
Basque from a typological, dialectological and diachronic point of view.


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Basque from a typological, dialectological and diachronic point of view

Introduction

Basque (euskara) is the only pre-Indo-European language that has survived in Western Europe, and there is as yet no compelling evidence that it is genetically related to any known language — except Aquitanian, its more or less direct ancestor (Michelena 1964, Gorrochategui 1995); it has been compared to every known language families and language isolates; a review of many of these hypotheses is provided by Trask 1997; see also Michelena 1968 for the B/Caucasian hypothesis, and my own review of Morvan 1996 for the putative Ural-Altaic/B connection.

Around the beginning of our era, as place-names and various inscriptions show, B was spoken throughout Caesar’s Novempopulania and, on the southern side of the Pyrenees, as far as the Ebro plain; many place-names also indicate that it must have been spoken well into today’s Catalonia; but the extent to which it was spoken to the west of Navarre’s western boundary is still a matter of debate; in any case, the toponymy of the southernmost province of the Autonomous Community or Euskadi in modern Spain, Alava (Araba), which is almost exclusively Spanish-speaking today, was clearly Basque-speaking in the Middle Ages. Finally, there is no evidence that B was ever spoken to the west of Bilbao, the capital of the western province of Biscaye (Bizkaia).

The first book ever printed in B dates back to 1545, so that the real history of the language is fairly short. However, onomastic data, hand-written annotations or yet a few travellers’ vocabulary notes have been discovered and published (Michelena 1964, Sarasola 1983, Satrustegi 1987, Orputan 1999, among others). Such documents enable us to draw a fairly secure picture of many aspects of the language as it was spoken in the Middle Ages, and even earlier, as far as the phonology is concerned.

Even the oldest documents are dialectally differentiated. The founder of B dialectology, L.-L. Bonaparte, basing his classification on verbal morphology, identified eight major dialects, as appears in the full title of his 1869 book. Among those, he recognized four literary dialects, namely, from east to west: Souletin (zuberoera, henceforth Zu) and Labourdín (lapurdiera, La), spoken in France, and Guipuzcoan (gipuzkera, Gi) and Biscayan (biskaiera, Bi), spoken in Spain. Table (A) gives a rough idea of the geographical distribution of those eight dialects (new abbreviations: ‘WLN’, Western Lower Navarrese; ‘ELN’, Eastern Lower Navarrese; ‘NHN’, Northern Higher
Navarrese, 'SHN', Southern Higher Navarrese, 'Ae', Aezkoan, 'Sa', Salazarese, and 'Ro', Roncalese; the last three were considered to be southern subvarieties of the corresponding dialects spoken in France across the border:

| Table A. The B dialects according to Bonaparte 1869 |
|-------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|
|                  | West     |                      | East     |
| North             | Bi       | Gi                  | NHN      |
| South             | WLN      | ELN                 | Zu       | (Ro)                |
| Bi                | (Ae)     | (Sa)                |

The dialect spoken in Alava (if there ever was such an independent variety of B, already extinct when Bonaparte drew his map), would have occupied the empty box on the left-hand side of the bottom line.

In his latest study to date, Zuazo 1998 reduces the sum total of dialects still alive to six: NL (nafar-lapurtera, French Navarro-labourdín) and Zu correspond to the first line of Table A; corresponding to the second line, we find Bi (labelled 'Western'), Gi ('Central') and nafarrera (i.e. Higher Navarrese), now taken to include Ae, and finally ekialdeko nafarrera or Eastern [H-]-Navarrese (Ro being now extinct too).

As far as the written language is concerned, two main varieties have emerged in the past decades. In France, the NL macro-dialect obtained quasi-official recognition with the publication of Lafitte's Grammaire [...] in 1944. Across the border, in the thirties, Euskaltzaindia (the Academy of the Basque language) first promoted an "enriched" variety of Gi (gipuzkera osotua) which has now developed into "unified" B (euskara batua, henceforth EB), the language used today (together with Spanish) in education and administration in the Autonomous Community. Given the demographical weight of the "Southern" Basques (there are roughly 20 times as many B speakers in Spain as there are in France), it is EB as it is written (and spoken today on television) that will be described in the next section.

1. The main typological characteristics of standard Basque

1.1. Sound structure

Owing to the essentially written character of standard Basque, I will start from its spelling, which is a fair, if not perfect, approximation of the phonemic system of euskara batua as it is pronounced in Guipuzcoa.

1.1.1. The segmental level.
1.1.1.1. The vocalic system has a quite ordinary five unit system, written \( a, e, i, o, u \). There also are five falling diphthongs, spelt \( ai, ei, oi, au, eu \) (conversely, orthographic sequences like \( ia \) or \( ua \) are typically bisyllabic); it follows that the syllable boundary insequences like \( aia \) or \( euu \) is after, rather than before, the closed vowel.

1.1.1.2.1. The standard spelling consonants are those in Table (B).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table B</th>
<th>Standard Basque consonants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plosives [-voiced]</td>
<td>labial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plosives ([+voiced])</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affricates</td>
<td>tz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fricatives</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nasals</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>liquids</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rhotics</td>
<td>r / rr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments. (a) The \([\pm\text{voiced}]\) opposition only functions with the plosives, the \([+\text{voiced}]\) ones often being realized as voiced continuants or fricatives (\( [\beta, \delta, \gamma] \)). (b) The phonemic status of \( tt \) and \( dd \) is only (marginally) clear in the northern dialects, whereas the sounds these digraphs represent are mere allophones of \( t \) and \( d \) in the southern ones after \([\pm\text{syllabic}] \) \( i \). (c) The fricatives and affricates are all voiceless, cf. (a) above; \( z \) and \( tz \) are lamino- or dorso-alveolar, \( s \) and \( ts \) are apico-(post-)alveolar, and \( x \) and \( tx \) are prepalatal: there is a larger number of fricatives than of plosives. (d) EB has imported \( h \) into its spelling: this letter is only pronounced in the north. (d) The nasals are neutralized as orthographic \( n \) before consonants (but regressive assimilation is the rule), and at the end of words. (e) The palatal nasal and liquid are spelt \( ñ \) and \( ll \) only at the beginning of words; owing to a very general process of palatalizing \( n \) and \( l \) after a syllabic or non-syllabic \( i \), the same sounds occur as allophones of the full phonemes \( n \) and \( l \), but if the \(-i-\) is dropped, as is often the case, minimal pairs are brought about which do not contrast in the number of segments, but in their quality, as in \( oina \ ‘the foot’ \), pronounced \( [ojna] \) in the north but \( [oña] \) in the south, where it contrasts with \( ona \ ‘the good (one)’. (f) The two rhotics (which do not appear initially except in recent borrowings) are just one flap in the case of simple \( r \), and a trilled rhotic in the case of \( rr \) – but the opposition only works intervocically: in other contexts, the grapheme \( r \) is used, but is realised trilled. (g) Finally, the letter \( j \) whose recommended pronunciation is a simple yod is generally realised like a post-velar continuant in Guipuzcoa (as it is in Spanish).
1.1.2.2. Consonant clusters are normally absent in word-initial position: ancient borrowings have an epenthetic vowel in nouns like giristino ‘Christian’ or have simplified the initial group, as in lore ‘flower’ (< Lat. florem). In simple words, intervocalic clusters consist of a continuant (a fricative, nasal, liquid or the trilled rhotic) followed by a plosive or an affricate – but fricative + affricate sequences are not tolerated: enbor ‘[-mb-] (tree-)trunk’; zortzi ‘eight’; a subset of those clusters is also admitted word finally: beltz ‘black’. In complex words, more elaborate clusters are allowed, e.g. da.tor.z.ki.t ‘3rd p.-come-plural-DF-me’, ‘they’re coming to me’, but many simplifications also occur. For instance, a sequence /affricate-plosive/ results in /fricative-plosive/, but progressive assimilation in voice/voicelessness also takes place, as in irispide ‘way of achieving something’ <iritis- ‘arrive’ + bide ‘way’, with the simultaneous affricate > fricative change.

1.1.2. At the supra segmental level, EB can be characterized as follows (after Hualde 1997, but the analysis is partly my own) for young speakers who have made their studies in Basque: (a) two (or more) syllable-long words have an intensity stress; (b) the length and phonological structure of the root is relevant.

1.1.2.1. When the accentual unit is the word, (i) two and three syllable-long words whose root is monosyllabic are stressed on the first syllable: liurra <lur+a ‘the earth’, lurrari ‘to the earth’; bèltzago (<beltz+ago) ‘more black’; (ii) when the root is bisyllabic and ends in a vowel, the root pronounced in isolation is also stressed on the first syllable: âte ‘door’, mèndi ‘mountain’; (iii) in all other cases, polysyllabic words have a primary stress on the second syllable, counting from left to right, plus a final secondary stress if the word has at least four syllables: gidón ‘man’, gidona ‘the man’, gidóna ‘to-the-man’, gidónaentzät ‘for-the-man’. Words described under (i) are no longer irregular when they have at least four syllables: lurraentzakò ‘for the earth’; finally, words whose root has two syllables, the last of which is open, follow the general rule as soon as they are at least three syllables long: mendia ‘the mountain’, atéarentzakò ‘for the door’.

1.1.2.2. The accentual unit is longer that the word when a noun is followed by an attributive adjective, or an adjective is preceded by an adverb, or yet when the copula cliticizes to the predicative phrase. In such cases, the general rule applies, as in: [mendi zabalá] ‘a/the big mountain’, [alargana dà] ‘(she) is a widow’, or even: [osó zabala dà] ‘it’s very wide’, with no stress on the lexical word.

1.1.2.3. At the utterance level, the main stress falls on the accented syllable of the last word preceding the verb complex (either a lexical verb directly inflected – except the copula, see above – or a verbal participle followed by an inflected auxiliary); this position has been identified as the focus position since at least Altube 1929.

1.1.2.4. Intonation. Assertive utterances have an falling contour; exclamatory utterances
have a lower than usual final tone; yes-no questions have a raising contour, at least if there is no morpheme distinguishing them from the corresponding assertions, whereas yes-no questions segmentally marked as such (by the insertion of the particle al or ote immediately to the left of the inflected verb form) and wh-questions pattern with assertive utterances.

1.2. Morphology

1.2.1. B is typically an agglutinative language with by a vast amount of suffixes, and very few prefixes. The case system has generally been described as absolutive/ergative, and the conjugation is pluripersonal.

1.2.1.2. Most verbs cannot be inflected for tense and agreement (but are rather aspectually marked, and combined with a tensed auxiliary), and nouns and adjectives are easily transformed into verbs; the divide between these parts of speech is thus not as clear as is sometimes assumed:

(1)  a  ezkondu da  's/he has married'
     a' ezkontzen da  's/he marries / is getting married'
     b  gizendu da  's/he has fattened/put on weight'
     b' gizentzen da  's/he is getting fat'
     c  gizondu da  's/he has become a man'
     c' gizontzen da  's/he becomes a man'

The difference may however be established by dropping the perfective -du or the imperfective/iterative -zen ending and replacing it with -a:

(2)  a  *ezkona
     b  gizena        'the fat one'
     c  gizona        'the man'

(In fact, ezkon-a was artificially created a hundred years ago with the meaning 'spouse', but just as soon dropped out of use.) Semantically, gizena does not denote an entity per se, but is understood anaphorically, whereas the reference of an item like gizona is not felt to rely on ellipsis interpretation. Moreover, the relative word order is telling:

(3)  a  gizon gizena  'the fat man'
     b  *gizen gizona

Other word classes are postpositions, which are either declined nouns (gainea 'on, on top of', gainetik 'from above') or unanalysable (aurka 'against'), adverbs which may also be analysable (labur-ki 'in short') or not (gaur 'today') and conjunctions (eta 'and', ala 'or').

Finally, note that Basque has a very powerful means of deriving adnominal elements from about everything: the suffix -ko can be attached not only to ablative or allative case
endings (see 1.2.2.1) but also to inflected verb forms, like the ancient balizko 'fictitious', from (ba-)litiz 'if it were', or to complement clauses, as in (4b), derived from (4a):

(4)  a [ezkondu dela] esaten dute
     married aux-that saying aux
     'they say he's got married'

 b ezkondu dela-ko gizona
     'the man who they say has got married'

1.2.2. Nominal morphology
1.2.2.1. B has neither nominal gender nor any classifier system.
1.2.2.2. The determiner + case system concerns nominal phrases, not nouns as such, since the number and case suffixes appear on the last word of the NP. The Number/Det subsystem is tripartite: (a) singular (-a), (b) plural (-e), and (c) "indeterminate" (O). The indeterminateness of zero concerns both number and definiteness, since no Det is allowed to be suffixed to the NP after interrogatives like zein 'which', or zenbat 'how many' – which both precede the head noun – or quantifiers like bat 'one' and asko 'many', which follow the noun. See Table (C).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sg</th>
<th>pl</th>
<th>indet</th>
<th>indet</th>
<th>indet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gizon a ri</td>
<td>gizon e i</td>
<td>gizon bat O i</td>
<td>gizon asko O ri</td>
<td>gizon gazte a ri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>man sg dat</td>
<td>man pl dat</td>
<td>man one O dat</td>
<td>man many O dat</td>
<td>man young sg dat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'to the man'</td>
<td>'to the men'</td>
<td>'to a man'</td>
<td>'to many men'</td>
<td>'to the young man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gizon gazte a ri</td>
<td>gizon gazte e i</td>
<td>gizon gazte bat O i</td>
<td>gizon gazte asko O ri</td>
<td>man young sg dat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>man young sg dat</td>
<td>man young pl dat</td>
<td>man young one O dat</td>
<td>man young many O dat</td>
<td>man young instr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'to the young man'</td>
<td>'to the young men'</td>
<td>'to a young man'</td>
<td>'to which young man/men?'</td>
<td>'to many men'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the introduction of an epenthetic -r- between a vowel and the case suffix (save in the dative plural, a clear exception). Another property of the Number/Det subsystem is that when it qualifies a direct object NP, the sg. suffix -a is used ambiguously with ±definite meaning, as in oghi jan dut, either 'I've eaten the bread' of 'I've eaten bread', whereas it is unambiguously definite when it specifies a subject NP.

The absolutive, besides being the dictionary form of nouns, is used with
"unaccusative" intransitive subjects and with direct objects, whereas the ergative is used with the subjects of transitive verbs. Morphologically, the abs. pl. ending is irregular: its plural form is the (synchronously) synthetic -ak, which is identical to the erg. sg. suffix.

Scholars do not agree on the exact number of cases in B, for two main reasons. (a) The divide between case and determiner is unclear in the case of the partitive suffix -ik; for reasons discussed in 1.3.2, I regard it as a contextual variant of of the indet. abs. (b) The divide between case suffixes and postpositions is unclear too. Thus, the "prolative" case -entzat could be analysed as a postposition -tzat 'for' governing the genitive (-en).

Tables (D.i-iii) summarize the main cases (the segments in brackets in the indet. column are epenthetic; irregular forms are in italics). The morphologically complex cases, and the locative ones, are set apart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(D.i) Simple case suffixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>sg</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absolutive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ergative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>genitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instrumental</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(D.ii) Complex case suffixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>sg</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(D.iii) Locative cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>sg</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locative/inessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ablative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adnominal loc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. (a) The suffix -tzat of the prolative may also be directly suffixed to the root. The difference in meaning between the two uses is as in (5):

(5) a seme a.ren.tzat hartu dut  
    son sg gen.tzat taken l-have-3sg  
    'I've taken it (e.g. a book) for my son'  
    b seme Ø.tzat hartu dut  
    'I've (mis)taken him for my son'  

(b) The locative cases are peculiar in several ways. (i) The sg. suffix -a does not appear.
(ii) The pl. and indet. numbers trigger the appearance of the "morph" -ta-. (iii) When head nouns are [+animate], the case morphemes generally cannot be directly suffixed to the last word in the NP: a postposition is used, which may be declined, as in gizona(ren)gan 'in the man', bi gizon(en)gandik 'from two men' etc. In the plural, however, such forms as the following can be used: lagun.e.ta.ra joan da (he) has gone to (meet) (his) friends'. (iv) The "adnominal locative" or "locative genitive" in -ko has many uses (1.2.1.2). First, if used directly, it transforms an adverbial phrase in the locative case into an adnominal adjunct, as in:

(6) a Donostia.n diren/dauden elizak
San Sebastian loc which-are churches
'the churches that are in San Sebastian'

b Donostia ko elizak
'The churches in San Sebastian'

(*Donostian elizak is unacceptable). Second, any case from the instr. down to the allative in Tables (D) can also be made into an adnominal adjunct or complement:

(7) a urrez 'made of gold' (instr) => urrez ko eratzuna 'a gold ring'
(*urrez eratzuna and *urrez eratzuna are impossible)

b arrozt herri.e.kila. ko harremanak
foreign country pl comit ko exchanges
'exchanges with foreign countries'

c Donosti ra ko bidea
San Sebastian allat ko road
'the road to S.S.'

(-rako can also be used as yet another allomorph of the (ordinary) prolicative case with inanimates).

1.2.2.2. Although B is a "generalized pro-drop language", its has both unmarked and marked (emphatic or strong), pronouns. Table (E) gives their forms in the absolutive and the genitive (see 1.3.3 for their distribution).

| Table E The absolute, and weak and strong genitive pronouns of standard Basque |
|--------------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Person | weak absolute | emphatic abs | weak genitive | strong genitive |
| I sg | mi | neu | nire | neure |
| I pl | gu | geu | gure | geure |
| II sg | hi | heu | hire | heure |
| II pl | zu | zeu | zure | zeure |
| II pl. | zuiek | zeuek | zuen | zeuen |
| III sg | hura | bera | haren | bener |
| III pl | haiiek | berak | heien | beren |

The pronouns are strictly personal only in the 1st and 2nd persons; 3rd p. pronouns as such do not exist, but any demonstrative (with the distal hura as the default) or the
"emphatic" bera can be used to refer to human beings.

There are no reflexive or reciprocal pronouns: reflexivity is expressed either by a medio-passive form, or by a full NP consisting of a possessive (in the genitive) followed by buru-a lit. 'head-sg' which always functions in verbal cross-reference like a 3rd p. item; likewise, reciprocity can be expressed either by the medio-passive voice or by the item elkar which, even when its antecedent is 1st or 2nd p., is cross-referenced as 3rd p. sg.

1.2.3. Verbal morphology

1.2.3.1. Synthetic and periphrastic conjugations. A handful of verbs can be directly inflected, but most of them only surface as participles (or a suffixless radical form), the tense and agreement affixes being carried by an auxiliary that follows the participle (in positive sentences – see 1.3.1 on negation).

Transitive verbs are always associated with the aux. 'echun (a reconstructed form), 'have', whereas intransitive (unaccusative) verbs are followed by izan 'be': contrary to what happens in a language like English, there is thus no association between a specific aux. and a specific participle (compare [have+en, be+ing]): the participles, which vary for aspect, select the aux. on the basis of their own argument structure.

There are three participles, perfective (or "past"), imperfective-iterative (or "present"), and prospective (or "future"). The perf. part. is also the citation form of verbs; it is characterized by various suffixes (-i, -n, zero, and the productive -tu); the prospective part. is formed by suffixing -en or -ko, i.e., one of the two genitive endings, to the perf. part.; the impf. part. is obtained by dropping the perf. part. suffix and adding - t(ž)en – in fact, this ending consists of -t(ž)e, the gerundive suffix, followed by the loc. case ending -n. There are three basic "tenses", two of which correspond to time reference (present and past), and one to irrealis modality: the prefixes when all arguments are 3rd p. are respectively d-, z- and l- (irrealis forms come in pairs, one to be found in the protasis of conditional sentences, the other in the apodosis). The basic combinations appear in table (F):
### Table F  Basic participle + auxiliary combinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>perf part.</th>
<th>imperf part.</th>
<th>prosp. part.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erori da</td>
<td>‘he has fallen’</td>
<td>erortzen da</td>
<td>‘he falls’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irakurri du</td>
<td>‘he has read’</td>
<td>irakurtzen du</td>
<td>‘he reads’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>past</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erori zen</td>
<td>‘he fell / had fallen’</td>
<td>erortzen zen</td>
<td>‘he fell / used to fall’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irakurri zuen</td>
<td>‘he read / had read’</td>
<td>irakurtzen zuen</td>
<td>‘he read / used to read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>irrealis (hypothetical)</strong></td>
<td>erori ba litz</td>
<td>‘if he’d fallen’</td>
<td>erortzen ba litz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irakurri ba lu</td>
<td>‘if he’d read’</td>
<td>irakurtzen ba lu</td>
<td>‘if he read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>irrealis (consequential)</strong></td>
<td>erori litz(a)ke</td>
<td>‘no longer used’</td>
<td>erortzen litz(a)ke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irakurri luke</td>
<td>‘he would fall’</td>
<td>irakurtzen luke</td>
<td>‘he would read’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When a verb is directly inflected, one of its values is "progressive"; the opposition between the synthetic and the periphrastic conjugations is therefore the reverse of the English one:

(8) a  etortzen da  ‘he comes’
   b  dator  ‘he’s coming’

The other value of directly inflected verbs is aoristic, their periphrastic counterpart consists of the verb *root* followed by a suppletive aux.; these forms correspond to the subjunctive mood: present (Gi) or past (Gii), the imperative (iii) with the prefix *b-*; and yet another series of *irrealis* forms which may take on an additional potential value:

### Table G  Tense and modality in the aoristic conjugation

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  eroradin  ‘that he fall’</td>
<td>irakur dezan</td>
<td>‘that he eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii  eroradin  ‘that he fall’</td>
<td>irakur zezan</td>
<td>‘that he read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii eror bedi  ‘let him fall’</td>
<td>irakur beza</td>
<td>‘let him read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv eror ba dadi  ‘if he falls’</td>
<td>irakur ba deza</td>
<td>‘if he reads’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v  eror daiteke  ‘he can fall’</td>
<td>irakur dezake</td>
<td>‘he can read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi  eror ba lede  ‘if he falls’</td>
<td>irakur baleza</td>
<td>‘if he read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii  eror laiteke  ‘he could fall’</td>
<td>irakur lezake</td>
<td>‘he could read’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The forms in (F) and (G) can be unified if we postulate the existence of a zero aspectual suffix: when the conjugation is periphrastic, then, the choice will be between one of the four options below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table H</th>
<th>intransitive</th>
<th>transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>eror.Ø</td>
<td>irakur(r).Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>eror.ɪ</td>
<td>irakur.ɪ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>eror.ţen</td>
<td>irakur.ţen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>eror.ɪko</td>
<td>irakur.ɪko</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the past tense is marked by the suffix -(e)n, and since erg. agreement is marked by suffixes (but see 1.2.3.2.3), the four options in (H) and the synthetic conjugation can be conflated as in (9), where the brackets represent an option: both an aspectual suffix and an aux. will either be selected together, or left out.

(9) \(VC \rightarrow \text{root (aspect+aux) Infl}\)

The suffix -ke which appears in (Gv, vii) and in the consequential *irrealis* forms of Table (F) has a life of its own, because it can in fact be combined with *any* inflected form, as shown in (10):

(10) a irakurri duke 'he must have read'
     b irakurten duke 'he must read' [probability]
     c irakurriko zuken 'he would (probably) have read'

Now this -ke-, although suffixed to the inflected verb form (IVF), is *followed* by the erg. and tense morphemes; hence (11), a revision of (9):

(11) \(VC \rightarrow \text{root (aspect+aux)(-ke-) Infl}\)

The aux. may be iterated, with a past-in-the-past or iterative value (as (b) shows, the aspectual choices are marked on the aux., not the lexical verb):

(12) a irakurri izan du 'he had read / he used to read'
     b irakurri izango zuen 'he would have read'

The final formula must therefore be:

(13) \(VC \rightarrow \text{root ((perf.+aux) aspect+aux)(-ke-) Infl}\)

To derive the real forms, one must select the obligatory morphemes (root and Infl), and may choose the optional ones. The morphological adjustments are minimal: any affix selected must be suffixed to the verb to its left. Thus, if the inner optional [perf.+aux] sequence is not selected, but the rest is, we get (14a) from the general formula, and (b) as the morphological output (where square brackets indicate word boundaries – see the next section for the missing prefix):
(14) a root aspect+aux *ke* Infl
   a’ [irakur- tzen+-u-] *ke* Infl
   b [irakur-tzen] […-u-*ke*-Infl]

If we compare (13) to Chomsky’s famous formula for English verb complexes, slightly adapted here:

(15) VC =⇒ Infl (Mod) (aux+en) (aux+ing) root

we note that, other things being equal (English has a whole class of modal auxiliaries, whereas Basque only has one modal affix, etc.), the two formulae are linearly mirror images of each other, but exhibit exactly the same relative distance of the main grammatical morphemes with respect to the lexical verb: the aspectual morphemes are closest to it, followed by modality material, and finally, farthest from the verb, we find Infl, thereby exemplifying the *same* hierarchy. (A more general study, which also takes the data described in the next section into account, can be found in Rebuschi (1999)).

1.2.3.2. The polypersonal conjugation

1.2.3.2.1. The IVFs agree with up to three arguments: absolutive, ergative, and dative. Some examples are given below, in the present tense; the roots are in italics; comments follow.

(16) a na ‘I am’
   iz 1-

   b za to ‘you [polite] are coming’
   z (<za tor) you-tor-pl

   c ga u ‘we are (somewhere)/we are staying’
   de (<ga go) we-go-pl

   d joan na ‘I have gone to him’
   tza o gone I-tzai-him

   e etorri ‘we have come to you’
   ga tza z <ki zu come we-tzai-pl.DF you

(17) a ikusi za ‘I have seen you’
   it u.t seen you-pl-u-l

   b ikusi ‘you have seen us’
   ga it u.zu seen us-pl-u-you

   c eman ‘you have given it to me’
   d i da zue given it-i-me-you

   d saldu ‘we have sold them to you’
   d i z ki zu gu sold it-i-pl.DF you we

The prefixes are absolutive: they correspond to the unique argument of the intransitive verb and the direct object of a transitive one. The abs. pl. morpheme (present with the polite 2nd pers. forms, which are in fact referentially sg. today) is distinct from the personal affix; it follows the root (16b,c,e), (17d), except in the case of the transitive
aux. -u-, (17a,b).

The suffixes are dative and ergative in that order, if both occur, note the dative flag (DF) -ki- which precedes the dative personal suffix (it could be argued that it is always present, but regularly disappears for morpho-phonological reasons in (16d) or (17c), cf. Rebuschi 1984).

Ergative and dative plurality is not marked for the 1st p. pl. or for the 2nd p. polite, historically a plural. Two suffixes (-e, -te) mark plurality for the 3rd p. (O for erg. sg., -o for dative sg.): du 'he has it' / dute 'they have it', nataio 'I am to him', nataaie 'I am to them', and are also used to build a general 2nd p. plural form out of the 2nd p. polite form: zatoz 'you (pol.) are coming', zatozte 'you (pl.) are coming'.

As was said earlier, nouns and pronouns are not marked for gender. However, the familiar 2nd p. sg. suffixes display a gender difference; the four translations of ergative "you" are given in (19) – where the first three lines correspond to a single addressee:

(18) a ikusi na.u.k 'you (male) have seen me' [familiar]
b ikusi na.u.n 'you (female) have seen me' [familiar]
c ikusi na.u.zu 'you (polite) have seen me' [polite]
d ikusi na.u.zue 'you (neutral) have seen me' [plural]

1.2.3.2.2. The DF -ki- is not functionally necessary, as the aux. roots are distinct for each case frame:

(19) Case frames and aux. roots

a abs. -iz, -ra    c abs.+ergative: -u-
b abs+dative: -(t)zaid    abs.+ dat.+ erg: -i-

Moreover, synthetically inflected transitive verbs resist valency reduction (the "anti-causative transformation"): dekar for instance is always 's/he's carrying it/him/her', never 's/he/it is (being) carried', in spite of the absence of a visible ergative suffix, and contrary to what one may observe in the periphrastic conjugation, where ekartzen du 's/he carries it/him/her' may reduce to medio-passive ekartzen da 's/he/it is carried'.

Likewise, unaccusative verbs may not be synthetically inflected and undergo a causative transformation: joan da 'he's gone' has a causative counterpart (joan du 'he took it away'), but the strong form doa does not. Thus, even though the erg. and dat. suffixes are identical in the 1st and 2nd p., both sg. and pl. (see table I), the lexical or aux. verbal root always indicates whether they are to be interpreted as dative or ergative:
### Table 1. Dative and ergative suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>dative</th>
<th>ergative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1sg</td>
<td>-t / -da-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2sg masc.</td>
<td>-k / -(k)a-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2sg fem.</td>
<td>-n / -na-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3sg</td>
<td>-o</td>
<td>-Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1pl</td>
<td>-gu(----)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2pol</td>
<td>-zu(----)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2pl</td>
<td>-zu e(----)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3pl</td>
<td>-e [=Ø-e?]</td>
<td>-Ø-te</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.3.3. In the past and *irrealis* tenses, the form of the 1st and 2nd p. prefixes changes, somehow incorporating a copy of the past suffix -n:

### Table J

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present abs. prefixes</th>
<th>Past/irrealis abs. prefixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1sg</td>
<td>na-</td>
<td>nind-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2sg (familiar)</td>
<td>ha-</td>
<td>hind-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1pl</td>
<td>ga-</td>
<td>gind- / gind-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 polite</td>
<td>za-</td>
<td>zind- / zind-u-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 plural</td>
<td>za-. . .e' te</td>
<td>zind- / zind-u- . . .e' te</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When all the arguments are 3rd p., the following four affixes contrast (thereby indicating that they are not personal prefixes, as discussed in Rebuschi [1983] 1997: 139-154, among others):

(20) a d- (present) c l- (irrealis)
    b z- (past) d b- (imperative)

However, when the abs. argument is 3rd p., but the erg. one is 1st or 2nd p., this latter is cross-referenced by a *prefix* (but the pl. morpheme of the abs. is retained):

### Table K

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ergative prefixes (past &amp; irrealis)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st sg</td>
<td>n(e)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st pl</td>
<td>gen(e)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd p. polite</td>
<td>zen(e)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd p. pl.</td>
<td>zen(-e) . . .te</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.3.2.4. Basque IVF may contain yet another personal affix, the so-called "allocutive" one. Examples are given in (21):
(21) a ikusi di na t 'I've seen it/him' [addressing a woman]  
b jan di (k)a gu 'we've eaten it' [addressing a man]  
c eotorri zitzaide (k)a n 'he came to me' [addressing a man]  
d emango zikio na gu 'we'll give it to him' [addressing a woman]  

Such forms, which contain a post-dative 2nd p. sg. suffix, are automatically used if the register is familiar rather than polite, and the hearer is not the referent of an argument of the lexical verb, a choice which is conspicuous when familiar 2nd p. pronouns or IVFs are used elsewhere in the utterance:

(22) a Zu eotorzen bazara, ni joango naiz [polite]  
b Hi eotorzen bahaiz, ni joango nauK [familiar: male hearer]  
b' *Hi eotorzen bahaiz, ni joango naiz  
c Uste diNAt nekatau haizela [familiar: female hearer]  
c' *Uste dut nekatau haizela  

(b') is out because of a clash in register, made visible by the contrast between the familiar IVF of the protasis and the polite form in the apodosis, likewise, (c') is ill-formed because the matrix IVF is [-alloc.], hence [-fam.], whereas the subordinate form is [+fam.].

In some cases, the same form may be interpreted either as a normal transitive or ditransitive aux. with a 2nd p. sg. erg. or dat. suffix, or as the allocutive counterpart of an intransitive or monotransitive IVF:

(23) a hilko nauk  
   (i) you will kill me [alloc: erg. [+fam, +masc]]  
   (ii) I will die [alloc, +masc]  

b eman dinat  
   (i) I've given it to you [alloc: dative [+fam, +fem]]  
   (ii) I've given it (away) [+alloc, +fem]  

Besides, allocutive IVFs are restricted to root sentences; thus, (24a) is unacceptable because the subordinate form nau(k)ala can receive neither a transitive interpretation (due to the argument structure of eotorri 'come') nor an allocutive interpretation, whilst (24b) is acceptable, since the IVF in the complement clause contains an affix that can be read as cross-referencing an argument (the suffix -e)la marks subordination):

(24) a *esan di (K)A t [eotorriko nau (k)a la]  
   a' esan di (K)A t eotorriko naizela  
      (i) 'I've told you [+fam, +masc] that I will come'  
      (ii) 'I've said [+alloc, +masc] that I will come'  

b esan di (K)A t [hilko nau (k)a la]  
   (i) 'I've told you/I've said that you'll kill me'  
   (ii) '*I've told you/I've said that I'll die'  

The examples above illustrate the replacement of one aux. root by another – the one that
corresponds to increased addicity. When such a process is not possible (i.e. with the tri-
personal aux. and with synthetic non-auxiliary verbs), a general process of pre-radical -i-
insertion, sometimes leading to spirantisation, takes place: see (59b) in 3.2.1.3.
To conclude this section, it must be underlined that many traditional descriptions of the
morpho-syntax of allocutivity have been marred by the syncretism between these forms
proper and what has been dubbed "implicative" forms in the present tense in root clauses
(Rebuschi 1984): these latter can be described as the use of forms of 'have' with an 2nd
p. ergative agreement morpheme instead of the copula. What distinguishes implicative
constructions from allocutive forms is (i) that the former can be used in embedded
clauses, (ii) that they are always restricted to stative predicates, and (iii) that polite and
plural suffixes are possible, as in (25):

(25) ederra dun / dun / duzu / duzue 'it is beautiful', lit. 'you have it beautiful'

1.3. Aspects of Basque syntax

1.3.1. Word order. Greenberg (1966) classified B as an SOV language, but it has also
been characterized as a free word order (or non-configurational) language, and as a
Verb-second or (Topic-)Focus-Inflected Verb language. There is some truth in each of
those characterisations, depending on the viewpoint adopted. Consider a transitive
sentence with an ergative subject, an absolutive object and a transitive verb. The six
word orders which are theoretically possible (SVO, SOV, OVS, OSV, VOS and VSO)
are all empirically attested, but they do not have the same status.

Out of context, or as a reply to Zer gertatu zen? 'What happened?', a normal SOV
sentence would be used in the answer:

(26) Jonek Miren jo zuen 'Jon hit Miren'
Jon erg Miren abs hit aux

However, totally rhematic sentences are not the norm: animate subjects tend to be
discourse topics, leaving the sole VP as rhematic. Furthermore, the object left-adjacent
to the VC can, but need not, be interpreted as constrastively focused; thus, a written
sentence like (26) may also be interpreted with the S as a topic, and the whole VP as
rhematic (in which case the prosodic prominence of the O relative to the VC is weak), or
with the sole O as rhematic (the deaccenting of the VC being more marked: Elordieta
1997). But when it is the subject that is adjacent to the VC, it is normally interpreted as
focused. Thus, if there is a focused NP, it must immediately precede the VC, but if there
is none, the O-VC order obtains. A particular subtype of focus consists of interrogative
pronouns: they occupy the focus position, just as the elements provided by the answer
do; when there are several wh- phrases in the question, the XPs in the reply will
necessarily occupy the same positions, as in:

(27) a Nork zer erosu du?
   who erg what abs bought has
   'Who has bought what?'

b Jonok liburu erosu du, eta Mirenok arrosak (erosu ditu)
   Jon erg book sg bought has and Miren erg roses bought aux
   'Jon bought a/the book and Miren bought (the) roses'

Last but not least, negation in root sentences triggers a different word order: the negative particle ez immediately precedes the auxiliary, which now precedes the main verb (and possibly intermediary material):

(28) Jonok ez du Miren jo 'Jon has not hit Miren'
   Jon erg neg has Miren-∅ hit

As explained in de Rijk 1996, a sentence like this has two interpretations: it can be an reply to 'Who hasn't hit Miren?' (Jonok being the focus), or the denial of the focus of a preceding assertion like (26) in which Miren would have been the focus.

1.3.2. Up to now, ergativity has been taken for granted. It must be emphasized, though, that the facts are not crystal-clear. In Dixon's 1994 model, for instance, there are three syntactic primitives, S, A and O: S is the unique argument of an intransitive verb, A is the agentive subject of a transitive verb, and O its object. In such a framework, if we take into consideration the fact that Miren has a zero suffix in (26) above just as in (29) below, but has the -k suffix in (27b), we have detected ergative morphology in Basque.

(29) Miren Joan'etorri da 'Miren has gone/come
    Miren ∅ gone/come

But is the category "S" basic? In the late seventies, Permuter showed that there were two types of (superficially) intransitive verbs, which he (somewhat unfortunately) labelled "unaccusative" and "unergative". The verbs in (29), but also erori 'fall' or hil 'die' belong to the first category: cross-linguistically, they allow 'be' auxiliaries (vs. 'have' for unergatives, as in French or Italian), and impersonal constructions of the type there came two men in English or il est venu deux personnes in French, etc. Now, Basque has a curious property: almost all the items that are traditionally used as instances of intransitive verbs in the description of its ergativity really are unaccusative ones. Moreover, most of its few unergative verbs are borrowings, and their only argument is in the so-called ergative case, the auxiliary being 'have' rather than 'be', as shown in (30); finally, most of the unergative verbs found in other languages must be translated into a complex expression, with the verb egin 'do, make' associated with a determinerless noun, as in (31).

(30) a Mirenok kantatu du 'Miren has sung'
Miren-\text{-}k sung has
\begin{enumerate}
\item \*Miren kantatu da
\item gerlak luzaro iraun zuen the war lasted for a long time' war sg.-\text{-}k long lasted aux\text{[+tr]}
\item \*Gerla luzaro iraun zen
\end{enumerate}

Since using auxiliary selection might lead to circularity, another test can be used that shows that the "erg" and "abs" Ss are syntactically different: it is possible to negatively quantify over "abs" Ss by using the paritive ending -(\text{\textit{ri}})k, but it is not possible to do so with "erg" Ss, as shown in (32) (Levin 1989).

(32) \begin{enumerate}
\item ez da gizonik etorri \ 'no man has come' neg. is \text{man-\textit{ik}} come
\item \*ez du/da gizonik kantatu neg. has/is \text{man-\textit{ik}} sung
\end{enumerate}

Fillmore's Case Grammar does not fare any better; here, there are no Ss: the language is ergative if the A associated with a bivalent verb receives a special treatment, the remaining O, just as an A or an O used alone, being morphologically identical. What the handful of "unergative" subjects in B show is plainly corroborated in this model: when there is no explicit object, as in (33), the sentences are ambiguous, since the object can be either understood as definite (contextually given) or really implicit, whereas the sentences in (34) are ungrammatical:

(33) \begin{enumerate}
\item Jonek jan du 'Jon has eaten it / Jon has eaten' Jon. erg eaten has
\item Mirenek irakurtzen zuen 'Miren was reading it / Miren was reading' Miren erg reading has
\end{enumerate}

(34) \begin{enumerate}
\item \*Jon jan da Jon O eaten is \item \*Miren irakurtzen zen Miren O reading was
\end{enumerate}

The case-marking and verbal agreement of A arguments remain the same, independently of the presence of an O argument: \textit{in Fillmore's terms, Basque would then be an "active" language, not an "ergative" one.}

The only argument that remains to stick to the "erg/abs" labels (which I will do, for readability purposes) is to consider that the suffixless argument is unmarked, since it is obligatorily represented in the IVF, whereas the argument that carries a -\text{-}k suffix is marked, because it is not compulsory, as indicated by the fact that an implicit, archetypal A is not projected, leading to medio-passive readings:
(35)  
  a  ogia jaten da  
  bread is eaten
  b  libunak irakurtzen ziren  
  'one used to read books'
  reading were

1.3.3. Subject/object (a-)symmetries. Whatever the proper characterization of the O/–k
opposition in B, its morphology is not nominative/accusative. But it remains to be seen if
its morphology determines its syntactic properties or not (semantically, recall the
(in-)definiteness data concerning the sg. ending -a mentioned in 1.2.2).

1.3.3.1. First, abs. arguments do not have the same interpretation when they are used in
isolation and when they are syntagmatically opposed to a erg one. We just saw with (33)
that a silent object could be interpreted either anaphorically or archetypally (one eats
edible stuff, or reads readable things). But what happens if there is no A, i.e. with
unaccusative verbs? In root sentences, the silent unique argument must be interpreted
anaphorically:

(36)  
  a  sartzen da  
  's/he comes in/*/one comes in'
  entering is
  b  erori da's/he has fallen/*/someone has fallen
  fallen is

A phonetically empty 3rd p. sg. A is also anaphoric:

(37)  
  a  ogia jaten du
  bread-Ø eating has
  's/he eats bread/*/one is eating bread' (compare (35a))
  b  libunak irakurri zuen
  book-Ø read had
  's/he read a book/*/a/the book was read'

1.3.3.2. In control structures, abs. arguments of intransitive verbs behave like erg., rather
than abs., arguments of transitive verbs. If the syntax were ergative, one would expect
the abs. argument of jaten below to behave like the abs. argument of joaten 'going', but
the data indicate otherwise: the argument which is "understood" in the lower clause
(PRO) corresponds to the subject of nominative-accusative languages:

(38)  
  a  Nik haurrak ikusi ditut [PRO joaten]
  I-k children-Ø seen I-have-them going
  'I saw the children going'
  b  Nik haurrak ikusi ditut [PRO sagarra jaten]
  I-k children-Ø seen I-have-them apple.sg.-Ø eating
  'I saw the children eating an'the apple'
  c  *Nik sagarrak ikusi ditut [PRO haurrek jaten]
  I-k apples-Ø seen I-have-them children-k eating
1.3.3.3. Another argument that may be given in favour of morphologically-independent subjects and objects is provided by the distribution of elkar 'each other'. On the one hand, elkar may never be in the erg. case; on the other hand, it can be in the abs. case, but only when the V has a direct object; thus, if elkar is in the abs. case, its antecedent must be erg., and cannot be dative (for instance):

(39) a  haurrek elkar ikusi dute
   children-κ elkar-O seen they-have
   'the children have seen each other'
 b  *elkarrek haurrek / haurrek elkarrek ikusi ditu
   elkar-κ children-O
 c  haurrek elkarri mintzatu zaizkio
   children-O elkar-dat. spoken they-are-to-him
   'the children have spoken to each other'
 d  *elkar haurrei / haurrei elkar mintzatu zaia
   elkar-O children-dat.

1.3.3.4. B does not, however, exhibit as many subject/object asymmetries as nominative-accusative languages. I will only consider one example here (see Rebuschi 1989). Standard B as it is promoted by the Basque Academy has two series of genitive pronouns, which, for want of a better word, I shall call "weak" and "strong", because in the unmarked series, there are no diphthongs, whereas the marked series exhibits diphthongs – see table (E). This system, and the specific distribution of the two genitive forms, are borrowed from classical La texts. Roughly speaking, the weak forms are used when there is no co-referent pronoun or NP in the same clause: there may, but need not, be such an antecedent in a higher clause; the strong forms are "reflexive", but in a highly specific way: any co-argument of the NP that contains a genitive pronoun will serve as an antecedent and thus trigger or licence the strong form. Examples in (40) summarize the basic facts:

(40) a  Nik neure / *nire liburuia irakurri dut
   1-k  my[+str]/[-str] book.sg read  I-have
   'I've read my book'
 b  Nik uste dut [Patxi nire / *neure liburuia irakurri duela]
   1-k  belief I-have P.-k my[-str]/[+str] book read he-has-that
   'I think that Patxi has read my book'
 c  Bere anaiaik Josephi mintzatu [zitaizkionean]
   his[+str] brothers-O Joseph.dat spoken aux.comp.loc
   'When hisi brothers talked to Joseph...' (Axular 1643)
 d  Elisabet [h]eure emaztea erdiren zaik
   E.  thy[+str] wife-O bear[intr.] fut. aux-to-you son one-instr
   (Luke 1:13, Liçarrage 1571)
   'Thy wife Elizabeth shall bear thee a son.'
 d' Zeure emazte Elisabetek semea emango dizu (*id., BEB 1994)
your[+str] wife $E$-\textit{k} son.sg-\textit{O} give-fut s/he-has-to-you 'Your wife Elizabeth will give you a son'

From a typological viewpoint, the locality constraint exemplified in (40b) is well-attested, but the utter lack of functional yield in this system when 1st and 2nd persons are concerned must be noticed. More intriguing, though, is the case illustrated in (c), due to the fact that the strong genitive pronoun is within the \textit{subject} NP, and linked to a non-subject argument. The (d,d') examples have been added that show that the same lack of argument asymmetry that existed in the Northern dialects four centuries ago indeed represents the norm today in carefully written EB.

\textbf{1.3.4.} The complex sentence. B has three distinct complementizers, which are all affixed to the finite verb form the prefix \textit{bait-}, and the suffixes -(e)n and -(e)la, and, as we saw in section 1.2.2, there are tense, mood and aspect oppositions both in matrix and in embedded clauses; besides, B also uses quite a few distinct forms of tenseless clauses.

\textbf{1.3.4.1.} Finite subordinate clauses. The (obligatory) complementizer -(e)la is typical of clauses governed by verbs of saying; the indicative forms are factual, and the subjunctive forms indicate a (mental) goal:

\begin{quote}
\begin{enumerate}
\item a Patxik esan dit [Jon Joan dela] Patxi-\textit{k} said he-has-to-me Jon-\textit{O} gone he-is-la 'Patxi has told me that Jon has gone'
\item b Miren ek agindu du [kanta dezadala] Miren-(e)\textit{k} ordered has sing 1-do[subjn]-la 'Miren has ordered me to sing lit. '...that I sing'
\end{enumerate}
\end{quote}

Complement clauses governed by a predicate of wish and indirect questions have -(e)n:

\begin{quote}
\begin{enumerate}
\item a Patxik nahi du [Miren Joan dadin] Patxi-\textit{k} want has M.-\textit{O} go[root] is[subjn] 'Patxi wants Miren to go lit. '...that she go'
\item b Patxi galetzen du [nor joango den] Patxi-\textit{k} asking he-has who go.fut is-(e)n 'Patxi asks who will leave'
\end{enumerate}
\end{quote}

-(e)n is also used in relative clauses, which precede their antecedents:

\begin{quote}
\begin{enumerate}
\item a Joan den gizona 'the man who has left' gone is-comp man sg
\item b irakurtzen duzuun libuua 'the book that you're reading' reading you-have-n book sg
\end{enumerate}
\end{quote}

When the head noun of the NP is absent, free relatives are created:

\begin{quote}
\begin{enumerate}
\item a Joan den.O.a [cp. (43a)] 'the one that=he who has left/?what has gone'
\item b irakurtzen duzu.O.a [cp. (43b)]
\end{enumerate}
\end{quote}
'the one you read / what you read'

Such headless relative clauses are used to build adverbial clauses:

(45) a joan den etik [cp. (44a)]
gone he-is-n abl
'(ever) since he left' [also: ‘from the one that’s gone’]
b irakurtzen duzun ean [cp. (44b)]
reading you-have-n loc
'when you read' [also: ‘in the one you read’]

When the matrix clause is negative, -(e)n plus the partitive suffix -ik are used instead of -(e)la:

(46) Ez dut uste [joan denik] [cp. (41a)]
  neg I-have belief gone s/he-is-n-ik
  'I don't think s/he's left'

The third complementizer, bait-, is mainly causal in EB as it is used in Spain, and thus serves as a paraphrase for a construction of a new type, in which it is now the first comp., -(e)la, which carries a suffix:

(47) a joan baita [=bait-da]
gone bait-aux ‘because s/he's left'
b joan delako
gone aux-la-ko id

Let us also recall the existence of the prefix ba- ‘if, used in the protasis of conditional sentences:

(48) Zu etortzen ba zara, ni joango naiz 'If you come, I'll go'
you coming if you-are I go-fut I-am

1.3.4.2. Non-finite subordinate clauses. Both the perf. part. and the gerund can head tenseless subordinate clauses. The former is used with no suffix as a complement of behar 'edun 'have to' and nahi 'edun 'want', but it can also receive various case suffixes or be followed by postpositions, in which case the clause that contains it is typically adverbial:

(49) a joan behar dut 'I must go'
go behar I-have
b irakurri nahi du 's/he wants to read'
read nahi s/he-has
c joanez gero 'after leaving'
gone instr then
d irakurria gatik 'in spite of reading (it)'
read-sg go-from

The gerund is obtained by deleting the final -n of impf. participles. It can also be
followed by case endings or postpositions:

(50)   a  irakurtze ra joango da
        reading.all go fut he-is
        'he will go and/to read'    [complement clause]

       b  irakurtze a.n / irakurtze a.rekin
        reading.sg.loc / reading.sg.comit.
        'while reading'            [adjunct clause]

       c  irakurtzeko
        'in order to read'         [complement or adjunct clause]

       d  irakurtzea gatik / irakurtze arren
        'in order to read'         [adjunct clause]

The most interesting feature of those structures is that the subject can be explicit. This is not, however, an instance of "exceptional case marking" by the matrix verb, since the subject's case is determined by the lower predicate; furthermore, as shown by (c) (from Ortiz de Urbina 1989), the subject of a subject clause may also be explicit:

(51)   a  Jonek erabaki du [Mirenek irakurtzea]
        Jon.erg decided he-has Miren erg reading.sg
        'Jon has decided that Miren should read'

       b  Jonek erabaki du [Miren etortzea]
        Jon.erg decided he-has Miren-Ø coming.sg
        'Jon has decided that Miren should come'

       c  [semeak atzerrian ibiltze a.k] kezkatzzen du ama
        sons-Ø abroad walking.sg.-k worrying it-has mother.sg.-Ø
        'it worries (their) mother that (her) sons are abroad'

1.3.5. Other aspects of Basque syntax

1.3.5.1. Basque has many properties typical of head-final languages, i.e. its case-assigning heads generally follow the elements they govern: as we saw in 1.3.1, objects often precede verbs; more systematically, Basque has postpositions (which are often declined nouns), but no prepositions:

(52)   a  ni baitan 'in me'

       b  zu atzean        'behind you'

       c  ohearen azpian   'under the bed'

       d  gerla aurretik   'from before the war'

The internal structure of NPs is typically head final, since genitive complements and adjuncts, ordinal and cardinal numbers (except bat 'one'), and relative clauses, precede the head noun. However, attributive adjectives (except geographical/ethnic ones, which appear on either side of the noun) and determiners follow the head:

(53)   a  Donostiako nire hiru lagun kutunekin
        San Sebastian-ko my three friend dear.pl with
        'with my three dear friends in/from San Sebastian'
b [zuk irakuri zenuen] haren liburu gotor hau 
you.erg read you-had-\text{-}n his book thick this
‘this thick book of his which you read yesterday’

1.3.5.2. Case duplication. Three subcases must be distinguished. First, when a quantifier
follows a demonstrative, both are number+case-marked:

(54) liburu heiekin guztiekin with all those books’
book dem.pl with all.pl with

Second, as we saw in 1.2.2.2, some case endings are complex: the prolate ending -
entzat may be analysed as the concatenation of two distinct case endings, the genitive
and the (simple) prolate but it is also possible to regard -tzat as a postposition that
cliticized to the preceding word at the phonological level.

Third, what has been dubbed "superdeclension", as in gizonarentzakoaz, simply does not
exist: such words must not be analysed as in (55b) below, which supposes that the head
of the expression is gizon 'man', followed by a string of concatenated suffixes, but as in
(c), i.e. as a complex NP with a null head, and a postpositional phrase transformed into a
adnominal adjunct by -ko:

(55) a gizonarentzakoaz
b * [[[gizon-a]-r[en-tzat]-ko]-a]-z
   [NP [ADJP [PP gizon.a (r)en tzat]-ko] \emptyset -a]-z
   man sg. gen for -ko- sg. about
   ‘about the one (-\emptyset-) for the man’

2. Phonetic & phonological variation

2.1. Segments

2.1.1. Michelena (1961, 1977), using Aquitanian data, internal reconstruction and the
phonetic shape of the borrowings from Vulgar Latin and, later, from Romance
languages, has been able to reconstruct the B phonological system at the beginning of
this era. The vowels seem to have been identical to those used in EB today. The
consonants were possibly limited to 16, with a fortis-lenis opposition: (p)/b, t/d, k/g, tz/z,
ts/s, N/n, L/l and R/r, later reinterpreted as a voiceless/voiced opposition for the
plosives. Somewhat later, lenis l underwent rhotacisation and lenis n was lost (compare
zeru 'sky' < celu(m), ahate 'duck' < anate(m)), the fortis segments being the ancestors of
today's l and n. Since this opposition only existed intervocally, and since "geminate
sequences of Latin are invariably borrowed as fortis consonants", the fortis segments
may well have been simple geminates, thereby reducing the "Pre-Basque consonant
system to the surprisingly small number of only eight" units (Trask 1997); note however that the status of initial $h$ in words like herri 'people/country/village' remains unclear under these reconstructions.

2.1.2. The only dialect that has six vowels is Souletin (and the adjoining LN varieties): it has a closed front rounded vowel $\ddot{u}$ (<$u$; this process has taken place everywhere except before -$s$, flapped -$r$, and the sequence -$nk$); this $\ddot{u}$ has even evolved into $i$ in certain contexts, as in die <$dje$, EB dute 'they have (it)'. Zu also has nasalized simple vowels and diphthongs, as in $\ddot{a}h\ddot{a}te$, 'duck', and ardku $\ddot{u}$'wine'.

Zu and LN also have (and La had) aspirated consonants; the aspirated plosives seem to be a reflex of a former stress assigned to the first or second syllable (no plosive being aspirated in a later syllable). Initial $h$ has phonemic status in all the varieties of B spoken in France except coastal La (where it has been lost): hari 'to-him', arî 'busy'.

As noted in 1.1.1.2, the orthographic letter $j$ has several realisations, among which, alongside those mentioned there, that of a voiced prepalatal continuant [$\mathcal{J}$] (Zu, Bi). Note also that intervocalic voiced plosives and flapped $r$ are very easily dropped.

2.2. Rules

2.2.1. A very general process across dialects consists in closing the mid vowels when they are followed by open $a$; thus, etxe-$a$ 'the house' is often realised like etxia, and etxe#$o$-$a$ 'the (one) from/in the house' as etxu$a$.

2.2.2. Quite common in the southern dialects is the progressive semi-closure of $a$ into -$e$ if it follows a closed vowel (with any number of intervening consonants): $ur$-$a$ 'the water' is thus pronounced $ure$ and hil-$a$, 'the dead (one)', $(h)ile$. The foregoing rules apply, according to the sub-dialects, either in bleeding order, or in feeding order; in the latter case, etxe#$o$-$a$ is pronounced etxe$u$a.

2.2.3. In Gi and Bi again, $l$, $n$, $t$ and $d$ are palatalised after $i$. This process is "word-

internal", but it must be remembered that some words, e.g. the copula or intr. aux. da, cliticize to the preceding one; as a consequence, the written sequence hil da$'$ he's died' can be pronounced ille$'$a. This rule, which was operative in 17th and 18th c. La (since words like zein 'which' were spelt zei$\ddot{n}$, etc.), has been lost in this dialect, perhaps due to the influence of neighbouring LN, which does not seem to have ever had it, and which has clearly been gaining in importance in the last two centuries.

2.2.4. A typically western (Bi) process is the introduction of [$\beta$] (written $b$) between the closed back vowel $u$ and a following vowel, and of a [$\mathcal{J}$] or a [$\mathcal{S}$] (spelt $j$ and $x$) between an $i$ and another vowel; those continuants are obvious evolutions of intervocalic glides, giving rise to realisations like [bejSa] for written behia 'a/the cow'. Another feature of
spoken Bi is the absence of opposition between \((t)\)z and \((t)s\): the remaining fricative is \(s\) and the surviving affricate is \(tz\).

2.2.5. At least one process is becoming obsolete everywhere (probably partly because of the standard spelling, and partly because of the absence of such processes in Romance): it is the progressive assimilation in voicelessness which has apparently always applied between the negative particle \(ez\) [es], and a following IVF beginning in \(d\)-, as in \(ez\ da\); this sequence, traditionally spelled \(ezta\), phonetically \([esta]\), is more and more often heard \([ezda]\). Another trend among young southern speakers is to neutralise of the \(ts \approx tx\) opposition with the former segment being the general realization; moreover, in the subdialects which palatalise \(t\) after \(i\), the younger generation quite often substitute \(tx\) \([\approx ts]\) for \(tt\) \([\approx t']\).

2.3. Accentuation

There are basically two main accentual types, one a stress system, the other a pitch system. The former type has two basic subtypes, stress being assigned either from right to left, as in the eastern part of the B Country (and some parts of Biscay), or from left to right, as in its central part (Guipuzcoa); since an example of \([+2]\) rightward stress assignment was given in 1.1.2.1, I will concentrate here on the other two options.

2.3.1. Souletin B provides the best studied case of leftward stress assignment (Michelena 1957-58, Hualde 1991, 1997). The general rule is for the last syllable but one to be salient. It is useful to distinguish between uninflected simple, derived, and compound words, and their inflected counterparts. Exceptions to the general \([-2]\) rule with simple uninflected words are oxytones: (i) words ending in diphthongs (\(ardâ\,\U{105}U\)’wine’); (ii) a few lexically marked items. Derivational suffixes may be unmarked, in which case the \([-2]\) rule applies to the new word, as in ogéndiin ‘guilty’ (cp. ogéen ‘guilt’), or marked as stressed: aitaí ‘grand-father’ (cp. aita ‘father’); paraoxytones may also be created by suffixes like -tegi, as in háustegi ‘ash-pan’ (cf. hauts ‘ash’). Compound words normally have their main stress on the second one.

When words are inflected, the \([-2]\) rule generally applies to the inflected item, from gizun ‘man’, we thus obtain gizuna ‘the man’; likewise, ‘the guilty one’ will be obendiuxa. An important fact is that sequences consisting of a root-final -\(a\) followed by the sg. suffix -\(a\) reduce to a single stressed -\(á\) segment – obviously as a result of the stress having been assigned before the \(a+\) sequence is reduced; the functional yield of stress position is clear: alhába ‘daughter’, alhabá ‘the daughter’, bi alhábak ‘two daughters [erg]’, bi alhabák ‘the two daughters’. With non-abs. pl. forms, a stressed -\(e\)- appears in all words: gizunék ‘the men [erg]’, gizunér ‘to the men [dative]’, alhabék ‘the daughters [erg]’.
alhabén 'of (the) daughters'; this has been used as an argument for reconstructing non-abs. pl. endings as having been suffixed to an independent plural form, e.g. *gizun-a(g)-ek (Michelena 1957-58), but, as Hualde 1991 insists, this -é- morpheme must be synchronically regarded as inherently stressed.

Roughly speaking, all the eastern dialects of table (A) and the adjacent ones (La, HN) are of the [-2] type, but with important differences, the most conspicuous of which being that -a+ a(k) sequences are reduced to a single segment before the stress assignment rule applies outside of Zu: as a consequence, stress has no functional yield in these dialects. Note too that in Roncalese, now extinct but closely related to Zu, the [-2] rule only applied to the root, all the suffixes being extra-metrical.

2.3.2. In northern Biscayan, the situation is totally different: polysyllabic words typically start with a low tone, and the second syllable has a high tone which may, or may not, be sustained on the following syllables.

2.3.2.1. A typical example is Guernica B, where singular and indefinite nouns have a high tone throughout, whereas in the plural forms, "there is a sharp final drop in pitch from the first syllable containing a plural suffix" (Hualde 1991). Here are a few illustrations, which show that pitch has a partially distinctive function – in this section, acute accents will indicate high tone (H), and grave accents low tone (L):

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{(56)} & \text{indef} & \text{sg} & \text{pl} \\
\text{abs} & \text{gixón 'man'} & \text{gixóná} & \text{gixónák} \\
\text{erg} & \text{gixónek} & \text{gixónák} & \text{gixónák} \\
\text{dative} & \text{gixónerí} & \text{gixónári} & \text{gixónári}
\end{array}
\]

When the roots are monosyllabic, the words have a H tone if uninflected or in the plural, but otherwise follow the general pattern:

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
(57) & \text{indef} & \text{sg} & \text{pl} \\
\text{abs} & \text{ár 'worm'} & \text{árrá} & \text{árrák} \\
\text{erg} & \text{árrák} & \text{árrák} & \text{árrák} \\
\text{dative} & \text{árréri} & \text{árrári} & \text{árrári}
\end{array}
\]

Guernica B then apparently contradicts the morpho-syntactic result obtained in 1.3.5.2, namely, that there is no "superdeclension": even if a plural morpheme belongs to a left adjunct, it triggers the presence of a L on every syllable following it. Thus, 'the one (O) of the men' [+erg], EB [[gizone]-[-0-a]-k], will have a final L (in spite of its being sg), because the adjunct to the left of the empty head is plural, and consequently has a L: gixónának; compare: gixónánik 'the one of the man' and gixónának 'the ones of the man'. The contradiction is only apparent, though: if the assignment proceeds from left to
right, the first low syllable following a high one will be the ultimate phonologically relevant one and the low tone(s) to its right is/are a simple case of L tone spreading. This dialect also has lexical exceptions: certain items inherently possess a L tone which can fall on just any syllable (Hualde 1997, contra Hualde 1991). Verbs, like nouns, are generally unmarked for stress, but, here again, exceptions do exist. What is more, the participial endings may themselves be unmarked (like the perf. endings -i, -ti), or carry a L tone (imperf. -t(ə)ən, prospective -kə). However, the properties of markedness and strength do not coincide; thus, in composition, an unmarked second word may erase the inherent L tone the root of the first word carries: txistu ‘flute’ is marked, but the derived txistuk(a)ti ‘flautist’ is not.

2.3.2.2. We owe Hualde/Elordieta/Elordieta 1994 a remarkable description of a broadly similar system, that of Lequeitio, which contains a lot of information on units larger than the word. The description is in terms of accent: an accented syllable has a H* L tone, the H part of which spreads leftwards as far as the second syllable of the tonal unit, which may be much larger than the word. The basic default rule is that when no item is lexically marked, the last syllable of the group receives this complex tone: in a sentence like nire laguna dator, ‘my friend is coming’ which contains no marked element, the accent is assigned to the very last syllable, and the H tone spreads as far as the second syllable of the first word: nire lagunā datōr.

At the word level, Lequeitio B behaves like Guernica B, except that its marked items always carry their accent on the penultimate syllable; likewise, the plural morpheme triggers the presence of a H* L tone on the last syllable but one, independently of its own concrete position in the word; consequently, the counterpart of the dative plural gizōnari of Guernica B (see (56) above) will be gizōnari, and rightward stress displacement will also be observed when a noun is lexically marked, as in lau libīru ‘four books [indet.]’, liburua ‘the book’, liburunari ‘to the book’.

Morpho-syntactic words and prosodic words do not always coincide; in particular, although verbal participles and tensed auxiliaries can be separated by various particles, and undergo linear inversion in negative sentences (cf. 1.3.1), they form one prosodic word. If focus is assigned to the preverbal constituent, and the aspectual suffix is lexically accented (as in Guernica B, this is true of imperfective and prospective endings), the preverbal constituent will contain the main stress, as in: lagunā etorriko-da ‘the friend will come’ or lagunak etorriko-dira ‘the friends will come’. But if the positive polarity of the sentence is emphasized, it is the lexical verb that carries the main accent: lagunak etorriko-dira, ‘the friends will come’.

When whole phrases that contain no lexically marked item are focused, the prominent
accent will fall on the last syllable of this phrase, in compliance with the general default rule; in such a case, it is impossible to know, out of context, which particular word is really marked for focus; thus, in etxe barri Ja ikusi-dot 'I saw the new house', the contrast may be between a house (etxe) and another building, of between the new house and the old one. On the contrary, when there are lexically marked words in non-final position, a contrast in accent obtains, as in liburu barri Ja ekarri dot 'I brought the new book' vs. liburu barri Ja ekarri dot 'I brought the new book'.

3. Morphological variation

3.1. The nominal domain

3.1.1. Determiners and pronouns. The sg. and pl. suffixes -a(k) seem to have evolved from a former "distal" demonstrative, as evidenced by (i) the fact that the theme for non-abs. cases of hura 'that (one)' is (h)a- (erg. har(e)k, gen. haren...), and (ii) the fact that Bi still uses a as a distance III demonstrative (and personal pronoun). The southern dialects: Bi, Gi (and La until the 18th century) also have an inclusive plural det. -ok as in euskaldunok ...gara 'we Basques are...', vs. italiarra ...dira 'Italians are...'. 18th and 19th century La also had a typologically very rare pronoun, haina, best translated by 'all such (people)', which could not take specific or definite antecedents, but rather functioned as a lexicalisation of "E-type anaphora" (Rebuschi 1998).

Bi, contrary to the other dialects, can put the demonstrative before the noun, both items being case-marked: a gizona (=common B gizon hura) 'that man'. Bi is also the only dialect that has the numeral bi 'two' after the noun; the other numerals follow the general pattern and precede it.

An important feature that distinguishes NL and Zu from Gi and Bi is the use of hura cited above as a unmarked personal pronoun in the first two: in the southern dialects, this use of hura is literary, the would-be emphatic pronoun bera being normally used to refer to persons, hura often being restricted to non-human referents in spontaneous speech.

As far as the strong and weak forms of genitive pronouns are concerned, it must be noted that the standard system described in 1.3.3.5 does not correspond to spontaneous use: everywhere, the weak forms are unmarked – and the strong forms have almost completely disappeared in La, the dialect whose 17th century variety has inspired that normative system. In general, the strong forms are used emphatically, when the possessor's identity is focused, but they also frequently occur as the genitive in the X-en
burua 'X's head' phrase when its interpretation is reflexive rather than literal (cf. 1.2.2.2); another fairly general use of those forms in earlier texts is "stylistic": when the addressee's status was high, he was typically referred to in vocative NPs as neure Jauna 'my Lord' rather than nire/ene Jauna (ene is the typical eastern form of nire 'my').

3.1.2. Case.

3.1.2.1. Diachronically, the case system has been fairly stable. Note however that the current ablative suffix -tik has evolved from an earlier -ti, attested in old Bi and contemporary Zu; likewise, there is some evidence that the comitative ending -(re)kin formerly was -(re)ki (which it still is in Zu). Old Bi also had and ablative in -ean (today's sg locative): suffixed to the demonstrative a, old Bi thus had an equivalent of French en or Italian ne, arean 'of it'.

3.1.2.2. The non-abs. plural case-endings are characterized by -e- in standard B (1.2.2.2), which is in fact is typical of the eastern half of the domain (NL, Zu, and HN) only: in Bi and Gi, -e- is used, just as in the sg. However, differences in pitch (§ 2.3) or stress (Jacobsen 1972) may play the same differentiating role.

3.1.2.3. Another dialectal variation worth mentioning is the existence of an allative suffix -rat in LN, which results from the amalgamation of all. -ra plus a final -at, since its Zu variant -lät is stressed (see 2.3.1). (i) In Gi, the same -at is a postposition that governs the ablative, yielding a static external localization (cp. ettetik dator 'he's coming out of the house', but ettetik at dago 'he is out of the house'). (ii) In older NL, -ra and -rat contrasted in meaning, the former simply indicating movement to a place, and the latter implying that the stay was to last for some time, as in tabernara joanen da 'he'll go to the pub', vs. zerurat joanen da 'he'll go to heaven'.

3.2. Variation in the verbal domain

3.2.1. Old Basque.

3.2.1.1. The most obvious diachronic piece of data is the dramatic reduction of the number of "strong" verbs which can be directly conjugated; Lafon 1944 has compiled the inflected forms of 6 distinct auxiliaries, 12 intransitive verbs, and 40 transitive ones for 16th century B. Today, apart from the aux., hardly a dozen verbs are spontaneously used so. It is not, however, possible to to say that all B verbs could be directly inflected in the past: only those whose perfective part. begins in e-, i- and ending in -Ø, -n or -i were, and there is no evidence that a V like sarrtu 'enter' has ever been conjugated. On the other hand, as shown by the oldest texts, it is clear that the aoristic conjugation described in 1.2.3.1 once was quite common, and not restricted to either imperative, potential or subjunctive moods. Liçarrague's (1571) translation of the NT thus contains
past aorist forms, e.g. *sar zedin* 'he entered', which are typically narrative: the
periphrastic forms used today in narrations, like *sartu zen* (dit.), are restricted to one
value of the English pluperfect, i.e. to refer to events relevant for the current state of
affairs. However, even in the earliest known proverbs, which reflect an archaic form of
the language, non-subordinate non-potential present aoristic forms are absent.

3.2.1.2. Another property of the ancient past tense is that, in two non-adjacent dialects,
the suffix -(e)n was optional; see for instance the following proverb (# 386) from the
1596 *Refranes* [...]:

(58) Artzaioik arri zitea, gaztaeok agir zitea
herdsmen quarrel aux-past cheeses appear aux-past
‘the shepherds quarrelled and the cheeses turned up’

Such forms also appear in early 17th century HN poems first published in Michelen
1964 – and SHN still has these suffixless past IVFs.

Recall now (a) that when all arguments are 3rd p., the IVF prefixes code tense or
modality, as indicated in (20) (in fact, Bi has always had O- rather than z- in past
transitive IVFs), and (b) that abs. prefixes in the past incorporate a copy of the past affix
(1.2.3.2.3). A natural question then is to ask whether this -n- element has always been
final (as it is synchronically). Suppose it originally was a prefix: the copy would then be
the suffix, and the role of this prefixal -n- would have been to help disambiguate 1st and
2nd agreement markers which possibly did not distinguish between absolutive and
ergative case/function, contrary to the d/-z- opposition that appeared with 3rd p.
arguments. (Of course, the reason why a copy of it was made of it at the end of the IVF
is just as mysterious as why a copy should have been made from a suffix into a prefix.)

3.2.1.3. The ergative prefixes of table K (1.2.3.2.3) have also raised discussions. As
noted there, some scholars have proposed that the ergative suffix was moved towards
the initial position at some remote date; however, this "ergative displacement" might just
as well have been the other way round: no conclusion can be drawn from the pair *dakigu*
'we know' \(\approx genekien 'we knew',\) or from the fact that certain dialects have *genekigon* for
the latter, with both a prefix and a suffix cross-referencing a 2st p. pl. argument. Recall
however that the allocutive affix -(a)\(\approx n(a)\) (1.2.3.2.4) occurs between the dative and
the erg. suffixes in the present tense, and that it is restricted to root clauses (contrary to
the "ethical datives" of the neighbouring Romance languages). This latter restriction
suggests that its presence has something to do with the structure of the utterance as such
(i.e. "CP"), rather than with the internal structure of the sentence(s) that constitute(s) it
("IP"). In other words, the fact that the erg. suffix follows the allocutive one is
surprising, in particular under the hypothesis that morphological structure mirrors
syntactic structure: the erg. morpheme should be closer to the head of the IVF than the
alloc. one. But that is a possibility left open by the internal structure of past tense forms. Consider for instance the IVFs of (59):

(59)  a  eman diogu    'we have given it to him'  \[non-allocutive\]
b  eman zionag $i$    [\[alloc., +fem.\]]
c  eman genion    'we had given/gave it to him'  \[non-allocutive\]
d  eman genonan    $i$    \[alloc., +fem.\]

In (b), whatever the structural relation between the prefix and the root -$i$-, the allocutive morpheme -$na$- is closer to -$i$- than the ergative suffix -$gu$. However, in (d), ge- or gen- (if -$n$- is not synchronically analysed as a tense marker) may be construed as closer to the root than -$na$-, as in the following bracketed representations:

(60)  a  [[[ge- \[-n- \[-i-\]]] \[-o\]] \[-na\] \[-n\]
      1\[pl\] past root  dat.3sg alloc past

b  [[[gen- \[-n- \[-i-\]]] \[-o\]] \[-na\] \[-n\]
      1\[pl\]-past root  dat.3sg alloc past

The foregoing data clearly point towards a diachronic analysis according to which both the erg. agreement marker and the past tense affix were originally prefixes: only in such places could they ever be structurally closer to the root than the allocutive suffix. Needless to say, something more should be said concerning the suffixes when 1st or 2nd p. abs. prefixes occur, but the plural suffixes are phonemically transparent (-$gu$, -$zu$ are the exact form of the pronouns themselves), thereby indicating that their appearance must be more recent than that of the prefixes.

3.2.2. Dialects.

3.2.2.1. The three macro-dialectal zones recognized in 2.3: East (Zu, NL, HN), Central (Gi), and Western (Bi) may again be recognized on the basis on isoglosses concerning IVFs and participes:

(61) The main conjugation isoglosses from a dialectal viewpoint

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{East} & \text{Gi} & \text{Bi} \\
\hline
a & \text{dut} & \text{det} & \text{dot} & \text{\'}l\text{ have (it)}\text{'} \\
b & \text{du} & \text{du} & \text{dau} & \text{\'}s/he has (it)\text{'} \\
c & \text{daut} & \text{dit} & \text{deust} & \text{\'}s/he has (it) to me\text{'} \\
d & \text{z-uen} & \text{z-uan} & \text{\$-euen} & \text{\'}s/he had (it)\text{'} \\
e & \text{\$-eza-} & \text{tu -eza-} & \text{tu -agi-} & \text{subjunctive} \\
f & \text{hilen} & \text{hilko} & \text{hilko} & \text{prospective part.} \\
g & \text{t(z)en} & \text{t(z)en} & \text{ketan/tu+ten} & \text{imperf. part.} \\
\end{array}
\]

The first three lines do not require any comments, (61d) illustrates the fact that Bi has a zero prefix in the past instead of $z$-; (61e) shows the formation of the subjunctive and related moods: in the eastern dialects, just as in EB, it is the root of the lexical verb
which is used (cf. table G), but in Gi and Bi, it is the perfective participle; moreover, Gi and the eastern dialects share the same suppletive aux. whose root is -eza-, whereas Bi uses another, -(e)gi-. (61f) shows the prosp. part. formation (but NL also has -ko after vowels). Finally, (g) indicates the formation of the imperfective participle. To summarize, the eastern dialects share three or four forms – depending on one's judgment on the pair zuen=zuan in (d) – with Gi out of seven, whereas Gi and Bi only share one.

3.2.2.2. All the dialects can refer to the state (of the subject, object, or situation) resulting from an achieved action (itself indicated by the use of the perf. part., cf. 1.2.3.1), but the way this is encoded is not uniform; (i) the perf. part. itself may take on one of three suffixes: partitive -(r)ik, number agreement with the absolutive argument, or the suffix -ta, a contraction of the conjunction eta 'and'; (ii) the aux. may either remain unchanged, or be replaced by egon 'be (somewhere/in some state)' if the predicate is intransitive, or e(du)ki 'possess, hold', if it is transitive. This yields six theoretical possibilities, which are all realised in one dialect or another for (nik) liburuak hartuak ditut 'I have received the books':

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Formation and distribution of the resultative state pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) (nik) liburuak hartuAK ditut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) (nik) liburuak hartuRIK ditut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) (nik) liburuak hartuTA ditut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) (nik) liburuak hartuAK dauzkat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) (nik) liburuak haurtuRIK dauzkat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) (nik) liburuak hartuTA dauzkat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same combinations are used to derive a "passive" and an "antipassive" voice: if the subject is demoted (it may then either retain the erg. ending or receive instead the instr. case, but is no longer cross-referenced in the IVF), a passive obtains; if it is the object that is demoted, both it and the agent are in the abs., but the IFV only agrees with this agentive abs. term, and if it is number that is marked on the participle, it will be the agent's number:

(62) a liburuak (nik) hartuak daude books abs 1.erg received-pl are 'the books have been received (by me)'

b ni liburuak hartua nago 1.abs books.abs received-sg am lit. 'I am received the books'

(Note that the agent is optional in the passive, but that the patient is retained in the antipassive, which is much rarer than the passive.)
3.3. Allocutive forms and the speaker/hearer relationship

We saw 1.2.3.2.4 that B has special IVFs to indicate high familiarity between the speaker and the hearer. Although the system illustrated there in (22) is typical (it is attested in the 1571 translation of the *NT*, and very much alive today in many places), other systems exist.

3.3.1. Some purists at the turn of the 20th century decided that allocutive forms were either "child talk" (*not* motherese!) – or even "Gipsy talk" (Azkue 1923-25). This has led to the development of two poorer systems, one in which all alloc. forms are banned, leading to the following readjustments of (22) in acceptability: (22a,b',c') are now good, but (23b,c) is out (this system is taught in some urban *ikastola* or B schools). Others have reduced their system to (22a), all uses of the 2nd p. sg. *hi* and the corresponding IVFs being banned as "rude".

3.3.2. The easternmost dialects (Zu, eastern LN, Sal and Ro) have, on the other hand, developed a richer system, in which there are two levels of allocutive forms, with the polite suffix *-zu* contrasting with the highly familiar ones *-k(a)* and *-m(a)*. Besides the neutral form *joanen n(a)iz* 'I'll go' and the masc. and fem. familiar ones *joanen n(a)uk / n(a)un*, we then also find *joanen muzu*, with intermediary status between the first one and the second ones from the point of view of respect or distance between the speaker and the addressee.

3.3.2.1. Some varieties of Zu, ELN, and the Sa dialect across the border have even done away with the neutral forms in the syntactic contexts where allocutive forms are simply licit elsewhere; in this case, the system is another two register system, with the familiar *joanen muk / nun* and the polite *joanen muzu* contrasting in root clauses, and neutralized by the compulsory use of non-allocutive forms in subordinate clauses: *joanen nizela* 'that I will go'.

3.3.2.2. Eastern LN has grammaticalized a frequent process of "hypochoristic palatalisation": the counterparts of the foregoing forms are as in (63a-c) for 'I'll go' in root clauses; when the addressee is an argument: 'you'll go', the forms in (d-f) are used:

(63) a joanen niz [polite]
b joanen nuxu [intermediate]
c joanen nuk<nun> [familiar]
d joanen zira [polite]
e joanen xira [intermediate]
f joanen hiz [familiar]

3.3.3. Although it is not the morphology proper which is at stake, a final fact must be mentioned: in the Spanish Basque Country, a deferential way of referring to the
The addressee consists in using the 3rd p. intensive pronoun Berori (made up of the intensive/reflexive root ber- 'self' followed by the distance II deictic (h)ori); the agreement morphemes on the IVFs are then 3rd p.: Berori joango da 'you'll go'. No allocutive flexions correspond to this use, but when Berori is used, the number of registers is again three if familiar forms are used, or at least two if only zu and Berori are used to refer to the hearer.

4. Syntactic variation

4.1. Word order and focus

4.1.1. If question words and phrases must precede the verb complex (§1.3.1), they did not have to be adjacent to it in the old language: all interrogatives (but especially sentential adjuncts like zergatik or zertako 'why') could appear sentence initially and be separated from the VC by various arguments and adverbial phrases. What is more, it is not really true that all rhematic material must precede it: when the rHEME is not contrastive, it very often occurs to the right of the IVF, especially in the eastern dialects; in the central and western ones, the puristic tendencies that developed in the 19th century and reached their peak with Altube's 1929 book have influenced the linguistic behaviour of many Gi and Bi speakers; it is thus significant that Ubillos, who translated a catechism into Gi in 1785, and insisted in his preface that the rules of B word order were all too often violated in written texts, clearly possessed a rule of "end focus", as illustrated by the first sentences of his 9th lesson:


'The Hebrews1, after5 entering4 the regions3 of Canaan2, first6 had11 the-Judges7, and8 then9 the-Kings10, (as) leaders12. The-first13 King14 was15 Saul16, and17 the-next-one18 David19. This(-latter)20 was21 a33 great32 man31 that-came30 from-the-race27 and28 house29 of-a26 son25 of Jacob24 whose name was (that-was-named23) Jude22'.

Note in particular the position of the copula 15 with respect to the proper noun 16, or yet again the copula 21, followed by a comma (i.e. a pause, which is heard today in the northern dialects when the copula precedes the predicative phrase), which is in turn followed by the long predicative phrase 22-33. Standard B would expect the perfective izan(du) zan and imperfective zan to occur after Saul in the first case, and at the very
end of the sentence in the second one.

4.1.2. The southern dialects can focalize the verb itself by putting it left-adjacent to a dummy verb, *egin* 'do, make'. This use of *B* *egin* and that of English *do* yield opposite effects, since the accented lexical verb (which tends to appear sentence initially) corresponds to emphasis on the positive character of the assertion, whereas *egin* never does that:

(65) a Jonek Miren jo zuen
   Jon-erg M. hit aux 'Jon hit Miren'

b Jonek "Miren jo zuen 'Jon hit Miren'

b' Jonek Miren "jo egin zuen
   Jon-erg M. hit do aux 'Jon hit Miren' (he didn't *kiss* her)

c "Jo zuen Jonek Miren 'Jon *did* hit Miren'

When it is associated with *egin*, the lexical verb is in the perfective form (cf. (61e) in 3.2.2): it is *egin* itself that is aspectually marked, as more clearly shown by (66a) with a prospective part.: 

(66) a Jonek Miren "jo egingo du 'Jon will *hit* Miren'

b *Jonek Miren joko egin du

When the conjugation is synthetic, some Bi subdialects may also focalise the verb, but in this case, it is a copy of it that is inflected, as in:

(67) ekarri zekarren
     bring s/he-brought-it's/he *brought* it' (rather than take it away)

The use of *egin* to focalise the lexical verb is, on the one hand, quite ancient, since an anonymous Bi Catechism published in 1596, known as *Betolazako dotrina*, contains examples of it – e.g. in the Decalogue, where *egin* is nominalized as *e(g)itea* (the whole sentences are to be understood as identificational or equative):

(68) bostgarrena iñor hil ez eitea
     the-fifth-one nobody kill neg doing
     lit. 'the fifth one is not to kill anyone'

(Note however that a (non-referential) object precedes the lexical verb.) It is remarkable, however, that up to the 19th century, the occurrences of focusing *egin*, even in Biscayan, were extremely rare: today, both in Bi and Gi, its appearance when the lexical verb is the only rhematic element in the utterance is almost automatic.

4.1.3. The eastern dialects (La, LN and Zu) have worked out another focusing device: by inverting the canonical participle + auxiliary word order, stronger emphasis is given to the element that immediately precedes the aux. The main difference between these dialects and the southern ones then lies in the identification of the element which, in its turns, identifies the focus: it is the item left adjacent to the IVF in Gi and Bi, and the IVF
itself in NL and Zu. Intuitively, this difference may be linked to another, namely, that yes/no questions in Gi and Bi are typically formed by inserting the particle al between the participle and the inflected aux., as in etorri al da? lit. 'come al s/he-is?', 'has s/he come?' whereas LN typically uses the morpheme -a suffixed to the IVF: jin de(i)a? (id.), lit. 'come s/he-is-a'. in Bi and Gi, the question particle precedes the IVF, whereas in the northern dialect, it is a part of it. Possibly also correlated to that parameter is the difference in use of the "positive assertion particle" ba- prefixed to synthetic IVFs; as (69)-(70) show, the shades of meaning conveyed by its presence or absence are different according to the dialects (the bracketed items represent the focus of the sentence):

(69) a gizon batek bi seme zituen
    man one.erg two son he-had-them
b 'a man [had two sons]' (Gi, Bi)
c 'a man had [two sons]' (eastern dialects)

(70) a gizon batek bi seme ba-zituen
    man one.erg two son ba-he-had-them
b 'a man [did] have two sons' (Gi, Bi)
c 'a man [had two sons]' (eastern dialects)

4.2. Valency and case marking

4.2.1. Owing to the development of the passive voice (3.2.2.2), the medio-passive use of intransitive structures has been decreasing in the past centuries; for instance, 'you'll be saved' in Liçarrague's NT (1571) is regularly salbaturen [=salbatuko] zara, whereas the periphrastic passive salbatua izanen zara (with the 'be' aux. in the prospective) becomes the rule in the 18th century. More intriguing are 16th century patterns translating a Latin passive by a medio-passive associated with the agent in the instrumental, as in (71) (on the aoristic past, see 3.2.1.1):

(71) Orduan Jesus eraman zedin Spirituaz desertura (Liç 1571: Mt 4.1)
    then Jesus.abs take aux[intr.] Spirit instr desert-allat
    'Then Jesus was led up by the Spirit into the wilderness'

Later translations first used a passive (18th and 19th centuries), and next the active voice (20th c.), with Spiritua in the erg. case.

4.2.2. The relationship between the case-frames of verbs and the theta-roles of their arguments may be considered an aspect of lexical variation, but it may also be considered to be syntactic. From this point of view, a verb like urrikaldtu 'have) pity (on)' is worth mentioning, since until the 19th century, the same case-frame yielded two opposite readings:

(72) a urrikaldtu natzaio
pity I-am-to-him
b 'I've had pity on him' (Gi, Bi)
c 'he's had pity on me' (northern dialects)

More generally, when an absolutive and a dative argument are associated, the subject is not automatically linked to the abs argument, compare:

(73) a Jon niri etorri zait 'Jon came (up) to me'
J.O to-me come he-is-to-me
b Joni dirua galdu zaio 'Jon has lost the money'
Jon.dat. money.O lost it-is-to-him
b' Jonek dirua galdu du (ditto)
Jon.erg money.O lost he-has-it

4.2.3. Finally, what Lafitte (1962) dubbed "the coastal solecism" is not only attested in 20th C. La, but also in the variety of HN spoken across the border (Irun, Fuenterrabia): in those areas, trivalent verbs (1.2.3.2), which normally accept only 3rd p. abs arguments, are associated with the bivalent aux. in -u- rather than with -i- or -au-, and the dative argument is cross-referenced in this aux. by an abs. prefix:

(74) a Jonek niri dirua eman dit / daut (EB / standard NL)
J.erg to-me money.O given he-has-it-to-me
b dirua eman nau (coastal La, etc.)
money.O given he-has-me

4.3. Subordinate clauses

4.3.1. Relative clauses

4.3.1.1. Until the end of the 19th century, beside the strategy described in 1.3.4.1, B also formed relatives by using ordinary interrogative pronouns (except, crucially, zein 'which (one)' instead of nor 'who') as relative pronouns; the IVF then received either the prefix bait— (in the north: La, LN, Zu) or the suffix -(e)n (in the south: HN, Bi, Gi):

(75) gizona, zeinak ikusi bait-nau / nau-en, joan da
man.O which erg seen bail--aux / aux-en gone is
'the man who saw me has gone'

It look as if the relative were appositive (since it follows a case-marked noun or NP), but the texts clearly show that, semantically, such relatives could just as well be interpreted as restrictive. Prescriptive grammarians then condemned this pattern as Romance, and it has fallen out of use; in the north, however, bait— subordinate clauses may often be interpreted as relative rather than causal (compare 1.3.4.1), thereby indicating that these dialects may in fact have substituted an empty operator for the explicit relative pronoun.
4.3.1.2. The standard strategy has always had an alternative, typical of the northern
dialects, according to which the head noun may precede the relative clause (Oyharçabal
1985); in contradistinction to the mechanism described above, the head noun is not
marked either for number or for case – the relevant morphemes are suffixed to the final
complementizer -(e)n, as in the following excerpt from the 1571 NT (Mat 7,24):

(76) hura konparaturen dut [gizon xuhur [bere etxea gain batetan
he.abs I-will-compare man wise his house rock one-on
edifikatu duen]arekin]
built aux-en-sg -comit.
'I will compare him to a/the wise man who has built his house on a rock'
The string *bere etxea ... duen* would normally precede *gizon xuhur*, the latter adjective
receiving the number and case suffix *-arekin*.

4.3.1.3. Free relative clauses were described in 1.3.4.1 too. To convey the meaning of
generic or universal free relatives, the eastern dialects (the northern ones plus HN) also
use correlative sentences, with a protasis introduced by an interrogative pronoun
followed by *ere* 'ever/even', and a protasis often introduced by *eta* 'and' (in other
contexts!) and containing a resumptive pronoun, as in:

(77) nork ere bekatu egin baitzuen, eta hura gaztigatua izan zen
who erg ever sin made bait-aux, and him punished been aux
'Whosoever sinned(, he) was punished'

Here again, the northern dialects use *bait-* in the protasis, whilst those spoken across the
border use -(e)n. The presence of a pronoun (the special item *haina* mentioned in 3.1.1
was often used like *hura* in (77)), and the usual impossibility for the clause introduced by
the interrogative to sit in an argumental position in the main clause clearly show that
these structures cannot be reduced to English-type free relatives.

As far as (standard) free relatives are concerned, note finally that western B (Bi) *may* use
the subjunctive mood instead of the indicative to trigger a generic (rather than specific)
interpretation, as in Kerexeta's 1976 translation of Mat 5, 31-32, in which both options
are used:

(78) bere emaztea itzi dagianak, ezkontzauste-agiria
   his wife-Ø leave aux [+subjn]-an-sg erg certificate-of-divorce
   emon dagiola. [...] Bere emaztea izien dauanak [...] give let-him-to-her his wife-Ø leaving aux [+indic]-an-sg erg
   'Let the one who leaves [subjn] his wife give her a certificate.
   The one who leaves [indicative] his wife…'

4.3.2. Tenseless subordinate clauses also exhibit isoglosses that essentially separate the
northern dialects from Bi and Gi (with the other southern dialects somehow in-between).
One example will suffice. In nominalised or gerundial clauses, the direct object is
generally in the genitive in the northern dialects, but remains in the absolutive in the southern ones:

(79)  

\begin{align*}  
\text{a} & \quad \text{egiaren erraiteko} \\
& \quad \text{truth sg. gen say-t(z)e-for} \quad \text{'to tell the truth'} \\
& \quad \text{[North]} \\
\text{b} & \quad \text{egia esateko} \\
& \quad \text{truth sg.} \ \text{O say-t(z)e-for} \quad \text{(ditto)} \\
& \quad \text{[South]} \\
\end{align*}

Such variation in case-assignment may also be observed in the explicitly progressive construction with \textit{ari} 'busy': this adjective governs the locative gerund in -t(2)en, which, in the northern dialects, differs from the present participle because here again it assigns the genitive to the object, all the options are listed below (note also the variant (d), typically northern, in which \textit{ari} has grammaticalised into a pure aspectual particle):

(80)  

\begin{align*}  
\text{a} & \quad \text{Jonek liburua irakurtzen du} \\
& \quad \text{Jon erg book sg. O reading he-has(-it)} \\
& \quad \text{'John reads the book' (iterative, all dialects)} \\
\text{b} & \quad \text{Jon liburua irakurtzen ari da} \\
& \quad \text{Jon O book sg. O reading ari he-is} \\
& \quad \text{'John is reading the book' (progressive, south)} \\
\text{c} & \quad \text{Jon liburuaren irakurtzen ari da} \\
& \quad \text{Jon O book sg. gen reading ari he-is} \\
& \quad \text{'John is reading the book' (progressive, north)} \\
\text{d} & \quad \text{Jonek liburua irakurtzen ari du} \\
& \quad \text{Jon erg book sg. O reading ari he-has(-it)} \\
& \quad \text{'John is reading the book' (progressive, north)} \\
\end{align*}

5. \textbf{Summary and final observations}

At the segmental level, B phonology is fairly ordinary and homogeneous, except for the lamino-alveolar vs. apico-post-alveolar distinction between fricatives and affricates. At the supra-segmental level, there are three main accentual types, a [-2] and a [+]2 stress systems, and a pitch-accent system, with an extra-metrical Low first syllable, and a High tone plateau that typically extends from the [+2] syllable to the [-1] or [-2] one. The fact that plural nouns systematically trigger anomalous stress or pitch contours indicates that some morphemes have always been inherently marked as irregular.

The case system marking the nuclear arguments is of the "active/inactive" type rather than ergative/absolutive, as is generally assumed. The conjugation is not only pluripersonal, mimicking the nominal case system: it may also incorporate morphemes referring to the hearer as such; those IVFs known as "allocutive", are restricted to root clauses, hence reminiscent of polite verb endings in Japanese.
Word order reflects a Topic - Focus – Verb order (which often coincides with Greenberg’s SOV pattern), but post-verbal (non-wh) focus is also attested. In complex sentences, B has a wealth of complementizers and subordinate tenses and moods, but all the arguments of uninflected subordinate clauses may be explicit.

The unity of Basque is especially clear when seen from the outside: it is highly differentiated dialectally. The dialects fall into three main groups: the varieties spoken in France in the north-east, Gipuscoan in the middle, and Biscayan in the west. Interestingly, if Bi is prosodically and morphologically quite divergent from its Gi neighbour, the syntactic isoglosses would rather lead one to put these two together, and leave the northern dialects as more dissimilar.

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Abbreviations

A agent
Abs absolutive
Ae Aezkoan
allat allative
alloc allocutive
aux auxiliary
B Basque
Bi Biscayan
comit comitative
dat dative
dem demonstrative

Det determiner
DF dative flag
EB Euskara batua/unified B
ELN Eastern LN
erg ergative
fam familiar
fem feminine
Gi Guipuzcoan
H high (tone)
HN Higher Navarrese
imperf imperfective
indet indeterminate
infl inflection
instr instrumental
intr  intransitive
IVF  inflected verb form
L   low (tone)
La  Labourdin
LN  Lower Navarrese
loc locative
neg negation particle
NHN NorthernHN
NL  Navarro-Labourdin
NP  noun phrase
O   object
p   person
part, participle
perf perfective
pl plural
prosp prospective
Ro  Roncilese
S   subject
Sa  Salarese
SHN SouthernHN
str strong
subj subjunctive
V   verb
VC  verb complex
VP  verb phrase
WLN WesternLN
Zu  Souletin

Special phonetic symbols
[β]  
[ð]  
[γ]  

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