A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

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

DUBLIN:

M. H. GILL AND SON.
= Apply to Public

2. Be of some Public with your presence in it

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

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

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

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

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to b, p, h, m, 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 bón, white: a short vowel has no mark; as mac, a son.
5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

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

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

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

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

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

11. The Irish broad o and c 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 o and c by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish o and c 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 o and c.

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 o and c 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 & 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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<td>u</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>mún</td>
<td>courteous</td>
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<tr>
<td>ι ι</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>short</td>
<td>múc</td>
<td>moor, rude</td>
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</table>

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. Ćúlm, a; béit, b; coll, c; dáirn, d; eóda, e; peann, f; gárn, g; uad, h; iotha, i; luir, l; mún, m; num, n; opin or onn, o; peit-bog, p; nuir, r; ruil, s; tóime, t; úp, u.
II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., ae, ao, eu, ia, ua, ai, ea, ei, eo, io, io, o1, u1; 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 pae, the moon, pronounced ray.

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

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

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

7. ua nearly like oe in doer; as in luun, 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. ai long has an accent over the a, and sounds something like the awi in drawing; as in can, tribute, pronounced caw-m.

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

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

10. ea long has an accent over the e, and sounds
like *ea* in *bear*; thus méap, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

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

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

*éi* short, like *e* in *sell*; as in *œip*, a basket, sounded like *keh*.

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 *céol*, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PART I.

ui long, with an accent over the i, has nearly the same sound as we; as in buiło, yellow, which is pronounced buwee.

ui short is like the ui in quill; as in puipeóg, a lark, pronounced方位了e.

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—aoi, eoi, iai, uai, uai.

2. Eoi is sounded very like we, as in maom, wealth, pronounced 蜊e'en.

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

4. Iai is sounded like eei in seeing; as 蜊aił, a physician.

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

6. Uai like ooi in cooing; as buaɪl, 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 ñş, 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 蜊eanntán, a small glen, pronounced glounthaun; and o before ò and ò has often the same sound; as pogluim, learning, pronounced poulim.

2. ÓO and ñş are often sounded like long English i in fine; as poöopc, sight, pronounced
ry-ark; laďap, a fork, pronounced lyre; maďom, a breach, pronounced mime.

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

4. In the combination vl, the v is silent, and the whole is sounded like l or ll; as coolao, sleep, pronounced culla.

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

6. In the combination on, the o is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as n or nn; as céanta, the same, pronounced kaina.

7. Final e is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus mine, smoothness, is pronounced meena. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in cpolé, 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 lopă, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not lurg but lurrug. Oealb, a shape, is sounded, not dalv, but dallav; peapă, bitter, is sounded sharrav; bopb, proud, is pronounced burreb; 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.
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, p, g, m, p, r, t; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as ¢; 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 b 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 goval.

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

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

7. Oh and .Inject have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial y in English; as a 3ean, his love, pronounced a yan. Oh and .Inject
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 \( c \) in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as \( \text{pi\text{"o}} \), a deer, pronounced \textit{fee-a}.

But in south Munster the final \( ș \) is fully sounded, like \( g \) in \( fig \); as \( \text{Co\text{"o}c\text{"o}g} \) (dative of \( \text{Co\text{"o}c\text{"a}c} \), Cork), pronounced \textit{curkig} in Munster, but \textit{curkee} elsewhere.

8. \( \text{ph} \) is always silent; thus \( \text{a \text{"o}p} \), his knowledge, is pronounced \textit{a \text{"iss}}; \( \text{an \text{"e\text{"o}\text{"g}} \), the plover, pronounced \textit{an addoge}.

9. \( \text{ mh } \) is very nearly the same as \( \text{ b } \), viz., like \( v \) or \( w \); as \( \text{ a \text{"mp}} \), his dish, pronounced \textit{a \text{"ee-as}}.

10. \( \text{ ph} \) has the sound of \( f \), as \( \text{ a \text{"ian}} \), his pain, pronounced \textit{a \text{"ee-an}}.

11. \( \text{ sh} \) and \( \text{ č} \) are the same as \( \text{ h} \); as \( \text{ a \text{"at}} \), his heel, pronounced \textit{a \text{"aul}}; \( \text{ a \text{"obap}} \), his well, pronounced \textit{a \text{"uber}}.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.\(^*\)

1. The possessive pronouns \( \text{mo, my; \text{"o}o, thy; \text{a, his,} \) aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as \( \text{mo \text{"o}o}, \) my cow; \( \text{\text{"o}e\text{"ann}, thy head; \text{a \text{"ep}} \text{, his garden.}\)

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative;\(^{†} \) as \( \text{an \text{"e\text{"e\text{"an}}} \), the woman. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as \( \text{an \text{"ep}} \text{, of the garden.}\)

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

\(^{†}\) Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.
Note.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter p. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from ceann, a head, and bpac, a garment, is formed ceannbpac, 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 píp, O man.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as bó bán, a white cow; caír bán, of a white cat; a píp móip, O great man; a bean ñeim, O mild woman; capail bán, white horses. (b and c are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles oo and a; as oo ðéao or a ðéao, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as oo ðeap pé, he stood: (3) by the particles ni, not, and má, if: as ní beíó pí, she will not be; má ðeapann pé, if he stands; (4), by the relative a, who, (expressed or understood); as an cé a bualéar the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as aíp bán, on top; oo mullac, to a summit; paoi ñean, 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-bán, ó is eclipsed by n
and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas *bán* 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, v, p, ş, p, r, t; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a hyphen, as m-báρν; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as bpoρү. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus ạ ććapb is the same as ạ ććapb, their bull.

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

4. ɓ is eclipsed by m; as ạ m-báρν, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd*.

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

6. O by n; as ạ n-ооp, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

7. P by b (which itself sounds like v or w); as ạ b-пеапaнн, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. Ş 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 ạ nşoռla, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. P is eclipsed by b; as ạ b-пian, their pain, pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. S is eclipsed by t, as in an ć-tǔśl, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. Ş is eclipsed by ʋ; as ạ ʋ-тăl, their adze, pronounced *a dawl*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—ἄν, 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.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

PART. I.

1. Your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as Áp ó-tiáeqna, our Lord; bup g-capann, your tree; a b-páipce, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as teac na m-bópp, 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 dip an m-bópp, on the table; ó'n b-páipge, from the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles a, an, ca, nae; also after go, that; muna, unless; uap, after; oá, if; and after the relative a preceded by a preposition; as a m-beannaípe? Does he bear? an m-buait-eann tu? Dost thou strike? ca b-puíl pá? Where is she? nae o-tiáeqnaíneu? Dost thou not understand? go m-beannaíge Óia óiú, may God bless thee; muna o-tiáetpiú, unless thou shalt fall; oá n-vecpáppamn, if I would say; an típ ann a o-taimic píob, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with p is preceded by the article, the p is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as an t-oaoippe (fem.), the freedom; gort an t-oaoippe, the field of the priest; aip an t-oaoigal, or ap an oaoigal, in the world. But if the p is followed by b, c, o, s, m, p, or t, it is not eclipsed; as gleann an pmóil, the valley of the thrush; loc an pçait, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to p. See for this letter Rule 5.
6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis:—

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

v. Caol le caol aŋp leačan le leačan, or Slen-
der with slender and broad with broad.†

1. If a consonant or any combination of cons-
nants comes between two vowels, they must be
either both slender or both broad; thus in polap,
light, the o and the a are both broad vowels; and in
cīnneap, sickness, the i and the e are both slender
vowels. But such combinations as polap and
cīnneap 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 result-
ing 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 rēapam, standing, the
word is cómpēapam, competition, not cómpēapam.

* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws
of aspiration and eclipsis, see the Second Irish Book by the
Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.
† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed
in the Irish language.
4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish caolúgaO (i.e., making slender, from caol, slender), and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish leacnu^aO (i.e., making broad, from leacan, 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 *pá* is postfixed to *buail*, and the resulting word is *buailpeá, not buailpá*: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when *ceann*, a head, is changed to *cmn*, 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 *páO* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailpáO*, but *buailpeáO*, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *aO* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailaO* but *bualaO*.

10. When *móI*, great, is prefixed to *ción*, love, the compound is not *móIción*, but *móIcIón*, great love.

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

12. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to *cuil*, the resulting word is not *cuilín* but *cuileín*, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to *opbóg*, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not *opbógín* but *opbógin*, of a thumb.

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

VI. SYNCOPE.

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

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (b, n, p, or p) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.
3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

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

5. Lánamu, a married couple; plural lánamuna, contracted from lánamana.

6. Lárapa, a flame; plural lárapaca, contracted from lárapaca.

7. Pocal, a word; pocloip, a dictionary, contracted from pocalóip.

8. Saibp, rich; comparative saibpe, contracted from saibpe.

9. Caçaip, a city; genitive caçapac, contracted from caçaip.

10. Plaicemal, princely; comparative plaicemala, contracted from plaicemala.

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

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

13. Uqpal, noble, becomes uaiple in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. Pollup, evident, becomes poilpe 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 abne, by the rule caol le caol &c.

16. Labap, speak (imperative mood); labnapam, I speak, contracted from labapam,
PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

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

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

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

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

3. In the singular number the article has the form an in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes na; as cápleán na cipce, 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 cripb, 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 típ, from the land, is written ó'n típ; and pà an nápném, under the sun, is written pà'n nápném.
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 cíp, páin nánpem.

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

7. The letter p is inserted between certain prepositions and the article on; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus am on leabap, in the book, is written amnp on leabap, and ñ on leabap, which is still further shortened to ñ on leabap: also (omitting the n) amnpa leabap, and even pa leabap. And in the plural, ñ na coppaìb, "in the bodies."

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

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

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

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except p, c, o), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as an bó, the cow; cuan on ñip móip, the harbour of the great man.

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

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes c to the nominative masculine, and h to the genitive feminine; as an c-cçap, the father; Leabap na h-uiope, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except o or ç), the article generally eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as aíp
ETYMOLOGY.  

5. But after the prepositions óo and óe, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ceitpe céime óo'n épiop, four degrees of the zone (Keating); óo leanasap a ʒ-copa óo'n éapnapa, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

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

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as imp na ɓ-píódbád, [the] island of the woods; caípn peap cnuíce na m-bó, [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

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

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

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

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

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

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language,
as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

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

**Masculine.**

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:

   (1.) Names of males; as coileać, a cock; laoć a hero; pecp, a man.

   (2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as boiccealt, churlishness: except

   (a), derivatives in açć; (b), diminutives in ôç.

   (3.) Nouns ending in ôip, aipe, aç, aiọe (or oîe, or uîe), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as ppealaoóip, a mower; péalşaipe, a hunter; ceiceapnac, a soldier—one of a body of kerns; pşéalaiọe or pşéuluiọe, a story-teller.

   (4.) Diminutives in án and abstracts in açp; as coilećán, a whelp; câpœap, friendship.

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

**Feminine.**

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:

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

   (2). Diminutives in ôç, and derivatives in açć; as pupeôç, a lark; cuşpact, fragrance; and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as npcälle, blindness
(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in ón); as púhl, the eye; pólum, 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 bpódaín, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. bpódaín, as trí bpódaín, three salmons; gen. bpódaín, as loc na m-bpódaín, the lake of the salmons; dat. bpódaínb, as do na bpódaínb, to the salmons; voc. bpódaína, as a bpódaína, ca b-púll píb agh dol? “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. bpódaín; gen. bpódaín; dat. bpódaín; voc. bpódaín; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

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

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension: the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative.
and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the datives singular of cop, a foot, and bope, a bush, are different, namely, cop and bope. 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.
ETYMOLOGY.

PART II.

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<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tr>
<td>Gen. ballt.</td>
<td>Gen. ball.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat. ball.</td>
<td>Dat. ballaib.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Voc. a ball.</td>
<td>Voc. a balla.</td>
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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 ač, 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 ač, in addition to the attenuation, change ē into ō 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 ib, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, mańcač, a horseman.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
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<tr>
<td>Nom. mańcač.</td>
<td>Nom. mańcače.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat. mańcač.</td>
<td>Dat. mańcašib.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. a mańcaš.</td>
<td>Voc. a mańcača.</td>
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</table>

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 ca or ca to the nominative singular; as reól, a sail; nom. plur. reólca; dat. plur. reólcaib: mýr, a wall; nom. plur. mýrca; dat. plur. mýrcaib.

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, corp, a body; gen. curp: îarp, a fish; gen. îarp:

*It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "nominative and accusative" all through the declensions.
neapu, strength; gen. neapu or nipt: peap, a man; gen. pip: cpann, a tree; gen. cpann: béil, a mouth; gen. béil or béoil.

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

9. The dative plural ends in ìb.

This ìb 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 pip, O man; a máná, O women; O òíòcpaná, O Lord.

SECOND DECLENSION.

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

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

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

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

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

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.
First example, \textit{peampóig}, a shamrock.

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<tr>
<td>Nom. \textit{peampóig}</td>
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<td>Gen. \textit{peampóige}</td>
<td>Gen. \textit{peampóig}</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat. \textit{peampóig}</td>
<td>Dat. \textit{peampóigaib}</td>
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Second example, \textit{péipt}, a worm, a beast.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. \textit{péipt}</td>
<td>Dat. \textit{péipteb}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Nouns in \textit{ac}, when they belong to this declension, change the \textit{c} to \textit{g} in the genitive singular: thus, \textit{cláippeac}, a harp, is declined as follows:

\
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. \textit{cláippeac}</td>
<td>Nom. \textit{cláippeaca}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. \textit{cláippeige}</td>
<td>Gen. \textit{cláippeac}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. \textit{cláippeig}</td>
<td>Dat. \textit{cláippeacaib}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 \textit{anna}; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final \textit{a} of this termination; thus, \textit{cúip}, a cause; nom. plural \textit{cúipeanna}; gen. plural, \textit{cúipeann}; dat. plural, \textit{cúipeannaib}.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding \textit{aca}: thus, \textit{obap}, a work, and \textit{opáit}, a prayer, make \textit{obpeaca} and \textit{opóeaca} in the nominative plural.

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

12. When the nominative plural takes \textit{te}, the genitive plural is formed by adding \textit{a}: thus, \textit{coitl}, a wood; nom. plur. \textit{coitlte}; and genitive plural as
seen in Oileán na 3-coillgeadó, 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. cleap</td>
<td>Nom. cleapa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cleapa</td>
<td>Gen. cleap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cleap</td>
<td>Dat. cleapaib</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 coill, the will, gen. coila.

7. Sometimes c or t is introduced before the a of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as cooail, sleep; gen. cooaila: buaioipt, trouble, gen. buaioeapéa.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in aó, eao, and uás, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding
e, nota; as molao, praising; gen. molca: rineao stretching; gen. rinte: caulughao, making slender; gen. caulughe.

9. Nouns in aet generally, and those in ear or ior, often, belong to this declension; as cirtteaet, dexterity; gen. cirtteaeta: voilaor, sorrow; gen. voilgiop. But the greater number of those in ear or ior belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, voilgiop, is often made voilgiip in the genitive; and bronnteanap, a gift, makes bronntanap.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in ip), which form their genitive singular in aet, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as cataip, a city; gen. cataip: Teaaimip, Tara, gen. Teaaimip: gpan, hatred; gen. gpanip.

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

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

13. Those in ip generally make the nominative plural by adding roe; as ppealoip, a mower, nom. plur. ppealoipive.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na ppealoipio, but sometimes na ppealoip or na ppealoipac.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nano to it; as ppuet, a stream; gen. ppoa; nom. pl. ppoa or ppoanna: upuim, a back; gen. upoma; nom. plur. upoma or upomanna.
16. Those that add *na*, form the genitive plural by omitting the *a*; as *πρυτ*; gen. plur. *πρυτανν*.

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

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding *αο* to the nominative plural; as *μόιν*; gen. plur. *μόιντεαο*.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in *αc* (10) form the plural by adding *α* to this *αc*: as *ταρπαρ* a flame; gen. sing. *ταρπατ*; nom. plur. *ταρπατα*.

**FOURTH DECLENSION.**

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in *ιν*, 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 *ιοe* or *αοα* (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, *άινε*, a sloe.

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<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. <em>άινε</em></td>
<td>Nom. <em>άινιοβε</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. <em>άινε</em></td>
<td>Gen. <em>άινεαο</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. <em>άινε</em></td>
<td>Dat. <em>άινιοβιβ</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Some form the plural by adding *τε* or *τε*; as *τεινίνε* a fire; nom. plur. *τεινίντε: οαοι*, a clown; nom. plur. *οαοιτε*; and *αινε*, a commandment, has nom. plur. *αινεατα*.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding *ο* or *αο* (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. *οαοιτε*, clowns; gen. plur. *οαοιτεαο*.

6. Nouns ending in *αιε*, *υιοε*, and *αιπε*, generally belong to this declension; as *πελδπυιε*, a slave; *πιοβαπε*, a piper.
FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

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

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

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

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

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<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. uppa</td>
<td>Nom. uppana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. uppan</td>
<td>Gen. uppan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. uppan</td>
<td>Dat. uppanaib</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


7. Capa, a friend, is an example of the genitive in o: nom. capa; gen. capao; dat. capao; nom. plur. cáipoe.

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; bptú, a womb;

*For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.
caopa, a sheep; ccó, a fog; cnó, a hut; cú, a hound; Día, 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.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bean.</td>
<td>Nom. mná.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat. mnáoir.</td>
<td>Dat. mnáíb.</td>
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</table>

bó, a cow, fem.

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<tr>
<td>Nom. bó.</td>
<td>Nom. bá</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bám.</td>
<td>Dat. búaib.</td>
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bpú, a womb, fem.

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<tr>
<td>Nom. bpú.</td>
<td>Nom. bánoña.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen. bónnnne or bónnn.</td>
<td>Gen. bónnn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat. bónnn.</td>
<td>Dat. bónnnnaib.</td>
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Caopa, a sheep, fem.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. caopa.</td>
<td>Nom. caopnáig,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. caopa.</td>
<td>Dat. caopcaib.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. a caopa.</td>
<td>Voc. a caopéa.</td>
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</table>

Cé, a fog, masc.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ciaé or ceoiá.</td>
<td>Gen. cé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cé.</td>
<td>Dat. céécaib.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cnó or cnú, a nut, masc.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. cnó.</td>
<td>Nom. cná, cnai.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cnó, cnú.</td>
<td>Dat. cnúíb.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3*
ETYMOLOGY.

Cú, a hound, masc. or fem.

Nom. cú.  
Gen. con.  
Dat. com.  

Nom. com, cum, cona, or conte.
Gen. con.  
Dat. com.  

Oia, God, masc.

Nom. Oia.  
Gen. Óe.  
Dat. Oia.  
Voc. a Ohé or a Óhia.  

Nom. Oée, Oéite.  
Gen. Oia, Oíteað.  
Dat. Óeib, Óeitið.  
Voc. a Óhée, Óhitée.

Úa, a day, masc.

Nom. lá.  
Gen. lae.  
Dat. lát, ló.  

Nom. laeèe.  
Gen. laeèeð, lá.  
Dat. laeèib.

Mí, a month, fem.

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

Nom. míora.  
Gen. míor.  
Dat. míoraib.

O or ua, a grandson, masc.

Nom. 6, ua.  
Gen. 1, uf.  
Dat. o, ua.  
Voc. a, uf.  

Nom. uf.  
Gen. ua.  
Dat. 1b, uib.  
Voc. a, uf.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.
2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with ρ.

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. Colχ, a sword, masc. Nom. an colχ; gen. an ωυλχ; dat. leir an ρ-ωυλχ (Par. 4, p. 17), or υο’ν ωυλχ (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. Caillleac, a hag, fem. Nom. an caillleac; na caillige; dat. υο’ν ρ-καιλιχ or υο’ν καιλιχ.

6. Saoχal, the world, masc. Nom. an ραχοχal; gen. an ρ-ραχοχαλ; dat. υο’ν ραχοχal or υο’ν ρ-ραχοχαλ (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Sabόχo, the Sabbath, fem. Nom an ρ-Sabόχo; gen. na Sabόχo; dat. υο’ν Sabόχo or υο’ν ρ-Sabόχo (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an ρ-plat; gen. na plaite; dat. leir an plaite or υο’ν ρ-plat.

9. Spόl, satin, masc. Nom. an ρρόλ; gen. an ρ-ρρόλ; dat. υο’ν ρρόλ or υο’ν ρ-ρρόλ.


11. Imrp, an island, fem. Nom. an imrp; gen. ρ-h-impe; dat. υο’ν imrp.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. υο’ν leic (Par. 6, p. 18).


15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an ρ-ρφειλ; gen. na ρρφειλε; dat. leir an ρρφειλ.
CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

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

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

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

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

FIRST DECLENSION.

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

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, bán, white.
### 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, min, smooth, fine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Masc. and Fem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. min.</td>
<td>Nom. mine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mīn.</td>
<td>Dat. mīne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mīn.</td>
<td>Voc. mīne.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in aīnāl, which has the same signification as the English postfix like: —bean, a woman banaināl, 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, maipenaīnāl, graceful.
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Singular. Plural.
Nom. maipeamal. Nom. maipeamla.
Dat. maipeamal. Dat. maipeamla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as mópōa, 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 ο and ω 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 capall bán.
Gen. an capall bán. na 5-capall m-bán.
Dat. 6'ń 5-capall bán or 6'ńa capallaib bán.
m-bán.
Voc. a capall bán. a capalla bán.
An πυιρεός beaצ, the little lark, fem.

Nom. an πυιρεός beaצ.  
Gen. na πυιρεόιζ biζe.  
Dat. ο’ν b-πυιρεοίż biζ.  
Voc. α πυιρεός beaζ.

na πυιρεόζa beaζa.  
na b-πυιρεόζ m-beaζ.  
o’na πυιρεόζaιb beaζa.  
a πυιρεόζa beaζa.

An cnoc άρo, the high hill, masc.

Nom. an cnoc άρo.  
Gen. an ένυιc άρo.  
Dat. ο’ν γ-cnoc άρo.  
Voc. a ένυιc άρo.

Nom. na cnoc άροa.  
Gen. na γ-cnoc n-άρο.  
Dat. ο’na cnocaιb άροα.  
Voc. a ένοιc άροa.

An bó ουb, the black cow, fem.

Nom. an bó ουb.  
Gen. na bó ουιβε.  
Dat. οο’ν m-λυιm ουb.  
Voc. a bó ουb.

Nom. na bó ουbа.  
Gen. na m-βó n-ουb.  
Dat. οο’na bó ουιbιb ουbа.  
Voc. a ba ουbа.

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 άρο, high; πλατεάματα, princely.
3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as άροε, πλατεάματα; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.
4. The comparative has generally the particle ηίορ (or ηίορα or ηίρα) prefixed, and it is usually followed by ιύ, than (spelled also ιά and ιόνα); as ιά αο τεαζ ιο ηίορ άροe, ιά αο τεαζ πιν,
this house is higher than that house: *αὐτά* an laoç úd *ποίη* plaiceamla ná an *πῆ* pém, “yonder champion is more princely than the king himself.”

5. The superlative is often preceded by *πρ* or *άρ* with the article expressed before the noun; as *σάν* peap *πρ* plaiceamla pan *τίρ*, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, *ποί* is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb *πρ* in any of its forms, expressed or understood; as ba òuibe a *τραγύ* ná an *γουάλ*, “her hair was blacker than the coal;” *πρ* gile *πνέακτα* ná banne, snow is whiter than milk; *σάν* peápp òo *θέαρπράταιρ* ná *τύρα?* 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 *σάν* ealóan *πρ* uarple ná *πιλοεράκτε*, the art which is nobler than poetry; *σάν* ealóan *πρ* uarple *άρ* *βιτε*, “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. *λα* is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number); but it has no positive, unless *τομόα* or *μόπδαν* (many), or some such word, be considered as such.
### Positive | Comparative | Superlative
---|---|---
_beas_, little. | _nifor_ luγa. | _r_ luγa.
_paδa_, long. | _nifor_ paibe, _nifor_ pia. | _r_ paibe, _r_ pia.
_μυρυρ_ or _μυρυ_, easy. | _nifor_ μυρα, _nifor_ ura. | _r_ μυρα, _r_ ura.
_maiε_, _beaγ_, good. | _nifor_ peaγν. | _r_ peaγν.
_mυνικ_, often. | _nifor_ mionca. | _r_ mό.
_mόν_, great. | _nifor_ meara. | _r_ meara.
_ολο_, bad. | _nifor_ ceβ. | _r_ ceβ.

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_, _r_ιορ_, _r_ο_, _ραρ_, _υρ_: as _maiε_, good; _an-maiε_, very good; _γράννα_, ugly; _ριο-γραννα_, excessively ugly; _μόν_, large; _ρο-μόν_, very large; _λάδιον_, strong; _ραρ-λάδιον_, 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.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>aon</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>bό</em>, <em>bά</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><em>τρί</em>, <em>τεόνα</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td><em>εικείαν</em>, <em>εικείνε</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td><em>κυίγ</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td><em>ρε</em>.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td><em>ρεατ</em>._</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td><em>οετ</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td><em>ναοι</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td><em>βειο</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td><em>aon</em> <em>βεαγ</em>.</td>
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#### Ordinal.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st.</td>
<td><em>όεαβ</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd.</td>
<td><em>βαρα</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd.</td>
<td><em>τερει</em>._</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th.</td>
<td><em>εικείαναο</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th.</td>
<td><em>κυίγεαβ</em>.</td>
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<td>6th.</td>
<td><em>ρερε</em>._</td>
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<td>7th.</td>
<td><em>ρεατ</em>._</td>
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<td>8th.</td>
<td><em>οετ</em>._</td>
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<tr>
<td>9th.</td>
<td><em>ναοιαο</em>.</td>
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<td>10th.</td>
<td><em>βειοαο</em>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11th.</td>
<td><em>aονιαο</em> <em>βεαγ</em>.</td>
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<td>100.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1,000,000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,000,000.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Oó and ceataip are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but óá and ceitpe are always used when the nouns are expressed; as óá cluaip, two ears; ceitpe pip, four men.

3. Píce is declined:—Nom píce; gen. pícead; dat. pícèd; nom. plur. pícèd.

4. Céab has gen. cébó; nom. pl. céabó or céabóta.

5. The following nouns, which are all except
beipt, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only:

- óíap, óÍ, two persons.
- beipt, a couple.
- ènp, three persons.
- ceapt, four.
- cúipapt, five.
- peipt, six.
- reipt, seven persons.
- móip-reipt, eight persons.
- nèibap, naonbap, nine persons.
- deípeabap, ten persons.

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; cú, thou; pé, he; pi, she; with their plurals, pímn, we; píb, ye or you; and piab, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

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

3. The following are the emphatic forms:—Mípe or mépi, myself; cúpa, thyself; pépean.
himself; pipe, herself; pinne, ourselves; pi̇pe, yourselves; pi̇opan, themselves.

4. The word péin, 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 péin, I myself; pi̇ péin, 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 tú 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mé, I</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mé, I</td>
<td>Nom. pinne, we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mo, mine</td>
<td>Gen. ãp, our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. dom, daín, to me</td>
<td>Dat. bűmn, to us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mé, me</td>
<td>Acc. inn or pinne, us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mipe, myself (emphatic form).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mipe, myself (emphatic form).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mipe, mepi, myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mo-pa, my own.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. dompa, daínpa, to myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mipe, mepi, myself.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tú, thou.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tú, thou.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tú.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. dút.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tú.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tú.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sé, he.

Nom. pé.  
Gen. a.  
Dat. òo.  
Acc. ë.

Nom. riab.  
Gen. a.  
Dat. òób.  
Acc. iab.

Sí, she.

Nom. ðí.  
Gen. a.  
Dat. ðí.  
Acc. ði.

Nom. riab.  
Gen. a.  
Dat. òób.  
Acc. iab.

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:—aṣ; aη or αη; aηη or α; αη; ñum; ñe; ño; ñοι or ροι; ρα or ροι; le; o or ωa; poù; peac; ταπ; τηδ; αηη; 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.
ETYMOLOGY.

Singular.
apam, with or at me.
apar, apao, with thee.
airse, with him.
aiic, or aic, with her.

Plural.
apamn, with us.
apar, or ap, with you.
aca or acu, with them.

The same with the emphatic increase.
apampa, with myself.
apar, with thyself.
aparsean, with himself.
apare, with herself.

A or ap, upon.
opam, on me.
opar, on thee.
ap, on him.
uppe, on her.

Oppamn, on us.
oppaib, on you.
oppa, opca, on them.

Ann or i, in.
ionnam, in me.
ionnar, ionnad, in thee.
ian, in him.
imte, imti, in her.

Oppann, ionann, in us.
ionnaib, in you.
ionnta, in them.

A, out of.
apam, out of me.
apar, apao, out of thee.
ap, out of him.
aprete, aprite, out of her.

Aramn, out of us.
araib, out of you.
ara, arcu, out of them.

Cum, towards, unto.
eupam, unto me.
eupar, unto thee.
euirse, unto him.
euic, unto her.

Eupann, unto us.
eparaib, unto you.
eeca, unto them.

De, from or off.
ofam, off or of me.
ofar, off thee.
de, off him.
oi, off her.

Oinm, off us.
ofb, off you.
ofob, off them.
Do, to.

ðam, ðom, ðaim, to me.
ðuir, to thee.
ðo, to him.
ði, to her.
ðúmn, to us.
ðaoib, ðib, to you.
ðóib, to them.

Eadp, between.

eadnam, between me.
eadnacr, between thee.
eadp e, between him.
eadp f, between her.
eadnam, between us.
eadnarb, between you.
eadonna, between them.

Pá or Paoi, under.

púm, under me.
púc, under thee,
paoi, under him.
púče, under her.
púmn, under us.
púib, under you.
púca, under them.

Le, with.

liom, with me.
leac, with thee.
leip, with him.
léite, léi, with her.

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

pîom, with me.
pîoc, with thee.
pîp, with him.
pia, with her.
pîmn, with us.
pîib, with you.
pîu, with them.

O or ua, from.

uaim, from me.
uairc, from thee.
uadó, from him.
uairce, uairci, from her.
uainn, from us.
uairb, from you.
uaca, from them.

Róim, before.

póimam, before me.
póinac, before thee.
póime, before him.
póimpe, póimpi, before her.
póimann, before us
póimaib, before you.
póimpa, before them.
ETYMOLOGY.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; bo, thy; a, his or her; dp, our; bap or bup, your; a, their. The three possessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.)
2. The o of mo and do is omitted before a vowel or before p; as m'acap, my father; m'peapann, my land. And oo is often changed, before a vowel, to e, e, and h; as e'acap, e'acap, or h-acap, 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 eac-qa, my house, or in my own house; mo eac mór buioe-p, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by péin (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as mo eac-qa péin, 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 bein beannac tó mórpeine, bear a blessing from my heart.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ann, in.</th>
<th>Plural.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am, am', in my.</td>
<td>Mór, 'mór, in our.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ao, ao', in thy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iona, ina, 'na, in his or her.</td>
<td>Iona, ina, 'na, in their.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do, to.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dom, dom', to my.</td>
<td>Dór, d'ór, to our.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doddob, doo', to thy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dá, d'a, to his or her.</td>
<td>Dá, d'a, to their.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ETYMOLOGY.

PART II.

le, with.

lem, lem', with my.
leo, leb', with thy.
lena, le n-a, with his or her.

lep, le'p, with our.

lena, le n-a, with their.

O or ua from.

óm, óm', from my.
óó, óó', from thy.
óna, ó n-a, from his or her.

óáp, ó'p, from our.

óna, ó 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 ci§, from his house; óna ci§, from her house; óna b-ci§, 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 ci§ món ápó-ра, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish:—
a, who, which, that; noc, who, which, that; nač, which not; as an te a buailéar, the person who strikes; an liaig noc a b€ir go b-puil cú plán, the physician that says that you are well; an te nač b-puil láuin, ní puláip do beire glic, "the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise."

2. Ód sometimes takes the place of the relative a; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as éidò na gaoilta ir peápp agum od b-puil a o-talam Epeann, "I have
the best friends that are (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes "oo stands for the relative a.

3. The relative a has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that," as bein beannaē cum a maichean be ṁolpaic Ɂa' r' Ēibir, "bear a blessing to all that live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" a ṃ-pui déc talaṁ o'acme Mhāme, "all that are in the land of the tribe of Māinē."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are po, this, these; pin, that, those; pūo or ēo, yonder: as an peap po, this man; na mnd pm, those women; pūo Ɂ p̣io̞p̣, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—cia or cé, who? cā, what? where? cāo or cpeub, what? as cia ēpuēni g cā? who created thee? cāo bein c̣u? what sayest thou? cā ḅ-pui an peap pm? where is that man? cpeub āp ēịg̣in? what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>One</th>
<th>Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aon, one</td>
<td>ceacabh, either.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēịg̣in, some, certain</td>
<td>uile, all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eule, one, other.</td>
<td>a céile, each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cāc, all.</td>
<td>an cé, an ci, the person who.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ɂạc̣, each, every.</td>
<td>cia ḅ'e, cibre, Ɂibe, whoever.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ɂạc̣ uile, every.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined; except cáč, which has a genitive form, cáčé; and gáč, which is sometimes made gáča 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 cóg, take, are as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. cógaim, I take.</td>
<td>1. cógaimaoib, we take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. cógair, thou takest.</td>
<td>2. cógairaoi, ye take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. cógao pé, he takes.</td>
<td>3. cógao, they take.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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, cógai, 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:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. cógai mé, I take.</td>
<td>1. cógai mínn we take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. cógai tú, thou takest.</td>
<td>2. cógai nib, ye take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. cógai ré, he takes.</td>
<td>3. cógai nídd, they take.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For
example, it would be wrong to say déanamn mé or déanamnáon 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 molam̄ píam̄ and molpaam̄ píam̄—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though molam̄ or molpaam̄ 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 έπεταλαμ̄ μείς Μίλεόμ, “the sons of Míle go;” mān νο έκονσαμ̄ πα να αραοίχε, “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 molam̄-pe, I praise; molap̄-pe, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word pēm̄ (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as νο έκαπίπ̄-pe pēm̄ μο λεαν̄β a ʧol̄αμ̄, “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 16 is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved;
all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

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

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb .Serialize(501) call, are:

(1.) The present; .Serialize(501) I call.
(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; .Serialize(501)am 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); .Serialize(501) I called.
(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; .Serialize(501)n, I used to call, or I used to be calling.
(5.) The future; .Serialize(501), I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

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

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

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.
4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buaíl, strike.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. . . .</td>
<td>1. buaílimíp, let us strike.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. buaíl, strike thou.</td>
<td>2. buaílíò, strike ye.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. buaileadó ré, let him strike.</td>
<td>3. buaílibír, let them strike.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. buaílim, I strike.</td>
<td>1. buaílimíd, we strike.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. buaílip, thou strikest.</td>
<td>2. buaílíò, ye strike.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. buaílíò ré, he strikes.</td>
<td>3. buaílíò, they strike.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaileann mé, I usually strike.

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

1. buaileap, I struck.
2. buaileá, thou struckest.
3. buail pé, he struck.

Old form of Past.

1. buaileap.
2. buailip.
3. buaileaptan.

Consuetudinal Past

1. buailmn, I used to strike.
2. buailéé, thou usedst to strike.
3. buailéó pé, he used to strike.

Future.

1. buailpead, I will strike.
2. buailfip, thou wilt strike.
3. buailfio pé, he will strike.

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

Conditional Mood.

1. buailpmn, I would strike.
2. buailped, thou wouldst strike.
3. buailpead pé, he would strike.

ETYMOLGY.

[PART II.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

(The same as the Indicative Present.)

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. buailtean mé, I am 1. buailtean mn or mn, we
struck. are struck.
2. buailtean cú, thou art 2. buailtean píb or ib, ye are
struck. struck.
3. buailtean é, he is struck. 3. buailtean íad, they are
struck.

Consuetudinal Present.

(Same as the Indicative Present.)

Past.

1. buaileao mé, I was 1. buaileao mn or mn, we
struck. were struck.
2. buaileao cú, thou wast 2. buaileao píb or ib, ye
struck. were struck.
3. buaileao é, he was 3. buaileao íad, they were
struck. struck.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. buailtí mé, I used to be 1. buailtí mn or mn, we
struck. used to be struck.
2. buailtí cú, thou usedst 2. buailtí píb or ib, ye used
to be struck. to be struck.
3. buailtí é, he used to be 3. buailtí íad, they used to
struck. be struck.
Future.

Singular. Plural.
1. buailpcapp mé, I shall or 1. buailpcapp pmn or mn, we
will be struck. shall or will be struck.
2. buailpcapp cú, thou shalt 2. buailpcapp pib or pb, ye
or wilt be struck. shall or will be struck.
3. buailpcapp é, he shall or 3. buailpcapp iab, they shall
will be struck. or will be struck.

Conditional Mood.

1. buailpfoe mé, I would 1. buailpfoe pmn or mn, we
be struck. would be struck.
2. buailpfoe cú, thou 2. buailpfoe pib or pb, ye
wouldst be struck. would be struck.
3. buailpfoe é, he would 3. buailpfoe iab, they would
be struck. be struck.

Infinitive Mood.

Do beic buailte, to be struck.

Participle.

Buailte, struck.

IV. Relative Form of the Verb.

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

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is
translated, not by an té a ʒowpu (3rd sing. form),
but by an té a ʒowpeap; and "he who will steal,"
is not an té a ʒowpíó (3rd sing. form), but an
té a ʒowpeap. In other tenses and moods the
relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," i.e., the present tense used for the past; as μαρτραίσεις Αμεργίν a h-aimim ôi, "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, Ἠ μῶρ an τοινγα ηομρα, νακ υ'Οιρίν ιαπμα Ριονν μυρε, "It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisin Finn seeks (ιαπμα) 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 buail (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60) ; and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.

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

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

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations im (or um), ip (or unp), &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, Oalal c, ómoppo, ollmòlgceao long leip, "as to Ith, indeed, a ship is prepared by him" (instead of ollmòlgceao, 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 poctap Eiremon doib, "Eremon reveals to them."

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

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

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

3. One of the particles do or po is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial
consonant is generally aspirated; as vo ḍ̣o̅i̅p̣i̅p̣, 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 vo or po is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as vo ḍ̣e̅a̅p̣a̅p̣, I stood; po ̅c̣o̅ḷa̅p̣, thou sleepedst; vo mola̅a̅ ̅o̅, they were praised; po buac̣la̅c̣a̅ ̅e̅, he was struck.

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

5. The principal of these compounds are:—

   (1.) ġp, whether? from an and po; as ġp ṛu̅a̅i̅ nṭ ré̅e̅, did he strike?
   (2.) ̅g̣p̣, that, from ̅g̣o̅ and po; as č̣e̅i̅̅o̅̅ṃ ̅g̣p̣ ̅ḅu̅a̅i̅nṭ ré̅e̅, I believe that he struck.
   (3.) Munap, unless, from muna and po; as munap ġu̅a̅i̅ nṭ ré̅e̅, unless he struck.
   (4.) Načap, or na‘p, or náp, whether not? from nač and po; as náp ġu̅a̅i̅ nṭ ré̅e̅, did not he strike?
(5.) Níop, not, from ní and po; as níop buacl pé, ne did not strike.*

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

**Future Tense.**

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

**Conditional Mood.**

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

2. But very often also óa, if, or muna, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as óa b-ρaδαmn-ρε mo ροδa, “if I would get my choice;” muna m-βειωεαδ δε δε, “unless he would be.”

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

**Infinitive Mood.**

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

---

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; do, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as ód gónaó, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); do m'gónaó, to wound me; do o'gónaó, to wound thee.

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

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as ód' n-gónaó, to wound us; do bup n-gónaó to wound you; ód n-gónaó, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding óó or eóó, 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 i 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 i); as buait, bualcaó; gom, gónaó, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by i alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as milt, millecaó, to destroy.

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

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.
tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root or Imperative</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ἐθά.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐθά, to die.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑνά.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑνά, to swim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ὁλ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ὁλ, to drink.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑνᾶσα.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑνᾶσα, to draw.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἐφ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐφ, to put.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἐκ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐκ, to weep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἔμπ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἔμπ, to play.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἔμπι.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἔμπι, to graze.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἐβι.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐβι, to banish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἐν.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐν, to conceal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑφά.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑφά, to leave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑφι.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑφι, to take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἐθό.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐθό, to lift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑλα.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑλα, to follow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑλη.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑλη, to lose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἐλ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἐλ, to nourish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑλλ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑλλ, to suit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἱλαρ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἱλαράκε, to move.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ἑπ.</td>
<td>ὀ' ἑπ, to listen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Participle.

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

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

When the root ends in ὅ, ὅ, ὅ, ὅ, ὅ, ὅ, ὅ, ὅ, or ὅ (except verbs in ἧγ or ἦγ), the τ of the participial termination retains its sound; after any other consonant, and also in verbs in ἦγ or ἦγ, the τ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations τ ἄγι and τ ἄ follow the same law.
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 ili, ini, ip, and iip, 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 buial.

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

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

5. In addition to this change, verbs in uiġ and iġ change ĺ into ē; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the ĺ retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and buial, 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 ili, ini, ip and iip are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as cooal, sleep, coolaum,

*As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."
I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in \( \textit{uig} \) almost always form their infinitive by dropping the \( i \) and adding the usual termination \( \textit{ao} \); those in \( \textit{ig} \) alone (not preceded by \( u \)), retain the \( i \) and take \( u \) after it in the infinitive: as \( \textit{comapntuig} \), mark; infinitive, \( \textit{comapntuigao} \); \( \textit{comapnluig} \), advise; infinitive, \( \textit{comapnluigao} \).

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule \( \textit{coal} \) \( \textit{le} \) \( \textit{cool} \) &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 \( \textit{buail} \) and \( \textit{meall} \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root or imper.</th>
<th>Pres. indic.</th>
<th>Future indic.</th>
<th>Conditional Mood</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{uig} ), direct.</td>
<td>( \textit{uigim} )</td>
<td>( \textit{uigeodao} )</td>
<td>( \textit{uigeodann} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{mpuyi}, love. )</td>
<td>( \textit{mpuyi} )</td>
<td>( \textit{mpuyi} )</td>
<td>( \textit{mpuyi} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{laapn}, speak. )</td>
<td>( \textit{laapn} )</td>
<td>( \textit{laapn} )</td>
<td>( \textit{laapn} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{tapiupi}, draw. )</td>
<td>( \textit{tapiupi} )</td>
<td>( \textit{tapiupi} )</td>
<td>( \textit{tapiupi} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{portgal}, open. )</td>
<td>( \textit{portgal} )</td>
<td>( \textit{portgal} )</td>
<td>( \textit{portgal} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{copam}, defend. )</td>
<td>( \textit{copam} )</td>
<td>( \textit{copam} )</td>
<td>( \textit{copam} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{innip}, tell. )</td>
<td>( \textit{innip} )</td>
<td>( \textit{innip} )</td>
<td>( \textit{innip} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \textit{opbip}, banish. )</td>
<td>( \textit{opbip} )</td>
<td>( \textit{opbip} )</td>
<td>( \textit{opbip} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. In Munster, verbs in \( \textit{uig} \), \( \textit{ip} \), and \( \textit{ip} \), are conjugated like those in \( \textit{uig} \) or \( \textit{ig} \); and the \( e6 \) comes \textit{after} the final consonant: thus \( \textit{opbip} \), banish, is made in the future and conditional, \( \textit{opbpeo6ao} \) and \( \textit{opbpeo6ann} \), as if the verb were \( \textit{uigpi} \).

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in \( \textit{uig} \) (\( \textit{apouig} \)) is given at page 65.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
<th>Indicative Mood</th>
<th>Imperative Mood</th>
<th>Conditional Mood</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mé</td>
<td>é</td>
<td>Same form as the Present Indicative.</td>
<td>Same form as the Present.</td>
<td>1. meall-amn</td>
<td>1. meall-Famn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meall-áq</td>
<td>é</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. meall-áq</td>
<td>2. meall-áq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meall-áo</td>
<td>é</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. meall-áo</td>
<td>3. meall-áo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meall-é</td>
<td>é</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. meall-amn</td>
<td>1. meall-Famn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meall-é</td>
<td>é</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. meall-é</td>
<td>2. meall-é</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meall-é</td>
<td>é</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. meall-é</td>
<td>3. meall-é</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Infinitive Mood, bo bec meall-ca.
### Synthetic Conjugation of ἀφοίη, raise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative Mood</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. —</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-μήν</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-γίνε</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-εσθι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εσθι</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres. Tense</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίη-ίμ</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ίμ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη-η</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-η</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-ε</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ε</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consuet. Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίη-ειν</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ειν</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη-εῖν</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εῖν</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-εῖν</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εῖν</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Simple Past</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίη-εστι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εστι</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη-η</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-η</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-ε</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ε</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consuet. Past.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίη-ίμ</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ίμ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη-ε</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ε</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-ε</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-ε</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conditional Mood,</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εοί</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Infinitive Mood,</strong> ἀφοίησαι</th>
<th><strong>Participle,</strong> ἀφοίης</th>
<th><strong>Infinitive Mood,</strong> ἀφοίησαι</th>
<th><strong>Participle,</strong> ἀφοίης</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive Mood, ἀφοίησαι</td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plur.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participle,</strong> ἀφοίης</td>
<td><strong>Sing.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plur.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ἀφοίησαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίησαι</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. ἀφοίησαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίησαι</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. ἀφοίησαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίησαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίησαι</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Same form as the Present Indicative.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sing.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plur.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
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<tr>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
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<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Same form as the Present.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sing.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plur.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
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<tr>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
<td>ἀφοίη-εισαι</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE VERB.

THE VERB.

THE VERB.

THE VERB.
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), táim, I am; (2), the assertive verb ḫp; (3), bēnim, I give; (4), bēnim, I bear; (5), čim, I see (including pečim); (6), clanim, I hear; (7), vēan-im, I do; (8), gním or nim, I do; (9), bēnim, I say; (10), pānim or sēnim, I find; (11), čim, I eat; (12), pīm, I reach; (13), sēdim, I go; (14), sōm, I come.

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

(1.) Táim, I am.

Imperative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. . . .</td>
<td>1. bimiph, let us be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. bī, be thou.</td>
<td>2. bōto, be ye.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. bīdādō pé, or bīōdō pé, let him be.</td>
<td>3. bōtōp, let them be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. táim, atáim, I am.
2. táip, atáip, thou art.
3. tá pe, atá pé, he is.

Plural.

1. támaoid, atámaoid, we are.
2. tácaoi, atácaoi, ye are.
3. táib, atáid, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

1. tá mé, atá mé, I am:
2. tá tú, atá tú, thou art.
3. tá pe, atá pé, he is.

Consuetudinal Present.

1. bsiom, I am usually.
2. bsopip, thou art usually.
3. bsocann pé, or bsomn pé, he is usually.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

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

1. ní b-puilim, I am not.*
2. ní b-puilip, thou art not.
3. ní b-puil pé, he is not.

1. ní b-puilmfo, we are not.
2. ní b-puilcí, ye are not.
3. ní b-puilb, they are not.

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the b-pu were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to níl'm, níl'ip, níl'pé, &c.
Past Tense.

Singular.                                                                                   Plural.
1. *bióeap*, *bió*, I was.                                                              1. *bióeamanap*, *biómanap*, we were.
2. *bióip*, *bíp*, thou wert.                                                            2. *bióeabap*, *bióban*, ye were.
3. *bíó pé*, *bíd pé*, he was.                                                           3. *bíodeabap*, *bíoban*, they were.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. *bióinn*, *bínn*, I used to be.                                                        1. *bióémíp*, *bímp*, we used to be.
2. *bióéed*, *bíéed*, thou usedst to be.                                                  2. *bíóéí*, *bící*, ye used to be.
3. *bíóedó pé*, *bíóó pé*, he used to be.                                                  3. *bíóéíp*, *bíóíp*, they used to be.

Interrogative and Negative Past.

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

1. *ní pabap*, I was not.                                                                  1. *ní pabamanap*, we were not.
2. *ní pabap*, thou wert not.                                                              2. *ní pabamíp*, ye were not.
3. *ní pabíp*, he was not.                                                                 3. *ní pabímanap*, they were not.

Future.

1. *beróead*, I shall be.                                                                  1. *beróémíp*, we shall be.
2. *beróip*, thou shalt be.                                                                2. *beróíp*, ye shall be.
3. *beró pé*, he shall be.                                                                 3. *beróíp*, they shall be.
Conditional Mood.

1. beidinn, I would be.
2. beidéd, thou wouldst be.
3. beidéaó ré, or beidé ré, he would be.

1. beidím, we would be.
2. beidé, ye would be.
3. beidí, they would be.

Infinitive Mood.

Óo beidé, to be.

Participle.

A3 beidé, 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 (b-puilim), and a form in the past tense for the same (pabap). These two are classed by O’Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms b-puilim and pabap are used only:

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as ní b-puil pé tinn, he is not sick; ní pab mé ann ré, I was not there; an b-puil pión in báir longaib? “Is there wine in your ships?” An pabap a3 an 1-capparóg? “Wert thou at the rock” (or at Carrick)? O naé b-puil but uacó a5am, “since I cannot escape from him” (lit. “since it is not with me to go from him”); an b-puil a réor a5ar réin, a Fínn? ní púil, a Fínn, “Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?” ‘It is not,’ says Finn.”

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative cionnáir, how?)
(b.) After 50, that; as ἐπείπμ 50 ἐ-πιλ ὑπ ρλάν, I say that he is well.
(c.) After the relative α when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies "all that" (Par. 8, page 47); as εἰνευ ἐ αν βαβάνα ἥαβαναι αν Ὁην, ἃ ἐ-πιλ οἱρ ὑν ὄντ; "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "with whom is a knowledge"); ἐ-πιλ ὑ ὑ-κλατ 50 ὅ-Οην ἁν ἀν ἐβαβαναι, "all that is from Ἀθ-κλαθ (Dublin) to ὅ-Οην ἁν ἀν ἐβαβαναι;" ἐ-πείπμαν ἀν μ-βρεια-ταν ἁα βεαν ὑμν ἁ-μ-βευναι 50 Μιον 5ιρβ, "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 μαν ἀν ἀ-κέωνα ὑπ (or ὑ-επαρ) ὑ ὅ-ἀρ ἁν ὑμε ἁν ὅ ἁ-μ ἁν ὑμε; "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 ἀν ὑα ὑ ὅ ἀν ἀ-καπαναι; ὑ ὑ ὅ-ἀρ ἁν ἀ-καπαναι, "Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick."

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

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb "to be" in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded
as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of buailteap mé, I am struck, we can say tó mé buailte: for do buailteodó mé, I was struck, do bí mé buailte, &c.

(2.) 1p, it is.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1p, it is: as 1p mé, it is I; 1p cú, it is thou.

Past Tense.

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

Future Tense.

buó or bu, it will be.

Conditional Mood.

baó, 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 3up, that, it is often made ab, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as cpeirm 3up ab é atá ce, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: meaqvim vá péim rín, 3up ab dá bhuaíin asup ríce pul nugaó Abraham táiní Papeolón i n-Eípmn, “I think, according to that
that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often ụp ab is shortened by omitting the a; as cpeibim ụp ’bé, &c.; and sometimes the b is joined to ụp, as cpeibim ụp b é, &c.

7. After má, if, the i is omitted, as má’r πiou é, if it be true; and in this case the r is often joined to the má; as má’r πiou é: már maet leat a beió buan, ca’é μiou aṣúr reité, “if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot” (or “drink cold and flee”—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes ba or ba is shortened to b or b alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as laóc o’rí b’am-m ụp, or laóc o’rap b’am-m ụp, “a hero whose name was Lír;” of which the full construction is, laóc o’o a po ba am-m ụp, “a hero to whom was name Lír.”

9. There is another form, pá, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: pá tréanϕeap an Ceat po, “this Ceat was a mighty man;” pí tí (banba) pa beán o’o Muac Coll, o’r πí’ b’am-m oínpa Éa’ér, “it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;” oí é an pcoitbéapla pá teanϕa cortcann pan Scitia an trá Ϝo émiall Neimheó arϕe, "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 cá and íp, see Idioms.

*For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O’Donovan’s most instructive article in his “Irish Grammar,” p. 161.
(3.) bheipim, *I give.*

**ACTIVE VOICE.**

**Imperative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. bheip</td>
<td>1. cabnamaoip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. cabpin</td>
<td>2. cabนาi๐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. cabpaōp</td>
<td>3. cabnavaoip</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

*First Person Singular.*

Present: bheipim, cabnaim, or tugaim.  
Conset. Pres.: heinenn.  
Past: tugar.  
Conset. Past: heimim, tugaim.  
Future: beańaad, cabapnaad.  
Conditional Mood: beańaam, cabapnaam.  

**Passive Voice.**

Imperative; beințep, cabapęap, tugęap, mé, ū, e, &c.  

**Indicative Mood.**

Present: beințep, tugęap.  
Past: tugad.  
Conset. Past: beintide, tugęaidę.  
Future: beańap, cabapnaap.  
Conditional Mood: beańaide, cabapnaide.  

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

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

(4.) beipim, I bear.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.  
1. . . .  
2. beip.  
3. beipao pé.

Plural.  
1. beipumfr.  
2. beipé.  
3. beipiofr.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present: beipim.  
Consuet. Present: beipeann.  
Past: nígar.  
Future: béannad.

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

Conditional Mood: béannán.

INFinitive; do bpeict.  PARTICIPLE; ag bpeict.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood; behpéean mé, tú, é, &c.
THE VERB.

Indicative Mood.

Present: beíntéap.
Past: nuṣaod.
Conseut. Past: beínti.
Future: beáppan.

Mé, tú, é, &c.

Conditional

Mood:

Infinitive; do beínté. Participle; beínté.

(5.) Óím, I see.

Active Voice.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Plural.
1. . . . 1. peicimír, peicimí.
2. peic. 2. peició.
3. peicéd pé. 3. peicióip.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. ófíim, óím, peicim. 1. ófíimí, ófíimí, peicimíd
2. ófíir, óír, peicir. 2. ófíicí, óític, peicióí.
3. ófíid pé, óid pé, peició pé. 3. ófíidó, ófíd, peiciód.

Conseut. Pres.; ófídeann, peicéann, mé, tú, pé, &c.

Past.

1. óonnáncap. 1. óconcaman.
2. óonnáncap. 2. óconcabán.
3. óonnáirc pé. 3. óconcabán.

First Person Singular.

Conseut. Past: ófíinn or óínn.
Future: ófípéad or ófípéad.

Conditional ófíppinn, or óíppinn, or

Mood: peicíppinn.

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

Infinitive Mood; ó'peicípín or ó'peicípint.
Participle; ag peicípín or ag peicípint.
ETYMOLOGY.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood; peicean, mé, čú, é, &c.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense: čīotceap or peiceap.
Past: connapcaú.
Past. Consuet.: čīotcī or peicēi.
Future: čīotpeap or peiceapeap. Me, čú, é, &c.

Conditional čīotpiđe or peicpiđe.

Mood:

Infinitive Mood; bo čeit peicee. Participle; peicēe

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

2. Peicim or paicim, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of čīom, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of čīom is always aspirated.

(G.) Cluinim. I hear.

Indicative Mood.

Past Tense.

1. čualap.
2. čualap.
3. čualaid pé.

Infinitive Mood Active; bo čloprop or bo čloïpčim.

Participle Active; a5 čloap or a5 cloïpčim.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluinim is regular, and is conjugated like buait.
THE VERB.

(7.) déanaim, I do.

**ACTIVE VOICE.**

**Imperative Mood.**

1. béanam, déanamaoir, déanamaid.
2. déan.
3. déanaíd pé.

**Indicative Mood.**

**Past Tense.**

1. piénap, déarnap, déanap.
2. piénp, déarnap, déanap.
3. pié pé, déarnap pé.

First Person Singular.

**Present:** déanaim.
**Consuet. Pres.:** déanann.
**Consuet. Past:** píénn, déarnann, déanann.

**Future:** déanapad.

**Conditional** déanpaínn.

**Infinitive Mood;** do déanam or do déanaíd.

**Participle;** aig déanam or aig déanaíd.

**PASSIVE VOICE.**

**Imperative Mood;** Déantap mé, tú, é, &c.

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present:** déantap.
**Past:** piénaíd, déarnab.
**Consuet. Past:** píité.
**Future:** déanpaín.

**Conditional** déanpaíde.

**Infinitive Mood;** do béit déantá. **Participle;** déantá.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.
(8.) Ḍním or ním, I do.

**Active Voice.**

**Indicative Mood.**

First Person Singular.

Present: Ḍním or ním.

Past: Ḍnídeap or ṇídeap.

Consuet. Past: Ḍníomn or ṇíomn.

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

**Passive Voice.**

**Indicative Mood.**

Present: Ḍníteap or ṇíteap.

Consuet. Past: Ḍnífi or ṇífi.

\[\text{Mé, tú, é, &c.}\]

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

(9.) véapim, I say.

**Active Voice.**

**Imperative Mood.**

Singular. Plural.

1. . . . 1. abnam, abramaoir, abramaoid.

2. abapn. 2. abapó.

3. abpaó pé: 3. abpaoid.

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

1. véapim: 1. véapimidó.

2. véapíp: 2. véapípó.

3. véap pé: 3. véapó.

Consuet. Pres. véapéann me, tú, pé, &c.
THE VERB.

**Past.**

1. 
2. 
3. 

**First Person Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consuet. Past</th>
<th>беипммн.</th>
<th>На the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>бёаппаб.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>бёаппамнн.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE MOOD:** бп доб. **PARTICLE:** ап доб.

**PASSIVE VOICE.**

**IMPÉRATIVE MOOD:** абаптап мё, тü, е, &c.

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>беиптёапн.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>бубпаб.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consuet Past</td>
<td>беиптёи</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>бёаппап.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONDITIONAL MOOD:** бёаппайдн.

**INFINITIVE MOOD:** бо быть пайдце, бо быть пайде.

**PARTICLE:** пайдце, пайде.

1. The verb аппам, I say, from which беипм борrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.
2. Observe the characteristics of бубпаб, the past indicative active:—(a) it does not take the participle бо or по; (b) the initial is not aspirated.
3. The letter a is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis; as а беипм for беипм, I say; а вубаипт пё for вубаипт пё, he said.
(IO.) Paštım or ġeibim, I find.

**Active Voice.**

**Imperative Mood.**

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. . .</td>
<td>1. paštmaip, paštmaib.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pašt</td>
<td>2. paštib.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. paštib pé, or ġeib pé.</td>
<td>3. paštib or ġeibib.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. paštım or ġeibim.</td>
<td>1. paštmaib or ġeibimbo.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. paštım or ġeibim.</td>
<td>2. paštib or ġeibifó.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. paštib pé, or ġeib pé.</td>
<td>3. paštib or ġeibib.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. puapap.</td>
<td>1. puapamán.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. puapap.</td>
<td>2. puapabap.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. puapap pé.</td>
<td>3. puapap.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**First Person Singular.**

**Consuet. Past:** paštami or ġeibim.  
**Future:** ġéabab, ġeoðab.  
**Future neg. & interrog.:** ġéabab or bpuigaðab.  
**Conditional Mood:** ġéabamn, ġeoðamn.  

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

**Passive Voice.**

**Imperative Mood:** paštın me, ŝu, ŝ, &c.

**Indicative Mood.**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present:</td>
<td>paštín.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Past:</td>
<td>puapab or ppu.</td>
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*Defective in Infinitive and Participle.*)

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

2. The past tense (πυθαπ, &c.) may or may not take the particle όο or ρο; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) ἵαμ, I eat.

**ACTIVE VOICE.**

First Person Singular.

*Future Indicative:*  ἰορραπ.  With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

*Conditional Mood:*  ἰορραμμ.  

1. The past indicative is either the regular form ὦ’ηεαπ, &c., or the irregular ὄαρ (with the usual terminations: — ὄαρ, ὄαρ ὑε, &c.)

2. The infinitive is ὦ’ηε.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) ἱγίμ, I reach.

**Imperative Mood.**

*Sing. Plural.*

1. пи.  1. пиεμ.  
2. пиδ.  2. пиδ.  
3. пиδεδ πε.  3. пиδεδ πε.

*Indicative Mood.*

*Present Tense.*

*Sing. Plural.*

1. пи.  1. пиεμφ.  
2. пиδ.  2. пиδ.  
3. пиδ πε.  3. пиδ.
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Past.

1. páŋap.
2. páŋap.
3. páŋap ré, páŋap ré.

First Person Singular.

Consuet Past: páŋapm.
Future: páŋapad.
Conditional Mood: páŋapmn.

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

Infinite; do piačtam or do pötam.

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: piačap.
Future: piačrap.
Conditional Mood: piačrann.

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

(13.) Teïóm, I go.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Plural.
1. . . . 1. teïómp.
2. teïó. 2. teïób.
3. teïóad ré. 3. teïóbíp.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. teïóm. 1. teïómp.
2. teïó. 2. teïó or teïó.
3. teïó ré. 3. teïób.
Past Tense.

1. cuadap.
2. cuadap.
3. cuaid pé.
1. cuadmap.
2. cuadaban.
3. cuadaban.

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 beadaap
2. ní beadaap.
3. ní beadaido pé.
1. ní beadamap.
2. ní beadaban.
3. ní beadaban.

First Person Singular.

Consuet Past:  céinnn.
Future:  naóad or naed.
Conditional  naóainn or naóainn.
Mood:  With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

Infinitive; do òul.  Participle; ag òul.

(14.) tigim, I come.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.  Plural.
1. . . .  1. tigimim or tigeam.
2. tig  or tig.  2. tigid.
3. tigaeid pé.  3. tigidip.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. tigim.
2. tigim.
3. tig pé 1. tigimfo.
2. tigid, tigioth
3. tigio.
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Past Tense.

1. ὑάναρ.
2. ὑάναρ.
3. ὑάνιε ρέ.

First Person Singular

Consuet Past  ὑιομή.
Future:       ὑιοπαβ.
Conditional   ὑιοπαίμ.
Mood:        

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

Infinitive; ὑο ἀεάτ. Participle; ὑτ ἀεάτ.

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

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

 Glyph or ἄρ, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb quoth; as, Glyph ῆρ, says he: ἐρευ ὑο ὑέοπαρῃ ὑαμ ? ἄρ ὑαρμαύ: "'What wilt thou do for me?' says Diarmaid;" ὑεάν ὑελυρ ὑιομ ὑαρ α β-πολ ῆρ, ἄρ ῆαβ, "'give knowledge to us where he is,' said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written ol.

Glyph baγ, he (or she) died.

Glyph, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). Glyph ὑμ, methinks or me-thought; Glyph λεατ it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pro-nouns singular and plural: ὑο μιε ρέ, Glyph λιο, ὑαρ αν ὑαοτ, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

Glyph ῆαρ, it is lawful, it is allowed.
Our, to know; dáimic pé ouch an páth riáfa ann, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Peóadach, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: ní péóadach mé, I do not know; ní péóadach pé, he does not know; an b-peóadachbap? do ye know?

Ní puláip, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); ní puláip óam a beic aip riubal, "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. For 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 50, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix ly; as bopb, fierce; 50 bopb, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

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

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

A b-pá, far off, in space or A b-toraíc, at first, in the time.

Aoup, on this side. (See A b-tuar, northwards.

call.) A 5-céadóip, immediately.
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A ṣ-cém, far off.
A ṣ-comnūisē, always.
A ṣ ėn, there.
A ṣ po, here.
A ṣ rūb, yonder.
A ṣ ain, back, backward.
(See A ṣ ēsīn.)
A ṣ ball, on the spot, instantly.
A ṣ bić, at all.
A ṣ bun, on foundation: ēn ṣ ain ben, to found, to institute.
A ṣ ēanu, in like manner; in general.
A ṣ ēoīōće, for ever.
A ṣ ēsīn, with difficulty; perforce:—ain ṣ ail no ain ēsīn, by consent or by force: nōlens volens; willy nilly.
A ṣ ē-cūl, backwards, back: ēn ṣ ain ē-cūl—the opposite to ēn ṣ ain bun—to put back, to abolish.
A ṣ leīt, apart, separately.
A ṣ móō, in a manner; so that:
A ṣ ṣon, for the sake of.
A ṣ uainīb, at times; sometimes.
Amaāō, out of, outside.
Aūdīn, alone, only.
Amāōaō, to-morrow.
Amuīs, outside.
Amūlt, like, as.
An āinōe, on high.
Anē, yesterday.
Anōp, from below, upwards.
Ann ēṃpeaōć, together.
Ann ėn, there.
Ann po, here.
Ann rūb, yonder.
A ndeap, southward.
Anāice, near.

A ṣall, to this side; hither.
A ṣān, near.
Aūnu, to-day.
Aūnuī, now.
Aūnn, to that side; thither.
An tōn, when.
Aūnuīp, from above, downwards.
Ańēp, last night.
Ańōmān, ever.
Ańīp, again.
Ańtēaōī, in, into.
Ańtīs, in, inside.
Bēq naō, little but; almost.
A ē h−aōp, caō ap, caīp, from what? whence?
A ē mēō, how many? how much?
A ēōt, caō h−aōt, caīō aōt, what place?
De ēnīp, because.
De pōp, always.
Eāōon, that is; i.e.; id est.
Pā, gives an adverbial meaning to some words.
Pā ēōdōōīp, immediately.
Pāōōō, at last.
Pāōō, twice.
Pā peaōī, by turns; respectively.
Pā ēpī, thrice.
Pō bāē, for ever (lit. to [the] judgment).
Pō bēēmōn, verily; truly; indeed.
Pō b−ōt, unto.
Pō bōīl, yet; awhile.
Pō h−omlūān, altogether.
Pō lēpī, entirely.
Pō leōp, enough.
Tomōōpo, however, moreover, indeed.
Māullie pe, together with.
Māp an ṣ−cēōna, likewise; in like manner.
1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:

1. The same as a.
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
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-píodóire**, in presence of.
**A b-pócain**, with, along with.
**A b-taoib**, in regard to, concerning.
**A b-tuiméall**: see tuiméall,
**A b-ceann**, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.
**A b-comne**, against, for (in the phrase to go for): μικρο a b-comne a céile, “they run against each other”: to oíunu pe a b-comne a atap, he went for his father.
**A b-coirp**, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to coirp: coir na bhfíche, “beside the (river) Bride.”
**A b-aicile, after**: a b-aicile na laoide rín, “after that lay.”
**Ameapg**, amongst: ríor ameapg na b-coillcead, “down amongst the woods.”
**A lítain**, in presence of.
**Ain ádaith, forward**, over against, opposite: til ain ádaith, to go forward, to progress: ain ádaith na gaoite, opposite (exposed to) the wind.
**Ain béalaíb**, in front of, opposite: to luigtrip to ónad a n-tomóib an bealaíb a n-atap, “they used to lie customarily, in beds opposite their father” (Children of Lir).
**Ain bun**, on foundation.
**Ain céann**, for (in the phrase to go for); as a dubbán Naire le h-áthán til ain céinn Peiguir, “Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus.”
**Ain peadh**, through, throughout, during: ain peadh bláona. “during a year.”
**Ain poub, throughout, amongst**: ain poub na b-conn, amongst the waves.
**Ain b-cúil**, behind.
**Ain ron**, for the sake of, although.
**A n-biadrí, after**: a n-biadrí a céile, after one another, one after another.
**Coirp**, contracted from a b-coirp.
**Dála, as to**: dála blánaide, “as to Blanaid.”
**O’éir, after**: o’éir na dúnne, “after the deluge.”
**O’núnnráipíor or O’núnnráipge, towards**: gluairpé ar poíme bh’núnnráipge a lúinge, “he goes forward towards his ship.”
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 meanings are not quite obvious.
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Acr, but, except.
Acr éanu, but however.
Acr, and; often contracted to ac‘, ac, and r.
An an aóban pm, wherefore.
An, an interrogative particle: an b-puil ri pldn? Is she well?
An, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See p. 58.
Bfob, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb tám.
Cfn: see Cfn.
Cóm, as.
Cd, if: sometimes written oí mo.
Oo bniq, because.
Oo cum go, in order that.
Pó, yet, moreover.
Dn or dno, although.
So, that.
Dmnó aíne pm, wherefore.
Dun, that: formed of the preceding and no: see p. 58.
Dónd, md: see nd.
Dónnur go, in order that, so that.
Mí, if.
Mé do go, although that.
Mñ, as: see muna.
Muna, if not, unless; often written mun, and even (corruptly) mán.
Múndeó, if so, well then.
Mán pm, mán go, in that manner, in this manner: thus.
Ná, than: see ond.
Ná, nor, not.
Nó, or: often pronounced nú in Munster.
O, since, seeing that, because.
O tarp, since, whereas.
Oí, because.
Sul, before.
Umne pm, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjunctional 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.—Monáne, O shame!
Ar tnuq, alas! what pity!
Apte, hush! list!
—Panaq, panaoin, alas!
Panaoin tnuq, alas! O sharp sorrow!
Pead, see! behold!
Mairg, woe! O sad!
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.

*Gip* or *eir*, back or again, like English *re*: as *tóc*, payment; *eirroc*, repayment, restitution: *eipóic*, rising; *eipeipóic* resurrection.

*Ann* or *aún*, a negative particle, like English *un*: as *néthood, open, clear; aúnpóíor*, difficult, rough.

*Am*, an intensive particle: as *luacógead*, joyful; as *an-luacógead*, overjoyed.

*Ann* or *aóm*, a negative particle, like English *un*: as *imátc*, time; *antrátc*, untimely: *mánc*, desire; *amhúan*, evil desire.

*At*, a reiterative, like English *re*: as *pááo*, a saying; *atpááo*, a repetition.

*At* has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as *cumada*, a form; *atcumada*, to deform, to destroy; *προφατ*, to crown or elect a king; *atpóigma*, to dethrone.

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

*Bioc* or *bióic*, lasting, constant: as *beó*, living; *bitbeó*, everlasting.
Cóm, equal: English co or con: as aippeap, time; cóm-
aippeanda, contemporary.

Déag, dei., good: as blap, taste; déagblap, good or
pleasant taste.

Of, or, a negative, like English dis: as céitliœ, wise; of-
éitliœ, foolish: ceann, a head; ofcœanna, to behead.

Opro, oro, bad or evil: as obaip, a work; oro-obain
an evil work.

Do and po are opposites, as are also often the letters d and p.
Do denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or posi-
tive quality: as pàippeanda or pòippeanda, visible; do-
pàippeanda, invisible: dolap, tribulation; pòolap, comfort:
donap, ill luck; ponap, good luck: do-déunta, hard to be
done; po-déunta, easy to be done: oubaé, sad; pu.baé, merry.

Ca, a negative, often causing eclipsis: as ouaippean, strong;
éapaippean, weak: cóm, just; éagóip, injustice: tnon.
heavy; éaóip, light.

Capp, a negative: as onóip, honour; eapanóip, dishonour:
plan, healthful; eapulán, sick: caipóip, friendship; eap-
caipóip, enmity.

Po, under: as õume, a man; poúume, an under-man, a
common man, a servant.

Pn, against, back, contra: as buille, a stroke; pni+bul-
le, a back stroke: buac, a hook; pni+óac, a back-hook, a barb.

11, 101, many: as 10m0d, much; 110m0d, sundry, various:
dac, a colour; 10d0dac, many coloured: paobap, an edge;
101paobap, many-edged weapons.

In, 101, fit: as déunta, done; mdéunta, fit to be done:
patce, said; onpatce, fit to be said.

Uán, full, used as an intensive: as cióbel, vast; lánci-
béil, awfully vast.

Leac, half: as 1aip, an hour; leatuaip, half an hour.
This word is also used to denote one of a pair: thus puil, an
eye; leac-puíl (literally half an eye), one of two eyes. See
"Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, mio, a negative: as meap, respect; miómeap, disres-
pct: cómam ple, advice; miocóam ple, evil advice.

Nearn, neum, a negative: as comairé, comprehensible;
neamcomairé, incomprehensible: nó, a thing; neum-
im, nothing.

Reum, before, like English pre: as patce, said; neum
patce, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensive particle: as mop, great; nó-móp, very
great.
Sdp, an intensive particle: as mac, good; pán-mac, very good.
So, poi, the opposite to bo, denotes apt, easy, good: as beaprbca, proved; porbeaprbca, easily proved.
Un or ún, an intensive particle: as únpal, low; únpíal, 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.

A cá, 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 nárioean, the black-thorn; nárioeanad, abounding in black-thorn: brúatap, a word; brúatapad, wordy, talkative.

A cá, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as cúmaéd, power: cúmaédad, a mighty person: Connadad, a native of Connaught.

A cá, an abstract termination, like the English ness and ty (in probity): as cántéanaéd, charitable; cántéanaéd, charity: môn and mônóad, great; mônóad, greatness.

Auíle, Úuíle, or òíle, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as cop, a foot; coipíle, a walker: tiomán, drive; tiomán-úíle, a driver.

Aíne or ìne, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as lóí, a track; lóígne, a tracker: ceulí, guile; ceulígne, a deceiver.

Aíthl has the same meaning as the English like and ly: as plúité, a prince; plúitéamad, princely.

Aí, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense; as loí a lake; loódn, a small lake.

Aí or əp, and sometimes the letter p alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like əc; as əpíbm, delightful;

* For a full account of these terminations see the author’s “Origin and History of Irish Names of Places.” Second series, Chaps. I. and II.
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aoibreap, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; ceannap, headship, authority.

bap and bpe have a collective or cumulative sense; as buille, a leaf; builleabap, foliage: baip, an oak; baipbpe, a place of oaks.

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

Oe, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English ful and ly (in manly). In the modern language it is varied to the forms 0a, 0c, and ca; as mop, great; mucna, a man; muncna, manly; mile, a champion; miledoca, champion-like, knightly.

ε denotes abstract quality, like duc; as pinne, fairness: bo5, soft; burge, 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. bócaip, a road; bócaipín (bohreen), a little road: crusk, a pitcher; cruiskeen, a little pitcher.

Laö, pao, raö, taö, taö, have all the same meaning as ao, namely, full of, abounding in; as bap, break; baipleac, a breach, a complete defeat: muc, a pig; muclaö, a piggery: lucaip, rushes; lucaipnaö, a rushy place: bo5, a bog or soft place; boignaö, a place full of bogs: colb, a wood; coltceadö, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words poult-ry, varie-ty, &c.

Mhap means abounding in, like the English ful and ly; as bimp, power; bimpbap, powerful.

O5, a diminutive termination; as cip, black; cipnoö, a black little animal (a clock): 5abal, a fork; alabalö5, a little fork.

Oip, or 0öp, or 0öp, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English er in reaper; as buag, strike; buagleöip, a thresher: coneip, a candle; coneipö, a candlestick: peal, a scythe; pealeöööp, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like baip; as beul, the mouth; belp, language, speech.

Seaö is used as a sort of feminine termination; as gell, an Englishman; gellpeacö, an Englishwoman: ömpacö, a female fool (from an old root ön, whence the old word ön- nit, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amabdn).

Taö and taö: see laö.
PART III.
SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.
NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as ἦν ἡμῶν, the voice of a hound; ἐρείπην ἔρημος, "in the sovereignty of Erin;" bápp na h-ιπε, 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 ἰπ, 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 ἰγ-μενοῦ ἄρη, "Conall in the forms of death;" α ἰδόλαρ ἱποιε οἱ πέπε, "in the sorrow of bondage and of pain."

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.
4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as pliúch Thaoioll, "the race of Gaodhal;" clochean Mhanannan, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, ó and t often resist aspiration (p. 34); as Eimhín le Gáedhaol, "Eiré, the daughter of Dealbhaoth."

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

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipse sometimes occurs; as naíid naomhán do bít aog ráidh g'fhaire mór cáidra má-ride bh-éimin, "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 Nuadha Gipgioblaí mac Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh; na b-anbairm, mac Góinna, "of the three Finnnavnas, sons of Eochad."

Here, in the first example, Nuadha is nominative, and so is mac, which is in apposition to it; Gipgioblaí is genitive, and so is the next word, mac, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, Góinna 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, bánann buíoch órda mán
The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between *aithiop* and *bean*, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after *ap*), the latter nominative (its dative would be *mnaon*, p. 29). In the second example *comóaltsa* is genitive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, p. 112), and *Cian*, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be *Cém*). In the last example *Mheagamaíp* is genitive, and *leóman*, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7 which are explained further on ("Idioms:" No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as English, "a gold ring," Irish, *páinne óip*, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as *peap ólíge*, 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, *noccuí* an *púpeann* *pín*, "that company disclose;" *tangados* an *bhúseo* *cúpaí* *pín* *á* *lácaí* *Phinn*, *aúr* *á* *béannui* *muí* *bo*, "that company of knights came to the presence of Finn, and they saluted him."

The personal nouns from *diap* to *deiweadap*, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as *bo* *bódap* an *diap* *pín* *50* *h-impneapnac", "that pair were at strife."
10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take \( \text{de} \) with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as \( \text{ga} \text{d} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{r} \text{p} \text{d} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{v} \text{d} \), "a hound of our hounds;" \( \text{aon} \text{c} \text{a} \text{p} \text{p} \text{i} \text{o} \text{b} \), "one berry of them;" \( \text{c} \text{ac} \text{b} \text{u} \text{i} \text{ne} \text{d} \text{e} \text{n} \text{p} \text{o} \text{b} \text{u} \text{l} \), "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from \( \text{vi} \text{p} \text{r} \text{t} \text{e} \text{c} \text{n} \text{e} \text{a} \text{b} \text{a} \text{n} \) inclusive (p. 39,) and also \( \text{c} \text{e} \text{r} \text{o} \text{a} \), three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as \( \text{vi} \text{p} \text{r} \text{b} \text{a} \text{n} \), "two (of) women;" a \( \text{c} \text{u} \text{i} \text{p} \text{r} \text{m} \text{a} \text{c} \text{a} \text{g} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{v} \), "three wives;" \( \text{c} \text{e} \text{r} \text{o} \text{a} \) \( \text{b} \text{a} \text{n} \), "three women;" \( \text{n} \text{a} \text{o} \text{n} \text{b} \text{a} \text{n} \) \( \text{c} \text{a} \text{o} \text{i} \text{r} \text{a} \text{c} \text{e} \), "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take \( \text{de} \) with the dative as in last rule; as \( \text{n} \text{a} \text{o} \text{i} \text{n} \text{a} \text{o} \text{n} \text{b} \text{a} \text{n} \) \( \text{d} \text{o} \text{m} \text{a} \text{o} \text{r} \text{a} \text{b} \) \( \text{n} \text{a} \text{b} \text{p} \text{h} \text{o} \text{m} \text{o} \text{r} \text{a} \text{d} \), "nine times nine of the stewards of the Fomorians:" \( \text{m} \text{o} \text{b} \text{i} \text{r} \text{m} \text{a} \text{c} \), \( \text{m} \text{o} \text{b} \text{i} \text{r} \text{d} \text{e} \text{p} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{v} \text{a} \text{b} \), "my two sons, my two men."

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CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as \( \text{a} \text{n} \text{r} \text{e} \text{a} \text{p} \), the man; \( \text{n} \text{a} \text{c} \text{i} \text{r} \text{e} \text{c} \), of the hen; \( \text{n} \text{a} \text{b} \text{a} \), 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, \( \text{c} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \) \( \text{a} \text{b} \text{m} \text{i} \text{n} \text{e} \text{n} \), not, \( \text{a} \text{r} \text{i} \text{p} \) \( \text{a} \text{b} \text{m} \text{i} \text{n} \text{e} \text{n} \).

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 \( \text{a} \text{n} \text{r} \text{e} \text{a} \text{p} \text{d} \text{e} \text{m} \text{e} \text{c} \), the teacher; \( \text{m} \text{a} \text{b} \text{i} \text{r} \text{m} \text{a} \text{c} \text{a} \text{g} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{v} \text{a} \text{b} \) \( \text{m} \text{a} \text{b} \text{i} \text{r} \text{d} \text{e} \text{p} \text{a} \text{r} \text{a} \text{v} \text{a} \text{b} \), "if thou givest
so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both le and ẹog. ọmọg gong ọmọrin an ọhụ ọchọ Shmeon ụhọc, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before ọchọ, 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 ceąc m'ạcąp, not an ceąc m'ạcąp.

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 ọn ọeap ụn, that man, literally "the man that;" na mnd ụn, 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 Ọdọp na ọmọ Ọbọa, nọdọ, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" Ọbọa na h-ọmọa, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" ọmọg ọmọ ọmọ a h-ọmọa, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as ọn ọ-Ocọp ọgb, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb ọ (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 ọ mać ọn ọeap ẹ, 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 ọn ọ-ọcọpọ, the hunger; ọpọ ọọ ọ ọmọ:—an peacab, an bār, a'p an ọpọ, "three things I see, the sin, the death, and the pain."
CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after oe or the genitive; as (dative after oe):—τοὺς ὀᾶ παντεὶ τὰν ὑμ. leann, "between two barrels full of ale;" τά mé τὰν ὑμ. νάιμε, "I am full of shame;" μόραν ο’υαριβ, "many of nobles:" (genitive):—τὰν α ουμη, "the full of his fist;" on σαβ’ ἀμόραν αυρτο αἰή, "had he much of money?" σραβ’ ὁρσοίγια αὐμν αἱ τὰν ἀμρεα τοιμη, "a branch of blackthorn and its full of sloes on it."

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes νά (or ινά or ἱοῦ) before the noun which follows it; as ιπ’ βιννα a ceól νά λον ἱοῦ ἱμόλ, "sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush."

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has οε ("of it") after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then ινά is not used; as νασ’ βυ πείπρον ὁἰον σ’ οε, "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 καβλαχ ὁμά, "a great fleet."

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.
2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as caol-peap, "slender man;" món pampse, "great sea;" òub-cappaig, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: óeaó, good; ópoc, evil; píop, true; nuòó, new; pean, old; cuaç, 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 Sliaò aòbal-món Lacaópa, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" Caìmun món áluinn Moça, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as peap màié, a good man; pàéul na mná móipe, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); àp an àiobéip Iongancaí, "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 aòp peap màié, a good woman and man; peap aòp bean màié, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i.e., it is not influenced by the noun,
either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as móp uaire, “great nobles;” do móp uairidh, “to [the] great nobles;” bán čnoic Cípeann, “the fair hills of Erin;” luac bapca, swift barks; πίον ἱεύλ, “a true story;” πίον ἱεύλεια, “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 Ουίρης an Oub-šleibé, “Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;” ὀίγ-μεν, 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 γάρης na n-ὀίγ-πεσάρ, “the laughter of the young men;” an τ-ἀμπο-πολλαὶ μᾶς, “that chief professor;” an τ-πεαν-μεν βοῦς, “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 τά, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as τά an lá bpeáð, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun
by the verb \( \text{ip} \), it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as \( \text{ip} \ \text{bpedg} \ an \ \text{ld} \ \text{é} \), 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 \( \text{ip} \ \text{aibinn} \ \text{b} \ \text{cuain aca}p \ \text{b} \ \text{calapuine aca}p \ \text{b} \ \text{magamimpco} \ \text{aca} \ \text{caem} \ \text{a}lune}, “delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains”:” 

\[ \text{a} \ \text{ap} \ \text{cpoicne p} \ \text{e} \ \text{e} \ \text{c} \ \text{a} \ \text{na} \ \text{n} - \text{bat} \ \text{g} \ \text{a} \ \text{ov} \ \text{eap} \ \text{a}, \]

“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 \( \text{aibinn} \) (modern \( \text{aoibinn} \)) which is asserted of them by \( \text{ip} \), is in its simple form (the plural would be \( \text{aibinne} \) or \( \text{aibne} \)).

In the second example \( \text{cpoicne} \) is plural, while \( \text{beap} \) is singular (plural \( \text{beap} \)).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—\( \text{O} \ \text{o} \ \text{po} \ \text{po} \ \text{na} \ \text{buacs \ sp} \ \text{a} \); \( \text{O} \ \text{po} \ \text{po} \ \text{na} \ \text{buacs \ sp} \ \text{a} \): in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, “he made the mantles green.”
CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as γπος, three men; Ṭαν ὅταν ἡ Ἔττ, “in the second place.”

2. Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and γέας; as ἅπαλ τόν ιόν, thirteen horses; ὅτος ἐποιεῖ ἑαυτῷ τόν ιόν, the thirteenth horse.

3. Γόν, one; ὅδ, two; χειρ, first; and ἐπουρ, third, cause aspiration; as τός ὅποια, one man; ἃδ ἀνόι, two women; ὅτος ἐποιεῖ ἐπουρ, “the third occasion.”

4. The numerals ἐπουρ, ὅτος, ἀνόι, and ἐποια, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with ἴ, in which case there is no change), as ἐπουρ ἰδ-μ-βλατό-να, “seven years;” ὅτος ἰδ-μ-βα, “eight cows;” ἀνόι ἰδ-μ-κλαίνε, “nine rivers;” ἔποιε ἴδ-μ-πορ, “ten men.”

5. The numerals ἅπας, οὖς, ἀνόι, and χειρ, the ordinals (except χειρο and ἐπουρ: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as χειρο σακοφ, “four hounds.”

6. Γόν, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as ἀνόι ἴδ, one day; χειρο κελλῆν, a hundred heads (lit. “a hundred head,” just as we say “a hundred head of cattle”); ἅπας καταλύμε τοῖς, “three times fifty heroes;” μίλε κατάλε, “a thousand women.”
7. óá, 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 óá peap, two men; an óá láum, the two hands. (See next two rules).
8. If the noun following óá be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as lán a óá láum, "the full of his two hands."
9. Although óá 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 óo gluapeap ar óá ñpeinámleao mu, "these two strong heroes went;" ro ñab a óá ñlea ñó
peann-peanm na b-roezruzá a b-poúl naérac nemé, "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 ñlea, are plural.

CHAPTER V.
THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as irl maic ar bean i, she is a good woman; irl maic ar peap é, he is a good man; irl móp na òcôme rao, they are great men.
2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is
third person singular masculine; as tó m-béití pír Éipenn an tóp n-aí, naé bu peippbe óói 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 íp (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as máp mác na leága píb, aí éipión, "'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 mácarn, my mother; a ɟ-cápbaó, their chariot.

3. The possessives mo, my; bo, thy; and a, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as mo čeann, my head; bo čop, thy foot; a meup, his finger.

4. The possessive a, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes h; as a mácáir, her mother; a h-ačаir, her father.

5. The possessives áp, our; báp, your; and a, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except p, on which they exert no influence), and prefix n to vowels; as áp o-číp, our country; báp m-bá, your cows; a n-áčaip, their father.
6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as ὦμ ἐποιέ, to my heart; ἐνα ο-τίπ, 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 ἀν τε α ὧμβαλλαρ, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as ἀν ταὐ ο ὧμρβ αν τ-ατακ, “the hero who slew the giant.” To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative α signifies “all that” (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as α ὧμ-πυτ ὧ Θαυλλτ ὧρ ὧεαρ, “all that is from Galway southwards;” το ῥεμ α ο-ουβραμαρ, “according to what we have said.”

4. When the relative α 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 ἄ) is eclipsed; as α ῥεν πο ῾ιορρα αδ ν-τανις α βαρ “(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, from which came his death;” αν βοιζ θα ν-τιοίρ, “the tent in which they used to eat;” ο νπαγαρ ῾ρον πο ο-οινγναν (ρίζ) γιο βε νόρ α ο-οινγναν οϊαμαμαρ ι, “Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it” (here the preposition αν is understood...
§108. bé nór ann a n-θιάσθηκα τὸν τιμήτορά μου, whatever the manner in which Diarmaid would make it.) (See next next rule).

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle po or ἄο, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as ἀν τὶς ἀπὸ τὸν ῥιπτὸν ὁπαργι, “the place in which fell Dara Dearg.”

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as ἀν τὶς ἀ ἄρα ὁπαργι, 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 ἀν τὰ ἅρα ὁπαργι ὑπ’ Ἰο, the friend whom I love; ἀν τὰ ἅρα ὁπαργι ὑπ’ Ἰο, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as ὁδίποτε ζήσεις Νίν ἔτις ῥημικ ὁ μεγεύσαι ὅσον ἀπὸ τὸ ἀνάμεα ἐις Ἑιμιονν, “a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin.” An λεβαρ ὅν τὴν ὁμίλητον ὅς ἄναρχοσ ἐρεῖται Ἑιμιονν, “the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin.”

9. The relative ὅ is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with ἄο, the mark of the past tense; as ἀν τὶς ἀς ἄτις ἄτις ὁμιλήτη νοῦτο ζήσεις ἐπὶ, “the country from which I came” (here ὅν = ἦ ἃ ἄο); πλὴν ᾿ητή μαρτυράν οὐ μίλε ὁμιλήσω, “a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them” (here λῆτη = ὅτε αἱ ἄο); ἀν τὶς νοῦ ὀ-τιάσθηκαν ἔπε, the country to which he came (οἰδο = ὅο κράτος); ἀν τὰ ἅρας ὁμιλήτης ἀναγι λῆτη ἔπε, “a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin” (ἄτη = ὅο κράτος); ἀν δὲ αἰσθή ἐκομπα αὐ
IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

Exception: —When the verb ip in any of its forms is understood; as rúb ban t-ewdo, “yonder (is) your meal;” ro an ld, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as cia an peap ballac binnbpiac'pac úo? “Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?”

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá b-puil mo leabap? where is my book? cia an laoc úo ap gualamn goill? “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 cát an tui? out of what (place art) thou? go be ma ap úo? how do you do? (literally “like to what art thou?”) cpeut rá ap ein'geabap, “what for did ye rise?”

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means “every;” when it follows the noun it means “all;” as plan ón uile gualap, “sound from every sickness;” vo baćao an cine biona uile go h-aon oćap, “all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight.”

There are occasional exceptions; as óon cinnbpiopaip na h-uile pu'dalub, “people ignorant in all virtues” (in this passage from Keating, uile means “all” though it precedes its noun).
CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as ἵλεως Ἰῶν, "Fergus went;" ἵλεως Ἰῶν, "Mac Garraíd bhí anois," "Mac Garraíd 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 ἵλεως Ἰῶν Ἰούστου, the person who will walk; ἵλεως Ἰῶν Ἰούστου Ἰωβικός Ἰωσήφ, what is here? Ἰερσαεπός Ἰωβικός Ἰωσήφ Ἰούστου Ἰούστου Ἰωβικός Ἰωσήφ, "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 ἵλεως Ἰῶν Ἰούστου, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" ἵλεως Ἰῶν Ἰούστου, "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 ἵλεως Ἰῶν Ἰούστου, the hero whom I saw yesterday; ἵλεως Ἰῶν Ἰούστου, what sayest thou ?

5. When the verb ὑπερ is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as ὑπερ Ἰωσῆλ Ἰωσῆλ Ἰωσῆλ Ἰωσῆλ, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb ὑπερ is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as ὑπερ Ἰωσῆλ Ἰωσῆλ Ἰωσῆλ Ἰωσῆλ, "her voice
was sweeter than the music of the birds:” ní pábha uair 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 ṣí dúra an tín no-aorbinn, “thou art the delightful country;” ṣí mé Cían mac Cáinse, “I am Cian, the son of Cainte;” an tún Píonn? “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 śláir breaigh a śuir na oíre de pómá, “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 buaí, strike him; do chúipéadóir Tuáca De Dannann caó oíreóideachtaí n-a do-riúdál réin, “the Tuatha de Dannanns put a magical mist around themselves.”

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition le or pe before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (leabhair eile) atá pe b-pócgin i n-Eípmn, “(other books) which are to be seen in Erin.”

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as a śuir 50 m-bió ólaim pe bénaim peille aíp a céile, “and that they are ready to do treachery on each other.”
12. The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as μακ αιλενεν τιςαμμα Μουρνεν νο μαρβαο, “Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain” (lit. “Fiachra, &c., to slay”): αυαρ αν τεμων ναε τιοβραο (αν ειον) πιν αρα, α επον νο βουαι όνα κεαν νε, “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 οα μ-βαω ναε παεραο ελαναν Μουρνεν να υιαρπαο να ζ-εαορ μιν, “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 νο is never prefixed; as ουβαντ ρε λοιον νο ζο ζοπεκαζ, 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 τανζοαορ καβλαε μόρ νο ζεαναμ κοζιυν, “a great fleet came to make war” (nom. κοζιυν, war, gen. κοζιυν); νο μιλλεαο ρρολμνε νιρ, “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, αυαρ τρεο νο ζηνον, να τω αυαν νο υπε νο-ταλ-μαεν αυαρ κεαν αν τηναιε νο κεαναν να να καλν καλν νον, αυαρ ιβαλλ νο υπ νοιρ μιλλεαο καλιλ ακα, “and it is what he used to do, two poles to put in the earth, and the end of a thread to tie to each pole of them, and an apple to put on the top of a pole of them.”
17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as actus brúítneach an òir, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); ód bhí an Gaotháil ro ató múnch reol, "this Gaotháil was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); ató robh the na tálman, "digging the ground."

18. The verb irt in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as irt ì fíobra òrhoinge re peanéir, "it is the opinion of some historians;" irt maic ì sgo ripinnéac iad, "they are truly sons of a king;" ì the riarpaigear an mìc cia h-iad péin, "and the king asks who they (are)."

19. The verb irt is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as beaca an riarpaigripinn, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" ceann Oímhpua òi Oíhibne an ceann úd, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O’Duibhne;" cia cúra? mimí lollan, "who (art) thou? I (am) Lollan;" an rip ìn, "whether (is) that true? ní mimí, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as déanta ë, it is done; buailtear iad they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct
inflection); as čáinic pé 50 Copcaig, he came to Cork; a5 cop an t-pleibhe, at the foot of the mountain; ainmho curd do na h-údarpaib, "some of the authors reckon." (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition ṛo)n generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as ṛo)n Copcaig a5u) Luimneac, between Cork and Limerick; ṛo)n na cóineadṣ, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions ann, 50, ṛap, mu, le orpe, and ṛap, take ð before an, the article, the ð being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as annp an leabap or ann ṛan leabap, in the book; ṛep an b-prap, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as 50 pug an tonna ṛap a n-a5aró an ēnui, "he brought the tun with him against the hill;" a b-praónupe b-prap n-Eirinn, "in presence of the men of Erin;" 50 ñuairpeabap clann Tuireann pompa oíonnriúe an čaça, "the children of Tuireann went forwards towards the battle."

The following prepositions, cum, towards; 5aλa, as to; déip, after; ṛomcúap, as to; mearp or amearp, amongst; ðep, according to; and cumcìoll, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 88.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, a n-a5aró an ēnui, is literally "in the face of the hill," where ēnui is governed in the genitive by a5aró, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except 50, ñe, 5an, and ṛo)n, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as 5n 5-cnoc ðìn, "from
that hill;" _aːg_ an _m-baile na h-íon_ féin, “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 _aːr_ _bápp_ an _cÉann_ "on the top of the tree;" _dí_ _mùparth_ na _Teampách", “from the ramparts of Tara.”

Exception 1: _a_ or _i_ _h_ _i_, and _san_ (when it means “with”) cause eclipsis without the article; as _a_ _m-baile aːra chliaː, in Baile-atha-cliath (Dublin); _i_ _h_ _i_, _n-bUinn", “after the deluge.”

Exception 2: _aːg_, _le_, and sometimes _san_ cause no change in the initial, and _san_ may either aspirate or not; as _plan_ _le_ _Maːs_, “farewell to (the river) Maigue;" _oːn_ _t-Sionunn_ _pom_ _san_ _pámpe_, “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 _cpe_ _n-a_ _bapib", “through his hands;" _an_ _lá_ _san_ _n-a_ _lán_ _c-poillpe_, “the day with its abundant light.”

Except after _bo_ and _de_; as _cabaip_ _pét_ _da_ _cápall_ give grass to his horse; _bain_ _séug_ _d-a_ _c-páinn_, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter _h_ is usually inserted after these prepositions; as _bo_ _cuarò_ _re_ _san_ _h-Albain_, he went to Alban (Scotland).
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 leabhr an tóime " 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Irish</th>
<th>Contracted to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>me,</td>
<td>bo mo buala,</td>
<td>boim' buala.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thee,</td>
<td>bo bo buala,</td>
<td>boim' buala.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him,</td>
<td>bo a buala,</td>
<td>ba buala.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her,</td>
<td>bo a buala,</td>
<td>ba buala.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To strike</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>us,</td>
<td>bo an m-buala,</td>
<td>dvñ m-buala.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you,</td>
<td>bo bun m-buala,</td>
<td>(not contracted)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>them,</td>
<td>bo a m-buala,</td>
<td>da m-buala.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These may be translated literally, “to my striking,” “to their striking,” &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: a ṣ a bualad, striking him: a ṣ a bualad, striking her: a ṣ an m-bualad, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—támic man a mānbéa ōam péin, “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: aip ṭon, for the sake of; aip a ṭon, for his sake; aip bup ṭon, for your sake, &c. Oo éuaiò Uainmao ña h-air, Diarmaid went after her: tāmic cinnear ñinnapem, agup ña phiocè ’n-a n-òitidò, “sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them.”

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: cap aip, backwards; òo éuaiò ré cap a aip, he went backwards; òo éuaiò ré cap a h-air, she went backwards; òo éuaiò piab cap a n-aip, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

“To die,” is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning “to find death”: the verb paₜ, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, an ñapa bliagam ña éir p̄n ñuan ñuial b̄ár, “the second year after that Túial found death;” agup már ann acá a n-bán b̄án b̄ár b̄é̄ngail, “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 b’euₜ, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—A beip cuit do na pean-ugúnaib ḡup ab a n̄t̄eam do loā ñuia ñuim p̄ān-ₜ̄ µ̄n̄ b̄ár; biò b̄ó n̄-ñ̄p̄naib ñ̄p̄un̄g ōl̄e ḡp̄n̄ab ann
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IDIOMS. [PART IV.

Gpmaacav deug pe, “some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died.”

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition aip (on), or aip (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition do (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—aip m-beic ata pa do in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died.”

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5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is “to have no strength (neapte) on a thing;” the “having” being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. Ni b-puil neapte aipum aip an miu pin, I have no help for that thing— I cannot help that (lit. “there is to me no strength on that thing”). Aip a d’ubairt Grainne na od naiti neapteacie pem aip, “and Grainne said that she had no help for it” (or “could not help it,” “could not have prevented it”). Sometimes leithead, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as neapte.

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 cuip (or do cabairte) pe deana, “to put (or bring, or give), under notice.” Aip do cuip Miodhac pa n-dieana aip Inpe Tuile do cuip pure, “and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you;” do nuig (nig) breac bair aip an m-dienne, aip cuig pa deana a copo cab “(the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged” (“put under notice him to hang,” or “his hanging”).
7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. ἄρα τάμης τοῦ ἄνθρωπος, ἐμφανίζεται, ὁ Σιήτ ήρθε σειρά δεῖξε, "and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg" (i.e., with fifty chariots): ἄρα τάμης βοῶν Δείρης, πάντων τισεύων, ὁ Θεόπνεος; "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 ἂνορά εὐγάμνη αμακ, ἄρα τοῖς λαμπρὸν πανθύλον αντ, "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."


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 ἐν αὐλαίοι ὁ Ναυκις ἄνευ Ἐνέρες, ἄνευ ἐν ἐνδοκάμμι έκτραν, ἄνευ αὐτο αὐτο μητρ άπρυ, "it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cennclainh (a chess board) between them, and they playing on it; ἐν αὐλαίοι ὁ οἱ Κόβεκας, ἄνευ ἐ αὐτο πρεπεῖ, "it is thus Cobhthach was, and he pining away;" κυνηγός ποιητά όντο άν θύραντο ε ρέων ὁ βετε ἀνα μη, "he sends word to Blanid, he himself to be there" (i.e., "that he himself was there").
This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as  úr (an óú) a ceann a n-úch Óthánapmuoa ãgr ë ma óolá “(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 capad Æppgrn aín Donnai; literally “Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall.” Do capad Aodrul na Ólva Reihár epee aça, “we met Eevel of Craglea” (lit. “Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us”): cia capuadh aís úch proim-bean, “whom should I meet but the fair woman” (“who should be met on me”).

The same idea is expressed by the verb TaBla, happened: ãgr TaBla ogIac Óppca aín m-bogac, “and they met a youth on the moor” (lit. “and a youth happened on [or to] them”): Ópimloc 50 Shab Mip 50 TaBla banba 50 n-a ÓpaoicB Óppca 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 50 or Gion ãgr 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 Phinn, an Ógáan, Gion ãgr roigre mo Óacol óisrpe na do Óthánapmuib O’Ohuibhne, “O Finn, says Oscar, ‘although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O’Duibhne.’”

Although not:—do bérnum cómaile rait òib, a Chlann Órnn, Gion 50 n-béncañ lib i, “I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;” Gion ãgr ćeánpdo ndn an nîò mì, “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, ipp réim le, “it is possible with;” as ipp réim l’om a óéanáð, 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 ippim. “I
come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as muna do-ctiúgán piur an cailleamh domh, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); aet níor doilse piún mà pi mn mnach atáid áf do-thú phiúiniche ceangailte min bh-phiùiniche, agur naó do-ctiúg piún r’saoileadh òisbh, "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 óinniche ualaic gheàrnach naó do-ctiúg linn a iomóin, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb tá or òr is used instead of cíug, and also the preposition ag instead of le; as ó naò lom d ól ón g-contaibhte po, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger": here òr is understood): ó naò b-puil d ól uadò agum, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:" here tá and ag are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word leac, half: leac-cóir, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word leac is used adjectively, so that leac-cóir 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). Also leac-púil, one eye, leac-taobh, one side, &c. Òr amhlaidh do bì an più am agum leac-laim ainm ris aon, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word aonach, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like tenn, cuìgach, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—do ñuabal mé a’m aonach, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); do ñuabal tá a’b’ aonach, thou walkedst alone: do ñuabal rì n-a h-aonach, "she walked alone," &c.; am aonach reat a ñuabal bheàr, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" tá mé lom pém, I am alone ("I am with myself"): tá tá leac pém, thou art alone: tá naò leò pém, they are alone: tá mo mán d’ò n-a coileach, agur mìre lom pém, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."
15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c., on that other, the preposition ain being used. Do éig ré trí ba ain an 5-capall pin, he gave three cows for that horse: ain Éine ní 'neórannn cia h-i, “for Erin I would not tell who she is” (‘neórannn for inneórannn: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition ain is set before the noun of price: do éanuigeap an bó bán pin ain ré púnt, I bought that white cow for six pounds: ní h-iongna ain Commac, óin Ír mait an luac éigar uippe, “‘No wonder,’ says Cormac, ‘for good is the price I gave for it.’”


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 ain being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of “having” being expressed by tó and ag as in Idiom 31. Tó trí púnt ag Fergus ain Oonimall, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: tó bean eile a n-Cochall a b-pul aici cómín ain, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown” (“to whom is a crown on him”): ír amhlaí do bi an míc po, ásin cifor caim món tóm ag Fomóraí an Tuatha Dé Danann pe n-a lún, “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:” iáin ain Ótha na 5nára pin, “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 ain being used: tó puacé cmim (cold is on me), I am cold; ná bfoé easla ónt (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: do bi tónt món ain Shean-ghan (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty. cao
é réin óns? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A cúple mo córpóe córeab 1 an ónudam réin óns? "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 on being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by rá and aí, as in idiom 34:—ni mó an cóir no bá aí Aonghus óntra má an cóir no bá aí muintir Aonghusa an máca an neacáine, go náib pormaid món aí r'c'ácin rá n-a cóir ón, "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.: rá meap aíp aon món an órca (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:"

"‘aíp on b-puil a riór aír pém, a Phinn?’ ‘ní b-puil,’ aí Phinn:’ "‘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 úil leart riór b-réigul? do you wish to know? ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"): boiú a ríor aír, a leugcón, "know O reader" ("be its knowledge with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), no riapaí Phinn do éid an n-glachadh aíne óphé, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"): aípÐ tuğarpe aíne óphé, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on me").
21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by “to separate with a person,” the preposition le or ne being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, “I parted with him:” p'cí agus Diarmaid ne n-a céile, “they themselves and Diarmuid separated from each other:” O Oscar le, “he separated from us;” O Cupa nae Cill-bapa le, “he separated from him;” O Oscar le Diarmaid, “Oscar separated from Diarmuid:” O Oscar le, “Oscar separated from him:” O Oscar le tip nae po é.Ó nae agus Diarmaid separated from each other, “at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the ‘love of my heart.’”

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

Da placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective dlainn, fine or beautiful, is formed dlaiin or tille, fineness, beauty; and ba dlaiin or ba tille, means “however fine,” “how fine soever.” Examples:—Ní b-puil pionúr nauc mac, nauc agus nauc, “there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:” an t'epair deap, gan cómpas somóip ba cómpas ar talmáim do 'obad, “the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:” beo ainne na biabail na t'epair láim, “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 tióin, between; as bain-pib Dia píob tip ann, ba rocar oba b-agh a d'us sin a d'og. “God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them between understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:” cúig-níle tióin peapait agus mnáib, 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 beip, bear, being used with the preposition
25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by “to put a game on him”: agur bo éog Oisin an peap rim, agur no cúin an oluíthe an Phionn, “and Oisin moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn.” agur ní nugasamn an báme an a céite, “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 le and the preposition le: le pado liom (“it is long with me”), it seems long to me, I think it long. agur bo bo pado le na b'ráitriob bo bi Ómian uata, “and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them” (“it was long with his brothers, &c.”): le oile lim an bean po, “we think bad of what has happened to thee” (“it is evil with us.”) an = a po, and a means “all that:” see p. 47: cuigimni naionhmni leatpa me péim, “I understand that thou dost not love me” (“that not beloved with thee am I myself”).

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions le and bo: le mac thú an b-peap rim, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): le mac thú leir an b-peap rim, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—ba mac thú liom miusail aot mac domin mac òam é, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.
27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as man, desire; ort, pleasure; om, will or pleasure, &c.: Igr áill liom piot bréagait, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): do ócmpeim réim réil an cait pin do h-uac a n-tionao do réil, an peann dioob: do bair liom rm, an an dóineorp, "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 peápp, better, is used in the same way to express preference: Igr peápp liom do ocmpeim táth ná éupa, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); do b'peápp le brigid leoban maic ná ampeao, 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 mán and peápp:—Ní h-é ir mian leor an ughan (ní mo, ní h-é ir mian liom-ra) cu do hneugan; . . . . aot ir é doob' peápp leor pin (aúg liom-ra) do óroide do peálbhuigao: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (cu do hneugan) . . . . but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Peápp followed by le expresses mental preference as shown above: but peápp followed by do is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Igr peápp dómpa amop, an Lugh, piot na h-eapca úd do éadaine ódoub. Igr peápp éeana, an taoiran, '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 món (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—Igr món liom an lúoé pin, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): úm do m-bicht mac agum ne rona riúide rómpa, nítor beag leo do cóir dán marpaó 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 dánp marpaó: see Idiom 1): dán mo óraité an
29. Woe to.

Ir maith don b-peap rim, woe to that man: a maith donn doineap do'n olc mac, "woe to those who call evil good." Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, ir maith nae n-beannam comainle beag-mi'dh, "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 agup, "and," or by le, "with:" agup a bheaint ma an tan bò bò a mac com annaaca agup go lionpa a theam an tó, "and he said to her when his son should be so grown (coim annaaca) as that his finger would fill the ring" (lit.
“so grown and that his finger,” &c.): do bí a pleág cóim neamh le mot muillimn, “his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill” (lit. “as thick with.”)

Agur follows ainlaidh or aímla (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows cóim; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to “viz.(): Ag ainlaidh do ruam Nairi acar Óéinn, acar an Cenn-chaemn ecampa, “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 go, followed by the preposition le or ní. Ga le Doírnaí ag buil éum teampaill, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: na tni pióce tím do Thuacaib De Öannam do bí i b-plaítau Eípeamn go m-bliagam, “these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year” (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for head is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples.

A 5-ceann bliagam, at the end of a year: do bí píod a 5-ceann na parícé, they were at the end of the field. A bhúar Aínlire h-Aoirín do lím 5-ceann Réiguir, “Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus” (“to go on the head of Fergus”): pillpe aír a 5-ceann, “turn thou back for them” (“on their head”). O naí cirín 5-oí on 5-contaínaí pò am 5-ceamn, “since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me” (am 5-ceann, “in my head” = before me). Ráíp to 5-ceann, a Phinn, agur a 5-ceann na Péimne, “I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni” (“in thy head and in the head of the Feni”). Acar beagnai biaidh acar bennaicaim do 5-ceamn, “and bear ye victory and blessing on its account” (bí 5-ceamn, “from its head”). Tá 5-ceann 5um fadú an tonead do naíáb baojal aír bit aír pém, “although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself” (tá 5-ceamn 5um, “over the head that” = although). 5-e mórna duítre am 5-áin oí do
PART IV.

IDIOMS.

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.

Seagan an phinn, 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." Seagan na bainneabhaige, "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 Fergus maon (nom.) means "Fergus the steward;" but Fergus an maon (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: ceac Fergus an maon. 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 ceac Fergus maon (in which Fergus is gen. and maon nom.); whereas ceac Fergus an maon 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:—

"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 Rathgormack.
Here the last noun ἀγονήμα, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while Ἀγαν, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, bean Sheagam an ρίγεαδόπα, 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 Sheagam ρίγεαδόπα.

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 ता and the preposition अ, in this form, ता लेबान अ अ वुने, “a book is at (or with) the man:” ता अगेाद अ सम (“money is with me”), I have money: सी बे अ ब-पुइल अगेाद (“whoever with whom is money”), whoever has money. नि पेिष ले वुने अ तो नाव m-बेलोज अ ब-पुइल यान, अ ब-पुइल ब-माँब्याच अगुरप, “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”). दो अगेिल Conchoban बोनद अलैर बो माइराई बे अ ब-पुइल बैल ओलाम अ ब-पुइल, “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. Conchobhar].”)

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. सी अगुरप सम a ब-पुइल an ए्युमने? “Which of us has the truth?” This is word for word: “Which of us with whom is the truth?” and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition अ in this construction governs not only the relative अ, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative सी. ता बेन इली a एोचली a ब-पुइल अनै एोम आप, “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 ब-पुइल, and by अूल; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition अ of अूल. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:—ता बेन
eile a n-Coécall a g a b-puil cónm aír. 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 léir an cead rín (who owns that house), the le of léir would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative cia.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb éir and the preposition le, with: éir leatg a cead, “the house belongs to thee” (lit. “it is with thee the house”): éid lem' acair na ba rín, those cows belong to my father (“it is with my father those cows”): cia léir na ba rín, who owns those cows? (“who with him [are] those cows?”) Oír éir le neac éitig bo Thuatha De Danann na maac, “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 póm an émaob rín? “Does that branch belong to thyself?”

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—Ta aighc éir go leóp aigdo, aét ní leat póm 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 éir and the preposition ó from: éir leabain uaim, I want a book: lit., “a book is from me:” cpend aét uait? “What dost thou want?”

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

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

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: Oír bí leabain aca, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: gao pean aigimn, “each man of us;” po eipi an óapa pean acopan bo déann an cleara, “the
second man of them (acópan, “of themselves”) arose to perform the feat:” cia aícíinne aíc a b-puíl an éíinne, an Fíonn, “‘which of us has the truth,’ says Finn” (aíc a b-puíl, “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: mán sé gnó ar a bhean ar a mhainné, ag íth na bhean, “as (the name) ‘two ladies’ was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they ‘were called two ladies.’” Máin sé gnó ar a bhean ar a mhainné, “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:” Róp a b-púileac pír a máin né acú ñuí an, “Ros-da-sailleach which is called Limerick now” (lit. “R. with which is said ‘Limerick’ now”).

39. Óe after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun Óe “of it,” is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. Aícíinne gion sé gnó cuíd aícíinne dó máin néac Díarnáid, nó móide dó séubadh (Aónáir) an éíinne uaim, “and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not the more receive the truth from us” (here móide is Óe added to mó, the comparative of mó, great: for gion só = “although not;” see Idiom 11). Óe púripe Óíthíonn ar lómpa leannmáin, an éa ér beic aícíinne, “it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses” (púripe = Óe after púpú, comparative of púpú, easy): i.e. “our having the horses makes it easier for Finn,” &c.

40. “A man of great strength.”

“A man of great strength,” is expressed by the Irish peap ñ nó trí neac, which translated word for word is “a man (who) is great strength:” the words nó trí neac 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 ñ in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with “of” in English, and must be
rendered accordingly. Nó m' ag a 3-cúmainn muid nua mór ba tói ón aíghreach am Anna, “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.”) 

O' Óg na heach an beirt ba chaithigem crú, “I saw a lady (of) bright shape.” Talamh ba ria a ghaid aíghreach déeóc, “a land (of) the best food and drink.” O' Óg ba éneun nua am' air luca, “Oisin of mighty strength and vigour.” 

Sometimes the preposition 50 (with) is used instead of the verb: as nua 50 mó fuid, 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 5am being generally used as the negative particle. Aíghreach 5am m' eacan 'n maon aíghum! “I wish I had the shepherd's pet!” (Here aíghreach, “it is pity” = “alas:” aíghum 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 Oígh na m' a m' aibhílín, “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 pean, but) tá mé am' pean, which is word for word, “I am in my man.” Dé tactical aíghreach aíghreach am' peol, “be thou the knife and I the flesh.” (lit. “be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh”). Déacht aíghreach Dhannan de 50 dé a m-bainimheachnab, “Bechoill and Danann who were princesses” (“who were in their princesses”): tá m' eacan mide maith ná tura, cú ag a 5-cár 50 5-fuil tá aíghreach m' aíghreach m' aíghreach na tura. “he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince” (cú aígh aígh, “put in case” = “suppose” or “although”): m' aíghreach na doine bás, cú aígh aíghreach aíghreach.
n-ðgānainíb, aṣur cuib aca 'n-a peanóipigib, "men die ('receive death:' Idiom 3), "some of them (cuib 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 Oíth, gan mé am ãbaillín!" "would God that I were an apple!" ("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another, this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely common in Irish. Táimpe am' òodóla, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"); òóipig aca èarpaní, "he scood up" ("he arose in his standing"): mipè am' aonap, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): clanní ùir ma 5-ceátap, (the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their four-persons").

The preposition ann is used with cu without any governed noun, to denote existence in general; as aic aon òir am' ãhnán 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 ìp cu aic ann "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between ìp and cu.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between ìp and cu.

1. ìp is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as ìp mé an c-ðluicę, an ðíppíne, aṣur an ðeteqa, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, cu is used; as cu mé a m-ðaile aca cliaa, I am in Dublin: an ðaib cu ann ðin? wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either ìp or cu may be used:—ìp bòeaq an ña òe, or cu an ña bòeaq, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. ìp connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as ìp pean mé, I am a man. But cu cannot do this without the aid of the preposition a or in and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as cu mé am' pean, I am a man ("I am in my man.")
3. \( \text{Ir} \) expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by \( \text{Cd} \), 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 \( \text{Ir} \) \( \text{pean} \), 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, \( \text{Ir} \) \( \text{pean} \), 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 \( \text{Ca} \) \( \text{pe} 'n-a \text{ pean} \) ("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, \( \text{Ca} \) \( \text{pe} 'n-a \text{ pean} \).

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by \( \text{Cd} \), it is not always so; as \( \text{ni} \ \text{b-} \text{puil a} \text{e} \text{ c} \text{on \ Oi} \text{a umh} \text{an} \text{ an} \text{n} \text{a} \ 'n-a \text{ pioin-rioinard} \), there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by \( \text{Ca} \) though there can be no change.

4. \( \text{Cd} \) is used with \( \sigma \) to denote possession (Idiom 43); \( \text{Ir} \) is used with \( \lambda \epsilon \) to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

\( \text{Cd} \) may indeed be used with \( \lambda \epsilon \), but the idea conveyed is not "belonging to," but "being favourable to:" \( \text{Du} \ \text{bi} \ \text{Colup leo} " \) (Eolus was with them"), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if \( \text{Ir} \) had been used), but that "Eolus was favourable to them"—"was on their side."

5. \( \text{Cd} \) is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c., as in Idiom 36; as \( \text{Cd} \ \text{oph} \text{ opm} \), hunger is in me, I am hungry: here \( \text{Ir} \) cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—\( \text{Ir} \ \text{pait} \text{op} \text{e} \ \text{n} \text{a mpe} \) or \( \text{Cd} \ \text{pe} \ \text{mor} \ \text{pait} \text{op} \text{e} \ \text{n} \text{a mpe} \), he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, \( \text{Ir} \), not \( \text{Cd} \), must be used:—\( \text{Ir} \ \text{e} \ \text{Ir} \ \text{pean} \ \text{Ir} \ \text{pait} \text{op} \text{e} \ \text{pan ouic} \text{c} \text{e} \text{ e} \), he is the richest man in the country.
### First Declension.

*bpeac, a trout.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. <em>bpeac</em></td>
<td><em>bpic</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>bpic</em></td>
<td><em>bpeac</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>bpeac</em></td>
<td><em>bpeacaib</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. <em>a bpic</em></td>
<td><em>a bpeaca</em></td>
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### Second Declension.

*Cor, a foot.*

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>N. <em>cor</em></th>
<th><em>copa</em></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>cop</em></td>
<td><em>cop</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>cop</em></td>
<td><em>copaib</em></td>
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### Third Declension.

*Pígeadóin, a weaver; masc.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N. <em>pígeadóin</em></th>
<th><em>pígeadóiníge</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>pígeadóin</em></td>
<td><em>pígeadóin</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>pígeadóin</em></td>
<td><em>pígeadóiníb</em></td>
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*Aéapn, a father; masc.*

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>N. <em>aéapn</em></th>
<th><em>aépe, aépea</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>aéapn</em></td>
<td><em>aépe</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>aéapn</em></td>
<td><em>aépeacaib</em></td>
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</table>

(Máéapn, a mother, and bráéapn or deapbráéapn, a brother, are declined in the same way.)

*bliadán, a year; fem.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N. <em>bliadán</em></th>
<th><em>bliadanta</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>bliáona</em></td>
<td><em>bliában</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>bliádam</em></td>
<td><em>bliádantaib</em></td>
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</tbody>
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*Amm, a name.*

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>N. <em>amm</em></th>
<th><em>ammanana</em></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>amme, amna</em></td>
<td><em>ammann</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>amm</em></td>
<td><em>ammanait</em></td>
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### Fourth Declension.

*Teine, a fire.*

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<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tr>
<td>N. <em>teine</em></td>
<td><em>teinte</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>teine</em></td>
<td><em>temeada</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>teine</em></td>
<td><em>temeib</em></td>
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*Émin, a little bird.*

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<tr>
<th>N. <em>émín</em></th>
<th><em>émínióbe</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>émín</em></td>
<td><em>émín</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>émín</em></td>
<td><em>émíníb</em></td>
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</table>

### Fifth Declension.

*Lánama, a married couple.*

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<tr>
<th>N. <em>lánama</em></th>
<th><em>lánama</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>lánaman</em></td>
<td><em>lánaman</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>lánainn</em></td>
<td><em>lánainn</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Irregular Nouns.

*Sa, a spear.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N. <em>sa, saé</em></th>
<th><em>saóí, saéca, saóite</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>saí</em></td>
<td><em>saéca</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>saíb</em></td>
<td><em>saóic</em></td>
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*Cpó, a hut, a sheepfold.*

<table>
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<tr>
<th>N. <em>cé</em></th>
<th><em>céite, cénit</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>cé</em></td>
<td><em>céit</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>cé</em></td>
<td><em>céit</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. <em>a cé</em></td>
<td><em>céite</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Sliab, a mountain.*

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<tr>
<th>N. <em>plá</em></th>
<th><em>pléibte</em></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>pléite</em></td>
<td><em>pléiteb</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>pló</em></td>
<td><em>pléibteb</em></td>
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</tbody>
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