## II.

## The Eskimo language, ITS ADMIRABLE ORGANISATION AS TO THE Construction and Flexion of words.

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The peculiarity of the Eskimo language as polysynthetic, as well known, is exhibited in the construction of nouns and verbs by which other classes of words are made almost unnecessary and ONE WORD IS ABLE TO EXPRESS A WHOLE SENtence including subordinate sentences. It is especially through the Greenland dialect, and in some degree the Labradorian that this peculiarity of the language has been thoroughly studied and made known. But it must be regarded as impossible that a system which evinces such acute and logical thought as that exhibited in the rules of the Greenland grammar, should have been separately invented by the tribe who peopled Greenland. It is not to be doubted that in the main the grammars of the other dialects bear the same character as that of Greenland.

The division of the tribes proposed in the preceding chapter is also applicable in treating of the dialects. Here of course we are dependent on the existence of sufficient vocabularies. As to the Western Eskimo the vocabularies in our possession are headed by about 10 names of tribes, nearly, but not exactly, agreeing with those given before. But I have preferred summing them up under 3 classes: Northern, Southern and Asiatic. For several reasons this division seems quite natural. Only as regards a tribe called Ekogmut and now classed with the Southern, I was somewhat in doubt. Of the Mackenzie and the Labradorian only single glossaries exist

As to the Central Regions certainly lists of words are given referring to different tribes, but too incomplete to represent different dialects, for which reason the words have been compiled as belonging to one tongue. Finally the Greenland language always has been treated as one dialect, with remarks now and then on "provincialisms". Only recently the Danish expedition to East Greenland brought home excellent notes on the words used here different from West Greenland.

With regard to the present linguistic essay I have used the following sources:
(1) Den gronlandske Ordbog, omarbejdet af Sam. Kleinschmidt. Kjøbenhavn 1871, udgiven af H. F. Jørgensen.
(2) Kleinschmidt: Grammatik der grönländischen Sprache mit theilweisem Einschluss des Labradordialekts. Berlin 1851.
(3) Den granlandske Ordbog ved O. Fabricius. Kjobenhavn 1804.
(4) Eskimoisches Wörterbuch gesammelt von den Missionaren in Labrador, revidirt und herausgegeben von Friederich Erdman. Baudissin 1864.
(5) Vocabulaire Français-Esquimau, dialecte dès Tchiglit dès bouches du Mackenzie et de l'Anderson par le R. P. E. Petitot. Paris 1876 (in this book words are added from Churchill by the missionary Gasté).
(6) Journal of a second voyage etc. . . . by W. E. Parry. London 1824.
(7) Schwatka: Search in quest of the Franklin records 1879-80.
(8) Narrative of a voyage etc. ... H. M. S. Blossom, Capt. Beechey 1825-28. London 1831.
(9) Travels and adventures in the territory of Alaska by Frederick Whymper. London 1868.
(10) Rohbeck's vocabulary in Sarytschef's Itinerary. Leipzig 1815.
(11) The ethnographical section of Sagoskin's voyage 1843
-44 in Erdmann's Archive 1849.
(12) $\overline{\mathbf{W}} . \bar{H}$. Daili: Alaska and its resources $\mathbf{1 8 7 0 .}$
(13) Adelung's Mithridates 1816.
(14) Statistische und ethnographische Nachrichten etc.... von Contre-Admiral Wrangell. St. Petersburg 1839.
(15) Die Bevölkerungsverhältnisse der Trchukschen-Habinsel von Dr. Aurel Krause. Deutsche Geogr. Blätter 1883.
(16) Veniaminow's Aleutian and Kadjakian Grammars (published in Russian) 1846.
(17) Sauer: Account of Billing's voyage 1785-94 London 1802.
(18) F. Boas: An article on Baffin's Land in "Mittheilungen aus Justus Perthes geogr. A.n 1885, and a list of words kindly sent me in manuscript.
(19) Lieutn. Ray: Report on the Point Barrow Expedition Washington 1885.

Besides occasional notes in other works, and those written down by the Danish expedition to East Greenland as well as various communications by other Arctic travellers, my original collection of written traditions etc.

## The written language, letters and signs.

On account of the imperfect manner in which the words spoken by the natives were caught up and interpreted, the first vocabularies naturally exhibited supposed dialectic differences which in reality did not exist. The misunderstanding and confusion came partly from the peculiar sounds, partly and especially from the strange construction of the language, which contrasts completely with our way of inflecting words and arranging sentences. As to the sounds there can be no doubt, that the general character of all the Eskimo talks is uniform enough to admit their being expressed by the same system of letters. In
comparing the different dialects therefore, strictly spoken it might be necessary to transcribe the words of the different vocabularies in the same system of orthography, only with occasional remarks on local diversity of pronunciation. This certainly must be considered almost impossible on the present. stage of our knowledge, as we are not always able to discern between what is due to real differences and what merely to the accidental deviations or difficulties just mentioned. However, in one respect, it will be necessary to transcribe the words con-s formably to such a more uniform system. It will be shown hereafter that a dictionary of the Eskimo language, as to its alphabetical order more than any other, REQUIRES TO BE ARRANGED BY MEANS OF THE RADICAL WORDS OR STEMS. In a glossary comprising several dialects, it will therefore be necescary to use one of them as the standard in arranging the stemwords alphabetically, each of them heading the list of its derivatives. Consequently words will happen to be grouped together which must be supposed akin to each other, although differently spelled aecording to the pronunciation in the dialect to which they belong.

On account of the want of consistency in all the other vocabularies and their mutual disagreement, WE MUST RESORT TO gREENLANDISH WITH ITS SERIES OF RADICAL WORDS AS THE STANDARD. But at the same time we meet with words in the other dialects which can not be referred to any of the latter, but require stems to be assumed peculiar to the other dialects. In order to have these supposed new stems properly placed we shall be obliged to take into consideration how they probably might have sounded, if they had occurred in Greenlandish. While in this way in the glossary given hereafter the stems are all reduced or modified according to the orthography adopted by Kleinschmidt for Greenland, on the other hand all the derivatives are rendered as they are found in the original works from which they are taken, only with the exception of supplanting a
few, apparently quite superfluous foreign characters by their ordinary counterparts, and of restricting the application of accents and hyphens, which in some works are found obviously too abundant while in others they are almost wanting.

The Greenland language likes full and plain vowels, pre- * ferring syllables composed of one vowel and one consonant. Two consonants are not allowed to be combined, unless susceptible of perfect coalescence. A Greenlander is unable to insert half vowels, as in the words: bridge, blow, cloud, he will say: berridge, billow, calloud.

The following list represents the letters adopted by Kleinschmidt for the modern orthography and their pronunciation:
$a$ like a in ufather", sometimes, especially before $k$ and $t$ like a in "at".
$e$ like $\mathbf{e}$ in "representn; strictly spoken it is only an $i$, when this should be placed before a guttural sound or at the end of a word.
$f$ like $\mathbf{f}$ in "ifn, or merely as a sharpened $v$, turning into a $v$ after a consonant.
$g$ like $g$ in "good".
$i$ like $\mathbf{i}$ in "it", or ee in "threen.
$j$ like $y$ in "yard".
$\kappa(q)$, called $\kappa a$, like a very guttural $\mathbf{k}$, something between g, rk and rkr. As it is the only new character that has been found necessary for the alphabet, I have preferred to adopt a $q$, also proposed by others for this sound.
$k$, called $k e$, like ce in "can" or ck in "lack".
$l$ like 1 in "holy".
dl like $\mathbf{t l}$ in "softly", is merely an $l$ sharpened after a consonant.
$m$ like $\mathbf{m}$ in "men.
$n$ like $n$ ni "no".
$n g$ a nasal $\mathbf{1 .}$.
o like $o$ in "other", is the same to $u$ as $e$ is to $i$.
$p$ like p in "poor", but also approaching to $\mathbf{b}$.
( $q$ see above.)
$r$ merely as a palatal $\mathbf{r}$.
(rng, merely differing from $n g$ by making the antecedent *vowel deeper; ng can be used instead of it.)
( $r$ ' like a deeply palatal German ch; a simple $r$ may also suffice.)
$s$ like s in "son.
ss, called esh, like sh in "short", but something softer.
$t$ like $\mathbf{t}$ in "ten", but also nearly like d.
$u$ like 00 in "proof"; before $j$ almost like the german $u$; in South - and especially in East - Greenland like i.
$v$ like $\mathbf{v}$ in "event", but produced with the lips alone, without the aid of the teeth.

The letter $h$ is only used in some interjections, and can be wholly omitted.

In Diphthongs the second vowel is always pronounced softly, f. i. ae mostly like $\hat{a}$, ai like y in "why".

The accents are: $\perp$ short and sharp, $\simeq$ long and sharp, $\wedge$ long and dull. Although their use is of great importance in the system adopted for Greenland, I have, as already mentioned, been obliged to leave out a great many of them in rendering words from vocabularies in which they are so profusely and indiscriminately applied in connection with the hyphens, that copying them would have offered a hopeless labour.

If we compare this alphabet with that proposed by Powell in his "Introduction to the study of Indian languages", it will be found to agree tolerably well with it, of course when it is considered that the latter comprises what will be required to express the sounds occurring in all the American tongues.

The application of consonants is limited by strict rules. A syllable cannot commence, and a word cannot end, with two consonants. No word can begin with $l, r, g, v, r n g$ or $n g$, nor end with any other consonants than the hard ones
$q, k, p$ and $t$. A syllable in a word can end with no consonant but $t, g, r, n g$ or $v$.

If we now examine the methods of spelling employed by authors on the other dialects, aud in the older Greenlandish literature, with the rules recently adopted in the latter, comparing the same words as they have been rendered by different writers, we find the characters of our alphabet varied as follows:

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\(a\) as \(c e, \ddot{a}, a e, e, i, a a, e a, o\).
\(e-\alpha, a e, i, \theta\), e.
\(f-b, v\).
\(g-g g, ~ g ', g h, c h, k, \rho k\).
\(i-e, \alpha, a e, e e, \quad i i\).
\(j-y\).
\(\kappa-k, k, k r, k ; \rho k, \rho k \rho, c h, \rho, n g, r n\).
\(k-g, q, n g\).
\(l-l l\).
\(d l-l, k l\).
\(n g-\tilde{n}\).
\(o-a, 00\).
\(p-b, b b\).
\(r-\rho, r r\).
\(r^{\prime}-r h, c h, \chi, g^{\prime}, \rho\).
\(s-c h, s c h, s h, c, t c h, d j, d j, d z, t c, z\).
\(s s-s, r s, r s s, j, t s, d s\) and the same as for \(s\).
\(t-n, d\).
\(u-o, o o . w\).
\(v-b, p, u, w\).
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    Combinations of letters varied:
    ai as $i, e, e e$.
agdl - okl.
aun -- awn.
arn - (in the word arnaq a woman) agn, agan, ahan, an,
achan, akn, agh, okhan, oghan, aan, on'g'n.

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ek as ar, ok, ish, eg, itko.
gss - dg, dj, ktş, sh, z, rg', hg, tk, g, gg, tg, s.
gp - tp.
\(g d l-t l, l l, r g l\).
gs - ptç.
lugs - lipt.
\(r k-k t, k h l, r t k, t k, t k r\).
\(r f\) - \(c h w, r v, k v, r k b\).
\(r d l-g g\).
rss - rktç.
ts \(-\mathrm{-} d j\).
uj -iv.
\(v d l-b l, l l\).
vk - ppk \(\rho\).
vss - dj.
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The majority of these deviations will be found to have their origin from the nationality of the writers; it is easy to recognise the English, French, German in them, and an addition of Russian will not escape observation. Others are owing to more individual differences. But of course there is no doubt that real diversities exist, which might require exceptions or additions to the Greenland rules. Some of the most obvious variations of sounds may be noted here:

The character $j$ in Labradorian often represents, besides the $j$ also the ss of Greenland, perhaps somewhat softened.

The use of $k$ instead of $k(q)$ in the vocabularies is not owing to dialectic differences, as even in Greenland formerly $k$ was the only one used of these characters. The same may be said about the use of $m$ and $n$ instead of $p$ and $t$ at the end of words, when the next word begins with a vowel.

In certain subordinate Greenland dialects we find $k$ for $t$ at the end, and $n$ for $m$ at the beginning of some words, and the verbal ending goq instead of voq.

In Labrador we find mar'r'uk for mardluk, aggaq for agssaq, nagfâq for navssâq, pivse for mivse, $t$ sometimes for $s$, and $i v$ for $u j$.

In the Baffin's Land dialect several sounds seem to be nearer to the Labrador than to the Greenland tongue, as f. i. $j$ and $d j$ for $s s, g g$ for $g s s$, but more peculiar is the use of $r n$ and $n g$ for $q$ and $k$ at the end of words.

As Capt. Holm on his recent expedition to East Greenland was accompanied by some of the most intelligent natives from the West Coast, he had an opportunity of procuring the most authentic information about the significance of pronunciation as real dialectic peculiarity. The native teacher Hanserak says: "Certainly most of the Eastlanders' words are like ours, but their strange sounding and hasty pronunciation make them more troublesome to be understood by us; also because some of their words are like bubbling children's speech. In this way they use $t$ for $s$ and $d l$, and as they have no $f$, they use $p$ and $v$ instead». - Holm and his interpreter Johan Petersen have perused the dictionary in which Hanserak had inserted his notes. They found out, that the Eastlanders use $d$ or $d g$ for $t s, b$ for $p$ or $f, d$ for $t, g$ for $k, i$ for $u, e$ for $o$ and for $a$, and sometimes $j$ or $l$ for $s$.

The well known native Arctic traveller Hans Hendrik describes the Smith's Sound dialect as characterised by a profuse insertion of the letter $r$.

As to the Mackenzie and the Western dialects, we must refer to the numerous examples given hereafter in the lexicographical part.

No doubt the reader will arrive at the conclusion, that the majority of the diversities here in question probably will occur within the limits of one of the main dialects itself, that perhaps the same deviations may be found in the extreme West as in the East, and that at all events authentic investigation by a professional linguist will be required to find out, whether
more general relationships exist between the different tribes as regards this question.

The parts of speech, the organisation of the language ExHibited in its mole of construing and inflecting words ${ }^{1}$.

As in all languages, the original component parts of the words are roots. Out of these roots in the earliest ages of the language were formed stems, each of which got its fixed signification. Leaving the development of the roots to professional linguistic investigation, our considerations in the present volume will be limited to the stems as already existing and yielding the material for tee construction of words. They are divided into two classes: (1) Independent or primitive, (2) dePENDENT OR ADDED, the latter only to be applied in connection with the former, producing compoond stems or derivatives. In receiving the affixes the original word embodies notions which more or less modify its signification. The repetition of this process gives rise to sobordinate stems of various degrees, each of them forming the independent stem to THE NEXT.

The added stems or affixes are distinguished from their counterparts in wellknown European languages by their multiplicity and as to the majority of them, their moveableness or capability of being appended wherever the meaning may admit or require it, whereas on the other hand composing by adding real words to others in unknown. Notwithstanding these extraordinary means for the construction of derived words, whose signification is given immediately by their constituent parts, the dictionary must comprise and more closely explain the sense of many derivatives, in the first place because not all affixes

[^0]are applicable to every stem, and secondly as a derivative besides the general signification resulting from its composition can have a peculiar sense too. The number of affixes existing in Greenlandish can be rated at 200 . The number which can be attached to the same stem or embodied in one derivative is restricted by no distinct rule, but hardly exceeds, and very rarely reaches 10 .

I have tried to calculate how many words in this way COULD BE DERIVED FROM A STEM, but did not cornplete the experiment on account of the appalling increase of the number on each subsequent addition of an affix. I selected the word igdlo a house, and running over the affixes I found about 80 of them able to be added immediately to this stem, giving 80 derivatives. Again at random I took one of these and found it susceptible of 61 immediate additions. I submitted the 61 derivatives of second, or stems of third degree to the same experiment and got 70 derivatives of the third degree out of one of them, and so on I got 8 of the 4 th, 10 of the 5 th, and 10 of the 6 th degree. But here I stopped and considered what could have been the result, if each time instead of choosing one, I had tried all the others of the same class too, found them equally prolific and finally had summed up all the numbers obtained in this way within the limits of each class: THE FORmidable sum to which I was led deterred me from completing this arithmetical problem, which would have required all the combinations in question to be actually tried and for this purpose all written down excepting perhaps the last class. Such a process would be necessary, as several rules have to be observed with regard to the order in which a series even of moveable affixes can be appended to a stem, and especially because the applicability of an affix in each case before all depends on its sense. But even if an ample allowance is made for these restrictions, the remaining number will still be so large that only the american so called polysynthetic

LaNGUAGES SEEM TO EXHIBIT A SIMILAR FECUNDITY OF COMPOSITIONS.

The following examples will probably give a satisfactory idea of the process by which the derivatives are produced.

Stemword: igdlo a house.
1st class derivatives: igdlorssuaq a large h., igdlinguaq a small h., igdlîvoq it is a h., igdluliorpoq he builds a h., igdloqat $\hat{a}$ his housefellow.

2d class: igdlorssualiorpoq he builds a large h., igdlorssualiarpoq he goes to the l. h., igdloqatigâ he has him for his housefellow.

3d class: igdlorssualiorfik the place where the l. h., is being built, igdlorssualiortoq he who builds the l. h., igdloqatigiumavâ he wishes to have him for his housefellow.

4th class: igdlorssualiorfilik one who has a place where a l. h. is being built, igdlorssualiortugssaq one who is going to (can) build a l. h.

5th class: igdlorssualiortugsarâ he has him as one who can b. a.l.h.

6th class: igdlorssualiortugssarsiumavoq he wants to find one who will (can) b. a. l. h.

It is a peculiarity to the language that NOUNS AND VERBS are almost the only parts of speech. The nominal stems or words are used as nouns in their original state. The verbal stems require an addition in order to become real verbs, f. i. verbal stem pisuk, verb: pisugpoq he walks. Some stems are at once nominal and verbal.

Closely allied to nouns, if not wholly to be classed with them, are some demonstrative words or pronouns, while in the main the pronouns are comprised in the verbs and expressed by flexion. Finally there are particles and interjections, probably also originated from similar stems. But true adjectives hardly exist, although nouns placed with nouns can be used as adjectives. Other kinds of words are comprised in the nouns
and verbs with their flexions, and in fact these may be said to constitute the whole language.

The FLEXION COMPLETES THE PROCESS BY WHICH THE LaNGUage is capable of expressing a comparativly large COMPOUND OF IDEAS IN A FEW WORDS. In general it comprises:
(1) The number: singular, dual and plural. Plural can be used instead of dual.
(2) For verbs the person.
(3) As to nouns the relation, and as to verbs the object of the action is indicated by additions which have been termed SUFFIXES.
(4) As to nouns whether they are object or subject in the sentence (objective and subjective, the latter comprising the genitive).
(5) As to nouns what in other languages is expressed by prepositions, answering the questions: where, whence, what way, whither and how, by forms or cases which may be called: Localis, Ablative, Vialis, Terminalis and Modalis. Their endings are called appositions.
(6) For verbs 7 moods: indicative, interrogative, optative (imperative), conjunctive, subjunctive and participle.

But flexion neither comprises sex nor tense. For the latter affixes can be used.

## Nouns and their flexion.

Of THE CASES, THE OBJECTIVE indicates the object of a transitive verb (accusative) as well as the subject of an intransitive verb. In the objective singular, which is to be considered the primitive form, all nouns end in a vowel or in $q, k$ or $t$. Those which end in $t$, when inflected take an auxiliary $i$ or $a$. THE SUBJECTIVE indicates as well the subject to a transitive verb, as our usual genitive when referring to possession.

The sUBJECTIVE is formed by $p$, THE DUAL by $k$, THE PLURAL by $t$, added to the vowel of the final syllable (end-vowel). At the same time, if the last letter is a consonant, this is dropped, unless it constitutes a part of the root, when an exchange of letters takes place. The rules for this transformation belong to the most complicated part of the grammar, and require the words to be divided in 3 classes. But the transformation is sometimes omitted. Examples from these classes, ranged accordingly to the degree of transformation are:
(1) nuna (object.) land, nunap (subject.), nunat (plural); qúqaq mountain, qáqap, qáqat; ̂umat heart, umatip, umatit; inuk man, inûp, inuit.
(2) sioraq sand, siorqap, siorqat; nâlagaq master, nâlagkap, nâlagkat; nujaq hair, nutsap, nutsat.
(3) auveq walrus, aorrup, aorfit or aorrit; aleq harpoon line, ardlup, ardlit; malik sea (waves), magdlup, magdlit.

The SUFFIXES of nouns, as mentioned above, denote the relation, viz. the STATE OF BEING POSSESSED. They are different for: my, thy, his, our etc., while each of them like the noun itself, has its forms for objective, subjective and number. Of course this gives an extraordinary multiplicity of combinations, each with its peculiar form. Moreover the third person requires 2 kinds of suffixes, denoling whether the subject of the sentence is the possessor ( $e$-suffix) or not ( $a$-suffix). Omitting the dual the following table gives a view of the suffix-endings:


But here also the manner in which the endings are appended is submitted to complicated rules requiring them to be divided in six classes.

Examples are: nunâ his country, nunâta his country's, nunaga my c., kivfâ his servant, kivfane his (own) servant, oqausia his word, oqausertik their (own) words, ernera his (my) son, enerpit thy son's (subjective).

As to the (dependent) CASES WITH APPOSITIONS, the nouns without suffixes are inflected as follows:

| For | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Localis | me | $n e$ |
| Ablative | mit | nit |
| Vialis | kut | tigut |
| Modalis | mik | nik |
| Terminalis | mut | nut |

When they have to join on nouns with suffixes they are somewhat transformed, but in both cases the rules are not so complicated as those above alluded to.

Examples are: nuname on land, nunamit from the land, nunakut by land, nâlagkamut to the master, siorqamik with or by (means of) sand (sioraq).

The LABRADOR DIALECT only shows a few differences from what is here stated. The irregular forms are partly wanting. Some suffixes have an $n g$ appended before them, f. i. kivfanga, kivfangit, oqausinga for: kivfâ, kivfat, oqausia. It seems that the CENTRAL DIALECTS also in this respect show nearer kinship to the Labrador than to the Greentand tongue. In the MACKENZIE GRAMMAR we also are able to trace almost all the Greenlandish forms, although more or less disfigured by evident misunderstanding. The most striking example of the latter is that of considering the subjective merelly as a genitive, without mentioning its relation to a transitive verb. It is curious that the word tupeq (a tent) in Greenl. and Mack. has the same anomalous plural tovqit, while in Labr. it has the regular tupit. In the glossaries of the WESTERN DIALECTS we find examples of flexional endings referring to number, possession and appositions, with or without suffixes, but they are too incomplete for deriving any general rule with regard to their relation to the Eastern dialects.

## Particular nouns.

DEMONSTRATIVE WORDS. The demonstrative roots are: ma here (where I am), táss there, $u v$ here, there (pointing), ik or iv yonder, av north or right, qav south or left (facing the open sea), pav east or landward, also upward, kan here down, also west or seaward, kig south, kam inside or outside.

By themselves, as they are, or merely rendered pronunciable by the addition of an $a$, these roots are only used as interjections. Their proper application is in the cases: localis, ablative, vialis and terminalis, formed by adding: ane, ánga (Labr. ángat), ̂̂na and unga, f. i. mâne here, münga hence, mauna this way, maunga hither.

As a rare exception in the language, a prefix here is used in putting a ta before these words only to strengthen their demonstrative tendency.

Demonstratives referring to a person or an object are formed by adding na to the above roots, excepting táss and kig, f. i. mána this one here, iona he or that yonder. Their flexion is somewhat devialing, f. i.

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Objective | ivna | ivko |
| Subjective . | ivssuma | ivkua |
| Localis | ivssumane | ivkunane |
| Ablative | ivssumánga | ivkunánga |
| Vialis | ivssumûna | ivkukut |
| Terminalis | ivssumúnga | ivkunúnga |
| Modalis . | ivssuminga | ivkunínga. |

Somewhat related to this class of words are: n $\hat{\alpha}$ where?, suna what? kina who?

In the Mackenzie grammar, the principal words belonging to this class are called pronouns.

NUMERALS. In all the dialects they are formed by making subdivisions for every fifth number, counting the fingers of hand and foot.

WORDS OF PLACE. By this name are termed some nouns which designate a place or space in reference to a certain object, for which reason they require a suffix, excepting when used in the terminalis. Examples are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { at with suff. at } \hat{a} \text { what is below it } \\
& \text { sujo - }- \text { sujoa - - before it } \\
& \text { kit }- \text { - } i t \hat{a}-\text { seaward of it. }
\end{aligned}
$$

PERSONAL WORDS. Pronouns, as often wentioned, are represented in the flexion of the verbs. But if merely the person has to be expressed, separate words are required. For the third person we find them among the demonstratives mentioned above. The first and second person are expressed by uvanga I, and ivdlit thou. Kleinschmidt derives these words from the supposed stems $u v a$ and ile, which, with suffixes for my and thy, could signifly: my (being) here, thy (being) there. This hypothesis has been confirmed by the Mac-
kenzie grammar in which ivdlit is iluit i. e. thy ile or ilo.
To the particular nouns might also be counted: kise "aloneness" and "tamaq" whole (see the glossary).

## Verbs and their flexion.

We have already mentioned the verbal stems, stating that by themselves they are only serviceable as interjections, whereas in order to become words for ordinary use they have to be furnished with a formative addition. The flexion of verbs in one respect is less complicated than that of nouns, in as much as only this formative addition is altered by it, whereas the slem itself, excepting slight modifications of the final sound, is never affected by the flexion. But as to multiplicity of forms the flexion of verbs is by far more complicated.

THE FLEXION COMPRISES (1) MOODS (2) PERSONS WITH INDICATION OF THE SUBJECT, (3) SUFFIXES OR THE OBJECT BUT NO TENSES. What was formerly considered tenses consists of affixes. Most commonly it already will be given by the context, whether an action is passed or falure.

The first alteration by flexion is for the mood, for which the verbs are divided into 5 classes. As the formative addition is the variable part, one of its forms has to be considered the standard for explaining the others. For this use the 3 d person of the indicative with the suffix likewise of the $3 d$ person for transitive verbs, has been selected. The formative addition to the stem then is poq, voq or oq, with the suffix: $p \hat{a}, v \hat{a}$ or $\hat{a}$. Including the last sound of the stem which is slightly altered we set THE FOLLOWING ENDINGS AS RE PRESENTING THE 5 CLASSES OF VERBS:
(1) rpoq, rpâ for stems ending in $q$, f. i. ajoq bad, ajorpoq he or it is bad.
(2) gpoq, gpâ for stems ending in $k$, f. i. nâlak obeying, nâlagp $\hat{a}$ he obeys him.
(3) $\lrcorner p o q\lrcorner , p \hat{a}$ for stems ending in $t$ which is dropped while at the same time the preceding vowel is sharpened, f. i. tikit coming, tikipoq he comes.

(4) $v o q$, $v \hat{a}$ for stems ending in a vowel without accent, f. i. asa loving, asavâ he loves him.
(5) aoq, $\hat{\alpha}$ for stems ending in é, f. i. pigé possession, pigâ he owns it.

Omitting the dual, all the formative additions ordinarily required for conjugation may be represented by the following table.


| Without suffix. |  |  | 3d person's |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $a-$ suffix |  |  |
|  |  |  | him | them |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{0}{3} \\ & \underset{y y y}{3} \\ & \cline { 1 - 3 } \end{aligned}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{rl}\begin{array}{c}\text { 3d Person } \\ \text { (a) }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { he } \\ \text { they }\end{array} \\ \text { 3d Person } \\ \text { (e) }\end{array} \quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { they }\end{array}\right\}$ | mat <br> mata <br> ame <br> amik <br> avit <br> avse <br> ama <br> avta | mago massule <br> amiulo <br> amiko <br> agko <br> avsiuk <br> avko <br> avtigo | magit <br> matigik <br> umigit <br> amikik <br> agkit <br> avsigik <br> avkit <br> avtigik |  |
|  | 3d Person <br> (a) \{ he <br> they <br> 3d Person  <br> (e) $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he } \\ \text { they }\end{array}\right\}$ | pat <br> pata <br> une <br> unik <br> uvit <br> uvse <br> uma <br> uvta | pago <br> passulo <br> uniuk <br> uniko <br> ugko <br> uvsiuk <br> uvko <br> uvtigo | pagit <br> patigik <br> unigik <br> unikit <br> ugkit <br> uvsigit <br> uvkit <br> uvtigik |  |
|  | 3d Person <br> (a) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he } \\ \text { they }\end{array}\right.$ <br> 3d Person  <br> (e) $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he } \\ \text { they }\end{array}\right\}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \hat{a} \\ \hat{a} t \\ n e \\ \text { itik } \\ \text { it } \\ \text { igse } \\ \text { iga } \\ \text { igput } \end{gathered}$ | $a i$ <br> ait <br> ine <br> itik <br> itit <br> ise <br> ika <br> ivut |  |

It will be seen that the dependent moods conjunct., subj. and. partic. have a double form for the 3 d person of the subject; of these the $e$-form is used when the subject at the same time is subject in the sentence to which the dependent mood refers.


The participle of the language is of a rare and peculiar kind, as not only permitting, but necessarily requiring an object. For this reason there is another form produced by the ending toq or soq representing the usual participle of other languages. In the Greenland
grammar it is classed among the affixes. But although in this way certainly having the nature of a noun, it may be inflected like a verb in the indicative, as f. i. ajortoq one who is bad, ajortunga I who am bad, ajortutit thou who art bad etc. It is called the nominal participle, whereas that above is the verbal participle.

The use of the table however still requires some explanation. The endings represented in it are called the formative additions. Kleinschrnidt shows us in a very ingenious way how they are developed out of 4 elements: the character, the sign of mood, the sign of person and the sign of suffix. Only the first of these elements needs to be more closely mentioned here. It is wanting for the optative and the in finitive, for which the sign of mood is joined immediately to the stem; for the others there are 2 kinds, the principal character used for the independent moods, indicative and interrogative, and the connecting character for the dependent moods. With the addition of these characters the endings of the stem will be:


To one of these 3 kinds of forms, the stem by itself (optative and infin.), the stem with the chief char. (indic. and interr.), and the stem with the connecting char. (conj., subj. and participle), the endings given in the table have to be added.

The following examples may serve te explain the use of the table: atorpoq it is used, atorpâ he uses or has used it, atorpiuk dost thou use it?, atorpago if or when he uses it, atorâ he who uses it, atormat as it had been used; nâlaypoq he obeys, nâlagparma thou obeyst me, nâlangmatigit as they had obeyed them, nâlákuvsinga if ye obey me; tikipoq he comes or has come, tikile may he come!, tikitdlune he coming; taluvâ he sees or saw him, taluagangma as thou sawst me, takugpanga when he sees me, takugivsigut ye who see or saw us; oqarfig $\hat{a}$ he says to him, tikikame oqarfiyânga as he had arrived, he said to me, tikingmat oqarfigânga as he had arrived, he - i. e. another one - said to me.

Of the optative and the conjunctive some peculiar forms exist which are rather frequently used.

Some verbs are exclusively transitive so as to turn reflexive or passive, if used without suffix, f. i. toqupoq he killed himself. Certain affixes render these verbs halftransitive, viz. having no definite object, whereas an object still can be indicated by the modalis, f. i. inungmik toqutsivoq he has killed a man, he is a murderer.

The passive form is not indicated by flexion, but merely by affixes.

The negation is expressed by a peculiar affix-stem - ngit added to the end vowel of the verb in question and inflected in a somewhat different way from the ordinary conjugation. The indicative without suffix is: 3d pers. ngilaq, 2d pers. ngilatit, 1st pers. ngilanga.

As exceptional differences in Greenland occur: $g o q$ and $g \hat{a}$ for $v o q$ and $v \hat{a}$, in Labrador $k o q$ and $k \hat{a}$ for $p o q$ and $p \hat{a}$. In Labr. There exist no verbs of the 5 th class and what appears most remarkable, no verbal participle. Certain $e$-suffixes have also disappeared.

The MACEENZIE GRAMMAR GIVES a numerous collection of forms differing from the system here proposed. Most of them spring from the usual difficulties in acquiring the first information by questioning the natives. In fact the only task I have attempted in this part of the grammar is to trace the similarities and to point out among the differences a tew as probably authentic.

It is said that the verbs withoul suffix generally end in toaq, $j o a q, j o q, t o q, t a q, r a q$; wilh suffix in $a, j a, v a, r a$ and $g a$.

Five conjugations are said to exist:
(1) for verbs ending in toaq, rtoaq and ktoaq - evidently corresponding to the first 3 classes of verbs in Greenl., but with $t$ instead of $p$, reminding us of the nominal participle,
(2) for -joaq, evidently the ending -voq in Greenl., where also joq exceptionally occurs,
(3) for -raq?
(4) for $-o q$, apparently the same as 2 ,
(5) for $-i k$, probably a confounding of nomialal and verbal forms.

The interrogative and optative agree tolerably well with Greenl., and so does still more the infinitive.

It is an interesting fact, that the negative form with its flexions has maintained the $t$ of the stem, but as for the rest is quite alike the Greenl.

The scanty sources of information we hitherto have been possessed of with regard to the GRammar OF THE WESTERN DIALECTS, have received a valuable addition by a list of flexional forms added
to the vocabulary in Ray's Report on the Point Barrow Expedition. The following examples will serve to show the similarity of the flexional endings with those from Greenland. But the peculiar signification of the nominal participle is here still more distinctly indicated than in the Mackenzie.

| Point Barrow |  | Greenland |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I am hungry | kalktungä | kâgpunga | (- tunga) |
| Thou art - | kaktutin | -- putit | (- tutit) |
| Ye are - | kaktuse | - puse | (- tuse) |
| He is | kakto | - poq | (-toq) |
| Let him come! | kaili! | kaile! |  |
| Come in! | isarin! | iserit! |  |
| I sleep | siniktungä | sinigpunga | (- tunga) |
| Thou sleepst | - tutin | - putit | (- tutit) |
| He sleeps | - tuä | - poq | (-toq) |
| As he slept | sinigmut | siningmat |  |
| Art thou asleep? | sinikpi? | sinigpit? |  |
| Is he asleep | - pa? | - pa? |  |

The grammatical notes given by Veniaminow on the Kadjak dialect are very trifling. However they contain an example of conjugation; it represents the stem: tiguv $\hat{a}$ he takes it, and evidently exhibits a confounding of forms partly from this verb, partly from the halftransitive tigusivoq (tgoma and tgotschichka!).

## Particles.

To this class belong words which, except in a few instances, have lost their flexibility or remained inflexible, and at the same time differ from the interjections by being inapplicable save in connection with other words, although in some cases this distinction is not to be drawn sharply. They are divided into added and independent particles.

The added particles must always be appended to other words. From the affixes however they differ by a less intimate coalescence with the main word, especially in permitling this to be inflected independent of the addition. The most common are: lo and; le but; taoq also; lûn̂̂t or, even; me indeed, to be sure; toq expressing a desire; lusôq like; gôq one says.

The independent particles may be divided into: (1) those for time, find. ipagssaq yesterday, (2) having the character of adverbs or conjunctions, f. i. agsut very, (3) mostly resembling interjections, f. i. sunauvfa only think! $\hat{a} p$ yes.

As for the rest, and especially with regard to the other dialects, the words of this class will more appropriately be treated of in the glossary.

## Syntax.

Trying to discern the differences which may prevail between the dialects concerning the syntax, at present of course is a matter out of question. But also in this section of the grammar the peculiar organisation of the language is so strikingly manifested, that we can not wholly omit mentioning it here, by a few remarks taken from the Greenlandish grammar.

A verb certainly by aid of the suffises makes a sentence by itself, but even if the subject and the object are expressed by particular nouns the verb nevertheless must indicate both by suffixes, f. i. takuvâ he saw it, inûp igdlo takuvâ the man ('s) - the house he saw it, i. e. the man saw the house.

The use of the $e$-suffix and the $e$-form in general is already mentioned. When the rerbal participle is subordinate to a main verb, the sentence generally refers to three different personalities: (1) the subject of the main verb, (2) its object which at the same time is the subject of the participle, (3) the object of the participle. If now two of these are identical, it depends on the sense, how the e-suffix and the $e$-form. of the verb have to be applited. Examples are: oqautigingila pigingne he did not say that he (himself) possessed it, whereas pigigh would indicate: that he (another) possessed it. kivfane oqautigâ sorâerukâne literally: his (own) servant, him he mentioned, him who abandoned him, i. e. he said that his servant had abandoned him, whereas sorâerukine would signify: that he had abandoned his servant.

The conjunctive corresponds to sentences with "when, as, becausen, the subjunctive to them with: aif, when, supposedn. The $a$-form is used when the connected sentences have a different, the $e$-form when they have the same subject. The composed e-suffixes of both moods are used almost in the same way as those of the participle. The infinitive corresponds almost as much to the part-
iciple as to the infinitive of other languages and has a multifarious application.

The verb "it is" of other languages is rendered by affixes: $u v o q$ is 一, and $-r \hat{a}$ has it for -, f. i. nâlagauvoq he is a chief, nâlagarâ he has him for his chief, it is his ch.

Finally the arrangement of words is of great importance, while at the same the $a$ - and $e$-sufixes and forms admit of several sentences being combined in a very compendious form and crossing each other without losing the necessary distinctness. Kleinschmidt in his grammar gives the following examples of what a careful use of these means in a few words is able to express. Certainly they are so complicated, that in daily speech they could hardly ever occur, but still they are correct and can be understood by intelligent people. The examples show about the same words in two combinations.
(1) suêrúkame autdlásassoq tusaramink tuníngingmago iluaringilát they did not approve, that he (a) had omitted to give him (b) something, as he (a) heard, that he (b) was going to depart on aecount of being destitute of everything.

This is composed of 4 sentences:
suêruikame autdlúsavoq when he was destitule of everything he would depart.
autdásassoq tusarp $\hat{a}$ him who would depart he had heard of.
tusaramiuk tuningila as he had heard of him, he did not give him anything.
tuníngingmago iluaringilât as he gave him nothing they disapproved of him.
(2) ivna autdlartoq suêrúkame autdlâsassoq ningavata tusaramiuke, unigtíkumavdlugo ajorssautainik tuníngingmago nunaqataisa iluaríngilât literally: him yonder - who has departed - as he was destitute of everything - who was going to depart - his brother in law as he heard of him - intending to cause him to remain - with his necessaries - as he did not present him - his countrymen disapproved of him - viz: as the brother in law of hlm yonder who departed on account of want, had heard that he intended to remove and (nevertheless) did not assist him with anything that he wanted, in order to make him remain, his countrymen disapproved of his conduct.

## Construction of words by means of the dependent stems OR AFFIXES.

The nature and use of the affixes in general has already been explained. It was mentioned that the greater part of these additions are perfectly moveable. But some have become immoveable, their application being limited to certain words, or though moveable, certain combinations of them with primitive stems have acquired a fixed peculiar signification. Moreover there is no sharp distinction between the moveable and immoveable affixes. For these reasons the dictionary must continually refer to the affixes.

Many affixes, although having a more or less distinct signification, are often used in a way only slightly affecting the sence of the word. Especially in narrative - or so to say poetical style - very compound words occur, of whose elements some almost seem to be inserted merely for the sake of enphony.

As to their nature and signification, the affixes are divided into nouns and verbs. The latter have their formative addition like the primitive verbs which lose their addition in receiving the affix with the flexion; the same is repeated with the derivalives each time a new affix is added. Nominal as well as verbal affixes are again divided into transforming, by which nouns are converted into verbs and vice versa, and formative which only are appended to stems of their own kind. The formative nominal affixes are also grouped as adjectively or substantively formative, f. i. igdlúnguaq a small house, and igdlutik one who has a house. The formative verbal affixes in a similar way are divided into neutral, transitive and intransitive.

As trying to extract a tolerably complete collection of the affixes contained in the words known from the other dialects and arranging them, would be a very difficult problem, I have limited the following list to the Grenlandish affixes and examples of compound words, giving an idea of the application of the same affixes in the other dialects. A few examples from the latter containing doubtful elements are finally added; only few affixes have been observed in them which with any degree of certainty could be considered non existent in Greenland.

The following signs have been adopted by Kleinschmidt for indicating the rules for adding the affixes to the stems:
(bd), not perfectly moveable or applicable, but bound to certain stems $g$ ] and $t$ ], the first consonnant of the affix is variable and can be $r$, $g k, k$ for $g$, and $s, t s$, ss for $t$.
-, to be added to the last vowel of the stem.
.., to its last sound, vowel or consonant.
., to a consonnant ( $g$ or $r$ ) which has to be intercalated, if the stem ends in a vowel.
$:$, to the root or any other abbreviated form of the stem.
$\perp$ or $\wedge$, requiring the last vowel of the stem to be respectively sharp or long.

-     - , requiring its last but one syllable to have a sharp vowel or to be closed by a consonant.
:-, the rule to be either abnormal or unknown.
Other signs used:
G, dialects of Greenland,
L, - - Labrador,
C, - - the Central Regions,
M, - - the Mackenzie,
W, - - the Western.
Where none of these initials is added, $G$ is meant. The examples taken from the other dialects are spelled in the main as they are found in the originals.


## List 0f the Greenlandish Affixes with examples 0f their USE TAKEN FROM ALL THE DIALECTS.

g]ajugpoq is prone to, usually. - pigajugpoq gets (pivoq) frequently (i. e. seals), is a good hunter.
. $a q$ (bd) and - araq young or small - âtâraq young seal, orpigaq a small bush (orpik) - L. akkigiarak young ptarmigan C. eqaluaq a kind of salmon (eqaluk). - M. kurark, kuraraluk a small river ( $k \hat{k} k$ ) or brook. - W. piagak a young (G. pik a thing). (一aq, see : gaq).
g]aluaq, g]aluarpoq having been, but is not longer so, rather, certainly. - nukarigalua his deceased younger brother (nukaq), takugaluarpáka certainly I saw them (but...).
g]alugtuarpoq suddenly happening, as in falling, coming.
-aluk of inferior kind, poor - pialuit poor things. - Examples from the other dialects seem partly to exhibit a somewhat different signification. - C. agtsuadluk strong (wind), equlualuit large. salmon.
:- araoq uses to..., frequently.

- arpoq (bd) slightly, little.
-arssuk anomalous, not of the usual kind. - ardluarssuk a rare kind of whales - C. kangertluaqdjung local name for a small fiord (G. leangerdluk).
g]asuarpoq hastily.
:-atârpoq in earnest, duly.
g]atdlarpog just, only first.
- avoq (bd) a continuation, repetition.
:erivoq, lerivoq is occupied with something - ujargerivoq is working in stones.
- erdluerpâ dirties him with... -- pauerdluerpâ d. him with soot (paoq).
$: \operatorname{erpa},-\operatorname{lerpâ}$ furnishes with. - L. ikkilerpâ wounds him (G. ike wound), akkilerpâ pays him (G. ake payment).
- $\operatorname{erp} \hat{a}, \hat{\imath} v o q$, erserpoq, erúp$\hat{a}$ deprives him of . . - matuerp $\hat{a}$ opens it (mato covering) - L. ernẽrpoq has lost his son (G. erneq) - M. néarkroertoarlc cuts off the head (G. niaqoq).
- $g \hat{a},-r \hat{a}$ (halftransitive: gingnigpoq) has it for ..., finds it to be... - ernerâ has him for, or it is his son, angig $\hat{a}$ means it is large (angivoq); a peculiar prolonged form is - gर̂yput they are ... to each other. - In L. and probably also in C. and M. this affix is - givâ, -rivâ, f. i. eneriva, and the Greenland form may be merely a contraction.
$-g a q$ (bd), $s a q$ (bd), $-s s a q$ (bd), .. $a q$ (bd), $-a q$ (bd), a kind of passive parliciple signifying: he to whom is done so. L. ãktugak skinned animal (G. âgtorpâ skins it) - M. igitark (G. igip $\hat{a}$ throws it away) thrown away. - W. keepeegak what is cut (G. kipivâ cuts it).
-gasârpoq is very full of, or rich in. A nominal form is found in L. and C. nanuragassain having many young bears (G. nanuaraq).
-gigpoq, -rigpoq has il fine, or is a fine ... - M. tipiritork has a fine smell (G. tipe).
-gssaq future or intended for - L. alliksak something for a hunting line (G. aleq). - W. angutilisa male infant (G. angut a man), angnulesa female infant (G. arnaq woman).
—guaq, —ruaq (bd) inferior, insignificant.
- gugpoq, -rugpoq suffers from ..., or is longing for. L. akekigerukpoq is longing for ptarmigan. imerukpunga I want water (G. imeq).
:iaq, -liaq made or wrought. - pûlîa the sack (pôq) which he has made.
$g] i a q$ what requires to be done so - L. abloriak a step (G. avdlorpoq strides). -- C. majorariaq a place where the boat has to be pulled against the current (G. majorarpoq).
$-i a q,-g i a q,-r i a q, \cdot p a k$ (verbal form -iagpoq) plenty, a mullitude. - igdlorpait many houses. - L. inugiarput they are many people. C. inuiaktunik - W. inyugiuktu upeoplen.
- iarpa deprives him of.
:iarpoq, -liarpoq goes to. - L. eqaluliarpole goes fishing salmon.
g]iartorpoq goes or comes for the purpose of.
-inaq, -inarpoq only, merely. - L. agdloinal only a seal hole (in the ice), i. e. without seal - M. iviginark a grassy plain (G. ivik gross).
:iorpoq, -liorpoq is making, working... - L. sabviorpok he works iron. -- M. igluliortoark he builds a house.
:ipoq (bd), -lipoq has arrived at... - nunalipoq has landed. - L. inulipok meets with people.
-ipoq, -ilaq without... - L. sillaipok stupid (G. sila reason), inuilak desert. - C. okomaitpoke is light, not heavy (G. oqimavoq) - M. inuitor "nobody". - W. peechule no, not (G. pîtsoq being without any thing), ukumaïluta "a heavy shaft".
- isorpoq is gone to fetch or look for...
: issarpoq, -lissarpoq takes something along with him on leaving.
$:-i v \hat{a}(\mathrm{bd}),-\operatorname{siv} \hat{a},-\operatorname{liva}$ gets it thus done with. - kivissivâ lost it (f. i. his seal) by sinking (kivivoq).
-ivoq a halflransitive form for trans. verbs.
:ivoq, -livoq makes, works - M. tchuliyoark is occupied (G. sulivoq, so something).
g]ivoq, nivoq, g]ioq, gujoq also, too. - L. attigivok he is also dressed (attivol).
-jârpoq early. - L. annijarpok goes out early (annivok).
- jarssugpoq (bd) indistinctly.
-javoq is prone to ...
-juipoq, -ssuipoq never. - L. annijuïpok never goes out.
- M. okrayeïtuark mule (G. oqarpoq speaks), nerretchü̈tork can never eat (G. nerivoq).
-qaoq the most common emphatical ending of verbs, frequently also used without any signification at all.
- qarpoq has, or there is. - L. ekallukarpok there are salmon. -qat fellow or one of the same kind. -angeqatá one who is as tall (angivoq) as he. - M. nunarkat countryman.
-quitârpoq repeatedly. - L. auksarkatarpole it was repeatedly thawing.
-qut, rqut, rqutaq a remedy. - L. perkut property. (G. pivoq he gets).
$\perp k \tilde{u} q$ having large ... - kigutikâ $q$ having large teeth.
—kaneq somewhat near to... - W. ávanikunnä southwest (áwani west).
-karpoq (bd) suddenly.
-kârpoq (bd) with long intervals.
-kasik, - kasigpoq expressing displeasure with a slight degree of disdain; in speaking of one's own things merely a phrase of modesty.
- katagpoq has got too much of it.
- kípoq, kitdlivoq, kerdluk small. - L. akkekipok is lowprized.
- kisarpoq, only used in optative: do not!
- ko, -koq ruined or dissolved in its parts - L. aumako charcoal, illako a piece broken off.
-kôrpoq probably.
- kulaq clumsy.
—kuluk miserable - umiakuluk a. m. boat.
$\rightarrow k u ́ p \hat{a}$ (bd) believes it to be... - piúkípô b. it to be useful (piuvoq).
-kut (plural) family or companions of . .
- lârpoq a little.
- lavoq, indicates a certain state of moveableness. - W. sukaladu "quick" (G. sukavoq gọes quickly).
-leq, •dleq farthest towards - L. alleq lowest. - C. akugdlirn middlemost. - M. kingulerk hindmost. - W. kadlik outer garment (G. qak surface).
- $\operatorname{dlerpa}$ (I) regales him with ...
- dlerpa (II) (bd), indicates: bringing in a bad situation.
- lerpoq begins to ..., now.
-lerssârpoq intends to ...
- lertorpoq in a short time.
-lik having, or furnished with. - L. aulik bloody (auk blood). - W. omaylik "chief" (boat-owner), tungalik "shaman" (having guardian spirits).
. dliorpoq (bd) is incumbered with...
.dlivoq (bd) grows, becomes, - agdlivoq g. larger (angivoq is large).
-luarpoq a little too much - C. peelooakpoke "too littlen (G. pïpoq is poor?).
.dluarpoq well, right.
.dlugpoq, - lugpoq has or is bad. - M. iyaluktoark has bad eyes (G. isse eye).
.dluinarpoq completely.
. $d l u k,-l u k$ bad - M. tsillaluk bad weather (G. sila weather).
$\_$mak, $\perp$ mauvoq skilled in ... - C. pimmain a skilful man, leader.
- mavoq is in the state of ... - L. ikkomavok is burning (G. ikipâ kindles it).
-mivoq (bd) perverted, awkward.
-mivoq however, also.
$\wedge$ mivoq a little.
..môrpoq (bd), ..mukarpoq (bd), indicating a direction (sprung from the terminalis: -mut?).
.$n a q$, .rnaq (bd) something unusual. - C. qeqertarnaq a peculiar island.
. nâq favourite. - L. illanãk f. companion.
-narpâ, -ngnârpâ makes or finds it too ... - L. aminãrpa makes it too narrow.
..narpoq causes it to be ..., is to grow ... from. -- L. iklingnarpok is delicious (G. igdligâ likes it). - M. erktsinaktoarl is dreadful (G. ersivoq is afraid). - W. úknachtuk hot (G. ̂̂voq is injured by fire).
-nasaerpoq delays to ...
..naviarpoq is in danger of ...
..neq, has a multifarious application, expressing: the result of, the infinitive of a verb, a comparative or superlative. - uvigdlarneq a widow (uvigdlarpoq loses her husband), angneq the greatest (angivoq). - C. anernek breathing. - M. krorlornerk waterfall (G. qordlorpoq water runs down).
..nerarpâ says that he ...
..nerpoq perhaps ...
.nerpoq, $\_$nerpoq (bd) is pleasant to ... - L. atoranerpok is pleasant to make use of.
..niarpoq strives to ... - M. kraniniartoark is approaching (G. qanigpoq is near).
- nigpoq has now appeared, is to be got.
. nípoq, sungnipoq smells of.
—ngajak, -ngajagpoq almost.
-ngârpoq in a high degree.
- ngavoq is in the state of ..., is similar to ...
-ngerpá takes from him. - L. illangerpa takes a part from it, karlingerpok takes off his (reflexive: own) trousers.
$\therefore$ ngerpoq is desirous of ...
- ngiarpoq is discontented with.
-ngilaq not, the common form for negation - M. siningityunga I don't sleep (G. siningitsunga, nominal partic. I not sleeping).
-ngnarpoq goes to ...
- ngnigpoq (bd), halfiransitive form for trans. verbs.
-ngorpoq becomes or grows so. - utorqángorpoq grows old. M. allángortatoark is altered (G. avdla other).

цnguaq, _nguarpoq small, little, nice.
$\llcorner$ nguvoq (bd) suffers from complaint of ..

- orpoq (bd), indicates a continuation.
.pak (I) (bd), .pâk extreme or, most of all. - L. anginerpãk largest. - M. tingméarpals eagle (G. tingmiaq bird). - W. unakpuk walrusharpoon (G. unâq harpoonshaft).
.pak (II) always in plural: pait many. - igdlorpait m. houses, a town.
-palâq, -palârpoq incapable, awkwardly.
. palugpoq, .palârpoq, .patdlagpoq has the appearance of . . . - C. aoopalukpoke is red (G. auk blood). - M. ingnerpaluktuark flash (G. ingneq fire). - W. knychpaliaguk lightening.
.parpoq, .pasigpoq (bd) is so situated.
- piluk, - pilugpoq bad, vile, rascally.
. poq, with names of animals: has caught ..., of clothes: takes on. - agpápoq has c auks. - L. karlikpok takes on his trousers (G. qardlik). - C. karkleekpoke.
- ralak small, little.
- rarpoq (bd) repeatedly, several times.
- rârpoq (bd), with numerals: has got so many. - mardlorârpoq has got two (f. i. seals).
- ratarpoq at length it will ...
- rérpoq has finished.
-riarpoq goes to..., added to numerals: so many times. mardloriardlune doing it twice.
-rigpoq knows well to ..., is perfectly so - L. erinatsiarikpok has an excellent voice - C. kikparrikpoke is regular square (G. kíparigpoq).
-rqainiùput they are emulating in ...
-rqajarpoq had nearly ...
-rqámerpoq a short time ago.
-rqarpeq hardly, narrowly.
-rqârpoq, -rqâq first. - W. tsingakírbeta "the first sleep" (probably: G. sinig $q \hat{\alpha} r$-fi-ata his first time for sleeping, subjective ending).
-rqavoq is almost in the state of ...
-rqigpog, -rqigsârpoq does it again and better.
-rqôrpoq probably.
-rqortôq, -rqorturoq has it large - L. $\check{c} j i k o r t o v o l$ has large eyes.
-rqúpoq, -rqorpâ passes by it - L. imakorpok goes through the water.
-rquvâ, halftrans. - rqussiroq commands or desires. kivfaminut sanerqur $\hat{a}$ he ordered his servant to make it (see: sarp $\hat{a}$ and $s o r a \hat{a}$.
-rdlaq one who is just now . ..
-rdloq (bd) what is more .
-rnarpoq (bd) does something the first time.
- rorpoq (bd) grows more and more ... - L. perorpok is fullgrown, थ̃niarorpok feels more and more pain.
-rpiaq proper or real. - W. tulukpia (G. talerpiâ) his right hand.
-rpoq grows or becomes so. - quumarpoq is gr. light (qaumanoq is daylight).
$\wedge$ rpoq says or sounds so.
-rrôrpoq is boasting of ...
- rujuk, -rujugpoq good for nothing.
- ruluk something grand.
-rúpoq behind or too late.
(rusugpoq, the same as - gugpoq).
..sarp $\hat{a}, \ldots$ ấrpâ causes or makes it do thus. - M. illitsartoark teaches (G. ilipipa learns it).
- savoq (bd) is in the state of ...
-savoq will or shall; this affix affords the usual way of expressing the future tense, derivatives of it are saerpoq ceases to ..., and sangavoq intends to ...
.. $\operatorname{serpa}$ (bd) makes or causes it to ...
..siaq gained or got, but not by one's own labour. - C . nunaseang (G. nunasiaq) a settler's new country.
: - sigpoq (bd) is rather far towards ...
..simavog has or is done so (expressing the past tense) L. illisimavok is learned - M. illitchimayoark (G. ilipoq has learnt something.
.. sinauvoq, ginauvoq can or is able to -
..siorpoq goes to look for, is occupied with, or travels in ...
- L. aglosiorpok looks for seal holes. - C. akbirsiorbing (G. arfersiorfik) place for whalefishing.
..sivoq acquires or meets with ...; added to verbs: has become so.
..sorâ, torâ believes that ...; if the principal verb is transitive, its subject is placed in terminalis. - kivfaminut sanasorâ he believed that his servant had made it.
.. sugpoq (bd) should like to.
:-suk, a nominal affix of this kind, although not found in the dictionary, must be supposed to exist, occurring especially in local names indicating a likeness. - inugsuk a cairn (inuk man). L. imaksuk swamp (imak sea). C. innoksoot, inugsuk.
-ssâq grand, magnificent.
-ssârpoq rather much or many, also repeatedly. - L. perorsãrpok grows up quickly, nungus $\tilde{\alpha} r p o k$ is soon consumed.
.ssuaq, $\_$ssuaq, ssuarpoq great or very - igdlorssuaq a large house, pîtsorssuag a very poor man.
..ssuseq state or condition. - angissusia its size (angivoq is large).
$t] a i l i v \hat{a}$, tsailivâ deprives him of ..., hinders or prevents ...
..tag (I) (bd), see $g] a q$, the passive participle.
..taq (II), rarely saq, belonging to ... - angutitarput our man, i. e. the man who accompanies us (women). - M. kreyoktark the wood (G. qissul) belonging to a gun.
..tâq, sâq new, newly got.
.tarpog, sarpoq goes to fetch or collect ...
$t$ ]arpoq does it often, uses to, is able to ...
..târpoq repeatedly with regular intervals.
$t] e$ he who has done so to him, a kind of participle to transitive and halftr. verbs, generally requiring a suffix (tâ). - ajoqersortâ his teacher, toqutsissâ his murderer.
..terpoq successively.
.. típâ, ..sipâ causes to ... (used like sorâ). - autdlartípâ sends him off (autdlarpoq goes away). - M. nipititark glued, nipititerôn glue (G. nipigpoq adheres).
- tdlagpoq (bd?) a little, for a moment.
-tdlarpoq, intensifying in connection with an idea of motion.
$t] o q, . s o q$, ssoq, tsoq, the so called nominal participle already mentioned: being or doing so. - L. sennajok (G. sanassoq) a working man. - C. amitoq narrow (G. amipoq, amitsoq). - M. niuvertorle a trader (G. niuverpoq he trades) - W. amituk thin.
-toqaq, -soqaq old.
..torpoq, ..sorpoq makes use of ..., eats or drinks ...; with verbal stems a repeated action.
$t]$ ôrpoq happens to ...
..tôrpoq does or behaves like an ...
-tsagpoq, indicating excitement.
-tseriarpoq, .seriarpoq is willing to ...
$-\boldsymbol{t s e r p} \hat{a}, . \operatorname{serp} \hat{a}$ waits until ...
-tsiaq, .atsiaq tolerable, passable; in some dialects: nice, pretty.
-tuaq, -suaq only. -- ernituâ his only son.
t]uarpoq, -juarpoq continues to ...
$t$ ]uínarpoq incessantly.
-tuvoq, ..suvoq, - tôq, ..sôq large or in a high degree. L. sanatóvole works (G. sanavoq) well, akitóvole is dear, ǐjitúvok has large eyes. - G. aqbirtijung (G. arfertussoq, nomin. parlic.) rich in whales.
-uarpoq too much.
g]umarpoq it will, it shall ..., like savoq indicating the future tense.
g]umavoq wishes or intends to ...
g]ungnarpoq probably or can ...
: - úpâ does so to him or with it, imertaúp $\hat{a}$ fetches water (imertarpoq) to him. - L. tikkiupa comes (G. tiktpoq) with it, brings it.
-useq (I) that by which an action is perceived - oqauseq a word (oqarpoq says). - L. innõsek life (G. inûseq).
-useq (II) belonging to ... - qajartûseq kayak-clothes.
.useq of a special or inferior kind -pôruseq skinbag for blubber.
-ussaq similar to. - M. innouyark an image (G. inûssaq a doll).
:-ut, gut, ssut, utaq or merely a $t$ the nearest cause, means or remedy. - L. aglaut a pen or pencil (G. agdlagpoq writes), innũt provisions (innũvok lives). - M. kapôn a spear (G. kapivâ stabs). - W. shupun a gun (G. supivâ blows at it).
-ut property or store; the sharp distinction attached to the suffixes often requires the application of this affix. - neqe flesh, neqiuta his flesh, i. e. his meat, neqâ his (own body's) flesh; agdlagaq a writ, agdlagauta a writ or letter possessed by him, agdlag $\hat{a}$ what he has written.
$:$-uvoq is so - agdlagauvoq it is written.
-vatdlârpoq, .patdlarpoq too ..., far too ..., too much.
-vfârik (mârik), vfârigpoq lovely, fairly, amiably.
.fik, $-\boldsymbol{v i k}$ place or time where or when -isertarfik entrance.
- L. anguvik hunting time (G. anguvoq catches a seal).
-vik, .pik, vigpoq proper, real. - imavik, imarpik the great ocean. - L. imarbik. - W. immagpyk.
-vkarpâ (bd) totally, generally connected with the sense of bad or evil.
- vsârpoq, ..sârpoq excellent superior. - angneruvsârpoq is the greatest (angneruvoq) of all.


## WORDS FROM THE OTHER DIALECTS CONTAINING MORE DOUBTFUL AFFIXES.

## LABRADOR:

angupsarpok has again caught a seal.

- psapsarpok the same several times.
allupsak soup.
ablornikpok makes small steps.
aglivalliavok continues growing.
pilerkivok wishes to have several things.
mittilerkivok gets many eiderducks.
aporsarpok hurts himself a little.
kaisukpok comes in a bad intention.
nunaluyũk uneven land.
okauserkisarpok speaks low.
nerijiva devoures, consumes all for him.
silairkiva has in him one who is still more stupid than himself.
qaqqarolúk a hill.
kattitsungarpeit gathers them the last time.
adsiluak a complete likeness.
nunaserpok walks about on the land.
ingmigolivok to himself alone.
petovalliavok grows continually poorer.
apigiarpok there is a little snow.
annigiarpok goes out only a little or rarely.
CENTRAL REGIONS:
péuwinynahlahyar to dislike.
péuweweyook to like.
peeokite take!
peterhong'atoo gone.


## MACKENZIE R.:

takumapkarklune going to look.
ilitsimanguyalertoark suffering from insanity. anmalcerotatsiak oblong.

## WESTERN:

pinikherit to give.
juchliaguk healthy.
pinaksiinak may be.
pinachknygatok can not be.
pikusju I give.
peekutumka to give.
peeseekak now.
nakuruk good, nakurumuk very good.
pinychtok a good man.
piliachtu to beat (fight?)
piuchtua 1 will.
piuknachtua I will not.
pinachnuigatale it is not feasible, it won't do. peedlark I have none.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ ) Hereafter if none of the other dialects is quoted, the Greenland grammar always is meant, and generally the latter also applies to the Labrador idiom.

