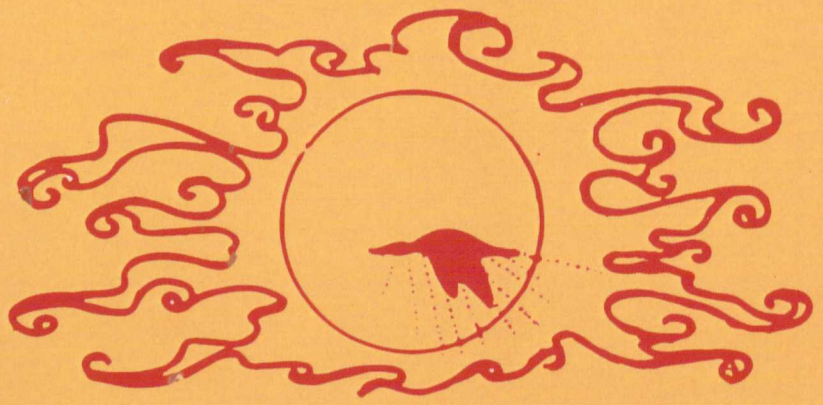

AN Aleutiq Dictionary for Port Graham and English Bay

KENAI PENINSULA BOROUGH SCHOOL DISTRICT
BILINGUAL PROGRAM

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dictionary is the outgrowth of an Alutiiq stem list begun by Jeff Leer in 1971 and continuing to the present under the auspices of the Alaska Native Language Center. The list started with stems used in the first Alutiiq publication by the Alaska Native Language Center, Unigkua'it Paluwigmiut Nanwalegmiut-hlu (retitled Sugcestun Unigkuat), which is a collection of traditional stories which was collected from the people of Port Graham and transcribed by Derenty Tabios. This stem list continued to grow during grammatical research with Tabios, and during Leer's field trips and visits to Port Graham and English Bay many new stems were gathered from different people and added to the list. During 1974 Leer gathered a considerable amount of material from Sergius Moonin, but much of this is not given in this dictionary since it is not commonly known and used today. Undoubtedly one of the most important sources of vocabulary and word usage has been the Anahonak family of English Bay, and in particular Carl Anahonak, who has been helping Leer learn to speak Kenai Peninsula Alutiiq over a period of more than five years on a voluntary basis, as well as while working for the Alaska Native Language Center and the National Bilingual Materials Development Center. With his assistance the grammatical structure of the conversational language has been fully explored. Nevertheless, most of the people of Port Graham and English Bay have contributed something to this dictionary, and in this sense, it is their gift to their children.

During 1976-77 the National Bilingual Materials Development Center, directed by Tupou Pulu, has been working on pairs of dictionaries of Alaska native languages for instruction in the schools: one, called a pictionary, for beginning and younger students, which features a picture with each of approximately 500 entries; and one called a junior dictionary for intermediate students, which has a larger vocabulary of between 2500 and 3000 entries. Since ANLC was already planning to publish the Kenai Peninsula Alutiiq conversational dictionary,

and since the aims of these two dictionaries were very similar, it was decided that NBMDC and ANLC would cooperate in producing a joint dictionary which would fill the needs of both the Junior Dictionary and the ANLC conversational dictionary, with ANLC providing the dictionary framework, and NBMDC providing sentence examples. Accordingly, NBMDC held a workshop in October of 1977 with Arthur Moonin, Carl Anahonak, Dan Anahonak Jr., Ralph Johnson, and Jeff Leer as participants. During this workshop uncommon words were eliminated from the stem list and sentence examples were written for about two-thirds of the dictionary entries. Most of the examples were written by Arthur Moonin and Carl Anahonak. During November of 1977 the rest of the sentence examples were written by Anahonak, who was working for NBMDC, in collaboration with Leer. We feel that this collaboration has been fruitful, and hope that the finished product may be of use both to those who know the language and to those who are trying to learn it.

THE NAME 'ALUTIIQ'

Many people who use this dictionary may not be familiar with the name 'Alutiiq,' since this language has elsewhere been referred to as Sugpiaq, Sugcestun, Suk Eskimo, Chugach Eskimo, and Pacific Gulf Yupik. However, the overwhelming consensus of local opinion is that the name 'Alutiiq' is preferable to any of these.

The Alutiiq language is not the language of the people who inhabit the Aleutian Chain; it is a member of the Eskimo family of languages which is split into two dialects: Koniag Alutiiq (Kodiak Island and Perryville, Chignik, Port Heiden, Pilot Point on the Alaskan Peninsula), and Chugach Alutiiq (Port Graham, English Bay, Seldovia on the Kenai Peninsula and the Prince William Sound). These people have been called 'Aleuts' since the time of Russian contact, since the Russians did not distinguish between the Alutiiqs and the Aleutian Aleuts. Even though most Alutiiqs are aware of the fact that they have common ancestry with the Yupiks, and that their language is related to the Yupik language, they consider themselves Aleuts and not Eskimos. The name 'Sugpiaq' was originally used as a name for the people; this name is still used by some of the older people, but nowadays most people do not consider this to be a generic name, and say that it simply means 'a real person,' or even 'just like a person'; hence, it is not an appropriate name for their people.

We regret the confusion it may cause the scientific community to use this new name here, but we believe that it would be unwise to try to force an unwelcome name on these people.

INTRODUCTION

A. The Alphabet

a	akit 'money'	r	erina 'voice'
c	ca 'I don't know'	rr	rraq'aq 'blister'
e	ena 'house'	ɣ	wiitɣuuq 'pail'
g	agi 'go!'	s	suk 'person'
gg	ggaateq 'chest (body part)'	t	taata 'father, dad'
ggw	ggwa 'here'	u	una 'this one'
hm	ahm'akuuq 'pine cone'	w	weg'et 'grass'
hn	pehnaq 'cliff'	y	yaasiik 'box'
hng	pehnguq 'hill'		
i	ika 'over there'		
k	kinaq 'who'		
kw	kwegaa 'he is lifting it'		
l	luk 'onion'		
ll	lla 'outside'		
m	maama 'mother, mom'		
n	nuna 'land'		
ng	ngigta 'den, cave'		
p	patuq 'cover'		
q	qayaq 'boat		

INTRODUCTION TO THE ALPHABET

FOR ALUTIIQ SPEAKERS

The alphabet used in this dictionary was designed for the Alutiiq language, which is spoken mainly in the following towns and villages:

Koniag Alutiiq

Kodiak Island:

- Ouzinkie
- Old Harbor
- Akhiok
- Karluk
- Larsen Bay
- Port Lions

Alaska Peninsula:

- Perryville
- Chignik
- Port Heiden
- Pilot Point

Chugach Alutiiq

Kenai Peninsula:

- English Bay
- Port Graham
- Seldovia

Prince William Sound

- (Chenega)
- Tatitlek
- Cordova

This dictionary contains most of the conversational vocabulary of the Kenai Peninsula dialect; much of this vocabulary is also used, sometimes with small differences in pronunciation, in the Prince William Sound dialect, which together form the Chugach branch of the Alutiiq language.

Above we give the letters of the Alutiiq alphabet with an example to show how they are pronounced. The letters are the same as those used in the English alphabet, except that certain of the letters are pronounced quite differently from the way they are in English. This is because Alutiiq has some sounds that are not found in English, and in order to write these sounds, we take a few letters of the English alphabet and give them a different pronunciation so as to be able to write all the sounds

in the Alutiiq language. There are five letters that have especially different sounds in Alutiiq: c, e, g, q, r. If you learn the Alutiiq pronunciation of these letters, you will find it fairly easy to read Alutiiq. Also, you should learn the pronunciation of the double letters ll and ng.

First, let us take a look at the vowels used in Alutiiq. We use a, e, i, u, but not o. Each vowel has only one basic sound in Alutiiq, unlike English, where each vowel may be pronounced in many different ways. The vowel a is similar to the a in English what; compare Alutiiq ggwa 'here', or when long, as in father, compare Alutiiq taata 'father'. The vowel e is similar to the e in English ticket, compare Alutiiq ketmi 'out in the open'. But notice that Alutiiq e is not like the English 'short e' sound, as in 'pet'. For those of you who read Russian, Alutiiq e is something like Russian ы. Thus ena 'house' would be written in Russian letters ына. Alutiiq i sounds something like English ee or Russian и, as in imaq 'ocean', in Russian letters имак'. Alutiiq u sounds something like English oo or Russian у, as in una 'this one', in Russian letters уна.

There are also two special vowel combinations which should be learned:

ai	aiggaq 'hand'
au	auk 'blood'

As for the consonants, the letter c is used in Alutiiq for the sound which is something like ch in English, as in cacaq 'something'. Notice also the combination ces, as in macestaq 'coal'. The double letter ll is pronounced with a sound not found in English, which can easily be rememberd by thinking of the word elltuq 'it is letting off steam or air', since this sound is made by letting out air from the mouth along the sides of the tongue. Notice also the combination tell, as in tekitellraa 'he arrived'.

The letter q, as in qayaq 'boat', is similar to k, except that it is made farther back in the throat, by raising the back of the tongue to touch the back of the roof of the mouth, where the uvula hangs. The uvula looks like this:

Compare the sound of k and q in these words:

(all'inguq)	iingalaq	'(one) eye'
(mal'uk)	iingalak	'(two) eyes'
kaugyaq		'fox'
qaugyaq		'sand'
tak'uq		'it's long'
taq'uq		'it's done'

The letters g and r represent sounds which are not found in English, but they are very frequent in Alutiiq words, so it is important to learn them well. The consonant g is made at the same place in the mouth as English g, but the mouth does not completely close in making this sound, so that it gives the impression of being smoother and more continuous than the English g. Compare for example English g as in pig and Alutiiq g as in igluku 'swallow it'. Other words with this sound are Aga'un 'God' and egaagaa 'he is cooking it'. Notice also the combinations keg as in ikukegka 'I found it' and qeg as in tangqegka 'I saw it'.

Alutiiq r, as in arnaq 'woman', is similar to g, except that it is made further back in the throat. In fact, r is made in the same location in the mouth as is q, as was described above, but it is smoother and continuous, like the g. For those who have studied German or Parisian French, Alutiiq r is like the r in these languages. Here are some pairs of words showing the contrast of g and r:

agyaq 'star'
aryaa'aq 'young lady'

igua 'I'm swallowing'
irua 'his leg'

Notice also the combination qer, as in angqertuq 'it hurts'.

You will probably find that it is not difficult to read Alutiiq once you have learned the sounds of the letters given above: the vowels a, e, i, u; and the consonants c, ll, q, g, r. So if you just want to learn to read the dictionary, go back and review the sounds of the letters. However, for someone who wishes to learn more about the alphabet, we include a section on the voiceless consonants.

Voiceless Consonants

To get the idea of what is meant by the word voiceless, say the sound of l as in liitaa 'he's learning it'. Touch your voicebox when you say it. You can feel it vibrating. Now say the sound of ll as in lliigaa 'he is putting it down', and touch your voicebox. This time, there is no vibration. This vibration we call voice, so we say that l is voiced but ll is voiceless.

The same relationship holds between g and gg, and r and rr. For example, say the sound of g in the word igaq 'writing', and compare it with the sound of gg in the word aiggaq 'hand'. If you feel your voicebox, you can easily tell that g is voiced and gg is voiceless. Do the same thing with r as in iruq 'leg' and rr as in nulirra 'his wife'.

The consonants m, n, and ng (pronounced as in English sing) all have voiceless companions which are written with h in front of them. For example, compare the n in ena 'house' with the n in pehnaq 'cliff'. Note that hn is said with air coming through the nose--you can feel it if you put your hand in front of your nose. Compare also the sound of m as in ermigwik 'washbasin' with hm as in arhmaasuut 'tomcod eggs', and the sound of ng as in anguteq 'old man' with hng as in qahnguq 'kelp'.

If you say the consonants p, t, c, k, kw, q, s, ll while touching the voicebox, you can easily see that these sounds are all voiceless. Thus the consonants p, t, c, k, kw, q, s, ll, gg, rr, hm, hn, hng are all voiceless consonants in Alutiiq;

all the other consonants are voiced. Note in Alutiiq voiced g and r very rarely occur next to the other voiceless consonants, but voiceless gg and rr are quite commonly found next to voiceless consonants. Because of this, so as to simplify the spellings of many words, voiceless gg and rr are written with single g and r next to voiceless consonants[1], as is shown by the following words:

itra 'come in' (instead of itrra)
sapga 'his hat' (instead of sapgga)
tagtaa 'he is putting it up'
arlluk 'killer whale'

Likewise, the voiceless consonants hm, hn, hng are frequently found following voiceless consonants, whereas their voiced equivalents seldom are. Thus, hm, hn, hng are written without the h (m, n, ng) when they follow p, t, k, q, ll, as in

ikna 'that one' (not ikhna)
taqmak 'dress' (not taqhmak)
ellminek 'himself, herself'

These rules of spelling are called undoubling rules.

Note also that the vowel e can also be voiceless. In this case, it does not have a distinction of its own, but sounds like breath released from the mouth, without voice. Notice how the e is pronounced in the following words:

agutekutaraa 'she's going to take him along'
ngigtehmi 'in the den, cave'
Alu'utiicestun 'in Aleut'
niskegka 'I heard him'
tangqegka 'I saw him'
et'ellraa 'he was there'

[1] except after s. The reason for this is that s may sometimes be voiced, so that it may be necessary to distinguish between a voiced and voiceless following consonant.

Notice also that in the syllable ne, the e does not have a separate sound, but ne sounds like a long n, as in the words

agen'etuq 'he's not going'
tangen'ellkegka 'I didn't see him'

These are most of the things you will need to learn to become a fluent reader of Alutiiq. There are other things which may be learned in the study of Alutiiq, but they are best learned in a classroom situation.

Introduction for Linguists

A. Phoneme Inventory

Consonant Chart

	Labials	Alveolars		Velars		Uvulars
		Lateral	Apical	Unrounded	Rounded	
Stops	p (p)	t (t)	č (c)	k (k)	k^w (kw)	q (q)
Voiced Fricatives		l (l)	y (y)	ɣ (g)	w [w~$ɣ^w$](w)	ʀ (r)
Voiceless Fricatives		ɬ (ll,l)[1]	s (s)	x (gg,g)[1]	x^w (ggw)	χ (rr,r)[1]
Voiced Nasals	m (m)	n (n)		ŋ (ng)		
Voiceless[2] Nasals	m̥ (hm,m)[1]	n̥ (hn,n)[1]		ŋ̥ (hng,ng)[1]		
"Russian r"			r (ř)			

Vowel Chart

	Front	Back
High	i [i~e] (i)	u [u~o] (u)
	ɨ [ɨ~ə] (e)[3]	
Low	a [a~ɒ] (a)	

In the above charts, the phoneme is given, followed by its phonetic realization unless this is identical with the phoneme as written, with the corresponding orthographic representation given in parentheses. Phonemic notation will not be employed in the rest of the introduction since the orthography is phonemically adequate.

[1] See Section C.

[2] Actually, the phonetic realization of the voiceless nasals is more like [$^{m}_{\circ}$m], [$^{n}_{\circ}$n], [$^{ŋ}_{\circ}$ŋ] , but for the sake of simplifying the phonetic orthography, we use the simple symbols.

[3] Also voiceless; see section G.

The above inventory includes the sounds used in spelling all but a very few problematic words and Orthodox names. There are four additional letters which are reserved for such exceptional words: h h , which is found only in interjections such as ah-aa 'oh!' and hugtii 'whew! I'm tired'; and f [f], é [e~ɛ][1], o [o], which, along with ř, occur only in words of Russian or English origin.

B. Stops

Stops are unaspirated before voiced vowels and aspirated at the end of a syllable or, superficially, before voiceless e, which is itself equivalent to syllabic aspiration. When lenis and following a voiced sound, stops are lightly voiced, so that, especially in this position, p will sound somewhat like [b], t will sound like [d], c will sound like [ǰ], and k will sound like [g], that is, to an English ear. However, this voicing is not phonemically significant in Alutiiq. Therefore, the beginner is cautioned not to mistake lenis k for a voiced g[ɣ] (which is not a stop at all but a fricative, which means that the flow of breath is never completely blocked off in its articulation); moreover, [ɣ] is fully voiced.

C. Voiceless Fricatives and Nasals

The single-letter fricatives g and r represent the voiceless phonemes [x, χ] next to all voiceless consonants except after s. Likewise the nasals without h, that is m, n, and ng, represent the voiceless phonemes [m̥, n̥, ŋ̊] after all stops and ll.[2]

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[1]The allophone [e] of i occurs preceding a uvular consonant, whereas é never occurs in this position.

[2]Voiceless nasals do not occur syllable-finally except when geminated.

Any violation of this general rule is indicated by an apostrophe separating the two consonants.[1] This knowledge is sufficient for knowing how to read Alutiiq, but in learning how to write, the rules need to be stated differently. The following rules are called the undoubling rules:

1. Syllable-final gg and rr are written with a single letter (g, r) unless they represent a geminated consonant which is carried over to the next syllable.

agkut	[..xk..]	'those over there' (not aggkut, etc.)
pirpak	[..χp..]	'at least'
aghngamku	[.. xŋ̊..]	'when I started it'

but

tegg'uq	[..xx..]	'it's hard, tough'

2. After stops and ll, voiceless gg and rr are written with a single letter (g, r; also ggw is written gw), and voiceless nasals are written without h (m, n, ng).

itra	[..tχ..]	'come in'
allrak	[..łχ..]	'maybe, I suppose'
uqgwik	[..qxʷ..]	'alder'
atmak	[..tm̥..]	'pack'
utnguq	[..tŋ̊..]	'wart'
ellminek	[..łm̥..]	'himself'

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[1] An apostrophe is also used to separate n and following g or gg when writing [nɣ] and [nx], so as to avoid the combination of n and g being read as ng [ŋ].

3. In cases where voiced g or r precede voiceless consonants, or where voiced consonants follow stops, an apostrophe is used to separate the consonants, so that the voiced consonant will not be read as voiceless:

ag'kuni	[..ɣk..]	'if he goes'
ut'raartuq	[..tʁ..]	'it bounced back'
nat'minun	[..tm..]	'onto his (own) floor'

The fricative s is problematic with respect to voicing. It occurs fully voiced only before a voiced nasal, as in kumlasngauq 'it is frozen' and kasnaaq 'government'. When lenis it is often lightly voiced, so that it could be transcribed [z̬], as in kaasaq 'gas', but when fortis it is voiceless [s], as in kaasamek '(some) gas' (see I.7). Next to voiceless consonants, s is also voiceless, as in atsaq 'berry' and qislluni 'having a fit'. Voiceless s also occurs before voiced l in loan words, as in maslaq 'butter' [..sl..], contrasting with [..sɬ..] in the previous example. No apostrophe is necessary here, since the sequence *[..zl..] does not occur.

One feature of voiced consonants, most noticeably g and r, is that they are usually followed by what sounds like a vowel at the end of a syllable: [ɣ̇] , [ʁ̇]. This vowel-like sound, which may be called facultative [̇], is not phonemically present and does not affect the rhythmic stress of following syllables; hence, it is not written. In fact, the (open) syllables ge [ɣ̇] and re [ʁ̇] almost never occur in this language; thus g and r should not be written with following e unless a three-consonant cluster would result.

D. Rounded Velars

The phonetic equivalents given above for the rounded velars kw, w, ggw, give a somewhat misleading impression. Actually, the sequences kwa, C.wa, C.wi (i.e., with syllable break), ggwa, ggwi, could equally well be transcribed as [k͡ua], [C.(C)͡ua], [C.(C)͡ui], [x͡ua], [x͡ui], since these syllables have the same relationship to the syllables kua, Cua, Cui, ggua, ggui as syllables having single vowels do to syllables having double vowels. For a further discussion of this and related subjects see sections H and K.

The allophone [ɣʷ] (or [ɣu͡..]) of w occurs before vowel pairs; before single vowels the allophone [w] (or, as mentioned above, [(C)u͡..]):

saawik [..w..] 'bed'
saawia [..ɣʷ..] or [..ɣu͡..] 'his bed'

Phonemic syllable-final /w/ is also realized as [..uɣ] and written ûg; for a discussion of this, see section H.

E. Vowels

The vowel allophones given above are of necessity quite approximate, since traditional phonetic notation lacks adequate means for indicating clearly the quality of uvularized vowels. In each case the allophone following the tilde is that which occurs preceding a uvular consonant (q, r, rr). Compare for example the following:

qayaq [..ɒq] 'boat'	qayat [..ɑt] 'boats'
anguteq [..əq] 'old man'	angutet [..ɨt] 'old men'
qaliq [..eq] 'blanket'	qalit [..it] 'blankets'
uruq [..oq] 'diaper'	urut [..ut] 'diapers'

The vowel a, to an ear raised on American English, sounds more like [ʌ] when in a short closed syllable, and more like [a]

when long, but this difference is quite impressionistic. Also, the beginning of a vowel tends to sound uvularized after a uvular consonant, especially when short, as in the vowel pairs ia, ua, iu, and ui, so that the initial vowel tends to sould like [e] or [o]. Also, the diphthongs ia and ua tend to sound somewhat like [e̝a] and [o̝a] everywhere. So much for vowel quality allophones; the reader is cautioned especially to note the contrasts between a and e and between e and i preceding a uvular, which is often difficult for the beginner.

F. Vowel Pairs

All nine possible pairings of a, i, and u occur as vowel pairs; e is exceptional in that it never occurs long or in vowel pairs, and in that it may be voiceless. The double vowels will be discussed in section H. There are six other vowel pairs, which may occur short or long (see section H):

	Short	Long
ai	[ʌi̝, ɛi̝]	[a·i̝]
au	[ʌu̝, ɔu̝]	[a·u̝]
ia	[u̝a]	[u̝a·]
ua	[i̝a]	[i̝a·]
iu	[i̝u]	[i̝u·]
ui	[u̝i]	[u̝i·]

In addition to these, there are two exceptional diphthongs éi [ei̝] and ou [ou̝], occurring only in loans and exclamations. The short allophones of the diphthongs ai and au should not be mistaken for the above exceptional diphthongs, since they are quite similar to them for an English ear. The ai of tai 'come' could easily be considered similar to the vowel in day, and the au of auk 'blood' is quite similar to the Canadian pronunciation of out:

G. The Vowel e

It has already been stated that the vowel e is unique in that it cannot cluster with other vowels and in that it may occur voiceless. When followed by a continuant, e is often realized phonetically as syllabicity concurring with the following continuant, especially when preceded by a homorganic stop. Thus CeZ may be realized as [CZ̩], and Ce.Z may be realized as [C$^{Z}_{\text{ı}}$.Z..], where Z is a continuant.

ggwaten [..tń̩] 'like this'
aritelek [..t$^{l}_{\text{ı}}$.lɨk] 'one that has mittens'

Likewise, in surface phonetic terms it is more accurate to say that voiceless e in syllables of the type Ce. (where C is a stop) is realized as syllabic aspiration where it precedes a stop, and preceding a voiceless continuant, as a light syllabic onset to the following voiceless continuant, so that Ce.S.. as [C$^{S}_{\text{ı}}$.S..], where S is a voiceless continuant.

antekutaraa [án.t$^{h}_{\text{ı}}$.ku..] 'she will send him out'
taisqelluku [..q$^{ł}_{\text{ı}}$.łu..] 'by telling her to come'

The negative postbase -n'ete- occurs variously as ..n'et.., ..n'el.., in other cases as ..n'e.. with a following consonant which depends on the following suffix, and is written without the apostrophe where there is no preceding stress. The sequence n$^{(')}$e, which is only found in this postbase, is realized phonetically as [(n).ṇ.], that is, a syllabic n.

can'etuq [čán.ṇ.tóq] 'nothing is happening to him'. Compare
qantuq [qán.toq] 'it is near'
iqsanetuq [éq.sa.ṇ.tóq] 'he's not fishing'

The following rules determine whether e's are voiced or voiceless.

(a) The vowel e is voiceless in the following syllables (all of which have syllabic fricatives): tell [tł̩], ces [ɕs̩], keg [kx̩], qeg [qx̩], qer [qχ̩], where the final fricative is

voiceless in accordance with the rules given in section C.[1]

(b) With the exception of the above syllables, the general rule is that morpheme-internal e's are always voiced.

(c) In morpheme-final syllables of the shape stop plus e, the final e is voiceless preceding a voiceless consonant.

(d) With stems ending in a stop plus e, where a following voiceless fricative closes the stem-final syllable, the e may be voiceless; otherwise CeC syllables are voiced. Compare, for example, the following words derived from the bases uluteg- 'watch' and tekite- 'arrive'.

ulutekutaraa [...tɨ.ku..] 'he's going to watch him'
tekitekutartuq [..tʰ.ku..] 'he's going to arrive'

ulutegkunaku [..tɨx.ku..] 'without watching him'
tekitegkunani [..tx.ku..] or [..tɨx.ku..] 'without arriving'

compare also

aritegka [..tɨx.ká] or [..tx.ká] 'my gloves'
mingqellra [..qɬ.χá] 'what she sewed'

Voiceless e, then, is phonetically realized as syllabicity, and thus may be difficult to hear in absolute phonetic terms. Nevertheless, the syllabicity is significant, because the rhythmic stress and lengthening rules (L.4-7) do not work unless these sequences are considered syllables. In fact, for the purposes of spelling a word of which the morphology is not known, the most effective way to tell that voiceless e is present is by deduction. An internal three-consonant cluster is not allowed, so that if three consonants are phonetically contiguous, the presence of an e which breaks up the cluster is to be inferred. Furthermore, the presence of an e may be inferred from the placement of rhythmic stress in following syllables (see section L). For example, the underlying presence of e in a word like piugtehnun [piúx.tⁿ.nún] 'to dogs' is shown by (a) the

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[1] Exception: The syllables keg, qeg, and qer usually have voiced e when they are stressed stem syllables.

inadmissa of the cluster gtn and (b) the fact that if
the enclit u is added, rhythmic stress and lengthening
fall on t able -ni, according to L.6.a.

H. Syllab ucture

There everal important rules which determine syllable
structure tiiq. First, consonant clusters occur within
a syllable t the beginning of a word. Elsewhere,
consonant rs occur only across syllable boundaries. Second,
syllables ing with a vowel occur only word-initially and
after a v hus a single consonant between vowels belongs
to the sa ble as the following vowel. Moreover, a non-
initial s having a vowel pair must begin with a consonant.
Thus, all tial syllables have the shape (C)V(C) or CVV(C).
Initial s have the shape (s)(C)(ř)V(V)(C). Words having
consonant in the first syllable are usually Russian
loan word words beginning with sC.. are native words,
such as s and shniq 'beaver'. These words seem to
have orig with *ceC..

One t troublesome problems in spelling Russian
loan word spurious e in words like kelucaq [k($\overset{1}{l}$)lu·.cəq]
'key' and aq [p($\overset{1}{l}$)lít.táq] 'stove'. These would be spelled
kluucaq aaq except for the fact that there are native
words like [k($\overset{1}{l}$,lú·.mi] 'on the uphill side' where the
morpholog sence of the e can be shown by forms like kelua
[kɨ́l.luá] hill side of it'. Perhaps in the future some
change in elling of these words will be felt necessary.

I. Gemina l Fortis Consonants; Light and Heavy Syllables

When nant ends one syllable and begins the next, it
is called ated consonant. In the orthography, a geminated
consonant cated by putting an apostrophe after it, except
in words b g with the sequence $(C_1)VC_2VV..$ [$(C_1)\acute{V}C_2.C_2\acute{V}(V)..$],

where C_2 is always geminated; hence this circumstance is called automatic gemination.

ag'uq [áɣ.ɣoq] 'he is going'
anak'artuq [a.nák.kɒχ..] 'he is stuck'
but iquani [éq.quâ·..] 'at the end of it', compare
iquklituq [e.qúk..] 'it has come to an end'

J. Light and Heavy Syllables

A heavy syllable is defined as a syllable having a vowel pair; a syllable with a single vowel is called a light syllable. Heavy syllables, and in particular syllables having double vowels, are distinguished from light syllables by two factors: (a) heavy syllables are always stressed, and (b) the initial consonant of a heavy syllable is fortis--the fortition is especially prominent when the syllable is short. Fortis consonants, which are indicated in the present phonetic transcription as [C̣], are somewhat akin to geminated consonants. They are distinguished by tenseness of their articulation, and especially in short heavy syllables, by their duration. There are also rhythmic stress factors which serve to distinguish heavy syllables; these will be taken up in the following section. Note, however, that syllable weight is not the same thing as length. Open heavy syllables are long, but so are stressed open light syllables. Many minimal pairs or near-minimal pairs could be cited:

tuquski [..ki] 'kill them!'
tuquskii [..ḳí] 'he killed it'

atra [..χa] 'his name'
atraa [..χ̣á] 'get down!'

As has been mentioned, fortis s is completely voiceless in comparison with lenis (non-fortis) s.

kaasan [ká·.san] 'your gas'
kaasaa [ká·.ṣá] 'his gas'

It is also worth mentioning that a long vowel is not as long

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[1] For short and long syllables, see the beginning of Section L.

preceding a fortis consonant. Compare the length of the syllable qu in

tuqukan [..qú·.kan] 'if he dies'
tuqukuu [..qú·.ḳú] 'if you kill it' (with shorter u in qú·.)

The sequences (g)wa, (g)wi following a consonant and the sequences kwa, ggwa, ggwi are distinguishable from syllables containing diphthongs only by the fact that the latter are heavy syllables:

caligkwarluku [..kuaʀ..] 'make him do something'
unigkuarluni [..ḳuáʀ..] 'telling a fable'

agwa [áɣ.ɣua] 'move aside'
agua [áɣ.ɣuá] 'I'm going'

akgwaq [..xuɒq] 'the other day'
qakguatni [..χuɒ́t..] 'sometimes'

nanwaq [nán.nuɒq] 'lake'
unuaq nangluku [ún.nuɒ́q] 'all morning'

As can be seen from the above examples, the phonetic transcription of a word like nanwaq is not clear-cut. A transcription like [nán.wɒq] could have been used, but this would obscure the fact that syllable weight is the only way to decide whether to transcribe this word with w or u.

A similar relationship exists between the sequences ya, yu following a consonant and syllables containing diphthongs.

anyutiini [án.niu..] or [án.yu..]
'as soon as she put it out'
aniumi [án.niú..] 'in the snow'

For a further discussion of this see section N.

In a few endings, the sequence Caug.. [Cʌuɣ.] or [CʌuX.] comprises a light syllable, where ug is actually an allophone of w, similar to [ɣʷ]described previously. In this dictionary,

a ligature (‿) is used over ug where necessary, but this ligature could be omitted without causing problems for native speakers or experienced learners.

tangerhngaug͡ngnga [..ŋʌuɣ.ŋá] 'when you saw me'
tangerhngaug͡kut [..ŋʌux.kút] 'when you saw us'

Notice also the word taug'uaggun [tʌuɣ.ɣuá·.xun] 'by that way'. No ligature is necessary since taug-, being the first syllable, is indifferent as to syllable weight.

K. Initial Syllables

Light and heavy initial closed syllables are not distinguishable, since fortition is not distinction with word-initial consonants,[1] and all initial closed syllables are stressed. Furthermore, as a rule, closed syllables are short (see the following section), with some exceptions found in Russian loan words. Therefore, all initial closed short syllables are written as light syllables, regardless of their underlying weight (but see section M).

nuqluku [nóq..] 'by asking him over' but
nuuqaa [nó·.qá] 'he asked her over'
litnaurtuq [lít..] 'he is studying' but
liituq [lí..toq] 'he is learning'

L. Stress and Vowel Length

The user of this dictionary who reads it or hears it read notice immediately that vowel pairs are not necessarily longer than single vowels, and that single vowels, excepting e, may be as long as vowel pairs. As was mentioned before, the actual difference between single vowels and double vowels is expressed not in the length but in the weight of the syllable. The rule for vowel length is simply that all stressed open non-final syllables whose vowel is not e are pronounced with a long vowel or diphthong.[2] If the vowel of the stressed syllable is voiced e, then the following consonant is geminated. Word-final stress is in general less prominent than elsewhere in a word, but it is nevertheless marked here.

[1] Irregular length is found in Russian loan words; see section M.

Following are the rules for determining stress.

1. All syllables having vowel pairs (heavy syllables) are stressed.

qukaani [quk.ká·..] 'in the middle of it'
qukaatni [quk.kát..] 'in the middle of them'
taikan [tá·i̯..] 'if he comes'
taiskau'u [tái̯s..] 'if he brings it'
kauturaa [ka·u̯..] 'he is feeling underneath something for it'
kaugturtuq [káux..] 'he is knocking'
niituq [ní·..] 'he hears'

Syllables having single vowels are called light syllables. They are stressed according to the following rules:

2. All initial closed syllables are stressed, but being closed, these are not normally lengthened (but see section M). Even though all initial closed syllables are stressed, a following heavy syllable has considerably greater stress in comparison.

3. If the first syllable of a word is not stressed (that is, if it is a light open syllable), then the second syllable is stressed.[1]

qayámi [..yá·..] 'in the boat'
qayátgun [..yát..] 'by boats'
nepéng'uq [..pɨ́ŋ.ŋoq] 'he started talking'

4. Where a series of three light syllables follows a stressed voiced syllable, the third syllable is stressed (with several exceptions, which are discussed in Rule 6). This stress, which is called rhythmic stress, is applicable indefinitely as long as the series of light syllables continues. One feature of rhythmic stress which it is essential for the student to learn through observation is the syllable grouping. The rhythmically stressed syllable together with the preceding syllable form a

[1]Stress is not noted in the orthography. Here it is marked only to illustrate the rules being presented.

rhythmic couplet which is here called a disyllabic foot. The initial consonant of the first syllable of this foot is fortis, but the fortition is not especially noticeable unless it is preceded by an open voiced syllable. The fortition beginning a disyllabic foot is here marked only where it is prominent.

ágqatanáni [..ṭa.ná˙..] 'while he was going along'

áy'uqatán'aní [..qa.tán..] 'while he was going along in a boat' (the n is underlyingly geminated in all these examples, but the gemination is active only after a stressed vowel.)

sársayaqátananí [..yɒ.qá˙..ṇa.ní] 'while he was coming over for tea' (In connection with fortition due to rhythmic stress, y and w are not distinguishable as fortis.)

tekítekutáquní [..t^{h}ɬ.ku.tá˙..] 'when he was about to arrive'. For the stress on the final syllable, see L.7.

pisúryatuqútarnilúni [..ṭo.qú˙..ṇi.lú˙..] 'saying that he was going to go hunting'

5. Where the third of a series of light syllables contains a syllabic consonant (see section G), the stress skips back to the second syllable, but the disyllabic foot remains as if the third syllable were accented, so that the initial consonant of the second syllable is fortis. Since this syllable is stressed and begins with a fortis consonant, it is phonetically identical with a heavy syllable for some speakers. For other speakers, however, the stress on a true heavy syllable is greater than the regressed rhythmic stress, so that there remains a phonemic contrast between light and heavy syllables in this position. Compare

áqalarkúnani [..ɬɒχ.kú˙..] 'without falling overboard'

áq'alárcestegkúnaku [..ɬɔ́χ.ɕs̬.tɨx.kú˙..] 'without letting it fall overboard' (Notice that the rhythmic stress continues from the stressed syllable.)

calíkután'etúá [..ṭán.n̬..] 'I'm not going to do anything'

6. There are a number of cases where rhythmic stress occurs on the second syllable of a series of three light syllables, and the disyllabic foot starts with the first of these two syllables. This occurs (a) where an enclitic boundary follows the second syllable,[1] (b) in a number of Russian loan words which are marked in this dictionary with an accent over the irregularly stressed and rhythmically lengthened vowel (see section M for another use of the accent), and (c) optionally, when the negative postbase -n'ete- (see section G) follows a stressed syllable, the syllable following the [n] may be stressed.

(a) akgúuwaqú-mi [..wɒ.qú·.] 'how about this evening'
caliwagtá-llu [..wax.tá·..] 'what is he spending so much energy doing?'

(b) úk'ulútaq [..ku.lú·..]'garden'
úciitilá'a [..ti.lá·.a] 'his teacher'

(c) nallún'etaqá [..łún.n.ta.qá] 'I know'
or nallún'etáqa [..łún.n.tá·.qa]

7. Where a series of two light syllables is followed by either a heavy syllable or the end of a word, they form a disyllabic foot which is usually accompanied by rising pitch.[2] According to what has been said before, the initial consonant of this foot is fortis and its second syllable is lengthened if it is open and precedes a heavy syllable. However, in this case, the lengthening is curtailed by the following fortis consonant at the head of the heavy syllable, so that it is phonetically not very prominent. Thus the rising pitch serves as the most reliable indicator that the following syllable is heavy rather than rhythmically

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[1] Enclitics are separated from the main word by a hyphen.

[2] The exact conditions where rising pitch is not found will not be discussed here.

stressed. For example, compare the following pair of words:

ilúliyalísqellukú [..li.ya.lís..] 'asking (him) to make a lining for her'

and ilúliyálíisqellukú [..lí.yá·.lís..] 'asking (him) to put a lining in it'

There are several indicators here which serve to distinguish this minimal pair: fortis l in the heavy syllable of the second word, and different disyllabic foot groupings which result in rhythmic stress and length on the a and rising pitch in the second word. Note also that in the second word, the rising pitch on the syllabic foot ends on a higher pitch than that of the following heavy syllable. Compare also:

kíngyarkunáku [..yɒχ.ku.ná:..] 'without looking back at him'

kíngyarkúníi(nga) [..yɒχ.kú·.ní(·ŋa)] 'without looking back at me'

káasaq [ka·.saq] 'gas'

káasamék [ká·.sa.mɨk] 'some gas'

M. Irregular Vowel Length

In Russian loan words, vowels in closed syllables may be irregularly lengthened. In the initial syllable of a word irregular lengthening is indicated by a double vowel, since light and heavy syllables are not distinguished in this position. In non-initial syllables, however, an accent mark is used to denote irregular lengthening in this dictionary.

paankaaq [pá·n.káq] 'can'

kalánkaaq [ka.lá·n.káq] 'shirt'

Note also

láugkaaq [lá·ux.káq] 'store'; compare

taugkut [tʌux.kut] 'those'

puláugkaaq [pu.lá·ux.káq] 'safety pin'

Russian loan-words have a system of their own, and it is often difficult to fit them into the orthography, which is designed

for the native vocabulary.

N. Consonant Dropping

The voiced fricatives g and r are sometimes optionally, sometimes obligatorily dropped when they head a light syllable. The subject of optional vs. obligatory dropping will not be discussed here. This dropping occurs in two cases: (a) after a consonant, in which case the consonant is geminated if the preceding syllable is stressed; so that in terms of the orthographic appearance of the word, the dropped consonant is replaced by an apostrophe where the gemination is distinctive.

kemga [kɬm.ɣa] or kem'a [kɬm.ma] 'its flesh'
kam'uk [kám.muk] 'shoe' but
kamgua [kám.ɣuá] 'his shoe'

(b) after a vowel, in which case also the dropped consonant is replaced by an apostrophe which here marks a syllable boundary between vowels. Between i and a following a or u, however, orthographic y is used to separate the vowels; likewise between u and a following a or i orthographic w replaces the dropped consonant:

kana'aq [ka.ná·.ɒq] 'dream' but
kanaraa [ka.nɒ́·.ʁá] 'his dream'.
(N.B.: There is no overt break between the syllables where an apostrophe is used to separate vowels. The two syllables are pronounced with continuous breath flow; a glottal stop sounds utterly foreign.)
uka'iq [u.ká·.eq] 'rabbit' but
ukariuyukegkegka [u.kɒ́·.ʁiú·..] 'I thought it was a rabbit'

uyuwaqa [u.yú·.wɒ.qá] 'my younger brother or sister' but uyuraa [u.yó·.ʁá] 'his younger brother or sister'

ipiyuq [i.pí·.yoq] 'he is happy' but

ipigua [i.pí·.ɣuá] 'I am happy'

In a word like atra'aqama [át.χɒ.ɒ.qá·.ma] 'whenever I go down', stem atrar-, there is no way at all to tell when one syllable ends and the next begins; this word might well be transcribed [átχɒ·qá·.ma]; nevertheless, the placement of the rhythmic stress clearly indicates that this long a actually occupies two syllables.

In some cases, however, two single vowels actually do merge into a single syllable when g or r is dropped between them. This happens when rhythmic stress is due to fall on the second vowel. Consider, for example, the word calíkutáaqamá [ča.lí·.ku.ʈɒ́·.qa.má] 'whenever I'm about to do something'. Here r has dropped between the two a's, as in the above example, and we would expect *calíkuta'áqamá [ča.lí·.ku.ʈɒ.ɒ́.qa.má]. However, the disyllabic foot *ʈa'á, since it starts with a fortis consonant and its second member is stressed, would sound practically identical with the heavy syllable taa. Thus the shift from a disyllabic foot to a heavy syllable is psycholinguistically an easy adjustment to make,

The consonant y is also dropped between accented a and u in certain stems in the speech of most people:

pinga'un [pi.ŋá·.un] 'three' but

pingayuat [pi.ŋá·.ɣuát] 'the third one'

The consonant l is often dropped from the word cali 'also, too, again' in continuous speech. It seems that speakers are unaware that they do this and do not pronounce cai deliberately.

Ellpet cali agyuumuuten or

Ellpet cai agyuumuuten. 'You can go too.'

O. Ambiguous Sequences

A number of parallel sequences involving i, y, and u, w are phonemically ambiguous in Kenai Peninsula Alutiiq. Some of these are kept distinct in other dialects. We have been determining which of the spellings to use on morphological and occasionally comparative grounds. Perhaps at some point it will be felt desirable to choose arbitrarily one of the phonemic representations and use it throughout, as was done in the case of initial light and heavy syllables (see section K). However, if this is done, it will certainly obscure the tendency of this orthography to reflect tne underlying morphology of tne word. The disyllabic ambiguous sequences are

aa'i and ai'i [á:.i]
aa'u and au'u [ǎ·.u]

aayV and aiyV [á·.yV]
aawV and auwV [á̯.wV]

iiya and ia'a [í·.ya]
uuwa and ua'a [ú·.wa]

iiyu and iu'u [í·.yu]
uuwi and ui'i [ú·.wi]

The phonetic transcriptions given above are rather approximate, since it is difficult to determine even phonetically which is the more accurate representation. Also, some older speakers do not merge iiya and ia'a, uuwa and ua'a; moreover, the distinction between these seems to be maintained in the Prince William Sound area.

naa'uq [ná·.oq] 'it is burning' and
naaluni 'by burning'
nau'uq [ná·.oq] 'it is growing' and
nauluni 'by growing'
caayuq [cá·yoq] 'tea' (same in Koniag dialect)
taiyuq [tá·yoq] 'he is coming' (Koniag [téi.yoq])
and tailuni 'by coming'

qakiiyaq [..kí·yɒq] 'cohoe'
sungia'aq [..ŋí·yɒq] , some speakers and PWS
[..ŋiɔ́·ɒq] 'nice person' and
sungiaraat [..ŋiɔ́·.ʁát] 'nice people'

Other ambiguous sequences involve heavy syllables which could be interpreted either as a plain velar plus diphthong beginning with u, or as a rounded velar plus double vowel:

kua	and	kwaa	[kuá]
gua	and	waa	[ɣuá]
gui	and	wii	[ɣuí]
(g)gua	and	(g)gwaa	[xuá]
(g)gui	and	(g)gwii	[xuí]

Thus for example, the word ggwi [xuí] 'I, me' might as well be spelled ggui.

A similar ambiguity is found with the sequences ya and yu after a consonant; especially in the speech of younger people, it is difficult to distinguish between the following pairs, where C represents an intervocalic consonant.

Cia	and	C.yaa	[Ciá]	and [C.yá]
Ciu	and	Cyuu	[Ciú]	and [C.yú]

For example, in the dictionary, both spellings are given for umiaqluku [úm.miɔ́q..] umyaaqluku [um.yɒ́q..] 'remembering it'; the latter is the more conservative pronunciation, and the former is the more common.

AA. Dictionary Format

This dictionary is designed to be a guide to using the Alutiiq language as it is spoken in English Bay and Port Graham. Therefore, words given in this dictionary are those which are actively used by speakers of the language, although some not so common words are included, especially when they may be of use to those who are teaching the language. Furthermore, these words are given under their conversational English equivalents, with sentence examples given for most entries. However, since the sentences were first written in Alutiiq and translated into English, the same English expression is not always used to translate the Alutiiq word as that given in the gloss. In most cases, these sentences were changed in later proofreading so as to make the example consistent with the gloss. The fact that a conversational dictionary was attempted has made the task of compiling the dictionary more difficult, since we have avoided using a single English word or expression in a stilted or artificial manner to translate a given Alutiiq word. Also, the number of sentences was increased by cross-indexing. Those who wrote the examples tried to make sentences which could be used in everyday life, but it was understandably difficult to sustain inventiveness with to many sentences to write.

Grammatical information about the Alutiiq word is included in the form of subglosses. All information is given in the form of complete words; no bases or other morphemes are given, so as not to confuse people who are not familiar with linguistics. One purpose of this introduction is to allow people who are interested in this language from a linguistic standpoint to extract the base from a given word, as well as information about word classes and other information about unpredictable morphology and syntactic usage.

BB. Stems, Bases, Postbases, Endings, and Enclitics

Before going into categories of words and how they are treated in the dictionary, explanation of some of the basic terminology used to discuss word structure is in order. The stem of a word is the smallest portion of the word to which endings may be directly attached; it may be composed of more than one morpheme, but always begins the word. A base is any portion of a word to which endings may be directly attached; thus the base of the word may be its stem, or its stem plus one or more suffixes.

Suffixes which precede the ending of a word are called postbases. Thus, a base plus a postbase results in a longer base. At the end of the word proper is one and only one ending (in a few cases, Ø), which denotes person, number, transitivity, mood, and case. Following the word proper, and separated from it by a hyphen, there may be one or more enclitics. Most of the enclitics denote interrogativity or emphasis. For example, the word Ag'kutartuten-qaa? 'Are you going to go?' is composed of a stem age- 'go' (which is also a base), plus the postbase -kutar- 'be going to ___' (which together form a new base, ag'kutar- 'be about to go'), plus the ending -(t)uten '2.s. intransitive indicative' (which all together form the word proper ag'kutartuten 'you are going to go') plus the enclitic -qaa, which indicates a yes-or-no question.

CC. Order of Entries

Many of the entries are phrases in English. These are entered under the main word or words in the phrase, so that quite a few are entered in more than one place in the dictionary. In some cases more information may be found under another English translation, and the reader is referred to another entry. Where more than one entry is found under a given English word heading, as happens quite frequently, three basic principles

are followed in the order given here. First, all the entries whose Alutiiq translations share the same Alutiiq stem are grouped together. Second, the entries in which the head word is the first main word in the phrase are given before the entries in which the head word is not the first main word in the phrase. Third, the phrases in which the head word is the first main word are arranged alphabetically by the second main word in the phrase, and the phrases in which the head word is not the main word are arranged alphabetically by the first main word of the phrase. To get to the idea of how this operates, see the entries under the head word go. Note that the first group of entries have the Alutiiq base age-. In the second group, there is no main word other than go in the phrase 'go to him', so that this immediately follows the first entry. In the third group, the second main word is 'across'; in the fourth group, 'ahead', and so forth. Finally come the entries in which the head word is not the main word, starting with 'ask someone to go with one' and continuing to the end. Although these principles are not followed too rigorously, it is hoped that they will make it somewhat easier to find a given entry.

DD. Underlying Weight of Initial Syllables

As was noted in section K, all initial closed syllables are written as light syllables, unless they are irregularly long (see section M). Thus, if an initial closed syllable of a word which is of native origin underlyingly has a double vowel, it is short, and therefore is written with a single vowel. Thus, when the first syllable of a word is closed and has single a, i, or u, a word with the same stem may have a double vowel if the first syllable is open. In these cases, a subgloss or example is given in which the first syllable is open, and has a double vowel, for example lagluni 'dig', stem laag-, as shown by the subgloss Laagai 'He is digging them up'. The same thing

is true of the words lla 'outside', ca 'I don't know', and ggwi 'I, me'; underlyingly, these have double vowels, but the length does not show up unless an ending or enclitic of the shape -CV(..) is added.

EE. Dropped Consonants

As was noted in section N, the consonants g, r, and more seldom y are sometimes obligatorily, sometimes optionally dropped before a single vowel. When a word has a dropped consonant the identity of this consonant can be determined if there is a form derived from the same stem in which a vowel pair follows the consonant, in which case the missing consonant shows up at the head of that syllable. Such forms are given wherever possible in the dictionary; see section N for examples.

FF. Nouns

Nouns are given in the absolutive case, which is the case used for naming things and people, among other uses. Most nouns are cited in their singular form. Quite a few nouns are usually used in their plural form, especially when possessed, translating in English as singular. These are given as a choice, singular or plural, for example

telephone: nupugcesuun or nupugcesuutet.

A few nouns occur only in their plural or dual forms with singular meaning, for example

music (from radio, record, tape, etc.): cauyat (plural)

scissors: nuusicuak (dual)

GG. Noun Stems

Nouns in their absolutive singular forms may end in a vowel, n, k, or q. All non-possessed nouns cited ending in t are in their absolutive plural form. Some nouns cited in their dual

forms are also given with dual ending, such as -gka ('my two ___s') to show that the final -k is not part of the stem.

Of nouns ending in a vowel, most end in a. A few of these, referring to people of an older generation--parents, grandparents, aunts, and uncles, for example, maama 'mother' and taata 'father', as well as kuku 'baby' act as though they ended in g, except in the non-possessed absolutive singular. Of the remaining nouns ending in a, all but nuna 'land' and erina 'voice' have stems ending in e, for example quta 'beach', stem qute-, neqa 'food', stem neqe-. The stems of nuna and erina end in a.

Nouns whose absolutive singular ends in -n have stems ending in -te, for example pikiyun 'present', stem pikiyute-.

Most nouns whose absolutive singular ends in k have stems ending in g, for example iqalluk 'fish', stem iqallug-. There are, however, a number of common nouns which originally ended in a vowel but have a "fake g" added to the stem; these behave like nouns ending in k except in their third person possessed forms, where the original stem appears, for example puk 'stem', original stem puu-, cf. puunga 'its stem' (not *puuga). These nouns are identified in the dictionary by giving these possessed forms.

Most nouns whose absolutive singular ends in q have stems ending in r, for example qayaq 'boat', stem qayar-. The major exception to this rule is found with nouns ending in -teq. Of these, nouns of the shape (C)Vteq do end in r; otherwise, all such nouns have stems ending in te. For example, the stem of nateq 'floor' is nater-, but the stem of sauteq 'arm' is saute-. In the case of nouns like sauteq, the alternate absolutive singular ending *saun is rare; monosyllabic nouns ending in -n are avoided. All other nouns whose stems end in -te, however, may have absolutive singular forms ending in -teq; for example, pikiyun 'present' may also be pikiyuteq, and ngigta 'den, cave', stem ngigte-, may also be ngigteq.

Nouns whose stem has the shape (C)VCVte- tend to be used predominantly in the absolutive singular with -teq rather than -n, so this form is given in this dictionary; for example, anguteq 'old man' may also be angun, stem angute-. A few nouns ending in q originally had stems ending in vowels, of which the main survival is the optional preservation of the original stem in certain possessed forms, for example iruq 'leg', iruka 'my leg'.

On the stems ending in g and r, the distinction is made between those whose final consonant is weak, that is, the final g or r will drop before any non-possessed noun ending; and those whose final consonant is strong, that is, the final g or r does not drop before non-possessed noun endings such as the ablative ending -mek/-nek, and whose non-possessed absolutive dual and plural forms either preserve the g or r, or show some irregularity due to the fact that the final consonant was preserved at an earlier stage of the language, and has not dropped out. It should be noted, however, that all stems and nearly all postbases ending in g or r may optionally be treated as if their final consonant were weak.

All stems ending in eg and er are strong stems, for example, nateq 'floor', stem nater-, ablative singular natermek 'of the floor', plural natret (also natet) 'floors'. Stems ending in ig and ug are strong, for example palik 'smoked fish', ablative singular paligmek (or palimek) 'a smoked fish'[1], plural paliget or paliit (also palit) 'smoked fish'. Stems ending in ag are usually weak, for example iqsak 'hook', ablative singular iqsamek (or iqsagmek) 'a hook', plural iqsat (rarely iqsiit) 'fish hooks'. Stems ending in ar, ir, and ur are almost always weak, for example arnaq 'woman', ablative singular arnamek 'a woman', plural arnat 'women'. A few stems ending in ar may optionally be strong, such as yaamaq 'rock', ablative

[1]The ablative case has a partitive function as well as translating 'from, off of, out of'.

singular yaamamek or yaamarmek 'from a rock', plural yaamat, yaamiit, or yaamaat 'rocks'. Some of these nouns have dropped consonants, for example iguilrraaq 'child', ablative singular iguilrra'armek (also iguilrraamek) 'a child', plural iguilrraraat (also iguilrraat).

Certain common postbases are nearly always used in their strong forms, such as -kcak 'big ⟍_', ablative singular -kcagmek (or -kcamek), plural -kciit (rarely -kcat); and -nguasaaq 'small ___', ablative singular -nguasa'armek (rarely -nguasaamek), pl. -nguasagaat (also -nguasaat).

HH. Locational Nouns

A limited subclass of nouns is called locational nouns. These nouns refer to a positional or temporal relationship to some entity; thus they are usually possessed, the possessor being the entity to whom the relationship being described exists. For example, qainga 'on (top of) it' literally means 'its surface', and acia 'under it' literally means 'the area underneath it' or 'the under side of it'. All the relational nouns given in this dictionary have stems ending in ar, i, u, e, or ner. The following chart shows the relationship of the stems to the possessed forms cited in the dictionary:

Possessed form ending in:	Stem ending in:	Example:
..aa	..ar-	qukaa 'the middle of it', stem qukar-
..ia	..i-	akia 'the side opposite it', stem aki-
..ua	..u-	iqua 'the end of it', stem iqu-
..ii	..e-	senii 'the side of it', stem sene-
..ainga	..ai-	qainga 'the top of it', stem qai-
..uunga	..uu-	cuunga 'the front of it', stem cuu-
..n'a	..ner-	cun'a 'the front of it', stem cuuner-

A variety of derived bases are also given where these are found, for examples, see under front.

II. Demonstratives and Personal Pronouns

Knowledge of the demonstratives is essential in conversational Alutiiq, so their coverage in this dictionary is fairly complete. Certain of the demonstratives are no longer used, or are going out of use, in Kenai Peninsula Alutiiq; in this dictionary fewer than twenty are given, as opposed to the full set of thirty that are found in Central Yupik. Therefore, the demonstrative system of Kenai Peninsula Alutiiq is simpler and more specialized than that found, for example, in the grammar of Central Yupik published by ANLC.

There are two terms used in the dictionary that are essential in learning how to use the demonstrative system: restricted and extended. Generally speaking, a restricted demonstrative is used where you can point at the object or person without having to move your finger; that is, the object or person is located in a specific place, and not moving along so that one would have to trace a path to describe its position. The extended demonstrative is used where you are referring to an area or to a moving object or person, so that you would move or wave your hand in pointing to it. However, most speakers nowadays use restricted demonstratives to refer to any specific object, even if it is extensive, such as a river, a road, or a house; in the older language, these would be referred to with extended demonstratives if they were near enough to be considered extended objects. These two categories are distinguished in here, there, over there (across there), up there, and down there. (The third type of demonstrative, which is referred to as obscured, refers to an object which is out of sight or obscured by distance. In most cases, it is obvious from the definition of the demonstrative that it refers to something obscured, for example behind there, out there (along the seacoast), upstairs, downstairs.)

Each demonstrative has two bases, the demonstrative adverb base and the demonstrative pronoun base. The demonstrative adverbs refer to position or motion, translating in English

as 'here' or 'there', whereas the demonstrative pronouns refer to an object or person located at a place, translating as 'this' or 'that'. The demonstrative adverbs are sometimes irregular in form, so that all the occurring forms are given in the dictionary. Of special note is the plain or interjectional form, which does not occur with all demonstrative adverbs, and is usually used to form a non-verbal sentence such as Tawa kalikat 'There are the papers'. There is also a reduplicated form, which is similar to the interjectional form only more emphatic, for example Tuatuani kalikat 'There are the papers, right there'.

The demonstrative pronouns are given in three forms: (1) the absolutive singular, which is a unique form, such as taugna 'that one'; (2) the relative singular, from which the stem of the rest of the singular cases can be found by removing the final -m, for example taug'um 'of that one', stem taug'u-; and (3) the absolutive plural, from which the stem of the dual and plural forms of the pronoun can be found by removing the final -t, for example, taugkut 'those', stem taugku-.

Similarly, the personal pronouns are given in their locative singular and plural forms, from which the stem of the singular, dual and plural forms of the pronoun can be found by removing the final -(h)ni. For an example, see under I and we.

JJ : Verbs

Verbs are cited with third person subordinative endings, which are summarized here for reference:

	Intransitive (marked for subject)		Transitive (marked for object)	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
sg.	-(l)luni	-(g)kunani	-(l)luku	-(g)kunaku
dual	-(l)lutek	-(g)kunatek	-(l)lukek	-(g)kunakek
pl.	-(l)luteng	-(g)kunateng	-(l)luki	-(g)kunaki

The singular positive endings (-luni or -luku) are usually given; the negative endings are used when a verb is used only negatively or has a special negative meaning; and the dual and plural endings are used where the singular is inappropriate, for example

not have anything to say: melkiiryarkunani
(not used in a positive sense)
(they) separate): pegullutek

KK. Verb Bases

Since most verbs are given with positive subordinative endings, we will first give the rules for deducing the base from forms with these endings. For the most part, if the verb ends in a positive subordinative ending with llu.., that is,-lluni, -lluku, etc., the base form of the verb may be found by replacing this ending with te, for example qamlluku 'turn it off', base qamte-. There are a few exceptions to this basic rule: tangerlluni (-ku) 'see', base tangerr-; keglluni (-ku) 'bite', base kegge-; qurlluni 'urinate', base qurre-. If the verb ends in -plluni, -klluni or -qlluni, then the base may end in -pe-, -ke-, -qe-, or in -pte-, -kte-, -qte-. In these cases, stems ending in te are indicated by giving an example in which the t appears. For example, maklluni 'get up', base makte-, is given with the example "Maktuq. He got up." Otherwise, the reader may assume that the stem may be found by removing the ending and adding e, e.g. eklluni 'get in', base eke-. Also, if the verb ends in C_1C_2elluni, where C_2 is k or q, the base is found by removing the ending, e.g. mingqelluku 'sew it', base mingqe-.

There are a few cases where the verb ends in ll'u..; in these cases there are two possibilities: (1) the verb base may end in t'e, for example mill'uni 'land', base mit'e-, or (2) the verb base may end in llte, for example, all'uni (-ku) 'fight', base allte-. In these cases the base is indicated either by a subgloss or a form given in one of the examples.

If the verb ends in an ending with -lu.., that is, -luni, -luku, etc. (with only one l), there are four possibilities. (1) If the preceding letter is a vowel, then the base can be found

by removing the ending, for example cukaluni 'be fast', base cuka-. One exception is ul'uni 'overflow', base ule-.
(2) If the preceding letter is g or r, then the base can be found by removing the ending unless there is only one syllable preceding the ending, which has the form (C)Vg or (C)Vr, for example qilugluni 'bark', base qilug-, and iterluni 'enter', base iter-. Exceptions to this rule are merluni (-ku) 'drink', base mer-, sterluku 'mark it', base ster-, and lerluni 'fart', base ler-. (3) If the preceding letter is other than g or r, o if there is only one syllable preceding the ending, which has the form (C)Vg or (C)Vr, then the base can be found by removing the ending and adding e, except as noted in cases (2) and (4), for example aqumluni 'sit down', base aqume-, and agluni 'go', base age-.

It may be helpful to view the same information the other way around in chart form:

Stem ending in	Positive subordinative form ending in
V-	Vluni, -ku, where V is a, i, u.
{g, r}-	{g, r}luni, -ku
VCe-	VCluni, -ku, where C is not t.
te-	lluni, -ku

There are surface changes due to the fact that l is devoiced after a voiceless consonant, insertion of e to break up clusters of three consonants, and due to the undoubling rules discussed in section C.

Only a few verbs are cited exclusively with a negative subordinative ending; in these, the base may be found by removing (g)kuna.., for example, mellkiiryarkunani 'not have anything to say', base mellkiiryar-,and piukuugkunani 'be covered (esp. with dirt)', base piukuu-.

LL. Transitivity

At the cost of much repetitiousness, we have tried to indicate in the dictionary whenever verbs could be used intransitively, transitively, or both. However, it is likely that in some cases full information is not given because a

given verb is rarely used intransitively or transitively, but such omissions are not deliberate. Alutiiq verbs can be divided into four categories with respect to transitivity: they are intransitive-only verbs, transitive-only verbs, subject-focused verbs, topic-focused verbs, and objective verbs.

1. Intransitive-only verbs are those which occur exclusively with intransitive endings, for example miklluni 'be small' and anluni 'go out, leave', but not iterluni 'enter'/ iterluku 'enter it'.[1]

2. Subject-focused verbs are those which can occur with either intransitive or transitive endings, and in which the subject of the verb used intransitively corresponds with the subject of the verb used transitively. For example, piturluni 'eat'/piturluku 'eat it' is subject-invariable, because in the sentences

Piugta piturtuq. The dog is eating.
Piugtem pituraa. The dog is eating it.

the subjects correspond, even though they occur in different cases. This class of verbs is perhaps the most numerous.

3. Topic- focused verbs occur transitively and may or may not occur intransitively. If they do occur intransitively, then the subject of the intransitive verb corresponds to the object of the transitive verb, both of which are in the absolutive case.[2] For example, yuugaarlluni 'break off suddenly'/ yuugaarlluku 'break it off suddenly' is topic-focused, because the sentences

[1]There is a special transformation which occurs with the verbs of perception (especially 'see' and 'hear') whereby it is possible to say anluku: "Tangqegka anluku. I saw him go out." Even in this case, however, the verb is still underlyingly intransitive.

[2]The subject of an intransitive verb and the object of a transitive verb, occurring in the absolutive case, are called the topic of the sentence in the Central Yupik grammar, hence the name topic-invariable. The topic of the sentence may be defined as that which answers the question "what (who) had something happen to it (him, her)?"

Puunga yuugaartuq. Its handle broke off.
Iguilrraraam puunga yuugaartaa. The child broke its handle off.

the subject of the intransitive verb corresponds to the object of the transitive verb. In both cases the question "What had something happen to it?" is answered by "its handle."

Another type of topic-invariable verb is that in which the intransitive verb has a reflexive or reciprocal meaning, that is, the subject acting on himself or the subjects acting on one another. For example, compare the following sentences:

Nupalkiaq tuqutuq. The man killed himself.
Laq'lam nupalkiaq tuqutaa. The brown bear killed the man.

Iguillraaq urturtuq. The child is washing himself.
Arnam urturaa iguillraaq. The woman is washing the child.

As before, the subject of the first sentence corresponds with the object of the second sentence. In this dictionary, such verbs are cited in their transitive forms only; the reader may assume that any verb which is given only with a transitive ending may be used intransitively in a reflexive sense, unless such a reflexive use would not make sense, or be useful.

Whereas it might not make sense to speak of the subject acting on himself, it may make sense to speak of subjects acting on one another. For example, compare the following sentences:

Tangkuk pucuurtuk. Those two are kissing (each other).
Nupalkiam arnaq pucuuraa. The man is kissing the woman.

Here it is not possible to make a direct correlation between the subject of the intransitive sentence and the object of the transitive sentence. It would not make sense to say, for example,

Arnaq pucuurtuq. The woman is kissing herself.

As a rule, if a verb can be used intransitively with a reciprocal sense in English, it is possible to do so in Alutiiq also.

Returning to the first pair of sentences, we can see that there is a kind of connection possible with the second pair. The intransitive form yuugaarlluni is used in a way similar to the reflexive usage: "Puunga yuugaartuq. Its handle broke off." might by way of comparison be translated "Its handle broke itself off," except that in English we do not speak of inanimate objects acting on themselves. Instead, we say that something happened to them. Thus the following relationship between the three subtypes of topic-focused verbs discussed in this section:

Intransitive	Transitive
something happens to an object	do something to an object
do something to oneself	do something to another person
do something to one another	do something to another person

Many subject-focused and topic-focused verbs have corresponding intransitive-only forms whose base ends in -(u)te- or -i-. Examples of such pairs are:

ikugluku 'find it'
ikuulluni 'find some'

eglluku 'throw it away'
egciluni 'throw some away, throw things away'

4. Objective verbs are those which take transitive endings with third person singular subject only, and where the object of the verb in Alutiiq corresponds to the subject of the verb in English. These verbs are easily recognizable by the fact that they have transitive endings whereas the English gloss is intransitive, and also by the fact that they refer to a state

caused by an exterior circumstance such as the weather or the passage of time, for example usulluku 'person is cold (due to being in cold surroundings)'. Most of these verbs can just as well be used intransitively in the modern language; for example, it is possible to say "Pinartaa." or "Pinartuq. It's calm weather (good for travelling)." Such verbs are indicated by giving them with a transitive ending followed by an asterisk (*): pinarlluku*.

MM. Adjectival Verbs

A majority of intransitive verbs belong to the subcategory called adjectival verbs. These verbs usually translate into English as an adjective with a form of the verb 'be', for example kawirluni 'be red'. They are distinguished from other intransitive verbs by having a special participial (noun) form with the ending -qaq or -lnguq, for example kawirqaq 'red (one)' There are a few intransitive verbs which translate into English as adjectives but are not adjectival in Alutiiq, for example kaigluni 'be hungry', participial form kailraa(q) 'hungry (one)' which has the usual intransitive participial ending. Therefore, in this dictionary, the fact that a verb is adjectival is shown by giving the adjectival participial in parentheses following the form with a subordinative ending, unless the adjectival verb ends with some recognizable suffix which forms adjectival verbs. The following list includes most of these suffixes with their approximate meaning; verbs with these endings are cited in the dictionary without giving the participial form:

With Subordinative Ending	With Participial Ending	Approximate Meaning
-narluni (or -narqelluni)	-narqaq	'liable to (cause one to)...'
-nailluni	-nailnguq	'not liable to (cause one to)...'
-nirluni	-nirqaq	'good to ...'
-niilluni	-niilnguq	'not good to ...'

With Subordinative Ending	With Participial Ending	Approximate Meaning
-yugluni	-yugqaq	'for the moment, at a particular time'
-tarluni	-tarqaq	'all the time, by nature'
-tailluni	-tailnguq	'not...all the time, not...by nature'
-ngaluni	-ngaqaq	'look like...'
-ngailluni	-ngailnguq	'not look like...'
-(s)ngaluni -(u)maluni	-(s)ngaqaq -(u)maqaq	'be in state or position'
-yuluni	-yuqaq	'be good at...'
-yuilluni	-yuilnguq	'not be good at...'
{-l'uluni {-lruuluni	-l'uqaq } -lruuqaq}	'have lots of...'
-n'uluni	-n'uqaq	'be __able'
-shnguluni	-shnguqaq	'do something repugnant'
-tuluni	-tuqaq	'positive attribute, large amount'
-killuni	-kilnguq	'negative attribute, small amount'
-keglluni or -qeglluni	-kegteqaq or -qegteqaq	'well, good'
{-llugluni {-llugllluni	-llugqaq } -llugteqaq}	'poorly, bad'
-illuni	-ilnguq	'negative; not, no'

It can be seen by the above chart that many of the above suffixes come in pairs, positive and negative, with the negative suffix ending in -illuni (-ilnguq). To avoid unnecessary repetition in the dictionary, only the positive form is given, unless the negative form has a special form or meaning, because the negative forms can be easily and freely constructed. The following table lists the predictable positive and negative pairs:

Positive	Negative
-narluni	-nailluni
-nirluni	-niilluni
-tarluni	-tailluni
-ngaluni	-ngailluni
-yuluni	-yuilluni
-tuluni	-killuni[1]
-keglluni	-llugluni[1]

Thus for example piturnirluni 'taste good' is given in the dictionary, but piturniilluni 'taste bad' is not. For this reason, if a negative expression is not found in the dictionary, the reader should look up the corresponding positive expression.

Certain adjectival verbs come in rather predictable groups based on an adjectival root. For an example of this type of group or family of words, see envy. The adjective root of this family of stems is cikna-. With most of these families, all of the following suffixes may be used with the root:

-yugluni	'___ for the moment, at a particular time'
-tarluni	'___ all the time, by nature'
-kluku or -qluku	'___ with regard to him/her/it'
-narluni	'be liable to cause one to ___, be ___able'

as well as predictable negative forms -tailluni and -nailluni. Note especially the difference in meaning between -yugluni, which denotes a momentary state of mind, and -tarluni, which denotes a habitual state of mind or a temperamental quality, for example uk'eryugluni 'believe (at a given moment)' and uk'ertarluni 'be a believer'.

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[1]Both members of these pairs are usually given in the dictionary since they translate with different English words.

NN. Stative Forms

Most verbs can be changed into adjectival verbs with the meaning of 'be in a state or position' by the addition of the suffixes -(s)nga- or -(u)ma-, for example qiuglluni 'become curly', stative form qiugngaluni 'be curly', and anak'arluni 'get stuck', anak'aumaluni 'be stuck'. For the most part, these stative forms are predictable, but a few forms that are not predictable are given in the dictionary, for example aqumluni 'sit down', stative form aqum'aluni 'be sitting'. The following chart summarizes the formation of these statives.

Stems Ending in	Statives ending in
V-	Vmaluni
CV{g/r}-	CVumaluni where V is a,i,u.
(C)VV{g/r}-	CVV'umaluni
VCe{g/r}-	VC{g/r}umaluni
CCe{g/r}-	CCe{g/r}umaluni
#Ce{g/r}	#Ce{g/r}'umaluni
Ce-	Cumaluni, where C is not t
Vte-	Vsngaluni
Cte-	Cesngaluni (alternatively sometimes C(')ngaluni)
{g/r}te-	{g/r}ngaluni

Example	Stative Form
iniluku 'hang it'	inimaluni 'be hung'
mellarluni 'get plugged up'	mellaumaluni 'be plugged up'
kelatiirluku 'iron it'	kelatiiyumaluni 'be ironed'[1]
pakinegluku 'scratch it'	pakin'umaluni 'be scratched up'[1]
merluni 'drink'	mer'umaluni 'be drunk'
pugluni 'swell up'	pugumaluni 'be swollen'
tekilluni 'arrive'	tekisngaluni 'be there, have arrived'
nepluni 'stick (to something)'	nepesngaluni 'be stuck (to something)
tatarlluku 'fill it'	tatarngaluni 'be full'

[1]For the behavior of the dropped consonant see section N.

OO. Relative Appositive Forms

There are a number of verbs (most of which have stems ending in te), which could be called positional verbs because they refer to getting into a position, and they have stative forms which refer to being in that position, for example nangarlluni 'stand up', stative nangarngaluni 'be standing'. These verbs also occur in relative appositive forms, which are given in this dictionary because they are sometimes irregular. These are given in their third person forms as pairs separated by double slashes. The first member of the pair is used when it is in apposition to the subject of the sentence, and the second member is used in apposition to the object of the sentence. Thus, the relative appositive forms given for nangarlluni are nangarmi//nangaan 'standing up'. These may be used in sentences like the following:

Nangarmi piturtuq. He is eating standing up.

Tuquneq nangaan lliikii. He put the corpse down in a standing position.

Relative appositive forms are found with a few other common words, such as tamarmeng//tamaita 'all (of them)', and kiimi//kiyiin or kigiin 'alone, only'.

PP. Causatives

Another very common derived form which should be mentioned here is the causative form of a verb base. In the case of topic-focused verbs (LL.3.), the base used transitively may be a causative of the base used intransitively, e.g. qupllluni 'split', qupllluku 'split it, cause it to split'. With many other verbs a causative base is formed by adding -te- to an intransitive verb base, e.g. aimluni '(stick) breaks', aimlluku 'break it (stick)'. Such forms are given in the dictionary. In other cases the causative is regularly formed by the postbase -ceste- (after te, dropping the te, and after a consonant) or -gkwar- (elsewhere, i.e. after a vowel but not after te). Thus for example compare the following pairs of words:

leglluku '(food) burns'
legceslluku 'burn it (food)'

piturluni 'eat'
piturceslluku 'feed him'

qallaluni 'boil'
qallagkwarluku 'boil it'

Such predictable causatives are not necessarily indicated in the dictionary. Note that there may be more than one causative possible, one with a more specialized meaning:

tuquluni 'die'
tuqugkwarluku 'cause him to die'
tuqulluku 'kill him'

OQ. Continuative Forms

Many verbs, especially those referring to motion or work, have special continuative forms, found with a variety of suffixes which are often not predictable. Therefore, these continuative forms are given in the dictionary wherever they have been found, unless the base of the verb ends in -te-, since all bases ending in -te- may have continuative forms ending in -qe- ot -qur-. The distinction between non-continuative and continuative verb bases is difficult to translate exactly into English.[1] The non-continuative forms are used where there is no emphasis on the continuity or duration of a motion or action, whereas the continuative forms are used where it is emphasized that a motion or action is continuous or repeated. The following examples should give some idea of the contrast involved:

[1]This contrast is somewhat similar to that of the Russian aspect system; in fact, its nature may have been influenced by Russian contact.

Example	Continuative Form
tengluni 'fly, take off'	tenguurluni 'fly along'
qecengluni 'run, start running'	qecengwaluni 'run along'
iqluluni 'lie'	iqluurluni 'keep on lying'
keligluku 'scrape it (off)- may be with repeated actions but with emphasis on completion)	keligturluku 'scrape it continuously, scrape it repeatedly (emphasis on repetition)'
keglluku 'bite it (off)'	keghmarluku 'bite it repeatedly, bite it all over'

Chugachmiut
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