Hausa Grammatical Sketch

Bernard Caron

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Hausa Grammatical Sketch

BERNARD CARON, LLACAN (INALCO, CNRS, PRES SORBONNE PARIS-CITÉ)
(03/10/2013)

Hyperlinks: The reference of each example in the article can be clicked to view all its tiers in the CorpAfroAs database, and play the corresponding audio file.

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1 This grammatical sketch of Hausa has been written as an annex to the annotated Hausa Corpus transcribed for the CorpAfroAs project (ANR-06CORP). It has been meticulously checked and corrected by Raymond Boyd. Many of his suggestions have been taken into account. The final decisions and remaining mistakes are mine.
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1 Introduction

Hausa has enjoyed a long tradition of linguistic studies with, to name but the most important early scientific works, two major dictionaries (Bargery 1934, Abraham 1962), a grammar (Abraham 1959), and a collection of articles by F. Parsons spanning the years from 1955 to 1975 which laid the groundwork for modern Hausaist research. Recent years have seen the fulfillment of these decades of scientific research with the successive publication of two monumental grammars (Newman 2000 (760 p.) and Jaggar 2001 (754 p.)) and two major dictionaries (R. M. Newman 1990 and Newman 2007). This grammatical sketch owes much to Paul Newman’s The Hausa language: an encyclopedic reference grammar (Newman 2000), which provides exactly what its title announces: in 760 densely set pages, it covers everything one might ever want to know about Hausa, in a clear, precise, exhaustive set of 80 articles. Large passages below merely summarize relevant parts of this grammar, examples included. Whenever possible, we have added data and examples from our own teaching experience and research.²

Hausa belongs to the Chadic branch of Afroasiatic languages. Whereas none of the other 170 Chadic languages has more than 200 thousand speakers, Hausa is estimated to be spoken by around 50 million people, three quarters of whom live in Nigeria. Hausaland proper straddles the Niger/Nigeria border, but Hausa communities have settled in Sudan, Cameroon, Togo and Ghana. Moreover, Hausa traders can be found in all big West African cities, as far as North Africa (Tripoli, etc.). Presently, the Hausa community, which has emerged over the centuries through the absorption of heterogeneous populations, is best defined by its common language. This on-going process of integrating vast non-Hausa speaking populations has left its imprint on the language. For example, the Hausa spoken in Bauchi and Zaria does not mark gender. A relatively weak dialect differentiation can be observed spreading from West to East, in stripes with a North-South orientation, dividing into two main groups: Western Hausa, represented by Sokoto, and Eastern Hausa, represented by Kano. Kano Hausa has been chosen as the reference for the elaboration of a standard idiom. The place with the greatest dialect dispersion and the most “archaic” features is Sokoto, which is probably the starting point for the dialect diffusion of the language.

The origin of the Hausa people has been situated in the Air mountain in Niger Republic. The movement from North to South took place under the pressure of Tuareg populations driven on by desertification of the Sahara. The Hausa states as they exist today were founded in the 14th Century A.D. Following the jihad launched by Shehu Usuman Dan Fodio from 1804 to 1812, the Sokoto caliphate replaced the old Hausa kingdoms. That is when the Hausa Islamic poetry was born, which constitutes the first trace of Hausa written in ajami³. British colonization, with the generalization and standardization of Hausa spelling in roman script, witnessed the birth of a Hausa press and literature. The current offer consists of five periodicals, as well as novels, poetry, plays, textbooks, propaganda leaflets, political and commercial posters, etc.

The Hausa speakers recorded for the CorpAfroAs corpus were all born and brought up around the city of Zaria, and all speak the same variety of Hausa called Zazzaganci, or Zaria Hausa. The main difference between this variety and the Standard Hausa of Kano, is its lack of grammatical gender. When relevant, notes concerning dialect particularities of Zaria Hausa will be introduced following the indicator <ZR>.

² Examples taken from (Newman 2000) are labelled “PN”; our own examples are labelled “BC”.
³ Ajami is the Hausa name given to the Arab alphabet adapted for the notation of African languages.
1.1 Abbreviations used in the grammar and in the corpus

Grammar: general abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adj.</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>Adjectival Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Falling tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gr</td>
<td>Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>High tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>Infinitive Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Low tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Noun Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NV</td>
<td>Verbal Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDS</td>
<td>Pre-dative Suffix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pl.</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSL</td>
<td>Possessive link</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>Prepositional Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prep.</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SH</td>
<td>Standard Hausa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sufx</td>
<td>Suffix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TP</td>
<td>Tone Pattern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>Verb Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WH</td>
<td>Western Hausa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZR</td>
<td>Zaria Hausa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corpus: glossing labels (\rx tier)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label (\rx)</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Associated \ge labels and/or examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADJ</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>red (ʤaː), evil (muːgù)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>formerly (dà), quickly (dàwuːdi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV.DEICT</td>
<td>Deictic Adverb</td>
<td>now (jànzu), next_year (bàdi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV.REL</td>
<td>Relative Adverb</td>
<td>how (jaddà), REL.LOC (indà)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ato</td>
<td>Apotony</td>
<td>IMP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIRC</td>
<td>Circumfix</td>
<td>AGT (maː); INS (-i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMP</td>
<td>Complementizer</td>
<td>that_is (gēːwaː)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONJ</td>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>if (in); until (har)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>der</td>
<td>Derivation</td>
<td>DIR (-ọ); NMLZ (-waː)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Determinant</td>
<td>DEF (-nì)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET.INDF</td>
<td>Indefinite Determinant</td>
<td>SOME.PL (wasu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DP</td>
<td>Discourse particle</td>
<td>well (tò)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXCL</td>
<td>Exclamation</td>
<td>eh (dì); indeed (ājoː)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILL</td>
<td>Pause filler</td>
<td>er… (eːːː)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HESIT</td>
<td>Hesitation</td>
<td>gwaː#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hom</td>
<td>Homonymy</td>
<td>COP2 (dà); REL (dà); COMP (dà)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDEOPH</td>
<td>Ideophone</td>
<td>strong (kankan); tight (tsantsan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTJ</td>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>amen (àːmin); no (aːʔà)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>thing (ābù); work (aikì)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.P</td>
<td>Proper Noun</td>
<td>Amina; Bashir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.V</td>
<td>Verbal Noun</td>
<td>loan; begging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUM</td>
<td>Numeral</td>
<td>Four (hudù)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONOM</td>
<td>Onomatopoeia</td>
<td>mèː; galalan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNG</td>
<td>Person-Number-Gender complex</td>
<td>2PL.CONT (kunà); FUT.3SG.M (zài)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSL</td>
<td>Possessive Link</td>
<td>PTCL.SYNT (-n; na)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>So_and_So (waːnè)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO.BEN</td>
<td>Benefactive Pronoun</td>
<td>2.PL (mukù)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO.DEICT</td>
<td>Deictic Pronoun</td>
<td>ANAPH (wànnàn); DIST (wàntfàn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO.INDF</td>
<td>Indefinite Pronoun</td>
<td>some.F (wàta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO.IDP</td>
<td>Independent Pronoun</td>
<td>2SG.F (keː); 3SG.M (fiː)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO.POS</td>
<td>Possessive Pronoun</td>
<td>3SG.F (taːkù)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO.SBJ</td>
<td>Subject Pronoun</td>
<td>2SG.F (kì)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PRO.UNIV  Universal Quantifier Pronoun  anything (ko:me:)
PTCL     Particle            ANAPH (din); plus (fà:)
PTCL.ASS Assertive Particle FCT (-o:); VRT (-a:)
PTCL.NEG Negative Particle  NEG2a (bà:); NEG3 (bà:)
PTCL.SYNT Syntactic Particle ATTR (mai); POSL (na)
PTCL.TOP Topicalizing Particle indeed (fa); too (kuma)
rdp reduplication  child\PL (ya:ya:); gather (tattà:raf:)
REL      Relative           how (jandà); who (wandà);
STAT     Stative            together (tà:re); staying (zàune)
V        Verb              go.DIR (taho:); say (ʧê:)
V.AUX    Auxiliary Verb    keep_on (ringà:)

Corpus: glossing labels (\ge tier)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label (\ge)</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Associated \vr labels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC1</td>
<td>Accusative 1</td>
<td>ACC1 (-i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC2</td>
<td>Accusative 2</td>
<td>ACC2 (-e:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGT</td>
<td>Agent (circumfix)</td>
<td>CIRC (ma- ... -i:\HLH)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALL</td>
<td>Allative</td>
<td>PTCL.SYNT (zà:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANAPH</td>
<td>Anaphoric</td>
<td>PRO.DEICT (wànnan); PTCL (din)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTR</td>
<td>Attributive</td>
<td>PTCL.SYNT (mài)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEN</td>
<td>Benefactive</td>
<td>PTCL.SYNT (mà)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BKL</td>
<td>Backchannelling</td>
<td>BKL (mì:hm:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONT</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>TAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COP</td>
<td>Copula</td>
<td>PTCL.SYNT (dà)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTF</td>
<td>Counterfactual</td>
<td>CONJ (dà:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEF</td>
<td>Definite</td>
<td>DET (-nì)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIM</td>
<td>Diminutive</td>
<td>ADV (dan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIR</td>
<td>Directional</td>
<td>der (-o:); PTCL.SYNT (zà:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIST</td>
<td>Distal</td>
<td>ADV.DEICT (ʧàn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUR</td>
<td>Durative</td>
<td>TAM (ta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVD</td>
<td>Evidential</td>
<td>PTCL (wai)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>PNG (ita); der (-annija:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCT</td>
<td>Factual</td>
<td>PTCL.ASS (-o:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILL</td>
<td>Pause Filler</td>
<td>FILL (è:::)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOC</td>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>TAM (jakè:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUT</td>
<td>Future</td>
<td>TAM (zài)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HAB</td>
<td>Habitual</td>
<td>TAM (kàn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HESIT</td>
<td>Hesitation</td>
<td>FILL (d:::)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>PNG (su:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMP</td>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>TAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INS</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>CIRC (-a: ... -i; [H])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>PNG (fi:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEG</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>PTCL.NEG (bà:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFOC</td>
<td>Non-Focus</td>
<td>TAM (nà:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMLZ</td>
<td>Nominalizer</td>
<td>der (-wa:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PFV</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>TAM (ja:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>PL (-o:Cì:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROX</td>
<td>Proximal</td>
<td>ADV.DEICT (nà); PRO.DEICT (wannàn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REL.LOC</td>
<td>Locative Relative Pronoun</td>
<td>ADV.REL (inda)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBJV</td>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
<td>TAM (jà, mú)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>PNG (fi:, ja:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAM</td>
<td>Tense/Aspect/Mood complex</td>
<td>PTCL.ASS (-a:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VRT</td>
<td>Virtual</td>
<td>PTCL.ASS (-a:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>PRO, PNG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2 Phonology

3 Syllable structure

There are three types of syllable structure in Hausa, divided into light (CV) and heavy (CVV and CVC). Initial vowels and consonant clusters, as well as syllable-internal long vowels are do not exist. Hence, all words written with an initial vowel in the standard orthography begin in fact with an initial glottal stop: aiki: ‘work’ is in fact pronounced [ʔaiki:]. Words ending in a CVC syllable are often ideophones or loanwords.

4 Vowels

4.1 Quality

Hausa has 5 vowels distributed over 3 heights:

i u
 e o
 a

4.2 Quantity

Length produces five more vowels:

i: u:
 e: o:
 a:

On top of these 10 vowels, Hausa has 2 diphtongs: /ai/ and /au/

4.3 Changes in quality due to length and position

The phonetic realization, and more particularly the quality of the vowel, is influenced by length and the situation of the vowel in the utterance. Short vowels are more open, more central, less rounded than long ones. They can be transcribed as follows:

/ai/ = [A] (low, central, neutral lip position; cf. English but, cut)
/aː/ = [aː] (low; half-way between central and back)
/ei/ = [ɛ] (front, lower mid, neutral lip position; cf. English bet, get)
/eː/ = [ɛː] (front, upper mid, retracted lips; cf. French bébé)
/iː/ = [iː] (not quite high; not quite front; cf. English bit, lid)
/iː/ = [iː] (high, front, with retracted lips; cf. French /i/)
/oː/ = [ɔː] (lower mid, back, rounded; cf. English god)
/oː/ = [ɔː] (upper mid, back, rounded; cf French peau)
/uː/ = [uː] (half-way between high and upper mid; not quite back; less rounded than /uː/; cf. English book)
/uː/ = [uː] (high, back, very rounded)

In final position, short vowels are realized with the same quality as long vowels, but are shorter and followed by a glottal stop. In a small number of words ending in “long” vowels, these are realized half-long and followed by a glottal stop. They are:

---

4 It has been decided to follow the conventions for transcriptions in the CorpAfroAs corpus. Examples quoted from (Newman 2000) have therefore been converted to this transcription.

5 See (Carnochan 88) for a detailed account of Hausa vowels.
5 Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>f</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>dz</th>
<th>g</th>
<th>gʃ</th>
<th>k</th>
<th>kʷ</th>
<th>h</th>
<th>?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>ɗ</td>
<td>ts</td>
<td>ŋ</td>
<td>ɓ</td>
<td>ʃ</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>kʷ</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>w</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments: the consonant written /f/ in standard orthography is a bilabial whose pronunciation varies according to dialects and sociolects: [ʰf] in the West; [ɸ] (voiceless bilabial fricative) or [p] (voiceless bilabial plosive) in the East, depending on the social group of the speaker, the variant [ɸ] having a higher social connotation. It is pronounced [ʧ] and transcribed /ʧ/ in the corpus. The consonant written /dʒ/ in standard orthography is realized [ʃ] in the West, e.g. “ʧəkʃi” ‘donkey’ is pronounced [ʤə:ki:] in Kano and [ʃə:ki:] in Sokoto. It is transcribed and pronounced [ʤ] in the corpus. The standard orthography notes only one /r/. In the corpus, /r/ notes an alveolar trill, and /ɾ/ an retroflex alveolar tap.

5.1 Glottalization

In the corpus, the glottal stop [ʔ] is not transcribed word-initially, transcribed /ʔ/ word-internally, and /ʔ/ for non-lexical phenomena (hesitation, stuttering, aborted speech units, etc.). Two types of glottalized consonants are generally distinguished in Hausa:

- the voiceless post-glottalized ejectives k, ƙ, kʷ and s’ (written “ts” in standard orthography);
- the injectives b, d, ɗ, y, also called implosives, or voiced pre-glottalized.

5.2 Long or geminated consonants

Hausa has long (geminated) consonants whose articulation is maintained longer than that of normal consonants. Some words contrast by consonant length: kuleː / kulləː: (‘cat/lock’); manā/mannā: (‘BEN.1PL/gluc’).

5.3 Labialization and palatalization of consonants

/b/, /bl/, /k/, /k/ and /ɡ/ are pronounced with rounded lips before /o/, /oː/, /u/ and /uː/. For example, in the words bùhu: ‘bag’; bo:ko: ‘schooling’; gudu: ‘run’, and go:ro: ‘cola nut’, the consonants /b/, /k/ and /ɡ/ are pronounced with rounded lips, so that one can hear [bʷu:hu:], [b²:ko:], and [g²:du:]. /k/ and /ɡ/ are palatalized before front vowels /ɬ/, /ɬ/, /ɬ/ and /ɛː/. For example, in the words bà:ki: ‘mouth’ and gida: ‘compound’, /k/ and /ɡ/ are palatalized into [bàːki:] and [ɡida:]. /ɬ/, /ɬ/, /ɬ/, /ɬ/ and /ɛː/ are realized /ɬʃ/, /ɬʃ/, /ɬʃ/ and /ɬʃ/ respectively in front of the front vowels /ɬ/, /ɬ/, /ɬ/ and /ɛː/, except in recent loanwords, e.g. ti:ti: ‘street’, a word borrowed from English via Yoruba.
5.4 Velarization of nasals

/ŋ/ is pronounced [ŋ] before /kl/, /lk/, /gj/ and /ŋ/. For example, gwanki: ‘antelope’, is pronounced [ɡwanˈŋki]; and danko: ‘rubber’, is pronounced [dɑŋˈko].

Word-final /n/ and /m/ are pronounced [ŋ] too, as in nán [náŋ] ‘here’ and kullum [kullum] ‘always’.

6 Tone

The tone-bearing unit in Hausa is the syllable. Hausa has three surface tones. Two are level: Low (L), marked with a grave accent (ã and à); and High (H), left unmarked (a and a). The third, Falling (F) marked with a circumflex accent (ā and ā) is a modulation from the combination of H+L tone on a single syllable. F tones only appear on heavy (CVV and CVC) syllables. Hausa does not have a Rising tone. When a LH combination of tones falls on a single syllable through historical or synchronic morphological processes, it is simplified to H or L, depending on the context.

Tone has lexical as well as grammatical functions. Some words contrast only through their tone. When a final syllable drops, the tone it bears remains floating and is added to the preceding syllable. Some grammatical words have “polar tones”; i.e. they have no tone of their own, but must bear one that is the opposite of the preceding one. This is the case of the identifying copula tə: (f./ne: (m., pl.) mo:tə: tə: ‘it’s a car’ vs. ti:ɡə: tə: ‘it’s a gown’.

When a final syllable drops, the tone it bears remains floating and is added to the preceding syllable. HL on a heavy syllable produces a F: mutum: (LHL) > mutu:tim > mutum: (LF) ‘man’. Since a Rising tone is not allowed in Hausa, LH is usually simplified to H: ta: sájì na:mà: > ta: sájì i na:mà: > ta: sai na:mà: ‘she bought food’.

Canonical tone patterns can be identified in terms of the number and structure of syllables (cf. PN:605-7).

7 Intonation

Intonation patterns are associated with phrasal and sentential units corresponding to minor and/or major intonation units. They are best identified through variation in the pitch of tones. Following Newman (2000:612 ff.), we identify the following intonation patterns in Hausa:

- **The Declarative or neutral pattern** is characterized by downdrift, accounted for by the general rule that “each H tone after a L is a step lower than the preceding H” (PN:612).
- **Wh-questions** are characterized by a declarative intonation pattern and a L tone + vowel lengthening added to the end of the intonation unit. This L tone changes final H tones to F. It does not change final L.

---

6 In standard Hausa orthography, [ʔ] is written ‘/’ word-externally, and not written word-initially.
• **Yes/No questions** are characterized by suspension of downdrift and key raising (↑) of the last H tone and all following L tones.

• **Sympathetic address** is an intonation pattern associated with units beginning with tô ‘okay, I see’ / habà ‘never, stop now!’, followed by the name of addressee. They are characterized by a floating L tone added to the end of the name of the addressee.

• **The vocative pattern** is used when calling someone. It is characterized by raised pitch, lesser downdrift and lengthening of the final short vowel of any name of an addressee ending in such a vowel.

### 8 Word structure

The structure of the Hausa word is: < radical + affix>. The affix is composed of at least a final vowel and a tone pattern (TP). The radical karant- ‘read’ is associated with the word ‘teacher’, which has three forms: makaràntiː, m. suffix -iː HLH, makàrantaː, f. suffix -aː HLH, màkàránataːl, pl.; suffix -aiículos. The notion of ‘leaning on’ (dangànaː) is associated with the verb dangànaː; v., suffix -aː HLH, ‘lean, prop, put against’. Adding the suffix -t, we get the derived verb dangàntaː; v., suffix -t-aː HLH ‘to be linked to, comparable to’ and the derived noun dangàntakàː; n.f., suffix -takàː HLH ‘relationship’.

### 9 Information structure

Two phenomena belonging to information structure are pervasive in Hausa: topicalization and focus. Both operate through left-dislocation of a sentence element, but with very different morphological, syntactic, and pragmatic properties. The Topic belongs to the pragmatic preamble of the utterance. Focus is part of the syntactic/predicative structure of the utterance. The Topic only appears utterance-initially, whereas a focused element, though extraposed sentence-initially, can be preceded by various elements belonging to the pragmatic preamble. The following example, borrowed from Newman (2000:615), shows a topic followed by a focused element, and their respective structural positions.

Ex 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
<th>PRECONSTRUCT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hawan dokiː dai, riding horse indeed</td>
<td>Sulè neː Sule COP</td>
<td>ja fi koːwaː, exceed everyone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As for riding,</td>
<td>it’s Sule</td>
<td>3S.M.PFV.FOC who beats them all (PN, op.cit.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 9.1 Topicalization

Topicalization involves setting an NP at the beginning of an utterance, the rest of which is a comment upon it. There can be multiple topics. The TAM marking of the rest of the sentence is not affected by topicalization.

---

8 Newman (2000:493) identifies this phenomenon as a question-morpheme (“q-morpheme”), and refuses to consider it as part of the intonation pattern.

9 See also § 0.
“The topic belongs to the pragmatic preamble of the utterance, and is separated from the rest by either (a) the intonation; (b) the insertion of a modal particle like dai ‘indeed’, fa ‘well’, kàm ‘really’, kùwa (= kò(j)) ‘moreover’, etc. (or a succession of such particles).’ (PN:61610)

Ex 2. àː / daːwaː: / mukàn / ijäː;
FILL / guinea-corn / 1PL.HAB / can
saːmù / -n / buhuː / goːmà / hakà //
getting / -POS / sack / ten / like_this //
masàràː / kuma / / mukàn / ijäː / saːmù / -n
maize / too / / 1PL.HAB / can / getting / -POS
kàman / buhuː / / àːːː / / goːmà / fàː / bijar //
like / sack / / FILL / / ten / plus / five //
[Ah]FILLER [guinea-corn]TOPIC [we get like ten sacks.],COMMENT
[As for maize]TOPIC [we can get like … er… fifteen sacks.],COMMENT (HAN_BC_CONV_01_SP2_442-50)11:

9.2 Focus and subordination

When an element of a sentence is focused (contrastive emphasis with identification), it is moved to the beginning of the sentence, and the subject pronoun associated with the verb is selected from a subset of paradigms characterized as focus-compatible12. Syntactically, the clauses identified by this subset of pronouns are characterized as being subordinated to the focused element. Pragmatically, their referential value is a backgrounded preconstruct. Those that are compatible with focus [+FOC] are labelled FOC in the glosses; those that are incompatible [-FOC] are labelled NFOC. Wh-Questions are another instance of focus constructions, with the question word appearing at the start of the sentence. Two types of sentences are associated with [+FOC] subject pronouns: (1) sentences with focus; (2) Wh-Questions.13

Focus

The focused element can be an NP, adverb or PP. It is contrasted with a set of elements which could potentially have the same function. The focused element is optionally followed by the neː/ʧeː/neː copula. The TAM that follows must be chosen from among the +FOC paradigms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECTIVE</th>
<th>CONTINUOUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jaːròn [jaː]PFV.NFOC fì naːmàːː dþjì abolished the boy ate meat yesterday ()</td>
<td>jaːròn [[[jaː]nàː]CONT.NFOC fìn naːmàːːː à kàːːsuːwaːː the boy is eating meat at the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jaːròn [neː]PFV.FOC fì naːmàːː dþjì abolished THE BOY ate meat yesterday</td>
<td>jaːròn [neː]PFV.FOC fì naːmàːːː [[jaːkèː]CONT.FOC fìn naːmàːːː a kàːːsuːwaːː the boy is eating meat at the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naːmàːː [neː]PFV.FOC fì dþjì abolished the boy MEAT yesterday</td>
<td>naːmàːː [neː]PFV.FOC fì naːmàːːː [[jaːkèː]CONT.FOC fìː a kàːːsuːwaːː the boy is eating MEAT at the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dþjì [neː]PFV.FOC fì naːmàːːː abolished the boy ate MEAT yesterday</td>
<td>dþjì [neː]PFV.FOC fì naːmàːːːː [[jaːkèː]CONT.FOC fìː a kàːːsuːwaːːː the boy is eating MEAT AT THE MARKET.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 As for all examples taken from (Newman 2000), the transcription has been adapted following CorpAfroAs conventions.
11 Edited example.
12 Cf. 10.2 for TAM and Subject Pronouns (PNG).
13 At a lower level, [+FOC] TAM’s are also typically associated with relative clauses.

WH-Questions

Wh-Questions are requests for identification of the questioned term. The whole utterance is subordinated to this term, and the +FOC subject pronouns indicate this. The main question words are: wa:(ne: nè:) (m.), wà:(gfè: gfè:) (f.), suwà: ne: nè: (pl.) ‘who’; mè:(ne: nè:) (m.), mè:(gfè: gfè:) (f.) ‘what’; inà: ‘where’; jàufè: / jàufè: ‘when’; ja:ja: ‘how’; nàwà ‘how many’; wànè (m.) / wàfè (f.) / wàfànè (pl.) ‘which’.


makijà:ja: //
cattle_driver.PL //

Well how do you [do] with... animals and cattle drivers? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_213.6)

10 Syntax of the simple sentence

Hausa makes a basic distinction between verbal and non-verbal sentences. The pivot of the verbal sentence is the verb through its Tense, Aspect and Mode (TAM) paradigms. In the case of non-verbal sentences, the pivot is a copula with no reference to TAM. A minimum non-verbal sentence is made up of a Noun (or Noun Phrase) and a copula:

Ex 5. fh: ne:
3SG.M COP1
That’s it. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_464)

This particular syntactic frame (___COP1) is what defines a noun in Hausa. Verbs, prepositions, etc. cannot occur in this context. Conversely, verbs and only verbs are compatible with TAM marking.

10.1 Non-verbal sentences -- Copulas

In a non-verbal sentence, the pivotal predicative function is performed by copulas, whose syntactic and morphological properties set them apart from verbs. Non-verbal sentences are made up of one (or two) Noun/Prepositional Phrases plus a Copula that gives them a reference value. These copulas are:
- ne: (m.sg.) / gfè: (f.sg) / ne: (pl.) (COP1.NFOC) ‘be’
- dà (COP2) ‘there is’
- ìkwarì (COP3) ‘here is’
- ìgà (COP4) ‘there is’.
- Identification: ne:/gfè:/ne:

Positive assertion: The identification corresponding to ‘it/they is/are/was/were, etc.’ is done with the ne:/gfè:/ne: (COP1.NFOC) through the pattern: <X COP1> where X stands for an NP. The copula agrees in gender and number with the NP it identifies. gfè: is the feminine marked form; ne: is the masculine and plural unmarked form. The tone of the copula is polar with that of the last tone of the NP, e.g. Ma:sa: (m.) ne: ‘It’s Musa.’; Kanà: (f.) gfè: ‘It’s Kano.’; garà:fuwà: (pl.) ne: ‘They’re towns.’ When the NP is a pronoun, it belongs to the paradigm of independent pronouns (cf. Ex 5. above)

Negative assertion: The structure is <bà: X ba nè: /gfè:>, <NEG4a X NEG4b COP1.NFOC>

14 This example shows that Focus can appear in declarative as well as interrogative sentences (Yes/No questions).
Yes/no questions are formed through intonation only, without any syntactic or morphological change.\footnote{As the syntax of the formation of Y/N questions is minimal in Hausa, it will not be discussed any more in the rest of the presentation.}

Ex 7.  
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{matʃi: djì:} & \textit{nèː:} \\
\text{snake} & \text{COP1.NFOC}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{fàː} & \textit{?} \\
\text{Is it a snake?} & \text{(BC)}
\end{tabular}

\textbf{Wh-Question:} The question word varies with animacy, gender and number:  
- human: \textit{mèː neː:} (m.); \textit{mèː ṣeqeː} (f.);  
- +human: \textit{waː neː:} (m.); \textit{waː ṣeqeː} (f.); \textit{sù waː neː:} (pl.).

\textit{Neː} is used if the gender of the item questioned is masculine or unknown, \textit{ṣeqeː} if it is feminine.

Ex 8.  
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{Mèː neː:} & \textit{nèː: wannàːn?} \\
\text{What} & \text{this ?}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{Wannàːn} & \textit{liːtaː fiː:} (\textit{neː:}) \\
\text{This is} & \text{a book.}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{Wannàːn} & \textit{kudʒeː raː} (\textit{ṣeqeː}) \\
\text{This} & \text{is a chair.}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{waː neː:} & \textit{?} \\
\text{Who} & \text{is this?} (\text{woman})
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{waː ṣeqeː} & \textit{?} \\
\text{Who} & \text{is this?} (\text{man})
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{Suwàː neː:} & \textit{?} \\
\text{Who} & \text{are they?}
\end{tabular}

\textbf{Existence: \textit{àkwai, dà}}

\textit{àkwai (COP3).} Structure: \textit{<àkwai} \textit{X>} ‘there is/was/will be \textit{X}’. \textit{àkwai} is invariable.

Ex 9.  
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{àkwai} & \textit{tàː fiː:} \\
\text{river} & \text{unit one}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{nèː:} & \textit{gùdà:} (\textit{dà}) \\
\text{This} & \text{is a}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{wàː} & \textit{ku} (\textit{ṣeqeː}) \\
\text{Who} & \text{is this?} (\text{woman})
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{Suwàː neː:} & \textit{?} \\
\text{Who} & \text{are they?}
\end{tabular}

Ex: \textit{àkwai ruwaː}: ‘There is water.’; \textit{àkwai àlbàːsàː}: ‘There are onions.’; \textit{àkwai kudʒeː raː} \textit{ṣeqeː}: ‘Is there any money? -Yes, there is.’

When the NP is a pronoun, it belongs to the paradigm of dependent pronouns: \textit{àkwai tà l} ‘Here she comes!’

\textit{dà (COP2)}\footnote{This copula is related to the preposition \textit{dà} ‘with’}. Same structure as \textit{àkwai}: \textit{<dà} \textit{X>} ‘there is/was/will be \textit{X}’, except that a complement is compulsory, whereas it can be implicit in the case of \textit{àkwai}.

Ex 10.  
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{kàː} & \textit{zoː moː:} \\
\text{eat} & \text{thing}
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textit{219} & \textit{dà} \textit{àbù} \textit{ṣeqeː} \textit{nà} \textit{dà} \textit{ka} \textit{ṣeqeː} \\
\text{Rabbit} & \text{DEF REL} \text{2SG.M.PFV.FOC eat}
\end{tabular}

Eh, Rabbit, it must be something you have eaten.\footnote{This copula is related to the preposition \textit{dà} ‘with’.}
When the NP following \textit{bâːbù} is pronominal, it belongs to the independent pronoun paradigm: 
\textit{Bàːfi}: ‘There isn’t any. (lit. There is no him.)’

**Presentation: \textit{gà}:**

Structure: \textit{<gà: X>}; meaning: \textit{Here is X}:

Ex 12. \textit{gàː} \textit{gàngaː} / \textit{gàː} \textit{àbinfi} / \textit{gàː} \textit{kwà:ja}:
\begin{itemize}
  \item COP4 drum
  \item COP4 food
  \item COP4 drugs
\end{itemize}

There were drums, there was food, there were drugs. (HAU BC CONV 04 SP1 1096-2100)

Pronominal NP’s belong to the paradigm of object pronouns. The presentation copula \textit{gà}: has no negative form.

**Location: COP + PP**

Existence or presentation can be specified in space through a Prepositional Phrase (PP), an adverb or a deictic pronoun (e.g. \textit{nân} ‘here’; \textit{ʧân} ‘there’).

Ex 13. \textit{ӆ:ʤiː Joyː \textit{nèː} / \textit{a wàːʤen} / \textit{gòːnà Kiː-n naːmù} // well.PL COP1,NFOC like_this / at around / field.PL-DEF 1PL,POS //

There were wells like this, near... our fields. (HAU BC CONV 01 SP2 491-4)

Ex 14. \textit{gàː} \textit{wàːnì maː à nàːn} //
\begin{itemize}
  \item COP4 some.M even at PROX //
\end{itemize}

There’s even one here. (HAU BC CONV 04 SP2 058)

**Wh-Question: \textit{ìnàː}:** The Wh-Question word \textit{ìnà} can be followed by the copula \textit{nèːʧe}: (COP1).

Ex 15. \textit{ìnàː} \textit{nèː} \textit{hanjàː -n -mù na ӆːfìː} //
\begin{itemize}
  \item where COP1,NFOC road -POS.L -1PL,POS.L river //
\end{itemize}

Where is the way to the river? (HAU BC NARR 01 SP1 021)

The Allative (\textit{zàː})

\textit{Zàː} is a Syntactic Particle, glossed Allative (ALL) in the corpus, and used to indicate movement in a certain direction. Structure: \textit{< zàː: X Location>} = \textit{< zàː: NP PP/Adv/Deict }>

Ex 16. \textit{ìnàː} \textit{zàː ka?}
\begin{itemize}
  \item where all 2SG.M.OBJ
  \item ja \textit{ʧéː zàː ni màŋgàː:jàː nèː}: 3SG.M.PFV,FOC say all 1SG.OBJ Mangaja COP1,NFOC
\end{itemize}

[They asked,]"Where are you going?" He said, "I'm going to Mangaja.” (BC)

Followed by pronominal forms from the paradigm of object pronouns (PRO.OBJ), it seems to govern semantic subject pronouns (see Table 1 below), but has not reached the stage of a full-fledged TAM as it is not related to time or modality but only denotes a spatial specification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>zàː \textit{ni}</td>
<td>bà zàː \textit{ni}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2m</td>
<td>zàː \textit{ka}</td>
<td>bà zàː \textit{ka}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2f</td>
<td>zàː \textit{ki}</td>
<td>bà zàː \textit{ki}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m</td>
<td>zàː \textit{ji} / zàː ja / zàːi</td>
<td>bà &lt;zàː \textit{ji} / zàː ja / zàːi &gt; ...ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>zàː \textit{ta}</td>
<td>bà zàː \textit{ta}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 1. ALLATIVE
10.2 Verbal sentences – TAM marking

The minimal verbal sentence consists of an intransitive verb with its conjugation marks. In Hausa, these are a PNG+TAM complex forming a word preceding the verb. In accordance with Hausa tradition, instead of PNG.TAM, we may occasionally use the term “subject pronoun” to refer to this complex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PNG.TAM</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ex 17.</td>
<td>sun tsajâ:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3pl.pfv.nfoc</td>
<td>stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They stopped. (BC)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Actually, (17) is truncated through the ellipsis of the lexical subject, leaving only the agreement morpheme, or light subject (PNG=3PL), within the PNG.TAM complex.

A complete intransitive sentence takes the form: Subject + [PNG.TAM + Verb]

Subject  PNG.TAM  Verb

Ex 18.  ma:ta: sun tsajâ: |
| femme.PL | 3pl.pfv.nfoc | stop |
| The women stopped. (BC) |

A complete transitive sentence takes the form: Subject + [PNG.TAM + [Verb+Object]]

Subject  PNG.TAM  Verb  Object

Ex 19.  ma:ta: sun dafa ābinţi |
| femme.PL | 3pl.pfv.nfoc | cook | food |
| The women cooked food. (BC) |

The PNG component of the agreement complex allows for the usual three persons, plus a fourth indefinite person, corresponding to French ‘on’. Gender is marked in the singular in the second and third persons. This makes for conjugational paradigms of nine PNG.TAM morphemes.

The basis of the Hausa conjugation is a three-way aspectual contrast between the Perfect (PFV, with a completive meaning), the Continuous (CONT) and the Subjunctive (SBJV).

Added to this three-way contrast, Hausa has two Futures - a (simple) Future (FUT) and a Potential or Indefinite Future (FUT.INDF) - a Habitual (HAB), and a Rhetorical (RHT17).

Hausa has developed special paradigms for verbs used in subordinate clauses. Subordination is linked to Wh-Questions, relative clauses and focus18. Thus, it has two Perfect and two Continuous paradigms, one which is compatible with focus, Wh-Questions and relativization (PFV.FOC and CONT.FOC) and one which is not (PFV.NFOC and CONT.NFOC). The Subjunctive is not compatible with subordination; the Future (FUT) is used instead.

Negation of verbal sentences is partially or totally integrated into the subject pronouns, giving rise to additional paradigms.

---

17 We have not found any instance of this aspect described by Paul Newman (2000:588-90).
18 Subordination is the syntactic manifestation of preconstruction. Cf. Caron 2000.
### PNG + TAM Paradigms

#### TABLE 2. PERFECT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perfect (PFV)</th>
<th>Relative Perfect (PFV.FOC)</th>
<th>Negative Perfect (NEG1a.PFV... NEG1b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 s.</td>
<td>na:</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>bán... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 m.s.</td>
<td>ka:</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>bákà... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 f.s.</td>
<td>kin</td>
<td>kikà</td>
<td>báki... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 m.s.</td>
<td>ja:</td>
<td>ja</td>
<td>bái... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 f.s.</td>
<td>ta:</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>bátà... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pl.</td>
<td>mun</td>
<td>mukà</td>
<td>bámù... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pl.</td>
<td>kun</td>
<td>kukà</td>
<td>bákù... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pl.</td>
<td>sun</td>
<td>sukà</td>
<td>básù... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>an</td>
<td>akà</td>
<td>bá’a... ba</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### TABLE 3. CONTINUOUS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Continuous (CONT)</th>
<th>Relative Continuous (CONT.FOC)</th>
<th>Negative Continuous (“have” constructs, NEG2 CONT)</th>
<th>Negative Continuous (other constructs, NEG3 CONT)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 s.</td>
<td>inà</td>
<td>nakè / nikè</td>
<td>ba: nà:</td>
<td>bá: nì“</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 m.s.</td>
<td>kanà</td>
<td>kakè</td>
<td>ba: kà:</td>
<td>bá: ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 f.s.</td>
<td>kinà</td>
<td>kikè</td>
<td>ba: kjà:</td>
<td>bá: kì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 m.s.</td>
<td>janà / finà</td>
<td>jakè / fikè</td>
<td>ba: já:</td>
<td>bá: ji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 f.s.</td>
<td>tanà</td>
<td>takè</td>
<td>ba: tà:</td>
<td>bá: ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pl.</td>
<td>munà</td>
<td>mukè</td>
<td>ba: mà:</td>
<td>bá: mu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pl.</td>
<td>kunà</td>
<td>kukè</td>
<td>ba: kwà:</td>
<td>bá: ku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pl.</td>
<td>sunà</td>
<td>sukè</td>
<td>ba: sà:</td>
<td>bá: su</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>anà</td>
<td>akè</td>
<td>ba: à:</td>
<td>bá: a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Etymologically, the Continuous is derived from a locative construction meaning “be at X” where X is an infinitive, an verbal noun expressing an action, or an action noun. The Continuous subject pronouns are also used in nonverbal predication where they are followed by locative or possessive constructions. When the nominal or pronominal subject is explicit, the PNG index of the subject pronoun can be omitted:

Ex 20.  
\[ fì: \quad kè: \quad ŋì: \quad dà \quad nì: / \quad 3SG.M \quad CONT.FOC \text{ feeding} \quad \text{APPL} \quad 1SG.IDPT / \]

he is the one feeding me (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_238)

Unlike all other paradigms\(^20\), the Continuous subject pronouns are followed by an Infinitive, a Verbal Noun (NV), or an action noun. Depending on their morpho-syntactic class (cf. § 14.1), verbs will use Infinitives and/or Verbal Nouns to form a Continuous TAM.

**Infinitive.** The infinitive is characterized by the nominalising suffix -lwa“ applied to the lexical form of the verb, i.e. the Perfect, when the verb is not followed by a Direct Object\(^19\):

Perfect                       Continuous

Ex 21.  
\[ \text{Musa has stopped} \quad \text{Musa is stopping} \]

When the infinitive is followed by a Direct Object, it is identical with the Perfect:

\[ = \text{<ZR>} \quad \text{bàn, e.g.} \quad \text{nì: bàn wà:jo: na: san sà: bål} \quad \text{‘Me, I was not clever enough to have seen a bull!’} \quad \text{(HAU_BC_Conv_01_SP2_303)} \]

\(^{20}\) In Ader Hausa, the Future behaves like the SH Continuous, i.e. the subject pronouns are followed by a nominalized form of the verb (Caron 1991).

\(^{21}\) / stands for a floating Low tone which combines with a final High tone of the verb to produce a Falling tone.
Table 4. Subjunctive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjunctive (SBJV)</th>
<th>Negative Subjunctive (NEG5.SBJV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>in kada/kār in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2m</td>
<td>kā kada/kār kā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2f</td>
<td>ki kada/kār ki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m</td>
<td>já kada/kār já</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>tā kada/kār tā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p</td>
<td>mú kada/kār mú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p</td>
<td>kū kada/kār kū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>sù kada/kār sù</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>̀ à kada/kār ̀ à</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future (FUT)</th>
<th>Negative Future (NEG1a.FUT… NEG1b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>zān / za: ni bā/bā: zān … ba /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bā/bā: za: ni … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2m</td>
<td>za: kā bā/bā: za: kā … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2f</td>
<td>za: ki bā/bā: za: ki … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m</td>
<td>zāi / za: já bā/bā: zāi … ba /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>bā/bā: za: já … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p</td>
<td>za: tā bā/bā: za: tā … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p</td>
<td>za: mú bā/bā: za: mú … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>za: sù bā/bā: za: sù … ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>za: ̀ à bā/bā: za: ̀ à … ba</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The simple Future (Table 5) is made up of a TAM za: (etymologically derived from a verb ‘to go’) followed by a PNG from the object paradigm, in a reverse order from what obtains in the other subject pronouns. 

Verbal Noun. In the Continuous, some verbs use a nominal form that behaves fully like a noun in so far as it uses a possessive link (POSL) -n to form a Noun Phrase with its Direct Object. This is the verbal noun (NV), cf. ja: ‘drink’ and its NV já: (m.).

Action Noun. Action Nouns are a subclass of nouns compatible with the Continuous TAM marker, and denoting an action. They are part of the basic vocabulary and have a plural form: aki: (pl. ajjukà: aikàfe-aiikàfe) ‘work(ing)’; wa:kà: (pl. wa:ko:ki, wa:ke-wà:ke) ‘sing(ing)’; tawa: (pl. ðaje-ðaje) ‘dance/dancing’; ku:ka: (m.; pl. ko:ke-ko:ke) ‘cry(ing)’/
### Table 6. Indefinite Future\(^{23}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indefinite Future</th>
<th>Neg. Indef. Future</th>
<th>Habitual</th>
<th>Neg. Habitual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FUT.INDF</td>
<td>NEG1A FUT.INDF…NEG1B</td>
<td>HAB</td>
<td>NEG1A HAB…NEG1B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 nā:</td>
<td>bā nā:... ba</td>
<td>1 nakān</td>
<td>bā nakān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2m kā:</td>
<td>bā kā: ... ba</td>
<td>2m kākān</td>
<td>bā kākān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2f kijā:</td>
<td>bā kijā: ... ba</td>
<td>2f kīkān</td>
<td>bā kīkān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m jā:</td>
<td>bā jā:...ba</td>
<td>3m jakān</td>
<td>bā jakān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f tā:</td>
<td>bā tā: ... ba</td>
<td>3f takān</td>
<td>bā takān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p mâ:/mwā:</td>
<td>bā mâ:/mwā: ... ba</td>
<td>1p mukān</td>
<td>bā mukān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p kwā:</td>
<td>bā kwā: ... ba</td>
<td>2p kūkān</td>
<td>bā kūkān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p sā:/swā:</td>
<td>bā sā:/swā: ... ba</td>
<td>3p sukān</td>
<td>bā sukān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 ā:</td>
<td>bā ā: ... ba</td>
<td>4 akān</td>
<td>bā akān ... ba</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the Habitual (Table 7), as for the Continuous, when the nominal subject is explicit, the PNG can be omitted.

### Table 7. Habitual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Habitual</th>
<th>Neg. Habitual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HAB</td>
<td>NEG1A HAB…NEG1B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 nakān</td>
<td>bā nakān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2m kākān</td>
<td>bā kākān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2f kīkān</td>
<td>bā kīkān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m jakān</td>
<td>bā jakān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f takān</td>
<td>bā takān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p mukān</td>
<td>bā mukān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p kūkān</td>
<td>bā kūkān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p sukān</td>
<td>bā sukān ... ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 akān</td>
<td>bā akān ... ba</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8. Rhetorical (RH)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>nīkā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2m</td>
<td>kākā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2f</td>
<td>kīkā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m</td>
<td>jakā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>takā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p</td>
<td>mukā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p</td>
<td>kūkā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>sukā:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>akā:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This TAM (RH) is restricted to subordination and is not used in the negative. When the Nominal Subject is explicit, the third person PNG is omitted.

### TAM Semantics

**The Perfect** (PFV.NFOC) has the general meaning of a completive aspect. It is used only in non-relative, affirmative sentences and expresses actions that were completed or reached a resultative state prior to the temporal locus. Generic events, such as expressed in proverbs, make use of the Perfect. Stative verbs, e.g. ‘love’, ‘understand’, and impersonal complement-taking verbs (cf. Ex 26 below) also use the Perfect.

**Ex 26.**  
Ja: kāma:tā kā bija: hāra:dji:.  
3S.PFV.NFOC be_proper 2SG.M.SBJV pay taxes  
You should pay taxes. (BC)

**The Relative Perfect** (PFV.FOC) has two main uses:

- **Syntactic uses:** it replaces the Perfect in subordinative contexts (Relatives, Wh-Questions, and Focus);
  - Relative clauses

**Ex 27.**  
lo:kāfī: -nī dā sukā zo: /  
time -DEF REL 3PL.PFV.FOC come /  
mē: nē: fà:fu à wu:qi: -nī //  
what COP1.NFOC happen at place -DEF //  
When [lit. at the time when] they came, what happened there? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_028-9)

---

- Wh-Questions

Ex 28.  
\[
\text{ta} \quad \text{jàːjaː} \quad \text{akà} \quad \text{saːmù} \quad \text{gaːnuwa} : \text{-nl} \quad \text{nan} \quad //
\]
via how 4.PVF.FOC get rampart -DEF ANAPH //

[...] how was it that we got that city wall? (HAU BC_CONV_02_SPI_169)

- Focus

Ex 29.  
\[
dà \quad \text{noːma} : \text{-nl} \quad \text{ja} \quad \text{dòːgaːrà}
\]
with farming -DEF 3SG.M.PVF.FOC rely

\[
\text{ko} : \text{kùwa} \quad \text{jakàn} \quad \text{ji wani} \quad \text{àbù} //
\]
or as_for 3SG.M.HAB do some.M thing //

Was it on farming that he was relying, or did he do something else? (HAU BC_CONV_01_SPI_078)

- aspectual uses: in narrations, it denotes a succession of discrete events.

Ex 30.  
\[
súkà \quad \text{ji} \quad \text{fìːi} : \text{,} \quad \text{súkà} \quad \text{fìga} \quad \text{masalla} : \text{fìi} : \text{,}
\]
do preparation 3PL.PVF.FOC enter mosque

\[
súkà \quad \text{duːkà} : \\
3PL.PVF.FOC stoop_down
\]

They got ready, they entered the mosque, they stooped down. (PN:573)

**The Continuous (CONT and CONT.FOC)** subject pronouns have two separate types of uses:

- aspectual uses expressing ongoing action or durativity, without specific reference to time. They can also express normal, customary or habitual actions. Their meaning is compatible with past, present or future interpretations.

Ex 31.  
\[
tàːrə \quad \text{kukè} : \quad \text{sànaː} : \text{a} : \quad -n \quad \text{noːma} : \quad \text{dà} \quad \text{su} : //
\]
together 2PL.CONT.FOC profession -POS.L farming with 3PL //

Were you farming TOGETHER with them? (Lit. Is it together that you were farming with them?) (HAU BC_CONV_01_SPI_050)

- non-aspectual uses, with locative, stative, or possessive meanings.
  - *Location*, when followed by a Prepositional Phrase, an adverb or a noun of place:

Ex 32.  
\[
kàːwu : \text{-na} : \quad \text{jànà} : \quad \text{wànnàn} \quad \text{ùnguwa} : \text{-n} \quad \text{fulà} : \text{ni} : //
\]
uncle -1SG.POS 3SG.M.CONT.NFOC PROX quarter -POS.L Fulanis //

my uncle, he is in this Fulani Quarter. (HAU BC_CONV_01_SPI_198)

  - *Stative* constructions with predicates expressing state, such as Adjectives or Statives, e.g. 
  \[
  \text{zàune} \quad \text{‘seated’ from the verb zaunà: ‘sit down’}
  \]

Ex 33.  
\[
\text{íta} \quad \text{ma} : \quad \text{tànà} : \quad \text{zàune} \quad \text{á} \quad \text{nàn} / \\
3SG.F even 3SG.F.CONT.NFOC staying at PROX /
\]
As for her, does she live here [...]? (HAU BC_CONV_01_SPI_007)

  - *Possession (“have constructs”),* The form is that of a comitative construction with the preposition dà “with”:

Ex 34.  
\[
tò : \text{fi} : / \quad \text{jànà} : \quad \text{dà} \quad \text{jàːra} : \quad \text{nè} : \quad \text{kàman} \quad -kà //
\]
well 3SG.M / 3SG.M.CONT.NFOC with child 3PL COP.1.NFOC like -2SG.M //

Well he, does he have children like you? (HAU BC_CONV_01_SPI_048-9)

The *‘have construct’* can also express a quality:

Ex 35.  
\[
\text{àbìnìfì} \quad \text{jànà} : \quad \text{dà} \quad \text{daːdì} : \\
\text{food} \quad 3SG.CONT.NFOC with pleasure
\]
The food is tasty. (BC)
The Subjunctive has modal functions. It expresses orders (jussive), wishes (optative), and epistemic modalities (necessity, etc.), either directly or following a verb or an expression inducing this type of function.

Ex 36.  
\texttt{allà: dai fi ka:țà: manà la:fijà: //}  
God indeed 3SG.M.SBJV increase 1PL.BEN health //  
May God keep us in good health. (HAU_BC_CONV_04_SP1_1182)

It appears after the conjunction \texttt{sei} with habitual meanings, e.g. in proverbs or recipe-type discourses:

Ex 37.  
\texttt{sei mù dże: mù kai fi kà:suwa: //}  
then 1PL.SBJV go 1PL.SBJV carry 3SG.M market //  
\texttt{fi: ma: mù dże: mù sajar //}  
3SG.M even 1PL.SBJV go 1PL.SBJV sell.CAUS //  
[When we had cooked the doughnuts] we took (them), carried (them) to the market. Actually, we went to sell (them). (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_107-9)

The Future expresses future and/or intentional actions or events. It occurs in both main and subordinate propositions.

Ex 38.  
\texttt{an dźimà: fa / ina: za:ki dże: //}  
4.PVF.NFOC spend_time indeed / where FUT.2SG.F go //  
Later on, where will you go? (HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP2_026-8)

The Future is compatible with [+Focus] utterances, as (Ex. 33) with a WH-Question shows. It can refer to futurity in the past:

Ex 39.  
\texttt{zài dàuka: -i hukun'à: à kài -n -ki //}  
FUT.3SG.M take -ACC1 punishment AT head -POSL -2SG.F //  
[...] he will punish you. (HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP2_058-60)

The Indefinite Future or Potential is defined by P. Newman as “indicating an action that will possibly take place in the future (God willing). [...] It differs from the normal future in having a lesser degree of certainty and a lesser element of intentionality or commitment.” (2000:587). It cannot appear in [+Focus] contexts, where it is replaced by the simple Future.

Ex 40.  
\texttt{wàtà:ƙi la makàda: sà: da:wo:}  
maybe drummers 3PL.FUT.INDF come  
Maybe the drum players will come back. (PN:587)

It is found in proverbs:

Ex 41.  
whoever 3SG.PFV.FOC swallow pestle 3SG.FUT.INDF spend_night standing_up  
Whoever swallows a pestle will spend the night standing. (Evil will rebound on the doer.) (ibid.)

It is used to express latent threats:

Ex 42.  
\texttt{kjà: gàmu dà fi: /}  
2SG.M.FUT.INDF meet with 3SG.M /  
Well, (sooner or later) you will see him [he has already said he will punish you.] (HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP2_057)

Most commonly, it is found in greetings and their answers:

Ex 43.  
\texttt{kà gai dà gida}  
2SG.M.SBJV greet with home
The habitual denotes a habit, without any explicit reference to time.

Ex 44. \textit{akàn sa:mù matsala: iři: -nľ na wânnan} //
4.HAB GET problem TYPE -DEF POSL PROX //
We usually get that kind of problem. (HAU BC CONV 01 SP2 667)

The Rhetorical. This little-studied set of subject pronouns cannot be used outside subordination, and has no negative form. The third person PNG can be omitted when a nominal subject is present. The Rhetorical, which does not appear in our corpus, has been described by Paul Newman as follows:

“It is used primarily in set expressions, idioms, epithets, proverbs, compounds, and such, but not exclusively so. [...] The rhetorical implies doubt or even a dare with respect to the possibility of achieving some action. It is often best translated with such English modals as ‘should’ or ‘could’. As the name indicates, it is commonly used in rhetorical questions or statements” (2000:589)

11 Nouns and Noun Phrases

Noun phrases (NP) consist of a head noun with optional pre-nominal and/or postnominal elements. The head of the NP may be a noun, conjoined nouns, nouns in a possessive (X of Y) relationship, a compound noun, etc. The head is optionally accompanied by specifying or modifying elements. Some of these, e.g. the demonstratives (excluding the deictics indicating ‘this, that’, etc.) and the personal pronouns functioning as modifiers, occur only before the head; a large number of elements, like the definite article and relative clauses, occur only after the head. A few items, namely the deictic demonstratives and simple adjectives, occur in both pre-nominal and post-nominal position.

11.1 The HeadNouns

Hausa nouns are marked for gender and number. There are two genders in Hausa: masculine and feminine. This contrast is neutralized in the plural. Gender is assigned to nouns and adjectives according to biological sex whenever possible; otherwise, lexical items have arbitrary gender, with a two-way distinction: m/pl or f/pl.

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{lll}
  m & f & pl \\
  faŋi: & faŋa: & faŋa:țe: \\
  džìːgi: & džìːge: & go:náki: \\
  go:na: & &
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

\begin{itemize}
  \item donkey (n.)
  \item white (adj.)
  \item vehicle (n.)
  \item farm (n.)
\end{itemize}

<ZR> In the Zaria dialect of Hausa transcribed in the corpus, grammatical gender and its exponents, such as agreement in the noun system, have been lost and only survive in the pronominal system when referring to a woman.

Gender

There is a strong statistical tendency for feminine nouns to end in /a/ and masculine nouns in one of the other vowels or in consonants.

Ex. (a) /a/= feminine

\begin{itemize}
  \item goːɾa: bamboo
  \item ṭaːna: sun, day
  \item kuːká: baobab
  \item sâuɾa: fallow
  \item gwì:wá: knee
  \item fa:da emir’s palace
  \item láʔadá: commission
  \item wüya: difficulty
\end{itemize}
However, a certain number of feminine nouns end in a vowel other than /a/, e.g. mace ‘wife’; te:ku ‘sea’; gwannati ‘government’, etc. Masculine nouns ending in /a/ are more numerous:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>baka</td>
<td>bow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dawa</td>
<td>bush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gabá</td>
<td>chest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gírmá</td>
<td>pride, large size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>güda</td>
<td>lump in tuwo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Newman (2000:210), Hausa has a toneless suffix -a: marking the feminine. Following certain phonological rules, this same suffix has the following variants: -ja, -wa, -ija and -uwa.²⁴

(1) The final vowel of the singular is dropped when the plural affix is added.
(2) The tone pattern of the plural replaces the tones of the singular and is distributed over the plural in a right to left manner with the leftmost tone continuing to spread over all available syllables.
(3) When occurring before suffixal front vowels (iː and eː) the alveolar consonants t, s, z, and, less regularly, d palatalize to ʝ, j, and ʤ respectively (both z and d becoming ʤ), e.g. bisa: ‘pack animal’ has the reduplicated plural form bisá:fe: (PL4 ≪-a:Ce> where the final syllable fe: derives from se:). Likewise, w palatalizes to j, e.g. the plural of bára:wó: ‘thief’ is bára:jí: (PL14 ≪-iː>).
(5) C stands for a third consonant added to the stem in the plural. Otherwise, C represents a copy or reduplication of the preceding consonant. If either of these is alveolar and occurs before a front vowel (iː or eː), it is palatalized as indicated above in (3).

See the list of Plural glosses (ge) used in the corpus and relevant comments in Table (10). We have adapted Newman’s transcription to follow the conventions of the CorpAfroAs project. Not all these plurals are represented in the corpus.

### Table 9. Plural Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PL1</th>
<th>-a:C:a:</th>
<th>[H-L-H] e.g. siri/di:sirá:da: ‘saddle’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PL2</td>
<td>-a:C:e:</td>
<td>[H-L-H], e.g. gulbi/gulá:be: ‘stream’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL3</td>
<td>-a:C:i:u:</td>
<td>[H-L-H], e.g. kürmi/kürá:mu: ‘grove’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL4</td>
<td>-a:C:e:</td>
<td>[H-L-H], e.g. wurj/wuʁá:re: ‘place’ kasá:ʃ/kasá:fe: ‘country’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL5</td>
<td>-ai</td>
<td>[L-H], e.g. ma:la:ma:ʃàmali ‘teacher’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL6</td>
<td>-ànni:</td>
<td>[L-H], e.g. wata/watá:nni: ‘moon’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL7</td>
<td>-a:wá:</td>
<td>[all H, or L-L-H] (if the singular word contains the prefix bá-, it is dropped when the plural is added, e.g.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

₂⁴ Newman (2000:210) describes two other derivative feminine suffixes (-ija: and -ja:) limited to a small number of nouns.

²⁵ Adapted from Newman (2007:xv).

Compound nouns

The head of a NP can be two or more compounds joined in such a way as to make a single lexical unit, e.g. ṭaŋ-ar-hu:la:27 (lit. white-PL cap) ‘civilian’. They behave like ordinary nouns insofar as these are sensitive to gender and number28. The internal structure of these compound nouns follows various patterns:

- **Noun-linked compounds**: N- POSL N, e.g. dan-sànda: ‘policeman’ (son- POSL stick); àbo:kin gà:ba: ‘enemy’ (friend- POSL enmy);
- **Adjective-Noun compounds**: bàkin-ciki: (black-POSL belly) ‘sadness’; djan-karle: (red-POSL iron) ‘copper’;
- **Verbal compounds**: hànà-sàlá (prevent prayer) ‘baseball cap’; dàfà-dùkà (cook all) ‘Jolof rice’; tàlichera (fall you die) ‘chimaware’;
- **Phrasal compounds**: babbà-ɗàŋàkà: (Mr. Big with bag) ‘marabou stork’; ja:ki-ɗàŋà-hilfì: (war with ignorance) ‘adult literacy program’;
- **Agentive compounds**: magà-takàrdà: (one_who_sees paper) ‘scribe’; mafà-ɗúwa: (one_who_drinks water) ‘rainbow’;
- **Sentential compounds**: bà-hàjà: (there_is_no hiring) ‘public toilet’; kà:ka-ɗàika-ji: (how I.S.RHET do) ‘dilemma’.

Conjoined nouns

Nouns conjoined through coordination can function as NP head.

‘And’

Simple coordination uses the conjunction dá ‘and’, e.g. gidà: dá mo:tà: ‘house and car’; kàza: dá kàza: ‘one thing and another, this and that’. In principle, the number of Ns that can be conjoined is limitless. The first term can be preceded by a da, e.g. dá Bellò dá Ma:sa: ‘Bello and Musa; dá za:ka: dá mà:sa: ‘a lion and a leopard’. When pronouns are conjoined with a noun, the pronoun comes first: in the case of pronouns; the order is 1st, then 2nd then 3rd persons, e.g. fi: dá Ma:sa: ‘him and Musa’; ita dá Bintà ‘her and Binta’; dá ni: dá fi: ìtàn: ‘me and him/her/their’.

‘Or’

Disjunction is marked by ko: and follows the same rules as dá, e.g. Litinr ko: Tàla: tà: ko: Là:rà:ba: ‘Monday, Tuesday or Wednesday’; ko: biju ko: úku ‘two or three’; ni: ko: kai ‘me or you’.

NB: Not only simple nouns but whole NPs can be conjoined, e.g. fàrin tsuntu: dá do: guwar biftìjá: ‘a white bird and a big tree’; tà:go: dàjà: tàma:ka: go: mà: ‘a ram and ten sheep’.

---

27 The hyphen in these compound nouns is not part of an affix, but is kept from the orthographic conventions. It has been removed from the glosses.

The Possessive Construction

The Possessive link (POS) na/ta/na (m./f./pl.) is an essential syntactic tool in Hausa. Its main use is to connect an NP with a following NP or adverb in an “X of Y” construction, where X is the possessed and Y is the possessor. Like the identifying copula ne/fe/ne, it agrees in gender and number with the first (possessed) NP. The POS has two forms, a free form (na/ta/na) and a bound form. If we take the words gida: (m.) ‘house’ go:na: (f.) ‘farm’; and gida:ɗe: (pl.) ‘houses’ with saƙki: (m.) ‘chief’ as possessor, we get the following possessive constructions:

\[
\begin{align*}
gida: na saƙki: & \quad \text{the chief’s house} \\
gida: na saƙki: & \quad \text{the chief’s farm} \\
gida:ɗe: na saƙki: & \quad \text{the chief’s houses}
\end{align*}
\]

NB: (a) the suffixation of the POS to long final vowels, e.g. go:na:-r creates a closed syllable (CVV-C>CVC) entailing the shortening of the vowel, hence go:na:r. (b) likewise, the diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ are simplified, e.g. kján (<<kjáu-n) ja:šijá: ‘beautiful girl’ (lit. beauty of the girl), mán (<<máñ-n) ja:nu: ‘butter’ (lit. oil of cow); (c) the use of the -n form has been extended to feminine words that do not end in /ai/, e.g. gwamnati:n Ingilà ‘the English government’, where gwamnati: (f.) ends in /i/. The bound form of the POS (-n/-r/-n) is the default form. The free form (na/ta/na) is used when the thing possessed is elliptical or separated from the possessor, as when topicalized, e.g. mo:tár nán, ta saƙki: ŋe: ‘that car is that of the chief’. It is also used to form ordinal numerals with the structure N - POSL - NUM, e.g. litta:fi : na biju ‘the second book’, or to express measurement or value, e.g. na:má: na sì:si: ‘meat for a shilling’, ŋì:ga: ta nairà: du:bu: dà ṭari: ‘a dress worth one thousand five hundred naira’.

11.2 Pre-nominal elements

Pre-nominal elements are divided into specifiers, i.e. (1) demonstratives, (2) personal pronouns used as specifiers, (3) universal quantifiers ,and (4) the isolator daya: and modifiers, i.e. (5) adjectives.

Demonstratives

The label “demonstrative” is used by Newman (PN:147-54) as an umbrella term to cover all modifiers beginning with a wa- morpheme. Some function only as pronouns, e.g. wanné?: ‘which one?’, some only as modifiers, e.g wanné doki?: ‘which horse?’ and others both as pronouns and modifiers, e.g. wannán ja: fi kjáu: ‘This one is best.’; wannán bìrò: ja: fi kjáu ‘This ballpoint pen is best.’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>PL.</th>
<th>RX</th>
<th>GE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>this (by me)</td>
<td>wannán</td>
<td>wannán</td>
<td>wàddannán</td>
<td>PRO.DEICT</td>
<td>PROX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DET.DEICT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this (by you)</td>
<td>wànnán</td>
<td>wànnán</td>
<td>wàddannán</td>
<td>PRO.DEICT</td>
<td>ANAPH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wànnán</td>
<td>wànnán</td>
<td>wàddannán</td>
<td>DET.DEICT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that (there)</td>
<td>wàntʃán</td>
<td>wàntʃán</td>
<td>wàddàntʃán</td>
<td>PRO.DEICT</td>
<td>DIST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DET.DEICT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that (distant)</td>
<td>wàntʃán</td>
<td>wàntʃán</td>
<td>wàddàntʃán</td>
<td>PRO.DEICT</td>
<td>DIST2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wàntʃán</td>
<td>wàntʃán</td>
<td>wàddàntʃán</td>
<td>DET.DEICT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which?</td>
<td>wanné:</td>
<td>wanné:</td>
<td>wàddanné:</td>
<td>DET.Q</td>
<td>which?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which one?</td>
<td>wanné:</td>
<td>wanné:</td>
<td>wàddanné:</td>
<td>PRO.Q</td>
<td>which?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same POS is used for pre-nominal adjectives, e.g. sa:bo-n gida: ‘new house’ (lit. ‘new-of house’).

The na/ta: variant with a long /a:/ is combined to the suffixed possessive pronouns to form the paradigm of the Independent Possessive Pronouns (cf. Table 16).
The morphemes we have glossed DEICT can appear pronominally in the heavy wa- prefixed forms above, but also post-nominally without the wa- prefix, e.g. waʧʧàn ƙà:suwa = kà:suwar ʧan ‘that market’. They are related to the adverbs nân, ʧân, nan, ʧan, with the same meaning. The second term in the set, corresponding to the nan adverb, on top of its ‘there by you’ meaning, has a frequent anaphoric function, hence our gloss ANAPH in the corpus. See PN:147-151 for a full description of the uses, meanings and distribution of these demonstratives in Standard Hausa.

**Pronouns as pronominal modifiers**

Indendant pronouns can be used as a modifier with “a particularizing function, i.e. [they serve] to pick out some particular person(s) or thing(s) as opposed to others.” (PN:155)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>su</td>
<td>‘Tanko et al.’</td>
<td>su Tankò</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su bâre:wa</td>
<td>‘gazelles, etc.’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They praised him, the judge. (BC)

The 3pl pronoun su is used pronominally with common and proper nouns as an associative plural, e.g. su Tankò ‘Tanko et al.’, su bâre:wa: ‘gazelles, etc.’.

**Universal quantifiers**

The global quantifier duk/dukà ‘all’ can occur as a modifier, a pronoun and an adverb. As a modifier, it can be pre-nominal, with the form duk, or post-nominal, with the form dukà, e.g. duk mutate:n.31 = mutà:ne dukà ‘all the people.’

The distributive quantifier ko:wané (f. ko:waʧe, pl. ko:wa’ànnè) ‘every, whichever’ is another pre-nominal specifier, e.g. ko:wa’ànnè mùtûm ‘each man’, ko:waʧe kasa: ‘each country’.

**The isolator daya**

The numeral daya ‘one’ which usually occurs post-nominally as a modifier, e.g. mo tà: daya ‘one car’, can occur pre-nominally as as specifier, with the noun in the definite form, e.g. daya mo tà:ar ‘the other car’.

**Adjectives as pre-nominal modifiers**

The typical pre-nominal modifier is a simple attributive adjective. Its structure is <Adjective- POSL N>. The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun, and can be preceded by the diminutive dan/yaràyàn, e.g. jùddan ji:guna: ‘blue gowns’ (ADJ.PL-POS.L PL N.PL), dan kàrámìn ja:ʧo: ‘a little boy’ (DIM.M ADJ.M-POS.L N). Adjectives can be stacked, e.g. zungu:rija rtsu:fuwar faʧar mo tà: ‘a very long old white car’ (ADJ.F-POS.L.F ADJ.F-POS.L.F ADJ.F-POS.L.F)

---

31 Pronounced [dummutàːneː]; the pronominal quantifier duk is often realized as duG, with its final consonant assimilating to the initial consonant of the noun.

32 PN:371
11.3 Post-nominal elements

Post-nominal specifiers

These include (1) the definite article; (2) demonstrative determiners; (3) possessives; (4) numerals and quantifiers.

Definite article

What corresponds to the English definite article is the anaphoric suffix -\(l\)-/\(-l\)/-\(ln\) (m./f/pl.) glossed ANAPH in the corpus. The choice of the -\(l\) or -\(r\) form follows the same rules as for the POSL, i.e. -\(r\) is suffixed to feminine nouns ending in /\(a/\), and -\(l\) elsewhere, e.g. bàkàn the bow (<báka: (m.) -\(l\)), go:dji:jär ‘the mare’ (< go:dji:jâ: (f.) -\(l\)), ùnùlùn ‘the vulture’ (<ùnùlu: (f.) -\(l\)), go:dji:jin ‘the mares’ (< go:dji:jî:jî: (pl.) -\(l\)).

Demonstrative determiners

The heavy forms of the pre-nominal deitics (\(v\)d. Table 10) occur post-nominally in the invariant light form nân ‘this’ (PROX), nan ‘that near you, that previously mentioned’ (ANAPH), ñan ‘that there’ (DIST), ṣân ‘that over there’ (DIST\(2\)). They directly follow a noun with suffixed POSL, or a noun plus the connective di- plus POSL, e.g. do:kin nân ‘his horse’, ṣi:gàr nan ‘that gown’ (near you or previously mentioned), gidà:dje:n ñân ‘those houses there’, ñêk di:n nân ‘this check’. The forms nân and ṣân are realized nà{n} and ṣà{n} respectively when following a H tone.

Possessives

Possession, in the order < Possessed Possessor > where the thing possessed is the head noun, is indicated by a post-head noun or clitic pronoun\(^{33}\) preceded by POSL -\(n\)-/\(-t\)/-\(g\), e.g. ṣì:gàr Sulè ‘Sule’s gown’ (< ṣì:ga:-\(r\)), do:kìnsà ‘his horse’ (< do:ki:-\(n\) -\(s\)), ñêk di:nà ‘that horse’ (< ñêk di:-\(n\) -\(t\)) ‘her check’. If POSL is not attached directly to the head noun, it appears as na:-\(t\)a:- prefixed to a possessive pronoun, or as na\(a\)ta before a noun, e.g. do:ki:n na:nà{s\(a\)} ‘this horse of his’; ṣì:gàr ta Sulè ‘the gown, Sule’s’.

Numerals

Cardinal numbers and other quantitative specifiers such as the modifiers dukà ‘all’, da:jàwà ‘plenty’, the interrogative nàwà: ‘how many’, as well as ideophones, directly follow the head noun, e.g. nàrâ: dubù: ‘one thousand naira’; so:djò:dji: da:jàwà: ‘many soldiers’ (lit. ‘soldiers with plenty’), màngwàrò nàwà: ‘how many mangoes?’; yàmàma:ta: dukà ‘all the girls’; mutà:ne: tin\(d\)jìm ‘lots of people’ (‘people ideoph’).

Ordinal numbers are introduced by the free POSL na\(a\)ta\(n\)a, e.g. ba:bì: na ukù ‘the third chapter’; bàbàbbàn ja:kin du:nìjà: na biju ‘the Second World War’ (lit. big-of war-of world of two’). When combined with other determiners, they come last: mà:ta:ta: ta ukù ‘my third wife’ (lit. ‘wife-my of three’).

Post-nominal modifiers

Adjectives

Post-nominal adjectives directly follow the noun they qualify. All adjectives occurring pre-nominally can occur post-nominally and be preceded by the diminutive dan\(y\)à\(r\)\(y\)àn, e.g. kwa:li: bàbà ‘large carton’; tuma:ki: yàn kàna:nà: ‘wee small lambs’. Post-nominal adjectives follow specifiers, e.g. kwa:lin nà:n bàbà ‘this large carton’.

Possessive modifying nouns


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\(^{33}\) See the full paradigm of suffixed (Table 15) and independent (Table 16) possessive pronouns.
The *mai* construction

The particle *mai* (pl. *mà:su*) ‘owner of’, and its negative counterpart *maràs* (= *mà:r = màyàG* where G geminates with the following consonant; pl. *maràsá*) followed by a series of nouns expressing a quality34, will be used to attribute this quality or its absence to a noun, e.g. *jaːţínjá: mai kjàu* ‘beautiful girl’, *riːɗjá: mai zuːfi:* ‘deep well’, *jàːra: maɾàsá: hànkáli:* ‘needless children’.

The superlative modifier construction

On the same model as *mai*, a superlative qualitative construction can be formed with the short agentive *máfi* (pl. *màfi:já*) ‘lit. the one exceeding’ plus an object, e.g. *moːtà: máfiːtsà:da:* ‘the most expensive car’.

Prepositional phrases

Nouns may be modified by a post-head prepositional phrase, e.g. *wani te:bùr à daːkiːna:* ‘a table in my room’; *daːliː: à dʒaːmiː:à:* ‘university student’ (lit. ‘student at university’).

Stative phrases

Another type of post-nominal modifier is the phrase formed by a Stative + *dà* + NP, e.g. *bàŋgà: jàːfe dà fentì* ‘wall covered with paint’.

Relative clauses

Relative clauses occur only post-nominally. Their structure is REL+ embedded clause (with no change in the word order). The TAM in the embedded clause is chosen from the paradigms that are compatible with Focus. The REL is *dà* or a relative pronoun containing *dà*, e.g. *wandà, jaddà, indà*, etc. The antecedent of the relative must have some degree of definiteness; usually it bears the definite article suffix -in/-hr/-ln (<ZR> *n*)

Ex 46.  jànzù maː màgnàː -nl dà akèː jiː jaː koːnèː /
now even speech -DEF REL 4.CONT.FOC doing 3SG.M.PFV.NFOC dry_up /
Right now, what we were talking about [i.e. the river, *lit. the speech we were doing*] has dried up. *(HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2.659)*

Other degrees of definiteness are possible, e.g. with the indefinite specifier *wani:*

Ex 47.  àkwái wàni àbù -n tsòːtːoː dà mukà tabàː ganiː //
COP3 some.M thing -POSF fear REL 1PL.PFV.FOC touch see //
there is something terrible that we saw. *(HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2.123-4)*

With numerals:

Ex 48.  kàman jëːkaɾà: biju dà suƙà wuʧèː /
like year two REL 3PL.PFV.FOC pass_by /
over the past two years (the two years that have elapsed) *(HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2.410)*

When the pivot noun of the relative is modified by a universal quantifier (e.g. *koːwa;* ‘everyone’), the result is a universal subordinate clause: *koːwa: dà kùkà gànì* ‘whoever you may see’.

The *wai* construction

The particle *wai* introduces proper nouns as part of a post-nominal modifier meaning ‘called X’, e.g. *wàta máce wai Láːdì* ‘a woman called Ladi’35.

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34 These nouns belong to a phonologically and semantically distinct class named “Abstract Nouns of Sensory Quality” by F. Parsons. Cf (Parsons 1955) and (Newman 2000:13-18).
35 Cf. its other uses as the particle glossed EVD (Evidential) in the corpus, found at the beginning of an utterance to cast a measure of doubt on what follows. It is translated in English by ‘it is said that...’. The same particle becomes a complementizer introducing reported speech. Reduplicated, it becomes the full noun *wàiwài* ‘rumour, hearsay’.
12 Nominal derivation

12.1 ma- Agents, Place and Instruments

The H-tone prefix ma- is used to derive nouns of agent, place and instrument from a verb, e.g. manó:mi: ‘farmer’; maɗe:mi: ‘tannery’; masassabi: ‘harvesting tool’.

Agent nouns

All agent nouns use the same H-tone ma- prefix. In addition, masculine singulars add a suffix -iː\(^{1\text{LH}}\), which results in H\(^{(L)}\)-L-L-H tone patterns. Feminine singulars use the suffix -ijaː\(^{\text{HLH}}\). The plural suffix is -aː\(^{\text{LH}}\) resulting in the same tone pattern as the masculine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Agent Noun</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gináː</td>
<td>build</td>
<td>maginiː</td>
<td>maginìjaː</td>
<td>magìnaː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dinkàː</td>
<td>sew</td>
<td>madinkiː</td>
<td>madinkìjaː</td>
<td>madìntaː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>djeːmàː</td>
<td>tan</td>
<td>madjeːmiː</td>
<td>madjeːmìjaː</td>
<td>madjeːmaː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keː tàː</td>
<td>forge</td>
<td>makèːrìː</td>
<td>makèːrìjaː</td>
<td>makèːrìaː</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some verbs, belonging mostly to grade Ø, have a dissyllabic short form with H-L tone pattern, that can be used only if followed by an object or a locative goal. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 12. Short Agent Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>maʃi: ìmaːnàː:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mabi: saɾkiː:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maʃò: gaɾiː:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maɗe: silimàn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Place nouns

Place nouns formed with the H tone ma- prefix have two forms -aː (f.) and -iː (m.). Both have all-H tones. They designate a place associated with the activity of the verb they are derived from.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 13. Place Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aikàtaː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bùbbbugà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>djeːmàː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fàkaː</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The plural of -iː place nouns, when it exists, is formed with the -ai\(^{\text{BHI}}\) suffix, e.g. masàlìːtaːi (sg. masàllaːfìː) ‘mosque’. The plurals of -aː place nouns are more varied, e.g.: ma’āikàtuː (⟨ ma’aikàtaː: - uː\(^{\text{BHI}}\)⟩ ‘factory’; màfàrùtaːi (⟨ màfàrùtaːaː: - ai\(^{\text{BHI}}\)⟩ ‘hunting ground’; màfìjo:fiː (⟨ màfìjìaː: - oːfìː\(^{\text{BHI}}\)⟩ ‘small roadside eating place’. Some of these nouns use two or even all of these plural forms\(^{36}\).

Instrument nouns

Instrument nouns with the same H tone ma- prefix are masculine with a -iː suffix and an all-H tone pattern. The plural is regular with an -ai\(^{\text{BHI}}\) suffix. They designate an object associated with the verb they are derived from.

\(^{36}\) PN:58.
### TABLE 14. INSTRUMENT NOUNS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Instrument Nouns (sg./pl)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>du:bà:</td>
<td>madu:bi:/ madu:bai mirror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka:mà:</td>
<td>maka:mi:/ maka:mai weapon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kullè:</td>
<td>makulli:/ makullai key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hu:tà:</td>
<td>mahu:tf:/ mahu:taì fan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 12.2 Ethnonyms

The term *ethnonym* refers to a set of nouns starting with *bà*-prefix denoting a person’s place of origin, nationality, ethnicity, occupation or social group. Masculines have an *-eː* suffix with tones spreading to the left up to the prefix, e.g. **Bàgumalè**: ‘man from Gumel’ (*Gumàl*); **Bàzamfaː**: ‘man from Zamfara’ (*Zàmfà*). Some ethnonyms have different final vowels, e.g. **Bàkanò**: ‘man from Kano’; **bàdu:kaː** *kùː* *: leather worker*.

The feminine is formed by adding *-aː* to the masculine, without replacing the existing suffix. The realization follows the rules *-eː*+*-aː* > *-ìjaː* and *-òː*+*aː* > *-ùwaː*, e.g. **Bàgumalè** (*m.*) / **Bàgumalìja** (*f.*) ‘a man / woman from Gumel’; **Bàkanò** (*m.*) / **Bàkanùwa** (*f.*) ‘a man / woman from Kano’. The plural is formed by adding *-awaː* to the lexical base, without the *ba*-prefix, e.g. **Bàgumalè** (*m.*) / **Gumala:wa** (*pl.*) ‘man / people from Gumel’.

### 13 Personal Pronouns

Hausa personal pronouns show different forms according to their syntactic function. Gender is distinguished in the second and third persons singular. The fourth, indefinite person, which appears among the subject pronouns, is absent from the other paradigms.

#### TABLE 15. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IDP</th>
<th>OBJ</th>
<th>BEN</th>
<th>POS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1s</td>
<td>niː</td>
<td>mini/min/mûn</td>
<td>-nə / -ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2s.m.</td>
<td>kai</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>maka:maː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2s.f.</td>
<td>keː</td>
<td>ki</td>
<td>miki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3s</td>
<td>fìː</td>
<td>fì</td>
<td>masà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>ita</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>matà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p</td>
<td>muː</td>
<td>mu</td>
<td>manà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p</td>
<td>kuː</td>
<td>ku</td>
<td>mukû</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>suː</td>
<td>su</td>
<td>musù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The **Independent pronouns** (PRO.IDP) appear typically as topic, focus, predicate or subject of nonverbal sentences, complement of basic prepositions, etc.

**Ex 49.** kai[vocative] mazàunin ina: nèː //

kai maː zaun- iː HLH -n ina: neː //

2.SG.M AGT- stay -AGT -POSL where COP1.NFOC //

You, where do you live? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_002)

**Ex 50.** ita maː [topic] tanàː zàune à nân […] //

ita maː tanàː zàune à nân /

3SG.F even 3SG.F.CONT.NFOC staying at PROX /

As for her, does she live here […]? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_007)

**Ex 51.** kun daɗeː taːʧe dà ita kèː nàn //

2.PL.PFV LAST TOGETHER WITH 3SG.F COP1.FOC ANAPH //

You had been staying with her for a long time. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_034)
The **Direct Object pronoun** (PRO.OBJ) is the pronoun directly following a verb. Its tone is variable:

Ex 52. [...] *ja bijo: mú //*
3SG.M.PFV.FOC follow.DIR 1PL //
[...] he followed us. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_320)

Ex 53. *sei akà tsaqè: mu [-]*
then 4.PFV.FOC block 1PL
then they blocked us [...] (HAU_BC_NARR_03_06)

The **Benefactive** (PRO.BEN) or **Indirect Object** appears before the Direct Object (PRO.OBJ). A nominal Benefactive is marked by the particle *wà* (ZR & WH *mà*) suffixed to the long-vowel finite form of the verb. In the Continuous, the nominalized form of the verb is replaced by a corresponding finite form.

Ex 54. [...] *tà ʧabà: mà màkàrântu: //*
3SG.F.SBJV share BEN school.PL //
[...] she would distribute [them] to the schools (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_038)

The pronominal Benefactive belongs to a specific paradigm merging the *mà* particle with person and number marking.

Ex 55. *wàndà akè: tfè: mà mà'a:zù //*
who 4.CONT.FOC say 3SG.BEN Ma'azu //
The one they call Ma'azu. (lit. ‘the one they say to him M.’) (HAU_BC_CONV_02_SP2_342)

The **Possessive Pronoun** indicates possession. It is suffixed to the possessed object through the Possessive Link (POS.L) -n/-r. Unlike the other persons, for the 1st person, the POS.L is attached to the pronoun which takes a H tone. The final -a is long, except in sentence-final position where it is short, e.g. *mo: tà: ta* ‘my car’: *An sa:tfè mo: tà: ta* ‘They stole my car’ vs. *Mo: tà: ta: bà:tfì* ‘My car has broken down’ The word *täi* ‘head’ with a possessive pronoun suffix, is used to form the reflexive: *mùn tì: tfì kànmù* ‘we’ve wronged ourselves’ (*kànmù* ‘ourselves’ < *kái -n -mù*, head- POSL-1PL.PNG.POS). Suffixes to the free POSL, the possessive PNGs form the Independent Possessive Pronouns. The free POSL agrees with the gender of the thing possessed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M &amp; PL</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1s.</td>
<td>nà:wa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2ms.</td>
<td>na:kà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2fs.</td>
<td>na:ki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3ms.</td>
<td>na:sà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3fs.</td>
<td>na:tà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1p.</td>
<td>na:mù</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2p.</td>
<td>na:kù</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p.</td>
<td>na:sù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

37 Newman (2000:478 ff.) distinguishes two sets of Direct Object pronouns, both with CV form: (a) a set of weak clitic pronouns whose tone varies according to the class of the verb they cliticize to; (b) a set of strong non-clitic pronouns with inherent H tone.

38 A pronominal Direct Object, when separated from the verb by a Benefactive, takes the form of an Independent Pronoun.

39 This particle is written as a separate word in standard Hausa orthography, so as to distinguish it from the *-wa*: nominalizer forming verbal nouns.
14 Verbs and Verb Phrases

14.1 Verb grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Grade</th>
<th>/___Ø</th>
<th>/___PRO.OBJ</th>
<th>/___N</th>
<th>/___PRO.BEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade Ø</td>
<td>-i: H</td>
<td>-i: H</td>
<td>-i: H</td>
<td>-i: H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>a:/-o: H</td>
<td>-a:/-o: H</td>
<td>-a:/-o: H</td>
<td>-a:/-o: H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3a</td>
<td>a H</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3b</td>
<td>-i/-u/-a H-L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4</td>
<td>-e: H-L(H)</td>
<td>-E: H-L(H)</td>
<td>-e: H-L(H)</td>
<td>-e: H-L(H)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>-u H-L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verb classes, called verb grades in Hausaist tradition since Parsons (1960), are morpho-syntactic classes determined by their morphology, tone pattern, and distribution. The nature of the object following the verb influences its form and determines the various classes: (i) zero object (Ø); (ii) pronominal object (PRO.OBJ); (iii) nominal object (N); benefactive pronominal object (PRO.BEN). Depending on their tone pattern and their suffix (mostly of the form -V or -CV, with the one -VC exception, -ar), seven verb grades were established by Parsons (op.cit.). To these, Newman added a grade Ø and introduced 3 subclasses: grades 3a and b, and grade 5d. These grades are subdivided into primary grades (Ø to 3, including 3a and 3b) and secondary grades which are derived from the others. (Table 17) above is a summary of Newman’s presentation.

Primary Grades

Grade Ø consists of basic H-tone monosyllabic verbs ending in /i/, e.g. ƙi ‘eat’ or /a/, e.g. ṣa ‘pull’, plus a small group of H-tone CiCa: verbs, e.g. ƙa: ‘call’.

Grade 1 contains basic -a/a: verbs, e.g. ƙa:da: ‘cook’, both transitive and intransitive.

Grade 2 comprises only basic transitive verbs, e.g. ṣa:ja: ‘buy’ (ṣajì /___N and ṣajì: /___PRO.OBJ).

Before [Benefactive], grade 2 verbs, like those of grades 3 and 7, add the H-tone inflectional pds -aC, e.g. sun ne:ma:ma: a:ika: ‘They sought work for him’ (gr2+pds); cf. sun ne:mi: a:ika: ‘they sought work’ (gr2/___N). (PN:629)

Grade 3 is exclusively intransitive and contains basic -a final verbs, e.g. tita ‘go out’. Grade 3a is likewise made up of disyllabic intransitive verbs with -a final vowel, but with H-H tone and a heavy initial syllable, e.g. ƙa:qua ‘migrate’. Grade 3b consists of a few H-L 2-syllable intransitive verbs with final -i, -u, and -a, e.g. ṣudu ‘run’.

Secondary grades

Grade 4, with a ‘totality/finality’ meaning, contains both transitive and intransitive verbs. It indicates and action totally done or affecting all the objects, e.g. ṣajì: ‘buy up’. Used with a dative object, it can have a malefactive/deprivative sense, e.g. kwà:tì: ‘take from’. The variant with /nje:/ is limited to a few verbs derived from monosyllabic grade Ø verbs, e.g. fànje: ‘drink up’.
Grade 5 is called ‘efferential’ by Newman, who characterizes it as transitive grade indicating action directed away from the speaker, e.g. zubar ‘pour out’. However as it serves mainly to transitivize inherently intransitive verbs, e.g. fitar ‘take out’ (cf. fita (V3) ‘go out’), we will continue to call it ‘causative’, glossed CAUS in the corpus. Transitivity is expressed via the use of the oblique marker da followed by the independent form of the pronoun, e.g. ja: zubar da gijà: ‘He poured out the beer’, ja sayar da ita ‘He sold it’. The pre-nominal form with -je is an alternative to the da form, e.g. na: gajfe: sù = na: gajar da su: ‘I greeted them’. Some grade 5 verbs have a short suffixless form when followed by a direct object, e.g. ja: Zub dà ita = ja: zubar da ita ‘he poured it out’. Grade 5b is a dialectal form with the marker dà fused to the verb, and followed by a direct object pronoun, e.g. ja: zubdà: ta.

Grade 6 (‘allative’, glossed ALL), called ‘ventive’ by Newman, indicates action in the direction of, or for the benefit of the speaker, e.g. sajo: ‘buy and bring back’.

Grade 7 (‘passive’, glossed PASS), is called ‘sustentative’ by Newman. It indicates an agentless passive, middle voice action well done, or the potentiality of sustaining the action, e.g. datu ‘well cooked’, tàfì ‘meet’.

All secondary grades have nominalized forms with the suffix -ìwà.

### 14.2 Imperatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/__Ø</th>
<th>/__PRO.obj</th>
<th>/__N</th>
<th>/__PRO.BEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gr1</td>
<td>-a: L-H</td>
<td>-a: L-H</td>
<td>-a: L-H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch (X)!</td>
<td>Catch them!</td>
<td>Catch the thief!</td>
<td>Catch the thief for me!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gr2</td>
<td>-1: L-H</td>
<td>-e: L</td>
<td>-1: L-H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tàimákì!</td>
<td>tàimákè: mu!</td>
<td>tàimákì já: ra!</td>
<td>tàjam mini dà fi!:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help (X)!</td>
<td>Help us!</td>
<td>Help the children!</td>
<td>Give it back to me!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Commands are expressed in Hausa both by the Subjunctive and the Imperative. The Imperative is insensitive to gender and number and is restricted to the second person singular. The other persons and negative commands use the Subjunctive. The Imperative is the only TAM which is directly expressed on the verb, through a specific tone pattern (usually L-H) which overrides the contextual tone pattern. This specific tone pattern varies according to the verb class. One example of such variation is that of the grade 2 imperative. See (Table 18) for the difference between grade 1 and grade 2 Imperatives.

### 14.3 Auxiliaries

We call auxiliary verbs those Hausa verbs that are followed by an embedded nonfinite VP whose subject is identical to that of the auxiliary. The embedded VP is an Infinitive Phrase (IP), a NV, NV Phrase or an action noun.

Ex 56. kun ka:rà jì: -n wani no:ma: /
2.PL.PFV continue doing -POS.L some.M farming /
[.] did you go on cultivating another crop [..?] (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SPI_122)

When the embedded VP functions as direct object of the auxiliary verb, the result is a complete subordinate clause as in (55). Auxiliary verbs fall into two semantic categories:

1) modal auxiliaries specifying the subjective or objective modality of the process without reference to its temporality;

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40 For more variations, especially on grade Ø Imperatives, see Newman (2000:262-9).
41 Newman (PN:64-70) calls these verbs “Aspectual verbs”.
42 Claude Gouffè (1978) calls this form the “ Forme Verbale Libre”, ‘free verb form’. 32
2) aspectual auxiliaries specifying the temporal references of the process, e.g. inceptive, durative, repetitive, etc.

Modal auxiliaries


Epistemic: ijà: ‘can’; ra:sà:; ka:sà:; gazà: ‘cannot’; fàskàr:à ‘be difficult to...’

Deontic: t'fan'tàntà:; da:tfè:; kàmà:tà ‘be proper’; kjà:tu ‘be better’.

Appreciative: fi ‘exceed’; façè:, fàkà: ‘be too much’.

Aspectual auxiliaries


15 Adverbs and Prepositional phrases

Adverbs and adverbial phrases (of time, place, manner, etc.) have several functions in Hausa:

1. predicate of nonverbal sentences, e.g. dà:ki:na:; jànà:; dàb dà na tà ‘my room is right next to her’; tà:dà:wà:; sunà zàune kusa dà sa:rà: ‘the councillors are seated close to the chief’.

2. locative goal of motion verbs, e.g. mì wà tìgà: ‘let’s go there!’

3. modifier in N-POS L ADV constructions, e.g. jù:gàbàn dà:zu ‘the leaders of the movement’ (lit. leaders of just now); kì:fin-zù:yì: ‘ambition’ (lit. jealousy of in the heart)

4. predicate modifier appearing at the end of the VP, e.g. inà: sòntà aìnùn: ‘I love her very much.’; tòna: aiki:; sànnu sànnu: ‘She is working very slowly.’

NB: Adverbs and adverbial phrases are prone to fronting due to framing (52) or focus (53).

Ex 57. 

\[ \text{li: kàfì: -nì dà sukà zo : / hàkà sun zo :} \]

\[ \text{time -DEF REL 3PL.PFV.FOC come / like this 3PL.PFV.NFOC come} \]

\[ \text{hàkà sunà : bà:jar dà mutàné : tsò:jo : //} \]

\[ \text{like this 3PL.CONT.NFOC give with person fear //} \]

\[ \text{[When they arrived]_{FRAME}, [like that]_{FRAME} they arrived, [like that]_{FRAME} they frightened people. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_151-2)} \]

Ex 58. 

\[ \text{ta nan nè : akà sa:mo : basa:wa // } \]

\[ \text{via ANAPH COP1.NFOC 4.PFV.FOC get.DIR Basawa // } \]

\[ \text{[Is that where]_{FOCUS} the Basawa were found? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_174)} \]

15.1 Basic adverbs


Basic time adverbs. The inventory of basic adverbs (see Table 19 below) is quite rich, with many degrees referring to days and years but not to weeks or months.

---

43 *ji ta* has a continuous meaning (‘keep doing’) with a Continuous TAM, and an inceptive meaning (‘start doing’) when used in the Perfect.
Table 19. Basic Time Adverbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dàː</td>
<td>jänzu</td>
<td>tjân</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘formerly’</td>
<td>‘now’</td>
<td>‘then, then later’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tūni</td>
<td>nàːn</td>
<td>goːbe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘long ago’</td>
<td>‘then (remote), then (later)’</td>
<td>‘tomorrow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dàː zū</td>
<td>àn</td>
<td>djiː bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘not long ago, just now’</td>
<td>‘there (not near you)’</td>
<td>‘two days from now’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feːkàːràn-djìjì wàʧʧàːn</td>
<td>feːkàːràn-djìjì</td>
<td>dàː wàʧʧàːn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘three days ago’</td>
<td>‘two days ago’</td>
<td>‘two years ago’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bàːrà wàʧʧàːn</td>
<td>dàː jìjì</td>
<td>bàː tà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘last year’</td>
<td>‘yesterday’</td>
<td>‘next year’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bàː tà</td>
<td>yàu</td>
<td>bàdi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘this year’</td>
<td>‘today’</td>
<td>‘two years from now’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bàː di wàʧʧàːn</td>
<td>bàː di</td>
<td>‘five days from now’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB: The adverb dàː: ‘formerly’ combined with maː: ‘even’ forms the phrase dàː maː: which denotes a known, confirmed fact, and translates as ‘of course’, ‘in fact’, ‘precisely’.

There are other adverbs relative to the time locus of the utterance, e.g. kàːʧə:ʧàːːi:, wàʧə:ʧàːːi: ‘the following day’24, kullum, dàːdài, tutur ‘always’.

The interrogative temporal adverb (ADV.Q) is jàːʠfɛː, jàːʠfɛː: ‘when?’; the universal quantifier is koːjàːʠfɛː, koːjàːʠfɛː: ‘any time, whenever’.

Deictics have both a spatial and temporal meaning: nàːn ‘here, now’; nàn ‘there near you, then’; tjån ‘there (not near you)’; tjan ‘there (remote), then (later)’.

Manner adverbs. We will name but a few manner adverbs, e.g. ainîn ‘very much’; daidai ‘exactly’; duk36 ‘entirely’; hâːkən ‘thus’; kàːwàːi ‘only, merely’, etc.

Other adverbs. The adverb koː modifies NP, VP and adverbials (both PP and AP46). Here is an example modifying a PP: koː dà wàːkà dà bàː tà kàːfɛː fi bi ‘Even with a knife, he would not be able to kill it.’ dàn/yàrían ‘little’ is an adjective modifier, and its invariable form dàn acts as an adverbial predicate modifier, e.g.

Ex 59. à saːjɔː / à saːmù à dàn ʧi ʧàːniʧi /
SBJV.4 sell.DIR / SBJV.4 get SBJV.4 DIM eat food /

We would go and sell [doughnuts] to get [money] and eat a little. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_285-7)

15.2 Adverb derivation

Denominal adverbs

Many adverbs are derived from body-part nouns and nouns of place and time through one or more of the following processes: (i) shortening the final vowel (à kàːfà ‘on foot’ < kàːfà: ‘foot, leg’); (ii) dropping the feminine gender suffix (à zuːʧiː ‘in the heart’ < zuːʧjàː: ‘heart’); (iii) change of tone to HH; (iv) addition of a tone-integrating suffix -a)H (bakà dà hanʧiː ‘tooth and nail, lit. at mouth and at nose’ < bâː kiː: ‘mouth’; hanʧiː: ‘nose’).

44 There is no adverb corresponding to ‘the previous day’. Instead, the expression anàː gòː be + FUT (lit. they were tomorrow...) e.g. anàː gòː be zaː sù tàːʧiː ‘the day before their departure...’ (lit. they were tomorrow they will leave).

45 Cf. the related prenominal (duk) and post-nominal (dukà) specifiers.

46 We have seen how this has been lexicalized for the formation of universal quantifiers through the structure koː + Question word.
Deverbal statives

Statives are a subclass of adverbs derived from verbs by means of a tone-integrating suffix -e LH, e.g. mutù ‘die’ > mafè ‘dead’; zaunà ‘sit’ > zàune ‘seated’.

Ex 60. sunà: nan à zàune nè: à wànnan gàři: na pallà:dàn //
3PL.CONT.NFOC ANAPH at seated COP1.NFOC at PROX city POSL Palladan //
They live there (lit. they are seated there) in the city of Palladan. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_231)

Ex 61. kun dàdè: tàfe: dà ita kè: nan //
2.PL.PFV last together with 3SG.F COP1.FOC ANAPH //
You stayed a long time together with her, you did. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_034)

15.3 Reduplication

Reduplication of adverbs is very common with three different meanings: (1) intensive; (2) attenuative; (3) distributive.

Intensive reduplication: ñan ‘there’ / ñan ñan ‘far, far away’; kusa ‘close’ / kusa kusa = kurkusa ‘very close’.

Attenuative reduplication47 mainly concerned are denominal locative adverbs, e.g. baː jà baː jà ‘a bit behind’ / samà samà ‘a bit above’.

Distributive reduplication: The repetition of nouns creates adverbs with a distributive meaning, e.g. maː kòː (= saː tiː) ‘week’ / maː kòː maː kòː (= saː tiː saː tiː) ‘weekly’; gida: ‘house’ / gida: gida: ‘from house to house’.

15.4 Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases (PP) consist of a preposition plus an NP or an adverb, e.g. dà wuːka: ‘with a knife’, dàgà nàn ‘from here’. PPs have the same functions as adverbs for modifying predicates. Like adverbs, they have (1) temporal, (2) locative, (3) manner, and (4) instrumental meanings.

• Time PPs e.g. kàːfin ‘before’; bà:jan ‘after’.

Ex 62. bà:jan ñàsunwantà dài /
after death.POSL.3SG.F indeed /
Well, after her death, […] (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_038)

• Place PPs, e.g. gàba dà ‘in front of’; à ‘at’

Ex 63. kàː dàdè: à wùrìntà kòː kùwà ##
2SG.M.PFV.NFOC last at place.POSL.3SG.F or as_for ##
did you stay long at her place or rather… (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_011)

Manner PPs use the preposition dà with a noun of quality, e.g. dà hankàli: ‘gently’; dà karfi: ‘strongly’, dà jàwà: ‘many’.

Ex 64. àkwài rà: fuffukà: ne: dà jàwà: […]
COP3 river.PL COP1.NFOC with quantity […]
Are there many rivers […]? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_192)

• Instrument PPs use the preposition dà with concrete nouns, e.g. sun dàuřè: fì dà igìja: ‘they tied him with a rope’.

47 See the same phenomenon with adjectives, § 16.3 Reduplicated adjectives, p. 39.
48 Cf. § 17, p. 39 for a glossary of prepositions.
16 Adjectives

Adjectives share their morphology with nouns, and some can even function as nouns, e.g. *tsɔ:ho:* ‘old’ (adj.) and ‘old man’ (n.). However, they have some specific properties that distinguish them from nouns. These are: (i) morphology: there are adjectives derived from nouns of quality that have a specific morphology and cannot function as nouns, e.g. *zàzza:fa:* ‘very hot’ (< *za:fi:* ‘heat’); (ii) syntax: they function mainly as nominal modifiers or predicators; (iii) their gender and number features are assigned by the noun they qualify and are not lexical properties.

16.1 Syntax

Adjectives appear in three different constructions: (i) predicative; (ii) pre-nominal attributive; (iii) post-nominal attributive. Let us illustrate these three constructions with a simple adjective, *faːi:* (m.); *faːaːre:* (pl.) ‘white’.

The attributive function

The pre-nominal attributive structure is <Adj- POSL N>. The post-nominal attributive function uses the structure <N Adj> without POSL:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-nominal</th>
<th>Post-nominal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>doːki:</em> (m.)</td>
<td><em>faːi-n doːki:</em> (white-POSL horse)</td>
<td><em>doːki:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horse</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>faːi:</em> (horse white)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>moːtə:</em> (f.)</td>
<td><em>faːa-r moːtə:</em> (white-POSL car)</td>
<td><em>moːtə:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>car</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>faːa:</em> (car white)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>huːlunaː</em> (pl.)</td>
<td><em>faːaːre-n huːlunaː</em> (white-POSL caps)</td>
<td><em>huːlunaː:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caps</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>faːaːre:</em> (caps white)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The predicative function

The predicative function uses
- the non-aspectual Continuous

Ex 65. *laːkaːfìn niː niːnaː dan kaːɾamiː: //

At that time I was young. ([Hau BC_CONV_01_SP2_144])

- the copula *ne/ʃe/: (COP2) with the structure <(X) Y COP2> where Y is the adjective, e.g. (ex 65):

Ex 66. *doːki-n-sà* horse- POSL.M-him *faːi:* white.M *nèː* COP.M his horse is white

*riːga-r-sà* caftan- POSL.F-him *faːaː* white.F *ʃeː* COP.F his caftan (f.) is white

*moːtoːʃi-n-sù* cars-POSL.PL-them *faːaːreː* white.PL *nèː* COP.PL their cars are white (BC)

Comparison

Comparison is expressed through the verb *ʃi* ‘exceed’ and the structure <X ʃi Y adj>, e.g. *Sulè ʃaː fi Muːsaː tsawoː* ‘Sule is taller than Musa’ (lit. Sule exceeds Musa (in) height). One of the terms of comparison may be elliptical:
Ex 67. \texttt{geːrōn nān ja: fi inganʃi:} //
millet -DEF ANAPH 3SG.M.PFV.NFOC exceed value //
The millet is more profitable. \(\text{HAU}_\text{BC}_\text{CONV}_04\text{.SP1}\text{.009}\)

Ex 68. \texttt{liː ya: ti a: fi jawà:} //
disadvantage-DEF 3SG.F.PFV.NFOC exceed quantity //
It has more disadvantages. (lit. the disadvantage exceeds in quantity) \(\text{HAU}_\text{BC}_\text{CONV}_04\text{.SP1}\text{.955}\)

Superlatives are expressed through the post-nominal modifier \texttt{mafi}: adj, e.g. \texttt{jaːtɔ: mafi: kaɾfi:} ‘the strongest boy’ (lit. boy exceeder (in) strength).

### 16.2 Basic adjectives

Table 21 below lists the 19 basic, underived “true” adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOUN/ADJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\texttt{baki:}, baka:, bàkà:ke:}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bàbba, bàbba, màn̤a:ja:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doːgo:, doːguwa:, doːgwà:je:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>danje:, danja:, dànju:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fàr̤:i, fàra:, farà:re:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huntu:, huntuwa:, huntu:je:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ja:, ja:, jaːjaːje:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koːrə:, koːriːa:, koːraːje:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kùmà:ma:, kùmà:ma:, kùmà:mai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaːtò:, kaːtuwa:, kàtta:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kàŋkan̤e:, kàŋkanuwa:, kàna:n̤à:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kàr̤ːami:, kàr̤ːama:, kàna:n̤à:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kàza:Hi:, kàza:ma:, kàza:mai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuːlum:, kuːlum:, kuːlum:je:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muːgu:, muːguwa: (=muːgunjà:), miːjà:gu: (=muːgà:je:)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rà:wàjà:, rà:wàjà:, rà:waːju:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saːbo:, saːbuwa:, saːbàbbi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shùd̤ːi:, shuːdiːa:, shùddà:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Noun/adjectives. A certain number of words are used both as adjectives and as nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOUN/ADJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bàːko:, bàːkuwa:, bàːki:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bëːbe:, bëːbiːa:, bëːbaːje:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bàraːwɔ:, bàraːniːja:, bàraːji:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kùr̤ːma:, kùr̤ːma:, kùr̤ːme:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These can have a nominal function, e.g. in (Ex 68) where \texttt{tsɔː:faːfii:} is the noun ‘old people’:

Ex 69. \texttt{liːn na tsɔː:faːfii:} //
type.DEF POSL old.PL //
like those of old people. \(\text{HAU}_\text{BC}_\text{CONV}_04\text{.SP2}\text{.356}\)

whereas in (Ex 69) the predicative adjective \texttt{tsɔː:foː:fin} ‘old’ modifies the noun \texttt{tùmaːtir} ‘tomato’:

Ex 70. \texttt{tsɔː:foː:fin tùmaːtir}
old.PL -POS pos tomatoes
old tomatoes \(\text{HAU}_\text{BC}_\text{CONV}_04\text{.SP2}\text{.615}\)

\(\text{mafii:} \) is a short agent noun derived from \texttt{fi} ‘exceed’. 49
16.3 Derived adjectives

Agentive adjectives

We saw in § 12.1, p. 28 how agent nouns are derived from verbs with a ma-... -i: affix and a H-(L)-L-H tone pattern, e.g. manò:mi: (m.) ‘farmer’ (< no:m- ‘to farm’). Many of those derived from intransitive verbs can also function as adjectives, e.g. matsija:ți (adj.) ‘poor, destitute’, mahàuka:n (adj.) ‘mad’. Example: wani mahàukàfin dire:ba ‘a mad driver’; mahàukàtan karnu:ka ‘mad dogs’.

Past Participles

Adjectival past participles are produced from verbs by means of the tone-integrating suffix -aCCe) into where CC stands for a geminated copy of the preceding consonant. The feminine counterpart has an -iya: suffix, and the plural is -ur) e.g. dafafa: / dafafiyâ: / dafâftu: ‘cooked’ (< dafa: ‘cook’); rùbùtâffâ:e: / rùbùtaffa:yâ: / rùbùtâftu: ‘written’ (< rubù:ta: ‘write’).

Adjectives of Sensory Quality


Reduplicated adjectives

A highly productive derivation produces adjectives by full reduplication of common nouns with shortening of the original final vowel. The semantic result is an adjective meaning ‘X-like’ where X stands for the original noun, e.g. gi:țî: ‘salt’ > gi:țîr–gi:țî ‘salty’. Other examples are: gà:țî-gàː: ‘powdery’ (< gà:țî: ‘flour’); ruwa:ruwa ‘watery’ (< ruwa: ‘water’).

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17 Prepositions

Prepositions are the head of Prepositional phrases (cf. §15 above). They fall into three categories (1) basic prepositions; (2) compound prepositions; (3) possessive prepositions.

17.1 Basic prepositions


Many of these basic prepositions also function as conjunctions. Except for gà which takes the form gàre: when followed by a direct object pronoun, e.g. gàre: tà ‘by her’, all basic prepositions take independent pronouns as complements, e.g. sabò: dá ita ‘because of her’.

---

50 Newman (2000:46)
17.2 Compound prepositions
These are made up of an adverb followed by the preposition *dá*, e.g. *ban dá* ‘apart from’; *fije dá* ‘more than’; *gàme dá, tàːre dá* ‘together with’, etc.

17.3 Possessive prepositions
These prepositions are composed of an adverb or a noun bearing the short POS suffix *-n/-r/-t*. They are generally preceded by a basic preposition such as *à / dàgà / ta*, e.g. *a kân te:bùr* ‘on the table’. Here are a few examples: *bàːkin* ‘at the edge of, in exchange for’ (< *bàːkiː* ‘mouth’); *ʧıkìn* ‘inside’ (< *ʧiki* (adv.) ‘inside’); *kân* ‘on top of’ (< *kâi* ‘head’); *baːjan* ‘behind’ (< *baːja* ‘at the back’) *màimakon* ‘in exchange for’ (< *màimakoː* ‘replacement’). Possessive prepositions take possessive pronouns as complements, e.g. *kânsù* ‘on them’; *ʧıkintà* ‘on it’.

18 Universal Quantifiers

There exist two types of universals: (1) the global universal *duk/dukà*; (2) distributive universals based on the morpheme *koː*.

18.1 The global universal *duk/dukà*
The global quantifier *duk/dukà* ‘all’ can occur as a modifier, a pronoun, or an adverb:

- Modifier
Ex 71. *duk abu:buwaː* sun ʧànzà //
all thing.PL 3PL.PFV.NFOC change //
All things have changed. (HAU_BC_CONV_04.SP1.0514)

- Pronoun
Ex 72. *duk na kâ- n wànnan nèː* /
all POSL HEAD-POSL -POSL ANAPH COP1.NFOC /
It’s all because of that. (HAU_BC_CONV_03.SP2.062)

- Adverb
Ex 73. *duk in jaːtinjâː* taː ʧiːka /
all if 3SG.F.PFV.NFOC fill /
Whenever a girl is grown up, […] (HAU_BC_CONV_04.SP1.1018)

18.2 The distributive universal *koː*
The morpheme *koː* combined with question words builds a class of polyfunctional morphemes with a common meaning of universal quantifiers. They can be Pro-Nouns (‘anyone, whoever; anything, whatever’), Pro-Modifiers (‘any, whichever’) or Pro-Adverbs (‘any way, however’, etc.). See Table 23 below for a complete list and the corresponding Question Words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Universals</th>
<th>Question Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>everyone, whoever</td>
<td>ko:waː</td>
<td>wàː ‘who?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everything, whatever</td>
<td>ko:meː</td>
<td>mèː ‘what?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everywhere, wherever</td>
<td>ko:’inaː</td>
<td>inaː ‘where?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>always, whenever</td>
<td>ko:jaːufeː = ko:jaːufeː</td>
<td>jaːufeː = jaːufeː ‘when?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each, whichever one(s)</td>
<td>ko:wanneː (m.), ko:waːʧeː (f.), ko:waːdānneː (pl.)</td>
<td>wanneː, waːʧeː, waːdānneː ‘which one?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>every, whichever</td>
<td>ko:wanne (m.), ko:waːʧe (f.), ko:waːdānne (pl.)</td>
<td>wane (m.), waːʧe (f.), waːdānne (pl.) ‘which?’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
however much/many
in every, whatever way

koː nawà
nawà: “how much/many?”

koː(ː)jáː jáː
jáː: ‘how?’

Ex 74. basù ʧi koː meː ba //
NEG1.A.3PL.PFV eat anything NEG1B //
They hadn’t eaten anything. (HAU_BC_NARR_01_SP2_08)

Ex 75. koː waː akà ʧèː já ʧi //
everyone 4.PFV.FOC say 3SG.M.SBJV eat //
Everyone was told to eat. (HAU_BC_NARR_02_SP1_096)

18.3 Universal subordination
Subordinate clauses can be introduced by both global and distributive universals:

Ex 76. koː meː kakèː tadaː […]
anything 2SG.CONT.FOC saying […]
Whatever you say […] (HAU_BC_CONV_04_SP1_0670)

Ex 77. duk jandà klikà fijjàː //
all how 2SG.F.PFV.FOC get_ready //
Whenever you are ready. (HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP1_099)

19 Ideophones

Ideophones constitute a word class defined by semantic and phonological rather than syntactic properties. In other words, they are not a part of speech like nouns, verbs, or prepositions. They are “descriptive of sound, colour, smell, manner, appearance, state, action or intensity... [that is, they are words that are] vivid vocal images or representations of visual, auditory and other sensory or mental experiences”.51 They are characterized by highly specific meaning and collocation, function primarily as adjectives and adverbs, and are associated with expressive pronunciation, i.e. extra forcefulness or loudness, often with an intonational break, indicated in the examples below by a minor intonational break (/) and an arrow (↑)52:

Ex 78. taː ʧìka / ↑dam //
3SG.PFV.NFOC fill / very_big //
She had grown very big. (HAU_BC_CONV_04_SP1_1005-6)

20 Complex sentences

20.1 Coordination

‘And’

The conjunction da is used only to coordonate two NPs or two APs, and not to coordonate two clauses. A link between two clauses is rather expressed through simple juxtaposition, e.g. (Ex 78), sometimes reinforced by adverbial connectors, e.g. kuma ‘too’ when the connection is pragmatic or sei (kuma) or kaːnà ‘then’ for temporal succession. The connector kuma can appear either between the two conjoined clauses, e.g. (Ex 76) or between the subject pronouns and the verb of the second clause.

52 For a complete phonological, semantic, syntactic and intonational characterization of ideophones, see PN:242-259.
Ex 79. su: kò: sukà wutè: sukà tàfì ṣàfì -n -sù // 3PL as_for 3PL.PFV.FOC pass_by 3PL.PFV.FOC go river -POS. -1PL.POS // As for them, they continued [and] went to their river. (HAU_BC_NARR_01_SP1_096)

Ex 80. ʃiː kèː tàfìː sì à niː / kuma jakèː tàffàː ʃì = 3SG.M CONT.FOC feeding APPL 1SG.IDPT / too 3SG.M CONT.FOC support 1SG.BEN wàdèn harkàː -n kàràːtuː dà saùràː -n -sù // around affair -POS. education and remainder -POS. -3PL.POS // he is the one feeding me, [...] and he is the one supporting my education etc. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_238-40)

In simple juxtaposition of clauses (parataxis), TAMs play a part in the interpretation of the connection between them:

- The use of the Subjunctive as a relay TAM creates a stronger connection between juxtaposed clauses.
- A [-FOC] Perfective following a [+FOC] Continuous will indicate an event intruding into a background situation.
- The relationships expressed by the aspectual system can be specified by adverbial coordinators, e.g. saì 'then'.

‘Or’

Disjunctive coordination is expressed with ko: ‘or’, ko: ... ko: ‘either ... or’, combined optionally with the particles kuma ‘too’ or ma: ‘also, even’.

Ex 81. tòː ʃiː wànnàn dînkin dîn kùkàn sàidàː nèː // well 3SG.M PROX edible_LEAVES DEF 2PL.HAB sell COP.1.NFOC // koː kùkàn / bàːjâr ʃiː nèː / à ɡîda // or 2PL.HAB / give.CAUS 3SG.M COP.1.NFOC at home // Well those leaves, did you sell them or did you... give it to the (people of the) house ? (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP1_021-3)

‘But’ and ‘however’

àmma: ‘but’ and duk dà hàkà, ‘however’ conjoin two clauses while contrasting them:

Ex 82. idàn tàːkì -n na gârądîjáː kèː nàn // if manure -DEF POSL old_times COP.1.FOC ANAPH // zaːsù dàukèː akèː / zùbàː màfì // FUT.3PL take 4.CONT.FOC pour 3SG.M // àmmaː jântu mûkàn hàdâː dà na bâtuːrèː // but now 1PL.HAB join with POSL European // If... it were manure as in the old days, they would take it and spread it on, but now, we mix it with chemical fertilizers. (HAU_BC_CONV_02_SP2_132-5)
20.2 Completives

Completives are clauses functioning as the direct object of: (i) a full verb; (ii) a nominal predicate; (iii) an impersonal verb; (iv) a non-verbal copular expression.

(i) Full verbs, e.g. sô: ‘want’:
Some verbs, (e.g. sô: ‘want’) take a direct complement phrase without a complementizer, Cf. (Ex 82) below. Predicates of saying, thought, etc., whether verbal or nominal, use the complementizer wai. The general complementizer is ṭêwâ:, derived from the verbal noun of the verb ṭê: ‘say’. Another complementizer is the particle dà.

Ex 83. gâ: ji ba:kà sô: à ta:ji /
COP4 3SG.M NEG5.2SG.M,CONT,NFOC wanting 4SBJV rise /
Here you are, you don’t want to leave [...] (HAU BC CONV 04 SP2 886)

(ii) Verbal phrase

Ex 84. na: sâ; ţ'ai wai zâi zo: /
1SG.PFV,NFOC put life COMP FUT.3SG.M come /
I hope he will come. (lit. I have set mind that...) (BC)

Ex 85. mun ji fa:ti: -n ṭïki: dâ kukà zo:
1PL.PFV,NFOC do white -POSL stomach with 2PL,CONT,FOC come
We are happy (lit. did white belly) that you came. (BC)

(iii) Impersonal verbs, e.g. kasânfe: ‘happen’:

Ex 86. tô: jânzu ja kasânfe: ṭê:wa: jânzu /
well now 3SG.M.PFV,FOC become that_is now /

in kukà sâ:mi wânna kuɗi:
if 2PL,CONT,FOC get ANAPH money

kukân sarrâfa: su nê: wâɗen sajo: dabbo:bi: /
2PL.HAB invest 3PL COP1.NFOC around sell.DIR cattle -PL /
Well now it happens that now, if you get some money, you invest by buying animals.
(HAU BC CONV 02 SP1 033-4)

(iv) Copular constructions:

Ex 87. wâuta: nê: gâ Musa: dâ jà ṭi ba:ji:
foolishness COP1 near Musa with 3S.SBJV consume credit
It was stupid for Musa to take a credit. (BC)

20.3 Subordination: Adverbial clauses

Subordination is introduced by the following conjunctions:

- har ‘as far as; up to, until, even, etc.’, denotes the continuation of an action until a qualitative degree is reached, entailing a change of state;
- sai, often implying or combined with negation, means ‘except, only, unless, etc. ‘ and denotes a progression towards a goal;
- dâ ‘when, rather than’;
- ba:yan (dâ) ‘after’;
- dô:min (=don) ‘because’ when followed by a Perfective; ‘so that’ when followed by a Subjunctive;
- idan (=in) ‘if’ (conditional)
- dâ:, in dâ: ‘if’ (hypothesis, contrary to fact)

PN:134
53 As with most conjunctions, har and sai can function as prepositions as well, e.g. sai gô:be: ‘bye bye’ (lit. until tomorrow); an ji hanjâ: dâgâ Kanô: har Dâur: ‘they built a road from Kano to Daura’.
• *kà:fin* (= *kàː fiːn*, =*kàː mi n*, = *kàː mi n*) ‘before’
• *kàmar* (= *tàmkàr*) ‘as if’
• *ko*: ‘even if’
• *ko: dá* ‘as soon as’
• *màimakon* ‘instead of’
• *muddìn* ‘as long as’
• *sàbà: dà* ‘because’
• *tàmkàr* (= *kàmar*): ‘as if’
• *tun* ‘while’; ‘even before’ when followed by *kà:fin* ‘before’ or a negative clause;
• *tun dà* ‘since (temporal)’
• *tun (dà yakè)* ‘since (factive)’

Here are but a few examples.

Ex 88. *sel akà ji ta du:kà -n -fi* / then 4.PVF.FOC do DUR beating -POS1 -3SG.M.POS /

| har akà ji mi tô: fì:wo: //
| 4.PVF.FOC do 3SG.M wound // |

Then they kept beating him until he was wounded. (HAU BC NARR 03.46-7)

Ex 89. *fì: ità wànnan ga:nuwaː / an sa:mo: tà neː //*
3SG.M 3SG.F ANAPH rampart / 4.PVF.NFOC get.DIR 3SG.F COP1.NFOC /

| dò: min dukà gàri -nì dá akà tʃè: makà akwái ga:nuwaː / |
because all town -DEF REL 4.PVF.FOC say 2SG.M COP3 rampart /

Those city walls, we had them, because whenever they tell you about a town, there are city walls. (HAU BC CONV 02 SP2 259-61)

Ex 90. *in dáː janàː nan ai za:sù zo: sù ko:jar //*
if CTF 3SG.M.CONT.NFOC ANAPH indeed FUT.3PL come 3PL.SBJV learn.CAUS //

If he had been there they would have come to teach. (HAU BC CONV 03 SP2 017)

21 Negation

P. Newman (2000:357-365) identifies five types of negation:

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21.1 NEG1. All TAMs except the Continuous and Subjunctive

The discontinuous negation *bàː/bà ... ba* occurs with TAMs other than the Continuous and the Subjunctive. The first part of the morpheme (*bàː/bà*) occurs immediately before the TAM. The second part (*ba*) occurs at the end of the VP, after the core arguments of the verb, but before adjuncts. Short basic adverbs tend to be included within the syntactic scope of negation.

Cf. TAMs and their meaning, Tables 1 to 8.
We were not used to soldiers. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_155)

We did not really use it. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_548)

In the perfective, the first and third person markers of the subject pronouns contract with the bà of the negative marker, e.g. bà ni > bàn; bà ja > bái.

The length of the vowel in the first part of the morpheme varies with dialects and idiolects. In SH, it is (1) always short in the perfective and the future; (2) usually short in the allative and the potential; (3) normally short but also long in the future; (4) normally long but also short in the habitual.

21.2 NEG2. Negative Continuous TAM

Like the subject pronouns of the Continuous, the negative marker has a H tone and long -a-. It negates locatives and statives, as well as Continuous verbal sentences. Examples:

We don't do millet. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_389)

You know, as he did not have any grass [...]. (HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP1_130)

21.3 NEG3. Existential and “have” sentences

bá: / ba:bu is the negative counterpart of àkwai. It negates existential sentences and “have” sentences:

There were no buildings. (HAU_BC_CONV_01_SP2_314)

21.4 NEG4. Non-verbal sentences and NPs

The disjunctive bà: ... ba negative marker negates the copula ne:/fe:/ne: in all its uses as sentence copula and as focus marker. In both cases, the second part of the marker is inserted between the copula and the constituent it is attached to (93).

Isn't it true? (HAU_BC_CONV_02_SP1_031)

The old kind [i.e., manure] won't do since there's no use we have for it. (HAU_BC_CONV_02_SP2_103-5)
21.5 NEG5. Subjunctive

The prohibitive marker *kàda* (=*skâr, kar*) serves to negate sentences with a Subjunctive TAM. The meaning will vary beyond that of a prohibitive proper, according to the numerous contexts in which the positive counterpart of the Subjunctive occurs.

Ex 98. *tundâ wuqi kar tà faːrā tà tabà*

since at_place NEG5 3SG.F.SBJV begin 3SG.F.SBJV touch

*wànnan ṭamà: tâ ṭi ʃi fi //

ANAPH hemp 3SG.F.SBJV eat 3SG.M //

she should not even begin to touch that hemp and eat it. ([HAU_BC_NARR_02_SP1_110](#))

22 Question

22.1 Wh-Questions

Apart from echo-questions where the question-word can remain *in situ* with TAM unchanged, Wh-Questions are a typical case of syntactic focus with the questioned constituent replaced by a pro-question word and moved to the front of sentence. The TAM of the sentence is replaced with a [+FOC] TAM. Hausa question words are:

- ‘who?’ *wâː (=wàːneː nèː) m., wàːʧeːʧeː f., su wàː (=su wàːneː nèː) pl.; wàːjèː m., su wàːjèː pl.*
- ‘what?’ *mèː (=mèːneː nèː) m., mèːʧeːʧèː f. (rare), su mèːneː nèː pl.; mèːjèː m.*
- ‘which’ *(adj) wânè m., wàʧe f., wàɗànne pl.*
- ‘which one(s) *(pro) wànnèː m., wàʧʃeː f., wàɗànneː pl.*
- ‘where?’ *inaː*
- ‘when?’ *jàuʃ / jàuʃeː*
- ‘how?’ *(ta) jàːjàː*
- ‘how many/much?’ *nawà*
- ‘why?’ *don mèː, sabòː dà meː*

Ex 99. *an ʃkàːmàː wàː neː //

4.PFV.NFOC catch who COP1.NFOC //

They caught who? ([HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP1_116](#))

Ex 100. *an ɗjimàː ʃkàː inaː zàː ni //

4.PFV.NFOC spend_time where DIR 1SG //

Later on, where will I go? ([HAU_BC_CONV_03_SP1_043](#))

The intonation pattern is that of declarative sentences.

22.2 Yes/No questions

Yes/No questions preserve the word order of the declarative sentence but are marked in one or more of the following four ways: (1) by addition of the q-morpheme; (2) by question intonation; (3) by a sentence-final interrogative tag; and (4) by a sentence-initial interrogative word (Newman 2000:497ff.).

---

56 This is an example of WH-Question with *in situ* focus, appearing in cases of echo-questions.
The Q-morpheme

P. Newman (2000:493) describes a tonemic morpheme added to the end of sentences containing a question-word. He insists that this is not an intonational phenomenon, since no specific intonation pattern is associated with Wh-Questions, which share a single pattern with declarative sentences.

The morpheme, which consists of length and L tone, attaches itself to the immediately preceding syllable. The morpheme serves (a) to lengthen short final vowels, and (b) to add a low tone to words ending in a high tone (thereby producing a fall). If the last word in the sentence is consonant-final or if it ends in a vowel that is already long, then adding the length component has no surface consequences. Similarly, if the preceding syllable already ends in an L tone or in a fall (= HL on a single syllable), then the L-tone component of the morpheme attaches vacuously and has no effect on the surface tone. (op.cit.)

In SH, the Q-morpheme does not consistently add L tone to Yes-No questions, only length, resulting in a contrast between zâi fita ‘He will go out’ vs. zâi fitaː? ‘Will he go out?’ (PN:497).

Ex 101. wàː zâi fita + ? > wàː zâi fitaː?
Who will come? (tone and length added)

jâufè ta halhù + ? > jâufè ta halhùː?
When did she give birth? (length added)

mèː sukà sajâr + ? > mèː sukâ sajâr?
What did they sell? (tone added)

inaː ka ga jaːr on?
Where did you see the boy? (vacuous addition) (PN:497).

Question intonation

Despite dialectal as well as individual variation, one can characterize the intonation of Yes/No questions in Hausa as follows:

The main feature of the “classic” pattern (described in standard grammars) is key raising (= register shift) before the last H tone of the sentence. The key raising raises the pitch of the H tone and also of succeeding L tones. (A final H-L sequence, for example, surfaces as something that sounds like an extra-high pitch followed by a high or mid.) (PN: 497)

Sentence-final question tags

The particles koː, baː, neː, kûwa, fâː function as sentence-final question tags. When key raising applies, they will surface with a long vowel and a falling tone, e.g. kaː dži bâː? (< baː) ‘Did you hear? ’; jaː aûli Aljâ nêː? (< neː+l) ‘Did he marry Aisha?’

Sentence-initial interrogative words

The three interrogative words found at the start of Yes/No questions are: koː (cf. the disjunctive koː ... koː … ‘either … or’), anjaː (for questions introducing a serious doubt) and fîn (for questions seeking confirmation).

Ex 102. koː bàː hakâ ba //
whether NEG4A like this NEG8 //
Isn’t it true? (lit. or is it not so?) (HAU_BC_CONV_02_SP1_031)
22.3 Indirect questions

Indirect WH-questions are introduced by the complementizer ko: ‘whether’, followed by a WH-question word, e.g.

Ex 103. ñân san ko: wà: ja ji hakà ba
NEG1.A.1S.PVF know whether who 3SG.PVF.FOC do like_this NEG8
I don’t know who acted this way. (BC)

Embedded Y/N-questions are introduced by the complementizers ko: or in with the usual change in pronouns but without the addition of any other word:

Ex 104. sai saɾki: ya tàmbàj-e: ji
then king 3SG.PVF.FOC ask-ACC 3SG
in jana: sôn já zaunà: waɗensà
if 3SG.CONT.NFOC wanting.POL 3SG.SBJV sit near.POL.3SG
Then the king asked him if he wanted to sit next to him. (BC)

The intonation pattern is that of declarative sentences.

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