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MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR

J. P. CRAIG.

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Cambridge 1902

MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR.

MODERN
IRISH GRAMMAR

BY

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Dublin

SEALY, BRYERS & WALKER

MIDDLE ABBEY STREET

1900

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TO
THE MOST REV. DR. O'DONNELL,
LORD BISHOP OF RAPHOE,
THIS BOOK
IS
GRATEFULLY DEDICATED.

PREFACE.



THIS book is specially intended to meet the requirements of students studying for the Intermediate, University, and other Examinations. It is a Grammar of the living language of our land as I have known it from my cradle, and which has been the constant study of my life. Although it is pre-eminently the language of old Tirconaill, it is none the less the language of Ireland; for, the Northern element over the general construction of our mother tongue—which is universally the same—is scarcely perceptible. In writing this Grammar, therefore, my principal object, and I might say my only labour, lay, not in showing forth Northern usage, but in perfecting the general rules of Irish grammar.

A perusal of the following chapters will show that I have explained the subject more fully, and in a more up-to-date style than other writers, and that I have brought to light several things which have simply been passed over by previous grammarians.

LETTERKENNY,

January, 1900.

INTRODUCTORY.

IF we wish to preserve our mother tongue, we must write it as it is spoken in the glen and on the hill-side. No doubt the past of our beautiful language, may be purer and greater than the present, but that does not concern us; that is a matter for philologists. We have no time just now for studying its past greatness. We love what remains of it, corrupted, if you like, though it may be. We love it because we lisped it in childhood; we venerate it because it falls from the lips of the old people like a soothing balm, and, as long as it lasts, we will cling to it. Anything else is but artificial, and can never have real life as a medium of speech. The revival of the language of our ancestors, in any shape or form, would be a noble work; but this must be a secondary consideration. We are at present concerned with the sweet tongue with which we ourselves are familiar. We must begin here. When we shall have mastered so much, we shall then consider the past of our language.

We must not sacrifice the life of the language to please the critic and the philologist. "If the language is to be preserved at all," writes a correspondent of the *Derry Journal*, "it is the public who will do

so, and not a few individuals who aspire to cultured excellence. The old house has become almost dilapidated, evidences of decay are plainly discernible. How are we to restore and preserve it? Is it by exhibiting a picture of its former beauty? No, surely not. Hence, what remains to us of the old language should be the basis and the medium of all future efforts to preserve, utilise, extend, and finally beautify its dialect."

Some of those connected with the Gaelic movement are of opinion that the Irish spoken at the present day is not good enough. They insist on having pure Irish or none at all. Hence, they are determined to root out all corruptions, and supply the deficiency from the cob-webs of the past. Every word that sounds in any way like English must be weeded out of the dictionary! *Cat*, a cat, *ṛac*, a sack, *lirir*, a letter, *ṛor*, a rose, *ṛopa*, a rope, and hundreds of other real Irish words, would, of course, have to be sacrificed! If the language was dead such a thing might be possible, but as it still lives, our inclinations will be to cling to it with all its imperfections. And this is but natural: All living languages change with time, and if these changes are corruptions, the English language, the greatest of living languages, must be very corrupt indeed. Yet the English people are proud of their language, corruptions and all.

The spoken language should, therefore, be scrupu-

lously followed at first, and no wholesale changes should be made till the language has taken proper root; and even then we must proceed with the greatest care, in other words, the language must be improved gradually, or else we shall be building so many "castles in the air," which must eventually end in smoke. We must respect those of our people who still speak the old tongue by teaching them to read and write what they are sure to take an interest in; and the best way to do this is to lay the grammar of their own language before them in a coaxing form.

It is pretty evident that those who would build the language on the classics have the interest of the philologist more at heart than the rescuing of a dying language. What a disgrace it would be, if hereafter, men found flaws in the language of Erin! What nonsense! If we let our mother tongue perish the philologists of the world will have reason to smile at our Irish pride. The arguments put forward in favour of the classic method are very childish. Here is one: "An English grammar is not based on the usage of Yorkshire, or Lancashire, or Cornwall." This is, of course, a false comparison: Modern English is of two kinds: (1) Standard modern English, which is spoken, and admitted in all parts of England, and (2) modern English dialect, which is spoken only in certain parts of the country. Modern Irish, on the other hand, has only

the dialects. We have no standard of modern Irish which would be admitted universally. Hence, before we can compare, in this manner, modern English with modern Irish, we must first draw a veil, so to speak, over standard modern English, and imagine the English language consisted simply of the three dialects of Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Cornwall. "But," it is persisted, "what would be said if one proposed to write *eatin, sittin, bein*, for *eating, sitting, being, an*, for *and, seen* for *saw*, &c., basing the proposal on popular usage?" If we had no standard of modern English the proposal would be a very natural one.

If we go back to the fourteenth century we shall find the English language in much the same state as our Irish of the present day. There were three dialects, the Northern, the Midland, and the Southern. "As far back as the beginning of the thirteenth century, the Midland dialect, which afterwards became the standard language, was cultivated as a literary dialect, and had then thrown off most of the older inflections." This does not look like building on the classics.

I agree with most others of the Gaelic movement that unity should be preserved as much as possible, even in the beginning. Irish is divided into three dialects, which differ pretty considerably in some respects. It is certain, however, that these differences are somewhat exaggerated, no doubt by

those who have made the written language the study of their lives. In Munster, for example, the ending *ib* is not heard in the dative plural of nouns, although we are expected to believe that such is generally the case. In the nominative plural, however, it is often heard. I have heard *peap^hib*, *mn^hib*, and *bu^hib* used as nominatives. In Connaught, just as in Ulster, *ib* is not heard, the dative plural being exactly like the nominative plural. It is, therefore, very foolish, as well as detrimental to the growth of a modern standard, to persist in using this classic ending, which, evidently exists only in the imaginations of a few learned men.

The analytic forms of the verb are understood everywhere. Most of the synthetic forms, on the other hand, are by no means universally understood; and as we can easily get along without these latter, it is but natural that we should not put them forward as standard modern Irish—of course, I do not mean the synthetic forms that are universally used. Hence, at the present vital moment, we must use the forms that will be understood by, and pleasing to all parties.

Besides *oo*, *oe*, *gan* and *ioin*, the preposition *ann*, in Munster, very often aspirates instead of eclipsing in the dative singular when the article is used; *an* and *o* are inclined to do the same. In Ulster, a preposition, as a general rule, never

eclipses in the dative case when the article is used, thus simplifying the rules of aspiration and eclipsis, which appear to be such a terror to students. In the South of Ireland, therefore, *eo*, *oe*, *ean*, *ioin*, *annr*, and *o*—that is, nearly all the simple prepositions of any importance—follow the same rule as that of Ulster. Considering these facts, not to say anything about simplicity, there is a strong plea for making aspiration the general rule.

It must be pretty clear to most people who are interested in the study of their mother tongue, that the absence of proper books of instruction is the greatest drawback. Up to the present we have had no suitable grammar of modern Irish. The Dictionary is still coming, and in the meantime Intermediate students, in the absence of vocabularies, may throw aside their text books. I believe that it is this state of affairs, and not a mere matter of marks, that keeps many a student from entering for Irish. We want a complete student's dictionary at a reasonable price, say five shillings; and we want text books to have vocabularies and notes instead of the proverbial translation. For elementary education we require a series of graduated primers, and when these are in readiness it will be our duty to insist on having the national language taught in the so-called "National" Schools.

The accomplishment of these things would very soon necessitate the establishing of newspapers. But

until then, a newspaper would be like a chimney on a bean-stalk. We may bolster it up and puff it up as much as we like, but it is sure to come down, an inglorious wreck, in the end. When the time has come to float our paper, it should be written exclusively in simple modern Irish. For example, we could write the entire paper with simple Irish like that found in Father O'Growney's Simple Lessons. Classic material should be carefully excluded, and English or any other foreign tongue should not find a corner in it. A paper composed of modern Irish, classic Irish, Irish grammar, and philology—explained through the medium of English—and nearly two-thirds of its pages in English besides, cannot be called an Irish newspaper. The existence of such a phenomenon would prove plainly that we do not understand our own language, and that we are not ready for an Irish newspaper.

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MODERN IRISH GRAMMAR.



The Alphabet.

Irish.		English.	Name.	Irish.		English.	Name.
Cap.	Small.			Cap.	Small.		
Δ	Δ	a	ΔΙΤM	ℓ	ℓ	l	ℓUIP
b	b	b	BEIṬ	m	m	m	MUIH
C	c	k	COU	n	n	n	NUH
Ḑ	Ḑ	d	ḐΔIP	O	o	o	OIP
e	e	e	ÉΔṬΔ	p	p	p	PEIṬ
f	f	f	FEAPH	R	r	r	RIIP
Ḑ	Ḑ	g	ḐOIP	S	s	s	RIU
h	h	h	UΔṬ	Ṭ	Ṭ	t	TEIME
i	i	i	IOḐΔ	u	u	u	UIP

OBS.—As may be seen above, there are but eighteen letters in the Irish Alphabet. In writing foreign names, however, we may use others. Thus, Keating writes Maximus, MAXIMUP. The *names* of the letters given above are not used now. They are the names of trees, but only four of them are modern, viz., BEIṬ, birch; COU, hazel, ḐΔIP, oak, and FEAPH, or FEAPHNOS, elder. The others are as follows:—ΔΙΤM, palm; ÉΔṬΔ, aspen; ḐOIP, ivy; UΔṬ, white-thorn; IOḐΔ, the yew; ℓUIP, quicken tree; MUIH, vine; NUH, ash; OIP, the spindle tree; PEIṬ, unknown; RIIP, elder; RIU, willow; TEIME, furze; UIP, the yew.

Classification of the Letters.

There are five vowels, which may be classified as follows :—

(1) Broad, or thick vowels : α , $ο$, $υ$.

(2) Thin, or slender vowels : $ε$, $ι$.

(3) Long vowels : $\acute{\alpha}$, \acute{o} , $\acute{υ}$, $\acute{\epsilon}$, $\acute{\iota}$.

(4) Short vowels : α , $ο$, $υ$, $ε$, $ι$.

A consonant may be broad or slender according as it has contact with a broad or a slender vowel. For example, the υ in $\upsilon\alpha\eta$ is thick or broad, but in $\upsilon\epsilon\alpha\eta$ it is thin or slender. The same often happens in English, *e.g.*, ball, bat ; fall, fan, &c.

Sounds of the Vowels.

α is pronounced like <i>a</i> in <i>fat</i> .			Ex. $\kappa\alpha\tau$.
$\acute{\alpha}$	„	<i>a</i> „ <i>far</i> .	„ $\beta\acute{\alpha}\sigma$.
ϵ	„	<i>e</i> „ <i>get</i> .	„ $\upsilon\iota\tau\epsilon$.
$\acute{\epsilon}$	„	<i>e</i> „ <i>grey</i> .	„ $\zeta\acute{\epsilon}$.
ι	„	<i>i</i> „ <i>it</i> .	„ $\mu\iota\eta$.
$\acute{\iota}$	„	<i>i</i> „ <i>marine</i> .	„ $\mu\acute{\iota}\eta$.
$ο$	„	<i>o</i> „ <i>for</i> .	„ $\tau\omicron\tau$.
\acute{o}	„	<i>o</i> „ <i>form</i> *	„ $\zeta\acute{o}\tau$.
$υ$	„	<i>u</i> „ <i>fully</i> .	„ $\lambda\upsilon\tau$.
$\acute{υ}$	„	<i>u</i> „ <i>truly</i> .	„ $\lambda\acute{υ}\beta$.

* There are many exceptions to this rule. In the following, for example, the \acute{o} is pronounced like *o* in *go*:— $\mu\acute{o}\tau$, $\upsilon\eta\acute{o}\eta$, $\eta\eta\acute{o}\eta$, $\mu\acute{o}\eta$, $\lambda\acute{o}\eta$, $\tau\acute{o}\eta$, $\mu\acute{o}\eta\alpha\mu$, $\mu\acute{o}\eta\eta$, $\mu\acute{o}\eta\alpha$, $\sigma\acute{o}\eta\eta\alpha$ $\sigma\acute{o}\eta\eta\alpha\mu\epsilon\tau\alpha$, $\sigma\acute{o}\eta\eta\alpha\mu$, $\sigma\acute{o}\eta\eta\eta\upsilon\tau\epsilon$, $\upsilon\acute{o}\eta\eta\eta\alpha\delta$, $\upsilon\acute{o}\eta\eta\alpha\eta$, $\upsilon\acute{o}\eta\eta\eta\alpha\lambda\lambda$, $\tau\eta\alpha\epsilon\tau\eta\acute{o}\eta\alpha$, $\rho\acute{o}\zeta\eta\eta\alpha\mu$, $\mu\acute{o}\eta\eta\alpha\mu\alpha\iota\mu$, $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\mu$, $\rho\acute{o}\eta\eta\upsilon\zeta\iota\mu$, $\tau\acute{o}\eta\eta\alpha\iota\upsilon\mu$, &c., &c.

Sounds of the Diphthongs.

ae	is pronounced like <i>ay</i> in <i>day</i> .	Ex.,	ταε.
ao	„ <i>ea</i> „ <i>real</i> .	„	βραον.
ua	„ <i>ue</i> „ <i>cruel</i> .	„	κουη.
eo, eó	„ <i>ya</i> „ <i>yawn</i> .	„	σεό, βεό.
ia, ía	„ <i>ea</i> „ <i>dear</i> .	„	ριαο.
eu, éu	„ <i>ea</i> „ <i>early</i> .	„	βευτ, ρευτ

N.B.—These diphthongs are always long.

ai	is pronounced like <i>a</i> in <i>crag</i> .	Ex.,	κραϊσεανη
oi, ui	„ <i>u</i> „ <i>rush</i> .	„	κοιτ, κυριε.
ei	„ <i>e</i> „ <i>let</i>	„	κειτε.
io	„ <i>i</i> „ <i>pit</i>	„	μιτοσ.
ea	„ <i>a</i> „ <i>fan</i> .	„	φεαρ.

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

ai	is pronounced like <i>a</i> in <i>rations</i> .	Ex.,	ραϊρθε.
oi	„ <i>awi</i> in <i>cawing</i>	„	κοιρτε.
ui	„ <i>ewi</i> „ <i>jewish</i>	„	κυριτε.
ei	„ <i>ei</i> „ <i>feign</i>	„	πειρε.
io	„ <i>e</i> „ <i>me</i>	„	μιορα.
ea	„ <i>ea</i> „ <i>bear</i>	„	φεαρ.

ai is pronounced like *i* in *marine*. Ex., ρηεαται.

ia	„ <i>u</i> „ <i>cure</i>	„	οιυλαιμ.
ea	„ <i>a</i> „ <i>car</i>	„	σεαρτα.

Δοι, εοι, ιυι, ιαι, &c., are attenuated forms of the long diphthongs *ao*, *eo*, &c.

Sounds of the Consonants.

β broad	is pronounced like <i>b</i> in <i>ball</i> .	Ex. βάτο.
β slender	„ „ <i>b</i> „ <i>bat</i> .	„ βεαν.
Ϸ broad	„ „ <i>c</i> „ <i>cut</i> .	„ Ϸυ.
Ϸ slender	„ „ <i>k</i> „ <i>king</i> .	„ Ϸέ.
φ broad	„ „ <i>f</i> „ <i>fall</i> .	„ φάϷ.
φ slender	„ „ <i>f</i> „ <i>fan</i> .	„ φεαρ.
Ϸ broad	„ „ <i>g</i> „ <i>gum</i> .	„ Ϸορμ.
Ϸ slender	„ „ <i>g</i> „ <i>gas</i> .	„ Ϸεαρμαν.
μ broad	„ „ <i>m</i> „ <i>maul</i> .	„ μόιν.
μ slender	„ „ <i>m</i> „ <i>mill</i> .	„ μιοτοϷ.
ρ broad	„ „ <i>p</i> „ <i>Paul</i> .	„ ϷυτοϷ.
ρ slender	„ „ <i>p</i> „ <i>pet</i> .	„ ϷειρτεοϷ.
θ slender	„ „ <i>d</i> „ <i>duty</i> .	„ θίιιρ.
τ slender	„ „ <i>t</i> „ <i>tune</i> .	„ τίνν.
ρ slender	„ „ <i>sh</i> „ —	„ ϷιτεοϷ, Ϸίνν
η is pronounced	as in English.	„ ηατα.

N.B.—θ, τ, and Ϸ, broad, cannot be represented in English. Ex., θύν, τός, Ϸάλ.

ι, ιι.

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

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

(2) In all other cases ι is pronounced as in English. Ex., θεαταέ, κοτεαέ, Ϸοκατ, Ϸυιτ.

(3) ιι broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., θαλλ, βαττα.

ιι slender is like *l* in *valiant*. Ex., Καιιτ, καιιτεαέ.

n. nn.

(1) Initial n broad cannot be rep. in Eng. Ex., *νάηε*.

Initial n slender is like *n* in *new*. Ex., *νεάηε*.

(2) After *αι, οι, υι*, n final is like *n* in *new*. Ex. *αηαιη, μόηη, μυηη*.

(3) In all other cases n is pronounced as in English. Ex., *αηαη, ηηη, αηαη, αηηηηη*.

(4) nn broad cannot be represented in English. Ex., *βεαηηη, βεαηηηαάτ*.

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

ϑ, ζ, αϑα, αζα, αϑα.

(1) The letters ϑ, ζ, are not sounded in the body, or at the end of a word, but they lengthen the vowel that immediately precedes them, and often silencing a following one.

Κηυαηϑ pronounced κηύαηϑ *i.e. crood'-ee.*

Κηοηϑε „ κηοηϑε „ *cree.*

Βοϑαη „ βόη „ *boar.*

Υαηζ „ ύαηζ „ *oo'ee.*

Βηύηζ „ βηύηζ „ *brood'ee.*

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

Αϑαηε pronounced έηε *i.e. aηrc.*

Αζαηϑ „ έη „ *ay'-ee.*

(3) αϑα is usually pronounced like *o* in *go*. Ex., *αϑαηηη, ηεαβαηη, ταβαηηη*.

Δὸ, Δῆ, Δὐ.

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

Ῥόραδ	pronounced	ρορού.
Σεραδ	„	σεαρού.
Μαρισαδ	„	μαρισού.
Μαυαδ	„	μαυού.
Ῥολαῆ	„	ρολού.
Στιαδ	„	στιού.

(2) In monosyllabic words ῆ and ὐ (without Δ) have this sound.

Ῥῆ	pronounced	Ῥα-ú.
Ῥναῆ	„	Ῥνα-ú.
Ῥαῆ	„	Ῥαῆ-ú.
Ῥεανὐ	„	Ῥεαν-ú.

N.B.—For initial sounds of aspirated consonants, see *Aspiration*.

Attenuation.

A broad consonant may be made slender by a process called *Attenuation*. This is done by putting *i* immediately *before*, or *e* immediately *after* the broad consonant. Thus to attenuate the *n* of *ban*, we get *bian*; but if we attenuate the *b* we get *bean*.

Broadening.

A slender consonant may be made broad by putting *u* immediately before, or *Δ* immediately after the consonant. Thus, to broaden the *ξ* in *οἱυξ*, we get *οἱυουξ*, but to broaden the *ξ* in *ξῖμ* we get *ξΔῖμ*. To broaden the final consonant in words like *κατ*, *βαΔ*, *κυρ*, &c., drop the *ι*—*κατ*, *βαΔ*, *κυρ*, &c.

THE RULE “*καοι τε καοι*.”

A consonant, or a group of consonants in the body of a word, must lie between either two slender, or two broad vowels. In *οἱατος*, the *τ* lies between two broad vowels, but in *εἶτεος*, it lies between two slender ones.

When, in the natural construction of a word, this rule would be violated, the two vowels in question must be made to harmonize by means of attenuation and broadening. In English, for example, *cold + ness* gives *coldness*, and *hill + ock* gives *hillock*; but in Irish, *πλατ + ἰν* is not *πλατῖν*, but *πλαῖτῖν*; *πεῖρτ + ος* is not *πεῖρτος*, but *πεῖρτεος*; *τος + ἰμ* is not *τοςῖμ*, but *τοςΔῖμ*; *ρῖνν + φα* is not *ρῖννφα*, but *ρῖννφεΔ*, &c.

This rule is called “*καοι τε καοι Δσυρ τεαταν τε τεαταν*,” that is “Slender to slender and broad to broad.” The reason of this rule is plain: A consonant cannot be broad and slender at the same time. But if we wrote *τος + ἰμ*, *τοςῖμ*, the *ξ*, having contact with *ο* and *ι*, should be broad and also slender, which, of course, is absurd.

Aspiration.

Aspiration is the softening, and, in some cases, the suppression, of the sound of an initial consonant. The aspirable consonants are *b*, *c*, *o*, *f*, *z*, *m*, *p*, *r*, and *t*. When aspirated they are written *ḅ*, *ḅ̄*, *ḅ̆*, *ḅ̇*, *ḅ̈*, *ḅ̉*, *ḅ̊*, *ḅ̋*, *ḅ̌*, *ḅ̍*, *ḅ̎*, *ḅ̏*. Capitals are sometimes written, *Ḃh*, *Ch*, *Ḃh*, etc., instead of *Ḃ*, *Ḃ̄*, *Ḃ̆*, &c.

In <i>ḅán</i>	<i>ḅ</i> has the sound of	<i>w</i>
„ <i>ḅinn</i>	<i>ḅ</i>	„ <i>v</i>
„ <i>muc</i>	<i>m̄</i>	„ <i>w</i>
„ <i>muc</i>	<i>m̄</i>	„ <i>v</i>
„ <i>p̄áirc</i>	<i>p̄</i>	„ <i>f</i>
„ <i>tor</i>	<i>t̄</i>	„ <i>h</i>
„ <i>ḅac</i>	<i>ḅ̄</i>	„ <i>h</i>
„ <i>ḅat</i>	<i>ḅ̄</i> is silent.	
„ <i>ḅear</i>	<i>ḅ̄</i> is silent.	

Hence, in the beginning of a word,

<i>ḅ</i> and <i>m̄</i> broad	are sounded like	<i>w</i>
<i>ḅ</i> and <i>m̄</i> slender	„	<i>v</i>
<i>p̄</i> always	„	<i>f</i>
<i>t̄</i> „	„	<i>h</i>
<i>ḅ̄</i> +vowel	„	<i>h</i>
<i>ḅ̄</i> + <i>t</i> , <i>n</i> , or <i>p</i> ,	is silent	
<i>ḅ̄</i> generally	silent.	

N.B.—*ḅ̄*, *ḅ̆*, *ḅ̇*, and *t̄* followed by a consonant, cannot be represented in English. A soft guttural breathing will produce these sounds. They are very like the sound of the Greek letter *χ* (*chi*).

Eclipsis.

Eclipsis is the suppression of the sound of an initial consonant by means of another, placed before it. All the aspirable consonants, except m, can be eclipsed, and each has its own eclipsing letter.

m-báto pronounced máto where b is eclipsed.

ḡ-cac	”	ḡac	”	c	”
n-ooiay	”	noiyay	”	o	”
b-feay	”	veay	”	f	”
b-páirc	”	báirc	”	p	”
t-rúil	”	túil	”	r	”
o-tayb	”	oayb	”	t	”
n-ḡoirc	”	nḡoirc	”	nḡ	blend.

N.B.—In the case of ḡ no real eclipsis takes place. S is never eclipsed except in the singular number of nouns.

Gender of Nouns.

(1) All nouns generally having their final consonant broad are masculine, as, báto, aian, tinnear, cáirveay, etc. Except:—coy, lám, brós, pós, ḡruas, cuac, cíoy, cluay, breus, feays, cloc, rlat, pían, ḡaoct, rḡian, cḡuac, etc., which are feminine.

(2) Abstract nouns in e or ac̄t are feminine, as, aítne, beauty, mírcact, sweetness.

(3) Diminutives in an are masculine, as, árhoan, a hillock.

(4) Diminutives in os are feminine, as, báboḡ, a doll.

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

(6) The names of rivers are feminine, as, *an Boinn*, the Boyne.

(7) The names of males are masculine, as, *féar*, a man, *ṛcait*, a stallion, *coitead*, a cock.

(8) The names of females are feminine, as, *bean*, a woman, *caitín*, a girl, *capall*, a mare, *cearc*, a hen.

OBS.—*Caitín* is influenced by the article as if it were masculine, just in the same way as *tead* (*m.*) is declined like a feminine noun. *Capall*, like *muc*, is common gender.

DECLENSIONS.

Declension of the Article.

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

N.B.—There is no indefinite article. Hence *bó* means “cow” or “a cow.”

First Declension.

(a) Masculine nouns ending with a broad consonant are of the first declension. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the final consonant. Example, *bád*, a boat.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	βάρο, a boat.	βάιρο, boats.
<i>Gen.</i>	βάιρο, of a boat.	βάρο, of boats.
<i>Dat.</i>	βάρο, a boat.	βάιρο,* boats.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά βάιρο! O boat!	ά θάοα! O boats!

(b) Nouns in *αέ* (monosyllabics excepted) change *ε* into *ζ* where attenuation occurs. Ex., *θαααέ*, a beggar.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	θαααέ, a beggar.	θαααιζ, beggars.
<i>Gen.</i>	θαααιζ, of a beggar.	θαααέ, of beggars.
<i>Dat.</i>	θαααέ, a beggar.	θαααιζ, beggars.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά θαααιζ! O beggar!	ά θαααα! O beggars!

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

Examples for Declension.

αριαν, bread.	βρύζαέ, a farmer.
αριθαν, a hillock.	γτόαέ, a young man.
αμαθαν, a fool.	βεααέ, a way.
αρια, an ass.	βροααέ, a bosom.
ραμαρικαν, a primrose.	ευθαέ, cloth.
ζεααθαν, a sparrow.	εαααέ, cattle.
θαααν, a spark, a match.	ριοναέ, a fox. †
ζεαριαν, a horse.	τεαγταέ, a family.
ριιιαν, a brook.	βογταέ, wet weatner.
ριοααν, frost.	βυριταέ, a bog.

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

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

ῥαλανν, salt.	οἴανασ, a lad, a rogue.
υαρῖαν, a yearling sheep.	μάρινεασ, a sailor.
θεασαν, a knitting-needle.	βίτεανασ, a rascal.
βιοῖαν, a pin.	κλασασ, a seashore.
ῥμδαν, a thrush.	υαλασ, a burden.
ῥελεοαν, a butterfly.	ταλαν, ground, land.
Σαῖμασ, Summer.	Εῖρεανασ, an Irishman.
ῤόḡῖμαῖ, Autumn.	Σαῖρανασ, an Englishman.
ῤεῖῖμασ, Winter.	ῤῖρανασ, a Frenchman.
Εαῖμασ, Spring.	

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

κοῖτεασ, a cock.	gen.	κοῖτις.
οῖῖσεασ, an officer	„	οῖῖσις.
τιννεαῖ, sickness	„	τιννῖ.
ῤαῖτεαῖ, shyness	„	ῤαῖτιῖ.

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

αῖῖρεανν, a mass	gen.	αῖῖῖρηνν.
αῖῖḡεασ, money	„	αῖῖḡῖσῖ.
βῖῖρεασ, a trout	„	βῖῖῖ.
κεανν, a head	„	κῖῖνν.
ῤεαῖ, a man	„	ῤῖῖ.
ḡῖῖρεανν, fun	„	ḡῖῖῖρηνν.
κλαῖḡεανν, a skull	„	κλαῖḡῖῖρηνν.
κῖῖῖρεανν, skin, rind	„	κῖῖῖῖρηνν.

Also $\rho\iota\omicron\tau$, seed	gen.	$\rho\iota\iota$.
$\lambda\iota\omicron\nu$, flax, net	„	$\lambda\iota\nu$.
$\mu\alpha\varsigma$, a son	„	$\mu\iota\varsigma$.

(e) The following change $e\alpha$ into $e\iota$:—

$\rho\acute{e}\alpha\rho$,* grass, hay	gen.	$\rho\acute{e}\iota\rho$.
$\mu\acute{e}\alpha\rho$,* a finger	„	$\mu\acute{e}\iota\rho$.
$\beta\acute{e}\alpha\iota$,* a mouth	„	$\beta\acute{e}\iota\iota$.
$\varsigma\iota\eta\epsilon\alpha\iota$, kind, species	„	$\varsigma\iota\eta\epsilon\iota\iota$.
$\varsigma\alpha\iota\rho\tau\epsilon\alpha\nu$, a castle	„	$\varsigma\alpha\iota\rho\tau\epsilon\iota\nu$.
$\iota\alpha\rho\zeta$, fish, a fish	„	$\acute{\epsilon}\iota\rho\zeta$.
$\varsigma\iota\iota\alpha\delta$, a creel, bosom	„	$\varsigma\iota\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta$.

(f) Some nouns change the characteristic into $\upsilon\iota$. They usually end in two consonants.

$\varsigma\omicron\rho\upsilon$, a body	gen.	$\varsigma\upsilon\iota\rho\upsilon$.
$\beta\omicron\upsilon\zeta$, a belly	„	$\beta\upsilon\iota\zeta$.
$\tau\alpha\rho\upsilon$, a bull	„	$\tau\upsilon\iota\rho\upsilon$.
$\mu\omicron\iota\tau$, a wether	„	$\mu\upsilon\iota\iota\tau$.
$\upsilon\omicron\rho\iota\nu$, a fist	„	$\upsilon\upsilon\iota\rho\iota\nu$.
$\epsilon\nu\omicron\varsigma$, a hill	„	$\epsilon\nu\upsilon\iota\varsigma$.
$\rho\alpha\varsigma$, a sack	„	$\rho\upsilon\iota\varsigma$.
$\varsigma\alpha\tau$, a cat	„	$\varsigma\upsilon\iota\tau$.

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

$\rho\omicron\varsigma\alpha\iota$, a word	gen.	$\rho\omicron\varsigma\alpha\iota\iota$	pl.	$\rho\omicron\varsigma\alpha\iota\alpha$
$\upsilon\epsilon\delta\rho$, a drop	„	$\upsilon\epsilon\omicron\iota\rho$	„	$\upsilon\epsilon\delta\rho\alpha$.
$\rho\epsilon\alpha\nu\nu$, a pen	„	$\rho\iota\omicron\nu\nu$	„	$\rho\epsilon\alpha\nu\nu\alpha$.
$\mu\acute{\upsilon}\rho$, a rampart	„	$\mu\acute{\upsilon}\iota\rho$	„	$\mu\acute{\upsilon}\rho\epsilon\alpha$.
$\upsilon\omicron\rho\iota\alpha\rho$, a door	„	$\upsilon\omicron\rho\iota\alpha\iota\rho$	„	$\upsilon\omicron\rho\iota\alpha\epsilon$.

* More usually $\rho\epsilon\upsilon\rho$, $\mu\epsilon\upsilon\rho$, $\beta\epsilon\upsilon\iota$.

αιγγελ, an angel	gen.	αιγγιτ	pl.	αιγγε.
τοβαρ, a well	„	τοβαριτ	„	τοβαρα.
ζαρυρ, a boy	„	ζαρυριτ	„	ζαρραι.
ρσευτ,* a story	„	ρσειτ	„	ρσειτται.
γλεανν, a glen	„	γλεαννα	„	γλεαννται.
σεδ, music	„	σεδιτ	„	σεδιτται.
ρεδ, a sail	„	ρεδιτ	„	ρεδιτται.
υβαλλ, an apple	„	υβαλλιτ	„	υβλαι.
λεαβαρ, a book	„	λεαβαριτ	„	λεαβαρται.

Second Declension.

(a) The nouns of this declension are, with very few exceptions, feminine. The genitive singular is formed by adding *e*, which is sometimes called *the slender increase*, to the nominative singular. The dative singular is got by dropping the final *e* of the genitive, so that the final consonant of this case will be always slender. The nominative plural ends in *α* or *e* according as the characteristic vowel is broad or slender. Ex. *υροζ*, a shoe, *ρυιτ*, an eye.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	<i>υροζ</i> , a shoe.	<i>υροζα</i> , shoes.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>υροζε</i> , of a shoe.	<i>υροζε</i> , of shoes.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>υροζ</i> , a shoe.	<i>υροζα</i> , shoes.
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>α υροζ!</i> O shoe!	<i>α υροζα!</i> O shoes!

* *ρσευτ* is used for *tidings*; it is sometimes written *ρσειτα*, and then means *word* or *message*. *ζο σε 'n ρσειτ αζατ?* What news? *Κυρι ρσειτα ευριζε.* Send him word.

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

N.B.—Nouns declined like ἄρτος and ῥύτ are for the most part monosyllabic words.

Examples for Declension.

ποῦ, a foot.	ἄνευ (<i>gen.</i> ἄνευ), a lie.
λίθος, a stone.	κίον (<i>g.</i> κίον), a comb.
πέρας, a festival.	αἴνα (<i>g.</i> αἴνα), a hen.
χάμη, a hand.	ὄρος (<i>g.</i> ὄρος) a mountain peak.
κάλυξ, chalk.	τρίχες (<i>g.</i> τριχέων), hair.
ὄφθαλμος, a kiss.	πέτρα (<i>g.</i> πέτρα), a crag.
μύς, a pig.	ἀσπίς (<i>g.</i> ἀσπίς), a shield.
κρίνον, a gibbet.	ἥλιος (<i>g.</i> ἡλίος), the sun.
σταυρός, a cross.	λοῦτρον (<i>g.</i> λείτρον), plunder.
ὅτιον, an ear.	ὀργή (<i>g.</i> ὀργή), anger.
ὄπιον, a cheek.	ῥίον (<i>g.</i> ῥίον), a knife.
ἐκκλησία, a church.	κλάδος (<i>g.</i> κλάδος), a branch.
ὄψις, a face.	ῥάγος, a spark, a thunderbolt.
ἄνεμος, wind	κόκκος, a cuckoo, a ringlet.
νεῖμα, poison.	οὐρανός (<i>g.</i> οὐρανός), heaven.
ὄστρον or ὄστρον, an egg.	οἶκος (<i>g.</i> οἶκος), a house (<i>m.</i>)

(b) Many nouns of this declension are irregular in the nominative plural. When the nom. pl. ends in ἄρα or ἄνα the gen. pl. is got by dropping the final Δ. When the nom. pl. ends in τε or ι the gen. pl. is usually the same.

φῆρ, a festival.	plural	φῆρεῖνα.
κύρ, a cause.	„	κύρεῖνα.
λίθ, an herb, a weed	„	λίθεῖνα.
σῆμ, a step.	„	σῆμεῖνα.
σῆμας, a rock	„	σῆμασεῖνα.
σῆμας, a crag.	„	σῆμασεῖνα.
παιτήρ, a prayer.	„	παιτηρεῖνα.
κρᾶσθ, a branch.	„	κρᾶσεῖνα.
αἶθ, an egg.	„	αἶθεῖνα.
ὄβαιρ, work	„	ὄβηρεῖνα.
λίτερ, a letter.	„	λίτηρεῖνα.
νῆσαν, a daughter.	„	νῆσεῖνα.
ὄνομα, a name.	„	ὄνομασεῖνα.
ῥᾶτ, a rod.	„	ῥᾶτασεῖνα.*
ἀίτ, a place.	„	ἀίτεῖνα, ἀίτι.
πίσην, a penny.	„	πίσηνεῖνα, πῆνη*
εἰς, an age.	„	εἰσεῖνα.
πᾶν, a pain or pang.	„	πᾶνεῖνα.
πέριτ, an eel-shaped monster.	„	πέριτι.

(c.) Diminutives in ος, as a general rule, have ῖ in the plural, and, in accordance with the rule “καὸς τε καὸι,” must be written αῖ.

κουτεος, a lob-worm.	plural	κουτεοσαῖ
μῖοιτος, a midge.	„	μῖοιτοσαῖ.
κουτεος, a fly, a gnat.	„	κουτεοσαῖ.
εἰρος, a weasel.	„	εἰροσαῖ.
πέριτεος, a worm.	„	πέριτεοσαῖ.

* Gen. pl. ῥᾶταεῖ, but sometimes ῥᾶτ, as in Ὀδῆμας ἡ ῥᾶτ, Palm Sunday; πῆνηεῖνα refers to number, πῆνη to amount.

βεακος, a bee.	<i>plural</i>	βεακοςαι.
σταιρεος, a wag-tail.	„	σταιρεοςαι.
λαρος, a light, a match.	„	λαροςαι.
ρρανος, a spoon.	„	ρρανοςαι.
λυκος, a rat.	„	λυκοςαι.
δαβος, a doll.	„	δαβοςαι.
ρριθρεος, a robin	„	ρριθρεοςαι.
ρουννεος, a window.	„	ρουννεοςαι.
ρριονος, a gooseberry.	„	ρριονοςαι.

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

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

<i>N. A.</i>	<i>ελαρραε</i> , a harp.	<i>ελαρραεα</i> , harps.
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>ελαρραξε</i> , of a harp.	<i>ελαρραε</i> , of harps.
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>ελαρραξ</i> , a harp.	<i>ελαρραεα</i> , harps.
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>α ελαρραε!</i> O harp!	<i>α ελαρραεα!</i> O harps!

Examples for Declension.

στορραε, a girl.	κοτραε, a heifer, stirk.
οιηραε, a hussy.	βεαριαε, a heifer.
καυτεαε, an old woman.	ζεαταε, a moon.
βλαταε, buttermilk.	ρειρραε, a plough.
αιτεαναε, furze.	βαρραε, tow.

c

Third Declension.

(a) The third declension comprises (1) personal nouns in οἱη; (2) abstract nouns in ἀέτ, and others expressing a singular idea; (3) verbal nouns in ἀθ. The genitive singular takes the broad increase, α. Example, μαλλᾶέτ, a curse.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	μαλλᾶέτ, a curse.	μαλλᾶέται, curses.
<i>Gen.</i>	μαλλᾶέτα, of a curse.	μαλλᾶέτ, of curses.
<i>Dat.</i>	μαλλᾶέτ, a curse.	μαλλᾶέται, curses.
<i>Voc.</i>	ἄ μαλλᾶέτ! O curse!	ἄ μαλλᾶέται! O curses!

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

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	σεόδοιη, a mus.	σεόδοιῖ, musicians.
<i>Gen.</i>	σεόδοια, of a mus.	σεόδοιη, of musicians.
<i>Dat.</i>	σεόδοιη, a mus.	σεόδοιῖ, musicians.
<i>Voc.</i>	ἄ σεόδοιη! O mus.!	ἄ σεόδοιῖ! O musicians!

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

Examples.

ρρεαλασοιη, a mower.	πατρηαδτ, laziness.
κριοδασοιη, a hangman.	τοδναδτ, boldness.
μουλτεοιη, a miller.	λατορηαδτ, strength.
βυιητεοιη, a butcher.	βοδταδτ, poverty.
ρηεουλτοιη, a story-teller.	ιαρηδαρηαδτ, fishing.
κριτυηγεοιη, a creator.	ταδιηηηαδτ, tailoring.
πατρηοιη, an idler.	κριονηαδτ, wisdom.
τορηροιη, a porter.	βεανηαδτ, a blessing.
βυαδαη, a boy.	κεαη, a trick.
αητοιη, an altar.	καδτ, a battle, temptation.
τοη, the will.	ορηυδτ, dew.
ρηη (g. ροηα), blood.	ρηαδτ, luck, prosperity.

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

NOM. SING.	GEN. SING.	NOM. PL.
καηαιη, a city.	καηηαδ	καηηαδα.
λαηαιη, a flame	λαηηαδ.	λαηηαδα.
αηαιη, a father.	αηαιη.	αηηηηαδα.
μηαηαιη, a mother.	μηαηαιη.	μηαιηηηαδα.
βρηαηαιη, a confrere.	βρηαηαιη.	βρηαιηηηαδα.
οηαιηηαιη, a brother.	οηαιηηαηαιη.	οηαιηηαηαιαδα.
οηηηδρηηαιη, a sister.	οηηηδρηηαιηαιη.	οηηηδρηηαιηαδα.*
βηοη, a spit.	βηαηηαιη.	βηαηηαιηαιη.
κηοηδτ or κηηδτ, a shower.	κηαηηαδ.	κηαηηαδα.
μηδονη, turf.	μηδονηαιη.	μηδονηαιηαιη.

* Usually syncopated : οηηηδρηηαδα.

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

βυαταῦ, beating	<i>gen.</i> βυαίτε.
ἠολαῦ, praise.	„ ἠολα.
βεαννουζαῦ, a blessing	„ βεαννουζτε.

Fourth Declension.

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

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

Ex., ριοβαίη, a piper.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	ριοβαίη, a piper.	ριοβαίη, pipers.
<i>Gen.</i>	ριοβαίη, of a piper.	ριοβαίη, of pipers.
<i>Dat.</i>	ριοβαίη, a piper.	ριοβαίη, pipers.
<i>Voc.</i>	ὦ ριοβαίη! O piper!	ὦ ριοβαίη! O pipers!

Ex., κυνίν, a rabbit.

<i>N. A.</i>	κυνίν, a rabbit.	κυνίνι, rabbits.
<i>Gen.</i>	κυνίν, of a rabbit.	κυνίν, of rabbits.
<i>Dat.</i>	κυνίν, a rabbit.	κυνίνι, rabbits.
<i>Voc.</i>	ὦ κυνίν! O rabbit!	ὦ κυνίνι! O rabbits!

Further Examples.

máta, a bag.	crúircín, a jar.
rcála, a dish.	coirín, a little foot.
fáinne, a ring.	tuirnín, a spade handle.
túirne, a spinning-wheel.	caitín, a girl.
fáilte, a welcome.	róirn, a little rose.
rairge, a sea.	pirín, a kitten.
fírinne, truth.	muirnín, a darling.
cuirte, a vein, pulse	ruibín, a ribbon.
oíche, a night.	róigín, a little kiss.
páirce, a child.	aitín, a brood.
rógaire, a rogue.	rairín, a rosary beads.
Máire, Mary.	caitlín, Cathleen.
áirna, a sloe.	puinte, a point (of argument).
teine, fire.	punta, a pound.
baile, a town.	<i>gen.</i> teinead. <i>pl.</i> teinte.
tuine, a person.	„ baile „ baite.
	„ tuine „ tadin.

Fifth Declension.

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

SINGULAR.

N. A. pearra, a person.*Gen.* pearran, of a person.*Dat.* pearrain, a person.*Voc.* á pearra! O person!

PLURAL.

pearrana, persons.

pearran, of persons.

pearrana, persons.

á pearrana! O persons!

Examples.

Αλβα, Scotland.	κομυρρα, a neighbour. . . .
Μυρνα, Munster.	ζοβα, a smith.
λυρρα, a shin.	ιουρρα, a claw, a nail.
υρρα, a prop.	υιτε, an elbow.
ζυατα, a shoulder.	τεορρα, a boundary.

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

Irregular Nouns.

Θία, God, a god.

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

Θεαν, a woman.

<i>N. A.</i>	θεαν.	μνά.
<i>Gen.</i>	μνά.	βαν.
<i>Dat.</i>	θεαν, μνάσι.	μνά.
<i>Voc.</i>	Α θεαν!	Α μνά!

Κάρα, a friend.

<i>N. A.</i>	κάρα.	κάριθε.
<i>Gen.</i>	κάρα, κάρατο.	κάρα
<i>Dat.</i>	κάρα, κάρατο.	κάριθε.
<i>Voc.</i>	Α κάρα, Α κάρατο!	Α κάριθε!

Cú, a hound.

SINGULAR.

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

PLURAL.

coin.
con, cú.
coin.
á coin!

Caoira, a sheep.

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

caoiriú.
caoiriá
caoiriú.
á caoiriú!

ḡé, a goose.

<i>N. A.</i>	ḡé.
<i>Gen.</i>	ḡé, ḡéiró.
<i>Dat.</i>	ḡé.
<i>Voc.</i>	á ḡé!

ḡéáca.
ḡéáca.
ḡéáca.
á ḡéáca!

lac, a duck.

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

lacáin.
lacán.
lacáin.
á lacáin!

bó, a cow.

<i>N. A.</i>	bó.
<i>Gen.</i>	bó.
<i>Dat.</i>	bó, buin.
<i>Voc.</i>	á bó!

ba, bač.
bó.
ba.
á ba!

Teac, a house (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	teac.
<i>Gen.</i>	tighe, tig.
<i>Dat.</i>	tig, teac.
<i>Voc.</i>	á teac!

tigte.
tigte, teac.
tigte.
á tigte!

SUIAB, a mountain (*m.*)

SINGULAR.

<i>N. A.</i>	ρλιαβ.
<i>Gen.</i>	ρλείβε.
<i>Dat.</i>	ρλιαβ.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά ρλιαβ!

PLURAL.

ρλείβτε.
ρλείβτε.
ρλείβτε.
ά ρλείβτε!

Λά, a day (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	λά.
<i>Gen.</i>	λαε.
<i>Dat.</i>	λά.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά λά!

λαετε.
λαετε.
λαετε.
ά λαετε!

Μή, a month (*f.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	μή
<i>Gen.</i>	μίορα.
<i>Dat.</i>	μή.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά μή!

μίορα.
μίορ.
μίορα.
ά μίορα!

Βλιαθόαιη, a year (*f.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	βλιαθόαιη.
<i>Gen.</i>	βλιαθόηα.
<i>Dat.</i>	βλιαθόαιη
<i>Voc.</i>	ά βλιαθόαιη!

βλιαθόανταί, βλιαθόηα*
βλιαθόαν.
βλιαθόανταί.
ά βλιαθόανταί!

Ceó, fog (*m.*)

<i>N. A.</i>	ceó.
<i>Gen.</i>	ceóιξ.
<i>Dat.</i>	ceó.
<i>Voc.</i>	ά ceó!

ceóca.
ceó.
ceóca.
ά ceóca!

* βλιαθόηα means a definite period of time, as cúιξ βλιαθόηα, five years. βλιαθόανταί=an indefinite period, as τά να βλιαθόανταί άξ ουλ έαρη, the years are passing.

Declension of Adjectives.

In Irish, all adjectives having a consonantal ending are declined; those ending in a vowel are indeclinable, being the same in all cases.

The gender of Irish adjectives is known by the company they keep. For example, *mór* is masculine when it goes with a masculine noun, but it is feminine when it goes with a feminine noun. There are three declensions of adjectives.

First Declension.

This declension comprises masculine adjectives. They are declined exactly like nouns of the first declension, except that they have *á* or *e* for the plural. Examples, *bán*, white; *ḡantaḡ*, greedy; *binn*, melodious.

Strange distinction!

SINGULARS.

N. A. *bán*, *ḡantaḡ*, *binn*.

Gen. *báin*, *ḡantaḡe*, *binn**

Dat. *báin*, *ḡantaḡe*, *binn*.

Voc. *báin*, *ḡantaḡe*, *binn*.

PLURALS.

bána, *ḡantaḡa*, *binne*.

bán, *ḡantaḡ*, *binn*.

bána, *ḡantaḡa*, *binne*.

bána, *ḡantaḡa*, *binne*.

Second Declension.

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

SINGULARS.

N. A. *bán*, *ḡantaḡ*, *binn*.

Gen. *báine*, *ḡantaḡe*, *binne*.

Dat. *báin*, *ḡantaḡe*, *binn*.

Voc. *báin*, *ḡantaḡe*, *binn*.

PLURALS.

bána, *ḡantaḡa*, *binne*

bán, *ḡantaḡ*, *binn*.

bána, *ḡantaḡa*, *binne* ?

bána, *ḡantaḡa*, *binne*

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

Third Declension.

This declension comprises all adjectives in *αματ*. They are declined like nouns of the Third Declension. Example, *ρεαμαατ*, manly.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. & A.</i>	<i>ρεαμαατ.</i>	<i>ρεαμαατα.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>ρεαμαατα.</i>	<i>ρεαμααατ.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>ρεαμααατ.</i>	<i>ρεαμαατα.</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>ρεαμααατ.</i>	<i>ρεαμαατα.</i>

N.B.—These forms are used for mas. and fem. nouns.

The Article, Adjective, and Noun Declined.

(a) The article aspirates the initial of a feminine noun in the nominative, accusative, and dative singular. It aspirates the initial of a masculine noun in the genitive and dative singular. If there is an adjective with the noun, its initial will be aspirated in these cases, even when the article is not used. In the genitive plural, the initials of noun and adjective are eclipsed.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i>	<i>αη βάτ βάν *</i>	<i>να βάιτ βάνα.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>αη βάιτ βάιν.</i>	<i>να η-βάτ η-βάν.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>αιη αη βάτ βάν.</i>	<i>αις να βάιτ βάνα.</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>α βάιτ βάιν !</i>	<i>α βάτα βάνα !</i>

* The white boat.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> αν θρόγ βάν *	να θρόγα βάνα.
<i>Gen.</i> να θρόγε βάινε.	να m-θρόγ m-βάν.
<i>Dat.</i> αρ αν θρόγ βάν.	αρι να θρόγα βάνα.
<i>Voc.</i> α θρόγ βάν !	α θρόγα βάνα !
<i>N. A.</i> αν βάο μίν †	να βάο μίνε.
<i>Gen.</i> αν βάο μίν.	να m-βάο μίν.
<i>Dat.</i> ανηρ αν βάο μίν.	λειρ να βάο μίνε.
<i>Voc.</i> α βάο μίν !	α βάοα μίνε !
<i>N. A.</i> αν θρόγ μίν ‡	να θρόγα μίνε.
<i>Gen.</i> να θρόγε μίνε.	να m-θρόγ μίν.
<i>Dat.</i> ανηρ αν θρόγ μίν.	αρι να θρόγα μίνε.
<i>Voc.</i> α θρόγ μίν !	α θρόγα μίνε !

FIRST EXCEPTION : Initial τ and ϑ are not aspirated by the article, but a feminine adjective may have its initial aspirated in the usual way ; as, αν τρη τρημ or αν τρη τρημ (*f*).

SECOND EXCEPTION : Nouns beginning with ρ, instead of being aspirated, are eclipsed in the singular number. *S* is *never eclipsed* anywhere else. Initial ρ of adjectives is *aspirated* in the usual way.

THIRD EXCEPTION : Words beginning with ρβ, ρc, ρο, ρς, ρm, ρp, or ρτ can neither be eclipsed nor aspirated.

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

Examples.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> αν τειρὸ τινὴ *	να τειρῶ τινε.
<i>Gen.</i> αν τειρῶ τιν.	να ὁ-τειρῶ ὁ-τιν.
<i>Dat.</i> αἱρ αν τειρὸ τιν.	αἶγ να τειρῶ τινε.
<i>Voc.</i> α τειρῶ τιν!	α ἔαρῶα τινε !
<i>N. A.</i> αν τ-πλατ ράρτα †	να πλαταῶα ράρτα.
<i>Gen.</i> να ρλατε ράρτα.	να ρλαταῶ ράρτα.
<i>Dat.</i> αἱρ αν τ-πλατ ράρτα.	αἱρ να ρλαταῶα ράρτα
<i>Voc.</i> α ρλατ ράρτα !	α ρλαταῶα ράρτα !
<i>N. A.</i> αν ρζαῶαν ρζαλτα ‡	να ρζαῶαιν ρζαλτα.
<i>Gen.</i> αν ρζαῶαιν ρζαλτα.	να ρζαῶαν ρζαλτα.
<i>Dat.</i> αἱρ αν ρζαῶαν ρζαλτα.	αἱρ να ρζαῶαιν ρζαλτα.
<i>Voc.</i> α ρζαῶαιν ρζαλτα !	α ρζαῶανα ρζαλτα !

(b) *Masculine nouns* beginning with a vowel and declined with the article, prefix τ in the nominative and accusative singular ; and *all nouns, masculine and feminine*, beginning with a vowel take η after the article να, but the genitive plural requires n.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>N. A.</i> αν τ-αρᾶν ὕρ §	να η-αρᾶιν ὕρᾶ.
<i>Gen.</i> αν αρᾶιν ὕρ.	να η-αρᾶν ὕρ.
<i>Dat.</i> αἱρ αν αρᾶν ὕρ.	αἱρ να η-αρᾶιν ὕρᾶ.
<i>Voc.</i> ᾶ αρᾶιν ὕρ !	α αρᾶνα ὕρᾶ !

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

SINGULAR.

N. A. an uib úr **Gen.* na h-uibe úire.*Dat.* anuir an uib úir.*Voc.* á uib úir!

PLURAL.

na h-uibeada úra.

na h-uibeal úir.

air na h-uibeada úra.

á uibeada úra!

N.B.—(1) The dative case, as we have seen, is governed by a preposition. (2) In the vocative case the adjective is aspirated in the singular only. (3) Adjectives beginning with a vowel and declined as above are not influenced in any way. (4) Nouns and adjectives beginning with *t*, *n*, or *r*, are never influenced.

To be Declined.

an fear beag,	the little man.
an bean beag,	the little woman.
an rúcaic laóac,	the winsome youth.
an gúiric laóac,	the winsome girl.
an t-eallaic bhradaic,	the thievish cattle.
an bó eolaic,	the knowing cow.
an ríocan bán,	the white frost.
an salann mín,	the fine salt.
an lám láiríir,	the strong hand.
an ríuibín rígin,	the tough ribbon.
an ním nímneac	the painful poison.
an hatá deiraic,	the gaudy hat.
an bealaic-móir,	the road, the highway.
an baile-móir,	the town.

* The fresh egg.

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

maia-leatair = a leathern bag.

maia leatair = a bagful of leather.

maia an leatair = the bag for holding leather.

Special Use of the Article.

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

(10) To mark profession :

Father O'Donnell	Δη πατρις Δ Οομναιλλ.
Dr. Kelly.	Δη Οοκτωρη Δ Σελλαις.

(11) To express connection :

Μάριε Δη Ξλεαυνα	Mary from the Glen.
Σεαζαν Δη τάλιυρη	The tailor's John

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

(12) To express *some* or *any* : Μη φυτ Δη εαπαλλ
αζαμ = I have not any horses. [See *some* or *any*].

Syncoated Words.

When the characteristic element of a word is short, the preceding consonant attracts a final *l*, *n*, *r*, or *ρ*, when a new syllable beginning with a vowel is added; thus, telescoping, so to speak, the characteristic vowel or vowels.

Examples.

λαρη + αα	= λαρηαα	= λαρ--αα	= λαρηα.
καρη + αα	= καρηαα	= καρ--αα	= καραα.
ραρη + αα	= ραρηαα	= ραρ--αα	= ραρηαα.
λαρη + αε	= λαρηαε	= λαρ--αε	= λαρηαε.
οβαρη + ε	= οβαρηε	= οβ--ρηε	= οβρηε.
υμάλ + α	= υμάλα	= υμ--λα	= υμλα.

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

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
		First Idea.
<i>N. & A.</i>	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>obairmáca fearmáilá.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>obaire fearmáilá</i>	<i>obairmáca fearmáil.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>obairmáca fearmáilá.</i>
		Second Idea.
	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>ob--máca fearmá--lá.</i>
	<i>ob--re fearmá--lá</i>	<i>ob--máca fearmáil.</i>
	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>ob--máca fearmá--lá.</i>
		Syncopated.
	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>oibreáca* fearmáilá.</i>
	<i>oibre fearmáilá</i>	<i>oibreáca fearmáil.</i>
	<i>obair fearmáil</i>	<i>oibreáca fearmáilá</i>

Family Names.

(a) The prefix "O" is rendered in Irish by *Δ*, the shortened form of *ua*, a descendant. It has a feminine form *ní*, which causes aspiration. Both forms are followed by the genitive case. *Δ* may also be written *O*, especially in translating "O'Neill," the feminine form being the same, *ní*.

James O'Donnell	<i>Séamur Δ Úóinnáil.</i>
Mary O'Donnell	<i>máire ní Úóinnáil.</i>
John O'Neill	<i>Seágan O néil.</i>
Nora O'Neill	<i>noira ní néil.</i>
Patrick O'Doherty	<i>paotrúic Δ Úóáirtáil.</i>
Una O'Doherty	<i>una ní Úóáirtáil.</i>

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

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

James O'Donnell's son	mac Séamus uí Ódóinnáil.
Mary O'Donnell's son	mac Máire ní Ódóinnáil.
John O'Neill's son	mac Seádaín uí Néill.

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

Charles MacHugh	Séarthur ac Doró.
Sarah MacHugh	Soréa níc Doró.
George MacSweeney	Seóirra ac Suidne.
Brigid MacSweeney	Briúgíro níc Suidne.
Hugh MacSweeney's son	mac Doró míc Suidne.

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

James Kelly	Séamus a Ceallaiú.
Brigid Kelly	Briúgíro ní Ceallaiú.
Daniel Boyle	Ódóinnáil a Óaozáil.
Annie Boyle	Anna ní Óaozáil.

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

Cormac Ward	Cormac aca Óáirto.*
Mary Ward	Máire níoca Óáirto.
Denis MacNulty	Óonncaó mac an Uilteaiú.
Nora MacNulty	Nóra níc an Uilteaiú.

(f) In using the surname only, we use the article with the nominative case, taking care to make the

* The article aspirates here, as it is really a contracted genitive. **mac an Óáirto** means the son of the bard, but as a surname we now say **aca Óáirto**. Craig = **a Crieas**, and not **a Crieúe**.

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

O'Doherty is coming	Τά αν Όδοήρταδ άς τεαδτ.
Boyle is coming	Τά αν Βαοζάλλαδ άς τεαδτ.
O'Donnell is coming	Τά αν Όάλλαδ άς τεαδτ.
Craig is coming	Τά αν Κρηαζαδ άς τεαδτ.
MacNulty is coming	Τά μακ αν υλταϊζ άς τεαδτ.
MacNeill is coming	Τά μακ νείλλ άς τεαδτ.
MacSweeney is coming	Τά μακ Σουϊβνε άς τεαδτ.

Governing Power of Nouns.

(a) In Irish a noun can govern another noun in the genitive case, and the governed noun comes last. A definite noun can be governed by a definite noun only, and in discharging this function the governing noun never takes the article.

The head of the horse	κεαλλ αν άραϊλλ.
The sand of the sea	ζαμμιν να φαρηζε.
The taste of the bread	βλαρ αν αραιμ.
The smell of the fish	βολαδ αν έιρζ.
The halter of the horse	αδάρταρ αν άραϊλλ.
The foot of the hen	κορ να κυρρε.
The son of the king	μακ αν ρι.

(b) A definite noun can also govern an indefinite noun in the genitive case, and if the genitive expresses quality, connection or origin, the governing noun never takes the article.

It has the taste of bread	Τά βλαρ αραιμ ανρ.
It has the smell of fish	Τα βολαδ έιρζ ανρ.
The halter of a horse	Αδάρταρ αραϊλλ.
The foot of a hen	Κορ κυρρε.
The son of a king	μακ ρι.

(c) When the indefinite genitive denotes a part of something, or the material of which something is

made, the governing definite noun will have the article expressed.

The bite of bread	Ἀν ζῆεῖν ἄρτων.
The draught of wine	Ἀν ὄσοσ ρίονα.
The bag of meal	Ἀν μάλα μῖνε.
The streak of light	Ἀν ῥαίος ῥοταίρ.
The spark of lightning	Ἀν ῥπλανσ ροιλλρε.
The house of gold	Ἀν τεαδ ὀρη.
The bag (made) of leather	Ἀν μάλα λεαταίρ.

(d) The use to which a thing is put, or the place where a thing is found or produced is expressed by a definite genitive.

μάλα ἄν λεαταίρ	The bag for holding leather.
μάλα να μῖνε	The bag for meal, the meal bag.
τεαδ ἄν ὀρη	The house for storing gold.
σρηαδ ἄν ἀρηζο	The hill where silver is got.
σνος ἄν ἄρη	The hill where slaughter occurred.
λοδ ἄν τ-ροταίρ	The light-reflecting lake.
κλαυδαῖν ἄν τ-ροταίρ	The flashing sword.

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

A piece of bread	ζοτα ἄρτων.
A cup of water	συρα υρηζε.
A drink of milk	ὄσοδ βαῖννε.
A house of gold	τεαδ ὀρη.
A bag of flour	μάλα πλῦρη.

(f) The English possessive case is rendered by the genitive, the initial of which must be aspirated if it is a proper name.*

The king's sister's son's shoe	ὄροζ τοκ τορηδρῖνμα ἄν ρί.
Mary's sister's son's shoe	ὄροζ τοκ τορηδρῖνμα ἡάρη.

* EXCEPT: μακ ὄε, ρεῖτε μῖρη, ρεῖτε πάορηκ, ρεῖτε εδῖν, ρεῖτε ρεαοαρη, &c. Like family names after μακ and υα, there is no aspiration after ρεῖτε, a feast or festival.

N.B.—Mary's sister's son's shoe = The shoe of the son of the sister of Mary. It is plain, therefore, that the article cannot be used here with *bhog*, *míc* and *ceirbhíur*, each being a governing noun.

Compound Words.

(a) When we form a compound word in Irish the initial of the second part will be aspirated, the first part performing the function of a prefix or adjective.*

Cúl-éaint	Back-talk, back-biting.
Caoir-féoil	Sheep-flesh, mutton.
Muic-féoil	Pig-flesh, bacon.
Fíor-éadan	Steadfast, faithful.
Fíor-óilí	Sincere.

(b) When the first part does not perform the function of an adjective or prefix the second part is usually in the genitive case, and is often equivalent to an adjective or affix. Hence the aspiration of the second part will depend on the gender of the first part.

an fear-ceoil	The musician.
an fíor-éoil	Of the musician.
an fear-míre	The madman.
an fíor-míre	Of the madman.
an éiríde-móna	The turf-stack.
na cnuicé-móna	Of the turf-stack.
an bó-éinne	The milch cow.
na bó-éinne	Of the milch cow.
Sían-róca	A penknife.
airgead-róca	Pocket money.

* There are some exceptions which should be committed to memory. Here are a few:—*Ceann-tír*, a cape; *bean-tia*, a goddess; *bean-tighearna*, a lady; *fean-éinne*, an old man; *éadan-róca*, long-lived, &c.

N.B.—These compounds may or may not be joined by a hyphen. In either case *they convey but one idea*, and must, therefore, be looked upon as *single words*; otherwise the article could not be used with them, as above.

The student must not suppose that every genitive that comes after a noun counts as an adjective. It is only when the genitive is *a part of the compound* that it is equivalent to an adjective.

Comparison of Adjectives.

(a) The comparative of superiority and inferiority is formed by putting *νίορ* before the genitive singular feminine of the positive.

A whiter cat	κατ νίορ βάινε.*
He is blacker than Hugh	τά ρε νίορ ουιβε να Δουό.
He was blacker than Hugh	θί ρε νίορ ουιβε να Δουό.

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

Una is darker than Mary	ιρ ουιβε υνα να μάιρε.
Una was darker than Mary	ουό ουιβε υνα να μάιρε.
She is a darker girl than Una	ιρ ουιβε αν καιλίν ί να υνα.
She was a darker girl than Una	ουό ουιβε αν καιλίν ί να υνα.
Nora is a darker girl.	ιρ καιλίν νίορ ουιβε νόρα.

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

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

Una was darker than Mary (is)	Óí una níor tuiòe na máire.
Una was darker than Mary (was)	Óí una ní ba tuiòe na máire.
Una was younger than Mary (was)	Óí una ní b' óige na máire.

 I never drank sweeter wine than that =

- (1) { I never drank sweeter wine than that (is).
níor ól me ariam fion níor míre na rin.
- (2) { I never drank sweeter wine than that (was).
níor ól me ariam fion ba míre na rin.
- (3) { I never drank wine which was sweeter than that.
1. níor ól me ariam fion a óí níor míre na rin.
2. níor ól me ariam fion a óí ní ba míre na rin.
3. níor ól me ariam fion ba* míre na rin.

(d) The comparative of equality is formed by putting com or co before the positive and te after it. When there is a second verb te becomes a₃ur or a'p.

I am as big as Mary	Tá me co móp te máire.
I am as big as you	Tá me co móp teac-ra.
I am as big as I was	Tá me co móp a'p óí me.

The Superlative.

(a) In English we say "the blackest horse," but in Irish we say "the horse *which is* blackest" or "the horse *which was* blackest." In like manner, "You are the fairest" is "You are *who are* fairest," and "You were the fairest" is "You were *who were* fairest." The form of the adjective is the same as in

* This is not the comparative sign. ba here discharges the same function as "óí" in the preceding example, the relative a being understood.

the comparative. Always omit the relative, as, *the blackest coal* = $\alpha\eta \zeta\upsilon\alpha\lambda (\Delta) \text{ } \eta\text{ } \tau\upsilon\iota\beta\epsilon$ = $\alpha\eta \zeta\upsilon\alpha\lambda \text{ } \eta\text{ } \tau\upsilon\iota\beta\epsilon$.

The blackest horse (present)	$\alpha\eta \zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta\alpha\eta \text{ } \eta\text{ } \tau\upsilon\iota\beta\epsilon$.
The blackest horse (past)	$\alpha\eta \zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta\alpha\eta \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \tau\upsilon\iota\beta\epsilon$
You are the fairest	$\eta\text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \eta\text{ } \upsilon\eta\epsilon$.
You were the fairest	$\theta\upsilon\omicron \text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \upsilon\eta\epsilon$
You are the fairest girl	$\eta\text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \kappa\alpha\iota\lambda\acute{\iota}\eta \text{ } \eta\text{ } \upsilon\eta\epsilon$
You were the fairest girl	$\theta\upsilon\omicron \text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \kappa\alpha\iota\lambda\acute{\iota}\eta \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \upsilon\eta\epsilon$.

(b) When the superlative sign is $\beta\alpha$ it aspirates, except in the case of υ and τ , and before a vowel sound it usually becomes $\Delta\beta$.

He was the biggest man	$\theta\upsilon\omicron \acute{\epsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \acute{\mu}\acute{o}$.
He was the fleetest man	$\theta\upsilon\omicron \acute{\epsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \zeta\upsilon\eta\tau\epsilon$.
He was the best man	$\theta\upsilon\omicron \acute{\epsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \Delta\beta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\eta\eta$.
He was the youngest man	$\theta\upsilon\omicron \acute{\epsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \Delta\beta \text{ } \acute{o}\eta\epsilon$

(c) As principal verbs, $\eta\text{ } \tau\upsilon$ and $\theta\upsilon\omicron$ (or $\beta\alpha$) express simple present and simple past time respectively, and as there are no other forms of this verb in modern use, the other tenses are expressed by the aid of a relative $\tau\alpha$ clause.

You are wont to be the smartest man in the country.

You will be the smartest man in the country.

You used to be the smartest man in the country.

You would be the smartest man in the country.

$\eta\text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \eta\text{ } \zeta\upsilon\eta\tau\epsilon \text{ } \Delta \text{ } \theta\acute{\iota}\omicron\epsilon\alpha\text{ } \rho\alpha\eta \text{ } \tau\acute{\eta}\eta$.

$\eta\text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \eta\text{ } \zeta\upsilon\eta\tau\epsilon \text{ } \Delta \text{ } \theta\acute{\epsilon}\eta\omicron\epsilon\alpha\text{ } \rho\alpha\eta \text{ } \tau\acute{\eta}\eta$.

$\theta\upsilon\omicron \text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \zeta\upsilon\eta\tau\epsilon \text{ } \Delta \text{ } \theta\acute{\iota}\omicron\epsilon\alpha\acute{o} \text{ } \rho\alpha\eta \text{ } \tau\acute{\eta}\eta$.

$\theta\upsilon\omicron \text{ } \tau\acute{\upsilon} \text{ } \alpha\eta \text{ } \rho\epsilon\alpha\eta \text{ } \beta\alpha \text{ } \zeta\upsilon\eta\tau\epsilon \text{ } \Delta \text{ } \theta\acute{\epsilon}\eta\omicron\epsilon\alpha\acute{o} \text{ } \rho\alpha\eta \text{ } \tau\acute{\eta}\eta$.

N.B.—In comparing adjectives we use $\acute{\eta}\iota\omicron\eta$ and $\eta\text{ } \tau\upsilon$ as signs of the comparative and superlative, as, $\beta\alpha\eta$, $\acute{\eta}\iota\omicron\eta \text{ } \beta\acute{\alpha}\eta\eta$, $\eta\text{ } \beta\acute{\alpha}\eta\eta$, white, whiter, whitest.

Irregular Comparison.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
μόρη, big, great	νίορ μό	ιρ μό.
βεάς, small	νίορ λύξ	ιρ λύξ.
μαίτ, good	μιορ ρεάρη	ιρ ρεάρη.
οτε, bad	νίορ μεαρη	ιρ μεαρη.
ραδα, long	νίορ ραιθε	ιρ ραιθε.
τείτ, hot, warm	νίορ τεό	ιρ τεό.
ρρηρη, easy	νίορ ρρη	ιρ ρρη.
σιννε, sure	νίορ σιννεξε	ιρ σιννεξε.
μινικ, often	νίορ μιονκα	ιρ μιονκα.
ζαρηα, smart, clever	νίορ ζυρητε	ιρ ζυρητε.
ζεαρη } short.	νίορ ζιορηα	ιρ ζιορηα.
ζαιρησ }		

Position of Adjectives.

Adjectives are placed after the nouns they qualify, as τεάδ μορη, a big house. Όποδ, bad, and ρεαν, old, and all the simple numerals stand before their nouns. When ζεαρη stands after its noun it means *short*, but when it stands before the noun it means *medium-sized*. Ριορη, true, often discharges the function of a prefix; it then has a different meaning, as, ριορη-υρηξε, real-water, *i.e.*, spring-water. Sometimes it acts as an intensive particle, as, ριορη-ξηάμμα, very ugly. Όεάξ, good (in a moral sense) always precedes its noun, and is really a prefix, as, οεάξ-ουινε, a morally good person.

☛ In poetry, monosyllabic adjectives often stand before the nouns they qualify, but this should not be imitated in prose.

Adjectives Referring Back.

When an adjective refers to a noun already spoken of, it must be accompanied by some such word as, *ceann*, a head, *tuine*, a person, *fear*, a man, *bean*, a woman, etc.

The biggest is black			
The eldest is a good girl			
Give me the reddest			
You have the best			

Agreement of Adjectives.

(a) Adjectives that immediately follow the nouns they qualify agree with them in number, gender, and case.

A big man and a small woman			
Big men and small women			

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

The cows are <i>big</i>			
The big cows are <i>black</i>			
He made the knives <i>sharp</i>			
He made the sharp knives			

☞ The adjective *oíoch* cannot stand alone as predicate. Hence it would be wrong to say *ta an bó oíoch*, the cow is bad.

(c) When an adjective qualifies two or more *indefinite* nouns, it agrees with the noun next it only. But if they are *definite* nothing strange occurs except that the article must be used with each noun in Irish :

A good man and woman			
A good woman and man			
The good man and woman			
The good woman and man			

(d) When an adjective stands before its noun it is invariable as to form, but it aspirates the initial of its noun, and is, itself, liable to be affected just as if it formed part of the noun :

O thou bad man !	Á úroç fear !
O ye bad men !	Á úroç feara !
The head of the old horse	Ceann an t-gean éarailt.

(e) The intensive particles an, ró, rár, fíor, úr, etc., are prefixed to adjectives, the latter being aspirated by them. Most of the monosyllabic adjectives already referred to, perform the same function to nouns.

Partitive Words.

NOTE :—A word is definite when it is preceded by the definite article, a possessive pronoun, a demonstrative pronoun, or a possessive case, as, *the cow, this cow, my cow, John's cow*. Phrases like *the full of a spoon, the full of a boat*, being equivalent to *a spoonful, a boatful*, are indefinite.

(a) A *noun* preceded by a *definite* word expressing fulness or part must be rendered in Irish by the genitive case.

<i>The full of a boat</i>	Lán báro.
<i>The full of the boat</i>	Lán an báro.
<i>The whole of the boat</i>	iomlan an báro.
<i>The half of this boat</i>	leat an báro ro.
<i>The third of the man's boat</i>	trían báro an fíir.

(b) A *definite noun* preceded by an *indefinite* word expressing fulness or part must be rendered by the dative with *oe*.

It is full of the bread	Τά ρέ λάν οε 'n ἀραν.
Plenty of the bread	πεαρτ οε 'n ἀραν.
Much of this bread	μοραν οε 'n ἀραν ρο.
Little of that bread	θεαζαν οε 'n ἀραν ριν.
Some of the bread	κυρο οε 'n ἀραν.
More of the bread	τυλλεαδ' οε 'n ἀραν.
A fair-share of the bread	κυρο μαίτ' οε 'n ἀραν.
The full of a boat of the bread	λάν βάρο οε 'n ἀραν.
A spoonful of the honey	λάν ρρανοιζε οε 'n ἴνι.

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

Plenty of bread	πεαρτ ἀραν or πεαρτ οε ἀραν.
Much bread	μοραν ἀραν ,, μοραν οε ἀραν.
Little bread	θεαζαν ἀραν ,, θεαζαν οε ἀραν.
Full of bread	λάν ἀραν ,, λάν οε ἀραν.

Numeral Adjectives.

CARDINALS.

1. Δον.
2. ὀά, ὀό.
3. τρι.
4. τετρε, τεταρι.
5. κύγ.
6. ρέ.
7. ρεατ.
8. οστ.
9. ναοι.
10. δειό.
11. δον-οεγ.
12. ὀδ-οεγ.
13. τρι-οεγ.
14. τεταρι-οεγ.

ORDINALS.

- 1st έουο.
- 2nd ὀαρα.
- 3rd τριμάο, τρεαρ.
- 4th τεταράο.
- 5th κύγεαο.
- 6th ρειρεαο, ρέμεαο.
- 7th ρεατταο.
- 8th οσταο.
- 9th ναομάο.
- 10th δειόεαο.
- 11th δοναο-οεγ.
- 12th ὀδμάο-οεγ.
- 13th τριμέαο-οεγ.
- 14th τεταράο-οεγ.

CARDINALS.

15. **κίς-θευς.**
 16. **ρέ-θευς.**
17. **ρεάκτ-θευς.**
 18. **οέτ-θευς.**
 19. **ναοι-θευς.**
 20. **ρίε.**
 21. **αον α'ρ ρίε.**
 22. **οδ α'ρ ρίε.**
 23. **τρι α'ρ ρίε.**
 24. **εατ αιη α'ρ ρίε.**
 25. **κίς α'ρ ρίε.**
 26. **ρέ α'ρ ρίε.**
 27. **ρεάκτ α'ρ ρίε.**
 28. **οέτ α'ρ ρίε.**
 29. **ναοι α'ρ ρίε.**
 30. **οειέ α'ρ ρίε.**
 31. **αον-θευς α'ρ ρίε.**
 40. **οά ρίεο.**
 50. **οειέ α'ρ οά ρίεο.**
 60. **τρι ρίεο.**
 70. **οειέ α'ρ τρι ρίεο.**
 80. **εειτρε ρίεο.**
 90. **οειέ α'ρ εειτρε
 ρίεο.**
100. **έεαο.**
 200. **οά έεαο.**
 300. **τρι έεαο.**


ORDINALS.

- 15th **κίςεαο-θευς.**
 16th **ρέιρεαο-θευς,
 ρέμεαο-θευς.**
- 17th **ρεάκταο-θευς.**
 18th **οέταο-θευς.**
 19th **ναομάο-θευς.**
 20th **ρίεαο.**
 21st **αοναο αιη ρίεο.***
 22nd **οδμάο αιη ρίεο.**
 23rd **τριμέαο αιη ρίεο.**
 24th **εατρηαο αιη ρίεο.**
 25th **κίςεαο αιη ρίεο.**
 26th **ρέμέαο αιη ρίεο.**
 27th **ρεάκταο αιη ρίεο.**
 28th **οέταο αιη ρίεο.**
 29th **ναομάο αιη ρίεο.**
 30th **οειέεαο αιη ρίεο.**
 31st **αοναο-θευς αιη ρίεο**
 40th **οά ρίεοεαο.**
 50th **οειέεαο αιη οά ρίεο.**
 60th **τρι ρίεοεαο.**
 70th **οειέεαο αιη τρι ρίεο**
 *80th **εειτρε ρίεοεαο.**
 90th **οειέεαο αιη εειτρε
 ρίεο.**
- 100th **έεαοαο.**
 200th **οά έεαοαο.**
 300th **τρι έεαοαο.**

* **Δσυρ ρίε** may also be used.

400. ceitpe céav.	400th ceitpe céavav.
500. cúis céav.	500th cúis céavav.
600. pé céav.	600th pé céavav.
700. peact ʒ-céav.	700th peact ʒ-céavav.
800. oct ʒ-céav.	800th oct ʒ-céavav.
900. naoi ʒ-céav.	900th naoi ʒ-céavav.
1000. veic ʒ-céav; míle.	1000th mílevav.

N.B.—*peitpe*, *céav*, and *míle* are declined: *peitpe*, gen. *peitpeav*, dat. *peitro*, plural *peitro*; *céav*, gen. *cévro*, dat. *céav*, plural *céavovai*; *míle* (4th decl.) plural *mílte* and *mílti*. The article must be placed before the ordinals, and *h* must be used when the numeral begins with a vowel, as, *an h-avovav*, *an h-ovtav*. This *h* is also used with the cardinals when the article is used, as, *an h-av*, *an h-ov*.

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

First, Last, Once, Twice, &c.

The first man	An évo peav.
The last man	An peav veivevav.
Do this first	Veav ro avévo vav, av ové, av év.
He did it at last	Rinne pe é va veivevav, va veivevav.
He is first	Tá pé a ov-peav.
He is last	Tá pé av veivevav.
The first time	An évo vav.
The last time	An vav veivevav.
How many times?	Ca pevov vav?
Once, twice	vav aváin, óv vav.
Thrice	Tpi h-vav.
Four times	Ceitpe h-vav.
Seven times	Seact h-vav.


The Numeral Substantives.

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

δευτε, two.	ρειρεαρ, six.
τριύρ, three.	ρεαδταρ, seven.
σεαδταρ, four.	οδταρ, eight.
κυγσεαρ, five.	νονθαρ, nine.
δειςνεαρ (or δειςνεαδαρ) ten.	

(b) They take the singular of the article : αν δευτε, αν τριύρ; αν σεαδταρ; αν κυγσεαρ; αν ρειρεαρ, αν ρεαδταρ, αν η-οδταρ; αν νονθαρ, αν δειςνεαρ. Note that δευτε, κυγσεαρ, and σεαδταρ are influenced by the article.

Use of the Numerals.

(1) In counting, in the abstract, we must never use οδ or σειρε. In translating numerals we begin with the small numbers; thus, 35 = κυγ-δευς α'ρ ριςε; 3472 = οδ-δευς α'ρ τρι ριςιτ δευρ σειρε σεατ αιρ (or δευρ) τρι mile. When a numeral is conveniently small, and a multiple of ριςε or σεατ, it is better to count by multiples. Thus, 120 is ρε ριςιτ; 140, ρεαδτ δ-ριςιτ; 1200, οδ σεατ δευς; 1500, κυγ σεατ δευς.  When σεατ is absent, ριςε and mile do not go well together; hence 1020 must be written ρε ριςιτ δευρ ναοι γ-σεατ, not ριςε δευρ mile, or mile δευρ ριςε which might mean 21 thousand.

(2) When an English cardinal numeral stands (by itself) for persons, we must use either a numeral sub-

stantive with *de* and the dative case, or a cardinal and *claiḡeann* (skull, pl. *claiḡne*) with *de* and a dative.

Five of the men { *Cúigeadar de na fir.*
Cúig claiḡne de na fir.

Five of the tribe { *Cuigeadar de 'n t'heam.*
Cúig claiḡne de 'n t'heam.

(3) In answer to “how many?” an English numeral which stands (by itself) either for persons or things, must be rendered by a numeral substantive, or by a cardinal accompanied by *claiḡeann* or *ceann*; *ceann* in the case of irrational animals and things, *claiḡeann* in the case of persons.


How many men? *Five* = ---? *Cuigeadar* or *Cúig claiḡne.*

How many cows? *Five* = ---? *Cuigeadar* „ *Cúig cinn.*

How many boats? *Five* = ---? *Cuigeadar* „ *Cúig cinn.*

(4) When an English cardinal numeral qualifies “men,” “women,” “children,” or any such word which stands for persons, it *may* be rendered in Irish by a numeral substantive followed by the genitive plural of the noun.

Seven men { (1) *Seachtar fear.*
 (2) *Seacht b-fir.*
 (3) *Seacht g-claiḡne fear.*

 The two are here = *ta dh deit dhann ro*; the three are here = *ta dh trí dhann ro*, &c.

(5) In answer to, “what time is it?”

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

* This is the article.

Noon	An meádhon lae.
Midnight	An meádhon oíóce.
A quarter past two	Ceathrú a n-uaig an ó.
Half past two	Leath a n-uaig an ó.
A quarter to three	Ceathrú go u-tí 'n trí.
What o'clock is it?	Go dé 'n clog a b-fuil ré?
What time is it?	Go dé 'n t-am a b-fuil ré?
It is five o'clock	Tá ré an cúig o clog.

(d) With adjective and noun :

One white horse	Capall bán.
Two white horses	Dá capall bána.
Three white horses	Trí capall bána.
Seven white horses	Seacht g-capall bána.
Twelve white horses	Dá capall veug bána.
Twelve white cows	Dá buin veug bána.
Fifteen white horses	Cuig capall veug bána.
Thirty-five white horses	Cuig capall veug agus fiche bána.
120 white horses	Sé ficte capall bán.
360 white horses	Trí ficte agus trí céad capall bán.
1080 white horses	Naoi b-ficte agus naoi g-céad capall bán.
6480 white horses	Ceithre ficte agus ceithre céad agus ré míle capall bán.
185 white horses	Cuig capall agus naoi b-ficte capall bán.
930 white horses	Deic g-capall agus fiche agus naoi g-céad capall bán.
1050 white horses	Deic g-capall, ceathrú b-ficte agus naoi g-céad capall bán.
5550 white horses	Deic g-capall agus dá ficte, cúig céad agus cúig míle capall bán.

N.B.—Remark that when a number is not a multiple of *fichte* the noun occurs twice; first, with the excess of the multiple, and secondly, with the remaining part of the number, which, being a multiple of *fichte*, requires the noun and adjective to be in the genitive plural.

(e) The numerals 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30, when accompanied by a noun, are often rendered idiomatically by the genitive of *πίε*, thus :

Twenty-three cows.	Τρί βα πίελο.
Twenty-four cows.	Σειτμε βα πίελο.
Twenty-five cows.	Σίγ βα πίελο.

OBS.—A person 15 years old is often said to be in the *teens*, *i.e.*, in the fifth year of the *teen period*. In like manner a person 25 years old may be said to be in the fifth year of the *twenty period*, or *five years of the twenty period*.

THE NUMERALS *ἑὸ* and *σεαταιρ*

These numerals never qualify a noun, and always stand by themselves. Their use is, besides, limited to certain cases, the principal of which are :—

- (1) In counting, as, *δον, ἑὸ, τρι, σεαταιρ, ἑὸ-ἑυγ, σεαταιρ-ἑυγ, σεαταιρ ἄγυρ πίε, &c.*
- (2) In stating time, as, *τὰ ρέ αν ἑὸ*, It is two (o'clock).
- (3) In stating amount of money, as, *Σίγ πυντα ἄγυρ αν ἑὸ*, Five pounds two (£5 2s. od.); *τὰ αν σεαταιρ ἄγυρ πυντα ἄγαν*, I have one pound four (£1 4s. od.)

THE NUMERAL *ἑὰ*.

(1) The numeral *ἑὰ* can only be used with a noun, the initial of which it aspirates, as *ἑὰ ἑαπατ, ἑὰ ἑαορα*.

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

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

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

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

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

$\pi\acute{\iota}\epsilon$, $\epsilon\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\tau\omicron$, $\mu\acute{\iota}\lambda\epsilon$, $\epsilon\alpha\ \mu\epsilon\upsilon\tau\omicron$?

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

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

Functions of Numerals.

- (1) Δον, δευτο, ὅα, ὅδ, and τρεαρ cause aspiration.
- (2) Τρι, τειτρε, κύις, ρέ, cause no initial change except in the word céαο, a hundred, míτε, a thousand, a míle.
- (3) All the ordinals, except δευτο and τρεαρ cause no initial change.
- (4) Σεαότ, οότ, ναοι, and οειό eclipse—but they have no power over ρ.

Δον ὅδ αζυρ ὅά άορμ
 Δη δευτο άραλλ
 τά ρε Δη οο-όευς
 Sé βα αζυρ οότ ζ-απαλλ
 κύις céαο αραλλ

One cow and two sheep.
 The first horse.
 It is twelve (o'clock).
 Six cows and eight horses.
 Five hundred horses.

The Personal Pronouns.

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

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

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

Thus, *striking me*, becomes *to my striking*, ὄο, μο
 βυαλαῶ.

In Irish we are compelled to say, "a cow is at me," because we have no verb "have"; we must say, "it comes with me," because we have no verb "can"; and, we have to say, "hunger is on me," because we have no primary adjective for "hungry." So also, we are compelled to say "to my striking," because we have no genitive of *mé*.

THE PRONOUN *mé*.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i>	me, I.	ṛinn, we.
<i>Dat.</i>	ṁam̄, to me.	ṁúinn, to us.
<i>Acc.</i>	me, me.	ṛinn, us.

mé (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i>	m̄re, I.	ṛinne, we.
<i>Dat.</i>	ṁam̄ra, to me.	ṁúinne, to us.
<i>Acc.</i>	m̄re, me.	ṛinne, us.

mé (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i>	me-ṛéin, I myself.	ṛinn-ṛéin, we, ourselves.
<i>Dat.</i>	ṁam̄-ṛéin, to myself.	ṁúinn-ṛéin, to ourselves.
<i>Acc.</i>	me-ṛéin, myself.	ṛinn-ṛéin, ourselves.

THE PRONOUN *tú*.

<i>Nom.</i>	tu, thou, you	ṛib̄, you, ye.
<i>Dat.</i>	ṁuit, to thee, to you	ṁib̄, ṁaoib̄, to you.
<i>Acc.</i>	tú, thee, you	ṛib̄, you, ye.
<i>Voc.</i>	tú! O thou!	ṛib̄! O you! O ye!

Τῦ (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> τυρα, thou, you.	τιῶρε, you, ye.
<i>Dat.</i> τοιτρε, to thee.	τοιῶρε, to you.
<i>Acc.</i> τυρα, thee, you.	τιῶρε, you.

Τῦ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> τῦ-ῤέιν, thou, thyself.	τιῶ-ῤέιν, you, yourselves.
<i>Dat.</i> τοιτ-ῤέιν, to thyself.	τοιῶ-ῤέιν, to yourselves.
<i>Acc.</i> τῦ-ῤέιν, thyself.	τιῶ-ῤέιν, yourselves.

THE PRONOUN ΣΕ.

<i>Nom.</i> ρε, he, it.	ριαο, they.
<i>Dat.</i> ρό, to him.	ροῖο, ραοῦδα, * to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ε, him.	ιαο, them.

ΣΕ (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> ρερεαν, he, it.	ριαοραν, they.
<i>Dat.</i> ρόραν, to him, it.	ραοῦδαραν, to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ερεαν, him, it.	ιαοραν, them.

ΣΕ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> ρε-ῤέιν, he himself.	ριαο-ῤέιν, they themselves.
<i>Dat.</i> ρό-ῤέιν, to himself.	ραοῦδα-ῤέιν, to themselves.
<i>Acc.</i> ε-ῤέιν, himself.	ιαο-ῤέιν, themselves.

THE PRONOUN ΣΙ.

<i>Nom.</i> ρι, she, it.	ριαο, they.
<i>Dat.</i> ριτε, ρι, to her.	ραοῦδα, to them.
<i>Acc.</i> ι, her, it.	ιαο, them.

* or ριοῦδα.

SĪ (emphatic).

<i>Nom.</i> mĭre, she, it.	ṛĭaṭṛaṇ, they.
<i>Dat.</i> ōuteṛe, to her.	ṭaobṭṭaṛaṇ, to them.
<i>Acc.</i> mĭe, her, it.	ĭaṭṛaṇ, them.

SĪ (reflexive).

<i>Nom.</i> ṛĭ-ṛĕin, she, herself.	ṛĭaṭ-ṛĕin, they themselves.
<i>Dat.</i> ōute-ṛĕin, to herself.	ṭaobṭṭa-ṛĕin, to themselves.
<i>Acc.</i> ĭ-ṛĕin, herself.	ĭaṭ-ṛĕin, themselves.

☛ The forms mĭre, ṭuṛa, &c., are used (1) for emphasis (2) when one pronoun is linked, by a conjunction, to another pronoun or to a noun. They are formed from the unemphatic forms by the addition of *re*, or *ra*. These terminations in the third person plural and third person singular masculine, become *raṇ*, while, in the first person plural, *r* becomes *n* by assimilation. So that instead of *mĭnnre* we have *mĭnnne*, or as it is shortened, *mĭnne*.


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

The Affected Pronouns.

The so-called affected pronouns are *me*, *tu*, *é*, *ĭ*, *ĭaṭ*, *mĭnn* and *mĭṭ*. They are the secondary or accusative forms of the personal pronouns. They are used as

nominatives (1) with the verb ἦ , and (2) with passive verbs.

ἦ ῥεαρ μαῖτ ἑὺ	You are a good man.
ἦ ῥῖρ μαῖτε ἰαο	They are good men.
βουαῖεαὸ ἑὺ	You were beaten.
βουαῖεαὸ ἑ	He was beaten.

 When ἑὺ comes beside ἦ it shakes off the dot :
 ῖ τῦ ἀη ῥεαρ .

The Prepositional Pronouns.

When a preposition comes before a personal pronoun it unites with it. Thus ἀγ me becomes ἀγαμ ; ἀγ τῦ becomes ἀγᾶτ , &c. The combinations thus obtained are called prepositional pronouns. The following are important :—

ἀγαμ ($\text{ἀγ} + \text{me}$).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
ἀγαμ , at me.	ἀγαῖνν , at us.
ἀγᾶτ , at thee, at you.	ἀγᾶῖθ , at you.
ἀγῆ , ἀῖϑ , at him, at her.	ἀϑῦ , at them.

EMPHATIC.

ἀγαμῖα , at me.	ἀγαῖννε , at us.
ἀγᾶτῖα , at thee.	ἀγᾶῖθῖε , at you.
ἀγῆραν , ἀῖϑῖε , at him, &c.	ἀϑῦραν , at them.

REFLEXIVE.

ἀγαμ-ῖῆν , (at myself).	ἀγαῖνν-ῖῆν .
ἀγᾶτ-ῖῆν ,	ἀγᾶῖθ-ῖῆν .
ἀγῆ-ῖῆν , ἀῖϑ-ῖῆν ,	ἀϑῦ-ῖῆν .

ἠομ ($\text{τε} + \text{me}$).

ἠομ , with me.	ἠνν , with us.
ἠεατ , with thee.	ἠῖθ , with you.
ἠεῖρ , ἠεῖτε , with him, &c.	ἠεοῦθα , ἠεῖθ , with them.

ORM (αρ + me).

SINGULAR.

ορμ, on me.

ορτ, on thee.

αρ, ορτι, on him, on her.

PLURAL.

οραινν,* on us.

οραιβ, on you.

ορτου, ορτα, on them.

ΙΟΝΝΑΙΜ (ανν + me)

ιονναιμ, in me.

ιοννατ, in thee.

ανν, ιονντι, in him, in her.

ιονναινν, in us.

ιονναιβ, in you.

ιονντου, in them.

ΟΥΔΗ (ου + me).

ουδη, ουμ, to me.

ουιτ, to thee.

ουδ, ουιτε or οι, to him, &c.

ουινν, to us.

ουιβ, οιβ, to you.

ουοβτα, ουοβ, to them.

N.B.—The ο of οι is thick.

ΟΥΙΟΜ (υε + me).

ουιομ, from me.

ουιοτ, from thee.

ουε, ουιτε or οι, from him, &c.

ουινν, from us.

ουιβ, from you.

ουιοβτα, from them.

Pronounced as follows:—

ουαομ

ουαοτ

ουαε, ουιτε or ουι

ουαοινν

ουαοιβ

ουαοβτα

ΔΣΔΜ (αρ + me).

δρασμ, out of me.

δραστ, out of thee.

αρ, αρτι, out of him, &c.

δραινν, out of us.

δραιβ, out of you.

αρτου, αρτα, out of them.

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

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ἔϋϑαμ (cum + me).

ἔϋϑαμ, unto me.

ἔϋϑαμιν, unto us.

ἔϋϑατ, unto thee.

ἔϋϑαιβ, unto you.

ἔϋϑε, ἔϋϑι, unto him, &c.

ἔϋϑύ, ἔϋϑα, unto them.

Pronounce, **hugam, hugat, &c.****ῥύμ** (ῥαοι + me).

ῥύμ, under me.

ῥύμιν, under us.

ῥύτ, under thee.

ῥύιβ, under you.

ῥαοι, ῥύτε, under him, &c.

ῥύτα, under them.

Also,

ῥαομ

ῥαομιν

ῥαοτ

ῥαοιβ

ῥαοι, ῥύτε

ῥαοῦτα

υαμ (ο + me).

υαμ, from me.

υαμιν, from us.

υατ, from thee.

υαιβ, from you.

υα, υατε, from him, &c.

υαῦτα, from them.

εαοραμ (ιοιρ + me).

εαοραμ, between me.

εαοραμιν, between us.

εαορατ, between thee.

εαοραιβ, between you.

ιοιρ ε, ι, between him, &c.

εαοραυ, between them.

ῥομάμ (ροίμε + me).

ῥομάμ, before me.

ῥομάμιν, before us.

ῥομάτ, before thee.

ῥομάιβ, before you.

ροίμε, ροίμῃ, before him, &c.

ροίμύ, before them.

ταραμ (ταρ + me).

ταραμ, over me.

ταραμιν, over us.

ταρατ, over thee.

ταραιβ, over you.

ταρμῃ, ταρμῃ, over him, &c.

ταρμύ, over them.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ΤΡΙΟΜ (τριέ + me).

τριόμ, through me.

τριίνν, through us.

τριότ, through thee.

τριΐθ, through you.

τριό, τριέτε, through him.

τριόθτα, through them.

ΤΡΙΟΜ (τριό + me).

τριόμ, through me.

τριίνν, through us.

τριότ, through thee.

τριΐθ, through you.

τριό, τριέτε, through him, &c.

τριόθτα, through them.

ΑΝΗΣΟΡΜ * (ανησαιορ + me).

ανησορμ, to me.

ανησοραινν, to us.

ανησορτ, to thee.

ανησοραιθ, to you.

ανησαιορ, ανησοριετι, to him, &c.

ανησοριετα, to them.

The Possessive Adjectives.

The possessive adjectives are μο, my ; το, thy ; α, his, her, its ; ηρ, our ; συρ, your ; and α, their. They cannot be used without the aid of a noun, and, when emphatic, the particle ρα comes after the noun. When the noun is followed by one or more qualifying adjectives, the particle is affixed to the last adjective.

Of these adjectives, μο, το, and α (his), cause aspiration, while ηρ, συρ, and α (their), cause eclipsis in the noun, and prefix η in case the latter begins with a vowel. Α, her, causes no change except in the case of words beginning with a vowel. See next Chapter.

μο εόρισε αςυρ μο εαραιλλ

My coach and my horses.

το εόρισε αςυρ το εαραιλλ


Thy coach and thy horses.

α εόρισε αςυρ α εαραιλλ

His coach and his horses.


* Ανησορμ = ανη + ρο + ορμ.

Δ κόιτρε ἄγυρ ἄ καραιλλ	Her coach and her horses.
ἄη ζ-κόιτρε ἄγυρ ἄη ζ-καραιλλ	Our coach and our horses.
ἄηη ζ-κόιτρε ἄγυρ ἄηηη ζ-καραιλλ	Your coach and your horses.
Δ ζ-κόιτρε ἄγυρ ἄ ζ-καραιλλ	Their coach and their horses.
μο ἔκαραιλλ μόηη βάν-ρα	My big white horse.

 **ῥέην**, as we have seen, means “self” when affixed to a personal pronoun, but when it is used with a possessive adjective, it means “own,” as, **μο ἔκαραιλλ μόηη ῥέην**, My own big horse.

THE POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE Δ.

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

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

Ο η-Δ ζῆγάτ οη Ο ηα ζῆγάτ.	From his love.
ῥαοι η-Δ κοιρ οη ῥαοι ηα κοιρ	Under her foot.
λε η-Δ η-ζῆγάτ οη λε ηα η-ζῆγάτ	With their love.

Exception : το and τε blend with the possessive :


ταδαηη ρευῆ τα ἔκαραιλλ.	Give hay to his horse.
βαιη ζευς τα ἔκαραιλλ	Cut a branch from his tree.

ELISION OF O.

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

м'а̀тайм а̀зур м'ѣа̀р. My father and my husband.

Ѡ'а̀рал а̀зур Ѡ'ѣроѠѣз. Your donkey and your whistle.

 Translate *vo* by "thy" or "your," and *tú* by "thou," or "you"; but never translate "you" by *řib* when there is but one person in question.

Another Class of Adjective Pronouns.

The following adjective pronouns, which are very common, stand after their nouns:—*са̀займа̀ра*, my; *ра̀зайца̀ра*, thy; *ра̀зайсе́раан*, his; *ра̀зайце́ра*, her; *ра̀займа̀не*, our; *ра̀зайѠре*, your; *ра̀зайра̀ан*, their. They are combinations of *řo*, this, and the several parts of the prepositional pronoun *а̀займа̀ра*.

Ѡа̀с ра̀займа̀не. Our house.

Ѡа̀йце́ра ра̀зайѠре. Your town.

Prepositional Adjectives.

The possessive adjectives *mo*, *vo*, *a*, &c., often blend with the prepositions *анн*, in; *Ѡо*, to; *Ѡе*, with; and *о*, from. This rarely applies to *анн* except in idiomatic expressions, where a state is meant.

In my = *анн мо* = *мо*.

To my = *Ѡо мо*.

In thy = *анн Ѡо* = *Ѡо*.

To thy = *Ѡо Ѡо*.

In his = *анн а* = *на*.

To his = *Ѡо а* = *Ѡа*. *


In her = *анн а̀* = *на*.

To her = *Ѡо а* = *Ѡа*.

In our = *анн а̀р* = *на̀р*.

To our = *Ѡо а̀р* = *Ѡа̀р*.

* *Ѡа* is also a contraction of *Ѡе а* = (1) of his (2) of which.

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

The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronouns are, Δ , who, which, that, and $\eta\Delta\epsilon$, who...not, which...not, that...not. [$\eta\omicron\epsilon$, who, which, is classic]. They are indeclinable words, that is, they have the same form for all the cases. The following are examples of the different cases:—

THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

The man who eats bread	$\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \Delta \iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\tau \Delta\eta\mu\Delta.$
The man who does not, &c.	$\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \eta\Delta\epsilon \eta-\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta \Delta\eta\mu\Delta.$
The man who marries Norah	$\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \Delta \rho\acute{\omicron}\rho\alpha\tau \eta\omicron\mu\Delta.$
The man who does not, &c.	$\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \eta\Delta\epsilon \eta-\rho\acute{\omicron}\rho\alpha\eta\eta \eta\omicron\mu\Delta.$
The man who struck James	$\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \Delta \delta\upsilon\alpha\iota\iota \Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\tau.$
The man who was striking J.	$\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \Delta \delta\iota \Delta\zeta \delta\upsilon\alpha\iota\omicron\tau\omicron \Sigma\eta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\tau.$

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE.

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

* Transitive participles cannot govern nouns or pronouns in the accusative case, but they *can* govern the relative in that case. When ambiguity arises, as in " $\Delta\eta \rho\epsilon\alpha\mu \Delta \delta\upsilon\alpha\iota\iota \Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\mu\upsilon\tau$," the context alone will reveal the case.

THE GENITIVE CASE.

To distinguish the genitive from the other cases a partial idiom is used :—“The man whose house I sold,” must not be turned, “the man of whom I sold *the* house,” as in French, but, “The man of whom I sold *his* house,” = Δν ρεαρ αρ υιοι με α τεαε. The genitive of the relative is, therefore, revealed by the possessive adjective.

The hen whose foot I break	Δν εεαρ ε ερυριμ α κορ.
The hen whose foot I do not, &c.	Δν εεαρ ναε m-ερυριμ α κορ.
The hen whose foot Una breaks	Δν εεαρ α ερυρεαρ υνα α κορ.
The hen whose foot U. does not, &c.	Δν εεαρ ναε m-ερυρεαυ υ, &c.
The man whose cow I sold	Δν ρεαρ αρ υιοι με α βο.
The man whose cow I was selling	Δν ρεαρ α ραιε με αυ υιοι α βο.
The man whose foot was smashed	Δν ρεαρ αρ ερυρεαε α εορ.
The man whose son was sick	Δν ρεαρ α ραιε α ιμαε τινη.

THE DATIVE CASE.

In the dative case a partial idiom is also used : “The man to whom I gave the cow” = The man to whom I gave *the* cow to *him* = Δν ρεαρ αρ τυε με αν βο υο. This case is, therefore, revealed by a strengthening at the end of the relative clause in the shape of a prepositional pronoun.

Instead of using the idiom most grammarians place a pure preposition before the relative which they make it govern, * a practice which is not entirely supported by the classics, while it is almost generally ignored in the spoken language. Ambiguous expressions like

* This takes place, principally, when translating the English “have.”

The man who has big feet	Δν ρεαρ αιη α ε-ρπιε κορα μορα.
The man who has a cow	Δν ρεαρ αιε α ε-ρπιε βο.

the following must surely be considered faulty : Δη φεαρ υδρη θδην με δη ρζηδη = the man from whom I took the knife ; Δη φεαρ υδρη τυς με δη ρζηδη = the man to whom I gave the knife, &c. Of course, we have a few amalgamations of the relative and the prepositions, principally in connection with the verb ηρ. such as, φεαρ υδρηθ δηνη ριονη, but these are rare exceptions. It is, therefore, better to accept modern usage as being the clearest and most correct all round.

A man to whom I gave a cow	φεαρ ηρ τυς με θό υό.
A man to whom I was giving a cow	φεαρ Δ ηδρη με Δς τδδδρητ θό υό.
A man from whom I took a cow	φεαρ ηρ θδην με θό υό.
A man from whom I was taking, &c.	φεαρ Δ ηδρη με Δς θδηντ θό υό.
A stool on which I broke an egg	στόλ ηρ θρηρ με υθ δηρ.

When τδ is an auxiliary verb its primary and secondary forms may be used after the dative case of the relative Δ ; but when it is not an auxiliary the secondary forms (θ ρηη and ηδρη) only may be used.

φεαρ Δ ηδρη με Δς δδηντ δηρ }	* A man about whom I was speaking.
φεαρ Δ θι με Δς δδηντ δηρ }	
φεαρ Δ θ-ρηη με Δς δδηντ δηρ }	A man about whom I am speaking.
φεαρ δτδ με Δς δδηντ δηρ }	
φεαρ Δ ηδρη δύ δηζε	A man who had a hound.
φεαρ Δ θ-ρηη δύ δηζε	A man who has a hound.
φεαρ Δ θι δύ δηζε }	bad.
φεαρ δτδ δύ δηζε }	


Functions of the Relative.

(1) It always stands before the verb, and in affirmative sentences Δ aspirates the initial of the verb—the

* In “ ηδρη...Δς δδηντ,” “ ηδρη ” is auxiliary.

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

բօճի Δ շօջար լոժ	A man who lifts a stone.
բօճի Δ շօջ լոժ	A man who lifted a stone.
բօճի Δ օ՛ժ սիջօ	A man who drank water.


 Never aspirate ԾԱ or օւիր; Տն տ՛՛ ԱԾ; Տն տ՛՛ Δ օւիր *.

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

բօճի ռձ՛ օ-տւիջիմ	A man whom I do not understand.
բօճի ռի շիջ մ՛	A man whom I did not understand.
բօճի ռձ՛ ռ-ճիտն	A man who does not drink.

(3) The relative Δ sometimes means “all that,” “all who,” “all which,” in which cases it eclipses—except, of course, in the perfect tense. In these cases it sometimes blends with օօ and օւ.

Δ ջ-ճաւիտիմ 'ր.ն Լձ	All that I spend per day.
Δ ջ-ճաւիտին 'ր.ն Լձ	All that I spent per day.
Ճի ճաւի մ՛ 'ր.ն Լձ	All that I spent per day.
Δ Ծ-բսլ Δ ռ-Երիտն	All that is (or are) in Erin.
Δ Ծ-բսլ օւ ճիտն ճճամ	All the bread that I have.
Օձ Ծ-բսլ Δ ռ-Երիտն	Of all that is (or are) in Erin.
Լձ օճի Երիջ քիտն	One day that Finn arose.
Լձ օճի = Լձ օւ Δ ու = (On) a day of which, &c.	

 In relative sentences remember (1) that the principal verb should come first, and (2) that when a relative clause is equivalent to an adjective it is inseparable from the subject. Thus, “The man who is like me lifted the stone,” is neither, շօջ Տն բօճի Տն

* The Δ in the classic Տօւիրիմ is probably the relative Δ; it may have crept in like the Δ in ԱԾ, which is undoubtedly the relative.

έτοϋ ἀτά κοραμαίτ υιομ-ρα (=The man lifted the stone which is like me!), nor, Ἀν ρεαρ ἀτά κοραμαίτ υιομ-ρα τός αν έτοϋ, but, τός αν ρεαρ ἀτά κοραμαίτ υιομ-ρα αν έτοϋ. By a slight idiomatic change, however, we can say, Ἀν ρεαρ ἀτά κοραμαίτ υιομ-ρα τός ρέ αν έτοϋ. Observe the following :—

He killed the curly-tailed cat =

He killed the cat with the curly tail =

He killed the cat which had the curly tail =

He killed the cat *on* which was the curly tail =

ήαρϋ ρέ αν εατ ε ραιϋ αν ραβαλλ * εαρτα αιρ.

The Relative Form of the Verb.

As may be seen from preceding examples, there is a special form of the verb, which is sometimes used after the relative ε. The student should note that this form can only be used in the present and future tenses and that it is never used after ηαϋ, which requires the habitual form where possible. This special form, which ends in αρ for the present tense, and ραρ for the future, is used as follows :—

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

αν ρεαρ ε όλαρ υιρζε	The man who drinks water.
αν ρεαρ ε ρόραρ ηόρα	The man whom Norah marries.
αν όό ε όλαρ η. ε βαίηε	The cow whose milk N. drinks.
εραη ε έυιρεαρ η. ιη αιρ	Bread on which N. puts butter.
αν ε-εραη ε ιέιη	The bread which I eat.
αν ρίση ε όλαηη ρέ	The wine which he drinks.
εεαρ ε όηιριη ε κορ	A hen whose foot I break.
εραη ε έυιρεαηη ρέ ιη αιρ	Bread on which he puts butter.

* This is the modern and contracted form of ιαρβαλλ.

(2) In the future tense, the relative is used in all cases. This is, perhaps, due to the fact that, in the future, there is no habitual form.

Αν φεαρ Δ εόξφαρ ελόε	The man who will lift a stone.
Αν ελόε Δ εόξφαρ νόρια	The stone which N. will lift.
Φεαρ Δ φόρφαρ Ν. Δ μάε	A man whose son N. will marry.
Φεαρ Δ εάρφαρ Ν: φόρα υό	A man for whom N. will twist a rope.
Αν φιον Δ όλφαρ μιρε	The wine which I shall drink.
Αν ελόε Δ εόξφαρ tú	The stone which you will lift.
υό Δ θυιρφεαρ tú Δ κορ	A cow whose foot you will break.
Αραν Δ ευιρφεαρ ré ιμ Διη	Bread on which he will put butter.

Sometimes, as in English, the relative is omitted when it is the direct object of the verb, but its aspirating power remains.

Αν υιό εαιτεαρ μάιηε	The food Mary uses.
Αν υιό Δ εαιτεαρ μάιηε	The food which Mary uses.
Αν υό ιαηηαρ νόρια οηη	The cow Norah asks of me.
Αν υό Δ ιαηηαρ νόρια οηη	The cow which Norah asks of me.

Relative sentences of the following kind are rendered idiomatically:—"It is for you *that* Finn asks a wife" = It is for you *for whom* Finn asks a wife = *ιρ ουιτ-ρε Δ ιαηηαρ φιονηε βεαν*. The relative is often omitted in examples of this kind, viz.: after a dative case or a prepositional pronoun. But this should not be encouraged when writing.

ιρ οηη-ρα ιαηηαρ μο μάεαιη αν τ-αιηζεαυ	}
ιρ οηη-ρα Δ ιαηηαρ μο μάεαιη αν τ-αιηζεαυ	

ιρ οηη-ρα ειοεφαρ αν νάιηε, Δ Sheeζαηη	}
ιρ οηη-ρα Δ ειοεφαρ αν νάιηε, Δ Sheeζαηη	

ιρ Διη ηηάιηε ευιρφεαρ μέ αν ηατα ύη	}
ιρ Διη ηηάιηε Δ ευιρφεαρ μέ αν ηατα ύη	

ιρ υο ηηάιηε εόξφαρ μιρε αν τ-υιρζε	}
ιρ υο ηηάιηε Δ εόξφαρ μιρε αν τ-υιρζε	

It is from me *that* * my mother asks the money.
 It is on you *that* * the shame will come, John.
 It is on Norah *that* * I shall put the new hat.
 It is for Mary *that* * I shall lift the water.

The relative form of the verb is sometimes used in the classics to express the historic present; that is, the present tense used for the past. The writer is of opinion that it cannot be used when the subject (expressed) is a personal pronoun, and that in other cases it is optional. The relative not being present, no aspiration occurs.

ANN RIN FUIÓEAR FIONN,	Then Finn sits,
ASUR IARHAR FOIGTEAC.	And asks a vessel,
ANN RIN RÉIOIRÉ RÉ AN TEINNE.	Then he blows the fire.
LEIR RIN BUAILIR NÓMA É.	Thereupon Norah strikes him.

Modern grammarians are of opinion that the relative form of the verb is even used as an ordinary present, But it is evident from the preceding examples that they are in error. In, IR AIR A DHOIG CUIPEAR SÉAMUR AN T-IM, for example, they ignore the invisible presence of the relative before *cuipear*, and, to make things worse, they do not say a single word about the aspiration, which, as seen in preceding examples, does not occur in the historic present. We say, IR ASAT ATÁ RÉ, but when we say, IR ASAT TÁ RÉ, we, at once, perceive that something is missing. The explanation of this is, that the word *tá* is never aspirated, and hence, to make up for the deficiency, the relative must be expressed. This goes to prove that the relative is understood in examples of the kind quoted, and that

* Modern grammarians carefully omit this word, as well as its Irish equivalent.

the relative form of the verb is *not* used as an ordinary present tense.

THE RELATIVE FORM OF $\tau\acute{\alpha}$.

The relative forms of $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ are $\beta\acute{\iota}\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho$ (or $\beta\acute{\iota}\theta\rho$) and $\beta\acute{\epsilon}\rho\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho$. The present tense form, $\beta\acute{\iota}\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho$, is always used with a habitual meaning.

$\rho\acute{\iota}\eta$ $\alpha\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}$	Men who are good.
$\rho\acute{\iota}\eta$ Δ $\beta\acute{\iota}\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}$	Men who are wont to be good.
$\rho\acute{\iota}\eta$ $\eta\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ δ - $\rho\upsilon\iota\lambda$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}$	Men who are not good.
$\rho\acute{\iota}\eta$ $\eta\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ m - $\beta\acute{\iota}\theta\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}$	Men who are not wont, &c.
$\rho\acute{\iota}\eta$ Δ $\beta\acute{\epsilon}\rho\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}$	Men who will be good.
$\rho\acute{\iota}\eta$ $\eta\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ m - $\beta\acute{\epsilon}\rho\theta$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}$	Men who will not be good.

N.B.—The relative and $\tau\alpha$ often unite: $\Delta\eta$ $\tau\acute{\epsilon}$ $\alpha\tau\acute{\alpha}$.

☞ “He who,” “she who,” “the person who” = $\Delta\eta$ $\tau\epsilon$ Δ , or $\Delta\eta$ $\tau\upsilon\iota\eta\epsilon$ Δ .

“They who,” “the people who” = $\eta\Delta$ $\tau\alpha\upsilon\iota\eta\epsilon$ Δ , or $\Delta\eta$ $\mu\upsilon\iota\eta\tau\eta$ Δ .

Frequent Use of the Relative.

The use of the relative pronoun is explained by modern grammarians in a rather summary way. This little word does far more duty than it gets credit for. It is advanced, for example, that $\rho\upsilon\lambda$, $\eta\upsilon\alpha\iota\eta$, $\mu\alpha\rho$, &c., aspirate the initials of verbs. The fact is that it is the relative Δ , understood, that causes the aspiration, and as a proof of this the relative form of the verb is used as $\eta\upsilon\alpha\iota\eta$ $\epsilon\iota\theta\epsilon\sigma\tau\alpha\rho$ $\upsilon\eta\alpha$, when Una comes. In speaking the relative is usually heard, and in writing it should be expressed, as a general rule, thus —.

$\rho\upsilon\lambda$ Δ $\epsilon\iota\theta\epsilon\sigma\tau\alpha\rho$ $\upsilon\eta\alpha$	Before (that) Una comes.
$\eta\upsilon\alpha\iota\eta$ Δ $\epsilon\iota\theta\epsilon\sigma\tau\alpha\rho$ $\upsilon\eta\alpha$	The time (that) Una comes.
$\mu\alpha\rho$ Δ $\epsilon\iota\theta\epsilon\sigma\tau\alpha\rho$ $\upsilon\eta\alpha$	The manner (in which) Una will come.

nuair is a contracted form for **an uair**, the hour, the time, and hence, when. The relative is used after numerous expressions of this kind, as, **Ca n-áit a cuirfead tú é?** Where will you put it? **Ir minic a iteaf Máire**, It is often that Mary eats; **Ir iomdáb uair a daoineaf an teab**, It is many a time that the child cries, &c. From these examples we may infer that the relative is always used after the impersonal **ir**.

Ir aís an doras atá me	It is at the door that I am.
Ir aís caonab a béirfeaf tú	It is crying that you will be.
Ir oim a bí an eagla!	It is I that was afraid!
An tú féin atá ann?	Is it yourself that is in it?
Ir tú a béirfeaf liom	It is you that will be with me.

The Demonstrative Pronouns.

(a) The demonstrative pronouns are **eo**, this; **ein**, that; and **ruo**, yonder. The same forms are used for the plural.

Eat this and leave that	It eo aísur fás ein.
Lift yonder-thing, * James	Tós ruo a Shéamus.
This is very funny	Tá eo an-ghéanmhar.
Yonder-thing is used	Tá ruo caíte.

(b) When there is a noun with the demonstrative the following takes place:—(1) The article must be used with the noun, (2) the demonstrative is placed after the noun, (3) if the noun is followed by one or more adjectives the demonstrative comes last, (4) **ruo** becomes **uo**.

Sell this cow	Díol an bó eo.
Lift these knives	Tós na rziána eo.
This big tall man	An fear mór áro eo.
Yonder man is blind	Ta an fear uo caob.

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

☞ **uo** often takes the form of **uοαι** or **αυαι**.

Yonder cow is eating	Τά αν βό αυαι ας ιθε.
The cow is over yonder	Τα αν βό ριαρι αυαι.

(c) Referring to a person or thing mentioned before, the demonstrative must be accompanied by a corresponding personal pronoun, or some word such as **ceann**.

This one is crooked	Τά ρε ρο can.
That one is straight	Τα αν ceann ριν υιμεαδ.
These are broken	Τα ριαυ ρο bηιρτε.
Leave those here	Ρόζ ιαυ ριν ανν ρο.

☞ "This fellow," "that fellow," "yonder fellow," &c. = **pe ρο, pe ριν, pe ρυο, &c.**; feminine, **ρι ρο, ρι ριν, ρι ρυο**. Note also the following:—

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

The Interrogative Pronouns.


(a) The interrogative pronouns are **cia?** or **cé?** who? **ceoca?** which? **ca?** where? or what? **ζο οέ?** (or, **caυ é?**) what? All these come first in the sentence. **Ca?** causes eclipsis:

Κέ ριννε ρο?	Κέ υια?	Who did this? Who is God?
Κέ τυ-ρέιν?	Κε ριν?	Who are you? Who is that?
Κα m-βιθεανν tú?		Where do you be?
Κ' αιηη αιά οητ?		What is your name?
Κα η-αιτ α β-ρui tú?		Where are you?

Ca b-puil tú aḡ uul? *	Where are you going?
ḡo ué uḡaḡt tú?	What did you say?
ḡo ué-maḡ tḗ tú?	How are you?
Ca h-aḡ éú, a ḡic?	Where are you from, my son?
aḡ ḡaḡe Clacé mé,	I am from Dublin. (I belong to D.)
Cia leḡp tú?	Who owns you? Whose son are you?
Cia leḡp an teac ḡo?	Who owns this house?

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

Which of the women?	Ceoca uḡ na mna?
Which of the cows?	Ceoca uḡ na ba?
Which of us?	Ceoca aḡainn?
Which of you?	Ceoca aḡaib?

 Ceoca or ceocú or cīaca = cīa + aca.

Observe the following :—

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

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

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

The Indefinite Pronouns.

ΔΟΝ, single	ΣΑC υΙτε, every
ΔΙη ΒΙC } any	ΙΝΤΕΔΑCΤ } some,
Δη ΒΙC } any	ΕΙΣΙη } certain.
Δη υΙτε, every	Δη ΤΕ, he, who.
υΙC, } all	CΙΒΕ, whoever
υΙτε } all	CΕΔΑCΤΑη, either.
ΣΑC } each, every	Δ CΕΙτε, each other
ΣΑC ΔΟη } each, every	

N.B.—ΣΑC υΙτε and ΣΑC ΔΟη are usually pronounced Δ CυΙτε and ΔCΔη. CΕΔΑCΤΑη with a negative verb = neither, ηΙ ηυΙC CΕΔΑCΤΑη ΔCΑ ΔΣΑη, I have neither of them. CΙΒΕ is followed by the relative, as, CΙΒΕ Δ CΙOCΦΑη, whoever comes, or whoever will come; CΙΒΕ ηΕΑη Δ CΙOCΦΑη, whatever man comes. ΔΙη ΒΙC, υΙC, υΙτε, ΙΝΤΕΔΑCΤ, and ΕΙΣΙη follow the noun.

The Verb.

As may be noticed below, some of the forms of the verb contain the pronoun, subject, as, ηΟΡΑΙη, I marry; such forms are said to be *synthetic*. When the pronoun subject is not contained in the verb, as ηΟΡΑηη ηΕ, he marries, the forms are said to be *analytic*. It may, also, be noticed that the synthetic forms are declining rapidly.

There are two conjugations in Irish. The first comprises verbs which have only one syllable in the root, as ηΟΡ, marry; all other verbs, as a general rule, belong to the second conjugation.

First Conjugation.

THE REGULAR VERB, ÞÓRÐAIM, I MARRY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. ÞÓRÐAIM (I marry)

2. ÞÓRÐANN TÚ

3. ÞÓRÐANN RÉ

PLURAL.

ÞÓRÐANN FINN.

ÞÓRÐANN FIÐ.

ÞÓRÐANN FIAÐ.

Negative.

ÞÍ ÞÓRÐAIM (I do not marry)

ÞÍ ÞÓRÐANN TÚ

ÞÍ ÞÓRÐANN RÉ

ÞÍ ÞÓRÐANN FINN.

ÞÍ ÞÓRÐANN FIÐ.

ÞÍ ÞÓRÐANN FIAÐ.

Interrogative.

Þ-ÞÓRÐAIM? (Do I marry?)

Þ-ÞÓRÐANN TÚ?

Þ-ÞÓRÐANN RÉ?

Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FINN?

Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIÐ?

Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIAÐ?

Interrogative Negative.

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐAIM? (Do I not marry?) ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FINN?

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN TÚ?

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIÐ?

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN RÉ?

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIAÐ.

Dependent.

ÞO Þ-ÞÓRÐAIM (That I marry)

ÞO Þ-ÞÓRÐANN TÚ

ÞO Þ-ÞÓRÐANN RÉ

ÞO Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FINN.

ÞO Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIÐ.

ÞO Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIAÐ.

Dep. Negative.

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐAIM (That I do not marry) ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FINN.

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN TÚ

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIÐ.

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN RÉ

ÞAÐ Þ-ÞÓRÐANN FIAÐ?

Emphatic.

Ṗṛḁim-re (I marry.)	Ṗṛḁann rinne.
Ṗṛḁann tura	Ṗṛḁann riḁre.
Ṗṛḁann reṛean	Ṗṛḁann riḁṛan.

Reflexive.

Ṗṛḁim-ḁéim (I myself marry)	Ṗṛḁann rinn-ḁéim.
Ṗṛḁann tú-ḁéim	Ṗṛḁann riḁ-ḁéim.
Ṗṛḁann ré-ḁéim	Ṗṛḁann riḁ-ḁéim.

Historic Present.

To make their descriptions more vivid, historians and other writers often use the present tense where the past would ordinarily be used. In English there is no change, but in Irish there is a special form of the verb for this historic present tense. In fact it is met with so often in the written language that modern grammarians have mistaken it for the ordinary present.

SINGULAR.

Ṗṛḁim (I marry)
Ṗṛḁaiḁ tú
Ṗṛḁaiḁ re

PLURAL.

Ṗṛḁaiḁ rinn.
Ṗṛḁaiḁ riḁ.
Ṗṛḁaiḁ riḁḁ.

Classic Present.

We may now contrast the modern forms of the present tense with those of the classic. The parts in brackets are dead to most Irish speakers, so that only one synthetic form remains universally understood. The student will please note the difference between the ancient and modern forms of the different tenses as he passes through this verb; the distinction will not be made in other verbs.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
ῥόρμαι (I marry)	[ῥόραμαδοιο.]
[ῥόρμαι]	[ῥόρταοι.]
ῥόρμαιν re	[ῥόραιο.]

Imperfect Tense.

ῥόρμαινν (I used to marry)	ῥόραθ ρινν.
ῥόρτα	ῥόραθ ριβ.
ῥόραθ ρέ	ῥόραθ ριαθ.
<i>Negative.</i> Ni ῥόρμαινν.	I used not to marry.
<i>Interrog.</i> ὅ-ῥόρμαινν ?	Used I marry ?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i> ἢαὐ ὅ-ῥόρμαινν ?	Used I not marry ?
<i>Dependent.</i> ῥο ὅ-ῥόρμαινν.	That I used to marry
<i>Dep. Neg.</i> ἢαὐ ὅ-ῥόρμαινν.	That I did not marry

Emphatic.

ῥόρμαινν-ρε (I used to marry)	ῥόραθ ριννε
ῥόρτα τυρα*	ῥόραθ ριβρε.
ῥόραθ* ρερεαν	ῥόραθ ριατοραν.

Reflexive.

ῥόρμαινν-ῥέιν (I myself, &c.)	ῥόραθ ρινν-ῥέιν.
ῥόρτα-ῥέιν	ῥόραθ ριβ-ῥέιν.
ῥόραθ ρέ-ῥέιν	ῥόραθ ριαθ-ῥέιν

Classio Imperfect.

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

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ῥόρμαινν (I used to marry)	[ῥόραμαδοιρ.]
2. ῥόρτα	[ῥόρταοι.]
3. ῥόραθ ρέ	[ῥόρατοιρ.]

* Not ῥόρτα-ρα. ῥόραθ is pronounced ῥόρύ. The ending αθ is often pronounced ιτ when followed by ρέ, ρί, ριαθ. cp. ῥόρμαιθ me *pr.* ῥόρμαι ἄ.

Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

þór me (I married)
þór tú
þór þe

PLURAL.

þór þinn.
þór þið.
þór þið.

<i>Negative.</i>	þiort þór me.	I did not marry.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	Δr þór me ?	Did I marry ?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i>	þar þór me ?	Did I not marry ?
<i>Dependent.</i>	þur þór me.	That I married.
<i>Depen. Neg.</i>	þar þór me.	That I did not marry.
<i>Emphatic.</i>	þór þiþe.	I married.
<i>Reflexive.</i>	þór me-þéin.	I myself married.

Classical Perfect.

[Θο þόραρ] (I married)	[Θο þόραμαρ.]
[Θο þόραιρ]	[Θο þόραθαρ.]
[Θο.] þór þe	[Θο þόραταρ.]

Future Tense.

þόρφαίð me (I shall marry)	þόρφαίð þinn
þόρφαίð tú	þόρφαίð þið.
þόρφαίð þe	þόρφαίð þið.

Pronounce as follows :—

þόρñíð ä	þόρñä þinn.
þόρñä tú	þόρñä þið.
þόρñä þñä *	þόρñä þið.

* When emphatic þóρñí þé. When not followed by a pronoun, as in replies, *þr.* þóρñí (paws'-hee).

<i>Negative.</i>	Ո՞ի թօրբաւօ me.	I will not marry.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	Ե-թօրբաւօ me ?	Shall I marry ?
<i>Interrog. Neg.</i>	Ո՞ճԵ-թօրբաւօ me ?	Shall I not marry ?
<i>Dependent.</i>	Հօ Ե-թօրբաւօ me.	That I shall marry.
<i>Dep. Neg.</i>	Ո՞ճԵ-թօրբաւօ me.	That I shall not marry

CLASSIC FUTURE.

թօրբաւօ (I shall marry)	թօրբաւաւօ.
[թօրբաւի]	[թօրբաւօ.]
թօրբաւօ րե	[թօրբաւօ.]

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

թօրբաւո՞ն* (I would marry)	թօրբաւօ րո՞նն.
թօրբա	թօրբաւօ րո՞Ե.
թօրբաւօ* րե	թօրբաւօ րաւօ.

Emphatic.

թօրբաւո՞ն-րե (I would marry)	թօրբաւօ րո՞ննե.
թօրբա ւրբա	թօրբաւօ րո՞Երե.
թօրբաւօ րեբաճ	թօրբաւօ րաւօրբաճ.

Reflexive.

թօրբաւո՞ն-բէ՛ն (I myself, &c.)	թօրբաւօ րո՞նն-բէ՛ն.
թօրբա-բէ՛ն	թօրբաւօ րո՞Ե-բէ՛ն.
թօրբաւօ րե-բէ՛ն	թօրբաւօ րաւօ-բէ՛ն.

<i>Negative.</i>	Ո՞ի թօրբաւո՞ն.	I would not marry.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	Ե-թօրբաւո՞ն ?	Would I marry ?
<i>Inter. Neg.</i>	Ո՞ճԵ Ե-թօրբաւո՞ն ?	Would I not marry ?
<i>Dependent.</i>	Հօ Ե-թօրբաւո՞ն.	That I would marry.
<i>Dep. Neg.</i>	Ո՞ճԵ Ե-թօրբաւո՞ն.	That I would not marry.

* Sound ր as h. The ending բաւօ is usually pronounced *hoo*, but when բաւօ is followed by բէ, րի, րո՞նն, րո՞Ե, or րաւօ the sound of բաւօ+ր = *hitch*; as, թօրբաւօ րո՞նն, *pr. fawh'-hitch-inn*.

CLASSIC CONDITIONAL.

ῥόρραινν (I would marry)	[ῥόρραινναι.]
ῥόρρα	[ῥόρραιὸ.]
ῥόρραὸ ρε	[ῥόρραιὸδαι.]

OPTATIVE MOOD.

ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ* με! (May I marry!)	ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ ρινν!
ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ τᾶ!	ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ ριὸ!
ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ ρέ!	ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ ριαὸ!

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

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The present subjunctive is usually expressed by the present and future forms of the verb preceded by such words as μα, if; ῤο, until, &c., as, μα ῥόρραινν ρε μάριε ταῖαι ρητ ματ το, If he marries Mary give him a good fortune. ϕαν ῤο ὁ-ῥόρραιὸ ρέ ι, Wait till he marries her.

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. ———
2. ῥόρ (Marry)
3. ῥόρραὸ ρε

PLURAL.

- ῥόρραμιο.
- ῥόρραιοι† or ῥόρραιζιο.
- ῥόρραὸ ριαὸ.

Neg. ἠα ῥόρ, &c.

*When the root ends in ιὸ or ιζ, which have both the same sound ι or ιὸ, another ιὸ is unnecessary. Hence, ῤο ὁ-τέριὸ τᾶ! May you go! ῤο ἠ-βεαννιζ Ὀια τᾶ! May God bless you!

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

CLASSIC IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

1. —————
2. ῥόρ
3. ῥόραθ re

PLURAL.

- [ῥόραμαδοιρ].
 [ῥόραιθ].
 [ῥόραιτοιρ].

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Δ ῥόραθ to marry.

PARTICIPLES.

Δς ῥόραθ marrying.
 Διη θ-ῥόραθ having married.

Passivo Voce.

In the passive voice, the affected or accusative forms of the personal pronoun are used as subject. The negatives, interrogatives, dependents, etc., are formed in the usual way except in the perfect tense.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ῥόρται μέ (I am being married)	ῥόρται ριηη.
ῥόρται τῦ	ῥόρται ριθ.
ῥόρται ε	ῥόρται ιαθ.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ῥόρται μέ (I used to be married)	ῥόρται ριηη.
ῥόρται τῦ	ῥόρται ριθ.
ῥόρται ε	ῥόρται ιαθ.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

ῥόρραιθε μέ (I would be married)	ῥόρραιθε ριηη.
ῥόρραιθε τῦ	ῥόρραιθε ριθ.
ῥόρραιθε ε	ῥόρραιθε ιαθ.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.


ῥόρραι μέ (I shall be married)	ῥόρραι ρινη.
ῥόρραι τυ	ῥόρραι ριθ.
ῥόρραι ε	ῥόρραι ιαθ.

PERFECT TENSE.

ῥόραθ με (I was married).	ῥόραθ ρινη.
ῥόραθ τυ	ῥόραθ ριθ.
ῥόραθ ε	ῥόραθ ιαθ.

Perfect, Negative, Interrog., etc.

ἢιον ῥόραθ μέ	I was not married?
Δη ῥόραθ μέ?	Was I married?
ἢαη ῥόραθ μέ?	Was I not married?
ῤυη ῥόραθ μέ	That I was married.
ἢαη ῥόραθ μέ	That I was not married.

 Although ηο is used, no aspiration.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES.

Δ θειτ ῥόρτα	to be married.
ῥόρτα	married.

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

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

ῤά μέ ῥόρτα	I am married.
ῤιθινη ῥόρτα	I used to be married.
ῤι μέ ῥόρτα	I was married.
ῤειθ με ῥόρτα.	I shall be married.

THE REGULAR VERB, **ԾՐԻՏԻՄ**, I BREAK.**Active Voice.**

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Ծրսրիմ (I break)	Ծրսրեանն բոնն.
Ծրսրեանն Կú	Ծրսրեանն բծ.
Ծրսրեանն բե.	Ծրսրեանն բլած.

IMPERFECT.

Ծրսրոնն (I used to break)	Ծրսրեած բոնն.
Ծրսրեա	Ծրսրեած բծ.
Ծրսրեած բե	Ծրսրեած բլած.

PERFECT.

Ծրսր մե (I broke)	Ծրսր բոնն.
Ծրսր Կú	Ծրսր բծ.
Ծրսր բե	Ծրսր բլած.

FUTURE.

Ծրսրբիծ մե* (I shall break)	Ծրսրբիծ բոնն.
Ծրսրբիծ Կú	Ծրսրբիծ բծ.
Ծրսրբիծ բե	Ծրսրբիծ բլած.

CONDITIONAL.

Ծրսրբոնն (I would break)	Ծրսրբեած բոնն.
Ծրսրբեա	Ծրսրբեած բծ.
Ծրսրբեած բե	Ծրսրբեած բլած.

IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, &C.

Ծրսր, break ; plural, Ծրսրիտիծ or Ծրսրիցիծ.

∆ Ծրսրեած, to break.

∆Տ Ծրսրեած, breaking.

* Pronounce Ծրսրիտիմ ä, Ծրսրիä Կú, &c.

The Same Verb in Classic Style.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ἄρῳμ (I break)	[ἄρῳμῳ.]
[ἄρῳ]	[ἄρῳτῳ.]
ἄρῳεἰμ ῥε	[ἄρῳῳ.]

IMPERFECT.

ἄρῳμν (I used to break)	[ἄρῳμῳν.]
ἄρῳεἰ	[ἄρῳτῳ.]
ἄρῳεἰμ ῥε	[ἄρῳῳν.]

PERFECT.

[ἄρῳεἰ] (I broke)	[ἄρῳεἰμῳ.]
[ἄρῳ]	[ἄρῳεἰμῳ.]
[ἄρῳ] ῥε.	[ἄρῳεἰμῳ.]

FUTURE.

ἄρῳεἰμ (I shall break)	ἄρῳεἰμῳ.
[ἄρῳεἰ]	[ἄρῳεἰμῳ.]
ἄρῳεἰμ ῥε	[ἄρῳεἰμῳ.]

CONDITIONAL.

ἄρῳεἰμν (I would break)	[ἄρῳεἰμῳν.]
ἄρῳεἰ	[ἄρῳεἰμῳ.]
ἄρῳεἰμ ῥε	[ἄρῳεἰμῳν.]

IMPERATIVE, INFINITIVE, &C.

ἄρῳ (break); plural [ἄρῳῳ.]

ἄρῳεἰμ, to break.

ἄρῳεἰμ, breaking.

Initial Influence of Verbs.

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

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

$\acute{o}\lambda\alpha\iota\mu$, I DRINK.

PRESENT TENSE.

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

IMPERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ὄδαινον,	I used to drink.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢ ὄδαινον,	I used not to drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ἢ-ὄδαινον ?	Used I drink ?

PERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ὄδῃ με,	I drank.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢ ὄδῃ με,	I did not drink.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ἄρ ὄδῃ με ?	Did I drink.

ἔδιδον, I LEAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ἔδιδον,	I leave.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢ ἔδιδον,	I do not leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ὄ-ἔδιδον ?	Do I leave ?

IMPERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ὄἔδιδον,	I used to leave.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢ ἔδιδον,	I used not to leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ὄ-ἔδιδον ?	Used I leave ?

PERFECT.

<i>Affirmative.</i>	ὄἔδῃ με,	I left.
<i>Negative.</i>	ἢ ὄἔδῃ με,	I did not leave.
<i>Interrogative.</i>	ἄρ ἔδῃ με ?	Did I leave ?

ῥόδοι, I ROAST.

<i>Present</i> :—ῥόδοι ; ἢ ῥόδοι ; ἄρ ῥόδοι ?
<i>Imperf.</i> :—ῥόδοιν ; ἢ ῥόδοιν ; ἄρ ῥόδοιν ?
<i>Perfect</i> :—ῥόδῃ με ; ἢ ῥόδῃ με ; ἄρ ῥόδῃ με ?

SÉIOIM, I BLOW.

Present :—Séioim ; ní féioim ; an féioim ?

Imperf. :—Séioinn ; ní féioinn ; an féioinn ?

Perfect :—Séio me ; níor féio me ; ar féio me ?

SƷAIRTIM, I CALL.

Present :—SƷairtim ; ní rƷairtim ? an rƷairtim ?

Imperf. :—SƷairtinn ; ní rƷairtinn ; an rƷairtinn ?

Perfect :—SƷairt me ; níor rƷairt me ; ar rƷairt me ?

LÚBAIM, I BEND.

Present :—Lúbaim ; ní lúbaim ; an lúbaim ?

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

Perfect :—Lúb me ; níor lúb me ; ar lúb me ?

Second Conjugation.

The second conjugation comprises verbs whose root has at least two syllables. It differs from the first conjugation principally in the formation of the future and conditional.

THE REGULAR VERB ƷORTUIƷIM.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. ƷortuiƷim (I hurt)	ƷortuiƷeann rinn.
2. ƷortuiƷeann tú	ƷortuiƷeann ríob.
3. ƷortuiƷeann ré	ƷortuiƷeann ríab.

IMPERFECT.

ƷortuiƷinn (I used to hurt)	ƷortuiƷeab rinn.
ƷortuiƷtea	ƷortuiƷeab ríob.
ƷortuiƷeab ré	ƷortuiƷeab ríab.

PERFECT.

Հօրտւից me (I hurt)	Հօրտւից բոյն.
Հօրտւից տւ	Հօրտւից բոյ.
Հօրտւից բե	Հօրտւից բաժ.

FUTURE.

Հօրտօճարձ me* (I shall hurt)	Հօրտօճարձ բոյն.*
Հօրտօճարձ տւ	Հօրտօճարձ բոյ.
Հօրտօճարձ բե	Հօրտօճարձ բաժ.

CONDITIONAL.

Հօրտօճարձն (I would hurt)	Հօրտօճարձ բոյն.
Հօրտօճարձ	Հօրտօճարձ բոյ.
Հօրտօճարձ բե	Հօրտօճարձ բաժ.

IMPERATIVE.


SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. —————	Հօրտւիցմոյ [Հօրտւիցմոյր.]
2. Հօրտւից	Հօրտւիցի՛ր. †
3. Հօրտւիցեա՛ծ բե	Հօրտւիցեա՛ծ բաժ.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE.

Ճ Հօրտւիցա՛ծ, to hurt.

ՃՏ Հօրտւիցա՛ծ, hurting.

Ճիր n-Հօրտւիցա՛ծ, having hurt.

 The optative is ջօ n-Հօրտւից me!

* Also Հօրտօճարձ; Հօրտօճարձու.

† The classic form is Հօրտւիցի՛ր, which, being difficult to pronounce, is now written Հօրտւիցի՛ր.

Passive Voice.

<i>Present.</i>	Ζορτυγθεαι με,	I am being hurt.
<i>Imperfect.</i>	Ζορτυγτι με,	I used to be hurt.
<i>Perfect.</i>	Ζορτυγεαθ με,	I was hurt.
<i>Future.</i>	Ζορτοοαι με,	I shall be hurt.
<i>Condit.</i>	Ζορτοοαιδε με,	I would be hurt.
<i>Infinitive.</i>	Αθειτ ζορτυγτε,	to be hurt.
<i>Participle.</i>	Ζορτυγτε,	hurt.
<i>Imperative.</i>	Same as present.	

Remarks.

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

(2.) When the initial of a verbal termination is **τ** it becomes **τ** in all verbs whose root terminates in **β, c, ζ, m, ρ, or ρ,** and **ξ** of verbs in **ιξ** of the second conjugation ; as **ιβττα**, bent, **βογτα**, softened, intoxicated, **κυρτα**, buried, **ζηαδουιγτε**, loved, etc. In other cases **τ** is not influenced, as, **ορμιοτε**, **ορμυιγτε**, **ορκοττα**, **ιττε**, **μοιττα**, **οαρτα**, etc.

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

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

ROOT.	PRESENT.	FUTURE.
ζορτειξ, hurt	ζορτειξιμ	ζορτοçδαιò me.
cuimniξ, remember	cuimniξιμ	cuimneocδαιò me.
οίριξ, straighten	οίριξιμ	οίρεocδαιò me.
κοραιμ, cost	κοραιμ	κορνοçδαιò me.
ταρραιμξ, draw	ταρραιμξιμ	ταρραινεocδαιò me.
ιηηιρ, tell	ιηηιρμ	ιηηρεocδαιò me.
φορξαιε, open	φορξαιμ	φορξλοçδαιò me.

N.B.—*Λαβαιρ* makes *Λαβαιρριò* me for the future and *Λαβαιρριμ* for the conditional—Pronounced *λòιρ*, *λòιρμ* ð, *λòιρμ*.

The Verbal Noun and Present Participle.

Words which are usually called verbal nouns in English have, as seen below, two distinct meanings.

As Participles.

Growing = *growing* = Δξ ράρ.

Moving = *moving* = Δξ βοξαò.

Playing = *playing* = Δξ ιηηιρτ.

Stealing = *stealing* = Δξ ζυιò.

As Verbal Nouns.

Growing = *growth* = ράρ.

Moving = *motion* = βοξαò.

Playing = *play* = ιηηιρτ.

Stealing = *theft* = ζυιò.

As seen in these examples, the English verbal noun has the characteristic mark "ing," just like the participle. This "ing," in the participle, indicates action,

while, in the verbal noun, it merely indicates the name of action. In Irish, the participle sign is *as*, and corresponds to “ing” in the English participle. We see, also, that the Irish verbal noun has not the verbal sign, which leaves it without any verbal force.

All the so-called verbal nouns are, therefore, nouns pure and simple. They have not the merest fraction of the essential quality of a verb, which is action. They have, of course, shape and form, like a man deprived of life, but shape or form and action have no essential quality in common. It is plain, then, that a participle is not a verbal noun, nor a verbal noun a participle. We may also add that an infinitive is neither a verbal noun nor a participle.

Use of the Verbal Noun and Participle.

(a) The Irish verbal noun is limited to the power of any other noun; that is, it can govern another noun that follows it in the genitive case. Hence, we say *boḡasḁ l  ime* in the same way that we say *oac l  ime*.

Raib t   as baipcead an leinb?

Raib t   as maipcead na cipe?

Raib t   as bripcead na funneoise?

Raib t   as buint an feir?

Raib t   as tigh Sheamuis?

Were you at the baptising of the child?

Were you at the killing of the hen?

Were you at the breaking of the window?

Were you at the mowing of the hay?

Were you at the house of James?

(b) The regular ending of the present participle is αὐ, but its distinguishing mark is ας (not αῖς, which is generally used before *nouns* in preference to ας). Before a consonant ας often becomes 'α in speaking, and sometimes it is omitted altogether, but this should not be encouraged in writing. The present participle governs a following noun in the genitive.

Τά ρε ας βαπτεαὐ ἀν τεῖνθ.

Τά ρε ας μαρθαὐ να εἴρε.

Τά ρε ας ἔρηρεαὐ να ρυῖνεοῖρε.

Τά ρε ας βυῖντε ἀν ῥέη.

He is baptising the child.

He is killing the hen.

He is breaking the window.

He is mowing the hay.

(c) When the object of a transitive participle is a personal pronoun we must use an idiom. Reason: The personal pronouns have no genitive case.

Striking me = *to my striking* = το μο θυαλαὐ.

Striking thee = *to thy striking* = το το θυαλαὐ.

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

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

Striking us = *to our striking* = το ρη η-θυαλαὐ.

Striking you = *to your striking* = το θυη η-θυαλαὐ.

Striking them = *to their striking* = το α η-θυαλαὐ.

(d) When the object of a transitive participle is a *relative pronoun*, it is governed by the participle in the *accusative* case. Reason: The relative *has* a genitive, and would be used but for the fact that the relative

never follows the verb. Hence as the genitive cannot stand before the participle the relative is governed in the accusative case.

Δη υῶ ἀτά με ἀγῖ ιτε The egg which I am eating.

Δη υῶ Δ θί με ἀγῖ ιτε The egg which I was eating.

The relative is the only word which can be governed in the accusative case by the present participle.

The Infinitive Mood.

In English, the infinitive is known by the particle "to," which is universally called the "sign of the infinitive." It is not a preposition as some writers assert, nor is it parsed as such, having no noun or pronoun to govern. The writer considers it a very essential factor of the infinitive, for, without it, the infinitive, in most cases, becomes finite. In English, the infinitive without the sign is like the imperative; but, in Irish, the infinitive without the sign is not often like the imperative, and hence, it can be known when, as often happens, the sign is absent. The Irish infinitive has two signs Δ and ιε.

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

Root	ϕύν	Infinitive	Δ ϕύναῶ, to shut.
"	ρίνν	"	Δ ρίννεῶ, to stretch.
"	βυαίτ	"	Δ βυαίτεῶ, to beat.
"	ζορτυξ	"	Δ ζορτυξεῶ, to hurt.
"	ϕίμξ	"	Δ ϕίμξεῶ, to straighten.

As seen here, the rule is to make the characteristic vowel broad when possible. Hence, the *í* is dropped in *tuair* and *ḡortuirḡ*, while in *uirḡ* it becomes *iu*. But in monosyllabic roots like *rinn*, the characteristic vowel remains unchanged, so that *eab* must be added.

Use of the Infinitive.

(a) As we have already seen, the infinitive has two signs *Δ* and *te*; *te* causes no initial change, but *Δ* aspirates the initial of the verb. *te* prefixes *h* to a vowel.

Ír cóir <i>Δ</i> <i>ḡ</i> raobuḡab	It is right to love God.
Buó <i>h</i> naic liom <i>Δ</i> n <i>ḡ</i> <i>Δ</i> <i>ḡ</i> iol	I would like to sell the cow.
ḡainic <i>te</i> <i>te</i> <i>ra</i> naac	He came to stay.
Tá <i>te</i> <i>te</i> <i>h</i> -imḡeac	He is to go away.

(b) When the English *passive* infinitive expresses *future event*, as, "He is to be killed," *i.e.*, "he will be killed," the sign *te* must be used. Hence, the Irish active infinitive, in such cases, is said to have a passive signification.

He is to be hanged	Tá <i>te</i> <i>te</i> <i>ch</i> oacab.
The seed is to be sown	Tá <i>Δ</i> n <i>ri</i> ol <i>te</i> <i>cu</i> n.
It is to be boiled	Tá <i>te</i> <i>te</i> <i>b</i> huic.
The wine is to be drunk.	Tá <i>Δ</i> n <i>ri</i> on <i>te</i> <i>h</i> -ól.

(c) When the English *active infinitive* expresses *future event* or *purpose* *te* must be used in Irish; and if the infinitive governs an accusative case, the two signs must be used, *Δ* before the infinitive and *te* before the accusative.

I am to cry (<i>f.e.</i>)	τά με λε καοναό.
I am to wait (<i>f.e.</i>)	τά με λε παναότ.
He came to fight (<i>pur.</i>)	ταιμιτ γε λε τημιτο.
He came to sit (<i>pur.</i>)	ταιμιτ γε λε ριυόε.
I am to marry Mary (<i>f.e.</i>)	τά με λε μάιμε α πόραό.
He came to sell a horse (<i>pur.</i>)	ταιμιτ γε λε καραλλ α όίοι.

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

ταιμιτ γε λε ριότ α όυτ	He came to sow seed.
δυό μίαν λειρ ριότ α όυτ	He wanted to sow seed.
ιαητ αιη κορ α όοζαό	Tell him to move a foot.

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

He came to sleep	ταιμιτ γε λε κουλαό.
He came to stay	ταιμιτ γε λε παναότ.
He came to cry	ταιμιτ γε λε καοναό.
He is to sit	τά γε λε ριυόε.
He is to stand	τά γε λε ρεαραό.
He is to walk	τά γε λε ριυδαλ.

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

Tell him to walk	αδαιρ λειρ ριυδαλ.
Tell him to sleep	ιαητ αιη κουλαό.
I cannot stand	νί εις λιομ ρεαραό.
He made him go away	ευσ γε αιη ιμτέαότ.
It is better for you to sit	ιρ ρεάητ ουτ ριυόε.
I prefer to stand	ιρ ρεάητ λιομ ρεαραό.
I would like you to stay	δυό μαιε λιομ ευ παναότ.

☞ α θειτ, α θυλ, and α τεαότ, are exceptions.

Governing Power of the Infinitive.

(a) The Irish transitive infinitive cannot govern a noun in the genitive except when it expresses purpose and even then the accusative is commonly used also. The position of the accusative is always before the infinitive, that of the genitive is after it.


ʒaimic re a ʒuint réir } He came to mow hay.
 ʒaimic re le feur a ʒuint }

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

adair leir rlat a ʒuint	Tell him to cut a rod.
ní tiz liom cor a ʒozdail	I cannot lift a foot.
ir corir Dia a ʒraouʒad	It is right to love God.
réadaim an píopa a líonad	I may fill the pipe.

(c) When the object of a transitive infinitive is a personal pronoun we can only use the accusative, as personal pronouns are defective in the genitive. To make up for this deficiency we are at liberty to use an idiom, as, He wanted to beat me = buò mian leir mo buadad, literally, *he desired my beating*.

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

 "Not" before an infinitive is rendered by ʒan. If the infinitive governs an accusative ʒan precedes the latter.

I prefer not to stand	ἵρ ρέαιρ ἕομ ζαν ρεαρῶ.
Tell him not to sit	ἀβαιρ λειρ ζαν ριῶε.
To be or not to be	Δ θεῖτ no ζαν. Δ θεῖτ.
Tell him not to eat the butter	ἀβαιρ λειρ ζαν ἀν τ-ἰμ Δ ἰτε.

N.B.—Cum is sometimes used as a sign of the infinitive when purpose is conveyed: Cum Σεαμυρ Δ θυαλαῶ = to beat James; cum βρειτεαῖνναρ Δ ταβαιρτ αιρ = to pass judgment on him. In these examples cum is not a preposition, and hence it has nothing to do with the governing of “Σεαμυρ” and “βρειτεαῖνναρ.”

The Infinitive and Participle.

The infinitive and present participle have the same form, the signs being different. In regular infinitives as we have seen, the ending is ᾶῶ; but most of the infinitives in the language are irregular; the following should be committed to memory:—

ROOT.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Ζυῶ, pray	Δ ζυῶ	ΔΣ Ζυῶ.
Τηυῶ, fight	Δ τηυῶ	ΔΣ τηυῶ.
Ὀλ, drink	Δ Ὀλ	ΔΣ Ὀλ.
Θηυῖτ, boil, cook	Δ Θηυῖτ	ΔΣ θηυῖτ.
Ζυιλ, boil, bubble	Δ Ζυιλ	ΔΣ Ζυιλ.
Ζυῶ, steal	Δ Ζυῶ	ΔΣ Ζυῶ.
Ριαρρυῖζ, inquire	Δ ριαρρυῖζ	ΔΣ ριαρρυῖζ.
Ἐιρτ, hear	Δ Ἐιρτεαῶτ	ΔΣ Ἐιρτεαῶτ.
Ἰμυρ, play (a game)	Δ Ἰμυρτ	ΔΣ Ἰμυρτ.
Ταρρμῖνζ, pull	Δ ταρρμῖντ	ΔΣ ταρρμῖντ.
Καῖλλ, lose	Δ Καῖλλεαῶ	ΔΣ καῖλλεαῶ.
Κυρ, put	Δ Κυρ	ΔΣ κυρ.
Ἰννυρ, tell	Δ Ἰννυρ	ΔΣ Ἰννυρ.
Κυννῖζ, keep	Δ Κυννῖεῖτ	ΔΣ κυννῖεῖτ.
Λαβαιρ, speak	Δ Λαβαιρτ	ΔΣ λαβαιρτ.

ROOT.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
1aḡḡ, ask	Δ 1aḡḡaḡḡ	Δḡ 1aḡḡaḡḡ.
leḡḡ, let, allow	Δ leḡḡeḡḡ	Δḡ leḡḡeḡḡ.
fáḡḡ, leave	Δ fáḡḡaḡḡ	Δḡ fáḡḡaḡḡ.
tóḡḡ, lift	Δ tóḡḡaḡḡ	Δḡ toḡḡaḡḡ.
Ceannaḡḡ, buy	Δ ceannaḡḡ	Δḡ ceannaḡḡ.
Díol, sell	Δ díol	Δḡ díol.
Sníom, spin	Δ fñíom	Δḡ fñíom.
Seinn, sing, play	Δ feinn	Δḡ feinn.
níḡ, wash	Δ níḡe	Δḡ níḡe.
Ceangḡaḡḡ, tie	Δ ceangḡaḡḡ	Δḡ ceangḡaḡḡ.

Partioles.

Δn ?

nac ?

Δn ? (Δn ? + ḡo)

nΔn ? (nac ? + ḡo)

ní and éa

níom (ní + ḡo)

éan (éa + ḡo)

nac (that...not)

nΔn (nac + ḡo)

ḡun (ḡo + ḡo) *

na

Simple interrogative aff.

Simple interrogative neg.

Perfect interrogative aff.

Perfect interrogative neg.

Simple negatives.

} Perfect tense negatives.

Simple dependent neg.

Perfect dependent neg.

Affirmative of nΔn.

Imperative negative.

Examples.

Do you speak English ?

Δn lΔbḡann tú beurla ?

Do you not speak Irish ?

nac lΔbḡann tú ḡaeoilḡe ?

Did you strike him ?

Δn buaḡ tú é ?

Did you not strike him

nΔn buaḡ tú é ?

I do not smoke (e.g. tobacco)

ní éaḡḡim; éa ḡ-caḡḡim.

I did not smoke

níom éaḡ me; éan éaḡ me ?

He says he does not smoke

Deḡn fe nac ḡ-caḡḡeann fe.

He says he did not smoke

Deḡn fe nΔn éaḡ fe.

He says that he smoked

Deḡn fe ḡun éaḡ fe.

Do not smoke

na caḡḡ.

* Don't confound this with the conjunction ḡun=ḡo [See 1ḡ.]

THE NEGATIVE **ĊA**.

(a) As may be seen from the following examples, which cover the whole scope of the language, **ċa** eclipses, and never aspirates.

Ċa m-béiríonn aḡ caint	I would not be talking.
Ċa ḡ-cuiríonn im airi	I would not put butter on it.
Ċa n- dean faíonn rín	I would not do that.
Ċa b- fan faíonn ann	I would not stay there.
Ċa n-ḡuioḡfíonn píonna	I would not steal a pin.
Ċa mairíeann ro ḡo veo	This won't last for ever.
Ċa b-róḡann an cat	The cat does not kiss.
Ċa ruidírfíonn ann	I would not sit there.
Ċa o-tiocfaó sí	She would not come.
Ċa n-ólann fe	He does not drink.

(b) With the verb **ir** only, **ċa** becomes **ċan**.

Ċan me (It is not I)	Ċan ríonn.
Ċan tú	Ċan ríḃ.
Ċan é, Ċan í	Ċan íaḡo.

Ċan fuit is the only apparent case of aspiration. This is nothing else than **ċa** n-(f)uit.

N.B.—The English present tense is often used for a future, as, He goes home next week. The Irish present tense with **ċa** is also used in this way, as, **ċa** o-téiríom teat ḡo bḡáḡ = I do not (*i.e.*, I will not) go with you for ever.

Irregular Verbs.

ir mé, I am.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
ir mé, I am	ir ríonn, we are.
ir tú, thou art.	ir ríḃ, you are.
ir é, ir í, he is, she is	ir íaḡo, they are.

H

Negative.

Ո՛ր մե (I am not)	Ո՛ր ըրնն.
Ո՛ր տ՛ւ	Ո՛ր ըրծ.
Ո՛ր հ-ե, ո՛ր հ-ի	Ո՛ր հ-լատ.

Interrogative.

Ճո՞ր մե? (Am I?)	Ճո՞ր ըրնն?
Ճո՞ր տ՛ւ?	Ճո՞ր ըրծ?
Ճո՞ր է? Ճո՞ր ի?	Ճո՞ր լատ?

Interrog. Neg.

Ո՛ճո՞ր մե? (Am I not?)	Ո՛ճո՞ր ըրնն?
Ո՛ճո՞ր տ՛ւ?	Ո՛ճո՞ր ըրծ?
Ո՛ճո՞ր է? Ո՛ճո՞ր ի?	Ո՛ճո՞ր լատ?

Dependent.

Շըր մե (That I am)	Շըր ըրնն.
Շըր տ՛ւ	Շըր ըրծ.
Շըր ձծ է, Շըր ձծ ի	Շըր ձծ լատ.

Or

Շըր մե (That I am)	Շըր ըրնն.
Շըր տ՛ւ	Շըր ըրծ.
Շըրծ է, Շըրծ ի	Շըրծ լատ.

Dependent Negative.

Ո՛ճո՞ր մե (That I am not)	Ո՛ճո՞ր ըրնն.
Ո՛ճո՞ր տ՛ւ	Ո՛ճո՞ր ըրծ.
Ո՛ճո՞ր է, ո՛ճո՞ր ի	Ո՛ճո՞ր լատ.

PERFECT TENSE.

Ծոր՞ or Ծա՞ մե (I was)	Ծոր՞ ըրնն.
Ծոր՞ տ՛ւ	Ծոր՞ ըրծ.
Ծոր՞ է, Ծոր՞ ի	Ծոր՞ լատ.

N.B.—These are the only forms used. In a few idiomatic expressions such as, *ծոր՞ մատ՛ տոմ*, a conditional meaning is conveyed, but “*ծոր՞*” by itself is a mere perfect tense.

THE IMPERSONAL VERB IS.

PRESENT TENSE.

1r me, It is I	1r 1inn, It is we.
1r tú, It is thou	1r 1ib, It is you.
1r é, It is he	1r 1av, It is they.

N.B.—mé, tú, &c., are predicates here.

Negative.

ni mé, (It is not I)	ni 1inn.
ni tú	ni 1ib.
ni h-é, ni h-i	ni h-1av.

Interrogative.

an me? (Is it I?)	an 1inn?
an tú?	an 1ib?
an é? an i?	an 1av?

Interrog. Neg.

naé mé? (Is it not I?)	naé 1inn?
naé tú?	naé 1ib?
naé é, naé i?	naé 1av?

Dependent.

sur mé (That it is I)	sur 1inn.
sur tú	sur 1ib?
surb é, surb i	surb 1av.

Dependent Neg.

naé mé (That it is not I)	naé 1inn.
naé tú	naé 1ib.
naé é, naé i	naé 1av.

Optative: So m-buð or sur av = may it be. These are very rare, ta being almost always used.

PERFECT TENSE.

ὄυθ me (It was I)	ὄυθ ρῖnn.
ὄυθ τῶ	ὄυθ ρῖθ.
ὄυθ ἑ, οὗθ ἰ	ὄυθ ἰαθ.

USE OF ἸS.

(a) The secondary forms of the perfect are like those of the present tense. It is only by the context—usually by a relative clause following—that we can distinguish the tense, as, *ἢ ἰ μέ ἄ οἰη ἑ*, It is not I that say it. *ἢ ἰ me ἄ οὐβδαιητ ἑ*. It was not I that said it. The particles are also the same. We must not, therefore, say, *ἄη me?* Was it I? *ἢ ἰη me*, It was not I; *ἄη eun ἑ?* Was it a bird? *ἄη ἑηανκαῶ ἑ?* Was he a Frenchman? These are turned correctly as follows :—

<i>ἄη μέ ἄ θῖ ἄηη?</i>	Was it I that was in it?
<i>ἢ ἰ μέ ἄ θῖ ἄηη</i>	It was not I that was in it.
<i>ἄη eun ἄ θῖ ἄηη?</i>	Was it a bird that was in it?
<i>ἄη ἑηανκαῶ ἄ θῖ ἄηη?</i>	Was it a Frenchman that was in him?

(b) Before *ἑ, ἰ, ἰαθ*, however, the particles *ἄη ἢ ἰηη, ηηη, &c.*, as well as the verb, are often used—principally in replies, as, *ἢ ἰηηθ ἑ*, It was not (he), *ἢ ἰηηθ ἰ*, It was not (she); *ἢ ἰηηθ ἰαθ*, It was not (they); *οὐβδαιητ ρῖ ηηηθ ἰ*, She said that it was not (she); *ἄηθ ἰ ἢ ἄηηηη ἄ οὐβδαιητ ρῖη?* Was it Mary that said that? &c. With certain idiomatic phrases also these particles are used before adjectives, the initials of which

will be aspirated, but the verb will be suppressed, except before a vowel sound :

Δη μήαιε λέαιε ?	Would you like ?
νήοη έόόη ουιε	You should not.
Δηθ έάάηη λέαιε ?	Would you prefer ?
ηαιθ άηο αν έααι έ ?	Wasn't he a tall man ?
ηαιη ήόηη αν έααι έ ?	Wasn't he a big man ?
νήοη ηήόηη αν έααι έ ?	He wasn't a big man ?

Δη ηήόηη αν έααι έ ? is incorrect.

(c) Examples of the type of *ουθ ήόηη αν έααι έ* are often converted into relative sentences with the usual particles, *νή, αν, ηαέ*, etc.

He was a big man	ουθ ήόηη αν έααι α θί ανηη.
She was a good girl	ουθ μήαιε αν αιηίηη α θί ιηηηί.
Were not they big men ?	ηαέ ήόηη ηα έηη α θί ιοηηηα ?
Was he a big man ?	αν έααι ηήόηη α θί ανηη ?

It would be wrong to translate this last example by, *αν ηήόηη αν έααι α θί ανηη ?* In examples of this kind the adjective always expresses inherent quality, that is, our attention is drawn to the *size*, rather than to the *species* of the man. But as we cannot be impressed with the size of an object which we have not yet seen, and which we are merely inquiring about, it follows that the adjective does not express inherent quality. Hence, *Δη ηήόηη αν έααι έ ?* and *αν ηήόηη αν έααι α θί ανηη ?* are both incorrect.

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

ουθ μέ αν έααι	I was the man.
ουθ με αν έηαηαέ	I was the Frenchman.
ουθ ί αιηηε αν θεαν	Mary was the woman.

With indefinite predicates, it is usual to convert simple sentences into relative ones as follows :—

He was a man.	Ἦρ ῥεαρὶ ἄ ὅϊ ἀνν.
He was a Frenchman	Ἦρ ῥε ἀννακαὶ ἄ ὅϊ ἀνν.
She was a good girl	Ἦρ καίλιν μαίε ἄ ὅϊ ἰνντί.

Or, with τὰ.

ὅϊ ῥε να ῥεαρ.
ὅϊ ῥε να ῥε ἀννακαὶ.
ὅϊ ῥί να καίλιν μαίε.

(e) The verb Ἦρ, and its past tense βυῖ, are, therefore, as a general rule, suppressed in secondary tenses. We have also seen that the conjunction γο becomes ζυῖ in dependent sentences, and when ἐ, ἰ, or ἰαῖ follows it is written ζυῖβ, or ζυῖβ (past).

He says that he is the man	Ῥεαρ ῥε ζυῖβ ἐ ἀν ῥεαρ.
He said that he was the man	Ῥεβυῖε ῥε ζυῖβ ἐ ἀν ῥεαρ.
He says that Nora is the girl	Ῥεαρ ῥε ζυῖβ ἰ νόρμα ἀν καίλιν.
He said that Nora was the girl	Ῥεβυῖε ῥε ζυῖβ ἰ νόρμα ἀν καίλιν.

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

Ἦρ μέ ἀτά ἀζ καίετ	It is I who am talking.
ἀν ῥεαρ ἀτά ἀζ καίετ ?	Is it a man that is talking ?

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

Ἦρ μέ ἐ (verb subj. pred.)	I am he.
Ἦρ τύ νόρμα (v. s. p.)	You are Nora.
Ἦρ μέ ἀν ῥεαρ (v. s. p.)	I am the man.
Ἦρ ῥεαρ μέ (v. p. s.)	I am a man.

THE IS CONSTRUCTION.

The subject is placed immediately after all verbs in the language. *tá* complies with this rule when the subject and predicate are both definite,* but in other cases the predicate comes between the verb and the subject. [See Double Predicate.]

He is the man	<i>tá é an fear</i>	}	v. s. p.
I am he	<i>tá me é</i>		
I am Cian	<i>tá me Cian</i>		
John is my son	<i>tá é Seadán mo mac</i>	}	v. p. s.
I am a man	<i>tá fear me</i>		
John is a Frenchman	<i>tá Fraincic Seadán</i>		

Double Subject.

(a) When the subject and predicate of a sentence are both definite there will be an extra pronoun subject in Irish agreeing in gender, number, and case, with *the* subject which must be a noun either expressed or understood.

Mary is she	<i>tá...í Máire...í</i>	}	v. s. p.
John is he	<i>tá...é Seadán...é</i>		
Erin is my country	<i>tá...í Éire...mo tír</i>		
The men are they	<i>tá...iad na fear...iad</i>		
These men are they	<i>tá...iad na fear ro...iad</i>		
That is Mary	<i>tá...í sin...Máire</i>		

(b) Sometimes *this* and *that*, or their plurals, are equivalent to the adverbs *here* and *there*, and when this is so they are rendered by *ro* and *sin*.

This is he = Here he is = *ro é*.

That is he = There he is = *sin é*.

This is John = Here is John = *ro Seadán*.

* A word is definite if it is a proper name, or a personal pronoun; or if it is preceded by a possessive or demonstrative adjective. *This* and *that* are definite words when they point to a noun understood.

(c) When an *indefinite* predicate is the name of something pointed at, *this* and *that* are not equivalent to the adverbs *here* and *there*, but refer to some abstract or unknown thing understood, and in such cases we must use the verb thus :—

This is a stone	իր լուօ՛ թօ.
This is not bread	նի ճրճճ թօ.
That is not a horse	նի ճարճլ թոն.
It is a ghost	իր լուծրօ է.
That is not Irish	նի չաթուլջօ թոն.

(d) When *this*, *that*, *these*, or *those*, are equivalent to *this one*, *that one*, *these ones*, *those ones*, a double subject must be used, even with indefinite predicates.

This is a cow	իր ծօ՛ օ թօ.
That is a bull	իր լուծրօ՛ է թոն.
These are herrings	իր թչաճուճ օճ թօ.
That is a good cow	իր ծօ՛ նճուճ օ թոն.


Double Predicate.

(a) When the subject is a personal pronoun, and a possessive pronoun in the predicate, there will be a double predicate, and the construction will be—*verb, predicate, subject*.

He is my father	իր.....է մ' ճճուճ.....է.	} v. p. s.
She is my love	իր.....օ մօ չրճօ.....օ.	
They are my horses	իր.....օճ մօ ճարճլ.....օճ.	
It is my pleasure	իր.....է մօ լուճ... է.	

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

իր օ թօրճ ճճճ ճոն թօ.	It is Nora that is here.
նի հ-օճ նճ թրճ ճճճ ճոն.	It is not the men that are in it.
ճոն է Տէճարճ ճ թրճննօ է՛	Was it James that did it.

 Note the difference in :—

{ They are my sheep	ἵρ ἰαὺ μο ἐδοιμιζ ἰαὺ.
{ The sheep are mine	ἵρ λιὸμ να ἐδοιμιζ.
{ These are my sheep	ἵρ ἰαὺ ρὸ μο ἐδοιμιζ.
{ These sheep are mine	ἵρ λιὸμ να ἐδοιμιζ ρὸ.
{ Speak if you wish	λαδαῖμ μα 'ρ ἐ σο τοῖλ ἐ.
{ Speak (if you) please !	λαδαῖμ λε σο τοῖλ.

N.B.—ἄστ ἀβ ἐ Σεαζαν θεῖοῖνν μαρῶ=Only for John I would have been dead. ἄστ ἀβ ἐ ζο ραῖῶ τῦ ἀνν ὅι με καίτε=Had you not been there I was done for. ἄστ ἀβ ἐ τυρὰ ζο ὀέ θεάνραινν ! Only for you what would I do !

THE VERB ΤΑ.


INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Τά με, I am | Τά ρῖνν,* we are. |
| 2. Τά τῦ, thou art | Τά ρῖῶ, you are. |
| 3. Τά ρε, τὰ ρί, he is, &c. | Τά ριαὺ, they are. |

Negative.

ἢι φῦἷλ με (I am not)	ἢι φῦἷλ ρῖνν, ἢι φῦἷλμῖρο.
ἢι φῦἷλ τῦ	ἢι φῦἷλ ρῖῶ.
ἢι φῦἷλ ρε	ἢι φῦἷλ ριαὺ.

 ἢι φῦἷλ is also written ἢἷλ.

Interrogative.

ὄ-φῦἷλ με ? (Am I ?)	ὄ-φῦἷλ ρῖνν ? ὄ-φῦἷλμῖρο ?
ὄ-φῦἷλ τῦ ?	ὄ-φῦἷλ ρῖῶ ?
ὄ-φῦἷλ ρε ?	ὄ-φῦἷλ ριαὺ ?

* τάμῖρο is also used.

Interrog. Negative.

ηαϙ ϑ-ρυιτ με? (Am I not?)	ηαϙ ϑ-ρυιτ ρινη?
ηαϙ ϑ-ρυιτ τά?	ηαϙ ϑ-ρυιτ ριϑ?
ηαϙ ϑ-ρυιτ ρε?	ηαϙ ϑ-ρυιτ ριαϑ?

The Habitual Present.

τá is the only verb in the language that has a special form to express habitual action or state. As well as the forms given below, we often hear *βί τά*, *βί ρέ*, *βί ρί*, etc., but these are not used after particles.

SINGULAR.

ϑιριμ (I am wont to be)
ϑιρεανν τά
ϑιρεανν ρε

PLURAL.

ϑιρεανν ρινη.*
ϑιρεανν ριϑ.
ϑιρεανν ριαϑ.

Negative.

ηί ϑιριμ (I am not wont to be)	ηί ϑιρεανν ρινη.
ηί ϑιρεανν τά	ηί ϑιρεανν ριϑ.
ηί ϑιρεανν ρε	ηί ϑιρεανν ριαϑ.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

ϑιριμν (I used to be)	ϑιρεαϑ ρινη.
ϑιρτεα	ϑιρεαϑ ριϑ.
ϑιρεαϑ ρε.	ϑιρεαϑ ριαϑ.

Negative: ηί ϑιριμν, ηί ϑιρτεα, etc.

Interrogative: μ-ϑιριμν? μ-ϑιρτεα, etc.?

Interrog. Neg.: ηαϙ μ-ϑιριμν? etc.

PERFECT TENSE.

ϑί με (I was)	ϑί ρινη.
ϑί τά	ϑί ριϑ.
ϑί ρέ	ϑί ριαϑ.

* Also *βιριμ*.

Negative.

Ուրի չեմ (I was not)	Ուրի չեմ ընդ.
Ուրի չեմ ուրի	Ուրի չեմ ընդ.
Ուրի չեմ ընդ	Ուրի չեմ ընդ.

Չեմ is pronounced չոհ.

Interrogative.

Չեմ չեմ? (Was I?)	Չեմ ընդ?
Չեմ ուրի	Չեմ ընդ?
Չեմ ընդ?	Չեմ ընդ?

Also, Ան չեմ չեմ?

FUTURE TENSE.

Չեմ չեմ (I shall be)	Չեմ ընդ.*
Չեմ ուրի	Չեմ ընդ.
Չեմ ընդ	Չեմ ընդ.

Negative: Ուրի չեմ չեմ, etc.

Interrogative: Մ-չեմ չեմ, etc.

Interrog. Neg.: Ուրի չեմ չեմ չեմ? etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Չեմ չեմ (I would be)	Չեմ ընդ ընդ.
Չեմ ուրի	Չեմ ընդ ընդ.
Չեմ ընդ ընդ	Չեմ ընդ ընդ.

Negative: Ուրի չեմ չեմ, etc.

Interrogative: Մ-չեմ չեմ? etc.

Interrog. Neg.: Ուրի չեմ չեմ չեմ? etc.

OPTATIVE MOOD.

Չեմ չեմ չեմ! (may I be!)	Չեմ չեմ ընդ! †
Չեմ չեմ ուրի!	Չեմ չեմ ընդ!
Չեմ չեմ ընդ!	Չեմ չեմ ընդ!

* Also չեմ չեմ. † Also չեմ չեմ չեմ!

Negative.

Ναρ ραιθ με !
 Ναρ ραιθ τῦ !
 Ναρ ραιθ ρε !

Ναρ ραιθ ρινη !
 Ναρ ραιθ ριθ !
 Ναρ ραιθ ριαθ !

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. —————
2. θί (be)
3. θιθεαθ ρε

PLURAL.

θιοθμυρθ.
 θιθιρθ.*
 θιθεαθ ριαθ.

INFINITIVE, ETC.

Α θειτ, to be.

Διη m-θειτ, having been.

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

ΤΑΤΑΡ, ΘΙΤΕΑΡ, ΘΕΙΘΤΕΑΡ

These forms are often used when the subject is general, as, *Ταταρ ας βυιητ αν ρειη*, they are mowing the hay, the hay is being mowed. *Θιτεαρ ας βυιητ να θ-ρηεαται*, they were digging the potatoes, the potatoes were being dug. *Ταταρ θα m-βυιητ*, they are digging them, they are being dug. *θι θειθτεαρ θα m-βυιητ ζο ρεο*, they (people or we) will not be digging them for ever.

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

* Classic form θιθιρθ, now written and pronounced θιθιρθ. Hence also ροραιορθ, θηηηιορθ.

Inherent Quality and Species.

NOUNS.—When we say that a cow is not a goat we cannot mistake the meaning, viz. : that it is a question of the *species* of animal. When we say that a cow is not a block of wood, it is also a question of species. But when we say that *the* cow is not a goat, two ideas are presented to our mind : (1) that the cow is not of the goat species ; (2) that the cow in question may have been at one time under the form of a goat, or of a hare, but that she is *now* in her natural shape again ; and hence she is not *in her* capacity or *quality of goat*, or as it would lie in Irish, *The cow is not in her goat*. Again, when we say that a lamb is a sheep, we cannot mistake the meaning, viz. : that a lamb is not a cat or a dog, but an animal of the sheep species. But “*The* lamb is a sheep,” suggests (1) the idea of species, (2) that the lamb *has grown*, and is now *in its quality of sheep*, and hence, this is a question of internal or inherent quality. “A lamb is a young sheep,” suggests species only, but “*The* lamb is a young sheep,” suggests both species and inherent quality. In composition the context must be our guide. If the sentence has no connection, we may translate as we choose. From this we see :—

(1) That the question of species or quality requires that the *predicate* be *indefinite*.

(2) That when the subject is *indefinite*, the idea of species is conveyed.

(3) That when the subject is *definite*, species or quality may be conveyed.

ADJECTIVES.—When we say corn is green, sugar is sweet, we may mean that corn is green *and not black*, sugar is sweet *and not bitter*; and, here the colour or quality expressed by the adjective is always associated with other colours or qualities. The adjective in such cases expresses species. But when the colour or quality is not associated with other qualities, it usually intensifies our feelings in some way. Thus, when we say, sugar is sweet, we may mean, “How sweet sugar is!” and when we say, “Isn’t sugar sweet?” we may mean, “What a sweet thing sugar is!” or “Sugar is very sweet—Don’t you think so?” In such cases the adjective expresses inherent quality. In English, this idea of inherent quality or state is expressed by the context, in a variety of ways; sometimes by emphasising the verb, as “This is a sweet apple—and indeed it *is* sweet”; sometimes by a negative sentence, interrogative in form, but really an exclamation, as, “Isn’t the water black?” or more correctly, “Isn’t the water black!” But perhaps the favourite way of expressing inherent quality in English, is by a poetical inversion, that is, by misplacing the adjective, and putting it in a prominent position. The following are examples of this kind, and all the adjectives express inherent quality :—

“O! *green* was the corn as I rode on my way,
 And *bright* were the dews on the blossoms of May!”
 “*Pale* are the stars in the heavens to-night,
 And *silent* and *still* is the lake!”
 “*Sad* is the sound and *sorrowful*!”
 “*Fair* are the fields in the Summer,
 And *sweet* is the scent of the flowers!”

WHEN TO USE IS AND WHEN ΤΑ.

(a) A sentence having a definite predicate must be rendered by 1r.

I am the man	1r me an fear.
You are the king	1r tú an rí.
I am he	1r me é.
We are they	1r rinn iad.
Are you Cormack	An tú Cormac?
She is my daughter	1r í mo nígean í.
This is my brother	1r e ro mo deárbair.
That is my sister	1r í rin mo dearbhair.

(b) To translate a sentence having an indefinite noun predicate, 1r must be used for species, and τα for inherent quality.

The trout is a fish	1r iars an bhéac.	} sp.
John is a priest	1r fásairt Seásan.	
He is a man	1r fear é.	
The trout is a fish	Τά an bhéac na iars.	} i. q.
John is a priest	Τά Seásan na fásairt.	
He is a man	Τά ré na fear.	

When the indefinite noun is qualified by an adjective, a favourite way to express inherent quality is to use 1r, immediately followed by the adjective, and then the noun with the article, as, He is a good man = 1r maít an fear é; they are good men = 1r maít na rinn iad. Notice that the adjective is invariable.

He is a good man =

- (1) 1r fear maít é (Species).
- (2) 1r maít an fear é (i. q.)
- (3) Τά ré na fear maít (i. q.)

When the indefinite predicate expresses species **1r** and **τΔ** often combine to form an idiom by which simple sentences are converted into relative ones. Thus, She is a woman = **1r bean ΔτΔ inntí** = literally, It is a woman that is in her.

A trout is a fish	1r 1Δrξ ΔτΔ Δ m-bpεΔc.
They are men	1r p1r ΔτΔ 10nntΔ.
John is a man	1r pεΔr ΔτΔ Δnn ξεΔξΔn.
You are a good girl	1r cΔilín mΔit ΔτΔ 10nntΔ.
Mary is a good girl	1r cΔilín mΔit ΔτΔ Δnn mΔáirε.


N.B.—We see, therefore, that the same sentence may be rendered three ways when the indefinite predicate has no adjective, and four ways when it has an adjective.

JOHN IS A PRIEST :

- (1) **1r pΔξΔrτ ΣεΔξΔn** (Species).
- (2) **1r pΔξΔrτ ΔτΔ Δnn ΣεΔξΔn** (Species.)
- (3) **τΔ ΣεΔξΔn nΔ pΔξΔrτ** (i. q.)

JOHN IS A GOOD PRIEST :

- (1) **1r pΔξΔrτ mΔit ΣεΔξΔn** (Species.)
- (2) **1r pΔξΔrτ mΔit ΔτΔ Δnn ΣεΔξΔn** (Species.)
- (3) **1r mΔit Δn pΔξΔrτ ΣεΔξΔn** (i. q.)
- (4) **τΔ ΣεΔξΔn nΔ pΔξΔrτ mΔit** (i. q.)

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

He is five miles away	τΔ pε cúξ mίle Δ1r p1rυΔl.
The house is twenty yards long	τΔ Δn τεΔé píce p1Δτ Δ1r pΔυ.
It is twenty feet high	τΔ pε píce τp10ξ Δ1r Δ1rυε.
It is midnight	τΔ pε Δn μεΔύ0n-010úε.
I was a year in Derry	ύ1 me bl1ΔύΔ1n Δ n-υ01rε.

(c) When the predicate is an adjective in the comparative degree we may use either *ἴσ* or *τά*, as, Milk is better than wine=(1) *τά βαιννε νιορ ρεάρη* *να ριον* (2) *ἴρ ρεάρη βαιννε να ριον*. When the predicate is an adjective in the positive degree *τά* must be used for species, and *ἴρ* for inherent quality, as,

Sugar is sweet (sp.)	<i>τά ριυερια μιλιρ.</i>
Sugar is sweet (i. q.)	<i>ἴρ μιλιρ ριυερια.</i>
The corn was green (sp.)	<i>ὄι αν κοιρκε ζλιαρ.</i>
Green was the corn ! (i. q.)	<i>ὄυό ζλιαρ αν κοιρκε.</i>
The night is dark (sp.)	<i>τά αν οιοόε ὄορηά.</i>
Isn't the night dark ? (i. q.)	<i>ηάε ὄορηά αν οιοόε ?</i>

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

He is at the door	<i>τά ρε αιγ αν ὄορηρ.</i>
He is not there now	<i>ηί ρυιτ ρε ανη ριν ανοιρ.</i>
He is walking *	<i>τά ρε αιγ ριυθαλ.</i>

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

It is sick that I am	<i>ἴρ τινη ατά με.</i>
It is I who am sick	<i>ἴρ μοιρε ατά τινη.</i>
It is here that I am	<i>ἴρ ανη ρο ατά με.</i>
It is at the well that I am	<i>ἴρ αιγ αν τοβαρ ατά με.</i>
It is I that have the cow	<i>ἴρ αζαμπα ατά αν ὄό.</i>
It is I that have the new hat	<i>ἴρ αζαμπα ατά αν ηατα ὄρ.</i>
It is walking that I am	<i>ἴρ αιγ ριυθαλ ατά με.</i>

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

ՅԵՐԻՄ, I GIVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Յերիմ (I give)	Յեր բոն.
Յեր տ՛	Յեր բԾ.
Յեր րե	Յեր բաԾ.

Negative.

Ո՛ր չաճրամ (I do not give)	Ո՛ր չաճրան բոն.
Ո՛ր չաճրան տ՛	Ո՛ր չաճրան բԾ.
Ո՛ր չաճրան րե	Ո՛ր չաճրան բաԾ.

Pronounce Ո՛ր հօրմ, etc.

IMPERFECT INDIC.

Յիրոն (I used to give)	Յիրեձո բոն.
Յիրեձ	Յիրեձո բԾ.
Յիրեձո րե	Յիրեձո բաԾ.

Negative.

Ո՛ր չաճրան (I used not to give)	Ո՛ր չաճարձո բոն.
Ո՛ր չաճարձ	Ո՛ր չաճարձո բԾ.
Ո՛ր չաճարձո րե	Ո՛ր չաճարձո բաԾ.

Pronounce Ո՛ր հօրան, ո՛ր հօրնձ, etc.

PERFECT INDIC.

Շոց մե (I gave)	Շոց բոն or Շոցմուր.
Շոց տ՛	Շոց բԾ.
Շոց րե	Շոց բաԾ.

Negative, etc.

Ո՛ր չոց մե or Ո՛ր չոց մե, etc.

Ար չոց մե? or Ծ-ոց մե? etc.

Ո՛ր չոց մե? or Ո՛ր չ Ծ-ոց մե? etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Ծերբրժ me* (I shall give)	Ծերբրժ բոնն.
Ծերբրժ տ՛ւ	Ծերբրժ բոծ.
Ծերբրժ բե	Ծերբրժ բաժ.

Also written Ծեարբարժ me.

Negative.

Ու չածարբարժ me* (I will not give)	Ու չածարբարժ բոնն.
Ու չածարբարժ տ՛ւ	Ու չածարբարժ բոծ.
Ու չածարբարժ բե	Ու չածարբարժ բաժ.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Ծերբոնն (I would give)	Ծերբբաժ բոնն.
Ծերբբա	Ծերբբաժ բոծ.
Ծերբբաժ բե.	Ծերբբաժ բաժ.

Also Ծեարբարոնն.

Negative.

Ու չածարբարոնն (I would not give)	Ու չածարբաժ բոնն.
Ու չածարբա	Ու չածարբաժ բոծ.
Ու չածարբաժ բե	Ու չածարբաժ բաժ.

<i>Imperative</i>	Ծաժար, † <i>pl.</i> Ծաժարոցի՜ր զո՞ր Ծաժարոցի՜ր.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Ա չաժարտ (Pr. ձ չօրտ, or ա հօրտ).
<i>Participle</i>	Աճ չաժարտ (Pr. Աճ չօրտ or ա չօրտ).

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	Ծերտար մե՛ ; ու չաժարտար մե՛.
<i>Imperfect</i>	Ծերտի մե՛ ; ու չաժարտաւ մե՛.
<i>Perfect</i>	Ծաժաժ մե՛ ; ու չաժարտաժ մե՛.
<i>Future</i>	Ծեարբար մե՛ ; ու չածարբար մե՛.
<i>Conditional</i>	Ծերբրժե մե՛ ; ու չածարբարժե մե՛.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Ա յեւ չաժարտա, or ա յեւ չաժարտա.
<i>Participle</i>	Ծաժարտա or չաժարտա.

* Pronounce : Ծերբիւմ ä, Ծերբիւտտ՛ւ, Ծերբի բե (short, Ծերբիւր բա), etc. *Negative* : ու հօրիւմ ä, ու հօրիւտտ՛ւ, ու հօրի բե, etc.

† Pronounce, չօրտ.

✎ As may be seen, there is a special root in most of the tenses when the verb is negative. This root must be used, also, in interrogative and dependent sentences. In this verb, the special root is τὰδαιρ, but τῦς is also used.

IDIOMATIC USE OF *ἄειμι*.

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

- (1) *ἄειμι* + ὄο + noun or pronoun = I give... .
- (2) *ἄειμι* + ἀρ + noun or pronoun = I pay... .
- (3) *ἄειμι* + ἀρ + noun + infin. = I cause or compel.
- (4) *ἄειμι* + τιὸμ, λατ, λειρ, etc. = I take... .
- (5) *ἄειμι* + ἔῤῥαμ, ἔῤῥατ, etc. = I bring... .

Examples.

τῦς ρε ἀρην ὄο ἡδαιρε	He gave bread to Mary.
τῦς ρε ριζην ἀρ ἀρην	He paid a penny for bread.
τῦς ρε ἀρ ἕνα ριῦρε	He made Una sit.
τῦς ρε ἀρ ὄδ λειρ	He took the cow with him.
τῦς ρε ἀρ ρζιαν ἔῤῥι	He brought her the knife.
τὰδαιρ ἔῤῥαμ μο ὄρῶζα	Bring me my shoes.

ἄειμι, I BEAR.

ACTIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	<i>ἄειμι</i> ; <i>νὶ ἄειμι</i> ; <i>μ-ἄειμι</i> ?
<i>Imperfect</i>	<i>ἄειμι</i> ν ; <i>νὶ ἄειμι</i> ν ; <i>μ-ἄειμι</i> ν ?
<i>Perfect</i>	ῤῥῦ μέ ; <i>νίὸρ ῤῥῦ</i> μέ ; <i>ἀρ ῤῥῦ</i> μέ ?
<i>Future</i>	<i>ἄειμι</i> ῦρ με, <i>νὶ ἄειμι</i> ῦρ μέ ; &c.
<i>Conditional</i>	<i>ἄειμι</i> ῖν ; <i>νὶ ἄειμι</i> ῖν ; <i>μ-ἄειμι</i> ῖν ?
<i>Imperative</i>	<i>ἄειρ</i> <i>ῖλ</i> <i>ἄειμι</i> ῖζο.
<i>Infinitive</i>	ἄ <i>ἄει</i> τ.
<i>Participle</i>	ἄζ <i>ἄει</i> τ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	Βεητεαρ μέ ; ní βεητεαρ μέ.
<i>Imperfect</i>	Βεητι μέ ; ní βεητι μέ.
<i>Perfect</i>	Ρυζαθ μέ ; níοη ρυζαθ μέ ; αη ρυζαθ μέ ?
<i>Future</i>	Βεαρφαρ μέ ; ní βεαρφαρ μέ.
<i>Conditional</i>	Βεηφιθδε μέ ; ní βεηφιθδε μέ.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Δ βειτ βειτε.
<i>Participle</i>	Βειτε.

USE OF βειριμ.

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

(1) To produce or bring forth :

Ρυζ ρί μαρ	She brought forth a son.
Ρυζ αν θό	The cow calved.
Ρυζ αν έαρηρ	The hen laid.

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

Ρυζ ρε αη αν τ-ρλαητ	He caught the rod.
Ρυζ ρε αη Σέαμυρ	He seized James.
Ρυζαθ αη Σεαζαν	John was arrested.
Ρυζ ρε αη ρεαθαη	He overtook Peter.

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

Հորժում OR Դժում, I DO, I MAKE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Հորժում (I do, I make)	Հորժ բոյն.
Հորժ տ՛ս	Հորժ բո՛ւ.
Հորժ թե	Հորժ բա՛օ.

Pr. ոյմ, ոյ տ՛ս, etc.

Negative.

Ոյ ղեճոյմ (I do not do)	Ոյ ղեճոյնն բոյն.
Ոյ ղեճոյնն տ՛ս	Ոյ ղեճոյնն բո՛ւ.
Ոյ ղեճոյնն թե	Ոյ ղեճոյնն բա՛օ.

Also ըս n-ղեճոյմ, etc.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

Հորժոյնն (I used to do)	Հորժեճօ բոյն.
Հորժեճա	Հորժեճօ բո՛ւ.
Հորժեճօ թե	Հորժեճօ բա՛օ.

Negative.

Ոյ ղեճոյնն (I used not to do)	Ոյ ղեճոճօ բոյն.
Ոյ ղեճոճա	Ոյ ղեճոճօ բո՛ւ.
Ոյ ղեճոճօ թե	Ոյ ղեճոճօ բա՛օ.

Also ըս n-ղեճոյնն, etc.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Բոյնն մե (I did, I made)	Բոյնն բոյն.
Բոյնն տ՛ս	Բոյնն բո՛ւ.
Բոյնն թե	Բոյնն բա՛օ.

Negative.

Ոյ ղեճրն մե (I did not do)	Ոյ ղեճրն բոյն.
Ոյ ղեճրն տ՛ս	Ոյ ղեճրն բո՛ւ.
Ոյ ղեճրն թե	Ոյ ղեճրն բա՛օ.

Also ըս ղեճրն մե, etc.

Interrogative.

Ἦσάν με ? (Did I do?)	Ἦσάν ρίνν ?
Ἦσάν τῦ ?	Ἦσάν ριβ ?
Ἦσάν ρε ?	Ἦσάν ριατ ?

N.B.—No Eclipsis.

Interrogative Negative, etc.

Ἠὰς Ἦσάν με ?	Did I not do ?
Ἦσὸ Ἦσάν με	That I did, that I made.
Ἠὰς Ἦσάν με	That I did not do.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Ἦσάμειτὸ με (I shall do)	Ἦσάμειτὸ ρίνν.
Ἦσάμειτὸ τῦ	Ἦσάμειτὸ ριβ.
Ἦσάμειτὸ ρε	Ἦσάμειτὸ ριατ.

Negative.

Ἠὶ Ἦσάμειτὸ με (I will not do)	Ἠὶ Ἦσάμειτὸ ρίνν.
Ἠὶ Ἦσάμειτὸ τῦ	Ἠὶ Ἦσάμειτὸ ριβ.
Ἠὶ Ἦσάμειτὸ ρε	Ἠὶ Ἦσάμειτὸ ριατ.


Also, Ἦσάμειτὸ με, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Ἦσάμειν (I would do)	Ἦσάμειτὸ ρίνν.
Ἦσάμει	Ἦσάμειτὸ ριβ.
Ἦσάμειτὸ ρε	Ἦσάμειτὸ ριατ.

Imperative : Ἦσάν, *pl.* Ἦσάμειτὸ.

Infinitive : Ἦσάμειτὸ. *Participle* : Ἦσάμειτὸν.

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

ΘΕΙΡΙΜ, I SAY.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Θειριμ (I say)	Θειρ ρινη.
Θειρ τύ	Θειρ ριβ.
Θειρ re	Θειρ ριασ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Θύβαιρε me (I said)	Θύβαιρε ρινη.
Θύβαιρε τύ	Θύβαιρε ριβ.
Θύβαιρε re	Θύβαιρε ριασ.

Pronounce, θύιρε me, etc.

Πιορ θύβαιρε me	I did not say.
Διρ θύβαιρε me ?	Did I say ?
Νιαρ θύβαιρε me ?	Did I not say ?
Αβαιρ, αβραισιθ	Say thou, say you.
Α ραθ ; ας ραθ	To say ; saying.

The other parts are quite regular.

PASSIVE VOICE.

<i>Present Indic.</i>	Θειρτεαρ ε	It is said.
<i>Imperfect</i>	Θειρτι ε	It was said.
<i>Perfect</i>	Αβραθ ε	It was said.
<i>Future</i>	Θεαρφαρ ε	It will be said.
<i>Conditional</i>	Θεαρφαριθ ε	It would be said.
<i>Infin. and Part.</i>	Α θειτ ραίριτε ; ραίριτε.	
<i>Impersonal</i>	Θειρτεαρ	It is said (<i>Fr., On dit</i>).
	Θειρτι	It was said.
	Αβραθ	It was said.
	Θεαρφαρ	It will be said.
	Θεαρφαριθ	It would be said.

N.B.—Θειριμ + τε = I tell, as Θειριμ τεατ, I tell you; Θύβαιρε me τε Μάριε, I told Mary. The *ο* of θύβαιρε is silent.

ՏԵԻԾԻՄ (I GET, I FIND).

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

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

Negative.

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

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

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

Pr. yevinn, yevha, etc.

Negative.

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

Pr. ՈՒ ձԻՆՆ, ո՛ւ ձԻՆՆԱ, etc.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

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

Negative.

ՈՒ ԲԱԴԻՐ՝ՄԵ (I did not get)	ՈՒ ԲԱԴԻՐ ԲԻՆՆ.
ՈՒ ԲԱԴԻՐ ԵՍ	ՈՒ ԲԱԴԻՐ ԲԻԾ.
ՈՒ ԲԱԴԻՐ ԲԵ	ՈՒ ԲԱԴԻՐ ԲԻԱԾ.

* Pronounce *yev'-in, yev eս, yev fe,* etc.

† Pronounce ո՛ւ ԲԱԴԻՐ.

Interrogative.

Ù-ƒuair mé ? (Did I get ?)	Ù-ƒuair rinn ?
Ù-ƒuair tú	Ù-ƒuair rið ?
Ù-ƒuair re ?	Ù-ƒuair riad ?

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Šeððairð me (I shall get)	Šeððairð rinn.
Šeððairð tú	Šeððairð rið.
Šeððairð re	Šeððairð riad.

*Pr. yo'-ee mǎ, etc.**Negative.*

ni ƒuis* me (I shall not get)	ni ƒuis rinn.
ni ƒuis tú	ni ƒuis rið.
ni ƒuis re	ni ƒuis riad.

Interrogative.

Ù-ƒuis me ? (Shall I get ?)	Ù-ƒuis rinn ?
Ù-ƒuis tú ?	Ù-ƒuis rið ?
Ù-ƒuis re ?	Ù-ƒuis riad ?

Pr. wee mǎ ? etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Šeððairn (I would get)	Šeððairð rinn.
Šeððair	Šeððairð rið.
Šeððair re	Šeððairð riad.

*Pr. yóinn, yðhǎ, yóit rǐ, etc.**Negative.*

ni ƒuisinn (I would not get)	ni ƒuisairð rinn.
ni ƒuisair	ni ƒuisairð rið.
ni ƒuisair re	ni ƒuisairð riad.

Pr. ní wuinn, ní wuina, ní wuit rǐ, etc.

Also, ní ƒašairn, etc.

* *Pronounce: ní wuis, or ní wee.*

Imperative *ἴα*, *ἴα*σαισιθ̄ (*Pr.* *ἴα*, *ἴα*-ις-ι).

Infinitive *ἄ ἴα*σαι (*Pr.* *ἄ ἴαι*).

Participle *ἄς ἴα*σαι (*Pr.* *ἄς ἴαι* or *ἄ ἴαι*).

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. *ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *νί ἴα*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *θ̄-ἴα*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*?

Imperfect *ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *νί ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *θ̄-ἴα*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*?

Perfect *ἴα*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *νί ἴα*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *θ̄-ἴα*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*?

Future *ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *νί ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*.

Conditional *ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*; *νί ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *μέ*.

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

<i>ἴα</i> <i>μέ</i> <i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	I am to be got.
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	I used to be got.
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>μέ</i> <i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	I was to be got.
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>μέ</i> <i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	I shall be got.
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>μέ</i> <i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	I would be got.
<i>ἄ ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	To be got.
<i>λέ ἴα</i> σαι	Got.

*ἴε*σθεσθ̄, I GO.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ (I go)	<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ἴνν</i> .
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>σύ</i>	<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ἴθ̄</i> .
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ῥε</i>	<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ἴαθ̄</i> .

Sometimes *ἴε*σθεσθ̄ is used instead of *ἴε*σθεσθ̄.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ (I used to go)	<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ἴνν</i> .
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄	<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ἴθ̄</i> .
<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ῥε</i>	<i>ἴε</i> σθεσθ̄ <i>ἴαθ̄</i> .

Pr. *ἴε*σθεσθ̄, *ἴε*σθεσθ̄, *ἴε*σθεσθ̄ *ῥε* (long *ἴε*-*ἴε* *ῥε*, etc.).

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Ćuairō me (I went)	Ćuairō rinn.
Ćuairō tú	Ćuairō riḃ.
Ćuairō re	Ćuairō riaw.

Negative.

Ńi ōeacairō me (I did not go)	Ńi ōeacairō rinn.
Ńi ōeacairō tú	Ńi ōeacairō riḃ.
Ńi ōeacairō re	Ńi ōeacairō riaw.

Also, ća ōeacairō me, etc.

Interrogative.

Ųeacairō me? (Did I go?)	Ųeacairō rinn?
Ųeacairō tú?	Ųeacairō riḃ?
Ųeacairō re?	Ųeacairō riaw?

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Racairō me (I shall go)	Racairō rinn.
Racairō tú	Racairō riḃ.
Racairō re	Racairō riaw.

Pr. řahim mě, řahă tú, řahă řě (long, řahí* řé).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Racairinn (I would go)	Racaw rinn.
Racá	Racaw riḃ.
Racaw re	Racaw riaw.

Pr. řahinn, řaha, řahit řě (long, řahú řé).

Imperative Teirō, teirōřirō; also řaw (Pr. řo).

Infinitive Δ ōut; Δ řawail (Pr. Δ řol).

Participle Δř ōut; Δř řawail (Pr. Δ řol).

* Except when followed by the pronouns, this long sound is usual : řacairō mářie, řr. řah'-ee mářie.

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

ΤΙΣΙΜ, I COME.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

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

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

ΤΙΣΙΝΝ (I used to come)	ΤΙΣΕΛΘ ΡΙΝΝ.
ΤΙΣΤΕΑ	ΤΙΣΕΛΘ ΡΙΘ.
ΤΙΣΕΛΘ ΡΕ	ΤΙΣΕΛΘ ΡΙΑΘ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

ΤΑΙΜΙC ΜΕ (I came)	ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΝΝ.
ΤΑΙΜΙC ΤÚ	ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΘ.
ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΕ	ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΑΘ.

Pr. $\eta\epsilon\eta\iota\epsilon$ me, $\eta\epsilon\eta\iota\epsilon$ τύ, etc.

Negative.

ΗΙΟΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΜΕ (I did not come)	ΗΙΟΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΝΝ.
ΗΙΟΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΤÚ	ΗΙΟΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΘ.
ΗΙΟΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΕ	ΗΙΟΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΑΘ.

Also, $\eta\iota$ ταιμιc me, etc.

Interrogative.

ΑΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΜΕ? (Did I come)?	ΑΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΝΝ?
ΑΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΤÚ?	ΑΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΘ?
ΑΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΕ?	ΑΡ ΤΑΙΜΙC ΡΙΑΘ?

Also, \omicron -ταιμιc me? etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Τιοφαιὸ me (I shall come).	Τιοφαιὸ ριnn.
Τιοφαιὸ τῷ	Τιοφαιὸ ριβ.
Τιοφαιὸ ρε	Τιοφαιὸ ριασ.

Pr. Τιοχιm mē, τιοχᾶ τῷ, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Τιοφαιnn (I would come)	Τιοφασ ριnn.
Τιοφᾶ	Τιοφασ ριβ.
Τιοφασ ρε	Τιοφασ ριασ.

Pr. ηυχιnn, ηυχα, etc.

Imperative Τᾶρ, τᾶραισιὸ, ; or τισ, τισιοιὸ.

Infinitive Δ τεαετ.

Participle Δς τεαετ.

 Τᾶρ in second persons only.

ΤΙΘΙM, I SEE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

ΤιθίM (I see)	Τιθ ριnn.
Τιθ τῷ	Τιθ ριβ.
Τιθ ρε	Τιθ ριασ.

Negative.

Νί φεισιM (I do not see)	Νί φεισεann ριnn.
Νί φεισεann τῷ	Νί φεισεann ριβ.
Νί φεισεann ρε	Νί φεισεann ριασ.

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

Τιθίnn (I used to see).	Τιθεασ ριnn.
Τιθτεα	Τιθεασ ριβ.
Τιθεασ ρε	Τιθεασ ριασ.

Negative.

Ні ꙗеіснн (I used not to see)	Ні ꙗеісєаѠ рнн.
Ні ꙗеісѠєа	Ні ꙗеісєаѠ рѠѠ.
Ні ꙗеісєаѠ ре	Ні ꙗеісєаѠ рѠаѠ.

PERFECT INDICATIVE.

Ѡапаіс me (I saw)	Ѡапаіс рнн.
Ѡапаіс тѠ	Ѡапаіс рѠѠ.
Ѡапаіс ре	Ѡапаіс рѠаѠ.

Pr. Наніс me, наніс тѠ, etc.

Negative.

Ні ꙗаєаіѠ me (I did not see).	Ні ꙗаєаіѠ рнн.
Ні ꙗаєаіѠ тѠ	Ні ꙗаєаіѠ рѠѠ.
Ні ꙗаєаіѠ ре	Ні ꙗаєаіѠ рѠаѠ.

Pr. Ні асім мѧ, ні аєѧ тѠ, ні аєѧ рѧ (long, ні асі рѧ), etc.

FUTURE INDICATIVE.

ТіѠрѠ me (I shall see)	ТіѠрѠ рнн.
ТіѠрѠ тѠ	ТіѠрѠ рѠѠ.
ТіѠрѠ ре	ТіѠрѠ рѠаѠ.

Pr. Тірім мѧ, тірѧ ту, тірѠ рѧ (long, тірі рѧ), etc.

Negative.

Ні ꙗеісрѠ me (I shall not see)	Ні ꙗеісрѠ рнн.
Ні ꙗеісрѠ тѠ	Ні ꙗеісрѠ рѠѠ.
Ні ꙗеісрѠ ре	Ні ꙗеісрѠ рѠаѠ.

Pr. Ні ечнн мѧ, ні ечѧ тѠ, etc.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

ТіѠрнн (I would see)	ТіѠреаѠ рнн.
ТіѠреа	ТіѠреаѠ рѠѠ.
ТіѠреаѠ ре	ТіѠреаѠ рѠаѠ.

Pr. Тірінн, тіра, тірѠ рѧ (long, тірѠ рѧ).

Negative.

Νί φείρην (I would not see) Νί φείρεσθ ρην.

Νί φείρεσθ Νί φείρεσθ ριβ.

Νί φείρεσθ ρε Νί φείρεσθ ριασ.

Pr. Νί εχην, νί εχᾶ, νί εχιτ ρῆ (long, νί εχῦ
ρε), etc.

Imperative ἀμαρ, ἀμαρσαισθ (Pr. ὄρε, ὄραιο).

Infinitive ἀ φείρεσθ or ἀ φείρηντ.

Participle ἀς φείρεσθ, ἀς φείρηντ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Indic. τῖσθαι μέ ; νί φείσθαι μέ.

Imperfect τῖσθι μέ ; νί φείσθι μέ.

Perfect ἔσθαι μέ ; νί ἔσθαι μέ.

Future τῖσθαι μέ ; νί φείσθαι μέ.

Conditional τῖσθι μέ ; νί φείσθι μέ.

Infinitive ἀ βεῖσθαι φείρεσθ } See §εῖσθαι (Pass. Infin)

Participle λε φείρεσθ

✎ τῖσθαι ὁμῆ = It appears to me, methinks ;
ἔσθαι ὁμῆ = methought.

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

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

(3) Note that ρ is sounded fully in τῖσθαι and τῖσθην, and that the initial of the latter is not aspirated.

CLUINIM, I HEAR.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Cluinim (I hear)	Cluineann rinn.
Cluineann tú	Cluineann ríð.
Cluineann fe	Cluineann ríad.

PERFECT TENSE.

Ċualairð me (I heard)	Ċualairð rinn.
Ċualairð tú	Ċualairð ríð.
Ċualairð fe	Ċualairð ríad.

Pr. Ċualim më, Ċuală tú, Ċuală fe or Ċualai fe, etc.

Negative, etc.

níor Ċualairð me	I did not hear.
Ar Ċualairð me?	Did I hear?
Ĥ-Ċualairð me?	
Ā'Ĥ-Ċualairð me?	
Ā cluinfein	To hear.
ĀĤ cluinfein	Hearing.

The other parts are quite regular.

ITIM, I EAT.

<i>Future Indic.</i>	ioffeairð me,* I shall eat.
<i>Conditional</i>	Ď'ioffeairinn, I would eat.
<i>Perfect</i>	Ď 'it me, I ate.
<i>Imperative</i>	it, itíð, Eat.
<i>Infinitive</i>	Ā ite, To eat.
<i>Participle</i>	ĀĤ ite, Eating.

The other parts are regular.

* *Pr.* ioffim më.

USE OF ΔΗ.

(a) The interrogative particle ΔΗ performs the double function of interrogating and eclipsing. It cannot eclipse without interrogating at the same time; but it can, in many cases, interrogate without eclipsing. In this latter case, ΔΗ must be expressed, as ΔΗ ΗΘΡΡΑ? But when it eclipses, it interrogates at the same time, and in performing this double function it annihilates itself, so to speak. Hence, instead of ΔΗ Ο-ΤΥΓΕΑΝΝ ΤΥ? ΔΗ Η-ΟΛΑΝΝ ΤΥ? We say Ο-ΤΥΓΕΑΝΝ ΤΥ? Η-ΟΛΑΝΝ ΤΥ? After ΔΞΥΡ, ΔΣΤ, etc., however, ΔΗ is often heard: ΔΞΥΡ ΔΗ Ο-ΤΥΓΕΑΝΝ ΤΥ? or more usually, ΔΞΥΡ Δ' Ο-ΤΥΓΕΑΝΝ ΤΥ?

(b) In the perfect tense ΔΗ cannot eclipse because ΗΟ comes between it and the verb; hence aspiration is usual in this tense, as,

ΔΗ ΘΥΔΙΕ ΤΥ Ε?	Did you beat him?
ΔΗ ΕΔΙΤ ΤΥ ΟΟ ΠΙΟΡΑ?	Did you smoke your pipe?
ΔΗ ΟΙΟΙΕ ΤΥ ΟΟ ΘΟ?	Did you sell your cow?

(c) The exceptions to this rule (b) are confined principally to ΕΔΙΜΙΕ, ΕΤΥΣ, and ΕΥΔΕΛΑΙΘ. These can either have their initials eclipsed or aspirated.

Ο-ΕΔΙΜΙΕ ΗΕ?	ΔΗ ΕΔΙΜΙΕ ΗΕ?	Did he come?
Ο-ΕΤΥΣ ΗΕ?	ΔΗ ΕΤΥΣ ΗΕ?	Did he give?
Σ-ΕΥΔΕΛΑΙΘ ΗΕ?	ΔΗ ΕΥΔΕΛΑΙΘ ΗΕ?	Did he hear?

(d) In the absence of ΗΟ the particle ΔΗ regains its eclipsing power. But it rarely occurs that ΗΟ neglects its post. Once in a while, however, it may be said to take a holiday, as in the case of ΗΥΔΙΗ and ΗΔΕΛΑΙΘ, before which it never appears. Hence, when ΗΟ is absent,

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

Ḑ-ḑḡḗḡ ḡḡ ḗ?	Did you get it?
ḗḑḡḡ ḗ Ḑ-ḑḡḗḡ ḡḡ ḗ?	And did you get it?
Ḑ-ḑḗḗḗḡ ḡḡ ḗ?	Did you see him?
ḗḗḗ ḗ Ḑ-ḑḗḗḗḡ ḡḡ ḗ?	But did you see him?

N.B.—*Ḑḗḗḡḡ* and *ḑḗḗḗḗḡ* never take *ḡḡ*, and as a result they never have their initials aspirated except by *ní*. One would expect, however, that their initials would be eclipsed, but according to modern usage they are not.

<i>Ḑḗḗḡḡ ḡḡ ḡḡḡ?</i>	Did you do that?
<i>ḡḗḗ ḑḗḗḡḡ ḡḡ ḗ?</i>	Did you not do it?
<i>Ḑḗḗḗḗḡ ḡḗ ḡḗḗḡ?</i>	Did he go up?
<i>ḡḗḗ ḑḗḗḗḗḡ ḡḗ ḡḗḗḡ?</i>	Did he not go up?

USE OF *ḡḡ*.

(a) The sign of the perfect tense active is *ḡḡ*. This particle is visibly present before vowels and *ḑ*. It is invisibly present in other cases; but it is absent before *ḑḗḗḡḡ*, *ḑḗḗḗḗḡ*, *ḑḗḗḡḡ* and *ḑḗḗḗḗḡ*. Whether visibly or invisibly present, it has the power of aspirating.

<i>Ḑ'ól ḡḗ</i>	He drank.	}	(visibly present.)
<i>Ḑ' ḑḗḑ ḡḗ</i>	He left.		
<i>Ḑḡḗḗ ḡḗ</i>	He struck.	}	(invisibly present.)
<i>ḡól ḡḗ</i>	He roasted.		
<i>ḑḗḗḡḡ ḡḗ</i>	He got.		(absent.)

(b) In negative, interrogative, and dependent sentences *ḡḡ* becomes *ḡḡ* which is always visibly present.

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

He did not beat	= ní ηο θυαίτ ηε	= níηη θυαίτ ηε.
Did he beat ?	= Δη ηο θυαίτ ηε ?	= Δη θυαίτ ηε ?
That he beat	= Ξο ηο θυαίτ ηε	= Ξηη θυαίτ ηε ?
That he was beaten ?	= Ξο ηο θυαίτεαθ έ	= Ξηη θυαίτεαθ έ.

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

Θ'οταίνη	}	visible	}	presence of οο .
Θ'οηφαίνη				
Θ'φαναίνη				
Θ'φανηφαίνη				
Θυαίτίνη	}	invisible		
Θυαίτηνν				
Θυαίτε με				
Θυαίτηδε με	}	interrogative		
η-θυαίτίνη ?				
η-θυαίτηνν ?	}	negative	}	absence of οο .
ηί θυαίτίνη				
ηί θυαίτηνν				
Ξο η-θυαίτίνη	}	dependent		
Ξο η-θυαίτηνν				

Adverbs.

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

Ζεαλ, bright	Σο ζεαλ, brightly.
μιλιρ, sweet	Σο μιλιρ, sweetly.
μαιτ, good	Σο μαιτ, well.
οτc, bad	Σο η-οτc, badly.

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

Ανοιρ, now	Αηίρτ, again.
Αηη ρηη, then	Α ζ-κοηηηυιτc, always.
Αηη ρο, Αηη ρεο, here	Α θ-ραο, θ-ραο, long, far.
Αηη ρυο, yonder	Σο ροιτ, still, yet.
ηυαιρ, when	Ρα υειρεαδ }
Ca η-υαιρ, ca ηυαιρ?	Ca υειρεαδ } at last.
Ca η-υαιρ?	Α ροιμε, before, already.
Ca η-αιτ? ca η-αιτ?	Α ηηηρην, already, so soon.
Ca η-αρ? whence?	Ροιμε ηε, already.
Σο υ-τι, till, until	Α η-αιρυε, up, on high.
Κορ υαιρ, occasionally	Αιρ υειρεαδ, last, behind.
Α υ-τοιρεαδ, in front	ηα θατε, α θατε, home(wards).
μαρ, because, as	Αιρ ζ-κυλ, back, backwards.
μαρ ζ-κευσηα, in like manner	Ζαη ηυιττ, by and by.
μαρ ρηη υε, so that	Σο λεορ, enough.
Αιρ υ-τυρ }	Σο λειρ, entirely.
ευο υαιρ }	Σο η-ιοηηαη, entirely.
Α ευο υαιρ }	Σο υιρεαδ,* indeed, just.
Ραδ ο ροιη, long ago	Σο υεαρθεα,* indeed, truly, really.
Αιρ αιρ, back, again	λεοζα,* indeed, really.
Ca ηευο?	Ρορτα, also.
Ca ηευο? }	Αιρ αη αδδαρ ρηη, hence.
How many?	

* Σο υειρην is often met with in books.

Ξο οε 'n μέτρο ? how much ?	Διη η-οόιξε, of course.
Διη ραο, entirely	Δηιαή, ever.
Μαίρε, "musha," well	Δ οιοόδε } for ever, ever.
Αμαό, out (motion)	Ξο οεό }
Αμυιξ, out, outside	Ξο ημάτ }
Αρτεαό, in (motion)	Τηαρηα, across, over.
Αρτυιξ, in, inside	

Adverbial Phrases.

Διη μαιοῖη	In the morning.
Διη μαιοῖη Δηιύ	This morning.
Διη μαιοῖη Δηέ	Yesterday morning.
Διη μαιοῖη Αμάραό	To-morrow morning.
Σαη τηαεηόηα	In the evening.
Τηαεηόηα Δηέ	Yesterday evening.
Λά εαη ηα ηήμαό.	Next day.
Διη Αηαρε λαε	At the break of day.
Δηιύ ; Δηέ	To-day ; yesterday.
Αμάραό	To-morrow.
Αηοόε, Δηέηη	To-night ; Last night.
Σαη οιοόδε Αμάραό	To-morrow night.
Αρτευζαό ηέ	Ere yesterday.
Αρτευζαό ηέηη	Ere last night.
Α ηόηεαι	After to-morrow.
Σαη οιοόδε ηόηεαι	The night after to-morrow night.
Αη τ-ρεαόεηαηη ρυζαηηη*	Next week.
Αη ηί ρυζαηηη*	Next month.
Αη οβιαόαηη ρυζαηηη*	Next year.
Αη τ-ρεαόεηαηη ρο εαηε*	Last week.
Αη ηί ρο εαηε*	Last month.

* These are not always adverbial phrases—ρυζαηηη = ρο ευζαηηηη.

Δ νηρηθ̄; Δ m-βλιαθνα	Last year; this year.
Δη βλιαθ̄αιη ρο τ̄αρτ	Last year.
Θια Ιυαιη	On Monday.
Θια Μ̄αιητ	On Tuesday.
Θια Σευθ̄αιηη	On Wednesday.
Θια Δ̄ηθ̄αιηη	On Thursday.
Θια η-Δαιηη	On Friday.
Θια Σατ̄αιηηη	On Saturday.
Θια Θ̄ομ̄ηηαιηξ	On Sunday.
Δηη μᾱηο̄ιηη Θια Θ̄ομ̄ηηαιηξ	On Sunday morning.
Τ̄ηατ̄ηθ̄ηηη Θια Θ̄ομ̄ηηαιηξ	On Sunday evening.

UP AND DOWN.

ρ̄υαρ = up	<i>i.e.</i> motion upwards from this point.
Δ̄η̄ορ = up	„ motion from below to this point.
ρ̄̄υαρ = up	„ rest above this point.
Δ̄θ̄υρ = up	„ rest at this point.
ρ̄̄ορ = down	„ motion downwards from this point.
ρ̄̄ορ = down	„ rest below this point.
Δ̄η̄υαρ = down	„ motion from above to this point.
Δ̄θ̄υρ = down	„ rest at this point.

Examples.

A B	A to B: I'll throw it down	Καιτ̄ηθ̄ με ρ̄̄ορ ε̄.
	„ Is it down yet?	Θ̄-ρ̄υιτ̄ ηε ρ̄̄ορ ζ̄ο ρ̄οιτ̄?
	„ Throw it up	Καιτ̄ Δ̄η̄ορ ε̄.
	„ It is up now	Τ̄ά ηε Δ̄θ̄υρ Δ̄η̄ορ.
	B to A: I'll throw it up	Καιτ̄ηθ̄ με ρ̄̄υαρ ε̄.
	„ Is it up yet?	Θ̄-ρ̄υιτ̄ ηε ρ̄̄υαρ ζ̄ο ρ̄οιτ̄?
	„ Throw it down	Καιτ̄ Δ̄η̄υαρ ε̄.
	„ It is down now	Τ̄ά ηε Δ̄θ̄υρ Δ̄η̄ορ.

OVER.

- ρίαν = over *i.e.* motion Westward from this point.
 ἀνίαν = over „ motion from West to this point.
 ροίαν = over „ motion Eastward from this point.
 ἀνοίαν = over „ motion from East to this point.
 ῥίαν = over „ rest at the West.
 ῥοίαν = over „ rest at the East.
 ἄδυσ = over „ rest at this point.

Examples.

East	B	A	C	West.
A to C :	I'll throw over the stone	καίτερό με ρίαν ἀν ἐλοῦ.		
„	Is it over yet ?	ὄ-φυσί γε ρίαν ᾗ πόιλ?		
„	Throw it over again	καίτ ἀνίαν αἰμ αἰρ ἔ.		
„	Good, it is over now	μαίτ ἐυ, τὰ γε ἄδυσ ἀνοίαν.		
A to B :	I'll throw over the stone	καίτερό με ροίαν ἀν ἐλοῦ.		
„	Is it over yet ?	ὄ-φυσί γε ροίαν ᾗ πόιλ?		
„	Throw it over again	καίτ ἀνοίαν αἰμίρτ ἔ.		
„	Good, it is over now	μαίτ ἐυ, τὰ γε ἄδυσ ἀνοίαν.		

Simple Prepositions.

α, ἀνν, ἀννῆ, in.	ἄν, without.
ἀσ, ἀίς, at.	ᾗ, to.
ἀρηοίαν, to.	ίαν, after.
ἀρ, out of, from.	ίοίαν, between.
ᾗε, from, off, of.	τε, τείαν, with.
ᾗο, to.	μαίαν, as like.
ρηίτο, through.	ο, from.
ρῦο, through, about.	ροίαν, before.
ρᾗ, about.	τᾗαν, over, across.
ρᾗοί, under	τᾗρτ, round.
ἀρ, ἀίαν, on.	τᾗε, through.

Compound Prepositions.

Compound prepositions are made up of a simple preposition and a noun. Hence, when another noun comes immediately after, it can only be governed in the genitive. The following are the most important compound prepositions in the language:—

- Δ ὑ-φιαῶνυρε, before, under the eye (of).
 Δ ἑαῶνυ, before, in the presence (of).
 Οὔρ κοιννε, before, opposite, under the eyes (of).
 Δ ὑ-φοῶνυ, with, in the company (of).
 Δ η-οιαῶ, after, in the wake (of).
 Δ η-αῶ, against; Δ ἑ-οῦ, behind.
 Διη ρον, for the sake (of); ἀμεαῶ, amidst.
 ἡμαρ ἑαῶνυ διη, for the sake of (governs dative).
 Δ ῶνυ; ῶνυ, beside, at the foot (of).
 Δ η-αιε, ηαιε, next to, close to, on the side (of).
 ῥα ὁ-ταῶνυ ὅε, about, concerning (govs. dat.).
 ῥα ῶννε; ῥα ὀῶν, for.
 ἑο ὁ-τῶ, to, as far as, till (govs. dat.).
 Οὔρ οῶν, over, above; ὁ ρῶν, according to.
 Δ η-ῶ, Δ η-ῶ, against.
 Δ ἑ-οῦ, in the company (of).
 Δ ἑ-οῦ ὅε, along with (govs. dat.).

The Preposition, Δ, Δηη, Δηης.

The English "in" must be rendered as follows:—

(1) Δ before an indefinite noun, or before the name of a town or country.

In Derry	Δ η-ῶ.
In Scotland	Δ η-ῶ.
In a country	Δ ὁ-τῶ.

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

In my own country	ann mo tír féin.
There is strength in Mary	ta b'íú ann mháire.

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

In the country	annr an tír.
In this country	annr an tír ro.

The Preposition "For."

(1) When "for" signifies "to fetch," "to bring," it is rendered by **ra** *coinne* or **ra** *óein*—

He went for the cow	cuairé ré ra coinne na bó.
He went for them	cuairé ré ra na s-coinne.

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

Do this for me	deán ro dom.
Dance for us	deán domra dúinn.
Here is a penny for you	So piúin suit.

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

He paid a penny for it	cuí ré piúin air.
Give him a penny for it	tabair piúin dó air.

The Preposition "Of."

(a) When "of" is identical with the English possessive case we must use the genitive in Irish.

The son of Mary (Mary's son)	mac mháire.
The son of the man (the man's son)	mac an fíri.
The head of a man (a man's head)	ceann fíri.
The side of a hill (a hill's side)	taob chnuic.

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

One of the cows	CEANN VE NA BA.
A man of the tribe	FEAR VE 'N OREAM.
The first day of the month	AN CEUR LA VE 'N MI.
Five of the cows	CÚIG CINN VE NA BA.
A boatful of honey	LÁN-BÁIR VE MÍL.

(c) When “of” follows a numeral and governs a personal pronoun we must use *as*, which unites with the pronoun.

One of us, two of us	DUINE ASAINN, BEIRT ASAINN.
One of you, two of them	DUINE ASAI'B, BEIRT ACA.
One of these	DUINE ACA FO.

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

Five of them (<i>i.e.</i> , cows)	CÚIG CINN ACA; CUIḡEAR ACA.
Five of them (<i>i.e.</i> , men)	CÚIG CLAIḡNE ACA; CUIḡEAR ACA.

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

Which of the women?	CEOCA VE NA MNΔ?
Which of the cows?	CEOCA VE NA BA?
Which of us?	CEOCA ASAINN?


Functions of Prepositions.

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

TA FEUR AIG AN DUIN	The cow has hay.
TA FE OF CIONN 'OO CÍNN	It is above your head.

(b) When a simple preposition comes beside a noun it has the power of aspirating. But ζο, τε, ας, ατ cause no initial change, while Δ eclipses.

τά γε αἰε ἐπᾶλλ	He is on a horse.
ῤῥίῳ θάτε ραζαῖνε	Through our town.
Ἐπὶ ἐσορᾶν νὰ ζ-κλῶτ	Over the rocky moorland.
ζο θάτε ραζαῖνε	To our town.
Δῖς σαρῖαις	At a rock.
Δ m-θάτε κλίετ	In Dublin.

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

ῤεαρ ζαν σαορᾶ	A man without a sheep.
ῤεαρ ζαν ἠῡναῶ	An unmannerly man.
μαρ ῤεαρ μαῖτ	Like a good man.
μαρ ζεαλλ αἰη ἀη ὄη	For the sake of the gold.
μαρ θυαῖηη	As I strike.
τά τυ μαρ τὰ τυ	You are as you are.
ἰοῖη σαρᾶη αζυρ ἀρᾶη	Between a horse and an ass.
ἰοῖη ἐπαῖηη αζυρ ἀρᾶη	Including horses and asses.

Compound Prepositional Pronouns.

As personal pronouns are defective in the genitive, they cannot be governed in that case by a compound preposition. Thus, “above John” = ορ κίονη Ἐαζαῖη, literally, “over the head of John.” But “above me” = ορ μο κίονη, literally, “over my head.” In other words, the *possessive adjective* takes the place of the

personal pronoun. Most of the compound prepositions combine in this manner with the possessive adjectives. The following are important examples:—

OS MO  oinne (IN MY PRESENCE).

SINGULAR.

Or mo  oinne, in my presence.

Or  o  oinne, in thy presence.

Or    oinne, in his presence.

Or    oinne, in her presence.

PLURAL.

Or  r  - oinne, in our presence.

Or  ur  - oinne, in your presence.

Or    - oinne, in their presence.

OS MO  ionn.

Or mo  ionn (above me)

Or  r  - ionn.

Or  o  ionn

Or  ur  - ionn.

Or    ionn, or    ionn

Or    - ionn.

 A MO  oinne.

 A mo  oinne (for me)

 A  r  - oinne.

 A  o  oinne

 A  ur  - oinne.

 A  A  oinne, etc.

 A  A  - oinne.

 A MO   in.

 A mo   in (for me)

 A  r  -  in.

 A  o   in

 A  ur  -  in.

 A  A   in, etc.

 A  A  -  in.

 nn m'      .

 nn m'       (against me)

 nn  r  -     .

 nn  '      

 nn  ur  -     .

 A      ,  A  -     

 A  -     .

Δην μο ὀδαῖο.

Δην μο ὀδαῖο (after me)	Δην δι ν-οδαῖο.
Δην οο ὀδαῖο	Δην θυρ ν-οδαῖο.
ηα ὀδαῖο, etc.	ηα ν-οδαῖο.

Usually.

μο ὀδαῖο (after me)	Δι ν-οδαῖο.
οο ὀδαῖο	Θυρ ν-οδαῖο.
ηα ὀδαῖο, ηα ὀδαῖο	ηα ν-οδαῖο.

The Conjunctions.

δέτ (<i>pr.</i> δέ) but, only*	τοηα, ηα, than.
Δσυρ, and	μηνα } if...not, unless.
μα, οα, if	μυρ }
ζο, that	ο } as, since
μα τά ζο, yet	ο τδηηα }
οε θυζ ζο, inasmuch as	ηο, ηα, for, because.
οο εum ζο, in order that	συτ, before.
τοηυρ ζο, so that	ζιῖ, although.

N.B.—μα is used with the indicative mood and aspirates the initial of the verb. οα is used with the conditional mood only, and always expresses a condition. It eclipses the initial of the verb, as, οα μηβειθεαο διηγεαο Δζαμ δεηνηοδαινην επαηη, if I had (*lit.* if I would have) money I would buy a horse. οα ο-τ'οερα ηνοετ ηαδαινην ηεατ, if you came (*i.e.*, if you should or would come) to-night I would go with you. In this last example, we see that *came* is misleading. It might be taken for the imperfect or simple past,

* I have only a penny = ηῖ φυῖλ Δζαμ δέτ ηῖζηη.

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

Interjections.

δ ! or O! $\delta\acute{\mu}\alpha\rho\epsilon$! Oh! or O! Look!

$\upsilon\theta\upsilon\theta\omicron$! $\rho\acute{\alpha}\rho\alpha\omicron\rho$! Fie! Alas!

$\upsilon\acute{\epsilon}$! or $\omicron\acute{\epsilon}$! $\omicron\acute{\omicron}\omicron\omicron$! Oh! Alas!

$\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ $\nu\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ θ - $\rho\upsilon\iota\tau$ $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\delta\zeta\alpha\mu$!

$\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ $\zeta\alpha\eta$ $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\delta\zeta\alpha\mu$!

$\iota\eta$ $\tau\eta\upsilon\alpha\zeta$ $\nu\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ θ - $\rho\upsilon\iota\tau$ $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\delta\zeta\alpha\mu$!

$\iota\eta$ $\tau\eta\upsilon\alpha\zeta$ $\zeta\alpha\eta$ $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\delta\zeta\alpha\mu$!

$\iota\eta$ $\mu\alpha\iota\eta\varsigma$ $\nu\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ θ - $\rho\upsilon\iota\tau$ $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\delta\zeta\alpha\mu$!

$\iota\eta$ $\mu\alpha\iota\eta\varsigma$ $\zeta\alpha\eta$ $\rho\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\delta\zeta\alpha\mu$!

} Would that I had
a rod!

Endearing Expressions.

δ $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\iota\tau\eta\zeta\epsilon$!

My treasure! my dear!

δ $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\iota\tau\eta\zeta\epsilon$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$!

O treasure of my heart!

δ $\rho\acute{\upsilon}\eta$!

My secret! my treasure!

δ $\rho\acute{\upsilon}\eta$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$!

Secret of my heart! Dearest!

δ $\rho\tau\acute{\omicron}\rho$!

My store! Asthore!

δ $\rho\tau\acute{\omicron}\rho$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$!

O jewel of my heart!

δ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\iota\tau\eta\epsilon$!

O vein! my vein! my dear!

δ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\iota\tau\eta\epsilon$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$!

Vein of my heart!

δ $\zeta\eta\alpha\acute{\omicron}$!

My love! O love!

δ $\zeta\eta\alpha\acute{\omicron}$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$!

O love of my heart!

$\zeta\eta\alpha\acute{\omicron}$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon$!

You are the love of my heart!

δ $\mu\upsilon\iota\eta\eta\eta\iota\omicron$!

My darling!

$\kappa\acute{\upsilon}\rho\alpha\mu$ $\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$!

Care of my heart!

$\mu\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\iota\theta\epsilon$ $\delta\rho\tau\upsilon\iota\zeta$ $\iota\omicron\eta\eta\eta\alpha\tau$!

My heart within thee!

μ ' $\delta\eta\alpha\mu$ $\delta\rho\tau\upsilon\iota\zeta$ $\iota\omicron\eta\eta\eta\alpha\tau$!

My soul within thee!

Prefixes.

- Δν, *not*, as, εολαῶ, skilled, ἀμεολαῶ, unskilled.
 Κομ, *together*, ceαηγα, a tie, κομῶceαηγα a union.
 Ὀεαξ, *good*, as, Ὀεαξῶροιοθεαῶ, kind-hearted.
 Ὅροῶ, *bad*, as, Ὅροῶμεαη, contempt.
 Ὅο, *difficult*, as, Ὅοῶεαητα, difficult to be done.
 Ἰη, *fit*, as, Ἰηοῶεαητα, fit to be done.
 Σο, *easy*, as, ῤοῶεαητα, easy to be done.
 Μῖ, *ill*, as, μῖ-αῶ, ill-luck.
 Νεαμ, *not*, as, νεαμῶκομῶρομ, uneven

Affixes.

- Δῶ, *full of*, as, βρηαηραῶ, full of words, talkative.
 Δῶτ, *ness*, as, μιηρεαῶτ, sweetness.
 Δη, *ness*, as, μαητεαη, goodness.
 Δημῖη, *like*, as, ϕεαημαημῖη, manly.
 Δη, *small*, as, αηροαη, a hillock.
 Ἰη, *small*, as, κοηρηη, a little foot.
 Ὅξ, *small*, ϕεηητεοξ, a little serpent, *i.e.*, a worm.
 Δῶ, *abounding in*, as, κοηητεαῶ, abounding in woods.
 Λαῶ, *abounding in*, μυαῶ, a piggery.
 Μῖαη, *full of*, as, ceῶμῖαη, full of music.

Replying—Yes, No.

In replying to questions, (1) the verb and tense used in the question must be repeated in the reply, (2) the subject (except when it is contained in the verb) must be omitted.

Δη ὀλ τυ? Ὅ' ολ
 Δη ὀλ μῖαηη? ηιοη ὀλ
 η-ολαηη τυ? ολαηη
 Ὅ-ϕηηη ϕε αηατ? τῶ
 ϖαηῶ τυ τηηη? Ὅη
 ϖαηῶ οαηαη οηη? ηῖ ηαηῶ

Did you drink? I did.
 Did Mary drink? No.
 Do you drink? Yes.
 Have you it? I have.
 Were you sick? I was.
 Were you hungry? No, I was not.

N.B.—Notice the double reply in the English “Yes, I am,” “No, I am not,” etc. Both count as one in Irish.

Replying with IS.

(a) In negative answers the verb is omitted and the subject is expressed, while in affirmative answers the verb and subject are expressed.

Δν τύ Σεαζαν? ní mé	Are you John? No.
Δν τύ Séamur? 1r me	Are you James? Yes.

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

ναε ματε ε? 1r ματε.	Isn't it good? It is.
ναε μόρι αν ρεαν ε? 1r μόρι	Isn't he a big man? He is.

(c) Σεαθ (pr. *sháh*) and ní ρεαθ (ní *háh*) are never used except in reply to an interrogation made with the verb 1r, and then only when the predicate of the question is indefinite.

Is it a stone? Yes	Δν cloe é? Σεαθ.
Is that a cow? No	Δν bó ριν? ní ρεαθ.

Replying to “Who?” “What?”

(a) In answer to “who?” “what?” the subject alone is expressed, and if the subject is a pronoun it will be emphatic.

Who did that? I did	Cé ρinne ριν? Mipe.
Who did that? Mary did	Cé ρinne ριν? Máiηe.
What is that? A white cat	Ξο vé ριν? Cat bán.

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

Who did that? I did	Cé ρinne ριν? Τά mipe.
Who did that? Mary	Cé ρinne ριν? Τά Máiηe.

L

Idiomatio and Defective Verbs.

TA FIOS AΣAM, I KNOW.

“I know” is expressed in Irish by **TA A FIOF AΣAM** =literally, Its knowledge is at me, *i.e.*, I have its knowledge. The possessive **A** is usually omitted.

Present **TA FIOF AΣAM**; **ní fuil fíof aΣam.**

Imper. **Óidead fíof aΣam**; **ní bídead fíof aΣam.**

Perfect **Ói fíof aΣam**; **ní raib fíof aΣam.**

Future **Óeíó fíof aΣam**; **ní beíó fíof aΣam.**

Condit. **Óeíóeád fíof aΣam**; **ní beíóeád fíof aΣam.**

Imper. **Óidead fíof aΣat**; **bídead fíof aΣaib.**

Infin. **fíof A beit aΣam**; **Σan fíof A beit aΣam.**

TA FIOF AΣAM *pronounced* **TÁF AΣAM.**

Óidead fíof aΣam „ **Óiwur aΣam.**

Ói fíof aΣam „ **Ói raΣam.**

Óeíó fíof aΣam „ **Óeíóir aΣam.**

ÓIS LIOM,* I CAN.

Present **Óis liom**; **ní óis liom**; **ó-óis liom?**

Imper. **Óisead liom**; **ní óisead liom.** .

Perfect **Óaimic liom**; **níóir óaimic liom.**

Future **Óiofpaíó liom**; **ní óiofpaíó liom.**

Condit. **Óiofpaó liom**; **ní óiofpaó liom.**

IS FÉIOIR LIOM, I CAN.

PRESENT TENSE.

Affirm. **Ír féioir liom, leat, etc** Lit., It is possible with me.

Negat. **Ní féioir liom.**

Interrog. **An féioir liom?**

* Literally, It comes with me.

PAST TENSE.

Affirm. Ουδὲ φέροιμι ἕοικα, I could.

Negat. Νίσιον φέροιμι ἕοικα.

Interrog. Ἄρτι φέροιμι ἕοικα?

☞ Ὁ' φέροιμι = Perhaps.

ζεῖθιμι θάσ, I DIE.

Future Ζεοθαίρω με θάρ, I shall die.

Perfect Ζυθαίρω με θάρ, he died. Lit., He found death.

Infinitive Θάρ ἢ φάσαιμι ἢ θάρ φάσαιμι.

Participle ἄσ φάσαιμι θάρ or φάσαιμι θάρ.

These are the more important parts.

καίτημι με, I MUST.

ACTIVE VOICE.

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

Imper. Καίτημι, I had to.

Condit. Καίτημι, I would have to.

Perfect Καίτημι, * I had to.

PASSIVE VOICE—*Impersonally.*

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

Imper. Καίτημι, It was necessary.

Condit. Καίτημι, It would be necessary.

Perfect Καίτημι, It was necessary.

ἵσμαι ἕοικα, I LIKE

PRESENT TENSE.

Affirm. ἵσμαι ἕοικα, ἵσμαι ἕοικα, etc.

Negat. Νίσμαι ἕοικα νίσμαι ἕοικα, etc.

Interrog. ἄσ ἕοικα ἕοικα? etc.

* Ὁ'εἰσεάν ἕοικα is more usual.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Affirm. Ես իմա՛յ տիօմ, ես իմա՛յ եւա՛տ, etc., I *would* like, etc.

Negat. Ո՛րք իմա՛յ տիօմ, ո՛րք իմա՛յ եւա՛տ, etc.

Interrog. Եր իմա՛յ եւա՛տ? etc.

N.B.—In “*ես իմա՛յ տիօմ*,” “*ես*” is perfect tense, but the whole expression has, idiomatically, the force of a conditional mood.

Like this verb are :—

Եր միա՛ն տիօմ	I desire.
Եր ձե՛ն տիօմ	I like.
Եր բա՛րք տիօմ	I prefer.
Եր շո՛րք տա՛մ	I should.
Եր եւա՛րք տա՛մ	I ought.
Եր ճիշտա՛ն տա՛մ	I must.

Prepositional Verbs.

Some verbs require the aid of a preposition to express a secondary meaning when a dative case follows. In English the preposition is often understood. The following are examples :—

Երբարձա՛մ + Եր	= I tell.
Շեղա՛մ + ե	= I tell.
Ինո՛րք + ո	= I tell.
Բարբա՛րք + յե	= I ask.

Examples.

Ս' Երբ բարբա՛րք Եր եւա՛տ	He told me to come.
Ս' Երբ բարբա՛րք Եր մարիա՛ն Եր յու	He told Mary to go.
Ս' Երբ բարբա՛րք Եր տիօմ Եր եւա՛տ	He told me to come.
Ս' Երբ բարբա՛րք Եր յշեւտ տա՛մ	He told me a story.
Ս' Երբ բարբա՛րք Եր յտիօմ	He asked of me.

CASTAR ORM, I MEET.

Present *Castar orm, castar ort, etc.* I meet.

Imperf. *Castar orm, castar ort, etc.* I used to meet.

Perfect *Castar orm, castar ort, etc.* I met.

Condit. *Castar orm, etc.* I would meet.

Infinitive *Castar orm or castar ort, to meet me.*

Participle and Imperative: Wanting.

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

Hugh met James

Hugh met me

I met Hugh

I met him

Castar Séamus ari doo.

Castar me ari doo.

Castar doo orm.

Castar orm é.

Internal or Inherent Quality.

(a) When, in English, the verb “to be” is immediately followed by an indefinite noun expressing inherent quality *ta* must be used idiomatically.

He is a man

He is a priest

Ta se na fear.

Ta se na fear.

(b) When the verb “to be” is immediately followed by a present participle expressing *state* rather than *action*, the participle becomes a verbal noun, and *ta* is used as in (a).

He is sleeping

He is sitting

He is standing

He is lying

But, He is fighting

Ta se na coisla.

Ta se na siu.

Ta se na fear.

Ta se na luige.

Ta se ag tui.

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

IS CUMΔ LIOM.

CumΔ is a noun, and means *shape* or *appearance*, and as a thing which has but the appearance of the reality is only superficial, the word has come to mean *indifference*. Hence, ιρ cumΔ te Σεξαν = It is appearance or indifference with John, *i.e.*, John is indifferent, John does not care, John does not care a straw, etc. ηαδ cumΔ te Σεξαν = "Sure" John does not care! ηαδ here is the interrogative particle, but the sentence is usually an exclamation.

ιρ cumΔ λιom

I *don't* care.

ιρ cumΔ λεατ

You *don't* care.

ιρ cumΔ λειρ

He *doesn't* care.

ιρ cumΔ λειτε

She *doesn't* care.

ιρ cumΔ te νόρα

Nora *doesn't* care.

ηαδ cumΔ λιom!

"Sure" I *don't* care.

N.B.—ηι μιρθε λιom, has the same meaning as, ιρ cumΔ λιom.

✎ ηι φυιτ βιnn Δξαm οιτ = I don't care a straw for you, *i.e.*, I defy you.

IS CUMΔ ΒΑΗ.

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

ιρ cumΔ βαη

I *need not* care.

ιρ cumΔ ουιτ

You *need not* care.

ιρ cumΔ το ηηάιμε

Mary *need not* care.

ηαδ cumΔ ουιτ!

Sure you *need not* care.

ηαδ cumΔ ουιnn!

Sure it is no affair of ours!

N.B.—ηι μιρθε βαη has the same meaning as ιρ cumΔ βαη.

Mental and Physioal Sensations.

(a) When an English adjective has no primary equivalent in Irish, an idiom must be used. *Tinn*, for example, is a primary adjective meaning *sick*. Without using any idiom, therefore, we can say, *τὰ με τinn*, I am sick. But, to translate, "I am hungry," we cannot proceed in the same way, as we have no primary word in Irish for "hungry." We are therefore compelled to say "Hunger is on me," *τὰ ocraí orim*. The following are important examples :—

I am hungry	<i>τὰ ocraí orim</i> .
I am ashamed	<i>τὰ náime orim</i> .
I am afraid	<i>τὰ eugla orim</i> .
I am glad	<i>τὰ luéξair orim</i> .
I am angry	<i>τὰ fearg orim</i> .
I am thirsty	<i>τὰ tairt orim</i> .
I am proud	<i>τὰ bróo orim</i> .
I am sleepy	<i>τὰ coulaó orim</i> .

(b) The word for "very" can only stand before an adjective as, I am very sick = *τὰ με an-tinn*. As long, therefore, as we have primary adjectives we can use *an*, very; but to translate "I am very hungry," "I am very much ashamed," etc., *an* cannot be used, and hence we must say *Great hunger* is on me, *great shame* is on me, etc.

I am very hungry	<i>τὰ ocraí moim orim</i> .
I am very much ashamed	<i>τὰ náime móim orim</i> .
I am very much afraid	<i>τὰ eugla móim orim</i> .
I am very glad	<i>τὰ luéξair móim orim</i> .
I am very angry	<i>τὰ fearg móim orim</i> .
I am very thirsty	<i>τὰ tairt moim orim</i> .
I am very proud	<i>τὰ bróo móim orim</i> .
I am very sleepy	<i>τὰ coulaó móim orim</i> .

(c) It is quite common, however, to use *an* before the noun, just as if it were an adjective. Hence, as common usage must be respected, the following are quite good:—

I am very hungry	Ἦ ἀν-ορεῖται ὄημ.
I am very much afraid	Ἦ ἀν-εὐζλᾶ ὄημ.
I am very glad	Ἦ ἀν-λυτέξαι ὄημ.
I am very sleepy	Ἦ ἀν-ἔουλατό ὄημ.

(d) This scarcity of primary adjectives is felt only in connection with mental and physical sensations. The idiom seems to have been fashionable for we find even the primary adjectives turned into nouns to comply with this mode of expression; so that when there is a primary adjective in Irish, we may translate in the ordinary way, or we may use the idiom:

I am sick =	Ἦά με τῖνη or Ἦά τῖννεαρ ὄημ.
I am cold =	Ἦά με ῥυαρ or Ἦά ῥυαέτ ὄημ.

(e) The same idiom is used when the sensation is expressed in English by “have” and a noun. In this case the sensation is of a special kind, *e.g.*, a malady, in which case the article will be used in Irish.

I have a cold	Ἦά ἀν ῥλαῖσαν ὄημ.
I have a toothache	Ἦά ἀν ὀέιουεατό ὄημ.
I have the fever	Ἦά ἀν ῥιαδῖαρ ὄημ.
I have the measles	Ἦά ἀν ὀρῖουτῖνεαό ὄημ.

Motion to a Place.

(a) Motion to a place is expressed by *ann* or *na*. These are contracted forms of the preposition *ann* or *a* and the article *an*. *Ann* must be used before masculine nouns beginning with a vowel, *o*, *t*, or *r*. In

all other cases *na* must be used. The noun is affected as follows :—(1) It must be in the genitive case; (2) If it is masculine its initial must be aspirated—except in the case of *o*, *t*, *r* (*r* being eclipsed); (3) if it is a feminine noun beginning with a vowel *n* is prefixed.

He went to the fair	Ćuairò ré ann aonaidġ.
He went to the door	Ćuairò ré ann uoirair.
He went to the well	Ćuairò ré ann tobair.
He went to the brook	Ćuairò ré ann t-rriuitáin.
He went to the hill	Ćuairò ré na ċnuic.
He went to the bog	Ćuairò ré na řuirtaiġ.
He went to the park	Ćuairò ré na ráirce.
He went to the forge	Ćuairò ré na ceáirta.
He went to the street	Ćuairò ré na řriáirce.
He went to the cliff	Ćuairò ré na h-áille.
He went to the river	Ćuairò ré na h-ádhna.
He went (to the) home	Ćuairò ré na dáile.

N.B.—Motion to towns and islands seems to be the only exception. Hence, although we say, *as túl na dáile-móir*, going to the town, *as túl na řraince*, going to France, *as túl ann oileáin* or *as túl na h-inne*, going to the island, we never say, *as túl ann ōoirce*, going to Derry, *as túl na Corcáirce*, going to Cork, *as túl na h-Álban*, etc. In these cases *ġo* must be used. This idiom is sometimes extended to persons when we go to them for professional aid, *e.g.*, He went to the doctor = *Ćuairò ré ann ōoictuir*, He went to the priest = *Ćuairò ré ann t-řáġairce*. Remark also that, *to heaven* = *na řláiir*, but *to hell* = *ġo h-řrionn*.

Ownership.

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

<i>The cow is mine</i>	}	<i>ir liom an bó.</i>
<i>The cow belongs to me</i>		
<i>I own the cow</i>		
<i>The cat is Mary's</i>	}	<i>ir lé Máire an cat.</i>
<i>The cat belongs to Mary</i>		
<i>Mary owns the cat</i>		
<i>The dog was John's</i>		<i>Dúó le Seágan an maóadó.</i>

N.B.—When the thing owned is *indefinite*, it must be considered as simple possession, for the idiom cannot be used: Hence, I own a house = I have a house = *ta teac agam*. Although we say in English *I own a cow*, there would not be much meaning in, *a cow is mine*. When ownership is connected with future time, it is often rendered by the relative *á* and the two verbs *ir* and *ta*, as, The house will be mine = *ir agamra á béirdear an teac*. But the more usual way is by simply using *ta* and *ag*, as, *Béir an teac agur an talam ag Seámur go fóit* = James will have the house and the land yet, *i.e.* The house and the land will be James's yet.

To be in Debt.

James owes the man a hundred pounds, would be in Irish, *The man has a hundred pounds on James* = *ta céad punta ag an fear air Seámur*.

Some or Any.

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

Τά buaon buinne aSAM	I have some milk.
Τά uorhan féir aSAM	I have some hay.
Τά ghrainín rúicra aSAM	I have some sugar.
Τά piúin ariúio aSAM	I have some money.
Τά piúin aige	He has some (money).

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

CUIO UE NA FII	Some of the men.
CUIO UE NA CAPAILL	Some of the horses.
CUIO UE 'N FÉUR	Some of the hay.
CUIO UE 'N ARIÚEAD	Some of the money.
CUIO UE 'N ARIAN	Some of the bread.
CUIO UE 'N BUINNE	Some of the milk.

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

Τά CUIO UE MAIT	Some of it is good.
Τά CUIO UE FII OLC	Some of that is bad.
Τά CUIO ASAINN FGHIOFTA	Some of us are ruined.
Τά CUIO ACA MIIETE	Some of them are spoiled.
Τά CUIO ACA FII OLC	Some of those are bad.

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

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

ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḁpapall</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any horses?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḁeann</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have not any.
ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ṁḡin</i> <i>aḡḡis</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any money?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ṁḡin</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have not any.
ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḡrainín</i> <i>féir</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any hay?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḡrainín</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have not any.
ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḡreim</i> <i>aḡain</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any bread?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḡreim</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have not any.
ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ṁeor</i> <i>fíona</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any wine?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ṁeor</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have not any.

(5) "Any of" followed by a noun is rendered by, *an* *ṁuine* *ṁe*, *an* *ḁeann* *ṁe*, *an* *ḡreim* *ṁe*, *an* *ṁeor* *ṁé*, *an* *ḡrainín* *ṁe*, etc., followed by the dative of the noun. When "any of" is followed by a *plural* pronoun *ṁe* becomes *aḡ*.

ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ṁuine</i> <i>ṁe</i> <i>na</i> <i>fḡir</i> <i>ann</i> <i>ṁo</i> ?	Are any of the men here?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ṁuine</i> <i>ḁca</i> <i>ann</i> <i>ṁo</i>	None of them are here.
ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḁeann</i> <i>ṁe</i> <i>na</i> <i>ba</i> <i>ann</i> <i>ṁo</i> ?	Are any of the cows here?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḁeann</i> <i>ḁca</i> <i>ann</i> <i>ṁo</i>	None of them are here.
ḁ-fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḡreim</i> <i>ṁe</i> 'n <i>aḡain</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any of the bread?
ní fuil <i>an</i> <i>ḡreim</i> <i>ṁe</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have none of it.

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

ḁ-fuil <i>ba</i> <i>aḡir</i> <i>bít</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any cows?
ní fuil <i>aḡḡeas</i> <i>aḡir</i> <i>bít</i> <i>aḡam</i>	I have not any money.
ḁ-fuil <i>caoirḡ</i> <i>aḡir</i> <i>bít</i> <i>aḡat</i> ?	Have you any sheep?

 Note the difference in the following :—

ní fúil an ceann aSAM	I have not any (cows).
ní fúil ceann aSAM	I have not a single one.
ní fúil an píſín aSAM	I have not any (money).
ní fúil píſín aSAM	I have not a cent.
ní fúil an ſneim aSAM	I have not any (cheese).
ní fúil ſneim aSAM	I have not a taste.
ta curó beag aSAM	I have a little.
ta beagan aSAM	I have little (<i>i.e.</i> , scarcely any).

Descriptions.

Ordinary descriptions may be rendered still more descriptive, idiomatically. Thus, "He was eating," in the ordinary way is, *Ói re aS ite*, but idiomatically it is, *1r amlaio Δ ví re aSur é aS ite* = *It is the manner in which he was and he eating.*

Other examples are turned in the same way : John was sitting on a stool = *It is the manner in which John was and he sitting on a stool* = *1r amlaio Δ ví Seagan aSur é na fuisge air ról.*

It so happened that when the doctor arrived the poor fellow was dying = *It is the manner in which the poor fellow was when the doctor arrived and he dying* = *1r amlaio Δ ví an tuine boct nuair Δ tanaic an doctuir aSur é aS faſail báir.*

John was beating James = (1) *It is the manner in which John was and he beating James* = *1r amlaio Δ ví Seagan aSur é aS bualaó Séamuir*; (2) *It is the manner in which James was and John beating him* = *1r amlaio Δ ví Séamuir aSur Seagan óa bualaó.*

The king will come seated on a golden chair = *It is the manner in which the king will come and he sitting on a chair of gold* = 1r amlaíb a tiorcpar an rís asur é na fuige. aip éaitir óir.

Important Idioms.

Ní raib neart asam aip	I could not help it.
Abair leis imteact leis	Tell him to take to his heels.
Imtíg teat! bug teat!	} Be off! Begone!
Aip siubal teat! rín teat!	
Siubail teat, a Máire!	Come, Mary!
1r fuair liom an lá	I consider the day cold.
1r mór liom an luac	I think the price high.
Go ceann míora	For the space of a month.
A g-ceann míora	In a month's time.
Ní beas liom é	I think it enough.
Ní mór liom é	I don't think it enough.
Tá cupla lá o fóin	A few days ago.
Tá cupla bliadain o fóin	A few years ago.
Tá náire orm teat	I am ashamed of you.
Tá fuasó asam ort	I hate you.
Ní fuil aipó asam ort	I don't like you.
Tá re aip an rsoil	He is at school.
Tá re aip an donac	He is at the fair.
Tá re aip an bailé-mór	He is in the town.
Rus re sheim cluairpe orm	He caught me by the ear.
Rus re sheim lámhe orm	Hecaught me by the hand.
Óuir re an cluitce orm	He won the game on me.
Óuir re an tóir orm	He put me to flight.

<p> Cuir fe an corrr orm Cuirfir me rshilling leat Cuirfir me seall leat so, etc. Nior eus me fairdear Rinnead an-mhor de Ni leurr dath e Tus riad patornic orm Uroc mhunad ort! Uroc bread ort! Caor teintin ort! Dean ro air rshor air bit Na dean rin air corrr air bit Cuidib fe air an daoraid Seirid re air as obair Ta fe as cur trom ort Ta fe as cur Ta fe as cur feartaine } Ta fe as cur rneacta Ta fe as cur bratos Ta fe as caoad orm So de ta ort? So de ta dit ort? So de ta ann tarbad ort? } Da deanaid le h-olc orm Ta fe as leigint air } Ta fe as cur a s-céill } Ta ri as riudal leite-fein </p>	<p> He turned the corner on me. I'll bet you a shilling. I'll hold you that, etc. I did not notice (perceive). He got a good reception. I cannot distinguish it. They called me Patrick. Bad manners to you! Bad luck to you. Blast you! Do this at all events. Don't do that at all. He got furious. He dives into his work. He is oppressing them. It rains: It is raining. It is snowing. It is sleeting. He is winking at me. What is the matter with you? What do you want? Doing it to vex me. He is pretending. She is walking alone. </p>
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Sin leitrgent cam
 Leir rin cuair re ar amhar,
 Ir mór an ghar rin
 Ní fuil gar a beir ag cairnt
 Ní fuil gar a beir leat
 Ní béirínn gairíte leat

Mar béirdeat cat ann
 Ir fiú pígin ríadon

Ir fiú oo fáotair é
 Ir fiú ór Máire
 Ir fiú Séamur Máire
 Ir fiú é í
 Ir fiú tuic fearad

Ní fiú tuic ruidé

Ir fiú fion a ceannac

Ní fiú é a ceannac }
 Ní fiú a ceannac }
 Ir fiú liom fearad

Ní fiú liom ruidé

Tá an ceart agat
 Tá re ag buint féir
 Tá re ag buint coirce
 Tá re ag buint púeatáí

That is a lame excuse.
 Thereupon it disappeared
 That is a God-send.
 There is no use in talking!
 You are a hopeless case.
 I would not be bothered
 with you.

After the manner of a cat.
 A herring is worth a
 penny.

It is worth your trouble.
 Mary is worth gold.

James is worthy of Mary.
 He is worthy of her.

*It is worth your while to
 stand.*

*It is not worth your while
 to sit.*

*It is worth while to buy
 wine.*

It is not worth buying.

*I think it worth while to
 stand.*

*I don't think it worth
 while to sit.*

You are right.

He is mowing hay.

He is sheering corn.

He is digging potatoes.

Τά ρε ας buint móna	He is cutting turf.
Na buin leip	Don't meddle with it.
Όαρ naóan lá*	Every alternate day.
Ό-ruit tú liom no ann	Are you for or against me?
m'ágarò ?	
Τά ριαο μόρ te ceite	They are on friendly terms.
Όί σο τορτ !	Hold your tongue !
Τά ρε na τορτ.	He is holding his tongue
Σγαοιλ ρε υπάρ	He fired a shot (of a gun).
Όαιτ ρε υπάρ	He fired a shot (of a stone).
Σγαοιλ ρε te κορρ-αβna	He fired at a crane.
Τα υπάρ ρα §unna	There is a charge in the gun.
Όoc ατά ann !	Heisa "buck" } <i>i.e.</i> , a suspicious character.
Όσαναό ατά ann !	He is a "lad" }
Ό ρο αμαό ; niop mó	Henceforth ; in future.
Ca tuige† naó n-iteann tú ?	Why don't you eat ?
Ca tuige ρin ?	How is that ?
Ni ράιρθε ουιτ ρin	You won't be the better of that.
Όειρμ σο óúblan	I defy you.
Ραόαιό ρε α n-eóan §o	He will go in spite of you.
§aóτραin‡	

* *i.e.*, Όαρna ann §αό aon lá.

† *i.e.*, Ca tuige é! How or where understand it.

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

Διη η-σοίγε	Of course ; " sure."
Διη η-σοίγε ηυξ ηε οηη	" Sure " he caught me.
Κυη ηξεπια εμγε	Send him word.
Λεδγα μαηρε ιη ηίση ηηη	Indeed that is true.
Λεδγα τΑ Αη κεαηη δγατ	Indeed you are telling the truth.
Μαηγε ιη μόη Αη ηηεαε ε	'Pon my word it is a big trout.
Μαηγε μαηρε τΑ ηέ δγ κυη	" Faith " it is raining.
ΤΑ με εομαηη Α ηεητ εαηε	I am nearly done for (<i>i.e.</i> dead).
ΝΑ ηαε ηεηη !	Never mind ! just wait !
Ιοεπαηό τυηΑ ηηη	You'll pay the piper for that.
ΤΑ ηιαδ οηε, Δεη ηηθεαδ αεύ !	They are bad, but let them go !
Μηηεαδ ε, Δεη ηηθεαδ αιγε !	It was destroyed, but what about it !
Ξο η-βεαηηυξ Όια ουητ !	} God bless you ! (salutation).
Ξο η-βεαηηυξ Όια τύ !	
Σλάν δγατ ! (singular)	} Good-bye !
Σλάν δγαηό ! (plural)	
Σλάν ηεατ ! (singular)	
Σλάν ηηό ! (plural)	
Reply : Ξο η-ηί* τύ ηλάν !	} May God guide you !
Ξο ηοηηόηξ Όια εη !	
Ξο ηοηηόηξ Όια ουητ !	
Ξο ηοηηόηξ 'η Ρηξ εύ !	

* This is either Ξο η-ηηξό or Ξο η-ηέηό.

Σέ το βεατα ! (singular)	}	Welcome! You are welcome!
Σέ θυη m-βεατα ! (plural)		
Ψαιτε ρόματ ! (singular)		
Ψαιτε ρόμαιβ ! (plural)		
Σέαο ράιτε ρόματ ;	}	You are very welcome!
Σέαο μίτε ράιτε ρόματ !		
Reply : Σο ραιβ ραιτ εσατ		Thank you.
Σο οέ μαρ τά τά ? (sing.)	}	How are you ?
Σο οέ μαρ τά ριβ ? (pl.)		
Τά με Σο μαίτ		I am well.
Τά με Σο σεαρτ		I am quite well.
Τά με Σο μαίτ, Σο ραιβ μαίτ εσατ !		I am well, thank you.

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