1. The predicating particles

In this paper I wish to consider the status of three words in Hausa which have been called 'predicating particles' by Kraft. These words

1 Vide A Study of Hausa Syntax, vol. I, pp. 136ff.; vol. II, pp. 51ff.; "The Morpheme nā in Relation to a Broader Classification of Hausa Verbals," p. 238. Kraft also includes the words dà 'there is...' and gàa 'there...is; behold; voilà' among the predicating particles. I will not be dealing here with these two words, other than to note that dà seems to be some type of clause case marking or complementizer occurring optionally in âkwai clauses, and which can condition the optional deletion of âkwai: e.g. dà âkwai dooyàa = dà dooyàa 'there is a yam'. I am at a loss to link this particle with dà 'and, with', although there is no morphological difference. The use of dà to introduce time adverbials such as dà raanaa 'during the day-time' and dà karfèe biyu 'at two o'clock' seems to me in some ways similar to its use in the existential predication, but I have not found sufficient evidence to link both uses to a common syntactic basis. In A Study of Hausa Syntax, Kraft identifies the existential negative baà 'there is no...' with the baà which marks the negative continuative, as found in baà shì dà dooyàa 'He doesn't have any yams'. There is no evidence in favor of equating these two forms, other than the trivial facts that they both are negatives of some sort and that they look alike. In the 1964 article cited above in this note, Kraft revised his position, and has treated the baà's as separate entities. For Gregersen's comments in criticism of Kraft's analysis, see "Some Competing Analyses in Hausa," p. 44, note 3. He states that "we shall probably have to reject Kraft's attempt to set up an anomalous sentence type without any kind of subject at all." I agree with Gregersen only insofar as Kraft's treatment is taken to represent the ultimate (= deep structure) level of analysis, rather than a surface structure typology. Gregersen's objection that the predicating particles "do not constitute a substitution group in the usual sense (dà may be followed by a disjunctive pronoun but gàa never is, âkwai and baabù can occur as independent utterances, e.g. as answers to questions, but dà and gàa cannot)" and that therefore Kraft's analysis "seems untenable on other grounds as well", is misleading in that the criterions Gregersen poses are irrelevant to the question of underlying syntactic equivalence. I do agree that gàa should not be lumped together with the existential predications at the deep structure level. The significance of the fact that both gàa and the existentials take following NP complements rather than "normally" preceding NP subjects, the main point of Kraft's analysis, lies in its universal ramifications, which I touch on in section 5 of this paper.
have a verbal character, but nevertheless differ from ordinary verbs in that they do not occur with a preceding subject NP and person-aspect prefix, but rather take an immediately following NP complement. These words are:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{àkwai} \hspace{1cm} 'there is ...'
  \item \textit{baabù} \hspace{1cm} 'there is no ...'
  \item \textit{baà} \hspace{1cm} 'there is no ...'
\end{itemize}

Semantically, these predicating particles share the feature that they make an assertion about the existence of the referent of the complement NP. Examples of their use with a noun complement are shown in (1) - (4) below.

\begin{enumerate}
  \item \textit{àkwai dooyàa} \hspace{1cm} 'there is a yam'
  \[
  \text{[dooyàa (n. fem.) 'yam(s)']} \]
  \item \textit{àkwai dooyàa?} \hspace{1cm} 'is there a yam?'
  \item \textit{baabù dooyàa} \hspace{1cm} 'there is no yam'
  \item \textit{baà dooyàa} \hspace{1cm} 'there is no yam'
\end{enumerate}

When the complement is a pronoun, it is taken from the set of direct object pronouns in the case of \textit{àkwai}, but from the set of independent pronouns in that of \textit{baabù} and \textit{baà}. This is illustrated in examples (5) through (7) below, where \textit{tà} is the third person feminine direct object pronoun, and \textit{ita} is the corresponding independent pronoun.

\begin{enumerate}
  \item \textit{àkwai tà} \hspace{1cm} 'there is one; it is to be had'
  \item \textit{baabù ita} \hspace{1cm} 'there is none'
  \item \textit{baà ita} \hspace{1cm} 'there is none'
\end{enumerate}

If the identity of the NP complement is clear from context, it can be and is preferably left "understood" (a phenomenon called 'zero anaphora' by Russell Schuh), and both \textit{àkwai} and \textit{baabù} can then stand alone as complete sentences. \textit{Baà}, however, cannot by itself constitute a sentence. These facts about zero anaphora are illustrated in examples (8) through (10).

\begin{enumerate}
  \item \textit{(ii,) àkwai} \hspace{1cm} '(yes,) there is [i.e., in answer to (2) above]'\end{enumerate}
However:

\[(aa'aa) \text{ baabù} \quad '(no,) \text{ there is not}'\]

2. \textbf{Baa from baabù, not vice versa}

As might be expected, some Hausanists have seen a connection between the words \textit{bàà} and \textit{baabù}, which, though differing slightly in distribution, mean exactly the same thing. Some grammars and dictionaries merely list the two as variants of one another, but a considerable number give \textit{baabù} as derived from the combination of \textit{bàà} plus \textit{àbù} 'thing', giving \textit{bàà àbù} 'there is no thing', which presumably has contracted to the form \textit{baabù}. The earliest reference I could find to this etymology was in Charles Henry Robinson's \textit{Dictionary of the Hausa Language}.²

I should like to challenge here this analysis of \textit{baabù} as \textit{bàà àbù}, and suggest instead somewhat the reverse situation: that \textit{bàà} is the contracted form of \textit{baabù}. I am positing a synchronic, relatively

²Third edition, revised and enlarged, 1913, p. 23. Robinson also gives the etymology in his \textit{Hausa Grammar}, fifth edition, revised, 16th impression, 1959. The first editions of the \textit{Grammar} and the \textit{Dictionary} were published in 1897 and 1899, respectively, but I have not seen these earlier works. Adam Mischlich, who was harshly critical of Robinson's 1899 \textit{Dictionary}, also carried the etymology in his \textit{Wörterbuch der Hausasprache}, 1906. Until examination of Robinson's first edition proves otherwise, I shall assume that it was he, and not Mischlich, who introduced the analysis in question. I could not find mention of this treatment of \textit{baabù} in Schön's 1862 Hausa grammar nor in his 1876 dictionary, the last lexicographic work on Hausa published before Robinson's.

Other authors who have given essentially the same analysis were F. W. Taylor, in \textit{A Practical Hausa Grammar}, second edition, 1959; the first edition, published in 1923, was unavailable to me. D. A. Olderogge, editor, \textit{Kamus na Hausa=Rashanci}, first edition, 1963. The other grammars and dictionaries which I have consulted have been mute on the question of the relative primacy of \textit{bàà} or \textit{baabù}. Those that do claim that \textit{baabù} is from \textit{bàà àbù} do not note whether this is to be understood synchronically, diachronically, or from both viewpoints. In this paper I use the terms "analysis" and "etymology" interchangeably and without implication of a diachronic claim. My own proposals are to be viewed from a synchronic standpoint.
late optional phonological rule which deletes the last syllable of baabù before an NP complement. We can write such a rule in the form given in (11), below.

(11) Optional truncation of baabù before complement NP

| opt          | baabù + baa / NP |

I base my case for rejection of the baà abù derivation on the following four points:

a. The full hypothesized underlying form, baà abù, is itself a fully complemented predication, and following it with another NP is ill-formed in Hausa. Thus we can have (12), but not (13):

(12) baabù dooyàa 'there is no yam'

but

(13) *baà àbù dooyàa [for the meaning of (12)]

b. The combination abù + NP (with no genitival linker) is found nowhere in the language, and it would be difficult to conceive of what such a combination would mean.

c. From what is now known of how tone works in Hausa, we would expect that the contraction of baà abù into one word would come out as [baàbù], not [baabù], since low tones (here, specifically, the low mora of baà) are always retained in contractions. (Cf. kànsà [not *kànsà] 'his head' [kàl 'head' + -nsà 'of his'].) Conversely, the expected tone on the monosyllabic resulting from contraction from an underlying high-low disyllabic word such as baabù would be precisely

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3Presented in this form, the rule does not really capture the fact that the last syllable of baabù is deleted, with subsequent tone contraction. I have written the rule this way in order to avoid the question of whether it is -bù or -bà which gets deleted when the truncation rule applies. The latter case might be appropriate in case the suggestion presented in section 4 is accepted. If the second syllable were not deleted, it would obligatorily change to bù.
the falling tone we do observe in baâ. (Cf. the two variants of the negative continuative prefix: baa-yâa and its contracted form baâ.)

d. Finally, the original hypothesis seems to have been based on a false analogy drawn from the corresponding words in the Kanuri language. In his dictionary, Robinson [p. 23] invites the comparison of the "similar use in Kanuri of ago something, and bago nothing." The available information concerning existential predications in Kanuri does not preclude the possibility that the lexical items àkwai 'there is ...' and 'negative morpheme' in Hausa are of Kanuri provenance. After looking more deeply into what seems to be going on in Kanuri, however, we find that the assumption of borrowing lends no support to the claim that baabù comes from baà àbù. In Johannes Lukas' description of Kanuri [1937:68], bâ is a shortened form of bágò 'be not', where the gò in bágò is the verb 'to be'. The relation of ago 'thing' to bágò seems illusory.

In addition to these reasons for rejecting the old derivation, I offer the following two arguments in support of the proposed truncation rule given in (11):

e. This approach neatly accounts for the non-occurrence of baà in cases of zero anaphora [examples (9) and (10)], since it is precisely in those cases that the conditioning environment of a following NP complement is missing. Without this explanation, we would have an anomalous constraint on baà, making our description of the facts more complex than necessary.

f. For verbs and certain particles in Hausa, the shortening of a final syllable before a non-incorporated NP complement is a widespread phenomenon, and the existence of such a shortening rule for baabù would be in accord with these other cases. Once we have accepted the analysis of baà as the shortened form.

4This deletion of the verb 'to be' in the negative has its counterpart in Hausa, as we shall see in the next section.
of baabù, our next task is to specify what relation, if any, exists between it and àkwai, the word which baabù negates.

3. The phrase structure difference between àkwai and baabù

First, let us note the significance of the observation, presented in examples (5) through (7), that àkwai takes direct object pronouns, while baabù and baà take independent pronouns. In this respect, àkwai acts like a transitive verb, while baabù and baà do not. The reason for this divergent behavior lies, I believe, in the fact that àkwai is a verb whereas baabù is not.

Let us consider the Hausa object pronoun incorporation rule which readjusts the hierarchical structure of the phrase marker to render an object pronoun part of the preceding verb in the surface structure. This rule may be used as a basis for distinguishing between the direct object pronouns and the independent pronouns: the former are pronouns which have been so incorporated, while the latter are ones which have not. In the case of àkwai, then, I am postulating a level such as that illustrated in (14) [below], which, upon application of object pronoun incorporation, is transformed into the phrase structure of (15), with subsequent phonological reduction of ita to tà and tonal polarization to the (high) last syllable of àkwai.

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The object pronoun incorporation rule accounts for the difference in form between the direct object pronouns in pairs of sentences such as (a) and (b):

(a) Audù yaa kaawoo tà
   Audu he-completive bring her
   'Audu brought her.'

(b) Audù yaa kaawoo wà Gambo ità
   Audu he-completive bring to Gambo her
   'Audu brought her to Gambo.'

In sentence (a), the direct object pronoun tà is phonologically part of the verb, since its tone is completely determined by that of the verb. In sentence (b), no object pronoun incorporation can take place, since the indirect object phrase wà Gambo comes between the verb and the direct object pronoun. In this case, the non-incorporated pronoun ità acts phonologically independent of the verb and retains its high tone regardless of the preceding tones.
The next question to be considered is what there is about baabù that makes it behave unlike a verb. I submit that the answer is that baabù is essentially a form of the negative morpheme — which in other contexts appears as the discontinuous bà(a) ... ba — and that the existential verb àkwai is present in the deep structure of every sentence containing baabù, but is deleted before the level of surface structure. We can represent this at a first approximation with a rule like that in (16):

(16) Deletion of àkwai after NEG

àkwai → ∅ / NEG

Now, a rule such as (16) might seem a bit strange were it not for other similar rules which can be written not only for Hausa, but for quite a few other languages as well, where either existential copulas or aspect morphemes are deleted in the negative. Specifically, in Hausa we find aspect-morpheme-deletion in the completive and continuative aspects under negation. On the basis of the similarity of the aspect-morpheme-deletion phenomenon to the deletion process described by the rule in (16), I would suggest that the deletion of àkwai is best regarded as a specific instance of that more general rule, so that the rule in (16) is more generally written as in (17), below:

(17) Aspect morpheme deletion under negation

[+V, +Aspect, ....] → ∅ / NEG
The dots in the feature specification of the aspectual verb represent the feature or features needed to uniquely delimit the class which includes the completive, continuative, and existential (àkwai) aspects while excluding all other aspects, since the latter do not participate in this deletion process under negation.

Note that a rule like this deletion rule makes sense only if we conceive of àkwai as a verb of the same class as that of the aspect verbs. It is interesting to observe in this regard that we have an additional reason for classing àkwai together with the other aspect verbs: namely, the fact that a well-formed, non-elliptical sentence in Hausa must have some aspect marker on its main verb, unless it is a copular sentence such as with àkwai. This fact suggests that àkwai and the other aspect verbs share the selectional feature that they may be the highest predication in a well-formed sentence. A treatment of Hausa aspect which did not acknowledge that the aspects were best represented in deep structure as verbs would still have to recognize this structural similarity between the various aspects and the existential predicate, àkwai.

4. Baabù from baa-ba?

The fact that baabù seems to be a reduplicate form of a simple ba(a) morpheme may either be a superficial idiosyncracy of no special significance, or else it may be related to the regular discontinuous negative morpheme, bà(a) ... ba. That is, it may be the case that the two syllables in baabù are actually the first and second negative morphemes in a construction such as that in (18):

(18) Hypothetical source for baabù:

```
    VP
      /\  \
     /  \\
   NEG V NEG
  \  |  /
   ba àkwai ba
```

When àkwai is deleted in the presence of the negative, we are left with the form shown in (19):
(19) After àkwai is deleted from (18):

```
VP
  /\  
NEG NEG
 / \
ba ba
```

The form in (19) would then change to baabù by a minor phonological rule which would account for vowel length, tone, and the -u of the second syllable. I must admit that the evidence for the existence in Hausa of the phonological processes needed in such an analysis is not readily forthcoming, although on the other hand I cannot show that this is not indeed what actually happens. Thus the question of whether the apparent reduplication in baabù is traceable to that found in the regular discontinuous negatives must await further research, and I am merely mentioning the possibility here.

5. Subject inversion

Before concluding this paper, I wish to deal with the matter of word order. In most kinds of sentences, the subject NP comes first, before the verb. In the case of both àkwai and baabù, I would suggest a simple rule of subject postposing, which would carry a subject NP from its underlying position on the left of the sentence to a position on the right of the verb phrase. This rule is illustrated in (20) and (21), which respectively show the phrase structure before and after application:

(20) Before subject postposing

```
S
  /\  
NP VP
  |   |
  V   V
  dooyàa àkwai
```

(21) After subject postposing

```
S
  /\  
VP NE
  |   |
  V   NP
  àkwai dooyàa
```
A dividend of our analysis of baabù as being derived from the negative plus àkwai is that this subject postposing rule need be stated only once -- for àkwai -- and will take care of both the affirmative àkwai and the negative baabù. Thus this distinctive syntactic property -- the fact that they are predicating particles in surface structure, rather than run-of-the-mill verbs -- is due to an underlying syntactic equivalence.

One might speculate as to why the language would have such a subject postposing rule in the first place. We note that it is the unmarked situation in languages -- English included -- to place the existential/locative copula before the true subject. English inserts a dummy there in subject position, while the true subject is postposed to the right of the main verb, yielding (23) from (22):

(22) A blonde is (in my soup).
(23) There is a blonde (in my soup).

The reason for such rules probably lies in the increased efficiency they provide by reducing left branching and the concommitant load on short-term memory.

6. Summary
In summary, then, we have taken a look at three particles of existential predication in Hausa. We have considered and rejected a time-honored but deficient analysis of two of them, and proposed a new analysis of all three particles which integrates the various otherwise anomalous facts about these words into the independently motivated system of rules of the language as a whole.
REFERENCES


