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FIKADU BULI SERDA

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BY

FIKADU BULI SERDA

MAJOR ADVISOR: MEQUANINT WANA (PHD)

CO-ADVISOR: MENGISTU DINATO (PHD)

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HAWASSA, ETHIOPIA

APPROVAL SHEET
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
HAWASSA UNIVERSITY

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**Borrowing in Oromo**” submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts to department of English language and literature, the Graduate Program in linguistics and communication has been carried out by **Fikadu Buli Serda**; Identity Number **GPLiMu R/0004/14** under our supervision. Therefore we recommend that the student has fulfilled the requirements and hence hereby can submit the thesis to the department of English language and literature.

Examiner	Signature	Date
_____	_____	_____
Major advisor	Signature	Date
_____	_____	_____
Co-advisor	Signature	Date
_____	_____	_____

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ACRONYMS AND SYMBOLS

The following abbreviations are used in interlinear morpheme in the document.

OBN	Oromia Broadcasting Network
EPDRF-	Ethiopian people democratic revolutionary front
SL	source language
RL	recipient language
TV	television
SG	Singular
PL	Plural
‘ ’	gloss of loan words
//	phonemic transcription
→	Changes to

Abstract

Borrowing means that words which originated in one language are now used in another language, even by people who don't speak the SL. The study describes the feature of Oromo loan words linguistically in comparison with non-loan words. Data of the study were collected from spoken and written corpus. Written was used to gather loan words from academic primary school specifically grade five (5) to eight (8) text books written in Oromo. From a text books one hundred ten (110) loan words were gathered. Spoken corpus was a data collected from OBN Media broadcasting in Oromo. From spoken one hundred eight (108) loan words were collected. The total number of collected data for the study was two hundred seventeen (217) loan words. The data have been phonetically transcribed and qualitatively analyzed. The study found out that loan words in Oromo have linguistic properties such as phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic change. Among the loan words, free morphemes are the most borrowable when it compared to others. Some loan words borrowed with their derivational morpheme that changes the word parts of speech especially in abstract nominative. Inflectional morphemes are not borrowed. But all loan words use Oromo inflectional morpheme for nominative, dative, objective, plurality and gender.

Keywords: *Oromo, Loanword, borrowing, donor language, receptor language.*

CHAPTER ONE

1. Introduction

This paper examines one of the emblems of language contact and linguistic interference, namely the use of loanwords, i.e. words having been originally introduced to Oromo, from a different languages by bilinguals, but currently also occurring in the speech of monolingual speakers of Oromo, sometimes without their awareness of their source. Different researcher used different phrases to represent the language in their study. For example, Misganu and Ramesh (2019), Naol and Kula (2021), Abebe (2013) and Kebede (2009) used “Afaan Oromo” to present the language which means literally “Oromo language”. Other researchers such as Ahmed (2022), Dale (2011), Jamaica (2020) and Dejene (2013) used Oromo to indicate the language spoken by Oromo people. Apart from these above, Kedir (2019) used to say ‘Oromo language’ which is literal translation of Afaan Oromo. In this study, the researcher used term “Oromo” to represents the language spoken by Oromo people throughout the paper as other researches such as Kedir (2019), Gragg (1982), Ahmed (2022), and it al. used it, because, the word Oromo is easy to practice and short to read for consumer and also it used to teach others whose difficulty to differentiate the term. The thesis paper encompasses four chapters. The first chapter includes background of study, statement of the problem, research question, and objectives of the study, its scope, significance and limitation of the study. The second chapter comprises reviews of related literatures; the third chapter holds research methodology and fourth chapter is all about results and discussions. Finally, conclusion of findings, reference and appendix of study is included.

1.1 Background of the study

Language contact and the influence of one language on another are very common phenomena. As people contact for different purposes, linguistic contacts may occur. The type and amount of linguistic contact appears to be conditioned by the social factors such as cultural, political, or economic superiority and power, as well as the concomitant language ideologies as explained by peter (2020). In very general terms, language contact occurs when two or more languages are spoken at the same time, in the same place, and among the same group of people. So, the criterion of language contact includes an appearance of more than one language and interrelation of speakers of both languages for social factors is pre conditional measurement.

The results of language contacts are bilingualism, code-mixing, code-switching, language shifts, and borrowing are major one. There may be words for objects, social, political, and cultural institutions and events or abstract concepts which are not found in the culture of the other language that may leads for borrowing. So, the best way of reducing the word limitation of thing is borrowing from related language and creating new word for new thing and concepts, Haspelmath (2009). Borrowing is defined by different scholars in different ways. Bynon (1977) assumed borrowing as transfer of lexical material across language boundaries. Weinreich (1964) discusses borrowing as the transfer or introduction of foreign elements from one language into another resulting in the rearrangement of the patterns of the target language.

In linguistics, borrowing (lexical borrowing) is the process by which a word from one language is adapted for use in another. The question of whether or not elements of one language can become part of another language's system has received considerable attention in contact linguistics research. According to Thomason and Kaufman (1988: 37), borrowing is defined as "the incorporation of foreign features into a group's native language by speakers of that language: the native language is maintained but is changed by the addition of the incorporated features". The feature of language in this context includes lexical, inflections, derivations, phonemes, semantics and other grammatical features. An incorporation of foreign feature engaged through process and gradually, not immediate action.

In borrowing process, a source language (SL) can influence the grammar of a recipient language (RL) in two fundamentally distinct ways as discussed by Gardani (2020: 264). These are material linguistic borrowing and pattern linguistic borrowing. The material linguistics borrowing includes each tangible elements language such as phonemes, words and phrases passed from one language to another. The latter, pattern linguistics borrowing, contain rules, structures and patterns of language that borrowed from SL to TL. Al-Athwary (2015) based on the elements of incorporated from one language to another, classifies borrowing in to two major types. These are lexical and grammatical borrowing. Lexical borrowing is referred to as the integration of language features from source language to a recipient language in both form and meaning of a lexical item originating in another language as his expression. It contains form of words with its meanings. Even though form of the word changed to fit with recipient language, the meaning of donor language and recipient should be the same as it implies. But, grammatical borrowing involves the incorporation of foreign rules into a recipient language.

Al-Jarf, (2021) said “When foreign words borrowed in any language, some usually undergo phonological, morphological and/or semantic adaptations.” The borrowed words have changes with its original sounds, lexemes and even within the meanings of target TL from SL. This modification happens because of linguistic variation. The variation of linguistic feature is not limited with few languages, but it exists in all natural languages in separation of language standard. An action of language contact specifically borrowing is fast in multilingual country. Bown (2008) said “A theory of the effects of language contact is particularly important for modeling language change in the many parts of the world where more than one language is in daily use in the speech community.” Means that it is more active at the place where more than one language is spoken. Because, the results of language contact with in a societal collides for different purpose.

Therefore, Ethiopia is a country composed at least 84 languages. Oromo is a language spoken broadly next to Amharic throughout the Ethiopia country. The native speaker of the language called their language “Afan Oromo” means literally ‘mouth of Oromo’ meaning ‘Oromo language’ in Tolemariam (2009). As Baye (1986) mentioned “It is one of the languages of lowland East Cushitic, which is the category of Afro-Asiatic Phylum”. The place they live called Oromiya, which is a largest in its coverage area and population of the country; Kedir (2019).

The language, Oromo, was vernacular for long period of time Tolemariam (2009). However, from 1991 with the coming of EPDRF it started to use for different purpose. For example, it became an official language of Oromia region, language of education from kinder garden to the medium of instruction at university level where Oromo departments are established. Now a day it declared as an official language of a country in addition to Tigre, Af-sumale as Amharic.

Different scholars classified Oromo dialects in to different parts. For example, Gragg (1976), Dame (2005) and Kebede (2010) agreed that the language has five dialects. These are Rayya, Borana, Harar, Mecha and Tulama dialects. On other hand, Negesse (2010) classified the dialects in to six which varieties are Western dialect, Central dialect, Northern dialects, Southern dialects, Southeastern dialect, and Eastern dialect. Even though the language actually contains different dialect, it is argued that there is mutual understanding among the speaker of its dialects. Nevertheless, in this paper, the detailed classification of Oromo dialects is not the main focus. Whatever dialect it contains, the current study is about borrowing than classification of its dialects. Since the study of borrowing helps for language standardization, this study is more general than focusing on certain dialect.

As others natural languages do, Oromo has many borrowed word that native speakers use in different ways in a daily conversation. These loan words in Oromo are originally from Amharic, Arabic, and English. For example, noun from Arabic the word */kita:bal/* ‘book’, from Amharic, */debtara/* means exercise book, and from French */gaon/* ‘gown’. Loan words from Amharic is more in number and also like native Oromo words even speakers’ difficulty to identify from each other. This occurred Because of geographical, social historical and political relation between the languages. English loan word takes great role in formation of the language. Geographically, there are few places of Oromo and English speaker people contacts. Except Kenya and Sudanese border there is not geographical bordering among the speaker of both languages, but Oromo borrowed many words from English because of educational. However, this study is not limited with the borrowing from Amharic and English, but from what every language it borrows, the study conducted to analyze the settings of loanwords.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The study intended to identify morphemes that took place in the process of borrowing in Oromo. Also aimed to identify the part adopted fully from the source language and undergo radical changes i.e. Phonological, morphological, and semantic and uses of its literature. In linguistics, loan words have different behavior in different language. The current study finds what loanwords feature linguistically like in Oromo in comparison of native words. Additionally, it also extended to search the loanwords morphemes rule, grammatical and lexical borrowing.

In Oromo, borrowed word either remain as they are in the source language or undergo partial or full phonological and morphological alterations to fit the Oromo phonological and morphological systems as in the inflection and derivation of plural forms, verbs, action nouns, abstract nouns, adjectives, and others following to fit with Oromo rules. For example, the word “መጻፍ” */mes’af/* ‘book’ is borrowed from Amharic and phonologized as */metfa:fa/* in Oromo. The phoneme /s’/ changed to /tʃ’/ from Amharic to Oromo respectively. Therefore, this study identified the grammar area part affected by borrowing in Oromo.

Additionally, there are words that borrowed within their morphemes. Frank (2011) said that “It is quite natural that languages borrow morphemes are (lexicon, syntax etc.) from the language it came from.” This action is not surprising, it done in English extensively. The English suffix morpheme ‘-tion’ borrowed from Portuguese and originally from Latin. In related to the current study it intended to

identify the typical morphemes borrowed with words and the words that assimilate with native morphemes.

For example 1) /*ka:pita:lɪsti:/* ‘capitalist’ is loan word originally from English, the root word ‘capital’ and with ‘-ist’ derivative morpheme. This indicated there are loan words with that exported with derivative morpheme from SL to Oromo. Contrarily there are also loan words that have the same property with non-loan words i.e. use morphemes of Oromo to the loan word root.

Example; 2

a) /*tollu:-n bɪfa:n damfise/* ‘Tulu boiled the water.’

Tulu-nom water boil-caus-pst

b) Alamuun bishaan danfise

/*alamu:-n bɪfa:n damf-is-e/* ‘Alemu boils water’

Above example 2, shows us there are many loan words that take morphemes of endogenous words and assimilate in their affixation like native words. Contrary, in example 1, a derivative morpheme has borrowed with root words from another language to Oromo. Now we have seen some words borrowed with derivational morphemes and borrowed bare words use native morphemes. The issue that should be raised in this area is that why some of the loan words are borrowed with their morpheme and others are not? Why some of them are assimilated with native morphemes and what are they? As we have seen from above examples (1 and 2) that is a motivation issue of this study. The study answered question in the study.

As different researcher such as Kedir (2019) and Fufa (2009) mentioned, the language under investigation, Oromo, is spoken as lingua franca, in educational medium instruction language from kinder garden to university level, official language of region and language of court and language of business in the Oromia region. However, there is not employed study of borrowing in Oromo, which play great role in language standardization. In order to hold the Oromo standardizing process, to use common words with the same morpheme and to show how it inflect and derivate, study borrowing is very necessary. Additionally, comparable study with the level of the language use is also important.

1.3 Research question

. The study answers the following research questions in related to Oromo:

1. What linguistic changes take place in borrowing?
2. What linguistic item is borrowed?

1.4 Objectives of the study

1.4.1 General objective

The general objective of the study is investigating borrowing in Oromo. It comprises borrowing areas of linguistics such as phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To identify linguistic change in borrowing
- To identify what linguistic item is borrowed..

1.5 Scope of the study

The scope of this study has included borrowing in Oromo. The impact of borrowing on phonological, morphological processes, syntax structure and linguistic terminology is largely to do with this. The language under investigation is Oromo without limit its dialects. This caused by the sources of data for study, the sampled Oromo written books that is an academic literature is used and accepted through ought the dialects of the language. The academic literature of the region is the same as it prepared by Oromia region educational bureau and distributed for each zones of a region. Spoken data have general property as a written since it taken from all dialects. This means spoken data of study is collected from each dialect of the language to make general and minimize bias. Although, in nature, a lot of loan words are nouns, this study is not limited to the part of speech where verbs, adjectives and adverbs were included.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study service the reader by giving entirely show rules of loan word morpheme, how it is inflected and derived, identify grammar area affected by borrowing process in Oromo. Additionally it also helps for standardization of the language under investigation. Furthermore, grammar writers can use it as

stepped stone for the researchers interested in the areas of study. Finally, it gives the documentation of loan word in the language.

1.7 Limitation of the study

This is what the researcher expected to face in the study process. Actually any study face challenges during investigation process. As a limitation for this study the researcher was relying on a corpus data collection methodology that is limited to academic literature which contains mainly English loan words. Only abroad language loan words may be added to the data without inclusion of local loan words. Since academic literatures contain mainly English loan word the researcher should add another data collection to get other loan words from local languages. Further methods for collecting data, like spoken and written collections as well as introspection, have been incorporated by the researcher to minimize this limitation. In order to reduce the effectiveness of single method, different methods were used in this study. 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 Definition of Key Terms

Oromo- a language spoken by Oromo people in Ethiopia

Loanword- borrowed word

Borrowing-process of transferring linguistic feature from one language to another

Donor language- source language

Receptor language- target language or the language receiving word

Morpheme- smallest meaningful unit of morphological analysis

CHAPTER TWO

2. Review literature

2.1 Theoretical frame work

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework that guides the researcher in the discussion of findings for this particular thesis. According to Brown (2004:13), linguistics data can only be analysed logically and orderly by employing a guiding theoretical framework. This means that theoretical framework informs decisions during interrogation of data and it provides with a notation, which guides data presentation.

Following these assertions, the theoretical framework designed for this study is a blend, which involves arguments taken from Clements and Keyser (1983), Chomsky and Halle (1968) and Kiparsky (1982). In analyzing the findings of this study, loan words with its morpheme in Oromo, the current research tenets from Generative Phonology specifically Lexical Morphology and Phonology.

2.2 Lexical Morphological and Phonological Paradigm

The lexical morphology and phonology theory was developed by Kiparsky and Mohanan (1982). The theory was advanced from Chomsky's generative theory of 1970. The aim of theory is to address an interaction between phonology and morphology. In here, phonology shows how sound patterned in specific language to form the words. And also morphology directed us different ways of word formation and forwardly how it developed and emerged to phrases. That is a great relationship between morphology and phonology rule and interwoven relation between them William (2009:78), argues that:

The lexicon theory is regarded as nothing but rather an appendix of generative phonology but it idiosyncrasies properties of lexical items and morphemes. In this regard, a lexicon is recognized as the main component of grammar, which contains properties of words and morphemes. The theory accounts for word formation using both phonological and morphological rules in a following cyclic fashion.

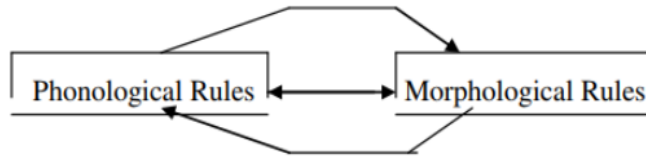


Figure 1; morphological and phonological rule in cycle fashion

This picture show it is assumed that word formation rule or the morphology of word is directly interwoven with phonological rules at various levels (John 1984:67). It can't be alone independent rule of neither of phonological rule nor morphological rule. They hold each other and collocate with each other. Presents of phonological rule can be cause to develop morphological rule. Therefore, it demonstrated in in diagram as follows by William (2009:79):

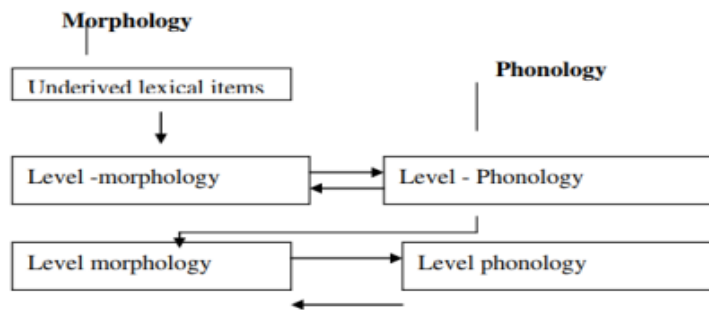


Figure 2; relationship between morphological and phonological rule

The above diagram argue that morphological rules recycled with the same counter parts of phonological rule, which Katamba (1989:257) refers to as same strata. In this theory, the main aim is to show how phonological and morphological rule govern the process of word formation and how to apply affixes to stem or root word. Katamba (1989:258) compare a word to an onion parts, which has the word root at the core (level) and the affixes in the inner layer (level) and other post lexicon phonology in the outer layer as the skin of the outside of the onion: look at the following picture taken from William (2009:80).

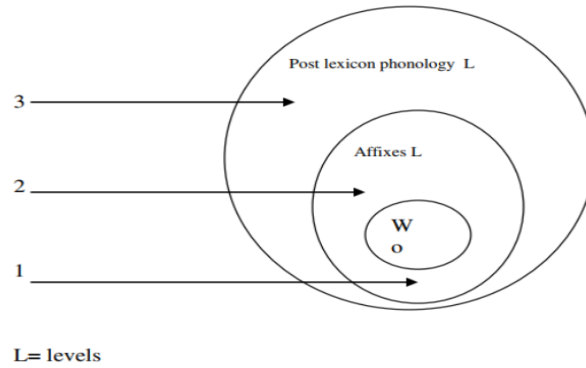


Figure 3; lexicon phonology

During the major morphological processes like derivation and inflection, there is always a constant cycling of data through the interlocking phonological and morphological rules at each level as shown below as William (2009:80) demonstrated:

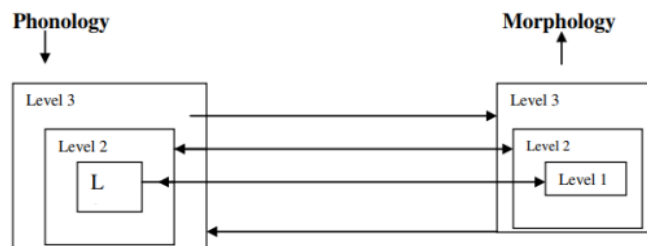


Figure 4; morphological and phonological rules level

This also expresses the circulation between morphological and phonological rules level. This implication justifies each morphological level has the same encounter part with each phonological level. In the current study, the researcher used the theory to assert comparisons of loan word sounds to native sound patterns, its realization, rearrangements and replacements of one sound with another. At morphology level, the theory supports the root word and separation of its morpheme. The study deeply employed word with its morpheme, what is suffixed and prefixed to loan word, in what manner it affixed, what is root and what is affix in the lexicon and such like behavior of words were identified. Therefore, since this theory used to investigate deeply about lexicon, root word in relation to morpheme and generally interaction between morphological and phonological theory, it can be stepped stone for this study.

2.3 What is borrowing?

Borrowing is an action of transfer and uses the elements of one language to another language. According to Haugen (1950) “the speakers or writers use items of some other language as words in his/her own language.” Originally not speaker’s native word, it is from other language, but the speakers use it as its own language by assimilate it. Borrowing may be sound, phone, morpheme, word, phrase, grammar rule and meaning from the donor language to targeted language. Thomason and Kaufman (1988: 37) define borrowing as follows: “Borrowing is the incorporation of foreign features into a group's native language by speakers of that language: the native language is maintained but is changed by the addition of the incorporated features.” This definition is a best to describe the issue the study. Because the foreign feature can includes the features of language from smallest unit of language, phoneme, to the largest borrowable part such as structure of language and phrase in syntactic structure (syntax).

Borrowing may be motivated by a need for a word that expresses a concept for which there is no equivalent in the borrowing language, or by the prestige of the SL. The word may be adapted by taking on a different form, by being spelt differently, or by being pronounced differently Marc (2022). So, when the speakers of language lack the word represent things in their mother tongue, they obligated to take from neighbor’s word, and also appear the chance to create new word to call the things. Factor triggered for borrowing are as Carling G, Cronhamn S, and etal (2019), identified as either need or prestige. He describes need as internal cause of lexical borrowing and prestige as external. Need is to exchange socio-cultural environment. Prestige is where languages of more powerful cultural spheres become sources for loans in other languages. So borrowing in prestige is interested for the status of language.

Generally speaking, (SL) can influence the grammar of a (RL) in two fundamentally distinct ways: either concrete material is taken over or abstract patterns are calqued, Gardan; (2020). The concrete material borrowing is a tangible element of source language that consist the words, phrase, and different affixation. Abstract patterns include the arrangement patterns and structures of sentence formation, i.e. the ways of words arranged to form a meaningful sentence, and arrangements of coherent sentences to form paragraphs.

Loanwords and simple borrowings are two different terms which distinguish them from eachother. Haugen (1950: 212) uses the term “borrowing” for the attempted reproduction of some patterns of one language into the other, and the term “loanwords” for one type of borrowing. Loanwords are single

words or compounds, but borrowings may be stems or full phrases. In simple manner, recipient language lacks what source language has and speakers replicate items to compensate for the perceived gap (Peter 2008). There is some part which one language lack to represent then borrowing is obligatory, and also early innovated things can inter in others place with their source language.

2.4 Borrowing versus loanword

It seems like a term have the same meanings and also some people confuse of it. Different scholars define them differently with different assumption. A loanword is a lexical item that enters to recipient language from a donor language, as “morphemic importation without substitution” (Haugen, 1950: 214). On other hand, others use loan word as a borrowed word from one language to another and, borrowing as a process of transfer the linguistic feature from source to recipient language. In Haspelmath (2009) it says “The language from which a loanword has been borrowed will be called the donor language, and the language into which it has been borrowed is the recipient language.” So, in here, loan word is a list of borrowed word from one language to another. After the words pass in the process of borrowing and adopted with recipient language rule, it called loan words. So loan words are assimilated with target language and it can have some phonological, phonological and syntactical property. In this study, loanwords means word transferred from one language to another and adapted to its phonetic and grammatical laws that is borrowed words. But, borrowing is hyponymy or an umbrella term that include loan word as one classification of borrowing.

Mojela (1991: 14) describes a loan word as “a word which has been taken up in the linguistic system of the borrowing language in such a way that it has become part and parcel of the borrowing language.” Borrowing is a process and loanword is a consequence of borrowing. Since others scholars use in this sense, it used to reduce redundancy of one word in the study. Agreeing to Higuán (1950) Loan word, hybrids, calques, semantic loan, and loan translation are the terms used to show the results of borrowing. Actually these terms are a result comes after the process of borrowing takes place, so, to say these terms primarily an action of borrowing between two or more languages should takes place.

2.5 Borrowing versus code switching

There are two major types of mixed language use: code-switching and borrowing, or mixing languages. Borrowing and code-switching are results of language contact in sociolinguistic as we have said in introduction part of the study. Since they occur at the same environments, it is difficult to differentiate

them. So, the question of differentiating borrowing from code switching is an interested area and needs critical view between the words or phrases. Scholars such as Gumperz and Hernandez (1976) try to set the way of differentiate them from each other; however it is little agreement on their ideas. In here we will see the way (Carol 1979) differentiates them. According to Myers-Scotton (1993:47) code switching refers to the “use of two or more languages in the same conversation, usually within the same conversational turn, or even within the same sentence of that turn. It is the shifting by a speaker from language “A” to language “B. so, code switching is based on the interests of speaker than obligation. But, in borrowing, the speaker is obligated to use terms of other language since his/her own language lack word represent for the ideas, things and feelings. No other option than using the loan word to represent the things. For example; some language use the word ‘computer’ borrowed it from English including the language under current investigation.

Shana and Sankoff (1988) explain code-switching is not identifiable on the basis of linguistic-phonological, morphological, or syntactic - features alone, the occurrence of a borrowed item that shows a high degree of social integration (i.e. acceptance and use by community members) could be interpreted as an instance of a loanword, while one that shows a low degree of social integration would be an instance of code-switching. This type of classification has great drawn back since it takes all single word as borrowing. Code switching can also occur at single word level. It mainly make problem when loanword lack morphological integration of TL which is called spontaneous borrowing. A phrase and also even clause can be borrowed from one language to another.

2.5.1 Surface of morph-syntactic

Classification based on the surface syntax and morphology of the particular utterance considered in isolation has been proposed by a number of investigators, example Carol (1976). In this classification, a single word can be classified as borrowing than switching. But classify based on morph-syntactic have problematic confusion with code-switching, spontaneous borrowing and integrated borrowing. So, in here the main difference between them is only integration. Indeed, as Hasselmo (1996) observes, although the intention of the speaker may be a binary choice between switching and integration, the stretches of speech actually produced are often ambiguous. Since code-switching is not identifiable on the basis of linguistic-phonological, morphological, or syntactic - features alone, the occurrence of a borrowed item that shows a high degree of social integration (i.e. acceptance and use by community

members) could be interpreted as an instance of a loanword, while one that shows a low degree of social integration would be an instance of code-switching (1970: 180).

2.5.2 Lexical inventory

According to the idea of Carol (1976), to determine fully the status of a given second language utterance, the following questions must be answered: (a) Does first language equivalent exist? (b) If so, is it also in use in the community? (c) Is the equivalent first language term known to the individual speaker? (d) Does the individual regard the word as belonging to first language or to second language? Clearly, definitive answers to these questions can be found only through extensive studies of languages in use in the community, on the one hand, and by psycholinguistic probing of individuals, on the other. However, there are often cues in the utterances themselves which indicate the speaker's perception of the foreignness of a word. Cues at the immediate point of language mixing include hesitation, asides, and translation or paraphrase.

According to Ola (1996) Code switching means alternating between different languages by bilinguals (at any level of competence, while loan words are accepted, recurrent, widespread and collective. It means using primary one language but mixing words or idea from other language. Just like as squirrel sit on one tree and will eat acorn from another. Borrowing, on the other hand, is using one language primary, but mixing in words or ideas from another. It occurs when a person takes a word from one language to replace an unknown word in a different language. Haspelmath (2009) says “code-switching is not a kind of contact-induced language change, but rather a kind of contact-induced speech behavior. In this way, code-switching differs sharply from borrowing.”

Another reason for borrowing is that some words do not translate into another language. This forces the speaker to borrow. For example, many languages do not have a word for ‘computer’ or internet. Therefore, these words are borrowed when speaking. According to Haspelmath (2009: 40–41), the difference between the two is explained in different ways: according to the first approach, the difference lies in the frequency of use of the term: if it appears on a recurring basis, then it is a borrowing. According to another approach, however, the criterion to decide if a particular word is an insertional code switch or a borrowing is the degree of phonological and/or morphological adaptation of the term in question.

2.6 Criteria of loan word identification

Different scholars set different measures to identify loan words from native words. Among them we will see what Poplack (1980) and Sank (1988) put. According to their explanation there are four basic criteria for identification of loanwords from native words.

The first is Frequency of use of words. By this measure, as used by Fries and Pike (1949), Hasselmo (1996), Mackey (1970), and Murphy(1974), the more frequently a specific donor language item is used in recipient-language discourse and by more people, the more reasonable it is to consider it as having become a bona-fide term of the recipient language. This criterion shows how it frequently uses in the receptors languages. If it used repeatedly in the receptor language it can be seen as a loan words.

2. Native-language synonym displacement, as measured by the translatability test used by Hasselmo (1996) and Mackey (1970) availability test, and implicit in Weinreich's discussion of lexical integration. If a borrowed term can be shown to displace in usage an indigenous term for the same concept, it can be considered to have taken over the latter's role in the lexicon. Replacement of native word by loan word throughout the speaker of the language regardless sex, age and social status is one indication of loan word.

3. Morphophonemic and/or syntactic integration. If a borrowed term takes on a phonological shape typical to the recipient language, acquires the morphological affixes appropriate to that language, and functions in sentences as a native word of some syntactic category, then it can be considered a well-established borrowing. This approach is embodied in the work of Fries and Pike, Bloomfield, Weinreich, Haugen, and others.

4. Acceptability. If native speakers judge a donor-language word to be an appropriate designation whether or not they are aware of its etymological origins, this is indicative that it may occupy a place in the recipient lexicon.

2.7 Types of borrowing

Haugen (1950) distinguishes different types of borrowing, based on the question of whether or not source language morphemes are imported into the borrowing and whether or not substitution of source language morphemes or phonemes by borrowing language elements occurs. This is used to check what part of language is borrowed in the process of borrowing and how derivational and inflectional

morphemes are formed in the borrowing lexemes, is it transported with lexemes or followed the TL, or both rule are applied for it. Vitloka (2017) classified it in to dialect borrowings and cultural borrowings based on Bloomfiel’s classification. The first occurs when feature of borrowed word come from the same area. The latter occurs when borrowing feature of borrowed word come from completely different languages. Based on the structure and matter of borrowing process, Sakel (2007) categorize borrowing in to two major types. These are MAT-borrowing and PAT-borrowing.

2.7.1 Linguistic material borrowing

This type of borrowing is a concrete phonological matter (MAT-borrowing). This term is traditionally called “borrowing”, “direct transfer”, ‘direct diffusion’, ‘transfer of fabric’, etc. by different scholars. “Morphological material borrowing implies that a RL rearranges its own inherited morphological structure in such a way that it becomes structurally closer to the SL “as explained in Gardani (2015). This means, the morphology of RL is adapted to the SL morphology. Loan blends are hybrid borrowings which consist of partly borrowed material and partly native material (the structural properties are also borrowed) Haspelmath (2009). For example in Haugen (1950: 219) is Pennsylvania German ‘bockabuch’ “pocketbook”, where ‘bocka-’ is a material borrowing (from English pocket) that is restricted to this word, and “-buch” is a native German element rendering book.

2.7.2 Linguistic pattern (structural) borrowing

This is another major type of borrowing that takes place when structure of one language transferred from donor language to recipient language. So, this (PAT-borrowing) or structural borrowing needs more intensity of contact between the languages than MAT-borrowing (2013). Unless languages contacted for a long period of time, the rule and structure of one language can’t borrowed easily as a material linguistic borrowing. In this process, the structures of sentence arrangements may be borrowed. This indirectly includes cultural borrowing in addition to the part of language. Therefore (PAT-borrowing) needs long time to lend such like structures of one language. The main type of structural or (PAT-borrowing) as exemplified by Haspelmath (2009) is semantic extension. He says it is “an extremely common (and often unnoticed) process whereby a polysemy pattern of a donor language word is copied into the recipient language.” Example; the English word ‘head’ is used in a technical sense to refer to the main word in a syntactic phrase.

Not only that, but based on Higuana (1950) loan word classification, but also Mhrar (2016) classifies lexical borrowing in to three major types. These are loan words, hybrids and calques. But calques and hybrids are seen as the same, so, in here we will see loan words and calque as two majors of loan word.

2.7.3 Loan words

In this type, the form and meanings of borrowed word is very similar or identical with donor language. The borrowed word “may undergo a process of phonetic integration into the structures of the recipient language” (Greavu 2013, 97). Loanword is main types of (linguistic material borrowing what we have discussed earlier in 2.7.1 section). Actually, phonetic integration of borrowed word to recipient can occur. Because, it can be difficult to pronounce all phonemes found in donor language then, it should fit with source language phonemes. Not only phonetic integration, sometimes orthographically fully changed because of different orthography system. For example the orthography system of Arabic and English is not the same, Amharic and Oromo is not the same so when words borrowed from such orthographically different languages, it need to change the system of writing to the SL orthography.

2.7.4 Calques or loan translation

A calque is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal word-for-word or root-for-root translation. It is major example of MAT-borrowing as it explained in Martin (2009). It is important types of material borrowing. Some scholars such as Haspelmath (2009) try to call calque as loan translation. So, this loan translation can confuse everyone since it includes single word, phrases and compound words. Example, the German compound word “herunter-laden” is calqued from English ‘down-load’. Calques or loan translations involve “rearranging words in the base language along a pattern provided by the other and thus create a new meaning” (Romaine, 1995: 57). This definition captures the important difference between loan translations and loanwords. The former are foreign only in meaning, whereas the latter are foreign in both form and meaning. Because loan translations are already words of the borrowing language, as far as form is concerned, they are sometimes excluded from lexical borrowing studies, such as Poplack, Sankoff, and Miller (1988)

Based on Jose (2016), borrowing divided in to direct and indirect borrowing. Direct borrowing words from SL to RL has a tendency to show evident elements in TL feature. These elements show with their own way the features of SL. Indirect borrowing also called calque. Calques Jose (2016) said “are not as easy to spot as direct ones: SL models are reproduced by translation in the RL (calques) or by already-existing elements in RL which acquire new meanings (semantic loan)”. Their direction is not known, it

may be loan of loan words. This means one language borrowed them from SL, and then another language borrows it in third hand.

Based on the degree of integration to the units of RL, borrowing can divide in to two major classes by Jose (2016). These are adopted and non-adopted. Adopted loan words are words that have orthography, phonology and morphology integration of TL. None adopt loan word is a word with minor forms of TL relation. Higuan (1950) said loan word shows morphemic importation without substitution. Morphemic importation classified according to the degree of phonemic importation between SL and RL. These are none, partial and complete phoneme importation. None morphemic importation shows zero importation degree of phoneme of SL. In linguistic pattern borrowing no phonemic importation, because, it mainly focuses on structure of SL than importation of word directly. Good example is what we have seen early in loan translation.

Partial phonemic importation as it implied by its name, there is an importation of loan word phoneme. Some parts of phoneme are transferred from SL to TL and others phoneme may be added from TL. In here, not only morphemic importation, but, when TL lack phoneme that found in SL words, then it needs to replace and also borrow phonemes of SL

Additionally, Al-Athwary (2015) based on the elements of incorporated from one language to another, classifies borrowing in to two major types. These are lexical and grammatical borrowing. Lexical borrowing is referred to as the integration into a recipient language of both form and meaning of a lexical item originating in another language as his expression. It contains form of words with its meanings. Even though form of the word changed to fit with recipient language, the meaning of donor language and recipient should be the same as it imply. On other hand, grammatical borrowing involves the incorporation of foreign rules into a recipient language. It is a well-known fact that as the latter rarely occurs in a language contact situation, the former is the common practice; Appel & Muysken, (2005; Haugen, (1950) & (1992); Mithun, (2007); Poplack, et al., (1988); Weinreich, (1966); Winford (2003). One language to take the rule of grammar from another language, it should be with each other for long period of time. And also this action may kill the original rules of the recipient language adopted with rules of donor language grammar.

2.8 Direction of borrowing

When we get loan words from RL in two different languages it is difficult to identify from which language it borrowed. Since you found the word from both languages it confuses to know the direction of borrowing. So, in order to know the direction of borrowing Haspelmath (2009) criticized four criteria to show the direction.

First, if the word morphologically analyzed from “A” language and unanalyzed to “B” language then, easily it can decide to the origination of the “x” word is from “A” language. Example German “Grenze” ‘border’ must have been borrowed from Polish “granica” ‘border’ rather than the other way round, because ‘-ica’ is a well-recognized suffix in Polish, and the stem gran- occurs elsewhere, whereas German “Grenze” is not analyzable in this way.

The second is phonological integration criteria. This is if “X” word theologically integrated “A” language but not to “B” language, then SL of “X” word is “A”. Third, if the word is confirmed in a sister language of language “B” that cannot have been under the influence of language “A”, it must come from language “B”. Thus, Sanskrit “jemati” ‘eat’ must come from Munda (e.g. Kurku “jome”) ‘eat’, because the root is also attested in Mon-Khmer languages which were not under Indic influence to the same extent as Munda languages (Burrow 1946: 5). Fourth, the meaning (semantically) often helps: Sanskrit nakra- ‘crocodile’ is likely to be a loanword from Dravidian (e.g. Kannada negar), because Indo-Aryan speakers coming from northern India would not have brought a word for crocodile with them (Burrow 1946: 9). Therefore, as we have seen in above, the language can borrowed language feature directly from the high status that is donor language to receipt language. Furthermore, indirectly language features can inter from one language to another that is to low prestigious language through the mediation of certain language.

2.9 Previous studies in Oromo

There are many studies conducted in Oromo morphology and phonology. Even though some studies took place on the areas of phonologies and morphologies of Oromo language, but there is not studied in borrowing and its morphemes. The main study takes place in borrowing areas of Oromo is titled as “Loanwords in Oromo and Rendille as a mirror of past inter-ethnic relations” by Günther Schlee in 1991. This study shows a few loan words in Oromo with a limitation of Rendille, Arabic, Somali and English language. It express as cyclic borrowing among Oromo, Rendille and Arabic. Oromo borrows

words such as ‘aadaa’ from Arabic ‘adatum’ “kamisa” from Arabic /*kamis*/ ‘thrusday’ and “jimaata” from Arabic /*gumat*/ ‘Friday’. The current study is different from Günther Schlee (1991) research. Because, the present study broaden the title to point how loan words used in the language linguistically. This means each feature of loan word is explained to show how everyone uses it with phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic function of words. Additionally, it did not limit with specific language, but generally loan word comes from different language is included since the aim is to find loan word properties in comparison of native words.

Another study conducted by Olani (2008) is focused on inflectional morphology of Mecha dialect. He identifies different types of inflectional morphology in the language and resonate the inflectional rules of a language. In his findings shows Oromo inflected for gender, number definiteness and case. The current study is different from Olani’s with its scope and volume. So, this research focused on borrowing in Oromo.

Additionally research entitled by “An Automatic Morphological Synthesizer for Oromo” was conducted by Abeshu (2010). He conducted his study again on Mecha dialect. The performance of the synthesizer was evaluated using accuracy as statistical measurement. In his finding, average performance of 96.28% for verbs and 97.46% for nouns was obtained. Abeshu’s research also different from this study by his research again taken us to Mecha dialect and it did not explain anything about borrowing and loanword in Oromo. However, current study is somewhat general in its scope i.e. Oromo language than focusing one dialects of the language and it is about borrowing and its morphemes.

Furthermore, Kedir (2019) studied on analysis of morphological properties of Arsi-Bale Word classes with special preferences to Arsi-Bale noun morphology. He shows some properties of noun morphology and also the researcher use his study as references. Even though Kedir (2019) include some borrowed words in nominative case formation, it is limited with noun of Arsi-Bale dialects only. This means it lacks applicability with other dialects and also with other parts of speech. As much as possible, the current study carried on generally on Oromo with its morphemes without of limit part of speech. Generally, there was not studied in related to borrowing in Oromo still. So, since borrowing which appear naturally in the language contact environment has great role for language standardization, the researcher intends to study it scientifically.

2.10 Morphology of Oromo

The part of Oromo morphology, inflection and derivation morphology is studied by many linguists as it showed in previous study of the paper. In its formation morphology has two major classes. These are inflectional morphology and derivational morphology. Inflectional morphology is a branch that deals with affixes attached to the root words to show grammatical feature of words.

2.10.1 Inflectional morphology in Oromo

According to Kedir (2019), nouns are inflected in many ways in Oromo. It can inflect for gender, number, definiteness, and case.

2.10.1.1 Gender

In Oromo language, there are two gender expressions. These are the expression that shows masculine and feminine. Indigenous words can have */-sa/* for */vbbɔlɜ:sa/* and */-tti:/* for */vbbɔlɜ:tti:/* means ‘brother’ and ‘sister’ with root word */vbbɔl-/* and */-sa/* for “masculine” and */-tti:/* for ‘feminine’ respectively which is also appropriate for */vgɜ:sa/* and */vgɜ:tti:/* meaning ‘expert’ as it expressed in Kedir. Another suffix */-itti:/* and */-tfa/* also used to show separation of gender between male and female that the former is for masculine in such */namitfa/* ‘the man’ and */namitti:/* ‘feminine’ as Griefeno (2001), but not applicable in others dialect except Arsi-bale dialects

2.10.1.2 Number

There are many suffixes of number for plural noun in Oromo. Kedir(2019) list plural noun suffixes such as */-pta/* followed by */-lɜ:/*, */-wwan/*, */-ɜ:n/*, */-vli:/*, */-vɜ:/*, and */-a:n/* based on (Griefeno 2021) classification of noun inflection. Thus, according to Griefenow, before the plural suffix */-ɜ:n/* is consonants may be germinated, as */mɔkkɜ:n/* ‘trees’ from */mɔka/* ‘tree’, */laggɜ:n/* ‘rivers’ from */laga/* ‘river’, */mannɜ:n/* ‘houses’ from */mana/* ‘house’.

2.10.1.3 Definiteness

In kedir (2019) discussed that the Oromo doesn’t possess a special word class of articles in order to mark definiteness. In some Oromo dialects the suffix */-tfa/* (masc.), */-itti:/* “fem” which usually has a simulative function is used where other languages would use a definite article as Griefeno (2021). We can get these morphemes with some loan words, mainly borrowed words that have the same characteristics with indigenous words. So, some researchers such as Laundhart (1973), Gragg (1976), Mohammed and Zaboriski (1990) are argued that the morphemes */-tfa/* and */-itti:/* are marker of

definiteness in Oromo. In support of this, Nordfeld (1947) explains that in Oromo /-itfa/ and /-itti:/ mark definiteness. Look at the following example taken from Kebede (2009)

Table 1, definiteness in Oromo

no	Oromo	gloss	definiteness	Gloss
1	/ba:si:/	bus	/ba:siitfa/	The bus
2	/dʒa:rsa/	old	/dʒa:ritfa/	the (certain) old man

2.10.1.4 Case

In case formation Oromo can form nominative case, instrumental, locative, and ablative case formation in the language. Kedir (2019) mentioned Oromo uses to morphemes such as -i, in, -ni and \emptyset suffixes to the root word. For example in native words the noun /mak'a:/ 'name' changed into /mak'a:n/ 'name-nom.' Case formation rule of native word. The instrumental case is marked by /-n/. He exemplifies /mi:la/ 'leg' is changed into /mi:la:n/ 'by leg', and /ɛ:bɔ:/ 'Spear' is changed into /ɛ:bɔ:n/ 'by spear'. Oromo noun inflects for instrumental case by attaching the morphemes /-an/, /-i:n/, /-n/ and /-dā:n/ to mark instrumental case. It is also clearly indicated by Kedir that, in Arsi-Bale dialect of Oromo, the morphemes /-f/, /-af/, /-a/, /-dā:f/ and /-i:/ mark dative cases.

2.10.2 Derivation of verbs in Oromo

This topic presents derived verbs which include causatives, statives, reflexives (middle) and passives.

2.10.2.1 Causatives

Oromo has five types of causative morphemes: /-is-/ , /-s-/ , /-ss-/ , /-sis-/ and /-ʒ:ss-/ Fufa (2009). The allomorph –ss- (which had been missed before) is a free variant of –s-. The morpheme -sis- can be used as single or double causative form. Causatives are said to be derived from verbal roots by the addition of the 'suffix /-(si)is-/ as illustrated below (cf. Gragg, 1976; Owens, 1985b; Baye, 1986).

Examples

1. /mɔr-/ 'cut' /-si:s-/ → /mɔr-si:s-/ 'make cut'
2. /raf-/ 'sleep' /-is-/ → /raff-i:s-/ 'make sleep'

3. /raff-/ 'sleep' /-is-/ + /i:s-/ 'CAUS1- CAUS1' → /raff-is-i:s-e/ 'sleepCAUS1-3M:PF'
4. /diri:r-/ 'spread' /-s-/ 'CAU' → /diri:rsɛ/ made 'spread'
5. /fag-/ 'far' /-ɛ:ss-/ "CAU" → /fag-ɜ:ss-ɛ/ 'far CAUS3-3M:PF'

2.10.2.2 Stative Verbs

Stative verbs are defined as verbs which "denote qualities or attributes possessed by the subject of the clause in which they appear," (Hayward, n.d.: 93). In Oromo, such verbs are derived from adjectival and nominal bases with the suffix *at-*.

Examples

1. /di:m-/ 'red' /-at-/ → /di:m-at-/ 'become red'
2. /fɔrd-/ 'fat' /-at-/ → /fɔrd-at-/ 'become fat'

These two examples shows as morpheme *-at-* in Oromo used to form stative verbs. The adjective /di:m/ 'red' plus stative creator morpheme /-at-/ is form /di:mat-/ stative verb meaning become red.

2.10.2.3 Middle

Middle verbs are identified by their subject who "performs the action or participates in the event denoted by the verb expressly for his own benefit" (Hayward, 1975: 209). The morpheme *-at-* which we have seen above has also use in reflexive. Example

1. /bit-/ 'buy' /-at-/ → /bit-at-/ 'buy for oneself'
2. /k'ab-/ 'catch' /-at-/ → /k'ab-at-/ 'catch for oneself'
3. /ha:d-/ 'shave' /-at-/ → /ha:dd-at-/ 'shave oneself'

In this example, the morpheme *-at-* in Oromo used to show an action done by oneself without interference of other part. Therefore, morpheme /-at-/ which added to verbs as explained example support for creation of middle.

2.10.2.4 Passive

Passive verbs in this language are derived from transitive bases by the addition of the suffix /-am-/ Tamesgen (1993).

For example

- a. /rokot-/ 'hit' /-am-/ → /rokot-am-/ 'be hit'

- b. /gɔrgɔr-/ ‘sell’ /-am-/ → /gɔrgɔr-am-/ ‘be sell’
- c. /mɔr-/ ‘cut’ /-am-/ → /mɔr-am-/ ‘be cut’

From above example the derived words such as /rɔkɔtam-/, /gɔrgɔram-/ and /mɔram-/ are passive verbs in the language. But before morpheme –am- is added they use as normal base verbs that /rɔkɔt-/ ‘hit’ /gɔrgɔr-/ ‘sell’ and /mɔr-/ ‘cut’.

2.10.3 Adjectivization

This is the process of forming adjectivals from different lexical categories. Most adjectives in Oromo seem to be derived. The problem is how to determine the category of the roots to which suffixes are attached. The productive adjectivization process in the language is the addition of “-a:” and “-tu:” which, at the same time, also marks the gender of the derived from Tamesgen(1993). For example,

- 1. /di:m-/ ‘red’ /-a:-/ or /ttu:/ → /di:mattu:/ ‘red (masc./fem)’
- 2. /fʻɔlɔlɔk-/ shiny /-tʻu:/ → /fʻɔlɔlɔkʻtʻu:/ ‘shiny(masc./fem)’

The morpheme /-tʻ/ is always used to show feminine gender and sometimes for the size of things when it compared with others. In this manner, it used to point small size things and /-a:/ is normally for masculine and also to show more big size for things.

CHAPTER THREE

3. Research methodology

This chapter incorporates the research methodology to be used and it includes; design of the study, types and sources of data, study population, sample design, Instruments of data collection and finally Method of Data Analysis to be used.

3.1 Research approach

The study used qualitative approach study. The nature of the research problems and issues addressed in the study needs to answer by use of qualitative research approaches. Since qualitative approach study is used to express the words in narrative form (Vijay 2015, it fits with the aim of study). Data was collected in form of words, phrases, and sentences and spoken from written and spoken corpora. So, the study describes the language phenomena especially, language borrowing using qualitative approach in the language. Additionally, loan word in the sentence was described to show characteristic they have in the sentence. It also explained how loanword inflected in the sentence. Everything in the methods and methodology of the study selected purposefully to satisfy the aim of study.

3.2 Research design

The research design can be defined as the plan of action to be followed to answer the research question Moissenko and etal. (2016). A qualitative research design has been employed by the researcher in this study to answer the designed research question. Qualitative research design used data collected by qualitative statement. It helps to explain and discuss language characteristics and language patterns which help explain social phenomena (Denzini and Lincoln 1994), which were part of the current study. This study was conducted on social phenomena, especially language behavior with the relation to culture and concomitant one language with others in case of borrowing as another borrowable property and entirely with the comparisons of their morphemes.

3.3 Sampling size

Sample size is a research term used for defining the number of individuals included in a research study to represent a population Kibuacha (2021).The language under investigation, Oromo, has many dialects. However, researcher was not specified in one dialects of language because the source data of study, that is academic book, is more general and acceptable throughout the dialects of language. It is the same

through ought the region. It was collected from academic text book. The student text book is sampled from the Oromo books. Among the student text book, grade five (5) to eight (8) text book was chosen. Because, above grade eight (8) failed to fulfill criteria since all subject is written in English expect Oromo. The lower grade means grade one (1) to four (4) is also out of sample because the major science subjects such as biology, physics and chemistry are not given. So, data not is enough as a study needed and supposed to have limited loan words. But the selected grade that is five to eight fulfilled important criteria that are the text written in Oromo and important science subjects such as biology, chemistry and physics is given. Then from the text books one hundred ten (110) words were collected. The spoken was gathered from TV program media. From this program the researcher search an interview of each dialect. To get an interview of all dialects used to minimize dialect bias. By sampling in this way, the researcher collected one hundred seven (107) loan words. Generally from spoken and written books two hundred seventeen (217) loan words collected and analyzed in the study.

3.4 Sampling techniques

The sampling technique of the study was purposive sampling in order to develop the sample of the research under discussion. According to this method, which belongs to the category of non-probability sampling techniques, sample members are selected on the basis of their knowledge, relationships and expertise regarding to the research subject (Freedman et al., 2007). Since the knowledge and expertise of participants have great role the study, the researcher intends to use this important sampling technique in the study.

The data were collected from text book documents. Text book written in Oromo selected purposefully since it related to the subject issue of study. Since it contains many loan words with its morpheme, researcher selected it consciously. The loan word is not from only one language, but from any languages because, if it is from only one language, the researcher supposed to face loan word limitation. As it mentioned earlier, among the student text book, grade five (5) to eight (8) text book was chosen. Because, above grade eight (8) failed to fulfill criteria since all subject is written in English expect Oromo. The lower grade means grade one (1) to four (4) is also out of sample because the major science subjects such as biology, physics and chemistry are not given. So, data not is enough as a study needed and supposed to have limited loan words. But the selected grade that is five to eight fulfilled important criteria that are the text written in Oromo and important science subjects such as biology, chemistry and physics is given. Spoken was collected from Oromia Broadcasting network (OBN) media. OBN selected

since it broadcast in Oromia by Oromo and it is a biggest media of the people speak the language. Actually the selected media is broadly spreading its program in Mecha and Tulama dialects. Even though, the researcher included all dialects by search an interview of different dialect of the language. Interview program was selected which famous personnel interviewed. This is used to know from which dialect interviewer is interviewed. From the website of media, especially from the interview program of well-known person was downloaded to collect loan word from their speeches.

3.5 Data collection tools

3.5.1 Corpus

Corpus is a collection of written and spoken language used in the study of language and in writing dictionaries. Corpus in linguistics is an approach; its strength lies in the evidence derived from what corpus data may help us understand about real occurrences of language use, Richmond (2018). This study is also about the ways of using language when foreign words became parts of indigenous languages in forms of borrowing. In corpus data collection method, both spoken and written data took place.

The researcher collected the loan words through written corpus. This means, borrowed words was gathered from the written material, especially academic books written in Oromo. The formal written books were source of data because borrowing may not be great issue if it is not from formal document. In formal written literature not confusion of loan words and code mixing occur. If it is informal founded words may suspected of mixing but in formal since it cares about formality of written material unless the language lacks term in native foreign words are prohibited. Science books could have many loan words since it shares early invented things and ideas. Students' text book was the main part of document analysis in the study. Since primary students text books in the region is written in Oromo, it expected to get many loan words from Biology, chemistry, civics and geography of primary text books, especially from grade five (5) to eight (8). But with a modern Ethiopian curriculum, biology, chemistry and physics books are mixed and called general science. Since general science book is not broad as it was before, researcher not got many loan words from it. So, to get enough data, the old text books biology, chemistry and geography text book were analyzed. This was the main focus of secondary data collection method for study, because from the written documents it is easy to differentiate borrowed word from code switching and code mixing, how? In Oromo prescriptive rules the loan words written in quotation mark. The collected data from different books was not only root words but, with their morphemes. Root

separation from morphemes (derivation) was the work of researcher since these data are raw material for study. The researcher by analyzing those books one hundred ten (110) loan words was collected.

Spoken corpus was collected from Oromia broadcasting Network (OBN) media. OBN media organization is formal and largest media from the Region. From here the researcher downloaded from the website of the media when guests invited for interview. The interview made by different people from the media sampled and loan word collected from their interview. The speakers of all Oromo dialects were included to make study general. By listening those different program generally one hundred seven (107) loan words was collected and latter phonetically transcribed.

3.6 Method of data analysis

Collected data was transcribed phonetically. This helps to allow everyone to read and understand the word written in the paper. Before analyzing data, it was gathered in to theme and sub-themes to make easy and to make comparable. Then, the data analyzed in a qualitatively method. The data collected from different books and spoken were analyzed in qualitative way to prove its morphemes. In the study, each point explained to reduce confusion of consumer. The data analysis part answered the basic questions raised in the statement problem.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. Results and discussions

The major aim of this chapter is to give an overview of linguistic changes in borrowing, an inflectional morpheme rules of loan words, and types of morphemes mainly borrowed with words in Oromo. This entails giving a background discussion of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics that exist in the language. All the words that enter into the Oromo as borrowings or loans are subjected to the graphical, phonological, morphological syntactical and semantic constraints discussed in this current chapter. Additionally, the types of morphemes borrowed with base or root word and that cannot be borrowed is identified as well as the rules of loan word inflectional morpheme is recognized.

4.1 Linguistic change in Oromo

According to Gillia Kay (1995) when words borrowed from one culture to another, they became adopted with new cultural and linguistic context. They can lack some feature of original culture and language and assimilated to new culture and language. In the process, their natural property eradicates and they started to wear new language property. These changes are generally called loanword adaptation sometimes integration as some distinction between them verified by Haspelmath (2009). Integration is the degree to which a word is felt to be a full member of the recipient language system. Adaptation is about grammatical interaction of loan words to RL. It includes grammatical adaptation such as inflection of morphemes, case formation and gender variation. If loan words included in the utterance of one's own language, they must fit with its grammatical rule. In Oromo, there are loan phonemes that found only in loan words. They are five in number /v, p, z, s', ʒ/ and each of them are used only in loan words Hoskins (2011). Some words are borrowed with this phoneme in the language. Unless loan words, you can't get this phoneme in native words. For examples;

- a) /zajita/- /z/- 'oil'
- b) /tʰa:j/- /tʰ/- 'personal name'
- c) /televɛdʒini:/- /dʒ/- 'television'
- d) /pɔ:lisi:/- /p/- 'polis'
- e) /va:jiresi:/- /v/- "virus"

However, in some cases, the loan phoneme itself is substituted by native related phonemes. Even the old people cannot pronounce loan phonemes; therefore they replace it with the native related ones. For example, the word “avocado” is pronounced as /*abvuka:do*/ in Oromo that the phoneme /v/ is substituted by /b/ and “police” as /*fɔ:lisi:*/ among the old and illiterate people which /f/ native phoneme is replaced the /p/ loan phoneme.

4.1.1 Orthographic change

This occurs in mainly literature in speeches. Study of language borrowing in world languages involves many alphabetic systems Hoffer (2002). The orthography is changed to assimilate with new culture and language in then some modification takes place Jose (2016). Orthographical change occurs between two different orthographic system takes place in borrowing. Example, Arabic orthography should be changed when Latin writing system used language borrow word /*kita:ba*/ ‘book’ from Arabic language. This is true for logography writing users and Latin. Since the writing system of Oromo is Latin letters the word borrowed from different writing system such as Amharic, Arabic, Chinese, Greek, Swahili and etc. are obligated to change their orthography to Latin. For example /*kita:ba*/ “book” Arabic orthographical system should be changed to Oromo orthography or script system. Amharic orthography is good example for orthographical change between Amharic and Oromo from the most widely spoken in the country. In Amharic the word /*da:bbɔ:*/ ‘bread’ is directly borrowed from Amharic with the same meaning, but orthographic is changed to TL, which is Latin letter called /*k’ubɜ:*/ means letter. Therefore, the term when it borrowed to Oromo it written as /*da:bbɔ:*/ with the same meaning of SL. Therefore, in the process of borrowing, especially in the written, loan word is change its writing system from wherever source language to the Oromo writing system /*k’ubɜ:*/. The following table shows orthographical changes of borrowing in Oromo.

Table 2, orthographical change in Oromo

No	classification	source language orthography with phonetic	gloss
	Orthographical adaptation in Oromo		
1.	/ <i>da:bbɔ:</i> /	‘ዳቦ’ / <i>da:bo</i> /	bread
2.	/ <i>kita:ba</i> /	‘کتاب’ / <i>kitaba</i> /	book

3.	/zajita/	زَيْت [zayyata]	food oil
4.	/warak'a:/	ዎረቀት /worak'at/	Paper
5.	/atara/	አተር /ater/	Peas
6.	/mifijga:/	ምሽጎጋ /mifijga/	Sorghum
7.	/bək'k'əllə:/	በቆሎ /bok'olo/	Maize
8.	/dak'k'alu:/	መደቀል /medekel/	Hybrids
9.	/araqə:/	አረቅ /arek'/	Liquor
10.	/wə:rara/	ዎራርሽኝ /worarjign/	Invasion
11.	/t'a:wula:/	ጠዉላ /t'awila/	Lumber
12.	/bortoka:na/	ብርቱካን /birtokan/	Orange
13.	/da:btera/	ደብተር /debter/	notebook
14.	/sa:məna:/	ሰሙን /sa:məna/	Sop
15.	ka:lsii	ካልስ /kals/	Sock
16.	/k'a:mmasu:/	መቅመስ /mək'məs/	taste
17.	/sa:ʔati:/	ሰአቲ /sa:jt/	o'clock
18.	/ba:bora:/	ባቡር /babur/	train
19.	/qə:si:/	ቀስ /k'es/	priest

Orthographical changes not occur only between the languages that have different writing style, but also there is reshaping of writing system using the same orthography. For example, Oromo uses Latin writing system; even though the word borrowed from Latin and Latin spelling users language have variety phoneme. This occur cause of phonological difference among the natural language. Look the phonological impacts of 'briery' which written as /bi:ra:/ with the same meanings and arrangement of phonotactics and phoneme deletion.

Generally, when loan words inter to Oromo, if it is from SL system is not Latin for example from Arabic, china and Amharic its orthographical system actually changed in to Latin writing system because Oromo used Latin spellings that it called /k'əbɜ:/ in Oromo.

4.1.2 Phonological change

As discussed in Kay (1995), “Speakers of one language often have difficulty reproducing the sounds of another language which do not exist in their own.” This is actually what we found daily in natural languages. As Higuan (1955), reproducing foreign material in one own is not simple. Native sound sequence may not permit to reproduce as a model word. Therefore, Daniel (2003) argues that the target language borrows a foreign phoneme as an underlying form, and then allows it to undergo the phonological rules to yield a phonetic form which differs from the phonetic form in the SL. For example; English *drama* in japesse as /*dorama*/, and English *spade* in Am port as /*I’peiro*/. The resolution under this view is to perceive the form as an underlying representation, then derive the correct surface form via the native phonological rules. Let us see the example given by (Daniel 2003:83) example Yagui renders Spanish *estufa* as [ehtupa]. $s \rightarrow h / - \{t, k\}$

There are different levels of phonological integration as it stated (Ola 1996). He puts the step as following: three stages in the process of phonological adaptation. First, a bilingual introduces a new word in a phonetic form close to the model. Without direct access to the model produced by native speakers of the SL, monolinguals can only rely on the pronunciation of bilinguals whose degree of “bilingualism” may vary, hence the possibility of an accent; next, the individual monolingual speakers of the RL each hear the word, in their recognition each approximating the non-native sound patterns to native ones, then each attempting approximate pronunciation of that, thus leading to different renditions of the same word.

To adapt to the phonological patterns of Oromo, loanwords undergo processes of sound alteration, addition, omission and shifting. This is due to the inherent sound patterns Phonological and Morphological Integration of Loanwords into Oromo; for instance, consonant clusters do not occur in initial position; there is a maximum of two successive consonants; and more than one vowels hermony occur in a word. It is through contrastive analysis of Oromo and the different SLs of loanwords that modifications and the process and degrees of integration of loanwords can be explained.

4.1.2.1 Alteration of sound

In Oromo, when the speaker try pronunciation of loan word they attempt the closest approximation of the model, however for the different patterns of SL and TL, alteration of sound is made.

For example;

- a. music- /mu:ziqa:/ - /s/ to /z/ and /k/ to /ḳ/
- b. Cravat - /karaba:ta/ - /v/ to /b/
- c. From ‘telephone’ the final voiceless /ɛ/ is altered to /a/ it become /tɛlɛfɔ:na/
- d. ‘Model’ at the final syllable /a/ is added and it became /mɔdɜ:lɑ/ in Oromo

Examples c and d shows Vowel alterations occur in Oromo to fit sound pattern in loan words. Some unknown sounds are changed to assimilated one; others are added and elongated to show that they are Oromized.

4.1.2.2 Addition of sound

A syllable cannot begin with a vowel in Oromo prescriptive rule. If the word start with vowel letter is borrowed to the language, the glottal /ʔ/ is added before them. It is found in Oromo native phoneme categorized as stopped glottal. Mainly it appeared at the final and initial of the word than middle. Look at the following examples of additional phoneme.

Table 3, phonological sound addition

no	English	loan in Oromo	addition
1	Autobus	/ʔɔtɔbisi:/	/ʔ-/ and /i:/
2	Atom	/ʔa:tɔ:mi:/	/ʔ-/ /ɔ/ and /i:/
3	/sa:ntim/ from Amharic	/sa:ntima/	/ɑ/

In Oromo, all words ended with vowel sounds. When words ended with consonant borrowed from another language, vowel sounds added at the end of the words to make phonologically Oromization. But if the words are ended with vowel sound, usually their sounds are lengthened. For example, the noun ‘hospital’ became /hɔspita:la/, ‘computer’ become /kɔmpɪwutɛra/, ‘doctor’ become /dɔkts:ɛra/ and ‘film’ become /fi:lmi:/ as we can see from table below.

Table 4, lengthened sound

no	Loan word	Oromo	Added sound	gloss
1	Hotel	/hɔtɜ:la/	/a/	Hotel
2	computer	/kɔmpɪwutera/	/a/	Computer
3	Motor	/mɔ:tɔra/	/a/	Motor
4	Doctor	/dɔktɜ:era/	/a/	Doctor
5	/sajit/	/sa:ʔati:/	/a/ and /i:/	o'clock
6	/debtar/	/da:btera/	/a/	notebook
7	Film	/fi:lmi:/	/i/ and /i:/	Film
8	jacket	dʒa:kkɜ:tta:	/a/, /k/, /e/, /t/ and /a:/	Jacket

Phonologically in order to adapt in to Oromo the listed loan words sound are lengthened the final sounds. The doctor adapted as /dɔktɜ:ra/ motor as /mɔ:tɔra/ jacket /dʒa:kketta:/ and etc. to point phonological specifically sound edition.

4.1.2.3 Omission of sound

The sounds or even syllables are omitted or deleted when long words borrowed to simplify the words and rearrange with the phonological rules of the language. Here the following table shows it.

Table 5, Omission

no	SL	Loan word	Oromo	Omitted phoneme in Oromo	Gloss
1	Amharic	<i>/wɒrakɛt/</i>	<i>/wɒraqa:/</i>	<i>/t/</i>	paper
		<i>serʔat</i>	<i>/sɜ:ra/</i>	<i>/t/</i>	law
2	English	<i>Kilogram</i>	<i>/ki:lɔ:/</i>	<i>/gram/</i>	Kilogram
3	Arabic	<i>/ada:ton/</i>	<i>a:da:</i>	<i>/ton/</i>	culture

The consonant phoneme /t/ is deleted from Amharic word */wɒraqa:/* and */sɜ:ra/*, and */tom/* from Arabic word */ada:ton/* ‘culture’ and ‘gram’ from ‘kilogram’ is the good example of sound omission in the borrowing phonological process in Oromo.

4.1.2.4 Geminaton

Gemination is the occurrence of identical consonant segments together. Gemination in Oromo is phonemic. One of the recurrent phonological patterns in Oromo is germination, i.e. consonant doubling. Some loanwords undergo gemination to approximate Oromo patterns. Word initial and final consonant clusters are not permissible Waqo’s (1981:34). This adds syllable from SL to Oromo. One such pattern is /CVCVCVCCVV/ as revealed in */karamella:/* from ‘caramel’ meaning ‘candy’, from ‘rocket’ to */rɒkɜ:tti:/* is /CVCVVCCVV/. Gemination of consonant sound in Oromo can change the meanings of words in its natural. For example;

- a) */gɛna:/* - ‘yet’
- b) */gɛnna/* - ‘summer’

Germination of consonant create meaning differences in Oromo as we have seen in above example in a) without /n/ gemination and after /nn/ is geminated meaning of the word is completely changed. In native

words not only gemination, but vowel sound length and shorten create meaning change in the language naturally.

4.1.2.5 Metathesis

It is a phonological process in which segments interchange their position within a word. Without access to the SL model, and only hearing loanwords infrequently and second hand, the loanwords are subject to further change through speakers who have little to aid them remember the standard pronunciation of the word. They fall back on similar words or patterns if they have access to any. For example; the noun /*kɪrɪbi:t:i*/ is distorted to /*kɪbri:ti*/ with the same meaning ‘match’ from Kiswahili. The loan word ‘tax’ also has metathesis blame like in Oromo. Some people used to say /*ta:ski*/ and others said /*ta:ksi*/ in the same sounds of ‘tax’. As mentioned by Dejene (2013) in native words /*ks*/ and /*sk*/ have metathesis property that they interchanged in Tulama dialect around Selale.

4.1.2.6 Epenthesis

This happen when more than two consonants in a syllable, the Oromo rule do not permitted, then epenthesis vowel especially /i/ inter between them to reduce consonant cluster in the language. Dejene (2010) said the epenthetic segments /i/ is inserted to adjust the non-permissible distribution of consonant clusters. As we observe from the following examples /i/ is epenthetic vowel. At the initial word in the language, more than one consonant also impossible. For example, ‘Christian’ is written as /*kɪrɪstana*/ ‘traffic’ as /*tɪrafɪka*/ and ‘drone’ as /*dɪrɔ:ni*/. All loan word in English starts with “st” added at the initial of the word “i”. For examples, ‘sport’ as /*ɪspɔ:rti*/, ‘Studio’ /*ɪstɔdɪɔ*/ and etc. also it shows the phonotactics of the language. For example ‘oil’ written as /*zajita*/ which /i/ inters between /j/ and /t/ as epenthetic. The final long /i/ in the examples is not an epenthetic vowel; it is because most nouns in the language end in long vowels. Another main cause of epenthetic formation in Oromo is phonological patterns of the language. The sound system itself limits the patterns of sounds. When pattern system of TL word is out of the SL it solved by entering /i/ between the sounds. Here the word “magnet” breaks the phonological rule of the language since /g/ and /n/ is out of its sound system. So, to solve, /i/ inter between them, then it written as /*magɪnɜ:ti*/ in place of “magnet”.

Generally, at least all loan words have passed through phonological process from SL to Oromo except some acronyms borrowed without changing their phoneme. These phonological processes exist in Oromo loan words are alteration, gemination, omission, edition epenthesis and metathesis of their

sounds. Acronyms such names of disease as HIV/AIDS and TB, the names of organization likes IGD, ECAWAS, UN, and etc. are free from phonological process.

4.1.3 Morphological change

As Riaz (2011), “Morphology is the study of words and their internal structures mainly through the analysis of morphemes, affixation, reduplication (partial or full) and various sorts of compounding.” Affix is added to the base form or stem of a word in order to modify its meaning or create a new meaning. In this it shows the way of new words are derived from loan word in the process of borrowing. Sometimes the borrowed words syllable structure also changed from original term. Not only about adding syllables, but also the long loan words can clipped to derivate new words in the morphology of target language. Other morphological process is reduplication. “Reduplication is a word arrangement process that rehashes all or some portion of a word to pass on some type of significance” Anjum and Khawar (2020). So, reduplication and clipping of syllables are other parts of grammar borrowing of target language.

4.1.3.1 Inflectional morphemes

According to Smeaton (1973), a loanword undergoes modification of morphological structure to achieve harmony with the established predominant pattern and root System thus usually leading to internal pluralization, i.e. broken plural and similar derivations. Except few of them (at least all) loan words in Oromo follows derivation and inflection rules of its own. Especially, for plural, cases, definiteness and gender formation of loan words are the formed in the rule of native word formation.

4.1.3.1.1 Plurals of noun loan words

For plural making in Oromo native words different inflectional morphemes are suffixed to noun. These suffixes are */-vta/*, */-i:n/*, */-wwan/*, */-lee/*, */-εji:/* and */-an/* are used to mark number. As it mentioned earlier, for number, loan words in the language took native morphemes inflections. The following table shows that when native plural formation morphemes added to loan words.

Table 6 pluralization in Oromo

No	Loan words	Plural of loan words in Oromo	Suffixed plural inflections
1	Doctor	<i>/dɔktɔ:ɾɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
2	Christians	<i>/kɪrista:nɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
3	atoms	<i>/ʔatɔ:mɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
4	generals	<i>/dʒɛnɛra:lɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
5	<i>/santim/</i>	<i>/sa:ntimɔ:ta:/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
6	<i>/kutub/</i> 'books'	<i>/kɪta:bɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
7	Agenda	<i>/adʒanda:lɜ:/</i>	<i>/-lɜ:/</i>
8	Hormone	<i>/hɔrmɔ:nɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
9	Element	<i>/elɛmɜ:ntɔta/</i>	<i>/-ɾta/</i>
10	Cement	<i>/simɪntɔwwan/</i>	<i>/-wwan/</i>
11	Tissue	<i>/tɪfɪ:lɜ:/</i>	<i>/-lɜ:/</i>
12	Industry	<i>/ɪndastɪrɪwwan/</i>	<i>/-wwan/</i>

As we have seen from above table, even though loan words in the language take native morphemes, mainly three native morpheme */-ɾta/*, */-wwan/* and */-lɜ:/* are attached to them. Others morphemes such as */i:n/*, */ɛjji:/* and */-an/* rarely attached to loan words in Oromo.

4.1.3.1.2 Cases

The common morphemes that mark nominative case are /-nni/, /-lli/, /-rri/, /-i/, /-ni/, /-n/ and /ə/ as Kedir (2019) explained it. Wollega (Macha) dialect the genitive case is reflected by attaching the prefix /kan/ to the noun, and by lengthening the final vowel of the word which is applied for loan word, for example, /kan dɔktɔ:ra/ ‘of doctor’ and /kan dʒɛnɛra:la/ ‘Of general’ are a best model. Oromo noun inflects for instrumental case by attaching the morphemes /-an/, /-i:n/, /-n/, and /-dan/ to mark instrumental case. For example, /ʃibɔ:dɑ:n/ with wire, /mɔ:tɔra:n/ ‘by motor’, and /ba:tiri:n/ ‘by battery’ and /mi:dija:n/ ‘by media’ is show instrumental case of loan words in Oromo. The morphemes /-f/, /-af/, /-a/, and /-i:/ mark dative cases. In Macha (Wollega) dialect, the morpheme /-da:f/ is suffixed to a noun to indicate dative case. Therefore, case formation native inflectional morphemes in Oromo are affixed to loan words with the same rules of native words inflected. So, there no new rules for case formation of loan words in the language.

According to Leslu(-) the noun /ʃɔmbɔk'k'ɔ:/ is borrowed from other Cushitic language (out of Oromo) with suffix /-ɔ/ such as Agau, Qimant and Somali. Since it is loan in Oromo also, as he said, it is borrowed from other Ethiopian Cushitic with suffix. As he explained this suffix is affixed to form abstract names and nouns of products, animals and vegetables.

4.1.3.1.3 Definiteness and gender

In Oromo, the morphemes /-ifɑ:/ and /-itti:/ are inflected for definiteness and gender at the same time. The suffix /-ifɑ:/ is used for masculine and /-itti:/ is for feminine. As well as /-ifɑ/ is inflected for singulative specific of masculine and /-itti:/ is inflected for singulative specific feminine case. This all is true for loan words as that /tira:ʃikatʃa/ ‘the traffic sing. Masc.’ and /tira:ʃikitti:/ ‘the Traffic sing. Fem’ is good indication of it. As a result of above example, definiteness and gender native inflectional morpheme /-ifɑ:/ and /-itti:/ is suffixed to loan words to point sexual category and determination of noun certainty. As it revealed from the above data, Oromo noun loan words inflected by non-loan morphemes for number, gender, and nominative, definite and in all case formation process.

4.1.3.2 Derivational morphology

4.1.3.2.1 Nominalization

Nominalization is a process of forming nominals from different categories. Nominative can be derived from different parts of speech. In Oromo nominal can be formed from verbs, adjectives and nominal itself as it mentioned in Comrie 1985.

a) Abstract nominal

Abstract nominals are derived from adjectival and nominal bases by the addition of different suffixes such as */-omma:/*, */oma:/*, */-3:na/* and */-ina/*. The following example shows us an abstract nominal formed from different categories. The morpheme */-oma/* and */-omma:/* are similar but they have only dialectal variations.

For example;

- i) */dɔrba/* ‘girl’ + */-omma:/* → */dɔrbomma:/* ‘girlhood’ or ‘virginity’
- ii) */di:m-/* ‘red’ + */-ma/* → */di:m-ma/* ‘redness’ or ‘raw meat used for eating without cooking’
- iii) */ad-/* ‘white’ + */-3:na/* → *ad-3:na/* ‘whiteness’
- iv) */moʃʎ-/* ‘child’ + */-oma/* or */omma:/* → */moʃʎ-oma/* or */moʃʎ-omma:/* ‘childhood’

In loan words, to describe abstract nominal especially, */-omma:/* derivational morpheme is suffixed to nominal and adjective. Others are rarely affixed to nominative category to form abstract nominal in Oromo loan words. Here the following are few examples of abstract nominalization of loan words nominal in Oromo loan words.

- i. *kɪrɪsta:na* + */omma:/* → */kɪrɪsta:nomma:/* ‘christianism’
- ii. */ɪsla:ma/* + */omma:/* → */ɪsla:momma:/* ‘Islamism’
- iii. */atɪlɜ:ti:/* + */omma:/* → */atɪlɜ:tomma:/* ‘athlete ness’

In Oromo loan words as native words, the final sound of the syllable is deleted and the morpheme “-umm” is suffixed directly as we have seen in above examples. However in above examples are not as we have discussed earlier, they do not delete the final sounds of word syllable rather they attached directly. From a loan word */kɪrɪsta:na/* the final sound */a/* is deleted and the nominal action formation derivational morpheme */-omma:/* directly suffixed.

In Oromo, some words are borrowed with an abstract nominal of their respective language (SL). Rather than using or affixed from native abstract nominal, they use SL abstract nominal formation derivative morpheme directly borrowed with words. The following example indicated the words borrowed with abstract nominal.

Table 7, loan words borrowed with abstract nominal morpheme

no	Loan word SL	Loan word in Oromo	root of loan word	Loan morphemes
1	capitalism	/ka:ppɪta:lɪzɪmi:/	Capital	-ism
2	Federalism	/federa:lɪzɪmi:/ or /federa:lɪsti:/	Federal	-ism and -ist
3	feudalism	/fiwodalɪzɪmi:/	Feudal	-ism
4	Scientist	/sa:jɪntɪsti:/	Science	-ist

b) Action nominal

Such nominal refer to "the fact, the act, the quality, or occurrence of" the base from which they are derived (Comrie et al, 1985:350). In Oromo native morphemes, such nominals are derived from verbal roots by adding different suffixes of which */-iffa/*, */-sa/*, *-omsa/*, */a:/*, */-a:ti:/*, and */-ta:/* are just a few as the following examples illustrate explained by Temesgen (1993).

- i) */fiŋ-/* ‘run’ + */-iffa/* → */fi:ŋiffa/* ‘running’
- ii) */ɪdʒ ɪffar-/* ‘build’ + */-sa/* → */ɪdʒɪffar-sa/* ‘building’
- iii) */kad-/* ‘beg’ + */a:/*, → */kad-a:/*, ‘begging’
- iv) */dʊŋ-/* ‘drink’ + */-a:ti:/* → */dʊŋa:ti:/* ‘drinking’
- v) */gʊrgʊr-/* ‘sell’ + */-ta:/* → */gʊrgʊr-ta:/* ‘selling’

However, in loan words few of the mentioned above morpheme is used in the language. */-ama:/*, */-a/* and */-effama:/* are mainly used to indicate action in loan words. It illustrated below as follows:

- i. /dɪnk'-/ 'surprise' + /-ɛffama:/ → dɪnk'-ɛfama:/ 'surprised'
- ii. /lasan-/ 'soft' + /-ama:/ → /lassan-ama:/ 'softened'
- iii. /ʃa:rg-/ 'charge' + /-ɛffama:/ → /ʃa:rg-ɛffama:/ 'charged'
- iv. /fa:las-/ 'fallacy' + /-ama:/ → /fa:las-ama:/ 'fallacies'
- v. /kɪra:-/ 'rent' + /-ɛffama:/ → /kɪra-ɛffama:/ 'rented'

In here loan words, the derivative morphemes indicate for action nominal can also represent and used in result nominal. Since in both action nominal and result nominal derived from verbs are passivated, it can expressed in the same manner.

c) Result nominal

The result nominal formed by affixed morphemes such as /-ɔmsa/, /-sa/ -(a)a and /-a:ti:/ are the same as action nominals morphemes above, additionally others like /-tɜ:/ /-i:/, /-ttu:/ /-ɔ:/ and /-su:/ which are also used to derive other result nominals.

- i. /bɜ:k-/ 'know' /-ɔmsa/ → /bɜ:k-ɔmsa/ 'knowledge'
- ii. /ʔaba:r-/ 'curse' /-sa/ → /ʔaba:r-sa/ 'cursing'
- iii. /kɛnn-/ 'give' /-a:/ → /kɛnn-a:/ 'gift'
- iv. /dɔg-/ 'drink' /-a:ti:/ → /dɔg-a:ti:/ 'drink' (n)
- v. /mɔr-/ 'cut' /-tɜ:/ → /mɔr-tɜ:/ 'decision'
- vi. /dadab-/ 'exhaust' /-i:/ → /dadab-i:/ 'exhaustion'
- vii. /gammad-/ 'be happy' /-u:/ → /gammad-u:/ 'happiness'
- viii. /ʔarabs-/ 'insult' /-ɔ:/ → /ʔarabs-ɔ:/ 'insult' (n)

As it expressed in action nominal above, loan words take action nominal derivational morpheme to indicate results in Oromo. For example;

- i. /kɔlɔn-/ 'colony' + /-ɛffama:/ → /kɔlɔn-ɛffama:/ 'colonized'
- ii. /ʃib-/ 'wire' + /-ɛffama:/ → /ʃib-ɛffama:/ 'wired'
- iii. /mɔ:k'-/ 'cook' + /-ama:/ → /mɔ:k'-ama:/ 'cooked'
- iv. /pɔlɔn-/ 'polonies' + /-ɛffama:/ → /pɔlɔn-ɛffama:/ 'pollinized'

Therefore, derivation of nominal in Oromo have a rule to follow and some loan words in the language shadow nominalization rule of native derivational morpheme than borrows it. Loan words as native words, the final sound of the syllable is deleted and the morpheme /-ɔmma/ is suffixed directly. But in

here the noun Africa Ethiopia and have unique properties from all above example. To make abstract nominal the noun Africa in Oromo, the morpheme */-numma:/* is added to the loan word with out of deleting the final sounds of words. Derivational morphemes such as */-am(a)a/*, */-a/*, and */-effama:/* are mainly used to indicate action nominals in loan words Of Oromo. The derivative morphemes indicate for action nominal can also represent and used in result nominal. Since in both action nominal and result nominal derived from verbs and they are passivized, it can express in the same manner.

4.1.4 Rules of noun loan word inflection

In here we are going see rules applied when loan words inflected for different ways to show plural of their respective. Actually, tangible rule can implicate in this process as Paolo (2013) investigated for loan word inflection.

4.1.4.1 Number inflection

The languages inflected morphology for noun plurality has the rules and strategies to follow in formation of loan word plural. Paolo (2013) has proposed that such strategies can be grouped into three categories, which he suggested to call oikomorphological, xenomorphological, and allomorphological interpretation.

4.1.4.1.1 Oikomorphological interpretation

According to Paolo (2013) solution, this interpretation constitutes the highest level of morphological integration; borrowed nouns or generally words behave morphologically like native words. So, pluralization, nominative, genitive, ablative and dative of such like loan words are the same with native rule word formation in their respective. So, such like words are mainly related to call integrated loan words according to the level of loan word integration and adaptation. Their phonology more like native word and assimilated as SL native words. For the reason above, they do not form separate morphological rule. Example in English is a ‘koala’ which borrowed from Dharuk but takes morpheme */s/* for plural making. In Oromo, all noun loan words form their inflectional morpheme with native pluralization morpheme. These are almost all loan words make plural in Oromo with native word plural formation system. The words in the language to form plural they take morphemes such as */-ɔta/*, */-lɜ:/*, */-wwan/*, */-ɜ:n/*, */-vli:/*, */-vlɜ:/*, and */a:/* as Kedir (2019) mentioned them with their rules. But loan words mainly take */-(v(ɔ:)ta/* */-lɜ:/* and */-wwan/* plural morphemes. Look the following table.

Table 8, Oikomorphological interpretation

no	Loan words	plural in SL	Plural of loan word in Oromo
1	Atom	Atoms	<i>/ʔatɔ:mɔta/</i>
2	Bureau	Bureaus	<i>/bi:rɔ:wwan/</i>
3	Media	Medias	<i>/mi:dijalɜ:/</i>
4	Agenda	Agendas	<i>/adʒanda:lɜ:/</i>
5	Film	Films	<i>/fi:lmɪwwan/</i>
6	Kitaba ‘book’	<i>/kɔtɔb/</i> ‘books’	<i>/kita:bɔta/</i>

Some loan words in Oromo are not inflected for plural, they remain as in a source language but shows plural and singular without attached any morpheme in Oromo. For example, */tɪma:tɪma/* ‘tomato’ which is borrowed from Amharic is not inflected for plural. The words such as */bɔskɔti:/* ‘biscuit’, */zajta/* ‘oil’, and */ka:rɔti:/* ‘carrot’ are loan words show plural and singular at the same time without of taking morphemes. This shows the properties of parts of the body in native word of Oromo. Parts of the body such as */harka/* ‘hand’, */mi:lal/* ‘leg’, */ɪdʒa/* ‘eye’ and */gɔrra/* ‘ear’ are not inflected for plural as Kedir (2009). They show singular as well as plural without added inflection in their natural.

4.1.4.2 Xenomorphological interpretation

This shows lowest morphological integration and adaptation. It is a solution opposite of Oikomorphological word formation system. In his solution (Paolo 2013) said “In such cases, loan words maintain the inflectional morphology of their respective languages of origin and thus constitute one or more separate morphological classes.” Since the TL speaker became new with the word, they borrow it with its inflection. If it practiced by multilingual speaker of SL and TL, it seen as insertional code switching than borrowing. This example from English is the word borrowed from Greek, ‘phenomenon’ which in English takes the plural form with the Greek morpheme */+a/*. In this case, not word only borrowed from Greek to English, but also with plural making inflectional morpheme. However in Oromo, there is no loan words came with SL plural making morphemes. Because all loan words in the

language takes plural making morphemes of Oromo. Those plural making noun suffixes are as listed earlier they are /-ɔta/, /-lɜ:/, /-wwan/, /-ɜ:n/, /-vli:/, /-vlɜ:/, and /a:/as Kedir (2019). Unless all loan words in the language shadow and use native plural inflectional morphemes.

On other hand, there are words that borrowed with their derivational morphemes in the language. This is also not at all cases of derivational morphemes, but sometimes. These are derivational morphemes suffix that implies a practice, system, doctrine. For example, federalism/list, capitalism/list, federation and etc. are the loan words with their derivational morphemes. The suffix -ism, -r, -list and -tion in transferred to Oromo with out of changing their meaning in some words. For example, the word /ifa:rdʒi:/ ‘charge’ in English has categorized as verb in its parts of speech. When derivational morpheme /-r/ suffixed, its parts of speech is changed from verb to noun i.e. ‘charger’. So, it is borrowed in both forms verb /ifa:rdʒi:/ ‘charge’ and noun /ifa:rdʒɜra/ ‘charger’ from English to in Oromo. In plural formation, concatenatively, they take native inflectional morpheme. Its examples are shown in the table below.

Table 9, Xenomorphological interpretation

no	English	morphemes in English	Loan words Oromo	morphemes in Oromo
1	Federalists	ist +s	/fɜdɜra:liɜt ɔ:ta/	/-ɔ:ta/
2	capitalisms	-ism +s	/ka:pi:ta:lɜɜmɔ:ta/	/-ɔ:ta/
3	biologists	-ist + s	/ba:yolɔ:dʒiɜtɔ:ta/	/-ɔ:ta/
4	dramatists	-ist+s	/di:ra:ma:tist ɔ:ta/	/-ɔ:ta/
5	organisms	-ism+ pl	vrga:nɜɜmɔ:ta/	/-ɔ:ta/
6	Chargers	-r+s	/ifa:rdʒɜɜɔ:ta/	/-ɔ:ta/

From the table, ‘-s’ is added for pluralization of nouns in concatenatively affixed to derivational morpheme. We can’t get the position where inflectional loan morphemes plural making is suffixed to loanwords. But, all mentioned words are borrowed with derivative morphemes such as ‘-ism’, ‘ist’, and ‘-r’,

4.1.4.2.1 Allomorphological interpretation

This is which take intermediate degree in morphological integration. This category include word formation case that different from both oikomorphological and xenomorphological interpretation of inflectional formation. Agreeing to Paolo (2013) in the cases of allomorphological solutions, borrowed nouns can form a separate morphological class. Allomorphological solution has three categories. These are:

4.1.4.2.1.1 Borrowing morpheme

It takes place when TL borrowed morphemes than word from SL directly. Copying an inflectional morpheme is easier if, other things being equal, the language contact is intense and the two languages in contact are typologically close (Winford 2003: 63; Gardani 2008: 42–47), as is the case of Friulian and Italian. This is mainly happen in structural borrowing when it needs more relation between the speaker of both language and socio-cultural interrelation of society. In order to borrow morpheme from one language to another needs long period of time and it is one indicator of language shift. The structural loan can be exemplified by Paolo is, a language that, in addition to copying from Dagur the plural morpheme /+nVr/, has also copied the rule that stipulates that the suffix can be applied only to the morphological class of terms indicating kinship (Paolo 2013). This system is not applicable in the language under investigation. Because we can't get loan morpheme that attached to the native words rather, loan word themselves use a native inflection and derivation morphemes. For that reason borrowing inflectional morpheme is not applicable.

4.1.4.2.1.2 Invariant of sounds

This occurs when TL lack comparable phoneme of SL it adopted and reshaped to its own phoneme. For example, in standard French and Spanish (in the latter case limitedly to certain words of Latin origin ending with a consonant) this situation can adopt. In Oromo this is applicable when older people lack ability to call loan phonemes. As it mentioned earlier, there are loan phonemes in Oromo which found in only loan words. So, when they lack to pronounciate it, invariant phoneme replaces from native phonemes. For example; some illiterate and older people can't pronounce /v/ and /p/ in the Word "University" and "police" respectively. Therefore, they replace /v/ by /b/ and /p/ by /f/ in the loan words mention above. So, they call as /ju:nɪbarsɪt:i/ and /fɔ:lɪsi:/.

4.1.4.2.1.3 Native morpheme

We called this when native morpheme inflection attached to loan word. It like hybrid, but in this case only inflectional morphemes are coined with loan word to form morphemes as a native words. In here, all rules applied to native word will be applicable for loan words. For example, the morpheme *-en* for plural making in Dutch attached to called ‘broken’ to show plurality (Paolo 2013). Accordingly, this indicates the situation of native morphemes attached to loan word to inflect and derivate as a native word do. This is common at least in all loan word in the language under investigation. All loan words in Oromo inflected as native word inflected for plural, nominative, case, gender and definiteness. This property is expressed under Xenomorphological interpretation. But some derivational morphemes suffixes (federalism, capitalist, federation...) are borrowed with root words. However, they take inflectional morphemes concatenatively. For example; to make plural the word ‘capitalist’ in Oromo the plural morpheme /-ɔ:ta/ is concatenatively suffixed to the word.

From the short review above, key findings emerged in this part is that Oromo noun loan word inflection rule is actually applied Oikomorphological interpretation which constitutes the highest level of morphological integration; borrowed nouns or generally words behave morphologically like native words and from Allomorphological interpretation native morpheme with loan words are practical.

4.1.5 Semantic change

Unless you know the culture of language, it is difficult to know the meaning of words because, i), “with words of foreign origin, there is no deep cultural motivation to protect their original meanings and ii), the meaning or usage of a word in its original language may not be fully understood; nor need it be, as loanwords are used without reference to their source words.” Kay (2015) mentioned it. And also the meaning of donor language and recipient word may be different. After long period of time, the borrowed words chronologically their meaning can changed as indigenous words do. In semantics, there are polysemy words i.e. word have several meaning. Loan word can have different meaning from its source language. “Another important type of structural borrowing is loan meaning extension” said Martin (2009) in relation to meaning extension of loan words. Example the English word head is used in a technical sense to refer to the main word in a syntactic phrase

According Buko, Negesse &Handamo (2021), Taboo word are semantically changed. Since it seen as a Taboo, some people change from its Original name to something easy and simple to say among the people. For example; ‘AIDS’ has been killing many people all over the world because it has no cure.

Due to this, a big crisis happened to the infected persons. It separates husbands and wives as well as the family members. As a result of this, people avoid calling its name and so use the Substitute expression /*dökkoba bara*:/ means ‘Disease of our time’ to imply that the disease did not exist before. Sometimes they also use HIV as the abbreviation for it.

In generally Oromo lexical semantic change involves semantic broadening, narrowing, pejoration, amelioration, and metaphor according to Buko and et al. (2021), study.

4.1.5.1 Semantic broadening

Semantic broadening refers to a widening of the meaning of the already existing words to express new concepts and entities. As Baye (1994) explains a lot of existing Oromo words have extended their meaning by designating new concepts. As Buko and et al. (2021), Oromo native words are extended their meaning as following.

Oromo words	Basic meaning	extended meaning
<i>/fu:la/</i>	‘face’	‘page’
<i>/kɔfɔ:/</i>	‘Trousers’	‘angle’
<i>/gɜ:dʒɪba/</i>	‘pack animal’	‘transportation’

Each word has a similar form but multiple meanings that are all related by extension and we have what is technically known as polysemy. Loan words in the language have similar characteristics of non-loan words in extending their meanings. As exemplified in below

Table 10, semantic broadening meaning of loan words in Oromo

no	Oromo loan words	SL meaning	extended meaning in Oromo
1	<i>/mɔ:ds:la/</i> from 'model'	something like another	name of exam which likes national exam
2	<i>/k'alama/</i> from <i>/k'elem/</i>	color	ink
3	<i>/ka.rdi:/</i> from 'card'	certificate	certificate that given from school or money from mobile used for call
4	<i>/ba:borra/</i> from <i>/ba:bor/</i>	train	Grinder and also used for trail as polysemy

The word Model in English used for something like other without limiting it specifically. However in Oromo the word is mainly given for exam prepared in school at the end of grade 8, 10 and 12 regularly. The exam is expected to have similarity with national exam regularly given in the country. The word */k'elem/* in Amharic have a general meaning 'color', but in Oromo it used for pen. Card has similar meaning extension as model that sometimes used for certificate given in school. Therefore, loan words have meaning extension as native words do in Oromo

4.1.5.2 Semantic narrowing

Narrowing of meaning refers to the reduction in the number of things for which a word stands or the range of contexts in which a word is used. As stated by Buko and etal (2021), Oromo as others language do it has a meaning narrowing words. They used example for non-loan words as */boti:/* in basic meaning 'taking something by force or snatching somebody's property and detention of a female (abduct/kidnap)' and in narrowing meaning 'taking something by force or snatching somebody's property'. In loan word we have a word *ba:nki:/* 'bank' which is reduced of its source language meaning. 'Bank' in its SL it is a polysemy word which have two unrelated meaning. These are:

Bank- ‘an institution used for saving money’ and

- Part of river.

However, in Oromo its meaning is narrowed and used for only an institution used for saving money. In here, the second meaning of word is completely deleted. The word “*matf’aaafa*” which borrowed from Amharic also semantically its meaning is narrowed. In its basic meaning “*matf’aaafa*” is ‘any written material or book’ but its meaning narrowed in Oromo used for holly bible only. Therefore, the meaning of the word is reduced in the contexts of used in its Original and semantic extension property is applied.

4.1.5.3 Amelioration

According to Rayevska (1979:149), the process of amelioration takes place when a word’s meaning changes from a position of lower to higher significance. This shows the meaning of word is more positive than its basic meaning. It is an action of adding the level or priority and more favourable of words than expected meaning. Since Oromo adapted with such like semantic feature which Buko and et al. (2021) defined it, loan word property would checked in the below. They exemplify word */gerbitti/* with basic meaning ‘female servant/slave’ and ameliorated meaning as ‘one who works in someone’s house on a monthly salary’ and the word */oddu:/* for basic meaning ‘buttock’ and ameliorated as ‘seat’.

From the loan words, */alko:li:/* ‘alcohol’ have amelioration semantic feature. In its basic meaning it is harmful, especially it used for intoxication drinking. To make more favourable the meaning of alcoholic drink ameliorated as */duga:ti:/* ‘drinking’ in general manner.

4.1.5.4 Pejoration

Pejoration is a degradation of meaning, refers to the commendatory word or neutral word change into a derogatory word in the linguistic development as Buko and et al. (2021), It is the process by which a word’s meaning worsens or degenerates to represent something less favorable than it originally did. In Oromo, the meanings of some words have deteriorated due to various factors. Social prejudice against certain occupations, and groups of people, has deformed the meaning of words For example, the word */ba:dja:/* (adj) ‘countryside’ in its basic meaning ‘someone from the countryside’ and in pejoration meaning ‘out of fashion’ and */tiks3:/* (adj) in basic meaning ‘herdsman’ pejorated as ‘not matured, impolite, rude’. In loan words pejoration semantic feature also applied as the following. A loan word */mo:k’a/* is from Amharic in its basic meaning something boiled especially for boiled water and soup. In

Oromo if someone said ‘you drink soup’ it means that he/she is lack force to compete friends to indicate others eat food but he/she drink only soup. In this context, the soup is pejoreted as useless food.

4.1.5.5 Metaphor

Metaphor is the transfer of properties from one domain to another to create a new referential value: some of a term’s semantic properties are selected (abstracted) and applied to another domain to designate a new entity in virtue of the properties considered shared by the two referents. Ulmann, (1962) share his ideas on metaphorical extension as a natural process that can be undergone by any word. In Oromo, many animal names are transferred to the human sphere. This is due to the similarity in behavior and appearance between the animal and the sense in the human. The lexical categories of basic nouns are changed to adjectives when they are used metaphorically. This process is common all over the world. For example, a word /lɜ:nf’a/ in its basically meaning ‘lion’; however, metaphorically it shows ‘brave (adj). The loan word /farad/ in some dialects /farda/ ‘horse’ has such metaphoric extension. It means in basic meaning ‘horse’ and metaphorically someone have a long size. This is mainly related with the size of horse when it compared with others animals.

Accordingly as it revealed from above data, what we found in native words are also exercised in loan words as we have seen above the semantic feature such as semantic broadening, narrowing, pejoration, amelioration, and metaphor. Broaden meaning applied when loan words used beyond their basic meaning, semantic narrowing evidenced when loan words use the basic meaning of the word is reduced such as bank and /matf’a:fa/ functioned. Pejoration exercised at the level of word meaning deterioration with example of loan word /mɔ:k’a/ ‘soup’. Amelioration semantic feature is acted while loan words used beyond their meaning favorably. And finally metaphoric properties achieved after loan words domain meaning is transferred for other things,

4.1.6 Syntactic change

Safarova (2021) says “It deals with relationships between lexemes and other words. It is the form of the morphemic substitution that is always adopted. Syntactic borrowings entail various grammatical relationships, predominantly issues of agreement, dependence, and order.”

Loan words fit into the Oromo syntactical structure as if they were native words, being ascribed particles such as subject and object markers where necessary. It can appear as linguistic part affected in the process of borrowing. The syntactic structure occurs when the structure of borrowed word affect the

structure of recipient language style. The structure of loan word distorts the structure of SL word, especially syllable structure of loan words changed to syllable structures of SL accordingly. As we have seen earlier, the syllable structure of many loan words is changed, whether it added or omitted. For example, the word ‘kilogram’ has three syllables */kilɒ-v-gram/*, but, when it borrowed from English to Oromo, reduced to two syllables */kil-ɔ:/* and cent is added from one syllable to three as */san-tim-a/* syllable. There are two types of syntactic borrowings:

- a) Syntactic Innovation – this is the case where the structure is completely unidentified in the borrowing language.
- b) Syntactic Borrowing of Higher Frequency – when the form is known and recognizable in the borrowing language. Nevertheless, it is relatively rare and limited to particular distributional contexts.

It is a general (indeed, universal) property of phrases that every phrase has a head word which determines the nature of the overall phrase as discussed by Andrew Radford (2009). Sometimes, compound loan words have great influence on the structure and head compliment of the targets language. The compound loan words are borrowed with the head compliment structure of their source language. Amharic as English did, head first language, that Oromo has opposite property of them i.e. headed last language as Korean did. For example, in “አድስአበባ” */addis ababa:/* is the name of Ethiopian capital city. So, the name is borrowed in Oromo without changing its head structure in the TL. The meaning of word is ‘new’ for “አድስ” and ‘flower’ for “አበባ” generally means ‘new flower’ since the name is given for the place of new flower found. The */pas-pɔ:rti:/* from English ‘passport’ also has the same property that affected in its head structure. When translated in to Oromo, the Order of word is change since head of phrases became at the last. But since it is a name, it doesn’t translate even though distort the structure of the words head. Not only from Amharic, but if Oromo borrows any head-first language, its syntactic structure is distorted. But some of them are structured in to the TL syntactic structure. For example;

a) Asks the traffic police

b) It called physical chemistry

/pɔ:lisa tɪra:fika: ga:fadɔ/

/fi:zika:l kɜ:mɪstɪri: dʒedama/

In above example a) both words ‘police’ and ‘traffic’ are loan phrases in Oromo; however, their head structure is changed from English syntactic rule in a) to Oromo syntactic head structure. But in b) English syntactic structure influence and affects the Oromo head complement syntactic structure rule. Therefore, the head complement in English directly borrowed if it is a compound word only as b) and affects the syntactic structure of Oromo that borrowed with the words. That expresses borrowing words can leads to grammatical or syntactic borrowing. But if it is not compound word, the syntactic structure of words should be changed to Oromo structure.

However, when it hybrids with Oromo native word, its head structure is changed. Sometimes heads of words are borrowed and its compliment is translated in to Oromo and hybrids of compound word is formed in the form of head is loan word and compliment is from Oromo. For example, ‘di-atom’ is changed to /*atəm-lamɜː*/ which atom is borrowed and ‘di-’ prefix is translated to /*lamɜː*/ meaning ‘two’.

Generally as it revealed from the discussion, Oromo loan words are exercise all linguistic features. These features are phonological features such as deletion edition, metathesis, epenthesis and etc., morphological properties, syntactic and semantic properties. From the linguistic item free morphemes are the most borrowed, derivational morphemes are little borrowed and inflectional morphemes are never borrowed.

4.2 Linguistic item borrowed in Oromo

A morpheme is divided into free morpheme and bound morpheme. Charstairs-McCarthy (2002: 18) explained, ‘Morphemes that can stand on their own are called free, and ones that cannot are bound’. It means morphemes which stand as a word called free morpheme and the other which cannot stand as a word called bound morpheme. A bound morpheme has two types; there are Derivational and inflectional morpheme.

According to the experts’ explanation above the writer concludes that derivational morpheme is affixes. It can change the meaning of the based word and create new word. The meaning can be changed to the opposite meaning, from positive to negative. Like a morpheme ‘dis-’ on the word ‘disagree’. The base word is ‘agree’ that has meaning approving something. But, when it is added ‘dis-’ the meaning changes to be the opposite side or did not approving.

4.2.1 Derivational Morpheme

Fromkin et al., (2014: 44) explained that when a derivational morphemes is added to a base, it adds meaning. It means that derivational morpheme creates new word and new meaning. According to Critten et al., (2014) derivational morphemes may occur at the beginning (prefixes) or end of a word (suffixes) and produce semantic changes by transforming the grammatical form of a word.” It means derivational morpheme is the affixes that change the word meaning.

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Fromkin et al., (2014) stated the word feudal as an adjective and the morpheme ‘-ism’ derivative morpheme that changes the parts of speech from adjective to noun feudalism as the following in Oromo as a loan word borrowed with derivational morpheme.

Table 11, Loan of derivational morpheme

no	Loan word	base word in SL	derivational morpheme	gloss
1	/fiju:daɫɪzɪmi:/	feudal (adj.)	-ism	feudalism (n)
2	/ʃa:rdʒɛra/	charge (v)	-er	charger (n)
3	/ɛdi:tɛra/	edit (v)	-er	editor (n)
4	/rɪfɔrmɜ:ʃɛni:/	form (v)	re- and -tion	Reformation(n)
5	/kɔmɔnikɜ:ʃɜni:/	communicate	-tion	Communication (n)

These morphemes mainly borrowed with root/base word that changes parts of speech as well as the meanings of words. They are bound derivative morpheme in their classification and they cannot borrow without base word and also they cannot stand alone. These morphemes are ‘-ism’, ‘-ist’, ‘-re-’, ‘-tion’ and ‘-r’. However, the ‘-r’ morpheme is not for adjective that used to compare two things with each other. It is a morpheme that attached to verb used to shows the doer of an action such as ‘editor’, ‘combiner’ and ‘charger’ from the base verbs ‘edit, combine and charge.

4.2.2 Inflectional Morpheme

Inflectional morphemes are defined as units of meaning that are added to the base or root of a word to indicate grammatical information but do not change the word's basic meaning or its part of speech. They are insightful piece of the puzzle, as they communicate grammatical properties such as tense, comparison, number, and more. As Fromkin et al., (2014: 46) stated that Inflectional morpheme marks properties such as tense, number, person and forth, such as bound morphemes. It means Inflectional morpheme is a morpheme that describing the tenses, the numbers, the person, etc on the sentence. According to Hazen (2014: 185) “Inflectional suffixes set up relationships and affect the grammar.” It can be assumed that inflectional Morpheme has grammatical function. It affects not only a word but also a sentence in a whole.

Allerton (2017: 214) mentioned that inflectional affixes like noun plural-(e)s, verb past -(e)d, verbal-ing leave the major class unchanged, but do determine the subcategory, such as past or plural, which may have to agree with another word in the sentence. So, Inflectional morpheme does not change the class word of the based word. It influences the detail of the person, the time, the process of an action in the sentence.

As it mentioned above, in Oromo, loan words use the language inflectional morphemes for grammatical generally. For example, to show gender inflection of the following loan words are good example.

Table 12, gender inflections morpheme of loan words in Oromo

no	loan word	inflectional morphemes in Oromo	
		Gender	
		Masculine	Feminine
1	Doctor	/dɒktɜ:rɪfɑ/	/dɒktɜ:rɪtti:/
2	Actor	/ɑ:ktɜ:rɪfɑ/	/ɑ:ktɜ:rɪtti:/
3	Editor	/ɛdi:tarijɑ/	/ɛdi:tariitti:/

Above data evidenced that all loan words inflected as native words inflected for gender. The morphemes used for gender inflection are attached to loan word and they indicate gender of a noun. These gender inflectional morpheme in Oromo are */-ɪfɑ/* and */-ɪtti:/*. The former suffixed to show masculine and the latter one is for feminine as it described in above table. For example, in English ‘actor’ is used for masculine and ‘actress’ is for feminine. But in Oromo, the word ‘act’ affixed is inflected by */-ɪfɑ/* to show masculine and */-ɪtti:/* is attached to show feminine.

Additionally, for plural as it did for gender inflectional morphemes, Oromo noun loan words inflected by native plural formation morphemes. Neither plural morpheme borrowed with base words or alone. The following table points the way they attached to the loan words.

Table 13, gender and nominative inflections morpheme of loan words in Oromo

no	loan words in SL	inflectional morphemes in Oromo	
		Number	Nominative
1	Doctor	<i>/dɔktɜ:rɔta/</i>	<i>/dɔktɜ:rri/</i>
2	Hotel	<i>/hɔtɜ:l vta/</i>	<i>/hɔtɜ:lli/</i>
3	Film	<i>/fi:lmɪwwan/</i>	<i>/fi:lmɪ:n/</i>
4	'kitab'	<i>/kɪta:b vta/</i>	<i>/kɪta:bni/</i>
5	Agenda	<i>/adʒanda:lɜ:/</i>	<i>/adʒanda:lɜ:/</i>
6	Tissue	<i>/tɪfu:lɜ:/</i>	<i>/tɪfu:lɜ:/</i>

All loan words inflected as native word inflected in both for plural and nominative case inflection in Oromo as it regularly explained in the different parts of present study.

Based on the evidence presented on above data, in summary, all loan words use native inflectional morpheme than borrowed with words. On other hand, particularly, the morpheme that attached to verbs which change the parts of speech from verb to noun such as '-ism', '-r', '-tion', and '-ist' are mainly borrowed with base words. In general way, free morphemes are the most borrowed that followed by derivational morphemes rarely borrowed with base words and inflectional morphemes do not borrow in Oromo. Unconsciously even if they borrowed with base words, again it uses native inflectional morphemes.

Conclusion

Generally, what this study reveals is concluded as following. Whenever loan words enter in Oromo, they have phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantically changes from SL. Phonologically, the loan word sound patterns changed from its origin to Oromo phonological pattern system. They have phonological actions of sound deletion, addition, metathesis, germination, vowel harmony, epenthesis, alteration, and shifting. Morphologically, especially in morphemes, all loan words follows the rules of native words inflectional morphemes, mainly for inflections of plural, gender, definiteness, nominative, dative and instrumental case formations of nouns. However; some derivational morphemes are transferred from SL to Oromo when it compared with inflectional morphemes. Those are as it morpheme like that 'ism', 'ist', '-er', 'tion' and such like morpheme that change parts of speeches. Therefore, loan words in Oromo has morphologized, and morphological rule of affixes in the language. Syntactically, it has a realization of loan words that morphological and phonological changes affect the syntactic rules of loan words in the language. The behavior of syntactic structure of loan words was changed from SL to follow Oromo syntactic structure and also phonologizations have great impacts on syllabification of the loan words. On other hand, compound and borrowed phrase have inversely affected the head complement syntactic structure of the language. Additionally, especially in written, there are orthographical changes of loan words. This is because of the language has its own writing system. Finally, as another linguistics component, semantically loan words have behavior change in Oromo. As might be expected, the meanings of the loan words are often narrowed, widened, ameliorated, pejorated and metaphorically shifted to related objects or concepts. Among the morphemes, free morphemes are mostly borrowed; derivational morphemes are borrowed in the case of nominal derivation from different parts of speech with a root words and inflectional morphemes never borrowed. From the collected loan words the noun including personal names are more borrowed than other parts of speech. This is because of new innovation, technologies from different parts of the word and internet fast to spread the words throughout the word. Among the collected loan word more than half of them are noun followed by verb. Therefore, other parts of speech, nouns are more borrowable class in Oromo.

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Appendix

Loan word collected from spoken

1. /a:da:/ ‘culture’
2. /abɔka:dɔ:/ ‘avocado’
3. /addis ababa:/ ‘Addis Ababa’
4. /adʒanda:/ ‘agenda’
5. /al-ergɜ:/ ‘export’
6. /arama:/ ‘weed’
7. arak'a:/ ‘local alcoholic drink’
8. /a:rti:/ ‘art’
9. /atɪlɜ:ti:/ ‘athlete’
10. /atɔ:bisi:/ ‘autobus’
11. /ba:bɔra/ ‘grinder’ and also ‘train’
12. /ba:dʒeta/ ‘budget’
13. /ba:nki:/ ‘bank’
14. /bilɔ:ki:/ ‘block’
15. /bɪskɪlɜ:ti:/ ‘bicycle’
16. /bɪzɪnɜsi:/ ‘business’
17. /bɔ:ndi:/ ‘bond’
18. /bɔ:rdi:/ ‘board’
19. /bɔrf'ɔk'k'ɔ:/ ‘glass’
20. /bɔrtɔka:na/ ‘orange’
21. /bɔskɔti:/ ‘biscuit’
22. /fɑ:rʒɜra/ ‘charger’
1. /f'ɪmdi:/ ‘double’
2. /da:bbɔ:/ ‘bread’
23. /da:bɪlɜs/ ‘devil’
24. /dabtera/ ‘notebook’
25. /data:/ ‘data’
26. /diʒ:ssu:/ ‘taking part’
27. /diɡri:/ ‘degree’
28. /di:mɔkɪra:si:/ ‘democracy’
29. /dɪnk'ɪsi:fafu:/ ‘surprised’
30. /dɪrɔ:ni:/ ‘drone’
31. /dɔktɔ:ra/ ‘doctor’
32. /dɔ:rmi:/ ‘dorm’
33. /ɜdi:tera/ ‘editor’
34. /farda/ ‘horse’
35. /fi:ɪmi:/ ‘film’
36. /gamagama/ ‘evaluation’
37. /gɜna:/ ‘yet’
38. /garra:mi:/ ‘kind’
39. /gɔmma:/ ‘tire’
40. /hɔspɪta:la/ ‘hospital’
41. /ɪmba:si:/ ‘embassy’
42. /ɪspɔ:rti:/ ‘sport’
43. /ɪstɔ:vi:/ ‘stove’
44. /ɪstɔdiʔɔ:/ ‘studio’
45. /ɪswi:fi:/ ‘switch’
46. /dʒa:kɜta:/ ‘jacket’
47. /dʒɜnera:la/ ‘general’
48. /dʒɪma:ta/ ‘Friday’
49. /dʒɔnta:/ ‘junta’
50. /ka:binɜ:/ ‘cabin’
51. /kai:ɪsi:/ ‘Sock’
52. /ka:rdi:/ ‘card’
53. /kamɪsa/ ‘thrusday’
54. /karaba:ta:/ ‘cravat’
55. /karamɛlla:/ ‘candy’
56. /kɜ:ki:/ ‘keck’

57. /kɪbiri:ti:/ ‘match box’
58. /ki:bɔrdisti:/ ‘keyboardist’
59. /kɪla:stara/ ‘cluster’
60. /kɪlaba/ ‘club’
61. /kɪra:ra/ ‘Guitar’
62. /kɪra:ji/ ‘rent’
63. /kɪrista:na/ ‘Christian’
64. /kɒlɒnɜ:lə/ ‘colonel’
65. /kɒmɒnikɜ:ʃeni:/ ‘communication’
66. /kɒnfɪrɜ:nsi:/ ‘conference’
67. /kɒnsɜ:ti:/ ‘concert’
68. /la:wɒndari:/ ‘Laundry’
69. /lassanama: ‘soften’
70. /ma:ʃini:/ ‘machine’
71. /mi:dija:/ ‘media’
72. /mɪljɔ:na/ ‘million’
73. Moodeela ‘model’
74. /mɔ:k'a/ ‘soup’
75. /mu:zɪk'a:/ ‘music’
76. /mu:s:li:ma/ ‘Muslim’
77. /mu:zi:/ ‘banana’
78. /ɒlɪmpɪki:/ ‘Olympic’
79. /pa:spɔ:ti:/ ‘passport’
80. /pa:stɜ:ri:/ ‘pastor’
81. /pɪrɛzɪdɛnti:/ ‘president’
82. /prɒdʒɛkti:/ ‘project’
83. /pu:li:/ ‘pool’
84. /k'alama/ ‘pen or ink’
85. /k'ammasu:/ ‘taste’
86. /k'ɜ:si:/ ‘priest’
87. /k'ɒnka/ ‘language’
88. /ra:dɪjɔ:ni:/ ‘radio’
89. /rabbi:/ ‘preacher’
90. /rakasa/ ‘cheap’
91. /saʔati:/ ‘o’clock’
92. /sa:mɒna:/ ‘sop’
93. /sa:ni:/ ‘plate’
94. /sa:ndɔk'a/ ‘box’
95. /sɜ:ra ‘law’
96. /su:fi:/ ‘suit’
97. /ta:ŋkɜra/ ‘tanker’
98. /ta:nki:/ ‘tank’
99. /ta:ksi:/ ‘tax’
100. /tɜ:ppi:/ ‘tape’
101. /tekenɪka/ ‘technic’
102. /tɪra:kɜra/ ‘tractor’
103. /s'aji/ personal name
104. /s'ɔ:ma/ ‘fasting’
105. /wɜ:rara/ ‘invasion’
106. /ju:nɪvɜ:sɪti:/ ‘university’
107. /zajta/ ‘oil’

Data collected from written

1. /va:jɜ:si:/ ‘virus’
2. /alkɔ:li:/ ‘alcohol’
3. /amba:saddara/ ‘ambassador’
4. /ambɔla:nsi:/ ‘ambulance’
5. /amɜn/ ‘amen’
6. a:si:di:/ ‘acid’
7. /atara/ ‘peas’
8. /atmɒsfɜra/ ‘atmosphere’

9. /atɒmi:/ ‘atom’
10. /ba:ktɛrɪja:/ ‘bacteria’
11. /ba:tɪri:/ ‘battery’
12. /ba:ʃɒlə:dʒi:/ ‘biology’
13. /bɜ:zi:/ ‘base’
3. /bi:rɔ:/ ‘bureau’
14. /bɒk'k'vɛlə:/ ‘maize’
15. /tʃɑ:rti:/ ‘chart’
16. /da:ʃɪmɛnʃɪni:/ ‘dimension’
17. /dɪstɪlɜ:ʃɪni:/ ‘distillation’
18. /ɛləmɛnti:/ ‘element’
19. /fala:sama/ ‘fallacies’
20. /fa:wɒndɛʃɪni:/ ‘foundation’
21. /fændi:/ ‘fund’
22. /fɛdɛrəl/ ‘federal’
23. /fɛdɛrʃɪni:/ ‘federation’
24. /fɛrtɪləʒɛʃɪni:/ ‘fertilization’
25. /fju:dəlɪzmi:/ ‘feudalism’
26. /fi:zɪkəl/ ‘physical’
27. /fɪrɜ:nɪ:/ ‘Freon’
28. /fɪrɪ:dʒi:/ ‘fridge’
29. /fɔ:rmələ:/ ‘formula’
30. /fɒtə:grɑ:fɪ:/ ‘photograph’
31. /gɑ:sii:/ ‘gas’
32. /gɪlə:bi:/ ‘globe’
33. /gɪrɑ:fɪ:/ ‘graph’
34. /gɪrɑ:vɪt:/ ‘gravity’
35. /hɜ:mɪsʃɜ:ra/ ‘hemisphere’
36. /hɔ:rmɔ:ni:/ ‘hormone’
37. /ɪndɑ:stri:/ ‘industry’
38. /ɪndʒɪ:nərə/ ‘engineer’
39. /ɪnvɛstɪmɛnti:/ ‘investment’
40. /dʒɛnɛrɜ:tərə/ ‘generator’
41. dʒi'ɔʊgɪrɑ:fii/ ‘geography’
42. /kɑ:pɪtəlɪstɪ:/ ‘capitalist’
43. /kɑ:rɛnti:/ ‘current’
44. /kɑ:rɒti:/ ‘carrot’
45. /kəfɑ:lti:/ ‘pay’
46. /kɑ:sɑ:rɑ:/ ‘Bankruptcy’
47. /kɜ:m:kɑ:lɑ/ ‘chemical’
4. /kɜ:mɪstɔ:tɑ/ ‘chemists’
5. /ki:lɔgɪrɑ:mɑ/ ‘kilogram’
6. /ki:lɔmɜ:tɪrɑ/ ‘kilometer’
48. /kɒlə:ɜ:rɑ:/ ‘cholera’
49. /kɒlə:dʒi:/ ‘college’
50. /kɒləni:/ ‘colony’
51. /kɒmbɑ:jərə/ ‘combiner’
52. /kɒmpɑ:wɒndi:/ ‘compounds’
53. /kɒmpjʊtɜrɑ/ ‘computer’
54. /kɒntɒrɑ:tɑ/ ‘contract’
55. /kɒfɪʃɛnti:/ ‘coefficient’
56. /kɒsmɔ:tɪksɪ:/ ‘cosmetics’
57. /kɒrporɜ:ʃɪni:/ ‘corporation’
58. /kɒntɒrɒbɑ:ndi:/ ‘contraband’
59. /lə:bɔrɑ:tɔri:/ ‘laboratory’
60. /mɑ:tɑri:/ ‘mater’
61. /mɑ:ʃɪkrɒskɒpi:/ ‘microscopy’
62. /mɛtʃɑ:fɑ/ ‘book’
63. /mæɡnɜ:ti:/ ‘magnet’
64. /mækɑ:nɪkɑ:lɑ/ ‘mechanical’
65. /bi:rɑ:/ ‘briary’
66. /mɑ:qɑsi:/ ‘Scissor’

67. /mʃiŋga:/ ‘Sorghum’
68. /misɪra:/ ‘Lentils’
69. /mɪsma:ra/ ‘nail’
70. /mɒla:kju:li:/ ‘molecule’
71. /mɔ:tɔra/ ‘motor’
72. /nɛgɛtrɪvɪ:/ ‘negative’
73. /ɒptɪksɪ:/ ‘optics’
74. /ɔrganɪzɪmi:/ ‘organism’
75. /pa:rki:/ ‘park’
76. /pɛndɒlamɪa/ ‘pendulum’
77. /pɪla:tɔ:/ ‘plateau’
78. /pɪla:stɪka/ ‘plastic’
79. /pɪra:mɪdi:/ ‘pyramid’
80. /pɪrɒblɜ:m:i/ ‘problems’
81. /pɒlɪnɜ:fɛni:/ ‘pollination’
82. /pɒzətɪvɪ:/ ‘positive’
83. /rɜ:fɔ:/ ‘ratio’
84. /rɪfɔrmɛfɛni:/ ‘reformation’
85. /rɒkɜ:tti:/ ‘rocket’
86. /sa:ntɪma/ ‘cent’
87. /sa:jnsɪ:/ ‘science’
88. /sɒkka:ra/ ‘sugar’
89. /sɜ:li:/ ‘cell’
90. /sɪmɪstɜ:ra/ ‘semester’
91. /sɛkɒndɪ:/ ‘second’
92. /ʃɒnkɔ:ra:/ ‘sugar cane’
93. /fɪbɔ:/ ‘wire’
94. /sɪlɪndɜ:ra/ ‘cylinder’
95. /sɪmmɪntɔ:/ ‘cement’
96. /sɔ:la:ri:/ ‘solar’
97. /ɪstɔ:vi:/ ‘stove’
98. /tɛknɔ:lɒdʒɪ:/ ‘technology’
99. /tɛrmɔmɜ:tɪra/ ‘thermometer’
100. /tɛmpɪrɜ:fɛra/ ‘temperature’
101. /tɪrɒfɪkə/ ‘traffic’
102. /tɪʃu:/ ‘tissue’
103. /tɪjɒri:/ ‘theory’
104. /tu:rɪzɪmi:/ ‘tourism’
105. Waraqaa ‘paper’
106. /t'a:fi:/ ‘teff’
107. /t'a:wɒla:/ ‘lumber’
108. /zɜ:rɔ:/ ‘zero’
109. /zɪgzɑ:gi:/ ‘zigzag’
110. /zɔ:ni:/ ‘zone’