II.

THE ESKIMO LANGUAGE,
ITS ADMIRABLE ORGANISATION AS TO THE
CONSTRUCTION AND FLEXION OF WORDS.

THE ESKING LANGUAGE. FES ADMIRABLE OFFICENTION AS TO THE CONSEQUENTION AND FLOXION OF WORRS. As to the Central Regions certainly lists of words are given referring to different tribes, but too incomplete to represent different dialocts, for which reason the words have been compiled as belonging to one tongue. Finally the Greenfand language always has been treated as one dialoct, with remarks now and then on aprovinciations. Only recently the Danish expedition to East Greenfand brought bome excellent notes on the words

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

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With regard to the present linguistic essay I have used the following sources:

- (1) Den grønlandske 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 grønlandske Ordbog ved O. Fabricius. Kjøbenhavn 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.
- zigi 1815. duob ni tadwamaa aaw ta atadwag and diw bassale

- (11) The ethnographical section of Sagoskin's voyage 1843—44 in Erdmann's Archive 1849.
 - (12) W. H. Dall: Alaska and its resources 1870.
- (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.» 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 conformably 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 AR-RANGED 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 according 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, preferring 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 "father", sometimes, especially before k and t like a in "at".

when this should be placed before a guttural sound or at the end of a word.

f like ${\bf f}$ in "if", or merely as a sharpened v, turning into a v after a consonant.

g like g in «good».

like i in «it», or ee in «three». O to holyobs molars and

which is a part of the property of the system of the shall do as j

 κ (q), called κa , like a very guttural \mathbf{k} , something between \mathbf{g} , $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}$. 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 ke, like c in "can" or ck in "lack".

l like I in wholys. If the How ylderelor some of bontol od

all like the in "softly", is merely an l sharpened after a consonant.

selm like m in "me". I si shinnosnoo lo noilsoilgge of T

After like n ni «no».ow a bus estaminos tonaxo sidaliza A

of ng a nasal a. A diw nized age brow of a standarde owl

o like o in "other", is the same to u as e is to i.

p like \mathbf{p} in "poor", but also approaching to \mathbf{b} .

r merely as a palatal ${f r}$ and a point of the street ${f r}$

(rng, merely differing from ng 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 «so».

ss, called esh, like sh in «short», but something softer.

t like t in «ten», but also nearly like d.

u like oo in "proof"; before j almost like the german $\ddot{\mathbf{u}}$; in South — and especially in East — Greenland like i.

v like 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} , at like y in "why".

The accents are: \(\to \) short and sharp, \(\tilde{\to} \) long and sharp, \(\tilde{\to} \) 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, rng or ng, 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, ng or v.

If we now examine the methods of spelling employed by authors on the other dialects, and 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:

a as æ, ä, ae, e, i, aa, ea, o.

e - ce, ae, i, o, ee.

f-b, v.

 $g - gg, g', gh, ch, k, \rho k$

i - e, α , ae, ee, ii.

j-y.

 $k - k, k', kr, k', \rho k, \rho k \rho, ch, \rho, ng, rn.$

k-g, q, ng.

and $t \leftarrow u_{\star}$ and the anomaly because it attrains

 $dl-l,\; kl.$ receiped and to will amplitude and must higher stands

Thing - \widetilde{n}_{ullet} , made the assumption decrease admission of solution of

0 — a, oo.

In the mativideal differences. But of equasion b,bb,d , $d \leftarrow q$ who

no $r_{
m corr}
ho, rr_{
m college}$ and the required of ho and ho and ho

and r' - rh, ch, χ, g', ρ. (a saday backmont) and of small blue

s - ch, sch, sh, ç, tch, dj, dj, dz, tç, z. maa la anoitaine

ss -- s, rs, rss, j, ts, ds and the same as for s.

t - n, d. os jadweimos squareq bastasano. To se elli osli (

u - o, oo. w.

v - b, p, u, w.

ad you Combinations of letters varied:

bas aill as i, e, ee. lo bestant a ban an lo san sall toode bins

agdl - okl. or a diw snigod brow tron out neilw shriow 16

aun -- awn. Mastall finstrassid shuibrodus aintisa n

arn — (in the word arnaq a woman) agn, agan, ahan, an, achan, akn, agh, okhan, oghan, aan, on'g'n.

ek as ar, ok, ish, eg, $itk\rho$. gss = dg, dj, $kt\varsigma$, sh, z, rg, hg, tk, g, gg, tg, s. gp = tp. gdl = tl, ll, rgl. $gs = pt\varsigma$. lugs = lipt. rk = kt, khl, rtk, tk, tkr. rf = chw, rw, kv, rkb. rdl = gg. $rss = rkt\varsigma$. ts = dj. uj = iv. vdl = bl, ll. $vk = \rho pk\rho$. vss = dj.

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 iv for uj.

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 dj for ss, gg for gss, but more peculiar is the use of rn and ng 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 dl, 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 dg for ts, ts for ts for

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 MODE 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 signi-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 THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORDS. divided into two classes: (1) INDEPENDENT OR PRIMITIVE, (2) DE-PENDENT OR ADDED, the latter only to be applied in connection with the former, producing COMPOUND 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 SUBORDINATE 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

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.

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 complete 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 4th, 10 of the 5th, and 10 of the 6th 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 FOR-MIDABLE 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. 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., $igdl\acute{u}nguaq$ a small h., $igdl\acute{u}voq$ it is a h., igdluliorpoq he builds a h., $igdlo-qat\^{a}$ 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: $igdlorssualiortugsar\hat{a}$ 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

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, qúqap, qúqat; ûmat heart, ûmatip, ûmatit; inuk man, inûp, inuit.
- (2) sioraq sand, siorqap, siorqat; nûlagaq master, nâlagkap, nûlagkat; 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, denoting 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:

		Sing	ular	Plural		
		Objective.	Subjective.	Objective.	Subjective.	
3d person	his	a	ata	e (it)	isa	
a-suffix	their	at	ata	it (e)	isa	
	his (own)	(ne)	me	ne	me	
e-suffix	their (own)	tik	mik	tik	mik	
2d person	thy	t	vit (pit)	tit	vit	
	your	se	vse	se	vse	
1st person	$ \begin{cases} \mathbf{my} \\ \mathbf{my} \end{cases} $	$egin{array}{c} ga \ (oldsymbol{ra}) \end{array}$	ma	ka	ma	
	our	put	vta	vut	vta	

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	ne
Ablative .			mit	nit
Vialis		٠	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. suffixes have an ng 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 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), $t\acute{a}ss$ there, uv here, there (pointing), ik or iv yonder, av north of 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 α , 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), ûna and unga, f. i. mâne here, mãnga 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 $t\acute{a}ss$ and kig, f. i. $m\acute{a}na$ this one here, ivna he or that yonder. Their flexion is somewhat deviating, f. i.

	Singular	Plural
Objective	ivna	ivko
Subjective	ivssuma	ivkua
Localis	ivssumane	ivkunane
Ablative	ivssumánga	ivkunánga
Vialis	ivssumûna	ivkukut
Terminalis	ivssumúnga	ivkunúnga
Modalis	ivssumínga	ivkuninga.

Somewhat related to this class of words are: n\hat{a} 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:

at with suff. atâ what is below it

sujo — sujoa — before it

kit — kitâ — seaward of it.

PERSONAL WORDS. Pronouns, as often mentioned, 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 ivalit thou. Kleinschmidt derives these words from the supposed stems uva and ile, which, with suffixes for my and thy, could signify: my (being) here, thy (being) there. This hypothesis has been confirmed by the Mackenzie grammar in which ivalit 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 stem 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 future.

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 3d person of the indicative with the suffix likewise of the 3d 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, $rp\hat{a}$ for stems ending in q, f. i. ajoq bad, ajorpoq he or it is bad.
- (2) $gpoq, gp\hat{a}$ for stems ending in k, f. i. $n\hat{a}lak$ obeying, $n\hat{a}lagp\hat{a}$ he obeys him.
- (3) $\not poq$, $\not p\hat{a}$ 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.

			•	3d perso	n's
	With	nout suffix.	•	him	
Φ)	3d Person	{ he they	oq ut	â ât	The second secon
Indicative	2d Person	thou ye	utit use	at arse	And the second s
.∙ ⊆	1st Person	{ I we .	unga ugut	ara arput	
galive	3d Person	he they	a at	auk assuk	
Interrogative	2d Person	{ thou ye	it ise	iuk isiuk	
	3d Person	he they	le lit	liuk lissuk	
Optative	2d Person	{ thou ye	it itse	uk siuk	And the second s
,	1st Person	{ I we	langa lata	lara larput	
	3d Person	he they	lune lutik	} lugo	
Infinitive	2d Person	thou ye	lutit luse	$\bigg\} \qquad \textit{lugo}$	
	1st Person	{ I we	lunga luta	$\left. ight\}$ $lugo$	

- (4) voq, $v\hat{a}$ for stems ending in a vowel without accent, f. i. as a loving, $asav\hat{a}$ he loves him.
- (5) aoq, \hat{a} for stems ending in \acute{e} , f. i. $pig\acute{e}$ possession, $pig\hat{a}$ he owns it.

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

suffix.	2d perso	n's suffix.	1st person's suffix.				
them	thee	you	me	us			
ai ait	} âtit	âse	ânga	âtigut			
atit ase			arma avsinga	avtigut avsigut			
áka avut	avkit avtigit	$\bigg\} \qquad avse$					
agit atigit	} âtit	âse	ânga	âtigut			
igit isigik			inga isinga	$\Bigg\} isigut$			
ligit lisigik	lisit	lise	linga	lisigut			
⊥kit sigik	,		<u>i</u> nga sinya	tigut sigut			
láka lavut	lagi t lavtigit	} lavse		·			
lugit	lutit	luse	lunga	luta			
lugit			lunga	luta			
lugit	lutit	luse	·				
				ta a sa			

					3d person	's
	With	out suffix.		a - s	uffix	
				him	them	
	3d Person	∫ he	mat	mago	magit	
	(\mathbf{a})	they	mata	massuk	matigik	
ve	3d Person	∫ he	ame	amiuk	amigit	
neti	· (e)	they	amik	amiko	amikik	
Conjunctive	Od Dansan	∫ thou	avit	agko	agkit	
co	2d Person) ye	avse	avsiuk	avsigik	
	1st Person	. ∫ . 1	ama	avko	avkit	:
	1st Ferson) we	avta	avtigo	avtigik	-
	3d Person	(he	pat	pago	pagit	
	(a)	they	pata	passuk	patigik	ł
ှ	3d Person	(he	une	uniuk	unigik	
ictiv	(e)	they	unik	uniko	unikit	1
Subjunctive	01 D	∫ thou	uvit	ugko	ugkit	
Sul	2d Person) ye	uvse	uvsiuk	uvsigit	
	1st Person	∫ I	uma	uvko	uvkit	
	1st rerson) we	uvta	uvtigo	uvtigik	
And considerate of the control of th	3d Person	(he		â	ai	
	(a)	they		ât	ait	
Verbal Participle	3d Person	he		ne	ine	
arti	(e)	they		itik	itik	
<u>-</u>	Od Domest	∫ thou		it	itit	
erba	2d Person) ye		igse	ise	-
Ň	1st Person	∫ I		iga	íka	
	ist rerson	we		igput	ivut	

It will be seen that the dependent moods conjunct., subj. and partic. have a double form for the 3d 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.

	suffix.		2d perso	on's suffix.	1st person's suffix			
	e - st	offix them	thee	you	me	us		
	mane mane	matik matik	matit	mase	manga	matigut		
			} amisit	amise	aminga	amisigu		
	angne avsine	agtik avtik			angma avsipga	avtigut avsigut		
	avne avtine	avtik avtik	avkit avtigit	$\bigg\} \qquad avse$				
	} pane	patik	patit	pase	panga	patigut		
And the last of th	-		$\bigg\} \qquad unisit$	unise	uninga	unisigut		
	ungne uvsine	ugtik uvtik		. *	ungma uvsinga	uvtigut uvs i gut		
	uvne uvtine	uvtik uvtik	uvkit uvtigit	$\bigg\} \qquad uvse$				
	âne âne	âtik âtik	âtit	ûse	ânya	âtigut		
kë .	ingne	igtik			ingma	ivtigut		
100	ivsine	ivtik			ivsinga	ivsigut		
And the second s	$ivne \ ivtine$	ivtik ivtik	ivkit ivtigit	$\bigg\} \qquad ivse$	•			

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. Kleinschmidt 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:

	Verbal	stems	of:					ch	ie	f ch	aı	٠.:		cc	n	ne	cting char.:
1	class	ending	in	q						rp	٠.		•				r
2			-	\boldsymbol{k}						gp		٠.					<u>_</u> 'k
3			-	t						_'p		•					$\vec{k} \ (\vec{n})$
4			-	-						-v							-g
5			-	é			٠.			á							ig

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, nâlayparma thou obeyst me, nâlangmatigik as they had obeyed them, nâlâkuvsinga if ye obey me; tikipoq he comes or has come, tikile may he come!, tikitdlune he coming; takuvâ he sees or saw him, takugangma as thou sawst me, takugpanga when he sees me, takugivsigut ye who see or saw us; oqarfigâ he says to him, tikikame oqarfigânga as he had arrived, he said to me, tikingmat oqarfigânga as he had arrived, he . 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 toquisivoq 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 <u>ingit</u> 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: goq and $g\hat{a}$ for voq and $v\hat{a}$, in Labrador koq and $k\hat{a}$ for poq and $p\hat{a}$. In Labr. there exist no verbs of the 5th class and what appears most remarkable, no verbal participle. Certain e-suffixes have also disappeared.

The MACKENZIE 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 without suffix generally end in toaq, joaq, joq, toq, taq, raq; with suffix in a, ja, va, ra and ga.

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 -rag?
 - (4) for -oq, apparently the same as 2,
- (5) for -ik, probably a confounding of nominal 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 Bar	row	Greenland							
		(n	ominal participle)						
I am hungry	kaktungä	$k\hat{a}gpunga$	(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!							
1 sleep	siniktungä	sinigpunga	(tunga)						
Thou sleepst	— tutin	- putit	(tutit)						
He sleeps	— tuä	-poq	(-toq)						
As he slept	sinigmut	sining mat							
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 half-transitive 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 permitting this to be inflected independent of the addition. The most common are: lo and; le but; taoq also; lunt or, even; me indeed, to be sure; toq expressing a desire; lusoq like; goq one says.

The independent particles may be divided into: (1) those for time, fi. 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 suffixes 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 verbal 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: oquitigingila pigingne he did not say that he (himself) possessed it, whereas pigiga would indicate: that he (another) possessed it.—kivfane oquitiga soraerukane literally: his (own) servant, him he mentioned, him who abandoned him, i. e. he said that his servant had abandoned him, whereas soraerukine would signify: that he had abandoned his servant.

The conjunctive corresponds to sentences with "when, as, because", the subjunctive to them with: "if, when, supposed". 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: — uvoq is —, and $-r\hat{a}$ has it for —, f. i. $n\hat{a}lagauvoq$ he is a chief, $n\hat{a}lagar\hat{a}$ 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) suêrîkame autdlásassoq tusaramink tuningingmago 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 account of being destitute of everything.

This is composed of 4 sentences:

suêrúkame autdlásavoq when he was destitute of everything he would depart.

autdásassoq tusarpâ him who would depart he had heard of.

tusaramiuk tuningilâ as he had heard of him, he did not give him anything.

tuningingmago iluaringilât as he gave him nothing they disapproved of him.

(2) ivna autdlartoq suérúkame autdlásassoq ningavata tusaramiuk, unigtikumavallugo 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 derivatives 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. igdlinguaq a small house, and igdlulik 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, gk, k for g, and s, ts, 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.
- $\underline{}$ or $\underline{}$, 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 OF THE GREENLANDISH AFFIXES WITH EXAMPLES OF THEIR USE TAKEN FROM ALL THE DIALECTS.

g]ajugpoq is prone to, usually. — pigajugpoq gets (pivoq) frequently (i. e. seals), is a good hunter.

. aq (bd) and — araq young or small — $\hat{a}t\hat{a}raq$ young seal, orpigaq a small bush (orpik) — L. akkigiarak young ptarmigan — C. eqaluaq a kind of salmon (eqaluk). — M. kurark, kuraraluk a small river $(k\hat{a}k)$ or brook. — W. piagak a young (G. pik a thing).

(-aq, see : gaq).

g]aluaq, g]aluarpoq having been, but is not longer so, rather, certainly. — nukarigalua his deceased younger brother (nukaq), taku-galuarpaka 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), equivaluit large salmon.
 - : araoq uses to ..., frequently.
 - arpoq (bd) slightly, little.
- arssuk anomalous, not of the usual kind. ârdluarssuk a rare kind of whales C. kangertluaqdjung local name for a small flord (G. kangerdluk).

gasuarpoq hastily.

: - atârpoq in earnest, duly.

gatdlarpoq just, only first.

- avoq (bd) a continuation, repetition.
- : erivoq, lerivoq is occupied with something ujarqerivoq is working in stones.
- $erdluerp\hat{a}$ dirties him with . . . $pauerdluerp\hat{a}$ d. him with soot (paoq).
- : $erp\hat{a}$, $lerp\hat{a}$ furnishes with. L. $ikkilerp\hat{a}$ wounds him (G. ike wound), $akkilerp\hat{a}$ pays him (G. ake payment).
- erpâ, îvoq, erserpoq, erúpâ deprives him of ... matuerpâ
 opens it (mato covering) L. ernerpoq has lost his son (G. erneq)
 M. néarkroertoark cuts off the head (G. niaqoq).

- $-g\hat{a}$, $-r\hat{a}$ (halftransitive: gingnigpoq) has it for ..., finds it to be ... $-erner\hat{a}$ has him for, or it is his son, $angig\hat{a}$ means it is large (angivoq); a peculiar prolonged form is -giyput they are ... to each other. In L. and probably also in C. and M. this affix is $-giv\hat{a}$, $-riv\hat{a}$, f. i. $eneriv\hat{a}$, and the Greenland form may be merely a contraction.
- -gaq (bd), saq (bd), -ssaq (bd), ... taq (bd), -aq (bd), a kind of passive participle signifying: he to whom is done so. L. $\tilde{a}ktugak$ skinned animal (G. $\hat{a}gtorp\hat{a}$ skins it) M. igitark (G. $igip\hat{a}$ throws it away) thrown away. W. keepeegak what is cut (G. $kipiv\hat{a}$ 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 it 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. angutiksa male infant (G. angut a man), angutiksa female infant (G. arnaq woman).
 - -guaq, -ruaq (bd) inferior, insignificant.
- —gugpoq, —rugpoq suffers from ..., or is longing for. L. akkigerukpoq is longing for ptarmigan, imerukpunga I want water (G. imeq).
- $:iaq,\;-liaq\;$ made or wrought. $p\hat{u}li\hat{a}\;$ the sack $(p\hat{o}q)\;$ which he has made.
- g]iaq 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).
- iaq, giaq, riaq, pak (verbal form iagpoq) plenty, a multitude. igdlorpait many houses. L. inugiarput they are many people. C. inuiaktunik W. inyugiuktu «people».
 - $-iarp\hat{a}$ deprives him of.
- $:iarpoq\,,\,\,-liarpoq\,\,{
 m goes}\,\,{
 m to.}\,\,-\,\,{
 m L.}\,\,\it{eqaluliarpok}\,\,{
 m goes}\,\,{
 m fishing}\,\,{
 m salmon.}$
 - g]iartorpoq goes or comes for the purpose of.
- -inaq, -inarpoq only, merely. L. agdloinak 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. peechuk no, not (G. pîtsoq being without any thing), ukumailuta "a heavy shaft".
 - -isorpog is gone to fetch or look for ...
- : is sarpoq, -lissarpoq takes something along with him on leaving.
- :— $iv\hat{a}$ (bd), — $ssiv\hat{a}$, — $liv\hat{a}$ gets it thus done with. $kivisiv\hat{a}$ lost it (f. i. his seal) by sinking (kivivoq).
 - -ivoq a halftransitive 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 (attivok).
 - jârpoq early. L. annijarpok goes out early (annivok).
 - -jarssugpoq (bd) indistinctly.
 - -javoq is prone to ...
- juipoq, ssuipoq never. L. annijuipok never goes out. M. okrayeïtuark mute (G. oqarpoq speaks), nerretchuïtork can never eat (G. nerivoq).
- -qaoq the most common emphatical ending of verbs, frequently also used without any signification at all.
 - -garpog has, or there is. L. ekallukarpok there are salmon.
- qat fellow or one of the same kind. angeqatâ one who is as tall (angivoq) as he. M. nunarkat countryman.
- -qatarpoq repeatedly. L. auksarkatarpok it was repeatedly thawing.
- -qut, rqut, rqutaq a remedy. L. perkut property. (G. pivoq he gets).
 - $\pm k\tilde{a}q$ having large ... kigutik $\hat{a}q$ having large teeth.
- kaneq somewhat near to ... W. áwanikunnä 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.

- $-\mathit{kipoq}$, $\mathit{kitdlivoq}$, $\mathit{kerdluk}$ small. L. $\mathit{akkekipok}$ is low-prized.
 - 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.
- $-kip\hat{a}$ (bd) believes it to be ... $piikip\hat{a}$ 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 goes quickly).
- leq, 'dleq farthest towards L. alleq lowest. C. akugd-lirn middlemost. M. kingulerk hindmost. W. kadlik outer garment (G. qak surface).
 - $-dlerp\hat{a}$ (I) regales him with ...
 - $-dlerp\hat{a}$ (II) (bd), indicates: bringing in a bad situation.
 - -lerpoq begins to ..., now.
 - $-lerss \hat{a}rpoq$ intends to \dots
 - 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).
- $-\mathit{luarpoq}$ a little too much C. peelooakpoke «too little» (G. \tilde{pipoq} is poor?).
 - .dluarpoq well, right.
- .dlugpoq, —lugpoq has or is bad. M. iyaluktoark has bad eyes (G. isse eye).
 - . dluinarpoq completely.
 - . dluk, luk bad M. tsillaluk bad weather (G. sila weather).
- _mak, _mauvoq skilled in ... C. pimmain a skilful man, leader.
- mavoq is in the state of ... L. ikkomavok is burning (G. $ikip\hat{a}$ kindles it).
 - -mivoq (bd) perverted, awkward.

- *imivoq* however, also.
- *_mivoq* a little.
- $..m\^{o}rpoq$ (bd), ..mukarpoq (bd), indicating a direction (sprung from the terminalis: -mut?).
- .naq, .rnaq (bd) something unusual. C. qeqertarnaq a peculiar island.
 - $.n\hat{a}q$ favourite. L. $illan\tilde{a}k$ f. companion.
- $-narp\hat{a}$, $-ngn\hat{a}rp\hat{a}$ makes or finds it too ... L. $amin\tilde{a}rpa$ makes it too narrow.
- ..narpoq causes it to be ..., is to grow ... from. L. iklingnarpok is delicious (G. igdligâ likes it). M. erktsinaktoark is dreadful (G. ersivoq is afraid). W. úknachtuk hot (G. ûvoq 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), angueq 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).
 - nigpog has now appeared, is to be got.
 - .nipoq, sungnipoq smells of.
 - -ngajak, -ngajagpoq almost.
 - -ngârpoq in a high degree.
 - ngavoq is in the state of ..., is similar to ...
- $-ngerp\hat{a}$ takes from him. L. illangerpa takes a part from it, karlingerpok takes off his (reflexive: own) trousers.
 - _ngerpoq is desirous of . . .
 - ngiarpoq is discontented with.
- <u>ingilaq</u> not, the common form for negation M. siningityunga I don't sleep (G. siningitsunga, nominal partic. I not sleeping).
 - ngnarpoq goes to ...
 - ngnigpoq (bd), halftransitive form for trans. verbs.

- <u>ingorpoq</u> becomes or grows so. utorqángorpoq grows old. M. allángortatoark is altered (G. avdla other).
 - ∠nguaq, ∠nguarpoq small, little, nice.
 - _nguvoq (bd) suffers from complaint of ...
 - orpoq (bd), indicates a continuation.
- . pak (I) (bd), .pâk extreme or, most of all. L. anginerpãk largest. M. tingméarpak eagle (G. tingmiaq bird). W. ûnakpuk walrusharpoon (G. unâq harpoonshaft).
- pak (II) always in plural: pait many. igdlorpait m. houses, a town.
 - $-pal\hat{a}q$, $-pal\hat{a}rpoq$ 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. $agp\acute{a}poq$ 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 ...
 - rêrpoq has finished.
- $-\operatorname{\it riarpoq}$ goes to . . ., added to numerals: so many times. $\operatorname{\it mardloriardlune}$ doing it twice.
- <u>rigpoq</u> knows well to ..., is perfectly so L. erinatsiarikpok has an excellent voice C. kikparrikpoke is regular square (G. kiparigpoq).
 - $-\mathit{rqainiuput}$ they are emulating in ...
 - -rqajarpoq had nearly ...
 - rqamerpoq a short time ago.
 - rqarpoq hardly, narrowly.
- $-rq\hat{a}rpoq$, $-rq\hat{a}q$ first. W. $tsingak\acute{a}rbeta$ «the first sleep» (probably: G. $sinig\ q\hat{a}r$ -fi-ata his first time for sleeping, subjective ending).
 - -rqavoq is almost in the state of ...
 - rqigpoq, rqigsarpoq does it again and better.
 - rqôrpoq probably.

- $-rqort\hat{o}q$, -rqortuvoq has it large L. $\tilde{c}jikortovok$ has large eyes.
- $-rq\acute{u}poq$, $-rqorp\acute{a}$ passes by it L. imakorpok goes through the water.
- $-rquv\hat{a}$, halftrans. -rqussivoq commands or desires. -kivfaminut saner $quv\hat{a}$ he ordered his servant to make it (see: $sarp\hat{a}$ and $sor\hat{a}$).
 - $-rdl\dot{a}q$ one who is just now . . .
 - -rdloq (bd) what is more ...
 - rnarpog (bd) does something the first time.
- -rorpoq (bd) grows more and more ... L. perorpok is fullgrown, $\tilde{\alpha}niarorpok$ feels more and more pain.
- rpiaq proper or real. W. tulukpia (G. talerpiā) his right hand.
- <u>irpoq</u> grows or becomes so. qaumarpoq is gr. light (qaumanog is daylight).
 - 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).

- $...sarp\hat{a}, ...sarp\hat{a}$ causes or makes it do thus. M. illitsartoark teaches (G. ilíp \hat{a} learns it).
 - -savoq (bd) is in the state of ...
- <u>resavoq</u> 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 ...
 - .. $serp\hat{a}$ (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 ...
- ... simavoq 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.
- ...sor \hat{a} , $tor\hat{a}$ believes that ...; if the principal verb is transitive, its subject is placed in terminalis. $kivfaminut\ sanasor\hat{a}$ 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.
- ssårpoq rather much or many, also repeatedly. L. perorsårpok grows up quickly, nungusårpok is soon consumed.
- .ssuaq, _ssuaq, ssuarpoq great or very igdlorssuaq a large house, pîtsorssuag a very poor man.
- $\dots ssuseq$ state or condition. angissusia its size (angivoq is large).
 - t] $ailiv\hat{a}$, $tsailiv\hat{a}$ deprives him of ..., hinders or prevents ...
 - ..taq (I) (bd), see g|aq, 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. qissuk) belonging to a gun.
 - $..t\hat{a}q$, $s\hat{a}q$ new, newly got.
 - .tarpoq, 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 (ti). ajoqersortâ his teacher, toquisissâ his murderer.
 - .. terpoq successively.
 - $tip\hat{a}$, $...sip\hat{a}$ causes to ... (used like $sor\hat{a}$). $autdlartip\hat{a}$ sends him off (autdlarpoq goes away). M. nipititark glued, $nipititer\hat{o}n$ glue (G. nipigpoq adheres).
 - -tdlagpoq (bd?) a little, for a moment.
 - -tdlarpoq, intensifying in connection with an idea of motion.
 - t]oq, .soq, 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. niuvertork 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 orpog happens to ...
 - ...tôrpoq does or behaves like an ...
 - tsagpoq, indicating excitement.
 - -tseriarpoq, .seriarpoq is willing to ...
 - tserpâ, . serpâ waits until . . .
- -t siaq, . at siaq tolerable, passable; in some dialects: nice, pretty.
 - tuaq, suaq only. ernituâ his only son.
 - t | uarpoq, -juarpoq continues to ...
 - t uinarpoq incessantly.
- —tuvoq, ..suvoq, —tôq, ..sôq large or in a high degree. L. sanatóvok works (G. sanavoq) well, akitóvok is dear, ijitóvok has large eyes. — C. aqbirtijung (G. arfertussoq, nomin. parlic.) rich in whales.
 - uarpoq too much.
- $g]um{arpoq}$ it will, it shall \dots , like savoq indicating the future tense.
 - g]umavoq wishes or intends to ...
 - q unquarpoq probably or can ...
- :— $ip\hat{a}$ does so to him or with it, $imertaip\hat{a}$ 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 $-p\hat{o}ruseq$ skinbag for blubber.
 - -- ussaq similar to. M. innouyark an image (G. inûssaq a doll).
- :—ut, gut, ssut, ulaq or merely a t the nearest cause, means or remedy. L. aglaut a pen or pencil (G. agdlagpoq writes), innūt provisions (innūvok 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, nequata his flesh, i. e. his meat, neqû his (own body's) flesh; agdlagaq a writ, agdlagauta a writ or letter possessed by him, agdlagû what he has written.
 - : uvoq is so agdlagauvoq it is written.

- vatdlårpoq, .patdlarpoq too ..., far too ..., too much.
- vfârik (mârik), vfârigpoq lovely, fairly, amiably.
- .fik, _vik 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.
- $-vkarp\hat{a}$ (bd) totally, generally connected with the sense of bad or evil.
- $-vs\^arpoq$, $...s\^arpoq$ excellent superior. angneruvs\^arpoq 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. nunalugāk uneven land. okauserkisarpok speaks low. nerijiva devoures, consumes all for him. silairkiva has in him one who is still more stupid than himself. qaqqarolák 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:

péuwingnahlahyar to dislike. péuweweyook to like. peeokite take!

peterhong'atoo gone.

MACKENZIE R .:

takumapkarklune going to look.

ilitsimanguyalertoark suffering from insanity.

anmalærotatsiak 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 I will.

piuknachtua I will not.

pinachnuigatak it is not feasible, it won't do.

peedlark I have none.

pelakith tilkir! pelarkandistan Bene ~

THE STATE OF

takimagkarlikna voluv 10 look. Attriogramyaleroomb sufficing from insulity. amindaratarata oblong.

· 2011/07/2012

pinddevit to give.

pindesingle healthy
pinachengale way bepinachengale sure.

pidusja 1 give.

pockultumka to give.

pockultumka to give.

pockeckat now.

picketa now.

pingetice a stout maps.

pingetice a stout maps.

pinceting to beat (fight?)

pinceting t will.

pinceting t will.