INTRODUCTION TO MODERN LITHUANIAN
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Franciscan Fathers
Brooklyn, New York
Foreword

Lithuanian is the language of the people of Lithuania and of about a million Americans of Lithuanian origin. Along with Latvian (Lettish) and the now extinct Old Prussian it belongs to the Baltic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. The Baltic languages are noted for their extremely conservative and philologically interesting linguistic forms. Thus a knowledge of Lithuanian is almost a “must” for any linguist who works in comparative Indo-European linguistics. The need for such a book is felt both among language scholars who wish to familiarize themselves with Lithuanian and among those Americans of Lithuanian descent who wish to know something of the language of their ancestors. Up to now, unfortunately, the number of grammars of Lithuanian available has been very small indeed. There are not more than two or three available in English, and these are obsolete.

This grammar is designed not for young children, but rather for those who have already reached a certain stage of maturity. The method is traditional, but there are some conversations and pattern drills in the text and it would be possible to use the book with an audio-lingual approach.

The book has 40 lessons in its main part. A typical lesson has a reading selection, vocabulary list, grammar, exercises and a topical, usually connected conversation of 10 utterances. No effort was made to make the lessons even in length and difficulty. By reason of the grammatical topic, some lessons are very long (e.g. Lesson 24, where all cardinal numerals are discussed with examples), while others are rather short. With this kind of arrangement, the instructor will have all kinds of teaching possibilities: he can stress either the aural-oral approach, or the reading-grammar-translation method.

Each fifth lesson (i.e. Lessons 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40) is a “Review Lesson”. These lessons are “review” lessons only in the sense that they do not introduce any new grammatical material which the student should learn. But they vary very much in the supplementary reading items, lists, charts, graphs, etc. Almost every one of these review lessons has some drill
patterns (either combination drill or variation drill types mostly) which partly review some main grammatical points covered in the previous four lessons. If there is a need to supplement these drills, any teacher can devise a great number of them, using the basic patterns and vocabulary given. The review lessons may be omitted, if the student wishes only to get acquainted with the grammatical structure of Lithuanian.

After the 40 main lessons, there is the grammatical appendix where the total grammar of Lithuanian is given. It is presented in the "classical" pattern: the nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. At the end there is a chapter on verbal prefixes and a chapter on verbal aspects.

Then follows a very short chapter of extra reading selections: a folk tale, a few short selections on Lithuanian history, an editorial from a Lithuanian newspaper, a few folk songs and poems. All these selections are heavily annotated, and their vocabulary is included in the Lithuanian-English vocabulary.

The next part comprises the Lithuanian-English vocabulary which includes all the words used in the lessons and in the readings. We have provided a rather large vocabulary, since, for some time at least, this grammar will have to be a primer, a review grammar, a little reader and... a dictionary.

The English-Lithuanian vocabulary contains only those words which are needed for the translations from English into Lithuanian.

The best way to get a good pronunciation is to try to imitate the pronunciation of a native Lithuanian. The descriptions of the sounds given in the text are only an approximation and nothing can replace the careful guidance of a trained native Lithuanian. It is suggested that the student make every effort to find someone to help him. Eventually it is hoped that tapes to accompany this textbook will be available for sale or hire.

In learning to converse in Lithuanian the student should try to memorize the conversations rather than the grammatical rules. After memorizing the conversations he may then learn exactly why each word is put in the form in which he finds it. He may then substitute other words having similar meanings. In doing the exercises the student should follow as closely as possible the examples given in the reading and the grammatical explanations. Initiative and originality have no place for the beginner in a foreign language. Parrot-like imitation is preferable to incorrect original formulations.

In the future, we plan to prepare a key to all the exercises in this book, which will be available for teachers and bona-fide self-teachers of Lithuanian. As mentioned above, tapes will also be made for the entire
book, i.e., for the pronunciation exercises of the introductory lesson, and for most of the basic reading selections, conversations, etc.

The authors wish to express their grateful thanks to Rt. Rev. Msgr. J. A. Karalius, for his great moral and financial help in making the publication of this book a reality. We are also indebted to Mr. William Babcock for making the map on the inside covers and also doing the drawings for the Introductory Lessons, to Mr. Paulius Jurkus for doing drawings for lessons 20, 25 and 35, and to Mr. V. Augustinas for the photographs. Finally, the authors express their thanks to the University of Rochester which allocated funds for helping with the typing of the original manuscript.

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Introductory Lesson

I. THE ALPHABET

Lithuanian uses the Latin alphabet with some additions and modifications. There are 32 letters in the Lithuanian alphabet. This includes most of the letters of the Latin alphabet as used in English with the exception of w, x and q, which we do find, however, in foreign names such as Quito, Wallace, etc.

Lithuanian letters which differ from English are: q, e, é, į, ū, č, š, ž. The sounds which these letters represent are discussed in section III.

In the sequence of the Lithuanian letters there are some differences from the arrangement in English:

a) the y is considered as a type of i and it goes right after į so that the three i's of Lithuanian occur in the following order: i, į, y.

b) the four vowel groups with diacritic signs are all treated as one letter, i.e. a and q go together as do e, ė and é; i, į and y go together as do u, ū and ū. Of course, we will do the same in this book.

c) if the q is ever used, it is placed (as, for example, in a dictionary of proper names) right after the p, the w right after the v and the x would be the last letter in the alphabet.

In print the Lithuanian alphabet appears almost the same as the English alphabet, except for the above-mentioned differences. In the written form there are other differences. (See Table 1)
Table 1: Standard Lithuanian Letters:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Upper Case</th>
<th>Lower Case</th>
<th>Upper Case</th>
<th>Lower Case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aa Åa</td>
<td>Åą Åą</td>
<td>Bb Bb</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cc Čc</td>
<td>Čę Čę</td>
<td>Dd Dd</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ee Ėe</td>
<td>Ėę Ėę</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ff Ģf</td>
<td>Ģę Ģę</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ii Įi</td>
<td>Įę Įę</td>
<td>Yy Yy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jj Įį</td>
<td>Kk Ḷk</td>
<td>Ll Ll</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mm Ñm</td>
<td>Nn Ñn</td>
<td>Oo Oo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pp Įp</td>
<td>Rr Ḷr</td>
<td>Ss Ės</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Šš Šį</td>
<td>Tt Tt</td>
<td>Uu Uu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uu Ūu</td>
<td>Ūū Ūū</td>
<td>Vv Vv</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zz Ėz</td>
<td>Ŗz Ŗz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Block (printed) letters are practically never used in regular Lithuanian writing, and all letters in individual words are usually connected.

EXERCISE:

A. Write out the Lithuanian alphabet. Practice especially the following letters: A a; Åą; Čę; Ėę; Ūū; Žž.

B. Write out the basic reading selection of Lesson 5.
II. STRESS AND INTONATION

The stressed syllable is that syllable of a word which receives special emphasis and the intonation is the manner of pronouncing that syllable. Since there are three types of pronunciation of a single syllable there are therefore three separate signs with which Lithuanians denote these intonations. (In the United States the term pitch-stress is sometimes used to denote what European scholars call intonation, but we will use the term intonation, since this is traditional in Baltic scholarship.) The stress can fall on almost any syllable of a word and sometimes one form of a word may carry the stress on a certain syllable whereas another form of the same word will carry the stress on another syllable. In this book almost all Lithuanian words are marked with the intonation, although in regular Lithuanian texts these are not used.

The intonation marks are as follows:

` - this is called the grave stress (kairinis kištis) or the short intonation (trumpinė priėgaidė). A vowel marked with this stress is pronounced with more force or amplitude, but it is not lengthened. Even when stressed a Lithuanian short vowel remains short.

Examples: mama, nė ‘no’, iki ‘until’, tū ‘you (familiar form)’, pūpos ‘beans’.

'- this is the acute or falling intonation (tvirtaprūdė priėgaidė), known in German as the Stosston. This occurs with long vowels or diphthongs. A long vowel with this sign is always stressed more heavily on the first part than on the second part. In the case of a diphthong the first part of the diphthong receives a heavier stress and is held longer than the second part of the diphthong.


~ - this is the circumflex intonation (tvirtagalė priėgaidė), known in German as the Schleifton. A long vowel with this sign is always stressed more heavily on the second part than on the first part. In the case of a diphthong the second part of the diphthong receives a heavier stress and is held longer than the first part.


III. THE SOUNDS
and Their Representations by Letters

A. VOWELS

All vowels in Lithuanian are distinguished by length, i.e. there are short and long vowels. Contrary to the English situation where most vowels are diphthongized, or have some kind of off-glide, Lithuanian vowels are never diphthongized, and they are somewhat more tense than those of English.

Aa. Short Vowels

a — this letter may denote a short, more or less tense, unrounded, open central vowel. It may be stressed or unstressed, but even when stressed it will be shorter than the normal stressed vowel of English. Under certain circumstances (namely in open syllables, although even here there are exceptions) this letter is used to denote a long vowel; if this is the case such a long vowel may have only the circumflex accent and will be pronounced exactly like ė, cf. section Ab. on long vowels.

Examples as a short vowel: kadà 'when', àš 'I', Amèrika 'America', màno 'my'.

Examples as a long vowel: nàmas 'house', gàlas 'end'.

e — this letter may denote a short stressed or unstressed vowel, not very tense, but rather close (not as close, however, as è, see below). This sound is similar to the e in English bet or nest. Under certain circumstances (namely in open syllables, although even here there are exceptions) this letter is used to denote a long vowel; if this is the case such a long vowel may have only the circumflex accent and will be pronounced exactly like ė, cf. section Ab. on long vowels.

Examples as a short vowel: kepi 'you bake', nešì 'you carry', nè 'no', namè 'in the house'.

Examples as a long vowel: këlias 'road', lëdas 'ice'.

i — this letter denotes a short, close, forward unrounded vowel (but not as close as the y, see below), somewhat more close than the i of English sit. It can be either stressed or unstressed.

Examples: tikrai 'for sure, surely', tikì 'you believe', tiki 'he believes', tik 'only'.

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o — this letter denotes a vowel which is somewhat closer and more rounded than the English o in boat, and without the English off-glide at the end. It can be stressed or unstressed. For its use to denote a long vowel see Ab below.

u — this letter denotes a more or less tense, close u sound similar to the English u in put. It can be stressed or unstressed. Examples: pupà ‘bean’, turi ‘you have’, turistas ‘tourist’, tù ‘you (familiar)’ sù ‘with’, mùdu ‘we two’.

Ab. Long Vowels
All long vowels and diphthongs may be either stressed or unstressed. If stressed they may have either the circumflex or the acute intonation.

q — this letter denotes a long, open, central vowel somewhat similar to the a in English father.
On the right hand you see Fig. 1 which illustrates approximately the production of the Lithuanian ģ (or ě).

ɛ — this letter denotes a rather open vowel, somewhat like the a in English bad, but more open and without the ‘y’ off-glide. It is produced with the mouth open and the tongue lax in a low frontal position. The lips are also lax, but pulled down slightly by the falling jaw, cf. Fig. 2.
é — this letter denotes a vowel which differs considerably from the ë. é is always long, rather close and forward and unrounded. It is rather like the a in English made, but without the ‘y’ off-glide. It is produced with the tongue tensely stretched in a mid-frontal position, a little lower than in the production of i. The tip of the tongue is behind the upper teeth. The muscles of the tongue and of the jaw which is slightly lowered are tense. The lips are lax. (See Fig. 3)


y (also written ï) — These two letters denote the same vowel sound which is a long, close, forward unrounded vowel similar to the ee in English keel, but without the characteristic English off-glide. This y (ï) is produced with the tongue arched high in the front of the mouth towards the frontal part of the palate. The lips are lax and almost closed. (See Fig. 4) Examples: yrà ‘is’, ïvadas ‘introduction’, įstrižas ‘diagonal’, tylà ‘silence’, ÿrè ‘he rowed’. 
o — this letter denotes a fairly close back rounded vowel; it is closer and more rounded than the English o in boat, but without the English offglide at the end. It is somewhat similar to the oo in English door, but without the characteristic lowering before the r. It is produced with the tongue stretched in a mid-rear position. The lips are rounded and protruded, less than in the Lithuanian ū, but more than in the o in English core. (See Fig. 5) Examples: óras ‘air, weather’, obelis ‘apple-tree’, pōnas ‘master, Mr.’, namō ‘home’ homeward’, nórs ‘although’.

ū (also written as υ) — these letters denote a close back rounded vowel. The u of English truth or orthographic oo in English school, pool represent a sound very similar to that of Lithuanian ū. The English vowel, however, is somewhat further back than the Lithuanian long ū (υ). It is produced with the tongue arched high in the back of the mouth and the tip of the tongue withdrawn in back of the lower teeth. The lips are very protruded and rounded. (See Fig. 6) Examples: sūnūs ‘son’, jūsū ‘your, yours’, baltūju (gen. plur.) ‘of the white (ones), ūpas ‘mood’, pūsti ‘to blow’, lūpa ‘lip’, skūsti ‘to complain’.

Ac. i used to indicate the palatalization of consonants (ia, iq, io, iu, iū, iυ). In syllables where the i stands before a, q, o, u, ū, ù, this i is not pronounced at all; it merely denotes that the preceding con-
sonant is palatalized, or soft, i.e. the middle of the tongue is raised towards the top of the mouth. Noteworthy in this connection is the fact that orthographic ia, ia, iai, iau etc. are merely ways of writing e, e, ei, eu after soft consonants. Thus kēlias 'road' is pronounced as though it were written *kēles; kiaulē is pronounced as though it were written *keūlē. In words like brōlio 'brother's' the i is not pronounced at all, but merely shows that the preceding l is palatalized. In liūtas 'lion' the same thing is true. For further details on the palatalization of consonants see section B Consonants.

NB. In some foreign words which have been taken into Lithuanian recently the above does not hold true. In most of these words if the i occurs after a consonant and before a vowel it is pronounced as a short i: Thus biologija is syllabified bi-o-lō-gi-ja, biologas as bi-o-lō-gas, sociologas as so-ci-o-lō-gas, etc.

Ad. Diphthongs

The so-called 'pure diphthongs' consist of two vowels and are the following: ai, au, ei, ie, ui, uo. Each of these can be stressed or unstressed. As with the long vowels, if stressed they can have either the circumflex intonation (˘) on the second vowel, or the acute intonation (‘) on the first vowel. A diphthong with the acute intonation will have a heavier stress on the initial element and the initial element will be held longer than the second element. Just the reverse is true for a diphthong with the circumflex intonation.

ai — as āi it is somewhat similar to the ai of English aisle; aĩ is somewhat similar to the English a in able; in pronouncing it make the a very short and try to hold the i longer. Still the impression is that the aĩ is much shorter than āi and that even the i is shorter in aĩ than in āi. If ai is unstressed then it is pronounced more like a circumflex aĩ than an acute āi. Thus in vaikaĩ 'children' the first ai is pronounced much like the second ai, but with less amplitude.

Examples: āi 'ouch', kāimas 'village', āiškinti 'to explain', aĩ 'oh', laikas 'time', vaikas 'child', raida 'development', gaiinti 'to revive'.

au — is somewhat similar to the au in American pronunciations of Faust or the ou of American-English out; with the acute stress, i.e. āu the initial element is longer than in such English
words as out, Faust; aū, on the other hand, is somewhat similar to Canadian English out. aū appears to be shorter than áu. Unstressed au sounds like aū rather than áu, but the unstressed syllable has less amplitude than the stressed.

Examples: áu̯g̊t̊i ‘to grow’, sáulė ‘sun’, láuk̊t̊i ‘to wait’, plaû̯k̊t̊i ‘to swim’, šaû̯k̊t̊i ‘to call’, raudónas ‘red’, lauk̊ė (loc. sing.) ‘outside’.

ei — as éi there is no such diphthong in English. It is somewhat similar to the North German ei in beide. It can be produced by saying the a in English ban and then adding a very quick ‘y’ off-glide at the end of the a. éi is quite similar to the ei in weight. An unstressed éi is more like eī (although, of course, with less amplitude) than éi.

Examples: méil̊ė ‘love’, léisti ‘to let’, véidas ‘face’ peîlis ‘knife’, eîti ‘to go’, keišt̊i ‘to change’.

ie — a kind of diphthong (or it may even be called a triphthong) which, beginning with i gradually becomes more open, i.e. tends to become e. There is no sharp break between the i and the e and the end of the diphthong is very open. When this diphthong occurs in initial position, there is a tendency in modern Lithuanian to pronounce it as though there were a j in front of it: iešk̊ōt̊i ‘to hunt for’ is pronounced as jiešk̊ōt̊i, iet̊is ‘spear’ as jiet̊is etc. Some Lithuanians write these words as jiešk̊ōt̊i, jiet̊is, etc.


ui — as uī there is nothing like this diphthong in English. As ûī (which, however, is relatively rare) it sounds something like a very rapidly pronounced phooey or Louie.

Examples: puik̊ūs ‘excellent’, buitis ‘being’, puik̊iai ‘excellently’, muil̊as ‘soap’, muītas ‘custom, toll’, įienia ‘man whom everybody dislikes’, muįst̊yti ‘to shake one’s head’. In some foreign borrowings when the i is stressed the u and i are pronounced separately, i.e. they form the nuclei of two separate syllables: jēzūitas ‘Jesuit’ is syllabified as follows: jē-zu-i-tas.

uo — this is a kind of diphthong (or triphthong) which, beginning with an u, gradually becomes more open and less rounded. There is no sharp break between the u and the o and the end of the diphthong is really a schwa vowel (usually written a), i.e. one similar to the vowel of the second syllable in the English
words above, Plymouth, etc. This diphthong can perhaps be compared to the \textit{uo} of Italian \textit{buono}, etc.


\textbf{Ae. Mixed Diphthongs}

Diphthongs in which the possible initial elements \textit{a}, \textit{e}, \textit{i} or \textit{u} are followed by \textit{l}, \textit{m}, \textit{n} or \textit{r} are known as mixed diphthongs. The second element may be called a sonorant, continuant or semi-vowel.

In the mixed diphthongs as in the pure diphthongs either the first or the second element may be stressed. If the second element is stressed the \textasciitilde{} will be written over the \textit{l}, \textit{m}, \textit{n} or \textit{r}. If the first element is stressed the \textquoteleft{} is written over the letters \textit{a} and \textit{e}, but is used over the letters \textit{u} and \textit{i}. If the second element is stressed it is held longer than the first element. If the first element is stressed it is pronounced with more amplitude and held longer than the second element. Thus, for example, in \textit{āl} the \textit{a} is louder and held longer than the \textit{l}; in \textit{āl} on the other hand the \textit{l} is held longer than the \textit{a}.


\textbf{B. CONSONANTS}

One of the basic differences between English and Lithuanian consonants is that the unvoiced stops of Lithuanian (\textit{p}, \textit{t}, \textit{k}) are not aspirated (i.e. there is no puff of breath after them) as in English in initial position.

Another important difference is that all Lithuanian consonants (except the \textit{j} which is sometimes called a semi-vowel) exist in two varieties, palatalized (or soft) and unpalatalized (or hard). In the articulation of palatalized consonants the middle of the
tongue is raised towards the top of the mouth. To the American ear the effect is that of a y-sound following the consonant, but this is not the case as far as the articulation is concerned. The y-sound must be made simultaneously with the consonant.

Consonants are always palatalized before the front vowels (i, į, y, e, ė and ė), also before the diphthong ie. Before the vowel letters a, q, o, u, ą and ū, the į is used to denote palatalization of the preceding consonants. (See also Ac. of this Introductory Lesson).

Phonetically the palatalization of consonants before back vowels is stronger than that before front vowels. Thus in the word niūrna 'grumbler' the palatalization of the initial n is much more striking than the palatalization of the initial n in the word ne 'no, not'.

**Ba. Voiced Stops b, d, g**

b — strongly voiced unaspirated b; similar to the English b.

Unpalatalized:  
บūtas 'apartment'  
dārbas 'work'  
labaį 'very'

Palatalized:  
bēt 'but'  
bītē 'bee'

Unpalatalized:  
dantis 'tooth'  
dūrys 'door'  
duktē 'daughter'

Palatalized:  
didelis 'large'  
dēgti 'to burn'  
dēmē 'spot'

Fig. 7: D and T
g — unaspirated voiced velar stop; English g as in *good* sounds like the unpalatalized Lithuanian *g*; English *g* as in *geese* sounds like Lithuanian palatalized *g*.

**Unpalatalized:**
- *ganë* ‘enough’
- *gařdas* ‘pen, enclosure’
- *gudrūs* ‘clever’

**Palatalized:**
- *gi* (emphatic particle)
- *gývas* ‘alive’
- *gegūtë* ‘cuckoo’

**Bb. Voiceless Stops: p, t, k**

**p** — voiceless, unaspirated *p*; similar to the English *p*, but without aspiration.

**Unpalatalized:**
- *pūdas* ‘sole’
- *pō* ‘under’
- *pūodas* ‘pot’

**Palatalized:**
- *per* ‘through’
- *pirtis* ‘bath house’
- *pýpkë* ‘pipe’

**t** — voiceless, unaspirated, dental *t*; similar in place of articulation to the (Lithuanian) *d*. It is rather different from the English *t* both in place of articulation and in that it is not aspirated.

**Unpalatalized:**
- *tås* ‘that’ (masc.)
- *tå* ‘that’ (fem.)
- *tō* ‘of that’ (masc.)

**Palatalized:**
- *teñ* ‘there’
- *tik* ‘only’
- *tikrai* ‘for sure, surely’

**k** — unaspirated voiceless velar stop; similar to the *k*-sound of English *cart*, but without aspiration. Palatalized *k* sounds like the *k* of English *keel*.

**Unpalatalized:**
- *kås* ‘who; what’
- *kadå* ‘when’
- *tvarkå* ‘order’

**Palatalized:**
- *kitas* ‘other; putty’
- *keturi* ‘four’ (masc.)
- *kiáušas* ‘skull’

**Bb. Labio-dental Fricatives: v and f**

**v** — voiced labio-dental fricative like English *v*.

**Unpalatalized:**
- *vaikas* ‘child’
- *vóras* ‘spider’
- *vōs* ‘just; hardly’

**Palatalized:**
- *veřkti* ‘to weep’
- *výras* ‘man’
- *visas* ‘whole’
$f$ — voiceless labio-dental fricative similar to the English $f$.

**Unpalatalized:**
- fabrikas 'factory'
- futbolas 'soccer'
- funkceija 'function'

**Palatalized:**
- filologas 'philologist'
- filosofas 'philosopher'
- fizika 'physics'

---

$\mathbf{l}$ — a lateral sound. The tongue tip touches the upper teeth and the central part of the tongue is lowered towards the bottom of the mouth in the unpalatalized variety. The $\mathbf{l}$ in English *elk* sounds like the unpalatalized Lithuanian $\mathbf{l}$. English $\mathbf{l}$ as in *leaf* sounds somewhat like the Lithuanian palatalized $\mathbf{l}$, although the palatalized Lithuanian $\mathbf{l}$ is a little more palatalized, or softer, somewhat like $\mathbf{l}$ in High German or in French.

As we have already briefly mentioned above, in articulating the hard variety, the tip of the tongue touches the upper teeth and the central part of the tongue is lowered towards the bottom of the mouth. (See Fig. 8)

The palatalized (soft) $\mathbf{l}$ is produced by raising the rear part of the tongue to the rear part of the hard palate, by pressing the upper-front part of the tongue against the upper teeth, and allowing the breath stream through the sides of the blades of the tongue. (See Fig. 9)
m — this is a voiced bilabial continuant like the English m.

**Unpalatalized:**

mamà 'mother; mom'
damà 'lady'
móteris 'woman'

**Palatalized:**

mès 'we'
mès 'he will throw'
miřti 'to die'

n — this is a voiced dental continuant, articulated in the same position as d and t. Before velar consonants the nasal is velar as in the English words pink, bank, etc., e.g. brangùs 'dear', penki 'five', etc.

**Unpalatalized:**

nāmas 'house'
naujas 'new'
nōsis 'nose'

**Palatalized:**

nè 'no; not'
nès 'because'
septyni 'seven'

r — this is a tongue trilled r. As with the Italian r the tongue vibrates against the alveolar ridge. The palatalized r is difficult to pronounce for native Americans and great care must be taken to keep the tongue high at the same time that it vibrates against the alveolar ridge. The Lithuanian r is a clear voiced trilling without any admixture of guttural sounds. (See Fig. 10)

**Unpalatalized:**

rātas 'wheel'
rasti 'to find'
rōgēs 'sleigh'

**Palatalized:**

rētas 'rare'
risti 'to roll'
riešutas 'nut'

Be. The Sibilants: s, š, z, ž

s — this is a voiceless hissing alveolar spirant like the English s. English s before front vowels sounds palatalized to the Lithuanian ear. Thus, for example, see and sit seem to the Lithuanian to contain palatalized s.

**Unpalatalized:**

saūsas 'dry'
sakýti 'to say'
visas 'whole'

**Palatalized:**

siaūsti 'to rage'
sėkti 'to follow'
visi 'all'

Fig. 10: R
\( \breve{s} \) — this is a voiceless hushing spirant similar to the \( sh \) in English. The unpalatalized \( \breve{s} \) is more retracted than the English \( sh \) is usually, but sounds somewhat like the \( sh \) in English \textit{shirk} or the \( sch \) of German \textit{schon}. The palatalized \( \breve{s} \) sounds somewhat like the \( sh \) in English \textit{sheep}, but the palatalization or ‘\( y \)’ sound is stronger in Lithuanian.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpalatalized</th>
<th>Palatalized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \breve{s}\acute{a}uti ) ‘to shoot’</td>
<td>( \breve{s}\acute{iaud}as ) ‘straw’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \breve{s}alis ) ‘country’</td>
<td>( \breve{s}is ) ‘this’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \breve{s}\breve{o}kti ) ‘to dance’</td>
<td>( \breve{s}\breve{i}ok)s ‘such’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( z \) — this is the voiced counterpart of \( s \) and is similar to the English \( z \) in \textit{zoo} (unpalatalized) and \textit{zeal} (palatalized).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpalatalized</th>
<th>Palatalized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( z\acute{a}r\acute{a}s\acute{i} ) (name of city)</td>
<td>( z\acute{e}n\acute{i}tas ) ‘zenith’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( z\acute{a}\breve{u}\acute{n}\acute{y}t\acute{i} ) ‘to babble’</td>
<td>( z\acute{e}\breve{b}\acute{r}\acute{\acute{a}} ) ‘zebra’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( z\acute{u}\breve{\breve{i}}k\acute{i}\acute{s} ) ‘hare’</td>
<td>( z\acute{i}g\acute{\acute{z}}\acute{\acute{a}}g\acute{a}\acute{s} ) ‘zigzag’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \breve{z} \) — this is the voiced counterpart of \( \breve{s} \). In Lithuanian it occurs frequently in initial position, whereas in English only exceptionally in initial position, cf. Eng. \textit{genre}, although it occurs in medial position or final, cf. Eng. \textit{measure}, \textit{rouge}, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpalatalized</th>
<th>Palatalized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \breve{z}\acute{a}l\acute{a} ) ‘damage’</td>
<td>( \breve{z}\acute{\breve{i}}l\acute{\acute{s}} ) ‘gray’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \breve{z}\acute{a}lt\acute{\acute{y}}\acute{s} ) ‘adder’</td>
<td>( \breve{z}\acute{\breve{\acute{e}}}lt\acute{i} ) ‘to grow (of beard, grass)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \breve{z}\acute{\acute{\breve{o}}}l\acute{\acute{e}} ) ‘grass’</td>
<td>( \breve{\acute{z}}\acute{i}\acute{\acute{o}}\acute{p}\acute{\acute{\acute{y}}}s ) ‘dopey, joker’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bf. Affricates: \( c \) and \( \check{c} \)**

\( c \) — this is actually a combination of \( t \) plus \( s \). It is similar to the \( ts \) of Eng. \textit{pants}, but in Lithuanian it also appears at the beginning of a word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpalatalized</th>
<th>Palatalized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( c\acute{u}\acute{k}\acute{r}\acute{u}\acute{s} ) ‘sugar’</td>
<td>( c\acute{ik}\acute{l}\acute{a}s ) ‘cycle’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( c\acute{u}k\acute{r}\acute{\acute{a}\acute{n}\acute{\acute{e}}} ) ‘confectionary’</td>
<td>( c\acute{\breve{\breve{y}}\acute{p}\acute{t}i} ) ‘to squeal’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( c\acute{u}k\acute{r}\acute{u}\acute{\acute{\acute{o}}}t\acute{\acute{\acute{i}}} ) ‘to sugar’</td>
<td>( c\acute{\acute{i}}v\acute{\acute{\acute{l}}i}\acute{z}\acute{\acute{\acute{\acute{\acute{c}}}}}j\acute{\acute{\acute{a}}} ) ‘civilization’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB. The voiced counterpart of \( c \) is \( dz \), but it is a very rare combination. Unpalatalized: \( dz\acute{\breve{u}}k\acute{a}s \) ‘speaker of an East Lithuanian dialect’. Palatalized: \( dz\acute{\breve{\breve{m}}}\acute{b}\acute{\acute{\acute{b}}}\acute{\acute{t}i} \) ‘to walk with one’s head down’, \( dz\acute{\breve{\breve{\breve{g}}}\breve{u}\acute{l}k\acute{a}k\acute{a}s \) ‘a type of bell’. 

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č — this is a combination of t plus š. It is somewhat like the ch of English church.

Unpalatalized:
čaižyti 'to whip'
čaižymas 'whipping'
čardāšas ‘czardas’

Palatalized:
čiā ‘here’
čēkas ‘Czech’
čiēkšti ‘to crackle’

NB. The voiced counterpart of č is dz. The unpalatalized form of dz is very rare and even native Lithuanians tend to pronounce such words as dzāzas with a palatalized dz so that it sounds like dziažas ‘jazz’. Palatalized dz, however, occurs quite frequently: dziaugtis ‘to be happy’, dziauti ‘to hang up for drying’, dziova ‘tuberculosis’, etc.

Bg. The Fricatives h and ch

h — an aspirated sound; pronounced like English h, but only found in words of foreign origin. Unpalatalized: harmonija ‘harmony’, homogeniškas ‘homogeneous’. Palatalized: herojus ‘hero’, himnas ‘national anthem’, etc.

ch — unvoiced velar spirant. Unpalatalized ch is pronounced like the ch in German Macht, but the sound is only found in words of foreign origin.

Unpalatalized:
čartā ‘charter’
čāosas ‘chaos’
čoras ‘choir’

The ch of German ich sounds like the palatalized Lithuanian ch:
čemija ‘chemistry’
čemikas ‘chemist’
čirūrgas ‘surgeon’

Bh. The j

j — this is a voiced palatal sound similar to the y in English yes, but the tongue is raised higher for the Lithuanian j and the impression for the English speaker is that of more emphasis or friction of the air as it is exhaled. It is the only consonant in
Lithuanian which occurs only in the palatalized variety: jaunas 'young', jāvas 'grain', jūtis 'ox', joti 'to ride horseback'. In words borrowed from foreign languages the j is pronounced following the consonant: barjeras 'barrier', objektas 'object', adjunktas 'adjunct professor', etc.

The sequence of letters bi in Lithuanian denotes a palatalized b plus a j when it occurs before au, o, u. (The same holds true for the sequence of pi which denotes a palatalized p plus a j when it occurs before au, o, u). Thus in this case i is used instead of j. In the following examples the b and p are palatalized and followed by j: biaurus 'ugly', piauté 'to cut', spiauté 'to spit'. Attempts have been made to institute the spellings pj, bj (and some Lithuanians use them); thus we sometimes find biaurus 'ugly', piauté 'to cut', spiaute 'to spit', but these spellings have not been universally adopted.

Bi. Assimilation of Consonants

There is one basic rule for the consonant clusters of Lithuanian: the second or last consonant in a sequence determines the character of the preceding one as regards palatalization, the lack thereof or voicing and the lack thereof, etc.

If one consonant of a cluster is palatalized then the immediately preceding consonant will also be palatalized, e.g. in nėščiau 'I would carry' both the č and the preceding š are palatalized (soft).

In a consonant cluster a voiced consonant will cause an immediately preceding consonant to be voiced also, e.g. in nėšdavau 'I used to carry' the orthographic š is pronounced like ž (its voiced counterpart). On the other hand in vėžti 'to transport' the ž is pronounced like š (which is unvoiced) because of the following t. In bėgti 'to run' the g is pronounced like k, the unvoiced counterpart of g, because the t is, of course, unvoiced.

Before č the s is pronounced as š, e.g. in pėščias 'on foot, pedestrian' the orthographic s is pronounced š. Likewise z is pronounced like ž when it occurs before dž, e.g. the gen. plur. of vabzdýs 'insect' is vabzdžių, but it is pronounced vabzdžių.

All final consonants are unvoiced (with the exception of l, m, n, r). Thus in final position daug 'much, many' is pronounced dauk; už 'behind' is pronounced uš, etc. In final position all consonants are pronounced without palatalization, i.e. they are hard, e.g. vėl 'again', eik 'come', bėk 'run', dėl 'for', etc.
C. SYLLABIFICATION

The number of syllables in a word is the same as the number of vocalic elements. By vocalic element we mean a single vowel or diphthong. Here it must be remembered that diphthongs in Lithuanian may have m, n, l, or r as the final element. Therefore, a word like šim-tas ‘hundred’ has two vocalic elements or syllables, -im- and -a-; kasà ‘braid’ has the two vocalic elements -a- and -à-; rä-ša-las ‘ink’ has three vocalic elements, viz. the three -a’s; lai-min-gas ‘lucky, fortunate’ has three vocalic elements, -ai-, -in- and -a-. In the previous examples the hyphen marks the syllable division and it can be seen that in general a consonant between two vocalic elements is pronounced with the following vocalic element. If there is a group of two consonants between syllables, generally the first syllable is closed by the first consonant of the group and the second syllable begins with the second consonant of the group, e.g. gañd-ras ‘stork’, piñš-tas ‘finger’, res-pùb-li-ka ‘republic’. However, the syllable division is found at the boundary of prefixes, certain suffixes and the component elements of compounds, e.g. at-eï-ti (at ‘to’, eïtì ‘to come, to go’), iš-im-tis ‘exception’ (iš ‘out’, imtìs ‘that which is taken’), pikt-žolë ‘weed’ (pikt- ‘bad’ žolë ‘grass’). In writing and typing one follows the rules of syllable division when hyphenating words and transferring parts of words to another line.

TABLE OF VOWELS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front Vowels</th>
<th>Back Vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High (close) vowels</td>
<td>y, ï</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid vowels</td>
<td>è</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-mid vowels</td>
<td>ç</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low (open) vowels</td>
<td>Short*</td>
<td>Long</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* e and a are lengthened in most cases in open syllables: gàlas ‘end’, mèdis ‘tree’ (But: màno ‘my’, etc.).

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### TABLE OF CONSONANTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>labial</th>
<th>dental</th>
<th>retracted alveo-palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>glottal</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stops</td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>continuants</td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>ŝ</td>
<td>ch</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>v</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>ž</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
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<tr>
<td>affricates</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>dz</td>
<td>dž</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>c</td>
<td>č</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>apical trill:</td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateral:</td>
<td></td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palatal spirant:</td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IV. SOME COMMON EXPRESSIONS

#### GREETINGS.
1. **Lābas rýtas!**
   - Good morning.
2. **Labā dienā!**
   - Good day.
3. **Lābas vākaras!**
   - Good evening.
4. **Lābas!**
   - Hello! Hi!
5. **Sudiē(u).**
   - Goodbye.
6. **Iki pasimātymo.**
   - So long.
7. **Ačiū.**
   - Thank you.
8. **Ačiū labāi.**
   - Thank you very much.
9. **Prašaū.**
   - You’re welcome.
10. **Labānakt!**
    - Good night.

#### CLASSROOM EXPRESSIONS.
1. **Prašaū skaitytī.**
   - Please read.
2. **Skaitykite.**
   - Read(!)
3. **Prašaū išveřsti.**
   - Please translate.
4. Prascau rašyti.
5. Prascau démiosio!
6. Prascau pakartotì.
7. Dar kafta.
8. Vis kartu.
10. Kàs nòri skaityti?

Please write.
Attention, please.
Repeat, please.
Once more.
All together (please).
That's all.

GETTING ACQUAINTED.
1. Prascau susipažinti.
2. Cià ponas Smith (or Smitas)
3. Aš esu Valys, Antanas Valys.
4. Að jùs êsatì ponas Hood?
5. Taïp, aš es ù Gary Hood.
7. Kùr vrà profèsorius Mažëika?
8. Profèsorius Mažëika vrà univèrsitètë.
9. Labai malonù susipažinti sù Jumis.
10. Labaì malonû.

Please get acquainted.
This is Mr. Smith.
I am (Mr.) Valys, Anthony Valys.
Are you Mr. Hood?
Yes, I am Gary Hood.
No, I am John Wilson.
Where is Professor Mazeika?
Prof. Mazeika is at the university.
It is very nice to meet you.

ASKING FOR DIRECTIONS.
1. Kùr vrà univèrsitètas?
2. Universitètas vrà kitojè miesto dalyjè.
3. Kùr vrà pâštas?
4. Pâštas vrà miesto centrè.
5. Kaïp màn nuvažiûoti ï teatrà?
6. Važiuokite autobusû.
Nûmeris penktas.
7. O kaïp važiûoti automobiliû?
8. Kòks jùsû automobilis?
9. Màno automobilis naujas…

Where is the university?
The university is in the other part of the city.
The post office?
The post office is in the center of the city.
How do I get to the theatre?
Go by bus. No. 5.
And how (do I go) by car?
What kind of car do you have?
My car is new…
O.K., let’s go by car (your car).
I will show you the way.

20
Pinnoji pamoka

Lesson I

MANO NAMAS


Kuř mès eîname vakarè? Mès eîname namò.


VOCABULARY

àš — I
esù — am
studeñtas — student
nàmas — house
måno — my
yrà — is
didelis — large
grazús — beautiful
tévas — father
mókytojas — teacher
brólis — brother
ten — also, too
èsame — (we) are
studeñtai — students
kuř — where
čjà — here
kås — who, what
vakarè — in the evening
eîname — (we) go
namò — home, homeward
kôks — what kind
if — and

GRAMMAR

1.1 There are no articles in Lithuanian. Thus, studeñtas can mean: student, the student, a student.
1.2 There are only two genders in Lithuanian nouns: masculine and feminine. All nouns ending in -as are masculine.

1.3 The Present Tense of būti ‘to be’ and eiti ‘to go’.

I am àš esù àš einù I go, etc.
you are tù esi tù einì
he, she is jis, ji yrà jis, ji eína
we are mēs ėsâme mēs eíname
you are jūs ėsâte jūs eíname
they are jiē, jōs yrà jiē, jōs eína

The second person singular tu which corresponds to English thou is used to address children, real friends, members of the immediate family and God. It would correspond in use to German du or French tu. The second person plural is used for polite address:

Pētraï, kuř tu eini? — Peter, where are you going?
Pone Petraïti, kuř jūs eïnate? — Mr. Petraiitis, where are you going?

There is no progressive form in Lithuanian. Thus àš einù can mean: I go, I am going, I do go.

There is no auxiliary to do to help to form questions: you have to indicate the question by the tone of your voice, or by putting the little word aţi in front of a question which has no other interrogative word in it. Thus:

Čia [yrà]* mano namas. — Here is my house.
Čia mano namas? — Is my house here?
Aţi čia mano namas? — Is my house here?
Kuř mano namas? — Where is my house?

EXERCISES

A. Answer the following questions:


* About leaving out yra, etc., see Lesson 6.
B. Fill in:

C. Complete:

D. Translate into Lithuanian:
1. My brother is going home. 2. My father goes home. 3. My house is large. 4. My brother and I are students. 5. I am going home. 6. I go home. 7. My brother goes home.

CONVERSATION
GREETINGS, etc.
1. Lëbas rýtas! (Or: Lëbq rýtq!) — Good morning!
2. Labà dienà! (Or: Lëbq dienq!) — Good day!
3. Lëbas vàkaras! (Or: Lëbq vàkarq!) — Good evening!
4. Kàip gyvûojate? — How are you? (Plural, politely)
5. Kàip gyvûoji? — How are you? (Familiar)
6. Aèi, gerai. O kàip jûs? — Fine, thank you. And you?
7. A'r jûs ësate pûnas Valÿs? — Are you Mr. Valys?
9. Jûs ësate studënatas? — Are you a student?
10. Taìp, aès esû studënatas. — Yes, I am a student.

NB. Learn these sentences by heart! Do not try to figure out what the separate words mean: learn the whole phrase by heart.

NOTES: Lëbas rýtas! is used until about 10 AM. From then, until about 6-8 PM., depending on the time of the year: Labà dienà! After that: Lëbas vàkaras! One never uses these expressions on taking leave. Lëbas! alone can be used as a short 'Hello!', 'Hi!' at any time of the day.