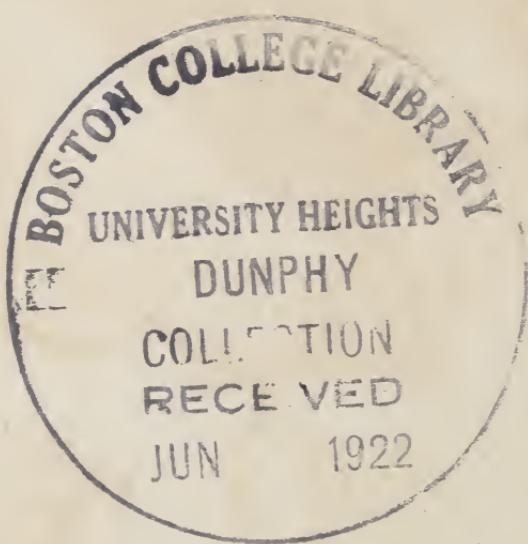


MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR

J. P. CRAIG.

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BY

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SEALY, BRYERS & WALKER

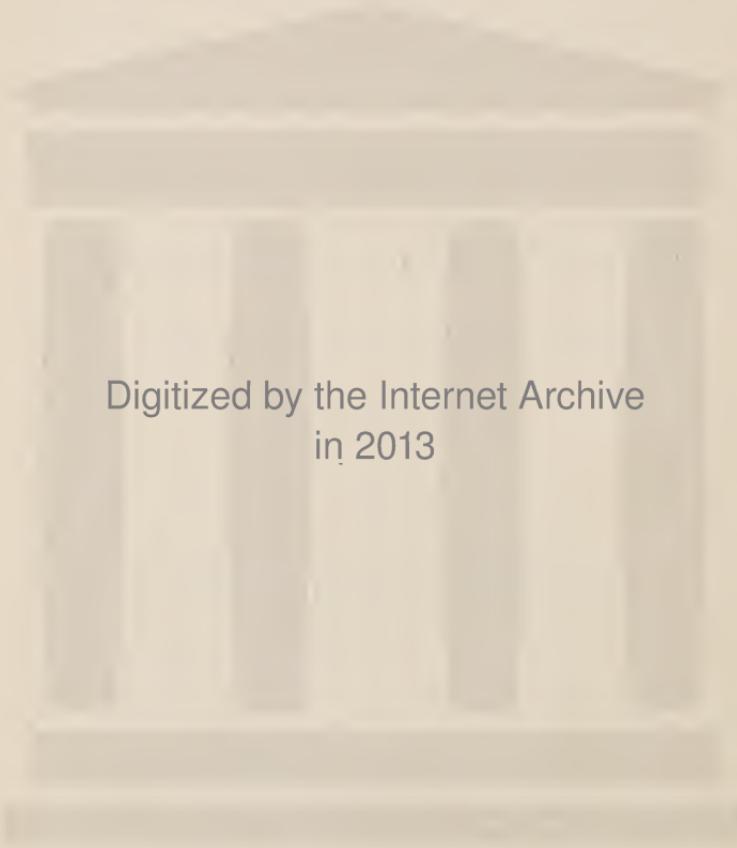
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TO
THE MOST REV. DR. O'DONNELL,
LORD BISHOP OF RAPHOE,
THIS BOOK
IS
GRATEFULLY DEDICATED.

1650



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PREFACE

THIS book is specially intended to meet the requirements of students studying for the Intermediate, University, and other Examinations. It is a Grammar of the living language of our land as I have known it from my cradle, and which has been the constant study of my life. Although it is pre-eminently the language of old Tirconaill, it is none the less the language of Ireland; for, the Northern element over the general construction of our mother tongue—which is universally the same—is scarcely perceptible. In writing this Grammar, therefore, my principal object, and I might say my only labour, lay, not in showing forth Northern usage, but in perfecting the general rules of Irish grammar.

A perusal of the following chapters will show that I have explained the subject more fully, and in a more up-to-date style than other writers, and that I have brought to light several things which have simply been passed over by previous grammarians.

LETTERKENNY,
January, 1900.

INTRODUCTORY.

IF we wish to preserve our mother tongue, we must write it as it is spoken in the glen and on the hill-side. No doubt the past of our beautiful language, may be purer and greater than the present, but that does not concern us; that is a matter for philologists. We have no time just now for studying its past greatness. We love what remains of it, corrupted, if you like, though it may be. We love it because we lisped it in childhood; we venerate it because it falls from the lips of the old people like a soothing balm, and, as long as it lasts, we will cling to it. Anything else is but artificial, and can never have real life as a medium of speech. The revival of the language of our ancestors, in any shape or form, would be a noble work; but this must be a secondary consideration. We are at present concerned with the sweet tongue with which we ourselves are familiar. We must begin here. When we shall have mastered so much, we shall then consider the past of our language.

We must not sacrifice the life of the language to please the critic and the philologist. "If the language is to be preserved at all," writes a correspondent of the *Derry Journal*, "it is the public who will do

so, and not a few individuals who aspire to cultured excellence. The old house has become almost dilapidated, evidences of decay are plainly discernible. How are we to restore and preserve it? Is it by exhibiting a picture of its former beauty? No, surely not. Hence, what remains to us of the old language should be the basis and the medium of all future efforts to preserve, utilise, extend, and finally beautify its dialect."

Some of those connected with the Gaelic movement are of opinion that the Irish spoken at the present day is not good enough. They insist on having pure Irish or none at all. Hence, they are determined to root out all corruptions, and supply the deficiency from the cob-webs of the past. Every word that sounds in any way like English must be weeded out of the dictionary! *Cat*, a cat, *rac*, a sack, *litin*, a letter, *nor*, a rose, *nópa*, a rope, and hundreds of other real Irish words, would, of course, have to be sacrificed! If the language was dead such a thing might be possible, but as it still lives, our inclinations will be to cling to it with all its imperfections. And this is but natural: All living languages change with time, and if these changes are corruptions, the English language, the greatest of living languages, must be very corrupt indeed. Yet the English people are proud of their language, corruptions and all.

The spoken language should, therefore, be scrupu-

lously followed at first, and no wholesale changes should be made till the language has taken proper root; and even then we must proceed with the greatest care, in other words, the language must be improved gradually, or else we shall be building so many “castles in the air,” which must eventually end in smoke. We must respect those of our people who still speak the old tongue by teaching them to read and write what they are sure to take an interest in; and the best way to do this is to lay the grammar of their own language before them in a coaxing form.

It is pretty evident that those who would build the language on the classics have the interest of the philologist more at heart than the rescuing of a dying language. What a disgrace it would be, if hereafter, men found flaws in the language of Erin! What nonsense! If we let our mother tongue perish the philologists of the world will have reason to smile at our Irish pride. The arguments put forward in favour of the classic method are very childish. Here is one: “An English grammar is not based on the usage of Yorkshire, or Lancashire, or Cornwall.” This is, of course, a false comparison: Modern English is of two kinds: (1) Standard modern English, which is spoken, and admitted in all parts of England, and (2) modern English dialect, which is spoken only in certain parts of the country. Modern Irish, on the other hand, has only

the dialects. We have no standard of modern Irish which would be admitted universally. Hence, before we can compare, in this manner, modern English with modern Irish, we must first draw a veil, so to speak, over standard modern English, and imagine the English language consisted simply of the three dialects of Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Cornwall. "But," it is persisted, "what would be said if one proposed to write *eatin*, *sittin*, *bein*, for *eating*, *sitting*, *being*, *an*, for *and*, *seen* for *saw*, &c., basing the proposal on popular usage?" If we had no standard of modern English the proposal would be a very natural one.

If we go back to the fourteenth century we shall find the English language in much the same state as our Irish of the present day. There were three dialects, the Northern, the Midland, and the Southern. "As far back as the beginning of the thirteenth century, the Midland dialect, which afterwards became the standard language, was cultivated as a literary dialect, and had then thrown off most of the older inflections." This does not look like building on the classics.

I agree with most others of the Gaelic movement that unity should be preserved as much as possible, even in the beginning. Irish is divided into three dialects, which differ pretty considerably in some respects. It is certain, however, that these differences are somewhat exaggerated, no doubt by

those who have made the written language the study of their lives. In Munster, for example, the ending *ib* is not heard in the dative plural of nouns, although we are expected to believe that such is generally the case. In the nominative plural, however, it is often heard. I have heard *peanaiib*, *mnaib*, and *buaiib* used as nominatives. In Connaught, just as in Ulster, *ib* is not heard, the dative plural being exactly like the nominative plural. It is, therefore, very foolish, as well as detrimental to the growth of a modern standard, to persist in using this classic ending, which, evidently exists only in the imaginations of a few learned men.

The analytic forms of the verb are understood everywhere. Most of the synthetic forms, on the other hand, are by no means universally understood ; and as we can easily get along without these latter, it is but natural that we should not put them forward as standard modern Irish—of course, I do not mean the synthetic forms that are universally used. Hence, at the present vital moment, we must use the forms that will be understood by, and pleasing to all parties.

Besides *oo*, *oe*, *ɔan* and *ɔɔiŋ*, the preposition *annr*, in Munster, very often aspirates instead of eclipsing in the dative singular when the article is used ; *ap* and *o* are inclined to do the same. In Ulster, a preposition, as a general rule, never

eclipses in the dative case when the article is used, thus simplifying the rules of aspiration and eclipsis, which appear to be such a terror to students. In the South of Ireland, therefore, *do*, *de*, *san*, *roip*, *annr*, and *ó*—that is, nearly all the simple prepositions of any importance—follow the same rule as that of Ulster. Considering these facts, not to say anything about simplicity, there is a strong plea for making aspiration the general rule.

It must be pretty clear to most people who are interested in the study of their mother tongue, that the absence of proper books of instruction is the greatest drawback. Up to the present we have had no suitable grammar of modern Irish. The Dictionary is still coming, and in the meantime Intermediate students, in the absence of vocabularies, may throw aside their text books. I believe that it is this state of affairs, and not a mere matter of marks, that keeps many a student from entering for Irish. We want a complete student's dictionary at a reasonable price, say five shillings; and we want text books to have vocabularies and notes instead of the proverbial translation. For elementary education we require a series of graduated primers, and when these are in readiness it will be our duty to insist on having the national language taught in the so-called "National" Schools.

The accomplishment of these things would very soon necessitate the establishing of newspapers. But

until then, a newspaper would be like a chimney on a bean-stalk. We may bolster it up and puff it up as much as we like, but it is sure to come down, an inglorious wreck, in the end. When the time has come to float our paper, it should be written exclusively in simple modern Irish. For example, we could write the entire paper with simple Irish like that found in Father O'Growney's Simple Lessons. Classic material should be carefully excluded, and English or any other foreign tongue should not find a corner in it. A paper composed of modern Irish, classic Irish, Irish grammar, and philology—explained through the medium of English—and nearly two-thirds of its pages in English besides, cannot be called an Irish newspaper. The existence of such a phenomenon would prove plainly that we do not understand our own language, and that we are not ready for an Irish newspaper.

CONTENTS.



					PAGE
Dedication	v
Preface	vii
Introduction	ix
The Alphabet	I
Classification of the Letters	2
Sounds of the Vowels	2
Sounds of the Diphthongs	3
Sounds of the Consonants	4
Attenuation and Broadening	6, 7
The Rule “ <i>Caol le caol</i> ”	7
Aspiration and Eclipsis	8, 9
Gender of Nouns	9
Declension of Nouns	10
Declension of Adjectives	25
The Article, Adjective, and Noun Declined	26
Special Use of the Article	30
Syncopated Words	31
Family Names	32
Governing Power of Nouns	34
Compound Words	36
Comparison of Adjectives	37
Position of Adjectives	40
Adjectives Referring Back	41

				PAGE
Agreement of Adjectives	41
Partitive Words	42
Numerical Adjectives	43
Numerical Substantives	46
Use of the Numerals	46
The Numerals, <i>Ó</i> , <i>ceatai</i> , and <i>Ó</i> <i>piče</i> , <i>Céao</i> , <i>míle</i> , <i>Ca meuo</i> ?	49
Functions of Numerals	51
The Personal Pronouns	51
The Affected Pronouns	54
The Prepositional Pronouns	55
The Possessive Adjectives	58
The Prepositional Adjectives	60
The Relative Pronouns	61
Functions of the Relative	63
The Relative Form of the Verb	65
The Relative Form of <i>Tá</i>	68
Frequent Use of the Relative	68
The Demonstrative Pronouns	69
The Interrogative Pronouns	70
The Indefinite Pronouns	72
The Verb	72
Regular Verbs, <i>pórtaim</i> , <i>bhírím</i> ,	73
Initial Influence of Verbs	83
Regular Verb, <i>gortuigim</i>	85
Remarks on the Verb	87
The Verbal Noun and Present Participle	88
Use of the Verbal Noun and Present Participle	89
The Infinitive	91

	PAGE
Use of the Infinitive ...	92
Governing Power of the Infinitive ...	94
The Infinitive and Participle ...	95
Particles ...	96
The Negative <i> Cá</i> ...	97
The Irregular Verbs ...	97
The Verb <i> iр</i> ...	99
Use of <i> iр</i> ...	100
The <i> iр</i> Construction ...	103
Double Subject with <i> iр</i> ...	103
Double Predicate with <i> iр</i> ...	104
The Verb <i> тá</i> ...	105
Inherent Quality and Species ...	109
When to use <i> iр</i> and <i> тá</i> ...	111
The Verb <i> ёеiпiм</i> ...	114
The Verb <i> ёеiпiм</i> ...	116
The Verb <i> ёниöim</i> ...	118
The Verb <i> ёеiпiм</i> ...	120
The Verb <i> ёеiпiм</i> ...	121
The Verb <i> тéiöim</i> ...	123
The Verb <i> тiзim</i> ...	125
The Verb <i> тiзim</i> ...	126
The Verb <i> cluинim</i> ...	129
The Verb <i> ičim</i> ...	129
Use of <i> an</i> and <i> oo</i> ...	130, 131
The Adverbs ...	132
Adverbial Phrases ...	134
Up—Down—Over ...	135, 136
The Simple Prepositions ...	136

				PAGE
The Compound Prepositions	137
The Preposition <i>Δ</i> , <i>Δn</i> , <i>Δnn</i>	137
The Preposition "For"	138
The Preposition "Of"	138
Functions of Prepositions	139
Compound Prepositional Pronouns	140
The Conjunctions	142
The Interjections	143
Endearing Expressions	143
Prefixes and Affixes	144
Replying—Yes and No.	144
Replying with <i>Ir</i>	145
Replying to "Who?" "What?"	145
Idiomatic and Defective Verbs	146
Prepositional Verbs	148
<i>Çarṭaṛi Oṣṭi</i>	149
Inherent Quality	149
<i>Ir cumā liom</i> , <i>Ir cumā ṭam</i>	150
Mental and Physical Sensations	151
Motion to a Place	152
Ownership	154
To be in Debt	154
Some or Any	155
Descriptions	157
Important Idioms	158

MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR.

The Alphabet.

Irish.		English.	Name.	Irish.		English.	Name.
Cap.	Small.			Cap.	Small.		
ά	ά	a	áilm	ł	ł	l	tuir
ב	ב	b	beit	m	m	m	muin
כ	כ	k	cott	n	n	n	nuin
ׁ	ׁ	d	daip	o	o	o	oip
ְ	ְ	e	éasða	p	p	p	peit
ִ	ִ	f	peafn	r	r	r	ruir
ׂ	ׂ	g	gort	s	r	s	rui
ׁ	ׁ	h	uas	t	t	t	teine
ֵ	ֵ	i	ioða	u	u	u	up

OBS.—As may be seen above, there are but eighteen letters in the Irish Alphabet. In writing foreign names, however, we may use others. Thus, Keating writes Maximus, *maximus*. The *names* of the letters given above are not used now. They are the names of trees, but only four of them are modern, viz., *beit*, birch; *cott*, hazel, *daip*, oak, and *peafn*, or *peafnos*, elder. The others are as follows:—*áilm*, palm; *éasða*, aspen; *gort*, ivy; *uas*, white-thorn; *ioða*, the yew; *tuir*, quicken tree; *muin*, vine; *nuin*, ash; *oip*, the spindle tree; *peit*, unknown; *ruir*, elder; *rui*, willow; *teine*, furze; *up*, the yew.

Classification of the Letters.

There are five vowels, which may be classified as follows :—

- (1) Broad, or thick vowels : *α, ο, υ*.
- (2) Thin, or slender vowels : *ε, ι*.
- (3) Long vowels : *ᾶ, ὄ, ᾶ, ἔ, ῖ*.
- (4) Short vowels : *α, ο, υ, ε, ι*.

A consonant may be broad or slender according as it has contact with a broad or a slender vowel. For example, the *v* in *van* is thick or broad, but in *vean* it is thin or slender. The same often happens in English, *e.g.*, ball, bat; fall, fan, &c.

Sounds of the Vowels.

α is pronounced like *a* in *fat*.

Ex. *cat*.

<i>ᾶ</i>	„	<i>α „ far.</i>	„	<i>bάθ.</i>
<i>ε</i>	„	<i>ε „ get.</i>	„	<i>uίρζε.</i>
<i>έ</i>	„	<i>ε „ grey.</i>	„	<i>ζέ.</i>
<i>ι</i>	„	<i>i „ it.</i>	„	<i>μιν.</i>
<i>ῖ</i>	„	<i>i „ marine.</i>	„	<i>μίν.</i>
<i>ο</i>	„	<i>ο „ for.</i>	„	<i>τοη.</i>
<i>ό</i>	„	<i>ο „ form*</i>	„	<i>ζλόη.</i>
<i>υ</i>	„	<i>υ „ fully.</i>	„	<i>λυτ.</i>
<i>ύ</i>	„	<i>υ „ truly.</i>	„	<i>λύβ.</i>

* There are many exceptions to this rule. In the following, for example, the *ό* is pronounced like *o* in *go* :—*πόλι*, *ηρόν*, *ηρόν*, *μόν*, *τόν*, *μόναμ*, *μόνι*, *μόνα*, *σόμημα* *σόμημα*, *σόμημα*, *σόμημα*, *σόμημα*, *τόμημα*, *τόμημα*, *τριατόνα*, *ρόγημα*, *μόναμα*, *τόσαιμ*, *τόημα*, *τόμημα*, &c., &c.

Sounds of the Diphthongs.

æ	is pronounced like <i>ay</i> in <i>day</i> .	Ex., <i>tae</i> .
ao	„	<i>ea</i> „ <i>real</i> . „ <i>bjaon</i> .
ua	„	<i>ue</i> „ <i>cruel</i> . „ <i>cuam</i> .
eo, eð	„	<i>ya</i> „ <i>yawn</i> . „ <i>ceð, beð</i> .
ia, ið	„	<i>ea</i> „ <i>dear</i> . „ <i>riar</i> .
eu, éu	„	<i>ea</i> „ <i>early</i> . „ <i>beul, r̄seul</i>

N.B.—These diphthongs are always long.

ai	is pronounced like <i>a</i> in <i>crag</i> .	Ex., <i>cpaiceann</i>
oi, ui	„	<i>u</i> „ <i>rush</i> . „ <i>coill, cuiple</i> .
eí	„	<i>e</i> „ <i>let</i> „ <i>cleite</i> .
io	„	<i>i</i> „ <i>pit</i> „ <i>miotog</i> .
ea	„	<i>a</i> „ <i>fan</i> . „ <i>feap</i> .

N.B.—In words like *teat*, *teap*, the *e* has a short *v* sound.

ái	is pronounced like <i>a</i> in <i>rations</i> .	Ex., <i>páirde</i> .
óí	„	<i>awi</i> in <i>cawing</i> „ <i>coirte</i> .
úí	„	<i>ewi</i> „ <i>jewish</i> „ <i>ruipte</i> .
éí	„	<i>ei</i> „ <i>feign</i> „ <i>péipe</i> .
íó	„	<i>e</i> „ <i>me</i> „ <i>miora</i> .
éá	„	<i>ea</i> „ <i>bear</i> „ <i>feap</i> .

ái is pronounced like *i* in *marine*.

íú	„	<i>u</i> „ <i>cure</i> „ <i>tiúlaim</i> .
éá	„	<i>a</i> „ <i>car</i> „ <i>ceápta</i> .

Áo, eo, ui, ia, &c., are attenuated forms of the long diphthongs ao, eo, &c.

Sounds of the Consonants.

b broad	is pronounced like <i>b</i> in <i>ball</i> .	Ex.	báð.
b slender	" " <i>bat</i> .	"	þean.
c broad	" " <i>cut</i> .	"	cu.
c slender	" " <i>king</i> .	"	cé.
þ broad	" " <i>fall</i> .	"	þáſ.
þ slender	" " <i>fan</i> .	"	þeaþ.
ȝ broad	" " <i>gum</i> .	"	ȝoþm.
ȝ slender	" " <i>gas</i> .	"	ȝeaþlan.
m broad	" " <i>maul</i> .	"	móðin.
m slender	" " <i>mill</i> .	"	mioþos.
p broad	" " <i>Paul</i>	"	þutoþ.
p slender	" " <i>pet</i> .	"	þeirþeoþ
ð slender	" " <i>duty</i> .	"	ðilip.
t slender	" " <i>tune</i> .	"	tinn.
þ slender	" " —	"	þileoþ, þinn
h	is pronounced as in English.	"	hata.

N.B.—ð, t, and þ, broad, cannot be represented in English. Ex., ðún, tóð, þálf.

t, tt.

(1) Initial t broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., lub.

Initial t slender is like *l* in *valiant*. Ex., leanþ.

(2) In all other cases t is pronounced as in English. Ex., þearlað, coiteað, þoðal, þuñl.

(3) tt broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., þall, þalla.

tt slender is like *l* in *valiant*. Ex., caill, caitleað.

n. nn.

(1) Initial *n* broad cannot be rep. in Eng. Ex., *náir*.

Initial *n* slender is like *n* in *new*. Ex., *neart*.

(2) After *ai*, *oi*, *ui*, *n* final is like *n* in *new*. Ex. *árain*, *móin*, *muin*.

(3) In all other cases *n* is pronounced as in English. Ex., *anam*, *inir*, *áran*, *cálin*.

(4) *nn* broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., *beann*, *beannach*.

nn slender is like *n* in *new*. Ex., *tinn*, *tinneart*.

ó, õ, áða, áða, áða.

(1) The letters ó, õ, are not sounded in the body, or at the end of a word, but they lengthen the vowel that immediately precedes them, and often silencing a following one.

Crúairó pronounced crúairó i.e. *crood-ee*.

Croíðe „ cróíðe „ *cree*.

Boðarí „ bðr „ *boar*.

Úairí „ úair „ *oo'ee*.

Bruñí „ brúñ „ *broo'ee*.

(2) Áða and áða are pronounced like *ay* in *day*.

Áðarí „ érc i.e. *ayrc*.

Áðairó „ éi „ *ay'-ee*.

(3) Áða is usually pronounced like *o* in *go*. Ex., *áðair*, *teáðar*, *taðair*.

AO, AM, AV.

(1) In many words, especially in verbs, AV final is pronounced like *oo* in *fool*, or like *ü* in *tüb*. AM and AV final have also this sound.

Röraö	pronounced	rořu.
Seapaö	"	peapu.
Mařsaö	"	mařsu.
Mařsaö	"	mařsu.
Folam	"	folu.
Siaab	"	riiu.

(2) In monosyllabic words M and V (without A) have this sound.

Lam	pronounced	la-ü.
Cnam	"	cná-ü.
Tapiö	"	tapi-ü.
Leanö	"	lean-ü.

N.B.—For initial sounds of aspirated consonants, see Aspiration.

Attenuation.

A broad consonant may be made slender by a process called *Attenuation*. This is done by putting i immediately *before*, or e immediately *after* the broad consonant. Thus to attenuate the n of van, we get van; but if we attenuate the v we get vean.

Broadening.

A slender consonant may be made broad by putting *u* immediately before, or *a* immediately after the consonant. Thus, to broaden the *g* in *oirisg*, we get *oirisug*, but to broaden the *g* in *sim* we get *saim*. To broaden the final consonant in words like *cait*, *bual*, *cuir*, &c., drop the *i*—*cait*, *bual*, *cuir*, &c.

THE RULE “CAOL TE CAOL.”

A consonant, or a group of consonants in the body of a word, must lie between either two slender, or two broad vowels. In *bratog*, the *t* lies between two broad vowels, but in *eiteog*, it lies between two slender ones.

When, in the natural construction of a word, this rule would be violated, the two vowels in question must be made to harmonize by means of attenuation and broadening. In English, for example, *cold+ness* gives *coldness*, and *hill+ock* gives *hillock*; but in Irish, *rlat+in* is not *rlatin*, but *rlaitin*; *peirt+og* is not *peirtoog*, but *peirteog*; *tog+im* is not *togim*, but *togaim*; *rinn+ra* is not *rinnra*, but *rinnrea*, &c.

This rule is called “*Caol te caol agus leatán te leatán*”; that is “Slender to slender and broad to broad.” The reason of this rule is plain: A consonant cannot be broad and slender at the same time. But if we wrote *tog+im*, *togim*, the *g*, having contact with *o* and *i*, should be broad and also slender, which, of course, is absurd.

Aspiration.

Aspiration is the softening, and, in some cases, the suppression, of the sound of an initial consonant. The aspirable consonants are **b**, **c**, **č**, **đ**, **đ**, **m**, **p**, **r**, and **t**. When aspirated they are written **þ**, **č**, **đ**, **đ**, **ṁ**, **þ**, **r**, **t**. Capitals are sometimes written, **Bh**, **Ch**, **Dh**, etc., instead of **þ**, **č**, **đ**, &c.

In **þán** **þ** has the sound of *w*

„	þinn	þ	„	<i>v</i>
„	þmuc	ṁ	„	<i>w</i>
„	þmč	č	„	<i>v</i>
„	þáipic	đ	„	<i>f</i>
„	þor	t	„	<i>h</i>
„	þac	r	„	<i>h</i>
„	þlat	r	is silent.	
„	þeap	đ	is silent.	

Hence, in the beginning of a word,

þ and ṁ broad	sounded like <i>w</i>
þ and ṁ slender	„ <i>v</i>
đ always	„ <i>f</i>
t „	„ <i>h</i>
r +vowel	„ <i>h</i>
r + l , n , or r , is silent	
đ generally silent.	

N.B.—**č**, **đ**, **đ**, and **t** followed by a consonant, cannot be represented in English. A soft gutteral breathing will produce these sounds. They are very like the sound of the Greek letter *χ* (*chi*).

Eclipsis.

Eclipsis is the suppression of the sound of an initial consonant by means of another, placed before it. All the aspirable consonants, except *m*, can be eclipsed, and each has its own eclipsing letter.

m-bád pronounced *mád* where *b* is eclipsed.

<i>g-cád</i>	„	<i>gád</i>	„	<i>c</i>	„
<i>n-ñojwáj</i>	„	<i>nojwáj</i>	„	<i>v</i>	„
<i>θ-peaṛ</i>	„	<i>θeaṛ</i>	„	<i>f</i>	„
<i>b-bájic</i>	„	<i>bájic</i>	„	<i>p</i>	„
<i>t-rúiñ</i>	„	<i>túiñ</i>	„	<i>r</i>	„
<i>ṭ-taṛb</i>	„	<i>taṛb</i>	„	<i>ṭ</i>	„
<i>n-ŋoṛt</i>	„	<i>ŋoṛt</i>	„	<i>ng</i>	blend.

N.B.—In the case of *g* no real eclipsis takes place. *G* is never eclipsed except in the singular number of nouns.

Gender of Nouns.

(1) All nouns generally having their final consonant broad are masculine, as, *bád*, *ṛjan*, *tinneaṛ*, *cájwaeṛ*, etc. Except :—*coṛ*, *lám*, *θrós*, *pós*, *zruas*, *cuac*, *cioṛ*, *cuas*, *θreus*, *peaṛs*, *cloč*, *ṛlat*, *pian*, *zaoč*, *ṛsiān*, *cpusac*, etc., which are feminine.

(2) Abstract nouns in *e* or *ac* are feminine, as, *aiue*, beauty, *miṛeac*, sweetness.

(3) Diminutives in *an* are masculine, as, *ājwān*, a hillock.

(4) Diminutives in *os* are feminine, as, *báboz*, a doll.

(5) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are formed; as, *cnoicín* (*m.*), *coirín* (*f.*)

(6) The names of rivers are feminine, as, *an Dóinn*, the Boyne.

(7) The names of males are masculine, as, *pearl*, a man, *rcait*, a stallion, *cóiteac*, a cock.

(8) The names of females are feminine, as, *bean*, a woman, *caitín*, a girl, *capall*, a mare, *ceapic*, a hen.

OBS.—*Caitín* is influenced by the article as if it were masculine, just in the same way as *teac* (*m.*) is declined like a feminine noun. *Capall*, like *muc*, is common gender.

DECLENSIONS.

Declension of the Article.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	<i>mas.</i> <i>fm.</i>	<i>mas.</i> and <i>fm.</i>
<i>Nom. & Acc.</i>	<i>an</i> , <i>an</i> , the	<i>na</i> , the
<i>Genitive</i>	<i>an</i> , <i>na</i> , of the	<i>na</i> , of the
<i>Dative</i>	<i>an</i> , <i>an</i> , the	<i>na</i> , the

N.B.—There is no indefinite article. Hence *bó* means “cow” or “a cow.”

First Declension.

(a) Masculine nouns ending with a broad consonant are of the first declension. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the final consonant. Example, *bád*, a boat.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	þáð, a boat.	þáð, boats.
<i>Gen.</i>	þáð, of a boat.	þáð, of boats.
<i>Dat.</i>	þáð, a boat.	þáð,* boats.
<i>Voc.</i>	á þáð! O boat!	á þáða! O boats!

(b) Nouns in áð (monosyllabics excepted) change áð into áð where attenuation occurs. Ex., þacað, a beggar.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	þacað, a beggar.	þacað, beggars.
<i>Gen.</i>	þacað, of a beggar.	þacað, of beggars.
<i>Dat.</i>	þacað, a beggar.	þacað, beggars.
<i>Voc.</i>	á þacað! O beggar!	á þacaða! O beggars!

N.B.—Note that á is the sign of the vocative and causes aspiration.

Examples for Declension.

þræð, bread.	þrúðað, a farmer.
þrœðan, a hillock.	þtðcað, a young man.
þmæðan, a fool.	þealæð, a way.
þrat, an ass.	þnollað, a bosom.
þramþican, a primrose.	þvðað, cloth.
þsealðan, a sparrow.	þællæð, cattle.
þealan, a spark, a match.	þrionæð, a fox. †
þsearþian, a horse.	þeasglæð, a family.
þrutan, a brook.	þoglað, wet weather.
þiocðan, frost.	þupitað, a bog.

* In the written language we find the dative plural of *nouns* ending in áð.

† This is the correct *modern* spelling. We find it often written *þionnað* in books.

ratann, salt.	oðanað, a lad, a rogue.
uargan, a yearling sheep.	máirnealað, a sailor.
dealgan, a knitting-needle.	bitælaðnað, a rascal.
þiopan, a pin.	clæðað, a seashore.
þmolan, a thrush.	ualað, a burden.
þeileocan, a butterfly.	talati, ground, land.
Samþrað, Summer.	Eiræannað, an Irishman.
Fóðr, Autumn.	Saxanað, an Englishman.
Geimþreð, Winter.	Francað, a Frenchman.
Earið, Spring.	

(c) To form the genitive of nouns in eað, and of derivatives in earf, change the characteristic ea into i. [The characteristic vowel is the last vowel in the nominative case of nouns.]

coiteað, a cock.	gen.	coitíð.
ofaigearð, an officer	"	ofaigisð.
tínnearf, sickness	"	tínnir.
faitearf, shyness	"	fatitir.

(d) All other words of this declension having ea for characteristic either form their genitive like the preceding class or change ea into ei. The following change ea into i:—

aifreann, a mass	gen.	aifriunn.
aifreæð, money	"	aifrið.
þreac, a trout	"	þriic.
ceann, a head	"	cinn.
fearf, a man	"	fír
þreann, fun	"	þriunn.
clægænn, a skull	"	clæginn.
clæiceann, skin, rind	"	clæicinn

Also <i>r̄iol</i> , seed	gen.	<i>r̄il</i> .
<i>t̄ion</i> , flax, net	„	<i>t̄in</i> .
<i>mac</i> , a son	„	<i>mic</i> .

(e) The following change *ea* into *ei* :—

<i>r̄eap</i> ,* grass, hay	gen.	<i>r̄eip</i> .
<i>m̄eap</i> ,* a finger	„	<i>m̄eip</i> .
<i>b̄eal</i> ,* a mouth	„	<i>b̄eil</i> .
<i>cineal</i> , kind, species	„	<i>cineil</i> .
<i>cairlein</i> , a castle	„	<i>cairlein</i> .
<i>iaf̄s</i> , fish, a fish	„	<i>eiſs</i> .
<i>cliaib̄</i> , a creel, bosom	„	<i>cléib̄</i> .

(f) Some nouns change the characteristic into *ui*. They usually end in two consonants.

<i>corp</i> , a body	gen.	<i>cuip̄p</i> .
<i>bot̄s</i> , a belly	„	<i>buil̄s</i> .
<i>taip̄b</i> , a bull	„	<i>taip̄b</i> .
<i>moit̄</i> , a wether	„	<i>muil̄t̄</i> .
<i>doip̄n</i> , a fist	„	<i>duip̄n</i> .
<i>cnoc</i> , a hill	„	<i>cuic̄</i> .
<i>r̄ac</i> , a sack	„	<i>riuc̄</i> .
<i>cat̄</i> , a cat	„	<i>cuit̄</i> .

(g) The following are irregular in the nominative plural :—

<i>r̄ocat̄</i> , a word	gen.	<i>r̄ocat̄l</i>	pl.	<i>r̄ocat̄a</i> .
<i>deoir̄</i> , a drop	„	<i>deoir̄l</i>	„	<i>deoir̄a</i> .
<i>peann</i> , a pen	„	<i>piinn</i>	„	<i>peannna</i> .
<i>m̄iir̄</i> , a rampart	„	<i>m̄iir̄l</i>	„	<i>m̄iir̄ca</i> .
<i>doip̄ar̄</i> , a door	„	<i>doip̄ar̄l</i>	„	<i>doip̄ra</i> .

* More usually *r̄eap*, *m̄eap*, *b̄eal*.

ainseal, an angel	gen.	ainseil	pl.	ainsele.
tobair, a well	"	tobair	"	tobraicá.
gárrúr, a boy	"	gárrúr	"	gárrai.
rseul,* a story	"	rseil	"	rseultai.
gleann, a glen	"	gleanna	"	gleanntaí.
ceol, music	"	ceoil	"	ceoltaí.
reol, a sail	"	reoil	"	reoltaí.
úbhail, an apple	"	úbhail	"	úbhlaí.
leabhar, a book	"	leabhar	"	leabharctai.

Second Declension.

(a) The nouns of this declension are, with very few exceptions, feminine. The genitive singular is formed by adding e, which is sometimes called *the slender increase*, to the nominative singular. The dative singular is got by dropping the final e of the genitive, so that the final consonant of this case will be always slender. The nominative plural ends in a or e according as the characteristic vowel is broad or slender.
Ex. 旤róð, a shoe, 旤ní, an eye.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	旤róð, a shoe.	旤róða, shoes.
<i>Gen.</i>	旤róðe, of a shoe.	旤róð, of shoes.
<i>Dat.</i>	旤róð, a shoe.	旤róða, shoes.
<i>Voc.</i>	a 旤róð! O shoe!	a 旤róða! O shoes!

* Rseul is used for *tidings*; it is sometimes written rseula, and then means *word* or *message*. So ve 'n rseul aðat? What news? Cuim rseula cuige. Send him word.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	ṛūl, an eye.	ṛūle, eyes.
<i>Gen.</i>	ṛūte, of an eye.	ṛūl, of eyes.
<i>Dat.</i>	ṛūl, an eye.	ṛūle, eyes.
<i>Voc.</i>	ə ḫūl, O eye.	ə ḫūle, O eyes.

N.B.—Nouns declined like ḫrōs and ḫūl are for the most part monosyllabic words.

Examples for Declension.

coṛ, a foot.	ṛheus (gen. ḫrēiṣe), a lie.
cloč, a stone.	cior (g. cīrē), a comb.
réiṛ, a festival.	cearjē (g. cīrē), a hen.
lām, a hand.	beann (g. bēinne) a mountain peak.
caic, chalk.	ṛhūas (g. ḫrūaiṣe), hair.
pōs, a kiss.	ṛheas, (g. ḫrēiṣe), a crag.
muc, a pig.	ṛsiat (g. ḫseitē), a shield.
croč, a gibbet.	ṛhian (g. ḫrēiṇe), the sun.
croṛ, a cross.	ṛheac (g. cīrēiṣe), plunder.
cluap, an ear.	ṛheas (g. ḫrēiṣe), anger.
pluc, a cheek.	ṛsiān (g. ḫseine), a knife.
cūl, a church.	ṛheus (g. ḫrēiṣe), a branch.
asaiṛ, a face.	ṛhlanç, a spark, a thunderbolt.
zaoč, wind	cuač, a cuckoo, a ringlet.
nim, poison.	neam (g. neiṇe), heaven.
uō or uīō, an egg.	teac (g. tīṣe), a house (<i>m</i>).

(b) Many nouns of this declension are irregular in the nominative plural. When the nom. pl. ends in ača or ana the gen. pl. is got by dropping the final a. When the nom. pl. ends in te or i the gen. pl. is usually the same.

féir, a festival.	plural	féirfeana.
cúir, a cause.	„	cúirfeana.
luis, an herb, a weed	„	luisfeana.
céim, a step.	„	céimeana.
cairnac, a rock	„	cairnacfeana.
creas, a crag.	„	creasfeana.
raisir, a prayer.	„	raisirfeana.
craoth, a branch.	„	craothfeana.
uib, an egg.	„	uibfeana.
obair, work	„	obairfeana.
litir, a letter.	„	litirfeana.
nísean, a daughter.	„	níseanfeana.
ainn, a name.	„	ainnfeana.
rlat, a rod.	„	rlatfeana.*
áit, a place.	„	áitfeana, áití.
píghin, a penny.	„	píghineana, píghne*.
cian, an age.	„	cianfeana.
pian, a pain or pang.	„	pianfeana.
péirt, an eel-shaped monster.	„	péirtí.

(c.) Diminutives in o^g, as a general rule, have i in the plural, and, in accordance with the rule “ caol te caol,” must be written ái.

cuiteog, a lob-worm.	plural	cuiteogái
míoltog, a midge.	„	míoltogái.
cuiteog, a fly, a gnat.	„	cuiteogái.
earog, a weasel.	„	earogái.
péirteog, a worm.	„	péirteogái.

* Gen. pl. rlatac, but sometimes rlat, as in “Óimnae na rlat, Palm Sunday; píghineana refers to number, píghne to amount.

beacōs, a bee.	<i>plural</i>	beacōsai.
ſlaipeoſ, a wag-tail.	„	ſlaipeoſai.
taſoſ, a light, a match.	„	taſoſai.
rpanoſ, a spoon.	„	rpanoſai.
tucoſ, a rat.	„	tucoſai.
baſoſ, a doll.	„	baſoſai.
rpiſeoſ, a robin	„	rpiſeoſai.
ruinneoſ, a window.	„	ruinneoſai.
rpionoſ, a gooseberry.	„	rpionoſai.

(d) Nouns of more than one syllable in *ac* change *c* into *ſ* where attenuation takes place. The vocative singular is usually like the nominative singular. Ex., clápprač, a harp.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> clápprač, a harp.		clápprača, harps.
<i>Gen.</i> cláppraſe, of a harp.		clápprač, of harps.
<i>Dat.</i> cláppraſ, a harp.		clápprača, harps.
<i>Voc.</i> a clápprač! O harp!		a clápprača! O harps!

Examples for Declension.

ſioprač, a girl.	colpač, a heifer, stirk.
oimreac, a hussy.	beaprač, a heifer.
cailleac, an old woman.	ſealač, a moon.
blačač, buttermilk.	reirreac, a plough.
aiteanač, furze.	bařrač, tow.

Third Declension.

(a) The third declension comprises (1) personal nouns in *οἱ*; (2) abstract nouns in *Ἄτ*, and others expressing a singular idea; (3) verbal nouns in *Ἄθ*. The genitive singular takes the broad increase, *Ἄ*. Example, *μαλλάτ*, a curse.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	<i>μαλλάτ</i> , a curse.	<i>μαλλάταί</i> , curses.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>μαλλάτα</i> , of a curse.	<i>μαλλάτ</i> , of curses.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>μαλλάτ</i> , a curse.	<i>μαλλάταί</i> , curses.
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>Ἄ μαλλάτ!</i> O curse!	<i>Ἄ μαλλάτα!</i> O curses!

(b) When the characteristic vowel is slender it must be made broad in the genitive singular. Example, *ceόιτοι*, a musician.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	<i>ceόιτοι</i> , a mus.	<i>ceόιτοι</i> , musicians.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>ceόιτορα</i> , of a mus.	<i>ceόιτοι</i> , of musicians.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>ceόιτοι</i> , a mus.	<i>ceόιτοι</i> , musicians.
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>Ἄ ceόιτοι!</i> O mus.!	<i>Ἄ ceόιτοι!</i> O musicians!

N.B.—Nouns that express an abstract or singular idea have no plural.

Examples.

τρεατλοιη, a mower.	ραττραςτ, laziness.
εροσασοιη, a hangman.	σαναστ, boldness.
μυιτσεοιη, a miller.	ταισηρεαст, strength.
θυιρτεοιη, a butcher.	θοстаст, poverty.
τζευτσои, a story-teller.	ιαργαιреаст, fishing.
εριчнишкои, a creator.	ταιлируаст, tailoring.
ραллрои, an idler.	срionнаст, wisdom.
τοртрои, a porter.	θeаннаст, a blessing.
θиаcai, a boy.	cleap, a trick.
αltcoи, an altar.	сaт, a battle, temptation.
τoи, the will.	θpнcт, dew.
ρuи (g. ρoи), blood.	ηaт, luck, prosperity.

(c) Many nouns of this declension are irregular in some of the cases. Monosyllabic words change ιο or ι into ea in the genitive singular.

NOM. SING.	GEN. SING.	NOM. PL.
сaтai, a city.	сaтriас	сaтriасa.
τaрai, a flame	τaрriас.	τaрriасa.
αtai, a father.	αtai.	αtpeасa.
μaтai, a mother.	μaтai.	μaтpeасa.
θraтai, a confrere.	θraтai.	θraтpeасa.
θeaptai, a brother.	θeaptai.	θeaptaiасa.
θeipbriuи a sister.	θeipbriuи.	θeipbriuиасa.*
θioи, a spit.	θeapи.	θeapи.
сioт or сiт, a shower.	сeatи.	сeatи.
мoиn, turf.	мoиn.	мoиnte.

* Usually syncopated: θeipbrieасa.

(d) The genitive of verbal nouns is the same as the passive participle of the verb.

buaslað, beating	gen. buaslaðte.
molæð, praise.	„ molta.
þeannuðsæð, a blessing	„ þeannuðste.

Fourth Declension.

This declension comprises most nouns ending in a vowel or *in*. Example, *tísearðna*, a lord.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	<i>tísearðna</i> , a lord.	<i>tísearðnai</i> , lords.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>tísearðna</i> , of a lord.	<i>tísearðna</i> , of lords.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>tísearðna</i> , a lord.	<i>tísearðnai</i> , lords.
<i>Voc.</i>	á <i>tísearðna</i> ! O lord!	á <i>tísearðnai</i> ! O lords!

Ex., *píobairfe*, a piper.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	<i>píobairfe</i> , a piper.	<i>píobairfí</i> , pipers.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>píobairfe</i> , of a piper.	<i>píobairfe</i> , of pipers.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>píobairfe</i> , a piper.	<i>píobairfí</i> , pipers.
<i>Voc.</i>	á <i>píobairfe</i> ! O piper!	á <i>píobairfí</i> ! O pipers!

Ex., *cuinín*, a rabbit.

<i>N. A.</i>	<i>cuinín</i> , a rabbit.	<i>cuiníní</i> , rabbits.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>cuinín</i> , of a rabbit.	<i>cuinín</i> , of rabbits.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>cuinín</i> , a rabbit.	<i>cuiníní</i> , rabbits.
<i>Voc.</i>	á <i>cuinín</i> ! O rabbit!	á <i>cuiníní</i> ! O rabbits!

Further Examples.

mála, a bag.	cmáircín, a jar.
rcála, a dish.	coirín, a little foot.
fráinne, a ring.	ouirnín, a spade handle.
túirne, a spinning-wheel.	caitlin, a girl.
fráitse, a welcome.	fióirín, a little rose.
fráigse, a sea.	pírín, a kitten.
fríinne, truth.	muirnín, a darling.
cuirte, a vein, pulse	fuibín, a ribbon.
oirce, a night.	póisín, a little kiss.
ráirde, a child.	ailín, a brood.
rogairde, a rogue.	paróirín, a rosary beads.
máire, Mary.	caitlin, Cathleen.
árrna, a sloe.	puinte, a point (of argument).
teine, fire.	gen. teineas. pl. teinte.
baile, a town.	„ baile „ bailte.
ouine, a person.	„ ouine „ oaoine.

Fifth Declension.

The fifth declension comprises, for the most part, feminine nouns. They usually end in a vowel. Ex., peairra, a person.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>N. A.</i> peairra, a person.	peairrana, persons.
<i>Gen.</i> peairran, of a person.	peairran, of persons.
<i>Dat.</i> peairrain, a person.	peairrana, persons.
<i>Voc.</i> á peairra! O person!	á peairrana! O persons!

Examples.

Alba, Scotland.	comhuir, a neighbour.
Mumha, Munster.	sotha, a smith.
lugh, a shin.	iong, a claw, a nail.
uir, a prop.	uille, an elbow.
gual, a shoulder.	teora, a boundary.

 Éire, Ireland, *gen.* Éireann, *dat.* Éirinn, *voc.* A
éire!

Irregular Nouns.

Óis, God, a god.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	Óis.	Óeite.
<i>Gen.</i>	Óé.	Óis.
<i>Dat.</i>	Óis.	Óeite.
<i>Voc.</i>	Á Óis!	Á Óeite!

Óean, a woman.

<i>N. A.</i>	Óean.	mna.
<i>Gen.</i>	mna.	ban.
<i>Dat.</i>	óean, mnaoi.	mna.
<i>Voc.</i>	Á óean!	Á mna!

Cára, a friend.

<i>N. A.</i>	cára.	cáirde.
<i>Gen.</i>	cára, cáraid.	cára
<i>Dat.</i>	cára, cáraid.	cáirde.
<i>Voc.</i>	Á cára, a cáraid!	Á cáirde!

Cú, a hound.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>N. A.</i>	cú.	coin.
<i>Gen.</i>	cú, con.	con, cù.
<i>Dat.</i>	cú, coin.	coin.
<i>Voc.</i>	á cù!	á coin!

Caorla, a sheep.

<i>N. A.</i>	caorla.	caoiriš.
<i>Gen.</i>	caorlač	caorlač
<i>Dat.</i>	caorla	caoiriš.
<i>Voc.</i>	á caorla!	á caoiriš!

Sé, a goose.

<i>N. A.</i>	sé.	seacá.
<i>Gen.</i>	sé, sérió.	seacá.
<i>Dat.</i>	sé.	seacá.
<i>Voc.</i>	á sé!	á seacá!

Lač, a duck.

<i>N. A.</i>	lač.	lačain.
<i>Gen.</i>	lača.	lačan.
<i>Dat.</i>	lač.	lačain.
<i>Voc.</i>	á lač!	á lačain!

Bó, a cow.

<i>N. A.</i>	bó.	ba, bat.
<i>Gen.</i>	bó.	bo.
<i>Dat.</i>	bó, buin.	ba.
<i>Voc.</i>	á bó!	á ba!

Teac, a house (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	teac.	tisče.
<i>Gen.</i>	tisče, tis.	tisče, teac.
<i>Dat.</i>	tis, teac.	tisče.
<i>Voc.</i>	á teac!	á tisče!

Sliað, a mountain (*m.*)

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>N. A.</i>	þliað.	þléiðte.
<i>Gen.</i>	þléiðe.	þléiðte.
<i>Dat.</i>	þliað.	þléiðte.
<i>Voc.</i>	á þliað!	á þléiðte!

Lá, a day (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	lá.	laeté.
<i>Gen.</i>	lae.	laeté.
<i>Dat.</i>	lá.	laeté.
<i>Voc.</i>	á lá!	á laeté!

Mí, a month (*f.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	mí	míora.
<i>Gen.</i>	míora.	míor.
<i>Dat.</i>	mí.	míora.
<i>Voc.</i>	á mí!	á míora!

Bliaðað, a year (*f.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	bliaðað.	bliaðantai, bliaðona*
<i>Gen.</i>	bliaðona.	bliaðan.
<i>Dat.</i>	bliaðað.	bliaðantai.
<i>Voc.</i>	á bliaðað!	á bliaðantai!

Ceð, fog (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	ceð.	ceðca.
<i>Gen.</i>	ceðið.	ceð.
<i>Dat.</i>	ceð.	ceðca.
<i>Voc.</i>	á ceð!	á ceðca!

* Bliaðona means a definite period of time, as cíuð bliaðona, five years. Bliaðantai=an indefinite period, as tā na bliaðantai as þau tæpit, the years are passing.

Declension of Adjectives.

In Irish, all adjectives having a consonantal ending are declined; those ending in a vowel are indeclinable, being the same in all cases.

The gender of Irish adjectives is known by the company they keep. For example, *mór* is masculine when it goes with a masculine noun, but it is feminine when it goes with a feminine noun. There are three declensions of adjectives.

First Declension.

This declension comprises masculine adjectives. They are declined exactly like nouns of the first declension, except that they have *a* or *e* for the plural. Examples, *bán*, white; *rantaċ*, greedy; *binn*, melodious.

SINGULARS.

N.A. *bán*, *rantaċ*, *binn*.

Gen. *báin*, *rantaig*, *binn**

Dat. *bán*, *rantaċ*, *binn*.

Voc. *báin*, *rantaig*, *binn*.

PLURALS.

bána, *rantaċa*, *binne*.

bán, *rantaċ*, *binn*.

bána, *rantaċa*, *binne*.

bána, *rantaċa*, *binne*.

Second Declension.

This declension comprises feminine adjectives, and they are declined like nouns of the Second Declension. Using the same adjectives :

SINGULARS.

N.A. *bán*, *rantaċ*, *binn*.

Gen. *báine*, *rantaig*, *binne*.

Dat. *báin*, *rantaig*, *binn*.

Voc. *báin*, *rantaċ*, *binn*.

PLURALS.

bána, *rantaċa*, *binne*.

bán, *rantaċ*, *binn*.

bána, *rantaċa*, *binne*.

bána, *rantaċa*, *binne*.

* *binn* is already slender, therefore no change.

Third Declension.

This declension comprises all adjectives in *amail*. They are declined like nouns of the Third Declension. Example, *feapamail*, manly.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	<i>feapamail</i> .	<i>feapamaila</i> .
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>feapamila</i> .	<i>feapamail</i> .
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>feapamail</i> .	<i>feapamila</i> .
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>feapamail</i> .	<i>feapamila</i> .

N.B.—These forms are used for mas. and fem. nouns.

The Article, Adjective, and Noun Declined.

(a) The article aspirates the initial of a feminine noun in the nominative, accusative, and dative singular. It aspirates the initial of a masculine noun in the genitive and dative singular. If there is an adjective with the noun, its initial will be aspirated in these cases, even when the article is not used. In the genitive plural, the initials of noun and adjective are eclipsed.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N.A.</i> <i>an bád báin</i> *		<i>na báid bána</i> .
<i>Gen.</i> <i>an báid báin</i> .		<i>na m-báid m-báin</i> .
<i>Dat.</i> <i>aipí an bád báin</i> .		<i>aipí na báid bána</i> .
<i>Voc.</i> <i>a báid báin!</i>		<i>a báida bána!</i>

* The white boat.

SINGULAR.

N. A. an Ծրծ Եան*
Gen. ու Երօնց Եանէ.
Dat. այ ան Երօնց Եան.
Voc. Ա Երօնց Եան !

PLURAL.

ու Երօնց Եանա.
 ու մ-Երօնց մ-Եան.
 այ ու Երօնց Եանա.
 Ա Երօնց Եանա !

N. A. ան Եած մին †
Gen. ան Եած մին.
Dat. անոյ ան Եած մին.
Voc. Ա Եած մին !

ու Եած մինէ.
 ու մ-Եած մին.
 ւեյ ու Եած մինէ.
 Ա Եածա մինէ !

N. A. ան Երօն մին ‡
Gen. ու Երօնց մինէ.
Dat. անոյ ան Երօնց մին.
Voc. Ա Երօնց մին !

ու Երօնց մինէ.
 ու մ-Երօն մին.
 այ ու Երօնց մինէ.
 Ա Երօնց մին !

FIRST EXCEPTION: Initial τ and ω are not aspirated by the article, but a feminine adjective may have its initial aspirated in the usual way; as, *ան τիր* τիրմ or *ան τիր տիրմ* (*f*).

SECOND EXCEPTION: Nouns beginning with ρ, instead of being aspirated, are eclipsed in the singular number. S is *never eclipsed* anywhere else. Initial ρ of adjectives is *aspirated* in the usual way.

THIRD EXCEPTION: Words beginning with ρβ, ρc, ρω, ρց, ρմ, ρպ, or ρտ can neither be eclipsed nor aspirated.

* The white shoe ;

† the smooth boat ;

‡ the smooth shoe.

Examples.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> an ταριθ τίνν *	na τυιριθ τίννε.
<i>Gen.</i> an τυιριθ τίνν.	na θ-ταριθ θ-τίνν.
<i>Dat.</i> αιρι an ταριθ τίνν.	αιρι na τυιριθ τίννε.
<i>Voc.</i> α τυιριθ τίνν!	α ταριθα τίννε!
<i>N. A.</i> an τ-ρλατ ράρτα †	na ρλαταče ράρτα.
<i>Gen.</i> na ρλατε ράρτα.	na ρλαταče ράρτα.
<i>Dat.</i> αιρι an τ-ρλατ ράρτα.	αιρι na ρλαταče ράρτα
<i>Voc.</i> α ρλατ ράρτα!	α ρλαταče ράρτα!
<i>N. A.</i> an ργαδαν ργαλτα ‡	na ργαδαιν ργαλτα.
<i>Gen.</i> an ργαδαιν ργαλτα.	na ργαδαν ργαλτα.
<i>Dat.</i> αιρι an ργαδαιν ργαλτα.	αιρι na ργαδαιν ργαλτα.
<i>Voc.</i> α ργαδαιν ργαλτα!	α ργαδаna ργαлта!

(b) *Masculine nouns* beginning with a vowel and declined with the article, prefix τ in the nominative and accusative singular; and *all nouns, masculine and feminine*, beginning with a vowel take η after the article να, but the genitive plural requires η.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> an τ-αριαν ιρι §	na η-αριαιη ιρια.
<i>Gen.</i> an αριαιη ιρι.	na η-αριαν ιρι.
<i>Dat.</i> αιρι an αριαν ιρι.	αιρι na η-αριαιη ιρια.
<i>Voc.</i> α αριαιη ιρι!	α αριана ιριа!

* The sick bull; † the handy rod; ‡ the paltry herring; § the fresh bread.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> ən uib ńr*	na h-uibeača ńra.
<i>Gen.</i> na h-uibe ńipe.	na n-uibeac ńri.
<i>Dat.</i> ənnř ən uib ńir.	aři na h-uibeac ńra.
<i>Voc.</i> a uib ńir!	a uibeacla ńra!

N.B.—(1) The dative case, as we have seen, is governed by a preposition. (2) In the vocative case the adjective is aspirated in the singular only. (3) Adjectives beginning with a vowel and declined as above are not influenced in any way. (4) Nouns and adjectives beginning with *l*, *n*, or *ŋ*, are never influenced.

To be Declined.

ən feař beař,	the little man.
ən ńean beař,	the little woman.
ən ńtōcač lađač,	the winsome youth.
ən ńiopřač lađač,	the winsome girl.
ən t-eařlač břađač,	the thievish cattle.
ən ńo eolac,	the knowing cow.
ən řiocan břan,	the white frost.
ən řalann mřin,	the fine salt.
ən lám lárviř,	the strong hand.
ən řuřbřiř řiřgiř,	the tough ribbon.
ən nřim nřmneac,	the painful poison.
ən hata aerač,	the gaudy hat.
ən beařlač-moři,	the road, the highway.
ən bařle-moři,	the town.

* The fresh egg.

 **Bealac-mór** = a highway, **bealac mor** = a long or big road; **baile-mór** = a town or village, **baile mór** = a big locality or town. **Bealac-mór** conveys but one idea, viz., "road," while **bealac mor** conveys two ideas, viz., "road" and "big." It is, therefore, better to join two words when they convey but one idea. See "Compound Words."

mala-leatáir = a leathern bag.

mala leatáir = a bagful of leather.

mala an leatáir = the bag for holding leather.

Special Use of the Article.

- (1) Before surnames: **An Ódóherty**, O'Doherty.
- (2) Before names of countries, **An Spáin**, Spain.
- (3) Before abstract names: **an t-octráir**, hunger.
- (4) Before adjectives used as nouns: **an t-óilc**, evil.
- (5) In stating time: **An cúnig o chloig**, Five o'clock.
- (6) Before a noun with a demonstrative pronoun: **an fheadh ro**, this man.
- (7) After "Cia?" or "Cé?": **Cé 'n fheadh?** What man?
- (8) "A piece" or "per": **píśin an ceann**, a penny a piece; **ré píśne an duirín**, sixpence per dozen. But, a penny per day = **píśin 'r an lá**.
- (9) To express contempt: **Seamus an cinn mór** big-headed James. **Siotta na g-cor g-cam!** (You) crooked-legged fellow!

(10) To mark profession :

Father O'Donnell	An t-árasaí A Domhnaill.
Dr. Kelly.	An Doctuair A Ceallaigh.

(11) To express connection :

Máire an Gleanna	Mary from the Glen.
Seán an tailtí	The tailor's John

N.B.—“John” in the last example may be a son or a servant.

(12) To express *some* or *any* : *Ní* *fuil* *an* *capall*
asam=I have not any horses. [See *some* or *any*].

Syncopated Words.

When the characteristic element of a word is short, the preceding consonant attracts a final *i*, *u*, *ŋ*, or *r*, when a new syllable beginning with a vowel is added; thus, telescoping, so to speak, the characteristic vowel or vowels.

Examples.

lárain + ača = lárainaca = lár--naca = láraca.

cáthair + ača = cáthairaca = cáth--naca = cáthaca.

raisoir + ača = raisoiraca = raiso--naca = raisoireaca.

lárain + ac = lárainac = lár--nac = láraca.

obair + e = obaire = ob--re = oibre.

úmáil + a = úmala = úm--la = úmla.

The following is an example of a syncopated noun and adjective declined:—*obair feirbamail*, manly work.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
		First Idea.
<i>N. & A.</i>	obair feirbamail	obairiaca feirbamaila.
<i>Gen.</i>	obaire feirbamaila	obairiac feirbamail.
<i>Dat.</i>	obair feirbamail	obairiaca feirbamaila.
		Second Idea.
	obair feirbamail	ob--riaca feirbam--la.
	ob--rie feirbam--la	ob--riac feirbamail.
	obair feirbamail	ob--riaca feirbam--la.
		Syncopated.
	obair feirbamail	oirbreaca* feirbamila.
	oirbre feirbamila	oirbreac feirbamail.
	obair feirbamail	oirbreaca feirbamila

Family Names.

(a) The prefix “O” is rendered in Irish by Δ , the shortened form of $u\Delta$, a descendant. It has a feminine form $n\bar{i}$, which causes aspiration. Both forms are followed by the genitive case. Δ may also be written O, especially in translating “O’Neill,” the feminine form being the same, $n\bar{i}$.

James O’Donnell	Séamus Δ ÓÓmnail.
Mary O’Donnell	Máire $n\bar{i}$ ÓÓmnail.
John O’Neill	Seán O néill.
Nora O’Neill	Nora $n\bar{i}$ néill.
Patrick O’Doherty	Pádraig Δ ÓÓchartaigh.
Una O’Doherty	Una $n\bar{i}$ ÓÓchartaigh.

* Not $oirbreaca$; the root of the gen. sing. is preferred.

(b) The genitive case of *ua* is *uī* or *i*; that of *O* is *i*.
 1. The feminine *ní* does not change. *uī* is preferred to *i*.

James O'Donnell's son	mac Séamuir uī Ómhnail.
Mary O'Donnell's son	mac mairé ní Ómhnail.
John O'Neill's son	mac Seán Óg uī néill.

(c) The prefix "Mac" is rendered by *mac*, a son, usually shortened to *ac*. The feminine form is *nic*. No aspiration takes place, but both forms are followed by the genitive. *mac* becomes *mic* in the genitive.

Charles MacHugh	Séamus ac Aoirod.
Sarah MacHugh	Sorcha nic Aoirod.
George MacSweeney	Seóighe ac Suibhne.
Brigid MacSweeney	Briúgaid nic Suibhne.
Hugh MacSweeney's son	mac Aoirod mic Suibhne.

(d) In many cases the Irish prefix *ua* or *a* is used when there is none in English.

James Kelly	Séamus a Ceallaigh.
Brigid Kelly	Briúgaid ní Ceallaigh.
Daniel Boyle	Dómhnall a Óaoighail.
Annie Boyle	Anna ní Óaoighail.

(e) Some names take the article after *mac* and *nic*. Before a consonant *mac an* is shortened to *aca*, the feminine form being *nica* or *nioca*.

Cormac Ward	Cormac aca Óáird.
Mary Ward	máiré níoca Óáird.
Denis MacNulty	Dónncaidh mac an Uladh.
Nora MacNulty	nóra níic an Uladh.

(f) In using the surname only, we use the article with the nominative case, taking care to make the

* The article aspirates here, as it is really a contracted genitive. *mac an Óáird* means the son of the bard, but as a surname we now say *aca Óáird*. *Craig* = *a Craige*, and not *a Craige*.

latter end in *áċ*. This rule, however, is not general; in fact many surnames never admit it, and many others make it optional.

O'Doherty is coming	Τά ἀν Τοċaġitac ā᷑ς τεaċt.
Boyle is coming	Τά ἀν Βaoġallac ā᷑ς τεaċe.
O'Donnell is coming	Τά ἀν Τálaċ ā᷑ς τεaċt.
Craig is coming	Τά ἀν Τħieaġac ā᷑ς τεaċt.
MacNulty is coming	Τά mac an Ultaiġ ā᷑ς τεaċt.
MacNeill is coming	Τά mac Néill ā᷑ς τεaċt.
MacSweeney is coming	Τά mac Suibne ā᷑ς τεaċt.

Governing Power of Nouns.

(a) In Irish a noun can govern another noun in the genitive case, and the governed noun comes last. A definite noun can be governed by a definite noun only, and in discharging this function the governing noun never takes the article.

The head of the horse	Ceann an ċapail.
The sand of the sea	Σainim na faiġie.
The taste of the bread	Blar an aġain.
The smell of the fish	Volao ān ēiġi.
The halter of the horse	Adħarrtaġi an ċapail.
The foot of the hen	Cor na cipce.
The son of the king	Mac an ri.

(b) A definite noun can also govern an indefinite noun in the genitive case, and if the genitive expresses quality, connection or origin, the governing noun never takes the article.

It has the taste of bread	Τά blar aġain aix.
It has the smell of fish	Τά volao ēiġi aix.
The halter of a horse	Adħarrtaġi ċapail.
The foot of a hen	Cor cipce.
The son of a king	Mac ri.

(c) When the indefinite genitive denotes a part of something, or the material of which something is

made, the governing definite noun will have the article expressed.

The bite of bread	Αν στρειμ αριαν.
The draught of wine	Αν θεοć ριόνα.
The bag of meal	Αν μάλα μινε.
The streak of light	Αν ρτηϊօс ρολυϊ.
The spark of lightning	Αν ρπλαң ροιλιр.
The house of gold	Αν τεαć δίηι.
The bag (made) of leather	Αν μαλα լεաչար.

(d) The use to which a thing is put, or the place where a thing is found or produced is expressed by a definite genitive.

μαλα αν լեաչար	The bag for holding leather.
μαλα να μινε	The bag for meal, the meal bag.
τεαć αν δίηι	The house for storing gold.
Ծիսաć αν ալիշո	The hill where silver is got.
Ծուկ αն ձիր	The hill where slaughter occurred.
Լոշ αν τ-ροլուր	The light-reflecting lake.
Ծլանքան αν τ-ροլուր	The flashing sword.

(e) An indefinite noun can govern an indefinite noun only.

A piece of bread	Հιօտա αριαն.
A cup of water	Ծուրա սիրցե.
A drink of milk	Ծεօć եաննե.
A house of gold	Τεαć δίηι.
A bag of flour	μάλα բլնիր.

(f) The English possessive case is rendered by the genitive, the initial of which must be aspirated if it is a proper name.*

The king's sister's son's shoe	Երից մից ծειլթիսլա αν բի.
Mary's sister's son's shoe	Երից մից ծειլթիսլա մալիր.

* EXCEPT: Mac Τέ, թելε մալի, թելε թաջսու, թելε էօն, թելε թեռալի, &c. Like family names after Mac and Ma, there is no aspiration after թելε, a feast or festival.

N.B.—Mary's sister's son's shoe = The shoe of the son of the sister of Mary. It is plain, therefore, that the article cannot be used here with *τηλος*, mic and *σειρθησια*, each being a governing noun.

Compound Words.

(a) When we form a compound word in Irish the initial of the second part will be aspirated, the first part performing the function of a prefix or adjective.*

Cúl-éaint	Back-talk, back-biting.
Caorú-feoil	Sheep-flesh, mutton.
muic-feoil	Pig-flesh, bacon.
fiorú-θuan	Steadfast, faithful.
fiorú-θilir	Sincere.

(b) When the first part does not perform the function of an adjective or prefix the second part is usually in the genitive case, and is often equivalent to an adjective or affix. Hence the aspiration of the second part will depend on the gender of the first part.

An fearg-ceoil	The musician.
An firg-ceoil	Of the musician.
An fearg-muire	The madman.
An firg-muire	Of the madman.
An érwaac-móna	The turf-stack.
Na érwaicé-móna	Of the turf-stack.
An bó-θainne	The milch cow.
Na bó-θainne	Of the milch cow.
Sgian-þóca	A penknife.
Aiþgeas-þóca	Pocket money.

* There are some exceptions which should be committed to memory. Here are a few:—Ceann-tír, a cape; bean-θia, a goddess; bean-tísealma, a lady; fearn-θuine, an old man; buan-þaoðatlað, long-lived, &c.

N.B.—These compounds may or may not be joined by a hyphen. In either case *they convey but one idea*, and must, therefore, be looked upon as *single words*; otherwise the article could not be used with them, as above.

☞ The student must not suppose that every genitive that comes after a noun counts as an adjective. It is only when the genitive is *a part of the compound* that it is equivalent to an adjective.

Comparison of Adjectives.

(a) The comparative of superiority and inferiority is formed by putting *níor* before the genitive singular feminine of the positive.

A whiter cat

Cat *níor* báine.*

He is blacker than Hugh

Tá *re* *níor* *tauibé* na *daó*.

He was blacker than Hugh

Óí *re* *níor* *tauibé* na *daó*.

(b) With the verb *ír*, the comparative sign *níor* is not used, except when the comparative qualifies a noun, as in the last example below.

Una is darker than Mary

Ír *tauibé* *Una* na *máirfe*.

Una was darker than Mary

Buó *tauibé* *Una* na *máirfe*.

She is a darker girl than Una

Ír *tauibé* *an cailín* i na *Una*.

She was a darker girl than Una

Buó *tauibé* *an cailín* i na *Una*.

Nora is a darker girl.

Ír cailín *níor* *tauibé* *nóra*.

* Cat *níor* báine, *i.e.*, cat *níor* a *ír* báine = a cat *a thing which is* whiter. *Níor* a *ír* was formerly written *níor-ra*, *níor-a*, and *níra*; and at present we write it as above. As may be seen, *níor*, *i.e.*, *níor* a *ír*, sometimes becomes *ní buó*, *i.e.*, *níor* a *buó*, the relative being omitted. It is usual to call *níor* the comparative sign.

(c) With past tenses, *níor* is often written *ní bu* or *ní ba*, especially when the two objects compared are both connected with past time.

Una was darker than Mary (is) *Bí Una níor thíbe na máire.*
 Una was darker than Mary (was) *Bí Una ní ba thíbe na máire.*
 Una was younger than Mary (was) *Bí Una ní b' óige na máire.*

 I never drank sweeter wine than that =

(1) { I never drank sweeter wine than that (is).
 níor ól me ariam píon níor mílre na rím.

(2) { I never drank sweeter wine than that (was).
 níor ól me ariam píon ba mílre na rím.

(3) { I never drank wine which was sweeter than that.
 1. *níor ól me ariam píon a bí níor mílre na rím.*
 2. *níor ól me ariam píon a bí ní ba mílre na rím.*
 3. *níor ól me ariam píon ba* mílre na rím.*

(d) The comparative of equality is formed by putting *co* or *co* before the positive and *te* after it. When there is a second verb *te* becomes *agur* or *a'r*.

I am as big as Mary	<i>Tá me co mói te máire.</i>
I am as big as you	<i>Tá me co mói teat-ra.</i>
I am as big as I was	<i>Tá me co mói a'r bí me.</i>

The Superlative.

(a) In English we say "the blackest horse," but in Irish we say "the horse *which is* blackest" or "the horse *which was* blackest." In like manner, "You are the fairest" is "You are *who are* fairest," and "You were the fairest" is "You were *who were* fairest." The form of the adjective is the same as in

* This is not the comparative sign. *ba* here discharges the same function as "*bí*" in the preceding example, the relative *a* being understood.

the comparative. Always omit the relative, as, *the blackest coal = an gual (a) iр туйбе = an gual iр туйбе*.

The blackest horse (present)	an gealíran iр туйбе.
The blackest horse (past)	an gealíran ba туйбе
You are the fairest	iр тú iр түр.
You were the fairest	буó тú ба түр
You are the fairest girl	iр тú an cailín iр түр
You were the fairest girl	буó тú an cailín ба түр.

(b) When the superlative sign is *ba* it aspirates, except in the case of *o* and *t*, and before a vowel sound it usually becomes *ab*.

He was the biggest man	буó é an fearí ba тó.
He was the fleetest man	буó é an fearí ba ғуирт.
He was the best man	буó é an fearí ab ғеáрн
He was the youngest man	буó é an fearí ab óиғе

(c) As principal verbs, *iр* and *buó* (or *ba*) express simple present and simple past time respectively, and as there are no other forms of this verb in modern use, the other tenses are expressed by the aid of a relative *ta* clause.

You are wont to be the smartest man in the country.
 You will be the smartest man in the country.
 You used to be the smartest man in the country.
 You would be the smartest man in the country.

iр тú an fearí iр ғуирт a ғиðеар ған тíр.
 iр тú an fearí iр ғуирт a ғеірөеар ған тíр.
 буó тú an fearí ba ғуирт a ғиðеаd ған тíр.
 буó тú an fearí ba ғуирт a ғеірөеаd ған тíр.

N.B.—In comparing adjectives we use *nior* and *iр* as signs of the comparative and superlative, as, *baan*, *nior baine*, *iр baine*, white, whiter, whitest.

Irregular Comparison.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
τοῦ, big, great	πιορ τό	ιπ τό.
νεας, small	πιορ λύς	ιπ λύς.
μαῖτ, good	πιορ φεάρη	ιπ φεάρη.
οἰς, bad	πιορ μεαρα	ιπ μεαρα.
ραῦα, long	πιορ ραιοε	ιπ ραιοε.
τεῖτ, hot, warm	πιορ τεο	ιπ τεο.
ρυπαρ, easy	πιορ ρυρα	ιπ ρυρα.
εινντε, sure	πιορ εινντιγε	ιπ εινντιγε.
μινιc, often	πιορ μιονα	ιπ μιονα.
ζαρτα, smart, clever	πιορ ζαιρτε	ιπ ζαιρτε.
ζεαρη } short.	πιορ ζιορη	ιπ ζιορη.
ζαιρινο } short.		

Position of Adjectives.

Adjectives are placed after the nouns they qualify, as τελε τοι, a big house. Τροc, bad, and ρεαn, old, and all the simple numerals stand before their nouns. When ζεαρη stands after its noun it means *short*, but when it stands before the noun it means *medium-sized*. Ριοp, true, often discharges the function of a prefix; it then has a different meaning, as, Ριοp-υιρζε, real-water, *i.e.*, spring-water. Sometimes it acts as an intensive particle, as, Ριοp-ζηάννα, very ugly. Τεας, good (in a moral sense) always precedes its noun, and is really a prefix, as, νεας-θυine, a morally good person.

 In poetry, monosyllabic adjectives often stand before the nouns they qualify, but this should not be imitated in prose.

Adjectives Referring Back.

When an adjective refers to a noun already spoken of, it must be accompanied by some such word as, ceann, a head, ríne, a person, fear, a man, bean, a woman, etc.

The biggest is black

Τά an ceann iр mó ṭub.

The eldest is a good girl

Τά an ḫean iр ríne na caillín ṭairt.

Give me the reddest

Τάbhairi ṭairt an ceann iр ríneighe.

You have the best

Τά an ceann iр feárrí aghat-ra.

Agreement of Adjectives.

(a) Adjectives that immediately follow the nouns they qualify agree with them in number, gender, and case.

A big man and a small woman

fearí mórl aghair bean ḫeag.

Big men and small women

fiři mórla aghair mna ḫeagla.

(b) When an adjective stands alone as predicate it is invariable.

The cows are *big*

Τά na ba mórl.

The big cows are *black*

Τά na ba mórla ṭub.

He made the knives *sharp*

ríšne ré na ḫriana gheair.

He made the sharp knives

ríšne ré na ḫriana gheairla.

☞ The adjective ṭrioc cannot stand alone as predicate. Hence it would be wrong to say Τά an ḫo ṭrioc, the cow is bad.

(c) When an adjective qualifies two or more *indefinite* nouns, it agrees with the noun next it only. But if they are *definite* nothing strange occurs except that the article must be used with each noun in Irish :

A good man and woman

fearí aghair bean ṭairt.

A good woman and man

bean aghair fearí ṭairt.

The good man and woman

an fearí aghair an ḫean ṭairt.

The good woman and man

an ḫean aghair an fearí ṭairt.

(d) When an adjective stands before its noun it is invariable as to form, but it aspirates the initial of its noun, and is, itself, liable to be affected just as if it formed part of the noun :

O thou bad man !	Á óríg ó fíor !
O ye bad men !	Á óríg ó fíora !
The head of the old horse	Céann an t-rean ósraill.

(e) The intensive particles *an*, *in*, *ráir*, *fior*, *úr*, etc., are prefixed to adjectives, the latter being aspirated by them. Most of the monosyllabic adjectives already referred to, perform the same function to nouns.

Partitive Words.

NOTE :—A word is definite when it is preceded by the definite article, a possessive pronoun, a demonstrative pronoun, or a possessive case, as, *the cow*, *this cow*, *my cow*, *John's cow*. Phrases like *the full of a spoon*, *the full of a boat*, being equivalent to *a spoonful*, *a boatful*, are indefinite.

(a) A noun preceded by a *definite* word expressing fulness or part must be rendered in Irish by the genitive case.

<i>The full of a boat</i>	Lán báir.
<i>The full of the boat</i>	Lán an báir.
<i>The whole of the boat</i>	Tomlán an báir.
<i>The half of this boat</i>	Leat an báir ro.
<i>The third of the man's boat</i>	Cúlán báir an fírl.

(b) A *definite noun* preceded by an *indefinite* word expressing fulness or part must be rendered by the dative with *oe*.

It is full of the bread	τά ρέ λάν νε 'ν αραν.
Plenty of the bread	νεαρτ νε 'ν αραν.
Much of this bread	μοραν νε 'ν αραν ρο.
Little of that bread	βεαγαν νε 'ν αραν ριν.
Some of the bread	κυρι νε 'ν αραν.
More of the bread	τυλλεαδ νε 'ν αραν.
A fair-share of the bread	κυρι ματ νε 'ν αραν.
The full of a boat of the bread	λάν βάιο νε 'ν αραν.
A spoonful of the honey	λάν ρρανοιζε νε 'ν μιλ.

(c) An *indefinite* noun preceded by an *indefinite* adjective of fulness or part may be rendered either by the genitive, or by νε with the dative.

Plenty of bread	νεαρτ αραν or νεαρτ νε αραν.
Much bread	μοραν αραν,, μοραν νε αραν.
Little bread	βεαγαν αραν,, βεαγαν νε αραν.
Full of bread	λάν αραν,, λάν νε αραν.

Numeral Adjectives.

CARDINALS.

- Δον.
- Δά, νό.
- Τρι.
- ceιτρε, ceatαιρ.
- cύις.
- ρέ.
- ρεατ.
- οct.
- ηαοι.
- τειδ.
- Δον-θευς.
- νό-θευς.
- τρι-θευς.
- ceatαιρ-θευς.

ORDINALS.

- 1st όντο.
- 2nd ναρα.
- 3rd τριταδ, τρεαρ.
- 4th ceatηαδ.
- 5th cύισεαδ.
- 6th ρειρεαδ, ρέμεαδ.
- 7th ρεαταδ.
- 8th οctαδ.
- 9th ηαομαδ.
- 10th τειδεαδ.
- 11th Δοναδ-θευς.
- 12th νόμαδ-θευς.
- 13th τριτεαδ-θευς.
- 14th ceatηαδ-θευς.

CARDINALS.

15. cūis-œus.
 16. ré-œus.
 17. reac̄t-œus.
 18. oēt-œus.
 19. naoi-œus.
 20. piē.
 21. aon a' r piē.
 22. oō a' r piē.
 23. t̄p̄i a' r piē.
 24. ceat̄aip̄ a' r piē.
 25. cūis a' r piē.
 26. ré a' r piē.
 27. reac̄t a' r piē.
 28. oēt a' r piē.
 29. naoi a' r piē.
 30. veic̄ a' r piē.
 31. aon-œus a' r piē.
 40. oā piē.
 50. veic̄ a' r oā piē.
 60. t̄p̄i piē.
 70. veic̄ a' r t̄p̄i piē.
 80. ceit̄pe piē.
 90. veic̄ a' r ceit̄pe
 piē.
 100. cēaō.
 200. oā cēaō.
 300. t̄p̄i cēaō.

ORDINALS.

15th cūiseaō-œus.
 16th reirœaō-œus,
 rēmeaō-œus.
 17th reac̄taō-œus.
 18th oētaō-œus.
 19th naom̄aō-œus.
 20th piēaō.
 21st aonaoō aip̄ piē.
 22nd oōm̄aoō aip̄ piē.
 23rd t̄p̄imeaō aip̄ piē.
 24th ceat̄raō aip̄ piē.
 25th cūiseaō aip̄ piē.
 26th rēmeaō aip̄ piē.
 27th reac̄taō aip̄ piē.
 28th oētaō aip̄ piē.
 29th naom̄aō aip̄ piē.
 30th veic̄eaō aip̄ piē.
 31st aonaoō-œus aip̄ piē.
 40th oā piēdeaoō.
 50th veic̄eaō aip̄ oā piē.
 60th t̄p̄i piēdeaoō.
 70th veic̄eaō aip̄ t̄p̄i piē.
 80th ceit̄pe piēdeaoō.
 90th veic̄eaō aip̄ ceit̄pe
 piē.
 100th cēaōaō.
 200th oā cēaōaō.
 300th t̄p̄i cēaōaō.

* Aȝur piē may also be used.

400. <i>ceit̄pe cēaō.</i>	400th <i>ceit̄pe cēaōaō.</i>
500. <i>cūis cēaō.</i>	500th <i>cūis cēaōaō.</i>
600. <i>ré cēaō.</i>	600th <i>ré cēaōaō.</i>
700. <i>reac̄t s-cēaō.</i>	700th <i>reac̄t s-cēaōaō.</i>
800. <i>oēt s-cēaō.</i>	800th <i>oēt s-cēaōaō.</i>
900. <i>naoi s-cēaō.</i>	900th <i>naoi s-cēaōaō.</i>
1000. <i>teīc̄ s-cēaō; mīle.</i>	1000th <i>mīleāō.</i>

N.B.—*pīce*, *cēaō*, and *mīle* are declined: *pīce*, gen. *pīceāō*, dat. *pīceīo*, plural *pīcēīo*; *cēaō*, gen. *cēīo*, dat. *cēaō*, plural *cēaōtāī*; *mīle* (4th decl.) plural *mīlē* and *mīlēī*. The article must be placed before the ordinals, and *h* must be used when the numeral begins with a vowel, as, *an h-aonāō*, *an h-oētāō*. This *h* is also used with the cardinals when the article is used, as, *an h-aon*, *an h-oēt*.

 *mīle* is also plural, and means a *definite* number of thousands, as, *cūis mīle*, five thousand. The same applies to *mīle*, a mile.

First, Last, Once, Twice, &c.

The first man	<i>An cēuo ūeap̄.</i>
The last man	<i>An ūeap̄ ūeip̄eanaōc̄.</i>
Do this first	<i>Tean ūo a'cēuo uaīi, aīi ū-tūr, aīi ūnūr.</i>
He did it at last	<i>Rinne ūe é ū ūeip̄eaō, ū ūeip̄eaō.</i>
He is first	<i>Tā ūe a ū-toip̄eac̄.</i>
He is last	<i>Tā ūe aīi ūeip̄eaō.</i>
The first time	<i>An cēuo uaīi.</i>
The last time	<i>An uaīi ūeip̄eanaōc̄.</i>
How many times?	<i>Ca ūeuo uaīi?</i>
Once, twice	<i>Uaīi a'māīn, ūā uaīi.</i>
Thrice	<i>Tūi h-uaīie.</i>
Four times	<i>Ceit̄pe h-uaīie.</i>
Seven times	<i>Seac̄t n-uaīie.</i>

The Numeral Substantives.

(a) The numeral substantives are so called because they perform the functions of nouns and adjectives. They are as follows :—

ԵԵՐԴ, two.	ՐԵՐԵԱՐ, six.
ԵՐԵՎՐ, three.	ՐԵԱԾՏԱՐ, seven.
ԸԵԱԾԻԱՐ, four.	ՕԾՏԱՐ, eight.
ԸՎԻԶԵԱՐ, five.	ՆՈՆԾԱՐ, nine.
ԵՎԵՆԵԱՐ (or ԵՎԵՆԵԱԾԱՐ) ten.	

(b) They take the singular of the article : ԱՆ ԵԵՐԴ, ԱՆ ԵՐԵՎՐ; ԱՆ ԸԵԱԾԻԱՐ; ԱՆ ԸՎԻԶԵԱՐ; ԱՆ ՐԵՐԵԱՐ, ԱՆ ՐԵԱԾՏԱՐ, ԱՆ Ի-ՕԾՏԱՐ; ԱՆ ՆՈՆԾԱՐ, ԱՆ ԵՎԵՆԵԱՐ. Note that ԵԵՐԴ, ԸՎԻԶԵԱՐ, and ԸԵԱԾԻԱՐ are influenced by the article.

Use of the Numerals.

(1) In counting, in the abstract, we must never use ԵԱ or ԸԵՎՐ. In translating numerals we begin with the small numbers ; thus, 35 = ԸՎԻԶ-ԵԵՍ ԱՌ ՔԻԾԵ ; 3472 = ԵՎԵՆԵԱԾ ԱՌ ԵՐԻ ՔԻԾԻ ԱԶՄՐ ԸԵՎՐ ԸԵԱԾ ԱԻՐ (or ԱԶՄՐ) ԵՐԻ ՄԻԼԵ. When a numeral is conveniently small, and a multiple of ՔԻԾԵ or ԸԵԱԾ, it is better to count by multiples. Thus, 120 is ՐԵ ՔԻԾԻ ; 140, ՐԵԱԾ Ե-ՔԻԾԻ ; 1200, ԵԱ ԸԵԱԾ ԵԵՍ ; 1500, ԸՎԻԶ ԸԵԱԾ ԵԵՍ.  When ԸԵԱԾ is absent, ՔԻԾԵ and ՄԻԼԵ do not go well together ; hence 1020 must be written ՐԵ ՔԻԾԻ ԱԶՄՐ ԽԱԾԻ Ե-ԸԵԱԾ, not ՔԻԾԵ ԱԶՄՐ ՄԻԼԵ, or ՄԻԼԵ ԱԶՄՐ ՔԻԾԵ which might mean 21 thousand.

(2) When an English cardinal numeral stands (by itself) for persons, we must use either a numeral sub-

stantive with *oe* and the dative case, or a cardinal and *cláigseann* (skull, pl. *cláigse*) with *oe* and a dative.

Five of the men { Cúigearf *oe* na *fiú*.
Cúig *cláigse* *oe* na *fiú*.

Five of the tribe { Cúigearf *oe* 'n *ófheam*.
Cúig *cláigse* *oe* 'n *ófheam*.

(3) In answer to "how many?" an English numeral which stands (by itself) either for persons or things, must be rendered by a numeral substantive, or by a cardinal accompanied by *cláigseann* or *ceann*; *ceann* in the case of irrational animals and things, *cláigseann* in the case of persons.

How many men? *Five*=---? Cúigearf or Cúig *cláigse*.

How many cows? *Five*=---? Cúigearf, Cúig *cinn*.

How many boats? *Five*=---? Cúigearf, Cúig *cinn*.

(4) When an English cardinal numeral qualifies "men," "women," "children," or any such word which stands for persons, it *may* be rendered in Irish by a numeral substantive followed by the genitive plural of the noun.

Seven men { (1) Seadctarí *fear*.
(2) Seadct *b-fír*.
(3) Seadct *g-cláigse* *fear*.

 The two are here=ta an *b-eit* ann *ro*; the three are here=ta an *t-triúr* ann *ro*, &c.

(5) In answer to, "what time is it?"

One	or one o'clock	An* <i>h-aon</i> .
Two	„ two o'clock	An <i>do</i> .
Three	„ three o'clock	An <i>tri</i> .
Four	„ four o'clock	An <i>ceadair</i> .
Five	„ five o'clock	An <i>cuig</i> .
Eight	„ eight o'clock	An <i>h-oct</i> .
Eleven	„ eleven o'clock	An <i>h-aon-deus</i> .
Twelve	„ twelve o'clock	An <i>do-deus</i> .

* This is the article.

Noon	An meádon tae.
Midnight	An meádon oírche.
A quarter past two	Céadhaó a n-ónaig an tó.
Half past two	Leat a n-ónaig an tó.
A quarter to three	Céadhaó go t-tí 'n tó.
What o'clock is it?	So té 'n clois a b-fuileadh?
What time is it?	So té 'n t-am a b-fuileadh?
It is five o'clock	Tá pé an cúig o clois.

(d) With adjective and noun :

One white horse	Capall amháin bán.
Two white horses	Óá capall bána.
Three white horses	Triú capaill bána.
Seven white horses	Seacht g-capaill bána.
Twelve white horses	Óá capall deug bána.
Twelve white cows	Óá buin deug bána.
Fifteen white horses	Cuig capaill deug bána.
Thirty-five white horses	Cuig capaill deug agus fíche bána.
120 white horses	Sé fícheadh capall bán.
360 white horses	Triú fícheadh agus triú céad capall bán.
1080 white horses	Naoi b-fícheadh agus naoi g-céad capall bán.
6480 white horses	Ceitíne fícheadh agus ceitíne céad agus ré míle capall bán.
185 white horses	Cuig capaill agus naoi b-fícheadh capall bán.
930 white horses	Deic g-capaill agus fíche agus naoi g-céad capall bán.
1050 white horses	Deic g-capaill, reaccht b-fíche agus naoi g-céad capall bán.
5550 white horses	Deic g-capaill agus dá fícheadh, cuig céad agus cuig míle capall bán.

N.B.—Remark that when a number is not a multiple of fíche the noun occurs twice; first, with the excess of the multiple, and secondly, with the remaining part of the number, which, being a multiple of fíche, requires the noun and adjective to be in the genitive plural.

(e) The numerals 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30, when accompanied by a noun, are often rendered idiomatically by the genitive of *pièce*, thus :

Twenty-three cows.	Τριάντα τρία βοῦς.
Twenty-four cows.	Τετράντα τέσσαρα βοῦς.
Twenty-five cows.	Τετράντα πέντε βοῦς.

OBS.—A person 15 years old is often said to be in the *teens*, *i.e.*, in the fifth year of the *teen period*. In like manner a person 25 years old may be said to be in the fifth year of the *twenty period*, or *five years of the twenty period*.

THE NUMERALS 706 and ceat air.

These numerals never qualify a noun, and always stand by themselves. Their use is, besides, limited to certain cases, the principal of which are:—

- (1) In counting, as, *aoi*, *do*, *tri*, *ceatair*, *doeug*, *ceatair-dueug*, *ceatair agur* *fidé*, &c.
- (2) In stating time, as, *Tá* *ré* *an* *do*, It is two (o'clock).
- (3) In stating amount of money, as, *Cúig* *punta* *agur* *an* *do*, Five pounds two (£5 2s. od.); *Tá* *an* *ceatair* *agur* *punta* *agam*, I have one pound four (£1 4s. od.)

THE NUMERAL ०.

(1) The numeral ὅα can only be used with a noun, the initial of which it aspirates, as ὅα εσπατ, ὅα εσορα.

(2) It takes the article and noun in the singular,

and if the noun be feminine, it will be the dative form, as, *an tā capall*, the two horses; *an tā buin*, the two cows.

(3) If the noun be genitive, it will be genitive plural, as, *tān a tā lām*, the full of his two hands.

(4) It takes the adjective, and pronoun referring to its noun, in the plural, as, *Tā tā buin óg a agam a gur tā riad tānn*, I have two young cows and they are sick.

(5) Its dot disappears in presence of the article and also in presence of *a gur* when it (*a gur*) forms part of the numeral, as, *an tā buin*, the two cows; *tā capall a gur tā riad*, forty-two horses.

riče, céad, mīle, cā meud?

These numerals are declined and have, therefore, the nature of nouns. Hence they govern the nouns that follow them in the genitive case, as, *riče bō*, twenty cows, *i.e.*, a twenty of cows; *céad bō*, a hundred (of) cows; *mīle bō*, a thousand (of) cows.

Cā meud? or *cā meud?* How many? is followed by the genitive, as *cā meud bō?* How many (of) cows? If we change "how many?" into "how much?" we must also change "*cā meud*" into "*gō tē 'n mērō?*" or "*gō tē 'n mērō?*" For example, we must not say, *cā meud a gairm?* but *gō tē 'n mērō a gairm?* how much (of) bread? Speaking of money, however, we say, *cā meud atā a gat?* how much have you?—probably because money is usually counted.

Functions of Numerals.

- (1) *Δon, čeuo, ὅλ, τό*, and *τριεάρ* cause aspiration.
- (2) *Τρι, ceitíre, cíus, ρέ*, cause no initial change except in the word *ceáo*, a hundred, *mile*, a thousand, a mile.
- (3) All the ordinals, except *čeuo* and *τριεάρ* cause no initial change.
- (4) *Seac̄t, očt, n̄aoi, and τειč* eclipse—but they have no power over *ρ̄*.

<i>Δon ՚ó ՚aḡur ՚óá ՚caor̄a</i>	One cow and two sheep.
<i>Δn ՚ceuo ՚capall</i>	The first horse.
<i>՚á ՚re ՚an ՚oo-՚ceus</i>	It is twelve (o'clock).
<i>Se ՚ba ՚aḡur ՚očt ՚s-՚capall</i>	Six cows and eight horses.
<i>cíus ՚ceáo ՚capall</i>	Five hundred horses.

The Personal Pronouns.

The personal pronouns are *mé*, I; *tu*, thou or you; *re*, he, it; and *ri*, she, it. They are defective in the genitive case.

Modern grammarians maintain that *mo*, my; *oo*, thy; *a*, his, are genitives of *mé*, *tu*, and *re*. If so, they are personal pronouns. But personal pronouns always stand for, and are, consequently, used in the absence of a noun. Hence, as *mo*, *oo*, and *a* cannot stand in the absence of a noun, it is plain that they cannot be personal pronouns. Therefore, they are not genitives of *me*, *tu*, *re*.

Again, the object of a transitive participle, as we shall see farther on, is put in the genitive, as, *striking John, ՚s ՚buslaó, Sheasgáin*. But when this object is a personal pronoun we are compelled to use an idiom.

Thus, *striking me*, becomes *to my striking*, *do, mo bualað*.

In Irish we are compelled to say, "a cow is at me," because we have no verb "have"; we must say, "it comes with me," because we have no verb "can"; and, we have to say, "hunger is on me," because we have no primary adjective for "hungry." So also, we are compelled to say "to my striking," because we have no genitive of *mé*.

THE PRONOUN *mé*.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom. me, I.

ṛinn, we.

Dat. ɔam, to me.

ɔúinn, to us.

Acc. me, me.

ṛinn, us.

mé (emphatic).

Nom. mire, I.

ṛinne, we.

Dat. ɔamra, to me.

ɔúinne, to us.

Acc. mire, me.

ṛinne, us.

mé (reflexive).

Nom. me-þéin, I myself. ṛinn-þéin, we, ourselves.

Dat. ɔam-þéin, to myself. ɔúinn-þéin, to ourselves.

Acc. me-þéin, myself. ṛinn-þéin, ourselves.

THE PRONOUN *tú*.

Nom. tú, thou, you

ṛib, you, ye.

Dat. ɔuit, to thee, to you

ṛib, ɔaoib, to you.

Acc. tú, thee, you

ṛib, you, ye.

Voc. tú! O thou!

ṛib! O you! O ye!

tú (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> <i>tuſa</i> , thou, you.	riſre, you, ye.
<i>Dat.</i> <i>tuſtre</i> , to thee.	riſtre, to you.
<i>Acc.</i> <i>tuſa</i> , thee, you.	riſre, you.

TÚ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> tú-féin , thou, thyself.	riú-féin , you, yourselves.
<i>Dat.</i> túit-féin , to thyself.	riút-féin , to yourselves.
<i>Acc.</i> tú-féin , thyself.	riú-féin , yourselves.

THE PRONOUN *sé*.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>þe</i> , he, it.	<i>þiaðo</i> , they.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>þó</i> , to him.	<i>þóiþ, þaðóþtæ</i> , * to them.
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>é</i> , him.	<i>íðo</i> , them.

se (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>rēean</i> , he, it.	<i>riat̄an</i> , they.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>rȫan</i> , to him, it.	<i>rȫat̄an</i> , to them.
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>erēan</i> , him, it.	<i>iat̄an</i> , them.

se (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> ré-féin , he himself.	riao-féin , they themselves.
<i>Dat.</i> roó-féin , to himself.	roaoθča-féin , to themselves.
<i>Acc.</i> é-féin , himself.	iaao-féin , themselves.

THE PRONOUN *sí*.

<i>Nom.</i>	ří, she, it.	říao, they.
<i>Dat.</i>	ouite, oí, to her.	oaoštá, to them.
<i>Acc.</i>	í, her, it.	íao, them.

* or *piobez*.

SÍ (emphatic).

Nom. *riре*, she, it. *riаоран*, they.

Dat. *routere*, to her. *raoстваran*, to them.

Acc. *ире*, her, it. *iaоран*, them.

SÍ (reflexive).

Nom. *ri-реин*, she, herself. *riао-реин*, they themselves.

Dat. *routete-реин*, to herself. *raoства-реин*, to themselves.

Acc. *и-реин*, herself. *iaо-реин*, themselves.

 The forms *riре*, *turа*, &c., are used (1) for emphasis (2) when one pronoun is linked, by a conjunction, to another pronoun or to a noun. They are formed from the unemphatic forms by the addition of *ре*, or *ra*. These terminations in the third person plural and third person singular masculine, become *ran*, while, in the first person plural, *r* becomes *n* by assimilation. So that instead of *riинре* we have *riинне*, or as it is shortened, *riинне*.

In composition, the vowel sounds in *mé* and *ré* are often obscure, and are pronounced *mă*, *shă*, i.e., like the vowel sound in the *Fr.*, *me*, *te*, *se*, *le*. With *иp*, however, the *e* of *me* is always long. It is also long with passive verbs.

The Affected Pronouns.

The so-called affected pronouns are *me*, *tu*, *é*, *i*, *iaо*, *riин* and *riиb*. They are the secondary or accusative forms of the personal pronouns. They are used as

nominatives (1) with the verb *is*, and (2) with passive verbs.

is <i>peaři</i> maič <i>čú</i>	You are a good man.
is <i>při</i> mařte <i>čá</i>	They are good men.
<i>buřileař</i> <i>čú</i>	You were beaten.
<i>buřileař</i> <i>čá</i>	He was beaten.

 When *čú* comes beside *is* it shakes off the dot: *is ču an peap*.

The Prepositional Pronouns.

When a preposition comes before a personal pronoun it unites with it. Thus *as* me becomes *asam*; *as* *čú* becomes *asat*, &c. The combinations thus obtained are called prepositional pronouns. The following are important:—

asam (*as* + me).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
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<i>asam</i> , at me.	<i>asainn</i> , at us.
----------------------	------------------------

<i>asat</i> , at thee, at you.	<i>asaič</i> , at you.
--------------------------------	------------------------

<i>asē</i> , <i>asici</i> , at him, at her.	<i>asú</i> , at them.
---------------------------------------------	-----------------------

EMPHATIC.

<i>asamra</i> , at me.	<i>asainne</i> , at us.
------------------------	-------------------------

<i>asatra</i> , at thee.	<i>asaiče</i> , at you.
--------------------------	-------------------------

<i>asēra</i> , <i>asici</i> , at him, &c.	<i>asúra</i> , at them.
-------------------------------------------	-------------------------

REFLEXIVE.

<i>asam-řeřin</i> , (at myself).	<i>asainn-řeřin</i> .
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<i>asat-řeřin</i> ,	<i>asaič-řeřin</i> .
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<i>asē-řeřin</i> , <i>asici-řeřin</i> ,	<i>asú-řeřin</i> .
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liom (te + me).

<i>liom</i> , with me.	<i>linn</i> , with us.
------------------------	------------------------

<i>leat</i> , with thee.	<i>lič</i> , with you.
--------------------------	------------------------

<i>leřiř</i> , <i>leřice</i> , with him, &c.	<i>leotča</i> , <i>lečo</i> , with them.
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ORM (ər + me).

SINGULAR.

օրմ, on me.

օրտ, on thee.

ար, օրէի, on him, on her.

PLURAL.

օրանն, * on us.

օրան, on you.

օրէս, օրէս, on them.

10NNAIM (ənn + me)

10NNAIM, in me.

10NNAT, in thee.

ԱNN, 10NNI, in him, in her.

10NNAINN, in us.

10NNAINB, in you.

10NNATU, in them.

OAM (əo + me).

ՕAM, ԴAM, to me.

ԴԱT, to thee.

ԴՈ, ԴՈՒԵ or ՎԻ, to him, &c.

N.B.—The օ of ՎԻ is thick.

1010M (əe + me).

Ե10M, from me.

Ե10T, from thee.

Ե10, Ե10ՒԵ or ՎԻ, from him, &c.

Ե11N, from us.

Ե11B, from you.

Ե10B7A, from them.

Pronounced as follows :—

ԴԱ0M

ԴԱ01NN

ԴԱ0T

ԴԱ01B

ԴԱE, Ե10ՒԵ or ՎԻ

ԴԱ0B7A

ԱSAM (ər + me).

ԱRAM, out of me.

ԱRAT, out of thee.

ԱR, ԱR7I, out of him, &c.

ԱRAINN, out of us.

ԱRAINB, out of you.

ԱR7U, ԱR7A, out of them.

* In most grammars we find a double ր. We think one ր sufficient.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

čuſam (čum + me).

čuſam, unto me.	čuſainn, unto us.
čuſat, unto thee.	čuſaiþ, unto you.
čuſe, čuici, unto him, &c.	čucú, čuca, unto them.

Pronounce, huſam, huſat, &c.

fūm (faoi + me).

fūm, under me.	fūinn, under us.
fūt, under thee.	fūiþ, under you.
faoi, fūiþe, under him, &c.	fūtā, under them.

Also,

faoim	faoimn
faoit	faoiþ
faoi, fūiþe	faoiþtā

uaim (o + me).

uaim, from me.	uainn, from us.
uait, from thee.	uaib, from you.
ua, uaite, from him, &c.	uaþtā, from them.

eaſoram (iſip + me).

eaſoram, between me.	eaſorainn, between us.
eaſorat, between thee.	eaſoraiþ, between you.
iſip ē, i, between him, &c.	eaſoraiþ, between them.

řōmam (řoimē + me).

řōmam, before me.	řōmainn, before us.
řōmät, before thee.	řōmait, before you.
řoimē, řoimři, before him, &c.	řōmřu, before them.

čaram (čap + me).

čaram, over me.	čarainn, over us.
čarat, over thee.	čaraiþ, over you.
čařip, čařipři, over him, &c.	čařipřu, over them.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ΤΡΙΟΜ (τρέ + me).

τρίομ, through me.	τρίνη, through us.
τρίοτ, through thee.	τρίθ, through you.
τρίο, τρίτε, through him.	τρίοθτα, through them.

ΡΡΙΟΜ (ρρίο + me).

ρρίομ, through me.	ρρίνη, through us.
ρρίοτ, through thee.	ρρίθ, through you.
ρρίο, ρρίτε, through him, &c.	ρρίοθτα, through them.

ΑΝΝΣΟΡΜ* (αννραιρ + me).

αννρομ, to me.	αννρομινη, to us.
αννροτ, to thee.	αννρομιθ, to you.
αννραιρ, αννροιτε, to him, &c.	αννροιτη, to them.

The Possessive Adjectives.

The possessive adjectives are μο, my; το, thy; ο, his, her, its; αρ, our; θυρ, your; and ο, their. They cannot be used without the aid of a noun, and, when emphatic, the particle ρα comes after the noun. When the noun is followed by one or more qualifying adjectives, the particle is affixed to the last adjective.

Of these adjectives, μο, το, and ο (his), cause aspiration, while αρ, θυρ, and ο (their), cause eclipsis in the noun, and prefix η in case the latter begins with a vowel. ο, her, causes no change except in the case of words beginning with a vowel. See next Chapter.

μο ζόιροε αζυρ μο ζαραιττ	My coach and my horses.
το ζόιροε αζυρ το ζαραιττ	Thy coach and thy horses.
ο ζόιροε αζυρ ο ζαραιττ	His coach and his horses.

* Αννρομ=ανν + ρο + ομ.

Α cónroe aghur a capaill
 Ar ɔ-cónroe aghur ar ɔ-capaill
 Ùnur ɔ-cónroe aghur Ùnur ɔ-capaill
 A ɔ-cónroe aghur a ɔ-capaill
 Mo éapall móri báin-ra

Her coach and her horses.
 Our coach and our horses.
 Your coach and your horses.
 Their coach and their horses.
 My big white horse.

 Féin, as we have seen, means "self" when affixed to a personal pronoun, but when it is used with a possessive adjective, it means "own," as, Mo éapall móri féin, My own big horse.

THE POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE Δ .

Δ , his, aspirates : Δ bó, his cow.
 Δ , her, does not : Δ bó, her cow.
 Δ , their, eclipses : Δ m-bó, their cow.

b. c. v. f. ɔ. p. t.

Δ , his, no change : Δ anam, his soul.
 Δ , her, takes h : Δ h-anam, her soul.
 Δ , their, takes n : Δ n-anam, their soul.

Vowels.

Δ , his, aspirates : Δ rát, his fill.
 Δ , her, no change : Δ rát, her fill.
 Δ , their, no change : Δ rát, their fill.

r and m.

Δ , his, no change : Δ náire, his shame.
 Δ , her, do. Δ náire, her shame.
 Δ , their do. Δ náire, their shame.

l. n. r.

 When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive adjective Δ , his, her, their, or ar, our, n must be inserted between them :

o n-a ɔr-á-ó or o n-a ɔr-á-ó. From his love.

faoi n-a coir or faoi n-a coir Under her foot.

le n-a n-ɔr-á-ó or le n-a n-ɔr-á-ó With their love.

Exception : oo and oe blend with the possessive :

taibhír feurí o a éapall. Give hay to his horse.

bain gneus o a éiginn. Cut a branch from his tree.

ELISION OF O.

The vowel o of mo and vo is elided before a word beginning with a vowel or p.

m'at̄ai əgur m'feari. My father and my husband.

o'ap̄al əgur o'f̄ioeōs. Your donkey and your whistle.

 Translate vo by "thy" or "your," and tu by "thou," or "you"; but never translate "you" by riþ when there is but one person in question.

Another Class of Adjective Pronouns.

The following adjective pronouns, which are very common, stand after their nouns:—Sagamra, my; ragatra, thy; ragerean, his; racire, her; ragainne, our; ragaiþre, your; racaran, their. They are combinations of vo, this, and the several parts of the prepositional pronoun agamra.

Teac ragainne. Our house.

Baile ragaiþre. Your town.

Prepositional Adjectives.

The possessive adjectives mo, vo, a, &c., often blend with the prepositions ann, in; vo, to; ie, with; and o, from. This rarely applies to ann except in idiomatic expressions, where a state is meant.

In my = ann mo = mo. To my = vo mo.

In thy = ann vo = vo. To thy = vo vo.

In his = ann a = na. To his = vo a = voa.*

In her = ann a; = na. To her = vo a = voa.

In our = ann aþi = naþi. To our = vo aþi = voaþi.

* Voa is also a contraction of vo a = (1) of his (2) of which.

In your = ann ḫupi = ḫupi.

In their = ann a = na.

With his (her, their) = le n-a = le na = lena.

From his (her, their) = o n-a = o na = ona.

τά τú νο ḫaɪlin ṫaɪt

τά me mo ḫoɔlað

τά re na ḫui᷍e

τά ri na ḫeaprað

Ann mo t̄i᷍i ḫeín

To your = νο ḫupi

To their = νο a = na.

You are a good girl.

I am sleeping.

He is sitting.

She is standing.

In my own country.

The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronouns are, a, who, which, that, and nač, who...not, which...not, that...not. [Νoč, who, which, is classic]. They are indeclinable words, that is, they have the same form for all the cases. The following are examples of the different cases :—

THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

The man who eats bread αn ḫeapí a i᷍eapí arián.

The man who does not, &c. αn ḫeapí nač n-i᷍eapí arián.

The man who marries Norah αn ḫeapí a ḫórař nóra.

The man who does not, &c. αn ḫeapí nač b-rórař nóra.

The man who struck James αn ḫeapí a ḫuařl Séamur.

The man who was striking J. αn ḫeapí a bí a᷍g ḫuařlað Shéamur.

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE.

The bread which I eat αn τ-arián a i᷍im.

The bread which I do not eat αn τ-arián nač n-i᷍im.

The egg which I break αn uř a ḫuiřim.

The egg which I do not break αn uř nač m-ḥuiřim.

The man whom Norah marries αn ḫeapí a ḫórař nóra.

The man whom N. does not marry αn ḫeapí nač b-rórař n.

The man whom James struck αn ḫeapí a ḫuařl Séamur.

The man whom J. was striking αn ḫeapí a bí Séamur a᷍g ḫuařlað.*

* Transitive participles cannot govern nouns or pronouns in the accusative case, but they *can* govern the relative in that case. When ambiguity arises, as in "αn ḫeapí a ḫuařl Séamur," the context alone will reveal the case.

THE GENITIVE CASE.

To distinguish the genitive from the other cases a partial idiom is used :—“ The man whose house I sold,” must not be turned, “ the man of whom I sold *the house*,” as in French, but, “ The man of whom I sold *his* house,” = *An fearī ari óiol me a tēac.* The genitive of the relative is, therefore, revealed by the possessive adjective.

The hen whose foot I break	<i>An čeairic a ńjirím a cor.</i>
The hen whose foot I do not, &c.	<i>An čeairic nač m-ńjirím a cor.</i>
The hen whose foot Una breaks	<i>An čeairic a ńjiríear Una a cor.</i>
The hen whose foot U. does not, &c.	<i>An čeairic nač m-ńjiríearann u, &c.</i>
The man whose cow I sold	<i>An fearī ari óiol mé a bó.</i>
The man whose cow I was selling	<i>An fearī a riab mé ag óiol a bó.</i>
The man whose foot was smashed	<i>An fearī ari ńjiréadó a cor.</i>
The man whose son was sick	<i>An fearī a riab a mac tinn.</i>

THE DATIVE CASE.

In the dative case a partial idiom is also used : “ The man to whom I gave the cow” = The man to whom I gave *the cow* to *him* = *An fearī ari tēas mé an bó ró.* This case is, therefore, revealed by a strengthening at the end of the relative clause in the shape of a prepositional pronoun.

Instead of using the idiom most grammarians place a pure preposition before the relative which they make it govern,* a practice which is not entirely supported by the classics, while it is almost generally ignored in the spoken language. Ambiguous expressions like

* This takes place, principally, when translating the English “ have.”

The man who has big feet	<i>An fearī ari a ń-fuil cora móra.</i>
The man who has a cow	<i>An fearī ari a ń-fuil bó.</i>

the following must surely be considered faulty : *An feair ṡaṛi ḃain mé an ṡgian* = the man from whom I took the knife ; *An feair ṡaṛi ḥus me an ṡgian* = the man to whom I gave the knife, &c. Of course, we have a few amalgamations of the relative and the prepositions, principally in connection with the verb *is*, such as, *feair ṡaṛi ainnm ḃionn*, but these are rare exceptions. It is, therefore, better to accept modern usage as being the clearest and most correct all round.

A man to whom I gave a cow	<i>feair ari ḥus mé bó ṡo.</i>
A man to whom I was giving a cow	<i>feair a ḡairb me aġ ṡabairt bó ṡo.</i>
A man from whom I took a cow	<i>feair ari ḃain mé bó ṡé.</i>
A man from whom I was taking, &c.	<i>feair a ḡairb mé aġ ḃaint bó ṡé.</i>
A stool on which I broke an egg	<i>stól ari ḃuir mé uḃ ari.</i>

When *ta* is an auxiliary verb its primary and secondary forms may be used after the dative case of the relative *a*; but when it is not an auxiliary the secondary forms (*ḃ-fuīl* and *ḡairb*) only may be used.

<i>feair a ḡairb mé aġ caint ari</i>	<i>* A man about whom I was speaking.</i>
<i>feair a ḃi mé aġ caint ari</i>	
<i>feair a ḃ-fuīl mé aġ caint ari</i>	<i>A man about whom I am speaking.</i>
<i>feair a ḡairb ari aigse</i>	<i>A man who had a hound.</i>
<i>feair a ḃ-fuīl ari aigse</i>	<i>A man who has a hound.</i>
<i>feair a ḃi ari aigse</i>	<i>bad.</i>
<i>feair a ḡairb ari aigse</i>	

Functions of the Relative.

(1) It always stands before the verb, and in affirmative sentences *a* aspirates the initial of the verb—the

* In “*ḡairb...aġ caint*,” “*ḡairb*” is auxiliary.

sign of the perfect tense being omitted, except in the case of words beginning with a vowel sound.

feári a tóṣar cloč	A man who lifts a stone.
feári a tóṣ cloč	A man who lifted a stone.
feári a n'ól nírse	A man who drank water.

 Never aspirate *Tá* or *Teir*; *An té atá*; *An té a Teir*. *

(2) In negative sentences *nac* eclipses the initial of the verb, except in the perfect tense where *no* prevents it.

feári nac n-tuigim	A man whom I do not understand.
feári nac tuig mé	A man whom I did not understand.
feári nac n-ólann	A man who does not drink.

(3) The relative *a* sometimes means "all that," "all who," "all which," in which cases it eclipses—except, of course, in the perfect tense. In these cases it sometimes blends with *oo* and *oe*.

a g-caitím 'r-an lá	All that I spend per day.
a g-caitínn 'r-an lá	All that I spent per day.
a n'cait mé 'r-an lá	All that I spent per day.
a b-fuīl a n-eirínn	All that is (or are) in Erin.
a b-fuīl te ariam agam	All the bread that I have.
ta b-fuīl a n-eirínn	Of all that is (or are) in Erin.
lá nári eirísc fionn	One day that Finn arose.
lá nári = lá te a no	=(On) a day of which, &c.

 In relative sentences remember (1) that the principal verb should come first, and (2) that when a relative clause is equivalent to an adjective it is inseparable from the subject. Thus, "The man who is like me lifted the stone," is neither, *Tóṣ an feári an*

* The *a* in the classic *aθeirum* is probably the relative *a*; it may have crept in like the *a* in *atá*, which is undoubtedly the relative.

étoč atá coramail niom-řa (=The man lifted the stone which is like me!), nor, An fear atá coramail niom-řa tóč an étoč, but, Tóč an fear atá coramail niom-řa an étoč. By a slight idiomatic change, however, we can say, An fear atá coramail niom-řa tóč ré an étoč. Observe the following :—

He killed the curly-tailed cat =

He killed the cat with the curly tail =

He killed the cat which had the curly tail =

He killed the cat *on* which was the curly tail =

mařb ré an cat a mařb an mařball * capta aři.

The Relative Form of the Verb.

As may be seen from preceding examples, there is a special form of the verb, which is sometimes used after the relative *a*. The student should note that this form can only be used in the present and future tenses and that it is never used after *nač*, which requires the habitual form where possible. This special form, which ends in *ar* for the present tense, and *far* for the future, is used as follows :—

(1) In the present tense, it is used after all cases of the relative *a*, except when the subject of the verb is a personal pronoun, when the habitual form is often used :—

An fear a ólar uřzé

The man who drinks water.

An fear a ſórař nóra

The man whom Norah marries.

An ťó a ólar n. a baine

The cow whose milk N. drinks.

Ařan a čuřear n. im aři

Bread on which N. puts butter.

An t-ařan a ičim

The bread which I eat.

An ſion a ólann ré

The wine which he drinks.

Ceařic a ťřirim a cor

A hen whose foot I break.

Ařan a čuřearan ré im aři

Bread on which he puts butter.

* This is the modern and contracted form of *iařball*.

(2) In the future tense, the relative is used in all cases. This is, perhaps, due to the fact that, in the future, there is no habitual form.

An fheadar a tógsfar cloch	The man who will lift a stone.
An cloch a tógsfar nóra	The stone which N. will lift.
fheadar a phórfar n. a mac	A man whose son N. will marry.
fheadar a éarrfar n. rióra do	A man for whom N. will twist a rope.
An fionn a ólfar mire	The wine which I shall drink.
An cloch a tógsfar tú	The stone which you will lift.
Bó a bhrífeas tú a cor	A cow whose foot you will break.
Athair a éuirfeas ré im airi	Bread on which he will put butter.

Sometimes, as in English, the relative is omitted when it is the direct object of the verb, but its aspirating power remains.

An biaodh éaitseas mairle	The food Mary uses.
An biaodh a éaitseas mairle	The food which Mary uses.
An bó iarríar nóra oírmh	The cow Norah asks of me.
An bó a iarríar nóra oírmh	The cow which Norah asks of me.

Relative sentences of the following kind are rendered idiomatically :—“ It is for you *that* Finn asks a wife ” = It is for you *for whom* Finn asks a wife = *ír* *oírt*-re a iarríar fionn bean. The relative is often omitted in examples of this kind, viz.: after a dative case or a prepositional pronoun. But this should not be encouraged when writing.

ír oírt-ra iarríar mo mhaidhí an t-áiríseas	}
ír oírt-ra a iarríar mo mhaidhí an t-áiríseas	
ír oírt-ra tiochair an náirle, a Sheasain	}
ír oírt-ra a tiochair an náirle, a Sheasain	
ír airi mhaidhí éuirfeas mé an hata úr	}
ír airi mhaidhí a éuirfeas mé an hata úr	
ír do mhaidhí tógsfar mire an t-uirge	}
ír do mhaidhí a tógsfar mire an t-uirge	

It is from me *that* * my mother asks the money.

It is on you *that* * the shame will come, John.

It is on Norah *that* * I shall put the new hat.

It is for Mary *that* * I shall lift the water.

The relative form of the verb is sometimes used in the classics to express the historic present; that is, the present tense used for the past. The writer is of opinion that it cannot be used when the subject (expressed) is a personal pronoun, and that in other cases it is optional. The relative not being present, no aspiration occurs.

Ann ḡin ḡuithearf pionn,

Then Finn sits,

Agat iarrhaig roischealač.

And asks a vessel.

Ann ḡin réiroiō ré an teinne.

Then he blows the fire.

Leir ḡin buailiō nóra é.

Thereupon Norah strikes him.

Modern grammarians are of opinion that the relative form of the verb is even used as an ordinary present, But it is evident from the preceding examples that they are in error. In, 1r aír a ḡhróis ċuimhearf Séamur an t-1m, for example, they ignore the invisible presence of the relative before ċuimhearf, and, to make things worse, they do not say a single word about the aspiration, which, as seen in preceding examples, does not occur in the historic present. We say, 1r agat atá ré, but when we say, 1r agat tā ré, we, at once, perceive that something is missing. The explanation of this is, that the word tā is never aspirated, and hence, to make up for the deficiency, the relative must be expressed. This goes to prove that the relative is understood in examples of the kind quoted, and that

* Modern grammarians carefully omit this word, as well as its Irish equivalent.

the relative form of the verb is *not* used as an ordinary present tense.

THE RELATIVE FORM OF $\tau\ddot{a}$.

The relative forms of $\tau\ddot{a}$ are $\tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau$ (or $\tau\ddot{io}\tau$) and $\tau\ddot{e}r\tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau$. The present tense form, $\tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau$, is always used with a habitual meaning.

$\tau\ddot{ip} \ \tau\ddot{a} \ mait$	Men who are good.
$\tau\ddot{ip} \ \alpha \ \tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ mait$	Men who are wont to be good.
$\tau\ddot{ip} \ na\acute{c} \ \tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ mait$	Men who are not good.
$\tau\ddot{ip} \ na\acute{c} \ m\cdot\tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ mait$	Men who are not wont, &c.
$\tau\ddot{ip} \ \alpha \ \tau\ddot{e}r\tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ mait$	Men who will be good.
$\tau\ddot{ip} \ na\acute{c} \ m\cdot\tau\ddot{e}r\tau \ mait$	Men who will not be good.

N.B.—The relative and $\tau\ddot{a}$ often unite: $\alpha n \ \tau\ddot{e} \ \tau\ddot{a} \ \tau\ddot{a}$.
 “He who,” “she who,” “the person who” = $\alpha n \ \tau\ddot{e} \ \alpha$, or $\alpha n \ \tau\ddot{a}o\tau\ne \alpha$.

“They who,” “the people who” = $\tau\ddot{a} \ \tau\ddot{a}o\tau\ne \alpha$, or $\alpha n \ \tau\ddot{m}u\tau\ne \alpha$.

Frequent Use of the Relative.

The use of the relative pronoun is explained by modern grammarians in a rather summary way. This little word does far more duty than it gets credit for. It is advanced, for example, that $\tau\ddot{ul}$, $\tau\ddot{ua}i\tau$, $\tau\ddot{a}\tau$, &c., aspirate the initials of verbs. The fact is that it is the relative α , understood, that causes the aspiration, and as a proof of this the relative form of the verb is used as $\tau\ddot{ua}i\tau \ \tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ \alpha n \alpha$, when Una comes. In speaking the relative is usually heard, and in writing it should be expressed, as a general rule, thus:—

$\tau\ddot{ul} \ \alpha \ \tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ \alpha n \alpha$	Before (that) Una comes.
$\tau\ddot{ua}i\tau \ \alpha \ \tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ \alpha n \alpha$	The time (that) Una comes.
$\tau\ddot{a}\tau \ \alpha \ \tau\ddot{io}e\alpha\tau \ \alpha n \alpha$	The manner (in which) Una will come.

ئىلار is a contracted form for آن ىلار, the hour, the time, and hence, when. The relative is used after numerous expressions of this kind, as, **Ca** n-áit a چىرىھەر تۇ ئە؟ Where will you put it? **1r** minic a ىچەر مەرىھە, It is often that Mary eats; **1r** ىومۇلار ئىلار a چاۋىنەر آن ئەنە, It is many a time that the child cries, &c. From these examples we may infer that the relative is always used after the impersonal **1r**.

1r aig an doorar atá me	It is at the door that I am.
1r aq caonað a ۋېرۇئەر تۇ	It is crying that you will be.
1r ojm a ۋى آن ئاڭلا!	It is I that was afraid!
آن تۇ-خېن ئاتا ئام?	Is it yourself that is in it?
1r تۇ a ۋېرۇئەر ىوم	It is you that will be with me.

The Demonstrative Pronouns.

(a) The demonstrative pronouns are **ro**, this; **rin**, that; and **ruto**, yonder. The same forms are used for the plural.

Eat this and leave that	1t ro اىچىر ۋاڭ rin.
Lift yonder-thing,* James	تۇڭ ruto a لىەئەمەر.
This is very funny	تَا ro آن-خەنەنەمەر.
Yonder-thing is used	تَا ruto ىاھىتە.

(b) When there is a noun with the demonstrative the following takes place:—(1) The article must be used with the noun, (2) the demonstrative is placed after the noun, (3) if the noun is followed by one or more adjectives the demonstrative comes last, (4) **ruto** becomes **uو**.

Sell this cow	Öiol آن ۋى ro.
Lift these knives	تۇڭ نا ئىچىنە ro.
This big tall man	آن ئەپى تەپى ئەro.
Yonder man is blind	تَا آن ئەپى uو چاڭ.

* The adjective “‘yon’” or “‘yonder’” cannot be used in English without a noun, but its Irish equivalent **ruto** can stand by itself. Hence, *Lift “yon”* would be more correct.

☞ **up** often takes the form of **υραι** or **αραι**.

Yonder cow is eating	Tá an bó aodai ag iúc.
The cow is over yonder	Tá an bó síos agus aodai.

(c) Referring to a person or thing mentioned before, the demonstrative must be accompanied by a corresponding personal pronoun, or some word such as ceann.

This one is crooked	Tá ré ro can.
That one is straight	Tá an ceann thír thíreach.
These are broken	Tá riad ro bhriste.
Leave those here	pág iad thír ann ro.

☞ "This fellow," "that fellow," "yonder fellow," &c. = *re ro*, *re rin*, *re ruo*, &c.; feminine, *ri ro*, *ri rin*, *ri ruo*. Note also the following:—

Here is a cow	=	ɪf ro bō	contracted to	ro bō.
Here are the cows	=	ɪf ro na bá	„	ro na bá.
There is a man	=	ɪf rɪn feəp̄i	„	rɪn feəp̄i.
Yonder is a man	=	ɪf ruo feəp̄i	„	ruo feəp̄i.

The Interrogative Pronouns.

(a) The interrogative pronouns are *cia?* or *cé?* *who?* *ceoca?* *which?* *ca?* *where?* or *what?* *go vē?* (or *cað e?*) *what?* All these come first in the sentence. *Ca?* causes *eclipsis*:

Cé <i>minne</i> <i>ro</i> ? Cé <i>via</i> ?	Who did this? Who is God?
Cé <i>tu</i> - <i>péin</i> ? Ce <i>rin</i> ?	Who are you? Who is that?
Ca <i>m-biðeann</i> <i>tú</i> ?	Where do you be?
C' <i>ainm</i> <i>atá</i> <i>oírt</i> ?	What is your name?
Ca <i>n-áit</i> a <i>b-fuil</i> <i>tú</i> ?	Where are you?

Ca b-fuil tú ag uil? *
 So té uibháirt tú?
 So té marí tá tú?
 Ca h-árp tú, a mhc?
 Árp baile Cliacht mé.
 Cia leirí tú?
 Cia leirí an teac ro?

Where are you going?
 What did you say?
 How are you?
 Where are you from, my son?
 I am from Dublin. (I belong to D.)
 Who owns you? Whose son are you?
 Who owns this house?

(b) When "which?" is followed by "of" we must use *te* and *a* dative in the case of nouns, and *ag* in the case of pronouns.

Which of the women?
 Which of the cows?
 Which of us?
 Which of you?

Ceoca te na mná?
 Ceoca te na bá?
 Ceoca agaínn?
 Ceoca agaib?

 Ceoca or ceocu or ciaaca = cia + aca.

Observe the following :—

Cé é?	Who is he?
Cé í?	Who is she?
Cé iad?	Who are they?
Cé rín?	Who is that, <i>i.e.</i> , who is there?
Cé é rín?	Who is (he) that?
Cé í rín?	Who is (she) that?
Cé iad rín?	Who are (they) those?
Cé h-é an feairí rín?	Who is (he) that man?
Cé h-í an bean rín?	Who is (she) that woman?
Cé h-iad na firí rín?	Who are (they) those men?
Cé 'n feairí é rín?	What man is (he) that?
Cé 'n bean í rín?	What woman is (she) that?
Cé na firí iad rín?	What men are (they) those?

N.B.—Note that after the interrogative *cé* or *cia*, the pronouns *é*, *í*, *iad* prefix *h* when the article follows.

* Usually pronounced "Cowl thou gol?" or "Cōwill thou gol?"

The Indefinite Pronouns.

aon, single	gac' uile, every
aip̄ bit̄ } any	inteact̄ } some,
aip̄ bit̄ }	éiḡin } certain.
aon uile, every	aon té, he, who.
uile } all	cibé, whoever
uile }	ceact̄ar, either.
gac' } each, every	a ceile, each other
gac' aon }	

N.B.—*Gac' uile* and *gac' aon* are usually pronounced *a cuile* and *a can*. *Ceact̄ar* with a negative verb = neither, *ní fuit ceact̄ar aca agham*, I have neither of them. *Cibé* is followed by the relative, as, *Cibé a t̄iocfar*, whoever comes, or whoever will come; *Cibé fear a t̄iocfar*, whatever man comes. *Aip̄ bit̄*, *uile*, *inteact̄*, and *éiḡin* follow the noun.

The Verb.

As may be noticed below, some of the forms of the verb contain the pronoun, subject, as, *póraim*, I marry; such forms are said to be *synthetic*. When the pronoun subject is not contained in the verb, as *pórfann* re, he marries, the forms are said to be *analytic*. It may, also, be noticed that the synthetic forms are declining rapidly.

There are two conjugations in Irish. The first comprises verbs which have only one syllable in the root, as *pórf*, marry; all other verbs, as a general rule, belong to the second conjugation.

First Conjugation.THE REGULAR VERB, **Þóraim**, I MARRY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. Þóraim (I marry)	Þóraann rinn.
2. Þóraann tú	Þóraann rið.
3. Þóraann ré	Þóraann riðo.

Negative.

Ní þóraim (I do not marry)	Ní þóraann rinn.
Ní þóraann tú	Ní þóraann rið.
Ní þóraann ré	Ní þóraann riðo.

Interrogative.

B-þóraim ? (Do I marry ?)	B-þóraann rinn ?
B-þóraann tú ?	B-þóraann rið ?
B-þóraann ré ?	B-þóraann riðo ?

Interrogative Negative.

Nac b-þóraim ? (Do I not marry ?)	Nac b-þóraann rinn ?
Nac b-þóraann tú ?	Nac b-þóraann rið ?
Nac b-þóraann ré ?	Nac b-þóraann riðo .

Dependent.

So b-þóraim (That I marry)	So b-þóraann rinn.
So b-þóraann tú	So b-þóraann rið.
So b-þóraann ré	So b-þóraann riðo.

Dep. Negative.

Nac b-þóraim (That I do not marry)	Nac b-þóraann rinn.
Nac b-þóraann tú	Nac b-þóraann rið.
Nac b-þóraann ré	Nac b-þóraann riðo?

Emphatic.

Þóraim-re (I marry.)	Þóraann rinne.
Þóraann túra	Þóraann riþre.
Þóraann rerean	Þóraann riæðran.

Reflexive.

Þóraim-féin (I myself marry)	Þóraann rinn-féin.
Þóraann tú-féin	Þóraann riþ-féin.
Þóraann ré-féin	Þóraann riæð-féin.

Historic Present.

To make their descriptions more vivid, historians and other writers often use the present tense where the past would ordinarily be used. In English there is no change, but in Irish there is a special form of the verb for this historic present tense. In fact it is met with so often in the written language that modern grammarians have mistaken it for the ordinary present.

SINGULAR.

Þóraim (I marry)
Þóraim tú
Þóraim re

PLURAL.

Þóraiminn (we marry)
Þóraimtú
Þóraimt

Classic Present.

We may now contrast the modern forms of the present tense with those of the classic. The parts in brackets are dead to most Irish speakers, so that only one synthetic form remains universally understood. The student will please note the difference between the ancient and modern forms of the different tenses as he passes through this verb; the distinction will not be made in other verbs.

SINGULAR.

þóraim (I marry)
[þóraɪm]
þórað rē

PLURAL.

[þóramaoiɾ.]
[þórtaoi.]
[þóraɪo.]

Imperfect Tense.

þórainn (I used to marry)	þórað rinn.
þórtæ	þórað rið.
þórað rē	þórað riðo.

Negative.	ni þórainn.	I used not to marry.
Interrog.	u-þórainn ?	Used I marry ?
Interrog. Neg.	nað u-þórainn ?	Used I not marry ?
Dependent.	þó u-þórainn.	That I used to marry
Dep. Neg.	nað u-þórainn.	That I did not marry

Emphatic.

þórainn-rē (I used to marry)	þórað rinnne
þórtæ tūra*	þórað riðre.
þórað* rēræn	þórað riðoræn.

Reflexive.

þórainn-féin (I myself, &c.)	þórað rinn-féin.
þórtæ-féin	þórað rið-féin.
þórað rē-féin	þórað riðo-féin

Classic Imperfect.

As may be seen, this tense, as well as the conditional, has not changed in the singular.

SINGULAR.

1. þórainn (I used to marry)
2. þórtæ
3. þórað rē

PLURAL.

- [þóramaoiɾ.]
- [þórtaoi.]
- [þóraɪo.]

* Not þórtæ-ṛa. þórað is pronounced þóru. The ending að is often pronounced ait when followed by rē, rið, riðo. cp. pórðaríð me fr. pórðim á.

Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

ঃৰ মে (I married)

ঃৰ তু

ঃৰ রে

PLURAL.

ঃৰ রিন্ন.

ঃৰ রিব.

ঃৰ রিআৰ.

Negative. নিওঁ ঃৰ মে.*Interrogative.* অৱ ঃৰ মে ?*Interrog. Neg.* নাই ঃৰ মে ?*Dependent.* জুৰি ঃৰ মে.*Depen. Neg.* নাই ঃৰ মে.*Emphatic.* ঃৰ মিৰে.*Reflexive.* ঃৰ মে-ফেইন.

I did not marry.

Did I marry ?

Did I not marry ?

That I married.

That I did not marry.

I married.

I myself married.

Classic Perfect.

[ঁো ঃৰার] (I married)

[ঁো ঃৰামার.]

[ঁো ঃৰাই]

[ঁো ঃৰাথার.]

[ঁো] ঃৰ রে

[ঁো ঃৰাদার.]

Future Tense.

ঃৰফাই মে (I shall marry)

ঃৰফাই রিন্ন

ঃৰফাই তু

ঃৰফাই রিব.

ঃৰফাই রে

ঃৰফাই রিআৰ.

Pronounce as follows :—

ঃৰহিম া

ঃৰহা রিন্ন.

ঃৰহা তু

ঃৰহা রিব.

ঃৰহা রহা *

ঃৰহা রিআৰ.

* When emphatic পোৰ্হি রে. When not followed by a pronoun, as in replies, *pr.* পোৰ্হি (paws'-hee).

Negative. **ní** þórrfaið me. I will not marry.

Interrogative. **ö**-þórrfaið me? Shall I marry?

Interrog. Neg. **nað** **ö**-þórrfaið me? Shall I not marry?

Dependent. **so** **ö**-þórrfaið me. That I shall marry.

Dep. Neg. **nað** **so**-þórrfaið me. That I shall not marry

CLASSIC FUTURE.

þórrfæð (I shall marry)

[þórrfaið]

þórrfaið **re**

þórrfamuið.

[þórrfaið.]

[þórrfaið.]

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

þórrfainn* (I would marry)

þórrfa

þórrfæð* **re**

þórrfæð **rinn.**

þórrfæð **rið.**

þórrfæð **riðað.**

Emphatic.

þórrfainn-**re** (I would marry)

þórrfa **tauða**

þórrfæð **re**rean

þórrfæð **rinne.**

þórrfæð **riðre.**

þórrfæð **riðaðan.**

Reflexive.

þórrfainn-**þéin** (I myself, &c.)

þórrfa-**þéin**

þórrfæð **re**-**þéin**

þórrfæð **rinne-þéin.**

þórrfæð **rið-þéin.**

þórrfæð **riðað-þéin.**

Negative. **ní** þórrfainn. I would not marry.

Interrogative. **ö**-þórrfainn? Would I marry?

Inter. Neg. **nað** **ö**-þórrfainn? Would I not marry?

Dependent. **so** **ö**-þórrfainn. That I would marry.

Dep. Neg. **nað** **so**-þórrfainn. That I would not marry.

* Sound **r** as **h**. The ending **rað** is usually pronounced **hoo**, but when **rað** is followed by **ré**, **ri**, **rinn**, **rið**, or **riðað** the sound of **rað** + **r** = **hitch**; as, þórrfæð **rinn**, *pr. faws'-hitch-inn*.

CLASSIC CONDITIONAL.

þórrfainn (I would marry)	[þórrfamaloir.]
þórrfa	[þórrfaið.]
þórrfað re	[þórrfaraðaoir.]

OPTATIVE MOOD.

So ə-pórraið* me ! (May I marry !)	So ə-pórraið rinn !
So ə-pórraið tū !	So ə-pórraið rið !
So ə-pórraið rē !	So ə-pórraið riað !

N.B.—This form is often used after *so*, *until*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The present subjunctive is usually expressed by the present and future forms of the verb preceded by such words as *ma*, if ; *so*, until, &c., as, *Ma* þórrann re *Máihe* tæðaír cnuðt maíðt *to*, If he marries Mary give him a good fortune. *Fan* *so* ə-pórrfaið rē *i*, Wait till he marries her.

The imperfect subjunctive is expressed by the conditional preceded by *tað*, if ; as, *tað* ə-pórrfainn, If I should marry.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. —	þórrfamuro.
2. þórr (Marry)	þórrfaiðuð† or þórraigð.
3. þórrfað re	þórrfað riað.
Neg. <i>Na</i> þórr, &c.	

* When the root ends in *io* or *is*, which have both the same sound *i* or *io*, another *io* is unnecessary. Hence, *so* ə-téið tū ! May you go ! *So* m-beannuð *Óia* tū ! May God bless you !

† By imitation from verbs of second conjugation ; e.g. the classic imperative of *go*rtu^{is} is *go*rtu^{is}ið. In trying to sound *u*is+*io*, people found it easier to pronounce *u*is+*io*, and hence the modern word is *go*rtu^{is}ið. This is imitated in the first conjugation. [See *tað*.]

CLASSIC IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. ——

[βόραμαοιρ].

2. βόρ

[βόραιδ].

3. βόραδ ρε

[βόραιδιρ].

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Δ βόραδ

to marry.

PARTICIPLES.

ΔΣ βόραδ

marrying.

Διρ ι-βόραδ

having married.

Passive Voice.

In the passive voice, the affected or accusative forms of the personal pronoun are used as subject. The negatives, interrogatives, dependents, etc., are formed in the usual way except in the perfect tense.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

βόρταρ μέ (I am being married)	βόρταρ ρινν.
βόρταρ τύ	βόρταρ ριβ.
βόρταρ έ	βόρταρ ιαδ.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

βόρται μέ (I used to be married)	βόρται ρινν.
βόρται τύ	βόρται ριβ.
βόρται έ	βόρται ιαδ.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

βόρραδομέ (I would be married)	βόρραιδε ρινν.
βόρραιδε τύ	βόρραιδε ριβ.
βόρραιδε έ	βόρραιδε ιαδ.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Þórrfari mé (I shall be married)	Þórrfari rinn.
Þórrfari tú	Þórrfari rið.
Þórrfari é	Þórrfari iad.

PERFECT TENSE.

Þórrað me (I was married).	Þórrað rinn.
Þórrað tú	Þórrað rið.
Þórrað é	Þórrað iad.

Perfect, Negative, Interrog., etc.

Þíðið þórrað mé	I was not married?
Árji þórrað mé?	Was I married?
Þíarji þórrað mé?	Was I not married?
Þárrji þórrað mé	That I was married.
Þíarji þórrað mé	That I was not married.

 Although ño is used, no aspiration.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES.

Δ ðeitc þórrta	to be married.
Þórrta	married.

N.B.—(1) The imperative is the same as the present indicative.

(2) The following express a state rather than action.

Tá mé þórrta	I am married.
Þróinn þórrta	I used to be married.
Þí mé þórrta	I was married.
Þeitc me þórrta.	I shall be married.

THE REGULAR VERB, *BRISIM*, I BREAK.

Active Voice.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Óbríom (I break)	Óbríeann rinn.
Óbríeann tú	Óbríeann rið.
Óbríeann sé	Óbríeann riad.

IMPERFECT.

Óbríonn (I used to break)	Óbríeas ñinn.
Óbríeas	Óbríeas rið.
Óbríeas sé	Óbríeas riad.

PERFECT.

Óbrí me (I broke)	Óbrí ñinn.
Óbrí tú	Óbrí rið.
Óbrí sé	Óbrí riad.

FUTURE.

Óbrífi ñe* (I shall break)	Óbrífi ñinn.
Óbrífi tú	Óbrífi rið.
Óbrífi sé	Óbrífi riad.

CONDITIONAL.

Óbríffinn (I would break)	Óbríffea ñinn.
Óbríffea	Óbríffea ñið.
Óbríffea sé	Óbríffea ñið.

IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, &c.

Óbrí, break; plural, óbrífið or óbríffis.

Δ óbrífea, to break.

Δ óbrífea, breaking.

* Pronounce óbríffim á, óbríffá tú, &c.

The Same Verb in Classic Style.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Ὥριριμ (I break)	[Ὥριριμιο.]
[Ὥριριη]	[Ὥριρτι.]
Ὥριρεαν ῥε	[Ὥριριο.]

IMPERFECT.

Ὥριριν (I used to break)	[Ὥριριμιρ.]
Ὥριρτεα	[Ὥριρτι.]
Ὥριρεαθ ῥε	[Ὥριριοιρ.]

PERFECT.

[Ὥο Ὥριρεαρ] (I broke)	[Ὥο Ὥριρεαμαρ.]
[Ὥο Ὥριριη]	[Ὥο Ὥριρεαθαρ.]
[Ὥο] Ὥριρ ῥε.	[Ὥο Ὥριρεαθαρ.]

FUTURE.

Ὥριρρεαθ (I shall break)	Ὥριρριμιο.
[Ὥριρριη]	[Ὥριρριο.]
Ὥριρριθ ῥε	[Ὥριρριο.]

CONDITIONAL.

Ὥριρριν (I would break)	[Ὥριρριμιρ.]
Ὥριρρεα	[Ὥριρριο.]
Ὥριρρεαθ ῥε	[Ὥριρριοιρ.]

IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, &c.

Ὥριρ (break); plural [Ὥριριο.]

Ὥο Ὥριρεαθ, to break.

Δεσ Ὥριρεαθ, breaking.

Initial Influence of Verbs.

All verbs of the first conjugation are conjugated like *pórlaím* or *þúrlaím*, and all verbs whose initial is *b*, *c*, *v*, *s*, *p* or *t*, are influenced in the same way. Other verbs, however, are influenced differently. For example, the usual way to ask a question is to eclipse the initial of the verb, as, *v-tuigseann tú?* do you understand? It is the interrogative particle, *an*, that causes the eclipse here, and in all such cases the particle itself will be invisible. It may also be remarked that in all cases where eclipse would take place, a vowel is preceded by *n*, as *n-órlaann tú?* do you drink? But *t*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *r*, of verbs, are never eclipsed, so that the interrogative particle in these cases must appear, as, *an réroeann re?* does it blow? This interrogative particle, *an*, and its eclipsing effect may be compared to A and B playing "see-saw." When A (*an*) goes down B (effect) goes up, and *vice versa*.

The particle *oo* aspirates in the imperfect, perfect, and conditional, but it is visible before vowels and *f* only. The following examples will explain more fully :—

órlaím, I DRINK.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	<i>Órlaím,</i>	I drink.
<i>Negative.</i>	<i>ní órlaím,</i>	I do not drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	<i>n-órlaím?</i>	Do I drink?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i>	<i>nac n-órlaann tú?</i>	Do you not drink?

IMPERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ó-sláinn,	I used to drink.
<i>Negative.</i>	ní ó-sláinn,	I used not to drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	n-ó-sláinn ?	Used I drink ?

PERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ó-sl me,	I drank.
<i>Negative.</i>	níor ól me,	I did not drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	árl ól me ?	Did I drink.

fágaim, I LEAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	fágaim,	I leave.
<i>Negative.</i>	ní fágaim,	I do not leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	b-fágaim ?	Do I leave ?

IMPERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ó-fágainn,	I used to leave.
<i>Negative.</i>	ní fágainn,	I used not to leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	b-fágainn ?	Used I leave ?

PERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ó-fág me,	I left.
<i>Negative.</i>	níor fág me,	I did not leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	árl fág me ?	Did I leave ?

Róraim, I ROAST.

Present :—Róraim ; ní róraim ; an róraim ?

Imperf. :—Rórainn ; ní rórainn ; an rórainn ?

Perfect :—Rór me ; níor rór me ; árl rór me ?

Séiríom, I BLOW.

Present :—Séiríom; ní féiríom; an réiríom?

Imperf. :—Séiríonn; ní féiríonn; an réiríonn?

Perfect :—Séirí me; níor féirí me; ari féirí me?

Sgairtím, I CALL.

Present :—Sgairtím; ní rsgairtím? an rsgairtím?

Imperf. :—Sgairtinn; ní rsgairtinn; an rsgairtinn?

Perfect :—Sgairt me; níor rsgairt me; ari rsgairt me?

Lúbaim, I BEND.

Present :—Lúbaim; ní lúbaim; an lúbaim?

Imperf. :—Lúbainn; ní lúbainn; an lúbainn?

Perfect :—Lúb me; níor lúb me; ari lúb me?

Second Conjugation.

The second conjugation comprises verbs whose root has at least two syllables. It differs from the first conjugation principally in the formation of the future and conditional.

THE REGULAR VERB SORUITÍM.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. Sórtuítím (I hurt)

Sórtuítíseann rínn.

2. Sórtuítíseann tú

Sórtuítíseann ríb.

3. Sórtuítíseann ré

Sórtuítíseann ríad.

IMPERFECT.

Sórtuítínn (I used to hurt)

Sórtuítísealadh rínn.

Sórtuítíseal

Sórtuítísealadh ríb.

Sórtuítísealadh ré

Sórtuítísealadh ríad.

PERFECT.

Σορτυις̄ me (I hurt)

Σορτυις̄ ρινη.

Σορτυις̄ τū

Σορτυις̄ ριθ.

Σορτυις̄ ρε

Σορτυις̄ ριασ.

FUTURE.

Σορτούαις̄ me* (I shall hurt)

Σορτούαις̄ ρινη.*

Σορτούαις̄ τū

Σορτούαις̄ ριθ.

Σορτούαις̄ ρε

Σορτούαις̄ ριασ.

CONDITIONAL.

Σορτούαινη (I would hurt) Σορτούαις̄ ρινη.

Σορτούα

Σορτούαις̄ ριθ.

Σορτούαις̄ ρε

Σορτούαις̄ ριασ.

IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. —————

Σορτυις̄μισ [Σορτυις̄μιρ.]

2. Σορτυις̄ς

Σορτυισ̄ιό.†

3. Σορτυις̄μεας̄ ρε

Σορτυις̄μεας̄ ριασ.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE.

Α Σορτυις̄ας̄, to hurt.

Ας Σορτυις̄ας̄, hurting.

Αιρ η-Σορτυις̄ας̄, having hurt.

 The optative is Σο η-Σορτυις̄ me !

* Also Σορτούα ; Σορτούαμισ.

† The classic form is Σορτυις̄ιό, which, being difficult to pronounce, is now written Σορτυισ̄ιό.

Passive Voice.

<i>Present.</i>	Հօրտաւիշ्तեար <i>mé</i> ,	I am being hurt.
<i>Imperfect.</i>	Հօրտաւիշ्त <i>mé</i> ,	I used to be hurt.
<i>Perfect.</i>	Հօրտաւիշեած <i>mé</i> ,	I was hurt.
<i>Future.</i>	Հօրտօծար <i>mé</i> ,	I shall be hurt.
<i>Condit.</i>	Հօրտօծարծ <i>mé</i> ,	I would be hurt.
<i>Infinitive.</i>	Ճ ԵԵԾ Հօրտաւիշ्त,	to be hurt.
<i>Participle.</i>	Հօրտաւիշ्त,	hurt.
<i>Imperative.</i>	Same as present.	

Remarks.

(1.) *մար* is sometimes used as a synthetic ending in the past tense, as ; քօրմար, we married.

(2.) When the initial of a verbal termination is *τ* it becomes *տ* in all verbs whose root terminates in *բ*, *շ*, *մ*, *պ*, or *ր*, and *Տ* of verbs in *ւՏ* of the second conjugation ; as լւե՛տ, bent, ԵօՏ՛տ, softened, intoxicated, ԵՄ՛Տ, buried, Տրածաւի՛շտ, loved, etc. In other cases *τ* is not influenced, as, ԵՐԱՐՏԵ, ԵՐԱԿՏԵ, ԵՐՈՇՏԱ, ԻՇՏԵ, ՄՈԼՏԱ, ԿԱՐՏԱ, etc.

(3.) In the first conjugation the characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional is *պ*, which is usually pronounced *ն*. In the second conjugation *պ* is not used, but instead, the root ending, *ւԱՏ* or *ւՏ*, is changed into *օԾ* or *եԾ*. Verbs of the second conjugation not ending in *ւԱՏ* or *ւՏ* are usually syncopated

and then add oč or eoč. The following are important :—

ROOT.	PRESENT.	FUTURE.
ଶୋର୍ତ୍ତୁବୁନ୍ଦ, hurt	ଶୋର୍ତ୍ତୁବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ଶୋର୍ତ୍ତୁବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.
ଚାମ୍ରନ୍ତିବୁନ୍ଦ, remember	ଚାମ୍ରନ୍ତିବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ଚାମ୍ରନ୍ତିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.
ଦିଲ୍ଲିବୁନ୍ଦ, straighten	ଦିଲ୍ଲିବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ଦିଲ୍ଲିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.
ବୋର୍ଦିବୁନ୍ଦ, cost	ବୋର୍ଦିବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ବୋର୍ଦିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.
ତାର୍ପିବୁନ୍ଦ, draw	ତାର୍ପିବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ତାର୍ପିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.
ମନ୍ତିବୁନ୍ଦ, tell	ମନ୍ତିବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ମନ୍ତିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.
ଫୋର୍ଡିବୁନ୍ଦ, open	ଫୋର୍ଡିବୁନ୍ଦିମ	ଫୋର୍ଡିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ.

N.B.—ଲାଭାର୍ଜି makes ଲାଭାର୍ଜିବୁନ୍ଦାଇଁମ୍ବେ for the future and ଲାଭାର୍ଜିଭିନ୍ନ for the conditional—Pronounced ଲୋର୍ଜି, ଲୋର୍ଜିହିମ ା, ଲୋର୍ଜିହିନ୍ନ.

The Verbal Noun and Present Participle.

Words which are usually called verbal nouns in English have, as seen below, two distinct meanings.

As Participles.

Growing = *growing* = ଅଶ୍ଵ ଫାର.
 Moving = *moving* = ଅଶ୍ଵ ବୋଗାଦ୍.
 Playing = *playing* = ଅଶ୍ଵ ଇମିର୍ତ.
 Stealing = *stealing* = ଅଶ୍ଵ ଶୁର୍ବୋ.

As Verbal Nouns.

Growing = *growth* = ଫାର.
 Moving = *motion* = ବୋଗାଦ୍.
 Playing = *play* = ଇମିର୍ତ.
 Stealing = *theft* = ଶୁର୍ବୋ.

As seen in these examples, the English verbal noun has the characteristic mark “ing,” just like the participle. This “ing,” in the participle, indicates action,

while, in the verbal noun, it merely indicates the name of action. In Irish, the participle sign is $\alpha\bar{s}$, and corresponds to "ing" in the English participle. We see, also, that the Irish verbal noun has not the verbal sign, which leaves it without any verbal force.

All the so-called verbal nouns are, therefore, nouns pure and simple. They have not the merest fraction of the essential quality of a verb, which is action. They have, of course, shape and form, like a man deprived of life, but shape or form and action have no essential quality in common. It is plain, then, that a participle is not a verbal noun, nor a verbal noun a participle. We may also add that an infinitive is neither a verbal noun nor a participle.

Use of the Verbal Noun and Participle.

(a) The Irish verbal noun is limited to the power of any other noun; that is, it can govern another noun that follows it in the genitive case. Hence, we say *vo \bar{s} a \bar{o} l \acute{a} imé* in the same way that we say *o \bar{a} c l \acute{a} imé*.

Rai \bar{b} tú a \bar{s} ba \bar{r} te \bar{a} ó an lein \bar{o} ?

Rai \bar{b} tú a \bar{s} ma \bar{r} ba \bar{o} na cínce?

Rai \bar{b} tú a \bar{s} b \acute{u} ire \bar{a} ó na fuinneoirí?

Rai \bar{b} tú a \bar{s} buint an f \acute{e} ir?

Rai \bar{b} tú a \bar{s} t \acute{i} g Shéamuir?

Were you at the baptising of the child?

Were you at the killing of the hen?

Were you at the breaking of the window?

Were you at the mowing of the hay?

Were you at the house of James?

(b) The regular ending of the present participle is *əv*, but its distinguishing mark is *əs* (not *əg*, which is generally used before *nouns* in preference to *əs*). Before a consonant *əs* often becomes 'a in speaking, and sometimes it is omitted altogether, but this should not be encouraged in writing. The present participle governs a following noun in the genitive.

Tá re *əs* baírtseád *an* leinb.

Tá re *əs* marbád *na* cínce.

Tá re *əs* bhríseád *na* fáinneoirge.

Tá re *əs* buint *an* féir.

He is baptising the child.

He is killing the hen.

He is breaking the window.

He is mowing the hay.

(c) When the object of a transitive participle is a personal pronoun we must use an idiom. Reason : The personal pronouns have no genitive case.

Striking me = *to my striking* = *vo mo bualadó.*

Striking thee = *to thy striking* = *vo vo bualadó.*

Striking him = *to his striking* = *va bualadó.*

Striking her = *to her striking* = *va bualadó.*

Striking us = *to our striking* = *voji m-bualadó.*

Striking you = *to your striking* = *vo bupi m-bualadó.*

Striking them = *to their striking* = *va m-bualadó.*

(d) When the object of a transitive participle is a *relative pronoun*, it is governed by the participle in the *accusative* case. Reason : The relative *has* a genitive, and would be used but for the fact that the relative

never follows the verb. Hence as the genitive cannot stand before the participle the relative is governed in the accusative case.

Δn uð aðá me að iðe

The egg which I am eating.

Δn uð aðí me að iðe

The egg which I was eating.

 *The relative is the only word which can be governed in the accusative case by the present participle.*

The Infinitive Mood.

In English, the infinitive is known by the particle "to," which is universally called the "sign of the infinitive." It is not a preposition as some writers assert, nor is it parsed as such, having no noun or pronoun to govern. The writer considers it a very essential factor of the infinitive, for, without it, the infinitive, in most cases, becomes finite. In English, the infinitive without the sign is like the imperative; but, in Irish, the infinitive without the sign is not often like the imperative, and hence, it can be known when, as often happens, the sign is absent. The Irish infinitive has two signs *a* and *te*.

The regular ending of the infinitive is *að*. This *að* should never be written *eað* except in verbs of the type of *pinnim*. By tacking *að* on to the imperative or root and prefixing the sign, we get the infinitive.

Root	τún	Infinitive	<i>a τúnað</i> , to shut.
"	pínn	"	<i>a pínnæð</i> , to stretch.
"	þuaðl	"	<i>a þuaðlað</i> , to beat.
"	τoṛtað	"	<i>a τoṛtaðað</i> , to hurt.
"	τíṛuð	"	<i>a τíṛuðað</i> , to straighten.

As seen here, the rule is to make the characteristic vowel broad when possible. Hence, the *i* is dropped in *buair* and *gortuig*, while in *óig* it becomes *iu*. But in monosyllabic roots like *rinn*, the characteristic vowel remains unchanged, so that *eao* must be added.

Use of the Infinitive.

(a) As we have already seen, the infinitive has two signs *a* and *te*; *te* causes no initial change, but *a* aspirates the initial of the verb. *Te* prefixes *n* to a vowel.

ír cóna Dia a ghrádhao	It is right to love God.
buó márt liom an bó a níol	I would like to sell the cow
Caimic re le fannaíct	He came to stay.
Tá re le h-imteacáct	He is to go away.

(b) When the English *passive* infinitive expresses *future event*, as, "He is to be killed," *i.e.*, "he will be killed," the sign *te* must be used. Hence, the Irish active infinitive, in such cases, is said to have a passive signification.

He is to be hanged	Tá re le crioacá.
The seed is to be sown	Tá an síol le cuí.
It is to be boiled	Tá re le bhrú.
The wine is to be drunk.	Tá an síon le h-ól.

(c) When the English *active infinitive* expresses *future event* or *purpose* *te* must be used in Irish; and if the infinitive governs an accusative case, the two signs must be used, *a* before the infinitive and *te* before the accusative.

I am to cry (<i>f.e.</i>)	Τά me te caonaō.
I am to wait (<i>f.e.</i>)	Τά me le fanaċt.
He came to fight (<i>pur.</i>)	Τάinic re le tħiex.
He came to sit (<i>pur.</i>)	Τάinic re le ruoħe.
I am to marry Mary (<i>f.e.</i>)	Τά me le mārja a pόrpaħ.
He came to sell a horse (<i>pur.</i>)	Τάinic re le capall a tħol.

(d) All *transitive* infinitives must be immediately preceded by the sign *α* or *vo*.

Τάinic re le rħol a ċuġi	He came to sow seed.
Buġi mian leip rħol a ċuġi	He wanted to sow seed.
taġżeġ aġiċ cor a bogoħa	Tell him to move a foot.

(e) *Intransitive* infinitives must be preceded by *te* when *purpose* or *future event* is to be conveyed.

He came to sleep	Τάinic re le coħlaħ.
He came to stay	Τάinic re le fanaċt.
He came to cry	Τάinic re le caonaħ.
He is to sit	Τά re le ruoħe.
He is to stand	Τά re le reaħraħ.
He is to walk	Τά re le ruuħal.

(f) In all other cases *intransitive* infinitives require no sign, and no aspiration of the initial occurs.

Tell him to walk	Abuġi leip ruuħal.
Tell him to sleep	taġżeġ aġiċ coħlaħ.
I cannot stand	ni ċiġi liom reaħraħ.
He made him go away	ċuġi re aġi imteħaċt.
It is better for you to sit	ir reaħġi ouix ruoħe.
I prefer to stand	ir reaħġi liom reaħraħ.
I would like you to stay	Buġi mairi liom tħu fanaċt.

 *α* *ħbej*, *α* *ħou*, and *α* *ċeċt*, are exceptions.

Governing Power of the Infinitive.

(a) The Irish transitive infinitive cannot govern a noun in the genitive except when it expresses purpose and even then the accusative is commonly used also. The position of the accusative is always before the infinitive, that of the genitive is after it.

Τάινιc ρe a ӯuint fέip }
Τάιnιc ρe le feup a ӯuint } He came to mow hay.

(b) In all other cases, a transitive infinitive can only govern a noun in the accusative case.

Abair leip riat a ӯuint	Tell him to cut a rod.
ní ӯis liom cop a ӯozbaile	I cannot lift a foot.
Ir copir Dia a ӯiadausgá	It is right to love God.
feadair an piopa a ӯionadó	I may fill the pipe.

(c) When the object of a transitive infinitive is a personal pronoun we can only use the accusative, as personal pronouns are defective in the genitive. To make up for this deficiency we are at liberty to use an idiom, as, He wanted to beat me = buō mian leip mo ӯuataó, literally, *he desired my beating*.

buō cóni ӯuít mé a pórásó	} You should marry me.
buō cóni ӯuít mo pórásó	
Τάιnιc ρe le rinn a pórásó	} He came to marry us
Τάιnιc ρe le n-apí b-pórásó	
Tá ρe le mé a pórásó	} He is to marry me.
Tá ρe le mo pórásó	

 “Not” before an infinitive is rendered by *gá*. If the infinitive governs an accusative *gá* precedes the latter.

I prefer not to stand	ír féarfhí liom gan feaglaó.
Tell him not to sit	abair leir gan riúde.
To be or not to be	a bhíteá no gan a bhíteá.
Tell him not to eat the butter	abair leir gan an t-im a ite.

N.B.—Cum is sometimes used as a sign of the infinitive when purpose is conveyed : Cum Séamur a bhuailasó = to beat James ; cum bhréiteamhnaí a chabhairt aír = to pass judgment on him. In these examples cum is not a preposition, and hence it has nothing to do with the governing of "Séamur" and "bhréiteamhnaí."

The Infinitive and Participle.

The infinitive and present participle have the same form, the signs being different. In regular infinitives as we have seen, the ending is aó ; but most of the infinitives in the language are irregular ; the following should be committed to memory :—

ROOT.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Seiró, pray	a sáiró	aS gan sáir.
Táisir, fight	a táisir	aS táisir.
Ól, drink	a ól	aS ól.
Úsáid, boil, cook	a úsáid	aS úsáid.
Sáil, boil, bubble	a sáil	aS sáil.
Sáir, steal	a sáir	aS sáir.
Fíarfháis, inquire	a fíarfháis	aS fíarfháis.
Éirt, hear	a éirteasct	aS éirteasct.
Imírt, play (a game)	a imírt	aS imírt.
Tárrhaingt, pull	a tárrhaingt	aS tárrhaingt.
Cáill, lose	a cailleasó	aS cailleasó.
Cuir, put	a cuir	aS cuir.
Innrírt, tell	a innre	aS innre.
Cuinnis, keep	a cuinneilt	aS cuinneilt
Láethair, speak	a láethairt	aS láethairt.

ROOT.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
ταρπι, ask	α ταρπιατό	ας ταρπιατό.
τείσ, let, allow	α τείσεαν	ας τείσεαν.
φάς, leave	α φάσαιλ	ας φάσαιλ.
τός, lift	α τόσαιλ	ας τόσαιλ.
ceannas, buy	α ceannasά	ας ceannasά.
τίολ, sell	α τίολ	ας τίολ.
τηίομ, spin	α τηίομ	ας τηίομ.
τείν, sing, play	α τείνμ	ας τείνμ.
τισ, wash	α τισέ	ας τισέ.
ceangail, tie	α ceangail	ας ceangail.

Particles.

αν ?	Simple interrogative aff.	
ναέ ?	Simple interrogative neg.	
αρ ? (αν ? + τιο)	Perfect interrogative aff.	
ναρ ? (ναέ ? + τιο)	Perfect interrogative neg.	
νι and έα	Simple negatives.	
νιορ (νι + τιο)	} Perfect tense negatives.	Simple dependent neg.
έαρι (έα + τιο)		Perfect dependent neg.
ναέ (that...not)	Affirmative of ναρ.	
ναρι (ναέ + τιο)	Imperative negative.	
ζυρ (ζο + τιο) *		
να		

Examples.

Do you speak English ?	αν ταθιαν τύ θευητα ?
Do you not speak Irish ?	ναέ ταθιαν τύ ζαενιλζε ?
Did you strike him ?	αρ θυαιλ τύ ε ?
Did you not strike him	ναρι θυαιλ τύ ε ?
I do not smoke (e.g. tobacco)	νιορ έαιτιμ; έα ζ-έαιτιμ.
I did not smoke	νιορι έαιτ me; έαρι έαιτ me ?
He says he does not smoke	Τειρι ρε ναέ ζ-έαιτεαν ρε.
He says he did not smoke	Τειρι ρε ναρι έαιτ ρε.
He says that he smoked	Τειρι ρε ζυρ έαιτ ρε.
Do not smoke	να έαιτ.

* Don't confound this with the conjunction ζυρ=ζο [See 17.]

THE NEGATIVE CÁ.

(a) As may be seen from the following examples, which cover the whole scope of the language, cá eclipses, and never aspirates.

Cá m-béiríonn aS cainT	I would not be talking.
Cá S-cuiríonn im aip	I would not put butter on it.
Cá n-deanfaínn rí	I would not do that.
Cá b-fanfaínn ann	I would not stay there.
Cá n-ghuioríonn pionna	I would not steal a pin.
Cá maithearann ro go deo	This won't last for ever.
Cá b-pógaíann an cat	The cat does not kiss.
Cá ruríonn ann	I would not sit there.
Cá o-tiocfaírí	She would not come.
Cá n-ólann re	He does not drink.

(b) With the verb *is* only, cá becomes cán.

Cán me (It is not I)	Cán rínn.
Cán tú	Cán ríb.
Cán é, cán i	Cán iad.

 Cán *fuil* is the only apparent case of aspiration. This is nothing else than cá n-(f)uil.

N.B.—The English present tense is often used for a future, as, He goes home next week. The Irish present tense with cá is also used in this way, as, cá o-téiríom *teat* go bhráct = I do not (*i.e.*, I will not) go with you for ever.

Irregular Verbs.

Is mé, I am.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

Is mé, I am

Is tú, thou art.

Is é, *is* i, he is, she is

PLURAL.

Is rínn, we are.

Is ríb, you are.

Is iad, they are.

Negative.

ní mé (I am not)	ní rinn.
ní tú	ní rið.
ní h-é, ní h-i	ní h-iad.

Interrogative.

an me? (Am I?)	an rinn?
an tú?	an rið?
an é? an i?	an iad?

Interrog. Neg.

nac me? (Am I not?)	nac rinn?
nac tú?	nac rið?
nac é? nac i?	nac iad?

Dependent.

sun me (That I am)	sun rinn.
sun tú	sun rið.
sun ab é, sun ab i	sun ab iad.

Or

sun me (That I am)	sun rinn.
sun tú	sun rið.
sunb é, sunb i	sunb iad.

Dependent Negative.

nac me (That I am not)	nac rinn.
nac tú	nac rið.
nac é, nac i	nac iad.

PERFECT TENSE.

buð or ba me (I was)	buð rinn.
buð tú	buð rið.
buð é, buð i	buð iad.

N.B.—These are the only forms used. In a few idiomatic expressions such as, *buð mait liom*, a conditional meaning is conveyed, but “*buð*” by itself is a mere perfect tense.

THE IMPERSONAL VERB 1S.

PRESENT TENSE.

1p me, It is I	1p pinn, It is we.
1p tū, It is thou	1p piō, It is you.
1p é, It is he	1p iao, It is they.

N.B.—Mé, tū, &c., are predicates here.

Negative.

ní mé, (It is not I)	ní pinn.
ní tū	ní piō.
ní h-é, ní h-i	ní h-iāo.

Interrogative.

an me? (Is it I?)	an pinn?
an tū?	an piō?
an é? an i?	an iāo?

Interrog. Neg.

nacé mé? (Is it not I?)	nacé pinn?
nacé tū?	nacé piō?
nacé é, nacé i?	nacé iāo?

Dependent.

sun me (That it is I)	sun pinn.
sun tū	sun piō?
sun é, sun i	sun iāo.

Dependent Neg.

nacé mé (That it is not I)	nacé pinn.
nacé tū	nacé piō.
nacé é, nacé i	nacé iāo.

Optative : So m-buō or sun ab = may it be. These are very rare, ta being almost always used.

PERFECT TENSE.

Þurð me (It was I)

Þurð rinn.

Þurð tú

Þurð ríð.

Þurð é, þurð í

Þurð 1æð.

USE OF 1S.

(a) The secondary forms of the perfect are like those of the present tense. It is only by the context—usually by a relative clause following—that we can distinguish the tense, as, *Ní mé a τοειη é*, It is not I that say it. *Ní me a τύθαιτ é*. It was not I that said it. The particles are also the same. We must not, therefore, say, *Δη me?* Was it I? *Níοη me*, It was not I; *Δη eun é?* Was it a bird? *Δη βρανταέ é?* Was he a Frenchman? These are turned correctly as follows :—

An mé a bí ann?

Was it I that was in it?

Ní mé a bí ann

It was not I that was in it.

An eun a bí ann?

Was it a bird that was in it?

An βρανταέ a bí ann?

Was it a Frenchman that was in him?

(b) Before é, í, 1æð, however, the particles *Δη níοη*, *ηαρ*, &c., as well as the verb, are often used—principally in replies, as, *Níοη é*, It was not (he), *Níοη í*, It was not (she); *Níοη 1æð*, It was not (they); *Τύθαιτ rí ηαρ í*, She said that it was not (she); *Δη í Μαίη a τύθαιτ rí?* Was it Mary that said that? &c. With certain idiomatic phrases also these particles are used before adjectives, the initials of which

will be aspirated, but the verb will be suppressed, except before a vowel sound:

Δη μαιτ̄ λεατ̄?	Would you like?
Πίοι έσιη τουτ̄	You should not.
Δηθ̄ φέαρη λεατ̄?	Would you prefer?
Παρθ̄ άρτο αν φεαρ̄ é?	Wasn't he a tall man?
Παρι τόρη αν φεαρ̄ é?	Wasn't he a big man?
Πίοι τόρη αν φεαρ̄ é?	He wasn't a big man?

Δη τόρη αν φεαρ̄ é? is incorrect.

(c) Examples of the type of θυρ̄ τόρη αν φεαρ̄ é are often converted into relative sentences with the usual particles, n̄i, an, nač, etc.

He was a big man	Θυρ̄ τόρη αν φεαρ̄ α θί ανν̄.
She was a good girl	Θυρ̄ τόρη αν καϊλίν α θί ινντί.
Were not they big men?	Ναέ τόρη να φίη α θί ιονντά?
Was he a big man?	Αν φεαρ̄ τόρη α θί ανν̄?

It would be wrong to translate this last example by, αν τόρη αν φεαρ̄ α θί ανν̄? In examples of this kind the adjective always expresses inherent quality, that is, our attention is drawn to the *size*, rather than to the *species* of the man. But as we cannot be impressed with the size of an object which we have not yet seen, and which we are merely inquiring about, it follows that the adjective does not express inherent quality. Hence, Δη τόρη αν φεαρ̄ é? and αν τόρη αν φεαρ̄ α θί ανν̄? are both incorrect.

(d) The perfect tense θυρ̄ is rarely used personally in simple sentences except with a definite predicate.

Θυρ̄ μέ αν φεαρ̄	I was the man.
Θυρ̄ με αν βρανσαέ	I was the Frenchman.
Θυρ̄ ί μαϊρε αν θεαν	Mary was the woman.

With indefinite predicates, it is usual to convert simple sentences into relative ones as follows :—

He was a man.

Is fear a b*í* ann.

He was a Frenchman

Is f*ran*ca*c* a b*í* ann.

She was a good girl

Is c*ail*ín m*ai*t a b*í* innt*i*.

Or, with *ta*.

B*í* r*e* na f*ear*i.

B*í* r*e* na f*ran*ca*c*.

B*í* r*e* na c*ail*ín m*ai*t.

(e) The verb *is*, and its past tense *was*, are, therefore, as a general rule, suppressed in secondary tenses. We have also seen that the conjunction *so* becomes *sun* in dependent sentences, and when *é*, *i*, or *ao* follows it is written *sunb*, or *sunb* (past).

He says that he is the man

Se*ir* r*e* sunb é an f*ear*i.

He said that he was the man

Óuba*ir*t r*e* sunb é an f*ear*i.

He says that Nora is the girl

Se*ir* r*e* sunb i n*ó*ra an c*ail*ín.

He said that Nora was the girl

Óuba*ir*t r*e* sunb i n*ó*ra an c*ail*ín

(f) The noun or pronoun that immediately follows the *impersonal* verb *is* is always a predicate. Hence *me* and *fear* in the following examples are predicates:

Is mé atá a*g* caint

It is I who am talking.

An f*ear*i atá a*g* caint?

Is it a man that is talking?

(g) The noun or pronoun that immediately follows the *personal* verb *is* may be a subject or a predicate.

Is mé é (verb subj. pred.)

I am he.

Is tu n*ó*ra (v. s. p.)

You are Nora.

Is mé an f*ear*i (v. s. p.)

I am the man.

Is f*ear*i mé (v. p. s.)

I am a man.

THE IS CONSTRUCTION.

The subject is placed immediately after all verbs in the language. *Ir* complies with this rule when the subject and predicate are both definite,* but in other cases the predicate comes between the verb and the subject. [See Double Predicate.]

He is the man	<i>Ir é an fear</i>	v. s. p.
I am he	<i>Ir me é</i>	
I am Cian	<i>Ir me Cian</i>	
John is my son	<i>Ir é Seán mo mac</i>	
I am a man	<i>Ir fear me</i>	v. p. s.
John is a Frenchman	<i>Ir Francach Seán</i>	

Double Subject.

(a) When the subject and predicate of a sentence are both definite there will be an extra pronoun subject in Irish agreeing in gender, number, and case, with the subject which must be a noun either expressed or understood.

Mary is she	<i>Ir...í máire...í</i>	v. s. p.
John is he	<i>Ir...é Seán...é</i>	
Erin is my country	<i>Ir...í Eire...mo tír</i>	
The men are they	<i>Ir...iad na fir...iad</i>	
These men are they	<i>Ir...iad na fir ro...iad</i>	
That is Mary	<i>Ir...í rín...máire</i>	

(b) Sometimes *this* and *that*, or their plurals, are equivalent to the adverbs *here* and *there*, and when this is so they are rendered by *ro* and *rín*.

This is he = Here he is = *ro é*.

That is he = There he is = *rín é*.

This is John = Here is John = *ro Seán*.

* A word is definite if it is a proper name, or a personal pronoun; or if it is preceded by a possessive or demonstrative adjective. *This* and *that* are definite words when they point to a noun understood.

(c) When an *indefinite* predicate is the name of something pointed at, *this* and *that* are not equivalent to the adverbs *here* and *there*, but refer to some abstract or unknown thing understood, and in such cases we must use the verb thus :—

This is a stone	is cloch ro.
This is not bread	ní aran ro.
That is not a horse	ní capall rín.
It is a ghost	is tairbhe é.
That is not Irish	ní Gaeilge rín.

(d) When *this*, *that*, *these*, or *those*, are equivalent to *this one*, *that one*, *these ones*, *those ones*, a double subject must be used, even with indefinite predicates.

This is a cow	is bó i ro.
That is a bull	is taibh é rín.
These are herrings	is rísdáin iao ro.
That is a good cow	is bó maití i rín.

Double Predicate.

(a) When the subject is a personal pronoun, and a possessive pronoun in the predicate, there will be a double predicate, and the construction will be—*verb, predicate, subject*.

He is my father	is.....é m' atair.....é.	} v. p. s.
She is my love	is.....í mo ghrá.....í.	
They are my horses	is.....iao mo capall.....iao.	
It is my pleasure	is.....é mo choil... ..é.	

(b) When a *definite noun* comes immediately after the *impersonal* verb *is*, it will be a double predicate.

is i Nora atá ann ro.	It is Nora that is here.
ní h-iao na fir atá ann.	It is not the men that are in it.
an é Séamus a riunne é?	Was it James that did it.

 Note the difference in :—

They are my sheep	1r 1a ^o mo ćaoi ^u is 1a ^o .
The sheep are mine	1r 1iom na ćaoi ^u is.
These are my sheep	1r 1a ^o ro mo ćaoi ^u is.
These sheep are mine	1r 1iom na ćaoi ^u is ro.
Speak if you wish	1a ^u da ^u ma 'r é 1o ćo ^u l é.
Speak (if you) please !	1a ^u da ^u le 1o ćo ^u l.

N.B.—*Δct ab é Seagán bérðinn mafó* = Only for John I would have been dead. *Δct ab é go 1aib tū ann bí me caillte* = Had you not been there I was done for. *Δct ab é ćura go 1o ćeánfainn* ! Only for you what would I do !

THE VERB *Tá*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. <i>Tá me</i> , I am	<i>Tá 1inn</i> ,* we are.
2. <i>Tá tū</i> , thou art	<i>Tá 1ib</i> , you are.
3. <i>Tá re</i> , <i>tá 1i</i> , he is, &c.	<i>Tá 1i^o</i> , they are.

Negative.

<i>Ní 1uin</i> me (I am not)	<i>Ní 1uin 1inn</i> , <i>ní 1uinm^o</i> .
<i>Ní 1uin</i> tū	<i>Ní 1uin 1ib</i> .
<i>Ní 1uin</i> re	<i>Ní 1uin 1i^o</i> .

 *Ní 1uin* is also written *níl*.

Interrogative.

<i>Ó-1uin</i> me ? (Am I ?)	<i>Ó-1uin 1inn</i> ? <i>Ó-1uinm^o</i> ?
<i>Ó-1uin</i> tū ?	<i>Ó-1uin 1ib</i> ?
<i>Ó-1uin</i> re ?	<i>Ó-1uin 1i^o</i> ?

* *Támu^o* is also used.

Interrog. Negative.

Naċ b-puil me? (Am I not?)	Naċ b-puil rinn?
Naċ b-puil tū?	Naċ b-puil riħ?
Naċ b-puil re?	Naċ b-puil riad?

The Habitual Present.

Tā is the only verb in the language that has a special form to express habitual action or state. As well as the forms given below, we often hear bī tū, bī ré, bī ri, etc., but these are not used after particles.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Biċċim (I am wont to be)	Biċċeann rinn.*
Biċċeann tū	Biċċeann riħ.
Biċċeann re	Biċċeann riad.

Negative.

Ni biċċim (I am not wont to be)	Ni biċċeann rinn.
Ni biċċeann tū	Ni biċċeann riħ.
Ni biċċeann re	Ni biċċeann riad.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Biċċinn (I used to be)	Biċċeadō rinn.
Biċċeas	Biċċeadō riħ.
Biċċeadō re.	Biċċeadō riad.

Negative: Ni biċċinn, ni biċċeas, etc.

Interrogative: M-biċċinn? M-biċċeas, etc.?

Interrog. Neg.: Naċ m-biċċinn? etc.

PERFECT TENSE.

Bi me (I was)	Bi rinn.
Bi tū	Bi riħ.
Bi ré	Bi riad.

* Also biċċim.

Negative.

Ní <i>raibh</i> me (I was not)	Ní <i>raibh</i> <i>rinn</i> .
Ní <i>raibh</i> <i>tú</i>	Ní <i>raibh</i> <i>riö</i> .
Ní <i>raibh</i> <i>ré</i>	Ní <i>raibh</i> <i>riao</i> .

Raibh is pronounced *röñ*.

Interrogative.

Raibh me? (Was I?)	Raibh <i>rinn</i> ?
Raibh <i>tú</i>	Raibh <i>riö</i> ?
Raibh <i>ré</i> ?	Raibh <i>riao</i> ?

Also, *An* *raibh* *me*?

FUTURE TENSE.

Béirö me (I shall be)	Béirö <i>rinn</i> .*
Béirö <i>tú</i>	Béirö <i>riö</i> .
Béirö <i>ré</i>	Béirö <i>riao</i> .

Negative: Ní *béirö* *mé*, etc.

Interrogative: *M-béirö* *mé*, etc.

Interrog. Neg.: *Nac m-béirö* *me*? etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Béiröinn (I would be)	Béiröeaö <i>rinn</i> .
Béiröea	Béiröeaö <i>riö</i> .
Béiröeaö <i>ré</i>	Béiröeaö <i>riao</i> .

Negative: Ní *béiröinn*, etc.

Interrogative: *M-béiröinn*? etc.

Interrog. Neg.: *Nac m-béiröinn*? etc.

OPTATIVE MOOD.

So <i>raibh</i> <i>me</i> ! (may I be!)	So <i>raibh</i> <i>rinn</i> ! †
So <i>raibh</i> <i>tú</i> !	So <i>raibh</i> <i>riö</i> !
So <i>raibh</i> <i>ré</i> !	So <i>raibh</i> <i>riao</i> !

* Also *béiröin*.

† Also *so* *raibh*!

Negative.

Naři řaiš me!	Naři řaiš řinn!
Naři řaiš tū!	Naři řaiš řiš!
Naři řaiš ře!	Naři řaiš řiaš!

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. —————

2. BÍ (be)

3. BÍDEAÐ ře

PLURAL.

BÍODMUÐ.

BÍDÍÐ.*

BÍDEAÐ řiað.

INFINITIVE, ETC.

A řeit, to be.

Aři m-řeit, having been.

N.B.—*The present participle is never used.*

TATÁR, BÍTEAR, BÉRÓTEAR.

These forms are often used when the subject is general, as, TATÁR AŠ buint an řeip, they are mowing the hay, the hay is being mowed. BÍTEAÐ AŠ buint na b-řneatæi, they were digging the potatoes, the potatoes were being dug. TATÁR DA m-buint, they are digging them, they are being dug. NI BÉRÓTEAÐ DA m-buint ſo ſeo, they (people or we) will not be digging them for ever.

The ending (tař) of these impersonal forms has the same force as the French *on*.

* Classic form bíðið, now written and pronounced bíðið. Hence also póravíðið, býravíðið.

Inherent Quality and Species.

NOUNS.—When we say that a cow is not a goat we cannot mistake the meaning, viz. : that it is a question of the *species* of animal. When we say that a cow is not a block of wood, it is also a question of species. But when we say that *the* cow is not a goat, two ideas are presented to our mind : (1) that the cow is not of the goat species ; (2) that the cow in question may have been at one time under the form of a goat, or of a hare, but that she is *now* in her natural shape again ; and hence she is not *in her* capacity or *quality of goat*, or as it would lie in Irish, *The cow is not in her goat*. Again, when we say that a lamb is a sheep, we cannot mistake the meaning, viz. : that a lamb is not a cat or a dog, but an animal of the sheep species. But “*The lamb is a sheep*,” suggests (1) the idea of species, (2) that the lamb *has grown*, and is now *in its quality of sheep*, and hence, this is a question of internal or inherent quality. “*A lamb is a young sheep*,” suggests species only, but “*The lamb is a young sheep*,” suggests both species and inherent quality. In composition the context must be our guide. If the sentence has no connection, we may translate as we choose. From this we see :—

- (1) That the question of species or quality requires that the *predicate* be *indefinite*.
- (2) That when the subject is *indefinite*, the idea of species is conveyed.
- (3) That when the subject is *definite*, species or quality may be conveyed.

ADJECTIVES.—When we say corn is green, sugar is sweet, we may mean that corn is green *and not black*, sugar is sweet *and not bitter*; and, here the colour or quality expressed by the adjective is always associated with other colours or qualities. The adjective in such cases expresses species. But when the colour or quality is not associated with other qualities, it usually intensifies our feelings in some way. Thus, when we say, sugar is sweet, we may mean, “How sweet sugar is!” and when we say, “Isn’t sugar sweet?” we may mean, “What a sweet thing sugar is!” or “Sugar is very sweet—Don’t you think so?” In such cases the adjective expresses inherent quality. In English, this idea of inherent quality or state is expressed by the context, in a variety of ways; sometimes by emphasising the verb, as “This is a sweet apple—and indeed it *is* sweet”; sometimes by a negative sentence, interrogative in form, but really an exclamation, as, “Isn’t the water black?” or more correctly, “Isn’t the water black!” But perhaps the favourite way of expressing inherent quality in English, is by a poetical inversion, that is, by misplacing the adjective, and putting it in a prominent position. The following are examples of this kind, and all the adjectives express inherent quality :—

“O! *green* was the corn as I rode on my way,
And *bright* were the dews on the blossoms of May!”

“*Pale* are the stars in the heavens to-night,
And *silent* and *still* is the lake!”

“*Sad* is the sound and *sorrowful*!”

“*Fair* are the fields in the Summer,
And *sweet* is the scent of the flowers!”

WHEN TO USE **IS** AND WHEN **TA**.

(a) A sentence having a definite predicate must be rendered by **is**.

I am the man	is me an fear.
You are the king	is tú an rí.
I am he	is me é.
We are they	is rinn is.
Are you Cormack	An tú Cormac?
She is my daughter	is í mo nísean í.
This is my brother	is e ro mo òeárrthair.
That is my sister	is í rìn mo òeárrthair.

(b) To translate a sentence having an indefinite noun predicate, **is** must be used for species, and **ta** for inherent quality.

The trout is a fish	is isarf an bheac.
John is a priest	is rásairt Seághán.
He is a man	is fear é.
The trout is a fish	ta an bheac na isarf.
John is a priest	ta Seághán na rásairt.
He is a man	ta ré na fear.

When the indefinite noun is qualified by an adjective, a favourite way to express inherent quality is to use **is**, immediately followed by the adjective, and then the noun with the article, as, He is a good man = **is** maist an fear é; they are good men = **is** maist na fear is. Notice that the adjective is invariable.

He is a good man =

- (1) **is** fear maist é (Species).
- (2) **is** maist an fear é (i. q.)
- (3) **ta** ré na fear maist (i. q.)

When the indefinite predicate expresses species ՚if and τά often combine to form an idiom by which simple sentences are converted into relative ones. Thus, She is a woman = ՚if bean τά inntí = literally, It is a woman that is in her.

A trout is a fish	՚if ՚aifí τά a m-bheas.
They are men	՚if fíji τά ionnta.
John is a man	՚if feaři τά ann Šeařan.
You are a good girl	՚if cailín mařt τά ionnat.
Mary is a good girl	՚if cailín mařt τά ann mářie.

N.B.—We see, therefore, that the same sentence may be rendered three ways when the indefinite predicate has no adjective, and four ways when it has an adjective.

JOHN IS A PRIEST:

- (1) ՚if ragařt Šeařan (Species).
- (2) ՚if ragařt τά ann Šeařan (Species.)
- (3) τά Šeařan na ragařt (i. q.)

JOHN IS A GOOD PRIEST:

- (1) ՚if ragařt mařt Šeařan (Species.)
- (2) ՚if ragařt mařt τά ann Šeařan (Species.)
- (3) ՚if mařt an ragařt Šeařan (i. q.)
- (4) τά Šeařan na ragařt mařt (i. q.)

 In connection with time and space τά is used:

He is five miles away	τά re cíig mīle ařiř ſiuřal.
The house is twenty yards long	τά an teac̄ ſiće ſlat ařiř ſao.
It is twenty feet high	τά re ſiće τlioiř ařiř ařiřoře.
It is midnight	τά re an meađon-oiřoře.
I was a year in Derry	Ói me bliadain a n-Dořie.

(c) When the predicate is an adjective in the comparative degree we may use either *ír* or *tá*, as, Milk is better than wine = (1) *Tá bainne mór feárra ná ríon* (2) *Ír feárra bainne ná ríon*. When the predicate is an adjective in the positive degree *tá* must be used for species, and *ír* for inherent quality, as,

Sugar is sweet (sp.)	<i>Tá riucra miliúr.</i>
Sugar is sweet (i. q.)	<i>Ír miliúr riucra.</i>
The corn was green (sp.)	<i>Bí an coince glas.</i>
Green was the corn ! (i. q.)	<i>Buó glas an coince.</i>
The night is dark (sp.)	<i>Tá an oíoché dojmá.</i>
Isn't the night dark ? (i. q.)	<i>Náct dojmá an oíoché</i>

(d) When any part of the verb "to be" is immediately followed by a preposition, an adverb, or a present participle *tá* must be used.

He is at the door	<i>Tá re aig an dojmá.</i>
He is not there now	<i>Ní fuil re ann in aonair.</i>
He is walking *	<i>Tá re ag riubal.</i>

(e) When "to be" is impersonal, *ír* is always used :

It is sick that I am	<i>Ír tinn atá me.</i>
It is I who am sick	<i>Ír mire atá tinn.</i>
It is here that I am	<i>Ír ann ro atá me.</i>
It is at the well that I am	<i>Ír aig an tobaí atá me.</i>
It is I that have the cow	<i>Ír agampa atá an bó.</i>
It is I that have the new hat	<i>Ír agampa atá an hata úr.</i>
It is walking that I am	<i>Ír ag riubal atá me.</i>

* In a few cases an idiom takes place, as, I am sleeping = *Tá me mo éoclaí*, I am living or residing = *Tá me mo comhnuire*. *Tá me mo comhnuire*, means also, I am idle.

Óeiríom, I GIVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Óeiríom (I give)	Óeirí rinn.
Óeir tú	Óeirí ríb.
Óeir re	Óeirí ríad.

Negative.

ní éabhráim (I do not give)	ní éabhrann rinn.
ní éabhrann tú	ní éabhrann ríb.
ní éabhrann re	ní éabhrann ríad.

Pronounce ní hórlúm, etc.

IMPERFECT INDIC.

Óeiríonn (I used to give)	Óeiríeadó rinn.
Óeiríead	Óeiríeadó ríb.
Óeiríead re	Óeiríeadó ríad.

Negative.

ní éabhráinn (I used not to give)	ní éabhráidó rinn.
ní éabhráid	ní éabhráidó ríb.
ní éabhráid re	ní éabhráidó ríad.

Pronounce ní hórláinn, ní hórlhá, etc.

PERFECT INDIC.

óus me (I gave)	óus rinn or óusmuir.
óus tú	óus ríb.
óus re	óus ríad.

Negative, etc.

níor óus me or ní óus me, etc.
ári óus me? or ó-óus me? etc.
nári óus me? or ná óus me? etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Θειρριό με* (I shall give)	Θειρριό ρινν.
Θειρριό τύ	Θειρριό ριβ.
Θειρριό ρέ	Θειρριό ριαδ.

Also written Θέαρραιό με.

Negative.

Νί ταῦθαρραιό με* (I will not give)	Νί ταῦθαρραιό ρινν.
Νί ταῦθαρραιό τύ	Νί ταῦθαρραιό ριβ.
Νί ταῦθαρραιό ρέ	Νί ταῦθαρραιό ριαδ.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Θειρριόν (I would give)	Θειρρεάδ ρινν.
Θειρρεά	Θειρρεάδ ριβ.
Θειρρεάδ ρέ.	Θειρρεάδ ριαδ.

Also Θέαρραιόν.

Negative.

Νί ταῦθαρραιόν (I would not give)	Νί ταῦθαρραδ ρινν.
Νί ταῦθαρρα	Νί ταῦθαρραδ ριβ.
Νί ταῦθαρραδ ρέ	Νί ταῦθαρραδ ριαδ.

Imperative Ταῦθαιρ, † pl. Ταῦθαιρισιό or ταῦθαιρισιό.

Infinitive Α ταῦθαιρτ (Pr. α τόιρτ, or α ηόιρτ).

Participle Ας ταῦθαιρτ (Pr. ας τόιρτ or α τόιρτ).

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. Θειρρέαρ μέ ; ονί ταῦθαιρέαρ μέ.

Imperfect Θειρτί μέ ; ονί ταῦθαιρτί μέ.

Perfect Τυγαδ μέ ; ονίορ τυγαδ μέ.

Future Θέαρραρ μέ ; ονί ταῦθαιρραρ μέ.

Conditional Θειρριόδε μέ ; ονί ταῦθαιρριόδε μέ.

Infinitive Α θειτ ταῦθαιρτα, or α θειτ τυγτα.

Participle Ταῦθαιρτα or τυγτα.

* Pronounce : θειρρίμ ă, θειρρίττύ, θειρρί ρέ (short, θειρρίρ τă), etc. Negative : ονί ηόρρίμ ă, ονί ηόρρίττύ, ονί ηόρρί ρέ, etc.

† Pronounce, τόιρτ.

☞ As may be seen, there is a special root in most of the tenses when the verb is negative. This root must be used, also, in interrogative and dependent sentences. In this verb, the special root is *ταθαιρ*, but *τας* is also used.

IDIOMATIC USE OF *θείριμ*.

Except in replies, this verb is connected with a preposition. The following are the meanings :—

- (1) *θείριμ* + *το* + noun or pronoun = I give....
- (2) *θείριμ* + *αρ* + noun or pronoun = I pay....
- (3) *θείριμ* + *αρ* + noun + infin. = I cause or compel.
- (4) *θείριμ* + *τιομ*, *τεατ*, *τειρ*, etc. = I take....
- (5) *θείριμ* + *χυζαμ*, *χυζατ*, etc. = I bring....

Examples.

<i>τας</i> <i>τε αιραν</i> <i>το</i> <i>τάιριε</i>	He gave bread to Mary.
<i>τας</i> <i>τε ριζιν</i> <i>αιρ</i> <i>αιραν</i>	He paid a penny for bread.
<i>τας</i> <i>τε αιρ</i> <i>υνα</i> <i>ρυισε</i>	He made Una sit.
<i>τας</i> <i>τε αν</i> <i>θο</i> <i>τειρ</i>	He took the cow with him.
<i>τας</i> <i>τε αν</i> <i>ρισιαν</i> <i>χυισι</i>	He brought her the knife.
<i>ταθαιρ</i> <i>χυζαμ</i> <i>το</i> <i>θηρόδα</i>	Bring me my shoes.

θείριμ, I BEAR.

ACTIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	<i>θείριμ</i> ; <i>νι</i> <i>θείριμ</i> ; <i>τη</i> - <i>θείριμ</i> ?
<i>Imperfect</i>	<i>θείριν</i> ; <i>νι</i> <i>θείριν</i> ; <i>τη</i> - <i>θείριν</i> ?
<i>Perfect</i>	<i>θυς</i> <i>τη</i> ; <i>νιοτ</i> <i>θυς</i> <i>τη</i> ; <i>αρ</i> <i>θυς</i> <i>τη</i> ?
<i>Future</i>	<i>θείριτο</i> <i>τη</i> , <i>νι</i> <i>θείριτο</i> <i>τη</i> ; &c.
<i>Conditional</i>	<i>θείριν</i> ; <i>νι</i> <i>θείριν</i> ; <i>τη</i> - <i>θείριν</i> ?
<i>Imperative</i>	<i>θειρ</i> <i>ρι</i> . <i>θειρισιτο</i> .
<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>α θρειτ</i> .
<i>Participle</i>	<i>ας</i> <i>θρειτ</i> .

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	ᚢୟିର୍ତେଆର ମେ ; ନି ଥୈର୍ତେଆର ମେ.
<i>Imperfect</i>	ᚢୟିର୍ତୀ ମେ ; ନି ଥୈର୍ତୀ ମେ.
<i>Perfect</i>	ᚱୁଗ୍ରାୟ ମେ ; ନିୟ ରୁଗ୍ରାୟ ମେ ; ଅପି ରୁଗ୍ରାୟ ମେ ?
<i>Future</i>	ᚢୟାର୍ଫାର ମେ ; ନି ଥ୍ୟାର୍ଫାର ମେ.
<i>Conditional</i>	ᚢୟିର୍ଫିରେ ମେ ; ନି ଥୈର୍ଫିରେ ମେ.
<i>Infinitive</i>	ଅ ଥେତ ଥୈର୍ତେ.
<i>Participle</i>	ଥୈର୍ତେ.

USE OF **ଥୈରିମ**.

This verb is rarely used with the meaning "to bring," or "to carry," which, as we have already seen, is expressed by **ଥୈରିମ**, I give. The principal meanings attached to this verb are as follows :—

(1) To produce or bring forth :

ରୁଗ୍ ରି ମାଚ	She brought forth a son.
ରୁଗ୍ ଅନ ବୋ	The cow calved.
ରୁଗ୍ ଅନ ଚେଅଚ	The hen laid.

(2) With the preposition **ଅପି** : to catch, to arrest, to overtake.

ରୁଗ୍ ରେ ଲିମ ଅନ ଟ୍-ର୍ଲାଇଟ	He caught the rod.
ରୁଗ୍ ରେ ଲିମ ଶେଅମ୍ପ	He seized James.
ରୁଗ୍ରାୟ ଲିମ ଶେଅଜାନ	John was arrested.
ରୁଗ୍ ରେ ଲିମ ପ୍ରେଆଦାନ	He overtook Peter.

N.B.—Hence, **ରୁଗ୍ ରେ ଓପି** = (1) He caught me, (2) he seized me, (3) he arrested me, (4) he overtook me. The participle **ଥୈର୍ତେ** is not used in the sense of catching, arresting, or overtaking, **ଶାବ୍ଦିତେ** (*pr. Suite*), from **ଶାବ୍ଦାମ**, being used in its stead : **ତା ରେ ଶାବ୍ଦିତେ** = He is caught, he is "trapped," he is arrested, &c.

Σηνόιμ OR ηίροιμ, I DO, I MAKE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Σηνόιμ (I do, I make) Σηνό ρινν.

Σηνό τύ Σηνό ριβ.

Σηνό ρε Σηνό ριασ.

Pr. ηίμ, ηί τύ, etc.

Negative.

ηί θεάναιμ (I do not do) ηί θεάναν ρινν.

ηί θεάναν τύ ηί θεάναν ριβ.

ηί θεάναν ρε ηί θεάναν ριασ.

Also θα η-θεάναιμ, etc.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

Σηνόινν (I used to do) Σηνόθεασ ρινν.

Σηνόθεα Σηνόθεασ ριβ.

Σηνόθεασ ρε Σηνόθεασ ριασ.

Negative.

ηί θεάναινν (I used not to do) ηί θεάνασ ρινν.

ηί θεάντα ηί θεάνασ ριβ.

ηί θεάνασ ρε ηί θεάνασ ριασ.

Also θα η-θεάναινν, etc.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Ριννε μέ (I did, I made) Ριννε ρινν.

Ριννε τύ Ριννε ριβ.

Ριννε ρε Ριννε ριασ.

Negative.

ηί θεάρη με (I did not do) ηί θεάρη ρινν.

ηί θεάρη τύ ηί θεάρη ριβ.

ηί θεάρη ρε ηί θεάρη ριασ.

Also θα θεάρη με, etc.

Interrogative.

‘Oeárn me? (Did I do?) ‘Oeárn rinn?

‘Oeárn tū? ‘Oeárn rið?

‘Oeárn re? ‘Oeárn rið?

N.B.—No Eclipsis.

Interrogative Negative, etc.

nac ‘oeárn me? Did I not do?

So ‘oeárn me That I did, that I made.

nac ‘oeárn me That I did not do.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

‘Oeánpaið me (I shall do) ‘Oeánpaið rinn.

‘Oeánpaið tū ‘Oeánpaið rið.

‘Oeánpaið re ‘Oeánpaið rið.

Negative.

ní ‘oeánpaið me (I will not do) ní ‘oeánpaið rinn.

ní ‘oeánpaið tū ní ‘oeánpaið rið.

ní ‘oeánpaið re ní ‘oeánpaið rið.

Also, *Ca n-oeánpaið me*, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

‘Oeánpaiðn (I would do) ‘Oeánpaið rinn.

‘Oeánpaið ‘Oeánpaið rið.

‘Oeánpaið re ‘Oeánpaið rið.

Imperative: *Oeán*, *pl. Oeánaigisð*.

Infinitive: *A oeánað*. *Participle*: *AS oeánað*.

 Form passive voice in the usual way from the active roots.

ΤΟΙΡΙΜ, I SAY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Τειριμ (I say)	Τειρι ρινν.
Τειρι τύ	Τειρι ριθ.
Τειρι ρε	Τειρι ριαθ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Τύθαιρτ me (I said)	Τύθαιρτ ρινν.
Τύθαιρτ τύ	Τύθαιρτ ριθ.
Τύθαιρτ ρε	Τύθαιρτ ριαθ.

Pronounce, τύιρτ me, etc.

Τίοιρ τύθαιρτ me	I did not say.
Αρι τύθαιρτ me ?	Did I say ?
Παρι τύθαιρτ me ?	Did I not say ?
Αθαιρ, αθραισιό	Say thou, say you.
Α πάθ ; ας παθ	To say ; saying.

The other parts are quite regular.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic.	Τειρτεαρ é	<i>It is said.</i>
Imperfect	Τειρτí é	<i>It was said.</i>
Perfect	Αθριασ é	<i>It was said.</i>
Future	Τέαρραρí é	<i>It will be said.</i>
Conditional	Τέαρραρíðé	<i>It would be said.</i>
Infin. and Part.	Α θειτάριθτε ; πάριθτε.	
Impersonal	Τειρτεαρ	<i>It is said (Fr., On dit).</i>
	Τειρτí	<i>It was said.</i>
	Αθριασ	<i>It was said.</i>
	Τέαρραρ	<i>It will be said.</i>
	Τέαρραρíðé	<i>It would be said.</i>

N.B.—Τειριμ + ιε = I tell, as Τειριμ τεατ, I tell you; Τύθαιρτ me ιε Τάιρε, I told Mary. The ο of Τύθαιρτ is silent.

ȝeibim (I GET, I FIND).

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ȝeibim* (I get)	ȝeib rinn.
ȝeib tú	ȝeib rið.
ȝeib re	ȝeib riðo.

Negative.

ní ȝáȝam (I do not get)	ní ȝáȝann rinn.
ní ȝáȝann tú	ní ȝáȝann rið.
ní ȝáȝann re	ní ȝáȝann riðo.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ȝeibinn (I used to get)	ȝeibeað rinn.
ȝeibeað	ȝeibeað rið.
ȝeibeað re	ȝeibeað riðo.

Pr. *yevinn, yevha, etc.*

Negative.

ní ȝáȝainn (I used not to get)	ní ȝáȝað rinn.
ní ȝáȝað	ní ȝáȝað rið.
ní ȝáȝað re	ní ȝáȝað riðo.

Pr. *ní áinn, ní ahhá, etc.*

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

ȝuaip me (I got)	ȝuaip rinn.
ȝuaip tú	ȝuaip rið.
ȝuaip re	ȝuaip riðo.

Negative.

ní ȝuaip† me (I did not get)	ní ȝuaip rinn.
ní ȝuaip tú	ní ȝuaip rið.
ní ȝuaip re	ní ȝuaip riðo.

* Pronounce *yev'-im, yev tú, yev ré, etc.*

† Pronounce *ní wuaip.*

Interrogative.

Ó-fuaip mé ? (Did I get ?)	Ó-fuaip rinn ?
Ó-fuaip tú	Ó-fuaip riþ ?
Ó-fuaip re ?	Ó-fuaip riæd ?

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Seóðairó me (I shall get)	Seóðairó rinn.
Seóðairó tú	Seóðairó riþ.
Seóðairó re	Seóðairó riæd.

*Pr. yo'-ee mă, etc.**Negative.*

ní fuið* me (I shall not get)	ní fuið rinn.
ní fuið tú	ní fuið riþ.
ní fuið re	ní fuið riæd.

Interrogative.

Ó-fuið me ? (Shall I get ?)	Ó-fuið rinn ?
Ó-fuið tú ?	Ó-fuið riþ ?
Ó-fuið re ?	Ó-fuið riæd ?

Pr. wee mĕ ? etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Seóðaínn (I would get)	Seóðað rinn.
Seóðað	Seóðað riþ.
Seóðað re	Seóðað riæd.

*Pr. yðínn, yðhă, yðít rĕ, etc.**Negative.*

ní fuiðínn (I would not get)	ní fuiðeað rinn.
ní fuiðeá	ní fuiðeað riþ.
ní fuiðeað re	ní fuiðeað riæd.

*Pr. ní wuínn, ní wuíha, ní wuít rĕ, etc.**Also, ní fáðaínn, etc.*

* Pronounce: ní wuið, or ní wee.

Imperative **fáš**, **fášaigí** (Pr. **fá**, **fá-ig-i**).

Infinitive **a fášaíl** (Pr. **a áil**).

Participle **áš fášaíl** (Pr. **áš fáil** or **a fáil**).

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. **žeibčeárl** mé; **ní fášcár** mé; **ó-fášcár** mé?

Imperfect **žeibctí** mé; **ní žeibctí** mé; **ó-fášctáí** mé?

Perfect **fuárlar** mé; **ní fuárlar** mé; **ó-fuárlar** me?

Future **žeobtár** mé; **ní fuigchteárl** mé.

Conditional **žeobtarde** mé; **ní fuigctróe** mé.

N.B.—This verb is defective in the infinitive and participle passive, but we arrive at their equivalents as follows:—

Tá me le fášaíl	I am to be got.
Óróinn le fášaíl	I used to be got.
Óí me le fášaíl	I was to be got.
Óréo me le fášaíl	I shall be got.
Óréóinn le fášaíl	I would be got.
A óeit le fášaíl	To be got.
le fášaíl	Got.

TÉRÓIM, I GO.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Téiróim (I go) **Téiróeann** **rinn.**

Téiróeann **tu** **Téiróeann** **rív.**

Téiróeann **re** **Téiróeann** **riao.**

Sometimes **téiró** is used instead of **téiróeann**.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

Téiróinn (I used to go) **Téiróeao** **rinn.**

Téiróchea **Téiróeao** **rív.**

Téiróeao **re** **Téiróeao** **riao.**

Pr. **héinn**, **héha**, **héit** **ré** (long **hé-ú** **ré**, etc.).

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Čuařiō me (I went)	Čuařiō ſinn.
Čuařiō tū	Čuařiō ſiō.
Čuařiō ſe	Čuařiō ſiařo.

Negative.

Nil ūeačaiō me (I did not go)	Nil ūeačaiō ſinn.
Nil ūeačaiō tū	Nil ūeačaiō ſiō.
Nil ūeačaiō ſe	Nil ūeačaiō ſiařo.

Also, ča ūeačaiō me, etc.

Interrogative.

Ūeačaiō me? (Did I go?)	Ūeačaiō ſinn?
Ūeačaiō tū?	Ūeačaiō ſiō?
Ūeačaiō ſe?	Ūeačaiō ſiařo?

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Račaiō me (I shall go)	Račaiō ſinn.
Račaiō tū	Račaiō ſiō.
Račaiō ſe	Račaiō ſiařo.

Pr. ūahim mě, ūahă tū, ūahă ſe (long, ūahí* ſe).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Račařinn (I would go)	Račař ſinn.
Rača	Račař ſiō.
Račař ſe	Račař ſiařo.

Pr. ūahinn, ūaha, ūahit ſe (long, ūahū ſe).

Imperative ūerō, ūerōřiřiō; also ūař (Pr. ūo).

Infinitive a ūul; a ūabail (Pr. a ūol).

Participle ūř ūul; ūř ūabail (Pr. a ūol).

* Except when followed by the pronouns, this long sound is usual: ūacaiō máře, pr. ūah'-ee máře.

N.B.—As may be seen *τεαċċiō* never takes *po*, and hence, the particles used are *nī* (not *nīoṛ*), *go* (not *gūṛ*), and *nāċ* (not *nāṛ*). The interrogative particle *an* is not used, and the word never has its initial eclipsed, although we find it sometimes so affected in the written language.

τiġim, I COME.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

<i>τiġim</i> (I come)	<i>τiġ rīnn.</i>
<i>τiġ tū</i>	<i>τiġ rīb.</i>
<i>τiġ re</i>	<i>τiġ rīaċ.</i>

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

<i>ṭiġiñn</i> (I used to come)	<i>ṭiġeād rīnn.</i>
<i>ṭiġeād</i>	<i>ṭiġeād rīb.</i>
<i>ṭiġeād re</i>	<i>ṭiġeād rīaċ.</i>

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

<i>ṭaġiñc me</i> (I came)	<i>ṭaġiñc rīnn.</i>
<i>ṭaġiñc tū</i>	<i>ṭaġiñc rīb.</i>
<i>ṭaġiñc re</i>	<i>ṭaġiñc rīaċ.</i>

Pr. *ħenīc me*, *ħenīc tū*, etc.

Negative.

<i>nīoṛ ṭaġiñc me</i> (I did not come)	<i>nīoṛ ṭaġiñc rīnn.</i>
<i>nīoṛ ṭaġiñc tū</i>	<i>nīoṛ ṭaġiñc rīb.</i>
<i>nīoṛ ṭaġiñc re</i>	<i>nīoṛ ṭaġiñc rīaċ.</i>

Also, *nī ṭaġiñc me*, etc.

Interrogative.

<i>ap ṭaġiñc me?</i> (Did I come?)	<i>ap ṭaġiñc rīnn?</i>
<i>ap ṭaġiñc tū?</i>	<i>ap ṭaġiñc rīb?</i>
<i>ap ṭaġiñc re?</i>	<i>ap ṭaġiñc rīaċ?</i>

Also, *O-ṭaġiñc me?* etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó me (I shall come).	T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>u</small> nn.
T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó t <small>u</small>	T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>ib</small> .
T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>e</small>	T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>ia</small> o.

Pr. Thiochim mě, thiochá tu, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>nn</small> (I would come)	T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>u</small> nn.
T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa	T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>ib</small> .
T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>e</small>	T <small>h</small> io <small>c</small> fa <small>t</small> ó r <small>ia</small> o.

Pr. Huchim, huchá, etc.

Imperative Thap, thapaigíó, ; or this, thisgíóíó.

Infinitive A theact.

Participle Ag theact.

 Thap in second persons only.

Thíóim, I SEE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

T <small>h</small> íóim (I see)	T <small>h</small> íó r <small>u</small> nn.
T <small>h</small> íó t <small>u</small>	T <small>h</small> íó r <small>ib</small> .
T <small>h</small> íó r <small>e</small>	T <small>h</small> íó r <small>ia</small> o.

Negative.

N <small>i</small> f <small>e</small> icim (I do not see)	N <small>i</small> f <small>e</small> iceann r <small>u</small> nn.
N <small>i</small> f <small>e</small> iceann t <small>u</small>	N <small>i</small> f <small>e</small> iceann r <small>ib</small> .
N <small>i</small> f <small>e</small> iceann r <small>e</small>	N <small>i</small> f <small>e</small> iceann r <small>ia</small> o.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

T <small>h</small> íóin <small>n</small> (I used to see).	T <small>h</small> ídeas <small>t</small> ó r <small>u</small> nn.
T <small>h</small> íóteas	T <small>h</small> ídeas <small>t</small> ó r <small>ib</small> .
T <small>h</small> ídeas <small>t</small> ó r <small>e</small>	T <small>h</small> ídeas <small>t</small> ó r <small>ia</small> o.

Negative.

Nil feicinn (I used not to see) Nil feiceadó rinn.

Nil feictea Nil feiceadó riö.

Nil feiceadó re Nil feiceadó riaö.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Óanaic me (I saw) Óanaic rinn.

Óanaic tú Óanaic riö.

Óanaic re Óanaic riaö.

Pr. Óanic me, óanic tú, etc.

Negative.

Nil facairó me (I did not see). Nil facairó rinn.

Nil facairó tú Nil facairó riö.

Nil facairó re Nil facairó riaö.

Pr. Nil acim më, nil acá tú, nil acá re (long, nil ací ré), etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Órófiró me (I shall see) Órófiró rinn.

Órófiró tú Órófiró riö.

Órófiró re Órófiró riaö.

Pr. Órifim më, órifá tú, órifír re (long, órifí ré), etc.

Negative.

Nil feicfiró me (I shall not see) Nil feicfiró rinn.

Nil feicfiró tú Nil feicfiró riö.

Nil feicfiró re Nil feicfiró riaö.

Pr. Nil echim më, nil echá tú, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Órófirinn (I would see) Órófearadó rinn.

Órófeara Órófearadó riö.

Órófearadó re Órófearadó riaö.

Pr. Órifinn, órifá, órifír re (long, órifú ré).

Negative.

ní fēicfínn (I would not see) ní fēicfearó fínn.

ní fēicfear ní fēicfearó fíb.

ní fēicfearó rē ní fēicfearó ria.

Pr. ní echínn, ní echá, ní echit rē (long, ní echá rē), etc.

Imperative Διδαίσ, απαριστοί (Pr. Δις, διριστοί).

Infinitive Α fēiceal or a fēicfint.

Participle Ας fēiceal, Ας fēicfint.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. Τιότεαρ mé; ní fēictear mé.

Imperfect Τιότι mé; ní fēicti mé.

Perfect Ταναicear mé; ní fācar mé.

Future Τιόfear mé; ní fēicfear mé.

Conditional Τιόfriðe mé; ní fēicfriðe mé.

Infinitive Α bēit le fēiceal
Participle le fēiceal } See *Geitím* (Pass. Infin)

 Τιότεαρ ναṁ = It appears to me, methinks;
 ταναicear ναṁ = methought.

N.B.—(1) The present tense is *tiðim*, but we find *trðim* in books.

(2) The perfect tense is *tanac me*, but in books we find it written *connac me*; and in imitation of this classic spelling, modern grammarians are suggesting *connac me*, which is evidently trying to sit on two stools.

(3) Note that *f* is sounded fully in *tiðrið* and *tiðfínn*, and that the initial of the latter is not aspirated.

cluinnim, I HEAR.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Cluinnim (I hear)	Cluineann pinn.
Cluineann tú	Cluineann pib.
Cluineann sé	Cluineann piad.

PERFECT TENSE.

Čualaird me (I heard)	Čualaird pinn.
Čualaird tú	Čualaird pib.
Čualaird sé	Čualaird piad.

Pr. Čualim mě, čualá tú, čualá sé or čualai sé, etc.

Negative, etc.

Níor čualaird me	I did not hear.
Ár čualaird me?	
Í-cualaird me?	Did I hear?
Á'Í-cualaird me?	
Á cluinnit	To hear.
ÁS cluinnit	Hearing.

The other parts are quite regular.

iṭim, I EAT.

Future Indic. iorphaid me,* I shall eat.

Conditional O'iorphainn, I would eat.

Perfect O'it me, I ate.

Imperative iṭ, iṭigid, Eat.

Infinitive Á ite, To eat.

Participle ÁS ite, Eating.

The other parts are regular.

* Pr. iorhim mě.

USE OF *an*.

(a) The interrogative particle *an* performs the double function of interrogating and eclipsing. It cannot eclipse without interrogating at the same time; but it can, in many cases, interrogate without eclipsing. In this latter case, *an* must be expressed, as *an nórra?* But when it eclipses, it interrogates at the same time, and in performing this double function it annihilates itself, so to speak. Hence, instead of *An t-tuigseann tú?* *An n-olann tú?* We say *t-tuigseann tú?* *n-olann tú?* After *Agur*, *Ac*t, etc., however, *an* is often heard: *Agur an t-tuigseann tú?* or more usually, *Agur a' t-tuigseann tú?*

(b) In the perfect tense *an* cannot eclipse because *no* comes between it and the verb; hence aspiration is usual in this tense, as,

<i>Ari bhuail tú é?</i>	Did you beat him?
<i>Ari chait tú do piopa?</i>	Did you smoke your pipe?
<i>Ari óiol tú do bo?</i>	Did you sell your cow?

(c) The exceptions to this rule (b) are confined principally to *tainic*, *tuig*, and *cuailairó*. These can either have their initials eclipsed or aspirated.

<i>T-tainic re?</i>	<i>Ari t-tainic re?</i>	Did he come?
<i>T-tuig re?</i>	<i>Ari t-tuig re?</i>	Did he give?
<i>T-cuailairó re?</i>	<i>Ari t-cuailairó re?</i>	Did he hear?

(d) In the absence of *no* the particle *an* regains its eclipsing power. But it rarely occurs that *no* neglects its post. Once in a while, however, it may be said to take a holiday, as in the case of *ruairí* and *racairó*, before which it never appears. Hence, when *no* is absent,

and the way open to the interrogative particle *an*, eclipsis is inevitable.

Ὥ-ρυαιρ τύ ἐ?

Did you get it?

Ἄγαρ α' Ὥ-ρυαιρ τύ ἐ?

And did you get it?

Ὥ-ρασαιρ τύ ἐ?

Did you see him?

Ἄέτ α' Ὥ-ρασαιρ τύ ἐ?

But did you see him?

N.B.—*Θεάρη* and *Θεασαιρ* never take *πο*, and as a result they never have their initials aspirated except by *νί*. One would expect, however, that their initials would be eclipsed, but according to modern usage they are not.

Θεάρη τύ ριν?

Did you do that?

Παὸς θεάρη τύ ἐ?

Did you not do it?

Θεασαιρ ρέ ρυαρ?

Did he go up?

Παὸς θεασαιρ ρέ ρυαρ?

Did he not go up?

USE OF *το*.

(a) The sign of the perfect tense active is *το*. This particle is visibly present before vowels and *ρ̄*. It is invisibly present in other cases; but it is absent before *ρυαιρ*, *ρασαιρ*, *θεάρη* and *θεασαιρ*. Whether visibly or invisibly present, it has the power of aspirating.

τ' ὅτι ρέ	He drank.	}	(visibly present.)
τ' ράζ ρέ	He left.		
Ὥ-ρυαιρ ρέ	He struck.	}	(invisibly present.)
Ὥ-ρασαιρ ρέ	He roasted.		
ρυαιρ ρε	He got.		(absent.)

(b) In negative, interrogative, and dependent sentences *το* becomes *πο* which is always visibly present.

This applies to the perfect tense passive, but no aspiration takes place.

He did not beat	=ní <i>ño</i> ȣuaile <i>re</i>	=níor ȣuaile <i>re</i> .
Did he beat?	=an <i>ño</i> ȣuaile <i>re?</i>	=aŋi ȣuaile <i>re?</i>
That he beat	=ȝo <i>ño</i> ȣuaile <i>re</i>	=ȝuŋi ȣuaile <i>re?</i>
That he was beaten?	=ȝo <i>ño</i> ȣuaileað <i>é</i>	=ȝuŋi ȣuaileað <i>é</i> .

(c) In the other past tenses active, and in the imperfect and conditional passive, *oo*, just as in the perfect tense active, is visibly present before vowels and *f*, and invisibly present in the other cases. But in negative, interrogative, and dependent sentences *oo* and *ño* are absent.

O'olainn	}	visible	}	presence of <i>oo</i> .
O'olpáinn				
O'fanainn				
O'fanpáinn				
ȣuaileinn	}	invisible	}	
ȣuailefinn				
ȣuailti mé				
ȣuailtiðe mé				
m-ȣuaileinn?	}	interrogative	}	
m-ȣuailefinn?				
ní ȣuaileinn	}	negative	}	absence of <i>oo</i> .
ní ȣuailefinn				
ȝo m-ȣuaileinn	}	dependent	}	
ȝo m-ȣuailefinn				

Adverbs.

(a) Adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives by prefixing the particle *ȝo*, which requires *n* when the adjective begins with a vowel.

Σεατ, bright	Σο Σεατ, brightly.
μιλιρ, sweet	Σο μιλιρ, sweetly.
μαιτ, good	Σο μαιτ, well.
οιc, bad	Σο ή-οιc, badly.

(b) All other adverbs are either simple or compound. The compound adverbs are usually formed by a preposition and a noun, as, αιη Σ-εύτ, behind, literally, *on back*. Sometimes they are made up of an adjective and a noun, as οερι οαιη, occasionally, literally, *odd hour*. The following are the principal adverbs in use at the present day :—

Ανοιρ, now	Αμίρτ, again.
Ανη ριn, then	Α Σ-ειμμινόε, always.
Ανη ρο, ανη ρεο, here	Α θ-φαν, θ-φαν, long, far.
Ανη ρυν, yonder	Σο ροίτ, still, yet.
Πυαιη, when	Πα θειρεαδό } Σα θειρεαδό } at last.
Σα η-υαιη, Σα η-υαιη? } when?	Α ποιμε, before, already.
Σα η-άιτ? Σα η-άιτ? where?	Α henipin, already, so soon.
Σα η-αρ? whence?	Ροιμε ρέ, already.
Σο ρ-τί, till, until	Α η-άιροε, up, on high.
Οερι οαιη, occasionally	Αιη θειρεαδό, last, behind.
Α ρ-τοιρεαδέ, in front	Πα θαίλε, α θαίλε, home(wards).
Μαι, because, as	Αιη Σ-εύτ, back, backwards.
Μαι Σ-ευρονα, in like manner	Σαν μιντ, by and by.
Μαι ριn ρε, so that	Σο λεόη, enough.
Αιη ρ-τύρ } Σευρ οαιη } first, at first	Σο λειη, entirely.
Α θευρ οαιη }	Σο η-ιομλαν, entirely.
Ραδ ο ροιη, long ago	Σο θιρεαδέ, * indeed, just.
Αιη άιη, back, again	Σο θεαριθέα, * indeed, truly, really.
Σα μευο? }	Λεόζα, * indeed, really.
Σα μευο? } How many?	Ρορτα, also.
	Αιη αη η-θαη ριn, hence.

* Σο θειμην is often met with in books.

Σο νε 'n τέριο ? how much ?

Διηρ παν, entirely

Μαίρε, "musha," well

Διαδ, out (motion)

Διμιέ, out, outside

Διτεαδ, in (motion)

Διτιέ, in, inside

Διηρ η-δόιζε, of course.

Διηατή, ever.

Διοιόζε

Σο νεό

Σο ιηάτζ

Τηρηνα, across, over.

Adverbial Phrases.

Διηρ μαροίν

Διηρ μαροίν ανιύ

Διηρ μαροίν ανέ

Διηρ μαροίν αμάριαδ

Σαν τρατηνόνα

Τρατηνόνα ανέ

Λά ταρ να τάραδ.

Διηρ απαρις ταε

Ανιύ ; ανέ

Αμάριαδ

Ανοέτ, αρέιρ

Σαν οιόζε αμάριαδ

Αρέυζαδ νέ

Αρέυζαδ ηέιρ

Δ ιόρται

Σαν οιόζε ιόρται

Αν τ-ρεαττιμαιν ρυζαιν*

Αν τι μι ρυζαιν*

Αν θιασδαιν ρυζαιν*

Αν τ-ρεαττιμαιν ρο τάρτ*

Αν τι μι ρο τάρτ*

In the morning.

This morning.

Yesterday morning.

To-morrow morning.

In the evening.

Yesterday evening.

Next day.

At the break of day.

To-day ; yesterday.

To-morrow.

To-night; Last night.

To-morrow night.

Ere yesterday.

Ere last night.

After to-morrow.

The night after to-morrow night.

Next week.

Next month.

Next year.

Last week.

Last month.

* These are not always adverbial phrases—ρυζαιν=ρο ιουζαιν.

Δ νυιριθ ; Δ μ-βιασθα	Last year ; this year.
Δη θιασθαν ρο έαρτ	Last year.
Ωια Λυαν	On Monday.
Ωια Μάιρτ	On Tuesday.
Ωια Κευραοινε	On Wednesday.
Ωια Αριαδοιν	On Thursday.
Ωια ή-Δοινε	On Friday.
Ωια Σαταιρη	On Saturday.
Ωια Τομναις	On Sunday.
Δηρι μαρδον Ωια Τομναις	On Sunday morning.
Τρατνόνα Ωια Τομναις	On Sunday evening.

UP AND DOWN.

ρυαρ	= up	i.e. motion upwards from this point.
ανιορ	= up	„ motion from below to this point.
ρυαρ	= up	„ rest above this point.
αθυρ	= up	„ rest at this point.
ριορ	= down „	motion downwards from this point.
ριορ	= down „	rest below this point.
ανυαρ	= down „	motion from above to this point.
αθυρ	= down „	rest at this point.

Examples.



A to B:	I'll throw it down	Καιτριό με ριορ é.
„	Is it down yet?	Θ-ρυιλ ρε ριορ ρο ποιτ ?
„	Throw it up	Καιτ ανιορ é.
„	It is up now	Τά ρε αθυρ ανοιρ.
B to A:	I'll throw it up	Καιτριό με ρυαρ é.
„	Is it up yet?	Θ-ρυιλ ρε ρυαρ ρο ποιτ ?
„	Throw it down	Καιτ ανυαρ é.
„	It is down now	Τά ρε αθυρ ανοιρ.

OVER.

ရှာရ = over *i.e.* motion Westward from this point.
 အနှာရ = over „ motion from West to this point.
 ရှို့ရ = over „ motion Eastward from this point.
 အနို့ရ = over „ motion from East to this point.
 ရှာရ = over „ rest at the West.
 ရှို့ရ = over „ rest at the East.
 အသု့ရ = over „ rest at this point.

Examples.

	B	A	C	West.
A to C : I'll throw over the stone				ကော်ပို့မော်ရှာရ အားလုံး။
„ Is it over yet ?				ပုံ-ပြုလေ ရေးရှာရ ဒွဲပြု ?
„ Throw it over again				ကော်အနှာရ အိမ် အိမ် ။
„ Good, it is over now				မာတဲ့ တဲ့၊ တဲ့ ရေးရှာရ အနို့ရ။
A to B : I'll throw over the stone				ကော်ပို့မော်ရှာရ အားလုံး။
„ Is it over yet ?				ပုံ-ပြုလေ ရေးရှာရ ဒွဲပြု ?
„ Throw it over again				ကော်အနှာရ အိမ် အိမ် ။
„ Good, it is over now				မာတဲ့ တဲ့၊ တဲ့ ရေးရှာရ အနို့ရ။

Simple Prepositions.

အ, အော်, အော်ရ, in.	ငံ၏, without.
အဲ, အဲ့, at.	ဒွဲ, to.
အနောက်, to.	ရှာရ, after.
အပ်, out of, from.	ရှို့ရ, between.
ဒေါ, from, off, of.	အော်, with.
ထော, to.	မာရ, as like.
ပြောစွာ, through.	ခု, from.
ပြောစွာ, through, about.	ပေါ်မော်, before.
ပဲ, about.	တော်, over, across.
ပေါ်, under	တော်တော်, round.
အော်, အိမ်, on.	ပြောစွာ, through.

Compound Prepositions.

Compound prepositions are made up of a simple preposition and a noun. Hence, when another noun comes immediately after, it can only be governed in the genitive. The following are the most important compound prepositions in the language :—

Δ ὅ-ριασθαι, before, under the eye (of).

Δ ταται, before, in the presence (of).

Ορ coinne, before, opposite, under the eyes (of).

Δ ὅ-ροσαι, with, in the company (of).

Δ η-ταισθ, after, in the wake (of).

Δ η-ασθαι, against ; Δ σ-εύ, behind.

Διρ τον, for the sake (of) ; αμεαρδ, amidst.

Μαρ σεατι αιρ, for the sake of (governs dative).

Δ ςοιρ ; ςοιρ, beside, at the foot (of).

Δ η-αιση, naice, next to, close to, on the side (of).

Ρα τ-ταιοιθ τε, about, concerning (govs. dat.).

Ρα ςοινη ; Ρα τειν, for.

Σο τ-τι, to, as far as, till (govs. dat.).

Ορ ειον, over, above ; το ρειρ, according to.

Δ η-εασθαι, Δ η-εασθον, against.

Δ σ-ευρεασται, in the company (of).

Δ σ-ευρεασται τε, along with (govs. dat.).

The Preposition, Δ, ΔΗΗ, ΔΗΗΣ.

The English "in" must be rendered as follows :—

(1) Δ before an indefinite noun, or before the name of a town or country.

In Derry

Δ η-Τοιη.

In Scotland

Δ η-Αλβαιν.

In a country

Δ τ-τηι.

(2) By *ann* before a possessive pronoun, or a Christian name—

In my own country	Ann mo tírí féin.
There is strength in Mary	Tá bhríσ ann tómáthie.

(3) By *ann* when the article follows—

In the country	Ann an tír.
In this country	Ann an tír ro.

The Preposition “For.”

(1) When “for” signifies “to fetch,” “to bring,” it is rendered by *fa coinne* or *fa óeim*—

He went for the cow	Chuaidh ré fa coinne na bó.
He went for them	Chuaidh ré fa na g-coinne.

(2) When “for” means “to oblige” it is rendered by *so*—

Do this for me	Deán ro daṁ.
Dance for us	Deán daṁra dúninn.
Here is a penny for you	So pişín tuít.

(3) In connection with price it must be rendered by *an*—

He paid a penny for it	Chas ré pişín an.
Give him a penny for it	Tábháin pişín ro an.

The Preposition “Of.”

(a) When “of” is identical with the English possessive case we must use the genitive in Irish.

The son of Mary (Mary’s son)	mac tómáthie.
The son of the man (the man’s son)	mac an fír.
The head of a man (a man’s head)	ceann fíri.
The side of a hill (a hill’s side)	táobh cnúic.

(b) When "of" follows a numeral, or the equivalent of a numeral, *te* and a dative must be used.

One of the cows	Céann <i>te</i> na bá.
A man of the tribe	Peairí <i>te</i> 'n ṭriúam.
The first day of the month	An ceathair lá <i>te</i> 'n mí.
Five of the cows	Cúig cinn <i>te</i> na bá.
A boatful of honey	Lán-báirí <i>te</i> míl.

(c) When "of" follows a numeral and governs a personal pronoun we must use *as*, which unites with the pronoun.

One of us, two of us	Ósine agairinn, beirft agairinn.
One of you, two of them	Ósine agairibh, beirft asa.
One of these	Ósine asa ro.

(d) Numerals that cannot stand alone take *ceann* (head) in connection with irrational animals and things, or *cláigseann* (skull) in connection with persons.

Five of them (<i>i.e.</i> , cows)	Cúig cinn asa; cuigseairí asa.
Five of them (<i>i.e.</i> , men)	Cúig cláigseana; cuigseairí asa.

(e) When "of" follows "which ?" we must use *te* and a dative in the case of nouns and *as* in the case of pronouns.

Which of the women ?	Ceoca <i>te</i> na mna ?
Which of the cows ?	Ceoca <i>te</i> na bá ?
Which of us ?	Ceoca agairinn ?

Functions of Prepositions.

(a) Simple prepositions govern the dative case, compound ones govern the genitive.

Tá feairí aig an ḫuín	The cow has hay.
Tá ṣe of cionn ṣo cinn	It is above your head.

(b) When a simple preposition comes beside a noun it has the power of aspirating. But *go*, *te*, *as*, *ar* cause no initial change, while *a* eclipses.

Tá <i>re aīn</i> čapall	He is on a horse.
Þníð <i>baile</i> rágainne	Through our town.
Tar <i>čaorán</i> na ȝ-cloč	Over the rocky moorland.
Go <i>baile</i> rágainne	To our town.
Ais <i>cairnais</i>	At a rock.
A m- <i>baile</i> cliat	In Dublin.

 When *gán* performs the function of a preposition it does not aspirate, but when it acts as prefix it aspirates. *tar* causes no initial change in nouns except in prepositional locutions, but it causes aspiration in verbs—the word *tá* excepted. When *tuír* means “between,” it causes no initial change, but when it means “both” or “including” it aspirates.

feari <i>gán</i> caorá	A man without a sheep.
feari <i>gán</i> túnadó	An unmannerly man.
tarí feari marí	Like a good man.
tarí <i>ȝeall</i> aīn an ór	For the sake of the gold.
tarí <i>þuasílím</i>	As I strike.
Tá tu tarí tá tú	You are as you are.
Ioírí capall aȝur aral	Between a horse and an ass.
Ioírí čapall aȝur aral	Including horses and asses.

Compound Prepositional Pronouns.

As personal pronouns are defective in the genitive, they cannot be governed in that case by a compound preposition. Thus, “above John” = *oř cionn Šeagáin*, literally, “over the head of John.” But “above me” = *oř mo cionn*, literally, “over my head.” In other words, the *possessive adjective* takes the place of the

personal pronoun. Most of the compound prepositions combine in this manner with the possessive adjectives. The following are important examples:—

OS MO COINNE (IN MY PRESENCE).

SINGULAR.

Or mo coinne, in my presence.

Or do coinne, in thy presence.

Or a coinne, in his presence.

Or a coinne, in her presence.

PLURAL.

Or ari g-coinne, in our presence.

Or buig g-coinne, in your presence.

Or a g-coinne, in their presence.

OS MO CIONN.

Or mo cionn (above me)

Or ari g-cionn.

Or do cionn

Or buig g-cionn.

Or a cionn, or a cionn

Or a g-cionn.

FA MO COINNE.

Fa mo coinne (for me)

Fa nari g-coinne.

Fa do coinne

Fa buig g-coinne.

Fa na coinne, etc.

Fa na g-coinne.

FA MO DÉIN.

Fa mo déin (for me)

Fa nari n-déin.

Fa do déin

Fa buig n-déin.

Fa na déin, etc.

Fa na n-déin.

ANN M' AGSARÓ.

Ann m' agsaró (against me)

Ann ari n-ag-saró.

Ann do agsaró

Ann buig n-ag-saró.

Na agsaró, na n-ag-saró

Na n-ag-saró.

Ann mo Óíairí.

Ann mo Óíairí (after me)	Ann ari n-Óíairí.
Ann do Óíairí	Ann Óupr n-Óíairí.
Na Óíairí, etc.	Na n-Óíairí.

Usually.

Mo Óíairí (after me)	Ari n-Óíairí.
Do Óíairí	Óupr n-Óíairí.
Na Óíairí, na Óíairí	Na n-Óíairí.

The Conjunctions.

Áct (pr. ác) but, only*	ioná, na, than.
Águp, and	Muna
Ma, ta, if	Mupn } if...not, unless.
So, that	O
Ma tā so, yet	O tāpla } as, since
De ópūs so, inasmuch as	No, na, for, because.
Do cum so, in order that	Sul, before.
Ionnup so, so that	Sið, although.

N.B.—*ma* is used with the indicative mood and aspirates the initial of the verb. *ta* is used with the conditional mood only, and always expresses a condition. It eclipses the initial of the verb, as, *ta m-beirðeas* *airðeas* *agam* *ceannoða* *capall*, if I had (*lit.* if I would have) money I would buy a horse. *ta o-t'ocfa* *anoct* *raða* *teat*, if you came (*i.e.*, if you should or would come) to-night I would go with you. In this last example, we see that *came* is misleading. It might be taken for the imperfect or simple past,

* I have only a penny= *ní* *fuil* *agam* *áct* *pisín*.

but it conveys nothing in this example but the conditional mood. To express a condition, therefore, with *τα*, the conditional mood must be used. Of course we can express a condition also with *μα*, as, *Μα τις ρέ ανοτε ευηφεαρ αἱρ ῥισθα τú*, if he *should* come to-night you will be sent away.

Interjections.

Ἄ! or Ο! Αἴμαρε! Oh! or O! Look!

Βυβδό! βαραορ! Fie! Alas!

Աé! or օé! Οօօն! Oh! Alas!

Թո շրեած նաէ օ-բուլ րլատ աշամ!

Թո շրեած զան րլատ աշամ!

Իր տրաժ նաէ օ-բուլ րլատ աշամ!

Իր տրաժ զան րլատ աշամ!

Իր տարիշ նաէ օ-բուլ րլատ աշամ!

Իր տարիշ զան րլատ աշամ!

Would that I had
a rod!

Endearing Expressions.

Ա շարշե!

My treasure! my dear!

Ա շարշե մո շրօտէ!

O treasure of my heart!

Ա յն!

My secret! my treasure!

Ա յն մո շրօտէ!

Secret of my heart! Dearest!

Ա րտօր!

My store! Asthore!

Ա րտօր մո շրօտէ!

O jewel of my heart!

Ա շնիրե!

O vein! my vein! my dear!

Ա շնիրե մո շրօտէ!

Vein of my heart!

Ա շրած!

My love! O love!

Ա շրած մո շրօտէ!

O love of my heart!

Տրած մո շրօտէ շն!

You are the love of my heart!

Ա տային!

My darling!

Ըրամ մո շրօտէ!

Care of my heart!

Մո շրօտէ արտաշ յօննատ!

My heart within thee!

Մ' անամ արտաշ յօննատ!

My soul within thee!

Prefixes.

Δη, *not*, as, εοταć, skilled, αινεοταć, unskilled.

Com, *together*, ceangal, a tie, comceangal a union.

Τέας, *good*, as, τέαςχροιθεαć, kind-hearted.

Τριοć, *bad*, as, τριοć्मεар, contempt.

Τό, *difficult*, as, τόδεάντα, difficult to be done.

Ιn, *fit*, as, ινθεάντα, fit to be done.

Σό, *easy*, as, ρόθεάντα, easy to be done.

Μι, *ill*, as, μι-αԾ, ill-luck.

Νεαṁ, *not*, as, νεαṁćομčром, uneven

Affixes.

Δć, *full of*, as, θηιατραć, full of words, talkative.

Δćт, *ness*, as, μιρρεაćт, sweetness.

Δр, *ness*, as, мицеар, goodness.

Δмайл, *like*, as, ρεарамайл, manly.

Δн, *small*, as, αρծан, a hillock.

Іn, *small*, as, coirin, a little foot.

Ος, *small*, ρειρтeoς, a little serpent, *i.e.*, a worm.

Δć, *abounding in*, as, coiiteаć, abounding in woods.

Лаć, *abounding in*, μuclαć, a piggery.

Мaр, *full of*, as, ceόlιнaр, full of music.

Replying—Yes, No.

In replying to questions, (1) the verb and tense used in the question must be repeated in the reply, (2) the subject (except when it is contained in the verb) must be omitted.

Δр óт τu? Τ' оt

Did you drink? I did.

Δр óт мáиже? Πиори óт

Did Mary drink? No.

η-οlann τu? Οlaim

Do you drink? Yes.

Ө-ρuиl ре агat? Тa

Have you it? I have.

raiб tu τinn? Βi

Were you sick? I was.

raiб ocrar oрit? Νi ρaiб

Were you hungry? No, I was not.

N.B.—Notice the double reply in the English “Yes, I am,” “No, I am not,” etc. Both count as one in Irish.

Replying with 1s.

(a) In negative answers the verb is omitted and the subject is expressed, while in affirmative answers the verb and subject are expressed.

An tú Seán? ní mé Are you John? No.

An tú Séamus? 1f me Are you James? Yes.

(b) When an adjective expresses inherent quality it must appear in the reply. [See Inherent quality and Species.]

nácl marí é? 1f marí. Isn't it good? It is.

nácl mórl an fear é? 1f mórl Isn't he a big man? He is.

(c) *Seao* (pr. *shah*) and *ní fœao* (*ní hah*) are never used except in reply to an interrogation made with the verb *1f*, and then only when the predicate of the question is indefinite.

Is it a stone? Yes An cloch é? Seao.

Is that a cow? No An bó rín? ní fœao.

Replying to “Who?” “What?”

(a) In answer to “who?” “what?” the subject alone is expressed, and if the subject is a pronoun it will be emphatic.

Who did that? I did Cé rúnne rín? mire.

Who did that? Mary did Cé rúnne rín? máire.

What is that? A white cat So vé rín? Cat bán.

(b) In such cases *ta* is often used impersonally in the reply.

Who did that? I did Cé rúnne rín? Ta mire.

Who did that? Mary Cé rúnne rín? Ta máire.

Idiomatic and Defective Verbs.

τά φίορ αγαμ, I KNOW.

“I know” is expressed in Irish by τά α φιορ αγαμ =literally, Its knowledge is at me, *i.e.*, I have its knowledge. The possessive α is usually omitted.

Present Τά φιορ αγαμ; οὐ φιορ αγαμ.

Imper. Βιόεαδ φιορ αγαμ; οὐ βιόεαδ φιορ αγαμ.

Perfect Βί φιορ αγαμ; οὐ πατέ φιορ αγαμ.

Future Βέιρο φιορ αγαμ; οὐ βέιρο φιορ αγαμ.

Condit. Βέιρεαδ φιορ αγαμ; οὐ βέιρεαδ φιορ αγαμ.

Imper. Βιόεαδ φιορ αγατ; βιόεαδ φιορ αγατ.

Infin. Φιορ α θειτ αγαμ; γαν φιορ α θειτ αγαμ.

Τά φιορ αγαμ *pronounced* Τάρ αγαμ.

Βιόεαδ φιορ αγαμ „ Βίωντ φιορ αγαμ.

Βί φιορ αγαμ „ Βί ραγαμ.

Βέιρο φιορ αγαμ „ Βειρότιρ φιορ αγαμ.

τίς ιομ,* I CAN.

Present Τίς ιομ; οὐ τίς ιομ; ο-τίς ιομ?

Imper. Τίγεαδ ιομ; οὐ τίγεαδ ιομ.

Perfect Τάινικ ιομ; οίοι τάινικ ιομ.

Future Τιοεφατό ιομ; οὐ τιοεφατό ιομ.

Condit. Τιοεφατό ιομ; οὐ τιοεφατό ιομ.

ις φέιροιρ ιομ, I CAN.

PRESENT TENSE.

Affirm. Ηρ φέιροιρ ιομ, τεατ, etc Lit., It is possible with me.

Negat. Νι φέιροιρ ιομ.

Interrog. Αν φέιροιρ ιομ?

* Literally, It comes with me.

PAST TENSE.

Affirm. Өuð þérðir liom, I could.

Negat. Niðið þérðir liom.

Interrog. Árð þérðir liom?

 Ե' þérði=Perhaps.

ᜒeiðim ԵAS, I DIE.

Future Ḣeoðarð me Եár, I shall die.

Perfect Ւaðið րe Եár, he died. Lit., He found death.

Infinitive Եár a բaðaլ or Եár բaðaլ.

Participle ԱS բaðaլ Եaր or բaðaլ Եaր.

These are the more important parts.

Caitþið me, I MUST.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Future Caïtþið me, I must, *i.e.*, I shall have to.

Imper. Caïtinn, I had to.

Condit. Caïtþinn, I would have to.

Perfect Caït me,* I had to.

PASSIVE VOICE—*Impersonally.*

Future Caïtþeաp, It is necessary (*Fr. Il faut.*)

Imper. Caïtči, It was necessary.

Condit. Caïtþiõe, It would be necessary.

Perfect Caïteաv, It was necessary.

IS MAIT LIOM, I LIKE

PRESENT TENSE.

Affirm. Եr mait liom, Եr mait leat, etc.

Negat. Ni mait liom ni mait leat, etc.

Interrog. An mait leat? etc.

* Ե'eiցean Եam is more usual.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Affirm. *Buð mait liom, buð mait leat*, etc., I *would like*, etc.

Negat. *Niðr mait liom, niðr mait leat*, etc.

Interrog. *Ár mait leat?* etc.

N.B.—In “*buð mait liom*,” “*buð*” is perfect tense, but the whole expression has, idiomatically, the force of a conditional mood.

Like this verb are :—

Ír miðan liom	I desire.
Ír aíl liom	I like.
Ír feárrí liom	I prefer.
Ír cósír ðam	I should.
Ír ceaftír ðam	I ought.
Ír eisgean ðam	I must.

Prepositional Verbs.

Some verbs require the aid of a preposition to express a secondary meaning when a dative case follows. In English the preposition is often understood. The following are examples :—

Íarfáim + ár	= I tell.
Óeírum + íe	= I tell.
Ínnírum + oo	= I tell.
Þiafrusísgim + ve	= I ask.

Examples.

Ó' íarfír re oíom a tceact	He told me to come.
Ó' íarfír re aír mairfe a óul	He told Mary to go.
Óuðaírt re liom a tceact	He told me to come.
Ó' innír re rgeul ðam	He told me a story.
Ó' fiafrusísg re ðiom	He asked of me.

CASTAR ORM, I MEET.

Present Cartar oīm, cartar oīt, etc. I meet.

Imperf. Cártaí oīm, cártaí oīt, etc. I used to meet.

Perfect Cartað oīm, cartað oīt, etc. I met.

Condit. Cárfaðe oīm, etc. I would meet.

Infin. A cartað oīm or a cartað oīt, to meet me.

Participle and Imperative: Wanting.

N.B.—Cáraim, literally means *I twist*, and hence, *I turn* or *meet*. The person met is always the subject in Irish.

Hugh met James

Cárað Séamur aīr aōð.

Hugh met me

Cárað me aīr aōð.

I met Hugh

Cárað aōð oīm.

I met him

Cárað oīm é.

INTERNAL OR INHERENT QUALITY.

(a) When, in English, the verb “to be” is immediately followed by an indefinite noun expressing inherent quality *ta* must be used idiomatically.

He is a man

Tá re na fíear.

He is a priest

Tá re na fíagairt.

(b) When the verb “to be” is immediately followed by a present participle expressing *state* rather than *action*, the participle becomes a verbal noun, and *ta* is used as in (a).

He is sleeping

Tá re na ccoolad.

He is sitting

Tá re na fúid.

He is standing

Tá re na fíearad.

He is lying

Tá re na lusige.

But, He is fighting

Tá re að tñuir.

N.B.—He is up (*i.e.*, he is not in bed)=*ta* re na fúid, lit., He is in his sitting (posture).

1S CUMA LIOM.

Cuma is a noun, and means *shape* or *appearance*, and as a thing which has but the appearance of the reality is only superficial, the word has come to mean *indifference*. Hence, 1r cuma le Seagán = It is appearance or indifference with John, *i.e.*, John is indifferent, John does not care, John does not care a straw, etc. Náċ cuma le Seagán = “Sure” John does not care! Náċ here is the interrogative particle, but the sentence is usually an exclamation.

1r cuma liom	I don't care.
1r cuma leat	You don't care.
1r cuma leir	He doesn't care.
1r cuma leisce	She doesn't care.
1r cuma le nóra	Nora doesn't care.
náċ cuma liom!	“Sure” I don't care.

N.B.—Ni mírde liom, has the same meaning as, 1r cuma liom.

 Ni fuit binn aSAM opt = I don't care a straw for you, *i.e.*, I defy you.

1S CUMA ÓAM.

This idiom expresses indifference arising from disappointment, inability to act, or want of connection. Thus, 1r cuma óam means, I *need not* care, I *need not* trouble, I *need not* be sorry, or, it is no affair of mine. Náċ cuma óam! means, “sure” I *need not* care! What *need* I care! “Sure” it is no affair of mine!

1r cuma óam	I need not care.
1r cuma óuit	You need not care.
1r cuma óo mÁiPé	Mary need not care.
náċ cuma óuit!	Sure you need not care.
náċ cuma óúim!	Sure it is no affair of ours!

N.B.—Ni mírde óam has the same meaning as 1r cuma óam.

Mental and Physical Sensations.

(a) When an English adjective has no primary equivalent in Irish, an idiom must be used. *Tínn*, for example, is a primary adjective meaning *sick*. Without using any idiom, therefore, we can say, *Tá me tínn*, I am sick. But, to translate, "I am hungry," we cannot proceed in the same way, as we have no primary word in Irish for "hungry." We are therefore compelled to say "Hunger is on me," *Tá ocráid oifim*. The following are important examples :—

I am hungry	<i>Tá ocráid oifim.</i>
I am ashamed	<i>Tá náiríe oifim.</i>
I am afraid	<i>Tá eusgla oifim.</i>
I am glad	<i>Tá luséigdairí oifim.</i>
I am angry	<i>Tá feairis oifim.</i>
I am thirsty	<i>Tá tarit oifim.</i>
I am proud	<i>Tá bhrón oifim.</i>
I am sleepy	<i>Tá coitlaíodh oifim.</i>

(b) The word for "very" can only stand before an adjective as, I am very sick = *Tá me an-tínn*. As long, therefore, as we have primary adjectives we can use *an*, very; but to translate "I am very hungry," "I am very much ashamed," etc., *an* cannot be used, and hence we must say *Great hunger* is on me, *great shame* is on me, etc.

I am very hungry	<i>Tá ocráid mór oifim.</i>
I am very much ashamed	<i>Tá náiríe móri oifim.</i>
I am very much afraid	<i>Tá eusgla móri oifim.</i>
I am very glad	<i>Tá luséigdairí móri oifim.</i>
I am very angry	<i>Tá feairis móri oifim.</i>
I am very thirsty	<i>Tá tarit móri oifim.</i>
I am very proud	<i>Tá bhrón móri oifim.</i>
I am very sleepy	<i>Tá coitlaíodh móri oifim.</i>

(c) It is quite common, however, to use *an* before the noun, just as if it were an adjective. Hence, as common usage must be respected, the following are quite good :—

I am very hungry	Τά <i>an</i> -οχιαρ οἵμ.
I am very much afraid	Τά <i>an</i> -ευγλα οἵμ.
I am very glad	Τά <i>an</i> -τιεχαιη οἵμ.
I am very sleepy	Τά <i>an</i> -χοντασί οἵμ.

(d) This scarcity of primary adjectives is felt only in connection with mental and physical sensations. The idiom seems to have been fashionable for we find even the primary adjectives turned into nouns to comply with this mode of expression ; so that when there is a primary adjective in Irish, we may translate in the ordinary way, or we may use the idiom :

I am sick =	Τά <i>me</i> τίνη or Τά τίννεαρ οἵμ.
I am cold =	Τά <i>me</i> ριαρή or Τά ριαρέτ οἵμ.

(e) The same idiom is used when the sensation is expressed in English by “have” and a noun. In this case the sensation is of a special kind, *e.g.*, a malady, in which case the article will be used in Irish.

I have a cold	Τά <i>an</i> ριαγνωσί οἵμ.
I have a toothache	Τά <i>an</i> ούρωεασί οἵμ.
I have the fever	Τά <i>an</i> ριαθηαρ οἵμ.
I have the measles	Τά <i>an</i> θημιτινεασί οἵμ.

Motion to a Place.

(a) Motion to a place is expressed by *ann* or *na*. These are contracted forms of the preposition *an* or *a* and the article *an*. *Ann* must be used before masculine nouns beginning with a vowel, *v*, *t*, or *r*. In

all other cases *na* must be used. The noun is affected as follows :—(1) It must be in the genitive case; (2) if it is masculine its initial must be aspirated—except in the case of *v*, *t*, *r* (*r* being eclipsed); (3) if it is a feminine noun beginning with a vowel *n* is prefixed.

He went to the fair	Čuaidh ré ann aonaidh.
He went to the door	Čuaidh ré ann doiridh.
He went to the well	Čuaidh ré ann tobaidh.
He went to the brook	Čuaidh ré ann t-riutain.
He went to the hill	Čuaidh ré na cnuic.
He went to the bog	Čuaidh ré na þuridh.
He went to the park	Čuaidh ré na páirc.
He went to the forge	Čuaidh ré na ceártá.
He went to the street	Čuaidh ré na riárd.
He went to the cliff	Čuaidh ré na h-áille.
He went to the river	Čuaidh ré na h-abhá.
He went (to the) home	Čuaidh ré na baile.

N.B.—Motion to towns and islands seems to be the only exception. Hence, although we say, *as* *out* *na* *baile-móir*, going to the town, *as* *out* *na* *Fraunce*, going to France, *as* *out* *ann* *oileán* or *as* *out* *na* *h-inre*, going to the island, we never say, *as* *out* *ann* *Doiríe*, going to Derry, *as* *out* *na* *Cóircais*, going to Cork, *as* *out* *na* *h-Abhán*, etc. In these cases *go* must be used. This idiom is sometimes extended to persons when we go to them for professional aid, *e.g.*, He went to the doctor = Čuaidh ré ann doctuair, He went to the priest = Čuaidh ré ann t-ragairt. Remark also that, *to heaven* = *na* *plaistír*, but *to hell* = *go* *h-iflionn*.

Ownership.

Ownership of some *definite* thing is expressed by the preposition *te* and the verb *is*—present and past time only.

<i>The cow is mine</i>	{	is liom an bó.
<i>The cow belongs to me</i>		
<i>I own the cow</i>		
<i>The cat is Mary's</i>	{	is le máire an cat.
<i>The cat belongs to Mary</i>		
<i>Mary owns the cat</i>		
<i>The dog was John's</i>	buadh le Seán an maothair.	

N.B.—When the thing owned is *indefinite*, it must be considered as simple possession, for the idiom cannot be used: Hence, I own a house=I have a house=Ta teac agam. Although we say in English *I own a cow*, there would not be much meaning in, *a cow is mine*. When ownership is connected with future time, it is often rendered by the relative *a* and the two verbs *is* and *tá*, as, The house will be mine=Is agamra a bérdear an teac. But the more usual way is by simply using *tá* and *ag*, as, Béir an teac agur an talam aig Séamus go fóil=James will have the house and the land yet, *i.e.* The house and the land will be James's yet.

To be in Debt.

James owes the man a hundred pounds, would be in Irish, The man has a hundred pounds on James=Ta céad punt aig an fear aip Séamus.

Some or Any.

(1) "Some" is rendered in Irish by such expressive words as, ٹ്രാഡണ, a drop—used for liquids ; ടോപ്പൻ, a fistful—used for hay, straw, corn, potatoes, etc. ; ട്രാണിനി, a grain—used for meal, flour, tea, etc. ; പിഞ്ചിൻ, a penny—used for money. All these govern the genitive.

ടാ ട്രാഡണ ഭാിന്നേ അസം	I have some milk.
ടാ ടോപ്പൻ ഫേഡി അസം	I have some hay.
ടാ ട്രാണിനി റിസ്കാ അസം	I have some sugar.
ടാ പിഞ്ചിൻ ആഫ്രി അസം	I have some money.
ടാ പിഞ്ചിൻ ആഡേ	He has some (money).

(2) "Some of" followed by a noun is rendered by കുറോ ദേ followed by a dative of the noun.

കുറോ ദേ നാ ഫിറി	Some of the men.
കുറോ ദേ നാ കാപ്പായി	Some of the horses.
കുറോ ദേ 'ന ഫേഡി	Some of the hay.
കുറോ ദേ 'ന ആഫ്രേഡോ	Some of the money.
കുറോ ദേ 'ന അരാൻ	Some of the bread.
കുറോ ദേ 'ന ഭാിന്നേ	Some of the milk.

(3) "Some of" followed by a pronoun in the *singular* number is rendered by കുറോ ദേ; followed by a pronoun in the plural number it is rendered by കുറോ അ.

ടാ കുറോ ദേ മാഡി	Some of it is good.
ടാ കുറോ ദേ റിൻ ഓൾ	Some of that is bad.
ടാ കുറോ അസൈന്ന റെഫ്രോർട്ടാ	Some of us are ruined.
ടാ കുറോ ആ മില്ലേ	Some of them are spoiled.
ടാ കുറോ ആ റിൻ ഓൾ	Some of those are bad.

(4) "Any" is rendered by the article അന followed by an aspirated noun in the nominative singular, in connection with countable things ; by അ പിഞ്ചിൻ, in

connection with money ; by *an ḫraimín*, in connection with hay, straw, corn, tea, sugar, etc. ; by *an ḫreim* (the bite), for bread, butter, beef, etc. ; and by *an ḫeoř* (drop) for liquids. When a noun comes after *an píšin*, *an ḫraimín*, etc., it will, of course, be in the genitive.

Ó-fuīl an čapall aȝat?	Have you any horses?
ní fuīl an čeann aȝam	I have not any.
Ó-fuīl an píšin aȝat?	Have you any money?
ní fuīl an píšin aȝam	I have not any.
Ó-fuīl an ḫraimín féiri aȝat?	Have you any hay?
ní fuīl an ḫraimín aȝam	I have not any.
Ó-fuīl an ḫreim aȝat?	Have you any bread?
ní fuīl an ḫreim aȝam	I have not any.
Ó-fuīl an ḫeoři fíona aȝat?	Have you any wine?
ní fuīl an ḫeoři aȝam	I have not any.

(5) "Any of" followed by a noun is rendered by, *an ḫuine* *de*, *an čeann* *de*, *an ḫreim* *de*, *an ḫeoři* *de*, *an ḫraimín* *de*, etc., followed by the dative of the noun. When "any of" is followed by a *plural* pronoun *de* becomes *aȝ*.

Ó-fuīl an ḫuine de na píp ann ro?	Are any of the men here?
ní fuīl an ḫuine aca ann ro	None of them are here.
Ó-fuīl an čeann de na ba ann ro?	Are any of the cows here?
ní fuīl an čeann aca ann ro	None of them are here.
Ó-fuīl an ḫreim de 'n aȝan aȝat?	Have you any of the bread?
ní fuīl an ḫreim de aȝam	I have none of it.

(6) "Any" is also rendered by *aip* *bíč*, which is always placed *after* the noun, but it is only used to translate "any" followed by a noun.

Ó-fuīl ba aip bíč aȝat?	Have you any cows?
ní fuīl aip geas aip bíč aȝam	I have not any money.
Ó-fuīl caoimíš aip bíč aȝat?	Have you any sheep?

 Note the difference in the following :—

ní fuil an čeann aġam	I have not any (cows).
ní fuil ceann aġam	I have not a single one.
ní fuil an píšin aġam	I have not any (money).
ní fuil píšin aġam	I have not a cent.
ní fuil an ġheim aġam	I have not any (cheese).
ní fuil ġheim aġam	I have not a taste.
ta curu beag aġam	I have a little.
ta beaġan aġam	I have little (<i>i.e.</i> , scarcely any).

Descriptions.

Ordinary descriptions may be rendered still more descriptive, idiomatically. Thus, “He was eating,” in the ordinary way is, *Bi* *re* *aġ* *ite*, but idiomatically it is, *1r amlinad a bi re aġur ē aġ ite* = *It is the manner in which he was and he eating*.

Other examples are turned in the same way : John was sitting on a stool = *It is the manner in which John was and he sitting on a stool* = *1r amlinad a bi Seagħan aġur ē na fuixi* *aip* *rtol*.

It so happened that when the doctor arrived the poor fellow was dying = *It is the manner in which the poor fellow was when the doctor arrived and he dying* = *1r amlinad a bi an duine boċċi nuajp a tħanaic an doċċuixi* *aġur ē aġ* *faġail bair*.

John was beating James = (1) *It is the manner in which John was and he beating James* = *1r amlinad a bi Seagħan aġur ē aġ buvalad Séamur*; (2) *It is the manner in which James was and John beating him* = *1r amlinad a bi Séamur aġur Seagħan da buvalad*.

The king will come seated on a golden chair = *It is the manner in which the king will come and he sitting on a chair of gold* = *Ir amlaird a tioctar an tis agus é na fuise air caitip óir.*

Important Idioms.

Ní mairb neart agam air	I could not help it.
Abaír leir imteact leir	Tell him to take to his heels.
Imteis leat! bug leat!	
Air fuath leat! rin leat!	Be off! Begone!
Siuðail leat, a Máire!	Come, Mary!
Ir fuam liom an lá	I consider the day cold.
Ir móir liom an lae	I think the price high.
So ceann míora	For the space of a month.
A g-ceann míora	In a month's time.
Ní beag liom é	I think it enough.
Ní móir liom é	I don't think it enough.
Tá cupla lá o foin	A few days ago.
Tá cupla bliadain o foin	A few years ago.
Tá náipe oípm leat	I am ashamed of you.
Tá fuad agam oírt	I hate you.
Ní fuil aird agam oírt	I don't like you.
Tá re air an rsoil	He is at school.
Tá re air an aonad	He is at the fair.
Tá re air an bhaile-mór	He is in the town.
Rug re gheim cluairé oípm	He caught me by the ear.
Rug re gheim láimhe oípm	He caught me by the hand.
Cuir re an cluitce oípm	He won the game on me.
Cuir re an tóir oípm	He put me to flight.

Cuimh re an cinn oíthim

He turned the corner on
me.

Cuimhfidh me rgsilling teat

I'll bet you a shilling.

Cuimhfidh me gseall teat
so, etc.

I'll hold you that, etc.

Níor éas me fáidsear

I did not notice (perceive).

Rinneadh an-mhór d'é

He got a good reception.

Ní leirí òamh é

I cannot distinguish it.

Éas fíadh Rathbhuis oíthim

They called me Patrick.

Óróis tóunaadh oírt!

Bad manners to you!

Óróis cheadas oírt!

Bad luck to you.

Caoimhtheintí oírt!

Blast you!

Dean go air ríodh air bhit

Do this at all events.

Ná dean fín air cinn air

Don't do that at all.

bhit

Cuaidh re air an taoisigh

He got furious.

Séiríodh re air ag obair

He dives into his work.

Tá re ag cur troma oíche

He is oppressing them.

Tá re ag cur

It rains : It is raining.

Tá re ag cur feartáine }

It is snowing.

Tá re ag cur rneadásta

It is sleetting.

Tá re ag cur bhratog

He is winking at me.

Tá re ag caoíeadh oíthim

What is the matter with
you?

So de tá thí oírt?

What do you want?

So de ta ann tarbhail oírt?

Doing it to vex me.

Óa òeánaadh le h-olc oíthim

He is pretending.

Tá re ag leisint air

She is walking alone.

Tá re ag cur a g-céim

Tá re ag riubhal leite-péin

Sín leit̄r̄seul cam
 Leir̄ r̄in cuaid̄ re ar̄ amarc
 Ír̄ mó̄r̄ an ḡap̄ r̄in
 Ní f̄uil̄ ḡap̄ a b̄eit̄ ās caint̄
 Ní f̄uil̄ ḡap̄ a b̄eit̄ leat̄
 Ní b̄eit̄iinn ḡaib̄te leat̄

M̄ar̄ b̄eit̄dead̄ cat̄ ann
 Ír̄ f̄iú pīḡin r̄s̄aðan

Ír̄ f̄iú do f̄aoct̄air̄ é
 Ír̄ f̄iú ó̄i m̄aip̄e
 Ír̄ f̄iú Séamur̄ m̄aip̄e
 Ír̄ f̄iú é ī
 Ír̄ f̄iú duit̄ rear̄að

Ní f̄iú duit̄ f̄uide

Ír̄ f̄iú f̄ion̄ a c̄eannac̄

Ní f̄iú é a c̄eannac̄ }
 Ní f̄iú a c̄eannac̄ }

Ír̄ f̄iú liom rear̄að

Ní f̄iú liom f̄uide

Tá an ceapt̄ ās̄at̄
 Tá re ās̄ b̄uint̄ f̄eip̄
 Tá re ās̄ b̄uint̄ coip̄ce
 Tá re ās̄ b̄uint̄ p̄réat̄ai

That is a lame excuse.
 Thereupon it disappeared
 That is a God-send.
 There is no use in talking!
 You are a hopeless case.
 I would not be bothered
 with you.
 After the manner of a cat.
 A herring is worth a
 penny.
 It is worth your trouble.
 Mary is worth gold.
 James is worthy of Mary.
 He is worthy of her.
It is worth your while to
 stand.
It is not worth your while
 to sit.
It is worth while to buy
 wine.
It is not worth buying.
I think it worth while to
 stand.
I don't think it worth
 while to sit.
 You are right.
 He is mowing hay.
 He is sheering corn.
 He is digging potatoes.

Tá re aS buint móna	He is cutting turf.
Ná buin leir	Don't meddle with it.
Táir náéan lá*	Every alternate day.
Ú-fuit tú liom no ann m'aSair?	Are you for or against me?
Tá riad móri le céite	They are on friendly terms.
Bí do tórt!	Hold your tongue!
Tá re na tórt.	He is holding his tongue
Sgoaíl re upéar	He fired a shot (of a gun).
Cait re upéar	He fired a shot (of a stone).
Sgoaíl re le corr-aBna	He fired at a crane.
Tá upéar ra gúnna	There is a charge in the gun.
Boc atá ann!	He is a “buck”} i.e., a suspici-
Ogánaí atá ann!	He is a “lad”} ous character.
O ro amad; níor mó	Henceforth; in future.
Cá tuigéid náé n-íteann tú?	Why don't you eat?
Cá tuigéid rín?	How is that?
Ní feáirte doit rín	You won't be the better of that.
Óeirim do óuBlaí	I defy you.
Racaird re a n-eatáin so gaothrain†	He will go in spite of you.

* i.e., Táir a ann gáé aon lá.

† i.e., Cá tuig é! How or where understand it.

‡ Literally, He will go in front of your nasal organ.

Áiri n-dóisé	Of course ; " sure."
Áiri n-dóisé riis re oím	" Sure " he caught me.
Cuiri rgeula cùisé	Send him word.
Leógsa maire if fion rín	Indeed that is true.
Leógsa ta an ceapt agat	Indeed you are telling the truth.
Maisé if mói an bheac e	'Pon my word it is a big trout.
Maisé maire tā ré ag cuir	" Faith " it is raining.
Tā me comhair a ñeirt ñapt	I am nearly done for (<i>i.e.</i> dead).
Ma bae leir !	Never mind ! just wait !
Iscefarid tufa rín	You'll pay the piper for that.
Tā riad oic, acht brioeadh acu !	They are bad, but let them go !
Milleadh é, acht brioeadh aise !	It was destroyed, but what about it !
So m-beannuis Dia duit ! }	God bless you !
So m-beannuis Dia tu ! }	(salutation).
Slán agat ! (singular)	Good-bye !
Slán agat ! (plural)	
Slán leat ! (singular)	
Slán luib ! (plural)	
Reply : So o-tí* tú ríán !	May God guide you !
So roinbhis Dia tu !	
So roinbhis Dia duit !	
So roinbhis 'n Ríis tu !	

* This is either *so o-tigir* or *so o-téir*.

Sé do bœata ! (singular)	}	Welcome ! You are welcome !
Sé buŋ m-beata ! (plural)		
fáilte pómáit ! (singular)	}	You are very welcome !
fáilte pómáitb ! (plural)		
Céad fáile pómáit ;	}	Thank you.
Céad mile fáilte pómáit !		
Reply : go paitb maít aṣat		
So vœ marí tā tú ? (sing.)	}	How are you ?
So vœ marí tā ríb ? (pl.)		
Tā me go maít		I am well.
Tā me go ceapt		I am quite well.
Tā me go maít, so paitb maít aṣat !		I am well, thank you.

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