

MOVEMENT OPERATIONS IN THE BURA LANGUAGE

BY

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**FEBRUARY, 2017
DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this work is the product of my own research efforts, undertaken under the supervision of Mal. Abubakar G. X. Abdullahi, and I have not presented it and will not present elsewhere for the award of a degree or certificate. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the research work for this dissertation and its subsequent preparation, by Mamman Mohammed Yamta SPS/12/MHA/00013 and were carried out under my supervision.

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This dissertation is dedicated to my Late father Malam Yamta Mainashi Gulani.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Adj	-	adjective
Adv	-	adverb
A.D	-	after death
AGR	-	agreement
AGRP	-	agreement phrase
AP	-	adjectival phrase
ASP	-	aspect
CHAP.	-	chapter
COP.	-	copula
CP	-	complementizer phrase
DEF	-	definite
DP	-	determiner phrase
D-structure	-	deep structure
ECP	-	empty category principle
EMP.	-	emphatic
EST	-	extended standard theory
GB	-	government and binding
FOC.	-	focus
FUT.	-	future
HAB.	-	habitual
H	-	head
INFL	-	inflection
IOM	-	indirect object marker
IP	-	inflectional phrase

LF	-	logical form
N	-	noun
Neg	-	negative
Negp	-	negative phrase
P	-	preposition
Perf.	-	perfective
Pl.	-	plural
PP	-	prepositional phrase
Prep.	-	Preposition
prog.	-	progressive
Prt.	-	particles
Q	-	qualifier
?	-	question marker
S	-	sentence
S-structure	-	surface structure
T	-	trace
[+T]	-	topicalization
TMS	-	tense marker system
TNS	-	tense
TP	-	tense phrase
V	-	verb
VP	-	verb phrase
Wh	-	wh-words
\	-	low tone marker
/	-	high tone marker

- * - indicate ungrammatical sentence
- ∅ - unmarked features

ABSTRACT

Movement operations are one of the syntactic phenomenon whereby head-to-head movement and phrasal movement are taken into consideration. This study focuses on movement operations in Bura language, based on conditions, rules and principles governing the movement operation that apply to all natural languages Bura language belongs to Chadic group languages sub-group of the Afro-Asiatic phylum. It is classified as a member of Bata-Marghi group. The study aims to deal on non-operator movement in Bura language, in term of head-to-head and phrasal movements by using phrase markers and sentential representations.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

The term Syntax according to many scholars is concerned with the rules and principles, which govern the sentence structure of individual language. There are many attempts to describe languages in terms of such rules. This research work limits itself to the study of movement operations of Bura language, based on government and binding theory approach. Government Binding theory is the theoretical frameworks that is adopted as a model of approach in this work (c.f. Chomsky, 1989, Radford, 1997, 2004, 2009).

According to Fromkin et al (2011:78) one of the important role of the syntax is to describe the relationship between the meaning of a particular group of words and the arrangement of those words. And also they elaborate that the rules of the Syntax also specify the grammatical relations of a sentence, such as subject and direct object. In addition, syntactic rules also specify other constraints that sentences must adhere to. The syntactic rules reveal the grammatical relations among the words of a sentence as well as their order and hierarchical organization.

In addition, the study is limit to different types of sentences in Bura language. The study also intends to describe different types of theories, principles and conditions associated with movement operations which are applicable to natural languages.

1.2 Background of the Study

The background of this work is the study of the movement operations that operates in Bura language. The study focuses on the movement operation in the language, and the rules, principles, and conditions governing the syntactic movement are going to be considered in the study. The research work focuses only on the non operator movement i.e. head to head movement and phrasal movement in Bura language.

1.3 Aim and Objective of the Study

The aim of this study is to study the possible movement operations that occur in Bura language. The various syntactic components, theories and principles, which constitute the movement operation, will be examined. The objectives of the study are to study the movement operations in Bura language.

1.4 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study is focus only on non operator movement i.e. head to head and phrasal movement in the Bura language whereby operator movement is concerned with the movement of wh-words. The study is based on the data collected from books, journals, and Bura native speakers.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study would help in the development of Bura language and also provide a study of movement operations in Bura language, which would boost the literature in the language.

1.6 Hypothesis of the Research

There are many research hypotheses regarding the movement operation in other languages. This research work is based on theories, principles and conditions associated with movement operation, which are applicable to all

natural languages. The study is going to check and observe the movement operations in Bura language.

1.7 Genetic Classification of Bura Language

Greenberg (1963) classified Bura under the Chadic group languages, sub group of the Afro-Asiatic phylum. It is classified as a member of Bata-Marghi group, which includes Kilba, Marghi, Chibok, Tera, Hona, Higi, Gude and Holma. Similarly it has been observed that there is a wave of interactions with account for the similarities in the above languages. They are closely related, characterized by almost identical sound systems. There is a great similarity in morphology and syntax with a high percentage of shared vocabulary as cited in Muazu (2010).

1.7.1 Bura Language

The term Bura used to refer to the people, the land and the language as obtained in Davies (1954). It is further stated in Davies (1954) that the people is product of a migratory movement of Yamtara 'wala' from Kanem Borno around 500AD as a result of the Arabs incursion into North Africa. According to Badejo (1987), the language is classified as a member of the Bata-Marghi of Chadic family under Afro-Asiatic phylum.

Bura language has two distinct varieties of dialects as identified in Davies (1954). The two Bura dialects are classified into Eastern and Western dialects called pabər. He also pointed out that the two dialects are mutually intelligible differing mostly in phonetic variations, as cited in Abubakar (2005).

According to Muazu (2010:15) "There is no documented book about the earlier history and migration of the Bura people to their present day abode in

Nigeria. But there are several oral traditions about their migration and settlement. The Bura people claim descent from Yemen in the Middle-East, after migrating from North Africa to Chad Basin area around 500AD”.

Muazu (2010) argues that “the word Bura” refers both to the kingdom, the people as well as to language. Outsiders refer to the native speakers of Bura language as “Babur-Bura”. Davies (1954:56) as cited in Muazu (2010) identifies two dialects in Bura language namely: Bura and Pabər. The Bura dialect is spoken in the Eastern part of Bura land in the following areas: Marama, Kwajjafa, Debiro, Sakwa, Shaffa, and Tashan Alade. On the other hand Pabər dialect is spoken in Central and Northern part of Bura land in the following towns and villages: Biu, Miringa, Gunda, Gur, and it is regarded as the dialect of the ruling class. The Pabər dialect is also spoken in Gulani and Gujba in the present Yobe State, while the Babur dialect spoken in Garkixa, a town under Gombi local Government area in Adamawa State. The dialect that is spoken in Gujba and Gulani are considered in the study.

Similarly, Badejo (1987) also identifies two distinct dialects among the Bura language, which are western dialect (spoken south-west of Biu) and the eastern dialect (spoken in the central and eastern part of Bura land. The Bura are mostly Christian due to the contact with church of Brethen while Pabər are mostly Muslims due to the earlier contact with Islam. The population of Bura language is estimated about over 250,000 based on the census of the 1991/1992 and mostly the recent one.

1.7.2.1 Bura Consonants

Bura sounds system as enumerated by the Committee on Bura Language Orthography. Badejo and Committee on Bura Language Orthography (1987) provide the Bura sounds system. The Bura language has been written for some time. Unfortunately, the existing system for Bura writing does not represent all sounds in the language. According to Blench (2009) Bura has a very wide range of consonants. He states that the Bura orthography is best described as in transition.

	Bilabia	Labi	Dented	Alve	Palato-	Pal	Velar	Labi	Glottal
	l	o- denta l		olar	Alveolar	atal		o- Vela r	
Stop	p b			t d				k g	
Glottalize d Stop	v			x					
Fricative		f v		s z	ʃ				h
Lateral Fricatives				ɬ ɮ					
Affricate				ts dz	tʃ dʒ				
Nasal	m			n			ŋ		
Lateral				l					
Flap				r					
Approxi mant						j		w	

Table I

1.7.2.2 Bura Vowels Sound

Bura language is the same as most of the Chadic languages is a tone language, and has a six possible vowels sound including schwa sound.

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i		u
Mid close	e		o
Open		a ə	

Table II

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed related literature materials on movement operations and government and binding approach in the syntactic representation. There are numerous publications on Hausa, Fulfulde, Kanuri, Yoruba languages but very few publications on Bura language. In this study, only related literature relevant with movement operations, comparative analysis of syntactic representations and materials related to government and binding approach are reviewed.

2.2 Review of Related Literature

The movement operation is one of the syntactic aspects within the generative grammar which are applicable to natural languages. For a movement to take place, there are some theory, principles and conditions that need to be taken into consideration. Junaidu (1987) stated that "...topicalization is a process by which the nominal phrase (NP) in a sentence is extracted from its underlying position in a sentence, which could be moved and adjoined to the left position of the sentence. By moving the NP to the left of the sentence with "Chomsky adjunction" means that a new higher sentence (s) node is created". Junaidu (1987:82) also states that "it is generally assumed that any major items of a normal sentence in Hausa, be it nominal, verbal or adverbial may undergo topicalization". For example, as in Junaidu (1987: 88),

1a).Audu yahana Kande kuxi

(Audu 3msP refused Kande money)

Audu refused (to give) Kande money

2 a). Kande [+T], Audu ya hana kuxi.

(As for) Kande, Audu refused her money)

b). Kuxi [+T], Audu ya hana Kande.

(As for), some money, Audu refused Kande.

3a). Kande takan taya mahaifiyarta wanke-wanke.

(Kande 3fsHB help mother-her dish-washing)

Kande (usually) helps her mother in dish-washing.

b). Wanke-wanke [+T], Kande takan taya mahaifiyarta.

(As for), dish-washing, Kande helps her mother).

c). Mahaifiyarta (kam) [+T], Kande takan taya (ta) wanke-wanke.

(As for) her mother, Kande helps (her) in dish-washing).

Junaidu (1987:201) argues that in a topicalization processes as in the examples above, the comment clause without the topic element as in the examples above it is a meaningful and grammatical sentence in Hausa language.

Munkaila (1990:29) following Chomsky (1989) posits that “the projection principle specifies those representations at each syntactic level [LF,D-structure and S-structure] that are projected from the lexicon, in that they observe the lexical properties of lexical items”. Munkaila (1990:30) states that if a verb is lexically specified as transitive in Hausa, (i.e. taking an NP complement), it follows that it must have an NP complement at all relevant levels. Consider the verb kamàa ‘catch’ as in Munkaila (1990:29).

4. Audu yaa kamaà dookii

(A he-perf catch horse)

Audu caught a horse.

According to Munkaila (1990:29) following Radford (1988) states that “the projection principle requires that if a category moves as the result of “move

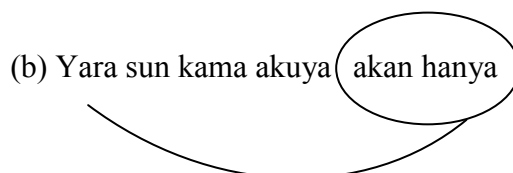
alpha” it must leave behind a trace, so that the interpretation of its selectional properties would be preserved”.

Munkaila (1990:208), states that “it is now generally accepted that the rule move-alpha can apply either to phrasal categories [NP, VP, PP, AP e.t.c.] or lexical categories [N, V, P, A e.t.c.]”. According to Munkaila (1990), following Baker (1985a, 1988a) “incorporation is assumed to be a subpart of standard syntactic movement, it follows that the movement also has to be constrained by the principles which constrain movement processes in general i.e the empty category principle (ECP), projection principle, subjacency e.t.c”.

The term incorporation is used to an instance of a generalized syntactic movement (move-alpha) which moves a lexical category rather than a phrasal category. This sort of movement is also known as head to head movement as cited in Munkaila (1990:208). The lexical categories [N, V and P] can move from their independent base positions and adjoin to another lexical category in the sentence. (cf. Munkaila, 209 & 211). For example in Hausa we have the following sentence which moves a phrasal category NP.

5. (a) Yara sun kama akuya akan hanya
(Children they catch goat on road)
Children catch a goat on the road.

This sentence can be represented by using a schematic representation to show the movement processes.



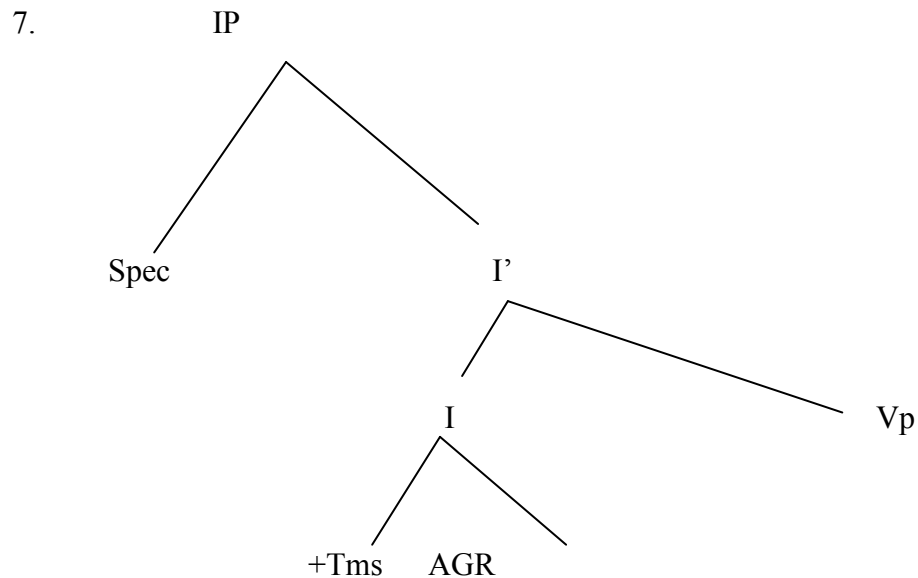
- (c) Akan hanya yara suka kama akuya^t .
(On road children they-perf catch goat)
It was on the road children caught a goat.

In the Hausa language it is possible to move a phrasal category Preposition phrase out of another phrasal NP.

For instance, Yusuf (1991:4) following Radford (1989) emphasized that the projection principle requires lexical properties to be projected at all level of syntactic representation. That is to say that each and every phrasal category or lexical category has a specific position to occupy in a sentence. Also, when phrasal or lexical category moves, it must leave a trace. The presence of trace is determined by the projection principle. Any phrasal projection of a given head must satisfy the lexical properties of the head. Yusuf (1991:6). Further states that ...”the structure of any given phrase must be such that it satisfies the lexical properties of its head word, in the sense that the other constituents in the phrase must be compatible with the properties of the head word”. He also stated that “phrases have to satisfy not only the general structural requirements of the head word but also its specific lexical requirement”.

In addition, Yusuf (1991:26) following Chomsky (1986) further states that “The phenomenon of the move alpha is central to the theory of movement. Chomsky (1986b) identifies two types of movement: substitution and adjunction. The general properties of substitution are outlined below”.

- 6 a) There is no movement to complement position.
- b) Only X can move to a head position.
- c) Only a maximal projection can move to the specifier position.
- d) Only minimal and maximal projections (X^0 and X'') are visible for the rule move alpha.



(cf Yusuf (1992:26))

Yusuf (1991:96) emphasized that a better way of tackling the disassociation of TMS and AGR in Hausa might be to classify Hausa clauses into three different types: Tense, aspect and subjunctive clause. And also according to Yusuf (1991:253) “....each element in the INFL node i.e (AGR,TNS,ASP AND NEG) is a category in its own right heading a maximal projection (AGRP,TP and NEGP) respectively. As noted, these inflectional elements are separate word level category from the main verb in Hausa”. As exemplified above each element in the tree diagram such as AGR, TNS, VP and NP occupy its own maximal projection.

Yalwa (1992:8) claims that “...one of the important aspects of syntactic theory is the binding theory, which is intended to constrain the coreference relations between NP positions, and their distributions in syntactic representations”. Yalwa (1992:9) further elaborate that in Hausa, INFL can be viewed as being composed of AGR+ TNS. For most TAM’S, AGR is obligatory present, agreeing in phi-features with the subject. In addition Hausa has a several sets of pronouns, the choice of which is determined by syntactic

position. Yalwa (1992) identified about 3 groups of pronouns based on their distributions. These are independent/disjunctive pronouns, ni, kai, kee, shi, ita. (with a singular and plural form) as in (10) below:

8. Singular	plural
1 Ni	mu
2m kai	ku
2f kee	
3m shi	su
3f ita	

The independent pronouns are found primarily in the following environment such as a topic, as a focus, as object of preposition. For object as in Yalwa (1992)

9. Audu yaa zoo dà shii
 (Audu he came with him)
 Audu came (together) with him/it.

The second group of pronouns is a subject of (clitic) pronouns and third groups of pronouns is the object pronouns, which are cliticized to the very and to certain prepositions. And also there are possessive pronouns which are linked to a noun with the marker -n.

According to Yalwa (1995:19) “it is used to be assumed in the framework of the transformational generative grammar and the EST that sentential complements are generated through the expansion of a NP which occurs in the pre-verbal position. The sentential complement is then moved to the post-verbal position by the well known obligatory transformational rule of extraposition. This is what made it possible to account for the structure in which the post verbal NP could function as either a subject or object, usually characterized as [NP, S] and [NP, VP] respectively”.

Yalwa (1995:300) asserts that “Hausa has a number of related constructions which shape some syntactic properties. These constructions are the word questions, cleft/focus and relative clause constructions. The fundamental process involve moving an element from a position in the sentence to the sentence-initial position or to embedded position of a matrix clause, namely the CP/ ‘S’ position, this movement affect the TAM of the clause from which a constituent extracted from it”. Yalwa (1995:302) said that “There are several ways of forming questions in Hausa. The most important type of question formation in Hausa involves the use of the various questions words, i.e. the constituent question markers. The question may contain either (a) the clause introducing complementizer *ko* occurring alone after the predicates that select a wh-complementizer, (b) *ko* + another question word, or (C) the question word alone (i.e. without the *ko*). These question words are all placed at the sentence initial position outside the root IP. These questions are classified to non-specific wh-interrogatives [+ personal], generic and universal questions”.

For examples

10. wà- who/whom/where
 wà (nè nè) who/whom/where (ms)
 wà (ce ce)

11. Alternative non specific wh-interrogatives [+personal] and the Generic/
 universal quantifier.

12. Non-specific wh-interrogative [-personal], and the Generic/Universal.

E.g

- | | |
|------------|------------------|
| mè | ‘what’ |
| mè (ne ne) | ‘what is it (ms) |
| mè (ce ce) | ‘what is it (fs) |

13. Alternative non specific wh-interrogative [-personal] and Generic/universal quantifiers.

me (ye ne) ‘what (it is)?’

14. Specific wh-interrogative pronouns and the Generic/ Universal/ quantifier

(a) Wànnè (ne) which one/ which NP (ms)?

(b) Wàcce (ce) which one/ which NP (fs)?

(c) Ko wànnè (ne) ‘whoever’

15. Wh-interrogative determiners and the Generic/ Universal quantifier

wàcè (a) wànnè which one (ms)?
 which one (fs)?
 wàxànnè which all (pl.)?

16. Adjunct wh-interrogatives and the Generic/universal quantifiers:

ina (ne) where (is)?

(a/ta) ina (ne) (at/in/by where (is)?

yayà/qaqà how (is)?

(ta) yayà/ qaqà (ne) how many/much?

ko na wà (ne) ‘however much’

yaushe (ne) (when? supposedly)

don wà (ne ne) for whom, because of whom?

don mè (ne ne) for what-why, what cause/reason?

Yalwa (1995:306) emphasized that “...the wh-question/expression or focused constituent is placed at the sentence

initial position in the Spec of CP. When this type of wh-movement has taken place we assume that a trace of the moved elements left behind in the extraction site. Note that form of the wh-word used depends on the phi-features of the argument that is questioned". Consider the following sentences below.

17(a). [CP [NP wà (ne ne)], [IP pro ya càncantà [IP ti yàzama sarki-n-mu]]]?

who cop. 3ms-perf. be suitable 3ms-subj. become emir-of-us

Who is it appropriate for him to become our Emir?

(b). [CP [NP mè (ne ne)], [IP pro ya zama dole...[IP Tanko yabiyà shi/ ti
What cop. 3ms-rel. perf. Tanko 3ms subj. pay it
dà wuuri]]]?

with early?

(What is that it became necessary for Tanko to pay (it) early?

(c). [CP (NP mè (ne ne) [Ip pro yake dà kyau.....IP wàxànnan yara

what cop. 3ms-rel. perf. with good these children

su yi ti/ yi shi]]]?

3pl- subj. do (it)?

(what is it nice that those youth should do (it)?)

In the examples above shows that wh-word or wh-questions are moved to CP i.e complementizer phrase, which it is the target position of wh-words as exemplified by Yalwa (1995:306). He further emphasized that wh-words moved to CP position but this all depends on particular theoretical assumption/consideration. (cf Yalwa1992& 1995). For example:

18. [CP wacce [^{IP} riga [^I Bintaà [ta saàyaa ^{ti}]]]]

(Which cloth Binta she-perf bought)

Which cloth binta bought?

Sadi (1993:91) following Kirk Green and Kraft (1973) claims that interrogatives belong to the syntactic category of nominals, while a distinction has to be made between the sub-classes of the nominals they can belong to. He further stated that wh-interrogatives in Hausa can belong to four subclasses of nominals.

19. **Pronominals**

- a) Meènee nee (what?)
- b) Waà (nee nee)

These two can occur in all subjects and objects pronoun's positions of regular nouns.

Consider:-

- a) Abinci ya dafu.
(The food is (well) cooked)
- b) Mee ya dafu?
What is (well) cooked.
- c) Ya dafa abinci.
He has cooked food.
- d) Ya dafa meè (nee nee)
He has cooked what?

20. **Adverbial interrogatives**

The interrogatives that fall within the syntactic category of adverbials are:

- a. inaa (where)
- b. yaa (yaà)/ qaa (qaa) (how)
- c. yaushe (when)

These are called adverbial not only because they request adverbials relations but also because they can replace adverbial constituents in any distribution.

Consider the following examples;

21. a) Tijjani ya bar Jos (tun) bara.
Tijjani left Jos (since) last year
- b) Tijjani ya bar inaa (tun) yaushe?
Tijjani left where since when?
22. a) Wancan mutumin ya yi salla a cikin gaugawa.
That man prayed in a hurried manner.
- b) Wancan mutumin ya yi salla a yaayaa/qaaqaa?
That man prayed in a
23. **Interrogative specifiers**

These are wanne, wacce, waxanne, and wane are all specifier.

24. **Independent interrogative**

me ya sa (why?) (cf. Sadi (1993) for more detailed

Usman (1996) further stated that “Each level of representation in the universal grammar is to be determined according to the interaction of the various principles and selected sub-theories of the universal grammar, i.e. x-bar theory, government theory, case theory, theta theory, bounding theory, control theory, theory of movement, and components of the grammar. Usman (1996:57) further states that “it is necessary that reflexive anaphor in Hausa constructions must appear in the surface of the Hausa sentences. The anaphor can move to other possible positions”, as exemplified below

25. a) Balaa yaa cucii kànsaa.
(Bala he-perf. cheat himself)
Bala has cheated himself.

b) Bala kànsaa yaa cutaà.
(Bala himself he-perf. cheat)
Bala cheated himself.

c) Kànsaa Bala yaa cutaà
(himself Bala he-perf. cheat)
Bala has cheated himself.

d) Kànsaa yaa cutaà Bala.
(Himself he-perf. cheat Bala)
Bala has cheated himself

Daudu (2005:71) pointed out that movement operations that are found in Hausa are the neg. operator and NP-movement. Daudu (2005:85) following Radford (1998) emphasized that “...movement operations can be either operator or non-operator movement, whereby a head to head movement is a non operator movement, while a movement to SPEC.CP is an operator movement”. The phenomenon of movement in the government and binding (GB) theory is a principal operation of realizing an S-structure from D-structure. This exercise is called transformation as it means transforming a category in the D-structure to appear in a different position in the S-structure. Daudu (2005:35). Radford (1998) cited as in Daudu (2005) identifies, operator and non operator movement. The general characteristics of this type of movement is the item moves and lands at a position similar to the one it vacated; that is it leaves a head position to occupy another head position. Thus, it is referred to as head to head movement (cf Daudu (2005:37)).

According to Daudu (2005:152) argues that “there are as many wh-interrogative markers as there are nominal classes in any variety of Fulfulde. In addition to these interrogative markers there are those with stems that are prepositions. These are *to* which becomes *toye* (where), *no* which becomes *noye* (how) and *ko* which becomes *koye* (what). He further stated that “for clear understanding of wh-movement in Fulfulde, we first treat questions that

remain in place, those called wh-in-situ. In these types of constructions, the interrogative marker does not move at all. When this occurs the interrogative marker occupies the position of the element in question. Consider the following examples in (26a-c) as in Daudu (2005:152).

26. a) Njamndi *noye*?
 (time how)
 what is the time?
- b) Maa *ndeye*?
 (until when)
 When?
- c) lekki *moye*?
 (medicine whose)
 Whose medicine?

In the above examples, the interrogative markers are marked in italics they are the following *noye*, *ndeye*, and *moye*. They all occur at the end of each clause. Thus they are in situ. Daudu (2005:153) claims that when an interrogative markers move, they get fronted to the initial position of the clause. They get proposed from their canonical position in declarative sentences to a new position in interrogative sentences. Consider the sentences in (27.a-c)

27. a) *moye* Bappate sood-an-i paxe?
 Wh NP V CS N
 (who did Bappate buy shoes for?)
- b) *Dume* Bappate sood-an-i Peetel?
 (Wh Bappate buy for Petel)
 What did Bappate buy for Petel?
- c) *Moye* sood-an-i Peetel paxe?
 Wh V for N N
 (who buy for Petel Paxe?)
 Who bought shoes for Petel?

It is important to note that wh-movement is an example of operator movement, the landing site of the moved elements is specifier, Complementizer phrase. The sentences above has the following derived forms as in (28a-d) as cited in Daudu (2005:155)

28. a) Bappate sood-an-i *moye* paxe?
 NP V CS wh (-Human) N
 (Bappate buy-for who shoes)
 Bappate bought shoes for who?

b) [CP moye _t [Ip Bappate sood-an-i t_i paxe]]

wh NP V CS N
 (who (+Human) Bappate buy-for shoes)
 Who did Bappate buy shoes for?

c) Bappate sood-an-I Peetel xume?

NP V CS N Wh (-human)
 (Bappate buy for Petel (what?))

d) [CP Xume _t [IP Bappate sood-an-I Peetel t_i?]]

Wh NP V CS N
 (what Bappate buy-for Peetel?)
 What did Bappate buy for Petel?

He further states that “the fronting of the wh-constituents is what is regarded as wh-movement. At first there is the movement of the interrogative argument to the front of the clause occupying the CP whereby moved element leaves behind a trace marked by *t*, the trace is co-indexed so that we can observe the extraction sites and the landing sites of the elements that have moved.

According to Omaki & Yoshida (2013:1) “movement operation is an operation that was introduced by transformational theories of generative grammar to characterize so-called displacement phenomena, as seen in wh-question like “who will Mary kiss ___?”, passive sentences like “John was

kissed__ (by Mary.), and subject-aux inversion sentences like “will Mary__ kiss John?”. These constructions share an interesting property, the constituents at the beginning of these sentences are “displaced” from their original positions indicated by “__”, while the basic thematic relations between constituents (e.g, who did what to whom) remain the same. The long-distance dependencies formed by movement operations are of broad interest to Linguistics.

Apart from dissertations and theses, there are textbooks that are related to the research which includes: Radford (1981:190) further argues that wh-movement is an adjunction rule whereby one constituent is adjoined to another; by contrast, NP-movement is a substitution rule, whereby one constituent is substituted for another (empty) one. NP-movement has an interesting property, typical of other such substitution rules, under NP-movement; one NP comes to occupy a position held by another empty NP. For instance, following Structure-Preserving Constraints this states that ‘A constituent can only be moved by a substitution rule into another category of the same type. Such as NP-movement move an NP into an empty NP-position. For example:

29. a) Seems John to like Mary.
 b) John seems __ to like Mary.
30. a) Has been put the car in the garage.
 b) The car has been put __ in the garage.

Radford (1988:419) claims that “the incorporation of syntactic movement rules into a grammar presupposes that there are two different levels of syntactic structure in grammars; (i) the level of D-structure which serves as input to the movement rules, and (ii) the level of S-structure which serve as the

output of the movement rules. Clearly, S-structure are generated from D-structure by application of movement rules.

31. a) [S' which car will [S your father [VP put in the garage?]]]

The sentence above is derived from the following sentence below as a result of the wh-movement.

b) [S C [S your father [will][VP put which car in the garage]]].

The sentence one above is derived by two movement rules, one of these rule is I movement which moves the modal *will* immediately in front of the bracketed S into C, and the second movement rule (wh-movement) moves the wh-NP [which car] to a position within S-bar in front of the proposed modal *will*, as the left most constituent of S-bar, according to Radford (1988).

Furthermore Radford (1981:462) argues that wh-moment plays a key role in the Syntax of so-called wh-questions. A question in natural languages can be classified into a number of types. One major typological division, for example is between yes-no questions and wh-questions. Yes-no questions are so called because they permit 'yes' and 'no' (or their counterparts in other languages) wh-questions, by contrast, are so called because (in English) they typically involve the use of an interrogative word beginning with wh- (e.g. why, what, when, where, which,-but note that how is also classified as wh-word because it exhibit the same syntactic behavior as other members of this class.

In addition, there are many other types of wh-construction (i.e. construction in which wh-movement operates either overtly or covertly in natural language. Radford (1988) proposed that, wh-movement is one of the

transformational rules, which plays a role in the syntax of the so called wh-questions. However, not all xp-constituents containing a wh-word can undergo wh-movement according to Radford (1988:518). For example, in the sentences below; we have a wh-word which are fronted as a result of wh-movement.

32. a) What will Mairo eat?
- b) Which police will Ahmadu invite?
- c) Whose ram must Aliyu feed?
- d) Where will Musa live?
- e) Why must Amina feed the cow?
- f) How will Aminu feed the cow?
- g) When will the teacher arrive at the school?

Radford (1988:534) posits that NP movement in English language involves movement of a target NP into an empty NP which functions as the specifier of I as in IP analysis. He emphasized that NP-movement can apply to NP-constituents.

According to Radford (1988:536) states that there are two generalized movement rules; one which move phrase level categories (XP- movement), and another which moves word-level categories (X-movement). For instance XP-movement moves phrasal categories into phrase positions, whereas X-movement moves word- level categories into word position. In addition, in movement operations NP-movement moves an NP into an empty NP position, and also extraposition adjoins a PP or CP (s-bar) to the minimal XP containing the phrase out of which it moves.

Extraposition involved an adjunction operation, under which material extraposed out of a given containing phrase is attached to the first maximal projection dominating the host phrase out of which the extraposed constituent is being moved according to Radford (1988:543). For example PP extraposed out of a subject NP; and if we assume that S is the maximal projection of I (so that S-IP), then it follows that a PP extraposed out of a subject NP will be adjoined to IP. All these movements are governed by trace movement principle, according to Radford (1988:543) any moved constituent Xⁿ leaves behind at its extraction-site an identical empty category (Xⁿ e). This empty category is known as a *trace*, and the moved constituent is said to be the antecedent of the trace. For examples;

33. a) Mairo will eat what?
 b) What will^{t1} Mairo eat^{t2}?
34. a) Ahmadu will invite which Police
 b) Which police will^{t1} Ahmadu invite^{t2}?

In the examples above the traces of moved constituents is indicated with ^{t1} or ^{t2}, these types of movement are wh-movement and auxiliary subject inversion in English Language, the moved constituent are underlined in the above examples.

It is clearly shows that the moved constituents which are underlined words are phrases of various types of constituent which moves Nps, Adverb phrases e.t.c. The moved constituent in the example above which are underlined may be both an argument of the verb or adjunct. The moved constituents which are underlined will be referred to as wh-phrase or a wh-constituent. It is also stressed that the nature of phrase is determine, by the

nature of the head it follows, that a phrase containing an interrogative element as its head will be characterised as an interrogative phrase or wh-phrase.

The phrase structure rules allow us to project the position but they do not identify for a specific phrasal category. The proposal here treats wh-movement as substitution; the wh-phrase fill a hitherto to unoccupied position. In this respect, wh-movement is like Np-movement. And also in the case of wh-movement a trace of the move wh-words co-indexed with its antecedent according to Haegeman (1994). Haegeman (1994:18) states “movement operation involves a type of auxiliary-subject inversion operation in English language, whereby a head of a word moves from one head position in one phrase into the head position of another phrase in a sentence. Haegeman (1994) argues that “the targets of movement are two: either we move a head of a projection to another head position (e.g auxiliary-verb inversion), called head to head movement or a maximal projection is moved (e.g NP-movement and wh-movement)”.

Haegeman (1994:103) argues that the ordering of PP and the complement is not universally fixed; there are language differences in many ways in terms of syntactic representation. However, the movement operation involves this type of auxiliary-subject inversion operation in English, in which moves head of a word from the head position in one phrase into the head position of another phrase (in this case, from head I position of IP into the head C position of CP) and so is known more generally as head to head movement (head movement) .

In addition, Radford (1997:130) claims that “...one of the syntactic movements that moves these interrogative operators or interrogative word is called operator movement i.e wh-movement, because it applies to an expression which contains (e.g.) negative or interrogative operator of some kind”. Wh- movement as a type of movement operation whereby a wh-expression is moved to the front of a particular type of structure e.g. to the front of the overall sentence as in

35. a) ‘he has gone where?’

b) ‘where has he gone ^t?’

The underlined wh-word *where* has moved to front of the sentence as result of movement rule.

Radford et. Al. (2009:298) stated that “... we have different kinds of movement operations i.e. movement of a head. From the I to C, this type of movement operation is referred to as head movement, and other movement involves movement of an operator expression into the specifier position within the CP, and this very kind of movement is known as operator movement (or more specifically as wh-movement, when it affects wh-expression).

In Galadanci (1969, 1976) and Newman (2000:370) “Noun phrases in Hausa (NP) consists of a head noun with optional prenominal and / or post nominal elements”, e.g.

36. [wani Sabon]_{pre} [littafi]_{head} [mai kyau]_{post} ‘a new good book’

The head of an NP typically consist of a simple noun (singular or plural), conjoined nouns, nouns in a genitive X of Y relationship, compound nouns e.t.c. according to Newman (2000: 370).

Traditionally it is argued that head of noun, is optionally accompanied by specifying or modifying elements. Some of these are the demonstratives i.e. ‘this’, ‘that’ e.t.c. and personal pronouns functioning as determiners that occur only before the head but a larger number of elements, like the definite article and relative clause occur only after the head. Furthermore, there are two primary constituents that occur in pre-head position, according to Newman (2000) i.e. specifiers and adjectival modifier, which occur in that order.

37. a) Wani mahaukacin kare (specifier +adj+N)
 (A (certain) crazy dog)
 b) Wannan babbar qasa (specifier+adj+N)
 (This large country)

The other category of specifier includes determiners, pronouns and so on. For example a determiner can occur with the other two categories i.e determiner and noun.

- 38.a) Wannan doki this horse (det +n)
 b) Wace hanya which road (det +n)
 c) Kowane mutum every man (det +n)

Newman (2000) stressed that the “so-called prepositions in Hausa fall into two main groups: basic (e.g. *aat*) and genitive (e.g. *gaban* ‘in front of’)”. He argues that the two important morphemes that correspond to prepositions in English are not classified as preposition in Hausa but rather are treated as grammatical particles. These are (i) the indirect object marker (IOM), to, for, from, which has the pre-pronoun form *ma-* and the pre-noun form *wà* (with the alternative variants *mà*, *wà* e.t.c.) (cf Munkaila (1990), Newman (2000 chap. 39 & 43). Hausa has a small set of basic, unitary prepositions, many of which also function as conjunctions. Phonologically, many of these are distinctive in

terms of short final vowel with low tone. Morphologically / lexically the basic prepositions are a heterogeneous lot. According to Newman (2000:466) there are as follows:-

à	at, in, on,
dà	with,
daga	from,
bisa	on, about
face	Except
gà/gàrè	by, in, near, in connection with, in relation to.
har	up to, until.
hatta	Including
iyà	as far as
sabòdà	because of, on account of
Sai	except, until e.tc

Table III

Jaggar (2001: 512) Claims that there are two types of direct questions in Hausa depending upon the expected reply: wh-questions and yes-no questions. According to Jaggar (2001:513) Further stated that wh-questions, both positive and negative, are formed with wh-words of various types. The wh-element (subject, object, or adjunct) usually appears in the sentence-initial, focus position, and so requires a focus TAM. Depending on speaker/dialect, interrogative constructions containing S-initial wh-constituents, these wh-words are wà? ‘who?’, yàushe? ‘when?’, don mè? ‘why?’, nawà? ‘how many?’, wà? ‘who?’, mè? ‘what?’, nawà? ‘how much?’. These are wh-words

which are usually appear either in subject, object or adjunct position in the sentences. which can categories based their grammatical functions in the sentence as result of wh-movement. Examples of these questions-morphemes;

- | | | |
|-----|------------------------------|------------------------|
| 39. | Waà ya shigo? (shigo) | ‘Who came in?’ |
| | Yaushee ka sàuka? (sàuka) | ‘When did you arrive?’ |
| | Don meè bàì zoo ba? | ‘Why didn’t you come?’ |
| | Gudaa nawà sukà mutu? (mutù) | ‘How many died?’ |
| | Wà ya zoo? (zoo) | ‘Who’s come?’ |
| | Mè ka tarar? (tarar) | ‘What did you find?’ |
| | Nawà neè? (neè) | ‘How much?’ |

Examples of these wh-words in Hausa as in Jaggar (2001);

40. a) Wa ya shigo?
Who (m) 3m.FOC-PF come in
- b) Wà ka gani?
Who(m) 2m.FOC-PF see
- c) Wanee ne ya mutu?
Who (m) 3m. FOC-PF died
- d) Meè ya faru?
What 3m.FOC-PF happen
- e) Wane mutum nee bai zoo ba?

(Which man is it didn’t come?)

- f) Inaa kuxin (yakeè)

(Where is the money?)

- g) Yaushee nee sukè zuwà?
(when is it they are coming)

- h) yaàyaà zaa à yi?

(what’s to be done? (lit. how will one do?))

- i) qaàqaà ka zoo dà wuri hakà?

(how (it is) you have come so early?)

j) mootaà nawà gàree shì?

(how many cars does he have?)

Yusuf (2011:90) argues that “preposition in Hausa can be projected into the prepositional phrase (PP) and normally precedes its complement”. Simple preposition in Hausa often consists of one word, such as in the table below.

à	in or at
dà	With
daga	From
ta	through
kan	on bias on top
ciki	inside e.t.c.

Table IV

Yusuf (2011) further states that “preposition in Hausa are words used to relate two parts of a sentence, clause or phrase together where the relationship is typically one of time, place, or logic”. The choice of Preposition is often determined by the verbs, adjective or noun to which the PP is complement or by the kind of complement it is, Yusuf (2011:91). There are different properties of preposition, such as like any other lexical or functional categories can be projected into prepositional phrases as in Yusuf (2011:93) for example

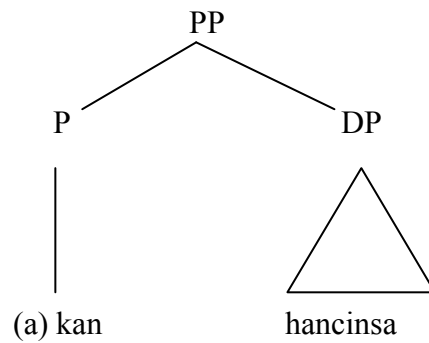
41. Balaa yaa dokee shì (à) kan hancinsà

(Bala he-perf hit him prep. nose-his)

Balaa hit him on his nose

For example the head of the PP is the P and the complement of the P is NP or another DP which are represented as in Yusuf (2011:93).

42.



And also the study is based on the theoretical and descriptive analyses which are model of approach adopted in Yusuf (2011) which are governed by these two principles.

43. Extended Endocentricity Principle; which stated that; every phrase is a symmetrical projection of a single head word category; and every word category projects symmetrically into corresponding phrase category.

44. Binary Branching Principle.No node may branch into more than two immediate constituents i.e. no mother may have more than two daughters, and no constituents may have more than one sisters. (cf. Radford, 1997; Yusuf 2011:118,120e.t.c.)

However, in X-bar theory, all phrases are headed by one head. That is to say all phrases are endocentric. For instance the head of the projection is a zero projection (X^0), headed by X' or X'' . Subsequently, Haegemen(1994) further stated that “ part of the grammar regulating the structure of phrase has come to be known as X' -theory (x' -bar theory) X -bar theory bring out what is common in the structure of phrases. Also stated that in x -bar theory, all phrases are headed by one word”. And further stressed that “one of the best approach for phrase structure is that all phrasal categories are structured according to X' -

schema". In the X'-schema, phrasal projections project from their heads, units of the type N, V etc, Heads are typically terminal nodes. Radford (1997:106) movement operations, involving movement from one head position to another. For Example:

45. a) You will marry me.
 b) Will you marry me

Chomsky (2002) Proposed that "customarily, linguistics description on the syntactic level is formulated in terms of constituent analysis (parsing)". This method can be best approaches to determine the phrasal categories in the structure of phrase. In the other scenario, all the theories about phrase structure are within the transformational rules. The central assumption underpinning syntactic analysis in traditional grammar is that phrases and sentences are built up of a series of constituents (i.e. syntactic units), each of which belongs to a specific grammatical category and serves a specific grammatical function. Given this assumption, the task of the linguist analysing the syntactic structure of any given type of sentence is to identify each of the constituents in the sentence, and (for each constituent) to say what it belongs to and what function it serves. These types of movement can be clarified by transformational rule. Chomsky, Lisa and Nibert (2006) considered this transformational rule as theoretical framework which consists of general movement rules such as "move wh-phrase" and "move Np" which essentially apply syntactically. The formulation of the wh-movement rule specifies the target of the movement operation: "move wh-phrase into comp".

In addition, the generative force of the movement rules is constrained by a set of conditions. One such conditions is the condition of the (strict) cycle,

which governs the order in which transformational process apply. Another condition is subjacency condition, which states that movement is local, where locality is defined in terms of number of cyclic nodes (also called bounding theory) that the move constituents crosses (a single cyclic node being the maximum) (Chomsky et. al.(2006).

In GB theory, X-bar theory replaced the phrase structure component altogether, and so took on the role of a constraint on actual structure rather than on the rules responsible for those structures.” In GB theory, following fairly traditional assumptions the form of the objects is ‘governed’ by the verb assigned an accusative case to their objects. Prepositions also assign accusative case to their objects; therefore any NP complement of a preposition or verb will bear accusative case, as in (45) below: (see Cook & Newson (2007:)

46. I gave the book to him

Cook & Newson (2007:) Further states that “...an X-bar is composed of projections of heads selected from the lexicon. Projection principle can be seen as the categorical properties of structure projected from the lexicon. The projection principle ensures that lexical information remains constant at all level of syntactic representations (e.g. D-structure and S-structure). This information is then projected into the structure in accordance with X-bar principles”.

The most important development in this respect was extending X-bar theory to cover functional elements, such as complementizers, inflections and determiners (cf.) Cook & Newson (2007). An interesting aspect of the Government/Binding (GB) grammar is that many principles are not motivated

solely by considerations of movement, but also have roles to play in other phenomena. All these theories and principles discussed so far are related to movement operations in relations to government and binding theory.

In the other development regarding the movement operations, Cook and Newson (2007) viewed that move alpha is something which may or may not take place with no restrictions on the actual operation itself. Some of these movements will provide grammatical structures, sometimes not depending on whether other principles are not. Similarly, if a movement does not occur this may sometimes result in a grammatical structure, sometimes not depending on whether other principles are satisfied. According to them, the immediate consequence of having movement rules is the recognition that there are two levels of which the structure of any sentence can be described. The level before the movement takes place and the level formed after the movement as can be see below:

47. a)What film did you see?

Clearly requires an underlying level:

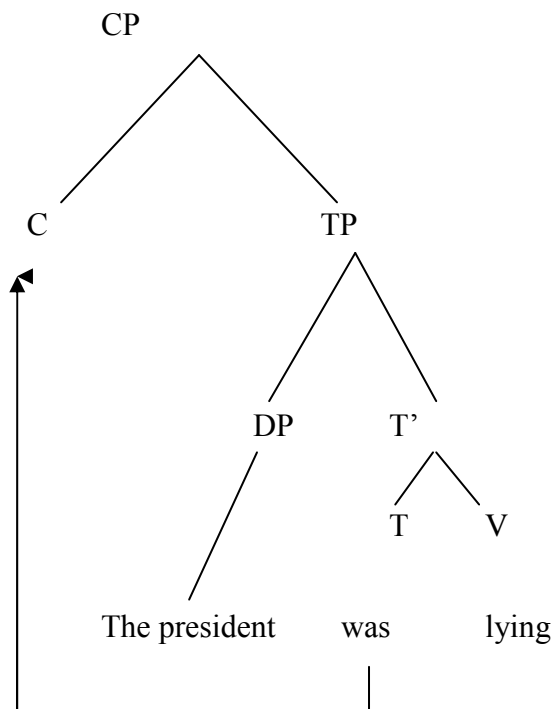
b)You saw what film?

Therefore the two levels in which sentence can be represented is called the deep structure and surface structure. Cook & Newson (2007) said that “one of the major simplifications in GB theory is concern with the status of X-bar theory. X-bar theory was taken to be constraining module acting on the phrase structure component of the grammar”.

Radford et. al. (2009:295) “ The type of movement operation, which involves movement of a word from the head position in one phrase into the head

position in another phrase (in this case, from the head T position of TP into the head C position of CP, and is known as head movement” as in the example below.

48.



Was the president lying.

Fromkin et.al (2011:125) state that “All languages have expression for requesting information about who, when, where, what, and how. Even if the question words in other languages do not necessarily begin with “wh”, we will refer to such question wh-questions”. Further stated that, “...in all languages with wh-word (i.e) movement of the question phrase, the question element moves to C (complementizer). The “landing site” of the moved phrase is determined by UG”. Among the wh-movement languages there is some variation, UG (universal grammar) provides the basic design for all human languages, and individual languages are simple variations on this design according to Fromkin et.al (2011).

A few publications which are related to Bura are also related to the study which includes: Hoffman (1955) claims that the interrogative words in Bura language are mi ri or ma ri ‘what’ waa ri, ‘who’ nawa ri ‘when’ ama ri ‘where’ madi ri ‘which’ and idau ri ‘how many’ or ‘how much’. Hoffman (1955) argues that these interrogative words in a sentence ends with a special interrogative particles i.e. ri that’s why he called some of these interrogative words, attribute interrogative. Schuh (1970) shows that these interrogative words, are usually attached or accompanied with the word ‘ri’. All these interrogative words they do not have distinction between masculine and feminine. As the language does not have a grammatical gender as cited in Yamta (2005:24-25). Examples of these interrogative words:

49. a) Mi ri Audu tsii ri?
 (What Audu kill Q)
 What did Musa kill?
- b) Gam madi ri Ali masaa ri?
 (Ram which Ali kill Q?)
 Which ram did Ali kill?
- c) Ngini mi ri
 (This what Q)
 What is this?
- d) Apa madi ri
 (Like which Q)
 Like which
- e) Tsaa ama ri
 (He/she where Q)
 Where is he/she?
- f) Ga wuta Ibrahim ama ri
 (You see Ib. where Q)

Where did you see Ibrahim?

g) Ga lifi nawa ri

(You going home when Q)

When are you going home?

h) Saka idau ri

Time how much Q)

What is the time?

i) Daa masaa kwi idau ri ashana ri

(They bought goats how many today Q)

How many goats they bought today?

j) Mootaa waa ri Hauwa ta masa ri

(Car which Hauwa she-perf. bought Q)

Which car has Hauwa bought?

Examples of the sentences above, shows that these interrogative sentences with special interrogative particles ‘ri’ when the question words are proposed into initial subject position as a result of wh – movement.

50. a) Musa masaa mi ri

(Musa buy what Q)

Musa has buy what?

b) Aisha masaa gam madi ri

(Aisha buy ram which Q)

Aisha bought which ram?

c)Hauwa ta masa mootaa waa ri

(Hauwa she-perf. bought car which Q)

Hauwa bought which car?

According to Zimmermann et. al (2009) claims that “the canonical Bura sentence has SVO word order. The verb is not inflected in all but perfective aspect, the verb is preceded by an aspectual marker ASPP, progressive aspect also expresses an on going action (progressive), the morphemes a, ta or áta express a future action, and aná a habitual action. The perfective aspect is

unmarked. Bura neither shows overt morphological agreement nor case making. Bura is a tone language with two tones, a high (marked as á, and a low tone (unmarked). The example below illustrates a canonical Bura sentence in the progressive tense aspect;

51. Tsá akwá tá diva mhyi
(3SG PROG cook mush sorghum)
He is cookig sorgum mush.

For instance, if a subject is focused, it must be followed by the particle *án* across all aspects. This is shown in the question-answer pairs in (51) and (52) for the (unmarked) perfective and in (53) and (54) for the progressive aspect. The focused constituents are reproduced in bold face in Bura original sentences and in their English translations.

- 52.Q: Wa án tá diva rí?
(Who PRT cook mush Q)
Who cooked mush?

A: Ládi án tá diva ní.
(L. PRT cook mush DEF)
Ladi cooked mush.

- 53.Q: Wa án kwasá tsír ní rí?
(Who PRT chew beans Def Q)
Who ate the beans?

A: Mwala laga án kwasá tsír ni.
(Woman some PRT chew beans DEF)
A woman ate the beans.

- 54.Q: Wa án akwá masa táku ní rí?
(Who PRT PROG buy horse DEF Q)
Who is buying the horse?

A: Ládi án akwá masa táku ní.
(L. PRT PROG buy horse DEF)
Ladi is buying the horse.

55. Q: Wa án akwá kumshi ní rí?
(Who PRT PROG laugh DEF Q)
Who is laughing?

A: Mwala ní án akwá kumshi ní.
(Woman DEF PRT PROG laugh DEF)
The woman is laughing.

Notice that the particle *án* occurs both in the *wh*-questions providing the focus context, where it follows the interrogative expression *wa* (*who* as well as in the corresponding answers. Notice that the sentence-final question particle *ríis* obligatory in Bura Language. The unmarkedness of the perfective may be recent development, according to Hoffman (1955:317), cited in Zimmermann (2007), perfective aspect was regularly marked by the aspectual marker *ku*.

In conclusion, we have seen that all these languages have different type of interrogative word that occur in different position. For instance, we have seen in these languages i.e. English, Hausa, Fulfulde, Bura, it is possible to move some of these interrogative words/question words from their original position to an initial subject position. And also we have observed in some circumstance, some of these interrogative word, cannot moved from their original position to another position i.e. to say they are in situ.

Finally, this chapter reviewed some literature materials relevant to the subject under discussion. Relevant data and theoretical framework have been reviewed to come up with the major steps to conduct the present research. Numerous efforts have been made to extract something tangible concerning government and binding theory and other theories and principles related to movement operations.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed what is all about the research methodology employed in this research work and the theoretical framework adopted for this particular study.

3.2 Research Methodology

Generally, in this research work, the researcher employed relevant ways to gather information. The methodology of this research work will consist of data collection techniques, whereby data are collected from different sources. The sources include textbooks, articles, theses, dissertations and also the native speakers of Bura language, who will check the well formedness of the grammatical sentences in the language. However structured interview method also used for data collection in order to check the well formedness of sentences in the language compared to other languages.

3.3 Movement Operations

There are different types of movement which are operator movement and non-operator movement. The operator movement is a type of movement which moves wh-expression whereby non-operator movement is the type of movement operation which moves phrasal categories from one head position to another head position. Can be seen below:

1. a) What will Mairo eat?
- b) Which police will Alkali invited?
- c) Whose ram must Aliyu feed?
- d) With the car Ali came to the market.
- e) In the river I saw the children.

These above underlined word are words that are moved as a result of movement operation i.e. non operator movement and operator movement.

3.4 Head To Head Movements

Head-to-head movements can be seen as movement from one head position to another one or another head is called head to head movement, according to Haegeman (1994:119). Radford (1997:106) head movement operation, involving movement from one head position to another. For examples

2. a) Abdullahi will abandon the school after protest.
- b) Will Musa Abdullahi abandons the school after protest
- c) When will Musa rejected from school?

These examples above involve auxiliary subject inversion in (2a-b), both in (2c) involve auxiliary-subject inversion and wh-movement, these movements involves movement from one head position to another position.

3.5 Phrasal Movement

Radford (2004:162) considered phrasal movement as head movement which involves movement of a word from the head position in one phrase into the head position in a higher phrase. Radford (2004) also stated that head movement operation is an operation by which an item occupying the head position in a lower phrase is moved into the head position in a higher phrase. For instance, N-movement is the movement of a noun out of the head N position of NP into a higher position within the nominal expression containing it. (Radford: 2004:178). For examples in Bura language;

3. a) Sojayèri a nkì *Aminu* Bura
(Soldier-pl fut catch Aminu)

The soldiers will catch Aminu.

b) *Aminu* àntə sòjayeri a nkì t.

(Aminu emp. Soldier-pl peft. catch)

Aminu was caught by the soldiers.

It is possible to move the NP *Aminu* which is in italics in Bura language to subject initial position.

3.6 Theoretical Framework/Model of Approach

The theoretical framework adopted in this work is that of Government and binding theory. The government and binding is a theory of Syntax and a phrase structure grammar (as opposed to dependence grammar) in the tradition of transformational grammar which was initially developed principally by Noam Chomsky (1981 and 1988). According to Haegemen (1994) in GB theory there are only such projection which allow the maximal projections (XP) and the immediate projection (X-bar). Movement theory is one of the theory adopted for this particular study

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses the data collected and describes the head-to-head and phrasal movement in Bura language. The chapter describes how these movement operations operate in Bura language, by using sentential representation and phrase marker.

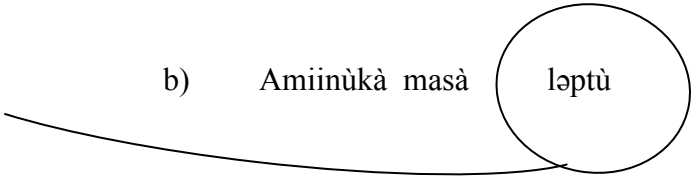
4.2 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Radford (2004, 2007) pointed out that “the incorporation of syntactic movement rules into a grammar, presupposes that there are two different levels of syntactic structure in grammar i.e. the level of deep structure and the level of surface structure, which serves as the output of the movement rules”.

Examples of these in Bura language;

1. a) Amiinù kàmasàləptù. Bura
(Amiinù he-perf. bought shirt)
Amiinù has bought a shirt

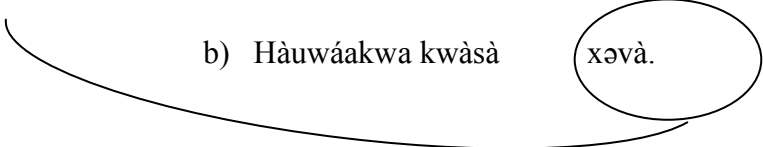
b) Amiinùkà masà ləptù



- (c) ləptùàntə kàAminumasà t. Bura
(Shirt emp. He-perf. Aminu bought)
Shirt was bought by Aminu.

2. a) Hàuwá akwa kwàsàxəvà. Bura
(Hauwa prog. eat food)
Hauwa ate food.

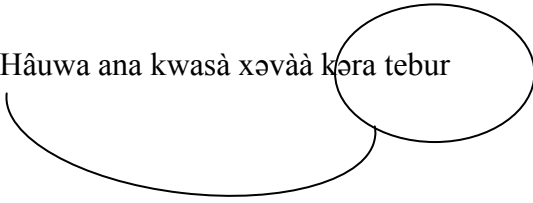
b) Hàuwáakwa kwàsà xəvà.



c) Xəvə̀ àntə̀Hâuwá akwa kwásá t.
 (Food emp. Hauwa prog. eat).
 Food was ate by Hauwa.

3. a) Hâuwa ana kwasà xəvə̀à kə̀ra tebur. Bura
 (Hauwa hab. ate food on the table)
 Hauwa ate food on the table.

b) Hâuwa ana kwasà xəvə̀à kə̀ra tebur



c) À kə̀ra tebur antə̀ Hâuwa a kwasà xəvə̀ t. Bura
 (on the table emp. Hauwa fut. eat food)
 It was on the table Hauwa ate the food.

4. a) Hamza a masaà metəkà
 (Hamza fut. buy car)
 Hamza will buy a car.

b) Metəkà ante Hamza ta masaà.
 (car emp. Hamza perf. buy)
 Hamza has bought a car
 c) * Metəkà Hamza ta masaà.
 (car Hamza peft. buy)

The examples above show that Bura language has the following tenses that normally precede a verb they follow. The tenses are *ka* which indicated perfective, *akwa* which indicates progressive tense, and *ana* habitual and *a* indicate future tense in the language. Sentences (1b-3b) are derived or generated which can be serves as the output of the movement rule, the surface structure was generated from deep structure, which are interrelated by a set of movement rule known technically as transformational rule. And also in the examples above, *t* indicate trace of the constituents.

In the examples of the sentences above when the NP or PP moved from the complement position to subject position as a result of movement operations, the movement changes the sentences from statement and

declarative to emphatic sentences in the language. The emphatic expression is indicated on the tree diagrams by “*ante*”, whereby the node representing the moved elements i.e. NP or PP is higher than the one derived from it. In Bura language emphatic expression occupied the head of its own and to make the statement more emphatic in Bura language. We have also observe that when a NP or PP moved from initial position to subject position mostly has emphatic expression will be introduce as a result of movement operation. A Sentence without “*ante*” is regarded as ungrammatical sentence in Bura language as in (4c).

Another example of head-head and phrasal movement

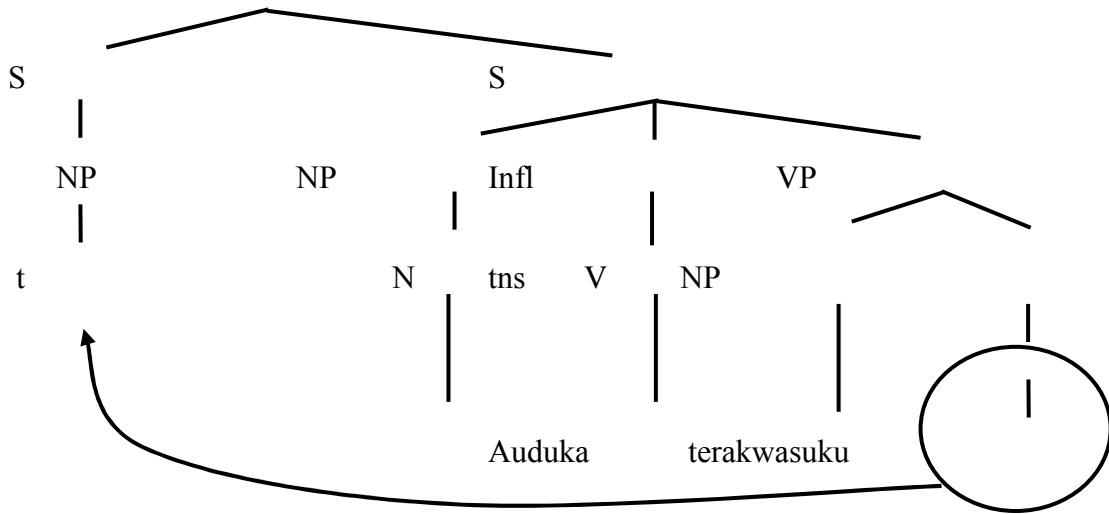
5. a) Hāmzaana si nāhà ka xəxəpà. Bura
 (Hamza hab.came yesterday in the morning)
 Hamza came yesterday in the morning
- b) Hamza ana si nahakaxəxəpà.
- c) Ka xəxəpà àntə Hamza a si nāhà t. Bura
 (in the morning emp. Hamza futcame yesterday)
 In the morning Hamza came yesterday.
6. a) Hàuwa ata kwasà xəvà. Bura
 (Hàuwa fut. eat food)
 Hàuwa will eat food.
- b) Hàuwa ata kwasà xəvà
- c) Xəvà àntè Hàuwa a kwasà t. Bura
 (Food emp.Hauwa perf. eat)
 Food was eaten by Hauwa.

Phrase markers also are used to illustrate the movement operations in Bura language. Furthermore, we have the following examples in the language;

7. a) Audù ka tera kwàsukú
 (Audu he-perf went market)
 Audu went to Market.

Bura

b) S

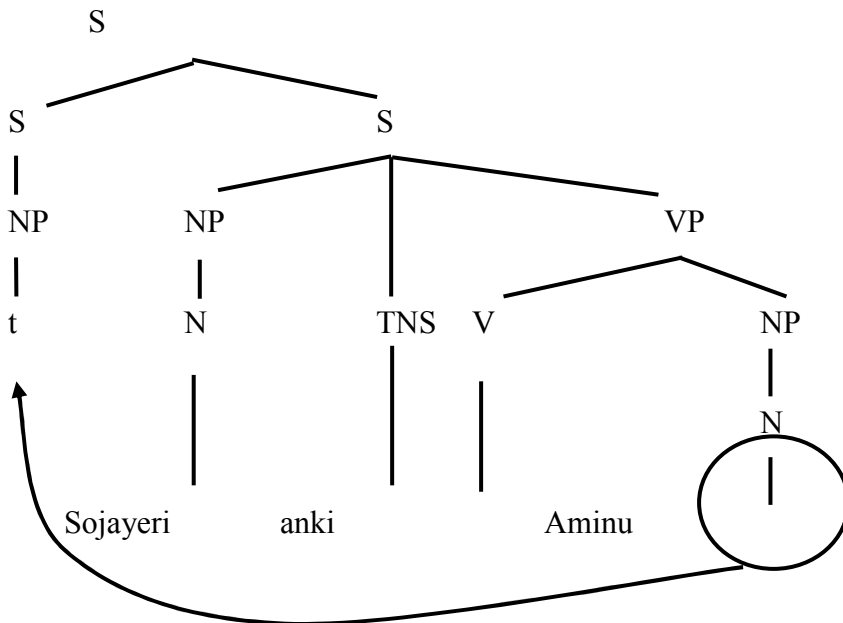


c) Kwàsukú ànte Audù ka tera t.
 (Market emp. Audu he-perf. went)
 Audu went to Market.

8. a) Sojayèri a nki Amìnu
 (Soldier-pl fut catch Aminu)
 The soldiers will caught Aminu.

Bura

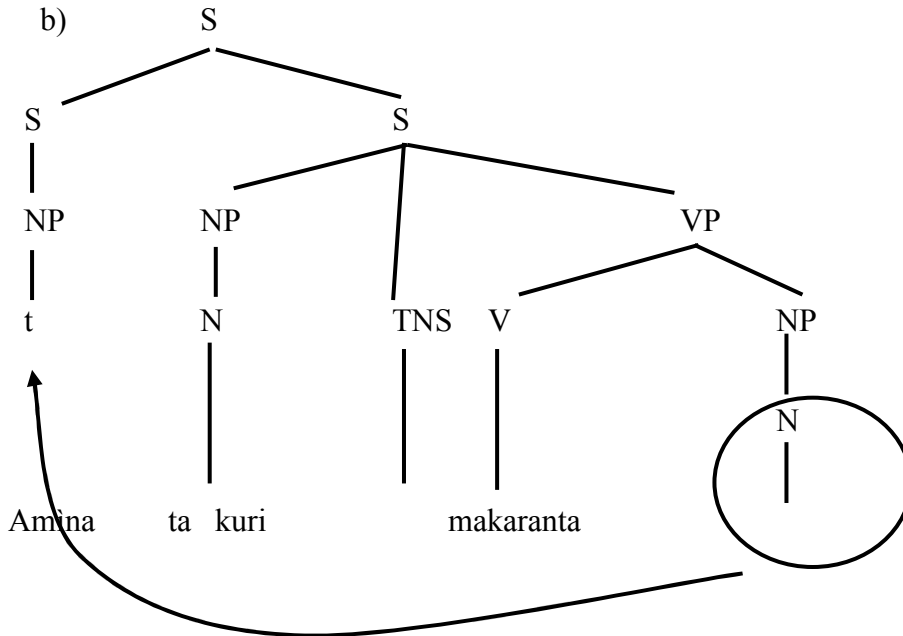
b)



c) Aminu àntə sòjayeri a nki t.
 (Aminu emp. Soldier-pl perf. catch)
 Aminu was caught by the soldiers.

9. a) Amìna ta kùri makarànta.
 (Aminashe-fut. complete school)
 Amina will complete her school.

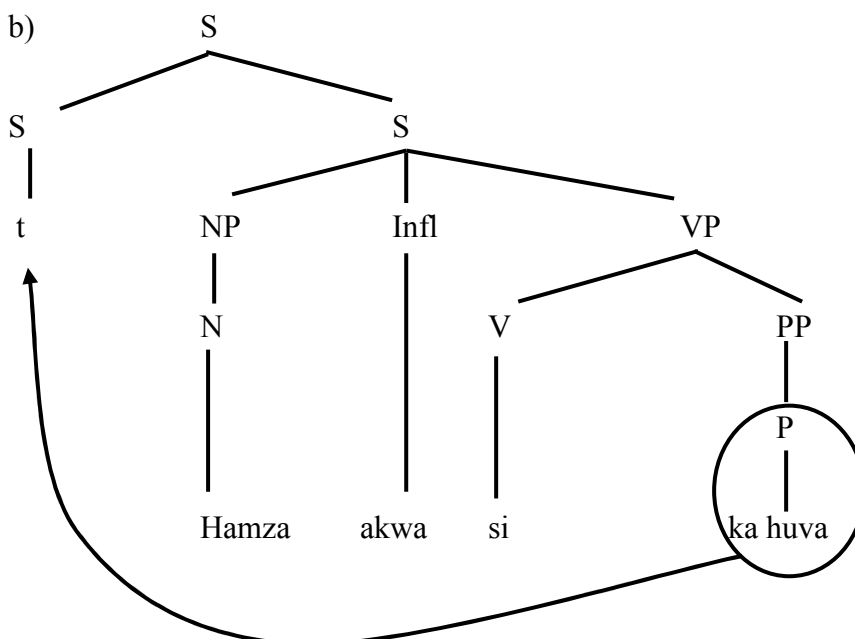
Bura



c) Makarànta àntə Amìna ta Kùri t.
 (School emp. Amina she-fut, finish)
 School was finished by Amina.

10. a) Hâmzaàkwasi kà hùva.
 (Hamza prog.came with haste)
 Hamza has come with haste.

Bura

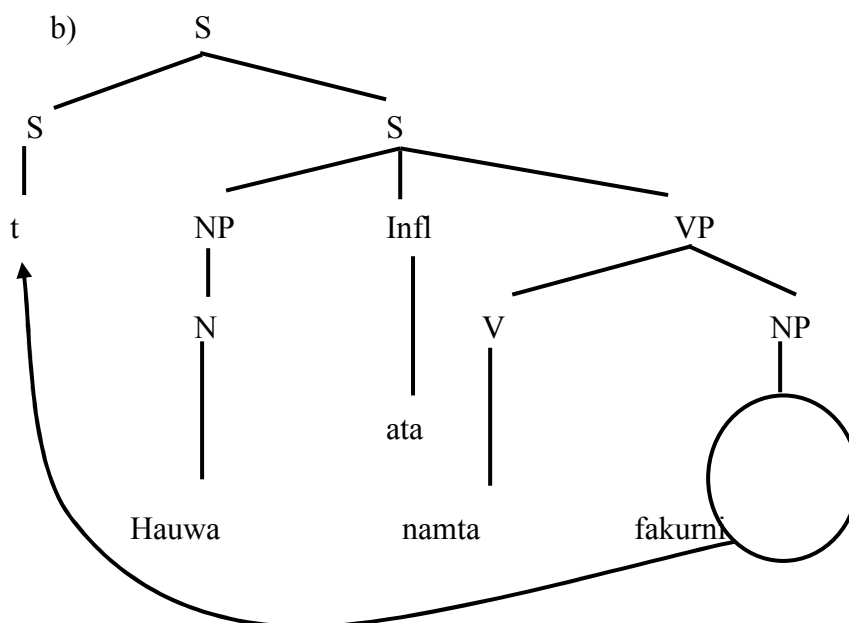


c) Kàhùva ante Hamza Ø si.

(with haste emp. Hamza came)
 With haste Hamza has come.

11. a) Hauwa ata nàmtà fàkurni t.
 (Hauwa she-fut. clear farm-her)
 Hauwa clear her farm.

Bura



c) Fakurni ante Hauwa ta nàmta.
 (Farm-her. Emp.Hauwa prog. cleared)
 Farm was prepared by Hauwa.

We observed on these tree diagrams in Bura language it is possible to move NP, PP from one head position to another head position i.e head-to-head movement or phrasal movement. We also observed that in Bura language when a head of the phrase is moved to the subject position as indicated in the above examples, trace of the moved elements is left to indicate something has moved. For instance, in some instances habitual tense change to future tense as in example (5), future tense changes to perfective tense as in examples (6&8) and progressive changes to perfective as in (10) example, future tense also changes to progressive tense as in (11) in the above examples. All the tree

diagrams represented so far are governed by binary branching principles, trace theory, endocentricity principle and movement theory.

The Bura language almost exhibits the same syntactic movement with other languages. All these movements are governed by theory, principles and conditions associated with movement operations. We conclude by saying that in Bura language, head-to-head or phrasal movement are restricted to some conditions and principles attached to movement operations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights what had been discussed in the previous chapters of the work. And also to draw conclusion about what have been observed in the language.

5.2 Summary and Conclusion

This research work is an attempt to study the movement operations in Bura language. The first chapter provided the general brief outline of syntax, as one of the branches of linguistics which are governed by theories, principles and conditions that are govern the sentence structure of individual language. The first chapter gives a detailed background of the study, aim and objective, limitation of the study, the significance of the study and the hypothesis of the research and research methodology.

The second chapter contains a review of related literature relevant to the study. It also contains relevant data that are related to the research. Chapter three of this research also contains theoretical framework. Chapter four describes the movement operations that are found operating in Bura language. Also tree diagrams are used to describe movement operations in the language. In this chapter we observed that the Bura language has a similar movement operation with some other languages. But they are differ in one way or another. Chapter five highlights the whole discussion in this research work and all its findings.

Apart from differences that we have observed in different languages, a language could have the same syntactic movement despite that they are

belong to the same language family. We also observed that Bura language, when an NP moved from object position to subject position that already have an NP, the moved NP has to introduce an element for a sentence to become grammatical. Tenses in Bura language do not indicate an agreement like other languages, as the language does not have grammatical gender distinction.

For instance, in Hausa language head-to-head movement, change the tense, while in Bura language head-to-head movement also changes the tenses from future tense to habitual tense as indicated in subsequent examples. We observed in Bura language when the head of the phrase is moved from one position to another position, the movement is also indicated on the tree diagram, but this movement in Bura language introduces an emphatic expression, which is also indicated in sentential representation or tree diagram. Whereas in Bura language the sentence changes from statement, declarative to emphatic sentence, but the emphatic expression must have to be indicated in sentential representation or tree diagram, for the sentence to become grammatical sentence. These movements change the tenses in some sentences, the changes introduce an emphatic expression, which must be indicated or represented in all representation in order to have grammatical sentence in Bura language.

Finally, this study is an attempt to give some possible movement operations i.e. non-operator movement which deals with NP, PP and other phrasal movement, regardless of operator movement that is to say wh-movement. The study also considered some theories, conditions, principles and rules related to movement operations to discuss possible syntactic analysis in Bura language, as the language has a few publications regarding syntactic

aspects. The language is also classified as a member of the Bata-marghi of Chadic family under Afro-Asiatic phylum.

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Appendix

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