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THE BASQUE LANGUAGE
W. J. VAN EYS.
TRÜBNER'S COLLECTION

OF

SIMPLIFIED GRAMMARS

OF THE PRINCIPAL

ASIATIC AND EUROPEAN LANGUAGES.

EDITED BY

REINHOLD ROST, LL.D., Ph.D.

III.

BASQUE.

BY W. J. VAN EYS.
TRÜBNER'S COLLECTION OF SIMPLIFIED GRAMMARS OF THE
PRINCIPAL ASIATIC AND EUROPEAN LANGUAGES.

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BY
W. J. VAN EYS.

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PREFACE.

HAVING been requested by Mr. Trübner to write a Basque Grammar in English, for his Series of "Simplified Grammars," I accepted with pleasure his flattering proposition, but not without some hesitation, as I had to write in a language which is not my own. I may add, that the concise form, which was a condition, has perhaps given occasionally an appearance of dogmatism in settling doubtful points, for the more ample discussion of which I must refer to my Grammaire Comparée.

W. J. VAN EYS.

San Remo,
November, 1882.
INTRODUCTION.

The study of the Basque Language began with Larramendi, who composed a Grammar and a Dictionary. Taking the date into account, 1725, his labours are not inferior to many of those which appeared later, and comparatively, they are even much better than some works by recent authors, who have not Larramendi's excuse—the want of philological training. More and more there prevailed a tendency to condense the whole Grammar into the Verb, as if nothing else was worthy of attention, or offered any difficulty; and, again, the Verbs were condensed into one single Verb, and it was seriously assumed that the Basque language possessed one Verb only. It was not the Verb alone to which such childish theories were applied; anything (and there was much) that was not understood, was considered to be extraordinary, and all that was extraordinary was deemed admirable. Sometimes well-established and undeniable facts (e.g., the existence of the Article) were flatly denied. Evidently those who first wrote about Basque had not the least notion of an agglutinative language (Hungarian, Turkish, &c.); but even in our languages, and principally in colloquial expressions, instances enough may be found by which to explain mysterious Basque forms. In our days more serious attention has been paid to Basque Grammar, and it has been found out that Basque, like all
other languages, has Verbs, Pronouns, Nouns, &c. The confusion about the Verb arises from the agglutinative nature of the language; but still, as was said just now, there are in Dutch, and also in English, instances of agglutination and contraction exactly as in Basque. If I want to say, "Hebt gy het hem gezoegd." (Have you it to him said), I pronounce the Auxiliary with the Pronouns in one word—hy't'm. The apostrophe represents the sound of e in 'begin,' writing the word with e's, we have hyetem, which is just as the Basques do. 'Ain't' and 'Won't,' and the old English 'nust,' for 'I did not know,' are, it is true, exceptional forms, but they also serve to explain what happens in the Basque flection, where it is the logical consequence of a prolonged want of culture of the language. No one knowing any longer how the Basque flections were composed, the silly theory arose that they had only a conventional signification, in other words, that they had no signification at all; and this theory has adherents even in our days. Now that it has been discovered how the flections are formed, it is easy to analyze them, and when Liçarrague says, "Uste duc ecin othoitz daidioldala orain neure Aitari" (Matt. xxvi. 58), "Thinkest thou that I cannot now pray to my father,"—we know that daidioldala is the first person singular of the present indicative of edin, 'can,' preceded by d, 'it.' Thus, dadi (Liçarrague writes daidi); o is 'him'; d is 'I' (when final always t—dadi, 'I can it'); la is 'that'; a is a binding vowel. The
translation, beginning at the end, is thus: 'that I to him can it.' After patient investigation, the difficulties little by little vanish; and if some points remain without a satisfactory explanation, the same may be said perhaps of many other languages, even cultivated ones.

It is to be regretted that the Basque Provinces do not take much interest in philological studies; the two periodicals started a few years ago prove this clearly enough, the whole series of 1881 containing nothing about the language.

The sources for the study of the Basque are plentiful enough to give a complete view of what the language is and what it was during a certain period; unfortunately this period is not a long one; the oldest printed book (Poésies Basques, Dechepare) bears the date of 1545, and, as far as I know, no manuscript of an earlier date exists. We have thus not only the oldest Basque book, but the oldest form of the language. The next in rank of age, but the most important of all Basque books, is the New Testament, translated by Liçarrague, 1572. Much later, in 1643, we find Axular's Gueroco Guero, 1st ed., the most readable perhaps of all Basque books. These are the three most interesting publications in the Basque language. About the origin of Basque very little, or nothing, is to be said; the probability or possibility that Basque is the ancient Iberian was pointed out by Larramendi, and formulated by W. von Humboldt as a linguistic axiom in the following words:—"The terms, 'Iberian people' and 'Basque-
Speaking people, have the same value," (Prüf., p. 177); and again, "The ancient Iberians were undoubtedly Basques" (Prüf., p. 120). As nothing whatever is known of the Iberian language, as no so-called Iberian coin is even read with certainty, except the bilingual ones, as no inscription is deciphered, it is mere pretence to talk about an Iberian language. We want, in order to compare two things, to know at least something of both of them; and still we find the most sweeping assertions made even after Humboldt's theory had been discussed, with all respect due to the name of the eminent linguist. Mr. Luchaire, Professeur d'Histoire au Lycée de Bordeaux, says, "Constatons simplement la parenté incontestable des deux langues" (Origines linguistique de l'Acquitaine).—Incontestable! and we know not a word of Iberian.

Let us hope to arrive at better results now that a large number of inscriptions have been found in the neighbourhood of Este, Verona, and Padua. This interesting discovery proves once more the large area occupied by the so-called Iberians.

As lately the question has been revived in an English periodical, whether the Basques are or were of a dark or of a fair complexion, I may repeat here what I asked nearly ten years ago in my Dictionary, when quoting the words Billusgorri, Buluzkorri, 'naked,' and Larrugarri or Nurrugarri, 'naked;' the first signifying 'red-hair,' the second 'red-skin;'—would this not prove that the Basques are, or were, of a fair complexion?
BASQUE GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

The Basque Language.

The Basque Language, spoken in our days on both slopes of the Pyrenean Mountains, stands as yet absolutely isolated, but belongs to the agglutinative languages. There are six principal dialects, differing little the one from the other, from a philological point of view, but differing enough in their extreme varieties to make the one with difficulty intelligible to the other. These dialects are, the Biscaian, the Guipuzcoan, the Labourdin, the Souletin, the Navarrese, and the Low-Navarrese.

CHAPTER II.

The Alphabet.

The original Basque Alphabet is unknown, but it may possibly be found one day in the so-called Keltiberian inscriptions. The Latin Alphabet has been adopted, with some slight differences.

The five vowels are pronounced as in Italian. The Souletin dialect alone pronounces u as French u, or German ü.
BASQUE GRAMMAR.

The Consonants are also pronounced as in Italian, with the exception of, (1) $g$, which is always pronounced hard, as in 'go,' even before $e$ and $i$; (2) of $s$, which has the sound of English $s$; (3) of $ch$, which is pronounced like $sk$ in 'shall,' preceded by $t$. The French-Basque dialects write $tch$. (4) of $j$, which the Spanish-Basque dialects pronounce like the Spanish $jota$ ($j$), and the French-Basque dialects like $y$ in 'year.' Palatal $n$ is pronounced like Spanish $n$, or $gn$ in French $agneau$.

CHAPTER III.

The Phonetic System.

$K$.—Original $k$, when final and followed by a suffix, is converted into $t$, or is eliminated: $aek$, 'they,' followed by $n$, 'of,' makes $aen$, for $aeken$, 'of them;' $echeak$, 'the houses,' followed by $ra$, 'towards,' makes $echeetara$, and not $echeakara$. Most dialects do not like hiatus, and they introduce (after dropping of $k$) a $y$, and instead of $aen$ they say $ayen$; $duyala$, for $dukala$, 'that thou hast.' The Biscain dialect sometimes keeps the $k$: $gizonakaz= gisonetaz$, 'by the man.'

When $k$ is not primitive, but when it proceeds from $h$, then medial $k$ is allowed: $arkume$, 'lamb,' from $ari-hume$, 'sheep-child.'

$H$.—The aspirated $h$ has been preserved in the French-Basque dialects; the others have dropped it; e.g., $hi$, 'thou,'
THE PHONETIC SYSTEM.

is i in Biscayan and in Guipuzcoan. Final h becomes k: dakark, 'thou bearest it,' from d-ekar-h; final h stands for hi, 'thou.' Initial h, coming in consequence of agglutination or composition in the middle of the word, is hardened to k, or is eliminated; e.g., zora-keria becomes zora-keria, 'madness.' When h is thrown out the same result follows as with k, i.e. a hiatus is produced and then prevented by inserting y: d-aroa-h-o-t becomes daroakot (see final h), then daroayot (see initial h), 'I have taken it from him.' Some dialects keep the k; e.g., nindukan, 'thou hadst me.' Others drop it, and replace it by y: ninduyan, from n-indu-h-n.

T is dropped before k; bat and hide make bakid, 'common.'

N becomes m before b, p—nombait, from non-bait, 'somewhere;' and before k, l, r, t, the · n is dropped—nora, 'where to' from non ra; gizoneken for gizoneken, 'with the man;' aitzitik, from aitzin-tik, 'on the contrary.'

Z before z becomes t: etzan, for ezsan, 'he was not.'

R.—No word begins with r; there are two kinds of r, one hard, the other soft. The hard one is doubled when at the end of the word and when a suffix follows: lur, 'earth;' lurra, 'the earth.' Soft r is never doubled; it is found in some few words—ur, 'water;' or, 'dog;' sur, 'wood;' ura, 'the water;' ora, 'the dog;' zura, 'the wood.' The pronunciation of this r is very soft, it is nearly a d.

V is seldom used, and has been replaced by b.

F is considered as not being a Basque letter; there is only one word with f, which looks, however, really like Basque—farra, 'laugh' (substantive).
In consequence of the agglutination, the phonetic laws are continually in action, and have to decide which letters may follow each other. Thus, when two consonants meet in two different syllables, the following rules are to be observed:—The hard explosives after a sibilant, r or the vowels; the soft explosives after l, m, n.

In consequence of these rules, the hard explosives k, t, p are changed to their corresponding soft ones—g, d, b, after l, m, n; e.g., eldu, and not eltu, ‘arrived;’ ongi, and not onki, ‘well;’ emendik, and not ementik, ‘from here.’

The soft explosives, g, d, b, are changed to their corresponding hard ones, k, t, p, after r, the sibilants, and the vowels; e.g., Burgosko, ‘of Burgos;’ Ortheziarra, ‘inhabitant of Orthez;’ but Olorondarra. Lekiskun, ‘that they were to us,’ for lekisgun (from gu, ‘us’).

Examples of transposition of letters (methathesis, hyperthesis) are very common in Basque; gabes = bage, ‘without;’ irudi = iduri, ‘to appear;’ igaro = irago, ‘to ascend, to pass.’

Table of the Mutations of Consonants in Basque Words of different Dialects.

GUTTURALS.

\[
\begin{align*}
K \{ & s, z, ch. Karamitche = zaramika, \text{‘scratch.’} \\
& t . . . \text{Kunkur = tuntur, ‘humpbacked.’} \\
& s, z \quad \text{Gale = zale, ‘inclined.’} \\
G \{ & h . . . \text{Iges = ihes, ‘flight.’} \\
& j . . . \text{Echagun = echauun, ‘landlord.’}
\end{align*}
\]
GUTTURALS.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{d} & \ldots \text{Chingar} = \text{chindar}, \text{‘spark.’} \\
\text{t} & \ldots \text{Marranga} = \text{marranta}, \text{‘hoarse.’} \\
\text{G} & \quad \text{See R.} \\
\text{r} & \ldots \text{See M.} \\
\text{m} & \ldots \text{See B.} \\
\text{b} & \ldots \text{See B.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{n} & \ldots \text{Ihes} = \text{iñes}, \text{‘flight.’} \\
\text{y} & \ldots \text{Bohatu} = \text{bujatu}, \text{‘to blow’ (to puff).} \\
\text{G} & \quad \text{See K.} \\
\text{g} & \ldots \text{See G.} \\
\text{n} & \ldots \text{Gazta} = \text{gasna}, \text{‘cheese.’} \\
\text{p} & \ldots \text{Aistâ} = \text{aizpa}, \text{‘sister (of sister).’}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{g} & \ldots \text{See G.} \\
\text{h} & \ldots \text{Chindurri} = \text{chihaurri}, \text{‘ant.’} \\
\text{D} & \quad \text{Ideki} = \text{ireki}, \text{‘to open.’} \\
\text{z (?)} & \ldots \text{Bidar} = \text{bizar}, \text{‘beard.’} \\
\text{d} & \ldots \text{Elur} = \text{edar}, \text{‘snow.’} \\
\text{L} & \quad \text{Zahalo} = \text{zaharo}, \text{‘rod.’} \\
\text{n} & \ldots \text{See N.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{l} & \ldots \text{Narru} = \text{larru}, \text{‘skin.’} \\
\text{r} & \ldots \text{Belhaun} = \text{belhaur}, \text{‘knee.’}
\end{align*}
\]

LABIALS.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{t} & \ldots \text{See T.} \\
\text{m} & \ldots \text{Parra} = \text{marra}, \text{‘line, limit.’}
\end{align*}
\]
BASQUE GRAMMAR.

\[ \begin{align*}
B & \{ \begin{array}{c}
g \ldots \text{Burhaso} = \text{gurhaso}, \text{‘parent’} \vspace{1em} \\
m \ldots \text{Bilgor} = \text{milgor}, \text{‘suet’} \vspace{1em} \\
p \ldots \text{See } P. \vspace{1em} \\
h \text{ or } f, \text{ Mun} = \text{hun or fun, ‘brain;’} \vspace{1em} \\
& \quad \text{ibeni} = \text{imini} = \text{ipini} = \text{ifni}, \text{‘to put.’} \vspace{1em}
\end{array} \} \\
M & \{ \begin{array}{c}
\end{array} \}
\end{align*} \]

PALATALS.

\[ \begin{align*}
\{ \begin{array}{c}
tz \ldots \text{Itchuli} = \text{itzuli}, \text{‘to turn, to revolve.’} \vspace{1em} \\
\end{array} \}
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Ch} & \{ \begin{array}{c}
tz \ldots \text{Itchaso} = \text{itsaso}, \text{‘sea.’} \vspace{1em} \\
(?) \text{, Itchuri} = \text{iduri}, \text{‘alike.’} \vspace{1em}
\end{array} \}
\end{align*} \]

\[ N, \; h \ldots \text{See } H. \]

LINGUALS.

\[ \begin{align*}
\{ \begin{array}{c}
d \ldots \text{See } D. \vspace{1em} \\
l \ldots \text{See } L. \vspace{1em} \\
n \ldots \text{See } N. \vspace{1em} \\
g \ldots \text{Ernari} = \text{ernagi}, \text{‘being with young.’} \vspace{1em}
\end{array} \}
\end{align*} \]

CHAPTER IV.

The Definite Article ‘A’ (the).

The Article is the demonstrative pronoun, formerly har, or ar, ‘that’—now a, ‘the’: ech, ‘house;’ eche a, ‘the house,’ which is written echea in consequence of the agglutinative nature of the language.
AGGLUTINATION.

When a is followed by a suffix, generally the r reappears; e.g., a x n becomes aren, 'of the.' As the plural is k, the plural Article is arek (Bisc.) 'the,' French les; but this is not the form of the Article; arek is only used as a demonstrative pronoun. The Article being always agglutinated to the noun, it does not exist by itself, and gizona, 'the man,' becomes gizonak, 'the men;' k is simply added to the noun with the article.

CHAPTER V.

Agglutination.

Agglutination consists in putting one word behind another so as to form a more or less homogeneous compound; e.g., gizon, 'man;' gizona, 'the man;' gizonagandik, 'for the man;' dakust, for d-ikus-t, 'I-see-it.'

The agglutinated word, or syllable, or letter, may be preceded by a, e, i, o:—

When a precedes, the a is always the article, except in some few words which end in a, like aita, 'father.'

When e precedes, this letter is merely a binding letter; thus, bat, 'one,' with the article, makes bata, 'the one,' and as subject of a transitive verb batak; but bat without the article, and represented as acting, would be batak, which cannot be pronounced, and thus e is interpolated—batek. This e is at the same time the characteristic of the indefinite form, i.e. the noun without article. Consequently words which do not admit of receiving a definite form, like pro-
nouns, have all of them an e before the suffix, if any interpolation be necessary; e.g. the pronoun a, 'that,' (formerly ar), followed by the suffix k, becomes ark, 'that,' and arek, 'these.' e serves only here to distinguish two identical forms. K in the first example is the suffix of the agent (subject of a transitive verb), and in the second one the suffix of plural. Norbait, 'some one,' with the suffix of action k, becomes norbaitek, not to distinguish it from another norbaitek, but because t and k are not allowed to follow each other. E is thus a neutral vowel, employed when a could not be made use of, or for pronunciation's sake.

When o precedes, exclusion is expressed: Gizonok joango gera, 'We men, we shall go.' In French, 'Nous autres hommes,' ... O+k is most probably a contraction of the demonstrative pronoun oyek.

I will be discussed in the next chapter. (See ik.)

CHAPTER VI.

§ 1. The Noun, Substantive and Adjective.

The Basque language distinguishes the substantive, the adjective, and the verb—eche, 'house;' handi, 'great;' Joan, 'to go.'

What is known as gender in other languages is unknown in Basque.

Number is either singular or plural. The suffix of the plural is k; e.g. gizona, 'the man;' gizonak, 'the men;'

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emakumea, 'the woman'; emakumeak, 'the women.' The plural noun is never without the article: 'men' cannot be expressed.

There is no declension in Basque; the modifications expressed in other languages by cases or by prepositions, are rendered in Basque by suffixes, which are always agglutinated to the noun: zaldi, 'horse'; zaldia, 'the horse'; zaldiaren, 'of the horse;' zaldiko, 'of horse;' zaldibat, 'one horse;' etc.

The noun, when followed by the article a, is called the definite noun, and when not followed by the article a, it is called the indefinite noun.

The Adjective.

As number is unknown, and as the plural is expressed by adding the plural article, there remains only to show how the degrees of comparison are formed. The comparative is formed by the suffix go, added to the definite adjective—handia, 'great;' handiago, 'greater;' and the following 'than' is expressed by baño or baino—su baño handiago, 'greater than you.' The superlative is formed by the plural genitive, followed by the article a. Thus, handi, 'great;' handien, 'of the great' (see "The Suffixes"); handiena, 'he of the great;' gizonen handiena, 'the greatest of (the) men'—or, also, gizonetatik handiena, 'the greatest among men.'
CHAPTER VII.

The Suffixes.

The grammatical relations, expressed in other languages by cases or by prepositions, are expressed in Basque by suffixes; e.g., nigabe, for ni-gabe, 'without me.' Hargatik, for har-gatik, is exactly the English 'therefore;' har is the demonstrative; gatik is 'for.'

List of Suffixes.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{k, mark of agent.} & \text{no, 'until.'} \\
\text{k, mark of plural.} & \text{dik, tik, 'of.'} \\
\text{n, 'in.'} & \text{baithan, 'in.'} \\
\text{i, 'to.'} & \text{pean, 'under.'} \\
\text{z, 'by.'} & \text{gan, 'in.'} \\
\text{ik, 'some.'} & \text{gana, 'to, at.'} \\
\text{ko, go, 'of.'} & \text{gandi, 'from.'} \\
\text{kotzat, 'for.'} & \text{gatik, 'for.'} \\
\text{tzat, 'for.'} & \text{ra, 'towards.'} \\
\text{tsako, 'for.'} & \text{rako, 'towards.'} \\
\text{kin, 'with.'} & \text{raño, 'until.'} \\
\text{kiko, 'for.'} & \text{ronz, 'towards.'} \\
\text{kaz, gaz, 'with.'} & \text{ka, 'on.'}
\end{array}
\]

The suffixes are joined, some of them to the definite, and others to the indefinite noun, or also to both, i.e. the noun with or without the article.
THE SUFFIXES.

1. Those joined to the definite and indefinite noun: Ḫ, subject-agent; n, 'of;' i, 'to;' z, 'by;' ḫn, 'with;' tzat, 'for.'

E.g. Gizon + Ḫ, makes gizoneh, 'man.'
   Gisona + Ḫ, '' gizoneh, 'the man.'
   Gizon + z, '' gizones, 'by man.'
   Gisona + z, '' gizones, 'by the man.'
   Bilbao + n, '' Bilbaon, 'in Bilbao.'
   Echea + n, '' echean, 'in the house.'

2. Those joined to the indefinite noun: ra, ron, rak, 'towards;' rano, 'until;' ko, 'of;' dik, tik, 'from, out;' ik, corresponding to 'some;' ka, 'on, by:'—

Echera, 'towards (the) house'—(not echeara).
Echeron, ''
Echeko, 'of (the) house.'
Gizonik, 'of some man.'
Zaldika, 'on horse (horseback).'</n
Echetik, 'from out of the house.'

3. Those joined to the definite noun: gan, 'in;' gana, 'to;' gandik, 'from;' baithan, 'in;' n, 'in' (our locative). Thus, echean, 'in the house,' and never echon; Jainkoagan, 'in God.'

When words have no definitive form, like pronouns, proper names, &c., one is obliged to put these suffixes to the indefinite noun; ni, 'I,' can never be nia, 'the I;' thus, ni-gan makes nigan, 'in me.' Bilbao-n≡Bilbaon.
§ 2. The Suffix with the Plural Noun.

When the Suffixes are agglutinated to plural nouns, the k, mark of the plural, is scarcely ever maintained, but is generally converted into t; or it is dropped, and the hiatus caused by this dropping of k is prevented by inserting y:

Hauk, 'these' + k (agent) makes hauyek, for haukek.
Gizonak, 'the men' + n 'of' , gizonen, , gizonaken.
Echeak, 'the houses' + ko, , echeetako, , echeak-ko.
Orieak, those' + ra, , orietara, , oriek-ra.

§ 3. Description of the Suffixes.

K is the characteristic letter of the subject-agent, i.e. the subject of a transitive verb. For shortness sake we shall call it simply the agent, in distinction to the subject of the intransitive verb, which will be called the patient. Thus, niotorri naiz, 'I have come;' but nik badakir, 'I know it. (In Basque, as in French, 'come' being an intransitive verb, is conjugated with izan, 'to be,' of which naiz, 'I am.')

The Spanish-Basque dialects observe this difference between agent and patient in the singular only. But the French-Basque dialects have kept it up in both numbers; e.g., haurak joan dira, 'the children have gone;' haurrak is the usual, unaltered, plural. Legeko doktorak beretzat hartu zituzten, 'the doctors of law took for themselves' . . . Doktorak (agent) from doktorakek; after dropping medial k—doktorakek, then doktorak. Ek is thus the termination of the plural agent.
K, the Suffix of Plural.

When followed by the suffixes $z$, $ra$, $rons$, $tik$, $ko$, and $n$ (locative), it becomes $t$. $Echeak+n$ does not make $echeakan$, but $echeetan$, 'in the houses.' $Oyek+ra$ becomes $oyetara$, 'towards these.' It is very seldom that $k$ is maintained: $gizonakaz$ (Bisc.) for $gizonetaz$, 'with the men.' The dropping of $k$ is much more frequent than the mutation of $k$ into $t$: e.g. $hek$, 'those,' becomes as agent $heyek$ for $hekek$.

The Suffix $ik$.

This suffix corresponds to 'de' partitif of French grammar, and in English it is generally not rendered at all, or rendered by 'some:' $Bururik estu$, 'He has no judgement'; $Badezu ogirik$, 'You have some bread.' In French one would say, Il n'a pas de jugement; Vous avez du pain. The 'de,' called partitif, explains nothing. I think one must consider (in Basque as in any other language) 'bread,' 'judgment,' &c., as words of an indefinite nature in point of number, and which are accompanied in English by 'some' or 'any;' in Dutch by nothing at all, leaving the noun without any modifying word, either article or preposition, or adverb; and in Basque by $ik$. $Ik$ is most probably nothing else than the plural $k$ preceded by $i$, to which has been assigned, for some reason or other, an indefinite meaning. In fact, when I say in English, 'I have not seen any house like your's,' it is clear that 'house' though a singular conveys the idea of a plural: without plurality no comparison could have been established. $Ik$ is thus the characteristic suffix
of the indefinite plural, and is originally a plural form. 

Ark biderik asko bazuen, 'he had many motives;' in French, beaucoup de. The r in biderik is for the sake of euphony. 

Es dago gloriarik jaungoikoaren aginduak gorde gabe, 'There is no glory, or there is not any glory, without the observance of God's commands.' 'Glory' in this instance does not present itself to the mind at once as a plural, because it does not admit so easily of a plural form; but if the example were, 'there is not any child without its defects,' one would think at once of a plural form.

The Suffix n.

N corresponds to our —

1. Locative.

2. Genitive.

3. Relative Pronoun.

4. Conjunction 'that.'

1 & 2. The origin of n is most probably the demonstrative non, with the signification of locality. Bilbao, 'in Bilbao,' was originally Bilbao-non.

This locative was later extended to express the genitive, as in Latin. *

3. The relative sentence was formerly added to the principal sentence by a demonstrative; so in Basque.

4. The demonstrative non is used as a conjunction (as in English 'that'), but in the contracted form of n.

1. N as a Locative.

N, except when it is agglutinated to the name of a place, is always added to a definite noun; e.g., eczen, 'in the house'—never echon; but Madriden, Bilbaon, because names of places cannot have a definite form.

To express the same grammatical relation in the plural form, one adds n to the plural noun, and the mark of the plural h is converted into t; thus, echet+n becomes echet+t+n, or echetan, 'in the houses.'

N is never added to names of persons. (See Suffix gan.)

When words do not admit of a definite form, like pronouns, numerals, &c., n is agglutinated in the shape of tan; e.g., on, 'this,' followed by n, 'in,' is not onen, but onetan, 'in this,' just as if on were a plural form. Hirur, 'three,' followed by n, makes hiruretan, and not hiruran. This apparent anomaly may proceed from the necessity of showing that it is an indefinite form; and as the indefinite form is a plural (see suffix ik), so the termination tan will have been agglutinated to this kind of words.

2. N as a Genitive.

As a genitive, n is agglutinated to definite and indefinite words; seme+n makes semeren, 'of the son:' the semea+n makes semearen, 'of the son:' the semea here belongs to the article a, which takes up the original s when a suffix follows.
The Basque dialect likes hiatus, and drops very often -semeen, semiaen, &c.

In the plural form the k is eliminated according to the rule, e.g., gizonen for gizonaen, for gizonaken, 'of the men.' Hauk, 'these;' hauen, for hauken, 'of these.'

N as a Relative Pronoun.

The relative was originally a demonstrative word, and the sentence, erosi duen liburua, 'the book that he has bought,' was most probably in the original erosi du non liburua: du, 'he has,' followed by n, from non, becomes duen.

N as the Conjunction 'that.'

The conjunction was formerly in many languages, and also in Basque, a demonstrative word, and the sentence, 'I think, that he will come,' was originally 'I think that, he will come.' The transposition of the comma explains clearly the difference.

The Suffix 1.

I corresponds to 'to'—gizon, 'man;' gizoni, 'to man;' gizona, 'the man;' gizonari, 'to the man.' In the plural the k is dropped, and gizonak-i becomes gizonai, or in the French-Basque dialects gizonei.

The Suffix 2.

This suffix is rendered by 'by' or 'with;' e.g., buruz, 'by heart;' makillas, 'with the stick.' Beto lurres, 'full
with earth.’ If the noun terminates with a consonant, as is the case with lur, it is necessary to interpolate e. With a plural noun, k is converted into t: gizonak+z becomes gizonetaz, ‘by or with the men.’ The Biscayan dialect alone has preserved k, and also g instead of h; the other dialects have tzaz and zaZ, all corruptions of kaz.

This termination (tzaz, zaZ, gas) is employed like tan (see n), with pronouns, numerals, &c. Hek+z makes hezaz, or hetzaz, ‘by these.’ The Souletin has the very corrupt form eez.

The Suffix dik or tik.

This suffix corresponds to ‘from,’ ‘since.’ Nondik naton? ‘Where from do you come?’ Hastetik kontresta egiozu . . ., ‘Resist from the beginning to him.’ With plural nouns, the rule is always the same: eche+k-dik becomes echeetatik.

The Suffix ko or go.

This suffix is employed in different ways: (1) to express comparison (see the Degrees of Comparison). (2) As corresponding to ‘from’ or ‘of:’ Burgosko, ‘from Burgos;’ nongo, ‘from where;’ lurreko, ‘of (the) earth, or terrestrial;’ aurreko, ‘of before,’ i.e. preceding; aurrekoak, ‘those of before’ = ancestors. The last examples prove that Basque, like many other languages, employ the genitive of a noun as an adjective. (3) Ko or go serves, as Spanish de, to form the future: emango dut, ‘I have to give’ = I shall give.

The Suffix tzaT.

TzaT corresponds to ‘for,’ and is added generally to the
noun, followed by n (genitive); e.g., gizonarentzat, 'for the man;' gizonentzat, 'for the man.' When added to the noun in its unaltered form, the signification is somewhat different: erotzat daukat, 'I hold him for mad.'

The Suffix Kan or Gan.

This suffix belongs to the Biscaian dialect, and is erroneously quoted as kan or gan, because the k belongs to the noun; n alone is the suffix 'in.' It is a plural form in use for the singular and the plural.

The Suffixes Gana, Gandik, Ganako.

Gana, ganako, correspond to 'towards,' 'into.' Jainkoa-gana bikoza goititzea, 'to raise one's heart unto God.' Gandik signifies 'from:' norgandik zatoz? 'from whom do you come?'

The Suffix Gabe.

Gabe, bage, baga, bagaz, 'without,' is always added to definite nouns: ogiagabe, 'without bread.'

The Suffix No.

No, ño, or iño, corresponds to 'until;' no is perhaps the conjunction non which has lost final n. The conjunction 'that' may express 'until;' e.g. 'wait that I come;' or 'wait until I come,' expresses the same idea. The only objection is the palatal pronunciation of n in ño.

The Suffix Ra.

Ra is rendered by 'to, towards,' or is not rendered at all.
THE SUFFIXES.

in English; e.g., echea noa, 'I go (to) home.' Added to a plural noun, k is converted into t; eche + k-ra becomes eche-t-ra, or echeetara, 'to, or towards, the houses.' The French-Basque dialects have sometimes rat for ra, or even la and lat.

The Suffix kin.

Kin is rendered by 'with,' and is always added to a noun followed by n, i.e. a genitive, and this makes it probable that kin is for hide-n, 'in participation,' 'in company.' Gizonarekin, 'with the man,' was thus originally 'in company of the man.'

The Suffixes RONTZ, BAITHAN, KA.

Rontz or rutz (Biscaian) corresponds to ra, 'towards.'

Baithan, or beithan, is used for n when persons are spoken of; e.g., eta ni baithan sinhesten duena, 'and he who believes in me.'

Ka corresponds to 'at,' 'with.' Zaldika, 'on horse(back);' loka, 'with, or by, looks.' Ka is sometimes ta: makillata, 'with, or by, blows of a stick.'

Compound Suffixes.

There are compound suffixes, just as there are compound prepositions in English like 'towards,' &c. Kotzat is rendered by 'in order to' or 'though:' Eta herr enazue azautoz errazekotzat (Matt. xiii. 30), 'And bind them in bundles to burn them.' Ain aberats izatekots (for izate-kotsat), 'though he be rich.'
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BASQUE GRAMMAR.

Zko, composed of z-ko, does not express more than z. Lako, 'because;' tzako, 'towards,' and some others which offer nothing worth while noticing, and which are to be found in the Dictionary.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Pronouns.

§ 1. The Demonstrative Pronouns.

Nowadays there are four demonstrative pronouns—a, hura, hau, hori. Traces of other pronouns, now lost, are found in the flexions of the verb; d, as a third person, subject and object; t as a first person, subject; e.g., dakeus, 'I-see-it,' from d-ikus-t; doa, 'he goes,'—d-oa.

§ 2. The Pronoun a.

Originally this pronoun was har, or in the Spanish-Basque dialects, which have lost h, ar, 'that.' The Biscaian dialect is the only one which has preserved a as a pronoun, and at the same time as the article 'the.' In the first case it is written like all other pronouns, i.e. separated from the noun; as an article, it is agglutinated to the noun. When a is followed by a suffix the primitive r reappears, and a+n becomes aren, 'of that;' a+k becomes arek, 'those;' ar
followed by k, the suffix of the agent, becomes ark. The Biscayan plural arek is also aek, but the other dialects object to hiatus and have interpolated y—ayek. When the plural is followed by the suffixes z, ko, za, dik, ronz, n (locative) k is converted into t; thus, ayek + n makes ayetan, 'in those.' The French-Basque dialects have preserved, at least some of them, two plural forms—one for the agent, and another for the patient:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patient</th>
<th>Agent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hekiekn.</td>
<td>Hekiekn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labourdin</td>
<td>Hek.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hek.</td>
<td>Hekekn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varieties,</td>
<td>Hék.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hek.</td>
<td>Hayek.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souletin.</td>
<td>Hurak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hek.</td>
<td>Hek.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Har is the singular; harek is the plural, which loses the r (haek), and is contracted in hek, 'these.' This hek followed by k, the suffix of the agent, becomes hekek.

§ 3. The Singular Pronouns with the Suffixes

N, z, ko, ra, dik, ronz.

We have seen that when a plural noun or pronoun is followed by one of the above-named suffixes, the k of the plural is converted into t; this gives to these nouns an appearance as if they were followed by the suffixes tan, tak, tako, &c. This view has been adopted until now, but is erroneous, as has been shown; t is a converted k. But what is not yet explained is, that these terminations, tan,
tax, &c., are found agglutinated to the singular pronouns; e.g. the pronoun a (formerly har) followed by n becomes harten, 'in that;' on, 'this,' becomes, when followed by n, onetan, 'in this.' All pronouns, and in general all words that do not admit of a definite form, follow this rule; e.g. nitaz, for ni-z,'by me;' hiruretan, 'in three;' for hirur-n, &c. Perhaps one may find an explanation in the fact that the indefinite form is sometimes expressed by a plural. (Compare ik.)

Some dialects have a special termination ch for expressing what is rendered in French by 'mêmes;' e.g. achche, 'this;'—celui-ci-mêmes. Auche and the like are then considered as new themes, to which all the suffixes can be agglutinated.

§ 4. The Pronoun haor, hau, au.

This pronoun is only used as a patient, 'this;' and for the plural, hauk, 'these.' For the agent there is another form, from a theme on, or hun, according to the dialects; thus, onek, hunek. The Biscaian plural is also made of on—oneek. The plural hauk is also found as oyek, or oek, and auok; in Souletin, huiok. This pronoun has (like har) an agent and a patient plural form—hauk+k=hauek; and, after the dropping of medial k, hauk, and then hauyek. The other observations made respecting har are also applicable to this pronoun.

§ 5. The Pronoun on or hun.

This pronoun is only in use as the agent onek (see § 4); it is also found in the compound pronoun neroni (see § 8).
§ 6. The Pronoun hori, ori.

In all the dialects the patient is hori, or ori, 'that,' and
the agent korrek, or orrek; and the plural, koriek. There
are thus two themes—ori and or; the second with hard r,
doubled when a suffix follows. Ori is never followed by a
suffix, except by k—oriek, 'these.' On the contrary, orren,
'of that;' orri, 'to that;' orgatikan, 'for that,' are all
formed by or. The Biscaian dialect makes also the plural
from or—orreek.

When one of the suffixes n, s, ko, di, ra, ronz follows the
plural form, then k is converted into t—koriek + n becomes
horietan, 'in those.'

§ 7. The Pronoun hura.

This pronoun exists in all the dialects, except in Biscaian,
where the corresponding pronoun is a. Hura, 'that,' is
used in the singular for the patient; the corresponding agent
is hark or ark, from har. Hura is not, or is seldom, employed
with a suffix: har takes its place—haratik, 'therefore;'
hayek, 'those.'

§ 8. The Personal Pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biscayan.</th>
<th>G. L. Low-N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I,  nēu, ni.</td>
<td>ni.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou,  eu, i.</td>
<td>hi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We,  gēu, gu.</td>
<td>gu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You,  zen, zu.</td>
<td>zu.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Judging from the verbal flexions, there was formerly
another personal pronoun for 'I'; this was *t*. *E.g.*, *dakust*, 'I-see-it,' is formed of *d-ikus-t*; *d*, 'it,' *ikus* the verb, *t*, 'I.'

The third person is rendered by a demonstrative pronoun; and in the verb it is rendered in different ways. In the present of the indicative of transitive verbs it is conspicuous by its absence—*dakus*, (he) 'sees it.' In the same tense of the intransitive verb it is rendered by *d—doa*, 'he goes:' perhaps the same pronoun as subject, which we find as object and as initial in *dakust=d-ikus-t*.

The use of the pronoun *hi* is nearly obsolete; *hi* has been superseded by the more formal *zu*, 'you,' employed as a singular, like English 'you;' and consequently some sign was wanted to distinguish *zu* singular from *zu* plural, and this sign was found in the plural suffix *k*. But as *zu* might have been taken for the agent, *e* was inserted, and *zuek* became the second person plural. In Souletin, *ziek*.

The suffixes are added to these pronouns just as to the others; *ni-k* becomes *nik*; *ni-z=nilaz*, &c.

The emphatic personal pronouns are formed by the addition of a demonstrative pronoun; thus, *ni*, 'I;' and *haur*, 'this,' becomes *nihaur*, 'I myself.' Some dialects add the demonstrative to the genitive—*nerau*, from *nere-au*.


These pronouns are the genitives of the personal pronouns, *i.e.*, *ni+n*, *hi+n*, &c.; final *n* has been dropped—*nire*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neire</th>
<th>Nire</th>
<th>Nere</th>
<th>My.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eure</td>
<td>Hire</td>
<td>Hire</td>
<td>Th.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geure</td>
<td>Gure</td>
<td>Gure</td>
<td>Our.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zeure</td>
<td>Zure</td>
<td>Zure</td>
<td>Your.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE PRONOUNS.

Nere echea, 'the house of me;' nere eccheak, 'the houses of me.'

The third person singular is expressed by bere, 'his;' for both numbers: the Spanish-Basque dialects have taken boren for the plural 'their.'

The third person can also be rendered by aren, 'of him' =his; and ayen, 'of them' =their.

The second person plural being now zuek, the genitive is zuen, for zueken, 'of you' =your (plural).

The possessive adjectives 'mine,' 'thine,' &c., are neurea or nerea, hirea, &c.—more literally translated by French 'le mien.'

§ 10. The Reflective Pronoun.

The pronoun 'self' is rendered by buru, 'head.' Bainan begira eyezue zuek zeuron buruei (Mark xiii. 9), 'But take heed to yourselves.' As 'yourselves' is a plural, so buru has the plural form, i.e. buruak + i; and, after the dropping of k, buruai=buruai. (See suffix i.)

§ 11. The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronoun is rendered by the suffix n (see the suffixes), agglutinated to the verbal flexion; if this flexion ends with a consonant it is liable to the phonetic rules. Dut followed by n becomes dudan: Ikusi dudan gizona, 'The man whom I have seen.' The oblique cases are rendered by the interrogative pronoun zein, e.g., Eche au zeñaren zu sera jabe, 'That house of which you are the proprietor.'
§ 12. The Interrogative Pronouns.

They are—nor, 'who; zen, or zein, 'who, which; zer, 'what.' Nor da hor? 'Who is there?' Zein da haur? 'What is this?' The suffixes are agglutinated regularly to these pronouns: nor + k = nork, agent; nor + n = noren, 'of whom.'

§ 13. The Indefinite Pronouns.

Bat, 'some one; batzu, 'some' (plural); elibat (Soulletin), 'some; bakoch, bakhoitz, 'each; batbedera, 'every one; bedera, 'one, single.' Diakreak diraden emaste bedevaren zeñhar (1 Tim. iii. 12), 'Let the deacons be the husbands of one wife.' Bana, 'each; bertze, beste, 'other; kanitz, anitz, 'many; inor, nihor, 'somebody; zembait, 'some.'—Eta han xiradenetarik zembitek (Mark xiv. 47), 'And one of them that were there.' Norbait, 'some one; zerbait, 'something; nor bere, nor ere, 'every one; elkar, 'each other; edozein, 'any one; exer, 'something.'
CHAPTER IX.
The Numerals.

The Cardinal Numbers.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bi, biga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hirur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Laur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Bortz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sei.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Zaspi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Zortzi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Bederatzi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Hamar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Hamaiaka.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Hamabi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Hamahirur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Hamalaur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Hamabortz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Hamasei.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffixes are agglutinated to the Numbers, as to the other nouns. *Bat*, as in the Spanish, is employed in the plural, and becomes *batsu* (see the Indefinite Pronouns). The Ordinal Numbers are formed from the Cardinal Numbers by the suffix *garren—bigarren, hirurgarren, &c.* *Bat* does not form an Ordinal Number; *lehengo, or lengo*, corresponds to *first.*
CHAPTER X.

The Verb.

§ 1. The Verb in General.

The Basque Verb may be divided into three classes, according to its nature, its signification, and its conjugation:—

1. Primitive and Derivative Verbs.
2. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.
3. Regular and Periphrastic Verbs.

A Verb is primitive, like ekarri, 'to bear'; joan, 'to go.'
A Verb is derivative, like apaindu, 'to adorn;' from apain, 'ornament.'
A Verb is transitive, like ekarri: dakart, 'I bear it.'
A Verb is intransitive, like joan: noa, 'I go.'
A Verb is regular, like ekarri and joan.
A Verb is periphrastic; as, ikusten dut, 'I have it in sight'—I see it.

All Verbs are regular except izan, 'to be.'

§ 2. Conjugation of the Regular Verbs.

The Transitive Verb.

Few languages have a more simple way of conjugation
THE VERB.

than the Basque language. The present of the indicative contains the verbal theme, preceded or followed by the pronouns—dakart, 'I-bear-it,' from d-ekar-t.

§ 3. MOODS AND TENSES.

The Basque Verb has three moods—the Imperative, the Indicative and the Optative Mood; and two tenses—the Present and the Imperfect. The Infinitive, the Subjunctive and Particles (except the Past), do not exist in Basque. A Verb is mentioned in the Dictionary by the verbal adjective (past participle).

The Imperative.

The second person contains the verbal theme, followed by the pronoun; ekarri, 'to bear,' makes ekark, 'bear thou,' from ekar-hi; ekarzu, 'bear you,' from ekar-su. The third person has the pronoun prefixed—b-ekar or bekar, '(may he bear.'

The Indicative.

The Indicative has two tenses—the Present and the Imperfect. The present is formed by the verbal theme, preceded by the object and followed by the subject. The present is never without the object 'it,' expressed by d; thus, dakart, from d-ekar-t, 'I-bear-it;' dakark, from d-ekar-hi, 'thou-bearest-it; dakar, from d-ekar, '(he) bears-it.' The initial vowel becomes always a, with some few exceptions, as irudi, izeki, &c.
The characteristic letters of the subject and object are derived from the pronouns. They are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t, I</td>
<td>n, from ni.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k, thou.</td>
<td>k, .... ki.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— he.</td>
<td>d, .... —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gu, we.</td>
<td>g, .... gu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zu, you.</td>
<td>z, .... zu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— they.</td>
<td>d, .... —</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We saw that the third person is conspicuous by its absence; the other persons are, dakargu, dakarzu, dakarte. The third person plural is made from the singular, adding te, a sign of plurality. T as subject has an unknown origin (see the Pronouns).

The second person singular, being superseded by the second person plural, it was necessary to distinguish the new plural, and thus te was added, and dakarzu becomes dakarzute, 'you (plural) bear it.'

If the object be n, 'me' (instead of d), then we get n-ekar-hi, or nakark, 'thou bearest me;' nakar, '(he) bears me;' nakarzu, 'you bear me,' &c. One cannot take two pronouns (object and subject) of the same person; this would give a reflective relation, which is expressed in another way. If the object be hi, then the flexions will be h-akar-t, 'I-bear-thee;' hakar, '(he) bears thee,' &c. All the presents of all the indicatives of all the transitive verbs are inflected in this same way.
The Verb.

The Imperfect.

The imperfect never takes up in its flection the object; the subject precedes the verbal theme, which is followed by the termination \( n \), a constant characteristic of this tense. The pronoun subject is not \( i \), but \( n \) (for \( ni \), 'I'), which we find perhaps as object 'me' in the present (\( e.g., nakarzu \), 'you bear me').

If an object have to be expressed, it precedes the flection, and the subject is then agglutinated to the verb and is followed by the termination \( n \); \( e.g., n-ekar-zu-n \), or \( nekarzu-n \), 'you bore me.' The imperfect without object will be—

\[
\begin{align*}
n-ekar-n, & \text{ or } nekarren, \text{ I bore.} \\
h-ekar-n, & \text{ or } hekarren. \\
ekar-n, & \text{ or } ekarren. \\
gekar-n, & \text{ or } gekarren. \\
zekar-n, & \text{ or } zekarren. \\
ekar-n, & \text{ or } ekarren.
\end{align*}
\]

This form is the more primitive, and is still found in the Biscaian dialect; but in the other dialects it is always found with the following variations:

\[
\begin{align*}
nenkarren, & \text{ genkarren.} \\
ekarren, & \text{ zenkarren.} \\
zekarren, & \text{ zekarten.}
\end{align*}
\]

The principal difference here is the introduction, after the initial vowel, of \( n \), the origin of which is unknown. The initial \( z \) of the third person is another deviation from the