

A GRAMMAR
OF THE
MODERN IRISH LANGUAGE,

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF
THE CLASSES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.

BY
CHARLES HENRY HAMILTON WRIGHT, M.A.,
OF TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN ;

EDITOR OF "THE BOOK OF GENESIS IN HEBREW, WITH A CRITICALLY REVISED TEXT,
VARIOUS READINGS, AND GRAMMATICAL AND CRITICAL NOTES," &c.,
ASST. CURATE OF MIDDLETON TYAS, YORKSHIRE.

Second Edition—Revised and Enlarged.

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PREFACE.

THE little work of which the second edition is now issued from the press is a short introduction to the study of the Irish language, and is intended mainly to assist the student desirous of obtaining an acquaintance with the language as it is spoken in many parts of our island; while to those who desire to enter more deeply into the study of Celtic, it may, perhaps, serve as a starting point at which to commence their investigations.

Similar elementary grammars of the Irish language, varying in value and interest, have been long before the public, the best of which are those of Dr. Neilson, and Mr. Connellan, the present Professor of Irish in Queen's College, Cork. These have been made use of in the drawing up of the present work. The former had been long in use as a class-book in the University of Dublin; but as it was confessedly very inaccurate and provincial in the character of the Irish which it exhibited, I was asked by my friend, Rev. D. Foley, D.D., Professor of Irish in the University of Dublin, to draw up a short grammar which would be free from errors of that kind. This work having received the kind revision of Dr. Foley, was published with a recommendatory preface by him in 1855, the Board of Trinity College, Dublin, having very liberally made a

grant sufficient to defray almost the entire expenses of its publication. Since its publication it has, at the instance of Professor Foley, been made a class-book in the Dublin university.

It is well known by philologists that the great standard grammar of Modern Irish is by Dr. O'Donovan, one of the foremost representatives of native Celtic learning. This much praised work was published in 1845, and it is on it that I have mainly relied both in my first, and now again in my second edition. Much progress, however, has been made since that time in Celtic studies, and great results may be looked for when the second edition of Dr. O'Donovan's grammar appears, as it is to be hoped that he will combine in it the results of Zeuss and his school, and of his own researches in the study of the Brehon Laws.

Since the first publication of this little work the greatest change has come over our Celtic philology. That change has been caused by the appearance of the *Grammatica Celtica* of Zeuss. That great work which marks a new era of Celtic philology was published in 1853. In it Zeuss solved the Celtic problem, viz.: the question, in what relationship the Irish, Welsh, and old Gaulish people stand both to each other and to the other nations. Numerous have been the works published on this question during the two last centuries. And yet we must say, with regret, that as to their value, it is almost none. In no department can more scientific errors be pointed out. The Continental scholars never mastered the Celtic languages; the native scholars lacked, almost without exception, common sense, and often common honesty. No Irish

scholar was conscientious enough to learn Welsh, no Welsh scholar to learn Irish; but all were ready enough to compare their languages with Phœnician, Persian, Etruscan, Egyptian, of which again they knew, in reality, next to nothing. Justice compels us to mention one remarkable exception, the great Welsh scholar, Edward Lhwyd, of whom it may be said that he lived 150 years before his time; but, unable to follow him, the native school had sunk into chaotic and childish etymological dreams. The Celtic problem appeared to be hopeless, and became distasteful to sober minds. Some twenty years ago, however, the influence of the new science of Comparative Philology began to be felt. Pritchard tried to apply it to Celtic with some success. The Continental linguists of Bopp's school, Bopp himself, Diefenbach, Pictet, and others, although tending in the right direction, failed to *prove* the truth. Zeuss at last succeeded by combining with an intellect of rare power a devotion to the subject which amounted, one may say, to a sacrifice of his life. And even this might not have been enough if he had not possessed what no one possessed before him, viz., the *really oldest* monument of both the Irish and the Welsh dialects. Those of the Irish he found in the MSS. of St. Gall, Milan, Würzburg, and Carlsruhe; the Welsh, in Oxford.

Dr. O'Donovan, in a paper on Zeuss in the *Ulster Journal of Archæology* for 1859, quotes the following remarks by Dr. Siegfried in explanation of this: "Zeuss, in the course of his historical researches, had become more familiar with the great libraries of Europe than most men; and he knew, what the scholars of Ireland and Britain were not aware of, that the *oldest* Irish

MSS. existing are not to be found either in the library of Trinity College, Dublin, or of the Royal Irish Academy, nor yet in Oxford or London; but that they had been hidden for hundreds of years in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, in the old monastery of St. Gall, in Switzerland, and in some other Continental places. Most people know how this occurred. Ireland was at one period famous for its learning, and called by our ancestors the Island of Saints, and Irish missionaries were then the missionary teachers of the Continent. In the numerous monasteries founded by them, such as St. Gall and Bobbio, learned men found a refuge. The MSS. Zeuss found in the German and Italian libraries are the results of their pious labours. These, however, are not original works, they are mere copies of parts of the Scriptures, and of the classics. In transcribing these, the monks, for the assistance of their own memories, and for the benefit of younger scholars, used to write between the lines the *literal Irish translation* of difficult words and phrases. These are the famous *glosses* of St. Gall and of Milan. Zeuss saw their value, and spared no labour nor expense in copying them out with his own hand. Possessing them he soon learned more of the really oldest forms and grammar of the Irish language than any scholar had known before him. There are archaisms preserved in those glosses which were never found in the MSS. preserved in Great Britain or in Ireland."

Previous to the appearance of Zeuss' work, attempts could be made with impunity to connect Welsh and Irish with Hebrew and Phœnician, or with Etruscan, Egyptian, and Basque. At the same time Welsh scho-

lars on the one hand, and Irish scholars on the other, were able to deny the connexion of the two languages. An end has been now put to all such vain attempts and assertions. It is now proved (1) that on no grounds of rational or scientific etymology can the Celtic be compared with the Shemitic or other allophylan families, but that it is of a purely Japhetic, *i.e.*, Indo-European, origin; and (2) that the Irish and Welsh were originally the same language. On this general result of the researches of Zeuss we quote the following statement of Dr. O'Donovan, in the article already alluded to, which is of peculiar value as showing that the results of the German scholar are adopted by the highest native authority on Celtic matters. O'Donovan states that the *Grammatica Celtica* has proved:—

"1. That the Irish and Welsh languages are *one* in their origin; that their *divergence, so far from being primeval*, began only a few centuries before the Roman period; that the difference between them was very small when Cæsar landed in Britain—so small, that an old Hibernian, most likely, was still understood there; and that both nations, Irish and British, were identical with the *Celtæ* of the Continent—namely, those of Gaul, Spain, Lombardy, and the Alpine countries;—this is, in fact, asserting the internal unity of the Celtic family.

"2. That this Celtic tongue is, in the full and complete sense of the term, one of the great Indo-European branches of human speech. This, which it had been impossible for the great linguist Bopp to prove, is fully demonstrated by Zeuss.

"The consequence of these two facts is, that there

must now be an end to all attempts at comparing either Hebrew, Phœnician, Egyptian, Basque, or any other language which is not Indo-European, with any dialect of Celtic. The consequence further is, that as far as language gives evidence, we must consider the inhabitants of these islands strictly as brethren of those other five European families constituting that vast and ancient pastoral race who spread themselves in their nomadic migrations till, in the west, they occupied Gaul, and crossed over to Britain and to Ireland, the last boundary of the old world. It follows, likewise, that to the Celtic family we must allow the full Japhetic heir-loom, not only of the grandly organized original language, but of all that it attests of early culture in every respect, the first germs of a mythological Pantheon included.

“Of a heterogeneous mixture, Zeuss has found no trace either in the Welsh or the Irish; therefore, what mediæval tradition relates of such mixture is now a problem which must find solution from a different source.”

The Celtic family consists of two living branches, the British and the Irish; the first comprising the Welsh, Cornish, and the Armoric; the second comprising the Irish or Gaelic, the Scotch Gaelic, and the Manx.

The antique Celtic of Gaul is unhappily lost. Many proper names, and a few words reported by the old classic writers, were long all we possessed of it. Grimm pointed out some curious charms reported by Marcellus, the physician of Theodosius the Great. During the last few years about ten really ancient Gaulish inscriptions have been discovered in France. Unfortunately

they are all very short. M. Pictet, Baron Roget de Belloguet, Mr. Whitley Stokes, and Dr. Siegfried, have attempted to interpret them.

With respect to the Irish language, we know it now in three stages: 1, Old Irish up to A.D. 1000. Of this Zeuss discovered the most ancient relics in the glosses of St. Gall, &c., of which he has printed a large portion in his *Grammatica Celtica*; and Trinity College, Dublin, possesses, since last year, by the munificence of the Irish Primate, one parchment book of the same age, namely, the very valuable book of Armagh, now in preparation for publication by Rev. Dr. Reeves; 2, Middle Irish, from A.D. 1000–1400, is represented by the Brehon Laws, many printed works, and the vast MS. treasures at home; and 3, of the Modern Irish, we have the later literature and the spoken language of the present day.

The peculiar features of the language which, apparently, made it quite *sui generis*, and tended to open the door for many unfounded theories, have been at length historically traced, and their natural origin discovered. The absence of the neuter gender is shown to be merely a modern loss, as the language of the St. Gall glosses is nearly as full of neuters as Latin or Greek; the aspirations so frequent in later times are perceived to have arisen from the influence of vowels, and the curious phenomenon designated by the name of eclipsis, is now ascertained to have owed its origin to the influence of a final *n* (See § 7).

The Continental school of the followers of Zeuss is now working *pari passu* with the Dublin school of native Irish scholars, headed by the well known names

of Dr. Petrie, Dr. O'Donovan, Mr. Eugene Curry, Rev. Dr. Todd, S.F.T.C.D., and Mr. Stokes.

Hermann Ebel has shown the etymological identity of the Irish cases of declension yet extant with those of the Indo-European languages; and M. Pictet and Herr Glück have completed Zeuss' researches on the Celtic names. A critical journal has been established at Berlin for the comparative study of Celtic and its sister languages (Kuhn and Schleicher's "Beiträge").

Celtic *rational* philology is only in its infancy. The critical Dublin school, the leading names of which have been already mentioned, have had so much employment in the mere careful editing of texts that they have been unable, hitherto, to digest the results of their labours. By Zeuss they have been now put into natural connexion with the other labourers in the wide field of Indo-European philology. Celtic benefits by all the light that has been thrown upon general philological studies by Grimm, Bopp, &c.; while it is itself now appreciated as being essential to a complete understanding of the languages and the origin of the sister nations, viz., German, Italic, Greek, and their relations. But much yet remains to be done; the full materials for working have not yet been obtained; a Thesaurus of Irish being absolutely required to complete the tools necessary for working in the great Celtic mine. It is the grand and primary desideratum of Irish learning. We trust that, when the labour of editing the Brehon Laws is concluded, Mr. Curry and Dr. O'Donovan will supply this great want, and thereby enable the Continental scholars successfully to pursue their studies.

Since the issue of the first edition of this work, a

work of a similar nature has appeared—namely, "The College Irish Grammar," by Rev. Ulick J. Bourke, of Maynooth College. Dublin, 1856. In reply to Mr. Bourke's strictures on my omission of the subjunctive mood in this Grammar, I merely remark, that we might as well insert in the number of cases of the Irish noun the Sanskrit instrumental and locative, because the ideas expressed by those cases can be conveyed by a use of the Irish cases; as insert among the moods of the Irish verb the subjunctive, simply because the indicative in Irish is frequently used in a subjunctive signification.

In conclusion, I beg to return my best thanks to my friend Dr. Rudolf Th. Siegfried, Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Dublin, for the kind assistance that he has afforded me in my attempt to bring this little work up to the present stand-point of Celtic investigation. The Rev. Professor Foley has also kindly given the work the benefit of his revision; and I humbly trust that this second edition may be found useful in promoting a knowledge of the vernacular Irish, and, at the same time, not wholly undeserving the attention of the general philologer.

MIDDLETON TYAS, YORKSHIRE,
July 26, 1860.

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IRISH GRAMMAR.

PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

§ 1.—*The Alphabet.*

THE ordinary Irish Alphabet consists of eighteen letters: they are—

	SOUND.	EXAMPLE.	
Α α	1. Long, as <i>a</i> in <i>ball</i>	bám, <i>white</i> .	<i>g wana</i> <i>fáirjed</i>
	2. Short, as <i>a</i> in <i>what</i>	τάρ, <i>come</i> .	
	3. Obscure, as <i>a</i> in <i>negative</i>	λιονγα, <i>with me</i> .	
Β β	As in English.	bean, <i>a woman</i> .	<i>ben</i>
С с	1. Before a slender vowel, as <i>k</i> in <i>king</i>	ciáll, <i>sense</i> .	
	2. Before a broad vowel, as <i>c</i> in <i>call</i>	cat, <i>a battle</i> .	<i>cad</i>
Ṫ ṫ	1. Somewhat thick, as the English <i>th</i> in <i>thou</i>	ṫán, <i>a poem</i> .	
	2. Before a slender vowel, somewhat as <i>d</i> in <i>guardian</i>	ṫia, <i>God</i> .	<i>Doia</i> <i>choicch</i>
Ε ε	Long, as <i>ay</i> in <i>hay</i>	ṫé, <i>six</i> .	
Ṽ ṽ	As in English.	ṫear, <i>a man</i> .	<i>ṫur</i>
Ṛ ṛ	1. Before a slender vowel, as <i>g</i> in <i>get</i>	ṫean, <i>love</i> .	
	2. Before a broad vowel, as <i>g</i> in <i>gone</i>	ṫan, <i>without</i> .	
Ḥ ḥ	As in English.		
Ḷ ḷ	1. Long, as <i>i</i> in <i>marine</i>	mín, <i>mild</i> .	
	2. Short, as <i>i</i> in <i>fin</i>	mín, <i>meal</i> .	
Ḻ ḻ	1. As <i>ll</i> in <i>mill</i>	míl, <i>honey</i> .	<i>mel</i>
	2. Somewhat as <i>l</i> in <i>valiant</i>	buille, <i>a blow</i> .	
Ṣ ṣ	As in English.	mé, <i>I</i> .	<i>ma</i> <i>na</i> <i>maur</i>
Ṧ ṧ	As in English.	ní, <i>not</i> .	
Ṫ ṫ	1. Long, as <i>oa</i> in <i>coal</i>	móir, <i>great</i> .	<i>maur</i>
	2. Short, as <i>u</i> in <i>bulk</i>	óc, <i>evil</i> .	
Ṽ ṽ	As in English.	pobal, <i>a congregation</i> .	
Ṛ ṛ	1. Broad, as <i>r</i> in <i>raw</i>	ṫann, <i>a part</i> .	<i>ṫann</i>
	2. Slender, somewhat like the second <i>r</i> in <i>carrion</i>	beir, <i>bring</i> .	
Ṣ ṣ	1. Before a slender vowel, as <i>sh</i> in <i>shield</i>	ṫinn, <i>we</i> .	
	2. Before a broad vowel, as <i>s</i> in <i>son</i>	ṫonag, <i>happiness</i> .	
Ṫ ṫ	1. Rather thick, corresponding with the broad <i>o</i>	ṫarḃ, <i>a bull</i>	<i>ṫarḃ</i> <i>ṫienn</i> <i>kil</i>
	2. As <i>t</i> in <i>bestial</i>	ṫiṫearna, <i>a lord</i> .	
Ṽ ṽ	1. Long, as <i>u</i> in <i>rule</i>	cúl, <i>the back part</i> .	<i>kil</i>
	2. Short, as <i>u</i> in <i>put</i>	bun, <i>the bottom</i> .	

It must be borne in mind that all the attempts to illustrate the Irish sounds by English are only approximations; the true sound must be learnt by intercourse with those who speak the language. *Cc* is pronounced in the West as *oo*, as *peacaó, sin*. In other places it is pronounced as *a* in *negative* in nouns and infinitives, while in 3rd sing. past passive as *as* and *ac*.

§ 2.—Vowels; and Rule *Caol le caol, 7c.*

Cc, o, and u, are called broad vowels; and *e and i* slender. The most general rule of the Irish language is that called *caol le caol asur leathan le leathan*, "a slender with a slender, and a broad with a broad;" which is, that the vowel preceding a consonant, or combination of consonants, and that which follows it, must be of the same class; sc. both broad, or both slender: e. g. Nom. *ṙsolóṙ*, Gen. *ṙsolóṙe*, not *ṙsolóṙe*. Nom. *ṙṙeasóṙ*; Gen. *ṙṙeasóṙa*, not *ṙṙeasóṙa*; *mol, moṙam*; *buaṙ, buaṙear, buaṙó*. The reason of this rule is, that in Irish the two classes of vowels have a decided influence on the pronunciation of the consonants in immediate contact with them; *a, o, u,* giving them a broad sound, and *e and i* a slender. As this influence on the consonant is exercised both by the preceding as well as the following vowel, the pronunciation would be rendered uncertain if the two vowels were not of the same kind. This delicacy of the organs of speech, though partly known elsewhere, has not been carried out to the same extent by any of the Indo-European languages, nor was it fully developed in the older shape of the Celtic itself, as Welsh does not partake of it. This rule has caused a rather cumbersome orthography, as a large number of vowels are now written for the mere purpose of insuring either the broad or slender pronunciation of the consonants, and these vowels which in reality have no sound, are distinguished in no way from those vowels which are sounded. This creates a difficulty in reading correctly Irish words. If every one of these silent vowels were marked, for instance, with a point, it would be of great assistance to the reader. Such an innovation, however, we cannot undertake to introduce.

§ 3.—Diphthongs.

There are in Irish thirteen diphthongs, which are: *ae, ao, ai, ea, ei, eo, eu, ia, io, iu, oi, ua, ui.* *Cc, ao, eu, eo, ia,*

iu, and ua, are generally long, the remaining are sometimes long and sometimes short. The diphthongs and triphthongs in Irish frequently are not real, but owe their rise to the operation of the rule *caol le caol, 7c.*, e. g., *amṙeal, an angel, &c.*

Those diphthongs which have their first vowel long are generally pronounced like dissyllables; as *tám, I am*. The following is a Table of the diphthongs and their pronunciation:—

A.—Invariable Diphthongs.

<i>ae</i> like <i>ai</i> in <i>pain</i>	<i>lae</i> , of a day.
<i>ao</i> " <i>ay</i> " <i>mayor</i>	<i>aon</i> , one.
<i>eu</i> " <i>a</i> " <i>fare</i>	<i>ṙeur</i> , sharp.
<i>ia</i> " <i>ea</i> " <i>clear</i>	<i>ciaṙl</i> , sense.
<i>ua</i> somewhat like <i>oe</i> in <i>doer</i>	<i>puar</i> , cold.

B.—Variable Diphthongs.

<i>ai</i> long, like <i>awi</i> in <i>drawing</i>	<i>tám</i> , <i>I am</i> .
—short, " <i>a</i> " <i>rang</i>	<i>raṙ</i> , a beam. <i>haal</i>
— " " <i>i</i> " <i>irregular</i>	<i>laṙar</i> , a light.
<i>ea</i> long, " <i>a</i> " <i>bane</i>	<i>taṙan</i> , <i>do</i> .
—short, " <i>ea</i> " <i>heart</i>	<i>caar</i> , <i>just</i> .
<i>ei</i> long, " <i>ei</i> " <i>reign</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , <i>self</i> .
—short, " <i>i</i> " <i>fir</i>	<i>ṙeur</i> , <i>fat</i> .
<i>eo</i> long, " <i>yeo</i> " <i>yeoman</i>	<i>raṙt</i> , a sail.
—short, " <i>u</i> " <i>dusk</i>	<i>raṙt</i> , a drink. <i>dia</i>
<i>io</i> long, " <i>ee</i> " <i>queen</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , wine. <i>raṙn</i>
—short, " <i>i</i> " <i>bliss</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , knowledge. <i>raṙn</i> (ieog)
<i>iu</i> long, " <i>ew</i> " <i>few</i>	<i>raṙ</i> , worthy. <i>raṙ</i>
—short, " <i>u</i> " <i>put</i>	<i>raṙt</i> , <i>boil</i> . <i>raṙt</i>
<i>oi</i> long, " <i>o</i> " <i>more</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , <i>just</i> . <i>raṙn</i>
— " " <i>i</i> " <i>tile</i>	<i>raṙl</i> , a wood. <i>raṙl</i> (ra)
—short, " <i>ui</i> " <i>quill</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , a crime.
— " " <i>u</i> " <i>crutch</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , a fight.
<i>ui</i> long, " <i>ui</i> " <i>fruit</i>	<i>raṙn</i> , five. <i>raṙn</i>
—short, " <i>ui</i> " <i>quill</i>	<i>raṙl</i> , blood. <i>raṙl</i>

ei short is pronounced in Munster like *e* in *sell*. *iu* is pronounced like *o* in *done*, in Connaught, &c.

It must be borne in mind that the English sounds are approximations.

An accent is placed over vowels when they are long, as *báṙ, death*. Also over the variable diphthongs when long.

§ 4.—Triphthongs.

The following five triphthongs are used in the Irish language, and are always long:—

aoi like ee in keep.	maoin, treasure.
eoi " yeo " yeoman, with i after it.	peoil, flesh. <i>gweil (in)</i>
iaa " eei " seeing.	iaaig, a physician.
iui " iewi " viewing.	cuim, gentle. <i>moyr</i>
uaa nearly like u in assured.	cuairta, a visit.

§ 5.—Contractions.

The following contractions are frequently used in printed books :—

7 aɣur.	ḡ gan.	.i. eaðon, viz.
4 ar.	ɣ ea.	7c etc.
4 ar.	v ui.	f ru.
ā an.	n̄ nn.	u ru.
ḡ so, gan.	ḡ aɣt.	

CHAPTER II.

MUTATIONS OF CONSONANTS.

§ 6.—Aspiration, &c.

ḡ, c, o, p, s, m, p, r, t, are called mutable consonants, because by aspiration or eclipis they either entirely lose or change their sound.

l, n, r are called immutable consonants, because they are incapable of aspiration or eclipis.

As the mutable consonants have very different sounds when aspirated, it seems proper to give them here, with their variety of pronunciation :—

ḡ in the beginning or end of a word sounds like v; as, mo baaile, my village; ruib, you. In the middle of a word between broad vowels it is generally sounded like w; as, a leabair, his book.

ḡ before and after a broad vowel is pronounced like the Greek χ, or as gh in lough, as, mo eaara, my friend; loe, a lake; but if it precede or follow a slender vowel it receives a less guttural sound, as, eioim, I see. The same diversity of sound prevails with regard to the German aspirate ch, ach being broad, ich, slender.

1. o and s sound like y in connexion with the slender vowels e and i, but with a slight guttural sound; as, a seana-mum, his birth.

2. o and s before and after a broad vowel have a strong gut-

tural sound; as, mo sicut, my voice. This sound does not occur in English, and must be learned by intercourse with natives. ḡ is not sounded at all; as, an fhu, pronounced as, an ru, of the man.

n̄ is pronounced like ð.

p̄ is pronounced like Ph in Philip; as, a paara, his suffering.

f̄ and t̄ are pronounced like h alone; as, mo iolaara, my comfort; a taara, his tongue.

l, n, and r alone admit of being doubled in the middle or end of words; as, rumn, to us. ol and ln in the middle of words are pronounced like ll, and on like nn; as, coolaao, sleep; ceanna, the same.

§ 7.—Eclipsis.

This term has been invented by Irish grammarians to denote one class of those alterations by which the initial letters of words are affected under certain conditions, as we shall see below. The term is taken from the peculiar orthographical contrivance, viz., as some of the alterations are so considerable that they would greatly disguise the word to the eye, the original letter, although silent, was allowed to remain in writing while the altered sound, which in reality is alone to be pronounced, was placed before it: the second letter is then, as the phrase is, eclipsed by the first. Hence arise the following cases :—

b is eclipsed by m; as, ar m-baile, our town.
c " s; as, ar s-caara, our right.
o and s " n; as, ar n-Oia, our God; ar nsearaan, our complaint.
p " b; as, an b-puill tu, art thou?
p " b; as, ar b-pein, our punishment.
r " t; as, an t-rlat, the rod. Vid. § 8.
t " o; as, ar o-teme, our fire.

These are pronounced as, ar maile, &c.

m suffers no eclipis.

n can scarcely be said to eclipse s, but rather to coalesce with it; the pronunciation being like ng in singing.

Instead of the above method, in older orthography the initial letter is doubled to indicate the eclipse; as, ce, te, &c, instead of se, te; thus, a cclann, their children, for a s-clann.

The origin of the eclipis is now well understood: it originally took place only after certain words, and was in every case owing to an n, in which these words ended in the earlier period of the language. Vid. §§ 8, 24, 28, 35.

PART II.
ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.

§ 8.—*The Article.*

The article *an*, *the*, is inflected thus: Singular. Nom. *an*; gen. masc. *an*, gen. fem. *na*; Plural. *na*. The dative is formed by *an*, with a preposition. After a preposition ending in a vowel the *a* of the article is dropped, as *do'n a'air*, incorrectly written *don a'air*, *to the father*.

The form *naib* (Zeuss, p. 238,) was anciently used in the dat. plural, but is not to be met with in modern Irish.

Certain prepositions when followed by the article, assume an *r*, e. g. *le with*, *le ran*, *with the*; *tré through*, *tré ran* *through the*; *iar*, *after*, *iar ran*, *after the*. This fact we conceive to be explicable only by assuming that the *r* belongs in reality to the article, and not to the preposition.

The article causes the following changes in the initials of nouns.

1. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *τ* to the nominative singular of masculines, and *h* to the genitive singular of feminines: it prefixes *h* to all the cases of the plural except the genitive, to which *n* is prefixed. See below, No. 2.

2. If the noun begins with a mutable consonant, except *o*, *τ*, *r*, the article aspirates the initial mutables of masculines in the genitive, and of feminines in the nominative.

After *do* and *de* the article aspirates in the dative of both genders. In some parts of Ireland eclipsis is used instead of aspiration. *Cnn*, *in*, also aspirates with the article.

In the genitive plural all initial mutables, including *o* and *τ*, are eclipsed, except *r*. The reason of this is, that the genitive plural originally ended in *n*, as *mnan*, *nan*. This *n* appears before vowels as mentioned in No. 1, and so in *annan to'raic*, *in the beginning*.

3. If the noun begins with *r*, followed by a vowel, or by *l*, *n*, or *p*, wherever the article would aspirate other consonants, it, in this case, eclipses *r* by prefixing *τ*. The origin of this *τ*, and also of that mentioned under No. 1, has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

4. If the noun should begin with *l*, *n*, or *p*, or *r* before a mute, the article causes no change whatever, or in the singular of those beginning with *o* or *τ*.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

§ 9.—*The Noun in General.*

There are but two genders in Irish,—the Masculine and the Feminine. The following are a few general rules for ascertaining to which a noun belongs; but in most cases the learner must find the gender by experience, or from a lexicon.

The following nouns are masculine:—Names of men and males generally.

Diminutives in *ám*, *ín*; derivatives in *aróe*, *uróe*, *oróe*, *airé*, *ác*, *ar*, *or*, and personal nouns ending in *óir*; as, *buailteoir*, *a thresher*; abstract substantives in *ar*; as, *timnear*, *sickness*; and usually monosyllables in *ác*, *uéc*, *ur*, and *uéc*; as, *uéc*, *the breast*.

The following are generally feminine:—Names of women and females, of countries, rivers, and diseases, diminutives in *ós*; derivatives in *ác*; as, *ríogaéc*, *a kingdom*; and abstract substantives, except those in *ar*; as, *ghle*, *whiteness*; and in most cases those nouns in which the last vowel is slender.

There are only two numbers, the *singular* and *plural*, and four cases distinct in form, the nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative. Under the nominative form are included the relations of the nominative and accusative, under the dative form,* the relations of the dative and ablative. The vocative has *always* the particle *a* prefixed, which *aspirates* the initial mutable.

* In the former edition of this grammar the name *prepositional* was, after O'Donovan, given to this case; it is more convenient, however, to retain the term *dative*. It must be borne in mind that it is the preposition prefixed that makes it either dative or ablative, and that the aspiration that will be seen so frequently to occur in the initial letter of the noun in this case, as *do bád*, is owing to the influence of the preposition *do*, *to*, and is not a necessary adjunct of the dative case. The dative is, therefore, in this grammar, given in its nude form without the preposition, and consequently without the aspiration, and the same has been done in the case of the vocative.

The case endings in the modern language are, as might be expected, much fewer and less distinct than in the more ancient, in which the accusative singular and plural had frequently a distinct ending, and where also peculiar forms of the neuter and dual are found. The case distinctions appear at an earlier period to have been lost by the Welsh and Cornish, with the exception of that internal inflexion exhibited by the first declension in Irish, of which a few traces exist even in those languages.

We may arrange the nouns in the modern language into five classes, or declensions, which follow. Some nouns partake of the characteristics of several declensions. Zeuss, treating of the ancient language, classifies the nouns into two divisions, the vowel and the consonantal declension, so designated on account of the crude bases ending respectively in vowels and in consonants. In the modern language there are, however, but few traces of the second division left, which may perhaps be enumerated as the fifth declension, with some few nouns of the third, namely, those that make their genitive singular end in *ac*.

§ 10.—First Declension.

The first declension consists of masculine nouns whose genitive is formed from the nominative by adding a slender vowel to the broad one in the termination, or by changing the broad vowel or diphthong of the noun into a slender one.

In the plural the nominative is like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular.

The dative case in the singular is like the nominative; in the plural, it ends in *ib*, which is invariable throughout all the declensions.

The vocative case plural is formed by adding *a* to the nominative singular.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>ball</i> , a limb.	Nom. <i>ball</i> .
Gen. <i>ball</i> .	Gen. <i>ball</i> .
Dat. <i>ball</i> .	Dat. <i>ballaib</i> .
Voc. <i>ball</i> .	Voc. <i>balla</i> .

In like manner decline—

Singular.	Plural.
<i>ball</i> , a blind man.	<i>cairín</i> , a path.
<i>peap</i> , gen. <i>paip</i> , a man.	<i>raíar</i> , comfort.
<i>mac</i> , a son.	<i>bronnac</i> , a colt.

Some nouns of this declension form the nominative plural by adding *ta* to the singular; as, *reol*, a sail, Pl. *reolta*. Whenever the nominative plural differs in form from the genitive singular, the dative plural is formed from it, not only in this, but in the other declensions, e. g. *reoltaib*, so *raíal*, a tale, Nom. Pl. *raíata*, Dat. *raíaltaib*.

Many nouns ending in *ac* form the nominative plural by adding *e* to genitive singular; *é* in declension becomes *é*; as, *balac*, a burden, a charge; Gen. Sing. *balac*; Nom. Pl. *balace*.

§ 11.—Second Declension.

This declension comprises the greater part of the feminine nouns in the language, and but few masculines.

The genitive singular has a slender increase. This causes an attenuation of the preceding syllable, if it be not slender already, according to the rule *caol le caol*, 7c.

The dative case is formed from the genitive by dropping the increase.

The nominative plural has a broad or slender increase regulated by the rule, *caol le caol*, 7c.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Voc. <i>coip</i> , a foot.	Nom. and Voc. <i>coipa</i> .
Gen. . . . <i>coipe</i> .	Gen. . . . <i>coip</i> .
Dat. . . . <i>coipe</i> .	Dat. . . . <i>coipaib</i> .

In like manner decline—

<i>uipios</i> , a lark.	<i>croic</i> , a cross.
<i>raíolós</i> , a farmer.	<i>cloic</i> , a stone. <i>lia</i>

Words in *óio* make their nom. pl. in *oíde*; e.g., *raíabóio*, a scolding woman; pl. *raíabóioíde*.

Some nouns, the vowel of whose termination is slender, form the plural either by adding a slender termination, or *eanna*; as, *uib*, an herb; Pl. *uibé*, or *uibéanna*: "but the latter form," says O'Donovan, "which is like the Saxon termination *en* (as in *owen*), is more general, and better than the former, because more distinct and forcible." When the nominative plural terminates in this mode, the genitive plural is formed from it by dropping the *a*; e.g., the gen. pl. of *uib* is *uibéanna*.

The vocative singular of masc. nouns having a broad vowel in the termination of the nominative is generally attenuated.

If the nominative plural be formed by adding τε to the singular, as sometimes happens, the genitive plural is formed from it by adding αὐ; as *coill*, a wood; plural. nom. *coillte*; gen. *coillteαὐ*; dat. *coilltib*.

§ 12.—Third Declension.

The nouns of this declension are of both the masculine and feminine gender. It comprises nouns ending in *όιρ*, fem. abstracts in *αὐτ*, abstracts in *εαγ*, monosyllables with *ιο*, as *ριογ*, &c., and others.

The genitive singular has a broad increase.

The dative ends like the nominative in the singular number.

The nominative plural takes a slender increase, *ιόε* and *τε*, and a broad increase in *α*, *αηα*, and *αῖα*.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Voc. <i>ριξασόιρ</i> , a weaver.	Nom. <i>ριξασόιριόε</i> .
Gen. . . . <i>ριξασόιρα</i> .	Gen. <i>ριξασόιρι</i> .
Dat. . . . <i>ριξασόιρι</i> .	Dat. <i>ριξασόιριβ</i> .
Voc. . . . <i>ριξασόιρι</i> .	Voc. <i>ριξασόιριόε</i> .

Carefully observing the rule *caol te caol, 7c*, decline—

<i>mealltóir</i> , a deceiver.	<i>rlánuigétoir</i> , a saviour.
<i>móin</i> , a bog.	<i>ριογ</i> , knowledge.
<i>lior</i> , a rath.	<i>peoil</i> , flesh.

Also, *αῖαη*, a father; gen. *αῖαη*; nom. pl. *αῖριε*, or *αῖριεάα*, gen. *αῖριεαῖ*; *βριάαη*, a brother, nom. pl. *βριά-όριε*, or *βριάῖριεάα*; and *μάααη*, a mother; also, *cuio*; gen. *cuoa*, a part.

Those nouns in which the nominative plural ends in *τε*, or *τε*, form the genitive by adding *αὐ*:—*móin*; gen. pl. *móin-τεαὐ*.

Many feminine nouns in *ιη* make their genitive singular in *αῖ*, as *οαη*, the oak, *οαηαῖ*; *λαηαη*, a flame, *λαηηαῖ*, &c. These nouns make their nominative plural in *αῖα*, as *λαηηαῖα*, so *καῖαη*, a city, *καῖηαῖ*; nom. pl. *καῖηαῖα*.

Nouns in *εαγ* make their genitive either after the analogy of the first or third declension, as *τιηηεαγ*, sickness; gen. *τιηηι*, or *τιηηεαγ*. The first form is the more common.

Certain nouns which take a broad increase also suffer an internal change; e.g., *ριογ*, knowledge, gen. *ριεαγ*; *υηη*, news, gen. *οηηα*; *λεαγ*, a rath, gen. *λεαηα*, also *λιη*.

§ 13.—Fourth Declension.

The fourth declension comprises nouns of both genders which have no change in the singular number. Most nouns ending in vowels, and generally those in *ίξ*, *ιό*, and *ίν*, are of this declension.

The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *ιόε*, *τε*, and *τε*, to nominative singular.

The genitive plural is formed by adding *ό* or *αὐ* to nominative singular, and sometimes to the nominative plural.

It is, however, in common usage incorrectly, but frequently, made identical at one time with the nominative singular, and at another with the nominative plural.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Voc. <i>ρίanne</i> , a ring.	Nom. and Voc. <i>ρίanneιόε</i> .
Gen. . . . <i>ρίanne</i> .	Gen. . . . <i>ρίanneαὐ</i> .
Dat. . . . <i>ρίanne</i> .	Dat. . . . <i>ρίanneιόε</i> .

Όinne, a person, makes *οαοιηε*; *αῖηε* makes *αῖτεαητα* in the nominative plural.

§ 14.—Fifth Declension.

Nouns of the fifth declension are of both genders, and generally end in vowels in the nominative.

The genitive singular is formed by adding *n* or *nn*.

The dative case is formed by attenuating the termination of the genitive singular.

The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *α* to the genitive singular. Some nouns of this declension form their plurals irregularly, but they will be learned by practice, or from the dictionary.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Voc. <i>εόηαηηα</i> , a neighbour.	Nom. and Voc. <i>εόηαηηαηα</i> and <i>εόηαηηαν</i> .
Gen. . . . <i>εόηαηηαν</i> .	Gen. . . . <i>εόηαηηαν</i> .
Dat. . . . <i>εόηαηηαν</i> .	Dat. . . . <i>εόηαηηαναῖβ</i> .

In like manner decline—

<i>τεαηα</i> , a tongue.	<i>πειηηα</i> , a person.
<i>οῖηε</i> , a flood.	<i>εεαῖηαῖηα</i> , a quarter.

Teaηα also makes *τεαηαῖα*, *τεαηαῖαα* in the plural.

§ 15.—Irregular Nouns.

Ἦα, *God*; ἡά, *a day*; bean, *a woman*; bó, *a cow*; mí, *a month*; caora, *a sheep*; crio, *a hovel*; bpi, or bpiinn, *a womb*; ceo, *a fog*; crié, *clay*, are quite irregular, and are declined as follows:—

Ἦα, <i>m., God.</i>	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. Ἦα.	Nom. Ἦέε, or Ἦέιτε.
Gen. Ἦέ.	Gen. Ἦα, or Ἦέιτεσθ.
Dat. Ἦα.	Dat. Ἦέιθ, or Ἦέιτιθ.
Voc. Ἦέ, or Ἦα.	Voc. Ἦέε, or Ἦέιτε.
ἡά, <i>m., a day.</i>	
Nom. ἡά.	Nom. λαέτε, or ἡάιτε, and λαέτεαντα.
Gen. λαε.	Gen. λαέτεσθ, or ἡά.
Dat. ἡά, or ἡά.	Dat. λαέθιθ, or ἡάθιθ.
Voc. ἡά, or λαε.	Voc. λαέτε, or ἡάιτε.
bean, <i>f., a woman.</i>	
Nom. and Voc. bean.	Nom. and Voc. mná.
Gen. . . mná.	Gen. . . ban.
Dat. . . mnaoi.	Dat. . . mnáθi.
bó, <i>f., a cow.</i> <i>bioch</i>	
Nom. and Voc. bó.	Nom. and Voc. ba.
Gen. . . bó.	Gen. . . bó.
Dat. . . bum.	Dat. . . baθi.
mí, <i>f., a month.</i>	
Nom. and Voc. mí.	Nom. and Voc. míora.
Gen. . . míora, mír.	Gen. . . míor.
Dat. . . mír, mí.	Dat. . . míoraθi.
caora, <i>f., a sheep.</i>	
Nom. caora.	Nom. caoiriθ.
Gen. caoraí.	Gen. caoraí.
Dat. caora.	Dat. caoraíθi.
Voc. caora.	Voc. caoraí.
crió, <i>m., a hut.</i>	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. and Voc. crió.	Nom. and Voc. criaoíte, and crióite.
Gen. . . crió.	Gen. . . crió.
Dat. . . crió.	Dat. . . criaoíθi, and crióíθi.

bpi, *f., the womb.*

Nom. and Voc. bpi.	Nom. and Voc. bpiinna.
Gen. . . bpiinne, or bpiinn.	Gen. . . bpiinn.
Dat. . . bpiinn.	Dat. . . bpiinnaθi.

Ceo, *a fog*, makes ceoiθ and ciac in the genitive singular.
Crié, *f., clay*, in the singular is declined thus:—

Nom. crié.
Gen. criaoí.
Dat. crié.
Voc. crié.

It would be well for the learner to practise himself in affixing the article to nouns. The changes and eclipses which are caused by the article have been stated in § 8. We give a few nouns here illustrative of the rules:—

an t-athair, <i>the father.</i>	an t-araí, <i>the ass.</i>
an t-earbhos, <i>the bishop.</i>	an fear, <i>the man.</i>
an óig, <i>the virgin.</i>	an mac, <i>the son.</i>
an eala, <i>the swan.</i>	an bean, <i>the woman.</i>
an xeuθ, <i>the branch.</i>	an ríab, <i>the mountain.</i>
an ragaire, <i>the priest.</i>	an t-áin, <i>the eye.</i>
an rionnaí, <i>the fox.</i>	an t-rlat, <i>the rod.</i>
an t-angeal, <i>the angel.</i>	

The gender of these nouns can be easily known by observing the influence of the article upon them.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 16.—The Adjective in General.

There are four declensions of adjectives. The changes that the adjective undergoes when connected with a noun will be treated of in § 21. We give the adjectives in their simple form, and have omitted the aspirations as not rightly belonging to them in that state, for these aspirations do not occur when an adjective is the predicate of a sentence.

With regard to their inflexions, it must be noted that the termination íθ of the dative plural is never used unless the adjective be used substantively. The dative plural in adjectives is identical in form with the nominative plural. In the older form of the language, however, íθ occurs with adjectives as well as substantives.

§ 17.—*The First Declension.*

The first declension consists of adjectives ending in consonants having the vowel of the last syllable broad.

In the masculine the inflexions are the same as those of the first declension of nouns, except that the nominative plural ends in α.

In the feminine the inflexions are the same as those of the second declension of nouns.

Singular.		Caol, slender.		Plural.	
MASC.	FEM.			MASC. AND FEM.	
Nom. caol.	caol.			Nom. caola.	
Gen. caoil.	caoil.			Gen. caoil.	
Dat. caoil.	caoil.			Dat. caoil.	
Voc. caoil.	caoil.			Voc. caoil.	

In like manner decline—

áir, high.	mór, great.
duib, black.	bán, white.

§ 18.—*Second Declension.*

This declension consists of adjectives ending in consonants, and having the vowel of their last syllable slender.

The genitive singular masculine does not change, but the genitive singular feminine and nominative plural have a slender increase in e.

Singular.		Plural.	
MASC.	FEM.	MASC. AND FEM.	
Nom. and Voc. mín.	mín.	Nom. and Voc. míne.	
Gen. . . mín.	míne.	Gen. . . mín.	
Dat. . . mín.	mín.	Dat. . . míne.	

Decline as examples, áirí, ancient, and tair, tender.

§ 19.—*Third Declension.*

Adjectives ending in aíníúil belong to this declension.

The genitive singular, and nominative, vocative, and dative plural, are syncopated, and take a broad increase in α.

Singular.		Plural.	
MASC. AND FEM.		MASC. AND FEM.	
Nom. geanaíúil.		Nom. geanaíúil.	
Gen. geanaíúil.		Gen. geanaíúil.	
Dat. geanaíúil.		Dat. geanaíúil.	
Voc. geanaíúil.		Voc. geanaíúil.	

In like manner decline—

fearamhúil, manly.	geanaíúil, lovely.
banamhúil, womanly.	daíamhúil, handsome.

This termination, aíníúil, means like (akin to raíníúil, Lat. *similis*); e. g., fearamhúil, like a man, manly; zlaíamhúil, greenish (from zlaí, green); mnáamhúil, effeminate (from the inflected form of bean). This termination occurs in nouns formed from these adjectives by adding the abstract termination aó or aét, as daíamháil, comeliness; fearamháil, manliness; mnáamháil, effeminacy; raíamháil, generous, raíamháil, generosity.

§ 20.—*Fourth Declension.*

This declension consists of adjectives ending in vowels: they are alike in all cases, genders, and numbers.

Coíosa, aged.

Singular.		Plural.	
MASC. AND FEM.		MASC. AND FEM.	
Nom. aóíosa.		Nom. aóíosa.	
Gen. aóíosa.		Gen. aóíosa.	
Dat. aóíosa.		Dat. aóíosa.	
Voc. aóíosa.		Voc. aóíosa.	

§ 21.—*Adjectives declined with Nouns.*

Adjectives beginning with mutable consonants are aspirated in the nominative singular feminine, in the genitive singular masculine, in the vocative case singular of both genders, and in the plural in the nominative masculine if the noun ends in a consonant; they are also aspirated in the dative singular masculine.*

Ón fear geal, the white man.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom. an fear geal.		Nom. na fear geala.	
Gen. an fear geal.		Gen. na fear ngeal.	
Dat. an fear geal.		Dat. do na fear ngeala.	
Voc. a fear geal.		Voc. a fear geala.	

* It is not easy to lay down any general rule about the dative singular, as the influence upon the noun or adjective depends upon the preposition employed. The aspiration in the dative is modern and colloquial; in the written language eclipsis generally takes place.

Ccñ bean ðeal, *the white woman.*

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom. an bean ðeal.		Nom. na mná ðeala.	
Gen. na mná ðeale.		Gen. na mban nðeal.	
Dat. do'n bhnaoi ðeale.		Dat. do na mnáib ðeala.	
Voc. a bean ðeal.		Voc. a mná ðeala.	

After this manner the learner might exercise himself with the following, given by Neilson in his Irish Grammar:—

<i>MASC.</i>		<i>FEM.</i>
an la fuar, <i>the cold day.</i>		an mháthar fuar, <i>the cold morning.</i>
an cnam mór, <i>the great tree.</i>		an éilic mór, <i>the great stone.</i>

“Consonants,” as O’Donovan remarks, “are aspirated in the plural merely for the sake of euphony, and not to distinguish the gender; for whenever the noun to which the adjective belongs terminates in a vowel, the initial consonant of the adjective retains its natural sound; as, ceolta binne, *sweet melodies.*”

§ 22.—*The Degrees of Comparison.*

In both the comparative and superlative the form of the adjective is the same, and they are distinguished from one another only by the particle affixed, or the context.

The comparative is formed by putting níor before the genitive singular feminine of the positive, and the superlative by putting ír, or ar, before the same; as ðeal, *white*; níor ðeale, *whiter*; ar ðeale, *whitest.*

Ír is generally used before a slender vowel, ar before a broad. níor is probably a contraction for níō ar, *thing which is*, as in certain collocations níor cannot be correctly used; as, do tabairfaim tuise é dá m-biaid ré níō ðeáirí, *I would give it to you if it were better*, where níor (níō ar?) becomes níō baō.

The particle níor is, however, sometimes omitted, e. g., in interrogative sentences; as, meafaró rém an córa a ðeafó-nuife Óé, *do you consider it is right in the presence of God?* Acts iv. 19. Similar is the usage when the assertive verb ír or ar begins the sentence, in which case níor, as O’Donovan remarks, is never used, as in the example cited by him, ír ðeáirí mé ioná éu, *I am better than thou.*

In the ancient language we meet with a comparative ending in ðer, ðir (Greek *τερος*, Sansk. *तर*, *tara*), and a superlative in em (Sansk. *म*, *ma*, Lat. *mus*, as, Sansk. *अधम*, *adhama*, Lat. *infimus*, and *परम*, *parama*, *primus*, *summus*, *minimus*); but these terminations have disappeared in the modern language. The slender increase in níor ðeale is really the comparative inflexion; compare the old Irish comparative in íu, Sansk. *ियस*, Lat. *ior*, *ius*, Greek *ιω*. The ar or ír added to the superlative is in reality nothing but the substantive verb, the superlative being formed similarly to that in French by the addition of the article to the comparative form. That the a and e are really comparative and superlative inflexions is evident from a comparison of the Cornish, where both degrees, without distinction, terminate in a and e.—*Vid. Norris’s Cornish Grammar*, p. 22.

The adjective in the comparative and superlative undergoes no change, but is treated as an adjective of the fourth declension.

§ 23.—*Irregular Comparison.*

The following adjectives are irregular in their comparison, that is, they form their comparatives, and some their superlatives, from adjectives now obsolete:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
beas, <i>little.</i> <i>bach</i>	níor luða.	ír luða.
paroa, <i>long.</i> <i>hár</i>	níor paroe, níor ría.	ír ría.
ruar, <i>easy.</i>	níor ura, rúra.	ír ura.
posur, <i>near.</i> <i>agor</i>	níor foisre, foirse.	ír foisre.
ðar, <i>near.</i> <i>áca</i>	níor ðoipe, ðaípe.	
ðeáirí, <i>short.</i> <i>berr</i>	níor ðioirí.	
luac, <i>quick.</i>	níor túirge.	ír túirge.
maic, <i>good.</i> <i>mad</i>	níor ðeáirí. <i>gwail</i>	ír ðeáirí.
minic, <i>often.</i>	níor mionca.	
mór, <i>great.</i> <i>maur</i>	níor mó.	ír mó.
olc, <i>bad.</i>	níor meafra.	ír meafra.
teit, <i>hot.</i>	níor teo.	ír teo.

Luac has also a regular comparative and superlative, luacite. The irregular comparative is borrowed from túr, *a beginning*. There is another form, taoisra, now in disuse. When túirge is used it generally expresses *order of time*, and is used some-

what adverbially, e.g., *mire an fear ba túigse, I was the first man to do any thing*; *mar ba túigse é ná mire, for he was before me*, John i. 30—*Kean's Irish Testament*. So *níor túigse ná tángadar a ngar dá déile, before they came together*, Matt. i. 18.—*Kean's translation*. (*taoigse* is the form used in O'Donnell's translation).

§ 24.—*The Numerals.*

The following is a list of the numerals:—

VALUE.	CARDINAL, one, ETC.	ORDINAL, first, ETC.
1.	aon.	céad.
2.	dá; abstract form: dó.	dara.
3.	trí.	triear and trioinad.
4.	ceithre; abstract, ceathair.	ceathrainad.
5.	cúig.	cúighead.
6.	sé.	seirthead and séinhead.
7.	seacht.	seachtinad.
8.	óct.	octinad.
9.	naoi.	naoinad.
10.	deic; abstract, déas.	deicinhead.
11.	aon-déas.	aoinhead déas.
12.	dó-déas.	dara déas.
13.	trí-déas.	trioinad déas, or triear déas.
20.	fiche, ficthe.	fictheadoinad, ficthead.
21.	aon a'g fiche, or aon ar fichio.	aoinhead ar fichio.
30.	deic ar fichio, trioidad.	trioidadinad, or deicinhead ar fichio.
40.	dá fichio.	dá fictheadoinad.
50.	caoḡad, caoḡa, deic a'g dá fichio.	deicinhead ar dá fichio.
60.	trí fichio.	trí fictheadoinad.
70.	deic i'g trí fichio.	deicinhead ar trí fichio.
80.	ceithre fichio, oḡtoidḡad.	ceithre fictheadoinad, or oḡtoidḡadinad.
90.	nóad, deic i'g ceithre fichio.	deicinhead ar ceithre fichio, or nóadinad.
100.	ceud and céad.	ceudad and céadad.
1,000.	míle.	mílead.
1,000,000.	milliún.	milliúinad.

Dó and ceathair are never used with the noun, as they express the numbers in the abstract.

The following plurals are used: *fichio, twenties*; *céadta, hundreds*; but in the enumeration of the hundreds, 200, 300, &c., the singular form is used. So *míle*; pl. *mílte*; gen. *míltead*. The singular *míle* is used also in the enumeration of thousands, e.g., *seacht míle fear, seven thousand men*.

Fiche is inflected thus: gen. *fichead*; dat. *fichio*. *Céad*

makes its gen. *céad*. *Milliún* is inflected like a noun of the first declension.

Con, one, and dá, two, aspirate the initial mutables of the nouns to which they are prefixed. *Seacht, oḡt, naoi, deic*, eclipse the initial mutables of their nouns, and prefix *n* to nouns beginning with a vowel. The eclipsis arises (*vid. § 7*) from their forms originally being *sechten* (Sansk. *saptan*, Lat. *septem*), *oḡten* (Sansk. *ashṭan*), *noin* (Sansk. *navan*, Lat. *novem*), *deḡen* (Sansk. *dasan*, Lat. *decem*).

The following nouns, with the exception of *beirt*, are formed from the cardinals:—

<i>deig</i> , or <i>beirt</i> , two persons.	<i>seachtar</i> , and <i>móir-seachtar</i> , seven persons.
<i>triúir</i> , three persons.	<i>oḡtar</i> , eight persons.
<i>ceathair</i> , four persons.	<i>naoinḡar</i> , nine persons.
<i>cúigear</i> , five persons.	<i>deicinḡar</i> , ten persons.
<i>seirḡear</i> , six persons.	

Most of these are compounded of the cardinals, and the noun *fear, a man*; but this has long been forgotten in practice, as they are applied to women as well as men, and *fear* itself is sometimes expressed in addition, as John iv. 18, *óir do bádar cúigear fear aḡad, for thou hast had five husbands*.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

§ 25.—*The Pronoun in general.*

There are six kinds of Pronouns, viz.—Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite. The compound pronouns need not be considered as a separate class, as they are merely personal pronouns with prepositions.

§ 26.—*Personal Pronouns.*

There are four personal pronouns:—*mé, I*; *tú, thou*; *sé, he*; and *sí, she*, with their plurals; which, when used emphatically, take an additional syllable, called the "emphatic increase." We give here the two forms, simple and emphatic. It will be observed that the genitive case admits of no emphatic increase. The genitive is in common parlance the possessive pronoun. *Vid. § 28.*

This so-called "emphatic increase" appears in the Scotch Gaelic, Welsh, and Cornish, as well as the Irish. That added

to the first person plural, namely *ne*, is, as Zeuss has shown, a repetition of the pronoun; *ꝥm* being the older form of the first person plural, afterwards, the *ꝥ* being rejected, *m*. The Welsh has also an emphatic or reduplicated form of *ni*, *nyni*. Similarly, in Cornish, *thyn* means *to us*, and is also found reduplicated *thynny*. The Welsh used reduplicated forms for all the persons; thus, *mi*, *I*, *myvi* (*v* being the secondary form of *m*), *chwi*, *you*, *chwychi*, &c. The Cornish also frequently repeats the pronoun in what Mr. Norris calls the second state; as, *worty, against her, worty hy, id.*; *hy* being the third pers. sing. fem.; it has also a broad increase similar to the Irish; as, *dys, to thee*; emphatic, *dyso*.

Sérean and *ꝥaoraen* may perhaps be reduplicated forms, as the increase seems sometimes to be used without the pronoun being adjoined; as, *am ꝥan do bí beata, in him was life*. Zeuss gives similar instances, and notes that the ancient form was *ꝥom* and *ꝥem*, alike for singular and plural.

First Person. Mé, I.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. mé.		Nom. mére.	
Gen. mo.		Dat. maíre.	
Dat. maí.			

Plural.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. ꝥinn.		Nom. ꝥinne.	
Gen. ár.		Dat. maíne.	
Dat. maínn.			
Acc. inn			

Second Person. Tú, thou.

Singular.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. tú, tu.		Nom. túra.	
Gen. do.		Dat. maíre.	
Dat. maí.		Voc. túra.	
Voc. tu.			

Plural.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. ꝥib.		Nom. ꝥibe.	
Gen. búr.		Dat. maíre.	
Dat. maíre, maí.		Voc. ꝥibe.	
Acc. ib.			
Voc. ꝥib.			

Third Person Masculine. Sé, he.

Singular.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. sé.		Nom. sérean.	
Gen. a.		Dat. maírean.	
Dat. a.		Acc. érean.	
Acc. é.			

Third Person Feminine. Sí, she.

Singular.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. sí.		Nom. síre.	
Gen. a.		Dat. maíre.	
Dat. a.			
Acc. í.			

Third Person Plural, Common Gender. Siad, they.

SIMPLE.		EMPHATIC.	
Nom. siad.		Nom. siadrean.	
Gen. a.		Dat. maírean.	
Dat. a.		Acc. iadrean.	
Acc. iad.			

Sinn, ꝥib, sé, sí, are the forms generally used for the nominative, and *é, í*, for the accusative; the forms *inn, ib*, are now nearly in disuse.

Maíre is used for *maíre* when contempt is intended.

ꝥéin, self, is often affixed to the personal pronouns; as, *mé ꝥéin, myself*, &c.

§ 27.—The Personal Pronouns with Prepositions.

The following combinations of the personal pronouns with prepositions occur so frequently that they ought to be carefully committed to memory. There are fifteen of them in common use, many others are used in the ancient language, and similar combinations are to be met with in all the Celtic languages.

1. With *aꝥ*, at or with.

Singular		Plural.	
aꝥam, with me.		aꝥuin, with us.	
aꝥad, or aꝥat, with thee.		aꝥuib, with you.	
aꝥa, with him.		aꝥa, with them.	
aꝥi, with her.			

2. With *ar*, out of.

<i>Singular.</i> ar <u>am</u> , out of me. ar <u>as</u> , or ar <u>at</u> , out of thee. ar, out of him. ar <u>de</u> , ar <u>ci</u> , out of her.	<i>Plural.</i> ar <u>ainn</u> , out of us. ar <u>uib</u> , out of you. ar <u>ta</u> , ar <u>sa</u> , out of them.
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3. With *ar*, upon.

<i>Singular.</i> ar <u>m</u> , on me. ar <u>ct</u> , on thee. ar, on him. ar <u>re</u> , ar <u>ci</u> , on her.	<i>Plural.</i> ar <u>rainn</u> , on us. ar <u>ruib</u> , on you. ar <u>ta</u> , or ar <u>ra</u> , on them.
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4. With *cu*, towards, to.

<i>Singular.</i> cu <u>am</u> , unto me. cu <u>as</u> , unto thee. cu <u>ise</u> , unto him. cu <u>ice</u> , unto her.	<i>Plural.</i> cu <u>ainn</u> , unto us. cu <u>aib</u> , unto you. cu <u>a</u> , unto them.
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5. With *de*, from, off.

<i>Singular.</i> de <u>am</u> , from me. de <u>as</u> , from thee. de, from him. de, from her.	<i>Plural.</i> de <u>ainn</u> , from us. de <u>ib</u> , from you. de <u>ib</u> , from them.
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6. With *do*, to.

<i>Singular.</i> do <u>am</u> , and do <u>m</u> , to me. do <u>as</u> , to thee. do, to him. do, to her.	<i>Plural.</i> do <u>ainn</u> , to us. do <u>aib</u> , do <u>ib</u> , to you. do <u>ib</u> , to them.
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7. With *idir*, or *idir*, between.

<i>Plural.</i> idir <u>ainn</u> , between us. idir <u>aib</u> , between you. idir <u>a</u> , and idir <u>a</u> , between them.

8. With *fa*, or *fo*, under.

<i>Singular.</i> fa <u>m</u> , under me. fa <u>as</u> , fa <u>at</u> , under thee. fa <u>as</u> , and fa <u>e</u> , under him. fa <u>ice</u> , fa <u>ci</u> , under her.	<i>Plural.</i> fa <u>ainn</u> , under us. fa <u>aib</u> , under you. fa <u>a</u> , under them.
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9. With *ann*, in.

<i>Singular.</i> ann <u>am</u> , in me. ann <u>as</u> , ann <u>at</u> , in thee. ann, in him. ann <u>ce</u> , ann <u>ci</u> , in her.	<i>Plural.</i> ann <u>ainn</u> , in us. ann <u>aib</u> , in you. ann <u>a</u> , in them.
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10. With *im*, or *um*, upon or about.

<i>Singular.</i> im <u>am</u> , about me. im <u>as</u> , im <u>at</u> , about thee. im <u>e</u> , about him. im <u>pe</u> , im <u>pi</u> , about her.	<i>Plural.</i> im <u>ainn</u> , about us. im <u>aib</u> , about you. im <u>a</u> , about them.
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11. With *le*, or *re*, with.

<i>Singular.</i> le <u>am</u> , re <u>am</u> , with me. le <u>as</u> , re <u>as</u> , with thee. le <u>ir</u> , re <u>ir</u> , with him. le <u>e</u> , le <u>ice</u> , re <u>a</u> , with her.	<i>Plural.</i> le <u>ainn</u> , re <u>ainn</u> , with us. le <u>aib</u> , re <u>aib</u> , with you. le <u>a</u> , re <u>a</u> , with them.
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12. With *o*, or *ua*, from.

<i>Singular.</i> o <u>am</u> , from me. o <u>as</u> , from thee. o <u>as</u> , from him. o <u>aite</u> , o <u>aice</u> , from her.	<i>Plural.</i> o <u>ainn</u> , from us. o <u>aib</u> , from you. o <u>aite</u> , from them.
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13. With *roim*, before.

<i>Singular.</i> roim <u>am</u> , before me. roim <u>as</u> , roim <u>at</u> , before thee. roim <u>e</u> , before him. roim <u>pe</u> , roim <u>pi</u> , before her.	<i>Plural.</i> roim <u>ainn</u> , before us. roim <u>aib</u> , before you. roim <u>a</u> , before them.
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14. With *tar*, beyond.

<i>Singular.</i> tar <u>am</u> , over me. tar <u>as</u> , tar <u>at</u> , over thee. tar <u>ir</u> , over him. tar <u>re</u> , tar <u>ri</u> , over her.	<i>Plural.</i> tar <u>ainn</u> , over us. tar <u>aib</u> , over you. tar <u>a</u> , tar <u>a</u> , over them.
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15. With *tré*, through.

<i>Singular.</i> tré <u>am</u> , through me. tré <u>as</u> , through thee. tré <u>is</u> , through him. tré <u>ice</u> , tré <u>ci</u> , through her.	<i>Plural.</i> tré <u>ainn</u> , through us. tré <u>aib</u> , through you. tré <u>aite</u> , through them.
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The emphatic increases for these compounds are, in the singular, *ra* for the first and second person, *rean* for the third person. In the plural, *ne*, *ni*, for the first person; *ra*, *re*, for the second person; and *ran*, *rean*, for the third person.

Observe all through the rule *caol le caol, 7c.*

§ 28.—*Possessive Pronouns.*

The possessives are:—*mo*, *my*; *do*, *thy*; *a*, *his*, or *hers*; *ár*, *ours*; *bur*, *yours*; and *a*, *theirs*.

The possessives *mo*, *do*, and *bur* take the emphatic increase *ra*, or *re*; *ár* takes *na* or *ne*; and *a* takes *ran*, or *rean*, according to the rule *caol le caol, 7c.*; but the increase is always postfixed to the noun qualified by the possessives, or if that noun has an adjective, to the adjective; e.g., *mo lámra*, *my hand*; *ár s-cinne*, *our hands*; *a lám deairran*, *his right hand*.

Mo, *do*, and *a*, *his*, aspirate the initial mutables of their nouns; as, *mo bean*, *my wife*; *ár bur*, and *a*, *theirs*, eclipse the same; as, *bur mbrátair*, *your brother*. The eclipsis arises from the fact that these pronouns originally ended in *n*, which form appears before vowels and the mediæ *o* and *e*; their original forms were *arín*, *raín* or *roín*, and *an*; *a*, *hers*, prefixes *h* to nouns beginning with a vowel. The *a*, *his*, is the Sansk. *asya*, ending in a vowel, hence it aspirates; *a*, *hers*, is in Sansk. *asyás*, ending in a consonant, hence no change except before vowels; *a*, *theirs*, was in its full form *an*, Sansk. *eshám*, Lat. *eorum*. This coincidence was shown some twenty years ago by Bopp, the founder of Comparative Philology, in his essay on the Celtic Languages, of which it formed one of the most brilliant points.

The following are the combinations of the possessives with prepositions:—

1. *With do, to.*

Singular.		Plural.
<i>dom</i> , to my.		<i>ár</i> , to our.
<i>do</i> , to thy.		<i>á</i> , to their.
<i>da</i> , to his, to her.		

2. *With le, with.*

Singular.
<i>lem</i> , with my.
<i>leo</i> , with thy.

3. *With an, in.*

Singular.		Plural.
<i>am</i> , in my.		<i>ár</i> , in our.
<i>at</i> , in thy.		<i>an</i> , in their.
<i>na</i> , in his or her.		

4. *With ó, from.*

Singular.		Plural.
<i>óm</i> , from my.		<i>óna</i> , from their.
<i>ót</i> , from thy.		
<i>óna</i> , from his or her.		

§ 29.—*Relative Pronouns.*

The relative pronouns are *a*, *who*, *which*, or *what*; *noé*, *who*, *which*; *náé*, *which not*. The primitive form of the relative *a* for all genders was *an*, which by phonetic rule is intact before vowels and the mediæ *o*, *e*, and becomes *am* before *b*, *ar* before *r*, and *a* before *r*, *l*, and the tenues. *Vid.* Zeuss, p. 348.

Contractions frequently take place when the relative is preceded by a preposition ending with a vowel; as, *rair*, *leir*, &c.

Óár, or *óárab*, and *leirb*, may be analyzed, as the case may be, *ó'ár ro ba*, *to whom was*, or *ó'ár ab*, *to whom is*; *bean óár*, *a woman whose name was Mary*, or *whose name is*, &c.

Óo, the sign of the past tense, frequently appears to stand for the relative in the modern language, but the cases cited may be explained on the simple view of supposing the relative to be omitted.

Óá is used frequently as a relative; this *óá* must be distinguished from *óá*, a compound of *óe*, *of*, and the relative *a*, which would be better written *ó'a*, *of what*.

§ 30.—*Interrogative Pronouns.*

The interrogatives are *cia* or *ce*; plural, *ciad*, *who*, *what*; *cead*, *creud*, *so dé*, *what*; *cá*, *zá*, *what* or *where*.

Cad (anciently *ead*, *ead*), seems to have been the neuter of *cia*, though this use is lost in the modern language. *So dé* was anciently *cote*; *vid.* Zeuss, p. 361.

§ 31.—*Demonstrative Pronouns.*

The demonstrative pronouns are:—*ro*, *this*, *these*; *rin*, *that*, *those*; *ró*, or *ú*, *yonder*. They are all indeclinable.

"When *ro* follows a word whose last vowel is slender, it is

written *ri*, or *re*, and sometimes *reo*; as, *na h-amrigne ri*, of *this time* (Keating's Hist. page 2); and *rim*, when it follows a word whose last vowel is broad, is written *ran* or *ron* [*rean?*]"—*O'Donovan*. These changes are to accord with the rule *caol le caol*, 7c.

"*Súo* is generally used with personal pronouns, and *úo* with nouns."—*Connellan*. Examples are:—*an fear úo*, the man yonder; *tá ré rúo*, it is he yonder.

§ 32.—Indefinite Pronouns.

These are:—*éigin*, some; *gibé* or *cibé*,* whoever; *acon*, any; *eile*, other; *a céile*, each other; *gac*, every, each; *gac uile*, every; *các*, any other; *neac*, any one; *ceactar*, or *neactar*, either; *an té*, the person who; *uile*, all. *Các* makes *các* in the genitive singular; the rest are indeclinable. Some of these, it will be observed, are mere compounds which have obtained a sort of pronominal use, and others are more strictly pronominal adjectives.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

§ 33.—Of the Verb in general.

The Irish verb has four moods:—the Indicative, Imperative, Conditional, and Infinitive. The Infinitive is used with the particles *as*, *iar*, or *ar* *tí*, in the sense of present, past, and future participles respectively.

There are five tenses, viz.:—the Present, Consuetudinal Present, Past, Consuetudinal Past, and the Future. The consuetudinal tenses might very properly be classified as a separate mood.

The conditional mood is chiefly used in expressing a condition, and has frequently the particle *tá*, *if*, expressed before it. Other particles often precede it, especially *go*. It may sometimes be rendered by the Latin imperfect subjunctive, but frequently has a sort of conditional future signification. Examples may be found in Matt. xiii. 15; xiv. 15, 36; xx. 19; Acts vii. 19, &c.

* Spelled also *gibé b'é*, *cía b'é*, evidently for *gibé* or *cía baó é*; *eró b'é* is *whatever*.

In the ancient language the consuetudinal past and present were alike. The consuetudinal past has, in the modern language, retained the ancient synthetic, or personal form, while the present has adopted the analytic, or impersonal.

The indicative mood is often used in the *sense* of a subjunctive, but the latter is not distinguished by any peculiar endings. Initial changes, however, frequently take place, but these are owing to the influence of the particles preceding.

The root of the verb, for practical purposes, may be considered to be the second person singular imperative active, from which all the other parts of the verb can be formed by affixing certain terminations. Changes also take place in the beginning, but they are generally phonetic, and caused by certain particles prefixed, which serve to mark out some of the moods and tenses, and are sometimes not expressed, but understood.

The persons of the verb are formed in two different ways, analytically and synthetically. The analytic mode expresses the various persons by the third person singular of the verb and the personal pronouns. The synthetic, which is the mode generally used in the ancient language, in Irish as elsewhere, expresses the persons by terminational endings. Thus, in the analytic mode, the verb is the same throughout, the different pronouns marking the various persons and the number. In the synthetic, the verb has distinct terminations for each person except the third person singular. Thus the analytic form of the present indicative of *bi* is—

Singular.	Plural
<i>tá mé</i> , I am.	<i>tá sinn</i> , we are.
<i>tá tú</i> , thou art.	<i>tá sib</i> , you are.
<i>tá sé</i> , he is.	<i>tá siar</i> , they are.

But the synthetic—

<i>táim</i> , I am.	<i>támaim</i> , we are.
<i>táir</i> , thou art.	<i>táir</i> , you are.
<i>tá sé</i> , he is.	<i>táir</i> , they are.

The analytic is generally used in asking a question; e.g., *an labraim tú Gaeilge?* Do you speak Irish? But in answering, the synthetic; *labraim*, I speak. The pronoun should not be used separately after the synthetic form, which would be a repetition of the pronoun; as *ceapaim siar*, they, they will do.

In English the analytic is the form used; in Latin the synthetic:—

I love, *amo*.
Thou lovest, *amas*.
He loves, *amat*.

We love, *amamus*.
You love, *amatis*.
They love, *amant*.

But even in the English language there are evident traces of a synthetic form: thus, *thou lovest*; *he loves*; where *st* and *s* are evidently traces of terminational endings.

In affixing the terminations to the verb, the rule *caol le caol* *asur leatan le leatan* must be constantly kept in mind. The terminational endings of the verb are given in the Table on the opposite page.

§ 34.—Formation of Moods and Tenses.

A.—Active Voice.

The simplest form is the second person singular imperative active; as, *buail*, *strike*.

The Present is formed by adding *im*, and the other personal endings, as given in the table, to the root; as, *buailm*, *I strike*.

The Consuetudinal Present (Englished by "habitually do;," as, *buaileann me*, *I habitually strike*), is formed by adding *ann* to the root. This tense has no synthetic form.

The Past Tense is formed by adding *ar* to the root, and prefixing *o*, which always aspirates the initial mutable in the active, but makes no change in the passive voice.

The Consuetudinal Past is formed by adding *inn* and the other terminations to the root; as, *buail*, *o buailinn*.

The Future is formed by adding *as*, and the other terminations to the root; as, *buail*, *buailfas*. Verbs of more than two syllables ending in *rim* in the first person singular present indicative active make the future in *oas*, or *oasas*; as, *foillrim*, *foillreoas*, and *foillreoasas*, *to reveal*. Futures of this class are inflected in the same mode as the present, with the exception of the first pers. sing.; e.g., *foillreoas*, *foillreoasar*, *foillreoasat* *fé*, &c. This termination, *oas*, is sometimes written *oasat*, *oasat*, &c.

The present and future tenses have each a relative form ending in *ear*, *ar*, and *iar*; as, *a áirear*, *who conceals*; *a áireas*, *who will conceal*.

TABLE OF PERSONAL ENDINGS.

	ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.		
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.	
IMPERATIVE MOOD.	1. — 2. — 3. — <i>as fé</i> .	1. <i>macor</i> , or <i>mír</i> . 2. <i>ib</i> . 3. <i>ioir</i> .	1. <i>caol mé</i> . 2. <i>caol tú</i> . 3. <i>caol é</i> .	1. <i>caol mhu</i> , or <i>rimu</i> . 2. <i>caol sib</i> . 3. <i>caol iad</i> .	
INDICATIVE MOOD.	Present.	1. <i>im</i> . 2. <i>ir</i> . 3. <i>io fé</i> .	1. <i>macas</i> , or <i>míto</i> . 2. <i>taos</i> , or <i>tí</i> . 3. <i>io</i> .	1. <i>caol mé</i> . 2. <i>caol tú</i> . 3. <i>caol é</i> .	1. <i>caol mhu</i> , or <i>rimu</i> . 2. <i>caol sib</i> . 3. <i>caol iad</i> .
	Consuetudinal Present.	1. <i>ann mé</i> . 2. <i>ann tú</i> . 3. <i>ann fé</i> .	1. <i>ann rimu</i> . 2. <i>ann sib</i> . 3. <i>ann iad</i> .	1. <i>as mé</i> . 2. <i>as tú</i> . 3. <i>as é</i> .	1. <i>as mhu</i> , or <i>tí rimu</i> . 2. <i>as sib</i> , or <i>tí sib</i> . 3. <i>as iad</i> , or <i>tí iad</i> .
	Past.	1. <i>ar</i> . 2. <i>ir</i> . 3. — <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>annar</i> . 2. <i>abair</i> . 3. <i>asair</i> .	1. <i>taos</i> , or <i>tí mé</i> . 2. <i>taos</i> , or <i>tí tú</i> . 3. <i>taos</i> , or <i>tí é</i> .	1. <i>as mhu</i> . 2. <i>as sib</i> . 3. <i>as iad</i> .
Consuetudinal Past.	1. <i>inn</i> . 2. <i>é</i> . 3. <i>as fé</i> .	1. <i>macas</i> , or <i>mír</i> . 2. <i>taos</i> , or <i>tí</i> . 3. <i>ioir</i> .	1. <i>caol mé</i> . 2. <i>caol tú</i> . 3. <i>caol é</i> .	1. <i>caol mhu</i> . 2. <i>caol sib</i> . 3. <i>caol iad</i> .	
Future.	1. <i>as</i> . 2. <i>ir</i> . 3. <i>io fé</i> .	1. <i>annas</i> , or <i>rimis</i> . 2. <i>as</i> . 3. <i>io</i> .	1. <i>caol mé</i> . 2. <i>caol tú</i> . 3. <i>caol é</i> .	1. <i>caol mhu</i> . 2. <i>caol sib</i> . 3. <i>caol iad</i> .	
CONDITIONAL MOOD.	1. <i>rimu</i> . 2. <i>fé</i> . 3. <i>io fé</i> .	1. <i>annair</i> , or <i>rimir</i> . 2. <i>as</i> . 3. <i>ioir</i> .	1. <i>as mé</i> . 2. <i>as tú</i> . 3. <i>as é</i> .	1. <i>as mhu</i> . 2. <i>as sib</i> . 3. <i>as iad</i> .	
INFINITIVE MOOD, <i>as</i> .		PARTICIPLE, <i>as</i> .	INFIN. MOOD, <i>tú</i> or <i>té</i> .	PART. <i>tú</i> or <i>té</i> .	

The Conditional Mood is formed by adding *rimn*, and the various terminations given in the table, to the root; as, *buail*, *buailrimn*. When, however, the future ends in *oá*, the conditional is formed from it by changing the *oá* of the future into *ann*, the terminations being the same, with this exception, as in regular verbs; e.g., *poillreóáann*, *poillreóá*, &c.

The Infinitive is formed (1) by adding *oá* to the root and prefixing *o*, which generally aspirates the initial mutable: this is the most usual mode, but it is (2) sometimes like the imperative; as, *ḡḡuoir*, infinitive, *o ḡḡuoir*, to destroy. (3.) Some verbs drop a slender vowel; as, *cuir*, infin. *o cuir*, to place. (4.) Those in *uir* form their infinitive by adding the usual termination *oá*, only dropping the *i*; as, *beannuir*, infinitive, *o beannuir*, to bless. Those in *uir* form it in the usual mode, only inserting a broad vowel after the *i*, generally *u*; as, *poilluir*, infinitive, *o'poilluir*, to show. These changes, it should be borne in mind, are only euphonic, arising from that oft-repeated rule *caol le caol*, &c. (5.) Some add *o* to the root, but, as O'Donovan says, these have a second form; as *asair*, infinitive, *o'asair*, or *o'asrao*, to reprove. (6.) Some add *amun*; as, *creo*, infinitive, *o creoamun*, to believe. (7.) Some add *áil*; as, *comuir*,* infinitive, *o'comáil*, to confess. O'Donovan remarks: "In all verbal nouns borrowed from the English this termination is used in the corrupt modern Irish; as, *boáil*, to box; *cicáil*, to kick; *rolláil*, to roll; *rnúáil*, to smooth," &c. (8.) Others, *ain*; as *oéan*, infinitive, *o oéanam*, to do. (9.) Others, again, *ao*; as, *éir*, infinitive, *o'éirao*, to listen. (10.) Some few end in *rim*; as, *reic*, *o'reicrim*, to see. And lastly, some are so irregular that they can be reduced to no rule; as, *iar*, *o'iarrao*, to ask; *ḡlao*, infinitive, *o ḡlaoá*, to cry out. These last must be learnt by practice, or by consulting the Dictionary.

The so-called participles, as has been remarked in § 33, are merely the infinitive used with certain particles; for the present, *a* or *as*, for the past, *iar*, which eclipses the initial mutable, and *ar* *oí*, or *le* for the future. These are frequently used as verbal nouns.

* This form is rare in verbs of this ending, *uir*: they generally follow (4) in the formation of their infinitives.

B.—Passive Voice.

In the Passive Voice the analytic mode of forming the persons prevails; there is, therefore, only one terminational ending to be learned for each tense.

The Imperative is formed by adding *tar* to the root. It has a first person singular.

The Present Indicative is formed by adding the same terminational ending.

There is no separate form for the Consuetudinal Present.

The Past is formed by adding *oá*, and prefixing *o*, which in this voice makes no change in the initial mutable.

The Consuetudinal Past is formed by adding *tao* or *oí*: when the particle *o* is prefixed, it does not affect the initial letter.

The Future is formed by adding *ar* or *par* to the imperative active.

The Conditional Mood is formed by adding *roé* to the root.

The Infinitive is formed by adding the termination *ta* or *te*, and prefixing the infinitive of the verb *to be*; as, *o beic buailte*, to be struck.

The Participle is formed by adding *ta* or *te*.

The Passive voice may also be formed, as in English, by the various parts of the verb *to be*, and the passive participle; as, *o' mé buailte*, or *o'ám buailte*, I am struck.

§ 35.—Aspirations and Eclipses.

In order to account for the various changes in the initials of the verb, we shall here give a list of such particles as aspirate and eclipse.

A.—Those that Aspirate.

1. *Ar*, whether? (compounded of *an*, whether, and *ro*, sign of the past tense). It is only prefixed to the past tense.

2. *Oo* and *ro*, signs of the past tense, and *o* the sign of the infinitive.

3. *Su*, that (compounded of *so*, that, and *ro*, sign of the past). It is only used with the past tense. O'Donovan points out an exception, *suab é*, that it is he.

4. *Má*, if; prefixed to the indicative mood.

5. *Mar*, as, like as.

6. *Nácair*, which not (compounded of *ná*, that not, and *ro*, sign of the past); prefixed to the past. It is generally contracted into *nár*.

7. *Ní*, not; prefixed to the present and future. *Ní* sometimes eclipses, as *ní dhruair mé*, I have not found, Luke xxiii. 14, *Kean's version*; *ní dhruim*, I am not.

8. *Níor*, not (compounded of *ní*, the preceding particle, and *ro*); prefixed to the past.

B.—Those that Eclipse.

On eclipsis, see § 7.

1. *Cn*, whether? The eclipsis, perhaps, arises from the influence of the *n*.

2. *So*, that; the ancient form of this was *con*, which explains the ellipsis.

3. *Óa*, if; prefixed to the conditional mood. The original *n* is seen in the old form *oian*. *Vid.* Zeuss, p. 670.

4. *Iar*, after; only prefixed to participles. The full form was *iaru*.

5. The relative *a* (anciently *an*) when preceded by a preposition, either expressed or understood, as *ó a t-áimís*, from whom came; unless the particle *ro*, the sign of the past, or an abbreviation of it follows, in which case the verb is regularly aspirated; e.g., *Ccáin ór fáramar*, i.e., *Ccáin ó a ro fáramar*, Adam from whom we have sprung.

6. *Mar a*, where, in which; as *mar a núbairt*, where he said. The ellipsis is here caused by the relative *a*; see preceding paragraph.

7. *Muna*, unless; compounded of *má*, if, and *na*, not. The eclipses arise from the *na*, which appears in the form *nam*, i.e., compounded with the relative *an* (Zeuss, p. 702); see No. 5. Its ancient form was *man*.

8. *Ná*, which not. In the past tense this is compounded with *ro*, and becomes *nár*, *nácair*; it then aspirates, the aspiration arising, not from *ná*, but *ro*. Zeuss (p. 703) does not seem to offer an explanation of the eclipsis; but it may, perhaps, arise from the relative *an* being inherent in the word.

§ 36. The Regular Verb.

The following table contains the paradigm.

TABLE OF THE REGULAR VERB—*bual*, to strike.

	ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
IMPERATIVE MOOD.	1. <i>bual</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualleá</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>bualaimí</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualroí</i> .	1. <i>bualtear</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>bualtear</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>bualtear</i> <i>é</i> .	1. <i>bualtear</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>bualtear</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>bualtear</i> <i>icó</i> .
Present Tense.	1. <i>bualaim</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualro</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>bualaimís</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualro</i> .	1. <i>bualtear</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>bualtear</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>bualtear</i> <i>é</i> .	1. <i>bualtear</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>bualtear</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>bualtear</i> <i>icó</i> .
Consuetudinal Present.	1. <i>bualleann</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>bualleann</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>bualleann</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>bualleann</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>bualleann</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>bualleann</i> <i>icó</i> .		
Past.	1. <i>ro bualleap</i> . 2. <i>ro bual</i> . 3. <i>ro bual</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>ro bualleamair</i> . 2. <i>ro bualleabóir</i> . 3. <i>ro bualleasóir</i> .	1. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>é</i> .	1. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>icó</i> .
Consuetudinal Past.	1. <i>ro bualaim</i> . 2. <i>ro bualleá</i> . 3. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>ro bualaimí</i> . 2. <i>ro bual</i> . 3. <i>ro bualroí</i> .	1. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>é</i> .	1. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>ro bualleá</i> <i>icó</i> .
Future.	1. <i>bualpeccó</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualro</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>bualpaimís</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualro</i> .	1. <i>bualpeap</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>bualpeap</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>bualpeap</i> <i>é</i> .	1. <i>bualpeap</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>bualpeap</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>bualpeap</i> <i>icó</i> .
CONDITIONAL MOOD.	1. <i>bualpaim</i> . 2. <i>bualpeá</i> . 3. <i>bualpeá</i> <i>fé</i> .	1. <i>bualpaimí</i> . 2. <i>bual</i> . 3. <i>bualroí</i> .	1. <i>bualpóis</i> <i>mé</i> . 2. <i>bualpóis</i> <i>tú</i> . 3. <i>bualpóis</i> <i>é</i> .	1. <i>bualpóis</i> <i>ghinn</i> . 2. <i>bualpóis</i> <i>ghib</i> . 3. <i>bualpóis</i> <i>icó</i> .
INFINITIVE MOOD, <i>ro bualro</i> . PARTICIPLE, <i>as bualro</i> .				INFIN. a <i>béit</i> <i>bualro</i> . PART. <i>bualro</i> .

§ 37.—*Irregular Verbs.*

There are thirteen irregular verbs, viz.:—1. *Óí*, the substantive verb, *to be*. 2. *Óbair*, *to say*. 3. *Óeip*, *to bear*. 4. *Óíom*, *to see*. 5. *Óluim*, *to hear*. 6. *Óéam*, *to do*. 7. *Óaí*, *to find*. 8. *Óním*, *to do*. 9. *Óé*, *to eat*. 10. *Óiá*, *to reach*. 11. *Óabair*, *to give*. 12. *Óair*, *to come*. 13. *Óéir*, or *Óé*, *to go*.

§ 38.—*The Substantive Verb, Óí, to be.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
bí.		bí mír.
bíod, or bídeod r'é.		bíod.
		bíodír.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
atáim, and táim.		atámaois, and támaois.
atáir, and táir.		atáeas, and táeas.
atá r'é, and tá r'é.		atáis, and táis.

There is another form also used, viz., *ír* or *air me, ír* or *air tu, &c.* This form is called by O'Donovan "the assertive verb." It may be called from its use the assertive present. *Vid.* § 64.

Negative and Interrogative form.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
éiríam.		éirímís.
éiríir.		éiríesí.
éirí r'é.		éiríis.

It will be understood that this form requires the negative or interrogative particles preceding, as, *ní éiríam, I am not*; *an éirí tú, are you?* There is also a relative form of the present, namely, *bíir*.

CONSUECUDINAL PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
bíom.		bímís.
bíoir.		bíesí.
bídeann, or bíonn r'é.		bíis.

This, with the exception of the third singular, is a regular present for *bí*. The third singular was also, anciently, *bí*

r'é. It is, however, used in the modern language as a consuetudinal present.

PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
bídear.		bíomar.
bíodír.		bídear.
bí r'é.		bíodar.

Negative and Interrogative form.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
raðar.		raðamar.
raðair.		raðabair.
rað r'é.		raðodar.

There is also another form, akin to this latter (*vid.* Zenss), used, however, only in the analytic form, viz., *bar*, sometimes spelled *bur*, or *ba*. The form *bur* is sometimes, though rarely, used for the future.

CONSUECUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
bíomn.		bímír.
bídeá.		bíesí.
bídead, or bíod r'é.		bíodír.

FUTURE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
beiréar, or bair.		beirímís, or bairéamar.
beiríir, or bairir.		beiríesí, or bairéasí.
beirí r'é, or bairí r'é.		beiríis, or bairíis.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
beiríom.		beirímír.
beiríeá.		beiríesí.
beiríeod r'é.		beiríodír.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

to beir.

PARTICIPLE.

air beir.

The form *ab* occurs with the particles *to, so, suir, &c.* in a past and present signification, and also with evident pro-

priety in some interrogatory sentences; as, *do' b áluin an bean í, she was a beautiful woman*; *deirim suirab é, I say it is, or was, as the case may be*; *ab é ro an fear, is this the man?*

§ 39.—Cbaip, *to say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i> • • • abair. abairé ré.	<i>Plural.</i> abramasoir, or abramasoir, abram. abraité. abraitóir.
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INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i> deirim, or abram. deirim, or abram. deir ré, or abraité ré.	<i>Plural.</i> deirimí, or abramasoir, abram. deirité, or abraité. deirte, or abraitóir.
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CONSUECUDINAL PRESENT.

deireann mé, tú, ré, &c.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i> dubrair. dubrair. dubraité ré.	<i>Plural.</i> dubramair. dubraibair. dubraitóir.
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CONSUECUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i> deirinn. deireá. deireá ré.	<i>Plural.</i> deirimíir. deirité. deirteoir.
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FUTURE.

<i>Singular.</i> deirfao. deirfair. deirfaó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> deirfamasoir. deirfaí. deirfairte.
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CONDITIONAL MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i> deirfann. deirfa. deirfaó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> deirfamasoir. deirfaí. deirfairteoir.
---	---

INFINITIVE MOOD.

do ráo.

PARTICIPLE.

as ráo.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

abairtear mé, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

deirtear, or abairtear mé, tú, &c.

PAST.

dubraité mé, &c.

CONSUECUDINAL PAST.

deirte mé, &c.

FUTURE.

deirfair mé, &c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

deirfaíde mé, &c.

INFINITIVE.

do deir ráoite.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

ráoite.

The past tense, active, is not aspirated except after ní, *not*; nor does it take the particles do or ro before it. It is probably a contraction of do deirtear, from the old verb, deirim, *I say*, into dubrair, and thence into dubrair.

§ 40.—*Beir*, to bear.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
beir. beirceáð ré.	beirimír. beirió. beiruóir.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
beirim. beirir. beirió ré.	beirimís. beirió. beiru.

CONSUECUDINAL PRESENT.

beirceann mé, &c.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
ruḡar. ruḡair. ruḡ ré.	ruḡamar. ruḡadar. ruḡaoir.

CONSUECUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
beirim. beirceá. beirceáð ré.	beirimír. beirceí. beiruóir.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
béarras. béarrair. béarraió ré.	béarramaois. béarraió. béarraro.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
béarrann. béarrá. béarraió ré.	béarramaoir. béarraió. béarraoir.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

ro bheir.

PARTICIPLE.

as bheir.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

beircear mé, éú, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

beircear mé, &c.

CONSUECUDINAL PAST.

beirceí mé, éú, &c.

FUTURE TENSE.

béarrair me, éú, &c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

béarraióe mé, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

ro beir beirce.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

beirce.

§ 41.—*Cíom*, to see.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
cíom, or éim. cíoir, or éir. cíó ré, or éí ré.	cíomís, or éimís. cíoí, or éití. cíois, or éis.

CONSUE TUDINAL PRESENT.

éiréann mé, tú, 7c.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
éonnaicicic, conncicic.	éoncaicic, conncacic.
éonnaicicic, conncicic.	éoncaicic, conncacic.
éonnaicic 7c, conncicic 7c.	éoncaicic, conncacic.

CONSUE TUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
éidinn.	éidinnic.
éidicic.	éidicicic.
éidicic 7c.	éidicicic.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
éidicicic.	éidicicicic.
éidicicic.	éidicicicic.
éidicicic 7c.	éidicicicic.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

éidicicic, éidicicic, 7c.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

éidicicic mé, tú, 7c.

PAST TENSE.

conncicicic, or conncicic, mé, tú, 7c.

CONSUE TUDINAL PAST.

éidicic mé, 7c.

FUTURE TENSE.

éidicicic mé, 7c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

éidicicic mé, 7c.

This verb wants the imperative and infinitive moods and participle active and passive, but they are supplied by 7cic,

which ought not to be classed among the irregular verbs as it is regular in all its moods and tenses.

The present and future tenses of this verb have the peculiarity of being aspirated like the past.

§ 42.—Cluin, to hear.

This verb is regular, except in the past tense, the infinitive mood, and participle.

PAST.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
éualar.	éualacic.
éualar.	éualacicic.
éualar 7c.	éualacicic.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

7c, or a éoilicic.

PARTICIPLE.

as éoilicic.

§ 43.—Déan, to do.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
7c.	7cicic, 7cicicicic, and 7cicic.
7cic.	7cicicic.
7cicic 7c.	7cicicicic.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
7cicic.	7cicicicicic.
7cicicic.	7cicicicicic.
7cicicic 7c.	7cicicicicic.

CONSUE TUDINAL PRESENT.

7cicic mé, 7c.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i> óéirnar, and óéanar. óéirnar, and óéanar. óéirnaó, and óéan ré.	<i>Plural.</i> óéirnarar, and óéanarar. óéirnaθar, and óéanaθar. óéirnaθar, and óéanaθar.
---	--

CONSUE TUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i> óéanann, and óéirnanann. óéanacá. óéanaó, and óéirnaó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> óéanannair, and óéirnanannair. óéanacair. óéanaóir, and óéirnaóir.
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FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i> óéanrao. óéanrair. óéanraó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> óéanraoair. óéanraíó. óéanrao.
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CONDITIONAL MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i> óéanraann. óéanraá. óéanraó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> óéanraoair. óéanraíó. óéanraoíir.
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INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo óéanaí, or oo óéanaó

PARTICIPLE.

as óéanaí, or as óéanaó.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

óéanar mé, 7c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

óéanar mé, éú, 7c.

PAST TENSE.

óéanaó, and óéirnaó mé, 7c.

FUTURE TENSE.

óéanraí mé, 7c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

óéanraíde me, 7c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo beit óéanta.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

óéanta.

§ 44.—*raξ, to find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i> raξ. raξaó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> raξair, or raξair. raξaíó. raξaíir.
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INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i> raξann. raξair. raξaó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> raξair. raξaíó. raξair.
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Or,

<i>Singular.</i> ξeibim. ξeibir. ξeib ré.	<i>Plural.</i> ξeibimí. ξeibeíó. ξeibro.
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PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i> ruarar. ruarair. ruar ré.	<i>Plural.</i> ruararar. ruararair. ruararair.
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CONSUE TUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i> ξeibim. ξeibeá. ξeibeáó ré.	<i>Plural.</i> ξeibimíir. ξeibeíó. ξeibeíir.
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§ 46.—*é, to eat.*

This verb is regular, except in the future tense and Conditional Mood.

FUTURE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
íorras.		íorrasaoid.
íorrai.		íorraiód.
íorraiód r'é.		íorras.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
íorram.		íorrasaoid.
íorra.		íorraiód.
íorraiód r'é.		íorraiód.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

o'íce.

The regular Past is *o' ícear*; there is, however, an old form *oair*, which may be contracted for *o'ícear*. *oícear*, *oair*, *oair*; this is seldom used in the spoken language, but is in the New Testament—*oairé eir oó éirerí ruar mé—the zeal of thy house has eaten me up*—John, ii. 17; and *taréir a zcunhealta eirir a lámaib óóib, oairair ias, after rubbing them between their hands, they ate them.*—Luke, vi. 1.

§ 47.—*Rí, to reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
rí.		rímí.
rí.		ríód.
rícead r'é.		ríóir.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
ríim.		ríimí.
ríir.		ríí.
rí r'é.		ríí.

CONSUE TUDINAL PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
ríim.		ríimí.
ríceá.		ríí.
rícead r'é.		ríóir.

FUTURE TENSE.

ríreá.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

rírim.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

oó róctan.

§ 48.—*Tair, to give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
tair.		tairraoid.
tair.		tairáiód.
tairad r'é.		tairóir.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

beirim, tugaim, and tairaim.

CONSUE TUDINAL PRESENT.

beireann mé, tugann mé, and tairann mé.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
tugair.		tugaim.
tugair.		tugaim.
tug r'é.		tugaim.

CONSUE TUDINAL PAST.

beimn, and tugann.

FUTURE.

béarras, and tairras, &c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

béarrann, tairrann, and tairrann.

§ 50.—*Téitō*, or *té*, *to go*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<p><i>Singular.</i> <i>téitō.</i> <i>téitōeasō ré.</i></p>	<p><i>Plural.</i> <i>téitōmíḡ, or téimíḡ.</i> <i>téitōí.</i> <i>téitōíḡ.</i></p>
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INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<p><i>Singular.</i> <i>téitōim.</i> <i>téitōḡ.</i> <i>téitō ré.</i></p>	<p><i>Plural.</i> <i>téitōmíō, or téimíō.</i> <i>téitōíō, or téitōíō.</i> <i>téitōio, or téitō.</i></p>
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PAST TENSE.

<p><i>Singular.</i> <i>éuasóar.</i> <i>éuasóarḡ.</i> <i>éuasó ré.</i></p>	<p><i>Plural.</i> <i>éuasómar.</i> <i>éuasóbar.</i> <i>éuasóarḡ.</i></p>
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CONSUEUDINAL PAST.

<p><i>Singular.</i> <i>éitōimn.</i> <i>éitōíeá.</i> <i>éitōeasó ré.</i></p>	<p><i>Plural.</i> <i>éitōmíḡ.</i> <i>éitōí.</i> <i>éitōíḡ.</i></p>
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FUTURE TENSE.

<p><i>Singular.</i> <i>ráérasō.</i> <i>ráérasḡ.</i> <i>ráérasó ré.</i></p>	<p><i>Plural.</i> <i>ráérasamíō.</i> <i>ráérasíō.</i> <i>ráérasio.</i></p>
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Or, *ráérasō*, *ráérasḡ*, *ráérasó ré*, omitting the *p*.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

<p><i>Singular.</i> <i>ráérasamn.</i> <i>ráérasá.</i> <i>ráérasó ré.</i></p>	<p><i>Plural.</i> <i>ráérasamíō.</i> <i>ráérasíō.</i> <i>ráérasóíḡ.</i></p>
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INFINITIVE MOOD.

to súl.

PARTICIPLE.

as súl.

The past tense is often *deasáḡ*. This form is used after *ní*, and the interrogative *a*, and with *ḡo*, &c.

“Haliday, the Rev. Paul O’Brien, and others, make *imíḡ* a form of the imperative mood of this verb; but this cannot be considered as correct; as, *imíḡim*, which is a regular verb, signifies *I depart*, not *I go*. In some parts of Munster the imperative of *téitōim*, *I go*, is frequently made *eiḡis* (and sometimes, corruptly, *teḡis*); but this must be deemed an anomaly, as it is properly the imperative of *eiḡisim*, *I arise*.” — *O’Donovan*.

§ 51.—*Defective Verbs*.

The following defective verbs are used in the spoken language:—

- ar ré*, said *he*.
- ḡar liom*, *methinks*; *ḡar leḡ réim*, *he himself thinks*; *ḡar leo*, *they think*.
- tóḡḡeasḡ*, *it is allowed*.
- ḡeasḡ*, *I know*; only used negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense; *ní ḡeasḡar mé*, *I do not know*; *ní ḡeasḡar ré*, *ní ḡeasḡarim*, &c.
- éarḡa*, *it happened*.

CHAPTER VI.

PARTICLES.

§ 52.—*Adverbs*.

There are few simple adverbs in the Irish language. Adverbial expressions are formed by prefixing *ḡo* to adjectives; as, *maíḡ*, *good*; *ḡo maíḡ*, *well*; these are compared in the same way as the adjectives themselves. Adverbial expressions are also formed by the combination of prepositions and nouns, or pronouns; as, *ar ḡcúl*, *backwards*, compounded of *ar*, *upon*; and *cúl*, *the back*.

The following particles are only used in composition :—

A.—*Negative Particles.*

an̄	e.g. with <i>deón</i> , will.	an̄deom̄	unwillingness.
an	„ <i>tráct</i> , time.	an̄tráct	improper time.
so	„ <i>beuŕac</i> , well-behaved.	soideuŕac̄	ill-behaved.
oí	„ <i>creideam̄</i> , belief.	oícreideam̄	unbelief.
ŕiuó	„ <i>blaŕ</i> , taste.	ŕiuóblaŕ	a bad taste.
éa* or éi	„ <i>cóir</i> , righteousness.	éascóir	unrighteousness.
eaŕ	„ <i>caim̄</i> , a friend.	eaŕcaim̄	an enemy.
mí	„ <i>ciall</i> , sense.	míciall	folly.
neam̄	„ <i>clao</i> n, partial.	neam̄claon	impartial.

B.—*Intensive Particles.*

aó	e.g. with <i>moláó</i> , praise.	aóinolaó	excessive praise.
an	„ <i>móir</i> , great.	an̄móir	very great.
bió	„ <i>beo</i> , living.	bióbeo	everliving, eternal.
so	„ <i>brón</i> , grief.	sobrón	great grief.
il	„ <i>ŕiú</i> , a kind.	ilŕiúéac̄	of many kinds, manifold.
im	„ <i>lán</i> , full.	iomlán	very full.
oll	„ <i>ŕlór</i> , noise.	ollŕlór	great talk, bombast.
ur̄	„ <i>eaŕbuó</i> , want.	ur̄eaŕbuó	great want, poverty.

C.—*Particles of various other meanings.*

aŕ, or eŕ,	e.g. with <i>íoc</i> , a payment.	aŕíoc	a repayment.
aó	„ <i>blaŕ</i> , a savour.	aóblaŕ	an after savour.
cóm	, equal, as <i>tróm</i> , weight.	cómtróm	equal weight.
deac̄,	or <i>deic̄</i> , good, as <i>blaŕ</i> , taste.	deac̄blaŕ	a good taste.
in̄,	<i>ŕit̄</i> , as <i>deánta</i> , done.	in̄deánta	fit to be done.
ro	, easy, as <i>deánta</i> , done.	rodeánta	easy to be done.

Let the learner bear in mind the rule *caol le caol*, 7c. Thus, *an̄* is *an̄* in *an̄deom̄*; *so* is *soi* in *soideuŕac*; *im* is *iom* in *iomlán*, &c. Several of these particles have also a separate existence as substantives or adjectives.

The particles used with verbs have been mentioned previously in § 35.

§ 53.—*Prepositions.*

There are many simple prepositions, such as *aŕ*, at; *aŕ*, upon; *an*, in, &c.; and these again, with nouns, form compound prepositions; as, *aŕaó*, the face; *amaŕaó*, in the face, against, &c.

* *éa* generally eclipses the initial mutable of the noun with which it is compounded; as, *éaŕcruócaim̄*, cruelty. This is a peculiar case of-eclipsis; the negative *éa* was originally *ea*, then *eŕ*. In the latter shape it appears before vowels, as *eaŕ-aon̄taó*, disunited, *eaŕ-oru*, disorder. This will help to understand the *n* of the common eclipsis, which is likewise intact before vowels.

The following prepositions generally aspirate the initial mutable of the nouns they govern :—

<i>áŕ</i> , upon.	<i>íoru</i> , between.
<i>de</i> , of.	<i>maŕ</i> , like to.
<i>so</i> , to.	<i>o</i> , <i>ua</i> , from.
<i>ra</i> , <i>raoi</i> , under.	<i>tré</i> , through.
<i>reac̄</i> , throughout.	

*Cc*n, *in*, and *iaŕ*, after, eclipse the initial mutable. The original form of *iaŕ* was *iaŕn*, *vid.* § 35.

Le, with or through, and *o*, from, in the modern language prefix *h* to nouns beginning with a vowel; as, *ruŕne mé ŕin le heaŕla*, I did that through fear.

§ 54.—*Conjunctions.*

Conjunctions are simple and compound: simple, as *so*, that; *aŕaŕ*, and; the compound are those compounded of different parts of speech, forming a sort of conjunctive phrase, *so brúŕ*, because; *uime ŕiu*, therefore.

For the influence of certain conjunctions upon the initials of the words that follow them, *vid.* § 35.

§ 55.—*Interjections.*

The following are a few of the more usual interjections :—

<i>a!</i> O!	<i>maŕŕ!</i> woe to!
<i>aŕ truaŕŕ!</i> woe!	<i>monuaŕ!</i> alas!
<i>roŕaon̄!</i> alas!	<i>cem̄meaŕ!</i> O happy.
<i>uó!</i> oh!	<i>éŕt!</i> hush!

Cc and *o*, it must be observed, aspirate the initial mutable of the noun to which they are prefixed.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.

§ 56.—*The Article.*

The Irish language has no indefinite article corresponding to the English *a* or *an*; but this is expressed either by the absence of the definite article *an*, or sometimes in the mode mentioned in § 61.

The definite article *an* has the following syntactical peculiarities.

When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article is used before the genitive case, and not with the governing noun, as in English the sense would require; as, *mac an tóime*, *the son of man*; but if a possessive pronoun be used with the governed noun, or if the governed noun be such a proper noun as would not take the article, the article is omitted; as, *obair a láime*, *the work of his hand*; *Mac Dé*, *the Son of God*.

But if the noun governed should merely stand in the place of an adjective, then the governing noun, if it has no adjective, may take the article; as, *na maorairí cnoic*, *the mountain dogs*; *an fear corráin*, *the reaper*; lit., *the man of a hook*.

The article is used in Irish in some instances where in English it would be omitted; viz.—(a) Before a noun which would take, at the same time, a demonstrative pronoun; (b) Before a noun preceded by its adjective and the assertive present *is*; (c) Before the names of certain places; as, *riús na hÉireann*, &c.; (d) Abstract nouns also take the article, or nouns used as abstracts; as, *an t-ocruir*, *hunger*; *éiríocht an peacáid air an raogáil*, *sin entered the world*.—Rom. v., 12; *so éireargair an báir*, *death laid low*.

§ 57.—*The Noun.*

The same concords of Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, and Verb, which occur in other languages, occur also in Irish.

One noun governs another in the genitive, as in other languages, the two nouns frequently forming a compound expression; as, *fear corráin*, *a man of a hook*, i.e., a reaper.

“When, in the absence of the article, the latter of two substantives in the genitive case is the proper name of a man, woman, or place, its initial is aspirated; as, *ó amhrán pádraic*, *from the time of St. Patrick*.”—*O'Donovan*.

CHAPTER II.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 58.—*Adjectives in general.*

The aspiration of adjectives, when joined to nouns, has been treated of in § 21.

Adjectives are generally placed after the nouns to which they belong, except (a) in the case of emphasis; or (b) in the case of some monosyllabic adjectives; as, *deas*, *good*; *fean*, *old*, &c.; and (c) of numerals, *vid.* § 59; as, *an Tríomna Nuair*, *the New Testament*; *dearg lagair*, *red flame*. The adjective also precedes the noun when joined to the assertive present *is*; as, *is fear an lá é*, *it is a cold day*.

When the adjective precedes the noun it is frequently regarded as forming with it a compound word, and consequently suffers the same initial changes after the article or preposition as if it were a noun, and aspirates the initial letter of its noun if a mutable consonant; as, *an t-óg fear*, *the young man*; *an t-fean bean*, *the old woman*.

When the adjective is the predicate of a sentence, and the noun is the subject, the adjective is not inflected and suffers no initial changes; as, *tá an bean zeanaíuil*, *the woman is beautiful*; *is maí is*, *they are good*; *so ruinne mé an rísián seur*, *I sharpened the knife*, not *so ruinne mé an rísián seur*, which would be *I made the sharp knife*.

“When an adjective, beginning with a lingual, is preceded by a noun terminating with a lingual, the initial of the adject-

tive retains its primary sound in all cases of the singular ; as, ar mo ξualaimm deir, *on my right shoulder* ; ar a éoir deir, *on his right foot*.”—*O'Donovan*.

“When an adjective is used to describe the quality of two nouns, it agrees with the one next to it ; as, fear aghur bean maic, *a good man and woman* ; bean 7 fear maic.”—*O'Donovan*.

Adjectives which signify profit, nearness to, fitness, and their opposites, take after them the dative case with do ; as, ir olc dom, *it is bad for me* ; ir maic dom, *it is good for me*.

Adjectives which signify fulness, and those which signify part of any thing, take de, *of*, with the article before the noun in the dative ; as, fear dona* saoinib, *one of the men* ; lán o'uirge, *full of water*.

Adjectives which signify likeness, or an emotion of the mind, take le with the dative case ; as, ir corhuid an fear le fizeadóir, *the man is like a weaver*.

The comparative degree takes ná, or no, *than*, before the following noun ; as, ar mó ból ná Peatair, *Paul is greater than Peter*.

“The superlative degree does not require a genitive case plural after it, as in Latin, for the genitive case in Irish, as in English, always denotes possession, and nothing more, and therefore could not be applied, like the genitive case plural in Latin, after nouns partitive, or the superlative degree ; but it generally takes after it the preposition do, or, more correctly, de.”—*O'Donovan*.

§ 59.—Numerals.

Numeral adjectives precede their substantives ; as, aon fear, *one man* ; but when the number consists of a unit and decimal, the noun is placed between the unit and the decimal ; as, trí cloca deas, *thirteen stones* ; aon fear ar fiché, *twenty-one men*.

The cardinals dá, *two* ; fiché, *twenty* ; and all the multiples of ten (as, deic ar fiché, *thirty* ; ceud, *a hundred*) take the noun in the singular number ; as, ceud fear, *a hundred men*.

* Anciently donatib, *vid.* § 8.

CHAPTER III.

THE PRONOUN.

§ 60.—Personal Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns, as in other languages, agree with their antecedents in number, gender, and person.

If a sentence be the antecedent, the pronoun will be the third person singular masculine ; but if a noun of multitude be the antecedent, the pronoun will be the third person plural.

If two or more persons or things be mentioned, the pronoun will agree with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third—*bual ré tíra aghur mire, aghur bí rinn tín, he struck you and me, and we were sick*.

The personal pronouns, when compounded with prepositions, as given in § 27, are used with the substantive verb bí, and with other verbs to form certain idiomatic expressions. We subjoin a few examples.

Agham, means literally, *with me* ; but, when used with bí, serves in place of the verb *to have* ; as, tá agham leabair, *I have a book* ; tá agham, *you have* (sing.) ; tá aghé, *he has* ; beidh riam agham, *you shall have them* ; tá riam o'micim aghamra, *I know your intention* ; nac bhuid ocmair oir? *are you not hungry?* cá hainm a'á oir? *what is your name?* níl neairt agham air, *I cannot help it* ; an bhuid aon nio uair? *do you want any thing?*

§ 61.—Possessive Pronouns.

The possessive pronouns always precede their nouns ; as, mo éeamn, *my head*.

On the position of the emphatic increase when used with possessives, see § 28.

The possessive pronouns, when either compounded with, or preceded by, the preposition ann, *in*, expressed or understood, are used with the substantive verb bí, to denote an office or state of being ; as, tá ré 'na íasairt, *he is a priest*, literally, *he is in his priest's state*.

§ 62.—Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

The Relative Pronoun a, whether expressed or understood, aspirates the initial mutables of verbs, except when a preposition governing the relative precedes it, and the relative is not the nominative to the verb ; in such a case it *eclipses* instead of *aspirating*. The preposition may sometimes be understood.

On the reason for the eclipsis, see § 29.

The relative always precedes the verb, and, being indeclinable, the context must decide whether it is the agent or the object; as, an fear a buailim, *the man whom I strike*; an fear a buailéar me, *the man who strikes me*.

"The relative is often omitted when it is either preceded or followed by a vowel or an aspirated consonant; as, an gíolla tús an gearrúán leir, *the boy that brought the horse with him*."—Neilson.

The Interrogative Pronouns always precede the verb with which they are connected; as, zo dé mar tá tu? *how do you do?* If the interrogative should be under the government of a preposition, it is still placed first; and the preposition follows with a personal pronoun expressed, unless the interrogative should be connected directly with a noun; as, cia leir a bfuil? *with whom is he?*

§ 63.—Demonstrative and Indefinite Pronouns.

The Demonstrative Pronouns immediately follow the nouns or adjectives with which they may be connected; as, an bean sin, *that woman*.

There is one exception to the foregoing:—viz. where the assertive present is understood; as, ro an fear, *this is the man*.

"The pronouns creus, zosé, cia, &c., are commonly used without interrogation, as demonstratives; as, tá fíor agam zo dé a déarfá, *I know what you would say*."—Neilson.

Uile, when placed before a noun, signifies *every*, and takes the noun in the singular; but when placed after a noun, it has the meaning of *all*, and the noun is then put in the plural; as, uile fear, *every man*; fear uile, *all men*.

CHAPTER IV.

§ 64.—The Verb.

The Verb agrees with its nominative in number and person.

Two or more singular nouns joined by a conjunction will take the verb in the singular number; as, tánuis mife agus tuca, *I and you came*.

If the nominative be a noun of multitude the verb will be in the plural.

The nominative generally follows the verb (part of the sentence may intervene); as, dúbairt an fear, *the man said*.

Relative and interrogative pronouns, as before mentioned, precede the verb.

"When the assertive verb is, or the particles an, or nác, which always carry the force of is, and never suffer it to be expressed, are used, the collocation is as follows:—the verb comes first, next the attribute, or predicate, and then the subject; as, is fear mé, *I am a man*; is maic is, *they are good*. But if the article be expressed before the predicate, then the attribute comes next after the verb; as, is mé an fear, *I am the man*."—O'Donovan.

The verb bí (with the exception of the assertive present form is) always employs a preposition, such as a, i, or ann, *in*, as mentioned in § 61, in asserting the existence of any subject; as, tá ré 'n-a fear, *he is a man*. But the assertive present is is always used in this sense without a preposition; as, is fear mé, *I am a man*. O'Donovan (p. 379) remarks:—"The two modes of construction represent the idea to the mind in a quite different manner. Thus, tá mé am' fear, and is fear mé, though both mean *I am a man*, have a different signification; for tá mé am' fear, is *I am in my man*; i.e. *I am a man*, as distinguished from some other stage, such as childhood, or boyhood; while is fear mé indicates that I am a man, as distinguished from a woman, or a coward."

The pronoun is not used with the synthetic form.—Vid. § 33.

When the noun precedes the infinitive, it is put in the accusative; when it follows, it is governed in the genitive.

The present participle, with the verb bí, expresses the continuance of the action; as, tá mé ag léigead mo leabair, *I am reading my book*.

Transitive verbs take their objects in the accusative case.

Verbs of advantage and disadvantage take the object of the benefit or injury in the dative case with do, or similar prepositions.

Verbs of comparing and taking away also govern the dative case of the object of comparison or deprivation, with the preposition ua, or such like.

One verb governs another in the infinitive mood, as in other languages. "When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern an accusative, the sign do is never prefixed; as, dúbairt ré liom dul zo Corcaig, *he told me to go to Cork*."—O'Donovan. In some parts of Ireland this would be expressed, dúbairt ré liom a dul zo Corcaig.

CHAPTER V.

PARTICLES.

§ 65.—*Adverbs.*

Monosyllabic adverbs are placed before the words to which they belong; as, *μó μόγi*, *very great*.

Compound adverbs, particularly those formed from adjectives, are placed after the nominatives to the verbs which they qualify, but never placed between the auxiliary and the verb as in English; as, *ο'είρηξ ρέ σο μοc*, *he rose early*; *τά ρέ οέαντα σο ceapc*, *it is done properly*; not *τά ρέ σο ceapc οέαντα*.—*O' Donovan*.

Adverbs signifying proximity take the dative case generally with *σο*; as, *τά ρέ ανγάρ σοm*, *he is near me*.

The following adverbs also take the dative case:—*α βρογ*, *on this side*; *α βρω*, *afar off*; *αμαc*, *out*; *αμυιc*, *without*; *εαλλ*, *beyond*; *ααλλ*, *on this side*; *αγτεαc*, *within*; as, *pan α βρογ αγυμm*, *stay on this side with us*.

§ 66.—*Prepositions.*

The prepositions in general govern the dative case; as, *εάμυξ ρέ σο hCAlbann*, *he came to Scotland*.

ζαν, *without*, and *ιωιρ*, *between*, sometimes govern the accusative; as, *ζαν ρόλαγ*, *without comfort*; *ιωιρ αν ρεαρ αγυρ α βεαν*, *between the man and his wife*.

The following prepositions, being in reality nouns, govern the genitive case:—

εum, *to*.

οείρ, *after*.

ρεαc, *throughout*.

ιωνημυιc, *unto*.

ρείρ, *according to*.

είμηcιλλ, *about*.

All compound prepositions for the same reason take the genitive; as, *α n-αγαρc mo εοιτε*, *against my will*.

On initial changes caused by certain prepositions see § 53.

§ 67.—*Conjunctions and Interjections.*

There is no peculiarity in the syntax of the conjunctions. On initial changes caused by certain of them see § 35.

The interjection *μαρηξ*, *woe*, being in reality a noun, is always followed by the preposition *σο*, with the dative; as, *μαρηξ σουτ*, *woe to thee!*

THE END.

