

# The Absence of the Linker in Double Object Constructions in N|uu<sup>1</sup>

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The linker in N|uu appears before various types of nominal expressions, but not before the second object in a double object construction. Linkers in Khoisan languages such as †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi do appear in this position. I will show that this property of the linker in N|uu is related to the fact that N|uu has a dative Case marker *-a* which appears after the first object of a DOC, whereas †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi do not.

## 1. Introduction<sup>2</sup>

The linker in N|uu, a southern Khoisan language of the !Ui branch, appears before various different types of nominal expressions, such as the locative in (1a) and the direct object of a causativized verb in (1b), but not before the second object in a double object construction, as show in (2a,b) (Decl stands for declarative, and Lk stands for linker):

- (1) a.    ku    -a    si    fioo   ku   aŋki   ŋ    g!ari  
          3sg   Decl   Fut   find   3sg   father   Lk   Uprisington  
          ‘He will find his father in Uprisington’
- b.    n       -a    kx’u   |q’ōa-a       ku    ŋ    †qhee  
          1sg   Decl   make   hunt-Asp<sup>3</sup>   3sg   Lk   duiker  
          ‘I made him hunt a duiker’

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<sup>2</sup> I have recorded every sentence in this paper spoken by at least two speakers and in many cases by all five. In total, there are around 10 remaining speakers of N|uu in SA, and perhaps a few others in southern Botswana.

<sup>3</sup> I gloss the final *-a* (low tone) that appears on verbs as Asp. It is used in the present tense with a subset of stative verbs (e.g., want, know). On non-stative verbs it indicates past tense. We have not yet systematically investigated the past imperfective (progressive, habitual) nor the past tense of stative verbs.

- (2) a. Griet ke si ʔāa ku-a doŋki-si  
 Griet Decl Fut give 3sg-Dat donkey-Sg  
 ‘Griet will give him the donkey’
- b. ku -a si kaʒama ŋ|angusi-a ʘoe  
 3sg Decl Fut show N|angusi-Dat meat  
 ‘He will show N|angusi the meat’

The fact that the linker does not appear before the second object of a DOC is surprising because linkers in other Khoisan languages such as †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi do appear in this position. I will show that this difference in the syntax of the linker is related to the fact that N|uu has a dative Case marker *-a* which appears after the first object of a DOC, whereas †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi do not.

In section 2, I will discuss structures of the form [V Lk X], where the linker appears between the verb and one post-verbal constituent. In section 3, I will discuss how-constructions, which also involve a linker. In section 4, I will propose that the linker is a Case checking head. In section 5, I will discuss structures of the form [V DP Lk X] where the linker appears between two post-verbal constituents. In section 6, I will discuss causatives. In section 7, I will explain the absence of the linker in DOCs. In section 8, I will give a table summarizing the properties of the linker and how they vary amongst the Khoisan languages.

All the data in this paper are from N|uu unless otherwise indicated. All the data from †Hoan are from Collins (2003). All the data from Ju|’hoansi are from Collins (2003) and Dickens (1992). The N|uu sentences are written in the IPA alphabet.

## 2. V Lk X

In this section I will discuss some cases where the linker appears between the verb and a post-verbal constituent. Consider first the case where a locative expression follows an intransitive verb. An intransitive verb is a verb without a direct object. In this case, a linker must precede the locative<sup>4</sup>:

<sup>4</sup> Note that I am not claiming that the verbs in (3) are always intransitive. For example, the verb ‘dance’ can be used transitively, and therefore the verb ‘dance’ has a transitive and an intransitive use.

i. ku-a si |qhōʰ !ʔui  
 3sg-Decl Fut dance !ʔui  
 ‘He will dance !ʔui’



- (6) a. ku -a si |qhõ<sup>f</sup> ŋ !haeka  
 3sg Decl Fut dance Lk tomorrow  
 ‘He will dance tomorrow’
- b. g|a †ao-a a †hoa ŋ ku mari (!?ama)  
 2sg want-Asp 2sg talk Lk 3sg money about  
 ‘Do you want to talk about his money?’

Temporal expressions, as opposed to locatives, can also appear in a preverbal position, in which case they are not preceded by a linker<sup>5</sup>.

- (7) a. ku -a si !haeka |qhõ<sup>f</sup>  
 3sg Decl Fut tomorrow dance  
 ‘He will dance tomorrow’
- b. \*ku -a si g!ari |qhõ<sup>f</sup>  
 3sg Decl Fut Upington dance  
 ‘He will dance in Upington’

A linker does not appear between a transitive verb and its direct object:

- (8) a. n -a †hāu-a !qhaa  
 1sg Decl pour-Asp water  
 ‘I poured water’
- b. n -a si ||?au -|?e ||aβa  
 1sg Decl Fut bury -put.in bone  
 ‘I will bury the bone’
- c. ku -a si ||x’oo ⊙oo-ke  
 3sg Decl Fut chop wood-pl  
 ‘He will chop wood’

<sup>5</sup> Westphal pg. 46 has other examples of preverbal temporal adverbs with no accompanying linker (see Güldemann’s 2004a publication of Westphal’s manuscript). In terms of the analysis presented in section 3, preverbal temporal adverbs have no Case feature, and post-verbal temporal adverbs have a Case feature (checked by the linker). I do not have independent evidence for this analysis of temporal adverbs.

d. ku -a si f̥oo ku aŋki  
 3sg Decl Fut find 3sg father  
 ‘He will find his father’

e. kunisi ke si ɬam !ao  
 wagon Decl Fut hit rock  
 ‘The wagon will hit the rock’

Inserting a linker between a transitive verb and its direct object results in ungrammaticality:

(9) ku -a si f̥oo (\*ŋ) ku aŋki  
 3sg Decl Fut find Lk 3sg father  
 ‘He will find his father’

A similar constraint holds for ɬHoan and Ju|’hoansi (recall, I am assuming that the transitivity suffix *-a* in Ju|’hoansi is a form of the linker, as discussed in Collins (2003)). The following sentences are from Collins 2003:

(10) \*koloi g||on-a ki Jefo (ɬHoan)  
 car hit-Perf Lk Jeff

(11) \*uto dchuun-a |Kaece (Ju|’hoansi)  
 car hit-Trans |Kaece

There are some verbs that take a locative complement without a linker:

(12) a. ku -a si ||ʔae g!ari  
 3sg Decl Fut go Upington  
 ‘He will go to Upington’

b. ŋɬhau ke |ʔee !oo  
 dungbeetle Decl enter hole  
 ‘the dungbeetle is entering the hole’

c. ku -a ŋ||a a ŋ||ŋ ||ãʔẽ  
 3sg Decl be.loc 2sg house in  
 ‘He is in your house’

- d.    ca<sup>ʔ</sup>bakusi    ke    ŋ||a                    g!ari  
       ca<sup>ʔ</sup>bakusi    Decl   be.loc                g!ari  
       “Cabakusi is in Upington”

In the above example (12c), *ŋ||a* is the form of the verb ‘be’ that is used to express location. The simplest interpretation of these verbs is that they are transitive taking a locative direct object, just as ‘enter’ in English can be transitive (‘John entered the room’). In terms of Case theory (see section 3), I assume that the verb checks the Case feature of its locative complement in these examples.

When a locative is extracted, the linker cannot be followed by a gap, instead the linker must be replaced by *ŋ||ã* ‘be.loc’<sup>6</sup> (Q stands for question, Rel stands for relative complementizer):

- (13) a.    kija    xe    ku    !ũu                    xŋ    |ʔaa    ŋ||ã  
           where Q    3sg    grandfather    Past    die    be.loc  
           ‘Where did his grandfather die?’
- b.    !hoe    he    ku    !ũu                    xŋ    |ʔaa    ŋ||ã  
           place Rel    3sg    grandfather    Past    die    be.loc  
           ‘the place where his grandfather died’
- (14) a.    kija    xe    ku    |qhõ<sup>ʔ</sup>                    ŋ||ã  
           where Q    3sg    dance                    be.loc  
           ‘Where is he dancing?’
- b.    !hoe    he    ku    |qhõ<sup>ʔ</sup>                    ŋ||ã  
           place Rel    3sg    dance                    be.loc  
           ‘the place where he is dancing’

In these cases, it is impossible to strand the linker at the end of the sentence:

<sup>6</sup>    †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi do not have this strategy for avoiding a linker followed by a gap. I have also found *ŋ||ã* ‘be.loc’ used in when-questions, and in the following question:

- i.    cui    !ʔama                    a    †ao-a                    a    †hoa    ŋ||ã  
       what    about                    2sg    want-Asp                    2sg    talk    be.loc  
       ‘What do you want to talk about?’

- (15) a.    *kiʒa xe ku !ũu xŋ |ʔaa ŋ||ã*    (\*ŋ)  
           where Q    3sg    grandfather    Past    die    be.loc    Lk
- b.    *kiʒa xe ku |qhõ<sup>ʔ</sup> ŋ||ã*    (\*ŋ)  
           where Q    3sg    dance    be.loc    Lk

With verbs like “go” (see (12)), which do not take a linker, *ŋ||ã* ‘be.loc’ is not used when the complement is extracted:

- (16) a.    *ku -a si ||ʔae g!ari*  
           3sg    Decl    Fut    go    Upington  
           ‘He will go to Upington’
- b.    *kiʒa xe ku si ||ʔae*  
           where Q    3sg    Fut    go  
           ‘Where will he go?’
- c.    *!hoe he ku si ||ʔae*  
           place Rel    3sg    Fut    go  
           ‘the place where he will go?’

*ŋ||ã* ‘be.loc’ can only replace the linker if there has been extraction:

- (17) a.    *ku !ũu ke xŋ |ʔaa ŋ (\*ŋ||ã) g!ari*  
           3sg    grandfather    Decl    Past    die    Lk    be.loc    Upington  
           ‘His grandfather died in Upington’
- b.    *ku -a |qhõ<sup>ʔ</sup> ŋ (\*ŋ||ã) ku ŋ||ŋ ||ãʔẽ*  
           3sg    Decl    dance    Lk    be.loc    3sg    house    in  
           ‘He is dancing in his house’

These extraction facts show that the system incorporates the following constraint:

- (18) \*Lk <XP>

This constraint says that the linker cannot be immediately followed by a gap (the notion <XP> means that the constituent XP has been displaced). In order to avoid (18), the linker *ŋ* is replaced by *ŋ||ã* ‘be.loc’ as a last resort.

### 3. How-Constructions

The only exceptions to the generalization that the linker cannot be placed between a transitive verb and its direct object come from causatives (see section 6) and how-questions. How-questions are illustrated below<sup>7</sup> (*Mann* in the gloss stands for ‘manner’):

- (19) a.    ku    si    jee    η    ||x’oo   η    ʘoo-ke  
              3sg   Fut   how   Mann chop   Lk   wood-Pl  
              ‘How will he chop the wood?’
- b.    ku    si    jee    η    fɒo   η    ku    aŋki  
              3sg   Fut   how   Mann find   Lk   3sg   father  
              ‘How will he find his father?’
- c.    ku    si    jee    η    ||ʔae   η    g!ari  
              3sg   Fut   how   Mann go   Lk   Upington  
              ‘How will he go to Upington?’
- d.    Simon       si    jee    η    fɒo   η    ku    η    g!ari  
              Simon       Fut   how   Mann find   Lk   3sg   Lk   Upington  
              ‘How will Simon find him in Upington?’

A strong argument that the η following the verb in (19a-d) is the linker is based on the distribution of strong pronouns. The full paradigm for strong and weak pronouns is given below:

- (20) a.    weak  
              ʔη ‘1sg’, ʔa ‘2sg’, ku ‘3sg’, ʔi, si ‘1pl’, ʔu ‘2pl’, kike ‘3pl’
- b.    strong:  
              η|η ‘1sg’, g|a ‘2sg’, ku ‘3sg’, g|i ‘1pl’, g|u ‘pl’, kike ‘3pl’

<sup>7</sup> A tentative syntactic analysis of how-questions is that the *jee* ‘how’ originates in the immediate post-verbal position, and moves to Spec MannP. Since the direct object is no longer in the immediately post-verbal position, a linker is required. I do not have sufficient data as of yet to support this analysis.



In these examples, the first and second person pronouns have a different form (which incorporates a dental click) after the linker. This form is the strong form (see Güldemann 2004b for a brief description of the distribution of the strong form). Weak pronouns can only appear as subject (Spec IP), as possessors (Spec DP), or objects adjacent to the verb. Since the position following the linker is none of these, the strong form is used. Note that weak forms can be used after the instrumental preposition ‘with’: *ŋ/a ?ŋ* ‘with me’. Examples illustrating the syntactic distribution of weak pronouns are given below:

- (21) a.     Simon       ke     si       fioo    ?ŋ  
              Simon       Decl   Fut       find    1sg  
              ‘Simon will find me’
- b.     ŋ                ke     si       ||?ae  
              1sg               Decl   Fut       go  
              ‘I will go’
- c.     ŋ        xaŋki  
              1sg    mother  
              ‘my mother’

If a how-question is formed with a verb taking a pronominal object, then the strong form is used, just like with other uses of the linker (see (34) below).

- (22) Simon       si       jee     ŋ       fioo    ŋ       ŋ|ŋ  
        Simon       Fut    how   Mann   find   Lk       1sg  
        ‘How will Simon find me’

The fact that the linker can appear before a non-locative direct object in how-questions reinforces the claim made above (see the discussion above (6)) that the linker is not a locative preposition. This conclusion will be strengthened when we consider causatives in section 6. In fact, I claim that the linker is semantically vacuous. It is a purely grammatical morpheme. In terms of Minimalist syntax, the linker is non-interpretable at the LF-interface. The property of being semantically vacuous is common to the linker in †Hoan, Ju|’hoansi and N|uu, and so can be taken as one of its defining properties.

Interestingly, in Ju|’hoansi, how-questions involve the presence of the transitivity suffix, which is one form of the linker (the other form is *ko*). This

cross-linguistic evidence supports my claim that the post-verbal  $\eta$  in how-questions in N|uu is the linker.

- (23) Ju                re        naun   kuru-a                tchi                (Ju|’hoansi)  
          person        Q        how   make-Trans                arrow  
          ‘How does a person make an arrow?’ (Dickens 1992)

When the verb is intransitive, no linker appears following the verb in a how-construction:

- (24) a.    ku        -a        si        ☉un  
              3sg    Decl   Fut    sleep  
              ‘He will sleep’
- b.    ku        si        jee     $\eta$         ☉un  
              3sg    Fut    how   Mann   sleep  
              ‘How will he sleep’

This fact is consistent with the generalization that the linker always precedes a DP, which I account for in section 3.

I have glossed the preverbal  $\eta$  in the above examples as ‘Mann’, which stands for manner. The preverbal  $\eta$  is not a linker. It has none of the properties of a linker. First, linkers always precede DPs, which I will account for in the next section. The preverbal  $\eta$  precedes a verb, not a DP. Second, the preverbal  $\eta$  is restricted to how-questions and thus-constructions, illustrated below<sup>8</sup>:

- (25) ku        xa         $\eta$         ||x’oo  $\eta$         ☉oo-ke  
          3sg    Past    Mann chop Lk    wood-Pl  
          ‘He chopped the wood thus’

This suggests that the preverbal  $\eta$  is semantically restricted in a way unlike the linker, which appears in a wide variety of constructions (before locative, temporal and reason adjuncts, in causatives and in how-questions).

<sup>8</sup> In the following example, I assume that there is a null constituent meaning ‘way/manner’ occupying Spec MannP.

#### 4. Case Analysis

I propose that the linker is a Case checking head. This analysis explains why the linker never appears before the direct object of a transitive verb (see (8,9)). Sentence (9) is ungrammatical because there are two Case checkers (the linker and the transitive verb), but only one DP.

Second, the Case analysis predicts that the linker will only precede DPs. The prediction seems to hold true. First, in all the examples where the linker has appeared so far, it appears before a DP (*g!ari* ‘Upington’ in (1a), *#qhee* ‘duiker’ in (1b)).

The linker also appears before phrases headed by locative postpositions. Some examples of locative postpositions are given below:

- (26) a.      n-a                ||hoo-a        mari                ŋ        !ao    |qhaa  
              1sg-Decl        put-Asp        money            Lk        rock    next.to  
              ‘I put the money next to the rock’
- b.      a        ke        si        hoo    mari                ŋ        !ao    tsʔi  
              2sg   Decl   Fut    find   money            Lk        rock    behind  
              ‘You will find the money behind the rock’
- c.      |x’esi                ||ʔa    sui                |oba    xu  
              necklace        go        sit.down        child    front  
              ‘the necklace fell in front of the child’  
              (From Collins and Namaseb 2005a)
- d.      Ku-a                |ʔe                ŋ||ŋ                ||ãʔẽ  
              3sg-Decl        go.in            house            in  
              ‘He goes into the house’

As argued in Collins (2001, 2003), locative postpositions in #Hoan and Ju|’hoansi are inalienable nouns. For example, locative postpositions in #Hoan trigger genitive Case on the 1sg pronoun. There is some evidence that locative postpositions are nominal in N|uuki as well. For example, the locative phrases can appear as subject:

- (27) a.      bekersi                ||ãʔẽ    ke        |x’urixa  
              cup                inside Decl    dirty  
              ‘the inside of the cup is dirty’

- b.     $\eta$        xu       ke       |x'urixa  
       1sg    face   Decl   dirty  
       'my face is dirty'
- c.     $\eta$        |qha   ke       |x'urixa  
       1sg    side   Decl   dirty  
       'my side is dirty'
- d.     $\eta||\eta$    tsʔi   ke       |x'urixa  
       house back Decl   dirty  
       'the back (backyard) of the house is dirty'

The fact that locative phrases can appear as subjects implies that they are DPs, since normally only DPs can be subjects. Therefore, I conclude that locative postpositions are nominal in N|uu as well. Therefore, in the examples in (26a,b), the linkers appear before DPs (see Baker and Collins 2005 for a discussion of nominal locatives in Kinande). Therefore the generalization that the linker always appears before DPs holds up.

Third, in how-constructions, the linker precedes the direct object of a transitive verb. In terms of the Case analysis, the verb loses the ability to check Case in the how-construction. The linker never follows an intransitive verb (see (24b)). Since there is no DP following the intransitive verb, no linker is necessary.

Fourth, the linker does not appear before with-phrases (as we will see in section 5), which unlike DPs do not have a Case feature that needs to be checked. Other than the locative postpositions, and the instrumental prepositions, there are no other prepositions or postpositions in N|uu. In particular, there is no preposition such as “across”. Most locative concepts are expressed with verbal compounds (see Collins and Namaseb 2005b for examples).

Similarly, the linker never appears before complement clauses. This is illustrated in the following examples. I indicate the embedded clause with bracketing:

- (28) a.    n-a                ʔʔai-a           [ Siso       x $\eta$        ||ʔai-a ]  
           1sg-Decl       think-Asp       Siso       Past       go-Asp  
           'I think Siso left'

- b.    n-a            ‡ao-a            [ kin   ||ʔae ]  
       1sg-Decl    want-Asp    they   leave  
       ‘I want that they leave’
- c.    g|a    ‡ʔii-a            [ !Q’oma   si   ||ʔae   |q’õa ]  
       2sg    thing-Asp    !Q’oma    Fut   go    hunting  
       ‘Do you think !Q’oma will go hunting?’
- d.    n-a            ||hae-a            [ ku   ki   mari ]  
       1sg-Decl    know-Asp    3sg   have   money  
       ‘I know he has money’
- e.    kin   ke   ku-a    ŋ   ŋ|ŋ            [ ŋ   ||ʔae ]  
       3pl   Decl   say-Asp   Lk   1sg-Strong   1sg   go  
       ‘They told me to leave’
- f.    n        -a    xŋ    ku-a            [Siso xŋ   ||ʔae-a ]  
       1sg   Decl   Past   say-Asp    Siso   Past   go-Asp  
       ‘I said Siso left’

The fact that the linker does not appear before complement clauses can be explained in terms of the assumption (common in the Principles and Parameters/Minimalist theory) that clauses do not have a Case feature. This assumption is usually justified in Principles and Parameters on the basis of the syntactic distribution of clauses. For example, the clausal complement of an adjective does not require ‘of’, as shown by the phrase ‘proud that John won’. On the other hand, a DP complement of an adjective does require ‘of’, as in the phrase ‘proud of John’. This contrast can be accounted for by the assumption that ‘of’ checks Case, and that DPs but not clauses have a Case feature.

In conclusion, the linker has the following properties: (a) it is post-verbal, (b) it is semantically vacuous, and (c) it requires the presence of a following nominal expression<sup>9</sup>. I have analyzed the last property in terms of Case theory.

<sup>9</sup> The passive preposition *by* in English has the same three properties as the linker: (a) it is post-verbal, (b) it is semantically vacuous and (c) it requires a following DP. However, I would not classify the passive preposition *by* as a linker. First, *by* is largely restricted to the passive. Second, it only occurs with the external argument of a verb. See Collins 2005 for a full analysis of the passive in English, where *by* is analyzed as a realization of the Voice head.

## 5. V DP Lk X

In this section, I will discuss some cases where the linker appears between two post-verbal constituents. When a locative appears following a verb with a direct object, a linker must precede the locative:

- (29) a. ku -a si f̥oo ku aŋki ŋ g!ari  
 3sg Decl Fut find 3sg father Lk Upington  
 ‘He will find his father in Upington’
- b. ku -a si ||x’oo ʘoo-ke ŋ !uu  
 2sg Decl Fut chop wood-pl Lk veld  
 ‘He will chop wood in the veld’
- c. kunisi ke si †am !ao ŋ !an  
 wagon Decl Fut hit rock Lk road  
 ‘The wagon will hit the rock in the road’

Similar facts hold for †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi (from Collins 2003:1):

- (30) koloi g||on-a †’amkoe ki gyeo na (†Hoan)  
 car hit-perf person Lk road in  
 ‘A car hit a person in the road’
- (31) uto dchuun-a |Kaece ko n!ama n!ang (Ju|’hoansi)  
 car hit-trans |Kaece Lk road in  
 ‘A car hit |Kaece in the road’

This use of the linker is particularly frequent in locative compounds, which add a locative argument to a verb (see Collins 2002 on Khoisan compounds):

- (32) a. n -a si †hāu !qhaa  
 1sg Decl Fut pour water  
 ‘I will pour water’
- b. n -a si †hāu |ʔee !qhaa ŋ xaβasi ||āʔē  
 1sg Decl Fut pour put.in water Lk cup in  
 ‘I will pour water into the cup’

The linker is also used between a direct object and various non-locative expressions (see (6)):

- (33) a.    n        -a        si        ŋ!hoea        mari        ŋ        ku  
              1sg    Decl   Fut    ask            money       Lk       3sg  
              ‘I will ask him for money’
- b.    n        -a        si        gaake        mari        ŋ        ku  
              1sg    Decl   Fut    steal           money       Lk       3sg  
              ‘I will steal money from him’
- c.    ku        -a        si        !xama        ?āki ŋ        !haeka  
              3sg    Decl   Fut    cook           food    Lk       tomorrow  
              ‘He will cook food tomorrow’

When a pronoun is used after the linker here, it is in the strong form (see also (22)) above:

- (34) a.    ku        xa        ŋ!hoea        ?āki ŋ        ŋ|ŋ  
              3sg    Past   ask            food    Lk       1sg  
              ‘She asked him for food’

All the other strong pronouns can be used after the linker as well: *g/a* ‘2sg’, *ku* ‘3sg’, *g/i* ‘1pl’, *g/u* ‘2pl’, and *kike* ‘3pl’.

The order of the theme and the locative is necessarily [V Theme Lk Loc]. The inverted order [V Loc Lk Theme] is not allowed (compare to (29)):

- (35) a.    \*ku        -a        si        f̥oo    g!ari        ŋ        ku        aŋki  
              3sg    Decl   Fut    find    Upington    Lk       3sg       father  
              ‘He will find his father in Upington’
- b.    \*ku        -a        si        ||x’oo        !uu    ŋ        ʘoo-ke  
              3sg    Decl   Fut    chop           veld    Lk       wood-pl  
              ‘He will chop wood in the veld’
- c.    \*kunisi        ke        si        †am    !an    ŋ        !ao  
              wagon       Decl   Fut    hit       road    Lk       rock  
              ‘The wagon will hit the rock in the road’

Therefore, I conclude that N|uu disallows inversion in linker constructions. The lack of inversion in N|uu is interesting in that Afrikaans, which all of my informants (five all together) spoke fluently, has considerable freedom in the ordering of the theme and the locative.

As for the other Khoisan languages, Ju|'hoansi allows inversion, and #Hoan disallows it. See Collins 2003 for a comparison between #Hoan and Ju|'hoansi, and see Dickens 1992 who describes inversion in Ju|'hoansi. These facts are illustrated below<sup>10</sup>:

- (36) a.    ha    ku    ||ohm-a    !aihn ko    g|ui    (Ju|'hoansi)  
           3sg    asp    chop-Trans    tree    Lk    forest  
           ‘He was chopping the tree in the forest’ (Dickens 1992)
- b.    ha    ku    ||ohm-a    g|ui ko    !aihn    (Ju|'hoansi)  
           3sg    asp    chop-Trans    forest    Lk    tree
- (37) a.    koloi g||on-a    ‡'amkoe    ki    gyeo na    (#Hoan)  
           car    hit-Perf    person    Lk    road    in  
           ‘The car hit the person in the road’ (Collins 2003)
- b.    \*koloi    g||on-a    gyeo na    ki    ‡'amkoe    (#Hoan)  
           car    hit-Perf    road    in    Lk    person

Other possible word orders of the theme, Lk, and locative in N|uu are ungrammatical (similar sentences are ungrammatical in #Hoan and Ju|'hoansi as well, see Collins 2003):

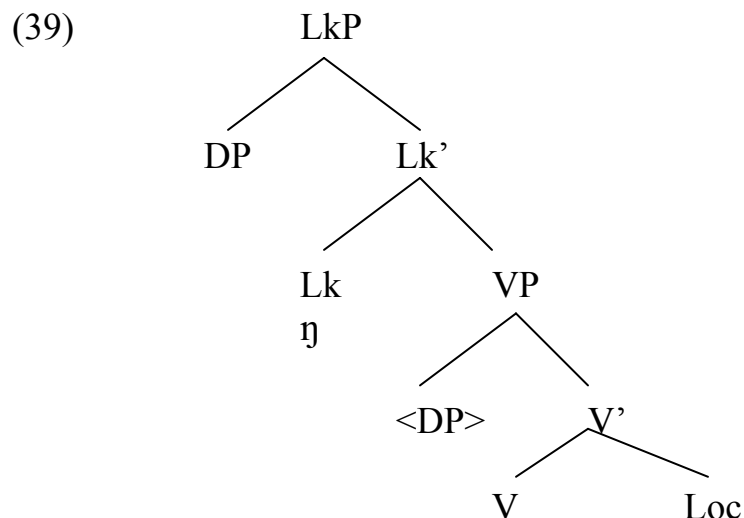
- (38) a.    \*ku    -a    si    ffoo    ŋ    ku    aŋki g!ari  
           3sg    Decl    Fut    find    Lk    3sg    father    Upington
- b.    \*ku    -a    si    ffoo    ku    aŋki g!ari    ŋ  
           3sg    Decl    Fut    find    3sg    father    Upington    Lk

In (38a), the linker precedes both of the post-verbal constituents, and in (38b) the linker follows both of the post-verbal constituents. As I argued in Collins 2003, these ordering restrictions suggest that the linker is a functional

<sup>10</sup> Since only Ju|'hoansi has a transitivity suffix *-a* among the three languages in question, I conjecture that the presence of inversion in Ju|'hoansi is related to the transitivity suffix.



head whose specifier is the theme and whose complement contains the locative (assuming the order Spec-Head-Complement):



In this structure, both the theme and the locative start out internal to the VP<sup>11</sup>. In †Hoan, Ju|’hoansi and N|uu, the theme can be moved into the specifier of the LkP, giving rise to the order: [Theme Lk Loc]. Only in Ju|’hoansi can the Loc move into the specifier of Lk giving rise to the order: [Loc Lk Theme].

An important source of evidence for the structure in (39) is the linker in the Bantu language Kinande, discussed by Baker and Collins 2005. In Kinande (as opposed to the Khoisan languages), the linker agrees with the preceding DP indicating a Spec-Head relation. The discussion of the linker in Kinande brings up a general question of the relationship between the linker and the Bantu associative marker. Both the linker in Kinande and the associative marker agree with a preceding nominal constituent, and they have a similar pattern of agreement. The big difference between the linker and the associative marker is that the linker appears internal to the vP, whereas the associative marker appears internal to the DP. See Baker and Collins for much more detail on the linker in Kinande, and some brief remarks on the associative marker.

When the theme is extracted, the linker continues to precede the locative as in the relative clause in (40a) and the constituent question in (40b)<sup>12</sup>:

<sup>11</sup> See Chomsky (1995) and Collins (2003) for further discussion of the internal structure of the verb phrase. In these sources, it is assumed that the verb undergoes further movement to the head of vP (light verb phrase).

<sup>12</sup> †Hoan has the same pattern. In Ju|’hoansi, the Lk drops, yielding V-a DP (See Collins 2003).

- (40) a.    ʘoo-ke      he      Griet si      ||x'oo ŋ      !uu  
              wood-Pl      rel      Griet Fut      chop Lk      veld  
              'The wood that Griet will chop in the veld'
- b.        cui    xe      Griet si      ||ʔa    ||x'oo ŋ      !uu  
              what Q      Griet Fut      go      chop Lk      veld  
              'What will Griet go chop in the veld?'

When the locative is extracted, the verb ŋ//ã "be.loc" must be used, just as with intransitives<sup>13</sup>:

- (41) a.    !uu-a          he      Griet si      ||x'oo          ʘoo-ke      ŋ//ã  
              veld-dem      rel      Griet Fut      chop          wood-Pl      be.loc  
              'The veld where Griet will chop wood'
- b.        kiʃa    xe      Griet si      ||x'oo          ʘoo-ke      ŋ//ã  
              where Q      Griet Fut      chop          wood-Pl      be.loc  
              'Where will Griet chop wood?'

Although the linker is used before locatives and non-locative expressions, it is not used before instruments. Rather, the instrumental preposition ŋ/ã 'with' is used:

- (42) a.    n        -a      si      |aa    ʘoe    ŋ//ã    ŋʔona  
              1Sg   Decl   Fut      cut    meat   with   knife  
              'I will cut the meat with a knife'
- b.        n        -a      si      ||x'oo ʔqhii    ŋ//ã    !ʔoo  
              1Sg   Decl   Fut      chop tree    with   axe  
              'I will chop the tree with an axe'
- c.        Griet ke      kuru-a      ŋ//ŋ    ŋ//ã    |qhe  
              Griet Decl   make-Asp    house    with   grass  
              'Griet built a house with grass'

<sup>13</sup> When the locative is extracted in ʔHoan, the order becomes V Lk DP, as if there had been inversion (which is normally not allowed in ʔHoan). In Jul'hoansi, the linker drops, yielding: V-a DP. These patterns indicate that constraints similar to (18) need to be postulated for ʔHoan and Jul'hoansi as well (although there are a number of differences, see Collins (2003) for some discussion).

In these examples, the linker is never found before  $\eta/\tilde{a}$  ‘with’. As noted in section 3, this fact can be accounted for on the assumption that with-phrases do not have a Case feature that needs to be checked.

## 6. Causatives

Another example where a linker appears between two post-verbal constituents (V X Lk Y) is the causative. Consider first the following examples of causatives of intransitive verbs:

- (43) a.    n        -a        si        kx'u    ||ʔae    ku  
              1sg    Decl    Fut    make    go        3sg  
              ‘I will make him go’
- b.    n        -a        kx'u                    ʔun-a        |oeke  
              1sg    Decl    make                    sleep-Asp    children  
              ‘I made the children sleep’
- c.    n        -a        kx'u                    |q'õa-a        ku  
              1sg    Decl    make                    hunt-Asp     3sg  
              ‘I made him hunt’
- d.    n        -a        xŋ        kx'u    ʔã        ku  
              1sg    Decl    Past    make    eat        3sg  
              ‘I made him eat’

These examples illustrate that the form of a causative of an intransitive verb is [kx'u-V DP], where the only argument of V follows V. *Kx'u* ‘make’ used as an independent verb is shown below:

- (44) n        -a        si        kx'u    ŋ||ŋ  
              1sg    Decl    Fut    build    house  
              ‘I will build a house’

When a transitive verb is causativized, a linker must appear before the theme.

- (45) a.    n        -a        kx'u   |q'õa-a        ku        ŋ        ‡qhee  
              1sg   Decl   make   hunt-Asp        3sg   Lk        duiker  
              'I made him hunt a duiker'
- b.    n        -a        xa        kx'u   ʔã        ku        ŋ        ku        ʔãki  
              1sg   Decl   Past   make   eat        3sg   Lk        3sg   food  
              'I made him eat his food'

I explain this use of the linker by assuming that the causativized verb can not check accusative Case (see Baker (1988: 173) for a theoretical account<sup>14</sup>). In the causative, *kx'u* 'make' itself checks the Case of the embedded external argument (e.g., *ku* 3Sg in 43a,b), and the linker checks the Case of the embedded internal argument (‡*qhee* 'duiker' in (45a), and ʔã*ki* 'food' in (45b)).

## 7. Double Object Constructions

One of the most striking aspects of the linker in N|uu is that it does not appear in double object constructions (DOCs). This is illustrated for 'give' in (46, 47), for 'show' in (48), 'send' in (49), and for benefactive arguments in (50,51):

- (46) a.    ku        -a        si        ʔãa    ku        aŋki-a        kea        mari  
              3sg   Decl   Fut   give   3sg   father-Dat        that   money  
              'He will give his father that money'
- b.    Griet   ke        si        ʔãa    ku-a        doŋki-si  
              Griet   Decl   Fut   give   3sg-Dat        donkey-Sg  
              'Griet will give him the donkey'
- (47) a.    ʔãa    ku-a        ku        xaŋki        ka-        ||hãi  
              Give   3sg-Dat        3sg   mother        Pl        breasts  
              'Give her her mother's breasts'  
              (from Collins and Namaseb 2005a)
- b.    ʔãa    ku-a        mar    ku        xaŋki        se        ŋã  
              give   3sg-Dat        but    3sg   mother        Poss   head  
              'But, give her her mother's head'  
              (from Collins and Namaseb 2005a)

<sup>14</sup> In Baker's terminology (pg. 164), N|uu has a Causative Rule 2, which is also found in Kiswahili and Chamorro (which appears to have a linker).

- (48) a. Griet ke si kaɣama ku-a si doŋki-si  
 Griet Decl Fut show 3sg-Dat 1pl donkey-Sg  
 ‘Griet will show him our donkey’
- b. ku -a si kaɣama ŋ|angusi-a ☉oe  
 3sg Decl Fut show N|angusi-Dat meat  
 ‘He will show N|angusi the meat’
- (49) n-a si |ee-a ku-a ki  
 1sg-Decl Fut send-Appl 3sg-Dat 3sg-NH  
 ‘I will send it to him’
- (50) ku -a si kura-a n-a |x’āike  
 3sg Decl Fut make-Appl 1sg-Dat beads  
 ‘He will make beads for me’
- (51) kin ke ŋ!hau-a ku-a ☉oe  
 3pl Decl roast-Appl 3sg-Dat meat  
 ‘They are roasting him meat’

In these examples, Appl in the glosses stands for ‘applicative’, which is a verbal suffix that allows a verb to take a benefactive or goal argument. I will argue that the –a (glossed Dat) that follows the first object in a double object construction is a dative Case marker.

In all of the above examples, there is no linker between the first DP (immediately following the verb) and the second (theme) DP. A double object construction with a linker present is judged ungrammatical:

- (52) n -a si kaɣama ku-a (\*ŋ) ku mari  
 1sg Decl Fut show 3sg-Dat Lk 3sg money  
 ‘I will show him his money’
- (53) n -a si ʔāa ku-a (\*ŋ) ku mari  
 1sg Decl Fut give 3sg-Dat Lk 3sg money  
 ‘I will give him his money’

One informant said that (53) with the linker could mean that I will give him something out of his money, which is not the interpretation of a DOC. The lack of the linker in DOCs in N|uu is consistent with the little that is known about other

southern Khoisan languages (see Güldemann forthcoming a,b, and Hastings 2001: 12 on |Xam).

The absence of the linker in DOCs is surprising for a number of reasons. First, we have already seen that the linker is used in a wide variety of environments, including preceding themes (how-questions and causatives), showing that there is no thematic restriction of the linker to locative expressions.

Second, in causatives (see (45)), two DPs follow the verb and the second DP is preceded by a linker. On analogy with causatives, we might expect to find such a linker before the second DP in a double object construction.

Third, other Khoisan languages (Ju|'hoansi and #Hoan) have a linker that does appear before the second object in a double object construction. This is shown below (from Collins 2003):

- (54) Gya''m-|a'a          a-tsaxo-cu    'am gye          ki          ||a''e (#Hoan)  
 child-Dim.pl          Prog-cook-give 1sg mother          Lk          meat  
 'the children are cooking meat for my mother'

- (55) Besa komm          ||'ama-|'an Oba ko tcisi          (Ju|'hoansi)  
 Besa Emph          buy -give Oba Lk things  
 'Besa bought Oba some things'

I propose that the absence of a linker in DOCs in N|uu is related to another striking feature of DOCs. Note that the first object (the one immediately following the verb) is followed by Dat *-a* in N|uu in the examples in 46-51. In the rest of the section, I will justify an analysis of Dat *-a* as a Case checker, and show how the presence of the Dat *-a* gives rise to the absence of the linker in a DOC.

Dat *-a* can also appear when there is no following theme argument. The only condition is that the Dat *-a* can only mark a goal or a benefactive argument.

- (56) a.    n        -a        si        g|uu-a        ku-a  
          1sg    Decl   Fut    lie-Appl    3sg-Dat  
          'I will lie to him'
- b.    n        -a        si        ʃisən-a        ku-a  
          1sg    -Decl   Fut    work-Appl    3sg-Dat  
          'I will work for him'
- c.    n        -a        si        |qhõʔ-a        Griet-a  
          1sg    Decl   Fut    dance-Appl    Griet-Dat  
          'I will dance for Griet'

In these examples, I propose that the Case of the DP is not checked by the verb, but rather by the Dat *-a*. Evidence for this analysis is that the linker does not appear before a dative marked DP in a how-construction:

- (57) a. Griet si jee ŋ |qhõ<sup>5</sup>-a ku-a  
 Griet Fut how mann dance-Appl 3sg-Dat  
 ‘How will Griet dance for him?’
- b. Griet si jee ŋ g|uu-a ku-a  
 Griet Fut how Mann lie-Appl 3sg-Dat  
 ‘How will Griet lie to him?’

Given that the linker checks the Case of the following DP, and that DP following the verb already has a dative Case marker, there is no need for the linker to be used. Predictably, Dat *-a* is impossible if the DP following the verb is not a goal or benefactive:

- (58) n -a si ŋ|aa ku (\*-a)  
 1sg Decl Fut see 3sg Dat  
 ‘I will see him’

Dat *-a* resembles morphologically the declarative *-a* that is found following the subject of declarative clauses (also they both have the same high tone). I will compare the properties of declarative *-a* and dative *-a*, and I will show that although dative *-a* and declarative *-a* are similar, they can not be identified. I give the complete pronominal paradigm for dative *-a* in (59) and for declarative *-a* in (60):

- (59) a. Andries ke xa ʔāa n-a f̃a mari  
 Andries Decl Past give 1sg-Dat 3sg money  
 ‘Andries gave me his money’
- b. Andries ke xa ʔāa ʔa f̃a mari  
 Decl Past give 2sg-Dat 3sg money
- c. Andries ke xa ʔāa ku-a f̃a mari  
 Decl Past give 3sg-Dat 3sg money
- d. Andries ke xa ʔāa s-a f̃a mari  
 Decl Past give 1pl-Dat 3sg money

- |    |         |      |      |      |         |     |                     |
|----|---------|------|------|------|---------|-----|---------------------|
| e. | Andries | ke   | xa   | ʔāa  | b-a     | ɦa  | mari                |
|    |         | Decl | Past | give | 2pl-Dat | 3sg | money               |
| f. | Andries | ke   | xa   | ʔāa  | kik-a   | ɦa  | mari                |
|    |         | Decl | Past | give | 3pl-Dat | 3sg | money <sup>15</sup> |
- (60) a. n-a            si    ||ʔae  
          1sg-Decl   Fut   go  
          ‘I will go’
- b. a                si    ||ʔae  
          2sg-Decl   Fut   go
- c. ku-a            si    ||ʔae  
          3sg-Decl   Fut   go
- d. s-a             si    ||ʔae  
          1pl-Decl   Fut   go
- e. b-a             si    ||ʔae  
          2pl-Decl   Fut   go
- f. kin   ke        si    ||ʔae  
          3pl   Decl   Fut   go

With the exception of third plural<sup>16</sup>, the dative pronouns and the declarative pronouns are identical. This series of pronouns is called the A-Form of the pronoun in Collins and Namaseb 2005b. I know of no other place in N|uu grammar where this particular combination of weak pronoun plus *-a* occurs. The parallelism between the subject *-a* pronouns and the dative pronouns suggests that Decl *-a* shares some properties with dative *-a*. While this may be true, there are some reasons for not identifying the two morphemes.

<sup>15</sup> The 3pl dative *-a* pronoun can be *kín-a* (see (i)):

- |    |                           |    |      |      |      |         |
|----|---------------------------|----|------|------|------|---------|
| i. | cui                       | xe | Sini | xŋ   | ʔāa  | kin-a   |
|    | what                      | Q  | Sini | Past | give | 3pl-Dat |
|    | ‘What did Sini give him?’ |    |      |      |      |         |

<sup>16</sup> The pronoun *kín-a* is not possible as the subject in (60f). While *ke* can appear following all subject types (pronouns, proper names, full DPs), the declarative *-a* seems restricted to pronouns for which the combination pronoun-*a* is monosyllabic (crucially, *kua* 3Sg-decl is pronounced [kwa] and not [kuʔa]). In all my field notes, and all the sentences in Westphal (see his examples (34-36), (121), (231), (260)), I have found no clear counter-examples to this generalization. No similar restriction exists for dative *-a*. Much more work is needed on this prosodic restriction.



In a declarative sentence, declarative *-a* can be used following the subject. Alternatively, declarative *ke* can be used following the subject. Furthermore, the two can not be used simultaneously (see Güldemann 2004b). Declarative *ke* is illustrated below:

- (61)     $\eta$         *ke*        *xa*        *soo*        *kia*  
           1sg    Decl   Past    sit        here  
           ‘I was sitting here’

The series of subject pronouns that can precede declarative *ke* is the following:  $\eta$  ‘1sg’, *a* ‘2sg’, *ku* ‘3sg’, *i*, *si* ‘1pl’, *u* ‘2pl’, *kin* ‘3pl’.

The following example shows that in some cases either *-a* or *ke* can be used as the declarative head.

- (62) a.        *n*        *-a*        *x\eta*         $\|\text{?ae-a}$         *!gari*  
           1sg    Decl   Past    go-Asp        Upington  
           ‘I went to Upington’
- b.         $\eta$         *ke*        *x\eta*         $\|\text{?ae-a}$         *g!ari*  
           1sg    Decl   Past    go-Asp        Upington  
           ‘I went to Upington’

The following examples show that declarative *-a* and declarative *ke* cannot appear simultaneously:

- (63) a.        *n*        *-a*        *si*         $\odot\text{un}$   
           1sg    Decl   Fut    sleep  
           ‘I will sleep’
- b.         $\eta$         *ke*        *si*         $\odot\text{un}$   
           1sg    Decl   Fut    sleep  
           ‘I will sleep’
- c.        *\*n*        *-a*        *ke*        *si*         $\odot\text{un}$   
           1sg    Decl   Decl   Fut    sleep
- (64) a.        *n*        *-a*        *x\eta*         $\|\text{?ae}$         *g!ari*  
           1sg    Decl   Past    go        Upington  
           ‘I went to Upington’

b.     n       ke     xŋ     ||ʔae   g!ari  
       1sg   Decl   Past   go     Upington  
       ‘I went to Upington’

c.     \*n       -a     ke     ||ʔae   g!ari  
       1sg   Decl   Decl   go     Upington

Furthermore, neither declarative *ke* nor declarative *-a* appears in questions or relative clauses (or embedded clauses more generally):

(65) a.   kija   xe     ku     si     ||ʔae  
           where Q     3sg   Fut   go  
           ‘Where will he go?’

b.     gao   he     ku     si     ||ʔama  
       thing rel   3sg   Fut   buy  
       ‘the thing that he will buy’

So it appears that *-a* and *ke* following the subject are two realizations of single morpheme, which I will identify as the functional category Decl. Dative *-a*, on the other hand, does not alternate with a *ke*. In fact, *ke* cannot appear following the first object of a DOC:

(66) a.   Griet ke     si     ʔãa   ku-a           doŋki-si  
           Griet Decl   Fut   give   3sg-Dat       donkey-Sg  
           ‘Griet will give him the donkey’

b.     \*Griet       ke     si     ʔãa   ku     ke     doŋki-si  
       Griet       Decl   Fut   give   3sg   Decl   donkey-Sg

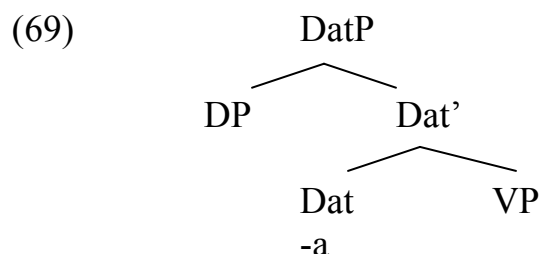
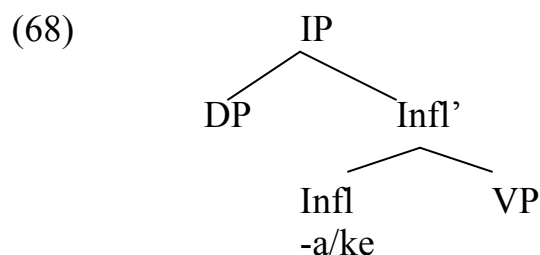
Furthermore, dative *-a*, unlike declarative *-a*, can appear in questions:

(67) a.   ku     -a     si     ʔãa   ku-a           mari  
           3Sg   Decl   Fut   give   3sg-Dat       money  
           ‘He will give her the money’

- b.    ku    si    ʔãa    ku-a    mari  
        3Sg   Fut   give   3sg-Dat   money  
        ‘Will he give her the money?’

In (67a), both the declarative *-a* and the dative *-a* appear. In the yes-no question in (67b), the declarative *-a* disappears, but the dative *-a* remains.

For these reasons, I will not identify dative *-a* and declarative *-a*. However, I propose that they are partially similar, in that both the declarative *-a* and the dative *-a* head clausal functional projections. In the case of declarative *-a*, it is the head of IP<sup>17</sup>. In the case of dative *-a*, it is a functional projection which I will simply call DatP. In this way, dative *-a* resembles the linker as well, which heads a functional projection taking a VP complement. The two structures are given below (for more on the general framework for this kind of syntactic structure, see Chomsky 1995 and Collins 2003):



I will assume that (unlike the linker) the dative *-a* does not check the Case of a following DP, thus accounting for the fact that the dative *-a* does not have to be followed by a constituent in contrast to the linker, see section 4. Rather, it seems natural to analyze the dative *-a* as checking the Case of the DP in its specifier.

Consider now the lack of inversion in DOCs, given the analysis in (69):

<sup>17</sup> Or conceivably the head of a lower projection in the left periphery.

- (70) a.    n    -a    si    ʔāa    Griet-a    mari  
          1Sg   Decl   Fut   give   Griet-Dat   money  
          ‘I will give Griet the money’
- b.    \*n    -a    si    ʔāa    mari        Griet-a  
          1Sg   Decl   Fut   give   money       Griet-Dat
- c.    \*n    -a    si    ʔāa    mari-a       Griet  
          1Sg   Decl   Fut   give   money-Dat   Griet
- (71) a.    n    -a    si    kaʒama    Simon-a    ʔoe  
          1Sg   Decl   Fut   show       Simon-Dat   meat  
          ‘I will show Simon the meat’
- b.    \*n    -a    si    kaʒama    ʔoe        Simon-a  
          1Sg   Decl   Fut   show       meat       Simon-Dat
- c.    \*n    -a    si    kaʒama    ʔoe-a       Simon  
          1Sg   Decl   Fut   show       meat-Dat   Simon

Sentences (70b) and (71b) are unacceptable, since given the analysis in (69), the only way to derive them would be for DatP to have two DP specifiers (to the left of the head Dat), presumably not allowed. Sentences (70c) and (71c) are disallowed, since they would involve inversion. The only way to derive these word orders would be for the theme to move to Spec DatP. But as we saw in (35) above, inversion is not allowed in N|uu.

Consider the following extraction facts in light of the above analysis in (69):

- (72) a.    |eeki        he    Griet si    ʔāa    ʔa        si    doŋki-si  
          woman    Rel   Griet Fut   give   3sg-Dat   1pl   donkey-Sg  
          ‘the woman Griet will give our donkey to’
- b.    cu    xe    Griet si    ʔāa    ʔa        si    doŋki-si  
          who   Q    Griet Fut   give   3sg-Dat   1pl   donkey-Sg  
          ‘Who will Griet give our donkey to?’

- (73) a. |eeki          he    Griet si    kaɟama    ɸa          si    doŋki-si  
              woman       Rel   Griet Fut    show    3sg-Dat    1pl   donkey-Sg  
              ‘the woman Griet will show our donkey to’
- b.    cu    xe    Griet si    kaɟama          ɸa          si    doŋki-si  
              who    Q    Griet Fut    show                3sg-Dat    1pl   donkey-Sg  
              ‘Who will Griet show our donkey to?’

These examples show that when the first object of a DOC is extracted, there is a resumptive pronoun. Furthermore, a resumptive pronoun is also left by extraction from the position following an intransitive verb with an applicative:

- (74) a.    cu    xe    ʔa    si    g|uu-a          ɸa  
              who    Q    2sg   Fut    lie-Appl        3sg-Dat  
              ‘Who will you lie to?’
- b.    cu    xe    ʔa    si    |qhõ<sup>ʕ</sup>-a        ɸa  
              who    Q    2sg   Fut    dance-Appl    3sg-Dat  
              ‘Who will you dance for?’
- c.    cu    xe    ʔa    si    ʃisən-a        ɸa  
              who    Q    2sg   Fut    work-Appl    3sg-Dat  
              ‘Who will you work for?’

Lastly, there is no resumptive pronoun when the second object of a DOC is extracted:

- (75) a.    doŋki-si    he    Griet si    ʔaa    ku-a  
              donkey-Sg   Rel   Griet Fut    give    3sg-Dat  
              ‘The donkey that Griet will give him’
- b.    cui    xe    Griet si    ʔaa    ku-a  
              what    Q    Griet Fut    give    3sg-Dat  
              ‘What will Griet give him?’
- (76) a.    doŋki-si    he    Griet si    kaɟama        ku-a  
              donkey-Sg   Rel   Griet Fut    show            3sg-Dat  
              ‘The donkey Griet will show to him’

- b.    cui    xe    Griet si    kaɣama    ku-a  
       what Q    Griet Fut    show        3sg-Dat  
       ‘What will Griet show him?’

The fact that a resumptive pronoun needs to be left behind suggests that the dative *-a* is a clitic. As a clitic, dative *-a* must combine with a preceding DP. If the DP has been extracted, a resumptive pronoun needs to be left behind to satisfy the morphological property of dative *-a*.

How can we explain the lack of a linker in double object constructions? First note that there is a no general prohibition against a linker following an DP marked by Dat *-a*:

- (77) a.    Griet ke    si    ʔāa    ku-a        doŋki-si    ŋ    g!ari  
           Griet Decl Fut    give 3sg-Dat        donkey-Sg    Lk    Upington  
           ‘Griet will give him a donkey in Upington’
- b.    n        -a    si    ʃisən-a    ku-a        ŋ    g!ari  
       1sg    Decl Fut    work-Appl 3sg-Dat        Lk    Upington  
       ‘I will work for him in Upington’
- c.    n        -a    si    g|uu-a    ku-a        ŋ    mari (!ʔam)  
       1sg    Decl Fut    lie-Appl    3sg-Dat        Lk    money about  
       ‘I will lie to him about the money’

Given the presence of the linker in these sentences it is impossible to attribute the lack of a linker in DOCs to a general constraint prohibiting a linker from following a verb with a dative object. Rather, the following generalization seems to be true for N|uu, Ju|’hoansi and #Hoan<sup>18</sup>:

- (78) At most one unmarked DP can follow a verb

Unmarked here means a DP that is (a) not immediately preceded by the linker N and (b) not immediately followed by a dative *-a*. In minimalism, we can recast this as follows:

- (79) The verb can check the structural Case of at most one DP

<sup>18</sup>    Khoekhoe would have the following constraint: at most one unmarked DP can appear in a clause. Usually the unmarked DP is the subject, the rest are marked by the clitic *-a*.

The generalizations in (78) and (79) are satisfied by the DOC in N|uu, but we still have not answered why there is no linker in DOCs in N|uu. For example, the sentence in (53), repeated below, would satisfy (78) and (79), even if the linker were present:

- (80) n      -a      si      ʔāa      ku-a      (\*ŋ)      ku      mari  
       1sg   Decl   Fut      give   3sg-Dat      Lk      3sg      money  
       ‘I will give him his money’

I propose that this example should be ruled out in the same way that we ruled out the presence of a linker with a transitive verb in N|uu (see (9) above):

- (81) ku      -a      si      hoo      (\*ŋ)      ku      aŋki  
       3sg   Decl   Fut      find   Lk      3Sg      father  
       ‘He will find his father’

I claimed that this example is bad because there are two structural Case checkers (the verb and the linker) but only one DP. Similarly, in (80) the verb is a structural Case checker that does not need to check the Case of the first object (because of the presence of the dative *-a*). Therefore, the verb is free to check the Case of the direct object, thus blocking the presence of the linker.

An objection to this analysis is that when a DOC is put into a how-question, the second object is not preceded by a linker:

- (82) g|a      jee      ŋ      ʔaa      Griet-a      mari  
       2sg   how   mann   give   Griet-Dat      money  
       ‘How did you give Griet the money?’

We have already seen that no linker is needed before the dative (see (57)) in a how-question. But what about the second object? If the verb is checking the Case of the second object in a DOC, and if a how-question makes it impossible for a verb to check the Case of a direct object (see section 3), then we would expect to find a linker in (82) as well. I leave this question for further research.

## 8. Conclusion

In this paper, I have given an overview of the syntactic distribution of the linker in N|uu. I have shown how the properties of the linker follow from the theory that it is a Case checking functional head, with no interpretable features (no semantic content).

I then showed the linker in N|uu does not appear before the second object of a double object construction. The absence of the linker in DOCs is surprising for a number of reasons. First, I showed that the linker is used in a wide variety of environments showing that there is no thematic restriction on the distribution of the linker. Second, in causatives, two DPs follow the verb and the second DP is preceded by a linker. On analogy with causatives, we might expect to find a linker before the second DP in a double object construction. The third, and most compelling, reason for expecting a linker in DOCs is that in other Khoisan languages (Ju|'hoansi and †Hoan), a linker does appear before the second object in a double object construction.

I proposed that the absence of a linker in DOCs in N|uu is related to the presence of a dative marker following the first object of a DOC.

## 9. A Summary of Linkers in (Non-Central) Khoisan

In this section, I will present a brief summary of linker properties in the three Khoisan languages †Hoan, Ju|'hoansi, and N|uu<sup>19</sup>:

	<b>Property</b>	<b>†Hoan</b>	<b>Ju 'hoansi</b>	<b>N uu</b>
1.	Lk	yes (ki)	yes (-a/ko)	yes (ŋ)
2.	Lk thematically unrestricted	yes	yes	yes
3.	V Lk X	yes	yes (-a)	yes
4.	V X Lk (Lk must precede X)	no	no	no
5.	V DP Lk X	yes	yes (ko)	yes
6.	V DP X Lk	no	no	no
7.	V Lk DP X	no	no	no
8.	Subj Lk X V (see (7a))	no	no	no

<sup>19</sup> See Hastings (2001) for a preliminary survey of the linker in |Xam, and !Xóǃ.



9.	Lk in causative (V DP Lk DP)	yes	yes	yes
10.	Trans suffix	no	yes (-a)	no
11.	Inversion (V Loc Lk DP)	no	yes	no
12.	Lk in DOCs	yes	yes	no
13.	Dative	no	no	yes(-a)
14.	Declarative	no	no	yes (-a/ke)
15.	Lk-gap (see (18))	yes (sometimes)	no (for ko) yes (for -a)	no
16.	“be.in” as Last Resort	no	no	yes

Properties (1-9) define the core syntax of the linker, found in all three languages. Seen from the perspective of this chart, the linker in †Hoan is defined by the core properties.

Properties (10-11) define what is distinctive about Ju|’hoansi, which is basically the presence of the transitivity suffix and all the consequences that follow (see Collins 2003).

Properties (12-16) define what is distinctive about N|uu. I speculate that some of the syntactic features distinguishing N|uu from †Hoan and Ju|’hoansi are the result of Khoekhoe influence. For example, Khoekhoe has a declarative *ke*, just like N|uu. Khoekhoe also has clitic *-a* as a general case marker (see Hagman 1977). It may be that this clitic influenced the development of dative *-a* and declarative *-a* in N|uu.

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