

VARIETIES OF HAUSA SPOKEN BY KANURI IN MAINLY KANURI SPEAKING AREAS OF MAIDUGURI METROPOLIS, BORNO STATE NIGERIA

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Abstract: Language is an indispensable tool in human and societal development. The dynamic nature of language requires continuous studies in order to keep pace with the development and also expand the frontier of knowledge. This paper attempts to examine the variety of Hausa spoken by the Kanuri in mainly Kanuri speaking areas of Maiduguri metropolis phonologically as well as morpho-syntactically. Interview and unobtrusive observations were the main tools used in the collection of data. The analysis reveals that at phonological level, variations are due to sound deficiency of some Hausa sounds in Kanuri phoneme inventory. The phonological variations reflected in the study are: glottalized sounds are deglottalized, labialized sounds are delabialized, there is no distinction between flap and trill sounds, diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ are monophthongized. At the morpho-syntactic level there is lack of adherence to gender/concord rules, improper use of indirect object markers and preposition among others.

Keywords: Kanuri, interference, transfer, phonology, morpho-syntax.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Hausa is without question one of the most widely spoken Chadic language. Schuh (1982) describes it as coming second only to Arabic in terms of the number of native speakers on the African continent. It is the first language of twenty five to thirty million people in northern Nigeria, the Niger republic and scattered communities of settlers and traders in large towns throughout West Africa (Pawlak 2002). Hausa is, aside from English, the *lingua franca* of Northern Nigeria and has a well documented written tradition, including an abundance of written literature. Hausa was originally written in Arabic script (*Ajami*), but since the time of British colonial influence has been written in Roman script. Hausa is also broadcast widely in some international radios (which includes a section at the BBC World Service in London, Radio France International, Radio DeutscheWelle, Voice of America, etc), and is also taught in several universities around the world, including School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) London, University of California Los Angeles USA (UCLA), University of Khartoum, Sudan, Stanford University USA, University of Cairo Egypt etc

Greenberg (1963) classifies Kanuri under the Saharan branch of the Nilo-Saharan phylum of African languages. Cyffer (1981) observes that Kanuri is the widest language spoken in Chad, Nigeria, Niger and some part of Cameroon. Kanuri speakers are also found in Hadeja in Jigawa state, Azare and Misau in Bauchi state, Lafiya Barebari in Nasarawa state and Bukuru in Plateau state Nigeria.

According to Avery and Ehrlich (1992), most learners of second language transfer their L¹ sound patterns into the second language and this transfer is likely to cause mispronunciations of words by non native speakers. In this respect they pointed out that the sound system of the native language can influence the learner's pronunciation of the target language

in at least three ways: First, when there is a sound in the target language which is absent from the learners native sound inventory or vice versa, learners may not be able to produce or even perceive the sound(s). Secondly, when the rules combining sounds into words (i.e. phonotactic constraints/rules) are different in the learners L¹ from those of the target language, they cause problems for learners because these rules are language specific as such they vary from one language to another. Thirdly, since the rhythm and melody of a language determine its patterns of stress and intonation, learners may transfer these patterns into the target language. Most second language learners transfer their L1 phonology, morphology and syntax into the target language (L2).

1.2 Statement of the problem

The goal of most second language learners is attain native like fluency. They want to be indistinguishable from native speakers. However, for many native Kanuri Hausa speakers in the study area, this native like fluency is elusive as native speakers easily identify them as non native speakers because of the difficulties they face as a result of linguistic transfer or interference. This study attempts to find the type of Phonological as well as morpho-syntactic difficulties native Kanuri speaker of Hausa faces when communicating in Hausa.

1.3 Significance of the study

- i. The study will enable us to understand the difficulties a native Kanuri speaker of Hausa faces in speaking some Hausa sounds and linguistic features not found in his native language.
- ii. The study will provide useful information for use in language planning, standardization and development of teaching materials for use in all levels of education.
- iii. Finally, the study will also serve as reference material to students of Hausa in particular and linguistics in general.

2. METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

2.1 Methodology and procedure for data collection: Research instrument is a means through which data is collected from different sources and put together for analysis. In the course of data collection, two research instruments were used to collect data for this study i.e. structured interview and unobtrusive observation.

2.1.1 Structured interview: The interview was carried out with a definite aim of obtaining valid and reliable information through the responses of the interviewee. The nature of the interview is as follows: The researcher divides the interview into two (2) sections. Section one is designed to collect background information of the respondents. Questions asked include name, age, sex, occupation, name of ward. In section two (2) direct and indirect questions were used to solicit response from the respondents. Where the respondents can understand English direct questions were used i.e. the researcher ask them to name some items such as Household utensils, parts of the body, animals, food items etc or their equivalent in Hausa. But where the respondents cannot understand English indirect questions were used, whereby objects were presented to the respondents to name them or give their equivalent in Hausa. The reason for using indirect questions to those who cannot understand English is to enable the researcher to hear how the respondents will call the items that were presented to them. The researcher feels that if he can call the name of the items and ask the respondents to say them they may likely imitate him (the research).

With regard to sampling, random sampling technique was used in the selection of the respondents. A total of sixteen (16) respondents were selected from each ward (Shehuri North, Shehuri South, Mafoni, Bulabulin, Lamisula and Ngomari) that represents area of the study, given a total of ninety six (96) respondents. This number was arrived at after the researcher contacted two hundred and four (204) (i.e. seventeen (17) males and seventeen (17) females given a total of (34) respondents from each town that covers area of the study who have shown interest to participate in the research. The researcher collected their names, sex and ages which he wrote on small pieces of paper. Thereafter, the names were placed in two different cartons (male and female) out of which the researcher randomly selected a total of ninety six (96) respondents.

2.1.2 Unobtrusive observation: The unobtrusive observation was conducted at various points in the area of the study where the researcher spends at least 30- 45 minutes in each place daily for four weeks. These places consist of ward Bus stops, market stalls, places of worship, non conventional schools etc. These places are identified and considered suitable for unobtrusive observation because they attract many people. The researcher took notes, wrote sentences, phrases during

the unobtrusive observation. Conversations carried out during the course of interview and unobtrusive observations were recorded using mobile phone and later transcribed.

2.1.3 Model of Approach

The models of approach adopted for this study are that of Pawlak (2003) and Baba (2005). In her approach, Pawlak (ibid) analyzes the varieties of Hausa spoken outside the Hausa land proper, mainly in its function as lingua franca in Jos urban centre in central Nigeria. The study looks at the level of pronunciation among various ethnic groups in Plateau that speak Hausa. Pawlak (ibid) also observes that manifestation of the vowel length considerably distinguishes ethnic and non ethnic pronunciation in Plateau Hausa varieties.

In his approach, Baba (2005) observes *Deglottalization, syncope, monophthongization of diphthongs, simplification of tenses, indirect object construction, and morpho-syntactic deviations*, among others characterized Hausa spoken in Jos/Bukur.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Based on the data collected for the study, it was discovered that there are some striking phonological and morpho-syntactic differences between standard Hausa and Hausa Spoken by native Kanuri in the study area. These differences are categorized into two i.e. phonological variations and morpho-syntactic variations.

3.1 Phonological variations

These are utterances which are not in keeping with the phonological norms of standard Hausa. The way these utterances are made would not affect the meaning of that word.

3.1.2 Deglottalization: This is the absence or removal of the features of articulation of glottal stop as a secondary feature of speech sound. The finding reveals that glottalized consonants /q/ /qy/ /qw/ in standard Hausa are deglottalized in Kanuri Hausa.

Voiceless velar ejective /q/ in standard Hausa becomes voiceless velar stop /k/ in Kanuri Hausa. Consider the following examples:

1.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	/q/	[q]	/k/	[k]	
	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	
(a)	Qafàa	[qafàa]	kafàa	[kafàa]	leg
(b)	haqàa	[haqàa]	hakàa	[hakàa]	to dig
(c)	qoofàa	[q ^w ofàa]	koofàa	[k ^w ofàa]	door

Voiceless labialized velar ejective /qw / in standard Hausa becomes voiceless velar stop /k/ in Kanuri Hausa. Consider the following examples:

2.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kilba Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	/qw/	[q ^w]	/k/	[k ^w]	
	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	
(a)	qwaacèe	[q ^w aat[èe]	koocèe	[k ^w aat[èe]	to take by force
(b)	qwarai	[q ^w araj]	kore	[k ^w araj]	very well
(c)	qwâi	[q ^w aj]	koi	[k ^w aj]	egg

Voiceless palatalized velar ejective /qy/ in standard Hausa becomes voiceless velar stop /k/ in Kanuri Hausa. Consider the following examples:

3.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	/qy/	[q ^ɨ]	/ky/	[k ^ɨ]	
	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	
(a)	qyauree	[q ^ɨ auree]	koree	[k ^ɨ auree]	door (frame)
(b)	qyaale	[k ^ɨ aale]	keele	[k ^ɨ aale]	to ignore
(c)	qyalqyalee	[q ^ɨ alq ^ɨ alee]	kelkelee	[k ^ɨ alk ^ɨ alee]	laugh loudly

Glottalized voiced bilabial implosive /v/ in Standard Hausa is released as voiced bilabial stop /b/ in Kanuri Hausa. Consider the following examples:

4.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
(a)	vàraawò		bàraawò		thief
(b)	vàrnaa		bàrnaa		destruction
(c)	vera		bera		rat

Glottalized voiced alveolar implosive /x/ in Standard Hausa corresponds to voiced alveolar plosive /d/ in Kanuri Hausa. Consider the following examples:

5.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
(a)	xaakì		daakì		room
(b)	xaurè		dorè		to tie
(c)	xaacii		daacii		bitter

3.1.3 Degemination: It is a phonological process whereby a cluster of two identical sounds becomes simplified, i.e. the cluster becomes a neutralized sound. Geminated words in Standard Hausa are degeminated in Hausa spoken by the Kanuri, which is accompanied by compensatory vowel lengthening, which Crystal (1997:74) describe it as an effect in which the deletion of one segment is accompanied by an increase in the length of another, usually adjacent to it, thus preserving the syllable weight. This phonological process has been observed to operate in adjectives and verbs in Hausa spoken by the Kanuri. Consider the following examples:

6.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	
(a)	bùgaggee	[bùgagg ^ɨ ee]	bùgaagee	[bùgaag ^ɨ ee]	intoxicated
(b)	kòorarree	[k ^w òorarree]	koòraree	[k ^w òoraree]	fugitive
(c)	rùvavvee	[rùvavvee]	rùbaabee	[rùbaabee]	decomposed

3.1.4 Delabialization: This is the absence or removal of the features of articulation of labial sound as a secondary feature of speech sound.

Voiced labialized velar /g^w/ is delabialized to /g/ in Hausa spoken by Kanuri. Consider the following examples:

7.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	
	/g ^w /	[g ^w]	/g/	[g ^w]	
(a)	gwanda	g ^w anda	gonda	g ^w onda	pawpaw
(b)	gwarzo	g ^w anda	gorzo	g ^w orzo	brave
(c)	Gwamna	g ^w amna	gomna	g ^w omna	governor

Labialized velar stop /kw/ is delabialized to /k/ in Hausa spoken by Kanuri. Consider the following examples:

8.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>	<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
(a)	kwando	kondo	basket
(b)	kwaano	koono	bowl
(c)	kwanta	konta	lie down

3.1.5 Palatalization: This is the absence or removal of the features of articulation of palatal sound as a secondary feature of speech sound.

Palatalized velar stop /gy/ is released as velar stop /g/ in Hausa spoken by Kanuri. Consider the following examples:

9.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	
	/gy/	[g ^y]	/g/	[g ^y]	
(a)	gyaara	g ^y ara	gera	g ^y era	repair
(b)	gyatsa	g ^y atsa	gesa	g ^y esa	belching
(c)	gyaxa	gyaxa	geda	g ^y eda	ground nut

3.1.6 monophthongization of diphthong: The diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ in standard Hausa are monophthongized in Hausa spoken by Kanuri. Consider the following examples:

10.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>	<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
	/ai/	/e/	
(a)	masallatai	masalaate	mosques
(b)	aiki	eki	work
(c)	laifi	leefi	offence

11.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>	<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
	/au/	/o/	
(a)	daula	doola	empire
(b)	aure	oore	marriage
(c)	sauri	soori	

3.1.7 Palato-alveolar ejective /ts/ in standard Hausa is released as voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ in Hausa spoken by Kanuri. Consider the following examples:

11.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>	<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
(a)	tsamiya	saamiya	tamarind
(b)	tsaatsa	saasa	roast
(c)	tsakiya	sakiya	centre

3.1.8 Devoicing: Is a phonological process whereby a voiceless sound becomes voiced.

Voiceless alveolar stop /t/ in standard Hausa is released as voiced alveolar stop /d/ in Kanuri Hausa. Consider the following examples

12.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>	<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
(a)	qaato	kado	huge/big
(b)	kanti	kanti	shop
(c)	matashi	madashi	youth

3.1.9 Rhotasization: Standard Hausa has two types of R^s: the trilled /ř/ and the flapped /ɾ/. The flapped /ɾ/ is used to distinguish from the trilled /ř/. However in Hausa spoken by Kanuri there is no distinction between the trilled /ř/ and the flapped /ɾ/, as a result only the trilled is used. Consider the following examples:

13.	<i>Standard Hausa</i>		<i>Kanuri Hausa</i>		<i>Gloss</i>
	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>SR</i>	<i>UR</i>	
(a)	rahàa	[ɾahàa]	rahàa	[řahàa]	pleasant chatting
(b)	tarà	[taɾà]	tarà	[tařà]	nine
(c)	teebùr	[teebùɾ]	teebùr	[teebùr]	table
(d)	karnukàa	[kaɾnukàa]	karnukàa	[kařnukàa]	dogs

3.2.0 Morpho-syntactic deviations

Morpho-syntactic deviations are utterances which are not in keeping with the grammatical norms of the standard language.

3.2.1 The genitive marker: The genitive marker is one of the most widely used important markers in Hausa (Newman 2000:300). It serves to connect an NP with a following NP. It also serves to connect an adjective with a following NP. The marker has two main variants: a free particle and a bound clitic. The allomorph *-ta* is used if the head NP that governs agreement is feminine singular and the *-na* allomorph is used if the head NP is masculine or plural.

The bound linker *-r* is used only if the preceding word is feminine and *-n* is used with all masculine and plural words.

In Hausa spoken by Kanuri, the dichotomy between feminine and masculine gender does not seem to exist. The *-n* morpheme is used in masculine, feminine and plural nominal. The link element *-na* is also used for both genders. This is demonstrated in Hausa spoken by Kanuri thus:

14. *Kanuri Hausa*

(a) Riga na

gown my [masc. gen.link]

My gown

(b) matana

wife my [masc. gen.link]

My wife

(c) kujèeran mulkii

Sit [masc.gen.link] power

Sit of power

(d) rigan

[masc.gen.link]

The gown

From the above example *riga* (gown) *mata* (wife) are feminine nouns which requires feminine possessive marker *taa* (my). Similarly, *kujèera* (sit) *riigan* (the gown) are also feminine which requires referential marker *-r*.

Therefore the above examples in standard Hausa should read thus:

15. **Standard Hausa**

(a) Riga ta

gown my [masc. gen.link]

My gown

(b) matata

wife my [masc. gen.link]

My wife

(c) kujèerar mulkii

Sit [masc.gen.link] power

Sit of power

(e) rigar

[masc.gen.link]

The gown

3.2.2. Bound genitive pronoun: Bound genitive pronoun *-nshì* is commonly used in Kanuri Hausa instead of *-n/-rsa* which consists of genitive link *-n/-r* plus a genitive pronoun. The choice of the linker depends on the gender and number of the head to which it is attached. Consider the following example from native Kanuri speaker of Hausa:

16.	Standard Hausa	Kanuri Hausa	Gloss
(a)	Màatarsà	Màatanshì	his wife
(b)	gidansà	gidanshì	his house
(c)	maalàminsà	maalàminshì	his teacher
(d)	kèekensà	kèekenshì	his bicycle

From the above examples, one can see that in the Hausa spoken by native Kanuri, only the genitive pronoun *-nshì* is used to indicate possession instead of *-nsa* when the head noun that attached to it is masculine and *-rsa* when the head noun that is attached to it is feminine.

3.2.3 Pronouns: Pronouns obligatorily exhibit gender agreement whatever their syntactic functions (Newman 2000: 217). However, in Hausa spoken by the native Kanuri the pronoun does not exhibit gender agreement as exemplified below:

17. **Kanuri Hausa**

(a) Mootàa yaa vaaci

The car [fem], [masc.pro] broke down

The car broke

(b) Riigaa yaa tsuufa

The gown [fem.] [mac.pro.] got old

The gown got old

(c) Makarantân yaa cika

The school [fem] is [masc.pro] full

The school is full

The above examples in standard Hausa should read thus:

18. **Standard Hausa**

(a) Mootàa taa vaaci

The car broke down

- (b) Riigaa taa tsuufa
The gown got old
- (c) Makarantâr taa cika
The school is full

3.2.4 Copula/stabilizer: The copula/stabilizer functions as a complement connecting subject with its predicate (Baba 2005:31). The stabilizer *nee* is used with reference to masculine and plural nominals, while *cee* is used with reference to feminine nominals only.

However, in Hausa spoken by Kanuri, only *ne* is used for masculine, feminine or plural forms. Consider the following examples:

19. **Kanuri Hausa**

- (a) Hauwa nee ta zoo

Hauwa [stab. masc] she came

It was Hauwa that came.

- (b) Yarinyaa nee

girl [masc stab]

It's a girl

Rigaa nee

gown [masc stab]

It's a gown

The above examples in Standard Hausa should read thus

20. **Standard Hausa**

- (a) Hauwa cee ta zoo

Hauwa [stab. fem] she came

It was Hauwa that came.

- (b) Yarinyaa nee

girl [fem stab]

It's a girl

Rigaa nee

gown [fem. stab]

It's a gown

3.2.5 Indirect Object Constructions: Indirect object is the person or thing for whom or on whose behalf an action is carried out. Indirect object constructions in Standard Hausa are introduced by overt markers *wà/mà* (to/for). *wà* is used before a noun object and *mà* before pronoun object. Newman (2000), and Munkaila (2003) state that there is a close bond between the verb and the indirect object markers *wà/mà* (to/for) i.e. the indirect object markers cannot be separated from the preceding verb. They (Indirect object markers) resist all insertions including that of syntactically free elements such as modal particles.

However, Kanuri Hausa is characterized by the use of only *mà* (to/for) to introduce both noun and pronoun indirect objects. Consider the following examples:

21. **Kanuri Hausa**

- (a) zân yi mà yâaraa na wankaa.

I will do [pro. i.o.m] children bath.

I will bath my children.

(b) yaarân sun kaamà kàazaa mà wani mùtùm.
The Children caught hen for [pro.i.o.m] somebody.

The Children caught a hen for somebody.

(c) Musa yaa sàyaa mà bàabanshì kèèkee

Musa bought [pro. i.o.m] father bicycle

Musa bought a bicycle for his father.

The above examples in Standard Hausa should read thus:

22. *Standard Hausa*

(a) zân yi wà yâaraa na wankaa.

I will do [pro. i.o.m] children bath.

I will bath my children.

(b) yaarân sun kaamà kàazaa wà wani mùtùm.

The Children caught hen for [pro.i.o.m] somebody.

The Children caught a hen for somebody.

(c) Musa yaa sàyaa wà bàabansa kèèkee

Musa bought [pro. i.o.m] father bicycle

Musa bought a bicycle for his father.

3.2.6 Simplification of Tenses: Simplification of tenses is the process of simplifying the time relationship of the action referred to in the sentence and the time utterance easier to understand. There are eight (8) Hausa tenses: namely general and relative past, general and relative continuous tense, first and second future, habitual and as well as subjunctive tense, (Galadanci 1976, Sani 1999, Abubakar 2000, Baba 2005). The General continuous consist of TAM *-na*, which has the meaning “be in the process of or be at”. However, when the TAM is used in the relative continuative tense, the TAM *-na* then changes its form to *-kee* and also retains the same meaning i.e., “be in the process of or be at”.

However, Hausa spoken by Kanuri uses only the general continuous TAM *-na*, even when the sentence is in a relative environment i.e. relative continuous. Consider the following examples:

23. *Kanuri Hausa*

(a) Makarantàa dà inàà cikii.

The School I’m attending [gen.cont.]

The school I’m attending

(b) mée kanàa yîi dà kuxii?

What are you doing [gen.cont] money?

What are you doing with money?

(c) yaa zòo lookàcîn dà munàa makarantaa

He came when we were [gen.cont] school

He came when we were at school

In standard Hausa the above example should read thus:

24. *Standard Hausa*

(a) Makarantàa dà nakèe cikii.

The School I’m attending [rel.cont.]

The school I’m attending

(b) mée kakèe yîi dà kuxii?

What are you doing [rel.cont] money?

What are you doing with money?

(c) yaa zòo lookàcîn dà mukèè makarantaa

He came when we were [gen.cont] school

He came when we were at school

4. CONCLUSION

The above analysis, interpretation, exemplifications have clearly demonstrated that the native Kanuri speaker of Hausa is faced with diverse sound segment deficiency and linguistic transfer resulting from:

- i. Differences between the Mother tongue (Kanuri) and the target language (Hausa) phonemes which make the native Kanuri speaker of Hausa to make sound substitutions. These sounds are substituted by the closet substitute sounds in the native language. The substitutions are based on sounds which are closer in terms of place and manner of articulation with the target language (Hausa).
- ii. Mother tongue interference where the native Kanuri speaker of Hausa transfer the linguistic features of his language into Hausa. For example grammatical gender and its exponents such as agreement in the noun/pronoun system has been lost in Hausa spoken by Kanuri. Similarly, genitive link is an essential syntactic tool in Hausa. Its main use among others is to connect an NP or an adverb in an X of Y construction where X is the possessed and Y is the possessor.

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