

1: Full text of "Modern Irish grammar"

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According to the census , 1. Before the spelling reform, this was spelled Gaedhilge. Irish at a glance Linguistic affiliation: Ogham, Gaelic script, Latin alphabet Status: There is some degree of mutual intelligibility between them, particular between the Scottish Gaelic of Islay and Argyll, Ulster Irish, and Manx. The grammar and vocabulary of these languages are quite similar, but the spelling and pronunciation are different, especially Manx spelling. The Celtic languages all have a similar grammatical structure, but have relatively little vocabulary in common. Celtic cognates - words that are similar in the Celtic languages Dialects There are three main dialects of Irish: The main area where the Ulster dialect is spoken is the Rosses na Rosa. The dialect of Gweedore Gaoth Dobhair is essentially the same as the Ulster dialect. It combines elements from the three major dialects and its pronunciation is based on the Connacht dialect. This is the form of the language taught in most schools. Decline and revival Between the 17th and early 20th centuries, the Irish language was gradually replaced by English in most parts of Ireland. Famine and migration in the 19th and 20th centuries led to its further decline. However when the Republic of Ireland came into being in , Irish was adopted as an official language, along with English, and the government and civil service become, in theory at least, officially bilingual. Recently the Irish language has experienced a revival with the foundation of new publications, a radio service, a television station and the growth of Irish-medium education. Irish is also increasingly being used on independent radio stations in Ireland. Origin of writing in Ireland Irish first began to appear in writing in Ogham inscriptions between the 4th and 6th centuries AD. When St Patrick introduced Christianity to Ireland in the 5th century, Irish writers began to write in Latin, and at the same time Irish literature written in the Latin alphabet began to appear. The Viking invasions of the 9th and 10th centuries led to the destruction of many early manuscripts, so most surviving manuscripts were written after that time. It was used for printing Irish until quite recently and is still used on road signs and public notices throughout Ireland.

2: A Grammar of the Modern Irish Language

Though Early Modern Irish shares a number of similarities with Modern Irish, they are fundamentally different forms of the language. At the same time, the term Early Modern Irish does not refer to a standard language in the formal sense, but rather to a period in the language's history (c.).

An early form of the Irish language was brought to bronze age Ireland and Britain by the iron age Celts, who inhabited Central Europe some three thousand years ago. The Celtic languages which are a branch of the an "Indo-European" family of languages consist of the Continental Celtic languages consisting of Celtiberian, Gaulish, and Galatian , and the Insular Celtic languages of the so-called British Isles. Ireland was invaded many times prior to the coming of the Celts. It can be assumed that when the Celts eventually succeeded in conquering the country, Ireland was a land of many diverse languages, cultures and peoples even though the population must have been small. All of these pre-Celtic languages are thought to have had some influence on this earliest form of Irish, between the end of the second millennium B. Old Irish is the earliest variant of the Celtic languages in which extensive writings still exist. The earliest Irish writing we know of was in Ogham sometimes referred to as the "tree-alphabet" , a series of lines and notches cut into the edge of standing stones and other grave markings. Thus from A. The Viking invasions between the eighth and tenth centuries A. The next settlers, the Anglo-Normans in the twelfth century, brought with them a French influence, most notably on the Irish literature of the period and especially noticeable in the southern dialects. During the period Irish was the dominant language in the country, though some within the educated and aristocratic classes were bilingual. The events of the later sixteenth century and of the seventeenth century for the first time undermined the status of Irish as a major language. The Tudor and Stuart conquests and plantations , the Cromwellian settlement , and the Williamite war followed by the enactment of the Penal Laws , had the cumulative effect of eliminating the Irish-speaking ruling classes and of destroying their cultural institutions. The Irish-speaking nobility of Ireland were replaced by a new ruling class, or Ascendancy, whose language was English, and thereafter English was the sole language of government and public institutions. Irish continued as the language of the greater part of the rural population and, for a time, of the servant classes in towns. From the middle of the eighteenth century, as the Penal Laws were relaxed and a greater social and economic mobility became possible for the native Irish, the more prosperous of the Irish-speaking community began to conform to the prevailing middle-class ethos by adopting English. Irish thus began to be associated with poverty and economic deprivation. This tendency increased after the Act of Union in 1707. Yet because of the rapid growth of the rural population, the actual number of Irish speakers increased substantially during the first decades of the nineteenth century. In 1800 their number was estimated at four million. This number consisted almost entirely of an impoverished rural population which was decimated by the Great Famine and by resultant mass emigration. Towards the end of the eighteenth century the Anglo-Irish Ascendancy had begun to develop an academic interest in the Irish language and its literature. Academic interest later merged with a concern for the survival of spoken Irish as its decline became increasingly evident. Within this new Irish state, Irish exists as a community language only in relatively small, discontinuous regions along the western seaboard. These regions are collectively called the Gaeltacht. The number of Irish speakers is a decreasing proportion of the total because, for a variety of complex reasons, some of the indigenous population of the Gaeltacht continue to shift to English, and because new English-speaking households are settling there. On the other hand, there are many Irish-speaking individuals and families throughout the rest of the country, particularly in Dublin. In the census of 1926, almost 1. The constitution of the Irish Free State declared Irish to be the national language and the new administration sought to promote the language in various aspects of life in the country. Many schemes were initiated in the 1920s, especially in the public sector, the armed forces and the civil service. It was also possible to study subjects via Irish at University. Because of the language movement and the teaching of Irish in the school system, many people have also learned Irish as a second language. All in all, the health of the Irish language remains a question of perspective. Is it a glass half empty or half full? It depends upon whom you ask. Language advocates and organizations such as Conradh na Gaeilge continue to work with energy,

enthusiasm and determination. Nevertheless, in this age of international commerce and communication, English continues to emerge as the most prevalent language worldwide. Minority languages such as Irish must be carefully fostered and promoted, lest they fall into disuse.

Historical Varieties of Irish The earliest known form of Irish is preserved in Ogham inscriptions which date mainly from the fourth and fifth centuries A. The linguistic information preserved in Ogham is sparse, as the inscriptions contain little more than personal names, but it is sufficient to reveal a form of Gaelic much older than Old Irish, the earliest well-documented variety of the language. The linguistic, cultural and political stability of the Old Irish period was disrupted by the Viking invasions towards the end of the 8th century which completely disrupted the monastic system. These invasions caused a period of great linguistic change. The term Middle Irish is used to describe the unsettled form of the written form of this period. In comparison with Old Irish, Middle Irish is characterized by a simplification of the inflections of noun and verb and of the system of pronouns. This is the language of the period of Gaelic resurgence when Old Irish, Norse, Norman, and Old English were largely assimilated into a new Irish-speaking society. This form of Irish lasted from the thirteenth century to the seventeenth as the literary norm for the whole Gaelic world, which comprised Ireland, Gaelic Scotland, and the Isle of Man. During the seventeenth century, as the influence of the old literary schools and learned classes receded, the forms of the written language became increasingly regional in character. Even so, at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth, as the Irish revival gathered momentum, there were many who felt that Classical Modern Irish was still the most appropriate norm for literary purposes. It was necessary to redefine norms. These regional differences are now grouped into three major dialects: It is also the first language of Cuil Aodha in the Cork Mountains. A subdialect is spoken in An Rinn in Co. Waterford, and is quite strong. Munster is in many ways the most "archaic" dialect, retaining spellings and pronunciations from "pre-reform" Irish. Because of this, its conjugations are a little bit more complicated than the other dialects, but at the same time this adds a certain charm. A great wealth of Irish literature has been written in this dialect. A subdialect is spoken in some villages in Co. The Connacht dialect is in many aspects halfway between Ulster and Munster. This is, without doubt, the least archaic dialect, and is the quickest dialect to adopt new usages and borrowed words from English. It is also spoken somewhat further south in places like Gleann Cholm Cille , Teileann and Baile na Finne , but English is the first language is these villages. The Ulster dialect is quite different from other Irish dialects, a bit closer to Scottish Gaelic. Admittedly, the dialect shares many features in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation with Scottish Gaelic , which makes it a bit hard for speakers of other dialects to understand the speakers of this dialect.

Changing fortunes of the Irish Language in the 20th Century Following the establishment of the Irish Free State, the Irish government made it a national priority to help sustain existing Irish-speaking regions to prevent further decline of the language and to attempt to reestablish Irish as the everyday language of the people. Despite the early enthusiasm of these efforts, the methods and resources employed have largely proved ineffectual. Several reasons are to blame for the failure to halt the decline of Irish. After Irish independence had been achieved, people who had previously worked for the revival of the language relied too heavily on the government to restore Irish as the national language. Membership in Conradh na Gaeilge fell drastically; while there were League branches in , that number fell to within two years. Compounding the problem was that the government placed the entire burden of fostering the language squarely upon the educational system. The spelling reforms of and , which simplified the language and adopted Roman letter forms in place of the Gaelic script, also alienated an older generation of Irish speakers, many of whom had difficulty and often objected to reading news and literature in the new spellings and typefaces. Attitudes about the language also played a role. In the aftermath of the Irish Famine, the language became more closely associated with the plight of the rural poor and was viewed as an impediment to progress and economic improvement. There was a conviction held by many that English was necessary to get ahead, particularly for emigrants. Despite the efforts of Conradh na Gaeilge and the government, economic pressures and changes brought by industrialization continued to influence both the attitudes and language use of native Irish speakers in the rural areas of western Ireland. Where agriculture and fishing had once been the primary topics of everyday dialogue, changing work conditions now continuously introduce new terminology and concepts which are often more easily discussed in English or with English

words. Compounding the problem, senior managerial positions often go to English speakers from outside the Gaeltacht, reinforcing the perception of English being the language of opportunity. These attitudes persist today. In the west, where tourism draws thousands of foreigners per year, English continues to encroach on the Gaeltacht areas. This improved economic standing also means that Ireland stands to lose millions in EU subsidies, which will hit western counties i. The Future of the Irish Language The economic and social pressures which are all-too-prevalent in the poorer rural areas of the Gaeltacht will only continue to erode the use of Irish as we move into the early years of the twenty-first century. It is naive and short-sighted to rely primarily on these financially hard-pressed areas to keep Irish alive. The only long-term future for Irish is in its acceptance and use by the broader community, in urban and suburban Ireland, as well as abroad. These early years of the new millennium are a perfect time to begin fostering the learning and use of Irish in the broader community. Irish culture has begun to enjoy a new popularity among Irish people worldwide, and much of the stigma of poverty which formerly cast its pall over the Irish language is now gone. Adults worldwide now study Irish, and young parents in Ireland often send their children to schools which teach all subjects through the medium of Irish. We should also learn from the mistakes of the last century and not rely solely on the Irish government, whose efforts on behalf of the Irish language can at best be described as inadequate. Pursuing the same half-hearted and ineffective schemes of the last century is simply unacceptable; we cannot allow Irish to become a dead language learned only by scholars of Irish antiquities. Irish language organizations among the diaspora must also not be complacent. This new century must be a time of growth, not one of stagnation. Members of such organizations must attempt to invigorate the efforts of their group, and if necessary, replace their unimaginative leadership with those who are ambitious for Irish. As the focus shifts away from the Gaeltacht, we certainly risk losing unique idiom and dialect-specific vocabulary and pronunciation. But any language which evolves and grows with the passage of time will see such changes occur. We should certainly cherish the Gaeltacht-Irish of today in print, recordings, video and other modern media.

3: About the Irish Language

The Irish language (Gaeilge), also sometimes referred to as Gaelic or the Irish Gaelic language, is a Goidelic language (Gaelic) of the Indo-European language family originating in Ireland and historically spoken by the Irish people.

Dialects[edit] Irish is represented by several traditional dialects and by various varieties of "urban" Irish. The latter have acquired lives of their own and a growing number of native speakers. Differences between the dialects make themselves felt in stress, intonation, vocabulary and structural features. Newfoundland , in eastern Canada, had a form of Irish derived from the Munster Irish of the later 18th century see Newfoundland Irish. Of the three counties, the Irish spoken in Cork and Kerry are quiet similar while that of Waterford is more distinct. Some typical features of Munster Irish are: A copular construction involving ea "it" is frequently used. In effect the construction is a type of " fronting ". Eclipsis of f after sa: Stress falls in general found on the second syllable of a word when the first syllable contains a short vowel, and the second syllable contains a long vowel, diphthong, or is - e ach, e. Connacht Irish Historically, Connacht Irish represents the westernmost remnant of a dialect area which once stretched from east to west across the centre of Ireland. Much closer to the larger Connacht Gaeltacht is the dialect spoken in the smaller region on the border between Galway Gaillimh and Mayo Maigh Eo. Features in Connacht Irish differing from the official standard include a preference for verbal nouns ending in -achan, e. The non-standard pronunciation of the Gaeltacht Cois Fharráige area with lengthened vowels and heavily reduced endings gives it a distinct sound. In addition Connacht and Ulster speakers tend to include the "we" pronoun rather than use the standard compound form used in Munster, e. As in Munster Irish, some short vowels are lengthened and others diphthongised before -nn, -m, -rr, -rd, -ll, in monosyllabic words and in the stressed syllable of multisyllabic words where the syllable is followed by a consonant. This placing of the B-sound is also present at the end of words ending in vowels, such as acu pronounced as "acub" and leo pronounced as "lyohab". There is also a tendency to omit the "g" sound in words such as agam, agat and againn, a characteristic also of other Connacht dialects. All these pronunciations are distinctively regional. The pronunciation prevalent in the Joyce Country the area around Lough Corrib and Lough Mask is quite similar to that of South Connemara, with a similar approach to the words agam, agat and againn and a similar approach to pronunciation of vowels and consonants. But there are noticeable differences in vocabulary, with certain words such as doiligh difficult and foscailte being preferred to the more usual deacair and oscailte. The northern Mayo dialect of Erris Iorras and Achill Acaill is in grammar and morphology essentially a Connacht dialect, but shows some similarities to Ulster Irish due to large-scale immigration of dispossessed people following the Plantation of Ulster. Irish President Douglas Hyde was possibly one of the last speakers of the Roscommon dialect of Irish. The Irish-speaking communities in other parts of Ulster are a result of language revival " English-speaking families deciding to learn Irish. Ulster Irish sounds quite different to the other two main dialects. It shares several features with southern dialects of Scottish Gaelic and Manx , as well as having lots of characteristic words and shades of meanings. However, since the demise of those Irish dialects spoken natively in what is today Northern Ireland, it is probably an exaggeration to see present-day Ulster Irish as an intermediary form between Scottish Gaelic and the southern and western dialects of Irish. Leinster[edit] Down to the early 19th century and even later, Irish was spoken in all twelve counties of Leinster. The evidence furnished by placenames, literary sources and recorded speech indicates that there were three dialects spoken in Leinster. The main dialect was represented by a broad central belt stretching from west Connacht eastwards to the Liffey estuary and southwards to Wexford , though with many local variations. Two smaller dialects were represented by the Ulster speech of counties Meath and Louth, which extended as far south as the Boyne valley , and a Munster dialect found in Kilkenny and south Laois. The main dialect had characteristics which survive today only in the Irish of Connacht. It typically placed the stress on the first syllable of a word, and showed a preference found in placenames for the pronunciation cr where the standard spelling is cn. The word cnoc hill would therefore be pronounced croc. East Leinster showed the same diphthongisation or vowel lengthening as in Munster and Connacht Irish in words like poll hole , cill monastery , coill wood , ceann head , cam crooked

and dream crowd.

4: Irish language - Wikipedia

*Modern Irish Grammar [James Patrick Craig] on www.enganchecubano.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. This is a reproduction of a book published before This book may have occasional imperfections such as missing or blurred pages.*

Nasalisation[edit] Nasalisation, also known as eclipsis in Modern Irish grammar, is the prepending of a nasal consonant to the word. It was caused by a preceding word ending in a nasal consonant. Nasalisation was not indicated in the spelling except for initial voiced stops and vowels, where n- is prefixed m- before b. Certain case forms within a noun phrase, either of the noun or a preceding article or possessive. These include, at least: Nominative, vocative and accusative singular and dual of all neuters Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines Genitive plural of all genders Certain prepositions Certain infixed pronouns Aspiration and gemination[edit] Originally two different effects, aspiration and gemination came to be triggered in the same environments and thus can be treated as one type of mutation. Gemination was only occasionally indicated, and as geminated consonants were in the process of reducing to single consonants in Old Irish times, the mutation effect itself was waning. Aspiration was not indicated at all. Within a noun phrase, either of the noun or a preceding article or possessive, all forms that end in a vowel but do not trigger lenition or nasalisation. This includes, at least: Genitive singular of all feminines Vocative and accusative plural of all genders Certain prepositions Palatalisation[edit] Palatalisation as such is phonological, but it also has a grammatical aspect to it. Certain case forms of nouns automatically trigger palatalisation of the final consonant of a word, as do forms of verbs. Consequently, the quality of the final consonant can often vary between different forms of the same word. Palatalisation also occurs when a syllable that originally contained a front vowel undergoes syncope. Since Old Irish generalised the palatal or nonpalatal quality across an entire consonant cluster, when the front vowel was lost, the palatalisation of the preceding consonants "extended" to the entire resulting consonant cluster, consisting of both the consonants before the syncopated vowel and the consonants after it. This could lead to alternations between palatalisation in the syncopated forms and nonpalatalisation in the unsyncopated forms of a word. Palatalisation can sometimes affect the immediately preceding vowel: This is purely an orthographical distinction, and is not adhered to strongly in the manuscripts. Vowel affection[edit] Vowel affection is the changing of the height of a vowel to more closely match the height of the vowel in a following syllable. It is similar to Germanic umlaut , but more pervasive. It was originally a relatively automatic process, but because the final vowels were later mostly lost in the transition to Old Irish, the process became unpredictable and grammaticalised. Three different kinds of vowel affection existed in Old Irish, lowering, raising and u-insertion. Lowering was caused by a former low vowel a or o in the following syllable, and affected the underlying short vowels i and u, changing them to e and o respectively. It occurred regardless of the preceding consonants, and was thus rather common. Raising was the reverse development: It did not occur in all cases, as it was limited by the intervening consonants. It occurred only when at most one consonant stood between the syllables, and the consonant had to be voiced this included sonorants. The underlying vowel of a word remained when the vowel e formerly followed. For example, in masculine o-stems, the vocative singular form had e in the ending, but the other forms had other vowels which caused either raising or lowering. In neuter o-stems, all forms had raising or lowering endings, none originally contained e. This can make it difficult to ascertain what the original underlying vowel was. U-insertion was a third effect, caused by a formerly following u. The results were as follows: U-insertion did not necessarily occur in all cases where it might be expected, in particular when the u that might cause the effect was still present. Nouns[edit] Old Irish has 3 genders: The full range of forms is only evident in the noun phrase, where the article causes noun initial mutation, and where the initials of following adjectives are mutated according to the underlying case ending, though at times such mutations were not written. In addition, there was some syncretism in forms regardless of mutations: They descend from the Proto-Indo-European thematic inflection.

5: Old Irish grammar - Wikipedia

The grammar of Early Modern Irish is laid out in a series of grammatical tracts written by native speakers and intended to teach the most cultivated form of the language to student bards, lawyers, doctors, administrators, monks, and so on in Ireland and Scotland.

The Celtic languages documented and in part still spoken in modern times are Irish, Manx, and Scottish-Gaelic dialects of a previous intermediate linguistic stage known as Goidelic, together with Welsh, Cornish, and Breton which stem from a different intermediate linguistic stage called Brittonic or Brythonic. All these are usually called Insular Celtic languages because they evolved in the British Isles -- even if they were later carried back to the Continent, as in the case of Breton. To these six, we can add at least three more Celtic languages whose remains are limited to Antiquity, when they were spoken on the Continent; these are often grouped together as Continental Celtic, and were: Ancient Celtic from Italy including the so-called Lepontic dialect, the Ancient Celtic from Spain including the so-called Celtiberian dialect, and Gaulish Celtic including the Galatian dialect.

The First Celtic-Speaking Peoples Because there are many remarkable archaisms preserved in most of its dialects, Celtic seems to have branched off quite early from the Proto-Indo-European parent language. But the Celtic languages known from the early Middle Ages introduced quite a number of striking innovations, most of which can be accounted for by the colloquial style of everyday spoken language achieving prominence due to a very long period of oral tradition. In particular, we can nowadays assume that the oldest Celtic was spoken in Central Europe and Northern Italy. The language seems to have then spread to the Iberian Peninsula since Celtic remains found there, in particular the dialect from Celtiberia, are slightly less conservative. A little later, we find in Italy a moderately innovating Celtic variety which includes the dialect known as Lepontic but is still a far cry from the strongly innovating language variety known as Gaulish, and even more so from Brittonic the most innovative Celtic branch. It seems that, in the period before these last two varieties were fully developed, Old Celtic was taken to Ireland where it gradually turned into Goidelic, sharing quite a few isoglosses with the more innovative Gaulish and Brittonic varieties but at the same time becoming the most archaic variety of Insular, i. More details and bibliography are found in: *Estudios griegos e indoeuropeos*, 16, , pp.

First, it is the best known variety among the earliest surfacing stages of the Goidelic branch. Literature and Other Sources in Medieval Irish Having emerged from the less characterized stages of the so-called proto- and primitive Goidelic, surfacing respectively in the 2nd and in the 5th-7th centuries AD, Old Irish was used from the 8th to the 10th century AD to compose a quite huge variety of textual genres, even if most of the texts were transmitted to us only in much later manuscripts. Also its initial stage, called Archaic Irish and dated to the 6th and 7th century AD, is known only indirectly. In fact almost the only Old Irish documents that were written down at the time they were composed, and thus reached us in their original form, are Irish glosses to Latin religious or grammatical texts that were copied and used by Irish monks in Continental European monasteries: Poetry, mainly alliterative in the oldest period, is partly found scattered in such manuscripts, partly inserted in larger prose texts which it integrates, or of which it might even have constituted the earliest core. Most of the earlier Irish tales are in fact prosimetra -- mixtures of prose and verse. Their titles usually hint at the literary genre represented: An important group of stories is centered on the dynasty of the Ulaid in northeastern Ireland, supposed to have been ruled by a king Conchobar residing in the palace of Emain Macha identified with the archaeological site of Navan Fort near Armagh: Cu Chulainn is the main hero, and this group is usually referred to as the Ulster Cycle. Other tales are centered on supernatural beings with magical powers that have been traced back to old Celtic deities; these fall into what is called the mythological group or Cycle. Sometimes an historical person, typically a king, is made the hero of a tale that is mostly pure legend; these stories comprise the historical group, although the boundary between history and legend cannot be fixed. A fourth and comparatively later group of stories is centered on the mythical hero Finn mac Cumhaill and his followers, a fraternity of free-lancing warriors whose activities cut across tribal boundaries. Yet other tales are adaptations of Classical texts to the insular vernacular world, and among these we find an Irish Iliad, Odyssey, Aeneid, Achilleid, Pharsalia, Thebaid, a story of the Minotaur, of

Hercules, and of the conquest of Troy. Genealogical and annalistic literature should also be mentioned, with the Annals of Ulster and Tigernach covering the earlier period. Lesson Plan Our text selections contrive to give an idea of the variety and beauty of the literature written in medieval Irish. Afterwards, the core parts of a lyrical short tale are presented, whose protagonist is a very gifted medieval poetess Comrac Liadaine ocus Cuirithir in Lesson 5. Next we encounter a piece of didactic and more archaic poetry aimed at instructing the leader of a community Audacht Morainn in Lesson 6. The authors of this series have tried to unify the various spelling policies adopted by the editors of the printed texts into a consistent whole; some hints as to the actual pronunciation are given in the first two lessons. [Related Language Courses at UT Online](#) language courses for college credit are offered through the University Extension link opens in a new browser window. The Old Irish Lessons.

6: Cramlap: Modern Irish

A Grammar of the Modern Irish Language: Designed for the Use of the Classes in the University of Dublin Charles Henry Hamilton Wright Williams & Norgate, - Irish language - 60 pages.

It may also come to a few silly misunderstandings at the doors to public toilets: From these points, it already becomes clear that Irish is rather not an English dialect, but something completely different. All 3 belong to the Indo-European languages. This is, mind you, a very large language family which spans from Iceland to Ceylon. Among those counted are the Germanic, Celtic, Slavic, Baltic, Romance, Northern Indian, Iranian, Greek, Armenian, Albanian and many other languages. The latter became extinct already in the time of the Roman Empire. It was to this group that languages such as Gaulish belonged. Insular Celtic lived on due to a lack of extensive Roman influence. A second division is made: To the Brythonic belong: Even Breton is, in a sense, an "insular Celtic" language, because their people settled over from Britannia in the early Middle Ages to the Mainland. Aside from these two most important languages there is also Shelta Traveller Cant, Sheldru, the language of the Irish Travellers. It bases in the vocabulary of Irish, is technically also a Celtic language and is used by approx. Scottish Gaelic is, however, not spoken in Ireland. Although, some constructs of Ulster Irish come close to the Scottish Gaelic through Scottish immigrants e. On the Isle of Rathlin, after a resettling of the island, more Scottish Gaels than any other group, so that their dialect was Scottish Gaelic, though this is no longer active since the end of the 19th Century. Gaelic Gaelic Goidelic was originally only spoken in Ireland. It spread out over to the Isle of Man and Scotland, where once the Picts lived a partly pre-Celtic, partly Celtic people about whose languages is not much known. From this there are today three languages: These 3 split first in the Middle Ages and have remained quite similar, and there is generally no need for additional translation for an understanding it is comparable to the similarity between German and Dutch. The Gaelic languages all shared ultimately the same fate, namely the gradual displacement by English, for the larger England attained the rule over the British Isles and kept this until well into the 20th Century. Gaelic had no place therein, and was banned out of public life, the schools, the courts etc.. Since the early 17th Cent. The following aristocrats were mostly immigrants from England with land claims. In the post instituted schools, it was all but explicitly forbidden to speak Gaelic, and it was certainly frowned upon. The famine from in Ireland and the following waves of emigration which most greatly impacted the poor, Gaelic-speaking rural population, led finally up to a virtual extinction of the language in the 19th Century, although in the beginning of the 19th Cent. Those who wanted to emigrate, had to be able to speak English and those who wanted to stay even more so, so that Irish-speaking parents adopted the slogan "Keep Irish from the children". Also not to be ignored is the role of the Catholic Church, which was rather more interested in English-speaking and therewith better adaptable for missionary work members. In addition, the Irish Nation defined itself less through its ethnic roots as through its Catholic confession, so there was no need for the Gaelic language in order to separate themselves from the English. It was first later, at the end of the 19th Century, that the interest in Celtic culture and language reawakened, and by then the majority of the population was already English-speaking. Only in remote areas, in which "the Empire" had no great interest, remained untouched. It is for this reason that language-isolated areas developed. These lie far apart from one another, and are today called "Gaeltachts". One cannot say that the Irish are to be held accountable for "all too willingly" giving up their language; it is rather remarkable, that Irish managed to survive. The differences are much smaller than, say, those between Plattdeutsch and Bavarian. It is also being attempted to push this standard up against the dialects in order to unify the language. There is not a great difference e. Due to a lack of written history, not much is able to be said about Goidelic, the language of those early Celts. From the time period from around - AD there are a few inscriptions in Ogham-Script, these are however not very numerous and contain mainly names. First with the Christianisation, are the earliest manuscripts to be found in Latin script. This form of speech, Old Irish an tSean-Ghaeilge was used from approx. This was the "golden age" of Ireland, the time of cloisters and high culture, while outside of Ireland a rather culturally dark epoch after the period migration reigned. Irish was one of the first European languages, in which, next to Latin and Greek, a noteworthy amount

of literature was created. This cultural blossoming ended with the invasion of the Vikings; also the Irish language was hit hard by this downfall, what also led to a simplification in the beforehand very complicated rules governing inflexion. Only a few Scandinavian words were incorporated e. Following the Norman invasion it came to yet another blossoming of Gaelic culture, so that the immigrant Normans were actually assimilated and even took on the Irish language as one used to say: Many words of the Norman French were taken up e. It split itself off from Scottish Gaelic completely and reduced its previous higher status to assume that of a strictly rural language. With the victories of Cromwell and and the following importation of Protestants, and the revoking of the power of the last of the Gaelic aristocracy in the 17th Century. The dialectical differences that had existed beforehand now greatened and dominated the language and the literary tradition crumbled completely. First again in the 19th Century awoke interest in the language anew, and with it a new literature. The defenders of the Irish vernacular triumphed against Traditionalists, who intended to revive the Classical Irish. Despite this, traditional and antiquated forms remained in both grammar and spelling. A spelling reform was first to be a success in Rath Cairn Rathcarran 2. According to the Census, 1. Scottish Gaelic is spoken by just under 70 and mainly on the westward lying islands Hebriden and in the Highlands. Not to be confused with Gaelic is Scots or Lallans , a germanic language related to English language of the scottish Lowlands. Manx Gaelic, since the death of the 93 year-old Ned Madrell in the year , has amongst the 80 inhabitants of the Isle of Man Ellan Vannin not a single native speaker. It is, by a few hundred people, increasingly being maintained, or better, revived. According to the census there were Manx speakers, and in the last census in already 2. The orthography demonstrates even in modern script some unique qualities. So, the letters j, k, q, v, w, x, y, z are missing completely except in foreign words. All other consonants exist practically twofold, because one differentiates between a "broad" and "slender" consonant. Furthermore, the "ch" is already the only sound, where any difference is noticed in German. In Irish, the differences are much more important. Unfortunately, the latin alphabet only contains one of each "b", "c", "d", "f", etc. To make the difference clear between "broad" and "slender" in writing, one takes the aid of vowels. Preceding and following a slender one writes a slender vowel e, i , next to a broad consonant, broad vowels a, o, u. Should a broad vowel be framed by 2 slender phonemes, one must, for better or for worse, write 3 vowels, namely: As one can see, we automatically take a slender b before e, i and a broad before a, o, u. In Irish it is only allowed to speak before a broad vowel a slender consonant and vice versa! So, form your lips again to a "bi" but then say "bo", without changing your lip formation. Keep in mind that these are never strong, clear y and u, and heaven forbid you go saying "byo" or "buoy"! It is principally impossible, that a consonant preceded by "i" and then directly followed by an "a". To many, this is a help: Others are a bit odd: In older texts one finds, in place of the h, a dot above the lenited consonant it looks then much clearer then. Often one finds at the beginning of a word combinations like gc, bp, nd, dt, bhf, but have no fear, one only needs here to pronounce the first consonant, also g, b, n, d, bh a lenited b. The second is left out "eclipsed" as the latin speakers say, and from this comes the name of this phenomenon: To simply not write the second consonant, is not something to wish for, for it helps immensely in the recognisability of the word. Lenition and eclipsis are grammar rules that govern the mutations of words depending on the case, number, with or without article etc. Irish alters words not only at the beginning but also at the end. This is a bit frightening, for one must finally recognize a word from the spoken language by its stem. Changes to this make the task of the learner all the more difficult. He who starts swearing here, can recall learning German. This does not apply to the accentuation, but to the length of the vowels, without such marks, the vowels are mostly spoken as short. This has a very good reason. As a consolation it should be said that before the spelling reform in the 50s the written word was much more complicated and significantly different from the spoken.

7: Irish language, alphabet and pronunciation

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This post contains affiliate links. Although everyone in Ireland speaks English, there are regions known as the Gaeltacht that use Irish as the main language of communication, both in businesses and in families. It uses the same alphabet as other European languages although it is the only language that still traditionally uses its own special font. The phonetics pronunciation based on spelling are quite different, and this usually scares a lot of people. But you can learn the differences very quickly and after that they are consistent unlike in English, so you can read any given text aloud pretty well after a small amount of study. The language also interestingly has no word for yes or no like in Thai for example. We simply repeat the verb of the question, e. Did you eat your lunch? There are a few tricky aspects of the language that merit a mention though. You know the way in most languages you change the end of words in certain situations? Well in Irish we very merrily change the beginning. This is something common in other Celtic languages and adds to a nice flow between words. However, thanks to the magic of initial mutations we can change the start of words in many situations! This would be the vocative case for the linguists out there. You see, we keep the letter of the original base word e. However, despite the huge differences, like in some other languages, words are formed logically using prefixes, suffixes and combinations of roots. And then sometimes we just separate the words in an easy way. Exit is simply bealach amach way out. Also, because of the initial mutations mentioned above, capital letters upper case can occur as the second or third letter in a word! The best part of all, is that Irish speakers are generally always happy to help! Whether in Ireland or abroad, there are usually some books in major libraries on learning Irish. You can also change the language of your computer and software to be entirely in Irish! Then of course there are lots of sites online to help you practice your Irish. Here is a small sample: The audio has some typical phrases that you can repeat. Gramadach na Gaeilge – An extremely in-depth look at Irish grammar. Perhaps more interesting to linguists due to how extremely detailed it gets! Irish Gaelic Translator forum – Get an almost instantaneous answer from a native or fluent speaker of the language on simple questions and short translations. This forum is very active and will be a great help! This is the best way to hear what the language actually sounds like! Watching TV shows originally in Irish! There are many more categories, but the site is navigated entirely in Irish of course. Irish dictionary – free online dictionary. Not good for basic words, but gives declensions and plurals for a lot of words; for intermediate and higher level learners. You can also check out a video I made about my experience in the Gaeltacht. The course I took was given by Oideas Gael in Donegal and takes place regularly every year for all levels. You can watch it in both English and Irish here] I hope this post gives those of you out there curious about the Irish language a little hint into how to learn and use it! Let me know in the comments about your own Irish learning experiences!

8: Modern Irish Grammar: www.enganchecubano.com: J.P. Craig: Books

Modern Irish is very different from the other languages discussed in this volume, in that it is not a language which suffers from poor support: questions on the Irish census about Irish language universally show a strong positive.

Verb endings are also in transition. Thus Early Modern Irish contrasted *molaidh* "[he] praises [once]" from *molann* "[he] praises regularly", both contrasting with the zero-marked dependent form used after particles such as the negative as well as with an overt pronoun cf. The Tudor dynasty sought to subdue its Irish citizens. The Tudor rulers attempted to do this by restricting the use of the Irish language while simultaneously promoting the use of the English language. English expansion in Ireland, outside of the Pale, was attempted under Mary I, but ended with poor results. She was proficient in several languages and is reported to have expressed a desire to understand Irish, so a primer was prepared on her behalf by Sir Christopher Nugent , ninth baron of Delvin. He used a slightly modified form of the language shared by Ireland and Scotland at the time and also used the Roman script. The type used was adapted to what has become known as the Irish script. This was published in by the printer Francke. The Church of Ireland a member of the Anglican communion undertook the first publication of Scripture in Irish. The first Irish translation of the New Testament was begun by Nicholas Walsh, Bishop of Ossory , who worked on it until his murder in The work was continued by John Kearny, his assistant, and Dr. Their work was printed in The work of translating the Old Testament was undertaken by William Bedel " , Bishop of Kilmore , who completed his translation within the reign of Charles the First , however it was not published until , in a revised version by Narcissus Marsh " , Archbishop of Dublin. William Bedell had undertaken a translation of the Book of Common Prayer in An Irish translation of the revised prayer book of was effected by John Richardson " and published in Although the first written signs of Scottish Gaelic having diverged from Early Modern Irish appear as far back as the 12th century annotations of the Book of Deer , Scottish Gaelic did not appear in writing or print on a significant scale until the translation of the New Testament into Scottish Irish. Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. February Learn how and when to remove this template message The distribution of the Irish language in This was because most economic opportunity for most Irish people arose at that time within the United States of America and the British Empire , which both used English. Contemporary reports spoke of Irish-speaking parents actively discouraging their children from speaking the language, and encouraging the use of English instead. This practice continued long after independence, as the stigma of speaking Irish remained very strong. It has been argued, however, that the sheer number of Irish speakers in the nineteenth century and their social diversity meant that both religious and secular authorities had to engage with them. This meant that Irish, rather than being marginalised, was an essential element in the modernization of Ireland, especially before the Great Famine of the s. Irish speakers insisted on using the language in the law courts even when they knew English , and it was common to employ interpreters. It was not unusual for magistrates, lawyers and jurors to employ their own knowledge of Irish. Fluency in Irish was often necessary in commercial matters. Political candidates and political leaders found the language invaluable. Irish was an integral part of the "devotional revolution" which marked the standardisation of Catholic religious practice, and the Catholic bishops often partly blamed for the decline of the language went to great lengths to ensure there was an adequate supply of Irish-speaking priests. Irish was widely and unofficially used as a language of instruction both in the local pay-schools often called hedge schools and in the National Schools. Down to the s and even afterwards, Irish speakers could be found in all occupations and professions. The Gaelic league managed to reach 50, members by and also successfully pressured the government into allowing the Irish language as a language of instruction the same year. The revival of interest in the language coincided with other cultural revivals, such as the foundation of the Gaelic Athletic Association and the growth in the performance of plays about Ireland in English, by such luminaries as W. By only approximately , people spoke Irish with only just 20, of those speakers being monolingual Irish speakers; how many had emigrated is unknown, but it is probably safe to say that a larger number of speakers lived elsewhere [22] This change in demographics can be attributed to the Great Famine

[23] as well as the increasing social pressure to speak English. The version of English spoken in Ireland, known as Hiberno-English bears similarities in some grammatical idioms with Irish. Writers who have used Hiberno-English include J. This national cultural revival of the late 19th century and early 20th century matched the growing Irish radicalism in Irish politics. Many of those, such as Pearse, de Valera, W. Douglas Hyde had mentioned the necessity of "de-anglicizing" Ireland, as a cultural goal that was not overtly political. Hyde resigned from its presidency in protest when the movement voted to affiliate with the separatist cause; it had been infiltrated by members of the secretive Irish Republican Brotherhood, and had changed from being a purely cultural group to one with radical nationalist aims. While the decree was passed unanimously, it was never implemented, probably because of the outbreak of the Irish civil war. The government refused to implement the recommendations of the Gaeltacht Commission, which included restoring Irish as the language of administration in such areas. As the role of the state grew, it therefore exerted tremendous pressure on Irish speakers to use English. This was only partly offset by measures which were supposed to support the Irish language. For instance, the state was by far the largest employer. A qualification in Irish was required to apply for state jobs. However, this did not require a high level of fluency, and few public employees were ever required to use Irish in the course of their work. On the other hand, state employees had to have perfect command of English and had to use it constantly. Because most public employees had a poor command of Irish, it was impossible to deal with them in Irish. If an Irish speaker wanted to apply for a grant, obtain electricity, or complain about being over-taxed, they would typically have had to do so in English. As late as , a Bord na Gaeilge report noted " Some politicians claimed that the state would become predominantly Irish-speaking within a generation. In , Irish was made a compulsory subject for the Intermediate Certificate exams, and for the Leaving Certificate in . The principal ideologue was Professor Timothy Corcoran of University College Dublin, who "did not trouble to acquire the language himself". In the following decades, support for the language was progressively reduced. Irish has undergone spelling and script reforms since the s to simplify the language. The orthographic system was changed and the traditional Irish script fell into disuse. These reforms were met with a negative reaction and many people argued that these changes marked a loss of the Irish identity in order to appease language learners. Another reason for this backlash was that the reforms forced the current Irish speakers to relearn how to read Irish in order to adapt to the new system. Overall, the percentage of people speaking Irish as a first language has decreased since independence, while the number of second-language speakers has increased. In , Enda Kenny, formerly an Irish teacher, called for compulsory Irish to end at the Junior Certificate level, and for the language to be an optional subject for Leaving Certificate students. This provoked considerable comment, and Taoiseach Bertie Ahern argued that it should remain compulsory. The most significant development in recent decades has been a rise in the number of urban Irish speakers. This community, which has been described as well-educated and mostly upper-class, is largely based on an independent school system called *gaelscoileanna* at primary level which teaches entirely through Irish. It has been suggested that fluency in Irish, with its social and occupational advantages, may now be the mark of an urban elite. Irish language in Northern Ireland Since the partition of Ireland, the language communities in the Republic and Northern Ireland have taken radically different trajectories. While Irish is officially the first language of the Republic, in Northern Ireland the language has little legal status at all. Irish in Northern Ireland has declined rapidly, with its traditional Irish speaking communities being replaced by learners and *Gaelscoileanna*. A recent development has been the interest shown by some Protestants in East Belfast who found out Irish was not an exclusively Catholic language and had been spoken by Protestants, mainly Presbyterians, in Ulster. In the 19th century fluency in Irish was at times a prerequisite to become a Presbyterian Minister.

9: Irish Dictionary Online Translation LEXILOGOS >>

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