

The Celtic Languages

Edited by DONALD MACAULAY

This volume describes the six modern Celtic languages. Four of these, Modern Irish, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh and Breton, are living community languages; the other two, Manx and Cornish, survived into the modern period, but are no longer extant as community languages, though they are the subject of enthusiastic revivals. *The Celtic languages* sets them briefly in their Indo-European context, and states their general relationships within the broader Celtic language family. Individual linguistic studies are first placed briefly in their sociolinguistic and sociohistorical context. A detailed synchronic account of each language then follows, including syntax, morphology, phonology, morphophonology, dialect variation and distribution. Each description is based on a common plan, thus facilitating comparison amongst the different languages.

This latest volume in the Cambridge Language Surveys will be welcomed by all scholars of the Celtic languages, but has also been designed to be accessible to any reader with only a basic knowledge of linguistics. It is the only modern account to deal with all surviving Celtic languages in this detail.

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THE CELTIC LANGUAGES

Edited by

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CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

Published by the Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge
The Pitt Building, Trumpington Street, Cambridge CB2 1RP
40 West 20th Street, New York, NY 10011-4211, USA
10 Stamford Road, Oakleigh, Victoria 3166, Australia

© Cambridge University Press 1992

First published 1992
Transferred to digital printing 1998

Printed in the United Kingdom by Biddles Short Run Books

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

Library of Congress cataloguing in publication data

The Celtic languages / edited by Donald MacAulay.

p. cm. – (Cambridge language surveys)

Includes index.

ISBN 0 521 23127 2 (hardback)

1. Celtic languages. I. MacAulay, Donald. II. Series.

PB1014.C45 1992

491.6–dc20 91-34570 CIP

ISBN 0 521 23127 2 hardback

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*Tha an leabhar sa 'na chuimhneachan air fìor
sgoilear agus deagh charaid An t-Ollamh Dáithí Ó
hUaithne nach maireann a bha gu bhith air fear den
luchd sgrìobhaidh.*

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PREFACE

This volume aims to give a description of the six modern Celtic languages. Four of these, Irish and Scottish Gaelic, Welsh and Breton, are living community languages. As such, extended treatment (within the limits of the volume) is given to their phonology, morphology and syntax and a sketch of their sociological history and a sociolinguistic profile is provided. Two of the languages, Manx and Cornish, have recently, the former in the nineteenth and the latter in the eighteenth century, ceased to be spoken community languages – though both have been the subject of enthusiastic revivals. These two languages are given less intensive coverage, though a similar range of aspects is dealt with.

The descriptions are basically synchronic (though certainly informed by the writers' knowledge of their languages' histories). It was considered that an attempt to include a historical section on each language, that would be in any way adequate, would make the volume impossibly unwieldy. There would, indeed, be in such a historical examination sufficient material for a volume in itself. It was felt that the present volume, making a clear statement of the contemporary linguistic position of the living languages (in particular), would, in any event, be a desirable preliminary to that.

The volume was planned to present parallel descriptions. Contributors were all presented with identical sets of chapter, section and sub-section headings. As was anticipated, it proved impossible to follow this plan in its entirety, and it seemed best not to insist on it rigidly, as such an insistence might well have produced a distorted picture of some important areas of the different languages. Contributors were, however, encouraged to restructure their plan only within strict limits and when their intimate knowledge of the particular language indicated to them that that was necessary. By and large the relative coincidence of descriptive headings is very high indeed. This enables readers to make their own comparisons between the languages and to see the extent to which their structures and systems and the manner in which these are realised are comparable. A detailed explication of these comparisons makes a fascinating

study. Such a study, however, would be an extensive one, and is beyond the scope of this volume.

The linguistic studies are placed in brief sociolinguistic and sociohistorical contexts because the writers are convinced that such information is vital to the understanding of how the languages present themselves. It provides the reader with a frame of reference which will help to explain the different directions that the development of the languages has followed, influenced by contact with other societies and other languages. Again, these contextual sections are necessarily curtailed by the limits of space.

The volume has taken some time in the making and some of the contributions were in fact written a number of years ago. To be fair to those contributors affected, this should be made clear. The editor is grateful to them for their forbearance and to the publishers for their patience while problems were overcome which threatened at one stage to end his participation in the project altogether.

NOTE

Readers may have initial difficulties with examples if they are not acquainted with the more unusual features of the Celtic languages, such as initial mutations: changes that affect consonants at the beginnings of words (see, for example, 1.6.2); or the variation in verb stems, for example Scottish Gaelic *chi* 'sees', (*chan*) *fhaid* '(does not) see', *chunnaic* 'saw', (*chan*) *fhaca* '(did not) see', or the order of verb and subject *chan fhaca e* [not + saw + he] 'he did not see'. It is, unfortunately, not possible to find viable examples that do not utilise these features, and it is not feasible to refer constantly to sections where these features are explained. We recognise the difficulties, however, and we have tried to minimise them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks are due to the Dublin Institute for Advanced Studies for permission to reproduce maps from Jackson 1967 (7.1 and 7.2); to the Association for Scottish Literary Studies for permission to use maps from MacKinnon 1986 (4.2 and 4.3) and from Withers 1979 (4.1). Thanks are also due to these authors; and to Dr Seumas Grandd for useful information about the distribution of some Scottish Gaelic dialect forms.

ABBREVIATIONS

ABST	abstract	LOC	locative
ADJ	adjective	MASC	masculine
ADV	adverb	NEG	negation
AFF	affirmative	NOM	nominative
ART	article	NUM	numeral
ASPIR	aspiration	O	object
COLL	collective	P	predicate
COMP	comparative	PERF	perfective
COND	conditional	PL	plural
CONJ	conjunction	POS	positive
COP	copula	POSS	possessive
DEF	definite	PPART	past participle
DEM	demonstrative	PREF	prefix
DEP	dependent	PREP	preposition(al)
DIM	diminutive	PRES	present
DIR	directional	PRET	preterite
DU	dual	PREV	preverbal
EMPH	emphatic	PRO	pronominal
EQ	equative	PROG	progressive
FEM	feminine	PRON	pronoun
FUT	future	PT	particle
GEN	genitive	RECIP	reciprocal
HAB	habitual	REFLEX	reflexive
IMPERF	imperfect	REINF	reinforcing
IMPERS	impersonal	REL	relative
IMP(V)	imperative	S	subject
INDEF	indefinite	SG	singular
INDEP	independent	SGT	singulative
INDIC	indicator	SIT	situational
INF	infinitive	SPEC	specific
INTER/Q	interrogative	ST	stem
		SUBJ	subject
		SUBJUNCT	subjunctive
		SUBORD	subordinate
		SUFF	suffix
		SUP	superlative
		V	verb
		VN	verbal noun/verb-noun
		VPT	verbal particle

3

The Manx language

ROBERT L. THOMSON

HISTORICAL AND SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE

3.0 EXTERNAL HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE

Manx is the Celtic language of the Isle of Man (*Ellan Vannin*), which lies in the middle of the north Irish Sea (Old Irish *Muir Manann*). The earliest Celtic spoken in Man was probably of the Brittonic type, but Manx is a Goidelic dialect introduced by the same fifth-century expansion of Irish speakers which brought Gaelic to Scotland. Though there are signs that some kind of political connection with Brittonic areas (Cumbria, Anglesey, Gwynedd) continued for some time, evidence of a linguistic connection is tenuous. It is, however, probable that the tendency towards a more analytic form of the verb, which Manx shares with Scottish Gaelic, should be attributed to a Brittonic substratum in both.

3.0.1 During the Norse period, from the ninth to the thirteenth century, when the island became the centre of a Norse-Gaelic kingdom and of a diocese extending over all the Western Isles, Gaelic and Norse may have been locally and/or socially distributed, but the small amount of evidence from personal and early place names suggests that there was extensive bilingualism. On the cession of the island to Scotland in 1266 Gaelic became dominant again, possibly aided by migration from Galloway, and remained so until at least the end of the eighteenth century, despite the grant of the lordship by the English crown to a series of Anglo-Norman magnates ending with the Stanleys, later earls of Derby, at the beginning of the fifteenth century.

3.0.2 Apart from proper names the language remained unwritten until the translation c. 1610 of the Anglican *Book of Common Prayer* by John Phillips, bishop 1605–33, though the historical poem known as the *Traditionary*

or *Manannan Ballad*, preserved in eighteenth-century manuscripts, may on grounds of language and content be assigned to the early sixteenth century (Thomson 1961). The spelling, both that of Phillips and that now standard, is independent of the traditional Gaelic system and based largely on the conventions of Late Middle and Early Modern English. The first external notation of Manx occurs in the material collected c. 1700 for Edward Lhuyd, a copy of which was recently discovered in the National Library of Wales (Ifans and Thomson 1980).

3.1 LANGUAGE STATUS

Manx has never enjoyed official status: though proceedings, civil and ecclesiastical, were conducted orally in Manx, the record of them, the statutes and all legal documents were in English, or very occasionally in Latin, from the fifteenth century, though a very few Manx legal terms have survived (Thomson 1988: 141–2).

3.1.1 The need for charitable support for publishing in Manx in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries meant that only works on religious subjects appeared in print, beginning with Bishop Wilson's expanded *Catechism* in 1707 and reaching a climax with the completion of the Bible translation in 1773. As the manuscript material consists mainly of collections of religious poems (*carvallyn*) and of sermons, with only a small collection of secular songs, the evidence for the classical language is heavily biased. For other areas of life we are mainly dependent on the dictionaries of John Kelly and Archibald Cregeen. Even on this evidence, however, Manx appears lexically impoverished as a result of isolation and a lack of the literary cultivation that could have kept a larger non-utilitarian vocabulary in current use.

3.1.2 From the late eighteenth century the use of Manx declined, first in the towns where business contacts and later the developing tourist industry were influential, then in the villages and lastly in the countryside. The decline was quite rapid, within three or four generations, and parents who saw Manx as an economic handicap sometimes deliberately kept it from their children. Mars-trander, collecting material in the 1920s, and even Rhys in the 1870s, found the Manx speakers chiefly among the older generation. The last native speaker died in December 1974, but a number of people of all ages who learnt from him and his contemporaries, keep up the use of the language for social and to a limited

extent for literary purposes, and by them it is also taught with varying degrees of formality to learners from school-children upwards. An O-level examination in the subject was instituted by the Northern Universities Joint Matriculation Board in 1982. In 1991 the Department of Education approved the appointment of a language officer and two peripatetic teachers to enable Manx to be offered as an official, optional subject in the curriculum from 1993.

3.1.3 The decline in the currency of Manx has, not surprisingly, been accompanied by a decline in standards compared with the 'classical' language of the eighteenth century. While to a limited extent this may be attributed to normal linguistic development the many signs of the interference of English in vocabulary and idiom make it unlikely that the limitations on syntactical and morphological variety are entirely independent of that influence; nor is there any reason to regard this late Manx as somehow more real or genuine than the classical language, for there are no grounds for regarding the latter as in any way artificial or deliberately archaic. The following account attempts to combine a description of the classical language with some notice of the changes in the late Manx of the last generation of native speakers.

SYNTAX

3.2 THE SENTENCE

Manx prefers a simple sentence structure, the one-clause sentence, the string of co-ordinate clauses or the principal clause with one subordinate. When elements normally found together are separated (e.g. by an intervening prepositional phrase or relative clause), the usual practice is to resume (e.g. a subject by a pronoun):

- (1) *yn dooinney ta chiarn ny cheerey, loayr eh*
 ART man be-PRES(-REL.) lord ART-GEN-FEM land-GEN speak-PAST he
dy baggyrtagh rooin
 ADV PT threatening to-us
 'The man who is lord of the land spoke threateningly to us'

instead of the integrated sentence

- (2) *loayr y dooinney ta chiarn ny cheerey dy baggyrtagh rooin*

3.2.1 In a series of co-ordinate clauses the expressed subject of the first clause must be repeated (in pronominal form) in the succeeding clauses:

- (3) *dreggyr e ven as dooyrt ee*
 answer-PAST his wife and say-PAST she
 'His wife answered and said'

but in answering a question, where the response is the affirmative or negative form of the verb of the question, the subject pronoun is not used:

- (4) *jig eh mairagh? hig. cha jig.*
 come-FUT-DEP he tomorrow come-FUT NEG come-FUT-DEP
 'Will he come tomorrow? Yes No'

With a verb formed by means of an auxiliary the latter alone suffices in answers:

- (5) *nagh vel eh creck y thie shen? ta. cha nel.*
 be-PRES-INTER be-PRES-DEP he sell(ing) ART house that be-PRES NEG
 'Isn't he selling that house? Yes / No'

3.2.2 The neutral order in the clause, that is when no element is given particular prominence, is verb, subject, object/complement, prepositional phrase; derived adverbs come either within the verbal phrase or at the end of the clause:

- (6) *ta mee dy kinjagh faagail y moddey ec y thie*
 be-PRES I ADV PT constant leav(ing) ART dog at ART house
 'I always leave the dog at home'

The verb is preceded by any negative, conjunctive or interrogative particle, all of which require it to be in the dependent form:

- (7) *hem*
 go-FUT-1SG
 'I'll go'
- (8) *cha jem*
 NEG go-FUT-DEP-1SG
 'I shan't go'
- (9) *dy jem*
 CONJ go-FUT-DEP-1SG
 'that I (shall) go'
- (10) *nagh jem*
 CONJ-NEG
 'that I shan't go'

- (11) (zero) *jem?*
INT
'Shall I go?'
- (12) *nagh jem?*
INT-NEG
'Shall I not go?'

Any interrogative element precedes the verb and is followed by its independent/relative form:

- (13) *quoi hed er nyn son?*
who go-FUT for POSS-PL sake
'Who will go for us?'
- (14) *cre 'n- fa ta shiu farkiaght ayns shoh?*
what ART cause be-PRES ye wait(ing) in this
'Why are you waiting here?'

3.2.2.1 When the verb is complex, that is, formed by means of auxiliary 'be' or 'do', or another auxiliary such as 'can', some variations appear. With auxiliary 'be' pronoun objects of the first and second persons singular, less commonly also of the third person plural, were formerly included in the verbal complex after *dy* (in the present series of tenses) or *er* (in the past series):

- (15) *i' eh dymy chlashtyn*
be-PRES he to my hear(ing)
'He hears me'
- (16) *v' ad dydy woalley*
be-PAST they to thy beat(ing)
'They were beating you'
- (17) *v' ou dyn dilgey (ad) 'syn aile*
be-PAST thou to-their throw(ing) they in-ART fire
'You were throwing them in the fire'
- (18) *ta mee er dt' akin*
be-PRES I after thy see(ing)
'I've seen you'

3.2.2.2 Nominal objects, and increasingly in late Manx pronominal ones also, take the normal object position after the verb-noun:

- (19) *i' eh clashtyn my chora / meeloo / ud*
be-PRES he hear(ing) my voice I thou they
'He hears my voice / me/you/them'

3.2.2.3 With auxiliary 'do' both pronominal objects (in the possessive form) and nominal objects are included in the verbal phrase:

- (20) *cha jean eh my chlashtyn*
NEG do-FUT-DEP he my hear(ing)
'He won't hear me'
- (21) *ren ad my chora y chlashtyn*
do-PAST they my voice PT hear
'They heard my voice'

As with auxiliary 'be', the pattern of nominal objects first tends to prevail with pronominal ones:

- (22) *jean-jee coyrle y dooinney creeney y chlashtyn*
do-IMPV-2PL advice ART man wise PT hear
- (23) *jean-jee eshyn y chlashtyn*
do-IMPV-2PL he-EMPH PT hear

Finally, the position at the end of the phrase becomes usual:

- (24) *jean shiu clashtyn coyrle y dooinney creeney*
- (25) *jean shiu clashtyn eh*

3.2.3 Sentences expressing the notion of 'being' divide into two classes according to whether the copula or the substantive verb is used; the latter is now generally preferred but the copula is used in the comparison of adjectives (3.8.1.2), and (sometimes in zero form) it is also normal when two items are equated, the first being a personal pronoun, a demonstrative or an interrogative:

- (26) *mish eh*
I-EMPH he
'I am he'
- (27) *quoi ad?*
who they
'Who are they?'
- (28) *shoh 'n dooinney*
this ART man
'This is the man'

but when not affirmative the copula is expressed:

- (29) *cha nee mish eh*
NEG COP-PRES-DEP I-EMPH he
- (30) *nee shoh 'n lioar?*
COP-PRES-DEP this ART book
'Is this the book?'

In tenses other than the present the substantive verb is used. The copula is used also with certain fixed predicates as the equivalent of a verb:

- (31) *shione dou yn boayl*
COP-PRES-known to-me ART place
'I know the place'
- (32) *nailt [an + ail + lhiat] goll mârin?*
COP-PRES-INTER + desire with-thee go(ing) with-us
'Do you want to go with us?'
- (33) *bare lhiam fuirraght ec y thie*
COP-COND-better with-me stay(ing) at ART house
'I'd rather stay at home'

Such sentences continue the traditional order in copula sentences, that is, copula + predicate + subject, 'Staying at home would be better in my opinion'. Similarly

- (34) *s' feer eh*
COP-PRES true it
'It's true'

3.2.4 Sentences of mere existence have the predicate position filled by the pronominal preposition *ayn* 'in it', and employ the substantive verb:

- (35) *bee fliaghey ayn*
be-FUT rain in-it
'There will be rain'
- (36) *va kiuney vooar ayn*
be-PAST calm great in-it
'There was a great calm'

3.2.5 In classification sentences the class to which the member belongs is preceded by a form of the preposition 'in' and the appropriate possessive particle:

- (37) *i' eh ny hidoor*
be-PRES he in-his soldier
'He's a soldier'
- (38) *v' ad nyn eeasteeyrn*
be-PAST they in-their fisherman-PL
'They were fishermen'

3.2.6 Aspect is only intermittently marked, as by the existence of the imperfect and other continuous tenses (though no such distinction is available in the present) and the distinction between preterite and perfect (3.4.2, 3.4.6), but

a distinction can sometimes be made between action and state, though it is not invariably observed; so with the verbs 'sit', 'stand', and 'lie':

- (39) *ta mee shassoo*
be-PRES I stand(ing)
'I stand (up), I (come to a) stop'
- (40) *ta mee my hassoo*
be-PRES I in-my stand(ing)
'I am standing' (cf. 3.2.4)

A few other predicates of state follow the same usage:

- (41) *v' eh ny host*
be-PAST he in-his silence
'He was silent'
- (42) *i' ad nyn daaue*
be-PRES they in-their rest
'They're idle'

3.2.7 Noun clauses

In reported speech and after verbs of asking, thinking, fearing, etc., the clause is introduced by the conjunction *dy* 'that', *nagh* 'that not', zero 'whether', all followed by dependent verb forms:

- (43) *i' ad gra dy vel moarane skeddan ayn*
be-PRES they say(ing) CONJ be-PRES-DEP much herring in-it (see 3.2.4)
'They say there's a lot of herring'
- (44) *dinsh eh dou nagh row veg yn argid echey*
tell-PAST he to-me CONJ be-PAST-DEP any ART money at-him
'He told me he had no money'
- (45) *dênee ad j'ee row ee rieu ayns shen*
ask-PAST they of-her be-PAST-DEP she ever in that
'They asked her whether she was ever there'

3.2.7.1 Alternatively, with verbs of requesting, commanding, etc., a nominal phrase construction, subject + *dy* + verb-noun, is used:

- (46) *ghuee mee er eh dy heet stiagh*
beseech-PAST I on-him he to come in-MOTION
'I begged him to come in'
- (47) *choyrlee shin ny joarreyn gyn ad dy hannaghtyn ny sodjey*
advise-PAST we ART-PL stranger-PL without they to stay longer
(see 3.8.2)
'We advised the strangers not to stay (any) longer'

3.2.8 Adjectival clauses

Affirmative relative clauses are introduced by a particle long reduced to zero (followed by independent or relative verb forms), with negative *nagh* (followed by dependent verb forms), and are attached directly to the antecedent; if the latter is a personal pronoun it is usually in the emphatic form, and if it is a possessive then the periphrastic construction with article and *ec* (3.3.2) is employed:

- (48) *shoh yn thie hrog mee*
this ART house raise-PAST I
'This is the house I built'
- (49) *shen clagh nagh drog oo*
that stone REL-NEG raise-FUT-DEP thou
'That's a stone you won't lift'
- (50) *hug eh booise dauesyn v' er ghellal dy dooie rish*
give-PAST he thanks to-them-EMPH be-PAST after deal(ing) PT kind to-him
'He thanked those who had dealt kindly with him'
- (51) *y chooid ocsyn hug nyn marrant da*
ART property at-them-EMPH give-PAST their trust to-him
'the property of those who trusted him'

Compared adjectives used attributively are a special case of the affirmative relative with the copula (usually present, rarely past/conditional);

- (52) *y dooinney saa*
ART man COP-PRES-YOUNG-COMP
'the youngest man'

3.2.8.1 The relative with a preposition has the appropriate personal form of the preposition either before the verb of the relative clause or, more usually, at the end of it:

- (53) *shoh 'n thie ta shin baghey ayn*
this ART house be-PRES we liv(ing) in-it
'This is the house we live in'

With the genitive of the relative the appropriate possessive appears in the relative clause:

- (54) *shen y dooinney ta 'n mac ehey ching*
that ART man be-PRES ART son at-him ill
'That's the man whose son is ill'

3.2.8.2 When the antecedent is 'that (which), what', the relative is *ny*, often *shen ny*:

- (55) *cha n'oddin clashtyn (shen) ny dooyrt eh*
NEG can-COND-DEP-1ST hear that REL say-PAST he
'I couldn't hear what he said'

A special case is a compared adjective used predicatively or a compared adverb derived from an adjective:

- (56) *ta 'n dooinney shoh ny saa na 'n braar*
be-PRES ART man this REL COP-PRES-young-COMP than ART brother
ehey
at-him
'This man is younger than his brother'

With an antecedent qualified by 'each, all, every, any' or a superlative adjective the affirmative relative traditionally took the form *dy* 'of those that', followed by a dependent verb form:

- (57) *thie erbee dy jed shiu stiagh ayn*
house any REL go-FUT-DEP ye in-MOTION in+it
'any house you enter'

3.2.8.3 When the relative is accusative and the verb in the relative clause is periphrastic, then with auxiliary 'be' the particle *dy* was until recently inserted before the verb-noun, and with auxiliary 'do' the particle *y*:

- (58) *shen y thie t' eh dy hroggal*
that ART house be-PRES he at-its rais(ing)
'That's the house he's building'

- (59) *shen y thie ren eh y hroggal*
that ART house do-PAST he its raising
'That's the house he built'

At an earlier date this construction was used with auxiliary 'be' in the past series of tenses formed with *er* + verb-noun:

- (60) *shen y thie t' eh er ny hroggal*
that ART house be-PRES he after its raising
'That's the house he has built'

but this fell into disuse during the eighteenth century, probably because of an overlap with some passive forms.

3.2.8.4 The compared adverb in a relative clause appears as a compared adjective attached to the antecedent:

- (61) *y charvaant smoo ta cur geill da goan e vainshter*
ART servant greatest be-PRES giv(ing) heed to word-PL his master
'the servant who pays most attention to his master's words'

3.2.9 Adverbial clauses

Examples are (a) time, introduced by *tra* 'when', *derrey*, *gys* 'until', *neayr*'s 'since' (all with relative or independent verb), (*roish*) *my* 'before' (with dependent verb, but sometimes, by confusion with *my* 'if', with relative verb); (b) place, *raad* 'where' (relative/independent verb); (c) cause, *er-y-fa dy*, *son dy* (negative *nagh*); (d) purpose and result, (*myr shen*) *dy* (negative *nagh*) 'so that', *er-aggle dy* (negative *nagh*) 'in case, lest'; (e) concession, *ga* 'though' (independent), but usually *ga dy* (negative *nagh*), *er-bedy* 'were it not that, had it not been that'; (f) condition, *my* 'if' (relative/independent), negative *mannagh* (dependent), *dy* 'if' (with conditional only); (g) comparison, *myr* 'as' (relative/independent), *myr dy* (negative *nagh*) 'as if' (conditional).

3.2.9.1 In the expression of purpose the preposition *dy* 'to' is used with the verb-noun:

- (62) *hie ad dy chionnaghey arran*
go-PAST they to buy(ing) bread
'They went to buy bread'

rather than the clause forms:

- (63) ... *dy gionneeagh ad arran*
that buy-COND-DEP they bread
(64) ... *dy jinnagh ad arran y chionnaghey*
that do-COND-DEP they bread PT buy
'... that they should buy bread'

With reference to past time 'when' is also rendered by the prepositions *erreish*, *lurg*, with the preposition *da* 'to' before the agent, and in the active the verb-noun is normally preceded by *v'er* (as a quasi-perfect infinitive):

- (65) *erreish daue v'er er choyrt*
after to-them be-VN after send-VN
'when they (had) sent'

3.2.10 Prominence

The order of the clause is variable to the extent that the subject, more usually the object or an adverbial element, may be placed first and thereby gain prominence:

- (66) *mish i' ayn*
I-EMPH be-PRES in-it (see 3.2.4)
'It is I'

- (67) *shoh ta mee dy ghra*
this be-PRES I at-its say(ing) (see 3.2.8.3)
'this I say'
(68) *fastyr Jycrean haink ad dy chur shilley orrin*
evening Wednesday come-PAST they to put-VN sight on-us
'(It was) Wednesday evening they came to see us'

A complementary adjective may be preceded by the present affirmative of the copula:

- (69) *s' mooar va nyn moggey*
COP-PRES great be-PAST their joy
'Great was their joy'

For more explicit emphasis the copula, in the present tense only, and incorporating a third person singular pronoun, is used: *she*, negative *cha nee*, and with an element in a subordinate clause, *dy nee*, *dy re*, negative *nagh nee*:

- (70) *cha nee mish dooyrt shen*
COP-PRES-NEG-DEP-pronoun I say-PAST that
'It was not I that said that'
(71) *ta mee credjal dy re ayns y gharey hooar*
be-PRES I believe-VN COP-PRES-DEP+pronoun in ART garden find-PAST
ad eh
they it
'I think they found it in the garden'

STRUCTURE OF THE PHRASE

3.3 THE NOMINAL PHRASE

The nominal phrase may be defined as the group of connected words looking forward or back to a noun as its centre, the elements, however many or few, occurring in a fixed order, a sequence not capable of being broken into except in limited definable circumstances and, as a unit, capable of functioning in a variety of ways in the sentence, for example as subject, as direct object, as indirect object, as complement, as adverbial phrase, as phrasal preposition, as phrasal conjunction.

3.3.1 At its fullest extent the nominal phrase consists of

- (a) preposition
(b) definite article, or possessive particle, or *gach* 'each', or *dy chooilley* 'every'

- (c) numeral (ordinal and cardinal)
- (d) prefixed adjective
- (e) noun
- (f) modifier of following adjective
- (g) adjective(s)
- (h) demonstrative (requiring the article at (b))
- (i) alternative possessive (requiring article at (b)), or clarification of ambiguous possessive (b)

3.3.1.1 (a) Although the pre-articular forms of the Gaelic prepositions have been generalised for use in all positions in Manx, with only occasional exceptions, their existence (as well as the evidence of mutations) demonstrates the closeness of the connection of this item with the noun and justifies its inclusion in the nominal phrase.

3.3.1.2 (b) There is no indefinite article: for example, *dooinney* 'a man', *laue* 'a hand'. The article, the possessives, *gach* and *dy chooilley* are mutually exclusive. In addition to referring back to a noun already mentioned the article is used with some abstract nouns: *y vea* 'life', *y baase* 'death', *yn irriney* 'truth', *y dooinney* 'man(kind)'.

3.3.1.3 When one noun (in the genitive) depends on another the first is thereby rendered definite without the use of the article: for example, *ben dooinney* 'the wife of a man, a man's wife', *ben y dooinney* 'the wife of the man, the man's wife'. The article may, however, be used with a noun followed by a dependent genitive if the two nouns are felt to constitute a compound word: for example, *y dooinney-poossee* 'the bridegroom' (lit. the man of marrying), *ny fir-reill* 'the rulers' (lit. the persons of ruling).

3.3.1.4 The article also occurs between an interrogative adjective and a noun: *cre'n ennym t'ort?* 'What is your name?' (lit. 'What (is) the name that is on you?'), *quoi'n cabbyl ren oo 'reih?* 'Which horse did you choose?'; and (ultimately by a false analysis) between *lheid* 'such' and *veg* 'any' and a noun: *lheid ny deiney* 'such men', *veg yn argid* 'any money'.

3.3.1.5 The possessive particles may be followed in the demonstrative position (h) by *hene* 'self' with the sense 'own', as *my hie hene* 'my own house'.

3.3.1.6 (c) The ordinal and cardinal numerals precede the noun when they are single items, as *un* 'one', *daa* 'two', *three* 'three', *kiare* 'four', *queig* 'five',

shey 'six', *shiaght* 'seven', *hoght* 'eight', *nuy* 'nine', *jeih* 'ten', *feed* 'twenty', *da-eed* 'forty', *keead* 'hundred', or are inseparable, as *three feed* 'sixty', *kiare feed* 'eighty', *shey feed* '120', *shiaght feed* '140', *hoght feed* '160', *nuy feed* '180'; but in the compound numerals the noun follows the first element, as *un laa jeig* 'eleven days', *daa . . . yeig*, *three . . . jeig*, etc., *un . . . as feed*, *daa . . . as feed*, etc. Similarly with the cardinals *chied* 'first', *nah* 'second', *trass* 'third', *kiarree* 'fourth', *queiggoe* 'fifth', *sheyoo* 'sixth', *shiaghtoo* 'seventh', *hoghtoo* 'eighth', *nuyoo* 'ninth', *jeihoo* 'tenth', *feedoo* 'twentieth', *keeadoo* 'hundredth'. When numerals are used without a noun, as in counting, the series begins *nane*, *jees*, *three*, *kiare* etc., and *nane* replaces *un* wherever it occurs in the compound numerals.

3.3.1.7 The noun is singular after *un*, *daa*, *feed*, *keead* and all compound numerals in which one of these elements precedes it, that is 1, 2, 11, 12, 20, 21, 22, 31, 32, 40, 41, 42, 51, 52, 60, 61, 62, etc. Beyond 60 or 80 the order in compound numerals changes to place the larger number first, for example *kiare-feed dooinney* as *shiaght* 'eight-seven men', rather than *shiaght deiney* as *kiare-feed*. An alternative construction with large numbers treats the numeral as a noun followed by the preposition *dy* 'of', as *three-feed as kiare dy gheiney* 'sixty-four men'; this is also used when the number of the noun would not be the same after a pair of numerals, as *ghaa ny three dy gheiney* 'two or three men' (cf. *daa ghooiney*, *three deiney*).

3.3.1.8 (d) The prefixed adjectives are very few: *ard-* 'principal, chief', *drogh-* 'bad', *reih-* 'choice, excellent', *shenn-* 'old'. (For (e) see 3.6.)

3.3.1.9 (f) The elements modifying adjectives are also few: *feer* 'very', *ro* 'too', *bunnys* 'almost', *lane* 'quite'. Intensives derived from other adjectives generally follow, as *mie agglagh* 'fearfully good', *mie yindyssagh* 'wonderfully good'. (For (g) see 3.3.2.1.)

3.3.1.10 (h) The article is required with a noun followed by a demonstrative: for example, *y ven shoh* 'this woman', *ny paitchyn shen* 'those children', except when the noun is a proper name, as *Yeeseey shoh* 'this Jesus'.

3.3.2 (i) As an alternative to the possessive particles (b) Manx uses very freely the article in position (b) and the personal forms of the preposition *ec* 'at' in position (i): for example, *my hie* or *y thie aym* 'my house'. The forms of the prepositional pronoun are also used to explicate the ambiguous *nyn* 'our, your,

their' in position (b) when necessary, particularly in phrasal prepositions (see 3.5.2).

3.3.2.1 Sentences containing more than a very few of these elements in combination are rare, and some elements are mutually exclusive, but a fairly complete example might be

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)
<i>ayns ny</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>shenn</i>	<i>tholianyn</i>	<i>feer</i>	<i>ghraney</i>	<i>shoh</i>	
in	ART-PL	three	old	ruin-PL	very ugly	this	
'in these three very ugly old ruins'							

As (i) *oc* 'at them' might be added, except that, though the combination of possessive and demonstrative was acceptable in early Manx, it seems not to have been so later. A nominal phrase (genitive, or introduced by a preposition) or an adjectival clause qualifying a noun, occupies position (g).

3.4 THE VERBAL PHRASE

The verbal phrase may be defined as the connected group of words that looks to a finite verb form as its core, and in Manx takes one of two forms according as the verbal element is simple or complex.

3.4.1 The simple verbal phrase consists of

- (A) interrogative/negative/relative particle, or subordinating conjunction
- (B) verb
- (C) subject (inflection/pronoun)
- (D) object pronoun

3.4.2 This type of phrase occurs only when the verb is imperative, future, conditional, or preterite, and is formed by inflection:

Imperative

(72) *eiy-r-jee ad* (i.e. B+C+D)
drive-IMPV.2PL they
'drive them'

Future

(73) *tra higmayd* (i.e. A+B+C)
CONJ come-FUT.1PL
'when we come'

Conditional

(74) *dy vaikagh shiu ee* (i.e. A+B+C+D)
CONJ see-COND-DEP ye she
'if you saw (were to see) her'

Preterite

(75) *nagh dug oo ad?* (i.e. A+B+C+D)
INTER-NEG send+ PAST-DEP thou they
'didn't you send them?'

3.4.3 The complex verbal phrase consists of

- (A) interrogative/negative/relative particle, or subordinating conjunction
- (B) auxiliary verb
- (C) subject (inflection/pronoun)
- (D) (with auxiliary 'be' only) zero (*g-* before vowels) or *er(n)* for the present and perfect groups of tenses respectively
- (E) provision for the inclusion of pronoun objects and, with auxiliary 'do' only, of noun objects (3.2.2-3)
- (F) verb-noun

3.4.4 The complex verbal phrase is the only means of forming, with auxiliary 'be', the present, the rare continuous future, the imperfect, the perfect, the future perfect and the pluperfect. In addition, with auxiliary 'do', it provides a very commonly used alternative to the four inflected tenses, and one which in Late Manx has rendered them practically obsolete.

3.4.5 Nominal subjects in both types of phrase take the same position as pronoun subjects or inflections. In the simple verbal phrase nominal direct objects also follow the pattern of pronominal direct objects. For the nominal and pronominal objects of complex verbal phrases see 3.2.2.1-3.

3.4.6 Examples of complex verbal phrases with auxiliary 'be':

Present

(76) *ta mee gaase*
be-PRES I at-grow(ing)
'I grow, I'm growing'

Imperfect

- (77) *v' ad niee*
 be-PAST they (at-) wash(ing)
 'they were washing, they used to wash'

Perfect

- (78) *r' eh er n' aase*
 be-PRES he after grow(ing)
 'he has grown'

Future perfect

- (79) *beemayd er niee*
 be-FUT-1PL after wash(ing)
 'we shall have washed'

Pluperfect

- (80) *tra va shin er n' aase*
 when be-PAST we after grow(ing)
 'when we had grown'

3.4.7 Complex verbal phrases with auxiliary 'do':

Imperative

- (81) *jean-jee troggal!*
 do-IMPV-2PL lift(ing)
 'lift!'

Future

- (82) *nagh jean oo cheet?*
 INT-NEG do-FUT-DEP thou com(ing)
 'Won't you come?'

Conditional

- (83) *yinnagh eh chyndaa*
 do-COND he turn(ing)
 'he would turn'

Preterite

- (84) *ren ad gee*
 do-PAST they at-eat(ing)
 'they ate'

Gee, verb-noun *ee*, forming as it does a kind of present participle equivalent appropriate to auxiliary 'be', is clearly out of place with auxiliary 'do'; *g-* does not occur in such contexts in Early Manx, but in the classical and later periods it has become usual.

3.5 PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are of two kinds, simple and phrasal, though some of the simple are in origin more complex, for example *marish* 'with' (Gaelic *maille ri* 'together with'), *liorish* 'by' (probably Gaelic *láimh ri* 'at hand with, beside'). The Manx simple prepositions generally represent the form used before the article (so *ayns*, *gys*, *lesh*, *rish*) or the form with the third person singular masculine pronoun attached (so *da*, *jeh*).

3.5.1 The simple prepositions have personal endings representing the seven personal pronouns (though in Late Manx there is a tendency to resolve these inflected forms into their separate elements):

<i>da</i> 'to':	SG 1 <i>dou</i> , 2 <i>dhyt</i> , MASC <i>dâ</i> , FEM <i>jee</i> PL 1 <i>dooïn</i> , 2 <i>diu</i> , 3 <i>daue</i>
<i>dy</i> , <i>jeh</i> 'of':	SG 1 <i>jeem</i> , 2 <i>jeed</i> , 3 MASC <i>jeh</i> , FEM <i>j'ee</i> PL 1 <i>jïn</i> , 2 <i>jiu</i> , 3 <i>jeu</i>
<i>lesh</i> 'with':	SG 1 <i>lhiam</i> , 2 <i>lhiat</i> , 3 MASC <i>lesh</i> , FEM <i>lhee</i> PL 1 <i>lhien</i> , 2 <i>lhi(e)u</i> , 3 <i>lhieu</i>

The emphatic suffixes, in Early Manx freely attached to nouns and verb-nouns after a preceding possessive or objective pronoun, have since the classical period become almost entirely confined to personal pronouns, verbal inflections and these pronominal prepositions:

<i>da</i> 'to':	SG 1 <i>dooy's</i> , 2 <i>dhyts</i> , 3 MASC <i>dasyn</i> , FEM <i>jeeish</i> PL 1 <i>dooïnyn</i> , 2 <i>diuish</i> , 3 <i>dauesyn</i>
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3.5.2 The phrasal prepositions are noun phrases of the form (a) + (e) (see 3.3.1), though when the prepositional element is Gaelic *i n-* 'in' this has been lost (except that *n-* survives before a vowel) so that they appear to consist of a noun only. When combined with a pronoun the sequence is (a) + (b) + (e), and when the preposition is Gaelic *i n-* the combination of (a) and (b) yields singular 1 *my*, 2 *dty*, 3 *ny*, plural *nyn*. Examples are *lurg* 'after' (lit. 'in the track of'), *fegooish* 'without' (lit. 'in the absence of'; the simple preposition *gyn* 'without' has no personal forms), *noi* 'against' (lit. 'in the face of'), *cour*, *gour* 'for' (lit. 'in the direction of') with first singular personal forms *my lurg*, *m'egooish*, *m'oi*, *my chour*, respectively. The ambiguity of the plural *nyn oi* 'against us, you, them' is clarified when necessary by the addition of the pronominal forms of *ec* (as with possession, 3.3.2): *nyn oi oc* 'against them',

ny(n) mast' ain 'amongst us'. This in turn leads to a new formation without the possessive and capable of being extended to the singular: *noi oc* 'against them', *mychione oc* 'about them' (earlier *my-nyn-gione (oc)*), and *son aym* 'for me' (in place of *er my hon*) by analogy with *son ain* 'for us' from *er nyn son ain*.

MORPHOLOGY

3.6 NOUNS

Nouns may be radical or derived from other parts of speech by a limited range of suffixes, as *-aght*, *-id*, *-ys*. They vary in form only for number, except that a limited group, chiefly monosyllabic and mostly feminine, shows a separate genitive singular. The standard pattern, therefore, is two forms, a singular and a plural, the latter derived from the former either by internal change (the rarer type), or by addition. Where it occurs, the genitive singular is formed rarely by internal change, usually by addition, almost always of *-ey*. The earlier use of the nominative singular as genitive plural survives fossilised in some place names. A few nouns of plural or collective meaning are singular in form, as *cloan* 'children', *mooijer* 'people', *sleih* 'people', *ollagh* 'cattle', and these are accompanied by a singular article but by a plural adjective (so far as these exist 3.8.1), and are referred to by plural pronouns.

3.6.1 Nouns are masculine or feminine in gender, and in animates gender generally agrees with sex. The mutational distinctions (see 3.12.2) which sustain gender have long been falling into disorder or disuse, and the gender of inanimates is poorly reflected in the third person singular pronouns; effectively some nouns are feminine, the marked class, and the remainder, the unmarked majority, are masculine.

3.6.2 The use of the two numbers, singular and plural (i.e. more than one), generally accords with the numerical facts, but traces of the dual continue in the use of the singular after *daa* 'two'; for the singular after other numbers cf. 3.3.1.6. Special rules apply to *blein* 'year' with numbers, and *laa* 'day' remains singular with all the smaller numbers.

3.6.3 Of the original oblique cases only the genitive singular, and in Early Manx a few examples of the vocative and the dative plural, are distinct in form from the nominative. Otherwise the nominative, lenited when vocative, serves for all, both singular and plural; the form of the singular is in some cases historically that of the accusative-dative.

3.6.4 The masculine genitive singular is usually distinguished from the nominative by lenition after the article; feminine nouns do not use the special genitive feminine singular form of the article unless the noun has a distinct genitive form:

<i>caggey</i> (MASC) 'battle'	<i>y caggey</i> 'the battle'
	<i>er laa yn chaggey</i> 'on the day of the battle'
<i>sheshaght</i> (FEM) 'society'	<i>y cheshaght</i> 'the society'
	<i>bing y cheshaght</i> 'the committee of the society'
<i>bannish</i> (FEM) 'wedding'	<i>y vannish</i> 'the wedding'
	<i>laa ny banshey</i> 'the day of the wedding'

Distinct genitive singular forms are largely confined to familiar phrases, as *fol't e ching* 'the hair of his head', *eaghtyr y thallooin*, or *ny hooirey* 'the surface of the earth'. The freest use is in verb-nouns to form compounds, as *sheshaght-chaggee* 'army' (lit. 'company of fighting'; contrast *laa yn chaggey* above), *dooinney-poossee* 'bridegroom' (lit. 'man of marrying') (nominatives *kione*, *thalloo*, *ooir*, *caggey*, *poosey*, respectively).

3.6.5 Thus a description of declension is limited to noting distinct genitive singular forms and classifying plural formations. Internal plurals are mostly marked by palatalisation of the final consonant with consequent vowel modifications. External plurals all have the suffix *-yn*, but may have various modifications or additions before the suffix: internal plurals, *corp - kirp* 'body', *boayrd - buird* 'table', *kellagh - kellee* 'cock'; external plurals, *oyr - oyryn* 'cause', *ayr - ayraghyn* 'father', *billey - biljyn* 'tree', *brw - briwnyn* 'judge', *glion - gliontee-nyn* 'valley'.

3.6.6 Pronouns

Only the personal pronouns are morphologically variable, exhibiting one form for nominative-accusative: for example, *honnick mee eh* 'I saw him', *honnick eh*

mee 'he saw me', with another serving as possessive-objective (see 3.2.2.1-3). Gender is distinguished only in the third person singular.

Personal pronouns: SG 1 *mee*, 2 *oo*, 3 MASC *eh*, FEM *ee*
 PL 1 *shin*, 2 *shiu*, 3 *ad*
 Possessives: SG 1 *my* 2 *dy*, 3 MASC *e* (leniting), FEM *e*
 PL 1, 2, 3 *nyn*

When stressed, for example for contrast or as antecedent to a relative clause, the personal pronouns have reinforced forms:

SG 1 *mish*, 2 *uss*, 3 MASC *eshyn*, FEM *ish*
 PL 1 *shinyn*, 2 *shiuish*, 3 *adsyn*

For stress on the possessive or to use it as an antecedent, recourse is had to the alternative construction described in 3.3.2.

3.6.7 The prepositional cases of the personal pronouns are represented by the combination of prepositions with personal inflections, e.g. the preposition *ec* 'at, in the possession of':

SG 1 *aym*, 2 *ayd*, 3 MASC *echey*, FEM *eck*
 PL 1 *ain*, 2 *eu*, 3 *oc*

For fuller details cf. 3.5.1-2.

3.6.8 The demonstratives *shoh* 'this', *shen* 'that' and the rarer *shid* 'yon', are unaffected by differences of number or gender; they combine with the third-person pronouns to form demonstrative pronouns, the singular chiefly with reference to animates (while the demonstrative alone serves for inanimates), but in the plural with reference to both.

3.6.8.1 The interrogatives are *quoi* 'who(m)' (also in the selective sense 'which (one)') and *cre* 'what', as well as *c'red* lit. 'what thing' (see 3.3.1.4).

3.6.8.2 The role of indefinite pronouns is played by various special uses of nominal elements: *nhee erbee*, *red erbee* 'anything (at all)', *veg* 'anything', *fer*, *'nane* 'one', *dy chooilley nhee* 'everything', *dy chooilley ghoooinney* 'everyone', *dagh fer* 'each (one)', *y cheilley* 'each other'.

3.6.8.3 The reflexive *hene* stands in apposition to a personal pronoun or pronominal preposition or to a possessive or to a noun: *shin hene* '(we)

ourselves', *rhym pene* (*p-* after *-m*) 'to (me) myself', *my hie hene* 'my own house', *y dooinney hene* 'the man himself, even the man' (increasingly *eh-hene* latterly in the last case).

3.6.8.4 For the expression of relative pronouns see 3.2.8.3.

3.6.9 The article

The definite article has two forms, *yn* and *ny*; *yn* is the singular form except in the feminine genitive; *ny* is the feminine genitive singular (but see 3.6.4), and the plural form. Late Manx speakers tended to abandon the plural form altogether. Besides the full form *yn* two shortened forms occur, *y* and *'n*: *yn* may be used in all environments but *'n* is possible when a word ending in a vowel, typically a preposition, precedes the article, while *y* may be used before a word beginning in a consonant provided the previous word does not end in a vowel, in which case *yn* (or *'n*) is required:

<i>y(n) dooinney</i> 'the man'	<i>y(n) ven</i> 'the woman'
<i>ny deiney</i> 'the men'	<i>ny mraane</i> 'the women'
<i>da'n dooinney</i> 'to the man'	
<i>mac y dooinney</i> 'the man's son'	
<i>laue yn dooinney</i> 'the man's hand'	

3.7 VERBS

Verbs may be radical or derived from nouns, adjectives or verbs. Derived verbs may either have the same base as their simplex or be formed with a derivative affix, typically *-agh-*. A few verbs have verb-noun and stem identical, for example *aase* 'grow', *iu* 'drink', *tayrn* 'draw', but generally the verb-noun is a derivative from the stem, most often by adding *-ey* or some other suffix, for example *-al*, *-ail*, *-aght*, *-tyn*. In a small and decreasing number of cases the stem may be distinguished by palatalising the final consonant, for example *freayll*, *freill-* 'keep', *dooney*, *dooin-* 'shut', *cadley*, *caddil-* 'sleep'. Manx does not absolutely require the formation of any inflected tenses (see 3.4.4), and late usage avoids them all; the part played by the verb-noun is correspondingly eminent. A small number of verbs appear only as verb-nouns and form no inflected tenses.

3.7.1 As indicated above (3.4) the complete paradigm of a regular verb is a combination of inflected forms – imperative, future, conditional, preterite – and phrases utilising one of two auxiliaries which carry the tense and person, while the sense is isolated in the verb–noun. As the structure of the phrasal forms has already been illustrated (3.4.6–7) this section concentrates on the inflected forms, the auxiliaries and the irregular verbs. The verb *coayl* ‘lose’, stem *caill-*, will serve as a paradigm.

3.7.1.1 Imperative, second person only: 2SG the bare stem *caill*, 2PL stem + *-jee* (Late Manx *shiu*) *caill-jee*. For the first person plural, and less frequently for the third person a calque on English ‘let us . . .’ has been in use since Early Manx (with occasional evidence for 1PL *caillmayd*): 1PL *lhig dooin coayl*, 3SG *lhig da coayl*, 3PL *lhig daue coayl*. In this construction *lhig* (singular imperative of *lhiggey*) is invariable, in contrast to the possibility of the plural in *lhig-jee’n raad daue* ‘let them go’, that is, ‘allow them to depart’.

3.7.1.2 The remaining inflected forms exhibit to some extent the inherited contrast between independent and dependent, indicated by inflection or mutation, and so for each a double example is given, the dependent being preceded by the negative *cha* in the future and by the conjunction *dy* ‘if’ in the conditional; the contrast is inoperative in regular verbs in the preterite. Future:

(85)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>caillym</i> 2 <i>caillee oo</i> 3 <i>caillee eh</i>	<i>cha gaillym</i> <i>cha gaill oo</i> <i>cha gaill eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>caillmayd</i> 2 <i>caillee shiu</i> 3 <i>caillee ad</i>	<i>cha gaillmayd</i> <i>cha gaill shiu</i> <i>cha gaill ad</i>
	REL	<i>chaillys</i>	<i>nagh gaill</i>

3.7.1.3 Conditional

(86)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>chailin</i> 2 <i>chailagh oo</i> 3 <i>chailagh eh</i>	<i>dy gaillin</i> <i>dy gaillagh oo</i> <i>dy gaillagh eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>chailagh shin</i> 2 <i>chailagh shiu</i> 3 <i>chailagh ad</i>	<i>dy gaillagh shin</i> <i>dy gaillagh shiu</i> <i>dy gaillagh ad</i>

In Late Manx the first person singular shows a tendency to assimilate to the pattern of the other persons, *chailagh mee*.

3.7.1.4 Preterite

(87)	Singular	Plural
	1 <i>chail mee</i>	<i>chail shin</i>
	2 <i>chail oo</i>	<i>chail shiu</i>
	3 <i>chail eh</i>	<i>chail ad</i>

3.7.1.5 The non-finite parts are the verb–noun *coayl*, and the verbal adjective or participle (passive and in transitive verbs) *caillit*, beside the older form *cailjey* used only as an adjective.

3.7.2 The auxiliaries have the same inflected tenses and, in addition, the verb ‘be’ has a present tense. Both function as full verbs as well as auxiliaries though there has been an increasing tendency to restrict ‘do’ to the status of auxiliary, as *nee eh jannoo* ‘he will do’ instead of earlier *nee eh*.

3.7.2.1 The substantive verb, imperative (second person): SG *bee*, PL *bee-jee*, *bee shiu*.

3.7.2.2 Present

(88)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>ta mee</i> 2 <i>t’ou</i> 3 <i>t’eh, t’ee</i>	<i>cha vel mee</i> <i>cha vel oo</i> <i>cha vel eh, ee</i>
	PL	1 <i>ta shin</i> 2 <i>ta shiu</i> 3 <i>t’ad</i>	<i>cha vel shin</i> <i>cha vel shiu</i> <i>cha vel ad</i>

In the negative but not the other dependent forms *nel* is found in Early Manx and has continued in the spoken language beside literary *vel*. In Early Manx and in manuscripts of the classical period *taddyr*, *tarrad* (INDEP 3 PL) also occur. In the independent third person singular the non-personal ‘it is’ is also written *te*.

3.7.2.3 Future

(89)		Independent
	SG	1 <i>bee’m</i> 2 <i>bee oo, beeu</i> 3 <i>bee eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>beemayd</i> 2 <i>bee shiu</i> 3 <i>bee ad</i>
	REL	<i>vees, vvs</i>

Dependent 1SG *cha bee’m* etc. (the dependent is not distinct except in the relative).

3.7.2.4 Conditional

(90)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>veign</i>	<i>dy beign</i>
		2 <i>veagh oo</i>	<i>dy beagh oo</i>
		3 <i>veagh eh</i>	<i>dy beagh eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>veagh shin</i>	<i>dy beagh shin</i>
		2 <i>veagh shiu</i>	<i>dy beagh shiu</i>
		3 <i>veagh ad</i>	<i>dy beagh ad</i>

3.7.2.5 Preterite

(91)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>va mee</i>	<i>cha row mee</i>
		2 <i>v'ou</i>	<i>cha r'ou</i>
		3 <i>v'eh, v'ee</i>	<i>cha row eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>va shin</i>	<i>cha row shin</i>
		2 <i>va shiu</i>	<i>cha row shiu</i>
		3 <i>v'ad</i>	<i>cha row ad</i>

Early Manx and classical manuscript sources attest *vaddy*, *varrad* (3PL); the non-personal third-person singular is written *ve*.

3.7.2.6 The verb-noun is permanently lenited *ve*.

3.7.3 Auxiliary 'do'

This is a member of the small class of irregular verbs in which the independent and dependent forms in part show an absence of similarity, and which generally lack the future relative.

3.7.3.1 Imperative (second person): SG. *jean*, PL. *jean-jee, jean shiu*.

3.7.3.2 Future

(92)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>nee'm</i>	<i>cha jeany</i>
		2 <i>nee oo, neeu</i>	<i>cha jean oo</i>
		3 <i>nee eh</i>	<i>cha jean eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>neemayd</i>	<i>cha jeanmayd</i>
		2 <i>nee shiu</i>	<i>cha jean shiu</i>
		3 <i>nee ad</i>	<i>cha jean ad</i>

3.7.3.3 Conditional

(93)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>yinnin</i>	<i>dy jinnin</i>
		2 <i>yinnagh oo</i>	<i>dy jinnagh oo</i>
		3 <i>yinnagh eh</i>	<i>dy jinnagh eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>yinnagh shin</i>	<i>dy jinnagh shin</i>
		2 <i>yinnagh shiu</i>	<i>dy jinnagh shiu</i>
		3 <i>yinnagh ad</i>	<i>dy jinnagh ad</i>

3.7.3.4 Preterite

There is no distinction between independent and dependent forms.

(94)		Singular	Plural
		1 <i>ren mee</i>	<i>ren shin</i>
		2 <i>ren oo</i>	<i>ren shiu</i>
		3 <i>ren eh</i>	<i>ren ad</i>

3.7.3.5 The verb-noun is *jannoo*, and the verbal adjective *jeant*.

3.7.4 The subjunctive sense in all inflected verbs is carried by the dependent future and conditional; the optative sense by the dependent future with the conjunction *dy* 'that', except that the verb 'be' uses a form similar to the dependent preterite, *dy row* . . . (but also occasionally *dy bee* . . . on the model of other verbs). A more explicit non-indicative sense has since Early Manx been conveyed by the use of the auxiliary *foddym* 'I can' (cf. English 'may, might' in this function). This verb is defective, having no imperative and no verb-noun so that it can form no periphrastic tenses. It therefore has three forms: present-future, imperfect-conditional and preterite, but the formation of these is regular.

3.7.4.1 Present-future

(95)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>foddym</i>	<i>dy voddym</i>
		2, 3 <i>foddee oo, eh</i>	<i>dy vod oo, eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>fodmayd</i>	<i>dy vodmayd</i>
		2, 3 <i>foddee shiu, ad</i>	<i>dy vod shiu, ad</i>
	REL	<i>oddys</i>	<i>nagh vod</i>

As in 3.7.1.2 after *cha, n'oddy* etc. is used in contrast to *voddym* etc. elsewhere.

3.7.4.2 Imperfect–conditional

(96)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>oddin</i>	<i>dy voddin</i>
		2, 3 <i>oddagh oo, eh</i>	<i>dy voddagh oo, eh</i>
	PL	<i>oddagh shin, shiu, ad</i>	<i>dy voddagh shin, shiu, ad</i>

3.7.4.3 Preterite

No independent–dependent contrast: SG *dod mee, oo, eh*; PL *dod shin, shiu, ad*.

3.7.5 As a specimen of the irregular verbs 'go' will serve. Verb–noun *goll*; suppletive verbal adjective *ersooyl* (active perfect participle equivalent of *shooyl* 'walk').

3.7.5.1 Imperative

Both are suppletive forms, from *goaill* 'take' and *immeeaght* 'depart'; 2SG *gow*, *immee*, 2PL *gow-jee, immee-jee*.

3.7.5.2 Future

(97)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	1 <i>hem</i>	<i>cha jem</i>
		2, 3 <i>hed oo, eh</i>	<i>cha jed oo, eh</i>
	PL	1 <i>hemmayd</i>	<i>cha jemmayd</i>
		2, 3 <i>hed shiu, ad</i>	<i>cha jed shiu, ad</i>

3.7.5.3 Conditional

No independent–dependent contrast.

(98)	SG	1 <i>raghin</i>
		2, 3 <i>ragh oo, eh</i>
	PL	<i>ragh shin, shiu, ad</i>

3.7.5.4 Preterite

(99)		Independent	Dependent
	SG	<i>hie mee, oo, eh</i>	<i>cha jagh mee, oo, eh</i>
	PL	<i>hie shin, shiu, ad</i>	<i>cha jagh shin, shiu, ad</i>

3.7.6 There are no inflected forms for the impersonal or passive, except *ruggyr* 'is/was born'. The passive ordinarily consists of the various tenses of 'be' with either (latterly) the passive participle or (earlier) its equivalent phrase,

made up of *er* + the possessive corresponding in person and number to the subject (though with a long-standing tendency to fix this in the third person singular masculine) + the verb–noun: *v'eh currit* or *v'eh er ny choyr* 'he was sent'. There is also an idiomatic construction with the verb 'go' + *er* + the verb–noun: *hed ad er coyr* 'they will be sent'.

3.8 ADJECTIVES

3.8.1 Adjectives may be radical or derived from nouns by a limited group of suffixes, as *-agh, -oil*. The only morphological variations are for number and comparison. A very few monosyllabic adjectives form a plural, when used attributively, by the addition of *-ey*: for example, *beggey* 'little', *mooarey* 'big', *aegey* 'young'; but even these are not invariably used. Some adjectives, including all those in *-agh* applicable to animates, are also used as nouns: *marroo* 'dead, a dead person', *baccagh* 'lame, a lame person', and in this function they have nominal plurals: *ny merriu* 'the dead', *ny baccée* 'the lame', *ny doail* 'the blind', *ny boghtyn* 'the poor'. Predicative adjectives are invariable.

3.8.1.1 Apart from those adjectives that are identical in form with nouns any adjective of suitable meaning can be nominalised by being associated with an 'empty' noun. If the reference is personal or animate the usual singular noun is *fer*, in the plural either *fir* or the collectives *sleih, mooinjer, feallagh*; for example, *y fer doo* 'the dark one', *sleih aegey* 'the young', *y vooinjer veggey* 'the little ones', *feallagh elley* 'others'. In Late Manx *feallagh* has acquired a plural *follee*. Impersonally, the common noun is *cooid*: for example, *cooid vooar* 'a great deal', *nee'm my chooid share* 'I'll do my best'.

3.8.1.2 Comparison is in two degrees, positive and comparative–superlative. With a few exceptions such as *chammah* 'as good, as well', *whilleen* 'as many', *wheesh* 'as much', the equative is not a morphologically distinct form but consists of *chalcho* + the positive (followed by the preposition *rish* or the conjunction *as*). The compared form of adjectives having a positive in *-agh* generally ends in *-ee*, and there are some irregular comparisons, usually by suppletion; but in the great majority of cases the comparative is the positive preceded by the present (relative) of the copula, *s'* (rarely by the preterite *by-*) when attributive, and by *ny s'* when predicative (see 3.2.8.2). In irregular comparatives the *s* is attached without an apostrophe: *beg* 'little' – *slooy*; *mie* 'good' – *share*; *mooar* 'big' – *smoo*; *olk* 'bad' – *smessey*; *foddey* 'far' – *sodjey*;

liauyr 'long' – *slhiurey*; *yymodee* 'many' – *sliee*; *lajer* 'strong' – *stroshey*; *shenn* 'old' – *shinney*.

- (100) (a) *y dooinney s'niartal*
'the most powerful man'
(b) *ta'n dooinney shen ny s'niartal na mish*
'That man is more powerful than I'
- (101) (a) *y cabbyl stroshey*
'the strongest horse'
(b) *ta'n cabbyl shen ny shinney na'n fer aym's*
'That horse is older than mine'

Periphrastic comparison of superiority with *smoo* 'more/most' is possible though not common; *sloo* 'less/least' provides the only means of expressing the comparison of inferiority.

3.8.2 Adverbs

Adverbs may be divided into two classes, either based on adjectives or not; some of the latter are opaque formations but many are transparent nominal phrases. The adjectival class is formed by prefixing the particle *dy* to the adjective: *dy harryltagh* 'willingly'. The equative and comparative–superlative are formed in the same way as those of adjectives and the particle *dy* is dispensed with; only the predicative form with *ny* is used: *Dreggyr eh ny s'gennal na roie* 'He answered more cheerfully than before'.

SOUND SYSTEM

3.9 CONSONANT SYSTEM

The consonant system is marked by the opposition (largely neutralised in labials) between neutral and palatal articulation. Combining this variable with the three places of articulation (labial, dental, velar), and the oppositions voiced/voiceless and stop/fricative, the system in table 3.1 emerges.

3.9.1 Some of the items in table 3.1 have a limited distribution: *f*, *v*, *ð*, *x'* and *z'* do not occur in word-final position; *ð*, *z* and *z'* do not occur in word-initial position and *ɣ*, *ŋ*, *w*, *v* and *h* do so only in mutation conditions (3.12.1) or in loanwords, for example *wappin* 'weapon', *vondeish* 'advantage',

Table 3.1. Consonant system

labial	p	b	f	v	m
dental	t t'	d d'		ð	n n'
velar	k k'	g g'	x, x'	ɣ, ɣ'	ŋ ŋ'
liquid	l l'	r r'			
sibilant	s s'	z z'			
semi-vowel	j	w			
aspirate	h h'				

hullad 'owl'. There is a general tendency to relax the articulation of single intervocalic stops and fricatives and/or to voice them in this position, for example *cappan* ['kavan] 'cup', *cabbyl* ['ka:vəl] 'horse', *peccah* ['pɛgə] 'sin'. Hence new *z* from earlier *s*, as *poosey* ['pu:zə] 'marry'; *z'* from *s'*, as *aashagh* ['e:z'ax] 'easy', or *d'*, as *padjer* ['pa:z'ər] 'prayer'; new *ð* from *t*, as *baatey* ['bɛ:ðə] 'boat', or *d*, as *eddin* ['ɛðən] 'face', or *s*, as *shassoo* ['ʃa:ðu] 'stand'; *ɣ* from *x*, as *beaghey* ['bɛ:ɣə] 'live'; with a further tendency for *z'* and *ɣ* to become *j* and zero respectively, as *toshiaght* ['tɔz'ax, 'tɔjax] 'beginning', *shaghey* [ʃa:] 'past'.

3.9.2 The contrast of neutral and palatal quality is well preserved in *n* and *l* but *r'* has become less frequent so that, for example, *roo* 'to them' and *rieau* 'ever', or *roa* 'row' and *rio* 'frost', may be indistinguishable. There is no observable contrast of lenited/unlenited in these three consonants, and no orthographic evidence for it at any period. Final and preconsonantal *r* shows a weakening or loss similar to that in English, and something like the 'intrusive' *r* of English has been noted in hiatus left by the loss of *ɣ*, as *booaghyn* 'cows' ['bu:ərən], or alternatively as a case of 'quiescent' *r*, the singular *booa* being interpreted as *booa(r)*. Recent usage shows an abundance of unhistorical initial palatalisations of *k* and *g* in some or all of the recorded pronunciations of *caashey* 'cheese', *caayl* 'cabbage', *cabbag* 'docks', *cabbyl* 'horse', *cadley* 'sleep', *caggey* 'war', *cair* 'right', *cam* 'crooked', *cappan* 'cup', *casherick* 'holy', *cassey* 'twist', *karraghey* 'mend', *keayrt* 'time', *kerraghey* 'punish', *gaaue* 'smith', *garey* 'garden', *gearey* 'laugh', *geinnagh* 'sand'; and sometimes of initial and medial *l*, as recorded for *lajer* 'strong', *lane* 'full', *laue* 'hand', *moylley* 'praise'.

3.9.3 The original length in unlenited *m*, *n*, *l* and *r*, has been transferred to the preceding vowel, in monosyllables only, by way of either lengthening or

diphthongisation: for example, *kione* 'head', *boayl* 'place' (diphthong or monophthong from a diphthong) *eeym* 'butter', *cam* [kebm] from [ke:m] 'squint', *baare* 'tip' (Gaelic *ceann*, *ball*, *im*, *cam*, *barr*). The earlier initial clusters *kn*, *gn*, *tn*, *dl*, *tl* have fallen in with *kr*, *gr*, *tr*, *gl*, *kl*, respectively, as *knaid*, *craid* 'mockery', *gnwis*, *grooish* 'countenance', *tnw*, *troo* 'envy', *gloo* 'warp (in weaving)' Gaelic *dlúth*, but Early Manx *gliastyn* 'owe', later *lhiastyn*, Gaelic *dleastanas*, *er y klew*, *er y clieau* 'on the mountain', Gaelic *air an t-sléibh*. *Sr* falls in with *str*, as *strooan* 'stream', Gaelic *sruthan*; and medial *sk*, with some exceptions, with *st*, as *iesk*, *eeast* 'fish', *eask*, *eayst* 'moon', *wyskey*, *ushtey* 'water', *mastey* 'among', still often *maskey* in the eighteenth century, but *askaid* 'boil', *myskid* 'malice'. Final *t* after a sibilant or *x* tends to be lost, as regularly in the noun and verb-noun suffix *-aght*; after *s* in *Creest* 'Christ', *brisht* 'broken' and, reversing an earlier trend to add *-t* in this position, in *reesht* 'again', *neesht* 'also'. Final nasals in stressed monosyllables are preceded by a weak version of the corresponding voiced stop, as *trome* [tro:bm] 'heavy', *ben* [be^dn] 'woman', and with shortening *slane* [sle^dn] 'whole'. Dissimilation of consonants occasionally takes place, as is evidenced in *Truggan Road* = *bayr y trooan*, Gaelic *bóthar an tsrutháin* with [t^{ru}dⁿ] → [tru⁸n].

3.9.4 The features mentioned in 3.9.1–2 and the last two in 3.9.3 are of quite recent origin, perhaps not earlier than the late eighteenth century, and are only exceptionally reflected in the orthography.

3.10 VOWEL SYSTEM

The vowel system includes monophthongs and diphthongs, and monophthongs in stressed syllables distinguish length. The monophthongs may be represented by the following chart:

i		u
e	ə	o
	ε	ɔ
	a	

Of these *a*, *ε*, *i*, *ɔ*, *u*, *ə* may be long or short; *e* and *o* long only, except for isolated cases of shortening. The quality of the long and short vowel of each pair is not identical. Diphthongs are formed with *-i* as the second element by *a*, *ε*, *ɔ*, *ə* and *u*; and with *-u* as second element by *a*, *ε* and *ə*; *i* and *u* form diphthongs with *ə* as second element but tend to monophthongisation except before *r*.

3.10.1 In unstressed syllables the range of vowel sounds is restricted in post-tonic position to *ə*, *u* and *i* (the last usually long and morphologically significant), but in the noun suffix *-an*, *-ag* and the predominantly adjectival suffix *-agh*, the vowel tends to remain, though there is early evidence for *-ax* as well as *-ax*. There is widespread lengthening of *a* and *ɔ* in monosyllables, and in disyllables having an open stressed syllable.

3.11 STRESS

The normal position for the stress, in words capable of taking a full stress, is on the first syllable, and since pretonic elements have generally been eliminated, the presence of the stress largely coincides with the beginning of the word. However, this coincidence is modified in various ways, partly by the clustering of unstressed proclitics (3.3 and 3.4) so that the word bearing the main stress is itself in the centre or even at the end of a group of unstressed syllables, e.g. *ga dy vél mee / er jéet / dy vólley / réesht* 'though I have come home again'. Partly also because originally long vowels in syllables other than the first may attract the stress to themselves, for example verb-nouns in *-ail*, *-eil*, such as *sauáil* 'save', *treigéil* 'abandon', and nouns in *-ane*, *-agel-aig*, *-eyr*, such as *farráne* 'spring', *rolláge* 'star', *moltéyr* 'deceiver'. This is also the case with long vowels created during the evolution of the language by the reduction of two syllables to one, for example *thalloo*, GEN *thallóoin* 'land' (Gaelic *tal(a)mhan*), *sheelóghe* 'generation' (Gaelic *slol(a)bhach*), *buirróogh* 'roar' (Gaelic *búirfeadhach*), *breeóil* 'effective' (Gaelic *bríoghamhail*). Doublets of some suffixes appear with a shortened vowel and so without stress, for example *-an* beside *-áne*, *-ag* beside *-áge*, *-al* beside *-óil*, as *beggan* 'a little', *soieag* 'seat', *niartal* 'powerful' (but Early Manx *niartóil*), *troggal* 'raise'. When the stress is placed elsewhere than on the long vowel of the first syllable that long vowel is liable to shortening, though this is not always reflected in the spelling if the stress may return to the first syllable in other forms of the word, for example *arráne* 'song' (Gaelic *amhran*, *óran*), but *faagáil* 'leave', stem *faag-*, participle *fáagit*, though in unconventional spelling the verb-noun appears as *fegaile* with the shortening indicated.

MORPHOPHONOLOGY

3.12 MUTATION

Many of the initial consonants are liable within the phrase to undergo changes to other, originally closely related, sounds, and these changes have been shown in the writing of all periods. As these mutations occur in particular sequences of elements, they can for the most part be described in terms of the preceding elements which 'cause' them. In some cases, however, the preceding element has now disappeared and the mutation appears spontaneous: in this category may be included the lenition of the inflected future relative, the independent conditional, and the preterite forms of the regular verb (3.7.1.2-4), such as *chaillys*, *chailin*, *chailagh*, *chail*, and similar forms in the irregular verbs which sometimes add the whole independent future, for example *hed* 'will go' (lenited *t'*), *hee* 'will see' (lenited *k'*), *hig* 'will come' (*t'*), *yiow* 'will get' (*g'*), *ver* 'will give' (*b'*). In addition, some adverbs show the same permanent lenition, as *hannah* 'already', *har* 'east', *heear* 'west', *heese* 'below', *heose* 'above', *hoal* 'yonder', as well as the prepositions *harrish* 'over', *huggey* 'to him', the pronoun *hene* 'self' and, except in Early Manx, the adjective *cheddin* 'same'.

3.12.1 The initial consonants *p*, *b*, *f*, *m*, *t*, *d*, *k*, *g*, *s*, are liable to mutation. There are two mutations of consonants: lenition and nasalisation. In lenition stops become the corresponding fricatives (or further developments thereof), and *m* becomes *v/w*; *s* followed by a vowel becomes *h*, but after the singular article *t*, and *f* becomes zero (though this mutation often fails). Thus

	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t t'</i>	<i>d d'</i>	<i>k k'</i>	<i>g g'</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>ss'</i>	<i>f</i>
→	<i>f</i>	<i>v, w</i>	<i>h h'</i>	<i>ɣ ɣ'</i>	<i>x x'</i>	<i>ɣ ɣ'</i>	<i>v, w</i>	<i>h h'</i>	-
written:	<i>ph</i>	<i>v, w</i>	<i>h hi</i>	<i>gh y</i>	<i>ch chi</i>	<i>gh y, ghi</i>	<i>v w</i>	<i>h hi</i>	-

In nasalisation the voiceless stops become voiced, the voiced stops become the corresponding nasals, and *f* becomes *v*. Thus

	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t t'</i>	<i>d d'</i>	<i>k k'</i>	<i>g g'</i>	<i>f</i>
→	<i>b</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>d d'</i>	<i>n n'</i>	<i>g g'</i>	<i>ŋ ŋ'</i>	<i>v</i>

but the orthographic expression in dentals and velars is complex and confusing.

3.12.2 Mutation has almost completely disappeared from Late Manx. In the classical period the principal occurrences of lenition in nouns and verb-nouns are:

- in the vocative, singular and plural: (*y*) *charrey* 'friend', *chaarjyn*;
- after the singular article (dentals, i.e. *t*, *d*, always excepted, and *f* frequently) in feminine nouns in the nominative: *y ven* 'the woman', *y gheay* 'the wind'; in the nominative when used as genitive (3.6.4): *ayr y ven* 'the woman's father'; in masculine nouns in the genitive: *ennym y vac* 'the son's name'; and in nouns of both genders in the sequence preposition + singular article + noun: *rish y vac* 'to the son', *lesh y voir* 'with the mother';
- after the possessives *my* (1SG), *dty* (2SG), *e* (3SG MASC): *my charrey* 'my friend', *dty vainshter* 'your master', *e voddey* 'his dog';
- after all ordinal numerals and the cardinal numerals *un* 'one' (except dentals and *s*) and *daa* 'two': *un vac* 'one son', *un charrey* 'one friend', but *un dooinney* 'one man'; *daa vac*, *daa charrey*, *daa ghoooinney*;
- after the prepositions *dy* 'of', *dy* 'to', and in some phrases *fo* 'under': *paart dy gheiney* 'some men', *aarloo dy ghol ersooyl* 'ready to go away', *fo-harey* 'under orders', place name *Folieu* (*slieau* 'mountain');
- in proper names in the genitive: *braar Pherick* 'Patrick's brother', and in surnames such as *Cooil* (Gaelic *Mac Dhubhghaill*), *Kerrúish* (Gaelic *MacFhearghuis*);
- after the prefixes and preposed adjectives *aa-* 're-', *mee-/ne-* 'un-', *drogh-* 'bad', *ard-* 'chief', *shenn-* 'old': *aa-hroggal* 'rebuild', *mee-chairys* 'injustice', *neu-chooie* 'unfit', *drogh-haghyrt* 'accident', *ard-valley* 'city' but *ard-saggyrt* 'high-priest' (dental), *shenn-ven* 'old woman' but *shenn dooinney* 'old man' (dental).

3.12.2.1 To initial vowels the consonant *h-* may be prefixed in nouns:

- after the genitive feminine singular of the article: *ny hooirey* 'of the earth';
- after the plural article *ny*: *ny Hewnyn* 'the Jews';
- after the third person singular feminine possessive: *e haigney* 'her mind'.

The writing of this mutation has always been inconsistent.

3.12.2.2 Nasalisation occurs in nouns:

- (a) after the plural possessive: *nyn gaarjyn* 'our/your/their friends';
- (b) in fixed phrases and place names after the genitive plural of the article: *shooyl ny dhieyn* 'walking the houses (i.e. begging)', field name *bwoaille ny giurk* 'hens' fold'.

3.12.3 Lenition is found in adjectives:

- (a) after a feminine singular noun: *ben vie* 'a good woman';
- (b) after a noun in the vocative: *Hiarn vie* 'good Lord';
- (c) after a plural noun when the plural is formed by palatalisation: *peccee hreih* 'miserable sinners';
- (d) after the modifiers *feer* 'very' (except dentals) and *ro* 'too': *feer vie* 'very good', but *feer tromme* 'very heavy', *ro voour* 'too great'.

3.12.3.1 Prefixed *h-* is occasionally found in adjectives after *dy* forming adverbs: *dy harryltagh* 'willingly'.

3.12.4 The chief occurrences of lenition in finite verbs are:

- (a) in the future relative: *hroggy's eh* 'which he will lift, which/who will lift him/it';
- (b) in the preterite: *hrog eh* 'he lifted';
- (c) in the independent conditional: *hroggyagh ad* 'they would lift'.

And in the verb-noun:

- (d) after the objectives of the first and second persons singular, preceded by *dy* or *er*: *t'ad dy my choyrt* 'they send me', *t'ad dy dty choyrt* 'they send you', *t'ad er my choyrt* 'they have sent me', *v'ad er dty choyrt* 'they had sent you';
- (e) after the prepositions *dy* 'to' and *er(n)* 'after' (in most cases), and the particle *dy* when the object has preceded: *dob ad dy chur taste'y da* 'They refused to pay attention to him', *v'eh er chlashtyn jeh* 'He had heard of it', *cre t'ad dy ghra?* 'What are they saying?'

3.12.4.1 Nasalisation occurs in the finite verb:

- (a) in the voiceless sounds *p*, *t*, *k*, *f* only, after *cha* 'not', *dy* 'that', *nagh* 'that not, who(m) not', *mannagh* 'if not, unless', *dy* 'if' (conditional

only), *my* 'before': *cha n'aagym* 'I shall not leave', *dy drog eh* 'that he will lift', *nagh gionnee ad* 'that they will not buy', *mannagh gooinnee shiu* 'if you do not remember', *dy gaillin* 'if I were to lose', (roish) *my jyndaa oo* 'before you return' (verb-nouns *saagail*, *troggal*, *kionnaghey*, *cooinaghtyn*, *coayl*, *chyndaa* respectively).

And in verb-nouns:

- (b) after the plural objective preceded by *dy* or *er*, giving *dyn* (*dy nyn*) and *er nyn*: *t'eh dyn dilgey ad 'syn aile* 'He is throwing them in the fire', *v'ad er nyn vakin ayns y traid* 'They were seen in the street';
- (c) after *er* 'after' (in some cases, but generally replaced by lenition): *ta shin er vakin* (or *er n'akin*) *yn ard-valley* 'We have seen the city', *vel ad er jeet dy valley* 'Have they come home?'

In (a) and (c) above *n'* is prefixed to an initial vowel and the mutation of *f* + vowel varies between *n'* and *v*.

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4

The Scottish Gaelic language

DONALD MACAULAY

HISTORICAL AND SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE

4.0 EXTERNAL HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE

The theory concerning the origins of Scottish Gaelic that is most widely accepted nowadays – and, indeed, the one that is most strongly supported by the available evidence – is that the Gaelic language was carried to Scotland by immigrants from Ireland. Earlier ‘nativist’ theories have not stood the test of time. Early Celtic names in north Britain, cited, for example, in Roman sources or on Ptolemy’s map, do not indicate Gaelic settlement.

It is not clear when the earliest emigrations of Gaelic speakers began, how they progressed or how they were distributed in north Britain. It is reasonable to associate them with the out-migrating impulse that saw the Irish impinging on the west coast of Roman Britain from the late fourth century, leading to considerable settlement after the decline of Roman power. The most important settlement in Scotland was that of the Dál Riata in Argyll (the name, in Gaelic *Oirthir Gaidheal*, means ‘the coastline of the Gael’). This settlement established what appears to have been a cross-channel ‘kingdom’. Eventually, at some time in the second half of the fifth century, the colony became more politically important than the motherland and the centre of power moved from Dál Riata in Antrim in north-east Ireland to Dál Riata in Scotland. This change was the result of political re-adjustments in Ireland and, in Scotland, of settlement consolidation: there is no archaeological evidence of large-scale migration into Scotland during this period. The Dál Riata leadership remained in the Scottish branch for around 150 years, until the connection was severed after the battle of Mag Rath (c. 637) (Bannerman 1974).