

## Focus constructions in Juba Arabic

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This paper describes the syntactic and semantic/pragmatic value of two ex-situ focus constructions—termed here as *yáú*-focus and *fí*-focus—in Juba Arabic, an Arabic-based creole spoken in South Sudan. Alongside the descriptive account, this paper argues the possible grammaticalization process (to be shown as EXISTENTIAL > (FOCUS COPULA) > FOCUS MARKER) that gave birth to the focus construction, in particular, *yáú*-focus.

Keywords: Juba Arabic, focus construction, grammaticalization, existential construction

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### 1. Introduction<sup>\*</sup>

#### 1.1. Focus construction in Arabic-based creoles

In the linguistic literature on African languages, an interesting type of cleft-like focus strategy including a special focus marker, often termed ‘emphatic copula’ or ‘focus copula,’ has been reported in a wide range of language families. To take a few examples, Swahili *ndi*- (Ashton 1947: 179–180), Dholuo *e* (*ma*) (Okombo 1997: 114–117) Labwor *éné* ~ *é* (Heine & König 2010: 85–86), Yoruba *ni* (Jones 2006), and Bura *án* (Hartmann, Jacob & Zimmermann 2008) can mark argument focus on an ex-situ noun phrase occurring directly before each of them.

A similar construction has been reported in the two historically closely-related Arabic-based creoles, Nubi (spoken in Uganda and Kenya) and Juba Arabic (spoken in

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<sup>\*</sup> This study is based on the author’s fieldwork in Juba, South Sudan, during 2009–2013, funded by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, Grant-in-Aid for JSPS Fellows (23·6924 and 26·2651). The data were provided mainly by Tenet-speakers (in Juba) and a Bari-speaker (in Japan). The orthography of Juba Arabic in this paper corresponds to Nakao (2013). Sentences marked with an asterisk (\*) mean those judged “incorrect/unsuitable,” and those marked with question mark (?) means those judged “strange,” by the Juba Arabic speakers. Thus, they perhaps do not exclusively mean linguistically “ungrammatical.”

South Sudan) in the forms: *yaá* ~ *yaa* (Heine 1982: 28–29, Kenyan Nubi), *ya* (Wellens 2005: 237–239, 254–259, Ugandan Nubi), *yá* (Owens 1996: 151, Nubi), *yauu* (Watson & Ola 1985: 51, Juba Arabic), *yaú* (Miller 1987, Juba Arabic), *ya-au* (Smith & Ama 2005: 184, Juba Arabic), *yá/yáwu/yawú* (Manfredi & Tosco, forthcoming, Juba Arabic), etc.

The aim of this paper is to describe the syntactic and semantic/pragmatic value and the lexical source of this morpheme, represented below as *yaú* [jauʌ] and termed *yaú*-focus, in comparison with another focus strategy exhibited by *fí* (*fí*-focus), which is also reported for Nubi (Wellens 2005: 245). Previous studies have been mainly based on spontaneous data, thus in contrast, this paper utilizes elicited data. Our main questions are as follows:

- [1] What are the (lexical) sources for *yaú*-focus and *fí*-focus?
- [2] What kind of syntactic constructions do *yaú*-focus and *fí*-focus have?
- [3] What kind of semantic value do *yaú*-focus and *fí*-focus carry?

To begin with the first question, previous studies have proposed that the pan-Arabic vocative particle *yā* is the source for *yaú* (Owens 1996: 165, Wellens 2005: 237, Manfredi & Tosco, forthcoming), on the supposition that the phonological representation of this morpheme is the same as the vocative particle in both Nubi and Juba Arabic. However, according to the author's account (Juba Arabic lexically and grammatically distinguishes pitch), although *yaú* actually has an 'allegro' (reduced) form *yǎ* [jaʌ] (cf. Nakao 2013: 97), it contrasts vocative *ya* [ja] and a conjunction *yá* [jaʌ] 'or.'<sup>1</sup> For example, (1) serves as a minimal pair for the pitch distinction in Juba Arabic (*dé* 'DEM' *kélib* 'dog' and *já* 'come' are used as carriers for each morpheme).

- (1) a. *yǎ kélib.* (= *yaú kélib.*) 'Here is a dog.'
- dé yǎ kélib.* (= *dé yaú kélib.*) 'THIS is a dog.'
- yǎ kélib já.* (= *yaú kélib já.*) 'Then, a dog came'
- b. *ya kélib.* 'O dog; you, brat!'
- c. *yá kélib.* 'Or [it may be] a dog.'

Note that *yaú* (in the allegro form, *yǎ*) is actually quite multifunctional as shown in (1a). It marks existence in the first example, and focus, which is the main topic of this paper, in the second example, and it even functions as a conjunctive adverb in the last example. On the other hand, the lexifier of Juba Arabic, Sudanese Colloquial Arabic (abbreviated:

<sup>1</sup> Manfredi & Tosco (forthcoming) proposes *yáwu* as a distinct morpheme (vs. *yá* and vs. *yawú*). However, this form could not be identified by any of the author's informants.

SCA), has a similar particle *yāhú*<sup>2</sup> which reportedly marks existence, as in the next example (CLIK 2008: 12–13, the orthography is modified and the gloss is given by the author, according to the author’s informal interview with SCA speakers).

- (2) A: *‘ind-ik                      šābūn      budra?*  
          with-2SG.F                  soap        powder  
          ‘Have you got powder soap?’  
 B: *āí,                      yāhú                      š-šābūn.*  
          yes                  **here.is.3SG.M**                  DEF-soap(M)  
          ‘Yes, here is the soap.’

From this fact, one may assume that Juba Arabic *yaú* was first inherited from SCA as an existential marker, and the other functions developed internally.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, Juba Arabic has developed another existential marker *fī* as another focus marker, to be introduced in Section 2. This process can be represented as EXISTENTIAL > FOCUS MARKER.

This paper consists of five parts. Section 1 provides a brief description of argument order in Juba Arabic. Sections 2 and 3 describe the syntactic and semantic features of both *fī*-focus and *yaú*-focus, and Section 4 examines interrogative sentences. Finally, the hypothesis EXISTENTIAL > FOCUS MARKER is re-argued in the conclusion in Section 5.

## 1.2. Argument order and topicalization in Juba Arabic

Before introducing our main topic, namely *yaú*-focus and *fī*-focus, a brief description of the basic argument order and topicalization in Juba Arabic is given below.

In Juba Arabic, the most basic argument order consisting of (transitive) verbal predicate is SVO, as shown in (3a). Juba Arabic has a passive-like construction, as shown in (3b), wherein the passive verb is marked by the suffix *-ú*, and the subject of the passive sentence remains in situ. As shown in (4), these arguments exhibit topicalization or left-dislocation, wherein they appear at sentence-initial position and optional ‘pro’ may appear in situ, in order to mark their givenness, and the newness of the predicate.

<sup>2</sup> This form is for singular masculine, and SCA also has *yāhá* for feminine singular, and *yāhúm* for plural. Each form consists of the bound presentative morpheme *yā-* and a pronominal suffix (*-hu* ‘3SG.M,’ *-ha* ‘3SG.F,’ *-hum* ‘3PL(M)’). Each form can be followed by the corresponding proximative demonstrative (i.e. *yāhú da*, *yāhá di*, *yāhúm dēl*). Possible cognate morphemes for *yā-* is seen, for example, in the Arabic dialect of Šukriyya in Eastern Sudan as *ayyā-/iyyā-* (Reichmuth 1983: 109). Wellens (2005: 366–368) discusses the etymology of SCA. *yā-*, relating it to the vocative particle, but this etymology seems not to explain the forms in the Arabic dialect of Šukriyya.

<sup>3</sup> According to the author’s informal interviews with SCA speakers, this morpheme never marks focus in SCA.

- (3) a. [*jôn*]<sub>s</sub> *béredu* [*jéna dé*]<sub>o</sub>.  
 [John] bathe [child DEM]  
 ‘John bathed this child.’
- b. *bi katul-ú* [*bágara dé*]<sub>s</sub> *búkura*.  
 IRR kill-PASS [cow DEM] tomorrow  
 ‘This cow will be killed tomorrow.’
- (4) a. [*jôn*]<sub>s</sub> (*úwo*) *béredu jéna dé*.  
 [John] (3SG) bathe child DEM  
 ‘As for John <GIVEN>, he bathed this child <NEW>.’
- a’. [*jéna dé*]<sub>o</sub> *ána béredu (úwo)*.  
 [child DEM] 1SG bathe (3SG)  
 ‘As for this child <GIVEN>, I bathed him <NEW>.’
- b. [*bágara dé*]<sub>s</sub> *bi katul-ú (úwo) búkura*.  
 [cow DEM] IRR kill-PASS (3SG) tomorrow  
 ‘As for this cow <GIVEN>, it will be killed tomorrow <NEW>.’

As for the nominal and adjectival predicate, the copula does not appear in the present tense. The subject of these predicates can also be topicalized.

- (5) a. *jôn tálib*.  
 John student  
 ‘John is a student.’
- b. *jôn, úwo tálib*.  
**John** 3SG student  
 ‘As for John <GIVEN>, he is a student <NEW>.’

### 1.3. Existential constructions

In contrast to the verbal/nominal/adjectival predicates, there is a syntactically distinct type of predicate construction that includes one of the four morphemes shown in (6). These morphemes are henceforth termed ‘existentials,’ and are considered a closed word class.

- (6) a. *fī* ‘there is/are’ (EXS) < SCA. *fī*  
 b. *māfī* ‘there is/are not’ (NEG.EXS) < SCA. *māfī*  
 c. *wenú ~ wonú* ‘where is/are’ (INTERR.EXS) < SCA. *wēnú*

- d. *yaú ~ yaú dé*<sup>4</sup> ‘here is/are’ (FOC.EXS) < SCA. *yāhú* (*da*), cf. note 2.

The existentials exhibit the constituent order exemplified in (7–10), wherein the subject (exhibited here as *móyo* ‘water’) appears either before (7–10a) or after (7–10b) the existential predicate.

- (7) a. *móyo fī fī talája.*  
 b. *fī móyo fī talája.*  
 (EXS) water (EXS) LOC refrigerator  
 ‘There is water in the refrigerator.’

- (8) a. *móyo máfī fī talája.*  
 b. *máfī móyo fī talája.*  
 (EXS) water (EXS) LOC refrigerator  
 ‘There is no water in the refrigerator.’

- (9) a. *móyo wenú?*  
 b. *wenú móyo?*  
 (INTERR.EXS) water (INTERR.EXS)  
 ‘Where is water?’

- (10) a. *móyo yaú (dé).*  
 b. *yaú (dé) móyo.*  
 (EXS (DEM)) water (EXS (DEM))  
 ‘[See,] here<sup>5</sup> is water.’

The examples (7–10a) seem comparable to the topicalization process in (4) and (5b), since the subjects preferably (or obligatorily) appear only before the existentials when they are semantically definite, that is to say, given information.

- (11) a. *móyo dé fī fī talája.*  
 b. *?fī móyo dé fī talája.*  
 (EXS) water DEM (EXS) LOC Juba  
 ‘The water <GIVEN> is in the refrigerator.’

<sup>4</sup> A (proximate) demonstrative, *dé*, redundantly co-occurs with deictic adverbs, *hini dé* ‘here,’ *aléla dé* ‘today,’ etc.

<sup>5</sup> The deictic interpretation of existential *yaú* is limited to the proximate meaning. Thus, (i) *yaú móyo íni* ‘Here is water (gloss: FOC.EXS water **here**)’ is grammatical, but (ii) *\*yaú móyo inák* (gloss: FOC.EXS water **there**) is ungrammatical.

- (11) c.            *úma*    *taí*        *fí*        *fí*        *júba.*  
 d.? *fí*        *úma*    *taí*                            *fí*        *júba.*  
       (EXS)    mother    POSS.1SG    (EXS)    LOC        Juba  
       ‘My mother <GIVEN> is in Juba.’
- e.            *emá*        *fí*        *fí*        *júba.*  
 f.? *fí*        *emá*                            *fí*        *júba.*  
       (EXS)    Emma    (EXS)    LOC        Juba  
       ‘Emma <GIVEN> is in Juba.’
- g.            *ána*        *fí*        *fí*        *júba.*  
 h. \**fí*        *ána*                            *fí*        *júba.*  
       (EXS)    1SG        (EXS)    LOC        Juba  
       ‘I <GIVEN> am in Juba.’

To summarize, an existential (*fí*, *máfí*, *wenú*, *yauú*) as the predicate in a sentence can mark the information structure of the subject by means of the argument order. In addition to the above discussion, the next section examines another function exhibited by *fí* and *máfí*, as a type of focus marker.

## 2. *fí*-focus

### 2.1. Grammaticalization of *fí* and *máfí*

Among the existentials, *fí* and *máfí* appearing in sentence-initial position followed by a noun (phrase) can take a verbal predicate as in (12). The sentences can be interpreted in two ways: i. *fí/máfí* not as a predicate, and ii. *fí/máfí* as a predicate, syntactically shown in (12a)’. In the former interpretation, which is henceforth to be termed *fí*-/*máfí*-focus, the reading of the TAM of the sentence depends on the TAM marking of the verbal predicate.

- (12) a. *fí*        *sabí*    *taí*        *táni*    *já*        *min*    *béled.*  
       EXS    friend    POSS.1SG    certain    come    from    country  
       i. ‘A friend of mine came from the country.’  
       ii. ‘There is/was a friend of mine who came.’
- b. *máfí*    *zól*        *táni*    *bi*        *kóre.*  
       NEG.EXS    person    certain    IRR        cry  
       i. ‘No one will cry.’  
       ii. ‘There is/will be no one who will cry.’

- (12a) i. [*fī*     *sabí*     *taí*     *táni*]     *já*     *min*     *béled*.  
           [EXS     friend     POSS.1SG certain]     come     from     country  
 ii. *fī*     [*sabí*     *taí*     *táni*     (*al*)     *já*     *min*     *béled*].  
           EXS     [friend     POSS.1SG certain     (REL)     come     from     country]

## 2.2. Semantic/pragmatic value of *fī*-/*máfi*-focus

To understand the grammaticalized function of *fī* and *máfi* as focus markers, let us first look at the following examples. Using the example in (13) as the base, the noun directly following *fī*-/*máfi*-focus cannot be a definite noun (marked here by *dé* ‘DEM’) as shown in (14), but it can be marked by indefiniteness-sensitive phrases as in (15) and (16).

- (13) a. *fī*     *mára*     *gí*     *wógif*     *fí*     *maháta*.  
           EXS     woman     IMPERF     stand     LOC     bus.stop  
           ‘A woman is standing at a bus stop.’  
 b. *máfi*     *mára*     *gí*     *wógif*     *fí*     *maháta*.  
           NEG.EXS woman     IMPERF     stand     LOC     bus.stop  
           ‘No woman is standing at a bus stop.’
- (14) a. \**fí*     *mára*     *dé*     *gí*     *wógif*     *fí*     *maháta*.  
           EXS     woman     DEM     IMPERF     stand     LOC     bus.stop  
 b. \**máfi*     *mára*     *dé*     *gí*     *wógif*     *fí*     *maháta*.  
           NEG.EXS woman     DEM     IMPERF     stand     LOC     bus.stop
- (15) a. *fí*     *mára*     *táni*     *gí*     *wógif*     *fí*     *maháta*.  
           EXS     woman     certain     IMPERF     stand     LOC     bus.stop  
           ‘A woman is standing at a bus stop.’  
 b. *máfi*     *mára*     *táni*     *gí*     *wógif*     *fí*     *maháta*.  
           NEG.EXS woman     certain     IMPERF     stand     LOC     bus.stop  
           ‘No woman is standing at a bus stop.’
- (16) *fí*     *júzu*     *min*     *nás*     *bi*     *téfigu*     *wihida*.  
           EXS     part     from     people     IRR     agree     unity  
           ‘A part of people will be for unity.’

This seems to parallel the argument order of existentials that we examined in (11), namely, both the subject of the existential predicate and the subject of a sentence marked by *fī*-/*máfi*-focus cannot be definite (or cannot represent given information).

Accordingly, it seems that all the elements following *fī-/máfi*-focus are new information; thus, *fī-/máfi*-focus functions as a marker of ‘sentence-focus.’ And if so, *fī-/máfi*-focus must be free from left-dislocation that moves nouns with given information (cf. Section 1.2). In other words, it should be only sentence-initial subjects that can be marked by *fī*-focus (as Wellens 2005: 254 describes for Nubi).

### 2.3. Syntactic value of *fī*-focus

Contradicting this assumption, the next example (17) shows that an object of a verbal predicate can be marked by *fī*-focus, with obligatory object movement. The example in (18) shows that the subject of the passive-verb predicate must be left-dislocated.

- (17) [**fī** *mára*] *rájjil tō dúgu* (*úwo*).  
 [EXS woman] man POSS.3SG hit (3SG)  
 ‘There was a woman whom her husband hit (her).’

- (18) a. [**fī** *bágara táni*] *katul-ú ma jôn*.  
 [EXS cow certain] kill-PASS with John  
 ‘A cow was killed by John.’  
 b. \**katul-ú* [**fī** *bágara táni*] *ma jôn*.  
 kill-PASS [EXS cow certain] with John

In addition, *fī*-focus can occur in a finite clause as in (19); however, it cannot occur in a non-finite clause (in a causative construction, e.g., led by *wodí* ‘to give ~ CAUS’), as in (20).

- (19) *aléla ána moksút, ashan* [[**fī** *sabí tai táni*]  
 today 1SG happy REAS [[EXS friend POSS.1SG certain]  
*já min béled tai*].  
 come from country POSS.1SG  
 ‘Today I am happy because a friend of mine came from my country.’

- (20) a. *ána wodí zól táni kátulu bágara*.  
 1SG CAUS person certain kill cow  
 ‘I made a person kill a cow.’  
 b. \**ána wodí fī zól táni kátulu bágara*.  
 1SG CAUS EXS person certain kill cow



Additionally, in the next example, *fī yôm*, as a frequently occurring collocation, means ‘one day.’ Although such construction is unproductive, this example shows that even a non-argument noun can be marked by *fī*-focus.

- (21) *fī yôm, ána kán gí douru fī sika.*  
 EXS day 1SG PAST IMPERF walk LOC road  
 ‘One day, I was walking on the road.’

To summarize, *fī*-focus (and *máfi*-focus) functions to mark new information, but it does not exclusively mark sentence-focus. Next, we turn to another focus strategy utilized to mark argument-focus in Section 3.

### 3. *yaú*-focus

#### 3.1. Multifunctionality of *yaú*: What is (not) *yaú*-focus?

As introduced earlier in Section 1.1, *yaú* is a multifunctional particle. In addition to its function as an existential (cf. 1.3), it marks argument-focus as shown in (22), which is the main topic of Section 3. For now, *yaú*-focus is interpreted as a kind of contrastive marker. Carrying this semantic value, *yaú* cannot co-occur with the demonstrative *dé*, and the interpretation is limited to an adverb ‘here,’ as shown in (23).

- (22) *nakáo yaú gí dúgu río.*  
 Nakao FOC IMPERF hit Rio  
 ‘NAKAO (not others) is hitting Rio.’ / ‘It is Nakao who is hitting Rio.’

- (23) a. *nakáo yaú dé gí dúgu río.*  
 Nakao here DEM IMPERF hit Rio  
 b. *yaú (dé) nakáo gí dúgu río.*  
 here (DEM) Nakao IMPERF hit Rio  
 ‘Nakao, who is here, is hitting Rio.’  
 \* ‘NAKAO (not others) is hitting Rio.’ / ‘It is Nakao who is hitting Rio.’

The existentials that we have observed in Section 1.3 are in complementary distribution. Thus, *fī* ‘there is/are’ and *wenú* ‘where is/are’ cannot co-occur in the same sentence as in (24a); although, *yaú* (*dé*) can co-occur with *fī*, since it is interpreted as an adverb. Additionally, *yaú* (not as *yaú dé*) also functions as a conjunctive adverb ‘then/thence,’ as in (25).

- (24) a. \**fí*      *móyo*      *wenú?*  
 EXS      water      INTERR.EXS  
 ‘Where is water?’
- b. *fí*      *móyo*      ***yaú***      (*dé*).  
 EXS      water      **here**      (DEM)  
 ‘Here is water.’
- (25)      *ána*      *géni*      *ma*      *úwo,*      ***yaú***      *ána*      *rija.*  
 1SG      stay      with      3SG      **then**      1SG      come.back  
 ‘I stayed with him, and then I came back.’

Returning to our topic, *yaú* as a focus marker can occur before nominal (and adjectival) predicates. This construction is a problem that is discussed later in Section 4.1.

- (26) a. *dé*      *kélib.*  
 DEM      dog  
 ‘This is a dog.’
- b. *dé*      ***yaú***      *kélib.*  
 DEM      **FOC**      dog  
 ‘THIS (not ‘that’) is a dog.’

### 3.2. Syntactic value of *yaú*-focus

#### 3.2.1. *yaú*-focus and movement

In parallel to *fí*-focus, the left-dislocation of the *yaú*-focused element is obligatory, as shown in (27). For example, the subject of a passive verb cannot occur in situ with *yaú*-focus. Additionally, as shown in (28), *yaú*-focus cannot occur in the non-finite clause in the same way as *fí*-focus can.

- (27) a. *azil-ú*                      [*zól*      *dé*]      *wozír.*  
 select-PASS                      [person DEM]      minister  
 ‘This person was elected for the minister.’
- b. [*zól*      *dé*      ***yaú***]      *azil-ú*                      *wozír.*  
 [person DEM      **FOC**]      select-PASS                      minister  
 ‘THIS PERSON (not others) was elected for the minister.’
- c. \**azil-ú*                      [*zól*      *dé*      ***yaú***]      *wozír.*  
 select-PASS                      [person DEM      **FOC**]      minister

- (28) a. *ána wodí jôn kátulu bágara dé.*  
 1SG CAUS John kill cow DEM  
 ‘I made John kill the cow.’
- b. \**ána wodí [jôn yaú] kátulu bágara dé.*  
 1SG CAUS [John FOC] kill cow DEM

Another important point is, the subtle syntactic asymmetry: the subject can be focused by *yaú* by all the author’s informants, but for non-subject NPs, the informants disagreed as to whether they can be focused by *yaú*. Taking (29a) as the base, *yaú* focuses the subject of a sentence as in (29b), without problem.

- (29) a. *ána wodí le jôn gurús.*  
 1SG give DAT John money  
 ‘I gave John money.’
- b. [*ána yaú*] *wodí le jôn gurús.*  
 [1SG FOC] give DAT John money  
 ‘I (not others) gave John money.’

However, two young Juba Arabic speakers of the Tenet people disagreed on the non-subject NPs. One could focus the direct/indirect object by *yaú* (obligatorily left-dislocated), but the other judged that it requires relativization (by *al* ‘REL’ and optional demonstrative *dé* to mark relative clause ending) of the predicate as in (29c–d). In addition, they also disagreed on non-argument NPs shown in (30)–(31) in the same way.<sup>6</sup>

- (29) c. [*jôn yaú*] (*al*) *ána wodí le úwo gurús.*  
 [John FOC] (REL) 1SG give DAT 3SG money  
 ‘I gave JOHN money.’
- d. [*gurús yaú*] (*al*) *ána wodí le jôn.*  
 [money FOC] (REL) 1SG give DAT John  
 ‘I gave John MONEY.’
- (30) *gába yaú (al) úmon rúwa fógó (dé).*  
 forest FOC (REL) 3PL go LOC.3SG (DEM)  
 ‘They went to the FOREST (not other places).’

<sup>6</sup> For other constituents that are not nouns, the grammaticality of *yaú*-focus seems to be unstable. For example, as the following examples show, an adverb (i) and a gerund (ii) are not commonly focused by *yaú*. (i) ? *wèn yaú úmon rúwa.* (gloss: where FOC 3PL go) ‘WHERE did they go?’ (ii) ? *karábu yaú úmon gí ámulu.* (gloss: destroy.GER FOC 3PL IMPERF do) ‘They are doing DESTRUCTION.’

- (31) *magás yaú (al) ána gáta be úwo wáraga (dé).*  
 scissors FOC (REL) 1SG cut with 3SG paper (DEM)  
 ‘I cut this paper with SCISSORS (not with a paper-knife, etc.).’

### 3.2.2. Syntactic strangeness of *yaú*-focus

The relativization of the predicate in a *yaú*-focus sentence is, however, not limited to non-subject NPs. As the next example (22b)’ shows, the subject focused by *yaú* can be followed by a relativized predicate. Moreover, the demonstrative *dé* optionally occurs in front of the NP focused by *yaú*, as shown in (22c–f)’.

- (22)’ a. *nakáo yaú gí dúgu río.*  
 b. *nakáo yaú al gí dúgu río (dé).*  
 c. *dé nakáo gí dúgu río.*  
 d. *dé nakáo yaú gí dúgu río.*  
 e. *dé nakáo al gí dúgu río (dé).*  
 f. *dé nakáo yaú al gí dúgu río (dé).*  
 (DEM) Nakao (FOC) (REL) IMPERF hit Rio (DEM)  
 ‘NAKAO (not others) is hitting Rio.’ / ‘It is Nakao who is hitting Rio.’

Examples (22c–f)’ seem strange when we compare them to the cross-linguistically typical ‘cleft sentences,’ namely because the syntactic position of *yaú* is never filled.

In addition, time adverbs (e.g., *umbári* ‘yesterday’), TAM adverbs (*kán* ‘PAST’ and *kedé* ‘SUBJUNCTIVE’), and the modal particle (*ma* ‘EMPHATIC’) can intervene between the focalized NP and the focus marker *yaú*. Although, these adverbial elements themselves are actually not focused by *yaú*, as shown in (32c), (33c), (34b), and (35b). In contrast, a prepositional phrase cannot intervene in this position, as shown in (36).

- (32) a. *úwo yaú rúwa fì gába umbári.*  
 b. *úwo yaú umbári rúwa fì gába.*  
 c. *úwo umbári yaú rúwa fì gába.*  
 d. *umbári úwo yaú rúwa fì gába.*  
 (yest.) 3SG (yest.) FOC (yest.) go LOC forest (yest.)  
 ‘HE went to the forest yesterday.’ (\*‘He went to the forest YESTERDAY’)

- (33) a. *úwo* *yaú* *rúwa fi gába* ***kán***.  
 b. *úwo* *yaú* ***kán*** *rúwa fi gába*.  
 c. *úwo* ***kán*** *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 d. ***kán*** *úwo* *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 (PAST) 3SG (PAST) FOC (PAST) go LOC forest (PAST)  
 ‘HE has been to the forest before.’ (\*‘He has been to the forest BEFORE.’)

- (34) a. *úwo* *yaú* ***kedé*** *rúwa fi gába*.  
 b. *úwo* ***kedé*** *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 c. ***kedé*** *úwo* *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 (SUBJ) 3SG (SUBJ) FOC (SUBJ) go LOC forest  
 ‘Let HIM (not others) go to the forest.’ (\*‘LET him go to the forest.’)

- (35) a. *úwo* *yaú* ***ma*** *rúwa fi gába*.  
 b. *úwo* ***ma*** *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 c. ***ma*** *úwo* *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 (EMPH) 3SG (EMPH) FOC (EMPH) go LOC forest  
 ‘(You must know,) HE went to the forest.’

- (36) \* *úwo* ***fi*** ***gába*** *yaú* *rúwa*.  
 3SG **LOC** **forest** FOC go  
 ‘It is he who went to the forest.’

More interestingly, the negative particle (*mâ* ‘NEG’) can occur directly after *yaú* (37a), between the focalized NP and *yaú* (37b), and between sentence-initial demonstrative *dé* (which is obligatorily introduced in this construction, probably because the negative particle *mâ* usually leads a predicate, and requires a syntactic subject) and the focalized NP without a clear semantic distinction. The negative particle *mâ* canonically occurs in the pre-predicate position and cannot precede any adverbs as shown in (38b). Thus, the construction in (37b) is strange even in Juba Arabic.

- (37) a. (*dé*) *úwo* *yaú* ***mâ*** *rúwa fi gába*.  
 b. (*dé*) *úwo* ***mâ*** *yaú* *rúwa fi gába*.  
 c. *dé* ***mâ*** *úwo* *yaú* (*al*) *rúwa fi gába* (*dé*).  
 DEM (NEG) 3SG (NEG) FOC (REL) (NEG) go LOC forest (DEM)  
 ‘HE did not go to the forest.’

- (38) a. *úwo kán mâ kúruju lúbiya.*  
 b. *\*[?úwo mâ kán kúruju lúbiya.*  
 3SG (NEG) PAST (NEG) cultivate cowpea  
 ‘He had not cultivated cowpeas.’

From the above observations, it can be concluded that the syntactic position of focal *yaú* does not allow us to regard it as a ‘(focus) copula,’ in the same way as other similar focus constructions in African languages (cf. 1.1)<sup>7</sup>.

### 3.3. Semantic/Pragmatic value of *yaú*-focus

Turning to the topic of the semantic/pragmatic value of *yaú*-focus, let us discuss potential questions arising in (39) in terms of *yaú*-sensitive constructions and contexts.

- (39) a. Does *yaú*-focus mark exhaustivity?  
 b. Does *yaú*-focus mark new information?  
 c. In what kind of context is *yaú*-focus preferred?

First, for question (39a), the NPs modified by *íya* ‘any’ cannot be focused by *yaú*, as shown in (40) and (41). This fact seems to reject the notion that *yaú*-focus marks exhaustivity of the focused NP.

- (40) a. *íya zól bi ákider já ini.*  
 b. *\*[íya zól yaú bi ákider já ini.*  
 any person (FOC) IRR can come here  
 ‘Any person can come here.’

- (41) a. *úwo bi ákulu íya ákil.*  
 3SG IRR eat any food  
 ‘S/he eats any food.’  
 b. *\*[íya ákil] yaú (al) úwo bi ákulu.*  
 [any food] (FOC) (REL) 3SG IRR eat

Actually, Juba Arabic has adverbs to mark exhaustivity, such as *barâu* ‘alone/only’ and *bês* ‘just/only.’ Such adverbs do co-occur with *yaú*-focus as in (42a, b), but marking by *yaú*-focus is not obligatory (42c). In contrast, the adverb *kamân* ‘also, too’ can co-occur

<sup>7</sup> Also, Miller (1987) states that *yaú* functions as a copula when it is followed by a nominal/adjectival predicate. However, this statement should not be instantly rejected, and we will discuss a similar observation in Section 4.1.

with *yáú*, as in (43). These examples may allow us to assume that *yáú*-focus does not exactly mark exhaustivity.

- (42) a. *úwo yáú barâu bêš ríwa fî gába.*  
 b. *úwo barâu bêš yáú ríwa fî gába.*  
 c. *úwo barâu bêš ríwa fî gába.*  
 3SG (FOC) alone just (FOC) go LOC forest  
 ‘Only HE went to the forest.’

- (43) a. *úwo yáú kamân ríwa fî gába.*  
 b. *úwo kamân yáú ríwa fî gába.*  
 3SG (also) FOC (also) go LOC forest  
 ‘HE also went to the forest.’

Turning to the next question in (39b), if *yáú*-focus marks that the focalized NP is new information, one would expect the elements occurring after *yáú*-focus to be given information. In the next example, *yáú*-focus clearly marks only the new information (i.e., Hare).

- (44) a. Presupposition: (in a folktale) Fox did not know who stole his cowpea.  
 b. *taraú, árnab yáú séregu lúbiya tó.*  
 in.fact hare FOC steal cowpea POSS.3SG  
 ‘In fact, HARE (not others) <NEW> stole his cowpea <GIVEN>.’  
 c. *?taraú, árnab séregu lúbiya tó.*  
 in.fact hare steal cowpea POSS.3SG  
 ‘In fact, HARE (not others) stole his cowpea.’

However, contradictorily, the next example in (45) shows that *fî*-focus (which marks new information) can be included in the predicate part of the *yáú*-focus construction.

- (45) *dé yáú úfura al fî zól áfura umbári.*  
 DEM FOC hole REL EXS person dig yesterday  
 ‘This is the hole that a certain person dug yesterday.’

Thus, if *yáú*-focus does not exactly mark exhaustivity or new information, what kind of focus is *yáú*-focus? The third question (39c) can be answered by examining the construction and context wherein *yáú*-focus preferably occurs.

First, since Juba Arabic has no morphological device to mark comparative or superlative, *yaú*-focus is instead used to mark similar concepts, as shown in (46).

- (46) *úwo yaú wéled towil shedîd fi fésil tómon.*  
 3SG FOC boy tall very LOC class POSS.3PL  
 ‘HE is the tallest boy in their class.’

When counterfactual and factual events are contrasted in a complex/compound sentence (optionally marked by *bidal* ‘instead’), *yaú*-focus is preferred as in (47).

- (47) a. *bidal úwo yaú kán bi já le ána,*  
 instead 3SG FOC PAST IRR come DAT 1SG  
*lakín méri yaú já.*  
 but Mary FOC come  
 ‘He would have come to me, but (actually) Mary came instead of him.’
- b. *kán sultân yaú bi mútu,*  
 PAST chief FOC IRR die  
*lakín kélib dé yaú mútu.*  
 but dog DEM FOC die  
 ‘The chief was to die, but (instead) the dog died.’

In addition to these constructions, there are several contexts wherein *yaú*-focus is preferred. The next examples show that *yaú*-focus is preferred when the speaker is required to ‘choose’ something instead of other possible alternatives. In (48a), the speaker contrasts a ‘small (bottle of) water’ to a ‘large’ one, and in (49), ‘Mama Rose’ is contrasted to other persons who cooked.

- (48) a. *móyo abu sukêr yaú kwês.*  
 water REL small FOC good  
 ‘Small (bottle of) water is good. (**It suits my needs.**)’
- b. *móyo abu sukêr (úwo) kwês.*  
 water REL small (3SG) good  
 ‘(**Generally speaking**) Small (bottle of) water is good.’
- (49) a. *ána dêr mulâ al mama-rôz yaú rákabu.*  
 1SG want stew REL Mama-Rose FOC cook  
 ‘I want the stew that Mama Rose (and no other) cooked.’



- b. ?*ána*    *dêr*    *mulâ*    *al*    *mama-rôz*    *râkabu.*  
 1SG    want    stew    REL    Mama-Rose    cook  
 ‘I want the stew that Mama Rose cooked.’

In addition to the choosing context, *yaú*-focus is preferred for counter-arguments. In the next example, speaker B gainsays the utterance made by speaker A.

- (50) A. *íta*    *wóduru*    *wên?*  
 2SG    get.lost    where  
 ‘Where were you lost? (Where were you, I did not see you for a while).’  
 B. *ána*    *fī.*    *íta*    ***yaú***    *wóduru.*  
 1SG    EXS    2SG    FOC    get.lost  
 ‘I have been around here. YOU were lost. (I did not see YOU for a while)’  
 \* *ána*    *fī.*    *íta*    *wóduru.*  
 1SG    EXS    2SG    get.lost

From all the examples examined in this section, it should be concluded that *yaú*-focus paraphrastically means ‘the very [NP] followed by *yaú*, not the other possible alternatives which are associated with the [NP].’<sup>8</sup> In the next section, we examine this conclusion by means of interrogative sentences with/without *yaú*- and *fī*-focus.

#### 4. Focus constructions and interrogative sentences

##### 4.1. Interrogatives and *yaú*-focus

As discussed in Section 3.3, *yaú*-focus marks non-alternativeness of the focalized NP. Accordingly, *yaú*-focus frequently occurs in content-interrogative sentences. At first glance, the focalization of interrogatives by *yaú*-focus seems optional, as (51a) and (51b) are semantically and pragmatically the same.

- (51) a. *íta*    *ákulu*    *sunú?*  
 2SG    eat    what  
 b. *sunú*    ***yaú***    (*al*)    *íta*    *ákulu?*  
 what    FOC    (REL)    2SG    eat  
 ‘What (single thing) did you eat?’

<sup>8</sup> In this sense, the function of *yaú*-focus in Juba Arabic seems to conform to the definition of “focus” in the alternative semantics (cf. Hartmann, Jacob & Zimmermann 2008).

However, when the interrogative is modified by focus adverbs, e.g., *bês* ‘just/only,’ *yaiú*-focus is obligatorily utilized as in (52), and NPs that are not the interrogatives in a sentence cannot be focalized by *yaiú*-focus as in (53). Also, the interrogative argument can remain in situ after *yaiú*-focus only when the sentence contains two interrogatives, but in this construction, only the subject can be focused by *yaiú*, as shown in (54).

- (52) a. \**íta*      *ákulu*      *sunú*      *bês?*  
          2sg      eat      what      just  
       b. *sunú*      *bês*      ***yaiú***      (*al*)      *íta*      *ákulu?*  
          what      only      FOC      (REL)      2SG      eat  
          ‘Only what did you eat?’
- (53) \* *íta*      ***yaiú***      *ákulu*      *sunú?*  
          2SG      FOC      eat      what
- (54) a. *munú*      (***yaiú***)      *jibu*      *sunú*      *umbári?*  
          who      (FOC)      bring      what      yesterday  
          ‘Who brought what yesterday?’  
       b. \**sunú*      *yaiú*      (*al*)      *munú*      *jibu*      *umbári?*  
          what      FOC      (REL)      who      bring      yesterday

In contrast, when the predicate of the *yaiú*-focus is nominal/adjectival, as introduced in Section 3.1, *yaiú*-focus can precede interrogatives (i.e., predicate) as in examples (55b) and (56b). What is more interesting, the interrogatives cannot be left-dislocated or marked by *yaiú*-focus in such constructions, as in (55c–d) and (56 c–d).

- (55) a. *ísim*      *táki*      *munú?*  
          name      POSS.2SG      who  
          ‘What (literally, Who) is your name?’  
       b. *ísim*      *táki*      ***yaiú***      *munú?*  
          name      POSS.2SG      FOC      who  
          ‘What is your name?’  
       c. \**munú*      *ísim*      *táki?*  
          who      name      POSS.2SG  
       d. \**munú*      ***yaiú***      *ísim*      *táki?*  
          who      FOC      name      POSS.2SG

- (56) a. *shókol tó sunú?*  
 job POSS.3SG what  
 ‘What is his job?’
- b. ?*shókol tó yaú sunú?*  
 job POSS.3SG FOC what  
 ‘What is his job?’
- c. \**sunú shókol tó?*  
 what job POSS.3SG
- d. \**sunú yaú shókol tó?*  
 what FOC job POSS.3SG

Moreover, there is another type of asymmetry that is related to the problem above. The topic of the sentence cannot be focused by *yaú* when it is followed by a verbal predicate as in (57), but *yaú*-focus can mark the topic as in (58b) and a subject NP after a topic as in (58c) when they are followed by a nominal/adjectival predicate.

- (57) a. *súzi, jéna tó dúgu jéna tai.*  
 Suzy child POSS.3SG hit child POSS.1SG  
 ‘As for Suzy, her child hit my child.’
- b. \*(*dé*) *súzi yaú jéna tó dúgu jéna tai.*  
 (DEM) Suzy FOC child POSS.3SG hit child POSS.1SG
- (58) a. *fil dé, ida tó towil.*  
 elephant DEM hand POSS.3SG long  
 ‘As for this elephant, its trunk is long.’
- b. (*de*) *fil dé yaú ida tó towil.*  
 (DEM) elephant DEM FOC hand POSS.3SG long  
 ‘As for this ELEPHANT (not others), its trunk is long.’
- c. *fil dé, (dé) ida tó yaú towil.*  
 elephant DEM (DEM) hand POSS.3SG FOC long  
 ‘As for this elephant, its TRUNK (not legs, ears, etc.) is long.’

These facts may allow us to conclude that the syntactic distribution of *yaú*-focus depends on whether the predicate is verbal or nominal/adjective.

#### 4.2. Answering typical content-interrogative sentences with *yaú*-focus

We have discussed the unobligatoriness of *yaú*-focus in (content-)interrogative sentences in the above section. As we might expect, *yaú*-focus is also unobligatory for answering. As (59) shows, *yaú*-focus just optionally occurs in an answer to an interrogative sentence containing *yaú*-focus.

- (59) Q. *munú yaú ákulu lúbiya dé?*  
 who FOC eat cowpea DEM  
 ‘Who ate the cowpeas?’
- A<sub>1</sub>. *sultân yaú ákulu lúbiya dé.*  
 chief FOC eat cowpea DEM
- A<sub>2</sub>. *sultân ákulu lúbiya dé.*  
 chief eat cowpea DEM  
 ‘The chief ate the cowpeas.’

The non-exhaustiveness of *yaú*-focus (cf. 3.3) can also be tested in an answer to an interrogative sentence. When presented with the presupposition in (60) and questions in (60)’ and (60)’’ prepared by the author, one of the author’s informants answered as follows. In these answers, only the first nominated NP is marked by *yaú*-focus.

- (60) There was a ceremony. The attendants were ministers, officers, and artists. In addition, the president and bishops were also invited, but they did not come.

- (60)’ Q. *munú yaú já?*  
 who FOC come  
 ‘Who came?’
- A. *wúzara yaú já, nâs kubâr ta makâtib já,*  
 minister.PL FOC come people big.PL POSS office.PL come  
*fanan-în kamân já, wa nâs kân ketîr.*  
 artist-PL also come and people PAST many  
 ‘The ministers came, the big-mans in the office came, the artists came, and the people [there] were a lot.’

- (60)’’ Q. *munú yaú mâ já?*  
 who FOC NEG come  
 ‘Who did not come [to the festival]?’
- A. *reîs yaú mâ já, wa bîshop mâ já.*  
 president FOC NEG come and bishop NEG come

“The president did not come, and the bishop did not come.”

In another interesting case, an informant answered the question prepared by the author (61) as follows. In this example, the predicate of the question-sentence and answer-sentence disagree, and actually the predicate in the answer contains new information, cf. (44).

- (61) Q. *sunú yaú kárabu?*  
 what FOC **break.down**  
 ‘What broke down?’  
 A. *listik yaú gídu.*  
 tire FOC **get.pierced**  
 ‘The tire (of my car) is punctured.’

#### 4.3. Answering interrogative sentences with *fí*- and *yaú*-focus

In addition to the matters discussed above, there is another type of content-interrogative sentence that requires an answer in which the entire sentence is focused (all elements in the answering sentence are new information). As we have seen, *fí*-focus can mark sentence-focus, wherein all the constituents in a sentence are new information.

As a result, all sentences without focus (A<sub>1</sub>), with *fí*-focus (A<sub>2</sub>), with *yaú*-focus (A<sub>3</sub>), and with both focus markers (A<sub>4</sub>) could be used to answer an interrogative sentence as in (62).

- (62) Q. *malú?*  
 what’s.up  
 ‘What’s up?’  
 A<sub>1</sub>. *arabíya taí kárabu.*  
 A<sub>2</sub>. ***fí*** *arabíya taí kárabu.*  
 A<sub>3</sub>. *arabíya taí yaú kárabu.*  
 A<sub>4</sub>. ***fí*** *arabíya taí yaú kárabu.*  
 (EXS) car POSS.1SG (FOC) break.down  
 ‘My car broke down.’

In addition, there is another possible type of interrogative sentence wherein the interrogative is marked by *fí*-focus. To answer this type of interrogative sentence, as in

(63),<sup>9</sup> *yaú*-focus (A<sub>1</sub>), *fí*-focus (A<sub>2</sub>), and both focus markers (A<sub>3</sub>) can be used in a similar way to (62).

(63) Q.	<b><i>fí</i></b>	<i>munú</i>	<i>bi</i>	<i>ákulu</i>	<i>lúbiya?</i>
	<b>EXS</b>	who	IRR	eat	cowpea
		‘Will anyone eat cowpea?’			
A <sub>1</sub> .		<i>sultân</i>	<b><i>yaú</i></b>	<i>bi</i>	<i>ákulu lúbiya.</i>
A <sub>2</sub> .	<b><i>fí</i></b>	<i>sultân</i>		<i>bi</i>	<i>ákulu lúbiya.</i>
A <sub>3</sub> .	<b><i>fí</i></b>	<i>sultân</i>	<b><i>yaú</i></b>	<i>bi</i>	<i>ákulu lúbiya.</i>
	<b>(EXS)</b>	chief	<b>(FOC)</b>	IRR	eat cowpea
		‘A chief will eat cowpea.’			

These types of interrogative sentences in (62) and (63) contrasts to the argument-interrogative sentence examined in (59), which cannot be answered by *fí*-focus as in (59)’. These examples support the notion presented in Section 2.3 that *fí*-focus does not only mark sentence-focus, but also a certain type of argument-focus like *yaú*-focus, although its distribution is comparatively limited compared with that of *yaú*-focus.

(59)’ Q.	<i>munú</i>	<b><i>yaú</i></b>	<i>ákulu</i>	<i>lúbiya</i>	<i>dé?</i>
	who	<b>FOC</b>	eat	cowpea	DEM
		‘Who ate the cowpeas?’			
A <sub>3</sub> .	<b>*<i>fí</i></b>	<i>sultân</i>	<i>ákulu</i>	<i>lúbiya</i>	<i>dé.</i>
	<b>EXS</b>	chief	eat	cowpea	DEM
A <sub>4</sub> .	<b>*<i>fí</i></b>	<i>sultân</i>	<b><i>yaú</i></b>	<i>ákulu</i>	<i>lúbiya dé.</i>
	<b>EXS</b>	chief	<b>FOC</b>	eat	cowpea DEM

## 5. Conclusion

Given our discussion of the the focus constructions in Juba Arabic, the syntactic and semantic/pragmatic value of *fí*-focus (with *máfi*-focus) and *yaú*-focus can be summarized as follows, thus answering questions [2] and [3] raised in Section 1.1.

- [2]’ a. *yaú*-focus [NP *yaú*] and *fí*-focus [*fí* NP] obligatorily left-dislocate the focalized element in a sentence, cf. (18) and (27).  
 b. *fí*-focus can be schematically represented as [*fí* NP] + predicate, cf. 2.3.

<sup>9</sup> Although the data is lacking, this question could be answered as ‘No man will eat cowpea.’

- [2]' c. *yau*-focus can be schematically represented, according to the nature of the focalized NP and predicate of *yau*-focus (cf. 3.2 and 4.1), as:
- i. [(DEM) subject NP (ADV) *yau*] + (REL +) verbal predicate  
(The predicate cannot contain an INTERR.)
  - ii. [(DEM) non-subject NP (ADV) *yau*] + (REL +) verbal predicate  
(The predicate cannot contain an INTERR, and it is obligatorily relativized according to the idiolect.)
  - iii. (TOP +) [(DEM) subject NP *yau*] + nominal/adjectival predicate  
(The predicate can contain an INTERR.)
  - iv. [(DEM) TOP *yau*] + subject NP + nominal/adjectival predicate
- [3]' a. *fi*-focus only marks indefinite NPs (new information, cf. 2.2), but *yau*-focus marks any NP including those marked by *fi*-focus (cf. 4.3).
- b. *yau*-focus marks non-alternativeness of the focused NP (paraphrastically, 'the very [NP] followed by *yau*, not the other possible alternatives which are associated with the [NP]'), cf. 3.3 and 4.2.
- c. *fi*-focus marks both sentence-focus and/or argument-focus, cf. 2.2, 2.3, and 4.3.

Additionally, the first question can be answered briefly as follows:

- [1]' *yau*-focus and *fi*-focus seem to have been grammaticalized from existential lexemes, namely *yau* 'here is/are' and *fi* 'there is/are,' whose cognate forms are also seen in the lexifier, Sudanese Colloquial Arabic, cf. 1.1 and 1.3.

As shown in Section 2.1, *fi*-focus clearly shows the exact grammaticalization path shown in (64). Although it is not introduced in this paper, a precedent for similar grammaticalization seems to exist, for example, in Chinese (Li & Thompson 1989: 509–519).

(64) EXISTENTIAL > FOCUS MARKER

However, in contrast, the grammaticalization path of *yau*-focus seems to require more discussion, since it is not likely that *yau*-focus followed the path shown in (64) from the crosslinguistic perspective.

As we have discussed in 4.1 (cf. [2c]'), there is a syntactic asymmetry whereby the verbal predicate cannot contain an interrogative, while the nominal/adjectival predicate can. Also note that a non-subject argument is (idiolectally) required to relativize the

verbal predicate as discussed in 3.2. In this sense, the *yau*-focus on a subject NP followed by the nominal/adjectival predicate (i.e., [2c, iii.]<sup>2</sup>) has experienced the most stable grammaticalization (namely, it can be accounted for as a focus copula in this construction), and it later expanded its use as *yau*-focus on a subject (i.e., [2c, i]'), that on a non-subject (i.e., [2c, ii]') and that on a topic (i.e., [2c, iv]'). If these facts are taken into consideration, it should be concluded that *yau* first grammaticalized from (focus) existential into (focus) copula, and then from (focus) copula into focus marker as shown in (65). This two-step process seems to meet the crosslinguistically usual path to grammaticalization, as proposed by Heine & Kuteva (2002).

- (65) a. (FOCUS) EXISTENTIAL > FOCUS COPULA  
       cf. Heine & Kuteva 2002: 99, LOCATIVE COPULA > EQUATIVE COPULA  
       b. FOCUS COPULA > FOCUS MARKER  
       cf. Heine & Kuteva 2002: 95, COPULA > FOCUS

## Abbreviations

1, 2, 3	the first, second, third person
ADV	adverb
CAUS	causative verb
DAT	dative (preposition)
DEF	definite particle
DEM	demonstrative
EMPH	emphatic modal particle (= <i>ma</i> )
EXS	existential (= <i>fí</i> )
NEG.EXS	negative existential (= <i>máfi</i> )
INTERR.EXS	interrogative existential (= <i>wenú ~ wonú</i> )
FOC.EXS	focus existential (= existential <i>yau</i> )
F	female
FOC	focus (= <i>yau</i> -focus)
INTERR	interrogative
IMPERF	realis imperfect TAM marker (= <i>gí</i> )
IRR	irrealis imperfect TAM marker (= <i>bi</i> )
LOC	locative (preposition)
M	male
NEG	negative
NP	noun phrase



PASS	passive
PAST	past tense
PL	plural
POSS	possessive
REAS	reason clause
REL	relative (and attributive) clause marker
SCA	Sudanese Colloquial Arabic
SG	singular
SUBJ	subjunctive (= <i>kedé</i> )
TAM	tense, aspect, and modality
TOP	topic

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