

Blair 112.

A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.



DUBLIN:

M. H. GILL AND SON.

no. 70

Verb. Linsen
Linsen

2. Linsen
Professoren

Imp. verb.

Aug. 1896 - 1897

9. 115 - 120!
a. 9!

Idem | 110, 125, 128, 129, 130

Remained with

= Apply to Pacific

9/2. As if same Pacific

1. Also some papers into

2. When

(Learn N. Newark)

1. Newark. Newark with

Edmund
Profess

Profess

9

Evelyn Stewart Murray
1891

A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.,

ONE OF THE PROFESSORS IN THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT OF THE
COMMISSIONERS OF NATIONAL EDUCATION, IRELAND.



DUBLIN

M. H. GILL AND SON

PREFACE.

THOUGH this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth in words as few and simple as possible.

I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers.

All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, "The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin" (viz., "The Fate of the Children of Usna," "The Fate of the Children of Lir," and "The Fate of the Children of Turenn"), and occasionally the "Annals of the Four Masters." The language of the various works published by the Archaeological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish.

I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples; free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner's difficulty.

In the last Part—"Idioms"—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labour and perplexity.

There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention "The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland.

The labours of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced two admirable little elementary books (the First and Second Irish Books) and are about to bring out a third, all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here.

I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and what is still better, much sound sense and clear critical judgment.

Dublin, November, 1878.

CONTENTS.



PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

	PAGE
CHAPTER I.—SOUNDS	1
I. Letters	1
II. Diphthongs	4
III. Triphthongs	6
IV. Various Sounds	6
CHAPTER II.—LETTER CHANGES	8
I. Aspiration	8
II. Rules for Aspiration	9
III. Eclipsis	10
IV. Rules for Eclipsis	11
V. Caol le caol aḡur leaṭan le leaṭan	13
VI. Syncope	14

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.—THE ARTICLE	16
I. Change of form in the Article	16
II. Changes produced by the Article	17
Singular	17
Plural	18

	PAGE
CHAPTER II.—THE NOUN	18
I. Gender	18
Masculine	19
Feminine	19
II. Declensions	20
Cases	20
First Declension	21
Second Declension	23
Third Declension	25
Fourth Declension	27
Fifth Declension	28
Irregular Declension	28
Declension of the Article with the Noun	30
CHAPTER III.—THE ADJECTIVE	32
I. Declension of Adjectives	32
First Declension	32
Second Declension	33
Third Declension	33
Fourth Declension	34
II. Declension of the Article and Adjective with the Noun	34
III. Comparison of Adjectives	35
Irregular Comparison	36
IV. Numeral Adjectives	37
CHAPTER IV.—THE PRONOUN	39
I. Personal Pronouns	39
Declension of Personal Pronouns	40
Personal Pronouns compounded with Prepositions	41
II. Possessive Pronouns	44
Possessive Pronouns compounded with Prepositions	45
III. Relative Pronouns	46
IV. Demonstrative Pronouns	47
V. Interrogative Pronouns	47
VI. Indefinite Pronouns	47

	PAGE
CHAPTER V.—THE VERB	48
I. Persons: Synthetic and Analytic forms ...	48
II. Tenses	50
III. Moods and Voices	51
IV. Conjugation of the regular Verb buçıl ...	52
IV. Relative form of the Verb	55
v. Formation and uses of the moods and tenses of Regular Verbs	56
VI. Verbs in uıç, ıl, ın, ıp, ır	62
Paradigm of the regular Verb medıl ...	64
Paradigm of the regular Verb árıuıç ...	65
VII. Irregular Verbs	66
1. Tım, I am	66
2. ır, it is	71
3. bheiřım, I give	73
4. beiřım, I bear	74
5. Chım, I see	75
6. Cluımım, I hear	76
7. Úéanıım, I do	77
8. Ŗńım or nım, I do	78
9. Úeiřım, I say	78
10. Pağım or ġeiðım, I find	80
11. ıım, I eat	81
12. Rığım, I reach	81
13. Tııdıım, I go	82
14. Tığım, I come	83
Other Defective Verbs	84
CHAPTER VI.—ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CON- JUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS	85
I. Adverbs	85
II. Prepositions	87
III. Conjunctions	89
IV. Interjections	90
CHAPTER VII.—PREFIXES AND AFFIXES ...	91
I. Prefixes	91
II. Affixes or terminations	93

PART III.

SYNTAX.

	PAGE
CHAPTER I.—NOUNS	95
CHAPTER II.—THE ARTICLE AND NOUN ...	98
CHAPTER III.—THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN ...	100
Agreement and collocation of the Adjective and Noun	100
CHAPTER IV.—NUMERAL ADJECTIVES ...	104
CHAPTER V.—THE PRONOUN	105
I. Personal Pronouns	105
II. Possessive Pronouns	106
III. Relative Pronouns	107
IV. Demonstrative Pronouns	109
V. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns ...	109
CHAPTER VI.—THE VERB	110
CHAPTER VII.—PREPOSITIONS	113

PART IV.

IDIOMS.

Explanation and illustration of forty-three Idioms of the Irish Language	116
--	-----

APPENDIX.

Additional examples of declensions of Nouns ...	136
---	-----

SCHOOL IRISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are a, e, i, o, u; of which a, o, u are broad, and e, i are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to b, p, h, m, n, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as b́án, white: a short vowel has no mark; as mac, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters.

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or very nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong *ao* or the triphthong *aoi*, beginners find it very hard to sound it: *caol* (narrow) is neither *kail* or *quail*, but something between: *caom* (gentle) is neither *keen* or *queen*, but something between.

10. So also with *g*, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet *gaol* is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad *ḃ* and *ḋ* bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*; that is, the first in each case is flat or soft, and the second sharp or hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth: Irish *ḃ* and *ḋ* by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish *ḃ* and *ḋ* may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both *continuous*, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (i.e., with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish *ḃ* and *ḋ*.

12. Broad *l* and *n* are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n* but) against the upper front teeth. Irish *ḃ* and *ḋ* are to English *d* and *t* as Irish *l* or *n* to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender *p* is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds: and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound *p* over and over again for their imitation.

14. As *h* represents a mere breathing or aspiration and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS.

Letters.		Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
Irish.	Eng.				
á	a	a	long	lán	lawn, ball
à	à		short	mac	bat or what
b	b	b	..	ball	ban
c	c	c	..	cab	cob
ó	o		..	cinn	king
ò	ò	d	..	dall	those
é	e	e	..	dian	cordial
è	è		long	mé	date
ê	ê		short		met
f	f	f	..	finn	fin
g	g	g	..	gorc	got
h	h	h	..	geir	get, gimlet
i	i	i	..	a h-anam	hammer
l	l		long	mín	seen
l	l		short	mín	pin
ú	u	l	..	lón	lone
ú	ú		..	píle	vermilion
m	m	m	..	mil	mill
n	n	n	..	nór	none
o	o		..	neab	new
ó	o	o	long	mór	more
ò	ò		short	bor	love, run
p	p	p	..	poc	pore
r	r	r	..	póo	road
s	s		..	cuir	clarion
s	s	s	..	rona	son
t	t		..	pín	sheen
t	t	t	..	com	thumb
u	u		..	teine	courteous
u	u	u	long	múr	moor, rude
u	u		short	muc	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees. áilm, *a*; beic, *b*; coll, *c*; daip, *d*; eaða, *e*; peapn, *f*; gorc, *g*; uaé, *h*; ióga, *i*; luip, *l*; muin, *m*; nuin, *n*; oip or onn, *o*; peic-boí, *p*; puip, *r*; ruil, *s*; teine, *t*; úp, *u*.

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., æ, ao, eu, ia, ua, ai, ea, ei, eo, io, iu, oi, ui; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs :—

3. æ sounds like *ay* in *slay* ; as pæ, the moon, pronounced *ray*.

4. ao, in the southern half of Ireland, sounds nearly like *way*, and in the west and north-west somewhat like *we*. Thus maop, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mwээр* in the west and north-west.

5. eu like *ai* in *lair* ; as in feup, grass, pronounced *fair*.

6. ia like *ee* in *beer* ; as in ciap, dark-coloured, pronounced *keer*.

7. ua nearly like *oe* in *doer* ; as in luan, Monday, pronounced *loo-an*.

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels : when short there is no accent.

9. á long has an accent over the a, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing* ; as in cáin, tribute, pronounced *caw-in*.

a short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier* ; as in maĩt, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh*.

In Ulster, a short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell* ; as in aĩnoc, restitution, which is pronounced *ashoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. éa long has an accent over the e, and sounds

like *ea* in *bear*; thus *méap*, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

ea short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in *peap*, knowledge, pronounced *fass*.

11. *éi* long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds like *ei* in *rein*; as *péim*, a course, pronounced *raim*.

eí short, like *e* in *sell*; as in *ceip*, a basket, sounded like *kesk*.

12. *eó* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in *ceól*, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

eo short, nearly like *u* in *shut*, with *y* before it; as in *veoç*, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. *ío* long has an accent over the *i*, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear*; as in *píon*, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on*.

io short, nearly like short *i*; as in *miopp*, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror*.

14. *iú* long has an accent over the *u*, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune*; as in *píú*, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few*.

iu short is sounded like the *u* in *put*, with a *y* before it; as in *pluüç*, wet.

15. *ói* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing*; as in *póil*, a while, pronounced *fō-il*.

oi short like the *o* in *love*, with a very short *i* at the end; as in *toil*, the will.

16. *úi* long, with an accent over the *u*, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *púil*, the eye, pronounced *soo-il*.

uí long, with an accent over the *í*, has nearly the same sound as *we*; as in *búíde*, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee*.

ui short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in *puirpeóḡ*, a lark, pronounced *fwishoge*.

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—*aoi*, *eoí*, *íai*, *íui*, *uai*.

2. *aoi* is sounded very like *we*, as in *maoin*, wealth, pronounced *mween*.

3. *eoí* is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yō-ing*; as in *peoíl*, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yō-il*.

4. *íai* is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as *líaiḡ*, a physician.

5. *íui* like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as *ciuin*, gentle.

6. *uai* like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *buaíl*, strike, which is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced, and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. *á* and *o* before *m*, *nn*, *ll*, or *nḡ*, in monosyllables, and often before *nt* and *nc*, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as *cam*, crooked, and *coll*, hazel, pronounced *cowm* and *cowl*; and *ḡleanntán*, a small glen, pronounced *glounthawn*; and *o* before *ḡ* and *ḡ* has often the same sound; as *poḡlaím*, learning, pronounced *fowlím*.

2. *áḡ* and *oḡ* are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine*; as *paḡape*, sight, pronounced

ry-ark; *laðap*, a fork, pronounced *lyre*; *maðm*, a breach, pronounced *mime*.

3. The termination *að* is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo*: thus *bualað*, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination *ðl*, the *ð* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *coðlað*, sleep, pronounced *culla*.

5. In the combination *ln*, the *n* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *colna*, of a body, pronounced *culla*.

6. In the combination *ðn*, the *ð* is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as *n* or *nn*; as *céaðna*, the same, pronounced *kaina*.

7. Final *e* is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus *míne*, smoothness, is pronounced *meena*. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in *cpoiðe*, a heart, pronounced *cree*.

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered, a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus *lopḡ*, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug*. *Dealb*, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv*, but *dallav*; *peapb*, bitter, is sounded *sharrav*; *bopb*, proud, is pronounced *burrub*; *colḡ*, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term "aspiration" is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, b, c, d, f, g, m, p, r, t; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as *ċ*; or by placing h after it, as *ch*.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters.

5. bh or ḃ is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a bean, his wife, pronounced *a van*; gabal, a fork, pronounced *gowal*.

6. Ch broad has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, Irish loch, a lake.

Ch slender (i.e. joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than *ċ* broad; as miciall, folly, in which the *ċ* sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *mee-heel*.

7. Oh and ġ have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as a ġean, his love, pronounced *a yan*. Oh and ġ

broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands to the guttural sound of broad *é* in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as *piab*, a deer, pronounced *fee-a*.

But in south Munster the final *g* is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as *Copcaig* (dative of *Copcaó*, Cork), pronounced *curki* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. *Ph* is always silent; thus *a phop*, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; *an pheabóg*, the plover, pronounced *an addoge*.

9. *Mh* is very nearly the same as *b*, viz., like *v* or *w*; as *a mhap*, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as*.

10. *Ph* has the sound of *f*, as *a pian*, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an*.

11. *Sh* and *é* are the same as *h*; as *a phál*, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; *a éobap*, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns *mo*, *my*; *do*, *thy*; and *a*, *his*, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as *mo bó*, my cow; *do éan*, thy head; *a gort*, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative;† as *an bean*, the woman. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as *an ghort*, of the garden.

* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

NOTE.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter *p*. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from *ceann*, a head, and *bpat*, a garment, is formed *ceannbpat*, head-garment or canopy. (See also p. 34, Par. 2.)

5. The interjections *a* and *O*, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as *a p̃ip*, *O man*.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as *bó bán*, a white cow; *cat bán*, of a white cat; *a p̃ip mór*, *O great man*; *a bean p̃eim*, *O mild woman*; *capaill bána*, white horses. (*o* and *τ* are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles *do* and *a*; as *do óéanao* or *a óéanao*, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as *do p̃ear pé*, he stood: (3) by the particles *ní*, not, and *má*, if: as *ní beo pí*, she will not be; *má p̃earann pé*, if he stands; (4), by the relative *a*, who, (expressed or understood); as *an té a buailear* the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as *aip báp*, on top; *do mullaó*, to a summit; *paol g̃ean*, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipse, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in *n-óán*, *o* is eclipsed by *n*

and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas *ḃán* is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words that consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—*b, c, ḃ, f, g, p, r, s*; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a hyphen, as *m-bárḃ*; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as *bpopt*. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus *a τταρḃ* is the same as *a ḃ-ταρḃ*, their bull.

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. *b* is eclipsed by *m*; as *a m-bárḃ*, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd*.

5. *c* is eclipsed by *g*: as *a g-coll*, their hazel, pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull*.

6. *ḃ* by *n*; as *a n-ḃop*, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

7. *f* by *v* (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as *a v-peapann*, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. *g* is eclipsed by *n*. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of *n*, but the sound of English *ng*; thus *a nḡiolla*, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. *p* is eclipsed by *b*; as *a b-pian*, their pain, pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. *s* is eclipsed by *t*, as in *an t-púil*, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. *t* is eclipsed by *ḃ*; as *a ḃ-τάλ*, their adze, pronounced *a dawł*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—*ár*, our.

* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

bup, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as áp ð-tiḡeapna, our Lord; bup ḡ-cpann, your tree; a b-páipc, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as teaç na m-báipð, the house of the bards; ḡopt na ḡ-capall, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed; as aip an m-bópð, on the table; ó'n ð-paipḡe, from the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles a, an, cá, naç; also after ḡo, that; muna, unless; iap, after; ðá, if; and after the relative a preceded by a preposition; as a m-beipeann pe? Does he bear? an m-buail-eann tú? Dost thou strike? cá ð-puil pí? Where is she? naç ð-tuigeann tu? Dost thou not understand? ḡo m-beannaigḡe ðia ðuit, may God bless thee; muna ð-tuitpíp, unless thou shalt fall; ðá n-deappainn, if I would say; an típ ann a ð-taime piab, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with p is preceded by the article, the p is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as an t-paoipre (fem.), the freedom; ḡopt an t-paḡaipc, the field of the priest; aip an t-paoḡal, or ap an paoḡal, in the world. But if the p is followed by b, c, ð, ḡ, m, p, or t, it is not eclipsed; as ḡleann an pmóil, the valley of the thrush; loç an pcáil, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to p. See for this letter Rule 5.

6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis :—

When a word begins with a vowel, the letter *n* is generally prefixed in all cases where an initial consonant (except *p*) would be eclipsed ; as *a n-apán*, their bread ; *loč na n-éan*, the lake of the birds.*

v. *Caol le caol agus leatán le leatán*, OR SLENDER WITH SLENDER AND BROAD WITH BROAD.†

1. If a consonant or any combination of consonants comes between two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad ; thus in *polap*, light, the *o* and the *a* are both broad vowels ; and in *cinneap*, sickness, the *i* and the *e* are both slender vowels. But such combinations as *polip* and *cinnap* are not allowable, because the *o* and the *i* in the first case, and the *i* and the *a* in the second case, are one of them broad and the other slender.

2. In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word and a syllable, are joined together, so that in the resulting word a consonant or consonantal combination would fall between two vowels, one of them broad and the other slender, then either the broad vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to bring them to an agreement.

3. Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with the slender vowel ; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to agree with the broad vowel ; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed ; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit the word it is joined to, not the reverse ; thus when *cóm* is prefixed to *peapáin*, standing, the word is *cómípeapáin*, competition, not *cómíapáin*.

* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration and eclipsis, see the *Second Irish Book* by the Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.

† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the Irish language.

4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish *caoluḡaḃ* (i.e., making slender, from *caol*, slender), and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish *leatnuḡaḃ* (i.e., making broad, from *leatán*, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways:—first by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant, as when *ball*, a spot, is changed to *buill*, spots; or when *pá* is postfixed to *buail*, and the resulting word is *buailpeá*, not *buailpá*: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when *ceann*, a head, is changed to *cinn*, of a head.

6. In like manner “making broad” takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks:—

8. When the future termination *paḃ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailpaḃ*, but *buailpeaḃ*, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *aḃ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailaḃ* but *buaiaḃ*.

10. When *mór*, great, is prefixed to *cion*, love, the compound is not *mórpḃion* but *móirpḃion*, great love.

11. When *ceann*, head, is prefixed to *litr*, a letter, the compound is not *ceannlitr* but *cinnlitr*, a head-letter or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination *óg* is added to *cuil*, the resulting word is not *cuilóg* but *cuaieóg*, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to *opḃóg*, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not *opḃóge* but *opḃóige*, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to *capall*, a horse, the whole word is not *capallín* but *capallín*.

VI. SYNCOPE.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (*b*, *n*, *p*, or *r*) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope.

5. *Lánaíma*, a married couple; plural *lánaíma*, contracted from *lánaímana*.

6. *Lapaip*, a flame; plural *lappaíca*, contracted from *lapapaíca*.

7. *Focal*, a word; plural *foclóip*, a dictionary, contracted from *foclóip*.

8. *Saibip*, rich; comparative *paibípe*, contracted from *paibípe*.

9. *Caíap*, a city; genitive *caípaí*, contracted from *caíapaí*.

10. *Plaíteaímaí*, princely; comparative *plaíteaímaí*, contracted from *plaíteaímaí*.

11. *Colann*, the body, genitive *colna*, (sometimes *colla*), contracted from *colanna*.

12. *Capa*, genitive *capaí*: the plural is formed by adding *e* to this, which syncopates the second *a*: this would make *capíe*, which again, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c., is made *capíe*.

13. *Uapal*, noble, becomes *uapíle* in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. *Pollup*, evident, becomes *pollípe* in the comparative in a similar way.

15. *Abann*, a river: the plural is formed by adding *e*; this causes syncope of the second *a* and the omission of one *n*, which would make the plural *abíne*; and this again becomes *aíbne*, by the rule *caol le caol* &c.

16. *Labap*, speak (imperative mood); plural *labapam*, I speak, contracted from *labapam*,

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, *an*, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form *an* in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes *na*; as *caisleán na cipse*, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always *na*.

4. In the spoken language the *n* of *an* is often omitted before a consonant; as *ceann a tairb*, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not to be recommended.

5. When *an* follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the *a* is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, *ó an tír*, from the land, is written *ó'n tír*; and *fa an ngréim*, under the sun, is written *fa'n ngréim*.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the *n* of the article joined with the preposition; as *ὅτι τῆς, πάντες*.

6. In the plural the article (*na*) is often joined to the preposition; as *ὅνα*, for *ὅ οὐ na*.

7. The letter *p* is inserted between certain prepositions and the article *an*; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus *ann an leabap*, in the book, is written *annp an leabap*, and *ip an leabap*, which is still further shortened to *pan leabap*: also (omitting the *n*) *annpa leabap*, and even *pa leabap*. And in the plural, *ip na coppaib*, "in the bodies."

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nouns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. For more on this subject, see page 31.

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except *p*, *τ*, *δ*), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as *an bód*, the cow; *cuan an p̄ip mór*, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with *p*, followed by a vowel or by *l*, *n*, or *r*, the *p* is eclipsed by *τ* in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as *an τ-pál* (fem.), the heel; *an τ-ppón* (fem.), the nose; *luac an τ-ppian* (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *τ* to the nominative masculine, and *h* to the genitive feminine; as *an τ-atair*, the father; *leabap na h-uíope*, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except *δ* or *τ*), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as *cup*

an ḡ-cpann, on the tree; ó'n b-pocal ibep, "from the word 'iber;'" leip an b-peap, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions do and de, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ceĩḡe céime do'n ċpior, four degrees of the zone (Keating); do leanabap a ḡ-copa do'n ċappaĩḡ, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with l, n, p, b, t, or with p before a mute.

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as inip na b-píobbað, [the] island of the woods; caílín deap cpúĩḡe na m-bó, [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes n to the genitive, and h to the other cases; as típ na n-óḡ, the land of the young (people); ó na h-áĩtĩb rĩn, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language.

as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only *general* rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as *coileac*, a cock; *laoc* a hero; *feap*, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as *doičceall*, churlishness: except (a), derivatives in *ac̃t*; (b), diminutives in *óg*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *óip*, *aip*, *ac̃*, *aíðe* (or *oíðe*, or *uíðe*), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as *ppealabóip*, a mower; *realgaip*, a hunter; *ceičeapnac̃*, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns*; *pḡéalaíðe* or *pḡéuluíðe*, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in *án* and abstracts in *ap*; as *coileán*, a whelp; *cáipbear*, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1.) Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as *ceapc*, a hen; *Eipe*, Ireland; *beapba*, the Barrow; *pláig*, a plague.

(2.) Diminutives in *óg*, and derivatives in *ac̃t*; as *puipeóg*, a lark; *cúmpac̃t*, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as *baílle*, blindness

(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in óip); as púil, the eye; pógáim, learning.

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation:—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of bpadán, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. bpadám, as trí bpadám, three salmon; gen. bpadán, as loch na m-bpadán, the lake of the salmon; dat. bpadánaib, as do na bpadánaib, to the salmon; voc. bpadána, as a bpadána, ca b-puil rib a g dul? "O ye salmon, whither are ye going?"

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom. bpadán; gen. bpadán; dat. bpadán; voc. bpadán; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative.

and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the datives singular of *cop*, a foot, and *boi*, a bush, are different, namely, *coip* and *boi*. But though this variation extends to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are other genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, *ball*, a member or limb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom.* ball.	Nom. baill.
Gen. baill.	Gen. ball.
Dat. ball.	Dat. ballaib̃.
Voc. a baill.	Voc. a balla

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their genitive singular in the same way (except those in *aô*, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in *aô*, in addition to the attenuation, change *ô* into *ỗ* in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding *e* to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in *ib̃*, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, *mapcaô*, a horseman.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. mapcaô.	Nom. mapcaib̃e.
Gen. mapcaib̃ỗ.	Gen. mapcaô
Dat. mapcaô.	Dat. mapcaib̃ỗib̃.
Voc. a mapcaib̃ỗ.	Voc. a mapcaôa.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in *a*; as *peann*, a pen; plur. *peanna*; and some of these are syncopated, as *uball*, an apple; plur. *ubla*.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding *ta* or *ôta* to the nominative singular; as *peôl*, a sail; nom. plur. *peôlta*; dat. plur. *peôltaib̃*: *múr*, a wall; nom. plur. *múrta*; dat. plur. *múrtaib̃*.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, *copp*, a body; gen. *cuipp*: *iarô*, a fish; gen. *éirô*:

* It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "nominative and accusative" all through the declensions.

neapτ, strength; gen. neipτ or nipτ: peap, a man; gen. pīp: cpann, a tree; gen. cpomn: béal, a mouth; gen. béil or beoil.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions.

9. The dative plural ends in īb.

This īb corresponds with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now very seldom pronounced, but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle *a* or *O*, which aspirates the initial; as *a pīp*, O man; *a īnná*, O women; *O éígeapna*, O Lord.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *e* to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final *e*.

4. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding *a*; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example, *reampóġ*, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>reampóġ</i> .	Nom. <i>reampóġa</i> .
Gen. <i>reampóġe</i> .	Gen. <i>reampóġ</i> .
Dat. <i>reampóġ</i> .	Dat. <i>reampóġaib</i> .

Second example, *péirt*, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>péirt</i> .	Nom. <i>péirte</i> .
Gen. <i>péirte</i> .	Gen. <i>péirt</i> .
Dat. <i>péirt</i> .	Dat. <i>péirtib</i> .

7. Nouns in *ac*, when they belong to this declension, change the *c* to *ġ* in the genitive singular: thus, *cláirpeac*, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>cláirpeac</i> .	Nom. <i>cláirpeaca</i> .
Gen. <i>cláirriġe</i> .	Gen. <i>cláirpeac</i> .
Dat. <i>cláirriġ</i> .	Dat. <i>cláirpeacaiḃ</i> .

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna*; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final *a* of this termination; thus, *cúir*, a cause; nom. plural *cúirpeanna*; gen. plural, *cúirpeann*; dat. plural, *cúirpeannaib*.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding *aca*: thus, *obair*, a work, and *opáib*, a prayer, make *oibpeaca* and *opáibeaaca* in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, it is often dropped in the genitive plural; as *puam*, a sound; gen. plural *puam*.

12. When the nominative plural takes *te*, the genitive plural is formed by adding *aḃ*; as *coill*, a wood; nom. plur. *coillte*; and genitive plural as

seen in Oileán na ġ-coillteadh, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *a* to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *a* or *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example, cleap, a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cleap.	Nom. cleapa.
Gen. cleapa.	Gen. cleap.
Dat. cleap.	Dat. cleapaib̃.

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c. ; as *coil*, the will, gen. *cola*.

7. Sometimes *τ* or *ć* is introduced before the *a* of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as *cobail*, sleep; gen. *cobalca*: *buaib̃ip̃τ*, trouble, gen. *buaib̃eap̃ća*.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in *adh*, *eadh*, and *uġadh*, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding

e, not a; as molað, praising; gen. molta: ríneað stretching; gen. rínce: caoluḡað, making slender; gen. caoluḡce.

9. Nouns in aét generally, and those in eap or iop, often, belong to this declension; as clirteaét, dexterity; gen. clirteaéta: boilḡiop, sorrow; gen. boilḡiopa. But the greater number of those in eap or iop belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, boilḡiop, is often made boilḡip in the genitive; and bponntanap, a gift, makes bponntanap.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in ip), which form their genitive singular in ac, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as caéap, a city; gen. caépac: Teamap, Tara, gen. Teampac: ḡpáin, hatred; gen. ḡpánaç.

11. Those in ip generally form their genitive as above; but aéap, a father; máéap, a mother; and bpáéap, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final i:—gen. aéap, máéap, bpáéap.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par. 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in óip generally make the nominative plural by adding iðe; as rpealabóip, a mower, nom. plur. rpealabóipide.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na rpealabóipið, but sometimes na rpealabóip or na rpealabópac.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as rpuç, a stream; gen. rpoça; nom. pl. rpoça or rpoçanna: ðpuim, a back; gen. ðpoma; nom. plur. ðpoma or ðpomanna.

16. Those that add *nna*, form the genitive plural by omitting the *a*; as *ppuċ*; gen. plur. *ppuċann*.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in *n* or *l*, form their plural by adding *te* or *ta*; as *móin*, a bog; gen. sing. *móna*; nom. plur. *móinte*.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding *að* to the nominative plural; as *móin*; gen. plur. *móinteað*.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in *aċ* (10) form the plural by adding *a* to this *aċ*: as *lappaċ*, a flame; gen. sing. *lappaċ*; nom. plur. *lappaċa*.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in *ín*, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *ioe* or *aða* (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, *áinne*, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>áinne</i> .	Nom. <i>áinnioe</i> .
Gen. <i>áinne</i> .	Gen. <i>áinnedað</i> .
Dat. <i>áinne</i> .	Dat. <i>áinnioibh</i> .

4. Some form the plural by adding *te* or *ċe*: as *teinne*, a fire; nom. plur. *teinntē*: *baoi*, a clown; nom. plur. *baoiċe*; and *aċne*, a commandment, has nom. plur. *aċeanta*.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding *ð* or *að* (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. *baoiċe*, clowns; gen. plur. *baoiċeað*.

6. Nouns ending in *aioe*, *uioe*, and *aċe*, generally belong to this declension; as *pclábuioe*, a slave; *píobaċe*, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding *n* or *nn*, and occasionally *ð* or *τ*.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding *a*.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular. Example, *uppa*, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>uppa</i> .	Nom. <i>uppana</i> .
Gen. <i>uppan</i> .	Gen. <i>uppan</i> .
Dat. <i>uppan</i> .	Dat. <i>uppanað</i> .

6. To this declension belong the proper names *Eipe*, Ireland; gen. *Eipeann*, dat. *Eipinn*: *Alba*, Scotland; gen., *Alban*, dat. *Albain*: *Muma*, Munster; gen. *Muinan*, dat. *Muinain*; and several others of less note.

7. *Capa*, a friend, is an example of the genitive in *ð*: nom. *capa*; gen. *capað*; dat. *capað*; nom. plur. *cáipbe*.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.*

IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are: *—*bean*, a woman; *bó*, a cow; *bpu*, a womb;

* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

caopa, a sheep; ceó, a fog; cnó, a hut; cú, a hound; Dia, God; lá, a day; mí, a month; o or ua, a grandson. They are declined as follows. (The vocative is not given where it is like the nominative.)

bean, a woman, fem.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. bean.	Nom. mná.
Gen. mná.	Gen. ban.
Dat. mnaoi.	Dat. mnáib.

bó, a cow, fem.

Nom. bó.	Nom. bá
Gen. bó.	Gen. bó.
Dat. buin.	Dat. búaiḃ.

bprú, a womb, fem.

Nom. bprú.	Nom. bpronna.
Gen. bpruinne or bpronn.	Gen. bpronn.
Dat. bpronn.	Dat. bpronnaib.

Caopa, a sheep, fem.

Nom. caopa.	Nom. caoiriḡ,
Gen. caopaḃ.	Gen. caopaḃ.
Dat. caopa.	Dat. caopḃaiḃ.
Voc. a éaopa.	Voc. a éaopḃa.

Ceó, a fog, masc.

Nom. ceó.	Nom. ciaiḃ.
Gen. ciaiḃ or ceoiḡ.	Gen. ceó.
Dat. ceó.	Dat. ceócaiḃ.

Cnó or cnú, a nut, masc.

Nom. cnó.	Nom. cná, cnai.
Gen. cnó, cnui.	Gen. cnóḃ.
Dat. cnó, cnú.	Dat. cnáiḃ.

Cú, a hound, masc. or fem.

Nom. cú.	Nom. com, cum, cona, or cointe.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. com.	Dat. conaib.

Dia, God, masc.

Nom. Dia.	Nom. Dée, Déíte.
Gen. Dé.	Gen. Dia, Déítead.
Dat. Dia.	Dat. Déib Déíteib.
Voc. a Dhé or a Dhia.	Voc. a Dhée, Dhéíte.

Lá, a day, masc.

Nom. lá.	Nom. laeete.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laeetead, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laeetib.

Mí, a month, fem.

Nom. mí.	Nom. míora.
Gen. mír, míora.	Gen. míor.
Dat. mí, mír.	Dat. míoraib.

O or ua, a grandson, masc.

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uf.
Gen. í, uf.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. íb, uib.
Voc. a, uf.	Voc. a, uf.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE
WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with *p*.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 18), that they can present no difficulty.

4. Colg, a sword, masc. Nom. an colg; gen. an éuilg; dat. leip an g-colg (Par. 4, p. 17), or do'n colg (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. Cailleac, a hag, fem. Nom. an cailleac; na caillige; dat. ó'n g-caillig or do'n caillig.

6. Saoḡal, the world, masc. Nom. an raoḡal; gen. an τ-raoḡail; dat. ó'n raoḡal or do'n τ-raoḡal (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Sabóib, the Sabbath, fem. Nom. an τ-Sabóib; gen. na Sabóibe; dat. ó'n Sabóib or do'n τ-Sabóib (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an τ-plat; gen. na plaite; dat. leip an plait or do'n τ-plait.

9. Spól, satin, masc. Nom. an rpol; gen. an τ-rpól; dat. ó'n rpol or do'n τ-rpól.

10. Apal, an ass, masc. Nom. an τ-apal; gen. an apail; dat. ó'n apal.

11. Inip, an island, fem. Nom. an inip; gen. na h-inpe; dat. do'n inip.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. do'n leic (Par. 6, p. 18).

13. Óile, a deluge, fem. Nom. an óile; gen. na óileann; dat. do'n óilinn.

14. Sgeul, a story, masc. Nom. an rgeul; gen. an rgeíl; dat. ó'n rgeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an rpeal; gen. na rpeile; dat. leip an rpeil.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection *ib* in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns): the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as *bán*, white; *pluóc*, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (i.e., when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of *ball*, except that the nominative plural always ends in *a*.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of *peampóg*.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, *bán*, white.

Singular.			Plural.
Masc.	Fem.		Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	bán.	bán.	Nom. bána.
Gen.	bám.	bámé.	Gen. bán.
Dat.	bán.	bán.	Dat. bána.
Voc.	bám.	bán.	Voc. bána.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes *e*.

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding *e*; the genitive is like the nominative singular. Example, *mín*, smooth, fine.

Singular.			Plural.
Masc.	Fem.		Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	mín.	mín.	Nom. míne.
Gen.	mín.	míne.	Gen. mín.
Dat.	mín.	mín	Dat. míne.
Voc.	mín.	mín.	Voc. míne.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in *amail*, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:—*bean*, a woman *banamail*, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding *a*, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, *maipeamail*, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. maípeamháil.	Nom. maípeamhla.
Gen. maípeamhla.	Gen. maípeamháil.
Dat. maípeamháil.	Dat. maípeamhla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as mópóa, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, and genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at p. 10; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It may be added here that *o* and *u* sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in *n*. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes *n* if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun. For the influence of the article see p. 17.

An capall bán, *the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an capall bán.	na capaill bána.
Gen. an écapaill bán.	na g-capall m-bán.
Dat. ó'n g-capall bán or m-bán.	ó'na capallaib bána
Voc. a écapaill bán.	a écapalla bána.

Ան բփրեօց Եագ, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom. ան բփրեօց Եագ.	na բփրեօցա Եագա.
Gen. na բփրեօցե Եիցե.	na Ե-բփրեօց m-Եագ.
Dat. զ'ն Ե-բփրեօց Եից.	զ'na բփրեօցաԵ Եագա.
Voc. a բփրեօց Եագ.	a բփրեօցա Եագա.

Ան Ենօ արծ, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. ան Ենօ արծ.	Nom. na Ենու արծա.
Gen. ան Ենու արծ.	Gen. na ճ-Ենօ n-արծ.
Dat. զ'ն ճ-Ենօ արծ.	Dat. զ'na ԵնօաԵ արծա.
Voc. a Ենու արծ.	Voc. a Ենօա արծա.

Ան Եօ ԵւԵ, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. ան Եօ ԵւԵ.	Nom. na Եա ԵւԵա.
Gen. na Եօ ԵւԵ.	Gen. na m-Եօ n-ԵւԵ.
Dat. Եօ'ն m-ԵւԵ ԵւԵ.	Dat. Եօ na ԵւԵաԵ ԵւԵա.
Voc. a Եօ ԵւԵ.	Voc. a Եա ԵւԵա.

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as արծ, high; Բաժեամալ, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as արծե, Բաժեամալ; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle ո՞ր (or ո՞րա or ո՞րա) prefixed, and it is usually followed by նա, than (spelled also նա and նոն); as Եա ան Եաժ յօ ո՞ր արծե նա ան Եաժ յոն,

this house is higher than that house : *ατά αν λαοῦ ὑδ νίον πλαττεαμίλα ná αν πρίγ πέιν*, “yonder champion is more princely than the king himself.”

5. The superlative is often preceded by *ιρ* or *αρ*, with the article expressed before the noun ; as *αν πεαρ ιρ πλαττεαμίλα παν τίρ*, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, *νίον* is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb *ιρ* in any of its forms, expressed or understood ; as *βα θυίβε α ζρυαζ ná αν ζυαλ*, “her hair was blacker than the coal ;” *ιρ γίλε πνεαττα ná bainne*, snow is whiter than milk ; *αν πεάρρ δο θεαρβρατταρ ná έύρα ?* is thy brother better than thou ?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative ; as *αν εαλαδαν ιρ υαίρλε ná πιλθεαττ*, the art which is nobler than poetry ; *αν εαλαδαν ιρ υαίρλε αρ βίτ*, “the art which is the noblest in the world.”

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected ; all the cases being alike in form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice.

2. *λία* is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number) ; but it has no positive, unless *ιомδα* or *μόρπν* (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beağ, little.	níor luğá.	ír luğá.
faða, long.	níor faibe, níor ríá.	ír faibe, ír ríá.
ƿupur or upur, easy.	níor ƿurá, níor urá.	ír ƿurá, ír urá.
maič, } beağ, } good.	níor ƿeárr.	ír ƿeárr.
mimic, often.	níor mionca.	
mór, great.	níor mó.	ír mó.
olc, bad.	níor meapa.	ír meapa.
ceič, hot.	níor teó.	ír teó.

3. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 10, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

4. The principal of these are an, ƿíor, ró, ƿár, úr: as maič, good; an-maič, very good: ġránna, ugly; ƿíor-ġránna, excessively ugly: mórr, large; ró-mórr, very large: láibir, strong; ƿár-láibir, very strong, &c.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.	Ordinal.
1. aon.	1st. óeab.
2. ðó, ðá.	2nd. ðapa.
3. tɾí, teópa.	3rd. tɾeap.
4. ceacɾap, ceitɾe.	4th. ceacɾamað.
5. cúġ.	5th. cúġeab.
6. ƿé.	6th. ƿeieab.
7. ƿeacɾ.	7th. ƿeacɾmað.
8. oócɾ.	8th. oócɾmað.
9. naoi.	9th. naomað.
10. ðeic.	10th. ðeacɾmað.
11. aon ðeag.	11th. aonmað ðeag.

12.	ոճ ծեաջ, ծա՛ ծեաջ.	12th.	ծարա ծեաջ.
13.	երի ծեաջ. And so on, up to and including 19.	13th.	երբար ծեաջ.
20.	բիժե.	20th.	բիժեած.
21.	{ աոն ա'ր բիժե, աոն ար բիժիծ, And so on, up to 29.	21st.	{ աոնիւծ ար բիժիծ.
30.	{ երիւծած, երիւծա, ճեւծ ա'ր բիժե.	30th.	{ երիւծածած, ճեւծիւծ ար բիժիծ.
33.	{ երի ար երիւծաւծ, երի ծեաջ ա'ր բիժե.	33rd.	{ երբար ար երիւ- ծաւծ, երբար ծեաջ ար բիժիծ.
40.	{ ծա՛ բիժիծ, շեւծ- րածա, շեւծրա- ւած.	40th.	շեւծրածած.
50.	շաջա, շաջած.	50th.	շաջածած.
60.	{ բարձած, բարձա, երի բիժիծ.	60th.	{ բարձածած, երի բիժիւծած.
70.	{ բեւծտիւոջա, բեւծ- տիւոջած, ճեւծ ա'ր երի բիժիծ.	70th.	{ բեւծտիւոջածած, ճեւծիւծ ար երի բիժիծ.
80.	{ օծտիւոջա, օծտ- իւոջած, շեւծրե բիժիծ.	80th.	{ օծտիւոջածած, շեւծրե բիժիւ- ծած.
90.	{ ուծա, ուծած, ճեւծ ա'ր շեւծրե բիժիծ	90th.	{ ուծածած, ճեւծ- իւծ ար շեւծ- րե բիժիծ.
100.	ճեւծ.	100th.	ճեւծած.
1,000.	միւ.	1,000th.	միււած.
2,000.	ծա՛ միւ.	2,000th.	ծա՛ միււած.
1,000,000.	միլիւն.	1,000,000th.	միլիւնած.

2. Օճ and շեւծար are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but ծա՛ and շեւծրե are always used when the nouns are expressed; as ծա՛ ճլար, two ears; շեւծրե բար, four men.

3. Բիժե is declined :—Nom բիժե; gen. բիժեւծ; dat. բիժիծ; nom. plur. բիժիւծ.

4. Ճեւծ has gen. ճեւծ; nom. pl. ճեւծա or ճեւծա.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

beipτ, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only :—

δίap, δίp, two persons.	ρεαῶταp, }	seven persons.
beipτ, a couple.	μόp-ρειρεap, }	
τριύp, three persons.	οῶταp, eight „	
ceatṛap, four „	nonḃap, naonḃap, nine „	
cúigeap, five „	deiḱneabap, ten „	
ρειρεap, six „		

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns :—Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—mé, I; tú, thou; pé, he; pí, she; with their plurals, pinn, we; piḃ, ye or you; and piab, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self*; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms :—
Mípe or merí, myself; túpa, thyself; pépean.

himself; *pīpe*, herself; *pīnne*, ourselves; *pībpe*, yourselves; *piabpan*, themselves.

4. The word *pém*, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:—*mé pém*, I myself; *pí pém*, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except *mé*), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun *tu* that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of *mé* is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to *caol le caol* &c.

mé, I.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>mé</i> , I.	Nom. <i>pīnn</i> , we.
Gen. <i>mo</i> , mine.	Gen. <i>áp</i> , our.
Dat. <i>dom</i> , <i>dam̃</i> , to me.	Dat. <i>dúinn</i> , to us.
Acc. <i>mé</i> , me.	Acc. <i>inn</i> or <i>pīnn</i> , us.

Mīpe, myself (*emphatic form*).

Nom. <i>mīpe</i> , <i>meṛi</i> , myself.	Nom. <i>pīnne</i> , ourselves.
Gen. <i>mo-pa</i> , my own.	Gen. <i>áp-ne</i> , our own.
Dat. <i>dompa</i> , <i>dam̃pa</i> , to myself.	Dat. <i>dúinne</i> , to ourselves.
Acc. <i>mīpe</i> , <i>meṛi</i> , myself.	Acc. <i>inne</i> , <i>pīnne</i> , ourselves.

Tú, thou.

Nom. <i>tu</i> .	Nom. <i>pīb</i> .
Gen. <i>do</i> .	Gen. <i>bup</i> , <i>ḃap</i> .
Dat. <i>duiṭ</i> .	Dat. <i>ḃaoib</i> , <i>ḃib</i> .
Acc. <i>tu</i> .	Acc. <i>ib</i> , <i>pīb</i> .
Voc. <i>tu</i> .	Voc. <i>pīb</i> , <i>ib</i> .

Sé, *he*.

Nom. *ῑé*.
 Gen. *α*.
 Dat. *δο*.
 Acc. *έ*.

Nom. *ῑαδ*.
 Gen. *α*.
 Dat. *δοίβ*.
 Acc. *ιαδ*.

Sí, *she*.

Nom. *ῑί*.
 Gen. *α*.
 Dat. *δι*.
 Acc. *ί*.

Nom. *ῑιαδ*.
 Gen. *α*.
 Dat. *δοίβ*.
 Acc. *ιαδ*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and in some cases completely, disguised.

3. These “prepositional pronouns,” as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—*αδ*; *αῖρ* or *αῖ*; *ανν* or *ι*; *αῖ*; *έμ*; *δε*; *δο*; *ειδιρ* or *ιδιρ*; *ῑά* or *ῑαοι*; *λε*; *ο* or *υα*; *ῑοιμ*; *ῑεαέ*; *ταῖ*; *τεῖ*; *υαῖ*; *υμ* or *ιμ*.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given.

At, at or with.

Singular.

Plural.

aḡam, with or at me.

aḡainn, with us.

aḡaṭ, aḡaḇ, with thee.

aḡaiḇ, with you.

aḡe, with him.

aḡa or aḡu, with them.

aice or aici, with her.

The same with the emphatic increase.

aḡampa, with myself.

aḡainne, with ourselves.

aḡaṭpa, with thyself.

aḡaiḇpe, with yourselves.

aḡeṣean, with himself.

aḡaran, with themselves.

aicipe, with herself.

Ap or ap, upon.

opm, on me.

oppainn, on us.

opṭ, on thee.

oppaiḇ, on you.

ap, on him.

oppa, opṭa, on them.

uippe, on her.

Ann or i, in.

ionnam, in me.

ionnainn, ionnainn, in us.

ionnaṭ, ionnaḇ, in thee.

ionnaiḇ, in you.

ann, in him.

ionnṭa, in them.

innṭe, innṭi, in her.

Ap, out of.

apam, out of me.

apainn, out of us.

apaṭ, apaḇ, out of thee.

apaiḇ, out of you.

ap, out of him.

apaṭa, apṭu, out of them.

apṭe, apṭi, out of her.

Cum, towards, unto.

cūḡam, unto me.

cūḡainn, unto us.

cūḡaṭ, unto thee.

cūḡaiḇ, unto you.

cūiḡe, unto him.

cūca, unto them.

cūici, unto her.

De, from or off.

dīom, off or of me.

dīinn, off us.

dīoṭ, off thee.

dīḇ, off you.

de, off him.

dīoḇ, off them.

oi, off her.

Ōo, *to*.

ōam, ōom, ōam̄, to me.
 ōuīτ, to thee.
 ōo, to him.
 ōi, to her.

ōūmn, to us.
 ōaōiḅ, ōfḅ, to you.
 ōōiḅ, to them.

Eiōir, *between*.

eaōram, between me.
 eaōraτ, between thee.
 eiōir ē, between him.
 eiōir i, between her.

eaōraumn, between us.
 eaōraiḅ, between you.
 eaōorpa, between them.

Ʋá or Ʋaoi, *under*.

Ʋám, under me.
 Ʋúτ, under thee.
 Ʋaōi, under him.
 Ʋúīτε, under her.

Ʋūmn, under us.
 Ʋúḅ, under you.
 Ʋúṭa, under them.

Le, *with*.

liom, with me.
 leaτ, with thee.
 leiρ, with him.
 léiτε, léi, with her.

linn, with us.
 liḅ, with you.
 leó, with them.

Le is often written pe in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows:—

piom, with me.
 pioτ, with thee.
 piρ, with him.
 pia, with her.

pinn, with us.
 piḅ, with you.
 piu, with them.

O or ua, *from*.

uam, from me.
 uaīτ, from thee.
 uaō, from him.
 uaīτε, uaīṭi, from her.

uamn, from us.
 uaīḅ, from you.
 uaṭa, from them.

Rōm̄, *before*.

rōm̄am, before me.
 rōm̄aτ, before thee.
 rōm̄e, before him.
 rōm̄pe, rōm̄pi, before her.

rōm̄amn, before us.
 rōm̄aiḅ, before you.
 rōm̄pa, before them.

Seac̃, *beside*.

peac̃am, beside me.
 peac̃at, beside thee.
 peac̃ é, beside him.
 peac̃ í, beside her.

peac̃amn, beside us.
 peac̃aiḃ, beside you.
 peac̃a, beside them.

Tap, *beyond, over*.

topm, tapm, over me.
 top̃t, tap̃t, over thee.
 tap̃p̃, over him.
 tap̃p̃te, tap̃p̃i, over her.

top̃p̃amn, tap̃p̃amn, over us.
 top̃p̃aiḃ, tap̃p̃aiḃ, over you.
 tap̃p̃ta, tap̃p̃a, over them.

Tpe, *through*.

tp̃fom, through me.
 tp̃fot, through thee.
 tp̃f̃, through him.
 tp̃f̃te, tp̃f̃i, through her.

tp̃f̃nn, through us.
 tp̃f̃ḃ, through you.
 tp̃f̃ot̃a, through them.

Uap, *above*.

uap̃am, above me.
 uap̃at, above thee.
 uap̃a, above him.
 uap̃te, uap̃ti, above her.

uap̃amn, above us.
 uap̃aiḃ, above you.
 uap̃ta, above them.

Um or im, *about*.

um̃am, about me.
 um̃at, about thee.
 um̃e, about him.
 um̃pe, um̃pi, about her.

um̃amn, about us.
 um̃aiḃ, about you.
 ump̃a, about them.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; ðo, thy; a, his or her; áp, our; ðap or ðup, your; a, their. The three possessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.)

2. The *o* of *mo* and *vo* is omitted before a vowel or before *p̣*; as *m'ačair*, my father; *m'p̣eapann*, my land. And *vo* is often changed, before a vowel, to *τ*, *č*, and *h*; as *τ'ačair*, *č'ačair*, or *h-ačair*, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as *mo čeač-*pa**, my house, or my own house; *mo čeač móp buiðe-*ri**, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by *p̣éin* (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as *mo čeač-*pa* p̣éin*, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as *beip beannačt óm čpoide*, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Ann, in.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>am, am', in my.</i>	<i>máp, 'náp, in our.</i>
<i>að, að', in thy.</i>	—
<i>iona, ma, 'na, in his or her.</i>	<i>iona, ma, 'na, in their.</i>

Do, to.

<i>dom, dom', to my.</i>	<i>dáp, d'áp, to our.</i>
<i>doð, doð', to thy.</i>	—
<i>dá, da, to his or her.</i>	<i>dá, d'a, to their.</i>

le, with.

lem, lem', with my.

lep, le'p, with our

leò, leò', with thy.

—

lena, le n-a, with his or her. lena, le n-a, with their.

O or ua from.

óm, óm', from my.

oáp, ó'p, from our.

óò, óò', from thy.

—

óna, ó n-a, from his or her. óna, o n-a, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna tíg, from his house; óna tíg, from her house; óna ð-tíg, from their house.

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, p. 45; as óm tíg mór árb-ra, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish:—
a, who, which, that; noè, who, which, that; naè, which not; as an té a buaileap, the person who strikes; an liaig noè a ðeip go b-puil tú plán, the physician that says that you are well; an té naè b-puil láidip, ní fuláip dó ðeicé glic, “the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise.”

2. Óa sometimes takes the place of the relative a; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as táid na gaolta ip peápp agum dá b-puil a ð-talam Epeann, “I have

the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes *do* stands for the relative *a*.

3. The relative *a* has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as *beip beannaðt cum a maiceann ðe ðiolpaic l'ia'p Eibip*, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" *a ð-puil ran talam ð'aicme Mháine*, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of Máine."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are *po*, this, these; *pin*, that, those; *róð* or *úð*, yonder: as *an peap po*, this man; *na mná pin*, those women; *róð í píop*, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—*cia* or *cé*, who? *cá*, what? where? *cad* or *cpeud*, what? as *cia épuçuiğ éú?* who created thee? *cad ðeip tú?* what sayest thou? *ca ð-puil an peap pin?* where is that man? *cpeud ip éiğin?* what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.

éiğin, some, certain.

eile, *oile*, other.

các, all.

ğac, each, every.

ğac uile, every.

ceacçap, either.

uile, all.

a céile, each other.

an t'é, *an t'í*, the person who.

cia b'é, *cibé*, *ğibé*, whoever.

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined ; except *cáic*, which has a genitive form, *cáic* ; and *ḡac*, which is sometimes made *ḡaca* in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes:—see pages 10 and 58 for the particles that aspirate, and page 12 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural ; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb *ṭóg*, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>ṭógaim</i> , I take.	1. <i>ṭógamaoib</i> , we take.
2. <i>ṭógair</i> , thou takest.	2. <i>ṭógtaoi</i> , ye take.
3. <i>ṭógair</i> <i>fé</i> , he takes.	3. <i>ṭogaib</i> , they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations.

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is, $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou, expresses perfectly "thou takest;" and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons singular and plural are expressed as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\mu\acute{\epsilon}$, I take.	1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\iota\pi\eta$ we take.
2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou takest.	2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\iota\theta$, ye take.
3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he takes.	3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\iota\alpha\theta$, they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For

example, it would be wrong to say *déanam mé* or *déanamais pinn*, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as *molaib ríab* and *molaib ríab*—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though *molaib* or *molaib* alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as *tríallab mic Míleab*, “the sons of Milè go;” *map do concabap na drapaitè*, “when the druids saw.”

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 39); as *molaím-pe*, I praise; *molaíṽ-pe*, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word *péin* (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as *do cuippinn-pe péin mo leanb a éodlaö*, “I myself would put my child to sleep.”

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already remarked (p. 23) that the noun-inflection *ib* is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved;

all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb *gair*, call, are:—

(1.) The present; *gairim*, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; *gairpeann mé*, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); *do gairpear*, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; *do gairinn*, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; *gairpeadh*, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the four given in the last paragraph, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buaíl, strike.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. | 1. buaílímís, let us strike. |
| 2. buaíl, strike thou. | 2. buaílís, strike ye. |
| 3. buaíleáð pé, let him strike. | 3. buaílísís, let them strike. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. buaílím, I strike. | 1. buaílímís, we strike. |
| 2. buaílíp, thou strikest. | 2. buaílís, ye strike. |
| 3. buaílís, he strikes. | 3. buaílís, they strike. |

(*For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.*)

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaíleann mé, *I usually strike.*

(*The same form for all persons and numbers.*)

Past.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. buaileap, I struck. | 1. buaileamap, we struck. |
| 2. buailip, thou struckest. | 2. buaileabap, ye struck. |
| 3. buail ré, he struck. | 3. buaileabap, they struck. |

Old form of Past.

- | | |
|-----------------|--|
| 1. buaileap. | 1. buailream or buailriom |
| 2. buailip. | 2. buaileabap. |
| 3. buaileapcap. | 3. buailread, or buailriod,
or buailreadap. |

Consuetudinal Past

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. buailinn, I used to strike. | 1. buailimis, we used to strike. |
| 2. buailceá, thou usedst to strike. | 2. buailci, ye used to strike. |
| 3. buailead ré, he used to strike. | 3. buailidís, they used to strike. |

Future.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. buailread, I will strike. | 1. buailrimis, we will strike. |
| 2. buailip, thou wilt strike. | 2. buailri, ye will strike. |
| 3. buailriod ré, he will strike. | 3. buailri, they will strike. |

(For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.)

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. buailfinn, I would strike. | 1. buailfimis, we would strike. |
| 2. buailfeá, thou wouldst strike. | 2. buailfi, ye would strike. |
| 3. buailfead ré, he would strike. | 3. buailfidís, they would strike. |

INF. MOOD. Do bualað, to strike. PART. Að bualað, striking.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

(*The same as the Indicative Present.*)

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1. buailteap mé, I am struck. | 1. buailteap pinn or inn, we are struck. |
| 2. buailteap tú, thou art struck. | 2. buailteap sib or ib, ye are struck. |
| 3. buailteap é, he is struck. | 3. buailteap iad, they are struck. |

Consuetudinal Present.

(*Same as the Indicative Present.*)

Past.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. buaileadh mé, I was struck. | 1. buaileadh pinn or inn, we were struck. |
| 2. buaileadh tú, thou wast struck. | 2. buaileadh sib or ib, ye were struck. |
| 3. buaileadh é, he was struck. | 3. buaileadh iad, they were struck. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. buailtfí mé, I used to be struck. | 1. buailtfí pinn or inn, we used to be struck. |
| 2. buailtfí tú, thou usedst to be struck. | 2. buailtfí sib or ib, ye used to be struck. |
| 3. buailtfí é, he used to be struck. | 3. buailtfí iad, they used to be struck. |

Future.

Singular.

1. buailpeap mé, I shall or will be struck.
2. buailpeap éú, thou shalt or wilt be struck.
3. buailpeap é, he shall or will be struck.

Plural.

1. buailpeap rinn or inn, we shall or will be struck.
2. buailpeap rið or ið, ye shall or will be struck.
3. buailpeap iað, they shall or will be struck.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. buailpíðe mé, I would be struck. | 1. buailpíðe rinn or inn, we would be struck. |
| 2. buailpíðe éú, thou wouldst be struck. | 2. buailpíðe rið or ið, ye would be struck. |
| 3. buailpíðe é, he would be struck. | 3. buailpíðe iað, they would be struck. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beiz buailte, to be struck.

PARTICIPLE.

buailte, struck.

IV. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," i.e., a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., *ap, ip, eap, or iop.*

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is translated, not by an *té a ñoipíð* (3rd sing. form), but by an *té a ñoipeap*; and "he who will steal," is not an *té a ñoipíð* (3rd sing. form), but an *té a ñoipeap*. In other tenses and moods the

relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," i.e., the present tense used for the past; as *riapparḡear Am̃pḡin a h-am̃m ði*, "*Amergin asks her name of her.*" (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 57.)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, *l̃p m̃p̃ an t-ionḡna liom̃pa, nãc̃ ð'Oip̃in iappap P̃ionn m̃pe*, "*It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisín Finn seeks (iappap) me.*"

V. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely like those of *buaḡl* (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb ending in a broad vowel is given at page. 64.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4. p. 60: See also Par. 8, p. 63.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations *im* (or *aím*), *ip* (or *aip*), &c., to the root.

2. The historical present, i.e., the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, *Uala lé, iomoppo, ollmhuigítear long leip*, “as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him” (instead of *ollmhuigead*, *was prepared*).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, p. 56), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as *noctar Eipemón doib*, “Eremon reveals to them.”

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as *léigeann mé*, I am in the habit of reading; *léigead pé*, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, “I write always after breakfast,” and “he sold bread in his youth,” the verbs “write” and “sold” are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles *do* or *po* is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

consonant is generally aspirated; as *do* *ḡoiribír*, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations: thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles *do* or *po* is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as *do* *féapap*, I stood; *po* *ḡoblair*, thou sleptest; *do* *molaḡ iab*, they were praised; *po* *buaileḡ é*, he was struck.

4. The particle *po*, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the *p* only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were un-compounded.

5. The principal of these compounds are:—

(1.) *Ap*, whether? from *an* and *po*; as *ap* *buaíl ré*, did he strike?

(2.) *ḡup*, that, from *ḡo* and *po*; as *ceiribim ḡup* *buaíl ré*, I believe that he struck.

(3.) *Munap*, unless, from *muna* and *po*; as *munap* *buaíl ré*, unless he struck.

(4.) *Naḡap*, or *na'p*, or *náp*, whether not? from *naḡ* and *po*; as *náp* *buaíl ré*, did not he strike?

(5.) Níop, not, from níand po; as níop buaíl pé, ne did not strike.*

6. The particle po, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun a; as an peap d'ap geallap mo leabap, the man *to whom* I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter p, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like h; thus dúnpab, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. The particle do, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as do fíubalpaínn, I would walk.

2. But very often also dá, if, or muna, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as dá b-pağáinn-pe mo poğa, "if I would get my choice;" muna m-beiöeað pé, "unless he would be."

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with p.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle do or a be expressed or under-

* See Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language, p. 53.

stood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for *α*, his; *mo*, my; *do*, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as *δα ḡonað*, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); *do m'ḡonað*, to wound me; *do ð'ḡonað*, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by *α*, her; as *δα ḡonað*, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as *δαρ n-ḡonað*, to wound us; *do ðup n-ḡonað* to wound you; *δα n-ḡonað*, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding *að* or *eað*, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by *ι* as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the *ι*); as *buaił*, *bualað*; *ḡoin*, *ḡonað*, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by *ι* alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as *miłł*, *miłleað*, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by prac-

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.

tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
éaḡ.	ḏ'éaḡ, to die.
ṛnám.	ḏo ṛnám, to swim.
ól.	ḏ'ól, to drink.
ṣappamḡ.	ḏo ṣappamḡ, to draw.
cup.	ḏo cup, to put.
ḡoil.	ḏo ḡoil, to weep.
imur.	ḏ'imurṣ, to play.
inḡil.	ḏ'inḡilṣ, to graze.
ḏibur.	ḏo ḏiburṣ, to banish.
ceil.	ḏo ceilṣ, to conceal.
ṛáḡ.	ḏ' ṛáḡbál, to leave.
ḡab.	ḏo ḡabál, to take.
ṣóḡ.	ḏo ṣoḡbál, to lift.
lean.	ḏo leanám, to follow.
caill.	ḏo cáilleamán, to lose.
oil.	ḏ'oileamán, to nourish.
poill.	ḏ'poilleamán, to suit.
ḡluar.	ḏo ḡluarácṣ, to move.
éirṣ.	ḏ'éirṣeacṣ, to listen.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as aḡ prefixed; as aḡ bualaḏ at beating or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding ṣe or ṣe when the last vowel of the root is slender, and ṣa or ṣa, when broad.

When the root ends in ó, ô, l, ll, n, nn, p, t, or ḡ (except verbs in urḡ or iḡ), the ṣ of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in urḡ or iḡ, the ṣ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations ṣap and ṣí follow the same law.

VI. VERBS IN UÍĠ, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in uíĠ, or íĠ, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in íl, ín, íp, and ír, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of buaíl.

3. In buaíl, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter p is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, p. 59.

4. The verbs now under consideration have no p in the future and conditional, but they take instead, eó, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in uíĠ and íĠ change Ġ into Ċ; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the Ġ retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and buaíl, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in íl, ín, íp and ír are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as coðaíl, sleep, coðlam,

* As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."

I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in *uig* almost always form their infinitive by dropping the *i* and adding the usual termination *að*; those in *ig* alone (not preceded by *u*), retain the *i* and take *u* after it in the infinitive: as *comapčuiğ*, mark; infinitive, *comapčuğað*; *comapliğ*, advise; infinitive, *comapliuğað*.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule *coal le caol* &c., which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as *buaib* and *meaib*.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
<i>Điruiğ</i> , direct.	<i>điruiğim</i> .	<i>đipeócað</i> .	<i>đipeócaimn</i> .
<i>Đráuuiğ</i> , love.	<i>đráuuiğim</i> .	<i>đráiðeócað</i> .	<i>đráiðeócaimn</i> .
<i>laðair</i> , speak.	<i>laðraim</i> .	<i>laiðeópað</i> .	<i>laiðeópaimn</i> .
<i>čappuiğ</i> , draw.	<i>čairuiğim</i> .	<i>čaipeóngað</i> .	<i>čaipeóngaimn</i> .
<i>forğail</i> , open.	<i>forğlaim</i> .	<i>foirgeólað</i> .	<i>foirgeólaimn</i> .
<i>coraim</i> , defend.	<i>coraim</i> .	<i>coipeónað</i> .	<i>coipeónaimn</i> .
<i>innur</i> , tell.	<i>innurim</i> .	<i>inneópað</i> .	<i>inneópaimn</i> .
<i>Đibur</i> , banish.	<i>Điburim</i> .	<i>Đibeópað</i> .	<i>Đibeópaimn</i> .

11. In Munster, verbs in *il*, *in*, *ip*, and *ir*, are conjugated like those in *uig* or *ig*; and the *eó* comes *after* the final consonant: thus *Đibur*, banish, is made in the future and conditional, *Đibpeóğað* and *Đibpeóğaimn*, as if the verb were *Đibuiğ*.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in *uig* (*árđuiğ*) is given at page 65.

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.		1. — 2. meall 3. meall-að ré	meall-amaoip meall-að meall-aðbip	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Pres. Tense.		1. meall-ann 2. meall-aip 3. meall-að ré	meall-amaoib meall-aoi meall-aib	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-}\tau\text{ap} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\text{ap} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mé} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-}\tau\text{ap} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\text{ap} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pið, ið} \\ \text{iað} \end{array}$	
Consuet. Present.		1. $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-} \\ \text{ann} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mé} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \text{ré}$ 2. — 3. —	meall-ann $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn} \\ \text{pið} \\ \text{iað} \end{array} \right.$	Same form as the Present.	
Simple Past.		1. ñeall-ap 2. ñeall-aip 3. ñeall ré	ñeall-aman ñeall-aðan ñeall-aðan	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-að} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\text{aoi} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mé} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-að} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\text{aoi} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pið, ið} \\ \text{iað} \end{array}$	
Consuet. Past.		1. ñeall-ann 2. ñeall-á 3. ñeall-að ré	ñeall-amaoip ñeall-aoi ñeall-aðbip	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-}\tau\text{aoi} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\text{aoi} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mé} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-}\tau\text{aoi} \\ \text{meall-}\tau\text{aoi} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pið, ið} \\ \text{iað} \end{array}$	
Future.		1. meall-pað 2. meall-paip 3. meall-pað ré	meall-pamaoib meall-pað meall-pað	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-pap} \\ \text{meall-pap} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mé} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-pap} \\ \text{meall-pap} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pið, ið} \\ \text{iað} \end{array}$	
Conditional Mood.		1. ñeall-pann 2. ñeall-pá 3. ñeall-pað ré	ñeall-pamaoip ñeall-pað ñeall-paðaip	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{ñeall-paibe} \\ \text{ñeall-paibe} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mé} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{ñeall-paibe} \\ \text{ñeall-paibe} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{pinn, inn} \\ \text{pið, ið} \\ \text{iað} \end{array}$	
Indicative Mood.		Infinitive Mood, bo ñeall-að.		Infinitive Mood, bo beit meall-ao.	
		Participle, að meall-að.		Participle, meall-ao.	

ACTIVE VOICE.			PASSIVE VOICE.			
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		
Imperative Mood.	1. —	արժուից-միր	Same form as the Present Indicative.			
	2. արժուի	արժուից-իծ				
	3. արժուից-եօ	արժուից-ծիր				
Pres. Tense.	1. արժուից-մ	արժուից-մեծ			Same form as the Present.	
	2. արժուից-իր	արժուից-ի				
	3. արժուից-ն	արժուից-ն				
Consuet. Present.	1. } արժուից-եմ	{ բրժ բիծ լծ				
	2. } eann					
	3. } ré					
Simple Past.	1. արժուից-եար	{ բրժ բիծ լծ				
	2. արժուից-իր					
	3. արժուից ré					
Consuet. Past.	1. արժուից-մ	{ բրժ բիծ լծ				
	2. արժուից-եօ					
	3. արժուից-եօ ré					
Future.	1. արժեօծ-ա	{ բրժ բիծ լծ				
	2. արժեօծ-ար					
	3. արժեօծ-աօ ré					
Conditional Mood.	1. արժեօծ-ան	{ բրժ բիծ լծ				
	2. արժեօծ-ի					
	3. արժեօծ-աօ ré					
Infinitive Mood, Ծ'արժուիցած.			Infinitive Mood, Ծո Բիւ արժուիցե			
Participle, ած արժուիցած			Participle, արժուիցե.			

VII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, i.e., want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of that of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows:—(1), *ṭám*, I am; (2), the assertive verb *ip*; (3), *beipim*, I give; (4), *beipim*, I bear; (5), *čim*, I see (including *peicim*); (6), *clunim*, I hear; (7), *ḍéan-aim*, I do; (8), *ḡnīm* or *nīm*, I do; (9), *ḍeipim*, I say; (10), *paḡaim* or *ḡeibim*, I find; (11), *ičim*, I eat; (12), *riḡim*, I reach; (13), *ṭéiðim*, I go; (14), *ṭiḡim*, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb *ip*, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb at page 49. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, *ṭám*, is given.

(1.) *Ṭám*, *I am*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1.

1. *bímíř*, let us be.2. *bíř*, be thou.2. *bíðíð*, be ye.3. *bíðeað řé*, or *bíð řé*,
let him be.3. *bíðíř*, let them be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. τάμ, ατάμ, I am.
2. τάμ, ατάμ, thou art.
3. τά πέ, ατά πέ, he is.

Plural.

1. τάμαοι, ατάμαοι, we are.
2. τάταοι, ατάταοι, ye are.
3. τάι, ατάι, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

1. τά μέ, ατά μέ, I am:
2. τά tú, ατά tú, thou art.
3. τά πέ, ατά πέ, he is.

1. τά ριμ, ατά ριμ, we are.
2. τά ρι, ατά ρι, ye are.
3. τά ρια, ατά ρια, they are.

Consuetudinal Present.

1. βίδιμ, I am usually.
2. βίδιμ, thou art usually.
3. βίδεανν πέ, or βιονν πέ, he is usually.

1. βιμφο, βιδιμφο, βιομαοι, we are usually.
2. βιτί, βιδιτί, ye are usually.
3. βι, βιδι, they are usually.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69.)

1. ní β-πιμ, I am not.*
2. ní β-πιμ, thou art not.
3. ní β-πιμ πέ, he is not.

1. ní β-πιμφο, we are not.
2. ní β-πιμτί, ye are not.
3. ní β-πιμ, they are not.

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the β-πι were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'μ, ní'μ, ní'μ πέ, &c.

Past Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Ъіѡеар, Ъіор, I was. | 1. Ъіѡеамаp, Ъіомаp, we were. |
| 2. Ъіѡip, Ъіp, thou wert. | 2. Ъіѡеаѡар, Ъіѡѡар, ye were. |
| 3. Ъіѡ pé, Ъі pé, he was. | 3. Ъіѡеаѡар, Ъіѡѡар, they were. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Ъіѡинn, Ъіинn, I used to be. | 1. Ъіѡмip, Ъімip, we used to be. |
| 2. Ъіѡѡеа, Ъіѡеа, thou usedst to be. | 2. Ъіѡѡі, Ъіѡі, ye used to be. |
| 3. Ъіѡеаѡ pé, Ъіѡѡ pé, he used to be. | 3. Ъіѡѡip, Ъіѡip, they used to be. |

Interrogative and Negative Past.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69).

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. ні паѡар, I was not. | 1. ні паѡамаp, we were not. |
| 2. ні паѡар, thou wert not. | 2. ні паѡаѡар, ye were not. |
| 3. ні паіѡ pé, he was not. | 3. ні паѡаѡар, they were not. |

Future.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. беіѡеаѡ, I shall be. | 1. беіѡмфѡ, we shall be. |
| 2. беіѡip, thou shalt be. | 2. беіѡіѡ, ye shall be. |
| 3. беіѡ pé, he shall be. | 3. беіѡіѡ, they shall be. |

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Beidinn</i> , I would be. | 1. <i>Beidmís</i> , we would be. |
| 2. <i>Beidceá</i> , thou wouldst be. | 2. <i>Beidcís</i> , ye would be. |
| 3. <i>Beidceadh sé</i> , or <i>Beid sé</i> ,
he would be. | 3. <i>Beidís</i> , they would be. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beid, to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Að beid, being.

1. *Úá* is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense for interrogation and negation (*b-puilim*), and a form in the past tense for the same (*paðar*). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms *b-puilim* and *paðar* are used only:—

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as *ní b-puil sé cin*, he is not sick; *ní paib mé ann rin*, I was not there: *an b-puil pson in ðap longab?* "Is there wine in your ships?" *An paðar að an ð-cappað?* "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? *O nað b-puil ðul uaib aðam*, "since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); *an b-puil a pìop aðat péin, a Phinn?* *ní puil, ap Pionn*, "Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?" "It is not," says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative *cionnap*, how?)

(b.) After *go*, that; as *deirim go b-puil pé plán*, I say that he is well.

(c.) After the relative *a* when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies "all that" (Par. 3, page 47); as *cpeud é an ppeaḡra ḡabappaip ap Oha, aḡ a b-puil pīop do ločt?* "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "*with whom* is a knowledge"); *a b-puil ó Ač-cliač go h-Oileán mór an bhappaḡ*, "*all that* is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oileán mór an Bharraigh;" *do beirimís ap m-bpīačap nač beaḡ linn a m-beupam go Fionn dioḡ*, "we pledge our word, that we do not think it little, *all that* we shall bring of them to Finn."

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as *map an ḡ-céaḡna bíop* (or *bíḡear*) *an báp an oipéll do pīop ap an duine*; "in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man."

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as *an paib tú aḡ an ḡ-Cappaḡ?* *Oo bíop aḡ an ḡ-Cappaḡ*, "Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick."

6. The letter *a* is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: *aḡá* instead of *ḡá*, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but oftener merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb "to be" in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded

as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of *buaiteap mé*, I am struck, we can say *tá mé buaite*: for *do buaileadh mé*, I was struck, *do bí mé buaite*, &c.

(2.) *Ir, it is.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Ir, it is: as *ir mé*, it is I; *ir tú*, it is thou.

Past Tense.

ba or *buo*, it was; as *ba mé*, it was I.

Future Tense.

buo or *bup*, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

baö, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.

2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.

3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.

4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.

5. After *gup*, that, it is often made *ab*, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as *cpeidim gup ab é atá tinn*, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: *meapaim dá péir rin, gup ab dá bhiaḡain agur fice pul puḡaö Abrahám éáinic Papéolón i n-Eirinn*, "I think, according to that

that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often *gup* *ab* is shortened by omitting the *a*; as *ceibim gup 'bé*, &c.; and sometimes the *b* is joined to *gup*, as *ceibim gupb é*, &c.

7. After *má*, if, the *i* is omitted, as *má'r píop é*, if it be true; and in this case the *r* is often joined to the *má*; as *má'r píop é*: *má'r maic leat a beic buan, caic puap agup teic*, "if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes *ba* or *ba* is shortened to *b* or *b* alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as *laoch d'ár b'ainm Lir*, or *laoch d'arb ainm Lir*, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, *laoch do a po ba ainm Lir*, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, *pá*, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: *pá tréanpéar an Ceat ro*, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" *ir í (banba) pa bean do Mhac Coill, d'ar b'ainm dílior Eathúr*, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" *ór é an rcoitbéapla pá teanga coitcéann ran Scitia an trác do ériall Neimeadh airde*, "since it is the Scotie language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. For the distinction between *ta* and *ir*, see Idioms.

* For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," p. 161.

(3.) bheirim, *I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ταῖραμασιρ.
2. ταῖαιρ.	2. ταῖραιθ.
3. ταῖραιθ ρέ.	3. ταῖραιθασιρ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present :</i>	beirim, ταῖραιμ, or τυγαίμ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers
<i>Consuet. Pres. :</i>	beireann.	
<i>Past :</i>	tygar.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	beirinn, tygainn.	
<i>Future :</i>	béarrafad, ταῖραρραδ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béarrafaimn, ταῖραρραίμν.	

INFINITIVE ; do ταῖαιρτ. PARTICIPLE ; ag ταῖαιρτ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE ; beirítear, ταῖαιρτέαρ, τυγτέαρ, μέ, εὔ, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	beirítear, τυγτέαρ.	} μέ, εὔ, é, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	tygaθ.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	beiríteθe, τυγτέαιθe.	
<i>Future :</i>	béarrafar, ταῖραρραρ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béarrafaiθe, ταῖραρραιθe.	

INFINITIVE ; do beiré ταῖαιρτέα, do beiré τυγτέα.

PARTICIPLE ; ταῖαιρτέα, τυγτέα.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, *beipim* (but not the other two verbs) takes the particle *do* (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated.

(4.) *beipim, I bear.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. <i>beipimsr.</i>
2. <i>beip.</i>	2. <i>beipsð.</i>
3. <i>beipeað þé.</i>	3. <i>beipidsr.</i>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present:</i>	<i>beipim.</i>	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet. Present:</i>	<i>beipeann.</i>	
<i>Past:</i>	<i>puðar.</i>	
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	<i>ðeipinn.</i>	
<i>Future:</i>	<i>béarþað.</i>	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	<i>béarþainn.</i>	

INFINITIVE; *do þreist.* PARTICIPLE; *að þreist.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; *beiptear mé, tú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	beipíteap.	} mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	puḡað.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	beipí.	
<i>Future :</i>	béappap.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	béappaiðe.	

INFINITIVE; do beic beipíte. PARTICIPLE; beipíte.

(5.) Óim, *I see.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. peicimír, peicimíð.
2. peic.	2. peicið.
3. peiceað ré.	3. peiciðír.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. óðim, óim, peicim.	1. óðimíð, óimíð, peicimíð
2. óðir, óir, peicir.	2. óðí, óí, peicí.
3. óðið ré, óir ré, peicið ré.	3. óðib, óib, peicib.

Consuet. Pres.; óðeann, peiceann, mé, tú, ré, &c.

Past.

1. ónnapcar.	1. óncamar.
2. ónnapcar.	2. óncabap.
3. ónnapcar ré.	3. óncabap.

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	óðinn or óinn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	óðreab or ófreab.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	óðrinn, or ófirinn, or peicrinn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; ð'peicir or ð'peicirnt.

PARTICIPLE; að peicir or að peicirnt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; ꝑeicȝear, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> :	óíðȝear or ꝑeicȝear.	} mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	connapcað.	
<i>Past. Consuet.</i> :	óíðȝí or ꝑeicȝí.	
<i>Future</i> :	óíðȝear or ꝑeicȝear.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	óíðȝiðe or ꝑeicȝiðe.	}

INFINITIVE MOOD; ðo þeicȝ ꝑeicȝe. PARTICIPLE; ꝑeicȝe

1. Óíðim is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by ꝑeicim or ꝑaicim, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—connapcaim.

2. ꝑeicim or ꝑaicim, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of óíðim, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of óíðim is *always* aspirated.

(6.) Cluimim. *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. éualap.	1. éualamap.
2. éualapȝ.	2. éualaðap.
3. éualaið ré.	3. éualaðapȝ.

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; ðo élop or ðo éloiptim.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE; aȝ élop or aȝ éloiptim.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluimim is regular, and is conjugated like buail.

(7.) *δέαναμι, I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------------|
| 1. . . . | 1. δέανάμι, δέανάμασι, |
| | δέανάμασιδ. |
| 2. δέαν. | 2. δέαναιδ. |
| 3. δέαναδ ῥέ. | 3. δέαναιδῖρ. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. ῥιῖνεαρ, δέαρναρ, δέα-
ναρ. | 1. ῥιῖνεαμαρ, δέαρναμαρ,
δέανάμαρ. |
| 2. ῥιῖνοιρ, δέαρναιρ, δέα-
ναιρ. | 2. ῥιῖνεαδαρ, δέαρναδαρ,
δέανάδαρ. |
| 3. ῥιῖνε ῥέ, δέαρναδ ῥέ,
δέαν ῥέ. | 3. ῥιῖνεαδαρ, δέαρναδαρ,
δέανάδαρ. |

First Person Singular.

Present : δέαναμι.*Consuet. Pres. :* δέανανν.*Consuet. Past :* ῖνιῖδινν, δέαρναινν, δέα-
ναινν.*Future :* δέανῥαδ.CONDITIONAL δέανῥαινν.
MOOD :

With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers.

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *δο δέανάμι* or *δο δέαναδ*.PARTICIPLE ; *αῖ δέανάμι* or *αῖ δέαναδ*.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; *δέανταρ μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present : δέανταρ.*Past :* ῥιῖνεαδ, δέαρναδ.*Consuet. Past :* ῖνιῖεί.*Future :* δέανῥαρ.CONDITIONAL δέανῥαιδε.
MOOD :

μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *δο βεῖτ δέαντα*. PARTICIPLE ; *δέαντα*.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(8.) *Ḑnīm* or *nīm*, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present : *ḑnīm* or *nīm*.*Past :* *ḑnīðear* or *nīðear*.*Consuet. Past :* *ḑnīðinn* or *nīðinn*.

} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present : *ḑnīðear* or *nīðear*.*Consuet. Past :* *ḑnīðí* or *nīðí*.} *mé, tú, é, &c.*

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses ; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the *ḑ* (*ḑnīm* and *nīm*). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of *béanam*.

(9.) *ðeirum*, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1. . . .

1. *abram*, *abramaoir*, *abramaoib*.2. *abair*.2. *abraið*.3. *abrað ré*:3. *abraðaoir*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*1. *ðeirum*:1. *ðeirumf*.2. *ðeirir*.2. *ðeiréið*3. *ðeir ré*.3. *ðeirið*.*Consuet. Pres.* *ðeirpeann mé, tú, ré, &c.*

Past.

1. *duḅrap.*
2. *duḅrair.*
3. *duḅairt ré.*

1. *duḅramar.*
2. *duḅraḅar.*
3. *duḅraḅar.*

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past : *deirinn.*
Future : *déarraf.*

CONDITIONAL *déarrafinn.*
 MOOD :

} With the usual
 terminations for
 the other persons
 and numbers.

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *do ráð.* PARTICIPLE ; *aḡ ráð.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; *abarṭar mé, tú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present : *deirṭear.*

Past : *duḅrað.*

Consuet Past : *deirṭí.*

Future : *déarraf.*

CONDITIONAL *déarrafaiḁe.*
 MOOD :

} *mé, tú, é, &c.*

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *do beir ráiḁte, do beir ráite.*

PARTICIPLE ; *ráiḁte, ráite.*

1. The verb *abrain*, I say, from which *deirim* borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of *duḅrap*, the past indicative active :—(a) it does not take the participle *do* or *po* ; (b) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter *a* is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis ; as *a deirim* for *deirim*, I say ; *a duḅairt ré* for *duḅairt ré*, he said.

(10.) Բաճալմ or ձեւիմ, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------|
| 1. . . . | 1. Բաճալմ, Բաճալմ. |
| 2. Բաճ. | 2. Բաճալ. |
| 3. Բաճա՛, Բե. | 3. Բաճալիք. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Բաճալմ or ձեւիմ. | 1. Բաճալմ or ձեւիմ. |
| 2. Բաճալ or ձեւիլ. | 2. Բաճալ or ձեւիլ. |
| 3. Բաճալ Բե, or ձեւի Բե. | 3. Բաճալ or ձեւի. |

Past.

- | | |
|--------------|-----------|
| 1. Բաճալ. | 1. Բաճալ. |
| 2. Բաճալ. | 2. Բաճալ. |
| 3. Բաճալ Բե. | 3. Բաճալ. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	Բաճալմ or ձեւիմ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	ձեւած, ձեւած.	
<i>Future neg. & interrog.</i>	ձեւած or Բաճալ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ձեւալմ, ձեւալմ. or Բաճալմ, Բաճալմ.	

INFINITIVE; Բաճալ. PARTICIPLE; Բաճալ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; Բաճալ մե, Բե, Բե, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	Բաճալ.	} Մե, Բե, Բե, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	Բաճալ or Բաճալ.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	ձեւիլ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ձեւալմ, Բաճալմ.	

(Defective in Infinitive and Participle.)

1. The second form of this verb (ḡeibim) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (puapap, &c.) may or may not take the particle do or po; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) lčim, *I eat.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

<i>Future Indicative :</i>	ioṛpað.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ioṛpaṁn.	

1. The past indicative is either the regular form ḡ'ičeap, &c., or the irregular buap (with the usual terminations:—buap, buaioḡ pé, &c.)

2. The infinitive is ḡ'iče.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) Riḡim, *I reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. riḡmíṛ.
2. riḡ.	2. riḡíð.
3. riḡeaḡ pé.	3. riḡíḡíṛ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. riḡim	1. riḡmíð.
2. riḡip	2. riḡéí.
3. riḡ pé.	3. riḡíð.

Past.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|
| 1. րանգար. | 1. րանգամար. |
| 2. րանգար. | 2. րանգաձար. |
| 3. րանուց րէ, րանաւց րէ. | 3. րանգաձար. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet Past :</i>	րոցոռն.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	րոցբեաձ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	րոցբոռն.	

INFINITIVE ; իմ րիաձեայն or իմ րոձեայն.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows :— but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

<i>Past :</i>	րիաձեար.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	րիաձեբաձ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	րիաձեայն.	

(13.) Շննմ, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. շննմիք.
2. շնն.	2. շննիձ.
3. շննեաձ րէ.	3. շննիձիք.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. շննմ.	1. շննմիձ.
2. շննիք.	2. շննիձիք or շննիձ
3. շնն րէ.	3. շննիձ.

Past Tense.

1. éuaðap.
2. éuaðaiṛ.
3. éuaið ré.

1. éuaðmap.
2. éuaðbap.
3. éuaððap.

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles *ḡo*, *ní*, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative *ní*, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after *ḡo*, the initial would be eclipsed.

1. ní ðeaðap
2. ní ðeaðaiṛ.
3. ní ðeaðaið ré.

1. ní ðeaðamap.
2. ní ðeaðabap.
3. ní ðeaðaðap.

First Person Singular.

Consuet Past :

éíðinn.

Future :

paðfab or paðab.

CONDITIONAL
MOOD :

paðfainn or paðainn.

} With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers.

INFINITIVE ; *do ðul.*

PARTICIPLE ; *aḡ ðul.*

(14.) *tiḡim, I come.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1. . . .
2. tap or tiḡ.
3. tiḡeab ré.

Plural.

1. tiḡimṛ or tiḡeam.
2. tiḡið.
3. tiḡiðṛ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. tiḡim.
2. tiḡiṛ.
3. tiḡ ré

1. tiḡimfo.
2. tiḡið, tiḡéð
3. tiḡio.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. éánḡar. | 1. éánḡamar. |
| 2. éánḡair. | 2. éánḡab̃ar. |
| 3. éámic pé. | 3. éánḡab̃ar. |

First Person Singular

<i>Consuet Past</i>	éiginn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	éiocfab̃.	
<i>CONDITIONAL MOOD:</i>	éiocfainn	

INFINITIVE; do éead̃t. PARTICIPLE; aḡ ead̃t.

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language.

Air or ap, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth*; as, air pé, says he: cpeub̃ do ḡéunfair̃ dam? ap Diarmaid̃: "'What wilt thou do for me?' says Diarmaid̃;" déaneólur̃ dúinn map a b̃-puil pé, air riab̃, "'give knowledge to us where he is,' said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written ol.

At bãt, he (or she) died.

Ḍap, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). Ḍap liom, methinks or methought; Ḍap leat̃ it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: Ḍo pĩt pé, Ḍap liom, map an ḡaiõt̃, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

Olḡt̃eap, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Dup, to know; éainic ré dup an paibíadann, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Peadaip, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: ní peadaip mé, I do not know; ní peadaip ré, he does not know; an b-peadaipáip? do ye know?

Ní puláip, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); ní puláip dam a beicé aip riubál, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounds of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle *go*, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as bopb, fierce; *go* bopb, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipsis.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

A b-pad, far off, in space or time.

A bup, on this side. (See call.)

A b-topac, at first, in the beginning.

A b-tuaid, northwards.

A g-céadóip, immediately.

- A ḡ-céin, far off.
 A ḡ-corinnuīde, always.
 A ḡ rin, there.
 A ḡ ro, here.
 A ḡ rúð, yonder.
 Aip aip, back, backward. —
 (See aip éigin.)
 Aip ball, on the spot, instantly.
 Aip biē, at all.
 Aip bun, on foundation:
 óup aip bun, to found,
 to institute.
 Aip ceana, in like manner;
 in general.
 Aip coirōce, for ever.
 Aip éigin, with difficulty;
 perforce:—aip aip no aip
 éigin, by consent or by
 force: *nolens volens; willy*
nilly.
 Aip ḡ-cúl, backwards, back:
 óup aip ḡ-cúl—the op-
 posite to óup aip bun—to
 put back, to abolish.
 Aip leiē, apart, separately.
 Aip móð, in a manner; so
 that:
 Aip pon, for the sake of.
 Aip uairið, at times; some-
 times.
 Amað, out of, outside.
 Amáin, alone, only.
 Amápað, to-morrow.
 Amuiḡ, outside.
 Amuul, like, as.
 An áipde, on high.
 Ané, yesterday.
 Anfor, from below, upwards.
 Ann éinḡeaðe, together.
 Ann rin, there.
 Ann ro, here:
 Ann rúð, yonder.
 A ndear, southward.
 Anace, near.
 Anall, to this side; hither.
 A ngap, near.
 Aniu, to-day.
 Anoip, now.
 Anonn, to that side; thither.
 An tan, when.
 Anuap, from above, down-
 wards.
 Aréip, last night.
 Ariam, ever.
 Aríp, again.
 Arteað, in, into.
 Aruiḡ, in, inside.
 beaḡ nað, little but; almost.
 Cá h-ap, cað ap, canap,
 from what? whence?
 Cá méið, how many? how
 much?
 Cáit, cá h-áit, cia áit,
 what place?
 De bpiḡ, because.
 Do ḡfor, always.
 Eaðon, that is; *i.e.; id est.*
 Fá, gives an adverbial mean-
 ing to some words.
 Fá óeaðóip, immediately.
 Fá ðeoiḡ, at last.
 Fá ðó, twice.
 Fá ḡeað, by turns; respec-
 tively.
 Pa épí, thrice.
 ḡo bpaé, for ever (lit. to
 [the] judgment).
 ḡo ðeimín, verily; truly;
 indeed.
 ḡo ð-eí, unto. *pu 1849*
 — ḡo fóil, yet; awhile.
 ḡo h-iomlán, altogether.
 ḡo léip, entirely.
 ḡo leóp, enough.
 — lomoppo, however, more-
 over, indeed.
 Maille pe, together with.
 Map an ḡ-ceaðna, likewise;
 in like manner.

Map aon le, together with.
 No go, until.
 O pón ale, from that time
 out.
 Op cionn, above.
 Sfor, downwards.
 Soip, eastwards.

Suap, upwards.
 Thall, on the other side; be-
 yond. (See Abup.)
 Tamall, awhile.
 Tuille eile, besides; more-
 over.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple preposi-
 tions:—

A or i, in; as a mbaile, in
 the town.
 A, out of, or from (unusual);
 as a Mumain, out of
 Munster.
 Ag or aig, at, with.
 Aip, ap, upon.
 Ann, in. This takes p before
 the article. (See page 17.)
 Ap, out of.
 Chum, to or towards, for the
 purpose of.
 Dap, used in swearing, equi-
 valent to *by*: dap mo bria-
 cap, “by my word.”
 Do, to. De, from, off, of.
 Eadap, the same as idip.
 Pa or paoi, under.
 Jan, without.
 Jo, towards, along with. It
 takes p before the article
 an; as gur an d-tig, to the
 house.

l, the same as a.
 lap, after. It takes p before
 the article (an), and be-
 comes iapp.
 Iip, between.
 Im, the same as um.
 Le or pe, with. It takes p
 before the article (an), and
 then becomes leip or pip.
 Map, like, as.
 O, from.
 Op, over, above.
 Re, na, before. It takes p
 before the article (an).
 Seac, beyond, besides.
 Tap, over, across. It takes
 p before the article (an),
 and then becomes tapp.
 Tpe, through. It takes p
 before the article, and then
 becomes tper.
 Tpid, the same as tpe.
 Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalga-
 mated with the personal and possessive pronouns,
 for which see pages 41, 45.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in
 Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each
 of these consists of a simple preposition followed
 by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the
 noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple

preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

A b-riaðnaíre, in presence of.

A b-roðair, with, along with.

A b-taobh, in regard to, concerning.

A b-timcheall: see timcheall,

A g-ceann, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

A g-coinne, against, for (in the phrase to go *for*): níciò a g-coinne a céile, "they run against each other:" do éuaib re a g-coinne a aítar, he went for his father.

A g-coir, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to coir: coir na bpríðbe, "beside the (river) Bride."

A h-aiclé, after: a h-aiclé na laoiðe rin, "after that lay."

Ameapg, amongst: pfor amearg na g-coillteað, "down amongst the woods."

A látair, in presence of.

Air aghaib, forward, over against, opposite: dul air aghaib, to go forward, to progress: air aghaib na gaoite, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Air béalaib, in front of, opposite: do luighoir do ghnáé a n-iomhaib ap béalaib a n-aítar, "they used to lie customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir).

Air bun, on foundation.

Air céann, for (in the phrase to go *for*); as a duháire Naire le h-Ardán dul air cénn Ferguip, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus."

Air feað, through, throughout, during: air feað bliaðna, "during a year."

Air fuð, throughout, amongst air fuð na b-conn, amongst the waves.

Air g-cúl, behind.

Air fon, for the sake of, although.

A n-diaib, after: a n-diaib a céile, after one another, one after another.

Coir, contracted from a g-coir.

Dála, as to: dála blánaibe, "as to Blanaid."

D'éir, after: d'éir na bflunne, "after the deluge."

D'ionnraighib or d'ionnraige, towards: gluaireap nóime d'ionnraige a luinge, "he goes forward towards his ship."

Do cum, towards.

Do péir, according to.

Do nuige, unto, until.

Do d-tí, to, unto, as far as: ruibail go d-tí an dorup,
walk to the door.

Iomtúra, as to: iomtúra Fhinn, "as to Finn."

Pá éuairim, towards.

Lám le or lám pe, near, by, beside: suið lám liom, sit
near me; lám pe beannaib boirce, "beside Beanna
Boirche."

Or cionn, over, above: Dhaðuið Dia ór cionn gaó uile
nið, "love God above all things:" po éirið or cionn an
gaoi, "he rose over the spear."

I g-cionn, the same as a g-ceann: i g-cionn na bliadhna,
"at the end of the year."

Tap ceann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

Tap air, backwards; same as air air.

Tap éir, after; the same as déir: tap éir na Samhna,
"after the Samhain (1st of November)."

Timceall, about, around: teaótt timceall Dhiarmada,
"to go around Dermot."

Or comair, in presence of, before the face of: ór comair
Fhinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctive phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious.

Αἶτ, but, except.

Αἶτ ἔεα, but however.

Αἶ, and ; often contracted to αἶ, αἶ, and ἶ.

Αἶ, an αἶδαν ἦν, wherefore.

Αἶ, an interrogative particle: an ἔ-φυλ ἦ ἡ ἡλάν? Is she well?

Αἶ, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See. p. 58.

βίῳ, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb τῶν.

βίῳ: see βίῳ.

βίῳ, as.

βίῳ, if: sometimes written βίῳ.

βίῳ ἔπει, because.

βίῳ ἔπει, in order that.

βίῳ, yet, moreover.

βίῳ or βίῳ, although.

βίῳ, that.

βίῳ αἶ, wherefore.

βίῳ, that: formed of the preceding and βίῳ: see p. 58.

βίῳ, βίῳ: see βίῳ.

βίῳ βίῳ, in order that, so that.

βίῳ, if.

βίῳ βίῳ, although that.

βίῳ, as: see βίῳ.

βίῳ, if not, unless; often written βίῳ, and even (corruptly) βίῳ.

βίῳ, if so, well then.

βίῳ ἦν, βίῳ ἦν, in that manner, in this manner: thus.

βίῳ, than: see βίῳ.

βίῳ, nor, not.

βίῳ, or: often pronounced βίῳ in Munster.

βίῳ, since, seeing that, because.

βίῳ βίῳ, since, whereas.

βίῳ, because.

βίῳ, before.

βίῳ ἦν, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

Α, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O. — Μονά, O shame!

Α, usually translated O. — Μονά, alas! woe is me!

Α, alas! what pity! — Μονά: see α, α.

Ε, hush! list!

Ο, alas!

— Παρά, alas!

Ο, or ο, alas! written

Παρά, alas! O

ο or ο in old writings.

sharp sorrow!

Ρέ, see! behold!

Μα, woe! O sad!

— Ο, alas!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule *caol le caol* &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words.

Ar or *er*, back or again, like English *re*: as *íoc*, payment; *aríoc*, repayment, restitution: *eríge*, rising; *eríeríge* resurrection.

Am or *aím*, a negative particle, like English *un*: as *néið*, open, clear; *aímpeíð*, difficult, rough.

An, an intensitive particle: as *luačgáípeac*, joyful; as *anluačgáípeac*, overjoyed.

An or *am*, a negative particle, like English *un*: as *tráct* time; *antráct*, untimely: *mían*, desire; *anmían*, evil desire.

Uc, a reiterative, like English *re*: as *ráð*, a saying; *ačráð*, a repetition.

Uc has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as *cuma*, a form; *ačcumað*, to deform, to destroy; *pioğað*, to crown or elect a king; *ačpioğað*, to dethrone.

ban, feminine (from *bean*, a woman); as *eačlaç*, a messenger; *ban-eačlaç* or *bam-eačlaç*, a female messenger.

biç or *bioç*, lasting, constant: as *beó*, living; *biçbeó*, everlasting.

Córn, equal : English *co* or *con* : as aimpean, time ; córn-aimpeanaí, contemporary.

Deaḡ, deirḡ, good : as blap, taste ; deaḡblap, good or pleasant taste.

Óí, ófo, a negative, like English *dis* : as céillíde, wise ; óí-céillíde, foolish : ceann, a head ; óíceannaí, to behead.

Óroí, óroí, bad or evil : as obair, a work ; óroí-obair an evil work.

Do and po are opposites, as are also often the letters d and p. D denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality : as páireanaí or pópáireanaí, visible ; dópáireanaí, invisible : dolár, tribulation ; rólár, comfort : donar, ill luck ; ponar, good luck : do-déunta, hard to be done ; po-déunta, easy to be done : duíad. sad ; ruíad, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis : as daingean, strong ; éadaingean, weak : cóir, just ; éagcóir, injustice : epom, heavy ; éadepom, light.

Eap, a negative : as onóir, honour ; eaponoí, dishonour : plán, healthful ; eaplán, sick : cairdear, friendship ; eap-cairdear, enmity.

Po, under : as duine, a man ; poíduine, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Prií, against, back, *contra* : as buille, a stroke ; priídbuille, a back stroke : bac, a hook ; priídbac, a *back-hook*, a barb.

Il, iol, many : as iomaí, much ; ilíomaí, sundry, various : daí, a colour ; ioldaíad, many coloured : paíbar, an edge ; iolpaíbar, many-edged weapons.

In, ion, fit : as déunta, done ; indéunta, fit to be done : paíde, said ; ionpaíde, fit to be said.

Lán, full, used as an intensitive : as aídébél, vast ; lánaidébél, awfully vast.

Leat, half : as uair, an hour ; leatuar, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair : thus rúil, an eye ; leat-rúil (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, mí, a negative : as meap, respect ; mímeap, disrespect : córnáile, advice ; mícórnáile, evil advice.

Nearn, neirn, a negative : as coimriḡte, comprehensible ; nearncoimriḡte, incomprehensible : ní, a thing ; neirnní, nothing.

Reurn, before, like English *pre* : as paíde, said ; neurnpaíde, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensitive particle : as mór, great ; ró-mór, very great.

Sáp, an intensitive particle: as maĩt, good; ráp-maĩt, very good.

So, poi, the opposite to ðo, denotes apt, easy, good: as ðeapb̃ēa, proved; poiðeapb̃ēa, easily proved.

Up or úp, an intensitive particle: as ípeal, low; úpípeal, very low, humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations.

Ác, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as ðpaiḡean, the black-thorn; ðpaiḡeanać, abounding in black-thorn: bpiatap, a word; bpiatēpać, wordy, talkative.

Ác, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as cúmaćb, power: cúmaćbāć, a mighty person: Connaćētać, a native of Connaught.

Ácē, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probability*): as capēānać, charitable; capēānaćē, charity: mór and mórba, great; mórbaćē, greatness.

Aiḡe, uiḡe, or iḡe, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as cop, a foot; coiuiḡe, a walker: tiomán, drive; tiomán-aiḡe, a driver.

Aipe or ipe, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as loḡ, a track; loḡaipe, a tracker: cealḡ, guile; cealḡaipe, a deceiver.

Amal has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly*: as plaĩt, a prince; plaĩteamal, princely.

An, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense; as loć a lake; loćán, a small lake.

Ap or eap, and sometimes the letter p alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like aćē; as aoiḡinn, delightful;

* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

aoibnear, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; ceannar, headship, authority.

bhap and bpe have a collective or cumulative sense; as buille, a leaf; builleabap, foliage: dair, an oak; dairbpe, a place of oaks.

Chap has a collective sense like the last; as beann, a peak or gable; beanncap, abounding in peaks or gables.

Oe, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in manly). In the modern language it is varied to the forms oa, òa, and ea; as mór, great; móròa, majestic: fear, a man; fearòa, manly: míle, a champion; míleaoea, champion-like, knightly.

E denotes abstract quality, like aot; as pinn, fair or white; pinne, fairness: bog, soft; buige, softness.

In, a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. bótar, a road; bótaipín (*bohcreen*), a little road: *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Laó, naó, paó, taó, traó, have all the same meaning as aó, namely, full of, abounding in; as bpi, break; bpipeaó, a breach, a complete defeat: muc, a pig; muclaó, a piggery: luaaip, rushes; luaaipnaó, a rushy place: bog, a bog or soft place; bogpaó, a place full of bogs: coill, a wood; coillteaó, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

Mhap means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as bpió, power; bpióghap, powerful.

Og, a diminutive termination; as cía, black; cíarog, a black little animal (a clock): gaíal, a fork; gaíalóg, a little fork.

Oip, or óip, or eóip, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as buail, strike; buailteóip, a thresher: conneal, a candle; conneleóip, a candlestick: rpeal, a scythe; rpealaoóip, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like bap; as beul, the mouth; béipe, language, speech.

Seac is used as a sort of feminine termination; as gall, an Englishman; gaillpeaó, an Englishwoman: ónpeaó, a female fool (from an old root ón, whence the old word ón-mic, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amabán).

Taó and traó: see laó.

PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as *guc̃ gaḁap*, the voice of a hound; *ḁ-plaiciop Epeann*, “in the sovereignty of Erin;” *bápp na h-inpe*, the top of the island.

The noun in the genitive always follows the noun that governs it.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as *mac an p̃ip*, the son of the man. (See pages 17, 18, for this rule and its exceptions).

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as *Conall ḁ-cpoḁaib̃ báip*, “Conall in the forms of death;” *a n-bólár bpóide a’p péine*, “in the sorrow of bondage and of pain.”

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as *plioct Ḡhaoibí*, "the race of Gaodhal;" *cloibeam Mhanannam*, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, *ð* and *τ* often resist aspiration (p. 34); as *Eipe inġean Dealbaoiċ*, "Eiré, the daughter of Dealbhaoth."

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article, (for which see page 18); and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as *Oamgen mac n-Uirneac*, "the fortress of [*the*] sons of Usna;" *buċean ċupað*, "a company of knights;" *biap ban*, "two women" (or rather "a pair of women").

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipse sometimes occurs; as *naoi naonbap ðo bí aġ teaċt ð'iappaið ċíopa aġur cána b-peap n-Eipionn*, "nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes of the men of Erin."

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as *Nuaċa Āipġioblám mac Ċaċtaġ mic Ċabaplam*, "Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;" *na ð-τρί b-Ĥinneamna, mac Ċoċaið*, "of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad."

Here, in the first example, *Nuaċa* is nominative, and so is *mac*, which is in apposition to it; *Ċaċtaġ* is genitive, and so is the next word, *mic*, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, *Ĥinneamna* is in the genitive (plural), and *mac* also, in opposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

For exceptions to this Rule, see "Idioms," No. 33, p. 129. See also next rule.

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as, *Ĥánniðe buiðe ðpċa map*

bídeadh ar Mháire, bean Sheagáin an pígeadhóra, “yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of John (the son of) the weaver;” táinig riú Chialpuidhe luachra d’fíor a cómhálta, eadhon, Cian mac Oilholla, “the King of Kerry-Luachra came to visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of Oilíoll: do éiríall (Oícar) a g-coinne Mheargaidh míre, an tréan leomán “Oscar went to meet the furious Meargach, *the strong lion*.”

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between Mháire and bean, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after ar), the latter nominative (its dative would be mnaoi, p. 29). In the second example cómhálta is genitive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, p. 112), and Cian, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be Céim). In the last example Mheargaidh is genitive, and leomán, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7 which are explained further on (“Idioms:” No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as English, “a gold ring,” Irish, páinne óir, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as fear dlíge, a lawyer; literally “a man of law.”

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as such they take the singular form of the article (when the article is used); but they are plural in signification, and as such they generally take adjectives and pronouns in the plural number, and also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50, the plural form of the verb is used; as, nochtuid an cúipeann rin, “that company disclose;” canaodar an buídean cúpað rin do láear Phinn, agus do beannuidh riad do, “that *company* of knights *came* to the presence of Finn, and *they* saluted him.”

The personal nouns from diar to deicéneabap, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as do badap an diar rin go h-impearnaic, “that pair were at strife.”

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take *de* with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as *ḡaḏap d'ár nḡaḏapairb*, "a hound of our hounds;" *aon éaop uioḃ*, "one berry of them;" *ḡač buine de'n pobul*, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from *diap* to *deiḡneabap* inclusive (p. 39,) and also *teḡpa*, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as *diap ban*, "two (of) women;" *a ériúr mac aḡur a d-ḡriur ban*, "his three sons and their three wives;" *teḡpa ban*, "three women;" *naonḃap ḡaioḡeac*, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take *de* with the dative as in last rule; as *naoi naonḃap do maopairb na ḃ-ḡómaḡac*, "nine times nine of the stewards of the Fomorians;" *mo ḃir mac, mo ḃir d'ḡeapairb*, "my two sons, my two men."

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as *an ḡeap*, the man; *na cípe*, of the hen; *na ba*, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see p. 17.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, *aor an doimain*, not, *an aor an doimain*.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as *an t-oide múnte*, the teacher; *má do ḡeip tú an oḡeab ḡin búinn 'ran ló ro na n-deḡp*, "if thou givest

so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both *l6* and *de6p*. *Tangabap apir i n-Eipinn an rlio6t po Shimeon 6hpic*, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before *rlio6t*, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is *ceac m'acap*, not *an ceac m'acap*.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, i.e., the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as *the world's age*; *my father's house*.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as *an peap rin*, that man, literally "the man that;" *na mn6 u6*, yonder women: literally "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as *Moenan*, *abb Ca6pac Pappa ipin Ppaine*, *6eug*, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" *Cpuaca na h-Eipeann*, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" *cuairceap na h-Asia*, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as *an t-Orcap 6g*, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *ip* (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as *ip maic an peap 6*, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

9. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as *an t-ocup*, the hunger; *api nu6 do 6im*:—*an peaca6*, *an bap*, *a'r an pian*, "three things I see, *the* sin, *the* death, and *the* pain."

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after *de* or the genitive; as (dative after *de*):—*ἰὼν ὁά βαρεῖν* *lán de leann*, “between two barrels full of ale;” *τά μέ λάν ὁο náipe*, “I am full of shame;” *μόρᾱν δ’αἰρεῖν*, “many of nobles:” (genitive):—*lán α δούρη*, “the full of his fist;” *αὐτοῦ μόνον* *αἰρεῖν*, “had he much of money?” *εἰς αὐτὸν ἀκὴν αὐτοῦ* *lán áinead uippe*, “a branch of blackthorn and its full of sloes on it.”

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes *νά* (or *μά* or *ιονά*) before the noun which follows it; as *ἡ ὁδοῦ α τοῦ λον ῥηδῆ ῥηδῆ*, “sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush.”

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has *de* (“of it”) after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then *νά* is not used; as *ναὸν ὁο περὶ τοῦ ὁοῦ ἑ*, “that they would be none the better of it.”

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE
ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE: When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun.

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a qualifying or limiting term (as in the English “a high tower”), in this case the following **ten** rules apply.

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as *κατὰ μέγαν*, “a great fleet.”

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as *caol-peap*, "slender man;" *mór páirpge*, "great sea;" *duib-cappaig*, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: *deag*, good; *droch*, evil; *féar*, true; *nuad*, new; *pean*, old; *tuath*, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as *Sliaib aóbal-mór luachra*, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" *Eamhuin mhin áluinn Macha*, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as *peap maic*, a good man; *réul na mná móipe*, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); *ar an aóbbéir iongancaig*, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 10; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as *bean aor peap maic*, a good woman and man; *peap aor bean maic*, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i.e., it is not influenced by the noun,

either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as *mór uaple*, "great nobles;" *do mór uaplib*, "to [the] great nobles;" *bán énoic Éipeann*, "the fair hills of Erin;" *luat bára*, swift barks; *ríor rgeul*, "a true story;" *ríor rgeulta*, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 10): also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the rule caol le caol &c.; as *Deirbhre an Duib-pleibe*, "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" *óig-bean*, a young woman.

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, i.e., one noun; as *gáire na n-óig-íear*, "the laughter of the young men;" *an t-árbo-ollamh rín*, "that chief professor;" *an t-pean-bean bocht*, "the poor old woman."

SECOND CASE: When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb.

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, "the man is tall," "he considered the man tall," "he made the knife sharp," "the roads were made straight"), in this case, the following **three** rules apply.

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *tá*, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as *tá an lá breá*, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

by the verb *ip*, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as *ip bpeág an lá é*, it is a fine day.

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, i.e., the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word), as *ip aibinn do cuain acap do calapuir acap do mağa minpcot-aca caemáilne*, “delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:” *agur cpoicne péiteað ap na n-bačúğað beapğ*, “and rams’ skins dyed red.”—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 101, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective *aibinn* (modern *aoibinn*) which is asserted of them by *ip*, is in its simple form (the plural would be *aibinne* or *aibne*). In the second example *cpoicne* is plural, while *beapğ* is singular (plural *beapğa*).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—*Do piğne ré na bpaic ġlapa*; *do piğne ré na bpaic ġlap*: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, “he made the mantles green.”

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as τρι̃ς̃ ρι̃ς̃, three men; ραν̃ δαπα̃ h-άιτ̃, "in the second place."

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and δέα̃ς̃; as τρι̃ς̃ καπα̃λλ̃ δέα̃ς̃, thirteen horses; αν̃ τρεα̃ρ̃ ε̃καπα̃λλ̃ δέα̃ς̃, the thirteenth horse.

3. Ἄν̃, one; δύο̃, two; ε̃κείν̃, first; and τρεα̃ρ̃, third, cause aspiration; as αν̃ ρεα̃ρ̃, one man; δύο̃ ρι̃νναοι̃, two women; αν̃ τρεα̃ρ̃ ρεα̃ς̃, "the third occasion."

4. The numerals ρεα̃ς̃, ο̃ς̃, ναοι̃, and δει̃ς̃, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with ρ, in which case there is no change), as ρεα̃ς̃ m-βλια̃ς̃-να̃, "seven years;" ο̃ς̃ m-βα̃, "eight cows;" ναοι̃ n-αι̃βνε̃, "nine rivers;" δει̃ς̃ ὅ-ρι̃ς̃, "ten men."

5. The numerals τρι̃ς̃, τε̃τρε̃, κύ̃ρι̃ς̃, ρέ̃, the ordinals (except ε̃κείν̃ and τρεα̃ρ̃: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as τε̃τρε̃ ζα̃ο̃αρ̃, "four hounds."

6. Ἄν̃, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as αν̃ λ̃ά̃, one day; ε̃καδ̃ ceanñ, a hundred heads (lit. "a hundred head," just as we say "a hundred head of cattle"); τρι̃ς̃ καο̃ζα̃δ̃ λαο̃ς̃, "three times fifty heroes;" μι̃λε̃ βεαν̃, "a thousand women."

7. *Ůá*, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as *Ůá p̃eap*, two men; an *Ůá lám̃*, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following *Ůá* be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as *lám̃ a Ůá lám̃*, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although *Ůá* takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take a plural verb; as *Ůo ġluaipeaðap an Ůá ċp̃énñis̃leað p̃in*, "these two strong heroes went;" *po ġaḅ a Ůá p̃leag̃ ċp̃ó-p̃aipp̃inge ċpañn-peam̃pa ap na b̃-počpuġað a b̃-pul̃ načpač neime*, "he took his two wide-socketed thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to *p̃leag̃*, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as *ip maič an Ůean í*, she is a good woman; *ip maič an p̃eap é*, he is a good man; *ip m̃óp na Ůaome iab̃*, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

third person singular masculine; as *úd m-béidír rir Eipeann an bap n-aḡaib, nač bu peippoe óóib é*, “if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of *it*,” (here the pronoun *é* stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with *ir* (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as *már maic na leaḡa ríib, ar éiríon*, “‘if ye are the good physicians,’ says *he*.”

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (mine, thine, hers, &c.), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as *mo máčair*, my mother; *a ḡ-carbad*, their chariot.

3. The possessives *mo*, my; *do*, thy; and *a*, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as *mo čeann*, my head; *do čor*, thy foot; *a meup*, his finger.

4. The possessive *a*, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes *h*; as *a máčair*, her mother; *a h-ačair*, her father.

5. The possessives *ár*, our; *bap*, your; and *a*, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except *r*, on which they exert no influence), and prefix *n* to vowels; as *ár b-tír*, our country; *bap m-ba*, your cows; *a n-ačair*, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompound state; as *dom époiðe*, to my heart; *óna ð-číp*, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 45. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, page 105.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as *an té a íuibálpar*, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as *an laoc a íapð an τ-ατác*, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative *a* signifies "all that" (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as *a ð-íuil ó Ñhaillib buð ðeap*, "all that is from Galway southwards;" *ðo íeíp a n-íuibpamap*, "according to *what* we have said."

4. When the relative *a* is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except *p*) is eclipsed; as *a íe nio ímoppa dá ð-τáinic a íáp* A. 46 (2)
 "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from* B. 180 (84)
which came his death;" *an íoic ina n-íeioíp*,
 "the tent in which they used to eat;" *a íuibapτ*
íonn go n-íiongnac (íe) íio bé nóp a n-íiongnac
íapmaio í, "Finn said that he would make
 (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would
 make it" (here the preposition *ann* is understood.

ḡiō bé nóρ ann a n-ḡionḡnaō ḡiapmaō í, whatever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make it.) (See next rule).

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle po or do, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as áit ap éuit ḡapa ḡeapḡ, “the place in which fell Dara Dearḡ.”

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as an tíρ a ḡpaōuḡim, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as an capa a ḡpaōuḡiō mé, the friend whom I love; an capa a ḡpaōuḡeap mé, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as oḡlaoō ḡa munnctip Nín mic Péil éamuc uaiō ḡo ḡpaē na Eipionn, “a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin.” An leabap po pcpioō (Cambpenrip) ḡo éuapapḡbail Eipionn, “the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin.”

9. The relative a is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with po, the mark of the past tense; as an tíρ óp éámuc me, “the country from which I came” (here óp = ó a po); pláiḡ lép mapbaō noi mīle ḡioō, “a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them” (here lép = le a po); an tíρ ḡá ḡ-éámuc pé, the country to which he came (ḡá = ḡo a); lá ḡap comópaō aonaē le piḡ Eipeann, “a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin” (ḡap = ḡo a po); ní ḡeaḡ liompa ap

í-loinneap péin map eipic, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." (Ap=a po, in which a means "all that:" Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as an peap pin, that man; cia h-é pin? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb *is* in any of its forms is understood; as rúð ðap ð-cuib, "yonder (is) your meal;" ro an lá, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as cia an peap ballaé binnbriacþac úð? "Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá ð-puil mo leabap? where is my book? cia an laoc úð ap ðualainn ðhoill? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, i.e., the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as cað ap tu? out of what (place art) thou? ðo ðe map cá tú? how do you do? (literally "like to what art thou?") cneud pá ap eipðeabap, "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as plán ón uile ðalap, "sound from every sickness;" ðo baðað an cine ðaona uile ðo h-aon ocðap, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as ðponð ainðbriopac ip na h-uile íubáilcib, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage from Keating, uile means "all" though it precedes its noun).

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as *do ġluar Fergur*, "Fergus went;" *do claoideadh Mac Garraidh*, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule.)

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as *an te a ġiubalpar*, the person who will walk; *cpeud atá annpo?* what is here? *Deóraiðte ríopa ġan rġið ġan por míanaið a ð-ćip 'r a n-ðúććap*, "perpetual exiles without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, i.e., when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, p. 111), the usual order is verb, nominative, object; as *do aġel Conćobap bopac*, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" *do líon Ģráníne an copn*, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; as *an laoc a ćonaipe mé ané*, the hero *whom I saw* yesterday; *cad ðeip ćú?* what sayest thou?

5. When the verb *ćá* is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as *ćáið na peulća po-lonnpac*, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb *ip*, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as *ba ĩinne a ġlóp ná ćeól na n-éun*, "*her voice*

was sweeter than the music of the birds :” ní fada uait an áit, “not (is) far from thee the place.”

Exception.—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as *is túra an tír po-dóibinn*, “thou art the delightful country;” *is mé Cían mac Cainte*, “I am Cían, the son of Cainte:” an *tu Fíonn?* “art thou Finn?”

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule.

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as *do gluaib breap agur na dróicte pómpa*, “Breas and the druids went forward.”

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as *buail é*, strike him; *do cúipeadar Tuatha De Danann ceó dróicdeacta i n-a d-timéall féin*, “the Tuatha de Dananns put a magical *mist* around themselves.”

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition *le* or *pe* before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (*leabair eile*) *atá pe b-faicir i n-Eirinn*, “(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin.”

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as *agur do m-bíó ollam pe dénam peille ar a céile*, “and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other.”

98. **12.** The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as *Ἰάκωβος υἱὸς Αἰλῆνος κυρίου Μούρου τοῦ μαρτυροῦ*, "Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain" (lit. "Fiachra, &c., to slay"): *ἀγὺρ ἀνὰ πῆμα καὶ τιμωρᾶτο (ἀνὰ τὸν) τὸν υἱόν, ὃς ἵππον τοῦ βουαίνοντος ἐκεῖνον*, "and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose *to be cut* off from his head."

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as *ὁ δὲ μακρὸς καὶ παλαιὸς κλάνα Μοῖρνε δ' ἰαππαῖο ναυκαὶον τῶν*, "if it were so that the Clann Morna *had not come to seek* those berries."

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words ("Irish Grammar," p. 387.)

99. **14.** "When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed; as *δοῦναι περὶ μου εὐλὸς πορκαῖς*, he told me to go to Cork."

100. **15.** If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as *ταυταῖα καὶ τὰ μὲν πορκαῖς*, "a great fleet came *to make war*" (nom. *πορκαῖς*, war, gen. *πορκαῖς*); *δοῦναι τοῖς παισὶν τοῦ Λῖρ*, "to kill the children of Lir."

16. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, *ἀγὺρ ἵππον τοῦ ἵππου, ὃς ἐκεῖνος τοῦ ἵππου ἰδὲ καὶ τὰ μὲν ἀγὺρ κεῖνον ἀνὰ τὴν γῆν τοῦ ἐκεῖνος τοῦ ἵππου καὶ τὰ καὶ ἐκεῖνος τοῦ ἵππου*, "and it is what he used to do, *two poles to put* in the earth, and *the end* of a thread *to tie* to each pole of them, and *an apple to put* on the top of a pole of them."

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as *aḡ bpuic̃neað an óir*, “smelting the gold” (lit. “smelting of the gold”); *do bí an ḡaoðal ro aḡ múnab rcol*, “this Gaodhal was teaching schools” (lit. “teaching of schools”); *aḡ tocaile na talman*, “digging the ground.”

18. The verb *ir* in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as *ir í céadpað bpoimḡe pe peançur*, “it is the opinion of some historians;” *ir mic rix ḡo řirinneac iab*, “they are truly sons of a king;” *aḡur řiappaḡear an rix cia h-iab řém*, “and the king asks who they (are).”

19. The verb *ir* is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as *beata an řapaḡe řirinne*, “truth (is) the food of the historian;” *ceann Ōhiapmuda U Ōhuibne an ceann úb*, “that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O’Duibhne;” *cia tupa? mup lollan*, “who (art) thou? I (am) lollan;” *an řiop řin*, “whether (is) that true? ní mup, “(it is) not I.”

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as *ḡeantar é*, it is done; *buailear iab* they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

inflection); as *éáinic pé go Corcaig*, he came to Cork; *ag coir an t-pléibhe*, at the foot of the mountain; *airíuib cuib do na h-úgðapairb*, "some of the authors reckon." (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition *uib* generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as *uib Corcaé agus Limerick*, between Cork and Limerick; *uib na cóigeadairb*, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions *ann*, *go*, *iap*, *ria*, *le* or *pe*, and *cap*, take *r* before *an*, the article, the *r* being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as *annr an leabap* or *ann ran leabap*, in the book; *leir an b-peap*, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as *do pug an tonna pir a n-ağairb an énuic*, "he brought the tun with him against the hill;" *a b-riádnuire b-peap n-éirionn*, "in presence of the men of Erin;" *do gluaireadap clann Tuireann pompa d'ionnpuirb an éata*, "the children of Tuireann went forwards towards the battle."

The following prepositions, *éum*, towards; *dála*, as to; *déir*, after; *iomčura*, as to; *meapğ* or *ameapğ*, amongst; *péir*, according to; and *tímčiolll*, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 88.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, *a n-ağairb an énuic*, is literally "in the face of the hill," where *énuic* is governed in the genitive by *ağairb*, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except *do*, *de*, *gan*, and *uib*, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as *ó'n ġ-cnoc rin*, "from

that hill;" *aḡ an m-baile na h-inne iḡap*, "at the town of the island in the west." (See pages 17, 18.)

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as *aḡ bapp an cḡoinn*, "on the top of the tree;" *ó múraib na Teampaḡ*, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: *a* or *i*, *iaḡ*, and *ḡo* (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as *a m-baile aḡa cliaḡ*, in *Baile-atha-cliaḡ* (Dublin); *iaḡ n-bḡlunn*, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: *aḡ*, *le*, and sometimes *ḡo*, cause no change in the initial, and *ḡan* may either aspirate or not; as *plán le Maigḡ*, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" *o'n t-Sionunn roip ḡo paḡppḡe*, "from the Shannon east to the sea."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive *a* (whether it signifies *his*, *her*, or *their*), the letter *n* is inserted between the vowels; as *ḡpe n-a bapaib*, "*through his hands*;" *an lá ḡo n-a lán t-poillpe*, "*the day with its abundant light*."

Except after *do* and *de*; as *ḡabaip péup dá óapall* give grass to his horse; *bain ḡeuḡ d'a ḡ-cḡann*, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter *h* is usually inserted after these prepositions; as *do óuaib pe ḡo h-Albain*, he went to Alban (Scotland).

After some of these
h is inserted

?

PART IV.

I D I O M S .

AN idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language; so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, “*ta an leabap ag an duine*” is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, “the book is at the man;” and in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to “the man has the book.”

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, p. 112). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, p. 106, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence.

English.	Irish.	Contracted to.	
To strike {	me,	do mo bualadh,	dom' bualadh.
	thee,	do do bualadh,	doð' bualadh.
	him,	do a bualadh,	dá bualadh.
	her,	do a bualadh,	dá bualadh.
	us,	do ap m-bualadh,	dap m-bualadh.
	you,	do up m-bualadh,	(not contracted)
	them,	do a m-bualadh,	dá m-bualadh.

These may be translated literally, "to my striking," "to their striking," &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: *aḡ a bualað*, striking him: *aḡ a bualað*, striking her: *aḡ aṇ m-bualað*, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—*ḡámic mían a mapb̃ḡa ḡam p̃én*, "a desire to kill them, has come to me" (lit. "a desire of the killing of them," or "of their killing.")

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, p. 114); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: *aṇ ṛon*, for the sake of; *aṇ a ṛon*, for his sake; *aṇ ḡur ṛon*, for your sake, &c. *ḡo ḡuaṛḡ Diarmaḡ ḡá h-ér*, Diarmaid went after her: *ḡámic ḡinneap oppa p̃én, aḡur aṇ a p̃hoḡḡ 'n-a n-ḡiaṛḡ*, "sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them."

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: *ḡap aṇ*, backwards; *ḡo ḡuaṛḡ p̃é ḡap a aṇ*, he went backwards; *ḡo ḡuaṛḡ p̃í ḡap a h-aṇ*, she went backwards; *ḡo ḡuaṛḡ ṛiaḡ ḡap a n-aṇ*, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

"To die," is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning "to find death:" the verb *p̃aḡ*, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, *aṇ ḡapa bliag̃aṇ ḡá ér ṛin p̃uaṇ l̃p̃ial b̃ár*, "the second year after that Irial found death;" *aḡur m̃ár ann aḡá a n-ḡán ḡaṇ b̃ár ḡ'p̃áḡaṇ*, "and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find" (i. e., "that it is fated for me to die.")

There is, however, a single verb *ḡ'euḡ*, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—*A ḡeṛ c̃uṛḡ ḡo na p̃ean-uḡḡapaṇ ḡur ab a nḡleann ḡa loḡa p̃uaṇ naḡin p̃aḡ-ṛuṛḡ b̃ár; bioḡ ḡo n-abpaṇ ḡpung̃ oile ḡurab ann*

Ἀρδομαῶα δ'εὐγ ρέ, "some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition *aip* (on), or *iap* (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition *do* (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—*aip m-beiṣ aṭa páda do Chopmac aḡ a b-peitioin*, "Cormac, having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"): *aḡur aip m-beiṣ ollaiṇ don luinḡ*, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); *aḡur aip n-bul a luinḡ dōib*, "and they having gone into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"): *iap m-beiṣ tṛéan ip an tṛi dōib*, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them").

5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (*neapṣ*) on a thing:" the "having" being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. *Ní b-puil neapṣ aḡum aip an nō pin*, I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"). *Aḡur a duḡapṣ ḡrámne naḡ paib neapṣ aice péin aip*, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes *léiḡear*, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as *neapṣ*.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, to order it to be done, is often expressed in Irish by *do éip* (or *do tábapṣ*) *pá deapa*, "to put (or bring, or give), under notice." *Aḡur po éip Miodhac pa n-deapa úip Inpe Tuile do éip púib*, "and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you:" *do puḡ (píḡ) bpeac báip aip an m-bpeiṣeaiṇ, aḡur tṡḡ pa deapa a époḡaḡ* " (the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. *Աջսր շանուկ ևր ըօրմե արամարած, քօջաժ քարբէած, 6 Տիօժ Բուծծ Ծերն,* “and *Lir* set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from *Shee Bove Derg*” (i.e., *with* fifty chariots): *աջսր շանուկ Բօծծ Ծերն,* *նաօր քօծ քիժեած, Եւ ռ-լօնրքուիջե;* “and *Bove Derg* came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them.”

This is like the English:—“The duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong.”

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as *Հածրա ըսջանն ամած, աջսր ռի Լաիքար քուխջած օրժ,* “come forth to us and no one will dare to wound thee:” (literally, “and *it will not be dared* [to put] wounding on thee).

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus instead of “they advance; they plunge into the (river) *Crond*,” the writer expresses himself in this way:—“it is advanced; it is plunged into the *Crond*.”

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as *լր ամլաւծ Բի Նալրի աջսր Ծերնօրքե, աջսր ան ըննձամ Ետարրա, աջսր Իած աջ արքտ արքքե,* “it is in this manner *Naisi* and *Deirdre* were (seated), and the *Cenn-chaimh* (a chess board) between them, and *they playing on it*; *լր ամլաւծ Եւ Բի Ըօծեած, աջսր Է աջ քարջած,* “it is thus *Cobhthach* was, and *he pining away*,” *քարթօր քքուլա Յօ Բլաժնուծ Է քէմ Եւ Բեւժ ան քին,* “he sends word to *Blaid*, *he himself to be there*” (i.e., “that he himself was there”).

This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as *do cúip (an cú) a ceann a n-uéar Dhiarmuda a gup é ina cóbla* “(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*”

10. One person meeting another.

“Donall met Fergus” is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—*Do carað Fergur ar Doinnall*; literally “Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall.” *Do carað Aoibell na Craige léite opuin,* “we met Eevel of Craglea” (lit. “Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us”): *cia cappaide oim aét pteaid-bean,* “whom should I meet but the fair woman” (“who should be met on me”).

The same idea is expressed by the verb *capla*, happened: *agur cápla oílaé oppéa ar m-bozá,* “and they met a youth on the moor” (lit. “and a youth happened on [or to] them”): *cpialluid go Sliab Múir go cápla banba go n-a dpaoidib oppa ann,* “they travel to Slieve Mish until they met Banba with her druids there” (“until Banba with her druids happened on[or to] them there”).

11. Although: Although not.

ḡion go or *ḡion gur* has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes it means “although” (or “although that”), and sometimes “although not.”

Although:—*a Fhinn, ar Orḡar, ḡion gur foigre mo ḡaol duitre ná do Dhiarmuid O'Dhuibne,* “‘O Finn, says Oscar, ‘although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O’Duibhne.’”

Although not:—*do bépuim cómaíple máic úib, a Chlann Uirniḡ, ḡion go n-dénar lib í,* “I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;” *ḡion gur céarph mna an nío rin,* “*although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman.”

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, *ir péirip le,* “it is possible with;” as *ir péirip l’om a déanað,* I can do it (lit. “it is possible with me to do it:” see Idiom 1.)

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb *cpim.* “I

come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as muna ð-tigeað þu an cáilleað ð'amap, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); aðt moþ boilge þinn má þu map atað þu ð-tuþ fémnuðe ceangailte máþ ð-fiaðnupe, agur nað ð-tuþ þinn fgaileað ðfob, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them:" ní cupeann ualað oppann nað ð-tuþ linn a iomáþ, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb tã or u is used instead of tuþ, and also the preposition ag instead of le; as ó nað liom ðul ón g-contabairt þo, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger": here u is understood): ó nað ð-fuþ ðul uað agum, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:" here tã and ag are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word leat, half: leat-ðop, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word leat is used adjectively, so that leat-ðop means, not half of a foot, but a half-foot (i.e., a foot which is itself a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also leat-þúil, one eye, leat-taob, one side, &c. U amlað ðo þi an tuþ þu agur leat-lam aþgub aþ, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word aonap, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like tuþuþ, cúgeap, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—ðo þuþat mé a'm aonap, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); ðo þuþat tú að' aonap, thou walkedst alone: ðo þuþat þi n-a h-aonap, "she walked alone," &c.; am aonap þeal a þuþal þiðeap, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" tã mé liom þém, I am alone ("I am with myself"): tã tú leat þém, thou art alone: tã þuð leo þém, they are alone: tã mo máteþín 'n-a coðlað, agur mipe liom þém, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c., *on* that other, the preposition *aip* being used. *Do éug pé tpi ba aip an g-capall rin*, he gave three cows for that horse: *aip Eipe ní 'neópaínn cia h-í*, "for Erin I would not tell who she is" ('neópaínn for inneópaínn: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition *aip* is set before the noun of price: *do ceannuigeap an bó bán rin aip pé púint*, I bought that white cow for six pounds: *ní h-iongna aip Cormac, óir ip maic an luac tuagar uirpe*, "'No wonder,' says Cormac, 'for good is the price I gave for it.'"

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, "Fergus has money on Donall," the preposition *aip* being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of "having" being expressed by *tá* and *aḡ* as in Idiom 34. *Tá tpi púint aḡ Fergur aip Doínnall*, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: *tá bean eile a n-Éoéaill a b-fuil aici coróin aip*, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown ("to whom is a crown on him"): *ip amlaib do bí an ríḡ ro, aḡur cíor cáin móp tnom aḡ Fómhópaíḡ aip Tuatha Dé Danann pe n-a linn*, "it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time" ("a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuath De Dananns").

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by "to ask, &c., *on* that person:" *iapp aip Ohia na ḡpára rin*, "ask of God those graces."

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c., is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c., is *on* him, the preposition *aip* being used: *tá puacṡ cñm* (cold is on me), I am cold; *ná bíod eaḡla opt* (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: *do bí tapṡ móp aip Sheaḡan* (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty: *caḡ*

é rin opt? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A cúiple mo énoiðe cneud f an ġnuam rin opt? "O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?"

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition ari being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by tǎ and aġ, as in idiom 34:—ní mó an cion no bá aġ Aongur opta má an cion no bá aġ muinur Aongura ar mac an peacáirne, ġo raib formad mór ar tǎcáir pá n-a cionn rin, "not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account" (lit. "not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:" see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you: you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.: tǎ mear aġur cion mór ari Orar (great esteem and love are on Oscar), Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved*.

20. To know : to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase knowledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person by "to have or to give knowledge on a person:" "aġur on b-fuil a ġior aġab fém, a Fhinn?" "ní b-fuil, ar Fionn:" "do you know it, O Finn?" "I do not," says Finn" (lit., is its knowledge with you, O Finn? It is not, says Finn): an áil leat ġior b'fáġail? do you wish to know? ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"): bioð a ġior aġat, a leuġcór, "know O reader" ("be its knowledge with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), no ġiappaiġ Fionn do cǎc an b-tuġa-bap aine oppǎ, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"): aġur tu-ġairre aine opm, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on me").

21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by "to separate *with* a person," the preposition *le* or *pe* being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" *peapadap péin agur Diarmaid pe n-a céile*, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:" *do peap pé rinn*, "he separated from us;" *peap Orcair le Diarmaid*, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid:" *do peap nír*, "he separated from him;" *ag Cuppad Cill'-dara do peapir le gnaib mo éiríde*, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart.'"

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Da placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective *álainn*, fine or beautiful, is formed *áilne* or *áille*, fineness, beauty; and *da áilne* or *da áille*, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—*Ní b-puil pionúr dá meub, naç b-tuil-lob*, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:" *an treap gear, gan comrag aoméir dá éiríir air calmáin d'obað*, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:" *deamán ná diabál dá éiríre lám*, "demon or devil, however mighty of hand."

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as "both men and women," is often expressed in Irish by the preposition *idir*, between; as *bain-pið Dia páraib díob ann gaç roçap d'á b-tuð-bóib idir céill, ceapadaið, agur conaç páoðalta*, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" *cúig-míle idir peapaið agur mnáið*, five thousand, between men and women (i.e. both men and women, or reckoning men and women).

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by "to bear on a person," the verb *beir*, bear, being used with the preposition

air. Examples:—*Páðbam an tulað ro an eagla go m-beappað Aongur an Òrhoða oppuinn*, “let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:” *leanur air a lora go péimðípeað iad do’n Mhúimain*, *go ruð oppa að Solcód*, “he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid.” *go nað fúigpíðir an ponn rin nó go m-beipeað Maicpa Síde oppa*, “that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:” *panpaðpa leat an an látaip ro nó go m-beipir opm apír*, “I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:” *ðað don air a m-béappainnir*, “every one whom I would overtake” (“every one on whom I would bear”).

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by “to put a game on him:” *aður do éðg Oirín an peap rin, aður ro cúip an cluiðce an Phionn*, “and Oisín moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:” *aður ní ruðamar an báipe an a céile*, “and we did not win the goal on each other” (i.e. neither of us won the goal on the other.)

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as “it seemed long to him,” “he thought it long,” are expressed by the verb *ip* and the preposition *le*: *ip paða liom* (“it is long with me”), it seems long to me, I think it long. *Aður do bo paða le na ðráitirib do ði Ópian uaða*, “and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them” (“it was long with his brothers, &c.”): *ip olc linn ap ðean píoç*, “we think bad of what has happened to thee” (“it is evil with us:” *ap* = *a ro*, and *a* means “all that:” see p. 47): *cuigimri nað ionimuin leatpa me péim*, “I understand that thou dost not love me” (“that not beloved with thee am I myself”).

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions *le* and *do*: *ip maic é do’n ð-peap rin*, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): *ip maic é leip an ð-peap rin*, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—*ba maic liom ruibail aæt mop maic ðam é*, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as *mian*, desire; *aic*, pleasure; *ail*, will or pleasure, &c.: *ip áill liom fíor d'páðail*, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): *do óuirpinn fém púil an óaic pín ad h-uót a n-ionad do púil, ap fear díob: do b'aic liom pín, ap an dóirpreoir*, "I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye," says a man of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word *féarr*, better, is used in the same way to express preference: *ip féarr liom do dhearbhrádaip ná éurp*, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); *do b'féarr le bpið leabap maic ná aipgead*, Brigid would prefer a good book to money (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c.). The following example shows the application of both *mian* and *féarr*:—*Ní h-é ip mian leip an uðap (ní mo, ní h-é ip mian liom-pa) tu do bpeugan; . . . aét ip é dob' féarr leip pín (aður liom-pa) do éroiðe do fealbuað*: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (tu do bpeugan) . . . but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Féarr followed by *le* expresses mental preference as shown above: but *féarr* followed by *do* is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. *Ip féarr òompa anoir, ap luð, fíor na h-eapca úd do éabairt óaib*. *Ip féarr éana, ap iadpan*, 'it is *better for me* now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words *beağ* and *mór* (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—*Ip mór liom an luad pín*, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): *óip dá m-beic mac ađumne iona puiðe pompa, níor beağ leo do éuir dáp mapbað é*, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ("in his sitting:" see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for *dáp mapbað*: see Idiom 1): *dap mo bpiatap ap*

Naisi ní beag linne rin uairt, “‘by my word,’ says Naisi, ‘we do not think that small from thee.’”

The two expressions *ir mór le* and *ní beag le* (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: *ir mór liom aon pínigin do éabairt do*, I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by *ní beag liom aon pínigin*, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (*ní mór le—ir beag le*) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: *ní mór liom na trí ba ro do éabairt do*, I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows; which might also be expressed by saying, *ir beag liom*, &c.—I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge, &c.—*do beirpíob ár m-briacáir, ár riab, nac beag linn a m-beupam go Fionn bóob*, “‘we give our word,’ said they ‘we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that: see p. 47) we shall bring of them to Finn.’” (See Mr. Standish O’Grady’s note, in the “Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne,” p. 140.)

When *mór* and *beag* are used with the preposition *do*, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: *níor beag do* (*mapbað bap n-aítreac*) *map eipic uairtpe*, (the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you: *níor beag duit a ba do bpeit ó Fhionn*, “it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn.”

29. Woe to.

Ir maing don b-peap rin, woe to that man: *a maing do’n bpuing goipear do’n olc maic*, “woe to those who call evil good.” Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, *ir maing nac n-béanann comáirle beag-ríná*, “woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife” (lit. “it is woe who doeth not,” &c.).

30. So .. as: as .. as.

When these “correspondent conjunctions” are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by *agur*, “and,” or by *le*, “with:” *agur a dubairt ría an tan do bóob a mác com appaicta agur go lionpað a meup an iob*, “and he said to her when his son should be so grown (*com appaicta*) as that his finger would fill the ring” (lit.

"so grown *and* that his finger," &c.): *do bí a pleag cóim* *peamap le mol muillinn*, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick *with*.")

Aður follows *amlað* or *amla* (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows *cóim*; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to "*viz.*:" *ap amlað do ruap Naisi acap Déirdre, acap an Cennchaem etappa*, "it is thus he found Naisi and Déirdre, *and* the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them." (Meaning, "it was thus he found them, *viz.*, with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.")

31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun *gac*, followed by the preposition *le* or *pe*. *Gac le Doimnac ag dul cum teampoill*, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: *na trí ríge rin do Thuataib De Danann do bí i b-plaicior Eireann gac pe m-bliagam*, "these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year" (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples.

A g-ceann bliadna, at the end of a year: *do bí riab a g-ceann na raiče*, they were at the end of the field. *A dubairt Naisi le h-Ardan dul ap ceann Ferguis*, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" ("to go on the head of Fergus"): *pillre ap a g-ceann*, "turn thou back for them" ("on their head"). *O naé liom dul ón g-contabairt po am ceann*, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me" (*am ceann*, "in my head" = before me). *Raéad ad ceann, a Phinn, agus a g-ceann na Féinne*, "I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). *Acap beirió buaib acap bennaictam dá cenn*, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (*dá cenn*, "from its head"). *Tap ceann gur faoil an toicead naé raib baoḡal ap bíe ap péin*, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself" (*tap ceann gur*, "over the head that" = although). *Ip ionḡna buirpe an ḡraib rin do*

ṡabairṡbaṡpa ṡap ṡeann ṡhinn, ap ṡiarmairṡ, “‘it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn’ says Diarmaid” (ṡap ṡeann ṡhinn, “over the head of Finn,” in preference to Finn, instead of Finn)

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seagán an ṡiṡeabópa, which is word for word, “John of the weaver,” means in reality “John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver.” Seagán na bairṡeabairṡe, “John (the son, &c.) of the widow.”

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first: thus ṡeṡur maop (nom.) means “Fergus the steward;” but ṡeṡur an ṡaop (gen.) is “Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.”

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as “the house of Fergus the steward,” in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 96) should also be in the genitive: ṡeac ṡheṡur an ṡaop. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus “the house of Fergus the steward” is ṡeac ṡheṡur maop (in which ṡheṡur is gen. and maop nom.); whereas ṡeac ṡheṡur an ṡaop is understood to mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” So in Dr. MacHale’s translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

ṡpuṡ ṡcuil ṡeinn, ṡiṡ neaṡṡa, a’r buan ṡeapṡ;

ṡcuil mic ṡeil, an ṡairṡṡeac ṡeinnṡeac ṡapṡ.

“The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring anger, of Achilles son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*”

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck.

Here the last noun *ḡairḡiḡeaḡ*, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while *Ḃcuil*, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, *bean Sheagáin an fíḡeaḡóirḡa*, accordingly, is not "the wife of John the weaver," but "the wife of John (son, &c.) of the weaver;" the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by *bean Sheagáin fíḡeaḡóirḡ*.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb "to have" as expressing possession; and the sentence "the man has a book," is expressed in Irish by the verb *ḡá* and the preposition *aḡ*, in this form, *ḡá leabap aḡ an bume*, "a book is at (or with) the man:" *ḡa airḡeaḡ aḡum* ("money is with me"), I have money: *cia bé aḡ a b-puil airḡeaḡ* ("whoever with whom is money"), whoever has money. *Ní féirḡir le bume an nḡ naḡ m-beirḡeaḡ aḡe ḡo ḡaḡairḡ uairḡ, aḡur ní b-puil ḡo-mairḡḡeaḡ aḡumpa*, "it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality" (word-for-word: "it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself"). *ḡo aḡel Concuḡap boraḡ acar ḡo fíarparḡḡ dé an rairḡ pleḡ ollam aḡe ḡo*, "Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him" (lit.: "whether a feast was ready with him [i.e. Borach] for him [i.e. Conchobar.]"

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. *Cia aḡumne aḡ a b-puil an fírinne?* "Which of us has the truth?" This is word for word: "Which of us with whom is the truth?" and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition *aḡ* in this construction governs not only the relative *a*, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative *cia*. *ḡá bean eile a n-ḡoḡaill a b-puil aicḡ corḡm air*, "there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him" (i.e. to whom he owes a crown: Idiom 16). Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of "having" being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative *a* before *b-puil*, and by *aicḡ*; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition *aḡ* of *aicḡ*. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:—*ḡá bean*

eile a n-Eoðaill aḡ a ḃ-puill coróm air. The last example exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him:" and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, *cia leir an t-eaḡ rín* (who owns that house), the *le* of *leir* would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative *cia*.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb *ir* and the preposition *le*, with: *ir leatpa an t-eaḡ*, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"): *ir lem' aḡair na ba rín*, those cows belong to my father ("it is with my father those cows"): *cia léir na ba rín*, who owns those cows? ("who with him [are] those cows?") *Oir ir le neaḡ éirín do Thuata De Danann na muca*, "for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and king Cormac asks him) *an leat réin an ópaḡ rín?* "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—*Ta airḡeaḡ ḡo leḡr aḡaḡ, aḡt ní leat réin é*, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself."

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb *tá* and the preposition *ó* from: *ta leaḡar uaim*, I want a book: lit., "a book is from me:" *cneud atá uait?* "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, *aḡaimn*, *aḡaib*, *aca*, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context.

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: *Do bí leaḡair aca*, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: *ḡaḡ fear aḡaimn*, "each man of us;" *no eiríḡ an ḡara fear acoḡan do ḡéanaí an éleapa*, "the

second man *of them* (acoran, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" cia aḡuinne aḡ a b-puil an fírinne, an Fíonn, "'which *of us* has the truth,' says Finn" (aḡ a b-puil, "with whom is" = "has:" see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*: map ḡo tḡuḡtar dá bantuaḡaḡ aṗ bhécoill aḡur aṗ Ohanann, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they "were called 'two ladies.'" Map ḡo b-tuḡ cleaṗ aṗ an ḡ-cleaṗ rin, "as he called that feat 'a feat:'" (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" Rop-dá-ráileac rṗ a ráiḡteap lṡmneac anu, "Ros-da-shaileach which is called Limerick now" (lit. "R. with which is said 'Limerick' now").

39. De after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun *de* "of it," is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. Aḡur ḡion ḡo b-puil cuib aḡuinḡ do mārbaḡ Diarmada, ní móide do ḡeubḡ (Aongur) an fírinne uaim, "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not *the more* receive the truth from us" (here móide is *de* added to mó, the comparative of mór, great: for ḡion ḡo = "although not:" see Idiom 11). Ir fupaide o'Fhionn ár lopḡna leanamain, an eaḡpa beic aḡainn, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (fupaide = *de* after fupa, comparative of fupur, easy): i.e. "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish *peap ip mór neapṡ*, which translated word for word is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words mór neapṡ being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English "*of* great strength." This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb *ip* in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with "*of*" in English, and must be

rendered accordingly. Ní raib a g-cómampir nír fear ba mhó óir ašur airgead ná Diarmaid, "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," i.e. "a man who was of greater gold and silver.") Do deapcar an beirt ba maínda cruí, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape:" Talam ba fearr biaš ašur deoí, "a land (of) the best food and drink:" Oirín ba éireun neart a' luí, "Oisín of mighty strength and vigour."

Sometimes the preposition go (with) is used instead of the verb: as fear go móir neart, a man *with* great strength, i.e. a man of great strength.

41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as "Alas that I have not got it!" the word gan being generally used as the negative particle. Ar cruaiš gan peata 'n maoin ašum! "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here ar cruaiš, "it is pity" = "alas:" ašum is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me." A Dhia gan mé am' abailín, "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

42. One noun asserted of another by tá.

When one noun is asserted of another (or of a pronoun) by the verb tá, in any of its forms, it requires the aid of the preposition a or ann, 'in,' and of one of the possessive pronouns, giving rise to a unique and extremely curious idiom. Thus "I am a man," if expressed in Irish by tá, will be (not tá mé fear, but) tá mé am' fear, which is word for word, "I am in my man." bí túra ad' ršian ašur mire am' feoil, "be thou the knife and I the flesh." (lit. "be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh"). Bechoill ašur Danann do bí i n-a m-banríšearnaib, "Bechoill and Danann who were princesses" ("who were in their princesses"): ir fearr éirean míle uair ná túra, cuir a g-cár go b-puill tú ad' ríš no ad' p'monnpa. "he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince" (cuir a g-cár, "put in case" = "suppose" or "although"): fašaid na daoine báp, cuir aca 'n-a

n-ḡánaiḃ, aḡur cuib̃ aca 'n-a peanóirigib̃, "men die ('receive death:' Idiom 3), "some of them (cuib̃ aca: Idiom 37) as youths, and some as old men" ("some of them in their youths and some of them in their old men.") A Dhia, ḡan mé am̃ aḃaillín!" "would God that I were an apple!" ("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another, this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely common in Irish. Táimpe am' ḡodla, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"): d'éirig̃ ina ḡearaḃ, "he stood up" ("he arose in his standing"): mipe am' aonap, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): clanna Lir ina ḡ-ccatrap, (the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their four-persons").

The preposition ann is used with ta without any governed noun, to denote existence in general; as atá aon Dhia aḃáin ann, there is only one God; here the ann in the end, which has no representative in the translation, means "in it," i. e. in existence. Sometimes this ann answers very nearly to the English "here," or "there;" as ip tú atá ann "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between ip and ta.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between ip and ta.

1. Ip is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as ip mé an t-plig̃e, an ḡípinne, aḡur an beata, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, ta is used; as ta mé a m-baile aḡa cliaḡ, I am in Dublin: an paib̃ tú ann rin? wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either ip or ta may be used:—ip bpeaḡ an lá é, or ta an lá bpeaḡ, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. Ip connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as ip peap mé, I am a man. But ta cannot do this without the aid of the preposition i or inn and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as ta mé am' peap, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

3. *Ír* expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by *ṭá*, there is *often* something more implied than is contained in the direct assertion—the idea that the person or thing has not always been so—has come to be so, &c. Thus, if you say to me *ír pēap é*, your assertion means nothing more than that “he is a man”—not a woman or a coward, &c. If we see a figure approach in the dark, and that after looking close you find it is a man, your correct phraseology is, *ír pēap é*, by which I understand you to mean “it is a man”—not a woman, or a beast, or a ghost.

But if you say to me *ṭá pé 'n-a pēap* (“he is in his man”), here I take you to mean a very different thing—that he is now a man, no longer a boy, grown up to be a man. If I were speaking of a person as if he were a mere boy, and that you wished to correct this false impression, the proper phraseology would be, *ṭá pé 'n-a pēap*.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by *ṭá*, it is not always so; as *ní b-puīl áct aon 'Oia aīhán ann, áta 'n-a pīop-pīopaiō*, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by *ṭá* though there can be no change.

4. *Ṭá* is used with *ag* to denote possession (Idiom 43); *ír* is used with *le* to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

Ṭá may indeed be used with *le*, but the idea conveyed is not “belonging to,” but “being favourable to.” *Óo bí Eolup leo* (“Eolus was with them”), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if *ír* had been used), but that “Eolus was favourable to them”—“was on their side.”

5. *Ṭá* is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c., as in Idiom 36; as *ṭá ocnap opm*, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here *ír* cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—*ír paībēpe é ná mīpe* or *ṭá pé mīop paībēpe ná mīpe*, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, *ír*, not *ṭá*, must be used:—*ír é ír pēap ír paībēpe pan dúictē é*, he is the richest man in the country.

APPENDIX.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF DECLENSIONS.

FIRST DECLENSION.

Երեւ, a trout.

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	Երեւ.	Երեւք.
G.	Երեւ.	Երեւք.
D.	Երեւ.	Երեւաւք.
V.	ա Երեւ.	ա Երեւա.

SECOND DECLENSION.

Կոբ, a foot.

N.	Կոբ.	Կոբա.
G.	Կոբք.	Կոբ.
D.	Կոբ.	Կոբաւք.

THIRD DECLENSION.

Բիջեածոր, a weaver; masc.

N.	Բիջեածոր.	Բիջեածորիջե.
G.	Բիջեածորա.	Բիջեածոր
D.	Բիջեածոր.	Բիջեածորիւք.

Աժայր, a father; masc.

N.	Աժայր.	Աժրք, Աժրե- աժա.
G.	Աժար.	Աժրեաժ.
D.	Աժայր.	Աժրեաժաւք.

(*Մաժայր, a mother, and Երաժայր or ԵարԵրաժայր, a brother, are declined in the same way.*)

Յիւծամ, a year; fem.

N.	Յիւծամ.	Յիւծամա.
G.	Յիւծոնա.	Յիւծոն.
D.	Յիւծամ	Յիւծամաւք.

Անմ, a name.

N.	Անմ.	անմանա.
G.	անմե, անմա.	անման.
D.	անմ	անմանաւք.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

Եւմե, a fire.

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	Եւմե.	Եւմեք
G.	Եւմե.	Եւմեաժ.
D.	Եւմե.	Եւմեաւք.

Էմին, a little bird.

N.	Էմին.	Էմինիւք.
G.	Էմին.	Էմին.
D.	Էմին.	Էմինաւք.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

Լանաճա, a married couple.

N.	Լանաճա.	Լանաճանա.
G.	Լանաճան.	Լանաճան.
D.	Լանաճան.	Լանաճանաւք.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

Ծա, a spear.

N.	Ծա, Ծաժ.	Ծաօի, Ծաժա, Ծաօիժե.
G.	Ծաի, Ծաօի.	Ծաժ, Ծաժաժ, Ծաօիժեաժ.
D.	Ծա, Ծաի.	Ծաօիւք, Ծաժա Ծաօիժիւք.

Երծ, a hut, a sheepfold.

N.	Երծ.	Երաօիժե, Երծիժ.
G.	Երծ.	Երծ.
D.	Երծ.	Երաօիժիւք, Երծ իւք.
V.	ա Երծ.	ա Երաօիժե, ա Երծիժե.

Տիւծ, a mountain.

N.	Տիւծ.	Տիւծեք
G.	Տիւծե.	Տիւծեաժ.
D.	Տիւծ.	Տիւծեաւք.









