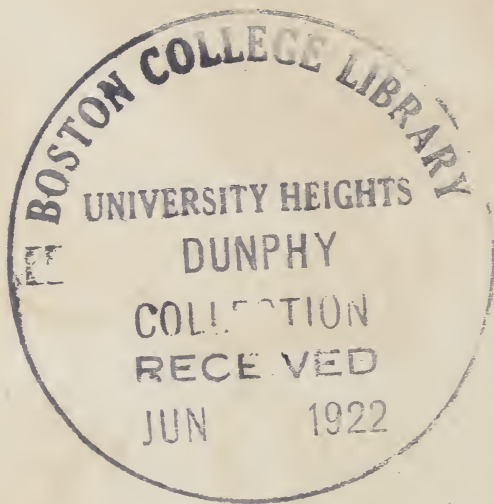


MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR

J. P. CRAIG.

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MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR.

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IRISH GRAMMAR

BY

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Dublin

SEALY, BRYERS & WALKER

MIDDLE ABBEY STREET

1900

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C7

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 Tirconail, 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, *PAK*, a sack, *LETTER*, a letter, *ROSE*, *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 *ḡeḡḡaib*, *ḡḡaib*, and *buaib* 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 *o*, *oe*, *ḡan* and *ioin*, the preposition *ainn*, in Munster, very often aspirates instead of eclipsing in the dative singular when the article is used; *ain* 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, *ro*, *re*, *san*, *roir*, *annr*, and *o*—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,

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MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR.

The Alphabet.

Irish.		English.	Name.	Irish.		English.	Name.
Cap.	Small.			Cap.	Small.		
Δ	Δ	a	ΔΙΤΜ	Λ	Λ	l	ΛΥΡ
Β	β	b	ΒΕΙΤ	Μ	μ	m	ΜΥΝ
С	c	k	СΟΤΤ	Н	н	n	ΝΥΝ
ፊ	ፊ	d	ፊΔΙΡ	Ο	ο	o	ΟΙΡ
e	e	e	ÉΛΘΔ	Ρ	ρ	p	ΡΕΙΤ
ƒ	ƒ	f	ƒΕΔΡΝ	℞	℞	r	℞ΥΡ
ḡ	ḡ	g	ḡΟΙΤ	Œ	œ	s	ŒΥΛ
h	h	h	υΔΤ	Τ	τ	t	ΤΕΙΝΕ
ι	ι	i	ΙΘΔ	υ	υ	u	υΡ

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, *ΜΑΧΙΜΥΡ*. 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., *ΒΕΙΤ*, birch; *СΟΤΤ*, hazel, *ፊΔΙΡ*, oak, and *ƒΕΔΡΝ*, or *ƒΕΔΡΝΟΣ*, elder. The others are as follows:—*ΔΙΤΜ*, palm; *ÉΛΘΔ*, aspen; *ḡΟΙΤ*, ivy; *υΔΤ*, white-thorn; *ΙΘΔ*, the yew; *ΛΥΡ*, quicken tree; *ΜΥΝ*, vine; *ΝΥΝ*, ash; *ΟΙΡ*, the spindle tree; *ΡΕΙΤ*, unknown; *℞ΥΡ*, elder; *ŒΥΛ*, willow; *ΤΕΙΝΕ*, furze; *υΡ*, the yew.

Sounds of the Diphthongs.

αι	is pronounced like	<i>ay</i>	in	<i>day</i> .	Ex.,	ταε.
αο	„	<i>ea</i>	„	<i>real</i> .	„	βραον.
υα	„	<i>ue</i>	„	<i>cruel</i> .	„	ευαν.
εο, εδ	„	<i>ya</i>	„	<i>yaawn</i> .	„	σεό, βεδ.
ια, ία	„	<i>ea</i>	„	<i>dear</i> .	„	ριαο.
ευ, έυ	„	<i>ea</i>	„	<i>early</i> .	„	βευτ, ρευτ

N.B.—These diphthongs are always long.

αι	is pronounced like	<i>a</i>	in	<i>crag</i> .	Ex.,	εραϊκεανν
οι, υι	„	<i>u</i>	„	<i>rush</i> .	„	κοιτ, κυρτε.
ει	„	<i>e</i>	„	<i>let</i>	„	κλειτε.
ιο	„	<i>i</i>	„	<i>pit</i>	„	μιοτος.
εα	„	<i>a</i>	„	<i>fan</i> .	„	φεαρ.

N.B.—In words like ταετ, θεαρ, the e has a short *y* sound.

αι	is pronounced like	<i>a</i>	in	<i>rations</i> .	Ex.,	ραϊρθε.
οι	„	<i>awi</i>	in	<i>cawing</i>	„	κοιρτε.
υι	„	<i>ewi</i>	„	<i>jewish</i>	„	ρυιρτε.
ει	„	<i>ei</i>	„	<i>feign</i>	„	πειρτε.
ιο	„	<i>e</i>	„	<i>me</i>	„	μιορα.
εα	„	<i>ea</i>	„	<i>bear</i>	„	φεαρ.

αι is pronounced like *i* in *marine*. Ex., ρηετααι.

ιαι	„	<i>u</i>	„	<i>cure</i>	„	ουιταιμ.
εαι	„	<i>a</i>	„	<i>car</i>	„	σεαρτα.

Δοι, εοι, ιυι, ιαι, &c., are attenuated forms of the long diphthongs αο, εο, &c.

Sounds of the Consonants.

β broad	is pronounced like <i>b</i> in <i>ball</i> .	Ex.	βάσ.
β slender	„ <i>b</i> „ <i>bat</i> .	„	βαν.
γ broad	„ <i>c</i> „ <i>cut</i> .	„	γυ.
γ slender	„ <i>c</i> „ <i>king</i> .	„	γέ.
φ broad	„ <i>f</i> „ <i>fall</i> .	„	φάσ.
φ slender	„ <i>f</i> „ <i>fan</i> .	„	φαν.
ξ broad	„ <i>g</i> „ <i>gum</i> .	„	ξορμ.
ξ slender	„ <i>g</i> „ <i>gas</i> .	„	ξερμαν.
μ broad	„ <i>m</i> „ <i>maul</i> .	„	μόν.
μ slender	„ <i>m</i> „ <i>mill</i> .	„	μιος.
π broad	„ <i>p</i> „ <i>Paul</i> .	„	πυτος.
π slender	„ <i>p</i> „ <i>pet</i> .	„	πειρτεος.
ο slender	„ <i>d</i> „ <i>duty</i> .	„	οίτη.
τ slender	„ <i>t</i> „ <i>tune</i> .	„	τινη.
ρ slender	„ <i>sh</i> „ —	„	ρίλεος, ρινη
η	is pronounced as in English.	„	ηατα.

N.B.—ο, τ, and ρ, broad, cannot be represented in English. Ex., ούν, τός, ρά.

ι, υ.

(1) Initial ι broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., ιυβ.

Initial ι slender is like *l* in *valiant*. Ex., ιεανβ.

(2) In all other cases ι is pronounced as in English. Ex., θεαλας, κοιτεας, φοσα, φυτ.

(3) υ broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., υαυ, βαυα.

υ slender is like *l* in *valiant*. Ex., цаυ, цаυеас.

η. ηη.

(1) Initial η broad cannot be rep. in Eng. Ex.,
 ηάηε.

Initial η slender is like *n* in *new*. Ex., ηεαηε.

(2) After αι, οι, υι, η final is like *n* in *new*. Ex.
 ηηαιη, ηηοιη, ηηυιη.

(3) In all other cases η is pronounced as in English.
 Ex., ηηαηη, ηηηη, ηηαηη, αηηιηη.

(4) ηη broad cannot be represented in English. Ex.,
 βεαηηη, βεαηηηαέτ.

ηη slender is like *n* in *new*. Ex., τηηη, τηηηεαη.

ϑ, ζ, αϑα, αζα, αβα.

(1) The letters ϑ, ζ, 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.

Κηυαηιϑ pronounced κηύαηιϑ *i.e.* *crood'-ee.*

Κηοίϑε „ κηοίϑε „ *cree.*

Βοϑαη „ βόη „ *boar.*

Υαηζ „ ύαηζ „ *oo'ee.*

Βηύηζ „ βηύηζ „ *broo'ee.*

(2) αϑα and αζα are pronounced like *ay* in *day*.

Αϑαηε pronounced έηε *i.e.* *ayre.*

Αζαηϑ „ έη „ *ay'-ee.*

(3) αβα is usually pronounced like *o* in *go*. Ex.,
 αβαηηηη, ιεαβαηη, ταβαηηη.

αὐ, ἀή, ἀβ.

(1) In many words, especially in verbs, αὐ final is pronounced like *oo* in *fool*, or like *ú* in *túb*. ἀή and ἀβ final have also this sound.

ῥόραὐ	pronounced	ρορῦ.
σεραὐ	„	ρεαρῦ.
μαρσαὐ	„	μαρσῦ.
ματταὐ	„	ματῦ.
φοτῆή	„	φοτῦ.
στιαβ	„	ρτιῦ.

(2) In monosyllabic words ῆ and β (without α) have this sound.

ἑῆή	pronounced	εῆ-ῦ.
εἷῆή	„	εἷᾶ-ῦ.
ταρβ	„	ταρ-ῦ.
εἰανβ	„	εἰαν-ῦ.

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 *βαν*, we get *βανῖ*; but if we attenuate the *β* we get *βεαν*.

Broadening.

A slender consonant may be made broad by putting υ immediately before, or α immediately after the consonant. Thus, to broaden the ξ in $\tau\iota\mu\xi$, we get $\tau\iota\mu\upsilon\xi$, but to broaden the ξ in $\xi\iota\mu$ we get $\xi\alpha\iota\mu$. To broaden the final consonant in words like $\kappa\alpha\iota$, $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota$, $\kappa\upsilon\iota$, &c., drop the ι — $\kappa\alpha\tau$, $\beta\upsilon\alpha\tau$, $\kappa\upsilon\tau$, &c.

THE RULE “ $\kappa\alpha\omicron\iota$ $\iota\epsilon$ $\kappa\alpha\omicron\iota$.”

A consonant, or a group of consonants in the body of a word, must lie between either two slender, or two broad vowels. In $\beta\upsilon\alpha\tau\omicron\varsigma$, the τ lies between two broad vowels, but in $\epsilon\iota\tau\epsilon\omicron\varsigma$, 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, $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau + \iota\eta$ is not $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau\iota\eta$, but $\rho\lambda\alpha\iota\tau\iota\eta$; $\rho\epsilon\iota\tau + \omicron\varsigma$ is not $\rho\epsilon\iota\tau\omicron\varsigma$, but $\rho\epsilon\iota\tau\epsilon\omicron\varsigma$; $\tau\omicron\varsigma + \iota\mu$ is not $\tau\omicron\varsigma\iota\mu$, but $\tau\omicron\varsigma\alpha\iota\mu$; $\rho\acute{\iota}\eta\eta + \rho\alpha$ is not $\rho\acute{\iota}\eta\eta\rho\alpha$, but $\rho\acute{\iota}\eta\eta\rho\epsilon\alpha$, &c.

This rule is called “ $\kappa\alpha\omicron\iota$ $\iota\epsilon$ $\kappa\alpha\omicron\iota$ $\alpha\gamma\upsilon\rho$ $\iota\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha\eta$ $\iota\epsilon$ $\iota\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha\eta$,” 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 $\tau\omicron\varsigma + \iota\mu$, $\tau\omicron\varsigma\iota\mu$, the ξ , having contact with \omicron and ι , 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*, *ϑ*, *ϕ*, *ξ*, *m*, *ρ*, *ϛ*, and *τ*. When aspirated they are written *ḅ*, *ĉ*, *ṑ*, *ḥ*, *ξ̄*, *m̄*, *ṛ*, *ṣ*. Capitals are sometimes written, *Ḃh*, *Ĉh*, *Ḑh*, etc., instead of *Ḃ*, *Ĉ*, *Ḑ*, &c.

In <i>ḅán</i>	<i>ḅ</i> has the sound of <i>w</i>
„ <i>ḅinn</i>	<i>ḅ</i> „ <i>v</i>
„ <i>m̄uc</i>	<i>m̄</i> „ <i>w</i>
„ <i>m̄ic</i>	<i>m̄</i> „ <i>v</i>
„ <i>ṛáιρc</i>	<i>ṛ</i> „ <i>f</i>
„ <i>ṣop</i>	<i>ṣ</i> „ <i>h</i>
„ <i>ṛac</i>	<i>ṛ</i> „ <i>h</i>
„ <i>ṛlac</i>	<i>ṛ</i> is silent.
„ <i>ṛeap</i>	<i>ṛ</i> is silent.

Hence, in the beginning of a word,

<i>ḅ</i> and <i>m̄</i> broad	are sounded like <i>w</i>
<i>ḅ</i> and <i>m̄</i> slender	„ <i>v</i>
<i>ṛ</i> always	„ <i>f</i>
<i>ṣ</i> „	„ <i>h</i>
<i>ṛ</i> +vowel	„ <i>h</i>
<i>ṛ</i> + <i>l</i> , <i>n</i> , or <i>ρ</i> ,	is silent
<i>ṛ</i> generally	silent.

N.B.—*ĉ*, *ṑ*, *ξ̄*, and *ṣ* followed by a consonant, cannot be represented in English. A soft guttural 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-*bá*o pronounced *má*o where *b* is eclipsed.

ḡ- <i>c</i> ac	„	ḡac	„	<i>c</i>	„
<i>n</i> - <i>o</i> oiaṛ	„	<i>no</i> iaṛ	„	<i>o</i>	„
<i>b</i> - <i>f</i> eaṛ	„	<i>b</i> eaṛ	„	<i>f</i>	„
<i>b</i> - <i>p</i> áira	„	<i>b</i> áira	„	<i>p</i>	„
<i>t</i> - <i>r</i> úil	„	<i>t</i> úil	„	<i>r</i>	„
<i>o</i> - <i>t</i> airb	„	<i>o</i> airb	„	<i>t</i>	„
<i>n</i> -ḡoira	„	<i>n</i> ḡoira	„	<i>nḡ</i>	blend.

N.B.—In the case of *ḡ* no real eclipsis takes place. *S* 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, *bá*o, *a*ira, *ti*neara, *cá*irb^{ea}ra, etc. Except:—*co*ira, *lám*, *b*róḡ, *p*óḡ, *ḡ*ruaḡ, *c*ua^c, *c*íora, *c*uaira, *b*reus, *f*earḡ, *c*loc, *r*ia^t, *p*íara, *ḡ*ao^t, *r*ḡia, *c*rua^c, etc., which are feminine.

(2) Abstract nouns in *e* or *ac*t are feminine, as, *a*itne, beauty, *m*itrea^ct, sweetness.

(3) Diminutives in *an* are masculine, as, *á*iro^an, a hillock.

(4) Diminutives in *oḡ* are feminine, as, *bá*boḡ, a doll.

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

(6) The names of rivers are feminine, as, *ἄν Βοιών*, the Boyne.

(7) The names of males are masculine, as, *ἄν*, a man, *ῥταῖτ*, a stallion, *κοτεᾶς*, a cock.

(8) The names of females are feminine, as, *βέαν*, a woman, *κατίν*, a girl, *καράττ*, a mare, *κεῖμ*, a hen.

OBS.—*Κατίν* is influenced by the article as if it were masculine, just in the same way as *τεᾶς* (*m.*) is declined like a feminine noun. *Καράττ*, like *μῦς*, is common gender.

DECLENSIONS.

Declension of the Article.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
	<i>mas.</i>	<i>fem.</i>	<i>mas. and fem.</i>
<i>Nom. & Acc.</i>	<i>ἄν</i> ,	<i>ἄν</i> ,	<i>νά</i> , the
<i>Genitive</i>	<i>ἄν</i> ,	<i>νά</i> ,	<i>νά</i> , of the
<i>Dative</i>	<i>ἄν</i> ,	<i>ἄν</i> ,	<i>νά</i> , the

N.B.—There is no indefinite article. Hence *τό* 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, *ἄσ*, a boat.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	βάτο, a boat.	βάιτο, boats.
<i>Gen.</i>	βάιτο, of a boat.	βάτο, of boats.
<i>Dat.</i>	βάτο, a boat.	βάιτο,* boats.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά βάιτο! O boat!	ά βάρτα! O boats!

(b) Nouns in αέ (monosyllabics excepted) change ε into ξ where attenuation occurs. Ex., βαααέ, a beggar.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	βαααέ, a beggar.	βαααιξ, beggars.
<i>Gen.</i>	βαααιξ, of a beggar.	βαααέ, of beggars.
<i>Dat.</i>	βαααέ, a beggar.	βαααιξ, beggars.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά βαααιξ! O beggar!	α βάρταα! O beggars!

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

Examples for Declension.

αραν, bread.	βριύξαέ, a farmer.
αριταν, a hillock.	ριτόαέ, a young man.
αματαν, a fool.	βεααέ, a way.
αρατ, an ass.	βριοααέ, a bosom.
ραμάρεαν, a primrose.	ευραέ, cloth.
ξεαβαν, a sparrow.	εαααέ, cattle.
ρεαταν, a spark, a match.	ριοναέ, a fox. †
ξεαριαν, a horse.	τεαξιαέ, a family.
ριυταν, a brook.	βοξιαέ, wet weatner.
ριοααν, frost.	βυριταέ, a bog.

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

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

ῥαλανν, salt.	οὔαναδ, a lad, a rogue.
υαρζαν, a yearling sheep.	μάρηναδ, a sailor.
θεατζαν, a knitting-needle.	βιτέαμνναδ, a rascal.
βιορην, a pin.	ελαδαδ, a seashore.
ῥμδλαν, a thrush.	υαλαδ, a burden.
ῥελεοσαν, a butterfly.	ταλαμ, ground, land.
Σαμῆραδ, Summer.	Ειρηανναδ, an Irishman.
ῥδζῆμαρ, Autumn.	Σαραναδ, an Englishman.
ῤεμῆραδ, Winter.	ῥρανναδ, a Frenchman.
Εαρηαδ, Spring.	

(c) To form the genitive of nouns in εαδ, and of derivatives in εαρ, change the characteristic εα into ι. [The characteristic vowel is the last vowel in the nominative case of nouns.]

κοιτεαδ, a cock.	gen.	κοιτιζ.
οῦαίγεαδ, an officer	„	οῦαίγιζ.
τιννεαρ, sickness	„	τιννιρ.
ῥαιτεαρ, shyness	„	ῥαιτιρ.

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

αίρηανν, a mass	gen.	αίρηινν.
αίρηεαδ, money	„	αίρηιδ.
βρηεαδ, a trout	„	βριε.
εεανν, a head	„	εεινν.
ῥεαρ, a man	„	ῥιρ.
ῤρηανν, fun	„	ῤρηινν.
ελαίγεανν, a skull	„	ελαίγιινν.
εῤαίεανν, skin, rind	„	εῤαίεινν.

Also ρῖοτ, seed	gen.	ρῖτ.
λίον, flax, net	„	λίη.
μάτ, a son	„	μίτ.

(e) The following change εα into ει :—

ρέαρ,* grass, hay	gen.	ρέιη.
μέαρ,* a finger	„	μέιη.
βέατ,* a mouth	„	βέιτ.
κίνατ, kind, species	„	κίνειτ.
καστεάν, a castle	„	καστείη.
ίαρς, fish, a fish	„	είης.
κίαβ, a creel, bosom	„	κίείβ.

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

κόρη, a body	gen.	κούρη.
βούς, a belly	„	βούης.
ταύρ, a bull	„	ταύρη.
μότ, a wether	„	μούητ.
πόρη, a fist	„	πούρη.
κνός, a hill	„	κνούη.
ράτ, a sack	„	ρούητ.
κάτ, a cat	„	κούητ.

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

ροατ, a word	gen.	ροαίη	pl.	ροαη.
ροήρ, a drop	„	ροήρη	„	ροήρη.
πεάνη, a pen	„	πίνη	„	πεάνη.
μούρ, a rampart	„	μούρη	„	μούρη.
τοράρ, a door	„	τοράρη	„	τοράρη.

* More usually ρεη, μεη, βεη.

αιγγελ, an angel	gen.	αιγγιτ	pl.	αιγγιε.
τοβαρι, a well	„	τοβαριτ	„	τοβριαδα.
ζαρυρι, a boy	„	ζαρυριτ	„	ζαρριαι.
ρσευτ,* a story	„	ρσειτ	„	ρσειυτται.
γλεανν, a glen	„	γλεαννα	„	γλεαννται.
σεοτ, music	„	σεοιτ	„	σεοιυτται.
ρεοτ, a sail	„	ρεοιτ	„	ρεοιυτται.
υβαλλι, an apple	„	υβαλλι	„	υβλαι.
λεαβαρι, a book	„	λεαβαριτ	„	λεαβαριται.

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. βριος, a shoe, ρυιτ, an eye.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	βριος, a shoe.	βριοςα, shoes.
<i>Gen.</i>	βριοιγε, of a shoe.	βριος, of shoes.
<i>Dat.</i>	βριοις, a shoe.	βριοςα, shoes.
<i>Voc.</i>	α βριοις! O shoe!	α βριοςα! O shoes!

* *Σευτ* is used for *tidings*; it is sometimes written *ρσειυτ*, and then means *word* or *message*. Ζο σε 'n ρσειυτ αζατ? What news? Κυρι ρσειυτ α κυριζε. Send him word.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	ṛúit, an eye.	ṛúite, eyes.
<i>Gen.</i>	ṛúite, of an eye.	ṛúit, of eyes.
<i>Dat.</i>	ṛúit, an eye.	ṛúite, eyes.
<i>Voc.</i>	Δ ṛúit, O eye.	Δ ṛúite, O eyes.

N.B.—Nouns declined like *bṛóḡ* and *ṛúit* are for the most part monosyllabic words.

Examples for Declension.

cor, a foot.	bṛeuḡ (<i>gen.</i> bṛéiḡe), a lie.
cloč, a stone.	cíor (<i>g.</i> cíṛe), a comb.
féir, a festival.	ceairc (<i>g.</i> cíṛce), a hen.
lám, a hand.	beann (<i>g.</i> béinne) a mountain peak.
caite, chalk.	ḡruaḡ (<i>g.</i> ḡruaḡe), hair.
póḡ, a kiss.	creaḡ, (<i>g.</i> créiḡe), a crag.
muc, a pig.	ṛḡiač (<i>g.</i> ṛḡeiče), a shield.
croč, a gibbet.	ḡruan (<i>g.</i> ḡréine), the sun.
croṛ, a cross.	creač (<i>g.</i> créiče), plunder.
cluar, an ear.	ṛearḡ (<i>g.</i> ṛeiriḡe), anger.
ṛtuc, a cheek.	ṛḡian (<i>g.</i> ṛḡeine), a knife.
cúit, a church.	ḡeuḡ (<i>g.</i> ḡéiḡe), a branch.
Δḡairč, a face.	ṛṛtanc, a spark, a thunderbolt.
ḡaoč, wind	cuač, a cuckoo, a ringlet.
ním, poison.	neam (<i>g.</i> neime), heaven.
uḡ or uib, an egg.	teač (<i>g.</i> tiḡe), a house (<i>m</i>).

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

πέιρ, a festival.	plural	πέιρεανα.
κύιρ, a cause.	„	κύιρεανα.
λυιῶ, an herb, a weed	„	λυιῶεανα.
céim, a step.	„	céimeανα.
εαρημαίε, a rock	„	εαρημαίεεαά.
ερεαζ, a crag.	„	ερεαζεαά.
παιδιρ, a prayer.	„	παιδιρεαά.
εραοῦ, a branch.	„	εραοῦεαά.
υιῶ, an egg.	„	υιῶεαά.
οβαίρ, work	„	οιβερεαά.
λιτιρ, a letter.	„	λιτρεαά.
νίξεαν, a daughter.	„	νίξεεαναεαά.
αίμη, a name.	„	αίμημηεαά.
πλατ, a rod.	„	πλατεαά.*
άιτ, a place.	„	άιτεεαά, άιτί.
πίζη, a penny.	„	πίζηεεαά, πίζηηε*
είαν, an age.	„	είαντεαί.
πίαη, a pain or pang.	„	πίαητεαί.
πέιρτ, an eel-shaped monster.	„	πέιρτεί.

(c.) Diminutives in οζ, as a general rule, have í in the plural, and, in accordance with the rule “εαοι τε εαοι,” must be written αί.

κυιτεοζ, a lob-worm.	plural	κυιτεοζαί
μίοιλοζ, a midge.	„	μίοιλοζαί.
κυιτεοζ, a fly, a gnat.	„	κυιτεοζαί.
εαροζ, a weasel.	„	εαροζαί.
πέιρτεοζ, a worm.	„	πέιρτεοζαί.

* Gen. pl. πλατεάε, but sometimes πλατ, as in Ὀμόνηεάε να πλατ, Palm Sunday ; πίζηεεαά refers to number, πίζηηε to amount.

βελός, a bee.	<i>plural</i>	βελόςαι.
στειρεός, a wag-tail.	„	στειρεόςαι.
ταρός, a light, a match.	„	ταρόςαι.
ρρανος, a spoon.	„	ρρανοςαι.
λυός, a rat.	„	λυόςαι.
βάβος, a doll.	„	βάβοςαι.
ρριροεός, a robin	„	ρριροεόςαι.
ρυννεός, a window.	„	ρυννεόςαι.
ρρίονος, a gooseberry.	„	ρρίονοςαι.

(d) Nouns of more than one syllable in *αέ* change *ε* into *ξ* where attenuation takes place. The vocative singular is usually like the nominative singular. Ex., *ελάρραε*, a harp.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>N. A.</i>	<i>ελάρραε</i> , a harp.	<i>ελάρραεα</i> , harps.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>ελάρραιξε</i> , of a harp.	<i>ελάρραε</i> , of harps.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>ελάρραιξ</i> , a harp.	<i>ελάρραεα</i> , harps.
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>α ελάρραε!</i> O harp!	<i>α ελάρραεα!</i> O harps!

Examples for Declension.

<i>ξιορραε</i> , a girl.	<i>κορραε</i> , a heifer, stirk.
<i>οιρραε</i> , a hussy.	<i>βεαρραε</i> , a heifer.
<i>εαιρραε</i> , an old woman.	<i>ξεααε</i> , a moon.
<i>βιαεε</i> , buttermilk.	<i>ρειρραε</i> , a plough.
<i>αιτεααε</i> , furze.	<i>βαρραε</i> , 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, μαλλᾶτ, a curse.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	μαλλᾶτ, a curse.	μαλλᾶτᾶί, curses.
<i>Gen.</i>	μαλλᾶτᾶ, of a curse.	μαλλᾶτ, of curses.
<i>Dat.</i>	μαλλᾶτ, a curse.	μαλλᾶτᾶί, curses.
<i>Voc.</i>	ἄ μαλλᾶτ! O curse!	ἄ μαλλᾶτᾶί! O curses!

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

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	ceóτoιη, a mus.	ceóτoιηί, musicians.
<i>Gen.</i>	ceóτoιᾶ, of a mus.	ceóτoιη, of musicians.
<i>Dat.</i>	ceóτoιη, a mus.	ceóτoιηί, musicians.
<i>Voc.</i>	ἄ ceóτoιη! O mus.!	ἄ ceóτoιηί! O musicians!

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

Examples.

ρρεαλατοῖν, a mower.	παλιραῶν, laziness.
κροῦατοῖν, a hangman.	τοῦναῶν, boldness.
μουλτεοῖν, a miller.	ἐλίτορεαῶν, strength.
βυῖρτεοῖν, a butcher.	βοῦταῶν, poverty.
ῖρσευλοῖν, a story-teller.	ἰαρζαιρεαῶν, fishing.
κριυτιζεοῖν, a creator.	τάιλιυραῶν, tailoring.
παλλιοῖν, an idler.	κριονναῶν, wisdom.
τορριοῖν, a porter.	βεανναῶν, a blessing.
βυαῶν, a boy.	κλεαρ, a trick.
αλτοῖν, an altar.	καῶν, a battle, temptation.
τοῖν, the will.	τορυῶν, dew.
φυῖν (g. φοῖα), blood.	φραῶν, luck, prosperity.

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

NOM. SING.	GEN. SING.	NOM. PL.
καῶν, a city.	καῶνα	καῶνα.
λαραῖν, a flame	λαρραῶν.	λαρραῶνα.
αῶν, a father.	αῶν.	αῶνρεαῶνα.
μαῶν, a mother.	μαῶν.	μαῶνρεαῶνα.
βραῶν, a confrere.	βραῶν.	βραῶνρεαῶνα.
θεῶν, a brother.	θεῶν.	θεῶνρεαῶνα.
θειῶν, a sister.	θειῶν.	θειῶνρεαῶνα.*
βιοῖν, a spit.	βειρα.	βειρα.
κιοῖν or κιῶν, a shower.	κειρα.	κειρα.
μόν, turf.	μόνα.	μόντε.

* Usually syncopated : ῥειῶνρεαῶνα.

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

βυαλαῶ, beating	gen. βυαιτε.
μοταῶ, praise.	„ μοτα.
βεαννουζαῶ, a blessing	„ βεαννουζτε.

Fourth Declension.

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

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> <i>τιζεαρνα</i> , a lord.	<i>τιζεαρναί</i> , lords.
<i>Gen.</i> <i>τιζεαρνα</i> , of a lord.	<i>τιζεαρνα</i> , of lords.
<i>Dat.</i> <i>τιζεαρνα</i> , a lord.	<i>τιζεαρναί</i> , lords.
<i>Voc.</i> <i>ἀ τιζεαρνα!</i> O lord!	<i>ἀ τιζεαρναί!</i> O lords!

Ex., *πιοβαρη*, a piper.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> <i>πιοβαρη</i> , a piper.	<i>πιοβαρηί</i> , pipers.
<i>Gen.</i> <i>πιοβαρη</i> , of a piper.	<i>πιοβαρη</i> , of pipers.
<i>Dat.</i> <i>πιοβαρη</i> , a piper.	<i>πιοβαρηί</i> , pipers.
<i>Voc.</i> <i>ἀ πιοβαρη!</i> O piper!	<i>ἀ πιοβαρηί!</i> O pipers!

Ex., *κουνίν*, a rabbit.

<i>N. A.</i> <i>κουνίν</i> , a rabbit.	<i>κουνίνί</i> , rabbits.
<i>Gen.</i> <i>κουνίν</i> , of a rabbit.	<i>κουνίν</i> , of rabbits.
<i>Dat.</i> <i>κουνίν</i> , a rabbit.	<i>κουνίνί</i> , rabbits.
<i>Voc.</i> <i>ἀ κουνίν!</i> O rabbit!	<i>ἀ κουνίνί!</i> O rabbits!

Further Examples.

μάλα, a bag.	εγύρεϊν, a jar.
ρεάλα, a dish.	κοιρῖν, a little foot.
ράιννε, a ring.	σπιρνήν, a spade handle.
τύρνε, a spinning-wheel.	καίτῖν, a girl.
ράιτε, a welcome.	ρόρῖν, a little rose.
ραίρε, a sea.	ρίρῖν, a kitten.
ρίρῖννε, truth.	μυρῖνν, a darling.
κυρτε, a vein, pulse	ριυβῖν, a ribbon.
οιρόε, a night.	ρόιζῖν, a little kiss.
ράιροε, a child.	αιτῖν, a brood.
ρόζαιρε, a rogue.	ραιτορῖν, a rosary beads.
Μάιρε, Mary.	καίτλῖν, Cathleen.
άιρνα, a sloe.	πειντε, a point (of argument).
τεινε, fire.	πειντα, a pound.
βαίτε, a town.	<i>gen.</i> τεινεαθ. <i>pl.</i> τειντε.
ουινε, a person.	„ βαίτε „ βαίτε.
	„ ουινε „ ουαοινι.

Fifth Declension.

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

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>N. A.</i> πειρρα, a person.	πειρρανα, persons.
<i>Gen.</i> πειρραν, of a person.	πειρραν, of persons.
<i>Dat.</i> πειρραιν, a person.	πειρρανα, persons.
<i>Voc.</i> ά πειρρα! O person!	ά πειρρανα! O persons!

Examples.

Αβδα, Scotland.	κολληρα, a neighbour.
Μουνδα, Munster.	ζοβα, a smith.
τυρζα, a shin.	ιονζα, a claw, a nail.
υρρα, a prop.	υιτε, an elbow.
ζυαλα, a shoulder.	τεβρα, a boundary.

☞ Ειρε, Ireland, *gen.* Ειρεανν, *dat.* Ειρυνν, *voc.* Α
ειρε!

Irregular Nouns.

Θία, God, a god.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	Θία.	Θείτε.
<i>Gen.</i>	Θέ.	Θια.
<i>Dat.</i>	Θία.	Θείτε.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά Θία!	ά Θείτε!

βεαν, a woman.

<i>N. A.</i>	βεαν.	μνά.
<i>Gen.</i>	μνά.	βαν.
<i>Dat.</i>	βεαν, μναοι.	μνά.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά βεαν!	ά μνα!

κάρα, a friend.

<i>N. A.</i>	κάρα.	κάριτε.
<i>Gen.</i>	κάρα, κάρατο.	κάρα
<i>Dat.</i>	κάρα, κάρατο.	κάριτε.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά κάρα, ά κάρατο!	ά κάριτε!

Cú, a hound.

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

Caoimh, a sheep.

<i>N. A.</i>	caoimh.	caoimh.
<i>Gen.</i>	caoimh	caoimh
<i>Dat.</i>	caoimh	caoimh.
<i>Voc.</i>	á caoimh!	á caoimh!

Gé, a goose.

<i>N. A.</i>	gé.	géalca.
<i>Gen.</i>	gé, géiró.	géalc.
<i>Dat.</i>	gé.	géalca.
<i>Voc.</i>	á gé!	á géalca!

Lac, a duck.

<i>N. A.</i>	lac.	lacaim.
<i>Gen.</i>	laca.	lacan.
<i>Dat.</i>	lac.	lacaim.
<i>Voc.</i>	á lac!	á lacaim!

Bó, a cow.

<i>N. A.</i>	bó.	ba, bač.
<i>Gen.</i>	bó.	bó.
<i>Dat.</i>	bó, buim.	ba.
<i>Voc.</i>	á bó!	á ba!

Teac, a house (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	teac.	tičte.
<i>Gen.</i>	tiče, tič.	tičte, teac.
<i>Dat.</i>	tič, teac.	tičte.
<i>Voc.</i>	á teac!	á tičte!

Στiαβ, a mountain (*m.*)

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	ρiαβ.	ρλέιβτε.
<i>Gen.</i>	ρλέιβε.	ρλέιβτε.
<i>Dat.</i>	ρiαβ.	ρλέιβτε.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά ρiαβ!	ά ρλέιβτε!

ιά, a day (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	ιά.	ιαετε.
<i>Gen.</i>	ιαε.	ιαετε.
<i>Dat.</i>	ιά.	ιαετε.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά ιά!	ά ιαετε!

μι, a month (*f.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	μι	μιορα.
<i>Gen.</i>	μιορα.	μιορ.
<i>Dat.</i>	μι.	μιορα.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά μι!	ά μιορα!

βλιαθαι, a year (*f.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	βλιαθαι.	βλιαθαιταί, βλιαθαι*
<i>Gen.</i>	βλιαθαι.	βλιαθαι.
<i>Dat.</i>	βλιαθαι	βλιαθαιταί.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά βλιαθαι!	ά βλιαθαιταί!

σεθ, fog (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	σεθ.	σεθαι.
<i>Gen.</i>	σεθις.	σεθ.
<i>Dat.</i>	σεθ.	σεθαι.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά σεθ!	α σεθαι!

* βλιαθαι means a definite period of time, as κύρις βλιαθαι, five years. βλιαθαιταί = an indefinite period, as τά να βλιαθαιταί ες ουλ ταυτ, 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; *řantać*, greedy; *binn*, melodious.

SINGULARS.

PLURALS.

N. A. *bán*, *řantać*, *binn*.

bána, *řantaća*, *binne*.

Gen. *báin*, *řantaicř*, *binn**

bán, *řantać*, *binn*.

Dat. *bán*, *řantać*, *binn*.

bána, *řantaća*, *binne*.

Voc. *báin*, *řantaicř*, *binn*.

bána, *řantaća*, *binne*.

Second Declension.

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

SINGULARS.

PLURALS.

N. A. *bán*, *řantać*, *binn*.

bána, *řantaća*, *binne*

Gen. *báine*, *řantaicře*, *binne*.

bán, *řantać*, *binn*.

Dat. *báin*, *řantaicř*, *binn*.

bána, *řantaća*, *binne* (

Voc. *báin*, *řantać*, *binn*.

bána, *řantaća*, *binne*

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

Third Declension.

This declension comprises all adjectives in ἀνάτι. They are declined like nouns of the Third Declension. Example, ῥεσῥανάτι, manly.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	ῥεσῥανάτι.	ῥεσῥάντα.
<i>Gen.</i>	ῥεσῥάντα.	ῥεσῥανάτι.
<i>Dat.</i>	ῥεσῥανάτι.	ῥεσῥάντα.
<i>Voc.</i>	ῥεσῥανάτι.	ῥεσῥάντα.

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>	ἄν ἑἄτ ἑἄν *	να ἑἄτ ἑἄνα.
<i>Gen.</i>	ἄν ἑἄτ ἑἄν.	να ἢ-ἑἄτ ἢ-ἑἄν.
<i>Dat.</i>	ἄτ ἄν ἑἄτ ἑἄν.	ἄτ να ἑἄτ ἑἄνα.
<i>Voc.</i>	ἄ ἑἄτ ἑἄν!	ἄ ἑἄτἄ ἑἄνα!

* The white boat.

SINGULAR.

N. A. an b̄rōz b̄ān *
Gen. na b̄rōize b̄āine.
Dat. ar an b̄rōiz b̄āin.
Voc. a b̄rōiz b̄āin !

N. A. an b̄āo m̄in †
Gen. an b̄āro m̄in.
Dat. an̄r an b̄āo m̄in.
Voc. a b̄āro m̄in !

N. A. an b̄rōz m̄in ‡
Gen. na b̄rōize m̄ine.
Dat. an̄r an b̄rōiz m̄in.
Voc. a b̄rōiz m̄in !

PLURAL.

na b̄rōza b̄āna.
na m-b̄rōz m-b̄ān.
ar̄ na b̄rōza b̄āna.
a b̄rōza b̄āna !

na b̄āro m̄ine.
na m-b̄āo m̄in.
ar̄ na b̄āro m̄ine.
a b̄āo m̄ine !

na b̄rōza m̄ine.
na m-b̄rōz m̄in.
ar̄ na b̄rōza m̄ine.
a b̄rōza m̄ine !

FIRST EXCEPTION : Initial τ and ϑ are not aspirated by the article, but a feminine adjective may have its initial aspirated in the usual way ; as, an τηρ τηρ̄m or an τηρ̄ τηρ̄m (*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 ρb, ρc, ρo, ρs, ρm, ρp, or ρτ can neither be eclipsed nor aspirated.

* The white shoe ; † the smooth boat ; ‡ the smooth shoe.

Examples.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	αη ταρῖ τινν *	να τειρῖ τιννε.
<i>Gen.</i>	αη τειρῖ τινν.	να ὀ-ταρῖ ὀ-τινν.
<i>Dat.</i>	αιρ αη ταρῖ τινν.	αις να τειρῖ τιννε.
<i>Voc.</i>	α τειρῖ τινν!	α ἑαρῖδα τιννε!
<i>N. A.</i>	αη τ-πλατ ῥάρτα †	να πλαταῖα ῥάρτα.
<i>Gen.</i>	να πλατε ῥάρτα.	να πλαταῖ ῥάρτα.
<i>Dat.</i>	αιρ αη τ-πλατε ῥάρτα.	αιρ να πλαταῖα ῥάρτα
<i>Voc.</i>	α ῥλατε ῥάρτα!	α ῥλαταῖα ῥάρτα!
<i>N. A.</i>	αη ρσαῶαν ρσαλτα ‡	να ρσαῶαιν ρσαλτα.
<i>Gen.</i>	αη ρσαῶαιν ρσαλτα.	να ρσαῶαν ρσαλτα.
<i>Dat.</i>	αιρ αη ρσαῶαν ρσαλτα.	αιρ να ρσαῶαιν ρσαλτα.
<i>Voc.</i>	α ρσαῶαιν ρσαλτα!	α ρσαῶανα ρσαλτα!

(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>	αη τ-αρην ὑρ §	να η-αραιν ὑρα.
<i>Gen.</i>	αη αραιν ὑρ.	να η-αρην ὑρ.
<i>Dat.</i>	αιρ αη αρην ὑρ.	αιρ να η-αραιν ὑρα.
<i>Voc.</i>	α αραιν ὑρ!	α αραινα ὑρα!

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

SINGULAR.

<i>N. A.</i>	an uib úr *
<i>Gen.</i>	na h-uibe úire.
<i>Dat.</i>	annr an uib úir.
<i>Voc.</i>	á uib úir!

PLURAL.


	na h-uibeada úra.
	na h-uibeada úr.
	air na h-uibeada úra.
	a uibeada úra!

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 *r*, are never influenced.

To be Declined.

an fear beas,	the little man.
an bean beas,	the little woman.
an ródac laóac,	the winsome youth.
an giorrac laóac,	the winsome girl.
an t-ealla bhrada,	the thievish cattle.
an bó eóla,	the knowing cow.
an ríocan bán,	the white frost.
an rálann mín,	the fine salt.
an lám láir,	the strong hand.
an fuibín fuígin,	the tough ribbon.
an ním nímneac	the painful poison.
an hatsa deira,	the gaudy hat.
an bealach-mór,	the road, the highway.
an baile-mór,	the town.

* The fresh egg.

 **Bealaic-móir** = a highway, **bealaic moir** = a long or big road; **bailte-móir** = a town or village, **bailte móir** = a big locality or town. **Bealaic-móir** conveys but one idea, viz., “road,” while **bealaic moir** conveys two ideas, viz., “road” and “big.” It is, therefore, better to join two words when they convey but one idea. See “Compound Words.”

maia-leathair = a leathern bag.

maia leathair = a bagful of leather.

maia an leathair = the bag for holding leather.

Special Use of the Article.

- (1) Before surnames: **An Doóirteac**, O'Doherty.
- (2) Before names of countries, **An Spáin**, Spain.
- (3) Before abstract names: **an t-ocair**, hunger.
- (4) Before adjectives used as nouns: **an t-éic**, evil.
- (5) In stating time: **An cúig o'cloig**, Five o'clock.
- (6) Before a noun with a demonstrative pronoun: **an fear so**, this man.
- (7) After “**Cia?**” or “**Cé?**”: **Cé 'n fear?** What man?
- (8) “A piece” or “per”: **piúin an ceann**, a penny a piece; **ré piúine an tuisín**, sixpence per dozen. But, a penny per day = **piúin 'ran la**.
- (9) To express contempt: **Seamur an éinn mhóir** big-headed James. **Siolla na s-cor s-cam!** (You) crooked-legged fellow!

(10) To mark profession :

Father O'Donnell	Δη ραζαρτ Δ Οομναλλ.
Dr. Kelly.	Δη Οοοτυρη Δ Σεαλλαιξ.

(11) To express connection :

Μάριε αν ξτεαηνα	Mary from the Glen.
Σεαξαν αν ταίτυρη	The tailor's John

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

(12) To express *some* or *any* : Νι ρυλλ αν εαπαλλ
 Δξαν = 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 *ι*, *η*, *η*, or *ρ*, when a new syllable beginning with a vowel is added; thus, telescoping, so to speak, the characteristic vowel or vowels.

Examples.

λαρηρ + αεα	= λαρηραεα	= λαρ--ραεα	= λαρηαεα.
εαεαρηρ + αεα	= εαεαρηραεα	= εαετ--ραεα	= εαερηαεα.
ρηιρηρ + αεα	= ρηιρηραεα	= ρηιθ--ραεα	= ρηιθηεαεα.
λαρηρ + αε	= λαρηραε	= λαρ--ραε	= λαρηαε.
οβαρηρ + ε	= οβαρηε	= οβ--ρηε	= οιβρηε.
υμηλ + α	= υμηλα	= υμη--λα	= υμηλα.

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

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

First Idea.

<i>N. & A.</i>	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>obairnáca fearmáila.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>obairne fearmáila</i>	<i>obairnác fearmáil.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>obairnáca fearmáila.</i>

Second Idea.

<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>ob--náca fearmá--la.</i>
<i>ob--ne fearmá--la</i>	<i>ob--nác fearmáil.</i>
<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>ob--náca fearmá--la.</i>

Syncopated.

<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>oibneáca* fearmála.</i>
<i>oibne fearmála</i>	<i>oibneác fearmáil.</i>
<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>oibneáca fearmála</i>

Family Names.

(a) The prefix “O” is rendered in Irish by Δ, the shortened form of *ua*, a descendant. It has a feminine form *ní*, 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, *ní*.

James O’Donnell	<i>Séamur Δ Úóinnáil.</i>
Mary O’Donnell	<i>máire ní Úóinnáil.</i>
John O’Neill	<i>Seázan O néil.</i>
Nora O’Neill	<i>noira ní néil.</i>
Patrick O’Doherty	<i>padraig Δ Úóáraití.</i>
Una O’Doherty	<i>una ní Úóáraití.</i>

* Not *obnáca* ; the root of the gen. sing. is preferred.

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

James O'Donnell's son	<i>mac Séamuir uí Dóinnail.</i>
Mary O'Donnell's son	<i>mac Máire ní Dóinnail.</i>
John O'Neill's son	<i>mac Séadain uí Néill.</i>

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

Charles MacHugh	<i>Séarthur ac Doir.</i>
Sarah MacHugh	<i>Sora níc Doir.</i>
George MacSweeney	<i>Seóirra ac Suibne.</i>
Brigid MacSweeney	<i>Briúir níc Suibne.</i>
Hugh MacSweeney's son	<i>mac Doir míc Suibne.</i>

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

James Kelly	<i>Séamuir a Ceallaiú.</i>
Brigid Kelly	<i>Briúir ní Ceallaiú.</i>
Daniel Boyle	<i>Dóinnail a Baozáill.</i>
Annie Boyle	<i>Anna ní Baozáill.</i>

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

Cormac Ward	<i>Cormac aca Báir.*</i>
Mary Ward	<i>Máire níoca Báir.</i>
Denis MacNulty	<i>Donncaó mac an Ultaíú.</i>
Nora MacNulty	<i>Nóra níc an Ultaíú.</i>

(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 Báir* means the son of the bard, but as a surname we now say *aca Báir*. Craig = *a Creadz*, and not *a Créizze*.

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

O'Doherty is coming	Τά αν Όοόαρταό άγ τεάότ.
Boyle is coming	Τά αν Όαοζάλλαό άγ τεάόε.
O'Donnell is coming	Τά αν Όάλλαό άγ τεάότ.
Craig is coming	Τά αν Όρεάζαό άγ τεάότ.
MacNulty is coming	Τά μαό αν υλταιζ άγ τεάότ.
MacNeill is coming	Τά μαό νέιλλ άγ τεάότ.
MacSweeney is coming	Τά μαό Συιβνε άγ τεάότ.

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	Όεανν αν άραυλλ.
The sand of the sea	Ζαινιόη να φαηζε.
The taste of the bread	Όλαρ αν άραιη.
The smell of the fish	Όολαό αν έιρζ.
The halter of the horse	άόαρταη αν άραυλλ.
The foot of the hen	Όορ να σηρε.
The son of the king	μαό αν ηί.

(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 βλαρ άραιη άη.
It has the smell of fish	Τα βολαό έιρζ άη.
The halter of a horse	άόαρταη άραυλλ.
The foot of a hen	Όορ σηρε.
The son of a king	μαό ηί.

(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	Δη ζῆειμ ἀραιη.
The draught of wine	Δη ὄεοῦ ρίονα.
The bag of meal	Δη μάλα μινη.
The streak of light	Δη ρεμίος ρολευρ.
The spark of lightning	Δη ρπλανε ροιλλρε.
The house of gold	Δη τεαῦ ὀρη.
The bag (made) of leather	Δη μάλα τεαῦαιη.

(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.

μάλα δη τεαῦαιη	The bag for holding leather.
μάλα να μινη	The bag for meal, the meal bag.
τεαῦ δη ὀρη	The house for storing gold.
ερηυαῦ δη ἀρηζυο	The hill where silver is got.
ενοο δη ἀρη	The hill where slaughter occurred.
λοῦ δη τε-ρολευρ	The light-reflecting lake.
ελαῖοεαῖη δη τε-ρολευρ	The flashing sword.

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

A piece of bread	ζυοτα ἀραιη.
A cup of water	ευρα υρηζε.
A drink of milk	ὄεοῦ βαηνη.
A house of gold	τεαῦ ὀρη.
A bag of flour	μάλα ρεύρη.

(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	ὄρηζ τοιε ὄερηῦρηρη δη ρί.
Mary's sister's son's shoe	ὄρηζ τοιε ὄερηῦρηρη ῆῆρη.

* EXCEPT: μαο ὄέ, ρεηε μιρη, ρεηε ράορηυι, ρεηε εῖρη, ρεηε ρεαοαρη, &c. Like family names after μαο and υα, there is no aspiration after ρεηε, 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 *brios*, *muc* and *ceirbhuira*, 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-ċAINT	Back-talk, back-biting.
CΛOIM-ĤEOIL	Sheep-flesh, mutton.
MUIC-ĤEOIL	Pig-flesh, bacon.
ĤIOIM-BUΔN	Steadfast, faithful.
ĤIOIM-ÓILĤ	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.

ΔN ĤEΔM-CEOIL	The musician.
ΔN ĤĤM-ċEOIL	Of the musician.
ΔN ĤEΔM-MĤME	The madman.
ΔN ĤĤM-MĤME	Of the madman.
ΔN ċĤUΔċ-MÓNA	The turf-stack.
ĤΔ ĤĤUΔĤE-MÓNA	Of the turf-stack.
ΔN BÓ-BΔINNE	The milch cow.
ĤΔ BÓ-BΔINNE	Of the milch cow.
SĤIAN-ĤÓCA	A penknife.
ΔĤĤEΔO-ĤÓCA	Pocket money.

* There are some exceptions which should be committed to memory. Here are a few:—CEΔNN-ĤĤM, a cape; BEΔN-OĤΔ, a goddess; BEΔN-ĤĤEΔĤĤNA, a lady; ĤEΔN-OUMNE, an old man; BUΔN-ĤΔOĤΔĤE, 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 *νίορ* before the genitive singular feminine of the positive.

A whiter cat	κατ νίορ βάιμε.*
He is blacker than Hugh	τά γε νίορ ουίθε να Δουό.
He was blacker than Hugh	ὄι γε νίορ ουίθε να Δουό.

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

Una is darker than Mary	ιρ ουίθε υνα να μάιμε.
Una was darker than Mary	δυό ουίθε υνα να μάιμε.
She is a darker girl than Una	ιρ ουίθε αν καίλιν ί να υνα.
She was a darker girl than Una	δυό ουίθε αν καίλιν ί να υνα.
Nora is a darker girl.	ιρ καίλιν νίορ ουίθε νόρα.

* Κατ νίορ βάιμε, *i.e.*, κατ νιό α ιρ βάιμε = a cat *a thing which is* whiter. Νιό α ιρ was formerly written νιό-ρα, νίορα, and νίρα; and at present we write it as above. As may be seen, νίορ, *i.e.*, νιό α ιρ, sometimes becomes νι δυό, *i.e.*, νιό α δυό, the relative being omitted. It is usual to call νίορ the comparative sign.

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

Una was darker than Mary (is) *bí una níor tuisbe na máire.*

Una was darker than Mary (was) *bí una ní ba tuisbe 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 aruadh ríon níor míre na rin.

(2) { I never drank sweeter wine than that (was).
níor ól me aruadh ríon ba míre na rin.

(3) { I never drank wine which was sweeter than that.
1. *níor ól me aruadh ríon a bí níor míre na rin.*
2. *níor ól me aruadh ríon a bí ní ba míre na rin.*
3. *níor ól me aruadh ríon ba* míre na rin.*

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

I am as big as Mary *ta me co móp te máire.*

I am as big as you *ta me co móp leat-ra.*

I am as big as I was *ta me co móp a'p bí me.*

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 zual (a) ir tuiðe* = *an zual ir tuiðe*.

The blackest horse (present)	an zearrian ir tuiðe.
The blackest horse (past)	an zearrian ba tuiðe
You are the fairest	ir tú ir tpe.
You were the fairest	buð tú ba tpe
You are the fairest girl	ir tú an cailín ir tpe
You were the fairest girl	buð tú an cailín ba tpe.

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

He was the biggest man	buð é an fear ba mó.
He was the fleetest man	buð é an fear ba zuirte.
He was the best man	buð é an fear ab fearr
He was the youngest man	buð é an fear ab óige

(c) As principal verbs, *ir* and *buð* (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.

ir tú an fear ir zuirte a bithoar ran tír.
 ir tú an fear ir zuirte a béithoar ran tír.
 buð tú an fear ba zuirte a bithoar ran tír.
 buð tú an fear ba zuirte a béithoar ran tír.

N.B.—In comparing adjectives we use *níor* and *ir* as signs of the comparative and superlative, as, *ban*, *níor bánne*, *ir bánne*, white, whiter, whitest.

Irregular Comparison.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
μόρη, big, great	νίορ μό	ιρ μό.
βεάς, small	νίορ λύξ	ιρ λύξ.
μαίτ, good	νίορ φεάηη	ιρ φεάηη.
οίε, bad	νίορ μεάηα	ιρ μεάηα.
φάσα, long	νίορ φαιθε	ιρ φαιθε.
τειτ, hot, warm	νίορ τεό	ιρ τεό.
φυφυρ, easy	νίορ φυφα	ιρ φυφα.
είνητε, sure	νίορ είνητιξε	ιρ είνητιξε.
μίνιε, often	νίορ μιονεα	ιρ μιονεα.
ζαηηεα, smart, clever	νίορ ζυηητε	ιρ ζυηητε.
ζεάηηη } short.	νίορ ζιοηηηα	ιρ ζιοηηηα.
ζαηηηο }		

Position of Adjectives.

Adjectives are placed after the nouns they qualify, as τελέε μορη, a big house. Όμοε, bad, and φεαν, old, and all the simple numerals stand before their nouns. When ζεάηηη stands after its noun it means *short*, but when it stands before the noun it means *medium-sized*. φίοη, true, often discharges the function of a prefix; it then has a different meaning, as φίοη-υηηξε, real-water, *i.e.*, spring-water. Sometimes it acts as an intensive particle, as, φίοη-ζηάηηηα, very ugly. Όεάξ, good (in a moral sense) always precedes its noun, and is really a prefix, as, θεάξ-όυηηε, 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, *tuine*, a person, *fean*, a man, *bean*, a woman, etc.

The biggest is black	Ṭá an ceann ir mó dub.
The eldest is a good girl	Ṭá an bean ir ríne na caílnín máit.
Give me the reddest	Ṭá d'air d'áin an ceann ir deirge.
You have the best	Ṭá an ceann ir feárrí aḡat-rá.


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	fean móir aḡur bean beaḡ.
Big men and small women	feir móira aḡur mná beaḡa.

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

The cows are <i>big</i>	Ṭá na ba móir.
The big cows are <i>black</i>	Ṭá na ba moira dub.
He made the knives <i>sharp</i>	Ríḡne ré na rḡiana ḡeir.
He made the sharp knives	Ríḡne ré na rḡiana ḡeirí.

 The adjective *oíoc* cannot stand alone as predicate. Hence it would be wrong to say *Ṭa an b'ó oíoc*, 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	fean aḡur bean máit.
A good woman and man	bean aḡur fean máit.
The good man and woman	an fean aḡur an bean máit.
The good woman and man	an bean aḡur an fean máit.

(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 úrioc fèar!
O ye bad men !	á úrioc fèara !
The head of the old horse	Ceann an t-gean éarraill.

(e) The intensive particles an, iú, rár, fíor, 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>	iomlan an báir.
<i>The half of this boat</i>	Leath an báir ro.
<i>The third of the man's boat</i>	Trian báir an fíri.

(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 το 'n αριαν.
Plenty of the bread	νεαρτ το 'n αριαν.
Much of this bread	μοριαν το 'n αριαν πο.
Little of that bread	θεαζαν το 'n αριαν ριν.
Some of the bread	κυρο το 'n αριαν.
More of the bread	τυιλλεαδ το 'n αριαν.
A fair-share of the bread	κυρο μαιτ το 'n αριαν.
The full of a boat of the bread	λάν βάιτο το 'n αριαν.
A spoonful of the honey	λάν ρρανοιζε το 'n μιτ.

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

Plenty of bread	νεαρτ αριαν or νεαρτ το αριαν.
Much bread	μοριαν αριαν ,, μοριαν το αριαν.
Little bread	θεαζα n αριαν ,, θεαζαν το αριαν.
Full of bread	λάν αριαν ,, λάν το αριαν.

Numeral Adjectives.

CARDINALS.

ORDINALS.

1. Δον.	1st δευτο.
2. οά, οβ.	2nd ταρα.
3. τρι.	3rd τριμαδ, τρεαρ.
4. τετρε, τεταρι.	4th τετραδ.
5. κυις.	5th κυιγεαδ.
6. ρε.	6th ρειρεαδ, ρεμεαδ.
7. ρεαδτ.	7th ρεαδταδ.
8. οδτ.	8th οδταδ.
9. ναοι.	9th ναομαδ.
10. δειδ.	10th δειδεαδ.
11. Δον-δευς.	11th Δοναδ-δευς.
12. οδ-δευς.	12th οδμαδ-δευς.
13. τρι-δευς.	13th τριμεαδ-δευς.
14. τεταρι-δευς.	14th τετραδ-δευς.

CARDINALS.

15. cúig-*deug*.
 16. ré-*deug*.
 17. *reáct-deug*.
 18. oét-*deug*.
 19. naoi-*deug*.
 20. *fié*.
 21. aon *á* *r* *fié*.
 22. *do* *á* *r* *fié*.
 23. *trí* *á* *r* *fié*.
 24. *ceátrai* *á* *r* *fié*.
 25. cúig *á* *r* *fié*.
 26. ré *á* *r* *fié*.
 27. *reáct* *á* *r* *fié*.
 28. oét *á* *r* *fié*.
 29. naoi *á* *r* *fié*.
 30. *deic* *á* *r* *fié*.
 31. aon-*deug* *á* *r* *fié*.
 40. *da* *fiéir*.
 50. *deic* *á* *r* *da* *fiéir*.
 60. *trí* *fiéir*.
 70. *deic* *á* *r* *trí* *fiéir*.
 80. *ceitpe* *fiéir*.
 90. *deic* *á* *r* *ceitpe*
 fiéir.
 100. *céad*.
 200. *da* *céad*.
 300. *trí* *céad*.


ORDINALS.

- 15th *cúigead-deug*.
 16th *reiread-deug*,
 rémead-deug.
 17th *reáctad-deug*.
 18th *oéad-deug*.
 19th *naoimad-deug*.
 20th *fiéad*.
 21st *aonad air fiéir*.^{*}
 22nd *domad air fiéir*.
 23rd *trímead air fiéir*.
 24th *ceátriad air fiéir*.
 25th *cúigead air fiéir*.
 26th *rémead air fiéir*.
 27th *reáctad air fiéir*.
 28th *oéad air fiéir*.
 29th *naoimad air fiéir*.
 30th *deicead air fiéir*.
 31st *aonad-deug air fiéir*.
 40th *da fiéirdead*.
 50th *deicead air da fiéir*.
 60th *trí fiéirdead*.
 70th *deicead air trí fiéir*.
 80th *ceitpe fiéirdead*.
 90th *deicead air ceitpe*
 fiéir.
 100th *céadad*.
 200th *da céadad*.
 300th *trí céadad*.

* *Asur fié* may also be used.

400. <i>ceĩrre</i> <i>céav</i> .	400th <i>ceĩrre</i> <i>céavav</i> .
500. <i>cũĩz</i> <i>céav</i> .	500th <i>cũĩz</i> <i>céavav</i> .
600. <i>pe</i> <i>céav</i> .	600th <i>pe</i> <i>céavav</i> .
700. <i>peavt</i> <i>z-céav</i> .	700th <i>peavt</i> <i>z-céavav</i> .
800. <i>oçt</i> <i>z-céav</i> .	800th <i>oçt</i> <i>z-céavav</i> .
900 <i>navi</i> <i>z-céav</i> .	900th <i>navi</i> <i>z-céavav</i> .
1000 <i>vaiç</i> <i>z-céav</i> ; <i>mĩte</i> .	1000th <i>mĩteav</i> .

N.B.—*riçe*, *céav*, and *mĩte* are declined: *riçe*, gen. *riçav*, dat *riçiv*, plural *riçiv*; *céav*, gen. *céiv*, dat. *céav*, plural *céavtavĩ*; *mĩte* (4th decl.) plural *mĩtve* and *mĩtvĩ*. The article must be placed before the ordinals, and *n* must be used when the numeral begins with a vowel, as, *an n-avav*, *an n-oçtav*. This *n* is also used with the cardinals when the article is used, as, *an n-avn*, *an n-oçt*.

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

First, Last, Once, Twice, &c.

The first man	<i>an çev</i> <i>peav</i> .
The last man	<i>an peav</i> <i>vaiçevavav</i> .
Do this first	<i>vav</i> <i>ro avçev</i> <i>vav</i> , <i>av</i> <i>v-tũr</i> , <i>av</i> <i>çũr</i> .
He did it at last	<i>riçve</i> <i>pe é va</i> <i>vaiçev</i> , <i>va</i> <i>vaiçev</i> .
He is first	<i>tav</i> <i>pe av</i> <i>v-tovav</i> .
He is last	<i>tav</i> <i>pe av</i> <i>vaiçev</i> .
The first time	<i>an çev</i> <i>vav</i> .
The last time	<i>an vav</i> <i>vaiçevavav</i> .
How many times?	<i>çv</i> <i>vev</i> <i>vav</i> ?
Once, twice	<i>vav</i> <i>avĩavn</i> , <i>vav</i> <i>vav</i> .
Thrice	<i>tvĩ</i> <i>h-vavve</i> .
Four times	<i>ceĩrve</i> <i>h-vavve</i> .
Seven times	<i>sevavt</i> <i>n-vavve</i> .


The Numeral Substantives.

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

βειρητ, two.	ρειρηαρ, six.
τριύρι, three.	ρεαάταρι, seven.
σεαάταρι, four.	οάταρι, eight.
κούρηαρ, five.	νονθαρι, nine.
οειάνηαρ (or οειάνηαθαρι) ten.	

(b) They take the singular of the article : αν βειρητ, αν τριύρι; αν σεαάταρι; αν κούρηαρ; αν ρειρηαρ, αν ρεαάταρι, αν η-οάταρι; αν νονθαρι, αν οειάνηαρ. Note that βειρητ, κούρηαρ, and σεαάταρι are influenced by the article.

Use of the Numerals.

(1) In counting, in the abstract, we must never use όα or σειάρε. In translating numerals we begin with the small numbers; thus, 35 = κούρη-οευς άρ ρίσε; 3472 = όό-οευς άρ τρι ρίάιό αρηυρ σειάρε σεάο αρι (or αρηυρ) έρι mίte. When a numeral is conveniently small, and a multiple of ρίσε or σεάο, it is better to count by multiples. Thus, 120 is ρέ ρίάιό; 140, ρεαάτ θ-ρίάιό; 1200, όά σεάο οευς; 1500, κούρη σεάο οευς.  When σεάο is absent, ρίσε and mίte do not go well together; hence 1020 must be written ρέ ρίάιό αρηυρ ηαοι η-σεάο, not ρίσε αρηυρ mίte, or mίte αρηυρ ρίσε 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 *de* and the dative case, or a cardinal and *claiḡeann* (skull, pl. *claiḡne*) with *de* and a dative.

Five of the men { *Cúḡeap de na rir.*
Cúḡ claiḡne de na rir.

Five of the tribe { *Cuḡeap de 'n t'riam.*
Cúḡ claiḡne de 'n t'riam.

(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 *claiḡeann* or *ceann*; *ceann* in the case of irrational animals and things, *claiḡeann* in the case of persons.


How many men? *Five* = ---? *Cuḡeap* or *Cúḡ claiḡne.*

How many cows? *Five* = ---? *Cuḡeap* „ *Cúḡ cinn.*

How many boats? *Five* = ---? *Cuḡeap* „ *Cúḡ 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) *Seachtar fear.*
 (2) *Seacht b-rir.*
 (3) *Seacht ḡ-claiḡne fear.*

 The two are here = *ta an beirt ann ro*; the three are here = *ta an triúr ann ro*, &c.

(5) In answer to, “what time is it?”

One	or one o'clock	<i>An* h-aon.</i>
Two	„ two o'clock	<i>An dó.</i>
Three	„ three o'clock	<i>An trí.</i>
Four	„ four o'clock	<i>An ceathair.</i>
Five	„ five o'clock	<i>An cuḡ.</i>
Eight	„ eight o'clock	<i>An h-oct.</i>
Eleven	„ eleven o'clock	<i>An h-aon-óeuz.</i>
Twelve	„ twelve o'clock	<i>An dó-óeuz.</i>

* This is the article.

Noon	Ἀν μεσῶον ἡμε.
Midnight	Ἀν μεσῶον οἰῶσε.
A quarter past two	Ἐσατῆμαὸ ἅ ν-οιατῆ ἅν ὀό.
Half past two	ἑσατ ἅ ν-οιατῆ ἅν ὀό.
A quarter to three	Ἐσατῆμαὸ ἕο ὀ-τί 'ν τῆί.
What o'clock is it?	ἕο ὀέ 'ν ἐλοῖ ἅ ἔ-ῖνιλ ῖέ?
What time is it?	ἕο ὀέ 'ν τ-ἅμ ἅ ἔ-ῖνιλ ῖέ?
It is five o'clock	τᾶ ῖέ ἅν κύιῖ ο ἐλοῖ.

(d) With adjective and noun :

One white horse	Ἐπαλλ ἅμἅμἅν βᾶν.
Two white horses	ὀᾶ Ἐπαλλ βᾶνα.
Three white horses	τῆί Ἐπαλλ βᾶνα.
Seven white horses	ἑσατ ἕ-Ἐπαλλ βᾶνα.
Twelve white horses	ὀᾶ Ἐπαλλ ὀεῖῖ βᾶνα.
Twelve white cows	ὀᾶ ἔνιμ ὀεῖῖ βᾶνα.
Fifteen white horses	κύιῖ Ἐπαλλ ὀεῖῖ βᾶνα.
Thirty-five white horses	κύιῖ Ἐπαλλ ὀεῖῖ ἄῖῖ ῖίε βᾶνα.
120 white horses	ἑ ῖίε Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
360 white horses	τῆί ῖίε ἄῖῖ τῆί ἐέἅ Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
1080 white horses	ἡἅοι ἔ-ῖίε ἄῖῖ ἡἅοι ἕ-ἐέἅ Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
6480 white horses	Ἐίτῆ ῖίε ἄῖῖ Ἐίτῆ ἐέἅ ἄῖῖ ῖέ ἡίλε Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
185 white horses	κύιῖ Ἐπαλλ ἄῖῖ ἡἅοι ἔ-ῖίε Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
930 white horses	ὀεῖ ἕ-Ἐπαλλ ἄῖῖ ῖίε ἄῖῖ ἡἅοι ἕ-ἐέἅ Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
1050 white horses	ὀεῖ ἕ-Ἐπαλλ, ῖεἅτ ἔ-ῖίε ἄῖῖ ἡἅοι ἕ-ἐέἅ Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.
5550 white horses	ὀεῖ ἕ-Ἐπαλλ ἄῖῖ ὀᾶ ῖίε, κύιῖ ἐέἅ ἄῖῖ κύιῖ ἡίλε Ἐπαλλ βᾶν.

N.B.—Remark that when a number is not a multiple of ῖίε 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 ῖίε, 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 *πίε*, thus :

Twenty-three cows.	Τρί βα πίεασ.
Twenty-four cows.	Οετμε βα πίεασ.
Twenty-five cows.	Ούις βα πίεασ.

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 ΟΟ and ΟΕΛΤΑΙΗ.

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, ΔΟΗ, ΟΟ, ΤΡΙ, ΟΕΛΤΑΙΗ, ΟΟ-ΘΕΥΣ, ΟΕΛΤΑΙΗ-ΘΕΥΣ, ΟΕΛΤΑΙΗ ΔΣΥΡ ΠΙΕ, &c.
- (2) In stating time, as, ΤΑ ΡΕ ΑΗ ΟΟ, It is two (o'clock).
- (3) In stating amount of money, as, Ούις ΡΥΝΤΑ ΔΣΥΡ ΑΗ ΟΟ, Five pounds two (£5 2s. od.); ΤΑ ΑΗ ΟΕΛΤΑΙΗ ΔΣΥΡ ΡΥΝΤΑ ΔΣΑΗ, I have one pound four (£1 4s. od.)

THE NUMERAL ΟΑ.

(1) The numeral ΟΑ can only be used with a noun, the initial of which it aspirates, as ΟΑ ΕΡΑΤΤ, ΟΑ ΕΑΟΡΑ.

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

and if the noun be feminine, it will be the dative form, as, $\alpha\eta \tau\acute{\alpha} \epsilon\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\iota$, the two horses; $\alpha\eta \tau\acute{\alpha} \beta\upsilon\mu\eta$, the two cows.

(3) If the noun be genitive, it will be genitive plural, as, $\iota\acute{\alpha}\nu \Delta \tau\acute{\alpha} \iota\acute{\alpha}\mu\eta$, the full of his two hands.

(4) It takes the adjective, and pronoun referring to its noun, in the plural, as, $\tau\acute{\alpha} \tau\acute{\alpha} \beta\upsilon\mu\eta \delta\zeta\Delta \Delta\zeta\Delta\mu \Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho \tau\Delta \mu\iota\Delta\tau \tau\acute{\iota}\eta\eta$, I have two young cows and they are sick.

(5) Its dot disappears in presence of the article and also in presence of $\Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho$ when it ($\Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho$) forms part of the numeral, as, $\alpha\eta \tau\acute{\alpha} \beta\upsilon\mu\eta$, the two cows; $\tau\acute{\alpha} \epsilon\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\iota \Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho \tau\acute{\alpha} \mu\acute{\iota}\epsilon\iota\tau\circ$, forty-two horses.

$\mu\acute{\iota}\epsilon$, $\epsilon\acute{\epsilon}\Delta\tau$, $\mu\acute{\iota}\lambda\epsilon$, $\epsilon\Delta \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\circ?$

These numerals are declined and have, therefore, the nature of nouns. Hence they govern the nouns that follow them in the genitive case, as, $\mu\acute{\iota}\epsilon \beta\acute{o}$, twenty cows, *i.e.*, a twenty of cows; $\epsilon\acute{\epsilon}\Delta\tau \beta\acute{o}$, a hundred (of) cows; $\mu\acute{\iota}\lambda\epsilon \beta\acute{o}$, a thousand (of) cows.

$\epsilon\Delta \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\circ?$ or $\epsilon\Delta \mu\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\tau\circ?$ How many? is followed by the genitive, as $\epsilon\Delta \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\circ \beta\acute{o}?$ How many (of) cows? If we change "how many?" into "how much?" we must also change " $\epsilon\Delta \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\circ$ " into " $\zeta\omicron \tau\acute{\epsilon} \eta\eta \mu\acute{\epsilon}\iota\tau\circ?$ " or " $\zeta\omicron \tau\acute{\epsilon} \eta\eta \mu\acute{\epsilon}\iota\tau\circ?$ " For example, we must not say, $\epsilon\Delta \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\circ \Delta\mu\iota\alpha\eta\eta?$ but $\zeta\omicron \tau\acute{\epsilon} \eta\eta \mu\acute{\epsilon}\iota\tau\circ \Delta\mu\iota\alpha\eta\eta?$ how much (of) bread? Speaking of money, however, we say, $\epsilon\Delta \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\circ \Delta\tau\acute{\alpha} \Delta\zeta\Delta\tau?$ how much have you?—probably because money is usually counted.

Functions of Numerals.

(1) Δον, ἕνθ, ὅδ, τὸδ, and τρεῖς cause aspiration.

(2) Τη, κεῖτε, κύϊς, ῥέ, cause no initial change except in the word ἑάδ, a hundred, μίλε, a thousand, a mile.

(3) All the ordinals, except ἕνθ and τρεῖς cause no initial change.

(4) Σεάτ, οὐτ, ναοί, and οειὸ eclipse—but they have no power over ρ.

Δον ὅδ ἀγυρ ὅδ ἑάορδ

One cow and two sheep.

Δη ἕνθ ἑαπάλλ

The first horse.

Τά ῥε ἀη ὀο-ὀεϋς

It is twelve (o'clock).

Σέ βδ ἀγυρ οὐτ ῥ-εαπάλλ

Six cows and eight horses.

Κύϊς ἑάδ εαπάλλ

Five hundred horses.

The Personal Pronouns.

The personal pronouns are μέ, I; τυ, thou or you; ῥέ, he, it; and ρί, she, it. They are defective in the genitive case.

Modern grammarians maintain that μο, my; ὀο, thy; δ, his, are genitives of μέ, τυ, and ῥέ. If σὸ, they are personal pronouns. But personal pronouns always stand for, and are, consequently, used in the absence of a noun. Hence, as μο, ὀο, and δ cannot stand in the absence of a noun, it is plain that they cannot be personal pronouns. Therefore, they are not genitives of me, τυ, ρε.

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

Thus, *striking me*, becomes *to my striking*, το, μο
 ὕαλαδ̄.

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.

Nom. me, I.

Dat. ὄαῖν, to me.

Acc. me, me.

PLURAL.

ῖνν, we.

ὄύινν, to us.

ῖνν, us.

mé (emphatic).

Nom. μῖρε, I.

Dat. ὄαῖνρα, to me.

Acc. μῖρε, me.

ῖννε, we.

ὄύιννε, to us.

ῖννε, us.

mé (reflexive).

Nom. me-ῖεῖν, I myself.

Dat. ὄαῖν-ῖεῖν, to myself.

Acc. me-ῖεῖν, myself.

ῖνν-ῖεῖν, we, ourselves.

ὄύινν-ῖεῖν, to ourselves.

ῖνν-ῖεῖν, ourselves.

THE PRONOUN *τῦ*.

Nom. τῦ, thou, you

Dat. ὄουτ, to thee, to you

Acc. ἐῦ, thee, you

Voc. ἐῦ! O thou!

ῖῦ, you, ye.

ὄῖῦ, ὄαοῖῦ, to you.

ῖῦ, you, ye.

ῖῦ! O you! O ye!

Τῦ (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> τυρα, thou, you.	ριῦρε, you, ye.
<i>Dat.</i> οἰιτρε, to thee.	οἰῦρε, to you.
<i>Acc.</i> ἔτυρα, thee, you.	ριῦρε, you.

Τῦ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> τῦ-ῤέιν, thou, thyself.	ριῦ-ῤέιν, you, yourselves.
<i>Dat.</i> οἰιτ-ῤέιν, to thyself.	οἰῦ-ῤέιν, to yourselves.
<i>Acc.</i> ἔτῦ-ῤέιν, thyself.	ριῦ-ῤέιν, yourselves.

THE PRONOUN ΣΕ.

<i>Nom.</i> ρε, he, it.	ριασ, they.
<i>Dat.</i> οό, to him.	οοἰῦ, οοαοῦττα, * to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ἐ, him.	ιασ, them.

ΣΕ (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> ρερεαν, he, it.	ριασραν, they.
<i>Dat.</i> οόραν, to him, it.	οοαοῦτταραν, to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ερεαν, him, it.	ιασραν, them.

ΣΕ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> ρε-ῤέιν, he himself.	ριασ-ῤέιν, they themselves.
<i>Dat.</i> οό-ῤέιν, to himself.	οοαοῦττα-ῤέιν, to themselves.
<i>Acc.</i> ἐ-ῤέιν, himself.	ιασ-ῤέιν, themselves.

THE PRONOUN ΣΙ.

<i>Nom.</i> ρι, she, it.	ριασ, they.
<i>Dat.</i> οἰιτε, οἰ, to her.	οοαοῦττα, to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ι, her, it.	ιασ, them.

* or οοἰοῦττα.

SÍ (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> ρίρε, she, it.	ρίαοραν, they.
<i>Dat.</i> ρουίτερε, to her.	ροαοβ̄τ̄αραν, to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ιρε, her, it.	ιαοραν, them.

SÍ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> ρί-ρέιν, she, herself.	ρίαο-ρέιν, they themselves.
<i>Dat.</i> ρουίτε-ρέιν, to herself.	ροαοβ̄τ̄α-ρέιν, to themselves.
<i>Acc.</i> ί-ρέιν, herself.	ιαο-ρέιν, themselves.

☞ The forms *μίρε, τυρά, &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 *ρε*, or *ρα*. These terminations in the third person plural and third person singular masculine, become *ραν*, while, in the first person plural, *ρ* becomes *ν* by assimilation. So that instead of *ριννρε* we have *ρινννε*, or as it is shortened, *ριννε*.

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

The Affected Pronouns.

The so-called affected pronouns are *με, τυ, έ, ί, ιαο, ρινν* and *ριβ̄*. They are the secondary or accusative forms of the personal pronouns. They are used as

nominatives (1) with the verb $\eta\rho$, and (2) with passive verbs.

$\eta\rho$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho\iota$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\epsilon$ $\acute{\epsilon}\tau\acute{\iota}$	You are a good man.
$\eta\rho$ $\rho\eta\iota$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\epsilon$ $\acute{\iota}\alpha\omicron$	They are good men.
$\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\lambda\epsilon\alpha\acute{\omicron}$ $\acute{\epsilon}\tau\acute{\iota}$	You were beaten.
$\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\lambda\epsilon\alpha\acute{\omicron}$ $\acute{\epsilon}$	He was beaten.



When $\acute{\epsilon}\tau\acute{\iota}$ comes beside $\eta\rho$ it shakes off the dot :
 ρ $\tau\upsilon$ $\alpha\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho\iota$.

The Prepositional Pronouns.

When a preposition comes before a personal pronoun it unites with it. Thus $\alpha\zeta$ me becomes $\alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$; $\alpha\zeta$ $\tau\acute{\iota}$ becomes $\alpha\zeta\alpha\tau$, &c. The combinations thus obtained are called prepositional pronouns. The following are important :—

$\alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$ ($\alpha\zeta$ + me).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
$\alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$, at me.	$\alpha\zeta\alpha\iota\mu\eta$, at us.
$\alpha\zeta\alpha\tau$, at thee, at you.	$\alpha\zeta\alpha\iota\upsilon$, at you.
$\alpha\zeta\epsilon$, $\alpha\iota\varsigma\iota$, at him, at her.	$\alpha\varsigma\acute{\upsilon}$, at them.

EMPHATIC.

$\alpha\zeta\alpha\mu\eta$, at me.	$\alpha\zeta\alpha\iota\mu\eta\eta$, at us.
$\alpha\zeta\alpha\tau\eta$, at thee.	$\alpha\zeta\alpha\iota\upsilon\eta$, at you.
$\alpha\zeta\epsilon\eta$, $\alpha\iota\varsigma\iota\eta$, at him, &c.	$\alpha\varsigma\acute{\upsilon}\eta$, at them.

REFLEXIVE.

$\alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$, (at myself).	$\alpha\zeta\alpha\iota\mu\eta$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$.
$\alpha\zeta\alpha\tau$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$,	$\alpha\zeta\alpha\iota\upsilon$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$.
$\alpha\zeta\epsilon$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$, $\alpha\iota\varsigma\iota$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$,	$\alpha\varsigma\acute{\upsilon}$ - $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$.

$\eta\mu\omicron\mu$ (te + me).

$\eta\mu\omicron\mu$, with me.	$\eta\mu\eta$, with us.
$\eta\mu\alpha\tau$, with thee.	$\eta\mu\upsilon$, with you.
$\eta\mu\eta\iota$, $\eta\mu\epsilon\iota\tau\epsilon$, with him, &c.	$\eta\mu\omicron\upsilon\tau\alpha$, $\eta\mu\omicron$, with them.

ORM (αρ + me).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
ορμ, on me.	ορμῖνν,* on us.
ορτ, on thee.	ορμῖθ, on you.
αρ, οἱρτί, on him, on her.	ορτευ, ορτεα, on them.

IONNΔIM (ανν + me)

ιοννΔιμ, in me.	ιοννΔινν, in us.
ιοννΔτ, in thee.	ιοννΔιθ, in you.
ανν, ιονντί, in him, in her.	ιονντευ; in them.

TOΔIM (το + me).

τοΔιμ, τοδιμ, to me.	τουῖνν, to us.
τουτ, to thee.	τουῖθ, τῖθ, to you.
τό, τουῖτε or τῖ, to him, &c.	τοΔοβτεα, τῖθ, to them.

N.B.—The τ of τῖ is thick.

TOIM (τε + me).

τοιμ, from me.	τῖνν, from us.
τοιτ, from thee.	τῖθ, from you.
τέ, τουῖτε or τῖ, from him, &c.	τῖοβτεα, from them.

Pronounced as follows:—

τοΔομ	τοΔοινν
τοΔοτ	τοΔοιθ
τοΔε, τουῖτε or τουῖ	τοΔοβτεα

ΔSAM (αρ + me).

Δραμ, out of me.	Δραινν, out of us.
Δρατ, out of thee.	Δραιθ, out of you.
αρ, Διρτί, out of him, &c.	Δρτευ, Δρτεα, out of them.

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

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ΕΥΣΑΜ (εὐμ + me).

εὐσαμ, unto me.

εὐσαιμν, unto us.

εὐσατ, unto thee.

εὐσαιβ, unto you.

εὐσε, εὐσι, unto him, &c.

εὐσεύ, εὐσεα, unto them.

Pronounce, ηυσαμ, ηυσατ, &c.

ΡΥΜ (ρῶι + me).

ρῦμ, under me.

ρῦμν, under us.

ρῦτ, under thee.

ρῦβ, under you.

ρῶι, ρῦτε, under him, &c.

ρῦτα, under them.

Also,

ρῶμ

ρῶμν

ρῶτ

ρῶιβ

ρῶι, ρῦτε

ρῶιβτα

ΥΔΙΜ (ο + me).

υδιμ, from me.

υδιμν, from us.

υδιτ, from thee.

υδιβ, from you.

υα, υδιτε, from him, &c.

υδιβτα, from them.

ΕΔΩΡΑΜ (ιτωρ + me).

εδωραμ, between me.

εδωραμν, between us.

εδωρατ, between thee.

εδωραιβ, between you.

τωρ ε, ι, between him, &c.

εδωρου, between them.

ΡΘΗΑΜ (ρηιη + me).

ρηαμ, before me.

ρηαμν, before us.

ρηατ, before thee.

ρηαιβ, before you.

ρηιη, ρηιηρι, before him, &c.

ρηιηρι, before them.

ΤΑΡΑΜ (ταρ + me).

ταραμ, over me.

ταραμν, over us.

ταρατ, over thee.

ταραιβ, over you.

ταριρ, ταριριτι, over him, &c.

ταριριτι, over them.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ΤΡΙΟΜ (τρέ + me).

τρίομ, through me.

τρίνν, through us.

τρίοτ, through thee.

τρίβ, through you.

τρίο, τρίτε, through him.

τρίοῦτᾶ, through them.

ΦΡΙΟΜ (φρίο + me).

φρίομ, through me.

φρίνν, through us.

φρίοτ, through thee.

φρίβ, through you.

φρίο, φρίτε, through him, &c.

φρίοῦτᾶ, through them.

ΔΗΗΣΟΡΜ * (δηησαιρ + me).

δηησορμ, to me.

δηησορμινν, to us.

δηησορτ, to thee.

δηησορμιβ, to you.

δηησαιρ, δηησοιρτι, to him, &c.

δηησοιρτιύ, to them.

The Possessive Adjectives.

The possessive adjectives are μο, my; το, thy; α, his, her, its; ηρ, our; ουρ, your; and α, 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 α (his), cause aspiration, while ηρ, ουρ, and α (their), cause eclipsis in the noun, and prefix η in case the latter begins with a vowel. α, her, causes no change except in the case of words beginning with a vowel. See next Chapter.

μο εόιρσε αζυρ μο εαραιλλ

My coach and my horses.

το εόιρσε αζυρ το εαραιλλ


Thy coach and thy horses.

α εόιρσε αζυρ α εαραιλλ

His coach and his horses.


* Δηησορμ = δηη + ρο + ορμ.

Δ κόϊροε Δζυρ Δ καραλλ	Her coach and her horses.
Δη ζ-κόϊροε Δζυρ Δη ζ-καραλλ	Our coach and our horses.
βυη ζ-κόϊροε Δζυρ βυη ζ-καραλλ	Your coach and your horses.
Δ ζ-κόϊροε Δζυρ Δ ζ-καραλλ	Their coach and their horses.
μο έαραλλ μόη βάν-ρα	<i>My</i> big white horse.

 **ῥέιν**, 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, **μο έαραλλ μόη ῥέιν**, My own big horse.

THE POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE Δ.

Δ, his, aspirates : Δ βό, his cow.	} b. c. ο. ρ. ζ. π. τ.
Δ, her, does not : Δ βό, her cow.	
Δ, their, eclipses : Δ m-βό, their cow.	
Δ, his, no change : Δ αναμ, his soul.	} Vowels.
Δ, her, takes h : Δ h-αναμ, her soul.	
Δ, their, takes n : Δ n-αναμ, their soul.	
Δ, his, aspirates : Δ ῥάιτ, his fill.	} ρ and m.
Δ, her, no change : Δ ῥάιτ, her fill.	
Δ, their, no change ; Δ ῥάιτ, their fill.	
Δ, his, no change : Δ νάιμε, his shame.	} λ. η. η.
Δ, her, do. Δ νάιμε, her shame.	
Δ, their do. Δ νάιμε, their shame.	

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

Ο η-α ζῆμάό or Ο ηα ζῆμάό.	From his love.
ῥαοι η-α κοίρ or ῥαοι ηα κοίρ	Under her foot.
λε η-α η-ζῆμάό or λε ηα η-ζῆμάό	With their love.


Exception : οο and οε blend with the possessive :

ταβαηη ρευη οα έαραλλ.	Give hay to his horse.
βαιη ζευζ οα έηαηη	Cut a branch from his tree.

ELISION OF O.

The vowel *o* of *mo* and *το* is elided before a word beginning with a vowel or *ρ*.

Μ'ἀτάρι ἀγυρ μ'ῥεαρι. My father and my husband.
 Ὀ'ἀραλ ἀγυρ ὀ'ῤιθεός. Your donkey and your whistle.

 Translate *το* by “thy” or “your,” and *τού* by “thou,” or “you”; but never translate “you” by *ρῦθ* 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:—*Σαζαμῖρα*, my; *ραζατῖρα*, thy; *ραζερεαν*, his; *ραζιρε*, her; *ραζαῖνε*, our; *ραζαῖβρε*, your; *ραζαραν*, their. They are combinations of *ρο*, this, and the several parts of the prepositional pronoun *αζαμῖρα*.


Τεαὲ ραζαῖνε. Our house.
 Βαῖτε ραζαῖβρε. Your town.

Prepositional Adjectives.

The possessive adjectives *mo*, *το*, *α*, &c., often blend with the prepositions *ανν*, in; *το*, to; *τε*, with; and *ο*, from. This rarely applies to *ανν* except in idiomatic expressions, where a state is meant.

In my = <i>ανν mo</i> = <i>μο</i> .	To my = <i>το mo</i> .
In thy = <i>ανν το</i> = <i>το</i> .	To thy = <i>το το</i> .
In his = <i>ανν α</i> = <i>να</i> .	To his = <i>το α</i> = <i>οα</i> . *
In her = <i>ανν αῖ</i> = <i>να</i> .	To her = <i>το α</i> = <i>οα</i> .
In our = <i>ανν αῖρ</i> = <i>ναῖρ</i> .	To our = <i>το αῖρ</i> = <i>οαῖρ</i> .

* *οα* is also a contraction of *οε α* = (1) of his (2) of which.

In your = $\alpha\eta\eta$ $\beta\upsilon\mu$ = $\beta\upsilon\mu$.	To your = $\tau\omicron$ $\beta\upsilon\mu$.
In their = $\alpha\eta\eta$ Δ = $\eta\Delta$.	To their = $\tau\omicron$ Δ = $\tau\Delta$.
With his (her, their) = $\iota\epsilon$ η - Δ = $\iota\epsilon$ $\eta\Delta$ = $\iota\epsilon\eta\Delta$.	
From his (her, their) = \omicron η - Δ = \omicron $\eta\Delta$ = $\omicron\eta\Delta$.	
$\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$ $\tau\omicron$ $\delta\alpha\iota\tau\eta\eta$ $\mu\acute{\alpha}\iota\tau$	You are a good girl.
$\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\mu\epsilon$ $\mu\omicron$ $\delta\omicron\tau\lambda\alpha\theta$	I am sleeping.
$\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\rho\epsilon$ $\eta\Delta$ $\acute{\rho}\upsilon\tau\eta\zeta\epsilon$	He is sitting.
$\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\rho\acute{\iota}$ $\eta\Delta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho\alpha\theta$	She is standing.
 $\Delta\eta\eta$ $\mu\omicron$ $\tau\acute{\iota}\mu$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$	In my own country.

The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronouns are, Δ , who, which, that, and $\eta\Delta\delta$, who...not, which...not, that...not. [$\eta\theta\omicron\delta$, 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	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\Delta\mu\eta\eta\Delta$.
The man who does not, &c.	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\eta\Delta\delta$ η - $\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta\eta$ $\Delta\mu\eta\eta\Delta$.
The man who marries Norah	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\rho\acute{o}\rho\alpha\rho$ $\eta\theta\acute{\mu}\alpha$.
The man who does not, &c.	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\eta\Delta\delta$ η - $\rho\acute{o}\rho\alpha\eta\eta\eta$ $\eta\theta\acute{\mu}\alpha$.
The man who struck James	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\iota$ $\Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\rho$.
The man who was striking J.	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\beta\acute{\iota}$ $\Delta\zeta$ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\lambda\alpha\theta$ $\Sigma\eta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\rho$.

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE.

The bread which I eat	$\Delta\eta$ τ - $\Delta\mu\eta\eta\Delta$ Δ $\iota\tau\acute{\iota}\mu$.
The bread which I do not eat	$\Delta\eta$ τ - $\Delta\mu\eta\eta\Delta$ $\eta\Delta\delta$ η - $\iota\tau\acute{\iota}\mu$.
The egg which I break	$\Delta\eta$ $\upsilon\beta$ Δ $\beta\mu\rho\rho\acute{\iota}\mu$.
The egg which I do not break	$\Delta\eta$ $\upsilon\beta$ $\eta\Delta\delta$ η - $\beta\mu\rho\rho\acute{\iota}\mu$.
The man whom Norah marries	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\rho\acute{o}\rho\alpha\rho$ $\eta\theta\acute{\mu}\alpha$.
The man whom N. does not marry	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\eta\Delta\delta$ η - $\rho\acute{o}\rho\alpha\eta\eta\eta$ η .
The man whom James struck	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\iota$ $\Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\rho$.
The man whom J. was striking	$\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\beta\acute{\iota}$ $\Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\rho$ $\Delta\zeta$ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\lambda\alpha\theta$.*

* 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 " $\Delta\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ Δ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\iota$ $\Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\rho$," 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,” = Δη ρεαρ ηρ υιοι με α τεαδ. The genitive of the relative is, therefore, revealed by the possessive adjective.

The hen whose foot I break	Δη σεαρη α βηρημ α κορ.
The hen whose foot I do not, &c.	Δη σεαρη ηαδ η-βηρημ α κορ.
The hen whose foot Una breaks	Δη σεαρη α βηρηεαρ υνα α κορ.
The hen whose foot U. does not, &c.	Δη σεαρη ηαδ η-βηρηεαν η, &c.
The man whose cow I sold	Δη ρεαρ ηρ υιοι με α βό.
The man whose cow I was selling	Δη ρεαρ α ηαιβ με ας υιοι α βό.
The man whose foot was smashed	Δη ρεαρ ηρ βηρηεαδ α κορ.
The man whose son was sick	Δη ρεαρ α ηαιβ α ηιασ τηη.

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* = Δη ρεαρ ηρ τυς με δη βό υό. 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
The man who has a cow

Δη ρεαρ αιη α β-ρηυλ κορα μοηα.
Δη ρεαρ αις α β-ρηυλ βό.

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

բար ձ շօջար շօժ	A man who lifts a stone.
բար ձ շօջ շօժ	A man who lifted a stone.
բար ձ ծ'Օլ սիրջ	A man who drank water.


 Never aspirate ՇԱ or ծարի; Ան շէ ԱՇԱ; Ան շէ Ա ծարի. *

(2) In negative sentences յաժ eclipses the initial of the verb, except in the perfect tense where ոք prevents it.

բար յաժ ծ-տւիջիմ	A man whom I do not understand.
բար յարի շիւջ մէ	A man whom I did not understand.
բար յաժ յ-Օլան	A man who does not drink.

(3) The relative ձ 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 ծօ and ծե.

ձ շ-շարիւմ 'ր.Ան լԱ	All that I spend per day.
ձ շ-շարիւնն 'ր.Ան լԱ	All that I spent per day.
Ար շարիւ մէ 'ր.Ան լԱ	All that I spent per day.
ձ Ծ-բար ձ յ-Երիւնն	All that is (or are) in Erin.
ձ Ծ-բար ծե Ար.Ան ԱՇԱ	All the bread that I have.
ծԱ Ծ-բար ձ յ-Երիւնն	Of all that is (or are) in Erin.
ԼԱ ծար երիւջ բրօնն	One day that Finn arose.
ԼԱ ծար = ԼԱ ծե ձ ոք = (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, շօջ Ան բար Ան

* The ձ in the classic Ածարիւմ is probably the relative ձ; it may have crept in like the ձ in ԱՇԱ, which is undoubtedly the relative.

έτοό άτά κοραμάιλ ιιομ-ρα (=The man lifted the stone which is like me!), nor, Άν ρεαρ άτά κοραμάιλ ιιομ-ρα έόζ αν έτοό, but, Έόζ αν ρεαρ άτά κοραμάιλ ιιομ-ρα αν έτοό. By a slight idiomatic change, however, we can say, Άν ρεαρ άτά κοραμάιλ ιιομ-ρα έόζ ρέ αν έτοό. 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 =

ήαρηβ ρέ αν κατ α ηαιβ αν ηαβαλλ * καρτα αιη.

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 Δ. The student should note that this form can only be used in the present and future tenses and that it is never used after ηαέ, which requires the habitual form where possible. This special form, which ends in αρ for the present tense, and ραρ for the future, is used as follows :—

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

Άν ρεαρ Δ όλαρ υηζε	The man who drinks water.
Άν ρεαρ Δ ρόραρ ηόρα	The man whom Norah marries.
Άν έό Δ όλαρ η. α βαηνε	The cow whose milk N. drinks.
Άηαν Δ έυηρεαρ η. ιμ αιη	Bread on which N. puts butter.
Άν τ-άηαν Δ ιέιμ	The bread which I eat.
Άν ρίον Δ όλανν ρέ	The wine which he drinks.
Οεαρη Δ έυηρημ Δ κορ	A hen whose foot I break.
Άηαν Δ έυηρεανν ρέ ιμ αιη	Bread on which he puts butter.

* This is the modern and contracted form of ίαρηβαλλ.

(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 fear a tógfar cloch	The man who will lift a stone.
an cloch a tógfar nóra	The stone which N. will lift.
fear a pórfar n. a nác	A man whose son N. will marry.
fear a cárfaí n. rópa ró	A man for whom N. will twist a rope.
an fíon a ólfaí m'ire	The wine which I shall drink.
an cloch a tógfaí tú	The stone which you will lift.
bó a b'írfear tú a cor	A cow whose foot you will break.
aran a c'uirfeáí ré im a'í	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 biaó c'aitfeáí Máire	The food Mary uses.
an biaó a c'aitfeáí Máire	The food which Mary uses.
an bó iarrfaí nóra orm	The cow Norah asks of me.
an bó a iarrfaí nóra orm	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 = *ir* tuit-re a iarrfaí fíonn 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.

ir orm-ra iarrfaí mo mátaí an t-uirgead	}
ir orm-ra a iarrfaí mo mátaí an t-uirgead	
ir ort-ra tíocefaí an náire, a Sheagáin	}
ir ort-ra a tíocefaí an náire, a Sheagáin	
ir a'í mháire c'uirfeáí mé an hata úr	}
ir a'í mháire a c'uirfeáí mé an hata úr	
ir do mháire tógfaí m'ire an t-uirge	}
ir do mháire a tógfaí m'ire 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 rin fuítear fionn,	Then Finn sits,
asur iarmhar roigchead.	And asks a vessel.
Ann rin féiríó ré an teinne.	Then he blows the fire.
leir rin buailló 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, *Ir aia a bhoig cuitear Seamus an t-im*, for example, they ignore the invisible presence of the relative before *cuitear*, 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, *Ir asat adá ré*, but when we say, *Ir asat tá ré*, we, at once, perceive that something is missing. The explanation of this is, that the word *tá* 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 τᾶ.

The relative forms of τᾶ are βίθεαρ (or βίορ) and βείθεαρ. The present tense form, βίθεαρ, is always used with a habitual meaning.

ῤῥῖ Ἀτά μαίτ	Men who are good.
ῤῥῖ Ἀ βίθεαρ μαίτ	Men who are wont to be good.
ῤῥῖ ἡάε ḅ-ῤῥῖḅ μαίτ	Men who are not good.
ῤῥῖ ἡάε ḅ-βίθεαρḅ μαίτ	Men who are not wont, &c.
ῤῥῖ Ἀ βείθεαρ μαίτ	Men who will be good.
ῤῥῖ ἡάε ḅ-βείθῶ μαίτ	Men who will not be good.

N.B.—The relative and τᾶ often unite: Ἀἡ ῤῥῖ Ἀτά.

☞ “He who,” “she who,” “the person who” = Ἀἡ ῤῥῖ Ἀ, or Ἀἡ ῤῥῖḅ Ἀ.

“They who,” “the people who” = ἡἡ ῤῥῖḅ Ἀ, or Ἀἡ ḅῥῖḅῥῖḅ Ἀ.

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 ῤῥῖ, ἡἡ, ḅῥῖ, &c., aspirate the initials of verbs. The fact is that it is the relative Ἀ, understood, that causes the aspiration, and as a proof of this the relative form of the verb is used as ἡἡḅῥῖ ῤῖοῤῥῖ ḅḅḅ, when ḅḅḅ comes. In speaking the relative is usually heard, and in writing it should be expressed, as a general rule, thus:—

ῤῥῖ Ἀ ῤῖοῤῥῖ ḅḅḅ	Before (that) ḅḅḅ comes.
ἡἡḅῥῖ Ἀ ῤῖοῤῥῖ ḅḅḅ	The time (that) ḅḅḅ comes.
ḅῥῖ Ἀ ῤῖοῤῥῖ ḅḅḅ	The manner (in which) ḅḅḅ will come.

Νυαιη is a contracted form for Δη υαιη, the hour, the time, and hence, when. The relative is used after numerous expressions of this kind, as, **Ca** η-άιτ Δ ευιηφεαρ τύ έ? Where will you put it? **η** μιηιc Δ ιτεαρ Μάιηe, It is often that Mary eats; **η** ιομθαιθ υαιη Δ εδοιηεαρ Δη τεΔηθ, 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 **η**.

η Διγ Δη υοηαρ Δτά με	It is at the door that I am.
η Δγ cαοηαθ Δ θειθεαρ τύ	It is crying that you will be.
η οηη Δ θί Δη εαγλα!	It is I that was afraid!
Δη τύ-φεη Δτά Δηη?	Is it yourself that is in it?
η τύ Δ θειθεαρ λιοη	It is you that will be with me.

The Demonstrative Pronouns.


(a) The demonstrative pronouns are **η**ο, this; **η**ηη, that; and **η**υθ, yonder. The same forms are used for the plural.

Eat this and leave that	ιτε η ο Δγυη φάγ η ηη.
Lift yonder-thing,* James	τόγ η υθ Δ εηέΔμυη.
This is very funny	τά η ο Δη-ξηεΔηηαη.
Yonder-thing is used	τά η υθ cαιτε.

(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) **η**υθ becomes **υθ**.

Sell this cow	θίοι Δη θό η ο.
Lift these knives	τόγ ηΔ φγιδηηα η ο.
This big tall man	Δη φεΔη ηόηη Δηηο η ο.
Yonder man is blind	τά Δη φεΔη υθ cαοθ.


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

 uo often takes the form of uoai or aoai.

Yonder cow is eating	τά αν βό aoai ας ιτε.
The cow is over yonder	τα αν βό ρίαη aoai.

(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	τά ρε ρο cam.
That one is straight	τα αν ceann ριν οίμεαδ.
These are broken	τα ριασ ρο βηυτε.
Leave those here	ρῶς ιασ ριν αν ρο.

 "This fellow," "that fellow," "yonder fellow," &c. = ρε ρο, ρε ριν, ρε ρυσ, &c.; feminine, ρί ρο, ρί ριν, ρί ρυσ. Note also the following:—

Here is a cow	= ιρ ρο βό	contracted to ρο βό.
Here are the cows	= ιρ ρο ηα βα	„ ρο ηα βα.
There is a man	= ιρ ριν ρεαρ	„ ριν ρεαρ.
Yonder is a man	= ιρ ρυσ ρεαρ	„ ρυσ ρεαρ.

The Interrogative Pronouns.

(a) The interrogative pronouns are cia? or cé? who? ceoca? which? ca? where? or what? zo oé? (or cao é?) what? All these come first in the sentence. Ca? causes eclipsis:

Cé ρinne ρο?	Cé υια?	Who did this? Who is God?
Cé tu-ρéin?	Ce ριν?	Who are you? Who is that?
Ca m-biðeann tú?		Where do you be?
C' ainm atá oητ?		What is your name?
Ca η-άιτ α β-ρuiλ tú?		Where are you?

Ca ḡ-ḡuīl tú aḡ uul? *	Where are you going?
ḡo sé ouḡaīḡe tú?	What did you say?
ḡo sé maḡi tá tú?	How are you?
Ca h-aḡ tú, a īīc?	Where are you from, my son?
aḡ ḡaīle Clīaḡ mé.	I am from Dublin. (I belong to D.)
Cīa leīḡ tú?	Who owns you? Whose son are you?
Cīa leīḡ an teac ḡo?	Who owns this house?

(b) When “which?” is followed by “of” we must use *ḡe* and *a* dative in the case of nouns, and *aḡ* in the case of pronouns.

Which of the women?	Ceoca <i>ḡe</i> na mna?
Which of the cows?	Ceoca <i>ḡe</i> na ḡa?
Which of us?	Ceoca aḡaīnn?
Which of you?	Ceoca aḡaīḡ?



Ceoca or ceocú or cīaca = cīa + aca.

Observe the following:—

Cé é? or Cé e-ḡéin?	Who is he?
Cé í? or Cé í-ḡéin?	Who is she?
Cé íaḡ? or Cé íaḡ-ḡéin;	Who are they?
Cé ḡin?	Who is that, <i>i.e.</i> , who is there?
Cé é ḡin?	Who is (he) that?
Cé í ḡin?	Who is (she) that?
Cé íaḡ ḡin?	Who are (they) those?
Cé h-é an ḡeaḡi ḡin?	Who is (he) that man?
Cé h-í an ḡean ḡin?	Who is (she) that woman?
Cé h-íaḡ na ḡiḡi ḡin?	Who are (they) those men?
Cé 'n ḡeaḡi é ḡin?	What man is (he) that?
Cé 'n ḡean í ḡin?	What woman is (she) that?
Cé na ḡiḡi íaḡ ḡin?	What men are (they) those?

N.B.—Note that after the interrogative *cé* or *cīa*, the pronouns *é*, *í*, *íaḡ* prefix *n* when the article follows.

* Usually pronounced “*Cowl thoo gol?*” or “*Cōwill thoo gol?*”

The Indefinite Pronouns.

áon, single	ζάε uile, every
áir bíc } any	in-tea-ét } some,
áir bíc } any	éigin } certain.
án uile, every	án té, he, who.
uile } all	cibé, whoever
uile } all	ce-a-ét-ar, either.
ζάε } each, every	á éite, each other
ζάε áon } each, every	

N.B.—ζάε uile and ζάε áon are usually pronounced á éuite and á éan. Ce-a-ét-ar with a negative verb = neither, ní fuit ce-a-ét-ar á-a á-ζam, I have neither of them. Cibé is followed by the relative, as, Cibé á éio-c-ar, whoever comes, or whoever will come; Cibé fear á éio-c-ar, whatever man comes. Áir bíc, uile, uile, in-te-a-ét, and éigin follow the noun.

The Verb.

As may be noticed below, some of the forms of the verb contain the pronoun, subject, as, pó-r-aim, I marry; such forms are said to be *synthetic*. When the pronoun subject is not contained in the verb, as pó-r-ann 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 pó-r, marry; all other verbs, as a general rule, belong to the second conjugation.

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

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. ÞÓÐAİM (I marry)

ÞÓÐANΝ RINN.

2. ÞÓÐANΝ ΤÚ

ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΒ.

3. ÞÓÐANΝ ΡÉ

ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΑΤ.

Negative.

ΝÍ ÞÓÐAİM (I do not marry)

ΝÍ ÞÓÐANΝ RINN.

ΝÍ ÞÓÐANΝ ΤÚ

ΝÍ ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΒ.

ΝÍ ÞÓÐANΝ ΡÉ

ΝÍ ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΑΤ.

Interrogative.

Θ-ÞÓÐAİM ? (Do I marry ?)

Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ RINN ?

Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΤÚ ?

Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΒ ?

Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΕ ?

Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΑΤ ?

Interrogative Negative.

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐAİM ? (Do I not marry ?) ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ RINN ?

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΤÚ ?

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΒ ?

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡÉ ?

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΑΤ.

Dependent.

ΞΟ Θ-ÞÓÐAİM (That I marry)

ΞΟ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ RINN.

ΞΟ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΤÚ

ΞΟ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΒ.

ΞΟ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡÉ

ΞΟ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΑΤ.

Dep. Negative.

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐAİM (That I do not marry) ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ RINN.

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΤÚ

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΒ.

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡÉ

ΝΑΕ Θ-ÞÓÐANΝ ΡΙΑΤ ?

Emphatic.

ṽḡṛaim-re (I marry.)	ṽḡṛann rinne.
ṽḡṛann tura	ṽḡṛann riḃre.
ṽḡṛann reṛean	ṽḡṛann riadṽṛan.

Reflexive.

ṽḡṛaim-ṽḡ́ein (I myself marry)	ṽḡṛann rinn-ṽḡ́ein.
ṽḡṛann tú-ṽḡ́ein	ṽḡṛann riḃ-ṽḡ́ein.
ṽḡṛann ré-ṽḡ́ein	ṽḡṛann riadṽ-ṽḡ́ein.

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.	PLURAL.
ṽḡṛaim (I marry)	ṽḡṛaidṽ rinn.
ṽḡṛaidṽ tú	ṽḡṛaidṽ riḃ.
ṽḡṛaidṽ re	ṽḡṛaidṽ riadṽ.

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.	PLURAL.
ῥόραιν (I marry)	[ῥόραμαδοιῶ.]
[ῥόραιρ]	[ῥόρταδοι.]
ῥόρανν ρε	[ῥόραιοῦ.]

Imperfect Tense.

ῥόραινν (I used to marry)	ῥόραῶ ρινν.
ῥόρτα	ῥόραῶ ριβ̄.
ῥόραῶ ρέ	ῥόραῶ ριαῶ.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢί ῥόραινν. I used not to marry.
<i>Interrog.</i>	ῶ-ῥόραινν? Used I marry?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i>	ἢαῶ ῶ-ῥόραινν? Used I not marry?
<i>Dependent.</i>	ῶο ῶ-ῥόραινν. That I used to marry
<i>Dep. Neg.</i>	ἢαῶ ῶ-ῥόραινν. That I did not marry

Emphatic.

ῥόραινν-ρε (I used to marry)	ῥόραῶ ριννε
ῥόρτα ἑυρα*	ῥόραῶ ριβ̄ρε.
ῥόραῶ* ρερεαν	ῥόραῶ ριαῶραν.

Reflexive.

ῥόραινν-ῥέιν (I myself, &c.)	ῥόραῶ ρινν-ῥέιν.
ῥόρτα-ῥεῖν	ῥόραῶ ριβ̄-ῥέιν.
ῥόραῶ ῥέ-ῥέιν	ῥόραῶ ριαῶ-ῥέιν

Classic Imperfect.

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

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ῥόραινν (I used to marry)	[ῥόραμαδοιρ.]
2. ῥόρτα	[ῥόρταδοι.]
3. ῥόραῶ ρέ	[ῥόραιοιρ.]

* Not ῥόρτα-ρα. ῥόραῶ is pronounced ῥόρύ. The ending αῶ is often pronounced ιτ when followed by ρέ, ρί, ριαῶ. cp. ῥόρραιῶ me *pr.* ῥόρῆιμ ἄ.

Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
	ῥόρ με (I married)	ῥόρ ρινν.
	ῥόρ τῦ	ῥόρ ριβ.
	ῥόρ ρε	ῥόρ ριατ.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢορ ῥόρ με.	I did not marry.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	Δρ ῥόρ με ?	Did I marry ?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i>	ἢΔρ ῥόρ με ?	Did I not marry ?
<i>Dependent.</i>	ῤρ ῥόρ με.	That I married.
<i>Depen. Neg.</i>	ἢΔρ ῥόρ με.	That I did not marry.
<i>Emphatic.</i>	ῥόρ μῖρε.	I married.
<i>Reflexive.</i>	ῥόρ με-ῥέιν.	I myself married.

Classic Perfect.

[Ῥο ῥόρΔρ] (I married)	[Ῥο ῥόρΔμΔρ.]
[Ῥο ῥόρΔρ]	[Ῥο ῥόρΔῖΔρ.]
[Ῥο] ῥόρ ρε	[Ῥο ῥόρΔτΔρ.]

Future Tense.

ῥόρῤαῖτὸ με (I shall marry)	ῥόρῤαῖτὸ ρινν
ῥόρῤαῖτὸ τῦ	ῥόρῤαῖτὸ ριβ.
ῥόρῤαῖτὸ ρε	ῥόρῤαῖτὸ ριατ.

Pronounce as follows :—

ῥόρῖμ ᾶ	ῥόρῖᾶ ρινν.
ῥόρῖᾶ τῦ	ῥόρῖᾶ ριβ.
ῥόρῖᾶ ρῖᾶ *	ῥόρῖᾶ ριατ.

* When emphatic ῥόρῖ ῥέ. When not followed by a pronoun, as in replies, *ῥρ.* ῥόρῖ (paws' -hee).

CLASSIC CONDITIONAL.

ῥόρραινν (I would marry)	[ῥόρραμμοιρ.]
ῥόρρα	[ῥόρραιτό.]
ῥόρραὸ ρε	[ῥόρρατομοιρ.]

OPTATIVE MOOD.

ῤο ὅ-ῥόραιὸ* με ! (May I marry !)	ῤο ὅ-ῥόραιὸ ρινν !
ῤο ὅ-ῥόραιὸ τύ !	ῤο ὅ-ῥόραιὸ ριὸ !
ῤο ὅ-ῥόραιὸ ρέ !	ῤο ὅ-ῥόραιὸ ριατο !

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

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The present subjunctive is usually expressed by the present and future forms of the verb preceded by such words as μα, if ; ῤο, until, &c., as, μα ῥόρραινν ρε μάιρε ταῖαιρ ρηυτ μαίτ το, If he marries Mary give him a good fortune. ϑαν ῤο ὅ-ῥόρραιὸ ρέ ι, Wait till he marries her.

The imperfect subjunctive is expressed by the conditional preceded by ὅα, if ; as, ὅα ὅ-ῥόρραινν, If I should marry.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. ———

2. ῥόρ (Marry)

3. ῥόρραὸ ρε

PLURAL.

ῥόρραμμοιρ.

ῥόρραιτοίτ† or ῥόρραιῤίτ.

ῥόρραὸ ριατο.

Neg. ηα ῥόρ, &c.

* When the root ends in ιὸ or ιῤ, which have both the same sound ι or ιὸ, another ιὸ is unnecessary. Hence, ῤο ὅ-τέιὸ τύ ! May you go ! ῤο η-βεαννιῤ ὅα τυ ! May God bless you !

† By imitation from verbs of second conjugation ; e.g. the classic imperative of ῤορταιῤιμ is ῤορταιῤίτ. In trying to sound υῤ+ιὸ, people found it easier to pronounce υῤ+ιὸ, and hence the modern word is ῤορταιῤίτ. This is imitated in the first conjugation. [See τα.]

CLASSIC IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

1. ———

2. ῥόρ

3. ῥόραὸ re

PLURAL.

[ῥόραμμοιρ].

[ῥόραιὸ].

[ῥόραιτοιρ].

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Δ ῥόραὸ

to marry.

PARTICIPLES.

Δξ ῥόραὸ

marrying.

Διρ υ-ῥόραὸ

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.

ῥόρταρ μέ (I am being married) ῥόρταρ ριnn.

ῥόρταρ τῦ ῥόρταρ ριβ.

ῥόρταρ ἐ ῥόρταρ ιαο.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ῥόρταί μέ (I used to be married) ῥόρταί ριnn.

ῥόρταί τῦ ῥόρταί ριβ.

ῥόρταί ἐ ῥόρταί ιαο.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

ῥόρφαιὸε μέ (I would be married) ῥόρφαιὸε ριnn.

ῥόρφαιὸε τῦ ῥόρφαιὸε ριβ.

ῥόρφαιὸε ἐ ῥόρφαιὸε ιαο.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.


ῥόρραι μέ (I shall be married)	ῥόρραι ρινη.
ῥόρραι τυ	ῥόρραι ριβ.
ῥόρραι έ	ῥόρραι ιαο.

PERFECT TENSE.

ῥόραο me (I was married).	ῥόραο ρινη.
ῥόραο τυ	ῥόραο ριβ.
ῥόραο έ	ῥόραο ιαο.

Perfect, Negative, Interrog., etc.

ἢιον ῥόραο μέ	I was not married?
Δι ῥόραο μέ?	Was I married?
ἢαι ῥόραο μέ?	Was I not married?
ῤυι ῥόραο μέ	That I was married.
ἢαι ῥόραο μέ	That I was not married.

 Although ρο is used, no aspiration.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES.

Δ θειτ ῥόρτα	to be married.
ῥόρτα	married.

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

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

Τά μέ ῥόρτα	I am married.
Ἐϊόινη ῥόρτα	I used to be married.
Ἐϊ μέ ῥόρτα	I was married.
Ἐϊο me ῥόρτα.	I shall be married.

THE REGULAR VERB, BRISIM, I BREAK.

Active Voice.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Ùrurim (I break)	Ùrurèann rinn.
Ùrurèann tú	Ùrurèann rìb.
Ùrurèann re.	Ùrurèann rìao.

IMPERFECT.

Ùrurinn (I used to break)	Ùrurèò rinn.
Ùrurèa	Ùrurèò rìb.
Ùrurèò re	Ùrurèò rìao.

PERFECT.

Ùrur me (I broke)	Ùrur rinn.
Ùrur tú	Ùrur rìb.
Ùrur ré	Ùrur rìao.

FUTURE.

Ùrurriò me* (I shall break)	Ùrurriò rinn.
Ùrurriò tú	Ùrurriò rìb.
Ùrurriò re	Ùrurriò rìao.

CONDITIONAL.

Ùrurriinn (I would break)	Ùrurrièò rinn.
Ùrurrièa	Ùrurrièò rìb.
Ùrurrièò re	Ùrurrièò rìao.

IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, &C.

Ùrur, break ; plural, ùrurriòrìò or ùrurriòrìò.

Δ ùrurèò, to break.

Δξ ùrurèò, breaking.

* Pronounce ùrurriim ä, ùrurrihä tú, &c.

The Same Verb in Classic Style.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Ծիրիմ (I break)	[Ծիրիմիտօ.]
[Ծիրիր]	[Ծիրիւրի.]
Ծիրեանք քե	[Ծիրիտօ.]

IMPERFECT.

Ծիրինն (I used to break)	[Ծիրիմիր.]
Ծիրիւրէս	[Ծիրիւրի.]
Ծիրեաժ քե	[Ծիրիտիր.]

PERFECT.

[Չօ Ծիրեար] (I broke)	[Չօ Ծիրեամար.]
[Չօ Ծիրիր]	[Չօ Ծիրեաժար.]
[Չօ] Ծիր քե.	[Չօ Ծիրեաժար.]

FUTURE.

Ծիրբեաժ (I shall break)	Ծիրբիմիտօ.
[Ծիրբիր]	[Ծիրբիւրօ.]
Ծիրբիժ քե	[Ծիրբիտօ.]

CONDITIONAL.

Ծիրբինն (I would break)	[Ծիրբիմիր.]
Ծիրբեա	[Ծիրբիւրօ.]
Ծիրբեաժ քե	[Ծիրբիտիր.]

IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, &C.

Ծիր (break); plural [Ծիրիւրօ.]

Չօ Ծիրեաժ, to break.

Աջ Ծիրեաժ, breaking.

Initial Influence of Verbs.

All verbs of the first conjugation are conjugated like $\rho\delta\rho\alpha\iota\mu$ or $\upsilon\mu\upsilon\rho\iota\mu$, and all verbs whose initial is υ , c , υ , ξ , ρ or τ , 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, $\upsilon\text{-}\tau\upsilon\iota\zeta\epsilon\alpha\lambda\eta\eta\tau\acute{\upsilon}$? do you understand? It is the interrogative particle, $\lambda\eta$, that causes the eclipsis here, and in all such cases the particle itself will be invisible. It may also be remarked that in all cases where eclipsis would take place, a vowel is preceded by η , as $\eta\text{-}\delta\iota\lambda\alpha\eta\eta\tau\upsilon$? do you drink? But ι , m , n , η , ρ , of verbs, are never eclipsed, so that the interrogative particle in these cases must appear, as, $\lambda\eta\ \rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\theta\epsilon\lambda\eta\eta\eta\ \rho\epsilon$? does it blow? This interrogative particle, $\lambda\eta$, and its eclipsing effect may be compared to A and B playing "see-saw." When A ($\lambda\eta$) goes down B (effect) goes up, and *vice versa*.

The particle $\upsilon\theta$ aspirates in the imperfect, perfect, and conditional, but it is visible before vowels and ρ only. The following examples will explain more fully :—

$\delta\iota\lambda\alpha\iota\mu$, I DRINK.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	$\delta\iota\lambda\alpha\iota\mu$,	I drink.
<i>Negative.</i>	$\eta\acute{\iota}\ \delta\iota\lambda\alpha\iota\mu$,	I do not drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	$\eta\text{-}\delta\iota\lambda\alpha\iota\mu$?	Do I drink?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i>	$\eta\lambda\acute{\alpha}\ \eta\text{-}\delta\iota\lambda\alpha\eta\eta\tau\acute{\upsilon}$?	Do you not drink?

IMPERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ο'όλαινον,	I used to drink.
<i>Negative.</i>	νί ο'όλαινον,	I used not to drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ν-όλαινον ?	Used I drink ?

PERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	Ο'όλ me,	I drank.
<i>Negative.</i>	νίον ο'όλ me,	I did not drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	Αν ο'όλ me ?	Did I drink.

ἔαζαιμ, I LEAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ἔαζαιμ,	I leave.
<i>Negative.</i>	νί ἔαζαιμ,	I do not leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ὑ-ἔαζαιμ ?	Do I leave ?

IMPERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ο'ἔαζαινον,	I used to leave.
<i>Negative.</i>	νί ἔαζαινον,	I used not to leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ὑ-ἔαζαινον ?	Used I leave ?

PERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ο'ἔαζ me,	I left.
<i>Negative.</i>	νίον ἔαζ me,	I did not leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	Αν ἔαζ me ?	Did I leave ?

ῥόραιμ, I ROAST.

Present :—ῥόραιμ ; νί ῥόραιμ ; αν ῥόραιμ ?

Imperf. :—ῥόραινον ; νί ῥόραινον ; αν ῥόραινον ?

Perfect :—ῥόρ me ; νίον ῥόρ me ; αν ῥόρ me ?

SÉROIIM, I BLOW.

Present :—Séroiim ; ní féroiim ; an féroiim ?

Imperf. :—Séroiinn ; ní féroiinn ; an féroiinn ?

Perfect :—Séiro me ; níoi féiro me ; ar féiro me ?

SḠAIPTIM, I CALL.

Present :—SḠaiptim ; ní rḠaiptim ? an rḠaiptim ?

Imperf. :—SḠaiptinn ; ní rḠaiptinn ; an rḠaiptinn ?

Perfect :—SḠaipt me ; níoi rḠaipt me ; ar rḠaipt me ?

LÚBAIM, I BEND.

Present :—Lúbaim ; ní lúbaim ; an lúbaim ?

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

Perfect :—Lúb me ; níoi lúb me ; ar 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 ḠORTUIḠIM.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. ḠortuiḠim (I hurt)

ḠortuiḠeann rinn.

2. ḠortuiḠeann tú

ḠortuiḠeann rib.

3. ḠortuiḠeann ré

ḠortuiḠeann riao.

IMPERFECT.

ḠortuiḠinn (I used to hurt)

ḠortuiḠealò rinn.

ḠortuiḠtea

ḠortuiḠealò rib.

ḠortuiḠealò re

ḠortuiḠealò riao.

PERFECT.

Ἔορτις me (I hurt)	Ἔορτις ρινν.
Ἔορτις τῦ	Ἔορτις ριβ.
Ἔορτις ρε	Ἔορτις ριαθ.

FUTURE.

Ἔορτοῦ me* (I shall hurt)	Ἔορτοῦ ρινν.*
Ἔορτοῦ τῦ	Ἔορτοῦ ριβ.
Ἔορτοῦ ρε	Ἔορτοῦ ριαθ.

CONDITIONAL.

Ἔορτοῦν (I would hurt)	ἔορτοῦ ρινν.
Ἔορτοῦ	ἔορτοῦ ριβ.
Ἔορτοῦ ρε	ἔορτοῦ ριαθ.

IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.


1. —————	ἔορτιςμιθ [ἔορτιςμιθιρ.]
2. Ἔορτις	ἔορτιςιθ.†
3. Ἔορτιςεαθ ρε	ἔορτιςεαθ ριαθ.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE.

Α ἔορτιςεαθ, to hurt.

ΑΣ ἔορτιςεαθ, hurting.

Αιρ n-ἔορτιςεαθ, having hurt.

 The optative is εο n-ἔορτις me!

* Also ἔορτοῦ; ἔορτοῦμιθ.

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

Passive Voice.

<i>Present.</i>	Ἱορτυιζέει με,	I am being hurt.
<i>Imperfect.</i>	Ἱορτυιζέει με,	I used to be hurt.
<i>Perfect.</i>	Ἱορτυιζέει με,	I was hurt.
<i>Future.</i>	Ἱορτοέει με,	I shall be hurt.
<i>Condit.</i>	Ἱορτοέει με,	I would be hurt.
<i>Infinitive.</i>	Ἱεῖ Ἱορτυιζεῖν,	to be hurt.
<i>Participle.</i>	Ἱορτυιζέειν,	hurt.
<i>Imperative.</i>	Same as present.	

Remarks.

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

(2.) When the initial of a verbal termination is **τ** it becomes **τ̄** in all verbs whose root terminates in **β**, **γ**, **δ**, **μ**, **π**, or **ρ**, and **ξ** of verbs in **ιξ** of the second conjugation ; as **τύβεται**, bent, **βοζεται**, softened, intoxicated, **κυρεται**, buried, **ῥηαδουιζετε**, loved, etc. In other cases **τ** is not influenced, as, **ορμυοτε**, **βρῦιζτε**, **εροεται**, **ιετε**, **μολετα**, **εαρτα**, etc.

(3.) In the first conjugation the characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional is **ρ**, which is usually pronounced **η**. In the second conjugation **ρ** is not used, but instead, the root ending, **υιξ** or **ιξ**, is changed into **οέ** or **εοέ**. Verbs of the second conjugation not ending in **υιξ** or **ιξ** are usually syncopated

and then add *oc* or *eoç*. The following are important :—

ROOT.	PRESENT.	FUTURE.
ζορταιζ, hurt	ζορταιζιμ	ζορτοçαιò me.
ειμνηζ, remember	ειμνηζιμ	ειμνηοçαιò me.
οίριζ, straighten	οίριζιμ	οίριοçαιò me.
κοραιν, cost	κοραινιμ	κορνοçαιò me.
ταιριαιζ, draw	ταιριαιζιμ	ταιριαιοçαιò me.
ινηρι, tell	ινηριμ	ινηριοçαιò me.
φορζαι, open	φορζαιμ	φορζλοçαιò me.

N.B.—*Λαδαιρ* makes *λαδαιριò* me for the future and *λαδαιριμν* for the conditional—Pronounced *λδρι*, *λδριμν* ã, *λδριμνν*.

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* = αζ ράρ.

Moving = *moving* = αζ βοζαò.

Playing = *playing* = αζ ιμηριτ.

Stealing = *stealing* = αζ ζυιò.

As Verbal Nouns.

Growing = *growth* = ράρ.

Moving = *motion* = βοζαò.

Playing = *play* = ιμηριτ.

Stealing = *theft* = ζυιò.

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 $\Delta\mathfrak{S}$, 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 $\text{b}\text{o}\mathfrak{S}\Delta\text{o}\ \text{l}\Delta\text{i}\text{m}\text{e}$ in the same way that we say $\text{t}\Delta\text{c}\ \text{l}\Delta\text{i}\text{m}\text{e}$.

$\mathfrak{R}\Delta\text{i}\text{b}\ \text{t}\Delta\text{u}\ \Delta\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\ \text{b}\Delta\text{i}\text{r}\text{t}\text{e}\Delta\text{o}\ \Delta\text{n}\ \text{l}\text{e}\text{i}\text{n}\text{b}\text{?}$

$\mathfrak{R}\Delta\text{i}\text{b}\ \text{t}\Delta\text{u}\ \Delta\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\ \text{m}\Delta\text{i}\text{r}\text{b}\Delta\text{o}\ \text{n}\Delta\ \text{c}\text{i}\text{r}\text{c}\text{e}\text{?}$

$\mathfrak{R}\Delta\text{i}\text{b}\ \text{t}\Delta\text{u}\ \Delta\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\ \text{b}\text{p}\text{u}\text{r}\text{e}\Delta\text{o}\ \text{n}\Delta\ \text{f}\text{u}\text{i}\text{n}\text{n}\text{e}\text{o}\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\text{e}\text{?}$

$\mathfrak{R}\Delta\text{i}\text{b}\ \text{t}\Delta\text{u}\ \Delta\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\ \text{b}\text{u}\text{i}\text{n}\text{t}\ \Delta\text{n}\ \text{f}\acute{\text{e}}\text{i}\text{r}\text{?}$

$\mathfrak{R}\Delta\text{i}\text{b}\ \text{t}\Delta\text{u}\ \Delta\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\ \text{t}\text{i}\mathfrak{S}\ \text{S}\text{h}\acute{\text{e}}\Delta\text{m}\text{u}\text{i}\text{r}\text{?}$

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 ατό, but its distinguishing mark is ας (not αις, which is generally used before *nouns* in preference to ας). Before a consonant ας often becomes 'α 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.

Τά ρε ας βαπτεατό αν λεμβ.

Τά ρε ας μαρβατό να κυρε.

Τά ρε ας βυρεατό να ρυννεοιζε.

Τά ρε ας βυιτ αν ρέρι.

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* = το μο βυαλατό.

Striking thee = *to thy striking* = το σο βυαλατό.

Striking him = *to his striking* = το α βυαλατό.

Striking her = *to her striking* = το α βυαλατό.

Striking us = *to our striking* = το ρι μ-βυαλατό.

Striking you = *to your striking* = το συ μ-βυαλατό.


Striking them = *to their striking* = το α μ-βυαλατό.

(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.

Δη υῶ ἀτά με ἀξ ἰτε The egg which I am eating.

Δη υῶ ἀ ῆί με ἀξ ἰτε 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 *α* and *τε*.

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

Root	ῥύν	Infinitive	α ῥύναῶ, to shut.
„	ῥίνν	„	α ῥίννεαῶ, to stretch.
„	ῑααίτ	„	α ῑααίταῶ, to beat.
„	ῑοῖτεῡῑ	„	α ῑοῖτεῡῑαῶ, to hurt.
„	οῖῖῡῑ	„	α οῖῖῡῑαῶ, to straighten.

As seen here, the rule is to make the characteristic vowel broad when possible. Hence, the *i* is dropped in *buaib* and *ḡorcuig*, while in *ḡiḡuig* it becomes *iu*. But in monosyllabic roots like *ḡinn*, the characteristic vowel remains unchanged, so that *eab* 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.

Ir cóir Dia a ḡraibuaib	It is right to love God.
buaib maic liom an bó a úiol	I would like to sell the cow
ḡainic re te pannaic	He came to stay.
Tá re te h-imteic	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 te crioicab.
The seed is to be sown	Tá an ríol te cur.
It is to be boiled	Tá re te bhuic.
The wine is to be drunk.	Tá an ríon te 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 με τε καοναό.
I am to wait (<i>f.e.</i>)	τά με τε ραναότ.
He came to fight (<i>pur.</i>)	čaimic ρε τε τμυιτ.
He came to sit (<i>pur.</i>)	čaimic ρε τε ρυιόε.
I am to marry Mary (<i>f.e.</i>)	τά με τε μάριε α ρόραό.
He came to sell a horse (<i>pur.</i>)	čaimic ρε τε capall α όίολ.

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


čaimic ρε τε ρίολ α čur	He came to sow seed.
buó mían λειρ ρίολ α čur	He wanted to sow seed.
ταρρι αιρι cor α βοζαό	Tell him to move a foot.

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

He came to sleep	čaimic ρε τε couλαό.
He came to stay	čaimic ρε τε ραναότ.
He came to cry	čaimic ρε τε καοναό.
He is to sit	τά ρε τε ρυιόε.
He is to stand	τά ρε τε ρεραό.
He is to walk	τά ρε τε ρυβαλ.

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

Tell him to walk	αβαιρι λειρ ρυβαλ.
Tell him to sleep	ταρρι αιρι couλαό.
I cannot stand	νί čiz λιom ρεραό.
He made him go away	čuz ρε αιρι ιmčeaότ.
It is better for you to sit	ιρ ρεάρρι τυιτ ρυιόε.
I prefer to stand	ιρ ρεάρρι λιom ρεραό.
I would like you to stay	buó mαιč λιom ču ραναότ.

 α βειč, α ουτ, and α čeaότ, 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.


ḡaimic re a ḡuirt réir	} He came to mow hay.
ḡaimic re le reuir a ḡuirt	

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

abair leir rlat a ḡuirt	Tell him to cut a rod.
ní éig liom cor a ḡḡbair	I cannot lift a foot.
ir coir Dia a ḡmaidḡad	It is right to love God.
réardaim an píopa a líonad	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 = buò mían leir mo buaid, literally, *he desired my beating*.

buò cóir tuir mé a pórad	} You should marry me.
buò cóir tuir mo pórad	
ḡaimic re le rinn a pórad	} He came to marry us
ḡaimic re le n-air b-pórad	
tá re le mé a pórad	} He is to marry me.
tá re le mo pórad	

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

I prefer not to stand	ἵρ ῥέαρῃ ἕἰομ ζᾶν ῥεᾶρᾶθ̄.
Tell him not to sit	ἄβᾶῖρ ἕἱρ ζᾶν ῥᾶῖθ̄ε.
To be or not to be	ἄ θ̄εῖτ̄ νο ζᾶν ἄ θ̄εῖτ̄.
Tell him not to eat the butter	ἄβᾶῖρ ἕἱρ ζᾶν ἄη τ̄-ἰμ ἄ ἰθ̄ε.

N.B.—Ćum is sometimes used as a sign of the infinitive when purpose is conveyed: Ćum Sḗamur ἄ θ̄υᾶᾶθ̄ = to beat James; ĉum θ̄ρ̄εῖτ̄εᾶῖνᾶρ ἄ ṑᾶβᾶῖρτ̄ ᾶῖρ = to pass judgment on him. In these examples ĉum is not a preposition, and hence it has nothing to do with the governing of “Sḗamur” and “θ̄ρ̄εῖτ̄εᾶῖνᾶρ.”

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 ᾶθ̄; but most of the infinitives in the language are irregular; the following should be committed to memory:—

ROOT.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
ζᾶῖθ̄, pray	ἄ ζᾶῖθ̄	ᾶζ ζᾶῖθ̄.
τῥᾶῖθ̄, fight	ἄ τῥᾶῖθ̄	ᾶζ τῥᾶῖθ̄.
óλ, drink	ἄ óλ	ᾶζ óλ.
θ̄ρᾶῖτ̄, boil, cook	ἄ θ̄ρᾶῖτ̄	ᾶζ θ̄ρᾶῖτ̄.
ζᾶῖλ, boil, bubble	ἄ ζᾶῖλ	ᾶζ ζᾶῖλ.
ζᾶῖρ, steal	ἄ ζᾶῖρ	ᾶζ ζᾶῖρ.
ῥᾶῖρᾶῖνᾶζ, inquire	ἄ ῥᾶῖρᾶῖνᾶζ	ᾶζ ῥᾶῖρᾶῖνᾶζ.
ḗῖρτ̄, hear	ἄ ḗῖρτ̄εᾶṑτ̄	ᾶζ ḗῖρτ̄εᾶṑτ̄.
ἰᾶῖρ, play (a game)	ἄ ἰᾶῖρτ̄	ᾶζ ἰᾶῖρτ̄.
τᾶῖρᾶῖνᾶζ, pull	ἄ ṑᾶῖρᾶῖνᾶτ̄	ᾶζ τᾶῖρᾶῖνᾶτ̄.
ḑᾶῖλ, lose	ἄ ḑᾶῖλλεᾶθ̄	ᾶζ ḑᾶῖλλεᾶθ̄.
ḑᾶῖρ, put	ἄ ḑᾶῖρ	ᾶζ ḑᾶῖρ.
ἰᾶῖρ, tell	ἄ ἰᾶῖρῥε	ᾶζ ἰᾶῖρῥε.
ḑᾶῖνᾶῖνᾶζ, keep	ἄ ḑᾶῖνᾶῖνᾶτ̄	ᾶζ ḑᾶῖνᾶῖνᾶτ̄
ἕᾶβᾶῖρ, speak	ἄ ἕᾶβᾶῖρτ̄	ᾶζ ἕᾶβᾶῖρτ̄.

ROOT.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
iaíi, ask	Δ iaíiaíò	ΑΣ iaíiaíò.
leiγ, let, allow	Δ leiγean	ΑΣ leiγean.
πάγ, leave	Δ πάγαιλ	ΑΣ πάγαιλ.
τόγ, lift	Δ τόγαιλ	ΑΣ τογαιλ.
Ceannuiγ, buy	Δ ceannaδé	ΑΣ ceannaδé.
ἴoiλ, sell	Δ ἴoiλ	ΑΣ ἴoiλ.
Sníom, spin	Δ fníom	ΑΣ fníom.
Seinn, sing, play	Δ feinm	ΑΣ feinm.
niγ, wash	Δ niγε	ΑΣ niγε.
Ceanγaíl, tie	Δ ceanγaíl	ΑΣ ceanγaíl.

Particles.

Δn ?	Simple interrogative aff.
naé ?	Simple interrogative neg.
Δn ? (Δn ? + ío)	Perfect interrogative aff.
naí ? (naé ? + ío)	Perfect interrogative neg.
ní and éa	Simple negatives.
níom (ní + ío)	} Perfect tense negatives.
éaí (éa + ío)	
naé (that...not)	Simple dependent neg.
naí (naé + ío)	Perfect dependent neg.
γui (γo + ío) *	Affirmative of naí.
na	Imperative negative.

Examples.

Do you speak English ?	Δn laðmann tú beuila ?
Do you not speak Irish ?	naé laðmann tú γaeoilze ?
Did you strike him ?	Δn buaíl tú é ?
Did you not strike him	naí buaíl tú é ?
I do not smoke (e.g. tobacco)	ní caíim; éa γ-caíim.
I did not smoke	níom caí me; éaí caí me ?
He says he does not smoke	Θει pe naé γ-caíteann pe.
He says he did not smoke	Θει pe naí caí pe.
He says that he smoked	Θει pe γui caí pé.
Do not smoke	na caí.

* Don't confound this with the conjunction γui=γo [See 17.]

Negative.

𐌆𐌿 𐌆𐌺 (I am not)	𐌆𐌿 𐌿𐌴𐌴.
𐌆𐌿 𐌲𐌹	𐌆𐌿 𐌿𐌲.
𐌆𐌿 𐌺-é, 𐌆𐌿 𐌺-í	𐌆𐌿 𐌺-𐌹𐌲.

Interrogative.

𐌲𐌺 𐌆𐌺? (Am I?)	𐌲𐌺 𐌿𐌴𐌴?
𐌲𐌺 𐌲𐌹?	𐌲𐌺 𐌿𐌲?
𐌲𐌺 é? 𐌲𐌺 í?	𐌲𐌺 𐌹𐌲?

Interrog. Neg.

𐌆𐌲 𐌆𐌺? (Am I not?)	𐌆𐌲 𐌿𐌴𐌴?
𐌆𐌲 𐌲𐌹?	𐌆𐌲 𐌿𐌲?
𐌆𐌲 é? 𐌆𐌲 í?	𐌆𐌲 𐌹𐌲?

Dependent.

𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌆𐌺 (That I am)	𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌿𐌴𐌴.
𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌲𐌹	𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌿𐌲.
𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌲𐌲 é, 𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌲𐌲 í	𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌲𐌲 𐌹𐌲.

Or

𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌆𐌺 (That I am)	𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌿𐌴𐌴.
𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌲𐌹	𐌶𐌹𐌿 𐌿𐌲.
𐌶𐌹𐌲 é, 𐌶𐌹𐌲 í	𐌶𐌹𐌲 𐌹𐌲.

Dependent Negative.

𐌆𐌲 𐌆𐌺 (That I am not)	𐌆𐌲 𐌿𐌴𐌴.
𐌆𐌲 𐌲𐌹	𐌆𐌲 𐌿𐌲.
𐌆𐌲 é, 𐌆𐌲 í	𐌆𐌲 𐌹𐌲.

PERFECT TENSE.

𐌲𐌹𐌲 or 𐌲𐌹 𐌆𐌺 (I was)	𐌲𐌹𐌲 𐌿𐌴𐌴.
𐌲𐌹𐌲 𐌲𐌹	𐌲𐌹𐌲 𐌿𐌲.
𐌲𐌹𐌲 é, 𐌲𐌹𐌲 í	𐌲𐌹𐌲 𐌹𐌲.

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

THE IMPERSONAL VERB IS.

PRESENT TENSE.

ἵρ me, It is I	ἵρ ρἰnn, It is we.
ἵρ τῦ, It is thou	ἵρ ρἰḅ, It is you.
ἵρ ἑ, It is he	ἵρ ἰαῶ, It is they.

N.B.—*mé*, *τῦ*, &c., are predicates here.

Negative.

ἢἱ <i>mé</i> , (It is not I)	ἢἱ ρἰnn.
ἢἱ τῦ	ἢἱ ρἰḅ.
ἢἱ ἡ-ἑ, ἢἱ ἡ-ἱ	ἢἱ ἡ-ἰαῶ.

Interrogative.

ἄn me? (Is it I?)	ἄn ρἰnn?
ἄn τῦ?	ἄn ρἰḅ?
ἄn ἑ? ἄn ἱ?	ἄn ἰαῶ?

Interrog. Neg.

ἡἄ <i>mé</i> ? (Is it not I?)	ἡἄ ρἰnn?
ἡἄ τῦ?	ἡἄ ρἰḅ?
ἡἄ ἑ, ἡἄ ἱ?	ἡἄ ἰαῶ?

Dependent.

ῤῥ <i>mé</i> (That it is I)	ῤῥ ρἰnn.
ῤῥ τῦ	ῤῥ ρἰḅ?
ῤῥḅ ἑ, ῤῥḅ ἱ	ῤῥḅ ἰαῶ.

Dependent Neg.

ἡἄ <i>mé</i> (That it is not I)	ἡἄ ρἰnn.
ἡἄ τῦ	ἡἄ ρἰḅ.
ἡἄ ἑ, ἡἄ ἱ	ἡἄ ἰαῶ.

Optative: ῤῶ *m-buḅ* or ῤῥ *ab* = may it be. These are very rare, *τᾶ* being almost always used.

PERFECT TENSE.

Θυò me (It was I)	Θυò ριηη.
Θυò τῦ	Θυò ριῖ.
Θυò ἐ, θυò ι	Θυò ιαῶ.

USE OF ΙS.

(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, **ηί μέ α ῥεη ἐ**, It is not I that say it. **ηι με α ῥῦῖαιητ ἐ**. It was not I that said it. The particles are also the same. We must not, therefore, say, **αη με?** Was it I? **ηιοη με**, It was not I; **αη eun ἐ?** Was it a bird? **αη ηανκαδ ἐ?** Was he a Frenchman? These are turned correctly as follows:—

αη μέ α ῖι ανη?	Was it I that was in it?
ηί μέ α ῖι ανη	It was not I that was in it.
αη eun α ῖι ανη?	Was it a bird that was in it?
αη ηανκαδ α ῖι ανη?	Was it a Frenchman that was in him?

(b) Before **ἐ, ι, ιαῶ**, however, the particles **αη ηιοη, ηαη, &c.**, as well as the verb, are often used—principally in replies, as, **ηιοηῖ ἐ**, It was not (he), **ηιοηῖ ι**, It was not (she); **ηιοηῖ ιαῶ**, It was not (they); **ῥῦῖαιητ ρι ηαηῖ ι**, She said that it was not (she); **αηῖ ι ηαιηε α ῥῦῖαιητ ρηη?** 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 :

Δι μάλιστα λεατ ?	Would you like ?
Νίορι εόρι ουιτ	You should not.
Δριβ φεάριμ λεατ ?	Would you prefer ?
Ναριβ άριτ αν φεαρι ε ?	Wasn't he a tall man ?
Ναρι μόρι αν φεαρι ε ?	Wasn't he a big man ?
Νίορι μόρι αν φεαρι ε ?	He wasn't a big man ?

Δρι μόρι αν φεαρι ε ? is incorrect.

(c) Examples of the type of *ουο μόρι αν φεαρι ε* are often converted into relative sentences with the usual particles, *νί, αν, ναε*, etc.

He was a big man	Ουο μόρι αν φεαρι α βί ανν.
She was a good girl	Ουο μάλιστα αν καλίν α βί ινντί.
Were not they big men ?	Ναε μόρι να φρι α βί ιονντα ?
Was he a big man ?	αν φεαρι μόρι α βί ανν ?

It would be wrong to translate this last example by, *αν μόρι αν φεαρι α βί ανν ?* 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, *Δρι μόρι αν φεαρι ε ?* and *αν μόρι αν φεαρι α βί ανν ?* are both incorrect.

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

Ουο μέ αν φεαρι	I was the man.
Ουο με αν φρανκαε	I was the Frenchman.
Ουο ί μαριμ 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.	ἦν ἄνθρωπος ὁ ὅστις ἄνθρωπος.
He was a Frenchman	ἦν Γάλλος ὁ ὅστις ἄνθρωπος.
She was a good girl	ἦν καλὴ κοπέλα ὁ ὅστις κοπέλα.

Or, with τὰ.

ὅστις ἦν ὁ ἄνθρωπος.
ὅστις ἦν ὁ Γάλλος.
ὅστις ἦν ἡ καλὴ κοπέλα.

(e) The verb ἦν, and its past tense ἦν, are, therefore, as a general rule, suppressed in secondary tenses. We have also seen that the conjunction ὅτι becomes ὅτις in dependent sentences, and when ἐ, ἰ, or ἵνα follows it is written ὅτις, or ὅτις (past).

He says that he is the man	ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὅτις ἔστιν ὁ ἄνθρωπος.
He said that he was the man	ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὅτις ἦν ὁ ἄνθρωπος.
He says that Nora is the girl	ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὅτις ἰσχυρὸς ὁ ἄνθρωπος.
He said that Nora was the girl	ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὅτις ἦν ὁ ἄνθρωπος.

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

ἦν ἐγὼ ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἄνθρωπος	It is I who am talking.
ἦν ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἄνθρωπος ?	Is it a man that is talking ?

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

ἦν ἐγὼ ἐγὼ (verb subj. pred.)	I am he.
ἦν σὺ ἡ Νόρα (v. s. p.)	You are Nora.
ἦν ἐγὼ ὁ ἄνθρωπος (v. s. p.)	I am the man.
ἦν ἄνθρωπος ἐγὼ (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 Seagán mo mac</i>	} v. p. s.
I am a man	<i>Ir fear me</i>	
John is a Frenchman	<i>Ir Fhiancácl Seagán</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 Seagán...é</i>	
Erin is my country	<i>Ir...í Eirne...mo tír</i>	
The men are they	<i>Ir...iáto ná fear...iáto</i>	
These men are they	<i>Ir...iáto ná fear ro...iáto</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 Seagán*.

* 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	1ṛ cloč ɾo.
This is not bread	ní aɾian ɾo.
That is not a horse	ní capall ɾin.
It is a ghost	1ṛ tairē é.
That is not Irish	ní ɟaeuilɟe ɾin.

(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	1ṛ bó í ɾo.
That is a bull	1ṛ tairē é ɾin.
These are herrings	1ṛ ɾɟadain 1aɾ ɾo.
That is a good cow	1ṛ bó inait é ɾin.


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	1ṛ.....é m' ačair.....é.	} v. p. s.
She is my love	1ṛ.....í mo ɟmad.....í.	
They are my horses	1ṛ.....1aɾ mo čapail.....1aɾ.	
It is my pleasure	1ṛ.....é mo čoil... ..é.	

(b) When a *definite noun* comes immediately after the *impersonal* verb 1ṛ, it will be a double predicate.

1ṛ í Nora ačá an ɾo.	It is Nora that is here.
ní h-1aɾ na ɾir ačá an.	It is not the men that are in it.
an é Séamur a ɾinne é?	Was it James that did it.

 Note the difference in :—

{ They are my sheep	ἵρ ἰαὸ μο ἑαοιμῖξ ἰαὸ.
{ The sheep are mine	ἵρ ἑιομ να εαοιμῖξ.
{ These are my sheep	ἵρ ἰαὸ ρο μο ἑαοιμῖξ.
{ These sheep are mine	ἵρ ἑιομ να εαοιμῖξ ρο.
{ Speak if you wish	ἑαῖαιρ μα 'ρ ἑ οο τοῖλ ἑ.
{ Speak (if you) please !	ἑαῖαιρ τε οο τοῖλ.

N.B.—Δὲτ ἀβ ἑ Seaζαν ἑεῖρῶιnn μαρῶ=Only for John I would have been dead. Δὲτ ἀβ ἑ ζο ραιῶ τῦ ἀnn ἑῖ me εαιιτε=Had you not been there I was done for. Δὲτ ἀβ ἑ εῦρα ζο οἑ ἑεἀηραιnn ! Only for you what would I do !

THE VERB ΤΑ.


INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Τά me, I am | Τά ριnn,* we are. |
| 2. Τά τῦ, thou art | Τά ριῶ, you are. |
| 3. Τά ρε, τά ρῖ, he is, &c. | Τά ριαὸ, they are. |

Negative.

ἢῖ ριit me (I am not)	ἢῖ ριit ριnn, ἢῖ ριitμιο.
ἢῖ ριit τῦ	ἢῖ ριit ριῶ.
ἢῖ ριit ρε	ἢῖ ριit ριαὸ.

 ἢῖ ριit is also written ἢῖl.

Interrogative.

ῶ-ριit me ? (Am I ?)	ῶ-ριit ριnn? ῶ-ριitμιο?
ῶ-ριit τῦ?	ῶ-ριit ριῶ?
ῶ-ριit ρε?	ῶ-ριit ριαὸ?

* Τάμιο is also used.

Interrog. Negative.

ηὰς ὅ-ἦν me? (Am I not?)	ηὰς ὅ-ἦν ἦν?
ηὰς ὅ-ἦν τῷ?	ηὰς ὅ-ἦν ἦς?
ηὰς ὅ-ἦν ἦ?	ηὰς ὅ-ἦν ἦσαν?

The Habitual Present.

τᾶ 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 *ὅ τῷ, ὅ ἦ, ὅ ἦ, etc.*, but these are not used after particles.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
ὅῖον (I am wont to be)	ὅῖον ἦν.*
ὅῖον τῷ	ὅῖον ἦς.
ὅῖον ἦ	ὅῖον ἦσαν.

Negative.

ὅῖον (I am not wont to be)	ὅῖον ἦν.
ὅῖον τῷ	ὅῖον ἦς.
ὅῖον ἦ	ὅῖον ἦσαν.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

ὅῖον (I used to be)	ὅῖον ἦν.
ὅῖον	ὅῖον ἦς.
ὅῖον ἦ.	ὅῖον ἦσαν.

Negative: ὅῖον ἦν, ὅῖον ἦς, etc.

Interrogative: ἦ-ὅῖον? ἦ-ὅῖον, etc.?

Interrog. Neg.: ἦὰς ἦ-ὅῖον? etc.

PERFECT TENSE.

ὅῖ me (I was)	ὅῖ ἦν.
ὅῖ τῷ	ὅῖ ἦς.
ὅῖ ἦ	ὅῖ ἦσαν.

* Also ὅῖον.

Negative.

Νί ηαιβ με (I was not)	Νί ηαιβ ρινη.
Νί ηαιβ τύ	Νί ηαιβ ριβ.
Νί ηαιβ ρέ	Νί ηαιβ ριασ.

Ραιβ is pronounced ρϑh.

Interrogative.

Ραιβ με? (Was I?)	Ραιβ ρινη?
Ραιβ τύ	Ραιβ ριβ?
Ραιβ ρέ?	Ραιβ ριασ?

Also, Δη ηαιβ με?

FUTURE TENSE.

Βείρο με (I shall be)	Βείρο ρινη.*
Βείρο τύ	Βείρο ριβ.
Βείρο ρέ	Βείρο ριασ.

Negative: ηί βείρο μέ, etc.

Interrogative: η-βείρο μέ, etc.

Interrog. Neg.: ηαϑ η-βείρο με? etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Βείροηη (I would be)	Βείροεασ ρινη.
Βείροττεα	Βείροεασ ριβ.
Βείροεασ ρέ	Βείροεασ ριασ.

Negative: ηί βείροηη, etc.

Interrogative: η-βείροηη? etc.

Interrog. Neg.: ηαϑ η-βείροηη? etc.

OPTATIVE MOOD.

Ξο ηαιβ με! (may I be!)	Ξο ηαιβ ρινη! †
Ξο ηαιβ τύ!	Ξο ηαιβ ριβ!
Ξο ηαιβ ρε!	Ξο ηαιβ ριασ!

* Also βείροηη. † Also Ξο ηαιβμυηη!

Negative.

Ναρ ραιῶ με !	Ναρ ραιῶ ρινη !
Ναρ ραιῶ τῦ !	Ναρ ραιῶ ριβ !
Ναρ ραιῶ ρε !	Ναρ ραιῶ ριαῶ !

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. —————	Ἵιοῶμυρο.
2. Ἵι (be)	Ἵιοῶ.*
3. Ἵιοεαῶ ρε	Ἵιοεαῶ ριαῶ.

INFINITIVE, ETC.

Δ Ἵειῦ, to be.

Διρ m-Ἵειῦ, having been.

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

ΤΑῚΑΡ, ἽΙῚΕΑΡ, ἽΕΙῚῚΕΑΡ.

These forms are often used when the subject is general, as, ΤΑῚΑΡ ΔΞ ΒΥΙΝΤ ΔΗ ῑῑῑ, they are mowing the hay, the hay is being mowed. ἽΙῚΕΑΡ ΔΞ ΒΥΙΝΤ ΝΑ Β-Ρῑῑῑ, they were digging the potatoes, the potatoes were being dug. ΤΑῚΑΡ ῚΑ Μ-ΒΥΙΝΤ, they are digging them, they are being dug. Νῑ ἽΕΙῚῚΕΑΡ ῚΑ Μ-ΒΥΙΝΤ ΞῚ ῚΕῚ, they (people or we) will not be digging them for ever.

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

* Classic form ἽῚῚῚ, now written and pronounced βῑῚῚ. Hence also ρῚῚῚῚ, βῑῑῑῚῚ.

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 **τα**.

(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 iad.
Are you Cormack	an tú Cormac?
She is my daughter	is í mo nígean í.
This is my brother	is e ro mo óearéadair.
That is my sister	is í rin mo óeiréir.

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

The trout is a fish	is iars an bheac.	} sp.
John is a priest	is riasairt Seasán.	
He is a man	is fear é.	
The trout is a fish	τα an bheac na iars.	} i. q.
John is a priest	τα Seasán na riasairt.	
He is a man	τα 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** maic an fear é; they are good men = **is** maic na rinn iad. Notice that the adjective is invariable.

He is a good man =

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

When the indefinite predicate expresses species *ἵ* and *τα* often combine to form an idiom by which simple sentences are converted into relative ones. Thus, She is a woman = *ἵ* *βελαν* *ατα* *ἰννητι* = literally, It is a woman that is in her.

A trout is a fish	<i>ἵ</i> <i>ἰαρζ</i> <i>ατα</i> <i>α</i> <i>μ-βηεα</i> .
They are men	<i>ἵ</i> <i>φιη</i> <i>ατα</i> <i>ἰονητα</i> .
John is a man	<i>ἵ</i> <i>φεαη</i> <i>ατα</i> <i>ανη</i> <i>ῶεαζαν</i> .
You are a good girl	<i>ἵ</i> <i>καἰλῖν</i> <i>μαιε</i> <i>ατα</i> <i>ἰονηατ</i> .
Mary is a good girl	<i>ἵ</i> <i>καἰλῖν</i> <i>μαιε</i> <i>ατα</i> <i>ανη</i> <i>ἠάηηε</i> .


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) *ἵ* *ραζαρτ* *ῶεαζαν* (Species.)
- (2) *ἵ* *ραζαρτ* *ατα* *ανη* *ῶεαζαν* (Species.)
- (3) *τα* *ῶεαζαν* *να* *ραζαρτ* (i. q.)

JOHN IS A GOOD PRIEST :

- (1) *ἵ* *ραζαρτ* *μαιε* *ῶεαζαν* (Species.)
- (2) *ἵ* *ραζαρτ* *μαιε* *ατα* *ανη* *ῶεαζαν* (Species.)
- (3) *ἵ* *μαιε* *αν* *ραζαρτ* *ῶεαζαν* (i. q.)
- (4) *τα* *ῶεαζαν* *να* *ραζαρτ* *μαιε* (i. q.)

 In connection with time and space *τα* is used:

He is five miles away	<i>τα</i> <i>πε</i> <i>κυῖζ</i> <i>ἠἰλε</i> <i>αιη</i> <i>φῖυβα</i> .
The house is twenty yards long	<i>τα</i> <i>αν</i> <i>τεαε</i> <i>φῖε</i> <i>φλατ</i> <i>αιη</i> <i>φαυ</i> .
It is twenty feet high	<i>τα</i> <i>πε</i> <i>φῖε</i> <i>τῖοιζ</i> <i>αιη</i> <i>αιηυε</i> .
It is midnight	<i>τα</i> <i>πε</i> <i>αν</i> <i>μεαυον-οιυόε</i> .
I was a year in Derry	<i>υῖ</i> <i>με</i> <i>βῆιαυοαιη</i> <i>α</i> <i>η-υοιηε</i> .

(c) When the predicate is an adjective in the comparative degree we may use either *ἢ* or *τᾶ*, as, Milk is better than wine = (1) *τᾶ* βαίμνε μιορ ρεᾶρρ να ριον (2) *ἢ* ρεᾶρρ βαίμνε να ριον. When the predicate is an adjective in the positive degree *τᾶ* must be used for species, and *ἢ* for inherent quality, as,

Sugar is sweet (sp.)	<i>τᾶ</i> ριυερᾶ μιλιρ.
Sugar is sweet (i. q.)	<i>ἢ</i> μιλιρ ριυερᾶ.
The corn was green (sp.)	ἔι αν κοιρκε ζλαρ.
Green was the corn ! (i. q.)	ἔυὸ ζλαρ αν κοιρκε.
The night is dark (sp.)	<i>τᾶ</i> αν οιοῦε οοριεᾶ.
Isn't the night dark ? (i. q.)	ναε οοριεᾶ αν οιοῦε

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

He is at the door	<i>τᾶ</i> ρε αιζ αν οοριαρ.
He is not there now	νί ρυιλ ρε αν ριν ανοιρ.
He is walking *	<i>τᾶ</i> ρε αζ ριυεᾶλ.

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

It is sick that I am	<i>ἢ</i> τινν ατά με.
It is I who am sick	<i>ἢ</i> μιρ ατά τινν.
It is here that I am	<i>ἢ</i> αν ρο ατά με.
It is at the well that I am	<i>ἢ</i> αιζ αν τοβαρ ατά με.
It is I that have the cow	<i>ἢ</i> αζαμρα ατά αν ἔο.
It is I that have the new hat	<i>ἢ</i> αζαμρα ατά αν ηατα ἔρ.
It is walking that I am	<i>ἢ</i> αζ ριυεᾶλ ατά με.

* In a few cases an idiom takes place, as, I am sleeping = *τᾶ* με μο εουλαῶ, I am living or residing = *τᾶ* με μο κοῖννυῖε. *τᾶ* με μο κοῖννυῖε, means also, I am idle.

ՅԵՐԻՄ, I GIVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ՅԵՐԻՄ (I give)	ՅԵՐ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՅԵՐ ԵՄ	ՅԵՐ ՐԻԾ.
ՅԵՐ ԲԵ	ՅԵՐ ՐԻԾՕ.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՅՄ (I do not give)	ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՆՆ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՆՆ ԵՄ	ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՆՆ ՐԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՆՆ ԲԵ	ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՆՆ ՐԻԾՕ.

Pronounce ՈՒ ՆՕՐՅՄ, etc.

IMPERFECT INDIC.

ՅԵՐԻՆՆ (I used to give)	ՅԵՐԵԱԾ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՅԵՐՇԵԱ	ՅԵՐԵԱԾ ՐԻԾ.
ՅԵՐԵԱԾ ԲԵ	ՅԵՐԵԱԾ ՐԻԾՕ.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԵՃԻՐԱՅՆՆ (I used not to give)	ՈՒ ԵՃԱՐԱԾ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԵՃԱՐՇԵԱ	ՈՒ ԵՃԱՐԱԾ ՐԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԵՃԱՐԱԾ ԲԵ	ՈՒ ԵՃԱՐԱԾ ՐԻԾՕ.

Pronounce ՈՒ ՆՕՐԱՅՆՆ, ՈՒ ՆՕՐԻՃՅՄ, etc.

PERFECT INDIC.

ՇՅՄԵ (I gave)	ՇՅ ՐԻՆՆ or ՇՅՄԱՐՕ.
ՇՅ ԵՄ	ՇՅ ՐԻԾ.
ՇՅ ԲԵ	ՇՅ ՐԻԾՕ.

Negative, etc.

ՈՒՅՐ ՇՅՄԵ or ՈՒ ՇՅՄԵ, etc.

ԱՐ ՇՅՄԵ? or Օ-ՇՅՄԵ? etc.

ՈՒՅՐ ՇՅՄԵ? or ՈՒՃ Օ-ՇՅՄԵ? etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Θειρριὸ me* (I shall give)	Θειρριὸ ρινν.
Θειρριὸ τῦ	Θειρριὸ ριβ.
Θειρριὸ ρέ	Θειρριὸ ριαῶ.

Also written ὀειρριὸ me.

Negative.

Νι ἐαῶρραιὸ me* (I will not give)	Νι ἐαῶρραιὸ ρινν.
Νι ἐαῶρραιὸ τῦ	Νι ἐαῶρραιὸ ριβ.
Νι ἐαῶρραιὸ ρε	Νι ἐαῶρραιὸ ριαῶ.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Θειρρινν (I would give)	Θειρρεαὸ ρινν.
Θειρρεα	Θειρρεαὸ ριβ.
Θειρρεαὸ ρε.	Θειρρεαὸ ριαῶ.

Also ὀειρραινν.

Negative.

Νι ἐαῶρραινν (I would not give)	Νι ἐαῶρραὸ ρινν.
Νι ἐαῶρρα	Νι ἐαῶρραὸ ριβ.
Νι ἐαῶρραὸ ρε	Νι ἐαῶρραὸ ριαῶ.

<i>Imperative</i>	Ταῶραι, † <i>pl.</i> Ταῶραισιρὸ or ταῶραισιρὸ.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Α ταῶραιτ (<i>Pr.</i> ἄ τῶραιτ, or α ἠῶραιτ).
<i>Participle</i>	ΑΣ ταῶραιτ (<i>Pr.</i> ΑΣ τῶραιτ or α τῶραιτ).

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	Θειρτεαρ μέ ; νι ἐαῶαρτεαρ μέ.
<i>Imperfect</i>	Θειρτει μέ ; νι ἐαῶαρτεαι μέ.
<i>Perfect</i>	Τυγαὸ μέ ; νιορ τυγαὸ μέ.
<i>Future</i>	ὀειρραρ μέ ; νι ἐαῶαρραρ μέ.
<i>Conditional</i>	Θειρριθε μέ ; νι ἐαῶαρραιθε μέ.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Α βειτ ἐαῶαρτεα, or α βειτ τυγεα.
<i>Participle</i>	Ταῶαρτεα or τυγεα.

* Pronounce : θειρηιμ ἄ, θειρηιττῦ, θειρηί ρέ (short, θειρηιρ ρά), etc. *Negative* : νι ἠορηιμ ἄ, νι ἠορηιττῦ, νι ἠορηί ρέ, etc.

† Pronounce, τῶρη.

✎ 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 τᾶσαι, but τῆ is also used.

IDIOMATIC USE OF βεῖμι.

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

- (1) Βεῖμι + το + noun or pronoun = I give... .
- (2) Βεῖμι + ἀρ + noun or pronoun = I pay... .
- (3) Βεῖμι + ἀρ + noun + infin. = I cause or compel.
- (4) Βεῖμι + τιον, λεᾶτ, λειρ, etc. = I take... .
- (5) Βεῖμι + ἐϋζαμ, ἐϋζατ, etc. = I bring... .

Examples.

ἔϋζε τὴν ἀρὰν τὸ μᾶριε	He gave bread to Mary.
ἔϋζε τὴν πηνίαν ἀρὰν ἀρὰν	He paid a penny for bread.
ἔϋζε τὴν ἀρὰν τὴν ἑσθῆν	He made Una sit.
ἔϋζε τὴν ἀρὰν τὸν βόειον	He took the cow with him.
ἔϋζε τὴν ἀρὰν τὴν ἐκείνην	He brought her the knife.
τᾶσαι ἐϋζαμ μοι τὰ ὑπόδημα	Bring me my shoes.

βεῖμι, I BEAR.

ACTIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	βεῖμι ; νί βεῖμι ; m-βεῖμι ?
<i>Imperfect</i>	βεῖμι ; νί βεῖμι ; m-βεῖμι ?
<i>Perfect</i>	ῥῆξέ με ; νί ῥῆξέ με ; ἀρ ῥῆξέ με ?
<i>Future</i>	βεῖμι με, νί βεῖμι με ; &c.
<i>Conditional</i>	βεῖμι ; νί βεῖμι ; m-βεῖμι ?
<i>Imperative</i>	Βεῖμι <i>pl.</i> βεῖμι.
<i>Infinitive</i>	ἄ βεῖν.
<i>Participle</i>	ἄς βεῖν.

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	Βεητεαρ μέ ; ní βεητεαρ μέ.
<i>Imperfect</i>	Βεητí μέ ; ní βεητí μέ.
<i>Perfect</i>	Ρυζαò μέ ; níοη ρυζαò μέ ; αρ ρυζαò μέ?
<i>Future</i>	Βεαρφαρ μέ ; ní βεαρφαρ μέ.
<i>Conditional</i>	Βεηφíοε μέ ; ní βεηφíοε μέ.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Δ βειτ βειτε.
<i>Participle</i>	Βειτε.

USE OF βειημ.

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

(1) To produce or bring forth :

Ρυζ ρί μαϑ	She brought forth a son.
Ρυζ αν βó	The cow calved.
Ρυζ αν έαηϑ	The hen laid.

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

Ρυζ ρε αρ αν τ-ρλαητ	He caught the rod.
Ρυζ ρε αρη έέαμυρ	He seized James.
Ρυζαò αρη έεαζαν	John was arrested.
Ρυζ ρε αρη ρεαοαρ	He overtook Peter.

N.B.—Hence, ρυζ ρε οημ=(1) He caught me, (2) he seized me, (3) he arrested me, (4) he overtook me. The participle βειτε is not used in the sense of catching, arresting, or overtaking, ζαηυτε (*pr.* ζυητε), from ζαβδαιμ, being used in its stead: Τα ρέ ζαηυτε= He is caught, he is "trapped," he is arrested, &c.

ՏՆԻՐՈՒՄ OR ՆԻՐՈՒՄ, I DO, I MAKE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ՏՆԻՐՈՒՄ (I do, I make)	ՏՆԻՐ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՏՆԻՐ ԿՍ	ՏՆԻՐ ՐԻԾ.
ՏՆԻՐ ՐԵ	ՏՆԻՐ ՐԻԾՕ.

Pr. նիմ, նի կս, etc.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՄ (I do not do)	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՆ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՆ ԿՍ	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՆ ՐԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՆ ՐԵ	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՆ ՐԻԾՕ.

Also ըս n-ծեանում, etc.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ՏՆԻՐՈՒՆՆ (I used to do)	ՏՆԻՐԵԱԾ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՏՆԻՐՇԵԱ	ՏՆԻՐԵԱԾ ՐԻԾ.
ՏՆԻՐԵԱԾ ՐԵ	ՏՆԻՐԵԱԾ ՐԻԾՕ.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՆՆ (I used not to do)	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒԾ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒՇԱ	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒԾ ՐԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒԾ ՐԵ	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՈՒԾ ՐԻԾՕ.

Also ըս n-ծեանումն, etc.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

ՐԻՆՆԵ ՄԵ (I did, I made)	ՐԻՆՆԵ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՐԻՆՆԵ ԿՍ	ՐԻՆՆԵ ՐԻԾ.
ՐԻՆՆԵ ՐԵ	ՐԻՆՆԵ ՐԻԾՕ.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԾԵՆՐՆ ՄԵ (I did not do)	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՐՆ ՐԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԾԵՆՐՆ ԿՍ	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՐՆ ՐԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԾԵՆՐՆ ՐԵ	ՈՒ ԾԵՆՐՆ ՐԻԾՕ.

Also ըս ծեան մե, etc.

Interrogative.

Ἐἔαμν με ? (Did I do?)	Ἐἔαμν ρινν ?
Ἐἔαμν τύ ?	Ἐἔαμν ριβ ?
Ἐἔαμν ρε ?	Ἐἔαμν ριατ ?

N.B.—No Eclipsis.

Interrogative Negative, etc.

Ἡαὐ Ἐἔαμν με ?	Did I not do ?
Ἢο Ἐἔαμν με	That I did, that I made.
Ἡαὐ Ἐἔαμν με	That I did not do.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Ἐἔαμναιτὸ με (I shall do)	Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ρινν.
Ἐἔαμναιτὸ τύ	Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ριβ.
Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ρε	Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ριατ.

Negative.

Ἡί Ἐἔαμναιτὸ με (I will not do)	Ἡί Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ρινν.
Ἡί Ἐἔαμναιτὸ τύ	Ἡί Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ριβ.
Ἡί Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ρε	Ἡί Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ριατ.


Also, Ḳa n-Ἐἔαμναιτὸ με, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Ἐἔαμναινν (I would do)	Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ρινν.
Ἐἔαμναι	Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ριβ.
Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ρε	Ἐἔαμναιτὸ ριατ.

Imperative : Ἐἔαν, *pl.* Ἐἔαναισιτὸ.

Infinitive : Δ Ἐἔαναιτὸ. *Participle* : ΔἪ Ἐἔαναιτὸ.

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

ΘΕΙΡΙΜ, I SAY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Θειριμ (I say)	Θειρ ρινη.
Θειρ τυ	Θειρ ριβ.
Θειρ ρε	Θειρ ριαδ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Θύβαιρτ με (I said)	Θύβαιρτ ρινη.
Θύβαιρτ τυ	Θύβαιρτ ριβ.
Θύβαιρτ ρε	Θύβαιρτ ριαδ.

Pronounce, θύιρτ με, etc.

Νιορ θύβαιρτ με	I did not say.
Αρ θύβαιρτ με ?	Did I say ?
Ναρ θύβαιρτ με ?	Did I not say ?
Αβαιρ, αβραιγιθ	Say thou, say you.
Α ραδ ; ας ριαδ	To say ; saying.

The other parts are quite regular.

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	Θειρτεαρ ε	<i>It is said.</i>
<i>Imperfect</i>	Θειρτι ε	<i>It was said.</i>
<i>Perfect</i>	Αβιαδ ε	<i>It was said.</i>
<i>Future</i>	Θεαρραρ ε	<i>It will be said.</i>
<i>Conditional</i>	Θεαρραιθε ε	<i>It would be said.</i>
<i>Infin. and Part.</i>	Α βειτ ραίρτε ; ραίρτε.	
<i>Impersonal</i>	Θειρτεαρ	It is said (<i>Fr., On dit</i>).
	Θειρτι	It was said.
	Αβιαδ	It was said.
	Θεαρραρ	It will be said.
	Θεαρραιθε	It would be said.

N.B.—Θειριμ + τε = I tell, as Θειριμ τεατ, I tell you; Θύβαιρτ με τε Μάριε, I told Mary. The θ of θύβαιρτ is silent.

ՏԵԻԾԻՄ (I GET, I FIND).

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ՏԵԻԾԻՄ* (I get)	ՏԵԻԾ ԲԻՆՆ.
ՏԵԻԾ ԵՍ	ՏԵԻԾ ԲԻԾ.
ՏԵԻԾ ԲԵ	ՏԵԻԾ ԲԻԱԾ.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱԻՄ (I do not get)	ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱՆՆ ԲԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱՆՆ ԵՍ	ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱՆՆ ԲԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱՆՆ ԲԵ	ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱՆՆ ԲԻԱԾ.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ՏԵԻԾԻՆՆ (I used to get)	ՏԵԻԾԵԱԾ ԲԻՆՆ.
ՏԵԻԾԵՆ	ՏԵԻԾԵԱԾ ԲԻԾ.
ՏԵԻԾԵԱԾ ԲԵ	ՏԵԻԾԵԱԾ ԲԻԱԾ.

Pr. yevinn, yevha, etc.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱԻՆՆ (I used not to get)	ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱԾ ԲԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԲՃՏԵՆ	ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱԾ ԲԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱԾ ԲԵ	ՈՒ ԲՃՏԱԾ ԲԻԱԾ.

Pr. ՈՒ ԱԻՆՆ, ՈՒ ԱԻՆՆԱ, etc.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

ԲԱԻՐ ՄԵ (I got)	ԲԱԻՐ ԲԻՆՆ.
ԲԱԻՐ ԵՍ	ԲԱԻՐ ԲԻԾ.
ԲԱԻՐ ԲԵ	ԲԱԻՐ ԲԻԱԾ.

Negative.

ՈՒ ԲԱԻՐՒՄ ՄԵ (I did not get)	ՈՒ ԲԱԻՐ ԲԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԲԱԻՐ ԵՍ	ՈՒ ԲԱԻՐ ԲԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԲԱԻՐ ԲԵ	ՈՒ ԲԱԻՐ ԲԻԱԾ.

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

† Pronounce *ո՛ւ ԲԱԻՐ.*

Interrogative.

Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ mē? (Did I get?)	Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛꝛ?
Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ tū	Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ?
Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛ?	Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ?

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Œeōðarō me (I shall get)	Œeōðarō ꝑꝛꝛꝛ.
Œeōðarō tū	Œeōðarō ꝑꝛꝛ.
Œeōðarō ꝑꝛ	Œeōðarō ꝑꝛꝛ.

Pr. yo'-ee mǎ, etc.*Negative.*

nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛ* me (I shall not get)	nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛꝛ.
nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛ tū	nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ.
nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛ	nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ.

Interrogative.

Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ me? (Shall I get?)	Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛꝛ?
Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ tū?	Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ?
Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛ?	Û-ꝑꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ?

Pr. wee mǎ? etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Œeōðarō me (I would get)	Œeōðarō ꝑꝛꝛꝛ.
Œeōðarō tū	Œeōðarō ꝑꝛꝛ.
Œeōðarō ꝑꝛ	Œeōðarō ꝑꝛꝛ.

Pr. yōinn, yōhǎ, yōit ꝑǎ, etc.*Negative.*

nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ (I would not get)	nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛꝛ.
nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ	nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ.
nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛ	nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ ꝑꝛꝛ.

Pr. nī wuinn, nī wuīhǎ, nī wuīt ꝑǎ, etc.

Also, nī ꝑꝛꝛꝛꝛ, etc.

* *Pronounce*: nī wuīŒ, or nī wee.

Imperative Ἔα , ἔασαι (Pr. ἔα , ἔα-ισ-ί).

Infinitive ἄσαι (Pr. ἄσαι).

Participle ἄσας (Pr. ἄσας or ἄσας).

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ ?

Imperfect ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ ?

Perfect ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ ?

Future ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ.

Conditional ἔσασθαι μέ ; ἔσασθαι μέ.

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

ἔσασθαι	I am to be got.
ἔσασθαι	I used to be got.
ἔσασθαι	I was to be got.
ἔσασθαι	I shall be got.
ἔσασθαι	I would be got.
ἔσασθαι	To be got.
ἔσασθαι	Got.

ἔσασθαι , I GO.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ἔσασθαι (I go) ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι.

ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι.

ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι.

Sometimes ἔσασθαι is used instead of ἔσασθαι .

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ἔσασθαι (I used to go) ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι.

ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι.

ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι.

Pr. ἔσασθαι , ἔσασθαι , ἔσασθαι ἔσασθαι (long ἔσασθαι , etc.).

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Ćuajō me (I went)	Ćuajō rinn.
Ćuajō tū	Ćuajō rīb.
Ćuajō pe	Ćuajō riat.

Negative.

Ńi ōeacajō me (I did not go)	Ńi ōeacajō rinn.
Ńi ōeacajō tū	Ńi ōeacajō rīb.
Ńi ōeacajō pe	Ńi ōeacajō riat.

Also, ċa ōeacajō me, etc.

Interrogative.

Ōeacajō me? (Did I go?)	Ōeacajō rinn?
Ōeacajō tū?	Ōeacajō rīb?
Ōeacajō pe?	Ōeacajō riat?

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Racajō me (I shall go)	Racajō rinn.
Racajō tū	Racajō rīb.
Racajō pe	Racajō riat.

Pr. pahim mĕ, pahă tū, pahă pĕ (long, pahī* pĕ).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Racajinn (I would go)	Racajō rinn.
Racă	Racajō rīb.
Racajō pe	Racajō riat.

Pr. pahinn, pahă, pahit pĕ (long, pahū pĕ).

Imperative Tejō, teiōiġiō; also ġab (*Pr.* ġo).

Infinitive a ōul; a ġabail (*Pr.* a ġol).

Participle aġ ōul; aġ ġabail (*Pr.* a ġol).

* Except when followed by the pronouns, this long sound is usual :
racajō mājpe, *pr.* rah'-ee mājpe.

N.B.—As may be seen $\tau\epsilon\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\lambda\alpha\iota\omicron$ never takes $\mu\omicron$, and hence, the particles used are $\eta\acute{\iota}$ (not $\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\mu$), $\xi\omicron$ (not $\xi\omicron\mu$), and $\eta\lambda\acute{\epsilon}$ (not $\eta\lambda\mu$). The interrogative particle $\alpha\eta$ is not used, and the word never has its initial eclipsed, although we find it sometimes so affected in the written language.

ΤΙΣΙΜ, I COME.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ΤΙΣΙΜ (I come)	ΤΙΣ ΡΙΝΝ.
ΤΙΣ ΤÚ	ΤΙΣ ΡΙΒ.
ΤΙΣ ΡΕ	ΤΙΣ ΡΙΑΘ.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ἸΣΙΝΝ (I used to come)	ἸΣΕΛΘ ΡΙΝΝ.
ἸΣἶἔΑ	ἸΣΕΛΘ ΡΙΒ.
ἸΣΕΛΘ ΡΕ	ἸΣΕΛΘ ΡΙΑΘ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

ἘΑΙΝΙC ME (I came)	ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΝΝ.
ἘΑΙΝΙC ΤÚ	ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΒ.
ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΕ	ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΑΘ.

Pr. ηενιc me, ηενιc τÚ, etc.

Negative.

ἨΙΟΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ME (I did not come)	ἨΙΟΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΝΝ.
ἨΙΟΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΤU	ἨΙΟΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΒ.
ἨΙΟΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΕ	ἨΙΟΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΑΘ.

Also, $\eta\acute{\iota}$ ἘΑΙΝΙC me, etc.

Interrogative.

ΔΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ME? (Did I come)?	ΔΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΝΝ?
ΔΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΤÚ?	ΔΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΒ?
ΔΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΕ?	ΔΡ ἘΑΙΝΙC ΡΙΑΘ?

Also, \omicron -ἘΑΙΝΙC me? etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Τιοφαιὸ me (I shall come).	Τιοφαιὸ ριnn.
Τιοφαιὸ τῦ	Τιοφαιὸ ριβ.
Τιοφαιὸ ρε	Τιοφαιὸ ριαθ.

Pr. Τιοχιm mě, τιοχḗ τῦ, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

ῤιοφαιnn (I would come)	ῤιοφαιὸ ριnn.
ῤιοφαι	ῤιοφαιὸ ριβ.
ῤιοφαιὸ ρε	ῤιοφαιὸ ριαθ.

Pr. ηυχιnn, ηυχα, etc.

<i>Imperative</i>	Ται, ταιραιγιὸ, ; or τισ, τισιθιὸ.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Δ τελετ.
<i>Participle</i>	Δς τελετ.



Ται in second persons only.

ΤΙΘΙM, I SEE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Τιθιm (I see)	Τιθ ριnn.
Τιθ τῦ	Τιθ ριβ.
Τιθ ρε	Τιθ ριαθ.

Negative.

ηι φειχιm (I do not see)	ηι φειεann ριnn.
ηι φειεann τῦ	ηι φειεann ριβ.
ηι φειεann ρε	ηι φειεann ριαθ.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

Τιθιnn (I used to see).	Τιθεαὸ ριnn.
Τιθεα	Τιθεαὸ ριβ.
Τιθεαὸ ρε	Τιθεαὸ ριαθ.

Negative.

Νί ϕείκοιμν (I used not to see)	Νί ϕείκεαδ ριμν.
Νί ϕείκετσα	Νί ϕείκεαδ ριβ.
Νί ϕείκεαδ ρε	Νί ϕείκεαδ ριαδ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Ἐηαιε με (I saw)	Ἐηαιε ριμν.
Ἐηαιε τύ	Ἐηαιε ριβ.
Ἐηαιε ρε	Ἐηαιε ριαδ.

Pr. ηαιε με, ηαιε τύ, etc.

Negative.

Νί ϕακαιρò με (I did not see).	Νί ϕακαιρò ριμν.
Νί ϕακαιρò τύ	Νί ϕακαιρò ριβ.
Νί ϕακαιρò ρε	Νί ϕακαιρò ριαδ.

Pr. Νί αιμ με, Νί αι τύ, Νί αι ρε (long, Νί αι ρε), etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Τιρριò με (I shall see)	Τιρριò ριμν.
Τιρριò τύ	Τιρριò ριβ.
Τιρριò ρε	Τιρριò ριαδ.

Pr. Τιριμ με, τιρα tu, τιρι ρε (long, τιρι ρε), etc.

Negative.

Νί ϕειριò με (I shall not see)	Νί ϕειριò ριμν.
Νί ϕειριò τύ	Νί ϕειριò ριβ.
Νί ϕειριò ρε	Νί ϕειριò ριαδ.

Pr. Νί ειμ με, Νί ει τύ, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Τιρριμν (I would see)	Τιρρεαδ ριμν.
Τιρρεα	Τιρρεαδ ριβ.
Τιρρεαδ ρε	Τιρρεαδ ριαδ.

Pr. Τιριμν, τιρα, τιριτ ρε (long, τιρι ρε).

Negative.

Νί ϕεicϕinn (I would not see) Νί ϕεicϕεαὸ ϕinn.

Νί ϕεicϕεα Νί ϕεicϕεαὸ ϕιβ.

Νί ϕεicϕεαὸ ϕε Νί ϕεicϕεαὸ ϕιασ.

Pr. Νί echinn, ní echă, ní echit ϕĕ (long, ní echú ϕĕ), etc.

Imperative Δήμαρc, ἀμάρcαισιὸ (Pr. Ὄρc, ὀρcισί).

Infinitive Δ ϕεiceαλ or Δ ϕεicϕιντ.

Participle Δς ϕεiceαλ, Δς ϕεicϕιντ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. Τιὸτεαρ μέ ; ní ϕεicτεαρ μέ.

Imperfect Τιὸτí μέ ; ní ϕεicτí μέ.


Perfect ἔαναιceαρ μέ ; ni ϕαcαρ μέ.

Future Τιὸϕεαρ μέ ; ní ϕεicϕεαρ μέ.

Conditional Τιὸϕιὸε μέ ; ní ϕεicϕιὸε μέ.

Infinitive Δ βειτ le ϕεiceαλ } See ḡεivim (Pass. Infin)

Participle le ϕεiceαλ }

 Τιὸτεαρ ταῑ = It appears to me, methinks ;
ἔαναιceαρ ταῑ = methought.

N.B.—(1) The present tense is τιὸim, but we find εἰὸim in books.

(2) The perfect tense is ἔαναιc me, but in books we find it written ἐονναιρc me ; and in imitation of this classic spelling, modern grammarians are suggesting ἐονναιc me, which is evidently trying to sit on two stools.

(3) Note that ϕ is sounded fully in τιὸϕιὸ and τιὸϕinn, and that the initial of the latter is not aspirated.

CLUINIM, I HEAR.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

CLUINIM (I hear)	CLUINEANN FINN.
CLUINEANN TÚ	CLUINEANN FIB.
CLUINEANN FE	CLUINEANN FIAO.

PERFECT TENSE.

ĈUADAIO me (I heard)	ĈUADAIO FINN.
ĈUADAIO TÚ	ĈUADAIO FIB.
ĈUADAIO FE	ĈUADAIO FIAO.

Pr. Ĉualim mě, ĉuală tú, ĉuală ře or ĉualai ré, etc.

Negative, etc.

NIOR ĈUADAIO me	I did not hear.
ΔI ĈUADAIO me?	} Did I hear?
Σ-CUADAIO me?	
Δ'Σ-CUADAIO me?	
Δ ĈUINFTIN	To hear.
ΔΣ CLUINFTIN	Hearing.

The other parts are quite regular.

ICTIM, I EAT.

Future Indic. IOFFAIO me,* I shall eat.

Conditional O'IOFFAIMN, I would eat.

Perfect O'IC me, I ate.

Imperative IC, ICTIIO, Eat.

Infinitive Δ ICE, To eat.

Participle ΔΣ ICE, Eating.

The other parts are regular.

* *Pr.* IOFFIM mě.

USE OF $\Delta\eta$.

(a) The interrogative particle $\Delta\eta$ 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, $\Delta\eta$ must be expressed, as $\Delta\eta$ $\rho\acute{o}\rho\alpha$? 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 $\Delta\eta$ ν - $\tau\upsilon\zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$? $\Delta\eta$ η - $\nu\alpha\eta\eta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$? We say ν - $\tau\upsilon\zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$? η - $\nu\alpha\eta\eta$ $\tau\upsilon$? After $\Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho$, $\Delta\epsilon\tau$, etc., however, $\Delta\eta$ is often heard: $\Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\Delta\eta$ ν - $\tau\upsilon\zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$? or more usually, $\Delta\zeta\upsilon\rho$ Δ' ν - $\tau\upsilon\zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\tau\upsilon$?

(b) In the perfect tense $\Delta\eta$ cannot eclipse because $\rho\acute{o}$ comes between it and the verb; hence aspiration is usual in this tense, as,

$\Delta\eta$ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\epsilon$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$ $\acute{\epsilon}$?	Did you beat him?
$\Delta\eta$ $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\iota\tau$ $\tau\upsilon$ $\nu\omicron$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron\rho\alpha$?	Did you smoke your pipe?
$\Delta\eta$ $\acute{\omicron}\iota\omicron\epsilon$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$ $\nu\omicron$ $\beta\omicron$?	Did you sell your cow?

(c) The exceptions to this rule (b) are confined principally to $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\iota\eta\eta\epsilon$, $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\zeta$, and $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\iota\acute{\omicron}$. These can either have their initials eclipsed or aspirated.

ν - $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\iota\eta\eta\epsilon$ $\rho\epsilon$?	$\Delta\eta$ $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\iota\eta\eta\epsilon$ $\rho\epsilon$?	Did he come?
ν - $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\zeta$ $\rho\epsilon$?	$\Delta\eta$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\zeta$ $\rho\epsilon$?	Did he give?
ζ - $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\iota\acute{\omicron}$ $\rho\epsilon$?	$\Delta\eta$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\iota\acute{\omicron}$ $\rho\epsilon$?	Did he hear?

(d) In the absence of $\rho\acute{o}$ the particle $\Delta\eta$ regains its eclipsing power. But it rarely occurs that $\rho\acute{o}$ neglects its post. Once in a while, however, it may be said to take a holiday, as in the case of $\rho\upsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ and $\rho\alpha\epsilon\alpha\iota\acute{\omicron}$, before which it never appears. Hence, when $\rho\acute{o}$ is absent,

and the way open to the interrogative particle *an*, eclipsis is inevitable.

ḅ- <i>puair</i> tú é ?	Did you get it ?
Δ <i>zu</i> ρ Δ' ḅ- <i>puair</i> tú é ?	And did you get it ?
ḅ- <i>pacair</i> ò tú é ?	Did you see him ?
Δ <i>ct</i> Δ' ḅ- <i>pacair</i> ò tú é ?	But did you see him ?

N.B.—*Deáin* and *deáair* never take *no*, and as a result they never have their initials aspirated except by *ní*. One would expect, however, that their initials would be eclipsed, but according to modern usage they are not.

Deáin tú <i>rin</i> ?	Did you do that ?
na <i>c</i> deáin tú é ?	Did you not do it ?
Deáairò ré <i>ruar</i> ?	Did he go up ?
na <i>c</i> deáairò <i>re ruar</i> ?	Did he not go up ?

USE OF *oo*.

(a) The sign of the perfect tense active is *oo*. This particle is visibly present before vowels and *ř*. It is invisibly present in other cases; but it is absent before *puair*, *pacair*ò, *deáin* and *deáair*ò. Whether visibly or invisibly present, it has the power of aspirating.

Ḍ'ól ré	He drank.	} (visibly present.)
Ḍ' řá <i>z</i> ré	He left.	
ḅuair ré	He struck.	} (invisibly present.)
řó <i>r</i> ré	He roasted.	
<i>puair</i> <i>re</i>	He got.	(absent.)

(b) In negative, interrogative, and dependent sentences *oo* becomes *no* which is always visibly present.

This applies to the perfect tense passive, but no aspiration takes place.

He did not beat	= ní ηο βυαίτ γε	= níοη βυαίτ γε.
Did he beat?	= Δη ηο βυαίτ γε?	= Δη βυαίτ γε?
That he beat	= ζο ηο βυαίτ γε	= ζυη βυαίτ γε?
That he was beaten?	= ζο ηο βυαίτεαθ έ	= ζυη βυαίτεαθ έ.

(c) In the other past tenses active, and in the imperfect and conditional passive, ςο, just as in the perfect tense active, is visibly present before vowels and ϕ, and invisibly present in the other cases. But in negative, interrogative, and dependent sentences ςο and ηο are absent.

Ό'οταίνν	}	visible	}	presence of ςο.		
Ό'οτφαίνν						
Ό'φαναίνν						
Ό'φανφαίνν						
βυαίτίνν	}	invisible				
βυαίτφίνν						
βυαίττι μέ						
βυαίτφιδε μέ						
η-βυαίτίνν?	}	interrogative			}	absence of ςο.
η-βυαίτφίνν?						
ηί βυαίτίνν	}	negative				
ηί βυαίτφίνν						
ζο η-βυαίτίνν	}	dependent				
ζο η-βυαίτφίνν						

Adverbs.

(a) Adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives by prefixing the particle ζο, which requires η when the adjective begins with a vowel.

ζεαλ, bright	ζο ζεαλ, brightly.
μιλιρ, sweet	ζο μιλιρ, sweetly.
μαιτ, good	ζο μαιτ, well.
οτε, bad	ζο η-οτε, badly.

(b) All other adverbs are either simple or compound. The compound adverbs are usually formed by a preposition and a noun, as, αιρ ζ-κυτ, behind, literally, *on back*. Sometimes they are made up of an adjective and a noun, as κορ υαιρ, occasionally, literally, *odd hour*. The following are the principal adverbs in use at the present day:—

ανοιρ, now	αριρτ, again.
ανν ριν, then	α ζ-κοιηνυιρε, always.
ανν ρο, ανν ρεο, here	α β-ραο, β-ραο, long, far.
ανν ρυο, yonder	ζο ροιτ, still, yet.
νυαιρ, when	φα οειμεαο } at last.
κα η-υαιρ, κα νυαιρ? } when?	σα οειμεαο }
κα η-υαιρ?	α ροιμε, before, already.
κα η-αιτ? κα η-αιτ? where?	α ηενιρην, already, so soon.
κα η-αρ? whence?	ροιμε ρε, already.
ζο ο-τι, till, until	α η-αιρσε, up, on high.
κορ υαιρ, occasionally	αιρ οειμεαο, last, behind.
α ο-τοιρεαο, in front	ηα θαιτε, α θαιτε, home(wards).
μαρ, because, as	αιρ ζ-κυτ, back, backwards.
μαρ ζ-σευοηα, in like manner	ζαν ηυιηι, by and by.
μαρ ρην σε, so that	ζο λεορ, enough.
αιρ ο-τυρ } first, at first	ζο λειρ, entirely.
εευο υαιρ }	ζο η-ιοηιαν, entirely.
α εευο υαιρ }	ζο οιρμεαο,* indeed, just.
ραο ο ροιη, long ago	ζο σεαρηβετα,* indeed, truly, really.
αιρ αιρ, back, again	λεοζα,* indeed, really.
κα μευο? } How many?	φορτα, also.
κα ηευο? }	αιρ αν αοβαρ ρην, hence.

* ζο οειρην is often met with in books.

Ξο οε 'n μέρο ? how much ?

Διη ραο, entirely

μαίρε, "musha," well

αμαέ, out (motion)

αμουξ, out, outside

αρτεαέ, in (motion)

αρτυξ, in, inside

Διη η-οόιζε, of course.

Διηαή, ever.

Δ έοιόε

Ξο οεό

Ξο ημάέ

Τηαρνα, across, over.

} for ever, ever.

Adverbial Phrases.

Διη μαίοίν

Διη μαίοίν αηιύ

Διη μαίοίν αηέ

Διη μαίοίν αμάραέ

Σαν τηαέηόηα

Τηαέηόηα αηέ

Λά έαη ηα ηάραέ.

Διη αήαηε λαε

Αηιύ ; αηέ

Αμάραέ

Αηοέτ, αήέηη

Σαν ειοέε αμάραέ

Αηέυζαό ηέ

Αηέυζαό ηέηη

Α ηόηαί

Σαν οιοέε ηόηαί

Αη η-ηεαέτμάηηη ηυζαηηη*

Αη ηή ηυζαηηη*

Αη έηιαόαηη ηυζαηηη*

Αη η-ηεαέτμάηηη ηο έαηε*

Αη ηή ηο έαηε*

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—ηυζαηηη = ηο έυζαηηηη.

Α ναιριό ; α m-βλιαθνα	Last year ; this year.
Αη βλιαόαιη ρο έαρτ	Last year.
Θια Λυαιη	On Monday.
Θια Μάιητ	On Tuesday.
Θια Σευδαοιη	On Wednesday.
Θια Αηθαοιη	On Thursday.
Θια η-Αοιη	On Friday.
Θια Σαΐαιηη	On Saturday.
Θια Θομναιξ	On Sunday.
Αηη μαηοίν Θια Θομναιξ	On Sunday morning.
Τρατηόνα Θια Θομναιξ	On Sunday evening.

UP AND DOWN.

ρuar = up	<i>i.e.</i> motion upwards from this point.
ανίοη = up	„ motion from below to this point.
ήuar = up	„ rest above this point.
αβuar = up	„ rest at this point.
ήιοη = down	„ motion downwards from this point.
ήιοη = down	„ rest below this point.
ανuar = down	„ motion from above to this point.
αβuar = down	„ rest at this point.

Examples.

A

A to B: I'll throw it down	Αιΐηριό με ήιοη έ.
„ Is it down yet ?	Ό-ρuiλ ηε ήιοη ζο ροιλ ?
„ Throw it up	Αιΐ ανίοη έ.
„ It is up now	Τά ηε αβuar ανοηη.
B to A: I'll throw it up	Αιΐηριό με ρuar έ.
„ Is it up yet ?	Ό-ρuiλ ηε ήuar ζο ροιλ ?
„ Throw it down	Αιΐ ανuar έ.
„ It is down now	Τά ηε αβuar ανοηη.

B

OVER.

- ρίαι = over *i.e.* motion Westward from this point.
 ανίαι = over „ motion from West to this point.
 ροιι = over „ motion Eastward from this point.
 ανοιι = over „ motion from East to this point.
 ρίαι = over „ rest at the West.
 Σοιι = over „ rest at the East.
 Αθυρ = over „ rest at this point.

Examples.

<i>East</i>	B	A	<i>West.</i>
A to C :	I'll throw over the stone		καιτεριό με ρίαι αν έλοό.
„	Is it over yet ?		Ό-ρuiλ ρε ρίαι ζο ρόιλ ?
„	Throw it over again		καιτ ανίαι αιρ αιρ έ.
„	Good, it is over now		μαιε έυ, τά ρε αθυρ ανοιρ.
A to B :	I'll throw over the stone		καιτεριό με ροιι αν έλοό.
„	Is it over yet ?		Ό-ρuiλ ρε ροιι ζο ρόιλ ?
„	Throw it over again		καιτ ανοιι αιμίρτ έ.
„	Good, it is over now		μαιε έυ, τά ρε αθυρ ανοιρ.

Simple Prepositions.

Δ, ανη, ανηρ, in.

ΑΣ, αιΣ, at.

ανροιι, to.

αιρ, out of, from.

οε, from, off, of.

οο, to.

ρριό, through.

ρυο, through, about.

ρΔ, about.

ρΔοι, under

αι, αιρ, on.

ζαν, without.

ζο, to.

ιαι, after.

ιοιι, between.

τε, τειρ, with.

μαρ, as like.

ο, from.

ροιμε, before.

εαιρ, over, across.

εαιρτ, round.

τρε, 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 ὀφθαλμοῦ, before, under the eye (of).

Δ παρῶν, before, in the presence (of).

Ὀπίσθιν, before, opposite, under the eyes (of).

Δ ὀφθαλμοῦ, with, in the company (of).

Δ ἕξ, after, in the wake (of).

Δ ἕξ, against ; Δ ὀπίσθιν, behind.

ἕνεκα, for the sake (of) ; ἀνεπαρῶν, amidst.

ἕνεκα, for the sake of (governs dative).

Δ παρὰ ; παρὰ, beside, at the foot (of).

Δ ἕξ, ἕξ, next to, close to, on the side (of).

ἕνεκα, about, concerning (govs. dat.).

ἕνεκα ; ἕνεκα, for.

ἕως, to, as far as, till (govs. dat.).

Ὀπίσθιν, over, above ; ὀπίσθιν, according to.

Δ ἕξ, Δ ἕξ, against.

Δ ἕξ, in the company (of).

Δ ἕξ, along with (govs. dat.).

The Preposition, Δ, ΔΝΝ, ΔΝΝΣ.

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 ἕξ.

In Scotland

Δ ἕξ.

In a country

Δ ἕξ.

(2) By *ann* before a possessive pronoun, or a Christian name—

In my own country	<i>ann mo tír féin.</i>
There is strength in Mary	<i>ta bfuíḡ ann mháire.</i>

(3) By *annr* when the article follows—

In the country	<i>annr an tír.</i>
In this country	<i>annr an tír ro.</i>

The Preposition “For.”

(1) When “for” signifies “to fetch,” “to bring,” it is rendered by *fa* *coinne* or *fa* *óéin*—

He went for the cow	<i>cuairt ré fa coinne na bó.</i>
He went for them	<i>cuairt re fa na ḡ-coinne.</i>

(2) When “for” means “to oblige” it is rendered by *ro*—

Do this for me	<i>deán ro daim.</i>
Dance for us	<i>deán daimḡa dúinn.</i>
Here is a penny for you	<i>so pḡḡin tuic.</i>

(3) In connection with price it must be rendered by *air*—

He paid a penny for it	<i>cuḡ ré pḡḡin air.</i>
Give him a penny for it	<i>tabair pḡḡin dó air.</i>

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)	<i>mac mháire.</i>
The son of the man (the man’s son)	<i>mac an fíir.</i>
The head of a man (a man’s head)	<i>ceann fíir.</i>
The side of a hill (a hill’s side)	<i>taob chuir.</i>

(b) When “of” follows a numeral, or the equivalent of a numeral, *de* and a dative must be used.

One of the cows	ceann de na ba.
A man of the tribe	feam de 'n oimeam.
The first day of the month	an ceud lá de 'n mí.
Five of the cows	cúig cinn de na ba.
A boatful of honey	lán-báir de 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	Duine asainn, beirt asainn.
One of you, two of them	Duine asuib, beirt asa.
One of these	Duine asa ro.

(d) Numerals that cannot stand alone take *ceann* (head) in connection with irrational animals and things, or *claiḡeann* (skull) in connection with persons.

Five of them (<i>i.e.</i> , cows)	cúig cinn asa; cuiḡeam asa.
Five of them (<i>i.e.</i> , men)	cúig claiḡne asa; cuiḡeam asa.

(e) When “of” follows “which?” we must use *de* and a dative in the case of nouns and *as* in the case of pronouns.

Which of the women?	ceoga de na mná?
Which of the cows?	ceoga de na ba?
Which of us?	ceoga asainn?


Functions of Prepositions.

(a) Simple prepositions govern the dative case, compound ones govern the genitive.

lá feur aig an bhui	The cow has hay.
lá fe of cionn do cinn	It is above your head.

(*b*) When a simple preposition comes beside a noun it has the power of aspirating. But *ξο*, *τε*, *αξ*, *ατ* cause no initial change, while *α* eclipses.

τά ρε αρι έαπαλλ	He is on a horse.
ρηίο θατε ραξαινε	Through our town.
ταρι έαοριαν να ζ-κλοέ	Over the rocky moorland.
ξο θατε ραξαινε	To our town.
αξ αρηιας	At a rock.
α m-θατε κλιαέ	In Dublin.

 When *ξαν* performs the function of a preposition it does not aspirate, but when it acts as prefix it aspirates. *μαρι* causes no initial change in nouns except in prepositional locutions, but it causes aspiration in verbs—the word *τά* excepted. When *ιορι* means “between,” it causes no initial change, but when it means “both” or “including” it aspirates.

ρεαρι ξαν ααορια	A man without a sheep.
ρεαρι ξαν μμναό	An unmannerly man.
μαρι ρεαρι μαιε	Like a good man.
μαρι ξεαλλ αρι αν όρι	For the sake of the gold.
μαρι θυαυιμ	As I strike.
τά τυ μαρι τά τυ	You are as you are.
ιορι ααπαλλ αξυρ αραι	Between a horse and an ass.
ιορι έαραυλλ αξυρ αραι	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” = *ορ κιονν ξεαξαιν*, literally, “over the head of *John*.” But “above me” = *ορ μο κιονν*, 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 ÒINNE (IN MY PRESENCE).

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Or mo òinne, in my presence.

Or ar ḡ-coinne, in our presence.

Or do òinne, in thy presence.

Or buḡ ḡ-coinne, in your presence.

Or a òinne, in his presence.

Or a ḡ-coinne, in their presence.

Or a coinne, in her presence.

OS MO ÒIONN.

Or mo òionn (above me)

Or ar ḡ-cionn.

Or do òionn

Or buḡ ḡ-cionn.

Or a òionn, or a cionn

Or a ḡ-cionn.

FA MO ÒINNE.

FA mo òinne (for me)

FA nar ḡ-coinne.

FA do òinne

FA buḡ ḡ-coinne.

FA na òinne, etc.

FA na ḡ-coinne.

FA MO ÒÉIN.

FA mo òéin (for me)

FA nar n-òéin.

FA do òéin

FA buḡ n-òéin.

FA na òéin, etc.

FA na n-òéin.

ANN M' AḠAÍÒ.

Ann m' aḡaíò (against me)

Ann ar n-aḡaíò.

Ann o' aḡaíò

Ann buḡ n-aḡaíò.

Na aḡaíò, na h-aḡaíò

Na n-aḡaíò.

ΔΗΝ ΜΟ ΎΙΔΙΘ.

ΔΗΝ ΜΟ ΎΙΔΙΘ (after me)	ΔΗΝ ΔΡ Ν-ΥΙΔΙΘ.
ΔΗΝ ΟΟ ΎΙΔΙΘ	ΔΗΝ ΟΥΡ Ν-ΥΙΔΙΘ.
ΝΑ ΎΙΔΙΘ, etc.	ΝΑ Ν-ΥΙΔΙΘ.

Usually.

ΜΟ ΎΙΔΙΘ (after me)	ΔΡ Ν-ΥΙΔΙΘ.
ΟΟ ΎΙΔΙΘ	ΟΥΡ Ν-ΥΙΔΙΘ.
ΝΑ ΎΙΔΙΘ, ΝΑ ΥΙΔΙΘ	ΝΑ Ν-ΥΙΔΙΘ.

The Conjunctions.

Δέτ (<i>pr.</i> Δέ) but, only*	Ιονα, να, than.
Δξυρ, and	μυνα } if...not, unless.
μα, οα, if	μυρ }
ξο, that	ο } as, since
μα τά ξο, yet	ο έαριτα }
Οε ύμξ ξο, inasmuch as	νο, να, for, because.
Οο έυμ ξο, in order that	Συ, before.
Ιοννυρ ξο, so that	ξίθ, although.

N.B.—μα is used with the indicative mood and aspirates the initial of the verb. οα is used with the conditional mood only, and always expresses a condition. It eclipses the initial of the verb, as, οα μ-βείθεαθ άριξεαθ άξαμ έεαννοέαινν έαριλλ, if I had (*lit.* if I would have) money I would buy a horse. οα ο-τ'οερα άνοέτ μαέαινν τεατ, 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 = ήί ήυίλ άξαμ άέτ ρίξην.

but it conveys nothing in this example but the conditional mood. To express a condition, therefore, with $\tau\alpha$, the conditional mood must be used. Of course we can express a condition also with $\mu\alpha$, as, $\mu\alpha \tau\iota\varsigma \rho\acute{\epsilon} \alpha\nu\omicron\tau \kappa\upsilon\eta\rho\epsilon\alpha\tau \alpha\iota\tau \rho\upsilon\beta\alpha\tau \tau\acute{\upsilon}$, if he *should* come to-night you will be sent away.

Interjections.

$\delta\acute{\alpha}$! or O! $\Delta\mu\alpha\rho\epsilon$!	Oh! or O! Look!
$\upsilon\beta\beta\acute{o}$! $\Phi\alpha\rho\alpha\sigma\tau$!	Fie! Alas!
$\upsilon\acute{\epsilon}$! or $\omicron\acute{\epsilon}$! $\omicron\acute{\epsilon}\omicron\eta\eta$!	Oh! Alas!

$\mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon} \eta\alpha\acute{\epsilon} \upsilon\text{-}\rho\upsilon\iota\lambda \rho\lambda\alpha\tau \alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$!	} Would that I had a rod!
$\mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon} \zeta\alpha\eta \rho\lambda\alpha\tau \alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$!	
$\iota\tau \tau\eta\upsilon\alpha\zeta \eta\alpha\acute{\epsilon} \upsilon\text{-}\rho\upsilon\iota\lambda \rho\lambda\alpha\tau \alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$!	
$\iota\tau \tau\eta\upsilon\alpha\zeta \zeta\alpha\eta \rho\lambda\alpha\tau \alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$!	
$\iota\tau \mu\alpha\iota\eta\varsigma \eta\alpha\acute{\epsilon} \upsilon\text{-}\rho\upsilon\iota\lambda \rho\lambda\alpha\tau \alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$!	
$\iota\tau \mu\alpha\iota\eta\varsigma \zeta\alpha\eta \rho\lambda\alpha\tau \alpha\zeta\alpha\mu$!	

Endearing Expressions.

$\acute{\alpha} \tau\alpha\iota\rho\zeta\epsilon$!	My treasure! my dear!
$\acute{\alpha} \tau\alpha\iota\rho\zeta\epsilon \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon$!	O treasure of my heart!
$\acute{\alpha} \rho\acute{\upsilon}\eta$!	My secret! my treasure!
$\acute{\alpha} \rho\acute{\upsilon}\eta \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon$!	Secret of my heart! Dearest!
$\acute{\alpha} \rho\tau\acute{o}\rho\iota$!	My store! Asthore!
$\acute{\alpha} \rho\tau\acute{o}\rho\iota \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon$!	O jewel of my heart!
$\acute{\alpha} \acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\iota\rho\lambda\epsilon$!	O vein! my vein! my dear!
$\acute{\alpha} \acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\iota\rho\lambda\epsilon \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon$!	Vein of my heart!
$\acute{\alpha} \zeta\eta\alpha\acute{o}$!	My love! O love!
$\acute{\alpha} \zeta\eta\alpha\acute{o} \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon$!	O love of my heart!
$\zeta\eta\alpha\acute{o} \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon \tau\acute{\upsilon}$!	You are the love of my heart!
$\Delta \mu\upsilon\iota\eta\eta\eta\iota\eta$!	My darling!
$\kappa\acute{\upsilon}\rho\alpha\mu \mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon$!	Care of my heart!
$\mu\omicron \acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\omicron\delta\epsilon \alpha\rho\tau\upsilon\iota\zeta \iota\omicron\eta\eta\alpha\tau$!	My heart within thee!
$\eta\eta' \alpha\eta\alpha\mu \alpha\rho\tau\upsilon\iota\zeta \iota\omicron\eta\eta\alpha\tau$!	My soul within thee!

Prefixes.

Δη, *not*, as, εοταῶς, skilled, ἀνεοταῶς, unskilled.

Com, *together*, δεασαί, a tie, comδεασαί a union.

Ῥεαξ, *good*, as, Ῥεαξῶμοιθεαῶς, kind-hearted.

Ῥιοῶ, *bad*, as, Ῥιοῶμεαρ, contempt.

Ῥό, *difficult*, as, Ῥόθεάντα, difficult to be done.

Ῥη, *fit*, as, Ῥηθεάντα, fit to be done.

Ῥό, *easy*, as, Ῥόθεάντα, easy to be done.

Ῥί, *ill*, as, Ῥί-αῶ, ill-luck.

Ῥεαῖ, *not*, as, Ῥεαῖcomῆrom, uneven

Affixes.

Δῶ, *full of*, as, βριατραῶς, full of words, talkative.

Δῶτ, *ness*, as, μιγρεαῶτ, sweetness.

Δρ, *ness*, as, μαίτεαρ, goodness.

Δῆαι, *like*, as, Ῥεαῖαῖαι, manly.

Δη, *small*, as, ἀρῶδη, a hillock.

Ῥη, *small*, as, κοῖρῆη, a little foot.

Ῥῶ, *small*, Ῥεῖρτεος, a little serpent, *i.e.*, a worm.

Δῶ, *abounding in*, as, κοῖτεαῶς, abounding in woods.

Λαῶ, *abounding in*, μουλαῶς, a piggery.

Ῥαῖ, *full of*, as, σεῶῖαῖ, 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.

Δη ὅτ τύ? Ὅ' οἶ

Did you drink? I did.

Δη ὅτ μάριε? Ῥιοῖ ὅτ

Did Mary drink? No.

Ῥη-οἶαῖη τυ? Οἶαῖη

Do you drink? Yes.

Ῥ-Ῥυῖ Ῥε αῖατ? Ῥά

Have you it? I have.

Ῥαῖβ τυ τῖηη? Ῥί

Were you sick? I was.

Ῥαῖβ οῖαῖαρ οῖατ? Ῥί Ῥαῖβ

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 IS.

(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 Seadhán? ní mé	Are you John? No.
An tú Séamus? Iy me	Are you James? Yes.

(b) When an adjective expresses inherent quality it must appear in the reply. [See Inherent quality and Species.]

nac maic é? Iy maic.	Isn't it good? It is.
nac móy an fear é? Iy móy	Isn't he a big man? He is.

(c) Seadh (pr. *sháh*) and ní feadh (ní *háh*) are never used except in reply to an interrogation made with the verb Iy, and then only when the predicate of the question is indefinite.

Is it a stone? Yes	An cloch é? Seadh.
Is that a cow? No	An bó yin? ní feadh.

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 yinne yin? miye.
Who did that? Mary did	Cé yinne yin? máiyie.
What is that? A white cat	So sé yin? Cat bán.

(b) In such cases *τá* is often used impersonally in the reply.

Who did that? I did	Cé yinne yin? <i>τá</i> miye.
Who did that? Mary	Cé yinne yin? <i>τá</i> máiyie.

Idiomatic and Defective Verbs.**ΤΑ ΨΙΟΣ ΑΣΑΜ, I KNOW.**

“I know” is expressed in Irish by τὰ ψιός ασάμ = literally, Its knowledge is at me, *i.e.*, I have its knowledge. The possessive α is usually omitted.

Present τὰ ψιός ασάμ ; ní ψιύτ ψιός ασάμ.

Imper. Ψιόεαθ ψιός ασάμ ; ní ψιόεαθ ψιός ασάμ.

Perfect Ψί ψιός ασάμ ; ní ψιαιθ ψιός ασάμ.

Future Ψεíρò ψιός ασάμ ; ní Ψεíρò ψιός ασάμ.

Condit. Ψεíρòεαθ ψιός ασάμ ; ní Ψεíρòεαθ ψιός ασάμ.

Imper. Ψιόεαθ ψιός ασάτ ; Ψιόεαθ ψιός ασάιθ.

Infin. Ψιός α Ψεíτ ασάμ ; Ψαν ψιός α Ψεíτ ασάμ.

τὰ ψιός ασάμ *pronounced* τάρ ασάμ.

Ψιόεαθ ψιός ασάμ „ Ψίΰΰΰ ασάμ.

Ψί ψιός ασάμ „ Ψί ρασάμ.

Ψεíρò ψιός ασάμ „ Ψεíρòιρ ασάμ.

ΤΙΣ ΛΙΟΜ,* I CAN.

Present τίς λιόμ ; ní τίς λιόμ ; τ-τίς λιόμ ?

Imper. Τίγεαθ λιόμ ; ní τίγεαθ λιόμ.

Perfect Ταινιό λιόμ ; níοιρ ταινιό λιόμ.

Future Τιόεφαθ λιόμ ; ní τιόεφαθ λιόμ.

Condit. Τιόεφαθ λιόμ ; ní τιόεφαθ λιόμ.

ΙΣ ΨΕΙΡΟΙΡ ΛΙΟΜ, I CAN.**PRESENT TENSE.**

Affirm. Ιρ Ψεíρòιρ λιόμ, ιεατ, etc Lit., It is possible with me.

Negat. Νι Ψεíρòιρ λιόμ.

Interrog. Δν Ψεíρòιρ λιόμ ?

* Literally, It comes with me.

PAST TENSE.

Affirm. Ουὸ φέροισι υιομ, I could.

Negat. Νίοισὸ φέροισι υιομ.

Interrog. Δρὸ φέροισι υιομ?

 Ὀ' φέροισι = Perhaps.

ζεῖοιμ βᾶς, I DIE.

Future ζεοδαῖο με βάρ, I shall die.

Perfect φυαῖρ ρε βάρ, he died. Lit., He found death.

Infinitive βάρ ᾶ φαζαῖλ or βάρ φαζαῖλ.

Participle ᾶς φαζαῖλ βάρ or φαζαῖλ βάρ.

These are the more important parts.

καιτφρο με, I MUST.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Future Καιτφρο με, I must, *i.e.*, I shall have to.

Imper. Ḳαιτφνν, I had to.

Condit. Ḳαιτφρῖνν, I would have to.

Perfect Ḳαιτ με,* I had to.

PASSIVE VOICE—*Impersonally.*

Future Καιτφραρ, It is necessary (*Fr. Il faut.*)

Imper. Ḳαιτφτι, It was necessary.

Condit. Ḳαιτφροε, It would be necessary.

Perfect Ḳαιτφδαο, It was necessary.

ἰς μαῖτ υιομ, I LIKE

PRESENT TENSE.

Affirm. ἰρ μαῖτ υιομ, ἰρ μαῖτ λεατ, etc.

Negat. Νί μαῖτ υιομ νί μαῖτ λεατ, etc.

Interrog. Δν μαῖτ λεατ? etc.

* Ὀ'εῖρεαν Ὀαῖν is more usual.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Affirm. Ουὸ ἠαῖτ ἡομ, ουὸ ἠαῖτ ἡεατ, etc., I *would* like, etc.

Negat. ἠιορ ἠαῖτ ἡομ, ἠιορ ἠαῖτ ἡεατ, etc.

Interrog. Δρ ἠαῖτ ἡεατ? etc.

N.B.—In “ουὸ ἠαῖτ ἡομ,” “ουὸ” is perfect tense, but the whole expression has, idiomatically, the force of a conditional mood.

Like this verb are :—

ἡρ ἡἡαν ἡομ	I desire.
ἡρ ἡἡ ἡομ	I like.
ἡρ ἡεἡρ ἡομ	I prefer.
ἡρ ἡοἡρ ἡαἡ	I should.
ἡρ ἡεἡρ ἡαἡ	I ought.
ἡρ ἡἡεἡαν ἡαἡ	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 :—

ἡρἡἡἡἡ + Δρ	= I tell.
ἡεἡἡἡἡ + ἡε	= I tell.
ἡἡἡἡἡἡ + ἡο	= I tell.
ἡἡἡἡἡἡἡἡ + ἡε	= I ask.

Examples.

ἡ' ἡρἡ ἡε ἡἡἡ ἡ ἡεἡἡ	He told me to come.
ἡ' ἡρἡ ἡε ἡἡ ἡἡἡἡ ἡ ἡἡ	He told Mary to go.
ἡἡἡἡἡἡ ἡε ἡομ ἡ ἡεἡἡ	He told me to come.
ἡ' ἡἡἡἡ ἡε ἡἡεἡ ἡαἡ	He told me a story.
ἡ' ἡἡἡἡἡἡἡ ἡε ἡομ	He asked of me.

CASTAR ORM, I MEET.

Present CAPTAP OPM, CAPTAP OIT, etc. I meet.

Imperf. CAPIPI OPM, CAPIPI OIT, etc. I used to meet.

Perfect CAPAO OPM, CAPAO OIT, etc. I met.

Condit. CAPPAIOE OPM, etc. I would meet.

Infin. A CAPAO OPM or A CAPOAI OPM, to meet me.

Participle and Imperative: Wanting.

N.B.—CAPAIM, literally means *I twist*, and hence, *I turn* or *meet*. The person met is always the subject in Irish.

Hugh met James

CAPAO SÉAMUJ AIH AOÓ.

Hugh met me

CAPAO ME AIH AOÓ.

I met Hugh

CAPAO AOÓ OPM.

I met him

CAPAO OPM 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 JE NA FÉAJI.

He is a priest

TÁ JE NA FÁZAJIT.

(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 JE NA CIOULAO.

He is sitting

TÁ JE NA FUIOÉ.

He is standing

TÁ JE NA FÉAJAO.

He is lying

TÁ JE NA LUIGE.

But, He is fighting

TÁ JE AJ TPIUIO.

N.B.—He is up (*i.e.*, he is not in bed)=*ta je na fuióe*, lit., He is in his sitting (posture).

IS CUMΔ LIOM.

CumΔ 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 cumΔ te Seaḡan = It is appearance or indifference with John, *i.e.*, John is indifferent, John does not care, John does not care a straw, etc. Naċ cumΔ te Seaḡan = "Sure" John does not care! Naċ here is the interrogative particle, but the sentence is usually an exclamation.

1r cumΔ liom

I *don't* care.

1r cumΔ leat

You *don't* care.

1r cumΔ leiṛ

He *doesn't* care.

1r cumΔ leiṛe

She *doesn't* care.


1r cumΔ le nōṛa

Nora *doesn't* care.

naċ cumΔ liom!

"Sure" I *don't* care.

N.B.—Ni miṛoe liom, has the same meaning as, 1r cumΔ liom.

 Ni ƒuit binn aḡam oṛt = I don't care a straw for you, *i.e.*, I defy you.

IS CUMΔ ʋAMĦ.

This idiom expresses indifference arising from disappointment, inability to act, or want of connection. Thus, 1r cumΔ ʋamĦ means, I *need not* care, I *need not* trouble, I *need not* be sorry, or, it is no affair of mine. Naċ cumΔ ʋamĦ! means, "sure" I *need not* care! What *need* I care! "Sure" it is no affair of mine!

1r cumΔ ʋamĦ

I *need not* care.

1r cumΔ ʋuit

You *need not* care.

1r cumΔ ʋo mġiṛe

Mary *need not* care.

naċ cumΔ ʋuit!

Sure you *need not* care.

naċ cumΔ ʋuinn!

Sure it is no affair of ours!

N.B.—Ni miṛoe ʋamĦ has the same meaning as 1r cumΔ ʋamĦ.

Mental and Physical Sensations.

(a) When an English adjective has no primary equivalent in Irish, an idiom must be used. *Ṭinn*, for example, is a primary adjective meaning *sick*. Without using any idiom, therefore, we can say, *Ṭá me ṭinn*, 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," *Ṭá ocṡar orm*. The following are important examples :—

I am hungry	<i>Ṭá ocṡar orm.</i>
I am ashamed	<i>Ṭá náime orm.</i>
I am afraid	<i>Ṭá eugla orm.</i>
I am glad	<i>Ṭá luēḡair orm.</i>
I am angry	<i>Ṭá fearṡ orm.</i>
I am thirsty	<i>Ṭá tarṡ orm.</i>
I am proud	<i>Ṭá bṡóo orm.</i>
I am sleepy	<i>Ṭá coṡlaó orm.</i>

(b) The word for "very" can only stand before an adjective as, I am very sick = *Ṭa me an-ṭinn*. 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>Ṭá ocṡar moiri orm.</i>
I am very much ashamed	<i>Ṭá náime móiri orm.</i>
I am very much afraid	<i>Ṭá eugla móiri orm.</i>
I am very glad	<i>Ṭá luēḡair móiri orm.</i>
I am very angry	<i>Ṭá fearṡ móiri orm.</i>
I am very thirsty	<i>Ṭá tarṡ moiri orm.</i>
I am very proud	<i>Ṭá bṡóo móiri orm.</i>
I am very sleepy	<i>Ṭa coṡlaó móiri orm.</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	ΤΑ <i>an</i> -ocriar oim.
I am very much afraid	ΤΑ <i>an</i> -euzla oim.
I am very glad	ΤΑ <i>an</i> -luēt̄gairi oim.
I am very sleepy	ΤΑ <i>an</i> -ēoolad̄ oim.

(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 =	ΤΑ <i>me</i> tinn or ΤΑ <i>tinnear</i> oim.
I am cold =	ΤΑ <i>me</i> ruar or ΤΑ <i>ruad̄c̄t</i> oim.

(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	ΤΑ <i>an</i> rlad̄z̄oan oim.
I have a toothache	ΤΑ <i>an</i> d̄eivod̄ad̄ oim.
I have the fever	ΤΑ <i>an</i> riad̄riar oim.
I have the measles	ΤΑ <i>an</i> d̄riuit̄inead̄ oim.

Motion to a Place.

(a) Motion to a place is expressed by *ann* or *na*. These are contracted forms of the preposition *ann* or *a* and the article *an*. *Ann* must be used before masculine nouns beginning with a vowel, *o*, *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 *o*, *t*, *r* (*r* being eclipsed); (3) if it is a feminine noun beginning with a vowel *n* is prefixed.

He went to the fair	Ċuairò ré ann aonaidz.
He went to the door	Ċuairò ré ann dooir.
He went to the well	Ċuairò ré ann tobair.
He went to the brook	Ċuairò ré ann t-riuitain.
He went to the hill	Ċuairò ré na énuic.
He went to the bog	Ċuairò ré na þuraidz.
He went to the park	Ċuairò ré na páirce.
He went to the forge	Ċuairò ré na ceárta.
He went to the street	Ċuairò ré na rriáide.
He went to the cliff	Ċuairò ré na h-aillc.
He went to the river	Ċuairò re na h-ádhna.
He went (to the) home	Ċuairò re na baile.

N.B.—Motion to towns and islands seems to be the only exception. Hence, although we say, *as túl na báite-móir*, going to the town, *as túl na ffraince*, going to France, *as túl ann oileain* or *as túl na h-inse*, going to the island, we never say, *as túl ann Doire*, going to Derry, *as túl na Corcaidze*, going to Cork, *as túl na h-Álban*, 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 = *Ċuairò re ann doctuir*, He went to the priest = *Ċuairò re ann t-rasairc*. Remark also that, *to heaven* = *na flaitir*, but *to hell* = *go h-iriuonn*.

Ownership.

Ownership of some *definite* thing is expressed by the preposition *te* and the verb *ir*—present and past time only.

<i>The cow is mine</i>	}	<i>ir</i> <i>liom an bó.</i>
<i>The cow belongs to me</i>		
<i>I own the cow</i>		
<i>The cat is Mary's</i>	}	<i>ir te máire an cat.</i>
<i>The cat belongs to Mary</i>		
<i>Mary owns the cat</i>		
<i>The dog was John's</i>		<i>buó te Seádan an maóad.</i>

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 ágam*. 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 *ir* and *ta*, as, The house will be mine=*ir ágamra a béirear an teac*. But the more usual way is by simply using *ta* and *á*, as, *Uéir an teac ásur an talam áis Séamur go fóir*=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 punta áis an fear áir Séamur*.

Some or Any.

(1) "Some" is rendered in Irish by such expressive words as, *buaon*, a drop—used for liquids; *uórnán*, a fistful—used for hay, straw, corn, potatoes, etc.; *zrainín*, a grain—used for meal, flour, tea, etc.; *piúin*, a penny—used for money. All these govern the genitive.

Τά <i>buaon</i> <i>bainne</i> <i>azam</i>	I have some milk.
Τά <i>uórnán</i> <i>féiri</i> <i>azam</i>	I have some hay.
Τά <i>zrainín</i> <i>riúera</i> <i>azam</i>	I have some sugar.
Τά <i>piúin</i> <i>aiúzi</i> <i>azam</i>	I have some money.
Τά <i>piúin</i> <i>aize</i>	He has some (money).

(2) "Some of" followed by a noun is rendered by *cuio de* followed by a dative of the noun.

<i>Cuio de na firi</i>	Some of the men.
<i>Cuio de na capail</i>	Some of the horses.
<i>Cuio de 'n féiri</i>	Some of the hay.
<i>Cuio de 'n aiúza</i>	Some of the money.
<i>Cuio de 'n arian</i>	Some of the bread.
<i>Cuio de 'n bainne</i>	Some of the milk.

(3) "Some of" followed by a pronoun in the *singular* number is rendered by *cuio de*; followed by a pronoun in the plural number it is rendered by *cuio az*.

Τά <i>cuio de maic</i>	Some of it is good.
Τά <i>cuio de rin olc</i>	Some of that is bad.
Τά <i>cuio azainn rzriozta</i>	Some of us are ruined.
Τά <i>cuio aca millte</i>	Some of them are spoiled.
Τά <i>cuio aca rin olc</i>	Some of those are bad.

(4) "Any" is rendered by the article *an* followed by an aspirated noun in the nominative singular, in connection with countable things; by *an píúin*, in

connection with money; by *an žmanin*, in connection with hay, straw, corn, tea, sugar, etc.; by *an žreim* (the bite), for bread, butter, beef, etc.; and by *an ōeor* (drop) for liquids. When a noun comes after *an pīžin*, *an žmanin*, etc., it will, of course, be in the genitive.


Ů-fuil an čapall ažad?	Have you any horses?
nī fuil an čeann ažad	I have not any.
Ů-fuil an pīžin arižio ažad?	Have you any money?
nī fuil an pīžin ažad	I have not any.
Ů-fuil an žmanin pēir ažad?	Have you any hay?
nī fuil an žmanin ažad	I have not any.
Ů-fuil an žreim ariain ažad?	Have you any bread?
nī fuil an žreim ažad	I have not any.
Ů-fuil an ōeor piona ažad?	Have you any wine?
nī fuil an ōeor ažad	I have not any.

(5) "Any of" followed by a noun is rendered by, *An ōuine ōe*, *an čeann ōe*, *an žreim ōe*, *an ōeor ōe*, *an žmanin ōe*, etc., followed by the dative of the noun. When "any of" is followed by a *plural* pronoun *ōe* becomes *ažad*.

Ů-fuil an ōuine ōe na riri ann ŋo?	Are any of the men here?
nī fuil an ōuine aca ann ŋo	None of them are here.
Ů-fuil an čeann ōe na ba ann ŋo?	Are any of the cows here?
nī fuil an čeann aca ann ŋo	None of them are here.
Ů-fuil an žreim ōe 'n ariain ažad?	Have you any of the bread?
nī fuil an žreim ōe ažad	I have none of it.

(6) "Any" is also rendered by *ari bič*, which is always placed *after* the noun, but it is only used to translate "any" followed by a noun.

Ů-fuil ba ari bič ažad?	Have you any cows?
nī fuil arižeo ari bič ažad	I have not any money.
Ů-fuil caoiriž ari bič ažad?	Have you any sheep?

 Note the difference in the following :—

ní fúil an céann aḡam	I have not any (cows).
ní fúil ceann aḡam	I have not a single one.
ní fúil an píḡín aḡam	I have not any (money).
ní fúil píḡín aḡam	I have not a cent.
ní fúil an ḡheim aḡam	I have not any (cheese).
ní fúil ḡheim aḡam	I have not a taste.
Ṫa curḡ beaḡ aḡam	I have a little.
Ṫa beaḡan aḡam	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, *Bí re aḡ iṫe*, but idiomatically it is, *Ir amlaibḡ a bí re aḡur é aḡ iṫe* = *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* = *Ir amlaibḡ a bí Seaḡan aḡur é na fúige aip rṫól.*

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* = *Ir amlaibḡ a bí an tuine boḡt nuair a ṫanaic an doctuir aḡur é aḡ faḡail báip.*

John was beating James = (1) *It is the manner in which John was and he beating James* = *Ir amlaibḡ a bí Seaḡan aḡur é aḡ bualaḡ Séamuir*; (2) *It is the manner in which James was and John beating him* = *Ir amlaibḡ a bí Séamuir aḡur Seaḡan ṫa bualaḡ.*

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* = *Ἦρ ἀμλοῖθ ἁ ἑιορῆρ ἀν ρῖῖ ἄῖυρ ἑ νἁ ρυῖῖε ἀρ ἑἀτῖρ ὀρ.*

Important Idioms.

Ἠῖ ραῖθ νεαρτ ἄῖαμ ἀρ	I could not help it.
Ἀβαρ τερ ἰμῑεἄτ τερ	Tell him to take to his heels.
ἰμῑῖῖ τεἄτ! βυῖ τεἄτ!	} Be off! Begone!
ἀρ ρυῖβατ τεἄτ! ρῖν τεἄτ!	
ῖυῖβατ τεἄτ, ἁ ἡἀρε!	Come, Mary!
Ἦρ ρυἁρ ἡομ ἀν ἡἁ	I consider the day cold.
Ἦρ μὀρ ἡομ ἀν ἡυἁῑ	I think the price high.
ῖο ἑεἁν μῖορἁ	For the space of a month.
ἁ ῖ-ἑεἁν μῖορἁ	In a month's time.
Ἠῖ βεἄῖ ἡομ ἑ	I think it enough.
Ἠῖ μὀρ ἡομ ἑ	I don't think it enough.
ἡἁ ἑυρἡἁ ἡἁ ὀ ροῖν	A few days ago.
ἡἁ ἑυρἡἁ βἡἁῑἁῖν ὀ ροῖν	A few years ago.
ἡἁ ἡἁρε ὀρμ τεἄτ	I am ashamed of you.
ἡἁ ρυἁῑ ἄῖαμ ὀρτ	I hate you.
Ἠῖ ρυῖτ ἄρῑῑ ἄῖαμ ὀρτ	I don't like you.
ἡἁ ρε ἀρ ἀν ρῖοῖτ	He is at school.
ἡἁ ρε ἀρ ἀν ἄοἡἁῑ	He is at the fair.
ἡἁ ρε ἀρ ἀν βἁἡἡ-ἡὀρ	He is in the town.
ῖυῖ ρε ῖρῖῖμ ἑἡἁρε ὀρμ	He caught me by the ear.
ῖυῖ ρε ῖρῖῖμ ἡἁῖῖῑ ὀρμ	He caught me by the hand.
ἑῖρ ρε ἀν ἑἡῖῑῑῑ ὀρμ	He won the game on me.
ἑῖρ ρε ἀν ἡὀρ ὀρμ	He put me to flight.

Óuir re an corr orm

Cuirfirò me rḡillings leat
Cuirfirò me ḡeall leat
ḡo, etc.

Mhor óus me fairdear
Rinneadò an-mòr dé
Ní leuir ḡam é

Óus riadò padoiric orm

Óroé munaó ort!

Óroé éneadé ort!

Caor éintin ort!

Óean ro air rḡór air bié

Na óean rin air óorr air
bié

Óuaió re air an ḡaoraió

Séiríó ré air ḡs obair

Tá re ḡs cur tnom ortá

Tá re ḡs cur
Tá re ḡs cur fearéaine }
Tá re ḡs cur rneadéta

Tá re ḡs cur bmatos

Tá re ḡs caoóad orm

ḡo de tá ort?

ḡo de tá óic ort?

ḡo de tá ann tarḡail ort? }
Óa óeánaó le h-olc orm

Tá re ḡs leigint air

Tá re ḡs cur a ḡ-céill }
Tá rí ḡs riubal leite-féin

He turned the corner on
me.

I'll bet you a shilling.

I'll hold you that, etc.

I did not notice (perceive).

He got a good reception.

I cannot distinguish it.

They called me Patrick.

Bad manners to you!

Bad luck to you.

Blast you!

Do this at all events.

Don't do that at all.

He got furious.

He dives into his work.

He is oppressing them.

It rains: It is raining.

It is snowing.

It is sleeting.

He is winking at me.

What is the matter with
you?

What do you want?

Doing it to vex me.

He is pretending.

She is walking alone.

Sin leitrgeul cam
 Leir rin cuaidò re ar am aric
 Ir mór an ghar rin
 Ní fuil ghar a beic ag cairt
 Ní fuil ghar a beic leat
 Ní béirínn gairbte leat

Mair béirdeadò cat ann
 Ir fiú rígin rígarðan

Ir fiú do fáochar é
 Ir fiú ór Máire
 Ir fiú Séamus Máire
 Ir fiú é í
 Ir fiú tuic reardò

Ní fiú tuic ruidé

Ir fiú fíon a ceannaó

Ní fiú é a ceannaó }
 Ní fiú a ceannaó }
 Ir fiú liom reardò

Ní fiú liom ruidé

Tá an ceart agat
 Tá re ag buint péir
 Tá re ag buint coirce
 Tá re ag buint p héataí

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.

Τά ρε αἷς βυιητ μόνα	He is cutting turf.
Να βυιη λειρ	Don't meddle with it.
Ἅρῃ ναῖσαν λά*	Every alternate day.
Ὑ-φυιλ τῦ υιομ νο ἀνη μ'αἷαιὸ ?	Are you for or against me?
Τά ριατ μόρ τε ἔειτε	They are on friendly terms.
Ὀί το ἔορτ!	Hold your tongue!
Τά ρε να ἔορτ.	He is holding his tongue
Σῆαιτ ρε υρῆαρ	He fired a shot (of a gun).
Ἐαιτ ρε υρῆαρ	He fired a shot (of a stone).
Σῆαιτ ρε τε κορρ-ἀβηα	He fired at a crane.
Τα υρῆαρ ρα ἕγνηα	There is a charge in the gun.
Ὀο ἀτά ἀνη!	Heisa "buck" } <i>i.e.</i> , a suspici-
Ὀῆανὰ ἀτά ἀνη!	He is a "lad" } ous character.
Ὀ ρο ἀμαῆ; νιορ μό	Henceforth; in future.
Ἐα ταιγε† ναῆ ν-ιῆεαν τῦ?	Why don't you eat?
Ἐα ταιγε ρη?	How is that?
Ἠί ρεῖρητε ουιτ ρη	You won't be the better of that.
Ὀειρημ το οῦβλαν	I defy you.
Ραῆαιὸ ρε ἀ ν-εῖσαν ἕο ἕαιτρηι†	He will go in spite of you.

* *i.e.*, Ἅρῃ ἀνη ἕαῆ ἀνη λά.

† *i.e.*, Ἐα ταιγε ἕ! How or where understand it.

‡ Literally, He will go in front of your nasal organ.

Διη η-οδίζε	Of course ; " sure."
Διη η-οοίζε ηυζ ηε οηη	" Sure " he caught me.
Κυη ηγευλα όυζε	Send him word.
Λεόζα μαηρε ηρ ηίση ηηη	Indeed that is true.
Λεόζα τλ αν κεπηε αζατ	Indeed you are telling the truth.
Μαηζε ηρ μόηη αν ηρελατ ε	'Pon my word it is a big trout.
Μαηζε μαηρε τλ ηέ αζ κυη	" Faith " it is raining.
τλ ηε όμηαιη λ θεηέ έαπη	I am nearly done for (<i>i.e.</i> dead).
ηλ βατ τηρ !	Never mind ! just wait !
ηοεπατό τυρα ηηη	You'll pay the piper for that.
τλ ηιαθ οτε, αέτ ηηθεαθ	They are bad, but let
αέύ !	them go !
Μηλεαθ έ, αέτ ηηθεαθ	It was destroyed, but
αηζε !	what about it !
ζο η-βεανηυζ Όια όυητ !	} God bless you ! (salutation).
ζο η-βεανηυζ Όια έύ !	
Σιάν αζατ ! (singular)	} Good-bye !
Σιάν αζαηθ ! (plural)	
Σιάν τεατ ! (singular)	
Σιάν ηθ ! (plural)	
Reply : ζο ο-τί* τύ ηιάν !	} May God guide you !
ζο ηοηηθίζ Όια έύ !	
ζο ηοηηθίζ Όια όυητ !	
ζο ηοηηθίζ 'η ηιζ έύ !	

* This is either ζο ο-τιζιό or ζο ο-τέιό.

Σέ το θεάτα ! (singular)	}	Welcome! You are welcome!
Σέ θυμ m-θεάτα ! (plural)		
Γάιτε ρόματ ! (singular)	}	You are very welcome!
Γάιτε ρόμαιβ ! (plural)		
Σέαο γάιτε ρόματ ;	}	Thank you.
Σέαο μίτε γάιτε ρόματ !		
Reply : Σο ραιβ μαιτ εσατ	}	How are you ?
Σο θε μαρ τά tú ? (sing.)		
Σο θε μαρ τά ριβ ? (pl.)	}	I am well.
Τά με σο μαιτ		
Τά με σο σεαρτ	}	I am quite well.
Τά με σο μαιτ, σο ραιβ μαιτ εσατ !		
		I am well, thank you.

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