

UNIVERSITY OF ST. MICHAEL'S COLLEGE



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A GRAMMAR
OF
THE IRISH LANGUAGE.

A GRAMMAR
OF
THE IRISH LANGUAGE,

PUBLISHED FOR THE
USE OF THE SENIOR CLASSES
IN
THE COLLEGE OF ST. COLUMBA.

BY
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STAMMARD

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TO
THE REVEREND
JAMES HENTHORN TODD, D.D.,
FELLOW OF TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN, ETC.,
AS AN HUMBLE TESTIMONY
TO THE GREAT VALUE OF HIS EXERTIONS
IN PRESERVING AND ILLUSTRATING
THE MONUMENTS OF THE HISTORY AND LANGUAGE OF IRELAND,
AND AS AN ACKNOWLEDGMENT
OF THE ASSISTANCE DERIVED FROM HIM
IN THE COMPOSITION AND ARRANGEMENT OF THE FOLLOWING PAGES,

THIS VOLUME

IS INSCRIBED

BY HIS OBEДИENT, HUMBLE SERVANT,

JOHN O'DONOVAN.



MUL 29 1974

PREFACE.



THE following work was commenced in the year 1828, and has been since continued, with various interruptions. The Author, having in the interval visited every county in Ireland, has had opportunities of becoming acquainted with the provincial dialects of the language, as now spoken; and he has therefore noticed their more remarkable peculiarities, wherever they appeared to throw light on the Rules of Irish Grammar. He has also introduced copious examples from the remains of the ancient language still preserved in manuscript; a source of information peculiarly important, not only as preserving the original inflexions and forms of the language, but also because it has been hitherto almost entirely neglected by his predecessors, who, with the exception of Haliday, have all taken their examples from the modern vernacular Irish.

The Author has to return his thanks to the Provost and Senior Fellows of Trinity College, Dublin, for a

donation of twenty-five pounds towards the expense of this work ; also to the Founders of the College of St. Columba, who have adopted it as the Class-book of their more advanced students, and have borne the risk of its publication.

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J. O'D.

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INTRODUCTION.

SECTION I.—*Of the Origin of Writing and Letters in Ireland.*

THE question whether the pagan Irish had the use of alphabetic writing has often been discussed. Bollandus^a and Innes^b deny that the Irish were a lettered people before they received the Roman alphabet from the Christian missionaries; but the question has not been as yet handled on either side with a moderation likely to elicit the truth. O'Flaherty states that if Bollandus had consulted any Irishmen, well informed in the antiquities of Ireland, they could have produced for him the names of writers who had flourished in different ages before the mission of St. Patrick^c. And in this assertion he was perfectly borne out by the Bardic traditional history of pagan Ireland; for we read that letters were known not only to the Scotie or Milesian colony, but also to their predecessors, the Tuatha De Dananns^d. Several poets of distinction are men-

^a Acta SS. ad 17 Mart. tom. 2, in Vit. S. Patr. sect. 4.

^b See the arguments of Innes, quoted hereafter, p. xxxiv.

^c "Certe si Bollandus Hibernos antiquitatum suarum peritos consuleret, facile in medium proferrent, scriptorum nomenclaturam qui ante S. Patricii apostola-

tum diversis sæculis floruerunt." —*Ogyg.* Part iii. c. 30.

^d No Ogham inscriptions have, however, as yet been found on any of the monuments ascribed by the Irish writers to the Tuatha De Dananns, excepting the cave in the mound at New Grange, which exhibits a few Ogham cha-

tioned as of the Tuatha De Danann colony; and among the rest Ogma Mac Elathain, who is said to have invented one of the species of virgular characters called Ogham^e; and Brigid, daughter of the Dagda, who was worshipped by the poets of after ages as the goddess of poetry. Among the Scotic or Milesian colony, on their arrival in Ireland from Spain, we find Amergin, the brother of the leader of the colony, who is said to have been their poet, and chief Brehon or Judge; and there are on bardic record also the names of many poets and legislators, from this period down to Forchern, who is said to have composed the Uraicecht, or Primer of the Bards, in the first century. But the writers of the traditional history of Ireland go farther, and give a regular account of the period at which, and the persons by whom, the Irish letters were invented. They tell us that Fenius Farsaidh, King of Scythia, the great grandson of Japheth, son of Noah, set up a school of learning on the plain of Shenaar, which the Book of Druim-

acters, and near them, a decided representation of a palm branch. To say that these are forgeries, and that they were engraved on the stone since the cave was opened in 1699, would be to bring the question. A great number of the stones within the chamber, as well as those in the gallery which leads to it, are carved with spiral, lozenge-shaped, and zig-zag lines, but these are evidently intended as ornaments, and not as phonetic characters or hieroglyphics.

^e In the Book of Ballymote, fol. 167, *b, b*, commences a tract on the Ogham alphabets, in which the first invention of them is ascribed to Ogma, son of Elathan, above mentioned. This tract

begins:

“Caide loc 7 ainmhir 7 peppu 7 fat ainic in Ogam? Ninn. Loc do Hibernia insola quam nos Scoti habitamus, in ainmhir dherre, mic Elathan, nuz Erin. Peppu do Ogam, mac Elathan, mic Delbairé, derbraair do dherre; ár dherre, 7 Ogam, 7 Delbaet in mic Elathan.

“What is the place and time, and person, and cause of [inventing] the Ogam? Not difficult. The place of it, *Hibernia Insola quam nos Scoti habitamus*; in the time of Bres, son of Elathan, King of Ireland. Its person [inventor], Ogma, son of Elathan, son of Delbhaeth, brother of Bres; for Bres, and Ogma, and Delbhaeth, were the three sons of Elathan.”

Sneachta places at Eothica^f, two hundred and forty-two years after the deluge, and having two assistants, Gaedhal, son of Eathor, and Iar, son of Nemha, otherwise called Cai Cainbhreathach : he there taught the Hebrew and the various languages which came into existence after the confusion of tongues.

After having presided over the school of Shenaar for twenty years, Fenius returned to his kingdom of Scythia, and there established schools, over which he appointed Gaedhal, the son of Eathor, as president. King Fenius then ordered Gaedhal to arrange and digest the Gaelic language into five dialects, the most polished of which was to be named Bearla Feine, after Fenius himself, while the language generally was to be named Gaidhelg, from Gaedhal. Fenius Farsaidh, we are told, reigned over Scythia for a period of twenty-two years after his return from the plain of Shenaar. He had two sons, Nenual and Niul; to the elder of whom he bequeathed his kingdom, but to the younger nothing but his learning. Niul continued for many years teaching in the public schools of Scythia, until the fame of his learning spread abroad into the neighbouring kingdoms, and at length Pharoah Cingris [Cinchres], King of Egypt, invited him to his country to instruct the Egyptians in the various languages and sciences of which he was master. Niul set out for Egypt, and Pharoah was so pleased with him, that he bestowed upon him the lands called Capaciront, or Capacir, situated near the Red Sea, and gave him his daughter Scotia in marriage, from whom the Milesian Irish were afterwards called *Scoti*. After his marriage Niul^g erected public schools at Capaciront, and was there, instructing

^f The Book of Drum-sneachta, quoted by Keating.

^g To this royal schoolmaster of Egypt the chief Milesian families of Ireland trace their pedigrees, and are now about 118 genera-

tions removed from him, according to the genealogical lines preserved in ancient and modern books and MSS. Thus, the present Viscount O'Neill is 129 generations removed from him; Sir Richard

the Egyptians in the arts and sciences, at the very time that Moses took upon him the command of the children of Israel, 797 years after the deluge. At this time Niul had by Scota a son whom he named Gaedhal, in honour of his friend Gaedhal, the son of Eathor, and from him, according to some of our historians, the Irish were called Gaoidhil, and their language Gaoidheilg. The descendants of this famous schoolmaster, after various adventures by sea and land, emigrating from Egypt to Crete; from Crete to Scythia; from Scythia to Gothia, or Getulia; from Gothia, or Getulia, to Spain; from Spain to Scythia; from Scythia to Egypt again; from Egypt to Thrace; from Thrace to Gothia; from Gothia to Spain^h; finally arrived in Ireland under the conduct of two brothers,

O'Donel 115; O'Conor Don 118; O'Dowda 116; the Marquis of Thomond 117; Justin Mac Carthy, of Carrignavar, 117; and O'Donovan 115. Now by allowing thirty years to each generation, it will appear, that Niul may have flourished about 3540 years ago, or 1695 years before Christ. This calculation will shew that the number of generations would sufficiently fill up the space of time; and that the line is not such a blundering forgery as might be supposed; but until we discover some real authority to prove by what means the Scotie or Gaelic race were able to preserve the names of all their ancestors, from the time of Moses to the first century, we must regard the previous line of pedigree thence to Niul and Fenius, as a forgery of the Christian bards. Certain it is that at the present day oral tradition does not preserve the names of ancestors among the modern Irish, with any certainty, beyond the sixth gene-

ration. The author has tested this fact in every part of Ireland.

^h Lhwyd, in one of his letters to Mr. Rowland, the author of *Mona Antiqua*, expresses himself as follows on this subject: "Indeed it seems to me that the Irish have, in a great measure, kept up two languages, the ancient British, and old Spanish, which a colony of them brought from Spain. For notwithstanding their histories (as those of the origin of other nations) be involved in fabulous accounts, yet that there came a Spanish colony into Ireland is very manifest, from a comparison of the Irish tongue partly with the modern Spanish, but especially with the Cantabrian, or Basque; and this should engage us to have something of more regard than we usually have to such fabulous histories."

Sir William Betham, who has laboured more strenuously than even any of the native Irish writers of our times, to support the truth of the pagan history of Ire-

Heber and Heremon, sons of Milesius, and the twenty-first in descent from Gaedhal, son of Niul.

We are told further in the *Uraicecht*, preserved in the Book of Lecan¹, that the ancient Irish alphabet did not begin with the letters *a, b, c*, like the Latin, nor with *a, b, g*, like the Greek and Hebrew alphabets, but with the letters *b, l, f*, from which it received its name of *Bobel-loth*, or with *b, l, n*, from which it received the appellation of *Beth-luis-nion*. Each of the letters of the Bobel-loth alphabet took its name from one of the masters who taught at the great schools under Fenius Farsaidh, and in the Beth-luis-nion alphabet each letter was named after some tree, for what reason we know not².

The names and order of the letters in the Bobel-loth alphabet are as follows:

b Bobel.	τ Talemon.
l Loth.	c Cai.
f Foronn.	q Qualep.
† Saliath.	m Mareth.
n Nabgadon.	ϝ Gath.
h Hiruath or Uria.	ηϝ Ngoimer.
o Davith.	ρo Stru.

land, has attempted to prove, in his *ETRURIA CELTICA*, "that the Milesian invaders of Ireland were those Phœnician colonists, who, with their brethren of Britain, after the destruction of the Phœnician cities and power, became independent, and carried on trade with their neighbours of the Continent, and after many ages were found by the Romans under Cæsar in Gaul and Britain; that the Phœnician Celts, on their first invasion of the British Islands and Gaul, were a *literate people*, possessing alphabetic writ-

ing and the elements of learning, and that the Irish is but a modification of the old *Cadmean Phœnician alphabet*, in like manner as are the Etruscan, Greek, and Roman."—*Etruria Celtica*, vol. i. p. 10.

¹ Fol. 158 *a*, and 169 *a*. Ogygia, p. 235. There is a still more ancient copy of the *Uraicecht* in a MS. in the British Museum.

² Whoever wishes to read a long dissertation on this subject, a singular specimen of ingenious trifling, may consult Davies' *Celtic Researches*.

ρ	Ruben.	eu	Iachim or Iumelchus.
α	Achab.	οι	Ordinos.
ο	Ose.	υι	Judæmos.
υ	Uriath.	ιο	Jodonus.
ι	Etrocuus or Esu.	αο	Aifrin.

The Beth-luis-nion alphabet is similarly arranged, but the names of the letters are taken from trees or shrubs, as follows :

b	beizh, the birch.	ρ	πεῖρος, unknown.
l	luis, the mountain ash.	ρ ^τ or z	} ρεραυρ, the sloe tree.
f	פעאן, the alder.	ρ	
r	ראל, the willow.	α	αיל, the fir tree.
n	נון, the ash.	ο	ον, furze.
h	הואץ, the hawthorn.	υ	υρ, heath.
o	ουρ, the oak.	e	εαδσ, the aspen.
τ	τinne, unknown.	ι	ισσ, the yew.
c	coll, hazel.	εα	εαδσ, the aspen.
q	queipτ, the apple tree.	οι	οιρ, the spindle tree.
m	μου, the vine.	υι	υιλεαν, woodbine.
δ	δορτ, ivy.	ιο	ιρ, gooseberry.
ng	ngéal, the reed.	εα	αmhancholl.—unknown ^k .

On this simple story, handed down by the Irish bards, O'Flaherty remarks: "What if I should assert that our Fenius was that Phoenix who invented those ancient Greek characters which the Latins speak of. The Irish letters are not very unlike the Latin; the names of Phoenix and Fenisius, or Phoenius, are not very different, and the invention supports it; the time and place in matters of such antiquity are very often confounded. Besides I have the

^k O'Flaherty acknowledges that he did not know the meaning of this name; but the Rev. Paul O'Brien, to whose etymological vision nothing presented the slightest difficulty, makes it

αμπαχολ (Grammar, p. 210), which he forces to signify *witch hazle*, being derived, according to him from αμπα, vision [although the first portion of the word is αμαν, not αμπα] and col, hazle.

authority of the above cited poet, Forchern, in favour of my conjecture, in whom we read: ‘The book of Forchern begins. The place of the book [i. e. the place where it was written or published] was Emania. The time, when Conquovar, the son of Nessa, ruled Ulster. The person [i. e. the author of the book] was Forchern, the philosopher. Fenius Farsaidh composed the first alphabets of the Hebrews, the Greeks, the Latins, and also the Beth-lius-nin [i. e. the Irish alphabet], and Oghum¹.’”

¹ “Quid si dicerem Fenisium nostrum istum fuisse Phœnicem literarum auctorem, qui Græcas eas vetustas depingeret, quas Latini referunt? a Latinis Hibernicæ non omnino abhorrent; Phœnicis, et Fenisii, vel Phœnii nomen non abludit, et inventio suffragatur; tempus et patria in hujusmodi antiquioribus sæpissimè confunduntur. Præterea conjecturæ meæ non deest autoritas supra laudati Forcherni poetæ, apud quem sic habetur. *Incipit liber Forcherni. Locus libri* [locus quo in lucem editus] *Emania* [Ultoniæ regia]. *Tempus, Conquovaro filio Nessæ*; sc. Ultoniam moderante. *Persona* [author libri] *Forchernus philosophus* [fileadh], *Fenius* [Fenisius] *Farsaidh alphabeta prima Hebræorum, Græcorum, Latinorum, et Bethlusnin* [alphabetum Scoticum] *an Oghuim composuit.*—*Ogyg.* Part iii. c. 30, p. 221.

In the same chapter, O’Flaherty, after enumerating many of the poets, legislators, and other *literati* of pagan Ireland, says exultingly (p. 219): “Postremo Dualdus Firbissius patriæ antiquitatum professor hereditarius

ex Majorum monumentis literis datis refert 180 Druidum, seu Magorum disciplinæ tractatus S. Patricii tempore igni damnatos.” This assertion is very bold indeed, but no reference to it is found in any of the old Lives of St. Patrick published by Colgan, or in the Book of Armagh, and it is to be feared, that O’Flaherty has mistaken the meaning of the words of Mac Firbis, who generally wrote in the old Irish style, with which O’Flaherty had but a tolerable acquaintance. And he adds, that the same Duald Firbis wrote him an account of his being in possession of some of the taibhle fileadh, or poets’ tablets, made of the birch tree. “Scoticis literis quinque acidunt, in quorum singulis ab aliarum gentium literis discrepant; nimirum, Nomen, Ordo, Numerus, Character, et Potestas. Et quia *imperiti literarum in chartâ, aliave ulla materia ad memoriam pingendurum* harum rerum ignarus incautè effutiit Bolandus, de materiâ aliquid præfabor. Ea ante pergamenæ usum tabulæ erant e betulla arbore complanata, quas *Oraiun* et *Taibhle*

These statements of O'Flaherty were sufficient to satisfy the mere Irish scholars of his day, but not so a Scotch writer, who flourished soon after, namely, Thomas Innes, M. A., a Roman Catholic priest, of acute mind and true learning. In his "*Critical Essay on the ancient Inhabitants of the northern Parts of Britain or Scotland*," London, 1729, he thus examines O'Flaherty's arguments in proof of the use of letters among the pagan Irish :

" We come now to examine the proofs that *Flaherty* brings, of the ancient use of letters among the *Irish*, before they received Christianity. The first is, that they have or had many books, poems, and histories, written in their *Pagan* ancestors' times. But all that is nothing but to beg the question, and to suppose what is under debate, till these books, or some of them, be published to the world, with fair literal translations, and documents to prove their authority and age, and to shew how, and where they have been preserved during so many ages.

"2°. FLAHERTY, for a proof that the *Irish* had not the use of letters from the *Latins*, and by consequence that their letters were much ancients than the preaching of the Gospel among them, and peculiar to the *Irish*, tells us, that their letters differed from those of the *Latins*, and all others in name, order, character, number, and pronunciation and force : to shew this, he gives from the Book of *Lecan* (an *Irish* MS. about three hundred years old) the copy of the *Latin* alphabet, inverted and digested in a new arbitrary order, with the names of trees attributed to each letter, beginning with the three letters B, L, N ; and from thence called *Beth-luis-nion*.

Fileadh. i. Tabulas Philosophicas dicebant. Ex his aliquas inter antiquitatum monumenta apud se superfuisse, ut et diversas characterum formulas, quas ter quinquagenas a Fenisii usque ætate numero, et CRAOBH OGHAM .i.

virgeos characteres nomine recenset, non ita pridem ad me scripsit Dualdus Furbissius rei antiquariæ Hibernorum unicum, dum vixit, columnen, et extinctus, detrimentum."—*Ogygia*, p. 233.

And this he pretends was the ancient *Irish* alphabet, before they had communication with the *Latins* and *Romans*.

“ But when *Flaherty* sets about to prove the antiquity of this *Beth-luis-nion*, he brings for proofs stories more incredible than the facts themselves, which he intends to prove by them. *Flaherty* tells us then the story we made mention of already from *Keating* and *Toland*: that the first author of this alphabet was *Fenius-Farsaidh*, who composed, says *Flaherty*, the alphabets of the Hebrews, Greeks, and Latins; the *Beth-luis-nion* and the *Ogum*. This *Fenius Farsaidh* (as we said before) was, according to the *Irish Seanachies*, great grand-child to *Jafeth*, son to *Noah*, and lived in *Noah*'s own time, about one hundred years after the deluge. For this piece of antiquity, *Flaherty* quotes one *Forcherne*, an *Irish* poet, who, as a late *Irish* writer informs us, lived one hundred years before the incarnation. Now, not to ask how this poet *Forcherne*, or *Feirtcheirne*, as old as he is placed, knew so distinctly things past, above two thousand years before the time in which he is classed, it may at least be enquired, by what spirit of prophecy this *Fenius Farsaidh* composed the *Greek* alphabets so long before *Cecrops* and *Cadmus*, and that of the *Romans*, some 1700 years before the *Romans* were a people. And will the authority of *Lecan*, a MS. of about three hundred years, convince the learned of so rare a discovery, as that of an *Irish* writer one hundred years before the birth of Christ?

“ But to let that paradox pass, there needs no great skill of the *Irish* language, to shew that the *Beth-luis-nion* is nothing else but an invention of some of the *Irish Seanachies*; who, since they received the use of letters, have put the *Latin* alphabet into a new arbitrary order, and assigned to each letter a name of some tree; and that this was not the genuine alphabet of the *Irish* in ancient times, or peculiar to them, but a bare inversion of the *Latin* alphabet.

“ For 1°. The genuine *Irish* alphabet consists only of eighteen letters ; for so many only they make use of in that tongue, viz. A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T, U ; whereas in *Flaherty's Beth-luis-nion* there are twenty-six letters, that is, eight supernumerary, viz. Q, X, Y, Z, *oi*, *io*, *ng*, and *ea* : of these eight there are four which are never used in the genuine *Irish*, viz. Q, X, Y, and Z ; at least in such *Irish* books or MSS. as I could hitherto ever meet with, or hear of : but they are in use in the *Latin* tongue, and with the other eighteen letters make up the *Latin* alphabet : which therefore the *Irish* bard must have had before him when he invented the *Beth-luis-nion*. As to the syllables *oi*, *io*, *ea*, and double letter *ng*, which are the other four letters in the *Beth-luis-nion*, they have no one proper character in the *Irish*, distinct from the common alphabet, but are expressed by two of the usual letters of it ; and nothing but meer fancy could have placed them in this new alphabet as distinct letters from the other eighteen. So, I think, it is plain that this *Beth-luis-nion* was neither the genuine *Irish* alphabet, nor was in use among them till after the times of Christianity, when they received the use of the *Latin* letters, whereof this is but a bare transposition.

“ As to the names of trees attributed to each letter, it seems visibly the work of meer fancy, without any reason or motive, there being no resemblance in the character of these letters to these trees, from whence this bard hath named them : whereas in the languages where the names of the letters are significative, as generally those of the *Hebrew*, the thing meant by these letters hath often some resemblance to the figure of the letter. And as for the term *Feadha*, *Woods*, which they gave to this alphabet, it was natural to call by the name of a forest or wood an alphabet whereof each letter was metamorphosed into a tree.

“ ANOTHER proof which the *Irish* modern writers bring

for the antiquity of their letters, is from the form of their characters, as being peculiar to the *Irish*, and *not agreeing with the Greek or Latin characters, or perhaps any other now in the world.* But such arguments as these are only fit to impose upon those that never saw any *Latin* books or characters, but in vulgar print; and never had occasion to see any MS. but *Irish*: for if they had seen any ancient *Latin* MSS. or characters, they would have found, in the first place, by perusing those of the sixth, seventh, eighth, and following ages, down to the time of printing, as great differences betwixt the figures of letters, and form of the writing in MSS. of all countries, and the common print, as betwixt the usual characters in printed books, and those of the *Irish*; and yet originally all of them derived from the ancient *Roman* or *Latin* characters or letters.

“ IN the second place, the inspection of old *Latin* MSS. or charters will furnish new proofs to demonstrate, that the *Irish* had their letters originally from the *Latins*, or those that used the *Latin* characters; for all the characters of the *Irish* letters (without excepting the *Saxon* F, ƒ, þ, ƿ, which seem more extraordinary to vulgar readers) are generally to be met with in the same form in ancient MSS. and charters, not only of *Britain*, but none of them but are in MSS. of other foreign countries^m, who had nothing to do with *Ireland*.

^m Mr. Mac Elligott, in his Observations on the Gaelic Language, published in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, says: “ Let any one look into Astle, on the Origin and Progress of Alphabetic writing, the Spectacle de la Nature, and the early printed Classics, and he will be convinced that the small alphabet used in early ages all through Europe, was borrowed

from the *Irish*.” p. 38. It is very true that the people who were converted to Christianity by the *Irish* missionaries in the seventh and eighth centuries, first obtained their letters from those missionaries; but it must be confessed that the oldest inscriptions found in *Ireland* (excepting the *Ogham*), are in the *Roman* alphabet of the fifth century, and it is well known that

And in many countries, where no body doubts they had the first use of letters from the *Latins*, the characters of old MSS. differ much more from the vulgar printed characters of the *Latin* than the *Irish* do. Such are the *Merovingian* and *Longobardick* characters : for a proof of this I refer the reader to schemes of characters, and of old writ, which he will find in the learned *F. Mabillon's* book, *De Re Diplomatica*, in case he have not the opportunity to inspect *Latin* MSS. where he will generally find, even in MSS. of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth ages, much the same characters, or forms of letters, that are made use of in the *Irish* tongue ; and little or no difference, but in the forms of abbreviations : for which, not only the people of different languages, but every different writer, may invent such characters, or forms of contractions, as he fancies will most abridge.

“ The same thing may be said as to the notes for writing secrets, called by the *Irish* *Ogum* ; of which *Waræus* says he had some copies ; and one *Donald Forbis* mentions others : for no body doubts but the *Irish* had their notes or cyphers for writing short-hand, and keeping their secrets ; especially the *Druids*, for preserving from the knowledge of Christians the secret of their profane mysteries, made use, no doubt, of secret characters or letters, from the time that once the use of letters was introduced in *Ireland*. All other nations, and every private man, may have the same, for keeping secrets, and those entirely different from their usual letters : such among the *Romans* were the *Notæ Tironis*, whereof a specimen may be seen in *F. Mabillon's* diplomaticks. *Trithemius* also hath written a book on the subject, *De Steganographia* : so I do not well conceive for what this serves towards proving the antiquity of the *Irish* letters ; or that they were not ori-

this, more or less modified, pre- introduction of the Gothic style
 vailed all over Europe till the of writing.

ginally the same as the *Roman* or *Latin* character. Since *Waræus*, who is brought in to prove that the *Irish* had such characters, tells us, that the *Ogum* did not contain the *Irish* vulgar character, but a hidden way of writing for preserving their secrets.

“AND thus far as to the arguments brought by *Flaherty*, and other modern *Irish* writers, against the opinion of the learned *Bollandus*, concerning the ancient use of letters in *Ireland*; with which subject, tho’ *Flaherty* fills up about thirty pages of his *Ogygia*; yet the far greatest part is spent in useless flourishes on the origin of letters in general, and on the use and new order of the *Irish* new invention of *Beth-luis-nion*, there being little in his book, besides what we have mentioned, that looks like proofs of their having had the use of letters before Christianity, unless we call proofs citations of legends of *St. Patrick’s* life, written long after his time.

“AFTER all, I do not pretend that no private person among the *Irish* had the use of letters before the coming in of *St. Patrick*, and the preaching of the Gospel to them: for it may have very well happened, that some of the *Irish*, before that time, passing over to *Britain*, or other parts of the Roman empire, where the use of letters was common, might have learned to read and write. It might also have happened that the *Druids*, who were the magicians of these times, might have had certain hieroglyphick characters to express their diabolical mysteries; and that the remains of those are what *Toland* and others make such a noise about. But if the *Irish* had any distinct character or form of alphabetical letters different from those which we have above mentioned, and which were introduced to *Ireland* by *St. Patrick*, how comes it that all this time, especially within these last fifty or sixty years, that the matter hath been agitated, and the dispute warm about it, none of them have ever published any specimen of

these peculiar *Irish* letters, or at least an alphabet of them: such as *F. Mabillon* hath given of all ancient forms of letters, and *Dr. Hickes* more particularly of the *Runick*, and other northern characters?" vol. ii. pp. 444-452.

Not long after *Innes*, we find *Dr. O'Brien* reject the Milesian story as utterly unsupported by true history. In his strictures on the author of the *Remains of Japhet*, he writes as follows in the Preface to his *Irish Dictionary*: "As for this learned writer's making the Irish language a dialect of the Scythian, formed, as he says, upon the authority of the Irish bards, at the famous school on the plains of Shinar, or Senaar, by a king of Scythia, called Feniusa Farsa, son of Baath, who is pretended to be a son of Magog, I do not conceive how he can reconcile this opinion of the Irish being a dialect of the Scythian or Magogian language, with that circumstance he mentions, p. 119, 'that it is called Gaoidhealg, from its first professor at the above school, by name Gadel, a Gomerian,' and that the language he then spoke and taught as an usher of that school under that royal schoolmaster Feniusa Farsa, grandson of Magog, *is the language of the native Irish to this day*; a very venerable antiquity, I must confess. But at the same time I cannot but regret that this worthy gentleman, who appears but too well inclined to favour the antiquities of Ireland and Britain, did not consider that nothing could be of greater prejudice or discredit to them than asserting those fabulous genealogies, and the stories of the travels of the supposed leaders and chiefs of their ancient colonies, such as have been rejected with just contempt by all learned nations, first invented in Ireland by bards and romancers, after they came to some knowledge both of the sacred writings and profane histories; and in Britain by *Nennius* and *Jeffry of Monmouth*."

And again, in his remarks on the letter A.

"We should not, in the mean time, forget that it is to this

change made in the words *Gaill* and *Galic*, doubtless by our heathenish bards who inserted the letter *d*, that we owe the important discovery necessarily reserved to their successors who embraced Christianity, of those illustrious personages *Gadel* and *Gadelus*; the former an usher under that royal schoolmaster *Pheniusa Farsa*, king of Scythia, in his famous school on the plain of *Sennaar*, where this *Gadel* invented the Irish alphabet and the Gadelian language, so called, as it is pretended, from his name; and the latter a grandson of that king by his son *Niul*, married to *Scota*, daughter of Pharaoh *Cingris*, as our bards call him, instead of *Cinchres*, king of Egypt, under whose reign, they tell us, *Moses* and our *Gadelus* were cotemporaries and great friends: and from this *Gadelus* our learned bards gravely assure us that the Irish derive their name of *Gadelians*, who, they tell us, were also called *Scots*, from his wife the Ægyptian princess *Scota*. This discovery, I have said, was necessarily reserved to our Christian bards, as their heathenish predecessors most certainly could have no notion of the plain of Sennaar, of Pharaoh, or of Moses; objects not to be known but from the Holy Scriptures, or some writings derived from them, such as those of Josephus, Philo, &c. never known to the Irish bards before their Christianity."

Charles O'Connor, of Belanagar, also, though in his youth he had believed the pagan traditions with the same facility and enthusiasm as O'Flaherty, yet in his maturer years, gave up all hope of being able to convince the learned of the truth of the pagan history of Ireland, as handed down by the bards. On this subject he writes as follows, in his "Dissertation on the Origin and Antiquities of the ancient Scots of Ireland and Britain," prefixed to O'Flaherty's "Ogygia Vindicated," which he edited in the year 1775.

"OUR earliest accounts of *Ireland* have been handed down to us by the *bards*, a race of men well qualified for

working on the barren ground of broken traditions. Poetic invention gave existence to facts which had none in nature, and an origin which included some genuine truths, has been obscured by forged adventures on sea and land. A succession of monarchs has been framed, many of whom never reigned, and the line of genealogy has been opened, to make room for redundancies, without which the succession of so many monarchs could not be admitted by the most ductile credulity.

“THUS it fared in the infancy of things in *Ireland*, as well as in every other *European* country; and in all, we will find that the introduction of letters, far from limiting, has, in fact, enlarged (for a considerable time) the sphere of the ostentatious and marvellous. The registering of facts under the direction of nature and truth, has been the work of ages advanced in civilization. To these we will hasten; and that we may give no line to a fugitive hypothesis, or the fanciful excursions of ingenious idleness, we will not attempt to pass any of our most antient traditions on our readers, but such as may be supported by parallel documents of foreign antiquaries, who held no correspondence with the natives of this islandⁿ.”

He does not, however, go so far as to give up all claims of the pagan Irish to the use of letters: far from it; he argues that the ancestors of the Scoti must have had communications with the Phœnician colonies in Spain, from whom they must have borrowed their seventeen letters “so different in their powers, names and arrangement from those of the *Greeks* and *Romans*.” He then writes as follows.

“This people, it is certain, know so little of *Greek* or *Roman* learning, that it was only in the fifth century they have learned the use of the *Roman* alphabet from the *Christian* missionaries. It was then, or soon after, that they laid aside their own uncouth and virgular characters, their *Beth-luis*

ⁿ pp. xxvii, xxviii.

nion, and the *Ogum*; the form heretofore used, and since preserved by the antiquaries, either from vanity, or the more rational motives of preserving an antient fact worthy of being recorded. The old manner of writing was indeed useless to the public, after a better and more elegant form was introduced; but yet the retention of the *Ogum* has had its use in latter times, by convincing us that the heathen Irish had the means of conveying their thoughts in cyphers, and consequently of recording memorable events, for the information and instruction of posterity.—Their jurisprudence, partly still preserved, the succession of their monarchs, their accurate chronology, and their genealogies, transmitted with great care from the first to the fifth century, are incontestible proofs of this truth. An earlier or more creditable era of cultivation than that, which began with the monarch *Feradach the Just*, (a hundred years after the birth of *Christ*,) no nation in *Europe* can boast^o.”

Dr. Ledwich, however, argues that the Irish Ogums were secret alphabets invented in the middle ages, like the Runic inscriptions of the northern nations. He says:

“Verelius, Wormius, with many existing monuments prove, that the Northerns writ their runes in every possible form; in circles, in angles, from right to left, and vice versa. Wormius enumerates twelve different ways of making runic inscriptions. The German Buchstab or runes were drawn sometimes in horizontal, and sometimes in perpendicular lines. Here we have, if not the original of our *Ogum Craobh*, a practice exactly similar. In a word, these wonderful Irish Ogums were nothing, as we see, but a stenographic, or steganographic contrivance, common to the semibarbarians of Europe in the middle ages, and very probably derived from the Romans^p.”

^o pp. xxxviii, xxxix.

^p Antiquities of Ireland, 2nd edit., pp. 330, 331.

The pagan antiquity of the Irish Oghams cannot be now established, to the satisfaction of the learned, except by existing monuments. It must be first proved that the monuments are undoubtedly pagan, and secondly, that the inscriptions are cotemporaneous with such monuments, and not fabrications of after ages. The only monument with an Ogham inscription yet discovered, which exhibits all the apparent features of a pagan monument, is an artificial cave near the castle of Dunloe, in the county of Kerry. This interesting remain of ancient Ireland was discovered in 1838, by the workmen of Daniel Mahony, Esq., of Dunloe Castle. In constructing a sunk fence in one of the fields of the demesne, they broke into a subterranean chamber, of a curved form, which proved to be the termination of a gallery. The sides of the cave are constructed of rude stones, without any kind of cement, and the roof is formed of long stones, laid horizontally; an upright stone pillar extends from the centre of the floor of the cave to the roof, and is evidently designed to support it. This pillar stone is inscribed with Ogham characters, as are four of those which form the roof, in such a manner as to impress the conviction that they had been inscribed before they were placed in their present positions. In the passage were found several human skulls and bones, which clearly indicated the sepulchral character of the monument, and which Mr. Mahony removed to Dunloe Castle, in order to preserve them.

The Author of this Grammar examined this cave in the year 1841, and can testify that the inscriptions are not fabrications; but whether the monument be pagan or early Christian, he will not take upon him to decide. Ogham inscriptions are constantly referred to in the oldest Irish historical tales, as engraved on the tombs and monuments of pagan kings and chieftains, and from these tales it would appear that they contained simply the names of the persons

interred. Thus in the story in *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, about the identifying of the grave of King Fothadh Airgtheach, in the third century, it is stated that his headstone exhibited, in Ogham characters, the inscription :

FOTHAD AIRCTHECH IND SO,

“FOTHADH AIRGTHECH HERE.”

Also in a very ancient poem, beginning *Ogum illia, lia uar leact*, “Ogum on the stone, the stone over the monument,” preserved in the *Book of Leinster*, p. 28, *b*, a stone placed over a monument, with an Ogham inscription, situated on the site of a battle fought in the third century, is thus alluded to :

In τ-ogum út pil ip in cloic,
Imma torparatar mór;
Dammared Finn pictib glonb,
Cian bad cuman in Ogom.

“That Ogum which is on the stone,
Around which many were slain;
If Finn of the many battles lived,
Long would the Ogum be remembered.”

Again, in the tale of Deirdre, published in the *Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin*, pp. 127, 128, the sepulchral monument of Naisi and Deirdre is thus spoken of :

Do tógbað a liaz ór a lect, do scribbað a n-anmanna Ogaim,
acar do fepað a ccluirece caemte.

“Their stone was raised over their monument, their Ogham names were written, and their ceremony of lamentation was performed.”

It would be easy to multiply similar references to pagan monuments inscribed with Ogham characters, but as we have no manuscripts of pagan antiquity, the real proof of the facts above stated must be derived from the monuments themselves; and it is to be hoped that our antiquaries, in examining the ancient Irish sites of pagan battles, carnivals,

sepulchral chambers, and cromlechs, will have a close look out for Ogham inscriptions. It is highly probable that such inscriptions were generally engraved on that part of the stone which was concealed by the earth, in order to prevent the air from wearing the surface of the stone. This, at least, appears to have been the case with the monument of Fothadh Airg-thech above alluded to; but from other references it seems that the Ogham inscription was cut on the flag stone with which the monument was covered over head^a, but whether on its upper or under surface, or on its external edges, we cannot determine. Ledwich, in his strictures upon O'Flanagan's paper on the Ogham inscription on the Callan mountain, in the county of Clare, asserts that the stone could not have retained the inscription from the remote period to which O'Flanagan ascribed it, and writes as follows :

“ Can it be imagined, that the Callan inscription has stood almost 1500 years in a naked and wild situation, uninjured by the tooth of time, and all the vicissitudes of a variable climate? That the great Atlantic ocean, and its briny atmosphere, have had no influence on this rock, and so far from pulverizing its surface, have rendered it unfit for vegetation? These are wonderful things! Perhaps the venerable Druid who performed the funeral rites to the manes of Conal Colgach (and who has not heard of Conal Colgach?) not only pronounced the ‘sit terra levis,’ but washed the stone with a magic composition of Miseltoe, Semolus, and Selago, and in a fine prophetic phrenzy, predicted the amazing discoveries of Irish Antiquaries in the 18th century^f.”

^a The South Munster Society of Antiquaries have made a considerable collection of Ogham inscriptions, and Mr. Windele of Cork, a zealous advocate for the civilization of the pagan Irish, intends to write a paper on the

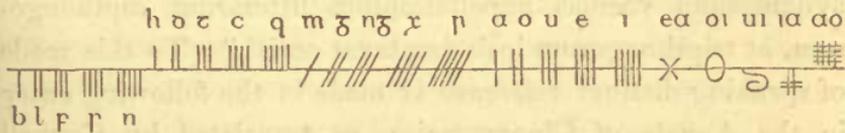
subject, in which he will point out the situation and nature of the monuments on which they are found.

^f Antiquities of Ireland, 2nd edit., p. 341.

It is, however, stated by some that this stone had lain buried beneath the earth for ages, while others asserted with confidence that the inscription was forged by Mr. John Lloyd, a Munster Irish poet of the last century, who was the first to notice it himself, in his *Short Description of the County of Clare*, as the monument of Conan, one of Finn Mac Cumhaill's followers! O'Flanagan, without acknowledging that it had been ever deciphered before, actually forges an Irish quatrain, which he cites as a part of the poem called the *Battle of Gabhra*, to prove that Conan was buried on the Callan mountain, whither he had repaired, after the battle of Gabhra, to worship the sun!

The Ogham inscriptions at Dunloe, and elsewhere in Kerry, are, however, of a more authentic character than that on the Callan mountain, but the clue to their interpretation has not yet been discovered; and it would be rash in the extreme to assume without positive proof that they are all pagan, as several of the stones, on which they are inscribed, exhibit crosses, and are clearly Christian monuments.

There are various kinds of Ogham given in the tract in the *Book of Ballymote* already referred to, but a complete discussion of the subject would occupy too much space, and it must therefore suffice to give here the most common form, called the Ogham Craobh, or Virgular Ogham, which is as follows:



Here it is to be noted that the diphthongs beginning with e, as ea, ei, eo, eoi, are all distinguished by a cross (x) intersected by the stem line. The diphthong oi is marked by a circle bisected by the line. The diphthongs and triphthongs beginning with u, as ua, ui, uai, are all marked by a curve

(D) below the line. All the diphthongs and triphthongs beginning with *i*, as *ia*, *io*, *iu*, *iui*, are denoted by two strokes drawn below the line, with two others intersecting them at right angles. All the diphthongs beginning with *a*, as *ao*, *ae*, *ai*, are marked by four parallel strokes intersected at right angles by four others placed above the line. The letter *z* (*ts* or *dz*) which has been decidedly borrowed from the Roman alphabet is represented by a curve of this form  (“representans inuolutam Draconis caudam”) intersected by the stem line, thus, . A short line drawn parallel to the stem line — represents the consonant *p*; and *q*, which was unquestionably borrowed from the Roman alphabet, and used by the Irish to stand for *cu*, is indicated by five strokes drawn perpendicular to the stem line.—See O’Molloy’s *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 135–142.

In a MS. in the British Museum (Clarendon 15), various Oghams are described, such as Dinn-Ogham, in which the name of the letters are borrowed from those of hills; En-Ogham, in which they are borrowed from those of birds; Dath-Ogham, from colours; Cell-Ogham, from churches, &c.; but these are evidently contrivances of later ages.

The ancient Irish also used an obscure mode of speaking, which was likewise called Ogham, and is thus described by O’Molloy: “Obscurum loquendi modum, vulgò Ogham, Antiquarijs Hiberniæ satis notum, quo nimirùm loquebantur syllabizando vocolas appellationibus litterarum, diphthongorum, et triphthongorum ipsis dumtaxat notis^s.” To this mode of speaking distinct reference is made in the following entry in the Annals of Clonmacnoise, as translated by Connell Mageoghegan, in the year 1627:

“A. D. 1328. Morish O’Gibelan, master of art, one exceeding well learned in the new and old laws, civile and

^s Grammatica, p. 133.

cannon, a cunning and skillfull philosopher, an excellent poet in Irish, an eloquent and exact *speaker of the speech, which in Irish is called Ogham*, and one that was well seen in many other good sciences : he was a cannon and singer at Twayme, Olfyn, Aghaconary, Killalye, Enaghdown, and Clonfert ; he was official and common judge of these dioceses ; ended his life this year.”

But if the Irish are obliged to resign all claims to letters in the time of paganism, they can still historically boast of having writers among them before the general establishment of Christianity in the fifth century ; for we must infer, from the oldest lives of St. Patrick, that there were several christian bishops in Ireland on Patrick’s arrival ; and we learn from St. Chrysostom, in his *Demonstratio quod Christus sit Deus*, written in the year 387, that the “ British Islands, situated outside the Mediterranean sea, and in the very ocean itself, had felt the power of the divine word, churches having been founded there, and altars erected.”

But the most curious information respecting the literate character of Ireland before St. Patrick’s time, is derived from the accounts of Celestius, who was certainly an Irishman, and the favourite disciple of the heresiarch Pelagius. St. Jerome, alluding to a criticism of Celestius upon his Commentaries on the Epistle of St. Paul to the Ephesians, thus vents his rage against this bold heretic :

“ Nuper indoctus calumniator erupit, qui Commentarios meos in epistolam Pauli ad Ephesios reprehendendos putat. Nec intelligit, nimiâ stertens vecordiâ, leges Commentariorum, &c., nec recordatur stolidissimus, et Scotorum pultibus

^c S. Chrysostom, Opp. tom. i. 575, B, Ed. Bened. Καὶ γὰρ αἱ Βρετανικαὶ νῆσοι, αἱ τῆς θαλάττης ἐκτὸς κείμεναι ταύτης, καὶ ἐν αὐτῷ οὔσαι τῷ ὠκεανῷ,

της δυνάμεως τοῦ ῥήματος ἤσθοντο· καὶ γὰρ κᾶκεῖ Ἐκκλησίαι καὶ θυσιαστήρια πεπηγασιν.

prægravatus, nos in ipso dixisse opere : non damno digamos, imo nec trigamos, et si fieri potest octogamos : plus aliquid inferam, etiam scortatorem recipio pœnitentem^{tt}.”

And again, in the *proemium* to his third book on Jeremiah, St. Jerome thus more distinctly mentions the native country of Celestius :

“ Hic tacet, alibi criminatur ; mittit in universum orbem epistolas biblicas, priùs auriferas, nunc maledicas : et patientiam nostram, de Christi humilitate venientem, malæ conscientiæ signum interpretatur. Ipseque mutus latrat per Alpinum [al. *Albinum*] canem grandem et corpulentum, et qui calcibus magis possit sævire, quàm dentibus. Habet enim progeniem Scoticæ gentis, de Britannorum viciniâ : qui, juxta fabulas Poëtarum, instar Cerberi spirituali percutiendus est clavâ, ut æterno, cum suo magistro Plutone, silentio conticescat^u.”

We learn, however, from Gennadius (who flourished A. D. 495), that before Celestius was imbued with the heresy of Pelagius, he had written from his monastery to his parents three epistles, in the form of little books, containing instructions necessary for all desirous of serving God, and no trace of the heresy which he afterwards broached. The words of Gennadius are as follows :

“ Celestius antequàm Pelagianum dogma incurreret, imò adhuc adolescens, scripsit ad parentes suos de monasterio Epistolas in modum libellorum tres, omnibus Deum desiderantibus necessarias. Moralis siquidem in eis dictio nil vitii postmodum prodiit, sed totum ad virtutis incitamentum tenuit^v.”

^{tt} Hieron. Prolog. in lib. i. in Hieremiam. Opp. ed. Vallarsii, tom. iv.

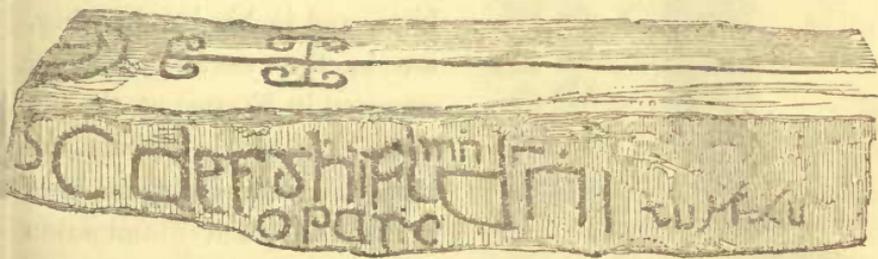
^u Prolog. i. lib. iii. in Hieremiam. Some, however, think that the heretic Pelagius is here alluded to. See Vallarsius, not. in loc. Opp. S. Hieron. tom. iv. who confounds, both here and

in his note on the passage last quoted, the *Scotia* of St. Jerome with the modern Scotland : not knowing that Ireland was the only country called *Scotia* in St. Jerome's time.

^v Gennadius de Script. Eccl. c. 44. (inter Opp. B. Hieron. Ed. Vallarsii, tom. ii.)

It is conjectured^w that these letters were written by Celestius from the monastery of St. Martin of Tours, in the year 369. But be this as it may, if Celestius, while a youth, wrote epistles from a foreign monastery to his parents in Scotia, in the neighbourhood of Britain, we must conclude that his parents could read them, and that letters were known in Ireland, then called Scotia, at least to some persons, at the close of the fourth century. For further historical reference to Celestius, and his master Pelagius, the reader is referred to Ussher's *Primordia*, p. 205, *et sequent.*, and O'Conor's *Rerum Hibernicarum Scriptores, Prolegomena*, p. lxxxiii.

There are also inscriptions still extant to which we may appeal in proof of the early use of letters in Ireland. The following, which is of undoubted antiquity, is a copy of the Roman alphabet, inscribed on a stone at Kilmalkedar, in the west of the county of Kerry. An accurate representation of this inscription is given by Mr. Petrie, in his *Essay on the Ecclesiastical Architecture and Round Towers of Ireland*^x, and is inserted here by permission of the author.



But there is a still older inscription, perhaps the oldest extant, which remains on the monument of Lugnathan, the nephew of St. Patrick, at Inchaguile, in Lough Corrib, county of Galway: of this a fac-simile is also given in Mr. Petrie's work, p. 164, and is here inserted. It contains the following words, in the Roman characters of the fifth century:

^w Moore's History of Ireland, vol. i. p. 208.

^x Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, vol. xx. p. 133.

ΛΙΕ ΛΥΓΝΑΕΔΟΝ ΜΑC C ΛΙΜΕΝΥΕΗ.

“THE STONE OF LUGNAEDON SON OF LIMENUEH.”



The oldest Irish manuscript extant in Ireland is the Book of Armagh, now in the possession of the Rev. Mr. Brownlow. It contains a copy of the Gospels, and some very old Lives of St. Patrick; the characters are clearly a slight modification of the Roman alphabet, with a few Greek characters in the titles of the Gospels.

The Books of Durrow and Kells, in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, said to be coeval with St. Columbkille, and in his handwriting, are in the uncial character common in Europe at the period. The latter is, perhaps, the most magnificent specimen of penmanship and illumination now remaining in the western world.

There is another manuscript of great age preserved in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, called *Liber Hymnorum*, containing several ancient hymns in Latin and Irish, of which work there is another copy in the College of St. Isidore at Rome. This, though evidently not so ancient, nor so exquisitely beautiful, as those

already mentioned, is in the same character, and sufficiently proves that the Irish letters are immediately derived from the Roman alphabet. Ussher, in a letter to Vossius, expressed his opinion that this manuscript was then a thousand years old, but I think he increased its age by a century or two.

The manuscript of the Psalter, preserved in the Cathach, or Caah, a beautiful reliquary, now the property of Sir Richard O'Donnell, is also very probably coeval with St. Columba, if indeed it be not in his handwriting. This most curious box and reliquary has been deposited, by the public spirit and good taste of its owner, in the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy.

A fac-simile of an Irish passage in a manuscript at Cambridge, has been recently published by Charles Purten Cooper, Esq., from which it would appear that the manuscript is probably of the eighth century. The character looks as old as that of any manuscript we have in Ireland, and differs from any of them that I have ever seen, in the form of the letter *p*, which is thus (Ɔ). Pertz, who has read the passage tolerably well, considering that he does not understand a word of the language, ascribes this manuscript to the ninth century.

The next oldest Irish manuscript remaining in Ireland is probably the Book of Leinster, preserved in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin (H. 2. 18.); and next in order of time I would rank *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, in the Library of the Royal Irish Academy, which was transcribed by Maelduire Mac Cuinn na m-bocht, at Clonmacnoise, in the twelfth century. Next may be classed the *Leabhar Breac* of the Mac Egans, the Books of Lecan and Ballymote, and a host of others compiled from more original manuscripts, in the fifteenth century. The characters in these are of a more angular form than those in the more ancient manuscripts^y.

^y Mons. Adolphe Pictet of Geneva, in a letter addressed to the late Edward O'Reilly, dated 24th

June, 1835, seems to incline to the opinion that we had no written documents in Ireland before

Specimens of alphabets from the most important of these ancient manuscripts, forming a series, nearly complete, from the sixth to the seventeenth century, will be found in the annexed plates. They have been drawn, from the original manuscripts, by George Du Noyer, Esq., one of the Fellows of the College of St. Columba.

SECTION 2.—*Of the Writers on Irish Grammar.*

Having now noticed the bardic accounts of the antiquity of letters among the Irish, and the authorities which prove the existence of learning in Ireland before St. Patrick, we shall next give some account of the labours of those who have

the fourth or fifth century, or at least that this is the most remote period to which written documents can be traced. The queries which this learned philologer proposes in this letter are very curious, and should not be omitted here :

“ 1°. La seconde edition de votre dictionnaire a t-elle paru, ou doit elle biéntôt paroître ?

“ 2°. Existe-t-il quelque bon dictionnaire anglais-irlandais ?

“ 3°. A-t-on publié, depuis O’Conor, ou doit-on publier prochainement, quelques textes anciens, soit poetiques, soit historiques, soit philologiques ? Comment l’académie royale d’Irlande n’encourage-t-elle pas la publication des textes anciens des Brehon laws, des poèmes encore existans de Cenfaolad, de Eochoid, de Tanaide, de Maelmuire, etc. du glossaire de Cormac de l’ur-icheapt de Fortchern, etc. ?

“ 4°. N’a-t-on retrouvé aucun fragment de traduction de la Bible en ancien irlandais, dont on puisse fixer la date avec quel-

que certitude ? par ancien irlandais j’entends la langue telle qu’elle existoit anterieurement au dixième siècle et depuis le 4^{ieme} ou 5^{ieme} époque la plus reculée, je crois a laquelle remontent les documens écrits.

“ 5°. Connoissez-vous quelque ouvrage de topographie sur l’Irlande ancienne ou moderne, qui renferme d’une manière exacte et un peu complète les noms de lieux, fleuves, lacs, montagnes, provinces, tribes, etc. avec l’orthographie irlandaise ?

“ Voila, monsieur, bien des questions. Je m’excuse encore de mon indiscretion en prenant la liberté de vous les adresser : l’interet de la science plaidera pour moi. Si vous êtes assez bon pour vouloir bien m’aider de vos lumières j’espere que mes travaux ne seront pas inutiles à la cause trop méconnue des études celtiques, et réveilleront sur le continent un interet nouveau pour les restes vénérables de la littérature du plus ancienne peuple de l’Europe.”

written on Irish grammar. The first work of this kind mentioned by the Irish writers is *Uraicecht na n-Eiges*, or Precepts of the Poets. This treatise is attributed to Forchern, or Ferceirtne, the son of Deaghaidh, from whom the Deagads, or Clanna Deaghaidh, of Munster, are descended. It is said to have been written at Emania, the royal palace of Ulster, in the first century, but was afterwards interpolated and enlarged at Derryloran, in Tyrone, about the year 628, by Cennfaeladh, the son of Ailill. Copies of this work, as remodelled by Cennfaeladh, are preserved in the Books of Lecan and Ballymote, in the Library of the Royal Irish Academy, and a more ancient one, on vellum, in the British Museum, which the Author has recently perused. This work contains rules for poetical compositions, and is rather a prosody than a regular grammar. In a paper manuscript, in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin (H. 1. 15), is a larger work, called *Uraiceacht*, which gives genders and inflections of nouns, and various orthographical and etymological rules; but this work is a compilation of comparatively modern times.

There are several short treatises on Irish grammar, in manuscript, by various writers in the seventeenth century, in the Library of Trinity College, and one, by O'Mulconry, in that of St. Sepulchre's, Dublin; and we learn from the monument of Sir Mathew De Renzi, at Athlone, who died in 1635, that he composed a *grammar, dictionary, and chronicle*, in the Irish tongue^z.

The first Irish book ever printed, with instructions for reading Irish, was John Kearney's "*Alphabeticum et Ratio legendi Hibernicam, et Catechismus in eadem Lingua*, 1571, 8vo." The only known copy of this curious and rare book is preserved in the Bodleian Library, Oxford^a.

^z See Statute of Kilkenny, edited by Mr. Hardiman for the Irish Archæological Society, p.

12, note g.

^a The Catechism is a Translation into Irish of the Catechism

The first printed Irish grammar is that of the Rev. Francis O'Molloy, written in Latin, and entitled "Grammatica Latino-Hibernica, nunc compendiata,—Authore Rev. P. Fr. Francisco O'Molloy, Ord. Min. Strict. Observantiæ, in Collegio S. Isidori S. Theol. Professore Primario, Lectore Jubilato, et Prouinciæ Hiberniæ in Curia Romana Agente Generali. Romæ, Typographia S. Cong. de Propag. Fide 1677." It contains 286 pages, 12mo., and is divided into twenty-five chapters, of which the first nine treat of the letters; the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, of etymology, of which he treats but very slightly; the thirteenth chapter is on the oghams and contractions; and the remaining twelve, of the ancient Irish prosody, into which he enters very copiously.

The next grammar of Irish which issued from the press was written by the celebrated antiquary Lhwyd. It was published in his *Archæologia Britannica*, and prefixed to his Irish-English Dictionary, Oxford, 1707. This work was extracted from O'Molloy's, and from another work on Irish grammar, in manuscript, written by an anonymous author at Louvain, in 1669. It is somewhat more copious than O'Molloy's in the etymology, but is still very imperfect. He omits the defective or irregular verbs altogether, observing that they are very numerous, and that in conjugating them, "the common use and practice of the province, &c., is the only pattern." From the preface to his Dictionary, written in Irish, it appears that this great philologist knew almost nothing of the idioms of the Irish language, for he uses the English collocation in most of his sentences, which gives his Irish composition a strange, if not ridiculous, appearance.

The next Irish grammar that made its appearance after Lhwyd's, was written by Hugh Boy Mac Curtin, a native of

of the Church of England, which Collects from the Book of Common Prayer and
 is followed by some Prayers and
 Common Prayer.

the parish of Kilcorney, near Corofin, in the county of Clare. It is entitled "The Elements of the Irish Language, grammatically explained in English, in fourteen chapters: small 8vo. Lovain, 1728." It was reprinted with his English-Irish Dictionary, at Paris, in 1732. This work is much more copious than its predecessors, particularly in the etymology and syntax, on which the author has every claim to originality. Of the irregular verbs he says, that they are very numerous, and that in the forming thereof, the common use or practice of the kingdom, or the distinct dialects of each province, is the only guide and rule. He omits prosody altogether.

In 1742, Donlevy published, at Paris, his Irish-English Catechism, to which he appended instructions for reading the Irish language, entitled "The Elements of the Irish Language." This treats of orthography only, but it is by far the best treatise on the subject that had till then appeared. At the end, he says: "Such as desire to get more Insight into the *Grammar-Rules* of this *Language*, may have recourse to the *laborious* M. HUGH MAC CURTIN'S *Irish Grammar*. The chief Difficulty of reading, or speaking *Irish*, consists in pronouncing *oh*, *gh*, and some Diphthongs and Triphthongs rightly; but this is easily overcome by Practice, or a little instruction by the Ear; whereby the Pronunciation of the *Language* will become agreeable, there being much Use made of *Vowels*, and little of *Consonants*, in it."

No other Irish Grammar appeared after this till the year 1773, when Vallancey published his, in quarto, with a preface, which tended to call attention to a subject then but little appreciated. Of this work he brought out an improved edition, in octavo, in 1782, with an "Essay on the Celtic language, shewing the importance of the Ibero-Celtic or Irish dialect to students in history, antiquity, and the Greek and Roman classics."

This work is compiled from those already mentioned, and from O'Brien's remarks on the letters throughout his Irish-English Dictionary. The author has treated of the irregular verbs more copiously and satisfactorily than any of his predecessors, and assures the learner that "they are not so numerous or more difficult than those of Latin, French, or English." His syntax, which is briefly dismissed in twelve rules, is much inferior to that of his predecessor Mac Curtin. On the whole, this work shews considerable research, and curious learning; but it is more theoretical than practical, and better adapted to assist the comparative etymologist than the mere Irish student. It is by far the most valuable and correct of Vallancey's writings, and is doubtlessly the joint production of the avowed author and several native Irish scholars^b.

Shortly after Vallancey's, appeared Shaw's *Gælic Grammar*, Edinburgh, 1778; but this is confined to the Erse or *Gælic* of Scotland, and its merits are very questionable^c. In 1801 appeared the first edition of a *Gælic Grammar*, by Alexander Stewart, Minister of the Gospel at Moulin. O

^b The only other production given to the world by Vallancey which shews much ability, is the *Law of Tanistry exemplified by the Pedigree of O'Brien*; but this work was written not by Vallancey, but by the Right Rev. John O'Brien, Roman Catholic Bishop of Cloyne, as appears from a letter in the hand-writing of the Chevalier Thomas O'Gorman, in the possession of Terence O'Brien, Esq., of Glencolumbkille, in the county of Clare. O'Gorman, in referring to a genealogical extract from Vallancey's *Collectanea*, says: "The above genealogy is extracted

from the History of the House of O'Brien, written by the late Doctor John O'Brien, titular Bishop of Cloyne, and published in the year 1774, by Col. Vallancey."

^c The Rev. Mr. Stewart, in the Introduction to the 2nd edition of his *Gælic Grammar*, has the following reference to this work: "I know but one publication professedly of *Gælic Grammar* written by a Scotsman (*Analysis of the Gælic Language*; by William Shaw, A.M.); I have consulted it also, but in this quarter I have no obligations to acknowledge." p. xiii.

this an improved edition was brought out in 1812, which is undoubtedly the ablest work on Gaelic grammar that ever appeared.

In 1808 was published, in Dublin, an Irish Grammar, in octavo, entitled *Υπαρσεετ να Γαεδιλγε*, "A Grammar of the Irish Language," under the fictitious signature of *E. O'C.*, which, in the Prospectus, is given in full as Edmund O'Connell; but the author, as many living witnesses can attest, was William Halliday, Esq., a solicitor in Dublin, who studied Irish as a dead language, and who died before he reached his twenty-fifth year, having produced this grammar in his nineteenth year. He derived much information from the first edition of Stewart's Gaelic Grammar, and from Messrs. Wolfe, O'Connell, and Casey, three Irish scholars, natives of Munster, with the latter of whom he commenced the study of the language in 1805, under the fictitious name of *William O'Hara*. In this work he rejects the modern Irish orthography as corrupt, and strikes out a new mode of classifying the declensions of nouns. His syntax is almost wholly drawn from the works of Mac Curtin and Stewart, particularly the latter, whose arrangement and diction he has closely followed; and indeed he could not have followed a safer model. However, he has pointed out some errors in the first edition of Stewart's Gaelic Grammar, which Stewart himself thankfully acknowledges and corrects in the second edition of his work, published in 1812^d. Halliday gives the ancient Irish prosody, but

^d Stewart writes in the Introduction: "The Irish dialect of the Gaelic is the nearest cognate of the Scottish Gaelic. An intimate acquaintance with its vocabularies and structure, both ancient and modern, would have been of considerable use. This I cannot pretend to have acquired. I have not failed, however, to consult,

and derive some advantage from such Irish philologists as were accessible to me; particularly O'Molloy, O'Brien, Vallancey, and Lhwyd. To these very respectable names, I have to add that of the Rev. Dr. Neilson, author of 'An Introduction to the Irish Language,' Dublin, 1808; and E. O'C., author of a

merely as shortened from O'Molloy, with, here and there, a few remarks of his own. This work, however, considering the early age^e and disadvantages of its author, must be regarded as one of much merit; it bears the stamp of taste, genius, and originality, not at all observable in the works of his predecessors.

In the same year (1808) was published, in Dublin, "An Introduction to the Irish Language," by the Rev. William Neilson, D.D., 8vo. This grammar is the joint production of Dr. Neilson and Mr. Patrick Lynch, a native of the parish of Inch, near Castlewellan, in the county of Down. Mr. Lynch had a good practical knowledge of the dialect of Irish spoken in the east of Ulster, but was a rude scholar. The orthography, however, and grammatical rules, are adapted to this dialect, and not to the general language. The arrangement of the work is excellent, but it is to be regretted that the examples given to illustrate the rules are, for the most part, provincial and barbaric.

In 1808 the Gaelic Society of Dublin published, in their Transactions, "Observations on the Gaelic Language, by R. Mac Elligott." The same writer^f also compiled an Irish

^e Grammar of the Gaelic Language, Dublin, 1808; to the latter of whom I am indebted for some good-humoured strictures, and some flattering compliments, which, however unmerited, it were unhandsome not to acknowledge." p. xiii.

^e Mr. Patrick Lynch, the author of the Life of St. Patrick, has the following note in an advertisement of his works appended to his *Introduction to the Knowledge of the Irish Language*: "N. B. The new translation of the first volume of Keating's

History" [of Ireland], "though originally published in Mr. Lynch's name, was begun and actually completed by the late William Halliday, Esq., whose much lamented death at the premature age of 24, is a cause of heart-felt regret, not only to the Gaelic Society, of which he was an active member, but to the lovers of Irish literature in general."

^f For some account of the literary qualifications of Mr. Mac Elligott, the reader is referred to a pamphlet published in London,

Grammar, which is still extant in manuscript, in the possession of his daughter, Mrs. Ryding, of Limerick, but was never printed. He was a native of the county of Kerry, a region in which they studied classics, "even to a fault," in his time, and was for many years a classical teacher in the city of Limerick, where he created a high taste for classical and polite literature.

The next year (1809) ushered into light "A Practical Grammar of the Irish Language," by the Rev. Paul O'Brien. This is, perhaps, the worst attempt hitherto made to explain the principles of this language. The author was a native of Meath, and a man of some learning; but the visionary character of his mind disqualified him for the important task of writing a grammar of an ancient and neglected language. He does not appear to have had any acquaintance with Irish history or topography, or with any of the correct ancient Irish manuscripts. There are many specimens of his poetry in the native Irish preserved, but they exhibit no merit, except the mere power of stringing together long compound words in jingling rhyme, without poetic genius, or strength of thought. His Irish Grammar is the production of his old age; and the late Mr. James Scurry says, in his Review of Irish Grammars and Dictionaries, published in the fifteenth

in 1844, by his pupil, the Rev. Jonathan Furlong, in reply to certain observations by Dr. D. Griffin, of Limerick, in the life of Gerald Griffin, the celebrated novelist. We learn from O'Flanagan that Mr. Mac Elligott had got some valuable Irish manuscripts in his possession in 1808. In enumerating the collections of Irish manuscripts known to him, O'Flanagan writes: "The Chevalier O'Gorman, now living in the county of Clare, has a rare

collection of annals, and other inestimable monuments. The books of Lecan and Ballymote, and the *Себар бреч*, or 'speckled book,' of Mac Egan are in the archives of the Royal Irish Academy; and there are besides several valuable tracts in private hands throughout the island, of which those in the possession of the learned M'Elligott, of Limerick, are not the least worthy of estimation."—*Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin*, p. 235.

volume of the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, that "it is not to be taken as a fair specimen of the vigour of his intellect, or the extent of his learning."

In 1813 Mr. John O'Connell, of the parish of Tuath na Droman, near Caherciveen, in Kerry, published at Cork an Irish translation of F. Paul Segnary's "True Wisdom," to which he prefixed short "Instructions for reading Irish," which are very correct. This translation is a curious specimen of the dialect of the Irish spoken in Kerry.

In 1815 was published, in Dublin, a small grammatical tract, entitled "*Foroideas Ghnath-Ghaoidheilge na h-Eir-eand*, An Introduction to the Knowledge of the Irish Language as now spoken," by Patrick Lynch, Secretary to the Gælic Society of Dublin. This little work contains some very valuable remarks on the pronunciation and genius of the Irish Language, although it cannot be considered as entitled to the name of a grammar. Mr. Lynch was a native of the county of Limerick; he kept a classical school at Carrick-on-Suir in 1800, and afterwards removed to Dublin, where, for many years, he taught the classical languages, French and Hebrew. He wrote small works on grammar, chronology, astronomy, geography, and history; but the most celebrated of his works is his "Proofs of the Existence of St. Patrick," written chiefly to refute Ledwich's assertions. This work was published in Dublin, in 1810, and contains short "Directions for reading Irish." Mr. Lynch was of the Milesian Irish race (and wrote his name Patruic O'Loingsigh), and not of the Galway tribe of that name.

In 1817 appeared "A Compendious Irish Grammar," by Edward O'Reilly, annexed to his Irish-English Dictionary. This is chiefly compiled from the Rev. Paul O'Brien's Grammar, and partakes of all its faults and defects. His system of making the initials of nouns the foundation of the declensions, in imitation of O'Brien, is quite absurd, as the tables of ter-

minational changes, given in both grammars, sufficiently shew. The author was a man of strong mind, good memory, and studious habits, but had little or no acquaintance with the classical languages, or with any, except English. He learned Irish as a dead language, and had not commenced the study of it till he was more than thirty years of age; but by laudable perseverance, and strong powers of intellect, he acquired a considerable knowledge of the ancient Irish language and history.

In 1820 was published, at Waterford, an Irish translation of John Baptista Manni's "Four Maxims of Christian Philosophy," by Mr. James Scurry, of Knockhouse, in the barony of Iverk, and county of Kilkenny. To this is prefixed "An Introduction to the Irish Language, containing a comprehensive Exemplification of all the alphabetical Sounds, and their corresponding English Sounds, as a further Illustration of them, as far as could be effected by the Substitution of English characters."

This treatise is valuable, as giving the pronunciation which prevails in the diocese of Ossory, with which the writer was most intimately acquainted.

In 1828 Mr. Scurry published, in the fifteenth volume of the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, "Remarks on the Irish Language, with a Review of its Grammars, Glossaries, Vocabularies, and Dictionaries; to which is added a Model of a comprehensive Irish Dictionary." In this paper, p. 55, the author says, "that he had prepared for press a grammar, both theoretical and practical, formed on the genius of the language, the result of many years' consideration of the subject, which he had been deterred from publishing, from the little encouragement works of that nature had met with from the public." Mr. Scurry was a respectable farmer, and though his education was imperfect, he was a man of so vigorous a mind that he acquired an extensive knowledge of philology

and general literature[§]. He died in Dublin in 1828, and his body was buried in the church of Kilpecan, near the village of Mullinavat, in the county Kilkenny, where it lies without a monument to exhibit even his name.

Various other compilations, and abstracts from these grammars, have since been published ; but the limits of this preface would not permit a particular description of them. The largest work of this kind was published in Dublin, in 1841, and compiled for the Synod of Ulster, by S. O'M. Dr. Mason, Librarian of the King's Inns, Dublin, also compiled an Irish Grammar ; but it is to be regretted that he has adopted the system of O'Brien and O'Reilly to a considerable extent. The Rev. Mr. Nangle, of Achill, has also brought out a second edition of Neilson's Irish Grammar, with some judicious corrections. And Mr. Owen Connellan, who was employed for many years in the Royal Irish Academy, to transcribe the Books of Lecan and Ballymote, for the Royal Library, has recently published a small work on Irish Grammar, with examples from Irish MSS., not to be found in any of the works of his predecessors. He also gives the pronunciation which prevails in the northern part of Connaught, which will be found very useful, in preserving for posterity the local peculiarities of the Connacian dialect.

Some works have also been written on the grammar of the Gaelic of Scotland, by Armstrong and Munroe ; but they contain nothing original, the Rev. Alexander Stewart having exhausted the subject, in his very excellent Gaelic Grammar, published in 1812.

[§] The Author of these pages became acquainted with Mr. Scurry in Dublin, in the year 1826, and found that, although he had but slight acquaintance with Latin or Greek, he had still a sound knowledge of philosophi-

cal grammar. He was the first that induced the Author to study the grammatical works of Harris, Ward, Horne Tooke, Pickburne, and Fearn, and the antiquarian productions of Baxter, Davies, and Vallancey.

SECTION 3.—*Testimonies to the Value of the Study of Irish.*

The testimony of such writers as have mentioned the Irish language, in ancient and modern times, may be now adduced, in order to shew the importance and value of the language as a branch of philological study.

Ledwich^h quotes Irenæus (A. D. 167), Latinus Pacatus Drepanus (A. D. 361), and Sidonius Apollinaris (A. D. 472), in proof of his assertion, that the ancients “branded the Irish language with the harshest expressions for its barbarism. But even though it were clear that these writers meant what we now call Irish, we should receive their testimony with some allowances, for the Romans described as barbarous the languages of all nations not civilized by themselves, except the Greeks.

Our own Adamnan, however, who was born in the year 624, and was one of the best Latin writers of his age, acknowledges, in his modest preface to his Life of St. Columba, that his own Latin style was inelegant, and that the Scotie language was to be classed with different other languages of the external nations. His words are :

“Beati nostri Patroni (*Christo* suffragante) vitam descrip-

^h Antiq. p. 325. I have not been able to find any thing of this kind in S. Irenæus. Charles O’Conor of Belanagare, thinks that the original harshness of the Celtic must have been softened down in Ireland by a communication between the Phœnicians and the ancestors of the Scots. “How else,” he asks, “the number of *Phœnician* words discovered in their language? By what other means but a communication with the *Phœnicians* could they improve and harmonize their own unsonorous Celtic? From what other people could they obtain

the number of seventeen letters, so different in their powers, names, and arrangement, from those of the *Greeks* and *Romans*? Evident it is, that without intercourses of this nature on the Continent, and perhaps afterwards in this island, our old inhabitants might be considered (as some have laboured to represent them) the most barbarous, as they were the remotest, in the west of Europe.”—*Origin and Antiquities of the ancient Scots*, prefixed to *Ogygia Vindicated*, p. xxxviii.

turus, fratrum flagitationibus obsecundare volens : imprimis eandem lecturos quosque admonere procurabo ; ut fidem dictis adhibeant compertis ; et res magis quam verba perpendant, quæ (ut æstimo) inculta et vilia esse videntur, meminerintque, Regnum Dei non eloquentiæ exuberantia, sed in fidei florulentia constare : et nec ob aliqua *Scoticæ*, vilis videlicet linguæ, aut humana onomata, aut gentium obscura locorumve vocabula (quæ, ut puto, inter alias exterarum gentium vilescunt linguas) utilium, et non sine divina opitulatione gestarum despiciant rerum pronuntiationemⁱ.”

By this passage we are to understand that Adamnan regarded the Scotie language as one of those which had not received the polish of the classical languages ; and in this light must all the vulgar languages of Europe be viewed, till they were cultivated during the last four or five centuries, and received terms of art from the Latin and Greek.

Tirechan also, in his “ Annotations on the Life of St. Patrick,” in giving a reason for having composed a portion of them in the Scotie language, though he was able to write the Roman language, says the Scotie names of men and places (“ *qualitatem non habentia*”) would not sound well in Latin composition. But the same could be said of the Hebrew, Persian, Arabic, and all the eastern languages ; the proper names of which would not sound well in a Latin sentence, as wanting the necessary terminations, and could not be even pronounced by an ancient Roman, or a modern Italian.

In the seventeenth century, Archbishop Ussher pronounced the Irish to be a language both elegant and copious^j

ⁱ See Ussher’s *Sylloge*, 1st edition, p. 42 ; Parisian edition, p. 29. See also Colgan’s and Pinkerton’s editions of Adamnan’s *Life of St. Columba*.

^j A curious contrast to this account is afforded by the following description of the Irish lan-

guage, ascribed to a prelate of equal dignity in our own time “ The Irish language is a barbarous jargon, in which all the discordant sounds to be heard in the farm-yard are mixed up there is the drawling running of one note into another of the

“Est quidem lingua hæc [*scil.* Hibernica], et elegans cum primis, et opulenta : sed ad rem isto modo excolendam (sicuti reliquas feré Europæ Linguas vernaculas intra hoc sæculum excultas videmus) nondum extitit hactenus qui animum adjiceret^k.”

Stanihurst, the uncle of Archbishop Ussher, a Roman Catholic priest, although he wished the Irish language not to be used in the English Pale, still does not venture to condemn it, as uncouth or barbarous.

“Idem ipse locus à me olim erat tractatus, in Hiberniæ descriptione, quam dictione vernacula edidi : meaq. ibi disputatio dedit sermonem invidis, me laudes Hibernici sermonis minuuisse. Sed in falsa hac criminatione suam produnt malevolentiam, non redarguunt meam. Nec enim ego tum oratione mea suscepi, linguam, cuius essem ignarus et insolens, minus considerate vituperando, adfligere : imò contrà gravissimorum hominum auctoritas fidem mihi iamdudum fecit, eam, verborum granditate, dictionum concinnitate, atq. dicitate quadam acutula redundare ; denique cum Hebraica lingua, communi conglutinationis vinculo.”

Campion, in his *Historie of Ireland*, written in 1571, thus speaks of the Irish language ; cap. iv. Dublin Ed. p. 17 :

“The tongue is sharpe and sententious, offereth great occasion to quicke apothegmes, and proper allusions, wherefore their common Jesters, Bards, and Rymers, are said to delight passingly thōse that conceive the grace and propriety

cock’s crow, the squall of the peacock, the cackle of the goose, the duck’s quack, the hog’s grunt, and no small admixture of the ass’s bray.”—See *Etruria Celtica*, vol. i. p. 48, by Sir William Betham, where that writer gravely comments upon the injustice of this description of the language of the old Irish, not perceiving that the illustrious

archbishop must have uttered it in jest. For though, like Stanihurst, he has of course no wish to see the Irish language revived, still the authority of grave men must have convinced him also that it is not so utterly savage as this description would make it.

^k Ussher’s *Letters*, by Parr. Letf. 193, p. 486.

of the tongue. But the true Irish indeede differeth so much from that they commonly speake, that scarce one among five score can either write, read, or understand it. Therefore it is prescribed among certaine their Poets, and other Students of Antiquitie.”

The celebrated Leibnitz recommends the study of Irish, as usefull in illustrating Celtic antiquities; but he does not give any opinion as to the elegance or inelegance of the language. His words are :

“ Postremo ad perficiendam, vel certe valde promovendam literaturam Celticam, diligentius linguæ Hibernicæ adjungendum esse, ut Lloydus egregie facere cepit. . . . Nam uti alibi jam admonui, quemadmodum Angli fuere colonia Saxonum et Britanni emissio veterum Celtarum Gallorum Cimbrorum; ita Hiberni sunt propago antiquiorum Britannicæ habitatorum Colonis Celticis Cimbricisque nonnullis, et ut sic dicam mediis, anteriorum. Itaque ut ex Anglicis linguæ veterum Saxonum et ex Cambricis veterum Gallorum; ita ex Hibernicis, vetustiorum adhuc Celtarum, Germanorumque, et, ut generaliter dicam, accolarum oceani Britannici cismarinorum antiquitates illustrantur¹.”

It would be tiresome to adduce here the praise of the Irish by the native writers^m; but if the reader is curious to learn the opinion of a profound native scholar, who was acquainted with many other languages, he can turn to Dr. Lynch's *Cambrensis Eversus*, pp. 16 and 159, where he will find a very curious account of the avidity that some persons pos-

¹ Collect. Etymolog., Opp. vi. Dublin, a large quantity of her ancient records, on paper and parchment, then in his Grace's possession, that had been formerly collected and carried off from this country by the Earl of Clarendon, during the time of his government here.—*Swift's Works by Scott*, vol. xviii. p. 224.

^m Dean Swift, *Rabelaius noster*, though fond of ridiculing the Irish people in most of his writings, yet, in a letter to the Duke of Chandos, dated 31st August, 1734, requests that nobleman to restore to Ireland, by presenting to the Library of Trinity College,

sessed, in the writer's time, for studying Irish, and the feeling that existed to discourage such study ; also of the use of the language to preachers and antiquaries.

Towards the close of the last century, Vallancey described the Irish in the following laudatory terms :

“ The Irish language is free from the anomalies, sterility, and heteroclite redundancies, which mark the dialects of barbarous nations ; it is rich and melodious ; it is precise and copious, and affords those elegant conversions, which no other than a thinking and lettered people can use or acquire.”

The Rev. William Shaw, in his *Gælic Dictionary* (London, 1780), calls the Irish language “ the greatest monument of antiquity, perhaps, now in the world. The perfection,” he says, “ to which the Gælic arrived in Ireland in such remote ages is astonishing.” Alluding to the Irish MSS. of Trin. Coll. Dublin, which he calls “ sealed books,” he makes the following observation : “ Whilst I surveyed and examined them, and looked back to the ancient state of this once blessed and lettered island, they produced emotions easier conceived than produced.”

The same writer (*Gælic Gram.*, Edinb. 1778) has the following observations on the state of learning in Ireland :

“ Whilst Roman learning, by the medium of a dialect of the Saxon, now flourished in Scotland, the Gælic and Roman in some degree grew together in Ireland, which, for some centuries, was deemed the greatest school for learning in Europe. There letters and learned men, from all countries, found a secure retreat and asylum. Its happy situation, however, did not perpetuate these blessings. Ireland was invaded by the Danes, and, in a subsequent age, made subject to the kings of England. Though there were English colonies in Ireland, the Gael of that country enjoyed their own laws and customs till the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., when the

ⁿ *Essay on the Gælic Language*, p. 3.

English laws were universally established. Then, for the first time, the Gælic ceased to be spoken by the chiefs of families, and at court; and English schools were erected, with strict injunctions, that the vernacular language should no longer be spoken in these seminaries. This is the reason why the Ibero-Gælic has more MSS. and books than the Caledonian. In Scotland there has been a general destruction of ancient records and books, which Ireland escaped. It enjoyed its own laws and language till a later date, while the Scots-English very early became the language of North Britain^o."

About the same time, the learned Dr. Samuel Johnson expressed the following opinion of the Irish language and literature, in a letter to Charles O'Connor, of Belanagare :

"What the Irish language is in itself, and to what languages it has affinity, are very interesting questions, which every man wishes to see resolved, that has any philological or historical curiosity. Dr. Leland begins his history too late. The ages which deserve an exact inquiry, are those times, *for such times there were*, when Ireland was the school of the West, the quiet habitation of sanctity and literature."

The celebrated Edmund Burke was anxious to preserve a knowledge of the Irish language, for the purpose of proving or illustrating that portion of Irish history which precedes the period of Anglo-Irish official records. In a letter to Valancey, dated 15th August, 1783, he says :

"All the histories of the middle ages, which have been found in other countries, have been printed. The English have, I think, the best histories of that period. I do not see why the Psalter of Cashel should not be printed, as well as Robert of Gloster. If I were to give my opinion to the Society of Antiquaries, I should propose that they should be printed in two columns, one Irish and the other Latin, like

^o Introduction, p. ix.

the Saxon Chronicle, which is a very valuable monument, and, above all things, that the translation should be exact and literal. It was in the hope that some such thing should be done, that I originally prevailed on Sir John Seabright to let me have his MSS., and that I sent them by Dr. Leland to Dublin. You have infinite merit in the taste you have given of them in several of your collections. But these extracts only increase the curiosity and the just demand of the public for some entire pieces. Until something of this kind is done, that ancient period of Irish history, which precedes official records, cannot be said to stand upon any proper authority. A work of this kind, pursued by the University and the Society of Antiquaries, under your inspection, would do honour to the nation."

Mons. Adolphe Pictet, of Geneva, in our own time, has written the following account of the importance of the Irish language in his work, *De l’Affinité des Langues Celtiques avec le Sanscrit* :

“*L’irlandais*, par son extension, sa culture, et l’ancienneté de ses monuments écrits, est de beaucoup le plus important des dialectes gaéliques. Sans entrer ici dans des détails qui nous mèneraient trop loin, je me bornerai à dire que ces monuments sont fort nombreux qu’ils embrassent l’histoire, la philologie, la législation, la poésie, qu’ils datent sûrement pour la plupart du 10^e au 14^e siècle, et que quelques uns remontent très probablement jusqu’aux 7^e et 6^e p.”

But to collect other testimonies of this kind would exceed the limits which must necessarily be imposed on the present publication.

SECTION 4.—*Of the Dialects of Irish.*

A few remarks must now be made on the *dialects* of the Irish language. Keating informs us, from the ancient tradi-

^p *Avant-propos*, pp. viii. ix.

tions of the bards, that Fenius Farsaidh ordered Gaedhal, the son of Eathor, to divide the Gaedhelic language into five dialects, namely, *Béarla Feine*, *Bearla Fileadh*, *Bearla eadarscartha*, *Bearla Teibidhe*, and *Gnath-bhearla*. On this subject, Thaddæus Roddy, of Crossfield, near Fenagh, in the county of Leitrim, wrote as follows, in the year 1700^a:

“ I have several volumes, that none in the world now can peruse, though within twenty years there lived three or four that could read and understand them all, but left none behind absolutely perfect in all them books [*sic*], by reason that they lost the estates they had to uphold their publique teaching, and that the nobility of the Irish line who would encourage and support their posterity, lost all their estates, so that the anti-quaryes posterity were forced to follow husbandry, &c., to get their bread, for want of patrons to support them. *Honos alit artes*. Also the Irish being the most difficult and copious language in the world, having five dialects, viz. the common Irish, the poetic, the law or lawyers’ dialect, the abstractive and separative dialects: each of them five dialects [*sic*] being as copious as any other language, so that a man may be perfect in one, two, three, or four of them dialects [*sic*], and not understand almost a word in the other, contrary to all other languages, so that there are now several in Ireland perfect in two or three of these dialects, but none in all, being useless in these times.”

CConnell Mageoghegan, who translated the Annals of Clonmacnoise in 1627, says that the “ Fenechus, or Brehon law, is none other but the civil law, which the Brehons had to themselves in an obscure and unknown language, which none cou’d understand except those that studied in the open schools they had.”

^a The original (which consists of answers to questions proposed to the writer, evidently by the great antiquary Lhwyd), is in the autograph of Roddy, and is preserved on paper, bound up with a vellum MS. in the Library of Trinity College, H. 2. 16.

Vallancey thinks that there were but two dialects, the *Feini* and *Gnath*, i. e. the Fenian and the common; and that the former was, like the Mandarin language of the Chinese, known only to the learned; and that the science of jurisprudence was committed to this dialect. These five dialects cannot now be distinguished with satisfaction. The Brehon Laws and other tracts are distinctly stated to be written in the *Fenian* dialect; and Keating informs us that there are words from every primitive language in the *Bearla Teibidhe*, from which Vallancey assumes that it is the physician's dialect, because, I suppose, he found that the old medical Irish manuscripts contain words taken from various languages, such Latin, Greek, and Arabic; but none of the medical Irish manuscripts are older than the twelfth century. The poets' dialect was the same in construction as the common language, except that the poets were constantly borrowing words from the *Bearla Feine*, and every other dialect.

The dialects now spoken by the people differ considerably from each other, in words, pronunciation, and idiom, throughout the four provinces. The difference between them is pretty correctly expressed in the following sayings or adages, which are current in most parts of Ireland:

Tá blar gan ceart ag an Mumneac;
 Tá ceart gan blar ag an Ulltaic;
 Ní fuil ceart ná blar ag an Leigheac;
 Tá ceart agus blar ag an t-Connacac.

“The Munsterman has the accent without the propriety;
 The Ulsterman has the propriety without the accent;
 The Leinsterman has neither the propriety nor the accent;
 The Conaughtman has the accent and the propriety.”

* Of this we have a striking specimen in the Inauguration Ode of Brian na Murtha O'Rourke, composed in the reign of Elizabeth, by John O'Mulconry, of Ardboill, in the county of Clare; published by Mr. Hardiman, in his *Irish Minstrelsy*, vol. ii. p. 286.

The antiquity of these national Irish sayings has not been determined; but they must be of considerable age, as they are paraphrased by Lombard, in his work entitled *De Regno Hiberniæ Commentarius*, published in 1632, as follows :

“Tertiò notandum, quod hoc ipsum idioma sit vernaculum totius in primis Hiberniæ, tametsi cum aliquo discrimine, tum quoad dialectum nonnihil variantem inter diversas prouincias, tum quoad artificij obseruationem inter doctos & vulgares. Et Dialecti quidem variatio ita se habere passim æstimatur, vt cum sint quatuor Hiberniæ prouinciæ (de quibus paulò infra) Momonia, Vltonia, Lagenia, Conactia, penes Conactes sit & potestas rectæ pronuntiationis, & phraseos vera proprietatis; penes Momonienses potestas sine proprietate, penes Vltones proprietatis sine potestate, penes Lagenos nec potestas pronuntiationis, nec phraseos proprietatis.”

There is another dialect known to some persons in the counties of Cork, Clare, Limerick, and Kerry, called *Bearlagar na saer*, or tradesman’s jargon, of which Mr. Mac El-

⁵Ledwich, who sees every thing Irish with a jaundiced eye, refers to this passage of Lombard’s, to confirm his assertion, that the Irish was a barbarous dialect, possessing “neither alphabetical sounds, words for ideas, orthography, or syntax.” He might, for the same reason, pronounce the Greek a barbarous jargon, because it not only consisted of four principal dialects, the *Attic*, *Ionic*, *Doric*, and *Æolic*, but each of these dialects varied with the localities; and in one colony of Asia Minor, four different species of the Ionic dialect were observable. Every language, of any antiquity, and spread over a

number of provinces, must have different dialects and local peculiarities. Nothing but literature, and a public communication, can form a standard dialect of a nation; and nothing can possibly prevent the language of a numerous people from splitting into dialects. The older the language is, and the more widely separated the tribes are, the greater will be the difference of the respective dialects. These facts being fairly considered, it will appear that Ledwich’s observations on the different dialects of the Irish, are nothing more than illiterate and impertinent criticisms.

ligott, of Limerick, has given a few words and phrases in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, pp. 11, 12. This appears to be very like the slang of London, for as the latter preserves several Saxon words and phrases, which have become obsolete in the standard dialect of the English, and even in the provincial dialects, so the former preserves many ancient Irish words which have been obsolete in the spoken language throughout the provinces.

But passing over all artificial dialects of poets, and slangs of artisans, we will find that the common living language of the country, like the provincial English in the different shires, divides itself into varieties of dialects, merging into each other by almost imperceptible degrees of approximation, and which it would be next to impossible minutely to describe. Donlevy has the following observation on the dialectic variations and incorrect modes of writing Irish prevalent in his own time (1742):—

“ *Poets*, not the Ancient and skilful, who took Pains to render their Poems sententious and pithy without much Clipping, but the *Modern Makers of Doggrel Rhymes and Ballads*; to save Time and Labour, introduced the Custom of clipping and joining Words together, in order to fit them to the Measure of their Verses: Others, who wrote in *Prose*, have, either in Imitation of the *Poets*, or through Ignorance and Want of Judgment, strangely clipped, and spelled, and huddled them together, as they are pronounced; let the Pronunciation be never so irregular and defective; not reflecting, that a *Poetical Licence*, even when justifiable, is not imitable in *Prose*; or that Writing, as People speak or pronounce, is to maim the *Language*, to destroy the *Etymology*, and confound the *Propriety* and *Orthography*: for, not only the several Provinces of *Ireland*, have a different Way of pronouncing, but also the very Counties, and even some Baronies in one and the same County, do differ in the Pronunciation:

Nay, some Cantons pronounce so odly, that the natural Sound of both the Vowels and Consonants, whereof, *even* according to themselves, the Words consist, is utterly lost in their Mouths. There are too many Instances of these Suppressions and Jumblings: A few will suffice here to shew the Abuse thereof: $\rho\zeta\alpha\eta$, $\rho\zeta\omicron$, $\rho\mu\epsilon$, $\rho\tau\upsilon$, instead of $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\zeta\alpha\eta$, $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\zeta\upsilon\rho$, $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\mu\epsilon$, or $\iota\rho$ $\mu\epsilon$, $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\tau\upsilon$ or $\iota\rho$ $\tau\upsilon$: And all this Mangling and Confusion without so much as an Apostrophe ('), to let the Reader see, that some Thing is left out. Again, $\mu\alpha\alpha$ $\eta\alpha\tau\epsilon\alpha\rho$, $\epsilon\upsilon\iota\omicron$ α $\eta\rho\iota\rho$, instead of $\alpha\eta$ $\alpha\tau\epsilon\alpha\rho$, $\alpha\eta$ $\rho\iota\rho$: The poor *Particle* $\alpha\eta$ is divided in two, and one Half of it is joined to the subsequent Word, for no other Reason but that in the Pronunciation, the (η) comes fast and close upon the following Word, as it frequently happens in all *living Languages*; yet ought not to pervert, or alter the *Orthography*, or Order of Speech in Writing: However, from this Fancy of Writing as People speak, chiefly arise not only the Mangling and Jumbling of Words, but also that puzzling Diversity found in the Writings even of those, who know the *Language* in Question, infinitely better than he, who has the Assurance to make these Remarks. But, either they have not reflected, or rather were resolved to imitate their Neighbours, who curtail and confound the different *Parts of Speech*, with far greater Liberty than the *Irish* do; for instance: I'll, you'll, he'll, &c. cou'dn't, sha'n't, won't, don't, t'other, they're, ne'er, can't, ha'n't, and thousands of that Kind; which, although very fashionable, the judicious *English* Writers look upon as a great *Abuse*, introduced only since the Beginning of *King Charles the Second's* Reign; and endeavour to discredit it both by Word and Example.

“It is no Wonder then, seeing the *English Tongue*, although in the Opinion of all, it be otherwise much improved, is thus maimed and confounded, *even in Prose*, that a *Language* of neither Court, nor City, nor Bar, nor Business, ever

since the Beginning of *King James the First's* Reign, should have suffered vast Alterations and Corruptions; and be now on the Brink of utter Decay, as it really is, to the great Dishonour and shame of the *Natives*, who shall always pass every where for *Irish-Men*: Although *Irish-Men* without *Irish* is an incongruity, and a great Bull. Besides, the *Irish Language* is undeniably a very Ancient *Mother-Language*, and one of the smoothest in *Europe*, no Way abounding with Monosyllables, nor clogged with rugged Consonants, which make a harsh Sound, that grates upon the Ear. And there is still extant a great Number of old valuable *Irish Manuscripts*, both in public and private Hands, which would, if translated and published, give great Light into the Antiquities of the Country, and furnish some able Pen with Materials enough, to write a compleat History of the *Kingdom*: what a Discredit then must it be to the whole *Nation*, to let such a *Language* go to Wrack, and to give no Encouragement, not even the Necessaries of Life, to some of the Few, who still remain, and are capable to rescue those *venerable Monuments of Antiquity* from the profound Obscurity, they are buried in? But, to return to our Subject, so prevailing are Habit and Custom, that even those who are sensible of the Abuse of clipping and blending of Words, do sometimes insensibly slip into it."

The grand difference between the dialects of the present living language, consists in the position of the accent, and in the pronounciation of the grammatical termination $\alpha\acute{o}$ in nouns and verbs, it being pronounced in Conaught and Ulster like $\alpha\alpha$, or $\acute{u}\acute{m}$, in all dissyllables and polysyllables, but varied in Munster, being sometimes pronounced like α , short, sometimes like $\alpha\acute{c}$, and sometimes like $\alpha\acute{\gamma}$. The minor differences consist in pronouncing n like ρ when coming after

^t Christian Doctrine, pp. 504–507, Paris, 1742.

c, ġ and m, in the north and west. The Munster dialect is also remarkably distinguished by the pronunciation of ġ in genitive cases from é, and by throwing the primary accent on the second or third syllable when long. These peculiarities are pointed out in the Orthography and Prosody of the following Grammar with sufficient minuteness.

The other dialects which shot off from the Gælic of Ireland at an early period, are the Erse, or Gælic of the Highlands of Scotland, and the Manx, or primitive language of the Isle of Man.

OF THE ERSE, OR GÆLIC OF SCOTLAND.

The Highland Gælic is essentially the same as the Irish, having branched off from it in the sixth century; but there are peculiarities which strongly distinguish it, though the spoken Irish of the north-east of Ulster bears a close resemblance to it in pronunciation and grammatical inflections. The principal peculiarities of the Erse are the following:

I. *In the Terminations of Words.*

1. The frequent ending of the nominative plural in *an*, as *slatan*, rods; *mnathan*, women; *mullaichean*, summits; *clarsaichean*, harps; *laithean*, days. This is not unlike the old Saxon plural termination in *en*, still retained in a few English words, as *eyen*, *shoen*, *oxen*, *women*^u.

2. In writing the personal terminations *aire*, *oir*, and *aíó*, or *íóe*, always *air*, and *aiche*, or *iche*, as *sealgair*, a huntsman, for *pealgair*; *dorsair*, a doorkeeper, for the Irish *dórróir*, or *dóirreóir*; *coisiche*, a footman, for *coiríóe*^v.

3. In writing the termination *uġadó* of progressive active nouns, always *achadh*, as *smuaineachadh*, for *řmuaimuġadó*; *gradhachadh*, for *ġraduġadó*.

^u See Stewart's Gælic Grammar, 2nd edit., pp. 54-57.

^v Id., p. 46.

4. In writing the passive participle *te* hard, without varying it to τα, έα, τε, έε, as the Irish do. See this discussed more fully at pp. 205, 206.

5. In writing the diminutive termination ογ, always *ag*, as *cuachag*, a little cup, for *cuacóg*. This termination is also observable in the living language, and in the names of places in the north-east of Ulster.

II. In the Beginning of Words.

1. The genitive plural does not suffer eclipsis, as in Irish, for the Scotch Highlanders say *nan cos*, of the feet; *nan ceann*, of the heads; for the Irish, *να γ-κογ*, *να γ-ceann*. But *nam* is used before a labial, as *nam bard*, of the bards; *nam fear*, of the men^w.

2. The possessive pronouns *ar*, our, *bhur*, your, do not cause eclipsis, for they write *ar buachaill*, our boy; *ar Dia*, our God; *bhur cosa*, of your feet; for the Irish, *αρ m-buach-aill*, *αρ n-Θια*, *βαρ γ-κογα*. It should be remarked, however, that the eclipsing letters are often not used in the most ancient Irish manuscripts.

The other peculiarities are less general, and consist in the inflection of the verbs, with a greater use of the auxiliary verb τά, and in the total absence of the *φ* in the future tense of the indicative mood, and in the subjunctive mood; also in the constant use of the negative έα, for the modern Irish *ní*, and the ancient *noća*, and in the strange orthography of some words, as *chaidh*, for *έαιδ*, anciently *έοιδ*, he went; *thuir*, for *ουβαρη*, he said; *ghios*, for *ο' ριογ*, to know, see, or visit; sometimes written *ουγ* in Irish manuscripts; *seann*, for *pean*, old.

OF THE MANX DIALECT.

The Manx is much further removed from the Irish; and it is probable that the Isle of Man had inhabitants from Ire-

^w See Stewart's *Gælic Grammar*, 2nd edit., p. 155.

land long before the emigration of the Scots from Ireland to the coast of Argyle. Its words are principally obscured by being written as they are pronounced, without preserving the radical letters, as in the Irish. It also exhibits extraordinary corruptions, and approximations to the Welsh, of which the following are the most remarkable :

1. The nominative plural ends in *n*, as in the Erse and Welsh.

2. A final vowel is lost, as “ O Hiarn,” for O Θ ηγεαρνα, O Lord! *dooy*s, for $\delta\alpha\mu$ -ρα, to me, &c.

3. *t* is added to progressive active nouns derived from verbs, as *choyrt*, for $\kappa\upsilon\eta$, putting. [This final *t* is also used in some words in Irish, as $\phi\epsilon\iota\phi\eta\tau$, for $\phi\epsilon\iota\phi\eta$.—See p. 200.]

4. *d* is often put for ζ , as *dy bragh*, for $\zeta\theta$ brάε.

5. *t* is often written for *c* or ζ , as *tustey*, for $\tau\upsilon\zeta\eta$, the understanding; *festor*, for $\phi\epsilon\pi\kappa\theta$, the evening, &c.

6. The final *a*, or *e*, of the passive participle is always dropped, as *soillsit*, *foluit*, for $\phi\theta\lambda\eta\zeta\epsilon$, $\phi\theta\lambda\eta\zeta\epsilon$, illumined, concealed.

There are also many peculiarities of idiom, too numerous to be even glanced at here; and some particles of constant occurrence are so strangely, though analogically different from the Irish, that an Irish scholar would find it difficult to understand a Manx book, without studying the language as a distinct dialect^x.

OF THE WELSH.

It may not be out of place here to make a few observations upon the analogies between the Cymric or Welsh and Scotie or Gælic dialects, they being considered by some as

^x The reader is referred to observations on this subject by Richard Mac Elligott, in the Transactions of the Gælic Society of Dublin, where he gives

specimens of this dialect from the Manx Book of Common Prayer, London, 1767, with suggestions for restoring the pure original orthography.

cognate, and by others, as belonging to a totally different family of language. That they are very remotely related is quite evident from the fact, that the Gælic dialects of Ireland and Scotland, which separated from each other about the year of Christ 504, may be said to be still the same language: but that the Irish and Welsh were, at a still more remote period, the same language, will appear to any sober-minded philologist, on comparing the great number of words which are identical, or different only in analogical dialectic peculiarities in both languages, the almost perfect agreement of their mode of forming grammatical inflections, and even of their idioms, which are considered the soul of language. The number of words, not derived from the Latin, or Danes, in which they agree, having been already sufficiently shewn by Lhwyd and others, it will, therefore, be enough to point out here how far they agree in grammatical inflections; for when this agreement is duly considered, it will, no doubt, impress the conviction, that nothing but relationship of people, and identity of dialect, could have caused it, be the period of separation ever so remote.

To a casual observer, the difference between the grammatical inflections of both languages will appear to be very great, because the Welsh have adopted more of the letters of the Roman alphabet, by means of which, and of certain other combinations of their own invention, they write their words, throughout all the grammatical inflections, exactly as they are pronounced, without any regard to the preservation of the radical letters of the word; whereas the Irish, who have not adopted all the Roman letters, always write their words with the initial letters of the roots, and give notice of the grammatical influences, either by prefixing an adventitious consonant, or placing a mark of aspiration over or after the radical consonants. To make this intelligible, let us take a word common to both languages, and place it under a grammatical

influence, in which both agree : thus, *bean*, a woman ; Welsh, *benyn*. Now if we place the possessive pronoun *oo*, thy, Welsh, *dy*, before this word, the radical letter *b* suffers what the Irish call aspiration, and they write *oo bean*. But the Welsh, who do not observe the same orthography, although the change of pronunciation is nearly the same, write *dy venyn*. In this particular both languages, *considered orally*, are the same, the difference existing merely in the system of writing. This being understood, let us next ascertain how far the initial changes by aspiration and eclipsis actually agree in both languages.

In Welsh, the initial consonants of feminine nouns are aspirated (or, as the Welsh grammarians term it, *become light*) after the articles.

In Irish, feminine nouns are always aspirated in the nominative singular after the article, as *an bean*, the woman ; pronounced *an ven*, or *in van*.

In Welsh, after the possessive pronouns *dy*, thy, *ei*, his, aspiration takes place, as *dy venyn*, thy wife ; *ei venyn*, his wife. In Irish, aspiration takes place after *mo*, my ; *do*, thy ; and *a*, his ; as *mo bean*, my wife (pronounced *mo ven*) ; *oo bean*, thy wife ; *a bean*, his wife. It should be also remarked, as a striking point of agreement, that *ei*, in Welsh, and *a*, in Irish, mean *his*, or *her's* ; and that when used to denote *her's*, they do not cause aspiration in either language : as, Welsh, *ei benyn*, her woman ; Irish, *a bean*. This point of agreement is so remarkable, that nothing but actual relationship of people and dialect could have originated it^v.

In Welsh, the initial consonants of adjectives are aspirated, or (as their grammarians phrase it) become light, when their substantives are feminine, as *benyn vaur*, a big woman. In

^v See *Syntax*, Rule xxv. p. 374.

Irish the same takes place in the nominative singular, as *bean mór*; pronounced *ben vore*.

In Welsh, certain prefixed particles cause aspiration, as *rhy vyçan*, very little; *ni çarav*, I do not love. In Irish the same prevails as a general principle of the language, as *ro beag*, very little (*ro veg*); *ní çaraim*, I do not love (*ni çaraim*)^z.

In Welsh, initial consonants are aspirated (made light) after all prepositions, except two. In Irish, many of the principal prepositions cause aspiration^a.

The system of eclipsis and aspiration somewhat differs, the Welsh having more forms; however, the agreement is so close, that nothing but original relationship could have caused it. The following table will shew this agreement.

<i>b</i>	becomes <i>m</i> in Irish and Welsh by eclipsis, and <i>v</i> by aspiration.
<i>c</i>	„ <i>g</i> in Irish, and <i>g</i> and <i>ngh</i> in Welsh, by eclipsis, and <i>ch</i> by aspiration, in both languages.
<i>d</i>	„ <i>n</i> in Irish and Welsh by eclipsis, and by aspiration <i>ð</i> or <i>y</i> in Irish, and <i>dh</i> (pronounced like the Saxon <i>þ</i>) in Welsh.
<i>f</i>	„ <i>v</i> in Irish by eclipsis, but wanting in Welsh.
<i>g</i>	„ <i>ng</i> in Irish and Welsh, by eclipsis, and <i>y</i> by aspiration in Irish; but the true aspirate is wanting in Welsh.
<i>p</i>	„ <i>b</i> in Irish, and <i>b</i> and <i>mh</i> in Welsh by eclipsis, and <i>ph</i> by aspiration in both languages.
<i>t</i>	„ <i>d</i> in Irish, and <i>d</i> and <i>nh</i> in Welsh, by eclipsis, and <i>th</i> in Welsh, and <i>h</i> in Irish, by aspiration.
<i>s</i>	„ <i>t</i> in Irish, by eclipsis, and <i>h</i> by aspiration; but both are wanting in the Welsh ^b .

^z See *Composition*, p. 336, and *Syntax*, Rule xxxix. p. 388.

^b See Prichard's "Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations,"

^a See *Syntax*, Rule xliv. page 392.

pp. 30, 31.

Let us next see the analogy between the two languages in terminational inflections. In these we find an equally close agreement, as will appear from the following instances.

1. The formation of the plural by attenuation, as Welsh, *bard*, a poet; plural, *beird*: Irish, *bápo*; plural, *báipo*. Welsh, *brân*, a crow; plural, *brain*: Irish, *bram*; plural, *bram*. Welsh, *gŵr*, a man; plural, *gŵyr*: Irish, *féar*; plural, *féir*.

2. The formation of the plural by adding a vowel, as Welsh, *pénau*; Irish, *cinnu*, heads^c.

3. The ordinals are formed in Welsh by the addition of *ved*, as *saiŷ*, seven; *seipved*, seventh. The ordinals in Irish are expressed by *mað*, *vadh*, as *feacht*, seven; *feachtmað*, seventh, pronounced *sechtvadh*.

4. The terminations *n* and *g* are diminutive in Welsh, as *dynyn*, a manikin; *oenig*, a lambkin. They have the same import in Irish, as *duinnín*, a little man; *uaineog* (more usually *uainín*), a lambkin; *cuiteóg*, a little fly.

5. As expressive of an agent, the termination *r* is common to both languages, as, Welsh, *morŵr*, a seaman; Irish (*muirféar*, seaman), *muilneoir*, a miller.

6. The termination *og* in Welsh adjectives is generally *é* in Irish, as *Duw trugarog*, a merciful God; Irish, *Ḑia trócaireac*.

7. The termination *vaŵr* is used in Welsh adjectives to denote abounding, and *map*, in Irish, as *guerpvaŵr*, costly; Irish, *líonmap*, abounding; *féonmap*, abounding in wine.

8. The present participle in Welsh ends in *d*; in Irish, the progressive active noun, which stands for the present participle, generally ends in *ó*.

9. In what the Welsh grammarians call the first form of the verb, the third person singular is merely the verbal root,

^c See Chap. II. p. 83.

as *carav*, *ceri*, *câr*, from *caru*, to love. In Irish, the form of the verb in the past tense for the third person singular is the simple root of the verb.

10. In Welsh, the third person plural ends in *ant*, *ent*, *ynt*. In Irish, in *aid*, *id*, *aidar*. In this particular the Welsh is more like the Latin.

11. In Welsh, the first person of the preter tense ends in *is*, or *ais*. In Irish, in *ar* (anciently *ar*), as in the following example of *caru*, to love.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
WELSH.	IRISH.	WELSH.	IRISH.
1. <i>cerais</i> ,	<i>carar</i> .	1. <i>carasom</i> ,	<i>carrom</i> , or <i>caramar</i> .
2. <i>ceraiſt</i> ,	<i>carair</i> .	2. <i>carasoch</i> ,	<i>car rib</i> , or <i>carabair</i> .
3. <i>carodh</i> ,	<i>car</i> .	3. <i>carasant</i> ,	<i>carrae</i> , or <i>caradar</i> .

12. The passive voice is expressed in both languages by endings almost identical; thus :

WELSH.	IRISH.
<i>carier</i> ,	<i>carëar</i> , <i>amatur</i> .
<i>carid</i> ,	<i>carad</i> , <i>amabatur</i> .
<i>carir</i> ,	<i>carfar</i> , or <i>carfaider</i> , <i>amabitur</i> .

The Welsh has a greater variety of distinct terminations to express the persons than the Irish, but the Irish is far more distinct in the future tense, and in having a present and consuetudinal tense in the active voice, which the Welsh wants altogether.

The reader is referred to Dr. Prichard's valuable work, entitled "Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations," for the theory of the personal terminations of verbs, where he shews that the personal endings of the verbs in the Welsh language are abbreviated forms of the personal pronouns.

Whether this agreement of the two languages is owing to identity of race, or to an amalgamation of both nations in the

third and fourth centuries, is a question not easily determined; but the probability is, that it is attributable to both. We are informed by Cormac Mac Cullenan, Bishop of Cashel, and King of Munster, in the ninth century, that Crimhthann Mor Mac Fidhaigh, Monarch of Ireland (of the Munster or Heberian line), subdued the Britons, and established Irish colonies, and erected royal forts, at Glastonbury and in Cornwall, and throughout the country; and that the Irish retained this power for a long time after the arrival of St. Patrick. It is not impossible, therefore, that it was at this period the Irish built the forts which the Welsh call *Ceitir Guidelod*, or forts of the Gaels, or Irish. Mr. Lhuyd says: "There are none of the Irish themselves, that I know of, amongst all the writings they have published about the origin and history of their nation, that maintained they were possessed of England and Wales; and yet whoever takes notice of a great many of the names of rivers and mountains throughout the kingdom, will find no reason to doubt but the Irish must have been the inhabitants, when those names were imposed upon them^d."

It is not true, however, that no Irish writers attribute to their ancestors the conquest of Britain, though I believe the notice of it had not been published in Lhuyd's time. It is stated as follows in Cormac's Glossary, *voce Mogh Eime*:—

"At the time that the sway of the Gaels was great over the Britons, they divided Albion^e between them in holdings, and each knew the habitation of his friends; and the Gaels did not carry on less agriculture on the east side of the sea than at home in Scotica [Scotia], and they erected habita-

^d See *Archæologia Br.*, p. 7.

^e *Albion*.—This was originally the name of all the island of

Great Britain.—See Ussher, *Primordia*, and the Irish translation of Nennius.

tions and regal forts there; *inde dicitur* DINN TRADUI, i. e. the triple-fossed fort of Crimthann Mor Mac Fidhaigh, King of Erin, Alba, and as far as the Iccian sea; *et inde est* Glas-timber na n-Gaedhal [Glastonbury of the Gaels], a large church which is on the brink of the Iccian sea, &c. And it was at the time of this division also, that Dinn Map Le-thain, in British Cornwall, received its name, i. e. Dun mic Leathain, for *Map* in the British is the same as *mac*. And they continued in this power for a long time after the arrival of St. Patrick. It was at this time Coirpre Musc was dwelling in the east [of the Channel], with his family and friends, &c.^f

J. O'D.

It is right to say a few words here respecting certain manuscript authorities frequently referred to, for examples of grammatical forms and inflexions, in the following work.

1. The copy of Keating's History of Ireland, of which very great use has been made, and which is always quoted by its pages, is a manuscript in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin (H. 5. 26). It was purchased in London, for the College, a few years ago, by Dr. Todd, and proves to be the most accurate and valuable copy of Keating's work which is known to the Author. It is in the handwriting of John, son of Torna O'Mulconry, of the Ardechoill family, in the county of Clare, a most excellent Irish scholar, and a contemporary of Keating.

2. The medical manuscript, by John O'Callannan, who was Mac Carthy Reagh's physician, sometimes quoted in the following pages, was the property of the Author, but is now by

^f For the original of this passage, see Battle of Magh Rath, published by the Irish Archaeo-logical Society, note G, pp. 339, 340.

him deposited in the Library of Trinity College (H. 5. 27). It is a mere fragment, chiefly valuable for the age of its author, who translated it from Latin into Irish, at Kilbritton, in the year 1414, when Donnell Reagh Mac Carthy Cairbreach was on his death-bed.

3. The Irish manuscript transcribed in Ulster, in 1679, quoted as authority for the Ulster dialect of that period, and the extracts from the Book of Fermoy, the original of which is not now in Dublin^g, were also the property of the Author, and are deposited in the Library of Trinity College (H. 5. 28). The latter of these manuscripts is in the handwriting of old Mr. Casey, formerly of Myler's Alley, Dublin, and was purchased for the Author by his friend, Myles John O'Reilly, Esq., of the Heath House, in the Queen's County, at the sale of the manuscripts of the late Edward O'Reilly, author of the Irish Dictionary. An account of the transcriber, Mr. Casey, will be found in Whitelaw and Walsh's History of Dublin.

^g The Book of Fermoy was in the possession of the Chevalier O'Gorman, at the close of the last century ; it is not known to

the Author into whose hands it has fallen, or whether it is still in existence.

ANCIENT IRISH ALPHABETS

Nº 1. From the Book of Kells.
(6th Century)

A a b c d e f g
h i l m n o p q
r r s t u x s z

Nº 2. From the Book of Durrow. Autograph of S^t Columba.
(6th Century)

a b c d d e e f g h
i l m n o p q r r s r
t u x r z

Nº 3. From the Autograph Gospels of S^t Moling.
(7th Century)

a b c d d e f g h i l m n o p q
r r t u x s

Nº 4. From the Liber Hymnorum.
(9 or 10th Century.)

a b c d e f g h i k l m n
o p q r s t u x s z

ANCIENT IRISH ALPHABETS

From the Liber Hymnorum. . . 2^d Character.

Α α β c d e f g h i l m n o p
q r u r τ u λ

From the Same. . . 3^d Character.

a b c d e f g h i l m n o p q r
t u x s z

N^o 5. From the Leabhar na h-Fluidhre
(12th Century)

a b c d e f g h i l m n o p
q r r τ r 7

N^o 6. From the Charters in the Book of Kells.
(14th Century)

a b b c d d e f g h i l m n
o p r r τ u

N^o 7. From the Book of Leacan.
(15th Century)

a b c d e f g h i l m n o p
q r s r τ u r a

N^o 8. From the Autograph Annals of y^e Four Masters.
(17th Century)

a b c d e f g h i l m n o p
r s τ u

A GRAMMAR
OF
THE IRISH LANGUAGE.

PART I.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

THE modern Irish Alphabet consists of eighteen letters, arranged in the same order as their corresponding letters in the Roman Alphabet. They are as follows: α , b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, t, u. The various forms of these characters, as found in manuscripts of different ages, have been already shewn in the Introductory Remarks.

Of these letters α , e, i, o, u are vowels, the rest are consonants.

The vowels are divided into broad and small. The broad vowels are α , o, u; the small e, i.

The consonants are either mutes or liquids. The mutes are b, c, d, f, g, m, p, t; the liquids l, n, r, s.

They are also divided into labials, palatals, and linguals, from the organs of speech by which they are chiefly pronounced. The labials are b, p, m, p; the palatals, c, ç, and the linguals o, l, n, r, r, τ. The letter h is not included in any of these divisions.

Philosophical writers on comparative Etymology have divided the consonants of the Celtic dialects generally into surds and sonants, and subdivided them into gutturals, palatines, linguals, dentals, labials, semivowels, and sibilants; but although these distinctions have been found useful in comparative Etymology, it is not necessary to introduce them into a practical grammar. For a curious classification of the consonants of the Celtic dialects see *Prichard's Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations*, p. 129.

The author several years since made a classification of the Irish consonants, according to Dr. Darwin's system of articulate sounds, as explained in his work called the *Temple of Nature*, and drew up orthographical rules according to such a classification, but he has since been induced to reject these rules, in consequence of the novelty of the terms, and to adopt the divisions which are in common use. According to Dr. Darwin's system the Irish consonants would be divided thus: c, p, τ are *mutés*, properly so called, as being perceptible stops of the vocal sound; b, o, ç, *orisonants*, because they are preceded by a slight vocal sound formed in the mouth; m, n, *narisonant semivowels*; f, r, h, *sibilants*; and l, r, *orisonant liquids*. The aspirated consonants would be thus classified: b̄, ō, ç̄, *sonisibilants*; c̄, p̄, r̄, τ̄, *simple sibilants*; and m̄ a *norisonant semivowel*.

Although this classification has not been adopted by any of the subsequent writers on the philosophy of articulate sounds, it is decidedly the most correct.

It should be here remarked, that in ancient Irish MSS. consonants of the same organ, particularly b and p, c and ç, o and τ, are very frequently substituted for each other, and that where the ancients usually wrote p, c, τ, the moderns write b, ç, o.

o for τ, as oap for τap, over, across.

τ for υ, as *cozlaō* for *coolaō*, sleep, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. (H. 3. 18.), p. 42; *éacá* for *éaoacá*, *Cormac's Gloss.*, voce *opc tpeicth*.

b for p, as *beoil* for *peoil*, flesh, *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Moğ éime*.

c for ç, as *caç*, every, for *çacá*; *cloiceno* for *cloigeann*, the skull, *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Moğ éime*.

b̄ for m̄, as *noib̄* for *naoim̄*, saints, *Ibid.*, voce *Noip*; *aám̄* for *aám̄am̄*, alone; *ap̄ na bapacá* for *ap̄ na m̄apacá*, on the morrow, *Vit. Moling*.

m̄ for b̄, as *a lenm̄*, her child, for *a leanb̄*, *Vit. Moling*.

p̄ for b̄, as *map̄pacacá* a céile, for *map̄baio cacá* a céile, *Vit. Moling*; *oóip̄* for *oóib̄*, to them, *Annals of Ulster*.

p for b, as *Alpu* for *Alba*, Scotland, *Cor. Gloss.* (in v. *Coipe brecam*); *Coip̄pp̄i* for *Caip̄bpe*, a man's name, *Ibid.* (in v. *Moğ éime*); *cap̄pac* for *cap̄baō*, a chariot, *Ibid.* (in v. *Op̄c tpeicth*).

Nine of these consonants, namely, b, c, υ, p, ç, m, p̄, r̄, τ, are called *aspirates*, because in certain situations their primary or natural sounds are changed into aspirated sounds, as b, into b̄, i. e. the sound *b* into the sound *v*, &c., as will be presently shewn.

Every consonant, whether in its primary or aspirated state, has a broad or a slender sound, according to the nature of the vowel which it precedes or follows. When it precedes or follows a broad vowel it has always a certain fixed broad sound, and when it precedes or follows a slender vowel it has a fixed small or slender sound, which will presently be described. This influence of the vowels over the consonants, which exists to some extent in every language, has given rise to a general rule or canon of orthography which distinguishes the Irish from all the European languages, namely, that every consonant, or combination of consonants, must always stand between two broad vowels or two slender vowels, as *briurim*, I break; *molaiō*, they praise;

corpōrōa, corporeal; not bṛīrāiṁ, molīṁ, corperōa, or bṛīorīṁ, moleṁ, corporōe.

O'Molloy, in his *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, published at Rome in 1677, explains this great canon of Irish orthography as follows, pp. 50, 51: "Rursus obserua in oculis polysyllabis quibuscumque saltem ordinariè seruari debere regulam Hibernis tritam tùm in scriptura, tùm in sono, quæ dicitur caol le caol, leathan le leathan, latinè *subtilis cum subtili, et larga cum larga*. Hoc est dicere, si posterioris syllabæ prima vocalis fuerit subtilis, similiter prioris seu antecedentis syllabæ ultima vocalis debet esse subtilis; pariformiter si larga, larga; aliàs vitium erit tùm in enunciatione, tùm in orthographia: non tamen requiritur quod utraque vocalis semper; sit eiusdem speciei, vel numeri, tametsi multoties contingat quòd sint, sed sufficit quòd ambæ sint largæ, vel ambæ subtiles. Dixi ordinariè, nam exceptio datur de quibusdam paucissimis, vt ma, map, &c., latinè, *quam in quo, &c.*"

Professor Latham, in his chapter on Euphony, and the permutation and the transition of letters, notices this rule as a remarkable one in the Irish. His words are: "The Irish Gaelic, above most other languages, illustrates a Euphonic principle that modifies the Vowels of a word. The Vowels *a, o, u*, as seen in § 71, are Full, whilst *i, e, y* are Small. Now, if to a syllable containing a Small Vowel, as *bwil*, there be added a syllable containing a Broad one, as *am*, a change takes place. Either the first syllable is accommodated to the second, or the second to the first; so that the Vowels respectively contained in them are either both Full or both Small. Hence arises, in respect to the word quoted, either the form *bwalam*, or else the form *bwiłim*."—*The English Language*, p. 122.

This rule, which has been so scrupulously adhered to by modern Irish writers, has been condemned as cumbrous by Vallancey, Stewart, Haliday, Mac Elligott, and others, and it is certain that it is not always strictly adhered to in the ancient Irish manuscripts; but the principle on which it is founded is observable in the oldest fragments of Irish composition remaining to us, as will appear from the specimens given in the Appendix to this work.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE VOWELS.

SECTION 1.—*Of the Sounds of the Simple Vowels.*

ALL the vowels are sometimes long, and sometimes short or obscure. In the southern half of Ireland they have medial or diphthongal sounds between long and short, which have not been hitherto noticed, or at least, not sufficiently explained by Irish grammarians. These diphthongal sounds, not being strictly analogical, shall not be introduced into the text of this Grammar, with the exception of a few of the most prominent of them, lest they should perplex the learner; but they shall be carefully described in the notes, in order to preserve the Munster pronunciation of the language.

A long vowel is generally marked by an acute accent, thus: *báir*, death; *mín*, smooth. In the absence of this accent, it is understood that the vowel is short, as *baír*, the palm of the hand; *mim*, meal.

In words of two or more syllables the accent is generally on the first syllable, or root of the word, whether it be long or short, as *rlánuig̃ete*, saved; *corp̃or̃õda*, corporeal.—See the Prosody, Chap. I., Sect. 1.

There are no quiescent final vowels in this language, as in the English or French; for although the final *e* in the words *buid̃e*, yellow, *cp̃õid̃e*, a heart, and such

like, as pronounced at present, is nearly quiescent, and looks as if it were merely intended, like the final *e* in English, to render the preceding vowel long, still we know from the oldest specimens of Irish poetry remaining, that the final *e* in such words was distinctly uttered and accounted a syllable.

The obscure sounds of the vowels prevail after the accented syllables, or when they are final in polysyllables, as *mórhoá*, majestic; *tiŕgearna*, a lord.

In this situation the vowels have so transient and indistinct a pronunciation that it is difficult to distinguish one broad or slender vowel from another, and hence in ancient manuscripts we find vowels substituted for each other *ad libitum*, as *plánuigċe*, saved, is written *plánuigċe*, *plánuigċe*, and *plánuigċi*; where it is to be observed that the long accented *á* cannot be changed, but the obscure vowels are changed *ad libitum*, because the ear could not possibly distinguish the sound of one from that of the other. Walker, in his observations on the irregular and unaccented sounds of the English vowels, has a remark somewhat similar to this. "If," he says, "the accent be kept strongly on the first syllable of the word *tolerable*, as it always ought to be, we find scarcely any distinguishable difference to the ear, if we substitute *u* or *o* instead of *a*, in the penultimate syllable; thus, *tolerable*, *toleroble*, and *toleruble*, are exactly the same word to the ear, if pronounced without premeditation or transposing the accent for the real purpose of distinction," &c.

However, in writing *plánuigċe*, and such other words as present many indistinct vowels, a fixed orthography should be preserved, and the form of the word to be adopted should be decided upon by observing the root and proper grammatical inflections or branches springing from it; thus, from the root *plán*, safe, is formed *plán-úgċo*, salvation, and the *u* in this form should be retained in the passive participle *plánuigċe*, and in all other derivatives springing from it, as *plánuigċeoip*, a saviour; *plánuigċeacá*, sanative.

Such as wish to become acquainted with the ancient MSS. should be informed that u before p may be written αυp, ep, or ip, as υπραιγεε, prayers, which may be written αυπραιγεε, επραιγεε, or ιπραιγεε; υποαμ, a scarcity, αυποαμ, εποαμ, ιποαμ.—See the remarks on the diphthong αυ.

According to a principle of the language no number of vowels meeting in a word forms more than one syllable; and therefore when many vowels come together an adventitious ò or ġ is often thrown in between them to make a second syllable, and to serve the same purpose as a hyphen or a diæresis; as δο βεόαβ, to the living, may be written δο βεοόαβ; αερ, the air or sky, may be written αοέρ^a; but in ancient manuscripts these adventitious consonants are seldom, if ever, used, and we sometimes find four or five vowels together without any consonant intervening, as αιεοιp, of the air; αιεύpδα, ταιυιp, melodious^b.

In modern Irish orthography no vowels are doubled in the same syllable, like ee or oo in English; but in the ancient manuscripts all long vowels are found doubled, as vee, gods; λαα, a day; moo, greater, as “σο pάλα λαα nano mupi am oenap, I happened to be one day alone.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 34. “Moo α emeach oloap biè, his bounty is greater than the world.”—*Id.* p. 52. This doubling of the vowels, however, does not in any way affect the pronunciation.

In reading Irish, all consonants, whether primary or aspirated, must be pronounced according to their respective powers, as they shall presently be described, except such as are eclipsed, as pointed out in the table

^a See the copy of Keating's History of Ireland, by John Mac Torna O'Mulconry, in the Li-

brary of Trinity College, Dublin, p. 127, line 36.

^b Book of Fermoy.

of eclipsis, and also the aspirated ρ , which is quiescent in every situation, and the aspirated δ and ζ in the middle of words which are not compounds. It should be also remarked, that the aspirated τ is but very faintly pronounced in the end of words, as $\rho\lambda\alpha\iota\tau$, a chieftain; $\beta\rho\epsilon\iota\tau$, a sentence.

TABLE OF THE SOUNDS OF THE VOWELS.

α .

1. α when *long*, sounds like *a* in the English words *call*, *fall*, as $\lambda\acute{\alpha}\nu$, full; $\acute{\alpha}\rho\theta$, high.

In Meath and Ulster α long is pronounced like *a* in the English words *mar*, *father*, as these words are pronounced by Walker, and this is also the prevailing long sound of this vowel throughout the Highlands of Scotland; but it cannot be considered its true original sound. O'Molloy describes the long sound of this vowel as follows:—"Hanc autem A efferes cum Latinis largè, ore scilicet deducto, flatu valentulo, suspensa modicè lingua, et dentibus inuicem non tangentibus, ut $\alpha\mu\alpha\sigma\acute{\alpha}\nu$, latine *stultus*."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica, Romæ, 1677, p. 8.*

2. α *short*, like *a* in the English word *fat*, as $\alpha\nu\alpha\mu$, a soul; $\zeta\lambda\alpha\rho$, green^c. In the end of a word it is pronounced very obscurely, like *a* in the English word *tolerable*, as $\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\rho\tau\alpha$, crucified or tormented; $\theta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\nu\tau\alpha$, done; $\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho\theta\alpha$, majestic^d.

^c In some of the southern counties α is pronounced in this situation like *a* in the English word *what*, as $\tau\alpha\rho\tau$, thirst; $\zeta\alpha\rho\tau\alpha$, acute.

^d As has been already remarked, when α has this obscure sound, it has been the custom to substi-

tute *o* and *u* for it *ad libitum*, as Ulltu for Ullta , the Ultonians; $\theta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\nu\tau\omicron$ for $\theta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\nu\tau\alpha$, done, but this should not be permitted, as it would prevent the orthography of the language from becoming fixed.

3. $\text{A}\ddot{o}$ and $\text{a}\ddot{z}$, when immediately followed by a broad vowel, or by the consonants l , m , n , p , c , z , are pronounced like the English word *eye*, or the German *ei* in *wein*, as $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, a horn; $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{l}\text{a}\text{c}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, burial; $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{r}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, adoration; $\text{T}\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{z}$, a man's name.

This rule holds good throughout the southern half of Ireland, but it must be varied for the pronunciation of the north and west. In Connaught $\text{a}\ddot{o}$ and $\text{a}\ddot{z}$, when followed by a vowel, have the sound laid down in the text, but when followed by l , m , n , p they are pronounced like a long (1), as $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{r}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, adoration; $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{l}\text{a}\text{c}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, burial; $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{m}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, timber, which words are pronounced as if written $\acute{\text{a}}\text{r}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, $\acute{\text{a}}\text{l}\text{a}\text{c}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, $\acute{\text{a}}\text{m}\text{a}\ddot{o}$. In the north of Ulster $\text{a}\ddot{o}$ and $\text{a}\ddot{z}$, followed by a vowel, or by the consonants c , z , have a strange sound, not unlike $\acute{\text{u}}\acute{\text{e}}\acute{\text{e}}\acute{\text{u}}$ closely and rapidly pronounced; but in the southern counties of Ulster, and in Meath, they are pronounced somewhat like *ay* in the English word *mayor*, as $\text{r}\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, sight; $\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, a horn; $\text{T}\text{a}\ddot{o}\text{z}$, a man's name, which words are pronounced in the north of Ulster nearly as if written $\text{r}\text{a}\text{o}\ddot{i}\text{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, $\text{a}\text{o}\ddot{i}\text{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, $\text{T}\text{a}\text{o}\ddot{i}\text{o}\text{a}\text{z}$; but in the south of Ulster and in Meath, as if written $\text{r}\text{a}\acute{\text{e}}\text{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, $\text{a}\acute{\text{e}}\text{o}\text{a}\text{r}\text{c}$, $\text{T}\text{a}\acute{\text{e}}\text{o}\text{a}\text{z}$. Throughout the Highlands of Scotland this combination is pronounced nearly as in the north of Ulster, and Dr. Stewart says that "the sound has none like it in English." It would be now difficult to strike a medium between those various pronunciations, and point out what was the true original sound of this combination, but it is highly probable that it was originally pronounced $\acute{\text{a}}$ long, as it is in some instances in Connaught at present.

4. $\text{A}\ddot{o}$ in the end of words is pronounced in the south of Ireland like *a* in the English word *general*; as $\text{b}\text{u}\text{a}\text{l}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, striking; $\text{d}\acute{\text{e}}\text{a}\text{n}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, doing; $\text{z}\text{l}\text{a}\text{c}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, receiving; $\text{p}\text{e}\text{a}\text{c}\text{a}\ddot{o}$, sin.

This rule holds good in all monosyllabic words throughout Ireland; but in dissyllables and polysyllables $\text{a}\ddot{o}$, in this situation, is

pronounced like *oo* nasal throughout Connaught and Ulster. This, however, cannot be considered a sound of *o*, but more properly of *am*, which is the dialectic termination of most verbal nouns in Connaught and Ulster. For example, the word *oéanao*, doing, is pronounced in Connaught as if it were written *oioḡnam*; but this should not be considered the pronunciation of the form *oéanao*, which is peculiar to the south of Ireland, but of *oíḡnam*, which is a form of this verbal noun found in very ancient manuscripts. Some Irish grammarians, who had but a local knowledge of the pronunciation of the language, not considering the dialectical variations of words, have given very odd sounds to some of the vowels and consonants, such as that of *oo* to the *o* in question, and that of *í* to *é*, which leads to much confusion and inaccuracy; for it is in reality making a local peculiarity, or barbarism, the standard of a general principle of the language.

The original pronunciation of *o* and *o* was in all probability like *agh* guttural, which is still partially preserved in the mountainous districts of the counties of Londonderry and Tyrone, as in *'reao*, it is; *cpunneao*, a gathering, &c.

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5. *α*, when coming before the consonant *m*, or the double consonants *ll*, *nn*, *ng*, in monosyllabic words, and before *nt*, *nc* in dissyllables, is pronounced in the southern half of Ireland like the German *au*, or nearly like *ow*, in the English word *how*, as *am*, time; *ball*, a member; *pam*, weak; *manḡ*, a bag; *neantog*, nettles; *rtpeancán*, a tune. But in the province of Ulster the *α* has its regular analogical short sound (2) in these situations^c.

6. *α* before *b* is pronounced in the southern half

^c See the Prosody. In some parts of Connaught *α* before *ll*, *m*, and *nn*, has its natural long sound; as *am*, time, pronounced *ám*; *oall*, a blind man, pronounced *oáll*; but this sound is

unknown in Ulster and in the southern half of Ireland, and not general even in Connaught; it must therefore be regarded as a local peculiarity.

of Ireland like *ou* in the English word *ounce*, as *abann*, a river; *ταβαιρτ*, giving; *labairτ*, speaking.

In the County of Kerry *α*, in this situation, has the regular diphthongal sound of *α* (*δ*). But in Ulster it has the sound of *o* long, as *abann*, a river; *gabal*, a fork; *gaba*, a smith; *gabar*, a goat, pronounced in Ulster at present as if written *óbann*, *góbál*, *góba*, *góbár*.

ε.

1. *Ε long* sounds like the Greek *ἦτα*, or like *e* long in the French, and all languages except the English, as *πέ*, time; *ρέ*, six; *μέ*, I.

In English *e long* has evidently lost its original sound, it being now pronounced *ee*, like *i* long in all ancient, and most modern languages; but *e short* still retains its original sound, as in other languages. *E* still keeps its ancient long sound in a few words, as *where*, *there*, *ere*, &c., in which words it exactly corresponds with *e* long in Irish. O'Molloy, in pointing out the primitive character of the pronunciation of the Irish vowels and diphthongs, thus exclaims: "Sistunt ergo Patrum, veterumque vestigijs, nec cum nouatoribus in vicinio mutant religionem Hiberni."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 46.

2. *Ε short* is pronounced like *e* in the English word *met*, as *duine*, a man; *buile*, madness.

In the modern Irish orthography the vowel *e* never appears alone in the body of a word or syllable, but is always accompanied by other vowels; but in the ancient Irish manuscripts it is often written singly, as *fép*, grass; *fer*, a man; *ben*, a woman, for the modern *féar*, *feap*, *bean*; also *ppépe*, of the firmament, for the modern *ppéipe*.—See notes under the diphthongs *ea* and *ei*. In the ancient manuscripts *iu* is frequently used for the final *e* short of the moderns, as "moo ocup airiou olbar cec fer," for the modern "mó agup áiríoe iná gac feap."—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 64. "Α n-sul uair-riu" for "α n-sul uair-pe."—*Id.*, p. 68. "Eriu" for "Eipe."—*Id.*, p. 110.

I.

1. I *long* sounds like *i* long in all the ancient and modern languages, except the English, and like the usual long sound of the English *e*, or *ee*, as laid down by Walker, as *mín*, smooth or fine ; *rí*, a king^d.

2. I *short*, like *i* in the English word *mill*, as *míl*, honey ; *mín*, meal ; *bíle*, an old tree.

Before *ll* and *lp* the short *i* of the other provinces is pronounced like *ei*, very slender, in the south-east of Ireland, but in the south-west like *í* long, as *mílpe*, sweeter ; *míll*, spoil ; *ríll*, return ; *cíll*, a church. Neither of these sounds, however, can be considered analogical, though the former seems of considerable antiquity in the south of Ireland, and was highly prized by the poets for the sonorous jingles which it produced in their rhymes. It is made up of *ě-ēē*, not of *ǎ-ēē*, like the English *i* long.

O.

1. O *long*, like *o* in the English word *more*, as *móip*, great ; *óip*, gold.

Throughout Meath, and the adjoining counties of Ulster, *o long* is pronounced like *a* in *hall*, as *ól*, drink, pronounced *all* ; *o* short exactly corresponds with it, and is pronounced like *o* in the English *lot*, *sot* ; but this must be regarded a great corruption.

2. O *short*, always like *o* in the English words *mother*, *brother*, *other*, as *copp*, a body ; *olc*, evil^e.

^d The general long sound of *i* in English is not that of a simple vowel, but that of a perfect diphthong ; but in some few words it has the pure sound of a simple vowel, as in *machine*, &c.

^e This is the natural short

sound of the vowel *o*, as has been stated by all scientific writers on organic sounds. The general short sound of *o* in English is the natural short sound of *a* long and broad, as in *hall*, *all*, &c.

In monosyllables closed by the consonants *ll*, *m*, *nn*, and in disyllables, when it is followed by *gh*, or *ó*, the vowel *o* is pronounced in the southern half of Ireland like *ou* in the English word *ounce*, as *poll*, a hole; *cpom*, stooped; *lom*, bare; *ronn*, desire; *τοχα*, selection; *ροχα*, choice. These sounds were highly prized by the southern poets for their musical tone, although the inhabitants of the north and west of Ireland considered them unnatural and barbaric. They are well exemplified in the following rhymes:

“Τά τορann τονn α’ βοχραó Hawk εοιρ
Α’r é γαν ím, γαν meαóγ, γαν blάταγ.”

William English.

“Θα áαol a com, a epαóβ-foτε epom
Αγ τεαάτ go bonn léi na ppeαταóβ.”

John Claragh Mac Donnell.

“Θαé an loáa α’r γοpim na o-τονn
Αγ τεαάτ go zolγαé, τοpannaé, epom.”

Brian Merriman.

In Ulster, Connaught, and Meath *o*, in these situations, has its short sound, except before *ó* and *gh*, where it is made long, as *ροχλαm*, learning.

It may be remarked here, once for all, that the principal difference between the Munster and the other dialects of the Irish language consists in the diphthongal sounds of the vowels here pointed out. The Ulster and Connaught pronunciation is generally, and particularly in this instance, more analogical and correct, but the Munster dialect is more sonorous and musical. The natives of the different provinces, however, are much divided in their opinions of the different modes of pronunciation, each claiming his own to be the most mellifluous and the purest.—See *Preface*.

U.

1. *U long*, like *u* in *rule*^f, as *úp*, fresh; *cúl*, the back.

^f The usual sound of *u* in English is not that of a simple vowel, as it begins with the consonantal sound of *y*.

2. U *short*, like *u* in *full, bull*, as $u\acute{c}\tau$, the breast; $u\eta\eta\alpha$, a prop.

This is the natural short sound of *u*, and it will be necessary for the English scholar to remember here that the general short sound of *u* in English, as heard in *tub, current*, is really that of *o* short. In the ancient Irish manuscripts au is often written for the simple *u* of the moderns, as $au\eta\eta\alpha$ for $u\eta\eta\alpha$, a jamb or prop; $au\acute{o}\acute{a}\acute{c}\tau$ for $\acute{u}\acute{o}\acute{a}\acute{c}\tau$, a will or testament; $au\eta\eta\alpha m$ for $u\eta\eta\alpha m$, a portico.

SECTION 2.—*Of the Sounds of the Diphthongs.*

There are thirteen diphthongs in the modern Irish language, ae , ai , ao ; ea , $e\acute{i}$, eo , eu ; ia , io , iu ; oi ; ua , ui . Of these ae , ao , eu , ia , ua , and most generally, eo are long: the others are sometimes long and sometimes short. Their sounds will be more particularly described in the following Table:

TABLE OF THE SOUNDS OF THE DIPHTHONGS.

ae .

ae is always long, and sounds like *ae* in Latin, as pronounced by the continental nations, and like *ay* in the English word *mayor*, as $ae\eta$, the air, the sky; lae , of a day; ηae , the moon.

This diphthong is very seldom used in modern Irish orthography, and Dr. Stewart, who had no ancient manuscript authorities to refer to, seems to doubt (Grammar, p. 5) that it properly belongs to the Gaelic at all; but he is clearly in error, as it is generally used in the most ancient Irish manuscripts for the modern ao (which see). O'Molloy, in 1677, describes its sound as follows:

“Secunda biuocalis æ effertur sicut à priscis olim Latinis, in *Musæ, sæpè*, et similibus, largius nempè quàm si scriberentur cum *e* simplici, vt *æel*, latinè *calx*.”—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 48, 49.

αι.

1. αι, with the accent on α, sounds like α long and very short, as γαίλ, a shadow; cáin, a tribute.

The sound of this diphthong is varied in the provinces, accordingly as they pronounce the long á broad or slender.

2. αι short, like *a* in *art*, *ai* in *plaid*, or *ai* in the French word *travailler*, as baile, a town; cailleac, a hag.

This is the ancient and most analogical sound of this diphthong when short, and it now prevails throughout the southern half of Ireland; yet in Ulster it is invariably pronounced like *e* short, as αιleach, the name of a place; αιλινε, a dream, pronounced *ëllagh*, *eshling*. The Rev. Paul O'Brien, who was a native of Meath, and had no general knowledge of the provincial variations of pronunciation, marks αι short as pronounced like *i* in the English word *king*, as αιγγελ, an angel; and it is true that it has this sound in some parts of Meath, but it should be regarded as a very corrupt sound of this diphthong, which is confined to a narrow district. Throughout Leath Mhogha, or the southern half of Ireland, this diphthong, when it comes before *ll*, *m*, *nn*, *ó*, *ḡ*, is pronounced *ǎēē*, but somewhat broader than the English *i* long, as αιλλ, a cliff; αιμμμ, time; γαιóm, a knot; μαḡεωεα, a virgin; ταιóβε, pride, ostentation; γαιóβεα, wealth. The Munster poets of the last century delighted in jingles formed by this sound, as

“O ταιóβριḡ mé an γαιóβεα, βα ḡπειóμḡε le féacám.”

Donnell Mac Kexnedy O'Brien.

In Connaught, Ulster, and Meath, this diphthong is short in these situations, except before *ó* and *ḡ*, when it sounds in Connaught as in Munster, but in Ulster and Meath like *ai* in the

English word *main*. It should be also observed here that the word $\rho\alpha\omicron\mu$, a knot, which is properly pronounced *snime* in many parts of Munster, is also pronounced in the south of Leinster, and several parts of Munster also, as if written $\rho\alpha\omicron\mu$.

In the preposition $\alpha\mu$, upon, and a few other words, this diphthong is pronounced like *e* in *err*, but the antiquity of this pronunciation is doubtful, as that preposition, in its simple form, is almost invariably written $\alpha\mu$ or $\rho\alpha\mu$ in ancient manuscripts.

AO.

AO is pronounced in the south of Ireland like *ay* in the English word *mayor*, but in Connaught, somewhat like *uee* in the English word *queen*, as $\mu\alpha\alpha\mu$, a steward; $\delta\alpha\alpha\mu$, dear.

This diphthong is used in all printed Irish books, and is found in manuscripts of some antiquity, say four centuries; but it never appears in the ancient Irish sepulchral inscriptions, nor in the earlier Irish manuscripts, as the Book of Armagh, the Liber Hymnorum, Leabhar na h-Uidhri, the Book of Leinster, &c., but instead of it *ae* or *oe* are always used; for which reason there can be little doubt that it was anciently pronounced as *ae* was among the ancient Latins. It still retains this ancient sound all over the southern half of Ireland. In Connaught it is pronounced somewhat like *ea* in the English word *steal*, but broader, and with something of a diphthongal sound, not unlike *uee* in *queen*. In Ulster and Meath it has a very odd sound, which may be represented by $\check{u}\check{e}\check{e}\check{u}$, closely and rapidly pronounced^s.

This diphthong was evidently introduced into Irish orthography to facilitate the adherence to the rule of *Broad with a Broad*, &c.,

^s O'Molloy described the sound of this diphthong as follows, in 1677, but it is not easy to perceive which of the sounds here laid down he intends: "AO effertur lato mollique sono, ore

videlicet modicè aperto, pugnantè parce halitu cum superiori palato, reliquis omninò immotis, vt AOoh, quod proprium est nomen *vir*i, tametsi idem significet quod Latinè, *ignis*."

because *æ*, the diphthong which the ancients employed in its place, always gave the consonant which followed it a broad sound, and in the increments of words in which it occurred, broad vowels were always added, as *ræp*, *ræpa*, where there would be an evident breach of the rule alluded to. Hence, when this great canon of Irish orthography began to be more strictly adhered to than it had been by the ancients, it was thought proper to change *e* into *o*, and write *paop*, *paopa*, which fulfils the rule.

au.

Au is never used in the modern orthography, although frequently found in ancient manuscripts. Its pronunciation is uncertain; but it is often found in words now written with a *u* short, as *aur̄c̄op* for *ur̄-çur̄*, a shot^h; *aur̄ðam* for *ur̄ðom̄*, a porchⁱ; *laul̄gac̄* for *lul̄gac̄*, or *lol̄ḡeac̄*, a milch cow^j; *aud̄p̄epta* for *ead̄p̄eapt̄*, or *iud̄bapt̄*^k, an offering; *Aulell* *Aulom* for *Olioll* *Olum*^l, a man's name; *Augaine* for *Ugaine*, a man's name^m.—See *u* long.

ea.

1. *Ea* long, exactly like *ea* in the English words *bear*, *swear*, *tear*, *great*, as *ḡeap*, sharp; *p̄eap*, grass.

The sound which *ea* represents in these words is the original and correct sound of that English diphthong, and is still preserved in speaking English by the uneducated classes in Ireland, where it had been introduced before the present affected change of its sound to *ee* took place in England. In the south of Ireland the Irish

^h MS. Trin. College, Dublin, H. 2. 18. fol. 25.

ⁱ Book of Ballymote, fol. 245, a.

^j Cormac's Glossary, *voce* *cl̄i-çap-reo*.

^k MS. Trin. College, Dublin, H. 3. 18. p. 361.

^l Cormac's Glossary, *voce* *Moğ Eime*.

^m *Ibid.* *voce* *Sanb̄*.

diphthong éα long is sometimes very corruptly pronounced *ēē-ǎ*, somewhat, but not exactly like *ea* in the English word *fear*; but this pronunciation, which never prevailed in any part of Connaught, Meath, or Ulster, cannot be considered analogical, nor is it to be approved of; and it is curious that while the natives of Munster use it in common conversation, they always reject it in repeating poems, songs, and prayers.

2. Εα short, like *ea* in the English words *heart*, *hearth*, *hearken*, as *meap*, respect; *veap*, handsome.

Io short is often used for *ea* short by writers of the seventeenth century. In the ancient manuscripts a single *e*, or the character *ƒ*, (which is only an elongated *e*), is always written instead of this diphthong whether short or long, as *meƒ*, or *mƒƒ*, for *méap*, finger; *ƒep*, or *ƒƒƒ*, for *féap*, grass; *meƒ*, or *mƒƒ*, for *meap*, swift; *veƒ*, or *oƒƒ*, for *veap*, handsome; and it is curious that in the counties of Monaghan and Louth, and other parts of Ulster, this diphthong, when short, is pronounced like a single *ě*; thus, the above words are pronounced *měř*, *děs*, not *măř*, *dăs*, as in the other parts of Ireland. Some Irish scholars have thought that the character *ƒ*, which frequently occurs in the Irish manuscripts, is a contraction for *ea*, but it can be proved that it stands for a simple *e*, as it is used to represent the Latin *e* in very ancient manuscript copies of the Gospels.—See some curious observations on this subject by Richard Mac Elligott of Limerick, in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, p. 26. From the present pronunciation of the words in which this character is introduced in the ancient manuscripts, we must conclude that the ancients pronounced the consonant preceding it with a slender sound, and that following it with a broad sound; and hence after the establishment of the great Gaelic orthographical canon of “Broad with a Broad,” &c., an *α* was thrust in between the *e* and the following consonant, to mark its broad sound with more certainty, as *ƒeap*, a man, for *ƒep*; *ceapƒ*, just, for *ceƒƒ*.

Some have thought that it would improve the modern Irish or-

thography to introduce the diphthong eu for ea, when long, as then ea would be always short and eu always long; for example, for *բέα*, grass, to write *բευ*. O'Molloy, in his Irish Catechism, and Duaid Mac Firbis, in his Genealogical Book, have adhered to this distinctionⁿ.

In Munster and south Leinster ea in monosyllables ending in ll, m, nn, and ոց, is pronounced like the German *au* (*ao*), as *բալլ*, treachery; *լեամ*, with me; *ցլեան*, a valley; *բեանց*, slender; but in dissyllables, formed in the course of grammatical inflection from these monosyllables, it is pronounced short, as *բալլամ*, I deceive; *բեանցան*, a pismire; *անցլեանա*, of the valley; except when a consonant follows, as *բալլա*, deceived; *ցլեանա*, valleys; *բեանա*, a press, a support; *բեանոց*, nettles; *բալլա*, promised. These sounds, which the natives of Connaught, Meath, and Ulster abhor, are exemplified in the following rhymes:

“ Ա հ-աւլօրբ բեանց, ա բեօ շրօծ ւեաճար,
Ա արօլ-շրօից շեան, ա յեաօ, ՚ր ա արիցե.”

John Mac Donnell, surnamed Clarach.

“ Ծօ շրից մե, ր բար, մօ չրեան,
Ծա ան շլեր ա ն-արիւ ւեամ,
Իր արօժ մօ արար, ր բաօն մօ նար,
Ծօ շլաօն՝ ր օօ բար մօ մեաճար.”

Andrew Magrath.

It is necessary to remark here, for the information of such learners as wish to become acquainted with the ancient Irish writings, that ea preceding r is often changed to au in old manuscripts, as *արաւա* for *արաւա*, certain; *արաւ* for *արաւ*, a porch, an apartment; and that these words are also found written with a u, as *արաւա*, *արաւ*. Also that the ancients wrote u short for the ea short of the moderns, as “*արաւա աւա արաւա*” for

ⁿ Some Irish grammarians have marked another sound of ea, like *ee* in *mee*, as in *բեան*, do, or make; but this is very corrupt, and confined to lower

Connaught, and obtains in so few words that it should not be considered a sound of ea, but a provincial substitution of *io* for that diphthong.

“μόρηα γαάα μαίρεαα.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 100. “Ἔε-
 ραα ρλαίεραα,” for “ἔεραα ρλαίεραα.”—*Id.* p. 122.

3. *Εά*, with the accent on α, sounds like *a* in the English word *father*, as *ἔάρη*, better; *ἔάρη*, short; *ἔάρηός*, the alder tree.

There are very few words in the language in which this sound obtains, and even in these it is not generally adhered to throughout Ulster. It should be also remarked that the α is seldom written in ancient manuscripts, in which *ἔεραα* is written for the modern *ἔάρηα*; *ἔεραός* for *ἔάρηός*, &c.

ει.

1. *Ει* long, like *ei* in *feign*, *reign*, as *λέιμη*, a leap; *céim*, a step.

2. *Ει* short, like *e* in *ferry*, as *βειρη*, bring; *δειρη*, says; *ἔειρη*, tallow.

In Munster and south Leinster *ει*, in monosyllables ending in *ός*, *λλη*, *μη*, *ός*, *νη*, *ός*, and *ός*, and in dissyllables, when it is followed by *ός*, *ός*, or *μή*, is generally pronounced like *i* long and slender in English, or the German *ei*, as *ἔειλλη*, of treachery (gen. of *ἔειλλη*); *ἔειλλη*, a church; *ἔειρημη*, a bit or morsel; *ἔειροςμη*, use; but in Connaught, Meath, and Ulster *ει* in these situations (excepting only before *λλη*) is pronounced long, like *ei* in the English word *reign*. The Munster pronunciation of *ει* in these situations is exemplified in the following rhymes:

“*Choir Máire na mara ní fuil meóir,*
O claoideao ár ḡ-eara a ḡ-ceil.”

John O'Tuama.

In ancient manuscripts a single *e* is often found for the *ει* of the moderns, as *εαρη* na *ḡéne* for *εειρη* na *ḡéne*, the heat of the sun.—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 34. Duaid Mac Firbis, in his genealogical manuscript, and Peter Connell, in his Irish Dictionary, have, in many instances, rejected the diphthong *ει* and written a

single e in its place; and yet Haliday, who professes to restore the pure ancient orthography of the language, and rejects the diphthongs $\alpha\omicron$, $\epsilon\alpha$, $\epsilon\upsilon$, as modern and corrupt, retains $\epsilon\iota$ as a pure ancient diphthong; for which he certainly has the authority of the Book of Lecan and other manuscripts of considerable antiquity.

$\epsilon\omicron$.

1. $\epsilon\omicron$ long, like *oa* in *shoal*, as $\rho\epsilon\omicron\lambda$, a sail; $\epsilon\omicron\lambda$, music; but it must be borne in mind that the consonant preceding this is always slender, so that the e has its use.

In Meath, Louth, and Ulster, this diphthong, when long, is pronounced like *aw* in *shawl*, and when short like *o* in *mock*. This arises from their manner of pronouncing *o* long, i. e. like *a* in *call*.

2. $\epsilon\omicron$ short, like *u* in *just*, as $\upsilon\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}$, a drink; $\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}\alpha\iota\pi$, a key.

As this short sound of $\epsilon\omicron$ is found only in seven or eight words in the whole language, there is no necessity for placing an accent over the o when the diphthong is long, for the learner may consider it as always long. The words in which it is short are the following: $\upsilon\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}$, a drink; $\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}\alpha\iota\pi$, a key; $\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}\alpha\iota\upsilon\delta$, a man's name; $\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}\alpha$, horses; $\nu\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}$, which; $\rho\epsilon\omicron\acute{\sigma}$, a part; and two or three others now obsolete.

$\epsilon\upsilon$.

$\epsilon\upsilon$, always like $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$ long, as $\mu\epsilon\upsilon\pi$, a finger; $\tau\pi\epsilon\upsilon\delta$, a flock.—See Observations on $\epsilon\alpha$.

This diphthong is used by some modern writers for $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$ long, or the simple e long of the ancient manuscripts. Thus Duald Mac Firbis introduces it in the following lines, where the Book of Lecan has a single e:

“Dáti do fuair gac aicme,
 Corantaic cláir Eorape,
 Do gab go h-Ealpa n-eunaig
 Ólao o’á eacra n-uirreulaig.”

Thus in the Book of Lecan, fol. 83, a :

“Dáti do fuair gac aicmi,
 Corantaic clair Eorairi,
 Do gab co h-Ealpa n-enaig,
 Ólao oa eacra n-uirreulaig.”

ia.

ia is always long, like *ea* in the English word *fear*, as fuair, crooked, warped; fuail, hospitable.

ia *long* is in a few words pronounced *ēā*, as in mian, desire; fuāam, wild. The word diaḃal, the devil, forms a singular exception to the usual sound of this diphthong, for it is pronounced *oē-owl* in the north and dia in the south of Ireland.

io.

1. io *long*, like i long, but the o renders the consonant which follows it broad, as fíon, wine; líon, flax.

2. io *short*, like *io* in the English word *motion*, as cion, affection; fuiof, knowledge.

In the ancient manuscripts a single i is written for this diphthong, whether long or short, as fuif for fuiof, knowledge; fim for fíon, wine; buiof for biofap, water cresses; ilap for iolap, many; finn for fionn, fair. The o was inserted to render the broad sound of the following consonant certain, and to fulfil the rule of “Broad with a Broad,” &c. Dr. Stewart and Mr. Mac Elligott of Limerick recommend the rejection of this diphthong, and Haliday, in his *Gaelic Grammar*, has actually rejected it, as being modern and corrupt. It is indeed very true that it is not found in the ancient Irish manuscripts; but still I do not think it advisable to reject it

altogether from modern Irish orthography, as the *o* is distinctly heard in many parts of Ireland, as will be observed by attending to the Munster pronunciation of the following words: *ῥιονν*, fair; *μιονν*, an oath; *ιοντόξαο*, turning. The following distich from an elegy by James O'Daly, an Irish poet of Clare, who lived in the last century, will shew that he intended the *o* in the word *ῥιονν*, fair, to be pronounced somewhat like *u* long:

“ῤαιοῖτε ἀν δάιρ το ῥάριυξ βαλτα να *muse*,
 Ἐαῖναιὸ, ρεαρῶα, ράιλτεαῖ, ρεαρῆαιλ ῥιονν.”

Here the poet makes the *o* in *ῥιονν*, form a kind of vowel rhyme with the *u* in the English word *muse*, and this shews that a single *ι* would not have represented its sound to his ears. In the northern half of Ireland also, although the power of the *o* in this diphthong is not so easily observed, still it has fully as much power as the *o* in the English diphthong *io* in the words *notion*, *motion*, *million*. Hence it is evident that although the sound of this diphthong may have been at first correctly represented by a single *ι*, it cannot at present, and, therefore, it cannot with propriety be rejected from the number of modern Irish diphthongs. It should be here remarked, that the general Munster pronunciation of *ιο* short, before the consonants *m*, *nn*, *ll*, is like *iu* long; but that in the counties of Tipperary and Waterford, and parts of Kilkenny, it is often sounded like the diphthong *ea* in these situations.—See Observations on *εα*.

ΙΙ.

1. *Iu* long, like *ew* in *few*, as *ῥιύ*, worth, which is pronounced like the English word *few*, except that the Irish *ρ* is somewhat more slender.

2. *Iu* short, like *oo* in *good*, as *ῥλυῦ*, wet; *τιυξ*, thick; but the number of words in which it has this sound is very small.

ΟΙ.

1. *Oι* long is made up of *o* long and *ι* very short, as *κόιρ*, just; *τόιρ*, pursuit.

2. Oí *short* is made up of o short and í very short, as *τοίλ*, the will.

In most parts of Leath Mhogha, or the southern half of Ireland, the diphthong *οί*, before *λλ*, *μ*, *νν*, *ó*, and *ḡ*, is pronounced like *i* in *mile*, as *coill*, a wood; *poillre*, light; *oiḡre*, an heir; *poiḡíoe*, or *poiḡne*, patience. This sound is exemplified in the following verses of Irish poets, who lived in Munster in the last century :

“D’éiríonn leo go doimín ’r an n-ḡleo,
’S mé a ḡ-coilltib ceo go ceolmar, ceacht-binn.”

Brian Merriman.

“Ḍa ḡnáé mé aḡ riubal ar cúmair na h-abann,
Ar báinriḡ úir ’r a’ oirúct go trom,
Anáice na ḡ-coillteac, a ḡ-coim an t-rléib,
Ḍan máirḡ, ḡan móill, ar poillre an lae.”

Idem.

“Tá poiḡeasa le poillre go doiríeac am éacé-ra.”

Donnell Mac Kennedy O’Brien.

“D’éag an poiḡne doimín ḡan duibe.”

O’Donohoe of Glenflesk^o.

But in the counties of Cork and Kerry, and in the south-west of Clare, it is generally pronounced in these situations like *uee* in the English word *queen*, a pronunciation which is not at all to be approved of.

In Connaught and Ulster this diphthong, coming before *λλ*, *μ*, and *νν*, has its analogical short sound as laid down in the text; but before *ó* and *ḡ*, it is varied, being pronounced in Connaught nearly as in Munster, and in Ulster strangely, somewhat like *ai* in the English word *straight*, as *poiḡíoe*, patience, pronounced *paéḡíoe*. In Ulster *οί* short is exactly pronounced like their *αι* short (see the remarks on *αι*), as *Oíleaé*, the name of a place; *oiíoe*, a tutor^p.

^o In his Elegy on the Chief of Castlelishin.

^p The diphthong *ou* is never found in the modern Irish or-

thography, although the sound which it represents exists in many words as pronounced in the south, as in *poll*, a hole;

3. Οί, with the accent on í, sounds exactly like αοι, or *uee* in the English word *queen*, as αν οίόθε, the night; cóioθε, ever; ροίόθε, a heart; ροίόθε, chipped, polished; but the words in which this sound occurs are very few in number.

Uα.

Uα, always long, like *ōōă*, as ρυαρ, cold; ζυαλ, coal.

The ancients often wrote *uo* and *æ* for the *ua* of the moderns.

Uι.

1. Uι, with the accent on u, like *ú* long and *ι* very short, as cúιλ, a corner; ρúιλ, an eye; τúιλ, desire.

2. Uι, with the accent on í, exactly like οί, or *uee* in *queen*, as buíθε, yellow; ρuíθλε, sounds; ζuíθε, a supplication; but this sound occurs in very few words.

3. Uι *short* is made up of *u* short and *ι* very short, as ρυιλ, blood; τυιλλε, a leaf; buιλε, madness; τυιλε, a flood.

In ancient manuscripts the diphthongs αι, οι, and υι, when short, are interchanged *ad libitum*, as βρειτέαμνιαρ, βρειτέαμνοιρ, βρειτέαμνουιρ, judgments. It should be remarked here that the υι short of Ulster and Connaught is pronounced like *uee* in South Munster, and *eye* in North Munster, as ορυιμ, which is pronounced *drim* in Connaught and Ulster, is pronounced *dreem* in South Munster and *drime* in North Munster, and in a few parishes of the county of Galway, adjoining the county of Clare.

ροğ, a rush, or onset; but it is sometimes found in ancient manuscripts, as “ιρ ανο ιρ μου οο

αιτηνε α ροιλλι οουρα η-αιρσι,” for “ιρ αν ιρ μό,” &c., *Cor. Gloss., voce Sampad.*

SECTION 3.—*Of the Triphthongs.*

There are five triphthongs, viz., αοι, εοι, ιοι, ιυι, and οει, υαι, of which the first αοι is considered modern and corrupt, and οει ancient and now obsolete. They are formed from their corresponding diphthongs by adding ι, which generally takes place in the inflections of nouns. They differ but little in sound from their corresponding diphthongs, the principal difference being that the ι, which closes each triphthong, gives the following consonant a slender sound.

TABLE OF THE SOUNDS OF THE TRIPHTHONGS.

ΑΟΙ.

Αοι, always long, nearly like *uee* in *queen*, as *καοιν*, keen, mild; *μαοιν*, wealth; *αοιβνεαυ*, happiness.

Haliday, in his *Gælic Grammar*, and O'Flanagan, in his edition of the *Tale of Deirdre*, have rejected the triphthong αοι as modern and corrupt; and it is true, that before the fourteenth century the Irish writers very generally wrote αι, οι, or οει in its place; but though the diphthong αι or οι, with the accent on ι, may have anciently represented the sound,—as indeed it would at present in Munster, South Leinster, and Connaught,—it would not convey the complicated and very strange sound which this triphthong represents in Ulster and in the Highlands of Scotland, a sound which may be represented by the English vowels *ũẽũĩ* rapidly and closely pronounced; and for this reason it would not be advisable now to reject this triphthong, which has been used in all the printed Irish books, and all the Irish manuscripts of the last three centuries. He who wishes to become acquainted with the ancient manuscripts must bear in mind that he will never meet this triphthong in them

but instead of it, as above remarked, generally αι, and sometimes οι and οει.

EOI.

EOI, always long, like the diphthong εό, with this difference, however, that the consonant following eo is broad, and that following eoi slender, as ceol, music; ceoil, of music.

IOI.

IOI, always long, and sounds like ια, excepting that the ι influences the sound of the following consonant, as ὀριαν, Brian, a man's name, gen. ὀριαιον.

IUI.

IUI, always long, as ciuim, silent; the two ι's very short, but strongly influencing the sounds of the consonants.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE CONSONANTS.

SECTION 1.—*Of the radical Sounds of the Consonants.*

THE simple powers of the consonants do not differ much from those of the English consonants, except ο, η, τ, which are much thicker, or more liquid, than the same consonants in English.

In the modern Irish orthography no consonants are written double except *l*, *n*, and *r*; but in the ancient manuscripts all the consonants are doubled *ad libitum*, particularly *r*, as *corra*, feet, for the modern *cora*.

TABLE OF THE SOUNDS OF THE CONSONANTS.

b.

b, broad and slender, is pronounced exactly like the English *b*, as *bárr*, top; *binn*, melodious.

c.

1. *C*, broad, like *c*, in *cool*, as *cúl*, the back.
2. *C*, slender, like *k* in *king*, as *cíall*, sense. The learner should know that the Irish *c* is always pronounced like *k*, never *c* soft, as in English or French.

It is probable that *c* was pronounced *k* also in every situation by the ancient Latins, for the Roman *c* was evidently equivalent to the Greek *κ*, as *Cæsar*, *Cicero*, *Καίσαρ*, *Κικέρω*. O'Molloy's remarks on this subject are curious: "Imò olim apud Latinos litera *c* non solum in locum, sed in sonum literæ *κ* planè, plenèque substituebatur: nec assertione res eget. Quis enim Grammaticorum vnquam aliter tradidit ante hæc tempora? Hoc est, nisi quòd hodie eò inoleuerit vsus, seù potius error; an prauus, ane pertinax, quis non videat? Latini inquam recentiores duplicem ei sonum dant; alterum vt debent; alterum ut volunt. Cum vocalibus namque *a*, *o*, *v*, vt cum diphthongo *Au* naturalem ei relinquunt sonum, pronunciando *corpus*, *caput*, *cubitus*, *cauda*: Verum præposita si fuerit vocalibus *e*, *i*, *y*, et diphthongis *æ*, *œ*, &c., nouum ipsi et antè æuo inauditum dant sonum, quia pronunciant inde syllabam cum pingui et molesto quodam sibilo; quem dixeris à barbarismo fortè deriuatum, sic sequentia, et consimilia sibilantes proferunt, *Cera*, *Cippus*, *Cyrus*, *cæna*, *cænum*; *Iacco*, *iacio*, *Lucia*, *cis*, &c., qualem nunquam litera habuit enunciationem." — *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 13, 14, 15.

O.

1. O, broad, as ούν, a fort; οonn, brown. Before l and n in the middle of words it is quiescent, as οολαο, sleep; céαona, same; but the words in which it is so sunk are very few.

The Irish *d* has never such a hard sound as the English *d*, and although Stewart asserts, that in the Gaelic of Scotland *d* is pronounced nearly like *d* in *done*, this assertion is scarcely credible. There is no sound in the English language exactly like it, for *th* in the word *though*, as pronounced by the English people, is more sibilant than the Irish ο broad.

In ancient writings τ, or ττ, is frequently substituted for ο, as φοτ for φαο, length; Τριονοιττ for Τριονοιο, the Trinity, &c.; ρύττ for ρύο, yon, *Vita Moling*.

2. O, slender, has a very liquid sound, nearly like *d* in *dew*, *duke*, *radiant*, as οίλεαρ, loyal; Οια, God; οείρη, alms.

Stewart says, that *d* slender in the Erse or Gaelic of Scotland, is pronounced like *j* in *June*, *Jew*, and this is the sound which it generally has in Ulster also, but it must be considered a corruption. The proper sound of the slender Irish ο which prevails in Connaught, Munster, and South Leinster, is not so sibilant as *j*, nor so hard as *d* in the English word *dew*, as pronounced by Walker, but an English speaker may form its sound by pronouncing *d* with the tip of the tongue between the teeth.

In the Manx Book of Common Prayer, London, 1767, the words beginning with ο slender in Irish are written with *j*, as “Dy jig dty reeriaght,” i. e. “Thy kingdom come,” for “Do ο-τιγ οο ρίριαατ.” “Dt’ aigney dy row jeant,” “Thy will be done,” for “O’ aigneao οο ροιβ οέατ.” And the same corrupt orthography will be found in some Roman Catholic Catechisms published in Irish, in English characters, in the north of Ireland.

F.

Ƒ, broad and slender, sounds exactly like *f* in English, as Ƒeap, a man ; Ƒíop, true.

In the south of Ireland this consonant is prefixed to many words which, in the north and west, begin with vowels, as Ƒíolap, an eagle, for íolap ; Ƒuirpeog, a lark, for uirpeog ; Ƒuinnpeog, the ash tree, for uinnpeog, or uinpeann ; Ƒan, stay, for an, and many others. Both forms are found in ancient manuscripts, but it is better to prefix the Ƒ, as it often renders the word stronger and more distinct.

G.

1. G, broad, like *g* in *gall*, as Gáll, a foreigner ; Gopca, famine.

In the ancient Irish manuscripts g is very often commuted with c, and sometimes written cc, as Tacc, or Tacc, a man's name, for Tacg ; ecla, or eccla, for eagla, fear ; pucc for pug, he brought, *Vit. Moling*. O'Molloy's remarks on this letter are curious, and worth inserting here : "G, suæ relicta naturæ, vt jam dixi, non solùm apud Hibernos, verum etiam apud Germanos, atque Latinos, præsertim priscos, vi et sono, à consona c parum abit. Vnde Terentius ille Scaurus ait, c cognationem cum g habet : et ideò alij *Camelum*, alij *Gamelum*, item alij *Caunacem*, alij dicunt *Gaunacem* : item Veteres pro *agna*, *acna* ; pro *lege*, *lece* ; pro *agro*, *acro* ; pro *Gabino*, *Cabino*, non rarò vtuntur. Verum sonus literæ g videtur paulò diffusior, molliorque quam efferes, appulsa ad palatum lingua, modicello interuallo, lenem emittens spiritum, vt gape, latinè *risus*."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 21, 22.

2. G, slender, always hard, like *g* in *give*, as Géap, sharp. This consonant is never soft, like *g* in the English word *general*.

h.

h never appears as an independent radical letter, but is used only in the inflections of words, or thrown in between vowels, like the Greek digamma, to prevent a hiatus, as $\alpha\eta$ h-óige, of youth; α h-Éipinn, out of Ireland.

As no word in Irish begins, in its radical form, with this consonant, it has been much disputed among Irish grammarians, whether it is a letter of the language or not; and the latest writers on the subject of philosophical or general grammar have stated that “the letter *h* is no articulate sound, but only a breathing.”—See *The English Language, by Professor Latham*, p. 104. O’Molloy bestows a whole chapter on the nature and influences of this character; he says, “*h*, siuè litera sit dicenda, siuè flatus, aut aspirationis nota, sæpius ea vtuntur Hiberni, quàm alia ex consonantibus vlla: adeòque propter multiplices eiusdem affectiones, integrum hoc meretur capitulum.”—*Grammatica Hib.-Lat.*, pp. 23, 24. He then goes on to shew the influences which it has over the other consonants in aspirating them, which he does with great ability and accuracy. But it is of very little consequence, in a practical grammar, whether *h* be called a letter or not, so as we know its exact power and influences.

In the ancient Irish manuscripts *h* is sometimes prefixed to words beginning with vowels where it has no apparent grammatical use, just in the same manner as the lower classes in England prefix *h* in “the *h*-eagle flies *h*-over the *h*-oaks;” but this is never found in modern manuscripts or printed books. In the Book of Kells, *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, and some of the oldest manuscripts, *h* is sometimes formed thus, h , and placed over the vowel, like the Greek *spiritus asper*, as α $\overset{\text{h}}$ Útu for α h-Útu, with the Ultonians; and (in combination with the contraction z , *est*,) h z, for *h. est*, or *hoc est*.

c.

1. c , broad, has no sound like it in English, but in

some parts of Ireland it is pronounced nearly as hard as the *l* in the English word *steal*, as *lám*, a hand; *ríol*, seed.

2. *l*, slender, sounds somewhat more liquid than the English *ll* in *million*, as *míl*, honey; *gíle*, whiteness.

Haliday, in his *Gælic Grammar*, and in his edition of a part of Keating's *History of Ireland*, classes *l* among the aspirable consonants, and marks it, when aspirated, with two dots, thus, *l̄*. And it is true, that when coming after all those particles which cause other consonants to be aspirated, it has, in some parts of Ireland, a different sound from its primitive one. This, however, is not general throughout Ireland, nor is the sound it receives in these situations such as could with propriety be called an aspirate sound. It will be necessary here to remark that the sounds of the linguals or liquids, *l*, *n*, *r*, vary a good deal throughout the provinces, and stand much in need of a grammatical standard. Throughout the diocese of Ossory, and in most parts of the counties of Tipperary and Waterford, the sounds of these consonants are regulated by the characteristic vowels, and are under no other influences whatever; but in West Munster, Connaught, North Leinster, and Ulster, their sounds, in the beginning of words, are not so much regulated by the characteristic vowels as by the particles which precede them. The sound of *l̄* is regulated in Ulster as follows: 1. *l̄*, slender, in the beginning of words, in their radical form, has always the liquid sound laid down in the text. 2. If a small vowel precede a single *l̄* it is pronounced small, but hard, as *baile*, a town; *pile*, a poet. 3. *ll̄* double, in the same situation, has the regular liquid sound laid down in the text, as *cailleac*, a hag; *coill*, a wood; *cill*, a church. 4. If a broad vowel precede *l̄* single, it is pronounced like *l̄* preceded by a slender vowel, excepting the almost indistinguishable change caused by the broad vowel, as *eala*, a swan; *meala*, of honey; *řál*, a hedge. This last sound of *l̄* is certainly the same as the hard English sound of the same consonant, for the Ultonians pronounce *řál*, a hedge, exactly as they do the English *fall*. 5. *ll̄* double, in the same situation, has the regular broad

sound laid down in the text, as eallać, cattle. The hard sound which the Ultonians give the single l, is formed by placing the tip of the tongue against the palate, above the root of the upper teeth, as in pronouncing the English *ally*. Their sound of ll is formed by spreading the tongue and extending it so as to cover one-eighth part of the upper teeth. An English speaker may produce this sound by pressing the tip of the tongue between the teeth.

In the ancient manuscripts we find the ll of the moderns sometimes written lo, as Clilo for Clilloll. This, however, is not very general, but it has induced Colgan to Latinize the names which might be so written with a *d*, as Alildus, or Olildus, &c.

3. Ln, broad and slender, like ll.—See n.

m.

M, broad and slender, sounds exactly like *m* in English, as móp, great; mí, a mouth, pronounced exactly as if written *more*, *mee*.

M is never doubled in the printed Irish books, or correct modern manuscripts, except in some very modern Munster manuscripts, as lomm, bare; cpomm, stooped; epomm, heavy. The Munster Irish scholars of the last and present century thought it necessary to double the m as well as the n or l, to give the preceding vowel that diphthongal sound, or medial quantity, which is peculiar to the southern half of Ireland; but in Connaught and Ulster, where the preceding vowel has never this medial quantity, the m is never doubled.

In ancient Irish manuscripts, however, m is frequently found double in the middle and end of words, and sometimes in the beginning, as “amail ip lomm in chpuim, as the worm is bare,” *Cor. Gloss., in voce* Cpuiimzher; “cloiceno lomm, a bare skull,” *Id., in voce* Coipe ðpream.—Ammuig, outside, *Book of Leinster*, fol. 78, b. b. immeaon, in the middle. *Vita Moling.*

N.

1. N, broad, has a thick sound which does not exist in English, as nóp, a custom; bean, a woman. An

English speaker may form this sound by pronouncing *n* with the tip of the tongue first pressed between the teeth, and afterwards rapidly drawn into the mouth. After *l* it is quiescent, as *colna*, of the flesh, pronounced *colla*.

2. *N*, slender, very like *n* in *new*, as pronounced by Walker, but somewhat more liquid, as *neapτ*, strength; *Niall*, a man's name. After *l* it is quiescent, or rather sounds like *l*, as *mulneoip*, a miller, pronounced *mul-leóip*.

In Ulster the sound of *n* varies like that of *l*: that is, a single *n*, in the middle and end of words, is nearly as hard as the English *n* in *not*; and *nn*, slender, has the thick sound referred to in the text. In the diocese of Ossory, and throughout East Munster, *nn* slender sound like *ng*, as *binn*, melodious; *τinn*, sick; *bainne*, milk. Throughout the north of Ireland, *n*, when preceded by *c*, *m*, and sometimes by *p*, is pronounced like *p*, as *cnoc*, a hill; *cno*, a nut; *cnám*, a bone; *na mná*, the women; *pneácta*, snow, which are pronounced as if written *cpoc*, *cpo*, *cpám*, *na mpá*, *ppeácta*. This change has been made to facilitate the pronunciation, as *cn* and *mn* would not easily coalesce. Dr. Stewart remarks that the Latins changed *n* into *r* for the sake of facility of pronunciation, as *canmen*, from *cano*, first pronounced, and afterwards written *carmen*, *genmen*, from the obsolete *γενω*, passed into *germen*. The English have softened similar words which were originally very rough, by sinking the sounds of *k*, *g*, and *m* altogether, as in the words *gnaw*, *gnat*, *knight*, *mnemonics*.

In the south of Ireland the harshness which would be caused by the coalition of these consonants is got rid of by pronouncing them as if a very short vowel intervened, as *cnám*, a bone, pronounced *cánám*, but the first *α* is so short that it is scarcely perceptible.

In the ancient Irish manuscripts we find *n* almost invariably written for the *nn* of the modern Irish orthography, as *τono* for

ceann, a wave; ceo for ceann, a head; gleno for gleann, a glen, or valley. It is now difficult to determine how the ancient Irish pronounced this no, but it may be conjectured, that as they sometimes substituted nn for no, they pronounced them alike. Some manuscripts have even nτ for nn, but no is more general.

3. Nġ. This combination represents a simple sound, which English learners find very difficult to imitate when in the beginning of a word, although its broad and slender sounds are both heard in the English word *longing*; the broad sound in *long* and the slender one in *ing*, as ár nġráo, our love; α nġialla, their hostages.

This nġ, which is called by the Irish nġeal, is made one of the elements of the Ogham alphabet, and all the writers on the philosophy of articulate sounds have set it down as a simple sound which should be represented by a single character. Professor Latham speaks of it as follows: "The sound of the *ng* in *sing*, *king*, *throng*, when at the end of a word, or of *singer*, *ringing*, &c. &c. in the middle of a word, is not the natural sound of the combination *n* and *g*, each letter retaining its natural power and sound, but a simple single sound, which the combination *ng* is a conventional mode of expressing. The simple sound is related, however, to *n* and *g* in a manner that has not yet been determined."—*The English Language*, p. 110.

The true analogical sound of this combination in Irish is described in the text; it prevails at present throughout Munster, Connaught, South Leinster, and North Ulster; but in the counties of Louth, Cavan, Monaghan, and some parts of Meath, it is pronounced in the middle and end of words, like ġ very guttural, as peanġán, a pismire; teanġa, a tongue; ceanġal, a tie; pronounced peġán, teġa, ceġal. This corrupt pronunciation of nġ is strikingly exemplified in the present pronunciation of Cnoc na peanġán, now Knock Abbey, near Louth, and of Cualġne, now Cooley, a celebrated mountainous district situated between Dundalk and Newry.

In Thomond and Kerry the combination *ng* in the middle and end of words is sometimes pronounced as if a short vowel intervened between them, as *long*, a ship, pronounced as if written *lon-g'*. This sound, which is unheard of in East Munster, is something like the pronunciation of *ng* among the Cockneys in such words as *king*, *nothing*, which they pronounce *kin-g'*, *nothin-g'*.

P.

P, whether broad or slender, sounds like the English *p*, as *porc*, a bank; *pian*, pain.

R.

1. R, broad, like *r* in *raw*, as *rát*, a fort; *ruab*, red.

4. R, slender, nearly like the second *r* in *carrion*, but more liquid, as *beir*, bring; *zeir*, tallow; *deir*, says.

As this consonant may be said to be the only one in the language which does not become broad and slender according to the class of vowels which precede or follow it, I shall here, for the use of such readers as wish to obtain a critical knowledge of Irish pronunciation, lay down such rules as will point out when it is broad and when slender.

1. R, in the beginning of radical words, is always broad, whether the characteristic vowel of the word be broad or small, as *ruab*, red; *rí*, a king; *réib*, ready. To this rule a few exceptions may perhaps be found in some parts of Ireland, as *ruam*, ever; *ruin* re, he did; but these are scarcely worth notice, and can hardly be called exceptions, as one is an adverb, and the other comes properly under rule 3.

2. R is always slender in the middle and end of words, when the characteristic vowel is a slender one, as *óir*, of gold; *cóir*, just; *aire*, care; *áir*, state; *cruthairteoir*, creator.

3. R, in the beginning of words after the possessive pronouns

mo, mine ; vo, thine ; α, his ; after the interjections o, α, signs of the vocative case, and in every situation in which the aspirable consonants are aspirated, has always its slender sound in the district extending from Galway Bay to Cork ; but in the other parts of Ireland its sounds are regulated in these cases by the characteristic vowels, as α ρί, his king ; α ρύν, his secret.

4. In the combination ρρ, it has always its broad sound, as ρριαν, a bridle ; ρρεαῖ, a series. In this we see a reason why the Irish find such difficulty in pronouncing the English words *shrill*, *shrub*, *shrine*, which they pronounce as if they were written *srill*, *srub*, *srine* ; for though the Irish have the sound *sh*, it being the slender sound of their ρ, more frequently than the English, still, by a peculiar tendency of the language when ρ is followed by ρ, it is never pronounced slender.—See under S. Obs. 1.

In summing up these sounds of the letter ρ it may not be out of place here to notice a barbaric corruption of its sound which prevails in the counties of Kilkenny and Waterford. After the letters c and o it is pronounced in some words like n, as ορύρ, adultery. This corruption, which the natives of these counties themselves acknowledge to be a vile one, is strikingly exemplified in the local pronunciation of Ceann Criaḃam (Credan Head, a headland forming the east extremity of the county of Waterford), which is pronounced as if written Ceann Criaḃám. These tendencies to local corruption of pronunciation cannot be checked except by grammatical knowledge, and reading, or hearing read, correct language ; and therefore it is difficult to check it among the untaught peasantry of any district. In parts of the county of Westmeath the letter ρ is sometimes changed to l, as Loch Uair, near Mullingar, to Loch Uairl, and Opuim criaḃ, the name of a place near Castlepollard, to Opuim cliaḃ. Such local, or baronial barbarities, however, should not be considered as of any weight in regulating the analogies of the pronunciation of the general language.

S.

1. S, broad, like *s* in *son*, as ρolup, light.
2. S, slender, like the English *sh*, which is in reality

a simple sound that ought not to be represented by two letters, as *ῥιῶḃ*, a mountain; *ῡῥ*, an island.

This consonant also furnishes some exceptions to the general rule, which it is necessary to point out here for the use of such as wish to obtain a critical knowledge of Irish pronunciation.

1. *Ḣ*, when followed by *b*, *m*, *p*, and *ῥ*, has its broad sound, whether the characteristic vowel be broad or slender, as *ῥbeac̃*, a kick; *ῥῡῡῥ*, marrow; *ῥpeal*, a scythe; *ῥῡῡῡῡῡ*, a bridle.

2. *Ḣ*, in the assertive verb *ῡῥ*, and in the demonstrative pronouns *ῥo*, this, and *ῡῡῡ*, that, has sometimes its broad, and sometimes its slender sound. In the verb *ῡῥ*, when followed by a word beginning with a slender vowel, *ῥ* has its slender sound, as *ῡῥ í*, it is she, and a broad sound when that verb is followed by a word beginning with a broad vowel or a consonant, as *ῡῥ olc ῡῡῡ*, that is bad; *ῡῥ mé*, it is I. In the pronouns *ῥo* and *ῡῡῡ* the *ῥ* has, throughout the southern half of Ireland, its broad sound, when they are preceded by words in which the last vowel is broad, as *Ḃḡ ῥeap ῥo*, this man, *Ḃḡ ῥo*, these; and *vice versa*, when the vowel of the preceding word is slender, as *Ḃḡ ḡḡḡḡ ῥo*, this man, *e ῥo*, this person; but in the northern half of Ireland the *ῥ* is always slender in these pronouns. When the *ῥ* is slender in the pronoun *ῥo* some writers spell it *ῥeo*, and when *ῡῡῡ* has the *ῥ* broad, they write it *ῡῡῡ*, or *ῡῡḡḡ*, in order to comply with the great orthographical canon of "Broad with a Broad," &c. There may be found some local exceptions to these rules; but it is the duty of a grammarian to point out all anomalies, and fix a proper standard of pronunciation according to the true analogies of a spoken language. This consonant is never doubled in the modern orthography, but it is frequently doubled in ancient manuscripts, as *ῥῥeap* for *ῥeap*, third, *Cor. Gloss., voce Clithap-ῥeo*; "co ná ῥeῥḡa ḡeῥcḡḡal ḡῡῡ ḡῡῡ ḡῡ ῥeῥḡ ḡ ḡ-ḡḡḡḡḡḡ, so that not one of them escaped, and their death was unknown."—*Cor. Gloss., voce Coῡῡe ḡῥeḡḡḡḡ.*

ῤ.

1. *ῤ*, broad, like *t* in the Italian and Spanish, but

not so sibilant as the English *th* in thought, as τonn, a wave; τopann, noise.

It has been stated by some Irish grammarians that τ broad is pronounced like *th* in the English words *thumb*, *thunder*, but this arose from their ignorance of the correct sound of *th* in the English language. It is well known to those who have studied the nature of the English letters philosophically, that the English *th* is a real aspirate sound; that is, a sound formed by a continued emission of the breath between the upper surface of the tongue and the edge of the upper front teeth, unimpeded by any contact of the organs of speech with each other; whereas the Irish τ, whether broad or slender, is a mute consonant, properly so called, as being formed by a perceptible interruption of the breath, which is produced by striking the tip and edges of the tongue against the inner surface of the upper teeth.

2. Τ, slender, nearly like *t* in the English termination *tude*, as pronounced by Walker, as τίρ, a country; τίρμ, dry; τίρḡ, thick.

In Ulster, in parts of Meath, in the Highlands of Scotland, and in the Isle of Mann, τ slender is pronounced sibilantly, like *t* in the English word *nature*, but this must be considered a great corruption. O'Molloy, in his Grammar, pp. 38, 39, 40, rails at the Italians for pronouncing the slender *t* in Latin like *tz*, *s*, or *z*; but he should have acknowledged that his own Celtic brethren, the Ultonians, the Caledonians, and the Manx, had borrowed a similar sibilant pronunciation of *t* and *d* from their neighbours of the Teutonic race.

SECTION 2.—*Of Aspiration, and its Effects on the Sounds of the Consonants.*

Aspiration, a grammatical accident, the general use of which distinguishes the Irish Gaelic, and other cognate dialects of the Celtic, from all other modern languages,

may be defined as the changing of the radical sounds of the consonants from being stops of the breath to a sibilance, or from a stronger to a weaker sibilance.

This change of the radical sounds of the consonants has been considered the result of barbarity by some modern writers, among whom may be reckoned Pinkerton, the author of the *Inquiry into the History of Scotland*, and Davies, author of the *Celtic Researches*, the latter of whom asserts that men fell into this slovenly mode of pronunciation after they had descended into the vale of savage life; but this assertion is gratuitous, as there is no proof that the Irish or Welsh, who use those aspirations more, perhaps, than any other people, had been at any period more civilized than they are at present. Indeed it is much more probable, as we may infer from the Hebrew and the other Semitic dialects, that the original languages of mankind abounded in strong and deep guttural sounds, and that these have been retained or rejected by the different nations according to their ideas of strength or euphony. Thus the English, or Anglo-Saxon language, originally abounded in strong guttural sounds, as in the words *thought*, *nought*, *fraught*, *night*, but these have been all rejected by the polished English of the two last centuries, while the Scotch still retain them. On the other hand, the nobles and gentry of Germany pronounce the German consonants with a variety of guttural sounds, while the peasantry sink all the gutturals, as being too grand for people of their rank. There is, perhaps, no language in the world whose original words have suffered more change by aspiration and sinking of consonants than the French, and yet this is never referred to by writers as a proof of the barbarity of the French nation, but, on the contrary, as the highest proof of their advancement in civilization.

When these facts are considered, one must feel diffident in pronouncing the existence of guttural sounds in a language to be a sign of the barbarity of the speakers. The English, in whose polished spoken and written language no trace of a guttural sound is now to be found, abhor the rough sound of *gh* in the broad Scotch, but much more the Irish guttural sibilant sounds of *c*,

ó, ġ; although in reality their own *y*, *c*, *ch*, and *g* soft, are equally sibilant, and as much aspirations, as the Irish *ć*, *ó*, *ġ*. The fact is, that men will regard this or that sound as polished or barbarous accordingly as it agrees with or differs from the sounds to which they have been themselves accustomed from infancy. The author has often tried the effect of the guttural Irish consonants on the ears of the lower classes of England and Scotland, and always found them to displease or please according to the analogies of their own languages. The Lowland Scotch admire the sound of *ć* very much, but cannot bear that of *ó* or *ġ* *broad*, but they like the slender sounds of those aspirates, as they are exactly like their own *y*. The English cannot bear either *ć*, *ġ*, or *ó* broad, but have no objection to *ó* or *ġ* slender. The Welsh have no dislike to any of the guttural Irish consonants, although they believe that their own gutturals are much more forcible and grander, but they despise the Irish language for not having the splendid sound of the Welsh *ll*, or *lh*, which, however, sounds truly barbaric in the ears of the English and French.

In some modern Irish, and all Erse printed books, the aspirate *h* is placed after all the consonants indifferently, to mark their aspirated sounds; but this gives the words so long and strange a look (the number of letters being in many instances double the number of the elemental sounds in each word), that many have recommended the rejection of the *h*, and the introduction of new characters in place of the primitive Irish consonants combined with the *h*; and no doubt this would save the eye some pain, and the printer some trouble. In ancient Irish manuscripts, however, the *h* is never written after any consonant except *c*, *p*, *τ*; and in modern publications in the Irish character the aspirated consonants are always distinguished by full dots placed

over them, as *b̄*, *c̄*, *ō*, &c.; and this is now generally considered a better expedient than to invent new characters, or to adopt equivalent consonants from the English, Greek, or other alphabets, as Lhwyd has done.

In the oldest vellum manuscripts a variety of signs of aspiration appear, which, no doubt, had different powers in early ages, although the ignorance or neglect of copyists has so much confused them in latter times, that it is now difficult to discover the original system. Even in the beginning of the fifteenth century, when the Books of Lecan and Ballymote were transcribed, the original system of aspiration was nearly forgotten; but a tolerably correct idea of this original system may be formed from *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, a manuscript which was transcribed at Clonmacnoise in the twelfth century, as also from the ancient charters in the Book of Kells, the Book of Leinster, and other fragments of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In these the aspirate *h* is frequently written after the consonants *c*, *p*, *τ*, but after no others, and frequently also a mark resembling an *h* is placed over them, thus, *ċ*, *p̄*, *ĕ*. Over other consonants a full dot is placed, thus, *n̄*, *ŕ*, *ŕ̄*; and even the liquids *n* and *p* are frequently marked with full dots, thus, *ṅ*, *ṗ*; which would seem to shew that the ancients varied their sounds in certain situations. It is a curious fact, however, that the consonants *b*, *o*, *ɣ*, which are so often aspirated in the modern language, never appear with any mark of aspiration in our ancient manuscripts, nor in any of the sepulchral inscriptions still extant. This might naturally lead to the conclusion, that the *b*, *o*, and *ɣ* always retained their radical sounds in ancient times, but we have now no sufficient data for the full determination of this question.

In the oldest monumental inscription in Ireland, namely, that on the monument of Lughnatan, the nephew of St. Patrick, by his sister Liemania, still preserved on Insi Goill, an island in Lough Corrib, in the county of Galway, no trace of aspiration is observable, but *h* is used as a separate consonant. The inscription is,

“*ΛΙΕ ΛΥΓΝΑΕΔΟΝ ΜΑC C ΛΜΕΝΥΕΗ.*”

“THE STONE OF LUGNAEDON, SON OF LEMENUEH.”

But on the earliest tombstones at Clonmacnoise the letters c, p, and t are frequently aspirated, and sometimes m, not by dots or other marks placed over them, but by h written after them, thus :

“*ΟΡΟΙΤ ΔΟ ΤΗΥΑΤΗΑΛ.*”

“A PRAYER FOR TUATHAL.”

“*ΟΡΟΙΤ ΑΡ CΗΥΝΔΛΕC C.*”

“A PRAYER ON CUINDLESS⁹.”

“*ΟΡΟΙΤ ΔΟ CΗΟΛΜΑΗ.*”

“A PRAYER FOR CŌLMAN.”

“*ΟΡΟΙΤ ΔΟ ΜΑΕΛΦΑΤΡΑΙC.*”

“A PRAYER FOR MAELPHATRAIC.”

“*ΟΡΟΙΤ ΔΟ ΜΑΕΛΜΗCΗΙCΗΛ.*”

“A PRAYER FOR MAELMHICHIL.”

But b is never aspirated in any of these inscriptions, as :

“*ΟΡΟΙΤ ΔΟ CΥΙΒΙΝΙΥ ΜΑC ΜΑΙΛΑΕΗΥΜΑΙ.*”

“A PRAYER FOR SUIBINIY, SON OF MAILAEHUMAI.”

The name *Suibiniu* would be now written *Suibne*, and *Mailaehuma*, *Maolúma*. We have in this inscription also an example of the use of h, as a separate consonant, being introduced between *ae* and *u* to prevent a hiatus.

Those who first cut Irish type appear to have retained some idea of a variety of marks of aspiration, for in some of the books published by the Franciscans in the seventeenth century the letter c is aspirated with an apostrophe, *c'*; m with a mark like a v, as *m̄*; and g with a full dot, *ḡ*. In the Grammar published by Hugh Mac Curtin, in 1728, six or seven kinds of marks of aspiration are used, but without any apparent system.

As the radical and aspirated sound of every consonant must be learned by the ear, it is my opinion that nothing is gained, in a

⁹ This Cuindless was abbot of Clonmacnoise, and died, according to the Annals of Tighernach, in the year 724.

modern Irish alphabet, by varying the mark of the aspirations : any sign whatever that will give notice that the consonant has its aspirated, not its radical sound, will answer the purpose, and this can be as conveniently done by a full dot placed over the consonant as by any other sign whatever.

The ancient Greeks gave notice of their aspirations by varying the characters, and the Latins, who have been imitated by the English and other modern nations, by postfixing *h* ; but as the *h* retains no part of its original power, it is more philosophically correct to vary the character, as the Greeks did, or to give notice of the change by some conventional sign, as the Irish sometimes did. The best plan always is, to represent every simple or elemental sound by a single character, and when this element receives a slight change of its radical sound in the course of grammatical inflection, to give notice of this change by a mark on the character which represents the radical sound, rather than invent a new one, in order that the eye of the reader may see at once the root or original frame of the word. To illustrate this by example, let us take the Irish word *púil*, an eye, which, under certain grammatical influences, is pronounced *huil*, but if the aspirated sound of the initial *p* were represented by a new character, say *h*, one would be at a loss to know what original consonant to refer this *h* to^r, in order to ob-

^r O'Molloy illustrates this in the Irish language, by a case of ambiguity in words, for it happens that *ò* and *ḡ* at the beginning of words have the same power, and if a new character were invented to represent this aspirate sound one would be at a loss to know whether to refer it to *ḡ* or *ò*. His words are: "*Ḥ* siuè in principio, siuè in fine dictionis posita, parum quasi vel nihil differt quoad sonum a *òh* de qua iam diximus, vt cùm dico a *ḡhiolla phaoḡhaltaigh, bhaoḡhlaigh*, latinè *famule mundane, periculose*. Istæ enim vocalæ efferuntur tamquam fermè

si loco *ḡh* esset *òh* vtrobique, vel græcula *y* pronunciata ab Anglis, vt suprâ, vt a *yiolla*, vel a *òhiolla phaoohaltaigh*, vel *phao-yaltaigh*, *bhaoohlaioh*, non proindè tamen licebit alterum pro altero poni, alioquin non discerneretur sensus in prosa, vel metro. Si enim scripsero a *yoll*, nescies quid intendatur ; an *òall*, an *ḡall*, in vocatiuo, latinè *caece*, vel *galle*, vt iam suprâ dixi de *ph*. Non oportet ergo cum gallo caecum, nec cum caeco gallum hic confundi, maximè in Scripturis."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 29, 30.

tain the root of the word ; but when the radical consonant *r* is written, and a notice given of its aspirated sound by a dot placed over it, the eye of the reader sees at a glance the primary and influenced form of the word. This system also prevents the great multiplication of letters which is necessary if *h* be in every instance used to give notice of the aspirations ; for example, the word *α* *οεαηδρα̇ι̇ρεα̇α̇*, his brethren (or, as written according to the ancient mode, *α* *οεηδρα̇ε̇ρεα̇α̇*), is, according to the Scotch or Erse system, written thus, *a dhearbhrraithreacha*, where eighteen letters are employed in representing a word of four syllables.

A tendency to aspiration seems to be a conspicuous characteristic of all the dialects of Celtic, and that it belongs to the Irish in particular, will be seen by the forms which some words, borrowed from the English, have assumed in some parts of Ireland, as *campa*, a camp, pronounced in Clare and Kerry as if written *counha* ; *pláig*, the plague, pronounced *plaw* in many places. It is also perceivable in some words, which are pronounced with an aspiration in some districts, but not generally, as *αλτόη*, an altar, pronounced *αλτόηη* ; *οεαα̇α̇*, smoke, pronounced in some places *οεαα̇α̇α̇* ; *γαλτάν*, a lunatic, pronounced *γαλτάνη*. This tendency to aspiration also shews itself in Irish words obviously derived from the Latin, or at least cognate with it, as in the following list :

LATIN.	ANCIENT IRISH.	MODERN IRISH.
Scribo.	Sċri̇b.	Sċri̇ȯḃ.
Dominicus.	Dȯṁnȧċ.	Dȯṁnȧċ.
Baculus.	Dȯȧċu̇ll̇.	Dȯȧċȧll̇.
Figura.	Ḟi̇ġu̇ṙ.	Ḟi̇ȯġu̇ṙ.
Lorica.	Lu̇pėċ.	Lu̇ṙėȧċ.
Clericus.	Cl̇ėpėċ.	Cl̇ėṙėȧċ.
Medium.	Mėȯȯṅ.	Mėȧȯȯṅ.
Lego.	Lėġiṁ.	Lėi̇ġiṁ.
Cathedra.	Cȧtȧȧi̇ṙ.	Cȧtȧȧȯi̇ṙ.
Gre ^x —gre ^{gis} .	Gṙėġ.	Gṙėi̇ġ.
Rex—re ^{gis} .	Ṙi̇ġ.	Ṙi̇ġ.
Sagitta.	Sȧġi̇ċ.	Sȯi̇ġėȧȯ.
Magister.	Mȧġi̇ṙcėṙ.	Mȧi̇ġi̇ṙcėṙ.

LATIN.	ANCIENT IRISH.	MODERN IRISH.
Imago—imagineis.	Imaigín.	Ioimáig.
Remus.	Ram.	Rám.
Similis.	Samíl.	Samuil.
Humilis.	Umal.	Umáll.
Capra.	Ḃabap.	Ḃabap.
Rota.	Rot.	Roé.
Gladius.	Claoim.	Clóiéam.
Cor—cordis.	Cpíoi.	Cpíoié.
Frater.	Ḃpatep.	Ḃpáéap.
Pater.	Áéap.	Áéap.
Mater.	Maéap.	Máéap.

Many of the same words, and others besides, are also aspirated in several of the modern languages of Europe, as the French, *Moyen* from *Medium*; *avoir* from *habere*; *carême* (anciently *caresme*) from *quadragesima*; *evêque* (or *evesque*) from *episcopus*; *noel* (Irish *noelúig*, or *noélúig*), from *natalis*; *père* from *pater*; *mère* from *mater*; *lieu* from *locus*; *lien* from *ligamen*; *rayon* from *radius*; *froid* from *frigidus*; *rire* from *ridere*; *lire* from *legere*; *boire* from *bibere*; *croire* from *credere*, &c. In Italian, *avere* from *habere*; *povero* from *pauper*; *tavola* from *tabula*, &c.

TABLE OF ASPIRATED CONSONANTS.

The following Table exhibits the aspirated sounds of the consonants, as derived from the general analogies of the language, together with the present pronunciation throughout the provinces :

Ḃh, or Ḃ.

1. Ḃh, or Ḃ, as written in the printed Erse and some Irish books, is pronounced in Munster like *v*, but has a sound nearly as soft as *w* in the English word *wool* in the northern half of Ireland, as a Ḃó, his cow; a Ḃaile, his town.

In the beginning of words between two short broad

vowels it sounds softly, like *u* or *w*, in every part of Ireland, as γάβαρ, a goat; ρεάβας, a hawk; τρεάβας, ploughing; αρβας, corn. In this situation it loses all its consonantal power, and becomes a vowel, like *w* in the English word *power*.—See remarks on the vowel α. But if the vowel preceding or following it be long, then it has the sound of *v* or *w* consonant, as γαβάλ, taking; τόγβάλ, raising; υίογβάλ, harm, &c.

2. β slender, exactly like the English *v*, as βί, was; βειρίμ, I give.

In the counties of Kilkenny, Tipperary, and Waterford, and in most parts of Munster, β slender is often quiescent in the middle of words, as ραιόβιρ, rich; αοιβνεαρ, happiness; λυβεαννα, herbs, pronounced *sigh-ir*, *eenis*, *luena*; but in the northern half of Ireland these words are correctly pronounced *sévvir*, *eevnis*, *lúvënnă*.

This consonant, β, never appears with an aspiration in Leabhar na h-Uidhri, which may lead some to conclude that it was anciently pronounced *b* where we pronounce it *v* at present. Thus in *Tain Bo Cuailgne*: ní ρίρ ρον em ol Meob, “that is not true indeed quoth Meave” (for the modern ní ρίορ ριν, ειμ, ol Meaoβ): οο να ρλυαζαβ, for οο να ρλυαζαβ.

It has indeed been a great puzzle to Irish grammarians whether the consonants left thus unaspirated by the ancients were intended by them to be pronounced according to their radical or aspirated sounds. It is not improbable that the ancient pronunciation differed from the modern in retaining the radical sounds of some consonants which the moderns aspirate; but it may have happened that the ancients thought it superfluous to mark some letters in situations where they were always aspirated, such as in the ablative plural, ιβ; in αό, the termination of verbal nouns, &c. &c.

Ch, or Ć.

1. Ch, or ĉ, broad, has a deep guttural sound, which does not at present exist in English, but it is found in

the Lowlands of Scotland, in such words as *thought*, *daughter*, &c., as $\delta\epsilon\acute{o}\acute{c}$, a drink ; $\alpha\ \acute{c}\acute{o}\rho$, his foot.

It is curious that O'Molloy, who wrote his Irish Grammar at Rome in the year 1677, describes the *gh* in the English word *sought* as guttural, and there can be little doubt that it was then so pronounced. His words are : " h autem afficiens c præstat vt utraque sonent gutturaliter, qualiter vel Angli enunciant gh in vocula $\rho\acute{o}u\acute{g}h\tau$, vel Florentini litteram c in *Duca*, vel Hispani litteram g in *Angelo*, vt each, Latinis *equus*."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 25.

It is stated by some grammarians that \acute{c} before the triphthong ua approximates to the sound of f , as $\acute{c}ua\acute{i}\acute{o}$ (*pron.* foo-ee) he went ; but this sound is confined to North Connaught. It is unknown in Leinster, Munster, and South Connaught, and should not be regarded as a sound of \acute{c} in the general language, but the $\acute{f}ua\acute{i}\acute{o}$ of North Connaught should be considered as a dialectic form of $\acute{c}ua\acute{i}\acute{o}$.

2. *Ch*, or \acute{c} , slender, has a smooth guttural sound, which may be represented by the Greek χ in $\chi\acute{i}\acute{\omega}\nu$, as $\alpha\ \acute{c}\acute{i}\acute{a}\acute{l}\acute{l}$, his sense ; $\alpha\ \acute{c}\acute{e}\acute{a}\acute{n}\acute{n}$, his head. In the southern half of Ireland \acute{c} slender in the middle and end of words is pronounced faintly, like the English *h*, as $\epsilon\acute{i}\acute{c}$, horses ; $\acute{o}\acute{i}\acute{o}\acute{c}\acute{e}$, night ; $\acute{f}\acute{i}\acute{c}\acute{e}$, twenty ; but in Connaught and Ulster it has its regular slender sound in these situations.

In the counties of Monaghan and Louth, in parts of Meath, and some of the adjoining districts, \acute{c} in the termination of words is pronounced very faintly, like *ăh* ; and \acute{c} broad, when coming before τ , is totally sunk, as $\acute{b}\acute{o}\acute{c}\tau$, poor, $\acute{l}\acute{e}\acute{a}\acute{c}\tau$, a monument ; pronounced $\acute{b}\acute{o}\tau$, $\acute{l}\acute{e}\acute{a}\tau$. The English have also rejected the guttural sounds of their *gh* in similar situations, as *bought*, *sought*, *thought*, and there can be little doubt that English analogy has exercised an influence over the pronunciation of the Irish language in South Ulster and Meath. Throughout the southern counties of Ulster \acute{c} broad, in the beginning of words, is pronounced faintly, like *h*, as

ḡonac, he saw, pronounced as if written h  n  c. In fact, the Irish spoken in these counties has scarcely a single guttural sound, so that it may be said to have, in a great measure, lost one of the most striking characteristics of the language.

Oh, or   .

1. Oh or   , broad, has a deep guttural sound to which no equivalent is found in English, but it may be described as *y*, broad and guttural, as α ḡalca, his foster-son; α ḡorac, his door.

2.   , slender, sounds, in the beginning of words, exactly like *y* in *year*, as α   ia, O God. In the middle and end of words, which are not compounds,   , whether broad or slender, is totally quiescent.

This consonant seldom, if ever, appears with an aspiration in the Book of Armagh or Leabhar na h-Uidhri; thus in the latter we find ι noiac for α n-oiac, after; folc buoi fuiri, for folc buoi fuiri (or, as it would be written in the modern Irish, folc buioe uiri), "yellow hair upon her head."   o   apelba α   oza for   o   apelba α   oza, to exhibit his personal form.

Throughout the northern half of Ireland ac, in the termination of dissyllables and polysyllables, is pronounced like *oo*, somewhat nasal; but, as already remarked, this in reality is the sound of am, which is the dialectic termination of verbs in Connaught and Ulster, and not a sound of ac, as some have supposed. Thus, veancac, doing, should be written, according to the Connaught pronunciation, vionam; according to the Ulster pronunciation veunam; and, according to the Munster pronunciation, veancac.—See the remarks on the pronunciation of ac, pp. 9 and 10, *supra*.

In the past tense of the indicative passive ac is pronounced ag in the counties of Kilkenny, Tipperary, Waterford, and parts of Limerick, but ac in the other counties of Munster. These, however, cannot be considered real sounds of ac, but dialectic pecu-

liarities in the termination of the verb. In the third person singular of the consuetudinal past tense, active voice, it is pronounced *eać* in the south, as *buaćleao fe*, he used to strike.

Ŋha or *oća* in the termination of adjectives is pronounced *ʒa* in Munster, as *cpóoća*, brave; *mópoća*, majestic; *oiaóća*, divine, pronounced as if written *cpóʒa*, *mópoʒa*, *oiaʒa*. O'Molloy says that *o* after *p* is pronounced *p*: "Nota denique si *dh* in vna syllaba sequatur ad *p* finientem priorem vocolæ syllabam, quod totum suum tunc sonum commutet in aliud *p*, vt *opoha an feap* O *Mopoha*, latinè, *O'Morus est vir aureus*, quod effertur ac si scriberetur *oppa an feap* O *Mopppa*."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 60. This, however, is the Meath pronunciation of the Irish language, and cannot be considered general, original, or analogical, and the broad guttural sound of *o* should be used in this instance.

Fh or f̈.

f̈ is quiescent in every situation, as *α f̈uil*, his blood; *an f̈ir*, of the man. The vowel following this quiescent *f̈* is very forcibly pronounced.

In ancient manuscripts this quiescent *f̈* is frequently omitted altogether, which often causes great obscurity, as *o' opbuo* for *o' f̈opbaó*, to finish.—*Chron. Scot., ad ann.*, 1126. *Ŋ' uapait ocup o' iaónuʒao* for *o' f̈uapait aʒup o' f̈iaónuʒao*.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 92, 93. This omission of the radical letter is called, in Cormac's Glossary, *oicneó topaiʒ*, i. e. *initial decapitation*, or *Aphaeresis*. Sometimes it is omitted out of mere whim, as *o' ruil ocup o' rpeoil* for *o' f̈ruil aʒup o' f̈peoil*.—*Leabhar Breac*, fol. 111, *b*, *b*.

ʒh or ʒ̈.

1. *ʒ̈*, broad, has a deep guttural sound, to which no equivalent is found in English. It is precisely the sound of *ö*, broad.

In the middle and end of words *ʒ̈*, or *ʒh*, has the

same power as the English *gh* in *high*, *might*, *sight*, namely, *gh* has no sound, but the preceding vowel is long, as *αῖρουῖμ*, I exalt; *ὀλίγε*, law; *ὑῖος*, an author; *ρῦζ*, juice.

It is very probable that *g* had originally a guttural sound similar to that of *gh*, as pronounced by the Lowland Scotch in the words *daughter*, *sought*, &c. It is remarkable, that in those verbs and verbal nouns in which the Irish write *g*, the Highlanders write *ch*, as, Irish, *foillruidh*, Erse, *foillseachadh*, &c. This shews that the Irish, like the modern English, have made some progress in getting rid of the guttural sounds of their language.—See Observations on *ch*.

In the middle of proper names of men *ga*, or *gu*, is pronounced like *ao* in Connaught, or *uee* in the English word *queen*, as *Feargar*, *Aongar*, *Leargar*, *Feargal*, *Dongal*, pronounced as if written *Farrees*, *Aenees*, *Larrees*, *Farreel*, *Doneel*; *gal* is pronounced *eel* in some verbal nouns, as *feargal*, pronounced *faddeel*; but these must be considered corruptions, although at present almost general throughout Ireland. The surname *O'Feargal* is universally pronounced *O'Farreel*, and written *O'Fearraoill* in the margin of p. 120 of John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of Keating's History of Ireland, by a bad Irish scholar of the name, who read the book in 1778.

2. *g* has, when slender, the same sound and power as *o* slender.

mh, or *m*.

1. *M*, broad, in the beginning of a word, is pronounced, in the south of Ireland, like *v*, but in the north of Ireland like *w*, as *α μάλα*, his brow; *α μάταιρ*, his mother. In the middle of words it loses almost all its consonantal power, and becomes a nasal *u* or *w*, as *ραῖραδ*, summer; *θαῖραδ*, dancing; *ταῖναδ*, a field; *ζαῖναδ*, a milch cow.

The syllable *am* in these situations is generally pronounced *oo* nasal in Munster, except in parts of Kerry, where it retains its real analogical sound of *au*, as pronounced by the Germans. The broad sound of *m* varies a good deal in the provinces, and stands in need of a grammatical standard. The most analogical sound is *au* German, but *oo* nasal is much more general at present.

2. *M̄*, slender, sounds like *b* or *v*, but is slightly nasal, as *féim*, mild; *amian*, his desire.

The only difference between the sounds of *m* and *b* is that the *m* is somewhat nasal. Some grammarians have erroneously set down the sounds of these aspirates as exactly similar. Neilson (*Irish Grammar*, p. 143) supposes that both were originally pronounced like *v*, but custom, and the analogy of articulate sounds, are opposed to this opinion. O'Molloy, who published his *Irish Grammar* at Rome in 1677, takes particular notice of the nasal sound of *mh*. His words are, p. 30: "Mh posita vbicumque volueris Hibernis sonat quod v digamma seù consonans, quasi elata tamen per nares; vt α mhathair mhath, latine, *bona mater*: ita tamen vt efferantur per nares." Dr. O'Brien also draws a strong line of distinction between them in his *Irish Dictionary (Remarks on the letter M)*. He says: "It is to be noted, that though *m* aspirated is frequently substituted in the place of an aspirated *b*, and *vice versa*, yet it is through want of judgment in the writer, inasmuch as the vowel or vowels which precede the latter, are pronounced with a stronger, clearer, and more open expiration than those that precede the former. This difference of pronunciation is sensibly observable; for example, between *treabh*, a tribe, and *leanh*, insipid, as well as between *sclabhuidhe*, a slave, and *snamhuidhe*, a swimmer."

N.

N̄ is found with a full dot over it in some very old manuscripts, from which some grammarians have classed it among the aspirated consonants, but as the change

effected in the situations where it is thus marked seems rather a hardening of its sound, it cannot be called an aspiration with propriety.

Ph, or \dot{p} .

Ph, or \dot{p} , sounds exactly like *ph* in English, as α \dot{p} ian, his pain.

It is curious to observe the analogy of these aspirations: *b* becomes *v*, \dot{p} becomes *f*, and when *p*, which is an aspiration of \dot{p} , is aspirated itself, its sound is totally destroyed. In Connaught \dot{p} , or *ph*, is quiescent in the vocative case of proper names derived from the Greek, as α \dot{p} hilip, O Philip, but the reason is, because the speakers of Irish in that province look upon the name Philip as written with an *p* in the nominative, not with a \dot{p} . In other parts of Ireland they pronounce α \dot{p} hilip as if written α \dot{p} ilip. Stewart remarks, in his *Gaelic Grammar* (second edit., p. 13), that “*Ph* is found in no Gaelic word which is not inflected, except a few words transplanted from the Greek or the Hebrew, in which *ph* represents the Greek ϕ , or the Hebrew φ . It might perhaps be more proper to represent φ by *p* rather than *ph*; and to represent ϕ by *f*, as the Italians have done in *filosofia*, *filologia*, &c., by which some ambiguities and anomalies in declension would be avoided.”

R.

\dot{R} is sometimes marked with a dot in ancient manuscripts.

See above, Observations under R, radical. It should be remarked here that the *aspirated sound* (as it is called) of \dot{p} is nothing more than its slender sound. It is unknown in the counties of Kilkenny, Waterford, and Tipperary, but strongly marked in the other counties of Munster. The late Mr. Scurry, in his *Review of the Irish Grammars*, published in the fifteenth volume of the *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy*, gives it as his opinion that this aspirated sound of \dot{p} , and of the other immutable consonants, is a

mistake. His words are, in reviewing O'Brien's Irish Grammar : "The immutable consonants are treated of correctly, except when he states that 'the immutables at the beginning of words, which have a reference either to objects of the feminine gender or to objects or things of the plural number, are pronounced double.' This has been asserted by many of his predecessors, but, with deference to such respectable authorities, they have, in my opinion, no variation of sound but what they obtain from the vowels with which they are combined in a syllable, like the other consonants."

This is undoubtedly the case in the county of Kilkenny, of which the critic was a native; but not in Clare, Kerry, Limerick, or Cork; and it appears from O'Molloy's remarks on the liquids *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, that they were under influences different from those of their adjoining vowels, in his time, in Meath, of which he was a native.—See his *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 33–36.

Sh, or Š.

Š sounds exactly like *h* in the English words *hall*, *hill*, as *α ῥάλ*, his heel; *α ῥίολ*, his posterity. This aspirate never appears in the middle or end of radical words, nor in the end of any word. Š before the consonants *b*, *c*, *d*, *g*, *m*, *p*, *τ*, is never aspirated.

Š being a sibilant dwindles, when aspirated, into the less distinct sound of *h*, which is in accordance with the definition of aspiration above given. In the Book of Lecan *h* is prefixed to *ῥ* to mark its aspiration, as "τῥι ταιῥιḡ αῥ τῥι ῥι ḡ ῥιαῥ."—See *Tribes, &c., of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 216, line 3. This mode is also recommended by Donlevy, but, in my opinion, it is of no advantage whatever.

O'Molloy states, in his Irish Grammar, p. 66, that ῥ coming after *g* in compound words is quiescent, as in *boḡῥhῥonach*, but this is confined to Meath and the southern counties of Ulster, as shall be pointed out in a subsequent portion of this Grammar.

Th, or t̄.

Th, or t̄, sounds also like the English h, and appears very frequently in the beginning, middle, and end of words, as α τοιλ, his will; cпуt̄, shape or form.

It must be acknowledged that, according to the analogy of articulate sounds, h is too weak an aspirate of τ, as is indeed y of υ. But a grammarian can never correct anomalies of this kind, which have been so long and so uniformly established by the tendencies of the language.

In the province of Ulster, and in the counties of Louth and Meath, t̄ broad is scarcely heard at all in the middle of words, as Caṡán, Caṡalán, the proper names of men; bóṡar, a road; aṡair, a father; pronounced as if written caán, caalán, bóar, áair; but this must be considered a great corruption, and should be rejected, as tending to enfeeble the language, as Dr. Stewart phrases it, “by mollifying its bones and relaxing its nerves.” In the adjective maṡt̄, and other words, t̄ slender is pronounced like c̄; but this is not to be approved of, neither is it general.

In the end of words t̄ is very faintly sounded, as cпуt̄, shape; olút̄, close; τnút̄, envy; cпуoṡt̄, trembling; but when such words are followed in sentences by words beginning with vowels, the t̄ is heard as distinctly as h in the English word *hall*, as cпуt̄ an epéim̄p̄ir, the personal form of the mighty man; cпуt̄ an ḃean, the woman trembled. In the counties of Kilkenny, Tipperary, and Waterford, t̄ broad, at the end of monosyllabic words, is pronounced like c̄ broad, as ḡo bṡáṡt̄, for ever; pṡut̄, a stream; lút̄, agility, pronounced as if written ḡo bṡác, pṡuc, c̄ioṡc, lúṡc. This is a corruption in the other extreme, but one not analogically adhered to, for the genitives of these words are pronounced correctly in these counties, as bṡáṡṡa, pṡoṡṡa, ceṡṡa, pronounced as if written bṡáha, pṡoha, ceaha.

It is recommended by Donlevy (in his *Elements of the Irish Language*, annexed to his *Irish Catechism*, p. 514), to place the letter h before p and τ in the beginning of a word where, when aspirated, they are entirely silent, as we have just seen; but this, although

examples of it occur in the Book of Lecan, and other authorities, is not to be recommended, if the system of aspirating the consonants by dots be, as we have attempted to shew, the best; besides, to prefix the *h* would savour more of the system of eclipsis than of aspiration, and confuse the learner.

Having now shewn the nature of aspiration, it will be necessary in this place to say a few words of the grammatical use made of it in the language, although this more properly belongs to Syntax.

Aspiration is used not only in forming compound words, but also to point out the gender of adjectives and possessive pronouns. It is chiefly caused by the influence of simple prepositions and other particles, as will appear from the following rules, which include every possible case in which aspiration can occur in this language, and which the learner should commit to memory.

1. In all compound words, whether the first part be an adjective or a substantive, the initial of the second is aspirated, if of the aspirable class, as *deag-òime*, a good man; *ceann-mór*, big-headed.

The exceptions to this rule, which are few, shall be pointed out in the proper place.

The initials of all genitives singular of proper names of men and women are always aspirated; except in surnames of families, as *O'Fearghal*, *O'Farrell*; *Mac Donnall*, *Mac Donnell*; but if we wished to express "grandson of Fearghal," or "son of Domhnall," we should write *O'Fhearghail*, *mac Dhomhnail*.

2. After the following simple prepositions, the initials of all nouns are aspirated (if aspirable), viz., *air*, on; *ar*, out of; *de*, of, or off; *do*, to; *ra*, *ro*, or *raoi*,

under; ó from im, about; ταρ, over; τρε, through; μαρ, as, or like to.

3. After the possessive pronouns μο, my; το, thy; α, his.

4. The article aspirates the initials of all feminine nouns in the nominative, and of masculine nouns in the genitive.

5. The interjection α or ο, sign of the vocative case, also causes aspiration.

6. In verbs the initials are aspirated by the particle ní, not, and μα, if; and also by the particle το, or μο, prefixed to the past tenses of the indicative mood, or to the conditional mood, and the aspiration is retained even if this particle be left understood. The initial of the verb is also aspirated (if aspirable) after the relative α, who, whether expressed or understood, and after the particle το, a sign of the infinitive mood.

SECTION 3.—*Of certain Combinations of Consonants which do not easily coalesce.*

According to the modern pronunciation of the Irish language the following combinations of consonants do not coalesce, and a very short vowel is heard between them :

bτ,	as in	lúbτa,	bent,	pronounced	lúpaτa.
ol ^c ,	„	olúτ,	close,	„	ođluτ.
lb,	„	rcolb,	a scollop,	„	rcol-đb.

^c In the beginning of words only.

l̄g,	as in	bol̄g,	a belly,	pronounced	böllög.
lp,	„	colpa,	the thigh,	„	colöpa.
nnc̄,	„	Donnac̄aö,	a man's name,	„	Donnac̄aö.
pb,	„	bor̄b,	fierce,	„	boröb.
p̄b,	„	vearb,	certain,	„	vearab̄.
p̄c̄,	„	oorāc̄a,	dark,	„	oorāc̄a.
p̄ḡ,	„	gar̄ḡ,	fierce,	„	garäḡ.
pm,	„	Cor̄mac,	a man's name,	„	Coräm̄ac.
pp,	„	reir̄peac̄,	a yoke of horses,	„	reir̄peac̄.
pn,	„	cop̄n,	a goblet,	„	cop̄nön.
ēn,	„	aē̄ne,	a commandment,	„	aē̄ine.

The other combinations of consonants coalesce as readily as in English.

In ancient Irish poetry, however, no allowance is made for the short vowel inserted by the modern pronunciation, from which it may fairly be concluded that the ancient Irish pronounced such words as *p̄colb*, *bor̄b*, *gar̄ḡ*, as the English would pronounce similar combinations of consonants at the present day. Thus, in the poem attributed to Torna Eigeas, the word *bor̄b* is clearly intended to be pronounced as one syllable, not *bör-öb*, as it is at present.

“*Öor̄b a v̄-veazhan for̄ gac̄ ep̄äḡ*
Niall mac Eazac̄ Muiḡmeöan.”

SECTION 4.—*Of Eclipsis of Consonants.*

Eclipsis in Irish Grammar may be defined the suppression of the sounds of certain radical consonants, by prefixing others of the same organ. This owes its origin to a desire of euphony, or facility of utterance. All the consonants are capable of eclipsis, except the liquids *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*.

m	eclipses	b,	as	áp	m-bo,	our	cow,	pronounced	áp	mó.
ḡ	„	c,	as	áp	ḡ-ceapτ,	our	right,	„	áp	ḡeapτ.
n	„	o,	as	áp	n-ooπατ,	our	door,	„	áp	noπατ.
b	„	p,	as	áp	b-ḡuil,	our	blood,	„	áp	buil.
n	„	ḡ,	as	áp	nḡopτ,	our	field,	„	áp	nḡopτ.
b	„	p,	as	ap	b-pian,	our	pain,	„	áp	bian.
o	„	τ,	as	ap	o-τḡr,	our	country,	„	áp	oḡr.
τ	„	ρ.	—See p. 61.							

It appears from this table, that the eclipsing consonant is always softer than the initial radical which is eclipsed ; as m, a narisonant semivowel, for b, a sonant mute ; ḡ, a sonant palatal, for c, a mute ; n, a narisonant semivowel, for o, a sonant mute ; b, a sonant sibilant, for p, a pure sibilant ; nḡ, a narisonant semivowel, which should be represented by one character^d, for ḡ, a sonant ;

^d This is a defect in the system of eclipsis, for in the pronunciation ḡ is not eclipsed by n, but by a simple sound, which the combination nḡ is a conventional mode of expressing. O'Molloy, in his Grammar, p. 63, takes notice of this incongruity : “Eclipsis ng, vulgo uirðhiúḡh-cadh niazał, hoc habet speciale, quod g non penitüs taceatur, sed aliquäliter vno tractu simul cum n efferatur, vt ap nḡopτ latinè, nostra seges.” Compare the quotation from Professor Latham, under nḡ, p. 35.

For this reason n should never be separated from the ḡ by a hyphen. Some have remarked that it would be better to omit the eclipsed consonant, as in the Welsh ; but this would, in Irish, lead to endless confusion, as the radical letter of the word would,

in almost every instance, be disguised ; and though this is unavoidably the case in the spoken language, yet it has been thought advisable to preserve, in the written language, the radical consonant in every instance, even at the risk of often giving the words a crowded and awkward appearance. On this subject O'Molloy remarks : “Aduerte ex dictis nunquam sequi, quòd in scriptione liceat literam mergendam omitti, esto omittatur in sono : aliàs foret magna confusio, et ignoraretur dictio, seù sensus voculæ, ejusque tüm proprietä tüm natura.”—*Grammatica*, p. 66.

Many instances could be pointed out where, if the radical consonant were omitted, the eye would be completely deceived, as in ap nopð, which might be referred

b, a sonant, for p, a mute consonant; τ eclipsing ρ is an exception, but ϑ eclipsing τ is a sonant eclipsing a mute.

The reader is referred to Dr. Darwin's Analysis of articulate Sounds for a classification of the consonants exactly according to this table of Eclipsis, although the author was probably not aware that such a classification had been observed in the practical grammar of any language, but was purely guided by the philosophy of articulate sounds, to which he gave the most careful consideration.

Dr. Prichard's remarks on this subject are worthy the consideration of the student of this language :

“It is a habit common to many of the Indo-European languages to interchange certain letters according to rules founded originally on euphony, or on the facility of utterance; and from this circumstance arises the great capability which these languages possess, of composition, or the formation of compound words. The substitution of consonants of particular orders for their cognates, which takes place in Greek, in the composition of words, and in some other instances, is an example of this peculiarity.

“In Greek, in Latin, and in the German dialects, the mutation of consonants is confined to words brought together under very peculiar circumstances, as chiefly when they enter into the formation of compound terms, and it is scarcely observed in words which still remain distinct, and are merely constituent parts of sentences. Either the attention to euphony, and the ease of utterance, has not extended so far, or the purpose was attained by a choice of collocation, the words themselves remaining unaltered. But in the Sanskrit language, words merely in sequence have an influence upon each other in the change of terminations, and sometimes of initial letters, on the principle above alluded to.”—*Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations*, pp. 27, 28.

either to ἀρ n-δóρθ, our chant,
or ἀρ n-όρθ, our order; ἄρ
mαλᾱ, which might be referred
to ἀρ mαλᾱ, our brow, or ἀρ

m-bαλᾱ, our wall; ἀρ νεόᾱ,
which might be either ἄρ n-θε-
οᾱ, our drinks, or ἄρ n-εοᾱ,
our horses.

and the tenses or moods of verbs. They necessarily presuppose a knowledge of Etymology and Syntax, and may be passed over until the student has mastered the second and third parts of this Grammar. They are inserted here in order to complete the subject of eclipsis.

I.—*Rules of Eclipsis in Nouns.*

1. All initial consonants that admit of eclipsis are eclipsed in all nouns in the genitive case plural, when the article is expressed, as *να m-bárð*, of the bards; *να ζ-coṛ*, of the feet; *να n-ḡuan*, of the poems; *να b-ḡear*, of the men; *να ηγοṛτ*, of the fields; *να-b-pian*, of the pains; *να ḡ-tonn*, of the waves. Some writers eclipse these consonants even in the absence of the article, as *α n-aimṛṛ b-ḡear m-ḡolḡ^e*, but this is not general, though the adoption of it would tend to clearness and distinctness in the language.

2. When the article comes between any of the simple prepositions and the noun, the initial consonant of the latter, when capable of eclipsis, is eclipsed in the singular number, as *ó'n m-bárð*, from the bard; *τṛé an ζ-coṛ*, through the foot; *ó'n b-ḡul*, from the blood; *ó'n ηγοṛτ*, from the field; *o'n b-péin*, from the pain. But *ḡ* and *τ* are generally excepted, as *αζ an ḡoṛar*, at the door; *ar an tonn*, on the wave. Also after the simple preposition̄ *α* or *ι*, in, *ṛia*, before, and *iar*, after, with or without the article, as *α m-baile*, in a town; *ι n-ḡoṛar*, in a door; *ṛia m-bairḡeasḡ*, before

^e Keating.

baptism ; *iar n-oul*, after going. The preposition *do*, to, forms an exception in the western, but not in the eastern counties of Munster.

3. After the possessive pronouns *ár*, our, *bur*, or *bar*, your, *a*, their, all nouns beginning with eclipsable consonants are eclipsed in the singular and plural, without a single exception, as *ár m-báru*, our bard ; *bar g-cora*, your feet ; *a n-ouanta*, their poems ; *ar b-fir*, our men ; *bar ngort*, your field ; *a b-rianta*, their pains ; *ár o-tonna*, our waves.

II.—Eclipsis in Verbs.

1. After the interrogative particle *an*, which is cognate with and equivalent to the Latin *an*, all verbs beginning with eclipsable consonants are eclipsed, as, *an m-bualeann re*, does he strike ?

2. After the particle *nac*, whether it means *non*, *nec*, *neque*, *qui non*, or *anne* ? as *deirim nac m-bualeann re*, I say that he strikes not ; *an te nac m-bualeann*, he that does not strike ; *nac ngulfir*, wilt thou not weep ?

3. After the particle *go*, whether it means *ut*, or *utinam*, as *go n-deirim*, that I say ; *go g-cuirio Dia an rat ort*, may God put prosperity on thee, i. e. may God prosper thee.

4. After *da*, if (sign of the conditional mood) ; as *da m-bualfir*, if I would strike.

5. After the interrogative *ca*, *ubi*, *where* ? as *ca g-cuifir e*, where wilt thou put it ?

6. After the relative preceded by a preposition ex-

pressed or understood, as *ó α υ-τάιμιζ*, from whom came; *ι η-α β-φuil*, in which is.

In the ancient Irish manuscripts the eclipsing consonant is but seldom prefixed, from which some grammarians have inferred that the ancients pronounced the radical consonants as they wrote them; but this is not certain, as we find the same writer sometimes prefixing the eclipsing consonant, and at other times omitting it in the same words, placed under the same influence; which seems to lead to the conclusion that the consonants, in situations where they would now be eclipsed, anciently changed their sound into that of the letter now used to eclipse them; and that the ancients thought it unnecessary to mark this change where the construction of the sentence, and the ear of the native scholar, would at once suggest the pronunciation.

In some manuscripts, particularly those of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the letters *c, f, p, t* are doubled to denote eclipsis; thus, *αρ cceapτ*, our right, for *αρ ζ-ceapτ*; *αρ fφuil*, our blood, for *αρ β-φuil*; *αρ ppian*, our pain, for *αρ β-ριαν*; *αρ ττiρ*, our country, for *αρ υ-τιρ*; but this is not to be recommended, as the prefixed consonant could not be then said to eclipse the one which follows it, but both combined to assume the sound of a consonant different from either, a system which would neither be philosophically correct nor convenient. The eclipsing consonant is separated, in some modern books, from the radical one by a hyphen, and sometimes in the ancient manuscripts by a dot placed over it; thus, *maccan pe mbliacan dec.*—*Liber Hymnorum*, fol. 15, *a*. *Αηζιο van ap cech mbap acτ ec φφi acapτ*, “fearful of every death, except death on the bed,” *Id.*, fol. 11, *a*. Here the dot over the *m* is not intended to aspirate it, but to give notice that it is an adventitious consonant. But the hyphen placed by the moderns between the *m* and the *b* is now preferable, as in the modern orthography the dot is always used to denote aspiration, not eclipsis. In some ancient manuscripts *f* is dotted to denote that it is eclipsed, as *δuanano, muimme na φiann* for *δuanann, muimme na β-ριαν*, “Buanann, nurse of the heroes,” *Cor. Gloss., in voce δuanano*; and

in the *Leabhar Breac*, Ιαρ ῥοθυγυο cell ocup conbal n-ιμοα, ιαρ ῥερταυ ocup αοαμρταυ ατα λιν γανem μαρια, no ηενθαι ηιμε, ιαρ n-οείpc αγυρ επόκαιpe, 7c., “after building many churches and monasteries, after performing miracles and wonders as numerous as the sands of the sea, or as the stars of heaven, after works of charity and mercy,” &c.—*Vita Brigidæ* in *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 33, b.

We shall conclude the subject of the grammatical use of eclipsis by observing, that in every situation where an initial consonant is eclipsed, an initial vowel takes n, as αρ n-αράν, our bread.

In ancient manuscripts eclipsis is sometimes used, for no grammatical reason whatever, but merely for euphony, as ροιλλη n-ῥῆμι, the light of the sun; and hence also we find n inserted before an initial vowel, without any grammatical necessity, as κυαιpc n-αιμῆpe, a circle of time.—See p. 71.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY is that part of practical grammar which reduces to fixed rules the changes of forms which words undergo in one and the same language. It is not to be confounded with general Etymology, which treats of the changes that words undergo in passing from one language to another.

OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

There are nine classes, or divisions of words, or, as they are called, *parts of speech*, viz., article, noun-substantive, noun-adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE ARTICLE.

THE Irish language has but one article, *an*, which has, in general, the same signification as the English definite article *the*, as *an fear*, the man; *an bean*, the woman. When this article is not prefixed, the noun is

translated with the indefinite article in English^a, as *πεαρ*, a man; *βαν*, a woman.

The form of the article is *αν* throughout all cases of the singular, except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes *να*; *να* is also the form for all cases of the plural in both genders.

The prepositions *αγ*, at, and *ιμ*, with, or about, preceding the article, combine with it, and are written in old, and some modern, manuscripts, *ιον*, *con*, *ιμον*, *ιμμον*, *mun*, as *πο εαυπεν ιον πλεαδ*, "he exhibited them at the feast," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Γαλεγγ*; *ιον τεμυδ*, "at the fire," *Id.*, voce *Ορυς*; *ιμμον αμ ριν*, "at that time."—*Annals of the Four Masters*, *passim*.

In the ancient Irish manuscripts the article is written *ιμ*, *ινα*, and *ιμο*, even in the plural; and the masculine form *αν* or *ιμ* is sometimes prefixed, in the genitive case, to nouns of the feminine gender in the singular number, as *αν* or *ιμ τριε*, for *να τριε*, of the country; *ιμ τάλμαν*, of the earth.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 114. *ιαρφαιγιτ ιμ ριρ ρεελα δε*, "the men asked the news of him," *Id.*, p. 76; *ερεαδ-αιμεο ιμ τάλμαν*, "every tribe of the earth," *Id.*, p. 98; *ιρ να πελγιβ ινα ηγετε*, "in the cemeteries of the pagans," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Fe*; *ατραατ ροιλλρι να ηρηνε ορ ορειδ αν τάλμαν*, "the light of the sun shone upon the surface of the land," *Vita Moling*; *ι τραιγ ιμ μαρα*, "on the shore of the sea," *Imramh Curraigh Mailduin*, MS. in the Library of Trin. Coll. Dubl. (H. 2. 16.), p. 373. Keating also uses this form of the article before the genitive case of *μουρ*, the sea, as "*γο η-ιμιολ αν μαρα*."—*Hist. Irel.*, p. 148. In some very ancient and correct

^a This is the case in English with all nouns in the plural number; thus, the plural of *a man* is *men*, without any article, where the absence of the *a*, or any form of it, in the plural, serves exactly the same purpose as the presence of it does in the singular. It may be also worthy

of remark here, that in many languages articles are wholly wanting. In the Latin, for example, the words *filius viri* may mean *the son of A man*, *A son of a man*, *a son of THE man*, or *THE son of THE man*. In Greek there is no indefinite article.

manuscripts the article is made to terminate in *ib*, like the noun, as in the following passage in the Annals of Ulster, at the year 891: *Uenzur magnur in feria Martini, conuarrzar fíó-ár ir naib caillib, ocyr con ruc na uaurtaigi ar a laéraitgib, ocyr na taigi olcena*, i. e. "A great storm *occurred* on the festival of St. Martin, which caused a great destruction of trees in the woods, and blew the daurthachs [oratories] from their foundations, with the other houses likewise." Also in a very ancient tract on the consecration of a church, attached to a copy of Cormac's Glossary: *O naib mecnab coicob*, "*ex quinīs radicibus.*"

As the article is so frequently used in the Irish language, and causes very remarkable changes in the beginning of nouns^b, it will be necessary in this place

^b The Rev. Paul O'Brien arranges the declensions of Irish nouns by the initial changes which they undergo, and asserts that the ancient Irish never inflected their nouns by *terminations*, but by initials.—*Irish Grammar*, p. 17. But we find terminational changes in the most ancient Irish manuscripts, in which the initial changes are seldom marked. It matters very little whether the changes caused by the article on the initials of nouns be called declensions or not, but it is absurd to say that these changes are sufficient of themselves to determine the cases of substantives, for they are merely used for the sake of euphony, and to help to point out the gender of the noun; and if the article, which has very little to do with cases, be removed, such initial changes disappear altogether, while the terminational inflexions remain. Stewart has the following accurate re-

marks on this subject: "The changes expressive of Relation are made on nouns in two ways: 1, On the beginning of the noun; 2, On its termination. The relations denoted by changes on the termination are different from those denoted by changes at the beginning; they have no necessary connexion together; the one may take place in the absence of the other. It seems proper therefore to class the changes on the termination by themselves in one division, and give it a name; and to class the changes at the beginning also by themselves in another division, and give it a different name." And he adds in a note: "It was necessary to be thus explicit in stating the changes at the beginning, and those on the terminations, as unconnected independent *accidents*, which ought to be viewed separately; because I know that many who have happened to turn their thoughts to-

to lay before the learner such rules as will point out distinctly all the changes which it causes, although most of these rules must be considered as strictly belonging to Syntax.

1. In modern printed books the α of the article is cut off after a preposition ending in a vowel, as $\text{do}'n$ for $\text{do } \alpha n$, to the; $\text{ó}'n$ for $\text{ó } \alpha n$, from the; $\text{pa}'n$ for $\text{pa } \alpha n$, under the, &c.; but in ancient manuscripts and early printed books the article and preposition are united as if one word, without any mark of elision; thus, don , on , pan , &c.

In the spoken dialect a simple α is used for αn before a consonant; but this should not be written.

2. The article aspirates the aspirable initials of all feminine nouns, in the nominative and accusative singular, and of all masculines in the genitive singular: as αn bean , the woman; αn pír , of the man; and eclipses the eclipsable initials of all nouns, masculine or feminine, in the dative or ablative singular; but these influences never extend to any case of the plural, except the genitive, which is always eclipsed, as $\text{na } m\text{-bár}\text{ð}$, of the bards; $\text{na } n\text{-drua}\text{ð}$, of the druids; $\text{na } \text{g-cra}\text{nn}$, of the trees; $\text{na } b\text{-pí}\alpha n$, of the pains; $\text{na } \text{v-tonn}$, of the waves.

Exception.—Nouns whose initial consonant is v and t , undergo no initial change in the singular, as $\text{ir } \alpha n$ tír , in the country; αn dorar , of the door; αn $\text{tígear}\text{na}$, of the lord; $\text{ó}'n$ dorar , from the door; $\alpha\text{g } \alpha n$ $\text{tígear}\text{na}$, with the lord. 'San diorgan , no 'ran

ward the declension of the Gaelic noun, have got a habit of conjoining these, and supposing that both contribute their united aid

toward forming the cases of nouns." — *Elements of Gaelic Grammar*, second edition, p. 48.

m-beiptm, "in the Fasciculus or little collection," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 110; ó'n deamán, "from the demon," *Id.*, p. 127; 'Do'n Tadóꝝ ro, "to this Tadhg," *Id.*, p. 95; so'n tóirꝝ rín, "on that expedition," *Id.*, p. 91; 'ran teimó, "in the fire," *Id.*, p. 94; fo'n talam, "upon the earth," *Id.*, p. 120. But Keating and other modern writers sometimes eclipse o and t after the article as regularly as the other consonants: ar an o-teipte, "by the testimony," *Id.*, p. 1; ar an o-teaꝝlac, "on the household," *Id.*, p. 120; tpeꝝ in o-teaꝝtuó d-ceuona, "through the same tongue," *Id.*, p. 50; tpiallaꝝ 'na aonar o'n o-tulaꝝ, "he goes alone from the hill," *Id.*, p. 75; tpeꝝ ar o-tam ruꝝ Feaꝝruꝝ uaꝝa, "on account of the cattle carried off from them by Fergus," *Id.*, p. 77; leꝝ ar o-treimfeap, "with the mighty man," *Id.*, p. 80; ar an o-teaꝝoꝝc ríóꝝ, "on (or of) the royal precepts," *Id.*, p. 90.

3. Wherever the article causes aspiration on other consonants, it eclipses r by prefixing τ (see p. 61); except when r is followed by a mute consonant, in which case it is never either aspirated or eclipsed.

Nouns beginning with r, not followed by a mute, are, like other nouns, eclipsed by the article, when preceded by the prepositions de, off, do, to, and ir, in, as do'n τ-raoꝝal^c, to the world; de'n τ-rliaó, off the

^c In some parts of Ireland, articulated nouns of this class are eclipsed after all the simple prepositions; but in north and west Munster, and in the best Irish manuscripts, it is never used, except after the prepositions de, do, and ir; for they say, ar an raoꝝal, in the world, not ar an τ-raoꝝal, ar an rliꝝe, on the way; but the τ is prefixed throughout the eastern half of Munster, and in many other parts of Ireland. O'Molloy, who was a

native of Meath, does not always prefix τ to r in the dative or ablative case, in his Irish Catechism, published at Rome in 1676, for he writes ar an raoꝝal ro, in this world, p. 76, excepting after the preposition do; and Keating never prefixes τ to r in this situation, except after the preposition do, for he writes ar an rliꝝe, on the way; 'r an rneaꝝa, in the snow, *Hist. Irel.*, pp. 1, 73; o'n Síúꝝ, from the Suire, *Id.*, p. 92.—See *Syntax*.

mountain. In the plural, ρ never undergoes any change whatever.

4. The article requires τ to be prefixed to the nominative singular of masculines, and h to the genitive singular of feminines beginning with vowels, as $\alpha\tau$ $\alpha\rho\acute{\iota}\alpha\upsilon\alpha$, the bread; $\eta\alpha$ h - $\alpha\iota\omega\pi\epsilon$, of the age.

5. The particle α (when an interjection and a sign of the vocative case) aspirates the initial consonants of all nouns in the singular and plural number, as α $\epsilon\iota\zeta\epsilon\alpha\rho\eta\alpha$, O Lord! α $\delta\alpha\omega\mu\epsilon$, O men! α $\mu\acute{\eta}\nu\acute{\alpha}$, O women!

6. In all cases of the plural (except the genitive) the article requires h to be prefixed to nouns beginning with vowels, as $\eta\alpha$ h - $\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$, the birds; $\acute{\omicron}$ $\eta\alpha$ h - $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\iota\upsilon$, from the birds. In the genitive plural, η is prefixed after the article, as $\eta\alpha$ η - $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta$, of the birds.

The learner is to bear in mind this general fact, already stated (p.65), that the same grammatical accidents which cause an initial consonant to be eclipsed, require η to be prefixed to initial vowels, which explains the exception to rule 6, in the case of the genitive plural. It has also been remarked, that a euphonic η is often prefixed to a word beginning with a vowel, merely to prevent a hiatus, and sometimes for no grammatical reason whatever, as, h - ι $\tau\eta\eta$ η - $\epsilon\rho\epsilon\eta\eta$, "into the land of Ireland," *Cor. Gloss., voce* $\mu\omicron\zeta$ $\epsilon\iota\mu\epsilon$; $\zeta\omicron\eta$ $\epsilon\upsilon\eta\omega\iota\delta\acute{\omicron}$ $\lambda\alpha\mu$ η - $\alpha\eta\eta\zeta\omega$ $\alpha\eta$, *Keat. Hist., p. 37*, for $\zeta\eta\eta$ $\epsilon\upsilon\eta\omega\iota\delta\acute{\omicron}$ $\lambda\alpha\mu$ $\alpha\eta\eta\zeta\omega$ $\alpha\eta$, "so that a silver hand was put upon him;" $\epsilon\upsilon\alpha\eta\eta\tau$ η - $\alpha\omega\mu\eta\eta$, "a circle of time," *Cor. Gloss., in voce* $\epsilon\epsilon\rho\epsilon\eta\eta$.

Some writers eclipse the noun in the genitive plural in the absence of the article, and this is to be recommended, as it gives force and definiteness to the case, which would otherwise be weak and uncertain, as it has seldom any peculiar termination; as $\iota\omega\mu\alpha\omega$ ζ - $\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$, many battles [i. e. a number of battles]; $\alpha\eta$ $\acute{\epsilon}$ $\alpha\eta$ $\delta\rho\epsilon\omicron\zeta\alpha\eta$ $\rho\omega\eta$ $\upsilon\omicron$ $\delta\eta\eta\eta$ $\iota\omega\mu\alpha\omega$ ζ - $\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$ $\alpha\eta$ $\alpha\eta$ $\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta\eta$, "this is the Breoghan

who won many battles in Spain," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 49; *fillio tar a n-air tar éir iomao g-craeac oo deunam*, "they returned back after having committed many depredations," *Id.*, p. 133; *le h-áppac-tur ngniom*, "by valour of deeds," *Id.*, p. 140; *flaie b-feap g-Cúl*, "chief of the Feara Cul," *Id. ib.*; *Mór g-cléipioé g-craib-tioé, o-taioipioé o-tojáioe, aγur laocpuioe loinnmeap oo euit ann beór*, "many pious clergymen, distinguished chieftains, and select heroes fell there," *Keat. Hist.*, 145.

CHAPTER II.

OF NOUNS-SUBSTANTIVE.

To nouns belong gender, number, case, and person.

SECTION 1.—Of Gender.

Gender in Irish grammar is often to be distinguished from sex, for in this language a fictitious, or conventional sex is attributed to all inanimate objects. Sex is a natural distinction, gender an artificial, or grammatical one.

Stewart, in his *Elements of Gaelic Grammar*, p. 44, after having examined the true nature of grammatical gender, remarks: "it seems therefore to be a misstated compliment which is usually paid to the English, when it is said that 'this is the only language that has adapted the gender of its nouns to the constitution of Nature.' The fact is, that it has adapted the *Form* of some of the most common names of living creatures, and a few of its pronouns, to the obvious

distinction of *male* and *female*, and *inanimate*; while it has left its nouns without any mark characteristic of *gender*. The same thing must necessarily happen to any language by abolishing the distinction of masculine and feminine in its attributives. If all languages had been constructed on this plan, it may confidently be affirmed, that the grammatical term *gender* would never have come into use. The compliment intended, and due to the English, might have been more correctly expressed by saying that ‘it is the only language that has rejected the unphilosophical distinction of gender, by making its attributives, in this respect, all indeclinable.’”

In Irish the following classes of nouns are masculine :

1. Proper nouns of men, and nouns signifying males, as *Διαρμαϊθ*, *Donnchað*; *բար*, a man; *բազար*, a priest; *ταρβ*, a bull; *cullac*, a boar.

2. Derivative personal nouns terminating in *αιρη*, *ορη*, *αc*, *αιθε*, *οιθε*, or *υιθε*, as *բաλζαιρη*, a hunter; *բλάνυιζτεορη*, saviour; *μαρκαc*, a rider; *բcεαλαιθε*, a story teller; *բογλυθ*, a robber.

3. Diminutives in *άν*, as *cnocán*, a hillock; *μιονάν*, a kid.

Diminutives in *ιν* are of the gender of the noun from which they are derived; as *բիրίν*, a manikin, *masc.*; *ciaρόιζίν*, a little chafer, or clock, *fem.* Except *caillín*, a girl, which, by a strange anomaly, is masculine.

4. Derivatives in *αρ*, or *εαρ*, which are principally abstract nouns, as *αοιβνεαρ*, delight; *τιζεαρναρ*, lordship; *μαιτεαρ*, goodness; *cάρηθεαρ*, friendship.

5. Most short monosyllables terminating in *αc*, *υcτ*, *υρ*, *υc*; as *caτ*, a battle; *υcτ*, the breast; *λυρ*, a leek; *բրυc*, a stream.

6. Most polysyllables, in which the last vowel is broad, are masculine, as *բοτանán*, a thistle; *τιζεαρναρ*, lordship.

The following are feminine :

1. Proper names of women, and nouns signifying females, rivers (except the *Forghur* in Thomond), countries, and most diseases; as *Μεαδδ*, *Θείρηρη*, names of women; *βαννα*, the River Bann; *βολζαc*, the small-pox; *βαν*, a woman; *μάταιη*, a mother; *βó*, a cow.

2. Diminutives in *ός*, as *τσιρόός*, a chafer, or clock; *ορθός*, a thumb.

This rule is so general in every part of Ireland, that the peasantry think that *St. Θαβεος* of Lough Derg, and *St. Βαχιαροζ* of Errigal, in Ulster, were women.

3. Derivatives in *αcτ*, as *μόρβαcτ*, greatness; *ρίοζαcτ*, a kingdom.

4. Abstract nouns formed from the genitives of adjectives, as *υαιρλε*, nobility; *ζιλε*, whiteness; *φιννε*, fairness.

5. Most nouns whose last vowel is small (except personals in *όη*), as *τίη*, a country; *ρρέηη*, the firmament; *λαραηη*, a flame; *υαλλ*, a howl; *υαηη*, an hour; *ονόηη*, honour.

This rule is so strictly adhered to in most parts of Ireland, that some words naturally masculine are made feminine to comply with it, as *ρταυ*, an entire horse; *η βρεαζ αν ρταυ ι*, “*She is a fine stallion.*”

It should be here remarked that the gender of nouns varies very considerably in the north and south of Ireland; as for example, the word *αιτεανν*, furze, which is masculine throughout the southern half of Ireland, is feminine throughout Ulster. Some varieties of gender will also be found in ancient manuscripts, as in the word *colam*, a dove, which is now universally masculine, but is inflected with the feminine article and termination, in a manuscript in Trinity College, entitled, *Uraicecht na n-Eigeas* (H. 1. 15.) Some

proper names of men are inflected as if they were feminine, in the older Irish Annals and genealogical MSS., as *Ferǵaile*, for *Ferǵal*; *Maolbóim* for *Maolbóim*; *Arǵaile* for *Arǵal*; this is chiefly the case with names compounded with *maol*, *calvus*, or *juvenis*, and *ǵal*, *valour*.

SECTION 2.—Of Cases.

By case is understood a certain change made in the form (generally on the termination), of a noun to denote relation.

According to this definition, there is in the Irish language, strictly speaking, but one case different from the nominative, namely, the genitive, for all the other relations are expressed by the aid of prepositions and verbs; but as prepositions modify the beginning and ending of some nouns, another case can be admitted, which may properly be called *casus præpositionis*, by reason of its depending on a preposition always expressed. Most Irish grammarians, however, following the plan of the Latin grammars, have given the Irish nouns six cases, and this, though unnecessary, may be done without incommoding the learner in the slightest degree, as the six cases are well suited for the purposes of grammatical construction.

The nominative and accusative are always the same in form, and are only distinguished by their position, and connexion with other words in the sentence.

The dative and ablative cases are always alike in form, and are never used except after a preposition, which can never be left understood, as in Latin or Greek. These two might therefore be conveniently made one case, and called *casus præpositionis*, as Sanctius calls the ablative in Latin, although in that language the

ablative sometimes expresses the relation without the preposition.

Although a change of termination is made in what is called the dative or ablative feminine in the singular, and in both genders in the plural, still the termination does not in any one instance express the relation without the preposition, so that it may be regarded as a form of the noun used in junction with a preposition, to express a certain relation, and not a form which expresses that relation of itself, as the ablative case in Latin sometimes does. Some Irish grammarians have attempted to classify the prepositions according as they are dative or ablative in signification; but the distinction is useless, as the form of the noun is the same whether the preposition means *to* or *from*, and nothing can be gained by any classification of prepositions, except such as would point out the exact relations expressed by them, which the classification under the heads of dative and ablative does not effect. The fact is, that the introduction of an ablative case into Irish is altogether useless, for the reason just given; or, in other words, it is useless to introduce a dative, because it is always the same as the ablative. There is but *one case* influenced by prepositions, and it would be useful, for the sake of distinction, to give it a name; but as neither the term *dative*, derived from the verb *do*, to give, nor *ablative*, from the verb *aufero*, to take away, would be a sufficiently definite name for this case, which comes after all the simple prepositions, the best term that can be invented for it would be the *prepositional case*.

It will be seen also that the accusative of all nouns in the modern language is, without a single exception, the same as the nominative. Stewart, who paid great attention to the analogies of the Erse and Irish dialects, as far as he could become acquainted with them through printed books, came to the conclusion that there is no accusative case of nouns in the Gaelic different in form from the nominative, and no ablative different from the dative. He defines the nominative thus: "The nominative is used when any person or thing is mentioned as the *subject* of a proposition or question, or as the object of an action or affection."—*Elements of Gaelic Grammar*, first edit., p. 48.

Haliday, however, makes a difference between the accusative and nominative plural, by making the accusative always terminate in α, as βάρα for βάρι; but no such difference is observable, at least in the modern language, for the nominative terminates in α as often as the accusative. See *O'Brien's Irish Grammar*, pp. 50, 51, where he says, that “some writers terminate their nominatives plural generally in α, ε, or ò; thus, ρερα for ριρ, κορα for κοιρ, ολα for οιλ, βάρα for βάρι, ceoltaí for ceolta, ριγεί for ριγέ, bolga for builg.”

The nominative and vocative feminine are always alike in the termination.

The genitive and vocative masculine are always alike in the termination.

SECTION 3.—*Of Declensions.*

The general rules by which the cases are formed are called declensions.

In declining nouns the formation of the cases generally depends on the gender and the last vowel of the nominative, and hence the last vowel of the nominative is appropriately called the characteristic vowel.

The number of the declensions is varied by the different writers on Irish grammar; but the author, after the most attentive comparison of their systems, and the closest consideration of the variations of the nouns of the language, as spoken and written, has come to the conclusion that all their inflections can be reduced under five general rules or declensions, as shall be presently pointed out.

Stewart makes but two declensions, which he distinguishes by the quality of the last, or characteristic vowel, making the first declension comprehend those nouns whose characteristic vowel is broad, and the second those whose characteristic vowel is small. Haliday took up the notion that the formation of cases depends

altogether on the last vowel of the nominative, and thus reduced all the nouns of the language under seven declensions. Dr. Neilson makes but four declensions, and appears to have been guided more by the gender in the arrangement of them than by the characteristic vowel; and it is true that the gender has more influence on the formation of the cases than any ending of the nominative.

The fact is, that the declension cannot be discovered until the gender is first known, and that even then the characteristic vowel of the nominative is no absolutely certain guide; it is, no doubt, a help to suggest what declension the noun may be of, but cannot, in very many instances, be relied on, and the learner will discover that, as in Latin, Greek, and other ancient languages, so in Irish, he must learn the gender and genitive case singular of most nouns by reading, or the help of a dictionary.

Before the learner proceeds to study these declensions it will be necessary that he should attend to two accidents of inflection which characterize the Irish language, namely, *attenuating* and *making broad* the characteristic vowel. They are called by the Irish *caolúgáð*, attenuation, and *leatnúgáð*, making broad. Thus *á* is attenuated by being changed into *ái*; and *ai* is made broad by being changed into *ai*, and so with other vowels and diphthongs; as in the following Table:

ATTENUATION.	MAKING BROAD.
á into áí.	ai into ai.
α „ αí, irreg. οí, υí.	αοι „ αο.
αο „ αοí.	ει „ εα.
έα „ έί, irreg. εοí.	εοι „ εο.
εα „ εí, irreg. ι.	ι „ εα.
εο „ εοí, irreg. ιυí.	ιαí „ ια.
ιο „ ι.	ιυí „ ιυ.
ια „ εí, ιαí.	οι „ ο.
ιυ „ ιυí.	υαí „ υα.
ό „ όί.	υí „ υ, ο.
ο „ οí, irreg. υí.	
ú „ úí.	
υ „ υí, irreg. οí.	
υα „ υαí.	

In the spoken language throughout Ireland o short is attenuated to uī, and a to oī; but in Connaught a is seldom so attenuated, for the sound of the a is retained in the oblique cases, as na clainne, of the children; na plaitte glaine, of the clean rod, not na plaitte, or pluitte glaine, as in Munster. The orthography found in ancient manuscripts proves the correctness of the Connaught pronunciation in this particular, as baill for boill, members, *Cor. Gloss., voce* Νερκοιτ.—See p. 85.

There are some examples of anomalous attenuation, as rḡian, a knife, rḡine, rḡin; biað, food, bið; mac, a son, meic, or mic, &c.

In all printed books, and in most manuscripts of the last four centuries, final c becomes ḡ, when attenuation takes place, as bealaḡ, a road, gen. bealaḡ; but in very ancient Irish manuscripts, and in all printed books in the Erse or Scotch Gaelic, the c is retained.

In the inscription on the cross of Cong, now in the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy, ḡ is used in the genitive, but not aspirated, as, Οραισ οσ Μυρεσach U Dubthaiḡ οσ ρενορ Ερενο, “a prayer for Muredach O’Dubthaig, senior of Ireland.” But on the stone cross in the village of Cong, the same name is written U Dubthaiḡ. Mr. Mac Elligott, of Limerick, in his observations on the Gaelic language, published in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, states it as his opinion, that this ancient form in c is the best mode of orthography, and after giving several examples from the Book of Lecan, and an old copy of the Festiolog of Aengus, to shew that the final c of the nominative is retained in the genitive singular and in the nominative plural, recommends it to be generally made use of. But we have seen that the tendency of the language is, in its inflections, to change the harder consonants into the softer ones, as c into ḡ, t into o, p into b, &c.; and Mac Elligott himself, who had paid close attention to the analogies and tendencies of this language, finds in the spoken dialect of Munster a fact, which suggests a strong objection to the adoption of ic in the modern orthography, namely, that the final ḡ in this inflection is pronounced without an aspiration, as flearciaiḡ, boociaiḡ, arḡaiḡ, &c., which in other parts of Ireland are pronounced flearciaiḡ, boociaiḡ, arḡaiḡ, and which in Scotland are written *flescaich, bodaich*,

&c. The fact is, that the γ in this inflection is so distinctly pronounced with its radical sound in Munster, that a native of that province would look upon the substitution of \acute{c} or ch in its place as a very strange innovation.

The pronunciation of γ in this inflection is one of the strongest characteristics of the Munster dialect.

FIRST DECLENSION.

The first declension comprises nouns of the masculine gender which are attenuated in the genitive singular. In the singular, the nominative, dative, and accusative are the same, and the genitive and vocative terminate alike. In the plural, the nominative terminates generally like the genitive singular, the genitive like the nominative singular; the dative is formed by adding $\alpha\iota\beta$ to the nominative singular. The vocative plural is formed by adding α to the nominative singular.

The initial changes caused by prefixing the article and simple prepositions have been already pointed out in treating of aspiration and eclipsis.

$\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$, a poet, *masc.*

Simple Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.
Gen. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.
Dat. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron\alpha\iota\beta$.
Voc. $\alpha\ \beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\alpha\ \beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron\alpha$.

Articulated Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. $\text{an}\ \beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\text{na}\ \beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.
Gen. $\text{an}\ \beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\text{na}\ \text{m-}\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.
Dat. $\text{o}'\text{n}\ \text{m-}\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$.	$\text{o}'\ \text{na}\ \beta\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron\alpha\iota\beta$.

Σποτάν, a streamlet, *masc.*

Simple Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. ρροτάν.	Nom. ρροτάιν.
Gen. ρροτάιν.	Gen. ρροτάιν.
Dat. ρροτάιν.	Dat. ρροτάίνοις.
Voc. α ρροτάιν.	Voc. α ρροτάίνα.

Articulated Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. αν ρροτάν.	Nom. να ρροτάιν.
Gen. αν τ-ρροτάιν.	Gen. να ρροτάιν.
Dat. ό'η τ-ρροτάιν.	Dat. οο να ρροτάίνοις.

Ψάραç, a wilderness, *masc.*

Simple Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. ψάραç.	Nom. ψάραιγε, or ψάραçα.
Gen. ψάραιγ.	Gen. ψάραç.
Dat. ψάραç.	Dat. ψάραιγις.
Voc. α ψάραιγ.	Voc. α ψάραçα.

Articulated Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. αν ψάραç.	Nom. να ψάραιγε, or ψάραçα.
Gen. αν ψάραιγ.	Gen. να β-ψάραç.
Dat. ό'η β-ψάραç.	Dat. ό να ψάραιγις.

GENERAL RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE CASES.

The genitive case singular is formed from the nominative by attenuating the characteristic vowel, according to the table already given, p. 78. With the article the initial consonant of the genitive singular is aspirated, or (if it be ρ) eclipsed by τ.—See p. 61.

Haliday remarks that all polysyllables take both the proper and improper attenuation, unless the last vowel be accented, as οστέουρ,

or *ooécuar*, but this arises more from the unsettled state of the orthography of the language than any grammatical principle.—See remarks on the obscure sounds of the vowels, p. 6.

The dative singular always terminates like the nominative. With the article the initial consonant is eclipsed.—See p. 62, Rule 2.

Haliday states that the dative singular is formed by making broad the genitive, as “nom. *copp*, gen. *coipp*, or *cuipp*, dat. *copp*, or *cupp*.” And it is true that some ancient, and even modern writers, have attempted to introduce a difference between the dative and nominative forms of some few nouns of this declension, as nom. *բար*, a man; dat. *բօր*, anciently *բիր*, as *սբւր օօ՛ն քիր բրօ՛ւլլ*, “a cast of the chess-man,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 36; nom. *ceann*, a head; dat. *cionn*, anciently *ciuo*, as *բօր ա ciuo*, “on her head,” *Id.*, p. 16; also nom. *olc*, evil; dat. *ulc*. In an ancient vellum copy of Cormac’s glossary, now in the Library of the Royal Irish Academy, the form *ulc* is found after the preposition *o*, under the word *Ծuanano*, as *genichep buan o ambuan, .i. maizh ó ulc*, i. e. “good is produced from evil.” But in a copy of this Glossary preserved in the Library of Trinity College, H. 2. 16, it is written *o olc*, as in the present spoken language. The word *բօր*, a port, is also sometimes written *բօր*, in the dative, as *ա b-Բօր Նաբջե*, “in Waterford.”—*Keat. Hist.* pp. 158, 168. The word *բան*, a tree, is also found written *բան* in the dative, as *օօ՛ն բան*, in an old life of St. Moling. From these examples it will appear that some effort was made by the old writers to make a dative or ablative form for nouns of this declension, but no trace of this form remains in the modern language.

The accusative singular is always the same as the nominative in form, and is distinguished from it, as in English, only by its position in the sentence and its relation to the verb.

The vocative singular always terminates like the genitive singular, and has always prefixed the interjec-

tions α or O, which aspirate the initial consonant, if it be of the aspirable class.

The nominative plural is generally like the genitive singular.

Some writers form the nominative plural of many nouns of this declension by adding α or u short to the nominative singular, as γιάλλ, a hostage; nominative plural, γιάλλα, or γιάλλu, for γεáll, as, γιάλλu Επειν ουρ Αλban, “the hostages of Ireland and Scotland,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 4; fear, a man, is made fearu in the nominative plural, as fearu in boimain, for fear an boimain, *Id.*, p. 12; mæp, a steward, makes mæpa, instead of maip, or maoir, *vide id.*, p. 16; gar, a sprig, makes gara in the nominative plural, as Ocur ip í a ppoim ceça nona iar toct punn uð co leiç, ocur tpi gara so ðipor na ðoinne, “and his dinner each evening, after returning here, is an egg and a half, and three sprigs of the water cresses of the Boyne,” *Id.*, p. 18; ceann makes ceanna, or cnoy, as cnoy ðeðoime, “the heads of good men,” *Id.*, p. 42; apm makes apma, *vide id.*, p. 68.—See particular rules for the formation of the nominative plural, p. 86.

The genitive plural terminates like the nominative singular, but when the article is expressed the initial consonant is eclipsed, p being always excepted.—See p. 62.

The dative plural is generally formed by adding aib to the nominative singular. But when the nominative plural does not terminate like the genitive singular, then the dative plural is formed from the nominative plural by dropping final e, and adding ib.—See p. 87.

This termination ib of the dative plural is very seldom used in the spoken Irish of the present day, except in the county of Kerry, where, however, it is as often made the termination of the nominative plural. It should be remarked also, that this termination is not *always* found in plural nouns, even in the best manuscripts,

after the simple prepositions; but this is perhaps owing more to the carelessness of Irish writers than to any real grammatical principle. Mr. Patrick Lynch, who had a native knowledge of the modern Irish, states, in his *Introduction to the Irish Language*, that “a man would be laughed at in the country, were he to say, τὰβάρ ʒευρ οο να καυλιβ, or οο καπαλλιβ, give hay to the horses; instead of τὰβάρ ʒευρ οο να καυιλ. However, ʒεαρ, a man, and a few other monosyllabic words, are an exception to the above, as we say, να ʒεαπαιβ, ορ να ʒεαπαιβ, οο να ʒεαπαιβ,” &c. &c.—p. 11. It should be also remarked, that in the best manuscripts the dative plural is frequently formed by adding α or u short to the nominative singular, as Ζα ναεμου Ερενη, for Ζε ναομαιβ Ειρεανη, “with the saints of Erin.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 4; οο ʒερεταν ʒαλιετ ʒευρ να ριζυ, “to bid welcome to the kings,” *Id.*, p. 24; ʒευρ h-Ullευ, “with the Ultonians,” *Id.*, p. 34; ιευρ να ρλογυ, “between the hosts,” *Id.*, p. 36; Ρο ραυο Δομνall ʒευρ α μαερευ οουρ ʒευρ α ʒεεταριυ, “Domhnall said to his stewards and law-givers,” *Id.*, p. 16; ʒευρ να h-aδναclu, for λειρ να h-aδναclαιβ, “with the graves,” *Cor. Gloss., voce ʒe*; “*Dicunt hoc Scoti, Goibne Goba faciebat hastas, ʒευρ τεορα ʒεεϩρα*, the Scoti say that Goibne, the smith, made the spears with three processes,” *Id., voce Neϩcoiz*.

The accusative plural is, in the modern language, always like the nominative.

Haliday makes the accusative plural different from the nominative plural, but no trace of this difference is to be found in the modern Irish language, although in some ancient manuscripts the accusative is sometimes found to terminate in α, or u short, while the nominative terminates like the genitive singular; as ʒialla for ʒεill, hostages; ʒευρ for ʒευρ, men; μαερα for μαειρ, stewards; αρμα, or αρμου, for αυρμ, arms; ʒαρα for ʒαιρ, sprigs; ομου for ομη, heads; κορρα for κυρρ, bodies; μυρα, or μυρυ, for μυρ, as οουρ ρο εοραιο ρυμ ʒεετ μυρυ μορ-αιδβι ιμον ουρ ρυρ, “and he drew seven great walls around that fort.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 6. But the accusative is also frequently found to terminate exactly like the nominative, as ρο ʒαβ οη οιμυρ να ναειμ, “then fear seized the saints.”—*Id.*, p. 38.

PARTICULAR RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE GENITIVE CASE
SINGULAR IN MONOSYLLABLES OF THE FIRST DECLENSION.

Monosyllables whose characteristic vowel is α , or o short, have generally the improper attenuation in the genitive singular, as corp , a body, gen. sing. cuip ; topc , a hog, gen. tuipc ; cpann , a tree, gen. cpoinn ; cnoc , a hill, gen. cnuic ; ponn , land, gen. fuinn ; clóg , a bell, gen. cluig ; loig , a track, gen. luig .

Some modern Irish writers have rejected this irregular attenuation, and written coip for cuip , cnoc for cnuic , foinn for fuinn , but this, although sometimes found in ancient manuscripts, and tending to simplify the language, is not borne out by the general authority of the best manuscripts, nor of the spoken language in any part of Ireland. In the spoken language throughout the province of Connaught, as has been already remarked, the α is scarcely ever changed to o in attenuation, and this is in conformity with the ancient language; as in *Cormac's Gloss.*, voce Fepuip , where mchpauo , of the tree," occurs for the modern an cpoinn ; and in an old Life of St. Moling, where the word cpann , a tree, is similarly inflected, as $\text{téit a mullach m cpainn}$, "he climbs to the top of the tree."

Monosyllables characterized by $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$ (long) or eu , have two forms of the genitive singular, as géal , a goose, gen. géid , or geoid ; éan , a bird, gen. éin , or eoin ; béal , a mouth, gen. béil , or beoil ; rgeál , a story, gen. rgeíl , or rgeoil ; tréan , a hero, gen. trém , or tréoin ; but the latter form is seldom used, except in poetry, or poetical prose.

Monosyllables characterized by $e\alpha$ (short) form the genitive singular by changing $e\alpha$ into $e\iota$ (short), and sometimes into i short, as eac , a steed, gen. eic ; bpeac ,

a trout, gen. брїс; ceann, a head, gen. cїnn; fear, a man, gen. fїr; neart, strength, gen. neırt, or nırt; ceart, justice, gen. ceırt, or cırt.

Monosyllables having eo as their characteristic diphthong have also two forms of the genitive singular; the first, which is regular, and the form most generally used in prose, and in the spoken language, is obtained by changing eo into eoi; the second, which is irregular, and seldom used, except in poetry, by changing eo into iui, as ceol, music, gen. ceoil, or ciuil; peol, a sail, gen. peoil, or piuil.

Monosyllables characterized by ia, form the genitive singular, by changing ia into éi (long), as iarǵ, a fish, gen. eıǵ; Nıall, a man's name, gen. Néill. But from this rule must be excepted брїан, a man's name, which makes брїан in the genitive singular; fıaǵ, a deer, which makes fıaıǵ; Ъıа, God, which makes Ъé, not Ъéı; бıаó, food, which makes бıó, and a few others.

Duald Mac Firbis, in his genealogical work, which he commenced in 1650, almost invariably writes such genitives with a single e, as Néll, for Néill.—See *Tribes, &c., of the Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 16, note m. Peter Connell also adopted the same system in parts of his manuscript Irish Dictionary, but left it off in others.

PARTICULAR RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE NOMINATIVE AND DATIVE PLURAL OF THE FIRST DECLENSION.

Some nouns of this declension form the nominative plural by adding α to the nominative singular, as fıaacute,

a debt, ριάα, debts; leaban, a book, leabpa, books; uball, an apple, ubla, apples.

Others add τα, or έα, as ργéal, a story, ργéalτα, stories (but it has also the form ργέαλα); ρeol, a sail, ρeolta, sails; ceol, music, ceolta; néal, a cloud, makes néalτα; múp, a wall, or mound, makes múpa, or múpτα; cogad, war, makes cogτα.

Many nouns of this declension, terminating in αc, form the nominative plural from the genitive singular by adding e, as αonac, a fair, gen. sing. αonaic, nom. pl. αonaicε; so ualac, a burden, makes nom. pl. ualaicε; mullac, a summit, mullaicε; éadac, cloth, éadaicε; bealac, a pass, bealaicε; ópلاع, an inch, oplaicε.

When the nominative plural has a different form from the genitive singular, the dative plural of regular nouns is, without exception, formed from it in this and all the other declensions; as ργéal, ργéalτα, dat. pl. ργéalταib; cogad, cogτα, cogταib; αonac, αonaicε, αonaicib; as a n-αonaicib αγυρ α γ-comóaluib coircionna, "at general fairs and assemblies^d;" mullac, mullaicε, mullaicib; bealac, bealaicε, bealaicib, and, by syncope in old manuscripts, beicε, beicib; éadac, éadaicε, éadaicib^e.

In the spoken Irish some few nouns of this declension, ending in ár, form the nominative plural by adding αα to the nominative singular, as clár, a board, or a plain, nominative plural, cláraα; but clár is the plural used by correct writers, as *Ir na clár ríor go Sionainn*, "and the plains down to the Shannon."—*O'Heerin*.

^d Keat. Hist. p. 57.

^e Cormac's Gloss., voce *legam*.

See *Battle of Magh Rath, Additional Notes*, p. 340 ;—*leaṫar*, leather, *leaṫpaḋa* ; others add *laiṫ*, as *éan*, or *éun*, a bird, *éunlaiṫ*, birds, as *ḡur ab ann tigiṫir eunlaiṫ* *Ḷrionn o'á nḡrian-ḡoraḋ*, "it was thither the birds of Ireland were wont to come, to bask in the sun."—*Keat. Hist.*, p. 32. But *éin* is the regular plural.

Some nouns of this declension, of more than one syllable, suffer syncope in the nominative plural, as *uball*, an apple, nom. pl. *ubla* (for *uballa*) ; and some suffer syncope and attenuation, as *ḋoraḡ*, a door ; *ḡoluḡ*, light ; and *ṫoraḋ*, fruit ; which make *ḋóirre*, *ḡoilre*, *ṫoirṫe*, in the nominative plural, and *ḋóirrib*, *ḡoilrib*, *ṫoirṫib*, in the dative plural.

Some suffer syncope and attenuation, and add *e*, to form the nominative plural, as *caingean*, a covenant, nom. pl. *caingne*, dat. pl. *caingnib* ; *ḋaingean*, a fastness, *ḋaingne*, *ḋaingnib* ; *ḡuígeall*, a sound, *ḡuígle*, *ḡuíglib* ; *ḡeimeal*, a fetter, *ḡeimle*, *ḡeimlib* ; *éigeaḡ*, a learned man, *éigre*, *éigrib* ; *cléireac*, a cleric, *cléiriḡ*, *cléirib^f*.

SECOND DECLENSION.

This declension, which comprises by far the greater number of the feminine nouns of the language, is distinguished by the ending of the genitive singular, which has always a small increase. When the characteristic vowel of the nominative singular is broad, the genitive is formed by attenuation and a small increase^g, but when slender by the increase only. The dative singular is

^f *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24.

^g I say *small increase*, because, although in modern Irish books and manuscripts this increase is

almost invariably the vowel *e* short, in ancient manuscripts it is oftener *i*, and sometimes *iu*.

formed from the genitive by dropping the increase, and the vocative always terminates like the nominative. The nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding a broad increase^h, when the characteristic vowel is broad, and a small increase when the characteristic vowel is small; the genitive plural terminates like the nominative singular, and the dative is formed from the nominative plural by adding *ib*, as in the following examples :

Cailleac, a hag.

Simple Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. cailleac.	Nom. cailleaca.
Gen. caillige.	Gen. cailleac.
Dat. caillig.	Dat. cailleacab.

Articulated Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. an cailleac.	Nom. na cailleaca.
Gen. na caillige.	Gen. na g-cailleac.
Dat. ó'n g-caillig.	Dat. ó na cailleacab.

^h This broad increase is *α* in the modern language, but in ancient manuscripts it is often *u*, and sometimes *o*. Dr. Neilson makes the nominative plural terminate in *adh*, but for this he has no authority, or even analogy, ancient or modern. In the present spoken dialect in the province of Connaught, the plurals of some nouns of this declension

are formed by adding *aió* (the *i* long) to the nominative singular, as *cailleacaió*, for *cailleaca*; *capógaíó*, for *capóga*, coats; but this form, which is not found in ancient or correct modern manuscripts, should be considered a provincial peculiarity, and should not be taken into consideration, in fixing the orthography of the general language.

To this declension belong all the feminine nouns in the language terminating in óg, which are principally diminutives, and are all declined according to the following example :

Feápnóg, the alder tree.

Simple Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. feapnóg.	Nom. feapnóga.
Gen. feapnóige.	Gen. feapnóg.
Dat. feapnóig.	Dat. feapnógaiḃ.

Articulated Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. an feapnóg.	Nom. na feapnóga.
Gen. na feapnóige.	Gen. na ḃ-feapnóg.
Dat. ó'n ḃ-feapnóig.	Dat. ó na feapnógaiḃ.

Many nouns of this declension, like those of the first, take the irregular attenuation, as clann, children, gen. sing. cloinne, dat. sing. cloinn; long, a ship, luinge, luing; mong, mane, muinge, muing. But in the province of Connaught the regular attenuation is always preserved, particularly when the characteristic vowel is *a*, as clann, clainne, clainn; lann, a blade, lanne, lann; and these forms are of very frequent occurrence in the Books of Lecan and Ballymote, which were compiled in North Connaught in the beginning of the fifteenth century.

Some few nouns of this declension, of more than one syllable, suffer syncope, as *inir*, an island, gen. *inpe*, and when broad are attenuated in the penultimate syllable, as *rluarao*, a shovel; *lorao*, a kneading trough; *comneall*, a candle; *obair*, a work; which make in the genitive singular *rluarpe*, *loirpe*, *connle*, *oibre*, which last makes *oibreaca* in the nominative plural. *Deoc*, a drink, is quite irregular, making *oige* in the genitive, and *oig* in the dative singular; but it has a regular plural, *deoca*.

PARTICULAR RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE NOMINATIVE PLURAL OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

When the characteristic vowel of the nominative singular is slender¹ the nominative plural is formed from it by adding a small or slender increase.

Examples.—Μαοιν, wealth, nom. pl. μαοιμε, as “σο βερτ μαίνε μόρα νόιβ, he gave them rich presents,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 42; cúir, a cause, nom. pl. cúire, or cúiri, as “ζέ σο βάσαρ σόβαλ-κύρι ελι ιε Congal ’man cómeργί ριη, though Congal had other great causes for this rebellion,” *Id.*, p. 110; eapnail, a kind, nom. pl. eapnaille, *Id.*, p. 118; ghnúir, the countenance, nom. pl. ghnúire, or ghnúiri, as “α ηgnúiri ρρι λάρ, their faces to the earth.”—*Keat. Hist.*, p. 125.

Some nouns of this class form the plural, either by adding a small increase or the termination eanna, as luib, an herb, nom. pl. luibe, or luibeanna, but the latter form, which is like the Saxon plural termination *en* (as in *oxen, women*), is more general, and better than the former, because more distinct and forcible. But nouns of this declension, terminating in éim, as léim, a leap; céim, a degree; béim, a blow; réim, a course,

¹ Some words of this declension are in the best manuscripts indifferently made broad or slender in the nominative singular, as muintear, or muintir, a people, or family; ríreap, or ríriur, ancestry; aírreap, or aírriur, time; maírean, or maíom, the morning; aoí, or oí, an age. And in the spoken language, words of this declension are made slender in one district, and broad

in another; for example, coí, a foot, and cluar, an ear, which are always broad in other parts of Ireland, are pronounced coir and cluar in the *casus rectus* in the county of Kilkenny. From this and other facts it is quite clear that all feminine nouns, which form the genitive singular by a small increase, belong to one declension.

or progress, and some others, with their compounds, have the latter form only, and are thus declined :

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. an céim.	Nom. na céimeanna.
Gen. na céime.	Gen. na ḡ-céimeann.
Dat. ó'n ḡ-céim.	Dat. ó na céimeannaib̄.

Some nouns of this declension suffer syncope, and form the plural by adding *eaða*, as *inir*, an island, nom. pl. *inireaða*. The word *coill*, a wood, makes *coillte*, and *linn*, a pool, *linnte*.

PARTICULAR RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE GENITIVE CASE PLURAL.

It has been stated above, in the general rules prefixed to this declension, that the genitive plural terminates like the nominative singular, but it should be added here :

1. That when the characteristic vowel of the nominative singular is slender, the genitive plural sometimes drops the slender vowel, as *uair*, an hour, gen. pl. *na n-uair*, as “*cloic̄tech tenead̄ do aic̄r̄in ic̄ Rur̄ del̄a p̄rī pé noi n-uair*, a steeple of fire was seen at Rusdela for the space of nine hours¹.”

2. When the nominative plural is formed by adding *te* to the nominative singular, the genitive plural is formed from it by adding *að*, or *oð*, as *coill*, a wood, nom. pl. *coillte*, gen. pl. *na ḡ-coillteað*, or *na ḡ-coilltioð*, as “*oir̄ do báðar̄ iomað coilltioð tim̄cioll an*

¹ Book of Ballymote, fol. 141, a.

ορομα ρομ, for there were many woods around that hill^k.”

3. When the nominative plural terminates in ανα, the genitive plural is formed from it by dropping the α, as να ἔ-κέιμεαν, of the steps; να μ-βέιμεαν, of the blows; να λυβέαν, of the herbs.

THIRD DECLENSION.

The third declension comprises nouns of the masculine and feminine gender, which have a broad increase in the genitive singular.

The dative singular always terminates like the nominative.

When the characteristic vowel is broad the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding a broad increase, and when slender a slender increase^l, and the genitive and dative plural are formed as in the second declension, as in example :

Ἐρεαρ, masc., a battle.

SINGULAR.

Nom. ἔρεαρ.

Gen. ἔρεαρα.

Dat. ἔρεαρ.

PLURAL.

Nom. ἔρεαρα.

Gen. ἔρεαρ.

Dat. ἔρεαριῶ.

To this declension belong all derivative abstract nouns in ἀτ, which are all of the feminine gender, as μαλλᾶτ, a curse; δάρᾶτ, boldness; ἐρόδᾶτ, bravery;

^k Keat. Hist., p. 25.

^l This broad increase is generally α, ἀνα; the slender in-

crease is ῖοε, in modern Irish, and εῶα, or εῶα, in ancient manuscripts.

μόρδαῖς, greatness. Also derivative abstract nouns terminating in εαρ, which are all of the masculine gender, as φίρδεαρ, friendship; αοιβεαρ, delight; ρυαιμνεαρ, tranquillity; τιννεαρ, sickness. This latter class sometimes form the genitive like nouns of the first declension, as :

Αοιβεαρ, masc., delight.

SINGULAR.

[Wants the Plural.]

Nom. αοιβεαρ.

Gen. αοιβεαρα, or αοιβηρ.

Dat. αοιβεαρ.

Μαλλαῖς, fem., a curse.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom. μαλλαῖς.

Nom. μαλλαῖσα.

Gen. μαλλαῖσα.

Gen. μαλλαῖς, or μαλλαῖσαν.

Dat. μαλλαῖς.

Dat. μαλλαῖσαβ.

These two classes of nouns most generally want the plural number, as being names of abstract ideas.

To this declension belong all short monosyllables of the masculine gender, and such as terminate in ᾶς, ῦς, ἴς, ῦλ, ῦρ, ῦς, as κας, a battle; ὄας, colour; ὑς, the breast; ὀρύς, dew; ἄλ, lamentation; λυρ, a leek; ρρυς, a stream. And many in ᾶς, as ᾶς, a ford; βράς, the day of judgment; βλάς, a flower; ργάς, a shadow. Of these such as are characterized by u short change ũ into ɔ in the genitive singular, as ὑς, ɔς; ρρυς, ρρος; ἄλ, ἄλα; λυρ, λορα; also, ἄς, a voice, makes ἄος; ἄρυς, curds, ἄρος; κρυς, shape, κρος, &c.

To this declension also belong all verbal nouns in ᾶς, ᾶλ, and ᾶμαν, as τεᾶς, coming, which makes

in the genitive singular *τεαῖτα*; *ῥαβαίλ*, taking, *ῥαβάλα*; *τόγβαίλ*, raising, *τόγβάλα*; *ῥεαλλάμαιν*, promising, *ῥεαλλάμνα*; *λεανάμαιν*, following, *λεανάμνα*; *καλλεάμαιν*, losing, *καλλεάμνα*, those in the latter terminations always suffering syncope.

To this declension also belong many names of men, as *Ἀοῦ*, *Ἀονῆυρ*, *Διαρμαῖο*, *Δοννχαῖο*, *Ῥεαρῆυρ*, *Μυρῆαῖο*, *Οἰλιόλ*, which form their genitives by postfixing *α* short. Under it, also, may be classed *Ἀμμῆρε*, *Ἐοῖαῖο*, *Ῥιαῖρα*, *Λυῖαῖο*, which sometimes form their genitives by suffixing *α*, and sometimes *αῖ*, or *εαῖ*, as *Ἐοῖαῖα*, or *Ἐαῖαῖ*, *Ῥιαῖραῖ*, *Λόῖγα*, *Λύῖθαῖ*, or *Λυῖῥεαῖ*.

To this declension also belong all short monosyllabic nouns characterized by *ιο* short (written with a single *ι* in old manuscripts), which form the genitive singular by changing *ιο* into *εα* short, as *βλιοῖτ*, milk; *κιοῖτ*, a shower; *βιοῖρ*, a spit; *κῆριοῖρ*, a girdle; *κῆριοῖτ*, trembling; *ῤιοῖρ*, knowledge; *λιονῆ*, ale; *λιοῖρ*, a fort; *ῤιοῖτ*, progeny; *ῤιοῖ*, frost; *ῤιοῖτ*, shape, which make in the genitive singular *βλεαῖτα*, *κεαῖτα*, *βεαῖρα*, *κρεαῖρα*, *κρεαῖτα*, *ρεαῖρα*, *λεαῖμνα*, *λεαῖρα*, *ῤεαῖτα*, *ρεαῖα*, *ρεαῖτα*.

To this declension also belong all verbal nouns terminating in *αῖο*, *εαῖο*, and *υῖαῖο*, which form their genitives singular like their passive participles, as *δαῖοραῖο*, condemning, gen. sing. *δαοῖραῖα*; *ῤοιλλῤυῖαῖο*, revealing, gen. sing. *ῤοιλλῤυῖαῖε*.—See passive verb. They have sometimes, though rarely, a second genitive formed by attenuation, as *δαοῖραῖο*, *ῤοιλλῤυῖαῖο*, but this is

not to be approved of, as it is seldom to be met with in good manuscripts.

Some nouns ending in αὐ, which have two consonants in the middle, insert a vowel, for the sake of euphony, between these consonants, in forming the genitive singular, and change αὐ to τα, as ἰονῆαὐ, wonder, gen. sing. ἰονῆαντα; ἑπισηρῆαὐ, beginning, ἑπισηρῆαντα; κορηαὐ, defence, κορηαντα; ἀδρααὐ, adoration, ἀδραῖτα; κυνηρααὐ, a covenant, κυνηραῖτα.

On the other hand, some suffer syncope, as ἀγαλλᾶν, a dialogue, which makes in the genitive singular ἀγαλλᾶ; ριαῖαν, a rule, ριαῖα; ρίσηαν, a queen, ρίσηα; οἰσηαν, revenge, οἰσηα; κολλᾶν, the body, κολλᾶ; ολλᾶν, wool, ολλᾶ; ῥησιόλαν, an attendant, ῥησιόλα; ῥησιόλαν, order, ῥησιόλα; ὀεᾶν, doing, makes ὀεᾶν, but ὀεᾶαὐ makes ὀεᾶντα.

All personal nouns in ὀν, or ἑόν, which are all of the masculine gender, belong to this declension, and form the gen. in ὀνα; and these masculine nouns ἀνᾶν, a name; ῥηῖν, a morsel; ναῖν, a lien, a covenant; ῥναῖν, a knot; μαῖν, a defeat; ῥηῖν, exertion; τεῖν, a disease, which make, in the genitive singular, ἀνᾶ, ῥηᾶν, ναῖν, ῥναῖν, μαῖν, ῥηᾶν, τεᾶν, and form their plurals by adding νᾶ to the genitive singular, as ἀνᾶνᾶ, ῥηᾶνᾶν^m, &c.

To this declension also belong many feminine nouns ending in ῖν (short), which make the genitive singular in ᾶ, as λάῖν, a mare, which makes, in the genitive singular, λάᾶ; ὄαῖν, the oak, ὄαᾶ; λαῖν, a flame, λαᾶ; ῥηῖν, vigour, ῥηῖᾶ; βεῖν, beer, βεῖᾶ; and the proper names ῥηᾶν, Tara, and

^m Haliday erroneously makes these nouns belong to his fourth declension, which includes nouns

which have a small increase in the genitive singular.—See his *Gaelic Grammar*, p. 39.

Ῥεοίη, the river Nore, which make Ῥεοίησιν, Ῥεοίησιν. From this rule must be excepted μάτηρ, a mother, which makes μάτηρ, not μάτηρσιν.

The following feminine nouns, which are characterized by ι short, are somewhat irregular: αἷμα, blood; θέλησις, the will; μέλι, honey, which make in the genitive singular, μέλιτος, μέλιτος, μέλιτος; but most others are regular, as νῆσος, a bog island; δῶρον, tribute; ἄβυσσος, a bog; ὄμιλος, a flock; which make in the genitive singular, νήσων, δῶρον, ἄβυσσων, ὄμιλου.

To this declension belong a few masculine nouns, ending in η, forming the genitive singular by dropping the ι, as ἀδελφῆν, ἀδελφῆν, a brother; which make in the genitive singular ἀδελφῆν, ἀδελφῆν.

A few masculine nouns of this declension, ending in αῖον, make the genitive singular in αῖον, as βουλευαῖον, a judge; Μαΐου, the month of May; χρεωστῆν, a debtor; ὑπονομιῶν, a cupbearer; ὀνομαστῆν, the Creator; φιλοσοφῆν, a philosopher; ἀροστῆν, a ploughman; also the feminine noun ἑταίρῃσιν, which makes ἑταίρῃσιν; but some poets make it masculine, and write ἑταίρῃσιν in the genitive singular, to answer their rhymes.

PARTICULAR RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE NOMINATIVE AND DATIVE PLURAL OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

It has been stated in the general rule prefixed to this declension, that the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding a broad or small increase according to the characteristic vowel of the latter. The following rules will further assist the learner in forming the plurals of particular classes of nouns:

1. Some add α, or ννα to the genitive singular, as ὄρατ, colour, nom. pl. ὄρατα, or ὄρατanna; ῥυτ, a stream, nom. pl. ῥοτ, or ῥοτanna; ῥοτ, a shower, nom. pl. ῥοτ, or ῥοτanna; and the dat. pl. is

formed from the nom. pl. by adding *ιβ*, as *δαταιβ*, or *δαταannaιβ*, &c.

The following nouns-masculine, *αιnm*, a name; *ηρειm*, a morsel; *ναιom*, a lien; *ρηαιom*, a knot; *μαιom*, a defeat; *τειom*, a disease, form their nominatives in the same way; and their plural, by adding *ηνα* to the genitive singular, as *αιnanna*, *ηρειanna*, *ναιomanna*, *ρηαιomanna*, *μαιomanna*, *τειomanna*; datives plural by adding *ιβ* to the nominative, as *αιnannaιβ*, *ηρειannaιβ*, *ναιomannaιβ*, *ρηαιomannaιβ*, *μαιomannaιβ*, *τειomannaιβ*.

2. Personal nouns in *οιη*, or *εοιη*, form the nominative plural from the nominative singular by adding *ιθε* in the modern language, and *εθα* in the ancient, as *ρηανοιη*, an old man, nom. pl. *ρηανοιηιθε*, or *ρηενοιηεθα*; and the dat. pl. is formed from the nom. pl., as *ρηανοιηιθιβ*, or *ρηενοιηεθαιβ*.

Haliday forms the nominative plural of nouns of this class in *οιηε*, *ορα*, or *ορκα*; but for these terminations he gives no authority. Dr. Neilson forms it by adding *ιζ*, as *ριζεασοιη*, a weaver, *ριζεασοιηιζ*. But the fact is, that these writers have given these terminations without any written authority, being guided by the pronunciation, or by conjecture, for this termination is written *εθα*, or *εθα*, in ancient manuscripts, and *ιθε* by the best modern writers, as in the following examples in Keating's *History of Ireland*, where *ολιζεεοιη*, a lawyer, is written in the nominative plural *ολιζεεοιηιθε*; and *αιρηεεοιη*, a plunderer, *αιρηεεοιηιθε*; ex. α *η-ολιζεεοιηιθε* *ρεμ ο'α η-ζαριηο* *θρηειοισιαη*, *suos juridicos quos vocant Brehones*, p. 15; *οιηηο αιρηεεοιηιθε* *αιηοιυιθε* *Ειρηιηνακ* *ο'α ο-τιζ*, *revertuntur impudentes grassatores Hiberni domum*, p. 106.

3. The nouns *ηπειεαη*, a judge; *ρειεαη*, a

debtor; *δαίλεα*, a cup-bearer; *φεαλρα*, a philosopher; *οιρεα*, a ploughman, form the nominative plural from the genitive singular by attenuating the final consonant, as *βριτεαμαι*, *φειδεαμαι*, *δαίλεαμαι*, *φεαλραμαι*; and, somewhat contrary to the usual rule, form the dative plural from the nominative singular by adding *ναιβ*, as *βριτεαμναιβ*, *φειδεαμναιβ*, *δαίλεαμναιβ*, *φεαλραμναιβ*.

4. Feminine nouns ending in *η* (short) form the nominative plural from the genitive singular by adding *α*, as *λάη*, a mare, nom. pl. *λάραα*; *λαρη*, a flame, *λαραα*; *οαιη*, an oak, *οαραα*, and, by syncope, in old manuscripts, *οαιηγε*; *μάτηη*, a mother, *μάτραα*, and by attenuation, *μάτρεαα*; *παιη*, a prayer, *παιραα*; *εαρη*, a layer, or litter, *εαραα*. To these may be added the masculines *αταιη*, a father, and *βράταιη*, which make *αιτηε*, or *αιτραα*, and *βράιτηε*, or *βράιτραα*. Of all these the dative plural is formed from the nominative plural by adding *ιβ*, according to the general rule already laid down, p. 87.

5. A few feminine nouns of this declension ending in *η* short, form the nominative plural from the nominative singular by adding *τε*, or *τι*, as *κλυαιη*, a meadow, or bog island, nom. pl. *κλυαιητε*, or *κλυαιητι*; *μόηη*, a bog, *μόηητε*, or *μόηητι*; *τάηη*, a flock, *τάηητε*, or *τάηητι*. These also form the dative plural from the nominative plural, according to the general rule, as *κλυαιητιβ*, *μόηητιβ*, *τάηητιβ*.

PARTICULAR RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE GENITIVE
CASE PLURAL OF NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

The general rule is, that the genitive plural terminates like the nominative singular, but the following are exceptions :

1. When the nominative plural ends in *anna*, the genitive plural is formed from it by dropping the final *α*, as *δατanna*, colours, gen. pl. *να η-δατann*; *μαδ-anna*, defeats, gen. pl. *να μαδmann*; *οροanna*, ridges, or hills, gen. pl. *να η-οροmann*, as *το ο-ταπλα ιμριοσαν εατορρα um feilb na ο-τρι η-οροmann αρ πεαρρι βασι α η-Ειρηνη*, “until a contention arose between them about the possessing of the three best hills in Irelandⁿ.”

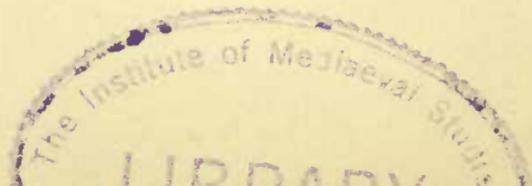
2. Personal nouns in *οιη*, or *οιη*, form the genitive plural from the genitive singular by adding *ς*, as *ρεαν-οιη*, an old man, gen. sing. *ρεανόρα*, gen. pl. *ρεανόρας*, as *αμαλ αρ πολλυ α η-αγαλλαν na ρεανόρας*, “as is clear in the dialogue of the seniors^o.”

3. When the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding *τε*, or *τι*, the genitive plural is formed from the nominative plural by adding *αδ*, and sometimes *οδ*, in the modern language, as *cluan*, *cluanτε*, *να ζ-cluanτεαδ*; *μόιν*, a bog, *μόιντε*, *να μόιντε*; *τάιν*, *τάιντε*, *να ο-τάιντεαδ*.

It may perhaps be said, that this declension comprises so many varieties of formation of the genitive singular and nominative plural, that to class them nominally under the same declension is but

ⁿ Keat. Hist., p. 60.

^o Ibid., p. 29.



of little assistance to the learner. It should, however, be considered that in Latin the third declension, as given in our grammars, merely shews the last syllable of the genitive singular, without laying down rules for the various and uncertain modes in which the additional consonants of the genitive singular are formed from the nominative singular, as in *lac, lactis*; *onus, oneris*; *salus, salutis*; *os, oris*; *os, ossis*; *onus, oneris*; *corpus, corporis*; *lapis, lapidis*; *poema, poematis*; *caput, capit*, &c. And the student must remember, that these various endings of the genitive singular are not learned from a grammar, which merely states that the third declension is known by the genitive singular ending in *is*, and the dative in *i*, but from a dictionary, or from a practical knowledge of the language.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

This declension comprises nouns of the masculine and feminine gender ending in vowels, and which have no final change in the singular number. The nominative plural is generally formed from the singular by adding *ιδε*, or *αιδε*, in the modern language, and *εδα*, or *αδα*, in the ancient; and the dative plural is formed from the nominative plural by adding *ιδ*.

Εαρβα, fem., a defect.

Simple Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. εαρβα.	Nom. εαρβαιδε, or εαρβαδα.
Gen. εαρβα.	Gen. εαρβαδ.
Dat. εαρβα.	Dat. εαρβαιδιδ, or αρβααδιδ.
Voc. α εαρβα.	Voc. α εαρβαιδε, or α εαρβαδα.

Articulated Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. αν εαρβα.	Nom. να η-εαρβαδα.
Gen. να η-εαρβα.	Gen. να η-εαρβαδ.
Dat. ο'η εαρβα.	Dat. ο να η-εαρβααδιδ.

It should be remarked here, that some writers often close words of this description with a quiescent ò, as εαϋβάò. In the ancient manuscripts, instead of the plural termination ιòε, or αιòε, αóa is almost always used, and the ο is generally left unaspirated, as óρ βα h-nmeapτα α n-εαϋβαα, “for their losses were not considerable.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 110. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural by adding ιβ, as υαλτα, a foster-son, nom. pl. υαλταóa, dat. pl. υαλταóaιβ, as φορ μο υαλταóaιβ ρειρη, *Id.*, p. 12, for the modern αρ μο υαλταóaιβ ρέιη, “on my own foster-sons.” But Keating and the Four Masters frequently put ιòε, or υιòε, in the nominative plural, and ίòιβ, or υίòιβ, in the dative plural, as ρε γιòλλυιòιβ, *Keat. Hist.*, p. 144; υο έρηνρίοιβ εαλμαν, “of earthen ramparts.”—*Annals of the Four Masters*, ad. ann. 1600. It is highly probable that the ancients pronounced this termination αóa as two syllables, giving ò a guttural sound. In some parts of Ireland, αρνα, a rib, makes αρναóa in the nominative plural.

To this declension belong all personal nouns in αιòε and αιρε. The former make the nominative plural in αιòεε, as ρναμυιòε, a swimmer, nom. pl. ρναμυιòεε; and the latter in ρεαóa, and, in the modern language, ριòε, as ιαργαιρε, a fisherman, nom. pl. ιαργαιρεαóa, or ιαργαιριòε.

Keating, however, who may be considered one of the last of the correct Irish writers, often writes ρεαóa, as γο ο-τάρλασαρ ιαργαιρεαóa ριρ, “so that fishermen met him.”—*Keat. Hist.*, p. 71.

The termination υιòε is pronounced at present nearly like *uee*, in the English word *queen* (but without any of the consonantal sound of *w*), in the singular; but its plural υιòεε is pronounced short throughout the southern half of Ireland.

Many other nouns of this declension ending in αοι, ιòε, ιγε, form the nominative plural by adding εε, or inserting ε before the final vowel, as òλαοι, a lock of hair;

ῥᾶοι, a learned man; ὄρᾶοι, a druid, ῥῆιγε, a way; βῆιγε, force: ὀλιγε, a law; καρδιε, the heart, which make, in the nominative plural, ὀλαοῖτε, ῥᾶοῖτε, ὄρᾶοῖτε, ῥῆιγῆτε, βῆιγῆτε, ὀλιγῆτε, καρδιῆτε, and in the dative plural ὀλαοῖτις, ῥᾶοῖτις, ὄρᾶοῖτις, ῥῆιγῆτις, βῆιγῆτις, ὀλιγῆτις, καρδιῆτις.

The nouns τειννε, fire; βαῖλε, a town; λέινε, a shirt; αἶνε, a commandment, make, in the nominative plural, τεινντε, βαῖλτε, λέιντε, αἶτεαντα, and in the dative plural τεινντις, βαῖλτις, λέιντις, αἶτεανταῖς.

Ουινε, a person, is quite irregular, making ὀαοινε in the nom. pl. and ὀαοιῖς in the dative plural.

In the province of Connaught, the plural of βαῖλε is made βαῖλτεααῖς, which is very corrupt; and in the same province the termination ῖς is given to many nouns in the plural number, which is never found in correct manuscripts, and which is unknown in other parts of Ireland, as ὀαοιῖς, people, for ὀαοινε. And this termination is used not only in nouns, but even in the passive participles of verbs, as βαῖλτις, for βαῖλτε, or βαῖλτι. The word τειννε, fire, is also rather irregularly inflected in the provinces; it makes να τειννεαν in the genitive singular, and τεινντεαα in the nominative plural, in the county of Kilkenny; but in the province of Connaught it makes να τειννεαῖς (pronounced να τειννιῖς) in the genitive singular, and τεινντις, or τεινντεααῖς, in the nominative plural; and it should be remarked that να τειννεαῖς, the genitive singular form of this word now used in Connaught, is found in ancient manuscripts, as in *Cormac's Glossary, in voce αἶννε*, where we read αἶτε θενεαῖς, "remnants of fire;" and in the *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 141, where we read cloicṅech τeneαῖς, "a steeple (or column) of fire." The word λέινε, a shirt, which has no change at present in the singular number, is found written λενεαῖς in the genitive singular, as in *Cormac's Glossary, voce καμμπε*. The word ῥῆι, a poet, is also sometimes made ῥηεαῖς in the genitive

singular, as Μᾶεν Μᾶς Ἐδαίη ἀνὴρ ἠλεῖαδ, “Moen Mac Edaine, the name of the poet.”—*Cor. Gloss., in voce* Μοῦ εἶμε.

Nouns which end in a long vowel form the nominative plural by adding α, as ἀνήρ, misfortune, nom. pl. ἀνήρα; ἰαργνό, anguish, nom. pl. ἰαργνόα; but a ò is sometimes inserted to prevent a hiatus, as ἀνήροα, ἰαργνοοα.

The genitive plural of this declension is sometimes formed from the nominative singular, and sometimes from the nominative plural; from the former by adding αὐ, as τειννε, fire, gen. pl. να ὀ-τεινεαὐ, “of the fires^p ;” κοῖναπλε, a council, gen. pl. να ἡ-κοῖναπλεαὐ, or να ἡ-κοῖναπλιοῦ^q; Κόλλα, a man’s name, να ὀ-τρί ἡ-Κόλλα, “of the three Collas^r ;” φίλε, a poet, πούλτα να ὀ-φίλιο, “the star of the poets^s ;” φέιννε, a hero; ο ρρῦιτ-λινντιβ πόλα να ὀ-φέιννιο, “from the streams of the blood of the heroes^t.” But when the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding τε, or τε, the genitive plural should be formed from it by adding αὐ, as να μ-βαίλτεαὐ, να ὀ-τεινντεαὐ, να ραοίτεαὐ; and when the nominative plural ends in αὐα, the genitive plural should be, and is, by the best writers, formed from it, by dropping the α, as εαφβαὐα, wants, gen. pl. να η-εαφβαὐ. It should be observed that some words are very irregular in forming this case, as ὀραιο, a druid, which makes να η-ὀραιο, and ραιο, a learned man, να ραιο, though

^p Keat. Hist., p. 95.

^q Id., p. 97.

^r Id., p. 99.

^s Id., p. 114.

^t Id., p. 146.

some authors would write them $\eta\alpha$ η - $\theta\rho\alpha\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\theta$, $\eta\alpha$ $\rho\alpha\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\theta$.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

This declension comprises nouns of the feminine, and some of the masculine gender, which add a consonant, generally η , or $\eta\eta$, in the genitive singular, and are attenuated in the dative. The nominative plural is generally formed from the genitive singular by eliding the vowel preceding η , and adding α ; but some nouns of this declension form their plurals rather irregularly.

Λάναμα, fem., a married couple.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. λάναμα.	Nom. λάναμα.
Gen. λάναμαν.	Gen. λάναμαν.
Dat. λάναματι.	Dat. λάναμασι.
Voc. α λάναμα.	Voc. α λάναμα.

In this manner are declined $\upsilon\lambda\alpha$, beard; $\kappa\epsilon\alpha\tau\epsilon\rho\alpha\mu\alpha$, a quarter; $\epsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\theta\alpha$, science; $\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho\eta$, the palm of the hand; $\iota\sigma\epsilon\lambda\alpha$, a hay-yard; $\kappa\upsilon\mu\lambda\epsilon$, a vein; $\upsilon\iota\lambda\lambda\epsilon$, an elbow; $\kappa\omicron\mu\alpha\rho\rho\alpha$, a neighbour; $\mu\epsilon\alpha\eta\mu\alpha$, the mind; $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho\alpha$, a person; $\upsilon\rho\rho\alpha$, the jamb of a door; $\upsilon\iota\lambda\epsilon$, a flood. But $\gamma\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha$, a shoulder; $\alpha\rho\alpha$, the kidney; $\gamma\omicron\beta\alpha$, a smith; $\lambda\epsilon\alpha\kappa\alpha$, a cheek; $\iota\eta\gamma\alpha$, a nail (of the finger, &c.); $\lambda\upsilon\rho\gamma\alpha$, the shin, are attenuated in the nominative plural, and make $\gamma\upsilon\alpha\lambda\eta\epsilon$, $\acute{\alpha}\rho\eta\epsilon$, $\gamma\omicron\beta\eta\epsilon$, $\lambda\epsilon\iota\kappa\eta\epsilon$, $\iota\eta\gamma\eta\epsilon$, $\lambda\upsilon\rho\gamma\eta\epsilon$; and in the dative plural, $\gamma\upsilon\alpha\lambda\eta\sigma\iota$, $\acute{\alpha}\rho\eta\sigma\iota$, $\lambda\epsilon\iota\kappa\eta\sigma\iota$, &c.

$\tau\epsilon\alpha\eta\gamma\alpha$, a tongue, makes in the nominative plural $\tau\epsilon\alpha\eta\gamma\epsilon\alpha$, and in the dative plural $\tau\epsilon\alpha\eta\gamma\epsilon\alpha\sigma\iota$.

The genitive plural of these nouns is exactly like the genitive singular, as $\gamma\epsilon\rho\iota\tau\epsilon\rho$ $\alpha\lambda\tau\acute{\alpha}\nu$ $\beta\epsilon\rho\rho\epsilon\alpha$ $\rho\alpha\epsilon\theta\upsilon\rho$ α $\lambda\upsilon\rho\gamma\alpha\eta$, "sharper than a razor was the edge of their shins," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 20; $\mu\eta\mu\epsilon$ $\mu\epsilon\eta\mu\alpha\eta$, "madness of mind," *Id.*, p. 32.

The following names of places (which want the plural number,

except Αρα , which makes Αρνε) belong to this declension: Αβα , Scotland; Αρα , the island of Aran; Ταλλτε , Teltown, in Meath; Ειρε , Ireland; Ραιοιρε , Reelion, in the county Kildare; and Αλμα , Allen, in Kildare; which make in the genitive singular, Αβαν , Αραν , Ταλλτεαν , Ειρεαν , Ραιοιρεαν , Αλμαν ; and in the dative, Αβαν , Αραν , Ταλλτειν , Ειριν , Ραιοιριν , Αλμαν .

Λαα , a duck, makes να λααν in the genitive singular and genitive plural, and λααμ in the nominative plural; κυ , a greyhound, with its compounds, makes, gen. sing. con , dat. sing. com , and nom. pl. comτε ; βρό , a quern, or handmill, βρόν , βρόιν , βρόιντε ; βο , a cow, βο , βοιν , βα , and dat. pl. βουαβ , as λάν οε βουαβ , οορ γροίγιβ , οορ τάιντιβ , “full of cows, flocks, and herds.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 80.

There are a few nouns which some Irish writers inflect as if they belonged to this declension, while others inflect them as if they belonged to the fourth, as πίε , a poet; αίρηα , an elegy; βιαάα , life; αρηα , a charioteer; βιοόβα , an enemy; ρι , a king; and a few others, but the inflections of these nouns are not settled, and have been inflected differently by the best Irish writers, for example, one writes ρί , a king, ριζ , and preserves that form unaltered throughout the singular number; another makes ρι in the nominative, ριζ in the genitive, and ριζτε in the plural, while a third, for the sake of distinction, writes ρί in the nom. sing., ριζ in the gen. sing., ρίοζα in the nom. pl., and να ρίοζ in the gen. pl. Some write βιαάα , life, in the nom. sing., βιαάο in the gen. sing., and βιαάο in the dat. sing.; while others write βιαάα throughout all the cases of the singular.

The noun αρηα , a friend, makes αρηαο in the gen. sing., αρηαο in the dat. sing., and αρηοε in the nom. pl., as $\text{νι η-αρηοί αρηαο αρ έαρηαο}$, “it is not the request of a friend from a friend.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 106. And in like manner are inflected βράζα , the neck; Νυαάα , a man's name; but some writers make these βράζαο , Νυαααε , in the nominative singular. Such nouns are therefore unsettled as to the forms of their nominative singular and inflections; poets have always used such of the forms as answered their measures and rhymes.

OF IRREGULAR SUBSTANTIVES.

The following nouns are quite irregular, and do not properly come under any of the above declensions, viz., *Ḑia*, God; *lá*, a day; *cnu*, a nut; *ua*, or *O*, a grandson; *za*, a javelin; *mí*, a mouth; *caora*, a sheep; *cró*, a hovel; *bprú*, the womb; *bean*, a woman; *ceo*, a fog; *cré*, clay; which are declined as follows:

Ḑia, masc., God.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. <i>Ḑia</i> .	Nom. <i>Ḑee</i> , or <i>Ḑéiṛe</i> .
Gen. <i>Ḑe</i> .	Gen. <i>Ḑia</i> , or <i>Ḑéiṛeaḑ</i> .
Dat. <i>Ḑia</i> .	Dat. <i>Ḑéiḑ</i> , or <i>Ḑéiṛiḑ</i> .
Voc. <i>a Ḑhé</i> , or <i>Ḑhia</i> .	Voc. <i>a Ḑhee</i> , or <i>Ḑhéiṛe</i> .

Lá, masc., a day.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. <i>lá</i> .	Nom. <i>laeṛa</i> , or <i>láiṛe</i> .
Gen. <i>lae</i> , or <i>laoi</i> .	Gen. <i>laeṛaḑ</i> , or <i>láiṛe</i> .
Dat. <i>lá</i> , or <i>ló</i> .	Dat. <i>laeṛaiḑ</i> , or <i>láiṛiḑ</i> .
Voc. <i>a lá</i> , <i>lae</i> , or <i>laoi</i> .	Voc. <i>a laeṛa</i> , or <i>láiṛe</i> .

Láiṛe is the form of the nominative plural generally found in good manuscripts, but *laeṛa* is also to be met with; and in the spoken language in most parts of Munster it is made *laioṛanta*.—See *Lynch's Introduction to the Irish Language*, p. 9. It is sometimes made *láiṛe* in the genitive plural, without the characteristic termination *aḑ*, as *pér an oibpuiṛaḑ roineamail pé láiṛe*, “after the glorious work of six days.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 94.

Cno, masc., a nut.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. cno.	Nom. cnoa, cna, cnaí.
Gen. cno, cnuí.	Gen. cnoò, cnuò.
Dat. cno, cnu.	Dat. cnoaib, cnaib.
Voc. a cno, cnuí.	Voc. a cnoa.

O, or Ua, masc., a grandson, or descendant.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. o, or ua.	Nom. uí, í.
Gen. uí, or í.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. uib, íb.
Voc. a uí, or a í.	Voc. a uí, or aí.

The Vocative is generally uí, as A uí Ainmíreach , "O grandson of Ainmire," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 14; A uí Ruópaige , "O descendant of Rudhraighe," *Id.*, p. 204.

Ḫa, masc., a spear, or javelin.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. Ḫa.	Nom. Ḫaoi, Ḫaéa, Ḫaoíte.
Gen. Ḫaí, Ḫaoi.	Gen. Ḫaé, Ḫaéaò, Ḫaoíteaò.
Dat. Ḫa, Ḫaí.	Dat. Ḫaoib, Ḫaéaib, Ḫaoíteib.
Voc. a Ḫa, Ḫaoi.	Voc. Ḫaéa, Ḫaoíte.

This noun is also correctly written Ḫaé, in the nominative, but in ancient manuscripts Ḫa occurs more frequently, as Ḫo poíbe cpú a cpíoi for pínò in Ḫaí, "so that his heart's blood was on the head of the javelin," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 36; forḪum oò Ḫaí, "a cast of a javelin," *Annals of Tighernach*, *ad. an.* 234.

Mí, fem., a month.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. mí.	Nom. míora.
Gen. míora, mír.	Gen. míor.
Dat. mír, mí.	Dat. míoraib, míra, míru.
Voc. a mí.	Voc. a míora.

A meòon mír Mái , "in the middle of the month of May," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 106; fpi epí míra , *Id.*, p. 24.

Ἰαορα, fem., a sheep.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. Ἰαορα.	Nom. Ἰαοριξ.
Gen. Ἰαοραῖ.	Gen. Ἰαοραῖ.
Dat. Ἰαορα.	Dat. Ἰαοραῖς.
Voc. Ἰαορα.	Voc. Ἰαορα.

Ἰρυ, fem., the womb.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. Ἰρυ.	Nom. Ἰρωνα.
Gen. Ἰρωνα, or Ἰρυννε.	Gen. Ἰρων.
Dat. Ἰρων.	Dat. Ἰρωναῖς.
Voc. Ἰρυ.	Voc. Ἰρωνα.

Ἰεαν, fem., a woman.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. Ἰεαν.	Nom. Ἰνά.
Gen. Ἰνά.	Gen. Ἰαν.
Dat. Ἰναῖ.	Dat. Ἰναῖς.
Voc. Ἰεαν.	Voc. Ἰνά.

Ἰεο, a fog, makes *Ἰεαῖ* in the genitive singular; *Ἰεῖ*, clay, makes *Ἰεαῖ*; and *Ἰερό*, a hut, makes gen. sing. *Ἰεροι*, and nom. pl. *Ἰεοῖτε*^u.

CHAPTER III.

ADJECTIVES.

SECTION I.—*Declensions of Nouns Adjective.*

THERE are four declensions of adjectives, which are determined by the characteristic vowel, thus :

^u Keat. Hist., p. 94.

FIRST DECLENSION.

Adjectives ending in consonants, and having their characteristic vowel broad, are of the first declension, and are inflected, in the masculine gender, like the first declension of substantives, except that they always form the plural by adding α . In the feminine they are declined like the second declension of substantives.

Example.—Μόρι, great.

Singular.

MASC.	FEM.
Nom. μόρι.	Nom. μόρι.
Gen. μόρι.	Gen. μόριε.
Dat. μόρι.	Dat. μόρι.
Voc. μόρι.	Voc. μόρι.

Plural.

Nom. μόρια.	Nom. μόρια.
Gen. μόρι.	Gen. μόρι.
Dat. μόρια.	Dat. μόρια.
Voc. μόρια.	Voc. μόρια.

A few dissyllabic words of this declension are contracted in the genitive singular of the feminine, and in the nominative plural, as $\upsilon\alpha\rho\alpha\iota$, noble, $\upsilon\alpha\rho\iota\epsilon$; $\upsilon\mu\alpha\iota$, humble, $\upsilon\mu\iota\epsilon$, $\upsilon\mu\iota\alpha$; $\rho\epsilon\alpha\mu\alpha\rho$, fat, $\rho\epsilon\iota\mu\mu\epsilon$, $\rho\epsilon\alpha\mu\mu\alpha$; and some others.

The initial letter of the adjective, if an aspirable consonant, must be aspirated in the nominative, dative, and vocative of feminines, and in the genitive and dative, and vocative singular, and nominative plural of masculines. When the article is expressed, the genitive plural of the substantive, and its adjective, suffers eclipsis, and the dative singular of the substantive, as already

remarked, suffers eclipsis after all the simple prepositions, except *de* and *do*; and in this case also the initial of the adjective is eclipsed as well as that of the substantive, as *o'n m-baile g-céadna*, from the same town.

In ancient Irish manuscripts the dative plural of adjectives, as well as of substantives, often terminates in *b*, or *ab*. This termination is very generally used in the old Irish historical tale called *Tain Bo Cuailgne*, of which there is a good copy preserved in *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, and sometimes also in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, as *le h-orpab impropab*, “with heavy sledges,” p. 238; *orpber a oi boirp im aib lecnib*, “he places his two palms on his two cheeks,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Imbar for opnae*. It is occasionally used even by the *Four Masters*, as in the following passage, at the year 1597: *Ro gabrae Dia Luam, Dia Maip, agur Dia Ceudaim ag uibraab an baile do abraib propab, topann-mopab teinntige a gonnabab gub-arpab*, i. e. “on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday they continued to shoot at the castle with fiery heavy balls from their loud-roaring guns.”

This termination is, however, never found in modern Irish books, and no trace of it is discoverable in the spoken language of the present day, except when the adjective is put substantively, as *do boab*, to the poor, &c.

Some writers form the plural of adjectives of this declension like that of substantives of the first declension, as in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 22: *ap bio impropaig firu Epenn impi*, “for the men of Ireland will be quarrelsome at it;” but no trace of this mode of inflection is found in the spoken language.—See *Syntax*.

SECOND DECLENSION.

Adjectives ending in consonants, and having their characteristic vowel small, belong to this declension. The genitive singular feminine, and nominative plural of both genders are formed by postfixing *e* to the nominative singular. The genitive singular masculine never

takes any terminational change, as in the following example :

Example.—Mín, smooth.

Singular.

MASC.	FEM.
Nom. mín.	Nom. mín.
Gen. mín.	Gen. míne.
Dat. mín.	Dat. mín.
Voc. mín.	Voc. mín.

Plural.

Nom. míne.	Nom. míne.
Gen. mín.	Gen. mín.
Dat. míne.	Dat. míne.
Voc. míne.	Voc. míne.

Some dissyllabic nouns of this declension are contracted in the genitive singular feminine, and in the nominative plural of both genders, as *mílŕ*, sweet, gen. sing. fem. *mílpe*; *aoiòmn*, delightful, gen. sing. fem. *aoiòne*; *áluonn*, beautiful, gen. sing. fem. *álné*, and sometimes *áulle*.

THIRD DECLENSION.

To this declension belong all adjectives terminating in *amál*; they suffer syncope and take a broad increase in the genitive singular and nominative plural of both genders, and in the dative and vocative plural of both genders.

Example.—*Ĝeanmál*, lovely.

Singular.

MASC.	FEM.
Nom. <i>ĝeanamál.</i>	Nom. <i>ĝeanamál.</i>
Gen. <i>ĝeanamla.</i>	Gen. <i>ĝeanamla.</i>
Dat. <i>ĝeanamál.</i>	Dat. <i>ĝeanamál.</i>
Voc. <i>ĝeanamál.</i>	Voc. <i>ĝeanamál.</i>

Plural.

MASC.	FEM.
Nom. ζεανᾶμλα.	Nom. ζεανᾶμλα.
Gen. ζεανᾶμλᾱι.	Gen. ζεανᾶμλᾱι.
Dat. ζεανᾶμλα.	Dat. ζεανᾶμλα.
Voc. ζεανᾶμλα.	Voc. ζεανᾶμλα.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

This declension comprises all adjectives ending in vowels. They have no terminational change in the modern language^v.

Example.—Ὀνα, miserable.

Singular.

MASC.	FEM.
Nom. ὄνα.	Nom. ὄνα.
Gen. ὄνα.	Gen. ὄνα.
Dat. ὄνα.	Dat. ὄνα.
Voc. ὄνα.	Voc. ὄνα.

SECTION 2.—*Adjectives declined with Nouns.*

Adjectives beginning with mutable consonants are aspirated in the nominative singular feminine and in the genitive singular masculine, and also in the vocative singular of both genders; also in the nominative plural masculine if the noun ends in a consonant. When the article is expressed some writers aspirate and eclipse the

^v The only exception in the modern language is the word *τεῖς*, hot, which makes *τεό* in the plural. In the ancient language some exceptions to this rule may be met with, as *βεο*, living, gen. sing. *βι*, as in *Μακ* *Ὁε βι*, Son of the living God.

adjective like the substantive to which it belongs; but this, although perhaps more correct, is not general in the written or spoken language.

EXAMPLES OF A SUBSTANTIVE DECLINED WITH ITS ADJECTIVE.

Fear tréan (masc.), a puissant man.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. an fear tréan.	Nom. na fir éréana.
Gen. an fir éréin.	Gen. na b-fear d-tréan.
Dat. ó'n b-fear éréan, or d-tréan.	Dat. ó na fearaib éréana.
Voc. a fir éréin.	Voc. a feara tréana.

Súil gorm (fem.), a blue eye.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. an t-súil gorm.	Nom. na rúile gorma.
Gen. na rúla gorme.	Gen. na rúl n-gorm.
Dat. do'n t-súil gorm.	Dat. do na rúilib gorma.
Voc. a rúil gorm.	Voc. a rúile gorma.

The late Mr. James Scurry, in his Review of Irish Grammars, published in vol. xv. of the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, p. 50, says, that “the dative singular of the adjective should be eclipsed, instead of being aspirated, when the article is used, except *m* or *r* followed by any consonant, except *l*, *n*, or *p*, as *do'n b-fear m-breag*, &c. In the plural number, the genitive masculine and feminine must suffer eclipse, instead of aspiration, as *na m-ban m-breag*; and the genitive singular masculine must not be eclipsed, but aspirated, as *an duine dobrónaic*, *an fir breag*; and it retains its natural power in the genitive feminine, as *na bo báine*.” The critic is here generally correct, but he should have acknowledged that, in most parts of Ireland, the preposition *do* causes aspiration, and that some writers aspirate the dative or ablative after the article, as *laim fir an Gharran ardo*, “near Garranard.”—*Duald Mac Firbis, Tribes, &c., of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 336. It should be re-

marked here, that consonants are aspirated in the plural merely for the sake of euphony, and not to distinguish the gender; for whenever the noun to which the adjective belongs terminates in a vowel, the initial consonant of the adjective retains its natural sound, as *ceolta* *binne*, sweet melodies. But when the plural of the noun terminates in a consonant, then the initial of the adjective is aspirated, as *fir móra*, great men. In the genitive plural, when the article is expressed, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed, as well as that of the noun, as *ceannuir na g-coig g-coigiuð*, “the sovereignty of the five provinces,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 22; *ó Shionann na n-garróa n-glan*, “from the Shannon of fine fields,” *Id.*, p. 24; *α g-cionn reacè m-bliaðna n-deg*, “at the end of seventeen years,” *Id.*, p. 35; *ceangal na g-cúig g-caol*, “the fettering of the five smalls,” *Id.*, p. 79; *ðan na m-ban n-ðær*, “the fate or lot of the bondwomen,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Cumal*. And when the adjective begins with a vowel, it has *n* prefixed, as *na b-feap n-álunn*, of the fair men. Some writers also eclipse the initial of the adjective, as well as that of the noun to which it belongs, in the dative or ablative case, when the article is expressed, as *tið for uðoar oile pe Seanúir ar an g-comáir-ionn g-ceudna*, “another historical author agrees with the same computation,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 27; *uir an b-feap g-crièir g-com-lán*, “with the fiery portly hero,” *Id.*, p. 45; *ðar foèruið ar an ð-tuinn ð-treim*, “as he bathed in the mighty flood,” *Id.*, *ibid.*; *ʔran b-fairge g-caoil téib ir m aigein*, “in the narrow sea which goes into the ocean,” *Id.*, p. 29. When the noun begins with a vowel, and the adjective with a consonant, the *n* is not prefixed to the noun, because the *n* of the article is enough to answer the sound, as *αð ro mar èið reançaiðe oile leir an áriuom g-céudna*, “thus another historian agrees with the same computation,” *Id.*, *ibid.* Where it is to be observed that, according to the strict grammatical principle, *leir an áriuom g-ceudna* should be *leir an n-áriuom g-ceudna*. But there are some who think that in this, and such similar sentences, the *n* belongs to the initial vowel of the noun, and that the *α* stands for the article; and that it should therefore be printed *leir α' n-áriuom g-ceudna*: and doubtlessly

this would represent the grammatical principle with sufficient clearness, though it would perhaps be better to use the *n* of the article and the vocal prefix, or eclipsing *n*, together. When the substantive begins with a consonant, and the adjective with a vowel, the euphonic *n* is placed before the adjective by some writers, and as often omitted by others. When the initial of the adjective is *r* pure, some writers prefix *τ* to it in the dative or ablative, as *ῥ* *αν* *δοιμαν* *τ-ροιν*, in the eastern world.

When the substantive and adjective both begin with consonants admitting of eclipsis, some will eclipse both in the articulated dative, or ablative singular, as *οῖν* *β-ρορε* *ηγλαν*, from the fine bank, or fort; while others will eclipse the substantive, and aspirate the adjective, as *αῖ* *αν* *η-ῤρειξ* *μεαδόναιξ*, *.i.* Migdonia, *ρο* *ηλουαρ* *Παρτζαλόν*, “from Middle Greece, i. e. Migdonia, Partholan set out.” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 30.

Some writers aspirate the articulated dative of the noun, and eclipse the adjectives belonging to it, as *ῥ* *ιν* *πορε* *ιαε-γλαν* *ηγορμ* *ηγλε*, “in the fair-landed, blue, fair port,” *Id.*, p. 31. But this is very irregular, and not to be imitated.

Mr. Scurry was of opinion that the analogies of the language declared for eclipsis in this instance, and that Irish scholars should agree in adopting it. But he had no reason for this but the following, which he often stated to the writer, namely, that the adoption of eclipsis in this instance would tend to make the language regular, and more easily learned, and that eclipsis tends to give more nerve and strength to the language than aspiration; for example, that *δοῖν* *β-ρεαρ* (*doῖn var*), to the man, as it is spoken in the county of Kilkenny, preserves more of the root of the word and of the force of the language than *δοῖν* *ῥιορ* (*doῖn ir*), or *δοῖν* *ῥεαρ* (*doῖn ar*), as spoken in other parts of Ireland. It must be acknowledged, however, that *δοῖν* *ῥιορ*, or *δοῖν* *ῥεαρ*, is more supported by the authority of the written language, and more general in the living language throughout Ireland.—See the *Syntax*.

EXAMPLE OF AN ADJECTIVE BEGINNING WITH A VOWEL DE-
CLINED WITH A SUBSTANTIVE.

Αἰλλ ἄρῶ (fem.), a high cliff.

SINGULAR.

Nom. αν αἰλλ ἄρῶ.

Gen. να η-αἰλλ ἄρῶε.

Dat. ο'η αἰλλ ἄρῶ.

Voc. α αἰλλ ἄρῶ.

PLURAL.

Nom. αἰλλε ἄρῶα.

Gen. να η-αἰλλ η-ἄρῶα.

Dat. ὄο να η-αἰλλεῖβ ἄρῶα.

Voc. α αἰλλε ἄρῶα.

The late Mr. Scurry, already referred to, was of opinion that, according to the analogy of this language, the articulated dative or ablative singular should be always eclipsed when beginning with a consonant, and should have *n* prefixed when with a vowel, and that we should write ὄο'η η-αἰλλ η-ἄρῶα, not ὄο'η αἰλλ ἄρῶα, as laid down in the text. But the writer, after a careful investigation of ancient and modern manuscripts, and of the spoken Irish language in every part of Ireland, has not been able to find any authority for this mode of inflection; although it must be acknowledged that some writers frequently prefix *n* to adjectives beginning with vowels, not only in the dative or ablative, but even in the nominative.

SECTION 3.—*The Degrees of Comparison.*

There are in this, as well as in all languages, three degrees of comparison, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

The form of the adjective to express the comparative degree is the same as that which denotes the superlative, and they are distinguished from each other by

the structure of the sentence^w. In the modern language the form of the adjective, which denotes these degrees, in all regular adjectives, including even those terminating in *ανάλη*, is like the genitive singular feminine, as *λευκή*, white; *λευκότε*, whiter; *αντις οτις οτις λευκότε* αν *οτις*, the whitest thing in the world.

In all perfect sentences the comparative is usually followed by *ονα*, than, and when preceded in the sentence by any verb, except the assertive verb *οτις*, it has *νις* prefixed. The superlative is preceded by the article, as in the French language, or the assertive verb *οτις*, and followed by such words or phrases as *οτις*, or *οτις*, of; *αμεταξυ*, amongst; *αντις*, in the world, in existence; as *τα ρε νις μις ονα μις*, it is sweeter than honey, or *οτις μις ε ονα μις*; *ταλαμι οτις οτις οτις οταλαμι οτις οτις*, “lower land between two higher lands, *Cor. Gloss., voce Οταλαμι*; *αντις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, “the shortest day in the year;” *οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, “thou art the fairest of women;” *οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, “he was the fairest of the men of the world, both in his countenance and attire,” *Id., voce Οτις οτις*; *οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, “it is named after the most remarkable colour,” *Id., voce Οτις οτις*; *οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, “as best they were able,” *Battle of Magh Rath, p. 222.*

When the assertive verb *οτις*, or *οτις*, begins the sentence, *νις* cannot be used, as *οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, I am better than thou. The particle *νις* is a contraction of the noun *νις*, or *νις*, a thing, and the assertive verb *οτις*, and is often found written as two words in very ancient manuscripts, as *οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις οτις*, “though a prince

^w This appears a defect in the language, but it should be borne in mind that the Irish is not more defective in this particular than the French, in which no change takes place in the adjective to denote either the comparative or superlative degree, and where the

Englishman says *grand, grander, grandest*, the Frenchman says *grand, plus grand, le plus grand*, the superlative being distinguished from the comparative by the prefixed article and the definitive phrase which follows in the sentence.

should ask more," *Poem attributed to St. Columbkille*, preserved in H. 3. 18, p. 320. It is sometimes written *νιαρ*, *νιρα*, and *νι-βυρ*. The preterite form of *ιρ* is also often found after *νί*, as in the following sentence: *Ράϊοιο να Ρομάναιζ ρίυ ανη ριν ιαρ να β-φυρταετ οόιβ, ναααρ ροάαρ οόιβ ρέιν τεαετ αρ εαετρα νί βα μό ο'ά ζ-αβρύζαο*, "the Romans then said to them, after having relieved them, that it was no advantage to themselves to come *any more* upon an expedition to relieve them," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 206; *αν ταν οο εόγραο νί βα μο οο οευναμ*, "when he desired to do more," *Id.*, p. 121.—See the *Syntax*, Part II., Sect. 2, for the construction of the comparatives.

Another form of the comparative in *τερ*, or *τιρ*, frequently occurs in ancient manuscripts, but of which no trace is observable in the present spoken language. The following examples of its use will give the learner a sufficient idea of its nature and construction: *ουιβιτερ όρ ρινο α ριααλ*, "yellower than gold *were* the points of his teeth," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *ρpull*; *μεοιτερ οορνα μοζαο α ουρνα*, "larger than the fists of slaves *were* his fists," *Id.*; *ζιλετερ ροάοναο α λαρραρ ριυμ*, "brighter than burning firewood *was* its flame," *Id.* voce *ροάοναο*; *ιρ ζλαρσοιρ βυζα μο αλα ρύιλ, ιρ ουβι-ετιρ ορπιυμ ιν οαίλ ιν τ-ρυιλ αιλε*, "bluer than the hyacinth *was* the one eye, blacker than the back of the beetle *was* the other eye," *Leabhar na Huidhri*; *τρι μιλε αεολ η-εραμαιλ αεά οεν αλαρ-ραά ριλ οα αλαραεαυλ ιμμε, οαυρ βιμνιηερ ιλχεολυ οομαιν αεά αεολ ρο λειη οιβριοε*, "three hundred different kinds of music in each choir which chants music around him; sweeter than the various strains of the world is each kind of them," *Visio Adamnani, Leabhar Breac*, fol. 127, *b, b*; *οαυρ νο ληγοίρ ρριρ ιν οο-ραο έαενη μόρα, βα μεοιτερ αλρταυζ ριρινο αεά έαενη οιβ*, and large salmon used to leap the weir, "larger than bull heifers each salmon of them" (H. 2. 16. p. 392.) *θα ζιλιεαρ ρνεαάτα α άυρρ, βα οεργαετερ λοιρι αορρα α ζηυιρ*, "whiter than snow *was* his body, ruddier than the flame the sheen of his cheek," *Vit. Moling*; *βα ζιλιεοιρ ρνεαάτα α ρύιλε αζυρ α β-ριααλα, αζυρ βα ουιβιεοιρ ζυαλ ζαβονη ζαά ball ειλε οίοβ*, "whiter than snow their eyes and their teeth, and blacker than the smith's coal every other part of them,"

Keat. Hist., p. 149. The reader is also referred to Observations on the Gaelic Language, published in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, pp. 36, 37, and to the Battle of Magh Rath, published by the Irish Archæological Society, pp. 20, 64, where several other examples of this form of the comparative degree will be found. This form comprises in it the force of the conjunction *ιονά*, than, or of the ablative case in Latin; thus, *ḡilítep pneaáca* expresses the same idea as *níor ḡile ioná pneaáca*, whiter *than* snow, *candidior nive*. When the noun following this comparative is of the feminine gender it is always in the dative or ablative, from which it is quite clear that the construction is the same as that of the Latin, when the ablative case is used after the comparative; thus, *ḡilítep ḡéip*, whiter *than* the swan, is of the same construction as *candidior cycno*.

Sometimes the preposition *ppu* is placed after this form of the adjective and between it and the noun, in which case it expresses a comparison of equality, as *ḡlaipítep ppu buḡa*, green *as* the hyacinth; *meoítep ppu mulba oi áppaic*, large *as* a mass of a rock. Some Irish grammarians, as the late Mr. Scurry, and from him the anonymous author of an Irish Grammar lately published in Dublin, have attempted to account for this form by stating that it is an amalgamation of an abstract noun formed from the adjective and the preposition *tap*, beyond; so that according to them *ḡilítep ḡpéin*, when properly analysed, and literally translated, would be "a brightness *beyond*, i. e. exceeding the sun." In my opinion, however, this conjecture is far from being true, for the preposition *ppu*, the *lé* of the moderns, which is often found immediately following this form, shews that *tep* could not be a preposition, but that it must be regarded as a termination of the adjective, like the English *ter* in *better*, and the Greek *τερος*. Haliday, who had some acquaintance with the Persian language, thinks that it is the same as the Persian comparative in *tar*, as *khub*, *khubtar*, fairer, which he supposes cognate with the Irish *caém*, *caiméip*. For a curious disquisition on the terminations of the comparative degree in general, the reader is referred to "The English language," by Professor Latham, c. viii. p. 235, *et sequent*.

The signification of the adjective is heightened by various particles prefixed, as γάρ, πρό, πίστις, αη, ύη, &c., but these do not constitute degrees of comparison, or, at least, what is understood by the term in the grammars of other languages.

Hence the Rev. Paul O'Brien is mistaken in his notion that the bards, "in the glow of poetic rapture, upon the common superlative raised a second comparative and superlative, and on the second also raised a third comparative and superlative." This, however, is an error of the grammarian's own judgment, founded in ignorance of the philosophy of language. We might as well call such phrases in Latin, as *valde bonum, facile princeps, &c.* second comparatives or superlatives.

The preposition οε, of, is often postfixed to the comparative form of the adjective, so as to form a synthetic union with it; thus, γλιουε, the whiter of; ριαουε, the longer of; ρεπρουε, the better of.

This should not be considered a second form of the comparative, as Stewart, and from him Haliday, have stated, but a mere idiomatic junction of οε, i. e. οε ε, of it, with the comparative form of the adjective, which has nothing to do with the nature of the adjective more than if it were separated from it, for η ρεπρουε εϋ ρη, "thou art the better of that," can bear to be resolved to η ρεπρ εϋ οε ρη, *es melius tu de eo*, from which we clearly perceive that ρεπρουε is not a second form of the comparative degree.—See the *Syntax*, Part II., Sect. 2.

When adjectives are compounded with particles, or other adjectives, the prefixed word or particle aspirates the initial consonant (if aspirable) of the word to which it is prefixed, as γάρ-ματ, exceedingly good; ρίη-γλιε, truly cunning, or acute.

O'Molloy and O'Brien, both natives of Meath, have made an

exception to this rule, but it is at present general in the south and west of Ireland. The local exceptions, which are chiefly made for the sake of euphony, shall be pointed out in the Syntax, and in Chap. X., treating of derivation and composition.

The following adjectives are irregular in their comparison; that is, they do not form their comparatives like the genitive singular feminine of their positives :

POSITIVE.		COMPARATIVE.
beaz,	little,	níor luḡa.
ḡaba,	long,	níor ḡaibe, or ḡia, or ḡípe ^x .
ḡupur, or urur,	} easy,	níor ura, or ḡura.
ḡogur,		
ḡeapp,	short,	níor ḡioḡpa.
ḡar,	near,	níor ḡoipe.
maic̃, or beaz̃,	} good,	níor ḡeápp, or beach ^z .
mínic,		
mór,	great,	níor mó.
olc,	bad,	níor meara.
teic̃,	hot,	níor teo.
iomóa,	many,	níor lia, more ^b . níor túrca, or taorḡa, sooner ^c .

^x Cor. Gloss., voce Air.

^y Keat. Hist., p. 160. Neara, though not used in the present spoken language, is of frequent occurrence in all the Irish MSS., as Aira airḡir ar neḡra so Eirinn, "Ara airḡir is the nearest to Ireland."—Cor. Gloss., in voce Air.

^z Deac̃: ir é luam ar beach boi a n-iarḡhar Eorpa, Cor. Gloss., voce Manannan.

^a ḡaica míonca so ḡinnioð

uirḡe, "as often as he used to play upon it," Keat. Hist., p. 71; ar a míonca so beirioð buaið ḡ-corḡair, Keat. Hist., p. 72; ar a menci, Cor. Gloss., voce Cim.

^b Battle of Magh Rath, p. 204.

^c Id., p. 12; written taorḡa, by Keat. in Hist., p. 50; but túrca in the Battle of Magh Rath, p. 12. The word has no positive in the modern language; luac̃ is now used to signify soon.

SECTION 3.—Of Numeral Adjectives.

As the cardinal and ordinal numbers have an influence on the nouns with which they are connected, a list of them is here subjoined. In the ordinals the substantive is placed between the unit and the decimal.

CARDINAL.

1. αση, έαν, as αση έορ, one foot.
2. οο, όά, οι, as όά έορ.
3. τρί, τεορα^g, as τρί έορα.
4. τεάταιρ, τείτερε, τείτεορα, as τείτερε έορα.
5. κύιγ, as κύιγ έορα.
6. ρέ, as ρέ έορα.

ORDINAL.

- 1st. έέασ, as αν έέασ έορ^d.
- 2nd. οαρα, or τάναιρτε, as αν οαρα έορ^f.
- 3rd. τρεαρ, as αν τρεαρ έορ.
- 4th. τεάτραμάσ, as αν τεάτραμάσ έορ.
- 5th. κύιγεασ, as αν κύιγεασ έορ.
- 6th. ρειρεασ.

^d In ancient MSS., έέσ, τάναιρτε, τρεαρ, are used for the modern έέασ, οαρα, τρεαρ, as In έέσ λέιμ τρα πο λινγ ήρ βο μό leo h-é ná ριαχ έορ beinn enuicc; an λέιμ τάναιρτε πο λινγ ηί ράσασαρ ετιρ h-έ, ocyr ní ρεαταταρ ηη α νείμ νο'η α ταλνίμ οο έοιό; an τρεαρ λέιμ umoppo ρα λινγ ηρ ανσ οο παλα h-e έορ αμρεαλ ná cilli, "after the first bound he made, he appeared no larger to them than a hawk on the summit of a hill; after the second, they saw him not at all, and they knew not whether he had passed into heaven or into the earth; by the third bound, he landed on the cashel [inclosing wall] of the church," *Vita Moling.*; ceona, the first person, *Cor. Gloss., voce CORMAC*; amm ρημ ceτνα opce

βοι α η-Ερίνο, the name of the first *orce* [lap-dog] that was in Ireland, *Cor. Gloss., voce Μογ ειμε.*

^f Ταναιρτε, *Cor. Gloss., voce Cλιταρ ρεσ.*

^g Τεορα is used in the best MSS. for the modern τρί, when the noun is expressed, as τεορα ρίλιμ η οομαν, .i. heber ó Έρεγαυ, ocyr Έεργιλ ó Ζατινοαυ ocyr Ruman ó Έοεουελυ, i. e. "the three poets of the world were Homer, of the Greeks; Virgil, of the Latins; and Ruman, of the Gaels," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 12, a; αρ αταιτε ná τεορα Αιρνε ανσ, "for there are three Arans' [islands], *Cor. Gloss., in voce Αιρ*; ceτέορα ουλλι ραιρ, "four leaves upon him," *Id., voce Όορρ*; τεορα ρερβα ριρα, .i. τρι βα ρινοα, "three white cows," *Id., voce Έερβ.*

CARDINAL.	ORDINAL.
7. ρεάτ, as ρεάτ ζ-κορα.	7th. ρεάτμάδ.
8. ούτ, as ούτ ζ-κορα.	8th. ούτμάδ.
9. νοί, as νοί ζ-κορα.	9th. νοιμάδ, or νοιμαδ.
10. οειό, as οειό ζ-κορα.	10th. οειομάδ.
11. αον-δέαζ, as αον-όρ-δέαζ.	11th. αονιμάδ-δέαζ, as an τ-αονιμάδ κορ δέαζ.
12. οο-δέαζ, or οά-δέαζ, as οά όρ δέαζ.	12th. οαρα-δέαζ, as an οαρα κορ δέαζ,
13. τρι-δέαζ, &c., as τρι κορα δέαζ.	13th. τρεαρ-δέαζ, as an τρεαρ όρ δέαζ.
14. σεαταρ-δέαζ, &c., as σειτ- ρε κορα δέαζ.	14th. σεατραμαδ-δέαζ, as an σεατραμαδ κορ δέαζ.
15. κύζ-δέαζ, as κύζ κορα δέαζ.	15th. κύζεαδ-δέαζ, as an κύ- ζεαδ κορ δέαζ.
16. ρε-δέαζ, as ρε κορα δέαζ.	16th. ρειρεαδ-δέαζ, as an ρει- ρεαδ κορ δέαζ.
17. ρεάτ-δέαζ, as ρεάτ ζ-κορα δέαζ.	17th. ρεάτμάδ -δέαζ, as an ρεάτμάδ κορ δέαζ.
18. ούτ-δέαζ, as ούτ ζ-κορα δέαζ.	18th. ούτμάδ-δέαζ, as an τ-ούτμαδ κορ δέαζ.
19. νοί-δέαζ, as νοι ζ-κορα δέαζ.	19th. νοιμάδ-δέαζ, as an νοι- μάδ κορ δέαζ.
20. ρίε, as ρίε κορ.	20th. ρίεαδ, as an ρίεαδ κορ.
21. αον α'ρ ρίε, or αον αρ ρίε, as αον όρ αρ ρίε.	21st. αονιμάδ-αρ ρίε, as an τ-αονιμάδ κορ αρ ρίε.
22. οο α'ρ ρίε, as οά όρ αρ ρίε.	22nd. οαρα-αρ ρίε, as an οαρα κορ αρ ρίε.
&c. &c.	&c. &c.
30. τριοά, τριοά, as τριοά κορ.	30th. τριοάσαδ, as an τριοά- σαδ κορ.
31. αον αρ τριοά, as αον όρ αρ τριοά.	31st. αονιμάδ αρ τριοά, as an τ-αονιμάδ κορ αρ τρι- οά.
&c. &c.	&c. &c.
40. οά ρίε, or σεατραά, σεα- τραά, as σεατραά κορ.	40th. σεατραάσαδ, as an σεατ- ραάσαδ κορ.

CARDINAL.

50. *καογα*, *καογα*, as
καογα cor.

60. *τρι ριςιο*, or *ρεαργα*,
ρεαργα, as *ρεαργα*
cor.

70. *ρεακτιμογα*, or *ρεακτι-*
μογα, as *ρεακτιμο-*
γα cor.

80. *σειερε ριςιο*, *οκτιμο-*
γα, *οκτιμογα*, as
οκτιμογα cor.

90. *νοαα*, *νοα*, as *νοα*
cor.

100. *εαα*, as *εαα* cor.

1000. *μιλε*, as *μιλε* cor.

1000000. *μιλλιυν*, as *μιλλιυν*
cor.

ORDINAL.

50th. *καογααο*, as an
καογααο cor.

60th. *ρεαργααο*, as an
ρεαργααο cor.

70th. *ρεακτιμογααο*, as
an *ροακτιμογααο*
cor.

80th. *οκτιμογααο*, as an
ε-οκτιμογααο cor.

90th. *νοαααο*, as an *νοα-*
ααο cor.

100th. *εαααο*, as an *εαα-*
αο cor.

1000th. *μιλεαο*, as an *μι-*
λεαο cor.

1000000th. *μιλλιυναο*, as an
μιλλιυναο cor.

The following nouns are formed from the ordinals up to ten, and applied to persons or personified objects only :

Διαρ, *οιρ*, or *βειρτ*, two persons.

Τριυρ, three persons.

Τεαεραρ, four persons.

Κυιγεαρ, five persons.

Σειρεαρ, six persons.

Σεακταρ, or *μορ-ρειρεαρ* (or *μορ-ρειρεαρ*, as written in ancient MSS.), seven persons.

Οκταρ, eight persons.

Νοηαρ, nine persons.

Δεικνεαααρ, ten persons.

These nouns are evidently compounded of the cardinal numbers and the word *ρεαρ*, a man; Latin, *vir*; but the idea suggested by the masculine noun has been long forgotten, as we say *τεαεραρ* *ααρ*, i. e. four women, *quatuor mulierum*.

We also meet in old manuscripts οείθε, two things; τρείθε, three things; τεταρθε, four things; as οεθε πορ οηγαρ, “two things so called,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ταρτ*; τρειθε πορ οηγαρ, “three things so called,” *Id.*, in voce *Αρτ*; τετερθε πορ οηγαρ, “four things so called,” *Id.*, voce *Γαλλ*; but no trace of such words is found in the modern language in any part of Ireland.

In the old manuscripts, οά and τρι make οιβ and τριβ in the dative; and ρίε, twenty, and all the decades, make εαο in the genitive, and ιο in the dative, both in the ancient and modern language.

The learner should observe that the forms δύο, two, and τεταρ, four, are never employed when the noun is expressed, these forms being used to denote the numbers *two* and *four* in the abstract. It should be also remarked, that ρίε, twenty, and all the multiples of ten, will have the nouns to which they belong in the singular number^b.—See the *Syntax*.

CHAPTER IV.

OF PRONOUNS.

THERE are six kinds of pronouns, namely, personal, possessive, relative, demonstrative, interrogative, and indefinite. The two first classes are frequently com-

^b Mr. James Scurry, in his Review of Irish Grammars (Transactions of the R. I. A., vol. xv. p. 54), asserts that the noun after these cardinal adjectives, when multiples of ten, is in the genitive plural; but this is very much to be doubted, for we never

say ρίε βαν, twenty women, nor μίλε οαομεαο, but ρίε βεαν, μίλε ουμε. The fact is, that the noun is in the singular form, which is a peculiarity in the language, like twenty *foot*, or fifty *mile*, in vulgar English.—See the *Syntax*, Rule 5.

pounded with the simple prepositions, a peculiarity which distinguishes this language, and its cognate dialects, from all the languages of Europe.

SECTION 1.—*Of Personal Pronouns.*

The personal pronouns are those of the first, second, and third persons, as μέ, I; τύ, thou; γέ, he; ρί, she. They have a simple and emphatic form, and are thus declined :

Με, I.

Singular.

SIMPLE FORM.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Nom. μέ, I.

Nom. μερι, *or* μιρε, I myself.

Gen. μο, mine.

Gen. μο-ρα.

Dat. εαμ, to me.

Dat. εαμ-ρα.

Acc. μέ, me.

Acc. μερι, *or* μιρε.

Plural.

SIMPLE FORM.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Nom. ρινν, we.

Nom. ριννε, we ourselves.

Gen. άρ, our's, *or* our.

Gen. άρ-νε.

Dat. ούινν, to us.

Dat. ούιννε.

Acc. ινν, *or* ρινν, us.

Acc. ιννε, *or* ριννε.

Τύ, thou.

Singular.

SIMPLE FORM.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Nom. τύ, thou.

Nom. τυρα, thou thyself.

Gen. οο, thine.

Gen. οο-ρα.

Dat. ουιτ, to thee.

Dat. ουιτ-ρε.

Acc. έύ, thee.

Acc. έυ-ρα.

Voc. έύ, thou.

Voc. έυ-ρα.

Plural.

SIMPLE FORM.	EMPHATIC FORM.
Nom. ριῖ, you.	Nom. ριῖ-ρε, you yourselves.
Gen. βαρ, your.	Gen. βαρ-ρα.
Dat. υοαιῖ, or υῖῖ, to you.	Dat. υοαιῖ-ρε, or υῖῖ-ρε.
Acc. ιῖ, or ριῖ, you.	Acc. ιῖ-ρε, or ριῖ-ρε.
Voc. ιῖ or ριῖ, you.	Voc. ιῖ-ρε, or ριῖ-ρε.

Σέ, he, masc.

Singular.

SIMPLE FORM.	EMPHATIC FORM.
Nom. ρέ, he.	Nom. ρέ-ρεαν, he himself.
Gen. α, his.	Gen. α-ραν.
Dat. υο, to him.	Dat. υο-ραν.
Acc. έ, him.	Acc. έ-ρεαν.

Plural.

SIMPLE FORM.	EMPHATIC FORM.
Nom. ριαῖ, they.	Nom. ριαῖ-ραν, they themselves.
Gen. α, their, their's.	Gen. α-ραν.
Dat. υοῖῖ, to them.	Dat. υοῖῖ-ρεαν.
Acc. ιαῖ, them.	Acc. ιαῖ-ραν.

Σί, she, fem.

SIMPLE FORM.	EMPHATIC FORM.
Nom. ρί, she.	Nom. ρι-ρε, she herself.
Gen. α, her's, or her.	Gen. α-ραν.
Dat. υι, to her.	Dat. υι-ρεαν.
Acc. ί, her.	Acc. ι-ρε.

In the plural, ρί is inflected like ρέ, as in English.

The word ρέιν, self, is often postfixed to these personal pronouns for the sake of emphasis, as μέ ρέιν, I myself; τύ ρέιν, thou thyself; έ ρέιν, he himself, &c.

It should be here remarked, that έ, ί, and ιαῖ, are used as nominatives as well as accusatives in the Scotch Gaelic; and also in the Irish, after the assertive verb ιρ, and after all passive verbs, as ιρ έ, it is he; ιρ ί, it is she; ιρ ιαῖ, it is they; βα h-έ, it was he, &c.;

buaλτεap é, he is struck; óbpeaó ιαó, they were banished. In ancient Irish manuscripts these pronouns have h frequently prefixed, for no apparent grammatical reason, as τυρατ leo co λυγαó h-é, "they took it with them to Lughaidh," *Cor. Gloss., voce Coipe* δpecañ; Coirpri Μυρε, mac Conaire, τυc αναρ h-é α δpectnu, "Coirpri Musc, son of Conaire, brought it from Britain," *Id., voce* Μοξ Θιμε. And ρι and ρε are used after the assertive verb ιρ, as ιρ ρι ινορο ιη αειρ, "this is the satire," *Id., voce* Θαυρε.

Εαó, or eó, is used for é in such phrases as the following, ιρ εαó, it is; μάυρεαó, i. e. μά ιρ εαó, if so 'it be; if so. Εαó, when thus applied, refers to the subject, like the neuter *id* in Latin, or *it* in English, and may be defined as that form of the pronoun é used to refer to a clause of a sentence for its antecedent; but it is never used except in connexion with the verb ιρ, or some particle which carries its force, as αν εαó, is it? ιρ εαó, it is; ní h-εαó, it is not; οειριμ γυρ αβ εαó, I say that it is; níορ β'εαó, it was not; ó ναó εαó, since it is not. Some think that ρεαó is the Irish word corresponding with the English word *yes*; but this is not the fact, for ρεαó is an abbreviation of ιρ εαó, which literally means *it is*.

The emphatic terminations of the pronouns are variously written in the ancient Irish manuscripts, as μυρι and μεριυ, for μερι, or μυρε, I; τυρα, for τυρα, thou; εριυμ, ειρισε, or ειρισεμ, for éρεαñ, he; ιρισε, or ιρισι, for ιρι, she; ιαο-ριυμ, or ιαοριομ, for ιαο-ριαν. The termination ρυμ, or ρομ, is used after the possessives, or genitives α, his, her, or their, for the sake of emphasis, when the last vowel of the preceding word is broad, as ní παβ α η-Εριμν ούν αμαιλ α ούν-ριυμ, "there was not in Erin a fort like his fort."—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 16. And ρισε, or ριυμ, when the last vowel of the preceding word is small, as Δυβδίαó Όραι α αιρημ-ρισε, i. e. "Dubhdiadh the Druid, *was* his name," *Id.*, p. 46; Α ρύιλ-ριυμ, "his eye," *Cor. Gloss., voce* Διανσεχετ.

The emphatic increase for the first person plural is ne, or ηι, whether the last vowel of the preceding noun be slender or broad, as "νοά η-ι ιη αιμπερι φογαλτερ αέτ άρ ηγνίομπαó-ηε, "*tempus non dividitur sed opera nostra dividuntur.*"—*Book of Ballymote*, fol. 171. And the best writers make the increase of the

genitive or possessive of the third person singular, feminine, always *ῑ*, as α βρεαθ-*ῑ*, “her award.”—*Vit. Moling.*

The substantive is always placed between these genitives, or possessives, and their emphatic postfixes, as *mo lám-ῑα*, my hand; α ḡ-coῑα-*ῑ*an, their feet; ḗῑ ḡ-cinn-*ne*, our heads.—See the *Syntax*.

SECTION 2.—Possessive Pronouns.

The possessive pronouns are the same as the genitives of the personal pronouns, as above given, viz., *mo*, my; *ῑo*, thy; α, his, or her's; ḗῑ, our's; *ḃaῑ*, yours; α, theirs.

Some Irish grammarians will not allow that they are genitives; but it must at least be acknowledged that they are as much genitives as the English *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *our's*, *your's*, *their's*; but they are applied like the Latin *meus*, *tuus*, *suus*, to denote possession; and very rarely like *mei*, *tui*, *sui*, &c., to denote passion, though in some instances they may admit of a passive meaning, as *ḗamig ré o'á n̄ap̄ḃao*, he came to the killing of *him*, or, he came to *his* killing, i. e. *venit ad ejus jugulationem*.

These pronouns can never stand alone, like the English *mine*, *thine*, &c., without their substantives, i. e. we cannot say, “this is mine,” *ῑῑ é ῑo mo-ῑα*, but the noun must be expressed, as *ῑῑ é ῑo mo leab̄aῑ-ῑα*, “this is my book.”

The word *ῑéim*, self, is postfixed to the possessive as well as to the personal pronouns, for emphasis, as *mé ῑéim*, I myself; *mo lám-ῑα ῑéim*, mine own hand.

In ancient Irish manuscripts this word is written variously, *ῑéim*, *ῑaoéim*, *buoéim*, *uoóem*, and *booeim*; and this variety of spelling in no small degree tends to render the language obscure and impenetrable to modern Irish scholars.

SECTION 3.—*Of the Relative Pronouns.*

The relative pronouns used in modern Irish are α, who, which, or what; noc, who, which; nac, which not; and δά, which sometimes signifies who, which, and sometimes of which, of what.

In the modern language the relative has no genitive form, but in the ancient manuscripts ιρα or 'ρα frequently occurs as its genitive, and we often meet a form which might be called a dative; thus:

Singular and Plural.

Nom. α, who, which.

Gen. ιρα, or 'ρα, whose, of which.

Dat. βαρη, βαναδ, βιαναδ, to which.

The simple relative α sometimes has the force of *what, that which, or all that*, as α β-φυιλ beo δε δαοι-νιβ, “all that are living of men;” α β-φυιλ ó Οιλιόσ Νείδ γο η-Ατη Κλιατ Λαιγεαν, “all that is from Oileach Neid to Ath Cliath in Leinsterⁱ.”

In the modern language the particle νο, sign of the past tense of the verb, and in the ancient manuscripts no, νορ, πορ, &c., often stand for the relative, as κυρρεαμ ρίορ αν πο beαζάν νο βρευ-γαιβ να νυα-θhall νο ργρηόδ αρ Θιρρη, “we will set down here a few of the falsehoods of the modern English who wrote on Ireland,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 3; μυνητιρ ιν ήρ πορ μαρηβ, “the people of the man whom he had slain,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 78; θρηγιε ban-see no αδραοίρ φιλο, “Brighit, a goddess, whom the poets worshipped,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce θρηγιε; Οκυρ ιρ έ βα βέρ,

ⁱ Keat. Hist. p. 22.

ocur ba olígeaó acu-rum, in tan buo ríge ó Uib Neill in deircire no diao for Erin, cumao h-e ríge Connáct no diao for a láim óeir, “And the custom and law at this time was, that when the monarch of Erin was of the southern Hy-Niall, the king of Connaught should sit at his right hand,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 28.

In ancient manuscripts the following simple and compound forms of the relative are also frequently found; doneoch, for noé, who, which; an, or in, what, or that which; oia, for o’á, to or of whom, or which; oana, oanaó, oianao, for oarb’, to whom, or which; irá, whose; ’ra, in whom, or which; nao, or nat, for nac, who not, or which not; as in the following examples: doneoch no gem ocur gemfer, “who have been, or will be born,” *Id.*, p. 98; Amalgaio, mac Fiaárpach Ealgaig, mic Dathi, o’á labram a rreacnarcur, agur Amalgaio, mac Dathi ferim, doneoc o’rag-baióiriam i m-óreáigaié, noá n-fagam genealaó acé Clann Fhirbirig go ceacáar oioó, “from Amhalgaidh, the son of Fiachra Ealgach, son of Dathi, of whom we have just spoken, and Amhalgaidh, the son of Dathi himself, *whom* we left in Bregia, I find no descendants, except the Clann-Firbis, who descend from either of them,” *Tribes and Customs of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 100; targaó na trí triáa tar, doneoch no b’fearr im Temraig, “there were offered him the three eastern cantreds, the best *which* are around Tara,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 132; no fíoir iarum in do ríge-naó ano, “he then knew *what* was done there,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* Gaileng; ní maé an do gní, ol Paoruic, “what thou dost is not good, said Patrick,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 15, *b, a*; oanao ainm, “*cui nomen est*,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 104; ir e an taróflaé Ua Ainmirech cléar oana craeb coibneara no ráioiriamar romaino, irá garc ocur gíim, ocur gairceó, irá blaó, ocur baio, ocur beoáct, irá cloé &c., inoertar anho booearta, “the monarch, the grandson of Ainmire, whose genealogy we have given above, is the prince *whose* renown and achievements, and feats, *whose* fame, valour, and vigour, *whose* celebrity, &c., are narrated henceforward,” *Id.*, p. 100; ’ra tacraio ocur ’ra timraigir, “*in which* they unite, and in *which* they meet,” *Id.*, p. 98.

The exact meaning, or analysis, of o’á, when used as a relative,

has not yet been satisfactorily explained. It is sometimes obviously made up of *ve* and *α*, of which, or, of what, as in the common phrase, *ní fúil buine dá o-támig*, “there is not a man *of what* came” (i. e. of those that have existed); *co nac bí ní dá g-cluinead gan a beir do glan-meabrac aige*, “so that there was nothing *of what* he heard repeated that he had not distinctly by heart,” *Battle of Magh Ragh*, p. 284. In such cases it should be always written *o’á*, to give notice of its being compounded of the preposition *ve*, or *do*, of, and the relative *α*. But in other sentences it would appear to be put simply for the relative, as in the following examples: *ní peiom flata ná rir-laid uir-rí air peiceannair do éabairt ar mac veigfir da o-tiocfad do éabairt a laí baga le a bunad ceineoil a n-imarzar ar-o-áca*, “it is not the act of a prince, or a true hero, in thee, to cast reflections on the son of any good man, *who* should come to give his day of battle to assist his relatives in the struggle of a great battle,” *Id.*, *ibid.*; *gan cromad ar mín-rcoid dá m-bí ’gan macaire, ná ar bláé dá m-bí i lubgor*, “without stooping to a fine flower *which* is in the field, or on a blossom *which* is in the garden,” *Keat. Hist., Preface*; *nár lór leo ní do éabairt do gac aon dá o-tiocfad o’á iarrad*, “that they did not deem it enough to give something to those who should come to ask it,” *Ibid.*; *oir ní fúil rcaruidé ó foim alle dá rgríobann uirpe*, “for there is not a historian from that forward *who* writes about her,” *Ibid.* In examples like the foregoing, it might be maintained that *o’á* is *ve α*, or *o’á*, *of which*; but when following *gac*, each, every, and in other situations, it is, beyond dispute, a simple relative, as *bíod α fiaonair rin ar gac garim rgoile dá o-zugaoar uaca*, “witness all the proclamations which they issued to invite the learned,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 1; *an tí ar írle do na cuiluib dá n-aitiúonn ir in b-ppuibinnre Galloa*, “the lowest of the colonists who dwell in the English Pale,” *Id.*, p. 8. See more on this subject in Chap. VII., Section III., under the prepositions *do*, *ve*, and *da*, and also in the *Syntax*.

SECTION 4.—*Interrogative Pronouns.*

The interrogative pronouns are CIA, or cé, who; cá, or γά, what, or where; CAD, or CHEAD, what.

Cá is never used in the province of Connaught, where CIA is always used in its stead, as CIA ß-PUIL RÉ, where is he? for cá ß-PUIL RÉ; but in the south of Ireland cé is used for CIA, who, and cá to express where or what, as CE H-É, who is he? cá ß-PUIL TÚ, where art thou? cá Talam, what land?

In ancient Irish manuscripts various other forms of the interrogative pronouns occur, as CIO, CAIGE, who, what, where, as in the *Teagusc Righ*, CIO IR OECH DO RÍG? “what is ^{best} good for a king?” CAIGE COIR PECTA RÍG? “what are the just laws of a king?” Also, in an ancient Life of St. Moling, CIO AAP DO FÚIL, A CLÉIRÍG? “what swelleth thine eye, O cleric?” CAIGE is used even by Keating, as CAIGE A ANM? “what is his name?” *Hist. Irel.*, p. 90. COIC, or CUIC, who, whose, and CIAPA, whose, are of very frequent occurrence in old writings, as NOCA N-FITIR MAC DUINE CUIC O’A N-OÉNANN RÉ CPUINNE, “the son of a man knows not for whom he maketh a gathering,” *St. Columbkille’s Poem* (MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl., H. 3. 18.), p. 320; PO COMAIRCEO CIAPA CENO, “interrogaverunt eum cujus [caput] esset,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce COIRE DRECAN; COLANO PUNO CEN CENO, OL FÍNO; FÍNOETA OÚINN, OL IN FÍANN COICH H-I, “a body here without a head, said Finn; reveal unto us, said the Fians, whose it is,” *Id.*, voce OIC, CIY also occurs as if an abbreviation of CIOIR, as CIY LIY, “how many,” a phrase which occurs very frequently in the Brehon Laws.

SECTION 5.—*Of the Demonstrative Pronouns.*

The demonstrative pronouns are, PO, this, these; PIN, that, those; RÚD, or ÚD, you. They are indeclinable, and the same in both numbers.—See the *Syntax*, Rule 32. But sometimes, when PO follows a word

whose last vowel is slender, it is written $\rho\iota$, or $\rho\epsilon$, and sometimes $\rho\epsilon\omicron$, as $\nu\alpha$ h - $\alpha\mu\pi\iota\pi\epsilon$ $\rho\iota$, "of this time¹;" and $\rho\iota\mu$, when it follows a word whose last vowel is broad, is written $\rho\alpha\mu$, or $\rho\omicron\mu$.

In ancient Irish manuscripts $\mu\pi\iota\mu$, $\mu\pi\omicron\mu$, or $\mu\pi\omicron\mu\iota$ is used for $\rho\iota\mu$, as $\rho\acute{\iota}\rho$ $\mu\pi\omicron\mu$ for $\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron\mu$ $\rho\iota\mu$, "that is true," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce $\delta\mu\iota$; $\epsilon\pi\acute{\iota}$ h - $\mu\gamma\epsilon\mu\alpha$ μ $\delta\alpha\gamma\omicron\mu$ $\mu\pi\iota\mu$, "these were the three daughters of Dagda," *Id.*, voce $\delta\mu\iota\gamma\iota\tau$. $\delta\omicron\mu\alpha\mu$ is also often used for $\rho\iota\mu$, as $\rho\mu\iota$ $\rho\omicron\mu\alpha\mu$, "with that," *Id.*, voce $\delta\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}$; and $\mu\pi\omicron\mu\omicron$ is used for $\rho\omicron$, as $\mu\pi$ $\rho\acute{\iota}$ $\mu\pi\omicron\mu\omicron$ μ $\alpha\epsilon\iota\mu$, "this is the satire," *Id.*, voce $\delta\mu\alpha\pi\acute{\epsilon}$. The μ , or $\mu\omicron$, in these forms is probably a union of the article and the demonstrative pronouns $\rho\omicron$ and $\rho\iota\mu$.

$\mu\gamma\alpha\omicron$ and $\acute{\mu}\mu\tau$ are used in the best MSS. for $\acute{\mu}\mu$, *yon*, *yonder*, as $\omicron\mu\iota$ $\nu\omicron$ $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\omicron\epsilon\delta$ $\delta\mu\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}\mu$ $\mu\omicron$ n - α $\mu\mu\mu\pi\tau\iota\mu$ $\mu\iota\mu\epsilon$ $\mu\pi\iota\mu$ $\mu\omicron\mu\pi\epsilon$ $\mu\gamma\alpha\omicron$, "for Breacan with all his people were drowned in that [yon] whirlpool," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce $\mu\omicron\mu\pi\epsilon$ $\delta\mu\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}\mu$; $\mu\iota\mu\omicron$ $\delta\alpha\acute{\mu}\delta$ $\gamma\mu\pi$ μ $\rho\iota\alpha\acute{\beta}$ n - $\acute{\mu}\mu\tau$, "Sabia went to that [yon] mountain," *MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl.*, H. 3. 17. p. 849.

SECTION 6.—*Of the Indefinite Pronouns.*

The indefinite pronouns are $\acute{\epsilon}\iota\gamma\mu$, some; $\gamma\iota\beta\acute{\epsilon}$, or $\mu\iota\beta\acute{\epsilon}$, whoever; $\alpha\omicron\mu$, any; $\epsilon\iota\mu\epsilon$, or $\omicron\iota\mu\epsilon$, other; α $\acute{\sigma}\epsilon\iota\mu\epsilon$, each other; $\gamma\alpha\acute{\sigma}$, each, every; $\gamma\alpha\acute{\sigma}$ $\mu\iota\mu\epsilon$, every; $\mu\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, all in general; $\mu\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}\tau\alpha\mu$, or $\mu\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}\tau\alpha\mu$, either; $\alpha\mu$ $\tau\acute{\epsilon}$, or $\alpha\mu$ $\tau\acute{\iota}$, he who; $\mu\iota\mu\epsilon$, all. They are all indeclinable except $\mu\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, which makes $\mu\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$ in the genitive singular, as α β - $\rho\iota\alpha\delta\mu\alpha\pi\epsilon$ $\mu\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, in the presence of all.

Various forms of these pronouns occur in the ancient manuscripts, as $\mu\epsilon\mu\pi$, or $\mu\epsilon\mu\beta$, for $\gamma\iota\beta\acute{\epsilon}$, or $\mu\iota\beta\acute{\epsilon}$, which is an amalgamation of the pronoun and verb $\gamma\iota\beta\alpha$ $\beta\alpha$ $\acute{\epsilon}$, or $\mu\iota\beta\alpha$ $\beta\alpha$ $\acute{\epsilon}$, i. e. whoever it may be. $\mu\alpha\acute{\sigma}$ is used for $\alpha\omicron\mu$, any, as in the follow-

¹ Keat. Hist., p. 2.

ing examples: *ni tarorac muinnair uabrec in riġ nac ppeagra fuiri*, “the proud people of the king did not make her any answer,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 18; *roac i n-a b-ppreing cen nac ngnioin n-oirdeirc*, “they returned the same road without achieving any great exploit,” *Annals of the Four Masters*, *ad ann.* 1398; *ni po raċairġioac nac ni*, “they did not perceive any thing,” *Ibid.*; *cen nac cionn*, “without any crime,” *Id.*, *ad an.* 1468. *Caċ ae* often occurs for *ġac aon*, every one; and *ann*, or *ano*, which is unknown in the modern language, is used in the ancient manuscripts to denote, certain, *quidem*, as *peacċ n-ann*, a certain time, *una vice*, or *quodam vice*; *peċtar ano*, on a certain occasion. *Araill* is often used for *eile*, as *oo’n leac araill*, “on the other side,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 28. And *apoile*, or *alaillu*, for the modern *a ceile*, each other, as in these examples: *tuccrac taċar oia poile*, “they gave battle to each other,” *Annals of the Four Masters*, *ad an.* 1233; *po uolberċar for alaillu*, “they rush at each other,” *H.* 3. 16, p. 60. *Alanaċ*, or *alanac*, is used to denote “the one,” and *apoile*, when following it, means “the other.” *Ĝlaipioir buġa mo ala řuil, ip ouibitip oium in oail in t-řuil aile*, “bluer than the hyacinth was the one eye, and blacker than the back of the beetle the other eye,” *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*. *Ceaċtar*, either, is often written *neċtar* in old writings, as *ar ip neċtar oib tic řpuc*, “for it is either of them comes against,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 12.

Some Irish grammarians have stated that *an tċ* means “he who,” and *an tċ* “she who.” But no such distinction is made in correct Irish manuscripts or printed books, in which *an tċ* and *an tċ* are used in the same sense, namely, “the person who,” without any reference to gender. That *an tċ* does not mean “she who,” is evident from the fact that the feminine noun, when beginning with a vowel, would not take the prefix *t* before it in the nominative singular; and more so from the fact that *an tċ* is frequently prefixed to the names of men as a mark of respect in the ancient Irish language, as *an tċ Caillin*, *Book of Fenagh*, fol. 2, *et passim*; *in tċ Suibne*, *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 38; *an tċ Cellach*, *Id.*, p. 42; *in tċ Congal*, *Id.*, pp. 46, 64; *in tċ Duboisac*, *Id.*, p. 46; *in tċ Fepooman*, *Id.*, p. 84.

SECTION 7.—*Of Pronouns compounded with Prepositions.*

The personal and possessive pronouns form a synthetic union with certain simple prepositions, so as to look like a simple word. The prepositions with which they are thus amalgamated are the following :

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. αἵ, at, or with. | 9. ἰ, in. |
| 2. ἀπ, on, or upon. | 10. ἰμ, or ἠμ, about. |
| 3. ἀρ, out of. | 11. ἑ, or ῥε, with. |
| 4. ἐμ, or κο, το, towards. | 12. ο, or ὑα, from. |
| 5. ὄε, off, or from. | 13. ποῖν, before. |
| 6. ὄο, to. | 14. ῥεά, beside. |
| 7. εἰσπ, ἰσπ, or εἰσπαρ, between. | 15. παρ, beyond, over, by. |
| 8. ῥα, ῥο, or ῥαοι, under. | 16. ῥέ, through. |
| | 17. ὑαρ, over, above. |

The student should commit the following combinations to memory, as they occur so frequently, and are so peculiarly characteristic of this language and its dialects. The observations which follow them are intended chiefly for those who desire to study the ancient language.

1. *Combinations with αἵ, at, or with.*

SINGULAR.

αἵαμ, with me.

αἵαο, or αἵατ, with thee.

αἵγε, with him.

αἵει, or αἵε, with her.

PLURAL.

αἵαμν, with us.

αἵαιβ, with you.

αἵα, with them.

In ancient manuscripts we meet ocum for αἵαμ; ocuz for αἵαο, and occa, occa, and even αἵει, for αἵγε, with him (though in the modern language αἵει always means with her); occu and acu for αἵα.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 42, 66, 67, 156. Ana-

logy would suggest that in all these combinations the third person singular feminine should end in *ι*, but as the termination *e* is found in very good authorities, both forms have been here given.

It should be remarked that *αυ* often means *eorum*, or *de iis*, of, or among them, as in the common phrase *αυτο αα*, some of them; *οτι* *be h-αα*, “whichever of them,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 4; though the preposition never has this meaning when set before a noun. It should be here remarked, once for all, that in the union of the different prepositions with the second person singular the *τ* of the pronoun is retained in the south of Ireland, but that in the north and west it is changed into *ο*. Both forms are therefore given, as they are both borne out by authority.

2. Combinations with *αυ*, upon.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>οτι</i> <i>m</i> , on me.	<i>οτι</i> <i>αυ</i> <i>m</i> , on us.
<i>οτι</i> <i>τ</i> , on thee.	<i>οτι</i> <i>αυ</i> <i>β</i> , on you.
<i>αυ</i> , on him.	<i>οτι</i> <i>αυ</i> , or <i>οτι</i> <i>α</i> , on them.
<i>αυ</i> <i>πε</i> , or <i>αυ</i> <i>ρι</i> , on her.	

In ancient manuscripts these combinations are generally written *οτι* *m*, *οτι* *τ*, *αυ* *m*, *αυ* *ρι*, *οτι* *αυ* *m* (emphatic form, *οτι* *πε*, or *οτι* *πε*), *οτι* *αυ* *β*, *οτι* *αυ* *β*, or *οτι* *β*, *οτι* *αυ* *α* or *οτι* *αυ* *β*.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 10, 12, 70, 74, 124, 160, 292, *et passim*. *Ματι* *α* *ο* *ευ* *ρα* *αυ* *τ*, *ο* *τι* *αυ* *τ* *αυ* *τ* *ο* *α* *ο* *τι* *αυ* *β*, “his tears burst on him, so that streams of water flowed from his eyes,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 119; *ο* *τι* *ο* *υ* *ι* *ι* *ο* *αυ* *ρι* *αυ* *μ*, “two leaves upon him,” *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* *Fochlocon*. In the south of Ireland, *αυ* *πε*, or *αυ* *ρι*, or upon her, is pronounced as if written *οτι* *πε*; and in Connaught, *οτι* *αυ* *β*; and *οτι* *αυ*, or *οτι* *α*, on them, as if written *οτι* *α*, in Munster; and *οτι* *αυ* *β*, in Connaught.

3. Combinations with *αυ*, out of.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>αυ</i> <i>αμ</i> , out of me.	<i>αυ</i> <i>αυ</i> <i>m</i> , out of us.
<i>αυ</i> <i>αο</i> , <i>αυ</i> <i>ατ</i> , out of thee.	<i>αυ</i> <i>αυ</i> <i>β</i> , out of you.
<i>αυ</i> , out of him.	<i>αυ</i> <i>α</i> , out of them.
<i>αυ</i> <i>πε</i> , or <i>αυ</i> <i>ρι</i> , out of her.	

Ar, out of him, is sometimes written ar̄ in ancient manuscripts.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 58. The forms for the other persons are the same as in the text, except that one short broad vowel is put for another *ad libitum*. In the south of Ireland they write these ar̄tam, ar̄tat, ar̄, ar̄te, ar̄tainn, ar̄taib̄, ar̄ta.

4. *Combinations with cum, or co, towards.*

SINGULAR.

cúgam, unto me.
 cúgao, cúgat, unto thee.
 cúige, unto him.
 cúice, cúici, unto her.

PLURAL.

cúgaimn, unto us.
 cúgaib̄, unto you.
 cúca, unto them.

These combinations of cum, or co, with the personal pronouns, are pronounced in the south of Ireland as if written cúgam, cúgat, cúige, cúgaimn, gúcaib̄, cúgta, but in the north and west the g and c in the middle are distinctly pronounced.

5. *Combinations with oe, off, or from.*

SINGULAR.

oíom, off me.
 oíot, off thee.
 oe, off him.
 oi, off her.

PLURAL.

oínn, off us.
 oib̄, off you.
 oíob̄, off them.

In ancient manuscripts, in which the diphthong io seldom or never appears, the orthography of these combinations is oím, oít, oe, oi, oinn, oib̄, oib̄, or oiu, as ampull a m-beol zac oune oiu, “the voice of penury in the mouth of each of them.”—*Aengus na n-aer*. In Connaught oíob̄ is pronounced as if written oaob̄za, o, thick, which is not analogical, and not borne out by the authority of the written language. In the south of Ireland, and in the Highlands of Scotland, the o is always pronounced slender in these combinations, and correctly, if it be granted that the preposition is oe, not oo.—See *Stewart's Elements of Gaelic Grammar*, second edition, p. 129.

6. Combinations with *σο*, *το*.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>σαῖν</i> , to me.	<i>σοῖν</i> , to us.
<i>σοι</i> , to thee.	<i>σοῖς</i> , <i>σοῖσιν</i> , or <i>σοῖν</i> , to you.
<i>σο</i> , to him.	<i>σοῖς</i> , to them.
<i>σι</i> , to her.	

It should be here remarked that the *σ* in *σαῖν*, *σοι*, *σο*, &c., is sometimes aspirated and sometimes not; that in the south of Ireland *σαῖν* is generally pronounced *oum*, and sometimes even *um*, as *Ἐβαῖρ ὁαῖν σο λάιν*, pronounced as if written *εβαῖρ um σο λάιν*. In ancient manuscripts *σοι*, to thee, is sometimes written *σει*, as *Ro βαῖ ριαῖαῖ σεῖ σο α τοῖς*, *Curai, mac Daire uorh-gloim*, “Curai, son of Daire of the fine hands, would be obedient to thee with his house,” *Cormacan Eigeas*. In Connaught the *σ* in *σι*, to her, is pronounced broad and generally aspirated, as well as in *σο*, to him, which is not contrary to analogy, as being made up of *σο* and *ι*, but in the south of Ireland the *σ* in *σι* is always pronounced slender, and aspirated or not according to the termination of the word which precedes it. Thus, if the preceding word ends in an unaspirated consonant the *σ* retains its natural sound, as *εβαῖρ σι αν ε-αιρεαο*, give to her the money. But if it end in a vowel, or an aspirated consonant, the *σ* is aspirated, as *εαῖ ρε σι αιρεαο αῖρ ορ*, he gave to her gold and silver. This is the only analogy which the author could observe in regulating the aspirations of the initial consonant of the compound pronouns among the speakers of the Irish language in the south of Ireland, and he has found it borne out by the authority of the best Irish manuscripts of the seventeenth century, in which aspiration (which is not always attended to in ancient manuscripts) was carefully marked. The following examples, extracted from a beautiful manuscript, by John Mac Torna O’Mulconry, of *Keating’s History of Ireland*, now in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, will shew that the above rule is founded on the genius of the language of Ireland, as it was then spoken and written by one of the best hereditary expounders of the language in existence in the middle of the seventeenth century. *Ἦο σ-εαῖ ορηαῖ οῖρ σι*, “so that he gave her a chain of gold,”

p. 78; ullmóigir fleiḡ móir n-uo, "they prepare a great feast for him," p. 100; ag teaḡt a n-Éirinn uó, "on his arrival in Ireland;" p. 111; iar m-beiḡ ríce bliáðam i b-φlaiḡior Connaḡt uó, "after his being twenty years in the government of Connaught," p. 115; iar marḡam uó tḡí céo bliáðam, "after having lived three hundred years," p. 117; Tug Ciarán a mallaḡt uó, "St. Ciaran gave him his curse," p. 117; Tug ḡuaire an dealg óir baoi 'n a bpuḡ uó ar fon Úé, "Guairé gave him the golden pin which he had in his garment, for the sake of God," p. 119; tapḡur reaḡt m-ba agur tapḡ ar a fon oi, "he offered her seven cows and a bull in return," p. 120; tpe beḡt umol uó, "for being obedient to him," p. 123; oo bḡiḡ ḡur ab é tug folur an éreioim ar túr uóib, "because it was he that first gave them the light of the faith," *Ib.*; ḡo zillioḡ a n-Álban uó, till his return to Scotland," *Ib.*; tpe marḡaḡ oo deunam uó, "for his committing of murder," p. 124; iar u-teaḡt 'na φiaonairi uó, "on his coming into his presence," p. 125; iar u-teaḡt ḡo riḡḡeaḡ Chaiḡil uó, "after his coming to the royal house of Cashel," p. 143.

Úúinn, to us, or by us, is frequently, but incorrectly written uúinn, and even uún, as "aoaiḡ uún ag Úún Eachoach, "we were a night at Dun Eachdach."—*Cormacan Eigeas*.

In the west of Ireland, and most parts of the north, oo, when combined with iḡ, ye, or you, is pronounced uoiḡ, and it is sometimes so written by Keating (see p. 144), and generally so by O'Molloy and Donlevy; but in the south it is always written and pronounced uíḡ, the u being slender; but this is obviously not analogical, for it should be the form to represent the union of oe, off, or from, and iḡ, ye, or you.

7. Combinations with eioir, or easoir, between.

SINGULAR.

easoram, between me.

easoraḡ, or easoraḡ, between thee.

eioir é, between him.

eioir í, between her.

PLURAL.

easoraonn, between us.

easoraib, between you.

easorra, between them.

The preposition εἰοῖρ, or ἰοῖρ, never amalgamates with the pronouns é or í in the singular number, and Haliday and O'Brien are wrong in writing them so. Many examples could be produced from the best authorities to establish this fact, as in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, ἀρ ἰνῆαῖβ ἰν ἀρῶ-ρῖζ εἰοῖρ é οἰοῦρ ἰν τ-υρῆαρ, "before the king, and between him and the shot."—p. 152. Ἐαορᾶῖβ is often written εττρᾶῖβ in old manuscripts, as οἰοῦρ ἰν ρεῖτμαῶ ααη κυρρῖερ εττρᾶῖβ, "and the seventh battle which shall be fought between you."—*Id.*, p. 12. Ἐαορρα, between them, is variously written in old manuscripts, but ετυρρῦ, or ετορρῦ, is the most usual form.—*Vide Id.*, p. 84, *et passim*.

In the modern language, when the two persons between which the relation expressed by εἰοῖρ is denoted, are emphatically mentioned, the amalgamation of the pronoun and the preposition does not take place, as εἰοῖρ με αἰοῦρ ἰαῶ, between me and them; εἰοῖρ ρῖοη αἰοῦρ é, between us and him; εἰοῖρ μέ αἰοῦρ í, between me and her.

8. Combinations with ρα, or ρο, under.

SINGULAR.

ρῖμ, under me.
 ρῖῶ, or ρῖτ, under thee.
 ροῖ, or ραοῖ, under him.
 ρῖῑε, or ρῖῑῖ, under her.

PLURAL.

ρῖοη, under us.
 ρῖῖβ, under you.
 ρῖῑα, under them.

The union of ρα, or ρο, under, and é, he, is variously written by modern Irish scholars ραοῖ, ρῖῖε, ραῖε, &c., but ροῖ is the form most borne out by authority: Ρῖεαῖῶ να η-εοῦ ροῖ, "the steeds ran under him."—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 82. In Munster this preposition is pronounced ρé, and the union of it with the pronoun e is written ρéῖζ, which, in the counties of Waterford and Kilkenny, is pronounced ρéῖζ (the ζ not aspirated); but this is not to be approved of.

In Connaught ρῖῑα, under them, is pronounced as if written ρῖῖῑα, or ρῖῖα, and in ancient manuscripts it is written ροῑαῖβ and ρῖῖῖῖ.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 70.

9. *Combinations with i, in.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
ionnam, in me.	ionainn, in us.
ionnas, or ionnat, in thee.	ionnaib, in you.
ann, in him.	ionnta, in them.
innce, or innce, in her.	

In ancient manuscripts, in which the diphthong *io* seldom or never occurs, these combinations are written *innam*, *innat*, *ano*, *innce*; *innamo*, *innab*, *inotib*.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 42, 56, 58, *et passim*. And the orthography is variously modified by putting one short vowel for another, and substituting *no* for *nn*, which renders the orthography exceeding unfixed and uncertain.

10. *Combinations with im, or um, about.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
umam, about me.	umainn, about us.
umas, or umat, about thee.	umab, about you.
ume, about him.	umpa, about them.
umpe, or umpi, about her.	

The preposition with which these are combined is more frequently written *im*; but I have retained the *um*, as the form adopted by other grammarians, and that most conformable with the modern pronunciation. In ancient manuscripts they are written *imum*, *imuz*, *imi*, *impi*, *imumo*, *imub*, *impu*, with several variations, caused by substituting *u* for *i* in the first syllable, by doubling the *m*, and one short vowel for another.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 36, 37, 38, 48, 50, 170, 172, 186.

11. *Combinations with le, or pe, with.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
liom, leam, or piom, with me.	linn, or pinn, with us.
leat, or piot, with thee.	lib, or pib, with you.
leip, or piip, with him.	leo, or piu, with them.
lé, léice, or pica, with her.	

It should be here remarked, that the preposition *pe*, or its combinations with the personal pronouns, though found in modern printed books and manuscripts, is not used in the spoken language in any part of Ireland, *le* being invariably used in its place. In ancient manuscripts *ppu* is very frequently used instead of *le*, or *pe*; and the combinations which it forms with the pronouns are as follow: *ppim*, *ppuz*, *ppuf*, *ppia*, *ppinn*, *ppib*, *ppiu*. We also meet in very correct manuscripts the forms, *lem*, *laz*, *laif*, *lei*, *lenn*, *lib*, *leo*. For these various forms, the reader is referred to the *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 10, 14, 24, 32, 34, 40, 44, 48, 50, 58, 66, 68, 74, and *Annals of the Four Masters*, *passim*. In *Cormac's Glossary*, *voce Coipe* *δρεκάιν*, *ppiu* is translated by the Latin *eis*, *ocuf* *αοβετ* *ppiu*, "*et ille eis dixit.*" In Mac Quig's edition of the Irish Bible, *leačt* is used throughout for *leaz*, with thee; but there is no authority for this form, except the pronunciation of the living language in parts of the counties of Westmeath and Longford.

12. *Combinations with o, or ua, from.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>uaim</i> , from me.	<i>uaimh</i> , from us.
<i>uaiz</i> , from thee.	<i>uaib</i> , from you.
<i>uaó</i> , from him.	<i>uača</i> , from them.
<i>uače</i> , or <i>uačė</i> , from her.	

These combinations are pronounced in the south of Ireland as if written *buaim*, *buaz*, *buazg*, *buaimh*, *buab*, *buča*.—See *Observations on the Gaelic Language*, by Richard Mac Elligott, published in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, p. 21. And this form is found in manuscripts of considerable antiquity, as in an old life of St. Ceallach, of Kilmore Moy, written in vellum: *panğatup co cill ele bai ġairio buča*, "they came to another church which was not far from them."

Uaó, from him, is variously written, *uaó*, *uaio*, *uaóa*, and *uaioe*.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 50, 64, 232, 264, where it is written *uaóa*. In the Book of Lecan it is generally written *uaó*; but Duaid Mac Firis writes it both *uaó* and *uaóa*, as *Conaó uaó*

ammniḡčear, “so that it is from him the carn is named,” *Tribes and Customs of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 100; Αὐὸ, mac Cobḡaiḡ, ἢ uaḡa Ceneul Αὐὸa, “Aodh, the son of Cobhthach; from him the Cinel Aodha are descended,” *Id.*, p. 54. It is difficult to decide, from the present pronunciation in the different provinces, which is the true form, but analogy would suggest that the last vowel should be slender. Uaḡa, from them, is pronounced in the province of Connaught as if written uaḡu, and in ancient manuscripts is often written uaḡiḡb.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 38.

13. *Combinations with poim, before.*

SINGULAR.

poimam, before me.
 poimao, or poimat, before thee.
 poime, before him.
 poimpe, or poimpi, before her.

PLURAL.

poimainn, before us.
 poimaiḡb, before you.
 pómpa, before them.

In ancient manuscripts these combinations are often written, pemum, pemuz, or pomuz, peme, peimpe, pemuino, pemuib, pempu.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 34, 42, 70, 74, 92, 96. But the o is also used in the oldest authorities.

14. *Combinations with reac, beside.*

SINGULAR.

reacam, by, or beside me.
 reacao, or reacat, by thee.
 reac é, by him.
 reac í, by her.

PLURAL.

reacainn, by us.
 reaciaiḡb, by you.
 reacá, by them.

In ancient manuscripts these combinations are written reacam, reacat, &c.; or rscham, rschat, &c.; and reocam, &c., is sometimes to be met with.

15. *Combinations with tar, beyond, over.*

SINGULAR.

thoim, over me.
 thoirt, over thee.
 thairi, over him.
 thairpe, or thairri, over her.

PLURAL.

thoppainn, over us.
 thoppaiḡb, over you.
 tháppa, or tháppeta, over them.

In ancient writings *ἐάρρα*, over them, is most generally written *ταιρριβ*.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 194.

16. *Combinations with τρέ, through.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
τρέομ, through me.	τρέινη, through us.
τρέοτ, through thee.	τρέβ, through you.
τρέο, through him.	τρέοεα, through them.
τρέε, or τρέει, through her.	

In ancient writings these combinations are often written *τρέμ*, or *τρεομ*, *τρέτ*, or *τρεοτ*, *τρέο*, *τρέινη*, *τρέβ*, *τρέιτ*, *τρεμпу*, or *τρεομπα*.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 194, 202. Rom *ιμοεργ* *co móp τρεοτ*, “I was much reviled for thee,” *Vit. Moling*. In the province of Connaught, *τρέοεα* is pronounced as if written *τρέοφύ*, but *τρέοεα* in Munster.

17. *Combinations with υπε, over, above.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
υπαμ, above me.	υπαμνη, above us.
υπαο, or υπατ, above thee.	υπαιβ, above you.
υπα, above him.	υπαε, above them.
υπατε, or υπατει, above her.	

These combinations are never used in the spoken language in any part of Ireland, the phrase *ορ μο ειονν*, &c., being substituted for *υπαμ*; but it is of frequent occurrence in ancient manuscripts, with the spelling modified as usual, as will appear from the following examples: *Χρίστ ήραμ*, *Χρίστ υπαμ*, *Χρίστ οεppum*, *Χρίστ τυαθum*, “Christ beneath me, Christ above me, Christ to my right, Christ to my left,” *Hymn of St. Patrick*, in *Liber Hymnorum*; *bennacht De αεαρ υπαμ*, “the blessing of God the Father over me,” *Bishop Sanctan’s Hymn*, *ibid.*; *πο εριε α βρυε mileo ocur α έν γαλε φορ φορluamam υπα*, “his heroic fury rose, and his bird of valour fluttered over him,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 32. *Υπατειβ*, or *υπατειβ*, the *b* not aspirated, is the form generally used in old manuscripts to express *over them*, though,

according to the analogies of the modern language, it would rather mean *over you (ye)*: $\sigma\upsilon\rho$ $\text{Domhnall mac Aedha f\u00e9rin}$, $\text{i n' \u00e1r\u00f3-r\u00edg\u00ed f\u00f3r \text{Eirinn uairtib f\u00edn uile}$, "and Domhnall, son of Aedh, himself in the sovereignty of Erin over all these," *Id.*, p. 24; $\text{f\u00edl uairtib f\u00edu h-uair f\u00e9r\u00edg\u00ed}$, $\text{n\u00e9l na f\u00f3la f\u00f3r\u00f3ber\u00edg\u00ed}$, "there is over them a cloud of deep red blood," *Id.*, p. 78; $\text{ne\u00f3ill \u00e9tarbuairac\u00e1 uairtib}$, "hovering clouds over them," *H.* 3. 18. p. 60.

The emphatic postfixes of these combinations are nearly the same as those of the personal and possessive pronouns with which the preposition is amalgamated, viz., ra for the first and second person singular; rean for the third person singular; ne , or n\u00ed , for the first person plural; ra , or re , for the second person plural; and ran , or rean , for the third person plural.

The possessive pronouns also amalgamate with the pronouns, but not so extensively as the personal pronouns. The following are the principal combinations of this class:

1. *Combinations with $\alpha\zeta$, or $\zeta\omicron$, with.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
com , or \zetaom , with my.	c\u00f3ar , c\u00f3r , to our.
c\u00f3b , or c\u00f3t , &c., with thy.	c\u00f3 \u00d0ar , to your.
con\u00e1 , with his, with her's.	con\u00e1 , with their.

2. *Combinations with $\upsilon\omicron$, to.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
uom , to my.	u\u00e1r , to our.
u\u00f3b , u\u00f3t , to thy.	u\u00e1\u00d0ar , to your.
u\u00e1 , to his, to her's.	u\u00e1 , to their.

In ancient manuscripts \u00f3ia is very frequently used for u\u00e1 , to his, her's, its, or their, as $\text{\u00f3ia \u00d0ennachad\u00f3}$, "for its blessing, i. e. for the blessing of it," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 26; $\text{\u00f3ia \u00d0ian-f\u00edoe}$,

“of its hide,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* *Серцаул*. ’*Ḑá*, and even ’*cá*, which is a combination of *αḡ*, at, and *α*, his, her’s, their’s, is very often used in old writings, and in the living language, in some parts of Ireland, for *o’á*, as *’ḡα ḅ-ḡαḅουḡαḅ*, “to welcome them,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 30; *ḅυḡ ḡá ḡεḡεḡḡ ḅο ḡαḅα*, “and was viewing him for a long time,” *Id.*, p. 72.

3. Combinations with *ḡο*, under.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>ḡοḡ</i> , under my.	<i>ḡοḡḡ, ḡοḡḡ</i> , under our.
<i>ḡοḅ</i> , under thy.	<i>ḡο ḅḡḡ</i> , under your.
<i>ḡοḡα</i> , under his, her’s.	<i>ḡοḡα</i> , under their.

4. Combinations with *ḡ*, in.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>ḡḡ</i> , in my.	<i>’ḡḡḡ</i> , in our.
<i>ḡḅ</i> , <i>ḡḅḡ</i> , in thy.	<i>ḡḡḡ ḅḡḡ</i> , in your.
<i>ḡḡḡ</i> , or <i>ḡḡḡ</i> , in his, or in her’s.	<i>ḡḡḡḡ</i> , or <i>ḡḡḡḡ</i> , in their.

5. Combinations with *ḡe*, with.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>ḡeḡ</i> , with my.	<i>ḡe ḡḡ ḡeḡḡ</i> , with our.
<i>ḡeḅ</i> , or <i>ḡeḅḡ</i> , with thy.	<i>ḡe ḅḡḡ</i> , with your.
<i>ḡeḡḡ</i> , with his, her’s.	<i>ḡeḡḡ</i> , with their.

In old manuscripts written *ḡeḡ*, *ḡḡḡḡ*, &c. The *n* in *ḡeḡḡ*, which is merely inserted for the sake of strength and euphony, is not used in the Scotch Gaelic, which often causes a disagreeable hiatus in that dialect; and the Irish use of the euphonic *n* has been admired by the Erse grammarians. Stewart writes thus on this subject, in a note on the possessive pronoun *a*, in the second edition of his Gaelic Grammar, p. 70: “The Irish are not so much at a loss to avoid a *hiatus*, as they often use ‘*na*,’ for ‘*a*,’ *his*, which the [Scotch] translators of the Psalms have sometimes judiciously adopted, as—

‘An talamh tioram le na laimh
Do chruthaich e’s do dhealbh.’”

Psalm xcv. 5.

6. Combinations with *ό*, from.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>όμ</i> , from my.	<i>όαμ, όρ</i> , from our.
<i>όσ, ότ</i> , from thy.	<i>ό ύαμ</i> , from your.
<i>όνα</i> , from his, her's.	<i>όνα</i> , from their.

Modern grammarians, however, think that it would add much to the clearness of the written language if these combinations were separated by hyphens and apostrophes, and they recommend *ιονα, conα, ρονα, lenα, όνα, τρένα*, to be written *ι-ν-α, co n-α, ρο n-α, le n-α, ό n-α, τρέ n-α*; and *όά, όάρ, &c.*, to be written *ο'ά, ο'άρ, &c.*, and an apostrophe to be used where a vowel is omitted at the end, as *οομ', οοσ', lem', τρεμ', &c.*

The emphatic particles added to these combinations are the same as those postfixed to the combinations of the prepositions and the personal pronouns, with this difference, however, that they always follow the nouns to which the possessive pronouns belong, and become broad or slender according to the last vowel in such nouns.

Thus, if *αμ' έααν*, in my head, be rendered emphatic, the emphatic particle will be placed, not after *αμ*, but immediately after the substantive, and its vowel must agree in class with the characteristic, or last vowel of the substantive, thus: *αμ' έααν-ρα*, where, it will be observed, that the *α* in *ρα* agrees in class with the *α* in *εααν*; but if the last vowel of the substantive be slender, then that of the emphatic particle will be slender also, as *αμ' λαμ-ρε*, "in my hand;" *α μιννητη-ριθε*, "his people."—*Cor. Gloss., voce Κοιρε όρεαμ*.

And if the substantive be immediately followed by an adjective, the emphatic particle will be placed after such adjective, as *αμ' λαμ οειρ-ρε*, in my right hand.

CHAPTER V.

OF VERBS.

THERE are three kinds of verbs, namely, active, passive, and neuter. They are inflected by voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

SECTION 1.—*Of the Moods and Tenses.*

The moods are four, viz., the indicative, imperative, conditional, and infinitive, and some of the irregular verbs have a subjunctive mood.

The inflections of verbs, like those of nouns, are made by changes on the termination. Changes also take place at the beginning, but they are more for the sake of euphony than sense (though they sometimes help to point out the moods and tenses), and are caused by certain particles prefixed, which may frequently be left understood.

The same particles which are postfixed to personal pronouns are also subjoined to verbs for the sake of emphasis, as $\rho\acute{\iota}\tau\omicron\mu$, I run, $\rho\acute{\iota}\tau\omicron\mu\text{-}\rho\epsilon$; $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\mu$, I drink, $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\mu\text{-}\rho\epsilon$; $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\eta$, thou drinkest; $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\eta\text{-}\rho\epsilon$; $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\upsilon$, they drink, $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\upsilon\text{-}\rho\epsilon\alpha\eta$.

The following examples will shew the use of these terminations in correct MSS.: $\mu\alpha\rho\acute{\upsilon}\text{-}\rho\alpha$ me, “kill thou me,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 76; $\alpha\eta$ $\gamma\text{-}\acute{\epsilon}\mu\eta$ $\beta\alpha\sigma\iota\text{-}\rho\iota\omicron\mu$ α $\beta\text{-}\rho\lambda\alpha\iota\acute{\epsilon}\iota\omicron\upsilon$ $\mu\upsilon\mu\eta\eta$, “while he was in the

sovereignty of Munster," *Id.*, p. 142; αρ βα ηρ ιν cappuz πο γεναρ-πιον, "for he was born in the chariot," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Κορμας; οο βέραμ-νε σεé φορταάτ ριςφα α λεαρ ουιττ, "we will give thee every necessary assistance," *Vit. Moling.*

There are five tenses of the indicative mood, active, namely, 1, the simple present; 2, the consuetudinal, or habitual present; 3, the preterite, or simple past; 4, the consuetudinal past; and, 5, the future.

1. The simple present tense of an active verb denotes action in progress in this instant, or now, as *ceilm*, I conceal, Lat. *celo*.

2. The habitual, or consuetudinal present, expresses extended or habitual action, as *ceileann ré*, he conceals, or is used to conceal.

The present tense in English has frequently this force, as "he resides in Dublin," in which *resides* has the same meaning as the consuetudinal present in Irish, *coinnúiteann ré a m-Doire Áta chlá*, i. e. he usually resides, &c. The Irish attempt to introduce this tense even into English, as "HE BEES," "he does be," &c.

3. The simple past tense signifies past unextended action, as *ceilear*, I concealed, Lat. *celavi*.

4. The consuetudinal past denotes past extended or habitual action, as *ceilmn*, I used to conceal, Lat. *celabam*.

This tense is frequently used in Irish conversation, and hence the Irish are fond of it even in English, as "he used to be living in Dublin," or "he did be," &c.

5. The future tense simply foretells, as *ceilpead*, I will conceal, Lat. *celabo*.

There are two modes of expressing the persons; the first, and that now most generally used in the spoken

language, particularly in the province of Ulster, is the analytic form of the verb, with the pronouns separately expressed; the other, which is more general in the south of Ireland, and was used in the ancient language, is the synthetic form, in which the pronoun is concealed in the termination of the verb.

When the pronouns are separately expressed the verb has a common form for all the persons, singular and plural, as *ceilpíò mé*, I will conceal; *ceilpíò tú*, thou wilt conceal; *ceilpíò sé*, he will conceal; *ceilpíò fíonn*, we will conceal; *ceilpíò sib*, ye will conceal; *ceilpíò síad*, they will conceal; the termination *píò* being common to all the persons.

In this particular the Irish language nearly agrees with the colloquial dialect of the English, in which the verb varies its termination in the third person singular only, as :

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I call, <i>voco.</i>	1. we call, <i>vocamus.</i>
2. you call, <i>vocas.</i>	2. you call, <i>vocatis.</i>
3. he calls, <i>vocat.</i>	3. they call, <i>vocant.</i>

In the preter-imperfect tense of the English verb this agreement is still closer, thus :

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I called, <i>vocavi.</i>	1. we called, <i>vocavimus.</i>
2. you called, <i>vocavisti.</i>	2. you called, <i>vocavistis.</i>
3. he called, <i>vocavit.</i>	3. they called, <i>vocaverunt.</i>

Some Irish writers, however, among whom may be reckoned the two of the most remarkable Irish antiquaries of the seventeenth century, namely, Dr. Keating and Duaid Mac Firbis, use the synthetic form of the verb in the present and future tenses of the indicative mood, when the third person plural is expressed, as *ceilpíò síad*, they conceal; *ceilpíò síad*, they will conceal. But in

the past tense this could not be done, for $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\epsilon\alpha\sigma\alpha\tau\iota\ \rho\iota\omega$ would be incorrect, and seems to warrant the conclusion, that the introduction of the termination $\iota\omega$ for $\iota\acute{o}$, in the other two tenses, is not analogical. When, however, the nominative is a substantive, the synthetic termination is retained, as $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\epsilon\alpha\sigma\alpha\tau\iota\ \sigma\alpha\sigma\iota\mu\epsilon\ \alpha\eta\ \mu\iota\acute{o}\ \rho\iota\omega$, "men concealed that thing."

When the personal pronoun is not expressed separately, the verb has a distinct terminational form (which in reality indicates the pronoun), for all the persons except the third person singular, with the termination of which the pronoun is never synthetically combined; and the form for this person, which ends in $\iota\acute{o}$, or $\alpha\iota\acute{o}$, in the present and future tenses of the indicative, is that which is adopted for all the other persons, singular and plural, in the analytic form of the verb, when the pronouns are separately expressed. The two forms are here given, with their English and Latin parallels.

Analytic Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \mu\acute{\epsilon}$, I conceal.	1. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \rho\iota\omega$, we conceal.
2. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou concealest.	2. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \rho\iota\omega$, ye conceal.
3. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he conceals.	3. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \rho\iota\omega$, they conceal.

Synthetic Form.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\mu$, <i>celo</i> .	1. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\mu\iota\acute{o}$, <i>celamus</i> .
2. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\upsilon$, <i>celas</i> .	2. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\omega$, <i>celatis</i> .
3. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\acute{o}\ \rho\acute{\epsilon}$, <i>celat ille</i> .	3. $\acute{\alpha}\iota\lambda\iota\omega$, <i>celant</i> .

As the third person singular has no synthetic form, the pronoun must be always expressed, unless it be understood, where the construction of the sentence permits an ellipsis of it. Indeed, it is very convenient in this, and all other languages, that this person

should be always expressed, because the third person is generally absent, and it becomes, therefore, necessary to express the pronoun, to denote its gender; whereas the first and second persons, being always supposed to be present, there is no necessity of marking any distinction of gender in them.

It will be observed that in this particular the Irish essentially differs from the classical languages; for although in Latin it is correct to say *tu legis, vos negligitis*, yet in Irish we cannot say *ceilm mé*, or *ceilip tú*, but *ceiliò mé*, *ceiliò tú*; for as the verbal termination is actually the personal pronoun amalgamated with the verb, it would be obviously redundant to place the pronoun after this termination, which would be in reality expressing the pronoun twice.

To explain this, it must be observed, that the word *ceilm*, I conceal, is as much a compound of the verb *ceil*, conceal, and the pronoun *mé*, I, as the word *agam*, with me, is of the preposition *ag*, with, and me, I; and as it would be clearly tautology to place me after *agam*, so would it be equally redundant to place it after *ceilm*; hence, whenever *mé* occurs after the synthetic form of any verb active we know it to be not the nominative, but the accusative, governed by the verb; for example, *ceilm me* would not mean "I conceal," but "I conceal me," or "I conceal myself." The other persons are much more disguised in the verb than the first person singular, as *ceilmíó*, for *ceili pinn^k*; but the same disguising also takes place in the combination of the pronouns with the prepositions, as *pompá*, before them, for *poim ío*; *leo*, for *le ío*, &c.

Notwithstanding this evident principle of the language, some writers, following the analogies of Latin, often place the pronoun after the synthetic form of the third person plural, in the present and future tenses of the indicative mood.—See above.

^k So much is the termination *míó*, or *mío*, considered to contain the pronoun, that some Irish scholars consider it an old form of the pronoun retained in the verb, though obsolete as a per-

sonal pronoun. The author has also often heard young persons use it for the pronoun, as *cuirpeáó maio-ne go o-ti zupa*, for *cuirpeáó pinne*, &c., "we were sent to thee."

Each of the tenses has a *relative* form ending in αϣ, εαϣ, or ιαϣ, in the present and future tenses of the indicative mood in the modern language, but licentiously varied in the ancient language to αϣ, οϣ, υϣ, εϣ, ιϣ, ιυϣ, but in all the other tenses it is like the form for the third person singular, as α *céileαϣ*, who conceals; α *céilϣεαϣ*, who will conceal; α *céil*, who concealed; α *céileαḃ*, who used to conceal.

This rule is sufficient to point out the relative form with sufficient accuracy, and it will not be, therefore, necessary to repeat the relative form in each tense, in giving the conjugation of the verb, as Haliday has done.

This form of the verb in αϣ is also used as the historic present; namely, when the present tense is put for the past, to express that an action now passed was, at the time of which we speak, present, as *τόζβαϣ α λάμ*, he raises his hand, i. e. he was, at the time we speak of, in the act of raising his hand.

In ancient MSS. this termination is variously written, αϣ, εϣ, ιϣ, οϣ, υϣ, ιυϣ, exactly like the variations of the relative termination, as will appear from the following examples, selected from various manuscripts of authority: *Ἐοῦαῖγιϣ Colam Cille eclαϣ* ι *Rrachrainn Oiréιϣ ḃρεζ*, οϣϣ *ḃαζβαϣ Colmán Deoḃain ινε*, “Columbkille *erects* a church on Rachrainn [an island] of the east of Bregia, and *leaves* Colman, the Deacon, in it,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 16, *b, a*; *ḃαζβυϣ να ϣιλḃ αϣ α η-αιḃλε*, οϣϣ *τιμναϣ céileαḃραḃ ḃóḃ*, “he then *leaves* the poets, and *bids* them farewell,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 42; *ϣιḃḃοιϣ ιη ϣιλḃ αιϣι ϣοι ταεḃ να ταḃα*, οϣϣ *ιαρραῖγιϣ ϣελα δε*, “the poet *sits* down with him on the side of the hill, and *asks* him the news,” *Id.*, p. 67; *ειρζιϣ αι ϣιζ ḃια αḃαϣε*, “the king *rises* from his pillow,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 52; *ceiliḃραιϣ ḃóḃ ιαϣ ϣιη*, αζυϣ *επιαλλαιϣ ζο η-α céo*

laoc' o' fíor a lunge, "he then *bids* them farewell, and *proceeds* with his hundred heroes towards his ship," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 51.

This termination is also used in the simple present tense, and even in the future of the indicative, as ciò rìò iarrur rìg Tempac, "though the king of Tara seeks peace," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 42; ceic ni cinber Dia do neoch, "whatever God *predestines* for a person," *St. Columbkille* (H. 3. 18.); Aig Sru, mac Earru rgarur Paréalón agur clanna Neimhò pe poile, "In Sru, son of Easru, Parthalon and the Clann Neimhidh branch off from each other," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 33; cnám éirg flucfeap, "the bone of a fish which he shall swallow," *Id.*, p. 90; map foillrígíor an rann, "as this quatrain shews," *Id.*, p. 50.

To account for the initial changes which will appear in the conjugation of the verb, it will be necessary to give here a list of such particles as aspirate the initial consonant of all regular, and most of the irregular verbs¹:

1. Ar, whether (an abbreviation of an, whether), and po, sign of the past tense. This is never prefixed but to the past tense, as ar céil pe? did he conceal?

2. Do and po, signs of the past tense, as do céileap, or po céileap, I concealed.

3. Sur, that (compounded of so, that, and po, sign of the past tense), as gur céilur, that thou didst conceal. This is never used except before the past tense, save only in its union with the assertive verb ur, or ab, as gurab é, that it is he.

4. Má, if, prefixed to all the tenses of the indicative mood, as má ceilm, if I conceal; má ceileap, if I concealed; má céilpeao, if I will conceal; má céilpeap é, if it will be concealed.

5. Map, as, like as; map foillrígíear an file, "as the poet shews;" map a n-abair, "where he says," *Keat. Hist. Irel.*, p. 41.

¹ The irregular verbs *deirim*, some exception. I say, and *faigim*, I find, offer

6. *Nácar*, which not, that not, *ut non*; as *nácar céil ré*, that he did not conceal. This is compounded of *nac* and *po*, sign of the past tense, and is often contracted to *nár*, as *Deirim-ré nár céil*, I say that he concealed not.

7. *Ní*, not, *non*; prefixed to the present and future, as *ní céilim*, I conceal not; *ní céilfir*, thou wilt not conceal.

8. *Níor*, not. This, which is compounded of *ní*, not, and *po*, sign of the past tense, is never prefixed except to the past tense, as *níor céil*, he did not conceal.

9. *Noácar*, not; as *noácar fágaib*, “he did not leave,” *Keat. Hist. Irel.*, p. 44.

10. *Sul*, before; as *rul céilfeap é*, before it will be concealed.

Óo is the only simple prefix used in the modern language to denote the past tense, *po* being never employed, except as contracted in the combinations *ap*, *gur*, *nácar*, *nár*, *níor*, which, as has been said, are abbreviations of *go po*, *nac po*, *ná po*, *ní po*. But in ancient MSS. various particles are used, as *ao*, *at*, *acc*, *oo*, *oor*, *fo*, *for*, *no*, *nor*, *not*, *ra*, *po*, *poour*, *por*, *ron*, *ror*, *rot*; and these frequently carry the force of the relative *a*, *who*, and even of a personal pronoun in the accusative case, as shall be shewn in the Syntax.

Stewart has fallen into a great error in saying (*Gaelic Grammar*, second edition, p. 84, note *z*), that *ono* is used in one Irish MS. of high authority as a prefix to the preter tense, for the *ono*, which occurs in ancient MSS., is an expletive particle, having nearly the same force as the Latin *autem*, or *vero*, or the Greek *δὲ* or *ἀλλὰ*, as I shall shew in treating of Adverbs and Conjunctions.

The *níor* of the modern language is generally written *nír* in ancient writings, and sometimes *ní po*, as *ní po aipir*, “he did not delay.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 46.

In most parts of Ireland *rul*, *before*, has some syllable post-fixed, as *a*, *rá*, *má*; but such postfixes are seldom found in correct manuscripts. The following examples of its use occur in John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*: *rul rugaó Abraham*, “before Abraham was born,” p. 30; *rul éamiz Páoruz a n-Éipinn*, “before St. Patrick came to Ire-

land," p. 41; *ῥῦλ ὅο ἐῖονηῖγαῖν Ἰενῖῦρ ἀν ῖῖῖῖ*, "before Fenius began the school," p. 43; *ῥῦλ λαιθεοῖαμ ἀρ ἐῖαλλ Νῖῖῖ ὄ'ν Σκῖα ὅο'ν Εῖῖῖῖ*, "before we shall speak of Niul's departure from Scythia for Egypt," p. 44; *ῥῦλ ὅο ἐῖαλλῖῖῖ μῖῖ Ἰῖῖῖῖ ἔῖῖ Μῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖ*, "before the sons of Israel passed through the Red Sea," p. 47; *ῥῦλ ῖῖῖῖ ὅῖῖ*, "before he died," p. 111; *ῥῦλ τῖῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ ἄ ἢ-Εῖῖῖῖ*, "before the English came to Ireland," *Ibid.*; *ῥῦλ ῖῖῖῖ ἀν ἰῖῖῖῖ*, "before he reached the spot," p. 124; *ῥῦλ ῖῖῖῖ ἰῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ*, "before he himself could come," p. 167; *ῥῦλ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖῖῖῖ ῖῖ*, "before it was concluded," p. 174.

In some parts of the county of Kilkenny, *ῥῦλ* is pronounced *ῖῖῖ*; but this is a mere local barbarity.

The following particles cause ellipses of such consonants as admit of eclipse, and require *n* prefixed to initial vowels :

1. *Ἄν*, whether; Lat. *an*; as *ἀν ῖῖῖῖ*? Dost thou conceal?
2. *ῖῖ*, that; *ut*, or *utinam*; as *ῖῖ ῖῖῖῖ*, that thou concealst, or; mayest thou conceal.
3. *Ὅά*, *ῖῖ*, if; in the past tense; sign of the conditional mood, as *ὅά ῖῖῖῖ*, if I would or should conceal.
4. *Ἰῖῖ*, after; as *ἰῖῖ ῖῖῖῖ*, after concealing. But this is placed before verbal nouns, and is never used before any tense of the indicative or other moods.
5. *Μῖῖ ἄ*, where, in which; as *μῖῖ ἄ ἢ-ῖῖῖ*, where he says.
6. *Μῖῖῖ*, unless; as *μῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖῖ*, unless thou wilt conceal.
7. *Νῖῖῖ*, which not, that not, *non, nec, neque, qui non, anne*; as *ῖῖῖῖ-ῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖῖ*, I say that I conceal not; *ἀν ῖῖ ῖῖῖῖῖ*, he that does not conceal. This becomes *ῖῖῖῖ* and *ῖῖῖ* in the past tense.
8. *Νῖῖῖ*, not; as *ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖῖ*, I do not conceal. This causes *n* to be prefixed to *ῖῖ*, as *ῖῖῖ ἢ-ῖῖῖῖ*, we do not find; *ῖῖῖ ἢ-ῖῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖ ῖῖῖ ῖῖῖῖῖ*, "the son of a man knoweth not for whom he maketh a gathering," *St. Columbkille's Poem*, in H. 3. 18., p. 320.

When the relative α, who, is preceded by a preposition expressed or understood, the initial consonant of the verb which immediately follows it will be eclipsed, if of the class which admits of eclipsis; and if the initial of the verb be a vowel it will have n prefixed; as ó α ο-τάιμιζ, from whom came; ó α n-ειριζεανν, from which rises; but if the particle πο, or an abbreviation of it, follows the relative α, then the initial consonant of the verb immediately following it will be under the influence of this particle, and suffer aspiration instead of eclipsis, as Αδαμ όρ παραμα, i. e. Αδαμ ό α πο παραμα, “Adam from whom we have sprung.”

In the counties of Kilkenny, Waterford, and Tipperary, ναc is generally pronounced να, except in those situations where the assertive verb 17 is understood; as οειριμ-ρε ναc ε-φυιλ, pronounced as if written οειριμ-ρε να φυιλ. In John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*, the initial of the verb is never eclipsed after ναc; ex. Ράιόιρ Μόχουα ριρ να τεαcταε ναc ριυεριοδ, αγυρ ναc τρειζριοδ Ραcαιν, “St. Mochuda says to the messengers that he would not leave or depart from Rathain.”—*Keat. Hist.*, p. 130. When 17 is understood, the c is pronounced in these counties, as οειριμ-ρε ναc ε, I say that *it is* not he; μεαριμ ναc εαδ, I suppose *it is* not.

SECTION 2.—*Of the Assertive or Impersonal Verb* 17.

The simplest verb in this language is 17, which corresponds with the *copula* of logicians, and may with propriety be called the assertive verb. In the modern language it always takes the accusative forms of the pronouns ε, ι, and ιαδ, after it, and is thus inflected :

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense, ἵρ, it is.

Past tense, βα, it was.

Future tense, βυρ, it will be.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

ζυρ αβ, that it is.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

οα m-βαὸ, if it were.

ζε m-βαὸ, though it were.

Although these are the usual and most correct forms of this verb, still a variety of spellings occur in ancient, and even in modern MSS. and books, to the no small confusion of the learner. These shall be here set down :

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense, ἵρ, αῖρ, it is.

Past tense, βα, βυὸ, φα, ροβαὸ, ροβ, ρορ, it was.

Future tense, βυρ, βυὸ, βιὸ, πυ, it will be.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

ζυρ αβ, κορβ, that it is.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

οά m-βαὸ, οαμαὸ, οιαμαὸ, if it were.

ζε m-βαὸ, ζέμαὸ, though it were.

κο m-βαὸ, κομαὸ, κυμαὸ, κοιὸ, so that it might be.

A synthetic union of this verb with personal pronouns and conjunctions is often found, in the present and past tenses, in ancient manuscripts. The following synopsis of these forms is here annexed, for the use of such as wish to study ancient Irish writings :

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. ɪɾam, *or* am, it is I.
2. ɪɾat, *or* at, it is thou.
3. ɪɾ he, *or* ɪt é, it is he.

PLURAL.

1. ɪɾinn, *or* amne, it is we.
2. ɪɾib, it is ye.
3. ɪɾit, ɪɪat, ɪt, at, it is they.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. bam, pobɾam, *or* pobɾam, it was I.
2. bat, *or* pobat, it was thou.
3. ba h-e, robe, pobat, pobat, *or* pobé, it was he.

PLURAL.

1. bam, *or* pobɾamne, it was we.
2. bapib, *or* pobɾib, it was ye.
3. bat, basoir, pobɾat, *or* pobɾat, it was they.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. copbam, that it was I.
2. copbat, that it was thou.
3. copb é, *or* ɟupab é, that it was he.

PLURAL.

1. copbamne, that it was me.
2. copbɾib, that it was ye.
3. comɾat, that it was they.

Various other combinations of the pronouns and conjunctions with this verb occur in old manuscripts, which the student of the ancient Irish language should become familiar with; as *naɾbat*, be thou not, or mayest thou not be; *comoir*, until they would be; *nɾɾam*, I was not; *ɟéɾram*, although I was; *minab*, unless it be; *nír*, it was not; *naɾɾí*, that it would not be they; *ceɾɾat*, who they were; *pobɾ*, or *pobɾ*, it would be.

The following examples of the simple and combined forms of this verb are here subjoined, to point out its application, particularly in ancient compositions: *ɪ mé an ɾeap*, I am the man; *ba bɾónac m ɾiɟ de ɾm*, "the king was sorry for that," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24; *Deapbɾopɾaill ɾa h-ann oi*, "Dervorgilla was her name," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 5; *Enna Aighnioc ɾa h-ann oo*, "Enna Aighnioc was his name," *Id.*, p. 71; *oir ap tu ɾur aom-bean oam-ɾa ó ɾo amac*, "for thou shalt be my only wife from this out," *Id.*, p. 90; *m pu ɾen maic*, it will not be good success,"

Battle of Magh Rath, p. 18; βιὸ οὐκ οὐβ, "it shall be evil to you," *Id.*, p. 22; Ἄμ υἷα ριῖ, "I am the grandson of a king," *Id.*, p. 202; Ἰρᾶμ κυβου-ρι, "I am more fit," *Id.*, p. 68; Ἄμ βυωεὸ οε, "I am thankful of him;" ἄμ μακ βο ριῖ Ζοχλανο, "I am the son of the king of Lochlann," *Id.*, p. 80; ἄμ σιντε οε ἀνορ, "I am certain of it now," *Id.*, p. 145; ἄμ υαῖννιὸ ρέρ ἄν ριῖ, "I am fearful of the king," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 126; μαὸ ἄμ καλλι-
 οὐ-ρα, οὐ ριρ, ἄρ καλλιὸ οο μάταρ-ρι, "if I am a hag, said she, thy mother is a hag," *Id.*, p. 109; ἀτ μακ ριῖ-ρα, "thou art the son of a king," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 80; ἄρ ἀτρεον-ρα ἴρα ριὸ, "for I perceive that thou art a poet," *Id.*, p. 68; ἀτ ριρῖ, "thou art a seer," *Id.*, p. 14; πο ρεαρ ἱε ράρ ἰν Fenechur ἰ con-
 οελῖ ρερβ η-Θε, "it is known that the Fenechus law is void in comparison with the word of God," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ἰερβ*; ἴρε ἰμοα α λοα, "many are its lakes," *Irish Version of Nennius*; ἀτ μόρα να η-αἰρι βο ραοα ρορ, "great are the injuries which were inflicted on thee," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 30; ἱε Ἰαλλ πο ριυόρεταρ α η-Θρῖνν ἄρ τύρ, "for it was the Gauls that first fixed them in Ireland," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ἰαλλ*; Θεοδοῖρι πορ ἀπο-ριῖ ἰν βοῖαν ἰν ταν ρῖν, "Theodosius was monarch of the world at that time," *H. 3. 17. p. 1*; πορταρ ἰαο βαοαρ αυροαρ, "they were the most illustrious," *Annals of the Four Masters, ad ann. 1567*; πορταρ λια ἀμμαρβ ἰννα α η-βο, "their dead were more numerous than their living," *Book of Leinster*, p. 25, *b*; οουρ βα οο ἀργαο βασίρ μενσε, "and it was of silver they were oftenest made," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ἄνα*; ναρβατ βροναὶ-ρα, "be thou not sorrowful," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 50; πο ροῖνν οοῖβ κομοαρ οαεζναὸ, "he distributed [the food] among them till they were satiated," *Vit. Moling*; ριβ-ρι ἀζ ουλ ροβρ ρερρ ἀναὸ, "ye are going, better it were to stay," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 62; ναρ-
 βατ οἰμοαὶ-ρα, "be not thou sorrowful," *Id.*; ἄρ βεαρταταρ ριθε ναρσίρ ορῖσῃ ηὸ βεαρηραὸ α β-ρεῖῖ ἄρ τύρ, "they said that it should not be Druids that would first partake of their banquet," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 47, *b, b*; ἄρ ναβ τυρλεὸαὶ, "in order that it might not be slippery," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ἰροῖετ*; ἰν οίρ οο ρεετ μῖναβ μαῖε, "law is not right unless it be good," *Id.*, voce

Ἦνο; ἡρ μαέταῖο λα νεχ, “it was not wonderful to any one;”
 κομαρσ σερταρ ιαο, “she asked who they were,” *Id.*, voce Ὀpull.

Having now pointed out the various ancient forms and synthetic combinations of this verb, I shall next exhibit its peculiar idiomatic applications in the modern language. But before I enter upon this subject, it will be curious to notice, that O’Molloy, who calls it by the strange appellation of *articulus*, has the following remarks on this verb.

“*Articulus* αρ in Oratione importat affirmatiuum tanquam esset verbum affirmans, sicut η negationem de se præsentis temporis, vt αρ μαιη Ταοηζ, latinè, *Thadæus est bonus*; η μαιη Ταοηζ, id est, *Thadæus non est bonus*; verùm si post η præcedat buoh, significabitur negatio pro futuro, vt η buoh μαιη Ταοηζ, latiné, *Thadæus non erit bonus*, cuius tamen contradictio significabitur delete η, remanente buoh, vt buoh μαιη Ταοηζ. Si autem sermo sit de præterito, ita vt bonitas de Thadæo negetur, transit η in ηρ, vt ηρ ηαηη Ταοηζ, vel si ita, vt affirmetur bonitas, sufficit præmitti buoh ante μαιη, si aspiretur η, vt buoh ηαηη Ταοηζ, latinè, *Thadæus erat bonus*; si enim non aspiretur η, sensus erit *Thadæus erit bonus*. Item si præmittatur η ante buoh, sensus erit *Thadæus non erit bonus*. Similiter b transit in buρ, ad affirmandum de futuro, vt in bhυρ ϕεαρρ, id est *melius erit*, sed nec malè dicitur in eodem sensu buoh ϕσρρ, cuius contradictio est η buoh ϕεαρρ. Sic ου buoh ϕσρρ, de futuro affirmat quòd meliùs foret. Item transit η in nach, vt cum dico σειριμ nach ϕεαρρ, latinè dico *quod non melius*, cuius oppositum significatur commutatione prædicti nach in ζυρ. Pòrro articulus nach et αρ præpositus adiectiuo comparatiuo importato per ϕεαρρ, sicuti αρ et η opponuntur sicut affirmatio et negatio, vt ηρ ϕεαρρ, η ϕεαρρ, vel nach ϕεαρρ. Similiter η et nach, transeunt in articulum ηαρ afficientem tempus præteritum, vt ηαρ ϕεαρρ, cui contradicit ζυραβ seù ζυρ appositione bh ad ϕεαρρ vt ζυραβ ϕεαρρ, vel potius ζυρ bhϕεαρρ.”—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 103, 104, 105.

It has sometimes puzzled Irish grammarians to point out the difference of meaning between the verbs ηρ, τάιμ, βίόιμ, and ḃ-ϕυιιμ;

but to any one who has studied the genius of the language this difference is obvious. It is this: 17 is the simple copula of logicians, being merely used for assertion, that is, to connect an attribute with its subject, or to predicate one thing of another, as 17 mé polur an boimín, I am the light of the world. But in all sentences in which existence is combined with locality *tá* is to be used. Mr. Patrick Lynch, in his *Introduction to the Irish Language*, has the following very accurate remarks on this subject, which are well worth quoting here for the consideration of the learner, pp. 16, 17: "Every Proposition or Phrase includes two separate ideas or terms. That of which something is affirmed or denied is called the subject or agent, stiled by grammarians the *nominative* or preceding case; the other term, denoting what is affirmatively or negatively asserted of the subject, is called the *Attribute*. There is another word employed to connect these two ideas, denominated a *Copula*, or Verb. In various languages there is, strictly speaking, but one Verb for designating this mental affirmation viz. *is* and the inflections of *am, was, be*. All other Verbs express not an act of the mind, but so far as they severally include the *substantive* Verb *is*, into which all adjective Verbs may be ultimately resolved; thus Patrick *loves, reads, walks*, are of equal import with the phrases Patrick *love-is, read-is, walk-is*, or, as logicians make it, *is* loving, *is* reading, *is* walking.—*Vide Lynch's English Grammar in Verse and Prose*, pp. 33, 34. In English and Latin the substantive verb *est, is*, serves for this affirmation. But in Irish we have two substantive verbs for designating it: and though *is-me* and *ataim* may, to some, appear to be of a similar import, yet they are not in reality so, nor can the one be substituted for the other. The radical Verb *is (iss) me* seems to have been originally invented for simply shewing, that the subject of discourse barely *is*, or *exists*, while *atá-me*, or *'taim*, denotes existence with reference to its state or locality, thus modifying the affirmation of simple *being* or *essence* by determining its condition place or time: as *is me ata ann. It is me (or I), that am here*. This with many other peculiarities in our Irish Verbs seems to require further investigation."

It is a very strange peculiarity in this language that the sub-

stantive verb *ṫá* can never ascribe a predicate to its subject without the aid of the preposition *ṫ*, or *ann*, as *ṫá ṫe 'n α ṫáḡapṫ*, he is a priest; lit. he is *in his* priest; *ḅṫ ṫé 'n α ṫṫḡ*, he was a king; lit. *in his* king. It may be curious to remark, that although in the application of these two verbs a strict attention to logical distinctions must be observed, still the native Irish speaker never finds any difficulty in applying them correctly.

When one substantive is predicated of another by this verb *ṫ*, and an adjective of praise or dispraise is connected with the predicate, it is never put in the genitive case, as *ṫeap ṫ mór ṫáḡ*, a man who is of great prosperity; *ṫeap ḅá mór ṫáḡ*, a man who was of great prosperity; *an ṫeap ḅá caoimé cṫuzh*, the man who was of fairest form; *an ṫeap ṫ mó cṫall*, the man of greatest sense. In such sentences the predicated noun would be in the genitive or ablative case in Latin, and in English would be governed by the preposition *of*; but in Irish it is actually the nominative case, coming after the assertive verb *ṫ*; and it is not easy to explain grammatically how it comes to have the force of the genitive or ablative in Latin; yet such it has, beyond a doubt. When no verb is used, the latter noun may be connected by the preposition *ḡo*, or *co*, *with*, as *ṫeap ḡo ṫḡnúr ḅeoḡá*, a man *with* a lively countenance. But when the verb *ṫ* is used, this preposition cannot be introduced, but we must say *ṫeap ṫ beoḡá ḡnúr*. It should be noticed here, that this form of expression cannot be resolved by *ṫeap—ṫ beoḡá α ḡnúr*, a man—lively is his countenance; but that it means fully and distinctly “a man of a lively countenance,” though no satisfactory grammatical reason has yet been assigned for this mode of construction. In examining this idiom, the student should have the following accurate observation on the English language before his mind:

“In the English, as in all other languages, a great number of expressions, scarcely warrantable in strict Syntax, become part and parcel of the language. To condemn these at once is unphilosophical. The better method is to account for them. The currency of an expression is *primá facie* evidence of some grammatical reason existing for it.”—*The English Language*, by Professor Latham, p. 358.

powers have prevailed over thee, that thou weepest in that manner?" *Id.*, p. 119. In the county of Kerry they say ταιον τυ, thou art; but this is corrupt, and not to be imitated.

The synthetic form for the first person plural of this tense is variously pronounced in the provinces, as τάμυρο, τάμασιο, and τάμίσιο. Keating writes ατάμαιο (μάιο short), as οηρ αταμαιο αγά clop ο βέλ γο βέλ, "we are hearing it from mouth to mouth," *Hist. Irel.*, p. 94. But O'Molloy and others write it—μασιο. This stands in great need of some established rule.—See Regular Verb.

Ταταοι, *ye are*, is found in the best manuscripts, except that in the more ancient ones it is written ταται, or ατάται, as ατάταί α η-οενθαυλε, "ye are in one place," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 62. The synthetic form for the third person plural is variously written in old manuscripts, ατάιο, ατάιτ, ατάίο, ατάίτ; *vide Id.*, pp. 38, 82, *et passim*.

Consuetudinal Present.

SINGULAR.

1. βίοιμ, *or* βίμ, I usually am.
2. βιόη, *or* βίη, thou usually art.
3. βιόεανν ρέ, *or* βιονν ρε, he usually is.

PRESENT.

1. βίμίσιο, βίωμασιο, *or* βίωμαιο, we usually are.
2. βιέί, you usually are.
3. β'όιο, *or* βίό, they usually are.

Or βιόεανν, or βιονν μέ, τυ, ρέ, &c., the verb having the same termination, to agree with all the persons. Διόμίσιο, or βίμίσιο, the synthetic form of the first person plural of this verb, is as often written βίομυιο, or βίωμασιο, and pronounced βίομοιο (the *m* being broad, and the last syllable short or long.—See Regular Verb.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. βιόεαρ, *or* βιόη, I was.
2. βιόη, *or* βίη, thou wast.
3. βιό, *or* βί ρέ, he was.

PLURAL.

1. βιόεαμαρ, *or* βιόμαρ, we were.
2. βιόεαθαρ, *or* βιόθαρ, thou wert.
3. βιόεασαρ, *or* βιόσαρ, they were.

Do and no are generally prefixed to this tense in ancient and modern writings. In ancient manuscripts the past tense of this verb is written bár, or báðar, báðair, or báir, bá ré, bamar, bábar, báoar. And this form is used by Keating, the Four Masters, Duaid Mac Firbis, and other writers of the seventeenth century, but no trace of it is now observable in the spoken language. For the modern bí, was, ancient writers often use baoi, boi, bui, boei, uoei, which renders their writings very obscure to modern Irish scholars.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. Bíomn, or bínn, I used to be.	1. Bíbmír, or íomaoir, we used to be.
2. Bíðceá, or bícea, thou usedst to be.	2. Bíí, you used to be.
3. Bíðeáð ré, or bíð ré, he used to be.	3. Bíóir, they used to be.

Óhíðeáð, or bíð ré; the third person singular of this tense is pronounced bíðeac, or bíoc ré, throughout the southern half of Ireland.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. biað, or beíðeao, I will be.	1. biaðmaoi, or beíðmí, we will be.
2. biair, or beíðir, thou wilt be.	2. biaðaið, or beíðí, you will be.
3. biaíð, or beíð ré, he will be.	3. biaðaoi, or beíðí, they will be.

The emphatic form of beíðir, or biaðair, thou shalt be, is sometimes written biair for biair-re, as in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 190: n biair ag bagur o'n láiri-pea amac, "for thou shalt not threaten from this day forth." The negative of the third person singular is written noca bia, i. e. "it shall not be," in the Poem attributed to St. Columbkille, preserved in a MS. in Trinity College (H. 3. 18.), already quoted. In many parts of Munster beíð ré is used for beíð, or biaíð ré, he will be, but it must be considered a great corruption, and is ascribed to the tendency of the Munster dialect to terminate in íð.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. | 1. bíóomaoiṛ, bimíṛ, or bío-
maio, let us be. |
| 2. bí, be thou. | 2. bíóíó, be ye. |
| 3. bíeacá ré, or bíóó ré, let him be. | 3. bíóíṛ, let them be. |

The form for the third person singular is pronounced bíeacá, or bíoc ré, throughout the southern half of Ireland, but bíom in the north and west. The form for the first person plural varies a good deal throughout the provinces, and wants a grammatical standard. The author would recommend the form bimíṛ, as it would perfectly agree with bíóíṛ, the universally approved form for the third person plural. In South Leinster and East Munster they say bíomuiṛ, and Dr. Neilson gives bíóomaoio, which is the form used in Ulster. But bíóomaoio is more properly the indicative form, and means *we are* rather than *let us be*. Bíóíó is the only form for the second person plural found in correct printed books and manuscripts, and yet bíḡíó is the form used in the spoken language^m in every part of Ireland, and *bigidhe* is given as the only synthetic form by Neilson, who had little or no acquaintance with the ancient Irish manuscripts.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| 1. ḡo b-ṛuilim, that I am. | 1. ḡo b-ṛuilmio, ḡo b-ṛuileam,
that we are. |
| 2. ḡo b-ṛuilir, that thou art. | 2. ḡo b-ṛuilcí, that ye are. |
| 3. ḡo b-ṛuil ré, that he is. | 3. ḡo b-ṛuilio, that they are. |

^m So much is this termination now established for this person in all the verbs, that in some of the mountainous districts some

boys, when beginning to speak English, are heard to say *come-aiḡíóe*, for "come ye."

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 1. γο παῖα, that I was. | 1. γο παῖαμα, that we were. |
| 2. γο παῖαυ, that thou wast. | 2. γο παῖαβα, that ye were. |
| 3. γο παῖβ, or παῖβε πέ, that
he was. | 3. γ παῖαοα, that they were: |

Ὁ-φυιλίμ, in the present tense, and παῖα, in the past, are called the subjunctive mood of the verb τάμ, although, properly speaking, derived from other obsolete verbs. This mood (which the regular verbs want altogether—see p. 179) is never used in the modern language, except after the particles αν, whether; γο, that; κά, where; ní, not; ναῖ, not, or which not; νοῖα, not; or after the relative when preceded by a preposition, as αν β-φυιλ πέ, is he? ροιλίμ γο β-φυιλϋ, I think that thou art; κά β-φυιλιο, where are they? ní φυιλ πέ beo, he is not alive; ναῖ β-φυιλ पे beó, is he not alive; αν τέ ναῖ β-φυιλ παῖόβϋ, he who is not rich; ó α β-φυιλιο, from whom they are; οἶα Νέιλλ αν α β-φυιλμίσ αζ επάτα, “with respect to Niall, of whom we are treating,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 109. The form τά is never used after any of these particles in the modern language, but in the ancient manuscripts τά is as often used in these situations as φυιλ, or ϋιλ, as Γαεοαλ Γλαρ ó τάτ Γαεοιλ, “Gaedal Glas, from whom the Gaels are [descended],” *B. Ballymote*, fol. 11; or, as written by Keating, Γαοιοιλ Γλαρ ó ο-τάο Γαοιοιλ, *Hist. Irel.*, p. 49; Rumann, mac Colmám in ϋιλó, ó τάτ Sil Rumann ι n-Αθ Τρυιμμ, “Ruman Mac Colmain, the poet, from whom are the Sil Ronain, at Ath Truim.” Even Duaid Mac Firbis, who wrote about the middle of the seventeenth century, frequently uses τά for β-φυιλ in the situations above mentioned, as Feólimíó, mac Amalgao, οια ο-τά Ceneul Feólimíó, “Fedhlimidh, son of Amhalgaidh, from whom are the Ceneul Fedhlimidh,” *Tribes and Customs of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 4, line 13; Cucoingelt, mac Amalgao, ó ο-τάο Μυιτιρ Thomaltaig, “Cucoingelt, the son of Amhalgaidh, from whom are Muintir Thomaltaigh,” *Id.*, p. 12, line 4.

In ancient manuscripts ϋιλ is very frequently used for φυιλ, and

even for *ατά*, particularly in the relative form, as *ζαc λυb̄ φίλ 'παν μοιḡ*, “every herb which is in the plain;” *Dez-Eire*, .i. *μυρ φίλ πορ μυρ αμυḡ λα h-Uib̄ Ceinnpealaiḡ*, “*Beg-Eire*, an island which is out in the sea in *Hy-Kinsellagh*,” *Irish Calendar*, 23rd April; *αλυ οicunε cumao h-e Colmán, mac Aεoa φίλ ι n-Apo bo πορ bpu ζocha Echach*, “others say that it is Colman, the son of Aedh, that is at Ard bo, on the brink of Lough Neagh,” *Felire Aengus*, 17th February. It should be also remarked here that the forms *bí, bui, boi, &c.*, are often used in ancient writings for the subjunctive *ραιb̄*, as *co nac̄ bui* for *ζο nac̄ ραιbe*, *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 232; *co h-αιpm̄ α m-bui* for *ζο h-αιε̄ ραιbe*, *Id.*, p. 10; *co m-báoaρ*, for *ζο ραb̄oaρ*, *Id.*, p. 24.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. *ζο m-biao*, that I shall be.
2. *ζο m-biaip*, that thou shalt be.
3. *ζο m-biaiō*, that he shall be.

PLURAL.

1. *ζο m-biamaoio*, that we shall be.
2. *ζο m-biaoióiō*, that you shall be.
3. *ζο m-biaoiáoio*, that they shall be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. *βειóinn*, or *βειnn*, I would be.
2. *βειóceá*, or *βειceá*, thou wouldst be.
3. *βειóeaó ré*, he would be.

PLURAL.

1. *βειómir̄*, or *βειmir̄*, we would be.
2. *βειóció*, ye would be.
3. *βειóir̄*, they would be.

The conjunctions *oá*, if, and *muna*, unless, are signs of this mood, and eclipse the initial consonant; it can, however, be used independently of any conjunction; but it has then generally the emphatic particle *oo* before it, as *oo βειóinn*. The first person singular of this mood is always pronounced in Munster as if written *βειóinn*, which, in the eastern countries, is pronounced *βειóinḡ*. But in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, and most ancient writings, it is generally

written *beim*; *beioeas*, the form for the third person singular, is pronounced in Munster as if written *beioeac*, or *beic*. In ancient writings we find *co m-bias*, that it would be; *uia m-beo*, if it would be; *no beic*, it would be, for the modern *go m-beioeas*, *ua m-beioeas*, *uo beioeas*.—See *Battle of Magh Ragh*, pp. 24, 58, 68.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beic, to be.

By prefixing certain prepositions to the verbal noun *beic*, being, various expressions are formed, which are equivalent to participles and ablatives absolute in other languages, as *ar m-beic*, on being; *iar m-beic*, after being; *ar tic beic*, on the point of being, about to be; *cum a beic*, or *cum do beic*, to be, or in order to be.

The analytic form of this verb is always the same with the form for the third person singular through all the persons, thus :

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. *ta me*, I am.
2. *ta tu*, thou art.
3. *ta re*, he is.

PLURAL.

1. *ta rinn*, we are.
2. *ta rib*, you are.
3. *ta rias*, they are.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. *bi me*, I was.
2. *bi tu*, thou wert.
3. *bi re*, he was.

PLURAL.

1. *bi rinn*, we were.
2. *bi rib*, ye were.
3. *bi rias*, they were.

This analytic mode of inflecting the verb is becoming very general in the spoken language, particularly throughout the northern half of Ireland.

SECTION 4.—*Conjugation of a regular Verb.*

Ḡlanam, I cleanse.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 1. ḡlanam, I cleanse. | 1. ḡlanamais, or ḡlanamaisio, or ḡlanam, we cleanse. |
| 2. ḡlanair, thou cleansest. | 2. ḡlanaisio, you cleanse. |
| 3. ḡlanairé, he cleanseth. | 3. ḡlanais, they cleanse. |

Consuetudinal Present.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. ḡlanann mé, I usually cleanse. | 1. ḡlanann rinn, we usually cleanse. |
| 2. ḡlanann tú, thou usually cleansest. | 2. ḡlanann rib, you usually cleanse. |
| 3. ḡlanann ré, he usually cleanses. | 3. ḡlanann ris, they usually cleanse. |

Some modern writers terminate the first person singular of the present indicative in am; but this is properly the first person plural. The second person singular sometimes terminates in e, or i, in old manuscripts, but never in the modern language. See observations under *Ṭáir*, p. 166. The third person singular of this tense has no synthetic form, either in the ancient or modern language; for some observations on which see p. 153. The termination for the first person plural, which always ends alike in the present and future indicative, varies throughout the provinces. In the south of Leinster and east of Munster it is pronounced amũio, or mũio (short), whether the characteristic vowel of the root be broad or slender; and maisio (long) in Thomond; while in other parts of Ireland it is sometimes pronounced maisio, long; sometimes

mũo, or mǎo, short; and sometimes mío, long and slender. The terminations found in ancient manuscripts are maio, maiz, mio, and miz; but it is not easy to prove whether these terminations were pronounced long or short. Giolla Iosa Mor Mac Firbis writes maio, in 1417; thus, ó Raicé ðpanouib ap bno cluig, co Traig cell, conair éiaǵmaio, “from Rath Branduibh of the sweet bells, to Traigh Ceall, a road which we go.” — *Tribes and Customs of Hy-Fiachrach*, pp. 224, 225. It is written maiz in the *Leabhar Breac*, a manuscript of the highest authority; as, Log óún ár riachu amial logmaiz-ne óár feceimnaib, “*dimitte nobis debita nostra, sicut et nos dimittimus debitoribus nostris*,” fol. 124, b, a. It is written mio, maiz, and mio, in an old vellum Life of St. Moling, and in H. 3. 18.; thus, raǵmuio-ne a conne in cléiriǵ, “we will go meet the cleric;” pecmaiz a lep, ol in cléipec, ap ní puapamar fáilci i cig aile ip in baile, “we stand in need of it, said the cleric, for we have not received welcome in any other house in the town;” bemio-ne ppiu in pecht pu, “we will be for that law,” H. 3. 18. p. 358. It is written miz in a very old vellum copy of *Cormac’s Glossary*, as ppoimfimuz ppiu, ol, ré, “we shall try it, said he,” *voce* Ppull. It is not easy to decide what termination should be adopted in the general modern language, as the provincialists would not agree. The author would recommend it to be settled by the following rule. When the characteristic or last vowel of the root is broad, the first person plural of the present indicative active should, in the synthetic form, terminate in mǎo or maio, long; it is difficult to decide which; the second in éai, taoi, or taío; and the third in áo (short). But when the characteristic vowel is slender, they should terminate in mío, tí, or tíó, and io (short). This rule is almost invariably observed by O’Molloy, in his *Lucerna Fidelium*, which was printed at Rome in 1676, as in the following instances: i, of the broad termination,—aópa-maio, “we adore,” p. 195; oultamaio, “we renounce,” p. 279; glacamaio, “we receive,” pp. 257, 279; meapamaio, “we think,” pp. 212, 213, 216; oppalamaio, “we offer,” p. 251; onópamaio, “we honour,” pp. 192, 194, 217. Of the slender termination, creioimio, “we believe,” p. 235; cuipmio, “we put,” pp. 214,

224, 229; *ἄγομεν*, “we call,” p. 236; *ἑπιζητοῦμεν*, “we implore,” p. 228; *πτωτῶμεν*, “we fall,” p. 222. However, he sometimes deviates from this rule, but not often. In p. 197 he writes, *ἰατροῦμεν*, “we ask;” in pp. 198, 203, and 228, *ἰατροῦσθε*; and in p. 214, *ἰατροῦσθε*. Donlevy, in his *Irish Catechism*, published at Paris in 1742, keeps more closely to this rule; and he generally uses *μασθε*, and rarely *μισθε*, for the broad termination; ex. *ἑπιμασθε*, “we follow,” p. 212; *εὑρισκοῦμεν*, “we find,” p. 206; *τιθεῖμεν*, “we put,” p. 200; *ἀπολλύμεν*, “we lose,” p. 218; *κοινοῦμεν*, “we remember,” p. 284; *πτωτῶμεν*, “we fall,” p. 216; *ἀπολείπομεν*, “we have forsaken,” p. 216. It is impossible to bring the local jargons of the different counties to a grammatical standard, and therefore some general system, drawn from the best manuscripts, must be submitted to, in settling the orthography of this neglected language.

In the spoken language, the synthetic form for the second person plural is rarely used; but, instead of it, the analytic form *ἁγιάσαι ὑμῶν*, or the consuetudinal present, *ἁγιάσαντες ὑμῶν*, is always employed.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>ἁγιάσαυ</i> , or <i>σο ἁγιάσαυ</i> , I did cleanse. | 1. <i>ἁγιάσαντες</i> , we did cleanse. |
| 2. <i>ἁγιάσαυ</i> , thou didst cleanse. | 2. <i>ἁγιάσαυτε</i> , you did cleanse. |
| 3. <i>ἁγιάσεν</i> , he did cleanse. | 3. <i>ἁγιάσαντες</i> , they did cleanse. |

The particles *σο*, or *ρο*, are often prefixed to the past tense in the modern language; but in ancient writings the prefix is variously given, *αυ*, *ατ*; *σο*, *σορ*; *ρο*, *ρορ*; *νο*, *νορ*; *ρο*, *ρορ*, *ροδουρ*; *ροτ*.

In the ancient manuscripts the third person singular has a synthetic termination, which is variously written *εραυ*, *υραυ*, *εραυρ*, *υραυρ*, *αραυρ*, *υραυρ*, of which, strange to say, no Irish grammarian has hitherto taken notice; as, *σοιπεραυρ*, “he poured,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 94; *ο’ρεαυραυρ*, “he viewed,”

Id., p. 24 ; πο ἰμπερναίγετε, “he quarrelled,” *Id.*, p. 110 ; ἰοννηρ ζυρ ὀαλλυροαῖν α ὀεαρῆραῖται, “so that he blinded his brother,” *Keat. Hist.*, pp. 28, 51 ; πο ἕρεῖεαἰνναρται, “judicavit,” *Duald Mac Fírbis*, in H. 2. 15. p. 208. Of all these, αρται is the most usual and best form for this termination, and it is to be suspected that αρτε is a corruption, to be attributed to the negligence of transcribers. In the southern half of Ireland, the termination for the first person plural is pronounced as if written máir, móir, or múir (short) ; a form sometimes used by Keating, and always by O’Molloy, and found in manuscripts of the fifteenth century, as πο ρέιρ ζαῖ νεῖ ὀά η-ουῆραμοῖρ ποῖαἰν, “according to every thing which we said before,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 32. When the characteristic vowel of the root is broad, the synthetic form for the first person plural is formed, in the modern language, by adding αμαρ to the root, but in the ancient language more generally by adding ραμ, as ζαῖραμ, we took ; εῦραμ, we gave ; for the modern, ζαῖραμαρ, εῦραμαρ ; and when slender, by adding ρεμ.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 38, 43. The termination αῖται, denoting the second person plural, is often written αῖται in good manuscripts, and pronounced αῖται in the south of Ireland ; this termination is seldom used in Ulster. But the termination αοται, for the third person plural, is still in constant use in Connaught and Munster, and well understood, though not often used, in Ulster. It occurs in manuscripts of considerable antiquity, but not so often as the terminations ρεο, ρετ, ραο (which are evidently corruptions of the pronoun ριαο), and ραοαρ, ραταρ ; as ληρατ, they followed, for the modern lean ριαο, or leanαοαρ ; ηῖρ ρέτρατ, they were not able, for ηῖορ ρέαοαοαρ ; ζράῖαῖζρετ, they loved, for ζραῖαῖζεαοαρ ; πο αῖρῖζρετ, they perceived, for πο αῖρῖζεαοαρ ; τυραοαρ, they brought, for εῦραοαρ ; μαρῆραοαρ, they killed, for μαρῆραοαρ.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 28, 38, 66, 178, 246, *et passim* ; πο κομαῖρρεο αιαρα ενο, οαυρ ατ βερταρμ ρηου, “interrogaverunt eum cujus caput esset, et ille eis dixit,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Κοιρε ὀρεαῖν.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. ḡlanann, I used to cleanse. | 1. ḡlanamaoir, we used to cleanse. |
| 2. ḡlanatá, thou usedst to cleanse. | 2. ḡlanatáio, you used to cleanse. |
| 3. ḡlanató ré, he used to cleanse. | 3. ḡlanasaoir, or ḡlanaoir, they used to cleanse. |

The particles *oo*, *po*, &c., may be prefixed to all the persons of this tense also.

The termination *ató* in the third person singular is pronounced, in Connaught and Ulster, as if written *úo*, or *úm*, but in the south, as if *ac*; but *ató*, *eató*, or *eotó* is the true termination, as appears from the best manuscripts: *ocur ní clumeató ac̄t maot̄ bec*, *ocur ní céimníḡeot̄ for̄ a corat̄b̄*, “and he heard but little, and he used not to walk on his feet.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 42. The termination for the first and second persons plural in this tense are far from being settled in the modern language, for in some places they are pronounced *ḡlanamuir̄t̄*, *ḡlanabuir̄t̄*; but these forms—though strong and distinct, and adopted perhaps in imitation of the Latin terminations *vimus*, *vistis*—are never found in any good authority. The form for the third person plural is fixed, being nearly the same in every part of Ireland: when the characteristic vowel is slender it ends in *oir̄*, or *ioir̄*, and when broad in *oair̄*, modern, and *oair̄*, in ancient writings, as in the following examples: *oo lingoir̄ ḡaoiob̄l tap̄ an ḡ-cluib̄e*, “the Gaels used to sally over the fosse,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 2; *ap̄ ḡac̄ cot̄uḡat̄o dá o-cuḡ-oair̄ oo boct̄at̄b̄ aḡur̄ oo oilleac̄tat̄b̄*, “of every support they used to give to the poor and to the orphans,” *Id.*, p. 1; *cp̄ialluio for̄ muir̄, aḡur̄ teaḡm̄at̄o mur̄oúcaim̄n oóib̄, aḡur̄ oo ánasaoir̄ ceol̄ oo na loimḡrioáib̄, no cp̄iallaot̄ tápp̄a ḡo ḡ-cuir̄oír̄ coolaot̄ opp̄a, aḡur̄ oo lingoir̄ féim̄ cúca oia mar̄baot̄*, “they put to sea, and syrens met them, and they used to chaunt music to the sailors as they were passing by, and brought sleep upon them, and then they used to rush upon and kill them,” *Id.*, p. 48; *ḡriḡit̄ banoēe*

no σορασίρ φίλιό, "Bright, a goddess whom the poets used to worship," *Cor. Gloss., voce* Ὀριζιτ; ιρ σο no ἄοιρερζοσίρ mí Μάρτα, "it is to him they used to dedicate the month of March," *Id., voce* Μαιρτ.

But it should be confessed that, in the south of Leinster, and the eastern counties of Munster, the third person plural of this tense terminates in οίρ, or ἰοίρ, whether the characteristic vowel be broad or slender; and the above examples are there pronounced as if written ληζιοίρ; οά ο-συζαιοίρ; σο ἄναοιοίρ; ζο ζ-συραιοίρ; σο αόραοιοίρ; σο ἄοιρερζαιοίρ.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. ζλανφασ, I will cleanse.
2. ζλανφαιρ, thou wilt cleanse.
3. ζλανφαιό ρέ, he will cleanse.

PLURAL.

1. ζλανφам, *or* ζλανφамαιο, *or* ζλανφамαιοιο, we will cleanse.
2. ζλανφαιό, you will cleanse.
3. ζλανφαιο, they will cleanse.

It should be observed here that the φ is scarcely heard in this tense in the spoken language in any part of Ireland, and that throughout the southern half of Ireland it is pronounced like *é* or *h*, as ζλαν*é*ασ, I will cleanse; *ceilé*ιρ, thou wilt conceal; but the φ is more frequently found as the sign of the future tense of regular verbs in ancient manuscripts than *é*, and must, therefore, be received as its true sign^a. The *é*, however, is also sometimes found

^a Mr. Patrick Lynch, in his *Introduction to the Irish Language*, seems to think that φ is not an absolutely necessary sign of the future tense. His words are: "Some grammarians say that the letter *f* (φ) should be placed as a characteristic for the future, next to the termination of the second person singular of the Imperative mode; but from the examples adduced above, as well as those from O'Molloy, it is obvious that φ (*f*) is not an absolutely necessary sign of the fu-

ture, and in some verbs not at all used; neither is it employed in the grammars of the learned Messrs. Shaw and Stewart, for the Caledonian dialect of our language."—p. 24.

It is very true that in some of the irregular verbs, and in the class terminating in *υιζιου*, or *ιζιου*, and a few others, the ζ is not introduced into the future; but in all other regular verbs the φ should be used, as it is found in the most correct Irish manuscripts.

in good authorities, as *ir mairi nos pubta*, "it is I that shall wound thee," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 294. In ancient writings the second person singular of this tense also ends in *e* or *i*, as well as the present, as *ni murpfe-riu mairi*, "thou shalt not kill me," *Id.*, p. 190. *Faob*, or *fiob*, the analytic termination for all the persons when the pronouns are expressed, is pronounced *freee*, or *fee*, in Connaught, but *fwi*, or *fzi*, in Munster. This termination is written *faob* by the Rev. Paul O'Brien and others, which is very incorrect. In the ancient manuscripts it is often written *fa*, or *fi*, without the final *o*, as *gonfa re*, "he will wound;" *faicfi re*, "he will see," *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 136, 194; *gromfa*, *.i.* *aeppa*, "he will satirize," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Groma*. Sometimes, but rarely, the termination *ab* is found for the first person singular of this tense after a negative, as *ni molab*, "I shall not praise," *Teige Mac Dary*; *ni fuiceab damna oo'n oioing*, "I will not omit one of the people," *Giolla Iosa Mor Mac Firbis*, A. D. 1417.

The termination *ream*, or *riom*, *ram*, *rem*, is often found in the best manuscripts for the first person plural, as *go n-glanram*, till we shall cleanse; *go n-guioream*, till we shall implore.—*Keating*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Properly speaking, no regular verbs in Irish have any subjunctive mood; the form of the verb which follows the particles governing the subjunctive (see p. 170), always terminates like the indicative. But in irregular verbs these particles are followed by a peculiar form.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. | 1. <i>glanam</i> , or <i>glanamaoir</i> , let us cleanse. |
| 2. <i>glan</i> , cleanse thou. | 2. <i>glanaio</i> , you cleanse. |
| 3. <i>glanaio re</i> , let him be cleansed. | 3. <i>glanaioir</i> , let them cleanse. |

The third person singular is pronounced *glanaic re* throughout

the southern half of Ireland, but *glanam*, or *glanúó* *re* in Connaught and Ulster. In the topographical poems of O'Dugan, O'Heerin, and Giolla Iosa Mor Mac Fírbis, the termination *am*, or *eam*, is almost invariably used for denoting the first person plural, as in the following examples: *tríallam timceall na Bóola*, "let us travel round Ireland," *O'Dugan*; *labram do éilomú Choppmaic Char, tríallam tar Síonainn rrué-ghair*, "let us speak of the race of Cormac Cas, let us proceed across the green-streamed Shannon," *O'Heerin*; *Clann Fiacra úr ar m'aire, leanam loig na laécpaíde*, "the race of the noble Fiachra are my care, let us follow the track of the heroes," *Giolla Iosa Mor Mac Fírbis*. In the county of Kilkenny the first person plural of this mood terminates in *muir*, as *glanamuir*, but this is never found in correct manuscripts, and must be regarded as a local barbarism. The termination *íó* is that most generally found in ancient manuscripts for the second person plural of this mood, as *eirgíó*, *eirgíó, a óga!* "arise, arise, O youths," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 122; *tógbaíó ocuṛ tarbenaíó*, "raise and shew," *Id.*, p. 178; *tabraíó cenó na pleirci filíó rair*, place ye the end of the poet's wand upon it," *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce Coipe óreacain*; *cuiríó amach in cenó*, "put ye out the head," *Id.*, *voce Opc*. In the *Book of Ballymote* it is sometimes written *íó*, as *ocuṛ tigeṛnaíó* *do iarcaib in mara*, *ocuṛ do eacairib in nime*, *ocuṛ do na h-uilib anmannaib*, "and rule over the fishes of the sea, and the birds of the air, and over all the animals." At present, however, the termination *igíó* is that used in every part of Ireland except the county of Kerry, and parts of Cork, where it is *ig*. This West Munster termination, which sounds so strangely in the ears of the inhabitants of the provinces of Connaught and Ulster, is strikingly exemplified in the following verses by Andrew Magrath, a Munster poet of the last century:

"Sin agab an t-am, agur gabair le n-a céile,
 Breabair le fonn, agur planncair méir-ruic,
 Ceanair foḡa ar óream an éirig,
 'S ná h-ionntoigeab aen le rḡat o'n ngleo."

The East Munster form, which also extends into Connaught

and Ulster, is exemplified in these lines, from a Jacobite song by Timothy O'Sullivan, a native of the county of Waterford :

“ Ζεόναιγιό, λέαναιγιό, λέαραιγιό, λεαῶβαιγιό
 Céaraigió, claióigió bar námaio.”

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. ζλανφανν, I would cleanse. | 1. ζλανφασοιρ, we would cleanse. |
| 2. ζλανφά, thou wouldst cleanse. | 2. ζλανφαίό, you would cleanse. |
| 3. ζλανφᾶό ρέ, he would cleanse. | 3. ζλανφαιοίρ, they would cleanse. |

The particles οο, πο, &c., may be prefixed to this mood, and the conjunctions οά, if, and muna, unless, are usually its signs.

In ancient writings φανν, the termination for the first person singular, is written φανο, φομο, or φυνο, and, when the characteristic vowel of the root is slender, φιο, as πο ανιφιο ρῖβ, “ I would protect you,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 78 ; no αιρηφιο, “ I would stay,” *Id.*, p. 66. The φ is sometimes omitted, as πο ἐριλλανο for οο ἐριλλφανν, “ I would proceed,” *Id.*, p. 172 ; co clanoaio for ζο ζ-clannφανν, “ that I would thrust,” *Id.*, p. 42.

The termination φά is not always used in the spoken language, for, in the south-east of Ireland, εά is most generally substituted in its place, and this termination often occurs in ancient writings, as οια η-ζαβεά, “ if thou wouldst take,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 42 ; muna ιμζαβεεά η ιναο, “ if thou wouldst not quit the place,” *Id.*, p. 202. This termination is also used in John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*, as οο ζεαβεά νί βα μό υαμ-ρε οά ρίρεεά οραμ έ, “ thou wouldst obtain a greater request of me if thou wouldst ask it of me, p. 118. The termination for the third person singular is pronounced αέ, or εαέ, in this mood, throughout the south of Ireland, but in Connaught and Ulster οό, or ούό, the φ being very seldom heard. The φ, however, should

not be rejected, as it adds force and distinctness to the termination, and is found in Irish manuscripts of the highest authority, as *ní féofaó*, "he would be able," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 68; *ní anfaó* "he would not stay," *Id.*, p. 192; *noí foḡailfeó*, "he would distribute," *Id.*, p. 56; *o'faiúnefeó*, "he would relate," *Id.*, p. 318; *oo éurtefaó*, "he would fall," *Id.*, p. 280. In an analytic form this mood always terminates in *aó*, or *eaó* (in old writings *eó*, or *fó*), whether the *f* be used or not, and Haliday is wrong (*Gælic Grammar*, p. 75) in writing *oo cérfpaó rínn* as the analytic form of the *oo cérfpamaírf*. It should be *oo cérfpaó rínn*.

It should be here remarked, that the terminations for the first and second persons plural of this mood vary throughout the provinces, and stand in great need of a grammatical standard. But it is not easy to establish a standard, as the differences are so great and the ancient authorities so uncertain as to quantity. In the county of Kilkenny they are pronounced *muírf*, *buírf*, and the other parts of Munster *maírf*, *baírf*. In most parts of Ireland, however, the second person plural has no synthetic form, but is pronounced *ḡlanfaó ríó*, which shews that the language is suffering decomposition from the want of Irish literature. The third person plural is fixed, and is *faíóírf*, or *ríóírf*, in most parts of Ireland, except that the *f* is often aspirated, or pronounced like *h* or *é*.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Óo ḡlanfaó, to cleanse.

Phrases equivalent to participles in other languages are formed by prefixing the prepositions *ar*, upon; *aḡ*, at; and *iar*, after, to the infinitive or verbal noun, as *ar nḡlanfaó*, on cleansing; *aḡ ḡlanfaó*, a' cleansing°; *iar nḡlanfaó*, after cleansing.

° *Aḡ ḡlanfaó*, a' cleansing. This is exactly like the old English participle *a' hunting*, *a' doing*, *a' building*, which some explain as abbreviated forms of *at hunting*, *at doing*, *at building*, and others of *on hunting*, *on doing*, *on*

building. The very recent rejection of the *a* in such phrases, and the adoption of *being done*, *being built*, have much altered the original character of the English language.

The Rev. Paul O'Brien and others call these phrases by the name of participles; but though they are *equivalent* to the participles of other languages, it is quite obvious that they do not merit this appellation. The fact is, that there are no participles of the active voice in this language, which, adjective like, agree with their nouns, as in Latin, and their place is supplied by verbal nouns preceded by prepositions.—See *Syntax*, Rule 36.

The various modifications of time may be expressed by compound tenses formed of the verb substantive and the verbal noun, or the infinitive mood of the verb.

Stewart has attempted to reduce these compound expressions into regular tenses, like the Latin and Greek; but nothing is gained by so doing, as it is merely adding the tenses of τάμ, to the verbal noun preceded by prepositions, as τάμ αḡ ḡλαναó, I am a' cleansing; ḡσοαḡ αḡ ḡλαναó, they were a' cleansing; βιασ ιαḡ ηḡλαναó, I will be after cleansing.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The passive voice has no synthetic form to denote the persons or numbers; the personal pronouns, therefore, must be always expressed, and placed after the verb; and by a strange peculiarity of the language they are always *in the accusative form*.

For this reason some Irish scholars have considered the passive Irish verb to be a form of the active verb, expressing the action in an indefinite manner, as buaileḡ me, i. e. some person or persons, thing or things, strikes or strike *me*; buaileá é, some person or thing (not specified) struck him. But it is more convenient in a practical grammar to call this form by the name *passive*, as in other languages, and to assume that ḡ, é, í, and ιαḡ, which follow it, are ancient forms of the nominative case, which, indeed, is not unlikely, as they are placed as nominatives, even after active verbs, in the Erse dialect of this language. Be this, however, as it may, we never place ḡé, ḡí, or ḡιαḡ, after any passive verb. In Latin and

most other languages, when a verb active is turned into the passive, the accusative of the verb active becomes the nominative of the verb passive; but in the Irish the accusative still retains its form and position, thus, in *buaíl iao*, strike them, and *buaíltear iao*, let them be struck, *iao* has the same form and position; and some have thought that it is the accusative case, governed by *buaíltear*, like the accusative after the Latin impersonal verbs, as *oportet me*, *tædet me vitæ*, &c.

In ancient manuscripts the termination *aip* is found instead of the modern *tear*, as *allaip*, he is fostered; *geaip*, he is born.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. <i>glan-tear mé</i> , I am cleansed. | 1. <i>glan-tear sinn</i> , or <i>inn</i> , we are cleansed. |
| 2. <i>glan-tear tú</i> , thou art cleansed. | 2. <i>glan-tear sib</i> , or <i>ib</i> , you are cleansed. |
| 3. <i>glan-tear é</i> , he is cleansed. | 3. <i>glan-tear iao</i> , they are cleansed. |

This tense is used also for the imperative, and its several persons signify, according to the context, either I am cleansed, Thou art, &c.; or, Let me be cleansed, Be thou cleansed, &c.

The consuetudinal present is the same as the simple present.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <i>glan-aó me</i> , I was cleansed. | 1. <i>glan-aó sinn</i> , or <i>inn</i> , we were cleansed. |
| 2. <i>glan-aó tú</i> , thou wast cleansed. | 2. <i>glan-aó sib</i> , or <i>ib</i> , you were cleansed. |
| 3. <i>glan-aó é</i> , he was cleansed. | 3. <i>glan-aó iao</i> , they were cleansed. |

Do, or πο, is prefixed to this tense as well as in the active voice, but with this peculiarity, that it never causes aspiration, as in the active.

In the spoken Irish throughout the provinces, and in all printed books and most manuscripts of the last three centuries, the past passive of the indicative mood is formed by adding αὐ, or εαὐ, to the root of the verb; but in ancient writings it is often formed exactly like the present passive participle, that is to say, by adding τᾶ or τῆ, εᾶ or εῆ, to the root, as πο μαρβτα, “he was killed;” πο h-μοαρθεα ειριυμ, “he was expelled;” πο οίειυρεα να οιβ-εαργαιγ, “the rebels were banished,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 48, 52, 100; ριαριυ οο ροντα να μιυλινο, “before the mills were made,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Cumal*; πο ραντα ι η-οὐ, “it was divided into two parts,” *Tighernach, ad ann.* 162.

In some parts of Munster the termination αὐ in this tense is pronounced αḡ (ḡ hard and broad); and in others, particularly in Kerry, ά; but in Connaught and Ulster, úò, um, or am.

This and other differences of termination in the verb, added to the difference in the position of the accent, often render it difficult for the inhabitants of the northern and southern parts of Ireland to understand each other, when speaking Irish.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.

1. ḡλανταοι μέ, *or* οο ḡλανταοι μέ, I used to be cleansed.
2. ḡλανταοι έύ, thou usedst to be cleansed.
3. ḡλανταοι έ, he used to be cleansed.

PLURAL.

1. ḡλανταοι ριηη, *or* ιηη, we used to be cleansed.
2. ḡλανταοι ριβ, *or* ιβ, you used to be cleansed.
3. ḡλανταοι ιαο, they used to be cleansed.

In ancient Irish manuscripts this tense often ends in τε and τεα, as ρριρ α ράιτεα, for λειρ α ραιὐτί, *Four Masters, passim*. But in the best modern manuscripts it is written ταιοι, or τί, according to the characteristic vowel of the root, as α οειρ ναὐ οίολταοι αν οεάμυιὐ α η-Θιρην, “he says that tythes used not be paid in

Ireland," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 5; *ac̄e f̄or̄ gur̄ ab̄ inn̄te dō cūn̄th̄aiḡc̄í lūc̄e nā ḡ-c̄p̄īōc̄ ōile ó Róm̄án̄c̄aib̄*, "but that it was in her [Ireland] the inhabitants of the other countries were preserved from the Romans," *Id., ibid.*

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ḡlanḡar, <i>or</i> ḡlanḡaíḡear mé, I shall be cleansed.	1. ḡlanḡar, <i>or</i> ḡlanḡaíḡear inn, <i>or</i> rinn, we shall be cleansed.
2. ḡlanḡar, <i>or</i> ḡlanḡaíḡear t̄ú, thou shalt be cleansed.	2. ḡlanḡar, <i>or</i> ḡlanḡaíḡear ib̄, <i>or</i> rib̄, you shall be cleansed.
3. ḡlanḡar, <i>or</i> ḡlanḡaíḡear é, he shall be cleansed.	3. ḡlanḡar, <i>or</i> ḡlanḡaíḡear ias, they shall be cleansed.

The termination ḡar is used in Munster, and ḡaíḡear in Connaught. In ancient manuscripts, ḡaíḡeap̄ is sometimes found for this tense, as *taḡar̄ ā bel̄ ruar̄, oc̄ur̄ l̄inḡaíḡeap̄ é*, "turn its mouth up, and it shall be filled."—*Vit. Moling.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

This mood is always the same form as the present indicative.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ḡlanḡaíḡe mé, I would be cleansed.	1. ḡlanḡaíḡe rinn, we would be cleansed.
2. ḡlanḡaíḡe t̄ú, thou wouldest be cleansed.	2. ḡlanḡaíḡe, rib̄, you would be cleansed.
3. ḡlanḡaíḡe é, he would be cleansed.	3. ḡlanḡaíḡe ias, they would be cleansed.

In ancient manuscripts the termination for this tense is often written *tea*, as *oia n-er̄cam̄tea m̄ri l̄ib̄*, "if I should be cursed by you."—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 38. But ḡaíḡe, or ḡíḡe, in

the best modern manuscripts, as in the following examples in John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*:
 γο μαῶ ὄρυζια νο ὄρυζια νο γοιρριῶε ὀι, "that she should be called *Brutia*, or *Brutica*," p. 6; εὐάιρ ιαριανν λε m-βυρριῶε βαῖτορ αρ βιῆ, "an iron key by which any skull would [might] be broken," p. 14; γο γ-καῖρῖῶε, "that there would be spent," p. 30; CIA νο ἑυρριῶε ὀά ὀευναῖν, "who would be sent to do it," p. 50; ιονουρ γυρ αβ μόιῶε νο ἑυιγῖῶε αν νί ρι, "in order that this thing might be the better understood," p. 99.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Ὁο βειῆ ζλαντα, to be cleansed.

Passive Participle.

Ζλαντα, cleansed.

The termination of the participle passive is generally written τα, or τι, in ancient manuscripts; and it is pronounced in the province of Connaught, and sometimes written ταιῶ, or τιῶ, by Connaught Irish scholars; thus, ζλανταιῶ, βυρριῶ (with the ι long, but not accented). But in the southern half of Ireland it is more correctly pronounced ζλαντᾶ, βυρριῆ, or βυρριῖ.

The passive voice may also be formed, as in English, by prefixing the different moods and tenses of the verb τᾶιῖν to the passive participle, as τᾶ μέ ζλαντα, I am cleansed; βί ρέ ζλαντα, he was cleansed; βιαῖῶ τύ ζλαντα, thou wilt be cleansed; βιοῶ, or βιοεαῶ ρέ ζλαντα, let him be cleansed; ὀά m-βεινν ζλαντα, if I would or should be cleansed.

SECTION 5.—*Formation of the Tenses of regular Verbs.*

The *root*, or theme of the verb is found to be the second person singular of the imperative mood, as ζλαν,

cleanse thou ; бпуп, break thou ; or it may be generally found by cutting off the айм, or им, of the first person singular present indicative active, as гланайм, I cleanse, *root* глан ; бпупым, I break, *root* бпуп ; меаллайм, I deceive, *root* меалл.

Shaw and Stewart, the ablest writers on Erse grammar, have attempted to make it appear that, as the Erse dialect has not the inflections in the termination of its verbs which characterize the Irish, it is therefore more original than the Irish ; and this argument has been urged by them, without producing any specimen of the language in proof of the statement on which it rests, except the corrupt patois spoken in the Highlands. But it is well known that the Albanic *duan* of the tenth century, published by O'Flaherty, and by Pinkerton in his *Inquiry into the Antiquities of Scotland*, is exactly the same, in words and inflections, as the Irish poems of that age. And it may be here remarked, that the oldest specimen of the Erse dialect, given by Stewart himself, in the second edition of his Grammar—(namely, the Epistle Dedicatory to Bishop Carsuel's Gaelic translation of the Confession of Faith, &c., used in the Reformed Church of Scotland, and first printed in the year 1567)—is identical with the Irish, both in its words, grammatical inflections, and orthography. It is indeed strange that Stewart, who had this specimen before him—a specimen which ought to be sufficient to satisfy any rational mind that the Erse dialect has been adulterated since that period,—should nevertheless repeat his favourite argument in support of the originality of the oral patois of the Highlands, in the following words : “ It may appear a strange defect in the Gaelic” (of Scotland), “ that its verbs, excepting the substantive verb ‘ Bi, Is,’ have no *simple* Present Tense. Yet this is manifestly the case in the Scottish, Welch, and Cornish dialects (see Arch. Brit., page 246, col. 1 ; and page 247, col. 1) ; to which may be added the Manx. ‘ Creiddim,’ *I believe* ; ‘ guidheam,’ *I pray* ; with, perhaps, one or two more Present Tenses, now used in Scotland, seem to have been imported from Ireland ; for their paucity evinces that they belong not to our

dialect.—The want of the simple Present Tense is a striking point of resemblance between the Gaelic and the Hebrew verb.

“I am indebted to a learned and ingenious correspondent for the following important remark ; that the want of the simple Present Tense in all the British Dialects of the Celtic, in common with the Hebrew, while the Irish has assumed that Tense, furnishes a strong presumption that the Irish is a dialect of later growth ; that the British Gaelic is its parent tongue ; and consequently, that Britain is the mother country of Ireland.”—*Gaelic Grammar*, second edition, p. 97, note ^m.

That the Erse originally wanted the simple present tense, is far from being certain. Shaw gives the simple present throughout his Grammar, and it is hard to believe that it even now lacks it altogether. We cannot, however, receive the present oral patois of the Highlands as evidence, whereas the early printed specimens totally differ from it. Why have not the Scotch published any manuscript specimens of their Gaelic, with faithful translations ? The spoken Irish is also fast falling into the decomposed state of the Erse of the Highlands, and will, no doubt, if it continues to be spoken for a few centuries longer, without being cultivated, lose its simple present tense, as well as all its synthetic forms, which it has indeed already lost, to a great extent, in many parts of Ireland. It is quite clear, from the older specimens of the Erse given by Stewart, in the second edition of his Grammar, that this dialect had a simple present tense when they were written ; and as we have the authority of Shaw, who wrote in 1778, for making a simple present tense at that period, the conclusion is inevitable, that Stewart was induced to reject this tense, in order to establish a striking point of resemblance between the Erse and the Hebrew, which the Irish, supposed to be the mother tongue, had not. But this is an idle attempt, altogether unworthy of his learning, and will not now for a moment stand the test of criticism ; for it is now universally acknowledged by the learned, that the Celtic dialects of the British Isles have little or no affinity with the Hebrew or Semitic dialects, they being clearly demonstrated to be dialects of the Indo-European family of languages. It is also incontrovertible that the mode of inflection

by varying the termination, is more ancient than the use of particles; so that the analytic form of the verb found in the Erse dialect, instead of proving it ancient, affords the best argument to shew that it must have assumed such a form in comparatively modern times. The Goths, Vandals, Moors, and other barbarians, finding it too troublesome to recollect the various terminations of the Greek and Latin nouns and verbs, had recourse to a number of detached particles and auxiliaries, to represent the cases and tenses, and these have been gradually introduced into all the modern languages of Europe; and it is more than probable, that if the Irish and Erse continue to be spoken among the peasantry for a few centuries longer, they will gradually lose their terminations, and adopt particles and auxiliaries in their stead; and whoever will take the trouble to compare the ancient with the modern spoken Irish, he will perceive that the language is fast progressing towards this state of decomposition.

Notwithstanding the ability of Shaw, Stewart, and other scholars, who have attempted to prove, from the oral dialect of the Highlands, that it is the parent of the Irish language, they have made no impression on the minds of the learned of Europe. Mons. Pictet, of Geneva, who has used the second edition of Stewart's Gaelic Grammar, has, in his work on the Affinity of the Celtic dialects with the Sanscrit, Paris, 1837, a work which was crowned by the Royal Academy, given us his valuable opinion of the nature of the Erse in the following words:

“*L'erse* est la langue des montagnards de l'Écosse. Ses monuments écrits sont bien moins anciens, et moins nombreux que ceux de l'Irlande, et ne paraissent pas remonter au-delà du 15^e siècle. Les poésies traditionnelles recueillies et publiées sous le nom d'Ossian, vers la fin du siècle dernier, sont ce qu'elle possède de plus remarquable. Comparé à l'irlandais ancien l'erse offre de nombreuses traces de cette décomposition qui s'opère sur les langues par l'effet du temps, et il se rapproche à cet égard de l'irlandais oral moderne.”—*Introduction*, p. ix.

From the root all the tenses and moods of the regu-

lar verbs are formed, by a mechanism extremely simple and regular, as follows :

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

The present tense is formed by adding to the root αἰμ, or ἰμ, for the first person singular ; αἶπ, or ἰπ, for the second ; αἰὸ, or ἰὸ, for the third ; αμασιὸ, ἰμίδ, εαμ, or αμ, for the first person plural ; εἶαι, or εἶ, for the second ; and αἰὸ, or ἰὸ, for the third.

Here it should be remarked, that when the characteristic vowel of the root is broad, the terminations are αἰμ, αἶπ, αἰὸ, &c. ; but when slender, ἰμ, ἰπ, ἰὸ, &c. The ancient terminations have been already pointed out. Sometimes the root suffers syncope, as λαβαἶπ, speak thou ; λαβῆαἰμ, I speak ; βαζαἶπ, threaten thou ; βαζῆαἰμ, I threaten ; κοβαἶλ, sleep thou ; κοβῆαἰμ, I sleep. The relative form terminates in απ, or εαπ, accordingly as the characteristic vowel of the root is broad or slender, as α γῆλααπ, who cleanses ; α βῆρεαπ, who breaks ; α μεαλαπ, who deceives.

The consuetudinal present is formed by adding ααν, or εααν, according to the characteristic vowel, to the root, as γῆλαααν ῥέ, he cleanses ; βῆρεααν ῥέ, he breaks, or usually breaks. This tense has no synthetic form, but always has the persons postfixed, as βῆρεααν μέ, τύ, ῥέ, &c., the verb having the same form to agree with all the persons, singular and plural ; and also with the relative, as α βῆρεαμ, who breaks.

In old manuscripts this tense sometimes ends in ιαν, intended for the modern ιον, as οἰβῆριγιαν μαἶλλε βῆριξ αντιῥάρα, “it works with a contrary effect.”—*Med. MS.* A. D. 1414.

The preterite or simple past tense, in its analytic

form, is the same as the root, except that the initial consonant is aspirated, if of the aspirable class, as, *root* ḡλαν, *preterite* ḡλαν ρέ, he cleansed; *root* βριρ, *preterite* βριρ ρέ, he broke. But when the consonant is not of the aspirable class, then it is exactly like the root, or second person singular imperative active, as *root* λαβαρ, speak thou; λαβαρ ρέ, he spoke. But they are distinguished by the collocation, and often by the particles οο, πο, &c., which are generally prefixed to the preterite, but never to the root, or imperative. The synthetic form has αρ or εαρ for the first person singular, accordingly as the characteristic vowel is broad or slender; αιρ, or ιρ, for the second; while the third terminates, in the modern language, like the root.

The relative form for this tense always terminates like the root, as α βριρ, who broke.

In ancient manuscripts the third person singular of this tense frequently terminates in αρταρ, or ερταρ, as ḡλαναρταρ, he cleansed; βριρερταρ, he broke; for the first person plural, αμαρ, or ραμ; for the second, υβαρ; for the third, αοαρ, or ραο.

The consuetudinal past has an analytic and a synthetic form. The analytic is formed from the root by adding αῶ, or εαῶ, as ḡλαναῶ μέ, τύ, ρέ, &c.; βριρεαῶ με, τύ, ρέ, &c.; and the synthetic by adding ιμμ, or αιμμ, for the first person singular; τά, or τεά, to the second; while the third is, as usual, the analytic form, with the pronoun postfixed; μαοιρ, or μίρ, for the first person plural; ταιῶ, or εῖῶ, for the second; and αοαοιρ, or ιοίρ, for the third.

The relative form of this tense terminates like the

third person singular, as α ḡλαναῶ, who used to cleanse; α ḡριρεαῶ, who used to break.

The future tense has also an analytic and synthetic form. The analytic is formed by adding ραιῶ, or ριῶ, to the root of the verb, that is, ραιῶ (in ancient manuscripts sometimes ρα), if the characteristic vowel of the root be broad; and ριῶ (in ancient manuscripts often ρι), if it be small, as ḡλανραιῶ μέ, τύ, ρέ, &c.; ḡριρ-ριῶ μέ, τύ, ρέ, &c.

In the synthetic form the first person singular terminates in ραῶ, or ρεαῶ; the second in ραιρ, or ριρ; but the third has no synthetic form. The first person plural ends in ραμαῶ, ραμαοῖῶ, or ριμιῶ; the second in ραῖῶ, or ρίῶ, and sometimes without the final ῶ; and the third in ραιῶ, or ριῶ. The relative terminates in ραρ, or ρεαρ, as α ḡλανραρ, who will cleanse; α ḡριρ-ρεαρ, who will break.

The ρ in this tense has totally disappeared from the Erse, or Gaelic, of Scotland, as Stewart laments (*Gælic Grammar*, second edition, p. 85, note *b*); and though it is found in all the correct manuscripts and printed books in the Irish, it is fast disappearing from the modern spoken language; and throughout the southern half of Ireland a *é* is substituted in its place, as ḡλανéα, pronounced *glanhad*, for ḡλανραῶ; ḡριρέα, pronounced *brish-häd*, for ḡριρρεαῶ.

In the Erse, the future is formed by adding *aidh* to the root, which marks the analytic present indicative of the Irish; and the learned Mr. Stewart, who, blinded by national predilections, looks upon many of the imperfections of this corrupted dialect as so many beauties, says, that in giving a negative answer to a request, no sign of a future tense is used. Of this form of reply some traces are indeed found in the old Irish; but a future termination in αῶ, or

eaḃ, is used to distinguish it from the present, as already shewn in the observations under this tense, p.179. Stewart's words are as follows: "In all *regular* verbs, the difference between the Affirmative and Negative Moods, though marked but slightly and partially in the Preterite tense (only in the initial form of the second conjugation), yet is strongly marked in the Future Tense. The Future Affirmative terminates in a feeble vocal sound. In the Fut. Neg. the voice rests on an articulation, or is cut short by a forcible aspiration. Supposing these tenses to be used by a speaker, in reply to a command or a request; by their very structure the former expresses the softness of compliance, and the latter the abruptness of a refusal. If a command or a request be expressed by such verbs as these, 'tog sin,' 'gabh sin,' 'ith sin,' the compliant answer is expressed by 'togaidh, gabhaidh, ithidh;' the refusal by 'cha tog, cha ghabh, cha ith.' May not this peculiar variety of form in the same Tense, when denoting affirmation, and when denoting negation, be reckoned among the characteristic marks of an original language?"—*Gælic Grammar*, second edition, p. 93.

Verbs of more than two syllables, ending in ıḡım or uıḡım, in the first person singular, present indicative active, make the future in eoḃad; and the last vowel in the preceding syllable, if broad, generally suffers attenuation, as áıḃuıḡım, I exalt, fut. áıḃeoḃad; foıllıḡım, I reveal, fut. foıllıeoḃad; mılıḡım, I sweeten, fut. mılıeoḃad; ımıḡım, I go away, fut. ımeoḃad; ıannıııḡım, I covet, fut. ıannıııeoḃad; cearıııḡım, I rectify, fut. cearıııeoḃad.

This is the termination used in printed books and correct manuscripts of the last three centuries, as in *Keating's History of Ireland*, as transcribed by John Mac Torna O'Mulconry, pp. 136, 167, 170, where the verbs, foıllıḡım, I shew; ıannıııḡım, I covet; cearıııḡım, I rectify, are made foıllıeoḃam, we will shew; ıannıııeoḃam, I will covet; cearıııeoḃam, we will rectify; and it is

still used in the Connaught dialect. But in the south of Ireland, the future of verbs of this class always terminates in εοῖσασ, or ὀῖσασ, as ἀποῖσασ, I will exalt; ποίλλεῖσασ, I will shew; and this termination is used by O'Molloy, in his *Lucerna Fidelium*, as ἐπιπέσασ, I will prove, p. 302; ὅσο ἔμεισεσασ, who will remain, p. 369. In ancient manuscripts the regular termination in ἔσο is found in verbs of this class, as ἀραιεῖσασ, "he will rise up," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 12; ρυθιῖσασ, "I will arrange," *Id.*, p. 178. And ἐέσασ, and even εῖσασ, are sometimes found in old writings for the εοῖσασ of the moderns, as κόμειέσασ, "I will array," *Id.*, p. 178; νόσα τεῖρεεῖσασ, "there shall not be wanting," *St. Columbkille*.

To this class may be added some others, which, though not ending in ῖσασ, form the penultimate of the future in εο, and in ancient manuscripts in e long. The principal of these are the following:

PRESENT.

ἀσῶμι, I confess.

αἶνωμι, I know.

αἰερίμι, I relate.

κοιλιμι, I sleep.

κοινοῖμι, I keep.

κορῶμι, I defend.

κοιρίμι, I banish.

κοινοῖμι, I repel.

κοινοῖμι, I revenge.

εἰβλιμι, I die.

φοῖλαμι, I learn.

φοῖλαμι, I open.

φρασεῖμι, I answer.

ἰμι, I play.

ἰμι, I tell.

λαβριμι, I speak.

πατεριμι, I trample.

ταρῖμι, I draw.

τόξωμι, I raise.

τόξωμι, I desire.

FUTURE.

αἰσεῖσασ.

αἰτεῖσασ.

αἰτεῖσασ.

κοινοῖσασ.

κοινοῖσασ.

κοινοῖσασ.

κοινοῖσασ.

κοινοῖσασ.

κοινοῖσασ.

εἰβεῖσασ.

φοῖλεῖσασ.

φοῖλεῖσασ.

φρασεῖσασ.

ἰσεῖσασ.

ἰσεῖσασ.

λαβεῖσασ.

πατερεῖσασ.

ταρῖσεῖσασ.

τόξεῖσασ.

τόξεῖσασ.

In the county of Kilkenny, and throughout Munster, however, the attenuation does not always take place in these verbs; and the long syllable is transposed, as if those verbs were of the regular class in *ígim*, or *uígim*, as *ασμόξασ*, I will confess; *αιεθεόξασ*, *αιεπιρέόξασ*; *κοιλεόξασ*; *κοιγεόξασ*; *κορμνεόξασ*; *οίβρεόξασ*, &c. But these forms are not found in printed books, nor in the correct Munster manuscripts, as will be seen in John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*, pp. 20, 44, 78, where *τοιγεόρασ*, *λαβεορασ*, and *αιεονασ*, occur as the futures of *τόγραμ*, I desire; *λαβραμ*, I speak; and *αιενομ*, I know. Examples of this future in *eó*, in the penultimate, also occur in the poems of the Munster bards of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as in the inauguration Ode of Donell O'Donovan, by Muldowny O'Morrison, in 1639:

Θαιρμ ποάιρ να ηγλύν όρ' έιν
 Κοιρεόναϊδ ό'αιρ νο ό'είζιν.

“The title to the wealth of the generations from whom he sprung
 He will maintain by consent, or force.”

Giolla Iosa Mor Mac Firis often writes this future *é* long, as in the poem addressed to Teige Reagh O'Dowda, chief of Tíreragh, in 1417:

Όλαδ α εεγλαϊγ τοιγεόδα.

“The fame of his household I will extol.”

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The second person singular of this mood may generally be considered the root of the verb, as *ζλαν*, cleanse thou; *βριγ*, break thou. The third person singular is formed from it by adding *αδ*, or *εαδ*, accordingly as the characteristic vowel is broad or slender, as *ζλαναδ ρέ*, let him cleanse; *βριρεαδ ρέ*, let him break. The first person plural by adding *αμ*, *εαμ*, *αμαοιρ*; the second, *ϊδ* (very long); the third, *αθαοιρ*, *ιδίρ*.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

This mood, which has but one tense, has an analytic and synthetic form.

The analytic is formed from the future indicative by changing $\rho\alpha\iota\delta$, or $\rho\iota\delta$, into $\rho\alpha\delta$, or $\rho\epsilon\alpha\delta$, as $\delta\omicron$ $\xi\lambda\alpha\eta\alpha\delta$ $\rho\iota\alpha\delta$, they would cleanse; $\delta\omicron$ $\beta\eta\upsilon\eta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he would break, &c.

The synthetic form has $\rho\alpha\iota\eta\eta$ in the first person singular; $\rho\acute{\alpha}$ in the second; but the third, as before remarked, has no synthetic form. In the first person plural, the termination is $\rho\alpha\mu\alpha\omicron\iota\gamma$, or $\rho\iota\mu\acute{\iota}\gamma$; in the second, $\rho\alpha\iota\delta$, or $\rho\iota\delta$ (very long); in the third, $\rho\alpha\delta\alpha\omicron\iota\gamma$, or $\rho\alpha\iota\delta\acute{\iota}\gamma$, or $\rho\iota\delta\acute{\iota}\gamma$.

Verbs in $\iota\zeta\iota\eta\mu$, or $\upsilon\iota\zeta\iota\eta\mu$, and those which form the penultimate of the future in $\epsilon\omicron$, also form the conditional mood from the future indicative, by changing the final syllables to $\alpha\iota\eta\eta$, for the first person singular; $\tau\acute{\alpha}$, for the second; $\alpha\delta$, for the third, &c.

In ancient manuscripts, the termination $\omicron\beta\alpha\delta$, or $\omicron\beta\alpha\delta\delta$, often appears in this mood, as $\eta\tau\alpha\eta$ $\eta\omicron\gamma$ $\epsilon\lambda\epsilon\epsilon\delta\omicron\beta\alpha\delta$, “when it would change.”—*Cor Gloss.*, voce *Manannán*.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

General Rule.—The infinitive mood is formed by adding $\alpha\delta$, or $\epsilon\alpha\delta$, to the root of the verb, as $\delta\omicron$ $\xi\lambda\alpha\eta\alpha\delta$, to cleanse; $\delta\omicron$ $\beta\eta\upsilon\eta\epsilon\alpha\delta$, to break. But it may be generally observed, that if there be a diphthong, or triphthong, closed by ι in the root, the ι is most generally dropped in forming the infinitive, as $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\lambda\iota\eta\mu$, I

IMPERATIVE.

coiꝛꝓ, check.
 cuiꝛ, put.
 ꝑulaꝛꝓ, suffer.
 ꝓul, weep.
 ꝑcuꝛ, cease.
 ceanꝓaꝛ, bind.
 toꝑꝑaꝛ, wind.
 toꝛꝑꝑeꝛꝑ, forbid.
 toꝛioꝛól, gather.

INFINITIVE.

oo coiꝛꝓ, to check.
 oo cuiꝛ, to put.
 o' ꝑulaꝛꝓ, to suffer.
 oo ꝓul, to weep.
 oo ꝑcuꝛ, to cease.
 oo ceanꝓaꝛ, to bind.
 oo toꝑꝑaꝛ, to wind.
 oo toꝛꝑꝑeꝛꝑ, to forbid.
 oo toꝛioꝛól, to gather.

3. Some suffer syncope in the penultimate syllable, and drop the characteristic slender vowel of the root, thus :

IMPERATIVE.

caoimán, protect.
 coꝛaín, defend, contend.
 ꝑoꝓáꝛ, warn.
 ꝑoꝓaín, serve.
 ꝑoꝓꝓaꝛ, open.
 ꝑuaꝛꝓaꝛ, relieve.
 múꝛꝓaꝛ, awake.
 ꝑeaꝑaín, avoid.
 toꝛioꝛꝓaín, begin.
 toꝓoꝛaín, desire.

INFINITIVE.

oo caoimnáó.
 oo coꝛnaím.
 o' ꝑóꝓꝑaó.
 o' ꝑoꝓnaó.
 o' ꝑoꝓꝓaó.
 o' ꝑuaꝛꝓaó.
 oo múꝛꝓꝓaó.
 oo ꝑeaꝑnaó.
 oo toꝛioꝛnaó.
 oo toꝓoꝓnaó.

Most of these verbs have infinitives different from those here laid down, in the spoken language, and in very good manuscripts, as coꝛaínꝑ for coꝛnaím ; ꝑóꝓꝑeꝛꝑ for ꝑóꝓꝑaó ; ꝑoꝓꝓeꝛꝑ for ꝑoꝓꝓaó ; múꝛꝓeꝛꝑ for múꝛꝓꝓaó ; ꝑeaꝑaínꝑ for ꝑeaꝑnaó, &c. These terminations of the infinitive mood vary a good deal throughout the provinces, and stand in need of a standard. Many of the terminations given by Neilson and Stewart would not be understood in the south of Ireland.

4. Verbs in uꝓáim and iꝓáim make the infinitive in uꝓaó and iꝓaó, as :

INDICATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
αρουῖμι, I exalt, <i>root</i> , αρουῖ.	οο αρουῖαό.
μιλιῖμι, I sweeten, <i>root</i> , μιλιῖ.	οο μιλιυῖαό.
μορουῖμι, I exalt, <i>root</i> , μορουῖ.	οο μορουῖαό.
φοιλιῖμι, I shew, <i>root</i> , φοιλιῖ.	ο' φοιλιρυῖαό.
ροιλιῖμι, I shine, <i>root</i> , ροιλιῖ.	οο ροιλιρυῖαό.

5. Some add τ to the root, but these have also a second form.

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
αγαρ, claim.	ο' αγαρτε, <i>or</i> αγριαό.
κεῖλ, conceal.	οο κεῖλτε.
κοραμ, defend, contend.	οο κοραμτε, <i>or</i> οο κοραμῖ.
κουμιλ, rub.	οο κουμιλτε.
βαγαρ, threaten.	οο βαγαρτε, βαγριαό, <i>or</i> βαγαρ.
οιβιρ, banish.	οο οιβιρτε.
κοργαρ, slaughter.	οο κοργαρτε, κοργριαό, <i>or</i> κοργαρ.
φοριρ, relieve.	ο' φοριριτε, <i>or</i> ο' φοριριεῖν.
φρεαγαρ, answer.	οο φρεαγαρτε, <i>or</i> φρεαγριαό.
ιμιρ, play.	ιμιρτε.
ιοόβαρ, offer.	οο ιοόβαρτε.
λαβαρ, speak.	οο λαβαρτε, <i>or</i> λαβριαό.
λομαρ, strip, peel.	οο λομαρτε, λομριαό.
μεῖλ, grind.	οο μεῖλτε.
παταρ, trample.	οο παταρτε, <i>or</i> πατεριαό.
μούργαι, awake.	οο μούργαιτε, <i>or</i> μούργιαό.
ταβαρ, give.	οο ταβαρτε.
ρεαάμ, avoid.	οο ρεαάμτε, <i>or</i> ρεαάμιαό.
τομαῖ, eat.	οο τομαῖτε.

6. Many add αμαμ, or εαμαμ, to the root, as :

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
καῖλ, lose.	οο καῖλλεαμαμ.
κρειο, believe.	οο κρειοεαμαμ.
φαν, wait, stay.	ο' φαναμαμ, <i>or</i> ο' φουρεαά.
σαν, say, <i>or</i> sing.	οο санамаμ, <i>or</i> сантаμ.
сμν, to resolve.	οο сμνεαмаμ.

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
ḡm, beget.	oo ḡineamam.
ḡeall, promise.	oo ḡeallamam.
lean, follow.	oo leanamam.
tuill, earn.	oo tuilleamam, or oo tuilliom.
oil, nurse.	o' oileamam.
oir, fit, adapt.	o' oirreamam.
rḡar, separate.	oo rḡaramam.

These words are sometimes written *cailleamam*, *cailliomam*, &c., and pronounced in most parts of Ireland as if written *caillium*, *creiuim*, *canim*, &c. In some parts of Munster and South Leinster a *τ* is added to this termination, as *cailleamamτ*, *creiuamamτ*, *ḡeallamamτ*, but this *τ* is seldom found in any correct manuscripts.

7. Several add *áil*, or *báil*, to the root, as,

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
congab, keep.	oo congabáil.
ḡab, take.	oo ḡabáil.
raḡ, find.	o' ráḡáil, or ráḡbáil.
ráḡ, leave.	o' ráḡbáil.
ruaḡ, sew.	o' ruaḡáil.
tóḡ, raise.	oo tóḡbáil.

In all verbal nouns borrowed from the English this termination is used in the corrupt modern Irish, as *boxáil*, to box; *cicáil*, to kick; *polláil*, to roll; *ḡmúóáil*, to smooth, &c.

It should be here remarked, that in the south of the county of Kilkenny, the infinitive mood of *tóḡ*, raise, is *oo tóigeam*, and that in the dialect of Irish spoken in that county several infinitives end in *am*, as *leagam* for *leagab*, to knock down; *léig*, let, or permit, *léigean*, or *ligean*; *tréig*, forsake, *tréigean*; *teilg*, cast, *teilgeam*. In other parts of Ireland, however, these are written and pronounced *leagamτ*, *léigimτ*, *tréigimτ*. Many such irregularities in forming the infinitive mood, or verbal noun, will be observed throughout the provinces, but as they are not found in good manuscripts they should be avoided in correct writing.

8. Some add *γαίλ*, as :

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
πηρα, bounce, jump.	σο ῥραργαίλ.
φεαο, whistle.	ο' ῥεαογαίλ.
ιμπερα, contend.	ο' ιμπεαργαίλ.
ζηράζ, to cackle.	σο ζηράζαογαίλ.

This termination, which is now pronounced *αοίλ* in the south-east of Ireland, occurs three times in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, to wit, in the words *πηραργαίλ*, *βοηηγαίλ*, and *μεαλλγαίλ*.—See p. 256. It is frequently given by Peter Connell in his MS. Irish Dictionary.

9. Some add *εαίμ*, or *αίμ*, as :

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
εαιε, spend.	σο εαιεεαίμ.
αρεαίμ, advance, proceed.	ο' αρεαίμ.
οέαμ, do.	σο οέαμ.
φειε, await.	ο' φειεεαίμ.
ειοηρεαίμ, begin.	σο ειοηρεαίμ.
ρεα, stand.	σο ῥεααίμ.

10. Some add *εαέτ*, or *αέτ*, as :

είρετ, listen.	ο' εیرهεαέτ.
ζλουαίρ, move.	σο ζλουαίρεαέτ, <i>ορ</i> ζλουαρεαέτ.
εαζ, come.	σο εεαέτ.
ιμείε, go.	ο' ιμεεεαέτ.

11. A few end in *εαίμ*, or *εαίμ*, as :

εαίμ, say, <i>ορ</i> sing.	σο εαίμ.
ρεαίμ, pour out.	ο' ῥεαίμ.
ριέ, reach.	σο ροέεαίμ, <i>ορ</i> ριεεαίμ.
μαίμ, live.	σο μαίμ, <i>ορ</i> μαίμ.

12. A few in *ρίμ*, as :

ρείμ, <i>ορ</i> ραίμ, see.	ο' ῥείμ, <i>ορ</i> ο' ῥαίμ.
εαίμ, understand.	σο εαίμ.
εαίμ, offer.	σο εαίμ.
ριέ, reach.	σο ριεεαίμ.
εαίμ, finish.	σο εαίμ.

13. The following are irregular :

αἰρῆ, plunder, despoil.	ο' αἰρῆαι.
κορρυῖ, move.	κορρυῖ, <i>or</i> κορρυῖα.
κουῖ, request.	οο κουῖ.
εἰρῖ, arise.	ο' εἰρῖ, ο' εἰρῖ.
ιονηραιῖ, approach.	ο' ιονηραιῖ.
ῥαῖραι, ask.	ο' ῥαῖραι.
λέιμ, leap.	οο λέιμνι, λέιμνεα.
ῆλαο, call.	οο ῆλαοα.
ῆέιμ, low.	οο ῆέιμνεα.
ιαῖ, ask.	ο' ιαῖ.
τυι, fall.	οο τυι.
τεαραῖ, spare, save.	οο τεαραῖ.
λυο, lie.	οο λυο.
ῥυο, sit.	οο ῥυο.
ῥυῖ, spin.	οο ῥυῖ.
κλαοι, subdue.	οο κλαοι.
ῥαοι, think, imagine.	οο ῥαοιλεα.
λεα, knock down.	οο λεα, <i>or</i> οο λεα.
λέι, let, <i>or</i> permit.	οο λέι, <i>or</i> οο λέι.
τειλ, cast.	οο τειλ, <i>or</i> οο τειλ.
ῥεα, look.	ο' ῥεα, <i>or</i> ο' ῥεα.
ῥεῖ, forsake.	οο ῥεῖ, <i>or</i> οο ῥεῖ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

There is no distinction of number or person in the tenses of the passive voice, and, as already observed, the personal pronouns connected with it are always in what is considered to be the accusative case.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

The present tense is formed from the root by adding ται or ται, ται or ται, as μεαται, is deceived ; βυται, is broken ; λυται, is bent ; ἀρυται, is

exalted. For General Rule, see formation of passive participle, pp. 205, 206, which also regulates the aspiration of the τ in this termination.

In ancient manuscripts this tense is found terminating in $\tau\epsilon\rho$, and sometimes, though rarely, in $\alpha\tau$, as $\alpha\lambda\lambda\alpha\tau$ ἰ $\xi\tau\omicron$, "it is reared in the woods," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce $\text{Ceno}\alpha\tau\omicron$; $\text{cu}\rho\iota\tau\eta\rho$, "is put," *Id.*, voce $\text{F}\epsilon\rho\beta$.

The past tense is formed by adding $\alpha\delta$, or $\epsilon\alpha\delta$, to the root, as $\text{me}\alpha\lambda\alpha\delta$, was deceived; $\text{b}\rho\iota\rho\epsilon\alpha\delta$, was broken.

In ancient manuscripts this tense is like the passive participle, as $\text{tu}\gamma\epsilon\tau\alpha$, was given; $\text{o}\sigma\ \rho\omicron\text{no}\tau\alpha$, was made.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 8, 22, 24; $\rho\upsilon\text{ch}\alpha\epsilon$, was born.—*Book of Armagh*, fol. 18.

The consuetudinal past adds $\tau\alpha\omicron\iota$, or $\tau\acute{\iota}$, as $\text{me}\alpha\lambda\tau\alpha\omicron\iota$, was used to be deceived; $\text{b}\rho\iota\rho\tau\acute{\iota}$, was used to be broken.

The future tense adds $\rho\alpha\tau$, $\rho\epsilon\alpha\tau$, or $\rho\alpha\iota\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau$, $\rho\iota\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau$, to the root, as $\text{me}\alpha\lambda\lambda\rho\alpha\tau$, or $\text{me}\alpha\lambda\lambda\rho\alpha\iota\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau$, will be deceived; $\text{b}\rho\iota\rho\rho\epsilon\alpha\tau$, or $\text{b}\rho\iota\rho\rho\iota\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau$, will be broken.

Verbs in $\text{u}\dot{\iota}\gamma\iota\mu$, which make the future active in $\text{e}\acute{\omicron}\delta\alpha\delta$, form the future passive from the future active by changing $\text{e}\acute{\omicron}\delta\alpha\delta$ into $\text{e}\acute{\omicron}\delta\alpha\tau$, as $\rho\omicron\iota\lambda\lambda\rho\dot{\iota}\gamma\iota\mu$, I shew; future active, $\rho\omicron\iota\lambda\lambda\rho\epsilon\acute{\omicron}\delta\alpha\delta$, I will shew; future passive, $\rho\omicron\iota\lambda\lambda\rho\epsilon\acute{\omicron}\delta\alpha\tau$ $\text{m}\acute{\epsilon}$, I will be shewn.

In the ancient manuscripts the termination $\rho\acute{\iota}\tau\epsilon\rho$ is often found for this tense, as in $\rho\epsilon\delta\tau\text{m}\alpha\ \text{c}\acute{\alpha}\tau\ \text{cu}\rho\iota\rho\acute{\iota}\tau\epsilon\rho\ \text{e}\tau\tau\text{m}\alpha\beta$, i. e. "the seventh battle which shall be fought between you."—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 12.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

This mood, which has but one tense, is formed by adding $\rho\alpha\iota\delta\epsilon$, or $\rho\iota\delta\epsilon$, to the root, or by adding e to

the future indicative active, as *meállραῶ*, would be deceived; *βήρηψῶε*, would be broken.

Verbs in *υῖγim*, and those which have *eo* in the penultimate of the future indicative active, form the conditional mood from the future indicative active, by changing *αῶ* into *αιῶε*, as *φοιλλήγim*, I shew; *φοιλλήροῦαῶ*, I will shew; *δ' φοιλλήροῦαιῶε*, it would be shewn, *ἠηγήim*, I tell; fut. *ἠηγήραῶ*, I will tell; condit. *δ' ἠηγήραιῶε*, it would be told; *ἠηγήim*, I play; fut. *ἠηγήραῶ*, I will play; condit. *δ' ἠηγήραιῶε*, it would be played.

The passive participle is formed by adding *τα*, *ῑτα*; *τε*, *ῑτε*, to the root, as *meállτα*, deceived; *λύβῑτα*, bent; *βήρητε*, broken; *φοιλλήγῑτε*, shewn.

Verbs in *ιγim*, or *υῖγim*, always aspirate the *τ*, as *ὀρῑυῖγim*, I order, passive participle *ὀρῑυῖγῑτε*; as do also many others for the sake of euphony.

In the Erse, or Scottish dialect of this language, the *t* is never aspirated in the passive participle; but it is marked with a decided aspiration in the oldest Irish manuscripts, as *ocur in hicc in τραραῖτε ῑn τucαῶ Ross corr ὁῶ h Ua Suanaiḡ*, “and in satisfaction for this profanation, Ross Corr was given to Ua Suanaiḡ.”—*L. Breac*, fol. 35, *b*; *ar met in τραραῖῑτε*, “for the greatness of the profanation,” *Ibid.*; and it has always its slender sound in the Erse, whether the characteristic vowel of the root be broad or slender. Stewart, therefore, recommends the termination of the passive participle to be always written *te*, without regard to the characteristic vowel. But this is not admissible in Irish; for the termination of the passive participle is pronounced broad or slender according to the last vowel of the root, as *βήρη*, break, pass. part. *βήρητε*; *ὀλ*, drink, pass. part. *ὀλτα*, drank (not *oilte*, as in the modern Erse); and the *τ* is frequently aspirated, even in the oldest

exactly as in English, by prefixing the infinitive mood of the verb substantive to the passive participle, as το βεῖν̄ βηῖν̄τε, to be broken; το βεῖν̄ μεαῖν̄τα, to be deceived.

SECT. 6.—*Synopsis of the Verb Substantive and regular Verbs.*

For the convenience of the learner it has been thought advisable to give here, in a tabular form, paradigms, or synopses of the verb substantive, and also of three regular verbs, viz., μολᾶμ, I praise, whose characteristic vowel is *broad*; κεῖμ, I conceal, whose characteristic vowel is *small*; and ποίημι, I shew. These examples will exhibit all the varieties of the inflexions to be found in regular verbs, and the student should make himself thoroughly familiar with them before he proceeds to the study of the irregular verbs, which will then present no difficulty, as they are regular in their personal terminations.

The learner will observe that when he has committed to memory the terminations of the present indicative active of the regular verbs, he has no difficulty in committing those of the future, the only difference being the insertion of an *φ* for the latter. He should also bear in mind that the third person singular has no synthetic form in any of its moods and tenses, and that none of the moods of the regular verbs has more than one tense, except the indicative, which has five.

I.—Τάίμ, I am.

		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
INDICATIVE MOOD.	Present Tense.	1. τάίμ. 2. τάίρ. 3. τά ρέ.	1. ταμασιο. 2. τατασι. 3. τάιο.
	Consuetudinal Present.	1. βίῶ-ιμ. 2. -ίρ. 3. -εανν, <i>or</i> βίονν ρέ.	1. βίμίῶ 2. βίτί. 3. βίῶ.
	Preterite.	1. βίῶ-εαρ. 2. βίῶ-ίρ. 3. βί ρέ.	1. βίομαρ. 2. βίοβαρ. 3. βίσοαρ.
	Consuetudinal Past.	1. βίῶ-ιμν. 2. -τέα. 3. -εαῶ, <i>or</i> βίῶ ρέ.	1. βίμίρ. 2. βίτί. 3. βίσίρ.
	Future.	1. βιασ. 2. βιαίρ. 3. βια, <i>or</i> βιαῶ ρέ.	1. βιαμασιο. 2. βιατασι. 3. βιασ.
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.	Present Tense.	1. ᾄο ἕ-φυιλ-ιμ. 2. -ίρ. 3. -ίρ.	1. ᾄο ἕ-φυιλ-ιμίῶ. 2. -τί. 3. -ιο.
	Consuetudinal Present.	1. ᾄο μ-βίῶ-ιμ. 2. -ίρ. 3. -εανν ρέ.	1. ᾄο μ-βί-μίῶ. 2. -τί. 3. -ιο.
	Preterite.	1. ᾄο παῖ-αρ. 2. -αίρ. 3. παῖ ρέ.	1. ᾄο παῖ-αμαρ. 2. -αβαρ. 3. -ασοαρ.
	Consuetudinal Past.	1. ᾄο μ-βίῶ-ιμν. 2. -τέα. 3. -εαῶ ρέ.	1. ᾄο μ-βί-μίρ. 2. -τί. 3. -σίρ.
	Future.	1. ᾄο μ-βιασ. 2. ᾄο μ-βιαίρ. 3. ᾄο μ-βιαῶ ρέ.	1. ᾄο μ-βιαμασιο. 2. ᾄο μ-βιατασι. 3. ᾄο μ-βιασ.
IMPERATIVE MOOD.	1. . . . 2. βί. 3. βίῶεαῶ, <i>or</i> βίῶ ρέ.	1. βίμίρ. 2. βίῶῶ. 3. βίσίρ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD.	1. βειῶ-ιμν. 2. -τέα. 3. -εαῶ ρέ.	1. βειμίρ. 2. βειτί. 3. βεισίρ.	
INFINITIVE MOOD, Ὅο βειῶ.		PARTICIPLE, Ἄρ μ-βειῶ.	

ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
INDICATIVE MOOD.		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Present Tense.	1. mol-am.	1. mol-εap mé.	1. mol-εap inn, or rinn.
	2. -ap.	2. εύ.	2. ιβ, or ριβ.
	3. -αυò ré.	3. έ.	3. ιαο.
Consuetudinal Present.	1. mol-ann mé.		
	2. εύ.		
	3. ρέ.		
Consuetudinal Preterite.	1. ñol-ap.	1. mol-αò mé.	1. mol-αò inn, or rinn.
	2. -ap.	2. εύ.	2. ιβ, or ριβ.
	3. ρέ.	3. έ.	3. ιαο.
Consuetudinal Past.	1. ñol-ann.	1. mol-εαοι mé.	1. mol-εαοι inn, or rinn.
	2. -εά.	2. εύ.	2. ιβ, or ριβ.
	3. -αò ré.	3. έ.	3. ιαο.
Future.	1. mol-εαο.	1. mol-εap mé.	1. mol-εap inn, or rinn.
	2. -εap.	2. εύ.	2. ιβ, or ριβ.
	3. -εαυò ré.	3. έ.	3. ιαο.
IMPERATIVE MOOD.	1. . . .	1. mol-εap mé.	1. mol-εap inn, or rinn.
	2. mol.	2. εύ.	2. ιβ, or ριβ.
	3. mol-αò ré.	3. έ.	3. ιαο.
CONDITIONAL MOOD.	1. ñol-εann.	1. ñol-εαibe mé.	1. ñol-εαibe inn, or rinn.
	2. -εά.	2. εύ.	2. ιβ, or ριβ.
	3. -εαò ré.	3. έ.	3. ιαο.
INFIN. MOOD, oo ñol-αò.		INFIN. MOOD, oo ñeiz mol-εα.	
PARTICIPLE, εg mol-αò.		PARTICIPLE, mol-εα.	

III.—Ceilim, I conceal.

		ACTIVE VOICE.			PASSIVE VOICE.		
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		
INDICATIVE MOOD.	Present Tense.	1. ceil-im. -ir. -io pé.	1. ceil-imíó. -cí. -io.	1. ceil-teap mé. é. é.	1. ceil-teap inn, <i>or</i> rinn. ib, <i>or</i> rib. iaso.		
	Consuetudinal Present.	1. ceil-eann mé. tú. pé.	1. ceil-eann rinn. rib riaso.				
	Preterite.	1. ceil-eap. -ir. pé, <i>or</i> ceileapteapir.	1. ceil-eapair. -eabap. -easapir.	1. ceil-eaó mé. tú. é.	1. ceil-eaó inn, <i>or</i> rinn. ib, <i>or</i> rib. iaso.		
INDICATIVE MOOD.	Consuetudinal Past.	1. ceil-inn. -tea. -eaó pé.	1. ceil-imíir. -cí. -ioír.	1. ceil-cí mé. tú. é.	1. ceil-cí inn, <i>or</i> rinn. ib, <i>or</i> rib. iaso.		
	Future.	1. ceil-feaso. -fir. -fio pé.	1. ceil-fimíó. -fíó. -fio.	1. ceil-feap mé. tú. é.	1. ceil-feap inn, <i>or</i> rinn. ib, <i>or</i> rib. iaso.		
	IMPERATIVE MOOD.	1. . . . 2. ceil. 3. ceil-eaó pé.	1. ceil-imíir. -íó. -ioír.	1. ceil-teap mé. tú. é.	1. ceil-teap inn, <i>or</i> rinn. ib, <i>or</i> rib. iaso.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD.		1. ceil-finn. -feá. -feao pé.	1. ceil-fimíir. -fíó. -fioír.	1. ceil-fíó mé. tú. é.	1. ceil-fíó inn, <i>or</i> rinn. ib, <i>or</i> rib. iaso.		

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Present Tense.	1. foillpryg-im.	1. foillpryg-míto.	1. foillpryg-éap mé.	1. foillpryg-éap inn, or rinn.	1. foillpryg-éap inn, or rinn. ib, or rib. iao.
	2. -ir.	-éí.	2. tú.	2. tú.	
	3. -io ré.	-io.	3. é.	3. é.	
Consecutive Present.	1. foillpryg-eann mé.	1. foillpryg-eann rinn.			
	2. tú.	rib.			
	3. ré.	riao.			
Preterite.	1. o' foillpryg-eap.	1. o' foillpryg-eamar.	1. oo foillpryg-eaó mé.	1. oo foillpryg-eaó inn, or rinn.	1. oo foillpryg-eaó inn, or rinn. ib, or rib. iao.
	2. -ir.	-eabar.	2. tú.	2. tú.	
	3. ré.	-eabar.	3. é.	3. é.	
Consecutive Past.	1. o' foillpryg-inn.	1. o' foillpryg-mír.	1. oo foillpryg-éí mé.	1. oo foillpryg-éí inn, or rinn.	1. oo foillpryg-éí inn, or rinn. ib, or rib. iao.
	2. -éa.	-éí.	2. tú.	2. tú.	
	3. -eaó ré.	-oír.	3. é.	3. é.	
Future.	1. foillreocó-ao.	1. foillreocó-amaoio.	1. foillreocó-ap mé.	1. foillreocó-ap inn, or rinn.	1. foillreocó-ap inn, or rinn. ib, or rib. iao.
	2. -ap.	-éaoi.	2. tú.	2. tú.	
	3. -aio ré.	-aio.	3. é.	3. é.	
IMPERATIVE MOOD.	1. . . .	1. foillpryg-mír.	1. foillpryg-éap mé.	1. foillpryg-éap inn, or rinn.	1. foillpryg-éap inn, or rinn. ib, or rib. iao.
	2. foillpryg.	-íto.	2. tú.	2. tú.	
	3. -eaó ré.	-oír.	3. é.	3. é.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD.	1. o' foillreocó-ann	1. o' foillreocó-amaoir.	1. o' foillreocó-aíde mé.	1. o' foillreocó-aíde inn, or rinn.	1. o' foillreocó-aíde inn, or rinn. ib, or rib. iao.
	2. -éa.	-éaoí.	2. tú.	2. tú.	
	3. -aó ré.	-aoíir.	3. é.	3. é.	
INFIN. MOOD, o' foillprugaó.		PARTICIPLE, a3 foillprugaó.		INFIN. MOOD, oo beie foillprigée. PART., foillprigée.	

SECTION 7.—*Irregular Verbs.*

There are eleven irregular, or more properly defective verbs in this language, viz., *beirim*, I give; *beirim*, I bear; *ám*, I see; *cluinim*, I hear; *deanam*, I do; *ním*, or *gním*, I do; *deirim*, I say; *faigim*, I find; *riigim*, I reach; *teioim*, I go; *toim*, I come.

O'Molloy and Mac Curtin tell us that the irregular verbs of this language are very numerous, and mostly heteroclites, subject to no general rules; but it is now quite evident that neither of these writers had given the subject sufficient consideration; for the fact is, that there are but eleven irregular verbs, and these certainly not more difficult to be learned or remembered than the irregular verbs of any ancient or modern language of Europe. O'Molloy writes: "Verborum alia variantur valdè apud Hibernos, velut heteroclita, et diuersimodè, ita vt vniversalis regula pro eijs nequit dari, adeòque insistendum sit Auctoribus vbique probatis. Alia autem in suis manentia formis, aliquando personaliter, aliquando temporaliter, interdum modaliter, nonnunquam numeraliter mutantur, aliquilibus circa vltimas, vel penultimas syllabas factis variatiunculis." He then gives an example of the verb *scribo*, and adds: "Heteroclita sunt multa, vt *α ταιμ*, *deirim*, *oo παoh*, *oo cimh*" [read *oo chim*], "vbi et vsus maximè, et auctoritas obseruanda."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 124, 125. 126. It happens, however, that in Irish there are, strictly speaking, no *irregular* verbs at all. The eleven verbs above given are *defective* rather than *irregular*. All other verbs are perfectly regular in *all* their moods and tenses—not like the regular verbs in Latin, very many of which are irregular in their preterperfect tenses and supines; and even the eleven so called irregular verbs of the Irish are perfectly regular in their numbers or persons; their irregularity consists only in this, that they want certain tenses, which they borrow from certain other verbs, which are themselves

regular, as ἔθειρον, I give, which borrows some of its tenses from the verb ἔζωον, and some from ἔδωον; also ἔβλεπον, I saw, which borrows some parts from ἔβραον, and some from ἔβαιον; εἶμι, I see, which borrows from ἔειπον, &c.

I.—ἔθειρον, ἔζωον, or ἔδωον, I give.

ACTIVE VOICE.

The present, and consuetudinal present indicative, and the conditional mood, of the three verbs, are still in use, and are perfectly regular. The past tense is that of ἔζωον only. The consuetudinal past is taken both from ἔθειρον and ἔζωον; the future from ἔθειρον and ἔδωον, which last has a double form in the future, differing chiefly in spelling. The imperative is from ἔδωον and ἔζωον, and the infinitive from ἔδωον only.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἔθειρον.	1. ἔθειροισι.
2. ἔθειρι.	2. ἔθειρε.
3. ἔθειρε.	3. ἔθειρο.

The analytic form of this tense is ἔθειρον μέ, ἔθειρον σύ, ἔθειρον γέ, &c.

ἔζωον and ἔδωον are also in use, and the persons are regular, like ἔμοιλον.

Example.—Οὐκ ἔδοξα ἑστέον ἄλλοι ἢ τῷ θεῷ ἅμα ἢ ἑστέον, “for we do not give the honour which is due to God alone to any one else.”—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 195.

Consuetudinal Present.

ἔθειρον μέ, I usually give, &c.

ἔζωον and ἔδωον are in use, and are quite regular.

Simple Past.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. *ḗzgar.*1. *ḗzgamar.*2. *ḗzgar.*2. *ḗzgar.*3. *ḗz ré.*3. *ḗzgar.*

In ancient writings, *beret*, the now obsolete preterite of *beirim*, and *tarō*, *tarat*, *zucarpar*, and *zuc*, are used for *ḗz*, or *ḗz ré*, he gave; also *zucrat*, *tarōrat*, and *beretar*, for *zugar*, they gave, as in the following examples: *ḗnīc an rīg, ocyr ōo parōm a peir ōo Phatrac ó beolu, ocyr nī tarut o ériu,* “the king came and gave his own demand to Patrick by word of mouth, but did not give it from his heart,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, *a, a*; *ōo beret buille ōo hugo zur bean a céann ōe*, “he gave Hugo a blow, so that he cut off his head,” *Annals of the Four Masters*, A. D. 1186; “Cormac Cas *zucurpar cat Samna ō’ Eochaid Abhratruadh*,” “Cormac Cas fought the battle of Samhain against Eochaidh Abhratruadh,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 209; *nī tarōrat iarum muinntir uaidreč in rīg nac rreazra fuiri,* “but the proud people of the king gave her no answer,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 18; *zucrat a laīna ’mon cloich*, “they brought their hands about the stone,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 219, *a*; *ōo beretar rciat tar lorcc*, “they covered the retreat,” literally, “they placed a shield on the track (of the retreat),” *Annals of the Four Masters*, A. D. 1434. When the particle *ro* is prefixed in this tense, the *č* is often dropped from *zuc*, as *rouc* [*.i. ro ḗuc*] *nech elī in b̄reth remī*, “another person passed the sentence before him,” *Cor. Gloss., voce b̄reth*.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. *Ḅeirinn.*1. *Ḅeirimír.*2. *Ḅeirteá.*2. *Ḅeiréi.*3. *Ḅeirteó ré.*3. *Ḅeirioír.*

The first person plural is often *Ḅeirimír*, as in the following example: *cat páma ōo berimír illoch ceamnacra co zórad a mur-zrian millen for uac̄tar*, “every oar which we used to put

into Loch Leamhnachta used to raise the sweets of the bottom to the surface," *Mac Conglinn's Dream*, in *Leabhar Breac*.

Ḃuḡaimn is also used, and is quite regular.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>ḃéarḡas.</i>	1. <i>ḃéarḡamasoib.</i>
2. <i>ḃéarḡair.</i>	2. <i>ḃéarḡaíð.</i>
3. <i>ḃéarḡaíð ré.</i>	3. <i>ḃéarḡaib.</i>

Ḃaḃarḡas, from *ḃaḃair* (pronounced *tourhăd*), which is quite regular in its persons, is the form now in use in the south of Ireland; but another form *ḃiuḃras*, also from *ḃaḃair*, and regular in its persons, was used by the Munster poets of the seventeenth century, as in the following stanza from the inauguration ode of Daniel O'Donovan, composed by Muldowny O'Morrison, about the year 1639:

Ḃí ḃiuḃra uasá an onáir,
Inne ir bual o' O'Donnaḃáin.

Keating and several other writers make the form derived from *ḃheirim*, so *ḃér* in the first person singular of the future tense, without adding the termination *ḡas*, as *Ḃo ḃér ḡorác na ronna ro so'n Mhiḃe*, "I shall give the first place in this division to Meath," *Hist. Irel.*, p. 23; *Ḃo ḃér leam éu*, "I shall take thee with me," *Id.*, p. 70; and *ḃéram-ne* in the first person plural, emphatic form, as *ní ḡa marḃa iat iḡir, ol ḡiat, acḡ ḡuam-ḃreacḡ reacḡtmanne so ḡat in ḡrai ḡorra, ocuf so ḃéram-ne so riḡiriu ar culaí*, "they are not dead at all, said they, but the druid has brought on them a magical sleep for a week, but we shall bring them back again," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 175.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	1. <i>ḃaḃramasoir.</i>
2. <i>ḃaḃair.</i>	2. <i>ḃaḃraíð.</i>
3. <i>ḃaḃraíð ré.</i>	3. <i>ḃaḃraioír.</i>

The form from *tuḡaim* is *tuḡ*, which is regular throughout the persons. It is now very seldom used in the spoken Irish, but it frequently occurs in ancient writings, written *tuḡ*, as *Ḃa tuḡ h'aire ne ríḡirib aibé*, for the modern *ná tabair t'aire ar ríirib oibé*, “do not give heed to nocturnal visions,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 8.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The subjunctive mood is always the same as the indicative.

Example.—*Ḃeirpimone ḡo o-tuḡtaoi an meaf orra naé oibḡear acé oo Ḃhia amain*, “we say that ye give them [the saints] the honour which is not due, except to God alone.”—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 206.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1. *Ḃearraim.*
2. *Ḃearrá.*
3. *Ḃearrao ré.*

PLURAL.

1. *Ḃearraim.*
2. *Ḃearraio.*
3. *Ḃearraioir.*

The form from *tabraim* is either *tabarraim*, or *tuibraim*, both which are regular throughout the persons.

O'Molloy writes the first person plural of this mood, *Ḃearraim*, without the characteristic *r*, as *muir naé raibe oibluibeaéar agaim réim oo Ḃearraim uaim*, “because we ourselves had not a sufficient satisfaction which *we might give* from us,” *Lucerna Fidelium*, pp. 45, 46; and he as often writes it *ḡo o-tuibraim*, as *a ḡ-cár ḡo o-tuibraim oir*, “in case we should grant to thee,” *Id.*, p. 297. In ancient and some modern writings the third person singular is often written *uibreó* and *tarrao* (the final *o* generally left unaspirated), and the third person plural *Ḃerraioir*, or *Ḃerraioir*, and *uibraioir*, as *ro fetar-ra, ol in ben, ní naé uibreó oir*, “I know, said the woman, a thing which he *would not give* thee,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Ḃaire*; *ac beir rri rátraic oir* *i n-a n-diaio co Ḃearraio co tarrao a riar oo h-i rraioir*

pep n-ḡeno, "he told Patrick to go after them to Tara, that he might give him his demand in the presence of the men of Ireland," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, a, a; cinnur oo ḡeḡoair oluige no oianḡaoileāo oppa, "how they would bring dispersion or scattering upon them," *Ann. Four Masters*, A. D. 1570; co na tiberair oāl lai na aiōci ouit; mé féin ní conribér, "so that they should not give thee respite for a day or night; myself will not give it," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo ḡabairt.

This is the usual spelling in the modern language, but it is pronounced in the south of Ireland as if written *do hou-irt*, and in the north as if oo ḡóirt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

In the passive voice the present indicative and consuetudinal past are from ḡeirim and tuḡaim; the preterite from tuḡaim only; the future indicative, and the consuetudinal mood, from ḡeirim and tabḡaim; and the imperative from all three.

As the persons of the passive voice are formed quite regularly, by adding the pronouns me, tú, é, &c., it will not be necessary to do more than give the fundamental form in each tense.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

ḡeirḡear	} mé, tú, é, &c.
tuḡḡear	

The regular present passive of this verb is ḡeirḡear, but it is often written beḡear in old manuscripts, without the characteristic ḡ, as beḡear biaō oo, "food is given to him," *Cor. Gloss., voce*

lezech. *Ἀταγαρ*, or *αταγαρ*, is often found in old writings as if a form of this tense, as *αταγαρ βιαῶ νόιβ*, “food was given to them,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 10; *αταγαρ Σκοτα νο Μιλιῶ* “Scota was given [in marriage] to Milidh,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 11; *αταγαρ τέτα οcur πεπεῶα νο*, “ropes and cords were given to him,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 108. But it should not be assumed as a positive certainty that *αταγαρ* is a form of *τυγαμ*, though it unquestionably means “was given.”

Simple Past.

τυγαῶ μέ, τυ, έ, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

βειριῶε, or τυγαῶε μέ, τυ, έ, &c.

The simple past tense is variously written *τυγαῶ*, *τυγεθα*, *βρεαῶ*, and even *ρυγαῶ*. The first of which forms is exemplified in the following sentence: *Ocur aḡaḡal ἡ α-ναῶταρ Σλέβι Σινα τυγαῶ ἕαλλ πεχτ νο Macu Iḡraeḡ, ρic ρο ροιλλριγ in Σπιḡατ Νοεβ νοιυ α γλανρῦμε νο να h-αρραταḡb ι nḡriḡanaḡ ρο-αρῶ Σλέβι Σιοιη, ι. ἡ in cenῶcaḡal*, thus translated in the original MS.: “*et sicut lex in sublimi Montis Sinai loco tradita est, ita Spiritus Sanctus in cenaculo primitias spiritualium misteriorum aperuit*,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 27, a, a. For examples of the other forms, see *Cor. Gloss.*, *vocibus Ḳεῶεῶ* and *Com ροοοιρνε*.

Future Tense.

<i>βεαḡḡαρ</i>	} <i>μέ, τυ, έ, ριηη, or ιηη, &c.</i>
<i>ταḡαḡḡαρ</i>	
<i>τιῶβαḡḡαρ</i>	
<i>τιβέḡḡαρ</i>	

Examples of the first four forms are common in Irish books. O'Molloy writes *τιῶβαḡḡαρ*, as *εḡευσ ιαῶ να βεοα αρ α ῶ-τιῶβαḡḡαρ βρεαῶ an uḡar ρι?* “who are the living on whom sentence shall be passed at this time,” *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 50. The form *τιβεḡḡαρ* often occurs in old manuscripts, as in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, *ταβαρ βιαῶ οῦη, ολ ιαῶ, μά τά λιḡ*. *ἡ cubur οῦη*,

οὐ πέεταιρε ἡριζῖ, ἢ τιβέρτερι, “give us food, said they, if ye have it. By our word, said the king’s steward, it shall not be given,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 22.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

δειρτέαρ	} μέ, τύ, έ, &c.
τυζτέαρ	
ταβαρτέαρ	

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

δέαρραιθε	} μέ, τύ, έ, &c.
εβαρραιθε	

The forms *ταροταί* and *ταρτα* are very frequently found in the best manuscripts for this mood, as *οὐα ταροταί οὐ νεαχ έλε η-έ*, “if it should be given to any one else,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 58; *οουρ ἦο ἦορcongrαὸ λα ὀρεεῖνυ να ταρτα οἰρcne οὐ ὄαεουελυ*, “and it was ordered by the Britons that no *oircne* [lap-dog] should be given to the Gaels,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Μογ Θιμε*.

II.—*δειρῖμ*, I bear, or bring forth.

This verb takes the simple past tense of the active voice from an obsolete verb *μυζαῖμ*, which is, perhaps, an amalgamation of *μῖο* and *έυζ*, for *τυζαῖμ* also means to bear, or bring forth; in other respects it is regular.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>δειρῖμ</i> .	1. <i>δειρῖμῖο</i> .
2. <i>δειρῖρι</i> .	2. <i>δειρῖτό</i> .
3. <i>δειρῖο ῖρί</i> .	3. <i>δειρῖο</i> .

Simple Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>μυζαῖρ</i> .	1. <i>μυζαμαῖρ</i> .
2. <i>μυζαῖρι</i> .	2. <i>μυζαβαῖρ</i> .
3. <i>μυζῖρί</i> .	3. <i>μυζαοαῖρ</i> .

Example.—Τυγ Ιριαλ ργιαε̄ ταρ λογ ταρ ε̄ιρ ᾱ μιντιρε, γο ρυγ ιομπ̄λάν λειρ ιαο, ιαρ μαρβαο̄ μορ̄άν σο̄'η̄ οροινγ σο̄ lean̄ ε̄. "Irial covered the retreat after his people, so that he brought them safe, after having slain many of those who pursued him," *Battle of Rosnaree*; ρυccρατ̄ οροινγ σο̄ μιντιρ̄ Η̄ Ραγ̄αλλᾱιγ̄ φορ̄ Η̄ιλιαμ̄ δε̄ Ζᾱσι, "some of O'Reilly's people overtook William de Lacy," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D., 1233.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. βειρημν.	1. βειρημῖν.
2. βειρηε̄ά.	2. βειρηε̄ί.
3. βειρηε̄ο̄ ρέ.	3. βειρηο̄ίρ.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. βεαρφαο.	1. βεαρφαμασιο.
2. βεαρφαρ.	2. βεαρφαο̄.
3. βεαρφαο̄ ρέ.	3. βεαρφαο̄.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. . . .	1. βειρημῖν, ορ βειρεαμασιρ.
2. βειρ.	2. βειρηο̄.
3. βειρηε̄ο̄ ρέ.	3. βειρηο̄ίρ.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Is like the Indicative.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. βεαρφαμν.	1. βεαρφαμασιρ.
2. βεαρφᾱ.	2. βεαρφαο̄.
3. βεαρφαο̄ ρέ.	3. βεαρφαο̄ίρ.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

σο̄ βρειε̄.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

βειρῆσθαι μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

βειρῆι μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.

This tense is often written βειρᾶ in old manuscripts, as Cír oo βειρᾶ á ἴεραιβ Ereno cup in loc rín, "tribute used to be brought by the men of Ireland to that place," *Cor. Gloss., voce* Capel.

Future Tense.

βέαρῃαι μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

βειρῆσθαι μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

βέαρῃσθε μέ, εὔ, έ, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo βειρῆ βειρῆε.

Passive Participle.

βειρῆε.

III.—Chím, cìom, φαίom, or φείom, I see.

In this verb, in the active voice, the simple past tense is from an obsolete verb, connarcam, or con-
dearcam. The imperative, subjunctive, conditional,
and infinitive moods are from φείom, and the remain-
der from cìom, or cím.

In the passive voice, the simple past tense is also
taken from connarcam. The other tenses and moods
from both cìom and φείom.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. cíoim, or cím.	1. cíomio, or cimíó.
2. cíoir, or cír.	2. cíóci, or cící.
3. cíó re, or cí ré.	3. cíóio, or cíó.

This verb is pronounced cím in the north of Ireland, and parts of Meath, and is sometimes so written by local writers, as tím uaim ar bhinn Dhaile Fhoðair meirge Chuinn Uí Chonchoðair, "I see from me, on the hill of Fore, the standard of Cunn O'Conor," *MS. penes auctorem*. But no ancient or correct authority has been found for this form. The first person singular is often written cíu, instead of cím, as rocaibe a cíu, "a host I see," *Book of Leinster*, fol. 105; and the second and third persons singular are written chí, as Feargaischeo Loegaire ót chí in tenio, "Loeghaire becomes enraged when he sees the fire," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, a, a; linn Luimneig in linn polormor út at chí, "that luminous water thou seest is the river of Luimnech." But it is probable that in these latter instances, chí is intended as the analytic form of the verb, and that tú and ré are left understood.

Consuetudinal Present.

cíóeann mé, tú, ré, &c.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. cónnarcar.	1. cóncamar.
2. cónnarcair.	2. cóncaðar.
3. cónnairc ré.	3. cóncaðar.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. cíóinn.	1. cíómír.
2. cíóceá.	2. cíóció.
3. cíóeao re.	3. cíóóir.

Or, cín, cíceá, &c., without the ó in the middle.

The simple past tense of this verb is often written *connac* in the best manuscripts, a form obviously compounded of *con*, an intensive prefix, like the Latin *con*, and *rac*, as is *connairc* of *con*, and *rac*, to look, or view; Greek, *δέρνω*. Examples of *connairc* are very common in every Irish book. The following example of *connuic*, which corresponds with the Latin *conspexit*, will be sufficient: *oo connuic cléirec finnliac a n-orrain na h-eagairi, ocup leabap 'na fáidnuire*, “he saw a fair-grey cleric at the jamb of the church, and a book before him,” *Book of Fermoy*. Various barbaric forms of the personal inflections of the plural will be found throughout the provinces, as *connairceamair*, *énuiceamair*, &c., we saw; but these should not be introduced into correct writing.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. *óifecao*.
2. *óifir*.
3. *óifir ó ré*.

PLURAL.

1. *óifimio, or óifimaoio*.
2. *óifiríó*.
3. *óifirio*.

Or, *óifecao, óifir, &c.*, without the *ó* in the middle.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1.
2. *feic*.
3. *feiceao ré*.

PLURAL.

1. *feicimí, or feicimíó*.
2. *feicíó*.
3. *feicimí*.

Haliday makes *féc* the imperative mood of this verb, but this is decidedly a different verb, signifying view, or look. The Rev. Paul O'Brien, who had a good vernacular knowledge of Irish, corrects Haliday in this instance, for he says in his *Irish Grammar*, p. 145, that this verb takes its imperative and infinitive moods and participles from *feicim*, *I see*, and not from *fécaim*, *I view*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Haliday makes *ní fáicim* the subjunctive mood of this verb, which is correct according to the present spoken language; that is,

the form pa m , or paicim , is now used instead of cíoim , after ní , nac , &c. ; but paicim , or paicim , is as often used in the indicative as cíoim . Paicim is inflected in this mood like a regular verb, and it is therefore unnecessary to give its tenses here, as $\text{mur nac b-paicicéio gnúr de do ríor}$, “where ye shall never see the face of God,” *O'Molloy, in Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 51 ; $\alpha \text{ voubairt in ríð ría múintur oiriríó bec co paicem, ocur co fearam cia pon acaillinn}$, “the king said to his people, wait a little till we see and know whom we address,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 30.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{o'paicpinn} \\ \text{o'paicpinn} \end{array} \right\} \text{o'paicpea, \&c.}$ Or, $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{cíoipinn} \\ \text{cípinn} \end{array} \right\} \text{cípitéá, \&c.}$

$\text{Ar at maíe do éaióbríuó ocur t'fáircpíu for nac ní at cípitéá}$, “for good is thy survey and examination of whatsoever thou shouldst see,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24 ; $\text{sa rðruðaðaðoir na neíte ðeipmíu do cípíóir, \&c.}$, “if they would examine the things we say, they would see,” &c., *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 260.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

$\text{o'paicpín, or o'paicpín.}$

Dr. Neilson writes the infinitive mood of this verb paiceal throughout his dialogues, which is the corrupt modern form used in Ulster, and the greater part of Connaught ; but in conjugating the verb he makes it paicpín . Throughout the south of Ireland paicpín , or paicpínz , is used, but pronounced paicpín , or paicpínz , by metathesis.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{cíozeap} \\ \text{paicéap} \\ \text{paicéap} \end{array} \right\} \text{mé, tú, é, \&c.}$

Simple Past.

connaicéad }
 conncad } mé, tú, é, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

éidí }
 o'fáicí } mé, tú, é, &c.

Concar is often used impersonally, as in the following sentence by O'Molloy, in the dedication of his *Lucerna Fidelium*: uime rin do conncar damra, &c., an uiorgan beag ro u'ainmniugad oibri, "wherefore it *seemed* [proper] to me, &c., to dedicate this little Fasciculus to you."

Future Tense.

ciófeap }
 faicfeap } mé, tú, é, &c.
 feicfeap }

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

faicfeap, or }
 feicfeap } mé, tú, é, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

go b-feicfeap mé, &c.

Past Tense.

go b-feacad mé, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

go b-feicí mé, &c.

Future Tense.

go b-feicfeap mé, &c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

o'faicíde, or o'feicíde mé.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beiré faicé, or feicé.

Passive Participle.

Faicé, or feicé.

IV.—Cluimim, I hear.

This verb is regular, except in its past tense indicative (and those formed from it), which is cúlair, I heard, and its infinitive mood, which is cloir, or cloirtim. It is, therefore, not necessary to give its moods and tenses here. In the south of Ireland, cloirim is used, instead of cluimim.

Cloir very frequently occurs as the past indicative passive of this verb, as co cloir ron a gcotha rechtair cathair immach, “so that the sound of his voice was heard outside the city,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107; co cloir a fuaim fo’n tír, “so that its noise was heard throughout the country,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 61; ir cloir oam is still used in the spoken language, in the sense of “I have been told,” and cian po cloir, “it was heard of old,” is a phrase of very common occurrence in old Irish poems, as in the following quatrain in O’Heerin’s topographical poem:

Cluibinn an éiríoc,—cian po cloir,—
 Tuat léige na leath rolor;
 O’ Ceallaig léige o’n traig éair,
 Céile an élaír eangair, iúbraig.

“Delightful the region,—of old it was heard,—
 The district of Lea, of bright plains;
 O’Kelly-Lea, of the eastern strand,
 Is the spouse of the plain of dells and yews.”

V.—Déanam, I do, or make.

This verb borrows the past tense indicative from po and gnim, and the consuetudinal past indicative from

ἕνιμ, both in the active and passive voices. In the subjunctive mood of both voices, the same tenses are from θεαρῆναιμ; and in the conditional mood active, one of the forms is regularly from θέαναιμ, another from θεαρῆναιμ, and a third from θιονῆναιμ.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. θέαναιμ.	1. θέαναμασιο, <i>or</i> θέανάμ.
2. θέαναιρ.	2. θέαντασι.
3. θέαναιὸ ρέ.	3. θέανάιο.

O'Molloy sometimes writes the first person plural θέινμιω, as ní θέινμιω σεε ὀιοῦ ; οἱρ νι ιαρημιω πρόαιρε να ἕραρα ορηα, "we do not make Gods of them, for we do not ask mercy or grace of them," *Lucerna Fidelium*," p. 197.

Consuetudinal Present.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. θεαναν μέ.	1. θεαναν ρινν.
2. θεαναν τῦ.	2. θεαναν ριῦ.
3. θεαναν ρέ, &c.	3. θεαναν ριαῦ.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ριῖνεαρ.	1. ριῖνεαμαρ.
2. ριῖνηρ.	2. ριῖνεαῖαρ.
3. ριῖνε ρέ.	3. ριῖνεαῖαρ.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἕνιῖνν.	1. ἕνιῖμιρ.
2. ἕνιῖτέα.	2. ἕνιῖτέιῖ.
3. ἕνιῖτεαὸ ρέ.	3. ἕνιῖτοίρ.

The past tense indicative of this verb is written in the best Irish manuscripts, *riġne*, or *riġni* (which are both considered the same form, as *e* and *i* short may be commuted *ad libitum*, particularly at the end of words), as *Rumuno, mac Colmain, .i. mac Cae-
gúine, riġ-ílió Eipenni* *ir e do riġne an buan ra*, “*Rumunn, son of Colman, i. e. the son of the king of Loegria, was he that composed this poem.*”—*MS. Bodleian Lib. Laud. 610, fol. 10, a, a.* It is also found in the oldest monumental inscriptions in Ireland, as in the very curious one over the doorway of the church of *Achadh-ur*, or *Freshford*, in the county of *Kilkenny* :

OROIT DO ĠILLE MOCHOLMOC U CENCUCAIN DO
RIĠNI.

“A PRAYER FOR GILLE MOCHOLMOC O’CENCUCAIN, WHO MADE [IT].”

Also in the inscription on the cross of *Cong*, now, through the liberality of *Professor Mac Cullagh*, in the *Museum of the Royal Irish Academy* :

OROIT DO MAELMU MAC BRATDANUECHAN DO
RIĠNI IN ĠRESSA.

“A PRAYER FOR MAELMU MAC BRATDANUECHAN, WHO MADE THIS ORNAMENT.”

Also on the ancient crozier of the bishops of *Lismore*, now in the possession of the *Duke of Devonshire*, of which the *Rev. Dr. Todd* has a beautiful drawing, by *George Du Noyer, Esq.*, one of the *Fellows of the College of St. Columba* :

OROIT DO NIAL MAC MEIC AEDUCAIN LAS A
HERNAD IN ĠRESSA.

OROIT DO NECTAN IN CERD DO RIĠNE IN ĠRESSA.

“A PRAYER FOR NIAL, SON OF MAC AEDUCAN, BY WHOM WAS MADE [*nepnad* for *n-deapnad*] THIS ORNAMENT.”

“A PRAYER FOR NECTAN THE ARTIST, WHO MADE THIS ORNAMENT.”

Also in the *Battle of Magh Rath* : *ó’r mé péin do riġne maó
oam*, “because it was I myself that made the place for myself,”
p. 66 ; *ir e in riġ do riġne ar corp*, “he is the king who made

our body," *St. Columbkille*. But in later manuscripts and inscriptions it is written *pine*, as in the inscription on the tomb of Melaghlin O'Kelly and his wife Finola O'Conor, in the Abbey of Knockmoy: *Óo Muleachlainn O'Keallaid oo pi O Maini ocup o'Inbualainn ingen I Chonchuir oo pine Maða O'Anli in leac-oiag pea*, "for Muleachlainn O'Kelly, king of Omaini, and for Finola, the daughter of O'Conor, Mathew O'Anli made this monument."

This tense is sometimes inflected thus: *ponar*, I made; *ponar*, thou madest; *pon ré*, he made; *ponramar*, we made; *ponrabair*, ye made; *ponrae*, or *ponratar*, they made; as in the following examples in the *Battle of Magh Rath*: *cio ae móra na h-uile oo ponar rrim*, "although great are the injuries thou hast done me," p. 32; *oo ponrum copu ann rin*, "we made a covenant then," p. 48; *oo ponrabair cooac*, "ye made a treaty," p. 34.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>óéanfao.</i>	1. <i>óéanfaois, or óéanfam.</i>
2. <i>óéanfair.</i>	2. <i>óéanfaid.</i>
3. <i>óéanfaid ré.</i>	3. <i>óéanfao.</i>

The future tense is often written *geunfaid ré*, even in printed books, as in O'Molloy's *Lucerna Fidelium*, and Mac Curtin's English Irish Dictionary. In John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*, it is also frequently written with a *g*, as *oo gén torac*, "I shall begin, or make a beginning;" and in other manuscripts, as *ár in uair gebur cae oune ceill for oilguo doneoc oo gena oe ulc ni bia comur for foğluib*, "for when each person is convinced of forgiveness in what he does of evil, there will be no power over plunderers," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18, p. 358.

From these examples it may be gathered that this verb *óéanam*, which is often written *oiognam*, or *oingnam*, is compounded of *oo*, a prepositive particle, and *gnim*, I do, or act. Its past tense, *riagnear*, I made, is evidently *po gníear*; and its future, *geunfao*, would appear to be a transposed form of *gnífeao*.

Hence, it is obvious that the ξ should be always preserved in the past tense, as in the examples above adduced from the ancient inscriptions, and that the ζ in the future is not so incorrect as at first sight it might appear to be, and as it is generally supposed by modern Irish scholars.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	1. θέαναιμ.
	θέαναιμασιρ.
	θέαναιμασιθ.
2. θέαν.	2. θέανάιθ.
3. θέαναιθό ρέ.	3. θέαναισιρ.

The second person singular is sometimes $\theta\epsilon\iota\mu$ and $\theta\epsilon\alpha$, as $\theta\epsilon\iota\mu$ $\theta\theta\ \theta\iota\epsilon\iota\theta\iota\theta\iota$, “do thy utmost,” *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 300; $\theta\epsilon\alpha$ $\theta\epsilon\iota\mu$ $\theta\alpha\theta\alpha\iota\mu\ \theta\iota\mu$, “do not mock me,” *Id.*, p. 182; $\theta\epsilon\alpha$ - $\theta\alpha$ $\alpha\iota\theta\ \theta\theta$, “compose thou a satire for him,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce $\theta\alpha\iota\theta\epsilon$. The first person plural is generally made to terminate in $\alpha\mu$, or $\alpha\mu$, in ancient writers, as $\theta\epsilon\iota\mu$ $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta\theta\theta\ \theta\theta\ \theta\theta\theta\theta\theta\theta$, $\theta\theta\theta\theta\ \theta\theta\theta\theta$ $\theta\theta\theta\theta\theta\theta\theta\theta$, “let us make the man after our own image and likeness,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 8, a, b.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναιμ.	1. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναιμασιθ.
2. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναιρ.	2. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναισιθ.
3. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναιθό ρέ.	3. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναισιθ.

Consuetudinal Present.

$\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θέαναιμ με, $\theta\theta$, $\theta\theta$, &c.

Simple Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θεάρηαιρ.	1. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θεάρηαιμαρ.
2. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θεάρηαιρ.	2. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θεάρηαιθαρ.
3. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θεάρηαιρ $\theta\theta$.	3. $\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ $\theta\theta$ -θεάρηαιθαρ.
	$\theta\theta\ \theta\theta$ -θεάρηηαιρ.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἦσθαι ἡσθαι.	1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
2. ἦσθαι ἡσθά.	2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.	1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.
3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.

That this and other irregular verbs have a subjunctive mood, is quite clear from the fact, that the indicative form could not be used after *να*, *κο*, *ἦσθαι*, &c., as *να* ἡσθασι, “that thou didst not,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 202; *κο* ἡσθασι *μεγαλα* *μορτα*, “so that they committed great depredations,” *Ann. Four Mast. ad ann.* 1233. The form *κο* ἡσθασι, that he made, is also to be met with.—See the MS. H. 2. 16, in Trin. Coll. Dubl., pp. 242, 243.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.	1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
2. ἦσθαι ἡσθά.	2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.
3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.
Or,	
1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.	1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
2. ἦσθαι ἡσθά.	2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.
Or,	
1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.	1. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	2. ἦσθαι ἡσθασι.
3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.	3. ἦσθαι ἡσθασί.

O'Molloy writes the second person singular ἦσθαι ἡσθά, as *να* ἡσθά *ἦσθαι*, “if thou wouldst do that.”—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 247.

This mood is often written *οιγνεο*, as well as *οερναο*, in ancient manuscripts. An example of both forms occurs in the following sentence, in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 74: *οια ν-οερνντά ρύν φορμ-ρα, α ριγαν, ολ ρέ, ρο ινοέραμο ρέελα οο ιμιο ουιτ. Ρο ζέλλ ρί οο ν-α λυζα οο ν-οιγνεαο*, “if thou wouldst keep my secret, O queen, I would tell thee news of thy son. She promised, on her oath, that she would [make] keep the secret.” Keating also uses *οά ν-οεαρναο* and *οά ν-οιοιγναο*, for the present *οά ν-οεαρναο*, as *αζυρ οά ν-οεάρναο, ζο ο-τειλζριοο αν μεαλλ αρ α έεανν λε ζλυαραάτ ρριοεβυαιτε α ιμόinne ρέιν*, “and should he do so, that the ball would be driven from his head by the repercussive motion of his brain,” *Hist. Irel.*, p. 75; *οια αν έριοο αρ α ν-οιοιγναοιρ βραε*, “what country they would explore,” *Id.*, p. 50; *μανι οερντζαιρ ρολόοα μαιηιρτερεχ Μαυριτζιρ βραϕλαοο οαμρα*, “if the farmers of the monastery of Mauriter had not caused an annoyance to me,” *Marianus Scotus*, A. D. 1070.

In this mood, also, this verb is found written with an initial *ζ*, as *αρβερταοαρ οο ζένοαιρ αιμιαλ α ουβαιρτ ριυμ*, “they said that they would do as he desired.”—*Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 50.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

οο θέανάμι.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

οέανταρ μέ, έύ, έ, &c.

Past Tense.

ριζνεαο μέ, έύ, έ, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

ζνιζί μέ, έύ, έ, &c.

Future Tense.

οέανραρ μέ, έύ, έ, &c.

The past tense of the indicative passive is written *riġneó*, *rónaó*, and *rona*, in the best Irish manuscripts, as in the following examples: *oia Ceoain do riġneó ġrian ocuġ eġcaí*, “on Wednesday the sun and moon were made,” *L. Breac*; *do riġneó mġar cġanao do’n mġeġ arġaio*, “a wooden dish was made of the silver dish,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 28; *do tócaíġim na fleoġi do rona* *ano la Doinnall*, “to partake of the feast which was there prepared [made] by Domhnall,” *Id.*, p. 24; *do rona a n-árġura ocuġ a rġġóúnte ann*, “their habitations and royal forts were erected there,” *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce Moġ Eime*; *do’n ionnarbaó do rónaó ar ġlioct ġaoiōil ar an Scġia*, “from the expulsion which was made on the race of Gaodhal out of Scythia,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 48; *ġ laġ do ronaó oġoíġeaz na ġeġġe aġuġ oġoíġeaz Móna daġm*, “by him was made the bridge of Feirse, and the bridge of Moin daimh,” *Duald Mac Firbis—Genealogies*, p. 508. O’Molloy writes the future *deunġar*, as *deunġar aonóġ caoġaġ aġuġ aon aóoáġe*, “there shall be made one fold and one shepherd.”—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 375.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

ġo n-oéantaġ mé, tŷ, é, &c.

Past Tense.

ġo n-oéannaó mé, tŷ, é, &c.

Future Tense.

ġo n-oéannaġ mé, tŷ, é, &c.

The subjunctive passive form of this verb is found written *n-deġnao* (for *ea* seldom occurs, and final *o* is seldom aspirated) in the oldest manuscripts and inscriptions, as in the very ancient inscription over the doorway of the church of Freshford, in the county of Kilkenny, already referred to:

OROIC DO NEIM INġIN CUIRC OCUS DO MATH-
ġAMAIN U CHIARMEIC ġAS I NDERNAD IN
TEMPUġSA.

“A PRAYER FOR NIAM, DAUGHTER OF CORC, AND FOR MATHGAMAIN U CHIARMEIC, BY WHOM THIS CHURCH WAS MADE.”

And in the inscription on the cross of Cong, made about the year 1123:

OROIT DO THERRDELBACH U CHONCHOBUIR DO
RIḡ EREND LAS A NDERRNAD IN ḡRESSA.

“A PRAYER FOR TERRDELBACH U CHONCHOBUIR, KING OF IRELAND, BY WHOM THIS ORNAMENT WAS MADE.”

See also the inscription on the crozier of Lismore, already quoted, p. 228. O'Molloy writes ḡo n̄euntaoi.—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 359.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

óeanfaíðe mé, tú, é, &c.

This mood is also written with an initial ḡ, as *do ḡellrae na ophuḡḡi oiri cibé uair do ḡéncaí toémarc a h-ingine, co fuideadó ri bar ann rin*, “the Druids predicted to her that whenever her daughter should be wooed, she should then die.”—*Book of Fermoy*, fol. 92.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

do beid óeanta.

Passive Participle.

óeanta.

VI.—*ḡnīm*, or *nīm*, I do, or make.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. ḡnīm.
2. ḡnír.
3. ḡníó ré.

PLURAL.

1. ḡnímío.
2. ḡníéíó.
3. ḡníó, or ḡníó.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. ḡníóear.
2. ḡníóir.
3. ḡníó ré.

PLURAL.

1. ḡníómar.
2. ḡníóbar.
3. ḡníóóbar, or ḡníret.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.

1. ḡníoim.
2. ḡníoéa.
3. ḡníoéaó fé.

PLURAL.

1. ḡníoimí.
2. ḡníoéí.
3. ḡníoóí.

O'Molloy writes *nímío*, &c., as *tan nímío íoóbaire*, "when we make an offering," *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 205; *mur do níoí* *na ḡeintilí anallóo*, "as the Gentiles of old used to do," *Id.*, p. 213. The verb occurs also without the *ḡ*, as *uair no fíair in coimioiu céc ní pecmaire a lepp uab cíó ríairiu do nemm a eáirḡuioe*, "for the Lord knows every thing we require from him before we do implore him," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*. But the *ḡ* is found in the best authorities, and should be considered as essentially belonging to this verb, as *neac fo ḡní ḡoí*, "one who *makes* (i. e. invents or tells) a lie," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 82; *fo ḡníoim comairlí fíu h-athao m-bic ann*, "we made [held] a consultation for a short time there," *Id.*, p. 35; *íu inano óán fo ḡnío*, "the poem they make [compose] is alike," *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce Cáinte*; *íu fopra na ḡ-ceatíar fo ḡníoéao fíu Epeno íoó in ḡroḡa*, "it is over the four of them the men of Ireland erected the mound of Brugh," *Book of Lecan*, fol. 279, *b, b*; *no bui oim Deceo aḡ cumḡio ouilḡine in ḡpéra no ḡnío*, "then Deced was demanding the reward of the work which he had executed," *Id.*, fol. 207, *b*; *ar íu a fío nemeóab fo ḡníoíu fíleóa a nḡperra*, "for it was in sacred groves poets used to compose their works," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 16, p. 120.

The *future tense* does not occur, except as formed from *óéanam*.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

ḡníohear, or *nícheap me*, *éu, é*, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

gníí, anciently gníchea, or níchea mé, éú, é, &c.

In the passive voice this verb is written sometimes with, and sometimes without, the *g*, as gníchea raímlaíó, "it is so done," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 82; oo níchea a íuaich oo íuaíó in gaí oíno í rígi na Tarraígeach, "his effigy is engraven in every fort in the kingdom of Tartary," *Book of Lismore*, p. 111; an ío gníchea la íaeguaíe íeíl a íene oo ííer gaía íuaíó, "for Laeghaire was used always to celebrate the festival of his birth every year," *Id.*, p. 5, col. 2; ío íeachaítea íoíra oóí ía ío níchea í Teaíar a ceoíl oíur a íuaíeína, ío ía íoíra íoíle ín zech ó'n íhíl ío íoíle, "their pipes and other instruments of music were wont to be played by them, as was accustomed to be done at Tara, until the whole house, from one angle to another, became one stream of music," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18, p. 266, *a, a*, line 32.

All the other moods and tenses of this verb are borrowed from *deanam*, or rather it wants them altogether; but there can be no doubt that this is the root of *deanam*, and the verb from which the noun *gníom*, an act, is derived. It is still in use in the spoken Irish in most parts of Ireland, but pronounced as if written *níom*.

VII.—*Deirim*, I say.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>deirim</i> .	1. <i>deirimís</i> .
2. <i>deirir</i> .	2. <i>deiríó</i> .
3. <i>deir íe</i> .	3. <i>deiríó</i> .

O'Molloy writes the first person plural of this *θειριμ*, and *θειριμις*, as *ζιδεαδ̄ θειριμις-νε ζο η-δεαδ̄α αν μειο ριν υιλε αρ ρεαδ̄ραν*, "but we say that all these went astray," *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 192; and the second person plural, *θειρεϊ*, without the final *ο*, as *θειρεϊ mac Θε βειε α ζ-κομη̄ρ̄ουβρωαντ λειρ αν ατ̄αιρ*, "ye say that the Son of God is consubstantial with the Father," *Id.*, p. 310.

Consuetudinal Present.

θειρεανν με, τυ, ρε, &c.

Relative Form.

α θειρ, who says.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ουβραρ.	1. ουβραμαρ.
2. ουβραιρ.	2. ουβραδ̄αρ.
3. ουβαιρτ ρε.	3. ουβραοαρ.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. θειρινη.	1. θειριμη̄ρ̄.
2. θειρεεα.	2. θειρεϊο.
3. θειρεαδ̄ ρε.	3. θειριοιρ̄.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. οεαρραο.	1. οεαρραμασιο.
2. οεαρραιρ.	2. οεαρραιο.
3. οεαρραιο ρε.	3. οεαρραιο.

This verb is not aspirated in the past tense, except after *νί*, *not* [active], and does not take the particles *οο* or *πο* before it; we may fairly conjecture that it is compounded of the particle *αο*, and the old verb *θειριμ*, I say. The past tense is variously written in ancient manuscripts, *αρ βερτ*, *ατ βερτ*, *ατ ρυβαιρτ*, he said.—*Example*: *αρ βερτ Πατραις να βιαδ̄ ρι να ερρ̄κορ ο ζον̄αν*,

“Patrick said that neither king nor bishop should descend from Lonan,” *Vit. Patricii*, in the *Book of Lismore*; ατ πυρρασαρ, and αρ βερτασαρ, they said, forms obviously derived from the old verb βειριμ, I say, not θειριμ. The past tense is also sometimes formed from the verb ράιθιμ, I say, which is still in use, as αρ ε πο ραιθ, “it is what he said;” πο ράιθρετ, they said;” ραιθριομαρ, “we said,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 46. The following passage in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 50, affords an example of three different forms of the past tense of βειριμ, or θειριμ: σο λυθ Congal ζυρ ιν μαγιη ι m-βάσαρ clann ιν ριζ, οσυρ πο εαν ριυ ρεβ ατ πυ-αιρτ Dubhoiaθ ριρ. Θα μαιε λεορυμ ριμ, οσυρ αρ βερτασαρ σο ζενοαιρ αναιλ α ουβαιρ ριυμ, “Congal went to where the sons of the king were, and told them what Dubhdiadh had said. They liked this, and said that they would do as he said” [desired].

It should be here remarked, that a very strange peculiarity, in forming the first and third persons singular of the past tense of this verb, occurs in ancient writers; thus, if from ουβαιρ the ι be rejected, the first person singular is implied, as αν ρεαρζυρ πο α ουβαιρ, “this Fergus I mentioned,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 3; αν ρεαρζυρ πο α ουβαιρτ would mean, this Fergus *he* mentioned.—See observations on ταναζ and τάνιζ.

The future indicative active of this verb is very frequently written οεραμ, οευραμ, or οεαραμασιο, without the ρ, the first syllable being very long, as αναιλ α οευραμ ο’α ειρ πο, “as we shall say hereafter,” *Keat.*, p. 34; μυρ οευραμασιο να οιαθ-ρι, “as we shall say hereafter,” *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 245. But this form, though it is sufficiently distinct from the present and past tenses, is not to be recommended.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

1.

2. αβαιρ.

3. αβραθ ρε.

PLURAL.

1. αβραμασιο.

αβραμασιρ.

αβραμ.

2. αββραθ.

3. αββραθιρ.

The second person singular is often written *apair* in old manuscripts, as *apair, a popa Laig, in fezar-ru ca cnuich i fuilem?* ‘say, O my charioteer Laigh, dost thou know in what country we are?’—*Book of Leinster*, fol. 105, a, b.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. go n-abraim.	1. go n-abramasio.
	go n-abram.
2. go n-abrair.	2. go n-abraio.
3. go n-abaió ré.	3. go n-abraio.

All the other tenses of this mood are like those of the indicative, except the future, which is sometimes *go n-eibér*, or *epér*, as *apair, ol Mainchin; ni epér, ar Mac Conglinoi*, ‘say it, said Mainchin; I will not say it, said Mac Conglinni.’—*Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. oéarfaim.	1. oéarfamasoir.
2. oéarfá.	2. oéarfáio.
3. oéarfáó ré.	3. oéarfáioir.

Or, *oéairim*, &c., without the *r*.

O’Molloy writes the second person singular *deurréa*, as, *Cneuo for a deurréa sa g-claioíonn tu io ráioitió fein?* ‘Moreover, what wouldst thou say, if I should defeat thee with thine own words.’—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 297.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo ráó.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

deirtear mé, tú, é, &c.

Perfect Past.

deirteó mé, tú, é, &c.

Consuetudinal Past.

beirí mé, tú, é, &c.; or beirí mé, tú, é, &c.

Future Tense.

óarrar mé, tú, é, &c.

The present tense is sometimes written *beap* (see *Keat. Hist.*, p. 47), and sometimes *berap* (see *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. M. 3501); and the past, *at rubrað*, *ar rubrað*, *erbrað*, and *ebrað* (see *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Copmac et Taileng*, and *Annals of the Four Masters*, at the year 465. The consuetudinal past is often *beirí*, *Id.*, A. M. 4388. The future is sometimes *óérap*, without the *r*, but this is not to be recommended.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

abarár mé, tú, é, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

go n-abarár mé, tú, é, &c.

This mood is very often written *apap* in ancient manuscripts, as *Arp na righraidhi rpir a n-apap Cnoc Samhna iuis*, “Ard na righraidhi, which is at this day called Cnoc Samhna,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 70, *b*; *ro gabrat nar Finnsruth rpir a n-apap abano h-Ua Caébaé immacaire móp na Mumán*, “they proceeded across Finnsruth, which is called the Abhann O’g-Cathbath, in the great plain of Munster,” *Id.*, fol. 105.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

óarrfaíde mé, tú, é, &c.

Keating uses *óá n-aibeoréaoi*, and *go n-aibeoréaoi*, for this mood, borrowing it from *abraim*, not from *deirim*.—See *History of Ireland*, O’Mulconry’s copy, p. 42.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo beíe ráite, or ráióte.

Passive Participle.

ráite, or ráióte.

VIII.—*Ῥαῖαίμ*, or *ῖεῖβίμ*, I find.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>Ῥαῖαίμ.</i>	1. <i>Ῥαῖαίμοιο.</i>
2. <i>Ῥαῖαίῃ.</i>	2. <i>Ῥαῖαίεῖο.</i>
3. <i>Ῥαῖαίό Ῥέ.</i>	3. <i>Ῥαῖαίω.</i>

Or,

1. <i>ῖεῖβίμ.</i>	1. <i>ῖεῖβίμιο.</i>
2. <i>ῖεῖβίῃ.</i>	2. <i>ῖεῖβίεῖο.</i>
3. <i>ῖεῖβί Ῥέ.</i>	3. <i>ῖεῖβίω.</i>

O'Molloy writes *ῖεῖβίμιο* for "we find," and *ῖεῖβίεῖ* for "ye find," as *οο ῖεῖβίμιο ῖαν μ-βίοβλα*, "we find in the Bible," *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 371; *ναάαρ έίοιῃ leam-po an ní céárona οο Ῥάό λιβ-ῤί, α οειῤ ῖυῤ ab ón eaḡluῤ οο ῖεῖβίεῖ ῤιοῤ ceυο αρ ῤḡῤιοῤceυῤ ann; aḡuῤ ῖνα όιαό ῤῃ ῖυῤ ab on ῤḡῤιοῤceυῤ οο ῖεῖβίεῖ ῤιοῤ ceυο αρ eaḡluῤ ann*, "can I not say the same thing to you, who say that it is from the Church *ye find* a knowledge of what the Scripture is, and afterwards that it is from the Scripture *ye find* a knowledge of what the Church is?" *Id.*, pp. 294, 295. In ancient manuscripts, a b is often introduced after the ḡ in *Ῥαῖαίμ*, as *ní con Ῥαῖβαε̄ ceυαῖḡ cia aῤῃμ ι η-οοιέι*, "and the boatmen do not find where she hatches," MS. Trin. Coll. *Dubl. H. 2. 16. p. 242*; *ῃ ceυαρ ῃναο ῤῃ μοο ι Ῥαῖβαε̄ ῤίό achuῃḡo*, "the third place where poets obtain the greatest request," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 68.

Perfect Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>ῤαῤαρ.</i>	1. <i>ῤαῤαῤαρ.</i>
2. <i>ῤαῤαῤῃ.</i>	2. <i>ῤαῤαῤαῤαρ.</i>
3. <i>ῤαῤαρ Ῥέ.</i>	3. <i>ῤαῤαῤαῤαρ.</i>

The third person singular has always *ι* before the final *ρ*, though in the synthetic forms of the other persons this *ι* is rejected. *Example*,—*Ῥαῖαιμ-Ῥιμ* *αιρεκαλ* *δειρριε* *ο'Αοο* *Ο'Οοιναλλ*, “he got a private apartment for Hugh O'Donnell,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1592; *αιαλ* *Ῥαῖαταρ* *καε*, “as all have got,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 32.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>ῖειβιην.</i>	1. <i>ῖειβιμίρ, or</i> <i>ῖειβεαμοιρ.</i>
2. <i>ῖειβεεά.</i>	2. <i>ῖειβεσίο.</i>
3. <i>ῖειβεαο ῖε.</i>	3. <i>ῖειβιοίρ.</i>

This tense is still in constant use, and is of very frequent occurrence in the poems of the bards of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. *Example*,—*οά* *ῖειο* *οο* *ῖειβιην* *ο'ά* *ῖρῖο*, “though much of his affection I used to get.”—*O' Daly Cairbreach*.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>ῖεαβῖο, or</i> <i>ῖεοβῖο.</i>	1. <i>ῖεαβῖαμοιο.</i>
2. <i>ῖεαβῖαιρ.</i>	2. <i>ῖεαβῖεσίο.</i>
3. <i>ῖεαβῖαο ῖε.</i>	3. <i>ῖεαβῖο.</i>

O'Molloy writes the first syllable of this tense *ῖευβ*, which shews that he pronounced it long, as *οο* *ῖευβαιρ* *ῖυρ* *αβ* *ί* *ρῖο* *λομ* *να* *ῖρῖιηνε*, “thou wilt find that this is the naked truth,” *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 204. But in ancient manuscripts it is written *ῖεβ*, as *ρῖο* *ῖεβῖα* *ανη* *η-ῖεε* *οο* *ῖιαν* *οο* *καε* *βιυο*, “thou wilt get there the satisfaction of thy desire of every food,” *Mac Conglinn's Dream*, in the *Leabhar Breac*. In the spoken language, however, it is *ῖεοβῖο*, in most parts of Ireland.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. . . .	1. <i>ῖαῖμοιρ, or</i> <i>ῖαῖμοιο.</i>
2. <i>ῖαῖ.</i>	2. <i>ῖαῖσίο.</i>
3. <i>ῖαῖαο ῖε.</i>	3. <i>ῖαῖοίρ.</i>

Haliday has ἔραξ, “find thou,” *Gælic Grammar*, p. 98; but no authority has been found for the ι before ξ. O’Molloy writes ἔραξ, as ἔραξ σοῖμ an ε-αιρεσῆσ, “find for me the article.”—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 301.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

This mood is like the indicative in all its tenses, except the future, in which it is ἔρα β-ἔραξεσ, &c.; and some writers make it ἔρα β-ἔραξιμ, in the present tense.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἔραβαιμ, or ἔραβαιμ.	1. ἔραβασοῖρ.
2. ἔραβέσ.	2. ἔραβέσσι.
3. ἔραβέσ ῥέ.	3. ἔραβασοῖρ.

Also,

1. ἔρα β-ἔραξαιμ, or ἔρα β-ἔραξιμ.	1. ἔρα β-ἔραξασοῖρ.
2. ἔρα β-ἔραξέσ.	2. ἔρα β-ἔραξέσσι.
3. ἔρα β-ἔραξέσ ῥέ.	3. ἔρα β-ἔραξασοῖρ.

Ἔ is used in the second person singular, not ε, as ἔρα βέσ, “thou wouldst get.”—MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 1. 14. fol. 116.

O’Molloy writes the first person plural with the termination μῖρ in one place, and with σοῖρ in another, as ἔρα β-ἔραξμῖρ ἔρα ῥάτε σο ἔραβέσσι ῥεσῆσ, “from whom we would get enough of trite expressions,” *Lucerna Fidelium—Preface*; ἔρα β-ἔραξεσσοῖρ ἔρα ῥάτε, “that we might get grace,” *Id.*, p. 206. He writes the third person plural ἔρα β-ἔραξεσσοῖρ, as ἔρα β-ἔραξεσσοῖρ ἔρα ἔρα, “that they might get honour,” *Id.*, p. 212. Here it is to be particularly noted by the student, that the form β-ἔραξιμ, or β-ἔραξαιμ, is used after ἔρα, *if*, and μὴ, *unless*, ἔρα, not, ἔρα, that not, ἔρα, that; and that the form ἔραβαιμ, or ἔραβέσ, is to be used when we would express *I would find*, and that it may take the particle σο before it.

In old manuscripts the second form is sometimes written *vá* *ruġbítea*, and in the spoken language, in the south of Ireland, it is pronounced *vá* *b-ruġítea*.

Passive Participle wanting, but *ar ruġail* and *le ruġail* are used in its place.—See *Idiomatic use of Prepositions*, Chap. VII. Sect. 3.

IX.—Riġim, I reach.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. riġim.	1. riġmío.
2. riġir.	2. riġéi.
3. riġ ré.	3. riġio.

Perfect Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ránzar.	1. ránzamar.
2. ránzair.	2. ránzabair.
3. ránaiz, <i>or</i> rániiz ré.	3. ránzaoar.

Or,

1. ruázar.	1. ruázamar.
2. ruázair.	2. ruázabair.
3. ruázt ré.	3. ruázaoar, <i>or</i> ruáztaoar.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. riġimn.	1. riġmír, <i>or</i> riġmaoir.
2. riġtéá.	2. riġtío.
3. riġeasó ré.	3. riġóir.

Example.—Ráimic rábaó azur reimíoir na comairle rin zo h-Ua Néill, “a notice and forewarning of this resolution *reached* O’Neill,” *Annals of the Four Masters*, A. D. 1522 ; *téit* a *Team-paiz* *zác* *n-óiriué* *co* *rámic* *óinn* *eoar*, “he went directly from

Tara till he reached Binn Edair," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 189; ἕο πάντας ἐν τρεῖσιν ὄρεσιν, "till they reached the third hill," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 155; ο ὅσοι ἦσαν ἵπποι, "as the hosts arrived," *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 240, a, b.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ριγῆσθε.	1. ριγῆσθε.
2. ριγῆσθε.	2. ριγῆσθε.
3. ριγῆσθε ῥέ.	3. ριγῆσθε.
Or,	
1. ριαῖσθε.	1. ριαῖσθεσθε.
2. ριαῖσθε.	2. ριαῖσθε.
3. ριαῖσθε ῥέ.	3. ριαῖσθε.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	1. ριγῆσθε.
2. ριγῆ.	2. ριγῆσθε.
3. ριγῆσθε ῥέ.	3. ριγῆσθε.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ριγῆσθε.	1. ριγῆσθεσθε, or ρῆσθεσθε.
2. ριγῆσθε.	2. ριγῆσθε.
3. ριγῆσθε ῥέ.	3. ριγῆσθεσθε.
Or,	
1. ριαῖσθε.	1. ριαῖσθεσθε.
2. ριαῖσθε.	2. ριαῖσθε.
3. ριαῖσθε ῥέ.	3. ριαῖσθεσθε.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

ὄρεσθαι, or ὄρεσθαι.

X.—Τέιϑιμ, I go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. τέιϑιμ.	1. τέιϑιμίϑ, or τέιϑίϑ.
2. τέιϑιρ.	2. τέιϑίϑίϑ, or τέιϑίϑίϑ.
3. τέιϑο ρέ.	3. τέιϑίϑο, or τέιϑο.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. [†] έιαϑαρ.	1. έιαϑομαρ.
2. έιαϑαιρ.	2. έιαϑόβαρ.
3. έιαϑο ρέ.	3. έιαϑοβαρ.

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Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. τέιϑιμη.	1. τέιϑιμίρ.
2. τέιϑίτεά.	2. τέιϑίτί.
3. τέιϑεαϑο ρέ.	3. τέιϑοίρ.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ράϕρω.	1. ράϕραμοίϑο.
2. ράϕραιρ.	2. ράϕραίϑο.
3. ράϕραιϑο ρέ.	3. ράϕραιϑο.

Or, ράϕρω, ράϕραιρ, &c., omitting ρ.

The third person singular of the present tense of this mood is often written τέιϑ, and ταιϑ, in ancient manuscripts, as in the following examples:—τειϑ ιη βαν-ϑορη ιρ ιη φαρηρη ριαρ οο ουχαιϑ, “the she-crane goes westward on the sea to hatch,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 16. p. 242; τέιϑ Κορμαϑ οο'η βροικεναιϑ, “Cormac goes to the badger warren,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ḫailenz*; οο ταιϑ αρ α βεolu, “which goes out of his mouth,” *Id.*, voce *Ḫeilchi*; οο ταιϑ οο βιοϑ αρ ιη ιμοαιϑ, “he went in a fright from his bed,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 8. The form οο θεαϑαρ

is also often used in the past tense of this mood. The third person singular of the past tense is often written $\sigma\iota\delta$, and the third person plural $\sigma\omicron\sigma\alpha\tau$, or $\acute{\sigma}\omicron\tau\alpha\tau$, as $\acute{\sigma}\omicron\tau\alpha\tau$ $\alpha\tau$ η - $\alpha\tau\alpha$ α β - $\tau\upsilon\alpha$, “our shoes went into the water,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* $\tau\upsilon\alpha$.

In old Irish manuscripts the future indicative of this verb is most generally, if not always, written with a ξ , and without the τ , which, when aspirated according to the modern orthography, would agree with the present pronunciation of this tense throughout the south of Ireland, as $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\sigma$, I will go; $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\tau$, thou wilt go; $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he will go; $\rho\alpha\xi\mu\alpha\sigma\iota\sigma$, we will go; $\rho\alpha\xi\tau\alpha\iota\delta$, ye will go; $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\iota\sigma$, they will go. The conditional mood of this verb is also found written with a ξ in the best manuscripts, and formed from the future indicative in the usual manner. The following examples of these forms occur in the *Battle of Magh Rath*: $\omicron\upsilon\tau\alpha\acute{\alpha}\tau$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\epsilon}\tau$ $\mu\alpha\sigma\upsilon$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau\iota$ $\omicron\upsilon\mu$ - $\tau\alpha$, $\omicron\upsilon\tau\alpha$ $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\iota\tau$ $\lambda\alpha\tau$ $\eta\tau$ η μ $\sigma\alpha\acute{\epsilon}$, $\omicron\upsilon\tau\alpha$ $\omicron\iota\alpha$ $\sigma\alpha\epsilon\mu\tau\alpha\iota\mu\omicron$ - $\tau\iota$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\eta\eta$ $\omicron\upsilon\lambda\alpha$ $\alpha\eta\eta$, $\eta\omicron$ $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\iota\mu\omicron$, $\omicron\upsilon\tau\alpha$ $\eta\iota$ $\mu\iota\omicron\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\delta$ $\rho\omicron\tau$ Ulltaib $\sigma\acute{\epsilon}\eta\eta$ $\eta\omicron$ $\beta\epsilon\eta\mu\omicron$ - $\tau\iota$ $\eta\mu$ $\beta\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha\iota\delta$, “I have seven good sons, and *they shall go* with thee into the battle, and if I were able myself, *I would go* also, and the Ultonians should not be defeated while I had life,” p. 43; $\rho\alpha\xi\theta\alpha\iota\tau$ $\lambda\alpha\tau$ - $\tau\upsilon$ $\omicron\sigma$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\mu$ η - $\Theta\epsilon\eta\eta\omicron$ $\omicron\sigma$ $\tau\alpha\beta\alpha\iota\tau$ $\sigma\alpha\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$ $\omicron\sigma$ Domnall , “they shall go with thee to Erin to give battle to Domnall,” p. 48. Also in *Cormac’s Glossary*: $\eta\iota$ $\rho\alpha\xi\alpha\iota\delta$ $\omicron\sigma$ $\acute{\sigma}\omicron\tau$ α μ - $\beta\upsilon\alpha$, “thy foot shall not enter the water.”

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	1. $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta\iota\mu\iota\tau$, or $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\mu\iota\tau$.
2. $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta$.	2. $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta\iota\delta$.
3. $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$.	3. $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta\omicron\sigma\iota\tau$.

Haliday, the Rev. Paul O’Brien, and others, make $\eta\mu\acute{\epsilon}\tau\iota\xi$ a form of the imperative mood of this verb; but this cannot be considered correct, as $\eta\mu\acute{\epsilon}\tau\iota\xi\mu$, which is a regular verb, signifies *I depart*, not *I go*. In some parts of Munster, the imperative of $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\iota\delta\iota\mu$, I go, is frequently made $\epsilon\eta\tau\iota\xi$ (and sometimes, corruptly, $\tau\epsilon\eta\tau\iota\xi$); but this must also be deemed an anomaly, as it is properly the imperative of $\epsilon\eta\tau\iota\xi\mu$, I arise. This form is used by Keating, as

σο δευρομ λοιγιουρ Φαροα αρ σο εμυρ, αδυρ ειριξ ιονηα αρ μυρ, “we will give Pharoah’s ships in thy power, and go to sea in them,” *History of Ireland*, p. 46; ειριξιο α n-Υλταβ, “go ye into Ulster,” *Id.*, p. 100. It is also used in a very ancient life of St. Moling, as ειριξ, ορ ορηουμν, οδυρ βαρτ ινο νοιθεν, οδυρ ταβαρ αμμ ιποραιε φαρ, “go, said Brendan, and baptize the infant, and give him a distinguished name;” ειριξ σο’η τιρραιε ο’ινημασ σο λαμ, “go to the well to wash thy hands,” *Mac Conglinn’s Dream*, in the *Leabhar Breac*. It is also used in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24.—(See list of obsolete verbs, *voce* Οέεραν). Ειριξ, ολ ρε, cumm ιν οιρηρα, “go, said he, to the hermitage,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 100, *b, a*; ειριξιο σο θεηιλ Ιυδα, “go to Bethlem of Juda,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 65; ειριξ, ολ ιν τιμεριξ, οδυρ τομιλ σο ρροινσ, “go, said the servant, and take thy dinner,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107; ειριξ α n-αγαισ Ρυμουμν, “go against Rumunn,” *MS. Bodl. Lib. Laud.* 610, fol. 10, *a, a*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

All the tenses of this mood are like those of the indicative, except the simple past, which runs thus :

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. γο n-οεαααρ.	1. γο n-οεαααμαρ.
2. γο n-οεααααρ.	2. γο n-οεααααβαρ.
3. γο n-οεαααο ρε.	3. γο n-οεαααοβαρ.

This form is, however, used as the past indicative in ancient writings, as in the following example : σο οεααυρα οιν ανη, α ριξ, αρ μο ουεαιξ σο εαβαρτε οαμ γο η-ιηηλάν, for σο εααααρ-ρα οιν ανη, α ριξ, αρ ροη μο ουεαισ σο εαβαρτε οαη γο η-ιοηλάν, “I went thither, O king, for a promise that my inheritance should be wholly restored to me,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 36.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ρααφαμν.	1. ρααφαμαοιρ.
2. ρααφα.	2. ρααφαισ.
3. ρααφασ ρε.	3. ρααφαιοιρ.

O'Molloy writes *ναὸ παρὰ*, "that it would not go," in *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 357; but this termination *αὸ*, though pronounced in Munster and parts of South Connaught, is not found in correct manuscripts.

The form *παζαῖνν*, or *παζαῖνο*, is more frequently found in ancient writings than *παρὰῖνν*, or *παρὰῖνν*, of which the learner will find an example already quoted from the *Battle of Magh Rath*, under the future indicative; and several others will be found in the same work, at pages 36, 42, 44, 48, 50, 58, 68.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

οο οὐλ.

XI.—*Τῖγιμ*, I come.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. <i>τιγιμ.</i>	1. <i>τιγιμίο, or</i> <i>τιγεαμ.</i>
2. <i>τιγιρ.</i>	2. <i>τιγέιό.</i>
3. <i>τιγρέ.</i>	3. <i>τιγιό.</i>

The present indicative of this verb is often written *τιαζαῖμ*, and *τεααῖμ*, as *οστ εὐαλατταρ clann Muircheartaig Uí Chonábaῖρ ρῖν, τιαζοῖο φοιρλίον ροῖμῖ ἀρ ὀθεαλάε ἀν ἐρίοναῖγ*, "when the Clann Muircheartaigh O'Conor heard this, they came in full numbers before him on [the pass of] Bealach an chrionaigh," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1391; *τεαατ υῖ, κυρ ἢ κορεῖ*, "they all came to the rock," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107; *τεααῖτ ἀρ ρῖν ἀ μῖναῖε οοϋρ ἀ θεῖρϋβαῖλ, ἀ ceallaῖβ ὀεαρμύμῖαν, οο τῶρρῖμῖε οοϋρ σ' ονόῖρ κυρρ ἀ μαῖγιρτερεχ*, "Then his monks and disciples came, from the churches of Desmond, to wake and honour the body of their master," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 60; *οο εῖαζατ ἰαρῖμ co h-αῖρῖμ ἀ ροῖβε Ζύζαῖό*, "he afterwards came to the place where Lughaidh was," *Id.*, fol. 29.

Simple Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἐάνγαρ.	1. ἐάνγαμαρ.
2. ἐάνγαιρ.	2. ἐάνγαβαρ.
3. ἐάναιε ρέ, or ἐάνιε ρέ.	3. ἐάνγαοαρ.

Consuetudinal Past.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ἐίσιμν.	1. ἐίσιμίρ.
2. ἐίστεά.	2. ἐίστείο.
3. ἐίσεαό ρέ.	3. ἐίσειρίρ.

Some write the past tense of this verb without aspirating the initial; but it is regularly aspirated in the modern language, and by O'Molloy, as *ní ar aon cóir ἐάνιε Ρατριε ζο h-Θιρμν*, "it was not on one leg St. Patrick came to Ireland," *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 330.

It should be here remarked, that the first person of the simple past tense of the indicative mood of this verb has a peculiarity of form, which has not been noticed by any of the Irish grammarians, though of very frequent occurrence in the best manuscripts. Thus, if the ι be rejected from τάναιε, or τάναιε, the first person singular is implied, as *ταναε ρορ α αμυρ*, "I came to him," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 80; *ταναε-ρα*, "I have reached, or come to," *Id.*, p. 190; *ιρην βλιαοαιμ ιρηομαρβατ Διαρμαε ρι Ζαγεν*, *οκυρ ιρ ιρηε céτνα βλιαοαιμ τάναε-ρα α Αλβαι*, "in the year in which Diarmait, king of Leinster, was killed, and this is the first year in which I came from Alba," *Marianus Scotus*. But when the final ε is made slender, the third person singular is implied; but no trace of this peculiarity is observable in the modern language. The third person singular is often written *παναιε*, as *Ο ρο ζαεé τρη ηεετορη νορ ράναιε α βρυεé οκυρ α βρυεé*, "when Hector was wounded his fury and vigour came to him," *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 240, *b, b*. The first person plural of this tense is variously written in old manuscripts, *τάνγαμαρ*, *τάνκαμαρ*, *τάναγμαρ*, *τάναερμ*; the second person, *τάνγαβαρ*, *τάνγαβαιρ*; and the third, *τάνγαοαρ*, *τάνκαταρ*,

τάνακαυρ, τάναγρασ, τάνακρατ. Examples of these forms are of frequent occurrence in the most ancient manuscripts, but it is needless to multiply examples here. The following from the *Battle of Magh Rath* will be sufficient: εά τίρ αρ α τάνκαβαρ? “what country have ye come from?” τάνκαμαρ α η-Θρινν άιν, “we have come from noble Erin,” p. 46; ερετ φα τανκαταρ ό τιγ? “why have they come from their house?” *Id.*, p. 128; αρ α σοι ní ταν-γασαρομí μεαλίμα φο α εόγαρημ,” “however, they did not come entire at his summons,” *Ann. Four Mast.* 1567.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. τιοκρασ.	1. τιοκραμασοιο, or τιοκραμ.
2. τιοκραρ.	2. τιοκραίο.
3. τιοκραό ρέ.	3. τιοκραιο.

The third person singular often terminates in φα, as τιοκρα Αιέρινε οκυρ μυρρηό in mac,” Aithirne will come and kill the boy,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Θριε. The second person plural of this tense is sometimes written τιοκραίε, as οια η-δεεαρ λαρ τιοκραίε-ρι α τριυρ λιμ-ρα, “If I go with him ye three shall come with me,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 50; αν ήαιε ιρ φερη τάνηο οκυρ τιοκραρ, “the best good that came or will come,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 65; τιοκραο ταλγινη ταρ μυρ μερηγινη, “tensured people shall come across the stormy sea,” *MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 17.* p. 1; ηι τιοκρα έηρηρ α ραμλα, οκυρ ní εαιηο, “no man like him will come, nor has come,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 53.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	1. τιγεαμασοιρ, or τιγεαμ.
2. ταρ, or τιγ.	2. τιγίο, or τιοίο.
3. τιγεαό ρέ.	3. τιγιόιρ.

Keating uses ταιρ for the second person singular of this mood, as ταιρ εὔγαμ-ρο, αἰγυρ ταβαρ λάμ um λάμ, “come to me, and place thy hand in my hand,” *History of Ireland*, p. 125. In most parts of Munster this mood is inflected ταῖ, or ταιρ, come thou; ταγαὸ ρέ, let him come; ταγαμασιρ, or ταγαμασιο, let us come; ταγαγιὸ, come ye; ταγασιρ, let them come. But in the oldest and best manuscripts in the language we find τισιὸ, or τισιὸ, as in the following quatrain from *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, relating to the eruption of Lough Neagh:

Τισιὸ, τισιὸ, ἔβιὸ ραεβρα,
 Σηαισιὸ εαῖρα;
 Τισρα ζινomuν θαρ ζιαῖμου
 Collet̄ lia.

—Fol. 36, a, a.

“Come ye, come ye, take ye weapons,
 Cut [build] ye vessells:
 Linnmuin will come over Liathmuin
 With a grey flood.”

A quatrain similar to this is still repeated in the south of the county of Derry, by those who speak the Irish language, and who have preserved the traditional account of the eruption of Lough Neagh. It runs thus:

Τισιὸ εὔμ na coille,
 Αἰρ βαμσιγὸ curreach;
 Οἰρ τισραιὸ an tonn ruad̄
 Ταρ βαλε μιῖ n-θαῖach.

“Come ye to the wood,
 And cut ye a currach;
 For the red flood will come over
 King Eochaidh’s town.”

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. εἰορραιμ.	1. εἰορραμασιρ.
2. εἰορρά.	2. εἰορραιὸ.
3. εἰορραιὸ ρέ.	3. εἰορραισιρ.

Τίρεαὸ is frequently found in old manuscripts for the third person singular form of this mood, as *τετε τεέτα υαιτί-ρε* *co Coirppi, co τίρεαὸ* *vo μαρβαὸ in ορυαὸ*, “a messenger went from her to Coirppe that he might come to kill the Druid,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Opc*; *no φορέωνγαρ φορρα* *co ο-τίορταίρ ι n-a* *όocum n-ιοναο* *ερόατα*, “he ordered that they should come to meet him at an appointed place,” *Ann. Four Mast., A. D. 1595*; *noγ γαῖ* *ιαρ pη* *επιέ-γαλαρ φορέιγνεῖ* *h-e* *ó h-ino* *a* *μυλλαίγ* *co mo* *a* *μεορ*, *αμῆιλ* *τεμῖὸ* *ζεαλάν* *no* *τίραὸ* *επίτε*, “then was he seized with a violent trembling disease from the top of his head to the tops of his fingers, as if lightning had passed through him,” *Book of Fermoy, fol. 68.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

vo *τέαῖτ.*

Various forms of the infinitive mood of this verb are found in the Irish annals and ancient manuscripts, as *τοῖτε*, *τοιγέαῖτ*, *τιγέαῖτ*, *τιαῖταιν*. *Example.*—*Υαιρ no* *τιρέανραταρ* *a* *οραῖδε* *vo* *Loeguirre* *τιεεχτ* *Phatpαιc* *vo* *éum* *n-ερεno*, “for his Druids had predicted to Loeguire the coming of Patrick to Ireland,” *Leabhar Breac, fol. 13, b.* But in modern manuscripts and printed books *τεαῖτ* is the most usual form, and is also that used in the spoken language in every part of Ireland.

SECTION 8.—Of impersonal, defective, and obsolete Verbs.

The verb *τάιμ*, I am, and several intransitive verbs, though they have no regular passive voice, are sometimes used impersonally, like the Latin verbs *itur*, *concurritur*, &c.

Examples.—*Cinour* *pίλτερ* *λατ* *inoiu*? “how is it with thee to-day?” *Leabhar Breac, fol. 107*; *ταῖταρ* *γο* *μαῖε* *λείρ*, “he is treated well;” *oca* *τάῖταρ* *οἱαρηαιὸ* *ρεῖνόν* *ερεno* *ocur* *Alpan*, “whom they are seeking throughout Ireland and Scotland,” *Cor.*

Gloss., voce Ὀρull; maith, ar Mac Conglinn, cinour azathar annrín moiu, "well, said Mac Conglinne, how is it with thee there to-day," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 108; bítheop oc a fáipe, "people watch him," *Id., voce*, Imbar for Ornae; no bar ono ic embeipt éigne for luét na epíce, "oppression was exercised against the people of the country," *Vit. Moling*; iméigítear leo, "itur ab illis;" cóp o Zaígnib, "there went [messengers] from the Lagenians," *Ann. Four Masters, ad ann. 954*; tiazaip ar a ceann uanoe, "let us go for them."

Many verbs which admit of the passive voice are also often used impersonally, as no clop, or ip clop, it was heard; cítear, it appears; at concap oam, or at cep oam, it appeared to me.—See *Annals of the Four Masters*, A. D. 553.

The following defective and obsolete verbs, being of frequent occurrence, and not always correctly explained in the printed Irish dictionaries, are here inserted, to assist the learner in reading Irish :

Αο ρεο, he relates.—*Keat., passim.*

Ατ σοα, he has : ατ σοα μιαν μνά τεαέρach, "he has the desire of the female raven."—*Ode to O'Brian na Murtha O'Rourke.* The αο and ατ in these verbs are mere prefixes, like α in ατάμ, I am.

Αρ ρέ, ολ ρέ, or ορ ρέ, quoth he, said he : ματ α μíc, ορ ιη ραπαρ, "well, my son, said the priest."—*Vit. Moling.* See the example quoted under Cumcaim.

Ατ bail, or ατ βάτ, he died.—*Annals of the Four Masters*, A. D. 365, *et passim.*

Αιέρíoζαμ, I dethrone, depose : Κορμαc, μαc Τομαλταζ σο αιέρíoζαó, "Cormac, son of Tomaltach, was deposed."—*Ann. Four Mast., A. D. 1240.*

Θεαβαip, he died : α η-Θιρινν bic beaβαip, "in Parva Hibernia obiit."—*Feilire Aenguis*, 23rd April.

Χαιp, or cep, he fell.

Χεpο, he put : ρο cepο ár μοp ροpπα, "he brought [put] great

slaughter upon them," *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 240, *b, b*; fo ceo a eaclairc oar renirctir na h-eclairi ir in coileac, "he put his wand through the window of the church into the chalice," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 5, 2; fo ceo a luig iar rin rech Erin o roir co h-Inir Pátraic, "he then put [steered] his ship by Ireland eastwards, to Inis Patrick," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 6, col. 2, line 4.

Caomaim, I can, or I am able: agur oia g-caomrat an tan rin amur longbuirce do eabairc fair, "and if they were then able, to make an attack upon his camp," *Ann. Four Mast.*, *ad ann.* 1587; caomnacatar, they were able: agur ní caomnacatar teaict táirre, "and they were not able to cross it (the river)," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1244.

Clannrao, they thrust: clannrao cleatha dogra trít, "they thrust horrid spears through him."—*Book of Lecan*.

Clotha, was heard: ata rceoil po clotha, "news were heard."—*Feilire Aenguis*, 24th August.

Comnoeagao, they meet: ir amlaio po umorra comnoeagao a n-aen bunaoar, "*sic autem conveniunt in uno stirpe.*"—*Book of Ballymote*, fol. 23, *b, a*, line 29. See also *Book of Lecan*, fol. 75, *b, a*, and *Duald Mac Firbis's Book of Pedigrees*, p. 575, line 11.

Contuairce, they listen, or hearken; *Tegusc Riogh*, *passim*: contuairce rri ppocept brétri Dé, "they listen to the preaching of the Word of God."—*Visio Adamnani*.

Cumcaim, I can, or I am able; *possum*: oixit Pátriciur rri; oichuir fodechta ri poter; oixit Magur ni cumcaim, cur in trath céona i m-bárach. Oar mo debroch, ol Pátraic, ir i n-ulcc atta do cumachtu ocu ní fil itir a maith, "Patrick said, 'banish now [the snow] if thou canst:' the Magus said, 'I cannot till the same hour to-morrow.' 'By my Good Judge,' said Patrick, 'it is in evil thy power lies, and not at all in good.'"—*Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, *a, a*.

Oar liom, methinks: oar leir féin, "as he thinks himself," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 52; oar leo, "they think;" ocu naáa táinic for talman féin po b'ferri blar na bríg oar leo, máir, "and

there came not on earth wine of better flavour and strength, they thought, than it."—*Oighidh Muirchertaigh*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 16. p. 316.

Θεαρα: πο θεαρα, that induced.

Θέειραν, to see, to view.—*Ann. Four Mast.* A. D. 739: ειρη, ολ ρέ, οο θέειραν να ρλεοι μοιρε ριλ ιρ ιν ούν, "go, said he, to view the great feast which is in the palace.—*Battle of Magh Ragh*, p. 24.

Θειρο, it was settled, agreed, or resolved: οειρο αα, or οειρο leo, "it was resolved by them."—*Ann. Four Mast. ad ann.* 327, 1557, 1587.

Θλεαγαν, it is lawful, is very frequently used in old manuscripts for the modern ολιγεαγ; and it is even adopted by Keating, as ní mearaim go n-θλεαγαν γαβάλ οο εαβαιρε αρ εαετρα αν ριρ ρε, "I do not think that the expedition of this man should be called an invasion," *History of Ireland*, p. 30; θλεαγαν cunopaó οο κοιναλλ, "a covenant should be kept," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 48.

Θυρ, to know.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, 1556. This is a contraction of ο'ριορ.

Θυραααυρ, he wished: ουραααυρ-ρα κομπτίρ ουρε μο ρέτα, "*utinam adirigantur* [sic] *via meæ*," *L. Breac*, fol. 18, b, a; ιν goeth νορ τικ οαρρ ιν τιρ ριν ουραααυρ κο νάβ' ρεοχαμ νο τειρρεο αετ κομαο αμ beolu, "the wind which blows across that country, would that it should not pass by me, but enter my mouth," *Mac Conglinn's Dream*; cun ουρααι ουλ ταρ τορμιν ριαρ κυρ ιν ρατ ρριρ ρμινενν γριαν, "so that it desires to go beyond the boundary westwards, as far as the limit where sets the sun," *Rumann, MS. Bodleian Laud.* 610, fol. 10, a, a.

Θοβαυρ, he offered, granted, or gave.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 572, 585.

Θρβαυλτ, he died: κο n-ερβαυλτ, "so that he died."—*Ann. Four Mast.*, 365.

Ραιό, or ραιοό, he sent, put, gave up: Sean Ράτραις οο ραιοό-εαό α ρριραυε, "*Sanctus Patricius senior reddidit spiritum*,"

- Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 457, and translated in *Trias Thaum.*, p. 293; *ῥυθίουρ πατρυικ τεχτα υαὸ εὐ ζοναν*, "Patrick sends messengers from him to Lonan," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 47, *b*, *b*; *ῥο ραιοὸ τεαάτα*, "he sent messengers," *Ann. Four Mast.*, *passim*; *ῥαιθιρ Cublai α Ὀραιθε υαιθε οια ριρ ιν ροιιιιε νο οοιιιιε νο βιαε οο'η εαε*, "Cublai sends off his Druids to know whether success or misfortune would result from the battle," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 113.
- ῤεαάτα*, was fought: *ιν ταν ρεαάτα καε Μυιγε Τυρεαὸ*, "when the battle of Magh Tuireadh was fought," *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* *Ἡερκόιτ*.
- ῤαρκαῖδ*, leave; now *ῤάγ*.—See *Annals of Ulster*, *ad ann.* 995.
- ῤεαρρατ*, they gave; they poured out, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. M. 3500, *et passim*.
- ῤια*; *ῥοτ ρια*, mayest thou get: *ῥοτ ρια βυαὸ οοϋρ βενααετ*, "mayest thou get victory and a blessing," *Book of Lismore*, *passim*.
- ῤιοιρ*, he knows: *υαιρ ῥο ριοιρ ιν κοιμοιυ εεε νί ρεοματ α λερ*, "for the Lord knows every thing we stand in need of," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*. *ῤο ριοιρ*, he knew, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1522, *et passim*.
- ῤοβαιρριοτ*, they attacked: *ῥο ροβαιρριοτ αν βαλε ιαραιμ*, "they afterwards attacked the castle," *Ann. Four Masters*, A. D. 1544.
- ῤιιιιιιι*, I perceive; *ῤιιιιτ*, he perceived, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1512. *ῤιιιιτ*, perceived, *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* *Ὀρσ*.
- ῤορβαὸ*, was finished: *ῤορβαὸ ελοιετρε Gluana mic noiρ*, "the finishing of the steeple of Clonmacnoise," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1124; *ιαρ ῤ-ῤορβαὸ α αοιρε*, "after finished his life," *Id.*, *passim*.
- ῤορκοιιιγαιρ*, he ordered: *ῥο ρορκοιιιγαιρ Ϥειθλιμὸ Ϥορ α ῤλόγαιδ ζαν α η-οιυβρααὸ αεε τοετ οια η-ιοιιυαλαὸ ζαν Ϥυιρεαε*, "Felim ordered his troops not to shoot at them, but to come to the charge without delay," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1237.
- ῤοεϋιιγιμ*, I found: *Αρομαχα ο'οεϋιγαιὸ ια ναοιη Ϥατραικε*, "*Ecclesia Ardmachana fundata est per S. Patricium*," *Ann.*

Four Masters, A. D. 457, translated by Colgan *Trias Thaum.*, p. 293.

Ἐπιείλ: ní Ἐπιείλ, it is necessary: ἀγ Ἐπιείλ υἱλcc, “ exerting evil,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 17, p. 123, *a*.

Ἐπαρ, is called, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. M. 3502.

Ἐγενάρ, is born: γενάρ Πατριε ἰ η-Ἐμτuir, Patrick was born at Emtur,” *Fiach’s Hymn*; ἀρ βα ἰρ ἰη capbat πο γενάρ ριοεν, “ for he was born in the chariot,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Cophmac.

In these examples the present tense is put for the past.

Ἐλα, he sent: γο πα λα φοραιρεαῶα φρι φοριόοιμέδ γαχ conaue, “ so that he sent sentinels to guard each pass,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1522.

Ἐλαρατ, they threw, or cast off: πο λαερατ να κυραιῶ υἱλ ἰ α m-beanna co η-α καῖβαρραιῶ οἰα cennaib ἰρ ἰη αῖ, “ all the heroes cast off their crests with their helmets into the ford,” *Book of Lecan*, fol. 182, *a, a*.

Ἐλοαρ, or λοαρ, they went: ουλλοαρ κυρι ἰ ρυιοιυ ρεῖτ μαicc Καῖβοῖ: ρριόοιρ ουαῖβ ετ κρεοιοερυντ, “ the seven sons of Cathboth went to him thither: he preached to them and they believed,” *Book of Armagh*, fol. 17.

Ἐλυῶ, οο λυῶ, or ουλλυῶ, he went: ουλλυῶ Πατριε ο Τεμουρ ηἰ κριῖ Καργεν, “ Patrick went from Tara in Leinster,” *Id.*, *ibid.*; φεαῖτ ἀνη οο λυῶ Πατριε ἰ mmaile φρια αυε ἰ η-ουαἰ να m-Ἰρεαταν, “ one time that Patrick went together with his tutor to visit the Britons,” *Vit. Patric.*, in *Book of Lismore*; ἰρ ἰ conaue οο λυῶ τρια Chenel η-Εογαιη γο ριαῖτ γο Τεαρμανν Ὀαβεογ, “ the road which he went was through Cenel Eoghain till he arrived at Tearmonn Dabheog,” *Annals of the Four Masters*, A. D. 1522.

Ἐμύραμ, I demolish, raze: πο μύρρατ ἀη βαἰλε, “ they destroyed the walls of the town,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1572; οο conaue Νιαλλ ἀη ἀῖαταρ ἀη να μύραῶ, “ Niall saw the fort after being demolished,” *Caithreim Congail*.

Ἐραο, or πατ, he gave: πατρομ, “ he gave,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, *a, a*; παρατ, “ they gave,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. M. 3304.

Ἐριαῖταταρ, they reached: τανκαταρ Ὀλυῶ cu ριαῖταταρ Μαἰρ-

τine μορ Μuñan, "the Momonians advanced till they reached Mairtine in the great [province of] Munster," *Vit. Finncchu*, in *Book of Lismore*, fol. 70, *b*.

Ριγιμ α λερ, I stand in need of: πο ριορ in Coimoiu ceć ní pec-
μαιτ α λερ, "the Lord knows every thing we stand in need
of," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*; an ταν ριοιο α λεαρ να h-ae
an λειγιυρ ορλαιρεαć ζλανταć, "when the liver requires ape-
rient, purifying medicine," *Old Medical MSS.*, translated by
John O'Callannan in 1414.

Ροδαćτ, was raised.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, A. M. 3991.

Σιαćτ, he came, or arrived: πο ριαćτ ιαρ ριν ζυρ an αβαινν n-οιğ-
πετα, "he afterwards arrived at the frozen river," *Book of*
Fermoy, fol. 92. Σιαćταβαρ, they came, *Ann. Four Mast.*,
A. D. 766.

Σleaćτ, he cut down, or felled.—*Id.*, A. M. 3549.

Soaò, to return, to turn, to metamorphose: ροατ ινα ð-φριείνğ,
"they return back," *Id.* Soaίττ, they returned: ροaίττ αρ an
τιρ ζαν ζιαλλ, ζαν ειοιρεαòα, "they return from the country
with hostages or pledges," *Id.*, A. D. 1223; μαραιτ φορ να
φαρρε ιαρ n-α ροò ι cloćaìð, "the cheeses still remain being
metamorphosed into stones," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 47, *b, b*.

Spaomeò, was defeated.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, A. M. 3500, *et passim*.

Ταcμαic, it surrounded: as ταcμαic ρνεćτα φέρνα φερ, "the
snow surrounded the girdles of men," *Cor. Glos.*, voce *Φερενο*.

Ταρφαρ, was shewn, was revealed: cona ð-τυιλ Ταòğ τιom-òoo-
λαò con ταρφαρ ðριννα ocυρ ταρñetal neìð buò cinn so, "and
Tadhg fell into a deep sleep, so that he saw a dream and a vi-
sion of the things which were predestined for him," *Book of*
Lismore, fol. 163.

Ταćαιm, he died.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 708.

Τεαρνα, he escaped: αγυρ ζιò ειρθε ní τεαρνα υαò ζαν cρεαćτ-
nuζαò zo móρ an τί λαρ πο μαρðαò, "and though he fell, the
person by whom he was slain did not escape without being
severely wounded," *Id.*, A. D. 1544.

Τερτα, he departed, he died: *decessit*.—*Id.*, A. D. 512. This
verb is of very frequent occurrence in all the Irish Annals.

Τορράιρ, he fell : βαί τρια Νυααα ρίσι βλιαόαιν ι ριγι η-Θρηnn co
 τορράιρ ι καθ βειομαch Μυιγι Τυιρεαò οο λάιη δαλαιρ,
 Nuada was twenty years in the government of Ireland, until
 he fell in the last battle of Moyturey by the hand of Balar.”—
Book of Lecan, fol. 280, a.

Τύ, I am : οουρ ατύ ceò βλιαόουη αρ ηη υιρσι, “I am an hun-
 dred years upon the water.”—*Book of Lismore*, fol. 224.

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS.

ADVERBS are of different kinds, and have been ingeniously classed by some Latin and English grammarians; but as there are very few simple adverbs in the Irish language, it is needless to attempt a classification of them.

Ruddiman says that “adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more; as, *sapienter*, *wisely*, for *cum sapientia*; *hîc*, for *in hoc loco*; *semper*, for *in omni tempore*; *semel*, for *unâ vice*; *bis*, for *duabus vicibus*; *Hercule*, for *Hercules me juvet*, &c. Therefore many of them are nothing else but Adjective Nouns or Pronouns, having the Preposition and substantive understood; as, *quò*, *eò*, *eòdem*, for *ad quæ*, *ea*, *eadem* [*loca*], or *cui*, *ei*, *eidem* (*loco*); for of old these Datives ended in *o*. Thus, *qua*, *hac*, *illac*, &c., are plain Adjectives, in the Abl. Sing. Fem., the word *vid*, a way, and *in*, being understood. Many of them are compounds, as *quomodo*, i. e. *quo modo*; *quemadmodum*, i. e. *ad quem modum*; *quamobrem*, i. e. *ob quam rem*; *quare*, i. e. (*pro*) *qua re*; *quorsum*, i. e. *versus quem* (*locum*); *scilicet*, i. e. *scire licet*; *videlicet*, i. e. *videre licet*; *ilicet*, i. e. *ire licet*;

illico, i. e. in loco; magnopere, i. e. magno opere; nimirum, i. e. ni (est) mirum."—*Rudiments of the Latin Tongue*, Ch. v. note 1.

The following definition of an adverb, given by Dr. Priestly, is well borne out by the Irish language: "Adverbs are contractions of sentences, or clauses of sentences, *generally* serving to denote the manner and other circumstances of an action, as *wisely*, that is, in a wise manner; *now*, that is, *at this time*."

SECT. 1.—*Formation of Adverbs.*

Adverbial phrases made up of two or more parts of speech are very numerous, and adverbs may be formed from adjectives *ad libitum*, by prefixing ζο, as *χροδα*, brave, ζο *χροδα*, bravely; *ρίορ*, true, ζο *ρίορ*, truly. This ζο prefixed to the adjective in Irish has exactly the same force as the English termination *ly*, in adverbs formed from adjectives, but the ζο never coalesces with the adjective so as to form one word, and is in reality the preposition ζο, or *co*, *with*, so that ζο *ρίορ* is literally *with truth*, *κατὰ τὸ ἀληθές* (*according to what is true*). It is altogether unnecessary to give any list of this class of adverbs in a grammar, or even dictionary; but there is another class of adverbs and adverbial phrases, many of which are still in common use, and others to be met with in ancient manuscripts, which the student should commit to memory, as by so doing he will save himself much time, which would otherwise be lost in consulting Irish dictionaries, in which he may not be able to find them. Of this class of adverbs a list is here subjoined:

Α ὑ-ῤαο ἀρ ῤο, far hence.

Α ὑ-ῤαο ῤοίμῃ, long before.

Αἄβυρ, at this side; at this side of the grave; in this world. It is the opposite of ἐὰλλ, *q. v.*

Α ἄ-κέιν, afar, far off.

Α ἄ-κοῖνῃ, always, continually.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, there.

Α ἄ ῤο, here.

Α ἄ ῤύο, yonder.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, therefore.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, is of frequent occurrence in old writings, in the sense of *thence*, and is equivalent to the modern ἀρ ῤῃ, as ἐπιὰλλοιο ἀ ῤῃ ἄ ῤο ἡ-Ἰρνεαχ, “they proceed from thence to Uisneach, *Keat. Hist.*, p. 56.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, on the outside.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, on the east side.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, on the inside.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, on the west side.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, on the east side.

Α ἄ, or ἀ, or ο ῤοῖν ἀ, from that time forward.

Α ἄ, out of. This is always used in connexion with a verb of motion, as ἐῤαῖο ῤέ ἀ, he went out, or forth.—See Α ἄ ῤῃ.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, as, how.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, alone, only, *tantum*. This is generally written ἄ ῤῃ in ancient manuscripts.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, to-morrow. This is very frequently written ἀ ῤῃ in old manuscripts.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, this year.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, so: ῤ ἄ ῤῃ, it is so; ῤῃ ἡ-ἄ ῤῃ, it is not so.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, or ἀ ῤῃ, in order, to the end that.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, without, outside. The difference between this and ἀ ῤῃ is, that the latter is always used in connexion with a verb of motion, and the former generally with some verb of rest, as ῤῃ ῤέ ἀ ῤῃ, he was outside; ἐῤαῖο ῤέ ἀ ῤῃ, he went out.

Α ἄ ῤῃ, near. Anciently often written ῤῃ ἄ ῤῃ.—See *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Θελ*.

Ανάρισε, on high, upward : σεiriξ ré ανáρισε, he rose up.

Ανάλλ, over to this side, to this time. This is always connected with a verb of motion, generally τιξιμ, as εάινιξ ré ανάλλ ταν μυρι, “he came over across the sea;” ατα αν Νάρ ζαν ριξ ανάλλ, ο’η λο πο τορβουρ Cearbhall, “Naas is without a king ever since Cearbhall was slain,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 1. 17, fol. 97, b.

Ανάλλοο, formerly, of yore : *antiquitús*.

Α η-οεαρ, southwards, and sometimes from the south.

Αη céim, while, whilst.

Αηέ, or ανοέ, yesterday.

Αηεαάταρ, externally, on the outside.

Αηέμπεαάτ, together, *simul*.

Αηφαο, or αν φαο, while, whilst.—See Αη céim.

Α ηγαρ, or α δ-ροζυρ, near, close to, hard by.

Α ηιαρ, from the west. Its opposite is ριαρ, westwards, or to the west.

Α ηίορ, from below. This is always used in connexion with a verb of motion, and the opposite of ρίορ, *down*, as εάινιξ ré ανίορ, he came up ; εβιτ ré ρίορ, he fell down.

Αηιυ, or ανοιυ, to-day ; *hodie*.

Αηηαίη, or ζοη-α ηαίη, seldom.

Αηη ρηη, then, there. Often written ηρηιόο and ηηρηιου, in old manuscripts.

Αηη ρο, here. Αηηρηιόο, in old manuscripts.

Αηη ρύο, in yonder place.

Αηοάτ, to-night ; *hac nocte*.

Αηοιρ, from the east. Its opposite is ποιρ, eastwards, or to the east ; and both are generally connected with a verb of motion.

Αηοιρτέαρ, after to-morrow.

Αηοιρ, now ; ανοιρ αζυρ αρίρ, now and again, sometimes.

Αηοηη, over to the other side. Its opposite is ανάλλ ; and both are generally, if not always, connected with a verb of motion.

Αηοηη αζυρ ανάλλ, over and hither. This adverbial expression is generally written ασιυ οσυρ ανάλλ in old manuscripts.

Αη ταν, or αν υαρ, when.

Ἐνωταρ, from above, downwards. This is always used with a verb of motion, and is the opposite of ῥωταρ, upwards, as ἐνωτὸ ρέ ῥωταρ ἀπ ἀν ἄ-κρον, he went up on the hill; τάνιζ ἀνωταρ ὀ νεαίν, he came down from heaven.

Ἐνωπριαὸ, last year. This term, which is still used in the living language, is explained in βλιαῶαιν ταυρηικ, i. e. the year *last* past, in *Cormac's Glossary*.

Ἐρ α σοι ριν τρια, notwithstanding this however.

or σοι (because of)

Ἐρ αβα, because, on account of.

σοι (respect)

with respect to

Ἐρ αιρ, back.

Ἐρ ball, on the spot; very soon; immediately.

Ἐρ biτ, at all; in existence.

Ἐρ ἔεανα, or ol ἔεανα, in like manner; *similiter*.

Ἐρ ἔιγεν, with difficulty; οὐλ ἀρ ἔιγεν, running away.

Ἐρέιρ, last night.

Ἐρ ρεαὸ, throughout.

Ἐρ ρασ, in length; altogether.

Ἐρ ἄ-κύλ, back; κυρ ἀρ ἄ-κύλ, abolish. This is generally written ρορ culu in old manuscripts.

Ἐρίρ (or ἀρίδιρ), again. Anciently οροριουρι.

Ἐρ leiτ, separately.

Ἐρ να μάρακ, on the morrow. Often written ἀρ να βάρακ in old writings.

Ἐρ ρον, on account of; for the sake of; in lieu of.—See *Prepositions*.

Ἐρ τύρ, or α ο-τορακ, in the beginning.

Ἐ ο-τραυε, quickly, *instanter*.—*Cor. Gloss.*, voce Τροιο.

Ἐρ υαιρηβ, at times.

Ἐρ τεακ, into. This is always used with a verb of motion, as ἐνωτὸ ρέ ἀρ τεακ, he went in.

Ἐρ τιζ, within: generally used with the verb substantive, or some verb denoting rest, as τὰ ρέ ἀρ τιζ, he is within.

Ἐτυαὸ, or α ο-τυαὸ, from the north; northwards.

Ἐεαζ νακ, almost, all but.

Ἐθεορ, yet; the ancient form of ρόρ.

Ἐο θεαρ, southwards.—*Lib. Lecan*, fol. 208.

- | Δυοεῖτα, the ancient form of ῥεαρτα, for the future.
 Δυν οῦ εἰονη, topsy turvy, upside down.
 Κά, where, *ubi*.
 Κα ἡ-αρ, or κα ἡ-αρ, whence? from what? *unde*?
 | Κα ἡιάτ, how many! *now - liuthad*
 Κα ἡμέιο, how many? how much?
 Κάσαοαμυρ, in the first place; *imprimis*. Often written κάσαμυρ
 in old manuscripts.
 Χεαα, already: ἀμυιλ ὀεαρβάρ χεαα, "as I have proved al-
 ready."—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 358. This is pronounced heaα
 in the south of Ireland.
 Céin, or αν céin, while, whilst.
 | Cenμοζά, besides, except.
 Cenμοζάτ, besides them; except them.
 | Cibionnyr, howbeit, however.
 Ciorinnnyr, whatever way or manner—*Vit. Moling*.
 Cio, indeed; *autem*; ἄλλα, δὲ.
 Cio fá, why, wherefore.
 Cionnyr, how; anciently written cionnyr.
 Choióce, ever.
 Choir, near, along.
 Conaó, or Conio, so that.
 Co nuige rin, or go nuige rin, thus far.
 Chuige ro, to this end; for this purpose.
 Than, an expletive, then, indeed.
 Déireal, to the right; *dextrorsum*; sunwise.
 Oiblínió, both: τριεῦ οἰβλιníó, through both. This is translated
invicem in the *Annals of Ulster*. It is the ablative plural of
 oibléin, a couple.
 → Than, von, vona, or voni, then, indeed, *autem, vero*; ἄλλα, δὲ.
 Tho gnáτ, always.
 Tho gnéar, always, continually.
 Tho látau, presently.
 Tho'oióce, by night; *noctu*.
 Tho ló, by day.
 Tho ῥονηραó, exactly, precisely. Sometimes written in τριηρηó,
 in old manuscripts.

- Εαὖον, ἰοῦον, αὖον, that is, namely, to wit; *videlicet*.
 Φά ἐαυόρι, or φο ἐτέόρι, immediately; at once; *statim*.
 Φά ὀεοῖό, at length.
 Φά ὀό, twice: anciently φο ὀί.
 Φαυό, or φαυ ὀ, long since; long ago.
 Φαυ ὀ ῖοιμ, long since.
 Φά γ-κυαιρτ, or μά γ-κυαιρτ, round about. Sometimes written
 βα κυαιρτ and ἰμα κυαιρτ in ancient manuscripts.
 Φά φαά, or φο φαά, respectively, separately: φα φαά ἐααα,
 αγγυ ρι α η-αοιμαάτ, ὀο νιτθεαρ κοιρρεαααὸ αν ἐυιρρ αγγυ
 κοιρρεαααὸ να ρολα, "separately, and not at the same time, the
 consecration of the body and the consecration of the blood are
 made."—*Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 250.
 Φεαρτα, for the future. Anciently written βυοερτα and ροοερτα.
 Φεῖ, as.
 Φιαρλαοιο, throughout.
 Φο βιέιμ, because.
 Φο ἐλειεῖ, privily.
 Φόρ, yet; ἀετ φόρ, but yet.
 Φενμοαά, besides, except.
 Φο, until.
 Φο βράε, for ever.
 Φο οειμῖμ, indeed.
 Φο ο-τί, until.
 Φο ο-τραρτα, lately.
 Φο ρόιλ, yet, as yet.
 Φο η-υιλιόε, entirely.
 Φο λέιγ, presently, soon.
 Φο λέιρ, entirely, wholly.
 Φο λεορ, or γο λόρ, enough.
 Φο μαίε, well.
 Φο μινι, often.
 Φο μοά, early.
 Φο νιε, or γο νυγε, until.
 Ιοῦον, to wit, namely.
 Ιαπαμ, afterwards. This is sometimes expletive.

Ἰαρ ὅ-πίορ, truly, in reality; *κατὰ ἀλήθειαν*.

Ἰαρρ ἢ νι, *ex eo quod*; because.

Ἰαρροσαιν, after that; *postea*. Now written ἰαρ ριν. *also*

Ἰοιρ, or ἰτιρ, at all.

Ἰλλε, or ἄλε, thenceforward, *huc usque*.

Ἰομορρα, indeed; *vero, autem*.

Ἰτιρ, indeed, at all.

Ζάιμ λε, near to, hard by.

Ζειρ πο, with this.

Ζεαῖ πορ λεῖῖ, or λεαῖ αρ λεῖῖ, on either side.

Ζεαῖ αρτιῖ, inside, within.

Ζεαῖ ἢ τ-ρואρ, above, *desuper*.

Μαρ, as.—See *Prepositions*, Sect. 1.

Μαρ αν ἡ-κέααα, in like manner, likewise, *similiter*.

Μαρ αον, together.

Μαρ ριν, so, in that manner.

Μαρ πο, thus, in this manner.

Μοῖ, early; ἡο μοῖ, *diluculo*.

Μόρμῶρ; ἡο μόρμῶρ, especially.

Νάμά, only. Now always written ἀνάμ, *q. v.*

Νοῖο, not.

Νο ἡο, until: no ἡο ὁ-τάιμῖ ραρῖαλόν, “until Parthalan arrived.”—*Keat. Hist.*, p. 30.

Ο, since; seeing that.

Οβέλα, wide open. Οβέλα ορλυῖῖ.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, 1600.

Ο ῖεῖλε, asunder; τρέ η-α ῖεῖλε, to and fro.

Ο ῖέιν μάρ, from time remote.

Ο ῖιαναιῖ, a little while ago: ἡαρ becc ρια η-εppαρταιν ὀ ῖιαναιῖ, “a little before vesper-time, just now.”—*Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

Οῖῖεαα, or αρῖεαα, in like manner; *similiter*.

Οη, indeed; expletive.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, 1137, 1601; βα ρη οη, “it was true indeed.”—*L. na h-Uidhri*.

Ορ άρῶ, aloud; publicly.

Ορ κόμαρ, opposite; *e regione*.

Ορ ῖρεαῖ, privately.

O pín ille, thenceforward.

O pín ale, or ó pín amac, ever since; thenceforward.

Oz, since, as, seeing that.—*Keat. Hist.*, p. 127.

Riam, ever. Also written a piam.

Riam, before: piam ocur iaram, *antea, et postea, Cor. Gloss.*,
voce *Loc.*

Riaru, or periu, before; *antequam*.—See *Conjunctions*.

Samlaió, so.

Sán cán, to and fro.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, 1595; and *Mac Conglinn's Dream*, in *Leabhar Breac*.

Seaca, by, past; *secus*.

Seacónín, or reónón, through.

Seaccar, by, past.

Síor, down: na cláir ríor co Sionoinn, "the plains down to the Shannon."—*O'Heerin*. Generally used with a verb of motion.

Síopanna, down here.

Suar, up, upwards. Used with a verb of motion.

Sul, before.

Sunn, or punna, here.

Thall, on the other side; in the other world. This is always used in connexion with a verb of rest.

Tamall, or le tamall, awhile.

Tan, or an tan, when.

Taoð amuiğ, or allamuiğ, on the outside.

Taoð aruiğ, or allaruiğ, on the inside.

Thíor, below. Generally used with a verb of rest.—See Síor.

Trá, indeed; an expletive; *vero, autem*.

Trarta: go trarta, lately, just now.

Tría bíein, or tré bíein, for ever.

Tuarim: pa tuarim, about, *circiter*.

Tuar, above. Generally used in connexion with a verb of rest.—

See Suar. Tuar ocur tír, "above and below."—*Cor. Gloss.*,
voce *Comla*.

Tuille eile, moreover.

Uió ar n-uíó, gradually.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 166.

Stewart sets down this adverbial phrase as a living one, in the

Highlands of Scotland. It is obsolete in Ireland, though sometimes found in old manuscripts.

Uime rin, therefore.

Umoppa, or iomoppa, indeed, but; *vero, autem.*

Many other phrases of an adverbial character will be met with, but the foregoing are the principal. In parsing such phrases the learner should construe each word according to its etymological class, noting, however, the adverbial character of the whole phrase.

SECTION 2.—Of prepositive and inseparable, or consignant Adverbs.

It is a curious fact that in this language prepositions are rarely compounded with verbs or adjectives, as in Greek and Latin, and the languages derived from them, as in *abstineo, adhereo, contradico, dejicio, distraho, egredior, intervenio, prætereo, &c.* To express such ideas in Irish, prepositions or adverbs are placed after the verbs, and never amalgamated with them, as beip ar, get away, escape, Lat. *evade*; cúaid ré ruar, *ascendit*; cúaid ré ríor, *descendit*; cúaid ré anonn, *transiit*, &c.

The following fifteen prepositive, consignant, or inseparable particles, are undoubtedly adverbs, not prepositions. They are capable of being compounded with nouns substantives, nouns adjectives, and verbs, to modify or alter their significations.

Áó, or aó, an intensive particle, as aóimilleaó, destruction; as in *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107, a, a : so aóimilleó fer Munán, “to destroy the men of Munster.”

Am̄, or am, a negative particle, of the same force with the English *in*, or *un*, as leap, welfare, amleap, misfortune; gl̄ic, wise, am̄gl̄ic, unwise; beom, will, am̄beom, unwillingness; ulc̄ac̄, bearded, amulc̄ac̄, beardless; ʒap, convenience, am̄ʒap, affliction, distress.

An, or an, a privative, or negative, as pioct̄, shape, or plight, anpioct̄, evil plight; mian, desire, anmian, an evil or inordinate desire; beap̄t, a deed, anbeap̄t, an evil deed; eolac̄, skillful, aneolac̄, ignorant; ol̄iḡceac̄, lawful, anol̄iḡceac̄, unlawful; ep̄ac̄, time, anep̄ac̄, unseasonable time; toil, will, antoil, ill will; p̄o, prosperity, anp̄o, adversity; fl̄aic̄, a prince, anfl̄aic̄, a tyrant; ep̄oie, a heart, anep̄oie, a bad heart; baome, people, anbaome, evil, or wicked people; uap̄al, noble, anuap̄al, ignoble. An, or an, has also an intensitive power in a few compounds, as antear, excessive heat; an-ferap, a great man; an-m̄op̄, very great; an-tp̄ap̄, or an-ʃap̄, very cheap. This particle, however, seldom occurs in this sense in correct Irish works, in which it is generally used as a negative.

The particles an and am̄ are called negatives in *Cormac's Glossary*, and there can be little doubt that they were always so used in the ancient Irish language, though an is now often used as an intensitive particle in the spoken language, as tá an lá an-ʃuap, the day is very cold; tá an oiōce an-ōop̄ca, the night is very dark (pronounced in some parts of Ireland as if written ännä). But in *Cormac's Glossary*, an is distinctly called a Gaelic negative, thus: An, no am̄, .i. uilc̄aō ʒæoelge, amail pon ʒaō naē ocup annaē; eim ocup aneim, nep̄t ocup am̄nep̄t, "AN, or AMH, a Gaelic negative, as NATH and ANNATH; EIMU and AINEIMH; NERT and AMHNERT."—See also the same Glossary, *voce* An̄oan, where an is called a negative: "an po uilc̄aō." It should be here remarked, that these and all the other prepositive particles are made broad or slender, accordingly as the first vowel of the words with which they are compounded are broad or slender. In the Erse, or Scotch Gaelic, as we learn from *Stewart's Gaelic Grammar* (second edition, p. 142, note *u*), the "syllable *an* assumes three forms. Before a broad vowel or consonant it is *an*, as 'anshocair; before

a small vowel, *ain*, as ‘aineolach,’ *ignorant*; ‘aindeoin,’ *unwillingness*; before a labial, *am*, or *aim*, as ‘aimbeartach,’ *poor*; sometimes with the *m* aspirated, as ‘aimhleas,’ *detriment, ruin*; ‘aimh-leathan,’ *narrow*.” This change from *an* to *am*, before a labial, never takes place in the Irish, as *beart*, a deed, *aimbeart*, an evil deed.

Αἰ̄τ̄, or ᾱτ̄, has a negative power in a few words, as αἰ̄τ̄ριοζᾱσ̄, to dethrone; ᾱτ̄τᾱοῑρεᾱς̄, a deposed chieftain; αἰ̄τ̄κ̄λέ̄ρῑεᾱς̄, a superannuated or denounced clergyman; ᾱτ̄λᾱο̄ς̄, a superannuated warrior, a veteran soldier past his labour. But it has usually a reiterative meaning, as αἰ̄τ̄βε̄ο̄σ̄ᾱῑμ̄, I revive; αἰ̄τ̄τέ̄ῑο̄τε̄, reheated; ᾱτ̄ο̄ο̄ί̄ο̄τε̄, re-burnt; αἰ̄τ̄ο̄ε̄ᾱνᾱῑμ̄, re-making, or re-building, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1572; αἰ̄τ̄ζ̄ε̄ῑμ̄τε̄, regenerated; αἰ̄τ̄ζ̄ῑμ̄, such another, quasi *regeneratus*.

Αἰ̄ρ̄, or εἰ̄ρ̄, a reiterative particle, as αἰ̄ρ̄ῑο̄ς̄, restitution; εἰ̄ρ̄εἰ̄ρ̄ζ̄ε̄, resurrection. But it enters into the composition of very few words.

Οἰ̄, or οἰ̄ο̄, a simple negative, like the Latin *di, dis*, as οἰ̄ε̄ᾱνᾱῑμ̄, I behead; οἰ̄ο̄μ̄β̄υἰ̄δεᾱς̄, ungrateful, unthankful; οἰ̄ο̄μ̄β̄υᾱ, perishable; οἰ̄ο̄μ̄ολ̄ᾱῑμ̄, I dispraise; οἰ̄ο̄κ̄ο̄ῑρ̄ζ̄ε̄, incorrigible, *Keat. Hist.*, p. 13; οἰ̄-αἰ̄ρ̄νέ̄ῑζε̄, *innarrabilis, Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*; οἰ̄ο̄τ̄ο̄ζ̄λ̄υἰ̄ο̄ε̄, impregnable, *Ann. Four Masters, passim; Book of Lismore*, fol. 114. This particle is also called a negative in *Cormac’s Glossary, vocibus Dubac et Deinmne*: Οἰ̄ ρο̄ οἰ̄ῡλ̄τᾱσ̄, “οἰ̄ for denying.” In some few words it has an intensitive power, as οἰ̄ο̄μ̄ο̄ρ̄, very great: οο̄ η̄ιᾱτ̄ ε̄ρἰ̄ γ̄ᾱρ̄ᾱ οἰ̄ᾱ η-οἰ̄ῡβ̄ρ̄αῑρ̄ῑοἰ̄ αἰ̄βἰ̄ οἰ̄μ̄ο̄ρᾱ, “they constructed three machines, by which very large stones might be cast,” *Id.*, fol. 122; οἰ̄β̄ρ̄εἰ̄ρ̄ζ̄, revenge.

Οο̄, when prefixed to adjectives, denotes *ill*, as οο̄-β̄ε̄ᾱρᾱς̄, ill-bred, unmannerly; but when prefixed to passive participles, or the genitive case of progressive active nouns, it denotes difficult, or impossible, as οο̄-ο̄ε̄ᾱν̄τᾱ, hard, or impossible to be done; οο̄-ἡ̄μ̄ῑν̄τε̄, indocile, or difficult to be taught; οο̄-ζ̄ᾱβ̄ά̄λᾱ, impassable, or difficult to be passed: Οοἰ̄ τ̄ρῖᾱρ̄ νᾱ οοἰ̄ρ̄ρἰ̄β̄ οο̄-ζ̄ᾱβ̄ά̄λᾱ, “to go through the impassable doors, or openings,”

Ann. Four Mast., A. D. 1602; $\rho\acute{\iota}\nu\eta\mu\epsilon\acute{o}$ $\nu\omicron\text{-}\mu\acute{\iota}\nu\epsilon\alpha\acute{\alpha}\tau\alpha$, "an impassable sacred wood," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 17. p. 123, col. a.

In *Cormac's Glossary*, voce $\text{D}\acute{\upsilon}\beta\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, this is also called a negative: $\text{D}\acute{\upsilon}$, $\nu\omicron$, $\nu\epsilon$ $\rho\omicron$ $\nu\omicron\iota\lambda\tau\acute{\alpha}\acute{o}$, "du, do, de, for denying."

$\text{E}\iota$, or $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$, a negative particle, which generally eclipses the initial consonant of the word with which it is compounded, if it admits of eclipsis, as $\tau\rho\acute{\omicron}\sigma\alpha\iota\mu\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, merciful, $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\sigma\tau\rho\acute{\omicron}\sigma\alpha\iota\mu\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, unmerciful; $\sigma\iota\alpha\lambda\lambda\omicron\alpha$, rational, $\acute{\epsilon}\iota\gamma\sigma\iota\alpha\lambda\lambda\omicron\alpha$, irrational; $\sigma\acute{\omicron}\rho$, justice, $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\gamma\sigma\acute{\omicron}\rho$, injustice; $\sigma\rho\acute{\alpha}\nu\theta\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}$, pious, $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\gamma\sigma\rho\acute{\alpha}\nu\theta\epsilon\alpha\acute{\sigma}$, impious; $\sigma\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta\alpha$, meek, $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\gamma\sigma\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta\alpha$, *immitis*, *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 127, b, a; $\tau\rho\omicron\mu$, heavy, $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\sigma\tau\rho\omicron\mu$, light; $\nu\omicron\sigma\iota\mu\eta\mu$, deep, $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\sigma\sigma\iota\mu\eta\mu$, shallow; $\epsilon\sigma\rho\acute{\omicron}\zeta\tau\alpha$, brightness.

This negative is written e in *Cormac's Glossary*, voce $\text{E}\mu\acute{\alpha}\nu$: e $\rho\omicron$ $\nu\omicron\iota\lambda\tau\acute{\alpha}\acute{o}$; "E for denying." In the modern language it is written eá before a broad vowel, and eí before a slender one.

$\text{E}\alpha\rho$, a negative, which is to be distinguished from the foregoing, inasmuch as it is always short, while the other is invariably long, and never has the ρ , except by accident. *Example*,— $\sigma\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\omicron$, a friend, $\epsilon\alpha\rho\sigma\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\omicron$, an enemy; $\rho\acute{\iota}\lambda\acute{\alpha}\nu$, whole, well, sound, $\epsilon\alpha\rho\rho\acute{\iota}\lambda\acute{\alpha}\nu$, sick, unhealthy; $\epsilon\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\rho\mu$, unarmed.—*Book of Fermoy*, fol. 29. It does not often occur.

It is written eρ in *Cormac's Glossary*, voce $\text{E}\rho\eta\tau$ et $\text{E}\rho\acute{\epsilon}\nu$, and called a negative: $\text{E}\rho$ $\rho\omicron$ $\nu\omicron\iota\lambda\tau\acute{\alpha}\acute{o}$, "*Es* for denying."

$\text{F}\omicron\iota\rho$, or $\rho\omicron\iota\rho$, an intensitive particle, as $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\mu\epsilon\alpha\lambda\lambda\acute{\alpha}\acute{\sigma}$, exterior, external; $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\lambda\epsilon\alpha\acute{\zeta}\alpha\eta$, extensive; $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\alpha\iota\rho\epsilon$, a watch, or guard; $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\acute{\rho}\acute{\omicron}\mu\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\sigma$, a watch, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1522; $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\eta\epsilon\alpha\rho\tau$, violence; $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\alpha\iota\rho\epsilon$, guard, watch; $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\gamma\epsilon\alpha\eta$, oppression; $\alpha\gamma$ $\mu\eta\mu\tau$ $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\eta\epsilon\iota\rho\tau$ $\alpha\gamma\upsilon\rho$ $\rho\omicron\iota\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\gamma\eta\mu$ $\alpha\rho$ $\text{E}\rho\eta\eta\eta$, "exercising violence and oppression on Ireland," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 138.

$\text{I}\mu$, or $\iota\omicron\mu$, an enhancing, or intensitive particle, as $\iota\omicron\mu\alpha\gamma\alpha\lambda\lambda\acute{\alpha}\mu$, dialogue; $\iota\omicron\mu\phi\upsilon\iota\lambda\eta\gamma\eta\mu$, I bear, or support; $\mu\epsilon\alpha\gamma\lambda\alpha$, fear; $\iota\omicron\mu\lambda\acute{\alpha}\nu$, whole, complete; $\iota\omicron\mu\rho\acute{\iota}\lambda\acute{\alpha}\nu$, sound, whole; $\mu\acute{\omicron}\sigma\iota\omicron\epsilon\eta$, shelter, defence; $\iota\omicron\mu\acute{\rho}\acute{\omicron}\mu\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\sigma$, keeping; $\iota\omicron\mu\sigma\upsilon\mu\omicron\sigma\alpha\sigma$, a cover, or case; $\mu\acute{\alpha}\rho\omicron$, high; $\mu\acute{\omicron}\sigma\upsilon\mu\alpha\eta\gamma$, narrow. It sometimes,

though rarely, means *about*, as *ιμβαῶ*, “a surrounding sea,” *Cor. Gloss. voce Imbaῶ*.

This particle is very frequently found in old manuscripts prefixed to words which make good sense without it, as *ιμεαῖα*, fear, for the modern *εαῖα*; *ιμοῖσεν*, protection, for the modern *οῖσεν*.
Example.—*Ταβαῖρ υαμ υο νοεμ ρριραι υομ ιμοεαῖαι, οουρ υομ ιμοῖσεν*, “give me thy holy spirit to guard and protect me,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*.

Μί, a negative, as *μίσεισεν*, unbelief; *μί-νάούρεα*, unnatural; *μί-έαλμεινε*, an ominous presage; *μί-άῖ*, misfortune; *μί-ραῶ*, ill success.

This particle is very much in use in the modern language, and when compounded with a word of which the first vowel is broad, it has been the custom with modern writers to introduce an *ο*, to fulfil the modern rule of “broad with a broad,” &c., as *μιοραῶ*, ill success; but the ancients always wrote it *μί*.

Νεαῖν, or *νεῖν*, a negative prefixed to nouns substantive and adjective, as *νεαῖν-ῖνιμ*, neglect; *νεῖνιῖν*, nothing; *νεαῖν-έλαον*, impartial, unbiassed; *νεαῖν-έμπευῖσεν*, immoveable. It is also sometimes prefixed to verbs, as *νεαῖν-έυιλλιμ*, I deserve not, as *ρεαῖρα να νεαῖν υο νεαῖν-έυιλλ*, “who deserved not the anger of the saints.”—*Giolla-Iosa Mor Mac Firbis*, 1417.

In the Scotch Gaelic this is written *neo*, and it is pronounced in some parts of the south of Ireland as if written *nea*, as *νεαῖν-ῖνιμ*, neglect; pronounced *nea-ῖνιμ*.

Ιν, or *ιον*, when prefixed to passive participles, denotes fitness, or aptness, as *ιμλειῖνιρ*, curable; *α υοβρασαρ α λεαῖρα ρριρ ναρ υό γαλαρ ιμλειῖνιρ βαι ραρ*, “his physicians told him that it was not a curable disease he had,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 68; *ιμοέαντα*, fit to be done; *ιοντυῖσεν*, intelligible, to be understood; *ιμριῖσεν*, “fit to be elected king,” *Vit. Cellachi*; *ιμλαεῖῖ*, in-calf; *ιμμεαῖρα*, to be thought, or deemed; *ιμρεῖσεν*, credible. This prefix has nearly the same signification as the termination *bilis* in Latin, or *ble* in English.

The same idea is often expressed in old manuscripts by placing

the assertive verb *ἦ*, or some particle which carries its force, before the passive participle, as *ἦ* *κυμνιζέε* *δια* *ἔνυ* *ἡ-κυρσάσα*, “it is to be remembered by your champions,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 124; *νά* *κυρτέ* *α* *ἡ-constabαιρτ*, “that it is not dubitable,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 45.

O’Molloy says that this prefix *ἠ* has the force of the Latin participle of the future in *du*s : “Particula autem *ἠ* addita voculæ facit voculam importare participium finiens in *du*s, apud Latinos, vt *faciendus*, vt *hoc non est faciendum*, hibernicè, *ἠ* *bh-ful* *ρο* *ἠνεοντα*.” *Grammatica Latino Hibernica*, pp. 99, 100.

So, or *ροι*, when prefixed to passive participles, denotes *apt*, or *easy*, as *ρο-αγαλλια*, affable, easy of address; *ροιδεαντα*, feasible. When prefixed to adjectives it denotes *good*, as *ρο-εριοδεα*, good-hearted; *ροινεαλα*, of good family. It is the opposite of *οο*, and hence we have so many words beginning with *ρ* and *οο* forming opposites, as *ρῦβαλce*, virtue, *οοβαλce*, or *οοαιce*, vice; *ροναρ*, happiness, *οοναρ*, misery; *ρολαρ*, happiness, *οολαρ*, grief; *ροιδιρ*, rich, *οοιδιρ*, poor; *ρονεαν*, favourable or good weather, *οονεαν*, bad, or unfavourable weather.

To the foregoing may be added the following monosyllables, which are seldom, if ever, used except as consignant particles set before nouns, and sometimes before verbs, with which they generally amalgamate in composition.

διε, or *βιοε*, *constant*, as *βιη-αιρεβ*, constant habitation, *Visio Adamnani*; *βιοε-δυσαν*, ever-during; *βιε-οίλεαρ*, ever loyal; *βιεοίλpe*, constant inheritance, fee simple.

Com, *κοἠ*, *con*, *κοἠ*. The monosyllable *κοἠ*, or, as it is written before a slender vowel, *κοἠ*, sometimes signifies *equal*, as *τάνο* *ρῖα* *κοἠ* *ἀπο*, they are equally high; and at other times *so*, as *τά* *ρέ* *κοἠ* *ἠ-ολε* *ρῖν*, it is so bad.—See *Conjunctions*. But it is also used in the same sense as the Latin particle *con*, as in *κοἠνεανγα*, connexion; *κοἠφοκα*, a compound word; *κοἠ-ερῦμν*, round, globular; *κοἠνορεαγα*, a union, or meeting;

coṡcpṡoc̄, a confine, a boundary. It is sometimes a mere intensitive particle, as coṡneap̄ap̄, a series; coṡmalcpom, fosterage; coṡp̄ámic̄ oóib̄, “they came together,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 23; coṡéuige, a covering; coṡm̄foillp̄iugaó, to illuminate.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 112; coṡp̄oṡup̄, near, comparative coṡneapa, as ṡp̄ in τ-pleib̄ ba coṡneapa oóib̄, “in the mountain next to them,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 17. p. 123, *a*.

Daṡ; **oeaṡ**, or **oeiṡ**. This word is decidedly an adjective, and the same as the Welsh *dha*, *good*; but it is never used except before its substantive. It is pronounced **oeáṡ** (the *α* long) in Connaught, and **oéaṡ** (the *é* long) in Munster, as **oeaṡ-óaone**, good people; **oéiṡ-ṡeap̄**, a good man. In ancient manuscripts it is most generally written **oaṡ**, or **oaṡ** (without any mark of aspiration on the *ṡ*), as in *Cormac's Glossary*, *voce* **Amṡel**, **oaṡṡechcpape**, “*bonus nuntius*”; **oaṡm̄ácpap̄**, “a good mother, *Id.*, *voce* **ṡuanano**. It is explained as follows in the same work: **oaṡ**, .i. **maṡṡ**, **opoc̄**, .i. **olc**, **ut opoc̄ oo opoc̄aib̄**, **oaṡ oo oaṡaib̄**, “**DAGH**, i. e. good; **DROCH**, i. e. evil, as **DROCH DO DROCHAIBH**, **DAGH DO DAGHAIBH**, i. e. evil to the evil, good to the good.

Opoc̄, or **opoió**, the opposite of **oaṡ**, bad, evil, as **opoc̄-écpap̄**, an evil omen; **opoc̄-ṡúil**, an evil eye; **opoió-ṡníom̄**, an evil deed; **opoió-ṡíol**, bad seed; **cup ṡil i n-opoch-ic̄cpap̄**, “sowing seed in bad soil,” *Mac Conglenn's Dream in Leabhar Breac*. It is explained in *Cormac's Glossary* thus: **opoc̄**, .i. **caó n-olc**, **ut ep̄t**, **opochṡean**, **no opochṡeap̄**, “**DROCH**, i. e. every thing bad, *ut est* **DROCHBHEAN**, a bad woman; **DROCHFHEAR**, a bad man.

En, or **éin**, *one*, as **éinníó**, one, or any thing; **één**, one or any bird. This is in reality the word **aeon**, or **aen**, one, or any; but some of the best Irish writers spell it **én**, or **éin**, when it amalgamates with the substantive.

Eap̄ is sometimes intensitive, as in **eap̄ṡáábáil**, capturing; **eap̄-laṡaó**, arraying; **eap̄oṡlucap̄**, opening.—See *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 127, *b*, *a*.

Fo, or **foi**, *under*, as **foóaoine**, underlings, the lower classes of

men; φοιγέαγα, under branches; ποδάρο, an inferior bard, or poet; ποτάλαμ, lower land, *Cor. Gloss., voce* Εταπέ; ποάρι, slightly curling, as ποτε ποάρι ποροπόα, “slightly curling golden hair,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 116; πεαρ πο-ετανα πο έπέιζ α ρμιορ, “a man worse than meagre [*under-meagre*] whom his marrow had forsaken,” *Teige Dall O’Higgin* in his *Satire on the O’Haras*; πομάμ, subject; πομάμμιούτε, subjects.

Ρριε, or ρριοε, *against*, as, ρριοεδβαλαο, repercussion; ρριεδβαρε, opposition; ρριοεορζαιμ, a seeking, or regaining of plunder, or a counter plunder.—See *Ann. Four Mast.*, 1595, *et passim*.

Π, or ιολ, *many*, of the same power with the Latin *multi*, and the Greek πολυ, in compounds, as ιλριαναιμ, “I torture in various ways,” *Lib. Lecan*, fol. 246, *b*; ιλέαρεαé, of various feats; ιολοάναé, or ιλέαρεαé, polytechnic, or skilled in various trades or arts; να η-ιλέαρεαé, the various languages; ιολέιμγεαé, polygonal; ιλιμασ, very many; ιλανμanna, “various names,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* Ρότ; ιλλάμα, various hands, or branches. This is sometimes, though rarely, used as a separate word, and placed after the noun substantive to which it belongs.

Ου, *great*, as ολλγυε, a loud voice; ολλγοεαé, loud voiced; ολλ-γνίωμα, daring deeds.

Σιε, or ριοε, an intensitive particle, as ριοεφυλαη, good temper, as of a sword or battle-axe; ριεφυλαη α ράμθηαé, the temper of their battle-axes; βαυε ριγóa ροίμορ cu ρονναάαιε ριέαρεα, “a regal, very large residence, with high enclosures,”—*Book of Lismore*, fol. 190, *b*.

Τιυό, or υεοό, *last, final*; as τιυγλάιε, last days; τιυγφλαιε, or υεοό-φλαιε, the last prince, as Σαρδαναπαλυσ υεοό-φλαιε Αρσαρóa, “Sardanapalus, the last sovereign of the Assyrians,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 6; τιυγφλαιε Υλαó ι η-Εαμμαν, “the last prince of Ulster *who dwelt* at Emania,” *Ann. Tighernach*, A. D. 332. Υεογλαί, the evening, as τικ φινσ υóη φυαρ-δοιε υεοόλαιó co φαιρηic αν óολανο cen éeno, “Finn came to the tent in the evening, so that he found the body

without a head," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Οπε*; *θεοῦναιότε*, "the latter end of the night," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107. This prefix is never found in modern books or manuscripts.

Το is frequently prefixed to verbs and verbal nouns as an intensitive particle, as *τοῖλαραετ*, moving, or motion; *τοῦρκαο*, resuscitation; *τοῖαιρη*, summons.

Υη, *υη*, *εαρ*, or *αυη*, *noble*, and sometimes merely intensitive, as *ὑρεποῖθεαε*, noble-hearted; *ὑρηγεαλ*, a famous story; *ὑρεοραε*, the van, front, or very beginning; *υρηαιρη*, *εαρῶαιρη*, or *αυρηαιρη*, illustrious, renowned; *ὑρηαρη*, lofty, very high.

To this list of prefixes might also be added several monosyllabic adjectives which are often placed before their nouns so as to form with them one compound word, as *εαρητ*, just, or right; *εαρητλαρη*, the centre, or very middle; *εαρητμεαοον*, the centre; *οῖ*, entire, as *οῖῖρηρη*, entire submission; *οῖῖοιλεηηη*, amnesty; *οῖῖοιρη*, full fine^a; *αρη*, high, as *αρηο-ρηῖ*, a monarch; *ρηρη*, chief, as *ρηρη-εαηλαρη*, a chief church. Also the adverbs *αν*, very; *ρη*, too; *μορη*, somewhat; *ραρη*, exceedingly, as *αν εαη*, very little; *ρη ρορη*, too great; *μορη μορη*, somewhat [too] large, or rather large; *ραρη-μαιε*, exceedingly good. The substantive *ρηῖ*, a king, is also often prefixed, in the modern language, both to substantives and adjectives, as *ρηῖ-ρηαρη*, a very good, or great man; *ρηῖ-μαιε*, very good. The prepositions *ιορη*, *ειορη*, or *εαοαρη*, *ρηρη*, before, and *τιρη*, about, are sometimes found in composition in a few words, as *εαοαρη-ρηοαρη*, twilight; *ιορη-οεαλβαο*, distinction; *εαρη-αιρηρηρη*, a digression;^b *ιορη-μηρηηηηαο*, interpreta-

^a MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3.

18. col. *a*.

^b *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

tion, i. e. an interlined gloss, or explanation; εἰδιργλεοῦ, distinction; εαδαρ-ρκαπαῶ, separation; πεμπράϊοτε, aforesaid; τιμ-ḡλυαιριμ, I move round; εαδαρ-ḡαο-ḡαλ, jeopardy; εαδαρναϊοε, ambuscade; εαδαρ-ḡράτ, dinner-time.

I cannot close these remarks on the prefixes, or consignant particles, without laying before the reader the whole of what O'Molloy writes on the subject :

“Huiusmodi complexorum, et semisimplicium alia construuntur ex duabus voculis quarum quælibet seorsim ab altera aliquid importat, vt *ḡeallamh* de qua iam dixi, *ḡeal* enim importat candorem, *lamh* verò manum, quæ sunt res diuersæ, adeoque tale complexum vocatur ab Hibernis propriè *comhphocal*. Alia verò non sic, sed construitur ex vna significatiua seorsim, et aliâ voce non significatiua seorsim vt *poighéal*. Construitur enim ex non significatiua *po* Hibernis *ḡpeim phocal*, latinè *pars vocis compositæ*; huiusmodi autem iure dici possunt quasi seù semicomplexa, iisque frequentissimè vtuntur Hiberni, vt *oathuine*, latinè *bonus homo*, *oighbean*, *bona fœmina*. Prima pars huiusmodi semicomplexorum, particula est nihil significans seorsim, iuncta autem substantiuo, aliquid importat peculiare. Et huiusmodi particulis inueni viginti nouem, nempè *an*, *am*, *ath*, *comh*, *oagh*, *oagh*, *ooc*, *oo*, *oi*, *ear*, *eo*, *ecc*, *fel*, *fo*, *in*, *im*, *mi*, *nemh*, *or*, *ppimh*, *pemh*, *pa*, *po*, *ro*, *rieh*, *tim*, *tap*, *tuath*, *ur*, vt in sequentibus *antpach*, *ambhfeapach*, *aḡabcal*, item *aimhoheoin*, *ath-eitheoḡ*, *comhthom*, item *comhphocal*, *oaghmhuintip*, *oighbean*, *oocurpach*, *oitheapḡ*, *oomhuintip*. Item *oomhuinte*, *oiochoirḡ*, *oibhfeirḡeach*, *earccairdear*, *earlainte*, *eaomngean*, *euccruaioh*, *felghniomh*, *fealouine*, *poighler*, *poighliocap*, *inoheunta*, *comḡhpaohuighthe*, *ioimbhualaoth*, *mioheunamh*, *mi-chiall*, *miochairdear*, *neamhthpocairpeach*, *neimhḡhlic*, *orpiaille*, *oipbheannach*, *ppimhchiall*, *ppiomhsohbhar*, *peamhpaiohce*, *pemhpheachuin*, *pachairdear*, *pachlipoe*, *poighniomha*, *poḡpaothach*, *riehchealgach*, *riothpann*, *tpomchuaipce*, *tapcairniughaoth*, *tuathchlear*, *uipreac*, &c. Quarum particularum non quæuis,

sed quibusdam præfigi solent dictionibus, rariores autem sunt *er*, *eo*, *eḡ*, *riḥ*, *rim*, *tar*, *tuath*, et *ur*, vt *urghanna*, latinè *valdè deforme*: particula autem *m* addita voculæfacit voculam importare participium finiens in *du*s, apud latinos, vt *faciendus*, vt *hoc est faciendum*, hibernicè *ní bhfuil ro moeunta*."—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 96–100.

CHAPTER VII.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

THE number of simple prepositions, or short words unsusceptible of inflection, and used to express relations, does not exceed twenty-two; but there are many compound terms made up of these and nouns, which are used in a prepositional sense. A list of both shall be here given.

SECTION 1.—Of simple Prepositions, their simple Meanings, and ancient and modern Forms.

Α, *from*. This frequently occurs in old manuscripts, exactly in the same sense as the Latin *a*, as *α ḡlanpuiréniḡ ná ḡréine*, "from the bright beams of the sun," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 112; and is used even by Keating, as *α h-Ḡirinn*, "out of Ireland:" *α Raḡan*, "from Rahen," *Hist. Irel.*, p. 129. In very old manuscripts, when preceding a word beginning with *l*, it becomes *al*, and unites with the noun, as *allebruib Mamrpech*, "from the books of the Monastery," *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*.

Α, or *ι*, *in*. This is generally written *ι*, or *hι*, in old manuscripts, in which, when it precedes a word beginning with *l*, *m*, or *p*, it is written *il*, *im*, *ip*, or *hil*, *him*, *hip*, and amalgamates with the

noun following, as *na cáinte ro marbaiz for comairce h-Ui Suanaigh hippor cupp*, “the satirists who were slain in violation of the protection of Ua Suanaigh at Roscorr,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 35, *b*; *illám*, in hand; *illaiǵnib*, in Leinster; *immeoan*, in *medio*; *ammuiǵ*, outside (see p. 33); *fozaiǵur Colam Cille Eclair iprachraino oirctiur ðreg*, “Columbkille erects a church at Rachrainn [Lambay] in the east of Bregia,” *Id.*, fol. 16, *b, a*; *ogum illia, lia or lect*, “an ogum in the stone, the stone over the monument,” *Book of Leinster*, p. 25, *b*; *ar in libar ġiur boi immaniptiur*, “from the Short Book which was at the monastery,” *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*; *ir in bliadóan ipromarbat Diarmait ri ġagen*, “in the year in which Diarmait, king of Leinster, was slain,” *Marianus Scotus*, 1070.

Ǫg, *at, with*. This is written *ic, iǵ, oc, and occ*, in ancient manuscripts, as *oc forceoib ġairció do na fianaib*, “teaching feats of arms to the heroes,” *Cor. Gloss., voce ġuanano*; *cao do beir luct in tarpa iǵ rannuǵadó an fína ir na riabrupaib ġearpa*, “what causes thirsty people to long for wine in the short fevers,” *Medical MSS. by John O’Calannan*, 1414; *ic ġlan-ġoilġiu-ǵadó*, “brightly shining,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 112; *cuile rliab fíl ic ðelach Conglair i ġaiǵnib*, “Cuilenn, a mountain which is at Belach Conglais in Leinster,” *Feilire Aenguis*, 24th *Novem.*; *ro bai tri bliáda oéc ic a leiǵiur, ocuip a incinn ac rleadó*, “he was thirteen years under cure, and his brain flowing out,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 209. In combination with the article it often becomes *icon*, as *icon tenió*, “at the fire,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Opc*.

Ǫnn, or *annr*, *in*. The form *annr* is always used before the article, and some writers are in the habit of separating the *r* from the preposition and prefixing it to the article, thus: *ann ran áit*, in the place, for *annr an áit*; but the *r* belongs to the preposition, not to the article, and should be connected with it in this as well as in *ir, leir, or riur, trér, and iarur*.—See Syntax, rule 48. *Ǫnnr* is sometimes also used before the indefinite pronoun *ǵac*, as *annr ǵac áit*, in every place; but Keating, and the best writers of the seventeenth century, use the form *ann* before this

pronoun, as ann gac luing síob, “in each ship of them,” *History of Ireland*, p. 48.

Ar, *on, upon, over*, anciently for, which before the article becomes forr: as Moelbrepail, mac Flaino Lena boi for fogail, “Maelbresail, son of Flann Lena, who was on plunder,” [i. e. a plundering], *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 35, *b*. But the form ar also occurs in manuscripts of considerable antiquity, as ar Ultaib, “on the Ultonians,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 216. It also appears frequently in the *Book of Lecan*, as in the following quatrain:

Marcán diaosa i Dia no char,
Fa cheano ar cléiricib Muman,
Ar forbas saimhlaig co li,
Aobath iar m-buaio n-aithriú.

“Marcan, the divine, who loved God,
Was head of the clergy of Munster,
On having finished churches with splendour,
He died after the victory of repentance.”

—Fol. 220, *b, a*, line 29.

In modern Irish and all Erse books, this preposition is written ar, *air*, and it is pronounced in most parts of Ireland as if written eir; but ar is not to be found in correct manuscripts, excepting as the combination of this preposition with é, him, which is ar, or fair, in the best manuscripts.

Ar, *out of*, Lat. *ex*. This is used generally before the article, as ar na garb-íléib, “out of the rugged mountains,” *Book of Fenagh*, fol. 47, *b, a*. But it is often used without the article, as ar gac áit, out of every place; ar a ceann féin, out of his own head; ar mullaó an tíge, from the top of the house. It is always used in connexion with verbs of motion or taking away.

Dar, *by*. This is used for swearing, in the modern language, as oar mo lám, by my hand; and is to be distinguished from oar, or tar, beyond,—which see.

De, *off, from, of*. The prepositions de and do have long been

confounded together, both being often written oo.—See *Stewart's Gaelic Grammar*, second edition, p. 129, and *Haliday's*, p. 105. Throughout the county of Kilkenny, however, they are used as distinct words, having opposite meanings; the form oe, meaning *of, from, or from off*; and oo, *to, or for*, as ban géaz oe épann, take a branch *from, or off*, a tree; éuit úball oe bápp na géize, an apple fell *off* the top of the branch: tóg ruar oe'n calam é, lift it up *off* the earth; zabair oo Ohoimnallé, give it *to* Daniel; coméao oo Ohiarmano é, keep it *for* Dermot, or Jeremy. But in West Munster, Connaught, and Ulster, the form oe is totally unknown, and oo is employed to express both the relations of *from* and *to*, except in its amalgamation with the pronoun é, when it becomes oe, i. e. *off*, or *from him*, as ban oe é, take it from him; and the above sentences are written, by the Irish scholars of those regions, ban géaz oo épann; éuit uball oo bápp na géize; tóg ruar oo'n calam é, &c. The form oe, however, is frequently found in the oldest manuscripts, as ir pí po in chaillech auroeiric oe Caignib, “this is the celebrated nun of the Lagenians,” *Feilire Aenguis*, in *Leabhar Breac*; oe oerz or, “of red gold,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 70; ocup po gab cach oe fepuib Epeno a n-oréct oe'n bpezhemnar, “and each of the men of Ireland took his own share of the judicature,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358. It is sometimes written even oi, as clap oi licc logmar, “a board of precious stones,” *Tochmarc Etainé*; Fiacc fmo oi Caignib, “Fiacc the fair, one *of* the Lagenians,” *Book of Armagh*, fol. 18, a, 2.

Oo, *to*, and sometimes *from, off, of*.—See Oe. It is used in manuscripts of considerable antiquity for oe, *of, off, or from*, as milí oo milib na n-aingeal az timtipeact oo'n choimóe, “*millia millium angelorum ministrabant ei*,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 15. It is sometimes written ou in very old manuscripts, as ou Patricc, “to Patrick,” *Book of Armagh*, fol. 18. Fiaó, *before*. This is altogether obsolete in the modern language, and the compound prepositional terms, a b-fiaónaire, or of comair, used in its stead.—See Sect. 3, Fiaó.

Ƒα, Ƒο, or Ƒαοι, *under*. Generally written Ƒα, or Ƒο, in old manuscripts. *Example*,—Ƒο μύραιβ ύπε ιμάρα, “under high mounds of earth,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Ƒαπε*; Ƒά α έραιγτίβ, “under his feet,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 294; Ƒο Ƒοάλαιβ τάλμαν, “under subterranean vaults,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 209. This is pronounced Ƒέ in the south of Ireland, but Ƒαοι, or Ƒαίό, in the north and west.

Stewart thinks that *fa* is a different preposition from *fo*, or *fuidh*, the former signifying *upon*, the latter *under*.—*Gælic Grammar*, 2nd edit. p. 128. But there can be no doubt of their being the same preposition, though sometimes having very different idiomatic meanings. We might as well conclude that *le* and *pe* were different words, for we sometimes find *le* to mean *with*, and sometimes *from*.

Ƒαν, *without*. This is generally written *cen* in old manuscripts, as *cranó Ƒæ cen ιαρη Ƒαιρ*, “the shaft of a spear without any iron upon it,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Ƒαπε*. It is also written *can*, *cín*, and *Ƒen*, and is sometimes used as a negative, as *cen α βλαάσ*, not to break it; *Ƒαν α βειε*, not to be.—See *Ƒαν* in Section 3.

Ƒο, *to, till, together with*; Lat. *cum*. This is written *Ƒυρ* before the article, and in ancient manuscripts *co*, *cu*, *cuρ*, as *co n-ετ-ποάτα Ƒρέινε*, with the brightness of the sun.—See *Ƒο* in Section 3.

1.—See *α*. Before the article it becomes *ιρ*, as *λεαƑα criορταιλ αρ n-α n-εααρ ιρ ιη Ƒραιγτίό*, “stones of crystal being set in order in the ceiling,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 156.

Ιαρ, *after*. Before the article it becomes *ιαρρ*. It is generally used before verbal nouns, as *ιαρ n-όεαααμ*, after doing, or making. But it is sometimes used before common substantives, as *ιαρ n-οιλιηη*, after the deluge; *ιαρρ να Ƒηοίμαιβ ρι*, “after those deeds,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 69.

Ιοιρ, or *εαοαρ*, *between*, Lat. *inter*. Is generally written *ιοιρ*, or *ετιρ*, in old manuscripts, as *ιοιρ ριρυ οαυρ μνά*, between men and women; *ιοιρ Ƒλαίτιβ*, among princes.—See *Battle of Magh Rath*, pp. 66, 168, 246.

- Im, about.** In old writings it unites with the article, and both become *immon*, or *imon*, as *pnáitchi immon mép ar nepam so'n luoáin*, "a thread about the finger next to the little finger," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18, p. 376, *b.*—See *um*.
- Ze, or pe, with.** This becomes *leip*, or *rip*, before the article. In ancient manuscripts it is written generally *ppi*, and before the article *ppur*, as *ocur arbert ppi Congal Claen ppi a óalta féin*, "and he said to Congal Claen, to his own foster-son," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24; *po epig in rig so feréam fáilte ppur na rígu*, "the king arose to give welcome to the kings," *Id.*, *ibid.* It is also sometimes written *pa*, as *ie bert ri pa Gobán*, "she said to Goban," *Vit. Moling*. *Ze* is the only form of this preposition now used in Ireland in the spoken language, though *pe* is found in most modern books and manuscripts. It is pronounced *lě* (short) in the south of Ireland, and *lé* (long) in Connaught, and is marked as long throughout the copy of *Keating's History of Ireland*, made by John Mac Torna O'Mulconry, who was a native of the county of Clare.
- Map, like to, as.** This is sometimes placed before verbs, as *map a véarpá*, as thou wouldst say; *surpam map zai a Dhún na Sciath*, "alas for thy state O'Dun na Sciath," *M'Cossey*. In this situation it must be regarded as an adverb. But that the ancients considered it a preposition appears obvious from their placing the nouns influenced by it in the dative or ablative, as *map epén-ferab*, "like unto mighty men," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 152. This preposition is written *mup* by O'Molloy in his *Lucerna Fidelium* throughout, and is so pronounced in Meath and Ulster, but this form is not found in the more correct manuscripts.
- O, from.** This is constantly used in the ancient and modern language; but *a* is sometimes substituted for it in ancient writings, as *a h-Eipinn*, out of Ireland.—See *a* and *ó*, Sect. 3. It is sometimes made *óp* before the plural article, in some parts of the south of Ireland, as *óp na ferab*, from the men; but this is corrupt.
- Op, or up, over.** This is never used as a simple preposition in

the modern language, the compound $\acute{\omicron}\rho$ $\epsilon\iota\omicron\omicron\mu\mu$ being always used in its place ; but it is of constant occurrence in ancient manuscripts as a simple preposition, governing the dative or ablative, as $\omicron\rho$ $\epsilon\alpha\mu\mu\alpha\iota\beta$ α n - $\alpha\rho\mu$, "over the points of their weapons," *Battle of Magh Ragh*, p. 198 ; $\zeta\rho\iota\rho$ $\tau\alpha\iota\tau\eta\eta\epsilon\mu$ $\eta\alpha$ $\zeta\rho\acute{\epsilon}\eta$ $\iota\epsilon$ $\zeta\lambda\alpha\eta$ - $\rho\acute{\omicron}\iota\lambda\lambda\iota\rho\upsilon\zeta\alpha\acute{\omicron}$ $\acute{\omicron}\rho$ $\beta\acute{\omicron}\rho\omicron$ - $\iota\mu\lambda\eta\beta$ $\iota\eta$ $\beta\epsilon\alpha\zeta\alpha$, "the delightful disc of the sun brightly shining over the borders of the earth," *Id.*, p. 112 ; $\beta\alpha\theta\upsilon\zeta$ $\mu\upsilon\iota\rho\chi\epsilon\rho\tau\alpha\iota\zeta$, $\mu\iota\epsilon$ $\Theta\alpha\rho\epsilon\alpha$, α $\tau\epsilon\lambda\epsilon\upsilon\mu\alpha$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\eta\alpha$, $\alpha\iota\theta\epsilon$ $\Sigma\alpha\mu\eta\alpha$ α $\mu\upsilon\lambda\lambda\alpha\chi$ $\text{C}\lambda\epsilon\tau\iota\zeta$, $\upsilon\alpha\rho$ $\delta\omicron\iota\mu\omicron$, "the drowning of Muirchertach, son of Earca, in a puncheon of wine, on the night of All-hallows, on the top of Cletty, near the Boyne," *Ann. Tighernach*, A. D. 534. This entry is given in the *Annals of Ulster*, in Latin, by the original compiler, thus : "*Dimersio Muirchertaig, filii Erce, in dolio pleno vino, in arce Cleteg supra Boin.*"

Re.—See $\zeta\epsilon$.

Ré, or $\rho\iota\alpha$, before the article, becomes $\rho\iota\alpha\rho$, or $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\rho$. Now obsolete, though used by Keating and others, in the middle of the seventeenth century.—See Sect. 3.

Seac, *past, by, besides*. This, which is usually written $\rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}$ in ancient manuscripts, is obviously cognate with the Latin *secus*. It is still in common use, and has two meanings, viz. *besides, beyond*. In parts of the county of Kilkenny, it is pronounced $\rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\rho$, which is very like the Latin *secus*, as $\iota\rho$ $\omicron\lambda\epsilon$ $\alpha\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\rho$ $\acute{\epsilon}$ $\rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\rho$ $\mu\iota\rho\epsilon$, he is a bad man compared to me ; but it is $\rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}$ in most other counties.—See Sect. 3.

Tap, *over, across, over, above*. This is written $\tau\alpha\rho\rho$ before the article ; and in ancient manuscripts $\omicron\alpha\rho$, $\omicron\alpha\rho\rho$.—See Sect. 3.

Tpé, or $\tau\rho\iota\alpha$, *through* ; written $\tau\rho\acute{\epsilon}\rho$, or $\tau\rho\iota\alpha\rho$, before the article. This is still in common use, but pronounced in the south of Ireland as if written $\tau\rho\acute{\iota}$; and in Connaught, and parts of Thomond, $\tau\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron$; but in Connaught more generally $\rho\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron$. But it is never found written $\rho\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron$ in any correct manuscript ; nor $\tau\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron$, except when it amalgamates with the pronoun $\acute{\epsilon}$, him, when it becomes $\tau\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron$, i. e. through him.

Um, or $\iota\mu$, *about*. This is evidently cognate with the old Latin

preposition *am*, and the Greek *αμφι*. In old manuscripts, when this is followed by the article, they amalgamate, and are written *iman*, *imon*, as *επί γλεαντα imon rliab*, “three glens around the mountain,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 207; *σο ποναδ̄ ριγ̄ε̄ech ρό-μόρ αιγι imon τιρρατ*, “a very large royal house was built by him around the well,” *Id.*, fol. 209; *τιρρατ α λάμα α η-έμπεχετ̄ ’mon cloich ο’α ταρραηγ*, “they brought their hands together about the stone, to draw it,” *Id.*, fol. 219, *a*.

For the forms which these simple prepositions assume, when combined with the pronouns, see Chap. IV. Sect. 7.

SECT. 2.—*Of compound, or improper Prepositions.*

These prepositions, like the English prepositional phrases, *on account of*, *in regard of*, *with respect to*, are made up of the simple prepositions and nouns. Their meanings might, therefore, be considered as self-evident to one knowing the significations of the simple prepositions, and the nouns to which they are prefixed, which would render it unnecessary to give any list of them in this place. But it happens that some of the nouns used in forming them have been long obsolete, and that the meaning affixed to the prepositional phrase is often such as could not be directly inferred from the separate meanings of each word; it is, therefore, thought necessary to give a list of them here, with their most usual meanings.

- Α ὅ-ραιλ, *near, in the vicinity of*. This is of frequent occurrence in the Irish Annals, but is now obsolete in the spoken language.
- Α ὅ-ραρραδ̄, *together with; in comparison with*: from α, *in*, and ραρραδ̄, *company*.

- Α β-φιαθναίρε, *in the presence of*: from α, in, and φιαθναίρε, presence.
- Α β-φοάαιρ, *with, together with, along with*: derived from α, in, and φοάαιρ, company, or presence, a substantive now obsolete.
- Α ζ-ceann, or α ζ-cionn, *at the end of*: from α, in, and ceann, a head^c. It also means in the direction of, as πο ζαβρατ πομπα ι ceann Μαιρτινε Μυμαν, "they passed on towards Mairtine, in Munster," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 176, a, a.
- Α ο-ταοβ, *of, concerning; with respect to; with regard to*: from α, in, and ταοβ, side, direction.
- Α ζ-coinne, *against*: from α, in, and coinne, meeting.
- Α λάεαιρ, *in the presence of*: from α, in, and λάεαιρ, spot, presence.
- Α λειε, *to the charge of*: from α, in, and λειε, side, part.
- Α μαίλλε, *with, together with*: sometimes μαίλλε le.
- Α μεαφζ, *amongst*: from α, in, and μεαφc, mix.
- Α η-αζαιθ, *against; in opposition to; in the face of*: as αζ cup α η-αζαιθ ηα φίρυννε, opposing the truth. From α, in, and αζαιθ, face, or front.
- Α η-οάιλ, *in the meeting of*; α ζ-coιθόάιλ, *in the rencounter of*: derived from α, in, and οάιλ, meeting.
- Α η-οιαθ, or α η-οεαζαιθ, *after*: from α, in, and οιαθ, end, a substantive; now obsolete.
- Αη αζαιθ, *forward*: as τά ρέ αζ ουλ αη αζαιθ, he is progressing, or improving. From αη, on, and αζαιθ, the face, or front.
- Αη αμυρ, *towards*: from αη, on, and αμυρ, aim, approach, attack.

^c Stewart says that "there is in Gaelic a noun 'cion,' or 'cionn,' signifying *cause*, which occurs in the expressions, 'a chionn gu,' *because that*, 'cion-fath,' *a reason, or ground*. But this word is entirely different from 'ceann' [head], *end, or top*." — *Gaelic Grammar*, 2nd edit. p. 133, n. 9. But Stewart is decidedly wrong in supposing these to be two dif-

ferent words, for the fact is, that ceann, *a head*, which is often written cinn, cino, and cionn, in Irish, is often figuratively used to denote *cause, account*; and the Irish even, when speaking English, in those districts where the Irish language is forgotten, use the phrase, "*on the HEAD of it*," to signify *on account of it, or by cause or reason of it*.

Ἀρ βέλαιβ, *before, in front; in preference to.*—See *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1019, 1583; ζονταιρ nech οια μιντιρ αρ α βέλαιβ, “let one of his people be wounded before his face,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358.

Ἀρ bun, *on foundation, established*: κυρ πέ αρ bun έ, he established it.

Ἀρ-ceann, *for, in conjunction with*: αρ α ζ-σιονν, meeting them. This is generally written φορ οινο in ancient manuscripts.

Ἀρ cúλαιβ, or αρ ζ-cúl, *behind, back*: κυρ αρ ζ-cúl, put back, abolish. From αρ, on, and cul, the back.

Ἀρ φαο, *in length; throughout; entirely*: from αρ, on, and φάο, length.

Ἀρ φαο, *throughout*: from αρ, on, and φαο, space.

Ἀρ φυο, *throughout*: from αρ, on, and φυο, now obsolete.

Ἀρ ρζάε, *on pretence*: from αρ, on, and ρζάε, shadow.

Ἀρ ρον, *for the sake of, on account of*: from αρ, on, and ρον, sake.

Co nuige, or ζο nuige, *until; so far.*

Chum, or οο chum, *to, unto, for the purpose of.* Sometimes used for the simple preposition οο, to, after a verb of motion.

Ἐίρ, *after*: from οε and έίρ, now obsolete.

Ἰονηραιγιό, *towards*: from οο, to, and ιονηραιγιό, approach.

Doćum, *towards*: ι η-οοćum, Id.—*Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1233.

Do πέίρ, *according to*: from οο, to, by, and πέίρ, will, accord.

φο όαιγιν, *towards.*

ζο nuige, *until; so far.*

ζο ο-τί, or ζο ροίε, *to, unto*: as cúαιό πέ ζο ο-τί αν άιτ ριν, he went to that place, for cúαιό πέ ζυρ αν άιτ ριν, or ćum na h-άιτε ριν.

Ze h-αγαίό, *for the purpose of*: from le, with, and αγαίό, face.

Ορ σιονν, *overhead, over.*

Ταρ cean, *besides; for the sake of.*

Ταρ έίρ, *after.*—See Ἐίρ.

Τιμćeall, or α ο-τιμćeall, *about.* Τιμćeall, which is a substantive denoting circuit, ambit, is generally pronounced as if written τιμπιoll, or τίομπull.

Several other compound prepositions, or rather phrases, are of a prepositional nature, but their meanings are generally manifest from the simple prepositions, and the nouns which enter into their composition. In parsing, each word should be construed according to its class ; but the learner should note the prepositional sense of the whole phrase.

SECTION 3.—*Of the simple and idiomatic Meanings of the Prepositions.*

It seems desirable to give in this place examples of the idiomatic applications of the prepositions : first, because these idiomatic meanings would become almost unintelligible, if the language ceased to be a spoken one ; secondly, because the idiomatic meanings of the prepositions are not fully indicated in any Irish dictionary, and present almost insuperable difficulties to such as attempt to study the language.

Α, from.

This preposition is not used in the modern spoken language, but it occurs in ancient manuscripts, and even in the works of Keating and other writers of the seventeenth century, in the same sense as ο, from, or αρ, out of, as οο οιβριοδ Carthach α Ραζαν γο λιορ μόρ, “ St. Carthach was banished from Rathain to Lismore,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 129 ; α γ-cup α ρειλβ α ρεαν, “ their having been driven from the inheritance of their ancestors,” *O’Daly Cairbreach, in Elegy on O’Donovan*, 1660 ; αν οβαυρι οο εαυρανγ α ζαιοιν α η-ζαεοιλγ ο’εοιν O’Callannan, “ this work was translated from Latin into Irish, by John O’Callannan,” *Old Medical MSS.*, finished A. D. 1414.

When the following noun begins with a vowel, an *h* is prefixed to it, to prevent an hiatus, as *α h-Εἰρῆνη*, “from Ireland,” *Keat. Hist.*; *α mac ο'νοσαρβαδ α h-Εἰρῆνη ζαν ποδαινο*, “her son was expelled from Ireland without reason,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 89.

Α, *ann*, *annah*, *ι*, *ιρ*, *in*.

This corresponds with the Latin *in*, and the Greek *εις*, *ἐν*, and commonly marks the term of rest, or the state in which a thing is: *α ο-τιζ*, in a house; *ann ζαδ άιτ*, in every place; *annah an m-baile*, in the town, or at home; *ι πυσομαιν ιρῆνη*, “in the depths of hell,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 47, *b, b*; *αρ να τοδαιτ λε ποηपुरα ιρ ιν ζ-cloic*, “being cut in the stone with a chisel,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1545.

After a verb of motion it denotes *into*, as *cuaiδ γε αρτεαδ ιρ an τιζ*, he went into the house; *ιαρ η-α ροδ ι ζ-clocaib*, “after being converted into stones,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 47, *b, b*.

Sometimes, though rarely, it means *upon*, as *α mullaδ ιν ενουε*, “on the top of the hill,” *Id.*, fol. 155; *α mullaδ an τιζε*, on the top of the house. But *αρ* would express the relation more distinctly in these instances.

For, or *in recompense for*, as *caδ ποδ ι η-α ειν*, “the thief [is to be given up] for his crime,” *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* *Μοζ* *Ειμε*. This meaning is still in common use, as *ταβαρραιδ γε οιοι ann*, he will give satisfaction for it, or he will suffer for it.

When compounded with the possessive pronouns, and the personal pronouns joined with the verb substantive *ταιμ*, *βιμ*, *φυιμ*, it denotes existence generally, or existence in a certain state, as *ηι φυι α λειτερο ann*, such does not exist; *an b-φυι γε ann?* Is he there? *τα γε ηα εαρβοζ*, he is a bishop, literally, he is *in his* bishop; *τα Cμιορτ ηα Θηια αγυρ ηα ουμε*, Christ God and man; *οο ηριζ ζο παβε ηα ζεινε αρ θεαρζ-λαραδ οο ζηαδ Θε*, “because she [St. Bridget] was a red-glowing fire from the love of God,” *Keat. Hist. Irel.*, in the reign of Oilioll Molt.

Αζ, anciently *αc*, *ιc*, *ιζ*, *occ*, *οζ*, *at*.

It is cognate with the English *at*, and the Latin *ad*; it marks

the relation of contiguity, and is generally used with a verb of rest, as *bí ré aḡ an oopur*, he was at the door; *tá ré aḡ bun an cnuic*, it is at the foot of the hill; *icon tenið*, “at the fire,” *Cor. Glos.*, voce *Opc*.

By reason of, as *ní cluinim focal uairt aḡ topann an eara*, “I hear not a word from thee, for [i. e. on account of] the noise of the cataract.”

Of, having a gen. plural force, when compounded with the pronouns *inn*, *ib*, *iað*, as *ḡac aon aḡunn*, each one of us; *ḡac buine aca*, each man of them. It is curious that *aḡ* never has this meaning in its simple state.

Denoting relation of possession, like the dative case in Latin, when the verb *sum* is put for *habeo*, as *ta ór aḡam*, I have gold; literally, gold is to, or with me, *aurum est mihi*; *ní fuil a ppor aḡe*, he knows it not; literally, its knowledge is not with him; *riaḡraḡur an cléipeac síob an maosla oo bí aca*, “the cleric asks of them whether it was cakes they had,” *Vit. Coemgeni*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 4. 4.

When prefixed to a verbal noun, they form an expression equivalent to the present, or active participle in other languages, as *aḡ bualað*, striking; literally, a’ striking, or at striking. This idiom is exactly like the English, a going, a hunting; which was anciently *on going*, &c.

Ar, anciently ppor, pporr, on, upon.

It seems to be cognate with the English *over*, the Saxon *ofre*, but always expresses the relation of contact and higher position, like the English *on*, as *ar mullað an t-rléibe*, on the summit of the mountain; *por teamair ocuḡ oingna na caépac*, “on the wall and tower of the city,” *Siege of Troy*, in Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 15. p. 131, line 5; *porr in clár*, “on the board,” *Tochmarc Etaine*; *por a ḡlúimib*, “on his knees,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1602; *porr na tibrasuib*, “on the wells,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ará*; *Oilill Flannbec por Mumain an mbuio rin*, “Oilill Flannbeg was king over Munster at that time,” *Id.*, voce *Moḡ Eim*; *ar bpu Nícha*, “on the bank of the [river] Nith,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl.

H. 3. 17. p. 1 ; φορ βρυ μαρια n-lcht, "on the brink of the Iccian sea," *Cor. Gloss., voce Μοξ Θιμε* ; αρ να μάρια, on the morrow ; αρ α λάμν ελί, "on his left hand," *Keat. Hist., pp. 94, 115* ; οο h-οιλεαο αρ πεοιλ ναοιοεαν ί, "she was fed on the flesh of infants," *Id., Preface* ; ταβαρ αγαο ορρα, face them.

It is sometimes used instead of οαρ, to denote an oath, as αρ μο λάμν, by my hand ; αρ μ' ποαλ, upon my word.—See Οαρ.

It must sometimes be rendered in English by *in, into*, as αρ νεαμ, in heaven ; αρ μαοιοι, in the morning ; αρ οεορμιοεαετ, in exile ; αρ μο εμαρ, in my power ; αρ ρειλβ, in the possession : βοι τρα οιρνε αμιν φορ ρειλβ εαρυτ οο Choipri Μυρ ε m-θρεετνυ, "there was then a beautiful dog in the possession of a friend of Coirpri Musc in Britain," *Cor. Gloss., voce Μοξ Θιμε* ; α πομν αρ οο, "to divide it into two [parts]," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 17. p. 653.

It must be sometimes rendered in English by *under and of*, as αρ ργαε α βειε 'n-α ριλβ, "under the pretence of being a poet," *Keat. Hist., p. 7* ; αρ φοργαο, under shelter ; ρυλιγγεοιο αρ ραοτραιβ, "*in laboribus patientissimi*," *Id., p. 14* ; αν ταν βα τορραε ί αρ, "when she was pregnant of him," *Id., ibid.*

When following the verb βειρμ, it denotes compulsion, cause, or inducement, as τυγ αρ ιγγεαν υι Ραγγιλλιγ οο λειγεαν αγυρ α ιγγεαν ρεμ οο ταβαρτ, "he induced him to put away O'Reilly's daughter, and marry his own daughter," *Ann. Four Mast., A. D. 1365* ; τυγ Colam αρ θηαιοειν οεοε οο ταβαρτ ρο ερι οο Sgannlan, "Columb caused Baithenus to give Sgannlan a drink thrice," *Keat. Hist., p. 126.*

It denotes claim of debt, when joined with the verb substantive, as τα αιργεαο αγαμ αρ, he owes me money ; literally, money is to me *on him* ; γαν αν θοπομια ο'αγραιο ορρα, "not to demand the Borumean tribute of them," *Id., p. 115.*

When coming after verbs of asking, requesting, or beseeching, it is rendered by the English *of*, as γυοιομ ορτ, I beseech thee, or implore of thee ; ιαρραρ Μολιγγ ιμαο ρεελερα φορ Φιγγιμ, "Moling asks of Finghin a place for a church," *Vit. Moling Luachra.*

When coming after verbs of excelling, or conquering, it denotes *over, above*, as *ingion álumh do éin ar innáib a comámpire a g-crué agur a rgeím*, “a beautiful damsel who excelled [*went over*] all the women of her time in personal shape and beauty,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 78, see *Do*; *ruz pe buaió orm*, he overcame me; *buaió pe ort*, he excelled, or exceeded thee.

When set before a verbal or abstract noun, it has the same force as *in*, as applied in such English phrases as *in motion, in action*, as *ar ruéal*, in motion, *Keat. Hist.*, p. 79; *ar foluamain*, a fluttering; *ar crié*, trembling; *ar rnáim*, afloat; *ar marcuioeáct*, a riding; *ar euloó*, in elopement; *ar teíteáó*, on flight; *ar ázáioe*, in use; *ar valzácar*, in fosterage; *for merpáó*, a feeding on acorns, *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Moğ Eime*; *ar veorpuioeáct*, in exile, *Id.*, p. 73; *ar maréain*, alive, in existence, *Id.*, p. 114; *ar veapglapáó*, red-flaming.

When coming after verbs of guarding, keeping, protecting, saving, and others of a similar analogy, it denotes *against*, as in the following passage in the Hymn of St. Patrick in the *Liber Hymnorum*: *rciath Dé dom oizin, rochraize Dé domm anuoul ar inleouib demna, ar arlaigzhib uaiúchet, ar ipnechtuib aicno, ar cech nouine miour zharzhar uam*, “may the shield of God protect me, may the host of God defend me *against* the snares of demons, *against* the temptations of vices, *against* the inclinations of the mind, *against* every man who meditates opposition to me;” *ar éomannuib céca bliáona*, “*against* the diseases of each year,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *ðellzaine*; *coimez ar fuáct*, “a defence *against* the cold,” *Id.*, voce *Culpaiz*; *ua g-caóinna ar oilinn*, “to protect them *against* the deluge,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 28; *ar é leigear fuair Caicher oraoi dóib ar ceol na muróucann ceir do leagáó na g-cluapáib go nac cloiróir ní óe*, “the remedy which Caicher the Druid got for them *against* the music of the Syrens was to melt wax into their ears, so that they could not hear any of it,” *Id.*, p. 48; *ar lorcaó váigi, coipe fearna do éognam ocup a ruz do plugáó*, “*against* the heart-burn; to chew the bark of the alder, and to swallow its juice,” *Old Med. MS.* 1352; *ruz Colam Cille pa veapa ann rin epí naoi g-ceoláin do buain ar Chonall*, “then

Columbkille ordered that thrice nine small bells should be rung against Conall," *Id.*, p. 124; *βισοαρ ρσορ αρ αν m-bar*, "they were free from death," *Gallagher's Sermons*.

When set before the patient it connects it with the noun denoting the passion, or object which causes the suffering, as *τα εαγλα ορη*, fear is upon me, i. e. I am afraid; *τα οσραρ ορη*, hunger is upon me, i. e. I am hungry; *βί νάρη αρ*, shame was upon him, i. e. he was ashamed; *τα ρυατ oppaun*, cold is upon us, i. e. we are cold; *έυρη πέ ρολάρ αρ μο έροιθε*, he put joy on my heart; *τεατ σο λορεαθ άρη*, to burn a house on him, i. e. to burn a house, he being in it, *Ann. Four Mast., passim*; *τυγαθ λεαρ-αινμ αρ*, a nick-name was imposed upon it; *αν έευο αιμμ τυγαθ αρ Ειρηνη Ινηρ να β-ρίοθβαθ*, "the first name given [imposed] on Erin was *Inis na bhfiódhbhadh* (i. e. the island of the woods)," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 21; *ευρη αν γλαρ αρ αν οσραρ*, lock the door, literally put the lock on the door; *νοθα ραιβε αρ οομαν ουνε ρα λυγα αρ λυτ Ατα ελιατ Ιονα Mac Μυρchaθα*, "there was not in the world any one more hateful to the people of Dublin than Mac Murrrough," *Id.*, p. 126; *τα ρυατ αγαμ αιρ*, I have hatred for it, i. e. I hate it; *τά γράο αγαμ ορη*, I have love for thee; *τά μεαρ μόρ αγαμ ορη*, I have a great regard for thee; *νά βρηρ αν βατα ριν ορη*, do not break that stick upon me, meaning, do not break that stick, I being the owner, and loser in case of its being broken.

It sometimes denotes *on*, or *at*, when set before the name of a trade, art, craft, game, or musical instrument, as *αγ ιμρητ αρ ελάρηγ*, playing upon a harp; *αμ ματ-ρε em, ol Eochaidh, ρορ ριτ'ελλ*, "art thou good, said Eochaidh, at chess," *Tochmarc Etaine*.

It has also various other meanings, which cannot be easily reduced to rules, as will appear from the following examples :

Of, or *concerning*, as *ετατα μέ τράτ αιρ*, I heard talk of him.

To, or *for*, as *αν ρρεαγρα ευθνα σο βειρημ αρ γατ ργελ οά γ-ευρηονη ρίορ αρ αν β-ρημ*, "the same reply I make to every story which he sets down concerning the Fenians," *Keat. Hist.*,

p. 11. In this sentence we have an example of the two meanings of *ar* just mentioned, namely, *to* and *concerning*.

Of, or among, as *γαβαῖρ Cormac aḡ poimn na n-uball for* [.i. *amearḡ*] *μαῖεῖβ Múiman*, "Cormac proceeds to divide the apples among the chiefs of Munster," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 143; *Ἦο pannaō an curo oile do'n feoil ar an ḡ-comóáil*, "that he used to distribute the rest of the flesh amongst the assembly," *Id.*, p. 5; *βαοι τpa an Cormac po ar na rioḡaῖb ba h-eaḡnuioe oár ḡab Eipe piam*, "this Cormac was amongst the wisest of the kings that governed Ireland," *Id.*, p. 90.

To, or meeting to; *capáō oim iao*, I met them; *ταπλα pluaḡ mór oppa*, "they met a great host," i. e. *multitudo magna occurrit illis*. The preposition *do* is often used in this sense, *q. v.*

For the sake of: for the modern *ar fon*: *ar í no fulong mór maḡpa ar Ṯhia*, "it is she that suffered great martyrdom for the sake of God," *Irish Calendar*; *beip lat meipi, or in clam do'n eclair ar Ṯhia*, "bring me with thee, said the leper, to the church, for the sake of God," *Vit. Moling*; *no épéiḡ ceé san ar diaóáct*, "he forsook every profession for piety," *Amhra Cholaim Cille*; *iar o-épéiḡeáō a riḡe ar cleipéaáct*, "having resigned his kingdom for the priesthood," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 729.

Opposition to, prevailing over, as *ta ré aḡ cup oim*, he is opposing me, or it is afflicting me; *creao ta opt*, what ails thee; *creao ta uippe*, what is to do with her? i. e. what is it that ails or afflicts her? *o'éaḡla ḡo paíao aca oppa*, "lest they might prevail over them," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 33; *oa n-oeaíao áḡao ar na Collaib*, "if thou shouldst prevail over the Collas," *Id.*, p. 100.

For, or in respect of. It is very frequently used in this sense in the ancient and modern language, as will appear by the following examples: *Ní fuil a leiéio beo ar olcar*, there is not such another for badness living; *ar oe ao beapra Ṯaéi ppiḡ*, .i. *ar óaíte a ḡabaltauḡ aḡur a lámairḡ*, "he was called Dathi, from the expertness of his attack and shooting," *Tribes and Customs of the Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 20, and *Keat. Hist.*, p. 110. The following verses, containing some emphatic examples of this meaning of *ar*:

Ar gráð, ar uamán, ar fuaç,
 Na beip,—bí ao breiteam neam-luaç,—
 ðreaç nár cóip, A ðhonncað ðuit,
 Ar comcaib óip ná arçuit.

“ For love, for fear, for hatred,
 Do not pass,—be not a hasty judge,—
 A sentence which would not be right, O'Donnchadh, for thee,
 For bribes of gold, or silver.”

—*Ode to the Earl of Thomond, by Teige Mac Dary.*

Ar a çaoip, ar a eapçna,
 Ar a çeonur ppi olcup,
 Ar a çloç, ar a çonnla,
 Tuac ip tomra dia toçae.

“ For his wisdom, for his intellect,
 For his opposition to evil,
 For his renown, for his prudence,
 The laity and clergy are selecting him.”

—*Ode to Brian na Murtha O'Rourke.*

ðéð mór pe a maioeam a b-çao
 Teipt maicne Moçca Nuadao,
 Aç teipt Carbreac do éi an çeall
 Ann çac ap-çuaic ð'iaç Eipeann,—
 Ar neapçaipe, ar nóp a m-breac,
 Ar çpuar lám ameaçç Muimneac,
 Ar çpóacç a ç-çeápvaiç çliað
 Aç çopnam Muinian Maicniað;
 Ar meimn p'op-ççloin, ar çeapóacç,
 Ar líonçaipe, ar çeapamlaç.

“ Though great to be boasted of from time remote
 Is the character of the race of Mogh Nuadhad,
 The character of the Carbrians has won the palm
 In every district of the land of Erin,—
 For strength, for the manner of their judgments,

course of small cords, he drove them all out of the temple," *John*, ii. 15.

It also gives the verbal noun the force of the passive participle, as *ap n-a bualaö*, he being struck; literally, *on his striking*; *ap aázal*, found, i. e. *inventus*; *le pažal*, *inveniendus*.—See *Ze*.

Ap, literally out of; Lat. *ex*.

This preposition has but one meaning, namely, *out of*, or *from out of*, as in the following examples: *no epcomla a aimm ap a cupp*, "his soul went forth from his body," *Visio Adamnani*, in *Leabhar Breac*; *ap in capcar*, "out of the prison," *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*; *éanic pluaz mör ap žac áipö*, "a great host came from every direction," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 52; *por impoi in leřcar, ocup ařpöcar ařp ino neiñ*, "*calice inverso venenum effudit*," *Id.*, fol. 14, *a, a*; *ap cac ařpöam ina poile*, "from one porticus to another;" *ap na žairb-řléiřcib*, "out of the rugged mountains," *Book of Fenagh*, fol. 47, *b, a*. *Ap ař*, out of joint; *ap ionao*, out of place, or dislocated. *Đain ap*, castrate, emasculate; *beip ařp*, escape, flee; *řá řé ař oul ap žo mör*, he is declining, or reducing much. *Cá n-ap é*, or *cao ap öö?* where is he from? *ca n-ap řancabair a oža?* "whence have ye come, o youths?" *Book of Lismore*, p. 199, *b*; *co ná řepna řepcibal ařp*, "so that not one escaped," *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce Coipe Đpecáin*.

Öap, by.

This is frequently used in old manuscripts for the modern *řar*, *over*, *beyond*, as *no žabřat öap řpuřcar na Đóinnö*, "they passed over the stream of the Boyne," *Book of Leinster*, fol. 105. But it is now always used for swearing, *öap žo řeiñin*, "by the truth," *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 291,—a use to which it is also frequently applied in old writings, as *öap mo Đeřpöř*, "*hoc est, per Deum meum judicem sive judicii*," *Trias Thaum.*, p. 4; *öap láin m'atřar*, "by the hand of my father," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107, *a, a*, and *Vit. Moling*. In the spoken language they use it in such expressions as the following: *öap mo Đriacřar*, by my word; *öap břiž na n-öül*, by the virtue of the elements; *öap Ciarán*, by St. Kieran;

uar láim Lachtín, by the hand of St. Lachtin. Uar Darre, “by St. Barry,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107; uar Imbliuch n-Ibair, “by Emly,” *Id.*, *ibid*; uar mo vebróth, ol Cathal, ní bár pemí riam ní ir meppu, “by my Good Judge, said Cathal, I never was worse before,” *Id.*, fol. 108.

De, di, off, from.

This preposition, as already observed, has long been confounded with oo, but it would add much to the perspicuity of the language, if they were kept separate. The following examples of de, *of, off*, as a different preposition from oo, which is almost unknown, except in the diocese of Ossory, and East Munster, are added from ancient manuscripts, and from the living language, as spoken in East Munster: no ríter tra Fíno an rcél, ocur ba voğnarraoh ve'n mnai, “Finn then knew the story, and he was disgusted with [of] the woman,” *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* Orp; no lil aimm de, “the name clung unto it,” *Id.*, *voce* Moğ Eime; no éuit Alaran oi eoch, “Alasan fell from his horse,” *Vit. Moling*.

It is sometimes rendered into English by *to*, as lean de, stick *to* it, or persevere in it. And sometimes *off*, as bñr géag de épann, break a branch off a tree; ban de é, take it from him; léigim oíom gan leanmam oppa ní ar foide, “I leave off treating of them any longer,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 12; léigir an rígha de, “he resigns the kingdom,” *Id.*, p. 108; pep-bolğ oi ríğí róno cpeu-mae, “a chess man-bag of brass wire,” *Tochmarc Etaine*.

It is sometimes set before the substantive of which any thing is made or filled, and then it is properly translated by the English *of*, as véanta de óp, made of gold; líonta de airgeao, filled *with* [of] silver.

It must sometimes be Englished *for*, as umbur, ol Míour, ní immér acé oi gíull ol Eochaid, “play, said Midir, I will not but *for* a wager, said Eochaidh,” *Tochmarc Etaine*.

Do, to.

This preposition literally denotes *to*, and is used, like the dative case in Latin, after all verbs put acquisitively, as tug a ríule oo óallaib, a lúe oo bácaíab, a ó-teangta oo goaib, a g-cluara

σο δοόραθ̄, “he gave their sight to the blind, their agility to the lame, their speech to the dumb, their hearing to the deaf,” *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 41; ιρ οεβενν ουν ιουου, α Μaelbrigde, cluene-
 ναιρ ιρ ιν Θαρσοεν ρια ρειλ Ρεταιρ, “happy for us [i. e. happy
 are we] this day, O’Maelbrigde, Recluse! on the Thursday before
 the festival of Peter,” *Marianus Scotus*, 1072; λέιγ σο, let him be,
 let him alone.

It were well if the form σο had been always used in this dative
 or acquisitive sense; but, unfortunately, it is very generally put for
 οε, *of, off, from, or by*, even in the best manuscripts, which tends
 to much obscurity, as will appear from the following examples:

Of, or from, as σο ρατ Μολαιρι ριουθ̄ α θαρπειγε σο’ν ερουν
 σο, “Moling gave him the roofing of his oratory of the tree [the
 Eo Rossa],” *Vit. Moling*; αρ ιρ σο εραιοιουβ εν ριουθ̄ οουρ ιθα-
 εταθ̄ σο ζιουθερ ιν ταιγεν ριλεθ̄, “for it is *of* the skins of white
 and particoloured birds that the poet’s *toga* is made,” *Cor. Gloss.*,
voce Ταιγεν; ραρχα τειντιθε σο ηιμ ρορ μαρθ̄ [αρ ηιγ Ζυγαθ̄]
 ιαρ η-ουιλταθ̄ ιν Ταιλγιου, “a flash of lightning from heaven killed
 him [king Lughaidh] after having protested against the Tailginn”
 [St. Patrick]; σο’ν ταοθ̄ ειαρ σο’ν ργειλγ α η Γλεανν θα λοχ,
 “at the west side of the Skellig [rock] at Glendalough,” *Vita*
Coemgeni; λάν αν θαρπειρι σο ζιραν ρεκαλ, “the full of the ora-
 tory of rye grain,” *Vit. Moling*; λυαιετερ ρειγ σο αιλλ, “more
 swift than the hawk from the cliff,” *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* Ρpull.

For, or as, for μαρ: βαοι ουμε ναοιμετα σο βραταιρ αγ
 Γυαιρε, “Guair had *for* [or *as*] a kinsman a holy man,” *Keat.*
Hist., p. 119; βευραιου να η-οιγ βιαρ αρ σο ειοιου Διαρμου ρυα-
 ναιγ θ’αιειρ ορε, “the youths who shall meet thee shall call thee
 Diarmuid Ruanaigh *for* [as] an insult,” *Id.*, p. 130; θα ρλαθραθ̄
 θεγ ιαρνουγε σο εουβριουθ̄ αιρ, “he had twelve chains of iron upon
 him as fetters,” *Id.*, p. 125; ρυλ ταιουγ σο [.ι. οε] λέν εζγαμ
 ειρριουθ̄ θ’ιαρριουθ̄ γιαιλλ ορη, “before it occurred as a misfortune
 to me that he should demand hostages of me,” *Id.*, p. 157.

By a place, as τάνκαθαρ ρομπα σο Ζυιμνεαθ̄, οουρ σο
 Chuaille Cheparin α η-εχτεγε, οουρ σο Ζοθ̄ να βο γηρρε, ριρ α
 η-αθαρεαρ Ζοθ̄ Γρεινε, “they came on by Limerick, by Cuaille

Chepain in Echtge, and by Loch na bo girre, which is called Loch Greine," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 199. In this sentence the *oo* would be made *oe* at present throughout the diocese of Ossory.

It is set after a verb of motion to a place for the modern *go*, or *cum*, as *Luio Comgall denochair oo thig athar Colmain Dubhuilinn*, "St. Comgall of Bennchor went to the house of the father of Colman of Dubhuilinn," *Feilire Aenguis*, 24th Nov.; *o loc oo loc*, "a loco ad locum," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Αμφορ*; *pechtur luio oo tiz apoile eir*, "one time that he went to the house of another poet," *Id.*, voce *Zezeç*; *pul laibeóram ar ériall Niul ó'n Scíria oo'n Eiript*, "before we shall treat of Niul's departure from Scythia to Egypt," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 44.

By, denoting the instrument, means, &c., as *iar n-a g-cup oo Thpém ghuab-íoluir a raócaib bpoç*, "after their having been transformed into the shapes of badgers by Grian of the bright cheek," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 42; *iar n-a gúin o' rianab Mic Con*, "after having been mortally wounded by the soldiers of Mac Con," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Μοç Ειμε*; *o'éc oo bíoög i n-a imócaib*, "he died of a sudden in his bed," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1400; *oo marbaó o'eargar*, "was killed by a fall," *Id.*, A. D. 1360; *Marbur Seadan mac Mathgamna Uí Choncoðair o'á láim buóein*, "he slays John, son of Mahon O'Conor, with his own hand," *Id.*, A. D. 1391.

In, on, at, as *oo ló agur o'óíóce*, by day and night; *o'á raðar-ra*, on a day as I was; *la éigin o'ár' éiriz O'Donna-báin ruar*, "a certain day on which O'Donovan rose up," *Poem repeated before the Duke of Ormond*, in 1648; *oo'n taob eile*, on the other side.

Towards, at, when set after a verb of motion, as *lapoóam colleci oia pepaib pibóilli oo'n techtaire*, "with that he flings one of his chessmen at the messenger," *Tain bo Cuailgne*.

Over, above: *Caç ionar bhirioó oo Thoinnall oo ðeaprgnaiz a n-eineac, a n-óeirç, agur a n-ðonnaacç o'raupaib Eirionn*, "a battle in which Domhnall was defeated, who in hospitality, charity, and humanity, excelled [all] the men of Ireland," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 118.

By, in the sense of the ablative absolute in Latin : as Μαρ ριν οόιβ ζο μαριν, thus they fared till morning, i. e. thus by them [the time was spent] till morning ; ιαρ η-ουλ οόιβ, after their having gone, i. e. after going by them ; αρ η-βειε όαη, I being, i. e. on being by me ; καο αρ οο, where is he from ?

Of, or *concerning* : αγ ρο ην σεατραμαό καθριολ οέο ηοό λαδρυρ οο'η λειζιυρ ηαίσεαό, "this is the fourteenth chapter, which speaks of corrosive medicine," *Old Med. MS.* 1414.

Όα.

Όά is sometimes a union of οε or οο with the possessive pronoun α, his, her's, or their's ; or with the relative α, who, which. In either case it has been already explained ; but it is sometimes not so compounded, as in the following examples, where it seems to be used as a simple word, signifying *though* : Νί ρυη ρεοο οά ύλη, there is not a jewel, *though* fine ; ηί ρυη ραυόβρεαρ οά μέιο, there is no wealth, *though* great. Stewart, in his *Gælic Grammar*, 2nd edit. p. 138, writes it *d'a* in this sense, by which he gives us to understand that he regarded it as compounded of the preposition *de*, or *do*, and the possessive pronoun *a* ; but this is not self-evident. The phrases, οά ύλη, οά μέιο, in such sentences as above aduced, unquestionably mean, "be it ever so fine," "be it ever so great." But it has not been yet clearly shewn what part of speech οά is ; ύλη and μέιο are undoubtedly abstract nouns, denoting fineness, greatness ; and therefore, if the ο in οα be, as Stewart assumes, an abbreviation of οε, *of*, then the literal meaning of the phrases would be, "of its fineness," "of its greatness ;" but this would not express the intended idea by any stretch of language. It may, therefore, be conjectured that οα is a conjunction equivalent to, and cognate with, the English *though*, as in the phrase "*though great.*" But an abstract noun following οά in Irish presents an objection to this supposition, which could not be removed by any arguments derived from the strict principles of grammar. We must, therefore, conclude that such phrases as οά μέιο, οά ύλη, οά λιονηαρεαότ, and such like, are solecisms, which cannot be accounted for on the strict principles of grammar,

verbs of motion, as *τιομαι* *να* *βα* *αμας* *φα*'*ν* *μ-βόταρ*, drive the cows out upon the road; *τειλξ* *φο*'*ν* *ταλμαι* *ιασ*, cast them upon the earth. *Θηυαι* *α* *ceann* *φα* *απραιξ* *cloice*, "she struck her head against a rock," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 74; *ληγιρ* *φέν* *αγυρ* *α* *ηλυαξ* *φο* *cloinn* *Uirnoic*, "he himself and his host rush upon the sons of Uisnioch," *Id.*, *ibid.*; *σο* *cuaiò* *ιαrum* *Cuanna* *φο*'*ν* *ξ-coill*, "Cuanna afterwards went to the wood," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 276; *cuipir* *φέν* *φα* *βυαιò* *ζαιξεν*, "he put affright upon the cows of Leinster," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 18. fol. 216, *b*; *φα* *ε̄ιρ* *υαινε* *Ᾱμαλγαò*, "along the green Tirawley," *Giolla Iosa Mor Mac Firbis*; *φο*'*ν* *Μάιξ* *moill*, "along the sluggish Maigne," *O'Heerin*; *φα*'*ν* *αμ* *ροιν*, "at that time," *Keat. Hist.*, pp. 45, 92, 106; *βαιοιμ* *φιαλα* *φίρ-ειμιξ* *φα* *βιαò* *ιασ*, "they are a generous, truly hospitable people *under* (of) food," *Id.*, p. 5; *φα*, or *βά* *αορ-μαιλυρ*, "in the likeness of," *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce* *Coipe* *δρεκαν*.

It is also often translated *for*, *at*, or *on account of*, as *αη* *οαρα* *h-αòδβαρ* *φάρ'* *commòραò* *μόρòαιλ* *Όρομα* *Ceat*, "the second reason *for* which the meeting of *Druim Ceat* was convened," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 122; *αη* *μέο* *να* *τριυαιξε* *σο* *γαò* *μέ* *φά*'*ν* *ευξοóιρ* *φολ-λυραιξ* *σο* *νέτιορ* *ορρα*, "in consequence of the great pity I took *for* the obvious injustice which is done to them," *Id.*, p. 16; *ξυρ* *ύονμαιρε* *Θιρε* *φα* *ναομαιò* *ιονά* *έιμ-έριò* *ιρ* *ιη* *Εοραιρ*, "that Ireland was more prolific in saints than any other country in Europe," *Id. ibid.*; *ειργιο* *βάροα* *αη* *βαλε* *φο* *να* *h-έιξμιò*, "the warders of the town rose up *at* the shouts," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1583; *ρο* *μαιρηρετ* *ορονξ* *σο* *Chenel* *Conaill* *ο'* *Ua* *Neill* *αη* *Calβαé* *σο* *βειé* *φο*'*ν* *ιοννυρ* *ριν*, "some of the Cinel Conaill informed O'Neill that Calbhach was in that condition," *Id.*, A. D. 1559.

When placed before a numeral adjective, it forms an adverb, as *φά* *òò*, or *φο* *òí*, twice; *φα* *ε̄ρι*, twice.

It sometimes denotes intention, or purpose, &c., as *ιρ* *ολε* *αη* *φυαοαρ* *α* *τά* *φύξα*, they have an evil inclination, or intention; literally, an evil inclination is *under* them; *τα* *ρέ* *αξ* *cup* *φύμ*, he is inciting me; literally, he is putting *under* me; *τά* *ρέ* *αξ* *μαγαò* *φύμ*, he is mocking me.

Throughout: as ο'όρουιγιούδ ρεαέτ αγυρ είορ Πháουιγ ρο Ειρινν, "the law and tribute of St. Patrick were established throughout Ireland," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 135; βοι τρὰ ιν σερσ μαc Uι Dουλρaine α βράτθαιρ οcα η-ιαρραιò ρο Ειρινò, "her brother Mac Ui Dulsaine, the artifex, was in search of her throughout Ireland," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Ρpull; ρο λεαέναιγ ιν ρcél ριη ρó Ειρινν, "that news was spread throughout Ireland," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 52; αρ η-οοl οοm εταραργβáιλ-ρι ρο ιαρταρ οοίμαιη, "my celebrity having spread throughout the west of the world," *Toruidheacht Gruaidhe Grian-sholuis*.

Of, or in: as ζιονίμαιρ να η-ιηηρε ρ ιμέαρ, ρά λαέτ, ρά ιαργ, ρά ιοé αγυρ ρα αρβαρ, αγυρ μεαραρòαέτ α η-αιεοιρ αρ éεαρ αγυρ ρυαέτ, "the fertility of the island *in* honey and *in* fruit, *in* milk, *in* fish, *in* grain and corn, and the temperature of its air *in* cold and heat," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 51; βαταρ ρο'η cυμαάτα ριη cο cιαν ιαρ τίòεέτ οο Πháτραιc, "they were *in* that power long after the arrival of St. Patrick."

ΡΙΑ, ΡΙΑÒ, before.

This preposition is unknown in the modern language; but it is of frequent occurrence in ancient writings in the sense of *before*, *coram*, *apud*, or *ante*, as in the following examples: ατ βέρρα ανορα ρια cάc να η-υlcυ οο ροναιρ ρριη, "I will now tell before all the evils which thou hast done to me," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 32; ριαò ριγυ οcυρ τυαθα, "before kings and the people," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Cana; ατ βερτ ιη τ-έceρ ριαò ινέcριη, "the poet said before the student," *Id.*, voce ζεζέc; ιρ υαιρλε α η-αιριλεò ρια Όια ολοατ οαίνι, "for her reward is nobler before God than men," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 32, a, b; οcυρ cιο μόρ α αníρ cο λειcc ρια οοιηò, βιò μου α αníρ ι η-οαιλ βράéα, "for though great is his honour before men, his honour shall be greater at the meeting of [the day of] judgment," *Id.*, fol. 15, a, b. We also meet such expressions as ρια Όια, before God; ριαò η-Όυιλεμαιη οcυρ Όαρρι, "before God and St. Barry," *Id.*, fol. 107, b, a. In the modern language the compound prepositional phrase, α η-ριαò-ηαιρ, is used in place of this simple preposition.—See also όρ.

Ζαν, without.

This is the same as the Latin *sine*, and the French *sans*, with which it is probably cognate. *Example*,—ζαν βιαό ζαν θεός, without food, without drink; ζαν όρ, ζαν αιργεαο, without gold, without silver; Αρρομαχα οο λορσαό ζυρ αν ράιε uile, ζαν τεαρ-αρρεαν αιον τιζε ιννε cenmoεα αν teach ρερεαρτρα náma, “ Armagh was burned, with the whole *Rath*, without the saving of any house within it (the rath), except the library alone,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1020. This preposition has often the force of a simple negative adverb, as ní h-ιονζναό ζαν ριορ αν νειεε ρι οο βειε αγ Στανηυρρε, “ it is no wonder that Stanihurst should not know this fact,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 7; ο’όρρουιζ ρέ όόιβ ζαν αν οβαιρ ριν οο όέανάι, he ordered them not to do that work; οο όάοαρ luεε να Σκιτια ζαν cumáεε coiζερíoch οο όυαιν ριυ, the people of Scythia were *without* the power of foreign countries touching [annoying] them.

Ζο, ζυρ, without.

This is obviously cognate with the Latin *cum*, and means *with*, as ρεαρ ζο ζ-ρροίθε ηγλοιν, a man with a pure heart; ερριζ ζο leiε, a foot and a half; literally, a foot with a half. Co n-onóip αγυρ co n-αιρμιοιν, “ with honour and veneration,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1004, *et passim*; ρεαν αίρρα λα Coippri Μυρe co n-ιμοένυμ αρζαιε οουρ όιρ ι n-α h-eim, “ Coirpri Musc had a splendid knife, with an ornament of silver and of gold on its haft,” *Cor. Gloss, voce Moζ Eime*; εριχα υαιηne ρυλαιηζ ράι, cu ραιne ζαχα ζρέαρα ρορρο, “ thirty supporting pillars under it, with varieties of ornamental work upon them,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 107; οα ρλογ ταιηνεiác co n-ερποότα ζρéιne, co ροιλλε ρυιέιμζ, co m-βινθε ceoil, “ two beautiful hosts *with* the brightness of the sun, *with* dazzling lustre, *with* the sweetness of music,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 126, a, b.

But it most generally signifies *to, usque ad*, in the modern language, and is generally set after verbs of motion to a place, in

which sense it is the opposite of *ó*, *from*, as *ó áit go h-áit*, from place to place; *o mullach Cláiri co Bearna tri carbad*, “*from the summit of Clairi to Bearna tri carbad*,” *Book of Lecan*, fol. 204. It is also used to mark the relation of time, as *ó am go h-am*, from time to time; *go veipead an domam*, to the end of the world; *gur an amriur úo*, “*to that time*,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 110.

This preposition was anciently written *co*, *cu*, *cup*.

Íar, after.

After: *iar n-uilinn*, after the deluge; *iar n-bul*, after going. This preposition is chiefly used, in connexion with verbal nouns, to form expressions equivalent to the ablative absolute in Latin, as *iar n-arguim foraoire an eom*, “*after the plundering of the fastness of the bird*,” *O’Daly Cairbreach*. But it is sometimes used in the sense of *according to*, *κατα*, as *iar b-fíor*, in truth; *iar m-bunabur*, “*as to their origin*,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Ἰαίλεν*; *iar n-epnailb écrámla*, “*after various kinds*,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 127, *b, a*; *iar n-a miasámlaét*, “*according to their dignity*,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358.

Íoir, eadar, between.

Between, among: *an rórad do nuéar iar m-bairpead íoir fíor agur ínaoi*, “*the marriage which is made after baptism between man and woman*,” *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 242; *íoir folur agur doicéar*, between light and darkness; *íoir aer agur uirce*, between sky and water; *ic mepa íoir olcailb*, “*they are the worst among evils*,” *Teagusc Riogh*; *Cread o’eirig eatorra*, what arose between them?

Both: *íoir olc ár maic*, both evil and good; *íoir fearailb agur ínaib*, both men and women. *Go ro millead íar gac conair trér a o-tuócaid eir cill agur tuair*, “*so that he spoiled every place through which he passed, both ecclesiastical and lay*,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1219.

This preposition was anciently *íoir*, and *eir*.

Im, uim, um, about.

About, around: cuir t'fallaing ioma, put thy cloak about thee; fepeno óir im choirp riġ, "a golden chain around the leg of a king," *Cor. Gloss., voce Fepeno*; rcaibal óir-číúmpac uim a muinél, "a gold-bordered scapular about his deck," *Toruidhecht Saidhbhe*; ní beiriob Morann Mac Maoin breac cóitóc gan an ló Morainn um a braġaib, "Morann Mac Main never passed a sentence without having the Idh Morainn [a collar] about his neck," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 114; tucrae a lámá 'mon cloic, "they brought their hands around the stone," *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 219, a; po eiriġ feò fia umainn co nár léir rin, "a mist rose about us, so that we were not visible," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 246, b; imma torcraeap mór, "around which many were slain," *Book of Leinster*, p. 25, b.

Concerning: co fuigillrte ollamna ðreizeimna Epeno imma comaltrom ocur ima n-óilri, "so that the chief Brehons of Ireland decided respecting their fosterage and legitimacy," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 17. p. 849; baol imrioran eazoppa um ríogaéc Erionn, "there was a contention between them concerning the sovereignty of Ireland," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 72; báoar a n-imreapain pe poile um feubaib a pean, "they were in contention with each other about the jewels of their ancestors," *Id.*, p. 51.

For: nacap eiriġ neé um ní, "who never refused one for aught," *Erard Mac Coisi*; ġur ġaib aipeacap é um an nġnóm oo roġne, "so that it repented him of the deed which he had done," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 120; ór ġé oo báoar aóbal-číiri eli ic Congal 'man comeġi rin, "for although Congal had other great causes for that rebellion," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 110.

In, at, about: um Shamán, at Allhallowtide; map nac léiġ-ġep neé um neoin, "where no person is admitted in the evening," *Erard Mac Coisi*; 'man am rin, "at that time," *Duald Mac Firbis, Tribes, &c., of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 298.

Along with: támiġ Toirpéalbach ann im laócaib na Mióe, "Turlough came thither with the heroes of Meath," *Ann. Four Mast.*

Le, leir, pe, pi, with.

With, among, in, denoting the relation of concomitancy, as εὐαῖο πέ le Doimnall go Corcaig, he went with Daniel to Cork; οἰμείζεσασα le η-α céile, they went off together; la Ὀρεῖνα, “with the Britons,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Ὀροκόιτ; la Muínan, in Munster; la Laiḡniḃ, with the Lagenians, or in Leinster, la Míthe, in Meath, *Ann. Four Mast.*, *passim*; ḡaḃ πέ léite, he took with her; μαρ α ηγαḃḃαοι πι, “where they were received,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 54.

With, denoting the secondary cause, or means, as μαρḃ πέ Doimnall le cloíðeam, he slew Daniel with a sword; μαρ υῖα οἶα ῥḡριορ le ῥḡín, like brass in being rubbed with a knife.

With, denoting the primary agent, or sole cause, as οο μαρ-βαḃ Doimnall le Ὀριαν, Daniel was slain by Brian; ὀειπέορ υαῖα an copp lé ῥρυḃ na ḃóinne, “the body was carried away from them by the stream of the Boyne,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 98; Μαῖομ ρια η-Ḥḡαιpe, mac Dunlaign le ριḡ Laiḡen, φορ Σιτριuc, mac Amlaim, “a victory was gained by Ugaire, son of Dunlang, king of Leinster, over Sitric, son of Amlaff,” *Ann. Tigher.*, A. D. 1021.

For the purpose of: as pe copnam cópa, αḡυρ pe copḡ ευḡ-κόπα, “for defending justice and checking injustice,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 94; an τ-ῥεαḡ οο βί αḡ an Ḥύḡ ḡ-ceuona le η-αḡαῖο comloinn, “the spear which the same Lugh had for battle,” *Id.*, p. 38; pe copnam αḡυρ pe caomna na epíce, for defending and for protecting the country,” *Id.*, p. 94; pe paḃ oipppinn αḡυρ pe ḡuiðe Ὀé, “for saying mass and imploring God,” *Id.*, p. 113; ῥῃ ροḡλαῖmm η-θαḃρα, “for the purpose of learning Hebrew,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Ὀραῖḃαι; ῥῃ ροιρḡeall ῥίρῃne, “for passing a sentence of truth,” *Id.*, voce Sí.

After, as in such phrases as “longing after:” τά ρύιλ αḡam leir, I have an expectation of it; ατά α ρύιλ leir ανοιρ, “they expect it now,” *Duald Mac Firbis, Tribes, &c. of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 320.

At, on: as Ὀια lim ῥῃ ῥαιρ, Ὀια lim ῥῃ ῥαιρ, “God be with me at sun-set, God be with me at sun-rise,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce ῥαιρ;

le fáinne an lae, at the break of day ; le h-eirge gréine, at the rising of the sun ; báir firi h-aóairt, “death on the bed,” *Liber Hymnorum*, fol. 11, a ; le n-a éaoib, at his side ; le n-a cóir, at his foot, i. e. following alongside him ; fan liom, wait for me ; no gráimig éiríde Thairg friu, the heart of Teige loathed at [the sight of] them.

To : as buídeacur le Dia, thanks be to God ; abair firi, “say to him,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Zezeé* ; fepaó fáilte firi, “he was bade welcome,” *Id.*, *ibid.* ; cpeao fá n-abairtar Órízannia pe Óreatain, “why is Britain called Britannia,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 9 ; táinic co Cnoc na curadh firi a raitep Cnoc Gréine, “he came to Cnoc na curadh, which is called Cnoc Greine,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl., H. 3. 18. p. 42 ; ouðairt ré liom, he said to me.

Before, or opposite : rir an ngréin, “before the sun,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 150 ; a ngnúiri firi lár, “their countenances prostrate to the earth,” p. 125 ; no ruióig a longpopt eimeac a n-ioncaib friu, “he pitched his camp face to face opposite them,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1601.

For, or of : ir turra ir cionntac leir, thou art in fault for it ; fá cionntac pe n-a g-cpuimnioḡaó, “who was guilty of collecting them together,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 144.

Belonging to : liom-ra an leabar, the book is mine ; le gaó boin a boinín agur le gaó leabar a leabrán, “its calf belongs to every cow, and the copy to every original book,” *Vit. Columbæ, apud Colgan*, and *Keat. Hist.*, p. 124 ; no po leat ocur pet ril flaitiur tpe bíriu, “thou and thy seed shall possess the sovereignty for ever,” *Vit. Moling* ; a ta, ol Eochaid, ino rigan ina coituo ; ir lé in tech atá in ríccell, “the queen, said Eochaidh, is asleep, and the house in which the chess board is, is her’s,” *Tochmarc Étaine* ; pot bia lim-ra, “I shall have,” *Id.* ; rcián aínra la Coirpri Mupc, “Coirpri Muse had a splendid knife,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Moḡ Éime* ; ceḡpe rigna lair, “he has four queens,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 113 ; pa leir gan cíor fo’n Máig moill, “he possessed without tribute [the country] along the sluggish Maigue,” *O’Heerin* ; tá airgeao agam iact ní liom féim é, I have money, but it is not my own.

With, denoting affection of the mind, as *ir fada liom an lá*, I deem the day long, literally, long is the day *with* me; *ir olc liom do cóp*, I deem thy state evil, i. e. I am sorry for thy state; *ir dóic leir*, he thinks, or supposes; *ba fuath la cáic a gabáil i n-a lám*, “it was hateful to every one to take it in his hand,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Fe*; *ní ba cam leó a eococ, na a léco leó*, “they liked not his countenance, nor to let him [*go*] with them,” *Id., voce Ppull*. The meaning of *le*, when thus applied, will appear more distinctly by substituting *do* for it, as *ir olc doam do cóp*, i. e. thy case or state is evil *to* me. The difference is that *le* expresses affection of the mind, or opinion, while *do* simply denotes the *dative relation*, exactly like the English *to*. This difference between *le* and *do*, though rather difficult to a learner, is at once recognized by the native speakers of Irish, be they ever so illiterate; *ir olc doam do cóp*, means, thy state is really evil *to* me; but *ir olc liom do cóp*, means, I pity thy case; *ir cuma lium*, I do not care. This common expression is thus explained in *Cormac’s Glossary, in voce Cumá*; *ir cuma lium, .i. ir coimoepp lium cibé oib*, it is equal to me which of them.

It is often set before names of trades, arts, and professions, thus: *in opong do bioó le gaibneac, le ceapnac, le raopreac, no le n-a pamol oile do daoipceapraib*, “such as were at smith-work, brass-work, or carpentry, or such other ignoble trades,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 116; *báoor fo’n am rom beaz nac ruan b-pear n-oirionn pe filioóc*, “at that time nearly the one-third part of the men of Ireland were *at* the poetical profession,” *Id.*, p. 122; *ool ra filioéc ocup a legenó do acbaíl*, “to follow the poetical profession, and give up his teaching,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

With, along with: *léig ré an clár leir an rpué*, he let the board [*float*] along the stream; *léig ré an cleize leir an ngaoic*, he let the feather with the wind; *le fánaó*, down the steep; *subairt rí go n-voipteioó oabac leamnacra leir an rpué*, “she said that she would spill a tub of new milk *with* the stream,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 79; *pir an aill*, “down the cliff,” *Id., ibid.*

To, with: *gan pún do léigean le a mnaoi*, “not to communicate a secret to his wife,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 96; *ní léigpío mé leir é*,

I will not let it go with him (i. e. unpunished); ná bac leir, do not mind [hinder] him; na bac leo, do not mind them; péac leir é, try him with [at] it; ní fuil fearaím leir, there is no standing with him, i. e. there is no enduring him; dnuib liom, approach me, or come close to me. These phrases could with difficulty be understood, if the Irish once became a dead language; and therefore all these phrases ought to be fully explained in a dictionary, before the language is forgotten.

Against, in the sense of leaning against, as α δρυιμ πε capēa cloice, "his backing against a pillar stone."

When placed before a progressive active noun, it gives it the force of the latter supine in Latin, or of the gerundive, as iongan-tac le ráb, *mirabile dictu*; áluinn le péacain, *pulcher visu*; tá pé le rágal fór, it remains to be found yet; ní fuil pé le rágal, *non est inveniendus*.—See Ar rágal. Deò móp pe a maoidcaim a b-pab, *zeit maicne Mhoza Nuadad*, "though great to be boasted of from time remote is the character of the race of Mogh Nuadhad," *Muldowny O'Morrison*, 1639; tá mópán le teaét fór, much is to come yet; tá pé le déanaím fór, it remains to be done yet; an aimpir a tá le teaét, the time that is to come, i. e. futurity.

When placed after adjectives, it expresses comparison of equality, and is translated *as*. *Example*,—com milir le mil, as sweet as honey; literally, equally sweet *with* honey; com dub fpi h-éc a òpeç, "black as death his countenance," *Cor. Gloss., voce* Dpull; zop tarpealbā òib dealb buð com glan rir an ngréim, agur buð binne ioná zac ceol da z-cualadap, "there appeared to them a figure *as bright as* [lit. equally bright *with*] the sun, and whose voice was sweeter than any music they had ever heard," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 117.

Near to, by, when subjoined to lám, the oblique form of lám, a hand, as lám, le h-abainn, near a river. But its meaning is very much modified, according to the noun before which it is placed, as will appear from the following examples: pem air, by my side; gabur pem air, "I have taken upon me," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 1; Cnoc na righraidi riu a n-dear, "Cnoc na righraidi to the

south of them," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 70, *b*; *pp*í muir anair, "on the east side of the sea," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Moğ Eime*; *la taib Maigi*, "by the side of the [river] Maigue," *Book of Lecan*, fol. 204.

During: *pe linn Fheap m-Đolğ*, "during the time of the Firbolgs," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 21; *pe n-a beo*, "during his life," *Id.*, p. 117; *pe pé cian*, for a long time; *pe linn do ĩaoğal*, during the term of thy life; *le paða*, for a long time; *la loingear mac Mileað*, "at the time of the expulsion of the sons of Milesius," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Đpağcaei*; *la bpařuð řula*, "in the twinkling of an eye," *Visio Adamnani*.

Addition to, joining with: as *cup leo*, add to them, or assist them.

Opposition to: as *pp*í řionem řo řepað tpeř, "with the lofty wood it (the wind) wages war," *Rumann's Poem on the Wind*, *Bodl. Lib. Laud.* 610, fol. 10, *a, a*; *ğan cup pe a cloinn*, "not to oppose his race," *Hugh O'Donnell*; *ip ní eicřað Congal cam*, *řpim-řa ap đearğ-ór an đomian*, "and the fair Congal would not come against me for the world's red gold," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 14; *na h-ulcu do ponair řpim*, "the evils thou hast done against me," *Id.*, p. 32; *m conřlichte řo lařat na Ğente and řp* Ĩátpaic, "the contest which the Gentiles had there with Patrick," *MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18.* p. 358.

From: as *řğapaðap le n-a céile*, they parted *with* each other; *řğapuir anam řup řo čedóř*, "his soul departed from him at once," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 145; *řioğacř Eřpionn do řğapčain řiu*, "the sovereignty of Ireland was separated from them," *Id.*, p. 100; *đeiluğað m paða řp*a a řoile, "to separate one thing from another," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Đeiluğað*. It has this meaning only when coming after verbs of parting or separating, in which it perfectly agrees with the English preposition *with*, when placed after the verb *to part*.

Stewart, in his *Gælic Grammar*, 2nd edit., p. 141, says that *re*, *ris*, signifies *exposed*, *bare*, or *manifest*. But though *leř*, *řp*, and *řp*ř, are used in Irish in this sense, they must be regarded as adjectives, because they never vary with the gender or number

of the noun. Thus, in λέιγέεαρ αν ύρη έρημ λειρ (Gen. i. 9), if λειρ were a compound of the preposition λε, with, and the pronoun ρέ, or ρί, it would be written λέιγέεαρ αν ύρη έρημ λέ, or λέιτε. Neither does the word vary as an adjective, for it is never found, except in connexion with the verb substantive, or some such, and more to qualify the verb than the substantive, as τά cloca na επάγε λειρ, the stones of the strand are exposed; τά βο έρωεαν λειρ, thy skin is exposed. This preposition was anciently written λα, λειρ, and ρρι, ρριρ, ρια, ριαρ, ρα, as will be seen in several of the foregoing examples. It is written ρριρ in the *Leabhar Breac*.

Μαρ, as.

As, like to : μαρ ήρειν αν επάμραιό, like the summer sun; μαρ πέατε μαυθνε, like the morning star; α λυγα μαρ έυγιλ, α ρλιαρατ μαρ ήάμταυζ, α έρυ μαρ μιαχ βολζ, α ήράγε μαρ κυρρε, "his shin *was* like a distaff, his thigh like the handle of an axe, his belly like a sack, his neck like that of a crane," *Cor. Gloss., voce* ρpull.

As, for : επεαβ Όαν ναταρ νειμε 'n-α m-βραταυζ μαρ ρυαίειονταρ, "the tribe of Dan had a serpent in their banner for a badge," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 131; μαρ γερα, "as an incantation," *Id.*, p. 117; cuaille cuillinn 'na láim μαρ ήεαζ, a holly staff in his hand for a spear.

Ο, from.

From, as ιρ ί ερuch h-Υα Ριόγειντε ό ζυαταρ ήρυν co ήρυζ ριζ, ουρ ό ήρυζ ριζ co δυαρ, "the country of Hy-Fidhgeinte extends from Luachair Bruin to Bruree, and from Bruree to Buais," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 17. p. 378; ό άιτ ζο h-άιτ, from place to place; ό céin máir, from a remote period.

By, denoting the instrument, as λορκυό Μυιγε όιλε co na h-ερωαμαιβ ό γεμτιβ, "the burning of Magh Bile, with its erdams, *by* the Pagans," *Chron. Scot.*, A. D. 825; ιρ τυ πο τιθναϊεό ό λυαρ, ουρ πο céραό ό λυαίγιβ, ουρ πο h-αθναϊεό, ουρ πο ειρυζ ό μαρβαιβ, "thou art he who wert betrayed *by* Judas, and

crucified *by* the Jews, and buried, and didst rise from the dead," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 58; πο τινεὸ ὁ να Φαίλβιβ ριν, "this was responded to by the Falvys," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 178, *b*; λειγ-εργταρ ο'ν λιαξ έ, "he is cured by the physician," *Old Med. MSS. passim*; ροιλλρε cumαρσοα ὁ ὀροκάτ ocup ὁ ροιλλρι, "light composed of light and darkness," *Cor. Gloss., voce Deool*.

Of, the same as the Latin *de*, as ρεαρ ὁ Chopcaix, a man *from* (i. e. *of*) Cork; ceol na γ-cupaḡ ὁ Chuan Dor, "the music of the heroes of *Cuan-Dor* [Glandore]," *O'Daly Cairbreach*.

Since, seeing that, as ὁ'ρ ρίορ ριν, since that is true; ο ρο ριορ O'Neill Μαγνυρ σο ὀυλ h-ι ο-Τιρ Eocchain ροαρ ι n-α ρρῖοιγ ταρ Finn, "when O'Neill learned that Manus had gone into Tyrone, he returned back across the [river] Finn," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1522. But in this situation it should be considered rather as an adverb than a preposition.

Denoting want, with a desire of obtaining, as ιρ ιομοḡ ρῖḡ ατά uam, many a thing I want; ρρεαο τά uαḡα? what do they want? τά αιργεαο uαḡα, they want money.

In, by, denoting the cause: ιρ balc ὁ ḡλάρ, ιρ coel ὁ ḡλεithe, "it is strong in boards, *and* it is slender in its wattles," *Cor. Gloss., voce Cl.*

Or, uar, over.

Over: as ὁρ eannaib ἄ n-αρμ, "over the points of their weapons," *Battle of Magh Ragh*, p. 198; buḡ ριγ uαρ σο βρῖαίριβ ḡύ, "thou shalt be a king over thy brothers," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 113; Αρσο-Εαρβογ Αιρσο Macha αρ Ρρῖομῖαḡ ὁρ eαρρογαḡ Eιρῖοnn uile, "the Archbishop of Armagh is Primate over the bishops of Ireland," *Id.*, p. 167; λια uαρ leḡτ, "a stone over the monument," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 18. fol. 25; uαρ ḡόμνο, "over the [river] Boyne," *Ann. Ult.* A. D. 534; an βρεο uαρ τυμνο ι τρῖλυρ, ι n-Eιρῖνο bic beβαρ, "the fire over the wave in effulgence, in Beg-Erin he (Bishop Ivor) died," *Feilire Aenguis*, 23rd April.

The compound preposition ορ cιοnn, i. e. *over-head*, is now generally used for the simple ὁρ, or uαρ.

Re, ριρ.—See le, λειρ.

RÉ, ρΙΑ; ΠÉΡ, ΡΙΑΡ, before.

Before : as ρέ η-οιλινν, "before the deluge," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 28; Πέρ αν οιβριουζαδ, "before the operation," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 94; ρια κατ Μυιζι Ρατ, "before the Battle of Magh Rath," *Id.*, p. 110; ραοιλινν ο'ά Πέρ ριν ναδ ρυιλ αττ ριννηζέλ ριλιόιοττα ιρ ιν ρεαιρ οο αιρνεϊόρφοδ Φιονηταιν οο μαρταιν πέ η-οιλινν αζυρ 'να οιαζ, "I think, therefore, that there is nothing but a poetical fiction in the history which would narrate that Fintan lived before the deluge and after it," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 28.

Of : as ἄμ υαιμμοδ Πέρ αν ριζ, "I am fearful *of* the king," *Id.*, p. 26; ρο ζαβ εαζλα μόρ η-έ ριαρ να ρίζυιβ, "great fear *of* the kings seized him." *Vit. Moling.*

ΡΟΙΜ, before.

Before : ροιμ πέ, before the time, before hand; ταμλλ ροιμ λά, a short time before day; βυαιλ ροματ, go forward; ατά ράλτε ροιμαβ, "ye are welcome," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 100; ράλτιζιρ ροιμε, "he bids him welcome," *Id.*, p. 113; ζαβαρ εαζλα μόρ αν ρί ροιμε, "the king was seized with great fear *before* [i. e. *of*] him," *Id.*, p. 124.

Signifying resolution : οο ζυρ ρέ ροιμε, he resolved; literally, he put before him; αν ταν ζυρεαρ ροιμε ζο η-υαλλημαναδ, "when he ambitiously resolves," *Id.*, p. 75.

Preference : ροιμ ζαδ υιλε νιό, before every thing.

Σεαδ, by, besides.

This preposition was anciently ρεδ, ρεοδ, rarely ρετταρ, and seems cognate with the Latin *secus*; that it has nearly the same signification will appear from the following examples :

By, or past : τάνικ Congal ρεαδ αν όνημιο, "Congal passed by the idiot," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 284; ουτρααυρ οο ναβ ρεοχαμ νο ζειρρεδ, "would that it would not pass by me," *Mac Conglinn's Dream*; ρειτριο ρεχ ρινο ρλέβε Ριφε, "they passed by the headland of the Riphean mountain," *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 11, b, b; λυιό αραιι Όραί ρεχ αν ελαρ, "a certain Druid

passed by the church," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 5, *b*; $\sigma\sigma$ $\epsilon\upsilon\alpha\iota\theta$ $\text{P}\alpha\tau\rho\iota\alpha\iota\kappa$ $\rho\epsilon\acute{\kappa}$ μ $\upsilon\lambda\epsilon$ $\epsilon\tau\alpha\rho\eta\alpha\iota\gamma\epsilon$, "Patrick went past all the snares," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, *a*, *a*; $\text{c}\sigma$ η - $\rho\epsilon\acute{\kappa}\alpha\theta$ $\text{c}\alpha\acute{\kappa}$ $\alpha\epsilon$ $\upsilon\iota\beta$ $\rho\epsilon\chi$ $\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\epsilon$, "so that each of them might pass by each other, *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce Róτ*.

In comparison with: $\eta\tau$ $\mu\acute{o}\rho$ $\alpha\eta$ $\rho\iota\sigma\lambda\alpha\rho$ $\rho\epsilon\acute{\kappa}$ $\alpha\eta$ $\sigma\rho\epsilon\iota\lambda\acute{\iota}\eta$, the eagle is great in comparison with the wren. The Irish peasantry generally translate $\rho\epsilon\acute{\kappa}$ in this sense by the English *towards*, as "the eagle is great *towards* [i. e. in comparison with] the wren;" $\rho\epsilon\acute{\kappa}\alpha\theta$ $\mu\alpha\tau\alpha\iota\beta$ $\text{N}\epsilon\iota\lambda\lambda$, "beyond the sons of Niall," *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 312.

Besides: $\alpha\sigma$ $\upsilon\epsilon\iota\rho$ $\text{H}\epsilon\kappa\tau\sigma\rho$ $\delta\sigma\epsilon\tau\iota\upsilon\rho$ $\gamma\upsilon\rho$ $\alpha\beta$ $\acute{\sigma}$ $\text{G}\eta\alpha\iota\sigma\iota\delta\iota\sigma\iota$ $\acute{\epsilon}\gamma\iota\eta$ $\sigma\iota\lambda\epsilon$ $\tau\alpha\eta\gamma\alpha\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\rho\iota\eta\epsilon$ $\text{G}\eta\alpha\iota\sigma\iota\delta\iota$ $\eta\alpha$ η - $\text{A}\lambda\beta\alpha\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\acute{\kappa}\alpha\theta$ $\alpha\eta$ $\eta\text{G}\eta\alpha\iota\sigma\iota\delta\iota\sigma\iota$ $\acute{\sigma}$ σ - $\tau\acute{\alpha}\eta\gamma\alpha\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\mu\epsilon\iota\sigma$ $\text{M}\iota\lambda\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\theta$, "Hector Boetius states that it is from some other Gael, besides the Gael from whom sprung the sons of Milesius, that the Gaels of Scotland are descended," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 52.

Out, beyond: $\rho\epsilon\chi\tau\alpha\rho$ $\text{c}\alpha\acute{\kappa}\alpha\rho$ $\imath\mu\mu\alpha\chi$, outside the city.—*Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

Ταρ, σαρ, over.

Over, across: $\alpha\sigma$ $\upsilon\sigma$ $\lambda\epsilon\iota\mu$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$ $\tau\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\eta$ $\alpha\delta\alpha\iota\mu\eta$, he leaped across the river; $\gamma\alpha\beta\alpha\iota\theta$ $\text{M}\sigma\lambda\iota\eta\gamma$ $\rho\epsilon\mu\epsilon$ $\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\eta$ $\alpha\eta$ $\alpha\eta\sigma\sigma$, "St. Moling advances over across the ford," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 18. fol. 216, *b*; $\upsilon\iota$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\sigma\iota\gamma\gamma$ $\tau\alpha\rho$ α $\mu\upsilon\lambda\lambda\alpha\chi$, "two crosses over his head," *Cor. Gloss.*, *voce Ppull*; $\rho\sigma$ $\rho\iota\alpha\acute{\kappa}\tau$ $\imath\alpha\rho$ $\rho\iota\eta$ $\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\text{F}\acute{\iota}\delta$ $\text{C}\upsilon\alpha\eta\alpha\chi$ η - $\text{M}\alpha\iota\gamma$ $\text{M}\alpha\iota\gamma\eta\gamma\epsilon$, $\text{c}\sigma$ $\rho\acute{\alpha}\mu\iota\sigma$ $\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\text{R}\iota\gamma\epsilon$ $\rho\sigma$ $\epsilon\upsilon\alpha\iota\theta$, "he came afterwards across Fídh Cuanach into the plain of Magh Maighnighe, and northwards across the [river] Ríge," *Vit. Moling*; $\gamma\alpha\beta\rho\alpha\epsilon$ $\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\rho\rho\upsilon\tau\alpha\rho$ $\eta\alpha$ $\delta\acute{\omicron}\acute{\iota}\sigma\iota\mu\eta$ $\imath\mu\mu\alpha\iota\gamma$ $\delta\rho\epsilon\alpha\gamma$, "they proceeded across the river of Boyne into Magh Breagh," *Book of Leinster*, fol. 105, *a*, *b*; $\tau\alpha\rho$ $\rho\sigma\eta\alpha\iota\gamma\eta\beta$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\rho\sigma\alpha$ μ $\delta\alpha\iota\lambda\iota$ $\alpha\mu\alpha\chi$, "over the lofty enclosures of the town," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 239; $\rho\sigma$ $\text{c}\lambda\alpha\iota\sigma\epsilon\theta$ $\imath\mu\sigma$ $\upsilon\alpha\gamma$; α τ - $\rho\lambda\epsilon\alpha\gamma$ $\upsilon\alpha$ $\acute{\epsilon}\tau\alpha\theta$, α $\acute{\kappa}\lambda\omega\sigma\epsilon\mu$ $\upsilon\sigma$ ' η $\tau\alpha\epsilon\beta$ η - $\alpha\iota\lambda\epsilon$, α $\lambda\upsilon\alpha\mu\alpha\eta$ $\tau\alpha\rho\iota\rho$, "the grave was dug; his lance was placed on one side, his sword on the other, and his shield over across him," MS. Trin. Coll.

Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 46 ; ταπλα ρρυε οί-μόρ νόιθ φορρ in concur, ocur υποιchet το μαρμαρι ταυρι, "they met a great stream on the way, with a bridge of marble *across* it," *Book of Lismore*, fol. 107 ; α κυ ρύλαε ταρ α ρριεζναμ, "keeping an eye *over* his diligence," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce ζεεεε ; αν θεαλλτανε ευαιό εαρτ, "the May last past."

Beyond : as ευαιό ρέ ταρ μ'εολυρ, it went *beyond* my knowledge ; ταρ ζαε νό, *beyond* every thing ; ταρ μο ό'εόιολι-ρα, "beyond my endeavour," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 19.

Τρέ, through.

Anciently τρια, τρι.

Through : as τρέ η-α εροιθε, through his heart ; το βέρ-ρα η ζαι ρεα τριε εραίοι, "I will run this spear through thy heart," *Vit. Moling* ; λερταρ βίρ οε οάιλ υιρσι, ocur α εοιρ τρέ η-α μεόον, "a vessel which is for distributing water, with a handle through its middle," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Ερκανο.

Through, denoting the means, or cause : αρ τρέ άνε, ocur υρναιγεε το ραεραό Daniel ράιο, "it is through fasting and prayer Daniel the prophet was redeemed," *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 125 ; άρ η Σπιρατ Ηαεμ ηο λαβραρταρ, ocur το αιρσεααην τρια ζιου ηα ρερ ριπεον, "for it was the Holy Ghost that spoke and predicted through the mouths of righteous men," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358 ; ηο ζαβραεε οαν ιόαν η-ί τρι ημαρ-εραίο ρυαετα, ocur τρε μεό η τ-ρνεαεται, ocur τρερ η ημεαζλα το ευαιό ηρι, "pangs then seized her *through* the intensity of the cold, and the quantity of the snow, and *through* the terror which came over her," *Vit. Moling* ; εια ριρ ηαε τρεομ-ρα ατά ρη, "who knows but it is through me this is," *Id.* ; τρέ οραοιθεαετ, *through*, or *by* magic ; τρέ εανζναετ, "by treachery," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1257, *et passim*.

On : as τρέ εεμε, on fire ; τρέ λαραό, on flame ; Ηερο το ευιρ τρέ λαραό ρυαρ αν Ρόιμ, "Nero who set Rome in a conflagration," *Keating*, in Poem, beginning "Ράιο βρεαζεε αν ραοζαλ ηο."

Um.—See Im.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

SECTION 1.—Of the simple Conjunctions.

THE simple conjunctions are remarkably few; but there are several conjunctive phrases, which help to make up the deficiency. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions, with their ancient and modern forms.

Αἰ̄τ, but, except.

This is often corrupted to ᾱέ, in common conversation.—See the *Syntax*.

Αἰ̄γυρ, and, as.

This is generally written ᾱυρ, or ο̄υρ, in old manuscripts, and sometimes ρ̄εο is found as a form of it, as ἰ β-βιᾱσ̄ο̄ναιρ̄ε ρ̄ερ η-ε̄ρ̄ενο ρ̄εο μᾱκυ ρ̄εο ῑγ̄ενα, “in the presence of the men of Ireland both sons and daughters,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 188; ρ̄ῑυ, μᾱκυ, μ̄νά ρ̄εο ῑγ̄ενα, “men, youths, women, and daughters,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24. Αἰ̄γυρ is often contracted to ῑρ, ᾱρ, and sometimes ρ̄, when preceding a word beginning with a vowel, as ρ̄ ῑρ ρ̄ί̄ορ α η-ο̄ε̄ῑρ̄ῑμ, “and what I say is true.” When it follows com̄, *as*, or *equally*, it must be translated into English by *as*; com̄ ο̄ε̄αρ̄ρ̄η̄ο̄ῑγ̄ε̄ε ᾱγυρ ρ̄ῑ, “so remarkable *as* that,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 39. The Latin *ac*, or *atque*, which is clearly cognate with the Irish ᾱυρ, is sometimes used in this sense, as “*Scythæ aurum et argentum perinde aspernantur ac reliqui mortales appetunt*,” *Justin*; “*Simul ac se ipse commovit, atque ad se revocavit*,” *Cicero*; “*Simul atque hostis superatus esset*,” *Id.*

An, whether.

This, which is cognate with the Latin *an*, and by some regarded as an adverb, is often written *m*, and even *mo*, in ancient manuscripts.

Cíò, although, even.

This is more frequently written *gíò*. Both forms are used in the spoken dialect of the south of Ireland, but generally pronounced, and often written, *cé* and *gé*, forms which are found in the works of the best Irish scholars, as in the *Genealogies of the Hy-Fiachrach*, by Duald Mac Firbis: *gé ro ñioòaiğ*, “although he appeased him,” p. 140. The particle *ciò* is often found in ancient manuscripts in the sense of *even*, as *uair ro ñair m Coimòiu céc ní ñecmaiz a lepp uad ciò ñiañiu némm a eapğairc*, “for the Lord knows every thing we require from him, *even* before we implore him,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*.

Com, as.

Synonymous with the Latin *tam*. This is often written as if it formed a part of the adjective to which it is prefixed, as *cómóp le ñiað*, as large as a mountain. It is sometimes responded to by *agur*, and then it should be kept separate from the adjective, and regarded as a conjunction, or an adverb. See example under *agur*.

Dá, if.

This is generally written *dia* in old manuscripts. It is nearly synonymous with *má*; but there is this difference, that *dá* is always used in connexion with the conditional mood, and *má* with the indicative, as *dá g-ceilñim*, if I would, or should conceal; *má ceilim*, if I conceal.

Fór, moreover.

This is sometimes an adverb, and signifies *yet*. It is often written *beor* in old manuscripts, and even by Duald Mac Firbis in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Ñíò, though, although.—See *Cíò*.

Ἰο, that.

Synonymous with the Latin *ut, utinam*. When before a verb in the simple past tense (not consuetudinal past), it becomes Ἰορ, or Ἰορ, which is a union of the simple Ἰο and ρο, sign of the past tense. In ancient manuscripts it is written co, and before the past tense of verbs κορ, κυρ, Ἰορ, Ἰορά. When coming before the assertive verb ιρ, αβ, it amalgamates with the verb, and they become κορϋβ, κυρϋβ, Ἰορϋβ, even in the present tense.—See the *Syntax*.

Ἰονά, than.

This is often written μά in old manuscripts, but is generally pronounced ná in the spoken language. In ancient and some modern writings, when it precedes ρέ, *he*, and ἰαο, *they*, they amalgamate and become μάρ, μάιο, i. e. *than he, than they*, as in the following examples:—νοά τάνις ρορ τάλμαν ρίν ρο β'ρερρ βλαρ να βριḡ, οαρ leo, μάρ, "there came not upon earth wine of better flavour or strength, they thought, than it." *Oighidh Muirchertaigh Moir Mic Erca*. These amalgamations are also used by Keating and the Four Masters, as ní ραιβε 'n-α cóm-αιμρρ ρεαρ βοḡα οο βρεάρρ ἰονάρ, "there was not in his time a better bowman *than he*," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 117; οεαρβράταιρ οοβ όιγε ἰονάρ ρέιν, "a brother younger than himself," *Id., ibid.*; ní ρυιλ cineao ρο'n ηḡρεέιν le n-ab ανηρα ceapτ ἰονάιο Ειρμονναḡ, "there is not a people under the sun who love justice more than the Irish," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 174; Ἰορ ob τεο é μάιο να βλαρα ειλε, "that it is hotter than the other tastes," *Old Med. SM.* 1414.—See also *Annals of the Four Masters*, at the year 1540.

It should be also noted, that ολοαρ, ολοατ, is very frequently used for ἰονά, in ancient writings, as ιρ αιρεḡόα ιν τ-οḡ conio οαḡρρρc ολοαρ ιν ρεαν co η-οιβell α ρυρρc, "for the youth with his bright eye is more splendid than the old man with his dim eye," *Cor. Gloss., voce Ἰλυρρ*; αρ ρο βα οίλε λαρ clann Neac-ταιμ ολοατ clann Neill, "for the sons of Nechtan were dearer to him than the children of Niall," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1460.

In a copy of *Cormac's Glossary*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 16. *voce* Αόαρτ, it is translated by the Latin *quam*.

Μά, if.

When coming before the affirmative verb η, they amalgamate, and become μάρ, now generally printed μά'ρ; but written μάρα in very ancient and correct manuscripts, as in the *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 127, *b, a*: μάρα επόάλτα ιμαο να ποχραϊσε, “if the amount of reward be certain;” μάρα κομαϊρη λειβ, “if it seem advisable to you,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358.

When coming before úl leat, *pleasing to thee*, it often combines with them, and they are written μαθαϊτε, as μαθαϊτε α οερβαο, “if thou wish to prove it.” *Old Med. MS.*

Μαη, as.

This is sometimes a preposition, and sometimes a conjunction or adverb. It is pronounced mup in Meath, and parts of Ulster, and so written by O'Molloy and others. In ancient manuscripts, ρεβ is often used in its place; and this word is still preserved in the spoken language in the south of Ireland, but pronounced ρεό.

Μυνα, unless.

This is often written mine and man in old manuscripts, and when preceding the assertive verb η, βα, they combine minab, minbao, manbao, i. e. *nisi esset*, as η οϊρ οο ρεχε minab μαε, “law is not right, unless it be good,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* Ἰνο.

Νά, nor.

This is now used in the same sense as the English *nor*, and the Latin *nec*; but in old writings it is often put for the modern ναc, *not, which not*, as κο να τερηα οερϋιβαλ αρη, “so that not one escaped,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* Κορη Ὀρεcάν; ιαρη ιη ηί να ριλ ατε ανο, οορη να ροινητερ, “because it contains no joint, and is not divided,” *Id., voce* Οεαχ. Ναc is often used in old writings, and even by the Four Masters, for the modern να, *nor, nec*, as κο να βαοι αον ιαμιαρτηρ ο Αραϊνη να ναοιη κο μυρη η-λοχε ζαν ηρηεαο, ζαν βυαν-ρεαβαο, αετ μαο βεaccán ναμα ιη-Ερηνη να τυρατ Ἰοιλλ οια η-υιό ναc οια η-αρη, “so that there was not

any monastery from Aran of the Saints to the Iccian sea without being broken and pulled down, excepting a few in Ireland only, of which the English took no heed or notice," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1537.

Ní, not.

This is used in the south and west of Ireland for the simple negative *not*, *non*; but seldom, if ever, in Ulster, *ca* being substituted for it throughout that province, except in the south-west of Donegal, where they use *ní*. There are no words in the modern Irish corresponding with the English *yes* or *no*; but in the ancient language, *nachó* is used without a verb, in giving a negative answer, as *nachó, a Mhælrúaim*, "No, O Maelruain," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 18. fol. 205, b.

Nó, or.

This is the simple disjunctive conjunction, corresponding with the English *or*, and the Latin *vel*, or *aut*.

Noça, not.

This, though found in manuscripts of no great antiquity, is now obsolete in the south and west of Ireland; but it is supposed that the *ca* of the Ultonian and the Erse dialects, is an abbreviation of it.

O, seeing that, since.

O is frequently a preposition; but when placed before a verb, it must be regarded as an adverb or a conjunction, for it then means *since*, or *because*.

Oir, because.

This is often written *ár*, *ór*, and *uar*, in old manuscripts, as *ár rú níz riu rínn féin ar n-éirecht*, "for we ourselves are not worthy of being heard," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121; *ar ir cenno cono ríl ror m cáinte*, "for the cynic has the head of a dog," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Cainte*; *ar ir ríeo ríl ir rínn ríorcel oğ-uilgus cáic uilc*, "for the Gospel has full forgiveness for every evil," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358, and H. 3. 17. p. 5.

The word *uáig*, now obsolete, is often found for *oir*, in old manuscripts, and even in the Annals of the Four Masters.

Sul, before.

This is written *riariu* and *riéiu* in old manuscripts. It may be regarded as an adverb or a conjunction.—See Prefixes of Verbs, pp. 157, 158. O'Molloy writes it *roil*, and Donlevy *ruil*, throughout their catechisms; and it is also written *ruil* in a MS. in the possession of the Author, transcribed in Ulster, in 1679; but no ancient authority for these forms has been found.

SECTION 2.—*Of compound Conjunctions, or conjunctive Phrases.*

These are in reality made up of different parts of speech; but, as many of them express ideas which in the classical, and some of the modern, languages, are expressed by simple conjunctions, it will be useful for the learner to have a list of the most usual of them.

Aic máó, except only; *acá ni céana*, but however; *acé céana*, however.

Aic náma, except only.

Acúir, because. Now obsolete.

Airé rin, therefore: *ir airé rin*, *ideo*.—*Cor. Gloss.*, voce *ḍriúit*.

Air an aóbar rin, therefore; literally, for that cause, or reason.

Air éor go, so that, in order that.

Air uáig, because.

Air fon go, because that.

Air a fon rin, notwithstanding.—*Lucerna Fidelium*. Preface.

Air eagal go, lest that.

Ḍíóó, although; literally, *esto*, let it be, i. e. granting.

Céana, however: *acé aen ni cenai*, "but one thing, however,"

Mac Conglinn's Dream, in *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 108.

Cibionnup, howbeit, albeit, *Tribes, &c., of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 320.

Now obsolete.

Coniò, so that.—See Fo bìè.

Chum go, in order to, to the end that.

Óála, with respect to: óála rluaiğ na h-Éigipte, “with respect to the forces of Egypt,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 46.

Do ðriğ, because.

Fo bìè, because: coniò é a ainim ó rin ille Ath m-ðeannchair, .i. fo bìè na m-beann po læpat na cupaiò oib ann, “so that its name from that forward is Ath Beanchair [i. e. the ford of the crests], because of the bens [crests] which the heroes cast into it,” *Book of Lecan*, fol. 182, a, a.

Điò go, although that.

Điò tpa áct, howbeit, albeit, however.

Đen go, ðion go, or cen co, although that.

Đen go, ðion go, or cen co, although not, as ðion go ð-fulio, “although they are not,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 15; ðion go paðaoop féin ’ran n-Đpéiğ, “although they themselves were not in Greece,” *Id.*, p. 42. When ðen go is negative, it is made up of ðé, *although*, ná, *not*, and go, *that*; when affirmative it is put simply for ðeò go, or, ðiò go.

Iomtúra, with respect to; iomtúra Phapao, “with respect to Pharoah,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 46.

Ionnup go, so that.

Map go, inasmuch as, since, because that.—*Id.*, p. 7.

Máireað, if so, i. e. má ir eað, if it is so, if so it be.

No go, until that.

Súo agup go, supposing that.

Tap céann céana, although.—*Id.*, p. 23.

Tuille eile, moreover.

Uime rin, therefore.

It would, perhaps, be better generally to analyze these expressions by resolving them into their ultimate elements, noting, however, the conjunctive force of the phrase.

CHAPTER IX.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

THE words employed as expressions of various emotions are numerous enough in the spoken Irish, but they vary throughout the provinces. The following is a list of such as occur in correct books and manuscripts.

Abú, or abo ! an exclamation of terror and defiance.

Acc iap, not at all !

A, or O ! Oh ! as Amu Coimóiu, O my Lord !—*Rumann.*

Durpann, woe is me ! alas !

Eipt, hush ! list ! whist !

Fapaer, or papaoir, alas !

Féac, behold !

Ioç, ioç, cold ! cold !

Mairg, woe !

Mo náipe, O shame ! fie ! for shame !

Mongenair, thrice happy !

Monuar, woe is me !

Mo éruag, my pity ! Sometimes used to express contempt.

Oç, alas !

Olagón, alack a day !

Ucán uc, alas ! woe is me !

Uc ón, alas !

Various other exclamations may be formed, *ad libitum*, as *paire, gardez-vous, paire go deóig, &c.* The war cries of the ancient Irish, and Anglo-Irish, were made of abó, or abú, and the name, or crest, of the family, or place of residence, as *Trárac abó ! Fionnóg abú ! Seabac abú ! Cromaó abú, Seanair abú !*

CHAPTER X.

OF DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

HAVING treated of the different sorts of words, and their various modifications, it will be now proper to point out the manner in which one word is grammatically derived from another. Irish, and its cognate dialects, particularly the Welch, have afforded more material to support the conjectures of etymologists than any other language in the world ; but these etymological visions, after having served for more than half a century to uphold absurd systems, have lately fallen into merited contempt amongst the learned.

The passion for analyzing has induced some to assert, that all true primitives in the Celtic dialects consist of but one syllable; that all dissyllables and polysyllables are either derived or compounded, and are therefore all resolvable into ultimate monosyllabic elements. But that there can be no certainty in speculations of this kind will be sufficiently obvious from the true grammatical analysis; and indeed the absurdity of them is proved by their results. With the refutation of such theories grammatical etymology has nothing to do, and the writer will therefore content himself with laying down the general principles of grammatical derivation, which are demonstrable and unquestioned.

Monsieur Pictet of Geneva, is one of the few philologers of this age who makes the legitimate use of the Irish and its cognate dialects in comparative etymology, though in his youth, being misled by the extravagant speculations of Vallancey, he published a work on the mythology of the ancient Irish, which is visionary enough, and which he intends to correct. On this subject he writes as fol-

lows, in a letter dated Geneva, June 24, 1835, which was addressed to the late Edward O'Reilly, author of the Irish dictionary, who died in 1830, but which was handed to the author of this grammar by the bearer, when he learned that O'Reilly was dead :

“ Il y a fort long temps que je m'occupe de l'histoire et de la litterature de toute la famille des nations Celtiques et en particulier de celle de l'Irlande. Un essai publié par moi il-y a 10 ans, sur l'ancienne mythologie Irlandaise, a été le premier résultat, et je dois le dire, le résultat un peu prémature de mes études à ce sujet j'ai reconnu depuis que j'avois lieu de craindre de m'être trop fié à Vallancey pour les premières données du problême à résoudre. Je ne considère plus maintenant cet essai que comme un travail de jeune homme qui exigeroit une refonte complète. A dire le vrai, je crois actuellement que les travaux preparatives sur la langue et l'ancienne litterature de l'Irlande ne sont pas encore assez avancés pour permettre d'aborder cette question avec espoir de l'elucider complètement.”

Again, in his work on the affinity of the Celtic dialects with the Sanscrit, he thus alludes to the injudicious use made of the Celtic dialects, by Vallancey and others, in the elucidation of comparative etymology.

“ Le groupe des langues Celtiques, après avoir servi pendant quelque temps à etayer d'absurdes systèmes, est tombé, par un effet de réaction, dans un oubli très peu meritè.”—*Avant-propos*, p. vi.

Dr. Prichard, of Bristol, has also pursued a very legitimate course of etymological inquiry in his *Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations*, in imitation of the system of the learned James Bopp. And Professor Latham, in his *English Language*, has laid down rules of investigation by comparative etymology, which should be carefully studied by all lovers of this difficult and lately discovered science.

SECTION 1.—Of Derivation.

The parts of speech which are formed by derivation from other words are substantives, adjectives, and verbs. They are chiefly derived from substantives and adjectives; a few only from verbs.

SUBSECTION 1.—Of derivative Substantives.

Derivative substantives may be classed as follows, according to their terminations:

1. Abstract substantives in *αρ, εαρ, υρ^a*. These are formed from adjectives, or other substantives, by adding the above terminations, as *διόμοιον*, idle, *διόμοιναρ*, idleness.

So also *αἰθῖνν*, delightful, *αἰθῖναρ*, delight (Lat. *amœnus*, *amœnitas*); *νάμιασ*, an enemy, *νάμιοεαρ*, enmity; *καραιοσ*, a friend, *κάριοεαρ*, friendship; *ὄγλάς*, a youth, *ὄγλάεαρ*, adolescence; *κεανν*, a head, *κεανναρ*, headship, or leadership.

2. Abstract substantives in *αῦτ, or εαῦτ*. These are formed from adjectives and substantives, and sometimes, though rarely, from verbs, as from *δίβλιθεσ*, decrepid, comes *δίβλιθεαῦτ*, decrepitude; from *ραογαλτασ*, worldly, comes *ραογαλτααῦτ*, worldliness; from *μόριθασ*, majestic, comes *μόριθααῦτ*, majesty; from *λάιριρ*, strong, *λάιριρεαῦτ*, strength; from *ρίξ*, a king, *ρίξααῦτ*, a kingdom; from *ταοιρεαῦτ*, a chieftain, *ταοιριγεαῦτ*, chieftainship.

^a This termination is very probably cognate with the Latin *-itas*; the *t* being aspirated.

substantive noun in *ct* may be formed, as from *millte*, spoiled, comes *millteoir*, a spoiler, or destroyer; *millteac*, destructive, and *millteact*, destructiveness.

It should be here remarked, that personal nouns substantive in *oir* are not always derived from passive participles, and that they sometimes come from other nouns, as from *uorair*, a door, comes, by attenuation, *uoirreoir*, a doorkeeper; from *uoligeaó*, a law, *uoligeoir*, a lawyer; from *cannear*, a candle, *cannleoir*, a candlestick, or chandelier, &c.

6. Nouns substantive in *ac*, which are mostly personals, are variously derived, as from *marc*, a horse, is derived *marcac*, a horseman; but the substantives of this termination are principally patronymics, and are formed from names of persons and countries, by adding *ac*:

Examples.—*Orrianaac*, an O'Brien, or one of the family of O'Brien; *Ruaircac*, one of the family of O'Rourke; *Donnabanaac*, one of the family of O'Donovan; *Eiricannaac*, an Irishman, or Irish; *Albanaac*, a Scotchman, or Scottish; *Orpeanaac*, a Welchman, or Welch, *Britannicus*; *Spaneac*, a Spaniard, or Spanish; *Franzacaac*, a Frenchman, or French. Sometimes they are not personals, as from *riaó*, a deer, comes *riaóac*, a hunt, a stag-hunt; from *crion*, withered, comes *crionac*, or *crionlac*, dried sticks or brambles.

7. Personal substantive nouns in *ioe*, *aioe*, or *uioe*. These are derived from other substantives:

Examples.—From *rgéal*, a story, comes *rgéalaioe*, or *rgéulaioe*, a story-teller; from *créao*, a flock, *créaoaioe*, a herdsman, or shepherd; from *rnám*, swimming, *rnámaioe*, a swimmer; from *ceápo*, a trade, *ceápoaioe*, a tradesman; from *rtair*, history, *rtairuioe*, a historian; from *muc*, a hog, *mucaioe*, a swineherd; from *ceannach*, buying, *ceannaige*, a merchant. And from all

these abstract nouns substantives may be formed, as *ῥηέλιυθεάτζ*, story-telling; *ῥεάβαιυθεάτζ*, herding, &c. &c.

8. Diminutives in *άν, ίν, όζ*. These are formed from other substantives, and sometimes from adjectives, as from *cnoc*, a hill, comes *cnocάν*, a hillock, and *cnocín*, or *cnucín*, a very small hill.

So also from *cloz*, a bell, comes *cluizín*, a small bell; from *uille*, a leaf, *uilleoz*, a small leaf; from *ciar*, black, or dark, *Ciарάν*, a man's name, denoting swarthy, or black complexioned; from *boct*, poor, *boctán*, a pauper.

Several ancient Irish names were diminutives formed in this manner, as *Colmán*, from *Colum*; *Mochaomoz*, formed from *Caoim*, handsome,—hence this name is Latinized *Pulcherius*; *Scoiçín*, formed from *ῥcoç*, a flower; &c. Most of these names are now known chiefly as names of the ancient Irish saints.

It should be here noted, that some nouns terminating in *άν* and *όζ*, do not always express diminutive ideas, as *copόζ*, a dock, or any large leaf growing on the earth; *lubán*, a bow; *morán*, a great quantity; *oileán*, an island.

In *Cormac's Glossary*, at the word *uibne*, it is stated that all the diminutives end in *άν*, or *ene*: *άρ καç ðeioðblι ῥιλ α m-béῤῥα ιῥ άν no éne ðo ῥααῤῥcuib*, “every diminutive which is in language is expressed by *άν*, or *ene*.” And yet we find the termination *όζ*, or *όç*, in the most ancient manuscripts, to denote diminution.

Stewart is justly of opinion, that the termination *ῥαιό*, or *ῥιό*, added to nouns, has a collective (not a plural) import, like the termination *rie* in the French words *cavalerie*, *infanterie*, and *ry* in the English words *cavalry*, *infantry*, *yeomanry*, as *laochruidh*, a band of heroes.—*Gælic Grammar*, 2nd edit. pp. 180, 181. That such words as *λαόῥαιό*, *μαçῥαιό*, *εαçῥαιό*, are collective nouns, and not plurals of *λαόç*, *μαç*, *εαç*, will appear from the following examples, in which the singular form of the article is used in connexion with them: *ιαῤ n-a çlor ῥιη ðo'n λαόῥαιό*, “the heroes having heard this,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 73; *ζo λioη α λαόῥαιόε*, “with the entire number of his heroes,” *Id.*, p. 75; *coῤα na h-eaçῥαιόε*,

“the feet of the horses,” *Id.*, p. 120 ; μαρ ceann feartha ar a laocraide, “as captain of his heroes,” *Id.*, p. 67 ; ar loigiuo a laocraide, “from the fewness of his heroes,” *Id.*, p. 144 ; oá ppióm-longpope oo bí a Zaiñuó ’na g-cleactasaoir a ríognaid beic ’na g-comnuide, “two chief seats there were in Leinster, in which their kings used to dwell,” *Id.*, p. 25 ; ceatpar ar fíoió oo laocruio a líon, “twenty-four heroes was their number,” *Id.*, p. 57. So in *Cormac’s Glossary*, voce Femen, we find oampaiç, oxen, as oa pí-oam oampaiçe Epenn, “the two royal oxen of the kine of Ireland.” And in the *Dinnsenchus* : capn macraioe Zaiç-en, “the carn of the youth of Leinster.”

9. Nouns substantive in bar. These are very few in number, and are formed from other substantives, as from ouille a leaf, is derived ouilleabar, foliage.

SUBSECTION 2.—Of derivative Adjectives.

1. Adjectives in ac, aió, ió, uioe, are generally derived from substantives ; as from fearg, anger, comes feargac, angry ; from eagna, wisdom, eagnaio, or eagnuioe, wise ; from ciall, sense, ceillio, sensible, or prudent.

2. Adjectives in mar are derived from substantives, as from ciall, sense, comes ciallmar, sensible ; from gpaio, love, gpaioimar, lovely.

So also from ag, prosperity, agmar, prosperous, lucky ; from líon, a number, líonmar, numerous ; from ceol, music, ceolmar, musical ; from bpiç, virtue, force, bpiçmar, vigorous, efficacious. Some think that this termination is the preposition or adverb mar, as, or like to.

3. Adjectives in amail are also derived from substantives, as from fear a man, comes fearamail, manly ; from gean, love, geanamail, amiable, comely ; from pláinte, health, pláinteamail, healthy.

This termination is written $\alpha\mu\upsilon\iota\lambda$, by some, and generally pronounced as if written $\upsilon\lambda$, and in the Erse, *áil, eil*. It is analogous to the Latin *alis*; and it is unquestionably a corruption of the word $\alpha\mu\alpha\iota\lambda$, or $\alpha\mu\upsilon\iota\lambda$, *like*, suffixed to nouns, like the English *war-like, soldier-like, business-like*.

4. Adjectives in $\tau\alpha$, $\upsilon\alpha$, or $\delta\alpha$, are also derived from substantives, as from $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$, a man, comes $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho\delta\alpha$, masculine; $\beta\epsilon\alpha\upsilon$, a woman, $\beta\alpha\upsilon\delta\alpha$, feminine; $\acute{\omicron}\rho$, gold, $\acute{\omicron}\rho\delta\alpha$, golden; $\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho$, great, $\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho\delta\alpha$, majestic; $\rho\acute{\iota}\rho\epsilon\alpha\upsilon$, a just man, $\rho\acute{\iota}\rho\epsilon\alpha\upsilon\tau\alpha$, righteous; $\zeta\eta\iota\alpha\upsilon$, the sun, $\zeta\eta\iota\alpha\upsilon\delta\alpha$, sunny; $\zeta\alpha\lambda\lambda$, a foreigner, $\zeta\alpha\lambda\lambda\delta\alpha$, exotic.

SUBSECTION 3.—Of derivative Verbs.

1. Verbs in $\acute{\iota}\zeta\iota\mu$, or $\upsilon\acute{\iota}\zeta\iota\mu$, making the future in $\epsilon\omicron\acute{\omicron}\delta\alpha\upsilon$. These are derived sometimes from substantives and sometimes from adjectives.

Examples.—From $\kappa\upsilon\iota\mu\acute{\eta}\nu\epsilon$, or $\kappa\upsilon\iota\mu\acute{\eta}\nu\iota$, memory, comes $\kappa\upsilon\iota\mu\acute{\eta}\nu\iota\zeta\iota\mu$, I remember; from $\rho\omicron\iota\lambda\lambda\eta\iota$, light, comes $\rho\omicron\iota\lambda\lambda\eta\iota\zeta\iota\mu$, I shine; from $\mu\acute{\omicron}\lambda\eta\iota$, sweet, comes $\mu\acute{\omicron}\lambda\eta\iota\zeta\iota\mu$, I sweeten; from $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$, white, comes $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\upsilon\zeta\iota\mu$, I whiten.

2. Some verbs in $\alpha\iota\mu$, making the future in $\rho\epsilon\delta\alpha\upsilon$, are derived from adjectives.

Examples.— $\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho$, great, $\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho\alpha\iota\mu$, I magnify; $\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho\zeta$, red, $\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho\zeta\alpha\iota\mu$, I redden.

It should be here noted, that verbs derived from adjectives denoting colour, cold, heat, &c., are either active or passive, as $\theta\epsilon\alpha\rho\zeta\alpha\iota\mu$, which may signify either I redden, i. e. make red, or I become red, i. e. blush; $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\upsilon\zeta\iota\mu$, I whiten, i. e. make another thing white, or I become white, i. e. grow pale myself; $\rho\upsilon\alpha\rho\upsilon\zeta\iota\mu$, I cool, or become cold.

SECTION 2.—*Of Composition, or the Formation of compound Terms.*

In all compound words the second part is qualified, or defined by the first, and not the first by the second: hence it follows, that whatever part of speech the first, or prepositive part may be in itself, it becomes an adjective to the second, or subjunctive part.

Examples.—In ορ-λαρτα, gold-burnished; βλάτ-κύμπα, blossom-sweet; βέλ-βινν, mouth-sweet, fluent; the nouns όρ, βλάτ, and βέλ, become definitives to the adjectives λαρτα, κύμπα, and βινν.

This is a general principle in Irish compounds, and also in those of all the Teutonic dialects. When the compound consists of more than two parts, this principle is also observed throughout, viz. the first term defines or particularizes all the parts following it, as φίορ-άρο-αιγεανταό, *truly-high-minded*.

An adjective, when placed before a substantive, enters into composition with it, as αρθ-μιξ, a monarch; τρέν-φέαρ, a mighty man; θεαξ-λαοό, a goodly hero; άόβαλ-κύρ, a great cause; βαν-πίλε, a poetess; γνάτ-δέαπλα, a common dialect.

It is also a general rule in forming compound words in this language, that the preceding part of the compound aspirates the initial consonant of the part which follows, if it admit of aspiration, not excepting even ρ, as δέιξ-βεαν, a good woman; υπαλ-χεανθ, a noble head (*Cor. Gloss., voce Αιρσίνθεσ*); θεαξ-δουμ, a good man; μόρ-φέαρ, a great man; οροίό-ξήοιό, an evil deed; μόρ-μόορ, a high steward; άρο-πόρτ, a chief port, or fort; cam-ρύλεαό, wry-eyed; οροίό-ξεμε, a bad fire. From this rule, however, are excepted:

1. Words beginning with ρ, followed by a mute, which, as already observed, never suffers aspiration.

2. Words beginning with *o* or *τ*, when the preceding part of the compound ends in *o*, *n*, *τ*, as *ceann-τρéan*, head-strong; *ceann-óána*, obstinate; *céio-τεαḡ*, the first house, *Keat. Hist.*, p. 75; *lán-óipeach*, full-straight, straightforward, *Id.*, p. 79; *Cruiítean-τυαḡ*, Pict-land, *Id.*, p. 80; *ápo-ταοιρloch*, an arch-chieftain, *Id.*, p. 95; *ceann-ταοιρḡ*, head-chieftains, *Id.*, p. 141; *ḡlún-óub*, black-kneed, as *Ḥiall ḡlún-óub*, *Id.*, p. 95.

3. A few instances occur in which there is a euphonic agreement between the consonants thus brought together, which agreement would be violated if the latter were aspirated; but it must be acknowledged that in the spoken language this agreement is not observed in every part of Ireland.

The following are the most usual modes of compounding words in this language.

I.—WORDS COMPOUNDED WITH A SUBSTANTIVE PREFIXED.

1.—*Substantives compounded with Substantives.*

- óó-ár*, the murrain; literally, *cow-destruction*.
Caite-εαοαρναioe, an ambuscade, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 954.
Caite-ḡilíó, a soldier; literally, *battle-soldier*.
Caite-ḡápp, a helmet; literally, *battle-top* (i. e. *battle-hat*).
Ceann-ḡearḡ, or *ceinn-ḡearḡ*, a head-dress.
óall-ciaó, a blinding fog; confusion, or bewildering, *Vit. Moling*, and *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 253.
óoap-óú, an otter, i. e. water-dog, *Cor. Gloss*, voce *Coim Fóó-airne*.
óoap-ḡoilpe, twilight, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1557.
óune-ḡáó, the plague among men, *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Sabalταip*.
Fíóó-ár, destruction of trees by a storm; lit. *wood-destruction*.
ḡion-épaop, a wide, or voracious mouth.
óám-óia, a household god, literally, a *hand-god*.
óám-ópo, a hand-sledge.
óeap-óoiḡéaóioe, a librarian; literally, a *book-keeper*, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1136.

Ζεαῦ-ἄκουα, one ear^b.

Ζεαῦ-πόδι, one foot.

Ζεαῦ-χέρι, one hand.

Ζεαῦ-ὄφθαλμος, one eye.

Ὀ-ναρξ, or αὐ-ναρξ, an ear-ring.

Ῥιόξ-ἑταίρεα, a royal chieftain.

Σουαῖ-ὄρουρα, an arched doorway, *Book of Lismore*, fol. 156.

Συαν-ἄνεμα, a charm which causes sleep, *Id.*, fol. 175.

2.—*Adjectives with a Substantive prefixed.*

Ὀέλ-ἄνθος, sweet-mouthed, fluent.

Κεανν-ῥομφαία, blue-headed.

Κεανν-κεφαλή, heavy-headed.

Κνηρ-ῥομφαία, white-skinned; lit. *skin-white*.

Κοιρ-ἑλαφροπόδι, light-footed; lit. *foot-light*.

Κοιρ-ἄποδοτος, bare-footed; lit. *foot-bare*.

Μογγ-ῥομφαία, red-haired; lit. *hair-red*, i. e. *crine ruber*.

3.—*Verbs or Participles with a Substantive prefixed.*

Ὀσείλ-ἄνω, trembling all over, *Vita Coemgeni*.

Ὀσείλ-ἄνω, broken at the top; lit. *top-broken*.

Ὀσείλ-ἄνοιος, or βέαι-ἄνοιος, mouth-open, wide-open.

Κρεαῖ-ἄνω, I devastate with fire, as πο κρεαῖ-ἄνω λαοὶ ἄνω
 an ῥομφαία ἄνω ἰ μ-βαοὶ ῥομφαία ἄνω ἄνω, “by that army was
 burned all that was under the jurisdiction of the English,”
Ann. Four Mast., A. D. 1594.

Ὀσείλ-ἄνω, pierced in the middle.

Κρεαῖ-ἄνω, side-hacked, wounded in the sides.

Κρεαῖ-ἄνω, I praise with warmth, or enthusiasm: κρεαῖ-ἄνω,
 enthusiastic praises, *Book of Fermoy*, fol. 52.

Κρεαῖ-ἄνω, wave-rocked.

^b When λεαῖ, which literally means *half*, is thus prefixed, it signifies “*one of two*,” such as one ear, one eye, one leg, one hand, one foot, one shoe, one

cheek. It is never applied, except where nature or art has placed two together; but in this case it is considered more elegant than αὐ, *one*.

II.—WORDS COMPOUNDED WITH AN ADJECTIVE PREFIXED.

1.—*Substantives with an Adjective prefixed.*

Αἰρο-ριξ, a monarch, i. e. arch-king.

Αἰτεαὶ-πόρις, a plebeian town, or village.

Ὀρορ-ορν, a great rock, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 15. p. 180, col. *a*, line 23.

Κεαρτ-μέσσον, or κειρτ-μέσσον, the very middle, or centre, *Wars of Turlough*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 1. p. 1.

Κεαζαρ-λεαβάρ, the book of the Four Gospels; literally, the quadruple book.

Κλαεν-βρεαῖ, a false sentence, MS. Trin. Col. Dubl. H. 2. 15. p. 26.

Θαορζαρ-ῥλυαῖξ, the mob, or rabble, *Ann. Four Mast.*, *passim*.

Θυβ-αβανν, a black river.

Θυβ-ḡλαϊρε, a black stream.

Θυβ-έαν, a cormorant; literally, *black-bird*.

Ῥινν-έολάν, a beautiful little bell, *Book of Lismore*, fol. 189.

Ῥιονν-βρυḡ, a fair habitation, *Leabhar Branach*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 1. 14. fol. 112.

Ῥιονν-ḡλαϊρε, a bright, or clear stream.

Ῥίορ-μύλλαχ, the very summit, the *vertex*, *apex*, or *cacumen*.

Ῥαρβ-δοϊρε, a rough oak wood, or grove; *roboretum asperum*.

Ῥλαρ-νιυιρ, a green sea, *Rumann, Laud.* 610, fol. 10.

Ῥασίμ-οιοε, a holy tutor, *Vit. Cellachi*.

Ῥρίομ-άλλασοίρ, chief keeper of the calendar, *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1136.

Ῥρίμ-έεαλλα, principal churches.

Ῥίḡ-τέαχ, a royal house.

Ῥρέιν-ῤεϊόμ, a mighty effort.

Ῥρομ-έουλα, heavy sleep: *con*α ο-τυιλ Ῥαδḡ ῤρομ-έουλα, “so that Teige slept a heavy sleep,” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 163.

Ῥρομ-ḡλ, heavy or deep lamentation, or weeping.

2.—*Adjectives compounded with Adjectives.*

Αἰρο-βεανναῖ, lofty-peaked, high-pinnacled.

Αρο-τορρannaç, loud-sounding, altisonant : pronounced in some parts of Ireland ápo-çòρρannaçh, which violates the euphonic rule above alluded to.

Δου-δονν, dark-brown ; ουδ-ζορρμ, dark-blue.

Φίορ-άλυμν, truly fine, or splendid.

Ψαν-παόαρραç, clear-sighted.

Ζαομ-ουαραç, very bountiful.

Ζαομρζααρ-ζλιç, very wise, or prudent.

Ζιαç-βάν, pale-grey.

Ζομ-λάν, and in old writings lomnán, very full, full to the brink, or brim : as lomnán οο βιυò, “very full of food,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 108.

3.—Verbs, or Participles, with an Adjective prefixed.

Αίρο-εισιολλαίμ, I fly on high.

Δεαρζ-λαραò, red-flaming.

Διαν-ρζαοίλεαò, rapid dissolution, or relaxing.—*Book of Fermoy*, fol. 72.

Δλίε-çεανγλαίμ, I bind fast.

Ψείρ-λεαναίμ, I persecute.

Τρέαν-ραοβαίμ, or τρέμ-ρέαβαίμ, I disrupture, I tear violently, or mightily.

Τρομ-ζοναίμ, I wound deeply, or severely : as άιτ αρ τρομ-ζοναò Αοò Ολλάν, “where Aodh Ollan was severely wounded,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 135 ; τρομ-ζοίμτεαρ Εοζάν αν, “Eoghan was deeply wounded there,” *Vita S. Cellachì*.

Τρομ-ζυιλίμ, I weep loudly, deeply, or heavily, *Keat. Hist.*, p. 119.

III.—WORDS COMPOUNDED WITH A VERB PREFIXED.

The genius of the Irish language does not seem to favour the prefixing of verbs in compound terms, but modern translators have coined a few words in which verbs are prefixed, as ταρραινζ-αρτ, a load-stone ; βρην-ζέίμνεαç, broken noise.

IV.—WORDS COMPOUNDED WITH A PREPOSITION PREFIXED.

The Irish language does not admit of compounding words in this manner, excepting in very few instances. The following is a list of the principal words so compounded :

Ḑileagaím, I dissolve : as Ḑiléḡraio a maith a n-olc, “their good shall dissolve their evil,” *Visio Adamnani*.

Ḑirḡaioim, I dissolve : Ḑo Ḑirḡailḡioir ḡurḡaint ocuḡ ḡolaio maet na n-ae, “the substance and soft consistency of the liver would dissolve,” *Old Med. MS.*

Ḑaoar-ḡuioe, intercession : Ḑo eirḡ Ḑia ḡa n-a eḡir-ḡuioib, “God listened to his intercessions,” *Ann. Tighernach*, p. 583.

Ḑaoar-ḡolur, twilight.

Ḑioir-míḡim, I interpret.

Ḑaoar-ḡḡarao, anciently written eḡarrḡarao, separation, *Cor. Gloss., vocibus Ḑeiliuḡao, et lanoman.*

Ḑo-ḡalam, lower land, low land, *Cor. Gloss., voce Ḑarḡe.*

Ḑar-mbéapla, an adverb, or any indeclinable part of speech.

Ḑm-ḡimceallar, it surrounds, *Cor. Gloss., voce Imbáth.*

Reḡ-ḡaioe, aforesaid.

Ḑimcell-ḡearrao, or timcill-ḡearrao, circumcision.

Ḑim-ḡluarim, I move round.

Ḑrio-ḡoilḡeac, transparent, pellucid.

Ḑrio-ḡpeáḡta, transpierced, pierced through^c.

The foregoing are all the modes after which compound terms are formed in all chaste compositions ; but in some romantic tales the bards, passing the ordinary bounds of language and of common sense, introduced very strange compounds. Still, however, the examples of this extravagant class of compounds given by O'Brien, in his *Irish Grammar*, pp. 70, 71, 72, are such as occur in no ancient or modern Irish poems, nor in the early specimens of prose composition found in the *Book of Armagh*, in *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*, the *Book of Leinster*, or the *Leabhar Breac* ; and as they consist of a string of adjectives huddled together, without skill or taste,

^c See Chap. VI. Sect. 2.

it is needless to give any further account of them here, except that the principle above laid down must be observed, whatever number of words may be combined in the composition, namely, that the foregoing word qualifies or defines the succeeding ones.

From what has been said of the nature of compound substantives, it is obvious that they retain the gender of the latter part of the compound, that being the staple original element, the former being the superadded, influencing, or defining element.

Thus, in the compound term lám-óro, a hand-sledge, there are two nouns, of different genders, lám, a hand, being feminine, and óro, a sledge, being masculine; but as lám, by being placed first in the compound, becomes an adjective, and loses its gender altogether, the gender of óro only is to be taken into consideration. But if we reverse the position of the words in the compound, and write óro-lám, a sledge-hand (say a hand fit for wielding a sledge), then the term will be of the feminine gender, as óro, the former part, becomes an adjective to lám.

In writing compound words, the component parts are generally separated, in correctly printed Irish books, by a hyphen, but not always. The use of the hyphen does not, in fact, appear to have been regulated by any fixed rule; but the hyphen should be employed in this, in the same manner as it is in most other languages, and therefore the rules for regulating the use of it belong to general grammar. The general rule is as follows:

When the first part of the compound is accented, no hyphen is to be used; but if the accent be on the second part of the compound, the hyphen is to be inserted between the component parts.

On the subject of compound words, the learner is referred to the *English Language*, by Professor Latham, Chapter XXV. pp. 328-341.

PART III.

OF SYNTAX.

SYNTAX treats of the concord, collocation, and government of words in sentences. It may be conveniently divided into Concord and Government; under which heads the subordinate rules of Irish Syntax will be arranged, according to the part of speech affected.

CHAPTER I.

OF CONCORD.

IN this part of Syntax is to be considered the agreement of certain parts of speech with each other. The first concord or agreement is between the article and the substantive to which it is prefixed; the second between the adjective and its substantive; the third, between the pronoun and the substantive for which it stands; the fourth, between the verb and its nominative case. To which may be added a fifth, namely, the concord, or apposition, of one substantive to another.

Under the head of Concord may also be conveniently considered the rules for the relative *collocation*

of the several parts of speech, when in agreement with each other.

SECTION I.—*Of the Agreement of the Article with its Substantive, and of its Collocation.*

RULE I.

The article is always placed before its substantive, and agrees with it in gender, number, and case, as an fear, the man; an fear, of the man; na fear, the men; an bean, the woman; na mná, of the woman; na m-ban, of the women.

The form of the article has been already pointed out in the Etymology, Chap. I. pp. 66–68.

In the modern colloquial Irish, and in the Scotch Gaelic, the *n* of the article is usually cut off before consonants, particularly aspirated palatals and labials; but it is almost always retained in the best Irish manuscripts.

For the influences of the article on the initials of nouns, see the Etymology, Chap. I. pp. 69–72, rules 1–6, where a portion of Syntax has been unavoidably anticipated.

RULE II.

a. When the adjective precedes the substantive they are regarded in Irish Syntax as one compound word; and therefore, when the article is prefixed, the initial of the adjective so placed suffers the same change as if it were but a syllable of the substantive, as an τ-óig-fear, the young man; an óig-bean, the young woman; an fear-duine, the old man; an τ-fear-bean, the old woman; an τ-fear-duine, of the old man; na fear-mná, of the old woman.

Here it will be observed, that the initials of the adjectives undergo the same changes as if they were merely the first syllables of simple nouns, and there can be no doubt that they are so regarded in Irish Syntax.

From this must be excepted the ordinals *céad*, first; *Dara*, second; *tréad*, third, &c.; for we say an *céad fear*, the first man; an *céad bean*, the first woman; the *c* in *céad* being always aspirated, whether the noun be masculine or feminine. The other ordinals suffer no change, except *oictiú*, eighth, which takes *o* after the article, whether the noun following be masculine or feminine, as an *o-oictiú fear*, the eighth man; an *o-oictiú bean*, the eighth woman.

b. When two substantives come together, one governing the other in the genitive case, the article is never used before the former in the modern language, although both be limited in signification, and would require the article *the* when made English, as *mac an fear*, *the son of the man*, not an *mac an fear*; *riú na Fraince*, *the king of France*, not an *riú na Fraince*.

This is the case in the modern language, but in ancient writings the article is found prefixed both to the governing and the governed substantive, as *cu* in *al na guala*, “to *the* joint of the shoulder,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Deac.*

c. When the possessive pronoun is joined to the noun governed, it excludes the article, as *obair a láimhe*, *the work of his hand*, not an *obair a láimhe*.

RULE III.

Besides the common use of the article as a definitive (like the English *the*), to limit the signification of

substantives, it is applied in Irish in the following instances, which may be regarded as idiomatic :

1. Before a substantive followed by the demonstrative pronouns *eo*, *ein*, *úd* ; as *an fear eo*, this man ; literally, *the man this* ; *an bean úd*, yon woman ; *an tír ein*, that country. Also very often before *uile*, *all*, *every*, as *an uile duine*, every man.

2. Before a substantive preceded by its adjective and the assertive verb *ir* ; as *ir maic an fear é*, he is a good man.

3. Before the names of some countries and places, as *an Spáin*, Spain ; *an Fhrainc*, France ; *an Thear-máin*, Germany.

But *Eire*, Ireland, and *Alba*, Scotland, never have the article prefixed to the nominative or dative, though they often have to the genitive, as *riú na h-Eireann*, the king of Ireland ; *riú na h-Alban*, the king of Scotland. The same may be observed of *Teamaic*, Tara ; *Emania*, Emania ; *Cruaca*, Rathcroghan ; and a few other proper names of places in Ireland. It is also generally placed before names of rivers, as *an t-Sionann*, the Shannon ; *an t-Súir*, the Suire ; *an Fheoir*, the Nore ; *an t-Sláine*, the Slaney ; *an Dhanna*, the Bann ; *an Dhuaic*, the Bush ; *an Mhuaid*, the Moy ; *an Fhorúir*, the Fergus ; *an Mhaig*, the Maigue ; *an Eirne*, the Inny ; *an t-Sabairn*, the Severn, also an old name of the River Lee in Munster. It is also placed before several proper names of places in Ireland, in the nominative form : *an Náir*, Naas ; *an t-Iobair*, Newry [lit. *the yew tree*^a] ; *an Chopann*, Corran.

^a So called from an ancient yew tree, said to have been planted by St. Patrick, which was

burned in the year 1162, according to the Annals of the Four Masters.

SECTION 2.—*Of the Collocation of the Adjective, and of its Agreement with its Substantive.*

RULE IV.

The natural position of the adjective is immediately after its substantive, as *ῥεαρ μόρ*, a great man; *δαοιη δοννα*, wretched people.

The exceptions to this rule are the following :

1. When the adjective is specially emphatic, and ascribed to the substantive by the assertive verb *ἵρ*, or by the negative *νί*, it is placed before the substantive; as *ἵρ ῥυαρ αν λά έ*, it is a cold day; *ἵρ βρεάγ αν βεαν ί*, she is a fine woman; *δο β' αοιδινν αν οίόε ί*, it was a delightful night; *νί τρυαγ λιον δο όορ*, not pitiful to me is thy condition, i. e. I pity not thy condition.

This collocation, however, cannot be adopted when the substantive verb *τά* is used, for then the adjective takes its natural position after its substantive.

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, are always placed before their substantives; as *τρί βλιαδνα*, three years; *αν τρεαρ βλιαδαν*, the third year.

But when the number is expressed in two words, the noun is placed between the unit and the decimal decade, as *τρί ριρ δέαγ*, thirteen men; *αν τρεαρ ῥεαρ δέαγ*, the thirteenth man.—See page 124.

3. Some adjectives of one syllable are very generally placed before their substantives; as *δεαγ*, good; *ορσ*, or *ρασβ*, evil, bad; *ρεαν*, old.

These combine with their nouns, so as to form one word; and

Τυαραρτολ ριζ ὀροζα ριζ,
 Ο ριζ Ερενο cen ιμῆνίμ,
 Δειε n-ιοναιρ οonna, οearza,
 Ιρ οειε ngoill can ὄαοελγα.

“The stipend of the king of Bruree,
 From the king of Ireland without sorrow,
 Ten tunics, brown, red,
 And ten foreigners [slaves] without Gaelic.”

—*Leabhar na g-Ceart*, as in the *Book of Lecan*.

Σεετ μύρ ζλομμυι co n-οαθαυῖ exαmlαυῖ ι n-α τιmchell, “seven walls of glass, with various colours around it,” *Visio Adamnani* ;
 ι nγlennαυῖ ουβαυῖ οορχαυῖ, οοιμμυῖ, οερμαυῖ οεερυοαχαυῖ,
 “in black, dark, deep, terrific, smoky vales,” *Ibid.* ; co ρραυῖ οεργαυῖ τεnεουῖ billαmαυῖ leo, “with red, fiery scourges in their hands,” *Ibid.*

2. *When the adjective precedes the substantive*, as in Rule IV., the form of the adjective does not in any respect depend on its substantive ; but it is influenced by prefixed participles, as if it were itself a substantive ; and it aspirates the initial of its substantive, as if both formed one compound term, as αῶβαλ κύρre, great causes ; τρέαν κύραῶ, a mighty champion ; le h-αῶβαλ κύρῖb, with great causes ; να ο-τρέαν κύραῶ, of the mighty champions.

3. *When the adjective is in the predicate of a proposition, and the substantive in the subject*, the form of the adjective is not modified by its substantive ; as τά an ζαοεῖ ρυαρ, the wind is cold, not τά an ζαοεῖ ρυαρ ; τά an τalam οορεαμαυῖ, the earth is fruitful, not τά an τalam οορεαμαυῖ.

This is unquestionably the case in the modern colloquial Irish, and in all printed books and most manuscripts of the last three centuries; but in ancient manuscripts the adjective is varied so as to agree, at least in number, with its substantive, whether placed before or after it, or in the predicate or subject of a proposition, as in the following examples in the *Leabhar Breac*, and other manuscripts: *at buide do lámá, at brecca do beoil, at liaeta do iúile*, “yellow are thy hands, speckled are thy lips, grey are thy eyes,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 111, *b, b*; *ic forbaileig rium*, “and joyous are they,” *Visio Adamnani*; *irae láná penba nime, ocur pedlanta, ocur firmamint, ocur mo uli dól do’n ullallguba dermar do gniat anmanna na pedbach fo lamaib ocur glacaib inna namut nem-marbodarín*, “the planets of heaven, the stars, and the firmament, and every element is full of the great wailings, which the souls of the sinners make under the hands and lashes of these immortal enemies,” *Id.*; *báb riapac do Muimniog ocur Laiagne*, for *ba riapac do Muimniog agus Laiagniog*, “the Momonians and Lagenians were obedient to him,” *Vit. S. Cellachi*; and in the *Battle of Magh Rath*, *po dáileo iapum biao ocur deoc forab, combar mecca, meoap-caoime*, “meat and drink were afterwards distributed amongst them, until they were inebriated and cheerful,” p. 28; *ár eio at mópa na h-uile do ponair rrim*, “for though great are the evils thou hast done to me,” *Id.*, p. 32; *at mópa na h-aiúipe do padat forp a eig in riog anoct*, “great are the insults that have been offered to thee in the king’s house this night,” *Id.*, p. 30. Even Duaid Mac Firbis, who wrote in the middle of the seventeenth century, makes the adjective agree with its substantive, even when placed before it, as *baó mópa paeta a ríog*, “great was the prosperity of their kings,” *Tribes and Customs of the Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 316.

4. *When the adjective qualifies the verb* its form is not modified by the substantive, as *déan an rcián géap*, make the knife sharp; not *déan an rcián géap*, for that would signify, “make the sharp knife.”

This distinction, though agreeable to the strictest philosophical propriety, does not appear to have been observed in other languages of Europe.

5. *When an adjective beginning with a lingual, is preceded by a noun terminating with a lingual, the initial of the adjective retains its primary sound in all the cases of the singular, as* αρ μο ζυαλαινη δειρ, “on my right shoulder^b ;” αρ α χοιρ δειρ, on his right foot, not αρ α χοιρ οειρ; colann θαonna, a human body, not colann θαonna^c.

This exception is made to preserve the agreeable sound arising from the coalescence of the lingual consonants. In the spoken language, however, this euphonic principle is not observed, but the adjective is aspirated regularly according to the gender of the substantive, as set down in the Etymology, Chap. III. But in colann θαonna, and a few other phrases, the θ is never aspirated in any part of Ireland, except by children.

6. *When an adjective is used to describe the quality of two nouns, it agrees with the one next to it, as* ρεαρ αζυρ bean μαιτ, a good man and woman; bean αζυρ ρεαρ μαιτ.

7. When the numerals θά, two; ρίce, twenty; céαθ, a hundred; míle, a thousand, or any multiple of ten, are prefixed to the substantive, then the substantive and its article are put, not in the plural, but in the singular form.

Some have supposed that the substantive in these instances is really in the genitive case plural; but that this is not the fact is sufficiently obvious from this, that when the noun has a decided

^b O'Molloy, *Lucerna Fidel.* p. 18.

^c Id., p. 19.

form for the genitive plural, it cannot be placed after these numerals, as *ficé bean*, twenty women; *céao baine*, a hundred persons; *céao caora*, a hundred sheep; not *ficé ban*, *céao baimeasó*, *céao caoraicé*, the genitives plural of these nouns being (as already seen, pp. 103, 109), *ban*, *baimeasó*, *caoraicé*.

The terminational form of the feminine substantive, when preceded by *dá*, two, is the same as the dative singular, except when the substantive is governed in the genitive case, and then it is put in the genitive plural, as *dá coir*, two feet; *dá lám*, two hands; *da cluar*, two ears; not *dá cor*, *da lám*, *dá cluar*; *méid a dá lám*, the size of his two hands; not *méid a dá lám*: *in dá chuipir i n-Innir Cáthaiḡ noḡa léḡar corra aili leo i n-a n-innir*, “the two cranes of Inis Cathaigh do not suffer other cranes to remain with them on their island,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 16. p. 242.

But though the substantive has thus decidedly the singular form as much as *six foot*, *twelve inch*, *twenty mile*, in English, still the adjective belonging to and following such a noun is put in the plural, as *dá lám móra*, two great hands; *dá loḡrán, móra*, “two great luminaries,” *Genesis*, i. 16; *da léppaire móra*, “two great lights,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 8; *da comarḡa caoi coitceḡa*, “two beautiful general signs,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 114; *an dá iarc beaḡ*, of the two small fishes; *dí ḡaeḃ ḡlemna, ḡnechtaiḡe*, “two smooth, snowy sides,” *Mac Conglinn’s Dream*, in *Leabhar Breac*; *da bḡa doile, dubḡorma or na porca ḡin*, “two chaferlike, dark-blue brows over those eyes,” *Id.*

This remarkable exception to the general use of the singular and plural numbers induced O’Molloy and others to be of opinion, that there were three numbers in this language. O’Molloy writes:

“Verum ex ijs, quæ obseruauit, ausim dicere, tres numerari posse numeros apud Hibernos; singularem nempè, qui unum importat, pluralem qui duo, et plusquam pluralem id est, qui plusquam duo: dicunt enim in singulari *capoll, cor, ceann*, latinè *caballus, pes, caput*. In plurali verò *ḡha chapoll, da choir, da cheann*, latinè *duo caballi, duo pedes, duo capita*; tametsi nomina sint in singulari numero præter numeralia, quæ sunt pluralis nu-

meri : plusquàm pluralis, τρι caput, τρι cor, τρι cinn, in quibus tum numeralia, tum substantiva important plusquam duo," *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 122.

The Rev. Paul O'Brien, in his *Irish Grammar*, p. 21, says that "δὰ cor, ought to be δὰ cor, i. e. a foot twice; for δα is expressive of second, twice, or pair; as δύο, not δά, in numbers, is two." But the very reverse is the fact, for δύο is the number two in the abstract, while δά, or δά, is the form of the numeral adjective which coalesces with nouns, like τεῖρε, four (the form τεαταρ denoting four in the abstract), so that O'Brien's observations are wholly erroneous. We cannot, however, admit a dual number, because all nouns of the masculine gender terminate like the nominative singular when placed after the numeral δά, two, and the third form occurs in feminine nouns only, thus: ερανη (masc.), a tree; δά ερανη, two trees; τρι ερονη, three trees; λάν (fem.), a hand; δά λάν, two hands; τρι λάν, three hands. In the Hebrew, and many of the Eastern languages, a noun in the singular form is sometimes found connected with plural numerals, *twenty, thirty*; and instances of it are also found in the French language, as *vingt et un ecu*, twenty and one crown; and more frequently in old English, as *twenty DOZEN*; *six FOOT high*; *twelve INCH thick*; *sixty MILE in breadth*, &c., as in the following examples in Shakspeare:

"That's fifty year ago."—*2nd Pt. Hen. IV.* Act 3, sc. 2.

"I must a dozen mile to-night."—*Ib.*

"Three pound of sugar: five pound of currants," &c.—

Winter's Tale, Act 1. sc. 3.

"Will your lordship lend me a thousand pound to furnish me forth?"—*2nd Part Hen. IV.* Act 1. sc. 2.

Some German authors also write *zwanzig mann*, twenty men.

SECTION 3.—*Of the Collocation and Agreement of Pronouns with their Antecedents.*

RULE VI.

a. The possessive adjective pronouns *mo*, *my*, *δο*, *thy*, *α*, *his*, *her's*, or *their's*, are placed before their nouns, and agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and case. But the other pronouns have no distinction of number or case.

Examples.—*Μο* ἴουλ, *my eye*; *δο* ἄου, *thy foot*; *α* ἡ-κινν, *their heads*: Ὁρραζαυρ ἰορα αζυρ *α* δουαιρτ ρέ leo, *λεαζαῖδ ρῖορ αν τεαν*. pull ρο, αζυρ τόιγευθαῖδ *μιρε* *έ* *α* *ο*-τρι *λαεζαιδ*, “*Jesus answered, and said to them, destroy this temple, and I will build it up in three days,*” *John*, ii. 19; ρέιουδ αν ἡαστ μαρ ιρ *αῖλ* *λέι*, αζυρ *ε*λυμρ *α* *τορ*ανν, *α*ττ *νι* *φ*εαρ *δ*υιτ *ε*α *η*-αρ *α* *ο*-τιζ *ρῖ* *νο* *ε*’ *αῖτ* *α* *ο*-τέιου *ρῖ*, “*the wind bloweth where it listeth, but thou knowest not whence it proceedeth, or whither it goeth,*” *John*, iii. 19.

b. The emphatic postfixes of these pronouns are placed after the substantive to which they belong, as *μο* *λάμ*-*ρα*, *my hand*, *άρ* *ἡ*-*κινν*-*νε*, *our hands*; and if the substantive be immediately followed by an adjective, the emphatic particle is placed after such adjective, as *μο* *ἄου* *ἄ*-*λί*-*ρι*, *my left foot*; *α* *λάμ* *ἄ*-*ε*αρ-*ραν*, *his right hand*.

RULE VII.

If the pronoun has a sentence, or member of a sentence, for its antecedent, it must be put in the third person singular, masculine gender, as *ιρ* *μιρε* *ε*υζ *ρ*λάν *ιαδ*, *α*ττ *νῖορ* *α*ἰμῖαιζεαυαρ *έ*, *it is I that brought them safe, but they did not acknowledge it*; *ιρ* *μιμ*ε

do puaramar zac maitear ó n-a láim, aét níor éug-
 amar buideácar do air, it is often we received every
 goodness from his hand, but we have not thanked him
 for it.

RULE VIII.

If the antecedent be a noun of multitude, such as
 muinntir, luét, dponn, or dpeam, rluaz, &c., the pro-
 noun is very generally of the third person plural, as
 ir olc an dpeam luét na típe rin, agur ir puat le
 zac neac iad, the people of that country are a bad
 people, and *they* are hateful to every one.

RULE IX.

An interrogative pronoun combined with a personal
 pronoun asks a question without the intervention of the
 assertive verb ir, as cia h-é Dóinnall? *who is Daniel?*
 But the substantive verb tá bí can never be left under-
 stood, as cá b-puil Dóinnall, *where is Daniel?*—See
 Part II. Sect. 4, p. 134.

RULE X.

The relative pronouns a, *who, which*, and noç, *who,*
 or *which*, have no variations of gender or number, in
 reference to their antecedents; they always follow im-
 mediately after their antecedents, and aspirate the aspi-
 rable initials of the verbs to which they are the nomina-
 tives, as an fear a buailear, *the man who strikes.*—
 See pp. 131, 132, 133, 359.

SECTION 4.—Of the Agreement of a Verb with its Nominative Case.

RULE XI.

When the nominative case is expressed, the verb has the same form in all the persons except the relative and the third person plural, as τὰ μέ, I am, not τάμ μέ; τὰ τύ, thou art, not τάμ τύ; τὰ ρέ, he is; τὰ ρηη, we are not, ταμασιθ ρηη; τα ριβ, ye are; τάιθ ριαθ, they are.

When the synthetic form of the verb is used, the nominative cannot be expressed except in the third person plural, and even then, in the past tense, the pronoun and the termination which expresses it cannot be used at the same time, as δο κύρη ριαθ, they put, not δο κύρηαθρη ριαθ; but if the plural nominative be a noun, then the form of the verb, which expresses the person in its termination, may be retained, as όρη νόρη έρηθεαθρη α βράιτρεαά ρέηη ανη ρόρ, “for his own brethren did not as yet believe in him^d;” θα ένεθε δο γηότρη θραίθε, “two fires which the Druids used to make^e.”

Haldy writes, that “a verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person,” and then in a note observes, that “in the Scotch dialect, ‘as the verb has no variation of form corresponding to the Person, or Number of its Nominative, the connexion between the Verb and its Nominative can be marked *only* by its collocation. Little variety, therefore, is allowed in this respect.’—*Stewart*. From this, then, we may conclude, that the Scotch dialect possesses but little of the perspicuity of the mother tongue.”—*Galic Grammar*, p. 113.

^d John, vii. 5.

^e Cor. Gloss., voce θελλτανε.

It must be confessed, however, that in the Irish language, ancient or modern, no agreement is observed between the nominative case and the verb, except in the relative and the third person plural, and that even this agreement would appear to have been originally adopted in imitation of the Latin language. But it is true that the Irish verb has several terminations to express the persons, which the Scotch Gaelic has not, though these cannot be used when the nominatives are expressed, with the single exception of the third person plural.

RULE XII.

a. The nominative case, whether noun or pronoun, is ordinarily placed after the verb, as τὰ γέ, he is; ἔβριε γέ, he broke; μαρβὰδ ἔβριε, Brian was killed.

In the natural order of an Irish sentence the verb comes first, the nominative, with its dependents, next after it, and next the object of the verb, or accusative case, as πο εἰργίον Δία ἰν δυνὶ πο ἰμάϊζον ποθεν, "God made man in his own image"^f.

It is a general principle in this language, that the object of the verb should never be placed between the verb and its nominative; but we often find this natural order of an Irish sentence violated, even in the best Irish manuscripts, and the verb placed, without any apparent connexion, with its nominative, as Δαθὶ, ἰομοπο, ceṛpe mec picead [βαοι] αιρε, "Dathi, indeed, twenty-four sons were with him, i. e. Dathi had twenty-four sons," *Tribes, &c., of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 32. But, according to the genius of the language, when the noun is placed before the verb, it does not immediately connect with the verb, but rather stands in an absolute state; and such construction, though unquestionably faulty, is often adopted by the best Irish writers for the sake of emphasis, as in the English phrases, "the Queen, she reigns," "the Queen, God bless her." Sentences so constructed cannot be considered gram-

^f Book of Ballymote, fol. 8, *a*, *b*.

matically correct, unless we suppose a sudden interruption of the sentence, and, after that, an abrupt renewal of it; or unless we suppose some word equivalent to the English *as to*, or the Latin *quoad*, or *secundum*, to be understood.

b. When the assertive verb $\epsilon\iota$, or the particles $\alpha\eta$, or $\nu\alpha\acute{\sigma}$, which always carry the force of $\epsilon\iota$, and never suffer it to be expressed, are used, the collocation is as follows: the verb comes first, next the attribute, or predicate, and then the subject; as $\epsilon\iota$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\mu\acute{\epsilon}$, I am a man; $\epsilon\iota$ $\mu\alpha\iota\acute{\tau}$ $\iota\alpha\sigma$, they are good.

But if the article be expressed before the predicate, then the attribute comes next after the verb; as $\epsilon\iota$ $\mu\acute{\epsilon}$ $\alpha\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$, I am the man. The forms ϵ , $\acute{\iota}$, $\iota\alpha\sigma$, as already remarked in the Etymology, are always used in the modern language in connexion with this verb $\epsilon\iota$, and not $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, $\rho\acute{\iota}$, $\rho\iota\alpha\sigma$.

The reader will observe a striking analogy between this collocation and the Scotch English, "'tis a fine day this," "'twas a cold night that," "'tis a high hill that." From whatever source this mode of construction has been derived, it is nearly the same as the Irish and Erse, $\epsilon\iota$ $\beta\rho\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\xi$ $\alpha\eta$ $\acute{\lambda}\alpha$ $\rho\omicron$; $\beta\alpha$ $\rho\upsilon\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\eta$ $\omicron\acute{\iota}\omicron\epsilon$ $\rho\eta$; $\epsilon\iota$ $\acute{\alpha}\rho\theta$ $\alpha\eta$ $\epsilon\eta\omicron\epsilon$ $\rho\eta$; the only difference being, that the definite article is used in the Irish, and sometimes the personal pronoun set before the demonstrative, as $\epsilon\iota$ $\rho\upsilon\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\eta$ $\omicron\acute{\iota}\omicron\epsilon$ $\acute{\iota}$ $\rho\epsilon\omicron$, this is a cold night.

c. If the nominative be a collective or plural noun substantive, the verb has often the synthetic form of the third person plural.

Examples.— $\zeta\epsilon\alpha\eta\alpha\sigma\alpha\rho$ α $\mu\eta\upsilon\eta\tau\eta\rho$ $\acute{\epsilon}$, his people followed him; $\tau\upsilon\gamma\eta\alpha\tau$ α $\mu\eta\upsilon\eta\tau\eta\rho$ α $\acute{\sigma}\omicron\rho\rho$ $\lambda\epsilon\omicron$ α η - $\epsilon\iota\rho\eta\eta$, "his people carried [*asportaverunt*] his body with them to Ireland," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 110; $\tau\omicron\rho\acute{\epsilon}\rho\alpha\sigma\alpha\rho$ $\mu\omicron\rho\acute{\alpha}\eta$ $\omicron\acute{\iota}\omicron\epsilon$ $\alpha\eta\eta$, "many of them fell there," *Id.*, p. 121; $\alpha\rho$ η - α $\acute{\epsilon}\lambda\omicron\rho$ $\delta\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\eta\omicron\acute{\iota}\omicron\delta$ $\sigma\epsilon\upsilon\tau\epsilon$ $\alpha\gamma\upsilon\rho$ $\delta\omicron$ $\eta\alpha$ $\rho\iota\epsilon\tau\iota\beta$ $\gamma\upsilon\rho$

ἐρείξιοναυ Ρόμάναιζ να ὀρεάταιζ, λιγιὸ πέιν ορρα, βριπιὸ αν
cloide, αγγυ αιργιὸ α ο-τίρ, “the nation of the Scots and the Picts
having heard that the Romans had forsaken the Britons, they rush
upon them, break the wall, and plunder their country,” *Id.*, p. 106;
δουινε πο-φοξλομτζα αγ α παδαορ ιομαδ λαδορ, “a very learned
man, who had a number of books;” literally, “a very learned
man, with whom there *were a number of books*,” *Id.*, p. 127.

The most genuine agreement between the nominative case and
the verb in this language, is when the relative pronoun α, or any
modification of it, or substitute for it⁸, is the nominative. This
always precedes the verb, aspirates its initial, if aspirable, and
causes it to terminate in eap, or ap, in the present and future indi-
cative active, as αν ϕεαρ α βυαιλέαρ, the man who strikes; αν
ϕεαρ α γλαναρ, the man who cleanses; αγ πο ιν δαπα καριδιλ νοδ
λαβρυρ δο'ν λειγιυρ ϕριεβυαιλι, νοδ ιϕ κοντραπόα ζηίμ δο'ν
λειγιυρ ταιρριγγτζεδ, “this is the second chapter which treats of
repercussive medicine, which has a different action from the attrac-
tive medicine,” *Old Medical MS.* A. D. 1414.

This is the termination of the verb to agree with the relative
in the present and future indicative, in the modern Irish language;
but in the past tense, the relative form is the same as that of the
third person singular. In ancient manuscripts, however, the verb
is made to agree with the relative, after the Latin manner, as να
δαινε δο ποηρατ ιν echt, for να δαινε δο ρινε αν ζηίομ,
“*homines qui efficerunt facinus*,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 35, b;
ιϕ ιαδ ριν πο ζαορατ ειδ, οσυρ μύιλ, οσυρ αραιν ιν Χαϕδιναιλ,
τάνιϰ ὁ Ρόιμ κο τίρ η-Ἐρενδ, “these were they who stole the
horses, the asses, and the mules of the Cardinal, who came from
Rome to the land of Erin,” *Id.*, fol. 4, b.

And even Duaid Mac Firbis, who wrote in 1650, frequently
gives the verb the third person plural termination to agree with the
relative, as δάιλ δλιζτζεαδ Ὁε υηγιορ ρίορ αρ α ρυιδε ριοδ να

⁸ The English peasantry often
use *as* and *what* for the relative,
and very often omit the relative
altogether. Their *as* and *what*,

from whatever source derived,
are not unlike the Irish α, ατ,
who, which.

h-árð-φλαίτε υαίβριγε ιμριό α n-ancúmacca. This sentence would stand as follows in the modern language: δάιλ διλήξεαé Θε [α] ómgeap ríop ap α ρυίθε ριγ na h-árð-φλαίτε υαίβρεαéα [α] ιμρεαp α n-ancúmacca, “the righteous decrees of God, *who* hurls down from their kingly thrones the monarchs *who* exercise their tyrannical power,” *Tribes, &c., of Hy-Fiachrach*, p. 316.

In John Mac Torna O'Mulconry's copy of *Keating's History of Ireland* we also find a similar construction, as in the following sentence: becaim-ri paé agur ριγε díot agur do'n méid doé bpaépióβ ριλó at foáap, “I deprive thee of prosperity and kingdom, as well as the number of thy brothers *who are* along with thee,” p. 113; δ'ά n-díon ap íompuagaó na n-Θαοιόiol báoor ag τόρπιόioct oppa, “to defend themselves against the attacks of the Gaels, *who were* in pursuit of them,” *Id.*, p. 140; Ανα, .i. ρθαéa beca bíóip ρopρ na τιρραθαίβ, “ANA, i. e. small vessels *which were* usually at the wells,” *Cor. Gloss., in voce* Ανα; na óρεé-naíε τpa bátap h-í comíteéct Πατpαic íconpποceρτ, h-ite πο éinnταιρετ, “the Britons, *who were* preaching along with St. Patrick, were they *who made* this change” [of the word], *Id., voce* Cpυιmτep; looap íap ρaoipe na Capz zo h-Αέéλιαé δ'φιαóygaó agur δ'onópygaó na n-oiρiceaé nuα ρin tanγaóap í n-Éipinn, “after the solemnity of Easter they repaired to Dublin, to salute and honour the new functionaries *who had come* to Ireland,” *Ann. Four Mast., A. D. 1600.*

d. The relative is often understood, exactly as in English, in such phrases as “the subject I spoke upon,” for “the subject upon *which* I spoke;” “the thing I wanted,” for “the thing *which* I wanted.” But the initial of the verb is aspirated, as if the relative were expressed.

Examples.—Αn té óρειóeap, he who believes; ρυιρionn υαíó ρém do óop δ'αιτιygaó na epíce γαóap le neapτ, “to place a colony of his own to inhabit the country [*which*] he gains by force,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 8; in múip éimóillep Éipiu, “the sea [*which*] surrounds Ireland,” *Cor. Gloss., voce* Coipe ópεcáin.

e. In the natural order of an Irish sentence, the interrogative pronouns precede the verb; as *cia buail tú?* who struck thee? *craob α βριγ é?* what broke it?

In poetry, or poetical prose, the natural order of sentences is sometimes inverted, and the nominative case placed before the verb, as in the poem on the regal cemetery of Rathcroghan, ascribed to Torna Eigeas :

Ειρε, Φοδλα, ουρ Banba,
 Τρι h-όγ-μνά áilne αίρη,
 Τάιν ι γ-Κρυάαιν, &c.

“Eire, Fodhla, and Banba,
 Three beauteous famous damsels,
 Are *interred* at Cruachan,” &c.

And in the following quatrain from the ode addressed to Donough, fourth Earl of Thomond, by Teige Mac Dary :

Τειρε, σοιρε, διé ανα,
 Πλάγα, κοζέα, κοζάλα,
 Οιομβυαδ cáτα, γαιβ-ρίον, γοιο,
 Τρέ ανβριγ πλαα páροιο.

“Want, slavery, scarcity of provisions,
 Plagues, battles, conflicts,
 Defeat in battle, inclement weather, rapine,
 From the unworthiness of a prince *do spring*.”

In the ancient and modern Irish annals, and in old romantic tales, the nominative or accusative case is frequently placed before the infinitive mood, somewhat like the accusative before the infinitive mood in the Latin language, as *Αρμαχα δο λοραδ δο éνε παιγνέιν*, “Armagh was burned by lightning,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 778; *cloigéec Μαιριρεec δο λοραδ*, “the belfry of the Monastery [i. e. Monasterboice] was burned,” *Chronicon Scotorum*, A. D. 1097.

Haliday (*Gælic Grammar*, p. 115), and the Rev. Paul O'Brien

(*Irish Grammar*, p. 183), have thought that the form of the verb thus placed after the nominative was the past tense of the indicative passive; but the forms of the various verbs which occur in the Irish Annals prove, beyond the possibility of doubt, that it is the infinitive mood of the verb, as Ματζάναιμ, mac Cínéide, áird-rí Múinan, do eirgabáil do Donubán, mac Cathal, tigeanna Ua Fíoghente, tria éanraict, “Mahon, son of Kennedy, arch-king of Munster, was treacherously captured by Donovan, son of Cathal, lord of Hy-Fidhgente,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 974; mairiurir Chuncha do éoccbáil la Síoda Cam Mac Conmara, “the monastery of Quin was erected by Sioda Cam Mac Namara, *Id.*, A. D. 1402; Tuaeimúim d’orraigim ó’n g-callainn co a roile, “Thomond was plundered from one extremity to the other,” *Id.*, A. D. 1563; Cloigteach Cluana Ioraird do éuirim, “the belfry of Clonard fell,” *Id.*, A. D. 1039; díct mór daoine do éabairt ar fearaib’ Dreibne, “a great destruction of people was brought on the men of Breifny,” *Id.*, A. D. 1429; Árd m-Éreacán do loicad agur d’orraigim do Thallab’ Acha cliait, agur dá céo dume do loicad ir in daimlias, agur dá céo ele do breit a m-bruid, “Ardraccan was burned by the Danes of Dublin; and two hundred persons were burned in the stone church, and two hundred more were carried off in captivity,” *Ann. Kilronan*, A. D. 1030; Tomás Oge O’Reilly agur Clann Caba do dol ar ionraigid ir in Meath, “Thomas Oge O’Reilly and the Clann Caba [the Mac Cabs] went upon an excursion into Meath,” *Id.*, A. D. 1413; é féim do éarrainn ó a paile, agur boill beacca do éenom dia éopp, “he was dragged asunder, and small bits made of his body,” *Id.*, A. D. 1374; mór olc do théct de iarrtam, “great evils came of it afterwards,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 28.

From the forms do eirgabáil, do éoccbáil, d’orraigim, do éuirim, do éabairt, do breit, do dol, do éarrainn, do éenom, do théct, used in the above examples, and from other decidedly infinitive forms found in the Irish Annals, such as do éoct, do éiactann, do noctann, do éertáil, do éaircinn, &c., it is absolutely certain that it is the infinitive mood active is used, and not the past indicative passive, as Haliday, O’Brien, and others, have assumed. Whether

this construction be or be not the same as that of the Latin infinitive, preceded by the nominative accusative of the agent, when *quod* or *ut* is understood, and when the infinitive is put for the imperfect tense, must be left to the decision of the learned ; as in Virgil :

“ At Danaûm proceres Agamemnoniæque phalanges
Ingenti *trepidare* metu ; pars *vertere* terga,
Ceu quondam petiêre rates ; pars *tollere* vocem.”

Æneid. vi. 489.

“ ——— Mene *desistere* victam
Nec *posse* Italiâ Teucrorum avertere regem.”

Æneid. i. 37.

And in Cæsar *De Bello Gallico* :

“ Cæsari renunciatur, Helvetiis *esse* in animo, per agrum Sequanorum et Æduorum iter in Santonum fines facere, &c.”—
Lib. i. 10.

f. The infinitive mood of the verb-substantive, and of verbs of motion and gesture, &c. often takes before it the nominative or accusative of substantives, and the accusative of pronouns^b, as *is olc an níò deapbráirpe do beiré a n-impéaran le n-a céile*, it is an evil thing for brothers *to be* in contention with each other ; *ar lóp óam mé péin do túitim*, “ it is enough for me that I myself fall ;” *est satis mihi me ipsum cadere*ⁱ ; *as taip-ngipe pátraic do éaact ann*, “ predicting that Patrick would come thither^j ;” *iar g-clor di an cranncup do túitim ar a mac*, “ *quando audivit sortem obtigisse unico filio suo*^k.”

^b Haliday, in his *Gælic Grammar*, p. 115, gives this rule from Stewart's *Gælic Grammar*, first edition, p. 154, line 18 ; and not understanding its exact meaning, he gives examples which have no reference to it whatsoever. But Stewart, who understood the

Scotch *Gælic* very well, gives the rule, and the examples, perfectly correct, in both editions of his *Grammar*.

ⁱ Keat. *Hist.*, p. 145.

^j *Id.*, p. 25.

^k *Id.*, p. 70.

This mode of construction is exactly like the accusative coming before the infinitive mood in Latin, when *quod* or *ut* is understood, or rather when the sentence could be resolved by those conjunctions.

g. The nominative or accusative (in the modern language the accusative) of personal pronouns also often appears before verbal nouns governed by prepositions.

Examples.—*Ar po ríter ríum in céona po toimélaó ní do'n fleió, ocuṛ rí ar na h-ercame, cumaó de tícraó Eṛíno do m'illeó,* “for he knew that the first person who should partake of the banquet, and it after being cursed, that of him would come to destroy Ireland,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 24; *ocuṛ ré oc imbirte ríóóille. íṛiṛ na rlogu,* “and he a' playing of chess amid the hosts,” *Id.*, p. 36; *azur í az aicíúgáó láim ré longpóort an ríó,* “and she dwelling near the king's palace,” *Id.*, p. 70.

When the noun thus placed before the infinitive mood is preceded by a preposition, some writers make the preposition govern it, as *ní ríuóiuṛgáó ar Ṭhaoióilṛ do écaóe ó'n b-Fraingc zo m-biaó beazán b-focol íonann eaṛopra,* “it is no proof of the Gaels having come [lit. *to come*] from France that there should be a few words common between them,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 52. It would be, however, more grammatical not to let the force of the preposition light on the noun in this construction, but to consider it as governing the whole clause, as expressing an abstract substantive idea, and to write *ní ríuóiuṛgáó ar Ṭhaoióil do écaóe ó'n b-Fraingc, &c.*

It should be here noted by the learner, that in the modern Irish language, and in the Scotch Gaelic, the accusatives (or be they nominatives, if the Scotch will have them so) of the personal pronouns *é, í, íaó*, are always used before the infinitive mood in this construction, and not *ré, rí, ríáó*; but in ancient Irish manuscripts the latter occur very frequently.

RULE XIII.

When there are two or more nominatives joined together by a copulative conjunction, the third person

plural of the verb is never used in the modern language, as *do bí ann Domnall, Donnchað agur Diarmaid*, Daniel, Donough and Dermot were there.

But in the ancient language the third person plural of the verb is used, as *bátor ano Domnall, Donnchað ocuf Diarmaid*. But this may have been, perhaps, in imitation of the Latin.

RULE XIV.

The assertive verb *ir*, which has the force of the copula of logicians, is always omitted in the present tense after the interrogative particle *an*, whether? also after the negatives *ní* and *noða*, not; as *an tú é*, art thou he? *ní mé*, I am not.

This verb can also be elegantly omitted in other situations in which it might be expressed, as *oir tú ar g-cruúuigíteoir*, for thou art our Creator, for *óir ir tú ár g-cruúuigíteóir*; *in tú glanar in eclair? mé imorra* [for *ir me imorra*], "is it thou that cleanest the church? it is I indeed," MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 18. p. 205, *b*; *mac rom Coirpui Chinnchaite* [for *ba mac rom do Chairbui Chinnchaite*], he was the son of Cairbre Cinnchait; *toirpech mo rore, crín mo éré, ó no toirpeð Fé rui Flann*, for *ir toirpeach mo rore, ir críon mo éré, o do toirpeð Flann le Fé*, i. e. "wearied my eye, withered my clay [body], since Flann was measured by the *Fe* [a yard for measuring graves]," *Cor. Gloss., voce Fé*.

RULE XV.

When two or more substantives come together, or succeed each other, denoting the same object, they should agree in case by apposition; as *Domnall, mac Aoða, mic Ainmirech, rið Eirpeann*, Domnallus, filius Aidi, filii Ainmirei, rex Hiberniæ. Here the word *mac* is in the nominative case, being in apposition to

Domnall, i. e. being as it were *laid alongside* of it; the word mic is in the genitive case to agree with Aodha, to which it is in apposition; and mic, being in apposition to Domnall, is in the nominative case. Sometimes the assertive verb ir or ar, is placed between two nouns which might be put in apposition, as an τ-ainm ar Colam Cille¹.

This rule is not always observed in the colloquial Irish, and some writers on Irish grammar have attempted to shew that it should not be observed, but that, according to the genius of the language, the word in apposition ought to be in the nominative case, though the word to which it refers be in the genitive, inasmuch as the relative and a verb are always understood. In this opinion the Author cannot acquiesce; and the rule is observed by Keating, the Four Masters, and Duaid Mac Firbis, who wrote in the latter end of the seventeenth century; as óir ar ar phlocht Aodha Aélain, meic Flaithbheartaigh an Trostain ата Mac Suidne, “for Mac Sweeny is of the race of Aodh Athlamb, son of Flaithbheartach an Trostain,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 7. Keating, however, does not always observe this apposition, particularly when the first noun is in the dative or ablative case, as is evident from this example: dia n-deacúid tra Cuchuloinn d’foğluim clear ngoile go Sgáthaiḡ, banḡairḡeaḡac baḡi a n-Alban, “When Cuchullin went to learn feats of arms from Sgathach, a heroine who resided in Scotland,” *Id.*, p. 78. In this sentence, Sgáthaiḡ is in the dative or ablative case governed by the preposition go; but banḡairḡeaḡac is in the nominative case, though it ought to be the dative, as being in apposition to Sgáthaiḡ. This apposition is, however, found observed in *Cormac’s Glossary*, as Aine, a nomine Aine, ingeine Eogabhal, “*Aine* [a hill] is called from *Aine*, the daughter of Eogabhal.”

¹ Keat. Hist., p. 126.

CHAPTER II.

OF GOVERNMENT.

IN this chapter is to be explained the government of substantives, of adjectives, of verbs, of prepositions, and of conjunctions.

SECTION 1.—*Of the Government of Substantives.*

RULE XVI.

a. When two substantives come together signifying different things, that is, when not in apposition, the latter is put in the genitive case.

Examples.—Τοραδ̄ να τάλιαν, the fruit of the earth; έίρε να μαρα, the fishes of the sea; ρύν ρόγλα, a desire of plunder; ρολαρ να γρέιμε, the light of the sun; Δία να η-ίσε, "*Deus salutis*," *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Διανείχετ; Δύιλεμ̄ να η-δύλ, "Creator of the elements," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 121, *b*; Τίγερνα η̄ δομ̄αιη, "the Lord of the world," *Id.*

When the governing substantive is preceded by a preposition, some writers eclipse the initial of the governed substantive, as η-ανραδ̄ ηγαοιτε, "by a storm of wind," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 28. But this is not necessary, nor is it at all observed in the spoken language.

b. Verbal nouns substantive coming from transitive verbs, govern the genitive case of those nouns which the verbs from which they are derived would govern in the accusative or objective case.

Examples.—Αἶσ cup ρίλ, sowing seed, i. e. a sowing of seed ; αἶσ βορραῶ ρολα, shedding blood, i. e. a shedding of blood ; οο ροῖλιμ céιρηε, to learn a trade, i. e. to or for the learning of a trade.

Also verbal nouns, which may be properly styled progressive active nouns, when preceded by certain prepositions have the force of active participles in other languages ; and, when preceded by οο, have the force of the infinitive mood active. Also adjectives taken substantively, as co η-ιμμαῶ εολαιρ, “with much knowledge,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107, a, a.

RULE XVII.

When, in the absence of the article, the latter of two substantives in the genitive case is the proper name of a man, woman, or place, its initial is aspirated ; as ó αιμριρ Ρháσριρ, “from the time of St. Patrick^a ;” ιηῖεαν Σηαιῶβε, the daughter of Sabia ; Αιρθεαρβοῖ Χαριρ, the Archbishop of Cashel.

This holds good as a general rule in the modern Irish language, but it is much to be doubted whether it was adhered to in the ancient language ; and in modern Irish an exception to it is generally made in family names, which are made up of the proper names of the progenitors of the families, and the word O (or Uα), *nepos*, or grandson, or mac, a son, prefixed, as O Neill, O'Neill ; O Donnaiлл, O'Donnell ; O Concaḃair, O'Conor ; O Ceallaiḡ, O'Kelly ; O Donnabán, O'Donovan ; Mac Donnaiлл, Mac Donnell ; Mac Capḃaiḡ, Mac Carthy ; not O Dhonnaiлл, Mac Dhonnaiлл, &c. But should the prefixed O be itself governed in the genitive case by another noun, then the initial of the noun which it governs will be aspirated, as Mac Néill Uι Dhoinnaiлл, the son of Niall O'Donnell ; Mac Chathail Uι Chonchoḃair, the son of Cathal O'Conor ; αθαир Τηαιῶḡ Uι Cheallaiḡ, the father of Teige O'Kelly. Some writers aspirate the initial of the latter substantive,

^a Keat. Hist., p. 110.

even when it is not a proper name, as ζορ ζαῖ ὀραῖτ ρεῖρζε ἐ, “so that he was seized with a paroxysm of anger,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 76; αζ γεαρραῖ ῥοῖλλε, “cutting down the wood,” *Id., ibid.*; οἰλομῶν μεῖρ πῖζ, “the fosterage of a king’s son,” *Id.*, p. 97; αἰλ χαχα, “a rock of battle,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Cathal*; αἰλ ἐῖρα, “rock of tribute,” *Id., voce Carpel*. But this is not to be imitated, as it weakens the sound of the word too much.

It is very strange that O’Molloy calls the O prefixed to Irish surnames *an article*, whereas it is really a substantive, and has been translated *nepos* by Adamnan, in his life of Columba. O’Molloy writes: “Articulus o appositus proprijs nominibus virorum Principum Hibernensium facit nomina enunciari in genitio casu, vt ο Ομοηναῖλλ, ο Νεῖλλ, ο Ὀρῖαν; sub casuatione autem, flexione, vel declinatione, variari solet in ι, υα, vt nominatio ο Ὀρῖαν, genitio ι Ὀρῖαν, datio ουα Ὀρῖαν, accusatio αρ ο Μβρῖαν, vocatio α ι Ὀρῖαν, ablatio λε ο Ὀρῖαν, cùm tamen Ὀρῖαν, de se feratur in nominatio, et accusatio, et ablatio, et datio: Ὀρῖαν verò non nisi in genitio et vocatio singularis numeri.”—*Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, 102.

The fact, however, is, that Ὀρῖαν, the name of the progenitor of the family, is put in the genitive case throughout, and governed by the substantive O, which means *nepos*, grandson, or descendant, and that the changes of the initial Ὀ are merely euphonic.

SECTION 2.—*Of the Government of Adjectives.*

RULE XVIII.

The adjective λάν, *full*, often requires a genitive case after it, as λάν ρολα, full of blood; λάν ρεῖρζε, full of anger; but it more frequently requires the preposition οο, or more correctly οε, after it, as λάν ο’ρῖουλ, full of blood; λάν ο’ρῖεῖρζ, full of anger.

Examples.—Dubháic mac U Lugair, leipar lán do rath in Spírata Naímh, “Dubhthach Mac U Lugair, a vessel full of the grace of the Holy Spirit,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 358; gurubo lán an crocc síb, “so that the hill was full of them,” *Vit. Moling*; do bádar na moige dá gac leic do’n ród lán do rgoraib Loíolonn, “the fields on each side of the road were full of the tents of the Danes,” *Keat. Hist., Callaghan Cashel*; ir lán dá íollri nem ocur talam, “heaven and earth are full of his light,” *Visio Adamnani*, in *Leabhar Breac*.

Some grammarians have attempted to give rules of Syntax for pointing out what prepositions should follow certain adjectives, according to their signification; but to determine this is a matter of idiom, rather than of Syntax, and must be learned by use. The learner, however, will find much information on this subject in Chap. VII. Sect. 3, where the idiomatic application of prepositions is treated of.

RULE XIX.

The comparative degree, in the modern Irish, takes the conjunction *iná*, *than*, *quam*, after it, as *ba gile a cneir iná an rneacta*, her skin was whiter than the snow.

The ancient comparative in *ieip* will have the noun following it in the dative or ablative form, if it be of the feminine gender, as *gileieip grem*, whiter than the sun; a construction exactly similar to the Latin *lucidior sole*; but no trace of this form of the comparative is found in the modern language.

In some tracts in the *Leabhar Breac* the comparative is construed exactly as in the Latin, that is, with an ablative case after it, without the conjunction *iná*, *than*, as in the following passage: *poipar lipe pennab nime agur ganem mara agur duille fea, buind fri meoi, agur meoi fri bunnu do peipru, agur fuilte dia cennab oc a tamnad*, “more numerous than the stars of heaven, the sands of the sea, and the leaves of trees, were the feet of persons to necks, and necks to feet, and the hair in being cut off their heads,” fol. 103, *b, a*; *ir liuru feoir no folte fuibuide illpazha in*

mapbnuosa noib-rea, “more numerous than the blades of grass, or the leaves of trees, are the blessings flowing from this holy elegy,” fol. 121, *a, a*; τῖρρα δ’ ῥίν ’n-α ῥίν ιαῖταρ, αἰβne beoῖρῖ ἢ βο-
 coῖτῖ blaῖτα cech lno, “a spring of wine at the very west end, and rivers of beer and *brocoid*, sweeter than every liquor,” fol. 108, *a, b*.

Sometimes it has the preposition ῥῖ (i. e. *le*), and the conjunction αγυῖ or ocυῖ after it, in which construction it expresses comparison of equality, as βα λιῖδῖοῖ ῥῖα γαιnemῖ μαπα, no ῥῖα οῖυῖpeῖnna τεned, no ῥῖ οῖυῖcht ἰmmataῖn ceῖamaῖn no ῥῖα peῖnna nime oepῖgnacca ic γυῖlbmuγad a choῖῖ, “numerous as the sands of the sea, or as the sparks of fire, or as the dew drops of a May morning, or as the stars of heaven, were the fleas that were biting his legs,” *Mac Conglenn’s Satire*, in *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107; cum βα μέτῖtῖep ocυῖ oγ peῖ-éῖpc h-ῖ, “so that it was as large as a hen egg,” *Id., ibid.*; μέδῖtῖep ῥῖ h-oγ peῖ-éῖpc caé mῖῖ, “each bit large as a hen-egg,” *Id.*; meδῖtῖep ῥῖ h-oγ cupῖῖ, “large as the egg of a crane,” *Id.*

RULE XX.

When the preposition *de* is postfixed to the comparative, it is applied in the same way as the comparative degree in English, when preceded by the article *the*, as ἢ ῥeῖῖῖde éῖ ῥῖn, thou art *the* better of that; nῖ τῖῖῖ-
 mῖde an colann cῖall, the body is not the weightier for the sense.

The conjunction *iná*, *than*, is never used after the comparative in this construction.

RULE XXI.

The superlative degree does not require a genitive case plural after it, as in Latin, for the genitive case in Irish, as in English, always denotes possession and nothing more, and therefore could not be applied, like

the genitive case plural in Latin, after nouns partitive, or the superlative degree; but it generally takes after it the preposition *do*, or more correctly *de*, as *an bean ip áilne de mnáib*, the fairest woman of women; *an fear ip mó de na laócaib*, the largest man of the heroes.

RULE XXII.

a. The numerals *acon*, *one*, *dá*, *two*, are placed before their nouns, and aspirate their initials, if of the aspirable class, as *acon cluap*, one ear, *dá cluap*, two ears.

As *r* follows the rule of aspiration, not eclipsis, it will be expected that it should have *τ* prefixed after these words, and so it has after *acon*, but not after *dá*, as *acon τ-rlige*, one way; *acon τ-puil*, one eye. But it must be acknowledged that the best Irish writers sometimes aspirate *r* after *acon*, as *pe h-aomrēac̄t̄m̄am*, “for one week,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 31. And it is a remarkable fact, that *dá*, which aspirates every other aspirable initial consonant coming after it, causes eclipsis in one solitary instance, namely, the word *τrian*, a third, as *dá d-τrian*, “two-thirds,” *Id.*, p. 157.

b. The numerals *trí*, *ceit̄re*, *cúig*, *re*, *rice*, *triōca*, and all multiples of ten, as well as all ordinals, will have the initials of their nouns in their primary form, as *trí cluapa*, three ears; *ceit̄re fir*, four men.

The ordinals *céad* and *τpear* are exceptions to this rule, and cause aspiration.

c. The numerals *reac̄t*, *ōct*, *noí*, *deic̄*, eclipse the initials of their nouns, if they be of the class that admits of eclipsis, as *reac̄t g-cluapa*, seven ears; *ōct g-cora*, eight feet; *noí b-fir*, nine men; *deic̄ m-bliadhna*, ten years.

If the initial be ρ, it retains its primary sound after ρεᾶτ, οἷτ νοί, δείτ, as ρεᾶτ πλατα, seven yards; οἷτ ρναῶμanna, eight knots; νοί ρλέιβετ, nine mountains; δείτ ραγαρητ, ten priests.

RULE XXIII.

When the numeral is expressed by more than one word, the noun is placed immediately after the first, that is, between the unit and the decimal, as τρι ριρ ὀέατ, thirteen men; ρεᾶτ ζ-κέθ ὀέτ, seventeen hundred^b.

SECTION 3.—*Of the Government and Collocation of Pronouns.*

RULE XXIV.

a. The pronouns μο, *my*, ὄο, *thy*, α, *his*, are always placed before their nouns, and aspirate their initials, if of the aspirable class, as μο ἐλουαρ, my ear; ὄο ἶορ, thy foot; α ἱεανν, his head.

b. When μο, *my*, ὄο, *thy*, are followed by a word beginning with a vowel or ρ, the ο is omitted; as μο ἀτάρ, my father, which is generally written μ'ατάρ; μο ρυιλ, my blood, written μ'ρυιλ; μο ρεαρηανν, my land, written μ'ρεαρηανν.

These words are obscurely written ματάρ, μρυιλ, μρεαρηανν, in old manuscripts, but an apostrophe should always be used in modern books when the ο is omitted.

In ὄο, *thy*, the ὄ is sometimes changed into τ, and often dwindles into a mere breathing (h), as τ'αναν, thy soul, for ὄο αναν; ἡ'ατάρ, thy father, for ὄο ατάρ. Για τ'ανν ρεο, οί Θεοῦαῖδ,

^b Annals of the Four Masters, A. D. 1174.

“what is thy name, said Eochaidh?” *Tochmare Etaine*. Ἰ τ’ ἀγαθὸ, against thee, for αὐ ἀγαθὸ, *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 12: ceé caé mor euc h’ ácair, riam, “every great battle which *thy* father ever fought,” *Id.*, p. 44; ar méo do naoméacáca agur h’ onóra ag Dia, “for the greatness of thy sanctity and honour *with* [i. e. in the sight of] God,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 130; ar upura a aéne ar máoite do méanman, deapóile h’ mairne, agur h’ aigionca, “it is easy to know it by the imbecility of *thy* courage, and the littleness of *thy* spirit and mind,” *Id.*, p. 143.

RULE XXV.

Α, *her*, has no influence on the initial consonant of the noun before which it is placed, as α ceann, *her* head; but if the noun begins with a vowel it will require h prefixed, as α h-mgean, *her* daughter; α h-éadan, *her* forehead.

RULE XXVI.

Αr, *our*, βαr, *your*, α, *their*, eclipse the initials of the nouns which follow them, as ár m-briaúra, *our* words, ar n-dóctur, *our* hope; βαr g-cofa, *your* feet; α g-cinn, *their* heads.

If the initial of the noun be a vowel (see p. 65), n will be prefixed (which should be always separated by a hyphen, for the sake of clearness); as ár n-arán, *our* bread; βαr n-ácair, *your* father; α n-airm, *their* arms.

The learner will observe, from Rules 24–26, that the meanings of α, as a possessive pronoun, are distinguished by the form of the initial letter of the nouns following it; thus:

1. Α, *his*, aspirates the initial consonant of the following noun, as α córa, *his* feet.
2. Α, *her*, makes no change, as α córa, *her* feet.
3. Α, *their*, eclipses, as α g-cofa, *their* feet.

When the consonant is not of the class which admits aspiration, or eclipsis, there is no guide to the eye, and some have suggested that it would improve the language to write this vocable *ě*, when it signifies *his*, *ĩ*, when *her's*, and *ö*, when *theirs*.

RULE XXVII.

When the possessive pronouns *α*, *his*, *her's*, or *their's*, are preceded by a preposition ending in a vowel, they require an *n* prefixed, which, for the sake of clearness, should be always separated by a hyphen, as *co n-α*, *le n-α*, *ó n-α*, *τρέ n-α*.

This *n*, which is inserted between the vowels to prevent a hiatus, is not used in the Scotch dialect, in which they write, *le a*, *o a*, *tre a*, and sometimes omit the *o* altogether.—*Vide supra*, pp. 148, 149.

This euphonic *n* is also frequently omitted in some old Irish manuscripts, as *de rin tra boi Coirpri Musc oc athige pair co α muintir, ocup co α cāipde*, “hence Coirpri Musc was frequenting in the east with his family and with his friends,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Moğ* *Θime*.

RULE XXVIII.

a. The relative pronoun *α* expressed or understood, and all forms of, and substitutes for it, are placed before the verb, and aspirate the initials of all verbs, except when it is preceded by a preposition expressed or understood; as *an fear α buairear*, the man who strikes; *an τέ cailpear*, he who will conceal; *an fear α tarpangear*, the man who draws.

b. But when the relative is itself governed by a prefixed preposition, which is sometimes left understood, and is not the nominative case to the verb, it then eclipses the initial consonant of the verb.

Examples.—Αν πεαρ ο'ά ο-τυζαρ έ, the man to whom I gave it; Cιρbe ανm ιn δαυle ι m-βιoίρ α κοζναm α cίpe, “Cirbe is the name of the place *in which* they used to chew the cud,”—*Cor. Gloss., voce Femen*; τρι h-αιμπερα ι n-ζλανταρ, “three times *at which* they are cleaned,” *Id., voce Rot*; ρεν, ι. λιν α ηγαβαρ εοιν, “sen, i. e. a net *in which* birds are taken,” *Id., voce Sén*.

c. But if the particles οο, πο, &c., signs of the past tense, should come between the relative and the verb, then the initial of the verb is under their influence, and suffers aspiration as usual; as αν πεαρ ορι [i. e. ο α πο] σεανναίζεαρ έ, the man from whom I bought it.

d. When the relative α signifies *what, that which, or all that*, it eclipses the initial of the verb without a preposition; as α ο-τυζ Cριomήτανν οο ζιλλαιβ λειρ, “all the hostages that Cριomhthann brought with him^c.”

RULE XXIX.

a. The relative pronoun is often loosely applied in the modern language, somewhat like the colloquial, but incorrect, English “who does he belong to?”

This form, however, should not be introduced into correct writing; but the relative should be always placed immediately after the preposition; thus, instead of αν έ ρim αν πεαρ α ραιβ τυ αγ καmτ λειρ? is that the man *who* thou wert talking to? we should say, αν έ ρim αν πεαρ le α ραιβ τυ αγ καmτ? is that the man to whom thou wert talking?

The relative (as has been already said, Rule 12, *d*), is often understood, as ο οο cονκαβαρ ρειn οncυ Θεζαν, οcυρ na μειρ-ζίδα ρuc α cρεαcα co μιnic uαzα οο ιmητοιζεαβαρ οο cυm α cέιλε,

^c Keat. Hist., p. 102.

“when they perceived the banner of Eoghan, and the other standards *which* often carried away their spoils, they rushed upon each other,” *Vit. S. Cellachi*. It is also often disguised in synthetic unions formed of certain prepositions, and prefixed signs of tenses, and particularly when the assertive verb *ir* is expressed or understood, as *an fear lea marbua é*, i. e. *an fear le a po marbua é*, the man by whom he was killed, *lea* being made up of *le*, by, *a*, whom, and *po*, sign of the past tense; *fear daab* (or *daab*) *ann Domnall*, a man whose name is Daniel, i. e. *vir cui est nomen Danielis*. The verb *ir*, when connected with the relative thus, preceded by a preposition, becomes *ab*, even in the present tense, and may often be omitted altogether, as *an té lea mian*, i. e. he who desires, literally, he *to whom* it is a desire. This might be also written, *an té le nab mian*, or *an té lea ab mian*. The *p* in this instance is not an abbreviation of *po*, the sign of the past tense, but is inserted instead of *n* to stop the hiatus, which would otherwise be occasioned by the meeting of two vowels. The verb *ir* leaves the relative *a* understood, when no preposition precedes it, as *meall re an fear ir feara clú*, he deceived the man of better fame.

The form *a* never accompanies the verb *ir*, but the form *noé* takes it constantly, as *ag po in daara capuol do'n daara clár*, *noé labrua do'n leigiuu fribuailei*, *noé ir coneparóa gníu do'n leigiuu taipungéac*, “this is the second chapter of the second table, which speaks of repercussive medicine, which is of contrary action to the attractive medicine,” *Old Med. MS.*, by *John O'Callannan of Roscarbery*, A. D. 1414.

As the relative always precedes the verb, and has no inflection, its case must be determined by the verb itself, or the noun following, as *an fear a buailim*, the man *whom* I strike; *an fear a buailear mé*, the man who strikes me. But there is one case in which it is impossible to determine, from the *form* of the words, whether the relative is the agent or the object, namely, when the simple past of the indicative active is used, as *an fear a buail me*, which may mean either the man *who struck me*, or the man *whom*

I *struck*; an fear a buail Doimnall, the man *who* struck Daniel, or the man *whom* Daniel struck.

This form of constructing the relative could be taken advantage of in equivocation, or false swearing; as if a man swore deapbaim gur ab é seo an fear a buail mé; no one could possibly know whether he meant, "I swear that this is the man *who* struck me," or "I swear that this is the man *whom* I struck." There are also other instances in which the want of the accusative form in the relative leads to ambiguity, as an fear a bualeap, which may mean either the man *who* strikes, or the man *whom* I struck; for -eap is the relative termination for the present indicative, and also the termination to express the first person singular of the past indicative active. This ambiguity can only be avoided by varying the expression, as by changing the verb active into the passive, or constructing the sentence in a different manner.

b. When a preposition precedes the relative, the initial of the verb following is eclipsed, as an fear o'á o-tugad é, the man to whom it was given.

And the same will take place if the relative be understood, as ionmum teach re o-tugur cúl, for ionmum teach re a o-tugar cúl, "dear the house which I have left behind;" *Leabhar Branach*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 1. 14, fol. 112.

RULE XXX.

The possessive pronouns, when compounded with prepositions, cause aspiration and eclipsis, as they do in their simple forms, and the prepositions with which they are compounded govern such cases as they govern in their simple states, as am cluar, in my ear; ó béal, from thy mouth; leḡ ḡ-cáirib, with our friends.

RULE XXXI.

The possessive pronouns, when compounded with, or preceded by the preposition *i*, *a*, or *ann*, *in*, are con-

nected with the substantive verb τάμ, to denote existence in a certain office, or state, as τά ρέ 'να ῥαγαυρτ, he is a priest, literally, he is *in his* priest; τά μέ αμ' οὔνε ὄοννα, I am a wretched man; τά τύ αὐ' εαυβοτ, thou art a bishop; δο βι ρέ 'να λεανῶ αν υαυρ ρου, he was a child at that time.

The verb substantive τάμ can never ascribe a predicate to its subject without the aid of the preposition α, ι, or ανη, *in*, as τά ρέ 'ν-α ῥεαυ, he is a man. Of this there seems no parallel in any other European language. But the assertive verb ιρ always connects the predicate with its subject without the help of a preposition, as ιρ ῥεαυ μέ, I am a man. This is enough for Syntax to determine, that is, how the predicate is to be connected with the subject when both these verbs are used. But still it will be naturally asked, whether sentences so constructed have actually the same meaning. It must then be remarked, that the two modes of construction represent the idea to the mind in a quite different manner. Thus, τά μέ αμ' ῥεαυ, and ιρ ῥεαυ μέ, though both mean *I am a man*, have a different signification; for τά μέ αμ' ῥεαυ, I am *in my* man, i. e. I am *a man*, as distinguished from some other stage, such as childhood, or boyhood; while ιρ ῥεαυ με indicates I am *a man*, as distinguished from a woman, or a coward. This example will give the learner a general idea of the difference of the meanings of sentences constructed by τά and ιρ. For more examples, see Prepositions α, ι, ανη, p. 291.

RULE XXXII.

The interrogative pronouns, whether they are nominatives or objectives, always precede the verb, and seldom admit the assertive verb ιρ in connexion with them, though its force is implied; and the personal pronoun following is put in the accusative, as ρια η-έ, for ρια ιρ η-ε, who is he? ρια η-ί, who is she? ρια η-ιαδ,

who are they? *cá crích i n-a b-fuilem*, “what country are we in^d?” *po iarrfaid cuich na caillecha*, “he asked who were the nuns^e?” *cpead é*, what is it?

But there is no agreement of gender or number between them and their objects, or respondents; the most that can be admitted is, that the interrogative and the pronouns are often incorporated, as *ciað*, for *cia h-iað*; *ci*, for *cia h-í*; *cé*, for *cia h-é*. It should be also remarked, that *cia* is often written, and generally pronounced *cé*, particularly in the south of Ireland, as *cé in por é rin? ar Pátrúic*, “what wood is this? said Patrick.” *Book of Lismore*, fol. 205, a.

When these interrogatives are governed by a preposition, they are always set before it, as *cá n-ar*, whence? *Cpead ó*, what from, i. e. whence; *ac̄t nár eũigeaðar cpeð ó o-záinig an focal féin*, “but that they did not understand *what from* [i. e. *whence*] the word itself was derived,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 22.

The verb *ir* may elegantly be used, when followed by an adjective in the comparative or superlative degree, and sometimes in the positive, as *cio ir meara do corp duine?* “what is worst for the human body?” *Tegusc Righ*; *cio ir fo ðam*, “what is good for me?” *Id.*; *cio ir buaim for bið*, “what is the most durable in the world?” *Id.*; *cpeud ir bpeug ann*, “what is a lie?” *Lucerna Fidelium*, p. 111.

RULE XXXIII.

The demonstrative pronouns immediately follow the substantives, or the adjectives belonging to the substantives, to which they refer, as *an fear po*, this man; *an tír rin*, that country; *na daoine uairle úd*, those gentlemen; *Cenn Abraz Slebi Cain reo ter* (i. e. *an rliab po terar*), *Cenn Abrat Slebi Cain*, is *this* [mountain] to the south?

^d Book of Leinster, fol. 105.

^e Feilire Ænguis, end of Feb.

But in the spoken language *ḡac* does not always cause eclipsis, and it has, therefore, been thought advisable not to give it a place in the text as a general rule.

SECTION 4.—Of the Government of Verbs.

RULE XXXIV.

a. Verbs active transitive govern the accusative case of personal pronouns, as *buaíl ré tú*, he struck thee; *buir ré é*, he broke him, or it; *ósbuir ré iad*, he expelled them; *á tigearna, ar iad-ran, ro meirteogair inne ḡan amobuir*, “O lord, said they, thou hast doubtlessly discouraged us^f.”

As nouns have no accusative form, it must be determined from their position in the sentence whether they are agents or objects; when objects, they are usually placed after the verb, but never between the verb and its nominative, as *buaíl Diairmaid Doinnall*, Dermot struck Daniel; *percussit Diermitius Danielem*. This is the natural order of an Irish sentence, and the less it is disturbed the better, as, in consequence of the want of the accusative form in nouns, any transposition must create more or less obscurity.

Some writers have attempted to introduce an accusative form, different from the nominative singular, by making the object of the verb terminate like the dative or ablative, as will appear from the following examples: *Tairngid lib a ainliu nime in anmain n-ecraibdig reá ocuf airdidid illaim Lucirir dia báduo ocuf dia fornúchad i fodomain ifirh co rír*, “*hanc animam multo peccantem angelo Tartari tradite, et demergat eam in infernum.*” *Visio Adamnani*, in the *Leabhar Breac*; *do loird ḡac luoc diob á loing* [for *á loing*], “each hero of them burned his ship, *Id.*, p. 39; *do éogbadaḡ ḡaoid nḡaibéige nḡeinliide do éuir anfaó móir ar*

^f Keat. Hist., p. 144.

an muir, “they raised a dangerous magical wind which raised a great storm on the sea,” *Id.*, p. 57; do beir póig ó’a ghuasó, “he gave a kiss to his cheek,” *Id.*, p. 124; cup éoraino in ézépaiḡ, “so that he drew out [the foundations] of the city,” *Vita Patric.* in *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, *b, b*; doir gni Coirpri iar n-a mairech ceirte móir de rin, “Coirpri on the next day made a great complaint of this,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Moḡ Éime.*

Various examples of it also occur in the old historical tale called the *Battle of Magh Rath*, published by the Irish Archæological Society; but it should not be imitated in the modern language. Some have also attempted to introduce an accusative plural form for nouns, by making them terminate in α or υ; as, acc. olca, nom. uilc, acc. eolca, nom. eolaiḡ. But the best writers terminate the nominative plural in α also.—See the *Etymology.*

In the ancient Irish language, the pronoun, when it is in the accusative case, governed by the verb, is often amalgamated with the sign of the tense and set before it, as ir mairi roz rubca, “it is I who shall wound thee,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 29, for ir mairi do rubcaid éú, .i. do góirfeair éú; ir maic rom écairair, “it is well thou hast instructed me,” *Id.*, p. 10; ir duairdeac rom dúirair, “disagreeably hast thou awakened me,” *Id.*, p. 170. The nominative case to the verb passive, when a pronoun, is also frequently placed before it in old writings, as nre aicillre nech ele do’n muntair ri, “none other of this people shall address thee,” *Cor. Gloss., voce Þrull*; rom ailead lairiu iar rin, “I was fostered by thee after that,” *Id.*, p. 34; napor uamnaicéir, “be not terrified,” *Id.*, p. 8; nom lecid-rí lib, ol re, “will ye permit me to go with you, said he,” *Id., voce Þrull*; acé nom aicill re, “but address me,” *Id., ibid.* In those instances the particle prefixed to the verb and the pronouns are always amalgamated.

In the modern language the possessive pronouns, combined with the preposition aḡ, are frequently placed before a verbal noun, in which position the verbal noun has the force of the active participle, put passively in English, as tá an teac ’ḡa éógbáil, the house is building, or a’ building; tá an obair ’ḡa déanam, the work is doing, i. e. a’ doing or *being done*; táid rias ’ḡ a meallad, they

are being deceived. For ἕα in these instances, many writers put δ'ά, or δά, which cannot be considered as correct, as ἕο ο-τέιδ ο'ά unφυιρτ φέιν ιονητα, "until he goes to wallow in them," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 1; δ'ά ο-τοῖαιρη, "to summon them," *Id.*; αἕ τροηῖαδ ο'ά φερηῖαδ φέιν, "*jejuniis se macerando*," *Id.*, p. 13. Sometimes in this construction the verbal noun is not passive, as τά φέ ἕ am βυαλαδ, he is a' striking me; literally, he is *at my* striking; αν τ-ευῖοεορηομ ατά αἕα δευναμ αρ α η-άτιῖεεοιρηβ, "the injustice that is being exercised against its inhabitants," *Keat. Hist.—Pref.*

It is proper to notice in this place such constructions as the following: ἕοη β'είῖη α φάḡαι, "that she had to be found," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 96; η φόρη α δέαναμ, it is proper to do it. In these sentences the α is a mere possessive pronoun, and the literal meaning is, *her finding* was a compulsion; *its doing* is proper. The possessive pronoun in such sentences may be changed into the accusative of the corresponding personal pronouns, and the verb into the infinitive mood, as ἕρη β'είῖη ί δ'φάḡαι; η φόρη έ οο δέαναμ.

b. Some verbs active require a preposition after them, as ιαρη αρ Θηια, ask of God; λαβαιρη λε Θομ-ναλλ, speak with [to] Daniel. But these forms of expression must be learned by experience in this as in all other languages.

RULE XXXV.

The infinitive mood of active verbs has a peculiarity of construction, which distinguishes this from most other languages, namely, it takes the accusative case when the noun is placed before it, and the genitive case when the noun comes after it.

Examples of Accusative:—Ερηο οο ḡαβái α μαρβαδ ουμε, "to receive *eric* [mult] for the killing of a man," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 14; cloide οο δέυναμ, to build a wall; ní láμαδ νεε τειο δ'φατοδ ι η-Ερηοη ηρ ιη λου φη, nó cu η-άδανηα η-ι Τεμπαη αρ

τῦρ, ἢ ἢ ῥολλᾶμᾶν, “no one durst light a fire in Ireland on that day until it should be lighted first at Tara at the solemn festival,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, a, a.

Examples of the Genitive:—Ὁ ρᾶτ ἰμορρᾶ Μολῖνγ Ἰοβᾶν Σᾶερ εἰγῖ ὁ ὀένυμ ἅ ὀαρῖταιγε, “St. Moling brought Goban Saer with him to build his oratory,” *Vit. Moling*; εἰ ὁ ὀε ροᾶετ, ὀλ Ἐοχαῖδ. Ὁ ἰμβῖρτ ρῖοχῖλλε ρῖρτ-ρῦ, ὀλ ρε, “what has brought thee? said Eochaidh. To play chess with thee, said he,” *Tochmarc Etaine* in *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*; ὁ ὀρῖναῖμ ἄν ὀλοῖδε, “to defend the wall,” *Keat. Hist.—Preface*; ὁ ὀευναῖμ ρεῖλλε ὀρρᾶ, “to act treachery on them,” *Id.*, p. 74; ὁ λέῖεε Μᾶε Ὑ Ἰθῖρῖᾶν ρεῖοῖλεᾶ ὀ’ᾶ ρεῖῖεῖλεῖᾶ ὀ’ᾶρρεῖῖᾶν ἢ ἢ ὀ-ὀρρεῖῖᾶρ, “Mac I-Brien sent forth a body of his marauders to plunder the districts,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1559.

From this it may be safely concluded, that in the first mode of construction, the forms ὁ ḡabáil, ὁ ὀευναῖμ, &c., are truly infinitives, having exactly the same force as the English *to receive*, *to do*; but that, in the second mode, they are not properly infinitives, but verbal nouns, governed by the preposition ὁ.

Sometimes, when the prefixed object of the infinitive mood is preceded by a preposition, some writers make it the dative or ablative, governed by the preposition, as ḡᾶν ρεῖρτ ὁ ὀευναῖμ, “not to be angry,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 75; ρε ρᾶρῖνείρ ρῖρῖῖῖῖ ὁ ὀέᾶῖῖῖῖ, “to make a true narration,” *Id.*; ἄḡ ἰᾶρρᾶῖ ὀεῖῖεᾶ ἄḡρῦ ῖοῖῖῖῖῖῖ ὁ ἔᾶῖῖῖῖ ὁ ῖᾶῖῖῖ-Ἰḡᾶλλῖῖῖ, “attempting to heap disgrace and dishonour upon the old English,” *Id.*

But this mode of government is not to be approved of, for it would be evidently better to leave the noun under the government of the infinitive mood, as it would be in the absence of the preposition, and consider the preposition as governing the clause of the sentence which follows it; thus, ρε ρᾶρῖνείρ ρῖρῖῖῖῖ ὁ ὀευναῖμ.

Stewart agrees with this opinion, in his *Gaelic Grammar*, p. 175, where he writes: “Prepositions are often prefixed to a clause of a sentence; and then they have no regimen, as ‘gus am bord a ghiulan, *to carry the table*,’ Exod. xxv. 27; ‘luath chum fuil a dhortadh, *swift to shed blood*,’ Rom. iii. 15, edit. 1767;

' an deigh an obair a chríochnachadh, *after finishing the work,*' " *Gælic Grammar*, 1st edit. p. 165, and 2nd edit., p. 175. Both modes of construction, however, are allowable, like the gerunds and gerundives in Latin, as "tempus curandi rem," or "tempus curandæ rei;" *in curando rem*, or *in curandâ re*.

Sometimes the infinitive mood must be translated passively, like the latter supine in Latin, as ταρ éip Arfaxad do bpeicé do, "after Arphaxad was born to him," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 45; ταρ éip uam do éocailt, "after a grave being dug;" literally, "after *to dig* a grave;" ó do éonnaire Niul Phapao go n-a íluaç do báéad, anair ip in é-pearonn ç-cedna, "when Niul perceived Pharaoh with his host to *have been drowned*, he remained in the same land," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 46.

Progressive active nouns, and all verbal nouns, govern the genitive case after them, like the infinitive mood, when the substantive follows it.

RULE XXXVI.

The nominative case absolute in English, or the ablative absolute in Latin, is, in Irish, put in the dative or ablative, with the preposition do prefixed.

Examples.—Ar m-beicé 'n a éolaé do Thomnall, Daniel being asleep; iar pocéam a é-éip doib, they having reached the land; literally, on reaching the land by them; iar ç-cimnié ar an ç-comairle rin doib, "they having resolved on that counsel;" literally, "after the determining on that counsel by them," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 35.

RULE XXXVII.

Éa, or bué, the past tense indicative of the affirmative verb ip, aspirates the initial of the noun substantive, or adjective which follows, as ba maic an pear é, he was a good man; ba éean maic í, she was a good woman; ba móp na éaíne íad, they were great people.

This rule will not, however, hold good throughout the provinces, for in some parts they do not aspirate the initial of the word following *ba*; and, indeed, the aspiration is not essential, and has been merely used for the sake of euphony, or, perhaps, ease of utterance. When the word following *ba* begins with a vowel, an *h* is sometimes prefixed, to prevent a hiatus, as *ba h-óg an fear é an t-an rín*, he was a young man at that time. But this rule is not general in the written language, nor at all observed in conversation, for in the south-east of Ireland they would say *dob' óg an fear é*, prefixing *do*, sign of the past tense, and rejecting the *u* in *ba*.

RULE XXXVIII.

a. One verb governs another which follows it, or depends upon it, in the infinitive mood; as *o'órduig Dia dúinn a aiteanna do coimead*, God ordered us to keep his commandments; *do fógraó d'Feargus r'giaó tar loig do ábairt do Ulltaib*, "Fergus was ordered to cover the retreat for the Ultonians^s."

b. When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern an accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed, as *dubairt ré liom dul go Corcaig*, he told me to go to Cork.

This rule is general and important, but has not hitherto been given by any of the writers on Irish grammar.

We cannot close these remarks on the government and collocation of the verbs without noticing that Haliday and others give it as a rule of Irish syntax, that *to know*, in English, is expressed in Irish by the verb *tam* and *rior*, knowledge, as *atá rior agam*, I know, i. e. there is knowledge to me; and that the Irish language has not single verbs to denote possession, power, want, &c., such as the English verbs, *to have, to know, &c.* This, however, is a

^s Battle of Ros Leter.

matter of idiom, rather than of syntax, and should be explained in giving the idiomatic meanings of the prepositions. It must be, indeed, acknowledged, that the modern Irish language, which is suffering decomposition more and more every day, from the want of literature, has not separate verbs to denote *I have, I can*; but in the south of Ireland, *feadpáim, I know*, is not yet out of use; and in ancient, and some modern manuscripts, we meet such verbs as *cumcam, I can, or I am able*; *feapáim, I know*; *fiúir, he knew*, as in the following examples: *Óixit Pátriciúir díchúir fodechta, ri poter*; *óixit magúir, ní chumcam cur in trath ceona i m-barac*, “Patrick said, remove now the snow, *si potes*”; *dixit Magus, I cannot, until the same time to-morrow*,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 14, *a, a*; *o ro fiúir O’Neill Magúir do dol hi o-Tír Eacchan*, “when O’Neill *knew* that Manus had gone into Tyrone,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, ad an. 1522. *Feapáim, I know*, is used even by Keating, as *go b-feapáir cionnúr rgarpuim-ne*, “until thou knowest how we shall part,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 46; *go b-feapáir a bfeapáira oim*, “until I know their answer to me,” *Id.*, p. 153; *co feppeó rom*, “that he might know,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Zeirec*; *in feza ro fez pecha Moling, ní fiúir i neam no i talum do cóireh in mac leigmh*, “Moling looked behind him, but did not know whether the student had passed into heaven, or into the earth,” *Vita Moling*.

SECTION 5.—Of the Government and Collocation of Adverbs.

RULE XXXIX.

The simple monosyllabic adverbs are placed before the words to which they belong, and aspirate their initials, if of the aspirable class of consonants, as *romór*, very or too great; *ráir-mair*, exceedingly good. *Do* and *po*, the signs of the past tenses of verbs, aspirate the initials of the verbs in the active voice, but not

in the passive, as $\delta\omicron$ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he struck; $\delta\omicron$ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\epsilon\alpha\theta$ $\acute{\epsilon}$, he was struck.

When $\rho\omicron$ is immediately preceded by the relative α , who or which, they combine, and become $\acute{\omicron}\rho$, as $\text{Α}\acute{\omicron}\alpha\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho$, $\acute{\rho}\acute{\alpha}\rho\alpha\mu\alpha\rho$, i. e. $\acute{\omicron}\alpha\rho\omicron$ $\acute{\rho}\acute{\alpha}\rho\alpha\mu\alpha\rho$, Adam from whom we have sprung; $\acute{\alpha}\iota\tau$ ι η - $\alpha\rho$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\iota\tau$ $\text{D}\omicron\mu\iota\eta\alpha\lambda\lambda$, i. e. ι η - $\alpha\rho\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\iota\tau$, the place in which Daniel fell.

When $\delta\omicron$ precedes a verb whose initial is a vowel, or ρ , it drops the \omicron in the active voice, but not in the passive, as δ' $\acute{\omicron}\lambda$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he drank; δ' $\acute{\rho}\iota\alpha\rho\rho\alpha\iota\grave{\zeta}$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he asked, or inquired; $\delta\omicron$ η - $\acute{\omicron}\lambda\alpha\theta$, it was drank; $\delta\omicron$ $\acute{\rho}\iota\alpha\rho\rho\alpha\iota\grave{\zeta}\epsilon\alpha\theta$ $\acute{\epsilon}$, it was asked. The particle α is very generally prefixed to the verbs $\tau\acute{\alpha}\mu$, I am, and $\delta\epsilon\iota\rho\mu$, I say, for the sake of euphony or emphasis.

RULE XL.

The adverbs $\alpha\mu$, $\epsilon\mu$, $\omicron\iota\theta$, $\iota\omicron\mu\omicron\rho\rho\alpha$, $\delta\alpha\eta$, $\delta\omicron\mu$, $\delta\omicron\omicron\omicron$, $\delta\omicron\omicron\alpha$, or $\delta\omicron\omicron\mu$, $\iota\alpha\rho\alpha\mu$, $\iota\delta\eta$ or $\iota\tau\eta$, $\acute{\omicron}\eta$, $\tau\rho\acute{\alpha}$, are generally mere expletives, and are generally placed immediately after the principal verb in the sentence.

In the *Leabhar Breac*, $\iota\omicron\mu\omicron\rho\rho\alpha$ is used to translate the Latin *vero*, *autem*, and *quidem*; $\tau\rho\alpha$, *autem*. But $\delta\omicron\mu$ is sometimes used as more than a mere expletive, for it is employed to translate the Latin *ergo*.—See *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 16, *b, a*, fol. 17, *a, a*, and fol. 26, *b, a*.

RULE XLI.

Compound adverbs, particularly those formed from adjectives, are placed after the nominatives to the verbs which they qualify, but never placed between the auxiliary and the verb as in English; as δ' $\epsilon\iota\rho\iota\grave{\zeta}$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$ $\zeta\omicron$ $\mu\omicron\acute{\omicron}$, he rose early; $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\rho\epsilon$ $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha$ $\zeta\omicron$ $\epsilon\alpha\rho\tau$, it is done properly, not $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$ $\zeta\omicron$ $\epsilon\alpha\rho\tau$ $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha$.

but not in the plural; as ζαν αν τ-αμάν, without the bread; ιοιη αν τ-αερ αζυρ αν τ-υιρζε, between the sky and the waterⁱ.

* Some Irish grammarians write, that when ζαc, *each*, or *every*, *uile*, *all*, or some such adjective, comes between the preposition and the substantive, the preposition loses its influence, as δο λαβαιρ ρε le ζαc bean (not μναοι) αευ, he spoke to each woman of them. But this is colloquial, and should not be used in correct grammatical composition; for we have the authority of the best Irish writers for making the preposition govern its object, even though ζαc intervenes, as cloiδιομ νοcταιζεc ιν ζαc λαιμ λειρ (not ιν ζαc λαιμ), "having a naked sword in each hand," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 148; ριρ ζαc cloim, "with each tribe," *Id.*, p. 159; αρ ζαc ορμυηζ οαρ ζαc επειδιομ ο Ρηαορμυηζ, "of each tribe that received the faith from Patrick," *Id.*, p. 115.

RULE XLIII.

The prepositions α, or ι, *in*, ιαρ, *after*, ρια, *before*, and ζο, or co, when it signifies *with*, eclipse the initials of the nouns which they govern, if of the class which admit of eclipsis.

Examples :—Α ο-Τεαμραιζ, at Tara; ι ζ-Οορραιζ, at Cork; ρια η-οιλιμ, before the deluge; ρε η-ουλ ζυρ αν η-βαιλε, "before going to the town," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 147; ιαρ ζ-Οαιρζ, "after Easter," *Id.*, p. 160; co η-ριον αζυρ co ζ-οορμαιμ, "with wine and beer," *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1587.

When α or ι is followed by a noun beginning with l, m, η, the preposition is amalgamated with the noun, and the consonants are doubled, as cιη ρεαρcαηα ιλλαιηοιη co ραιηε η-α ρροcαιη ρε τεορα λα η τεορα αιηche; "a shower of rain *fell* in Leinster, so that it was in streams for three days and three nights," *Annals of*

ⁱ For examples of the other prepositions, see the Etymology, Chap. VII. Sect. 3.

Tighernach, *ad ann.*, p. 693; *ιλλαίου α έπρετα*, “on the day of his death,” *Book of Leinster*, fol. 78, *b, b*; *αμμυιζ*, outside, *Ib.*; *ιρριζε η-Ερηνν*, in the kingdom of Ireland; *δο εϋρ ιρρεταιβ̄ βροσ να κυραιζ̄ ριν*, “she transformed those heroes into the shapes of badgers,” MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 42; *αρ ιρ εζαε Τηαιωζ α αεαρ βασι ιλλαίη Chopμαic*, “for it was the spear of his father Tadhg that Cormac had in his hand;” *ιμμεαδον*, “in the middle,” *Vit. Moling*; *ιμματαιν Cεzαμαιν*, “on a May morning,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107; *ιρ allam ιν ερρυic πο ράc-βαδ*, “it is in the bishop’s hand it was left,” *Id.*, *ibid.*

RULE XLIV.

The preposition *αρ*, on, *δε*, of, *off*, *δο*, to, *ρά*, *ρό*, or *ραιοι*, under, *ιωρ*, between, *μαρ*, like to, *ό* or *α*, from, and *τρε*, through, cause aspiration.

Examples :—*Αρ ιμullaε αν τ-ρλειβε*, on the summit of the mountain; *ζεαζ δε ερανν*, a branch of a tree; *δο οαοιουβ̄*, to men; *ρο*, or *ραιοι ρέιν*, under pain; *ιωρ ρεαραιβ̄ αζυρ ιννάιβ̄*, between men and women, or both men and women; *μαρ ζρηίν*, like unto the sun; *ό οοραρ ζο οορυρ*, from door to door; *τρε εεινε αζυρ υιρce*, through fire and water. But *αρ*, on, in some idiomatical phrases and adverbial expressions, and when set before verbal nouns, causes eclipsis, as *αρ ο-τύρ*, at first; *αρ η-βειε*, on being; *αρ η-δουλ*, on going.

RULE XLV.

Αζ, at, *ζο*, or *co*, when it signifies *to*, and is set after verbs of motion, &c., *λε* or *πε*, with, *όρ*, over; will have the initial of the noun which they govern in the primary form.

Examples.—*Αζ οοραρ αν τιζε*, at the door of the house; *εuaiδ ρε ζο μullaε αν ενουic*, he went to the top of the hill; *λε ceap να ζρηίνε*, by the heat of the sun; *ορ cionn*, over head; *τρηαιε ορ τρηαθαιβ̄*, chief over chieftains.

RULE XLVI.

Ḡan, *without*, will have either the aspirated or the primary form of the initial of the noun which it governs, as ḡan cluar, or ḡan cluar, without an ear; ḡan ceann, or ḡan ceann, without a head.

Some writers prefix τ to ρ after this preposition, as ḡan τ-ρλιοct, "without issue," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 93; ḡan τ-ρult, without cheerfulness; but ḡan ρλιοct, ḡan ρult, would be equally correct.

RULE XLVII.

When the article is expressed, all the simple prepositions, except do and de, ḡan and ioip, eclipse the initials of all nouns in the singular number, but have no influence over them in the plural, as ap an b-ḡairge, on the sea; ap an m-baile, out of the town.

But do and de cause aspiration when preceded by the article, except on words beginning with d or t, which retain their primary sounds; as de'n epann, off the tree; do'n baile, to the town; do'n tigeapna, to the lord; do'n diaabal, to the devil; and cause τ to be prefixed to ρ, as do'n τ-ρuil, to the eye; do'n τ-ρiab, to the mountain; do'n τ-ρlaur, to the rod; ap b-ḡap do'n τ-ρλιοct po ḡhpeozam, "this race of Breogan having increased," *Keat. Hist.*, p. 50; ma tapla dam dol do'n τ-ρlige, if I have happened to go out of the way.

This rule is drawn from correct printed books and manuscripts, and holds good in north Munster; but it must be confessed, that the present spoken language does not agree with it throughout the provinces. The author, observing this difference, has read over very carefully a copy of Keating's History of Ireland, the best he has ever met with, which was made in the seventeenth century, by John Mac Torna O'Mulconry, and is now in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin. From this manuscript he has extracted the following instances of the forms assumed by articulated sub-

stantives coming after *do*, which sufficiently establish the rule above given :—

- Do'n báile*, to the town, p. 130.
Do'n báir, to death, p. 98.
Do'n bíobla, of the Bible, p. 92.
Do'n boct, to the poor man, p. 119.
Do'n ceap, to the stock, p. 98.
Do'n cíneaó, to the tribe, p. 92.
Do'n cléirióc, to the cleric, p. 113.
Do'n cóirri-cléirióc, to the crane-like cleric, p. 124.
Do'n crip, to the country, p. 92.
Do'n comóáil, to the meeting, p. 125.
Do'n dáil, to the meeting, *ib.*
Do'n draoi, to the Druid, p. 109.
Do'n druing, to the people, p. 145.
Do'n duine, to the person, p. 98.
Do'n feoil, of the flesh, pp. 5, 119.
Do'n fiaó, to the deer, p. 132.
Do'n fír-óia, to the true God, p. 98.
Do'n fíor plán, to the hale man, p. 157.
Do'n Fhrainc, to France, pp. 52, 108.
Don mucuaó, to the swine-herd, p. 132.
Do'n Mhuínan, to Munster, p. 120.
Do'n Phápa, to the Pope, p. 111.
Do'n pláig, to, or by the plague, p. 133.
Do'n pobal, to the congregation, p. 120.
Do'n t-raoḡal, to the world, p. 144.
Do'n t-ḡeiríor mac, to the six sons, p. 129.
Do'n t-Sláine, of the River Slaney, p. 109.
Do'n t-plaḡ, to the rod, p. 155.
Do'n t-Suibhne rí, to this Suibhne, p. 129.
Do'n t-ḡearna, to the lord, pp. 105, 110.
Do'n t-ḡeiríor rín, on that expedition, p. 134.
Do'n tobap, to the well, p. 135.

The following examples, from the same manuscript, of articu-

lated nouns after the prepositions *ἰν*, *in*; *εἰς*, *to*; *ὑπο*, *under*; *διεξ*, *through*; *ἀπὸ*, *from*; *ἐπὶ*, *on*; *σύν*, *with*; and *προ*, *before*, may be satisfactory to the learner.

Ἐπὶ τὴν ἐκστράτειαν, on that expedition, p. 144.

Ἐστὶν ἡ χώρα, about the country, p. 140.

Ἐπὶ τὴν πόλιν, to the town, p. 147.

Ἐν τῷ βουλευτικῷ, in the counsel, p. 150.

Ἐπὶ τὸν Πάπαν, to the Pope, p. 170.

Ἐν τῷ συνέδριῳ, in the assembly, p. 125.

Ἐν τῷ ὁδοῦ, in the road, p. 147.

Ἐν τῷ συνέδριῳ, at the meeting, p. 130.

Ἐν τῷ θύρῳ, in the door, p. 130.

Ἐν τῷ κόσμῳ, in the world, p. 150.

Ἐστὶν ἡ ὕλη, in existence, p. 160.

Ἐν τῇ ἱστορίᾳ, in the history, p. 140.

Σύν τῷ Πάπῳ, with the Pope, p. 170.

Σύν τῷ βασιλεῦσι, with the permission, p. 167.

Ἀπὸ τοῦ Πάπῳ, from the Pope, p. 170.

Ἐμπροσθέν τῆς μάχης, before the battle, p. 144.

Ἐξαιτίας τῆς ἀφορμῆς, through the cause, p. 163.

Ἐξαιτίας τῆς θάλασσης ἑρυθρῆς, through the Red Sea, p. 131.

The following examples of articulated nouns coming after the prepositions *δο*, *φορ*, *ἰν*, and *λαρ*, will illustrate this principle of aspiration after *δο*, and eclipsis after the rest of these prepositions :

Ἐπὶ τὴν κάλυπτον, to that cover, *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Κεφαλῆ*.

Ἐπὶ τὸν κύναν, to the hound, or by the hound, *Id.*, voce *Μοῦς Ἐριμ*.

Ἐπὶ τὸν πόδιν, to the leg, *Id.*, voce *Ματ*.

Ἐπὶ τὸν ἄρῳ, to the yoke, *Id.*, voce *Ἐρρεμ*.

Ἐπὶ τὸν βόον, to the ox, *Ibid*.

Ἐπὶ τὸν ἄνδρα, to that man, *Id.*, in voce *Ἀγυλλῆ*, and *Ἐαρῆμα*.

Ἐπὶ τὴν γυναῖκα, to the woman, *Id.*, voce *Ἐμῶν*, and *Μυρῆνα*.

Ἐν τῇ ἀνομιᾷ τῆς ὀνόματι τῆς ἄνοιας, *ἀνομία* is a name for sleep, *Id.*, in voce *Ἀνομιᾶ*.

Ἐπὶ τὸν ἄκρον τῆς ὀνόματι τῆς ἄνοιας, on the north side of the stream, *Wars of Turlough*, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 2. 1. p. 1.

Do'n tecurc riġ budefra, of the royal precepts for the future, MS. Trin. Coll. Dubl. H. 3. 18. p. 539.

Fopp an rliġi, on the way, *Vita Moling*; fopp in cloic, *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 107.

Iṛ in t-renchur máir, in the *Senchus Mor*, *Cor. Gloss.*, voce Flaeth, Feṛb, and Ğno.

Ķar in nĶaeribeiĶ, in the *Gælic*, *Id.*, voce Fín.

Ar m-buain mullaċ no máeċ a ċinn fo'n Ķ-cloic Ķ-cruaib do ṽunn claṽ agur caḃán iṛ in Ķ-cloic, do réir foirme agur cuma a ċinn, "the very soft top of his head having struck against the hard stone, it formed a hollow and cavity in the stone, corresponding with the form of the head," *Life of St. Declan*.

In the counties of Kilkenny and Tipperary the articulated dative or ablative is always eclipsed after *de*, *do*, and all the simple prepositions, when the noun begins with *b*, *f*, or *Ķ*, as *do'n m-bailei*, to the town; *ó'n b-fuil*, from the blood; *do'n nĶorĶ*, to the field; and *t* is prefixed to *r* in this situation, as *o'n t-rúil*, from the eye; but aspiration is invariably used when the noun begins with the consonants *c* or *p*, as *ó'n choill*, from the wood; *ó'n coir*, from the foot; *ar an poll*, out of the hole; not *ó'n Ķ-coill*, *ó'n Ķ-coir*, *ar an b-poll*, as in Thomond. And it should be remarked, that aspiration, not eclipse, of these consonants, in this situation, is also found in ancient manuscripts, as *ón chill*, "from the church," *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 118, *b, b*; *in t-ogum úz fil iṛ in cloic* (not *iṛ in Ķ-cloic*), "that oghum which is in the stone," *Book of Leinster*, fol. 25, *b*; *ré tuibeċt do'n ċaċ*, "before coming to the battle," *Id.*, fol. 78, *b, b*. And when the noun begins with *d* or *t*, it never suffers any change, in these counties, in the articulated dative, as *ó'n tĶgearna* (not *ó'n d-tĶgearna*), from the Lord; *ó'n doiman* [not *o'n n-doman*], from the world.

In manuscripts of considerable antiquity, *r* is eclipsed by *t*,

‡ In a paper manuscript in the possession of the Author, transcribed in Ulster, in 1679, *b* is eclipsed after *do*, *to*, thus: *Ar tĶeacċ do'n m-baile dó*, *cuirĶar*

rĶeala do'ionnroige an ri, "on his arrival in the town, he sends a message to the king." *Toruidheacht GruaidheGriansholuis*, p. 63.

after all the simple prepositions, when the article is expressed, as *ζαέ βαλλ ιρ μόρ κορμάλιυρ ριρ ιν τ-ρειλζ ιρ βαλλ ρυαρέ*, “every part which has great resemblance to the spleen is a cold part,” *Old Med. MS.* A. D. 1352.

When the article is not expressed, the adjective following next after the substantive is eclipsed by some writers, as *αρ α ριυιτιρ η-δίλιρ ρέιν*, “on his own loyal people,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 49; *ριλλιόδ ρορ α λάιρ η-δειρ*, “to turn on his right hand,” *Id.*, p. 70; *γο υ-τυζ Σκοτα ζαν ρζέιρ ηγαμν*, “so that he married Scota of no small beauty,” *Id.*, p. 45; *πε η-αμριρ η-ιμκέιν*, “for a long time,” *Ann. Four Mast.*, A. D. 1330. This eclipse is not, however, observed in the modern language, but aspiration is always used in its place.

RULE XLVIII.

When the relative is governed by any of the simple prepositions, the initial of the following verb is eclipsed, and the subjunctive mood of all the irregular verbs must be used, as *ο α β-ρυιλιδ*, from whom they are; *δ’ά η-δεααίδ ρέ*, to which he went.

But when the following verb is regular, it is used in the indicative form, and the preposition only eclipses its initial in the present and future tenses, as *λε α η-βυαλιμ*, with which I strike; *τρε α ηγοιλρεαδ*, through which I shall weep. The same result will take place, if the preposition be understood, as *Σιρβε αιμν ιν βαιλε α η-βιδίρ α κοζναι η-σίρε*, “Cirbe, the name of the place in which they used to chew the cud,” *Cor. Gloss.*, voce *Femen*; *κο η-αιρμ α ραιβι Ρριαμ η-ι ριδνemuδ Ιοιβ*, “to the place where Priam was, in the sanctuary of Jupiter,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 245, *a, b*. But when the particles *δο, πο*, signs of the past tense, come between the relative and the verb, then the verb is under the influence of the particles, and will be aspirated; as *άιτ αρ ετιτ μόρ η-δαοιη-ρερ ζαέ λειζ*, “where many persons fell on each side,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 116; *Αδαμ όρ [ό α ρο] έάραμαρ*, “Adam from whom we have sprung.” But the subjunctive of the irregular verbs must be used, and their past tenses eclipsed not aspirated, as

leir a n-beapnacó an teampull ro, “by whom this church was made.”—See p. 233. This is a most important rule, of which our grammarians have taken no notice.

RULE XLIX.

Annr, ar, gur, iarr, ir, leir, rir, and trér, are used before the article, and often before the relative instead of ann, a, go, iar, i, le, re, trék.

In old writings, for, *on*, becomes forr in the same situation, as in *Leabhar na h-Uidhri*: Co cualatur fogur na ngobanó oc tuarcan bpoá forr in mneom, “so that they heard the noise of the smiths striking the glowing mass upon the anvil.” I, *in*, generally becomes in, before the relative, as in a b-puil, “in which there is.” But the i is often omitted, and the euphonic n only retained, as ’n a raió, “in which there was.”

When a preposition ending in a vowel is followed by a word beginning with a vowel, an h is inserted, to prevent a hiatus, as le h-eagla, with fear; go h-Éigipt, “to Egypt,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 45. In the county of Kilkenny they say, in the singular, do’n oume, to the person; but dor na daoine, adding an r to do, in the plural. But this is local and corrupt.

The simple prepositions are repeated in the ancient Irish before words put in apposition, as do’n apó-plainé, d’ua Ainmirech, “to the monarch, to the grandson of Ainmire,” *Battle of Magh Rath*, p. 114;

OROIT DO THADG O’CEALLAIG, DO RI O MAINI,
“A PRAYER for TADHG O’KELLY, for THE KING OF HY-MANY.”

—*Inscription at Clonmacnoise.*

And the preposition is also repeated by modern writers before words which would be in the same case in Latin, as agur raourre cóicéionn ó fearaib Éirionn uile ag pearroin, ag pearonn, agur ag maoin gac ollamán bioib, “and there was a general liberty ceded from the men of Ireland to the person, to the land, and to the property of each ollav [chief poet] of them.” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 125.

* See Chapter VII. Sect. 3.

RULE L.

The compound prepositions require a genitive case, which is really governed by the nouns with which they are compounded, as *δο cum na caṛpac*, to the city; *α n-αγαῖο mo ἑολα*, against my will; *δο περί μαῖα*, according to rule; *αῖ ρον na mná*, for the sake of the woman.

SECTION 7.—*Of the Government of Conjunctions.*

RULE LI.

a. The conjunctions *αῖα*, *and*, *no*, *or*, couple the same cases of nouns, and, unless the sense requires otherwise, the same moods and tenses of verbs; as *ρῖα αῖα mná*, men and women; *buail αῖα bῖα*, strike and break.

b. When two or more adjectives belonging to the same noun succeed each other, the conjunction *αῖα* is often omitted altogether, as *ba h-οῖ, áluinn, ḡeana-mail an bean í*, she was a young, beautiful, amiable woman.

c. The conjunction *αῖα*, *and*, is sometimes used in the sense of *as* in English, as *μαῖ ḡo ḃ-ḡuail com aḡbḡoṛac αῖα ρῖα α n-ḃálaiḃ Eḡḡionn*, “as he is so ignorant as that in the affairs of Ireland¹.”

Sometimes, however, the *αῖα* is omitted in this construction, as *com mór ρῖα*, so great as that; but *com mór αῖα ρῖα*, would be equally correct.

¹ Keat. Hist., p. 7.

The Latin *ac, atque*, is sometimes used in the same sense.— See p. 320.

d. When $\alpha\tau$, *but*, connects personal pronouns, the forms $\acute{\epsilon}$, $\acute{\iota}$, $\iota\alpha\delta$, follow it in the modern language, as $\acute{\nu}\acute{\iota}$ $\rho\alpha\iota\beta\epsilon$ $\alpha\eta\eta$ $\alpha\tau$ $\iota\alpha\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\mu$, “there were there but themselves.”

But ancient writers, and even Keating, use the nominatives $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, $\rho\acute{\iota}$, $\rho\iota\alpha\delta$, after this conjunction, as $\zeta\alpha\eta$ η - α β - $\rho\omicron\acute{\alpha}\rho$ $\alpha\tau$ $\rho\iota\alpha\delta$ η α n - $\delta\acute{\iota}\rho$, “none being with them but the two,” *Keat. Hist.*, p. 109.

RULE LII.

a. The conjunctions $\acute{\nu}\acute{\iota}$, *not*, $\eta\acute{\alpha}\acute{\epsilon}$ or $\eta\omicron\acute{\alpha}$, *not*, $\mu\eta\eta$, *unless*, $\alpha\eta$, *whether*, $\zeta\omicron$, *that*, $\mu\alpha\eta$, *as*, always require the subjunctive mood of the verb substantive, and of the irregular verbs after them, as $\acute{\nu}\acute{\iota}$ $\rho\acute{\upsilon}\eta$, there is not; $\mu\eta\eta$ n - $\theta\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\acute{\alpha}\alpha\delta$, unless he went. And they all cause eclipsis, except $\mu\alpha\eta$ and $\acute{\nu}\acute{\iota}$, which always aspirate. $\eta\omicron\acute{\alpha}$ has this peculiarity, that it requires n before ρ , instead of the regular eclipsing letter β , as $\eta\omicron\acute{\alpha}$ n - $\rho\acute{\upsilon}\eta$, there is not.

b. The regular verbs having no subjunctive form only suffer eclipsis, or aspiration, after those particles in their present and future tenses.

c. But when the particles $\delta\omicron$, $\rho\omicron$, or an abbreviation of them, come between these particles and the verb in the simple past tense, the initial of the verb suffers aspiration, and is under the influence of these particles, as $\eta\acute{\iota}\rho$ $\delta\acute{\iota}\beta\eta\alpha\iota$ α $\lambda\acute{\alpha}\eta$ $\eta\rho\acute{\alpha}\rho$ n - $\eta\mu\eta\omicron\iota\lambda$ $\rho\iota\alpha\eta$, “his hand never aimed an unerring shot^m.”

^m Book of Lismore, fol. 188.

It should be here remarked, that *an*, *whether*, *ní*, *not*, *noća*, *not*, never admit of the present tense of the assertive verb *is*, though they always carry its force, as *an mé ? is it I ? ní mé*, it is not I ; *noća n-í in aumpir foğailcep*, “it is not the time that is divided,” *Book of Ballymote*, fol. 171.

RULE LIII.

Má, *if*, and *ó*, *since*, are joined to the indicative mood, and cause aspiration, as *má ceilm*, if I conceal : but they never aspirate the present indicative of the verbs *τάim*, *I am*, or *deirim*, *I say*.

The particles *an*, *whether*, *do*, or *no*, signs of the past tense, *gur*, *that*, *má*, *if*, *mar*, *as*, *naćan*, *that not*, *ní*, *not*, *níon*, *not*, *noćan*, *not*, and *ful*, *before*, cause aspiration.—See pp. 156, 157.

The conjunction *má*, or *ionć*, *than*, requires the forms *é*, *í*, *iać*, of the personal pronouns in the modern language, as *is fećarr é ionć iać*, he is better than they ; *is fećarr é ionć í*, he is better than she. From this it may appear that the Erse grammarians have some grounds for supposing that *é*, *í*, and *iać*, as now used in their dialect, are the original nominative forms of these pronouns, as “*ghabh iad sgeul de gach coisiche*,” for the Irish, *ğab rić* (or *ğabćar*) *rićeul de ğćć coiriće*, “they asked information of every passenger ;” “*thug i biadh dhoibh*,” for the Irish, “*ćug rić biać ó óić*,” “she gave them food.”—See *Stewart’s Gaelic Grammar*, 2nd edit. pp. 194, 195.

The disjunctive conjunction, or negative adverb *ní*, *not*, is sometimes made to eclipse the initial of the verb *is*, and *fağam*, *I find*, as *ní b-ful*, there is not ; *ní b-fağam*, *I find not* ; *ní b-fućar*, *I did not find*. But in John Mac Torna O’Mulconry’s copy of *Keating’s History of Ireland*, these verbs are always aspirated, as *ğićećć ní fućar am an ać mćrbać*, “but he did not get an opportunity to kill him,” p. 132. *Nać*, *ut non*, or *qui non*, is pronounced *ná* in the south of Ireland, and the

initial of the word following it has always its radical sound, as an τέ ναέ ἔ-φουαρ αργεαο να όρ, he who has not got silver or gold, pronounced in the south an τέ ná φουαρ αργεαο ná ορ; and it is sometimes written ná in ancient manuscripts, and even by the Four Masters.

RULE LIV.

The conjunction οά, *if*, always requires the conditional mood, and causes eclipsis, as οά m-βεϊομμ, if I would be; οά ζ-σειλριόιρ, if they would conceal.

This mood has also the conjunction ζο frequently prefixed, as ζο m-βουλιμμ, that I would strike; but it can be used without it, or any other sign like the potential in Latin, as βουλιμμ, I would strike.

RULE LV.

Νά, when it forbids, requires the imperative, as the Latin *ne* sometimes does, as ná βουιλ, do not strike; να βριγ, do not break; να bí, be not.

Αν, *whether*, ζο, *that*, οά, *if*, ιαρ, *after*, μαρ α, *where*, μνα, *unless*, ναέ, *not*, and νοά, *not*, cause eclipsis.—See p. 158.

SECTION 8.—Of the Government of Interjections.

The interjection O, or Α, governs the vocative case, and always aspirates the initial of the noun, when of the aspirable class, as Α ἦρ! O man! Α Όhe! O God!

The interjection O never appears in any ancient manuscript, but Α is used in its place, as Α αζχαρ φίλ ι νομιβ, “pater noster qui es in cœlis,” *Leabhar Breac*, fol. 124.

The interjection μαριζ, *wo*, which is in reality a noun, is always followed by the preposition το, *to*, as ιρ μαριζ ουιτ, wo to thee! or, alas for thee!

PART IV.

OF PROSODY.

PROSODY consists of two parts ; the one treats of the true pronunciation of words, and the other of the laws of versification.

CHAPTER I.

OF PRONUNCIATION.

UNDER this head we have to consider the accent and quantity of Irish words. Emphasis, pause, and tone belong to rhetoric, or general grammar.

SECTION 1.—*Of Accent.*

Accent is either primary or secondary.

The primary or principal accent is that which distinguishes one syllable in a word from the rest. The secondary accent is that stress which we occasionally lay upon another syllable in the same word.

RULE I.

In all words derived from monosyllabic roots, the primary accent is placed on the root ; and hence it may

be laid down as a general principle that the first long vowel, or diphthong, in a word determines the primary accent, as *mór*, great; *mórðáct*, majesty; *peap*, a man, *peapamail*, manly; *paogal*, the world, *paogalta*, worldly, *paogaltact*, worldliness.

RULE II.

Words of two or three syllables, having the vowels in two of the syllables long, are accented on the first syllable in the north of Ireland; but in the south the accent is nearly equal on both syllables, as *móran*, much, a great quantity,—in which the preponderance of the accent is usually towards the second syllable, when it is not at par.

In the north the primary accent is on the first syllable, and in some counties, the second syllable, though long, is pronounced so rapidly, that it can scarcely be said to have a secondary accent. The correct general rule, however, is the following. In the north the primary accent is on the root of the word, and the secondary accent on the termination; but in the south the primary accent is on the termination, and the secondary accent on the root, if short.

It is now difficult to account for this difference of accent between the dialects of the northern and southern Irish, and perhaps equally difficult to determine which is the more correct. The northern mode is to be preferred, as more likely to represent the ancient pronunciation, and especially as it so strongly marks the root of the word to the ear; the southern mode, however, possesses more euphonic diversity of sounds, and is, therefore, more easily adapted to poetical numbers. In consequence of this radical difference of the accent, the Irish songs and poems of the last two centuries cannot be generally appreciated throughout Ireland; for a native of Ulster, reading a Munster poem, or song, according to his own mode of accentuation, imagines it to be barbarous, as every line of it grates on his ear; and the Munsterman finds in the com-

positions of the later Ulster poets (that is, such poems as are set to a certain metre, not the *ḡán dípeac̃*), nothing but harsh and unmusical syllables. This is only the case with the poetry of the last two centuries; for at the commencement of the seventeenth century, when the poems called "the Contention of the Bards" were produced, the poets of Ulster, Munster, and Connaught wrote exactly in the same style as to words and terminations, and found no difficulty in understanding each other, so that they must have had then a fixed general language. But since that period Irish scholars, with very few exceptions, have had only a knowledge of one provincial dialect, as is evident from the several poems, sermons, and catechisms which have from time to time been written or published.

Perhaps it may not be considered over visionary to conjecture that the southern Irish first adopted their present mode of throwing the accent on the long termination, from their connexion with the Spaniards and their knowledge of the classics, which they undoubtedly studied more generally than the northerners, who were more closely connected with the Scotch and English. It is a very curious fact that, in English, the words derived from the Saxon have the accent generally on the root; and words borrowed from the classical languages have it generally on the termination, or branches; as *love*, *lóving*, *lówely*, *lóweliness*; here in all the derivatives from *love*, which is of Saxon origin, the accent is on the root; but in *hármōny*, *hármōnious*, the derivative shifts the accent.

The following classes of words are accented as described in the Rule; that is, with the accent on the first syllable in the north, and on the second in the south of Ireland.

1. Personal nouns in *ḡir*, or *eoir*, formed from verbs or nouns; as *mealltóir*, a deceiver; *féigeasóir*, a weaver; *míllteóir*, a destroyer; *reanáir*, an old man.

2. Personal nouns in *aíde*, *uíde*, *íde*, and *íge*, derived from nouns; as *ḡéalaíde*, a story-teller; *ḡréasuíde*, a shepherd; *íciúde*, a physician; *airíge*, repentance.

3. Adjectives in *aíð*, or *íð*; as *eagnaíð*, wise; *ḡimplíð*, simple.

4. Diminutives in *άν, ίν, and όγ* ; as *σνοcάν*, a hillock ; *cίλλίη*, a little church ; *συλλεόγ*, a small leaf.

5. Nouns and adjectives in *αc* ; as *καλλεαc*, a hag ; *ceπαc*, a plot ; *βραcαc*, thievish ; and abstract nouns in *αcτ*, as *μλλαcτ*.

6. Adjectives in *αμαίη* ; as *ρεπαμαίη*, manly ; *γεαηαμαίη*, lovely. Words of this termination are accented on the second syllable in the south of Ireland, and pronounced as if written *ρεπαύίη*, *γεαηύίη*.

7. Nominatives plural of the first declension in *αιγε* ; as *μυλλαιγε*, *tops*, from *μυλλαc* ; *βεαλαιγε*, *roads*, from *βεαλαc* ; *οπλαιγε*, *inches*, from *οπλαc*.

8. Genitives singular feminine in *αιγε* ; as *να δεαταιγε*, of the smoke ; *να γεαλαιγε*, of the moon ; *να καλλίγε*, of the hag. In many parts of the south of Ireland this class of genitives have the primary accent decidedly on the last syllable ; but throughout the north it is invariably on the first.

9. Nominatives plural of the second declension in *ίθε*, or *εαθα* ; as *ηριίθε*, or *ηρεαθα*, islands ; and also the cases formed from it, as *ηριθίη*, *insulis*.

10. Genitives singular, and nominatives and datives plural in *αίηη*, *αίηηη* ; as *βρειτεαίη*, a judge ; *βρειτεαίηη*, *βρειτεαίηηη*. These have decidedly the accent on the second syllable in the south of Ireland, and are pronounced as if written *βρειτίύηη*, *βρειτίύηηη*.

11. Nominatives plural of the fourth declension in *αιθε*, or *εαθα* ; as *εαρεθα*, wants ; *ρεαλγαρεαθα*, huntsmen.

12. Verbs in *ίγίη*, or *υγίη*, and their futures in *εοcα*, have the primary accent on the syllables *υγ*, *ίγ*, as *φοιλλυγίη*, I shew ; *άρουγίη*, I exalt ; *μίηγίη*, I explain ; and on *εοc* in their futures, *φοιλλρεοcα*, *αιρηεοcα*, *μίηεοcα*. But in the passive participles, the *υγ*, or *ίγ*, is shortened in the south of Ireland, and the accent reverts to the root, as *φοιλλυγίηη*, *άρουγίηη*, *μίηγίηη*.

13. All terminations of the verb which have a long vowel, or diphthong, have the secondary accent ; as *γλαναμαοίη*, we cleanse ; *βριρηίη*, they used to break ; *ο'όρουγίηη*, it used to be ordered ; *βυαίηη*, strike ye ; *ταταοίη*, ye are.

RULE III.

In words derived from polysyllabic roots, the primary accent is generally on the first syllable of the root; and if the next syllable contain a long vowel, it will have the secondary accent.

SECTION 2.—Of Quantity.

The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as long or short.

GENERAL RULES.

1. A vowel is short when it comes before the following combined consonants, $\acute{c}\tau$, lb , lc , $l\bar{g}$, ll , nn , pb , pc , $p\bar{g}$, $p\tau$, as $malla\acute{c}\tau$, a curse; $pcolb$, a splinter; olc , evil; $bo\bar{p}b$, fierce; $\tau a\bar{p}\tau$, thirst.

2. A vowel is generally long in monosyllables when final, or when closed by a single consonant; as $l\acute{a}$, a day; $m\acute{i}$, a month; $p\acute{a}l$, a hedge; $\acute{a}p$, slaughter.

As the diphthongal sounds of the single vowels prevail over the southern half of Ireland, it will be necessary in this place to point out in what situations they are generally used, although they cannot be considered strictly analogical. These diphthongal sounds of the simple vowels, which so strikingly distinguish the language of the southern from the northern Irish^a, prevail when a monosyllabic

^a O'Molloy, in his *Irish Grammar*, pp. 160, 161, 162, takes notice of this peculiar sound, which he describes as "inter longam et brevem." His words on this subject are well worth the attention of the learner:—"Nota tamen, quòd m raro nisi

in fine vocolæ sit longa, vt in τam , $m am$; imò raro hoc ipso effertur longè, quia consonæ fortes maximè finales sunt mediæ quantitatis in pronunciatione, mediæ inquam, vt suprà, inter longam, et brevem. Reuoca in mentem, quod suprà docuimus

word is closed by the following consonants, and combinations of consonants, viz. *b, ò, g, ll, m, nn, nğ*; and in words of two or more syllables before *nc, nğ, nt*; as *lobar*, a leper; *radarc*, sight; *axaò*, the face; *ball*, a member; *am*, time; *ponn*, desire; *peanğ*, slender.

3. The vowels have their short and obscure sounds after long or accented syllables, or when they are final in polysyllables; as *cròda*, brave; *cuideac̄ta*, company.

4. The diphthongs *ae, ao, eo, eu, ia*, and all the triphthongs, are always long.

5. Derivatives and compounds follow the rules of their primitives; as *árò*, high; *áròán*, a hillock; *árò-ríğ*, a monarch.

The exceptions to this rule are very few, and must be considered provincial; as *írlíğim*, I lower; *irlíğce*, lowered; *árò*, high; *aoiròe*, height. The latter should be *írlíğce, áròe*, which are the forms used in the north of Ireland.

SPECIAL RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF SIMPLE VOWELS.

1. *á* is always long in the diminutive *án*; as *cnocán*, a hillock.

2. In the terminations *ac̄* and *òa*, or *òa, ta, or ta*, of adjectives, nouns, or participles, and at the end of all dissyllables and polysyllables, the *a* is always short; as

de quantitate syllabæ, vulgò ríne, quam dixi triplicem, nempe longam, breuem, et mediam, vulgò *raòa, geapp, et meabhonach*; hinc longa linea ponitur supra *bár, rór, &c.*, sine qua forent breues, vt *bar, por*, supra quæ nulla apponitur linea designans quantitatem longam, vel mediam;

verùm media quantitas denotata per lineam non adeo longam super impositam medio quodam tractu effertur, non sicut longa vel breuis, sed breuiùs quàm longa, et longiùs quàm breuis, vt *cáint, géal, óónn, peanğ*, de quibus adhuc redibit sermo."

πάρα, a wilderness ; ερόδα, brave ; κυρδατα, a company.

3. E and ι final are short in all dissyllables and polysyllables not compounded of two or more words ; as ουμε, a man ; ρλάνυιγτε, saved ; τυλλι, a flood.

4. I before ξ, followed by a vowel, is long ; as ρλιξε, a way ; διξε, or διξεαδ, a law ; and particularly in verbs, as ροιλλριξιμ, I illumine. But it is short in the south of Ireland, when the ξ is followed by a consonant ; as ροιλλριγτε, illumined ; όρδυιγτε, ordered.

5. I is always long in the diminutive termination ίν ; as κυνικίν, a little hill ; κοιλίν, a little wood ; ριρίν, a manikin.

6. O is always long in the diminutive termination όγ ; as ουλλεός, a leaf. It is also generally long in the northern half of Ireland, before ξ followed by a vowel or a liquid ; as ρογλαμ, learning ; τογμα, I choose.

But in the south of Ireland O has its diphthongal sound in this situation.

7. U is always long before ξ ; as υξοαρ, an author.

RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF DIPHTHONGS.

The diphthongs αι, εα, ει, ιο, ιυ, οι, υι, are sometimes long and sometimes short^b. All the rest are inva-

^b O'Molloy says that no certain rule can be laid down for the pronunciation of these diphthongs : "Reliquæ biuocales aliquando sunt breues, aliquando longæ, interdum mediæ ; adeòque firmam non habent regulam, sed

reguntur vsu et autoritate."—*Grammatica*, &c., p. 229.

His remarks on the middle quantity of the vowels, which is not now recognized in Connaught or Ulster, are well worth attention : "Syllaba quantitatis mediæ

riably long. The following special rules will assist the learner :

1. α is always short in the terminations $\alpha\eta$, $\alpha\eta\epsilon$, of personal nouns, as $\beta\rho\acute{\alpha}\tau\alpha\eta$, a brother ; $\rho\epsilon\alpha\lambda\text{-}\zeta\alpha\eta\epsilon$, a huntsman. It is long in the terminations $\alpha\omicron$, $\alpha\omicron\epsilon$, $\alpha\iota\zeta\epsilon$, as $\tau\rho\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\theta\alpha\iota\omicron\epsilon$, a shepherd ; $\eta\alpha\ \zeta\epsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\iota\zeta\epsilon$, of the moon.

2. In most modern Irish manuscripts and printed books, the diphthong $\epsilon\alpha$, when long, is written $\epsilon\upsilon$, as $\zeta\epsilon\upsilon\eta$ for $\zeta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta$, $\rho\epsilon\upsilon\eta$ for $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta$.

This is an improvement on the ancient orthography, as it renders the quantity certain, for when this is adopted, $\epsilon\upsilon$ is always long, and $\epsilon\alpha$ always short, as $\rho\epsilon\upsilon\eta$, grass, $\rho\epsilon\alpha\eta$, a man ; whereas if both were written $\rho\epsilon\alpha\eta$, or $\rho\epsilon\eta$, as in the ancient manuscripts, it would be difficult to know, except from the context, which word was intended. It is impossible to lay down any certain rule to determine when $\epsilon\alpha$ is long or short in ancient writings, except the general rule already given at p. 407. But $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\acute{\alpha}\tau\alpha$, and a few others, before $\acute{\alpha}\tau$, are to be excepted from that rule. When $\epsilon\alpha$ is followed by $\eta\eta$, the ϵ is short and the α long, as $\zeta\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\alpha}\eta\eta$, short, $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\alpha}\eta\eta$, better ; but the number of words in which this sound occurs is very few.

3. $\epsilon\iota$, in genitives from $\iota\alpha$ and $\epsilon\upsilon$, or $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$ long, is long, as $\rho\iota\alpha\eta$, a track, gen. $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$; $\rho\epsilon\upsilon\eta$ or $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta$, grass, gen. $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta^c$. But $\epsilon\iota$ in genitives coming from $\epsilon\alpha$ short, is always short, as $\rho\eta\epsilon\iota\epsilon$, from $\rho\eta\epsilon\alpha\lambda$, a scythe ; $\rho\epsilon\iota\epsilon$, from $\rho\epsilon\alpha\lambda\lambda$, treachery ; $\theta\epsilon\iota\lambda\zeta$, from $\theta\epsilon\alpha\lambda\zeta$, a pin, a thorn.

nullam præcedit consonam simplicem, seu vnicam præter solam m . Cæterùm lectio Authorum et vsus te docebit, quæ Romanis procul positis non occurrunt.”—

Grammatica, &c., p. 231.

^c From this is to be excepted the genitive of $\rho\epsilon\iota\alpha\eta$, a knife, which is short, both in Ireland and Scotland, as $\rho\epsilon\epsilon\eta$ or $\rho\epsilon\eta$.

Before the consonants enumerated in Rule 1, p. 407, *ei* is short in the northern half of Ireland, but has a peculiar sound in the south, already explained in the orthography.

4. *eo* is always long, except in about six words, as already stated in the Orthography.—See p. 21.

5. *lo* is always short before the consonants enumerated in Rule 1, p. 407, except *ct*. Before single consonants it is sometimes long and sometimes short, as *πίοι*, true (long), *ρμιοι*, marrow (short), *είοι*, rent (long), *πίοι*, knowledge (short).

6. *lu* is long and short in similar situations, as *διύλατο*, to renounce, or deny; *πλυατο*, to wet; *τριύρι*, three persons. It is always long when ending a syllable and before *l* and *ri*, and single consonants, and short before the combinations of consonants enumerated in Rule 1, p. 407.

7. *oi* is always short before the consonants enumerated in the rule just referred to, but always long in the terminations of personal nouns in *οι*, as *μεαλλτοιοι*, a deceiver; *δολιγεαδοιοι*, or *δολιγεοιοι*, a lawyer. It is long, but with the accent on *i*, in the terminations *οιδε*, *οιγε*, as *χοιοδε*, a heart.

8. *ui* is short before the consonants enumerated in Rule 1, p. 407. It is always long in the terminations *υιδε*, *υιγε*.

CHAPTER II.

OF VERSIFICATION.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables according to given laws, which, in the Irish language, are very peculiar and mechanical.

There are three kinds of verse in Irish, viz., *Dan Direach*, *Oglachas*, and *Bruilingeacht*.

SECTION I.—Of *Dan Direach Verse*.

We are here to consider, first, the requisites of *Dan Direach* verse in general, and then, its several kinds or species.

In *Dan Direach*, or *direct metre*, there are seven requisites^a, viz., 1st, a certain number of syllables in each line; 2nd, four lines in each quatrain; 3rd, Concord; 4th, Correspondence; 5th, Termination; 6th, Union; 7th, Head^b.

^a Of the difficulty of composing *Dan Direach*, or *Rann Direach*, O'Molloy, who calls it in Latin *Metrum rectum*, writes thus: "Maximè autem de Metro, omnium quæ unquam vidi, vel audiui, ausim dicere, quæ sub sole reperiuntur, difficillimo," &c.—*Grammatica Latino-Hiber-*

nica, p. 144. At page 156 he gives seven rules, to assist the poet in composing this mechanical kind of verse.

^b A writer in the *Anthologia Hibernica*, for May, 1793, vol. i. p. 346, in noticing the works of Dr. O'Molloy, has the following remarks upon this subject:—

To these may be added an eighth, not because it is always necessary, but because it is often used, namely, *Urlann*, of which we shall speak in its proper place.

Here it should be remarked, that of the seven requisites above enumerated, the first four, to wit, number of lines, number of syllables, concord, and correspondence,—are indispensable in every kind of Dan Direach; but not so the three last mentioned, which are required only in particular kinds. Thus the major and the minor termination are indispensable only in the species commonly called *Deibhidhe*; Union, in *Rannaigheacht mhor* and *Casbhairn*; and Head, in *Rannaigheacht bheag* and *Seadna* only.

1. The number of syllables in a line varies according to the kind of verse, as shall be presently shown.

2. A quatrain, called *Rann iomlán* by the Irish, consists of two couplets or four lines. The first couplet of a *rann* is called by the Irish *Seoladh*, or *the leading*; the second is called *Comhad*, or *the closing*. Every *rann* or quatrain must make perfect sense by itself, without any dependence on the next; nay, the first couplet may produce a perfect sense without any dependence on the second.

3. *Concord*, or *Alliteration*, called by the Irish

“The Irish poets seem to me to have absurdly imitated the Greeks in the name and variation of their metrical feet, &c. The northerns were equally addicted with the Irish to this mechanical poetry. The Scalds transposed the words of their songs so strangely and artfully, as to be quite unintelligible but by their own order, &c.” The author of this article, who subscribes himself D., is believed to be Dr. Ledwich; but the opinion he ex-

presses, viz., that the Irish poets imitated the Greeks in the name and variation of their metrical feet, receives no support from any thing to be found in O'Molloy's Irish Prosody,—the work which he is reviewing in the article referred to. Indeed the very contrary appears from all the rules which O'Molloy gives for the three principal kinds of verse which were in use among the ancient Irish.

Uaim, requires two words (of which neither can be a preposition or particle), in each line, to begin with a vowel, or with the same consonant.

Example :

Ṭriall tar dearbha na rpeab̄ rcan,
 Tar éir laochraíde Zaiḡean,
 Co cuan clarpúinn mo éroiḡe,
 Co pluaḡ áluinn Oroiḡe.

O'Heerin.

In the first line, *rpeab̄* and *rcan* form a concord, both beginning with the same consonant, *r*; in the second, *laochraíde* and *Zaiḡean*; in the third, *cuan*, *clap*, and *croiḡe*; and in the fourth, *áluinn* and *Oroiḡe*, form a concord, as both begin with a vowel.

Concord is of two kinds, proper and improper. The former, called *Fior-uaim*, is where the last two words of a line begin with a vowel or the same consonant, as in the first two lines of the quatrain just quoted.

The improper concord is when the words so beginning are not the last two in the line. But here note, that what the ancient Irish called an *Iarmbearla*, i. e. the *article*, *possessive pronoun*, *adverb*, *preposition*, or *conjunction*, coming between any two words, neither forms nor hinders a concord.

The proper concord can be used for the improper, and *vice versa*, in every line *except the third* and *fourth*, in which the proper concord is indispensably necessary.—See *O'Molloy's Grammatica*, &c., p. 155.

Aspiration, eclipsis, or the intervention of any adventitious letter, does not prevent a concord, except in the following instances :

When *p* is aspirated, it makes a concord with *p̄*, as *am̄aim* *duir* mo *p̄eacaḡ* *féin*; where the *p̄* in *p̄eacaḡ*, and the *p* in *féin*,

make a concord. But when the *p* is aspirated, it has no sound, and therefore is not taken into consideration, but the concord is observed with the succeeding letter, as *ταγαρ leam, α φλαε̃ ειρνε*; where the *l* in *leam*, and the *l* in *φλαε̃*, form an improper concord, the *p* being altogether disregarded. Likewise in the line, *ταγαρ leam, α φλαε̃ ζιφε*; the *l* in *φλαε̃*, and the *l* in *ζιφε*, form a proper concord.

Initial *p*, followed by a vowel or a consonant, does not concord with *p*, unless it be followed by a vowel or the same consonant; thus *pa* will form a concord with *po, pu*, but not with *pb, pc, po*, or *pg*; and *pb* will only concord with *pb, pc* with *pc*, and so of all the other combinations. In like manner, *cp* concords with *cp* only, as an *cpúl, an cpolair*.

4. *Correspondence*, called in Irish *Comharda*. This has some resemblance to rhyme, but it does not require the corresponding syllables to have the same termination as in English rhyme.

To understand it perfectly, the following classification made of the consonants, by the Irish poets, must be attended to :

1. *S*, called by the bards the queen of consonants, from the peculiarity of the laws by which it is aspirated and eclipsed^c.

2. Three soft consonants, *p, c, τ^d*.

3. Three hard, *b, g, o*.

4. Three rough, *f, c̃, t̃*.

5. Five strong, *ll, m, nn, ng, pp*.

6. Seven light, *b̃, ó, g̃, m̃, l, n, p*.

^c See O'Molloy's *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 36, where he writes: "S consonarum penultima omniumque facillè Regina, accrescit, præfigique potest cuilibet nedum vocali, verùm etiam consonæ in hoc idiomate; ita vt nulla eam recuset, adeòque omnium dicitur vniversalissima cunctarum scilicet singularumque ductrix, &c."—See also pp.

160, 219. The consonant *p*, however, is called the meretrix by others, because it so readily unites with the other consonants; but properly speaking, it is a mere sibilant, and not at all entitled to the high dignity given it by the bards.

^d Nothing, however, is more certain than that the Irish poets are wrong in styling *p, c, τ*, *soft*

The Irish poets teach that the consonants exceed each other in power and strength, according to the above classification. They assert that *p* is the chief, or queen, of all consonants. Next after it they rank the three soft consonants, *p*, *c*, *t*, which exceed the succeeding classes in force or strength; likewise that the hard consonants excel the rough consonants, and the strong the light ones, which are reckoned the meanest and feeblest of all the consonants.—See *O'Molloy's Grammatica*, &c., p. 160.

Correspondence is of two kinds, perfect and broken.

Perfect correspondence, which is sometimes equal to perfect rhyme in English, consists in the agreement of two words, the last in two lines of poetry, in vowels and consonants of the same class.

Example :

O dhearbha co Sláine roip,
 Cuid críche Cloinne Corghnoig,
 Sloig dheanntraige na g-ciaib g-cam,
 An pian reabcuide pulmall.

O'Heerin.

In this quatrain *roip* and *Corghnoig* form a correspondence, both agreeing in vowels, and ending with a consonant of the sixth class *p* and *g*, which are light consonants. And the words *g-cam* and *mall* also correspond in vowels and consonants, the one ending in *m* and the other in *ll*, which are of the fifth class.—See Table.

Broken, or imperfect, correspondence is the agreement of two words, the last in two lines of poetry, in vowels only, without any regard to consonants.

consonants, and *b, g, d*, *hard* consonants, for the latter class are undoubtedly the soft.—See the Orthography, pp. 2, 59, 60. The entire classification is pretty correct, and founded on the nature of articulate sounds, except that

the second and third classes are misnamed, and that *l, n, r*, which are liquids, should not, from the nature of articulate sounds, be classed with *b, d, g, m*.—See the Orthography, page 2, *et sequen.*

This kind of correspondence allows that one word may end in a vowel and the other in a consonant, as *ba* and *blap*, *cap* and *clacc*, also *aoi* and *aoip*, *blaoirg* and *baoir*.—See *O'Molloy's Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 165.

5. *Termination*, or *Rinn*, requires that the last word in the second and fourth lines of a quatrain should exceed that of the first and third by one syllable.

Thus, if the first line end in a word of one syllable, the second must end in a word of two; and if the third line should end in a word of two syllables, the fourth must be of three syllables. The first is called *Rinn*, or the *minor termination*; the second, *Airdrinn*, or *major termination*. This additional syllable in the *Airdrinn* does not affect the correspondence. The following examples from *O'Dugan's Topographical Poem* will illustrate the foregoing:

Triallom ó dhoirce beanbairg,
 Ip ó Chualgne chricleanbairg,
 O Muig Rath rraoch na fala,
 'S ó cae laoch O' Labraoa.

O Dun da leath glap na leano,
 Ar i rig-peleag Eireann,
 Dan fagail ar m'aire ann
 Daile ar falaó cre Cholam.

In the first of these quatrains it will be observed that *beanbairg*, the last word in the first line, is exceeded by one syllable by *chricleanbairg* in the second line, and *fala*, the last word of the third line, by *Labraoa*. Also, in the second quatrain, *Eireann*, the last word of the second line, exceeds *leano*, the last word in the first line, by one syllable, as does *Cholam*, the last word of the fourth line, exceed *ann*, the last word of the preceding, by one syllable. Here note that a compound word may be admitted to form an *Airdrinn*, as *chricleanbairg*, in the second line above quoted; also all enclitics, as *ra*, *re*, *ro*, *rin*, *roin*, *ran*, *ri*, *reo*, *ne*, *rap*, *an*, *glé*, *no*, *úr*, and all adjectives that can be placed before their nouns, are allowed by the poets to form this termination.

6. Union, or *Uaithne*, is nearly the same with Correspondence, except that the same vowels are not required in each place; and, in polysyllables, it is only necessary that they agree in class, as *αὐῶα*, *βιοῶα*; *imne*, *doimne*; *opmaille*, *reanpoige*; but the nearer they agree the better. A syllable, however, with a broad vowel cannot form a union with one having a small vowel, as *laḡ* and *liḡ*.

This agreement generally takes place between the last word in the first and third lines, and some word in the middle of the second and fourth, as in the following example :

Aen bean doob' áille ḡné
 Do éonairc mé,—mipde dúinn,—
 Ar bpuac mēip na n-éighe m-bán,
 Aḡ niḡe a lám 'raḡ copnaó cúil.
 Folc dualac, coinnleac, cam,
 Ḥac lúb ann ar lí an óip,
 Ḥpuacó li-ḡeal ó n-deallpuiḡeann ḡpian,
 Do élaoi mo ciall, raé mo bpoín.

Owen O'Donnelly.

In these lines the reader will observe a kind of chime, or vowel rhyme between the words underlined, *ḡné* and *mé*; *bán* and *lám*; *cam* and *ann*; *ḡpian* and *ciall*.

7. *Head*, or *ceann*, is the monosyllabic word which concludes the second and fourth lines of a quatrain in that kind of verse called *Seadna*.

As the words *ionn* and *b-pionn*, in the following quatrain :—

Oighe Chacáoir, cionn a éinó,
 Ionnuin linne ḡó é ionn,
 Ḥpatac aige na ḡ-cuir ḡ-coiḡeacó
 Cathac óigheap uip na b-pionn.

8. Another requisite in *Dan Direach* is that called *Amus*. It is nearly the same as an imperfect correspondence, except that it requires an equal number of syllables in the words which correspond.

Example :

Μάγ δαονναετ δεαλβεαρ 'ran δάν,
 Μαγ δεαλβ, no λαοεραετ, no λúε,
 Όο noγ γαε mic ποιμίη ριγ,
 Ρειε α γνίση ní σοιλιγ δύν.

Some make an *amus* between α and e ; but seldom. O'Molloy considers it incorrect. In a short syllable οι will make an *amus* with αι, or υι short, because they have nearly the same sound, as ποιγ and πλαε.

The principal species of *Dan Direach* verse chiefly in use among the Irish poets are the five following, namely, *Deibhidhe*, *Seadna*, *Rannaigheacht mhor*, *Rannaigheacht bheag*, and *Casbhairn*.

1.—Of *Deibhidhe*.

The principal requisites which distinguish this kind of verse from others is, that the first and third line of each quatrain end with a *minor* termination, and the second and fourth with a *major* termination. It requires also seven syllables in each line, with correspondence, concord, and union, which must all be perfect in the last couplet.

Example :

Όγλαε δο βί αγ Μυιη μίση
 Ναε δ-τυε ειρεαε 'να η-σηόη,
 Σεη náη β'αιλ δο'η υιλε βαν
 Αίμαη αετ Μυιη μαεαρ.

In this quatrain will be observed the following requisites :
 1. Every line consists of seven syllables, for in the first line the α in $\alpha\gamma$ is elided, as coming immediately after $\beta\iota$. 2. The last word of the second line exceeds the last word of the first line by one syllable, which is the *Airdrinn*, or major termination. 3. In the first line the words Μυρε and μορ form a concord, or alliteration ; and in the second line the words $\text{ειρεα}\acute{\alpha}$ and $\text{h-on}\acute{\omicron}\rho$, form a concord, both beginning with a vowel, the h not being taken into account, as it is adventitious, not radical in the word. 4. The words μόρ and ονόρ form a correspondence, or agreement of vowels and consonants. In the first line of the second couplet there is a concord formed by the words β'αλ and υλε , as both begin with vowels, for β is not taken into account, it being an abbreviation of the verb $\beta\alpha$, or $\beta\upsilon\delta$, *was*. Again, in the last couplet the word μαζαρ exceeds βαν by a syllable, and these words agree in vowels and class of consonants, n and p being of the sixth class, or light consonants. Also the words β'αλ and βαν form a union, or vowel rhyme, and the same is formed by Μυρε and υλε .

2.—Of *Seadna*.

Seadna requires eight syllables in the first and third lines of each quatrain, and seven syllables in the second and fourth ; also that the first and third lines should end in a word of two syllables, and the second and fourth in a word of one syllable, which is called by the Irish *Braighe*.

It is therefore nearly the reverse of *Deibhidhe* in the termination, or *rinn*. Every second and fourth line form a perfect correspondence, which sometimes amounts to perfect rhyme, and every first and third may either make a perfect or imperfect one, as

Δυμε να β-πλεαδ πυλ Ρυαρκαδ,
 Ταρ φρενι Chunn δο κονναρι ριαδ,
 Θα Μεμιε ριαρι αντρομ ορρα,
 Ο'Αλτρομ κλιαρ ιφ υρρα ιαδ.

Fine Ruarcac, ríograíó Chonnaét,
 A g-clu uaéa ar feaó gac fuinn,
 Ní h-iongnaó geall aca uaíóe,
 Slaeta ip feapp do éuaine Chunn.

Ciothruaidhe O'Hussey.

In these quatrains the monosyllables *riaó* and *iaó*, *fuinn* and *Chunn*, form perfect correspondences, which happen, in these instances, to amount to perfect rhyme, although perfect correspondence is not always necessarily perfect rhyme, for the consonants need agree in class only, as we have already seen. Also the dissyllables *Ruarcac* and *oppa*, *Chonnaét* and *uaíóe*, form an imperfect correspondence. It will be seen also, that concord, or alliteration, is observed throughout, as by *b-íleáó* and *fuil*, in the first line; by *Chunn* and *éuaine*, in the second; by *anpóm* and *oppa*, in the third, both beginning with a vowel, as prescribed by the rule for Concord; by *alpóm*, *uppa*, and *iaó*, in the fourth. Also, in the second quatrain, by *Ruarcac* and *ríograíó*, in the first line; by *feaó* and *fuinn*, in the second; by *h-iongnaó*, *aca*, and *uaíóe*, in the third; and by *éuaine* and *Chunn*, in the fourth.

O'Molloy mentions but one kind of *Seadna*, but other writers notice three kinds; first, the common *Seadna*, which is that already described; second, the *Seadna mhor*; and third, the *Seadna mheadhonach*. The *Seadna mhor* differs from the common in this only, that every couplet ends in a word of three syllables, as in this example:

O'íop éogaió comalteaí ríóéáin,
 Sean-focal nac ráruigéteaí;
 Ní rágan ríó acé feapí roíla,
 Feaó éanba na m-bán-foíteíeaó.

T. D. O'Higgin.

In the *Seadna mheadhonach*, the first and third lines end with words of three syllables; and the second and fourth with words of two, as in this example:

Feárr rillead na ralm neamháide,
 Do níí ar leapáib linne,
 Mairg do geib an glóir n-eabtarbaid,
 Oide ar b'éag-ralmaib binne.

Anon.

3.—Of the Verse called *Rannaigheacht*.

Of this there are two kinds, *Rannaigheacht mhor* and *Rannaigheacht bheag*.

Rannaigheacht mhor requires seven syllables in each line, and every line to end with a word of one syllable. It is also necessary that there should be a perfect correspondence between the last words of the second and fourth lines of each quatrain, but not between the last word of the first and third; but it requires a *union*, or vowel rhyme, between some word in the first line and another in the second.

Example :

Dealg aéaloid oépar Taidg
 Dar n-antraoib tocta an tuilg,
 Créacé oile ar feolfoḡail n-dailg
 Loige an deirg deḡonaid buirb.

Anon.

It will be observed that all the requisites laid down in the above rule, are preserved in this quatrain. Every line consists of seven syllables; a concord, or alliteration, is formed in the first line by the words aéaloid and oépar. Likewise aéaloid makes a perfect union with antraoib; and oépar and tocta form an imperfect union. Tocta and tuilg, in the second line, form a concord, or alliteration, where, to prevent a superfluous syllable, the *a* in tocta is elided, as coming before an. Also tuilg and buirb form a perfect correspondence,—though not rhyme,—as they agree in vowels, syllables, sound, and quantity; moreover,

oile and feolfoḡaíl form a concord, both being considered as beginning with vowels, as the *f* is totally sunk in the pronunciation; also oile and loḡe form a union, *uaithe*, or vowel rhyme; as do the words deilḡ and deirḡ. Likewise the words feolfoḡaíl and beoḡonaib form a union.

Rannigheacht bheag differs from the preceding in one particular only, viz., that every line must end with a word of two syllables.

Example :

Roḡa na cloinne Conall,
 Toḡa na droinge a dearam,
 Tolḡ dar feolaib ruḡ noimam,
 Conall tuḡ d'Éoḡan fearann.

Anon.

In this quatrain are presented all the requisites above enumerated, as belonging to *Rannigheacht mhor*; and it will be seen that there is no difference between them, except that the final words of each line of the latter species are dissyllables; those of the former are all monosyllables.

4.—Of *Casbhairn*.

Casbhairn requires seven syllables in each line, and is particularly distinguished from all the species of verse already described by this characteristic, namely, that every line must terminate with a word of three syllables. It requires also concord, correspondence, and union.

Example :

Puirte ruoḡ acaib fionnloḡa,
 Síob Chaḡaíl a ḡ-comlaib,
 D'a ḡoin d'arim i Uḡaine,
 Do n'arib roim an ruoḡuḡe.

There are several other kinds of *Dan Direach*, as *Casbhairn-Ceanntrom* (or heavy-headed *Casbhairn*), *Rionnard*, &c., but the

limits intended for this work would not permit us to go into a description of them ; and we must therefore content ourselves with noticing one other species, namely, the *Rionnard* of six syllables, in which Ængus the Culdee wrote his *Feilire*, or *Festilogium*. This has the general requisites of the *Dan Direach*, and every line ends with a word of two syllables, like the *Rannaigheacht bheag*, as :

Ζαπαρ γρήμε αιε,
 Αρητολ Ειρενη οίγε,
 Πατραικ κοιμετ mile,
 Ρορ οίτιυ δι αρ προίγε.

See O'Molloy's *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 210, 211, where he thus describes this kind of verse : “Aliud vulgò rionnard constat quatuor quartis, et omne quartum sex syllabis, cujusque finalis dictio est bissyllaba, ultimæ Metrorum correspondent, ultimum cujusque quarti concordat cum aliquo vocabulo mox antecedenti ; in ultimo præterea semimetro debet intervenire correspondentia, vt in sequenti :

Roín na féile Fánad
 Fáipce Fíleadó Eipeann,
 Drián na maḡ an míonḡonn
 Annaín ḡiall ḡan ḡéibeann.”

SECTION 2.—Of Oglachas.

Oglachas, or *the servile metre*, is made in imitation of all kinds of *Dan Direach* already described. Every line of it requires seven syllables and no more, unless when it is made in imitation of *Seadna*, when the first and third lines of each quatrain will have eight syllables.

This kind of verse is merely imitative : “Simia enim est,” O'Molloy's *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 200 ; and there-

fore it will be more ornamental if Concord, or alliteration, be preserved in each line ; but, in reality, it is neither confined to *correspondence*, *concord*, or *union* ; nor to true termination, for the major may exceed the minor by two syllables : as

Ḑorḑ a ḑreathan ar ḑac tráig
Niall mac Eacac Muigmeadain.

Here it will be observed that, contrary to the law and rules of that species of Dan Direach called *Deibhidhe*, the word *tráig*, which is a monosyllable, and the minor termination is exceeded by the major termination *Muigmeadain*, by more than one syllable.

The following is an example of *Oglachas*, in imitation of *Seadna* :

Ḑab, a Shíle, a n-azaid h'aignid,
Ionar, fallonig, filéd rróill,
Ḑean do'n céirḑ, ar ar ḑrom Aine,
Ḑuill bonn taille mar nac cóir.

When *Oglachas* is made in imitation of *Rannaigheacht mhor*, nothing is required but that the last word of each line must be a monosyllable ; nor does it matter whether the union be perfect or imperfect, and it will be sufficient if an *amus* be used in place of correspondence ; but it is indispensable that every line of the quatrain should end in a word of one syllable, and that there should be an *amus*, or vowel rhyme, between the last word of the first line, and some word in the middle, or towards the middle of the second line, and also between the last word of the third line and some word in the middle, or towards the middle of the fourth line, as in the following example :

Ḑriúr atá az brac ar mo báir,
Ḑiḑ ataid do ḑnát am bun,
Ḑruaz ḑan a ḑ-crocaḑ pe crann,
An diaḑal, an élan n'ra énuin.

Bonaventura O'Hussey.

When *Oglachas* is made in imitation of *Rannaigheacht bheag*, it is in every particular like the above, except that the last word of each line must be a dissyllable, as in the example :

Ar do clairriú go n-dúine,
 Ní bí mo íúile acé dhuize,
 Ionann leam is a clairóin,
 Do lámhá d'fáicín uirpe.

There is another species of *Oglachas* which has the first line of each quatrain like *Casbhairn*, and the second like *Rannaigheacht bheag*.

SECTION 3.—*Of Droighneach.*

This species of poetry, called *Droighneach*, i. e. *Spinosum*, or *the Thorny*, from the difficulty of its composition, may admit of from nine to thirteen syllables in every line. It requires that every line should end with a word of three syllables; and every final word must make a *union* with another word in the beginning or middle of the next line of the same couplet; there must also be a correspondence between the final words.

Example :

Dá roiriom do'n bpuú íonhíuar oireadó,
 Dao díombuan ar n-doinneanma ar n-dul 'ran deaúadó,
 Do g'eab'p'um porp' g'aoil g'eimeánna,
 Is Aoó fein Eanána go n-a luét leanáinna.

G. Brighde O'Hussey.

SECTION 4.—*Of Bruilingeacht.*

This is composed much after the same manner as the *Oglachas*, but requires correspondence (at least the improper correspondence), and also a kind of *concord*,

union, and *head*. Each line must consist of seven syllables ; and it is generally composed in imitation of *Casbhairn*, and *Seadna meadhonach*.

Example :

Muc áoluis̄ ag clarpúigeádo
Fá bun aol-tuir é'earcarad.

O'Molloy mentions among the vulgar poetry the following, viz., *Abhran*, song, *Burdun*, and *Caoine*, or *Tuireadh*, a funeral dirge, or elegy, some of which consist of poetic lines of eight, ten, and eleven syllables. But poems of this description are of rare occurrence. As specimens may be mentioned *Feircheirtne's Tuireadh*, an Elegy on Curai Mac Daire, in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin (H. 3. 18). Mac Liag and Giolla Caoimh also composed elegies of this description on Brian Borumha, which are still extant. See also the *Oc̄t-fōcláic mop h-Éimín* in the Book of Leacan. For more on this subject, the reader is referred to O'Molloy's *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, pp. 236-244 ; and there is a curious Tract on Irish versification in the Book of Ballymote, which deserves to be studied.

APPENDIX.

I.

OF CONTRACTIONS AND ABBREVIATIONS.

THE contractions used in Irish manuscripts, and in some printed books, are in principle, and often in form, the same as those which occur in Latin manuscripts of the middle ages. They are in fact a species of shorthand, introduced for the purpose of saving time and parchment, which, before the invention of the art of printing, was an object of considerable moment.

The most common and important contractions may be classified as follows:

1. Those which are in fact Latin words, although used to represent the corresponding Irish words.

These are *et*, *et*, for $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho^a$; γ (another Latin abbreviation for *et*), $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$; \bar{u} , *vero*, for $\imath\mu\omicron\pi\pi\omicron$; \bar{r} , *sed*, for $\alpha\acute{\epsilon}\tau$; \bar{h} , *autem* (or *hautem*, as the word was often written), for $\omicron\alpha$, or $\omicron\omicron\alpha$, *indeed*; the same contraction also stands for *hæc*, particularly in medical manuscripts; \bar{t} , *vel*, for the Irish *no*, *or*; \bar{z} *est*, for the Irish $\tau\alpha$, *is*, and γ *ejus*.

These contractions are often used for the syllables which the Latin words they represent stand for, and often for syllables similar to the Latin words in sound. Thus:

γ stands for $e\omicron$ or $e\tau$, as $c\gamma$ for $c\acute{e}\omicron$ or $c\acute{e}\alpha\omicron$, *a hundred*, or $ce\alpha\omicron$,

^a The same contraction, in the forms $\&$ and $\&$, is still used for *and* in English.

leave or permission; and if 7 be dotted it denotes eò, or eè, as b7α for be7α, or bea7α, *life*.

So also t for the syllable no; and r̄ very commonly, even in printed books, for ᾱc̄t, or c̄t; as τr̄ for τεᾱc̄t, *to come*; cumᾱr̄c̄, for cumᾱc̄tᾱc̄, *powerful*.

In like manner we find h, *hæc*, used for the syllable ec and eγ: as τhμᾱō for τεcμᾱō, *it happens*: h̄m for ειγ̄m, *some*. ε̄ *ejus*, is also used to denote ειγ̄r̄, as λ̄ for λειγ̄r̄, particularly in medical manuscripts.

2. A vowel set over any consonant, generally supposes an η understood before that vowel: as

ḡ for γρα.

ḡ for γρο.

ḡ for γρε.

ḡ for γρυ.

ḡ for γρι.

This contraction is also, but not so frequently, used to denote η following the vowel; in which case the foregoing abbreviations may be read γαρ, γερ, γιρ, &c. This, however, rarely happens, except in the word γυρ, *that*, which is often contracted ḡ. In other cases u over a letter is read ηu, as ḡαγ̄án for τυαγ̄án, *a meagre man*: unless it be written υ, in which case it is often, in modern manuscripts, put for ηυ, as ḡ for κυρ, *putting*; ḡc̄, for κῡc̄αρ, or κυρ̄c̄αρ, *is put*. In more correct Irish manuscripts, however, the u placed over the consonant is formed thus ~ when the η is understood after it, and υ or υ when before it; thus ḡ is to be read κυρ, but ḡ, or ḡ, τυυ.

The α written over a consonant in this contraction, is often formed by a sort of running-hand like n or n, as ḡó, for γρο̄; but it is in reality nothing more than α, although O'Molloy absurdly supposed it to be the consonant n. See his *Grammatica Latino-Hibernica*, p. 130.

3. A syllable terminating in η is usually denoted by the contraction s placed over the consonant: and this mark doubled is used to denote a syllable terminating in double η.

Thus $\overset{\rho}{\rho}$ is read $\rho\epsilon\rho$, or $\rho\epsilon\alpha\rho$, *a man*; $\overset{\beta}{\beta}$ $\beta\epsilon\alpha\rho\rho$, *better*; $\alpha\delta$, is $\alpha\delta\epsilon\rho$, *he says*.

This mark is absurdly supposed by some to be the consonant *s*; but it is in reality an abbreviated form of ρ . In the case of the letters ζ and τ , it is formed by a semicircular turn from the right hand extremity of the horizontal stroke, thus, ζ , which stands for $\zeta\epsilon\rho$, $\zeta\epsilon\alpha\rho$, but generally $\zeta\upsilon\rho$: τ° for $\tau\alpha\rho$, $\tau\epsilon\rho$; but more frequently for $\tau\upsilon\rho$.

4. A consonant placed over another consonant implies the omission of a vowel, which must be determined by the sense.

Thus $\overset{\epsilon}{\rho}$, $\overset{\epsilon}{\zeta}$, $\overset{\epsilon}{\tau}$, denote $\rho\alpha\delta$, $\zeta\alpha\delta$, $\tau\alpha\delta$. Or other vowels may be supplied according to the sense, as $\overset{\epsilon}{\tau}$ may stand for $\tau\epsilon\iota\delta$; $\overset{\epsilon\epsilon}{\tau}$ for $\tau\epsilon\upsilon\epsilon\zeta$; $\overset{\epsilon}{\tau}$ for $\tau\upsilon\iota\tau$, as $\overset{\epsilon}{\tau}\iota\mu$ for $\tau\upsilon\iota\tau\iota\mu$, *I fall*, &c.

5. A line drawn across the letters β , ι , η , or ν ; or over $\bar{\epsilon}$, $\bar{\zeta}$, $\bar{\delta}$, $\bar{\rho}$, \bar{m} , \bar{n} , $\bar{\eta}$, $\bar{\rho}$, $\bar{\tau}$, denotes that a syllable is contracted, which must be determined by the grammar, or by the sense. The letters m , n , ρ , or υ , usually enter into the syllables so contracted, or, when there is a point over the horizontal line, δ or ζ .

Thus β is $\beta\alpha\rho$, $\beta\epsilon\rho$, $\beta\epsilon\eta$, or $\beta\alpha\iota$; δ is $\beta\alpha\delta$, or $\beta\upsilon\delta$; ι stands for $\lambda\alpha\delta$, and sometimes even for a longer termination, as $\upsilon\iota$ for $\upsilon\iota\epsilon\alpha\zeta\alpha\delta$; $\bar{\eta}\rho\tau$ for $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ *apoile*, *et cætera*: and so of the other contractions of this class, which must in every case be determined by the sense, and therefore an accurate knowledge of the language is absolutely necessary in order to read them: as $\overset{\cdot}{\eta}\bar{\rho}$ for $\eta\rho\epsilon\alpha\delta$; $\bar{\zeta}\bar{\rho}$ for $\zeta\lambda\upsilon\alpha\rho\alpha\zeta$; $\overset{\cdot}{\upsilon}\bar{\beta}$ for $\upsilon\beta\rho\iota\upsilon\zeta\alpha\delta$.

When the line is doubled it denotes that the final letter of the contracted word is doubled; as $\bar{\tau}$ for $\lambda\alpha\mu\mu$.

6. A short curved line \curvearrowright denotes m ; and when placed over a vowel denotes that m is to follow that vowel: n , in a similar position, is marked by a short straight line: and two such lines stand for nm .

Thus \bar{a} , \bar{u} , \bar{a} , denote $\bar{a}m$, $\bar{a}n$, $\bar{a}nn$; a line over n also doubles it, as $\bar{p}n\bar{n}$ for $\bar{p}ann$.

The circumflex \smile is also sometimes used by itself for m , in which case it may be regarded as a sort of running-hand form of the letter; as $\zeta en\text{-}\bar{a}$ for $\zeta eneam\bar{a}m$: sometimes the circumflex is dotted to denote \bar{m} . At the end of a word this form of m is occasionally written vertically and with a greater number of inflexions, as 3 or 3 ; and in a very few cases this is used at the beginning of a word.

7. There are a few peculiar characters in use for particular contractions; as 4 for $\alpha\omicron$; 2 for $\epsilon\alpha$; 4 for $\alpha\eta$; 4 for $\alpha\eta$; 4 for $\alpha\eta\eta$; η for $\eta\eta$; 3 for con ; p for pep ; p for ppo ; 3 for up or $\alpha\eta$; p for pep or $\eta\eta$; v for u ; h for η .

8. Arbitrary contractions are very numerous, and are used chiefly in modern manuscripts. They depend chiefly on the caprice of the scribe, and can be learned only by practice.

Thus the numerals 2, 3, &c., are used to denote the syllables oa , epi , &c., as 10m2 for $\text{10m}\text{oa}$; 2m for $\text{oa}m$; and so 6 stands for pe ; 8 for oct and even act ; 9 for naoi , as m9 for mnaoi , dative of *bean*, *a woman*.

In like manner the letter q stands for the syllable cu or ca : as qc for cuc ; qq for cuca ; q^{b} for cuib ; aq for aca ; a9q for an oibci (the figure 9 being used to express the sound of the letters noib , and orthography being entirely disregarded).

So ppp (i. e. epi p , *three r's*) stands for the word epiap ; nc for nci ; bh (the letter h representing the syllable $\text{ua}\bar{c}$, which is the Irish name of the letter) for buac ; m^{a} (i. e. α ap m , *a upon m*) for apm ; m^{m} (m ap m , *m upon m*) for mpim ; u (tauit m , *m fell*, or *m inverted*) for $\text{tau}\text{it}m$; ff (oaf , *double f*, or b , which has nearly the same sound as f) for doib ; i^{e} (ϵ ap i , *e upon i*) for eipge ; h^{e} (he ap h , *he upon g*) for h-eipge ; in all which cases the sound of the Irish words by

which the symbol would be described, is made to stand for the word intended by the abbreviation.

But the contractions of this class are rather riddles than legitimate abbreviations, and are not found in any manuscripts of authority.

The foregoing rules are intended merely to indicate the principles upon which the most important contractions found in Irish manuscripts have been formed; to write a complete treatise on the subject would be inconsistent with the limits of the present publication; it must suffice, therefore, to give the following examples of the combined use of some of the foregoing contractions, for the exercise of the learner:

αζḥ αζαιδ.	č3γ cumurγ.
αδḅ αδḅαρ.	czm3 coram̄lur.
αδ̄ αδειπερ.	δοm̄ δοm̄αιν.
ατ̄ ανοct̄ ^a .	δουε δουβαιρ.
β̄3 βέαιρur.	δ̄ρι δουρι.
β̄c̄ βειε̄.	δε̄ριñ δε̄ριρinn.
β̄j βειε̄.	διε διλεαζαδ.
č̄ caē.	đingē đpoingē.
č̄αιοιρ caēαιοιρ.	γρ ειοιρ.
δ̄ ^a conερα.	γ̄ρ ιοιρ, ειοιρ.
δ̄.ḥ̄ conεραδ̄αct̄.	γρt̄ . . . &c. (αγur a poile ^b).
οḥ̄ Conact̄.	ραγḅ ραγḅαιλ.
c7 céδ or céad.	ḥ̄ ḥ̄éč.
ογḅ conγḅαιλ.	ḥ̄οιρ ḥ̄éιοιρ.
č̄ḥ̄ac̄ cumac̄tač̄.	ḥ̄ ḥ̄éin.
c3i cúiri.	ḥ̄ ^a ḥ̄ ^a ḥ̄ḥ̄aγpa.

^a In this example it will be observed, that ḥ̄ is used for *vel*, or no, and ḥ̄ for *sed*, or *ac̄t̄*.

^b Or *et reliqua*.

ḫr ḫrip.	tc noc.
ḡ ḡac.	ḫī ḫann.
ḡiōḡ ḡiōeacō.	ḫē ḫoime.
ḡḡ ḡiōeacō.	ḫī ḫéip.
īr̄ īreacō.	ḫb̄z ḫearbur.
ī īnḡean.	ḫēte ḫeime.
ī iōḡan, <i>id est</i> , or <i>viz.</i>	ḫp̄ ḫp̄ioracō.
īn̄ īnacō.	ḫaḡ ḫanaip̄te.
ḡanacōb ḡanacōbap.	ḫaḡnḡ ḫap̄p̄aḡnḡ.
ḡāci ḡap̄ ceip̄in.	ḫaḡll̄ ḫp̄uailleacō.
mḡr̄ meḡac̄t.	ḫā ḫpac̄t.
moḡh moḡhuḡacō.	uaḡ ⁿ uaḡac̄ap.
n̄ neiḡ.	

There is another symbol used in all ancient and some modern manuscripts, which although not, properly speaking, a contraction, may conveniently be explained here. When a line ended short, leaving a blank space, the next line was continued in that space, the words so inserted being separated from the concluding words of the preceding paragraph by the mark C called ceann ḫa eite (i. e. *head under the wing*), or cor ḫa corán (i. e. *turn under the path*).

This is of various forms: — C & C C C C C .

In the Book of Armagh the ceann ḫa eite is made simply thus, C .

Thus, C don ct .c.na tc labp̄z don ḫ loip̄ḡé

Αδουρεια medicina Αḡ SO IN ḫAS CAIB.

Med. MS. on Vellum, 1414.

C romḡzē ḡap̄p̄ī anp̄r̄. ḫeib ḫocōailleō

ḫap̄ mop ḫ ḫopaba . c . c . c̄in boi ip̄ maḡip̄in̄.

Leabhar Breac, fol. 16, b. b.

Where the line above, following the mark C or C , is to be read after the line below.

In the Book of Kells the ceann $\rho\alpha$ eize is represented under grotesque figures of men and animals, highly ornamented, and curiously coloured. Its form, however, is very various and arbitrary in different manuscripts: from its name it seems probable, that it was originally made in some form that suggested the idea of a bird with its head under its wing.

In some manuscripts, a part of the line is sometimes, though rarely, carried to the line below, particularly when at the bottom of the page, in which case the character has a different form from that used when the matter is carried up.

A full dot under a letter cancels it, and the caret (\wedge) of modern manuscripts is generally represented by .. or

$\approx \approx$ or //

Sometimes when a word is intended to be erased, dots are placed under all the letters of it: and we also sometimes find the dots both over and under the letters to be erased.

II.

SPECIMENS OF THE IRISH LANGUAGE, FROM THE SEVENTH TO THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

THE object of the following extracts is to furnish the reader with some specimens of the Irish language, as it was written at different periods, from the seventh to the seventeenth centuries. The extracts are selected chiefly from such manuscripts as are accessible to the Author in Dublin.

I. The following specimen of the Irish language is taken from Tirechan's Annotations on the Life of St. Patrick, written in the seventh century, and preserved in the Book of Armagh, fol. 18.

Dulluib Pátricc o Thámuis
hí epich Laigín, conpancazar 7
Dubthach macc U Lugir ucc
Domnuch map Criathar, la
Auu Cínfeilich. Alir Pátricc
Dubthach im damnae .n. srr-
cuir dia deicribib di Laiguib,
iobn, fír fofir, rochfnuul, cfn on,
cfn ainim, nadippu bccc, nadi-
ppo map beba, rommae zoir-
climm, ffr oenpetche, du na
puethae act ofnzuiretu. Ffir-
gair Dubthach, ni fczorra dim-

Patrick went from Tara into
the territory of Leinster, so that
he and Dubthach Mac U Lugir
met at Domnuch Mor Criathar,
in Hy-Kinsellagh. Patrick re-
quested Dubthach about a mate-
ries of a bishop of his disciples
for the Lagenians, to wit, a man
free, of good family, without
stain, without blemish, who
would not speak little or much
of flattery; learned, hospitable;
a man of one wife, for whom

munuir aet Fiacc Finn di
 Caignib, duchoois huampe hi
 tpe Connacht. Amail im-
 miondriarpet conacatar Fiacc
 Finn cucu. Arberet Dubthach
 ppi Patericc, tap dnm bñrrað-
 ra air fumpere in fñr dnm-
 mnm oionacac duabñrrað tap
 mu chñn air ip mar agoipe. Ip
 dñrn dñn fuprraith Fiacc Finn
 Dubthach, 7 bñrruip Patericc
 7 baipriip. Dubberet gpað
 .n. fppcoip foip, comò e fppcop
 ni pñn ciarpuoirpned la Caign-
 nu, 7 dubberet Patericc cum-
 tach du Fiacc, aon clocc, 7
 menriip 7 ðachall, 7 Poolipe
 fe pácab moipññr laip dia
 munuir, .i. Muchatoc Inpe

there was born but one child.
 Dubthach answered, I know not
 of my people but Fiacc Finn of
 the Lagenians, who went from
 me into the country of Con-
 naught. As they were speaking,
 they saw Fiacc Finn *coming*
 towards them^a. Dubthach said
 to Patrick, come to tonsure me,
 for I have found the man who
 will save me and take the ton-
 sure in my place, for he is very
 near. Then Fiacc Finn relieved
 Dubthach, and Patrick tonsures
 and baptizes him. He conferred
 the degree of bishop upon him,
 so that he was the first bi-
 shop consecrated in Leinster.
 And Patrick gave Fiacc a case^b

^a This passage is translated from the original Irish closely enough, by Colgan, in his Tripartite Life of St. Patrick, Pt. iii. c. 21. It runs thus: "Cùm S. Patricius Temoriã in regionem Lageniã australis *Hy-Kennselach* dictam esset profectus; convenit in campo, *Mag criethar* vulgo appellato, vbi postea ædificata est Ecclesia de *Domnachmor*, regium illum poëtam Dubthachum Lugarij filium, &c. &c. Cum eo tunc familiariter agens vir beatus, petiit ab ipso vbi reperiret iuxta Apostoli præscriptum *vnus vxoris virum, sobrium, prudentem, ornatum, hospitalem, Doctorem*; quem ordinatum Episcopum illi prouinciæ præficeret. Respondit Dubtha-

chus, omnes illas qualitates reperiri in quodam suo discipulo Fieco Eriçi filio, cuius vxor nuper relicto vnico filio, Fiachrio nomine, decesserat, quemque ipse istis diëbus misit in Connaciam, &c., &c. Dùm autem in his versarentur sermonibus, conspiciunt redeuntem Fiecum."—*Trias Thaum.* p. 152, col. 2.

^b *A case, cumtaç.*—This word is used in ancient manuscripts to denote a case, box, or shrine, for preserving relics. It is derived from the verb comad, or com-eað, to keep, or preserve. The word cumtaç, or cumtaç, is also used to denote a building, *ædificium*, in which sense it is derived from cumdaig, to build; Lat. *condo*.—See *Book of Ballymote*,

Fail, Augustin Iníso bícae,
 Tecan, Diarmuit, Naindith,
 Pool, Fedelmed. Congab iar-
 puidiu i nDomnuch Fíicc, sé
 baí and contorpcharzap epí
 fíchtú físp día muinzip laip and.
 Dippin dulluid in tamgel cucí

containing a bell, a *menstir*^c,
 a crozier, and a *Poolire*^d;
 and he left seven of his people
 with him, i. e. Muchatooc of Inis
 Fail, Augustin of Inisbec, Tecan,
 Diarmuit, Naindith, Pool, Fedel-
 med. He after this^e set up at

fol. 3, p. b, col. a, and *Cormac's*
Glossary, voce Aicde.

^c *Menstir*.—In a manuscript
 preserved in the Library of Tri-
 nity College, Dublin, H. 1. 15.
 p. 975, this word is written
 minipzip, and explained mion-
 nairzip, i. e. a travelling relic;
 and is defined by Duaid Mac
 Firbis, in his Glossary of the
 Brehon Laws, as a relic carried
 about to be sworn upon.

^d *Poolaire*.—This word, which
 is also written polairpe and pal-
 lairpe, is explained in a manu-
 script in Trinity College, Dublin,
 H. 3. 18. p. 523, aimm do teig
 lubair, "a name for a book
 satchel;" and this is unquestion-
 ably its true meaning, though
 Colgan, in translating the Tri-
 partite Life of St. Patrick, un-
 derstands it to mean *writing*
tablets, as in the following pas-
 sage: "Ibi tresfundavit Ecclesias.
 Prima fuit Kellfine, ubi libros
 reliquit una cum scrinio in quo
 SS. Petri et Pauli reliquiæ asser-
 vabantur, et tabulis in quibus
 scribere solebat vulgo *Pallaire*
appellatis."—*Trias Thaum*, page
 123.

^e Colgan, who understood the
 ancient Irish language well, and
 was assisted by some of the best
 expounders of it living in the
 middle of the seventeenth cen-

tury, translates the original Irish
 of this passage in the Tripartite
 Life of St. Patrick, as follows,
 which gives us a clearer idea of
 what is briefly and imperfectly
 told in the Book of Armagh:
 "Dùm autem in his versarentur
 sermonibus, conspiciunt redeun-
 tem Fiecum; quem cum in eum
 videret ferri animum Patricij sta-
 tuit Dubthachus pertrahere, ad
 consentiendum votis sancti viri,
 licet ipse aliàs non nisi agrè eius
 careret presentia. Et in hunc
 finem S. Patricius et Dubthachus
 pium talem concipiunt artum.
 Simulant enim Dubthachum esse
 mox manu Patricij tondendum in
 clericum. Quòd eum superue-
 niens intelligeret Fiecus, ad
 sanctum Pontificem ait; Pater
 sancte, nunquid præstaret me
 potiùs in clericum tondere," &c.

^e Colgan translates this whole
 passage, nearly word for word, in
 the Tripartite Life of St. Patrick,
 as follows. Some of the Irish
 phrases in the Book of Armagh
 are inserted in brackets after
 Colgan's translation:

"Mansit autem sanctissimus
 Episcopus et Abbas Fiecus in
 illa Ecclesia de *Domnach Fie*,
 donec ante se ad cælum sexaginta
 sanctos ex discipulis præmiserit.
 Postea autem venit ad eum an-
 gelus Domini dicens quod non

7 arbert ffor, yr ffor abinn aniar
 ατα ερβεγε hi Cuil maige;
 arpm i fforffor in torcc, arim-
 bad and fforffor a pprain-
 tch, porc hi fforffor inn elite
 ar imbado and fforffor a
 nselir. Arbert Fiacc ffor
 in aingel nanorigad conriped
 Patricc do thoorund a luic
 lair, 7 dia choirecrad, 7 com-
 bed huad nuggabad a locc.
 Dulluid iarruidiu Patricc cu
 Fiacc, 7 durind a locc ler, 7
 cutrecar 7 forpium a forpig
 nand, 7 a dorare Crimthann
 in porc rin du Patricc, ar ba
 Patricc dubeite baithir du
 Chrimthann; 7 i Slebti adra-
 naet Crimthann.

Domhnuch Feicc, and was there
 until sixty men of his people pe-
 rished there about him. Where-
 fore the angel came to him, and
 said to him, "It is to the west
 of the river thy resurrection is
to be, in Cuil Maighe; where
 they should find a hog, there
 they should build their refec-
 tory; and where they would find
 a doe, that there they should
 build their church." Fiacc said
 to the angel that he would not
 go, until Patrick should come
 to measure the place with him,
 and to consecrate it, and in order
 that it might be from him he
 should receive the place. After
 this, Patrick went to Fiacc, and
 measured the place along with
 him, and consecrated and built
 his establishment; and Crim-
 thann granted that place to Pa-
 trick, for it was Patrick that had
 administered baptism to Crim-
 thann; and in Slebti Crimthann
 was interred.

ibi esset locus resurrectionis eius,
 sed trans flumen ad occidentem"
 [ffor abinn aniar]: "mandatque
 quod ibi in loco *Cuil maige* dicto,
 monasterium erigat, singulis offi-
 cinis locum proprium et con-
 gruam assignans. Monuit enim
 ut refectorium extruat" [and
 fforffor a ppraintch], "vbi
 aprum; et Ecclesiam vbi ceruam

repererit" [porc hi fforffor in
 elite]. "Respondit Angelo vir
 sanctus, et obedientiae specimen,
 se non audere Ecclesiam extru-
 endam inchoare, nisi prius eius
 pater et Magister Patricius eius
 locum, et mensuram metaretur
 et consecraret" [do thoorund a
 luic lair 7 dia choirecrad].
 "Patricius ergo monitus, et ro-

II. The following extract is from the Vision of Adamnan, preserved in the *Leabhar Breac* of the Mac Egans, fol. 127, now in the Library of the Royal Irish Academy. Adamnan was born A. D. 624, and lived seventy-seven years. There appears no reason to question the antiquity of the Vision, which it is hoped will shortly be published by the Irish Archæological Society.

Ó ro faillirig tra angel na
coemtechta do anmáin Ádam-
nain na firir-pea flaeta nime 7
céd immteur cecha h-anma iar
teét a cupp, puc lair iar
rin do aetharcnam írín inich-
tarraig co n-immud a pian ocup
a éodernam. Ir é tra cetna
tír firir a compancatar, .i. tír
n-dub n-dorca, ir e folomm
foloirceti cen péin iar and.
Glend lan do éenid rir anall;
lappar and co teit dara h-ora
for cech leth; dub a h-ichtar;
derg a medon 7 a uachtar.
Ocht m-biarra and; a rúil
amail bpuetta tenzio. Droiéet
doni darpin n glend; gabaid onb
up co apoile; aird a medon, íple
umorra a chinb; tiri rloig ic a

When the guardian angel had
shewn to the soul of Adamnan
these visions of the Lord of hea-
ven, and the first adventures of
every soul after departing from
the body, he afterwards brought
it to revisit the lower regions of
many pains and punishments.
The first region they met is a
black dark region, which is bare,
burned, without any punishment
at all. On the hither side of it
is a valley full of fire, in which
the flame rises over its borders
on every side; its lowest part is
black, its middle and upper part
is red. There are eight monsters
here, their eyes like glowing
masses of iron. There is a bridge
over the valley; it extends from

gatus venit ad illum locum, qui
Slepte, vulgo, .i. montes, appella-
tur, et iuxta Angeli præscriptum
ibi basilicæ et monasterij jécit
et consecravít fundamenta.

“Locus autem ille in quo *Slep-*
tensis Ecclesia et monasterium
extractum est non Fieco sed

Patricio donatus est á Crim-
thanno Kinselachi filio, Rege
Lageniæ: qui paulo ante à Sancto
Patricio salutari intinctus est
lauacro, et postea in eodem se-
pultus est loco.”—*Trias Thaum.*,
p. 155, col. 1.

αιρημιτε δια μοσταατ, 7 ni h-uili
 po pegue ταιριρ. Slog doib ip
 lezhan doib in droichet o túr
 co deirud, co poichet ogélan
 cen uamun darr in nglend ten-
 tidi. Slog ele tra ic a moz-
 taat; coel doib ar túr h-é,
 leáan fa deoid, co poicet amail
 rin darr in nglend ceznai. In
 plóg dedenach umorra, lezhan
 doib ar túr h-e; coel tra ocur
 cumang fa deoid, cu toizeet dia
 medon ip in nglend nraibtech
 ceznai, i m-braiuib na n-óct
 m-biape m-bruatach ucac, fe-
 rat a n-aitreb ip in glind. Ip
 é tra lin diaρ bo roib in ré-
 rin, .i. oep oigi ocur oep ait-
 rigi lepi, ocur oep depg-mar-
 tra duthraátaigi do Dia. Ip i
 tra ropend diaρ bo cumang ar
 túr ocur diaρ bo leáan iaram
 in pet, .i. dpeamm tiampeéer
 ar ecin do denum toli De, ocur
 roait a n-ecin i tolnaigi fog-
 numá don cóimoid. Ip doib
 umorra ba leáan ar túr in
 droicet, ocur cumang ba deoid,
 .i. do na pebdachuib contuapet
 ppi ppocept bréeri De, ocur
 naá ar comallat iaram.

one brink to the other; its mid-
 dle part is high, its extremities
 low. Three hosts occupy it at-
 tempting to cross, but they do
 not all get across it. For one
 host this bridge is broad from
 beginning to end, so that they
 pass safely without fear over the
 fiery valley. Another host oc-
 cupy it, for whom it is first
 narrow but finally wide, so that
 thus they pass across the same
 valley. But for the last host it is
 wide at first but narrow and strait
 finally, so that they fall from the
 middle of it into the same dan-
 gerous valley, into the mouths of
 those eight fiery monsters which
 have their abode in the valley.
 The host for whom this passage
 is easy are the people of chastity
 and devout penitence, and the
 people who have devotedly suf-
 fered red martyrdom for the sake
 of God. The crowd for whom the
 passage is narrow at first, and
 wide afterwards, are those who
 are at first brought with difficulty
 to do the will of God, but who af-
 terwards turn with ardent will
 to the service of the Lord. Those
 for whom the bridge is broad at
 first and narrow finally, are the
 sinners who listen to the preach-
 ing of the Word of God, and
 who do not afterwards fulfil it.

Ατατ δονι ρλοιζ δίμόρα ι n-
 dichumanz na péne ppiu in típ
 n-εταρ-φuaréa anall, ocupcech
 pa n-uair τραιγιο in pian dib,
 in uair ele τοετ ταυριβ. Ιρ
 ιατ τρα φιλετ ιρ in peim ρin, .ι. in
 luét dianu comepom a maith
 ocup a n-olc; ocup illo bpaθh
 miodpichep eturpu, ocup dileg-
 paio a maith a n-olc ιρ in lo
 ρin, ocup berthap iapum do
 pupet beáad, ι ppecharcup
 gnup. Δέ τρι biτρίρ.

There are also great hosts in
 the power of the pain at the hither
 side of the temperate region, and
 in alternate hours the pain de-
 parts from them, and again comes
 over them. Those who are in
 this pain are they whose good
 and evil are equal; and in the
 day of judgment an estimation
 shall be made between them, and
 the good shall dissolve the evil,
 and they shall be afterwards
 brought to the harbour of life,
 before the countenance of God
 for ever.

III. The *Pater Noster*, as in the *Leabhar Breac*,
 fol. 124, *b, a*. The English is a translation of the Irish,
 not of the Latin.

Sic ergo orabitur. Duó am-
 laio po din do gnéchi spnaizche.
 Pater nozter qui eip in coelip,
 pancepicecup nomen tuum.
 Α αθαip fil hi nimib, noem-
 thap thainm. Αδυσιατ peg-
 num tuum. Τοστ do plaitiup.
 Φιατ uoluntap tua picut in
 coelo et in terra. Duó do toil
 ι talmam amail ata in nim.
 Panfm nozteram cotidianam
 da nobip hodie. Tabair dun
 indiu ap rapad lathi. Et dimite
 nobip debita noztera, picut et
 nor dimitimup debitoribus noz-
 terip. Ocup log dun ap fiachu
 amail logmaithne diap pfechem-
 naib. Et ne noz inducap in

Sic ergo orabitur. Thus then
 ye shall make prayer. *Pater
 noster qui es in coelis, sanctifi-
 cetur nomen tuum.* O Father
 who art in the heavens, sanctified
 be thy name. *Adueniat regnum
 tuum.* May thy kingdom come.
*Fiat uoluntas tua sicut in coelo
 et in terra.* May thy will be in
 earth as it is in heaven. *Panem
 nostram cotidianam da nobis
 hodie.* Give us this day our
 day's sufficiency. *Et dimite no-
 bis debita nostra, sicut et nos
 dimitimus debitoribus nostris.*
 And forgive to us our debts, as
 we forgive to our debtors. *Et ne
 nos inducas in temptationem.*

εὐμπασιονεμ. Ocur nīr l̄cea
rind 1 n-amur n-dopulaáctai.
Sed libera nos a malo. Achz
non rosr̄ o cech ulc. Amen:
popfir.

And let us not [*full*] into in-
tolerable temptation. *Sed libera*
nos a malo. But free us from
every evil. *Amen:* may it be
true.

The language of the foregoing is of great antiquity, probably of the ninth century.

IV. Extract from the Annals of Tighernach (Bodleian Library, Cod. Rawl. No. 488), who died in the year 1088.

A. D. 1064. Donnchad, mac
Driain Doroma, ri muínan, do
aethriúad, 7 a dul do Roim dia
ailiéri, co n-erbuile and iar
m-buaid aethriúe a mainiúctur
Sdeparin.

A. D. 1064. Donnchadh, son of
Brian Boromha, king of Munster,
was deposed and went to Rome
on a pilgrimage, and died there,
after the victory of penance, in
the Monastery of St. Stephen.

A. D. 1066.—Rezla monzác,
ingnad adbal, do fairsin ip in
aer, dia maire, iar mion-éairc
hic porr Kal. Mai co m.xx.
fuirpe. Ro b'é a med ocur a
roillre, co n-erbarzatar daíne
corbo erca, ocur co cend ceépe
la bai and. Gilla bruidi, mac
Domhnall, mic Tighernan, mic
Ualgarg, mic Neill Uí Ruairc,
riú óreirne, do marbad do mac
Gilla Cuirp h-Uí Cínaité do
coir maire, 1 n-oilen Duine
Achair, ar Loch mac nen.
Aibinn, ingen Uí Concobair,
ben h-Uí Muiricen quieuit.
Mac Conang h-Uí Muiricen,
riúgamna Tereá, do marbad

A. D. 1066. — A bristly star,
a great wonder, was seen in
the firmament on the Tuesday
after little Easter, after the ca-
lends of May, with the 23rd *of*
the moon upon it. Such was
its size and light, that people
said it was a moon, and it re-
mained for four days. Gilla
Bruidi, son of Domhnall, son
of Tighernan, son of Ualgarg,
son of Niall O'Rourke, king of
Breifne, was killed by the son of
Gilla Corr O'Cinaith, with the
leg of a cow, on the island of
Dun Achair, in Lough Mac Nen.
Aibinn, daughter of O'Conor,
the wife of O'Muiricen, died.

la h-Æd h-Ua Concobair, ocur
la Tadhg h-Ua Muiricen. Cuach
xxx. uingá d'ór do tabairt o
Tairdelbach h-Ua Driain, ocur
o Mac Mail na m-bo d' Æd
h-Ua Conchobair, ar congnom
leo, ocur a congnom leir.

The son of Conaing O'Muiricen, heir apparent of Teffia, was killed by Aedh O'Conor and Tadhg O'Muiricen. The value of thirty ounces of gold was given by Toirdhelbhach O'Brien, and the son of Maelnambo, to Aedh O'Conor, for his assistance to them, they assisting him.

V. Extract from the Annals of Boyle, a compilation of the thirteenth century.

The original MS. of these Annals is preserved in the Library of the British Museum. MSS. Cot. Titus, A xxv^f.

Αν. Μ.χιυ. Sluaged la Driain,
mac Cennétiz, mic Lorcan, la
aróriz Epend, zu mop mile-
daib oll-cúgíó énd-álaind
Muman, 7 la Maelpeánaill,
mac Domnaill, rígz Tempac,
zu maizib fer n-Epend ma-
raen riu co Acliaic, i n-agíó
Gall glar 7 [O]anmarzac, 7 i
n-agíó Máilmorda, mic Mur-
cáda, rígz Uagen; uair ip e
pa éinoel, 7 pa tpeoriz, 7 pa
timpaic leir íat a h-inrib 7 a
eileanaib coní Zoclaind a
n-iarpuaié, 7 a dunió, 7 a deg-
baleoib Saápan 7 Dpetan, cu
íat n-Epend. Deic cet lu-

Anno 1014. An army was led by Brian, son of Kennedy, son of Lorcan, monarch of Ireland, with the great heroes of the mighty fair-headed province of Munster; and by Malsechnaill, son of Domhnall, King of Tara, with the chiefs of the men of Erin along with them, to Dublin, against the green foreigners and Danes, and against Maelmordha, son of Murchadh, king of Leinster, for it was he that gathered, guided, and mustered them to him from the isles, islets of the north-east of Lochlainn, and from the forts and goodly

^f These Annals have been very incorrectly edited by Dr. O'Conor, from whose work Mr. D'Alton has lately published an English

translation, without examining the original MS. or understanding the original Irish.

7 *Ṭuoh*, mac *Murcaba*, m *Ua*
Maini, 7 *Maelruanab* *Ua*
Eoin, rí *Ḃoni*, 7 *Cumurcben-*
naé mac Dubcon, rí *Fermaid*,
 7 *Mac Deáad*, mac *Murcbair*,
Cloin, rí *Chiappaigi* *Ḃuaépa*, 7
Domnall, mac *Diarmata*, rí
Corcu Daicind; 7 *Scanlan*,
 mac *Cathail*, rí *Eoganaéta*
Loáa Leim, 7 *Domnall*, mac
Emin, mic *Cannach mor*, .i.
 móp-maep in *Alban*, 7 *alu*
mulci nobilep. *Ar* and *pein*
pa bí in tarbóí Ḃrian, mac
Cenneich, ar cúl in *caéa* 7
Conaing, mac *Ḃuindecuan*, mac
 a *braéar*, ac *gabail a palm*, cu
 vanic enéep du na *Danmaircib*
 fo *láim gan [f]ir da mumpir*
gu nugí in n-inat iprabí Ḃrian
 7 *Conaing*, 7 ób *connaic* in
 m[*b*]aegal, *ir tocbar* in *láim*
 7 *adaig beim clodeim don ap-*
riú, 7 *ir tocbar aripi in láim*
air 7 *adaic beim do Conaing*,
 mac *Ḃuindecuan*, 7 *maibair*
 an[*d*] *ir iat*. 7 in eodem loco
 occipit *ere ippe*. *Ḃrian*, mac
Chenneich, mic *Ḃoricain*, ap-
 rug *h-Epend* 7 *Ḃall*, do *tutim* i
 caé *Cluana* da *tarb ma Con-*
aing, mic *Ḃuindecuan*, 7 *ma*
Murcbad, mic *Ḃrian*, 7 *ma*
Tordelbaé, mac *Murcaba*,
 mic *Ḃrian*; 7 *rugatar maip*
 na *daéla Iru* fo *cezoip acuirp*

them of the Connacians and
 Momonians, viz. Mothlo, son of
 Domhnall, son of Faelan, King
 of the Desies; Eochu, son of
 Dunadhach; Niall O'Quin, and
 Cudulich, son of Kennedy, the
 three life guards of Brian; and
 Tadhg, son of Murchadh, King
 of Hy-Many; and Maelruanaidh
 O'Heyne, King of Aidhni; and
 Cumuscennach, son of Dubh-
 chu, King of Feara Muighi; and
 Mac Beathadh, son of Muiredh-
 ach Cloen, King of Ciarraighi
 Luachra; and Domhnall, son of
 Diarmaid, King of Corca Bas-
 cinn; and Scanlan, son of Ca-
 thal, King of Eoghanacht Locha
 Lein; and Domhnall, son of
 Emin, son of Cannach Mor,
 i. e. Great Steward in Scotland;
 and many other nobles. Where
 the monarch Brian, son of Ke-
 nedy, was at this time, was be-
 hind the battle with Conaing,
 son of Donnchuan, his nephew,
 singing their psalms, so that one
 man of the Danes underhand,
 unknown to his people, to the
 place where Brian and Conaing
 were, and when he observed
 them in jeopardy (i. e. unpro-
 tected), he raised the hand, and
 gave a blow of his sword to the
 monarch; and he raised again
 the hand, and gave a blow to

leó gu Aro Maía, 7 pa haol-
laiciz gu honoraic iaz, 7 cu
uapal oimicneic ano.

Conaing, son of Donnchuan, and
slew them both; *et in eodem
loco occisus est ipse*. There fell,
moreover, in the battle of Clon-
tarf, Brian, son of Kennedy, son
of Lorcan, monarch of Ireland,
and of the Danes, with Conaing,
son of Donnchuan Murchadh,
son of Brian, and Tordelbhach,
son of Murchadh, son of Brian;
and the keepers of the Staff of
Jesus brought their bodies with
them without delay to Armagh,
and interred them there honour-
ably, nobly, and respectfully.

VI. From the old Annals of Innisfallen, in the Bod-
leian Library, Rawlinson, No. 503, a compilation of the
fourteenth century.

A. D. 709. Eteppcel, mac
Maelduin, pi Cappil, moritur.
Indped ðpeḡ la Cathal mac
Finguine, pi Muman, ocup riar
pein do ponpat rō ocup Fer-
gal mac Maelduin, pi Tem-
pach, ocup giallair Fergal
do Cathal. Ar ice .u. piḡ do
gabpat h-Érind iar cpezim, do
Muimnechaib, .i. Oengur mac
Nadppaich, ocup a mac, .i.
Eochaid, qui Hiberniam pexit
.xvii. annis, ocup Cathal mac
Finguine, ocup Feidlimid mac
Crimthainn, ocup ðrian, mac
Cennetich.

A. D. 709. Eterscel, son of
Maolduin, King of Cashel, *mori-
tur*. The plundering of Bregia
by Cathal, son of Finguine, King
of Munster, and after this he and
Fergal, son of Maelduin, King
of Tara, made a peace, and Fer-
gal gave hostages to Cathal.
The following were the five
kings of the Momonians who
obtained the sovereignty of Ire-
land after the reception of the
Faith, i. e. Oengus, son of Nad-
fraech, and his son Eochaidh, *qui
Hiberniam rexit xvii. annis*;
Cathal, son of Finguine, and Fe-
lim, son of Crimthann, and
Brian, son of Kennedy.

A. D. 824. Mórðal fer n-
Erend i Cluan ferτα θpen-
ainð, ocuf Niall, mac Aeda, pi
Tempach, do marab Feolim-
mid, mic Crimthainn, cor bo
lan pi h-Erend Feolimmid in
la rein, ocuf co n-deppid h-
ruide abbas Cluana ferτα.

A. D. 826. Feolimmid do in-
druð Zeche Cuind o tha θirra
co Tempach, ocuf a chorud i
Tempach, ocuf θormlaith, in-
gen Murchada, piθ Laigen, do
gabail co n-a banchuie, ocuf
Indrechtach, mac Maelduin,
do marbab lair i Tempach.

A. D. 824. A meeting of the
men of Ireland at Clonfert-Bren-
dan, and Niall, son of Aedh,
King of Tara, submitted to Fedh-
limidh, son of Crimthann; so
that Fedlimidh was full King of
Ireland on that day, and he
sat in the seat of the abbots of
Clonfert.

A. D. 826. Feidhlimidh plun-
dered Leath Chuinn from Birr to
Tara, and stopped at Tara and
captured Gormlaith, the daugh-
ter of Murchadh, King of Lein-
ster, with her band of female
attendants; and Indrechtach,
son of Maelduin, was slain by
him at Tara.

VII. Extract from a tract of the Brehon Laws, pre-
served in a manuscript in Trinity College, Dublin,
E. 3. 5. p. 432, col. a.

Coirteaθ broθ, no Coirteaθ
aðarτair, amail indiper ir na
lebruib: ruidele riu do buain
a ruð comaithecepa, acτ na dith
τairir. Ma do cuaid τairir
imorra, mara corτeð bo reicheð
do ben, da banarra ind ir riu
leτcpepall. Mara corτeð dam
reicheð po ben de, da fer arra
in-a dibe ir riu cpepall; ocuf
ní ráinith epa epian τairuib;
ocuf dia ruieð ir a riagaib re
lan-τimchell a mraib marb-
bataiθ no re leτtimchell, a
mraib beðbataiθ. Ocuf mara

Bark for tanning [*a pair of*]
shoes, or a bridle, as told in the
books: there is an inherent right
to strip it from a neighbouring
tree, so as it is not exceeded. If it
is exceeded, however, if it be bark
for tanning a cow hide that is
stripped, the penalty is two wo-
men's shoes worth half a screpall.
If it be bark for an ox hide that is
stripped, two men's shoes worth
a screpall is the penalty. And this
is when not one-third of the round
of the tree has been stripped; and
should a third be stripped it is

luḡa má lán-timchell ro beaó de, in τ-ainmpainde don timcell do beaó de ḡur ab é ní τ-ainmpainde rin do'n lan dipe ícur a mīraib marbdataig, no do'n leó dipe a mīraib beodataig. No ip do na cranḡaib ilarḡa ro beaó in tan ata in rcrepall, no in leórcrepall mo, ḡo pe deéberur, ḡo pe h-indeberur ro beaó dib rin. No don ip and ata rin in tan ip pe deéberur ro beaó; ocuḡ ḡamaó pe h-indeéberur imorra ḡomaó a rīaḡail pe τairrḡe a mī marbdataig no beodataig ro céóóir. Aḡ ro a comairtcher ro uile: mara eaḡa do rīḡne ip in cranḡ, in τ-ainmpainde do'n timcell in érainn ro leḡair ḡur ab é in τ-ainmpainde rin dia lán dipe a mī marbdataig, no dia leódipe a mī beodataig ícar.

equal to the full circumference in the killing months, or to half the circumference in the months which do not kill the tree. And if less than the full circumference has been stripped, the proportion of the circumference which has been stripped is the proportion of the full penalty which shall be paid in the killing months, and of half penalty in the months which do not kill the tree. Or, where the fine is a screpall, or half a screpall, the bark was stripped off many trees, whether they were stripped with necessity or without necessity, or, this is when they were stripped from necessity. And if it be without necessity, then the rule is that the case be referred to the "killing or unkillling months." The following is the summary of all this. If it be a notch that is made in the tree, the proportion of the tree that is stripped is to regulate the amount of full penalty in a killing month, or half penalty in a month which does not kill.

VIII. Extract from a medical manuscript, on vellum, dated 1352, now in the Library of the Royal Irish Academy. This extract treats of the cure of *Scabies*, or dry Scurvy.

Ḥabrum anoir do leíḡer na h-erlainti ro, oip ip éḡin neéi Let us now speak of the cure of this disease, for many things

ιμα δ' φαγβαλ δ'ά λειγερ; οcur
 ιρ έ céo λειγερ ιρ περρ δο δέ-
 ναμ δί, .ι. να lenna τρυαλλιζέι
 δο γλαναο maille cατερρυρια;
 όιρ α δειρ Avicenna 'ρ αν 4
 Cañ. co η-δέιν in πολμυζαδ
 να leanna λοιργι δ'ιμαρβαο. Αν
 2. νί, οilemáin biδ ocup διζι
 δ'ορδουζαδ δόιβ; αν επερ νί, αν
 τ-αδδαρ δο διleaζαδ; αν 4. νί,
 α η-ιναρβαδ γο η-ιmlán; αν
 5. νί, ποεραϊccί δο δένυμ δόιβ;
 αν 6. νί, ιρ ειζιν λιctυβερι com-
 φυραcτα δο εδβαιρτ δόιβ. Αν
 7. νί, ιρ έιζιν νεϊcί noc αεν-
 ταιγιυρ ριυ δο εδβαιρτ δόιβ,
 muna ποιβ αν cοpp λίντα δο
 οροc-leannaib.

Ιρ έιζιν υινημιονδει δο coi-
 μιλε αρ cύρ δε, οιρ ιρ μόρ in
 φορταcτ ιρ in επλαιντι πο, μαρ
 δο έιδρεμ ταρ αρ η-έιρ.

Item, βερδεαρ φυμιτερρα α
 μεδγ γλαν, 7 cυιρ 3, no επί3
 δο ρene αιρ, οιρ φοιριδ ρε pecu-
 ζαο να leannann, δα ηγνάευιγ-
 εερ, 7 γλαναο ιαο ο να ιμαρ-
 cραιγ; 7 muna φαζεαρ μεδγ
 bainne γαβαιρ cυιγι πο, γαδ
 ρυζ φυμιτερρα 7 τιμε, 7 ρca-
 βιορα, 7 δυδcοραϊζ, 7 αε αδα; 7
 μαδ αιμριρ ραμρα, βερδεαρ,
 7 γλανταρ, 7 ταβαιρ maille

must be got for its cure; the
 first cure which is best to be
 made is to clean the corrupted
 humours with caterfusia; for
 Avicenna says, in the fourth
 Cann., that evacuation causes
 an expulsion of the burned hu-
 mours. The second thing, to
 order the patients a proper regi-
 men of meat and drink; the
 third thing, to digest the mat-
 ter; the fourth thing, to expel
 them completely; the fifth thing,
 to prepare a bath for them; the
 sixth, it is necessary to give
 them strengthening lictub. The
 seventh, it is necessary to give
 them such things as agree with
 them, unless the body be full of
 bad humours.

It is necessary to rub the
 part affected with ointments at
 first, for they afford great relief
 in this disease, as we shall see
 hereafter.

Item, let fumitory be boiled
 on pure whey, and put a drachm,
 or three drachms, of senna upon
 it, for this relieves the corrup-
 tion of the humours, if habitu-
 ally taken, and it purges them
 of superfluities; and if the whey
 of goat's milk be not at hand for
 this purpose, take the juice of fu-
 mitory and thyme, and scabiosa,
 and polytricum, and hepatica;

medg no le h-epitime, 7 ip po
máicé.

Αη.2. ní dlígíó do tobairt do,
tuignac dlíginne fer na h-epláim-
ti ro biada pailíte na géapa do
caitein, 7 pechnad zac uile biad
do ní lor zac folá deirgi, map
atalur, 7 uineamain, 7 garpleog,
7 ribur, 7 mil, 7 a-g-comraimale;
gidead fédaid mil do berbad
ina raeépaigib, 7 gan a caitein
map cúid. 7 dlígíó pé neicé
géapa do pechnad, map atá gre-
anta poma, 7 clobur, 7 neicé
diureiticeca dñr a córad; 7
pchnad na biada geniur fuil
berg malle h-imdugá leanna
duibe, map atá peoil mapr, 7
mil maige, 7 riada, 7 ganndail 7
lačan, 7 peoil trallai 7 loirgei,
7 pencairi, rail, 7 a cupamaili.

and, if in summer time, let them
be boiled and cleansed, and given
with whey or epitime; and it is
very good.

Secondly, understand that one
afflicted with this disease should
not eat salt or bitter meats, and
let him avoid every kind of diet
which causes a burning of red
blood, such as leeks, onions,
garlic, pepper, honey, and the
like; but he may take honey
boiled in the combs, but not to
use it at supper. And he should
avoid bitter things, such as
pomegranates and cloves, and
diuretic things, after his supper.
And let him avoid such meats
as generate red blood, together
with an accumulation of the
melancholic humor, such as
beef, the flesh of a hare, of a
gander, and of a duck, and salt
burned meat, old cheese, bacon,
and the like.

IX. Extract from O'Hickey's medical manuscript,
dated 1420; now in the possession of Mr. Robert
Mac Adam, of Belfast, merchant.

Map benur ceapuzá acio-
gi na h-anma rir in b-peallram
mópalta, innar co cruéótaide
é a n-aibíocib maite, ar map
rir benur rir in liaig an tpláim-
te do cóimed co h-imcuibe; 7
an méid do módaib i n-a claeé-
luigéer an corp co h-éigintac,

As the rectifying of the disor-
ders of the soul belongs to the
moral philosopher, who is to
arrange them in proper habits,
so it belongs to the physician to
preserve the health properly;
and as many modes as the body
is violently impaired, so many

ar í an méid rin a tá do émé-
 luib ar an leiger; oir claeó-
 luigib aicéidigi na h-anma ár
 cuirp-ne; ar an aóbar rin do
 gabar aen éinél leiger, 7 aen
 pegimen uata; 7 ir rin in luig
 benur iat d'aíthe. 7 ar iat
 ro na h-aicéidigi rin, .i. fearg 7
 gáirdeúr, eagla 7 dobrón, cu-
 angaic, 7 nairpe; oir gluairter
 an fuil coilepda cum an éroidé
 a n-airpír na feirgi ar ron
 toclaoib an dígaltair dára-
 tuig, 7 gabann ré larad cúige
 cum gluaraicta dána, 7 leatar
 nira mó ná cóir, 7 do níter an
 corp co h-uile do línad, 7 go
 h-áirigíte na boill foirimella-
 cá le dapaict an teara; óir an
 uair gluairter an tear 7 an
 rperma cum na m-ball rin, 7
 cum an éroidé do réir conn-
 raict, ó minceaict an gluairte 7
 o'n téagad móir tirmuigíte an
 corp uile; 7 ir pollor go d-té-
 gíñ an fearg, ár go larann rin
 an éroidé 7 an rperma, 7 co
 rgaíte an cum na m-ball co
 h-uile an tear, 7 co h-airigíte ir
 in éroidé ag a m-bí tear láidir,
 7 moran rperma; gídead an
 éroidé ag a m-bí tear anfan,
 an uair fearguigíte an iad, 7
 toclaid dígaltair do déanam, ní
 h-éidir a tear do dírgailt cum
 na m-ball foirimellaic, aict bíc
 na boill foirimellaicá fuar,

different kinds of cure there are.
 As the diseases of the soul sub-
 due our bodies, so the one kind
 of cure and one regimen is de-
 rived from them; and it is the
 office of the physician to know
 them. These are those diseases,
 viz. anger, joy, fear, melancholy,
 sorrow, and shame. For in the
 time of anger the choleric blood
 is moved to the heart, to excite
 it to violent revenge, and becom-
 ing inflamed for bold motion, it
 expands more than what is just,
 whereby the whole body is filled,
 particularly the external mem-
 bers, with the violence of the
 heat; for when the heat and the
 sperma are driven to these mem-
 bers and to the heart, with vio-
 lence, from the frequency of the
 motion, and from the great heat-
 ing, all the body is dried; and it
 is obvious that anger heats, be-
 cause it inflames the heart and the
 sperma, so that the heat is circu-
 lated to all the members, and
 particularly in the people who
 have strong heat and much sper-
 ma. But those who have weak
 heat, when they are angered, and
 desire to take revenge, the heat
 cannot be discussed to the exte-
 rior members; but the exterior
 members are cold and palsied,
 while at the same time the heat is
 strong in the heart. We therefore

κριτάνας, αν κειν δο θιαδ αν
 τερ λαιδρι ανη α κροιδε ; αν
 αν αδβαρ ριν δο κιαμαδ μο-
 ραν δο δασοιμβ φερραδα αν α
 κ-βιαδ τοιλ ινδεακδ 7 ιατ αν
 κριε ; 7 κι φερρα φοιρβριε ιρ
 κοιρ δο ραδ ρια ρο, ακτ φερρα
 maille le h-eagla. Αν αν αδ-
 βαρ ριν αν κλακδδδ δο κι φερρα
 ανη α κορρ δασοινα κι κ-ιμκ-
 υιβε α ρεζιμεν να ρλαιντε ε,
 οιρ βυαιδριδ αν φερρα κηιμαρ-
 ταδ αν φερρυν υιλε ; καιρεαδ
 ρεακαιτερ αδβαρ να φερρα ακτ
 αν κιεδ φοραλυ αν ρεαρυν ε
 α κ-κυριβ τοιλεακλα ; οιρ ικ-
 κυιβε φερρα δο δεανακ κο
 κιοικ α κ-κυριβ ροκραιδ 7
 κεαδαικτεαδα, κη κοβ ικκυιβε
 α ρεζιμεν ρλαικτι κ-ι ;
 7 ακα κυιδ δο να κ-εαρλαινκτιβ
 δαρ ακ λειρερ ικκυιβε φερρα,
 καρ ικκωιρ κηαι ακ δεανακ
 κλυαρα αν Ακκωιρα, κο ραιβ
 κωικ αν α ραιβ ρουρα, 'κα
 λειρερα ακ κηαικ εικκωι, 7 κωι
 ρορακ αν κηαικ φερρα δο κ-ο-
 κωιρ αν, 7 αν κηεινεακαικ
 να φερρα, κωι λειρεραδ ε ο'κ
 ρουρα.

see many angered people, who
 have a desire of revenge, seized
 with trembling ; but this should
 not be called powerful anger, but
 anger accompanied with fear.
 Wherefore, the change which
 anger causes in the human body
 is not meet in the regimen of
 health, for active anger disturbs
 the whole reason ; therefore, let
 the occasion of anger be avoided,
 except as far as reason orders it
 in cases of consent. For it is
 meet, in many well-intended,
 permitted cases, to provoke an-
 ger, although it be not fit for
 the regimen of health in general ;
 And there are some
 diseases of which anger is a
 proper remedy, as Hali relates
 in his commentary on Almusar,
 that a Duke, who was affected
 with stupor, was under the care
 of a certain physician, that the
 physician ordered his anger to
 be provoked, and that, as soon
 as the anger was produced, he
 was cured of the stupor.

X. Extract from Bishop Carsuel's Gaelic translation
 of the Confession of Faith, Forms of Prayer, &c., used
 in the Reformed Church of Scotland : printed in the
 year 1567^s.

^s This is the passage so often
 referred to in the controversy

concerning the antiquity of Os-
 sian's poems. A free translation

(From the Epistle Dedicatory.)

Acht ata ni cheana is mor an leathrom agas an uireasbhuidh ata riamh orainde^h Gaoidhil Alban agus Eireand, tar an gcuid eile don domhan, gan ar gcanamhna Gaoidheilge do chur ag cló riamh mar ataid a gcanamhna agus a dteangtha fein a gcló ag gach uile chinel dhaoine oile sa domhan, agus ata uireasbhuidh is mó ina gach uireasbhuidh oraind, gan an Biobla naomhtha do bheith a gcló Gaoidheilge againd, mar tá sè a gcló laidne agas bherla agas in gach teangaidh eile o sin amach, agas fós gan seanchus ar sean no ar sindsear do bheith mar an gcedna a gcló againd riamh; acht ge tá cuideigin do tseanchusⁱ Ghaoidh-

But there is one thing, it is a great distress and want that we the Gaels of Alba and Erin have ever laboured under, beyond the rest of the world, that our dialects of the Gaelic have never yet been printed, as their dialects and tongues have been by every race of people in the world; and we labour under a want, which is greater than every want, that we have not the Holy Bible printed in Gaelic, as it has been printed in Latin, in English and in every other language whatsoever; and also that we have never had in print the history of our ancients, or our ancestors; for though there is some portion of the history of

of it has been given in the Report of the Committee of the Highland Society of Scotland, appointed to inquire into the nature and authenticity of the poems of Ossian, published by Mac Pherson. This passage is pure Irish, and agrees with the Irish manuscripts of the same period in orthography, syntax, and idiom. It is the oldest specimen of the Erse that has been as yet adduced by the Erse grammarians, though there are certainly extant older Erse compositions. This specimen disproves many grammatical rules laid down by Stewart, and shews that his Grammar is drawn

from the spoken dialect of the Scotch Gaelic, and not from any manuscript or even printed authorities of an age much older than his own time.

^h, *Orainde, on us.* Here are several instances of *nd* written for *nn* in the Erse, a combination unknown in the modern language. See chap. III., pp. 34, 35, and chap. IV. p. 138; see also the words *Fhind*, *Dhanond*, &c., in this extract.

ⁱ *Do tseanchus.* This is an instance of *t* being prefixed to *s* in a situation where it might be also aspirated. See chap. III. p. 61. Various examples of this

eal Alban agas Eireand sgríobhtha a leabhruibh lámh, agas a dtamhlorgaibh fileadh agus ollamhan, agas a sleachtaibh suadh, is mor tsaothair sin re sgríobhadh do laimh, ag fechain an neithe buailtear sa chló ar aibresge agas ar aithghiorra bhios gach é n i dhá mhed da chríochnughad leis. Agas is mor an doille agas an dorchadas peacaidh agas aineolais agas indtleachda do lucht deachtaidh agas sgríobhtha agas chumhdaigh na Gaoidheilge, gur ab mó is mian leo agas gur ab mó ghnathuidheas siad[†] eachtradha dimhaoinéacha buaidheartha, bregacha saogh-alta do chumadh ar Thuathaibh Déadhanond agas ar Mhacaibh Mileadh^k, agas ar na curadh-

the Gaels of Scotland and Ireland written in manuscript books, in the compositions of poets and ollavs, and in the remains of learned men, there is great labour in writing them over with the hand, whereas the thing which is struck off with the type, how speedily and expeditiously is it completed, be it ever so great. And great is the blindness and darkness of sin and ignorance, and of the intellect of the teachers, writers, and preservers of the Gaelic, that, with a view of obtaining for themselves the vain rewards of this world, they are more desirous and more accustomed to compose, maintain, and cultivate idle, turbulent, lying, worldly stories concerning

accidence are found in good Irish manuscripts, as εἰς τῆσδε, *salt fishes*; old Med. MS. by John O'Callannan of Rossearbery, dated 1414; πο τῆσδε, *always*, *Id.*; πο τῆσδε, *to chase*, paper MS. transcribed 1679, *penes auctorem*; ποτ τῆσδε, *to woo me*, *Id.*, p. 62.

[†] *Ghnathuidheas siad.* They *accustom*.—Here is an instance of the simple present tense of the indicative mood ending in *eas*, for Irish parallels to which, see Part II. chap. V. p. 156, line 3. This contradicts an assertion of Stewart's *Gaelic Grammar*, 2nd edit. p. 97, note ^m, that the verbs of the Erse, except *bí*, *is*, have

no simple present tense. See it remarked at p. 189.

^k *Ar Mhacaibh Mileadh.*—This is translated “concerning warriors and champions,” in the translation of this passage given in the Report of the Committee of the Highland Society of Scotland, but most incorrectly; for, by *Macaibh Mileadh*, the Irish and Scotch writers, previously to the period of the forgeries of the last two centuries, always meant “the sons of *Mileadh* or *Milesius*,” from whom the Highlanders or Gaels of Scotland, as well as the Gaels of Ireland, were believed to be descended.

aibh¹ agas Fhínd Mhac Cumhaill^m go na fhianaibh, agas ar mhóran eile nach airbhim agas nach indisimⁿ and so do chumhdach, agas do choimhleasughagh, do chiond luadhuidheachta dimhaonigh an tsaoghail d'fhaghail doibh féin, ina briathra disle Dé, agas slighthe foirfe na firinde do sgríobhadh, agas dheachtadh agas do chumhdach.

the Tuatha De Dananns, the sons of Milesius, the heroes, and concerning Finn Mac Cumhaill with his Fians, and concerning many others which I do not here enumerate or mention, than to write, teach, and maintain the faithful words of God, and the perfect ways of truth.

XI. Extract from the Annals of the Four Masters.

A. D. 1174. Sluaicéasó laṛ in iapla d'ínoṛasó Mumán. Sluaicéasó ele la Ruaióṛi dia him-deaṛail ṛoppo. Oṛ cualaṛṛap na Ṣoill Ruaióṛi do éoṛṛ íṛ in Mumán i naṛear caṛa ṛṛiu, po

A. D. 1174. An army was led by the Earl [Strongbow] to plunder Munster. Another army was led by Roderic to protect it against them. When the English heard that Roderic had

¹ *Ar na curadhaibh; concerning the heroes.*—By “the heroes” is here meant, not heroes in general, but the Heroes of the Red Branch in Ulster, who were generally called “The Heroes” by Irish writers of romantic tales. They flourished previously to Finn Mac Cumhaill, and were believed to be superior to him and his contemporaries in valour and feats of arms. The zealous bishop seems to have heard those stories himself from the Highland and Irish bards, who were then gaining more worldly emoluments by the recital of them than they would have gained by preaching the Word of God, a thing which they would not have been allowed to do at the time, even if they had been so inclined.

^m *Ar Fhínd Mhac Cumhaill,* rendered *Fingal*, the son of *Cumhal*, in the translation above alluded to, which is also given, as approved of, by Stewart in his *Gaelic Grammar*, p. 198. But there is no *gal* in the original!

ⁿ *Nach airbhim agas nach indisim.*—Here are two instances of a simple present tense of verbs different from the verb substantive, though Stewart asserts that this dialect wants that tense altogether. Will the Scotch grammarians ever be satisfied to tell the whole truth, or to give us fair specimens of their dialect from existing manuscripts? When will they be enlightened enough to give up fabrications, and love truth better than Scotland?

εοκουρριουε Γοιλλ Αεα ειαε δια
 ραιγιε, 7 ηη ηο ηαιρηεαδ leo γο
 ηανγαταρ γο Ουπλαρ. Ταναε
 Οοηηαλλ Οα Ορηαιη 7 Οάλ
 ε-Οαιρ, 7 καε ιαρταρ Οοηαετ,
 7 ηορηαε Σηη Μυρηδαεγ, εη-
 ηοετα οηρηη δεαγρηλαε ηο ραεε-
 βαδ ιαρ ηη ηεγ Ρυαιερη. Ρο
 ρεγεαδ καε ερηδα ετηρ Γαλλαεβ
 7 Γαοιουλαεβ ηη ου ρηη, γο ηο
 ηρηαιηεαδ ρο δεοιε ερη ηεαρη
 ηοηηηαλα ρορ ηα γαλλαεβ, 7
 ηο ηαρηβαδ ρεετ εεεη δεεε οο
 Γηαλλαεβ ηη ηη καε ρηη, εο ηαε
 εεαρηηα αετ εηορηαιρηη ηεαεε
 ηεο ηη ηη καε ρηη οο Γηαλλαεβ
 ηηοη ηαρηα. Ταεη ρηε ρο ηελα
 δια εεγ γο Ρορηελαρηγε. Οοαρη
 Οα Ορηαιη δια εεγ ιαρ εορηεεεε.

arrived in Munster, for the pur-
 pose of giving them battle, they
 invited the English of Dublin
 to them, and they delayed not
 till they reached Thurles. There
 camethither Donnell O'Brien and
 the Dal Cais, and the battalion
 of West Connaught, and the great
 battalion of Sil-Murray, besides a
 numerous brave host left by the
 King Roderic. A brave battle
 was fought between the English
 and Irish at that place, where
 the victory was at length gained,
 through dint of fighting, over
 the English, and seventeen hun-
 dred of the English were killed
 in that battle, so that there es-
 caped not from that battle but a
 small remnant alive of the Eng-
 lish, with the Earl, who repaired
 in sorrow to his house to Water-
 ford. O'Brien returned home in
 triumph.

III.

ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA.

THE Author, on a most careful perusal of these sheets, after they had been worked off, discovered some inadvertent mistakes, which he begs here to notice and correct as briefly as possible.

Page 7, line 4, *for* "scarcity," *read* "sacristy."

— 22, after line 16, *insert*, "In ancient Irish MSS. *ie* is sometimes used for *ia*."

— 34, line 16, *for* "c, m," *read* "c, ʒ, m."

— 48, — 12, *for* "ua," *read* "uai."

— 53, — 14, *for* "α Fīlīb," *read* "α Fīlīb."

— 64, — 23, after the period here, *insert*: "In the fragments of Irish composition by Tirechan, in the Book of Armagh, the adventitious and eclipsing letters are separated by dots placed before and after them, thus: .n.eppcuip."

— 101, line 7, *for* "onus, oneris," *read* "opus, operis."

— 102, — 2, after the period in this line, *insert*, "In ancient MSS. an attempt was made to make a genitive in *æ*, or *αι*, in imitation of the Latin, as *τηρέ μέδ* in *τηρεχται*, in consequence of the greatness of the snow." *Vit. Moling.* Suibniu mac Maelaehumai.—See p. 43.

— 107, last line, *for* "after," *read* "before."

— 112, line 8, *for* "mín," *read* "mín."

— 123, — 1, *for* "SECTION 3," *read* "SECTION 4."

— 135, — 29, *for* "ʒiba ba é," *read* "ʒið ba é."

— 136, — 23, *for* "against," *read* "against thee."

— 139, — 14, *for* "ʒcuaib," *read* "cūʒaib."

— 146, — 6, *for* "τῖβ," *read* "τῖιβ."

— 151, — 27, *dele* "he did be, &c."

— 153, — 21, *for* "thou concealest," *read* "you conceal."

— 156, — 28, *for* "má ceilim," *read* "má ceilim."

— 158, — 13, *for* "ellipses," *read* "eclipsis."

— 158, — 19, *dele* "náp."

- Page 168, — 12, for “βίβμιρ, or ιομασιρ,” read “βίμίρ, or βίιομασιρ.”
- 186, lines 6, 9, 10, for “ζλανφάιδεαρ,” read “ζλανφαιδέαρ.”
- 191, — 26, for “α βριρεαμ,” read “α βριρεανν.”
- 199, — 22, for “δο τιοιρζναδ,” read “δο τιοιρζναδ.”
- 207, — 23, after the period, insert, “except in the first person singular, which ends in αω.”
- 218, line 2, although ατναζαρ is here translated “was given,” it is really the historic present, and means “is given.”
- 224, line 1, for “φα μ,” read “φαίμ.”
- 264, — 23, for “ηιρμιοιου,” read “ηιρμιοιυ.”
- 286, — 17, for “Ré, or ρια, before the article,” read “πέ, or ρια, before, when placed before the article.”
- 289, line 8, for “φορ οινδ,” read “φορ οινδ.”
- 301, — 13, for “Moling,” read “Molaisi.”
- 349, — 19, for “participles,” read “particles.”
- 353, — 27, for “Act 1,” read “Act 4.”
- 354, — 19, for “hands,” read “heads.”
- 356, — 8, for “we are not, ταμασιδ,” read “we are; not ταμασιδ.”
- 400, last line, for “unerring,” read “erring.”

Αρ η-α ερίοκνύζαδ α η-Αε κιαε Δυιδλιννε λε Σεααν, μαε
 Θεμοινη Οιζ Υί Θηδννᾶβάν, ό Αιτ α' τιζε ημόιρ, ρρι Σιαδ Υα
 ηΖρηνη α νοιρ, α η-Υηδ Θεάζαδ Ορραιζε, αν κύριεαδ λά ριόιδ
 δε ηί μεάδοιη αν τ-θαηραιοδ, ῥαν η-βλιαδαιη δ'αιοιρ αρ ο-τιζε-
 αρρα 1845.

Θο ζ-κυριδ Δια ερίοκ ηαιε ορραινη υιλε. Αμεη.

THE END.

1891. Jan. 1st. The first of the year. The weather was very cold and the wind was very strong. The snow was very deep and the ice was very thick. The people were very busy and the work was very hard. The day was very long and the night was very dark. The people were very tired and the work was very slow. The day was very long and the night was very dark. The people were very tired and the work was very slow.

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O'Donovan, J.

PB

A grammar of the
Irish language.

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