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A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

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

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M. H. GILL & SON.

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OF THE

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BY

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

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WORKS BY P. W. JOYCE, LL.D.

1. **A Short History of Ireland from the Earliest Times to 1608**; 565 pages; cloth. 10*s.* 6*d*
2. **A Concise History of Ireland from the Earliest Times to 1837**; 312 pages; Fifth Ed.; cloth, 2*s.*
3. **Outlines of the History of Ireland from the Earliest Times to 1837**; 126 pages; cloth, 9*d.*
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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 Archæological 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.

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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.

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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, ı, o, u; of which a, o, u are broad, and e, ı 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, ꝑ, h, m, p, 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 bán, white: a short vowel has no mark; as mac, a son.

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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: caoin (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 d and t 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 d and t by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish d and t 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 d and t.

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 d and t are to English *d* and *t* as Irish l or n to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender n 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 it 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.

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TABLE OF SOUNDS.

	Letters.			Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
	Irish.		Eng.				
	A	a	a	long	..	lán	*law*n, b*all*
	,,	,,		short	..	mac	b*at* or w*hat*
	B	b	b	..	..	ball	*b*an
	C	c	c	..	broad	cab	*c*ob
	,,	,,		..	slender	cinn	*k*ing
*	D	d	d	..	broad	dall	*th*ose
*	,,	,,		..	slender	diam	cor*d*ial
	E	e	e	long	..	mé	d*a*te
	,,	,,		short	..		m*e*t
	F	f	f	..	..	finn	*f*in
	G	g	g	..	broad	gort	*g*ot
	,,	,,		..	slender	geir	*g*et, *g*imlet
	H	h	h	..	..	a h-anam	*h*ammer
	I	ı	i	long	..	mín	s*ee*n
	,,	,,		short	..	min	p*i*n
*	L	l	l	..	broad	lón	*l*one
	,,	,,		..	slender	pile	vermi*l*ion
	M	m	m	..	..	mil	*m*ill
*	N	n	n	..	broad	nór	*n*one
	,,	,,		..	slender	neaḋ	*n*ew
	O	o	o	long	..	mór	m*o*re
	,,	,,		short	..	ḋor	l*o*ve, r*u*n
	P	p	p	..	..	poc	*p*ore
	R	r	r	..	broad	ród	*r*oad
*	,,	,,		..	slender	cuir	cla*r*ion
	S	s	s	..	broad	rona	*s*on
	,,	,,		..	slender	sín	*sh*een
*	T	t	t	..	broad	tom	*th*umb
*	,,	,,		..	slender	teine	cour*t*eous
	U	u	u	long	...	múr	m*oo*r, r*u*de
	,,	,,		short	...	muc	p*u*t, b*u*ll

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. Ailm, *a*; beiṫ, *b*; coll, *c*; ḋair, *d*; eaḋa, *e*; feapn, *f*; gort, *g*; uaṫ, *h*; ioḋa, *i*; luir, *l*; muin, *m*; nuin, *n*; oir or onn, *o*; peiṫ-boḋ, *p*; ruis, *r*; suil, *s*; teine, *t*; úr, *u*.

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II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., ae, 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. ae sounds like *ay* in *slay;* as gae, 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 maor, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mweer* in the west and north-west.

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

6. ia like *ee* in *beer;* as in eiar, 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. ái long has an accent over the a, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing;* as in cáin, tribute, pronounced *caw-in.*

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

In Ulster, ai short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell;* as in aiseag, restitution, which is pronounced *eshoe* in the north, and *ashoe* in the south and west.

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

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

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

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

ei short, like *e* in *sell;* as in ceiṛ, a basket, sounded like *kesh.*

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 ḃeoċ, drink.

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

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

ıo short, nearly like short *i;* as in mıoṛṛ, 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 ṛiú, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—aoı, eoı, ıaı, ıuı, uaı.

2. Aoı is sounded very like *we,* as in maoın, wealth, pronounced *mween.*

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

4. Iaı is sounded like *eei* in *seeing;* as lıaıġ, a physician.

5. Iuı like the *ewi* in *mewing;* as cıuın, gentle.

6. Uaı like *ooi* in *cooing;* as buaıl, 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. A and o before m, nn, ll, or nʒ, 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 ʒleanntán, a small glen, pronounced *glounthaun:* and o before ȯ and ġ has often the same sound; as ꝼoġlaım, learning, pronounced *fowlim.*

2. Aȯ and aġ are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine;* as ꝼaȯaꝼc, sight, pronounced

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ry-ark; laḋap, a fork, pronounced *lyre;* maḋm, a breach, pronounced *mime.*

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

4. In the combination ḋl, the ḋ is silent, and the whole is sounded like l or ll; as coḋlaḋ, sleep, pronounced *culla.*

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

6. In the combination ḋn, the ḋ is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as n or nn; as céaḋna, the same, pronounced *kaina.*

7. Final e is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus mínc, smoothness, is pronounced *meena.* In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in croiḋe, 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 lorg, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug.* Ḋealḃ, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv,* but *dallav;* searḃ, bitter, is sounded *sharrav;* ḃorḃ, proud, is pronounced *burrub;* colg, 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.

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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, t, s; 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 loċ, a lake.

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

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

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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 ċ in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as ꝑıaḋ, a deer, pronounced *fee-a*.

But in south Munster the final ġ is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as Coꝛcaıġ (dative of Coꝛcaċ, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. Ꝑh is always silent; thus a ꝑıoꝛ, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; an ꝑeaḋóg, the plover, pronounced *an addoge*.

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

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

11. Sh and ṡ are the same as *h*; as a ꝑál, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; a ṡobaꝛ, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns mo, my; ḋo, thy; and a, his, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as mo ḃó, my cow; ḋo ċeann, thy head; a ġoꝛt, his garden.

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

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as an ġuıꝛt, 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.

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NOTE.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter ṡ. (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 bṙaṫ, a garment, is formed ceannbṙaṫ, 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 ḟiṙ, 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 ḃán, a white cow; caiṫ ḃáin, of a white cat; a ḟiṙ móiṙ, O great man; a ḃean ḟeiṁ, O mild woman; capaill ḃána, white horses. (ḋ and ṫ are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles ḋo and a; as ḋo ḃéanaḋ or a ḃéanaḋ, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as ḋo ḟeaṙ ṗé, he stood: (3) by the particles ní, not, and má, if: as ní ḃeiḋ ṗí, she will not be; má ḟeaṙann ṗé, if he stands; (4), by the relative a, who, (expressed or understood); as an ṫé a ḃuaileaṙ the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as air ḃárr, on top; ḋo mullaċ, to a summit; faoi ġean, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

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

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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, ṗ, ġ, p, ṙ, ṫ; 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 bporṫ. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted ḃy the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus a ṫṫarḃ is the same as a ḃ-ṫarḃ, their bull.

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

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

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

6. ḋ by n; as a n-ḋor, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

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

8. ġ 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 ngiolla, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

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

10. S is eclipsed by ṫ, as in an ṫ-súil, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. ṫ is eclipsed by ḋ; as a ḋ-ṫál, their adze, pronounced *a dawl*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—árp, 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.

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bur, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as ár d-tigearna, our Lord; bur g-crann, your tree; a b-páirc, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as teach na m-bárd, the house of the bards; gort na g-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 air an m-bórd, on the table; ó'n d-fairrge, 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, nach; also after go, that; muna, unless; iar, after; dá, if; and after the relative a preceded by a preposition; as a m-beireann sé? Does he bear? an m-buaileann tú? Dost thou strike? cá b-fuil sí? Where is she? nach d-tuigeann tu? Dost thou not understand? go m-beannaighe Dia duit, may God bless thee; muna d-tuitfir, unless thou shalt fall; dá n-deafainn, if I would say; an tír ann a d-tainic siad, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with s is preceded by the article, the s is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as an t-saoirse (fem.), the freedom; gort an t-sagairt, the field of the priest; air an t-saoghal, or ar an saoghal, in the world. But if the s is followed by b, c, d, g, m, p, or t, it is not eclipsed; as gleann an smóil, the valley of the thrush; loch an scáil, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

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

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

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

v. Caol le caol agus leaṫan le leaṫan, 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 polar, light, the o and the a are both broad vowels; and in tinneas, sickness, the i and the e are both slender vowels. But such combinations as polir and tinnar 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 seasam, standing, the word is cómheasam, competition, not cómhasam.

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* 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.

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4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish caoluġaḋ (i.e., making slender, from caol, slender), and in English *attenuation;* changing from slender to broad is called in Irish leaṫnuġaḋ (i.e., making broad, from leaṫan, 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 baill, spots; or when ṗá is postfixed to buail, and the resulting word is buailṗeá, not buailṗá: 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 ṗaḋ is added to buail, the resulting word is not buailṗaḋ, but buailṗeaḋ, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination aḋ is added to buail, the resulting word is not buailaḋ but bualaḋ.

10. When mór, great, is prefixed to cion, love, the compound is not mórċion but móirċion, great love.

11. When ceann, head, is prefixed to litir, a letter, the compound is not ceannlitir but cinnlitir, 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 cuileóg, a fly.

13. When e is added to ordóg, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not ordóge but ordóige, of a thumb.

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

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 (l, n, r, or s) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

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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. Lánamha, a married couple; plural lánamhna, contracted from lánamhana.

6. Lasair, a flame; plural lasrach, contracted from lasarach.

7. Focal, a word; foclóir, a dictionary, contracted from focalóir.

8. Saibhir, rich; comparative saibhre, contracted from saibhire.

9. Cathair, a city; genitive cathrach, contracted from cathrach.

10. Flaithearmhail, princely; comparative flaithearmhla, contracted from flaithearmhala.

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

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

13. Uasal, noble, becomes uaisle in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. Follus, evident, becomes soilse 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 abne; and this again becomes aibhne, by the rule caol le caol &c.

16. Labair, speak (imperative mood); labhraim, I speak, contracted from labarraim,

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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 circe, 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 fá an ngréim, under the sun, is written fá'n ngréim.

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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 ón tír, ꝼán nʒṛéin.

6. In the plural the article (na) is often joined to the preposition; as ḋona, for ḋo na.

7. The letter ṛ is inserted between certain prepositions and the article an; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus ann an leaḃaṛ, in the book, is written annṛ an leaḃaṛ, and iṛ an leaḃaṛ, which is still further shortened to ṛan leaḃaṛ: also (omitting the n) annṛa leaḃaṛ, and even ṛa leaḃaṛ. And in the plural, iṛ na coṛṛaiḃ, "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 ṛ, t, ḋ), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as an ḃó, the cow; cuan an ꝼiṛ ṁóiṛ, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with ṛ, followed by a vowel or by l, n, or ṛ, the ṛ is eclipsed by t in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as an t-ṛál (fem.), the heel; an t-ṛṛón (fem.), the nose; luaċ an t-ṛṛiain (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes t to the nominative masculine, and h to the genitive feminine; as an t-aṫaiṛ, the father; leaḃaṛ na h-uiḋṛe, the book of the dun (cow).

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

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an g-crann, on the tree; ó'n b-focal ibeir, "from the word 'iber;'" leis an b-fear, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions do and de, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ceithe céimo do'n chiop, four degrees of the zone (Keating); do leanadar a g-cosa do'n charraig, 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, r, d, t, or with r before a mute.

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as inis na b-fiodbad, [the] island of the woods; cailín deas crúidhe 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 tír na n-óg, the land of the young (people); ó na h-áitibh sin, 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,

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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 coileać, a cock; laoċ a hero; fear, a man.

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

(3.) Nouns ending in óir, aire, aċ, aiġe (or oiġe, or uiġe), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as fealaḋóir, a mower; fealgaire, a hunter; ceiṫearnaċ, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns;* fgéalaiġe or fgéuluiġe, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in án and abstracts in ar; as coileán, a whelp; cáirḋear, 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 ceare, a hen; Éire, Ireland; Bearḃa, the Barrow; plái̇g, a plague.

(2). Diminutives in óg, and derivatives in aċt as fuireóg, a lark; cuiṁnaċt, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as ḋaille, blindness.

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(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in óɪɲ); as ɾúɪl, the eye; ɸóɣluɪm, 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 bɾaɗán, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. bɾaɗáɪn, as tɾí bɾaɗáɪn, three salmons; gen. bɾaɗán, as loċ na m-bɾaɗán, the lake of the salmons; dat. bɾaɗánaɪḃ, as ɗo na bɾaɗánaɪḃ, to the salmons; voc. bɾaɗána, as a ḃɾaɗána, ca ḃ-ɸuɪl ɾɪḃ aɣ ɗul? "O ye salmons, 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, bɾaɗán; gen. bɾaɗáɪn; dat. bɾaɗán; voc. ḃɾaɗáɪn; 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.

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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 bop, a bush, are different, namely, coip and bop. 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.

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Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.*	ball.	Nom.	baill.
Gen.	baill.	Gen.	ball.
Dat.	ball.	Dat.	ballaıb.
Voc.	a ball.	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 aċ, 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 aċ, in addition to the attenuation, change ċ into ġ 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 ıb, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, marcaċ, a horseman.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	marcaċ.	Nom.	marcaıġe.
Gen.	marcaıġ.	Gen.	marcaċ.
Dat.	marcaċ.	Dat.	marcaıġıb.
Voc.	a ṁarcaıġ.	Voc.	a ṁarcaċa.

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 ċa to the nominative singular; as peól, a sail; nom. plur. peólta; dat. plur. peóltaıb: múr, a wall; nom. plur. múrċa; dat. plur. múrċaıb.

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, corr, a body; gen. cuirp: ıarġ, a fish; gen. éirġ:

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

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neapt, strength; gen. neipt or nipt: fear, a man; gen. fir: crann, a tree; gen. cromn: 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 ib.

This ib 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 fir, O man; a mná, O women; O Tiġearna, 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.

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First example, seamróg, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. seamróg.	Nom. seamróga.
Gen. seamróige.	Gen. seamróg.
Dat. seamróig.	Dat. seamróguib.

Second example, péirt, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. péirt.	Nom. péirte.
Gen. péirte.	Gen. péirt.
Dat. péirt.	Dat. péirtib.

7. Nouns in ach, when they belong to this declension, change the ċ to ġ in the genitive singular: thus, clárseach, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. clárseach.	Nom. clárseacha.
Gen. clársiġe.	Gen. clárseach.
Dat. clársiġ.	Dat. clárseachaib.

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, cúis, a cause; nom plural cúiseanna; gen. plural, cúiseann; dat. plural, cúiseannaib.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding acha: thus, obair, a work, and orádh, a prayer, make oibreacha and oráidheacha in the nominative plural.

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

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

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seen in Oileán na g-coillteaḋ, 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. cleapaiḃ.

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 toil, the will, gen. tola.

7. Sometimes t or ṫ is introduced before the a of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as codail, sleep; gen. codalta: buaiḋirt, trouble, gen. buaiḋeartha.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in aḋ, eaḋ, and ugaḋ, 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

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e, not a; as molaḋ, praising; gen, molta: ṙíneaḋ stretching; gen. ṙínte: caoluġaḋ, making slender; gen. caoluiġḋe.

9. Nouns in aċt generally, and those in eaṙ or ioṙ, often, belong to this declension; as cliṙteaċt, dexterity; gen. cliṙteaċta: ḋoilġioṙ, sorrow; gen. ḋoilġioṙa. But the greater number of those in eaṙ or ioṙ belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, ḋoilġioṙ, is often made ḋoilġiṙ in the genitive; and ḃṙonntanaṙ, a gift, makes ḃṙonntanaiṙ.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in iṙ), which form their genitive singular in aċ, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as caṫaiṙ, a city; gen. caṫṙaċ: Ṫeaṁaiṙ, Tara, gen. Ṫeaṁṙaċ: ġṙáin, hatred; gen. ġṙánaċ.

11. Those in iṙ generally form their genitive as above; but aṫaiṙ, a father; máṫaiṙ, a mother; and ḃṙáṫaiṙ, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final i:—gen. aṫaṙ, máṫaṙ, ḃṙáṫaṙ.

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

13. Those in óiṙ generally make the nominative plural by adding iḋe; as ṙṙealaḋóiṙ, a mower, nom. plur. ṙṙealaḋóiṙiḋe.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na ṙṙealaḋóiṙiḋ, but sometimes na ṙṙealaḋóiṙ or na ṙṙealaḋóṙaċ.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as ṙṙuṫ, a stream; gen. ṙṙoṫa; nom. pl. ṙṙoṫa or ṙṙoṫanna: ḋṙuim, a back; gen. ḋṙoma; nom. plur. ḋṙoma or ḋṙomanna.

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16. Those that add nna, form the genitive plural by omitting the a; as ꝑꝑuċ; gen. plur. ꝑꝑuċann.

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

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding aḋ to the nominative plural; as móin; gen. plur. móinꝛeaḋ.

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

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 ıṁe or aṁa (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, áiṗne, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. áiṗne.	Nom. áiṗniḋe.
Gen. áiṗne.	Gen. áiṗneaḋ.
Dat. áiṗne.	Dat. áiṗniḋiḃ.

4. Some form the plural by adding ꝛe or ṫe: as ꝛeinne, a fire; nom. plur. ꝛeinnꝛe: ḋaoı, a clown; nom. plur. ḋaoıṫe; and aıṫne, a commandment, has nom. plur. aıṫeanꝛa.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding ḋ or aḋ (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. ḋaoıṫe, clowns; gen. plur. ḋaoıṫeaḋ.

6. Nouns ending in aıḋe, uıḋe, and aıṗe, generally belong to this declension; as ꝑclábuıḋe, a slave; ꝑíobaıṗe, a piper.

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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 ḃ or ċ.

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, uṗṗa, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. uṗṗa.	Nom. uṗṗana.
Gen. uṗṗan.	Gen. uṗṗan.
Dat. uṗṗaim.	Dat. uṗṗanaiḃ.

6. To this declension belong the proper names Éiṗe, Ireland; gen. Éiṗeann, dat. Éiṗinn: Alba, Scotland; gen., Albain, dat. Albain: Muṁa, Munster; gen. Muṁan, dat. Muṁain; and several others of less note.

7. Caṗa, a friend, is an example of the genitive in ḃ: nom. caṗa; gen. caṗaḃ; dat. caṗaiḃ; nom. plur. cáiṗḃe.

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; bṗú, a womb;

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

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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. búaib.

brú, *a womb, fem.*

Nom. brú.	Nom. bronna.
Gen. bruinne or bronn.	Gen. bronn.
Dat. broinn.	Dat. bronnaib.

caora, *a sheep, fem.*

Nom. caora.	Nom. caoiriġ,
Gen. caorac.	Gen. caorac.
Dat. caora.	Dat. caorċaib.
Voc. a ċaora.	Voc. a ċaorċa.

ceó, *a fog, masc.*

Nom. ceó.	Nom. ciaċ.
Gen. ciaċ or ceoiġ.	Gen. ceó.
Dat. ceó.	Dat. ceóċaib.

cnó or cnú, *a nut, masc.*

Nom. cnó.	Nom. cnáu, cnai.
Gen. cnó, cnui.	Gen. cnóċ.
Dat. cnó, cnú.	Dat. cnáib.

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Cú, *a hound, masc. or fem.*

Nom. cú.	Nom. coin, cuin, cona, or coincc.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. coin.	Dat. conaib.

Dia, *God, masc.*

Nom. Dia.	Nom. Dée, Déicc.
Gen. Dé.	Gen. Dia, Déiccaḋ.
Dat. Dia.	Dat. Déib Déicib.
Voc. a Dhé or a Dhia.	Voc. a Dhée, Dhéicc.

Lá, *a day, masc.*

Nom. lá.	Nom. laecc.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laeccaḋ, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laecib.

Mí, *a month, fem.*

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

O or ua, *a grandson, masc.*

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uí.
Gen. ı, uí.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. ıb, uib.
Voc. a, uí.	Voc. a, uí.

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.

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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 cuilg; dat. leir an g-colg (Par. 4, p. 17), or do'n colg (Par. 5, p. 18).

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

6. Saoġal, the world, masc. Nom. an paoġal; gen. an t-paoġail; dat. ó'n paoġal or do'n t-paoġal (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Sabóid, the Sabbath, fem. Nom an t-Sabóid; gen. na Sabóide; dat. ó'n Sabóid or do'n t-Sabóid (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an t-plat; gen. na plaite; dat. leir an plait or do'n t-plait.

9. Spól, satin, masc. Nom. an ppól; gen. an t-ppóil; dat. ó'n ppól or do'n t-ppól.

10. Asal, an ass, masc. Nom. an t-asal; gen. an asail; dat. ó'n asal.

11. Inis, an island, fem. Nom. an inis; gen. na h-inse; dat. do'n inis.

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

13. Díle, a deluge, fem. Nom. an díle; gen. na díleann; dat. do'n dílinn.

14. Sgeul, a story, masc. Nom. an sgeul; gen. an sgéil; dat. ó'n sgeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an sheal; gen. na sheile; dat. leis an sheil.

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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 ıb 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; fliuċ, 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 reampóg.

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

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	Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	bán.	bán.	Nom. báṅa.
Gen.	báin.	báine.	Gen. bán.
Dat.	bán.	báin.	Dat. báṅa.
Voc.	báin.	bán.	Voc. báṅa.

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 aṁail, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:—bean, a woman banaṁail, 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, maiṫeaṁail, graceful.

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Singular.	Plural.
Nom. maiseamail.	Nom. maiseamla.
Gen. maiseamla.	Gen. maiseamail.
Dat. maiseamail.	Dat. maiseamla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as mórḋa, 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 ḃ and ċ 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 ċapaill báin.	na g-capall m-bán.
Dat. ó'n g-capall bán or m-bán.	ó'na capallaiḃ bána.
Voc. a ċapaill báin.	a ċapalla bána.

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An ḟuiṙeóg beag, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom.	an ḟuiṙeóg beag.	na ḟuiṙeóga beaga.
Gen.	na ḟuiṙeóige bige.	na b-ḟuiṙeóg m-beag.
Dat.	ó'n b-ḟuiṙeóig big.	ó'na ḟuiṙeógaib beaga.
Voc.	a ḟuiṙeóg beag.	a ḟuiṙeóga beaga.

An cnoc árd, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom.	an cnoc árd.	Nom.	na cnuic árda.
Gen.	an cnuic árd.	Gen.	na g-cnoc n-árd.
Dat.	o'n g-cnoc árd.	Dat.	ó'na cnocaib árda.
Voc.	a cnuic árd.	Voc.	a cnoca árda.

An bó dub, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom.	an bó dub.	Nom.	na bá duba.
Gen.	na bó duibe.	Gen.	na m-bó n-dub.
Dat.	do'n m-buin duib.	Dat.	do na búaib duba.
Voc.	a bó dub.	Voc.	a ba duba.

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 árd, high; plaiṫeamail, princely.

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

4. The comparative has generally the particle níor (or níora or níra) prefixed, and it is usually followed by ná, than (spelled also ina and iona); as tá an teach ro níor áirde ná an teach rin,

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this house is higher than that house: ατά an laoċ úd níoſ ꝼlaiṫeaṁla ná an ṛíġ ꝼéin, "yonder champion is more princely than the king himself."

5. The superlative is often preceded by iſ or aſ, with the article expressed before the noun; as an ꝼeaſ iſ ꝼlaiṫeaṁla ſan tíſ, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, níoſ is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb iſ in any of its forms, expressed or understood; as ba ďuiḃe a ʒruaʒ ná an ʒual, "her hair was blacker than the coal;" iſ ʒile ſneaċta ná bainne, snow is whiter than milk; an ꝼeáṛṛ ďo ďeaṛḃṛaṫaiṛ ná ṫúſa? 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 an ealaďan iſ uaiſle ná ꝼiliďeaċt, the art which is nobler than poetry; an ealaďan iſ uaiſle aiṛ biṫ, "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. Lia is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number); but it has no positive, unless iomďa or móṛáin (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

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Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaʒ, little.	níoɾ luġa.	iɾ luġa.
ꝼaḋa, long.	níoɾ ꝼaiḋe, níoɾ ɾia.	iɾ ꝼaiḋe, iɾ ɾia.
ꝼuɾuɾ or uɾuɾ, easy.	níoɾ ꝼuɾa, níoɾ uɾa.	iɾ ꝼuɾa, iɾ uɾa.
maiṫ, deaġ, } good.	níoɾ ꝼeáɾɾ.	iɾ ꝼeáɾɾ.
minic, often.	níoɾ mionca.	
móɾ, great.	níoɾ mó.	iɾ mó.
olc, bad.	níoɾ meaɾa.	iɾ meaɾa.
ꝛeiṫ, hot.	níoɾ ꝛeó.	iɾ ꝛeó.

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, ꝼíoɾ, ɾó, ɾáɾ, úɾ: as maiṫ, good; an-ṁaiṫ, very good: ʒɾánna, ugly; ꝼíoɾ-ġɾánna, excessively ugly: móɾ, large; ɾó-ṁóɾ, very large: láiḋiɾ, strong; ɾáɾ-láiḋiɾ, 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.	ċéaḋ.
2.	ḋó, ḋá.	2nd.	ḋaɾa.
3.	ꝛɾí, ꝛeóɾa.	3rd.	ꝛɾeaɾ.
4.	ceaṫaiɾ, ceiṫɾe.	4th.	ceaṫɾaṁaḋ.
5.	cúiʒ.	5th.	cúiʒeaḋ.
6.	ɾé.	6th.	ɾeiɾeaḋ.
7.	ɾeaċꝛ.	7th.	ɾeaċꝛṁaḋ.
8.	oċꝛ.	8th.	oċꝛṁaḋ.
9.	naoi.	9th.	naoṁaḋ.
10.	ḋeiċ.	10th.	ḋeaċṁaḋ.
11.	aon ḋéaʒ.	11th.	aonṁaḋ ḋéaʒ.

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12.	ḋó ḋéaʒ, ḋá ḋéaʒ.	12th.	ḋaṛa ḋéaʒ.
13.	ṫṛí ḋéaʒ. And so on, up to and including 19.	13th.	ṫṛeaṛ ḋéaʒ.
20.	ꝼiċe.	20th.	ꝼiċeaḋ.
21.	aon a'ṛ ꝼiċe, aon aiṛ ꝼiċiḋ, And so on, up to 29.	21st.	aonṁaḋ aiṛ ꝼiċiḋ.
30.	ṫṛioċaḋ, ṫṛioċa, ḋeiċ a'ṛ ꝼiċe.	30th.	ṫṛioċaḋaḋ, ḋeaċṁaḋ aiṛ ꝼiċiḋ.
33.	ṫṛí aiṛ ṫṛioċaiḋ, ṫṛí ḋéaʒ a'ṛ ꝼiċe.	33rd.	ṫṛeaṛ aiṛ ṫṛioċaiḋ, ṫṛeaṛ ḋéaʒ aiṛ ꝼiċiḋ.
40.	ḋá ꝼiċiḋ, ceaṫṛaċa, ceaṫṛaċaḋ.	40th.	ceaṫṛaċaḋaḋ.
50.	caoʒa, caoʒaḋ.	50th.	caoʒaḋaḋ.
60.	ṛeaṛʒaḋ, ṛeaṛʒa, ṫṛí ꝼiċiḋ.	60th.	ṛeaṛʒaḋaḋ, ṫṛí ꝼiċiḋeaḋ.
70.	ṛeaċṫṁoʒa, ṛeaċṫṁoʒaḋ, ḋeiċ a'ṛ ṫṛí ꝼiċiḋ.	70th.	ṛeaċṫṁoʒaḋaḋ, ḋeaċṁaḋ aiṛ ṫṛí ꝼiċiḋ.
80.	oċṫṁoʒa, oċṫṁoʒaḋ, ceiṫṛe ꝼiċiḋ.	80th.	oċṫṁoʒaḋaḋ, ceiṫṛe ꝼiċiḋeaḋ.
90.	noċa, noċaḋ, ḋeiċ a'ṛ ceiṫṛe ꝼiċiḋ	90th.	noċaḋaḋ, ḋeaċṁaḋ aiṛ ċeiṫṛe ꝼiċiḋ.
100.	céaḋ.	100th.	céaḋaḋ.
1,000.	míle.	1,000th.	míleaḋ.
2,000.	ḋá ṁíle.	2,000th.	ḋá ṁíleaḋ.
1,000,000.	milliún.	1,000,000th.	milliúnaḋ.

2. Ḋó and ceaṫaiṛ are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but ḋá and ceiṫṛe are always used when the nouns are expressed; as ḋá ċluaiṛ, two ears; ceiṫṛe ꝼiṛ, four men.

3. Ꝼiċe is declined :—Nom. ꝼiċe; gen. ꝼiċeaḋ; dat. ꝼiċiḋ; nom. plur. ꝼiċiḋ.

4. Céaḋ has gen. céiḋ; nom. pl. céaḋa or céaḋṫa.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

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

ḋíaṛ, ḋíṛ,	two persons.	ṛeaċtaṛ,	seven persons.
beiṛt,	a couple.	móṛ-ṙeiṛeaṛ,	
tṛiúṛ,	three persons.	oċtaṛ,	eight ,,
ceaṫṛaṛ,	four ,,	nonḃaṛ, naonḃaṛ,	nine ,,
cúiʒeaṛ,	five ,,	ḋeiċneaḃaṛ,	ten ,,
ṛeiṛeaṛ,	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 ; ṛé, he ; ṛí, she ; with their plurals, ṛinn, we ; ṛiḃ, ye or you ; and ṛiaḋ, 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 :— Miṛe or meṛi, myself ; túṛa, thyself ; ṛéṛean,

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himself; ṗiṗe, herself; ṗinne, ourselves; ṗiḃṗe, yourselves; ṗiaḃṗan, themselves.

4. The word ṗéin, 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 ṗéin, I myself; ṗí ṗéin, 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 ṫú 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. mé, I.	Nom. ṗinn, we.
Gen. mo, mine.	Gen. án, our.
Dat. ḋom, ḋaṁ, to me.	Dat. ḋúinn, to us.
Acc. mé, me.	Acc. inn or ṗinn, us.

Miṗe, *myself* (*emphatic form*).

Nom. miṗe, meṗi, myself.	Nom. ṗinne, ourselves.
Gen. mo-ṗa, my own.	Gen. án-ne, our own.
Dat. ḋompa, ḋaiṁpa, to myself.	Dat. ḋúinne, to ourselves
Acc. miṗe, meṗi, myself.	Acc. inne, ṗinne, ourselves.

Ṫú, *thou.*

Nom. ṫú.	Nom. ṗiḃ.
Gen. ḋo.	Gen. ḃuṗ, ḃaṗ.
Dat. ḋuiṫ.	Dat. ḋaoiḃ, ḋíḃ.
Acc. ṫú.	Acc. iḃ, ṗiḃ.
Voc. ṫú.	Voc. ṗiḃ, iḃ.

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Sé, *he.*

Nom. ṗé.	Nom. ṗiaḋ.
Gen. a.	Gen. a.
Dat. ḋo.	Dat. ḋóiḃ.
Acc. é.	Acc. iaḋ.

Sí, *she.*

Nom. ṗí.	Nom. ṗiaḋ.
Gen. a.	Gen. a.
Dat. ḋi.	Dat. ḋóib.
Acc. í.	Acc. iaḋ.

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:—aʒ; air or ar; ann or i; ar; ċum; ḋe; ḋo; eiḋir or iḋir; ṗá or ṗaoi; le; o or ua; roiṁ; reaċ; ṫar; ṫré; uar; um or im.

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.

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Ag, *at or with.*

Singular.	Plural.
agam, with or at me.	againn, with us.
agat, agad, with thee.	agaib, with you.
aige, with him.	aca or acu, with them.
aice or aici, with her.	

The same with the emphatic increase.

agamsa, with myself.	againne, with ourselves.
agatsa, with thyself.	agaibse, with yourselves.
aigesean, with himself.	acasan, with themselves.
aicise, with herself.	

Air or ar, *upon.*

orm, on me.	orrainn, on us.
ort, on thee.	orraib, on you.
air, on him.	orra, orṫa, on them.
uirre, on her.	

Ann or i, *in.*

ionnam, in me.	ionnainn, ionainn, in us.
ionnat, ionnad, in thee.	ionnaib, in you.
ann, in him.	ionnta, in them.
innte, innti, in her.	

As, *out of.*

asam, out of me.	asainn, out of us.
asat, asad, out of thee.	asaib, out of you.
as, out of him.	asta, astu, out of them.
aiste, aisti, out of her.	

Ċum, *towards, unto.*

ċugam, unto me.	ċugainn, unto us.
ċugat, unto thee.	ċugaib, unto you.
ċuige, unto him.	ċuca, unto them.
ċuici, unto her.	

De, *from or off.*

díom, off or of me.	dínn, off us.
díot, off thee.	díb, off you.
de, off him.	díob, off them.
di, off her.	

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Do, *to.*

dam, dom, damh, to me.
duit, to thee.
do, to him.
di, to her.
dúinn, to us.
daoib, dhíb, to you.
dóib, to them.

Eidir, *between.*

eadram, between me.
eadrat, between thee.
eidir é, between him.
eidir í, between her.
eadrainn, between us.
eadraib, between you.
eatorra, between them.

Fá or Faoi, *under.*

fúm, under me.
fút, under thee,
faoi, under him.
fúithe, under her.
fúinn, under us.
fúibh, under you.
fúthu, under them.

Le, *with.*

liom, with me.
leat, with thee.
leis, with him.
léithe, léi, with her.
linn, with us.
libh, with you.
leo, with them.

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

rium, with me.
riot, with thee.
ris, with him.
ria, with her.
rinn, with us.
ribh, with you.
riu, with them.

O *or* ua, *from.*

uaim, from me.
uait, from thee.
uaidh, from him.
uaithe, uaithi, from her.
uainn, from us.
uaibh, from you.
uathu, from them.

Roimh, *before.*

romham, before me.
romhat, before thee.
roimhe, before him.
roimpe, roimpi, before her.
romhainn, before us.
romhaibh, before you.
rompa, before them.

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Seaċ, *beside*.

ꝑeaċam, beside me.	ꝑeaċainn, beside us.
ꝑeaċaꞇ, beside thee.	ꝑeaċaiḃ, beside you.
ꝑeaċ é, beside him.	ꝑeaċa, beside them.
ꝑeaċ í, beside her.	

Ꞇar, *beyond, over*.

ṫorm, ṫarm, over me.	ṫorrainn, ṫarrainn, over us.
ṫorꞇ, ṫarꞇ, over thee.	ṫorraiḃ, ṫarraiḃ, over you.
ṫairiꝛ, over him.	ṫarrꞇa, ṫarra, over them.
ṫairrꞇe, ṫairri, over her.	

Ꞇre, *through*.

ꞇríom, through me.	ꞇrínn, through us.
ꞇríoꞇ, through thee.	ꞇríḃ, through you.
ꞇríṫ, through him.	ꞇríoċa, through them.
ꞇríṫe, ꞇríṫi, through her.	

Uar, *above*.

uaram, above me.	uarainn, above us.
uaraꞇ, above thee.	uaraiḃ, above you.
uara, above him.	uarꞇa, above them.
uairꞇe, uairꞇi, above her.	

Um or im, *about*.

umam, about me.	umainn, about us.
umaꞇ, about thee.	umaiḃ, about you.
uime, about him.	umpa, about them.
uimpe, uimpi, about her.	

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; ḋo, thy; a, his or her; ár, our; ḃar or ḃur, 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.)

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2. The o of mo and ḋo is omitted before a vowel or before ṗ; as m'aċaip, my father; m'ṗeapann, my land. And ḋo is often changed, before a vowel, to ṫ, ċ, and h; as ṫ'aċaip, ċ'aċaip, or h-aċaip, 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 ċeaċ-ṗa, my house, or my own house; mo ċeaċ mór buiḋe-ṗi, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by ṗéin (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as mo ċeaċ-ṗa ṗéin, 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 beir beannaċt óm ċroiḋe, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

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

Ann, *in.*

Singular.	Plural.
ann, am', in my.	inár, 'nár, in our.
aḋ, aḋ', in thy.	—
iona, ina, 'na, in his or her.	iona, ina, 'na, in their.

Ḋo, *to.*

ḋom, ḋom', to my.	ḋár, ḋ'ár, to our.
ḋoḋ, ḋoḋ', to thy.	—
ḋá, ḋa, to his or her.	ḋá, ḋ'a, to their.

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le, *with.*

lem, lem', with my.	lep, le'p, with our
leo, leo', 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.
óo, óo', 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 ṫiġ, from his house; óna ṫiġ, from her house; óna ḃ-ṫiġ, 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 ṫiġ mór árḋ-ṙa, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish:—a, who, which, that; noċ, who, which, that; naċ, which not; as an ṫé a ḃuaileaṙ, the person who strikes; an liaiġ noċ a ḋeiṙ go ḃ-ṗuil ṫú plán, the physician that says that you are well; an ṫé naċ ḃ-ṗuil láiḋiṙ, ní ṗuláiṙ ḋó ḃeiṫ glic, "the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise."

2. Ḋá sometimes takes the place of the relative a; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as ṫáiḋ na gaoiṫa iṙ ṗeárṙ agum ḋá ḃ-ṗuil a ḃ-ṫalaiṁ Éireann, "I have

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

3. The relative a has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as beiṛ beannaċt ċum a maiṛeann ɗe ṛ̇iolṛaiċ Iṛ a'ṛ Eiḃiṛ, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" a ḃ-ꝼuil ṛan talaṁ ɗ'aicme Mháine, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of Máinè."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are ṛo, this, these; ṛin, that, those; ṛúɗ or úɗ, yonder: as an ꝼeaṛ ṛo, this man; na mná ṛin, those women; ṛúɗ í ṛíoṛ, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—cia or cé, who? cá, what? where? caɗ or cṛeuɗ, what? as cia ċṛuṫuiġ ṫú? who created thee? caɗ ɗeiṛ tú? what sayest thou? ca ḃ-ꝼuil an ꝼeaṛ ṛin? where is that man? cṛeuɗ iṛ éiġin? what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.
éiġin, some, certain.
eile, aile, other.
cáċ, all.
ġaċ, each, every.
ġaċ uile, every.
ceaċtaṛ, either.
uile, all.
a ċéile, each other.
an té, an tí, the person who.
cia b'é, cibé, ġibé, whoever.

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2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined; except cáċ, which has a genitive form, cáiċ; and ɡaċ, which is sometimes made ɡaċa 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 ᴛóɡ, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. ᴛóɡaim, I take.	1. ᴛóɡamaoiḋ, we take.
2. ᴛóɡair, thou takest.	2. ᴛóɡċaoi, ye take.
3. ᴛóɡaiḋ ṗé, he takes.	3. ᴛóɡaiḋ, they take.

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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, tógaip, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun tú, 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. tógaiḋ mé, I take.	1. tógaiḋ muid, we take.
2. tógaiḋ tú, thou takest.	2. tógaiḋ sibh, ye take.
3. tógaiḋ sé, he takes.	3. tógaiḋ siad, 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

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example, it would be wrong to say déanaim mé or déanamaoid 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 molaid síad and molfaid siad—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though molaid or molfaid 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 sliallaid mic Mileaid, "the sons of Milè go;" mar do concadar na draoiche, "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 molaim-se, I praise; molair-se, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word féin (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as do chuirfinn-se féin mo leanb a chodladh, "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 id 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;

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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 ɡoıɾ, call, are:—

(1.) The present; ɡoıɾım, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; ɡoıɾeann 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); ɒo ɡoıɾeaɾ, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; ɒo ɡoıɾınn, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; ɡoıɾɾeaɒ, 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.

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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.

buaıl, *strike.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. buaılımíṛ, let us strike.
2. buaıl, strike thou.	2. buaılíð, strike ye.
3. buaıleað ṛé, let him strike.	3. buaılıðíṛ, let them strike.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buaılım, I strike.	1. buaılımíð, we strike.
2. buaılıṛ, thou strikest.	2. buaılcí, ye strike.
3. buaılıð ṛé, he strikes.	3. buaılıð, they strike.

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

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaıleann mé, *I usually strike.*

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

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Past.

1. bualeap, I struck.	1. bualeamap, we struck.
2. bualip, thou struckest.	2. bualeabap, ye struck.
3. bual pé, he struck.	3. bualeadap, they struck.

Old form of Past.

1. bualeap.	1. bualpeam or bualpiom.
2. bualip.	2. bualeabap.
3. bualeapcap.	3. bualpeaḋ, or bualpioḋ, or bualpeaḋap.

Consuetudinal Past

1. bualinn, I used to strike.	1. bualimíp, we used to strike.
2. bualċeá, thou usedst to strike.	2. bualtí, ye used to strike.
3. bualeaḋ pé, he used to strike.	3. bualiḋíp, they used to strike.

Future.

1. bualpeaḋ, I will strike.	1. bualpimíḋ, we will strike.
2. bualpip, thou wilt strike.	2. bualpiḋ, ye will strike.
3. bualpiḋ pé, he will strike.	3. bualpiḋ, they will strike.

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

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. bualpinn, I would strike.	1. bualpimíp, we would strike.
2. bualpeá, thou wouldst strike.	2. bualpiḋ, ye would strike.
3. bualpeaḋ pé, he would strike.	3. bualpiḋíp, they would strike.

INF. MOOD. Do bualaḋ, *to strike.* PART. Ag bualaḋ, *striking.*

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PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

(*The same as the Indicative Present.*)

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buailtear mé, I am struck.	1. buailtear ſinn or inn, we are struck.
2. buailtear ṫú, thou art struck.	2. buailtear ſib̈ or ib̈, ye are struck.
3. buailtear é, he is struck.	3. buailtear iad̈, they are struck.

Consuetudinal Present.

(*Same as the Indicative Present.*)

Past.

1. buailead̈ mé, I was struck.	1. buailead̈ ſinn or inn, we were struck.
2. buailead̈ ṫú, thou wast struck.	2. buailead̈ ſib̈ or ib̈, ye were struck.
3. buailead̈ é, he was struck.	3. buailead̈ iad̈, they were struck.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. buailtí mé, I used to be struck.	1. buailtí ſinn or inn, we used to be struck.
2. buailtí ṫú, thou usedst to be struck.	2. buailtí ſib̈ or ib̈, ye used to be struck.
3. buailtí é, he used to be struck.	3. buailtí iad̈, they used to be struck.

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Future.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buailfeap mé, I shall or will be struck.	1. buailfeap pinn or inn, we shall or will be struck.
2. buailfeap tú, thou shalt or wilt be struck.	2. buailfeap pib or ib, ye shall or will be struck.
3. buailfeap é, he shall or will be struck.	3. buailfeap iad, they shall or will be struck.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. bhuailfinn mé, I would be struck.	1. bhuailfinn pinn or inn, we would be struck.
2. bhuailfeá tú, thou wouldst be struck.	2. bhuailfeá pib or ib, ye would be struck.
3. bhuailfeadh sé, he would be struck.	3. bhuailfeadh iad, they would be struck.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beith 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., ar, ir, ear, or ior.

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

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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 ꝼıaꝼꞃaıġeaꞃ Aıṁıꞃġın a h-aınım ḋı, "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, Iꞃ móꞃ an ꞇ-ıonġna lıomꞃa, naċ ḋ'Oıꞃín ıaꞃꞃaꞃ Ꝼıonn mıꞃe, "It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisin Finn *seeks* (ıaꞃꞃaꞃ) 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 buaıl (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.

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Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations ım (or aım), ıṛ (or aıṛ), &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, Ɗala lṫ, ıomoṛṛo, ollṁuıġṫeaṛ longʒ leıṛ, "as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him" (instead of ollṁuıġeaḋ, *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 noċtaṛ Eıṛeṁón ɗóıḃ, "Eremon reveals to them."

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as léıġeann mé, I am in the habit of reading; léıġeaḋ ṛé, 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 ɗo or ṛo is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

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consonant is generally aspirated; as ꝺo ʒoıꞃıꝺíꞃ, 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 ꝺo or ꞃo is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as ꝺo ṙeaꞃaꞃ, I stood; ꞃo ċoꝺlaıꞃ, thou sleepedst; ꝺo molaꝺ ıaꝺ, they were praised; ꞃo buaıleaꝺ é, he was struck.

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

5. The principal of these compounds are:—

(1.) Aꞃ, whether? from an and ꞃo; as aꞃ ḃuaıl ꞃé, did he strike?

(2.) Ʒuꞃ, that, from ʒo and ꞃo; as cꞃeıꝺım ʒuꞃ ḃuaıl ꞃé, I believe that he struck.

(3.) Munaꞃ, unless, from muna and ꞃo; as munaꞃ ḃuaıl ꞃé, unless he struck.

(4.) Naċaꞃ, or na'ꞃ, or náꞃ, whether not? from naċ and ꞃo; as náꞃ ḃuaıl ꞃé, did not he strike?

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(5.) Níoꞃ, not, from ní and ꞃo; as níoꞃ ḃuaıl ꞃé, he did not strike.*

6. The particle ꞃo, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun a; as an ꝼeaꞃ ḋ'aꞃ ġeallaꞃ mo leaḃaꞃ, 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 ꝼ, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like h; thus ḋúnꝼaḋ, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

Conditional Mood.

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

2. But very often also ḋá, if, or muna, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as ḋá ḃ-ꝼaġaınn-ꞃe mo ꞃoġa, "if I would get my choice;" muna m-beıḋeaḋ ꞃé, "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 ꝼ.

Infinitive Mood.

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

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

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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 a, his; mo, my; ḃo, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as ḃá ġonaḋ, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); ḃo m'ġonaḋ, to wound me; ḃo ḃ'ġonaḋ, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by a, her; as ḃá gonaḋ, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as ḃáṗ n-gonaḋ, to wound us; ḃo ḃuṗ n-gonaḋ to wound you; ḃá n-gonaḋ, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding aḋ or eaḋ, 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 ı 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 ı); as buaıl, bualaḋ; ġoın, ġonaḋ, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by ı alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as mıll, mılleaḋ, 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.

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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.
éaʒ.	ḃ'éaʒ, to die.
ṙnáṁ.	ḋo ṙnáṁ, to swim.
ól.	ḃ'ól, to drink.
ꞇaṙṙaiṁʒ.	ḋo ꞇaṙṙaiṁʒ, to draw.
cuiṙ.	ḋo ċuṙ, to put.
ʒoil.	ḋo ʒol, to weep.
imiṙ.	ḃ'imiṙꞇ, to play.
inʒil.	ḃ'inʒilꞇ, to graze.
ḃíḟbiṙ.	ḋo ḃíḟbiṙꞇ, to banish.
ceil.	ḋo ċeilꞇ, to conceal.
ṙáʒ.	ḃ' ṙáʒḃáil, to leave.
ʒaḃ.	ḋo ʒaḃáil, to take.
ꞇóʒ.	ḋo ꞇoʒḃáil, to lift.
leaṅ.	ḋo leanaṁaiṁ, to follow.
caill.	ḋo ċailleaṁaiṁ, to lose.
oil.	ḃ'oileaṁaiṁ, to nourish.
ṙoill.	ḃ'ṙoilleaṁaiṁ to suit.
ʒluaiṙ.	ḋo ʒluaṙaċꞇ, to move.
éiṙꞇ.	ḃ'éiṙꞇeaċꞇ, to listen.

The Participle.

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

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding ꞇe or ṫe when the last vowel of the root is slender, and ꞇa or ṫa, when broad.

When the root ends in ċ, ḋ, l, ll, n, nn, ṙ, ꞇ, or ḟ (except verbs in uiḟ or iḟ), the ꞇ of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in uiḟ or iḟ, the ꞇ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations ꞇaṙ and ꞇí follow the same law.

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VI. VERBS IN uiġ, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in uiġ, or iġ, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in il, in, ir, and ir, 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 buail.

3. In buail, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter b 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 b 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 uiġ and iġ change ġ into c; 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 buail, 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 il, in, ir and ir are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as codail, sleep, codlaim,

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

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

8. Verbs in uiġ almost always form their infinitive by dropping the i and adding the usual termination aḋ; those in iġ alone (not preceded by u), retain the i and take u after it in the infinitive: as coṁaṙṫuiġ, mark; infinitive, coṁaṙṫuġaḋ; coṁaiṙliġ, advise; infinitive, coṁaiṙliuġaḋ.

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 buail and meall.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
Díṙiġ, direct.	díṙiġim.	díṙeóċaḋ.	díṙeóċainn.
Ġṙáḋuiġ, love.	ġṙáḋuiġim.	ġṙáiḋeóċaḋ.	ġṙáiḋeóċainn.
Laḃaiṙ, speak.	laḃṙaim.	laiḃeóṙaḋ.	laiḃeóṙainn.
Taṙṙuinġ, draw.	taiṙnġim.	taiṙeónġaḋ.	taiṙeónġainn.
Ḟoṙġail, open.	ḟoṙġlaim.	ḟoiṙġeólaḋ.	ḟoiṙġeólainn.
Coṙain, defend.	coṙnaim.	coiṙeónaḋ.	coiṙeónainn.
Inniṙ, tell,	inniṙim.	inneóṙaḋ.	inneóṙainn.
Díbiṙ, banish.	díbṙim.	díbeóṙaḋ.	díbeóṙainn.

11. In Munster, verbs in il, in, iṙ, and iṙ, are conjugated like those in uiġ or iġ; and the eó comes *after* the final consonant: thus díbiṙ, banish, is made in the future and conditional, díbṙeóġaḋ and díbṙeóġainn, as if the verb were díbṙiġ.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in uiġ (áṙduiġ) is given at page 65

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Synthetic Conjugation of meall, deceive.

		Active Voice.		Passive Voice.	
		Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Imperative Mood.		1. — 2. meall 3. meall-aŏ pé	meall-amaoiṙ meall-aiŏ meall-aiŏíṙ	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Indicative Mood.	Pres. Tense.	1. meall-aim 2. meall-aiṙ 3. meall-aiŏ pé	meall-amaoiŏ meall-ċaoi meall-aiŏ	meall-ċaṙ { mé / ċú / é }	meall-ċaṙ { ṁinn, inn / ṙiŏ, iŏ / iaŏ }
	Consuet. Present.	1. 2. 3. meall-ann { mé / ċú / pé }	meall-ann { ṁinn / ṙiŏ / ṙiaŏ }	Same form as the Present.	
	Simple Past.	1. ṁeall-aṙ 2. ṁeall-aiṙ 3. ṁeall pé	ṁeall-amaṙ ṁeall-aŏaṙ ṁeall-aŏaṙ	meall-aŏ { mé / ċú / é }	meall-aŏ { ṁinn, inn / ṙiŏ, iŏ / iaŏ }
	Consuet. Past.	1. ṁeall-ainn 2. ṁeall-ṫá 3. ṁeall-aŏ pé	ṁeall-amaoiṙ ṁeall-ċaoi ṁeall-aiŏíṙ	meall-ċaoi { mé / ċú / é }	meall-ċaoi { ṁinn, inn / ṙiŏ, iŏ / iaŏ }
	Future.	1. meall-faŏ 2. meall-fair 3. meall-faiŏ pé	meall-famaoiŏ meall-faiŏ meall-faiŏ	meall-far { mé / ċú / é }	meall-far { ṁinn, inn / ṙiŏ, iŏ / iaŏ }
Conditional Mood.		1. ṁeall-fainn 2. ṁeall-fá 3. ṁeall-faŏ pé	ṁeall-famaoiṙ ṁeall-faiŏ ṁeall-faŏaoiṙ	ṁeall-faiŏe { mé / ċú / é }	ṁeall-faiŏe { ṁinn, inn / ṙiŏ, iŏ / iaŏ }
Infinitive Mood, ḋo ṁeall-aŏ.				Infinitive Mood, ḋo ḃeiṫ meall-ṫa.	
Participle, aȝ meall-aŏ.				Participle, meall-ṫa.	

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Synthetic Conjugation of árdughaim, raise.

		Active Voice.		Passive Voice.	
		Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Imperative Mood.		1. — 2. árdughaim 3. árdughaidh sé	árdughaimíd árdughaidhidh árdughaidís	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Indicative Mood.	Pres. Tense.	1. árdughaimse 2. árdughair 3. árdughaidh sé	árdughaimíd árdughaidh árdughaidhe	árdughaidhear {mé, tú, é}	árdughaidhear {sinn, sibh, iad}
	Consuet. Present.	1, 2, 3. árdughaidh eann {mé, tú, sé}	árdughaidh eann {sinn, sibh, siad}	Same form as the Present.	
	Simple Past.	1. árdughaidheas 2. árdughaidhir 3. árdughaidh sé	árdughaidheamar árdughaidhabhair árdughaidheadar	árdughaidheadh {mé, tú, é}	ardughaidheadh {sinn, sibh, iad}
	Consuet. Past.	1. árdughaidhinn 2. árdughaidheá 3. árdughaidheadh sé	árdughaidhimís árdughaidh ibh árdughaidhidís	árdughaidhí {mé, tú, é}	árdughaidhí {sinn, sibh, iad}
	Future.	1. árdubhfódh-sa 2. árdubhfóidh-sir 3. árdubhfóidh sé	árdubhfóidh-sumaoid árdubhfóidh-sibh árdubhfóidh-siad	árdubhfóidh-ar {mé, tú, é}	árdubhfóidh-ar {sinn, sibh, iad}
Conditional Mood.		1. árdubhfóidh-inn 2. árdubhfóidh-tá 3. árdubhfóidh-sé sé	árdubhfóidh-simaoid árdubhfóidh-sibh árdubhfóidh-sidís	árdubhfóidh-sibh {mé, tú, é}	árdubhfóidh-sibh {sinn, sibh, iad}
Infinitive Mood, d'árdughadh.				Infinitive Mood, do beith árdughthe	
Participle, ag árdughadh				Participle, árdughthe.	

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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), tá1m, I am; (2), the assertive verb ir; (3), beirim, I give; (4), beirim, I bear; (5), fím, I see (including feicim); (6), cluinim, I hear; (7), déanaim, I do; (8), gním orním, I do; (9), deirim, I say; (10), faghaim or gheibim, I find; (11), ithim, I eat; (12), righim, I reach; (13), téidim, I go; (14), tigim, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb ir, 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, tá1m, is given.

(1.) Tá1m, *I am.*

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. bímíd, let us be.
2. bí, be thou.	2. bídíd, be ye.
3. bídeadh sé, or bíodh sé, let him be.	3. bídís, let them be.

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INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. táim, atáim, I am.	1. támaoiḋ, atámaoiḋ, we are.
2. táiṗ, atáiṗ, thou art.	2. táṫaoi, atáṫaoi, ye are.
3. tá ṗé, atá ṗé, he is.	3. táiḋ, atáiḋ, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

1. tá mé, atá mé, I am.	1. tá ṗinn, atá ṗinn, we are.
2. tá tú, atá tú, thou art.	2. tá ṗiḃ, atá ṗiḃ, ye are.
3. tá ṗé, atá ṗé, he is.	3. tá ṗiaḋ, atá ṗiaḋ, they are.

Consuetudinal Present.

1. bíḋim, I am usually.	1. bímíḋ, bíḋmíḋ, bíomaoiḋ, we are usually.
2. bíḋiṗ, thou art usually.	2. bíṫí, bíḋṫí, ye are usually.
3. bíḋeann ṗé, or bíonn ṗé, he is usually.	3. bíḋ. bíúiḋ, they are usually.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

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

1. ní ḃ-ṗuilim, I am not.*	1. ní ḃ-ṗuilmíḋ, we are not.
2. ní ḃ-ṗuiliṗ, thou art not.	2. ní ḃ-ṗuilṫí, ye are not.
3. ní ḃ-ṗuil ṗé, he is not.	3. ní ḃ ṗuiliḋ, they are not.

---

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the ḃ-ṗui were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'lim, ní'liṗ, ní'l ṗé, &c.

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Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. bíḋeaṗ, bíoṗ, I was.	1. bíḋeamaṗ, bíomaṗ, we were.
2. bíḋiṗ, bíṗ, thou wert.	2. bíḋeaḋaṗ, bíoḋaṗ, ye were.
3. bíḋ ṗé, bí ṗé, he was.	3. bíḋeaḋaṗ, bíoḋaṗ, they were.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. bíḋinn, bínn, I used to be.	1. bíḋmíṗ, bímíṗ, we used to be.
2. bíḋċeá, bíċeá, thou usedst to be.	2. bíḋċí, bíċí, ye used to be.
3. bíḋeaḋ ṗé, bíoḋ ṗé, he used to be.	3. bíḋḋíṗ, bíḋíṗ, they used to be.

Interrogative and Negative Past.

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

1. ní ṗaḃaṗ, I was not.	1. ní ṗaḃamaṗ, we were not.
2. ní ṗaḃaiṗ, thou wert not.	2. ní ṗaḃaḃaṗ, ye were not.
3. ní ṗaiḃ ṗé, he was not.	3. ní ṗaḃaḋaṗ, they were not.

Future.

1. beiḋeaḋ, I shall be.	1. beiḋmíḋ, we shall be.
2. beiḋiṗ, thou shalt be.	2. beiḋiḃ, ye shall be.
3. beiḃ ṗé, he shall be.	3. beiḋiḃ, they shall be.

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Conditional Mood.

1. ḃeiḋinn, I would be.
2. ḃeiḋṫeá, thou wouldst be.
3. ḃeiḋeaḋ ṡé, or ḃeiṫ ṡé, he would be.

1. ḃeiḋmíṡ, we would be.
2. ḃeiḋṫí, ye would be.
3. ḃeiḋíṡ, they would be.

Infinitive Mood.

Ḋo ḃeiṫ, *to be.*

Participle.

Aȝ beiṫ, *being.*

1. Tá 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 (ḃ-ꝑuilim), and a form in the past tense for the same (ꝓaḃaṡ). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms ḃ-ꝑuilim and ꝓaḃaṡ are used only:—

(*a.*) After negative and interrogative particles; as ní ḃ-ꝑuil ṡé tinn, he is not sick; ní ꝓaiḃ mé ann ṡin, I was not there: an ḃ-ꝑuil ꝑíon in ḃaṡ lonȝaiḃ? "Is there wine in your ships?" An ꝓaḃaiṡ aȝ an ȝ-caṡṡaiȝ? "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? O naċ ḃ-ꝑuil ḋul uaiḋ aȝam, "since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); an ḃ-ꝑuil a ꝑ̇ioṡ aȝat ꝑéin, a Ꝑhinn? ní ꝑ̇uil, aṡ Ꝑionn, "'Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?' 'It is not,' says Finn."

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

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(*b.*) After ʒo, that; as ḋeiṙim ʒo ḃ-ƒuil ṙé ṙlán, 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 eṙeuḋ é an ƒṙeaʒṙa ṫaḃaṙƒaiṙ aṙ Ḋhia, aʒ a ḃ-ƒuil ƒioṙ ḋo loċṫ? "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "*with whom* is a knowledge"); a ḃ-ƒuil ó Aṫ-cliaṫ ʒo h-Oileán móṙ an Ḃhaṙṙaiġ, "*all that* is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oileán mór an Bharraigh;" ḋo ḃeiṙmíḋ aṙ m-bṙiaṫaṙ naċ beaʒ linn a m-beuṙam ʒo Ƒionn ḋioḃ, "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 maṙ an ʒ-céaḋna ḃíoṙ (or ḃíḋeaṙ) an báṙ an oiṙċill ḋo ṙíoṙ aṙ an ḋuine; "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 ṙaiḃ tú aʒ an ʒ-Caṙṙaiʒ? Ḋo ḃíoṙ aʒ an ʒ-Caṙṙaiʒ, "Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick."

6. The letter a is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: atá instead of tá, &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

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as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of buailtear mé, I am struck, we can say tá mé buailte: for do buaileaḋ mé, I was struck, do b̈í mé buailte, &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 buḋ, it was; as ba mé, it was I.

Future Tense.

buḋ or b̈ur, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

bad, 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 gur, that, it is often made ab, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as creiḋim gur ab é atá tinn, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: mearuim dá réir rin, gur ab dá b̈liaġain agur ṗiċe rul ruġaḋ Abraham ṫánic Parṫolón i n-Eirinn, "I think, according to that

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

6. Very often gur ab is shortened by omitting the a; as creidim gur 'bé, &c.; and sometimes the b is joined to gur, as creidim gurb é, &c.

7. After má, if, the i is omitted, as má'r fíor é, if it be true; and in this case the r is often joined to the má; as már fíor é: már maith leat a bheith buan, caith fuar agus teith, "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 bha is shortened to b or bh alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as laoch d'ár bh'ainm Lir, or laoch dabh ainm Lir, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, laoch do a ro ba ainm Lir, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, rá, 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: rá thréanfear an Ceat ro, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" ir í (Banba) ra bean do Mhac Coill, d'ar bh'ainm dilior Eathúr, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" ór é an reoitbéarla rá teanga coitcheann ran Scitia an tráth do thiall Neimheadh aithe, "since it is the Scotic language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. For the distinction between tá 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.

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(3.) bheirim, *I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tabhramaoir.
2. tabair.	2. tabhraidh.
3. tabhradh fé.	3. tabhradaoir.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present:	bheirim, tabhraim, or tugaim.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Consuet. Pres.:	bheirean.	
Past:	thugar.	
Consuet. Past:	bheirinn, thugainn.	
Future:	bhéarfaidh, tabharfaidh.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	bhéarfainn, thabharfainn.	

INFINITIVE; do thabairt. PARTICIPLE; ag tabairt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE; beirtear, tabartar, tugtar, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	beirtear, tugtar.	mé, tú, é, &c.
Past:	tugadh.	
Consuet. Past:	beirtí'dhe, thugtaidhe.	
Future:	bhéarfar, tabharfar.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	bhéarfaidhe, thabharfaidhe.	

INFINITIVE; do beith tabhartha, do beith tugtha.

PARTICIPLE; tabhartha, tugtha.

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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, beirim (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.) beirim, *I bear.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. beirimíd.
2. beir.	2. beirídh.
3. beireadh fé.	3. beiridís.

Indicative Mood.

First Person Singular.

Present:	beirim.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Consuet. Present:	beireann.	
Past:	rugar.	
Consuet. Past:	beirinn.	
Future:	béarrad.	
Conditional Mood:	béarrainn.	

Infinitive; do bhreith. Participle; ag breith.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood; beirtear mé, tú, é, &c.

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INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	beiṙṫeaṙ.	Mé, ṫú, é, &c.
Past:	ṙuʒaḋ.	
Consuet. Past:	b̈eiṙṫí.	
Future:	béaṙḟaṙ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	b̈éaṙḟaiḋe.	

INFINITIVE; ḋo b̈eiṫ beiṙṫe. PARTICIPLE; beiṙṫe.

(5.) Ċím, *I see.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ḟeicimíṡ, ḟeicimíḋ.
2. ḟeic.	2. ḟeicíḋ.
3. ḟeiceaḋ ṡé.	3. ḟeicidíṡ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ċíḋim, ċím, ḟeicim.	1. ċíḋmíḋ, ċímíḋ, ḟeicimíḋ
2. ċíḋiṙ. ċíṙ, ḟeiciṙ.	2. ċíḋṫí, ċíṫí, ḟeicṫí.
3. ċíḋiḋ ṡé, ċiḋ ṡé, ḟeiciḋ ṡé.	3. ċíḋiḋ, ċíḋ, ḟeiciḋ.

Consuet. Pres.; ċíḋeann, ḟeiceann, mé, ṫú, ṡé, &c.

Past.

1. ċonnaṙcaṙ.	1. ċoncamaṙ.
2. ċonnaṙcaiṙ.	2. ċoncab̈aṙ.
3. ċonnaiṙc ṡé.	3. ċoncaḋaṙ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	ċíḋinn or ċínn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ċíḋḟeaḋ or ċíḟeaḋ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ċíḋḟinn, or ċíḟinn, or ḟ̇eicḟinn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; ḋ'ḟ̇eicṡin or ḋ'ḟ̇eicṡinṫ.

PARTICIPLE; aʒ ḟeicṡin or aʒ ḟeicṡinṫ.

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PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; ḟeicṫeaṗ, mé, ṫú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense:	ċíṓṫeaṗ or ḟeicṫeaṗ.	mé, ṫú, é, &c.
Past:	connaṗcaṫ.	
Past. Consuet.:	ċíṓṫí or ḟeicṫí.	
Future:	ċíṓḟeaṗ or ḟeicḟeaṗ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ċíṓḟiṓe or ḟeicḟiṓe.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; ḋo ḃeiṫ ḟeicṫe. PARTICIPLE; ḟeicṫe

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

2. Ḟeicim or ḟaicim, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of ċíṓim, is itself regular.

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

(6.) Cluimim. *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. ċuaḷaṗ.	1. ċualamaṗ.
2. ċualaiṗ.	2. ċualaḃaṗ.
3. ċualaiḋ ṗé.	3. ċualaḋaṗ.

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; ḋo ċloṗ or ḋo ċloiṗṫin.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE; aġ cloṗ or aġ cloiṗṫin.

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

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(7.) déanaim, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. . . .	1. déanam, déanamaoir, déanamaoid.
2. déan.	2. déanaid.
3. déanadh sé.	3. déanaidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. rugeas, dearnas, déanas.	1. rugeamar, dearnamar, déanamar.
2. rugir, dearnais, déanais.	2. rugeabhar, dearnabhar, déanabhar.
3. rug sé, dearnadh sé, déan sé.	3. rugeadar, dearnadar, déanadar.

First Person Singular.

Present:	déanaim.
Consuet. Pres.:	déanann.
Consuet. Past:	gnídinn, dearnainn, déanainn.
Future:	déanfad.
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	déanfainn.

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

INFINITIVE MOOD; do déanamh or do déanadh.

PARTICIPLE; ag déanamh or ag déanadh.

PASSIVE VOICE.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	déantar.
Past:	rugeadh, dearnadh.
Consuet. Past:	gnídí.
Future:	déanfar.
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	déanfaidhe.

} Mé, tú, é, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD; do beith déanta. PARTICIPLE; déanta.

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

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(8.) Gnim or nim, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

First Person Singular.

Present:	Gnim or nim.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Past:	Gnídeap or nídeap.	
Consuet. Past:	Gnídinn or nídinn.	

PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

Present:	Gnítear or nítear.	mé, tú, é, &c.
Consuet. Past:	Gnítí or nítí.	

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 g (Gnim and nim). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of déanaim.

(9.) deirim, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. abram, abramaoir, abramaoid.
2. abair.	2. abraid.
3. abradh fé.	3. abradaoir.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. deirim.	1. deirimíd.
2. deirir.	2. deirtí
3. deir sé.	3. deirid.

Consuet. Pres. deireann me, tú, sé, &c.

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Past.

1. ḋuḃṛaṛ.	1. ḋuḃṛamaṛ.
2. ḋuḃṛaiṛ.	2. ḋuḃṛaḃaṛ.
3. ḋuḃaiṛṫ ṛé.	3. ḋuḃṛaḋaṛ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past :	ḋeiṛinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future :	ḋéaṛfaḋ.	
Conditional Mood :	ḋéaṛfainn.	

Infinitive Mood ; ḋo ṛáḋ. Participle ; aʒ ṛáḋ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood ; abaṛṫaṛ mé, ṫú, é, &c.

Indicative Mood.

Present :	ḋeiṛṫeaṛ.	Mé, ṫú, é, &c.
Past :	ḋuḃṛaḋ.	
Consuet Past :	ḋeiṛṫí.	
Future :	ḋéaṛfaṛ.	
Conditional Mood :	ḋéaṛfaiḋe.	

Infinitive Mood ; ḋo ḃeiṫ ṛáiḋṫe, ḋo ḃeiṫ ṛáiṫe.

Participle ; ṛáiḋṫe, ṛáiṫe.

1. The verb abṛaim, I say, from which ḋeiṛim borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

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

3. The letter a is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis ; as a ḋeiṛim for ḋeiṛim, I say ; a ḋuḃaiṛṫ ṛé for ḋuḃaiṛṫ ṛé, he said.

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(10.) Faġaim or ġeibim, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. faġmaoir, faġmaoid.
2. faġ.	2. faġaid.
3. faġaḋ, fé.	3. faġaidir.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. faġaim or ġeibim.	1. faġmaoid or ġeibmid.
2. faġair or ġeibir.	2. faġċaiḋ or ġeibċiḋ.
3. faġaiḋ fé, or ġeib fé.	3. faġaid or ġeibid.

Past.

1. fuaras.	1. fuarasmar.
2. fuarais.	2. fuarasbar.
3. fuair fé.	3. fuarasdar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	faġainn or ġeibinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ġéaḃaḋ, ġeoḃaḋ.	
Future neg. & interrog.	ġeaḃaḋ or ḃfuiġeaḋ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ġéaḃainn, ġeoḃainn. or ḃ-faġainn, ḃ-fuiġinn	

INFINITIVE; ḋ'fáġail. PARTICIPLE; aġ fáġail.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; faġċar me, ċú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	faġċar.	Mé, ċu, é. &c.
Past:	fuaraḋ or fris.	
Consuet. Past:	ġeibċí.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ġeaḃċaiḋe, ḃ-fuiġċiḋe.	

(*Defective in Infinitive and Participle.*)

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

2. The past tense (ꝼuaꞃaꞃ, &c.) may or may not take the particle ḋo or ꞃo; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) Iċim, *I eat.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

Future Indicative:	ioꞃꝼaḋ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ioꞃꝼainn.	

1. The past indicative is either the regular form ḋ'iċeaꞃ, &c., or the irregular ḋuaꞃ (with the usual terminations:—ḋuaiꞃ, ḋuaiḋ ꞃé, &c.)

2. The infinitive is ḋ'iċe.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) Riġim, *I reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ꞃiġmíꞃ.
2. ꞃiġ.	2. ꞃiġíḋ.
3. ꞃiġeaḋ ꞃé.	3. ꞃiġiḋíꞃ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. ꞃiġim	1. ꞃiġmíḋ.
2. ꞃiġiꞃ	2. ꞃiġċí.
3. ꞃiġ ꞃé.	3. ꞃiġiḋ.

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Past.

1. ɲánʒaɲ.	1. ɲánʒamaɲ.
2. ɲánʒaiɲ.	2. ɲánʒaḃaɲ.
3. ɲáinɪʒ ɲé, ɲánaɪʒ ɲé.	3. ɲánʒaḋaɲ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet Past:	ɲiġinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ɲiġfeaḋ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ɲiġfinn.	

INFINITIVE; ḋo ɲiaċtain or ḋo ɲoċtain.

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.

Past:	ɲiaċtaɲ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ɲiaċtfaḋ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ɲiaċtfainn.	

(13.) Téiḋim, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. téiḋmíɲ.
2. téiḋ.	2. téiḋiḋ.
3. teiḋeaḋ ɲé.	3. téiḋḋíɲ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. téiḋim.	1. téiḋmíḋ.
2. téiḋiɲ.	2. téiḋṫíḋ or téiṫiḋ.
3. téiḋ ɲé.	3. téiḋiḋ.

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Past Tense.

1. ċuaðar.	1. ċuaðmar.
2. ċuaðair.	2. ċuaðbar.
3. ċuaið ré.	3. ċuaðdar.

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

1. ní ðeaċar	1. ní ðeaċamar.
2. ni ðeaċair.	2. ní ðeaċaðar.
3. ní ðeaċaið ré.	3. ní ðeaċaðar.

First Person Singular.]

Consuet Past:	ċéiðinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	racfad or racaḋ.	
Conditional Mood:	racfainn or racainn.	

Infinitive; do ḋul. Participle; ag ḋul.

(14.) tigim, *I come.*

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tigmís or tigeam.
2. tar or tig.	2. tigiḋ.
3. tigeaḋ ré.	3. tigiḋís.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense.

1. tigim.	1. tigmíḋ.
2. tigir.	2. tigíḋ, tigéiḋ
3. tig ré	3. tigio.

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Past Tense.

1. ċáŋgar.	1. ċáŋgamar.
2. ċáŋgair.	2. ċáŋgabar.
3. ċáimic ré.	3. ċáŋgadar.

First Person Singular

Consuet Past	ċiġinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ciocfad.	
Conditional Mood:	ċiocfainn	

Infinitive; do ċeaċt. Participle; ag ceaċt.

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

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

Dir or ar, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth;* as, air ré, says he: creud do déunfair dam? ar Diarmaid: "'What wilt thou do for me?' says Diarmaid;" déan eólur dúinn mar a b-fuil ré, ar siad, "'give knowledge to us where he is,' said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written ol.

At bad, he (or she) died.

Dar, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). Dar liom, methinks or methought; dar leat it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: Do ric ré, dar liom, mar an ġaoiċ, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

Dligċeap, it is lawful, it is allowed.

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Ðuſ, to know; ċaınıc ſé ðuſ an ſaıḃ ſıaðann, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Ꝑeaðaſ, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: ní ḟeaðaſ mé, I do not know; ní ḟeaðaſ ſé, he does not know; an ḃ-ꝑeaðſaḃaſ? do ye know?

Ní ꝑuláıſ, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); ní ꝑuláıſ ḋam a ḃeıċ aıſ ſıuḃal, "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 ʒo, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly;* as boſb, fierce; ʒo boſb, 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 ḃ-ꝑað, far off, in space or time.

Aḃuſ, on this side. (See ċall.)

A ð-ꝛoſaċ, at first, in the beginning.

A ð-ꝛuaıð, northwards.

A ʒ-ċéaðóıſ, immediately.

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A g-céin, far off.
A g-coinnioc, always.
Ag sin, there.
Ag so, here.
Ag súd, yonder.
Air air, back, backward. (See air éigin.)
Air ball, on the spot, instantly.
Air bit, at all.
Air bun, on foundation: cur air bun, to found, to institute.
Air ceana, in like manner; in general.
Air coidce, for ever.
Air éigin, with difficulty; perforce:—air air no air éigin, by consent or by force: *nolens volens; willy nilly.*
Air g-cúl, backwards, back: cur air g-cúl—the opposite to cur air bun—to put back, to abolish.
Air leit, apart, separately.
Air mod, in a manner; so that.
Air son, for the sake of.
Air uaithib, at times; sometimes.
Amach, out of, outside.
Aithain, alone, only.
Amárach, to-morrow.
Amuigh, outside.
Aithuil, like, as.
An airde, on high.
Ané, yesterday.
Anfor, from below, upwards.
Ann éinfeacht, together.
Ann sin, there.
Ann so, here.
Ann súd, yonder.
A ndeap, southward.
Anaice, near.
Anall, to this side; hither.
A ngar, near.
Aniu, to-day.
Anois, now.
Anonn, to that side; thither.
An tan, when.
Anuas, from above, downwards.
Aréir, last night.
Araith, ever.
Arís, again.
Artseach, in, into.
Artuigh, in, inside.
Beag nach, little but; almost.
Cá h-ar, cad ar, canar, from what? whence?
Cá mhéid, how many? how much?
Cáit, cá h-áit, cia áit, what place?
De bhrigh, because.
Do shíor, always.
Eadon, that is; *i.e.; id est.*
Fá, gives an adverbial meaning to some words.
Fá chéadóir, immediately.
Fá deoigh, at last.
Fá dó, twice.
Fá seach, by turns; respectively.
Fa chís, thrice.
Go brách, for ever (lit. to [the] judgment).
Go deimhin, verily; truly; indeed.
Go d-tí, unto.
Go fóill, yet; awhile.
Go h-iomlán, altogether.
Go léir, entirely.
Go leór, enough.
Iomorro, however, moreover, indeed.
Maille re, together with.
Mar an g-céadna, likewise; in like manner.

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Mar aon le, together with.
No go, until.
O foin ale, from that time out.
Or cionn, above.
Sios, downwards.
Soir, eastwards.
Suas, upwards.
Thall, on the other side; beyond. (See Abus.)
Tamall, awhile.
Tuille eile, besides; moreover.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:—

A or n, in; as a mbaile, in the town.
As, out of, or from (unusual); as a Mumain, out of Munster.
Ag or aig, at, with.
Air, ar, upon.
Ann, in. This takes s before the article. (See page 17.)
As, out of.
Chum, to or towards, for the purpose of.
Dar, used in swearing, equivalent to *by:* dar mo bhriathar, "by my word."
Do, to. De, from, off, of.
Eadar, the same as idir.
Fá or faoi, under.
Gan, without.
Go, towards, along with. It takes s before the article an; as gus an t-tig, to the house.
I, the same as a.
Iar, after. It takes s before the article (an), and becomes iarr.
Idir, between.
Im, the same as um.
Le or re, with. It takes s before the article (an), and then becomes leis or ris.
Mar, like, as.
O, from.
Os, over, above.
Re, ria, before. It takes s before the article (an).
Seach, beyond, besides.
Tar, over, across. It takes s before the article (an), and then becomes tarr.
Tre, through. It takes s before the article, and then becomes tres.
Trid, the same as tre.
Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalgamated 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

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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-fiadhnaise, in presence of.
A b-fochair, with, along with.
A d-taobh, in regard to, concerning.
A d-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*): rith a g-coinne a chéile, "they run against each other:" do chuaid se a g-coinne a athar, he went for his father.
A g-cois, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to cois: cois na Brighde, "beside the (river) Bride."
A h-aithle, after: a h-aithle na laoithe sin, "after that lay."
Ameasg, amongst: síos ameasg na g-coillteadh, "down amongst the woods."
A láthair, in presence of.
Air aghaidh, forward, over against, opposite: dul air aghaidh, to go forward, to progress: air aghaidh na gaoithe, opposite (exposed to) the wind.
Air bhéalaibh, in front of, opposite: do luighdis do ghnáth a n-iomdaibh ar bhealaibh a n-athar, "they used to lie, customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir).
Air bun, on foundation.
Air chéann, for (in the phrase to go for); as a dubhairt Naise le h-Ardán dul air chenn Fergusa, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus."
Air feadh, through, throughout, during: air feadh bliadhna, "during a year."
Air fud, thoughout, amongst air fud na d-tonn, amongst the waves.
Air g-cúl, behind.
Air son, for the sake of, although.
A n-diaidh, after: a n-diaidh a chéile, after one another, one after another.
Cois, contracted from a g-cois.
Dála, as to: dála Blánaide, "as to Blanaid."
D'éis, after: d'éis na dílinne, "after the deluge."
D'ionnsaighidh or d'ionnsaighe, towards: ghluaiseas romhe d'ionnsaighe a luinge, "he goes forward towards his ship."

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Dodum, towards.
Do réir, according to.
Go nuige, unto, until.
Go d-tí, to, unto, as far as: siubail go d-tí an doras, walk to the door.
Iomdúra, as to: iomdúra Fhinn, "as to Finn."
Fá dtuairim, towards.
Láimh le or láimh re, near, by, beside: suidh láimh liom, sit near me; láimh re Beannaid Boirche, "beside Beanna Boirche."
Or cionn, over, above: Gnádhuigh Dia ór cionn gach uile nidh, "love God above all things:" do éirigh 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."
Tar ceann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.
Tar air, backwards; same as air air.
Tar éis, after; the same as déis: tar éis na Samhna, "after the Samhain (1st of November)."
Timcheall, about, around: teacht timcheall Dhiarmada, "to go around Dermat."
Or comhair, in presence of, before the face of: ór comhair 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 conjunctional 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 meanin are not quite obvious.

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Aċt, but, except.
Aċt ċeana, but however.
Agur, and; often contracted to a'r, ar, and 'r.
Air an aḋḃar rin, wherefore.
An, an interrogative particle: an ḃ-fuil rí rlán? Is she well?
Ar, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See. p. 58.
bíoḋ, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb táim.
Cíḋ: see gíḋ.
Cóṁ, as.
Ḋá, if: sometimes written ḋá mo.
Do ḃriġ, because.
Do ċum go, in order that.
Fór, yet, moreover.
Giḋ or giḋeaḋ, although.
Go, that.
Gonaḋ aire rin, wherefore.
Gur, that: formed of the preceding and ro: see p. 58.
Ioná, iná: see ná.
Ionnur go, in order that, so that.
Má, if.
Má tá go, although that.
Mar, as: see muna.
Muna, if not, unless; often written mur, and even (corruptly) mar.
Maireaḋ, if so, well then.
Mar rin, mar ro, in that manner, in this manner: thus.
Ná, than: see ioná.
Ná, nor, not.
Nó, or: often pronounced nú in Munster.
O, since, seeing that, because.
O ṫárla, since, whereas.
Oir, because.
Sul, before.
Uime rin, 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:—

A, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O.
Ar truaġ, alas! what pity!
Eirt, hush! list!
Faraor, faraoir, alas!
Faraoir geur, alas! O sharp sorrow!
Féaċ, see! behold!
Mairg, woe! O sad!
Monáire, O shame
Monuar, alas! woe is me!
Mo ṫruaġ: see ar truaġ.
Oċ, uċ, alas!
Oċón, or uċón, alas! written oċán or uċán in old writings.
Olagón, alas!

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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.

Air or eir, back or again, like English *re:* as ioc, payment; airioc, repayment, restitution: eirġe, rising; eireirġe resurrection.

Aṁ or aiṁ, a negative particle, like English *un:* as réiḋ, open, clear; aiṁréiḋ, difficult, rough.

An, an intensitive particle: as luaċġáireaċ, joyful; as anluaċġáireaċ, overjoyed.

An or ain, a negative particle, like English *un:* as tráṫ time; antráṫ, untimely: mían, desire; ainmían, evil desire.

Aṫ, a reiterative, like English *re:* as ráḋ, a saying; aṫráḋ, a repetition.

Aṫ has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as cuma, a form; aṫcumaḋ, to deform, to destroy; rioġaḋ, to crown or elect a king; aiṫrioġaḋ, to dethrone.

ban, feminine (from bean, a woman); as eaċlaċ, a messenger; ban-eaċlaċ or bain-eaċlaċ, a female messenger.

biṫ or bioṫ, lasting, constant: as beó, living; biṫbeó, everlasting.

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Cóṁ, equal: English *co* or *con:* as aimṡeaṛ, time; cóṁ-aimṡeaṛaċ, contemporary.

Deaġ, deiġ, good: as blaṡ, taste; deaġb̆laṡ, good or pleasant taste.

Dí, dío, a negative, like English *dis:* as céillid̆e, wise; dí-ċéillid̆e, foolish: ceann, a head; díċeannad̆, to behead.

Dṛoċ, dṛoiċ, bad or evil: as obaiṛ, a work; dṛoċ-obaiṛ an evil work.

Do and ṡo are opposites, as are also often the letters d and ṡ. Do denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality: as ḟaicṡeanaċ or ṡoḟaicṡeanaċ, visible; do-ḟaicṡeanaċ, invisible: dolár, tribulation; ṡólár, comfort: donaṡ, ill luck; ṡonaṡ, good luck: do-d̆éunta, hard to be done; ṡo-d̆éunta, easy to be done: dub̆aċ, sad; ṡub̆aċ, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis: as dainġean, strong; éadainġean, weak: cóiṛ, just; éaġcóiṛ, injustice: tṛom, heavy; éadtṛom, light.

Eaṡ, a negative: as onóiṛ, honour; eaṡonóiṛ, dishonour: ṡlán, healthful; eaṡlán, sick: caiṛdeaṡ, friendship; eaṡ-caiṛdeaṡ, enmity.

Ḟo, under: as duine, a man; ḟod̆uine, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Ḟṛiṫ, against, back, *contra:* as buille, a stroke; ḟṛiṫb̆uille, a back stroke: bac, a hook; ḟṛioṫb̆ac, a *back-hook*, a barb.

Il, iol, many: as iomad, much; iliomad, sundry, various: daṫ, a colour; ioldaṫaċ, many coloured: ḟaob̆aṛ, an edge; iolḟaob̆aiṛ, many-edged weapons.

In, ion, fit: as déunta, done; indéunta, fit to be done: ṛaid̆te, said; ionṛaid̆te, fit to be said.

Lán, full, used as an intensitive: as aid̆b̆éil, vast; lánaid̆-b̆éil, awfully vast.

Leaṫ, half: as uaiṛ, an hour; leaṫuaiṛ, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair: thus ṡúil, an eye; leaṫ-ṡúil (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, mío, a negative: as meaṡ, respect; míṁeaṡ, disrespect: cóṁaiṛle, advice; miioċóṁaiṛle, evil advice.

Neaṁ, neiṁ, a negative: as coimṡiġṫe, comprehensible; neaṁċoimṡiġṫe, incomprehensible: nid̆, a thing; neiṁ-nid̆, nothing.

Reuṁ, before, like English *pre:* as ṛaid̆te, said; ṛeuṁ ṛaid̆te, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensitive particle: as móṛ, great; ṛó-ṁóṛ, very great.

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Sáꞃ, an intensitive particle: as maiṫ, good; ꞃáꞃ-ṁaiṫ, very good.

So, ꞃoi, the opposite to ɗo, denotes apt, easy, good as ɗeaꞃb̆ṫa, proved; ꞃoiɗeaꞃb̆ṫa, easily proved.

Uꞃ or úiꞃ, an intensitive particle: as íꞃeal, low; úiꞃíꞃeal, 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.

Aċ, 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 ɗꞃaiġean, the black-thorn; ɗꞃaiġeanaċ, abounding in black-thorn: bꞃiaṫaꞃ, a word; bꞃiaṫꞃaċ, wordy, talkative.

Aċ, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as cúṁaċɗ, power: cúṁaċɗaċ, a mighty person: Connaċtaċ, a native of Connaught.

Aċt, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probity*): as caꞃṫanaċ, charitable; caꞃṫanaċṫ, charity: móꞃ and móꞃɗa, great; moꞃɗaċt, greatness.

Aiɗe, uiɗe, or iɗe, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as coꞃ, a foot; coiꞃiɗe, a walker: tiomán, drive; tiomán-aiɗe, a driver.

Aiꞃe or iꞃe, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as loꞃg, a track; loꞃgaiꞃe, a tracker: cealg, guile; cealgaiꞃe, a deceiver.

Aṁail has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly:* as ꝑlaiṫ, a prince; ꝑlaiṫeaṁail, princely.

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

Aꞃ or eaꞃ, and sometimes the letter ꞃ alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like aċt; as aoiɗinn, delightful;

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* 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.

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aoiḃneaṛ, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; ceannaṛ, headship, authority.

bhaṛ and ḃṛe have a collective or cumulative sense; as ḋuille, a leaf; ḋuilleaḃaṛ, foliage: ḋaiṛ, an oak; ḋaiṛḃṛe, a place of oaks.

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

Ḋe, 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 ḋa, ḋa, and ta; as móṛ, great; móṛḋa, majestic: ꝼeaṛ, a man; ꝼeaṛḋa, manly: míle, a champion; míleaḋta, champion-like, knightly.

E denotes abstract quality, like aċt; as ꝼinn, fair or white; ꝼinne, fairness: boȝ, soft; buiȝe, 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. bóṫaṛ, a road; bóṫaiṛín (*bohereen*), a little road: *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Laċ, naċ, ṛaċ, taċ, tṛaċ, have all the same meaning as aċ, namely, full of, abounding in; as bṛiṛ, break; bṛiṛleaċ, a breach, a complete defeat: muc, a pig; muclaċ, a piggery: luaċaiṛ, rushes; luaċaṛnaċ, a rushy place: boȝ, a bog or soft place; boȝṛaċ, a place full of bogs: coill, a wood; coilltеaċ, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

Mhaṛ means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly;* as bṛiġ, power; bṛioġṁaṛ, powerful.

Oȝ, a diminutive termination; as cíaṛ, black; cíaṛoȝ, a black little animal (a clock): ȝaḃal, a fork; ȝaḃalóȝ, a little fork.

Oiṛ, or ḋóiṛ, or tóiṛ, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper;* as buail, strike; buailteóiṛ, thresher: coinneal, a candle; coinnleóiṛ, a candlestick ṛpeal, a scythe; ṛpealaḋóiṛ, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like ḃaṛ; as beul, the mouth; bélṛe, language, speech.

Seaċ is used as a sort of feminine termination; as ȝall, an Englishman; ȝaillṛeaċ, an Englishwoman: óinṛeaċ, a female fool (from an old root ón, whence the old word ón mit, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amaḋán).

Taċ and tṛaċ: see laċ.

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PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as ʒuċ ʒaḋaiṛ, the voice of a hound; i ḃ-ꝑlaiċioṛ Eṛeann, "in the sovereignty of Erin;" báṛṛ na h-inṛe, 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 ṗiṛ, 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 i ʒ-cṛoċaiḃ báiṛ, "Conall in the forms *of death*;" a n-ḋóláṛ bṛóiḋe a'ṛ 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.

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4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as ꞅlıoċꞇ Ʒhaoıḋıl, "the race of Gaodhal;" cloıḋeaṁ Mhanannaın, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, ḋ and ꞇ often resist aspiration (p. 34); as Eıꞅe ınġean Ḋealḃaoıṫ, "Eirè, 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 Ḋaınʒen ṁac n-Uıꞅneaċ, "the fortress *of* [*the*] *sons* of Usna;" buıḋean ċuꞅaḋ, "a company of knights;" ḋıaꞅ ḃan, "two women" (or rather "a pair of women").

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipsis sometimes occurs; as naoı naonḃaꞅ ḋo ḃí aʒ ꞇeaċꞇ ḋ'ıaꞅꞅaıḋ cíoꞅa aʒuꞅ cána ḃ-ꝼeaꞅ n-Eıꞅıonn, "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 Nuaḋa Aıꞅʒıoḋláṁ mac Eaċꞇaıġ mıc Eaḋaꞅlaıṁ, "Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;" na ḋ-ꞇꞅí ḃ-Ꝼınneaṁna, mac Eoċaıḋ, "of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad."

Here, in the first example, Nuaḋa is nominative, and so is mac, which is in apposition to it; Eaċꞇaıġ is genitive, and so is the next word, mıc, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, Ꝼınneaṁna 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, ꝼáınnıḋe buıḋe óꞅḋa maꞅ

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b̆ıḋeaḋ ar Mháıre, bean Sheaġaın an ṗíġeaḋóra, "yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of John (the son of) the weaver;" ṫaınıc rıġ Chıarruıḋe luaċra ḋ'ṗıor a ċoṁḋalta, eaḋon, Cıan mac Oılıolla, "the King of Kerry-Luachra came to visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of Oilioll: ḋo ṫrıall (Orcar) a ġ-coınne Mhearġaıġ ṁıre, an trean leoṁan "Oscar went to meet the furious Meargach, *the strong lion.*"

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between Mháıre and bean, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after ar), the latter nominative (its dative would be mnaoı, p. 29). In the second example ċoṁḋalta is genitive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, p. 112), and Cıan, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be Céın). In the last example Mhearġaıġ is genitive, and leoṁan, 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, ṗáınne óır, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as ṗear ḋlıġe, 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, noċtuıḋ an ṗuıreann rın, "that company disclose;" tanġaḋar an b̆uıḋean ċuraḋ rın ḋo láṫaır Phınn, aġur ḋo b̆eannuıġ rıaḋ ḋo, "that *company* of knights *came* to the presence of Finn, and *they* saluted him."

The personal nouns from ḋıar to ḋeıċneab̆ar, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as ḋo b̆aḋar an ḋıar rın ġo h-ımrearnaċ, "that pair were at strife."

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10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take ɗe with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as ʒaḋaɾ ɗ'áɾ nʒaḋaɾaiḃ, "a hound of our hounds;" aon ċaoɾ ɗioḃ, "one berry of them;" ʒaċ ɗuine ɗe'n ṗobul, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from ɗiaɾ to ɗeiċneaḃaɾ inclusive (p. 39,) and also ʈeóɾa, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as ɗiaɾ ḃan, "two (of) women;" a ṫɾiúɾ mac aʒuɾ a ɗ-ʈɾiuɾ ban, "his three sons and their three wives;" ʈeóɾa ban, "three women;" naonḃaɾ ʈaoiɾeaċ, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take ɗe with the dative as in last rule; as naoi naonḃaɾ ɗo ṁaoɾaiḃ na ḃ-Ƒóṁoɾaċ, "nine times nine *of the stewards* of the Fomorians:" mo ḃíɾ mac, mo ḃíɾ ɗ'ƒeaɾaiḃ, "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 ƒeaɾ, the man; na ciɾce, 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, aoiɾ an ɗoṁain, not, an aoiɾ an ɗoṁain.

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 ʈ-oiɗe múinʈe, the teacher; má ɗo ḃeiɾ ʈú an oiɾeaɗ ɾin ɗúinn 'ɾan ló ɾo na n-ɗeóɾ, "if thou givest

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so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both ló and ðeóṛ. Tanʒaðaṛ aṛíṛ i n-Eiṛinn an ṛlioċt ṛo Shimeon Bhṛic, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before ṛlioċt, 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 teaċ m'aṫaṛ, not an teaċ m'aṫaṛ.

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 ƒeaṛ ṛin, that man, literally "the man that;" na mná úð, 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 Caṫṛaċ Ƒuṛṛa iṛin Ƒṛainc, ðéuʒ, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" Cṛuaċa na h-Eiṛeann, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" tuaiṛceaṛt na h-Aṛia, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as an t-Oṛcaṛ áġ, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb iṛ (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 iṛ maiṫ an ƒeaṛ é, 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-ocṛuṛ, the hunger; tṛí niò ðo ċím:—an peacaò, an báṛ, a'ṛ an ṗían, "three things I see, *the* sin, *the* death, and *the* pain."

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CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after ɗe or the genitive; as (dative after ɗe):—ıɗıꞃ ɗ̇á ḃaꞃaıle lán ɗe leann, "between two barrels full of ale;" ꞇá mé lán ɗo náıꞃe, "I am full of shame;" móꞃán ɗ'uaıꞃlıḃ, "many of nobles:" (genitive):—lán a ɗ̇uıꞃn, "the full of his fist;" an ꞃaıḃ móꞃán aıꞃʒıɗ aıʒe, "had he much *of money?*" cꞃaoḃ ɗꞃaoıġın aʒuꞃ a lán áıꞃneaɗ uıꞃꞃe, "a branch of blackthorn and its full *of sloes* on it."

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes ná (or ıná or ıoná) before the noun which follows it; as ıꞃ bınne a ceól ná lon 'ꞃná ꞃmól, "sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush."

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has ɗe ("of it") after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then ná is not used; as naċ bu ꝼeıꞃꞃɗe ɗ̇óıḃ é, "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 caḃlaċ móꞃ, "a great fleet."

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

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2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as caol-ḟear, "slender man;" mór ḟairrge, "great sea;" ḋub̈-ċarraig, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: ḋeaġ, good; ḋroċ, evil; ḟíor, true; nuaḋ, new; rean, old; tuaṫ, 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 Sliab̈ aḋb̈al-mór Luaċra, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" Eaṁuin ṁín áluinn Maċa, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as ḟear maiṫ, a good man; rgéul na mná móire, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); ar an aiḋb̈éir ionganṫaiġ, "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 agur ḟear maiṫ, a good woman and man; ḟear agur bean ṁaiṫ, 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,

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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 uaiſle, "great nobles;" do ṁór uaiſliḃ, "to [the] great nobles;" bán ċnoic Eiſeann, "the fair hills of Erin;" luaṫ ḃaſca, swift barks; ꝼíoſ ſgeul, "a true story;" ꝼíoſ ſgeulta, "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 Deiſdſe an Duiḃ-ṡleiḃe, "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" óig-ḃean, 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 gáiſe na n-óig-ꝼ̇eaſ, "the laughter of the young men;" an t-árd-ollaṁ ſin, "that chief professor;" an t-ſean-ḃean ḃoċt, "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 bſeáġ, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

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by the verb ıṙ, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as ıṙ bṗeáġ 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 ıṙ aıḃınn ḋo ċuaın acaṙ ḋo ċalaṁuıṙc acaṙ ḋo ṁaġa mínṙcoċ-aċa caeṁáılne, "delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:" aġuṙ cṙoıcne ṗéıṫeaḋ aṙ na n-ḋaṫúġaḋ ḋeaṙġ, "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 aıḃınn (modern aoıḃınn) which is asserted of them by ıṙ, is in its simple form (the plural would be aıḃınne or aıḃne). In the second example cṙoıcne is plural, while ḋeaṙġ is singular (plural ḋeaṙġa).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—Ḋo ṗıġne ṗé na bṙaıṫ ġlaṙa; ḋo ṗıġne ṗé na bṙaıṫ ġlaṙ: 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."

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CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as trí fir, three men; an dara h-áit, "in the second place."

2 Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and déag; as trí capaill déag, thirteen horses; an treas capall déag, the thirteenth horse.

3. Aon, one; dá, two; céad, first; and treas, third, cause aspiration; as aon fear, one man; dá mnaoi, two women; an treas cead, "the third occasion."

4. The numerals seacht, ocht, naoi, and deich, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with f, in which case there is no change), as seacht m-bliadna, "seven years;" ocht m-ba, "eight cows;" naoi n-aibhne, "nine rivers;" deich b-fir, "ten men."

5. The numerals trí, ceithre, cúig, fé, the ordinals (except céad and treas: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as ceithre gadhair, "four hounds."

6. Aon, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as aon lá, one day; céad ceann, a hundred heads (lit. "a hundred head," just as we say "a hundred head of cattle"); trí caogad laoch, "three times fifty heroes;" míle bean, "a thousand women."

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7. Ḋá, 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 ḋá ḟeaṛ, two men; an ḋá láiṁ, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following ḋá be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as lán a ḋá láṁ, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although ḋá 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 ḋo ġluaiṛeaḋaṛ an ḋá ċṛéiṁṁíleaḋ ṛin, "these two strong heroes went;" ṛo ġaḃ a ḋá ṛleaġ ċṛó-ḟaiṛṛinġe ċṛann-ṛeaṁṛa aṛ na ḃ-ḟoċṛuġaḋ a ḃ-ḟuil naċṛaċ neiṁe, "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 ṛleaġ, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as iṛ maiċ an ḃean í, she is a good woman; iṛ maiċ an ḟeaṛ é, he is a good man; iṛ móṛ na ḋaoine iaḋ, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

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third person singular masculine; as ḋá m-béiḋíṙ ꝼiṙ Ciṙeann an ḃaṙ n-aġaiḋ, naċ bu ꝼeiṙṙḋe ḋóiḃ 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 iṙ (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as máṙ maiṫ na leaġa ṙiḃ, aṙ éiṙíon, "'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 ṁáṫaiṙ, my mother; a ʒ-caṙbaḋ, their chariot.

3. The possessives mo, my; ḋo, thy; and a, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as mo ċeann, my head; ḋo ċoṙ, thy foot; a ṁeuṙ, 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 máṫaiṙ, her mother; a h-aṫaiṙ, her father.

5. The possessives áṙ, our; ḃaṙ, your; and a, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except ṙ, on which they exert no influence), and prefix n to vowels; as áṙ ḋ-ṫíṙ, our country; ḃaṙ m-ba, your cows; a n-aṫaiṙ, their father.

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6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as ḋom ċroiḋe, to my heart; óna ḋ-tír, 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 ṙuiḃalfar, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as an laoċ a ṁarḃ an t-aṫaċ, "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 ḃ-fuil ó Ȝhaillib buḋ ḋear, "all that is from Galway southwards;" ḋo réir a n-duḃramar, "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 r) is eclipsed; as a ré niḋ imorra dá ḋ-táinic a ḃár "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;" an ḃoiṫ ina n-iṫidír, "the tent in which they used to eat;" a duḃairt Fionn ȝo n-dionȝnaḋ (ríṫ) ȝiḋ bé nór a n-dionȝnaḋ Diarmaid í, "Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it" (here the preposition ann is understood:

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ʒıḋ bé nóſ ann a n-ḋıonʒnaḋ Ḋıaſmaıḋ 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 ſo or ḋo, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as áıt aſ ṫuıt Ḋaſa Ḋeaſʒ, "the place in which fell Dara Dearg."

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as an tíſ a ġſaḋuıġım, 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 caſa a ġſaḋuıġıḋ mé, the friend whom I love; an caſa a ġſaḋuıġeaſ mé, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as oʒlaoċ ḋo ṁuınntıſ Nín ṁıc Péıl ṫaınıc uaıḋ ḋo ḃſaṫ na Eıſıonn, "a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin." An leaḃaſ ſo ſcſıoḃ (Cambſenſıſ) ḋo ṫuaſaſʒḃaıl Eıſıonn, "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 ſo, the mark of the past tense; as an tíſ óſ ṫáınıc me, "the country from which I came" (here óſ = ó a ſo); pláıġ léſ maſḃaḋ noí míle ḋíoḃ, "a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them" (here léſ = le a ſo); an tíſ ḋá ḋ-táınıc ſé, the country to which he came (ḋá= ḋo a); lá ḋaſ comóſaḋ aonaċ le ſıʒ Eıſeann, "a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin" (ḋaſ=ḋo a ſo); ní ḃeaʒ lıomſa aſ

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ḟloinneaṗ ṗéin maṗ eiṗic, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." (Aṗ=a ṗo, in which a means "all that:" Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as an ṗeaṗ ṗin, that man; cia h-é ṗin? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb iṗ in any of its forms is understood; as ṗúd ḃaṗ g-cuid, "yonder (is) your meal;" ṗo 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 ṗeaṗ ballaċ binnḃṗiaċṗaċ úd? "Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá ḃ-ṗuil mo leaḃaṗ? where is my book? cia an laoċ úd aṗ ġualainn Ġoill? "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 caḋ aṗ cu? out of what (place art) thou? go ḋe maṗ cá tú? how do you do? (literally "like to what art thou?") cheud ṗá aṗ eiṗgeaḃaṗ, "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as ṗlán ón uile ġalaṗ, "sound from every sickness;" ḋo baṫaḋ an cine ḋaona uile go h-aon oċtaṗ, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as oṗonġ ainḃṗioṗaċ iṗ na h-uile ṁubáilciḃ, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage from Keating, uile means "all" though it precedes its noun).

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CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as do ġluaiſ Ꝑeſgus, "Fergus went;" do claoiḋeaḋ Mac Ʒaſſaiḋ, "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 ṡiuḃalꝑaſ, the person who will walk; cſeud atá annſo? what is here? Ḋeóſaiḋṫe ſíoſa ʒan ſʒiṫ ʒan ſoſ míanaid a d-tíſ 'ſ a n-dúṫċaſ, "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 aiʒel Conċoḃaſ Ḃoſaċ, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" do líon Ʒráinne an coſn, "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 laoċ a ċonaiſc mé ané, the hero *whom I saw* yesterday; cad deiſ tú? what sayest thou?

5. When the verb tá is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as táid na ſeulta ſo-lonnſaċ, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb iſ, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as ba ḃinne a ʒlóſ ná ceól na n-éun, "*her voice*

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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 tusa an tír do-aoibinn, "thou art the delightful country;" is mé Cían mac Cáinte, "I am Cian, the son of Cainte:" an tu Fionn? "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 ġluair Breas agus na draoithe fómpa, "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 cuireadar Tuatha De Danann ceó draoidheachta i n-a d-timcheall 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 re before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (leabair eile) atá re d-faicsin 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 agus go m-bíd ullamh re déanamh feille ann a chéile, "and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other."

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12. The infinitive, even without the preposition le, has often a passive signification; as Fiaċra mac Ailene tiġearna Muġḋorn do ṁarḃaḋ, "Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain" (lit. "Fiachra, &c., to slay"): agus an fear naċ tioḃraḋ (an cíos) sin uaiḋ, a ṙṙón do ḃuain óna ċeann de, "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 da m-bad naċ raċfaḋ clanna Moirne d'iarraiḋ na g-caor sin, "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.)

14. "When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign do is never prefixed; as duḃairt sé liom dul go Corcaiġ, he told me to go to Cork."

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 tangadar caḃlaċ mór do ḋéanaṁ coguiḋ, "a great fleet came *to make war*" (nom. cogaḋ, war, gen. coguiḋ); do ṁilleaḋ ċloinne Lir, "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, agus iseaḋ do ġnioḋ, dá ċuaille do ċur i d-talṁain agus ceann an t-snáiṫe do ċeangal da gaċ cuaille ḋioḃ, agus uḃall do ċur air ṁullaċ cuaille aca, "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."

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17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as ag bruiċneaḋ an óir, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); ḃo ḃí an Gaoḋal ro ag múnaḋ rcol, "this Gaodhal was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); ag ṫoċailt na talṁan, "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 céaḋra ḋroinge re reanċur, "*it* is the opinion of some historians;" ir mic ríġ go fírinneaċ iaḋ, "*they* are truly sons of a king;" agur riarraigear an ríġ cia h-iaḋ féin, "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 beaṫa an rcaraiḋe fírinne, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" ceann Ḋhiarmuḋa Uí Ḋhuiḃne an ceann úḋ, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O'Duibhne;" cia ṫusa? mire Iollan, "who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;" an fíor sin, "whether (is) that true? ní mire, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as ḋéanṫar é, it is done; buailṫear iaḋ they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

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inflection); as ṫáinic sé go Corcaiġ, he came *to Cork;* ag cois an t-sléiḃe, *at the foot* of the mountain; aiṁṁo cuid do na h-úġdaraiḃ, "some *of the authors* reckon." (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition idir generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as idir Corcaċ agus Luimneaċ, between Cork and Limerick; idir na cóigeaḃaiḃ, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions ann, go, iar, ria, le or re, and tar, take s before an, the article, the s being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as annsan leaḃar or ann san leaḃar, in the book; leis an ḃ-fear, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as do rug an tonna sis a n-aġaiḋ an ċnuic, "he brought the tun with him *against the hill*;" a ḃ-fiaḋnuise ḃ-fear n-Eirionn, "*in presence of the men* of Erin;" do ġluaiseadar clann Tuireann rompa d'ionnsuiḋe an ċaṫa, "the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle.*"

The following prepositions, ċum, towards; ḋála, as to; ḋéis, after; iomṫusa, as to; measg or ameasg, amongst; réir, according to; and timċioll, 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 I, page 95: thus the expression above, a n-aġaiḋ an ċnuic, is literally "in the face of the hill," where ċnuic is governed in the genitive by aġaiḋ, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except do, de, gan, and idir, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as ó'n g-cnoc sin, "from

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that hill;" aʒ an m-baile na h-ɪnɾe ɾ̇ɪ́aɾ, "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 aɪɾ b̈aɾɾ an ċɾoɪnn, "on the top of the tree;" ó ṁúɾaɪb̈ na Teaṁɾaċ, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: a or ɪ, ɪaɾ, and ʒo (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as a m-baile aṫa cliaṫ, in Baile-atha-cliath (Dublin); ɪaɾ n-d̈ílɪnn, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: aʒ. le, and sometimes ʒo, cause no change in the initial, and ʒan may either aspirate or not; as ɾlán le Maiġ, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" o'n ʈ-Sɪonuɪnn ɾoɪɾ ʒo ɾaɪɾɾʒe, "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 ʈɾe n-a b̈aɾaɪb̈, "*through his* hands;" an lá ʒo n-a lán ʈ-ɾoɪllɾe, "the day *with its* abundant light."

Except after do and de; as ʈab̈aɪɾ ɾéuɾ d̈á ċapall give grass to his horse; baɪn ʒeuʒ d̈'á ʒ-cɾann, 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 ċuaɪd̈ ɾe ʒo h-Albaɪn, he went to Alban (Scotland).

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PART IV.

IDIOMS.

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, "tá an leabar 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,	dod' bualadh.
	him,	do a bualadh,	dá bualadh.
	her,	do a bualadh,	dá bualadh.
	us,	do ár m-bualadh,	dár m-bualadh.
	you,	do bur m-bualadh,	(not contracted)
	them,	do a m-bualadh,	dá m-bualadh.

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These may be translated literally, "to my striking," "to their striking," &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: aȝ a b̈ualaḋ, striking him: aȝ a bualaḋ, striking her: aȝ án m-bualaḋ, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—ṫáinic mían a marb̈ṫa ḋam ꝼéin, "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: air son, for the sake ꝺ; air a ṡon, for his sake; air b̈ur son, for your sake, &c. Do ċuaiḋ Diarmaid dá h-éis, Diarmaid went after her: táinic tinneas orra ꝼein, aȝus ar a sliocṫ 'n-a n-diaiḋ, "sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them."

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: tar ais, backwards; do ċuaiḋ sé tar a ais, he went backwards; do ċuaiḋ sí tar a h-ais, she went backwards; do ċuaiḋ siad tar a n-ais, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

"To die," is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning "to find death:" the verb ꝼaġ, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, an dara bliaġain dá éis sin ꝼuair Irial bás, "the second year after that Irial *found death*;" aȝus más ann atá a n-dán daṁ bás d'ꝼáġail, "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 d'euȝ, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—A deir cuid do na seanuġdaraiḃ ȝur ab a nȝleann da loċa ꝼuair naoṁ Padruiȝ bás; bioḋ ȝo n-abraid drunȝ oile ȝurab ann

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Ardmaċa d'euȝ ſé, "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 air (on), or iar (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition do (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—ar m-beiṫ aṫa ḟada do Chormac aȝ a ḃ-ꝼeiṫioṁ, "Cormac, having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"): aȝuſ air m-beiṫ ollaṁ don luinȝ, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); aȝuſ air n-dul a luinȝ dóiḃ, "and they having gone into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"): iar m-beiṫ tréan iſ an tír dóiḃ, "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 (neart) on a thing:" the "having" being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. Ní ḃ-ꝼuil neart aȝum air an niḋ ſin, I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"). Aȝuſ a duḃairt Ȝráinne naċ raiḃ neart aice ꝼéin air, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes léiġeaſ, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as neart.

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 ċur (or do ṫaḃairt) ꝼá dearа, "to put (or bring, or give), under notice." Aȝuſ ro ċuir Mioḋaċ ꝼa n-dearа úir Inſe Tuile do ċur ꝼúiḃ, "and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you:" do ruȝ (ríġ) breaṫ báiſ air an m-breiṫeaṁ, aȝuſ ṫuȝ ꝼa dearа a ċroċaḋ "(the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

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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. Agus tainic lir róiṁe arnamáraċ, caogat cairpṫeaċ, ó Shíoṫ buiḋḃ Deirg, "and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg" (i.e., *with* fifty chariots): agus tainic boḋḃ Dearg, naoi céad fiṫċead, da n-ionnsuiġe; "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 gaḃsa ċugainn amaċ, agus ní laṁfar fuiliuġaḋ ort, "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 is aṁlaiḋ ḃí Naisi agus Déirdre, agus an ċennċaiṁ etarra, agus iad ag imirt uirre, "it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cennchaimh (a chess board) between them, *and they playing on it;* is aṁlaiḋ do ḃí Coḃṫaċ, agus é ag seargaḋ, "it is thus Cobhthach was, *and he* pining away;" cuirios sceula go bláṫnuid é féin do ḃeiṫ ann sin, "he sends word to Blanid, *he* himself *to be* there" (i.e., "that he himself was there").

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This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as do ċuir (an ċú) a ceann a n-uċt Dhiarmuda agus é ina ċodla "(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 casaḋ Fergus air Doṁnall; literally "Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall." Do casaḋ Aoiḃell na Craige léiṫe oruinn, "we met Eevel of Craglea" (lit. "Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us"): cia casfaiḋe orm aċt stuaiḋ-ḃean, "whom should I meet but the fair woman" ("who should be met on me").

The same idea is expressed by the verb ṫarla, happened: agus tárla oglaċ orrṫa ar m-bogaċ, "and they met a youth on the moor" (lit. "and a youth happened on [or to] them"): trialluid go Sliaḃ Mis go ttárla banba go n-a draoiṫiḃ orra 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.

Gion go or gion 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 Osgar, gion gur foigse mo ġaol duitse ná do Dhiarmuid O'Dhuiḃne, "'O Finn, says Oscar, 'although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O'Duibhne.'"

Although not:—do ḃéruim cóṁairle ṁaiṫ ḋíḃ, a Chlainn Uisniġ, gion go n-déntar liḃ í, "I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;" gion gur ċeárrd mná an níḋ sin, "*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, is féidir le, "it is possible with;" as is feidir l'om a ḋéanaḋ, 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 tigim, "I

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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 d-tiȝead̆ riſ an ċailleaċ d'amaſ, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); aċt nioſ doilȝe rinn iná ſin maſ atáid áſ d-trí ƒéinnid̆e ceanȝailte ináſ b̆-ƒiad̆nuiſe, aȝuſ naċ d-tiȝ rinn ſȝaoilead̆ d̆íob̆, "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 ċuireann ualaċ oſſainn naċ d-tiȝ linn a iomċaſ, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb tá or iſ is used instead of tiȝ, and also the preposition aȝ instead of le; as ó naċ liom dul ón ȝ-contab̆airt ſo, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it *is* not with me to go from this danger": here iſ is understood): ó naċ b̆-ƒuil dul uaid̆ aȝum, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:" here tá and aȝ are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word leaṫ, half: leaṫ-ċoſ, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word leaṫ is used adjectively, so that leaṫ-ċoſ 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 leaṫ-ṙúil, one eye, leaṫ-taob̆, one side, &c. Iſ aṁlaid̆ do b̆í an riġ ſin aȝuſ leaṫ-laṁ airȝid air, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word aonaſ, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like triúſ, cúiȝeaſ, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—do ṙiub̆al mé a'm aonaſ, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); do ṙiub̆al tú ad' aonaſ, thou walkedst alone: do ṙiub̆al ſí n-a h-aonaſ, "she walked alone," &c.; am aonaſ ſeal a ſiub̆al b̆id̆eaſ, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" tá mé liom ƒéin, I am alone ("I am with myself"): tá tú leat ƒéin, thou art alone: tá ſiad leo ƒéin, they are alone: tá mo ṁáiṫrín 'n-a codlad̆, aȝuſ mire liom ƒéin, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

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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 ɑiṛ being used. Ḋo ṫuʒ ṛé ṭṛí bɑ ɑiṛ ɑn ʒ-cɑpɑll ṛin, he gave three cows for that horse: ɑiṛ Ɛiṛe ní 'neóṛɑinn cɪɑ h-í, "for Erin I would not tell who she is" ('neóṛɑinn for ɪnneóṛɑinn: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition ɑiṛ is set before the noun of price: ḋo ċeɑnnuiġeɑṛ ɑn ḃó ḃán ṛin ɑiṛ ṛé púɪnṭ, I bought that white cow for six pounds: ní h-ɪonʒnɑ ɑṛ Coṛmɑc, óiṛ ɪṛ mɑiṫ ɑn luɑċ ṭuʒɑṛ uiṛṛe, "'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 ɑiṛ being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of "having" being expressed by ṭá and ɑʒ as in Idiom 34. Ṭá ṭṛí púɪnṭ ɑʒ Ƒeṛʒuṛ ɑiṛ Ḋoṁnɑll, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: ṭá beɑn eɪle ɑ n-Ɛoċɑɪll ɑ ḃ-ƒuɪl ɑɪcɪ coṛóɪn ɑiṛ, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown" ("to whom is a crown on him"): ɪṛ ɑṁlɑiḋ ḋo ḃí ɑn ṛíġ ṛo, ɑʒuṛ cíoṛ cáɪn móṛ ṭṛom ɑʒ Ƒoṁoṛɑiġ ɑṛ Tuɑṫɑ Ḋé Ḋɑnɑnn ṛe n-ɑ lɪnn, "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:" ɪɑṛṛ ɑiṛ Ḋhɪɑ nɑ ʒṛáṛɑ ṛɪn, "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 ɑiṛ being used: ṭá ƒuɑċṭ cṛm (cold is on me), I am cold; ṛá bíoḋ eɑʒlɑ oṛṭ (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: ḋo ḃí ṭɑṛṭ móṛ ɑiṛ Sheɑġɑn (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty; cɑḋ

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é ſin oꝛt? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A ċuiſle mo ċꝛoiḋe cꝛeuḋ í an ġꝛuaim ſin oꝛt? "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 aiꝛ being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by tá and aȝ, as in idiom 34:—ní mó an cion ꝛo ḃá aȝ Aonġuſ oꝛtſa iná an cion ꝛo ḃá aȝ muintiꝛ Aonġuſa aꝛ ṁac an ꝛeaċtaiꝛe, ȝo ꝛaiḃ ꝼoꝛmaḋ móꝛ aꝛ t'aṫaiꝛ ꝼá n-a ċionn ſin, "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.: tá meaſ aȝuſ cion móꝛ aiꝛ Oſcaꝛ (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:" "'aȝuſ an ḃ-ꝼuil a ꝼioſ aȝaḋ ꝼéin, a Ꝼhinn?' 'ní ḃ-ꝼuil,' aꝛ Ꝼionn:" "'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 ꝼioſ ḋ'ꝼáġail? do you wish to know? ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"): bioḋ a ꝼioſ aȝat, a leuġṫóiꝛ, "know O reader" ("be its knowledge with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), ꝛo ꝼiaꝼꝛaiġ Ꝼionn ḋo ċáċ an ḋ-tuȝaḋaꝛ aiṫne oꝛꝛṫa, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"): aȝuſ tuȝaiſſe aiṫne oꝛm, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on me").

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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 ɲe being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" ʃcaɲaḋaɲ ƒéɪn aʒuʃ Ḋɪaɲmaɪḋ ɲe n-a ċéɪle, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:" ḋo ʃcaɲ ʃé ɲɪnn, "he separated from us;" ʃcaɲ Oʃcaɲ le Ḋɪaɲmaɪḋ, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid:" ḋo ʃcaɲ ɲɪʃ, "he separated from him;" aʒ Cuɲɲaċ Ċɪll'-ḋaɲa ḋo ʃcaɲaʃ le ʒɲaḋ mo ċɲoɪḋe, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart.'"

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Ḋa 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 álaɪnn, fine or beautiful, is formed áɪlne or áɪlle, fineness, beauty; and ḋa áɪlne or ḋa áɪlle, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—Ní ḃ-ƒuɪl pɪonúʃ ḋá ṁeuḋ, naċ ḋ-tuɪllɪḋ, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:" an tɲeaʃ ġeɪʃ, ʒan coṁɲaʒ aoɪnƒ́ɪɲ ḋá ṫɲéɪʃɪ aɪɲ talṁaɪn ḋ'obaḋ, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:" ḋeaṁan ná ḋɪaḃal ḋá ṫɲéɪʃe láṁ, "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 ɪḋɪɲ, between; as baɪnƒɪḋ Ḋɪa ʃáʃaṁ ḋɪoḃ ann ʒaċ ʃoċaɲ ḋ'á ḋ-tuʒ ḋóɪḃ ɪḋɪɲ ċeɪll, ceaḋƒaḋaɪḃ, aʒuʃ conaċ ṙaoġalta, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" cúɪʒmíle ɪḋɪɲ ƒeaɲaɪḃ aʒuʃ mnáɪḃ, 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 beɪɲ, bear, being used with the preposition

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ɑiꞃ. Examples:—Ꝑáʒḃam ɑn ꞇulɑċ ſo ɑꞃ eɑʒlɑ ʒo m-beɑꞃꝑɑḋ Aonġuſ ɑn Ḃhꞃoġɑ oꞃꞃuinn, "let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:" leɑnuſ ɑiꞃ ɑ loꞃʒ ʒo ꞃéiṁḋíꞃeɑċ iɑḋ ḋo'n Mhúṁɑin, ʒo ꞃuʒ oꞃꞃɑ ɑʒ Solċóiḋ, "he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid:" ʒo nɑċ ꝑúiʒꝑiḋíſ ɑn ꝑonn ſin nó ʒo m-beiꞃeɑḋ Mɑꞃcꞃɑ Siḋe oꞃꞃɑ, "that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:" ꝑɑnꝑɑḋſɑ leɑꞇ ɑꞃ ɑn láṫɑiꞃ ſo nó ʒo m-beiꞃiꞃ oꞃm ɑꞃíſ, "I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:" ʒɑċ ɑon ɑiꞃ ɑ m-béɑꞃꝑɑinnſi, "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:" ɑʒuſ ḋo ṫóʒ Oiſín ɑn ꝑeɑꞃ ſin, ɑʒuſ ꞃo ċuiꞃ ɑn cluiṫċe ɑꞃ Ꝑhionn, "and Oisin moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:" ɑʒuſ ní ꞃuʒɑmɑꞃ ɑn báiꞃe ɑꞃ ɑ ċéile, "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 iſ and the preposition le: iſ ꝑɑḋɑ liom ("it is long with me"), it seems long to me, I think it long. Aʒuſ ḋo bo ꝑɑḋɑ le nɑ ḃṇáiṫꞃiḃ ḋo ḃi Ḃꞃiɑn uɑṫɑ, "and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them" ("it was long with his brothers, &c."): iſ olc linn ɑꞃ ḃeɑn ꞃioꞇ, "we think bad of what has happened to thee" ("it is evil with us:" ɑꞃ = ɑ ꞃo, and ɑ means "all that:" see p. 47): ꞇuiʒimſi nɑċ ionṁuin leɑꞇſɑ me ꝑéin, "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 ḋo: iſ mɑiṫ é ḋo'n ḃ-ꝑeɑꞃ ſin, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): iſ mɑiṫ é leiſ ɑn ḃ-ꝑeɑꞃ ſin, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—bɑ ṁɑiṫ liom ſiuḃɑil ɑċꞇ nioꞃ ṁɑiṫ ḋɑm é, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

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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 mıan, desire; aıt, pleasure; áıl, will or pleasure, &c.: ıs áıll lıom ꝼıos d'ꝼáġaıl, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): do ċuırꝼınn ꝼéın súıl an ċaıt sın ad h-uċt a n-ıonad do ṙúl, ar ꝼear dıob: do b'aıt lıom sın, ar an dóırseoır, "'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 ꝼeárr, better, is used in the same way to express preference: ıs ꝼéarr lıom do ḋearḃráṫaır ná ṫusa, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); do b'ꝼeárr le brıġıd leaḃar maıṫ ná aırgead 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 mían and ꝼeárr:—Ní h-é ıs mıan leıs an uġdar (ní mo, ní h-é ıs mıan lıom-sa) tu do ḃreugan; . . . . aċt ıs é dob' ꝼeárr leıs sın (agus lıom-sa) do ċroıḋe do ṙealḃuġaḋ: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (tu do ḃreugan) . . . . but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Ꝼeárr followed by le expresses mental preference as shown above: but ꝼearr followed by do is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Is ꝼeárr ḋomsa anoıs, ar Luġ, ꝼıos na h-earea úd do ṫaḃaırt ḋaoıḃ. Is ꝼearr ċeana, ar ıadsan, '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 beag and mór (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—Is mór lıom an luaċ sın, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): óır dá m-beıṫ mac aguınne ıona ṙuıḋe rompa, níor ḃeag leo do ċúıs dár marḃaḋ 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 dár marḃaḋ: see Idiom 1): dar mo ḃrıaṫar ar

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Naisi ní beg linne sin uait, "'by my word,' says Naisi, 'we do not think that small from thee.'"

The two expressions is mór le and ní b̆eag le (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: is mór liom aon ṗingín do ṫab̆airt do, I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by ní b̆eag liom aon ṗingín, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (ní mór le—is beag le) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: ní mór liom na trí ba so do ṫab̆airt dó, 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, is 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 b̆eirmíd ár m-briaṫar, ar siad, naċ beag linn a m-beurani go Fionn díob̆, "'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 b̆eag do (marb̆ad̆ b̆ar n-aiṫreaċ) mar eiric uaib̆se, (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 b̆eag duit a b̆a do b̆reiṫ ó Fhionn, "it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn."

29. Woe to.

Is mairg don b̆-fear sin, woe to that man: a ṁairg do'n drung ġoireas do'n olc maiṫ, "woe to those who call evil good." Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, is mairg naċ n-déanann coṁairle deaġ-ṁná, "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 agus, "and," or by le, "with:" agus a dub̆airt ria an tan do b̆iod̆ a ṁac coṁ arraċta agus go lionfad̆ a ṁeur an iod̆, "and he said to her when his son should be *so* grown (coṁ arraċta) *as* that his finger would fill the ring" (lit.

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"so grown *and* that his finger," &c.): do ḃí a ṙleaġ cóṁ ṛeaṁaṛ le mol muillinn, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick *with*.")

Aġuṛ follows aṁlaiḋ or aṁla (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows cóṁ; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to "viz.:" aṛ aṁlaiḋ do ꝼuaiṛ Naiṛi acaṛ Déiṛdṛe, acaṛ an Cennċaeṁ etaṛṛa, "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 ġaċ, followed by the preposition le or ṛe Ġaċ le Doṁnaċ aġ dul ċum teampoill, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: na tṛí ṛiġṫe ṛin do Thuaṫaiḃ De Danann do ḃí i ḃ-ꝼlaiṫioṛ Eiṛeann ġaċ ṛe m-bliaġain, "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 ġ-ceann bliaḋna, at the end of a year: do ḃí ṛiaḋ a ġ-ceann na ꝼaiṫċe, they were at the end of the field. A duḃaiṛt Naiṛi le h-Aṛdan dul aiṛ ċeann Ꝼeṛġuiṛ, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" ("to go on the head of Fergus"): ꝼillṛe aiṛ a ġ-ceann, "turn thou back for them" ("on their head"). O naċ liom ḋul ón ġ-contaḃaiṛt ṛo am ċeann, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me" (am ċeann, "in my head" = before me). Raċꝼaḋ aḋ ċeann, a Ꝼhinn, aġuṛ a ġ-ceann na Ꝼéinne, "I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). Acaṛ beiṛiḋ buaiḋ acaṛ bennaċtain dá ċenn, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (dá ċenn, "from its head"). Taṛ ċeann ġuṛ ṙaoil an toiceaċ naċ ṛaiḃ baoġal aṛ biṫ aṛ ꝼéin, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself" (taṛ ċeann ġuṛ, "over the head that" = although). Iṛ ionġna ḋuitṛe an ġṛaḋ ṛin do

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ṫaḃaiṛt ḋaṁṛa taṛ ċeann Ꝑhinn, aṛ Diaṛmaiḋ, "'it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn' says Diarmaid" (taṛ ċeann Ꝑhinn, "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.

Seaġan an ꝑiġeaḋóṛa, 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:" Seaġan na baintṛeaḃaiġe, "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 Ꝑeṛġuṛ maoṛ (nom.) means "Fergus the steward;': but Ꝑeṛġuṛ an ṁaoiṛ (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: teaċ Ꝑheṛġuiṛ an ṁaoiṛ. 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 teaċ Ꝑheṛġuiṛ maoṛ (in which Ꝑheṛġuiṛ is gen. and maoṛ nom.); whereas teaċ Ꝑheṛġuiṛ an ṁaoiṛ 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:—

Ḃṛuṫ Acuil ṛeinn, óiġ neaṁḋa, a'ṛ buan ꝑeaṛġ;
Acuil mic Peil, an ġaiṛġiḋeaċ teinnteaċ ġaṛġ.

"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.

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Here the last noun ꝑaıꝛꝺıǒeaċ, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while Ꝺcuıl, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, bean Sheaġaın an ꝑıġeaḃóꝛa, 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 Sheaġaın ꝑıġeaḃóıꝛ.

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 ꝺá and the preposition aġ, in this form, ꝺá leaḃaꝛ aġ an ḃuıne, "a book is at (or with) the man:" ꝺa aıꝛġeaḋ aġum ("money is with me"), I have money: cıa bé aġ a ḃ-ꝑuıl aıꝛġeaḋ ("whoever with whom is money"), whoever has money. Nı ꝑéıḋıꝛ le ḃuıne an nıǒ naċ m-beıḋeaḃ aıꝛe ḃo ꝺaḃaıꝛꝺ uaıǒ, aġuꝛ nı ḃ-ꝑuıl ḃo-ṁaꝛḃċaċꝺ aġumꝛa. "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"). Ḃo aıꝛġel Conċuḃaꝛ ḃoꝛaċ acaꝛ ḃo ꝑıaꝛꝑaıġ ḃé an ꝑaıḃ ꝑleǒ ollaṁ aıꝛe ḃo, "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. Cıa aġumne aġ a ḃ-ꝑuıl an ꝑıꝛınne? "Which of us has the truth?" This is word forword: "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 aġ in this construction governs not only the relative a, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative cıa. Ꝺá bean eıle a n-Ġoċaıll a ḃ-ꝑuıl aıcı coꝛóın aıꝛ, "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 ḃ-ꝑuıl, and by aıcı; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition aġ of aıcı. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:—Ꝺá bean

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eile a n-Eoċaill aʒ a ḃ-ꝼuil coꞃóin aiꞃ. 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 leiꞃ an teaċ ꞃin (who owns that house), the le of leiꞃ would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative cia.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb iꞃ and the preposition le, with: iꞃ leatꞃa an teaċ, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"): iꞃ lem' aṫaiꞃ na ba ꞃin, those cows belong to my father ("it is with my father those cows'): cia léiꞃ na ba ꞃin, who owns those cows? ("who with him [are] those cows?") Oiꞃ iꞃ le neaċ éiʒin ḋo Thuaṫa 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 ꝼéin an ċꞃaoḃ ꞃin? "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—Ta aiꞃʒeaḋ ʒo leóꞃ aʒaḋ, aċt ní leat ꝼéin 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 leaḃaꞃ uaim, I want a book: lit., "a book is from me:" cꞃeuḋ atá uait? "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, aʒainn, aʒaiḃ, aca, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context.

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: Ḋo ḃí leaḃaiꞃ aca, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: ʒaċ ꝼeaꞃ aʒuinn, "each man *of us*;" ꞃo eiꞃiġ an ḋaꞃa ꝼeaꞃ acoꞃan ḋo ḃéanaṁ an ċleaꞃa, "the

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second man *of them* (acoran, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" cia aguinne az a b-fuil an ḟírinne, ar Fionn, "'which *of us* has the truth,' says Finn" (az a b-fuil, "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*: mar zo ttuzṫar ḋá ḃantuaṫaċ air bhéċoill azur air Dhanann, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they "were called 'two ladies.'" Mar zo d-tuz clear air an z-clear 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:" Ros-dá-ṙáileaċ rir a ráiḋtear Luimneaċ aniu, "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. Azur zion zo b-fuil cuid azuinn do ṁarḃaḋ Diarmada, ní móide do ġeuḃaḋ (Aonġur) an ḟírinne 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 zion zo = "although not:" see Idiom 11). Ir furaide d'Fhionn ár lorzna leanaṁain, an eaċra ḃeiṫ azainn, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (furaide = de after fura, comparative of furur, 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 fear ir mór neart, which translated word for word is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words mór neart 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 ir 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

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rendered accordingly. Ní raiḃ a ʒ-cóṁaimsir ris ꝼear ba ṁó ór aʒus airʒeaḋ iná Ḋiarmaiḋ, "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.") Ḋo ḋearcas an ḃeiṫ ba niaṁḋa cruṫ, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape:" Talaṁ ba ꝼeárr biaḋ aʒus ḋeoċ, "a land (of) the best food and drink:" Oisín ba ṫreun nearṫ a's luṫ, "Oisin of mighty strength and vigour."

Sometimes the preposition ʒo (with) is used instead of the verb: as ꝼear ʒo mór nearṫ, 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 ʒan being generally used as the negative particle. As truaiġ ʒan peata 'n ṁaoir aʒum! "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here as truaiġ, "it is pity" = "alas:" aʒum 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 Ḋhia ʒan mé am' aḃaillín, "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 ꝼear, but) tá mé am' ḟear, which is word for word, "I am in my man." Bí túsa aḋ' sʒían aʒus mise am ḟeoil, "be thou the knife and I the flesh." (lit. "be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh"). Ḃeċoill aʒus Ḋanann do ḃí i n-a m-baintíġearnaiḃ, "Bechoill and Danann who were princesses" ("who were in their princesses"): is ꝼeárr éisean míle uair ná tusa, cuir a ʒ-cás ʒo ḃ-ꝼuil tú aḋ' riġ no aḋ' ṗrionnsa. "he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince" (cuir a ʒ-cás, "put in case" = "suppose" or "although"): ꝼaġaiḋ na ḋaoine bás cuiḋ aca 'n-a

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n-óʒánaiḃ, aʒuſ cuiḋ aca 'n-a ſcanóiriġiḃ, "men die ('receive death:' Idiom 3), "some of them (cuiḋ 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 Ḋhia, ʒan mé am 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. Táimſe am' ċoḋla, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"): ḋ'éiriġ ina ṙeaſaṁ, "he stood up" ("he arose in his standing"): miſe am' aonaṛ, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): clanna Liṛ ina ʒ-ceaṫṛaṛ, (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 Ḋia aṁáin 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 iſ tú atá ann "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between iſ and tá.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between iſ and tá.

1. Iſ is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as iſ mé an t-ſliġe, an ṙíṛinne, aʒuſ an ḃeaṫa, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, tá is used; as tá mé a m-baile aṫa cliaṫ, I am in Dublin: an raiḃ tú ann ſin? wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either iſ or tá may be used:—iſ bṛeaġ an lá é, or tá an lá bṛeaġ, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. Iſ connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as iſ ṙeaṛ mé, I am a man. But tá cannot do this without the aid of the preposition i or inn and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as tá mé am' ṙeaṛ, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

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3. Is expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by Tá, 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 Is fear 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, Is fear 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 Tá sé 'n-a fhear ("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, Tá sé 'n-a fhear.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by Tá, it is not always so; as ní h-fuil acht aon Dia amháin ann, ata 'n-a fhíor-fhíoruibh, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by Tá though there can be no change.

4. Tá is used with ag to denote possession (Idiom 43); Is is used with le to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

Tá may indeed be used with le, but the idea conveyed is not "belonging to," but "being favourable to:" Do bí Eolus leo "(Eolus was with them"), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if Is had been used), but that "Eolus was favourable to them"—"was on their side."

5. Tá is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c., as in Idiom 36; as Tá ocras orm, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here Is cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—Is saibhre é ná mise or Tá sé níos saibhre ná mise, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, Is, not Tá, must be used:—Is é Is fearr Is saibhre san dúiche é, he is the richest man in the country.

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APPENDIX.

Additional Examples of Declensions.

FIRST DECLENSION.

Bneac, *a trout.*

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	bneac.	bnic.
G.	bnic.	bneac.
D.	bneac.	bneacaiḃ.
V.	a bnic.	a bneaca.

SECOND DECLENSION.

Cor, *a foot.*

N.	cor.	cora.
G.	coire	cor.
D.	coir.	coraiḃ.

THIRD DECLENSION.

Fiġeaḋóir, *a weaver; masc.*

N.	fiġeaḋóir.	fiġeaḋóiriġe.
G.	fiġeaḋóra.	fiġeaḋóir
D.	fiġeaḋóir.	fiġeaḋóiriḃ.

Aṫair, *a father; masc.*

N.	aṫair.	aiṫre, aiṫreaċa.
G.	aṫar.	aiṫreaċ.
D.	aṫair.	aiṫreaċaiḃ.

(Máṫair, a mother, and bráṫair or deardráṫair, a brother, are declined in the same way.)

bliaḋain, *a year; fem.*

N.	bliaḋain.	bliaḋanta.
G.	bliaḋna.	bliaḋan.
D.	bliaḋain	bliaḋantaiḃ.

Ainm, *a name.*

N.	ainm.	anmanna.
G.	ainme, anma.	anmann.
D.	ainm	anmannaiḃ.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

Teine, *a fire.*

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	teine.	teinte
G.	teine.	teineaḋ.
D.	teine.	teintiḃ.

Einín, *a little bird.*

N.	éinín.	éiníniḃe.
G.	éinín.	éinín.
D.	éinín.	éiníniḃ.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

Lánamha, *a married couple.*

N.	lánamha.	lánamhna.
G.	lánamhan.	lánamhan.
D.	lánamhain.	lánamhnaiḃ.

Irregular Nouns.

Ga, *a spear.*

N.	ga, gaḃ.	gaoi, gaeḋa, gaoiḋe.
G.	gai, gaoi.	gaḃ, gaeḋaḃ, gaoiḋeaḃ.
D.	ga, gai.	gaoiḃ, geaḋaiḃ gaoiḋiḃ.

Cró, *a hut, a sheepfold.*

N.	cró.	craoiḋe, cróiḋe
G.	cró.	cró.
D.	cró.	craoiḋiḃ, cróiḋiḃ.
V.	a ċro.	a ċraoiḋe, a ċróiḋe.

Sliaḃ, *a mountain.*

N.	sliaḃ.	sléiḃte
G.	sléiḃe.	sléiḃteaḃ.
D.	sliaḃ.	sléiḃtiḃ.

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