However, he does not mention types

and the scopes of focus markers and the existence of other focalizing devices such as prominence, word order, and focalizing particles such as -tu and -Da.

There are different studies made by Ethiopians. Among these is Baye's (1988). "Focus in Oromo" is one of his recent works and the only one of its kind by an Ethiopian. It is the same in objective but different in its approach from the present study.

In his study Baye uses the generative model of Chomsky (1976, 1981, 1986) and Williams (1977). He argues that the rules which assign the feature focus, operate at the level of LF (Logical Form). He also classifies focus into presentational, informative and contrastive types, in relation to the four major syntactic categories of the language. He also observes that the feature is -tu in NPs, hin- in VPs and Da in PPs. He has also shown that focus is structurally expressed in the form of cleft construction. Regarding the analysis of cleft, he assumes a base generated approach.

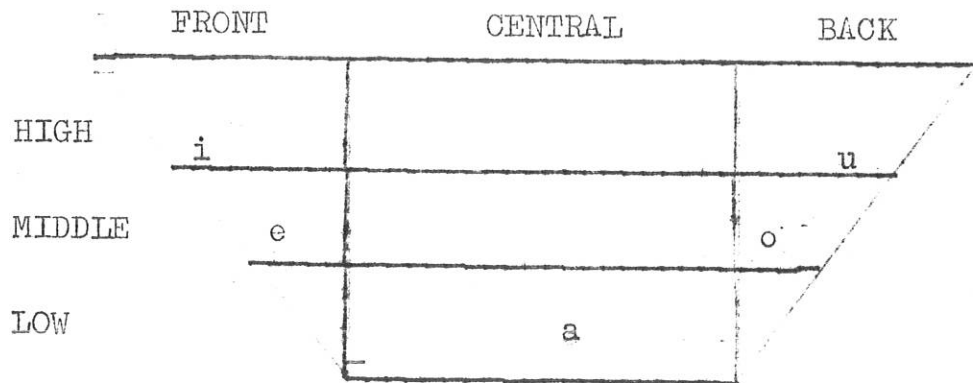
He concludes his work by saying that constituents which have been identified by syntactic (grammatical) features at the level of sentence grammar are realized with pragmatic features at the level of discourse grammar.

The present study recognizes more focus markers other than tu-, hin- and Da. Unlike the previous works this study uses the functional framework of Dik (1978 and 1989). It also deals with the scopes and types of focus.

According to Waqo Tola, (1981:12), the consonant and vowel Phonemes of Oromo are the following:

	<u>Consonant Phonemes</u>					
	<u>Bilabial</u>	<u>Labio Dental</u>	<u>Alveolar</u>	<u>Palatal</u>	<u>Velar</u>	<u>Glotal</u>
Ejective Vls	p'		t'		k'	
Plosive Vls			t		k	ʔ
Plosive Vd	b		d		g	
Implosive			D			
Fricative Vls		f	s	ʃ	s	h
Africate Vls				tʃ		
Africate Vd				dʒ		
Nasals	m		n	ɲ		
laterals			l			
Flaps			r			
Semi Vowels	w			y		

Vowel Phonemes



The Phonemic symbols consistently used in this study are shown in the phonemic charts above. But the initial phonemes of proper nouns are capitalized. Besides, vowel length and gemination are indicated by doubling the vowel or the consonant phoneme.

NOTES

1. While Bender, M.L, et al. (1976) points out that Oromo of Ethiopia has eight regional dialects, namely Mecha, Tullema, Wello, Raya, Eastern, Arsi, Gujji and Borena, Stroemer (1987:XI) says that the language has seven regional dialects. He shows the distribution of these dialects in his map quoted at page iii of this study.

12
CHAPTER TWO

Functional Grammar

Since the theory is based on FG the researcher believes that a brief theoretical introduction of the framework is necessary. Therefore, in this section I shall attempt to introduce the theoretical framework of Dik (1978 and 1989).

Dik (1978:v) believes that Functional Grammar has the following properties.

- i. Language is regarded as an instrument of social interaction.
- ii. It makes a crucial use of three different levels: the semantic, the syntactic and the pragmatic levels.
- iii. It starts with the construction of abstract underlying predications on the basis of predicate frames' contained in the lexicon.
- iv. Such underlying predications are mapped on to linguistic expressions by means of expression rules which specify the form and order in which constituents with given functional and categorial properties can or must appear.
- v. It avoids the uses of transformations in the sense of structure changing operations.

Pitha (1980a:265) in reviewing Dik, noted that the goal of Functional Grammar is the description of the rules of communication. He said that semantics and syntax merely

serve this basic function. Dik is aware of the impossibility of describing pragmatics without semantics and syntax. His proposal for the description of these two domains, i.e. syntax and semantics, is governed by rules of FG, i.e. rules of communication.

In his "Theory of FG" Dik (1989:264) states that FG is one of the linguistic theories which treat the language from the point of view of its communicative functions. Thus, the theory accounts for the system of a language, from a functional point of view. In this type of grammar functional notions of the different levels play essential roles.

Functional linguistics² as Garvin (1963) argues, is an approach to the analysis of linguistic structure in which emphasis is given to the communicative function of the elements, in addition to their relations. Kuno (1980:177), defines functional syntax as a sub-area of functional linguistics in which syntactic structures are analysed with emphasis on their communicative functions. He also adds that functional syntax is in principle independent of various current models of grammar such as Standard, Extended Standard and Revised Extended Standard theories of Generative Grammar, Relational Grammar, Case Grammar, Tagmemics and so on.

Each grammar must have a place or places where various functional constructions on the well-formedness of sentences or sequences of sentences can be stated, and each theory of grammar can benefit from utilizing a functional perspective in the analysis of concrete syntactic phenomena. Therefore, in theory, according to Kuno (1980:118) there is no conflict between functional syntax and, say, the Revised Extended standard theory of Generative Grammar. In actuality, however, with respect to analyzing a given linguistic phenomenon, disagreements often arise on whether a given linguistic phenomenon should be stated as a syntactic or non-syntactic problem.

2.1 Methodological principles of FG

One of the aims of FG is to provide the means and principles by which Functional Grammar should conform to standards of adequacy, in particular to descriptive adequacy³. Dik (1979:6) says that FG should be evaluated in terms of three standards of explanatory adequacies.

- 1) Pragmatic adequacy
- 2) Psychological adequacy
- 3) Typological adequacy

2.1.1 Pragmatic adequacy:- As mentioned above, FG is concerned largely with the pragmatic theory of language in verbal interactions. Therefore, it is one of the aims of FG to reveal those properties of linguistic expressions which are relevant to the manner in which they are used.

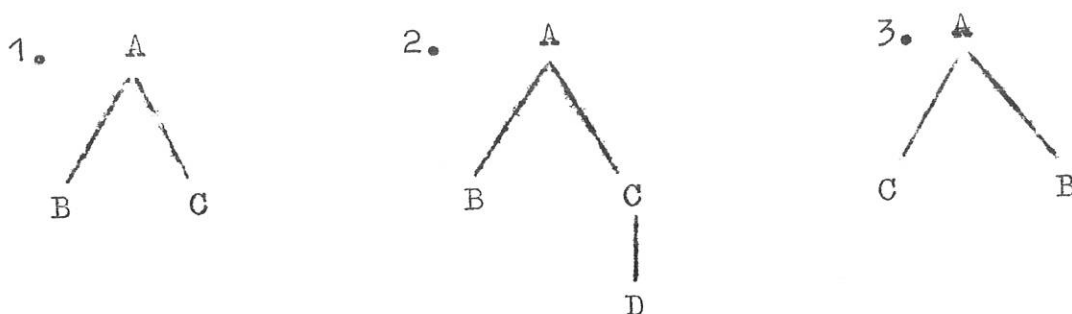
Accordingly, FG is believed to provide means of explicitly relating facts like questions and their appropriate answers to contextual meaning, and interpretations to the stated questions.

2.1.2 Psychological adequacy:- According to the functional paradigm, language is an instrument of social interaction. Since its primary function is communication, it requires psychological properties to fulfill the desired function. In this regard, Dik (1978:8) claims that FG stands a fair chance of more closely approximating psychological adequacy than other theories of language do.

2.1.3 Typological adequacy;- A theory which is assumed to work at least for a great number of languages should be regarded as typologically adequate, i.e., it should be capable of providing grammars for typologically quite different languages while at the same time accounting for the similarities and differences between these languages.

2.2 FG and its descriptive devices: with respect to the power of its descriptive device, from the very beginning FG proposes to narrow down the range of descriptive devices allowed. It does not introduce strong descriptive devices to constrain their power again. This objective can be achieved to a great extent in three ways:

2.2.1 No transformations:— FG does not allow transformational operations in the sense of structure changing rules. However, it does not exclude structure sensitive operations⁴ as long as they are not structure changing



The rule changing 1 into 2 is a transformation if it is structure sensitive in being conditioned to apply, for instance, only to those constituents of type C which are dominated by some constituents of type A. But the rule changing 1 into 3 is transformation by virtue of permutational operation⁵ applied to the input structure. It is clearly seen that there is a fundamental difference between these two rules.

Therefore, FG allows rules of type 1→2 i.e. structure sensitive expansion rules, and does not allow rules of type 1 to 3 nor any other kind of structure changing rules. However, FG also allows for the deletion of variables under specified conditions, and this is the only structural change allowed.

2.2.2 No filtering devices:- methodologically the use of filtering devices gives great freedom in the formulation of rules, for the undesired part of the output can be filtered away by applying appropriate constraints. However, FG avoids the use of filtering devices. For any types of structures, FG will aim at defining construction rules which immediately generate the target set of well formed expressions.

2.2.3 The treatment of lexical items:- Even at the deepest level, constructions in FG are built up from predicates which occur as lexical items of the language. There is no analysis of lexical items in terms of purported "language independent" concepts. And there are no predicates in the underlying representations⁶ defined by FG for linguistic expressions.

2.3. Functions and categorial properties of FG:- The rules of FG formulated in terms of both functional and categorial properties of constituents. The differences between functions and categories are shown as follows:

- a) 'the old man' is a noun
 'the old man' is a subject

The categorial statement in (a) makes sense as it stands. A descriptive predicate like 'being an NP' is a one place predicate which tells us something about the intrinsic properties of constituents. Categories are non-relational notions.

The functional statement (b) however, does not make sense as it stands. This is because a descriptive predicate like "being a subject" is not a one place predicate.⁷ Such a functional statement with a two place predicate tells us some thing about the relation between some constituent and the construction in which it occurs. Thus, it is meaningful to say: 'the old man' is the subject of 'the old man ran away'; on the other hand, it does not make sense to use a categorial expression in such a two place statement as 'the old man' is an NP in 'The old man ran away'.

From the above notions, we can generalize that categorial statements specify the internal properties of constituents, while functional statements specify the relational properties of constituents with respect to constructions, in which they occur. But both are needed in linguistic expressions.

2.4 Organizations of FG (Levels of Representations)

1. Semantic functions: Agent, Goal, Recipient, etc.
2. Syntactic functions: Subject and Object
3. Pragmatic function: Theme and Tail., Topic and Focus

Since the topic of this research is to study the pragmatic function of focus in general and the focus function in particular, it is not necessary to define at this point the first two levels of presentations. On the other hand, the present study is expected to define and state clearly what pragmatic function means.

2.5 Pragmatic functions:- Language is regarded in the first place as an instrument by which people can enter into communicative relations with one another. From this point of view language is primarily a pragmatic phenomenon, a systematic instrument used for communicative purposes.

According to the functional view, the structure of a language cannot be adequately understood if these pragmatic purposes are left out of consideration. The concept of pragmatic information shows that the study of syntax and semantics should be carried out against the background of pragmatic conventions which determine the use of language in verbal interactions. According to Dik (1980:46), Syntax is subservient to semantics and semantics is subservient to

pragmatics. Pragmatic information specifies the informational status of constituents within the wide communicative setting in which they occur.

The communicative setting according to Dik, is of course, not objectively given for the participants in the process of verbal interaction. But it is naturally included in the framework of the speaker's and the addressee's knowledge, i.e., in their beliefs or assumptions to produce or interpret some linguistic expressions. We shall call this "Pragmatic information". Pragmatic information is also defined as a linguistic function which in some way or other crucially depends on pieces of pragmatic function.

It implies that the pragmatic function of the constituents in the language expression has a considerable role in the interaction of the speaker and the addressee within a given pragmatic contact. The functional approach to a language is not a drawback; rather it is an advantage since it will help us to achieve pragmatic adequacy.

2.5.1 Components of pragmatic information:- pragmatic information according to Dik (1978:128) consists of three main components:

1. The long term information concerning the world and the possible worlds i.e. general information which would include general truth.

2. Information derived from what the participant perceiv³es or otherwise experiences within the situation in which the interaction takes place (situational information).
3. Information derived from linguistic expression which has been exchanged before any given moment (contextual information).

In the manifestations of pragmatic information of the speaker and the addressee, normally there appears great amount of common or shared information.

There are also some instances in which a verbal information is only available to the Speaker. Still there are some instances in which a piece of information is only available to the Addressee. A linguistic expression may also have the effect of making the Addressee aware of some piece of information which he did possess, but was not thinking about at the given moment. In order to achieve the desired communicative effectiveness, it is important for each participant to have a reasonable concept about the pragmatic information which is shared and unshared between him and the other participant.

To summarize, it is necessary to examine the following correlational information which would be shared and unshared during the verbal interaction between the Speaker and the Addressee:-

- a) the pragmatic information shared between participants (P_1) and (P_2) as estimated by P_1
- b) the pragmatic information not shared between P_1 and P_2 as estimated by P_1
- c) the pragmatic information shared between P_1 and P_2 as estimated by P_2
- d) the pragmatic information not shared between P_1 and P_2 as estimated by P_2

2.5.2 Assignment of pragmatic function:- Dik (1989:265) states that after the assignment of syntactic function, pragmatic function will take place in a similar way.

According to his findings, four types of pragmatic functions⁸ are distinguished under two sub-sections of pragmatics- two clause external and two clause internal:

1. "... pragmatic information was sub-divided
2. in to general situational and contextual information. It was argued that S organizes his linguistic expressions in accordance with (PA)s, his estimates of A's pragmatic information at the moment of speaking. S's
3. aim in general is to cause A to effect some change in P. In order to achieve this, S
4. will typically start from some piece of information that A presumably already possesses, and then go on to build some information into this, which he thinks is new to A and may thus lead to a modification of PA." (Dik, 1989:265)

The assignment of pragmatic functions is dependent upon the development of the pragmatic functions of the Speaker and Addressee in the course of verbal interaction. It is therefore, difficult to specify these functions in isolated sentences. On the other hand, once they are assigned to these functions, their influence on the form in which they appear will be realized. It is because of this fact that pragmatic functions are considered to be functions assignable to the constituents of individual expressions. However, it is stated on page 22 above, the complete assignment of individual expressions is assessed within some wider communicative back-ground.

2.6 FOCUS:- Focus is one of the clause internal pragmatic functions in any natural language text. These constituents concern the informational status of constituents in a given communicative setting. Dik (1989:265) formulates that:

"Pragmatic information P_x of a person X is defined as general information, situational information and contextual information, consisting of the whole body of knowledge, beliefs, feelings and preconceptions of X at the moment of speaking. It was argued that S organizes his linguistic expressions in accordance with (P_a) 's, his estimate of A's pragmatic information at the moment of speaking. S's aim is to effect some change in P_a , and in order to achieve this, S will typically start from some piece of information A presumably already possesses, and then (goes on to add some piece of information on to this), which he thinks is new to A and may thus lead to modification of P_a ".

A linguistic expression will thus usually contain some given information and some new information, both interpreted as being mediated through S's estimate of P_a . It may be that S's estimate is not fully correct i.e. does not fully correspond to the actual structure of P_a . This may cause certain hitches in the communication process. But it is (P_a) 's rather than P_a which determines the way in which S pragmatically organizes his expressions.

2.6.1 Focus and its operation:- Focus is thus the increment of information in a sentence which the speaker signals either structurally or contextually to the most important information.

The increment of information may be anything from a specific lexical item to the entire sentence, or the sentential operators. The Speaker indicates which increment is important either by using a marked syntactic, morphological or phonological forms. They unambiguously identify the increment or the unmarked form in a specific context in which the increment is uttered. As it can be judged from the above statement, the importance of this increment is relative to the Speaker's understanding of the Addressee's pragmatic knowledge of the world.

The speaker believes that the Addressee needs this information in order to correct and reaffirm his present knowledge.

Dik (1978:149) has stated that it is easiest to demonstrate the operation of focus assignment with Q-word questions (wh-questions) and the answer to them..." Thus the following conditions illustrate the way in which focus function works.

- a) for a given predication in $XY \dots \phi \dots (X_1) \dots$ the Speaker assumes that there is a term δ such that if we substitute it for X_1 in the open predication, the resulting predication $\phi(\delta)$ will be true:
- b) the Speaker does not know the identity of δ
- c) the Speaker assumes that the Addressee knows the identity of δ .
- d) the Speaker wants the Addressee to tell him the identity of δ .

Under these conditions, the Speaker forms a predication of the form $\phi(QX_1)_{\text{Foc}}$ which will be realized as a Q-word Question. A Q-word question is thus an open predication in X_1 , in which the variable X_1 is bound by the question operator Q . Since the identity of δ is the only piece of information belonging to the difference in pragmatic information between Speaker and Addressee as estimated by the Speaker, the question term (QX_1) will be assigned focus function.

A Q-word question thus counts as a request from the Speaker to the Addressee to give him a true value of \mathcal{F} for the questioned term X_1 .

- e) the addressee does indeed know the true value of \mathcal{F} for the questioned term X_1
- f) the Addressee is prepared to tell the speaker the identity of \mathcal{F}

Then the Addressee can form a predication of the form $(\mathcal{F})_{\text{Foc}}$ which will be realized as an answer to the question of the speaker.

Since \mathcal{F} is the only piece of information belonging to the difference in pragmatic information between Speaker and Addressee as estimated by the Addressee, the term \mathcal{F} will be assigned focus function. In general:

1. In answers to the Q-word question, the constituent which receives focus function is that element which provides the requested identity of the questioned constituent.
2. The relevance of the focus function is also quite clear in case of (pseudo) cleft questions and answers. But this follows a different strategy in formulating its question from Q-word question.

The Speaker assumes that there is an X_1 such that ϕ
 (X_1) is true.

Under this condition the Speaker constructs a
 description of the assumed entity X_1 of the following form.

$$(\text{dx}_i : \phi(x_i))$$

He can use the identificational predicate which is
 expressed in English by "be" in order to form a question
 with the following structure.

$$\text{be}_V (\text{dx}_1 : \phi(x)) \phi(Qx_j)_{\text{Foc}}$$

This structure is realized as cleft or pseudo-cleft
 statement (Dik (1978:151)). If we apply this general
 approach to the description of some concrete sentences,
 we get:

- 1.a) Who ate the fish?
- b) John ate the fish.
- 2.a) Who is the one who ate the fish?
- b) Who is it who ate the fish?
- c) John is the one who ate the fish.
- d) It is John who ate the fish.

In order to describe these sentences we first take the
 predicate form of the verb eat:

3. $\text{eat}_v (X_1:\text{animate } (X_1))_{Ag} (X_2:\text{food } (X_2))_{Go}$
 then we form the following term.

4. $(dx_2:\text{fish } (x_2))$

We insert 4 into the second argument slot of 3 which gives us an open predication in X_1 :

5. $\text{Eat}_v (x_1:\text{animate } (x_1)) (dx_2:\text{fish}(x_2))_{Go}$ we assume that subject and object arguments are assigned in the following ways, in accordance with the English rules for these operations.

6. $\text{Eat}_v (x_1:\text{animate } (x_1))_{Ag} \text{ subj Foc } (DX_2:\text{fish}(x_2))_{Go}$
 obj. Here the Speaker assumes that there exists a true value for x_1 , that the Addressee knows the identity of this value, and that the Speaker wishes the Addressee to tell him the identity of this value. The Speaker can then form the following question predication.

7. $\text{Eat}_v (Qx_1:\text{animate } (x_1))_{Ag} \text{ Subj Foc } (DX_2:\text{fish } (X_2))_{Go} \text{ Obj.}$ The above term is realized as 'who ate fish?

Again by inserting 4 into the first argument position we get:

8. $(x_1):eat_v (x_1)_{Ag} Subj (dx_2:fish be_v(dx_1:animate$
 $(x_1) eat_v (x_1)_{Ag} Subj (dx_2): fish (x_2)) GO Obj (Qx_3)_{Foc}$
 and the structure will be realized by the (pseudo)
 cleft question by means of expression rules as:

- a) who is the one who ate fish?
- b) who is it who ate fish?

2.6.2 Parameters determining different types of Focus:- The description of focus in general is given. However, the question is how to know which part of the structure is a focused constituent, and how to know the types of focus constituent and their distributions in describing a language.

Both informationally and syntactically, different sorts of focus constructions may come about depending on the different values that the focus function may take:

The following are the parameters that will help to differentiate the types of focus.

a) Scope of Focus:- The point to be raised here is whether ^{the} focus is assigned to the predication as a whole or only to some constituents of the predication.

b) Emphasis or contrast:- according to this parameter, the focus constituent is tested whether it merely gives emphasis to the importance of a given constituent or whether it contrasts the information of that constituent.

c) Relation to the pragmatic information of the Addressee:-

This form of identification determines the specific contribution of the focus constituents with respect to filling the gap, expanding the given idea or restricting the message of the sentence or replacing a given piece of information of the Addressee.

d) New or given:- This form of identification asks the question (1) whether the focus presents information new to the Addressee or not (2) whether focus selects a salient item from among a given set of possible information or not.

e) Exhaustive or not:- This form of parameter ratifies whether the information transmitted is exclusively true of focus or not.

2.6.3 Cross linguistic manifestation of the function of focus:- According to Dik (1989:278) the function of focus in general may be exhibited through one or more of the following focalizing devices.

i) prosodic prominence or intonational prominence which involves extra stress, higher tone or emphatic accent.

ii) Special constituent order which includes special positions for focus constituents in the linear order of the clause.

iii) Special focus marking particles which mark off the focus constituent from the rest of the clause.

iv) Special focus constructions which includes constructions that intrinsically define a certain distribution of focus over the structure of the clause, such as cleft or pseudo cleft constructions.

2.6.4 Types of focus system:- Different languages have different types of focus system and use different formal strategies for differentiating them.

According to Dik (1989:281) languages require a sub-division of the focus function to trigger these different types of focus. The scope of focus and the communicative point of focus are the main parameters for the subcategorization of focus.

Most distinctive focus types occur either with focus on the predication as a whole, or on some constituent of the predication. These scope differences will result in different types of focus as follows.

1. Completive focus: We speak of this type of focus when the focus information is meant to fill in a gap. This type of focus is observed in Q-word questions.

For example, when someone asks

1. a. What did Chala buy?

In the answer b. Chala bought a Cow

In the answer the focus on cow is which signals that, this particular information is meant to fill the gap in the above contextual situation. By virtue of this fact, sentence (1b) involves completion.

2. Replacing focus:- In this case the Speaker (S) presumes that the Addressee (A) possesses some incorrect information X which is to be replaced by the correct piece of information.

2. A. John bought coffee.

S. a) No, he didn't buy coffee, he bought rice.

b) No, he bought RICE not COFFEE.

c) No, he didn't buy COFFEE.

d) No, he bought RICE.

This type of focus involves two distinct steps: rejecting the incorrect information (coffee), and presenting the correct information (Rice).

3. Expanding focus In this type of focus, S presumes that A possesses a correct piece of information X_1 , but that X is not complete. S knows that there is at least a piece of information Y which is also old to A.

3. A. John bought coffee.

s. a) John not only bought coffee, he also bought RICE

b) Yes, but he also bought Rice.

4. Restricting focus: This is the type of focus in which an antecedently given or presupposed set is restricted to one or more correct values.

A. John bought coffee and rice

S: a) No, he didn't buy RICE, he only bought COFFEE

b) No, He only bought COFFEE.

Restricting focus corrects the presupposed information of A. In this case, one of the values of X is explicitly or implicitly rejected as incorrect.

5. Selecting focus: This type of focus is marked when focus selects an item from a set of possible values,

5.S: Did John buy coffee or rice?

A: He bought coffee.

Selective focus involves contrast between the information chosen and the information rejected.

The answer 'He bought COFFEE not RICE' shows that there is rejection of RICE in selecting COFFEE.

6. Parallel focus:- when two pieces of information are contrasted with one linguistic expression, we speak of "parallel focus".

6. JOHN bought a BIKE, but PETER a CAR.

In such cases, the capitalized items have focus function.

We are now in a position to have a better understanding of functional Grammar in general and Focus functions in particular. In the course of discussing the question of focus focus, we have shown that focus is relevant to the grammar of all languages. Each language may show different focalizing devices and different scopes of focus. In what follows we shall examine how focus constituents appear in different construction of Oromo in the light of Dik (1978) and (1989).

NOTES

1. Predicate frames are not considered as isolated elements, to be inserted into independently generated structure of some kind, they are themselves considered as structures called predicate frames.
2. Functional Linguistics is an approach to analysis of linguistic structure in which emphasis is placed on the communicative function of the element. In addition to their structural relations (Garvin, 1963). Functional syntax is a sub area of functional linguistics in which syntactic structures are analyzed with the emphasis on their communicative function.
3. Descriptive adequacy is the capability of such a grammar to specify all linguistic expressions of a particular language.
4. Structure sensitive are operation which do not effect changes in pre-established structures through deletion, substitution, and permutation of constituents. Structure sensitive Operations however don not allow changes in p pre-established structures.
5. Permutation is one of structural changing operation.
6. Underlying representation- the degree of abstractness of FG is constrained lies in the treatment of lexical items- All basic contentive lexemes of a language are contained in the lexicon in the form in which they can actually appear in the expressions of the Object language.
7. It is the property of the predicate in relation to entities or terms.
8. There are two external and two internal to the predication proper. They are Theme, Tail, Topic and Focus respectively.
9. They are expressions which can be used to refer to entities in some world.

CHAPTER THREE

FOCUS SYSTEM IN OROMO

3.1 Focalizing devices: Depending on their typological variations, languages show different forms of focalizing devices to mark the pragmatic function of focus in different sentential structures. According to Dik (1981:42) the following sorts are considered as the major devices for signalling focus in actual forms of linguistic expressions.

1. Intonational prominence: stress, high tone, emphatic accent.
2. Special focus markers: Particles which mark off the focus constituents from the rest of a clause.
3. Special constituent orders: Special positions for focus constituents in the linear order of the clause.
4. Special focus constructions which intrinsically define a certain distribution of focus over the structure of a clause, such as cleft in pseudo-cleft constructions.

Oromo uses all of the above four types of focalizing devices in different subforms as will be discussed. In some cases, these formal means of focalizing devices interact and in other cases they are mutually exclusive.

3.1.1 Prosodic prominence: One of the manifestations of focus in Oromo is prosodic (intonational) prominence which is associated with focalized constituents of sentences. The focalizing elements are attached to other constituents on which special intonation is placed. The focalized constituents are presented as being in contrast with other pieces of information explicitly mentioned in given context.

Dik (1989:63) states that as far as expressions are concerned, the prosodic contours (accent and intonation) have to be sensitive to the following main features of the underlying clause structure.

1. lexically distinctive tone differences
2. lexically distinctive accent differences
3. possible modifications in tone and accent affected by inflectional structures.
4. the pragmatic functions assigned to the constituents.
5. the illocutionary operations, to the extent that these are expressed in prosodic contours.

The above main features appear to contribute to the final prosodic contours of linguistic expressions in general.

Since the essential aspects of linguistic expressions are using the same primary medium of expression, i.e., difference in pitch (tone level) with which the linguistic expression is pronounced, the study of prosody is complicated. Even though pitch is a secondary feature, its contribution to the prosodic contour is considerable.

In Oromo prosodic features are assumed as one of the focalizing devices of linguistic expressions.

In what follows, such focalizing prosodic devices will be examined.

- (1) a. c'aala-n ~ ñaat -e .
 c' nom eat -3ms(pf)
 'Chala ate'
- b. c'aala -n buddeena -ñaat -e .
 c' -nom bread -eat -3ms(pf)
 'Chala ate bread'

Both sentences follow an SOV pattern. Since Oromo is an SOV language, this pattern, as it is, does not show

any focused constituents. Hence, in a sentence like (1a), where only subject and verb are given, a 'wh' question such as the following may be formed.

- (2) c'aala -n nal ~ ñaat -e?
 c' -nom what eat -3ms(pf)
 ' what did Chala eat?'

Sentences such as (1b) are considered to be the correct answers for (2): Here the difference is that the answer to a 'wh' question shows a focused constituent. The focus is marked on the constituent by stress. Thus the structure shows the following prosodic prominence.

- (3) c'aala -n buddeena ñaat -e.
 c' -nom bread eat -3ms(pf)
 'Chala ate bread'

According to the principle of FG^2 , (3) would get the following representation.

past eat_v (d1x_i : Chala (x))_i Ag Subj Top
 (ilx_j : buddeena (x_j))_{Go} Obj Foc

The functional information contained in this structure tells us that 'Chala' is the Agent, the Subject and the Topic, and 'buddeena' 'bread' is the Goal and the Focus of the construction. prosodic focus, i.e., stress is assigned to the Goal buddeena in (3), because that constituent buddeena

contains the crucial information requested in (2). Dik (1979:149) argues that constituents with focus functions present information bearing upon the difference in pragmatic information between the speaker and the addressee, as estimated by the speaker.

The difference in raising terminal in (3) shows the difference in meaning, from (1b). The difference of sounds and meanings because of the observed stress in the given utterance shows the semantic difference when it is compared with the normal (neutral) form of linguistic expression as in (1b).

The following is another example showing that constituents on which stress falls are focused.

(4) kop'ee ~~na~~ kun BAYESSA!
 shoes -nom this excellent.
 'These shoes are excellent.'

The prosodic contour of (4) is
 , showing that the stress falls on BAYESSA 'excellent', when the Speaker is surprised.

This personal feeling towards the 'shoes' is reflected by the change in the stress pattern on the word BAYESSA. In the pragmatics of linguistic expressions, this change in stress signals the presence of some sort of particular

attention given to it in contrast to the other constituents. This assumption can be verified by formulating a wh-question such as (5a).

- (5) S: kop'ee -n kun akkan -i?
 shoes -nom this how is
 'How are these shoes?, (it is asked to elicit
 the addressee's answer, *imprassion*)

The following may be a right response to the WH-question such as (5)

- (6) A: BAYEESSA:
 (it is) 'excellent'

Usually the Addressee does not repeat what the speaker has already said: he simply supplies the desired answer (the focused constituent), i.e., information which is new and important for the Speaker.

In replying to (5), (A) certainly adds the prosodic feature which expresses his personal feeling as shown in (6) above.

The other prosodic feature which also shows focus in this language is 'pause' as exemplified in (7) and (8) below.

(7) S: farda noo- harre, della keessa -tti kan gal-e
 horse or donkey compound in that enter -3ms(pf)
 It is '(the) horse-or (the) donkey that entered in the
 compound'

A: i. harree Da Dellaa kessa-tti kan gal-e.
 donkey is compound in -p that enter 3ms(pf)
 'It is a donkey that entered the compound'

A:ii. harree - farda mit.
 donkey - horse not.
 '(it is) a donkey not a horse'

OR

A:iii. HARREE (stress)
 '(a) donkey'

(7 i-iii) show the same meaning, but the manner of focus assignment is different. In (ii) the presence of a pause after harree 'donkey' assigns focus, and in (iii) the presence of a stress on HARREE donkey focalize it.

(8) S: c'aala -n k'awwe bit- -mo hin- bin n-e?
 c' -nom gun buy-3ms(pf) of foc-buy-neg
 'Did Chala buy a gun or not?'

OR

c'aala -n k'awwe hin -bit -n -e?
 c' -nom gun foc buy neg -3ms(pf)
 'Didn't Chala buy a gun?'

A:i. bit -e.
 buy -3ms(pf)
 '(he) bought'

(8Ai) is a correct answer to (8). The predicate is focused by a high pitch stress. It means that 'Chala has already bought a gun. The question in (8) is whether Chala has bought a gun or not.

In all the above sentences prosodic FM_s such as stress, and pause are shown

These FM_s focalize NP_s , VP_s , Adj, and PP_s .

Regarding the scope of focus, prosodic contour FM_s are shown to focalize only the constituent to which they are assigned, that is, the entire sentence cannot be focused by a single prosodic FM.

There are different ways in which a piece of information may be important or salient. This is based on the parameters determining different types and functions of focus.

The types of focus that are characterized by prosodic contour include assertion, counter assertion and exhaustive listing. These are distinguished in terms of differences in communicative effects .

3.1.2 Word Ordering:

Dik (1978:174) claims that the basic ideas of constituent order are the results of three main forces which counteract with each other³. One of these three forces is the preference for assigning certain specific positions (in particular, the initial position in a clause) to certain constituents having topic and focus functions. This preference according to him is accounted for factional patterns.

This general principle implies that focused constituents may be placed in positions other than in their linear syntactic positions for pragmatic reasons.

These types of focus and others are described in sub section (3.2) of this paper on page .

These are described on sub section (3.4) on page .

One such case in Oromo is word order variations, the purpose of which in syntagmatic structure is to exploit certain sentential positions which have been assigned specific functional values in the linguistic expression.

Sentences such as (9) will be presented

(9) i. c'aala -n buddeena ñaat -e
 c' -nom bread eat -3ms(pf)
 'Chala ate bread'

ii. buddeena c'aala -n ñaat -e
 bread c' -nom eat -3ms(pf)
 'Chala ate bread'

Most discussions of constituent order explicitly or implicitly rely on the distinction between the neutral or unmarked order and the non-neutral or marked word order of constituents.

Since Oromo is an SOV language, any word order other than this pattern is the marked one. In (9ii) buddeena 'bread' is outside the SOV pattern, representing the new information i.e., 'What c'ala ate'. Since buddeena 'bread' in (9ii) is not part of the predication, it cannot be considered as an entity about which information

is provided in the discourse as a Topic. The only pragmatic function that should be assigned to buddeena 'bread' is focus. The following is different from (9ii)

- (10) buddeena ñaat -e c'aala -n
 bread eat -3ms(pf) c' -nom
 (Lit) 'Ate bread - Chala'
 'Chala ate bread.'

The above sentence (10) unlike (9ii) has a topicalized 'NP'Chala. In Oromo any constituent other than the object immediately following the subject is focalized.

- (11) tulluu-n kaleessa harkka daaba Dah -e.
 t -nom yesterday hand deba hit -3ms(pf)
 'Tullu hit Daba's hand'

The above sentence has an SOV pattern with a temporal constituent which the Speaker is assumed to emphasize focus. Here in (11) the temporal kalessa is focalized.

- (12) tulluu -n saggar deem -e
 t -nom Addis go -3ms(pf)
 'Tullu went to Addis Ababa'

In (12) saggar 'Addis Ababa' is focused. The fact that Saggar the place where Tulu went to appears immediately after the topic, Tullu, shows that the NP saggar is focused.

In such an expression the Speaker is assumed to emphasize the place where Tullu went and the Addressee is expected to comprehend that this is so.

However, depending on the context, focus may be assigned to an entire sentence, to a predicate, or to an NP.

For example (1) can be a correct answer to either (13.i) or (13.ii).

- (13) i. c'aala -n mal God -e?
 c' -nom what do -3ms(pf)
 'what did Chala do?'
- ii. eññu -t ñaat -e
 who eat -3ms(pf)
 'Who eat?'

3.1.3 Special Focus Markers:

- (14) tuffa -n ra?e k'aal -e
 t' -nom goat kill -3ms(pf)
 'Tufa killed (a) goat.'

Since the sentence follows the SOV pattern, the Addressee cannot differentiate which constituent of (14) is focused. According to Watters (1979:77) such structures are neutral or (unmarked).

- (15) tuuffa -n ra?e hin k'aal -e
 t' -non goat FM kill -3ms(pf)
 'Tufa killed the goat'.

(15) is different from (14). Here the presence of the prefix hin- focalizes the verb k'aal 'kill'. This time the Speaker is assumed to assert (confirm) that Tufa has really killed the goat. The emphasis is on whether or not Tufa has killed a sheep.

In (15) the scope of focus in the predication. Since the sentence is meant to confirm that the action has taken place, the type of focus is Assertive. The communicative point of this type of focus is that the action of killing a goat has in fact been completed, i.e., and this is shown by completive focus.

According to Andrzejewski (1959) and Baye (1988), hin in Oromo has got two functions.

In syntactic structure hin- forms a discontinuous morpheme with the suffix -n to show negation, whereas in pragmatic it serves as a presentational focus marker. The present study however follows the FG approach that hin is an assertive focus marker, as it is shown in (15) which would be a possible answer to the (wh) question about what Tufa has done.

- (16) tuffa -n mal goD -e?
 t -nom what do -3ms(pf)
 'What did Tufa do?'

However, if we question the subject as in (17):

- (17) eññu -t- ra?e k'aal -e
 who goat kill -3ms(pf)
 'Who killed (a) goat?'

(18) will be the correct answe.

- (18) tuffa -tu ra?e k'aal -e
 t -nom FM goat ^kkill -3ms(pf)
 'It is Tufa that killed a goat'

In (18), the FM -tu is used to focalize the subject NP. The type of focus is assertive. The function of this FM is completion. This type of focus has the function of restricting the gap. The FM -tu in (18) above also fills the gap that it is Tufa and no body else who **killed** a goat. According to Baye (1988), this FM is selected to show a contractive function.

Oromo shows other predicate FM as in the following

examples:

- (19) i. kitaaba -n buuppá bit -e.
 k -nom egg buy -3ms(pf)
 'Kitaba bought an egg'

ii. kitaaba -n buuḥḥa bit -e -ra
 k -nom egg buy -3ms FM
 'Kitaba bought an egg'

In (19 i) there is no focused constituent. But in (19ii) the presence of -ra following the VP focalizes it. The type of focus is assertive and the function of -ra is to show the completion of the thing expressed by the verb. The scope of the focus is limited to the verb.

There is another FM which has the same scope, and which functions like hin-

(20) i. tuffa-n raʔe hin -kaal-e -bar.
 t -nom goat FM kill-3ms(pf)FM
 'Tufa killed a goat'

ii. tuufa -n raʔe kaal -e-ra bar ..
 t -nom goat kill 3ms(pf) FM FM
 'Tufa killed a goat'

iii. tuufa -n raʔe hin -kaal -e -ra
 t -nom goat FM kill -3ms(pf) FM
 'Tufa killed a goat'

In both (20)i-ii) the presence of -bar with hin- or -ra shows that the two FMs are not in complementary distribution.

From (20 iii) above we have seen that the assignment of two FMs simultaneously to either the NP or the VP would lead to ungrammaticality. This may mean that -bar is an FM which focalizes the entire sentence. In 20(i-ii) the entire sentence is focalized. The function of -bar is to show that the action is infact completed by somebody.

Both hin- and -ra are FM of the verb in a sentence. But the difference is that the prefix hin- comes prior to the VP, whereas -ra comes at the end. This is shown in (21)

- (21) i. tuufa -n ra?e hin -k'aal -e
 t- -nom goat FM kill -3ms(pf)
 'Tufa killed a goat'
- ii. tuufa -n ra?e kaal -e -ra.
 t -nom goat kill -3ms FM
 'Tufa has killed a goat'
- iii. tuufa -n ra?e hin -kaale -ra.
 t -nom goat FM kill -3ms(pf)-FM
 'Tufa killed a goat'

Unlike (i) and (ii), (iii) is ungrammatical. This ungrammaticality appears because of two FMs for the same VP constituent. The unacceptability of the sentence shows that the VP FMs hin- and -ra cannot occur at the same time. It means they are in complementary distribution. Once the FM hin- is used there is no need for -ra.

Another FM which focalizes the Object NP is -uma as it is shown below.

- (22) i. c'aaltu -n aannan jaala -ti
 c' -nom milk like -3fs(pf)
 'Chaltu likes milk'
- ii. c'aaltu -n aannan -uma jaala -ti.
 c' -nom milk -FM like -3fs(pf)
 'Chaltu likes milk (not tea or coffee)'

-uma focalizes the preceding NP aannan'milk'.

The type of focus is counter-assertive. And its scope is the object NP.

- (23) i. *c'aaltu -uma aannan jaala -ti.
 c' -nom milk like -3fs(pf)
 'Chaltu likes milk'
- ii. *c'aaltu -tu annaan -uma jallat -ti
 c' nom-FM milk FM like -3FS (PF)
 'Chaltu likes milk'
- iii. *c'aaltu -n annan -uma hin jaala -ti
 c' -nom milk FM FM like -3fs(pf)
 'Chaltu likes milk'

(23) shows that -uma which is an object FM is in complimentary distribution with other FMs in a sentence.

(23) shows that -um unlike -tu is not a subject FM. It is rather an Object FM. The function of -uma is to show selection. It contrasts aannan 'milk' with some other unknown entity. Which is, of course, new information to the Addressee.

Another FM is the element -oh. This FM is believed to focalize subject NP_s.

- (24) i. muc'aa -n Duf -e?
 boy -nom come -3ms(pf)
 'Did the boy come?'
- ii. muc'aan oh Duf -e?
 boy -nom FM come -3ms(pf)
 'Did the boy come?'

The presence of -oh following the subject NP shows that the NP is focalized. The scope is the NP muc'aa 'boy'

- (25) *muc'aa -n Duf -e oh?
 boy -nom come -3ms(pf)FM
 'Did the boy come?'

(25) is unacceptable because -oh cannot occur with a verb. Hence, we conclude that -oh is a subject NP FM. It is an undifferentiated⁴ focus marker. It may be categorized under the illocutionary operation.

— However the function of this FM is to get the correct information, hence it requests an asserted question.

3.1.4 Special focus constructions: In Oromo categories such as PP's and AP's are observed to be subject to focus assignment. Faye (1988) has stated that Da can be incorporated into PP's ulee-n'with a stick' and kawwee-n'with a gun' when these categories are focused.

- (26) c'aala -n makiina -Da -n Duf -e
 c' -nom car FM -with come -3ms(pf)
 'It is by car that Chala came'

Here in (26) Da in the a PP's makiina -n -by a car shows that these categories are focused. The type of focus indicated is assertive. The scope is the PP. The function is completive.

In Oromo, as in other languages, WH- questions (Q-word questions) universally contain constituents that mark some information gap. Since a Q-word signals such a gap, it is considered a focal element. By using a Q-word as 'S' signals what, where, when and how a thing is done.

- (27) c'aala -n mā1 goD -e?
 c' -nom whatdo -3mf(pf)
 'What did Chala do?'

The Speaker signals:

- i. that he presumes Chala did something.
- ii. that he does not know what Chala did.
- iii. that he presumes that the addressee knows what Chala did.
- iv. that he wishes the addressee to tell him what Chala did.

The question can thus be compared to an "open form" of the following kind:

- (28) c'aala -n k'oop'e bit -e.
 c' -nom shoes buy -3ms(pf)
 'Chala bought shoes.'

Consider also the following:

- (29) c'aala -n ečča deem -e?
 c' -nom where go -3ms(pf)
 'Where did Chala go?'

The Speaker in (30) assumes that

- i. Chala has gone somewhere.
- ii. he does not know where he has gone.
- iii. the addressee knows where Chala has gone.
- iv. he wishes the addressee to tell him
where he has gone.

Hence (29) can be compared to an open form¹ of answer such as:

(30) c'aala -n saggar deem -e
c' -nom Addis go
'Chala went to Addis'

Thus, Q-word questions help to find out what is 'new' or important to a Speaker.

(31) i. isii:-n c'ist -u eññu?
she -nom sleep who
'who is she (that) sleep?'

In (31) the woman that is sleeping is unknown. It is new for the Speaker. The question requests this new information (the salient). This time the name (the personality of the woman) is needed to be focused.

Cross-linguistically speaking, special focus constructions are one of four devices used to denote salience. They are exemplified as follows.

- (32) i. c'aaltuu-n muuzii -fuDa -tt- e.
 c' -nom banana take -3fs (pf)
 'Chaltu took (the) banana'
- ii. c'aaltu Da muuzi kan fuDa -tt -e.
 c' be banana that take -3fs(pf)
 'It is Chaltu that took the banana.'

(32 i) follows a linear word order. There is no FM. However in (32 ii) due to the presence of a cleft construction we get a focalized constituent. Here, c'aalt Da is focussed. As Watters (1979) and Baye (1988) stated such constructions show focus.

The type of focus in (32 ii) is assertive. Since it restricts the function of the focused constituent, its function is restrictive.

3.2 Scope of Focus in Oromo: It is a question of whether focus is assigned to predicate as a whole or only to some constituent in the predicate.

3.2.1 Focus on the predication as a whole: When focus is on the predication as a whole, it concerns the illocutionary point of predication. If the predication is presented as an assertion, then the focus will fall on the truth value of the assertion.

(33) mucaa-n buddeena fiat -e ra -bar.
 boy -nom bread eat FM FM
 '(The) boy has eaten bread'

In (33) there are two FMs. They focalize differently. The former FM (-ra) focalizes the predicate or the verb only. The second FM (-bar) focalizes the predication as a whole.

3.2.2 Focus on some constituents of predication:

(34) ani farda GURRACCA n jaalaD-a.
 I horse BLACK -acc like -1ps(pf)
 'I like black horse'

GURRACCA 'black' is stressed and, hence, focused. The presence of stress shows that the speaker refers not to a white horse but to a black one.

Thus, 'GURRACCA' 'black' restricts the term farda 'horse'. The restrictor focalizes the term horse. The scope is on the term.

(35) tuufa -n gaange LAMA bit -u barbaad-a
 t -nom mule TWO buy IMP want -3ms(pf)
 'Tufa wants to buy two mules'

Here in (35) LAMA 'two' restricts the thing that Tufa wants to buy, that gaange 'mule'. The restrictor focalizes only the term gaange 'mule'

3.2.3 One focus or more: In Oromo within a single sentence different FMs may serve to focalize different constituents. For example, there are two FM hin- and -bar in (20 i).

(36) eg. kitaaba -tu buuppa bita -t-e -bar.
 k' -nom FM egg buy -3mf(pf) FM.
 'It is kitaba who bought an egg for himself.'

In (36) the FM -tu focalizes a subject NP kitaba whereas the FM -bar focalizes the predication. (cf. 3.3 above)

Hence it is logical to say that in Oromo more than one FM are possible.

The ungrammaticality of (37i-iii) shows that Obj FM -uma is in complimentary distribution with subj FM tu, VP FM hin-, -ra.

(37) i. *kitaaba tu buppuma bit -e -ra.
 k FM egg buy -3ms(pf)
 'It is Kitaba who bought an egg'

ii. *kitaaba -n buppuma hin bit -e
 k -nom egg FM buy -3ms(pf)
 'Kitaba bought an egg'

iii. *kitaaba -n buppuma bit -e -ra
 k -nom egg buy -3ms(pf) FM
 'Kitaba bought an egg'

3.3 Types of Focus in the Oromo Language: Five types of focus are observed in the language.

3.3.1 Assertive Focus: Assertive Focus expresses ideas which the Speaker believes, assumes, or knows that the hearer does not share with him or her.

(38) tufaa -tu k'awwee bit -e
 t -FM gun buy -3ms(pf)
 'It is Tufa who bought a gun'

Here the person who bought a gun is asserted to be Tufa. Other FMs such as hin-, ra, -bar, serve to assign Assertive focus to constituents which they focalize.

3.3.2 Counter Assertive Focus: This type of Focus is observed when information is negatively asserted by the Speaker. Consider the following.

(39) lakki tufaa -n k'awwee hin bit -n -e.
 no t -nom gun FM buy neg -3ms(pf)
 'No Tufa did not buy a gun'

The information in (38) above is counter asserted in (39) by the FM hin-n and the negative marker lakki- at sentence initial position.

3.3.3 Exhaustive listing Focus: The information which the Speaker forwards is unique in the sense that the rest of the sentence is true only with respect to it, and false with respect to all other units of information which could apparently be substituted for it.

(40) c'aaltu- Da aããi kan deem -t -e.
 c' be there that go -3fs(pf)
 'It is Chaltu who went there.'

This type of focus prevails in cleft constructions. The structure in (40) means that 'No other person but Tullu is the one who came'. Here the whole information about who came is given.

3.3.4 Polar Focus: According to Watters (1979) polar focus expresses the true or false value which the Speaker forwards concerning a presupposition. This type of focus confirms that some action has in fact taken place.

(41) ijolle-n buddeena ñaata -ni -ru.
 children -nom bread eat -P1 FM
 'The children did eat bread.'

(41) means the children have indeed eaten bread.

3.3.5 Counter assertive polar focus: This is the type of Focus in which the truth value which a third Speaker counter Asserts against another, already counter asserted information. In other words, it is a counter assertion to an already counter asserted utterance.

(42) A: sare -n kun buddeena ñat -e
 dog -nom this bread eat
 'Did this dog eat bread?'

In the following sentence, 'A's information, is counter asserted by (B) in (43) using the FM- hin and the negative marker -n.

(43) B: hin ñaa t - n- -e.

(no) FM eat 3ms neg-3ms(pf)

'No it did not eat'

C: lakki fooni -s kenne ne -f.

no meat too give (pf)for (it)

'No, it has been given meat too.'

In the above utterances, the counter assertion which is uttered by 'B' is again counter asserted by 'C' and thus polar focus is observed.

3.4 Function of Focus in Oromo: Against the background of previous discussions, we shall now observe the function of focus in Oromo.

3.4.1 Completive Focus: It is that function of focus which shows information that fills a gap.

This is expressed in Q-word questions like the following:

(44) c'aala -n mal bit -e.

c' -nom what buy -3ms(pf)

'What did Chala buy?'

The addressee infers that the Speaker has the following presuppositional structures.

- (45) c'aala -n X:X : _____ bit -e
 c'aala -nom X : _____ buy -3ms(pf)
 'Chala bought X: _____'

(45) May be the presuppositional structure in which the gap is expected to be filled in. The answer to (44) is:

- (46) c'aala -n uffata bit -e
 c' -nom clothes buy -3ms(pf)
 'Chala bought clothes'

uffata represents the information needed to fill in the gap in (46). Its stress shows that it is salient.

3.4.2 Selective Focus: We speak of selective focus when the focused information selects one item from among a presupposed set of possible 'values'.

- (47) S: c'aala -n farda -mo gangee bit -e
 c' -nom horse or mule buy -3ms(pf)
 'Did Chala buy a horse or a mule?'

The presupposition is:

C'aala bought X:X = farda or X= gange

This presupposition is expressed in one of the following ways.

(48) A: i. farda bit -e
 horse buy -3ms(pf)
 '(he) bought a horse'

OR

A ii. farda (by showing stress) a 'horse'

The selected NP is 'stressed' and hence, it is focussed.

The focused item in (48) is far'da and it is the value of X. Selective focus involves contrast. In this case, it implicitly or explicitly excludes other presupposed value(s) as incorrect values of X. When the contrast is made explicit, we get constructions such as 49.

(49) i. inni farda bit -e, gaangee miti.
 he horse buy -3ms(pf) mule not
 'he bought a horse, not a mule'

ii. gaangee miti.
 mule not
 (it:is) not (a) mule.

Thus selective focus may involve two constituents of which one is selected as a correct value, and the other is rejected as an incorrect value. However, selective focus does not only correct the wrong information but also replaces it by correct information.

3.4.3 Replacing Focus: It is a function where a specific item is replaced by another. The following example shows this function.

(50) A: ʕ'aala -n ra?e bit-e
 c' -nom goat buy-3ms(pf)
 'Chala bought a goat'

B: lakki, inni ra?e hin bit n-e hoola bit-e
 no he goat FM buy neg 3ms(pf)
 sheep buy -3ms(pf)
 'No he did not buy a goat (he) bought a sheep'

In (50) rejection is realized by the FM hin and the negative marker lakki and -n the correction is by the stress on the replaced NP, namely hoola 'sheep'

It is shown in the above structures that replacing focus involves distinctive steps of removing the constituent carrying the incorrect information, that is ra?e 'goat' and substituting it by the correct information, hoola 'sheep'.

These two steps are rejection and correction, respectively.

- (51) c'aala -n hin-deem n-e hin-ta? -e -male.
 c' -nom FM go neg 3ms(pf) FM stay
 3ms(pf) but
 'Chala did not go but stayed.'

The first hin -shows that 'Chala's going to somewhere' is negated. The second hin- however confirms the corrected information. Thus the function of replacing focus is realized.

Although rejection is sometimes incomplete without a following correction, there are circumstances in which a constituent to be corrected is predicated. Consider the following example.

- (52) nan-icci as Duf- -e' k'aalla mit
 man FM here come-3ms(pf) thin not
 'The man (who) came here is not thin'

In (52) the addressee may rightly conclude that the correct statement is that 'the person is fat' even if this is not stated in the correcting constituent.

The fact that the constituents are in binary opposition makes it easy for one to predict the correct information.

3.4.4 Expanding Focus: By expanding function of focus information is meant the addition of the antecedently given or presupposed information.

(53) S: c'aala -n farda bit -e.
 c' -nom horse buy -3ms(pf)
 'Chala bought a horse.'

A: i. c'aala -n farda male ,gangees bit-e
 c' -nom horse not only a mule buy
 -3ms(pf)
 'Chala bought not only a horse but also
 a mule.'

A: ii ayyen farda male ganges bit -e.
 yes horse not mule buy -3ms(pf)
 'yes, not only did he buy a horse but
 also a mule.'

Expanding focus contains an element of correction. In this sense (i) indicates that he believes that 'S's information is incomplete with respect to the value of X in the presupposition. Thus, he adds the new information.

3.4.5 Restriction Focus: It is a function of focus by which a presupposed set of information is restricted to one or more correct values among the set.

presupposition of A:

(54) A: c'aala-n X:bit-e X=farda and harre.
 c' -nom X:buy-3ms(pf) X=horse and donkey
 'Chala bought a horse and a mule.'

B: lakki inni harre -uma -bit -e
 no he donkey FM buy -3ms(pf)
 'No he bought only the donkey'

The rejecting focus corrects the presupposed information of 'A' in that at least one value of X is explicitly or implicitly rejected as incorrect.

The following is another example for restricting focus.

(55) c'aaltuu -n dammile rra biftuu -uma jalaa -ti
 c' -nom dammile than Biftuu FM like -3fs
 'Chala likes Biftu more than Damile'

It means Chaltu likes Biftu more than the other counterpart NP, Dammile, Here the preference is restricted to an NP Biftu.

3.4.6 Parallel Focus: This function of focus is used when a Speaker contrasts two pieces of information within one linguistic expression as in:

(56) c'aala -n farda bit -e Tullu-n's harre bit-e
 c' -nom horse buy -3ms(pf) Tullu-mom donkey buy
 3ms(pf)

'Chala bought a horse and Tullu bought a donkey.'

Each of the underlined NP_s has prosodic-stress focus assigned to it by the internal relation of the contrasted pairs c'aala farda and tullu harre, whose function is parallel. The focused NPs in this case do not necessarily reject or correct any thing in the pragmatic information of the addressee.

The strong parallelism between two or more pairs or constituents is observed. This pairwise relation belongs to the same semantic category usually having the same functional status as follows:

(57) c'aala ni -f tulluu -n farda-fi gange bit-a ni.
 c' -nom and tullu - nom horse and mule buy (pf)
 3ms(pf)

'Chala and Tullu bought a horse and a mule.'

Here, Chala and Tullu have got pairwise parallel relations with horse and mule.

(57) means Chala bought a horse and Tullu bought a mule. Hence focus is assigned by the internal relation of the contrasted pairs.

NOTES

1. Illocutionary conversation can take different forms of pragmatics.
2. Constituent orders are the results of three main forces:
 - a) The preference for having constituent with the same function in the same structure.
 - b) The preference for assigning certain specific positions.
 - c) The preference for having constituents orders from left to right in order of increasing categories.
3. Undifferentiated FM- This type of FM according to De Vries (1985) has no definite focal element (does not have a specific category to be focused).
4. Open form of predication- A predicate frame can be called to in a sense that it provides structures from which predications can be formed by the insertion of term structures.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The study has attempted to fill in a gap by analyzing focus the features of the language in light of Dik (1978 and 1989)

In Chapter One a general introduction including the related literature of the subject is given. In this part particular attention is given to studies on focus.

In Chapter Two the theoretical framework of Dik (1978) and (1989) is discussed. In this Chapter a reasonable impression of the feasibility of grammatical descriptions according to the theory of Functional Grammar is presented. It is found that FG specifies functional relations at three different levels.

- (i) semantic function Agent, Goal, Recipient etc.
- (ii) Syntactic function: Subject and Object
- (iii) Pragmatic functions: Theme and Tail, Topic and focus

Leaving aside the first two levels, the study has shown the concept of pragmatic function in general and the function of focus in particular.

In Chapter Three, the focus systems of Oromo have been examined. In this section prosodic prominence, special word order, special focus markers, and special constructions are argued to be focalizing devices in the language.

The types of Focus are Assertive Focus, Counter Assertive Focus, Exhaustive Listing Focus, Polar Focus and Counter Polar Focus. These types are observed to exhibit the following six function: Completing, Selecting, Replacing, Expanding, Restricting and parallel focus.

In Oromo, focus has two scopes—focus on part of the sentence and focus on the predicate. It is also found that two devices can be used within a single sentential structure.

The distribution of Focus shows that focus markers follow NPs, follow or precede the verbs and in sentential focus, the markers follow the sentence.

Because of the pragmatic and dialectical variations, such a study needs a considerable time and money. The researcher by no means claims that this study is exhaustive.

REFERENECEES

Andrzejewski, B.W.

- 1960 . My Recent Researches into the Galla Dialects, Atti del convegno internazionale di studi Ethiopia, Roma, Accademia Nazionale de Lincei, problem Attuali di Scienza e di Cultura, Quaderno N.48, 1960, P.75-80
- 1966 . The Role of Tone in the Borena Dialect of Galla Proceedings of the Third International Conference of Ethiopian Studies II, Addis Ababa, P. 88-98.

Baye Yimam

- 1981 . Oromo Substantives: Some aspects of their morphology and syntax. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University.
- 1986 . The Phrase Structure of Ethiopian Oromo Unpublished Ph. Dissertation, University of London.
- 1988 . 'Focus in Oromo' The Tenth International Conference of Ethiopian Studies, paper presented at Paris, 1988, p.365-384.

Bender, M.L

- 1976 (ed) . The Non-Seritic Languages of Ethiopia, Monograph, East Lansing, African Studies Centre, Michigan State University.
- Bender, M.L, . J.D. Bowen, R.L. Cooper, C.A. Ferguson (eds)
- 1976 . Language in Ethiopia, London.

- Bender, M.L.
1976
- M. Etaffa, and D. Lloyd Stinson.
 - Two Cushitic languages, Galla. In Bender M.L., et al. (eds.).
- Black, P.
1974
- Lowland East Cushitic: Subgrouping and Reconstruction. PH.D Dissertation, Yale University
- Braecke, C.
1984
- PP over Vand focus in spoken Dutch: Paper presented at University of Antwap IUFSLA
- Dejene Leta
1980
- Verbs in Oromo Sentence patterns unpublished M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University
- De Vries
1985
- 'Topic and Focus in Wanbon Discourse' In : A.M Bolkesteine et al. (eds.).
- Dik, S.C.
1978
- Functional Grammar. Amsterdam, North Holland (Second Printing 1979, Dordrecht: Foris).
- 1980a
- 'Cleft and Pseudo-Cleft Construction: in Studies in Functional Grammar 1980, P. 210-229

- 1980b . 'Seventeen Sentences: Basic principles and application of Functional Grammar' In Moravcsik and Wirth (eds.).
- 1989 . The Theory of Functional Grammar. Part I. Dordrecht: Foris Publications.
- Dik, S.C. et al .
- 1981 . 'On the Typology of Focus phenomena', In T. Hoekstra; et al. (eds).
- Fshetu Kebede
- 1981 . The Verb to be in Oromo. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University.
- Gragg.G
- 1976 . 'Oromo of Wollega' In Bender, M.L.(ed)
- Greenberg, J.H.(ed)
- 1963 . Universals of Language. Cambridge, Mass, MIT press.
- Hudson, A.W., and Walker, C.H.
- 1922 . An Elementary and practical Grammar of the Galla or Oromo Language. London.

Halliday, M.A.K.

- 1985 • An Introduction to Functional Grammar.
London, Arould

Hannay, Mike

- 1982 • The focus function in Functional Grammar... Questions of Contrast and Context: Free University Studies in English 2:93-110.

J.
Hayward, D. and Saeed

- 1983 • NP focus in Somali and Dirayta a comparison of baa and pa. In the 11th International Studies Hamburg.

Hoekstra, T.H. Van der Hulst and M. Moortgat, eds.

- 1981 • Perspectives on Functional Grammar,
Dordrecht, Foris.

Huntingford, G.W.B

- 1955 • The Galla of Ethiopia. The Kingdoms of Kafa and Janjero, Ethnographic Survey of Africa, North Eastern Africa 2. London.

Hyman, Larry M. and J. Watters

- 1984 • 'Auxiliary Focus'. Studies in African Linguistics 15:3, P. 233-273.

Kuno, S.

1972. • 'Functional Sentence Perspective = case study from Japanese and English'
Linguistic Inquiry Vol.3, Number 3.
- 1980 • 'Functional Syntax' In Moravcsik and Wirth.

Launhardt, J.

- 1973 • Guide to learning the Oromo Language, Addis Ababa.

Mackenzie, J.L. and Hannay

- 1982 • Prepositional predicates and Focus Constructions in Functional Grammar of English, Lingua 56:43-57

Moravcsik, Edith and Jessica R. Wirth (eds).

- 1980 • Syntax and Semantics 13: Current Approaches to Syntax. New York, etc.

Moeno, M.M.

- 1939 • Grammatica Teorico-practica Della Lingua Galla, Milano.

Norfelddt, M.

- 1947 • 'A Galla Grammar', Le Monde Orientale 33-35, P. 1-232

Owens, J

- 1983 • A Grammar of Harrar Oromo (North Eastern Ethiopia) Hamburg, Buske

- Pankhurst, R.K.P
- 1976 . The beginnings of Oromo studies in Europe, Africa 31, 1976, 171-206
- Pitha, P.
- 1980 . Review of Dik 1978. Journal of Pragmatics 4, 265-270
- Praetorius, F
- 1993 . Zur Grammatik der Galla-Sprache, Berlin.
- Radford, A. .
- 1981 Transformational Syntax, Cambridge University Press, London
- 1988 . Transformational Syntax, Cambridge University Press, London
- Riemsdijk, H. and E. Williams
- 1986 . Introduction to the Theory of Grammar, The MIT press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Saeed, J.
- 1989 . The prefix hin in Wollega Oromo. Second Congress on Cushitic and Omotic Languages paper presented at Turin 1989, p. 1-8
- Stroemer, H.
- 1982 . Oromo dialectology: Some issues in Oromo dialect cluster. In: the 7th International Conference of Ethiopian Studies.

- 1987 . A Comparative Study of Three Southern Oromo Dialects in Kenya. Buske, Hamburg.

Temesgen Negassa

- 1985 . The Structure of Dependent and Independent Sentences in Oromo. Unpublished B.A. Thesis Addis Ababa University.

Thwing, R. and J.F. Watters

- 1987 . Focus in Vute in Journal of African Languages and Linguistics 9, p.95-121

Waqo Tola

- 1981 . The Phonology of Mecca Oromo. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University.

Watters, J.F.

- 1979 . Focus in Aghem. A Study of its Formal Correlates and Typology. M.A. Thesis, UCLA, Los Angeles.
- 1982 . Focus and the Ejagham verb System paper Yaonde SIL

Webster, E.J.

- 1960 . The particle In Borena, African Studies 19, 1960, p.33-43

Zaborski, A

- 1975 • The verb in Cushitic. Studies in Hamito - Semetic, Nakladem Uniwersytetu Jagiellonskiego krakau.
- 1976 • Cushitic overview, In Bender, M.L. (ed).

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my work and all sources of material used for the thesis above have been duly acknowledged.

NAME : TAHA YASSIN

SIGNITURE :




PLACE : Department of Linguistics
Institute of Language studies
Addis Ababa University

DATE OF SUBMISSION: JUNE 4, 1990

D E C L A R A T I O N

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as University advisor.

NAME : Dr. Klaus Wedekind

SIGNATURE : 

PLACE : Department of Linguistics
Institute of Language Studies
Addis Ababa University

DATE OF SUBMISSION : JUNE 4, 1990