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Professor of Welsh at the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth.

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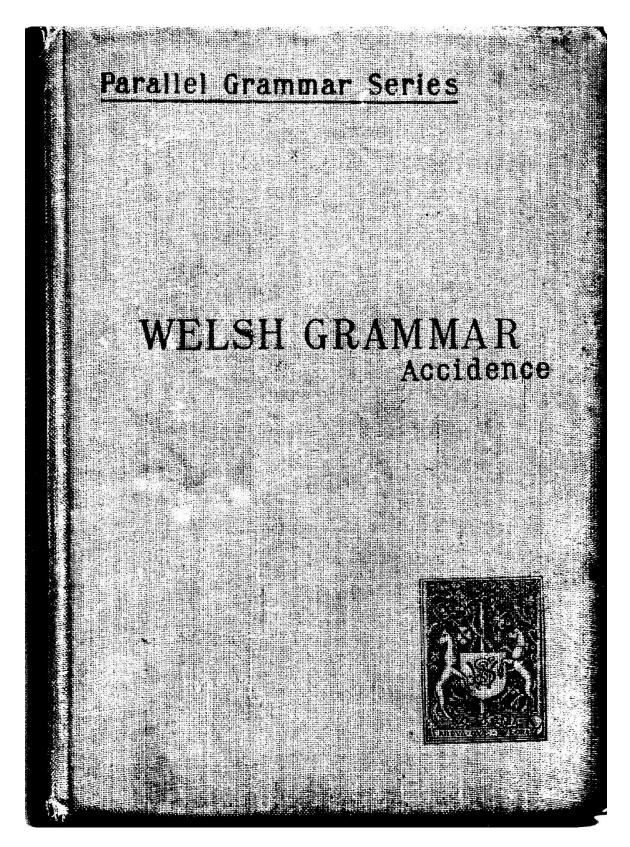
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WELSH GRAMMAR, FOR SCHOOLS

BASED ON THE PRINCIPLES AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE GRAMMATICAL SOCIETY

E. <u>ANWYL</u> M.A., Oxon.

Professor of Welsh at the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth;
Late Classical Scholar of Oriel College, Oxford;
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PART I-ACCIDENCE

THIRD EDITION



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PARALLEL GRAMMAR SERIES

EDITED BY

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PREFACE

THE present Welsh Grammar is designed to meet a long-felt want both for a short practical grammar of the language, and for a condensed and systematic summary of the results of Modern Comparative Grammar as applied to the study of Welsh.

The Author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to previous Welsh Grammars, and to the Report of the Committee upon Welsh Orthography, as well as to the writings of Zeuss, Rhŷs and other Celtic philologists.

To Prof. Sonnenschein, the General Editor of the Parallel Grammar Series, the Author feels that he is specially indebted for the cordial and willing aid which he has given at all stages of the book's progress. The Author's best thanks are moreover due to Prof. Rhŷs, Prof. Powel, and Prof. John Morris Jones for their many valuable suggestions and aid in the correction of proof-sheets. To Prof. Rhŷs' lectures on the Mabinogion at Oxford the author owes his first scientific introduction to Welsh Philology, and many a conversation with him and with Profs. Powel and Morris Jones has been of valuable service in the composition of the present work.

E. ANWYL.

ABERYSTWYTH,

November 1, 1897.

The Author has availed himself of the opportunity of a Second Edition, which has been called for almost immediately on publication, to make a few corrections and additions.

December 15th, 1897.

E. A.

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INTRODUCTION.

- 1 Welsh belongs to the Celtic branch of the Indo-European family of languages.
- 2 The Celtic branch falls into two groups:
 - r. The Goidelic, consisting of Erse or Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, and Manx Gaelic.
 - 2 The Brythonic, consisting of Welsh, Breton, and Cornish (now extinct).
- 3 The languages within each of these groups resemble one another closely, but the two groups themselves, in spite of their kinship, present many important points of difference.
 - N.B.—The Welsh with which this grammar deals is that of the Modern Literary language.

Alphabet.

4	A (a)	F (ef)	Ll (ell)	S (es)
	B (bi)	Ff (eff)	M (em)	T (ti)
	C (ec)	G (eg)	N (en)	Th (eth)
	Ch (ech)	Ng (eng)	O (o)	U (u)
	D (di)	H (aitsh or hi)	P (pi)	W(w)
	Dd (edd)	I (i)	Ph (fh)	Y (y)
	E (e)	L (el)	R (er)	

OBS.—In the Welsh settlement in Patagonia, V is frequently used for F, and F for Ff.

On Sounds.

A. INDIVIDUAL SOUNDS.

Letters are signs or symbols representing sounds.

In Welsh, the symbols used in the written language represent the sounds of the spoken language far more accurately than in English: ch, dd, ff, ng, ll, ph and th, being counted for this purpose as single letters. Welsh may, therefore, to all intents and purposes, be said to be phonetically written. The only letters which have more than one sound are e, u, and y:—e has, in some diphthongs, the sound of y,* in others the sound of u*; y has, under certain circumstances, the sound of u*; and both u and y have in some words the sound of i.

Classification of Sounds.

- Articulate sounds are of two kinds:—
 - I. Vowel Sounds, produced by vibration of the vocal chords, accompanied by the articulation proper to each vowel.
 - II. Consonant Sounds, produced by means of the lips (Labials), teeth (Dentals), palate (Palatals), throat or back part of the palate (Gutturals), tongue (Linguals), nose (Nasals), or some combination of these parts, with or without vibration of the edges of the vocal chords.

^{*} In North Wales only.

Comparative Table of Welsh and English Sounds.

(a) Simple Vowel Sounds.

(b) Consonant Sounds.

Sounds.	ENGLISH EXAMPLES.	WELSH EXAMPLES.
A-Sounds.	māmma fāther	Short in mam
SG (i.) Open (ii.) Half- open	wět	Short in nërth Long in llë
(i.) Open	bIt (nearly) machine	Short in curo Long in cur Long in blin Short in pin
(i.) Open (ii.) Half- open	hŏt	Short in ton Long in son
U-Sounds.	rûle, fool (nearly) good	Long in swn
Neutral Vowel	misĕry cūrl	Short in ffyddlon Long in fy

Observe that the sounds of a in English man, and of o in English no (close o); of open o as in cause; of open e as in there; of close e as in fate, are wanting in Welsh, or appear only in dialects.

Sounds.	ENGLISH EXAMPLES.	WELSH EXAMPLES.
LABIALS	bay pay way	byd pen gwynt
LABIO- DENT-	vine fine	afon ffol, gorphen
DENTALS	do to thy thigh	dos tan addaw peth sel
PALA-	stuglicis (seal shoe yes	ei si o (in some dialects iaith
GUTTURALS	V Set Good Good	ger ceffyl gwr cath achos
LINGU-	low (wanting) row	alaw llaw erw rhaw
NASALS	(wanting) '' my nigh sing	mhen nhad nghael mam nes ngwr
Rough Breath- ing	house	hen

Open' means formed with a wide passage for the voice. 'Close',, ,, ,, narrow ,, ,,

8 Note 1.—y is pronounced like Welsh u:—

- (a) In monosyllables: e.g. sydd, is; dyn, man; except in the proclitics yr (ydd); y; ys; fy, my; dy, thy; and myn, by (used in asseverations).
- (b) In the final syllable of a word of more than one syllable: e.g, sefyll, standing: estyn, reaching; perthyn, belonging.

(c) In the last syllable but one of a word, before a vowel:

e.g. hyawdl, eloquent; dyall, understanding.

(d) In the last syllable but one, or the last syllable but two of many words, when it is preceded by w:

e.g. gwyneb, sace; gwyddau, geese; gwyntoedd, winds.

- 9 NOTE 2.—In the greater part of Mid Wales and South Wales u is pronounced as i, and sometimes as y.
- NOTE 3.—u is pronounced as i throughout Wales in—ugain, deugain, union, rhywun, cynnull, bugail, duwiol, annuwiol, ieuenctid, diluw, trueni, Deheudir, cuddio.
- NOTE 4.—y is pronounced as i throughout Wales in—disgybl, disgyn, diwyg, diwygio, diwygwyr, dilyn, gilydd, megys, dinystr, disgwyl, gyda, meddyg, gloywi, tebyg, ceryg, llewyg, llewys, plisgyn: dychymyg, amryw, rhywun, cyw, yw, ydyw, efengyl, gwylio, dryw, cyfryw, ystryw, distryw, heddyw, benyw, rhelyw, llinyn, menyg, diddym. This occurs either (a) when the vowel of the preceding syllable is i; or (b) when the y is preceded or followed by g; or (c) when the y is followed by w.

NOTE 5.—Il seems to be pronounced by pressing the lower side of the front part of the tongue against the roof of the mouth and emitting the breath over its sides, without vibration of the vocal chords.

NOTE 6.—w and i are used both as vowels and as consonants: e.g., in gwynt and iaith w and i are consonants.

Diphthongs.

- 2 r. A diphthong is produced by running two different vowel sounds together so as to make a single syllable.
- 2. The first of the two vowels of a diphthong may be short or long.
 - 3. The sounds a, e, o, y, form diphthongs with i, u, w.

,, ,, i, u, ,, ,, w. ... sound w forms ,, ,, u.

REMARKS.

IN N. Wales.—In the diphthongs written ae, oe, e is pronounced as u.

,, ,, ,, ,, ei, eu, e ,, ,, y.†

,, ,, ,, ,, wy, yw, y ,, ,, u.

† Except in a few words, chiefly monosyllables, when e has its own sound.

14

^{*} A proclitic is a word which has no accent of its own, but is joined for the purpose of accentuation to the word which follows it.

Tables of Diphthongs.

15	A-D	iphi	thon	gs.
----	-----	------	------	-----

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Sounds.	Examples.
ăi āi	gwaith â'i
ău ,, āu †	aur hiraeth gwāudd cāe
ăw āw†	awr llāw

E-Diphthongs.

Sounds.	Examples.
ěi	ein
ěu	gweu
"	te y rn *
ěw	blewyn
ēw†	llēw

0-Diphthongs.

Sounds.	Examples.
ŏi	tr oi
ŏu	o'u
" ōu†	00rach
ou 7	ŏe d
ŏw	dowch

I-Diphthong.

Sound.	Example.
ĭw	lliw

Y-Diphthongs.

Sounds	Examples.
ÿi †	einioes
ğu †	gweunydd
ўw	b yw yd
l	

W-Diphthongs.

Sounds.	Examples.
w̃u	bwydo
w̃u	rhwyd

U-Diphthongs.

Sounds.	Examples.
ŭw	Duw
"	b yw

NOTE.—yw is not unfrequently pronounced as ow; e.g. Howel for Hywel.

* The name of the district Lleyn is pronounced Llūn. † In N. Wales only.

OBS.—Rules for determining the quantity of a vowel or a diphthong are given in the Appendix.

N.B.—In the sequel, the quantity of only long vowels and diphthongs will be indicated, where necessary, thus :- tad, mae, ā. Short vowels and diphthongs will be left unmarked.

Further Classification of Consonants.

- 16 Consonant Sounds may also be classed as:
 - r. Voiced, i.e. Accompanied by vibration of the edges of the vocal chords.
 - 2. Voiceless, i.e. Not accompanied by vibration of the edges of the vocal chords.

Contrast the sound b (voiced) with the sound p (voiceless).

17 Or again as :-

- r. Momentary, i.e. formed by a kind of explosion, when the breath is again set free after a momentary closure of the mouth. During this momentary closure there is a very brief interval of silence; hence their common name, 'mutes': e.g. b, p, d, t, g, c.
- 2. Continuous, i.e. formed by a stream of air rubbing against a narrow passage of the mouth. The continuous sounds represented in Welsh by i, w, f, ff (ph), dd, th, ch, s, are generally called 'spirants.' The continuous sounds represented by l, ll; r, rh; m, mh; n, nh; ng, ngh, are generally called 'liquids,' but ll, rh, mh, nh, ngh have also a marked resemblance to the spirants.

Classified Table of Consonants.

			LAB-	LABIO- DENTALS.	DENTALS.	PALAT-	GUTT	URALS.
	0						Palatal.	Velar.
Mann	MOTES	Voiceless Voiced	pen byd		tād dyn		cēs ger	cāth gwr
SPIR-	ANTS	Voiceless Voiced	gwyn	phen, ffydd fyd	thād, sēl Sib ddyn	eisio ilants i aith		chāth
DS	NASALS	Voiceless* Voiced	mhen myd		nhād nyn	union(?)		nghāth ngŵr
Liguids	LINGUALS	Voiceless* Voiced		111	llāw, rh lāw, rā			

^{*} The voiceless liquids are pronounced with considerable consonantal force, and the strong emission of breath which accompanies them gives them a spirant character.

B. Sounds in Connected Speech.

- 19 r. Speech consists, as a rule, not of isolated words or sounds, but of groups of words, or more properly, 'breath-groups'—i.e. a certain number of words connected by sense and uttered in one breath. The unit of connected speech is then, not the word, but the word-group; e.g., in English, 'what-do-you-want?'
- 2. It must be remembered that in any language the same word has at least two pronunciations: (1) when isolated or emphasized; (2) when used in ordinary connected speech: e.g. fy becomes fy and even y in colloquial Welsh, as in ymhén, my head.
- 3. In many languages, form (2) of a given word differs from form (1) in its ending; but, in the Celtic languages, Welsh included, it is the beginning of a word that changes.
- 4. The laws which regulate these changes will be given under 'Initial Mutation.' § 57, etc., and Appendix.

I. ARTICULATION.

Care should be taken to pronounce the vowels, even of unaccented syllables, clearly. The consonants should be pronounced somewhat more lightly than in English, yet with perfect distinctness. The long vowels are never diphthongized as they are in English.

2. ACCENT (TONIC).

(a) Word Accent.

- 24 1. The Accent or Tonic Accent is the stress laid upon a particular syllable in a word. As in English, the Accent may be Principal (') or Secondary ('), or the syllable may be unaccented: e.g. bendigedig, dl-lywódraeth.
- 25 2. The Principal Accent, in Welsh, almost invariably falls on the last syllable but one. This syllable is generally called the penult or penultima; the syllable before it is called the antepenultima, and the last syllable the ultima.

NOTE.—Some small words (except when emphatic) have no accent: e.g. a, yr, y, yn, fy, dy, etc. If joined for purposes of accentuation to the word which follows it, such a word is called *proclitic*; if joined to the word which precedes it, it is called enclitic.

Words Accented on the Last Syllable.

26 The accent falls on the last syllable:—

- In words whose last syllable is the result of contraction:
 e.g. ymdrói (for dró-i); Cymrāeg (for -á-eg); bywhānt (for -há-ant).
- 27 2. In some words the first syllable of which is ys- or ym-: e.g. ystén, ystánc, ymlýn, ymwél.
- 3. In the emphatic reduplicated pronouns, myss, tydi,* etc.

4. In some combinations of prepositions with nouns:
e.g. hebláw, isláw, drachéfn.

30 5. In some English words, as apêl, appeal, and sometimes in dyléd, debt.

Words Accented on the Last Syllable but Two.

These are:—

31 r. Words in which an w, the remnant of the Old Brythonic termination, -uos, -uā, -uon, has become a separate syllable:

e.g. méddw-dod, gwéddw-dod, bédw-lwyn. In spoken Welsh w in such words is frequently elided.

32 2. Words ending in 1 and r after b, d, or g. Here 1 and r are practically treated as vowels, or as consonants accompanied by a very slight vowel sound: e.g. bánadl, ffénestr. In spoken Welsh they are often elided.

e.g. perig (for perygl), ffenest (for ffenestr).

33 3. Certain words borrowed from English, which preserve the English accent: e.g. mélodi, héresi, philósophi.

H before the Accented Syllable.

34 1. When the syllable before that which bears the accent ends in a vowel, or in m, n, ng, or r, the accented vowel is often preceded by h: e.g. cenhédloedd, ohérwydd, cynghánedd.

2. As this takes place somewhat irregularly and dialectally, care should be taken to observe carefully in what words h is thus used.

N.B.—For the same use of h before individual words see § 68.

The Accent in Compound Words.

36 1. Most compound words are accented regularly: e.g. trýmlais, blínfyd.

^{*} Rarely myfi, tydi, etc.

2. In some compounds, chiefly those having for their first element a prepositional prefix, the component parts have not perfectly coalesced, and the prefix in consequence bears a strong secondary accent: e.g. cyn-lýwydd, dì-sidio, rhàg-arweiniad, cyd-fýned.

(b) Group-Accent.

38 1. Owing to the tendency in Welsh to rhythmical intonation, the correct pronunciation of breath-groups is not easily acquired.

2. This intonation varies very considerably with different districts, but it usually causes the last syllable of a breath-group to be pronounced with a higher tone than the rest, while the chief stress-accent of the group tends to fall upon the last accented syllable.

(c) Thought-Accent.

The Thought-Accent is the stress or emphasis laid upon a word or syllable, in order to bring out the meaning of the sentence. It corresponds to italics in print:

e.g. Dengys ef wybodaeth, ond ei frawd anwybodaeth. 'He shows knowledge, but his brother lack of knowledge.'

3. Word Binding.

- (a) Within the breath-group, which is the unit of speech, there is no perceptible pause. Word binding of this kind is common to English and Welsh.
- (b) In Welsh, however, the close connexion of the words which form a breath-group, has caused the initial consonants of many words to undergo phonetic changes similar to those which have taken place in individual words:
 - e.g. Old Welsh o pen, from a head, has become o ben; just as Old Welsh, aper, estuary, has become aber.
 - (c) These changes of initial consonants, which play a very important part in Welsh, as in the other Celtic languages, will be given under "Initial Mutations." §§ 57, 58, 59, etc.
- NOTE.—In their origin, these changes were phonetic, but, as is often the case, the working of analogy has played an important part in determining their modern employment.

PHONETIC LAWS AND TENDENCIES.

Changes of sound in language are due—

- A. To phonetic causes proper, depending upon the mechanism of the organs of speech and hearing. These causes mainly operate in bringing about assimilation:
 - (a) Of vowels to vowels, (b) of vowels to consonants, (c) of consonants to vowels, (d) of consonants to consonants, all with a view to economy of effort.
- B. To mental causes, whereby one sound is sometimes substituted for another, when some real or fancied analogy seems to require it, mainly in order to bring about greater regularity. The mind continually tries to classify the facts of language, namely, sounds and forms, on the basis of certain characteristics, which they have in common. The basis of this classification often changes, so that what was regular under the old classification may be irregular under the new, and hence a frequent tendency to bring that which is irregular into accordance with rule.

Vowel-Changes.

- The vowel-changes which take place in Welsh may be seen from the following tables:
 - z. Change due to the influence of the vowel of the following syllable.

Sounds.		Exa	MPLES.
ă ,,, ă āu āw	ě ž ži čw	nant gardd cān māen tāw	nentydd gerddi ceni meini tewi

2. Change due to the influence of a lost vowel ā.

Sou	NDS.	Exa	MPLES.
ŭ	ě	b y r	ber
*		trwm	trom

3. Change due to the influence of a lost consonantal i.

Sounds.		Exa	MPLES.
ă ău ē ŏ ōu (ōu)	ăi či ăi ū ŭ wu (āu)	bychan sarff mäen hēn porth öen (trōed)	bychain seirff main hyn pyrth wyn (traed)

4. Change in one vowel due to change in that following it.

Sou	NDS.	Exa	MPLES.
ă	ě	dafad	defaid
W	ÿ	cwmwl	c y mylau

5. Change due to the simplification of a diphthong in an unaccented syllable.

Ī	Sou	NDS.	Exa	M PLES.
	ău	ě	caffael	caffel
	ăw	ŏ	marchawg	marchog
	ĕi	ŭ	busteich	bust y ch

Sounds.		Examples.	
ă	ě*	plant	plent-yn
ā		mān	man-ach
ē	ă ě ŏ	gwen	gwen-u
ē Ō	ð	mōr	mor-oedd
¥	ď	b w rdd	byrdd-au
ū	¥	ff ÿ dd	ff y dd-lon
ū ži	ýi	main	mein-ach
ău	ўu	haul	heul-iau
āu		māes	meus-ydd
ăw	ўu ŏ	llawr	llor-io
ŭw	ŭ	b uw ch	buch-od
ŭw	ΫW	llyw	ll yw -ydd
wu	ψu	b wy d	bwyd-o

6. Change due to the addition of an ending.

Note 1.—In words borrowed from Latin accented \(\bar{a} \) has become \(\bar{a} \) w, and later \(\bar{o} \); \(\bar{e} \) has become \(\bar{w} \) y; close \(\bar{o} \) has become \(\bar{u} : \)

e.g. ymherawdr (imperator), cardod (caritat-em), cwyr (cera), urdd (ordo).

Note 2.—The terminations of borrowed Latin words, like the terminations of old Brythonic words, have now been lost in Welsh.

Consonant-Changes.

- 1. The consonant-changes of Welsh are mostly those of mutes, when preceded and followed by continuous letters, either in individual words or in breath-groups. They arise from a tendency to preserve an unbroken continuity of sound within the word or breath-group. For example, a voiceless sound may become voiced, when it stands between two vowels, i.e. the vibration of the vocal chords continues, while the consonant is being articulated. If the mute be already voiced, it tends to pass into the corresponding spirant, i.e. instead of momentarily stopping the flow of breath, as is done in the case of a mute, we allow the flow to continue.
- 2. The consonant-changes of Welsh should be carefully observed, not only because they illustrate the phonetic tendencies of the language, but also on account of their practical application in the formation of compound words and in initial mutation.
- 50¹ 3. These changes can often be conveniently illustrated by means of words borrowed from Latin during the Roman occupation of Britain.

^{*} Only when the ending contains the vowel i or y. See § 47, 1.

51 A. Assimilation of Mutes to Continuous Letters. r. To vowels.

Sou	NDS.	Exa	MPLES.
p t c b d g pp pt ct cc	b d g f dd (lost) ff th th ch	capistrum pater locus taberna prūdens sagitta cippus captus doctus peccātum	cebystr pader llög tafarn prūdd sāeth cyff cāeth dōeth pechod

2. To spirants.

Sou	NDS.	Exa	M PLES.
p	ph	is * pen	ei phen
t	th	is tafod	ei thafod
c	ch	is calon	ei chalon

3. To nasals.

Sounds.	Sounds. Exam	
mp mh nt nh nc ngh mb mm nd nn ng-g ng	tempor- contend- cancell- ambiguus candēla angelus	tymhor+ cynhen+ canghell+ ammeu‡ cannwyll angel

^{*} The precise sound of this sibilant is uncertain. It has now been everywhere assimilated.

† h in these words is now frequently omitted, except on the addition of an ending, when the syllable which it introduces becomes accented.

‡ Now frequently written ameu.

4. To 1 (lingual).

Sot	JNDS.	Еха	MPLES.
lp lc lb ld	lff lch lf ll lld, llt	Alpīnus calc- gilbin* caldārium sol(i)d-	Elphin calch gylfin callawr (sŵlld) sŵllt

5. To r (lingual).

Sou	Sounds. Example 1		PLES.
rp rt rc rb rd rg	rft rth rch rf rdd ri	. serpens part-em arca turba ōrdo argentum	sarff parth arch torf urdd arian

B. Other Changes.

1. m has become f: e.g. rēmus, rhwyf, oar. 52 llt: e.g. altum, āllt (also ll: e.g. altāre, allawr). lt lf: e.g. palma, palf. lm" rf: e.g. arma, arf. rm " rll: e.g. iarl: iarll. rl " fn: e.g. lam(i)na, llafn. mn. " " thb " thp: e.g. daethpwyd for daethbwyd. '2. f has been lost in plū for plūf.† " llaw " llawf. " cāel " cafel. " rhoi " rhoddi. dd " 3. By dissimilation we have caffel for cafel.

4. Initial v has become gw in Welsh: e.g. gwener from vener-is.

^{*} Old Welsh.

[†] The loss of final f is one of the most marked characteristics of the colloquial Welsh of N. Wales.

Consonant Changes in Compound Words.

- If the first element of a Compound be that which gives it its distinctive meaning—in other words, if it be of the nature of an attribute—the initial letter of the second element undergoes the changes described in § 51, A, 1.
- 2. The second element of some few compounds undergoes the changes described in § 51, A, 2.
- 3. These changes, due originally to purely phonetic causes, are now treated as signs of composition, and must be made whenever a new compound is formed:
 - e.g. arf-bais, coat of arms (from pais); gwerth-wr, seller (from gwr); palas-dy, palace (from ty).
- 4. The spirant change is shown in dy-chryn, terror; tra-chas, exceedingly hateful, and a few more words.

NOTE. —For the purpose of composition the voiceless sounds ll and rh are often voiced to l and r.

Consonant Changes in Breath-Groups

(Initial Mutation).

The Consonant changes which take place in breath-groups are analogous to those which, in course of time, have taken place in individual words and in the first element of compounds. These changes, like those of individual words and compounds, are, in their origin, the result of purely phonetic causes, operating when the consonant at the beginning of a word included in a breath-group followed and was followed by a continuous letter. This would occur for instance in the case of an adjective following a fem. noun ending in ā.

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TABLE OF INITIAL MUTATIONS.

- r. The unchanged consonant is called the Radical.
- 2. Mutations, from the point of view of sound-change, are of three types, Voiced, Spirant and Nasal.

Sounds.	Examples.			
	RADICAL.	Voiced.	SPIRANT.	Nasal.
p t c	pren tād cam	bren dād gam	phren thād cham	mhren nhād ngham
b d g	baich dyn gwr		faich ddyn ^wr*	maich nyn ngwr
ll rh	llais rhēs	lais rēs		
m	mam		fam	- F. C

Employment of the Initial Mutations.

61 (a) Certain types of mutation correspond in usage to each other:

The 'spirant mutation' in the case of b, d, g and m corresponds in usage to the 'voiced mutation' in the case of p, t, c, ll and rh.

(b) Where p, t, c undergo the 'spirant mutation,' b, d, g, ll, rh, m, undergo no change.†

(c) Where p, t, c, b, d, g undergo the 'nasal mutation,' ll, rh and m undergo no change.

Mutation of p, t, c into b, d, g; of b, d, g into f, dd, —; of ll and rh into l and r: of m into f.

This is the most common form of mutation, and is commonly known as the **soft** mutation; for a list of the cases where it occurs, see Appendix (Initial Mutations).

The following points should be noted at the outset:—

(1) After a **verb** or **noun** (including the verb-noun) a **pronoun** is mutated.

(delwedd F7199) (tudalen 016)

^{*} The sound here lost resembled the soft 'g' of German. + Except after ni, na, not: here b, d, g become f, dd, —; ll, rh, m become l, r, f.

- (2) After adjectives (including ordinal numbers, possessive adjectives 2nd s. and 3rd s. (masc.), some indefinite adjectives and the interrogative adjective), a noun is mutated.
 - (3) After a parenthesis a word is mutated.
- (4) After a finite verb the object-noun is mutated, the subject-noun is not.
- (5) After a noun fem. sing., an adjective is mutated, after a noun masc. sing. it is not.
- (6) After the definite article a noun fem. sing. is mutated, a noun masc. sing. is not.
- (7) After a verb the object-noun is mutated, after a verb-noun it is not.
- (8) After the pre-verbal particle a, a verb is mutated, after y it is not.
- (9) After the predicate particle **yn** a noun or adjective is mutated.

Mutation of p, t, c into ph, th, ch.

BBI This occurs :—

1. After trī (masc.), three; chwe, six; ei (fem.), her.

- 2. After trā, exceedingly, in the case of adjectives and verbs, and after nī, nā, not, in the case of verbs.
 - 3. After the prepositions a*, tua, gyda, efo, with.
 - 4. After the conjunctions a^* , and; $n\bar{a}$, nor, than; \bar{o} (=0s), if.

Mutation of p, t, c into mh, nh, ngh : of b, d, g into m, n, ng

67 This occurs:—

- 1. After the poss. adj. fy, my: e.g. fy mhen (fr. pen, head).
- 2. After the numerals, pum, saith, wyth, naw, deng, ugain, can; in the case of diwrnod, day; blynedd and blwydd, year.
 - 3. In nouns after the preposition yn, in.

Prefixing of h to Initial Vowels.

This process, which is analogous to the insertion of h before the accented syllable in an individual word (see § 34), occurs as follows:—

- 1. In nouns following the poss. adjectives 'm, ei (fem.), ein, eu (but not eich): e.g. ei henw, her name; eu hysbryd, their spirit.
- 2. In verbs following the postvocalic acc. pers. pron. 'i: e.g. fe 'i hewyllysiodd, he willed it.
- 3. In ugain, twenty, when used in compound numerals after the preposition ar, on: e.g. tri ar hugain, twenty-three.

NOTE.—It is by this process that we have the form pa ham? why? i.s. pa am? for what? lit. what for?

The preposition a, ag, and the conjunction a, ac, are in origin the same word.

ACCIDENCE.

- ACCIDENCE is the part of grammar which tells how words are declined (nouns, adjectives, pronouns), compared (adjectives), or conjugated (verbs).
- Declension of nouns and adjectives in Welsh is limited to the formation of Singulars (in the case of nouns only), Plurals and Feminines.

To some prepositions pronominal suffixes are added.

OBS.—The Definite Article, yr, y, will be found under "Demonstrative Adjectives," § 145.

Caution.—In parsing, each word should be parsed separately.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

- 74 1. Welsh nouns and adjectives have two Numbers—the Singular and the Plural—but no Case-endings.
 - 2. The relations conveyed in Latin, and at one time in Welsh, by the Genitive, are now mainly expressed by putting the noun (uninflected) immediately after the noun on which it depends.
 - 3. Other relations conveyed by the Genitive, as well as those conveyed by the Dative or Ablative, are expressed by using a preposition. The Nominative and Accusative are alike in form.

OBS.—The adjective generally follows the noun in Welsh. See Syntax, § 337.

N.B.—Note carefully under pronouns, verbs and prepositions the use made of the noun in supplementing the pronominal, verbal and prepositional forms.

Number in Welsh Nouns.

75 Welsh, in the case of nouns, has two modes of expressing number:—

(i) Where objects are most familiarly known in their collective aspect; in this case, the collective noun, treated in Syntax as a plural, is the undeclined form, and the singular is formed from it by adding a singular ending.

(ii) Where objects are best known individually; in this case the singular is the undeclined form, and the plural is formed from it, either by internal change of vowel or by the addition of

a plural ending.

Formation of the Singular from the Collective Noun.

76 r. The singular is formed from the collective by adding the ending -yn to form singulars masc.: -en to form singulars fem. Some collective nouns have a masc. singular, others a feminine singular.

77 2. On adding a singular ending, the vowels of the collective form must undergo the changes necessary when an ending is added. See § 47, 1, 6.

Examples:—adar, birds, ader-yn; plant, children, plent-yn; gwellt, grass, gwellt-yn, blade of grass; yd, corn, yd-en, a grain of corn; plū, feathers, plu-en; ser, stars, ser-en; mellt, lightning, mellt-en, a flash of lightning.

NOTE 1.—The singular and the collective forms sometimes differ in meaning: e.g. caws, cheese, cos-yn, 'a cheese.'

NOTE 2.—To some singulars of this type, no collective form corresponds; such singulars generally form plurals, for which see § 86.

Formation of the Plural of Nouns and Adjectives from the Singular.

78 Nouns and Adjectives, which have plural forms, form them either:—

(i) By internal change of vowel;

e.g. sant, saint; pl. saint; bychan, small, pl. bychain,

or (ii) By the addition of a plural ending:

e.g. llong, ship, pl. llong-au; du, black, pl. du-on.

NOTE.—Most adjectives have no plurals, and the singular form, even of adjectives which have plurals, is not unfrequently used with plural nouns. See Syntax, § 336.

PLURAL OF NOUNS.

I. Internal Change of Vowel.

This internal change of vowel is due to the influence of a lost ending of an "i" character. It occurs—

- (a) In an accented syllable, in monosyllabic nouns.
- (b) In an unaccented syllable, in disyllabic nouns.

(a) In an accented syllable.

Sounds.		Examples.	
ă ă ā	ăi ĕi ăi	sant sarff brān	saint seirff brain
āu	ăi	dr āe n	drain
ŏ ō	ŭ .	ffon	ff y n
ō	ŭ . ŏi	ll ō	lloi
ōu	wu	crōen	crwyn
$\bar{\mathbf{w}}$	wū	g₩r	g w ÿr

(b) In an unaccented syllable.

Sounds.		Examples.	
ă	ăi	dafad	def ai d
ă	ŭ*	bustach	bust y ch
ě	ŭ†	cyllell	cyll y ll
w	ŭ	asgwrn	esg y rn

NOTE I.—Like defaid are formed the plurals of many derivative nouns in ad, and -iad.

Note 2. - ty, house, makes plur. tai; troed, foot, pl. traed.

NOTE 3.—a is changed into e in defaid and esgyrn on account of the change in the vowel of the final syllable. See § 47, 4.

^{*} Before ch, dr, ll, n, rch.

[†] Not unfrequently i.

II. Addition of a Plural Ending.

- The following are the plural endings * in most common use:
 -au (and -iau); -on (and -ion); -aid and -iaid; -oedd, -ydd;
 -i; -od:
 - e.g. pen, head, pl. penn-au; helbul, trouble, pl. helbul-on; Cesar, Caesar, pl. Cesar-iaid; mor, sea, pl. mor-oedd; afon, river, pl. afon-ydd; gardd, garden, pl. gerdd-i; llew, lion, pl. llew-od.
- NOTE I.—When a plural-ending is added to nouns containing certain vowels or diphthongs, these sounds must change according to the rules given under "Phonetic Laws and Tendencies, Vowel Changes," § 47, I, 6.

 e.g. nant, brook, pl. nent-ydd; saer, carpenter, pl. seir-i; bwrdd, table, pl. byrdd-au.
- NOTE 2.—In the following forms, the root vowel appears in the plural—celanedd (S. celain, corpse); dannedd (S. daint and dant, tooth); dagrau (S. deigr, tear); gwragedd (S. gwraig, woman); lladron (S. lleidr, thief); nadroedd or nadredd (S. neidr, snake); rhianedd (S. rhiain and rhian, maiden).
- 84 NOTE 3.—cawg, ewer, has pl. cowg-iau; angel, angel, pl. angyl-ion; blynedd, year, pl. blynydd-au; meddiant, possession, pl. meddiann-au; crafanc, claw, pl. crafang-au.

Change of Stem in the Plural.

- 85 Some nouns add the plural ending, not to the ordinary singular form, but to a derivative of it:—
 - (a) To a noun of cognate form and similar meaning.
 - (b) To a verbal noun, formed from the singular by adding -ad or -iad.
 - (c) To the singular form with an adjectival ending. Examples:—
 - (a) cam, step, pl. camr-au; chwāer, sister, pl. chwiorydd; dychryn, terror, pl. dychrynfe-ydd; nōs, night, pl. nosweith-iau.
 - (b) cān, song, pl. caniad-au; addurn, ornament, pl. addurniad-au;
 - (c) Cristion, Christian, pl. Cristionog-ion; gwlāw, rain, pl. gwlawog-ydd; grās, grace, pl. grasus-au.

^{*} The plural endings were originally the stem endings of the old Brythonic declensions, which, on the loss of the case-endings, served to distinguish the plural forms of many words from the singular. When, in course of time, these stem-endings were mistaken for plural endings proper, they were employed to form new plurals.

[†] In some cases the vowel change has taken place in the singular form: e.g. the Modern Welsh haul, sun, pl. heuliau, had the form 'heul' in Mediæval Welsh.

Plural of Nouns in -yn and -en.

RULE:—Substitute the required plural-ending for the singularending-yn or -en: e.g. difer-yn, drop, pl. difer ion; cwning-en, rabbit, pl. cwning-od; meddw-yn, drunkard, pl. meddw-on.

Plural of Compound Nouns.

87 Compound nouns, in which the element that gives them their distinctive meaning comes first, are made plural by giving its plural form to their second element:—

e.g. gwerth-wr, seller, pl. gwerth-wyr (like gwyr); trig-fan, dwelling-place, pl. trig-fannau (like mannau).

Note.—i of the suffix -iwr is dropped in the plural, but where it is part of the root as in ysbi-wr, spy, it is kept.

Nouns with Double Plural Formations.

88 llō, calf, pl. lloiau (also lloi); neges, errand, pl. negeseuau (also negesau); cān, song, pl. caneuon (and caniadau); gwās, servant, pl. gweision; māb, son, pl. meibion.

Nouns with Two Plurals.

The following are the most important:—

89 1. Without difference of meaning.—blwyddyn, year, pl. blynyddoedd and blynyddau; castell, castle, pl. cestyll and castelli; mynydd, mountain, pl. mynyddoedd and mynyddau; plwyf, parish, pl. plwyfi and plwyfydd; tref, town, pl. trefi and trefydd.

2. With difference of meaning.—bron, breast and hillside, pl. bronnau breasts, bronnydd, hillsides; cynghor, counsel and council; pl. cynghorion, counsels, cynghorau, councils; llwyth, tribe and load, pl. llwythau, tribes, llwythi, loads.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

91 ymysgaroedd, entrails; gwartheg, cattle; cyfreidiau, needs; teleidion, charms; ceinion, beauties.

Anomalous Plurals.

brawd, brother, pl. brodyr; cefuder, first cousin, pl. cefudyr; cyfyrder, cousin once removed, pl. cyfyrdyr; ewythr, uncle, pl. ewythredd; modryb, aunt, pl. modrybedd*; cyfuither, female cousin, pl. cyfuitherod; ewin, finger nail, pl. ewinedd; daint (or dant), tooth, pl. dannedd; bys, finger, pl. bysedd; cār, relative, friend, pl. ceraint; gōf, smith, pl. gofaint; nai, nephew, pl. neiaint; nīth, niece, pl. nithoedd; ych, ox, pl. ychen†; merch, girl, daughter, pl. merched; pryf, worm, insect, pl. pryfed; cī, dog, pl. cwn.

^{*} N. Wales modrabedd.

[†] Also ychain.

Employment of the Chief Plural Endings.

- 93 au and iau, the most living plural endings in modern Welsh, are used to form the plural:—
 - (a) Of most names of implements, articles of furniture, diet, dress, etc., whose plurals are not formed by internal change of vowel.
 - (b) Of derivatives in -aid, -der, -did, -dod, -edd, -yd, -aeth;
 -ad and -iad (forming verbal nouns); also of feminines
 (denoting instruments) in -adur, -ur, -in, -nc.

oedd forms the plural of many nouns denoting:—

- (a) The larger divisions of time: e.g. blynyddoedd, years; canrifoedd, centuries; oesoedd, ages.
- (b) The larger divisions of land: e.g. ardaloedd, districts; tiroedd, lands; bydoedd, worlds.
- (c) The larger classes of natural phenomena: e.g. moroedd, seas; gwyntoedd, winds; tymhestloedd, storms.
- (d) The larger divisions of numbers: e.g. cannoedd, hundreds; miloedd, thousands.
- (e) large masses of people : e.g. pobloedd, peoples; lluoedd, hosts; byddinoedd, armies.

on and ion form the plural:—

- (a) Of many nouns denoting the more painful personal experiences: e.g. helbulon, troubles; treialon, trials; clefydon, diseases.
- (b) Of many abstract nouns denoting such ideas as cynghorion, counsels; rhybuddion, warnings; esgusion, excuses; bendithion, blessings; melldithion, curses, etc.
- (c) Of many adjectives used as nouns: e.g. cyfoethogion, rich; tlodion, poor.
- (d) Of derivatives in -ai, -og, -or, -ydd denoting persons:
 e.g. gwestai, guest, pl. gwesteion; marchog, knight,
 pl. marchogion; drysor, door-keeper, pl. drysorion;
 ysgrifenydd, secretary, pl. ysgrifenyddion.
- (e) Of nouns denoting persons and certain classes of persons: e.g. dynion, men; meibion, youths; trigolion, inhabitants; apostolion, apostles.

96 ydd forms the plural:—

- (a) Of nouns ending in -fa: e.g. llosgfa, conflagration, pl. llosgfeydd; porfa, pasture, pl. porfeydd.
- (b) Of many nouns denoting objects seen in a landscape:
 e.g. afonydd, rivers; ffosydd, ditches; magwyrydd,
 stone walls without mortar; rhosydd, moors

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(c) Of some other nouns: e.g. diodydd, drinks; bwydydd, foods.

od is mostly used for the plural of nouns denoting animals:
e.g. camelod, cameis: llwynogod, foxes; llygod, mice;
pysgod. fish.

Also in eilunod, idols; llebanod, louts; Ffrancod, Frenchmen; Gwyddelod, Irishmen.

98 aid and iaid form the plural:-

(a) Of many adjectives used as nouns: e.g. trueiniaid, wretched ones; gweiniaid, weak ones.

(b) Of nouns in -ad, -iad, -adur, -ur, (denoting persons):
e.g. ceidwad, keeper, ceidwaid; pechadur, sinner,
pechaduriaid.

(c) Ot nouns denoting religion, nationality, proper names:
e.g. Protestaniaid, Protestants; Syriaid, Syrians;
Cesariaid, Caesars.

N.B.—llaw, hand, has no plural; dwylaw, dwylo, two hands, is in all cases used instead.

Plural of Adjectives.

Adjectives, which have plurals, form them as nouns do:—

(a) By internal change of vowel.

(b) By adding a plural-ending to the masculine singular.

NOTE.—On adding a plural-ending, care must be taken to change the vowels of the word according to the rules given under Phonetic Laws and Tendencies, Vowel-changes, § 47, 6. a becomes ei; e.g. dall, blind, pl. deillion.

(a) By Internal Change of Vowel.

1. In accented syllables.

Sound.		Examples.	
ă	ĕi	hardd	heirdd
,,	"	llall	lleill

2. In an unaccented syllable.

Sounds.		Examples.	
ă ă	ăi ŭ	buan cadarn	bu ai n ced y rn
ě	(before rn)	caled	cel y d

B. Plural formed by adding a Plural-ending.

Rule:—Add -ion. After br, dr, gr, thr, u, w, add -on.

Note 1.—tew, fat, pl. tewion; glew, strong, pl. glewion; gwan, weak, pl. gweiniaid.

NOTE 2. — Derivative adjectives ending in -edig, -og, -ol, -us, usually form a plural only when used as nouns.

Feminine of Nouns and Adjectives.

FORMATION OF FEMININE OF NOUNS.

GENERAL RULE:—Add -es; if the masc. sing. end in -yn, change -yn to -en: e.g. dyn, man, dynes, woman; asyn, ass, asen, she-ass.

NOTE.—lleidr, thief, has fem. lladrones; Sais, Englishman, fem. Saesnes.

101 The following pairs of words denoting Persons, Male and Female, should be noted.

MASCULINE.	Meaning.	FEMININE.	Mraning.
bachgen brawd cefnder chwegrwn dāw ewythr gwās gw̄r māb nai tād taid tadcū́	boy brother cousin father-in-law son-in-law uncle man-servant husband man son nephew father grandfather	geneth chwāer cyfnither chwegr gwāudd modryb morwyn gwraig ,, merch nīth mam nain mamgū	girl sister cousin mother-in-law daughter-in-law aunt maid-servant wife woman daughter niece mother grandmother

FORMATION OF FEMININE OF ADJECTIVES.

Most adjectives have no feminine form, and the growing tendency is to use the masculine for both genders. With a few exceptions, the adjectives which have feminine forms are monosyllables containing the vowels y and w.

N.B.—Feminine forms are used in the singular only.

103 I. GENERAL RULE:—Change y to e; w to o. (See § 47, 2).
e.g. cryf, strong, fem. cref; llwm, bare, fem. llom.

- 2. Similarly:—brych, speckled; byr, short; gwlyb, wet; gwyn, white; gwyrdd, green; llym, sharp; syth, straight; sych, dry; crwm, stooping; crwn, round; dwfn, deep; tlws, pretty; and a few others.
- 3. Also the compounds.—pengrych, curly-headed; talgrych, tall and curly-headed; hirgrwn, elliptical; pendrwm, top heavy; pengrwn, round head.

4. One adjective brīth, speckled, has fem. braith.

5. The disyllabic adjectives:—bychan, small, and melyn, yellow, have fem. bechan and melen respectively; tywyll, dark, sometimes has fem. tywell.

Gender of Nouns.

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I. In Welsh there are two genders,* Masculine and Feminine.

2. There is no Neuter, and very few nouns are common.

In the following paragraphs on Gender:—

Masculine nouns are printed in Clarendon type.

Feminine nouns are printed in italics.

To discover the gender of a noun, ask:-

I. Does the noun denote a person?

If so:—Nouns that denote a Male person are Masculine:

Nouns that denote a Female person are Feminine: e.g. cigydd, 'butcher'; bachgen, 'boy'; geneth,

'girl'; morwyn, 'maiden.'

By this rule we are able to simplify all other rules, by first ex-

cluding from consideration the nouns that denote persons.

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perthynas, 'relation,' cyfyrder, 'cousin once removed,' and some adjectives used as nouns, are of common gender, i.e. masculine or feminine according to their application.

^{*} Care must be taken not to confuse grammatical gender (of nouns), with sex (of persons or animals).

- OBS. 1.—The above rule of Natural Gender does not apply to collective nouns: e.g. y fyddin, 'the army'; y werin, 'the common people,' y gynnulleidfa, 'the congregation.' Since these do not denote "a male person," or "a female person," their gender follows the rules for sexless things given below.
- OBS. 2.—baban, 'infant,' plentyn, 'child,' tyst, 'witness,' are masculine whether denoting a male or female.
- OBS. 3.—Certain abstract nouns, used to denote persons, have their own gender, irrespective of their application: e.g. meichiau, 'surety'; cydnabod, 'acquaintance'; mawrhydi, 'majesty'; arglwyddiaeth, 'lordship.'
- II. If the noun does not denote a person, then ask: Does the noun denote a sexless thing? If so, its gender will generally depend upon its form.

The main rules and exceptions are given in §§ 109-111.

- There are some classes of nouns, chiefly proper names of sexless things, in which the gender is determined, not by the form, but by the meaning of the word.
 - (a) Proper names of Rivers are mostly feminine (corresponding to the gender of afon, 'river'): e.g. Y Ddyfrdwy, 'the Dee.'
 - (b) Proper names of Days of the Week, Months, Seasons, Winds, Cardinal Points are masculine, corresponding to the gender of dydd, 'day'; mis, 'month'; tymor, 'season'; gwynt, 'wind'; respectively.
 - (c) Proper names of Feasts are masculine: e.g. y Pasg, 'Easter'; y Sulgwyn, 'Whitsuntide'; y Grawys, 'Lent'; y Nadolig, 'Christmas.'
 - (d) Proper names of Parishes, Towns, Cities, Countries are feminine, corresponding to the gender of *llan*, 'church'; *trēf*, 'town'; *dīnas*, 'city'; and *gwlād*, 'country,' respectively.
 - (e) Proper names of letters of the alphabet are feminine.
 - (f) Nouns denoting kinds of wood (not trees) are masculine, corresponding to the gender of pren, wood.

Rules for Nouns Denoting Sexless Things.

- All indeclinable parts of speech used as nouns (except names of letters of the alphabet), including all verb-nouns are masculine:
 - e.g. yr os, 'the "if"; y bwyta, 'the eating.' Also adjectives denoting colour, ideas, numbers, and language used as nouns:—
 - e.g. y melyn, 'the yellow'; y gwīr, 'the true'; y pedwar, 'the four'; Cymrāeg da, 'good Welsh'; but y Gymrāeg (fem.), 'the Welsh language,' corresponding to the gender of iaith, 'language.'
- For determining the gender of nouns denoting sexless things by their form, the following rules may be given:—
 - RULE 1.—Simple nouns of one syllable having as their vowel or diphthong, a, ā, āe, ai, au, aw, āw are masculine.
 - RULE 2.—Simple nouns of one syllable having as their vowel or diphthong, ei, i, ī, iw, u, ū, w, w, wy, wy, y, y, are masculine.
 - RULE 3.—Simple nouns of one syllable having as their vowel or diphthong, o, \bar{o} , $\bar{o}e$, e, \bar{e} are feminine.
 - Rule 4.—Simple nouns of two syllables, whose last vowel is a, w, u, or y, are masculine.
 - RULE 5.—Simple nouns of two syllables, whose last vowel is ai, e, o, wy, are feminine.
 - RULE 6.—Derivative nouns, ending in -ad (-iad), -ad (-had), -adur, -ai, -ant, -aint, -deb, -der, -did (-dyd), -dod, -dra, -edd, -i, -iaint, -ineb. -ioni, -ni, -rwydd, -ur (and -yr), -wch, -wy, are masculine.
 - RULE 7.—Derivative nouns, ending in -ach, -aeth, (-iaeth), -ain, -as, -eb, -ed, -ell, -en, -fa, -iar, -ig, -in, -og, are feminine.
 - Rule 8.—Derivative nouns ending in -aid, -an, -od, have the same gender as the nouns to which the ending is added.
 - RULE 9.—The gender of a Compound noun is the same as that of the noun to which it gives a special meaning: e.g. colomendy (like $t\bar{y}$), dove-cot, lit. dove-house; mammaeth, nurse, lit. nursing-mother (like mam).

(delwedd F7211) (tudalen 028)

- 111 (a) Exceptions to Rule 1.—arch. barn, fflam, glan, lamp, llan, sain; bāth, cād, cān, gwlād, llāth, rhāff; cāer, sāeth, āel; craith, ffair, iaith, llain, naid, plaid, sail; awr, dawn, dawns, gwawr; llaw,
 - (b) Exceptions to Rule 2.—cīst, glīn, gwīsg; punt; clūst; gwyrth gwystl; ffydd, tyb; clwyd, cwyn, ffrwyn, gwyl, hwyl, hwyr, rhīvyd.
 - (c) Exceptions to Rule 3.—corn, corph, gogr, ofn, porth (gate); clod, cof, grō, trō, mōdd, nōd; crōen, ōed, tōes, trōed; cefn, edn, elw, gwerth, mefi, nerth, pen, serch; bedd, gwellt, gwres, lle, lled, medd, mel.

(a) Exceptions to Rule 4.—crafanc, talar, daear, dinas, cwppan,* arddwrn; erthygl, ynys, ergyd; natur, pladur, gwefus.

(e) Exceptions to Rule 5.—enaid, aberth, amser, angen, (camwedd), (cartref), castell, cawell, halen, hanes, pared, bore, preseb; (anwyd), awyr, (gorchwyl), (gwobrwy), (cyfrwy).

- (f) Exception to Rule 6.—galwad.
 (g) Exceptions to Rule 7.—prynedigaeth, darfodedigaeth, gwasanaeth.
- III.—1. If the noun denotes neither a person nor a sexless thing, ask lastly: Does the noun denote a kind of animal? (i.e. one of the lower animals). If so, remember that names of animals in Welsh, are rarely, if ever, of common gender, being either masculine or feminine: e.g. eryr, 'eagle' is masculine; colomen, 'dove' is feminine.
 - 2. In the case of some animals there are pairs of nouns to denote the male and the female respectively:

e.g. adiad, 'drake,' hwyaden, 'duck'; carw, hydd, 'stag,' ewig, 'hind'; hwrdd, 'ram,' dafad, 'sheep'; ceiliog, 'cock,' iār, 'hen.'

3. Where it is necessary to denote the sex, it may be indicated by adding gwrryw, 'male,' benyw, 'female'; the name of the animal preserving its own gender, as indicated by the mutation, if it be feminine, (or non-mutation, if it be masculine) of the initial letter of the adjective : e.g. cāth wrryw, eryr benyw.

Diminutive Nouns.

- The endings added to the singular to form diminutive nouns 113 are -an, -ig, -yn, -cyn; to the plural, -ach and -os.
 - e.g. dynan (com. gend.) 'little person'; oenig, 'little lamb': dernyn, 'little piece'; bryncyn, 'little hill'; dynionach (com. gend.), 'poor mortals' (fr. dynion); plantos, 'little children' (fr. plant); gwrageddos, 'poor women ' (fr. gwragedd).

[•] In the Welsh translation of the Bible cwppan is masculine.

Comparison of Adjectives.

- 1. In addition to the Comparative proper, and the Superlative, there is in Welsh a Comparative of Equality, of the same meaning as the Positive in English preceded by so, as or how:
 - e.g. wyned yw, so white is it; wyned a'r eira, as white as the snow; Wyned ydyw! How white it is !
 - 2. The usual endings are:
 - (a) For Comp. of equality, -ed:
 - (b) For Compar. proper, -ach:
 - (c) For Superlative, -af:

e.g. dū, black; du-ed, as black; du-ach, blacker; du-af,

NOTE 1.—If the positive end in b, d, g (alone or followed by a liquid), these sounds are changed respectively into p, t, c, in both comparatives and the superlatives:

e.g. gwlyb, wet, gwlyped, gwlypach, gwlypaf; hagr, ugly, hacraf.

NOTE 2.—If the last syllable of the positive have al, aw, or w, these must be changed respectively into ei, 0, or y (see Phonetic Laws and Tendencies, § 47, 6): e.g. main, slender, meinach*: trwm, heavy, trymach.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes (especially after -dd), -ach, -ed, -af, become -iach, ied, -iaf.

115 In the following adjectives, -ed, forming the Compar. of Equality, and -af, forming the Superlative, are added to the Comparative form, in which the old Brythonic comparative ending -ios (=Latin -ior, -ius) has now been lost.

Note. - agos, hawdd and ieuanc may also be compared regularly.

Positive	MEAN- ING	Compar. Proper	MEAN- ING	COMPAR. OF EQUAL.	MEANING	Super- LATIVE	MEANING
agos bāch buan drwg hawdd hēn isel uchel ieuanc† hīr† mawr†	nigh small swift bad easy old low high young long large	nēs llai cynt gwāeth haws hỹn īs uwch iau hw̄y mw̄y	nearer smaller sooner worse easier older lower higher younger longer	nesed lleied cynted gwaethed hawsed hyned ised uched	as near as small as soon as bad as easy as old as low as high	nesaf lleiaf cyntaf gwaethaf hawsaf hynaf isaf uchaf ieuaf hwyaf mwyaf	nearest smallest soonest worst easiest eldest lowest highest youngest longest

^{*} Where the diphthong is 'ai' the change has, historically, taken place in the positive form. 'Main' stands for Mediæval 'mein.'

† Ieuanc, hīr, mawr, have Comp. of Equality ieuenged, hired, cymmaint, respectively.

NOTE 1.—dā, good, has Comp. gwell, better; Superl. goreu, best. Compar. of Equality, daëd or cystal, as well. In goreu, the Superlative ending has probably been lost.

NOTE 2.—gwerthfawr, valuable, has Comp. of Equality, gwerthfawroced, as valuable. Comp. gwerthfawrocach, more valuable; gwerthfawrocaf, most valuable.

NOTE 3. -The Comparative of equality was originally an abstract noun in ed. By its use in such expressions as gwelwch hardded y wlad, lit. see the beauty of the country, it came to be considered as meaning 'mor hardd,' and was gradually employed accordingly.

116 From the nouns blaen, point; diwedd, end; ol, track; pen, head; are formed the Superlatives blaenaf, first; diweddaf, last; olaf, last of all; pennaf, chief; respectively.

117 The Compar. trēch, stronger, Superl. trechaf, strongest; and the Superlative eithaf, furthest; have no corresponding Positive forms.

REMARKS.

- 118 1. As well as by means of the bare Comp. of Equality (rarely used alone), as—as may be expressed as follows:—
 - (a) By means of the Comp. of Equality preceded by cyn or can, and followed by a:
 - e.g. cyn wyned a'r eira, as white as the snow.
 - (b) By means of cy-, cyf-, cys-, cyn-, prefixed to certain nouns:
 - e.g. cyhyd, as long (fr. hyd, length); cyfled, as broad (fr. llēd, breadth); cystal, as well (fr. tāl, payment); cymmaint, as large, (fr. maint, size); cynddrwg, as bad (fr. drwg, evil). In cyfuwch, as high, cyf-, is prefixed to the Comparative uwch, higher.
 - (c) In the case of words which do not take -ed, by means of the Positive preceded by mor, as:
 - e.g. mor fendithiol a'r goleu, as blessed as the light.
- 2. Where no Comparative or Superlative form exists, mwy, more and mwyaf, most, put before the Positive, are used to express the Compar. and the Superl. respectively.
 - e.g. mwy gobeithiol, more hopeful; mwyaf gobeithiol, most hopeful.
- 3. Note the following expressions:—y cyntaf a'r diweddaf, the first and the last; y blaenaf a'r olaf, the former and the latter; y gwyr mwyaf eu clod, the men of most fame; po fwyaf—mwyaf oll, the more—the more; o hynny yn fwy, by so much the more.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

•	

	CARDINAL	. Оврінае		CARDINAL	Окымае.
- 4	un dau (m.). dwv (f.)	cyntaf, unfed.	Ŏ.	tri -ar-bymtheg	demawled
8	trī (m.), tair (f.)	trydydd		deu-naw	
4 v	pedwar (m.),pedair (f.) pump, pum*		61	pedwar - ar-bymtheg	pedwerydd } -ar-bymtheg
9	chwech, chwe	chweched	8	ugain	ugeinfed
7	saith .	seithfed	21	un-ar-hugain	unfed-ar-hugain
∞	wyth	wythfed	30	deg-ar-hugain	degfed-ar-hugain
6	nāw	nawfed	35	pymtheg-ar-hugain	pymthegfed-ar-hugain
2	dēg	pelgeb	36	un-ar-bymtheg-ar hugain	unfed-ar-bymtheg-ar-hugain
11	un-ar-ddeg	unfed ar-ddeg	\$	deugain	deugeinfed
12	denddeg	denddegfed	41	un-a-deugain	unfed-a-deugain
13	tri }-ar-ddeg	trydydd \ -ar-ddeg	S,	deg.a-deugain	degfed-a-deugain
,	tair j	tryaeda j	8	Irnugain	triugeinied
14	pedwar -ar-ddeg	pedwerydd ar-ddeg	2&	oegva-tiitiigain	oegred-a-untingain Dedwar ugeinfed
15	pymtheg	. pymthegfed	8	deg-a.phedwar-ugain	degied-a.phedwar ugain
91	un-ar-bymtheg	unfed-ar-bymtheg	8	cant, can	canfed
17	dau-ar-bymtheg	eilfed-ar-bymtheg	000	mil	milfed
			10000	myrdd	
			_		

• The forms pum, chwe, can are employed when a noun immediately follows the numeral.

- 1. A noun immediately following the cardinal numeral is put in the singular:
 - e.g. pedwar dyn, four men; in the compounds triwyr, three men, seithwyr, seven men, the noun is in the plural.
- 2. A noun qualified by a composite cardinal number contain-123 ing two separate numbers, or any composite ordinal number is placed after the first number:
 - e.g. un dyn ar ddeg, eleven men; y trydydd dyn ar ddeg ar hugain, the thirty-third man.
- 3. If the cardinal number contain more than two numbers, 124 the preposition o, from, may be placed between it and the noun: e.g. tri ar ddeg ar hugain o ddynion, thirty-three men.
- 4. cyntaf, first, is never used in combination with other 125 numerals: in such combinations unfed is used.
- 5. deg, ugain, cant, mil (f.), when used as nouns, have the 126 plurals, degau, ugeiniau, cannoedd, miloedd, respectively.
- 127 6. Cardinals are used for ordinals, (1) of pages and hymns (2) of years (in dates):
 - e.g. tudalen cant ac ugain, page 120; y flwyddyn pedwar cant, the year 400.

Caution.—The initial mutations which take place after numbers should be carefully noted. See Appendix (Initial Mutations).

Cardinal Numbers used with Possessive Adjectives.

- Note the use of the possessive adjective in the following expressions:-ni ein dau, trī, tair, etc., we two, three, etc., chwi eich dau, trī, tair, etc., you two, three, etc. For the third person ill is used. Similarly fy hūn, hunan. See § 139, note.
 - e.g. hwy ill tri, they three: in this expression ill tricedd is sometimes used.
- Note the following adverbs and adverbial expressions— 129
 - I. Unwaith, dwywaith, teirgwaith, etc., once, twice, thrice, etc.
 - 2. Yn gyntaf, yn ail, yn drydydd, etc., firstly, secondly, thirdly, etc.
 - 3. Ar unwaith, at once. 4. Y tro cyntaf, yr ail dro (or elltro), y trydydd tro, the first, second, third time.
 - 5. Ar ddwywaith, ar ddeudro, in two attempts.6. Yn awr ac eilwaith, now and then.

 - 7. Bob yn un ac un, one by one.
 - 8. Bob yn ddau, bob yn dri, etc., two by two, three by three, etc.
 - 9. Bob yn ail, alternately.

PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES CONNECTED THEREWITH.

(See also Syntax, §§ 561-589.)

Personal Pronouns.

- 130 1. Personal Pronouns in Welsh are of four kinds.
 - (a) Postvocalic (acc.), used before the verb after certain words ending in a vowel. (b) Simple. (c) Reduplicated Emphatic. (d) Conjunctive.
- 2. The Conjunctive is used to express—'I also,' 'thou also,' he also,' etc.
- 3. For b, c, d, the nom. and acc. are alike in form.

 OBS.—A Conjunctive and Emphatic form is occasionally found e.g. myfinnau, tydithau, etc.

	First F	ST PERSON. SECONI		First Person.		D Person.	Third	Person.
a	S.'m	P. 'n	S. 'th	P. 'ch	S. 'i (M. and F.)	P. 'u (M. and F.)		
b	mī	nī	tī	chwi	ēf (M.) hī (F.)	hwy, h₩ynt		
c	myfi	nyní	tydí	chwychwi	efế, (M.) hyhī (F.)	hwynth w y		
ď	minnau	ninnau	tithau	chwithau	yntau (M.) hithau (F.)	hwythau		

- NOTE 1.—efe stands for ef-ef. As a formal personal pronoun with verbs of all persons and numbers, the form fe is used: see § 194, and Appendix to Syntax.

 e.g. fe welodd y dyn, the man saw, lit. there saw, i.e. the man. Similarly e is used for ef in poetry.
- NOTE 2.—The Nom. 'I,' 'thou,' 'he,' etc. is not usually expressed unless emphatic. See Syntax, §§ 561-568.
- Note 3.—myfi, tydi, ese, etc. in the nom. are now chiefly used with verbs in the 3rd pers. sing., in such sentences as—myfi yw, it is I; ese oedd yno, it was he that was there; tydi a alwodd, it was you who called. See Syntax, § 319, and Appendix to Syntax.

(delwedd F7217) (tudalen 034)

If the accus. pronoun is **emphasized**, in addition to the pronoun before the verb, a simple personal pronoun is added after it: in this case i is used for fi. See Syntax, §§ 565, 566.

e.g. fe 'th welais, 'I saw thee'; fe 'th welais di, 'I saw thee.' Similarly, fe 'th welais dithau, 'I saw thee also.'

Pronouns governed by prepositions are, in many cases, denoted by pronominal suffixes attached to such prepositions. See §§ 292-296:

e.g. ataf, to me; drostynt, over them.

The pronoun of the 2nd pers. sing. ti is used in addressing the Deity, a very intimate friend, a child, or an animal. But, except to the Deity or to an animal, the growing tendency is to use chwi.

There is in Welsh no reflexive pronoun. As substitutes, the nouns S. hūn,* hunan, self, P. hunain, selves, qualified by a poss. adj., are used:

e.g. fy hun, myself; ein hunain, ourselves.

Note.—Several verbs have a reflexive form, made by prefixing the preposition ym, another form of am, 'around.' Sometimes, as in ymladdaf, I fight, this form has a reciprocal meaning:

e.g. golchaf, 'I wash'; ym-olchaf, 'I wash myself.'

Possessive Pronouns.

Instead of a pronoun the noun eiddo, property, with pronominal suffixes, preceded by the article is used. Similarly the number ūn preceded by a possessive adj. and followed by a simple personal pronoun, referring to a singular; the noun rhai to a plural, and the noun eiddo either to a singular or a plural.

SINGULAR.	Plural.
yr eiddof, mine yr eiddot, thine yr eiddo, his yr eiddi, hers	yr eiddom, <i>ours</i> yr eiddoch, <i>yours</i> yr eiddynt, <i>theirs</i>

Also fy un i, fy rhai i, mine; dy un di, dy rai di, thine; etc. Note 1.—For emphasis a pers. pron. may be added: e.g. yr eiddo ef, his. Note 2.—Eiddo is now often used for S. 3 fem.

(delwedd F7218) (tudalen 035)

^{*} Probably the numeral un, one, with 'h' prefixed, used as a noun. Compare the Breton un, unan; see § 128.

Possessive Adjectives.

These are of two kinds: (a) Postvocalic. (b) Normal. postvocalic forms are used after words ending in a vowel (if no pause intervene).

Sing	Singular.		AL.
Postvocalic.	Normal	Postvocalic.	NORMAL
'm 'th 'i, 'w	fy,* my dy,* thy ei, his, her	'n 'ch 'u, 'w	ein, our eich, your eu, their

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NOTE 1.—The form S. and P. 3, 'w, is only used after the prep. i, into: e.g. i'w, into his, her, their.

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NOTE 2.—For emphasis a personal pron. may be added after the noun:

e.g. dy lün di, 'thy likeness.' See Syntax, §§ 568, 569.

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NOTE 3.—A poss. adj. agrees in gender with the noun to which it refers.

Demonstrative Adjectives and Pronouns.

yr, y. (The Definite Article.)

(See also Syntax, §§ 581-589.)

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yr (before vowels and h), y (before consonants):

e.g. yr achos, the cause: y gwaith, the work.

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When, however, after words ending in a vowel, the y of yr is elided, the form 'r is used, even before consonants +: e.g. o'r ty, from the house.

NOTE.—Before consonantal w, y is used: e.g. y wraig, the woman. i, yr ,, : e.g. yr iechyd, the health.

(a) hwn, this.

(b) hwnnw, that.

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Singular.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	Plural.
hwn (M.) hon (F.) hyn (indecl.)	h y n	hwnnw (M.) honno (F.) hynny (indecl).	hynny

Note.—hyn and hynny (S.) are used with peth, thing. See Syntax, § 580. e.g. y peth hyn, this thing; y peth hynny, that thing. This use is parallel to the dialect use of hyn in y mynydd hyn, this mountain.

^{*} Occasionally mau and tau are found for my and thy; e.g. y llyfr mau, my book y ty tau, thy house.

[†] This is a survival from the Old Welsh use of ir (=yr) before both vowels and consonants.

1. When used as adjectives, hwn and hwnnw follow the noun 149 preceded by the definite article: e.g. y wraig hon, this woman; y dynion hynny, those men. 2. To express a demonstrative adjective of the 1st, 2nd or 3rd 150 person, for hwn, hwnnw, are substituted the adverbs, yma, here; yna, 'there (near you)'; acw, yonder: e.g. y dyn yma, 'this man (near me)'; y dyn yna, 'that man (near you)'; y dyn acw, 'the man yonder.' 3. acw is also sometimes used idiomatically for the demonstrat-151 ive of the 1st pers. : e.g. y ty acw, 'that house of mine.' 4. hwn and hwnnw, hyn and hynny, are used as demonstrat-152 ive pronouns. The plural then is y rhai hyn, y rhai hynny. As pronouns, hyn and hynny in the singular correspond to the **neuter** demonstrative pronoun of other languages. 5. To form demonstrative pronouns of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd 153 person, yma, yna, acw are added to hwn, hon, hyn in the singular : e.g. hwnyma, 'this one (m.)'; honyna, 'that one (f.)'; hynacw, 'that thing (yonder). In the plural the adverb is substituted for hypn after rhai: e.g. y rhai yma, yna, acw. 6. rhai is in origin a sing. noun, being Latin 'greg-em,' acc. of grex,' flock, borrowed.

arall, pl. ereill.

As adjective, arall means another, other: e.g. dyn arall, another man; y dyn arall, the other man. As pron. arall, means another; ereill, others.

y naill-y llall.

1. This pair of words means, the one—the other; pl. y naill—y lleill. y naill is both demonstr.'adj. and pron.; y llall a pronoun only, the corresponding adjective being arall, used after the noun preceded by the article.

2. 'One another' is expressed by the plural possessive adjectives, ein, eich, eu, with gilydd, the mutated form of an old noun cilydd, companion; for 1st, 2nd and 3rd pers. respectively:

e.g. ein gilydd, eich gilydd, eu gilydd.

NOTE. — Ei gilydd (sing.), corresponding to his fellow, in such an expression as each his fellow, was the original form, but was mistaken for 'eu gilydd.'

(delwedd F7220) (tudalen 037)

Interrogative Pronoun and Adjective.

- 158 1. (a) Interrogative pronoun, pwy? who? (b) Interrogative adjective, pā? what?
- 2. (a) " Whose" is expressed by putting pwy after the noun:
 e.g. Whose book? llyfr pwy?
 - (b) The interrogative pronoun = English what? is expressed by pa beth? or beth? lit., what thing? How many? by pa sawl? pa gynnifer? How much? by pa faint?*
- 3. What kind? is expressed by pa fath? pa ryw?
- 4. pwy and pa are used for both genders and numbers.

 Examples: ty pwy ydyw? whose house is it? pwy yw? who is he? pa dy yw? which house is it? beth yw? what is it? pa fath yw? what kind is it? pa ryw ddyn ōedd? what kind of man was he?

Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

(See also Syntax, § 579.)

- 1. neb, some one, dim, something, are used in negative sentences as pronouns: e.g. ni welais neb, I saw no one; ni chefais ddim, I got nothing. In questions and answers neb and dim are used without the negative:
 - e.g. A oedd neb yno? Nac oedd, neb; Was no one there?

 No, no one.
 - 2. neb followed by rhyw is used in negative sentences to denote 'no—at all': e.g. neb rhyw ddynion, no men at all.
 - N.B.—dim is also used as an adjective in negative sentences: e.g. ni chefais ddim bwyd, I got no food.
 - In questions and answers the negative is usually omitted:
 - e.g. A oes dim lle? Nac oes, ddim. Is there no room? No,
 - 3. In affirmative sentences the adjective rhyw denotes some:
 e.g. rhyw ddynion, some man; rhyw beth, some thing.
 - 4. Where some means "a portion of," it is expressed by peth: e.g. peth goleu, some light.
- 5. To express the pronouns, some one, some; S. rhywun, some one, P. rhywrai, some, are used.

NOTE.—Historically, dim and rhyw, like peth, are nouns, and the noun following them was put in the genitive case.

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^{*} Pa gynnifer and pa faint are followed by the prep. o.

Relative Pronouns.

(See Syntax, §§ 570-578 and Appendix.)

In idiomatic Welsh a relative clause is frequently expressed without a relative pronoun to introduce it. In this case the verb is generally preceded, in affirmative clauses, by one of the pre-verbal particles a or yr (y); a when the Relative Pronoun, if expressed, would be the Subject or the Object of a finite verb, yr (y) in all other cases. (The form yr is that employed before vowels and h):

e.g. y dyn a aeth, the man who went; y ty a welais, the house which I saw; y dyn y gwelais ei dy, the man whose house I saw.

OBS.—The origin of 'a' and 'yr (y)' is wrapt in considerable obscurity. 'a' may possibly be the Welsh equivalent of the Irish relative pronoun an, but it should be noted that there is in Welsh no trace of the nasal. As for its employment, it is noticeable that in Mediæval Welsh it was often employed where we should now use yr (y). For the use of a relative clause without a relative pronoun, compare Irish, where the verb is often preceded by ro- or do- in such clauses.

N.B.—Usually, where in English the relative is governed by a preposition or a verb-noun, the construction described in § 167 is employed, the verb being preceded by the pre-verbal particle yr (y), while the required preposition or verb-noun is placed at the end of the relative clause; the preposition with a pronominal suffix, the verb-noun qualified by a possessive adjective, agreeing in person, number and gender with the antecedent of the relative: similarly a noun following whose in English:

e.g. y ty yr euthum iddo, the house into which I went.

,, ,, yr ,, i'w adeiladu, the house to build which
I went.

", y gwelais ei do, the house whose roof I saw.

", ", y ", ei adeiladu, the house the building of which I saw.

The place of single relative forms is largely supplied by means of the combinations yr hwn (S. m.), yr hon (S. f.), y rhai (P. com.); y neb, y sawl, who, whoever; pwy bynnag, whosoever, beth bynnag, whatsoever. (For the use of these forms, see Syntax, §§ 573-578.)

OBS.—In such a sentence as 'gwelais yr hwn a geisiwch,' I saw the one whom you seek, the use of 'yr hwn' seems to have arisen through the substitution of a demonstrative pronoun for a noun in such an expression as 'gwelais y gwr a geisiwch,' I saw the man whom you seek. Hence, in its origin, 'yr hwn'

is no more a relative pronoun than 'y gwr' would be. Still, the confusion of thought which has obscured its origin and which has led Welshmen to regard it in course of time as a relative pronoun has many parallels in the history of language, and is a factor which must constantly be taken into account in studying linguistic development. The confusion of thought in question took place the more easily as 'yr hwn' was not employed, as time went on, except in conjunction with relative clauses.

The interrogative adjective pa, in the combination pa—bynnag. is **separated** from **bynnag** by the noun:

e.g. pa ddyn bynnag, what man soever.

171 bynnag may be a mutated form of py nag? who not? hence pwy bynnag means who? who not? pa ddyn bynnag, what man? who not?

OBS. 1.—a is frequently omitted, but the omission of yr (y) is

OBS. 2.—In Negative Clauses, nā, not (sometimes ni) is substituted for a, yr, y.

Caution.—Each word in these expressions should be parsed separately, in order to make their history clear.

Definitive Adjectives and Pronouns.

1. 'Self' in 'myself,' 'thyself,' etc., when used as a definite pronoun is expressed by means of the nouns hun, hunan, self, pl. hunain, selves, preceded by the required possessive adjectives: see § 139.

e.g. dy hūn, thyself; ein hunain, ourselves.

2. 'The same' is expressed by yr un:

e.g. the same men, yr ūn dynion.

ADVERBS.

- 1. There are in Welsh no adverbs derived from adjectives by adding a suffix as in English. An English adverb like happily is expressed in Welsh by putting before the required adjective the word yn, used also to introduce a predicate noun or adjective.
 - e.g. dedwydd, happy, yn ddedwydd, happily; dedwyddach, happier; yn ddedwyddach, more happily; dedwyddaf, happiest; yn ddedwyddaf, most happily.
- 2. The comparative of equality is the same both as an adjective and as an adverb.
- 3. Note the following expressions—gwellwell, better and better; 176 gwaethwaeth, worse and worse; lléilai, less and less; mwyfwy, greater and greater.

(delwedd F7223) (tudalen 040)

VERBS.

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The Welsh verb has:-

(a) Two Voices *:-

The Active conjugated with distinct personal suffixes for 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person, singular and plural.

The Passive conjugated with one suffix for all persons, singular and plural.

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NOTE.—The Passive Voice in Welsh appears to have been originally a form of the verb expressing merely the occurrence of a given action, leaving its subject unexpressed. The object of the action—in present day Welsh, to all intents and purposes, the subject of the Passive Voice—was put in the Accusative Case. That the Welsh linguistic consciousness of the present day tends to look upon what was originally the object of a verb with subject unexpressed, as the subject of a verb in the Passive Voice, seems to be indicated by the fact that the initial letter of the word in question, like that of the subject of an Active Verb, undergoes no mutation, whereas the initial letter of the object of a verb, whether noun or pronoun, always does. With pronouns, however, the older construction is quite clear in the use of the accus. postvocalic form of the pers. pron. after certain words ending in a vowel:

e.g. fe'm gwelir, I am seen, lit, there is seeing (in respect to) me, by the side of gwelir fi. The old impersonal use, too, is exemplified in the case of intransitive verbs like wyf, I am; deuaf, I come; af, I go.

179 180 (b) Three Moods:—Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.

(c) Four Simple Tenses of the Indicative.+

Name of Welsh Tense.

si si { he learns } HI { he is learning }	dysg	Present.
he was learning he had learnt Note.—In the irregular verb wvf.	dysgodd dysgai dysgasai	Aorist. Past Imperfect. Pluperfect.

NOTE.—In the irregular verb wyf, 1 am, and its compounds, we have also a Present Habitual and a Past Imperfect Habitual:

e.g. byddaf, I am wont to be; byddwn, I was wont to be.

The name Aorist is short for Past Aorist (= Past Indefinite).

The name Pluperfect is short for Past Perfect.

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The Future is the same in form as the Present. In the verb wyf and its compounds, it has the same form as the Present Habitual: and in the case of other verbs also the Pres. Habitual (see Compound Tenses, below) may be used as Future. See Syntax, §§ 480-483.

^{*} Many verbs acquire a reflexive and some a reciprocal sense by the prefixing of the prep. ym = am, around. Cf. § 139, and Syntax, §§ 463-466. † For the use of these forms, see Syntax, §§ 467, 525.

By means of the verb wyf and the verb-noun preceded by the prepositions yn, in, or wedi, after, the following Compound Tenses are formed:—

			Name of
			WELSH TENSE.
, i	(he is learning	mae yn dysgu	Present Con-
T TIME	he is wont to learn	bydd yn dysgu	tinuous. Present Habit- ual.
PRESENT	he has learnt he has been learning	mae wedi dysgu bu vn dysgu	Perfect. Perfect Con-
Ā			tinuous.
ผ่	(he was learning	yr oedd yn dysgu	Past Imperfect Continuous.
TIME.	he used to learn	byddai yn dysgu	Past Imperfect Habitual.
PAST	he had learnt	yr oedd wedi dysgu	Pluperfect.
PA		(buasai yn dysgu)*	Pluperfect Continuous.
FUTURE TIME.	he will have learnt he will have been learning	bydd wedi dysgu bydd wedi bod yn dysgu	Future Perfect. Future Perfect Continuous.

The Present Habitual, bydd yn dysgu, is also used as a Future.

NOTE.— Carefully observe the future aspect often given in Welsh to the Past Imperfect and Pluperfect. For example, just as the present form dysg may mean he will learn, so the Past Imperfect dysgai may mean he would learn, and the Pluperfect dysgasai he would have learnt. The latter is the most common meaning of the simple Pluperfect form in Modern Welsh. See Syntax, §§ 467, 469, 501, 521.

For the use of the compound tenses, see Syntax, §§ 475, 477, 494, 496, 515, 517, 523, 524.

Caution.—In parsing, it is important to parse the component parts of the compound tenses separately. See Syntax, §§ 524, 525.

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. . .

^{*} See Syntax, § 503.

- (d) Two Numbers (Singular and Plural). 188
- (e) Three Persons in each number, corresponding to the three 189 persons of pronouns.

From the verb-stem are also formed— 190

- (a) The verb-noun (indeclinable), dysgu, *learning*.
- (b) The verb-adjective, dysgedig, learned, erudite; (dysgadwy), that can be learnt.

OBS. 1.—The verb-adjective is used only as an attribute. the case of most verbs it does not exist. See Syntax, §§ 557-560.

OBS. 2.—The Welsh language has now no participles. To form participle-equivalents, the verb-noun governed by prepositions is used. See Syntax, §§ 546-556.

Caution.—In order to illustrate the structure of the participle-191 equivalents, the component parts should be parsed separately.

Tenses of the Subjunctive.

The Subjunctive has only one simple tense—the Present: * 192 e.g. dysgwyf, I may learn.

For the Past Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, the Past Imperfect and Pluperfect Indicative are used, in all verbs except wyf and caf. See Syntax, §§ 355, 526.

Note.—The Welsh verb is frequently preceded by one of the following proclitics:—fe (mi) (see § 133); a, yr (y). See Syntax, Appendix. 194

- 1. fe (in the spoken Welsh of N. Wales, mi), is often used before the verb at the beginning of a sentence; e.g. fo redodd y dyn, the man ran.
- 2. a is used when the subject or the object of the sentence is put first for the sake of emphasis; e.g. dyn a ddaeth (it is) a man who came; a man came.
 - 3. yr (before a vowel), y (before a consonant) are used:—
 - (a) before forms of wyf Pres. (cont.), Past Imperf. (cont.), Pers. and Impers. at the beginning of a sentence; e.g. yr wyf yma, I am here.

(b) before forms of wyf (auxiliary), when the verb-noun is placed first; e.g. gweithio y bum, I have been working.

(c) before all verbs when an adverb, or a noun governed by a preposition is placed first, for emphasis; e.g. yma y gwelaf, here I see.

(d) after many prepositions used as conjunctions; e.g. cyn yr af, before I go.

This form was often employed in Mediæval Welsh as a Future Indicative.

Wyf, 'I am'-Personal Forms and Verb-Noun.

5a	INDIC	ATIVE.		
	PRESENT.	PRESENT HABITUAL AND FUTURE.		
	wyf, ydwyf, I am wyt, ydwyt, thou art mae, oes, sydd, sy, yw,* he is ym, ydym, we are ych, ydych, you are maent, ynt, ydynt, they are	byddaf, I am byddi, thou art bydd, he is byddwn, we are byddwch, you are byddant, they are		
	PAST IMPERFECT.	PAST IMPERFECT HABITUAL.		
	oeddwn, I was oeddit, thou wast ōedd, ydoedd, he was oeddym, we were oeddych, you were oeddynt, they were	byddwn, I was byddit, thou wast byddai, he was byddem, we were byddech, you were byddent, they were		
	AORIST AND PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.		
	būm, I was or have been buost, thou wast or hast been bū, he was or has been buom, we buoch, you buont, buant, they	buaswn, I had been buasit, thou hadst been buasai, he had been buasem, we had been buasech, you had been buasent, they had been		
I	SUBJUNCTIVE.			
	PRESENT.	PAST IMPERFECT.		
	byddwyf, bwyf, I be byddych, bych,† thou be byddo, bo, he be byddom, bom, we be byddoch, boch, you be byddont, bont, they be	Same as Past Imperf. Habitual Indic. or contracted—bawn, I were baet (bait), thou wert bae (bai), he were baem, we were baech, you were baent, they were		
1	IMPER	ATIVE.		
	S. 2. bydd, be; 3. bydded, let him be	P. Same as Pres. Indic. Hab.		
	VERB-	NOUN.		
	bōd, <i>l</i>	being		
•				

^{*} Also ydyw. + byddot, bot and bech are sometimes found.

INDIC	ATIVE
Present.	PRESENT HABITUAL AND FUTURE.
ÿs, ydys	byddys, byddis or byddir
Past Imperfect.	PAST IMPERFECT HABITUAL.
· oeddid	byddid
AORIST AND PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
buwyd	buasid or buesid
SUBJUNCTIVE (PRES.) AND IMPERATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE (PAST IMPER- FECT).
bydder	baid (also same as Past Imperfect Indic. Habitual)

Note.—These Impersonal forms are used mainly in forming Compound tenses, in order to denote the fact that such and such an action has occurred, is occurring, or will occur, without making any unnecessary statement as to its agent or agents, when these are already familiar to the person to whom the statement is made: e.g. in announcing the time of a funeral (fe fyddys yn cychwyn oddiwrth y ty am drī ō'r glōch), the start from the house will be made at three o'clock.

Wyf, 'I am '—its Compound Tenses.

197 Since wyf is itself the auxiliary, its Compound Tenses are, as far as possible, avoided in good literary Welsh.

REMARKS.

- 198 1. For the use of mae, oes, sydd, yw (ydyw) ydynt, see Syntax, §§ 484-490.
- 2. With ped (=pe), if, bawn, etc., contract into petáwn, petáet, petáet, petáem, petáech, petáent.
- 3. Similarly ped fuaswater., becomes petaswn, etc.
- 201 4. For Past Imperf. P. 1, 2, 3, oedd-em, -ech, -ent are used.
- OBS.—The following forms are sometimes found:—Pres. Indic. S. 1. yttwyf, etc.; S. 2. wyd, ydwyd, yttwyd: Past Imperf. Indic. S. 1. yttoeddwn, etc.: Past Imperf. Habitual P. 1, 2, 3, byddym, -ych, -ynt: Past Imperf. Subjunctive P. 1, 2, 3, beym, beych, beynt: Imperative S. 3, bid.

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FORMS OF THE VERB.

3031 A verb-form consists of two parts:

- r The stem, i.e. the part from which comes a whole group of forms: e.g. dysg-, in dysg-u, dysg-ais, dysg-ai.
- 2. The ending, i.e. the part which varies in different forms coming from the same stem: e.g. -ed, -ais, -ai from dysg-.

204 NOTE.—In most endings we can distinguish (a) the final consonant which forms the suffix proper, which is probably pronominal in origin, (b) the connecting vowel:

e.g. dysg-w-n, where n is the consonantal suffix, w the connecting vowel.

The simple forms of the verb come from two stems and fall into two groups :---

A. Personal Forms.

1. From the Present Stem come-Present (= Future) Present Present Subjunctive § Indicative Imperative \ Past Imperfect) Aorist | Indicative (sing. only) Indicative 2. From the Past Stem come— Aorist Indicative (plural only) | Pluperfect Indicative. B. Impersonal Forms.

1. From the Present Stem come—

Present (=Future) \ Present Present Indicative Subjunctive \(\) Imperative | Aorist Past Imperfect Indicative (Indicative

2. From the Past Stem comes the Pluperfect Indicative.

206 These stems may be illustrated as follows:—

- (a) Pres. Indic. S. 1, giving Present Stem, dysg-af, I learn;
- (b) Aorist Indic. P. 1, giving Past Stem, dysg-as-om, we learnt.

Connecting Vowels and Diphthongs.

- (a) The connecting vowels and diphthongs should be carefully 207 noted.
 - (b) Welsh had originally, like Greek and Latin, different conjugations, each with its characteristic vowel, but, owing to the fusion of these into one conjugation, some endings now preserve the characteristic vowel of one conjugation, others of another.

(delwedd F7229) (tudalen 046)

208a Table of Endings—Personal Forms and Verb-Noun and Adjectives.

INDICA	TIVE.	
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	Aorist.	
S. 1a-f 2i 3. (No ending)* P. 1w-n 2w-ch 3a-nt	S. rai -s 2ai -st 3o -dd Pres. Stem. P. ro -m 2o -ch 3a -nt Past Stem.	
PAST IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.	
S. 1w -n 2i -t 3ai P. 1e -m 2e -ch 3e -nt	S. 1w-n 2i -t 3ai P. 1e-m 2e-ch 3e-nt	
SUBJUNCTI	VE (PRES.).	
S. 1wy-f; 2y-ch, -e-ch; 3o	P. 1o-m; 2o-ch; 3o-nt	
IMPERA	ATIVE.	
S. 2. (No ending)*; 3e-d	P. Same as Pres. Indic.	
VERB-NOUN.	VERB-ADJECTIVES.	
Sometimes consisting of Pres. Stem only, sometimes with an ending added.	-edig -adwy	

^{*} Sometimes the ending -a is used. For Pres. Ind. S. 3, ith in N. Wales and -iff in S. Wales are often used in colloquial Welsh.

Table of Endings - Impersonal Forms

3b

INDI	CATI VE .	
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	Aorist.	
-i-r (added to Pres. stem)	-wy-d (added to Pres. stem)	
PAST IMPERFECT.	Pluperfect.	
i-d- (added to Pres. stem)	-i-d (added to Past stem)	
SUBJUNCTIVE (PRES	a.) AND IMPERATIVE.	
	-e-r	

REMARKS.

- 1. In the suffix -nt, t is sometimes omitted in poetry.
- 2. The following forms are also sometimes found:

 - (a) For Past Imperf. Indic. P. 1, 2, 3, forms in -ym, -ych, -ynt.
 (b) ,, Aorist ,, S. 3, ,, ,-t,-th,-as,-es,-is
 (c) ,, ,, ,, P. 1, 2, 3, ,, ,, -asam, -esoch, -e
 (d) Pluperfect ,, P. 1, 2, 3, ,, ,, -esym, -esych, -e
 (e) Pres. Subjunctive S. 2, ,, ,-ych. ,, ,, ·t, -th, -as, -es, -is, -wys.
 - ,, -asam, -esoch, -esont.
 - ,, -esym, -esych, -esynt.

 - S. 3, (f) ,, (g) Aorist Indic. (Impers.)
 - ,, ·ed, -ad, -s.*
 - (h) Imperative S. 3, " -awt, -awd.
- (i) Pres. (Impers.) ,, ,, -otor, -itor, ...
 In llas, was slain: e.g. pan las Crīst, when Christ was slain. "-otor, -itor, -ator.

Dysg-af, 'I learn'-Personal Forms and Verb-Noun.

п	_	
ч		
,	w	

INDICATIVE.	
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	Aorist.
dysg-af dysg-i dysg dysg-wn dysg-wch dysg-ant	dysg-ais dysg-aist dysg-odd dysgas-om dysgas-och dysgas-ant

Past Imperfect.	Pluperfect.
dysg wn dysg-it dysg-ai dysg-em dysg-ech dysg-ent	dysgas-wn dysgas-it dysgas-ai dysgas-em dysgas-ech dysgas-ent
	P. 1. dysg-om; 2. dysg-och; 3. dysg-ont
IMPE	RATIVE.
S. 2. dÿsg, dysg-a; 3. dysg-e	P. Same as Pres. Indic. (Also P. 3. dysg-ent.)
VERE	B-NOUN.
dy	rsg-u

Dysg-af, 'I learn'—Impersonal Forms.

209*b*

INDI	CATIVE.
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	Aorist.
dysg-i r	dysg-wyd, dysg-ed
Past Imperfect.	PLUPERFECT.
dysg-id	· dysgas-id, dysges-id
SUBJUNCTIVE (Pres	s.) AND IMPERATIVE.
dy	sg-er

Change of Vowel in the Stem.

If the last syllable of the Stem, present or past, have the vowel a it is changed to e (e.g. in car-, caras-)—

(a) In Pres. Indic. S. and P. 2:

e.g. cer-i, thou lovest; cer-wch, you love.

(b) In Aorist Indic. S, 1, 2:

e.g. cer-ais, I loved; cer-aist, thou lovedst.

(c) In Past Imperf. Indic. S. 2:

e.g. cer-it, thou wast loving.

(d) In Pluperf. Indic. S. 2:

e.g. cares-it, thou hadst loved.

(e) In Pres. Indic. (Impers.):

e.g. cer-ir, one loves, there is loving.

(f) In Past Imperf. Indic. (Impers.):

e.g. cer-id, one loved, there was loving.

(g) In Pluperf. Indic. (Impers.):

e.g. cares-id, one had loved, there had been loving.

Formation of Pres. Indic. S. 3.

RULES: 1. If the last syllable of the Present Stem have o or e substitute y:

e.g. -clo-, -cly; coll-, cyll; dod-, dyd; ffo-, ffy; golch-, gylch; llosg-, llysg; rhodd-, rhydd; torr-, tyrr; tro-, try; ateb-, etyb; gwared-, gweryd; cyffro-, cyffry; cyfod-,* cyfyd; deffro-, deffry; diffodd-, diffydd.

2. In disyllabic present stems having a or o in the last syllable but one, on making the change described in Rule 1, for a or o substitute e:

e.g. gwrandaw-, gwrendy; taraw-, tery; gosod, gesyd; aros, erys; gwared, gweryd; ateb, etyb.

3. In monosyllabic present stems having a as their vowel, for a substitute ai or ei.

(N.B.—Stems like cadw-, ending in w, are counted as monosyllabic):

e.g. saf-, saif; par-, pair; tafl-, teifl; cadw-, ceidw; galw-, geilw; dal-, deil.

4. In disyllabic present stems having a for their last vowel, before consonants, change a to ei, elsewhere to y:

e.g. gwahardd-, gweheirdd; para-, pery; bwyta-, bwyty; atal- also makes etyl.

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^{*} The contracted form of the pres. stem cod- makes pres. Ind. S. 3 cwyd.

REMARKS.

- 215 In gwant, he pierced; cant, he sang; cymerth, he took, we have remains of an old Aorist in -t (corresponding to the -t preterite of Irish).
- 216 2. gwel-, see, clyw-, hear, tal-, pay, have Past stems, gwels-, clyws-, tals-.
- 3. Occasionally the Pres. Subj. of a verb is employed like the Greek Optative to express wish:
 - e.g. gwel-wyf, may I see !
- 4. In some verbs whose present stems end in l, n, air, id, yg, iw, a consonantal i is inserted before endings other than i, and before -as- of the past stem:
 - e.g. dal-, dal-iaf, dal-iasom; arwain-, arwein-iaf, arwein-iasom; cynnyg-, cynnyg-iaf, cynnyg-iasom; erfyn-, erfyn-iaf, erfyn-iasom. To the contrary, tal-af.
- 5. To the verb-noun bwrw, casting, corresponds the present stem bwri-, past stem bwrias-.
- 6. From taw-, be silent, comes Pres. Indic. S. 3, tau, he is silent.

 Obs.—Forms like macco (Pres. Subj. S. 3. Pers.) and maccer (Pres. Subj. Impers.) of magaf, I nurse, have arisen from mag-ho and mag-her, respectively; ho and her being the regular forms of these suffixes in Med. Welsh.

Contracted Verbs.

In conjugating the verbs clyw-, hear; taw-, be silent, where two w's would otherwise come together, one is usually dropped:

e.g. Pres. Indic. P. 1, clywn, we hear, for clyw-wn. Similarly in the case of ciniaw-, dine; galw-, call; gwrandaw-, listen; enw-, name.

The contractions of verbs whose present stems end in 6- or há will be seen from the following paradigms (pp. 52, 53).

NOTE.—The forms enclosed in brackets are uncontracted.

(delwedd F7234) (tudalen 051)

23a

INDICATIVE.		
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	Aorist.	
trōf, <i>I turn</i>	trois	
troi	troist	
trý	trõdd	
trown	troisom 🗭	
trowch	troisoch	
trönt	troisant	
PAST IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.	
trown	troiswn *	
trōet (troit)	troisit	
trōe `	troisai	
trōem	troisem	
trōech	troisech	
trõent	troisent	
SUBJUNCT	IVE (PRES.).	
S. 1. (tröwyf); 2. (tröech)	P. 3. tront	
IMPERATIVE.		
S. 2. trō; 3. (tröed) trōed	P. Same as Present Indic.	
VERB-NOUN.		
tr	oi	

Stems in 6-Impersonal Forms.

PRESENT AND FUTURE.. AORIST.
troir (tröwyd), trowd, trōed

PAST IMPERFECT. PLUPERFECT.
troid troisid *

SUBJUNCTIVE (PRES.) AND IMPERATIVE.
(tröer)

^{*} For tro-ysom, etc.; tro-yswn, etc.; tro-ysid, etc.

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[NDIC	ATIVE.	
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	AORIST.	
cryfhāf, I strengthen	(cryfhéais)	
cryfhéi	(cryfhéaist)	
crythá	(cryfháodd)	
cryf háwn	cryf hásom	
cryfhéwch	cryfhásoch	
cryfhấnt	cryf hásant	
PAST IMPERFECT.	Pluperfect.	
cryf h áw n	cryfháswn	
cryfhéit	cryfhásit	
cryfhái	cryfhásai	
cryfháem	cryfhásem	
cryfháech	cryfhásech	
cryfháent	cryfhásent	
SUBJUNCT	TIVE (PRES.)	
(cryf	hấwyf)	
IMPERATIVE.		
S. 2. cryfhá; 3. cryfháed (cryfháed)	P. Same as Pres. Indic.	
VERB-NOUN.		
cryf háu		

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Stems in há-Impersonal Forms.

INDIC	'ATIVE.	
Present and Future. cryfhéir	Aorist. (cryfhawyd) cryfhaed	
Past Imperfect. cryfhéid	PLUPERFECT cryfhásid	
•	.) <i>AND IMPERATIVE</i> (háër)	

Expression of the Passive.

- 1. To express the Passive, the impersonal forms of the verb are employed.
- 226 2. If the subject of the passive verb in English be a personal pronoun, the pronoun can be expressed in Welsh in two ways—
 - (a) After certain words ending in a vowel, such as na, fe, oni, y, by means of the postvocalic accus. form, immediately preceding the impersonal form of the verb:
 - e.g. fe'm gwelir, I am seen; lit: there is seeing (in respect to) me.
 - (b) By means of the simple form of the personal pronoun placed immediately after the verb:

e.g. gwelir fl, I am seen.

3. Form (a) makes it highly probable that the apparent subject of a passive verb in Welsh is, in its origin, the object of an impersonal verb with subject unexpressed.

4. In colloquial Welsh, which tends far more than the literary language to employ compound forms, the verb caf, *I obtain*, governing a verb-noun qualified by possessive adjectives, is largely used to express the passive:

e.g. yr wyf yn cael fy mlino, = fe 'm blinir or blinir fi, I am troubled, (lit. I am getting my troubling.)

OBS.—For the use of the verb-noun qualified by possessive adjectives, see § 241, and Syntax, §§ 544, 545.

The Verb-Noun.

The Verb-noun, answering partly in usage to the gerund, partly to the infinitive of other languages, is treated in the Celtic languages much more like a noun than it is, for example, in Latin or even in English (see Syntax, §§ 536-549). For instance, in the parent Celtic speech, a noun depending on a verb-noun was put, not in the accusative, but in the genitive case, and hence it is, that the initial letter of a noun 'governed' by a verb-noun, like that of a noun depending on a noun, is unchanged, while that of the object of a verb changes. (See Initial Mutations, § 61):

e.g. clywais gān, I heard a song; wedi clywed cān, after hearing a song.

Note.—The Welsh construction in such an expression, for example, as drwy ddarllen llyfr, by reading a book, corresponded more closely in its origin to such a phrase as 'by the reading of a book,' than to the Latin construction 'legendo librum,' or the English 'by reading a book.' The Genitive in question would correspond to the Objective Genitive. See Syntax, § 346b.

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(delwedd F7237) (tudalen 054)

Endings of the Verb-Noun.

In some cases the verb-noun is identical in form with the present stem:

e.g. newid, changing; byw, living; cynnull, gathering.

In many cases, however, the verb-noun is formed by adding to the present-stem an ending, sometimes terminating in a consonant, but usually consisting of one of the vowels, a, i, o (or io), u. These present stems are frequently identical in form with nouns or adjectives.

Rules for the Formation of Verb-Nouns.

RULES: 1. Present stems having in their last syllable, au, iw, wy, and some with i, u and ai, take 0:

e.g. llif-o, flowing; heul-o, shining (used of the sun); briw-o, hurting; mwyd-o, soaking; twyll-o, deceiving; hud-o, enticing.

233 2. Many present-stems having in their last syllable ei (fr. ai), y or u (when pronounced as i), take -io (with consonantal i):

e.g. seil-io, founding; gwib-io, darting; ffug-io, feigning; lliw-io, colouring; gwyl-io, watching.

3. Present stems, whose last syllable has the vowel o or the diphthong oe, or which end in w, take i:

e.g. llog-i, hiring; crog-i, hanging; poer-i, spitting; oer-i, growing cold; sylw-i, observing; also cyflawn-i, fulfilling.

On the contrary, hoel-io, nailing; coel-io, believing.

4. Most present stems having in the last syllable vowels or diphthongs other than those enumerated, take u, but i is not uncommon after syllables with e or ei:

e.g. tynn-u, drawing; crynn-u, trembling; penn-u, appointing; on the contrary, med-i, reaping; per-i, causing; gen-i, being born; gwein-i, serving; gwaedd-i (pronounced gweidd-i), shouting.

236 5. Many causative and inceptive verbs derived from nouns and adjectives take the ending hau:

eg. dyfr-hau, watering; dydd-hau, becoming daylight; llwfr-hau, becoming timid.

237 6. Some verb-nouns denoting to gather derived from plural and collective nouns denoting fruits, etc., take the ending a.

e.g. afaleu-a, gathering apples; cneu-a, gathering nuts. Similarly, cardot-a, begging; ceinioc-a, collecting pence; and also bwyt-a, eating.

- Other endings of the verb-noun are—an (ian) and fan, found in a few frequentative verbs; ed (ied); ain; eg; yll:
 - e.g. sefyll-ian, loitering; hed-fan, hovering; clyw-ed, hearing; ystyr-ied, considering; llef-ain, crying; rhed-eg, running; ehed-eg, flying; sef-yll, standing.
- The present stem ysgydw-, shake, has the verb-noun, ysgwyd; the present stem chwardd-, laugh, has the verb-noun chwerth-in; the present stem diang-, escape, has the verb-noun dianc.

The Verb-Noun after Prepositions.

- The verb-noun governed by prepositions is extensively employed in Welsh, to supply the place of participles, and to form phrases equivalent in meaning to temporal, final, concessive and other clauses. (See Syntax 346b):
 - e.g. yn dyfod, gan ddyfod, coming; wedi dyfod, having come; ar ddyfod, about to come; dan ddyfod, while coming; erbyn dyfod, by the time that (he) came; er dyfod, though (he) came.
 - In these and similar phrases, in order to indicate who or what performs the action implied in the verb-noun, two forms of expression are used:—
 - (a) As in 'wedi (i'r-dyn) ddyfod,' 'wedi (i-mi) ddyfod,' where the required noun or pronoun preceded by the preposition i, to, is inserted between the preposition governing the verb-noun and the verb-noun which it governs.
 - (b) As in 'wedi-dyfod o'r dyn,' 'wedi-dyfod ohonof,' where the required noun or pronoun is introduced by the preposition o, from, and placed after the verb-noun.

Caution.—In parsing expressions of this kind each word should be parsed separately.

NOTE I.—If the agent of the action expressed by the verb-noun is denoted by a pronoun, the possessive adjective may also be employed: e.g. wedi ei ddyfod, after he came, lit. after his coming; wedi ei hwyrhau hi, after it had become late.

NOTE 2.—The verb-noun qualified by a poss. adj. and governed by the prep. wedi, after, is frequently used to express the equivalent of the English perfect participle passive: e.g. mae y dyn wedi ei ladd, the man has been killed, lit., the man is after his killing.

(delwedd F7239) (tudalen 056)

Irregular Verbs.

- 242 These may be classified as follows—
 - 1. Compounds of wyf, illustrated by their verb-nouns, thus—
 (a) Prepositional, can-fod, perceiving; han-fod, existing; darfod, ending; gor-fod, overcoming; cyf-ar-fod, meeting.
 For can, han, gor, see Syntax, §§ 446, 449, 450.

(b) Adjectival, ad-na-bod, knowing [Latin, cognoscere]; cyd-na-bod, recognizing; gwy-bod, knowing [Latin, scire]; cly-bod, hearing.

OBS.—Ad-na-, is for ad-gna-; gna- being the same root as γνω- in Gk. γι-γνώ-σκω; and gno- in Latin co-gno-sco; gwy-, is for gwydd-, the same root as Latin vid-eo, Gk. iδ-ών for Γιδ-ών; cly- is the same root as Greek κλύ-ω, to hear. Similarly cyd-na- for cyd-gna-.

N.B.—In the compounds bod becomes bod.

2. Verbs from old stems in ag-(-og) [Latin ag-o, Greek ἄγ-ω] and el- [Gk. ἐλ-θεῖν]: Pres. Ind. S. 1, â-f (â contr. from ag-a), I go; Pres. Subj. S. 1, el-wyf, I may go; d-eu-af, d-ō-f (ō contr. fr. -ogo-), I come; d-el-wyf, I may come; gwn-â-f, I make (â for aga-) gwn-el-wyf, I may make.

3. Two verbs which in some forms omit the last consonants of the present stem, and in others make it voiceless, namely, cāf, *I obtain* (present stem caf-, and in some forms caff-); rhoddaf, *I give* (present stem rhodd-, occasionally rhoth-); also arhosaf, *I wait*, present stem aros-, which occasionally omits s.*

e.g. Pres. Ind. P. 1, cawn, we obtain; rhown, we give. Pres. Ind. S. 1, arhō-af, I remain.

Pres. Subj. S. 3, caffo, he may obtain; (rhotho), he may

4. dygaf, I bring, and adolwyn, (obs.) beseeching, in which the final consonant of the stem dwg- is obscured in the verb-noun. dwyn makes Aorist S. 3. dwg. adolwyn is now used only in the Imperative S. 2. attolwg, pray? From attolwg has been formed a new verb attolyg-u, beseeching, with regular conjugation.

5. piau (impers.) it belongs; mões, give! hwde, receive! (used only in the Imperative, S. 2); meddaf, I say; ebe, he says (both used in introducing quotations); tawr (impers.), it matters; dylwn, I ought (used in Past Imperf. and Pluperf. only).

aylwn, I ought (used in Past Imperi. and Pluperi. only).

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6. The nouns rhaid, necessity; dichon, sufficiency; which are

treated partially as verbs.

^{*} The history of this apparent omission probably is, that a new method of conjugation based upon the verb-noun aros has been developed.

Compounds of 'wyf.'

A. PREPOSITIONAL.

1. can-fod.—This verb is treated throughout as a compound of wyf: similarly, dar-gan-fod, to discover.

e.g. Pres. and Fut. Indic. S. 1, can-fyddaf, I perceive or shall perceive; Past. Imperf. S. 1, can-fyddwn; Past Imperf. (Impers.), can-fyddid; Aorist Ind., can-fum.

The following forms were once used:—Pres. Ind. S. 1, can-wyf; S. 3, cen-yw; Past Imperf. S. 3, can-oedd, older canh-oedd.

249 2. han-fod.—The verb-noun here given is now used only as an abstract noun, meaning essence. This verb is occasionally used in Past Imperf. S. 3, han-oedd, he was descended; Pres. Subj. S. 2, hen-ffych! hail!

250 han-oedd having been mistaken for han-odd, Aorist S. 3 of a stem han-, a verb-noun han-u has been formed, and the stem han- is conjugated regularly like dysg.

251 3. dar-fod.—This verb is conjugated as a compound of wyf:
c.g. Pres. and Fut. Indic. S. 1, dar-fyddaf; Past Imperf.
S. 1, dar-fyddwn; (Impers.) dar-fyddid.

The following forms were once used:—Pres. Ind. S. 1, dar-wyf; S. 3, der-yw; Past Imperf. S. 3, dar-oedd; Pres. Subj. S. 1, dar-ffwyf; Past Imperf. Subjunctive S. 3, dar-ffai; Imperative, S. 3, der-ffid.

- 252 4. gor-fod.—This verb is conjugated mainly as a compound of wyf:
 - e.g. Pres. and Fut. Indic. S. 1, gor-fyddaf; Past Imperfec S. 1, gor-fyddwn.

The following forms were once used: Pres. Ind. S. 1, gor-wyf; S. 3, gor yw; Pres. Subj. S. 1, gor-ffwyf; Past. Imperf. Subj. S. 3, gor-ffai.

- OBS.—gorfod is now largely used to express the idea of obligation:
 - e.g. in such an expression as 'yr wyf yn gorfod,' I am obliged though literally this sentence should mean, I am compelling, or overcoming. The sentence in question is probably a condensed form of 'yr wyf yn fy ngorfod,' I am being compelled. The original formation of gor-fod having been forgotten, a new verbnoun gor-fodi, to compel, has been formed, with regular conjugation:

e.g. gorfodir fi, I am compelled.

5. cyf-ar-fod.—This verb has Present and Future Indic. S. 1, cyf-ar-fydd-af, etc.; Past Imperiect S. 1, cyf-ar-fyddwn, etc.; Aorist S. 1, cyf-ár-fum, like būm. The remaining forms in use are conjugated like wyf.

NOTE.—The forms canwyf, etc., hanwyf, etc., darwyf, etc., gorwyf, etc., were mostly used with Perfect meaning, possibly on the analogy of the Perfect forms of af, deuaf and gwnaf.

B. ADJECTIVAL.

ad-na-bod, cyd-na-bod, gwy-bod, cly-bod.

255 r. ad-na-bod, knowing [Latin, cognoscere].

adnabod is treated partly as a compound of wyf, partly as a regular verb from present-stem adwaen.

INDICATIVE (PRES. not FUT.).	SUBJUNCTIVE (PRES.).
adwaen (also adwen) adwaen-ost edwyn adwaen-om adwaen-och adwaen-ant	adwaen-wyf, etc., also adna- byddwyf, and contracted adna-pwyf adne-pych adna-po adna-pom adna-poch adne-pynt

NOTE 1.—The other forms are conjugated like wy1:

Leg. Fut. adna-byddaf; but, in addition, we have, from adwaen-, Past Imperf., adwaen-wn; (Impers.) adwaen-id; Aorist Indic. S. 3, adwaen-odd: Pres. Indic. (Impers.) adwaen-ir; Aorist (Impers.), adwaen-wyd; Pres. Subj. and Imperative (Impers.), adwaen-er.

NOTE 2.—For Past Imperf. Indic. (Pers.) S. 3, adwaen-ad was at one time used.

NOTE 3.—adwaen is probably an old Perfect form.

2. cyd-na-bod, recognizing.

cydnabod is conjugated as a compound of wyf: Pres. and Fut. Ind. cydna-byddaf, etc. Aorist Indic. S. 1, cydná-bum.

(delwedd F7242) (tudalen 059)

3. gwy-bod, knowing [Latin, scire].

gwybod is treated mainly as a compound of wyf, but partly as a regular verb from present stem gwydd.

INDICATIVE (PRES. not FUT.).	SUBJUNCTIVE (PRES.).
gwn gwydd-ost gwyr gwydd-om gwydd-och gwydd-ant	gwy-byddwyf, etc., also con- tracted, gwy-pwyf, etc.

NOTE 1.—The remaining tenses are conjugated like wyf:

e.g. Fut. Indic. gwy-byddaf; but, in addition, we have—Past Imperf.
Indic. gwydd-wn; (Impers.) gwydd-id; Pres. Indic. (Impers.)
gwydd-ir, gwydd-ys, or gwydd-is (also contracted into gwys).

NOTE 2.—For Past Imperf. Ind. S. 3, gwydd-iad was at one time used.

4. cly-bod, hearing.

258 (a) cly-bod, the verb-noun (rare), is now used only as an abstract noun, meaning hearing.

(b) The following forms parallel to this verb-noun are used side by side with the regular forms from clyw-, hear-

Aorist Indic. S. and P. 1, 2, 3, cly-bûm, -búost, -bu, -búom, -búoch, -buont- or búant.

NOTE.—From the stem cly-comes the only remnant of the old Reduplicated Perfect in Welsh, namely, the obsolete Perf. S. 3, cigleu (cigle), he has heard. From this stem also came an Imper. S. 2, de-gle, hear.

Verbs containing the roots ag- (og-), and el-.

āf, I go; deuaf, I come; gwnāf, I make.

The verb-nouns are—myned, going; dyfod, dod, coming; gwneyd or gwneuthur, making. (For myned, mynd is also used.)

(a) The present stems of these verbs are—

a-: e.g. â-f (=a-af) d-eu-: e.g. d-eu-af (d- for dy-) el-: e.g. el-wyf d-el-: e.g. d-el-wyf

gwn-ā-: e.g. gwnā-f (=gwn-a-af) gwn-el-: e.g. gwn-el-wyf.

(b) The past stems of these verbs are—

aeth-: e.g. euth-um

els-: e.g. els-id

d-aeth-: e.g. d-euth-um

d-els-: e.g. d-els-id

gwn-aeth-: e.g. gwn-euth-um gwn-els-: e.g. gwn-els-id.

INDIC	ATIVE.	
Present A	ND FUTUR	E.
deu-i or doi dāw, dēl	i	gwn-āf gwn-ei gwn-ā, gwn-ēl gwn- awn
deu-wit of down deu-with or down deu-ant or dont		gwn-ewch gwn-ant
PAST IM	PERFECT.	
	doit, or	gwn-awn, also gwnel- -wn, etc. (reg.) gwn-ait, or gwn-aet
(reg.)	dōi, or dōe	gwn-āi, or gwn-āe
	dõem dõech dõent	gwn- āem gwn-āech gwn-āent
г.		PLUPERFECT.
th, gwn-āeth S. 1um 2ost P. 1om 2och 3ant	daet	•
·SUBJUNCTI	VE (PRESI	ent).
el- de!- gwnel-		
IMPERATIVE.		
S. 3. deu-ed doed	del-ed	S. 2. gwn-ā S. 3. gwn-āed gwn-el- ed (Plural as Pres. Indic.)
	deu-af or de deu-i or dei deu-i or dei deu-wn or deu-wch or deu-wn, etc., del-wn, etc., (reg.) T. th, gwn-āeth S. Ium 2ost P. Iom 2och 3ant SUBJUNCTI el- del- gwne IMPER S. 2. (ty-red S. 3. deu-ed dōed	deu-wn or down deu-wch or dowch deu-ant or dont PAST IMPERFECT. deu-wn, etc., down del-wn, etc., doit, or doet doen doen doen doen tr. th, gwn-āeth S. ium 2ost P. iom 2och 3ant SUBJUNCTIVE (PRESE el- del- gwnel-

^{*} dos is of doubtful origin. ‡ P. 2. dewch is often found. † ty-red is the Imper. rhēd, run, with prefix dy: d being hardened to t.

āf, deuaf, gwnāf-Impersonal Forms.

	INDICATIVE.	
	PRESENT AND FUTURE	L.
eir	deu-ir	gwn-ei r
	PAST IMPERFECT.	
eid or elid	deu-id, del-id, or doid	gwn-eid, or gwn-elic
	Aorist.	
āed or aeth-pwyd	deuwyd or daeth- pwyd	gwn-āed or gwn-aeti pwyd
	PLUPERFECT.	
_	th- or els- th- or dels- a-aeth- or gwnels-	·
	SUBJUNCTIVE.	
	el- del- gwn-el-	

NOTE 1.—The forms ēl, dēl and gwnēl have arisen by the loss of the suffix from elo, delo, gwnelo, respectively. In Modern Welsh they are seldom employed except to express the Future Indicative, but in Mediæval Welsh they were constantly employed as Subjunctives also.

NOTE 2.—In the forms aeth-pwyd, daeth-pwyd, and gwnaeth-pwyd, pwyd, with hardening of b to p (cf. § 52), stands for bwyd, a contracted form of bu-wyd, Aorist and Perfect Impersonal of wyf. Compare the Mediæval Welsh form, ducpwyt, was led; gorucpwyt, was made; gwanpwyt, was pierced; dywespwyt (for dywed-pwyt) was said.

OBS. 1.—The forms āeth, dāeth, gwnāeth, are probably old deponent perfect participles, which have served as bases for the Aorist forms S. 1, euth-um, S. 2, euth-ost, on the analogy of būm, buost.

OBS. 2.—In addition to the forms already given, the following may be noted—

- (a) Perfect forms—from āf: Perf. S. 1, edd-wyf; 2, edd-wyd; 3, edd-yw.
 - ,, gwn-āf: Perf. S. 1, gwn-edd-wyf; 3, gwn-edd-yw.
 - " deu-af: Perf. S. 3, dodd-yw, doth yw, dedd-yw.
- (b) Pluperfect forms—from af: Pluperf. S. 3, ath-oedd.
 - " deu-af: Pluperf. S. 3, dath-oedd " gwn-āf: Pluperf. S. 3, gwnath-oedd " (Impers.), gwnath-oeddid.
- (c) Aorist forms—corresponding to dy-fod, are the Aorist forms—S. 3, dy-fu, P. 3, dy-buant.

OBS. 3.—In the forms edd-yw, dodd-yw (doth-yw), gwn-edd-yw, ath-oedd, dath-oedd, gwn-ath-oedd, and gwn-ath-oeddid, we have in single words, forms which are periphrastic:

The last syllable in each case clearly consists of S. 3, Pres. and Past Imperf. of wyf.

The first syllable appears to be an old participle, but its precise original form is not certain.

Verbs omitting the last consonant of the Present-Stem.

caf, I obtain; rhoddaf, I give; arhosaf, I remain.

In the verbs cāf and rhoddaf, the assimilation of a consonant coming between two vowels has been carried to a point further than is normally the case in Welsh with b and d, but regular in the case of g, until at last the consonant has disappeared. In these two verbs, by the side of the phenomenon just described, we have also the contrary phenomenon of dissimilation, whereby, for example, caf-el has become caff-el (also caff-ael).

Cāf—Personal Forms and Verb-Noun.

^	^	•
٠,	ĸ	•2
4	• 8	43

INDIC	ATIVE.				
PRESENT AND FUTURE.	Aorist.				
cāf cei or cai, ceff-i caiff cawn	cef-ais, (cēs) cef-aist, (cēst) caf-odd, cādd, caf-as, cās caws-om				
cewch	caws-och				
cānt	caws-ant				
PAST IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.				
cawn cait, ceit or cāet cāi or cāe cāem cāech cāent	caws-wn, etc. (reg.)				
SUBJUI	NCTIVE.				
PRESENT.	PAST IMPERFECT.				
caff-wyf, etc. (reg.)	Same as Past Imperf. Indic. also caff-wn, etc.				
IMPER	ATIVE.				
S. 3. cāed, caff-ed	P. 3. cānt				
VERB-NOUN, cāel, caffael, (caffel).					

Cāf-Impersonal Forms.

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ICATIVE.			
\ORIST.			
cāed, caf-wyd (cahat, cahad)			
Pluperfect.			
caws-id			
UNCTIVE.			
PAST IMPERFECT.			
Same as Past Imperfect Indic., also ceff-id			
RATIVE.			

Rhoddaf-Personal Forms and Verb-Noun.

(The forms given in this and the following paradigm are found side by side with forms regularly conjugated).

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INDIC	CATIVE.		
PRESENT AND FUTURE. rhōf rhoi rhȳ, dy-ry rhown rhowch rhōnt	AORIST. rhois rhoist rhōdd, rhōes rhois-om * rhois-och rhois-ant		
PAST IMPERFECT. rhown rhoit, rhōet rhōi, rhōe rhōem rhōech rhōent	PLUPERFECT. rhois-wn,* etc. (reg.)		
IMPERATIVE. S. 2. rhō, dy-ro; 3. rhōed P. Same as Pres. Indic.			
VERB-NOUN. rhoi			

Rhoddaf—Impersonal Forms.

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INDIC.	ATIVE.
Present.	Aorist.
rhoir	rhōed, rhowd
PAST IMPERFECT.	Pluperfect.
rhoid	rhois-id *

OBS.—For Pres. Subj. S. 3, rhotho is found, illustrating the process by which the corresponding form caffo from caf-, has been produced.

^{*} These forms are for rho-ysom, etc.; rho-yswn, etc.; rho-ysid, etc.

Arhosaf.

287 In this verb, when the accent falls upon -0s, it is usually preceded by h:

e.g. Pres. Indic. S. 1, ar-hos-af.

The following forms, with omission * of s, are sometimes found—Pres. Ind. S. 3, ery; Past Imperf., arhown, arhoit, arhoi (ōe), etc., like trown; Imperative S. 2, aro, in cyf-aro.

Dygaf and Adolwyn.

The peculiarities of these verbs have been already explained, \$ 245.

OBS.—The old auxiliary goruc, gorug, he did, is an Aorist S. 3 of this formation.

Piau.

270 1. (a) piau, used impersonally to express it belongs, is employed as follows—

Present { S. 1, mi, 2, ti, 3, ef, hi Indicative { P. 1, mi, 2, chwi, 3, hwy } biau, = I own, thou ownest, etc.

- (b) Who owns? is expressed by pwy biau?
- (c) A noun may take the place of the pronoun: e.g. Ieuan biau, *Ieuan owns*.

2. For the other tenses, one of the following compound forms is placed after the pronoun,—

For ,,	Future, Aorist, Pluperfect, Pres. Subjun	Habitual,	ōedd fyddai fydd fū fuasai fŏ or fyddo	piau or biau
33 E.	g. mi oedd bi			<i>)</i>

Mões and Hwde.

mões, give; hwde, accept, are used only in the Imperative S. 2, mões; P. 2, moeswch; S. 2, hwde; P. 2, hwdiwch.

Meddaf and Ebe.

272 r. meddaf, I say, and ebe, he said, are employed in introducing quotations.

^{*} The omission is probably only apparent. See § 224, Note.

2. meddaf is conjugated in Pres. and Past Imperf. Indic. for all persons and numbers.

3. ebe (also found as ebai, ebr, ebra) is used in Past Impers.

Indic. S. 3 only.

NOTE.—In Mediæval Welsh the form heb yr was used as two separate words, yr having been mistaken for the definite article: hebyr, the correct speiling, is an old deponent form ending in -r.

Tawr or Dawr (Impersonal).

273 dawr is found in ni'm dawr, it does not matter to me. From the intensive form di-ddawr, come the common words, dy-ddor-ol, interesting; dy-ddor-deb, interest.

Note.—In Mediæval Welsh a personal form, dorwn, I should care, was also employed.

Dylwn, 'I ought.'

dylwn, used only in the Past Imperf. and Pluperfect to express obligation, takes a verb-noun as its direct object:

e.g. Ni ddylai fyned, he ought not to go.

Ni ddylasai fyned, he ought not to have gone.

Note.—In Mediæval Welsh a present form, dylyaf, was also employed.

Rhaid and Dichon.

rhaid, necessity, and dichon (=digon), sufficiency, are in reality nouns, but, owing to the omission of yw in the expressions, 'rhaid yw,' 'dichon yw,' they are treated partly as if they were impersonal verbs. For instance, like verbs, they may be preceded by the negative adverbs, nī, nā, not.

Rhaid.

- 276 1. In sentences denoting present time, rhaid may be used either alone, or in conjunction with yw:
 - e.g. rhaid i mi fyned, or, rhaid yw i mi fyned, I must go: lit.

 going is a necessity for me: the predicate-noun rhaid
 being put first in the sentence for the sake of em-
 - 2. For the Past Imperfect and other tenses, three forms of expression are possible?
 - e.g. (for Past Imperf.) rhaid oedd; yr oedd yn rhaid; yr oedd raid.
 - 3. Negative sentences are expressed as follows:—

Pres. Indic. ni raid; Past Imperf. nid oedd raid; and similarly with other tenses.

Dichon.

277 1. Dichon is employed—

- (a) In affirmative statements to express the possibility that something took place (in the Pres. Indic., with or without yw).
- (b) In negative sentences and questions, to denote the impossibility, or to question the possibility that something should take place.

N.B.—The construction is the same as that of rhaid. § 276.

e.g. dichon i mi fyned, it is possible that I went.

ni ddichon i mi fyned, it is not possible for me to go. A ddichon i mi fyned? is it possible for me to go?

2. Tenses other than the Present Indicative are expressed by using a form of wyf in the tense required:

e.g. dichon oedd, etc., it was possible, etc.; nid oedd dichon.

3. Instead of the construction with the preposition i given above (e.g. dichon i mi, it is possible for me), dichon is also not unfrequently found followed or preceded by a subject *:

e.g. A ddichon ffydd ei gadw ef? Can faith save him?
Pwy a ddichon sefyll? Who can stand?

Verbs denoting phases of the weather, etc.

278 1. Such verbs have as their subject the simple personal pronoun hī, S. 3, Feminine: See Syntax, § 316.

e.g. y mae hi yn gwlawio, it rains.

y mae hi yn hawdd siarad, it is easy to talk.

Some tendencies shown in the modern treatment of the verb.

Welsh, in spite of its conservative instincts, there is now a strong analytical tendency, owing to which the conjugation of the verb tends to be modelled on a new basis, by means of auxiliaries, as a rule either taking a verb-noun as their direct object or followed by a verb-noun governed by a preposition; so that, for example, the Pluperfect † Indicative is now almost entirely supplanted by the corresponding compound expression. See Syntax, §§ 472, 525.

† When employed to express I had; thou hadst, etc.

^{*} In this construction a form dichyn was at one time frequently employed.

- 280 For this purpose the following verbs are largely used as auxiliaries:-
 - (a) caf, 'I get,' 'I obtain,'—to express the passive voice, with a verb-noun as its direct object.

e.g. cafodd ei weled, he was seen, lit., he obtained his seeing. (b) gallaf, 'I am able'; medraf, 'I am able,' with a verbnoun as direct object, and also dichon, 'it is possible,

to express a kind of potential mood:

e.g. nis gallaf fyned; ni fedraf fyned; nid oes dichon i mi fyned, I cannot go. (For the construction of dichon see §§ 276, 277.)

(c) gwnāf, 'I do,'—with a verb-noun as direct object, to

express an imperative mood:

e.g. gwnewch frysio, do make haste, lit., make a hastening.

(d) wyf, followed by a verb-noun governed by a preposition to form compound tenses as shown in § 184.

(e) gwnāf, with a verb-noun as direct object, to express an

aorist and a future:

- e.g. Wnaethost ti fyn'd am dro? Did you go for a walk? Wnewch chwi aros yno yn hir? Will you stay there long?
- (f) darfu, in Aorist S. 3; followed by i mi, i ti, iddo, etc., and a verb-noun as subject to express a perfect:

e.g. A ddarfu i ti orphen? Have you finished? lit., Has a

finishing taken place for you?

281 Obs.—In writing Welsh, these analytical modes of expression should be used sparingly, and only for the purpose of expressing shades of meaning which the simple forms cannot easily express.

282 CAUTION.—Parse the component parts separately. See Syntax.

§§ 524, 525.

QUESTIONS AND NEGATIONS.

I. Questions.

1. In Welsh the emphatic word is usually placed first in the sentence; this applies to questions as well as to statements.

2. If the emphasis fall on the verb, the interrogative particle

is **a.**:

e.g. A wnaethost ti hynny? Did you do that?

3. If the emphasis fall on some other word, the interrogative particle is ai:

e.g. Ai dyn welodd y bachgen? Was it a man that the boy saw? Ai yno y mae efe? Is it there that he is?

4. The particles a and ai are not unfrequently omitted.

II. Negations.

The negative adverb (=not) is—

94

- 1. In negative statements, nid before vowels, nī before con sonants. See Syntax, §§ 590, 593-596.
- 2. In answers * to questions and in prohibitions, nac before vowels, na before consonants.
 - 3. With the Subjunctive
 With the Indicative in indirect statements
 In temporal, causal, consecutive, concessive,
 final, and hypothetical clauses

 nad before
 vowels, nā before
 consonants.

OBS.—Before c, g, t, d, in 1 and 3, nis and nas are often used.+

- 4. To negative a verb-noun, the verb-noun peidio, ceasing, is employed, with or without the preposition a, ag:
 - e.g. gwell peidio a rhuthro } it is better not to rush.

For the use of the negatives, see also Syntax, §§ 590-597.

III. Negative Questions.

85

In Negative Questions, oni, onid, onis are used as interrogative particles. Where some word other than the verb begins the question onid alone is used.

e.g. Oni fu ese yno? Onid y dyn oedd yno?

Was he not there? Was it not the man that was there?

ANSWERS.

86

'Yes' and 'No' are expressed as follows:—

- 1. In answers to questions introduced by ai, by ie, yes; nage, no.
- 2. ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, a, the form of answer depends upon the tense of the verb:—

(a) If the verb of the question (auxiliary or other) be in the Aorist, yes is expressed by do; no by naddo.

- (b) In all other cases the verb of the question (auxiliary or other), with the required change of person, must be repeated in the answer:
- e.g. A well di y ty? Gwelaf; do you see the house? I do; yes.

 A ydwyt ti yn gweithio? Nac ydwyf. Are you working? I am not, no.

N.B.—The negative in these answers is nāc before vowels, na before consonants.

^{*} Chiefly before forms of wyf, such as wyf, ydwyf, oes, oedd, ydoedd.

[†] The 's' of nis and nas is an old postvocalic pers. pron. S. and P. 3.

PREPOSITIONS.

- 288 r. The simple prepositions in Welsh fall into two main classes:—
 - (a) those to which pronominal suffixes can be added:
 - e.g. dros, over; dros-o-f, over me.
 - (b) those to which pronominal suffixes cannot be added.

Class A, with pronominal suffixes.

am, about ar, on at, towards er, for the sake (of) gan, with, by heb, without hyd, as far as ī, to, into ō,* out of, from rhag, before, from before rhwng, between tan, dan, under tros, dros, over trwy, drwy, through wrth, to, close by yn, in

Class B, without pronominal suffixes.

cyn, before (of time)
er, since
ger, by, near
gerfydd, by
heibio, past
is, below
mewn, in
myn, by (in asseverations)
uwch, above

NOTE.—is and uwch are the comparative forms of the adjectives isel and uchel; mewn is an old noun meaning *middle*, while heibio is an adverb used as a preposition.

- 289 2. In addition to the simple prepositions, Welsh has several compound prepositions consisting of two or more prepositions combined together:
 - e.g. am-dan; o-ddi-ar; o-ddi-am-dan.
- 290 3. There are also several prepositional expressions, consisting of prepositions in construction with nouns:

e.g. ger llaw, near; lit. by the hand (of)—: o achos, on account (of); lit. from the cause (of).

- 291 4. In some cases the nouns forming part of these prepositional expressions are no longer used separately:
 - e.g. plegid [Latin, 'placitum'] in o blegid, because (of); pyn (the old Dative form of pen) in er-byn, against.

CAUTION.—The component words of such expressions should be parsed separately.

^{*} o in combination with suffixes takes the form ohon., ,, other prepositions takes the form oddi-=o+di, compounded of o and an old prep. di, from.

Combination of Prepositions with Pronominal Suffixes.

292 1. In the Celtic, as in the Semitic languages, pronominal suffixes are added to prepositions:

e.g. wrth, by; wrthyf, by me.

2. These pronominal suffixes in Welsh bear a marked resemblance to those used in the conjugation of the verb.

3. The connecting vowels or diphthongs in each case should be carefully noted, and compared with those of the verb.

4. The suffixes for S. 1 are, -af, -of, -yf:

e.g. at-af, to me; heb-of, without me; wrth-yf, by me.

1. at-af, to me.

2. heb-of, without me.

S. 1. at-a-f 2. at-a-t 3. (m.) at-o 3. (f.) at-i	P. 1. at-o-m 2. at-o-ch 3. at-y-nt	S. 1. heb-o-f 2. heb-o-t- 3. (m.) heb-dd-o 3. (f.) heb-dd-i	P. 1. heb-o-m 2. heb-o-ch 3. heb-dd-y-nt
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3. wrth-yf, by me.

S. 1. wrth-y-f 2. wrth-y-t 3. (m.) wrth-0 3. (f.) wrth-i	P. 1. wrth-y-m 2. wrth-y-ch 3. wrth-y-nt
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- (a) Like at-af we have dan-af, ar-n-af (fr. ar, on, with n inserted).
- (b) Like heb-of we have rhag-of, rhyng-of, er-of, yn-of, tros-of, trw-of, o-hon-of, (hyd-of).
- (c) Like wrth-yf we have genn-yf.

REMARKS.

- 295 1. For rhyng-of, yn-of, tros-of, we have also rhyng-wyf, yn-wyf, tros-wyf.
 - 2. tros-of makes S. 3 (m.) tros-t-o, (f.) tros-t-i, P. 3, tros-t-ynt.
 - 3. trw-of makes trw-of, trw-ot, trwy-dd-o, trwy-dd-i, trw-om, trw-och, trwy-dd-ynt.
 - 4. genn-yf makes genn-yf, genn-yt, gan-dd-o, gan-dd-i, genn-ym, genn-ych, gan-dd-ynt. For S. 3, are sometimes found gan-th-o, gen-th-i, for P. 3, gan-th-ynt.

5. i, into, makes S. 3 (m.) i-dd-o, (f.) i-dd-i, P. 3, i-dd-ynt. For the other forms, in place of the suffixes proper, the personal pronouns, mi, ti, ni, chwi are used for S. and P. 1 and 2 respectively, either separately or as enclitics:

e.g. ími, íti, íni, íchwi.

OBS.—The final i of these combinations is often elided, and we have the forms im, it, in, iwch:

e.g. nos dāwch, good night = nos da iwch, good night to you.

Nouns used as Prepositions.

297 Achos, cause, used as a preposition, meaning on account (of); serch, affection, used as a preposition, meaning in spite (of), are employed in construction with verb-nouns:

e.g. achos iddo fyned, on account of his going, because he went. serch ,, in spite of his going, though he went. These nouns are probably old ablatives.

Prepositional Expressions.

298 1. The following is a list of common prepositional expressions, the second part of which is a noun.

am ben, over ar ben, upon ar gyfer, over against ar hyd, along ar draws, across ar ol, after ar warthaf, down upon er mwyn, for the sake (of)* er gwaethaf, in spite (of) ger bron, in front (of) ger llaw, near heb law, besides is law, beneath i blīth, into the midst (of) o flāen, before o fewn, within o achos, on account (of)

o blegid, on account (of) o herwydd o gylch, around o amgylch, around o ddeutu, about o gwmpas, around o ran, for the matter (of) uwch ben, above uwch lāw wrth law, near yn erbyn, against yng ngwydd, in the presence (of) yng nghylch, about ym mhen, at the end (of) ym mhlīth, among ym mysg, among yn öl, after

^{*} Note that 'of' in this and similar cases has nothing to correspond to it in the Welsh prepositional expression, but is implied in the genitive relation of the noun following the expression to the noun contained in the expression.

- 2. The noun which followed one of these prepositional expressions was originally put in the genitive.
- 3. Such phrases as 'on account of me, thee, etc.,' are expressed as follows: o'm plegid, o'th blegid, etc., where 'm, 'th, are the post-vocalic possessive adjectives.
 - 4. Similarly, ger dy fron, in front of thee; ar ei ol, after him.
- 5. With ger llaw, heb law, is law, uwch law, wrth law, the construction with possessive adjectives is not employed, but in its place the preposition i, in one of its pronominal combinations, is used:
 - e.g. ger llaw imi or im', near me. is law iddi, beneath her.

CAUTION.—The component words of these prepositional expressions should be parsed separately.

For the meanings of prepositions, see Syntax, §§ 388-452.

Prepositions governing Verb-Nouns.

For the various expressions formed by means of prepositions governing verb-nouns, see Syntax (Part II. of this Grammar), §§ 346a, 346b, 546-556.

Conjunctions.

Conjunctions belong not to Accidence but to Syntax, and will be found in Part II. of this Grammar (§§ 314, 346,* etc.).

APPENDIX.

I. ON SOUNDS.

Quantity.

- r. Simple vowels and the first vowels of diphthongs in Welsh may be either long or short.
 - 2. A diphthong is counted long when its first vowel is long.

3. The second vowel of a true diphthong is always short.

4. A simple vowel or the first vowel of a diphthong in Welsh is never long except—

(i.) in a monosyllable.

(ii.) in the accented final syllable of a polysyllabic word.

(iii.) in an accented syllable, whose vowel is immediately followed by a vowel or h.

(iv.) in certain prefixes such as di- and tra- when they have a strong secondary accent.

Quantity of simple vowels in monosyllables and accented final syllables.

1. The vowels of monosyllables ending in more than one consonant are short:

e.g. plant, pant, porth, parth, wrth, cant:

Except in North Wales, in the case of words ending in st, sb (sp), sg, llt:

e.g. clūst, gwisg, cosb, mellt.

2. The vowels of monosyllables ending in the voiceless mutes p, t, c; in the nasals m, ng; and in the voiceless lingual ll are

Except—ym, we are; bom, we may be; bot, thou mayest be; oll and holl; and, in South Wales, most monosyllables ending

3. The vowels of monosyllables ending in the voiced mutes b, d, g; in the voiceless spirants, ff, th, ch; in the voiced spirants f, dd, and in the sibilant s are long.

N.B.—In North Wales, prepositions and conjunctions of this form are generally short:

e.g. heb, ag.

4. If a monosyllable end in a vowel, the vowel is long.

NOTE.—The only exceptions are a few unemphatic proclitics, a, y, fy, dy, etc., in connected speech. When emphasized these are pronounced long.

5. If a monosyllable end in l, n, or r, its vowel may be long or short; in words of this type, if the vowel be i or u, it is long, except in prin and pin; if the vowel be a, e, o, w, y, there is no rule for determining its quantity.

Quantity of the first vowels of diphthongs in monosyllables and accented final syllables.

- 1. In monosyllables and accented final syllables, the first vowels of the diphthongs ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ey, aw, ew, iw, ow, uw, yw, are short:
 - e.g. sain, ein, troi, crynhoi, haul, gweu, dweyd, clawdd, mewn, rhiw, trown, duw, llyw
- N.B.—In North Wales, a and e in aw and ew, when not followed by a consonant, are pronounced long:
 - e.g. rhāw, tēw; also the diphthongs āi, ōi (āe, ōe), in the forms gwnāi, trōi (=trōai), also written trōe, gwnāe, and pronounced trōu and gwnāu in North Wales.
 - 2. In similar cases a, o, w in the diphthongs ae, oe, wy are long.

The 'Epenthetic' Vowel.*

- 1. Where a word which is monosyllabic or accented on the last syllable ends in a consonant + l, n, or r (or in some words in m borrowed from English), the final consonant tends to form a separate syllable.
- 2. Since Welsh, in contradistinction to English, requires in the final syllable a distinct vowel, the final syllable formed by l, n, or r receives a distinct vowel-sound, through the repetition of the vowel of the preceding syllable:
 - e.g. budr becomes budur: pobl, pobol.
- 3. If the accented syllable preceding the consonantal combinations in question contain a diphthong, the *second* vowel of the diphthong (in its written form) is repeated as an epenthetic vowel:
 - e.g. brwydr becomes brwydyr; hoedl becomes hoedel.
- N.B.—In North but not in South Wales, words ending in fl, fn and fr remain monosyllabic.

· Initial Mutation of Consonants.

Initial mutations, in point of usage, are of three types—

- A. The change of p, t, c into b, d, g; of b, d, g into f, dd, —; of ll, rh into l, r; of m into f. (The 'soft' mutation.)
- B. The change of p, t, c into ph, th, ch. (The 'aspirate' mutation.)
- C. The change of p, t, c into mh, nh, ngh, of b, d, g into m, n, ng. (The 'nasal' mutation.)

^{*} This vowel is also known by its Sanskrit name 'swarabhakti' vowel.

Type A. (The 'soft' mutation.)

This is the most common type of initial mutation in Welsh, and occurs—

I. In a word following a parenthesis:

e.g. gwelwyd (yn y lle) rai dynion; wedi (i mi) fyned.

2. In address:

e.g. gyfeillion hoff, dear friends.

- 3. In the second element of word-groups of the following forms:—
 - $(a) \times + noun.$
 - (b) noun + x.
 - (c) x + verb.
 - (d) verb + x.
 - (e) x + adjective.
- (a) x + noun. In this case x may be:—
 - (1) a proper name, when followed by an agnomen:

e.g. Dafydd frenin, David the king.

- (2) the common nouns, eglwys, teml, ty, teyrnas, before Duw; ty and eglwys before Mair and Dewi; llan before names of saints.
- (3) an adjective in the positive or the superlative degree; together with ambell, aml, rhyw, and its compounds amryw, cyfryw, unrhyw; dy, 'th, ei (masc.); pā; yr hwn; dau; dwy; y fāth and pa fāth; and—before nouns fem. sing. only—ūn and the ordinal numbers.
 - (4) the definite article y, before nouns fem. sing. only.

(5) the word yn, used to introduce a predicate-noun.

(6) one of the prepositions am, ar, at, gan, heb, hyd, ī, tan (dan), tros (dros), trwy (drwy), ō, wrth.

(7) one of the adverbs dyma,* dyna, dacw.

(8) an interjection.

(b) noun + x. In this case x may be—

(1) an adjective (or a noun used as an adjective) after a noun fem. sing. only:

e.g. dynes ddu, allt göed.

(2) a personal pronoun:

e.g. dy lyfr di.

[&]quot;dyma, dyna, dacw, stand for wel di yma, see thou here; wel di yma, see thou there; wel di acw, see thou yonder; respectively.

- (3) an adverb, modifying an adjective which qualifies a noun fem. sing.:
 - e.g. y ddynes dra hardd.
- (c) x + yerb. In this case x may be—
 - (1) the interrogative particle a: e.g. A ddaw? will he come?
 - (2) the pre-verbal particle a: e.g ddydd a ddaw, a day that will come.
 - (3) a personal pronoun (where a is omitted).
 - e.g. ti redodd oreu.
 - (4) a noun (where a is omitted):
 - e.g. John gafodd y wobr.
 - (5) an adjective used as an adverb: e.g. syn fyfyriai.
 - (6) the adverbs ni, na (not), oni, only before verbs beginning with b, d, g, ll, rh, m: e.g. ni ddaw, he will not come.
 - (7) the conjunction pan, when: e.g. pan ddaw, when he comes.
- (d) verb + x. In this case x may be—
 - (1) a personal pronoun: e.g. gwelodd fi, he saw me.
 - (2) a noun or verb-noun as object: e.g. ceisiodd droi, he tried to turn.
 - (3) a noun or verb-noun as subject, only after oes S. 3. Pres. Indic. of bod: e.g. nid oes ddyn, there is not a man.
 - (4) a predicate-noun or predicate-adjective after forms of wyf.
 - (5) words denoting duration, point of time, distance and measure: e.g. aeth filltir, he went a mile.
- (e) x + adjective. In this case x may be—
 - (1) a noun fem. sing.: e.g. dynes dda, a good woman.
 - (2) the definite article before an adjective qualifying a noun fem. sing.: e.g. y fwynaf ferch, the gentlest maiden.
 - (3) one of the adverbs go, rhy, and (except as a general rule usually before ll and rh) pūr, cyn, mor: e.g. go lawn, rather full.
 - (4) the word yn, introducing a predicate-adjective or an adjective used as an adverb: e.g. yn dda, well.

NOTE 1.—After eithr, ond, onid, oddieithr, oddigerth, namyn and heblaw, bod and darfod often undergo mutation of type A.

NOTE 2.—After ni and na mutation in the case of forms of wyf is optional.

NOTE 3.—The word yn used to introduce predicate nouns and adjectives, and adjectives used as adverbs is possibly a remnant of the old Brythonic article.

Type B. (The 'aspirate' mutation.)

This type of mutation occurs in a few word-groups as follows:—

- (1) after the conjunctions a, and; na, nor, than; o, if.
- (2) ,, prepositions a, gyda, tua, efo, with.
- (3) ,, possessive adjective ei (fem.).
- (4) ,, cardinal numbers tri and chwe.
- (5) ., adverb trā.

Type C. (The 'nasal' mutation.)

This type of mutation occurs in a few word-groups as follows:—

- (1) after the possessive adjective fy, my (older fyn).
- (2) ,, preposition yn, in (except in the case of the verbnoun).
- (3) after the cardinal numbers, saith, wyth, naw, deng, deuddeng, ugain, can, when followed by diwrnod, blynedd, blwydd.

gay hears how in

II. ON SPELLING.

Some difference of opinion still exists with regard to Welsh spelling, especially in the matter of doubling consonants. It is impossible to formulate entirely satisfactory rules on this subject, because the practice even of good writers varies very considerably.

The Orthographical Committee of the Welsh Language Society in its Report (Welsh National Press Co., Carnarvon, 1893) recommends doubling only in the case of n and r in accented syllables, and then only in cases where the n or r closes the accented syllable. As it is not always easy to determine the correct division into syllables, the student will do well to avoid doubling these consonants except where it is the universal practice of good-writers to double them.

OBS.—When an ending is added to a word terminating in n or

r whose vowel is short, the n or r is often doubled.

N.B.—In Welsh a consonant following an accented vowel is not pronounced with so much force as a consonant in a corresponding position in English.

Parallel Grammar Series

WELSH GRAMMAR FOR SCHOOLS

BASED ON THE PRINCIPLES AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE GRAMMATICAL SOCIETY

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PART II—SYNTAX

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PREFACE

The need has long been felt for a Welsh Syntax which would exhibit, in a lucid and systematic manner, the characteristic features of the language, without doing violence to its history on the one hand, or, on the other, ignoring the present state of its development. With this in view, the Author of this work has endeavoured throughout to distinguish clearly between the probable constructions of the parent Celtic speech and the actual constructions of modern Welsh, as shown, for example, in the difference between the extinct and the living uses of such words as mai, pe, and the pre-verbal particles a and yr(y). In Welsh philology a clearer distinction between the probable origin of forms and their present uses is urgently needed. To obscure divergences between earlier and later meanings of forms, in the case of any language, is to lose sight of the principles which have governed its whole history.

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ABERYSTWYTH, 1899.

E. ANWYL.

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INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX.

Syntax is the part of grammar which treats of the construction of sentences.

For the classification of sentences see §\$ 339-345.

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ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Subject and Predicate.

The sentence usually consists of two main parts, the Subject and the Predicate. The Subject is the word or group of words denoting that about which something is said in the Predicate; the Predicate is what is said about that which is denoted by the Subject, and it includes not only the Verb, but also any Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun or Object or Adjunct (or combination of these) with which it may be joined. Such additions to the Verb will be spoken of as the Remainder of the Predicate. Note that in all cases the Predicate includes the whole of what is said about that which is denoted by the Subject.

These two parts of the sentence may be contained in a single word: e.g. canant, they sing.

The Normal Order of the Welsh sentence is Verb—Subject—Remainder of Predicate.

The Predicate may assume any of the following five forms:—

FORMS OF THE PREDICATE.

	VERB.	SUBJECT.	REMAINDER OF PREDICATE.
I	cān	y dÿn	
II	māe	y dÿn	Predicate Noun or Adjective. yn* frenin or yn* ddā
III	gwelodd †	y dÿn	Object. y bachgen
ıv	rhoddodd †	y dyn	Two Objects lyfr i'r bachgen
v	galwodd †	y dyn	Object. Pred. Noun or Adjective. yn* frenin or yn* dda

^{*} The word 'yn' which usually precedes the Predicate-noun or Predicate-adjective is probably a remnant of one of the forms of the Brythonic definite article. A *Predicate*-noun or adjective is a noun or adjective *predicated* of the Subject or the Object.

† Verbs which generally take an Object are called transitive. Verbs which generally take no Object are called intransitive.

Inverted Order. (See Appendix.)

The normal order of the sentence is frequently changed for the sake of emphasis, the emphatic word or group of words being put at the beginning of the sentence.—Thus the Subject or the Object or the Predicate-adjective or the Predicate-noun or the Adjunct may be put before the Verb. In such cases the word a or yr (y) is put immediately before the verb as shewn in the following examples.* (Cf. Accidence, § 194, 2nd ed.)

With Predicate of Form I:-

y dyn a gan, 'the man sings'; 'it is the man who sings.' y dyn sydd yma, 'the man is here'; 'it is the man who is here.'

With Predicate of Form II:-

brenin yw y dyn, 'the man is a king'; 'it is a king that the man is.'

dā yw y dŷn, 'the man is good': 'it is good that the man is.'

Similarly with a Predicate-pronoun:

mysī yw, 'it is I'; pwy yw? 'who is it?'

With Predicate of Form III:

y bachgen a welodd y dyn,† 'the man saw the boy'; 'it was the boy that the man saw.'

With Predicate of Form IV:

(a) llyfr a roddodd y dyn i'r bachgen, 'the man gave the boy a book'; 'it was a book that the man gave the boy.'

(b) i'r bachgen y rhoddodd y dyn lyfr, 'the man gave the boy a book'; 'it was to the boy that the man gave a book.'

With Predicate of Form V:—

(a) ef a alwold y dyn yn frenin, 'the man called him king'; 'it was he whom the man called king.'

(b) yn frenin y galwodd y dyn ef, 'the man called him king'; 'it was a king that the man called him.'

Similarly where an Adjunct is emphasised: e.g. yno yr aeth, 'he went there'; 'it was there that he went.'

† Observe the possible ambiguity between Subject and Object in sentences of this type.

^{*} When the Subject or the Object is put first, a is employed, in other cases yr or y; yr before vowels and h; y before consonants. The forms from wyf etc., oeddwn etc. and sydd, do not take a.

Attributes.

Any noun (whether standing in the Subject or in the Predicate) may be qualified by an adjective (or adjective-equivalent, § 310); e.g. gwr doeth, a wise man; cyfeillion hoff, dear friends. Such a qualifying part of the sentence is called an Attribute.

Adjuncts.

307 Any verb, adjective or adverb in the sentence may be qualified by an adverb (or adverb-equivalent, § 311):

e.g. ymladdodd y dyn yn ddewr, the man fought bravely.

mae yn weithiwr trā diwyd, he is an exceedingly diligent
workman.

cerddodd yn bûr gyflym, he walked rather rapidly. Such a qualifying part of the sentence is called an Adjunct.

Equivalents.

308 The noun, the adjective and the adverb may be replaced by other parts of speech doing the same work in the sentence, or by a group of words doing the work of a single part of speech. A word or group of words which replaces a noun, an adjective or an adverb is called an Equivalent (Noun-equivalent, Adjective-equivalent or Adverb-equivalent).

A group of words forming an Equivalent and not having a

Subject and Predicate of its own is called a Phrase.

A group of words forming an Equivalent and having a Subject and Predicate of its own is called a Subordinate Clause (cf. § 312).

For a list of noun-, adjective-, and adverb-equivalents see §§

309-311.

Noun-, Adjective-, and Adverb-Equivalents.

NOUN-EQUIVALENTS.

309 A noun-equivalent may be—

(a) A pronoun: e.g. buost tī yno, thou hast been there.

(b) An adjective, with or without the article: e.g. cyfoethogion, rich men; y cyfoethogion, the rich; y gwīr, the true.

- (c) A verb-noun *: e.g. hyfryd ydyw gweithio, it is pleasant to work (lit. working is pleasant); ceisiaf weled, I shall try to see.
- (d) A phrase consisting of a verb-noun and words connected therewith: e.g. dywedodd fod dynion yno, he said that there were men there (lit. the being of men there).
- (e) A verb-adjective preceded by the article: e.g. yr anfonedig, the person sent.
- (f) A clause in a complex sentence: e.g. dywedodd nad oedd dynion yno, he said that there were no men there.
- (g) A word or group of words quoted : e.g. heb 'os' nac 'onibāe,' without 'if' or 'were it not.'

ADJECTIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

310 An adjective-equivalent may be—

- (a) A verb-adjective: e.g. gwelliant addawedig, a promised improvement.
- (b) A noun depending on another noun, corresponding to the genitive of Greek and Latin: e.g. llais dyn, the voice of a man.
- (c) A noun or verb-noun used as an adjective: e.g. wal gerrig, a stone wall; carreg ateb, an echo, (lit. an answering stone; i.e. a stone for answering.)

(d) A noun in apposition: e.g. ni ddynion, we men.

(e) A noun governed by a preposition: e.g. llain o frethyn, a piece of cloth.

(f) An adverb: e.g. y dynion gynt, the men of old.

(g) A clause in a complex sentence: e.g. pell yw y llē y bum ynddo, far is the place where I have been.

ADVERB-EQUIVALENTS.

311 An adverb-equivalent may be—

- (a) A noun corresponding to an oblique case of Greek and Latin: e.g. arhosaf dridiau, I shall stay three days; cerddasant filldir, they walked a mile.
- (b) A noun governed by a preposition: e.g. āf at y ty, I shall go towards the house; trwy drais, by force; gyda thrafferth, with difficulty.

e.g. dan alw y dyn yn ffol, calling the man foolish, like geilw y dyn yn ffol, he calls the man foolish.

^{*} The verb-noun, though in many respects treated as a noun in Welsh, yet, in some important respects, takes the construction of a verb:

(c) A phrase formed by means of a verb-noun governed by prepositions: e.g. cyn dyfod, before coming; er dyfod, in spite of coming.

(d) A clause in a complex sentence: e.g. synnodd pan welodd, he

marvelled when he saw.

The Simple and the Complex Sentence.

312 1. aeth i'w dy, he went into his house.

2. aeth i'w dy, pan orphenodd, he went into his house, when he

had finished.

A sentence like (1), which contains only one group of words having a Subject and a Predicate, is called Simple [Lat. simplex = one fold.

A sentence like (2), which contains—

(a) a Principal group, having a Subject and a Predicate of its own,

(b) a Subordinate group, having a Subject and a Predicate of its own, is called Complex, and each of the groups is called a Clause (cf. §§ 308, 313).

> Principal Clause. Aeth i'w dy,

Subordinate Clause. pan orphenodd.

١,

Kinds of Subordinate Clause.

- 313 Subordinate Clauses may be classified according to the part of speech to which they are akin:-
 - 1. Noun Clauses: i.e. Clauses playing the part of a noun.
 - 2. Adjective Clauses: i.e. Clauses playing the part of an adjective.
 - 3. Adverb Clauses: i.e. Clauses playing the part of an adverb.

Obs.—It should be borne in mind, in studying Welsh Syntax, that:—

(1) Some sentences now treated as simple sentences of , 'Inverted Order,' were probably in origin complex sentences. See Appendix.

(2) Some sentences which express the meaning of a complex-

sentence are simple in form:

e.g. dywedodd ei fod yn glaf, he said that he was ill, lit. he said his being ill.

On the other hand, dywedodd nad oedd yn glaf, he said that he was not ill, is a complex sentence.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions.

314 r. Two or more sentences, clauses, phrases or single words linked together by one of the following conjunctions are called Co ordinate, and the conjunctions which link them together are called Co-ordinating conjunctions:—

a, ac, and	nac, na, nor
ond, eithr, but	canys,
neu,)	oherwydd, for
neu, ai, or	oblegid
ynte,	

OBS.—The forms ac and nac are generally used before words beginning with a vowel and frequently before adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions beginning with f, h, m or n.

2. It sometimes happens that the first member of a group linked together by one of the above conjunctions may be introduced by a word which serves to bring out more clearly its relation to what follows. Thus we get the following pairs:—

Subordinating Conjunctions.

- 315 1. All conjunctions other than those given above are Subordinating conjunctions, introducing either Noun Clauses or Adverb Clauses.
 - 2. In almost all affirmative subordinate clauses of normal order, the verb is preceded by the proclitic particle yr (before vowels and h), y (before consonants).
 - 3. In many Adverb Clauses, the subordinating conjunction is identical with some preposition.
 - 4. In affirmative subordinate clauses of inverted order, the emphatic word of the clause is preceded by the conjunction mai. (For the probable explanation see Appendix.)
 - 5. In negative subordinate clauses, nad (nā) is substituted for yr (y), nad for mai of the corresponding affirmative clause.

Examples:—

dywedais yr awn yno,

nad,,,,

mai yno yr awn

nad,,,,,,

'I said I should not go there.' (Neg.)

'I said I should go there.' (Aff.)

'I said I should not go there.' (Neg.)

'I said I should not go there.' (Neg.)

gan y byddwch yno, galwch, 'as you will be there, call.' (Aff.)
,, na fyddwch ,, peidiwch, 'as you will not be there,

[do not.' (Neg.)

" mai yno y byddwch, galwch, 'as it is there you will be,

[cail.' (Aff.)

" nad " " peidiwch, 'as it is not there you

[will be, do not.' (Neg.)

6. A word like felly, so, is a sentence-adverb, ie. an adverb

affecting the sentence as a whole.

OBS.—Sometimes a clause introduced by a relative may be used in Welsh as equivalent to a co-ordinate sentence: e.g. ym mhen pēth amser daeth rhyw lanc yno, yr hwn, wedi cryn drafferth, a'u hachubodd, after some time a youth came there, who, after some trouble, rescued them.

The two parts of Syntax.

Syntax has to answer two questions:

- 1. How are meanings expressed in sentences and parts of sentences? The answer is given in §§ 316-371, which deal with Sentence Construction.
- 2. What are the various meanings of the inflected forms of words? The answer is given in §§ 372 foll., which deal with the Meanings of Forms.
- N.B.—In dealing with Sentence Construction, those constructions which are peculiar to the Complex Sentence will be treated after those which are common to the Simple and the Complex Sentence.

SYNTAX.

PART I. SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION.

THE SUBJECT.

316 1. In a sentence of normal order in Modern Welsh, the Subject follows the Verb, so that it may be looked upon as the word which indicates the source of the action denoted by the Verb, the Verb in a sentence of normal order occupying the more prominent position.

2. The Predicate could, therefore, be very naturally discussed first, but as it assumes various forms, it is convenient first to

discuss the Subject.

3. In Welsh, as in other languages, the Subject is either a noun or a noun-equivalent.

4. Subject not expressed by a separate word.

As in Greek and Latin and some other languages, the Subject is not expressed by a separate word when it is sufficiently indicated by the verb-ending:

> e.g. gwelais, I saw. ymddengys, it appears. chwiliodd, he searched. aethom, we went.

OBS. I.—If the Verb is preceded by a post-vocalic accus. pronoun (see Accidence, § 130), the Subject, if a pronoun, is practically never expressed in Welsh:

e.g. yno y'm gwelsant, it was there that they saw me; not -yno y'm gwelsant

OBS. 2.—On the other hand, in a negative sentence, the post-vocalic pers. pron. S. 3 cannot be used after nī, so that ef (following the verb) must be employed instead:

e.g. ni cheir ef, he is not found; not, ni'i cheir.

5. Not unfrequently, when the Subject is already sufficiently obvious, or where it would be expressed in English by they (= people in general), one (= French on, German man), things or it (= the situation in general, French il, German es), or where

the intrinsic interest of the action lies in itself, Welsh employs the impersonal forms of the verb: e.g. cychwynir, a start will be made: eir yno yfory, some one will go there to-morrow. This impersonal use was probably the only original use of the impersonal forms of Welsh. (See Accidence, § 178.) Cf. Latin Grammar, P.G.S. § 316*.

6. Verbs denoting phases of the weather.—In the case of verbs denoting phases of the weather, the impersonal forms are not employed in Welsh. Such verbs take the personal form with the simple personal pronoun hi (S. 3. Feminine), as Subject. The Subject is not unfrequently omitted:

mae hi yn gwlawio, it rains; fe † wlawiodd ddoe, it rained resterday.

Note.—The origin of this form of expression is unknown. Possibly it may have been due to a practice among the Celts of attributing such phenomena as rain, thunder, etc., to a goddess.

THE PREDICATE.

Agreement of the Verb with the Subject in Simple Sentences.

WHEN THE SUBJECT IS SIMPLE.

Here it is necessary to consider whether the sentence be of normal or inverted order.

318

aeth y wraig i'r ty, the woman has gone into the house.

aeth y gwragedd i'r ty, the women have gone into the house.

gweithiodd y dynion yn rhagorol, the men worked excellently.

aethom ni gartref, we went home.

maent hwy yno, they are there.

a gawsant hwy ddigon? did they get enough?

RULE.—In sentences of normal order, when the Subject is a noun, the Verb is always in the singular, whether the noun be singular or plural. When the Subject is a pronoun, the Verb agrees with the pronoun in number and person.

[†] For 'see Accidence, § 133 and Appendix.

319

2. In sentences of inverted order (see § 305).

y pendefigion o'r Aipht draw | a ddaw ac Ethiopia (E. Prys), the noblemen will come from distant Egypt and Ethiopia.

y merched (a) gaiff * fyned gyntaf, the women shall go first.
ai chwi (a) roddodd yr arian? was it you that gave the money?

hwy (or hwynthwy) ni fuont yno, they were not there.

RULE.—In affirmative sentences of inverted order, the Verb stands in the 3rd pers. sing. In negative sentences the Verb agrees with the Subject in number and person; see Appendix.

OBS.—Even in affirmative sentences, when the Subject, though placed before the Verb, is not emphatic, the Verb often agrees with it in number and person:

e.g. mi a glywais y chwedl, I heard the story.

pawb a'i bendithiant ef yn wīr, all will verily bless him.

(E. Prys.)

N.B.—A collective noun from which a singular is formed (§§ 76, 77) is treated in Syntax as a plural.

WHEN THE SUBJECT IS COMPOUND.

320

A Compound Subject is a Subject made up of two or more nouns (or noun-equivalents) linked together by the conjunction ac, and, or united in thought without a conjunction.

Here again it is necessary to consider whether the sentence be of normal or inverted order.

321

In sentences of normal order (see § 303). dāeth John a William, John and William came, dāeth John a minnau, John and I came, daethost ti a minnau, you and I came, daethost ti a John, you and John came.

RULE.—In sentences of normal order, if the Compound Subject be a noun + noun or a noun + pronoun, the Verb is in the 3rd pers. sing.; if the Compound Subject be a pronoun + pronoun or a pronoun + noun, the Verb agrees in person and number with the pronoun nearest to it. The same rule applies to words joined together by neu, or.

^{*} Cf. the Breton mé a gar, I love.

3221

2. In sentences of inverted order (see § 305).

John a minnau sydd yma, it is John and I that are here.

ēf a'r bachgen (a) aeth yno, it was he and the boy that went there.

Rule.—In affirmative sentences of inverted order, the Verb, even when the Subject is Compound, stands in the 3rd pers. sing.

ORS.—In negative sentences and sometimes even in affirmative sentences

the Verb is made to agree with the Subject: e.g. ef a minnau ni aethom, he and I did not go; hi a thithau a aethoch, she and you went.

In that case, if the words composing the Subject are of different persons, then the plural Verb is of the 1st person rather than the 2nd or 3rd, and of

the 2nd person rather than the 3rd.

REASON. — ēf a minnau = nī (1st pers. plur.). hī a thithau = chwī (2nd pers. plur.).

Agreement of the Verbs with the Subject in Co-ordinate Sentences.

323

aeth y brenin i'r llys ac eisteddodd ar ei orsedd, the king went into the court and sat on his throne.

eisteddodd y gweithwyr a gorphwysasant, the workmen sat and rested.

aethom i'r ty ac eisteddasom, we went into the house and sat

RULE.—In a series of co-ordinate sentences with the same Subject, the Verbs, in all the sentences after the first, agree in number and person with that Subject.

N.B.—Sometimes, in such a series of sentences, only the first sentence has a finite verb, while the others have each a verbnoun: e.g. aethant i'r ty ac eistedd a bwyta, they went into the house, sat down and ate.

SECOND FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE = VERB + PREDICATE-ADJECTIVE OR PREDICATE-NOUN, § 304, II.)

The same kind of verb may stand in a Predicate of the Second Form as in English:—

1. wyf, I am: e.g. yr wyf yn ddedwydd, I am happy; mae yn frenin, he is a king.

deuaf, I become: e.g. daw y bachgen yn ddyn, the child will become a man.

arhosaf, I remain: e.g. ni erys yn ieuanc, he will not remain young.

ymddanghosaf, I appear: e.g. ymddanghosaf yn drist, I appear sad.

2. The Passives (cf. Accidence, § 178; § 327, note)—
crëir fi, I am created; penodir fi, I am appointed; etholir
fi, I am elected; gelwir fi, I am called; cyfrifir fi, I am
accounted; ystyrir fi, I am considered:

e.g. penodir y tywysog yn frenin, the prince is appointed king; cyfrifir fi yn dlawd, I am accounted pour.

RULE.—The Predicate-noun or the Predicate-adjective is preceded by the predicative proclitic yn (for which see § 304, note). When, however, the Verb is a form of wyf, *I am*, and the Predicate-noun or Predicate-adjective precedes the Verb, yn is not used: e.g dyn wyf, *I am a man*.

3. With other verbs the Predicate-adjective or the Predicatenoun referring to the Subject denotes: either (a) the result of an action:

e.g. fe gyfyd yr afon yn uwch, the river will rise higher. or (b) what the Subject is, was or will be at the time of the action:

e.g. dychwelodd yn fyw ac iach, he returned alive and well.

4. This use of the Predicate-adjective has been greatly extended in Welsh so as to supply the place of adverbs:

e.g. gweithiodd yn egnïol, he worked vigorously.

Cf. the Latin invītus (imprūdens) fēcit, he did it unwillingly (unwittingly).

Agreement of the Predicate-adjective.

325

mae yr afon yn ddofn, the river is deep.. ymddengys y tai yn wynion, the houses appear white. mae y dillad yn ddū iawn, the clothes are very black.

RULE.—As in Latin and Greek, the Predicate-adjective, if capable of undergoing change of form to express gender or number, generally agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, but sometimes the Predicate-adjective, though capable of taking a plural form, is left in the singular, even when the noun of which it is predicated is in the plural.

OBS. 1.—When the Subject is plural and the Predicate-adjective singular, the masculine form of the singular is always used:

e.g. mae y dolydd yn wyrdd, the meadows are green.

(not -yn werdd, though dol is teminine.)

OBS. 2. - When the Predicate-adjective is equivalent in meaning to an English adverb ending in -ly, it always has the form of the singular masculine.

THIRD FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE = VERB + OBJECT, § 301, III.)

The Object.

1. In Welsh, as in other languages,

(a) the Object is either a noun or a noun-equivalent;

(b) if the Object be a declinable word, it stands in the accusative case: e.g. fe'm gwelodd, he saw me.

N.B.—The only words of accusative form in Modern Welsh are the postvocalic personal pronouns. See Accidence, §§ 130, 132.

2. The Object of a verb is often of kindred meaning to the verb. In this case it is called Cognate. As in Latin and Greek, a Cognate Object is usually qualified by an adjective:

e.g. canodd gan ragorol, he sang an excellent song.

Passive Construction.

ACTIVE.

327 | lladdodd y teithiwr lew. the traveller killed a lion. dychrynodd y tarw y bechgyn, the bull frightened the boys.

PASSIVE.

lladdwyd llew gan y teithiwr, a lion was killed by the traveller. dychrynwyd y bechgyn gan y tarw.

the boys were frightened by the

RULE.—In the Passive construction of verbs taking an Object, what was the Object in the Active becomes the Subject; what was the Subject in the Active is connected with the Passive verb by the preposition gan, by (lit. with).

NOTE. - Owing to the peculiar history of the Welsh Passive (see Accidence, § 178), it is often difficult to determine, when the sentence is of normal order, whether the apparent Subject is a Subject of a passive verb or the Object of an impersonal verb; when the sentence is of inverted order and the Subject precedes the verb, the passive character of the verb is much clearer: e.g. gwelwyd dyn (Normal order)

welwyd dÿn (Normal order)
a man was seen ' (unemphatic)

dyn a welwyd (Inverted order) 'a man was seen ' (emphatic).

Verbs constructed with a fixed preposition.

Where a language like Greek, Latin, or German, in other words an inflexional language, uses fixed cases in dependence upon certain verbs, in Welsh, as in English, a fixed preposition often becomes necessary.

329 The chief verbs taking such fixed prepositions are the following:—

(a) Verbs taking the fixed preposition ag (ā), with. cydymdeimlaf [ag] I sympathize ymheliaf [ag] I meddle [with] with ymladdaf [ag] I fight [with] cynefinaf [ag] I grow accusymrysonaf [ag] I quarrel | with tomed [10] cytunaf [ag] Iagree with ymyraf [ag] I interfere ymddiddanaf [ag] I converse with with

(b) Verbs taking the fixed preposition ar, on.

achwynaf [ar] I complain [of] edrychaf [ar] I lock [at] beiaf [ar] I blame galwaf [ar] I call [upon] blinaf [ar] I am tired [of] gwaeddaf [ar] I cry [to] boddlonaf [ar] I am content gweddïaf [ar] I pray [to] gwenaf [ar] I smile on with gwyliaf [ar] cefnaf [ar] I forsake I watch cwynaf [ar] llefaf [ar] I complain [of] I cry [to] I excel. daliaf [ar] I pay heed [to] rhagoraf [ar] dialaf [ar] sylwaf [ar] I notice I take vengeance upon ymosodaf [ar] I attack dylanwadaf [ar] I influence

(c) Verbs taking the fixed preposition at, towards.

agoshāf [at] I approach
cadwaf [at] I keep [to] | neshāf [at] I approach
rhyfeddaf [at] I wonder [at]
cyfeiriaf [at] I refer [to] | synnaf [at] ,, ,,

(d) Verbs taking the fixed preposition with, to, close to.

cenfigenaf [wrth] I envy
digiaf [wrth] I am angry
[with] | lefaraf [wrth] I speak [to]
tarawaf [wrth] I meet [with]
dywedaf [wrth] I tell
tosturiaf [wrth] I pity

Add also: atebaf [i], I answer; ymroddaf [i], I devote myself [to]; cyfranogaf [o], I partake [of]; and ymogelaf [rhag], I beware [of].

Verbs taking a verb-noun as Object.

330 Some verbs take a verb-noun as their Object:

e.g. gallaf weithio, I can work.

dechreuaf ysgrifenu, I shall begin to write (lit. I shall begin writing).

addawodd ddyfod, he bromised to come (lit. he promised coming).

dysgwn ddarllen, let us learn to read (lit. let us learn reading).

The following verbs may take a verb-noun as Object in a Predicate of the Third Form:—

Caution.—The verb-noun after these verbs must not be preceded by the preposition i. After troaf [i], I turn [to]; llwyddaf [i], I succeed [in]; and cytunaf [i], I agree to, the verb-noun is correctly preceded by that preposition. [Cf. § 333, Cautions 1 and 2.]

FOURTH FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE = VERB + TWO OBJECTS, § 304, IV.)

Welsh has no verbs which take two accusatives (like Latin doceo te linguam Latinam, I teach thee the Latin language); and, owing to the absence of dative inflexions, no verbs which take a dative and an accusative. It has, however, a considerable number of verbs which take an Object and a fixed preposition governing a noun or pronoun (or combined with a pronominal suffix) in place of a second Object:

e.g. rhoddaf arian i'r llanc, I shall give the youth money.
amddifadodd ef o'i eiddo, he deprived him of his property.

talasant ei gyflog iddo, they paid him his salary.

332 (a) Verbs taking the fixed preposition i, to.

addawaf [i]	I promise	gofynaf [i]	I ask
atebaf [i]	I answer	gosodaf [i]	I assign [to]
cynygiaf [i]	I offer	maddeuaf [i]	I forgive
danghosaf [i]	I show	mynegaf [i]	I indicate [to]
dysgaf [i]	I teach	rhoddaf [i]	I give [to]
edliwiaf [i]	I taunt	talaf [i]	I pay [to]
gadawaf [i]	I leave	1.	

- (b) Verbs taking the fixed preposition o, from.
- amddifadaf [o] I deprive [of] | cyhuddaf [o] I accuse [of] argyhoeddaf [o] I convince [of] | lianwaf [o] I fill [with]
- (d) Verbs taking the fixed preposition ag (a), with.

 cymysgaf [ag] I mix [with] | cysylltaf [ag] I join [to]

 cynysgaeddaf [ag] I endow [with]
- (e) Verbs taking the fixed preposition at, to, toward.

 cymhwysaf [at] I apply [to] | gosodaf [at] I add [to]

 chwanegaf [at] I add [to] | ysgrifenaf [at] I write [to]
- (f) Verbs taking the fixed preposition rhag, from.

 achubaf [rhag] I save [f.om] | diogelaf [rhag] I protect [from] cadwaf [rhag] I keep [from] | gwyliaf [rhag] ,, ,

333 Verbs taking a verb-noun as one of two Objects.

Some verbs take a verb-noun as one of two Objects:

e.g. dysgodd i mi ganu, he taught me singing.
gofynais iddo fyned, I asked him to go.
gadewch i'r bwyd oeri, allow the food to cool.

The following verbs may take a verb-noun as one of their Objects in a Predicate of the Fourth Form:—

addawaf	I promise	ewyllysiaf	I wish
arbedaf	I save	goddefaf	I allow
archaf	I request	gofynaf	I ask
awgrymaf	I suggest	gorchymynaf	1 command
bwriadaf	I intend	gwaharddaf	I forbid
cāf *	I obtain	gwarafunaf	"
ceisiaf *	I scek	gwnâf	I make
caniatâf	I allow	gwrthodaf	I refuse
cynghoraf	I advise	nacâf	,, ,,
cynygiaf	I offer	paraf	I cause
deisyfaf *	I bescech	rhwystraf	I prevent
dymunaf *	I desire	trefnaf	I arrange
erfyniaf *	I beg		0

Cautions.—1. The verb-noun after these verbs must not be preceded by the preposition i (cf. § 330, Caution):

e.g. gofynaf iddo ddyfod, I shall ask him to come (not, gofynaf iddo i ddyfod).

The unnecessary use of the prep. i before the verb-noun in Predicates of the Fourth Form (in imitation of the English 'to' before the infinitive) is one of the commonest mistakes of inexperienced writers, and should be carefully avoided.

2. After the following verbs, however, which govern a noun or pronoun as one of their two Objects, the verb-noun is correctly preceded by i:—

cynghoraf	I advise	galluogaf	I enable
dysgaf	I teach	heriaf	I challenge
galwaf	I call	1 ,	J

^{*} cāf and ceisiaf take the preposition gan, with; deisyfaf, dymunaf, erfyniaf, the preposition ar, on, before the word denoting the person: e.g. ceisiaf gan y dyn fyned, I try to get the man to go; deisyfaf arno ddyfod, I beg of him to come.

FIFTH FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE = VERB + OBJECT + PREDICATE ADJECTIVE OR PREDICATE-NOUN, § 304, V.)

As in other languages, the chief verbs that take a Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun referring to the Object are verbs denoting to make, choose, call, think, show, leave—the verbs whose passives take a Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun referring to the Subject:

e.g. coronwch ēf yn ben, crown Him Lord.
galwant ēf yn wynfydedig, they call him blessed.
profodd ei hūn yn ffyddlon, he proved himself faithful.

335 With other verbs, the Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun referring to the Object denotes (as in § 324, 3)—either (a) the result of an action:—

e.g. codasant y mūr yn uwch, they raised the wall higher. or (b) what the Object is, was or will be at the time of the action:

e.g. os dywedi y gwīr, cei y gw̄r yn gyfaill, if you speak the truth, you will find the man a friend.

fel, megis, as, may be added:

e.g. mae yn ei drin fel caethwas, he treats him as a stave.

For the use of yn, see § 324, Rule..

For the agreement of the Predicate-adjective, see § 325, Rule.

ATTRIBUTES.

Agreement of the Adjective as Attribute.

335 1. tair carreg drom, three heavy stones ffordd fer, a short road caseg wen, a white mare

RULES: 1. An adjective which has a feminine form in regular use must agree in gender with the fem. noun which it qualifies.

2. An adjective which has a plural form does not always agree in number with the plural noun which it qualifies. If the adjective qualifying a plural noun stands in the singular, the masc. form of the singular must be used, even with plural nouns of the feminine gender.

Obs.—The adjectives—

arall, other cyfan, whole llydan, broad bychan, small gwan, weak marw, dead cadarn, strong ieuanc, young tlawd, poor

as well as most adjectives which denote colours, almost always take the plural form with plural nouns.

N.B.—A cardinal numeral adj. is always followed by a singular noun.

Place of the Adjective as Attribute.

The adjective generally comes after the noun which it qualifies, but the 337 following adjectives are exceptions:—

(a) All the indefinite pronominal adjectives.

(b) All numerals—except cyntaf, first.

(c) prif, chief (fr. Latin primus).

(d) cam, when it means false.

(e) unig, when it means only. (f) Usually, gau, false; gwir, true; and hen, old. When, however, these adjectives are qualified by one of the adverbs go, rather,

iawn, very, trā, exceedingly, they follow the noun.

The Noun as Attribute.

In Welsh, as in English, the noun is often used as an Attribute. especially to denote material:

e.g. wal gerrig, a stone wall; sarff bres, a brazen serpent.

NOTE.—In Modern Welsh such nouns are treated partly as nouns, partly as adjectives:—like nouns they may stand in the plural, like adjectives they undergo initial mutation after feminine nouns. For example, 'gerrig' in 'wal gerrig' is the mutated form of the plural of carreg, stone, c changing to g according to the regular rule for initial mutation in adjectives following feminine nouns. Historically, it is not improbable that such nouns were once in the genitive case. Though a noun depending on a noun does not undergo initial mutation in Modern Welsh, in Mediæval Welsh such mutation was common in the case of a noun depending on a feminine noun.

KINDS OF SENTENCE.

Sentences may be classified as:—

I. Statements;

II. Will-speech, i.e. Commands, Wishes, Concessions;

III. Questions;

IV. Exclamations.

(delwedd F7283) (tudalen 100)

I. STATEMENTS.

340 A. Statements of fact (Mood, Indicative: Negative nid, nī, nis, = Greek ov, Latin non):

e.g. dywedodd y gwir, he spoke the truth.

B. Conditional statements.

These statements may be regarded in Welsh as Conditional sentences with the if-clause omitted:

e.g. (1) carwn ddweyd, I should like to say: understanding pē cawn, if I were permitted.

(2) hoffaswn fyned, I should have liked to go: understanding pē cawswn, if I had been permitted.

RULE.—Conditional statements (including hesitating or cautious assertions) are expressed by the Indicative; Neg. nid (nī):

by the Past Imperfect Indic. used as a Secondary Future, if referring to present time, as in (1);

by the Pluperfect Indic. used as a Secondary Fut. Perfect, if referring to past time, as in (2).

NOTE 1.—There is a strong tendency at the present day, especially in North Wales, to use the Pluperfect form in both cases.

NOTE 2.—The 2nd pers. sing. is often indefinite ($t\bar{t}$, you = "one," Gk. τts , Fr. on, Germ. man).

Statements in co-ordinate sentences.

For the use of a verb-noun in place of a verb in a series of Co-ordinate Sentences see § 323, N.B.

II. WILL SPEECH: i.e. COMMANDS, WISHES, CONCESSIONS.

According as the will-speech is more or less peremptory, it becomes a command or a mere expression of wish.

Commands.

341a I. Commands are expressed by means of the Imperative, the plural of which is the same as the Pres. Indic. P. 2:

e.g. dywed, speak (thou); dywedwch, speak (ye).

2. A pressing request may be expressed by means of the Imperative of gwnāf, followed by a verb-noun as its Object:

e.g. gwnewch aros, do stay.

N.B.—A polite request which would be expressed in English by the Imper. Act. S. 2 is generally expressed in Welsh by the Imper. Impers. S. 3; e.g. please read = darllener.

Prohibitions (Negative Commands).

341b

- 1. Prohibitions are expressed by nac (nā) with the Imperative: e.g. nac ofna, do not fear; nā lādd, do not kill.
- 2. They are also very commonly expressed by using the Imperative of peidiaf, *I cease*, followed by a verb-noun, with or without the preposition ag (a), with:

e.g. peidiwch a myned, do not go, lit. cease to go: cf. Lat. nolite ire.

Wishes.

342

- 1. Wishes as to the future may be expressed by using the Pres. Subjunctive:
 - e.g. gwelwyf y dydd! may I see the day!

 Duw a'n bendithio! may God bless us!

Cf. Lat. vIvat, Gk. ζώη, may he live / Fr. vive le roi! long live the king!

- 2. Wishes that something were (at the present* time) other than it actually is, are expressed by the Past Imperfect Indicative, used as a Past Imperfect Subjunctive, with ō nad (nā)! lit. oh that not! but corresponding in usage to the English oh that! Cf. Lat. utinam vīveret, Gk. εἴθε εζη:
 - e.g. o na bai yn fyw yn awr! would that he were alive now!
 - ō nā byddai 'n hāf o hýd! would that it were always summer!
- 3. Wishes that something had been (in the past) otherwise than it actually was, are expressed by the Pluperfect Indicative, used as a Pluperfect Subjunctive, with \bar{o} nad $(n\bar{a})$; cf. Lat. utinam illīs temporibus vixisset, Gk. $\epsilon i\theta \epsilon \tau \delta \tau \epsilon \epsilon \beta i\omega$:
 - e.g. ō nā buasai yn fyw y pryd hynny! would that he had been alive then!
 - ō nā chawsai ei ddymuniad! would that he had been granted his desire!

OBS. I.—The Pluperfect is frequently used at the present day, especially in the Welsh of North Wales, to express wishes as to the past, present, or future:

- e.g. o na chawswn i fyn'd yfory! oh that I may go to-morrow!
 - o na buasai yn fyw yn awr! would that he were alive now!
 - o na buasai yma ddoe! would that he had been here yesterday!

OBS. 2.—Wishes as to the future are sometimes expressed by using o am, oh for, followed by a verb-noun:

e.g. o am gyseirio sy styrdd i gadw dy ddeddsau, oh that my ways might be directed to keep (i.e. to keeping) thy statutes. Ps. cxix. 5.

^{*} This form may also be used with reference to future time.

4. As the negative adverb nad ($n\bar{a}$), not (Greek $\mu\dot{\eta}$, Lat. $n\bar{e}$), is used in affirmative expressions of wish, negative wishes as to the present and the future are usually expressed by means of the Pluperfect of $\bar{w}yf$ followed by the verb-noun peidio, ceasing, with the preposition yn; the verb-noun peidio being followed by the verb-noun denoting the action required, with or without ag (a):

e.g. ō nā buasai yn peidio (a) myned! oh that he would not go! lit. oh that he would be a-ceasing from going!

Similarly, by the substitution of the preposition wedi, after, for yn, in, a negative wish as to the past may be expressed:

e.g. ō nā buasai wedi peidio (a) myned! oh that he had not gone! lit. oh that he would be after ceasing from going!

5. A negative wish as to the past may also be expressed by using ō nad (nā) with the Pluperfect of wyf followed by the required verb-noun with the preposition heb, without:

e.g. ō nā buasai heb fyned! oh that he had not gone! lit. oh that he were without going!

Concessions.

343 Concessions are expressed by the Imperative. The negative is nac (nā) = Gk. μή, Lat. nē:
e.g. bōed felly, be it so. (Cf. Lat. estō, Gk. ἔστω, Fr. soit.)

III. QUESTIONS.

- 344a Questions may take the form of a sentence of normal or inverted order: see Accidence, §§ 283, 285, 286, 287. For the mode of expressing 'Yes' and 'No' see Accidence, §§ 286, 287.
 - e.g. a welodd y gwas y ceffylau ddoe? did the servant see the horses yesterday?
 - ai y ceffylau (a) welodd y gwas ddoe? was it the horses that the servant saw yesterday?
 - a cldaw y māb adref yfory? will the son come home tomorrow?
 - ai y māb (a) ddaw adref yfory? is it the son that will come home to-morrow?
 - ai adref y daw y māb yfory? is it home that the son will come to-morrow?
 - ai yfory y daw y māb adref? is it to-morrow that the son will come home?

Deliberative Questions.

14b

a ydwyf i fyned?

beth wyf i'w wneyd?

a oeddwn i dewi?

beth oeddwn i'w ddweyd?

am I to go?

what am I to do?

was I to be silent?

what was I to say?

RULE: Deliberative questions (i.e. questions as to what is or was to be done) are expressed by using the verb wyf (ydwyf), I am, followed by a verb-noun with the prep. i, to, as in English:

when the question refers to present or future time, the Pres. Ind. is used:

when the question refers to past time, the Past Imperf. Ind. (Continuous) is used.

OBS.—A deliberative question referring to the future may also be expressed by using the Future (= Present) Indicative:
e.g. a ddywedwn ni wrthynt? shall we tell them?

Double Deliberative Questions.

44c

a wyf i fyned ynte aros? am I to go or stay?
a lefarwn ynte tewi? shall we speak or be silent?
a oedd i fyned ynte peidio? was he to go or not?

RULE.—Where a deliberative question contains two alternatives, the second is expressed by means of a verb-noun preceded by the conjunction ynte, or: or not is expressed by 'ynte peidio.'

NOTE.—The answer corresponding to the finite verb in the case of a double deliberative question is in the Imperative, the answer corresponding to the verb-noun is a verb-noun:

e.g. a lefarwn ynte tewi? Ans. llefarwch (verb), or tewi (verb-noun).

Modes of introducing questions.

44dı

1. For the modes of introducing questions which may be answered by 'Yes' or 'No,' see Accidence, §§ 283, 285.

2. Questions which cannot be answered by 'Yes' or 'No' are introduced, as in other languages, by interrogative pronouns, interrogative adjectives or interrogative adverbs, without any interrogative particle. Such questions always take the form of a sentence of inverted order.

IV. EXCLAMATIONS.

345 Many of the above-named modes of speech may become exclamatory (i.e. may be used to express emotion):—

deced ydyw! how beautiful it is !
mor wyn ydyw! how white it is !
gymmaint y'th gashâf! how (= how much) I hate you!

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

In a Complex Sentence the Principal Clause and the Subordinate Clause have each a Subject and Predicate of its own; but in Welsh the place of the Subordinate Clause is often taken by a Phrase (§ 308) formed with a verb-noun, which is equivalent in meaning to a Subordinate Clause. Such sentences, though expressing the meaning of Complex Sentences, are in form simple: e.g.—

(a) dywedodd fod dyn yno, he said that there was a man there, lit. he said the being of a man there. (Noun Phrase.)

Contrast:—dywedodd nad oedd dyn yno, he said that there was not a man there. (Noun Clause.)

(b) gan iddo orphen, since he finished, lit. owing to him finishing. (Adverb Phrase.)

Contrast:—gan nā orphenodd, since he did not finish. (Adverb Clause.)

In (a) fod is grammatically the Object of dywedodd, and in (b) orphen depends on the preposition gan.

For the limitations to the use of a Clause in special cases see \$\$ 347b, 349b, 358b, 367, 368a, 368b.

Verb-noun phrases (Clause-equivalents).

The following rules as to the construction of these verbnoun phrases apply to all the cases in which they are used (whether as equivalent to Adverb Clauses or to Noun Clauses):

Rules.—1. In the case of all verb-noun Phrases, a verb noun takes the place of the verb in a Clause:

e.g. gwelais ei ddyfod, I saw that he came, lit. I saw his coming. Contrast:—gwelais nā ddaeth, I saw that he did not come. cyn ei fyned, before he went, lit. before his going. Contrast:—cyn yr aeth, before he went.

(delwedd F7288) (tudalen 105)

2. The Subject of the corresponding Clause is, in Active constructions, generally represented by placing the required noun or pronoun (or pronominal suffix)—

either (a) with the preposition i, to, before the verb-noun,

or (b) ,, ,, o,* from, after ,, ,

e.g. gwn iddo orphen, I know that he finished, lit. I know to him a finishing.

gwn orphen ohono, I know that he finished, lit. I know a finishing from him.

cyn i'r dyn orphen, before the man finished, lit. before to the man a finishing.

cyn gorphen o'r dyn, before the man finished, lit. before

a finishing from the man.

But, where the verb-noun is lod, being, the Subject of the corresponding Clause may be represented, if a noun, by placing the noun immediately after the verb-noun, or, if a pronoun, by employing the corresponding possessive adj. with the verb-noun; these rules, however, apply only when bod represents a finite verb in the Pres. Indic. Continuous or the Past Imperf. Indic. Continuous:

e.g. gwn fod y dyn yn hen, I know that the man is old, lit. I know the being of the man old.

gwyddwn ei fod yn hen, I knew that he was old, lit. I knew his being old:

Similarly—er fod y dyn yn hen, though the man is old, lit. in spite of the man's being old; er ei fod yn hen, though he is old, lit. in spite of his being old.

3. The Object of the corresponding Clause in Active constructions and the Subject in Passive constructions are alike represented, if a noun, by placing the noun immediately after the verb-noun, or, if a pronoun, by employing the corresponding possessive adjective with the verb-noun:

e.g. wedi iddo weled y dyn, after he saw the man.
wedi iddo fy ngweled, after he saw me.
clywais golli y dyn, I heard that the man was lost.
clywais ei golli, I heard that he was lost.

^{*} The use of the prep. o for this purpose is now almost obsolete in Welsh prose.

[†] A few other intransitive verb-nouns such as dyfod, coming, myned, coming, machlud, setting, hwyrhau, growing late, and marw, dying, have a similar construction.

Passive verbs (impersonal forms) are most commonly represented in verb-noun phrases by the verb-noun cael followed by another verb-noun depending upon it. See Accidence, § 280:

e.g. dywedodd iddo gael ei flino gan anwyd, he said that he was troubled (once) with a cold, lit. that he got his troubling, etc.

Note.—The use of the genitive case after the verb-noun in Irish, the non-mutation of a noun following a transitive verb-noun, and the use of possessive adjectives with the verb-noun, all point to the fact that in Welsh the verb-noun was followed by a noun in the genitive case. The genitive following a transitive verb-noun and expressing what would be the Object of a transitive verb would correspond to the objective genitive of Greek and Latin, while the genitive following an intransitive verb would correspond to the subjective genitive. These constructions arose at a time when the affinities of the verb-noun to the noun were clearly felt. At the present day, however, we are, on the whole, more conscious of the affinities of the verb-noun to the verb, and, if it were possible for Welsh to develop new case-endings, the case which was once an objective genitive would doubtless become an accusative, and this might possibly also happen to the subjective genitive.

N.B.—In Noun Phrases of Statement and the Equivalents of Causal and Concessive Clauses, when the doer of the action expressed by the verb-noun is denoted by the aid of the preposition i or o, the verb-noun generally corresponds to a finite verb in the Aorist or the Pluperfect in a Clause:

e.g. gan iddo ddyfod, since he came.
gan nā ddaeth, since he did not come.
Contrast:—gwn ei fod, I know that he is, and
gwn iddo fod, I know that he was.

ADVERB CLAUSES AND PHRASES (§ 313).

Adverb Clauses are classified according to the adverbial meaning which they express. Thus we have Adverb Clauses of—

(a) Time, introduced by pan, when \ = Lat. cum pryd, er pan, since [= Lat. ex quo] pryd bynnag, whensoever gynted ag. as soon as [= Lat. ut primum] gydag (gyda), just as trā, while [= Lat. dum] nes hyd nes oni 1 until [= Lat. donec] hyd oni tan (dan) cyhyd ag, as long as [=Lat.quoad] cyn, before [=Lat antequam,priusquam | gwedi, wedi, after [= Lat. postquam (b) Place, introduced by lle, where [= Lat. ubi] lle bynnag, wherever (c) Reason, introduced by gan, since, as [=Lat. quoniam,cum am, because, as [=Lat. quod, quia pan, since, as [=Lat. quandoquidem, siquidem)

(d) Purpose, introduced by fel in order that [= Lat. ut] rhag (e) Result, introduced by nes \so that [= Lat. ut] (f) Condition, introduced by if = Lat. sioni, if not [= Lat. nisi] am, if only [= Lat. dum, dummodo (g) Concession, introduced by—) although = Lat. quamquam, quamvis, licet, serch cyd 1 ut, cum $p\bar{e}$, even if [=Lat. ets], tametsi (h) Comparison, introduced by fel, as = Lat. sicut, ut, quemadmodum] pō, by how much, in proportion as = Lat. quō nag ($n\bar{a}$), than [=Lat. quam] Comparison. + Condition, introduced by fel pē, as if [= Lat. quasi, velut-

si, tamquam, tamquam si

N.B.—Whenever one of these conjunctions (except nad, os, pō, oni and sometimes pē) introduces an affirmative clause of normal order, the verb must be preceded by the proclitic particle yr (y):

¹ Rare. ² Often preceded by ie, yes, yea.

if the clause be of inverted order, the conjunction mai (S. Wales taw) is put after the conjunction which introduces the Clause (except after nad, pō, oni and pē). In Negative Clauses nad (na) is substituted for yr (y) or mai, but mai nid is also occasionally used. (After pan, er pan, trā and tan, the use of yr (y) and that of mai after os, are optional.)

e.g. gan y byddai yno, since he would be there. (Aff.)

" nā " " " " " not be there. (Neg.)

" mai yno y byddai, since it was there that he

would be. (Aff.)

,, nad ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, not there that he would be (Neg.)

Note.—Where the conjunction introducing an adverb clause is identical in form with a preposition, the clause in question may be viewed, historically, as a noun clause governed by a preposition.

Temporal Clauses (§ 346* a).

347a 1. Those whose action is marked as fact:—

pan orphenodd, aeth adref, when he finished, he went home. mae yn ddīg, er pan y daeth yn ol, he is angry ever since he has come back.

ni chafodd lawer o gysur tra (y) bu yno, he did not get much comfort while he was there.

rhoddwch eich enwau, cyn yr ewch allan, give your names before you go out.

2. Those whose action is marked as (a) prospective, i.e. merely contemplated as a future contingency 1; or (b) general:—
(a) Prospective:

nes machludo yr haul, until the sun shall set.

Ch. Edwards, Hanes y Ffydd, 1671.

erbyn yr eloch i'ch llety, by the time that you go (= shall go) to your lodging. Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg, 1713.

wedi yr elo y bechgyn a'r genethod i'r adeilad newydd, after the boys and girls shall have gone to the new building. "Y Genedl," Dec. 28, 1897.

ni bydd y sedd yn cael ei chyhoeddi yn wag hyd onid ymgynhullo y Senedd, the seat will not be declared vacant until Parliament meets (= shall have met).

"Y Faner," Dec. 29, 1897.

¹ It is the contingency of these prospective actions that is mainly suggested by the Subjunctive in Welsh.

(b) General [Ever-clauses of Time]:

mi allaf, pan synnwyf, gael genthynt bob peth a berthyn, etc., I can, whenever I wish, obtain from them everything that belongs, etc. Gr. Roberts, Milan, flor. 1567.

pan byddo fy ngelynion | yn edliw beiau f'oes, whenever my enemies taunt me with the faults of my life. Emrys. cewch fyned pan y mynnoch, you can go whenever you wish.

cenir cloch pan fyddo cystadleuaeth gorawl i ddechreu, a bell is rung when (=whenever) a choral competition is to commence.

Prof. D. M. Lewis in "Y Geninen," April, 1893.

Rules:—1. Temporal Clauses take the Indicative, as in English, when the action is to be marked as fact: Negative nad (nā).

2. When the action is to be marked as prospective or general, the Temporal Clause takes the Present Subjunctive in present or future time; in past time the Past Imperfect Subjunctive, which is identical, in almost every verb, with the Past Imperfect Indicative (wyf, I am, has Past Imperf. Subjunctive S. 1. byddwn and bawn; caf has Past Imperf. Subj. S. 1. caffwn and cawn): Neg. nad (nā).

OBS I.—The use of the Subjunctive has become rare in current Welsh prose, and many of the expressions in which it occurs are stereotyped expressions like,

fel y mynno, as he pleases; doed a ddelo, come what m 1y, etc.

OBS. 2.—The conjunctions pryd bynnag, gydag (gyda), nes, hyd nes, oni, hyd oni, cyn and gwedi (wedi) do not take a negative clause, and gwedi (wedi) rarely takes a clause of past time.

Equivalent Phrases.

The place of an affirmative Clause of Time is often taken by a verb-noun phrase introduced by one of the prepositions cyn, before; erbyn, by (of time); gwedi (wedi), after; gydag (gyda), with; nes, hyd nes, until; wrth, at; and sometimes er, since:

e.g. erbyn imi gyrhaedd, yr oedd y drws wedi ei gau, by the time that I arrived, the door was closed.

cyn i'r dyn ddyfod, yr oeddwn yn canu, before the man came, I was singing.

āf allan nes i'r cerbyd ddyfod, I shall go out until the carriage comes.

wedi imi edrych, yr oedd wedi myned, when I looked, he had gone.

cyn fy mod wedi gofyn, yr oedd ef wedi dweyd, before I

had asked, he had spoken.

wrth iddo redeg, yr oedd yn gwaeddi, as he ran, he shouted. The Subject and the Object of the corresponding Clause are represented according to the rules given in § 346b, p. 106.

Compare with these equivalents the French use of après, after, jusqu'à, up to, avant de, before, with the infinitive (where there is

no change of Subject):

e.g. après avoir lu, il s'endort, after having read, he falls asleep. après avoir lu, il s'endormit, after having read, he fell asleep. Also en, in, with the gerund:

e.g. en lisant, while reading = wrth ddarllen.

Local Clauses (\S 346 * b).

- 1. Local Clauses (Clauses of Place) take, for the most part, the 348 same constructions as Temporal Clauses (Clauses of Time). word lle which introduces them probably represents an old ablative or locative (= in the place), and it is not unlikely that it was once the antecedent of the proclitic yr, which may have meant in which: see Accidence, \$\infty\$ 167, 168.
 - 2. In Modern Welsh Prose, the Subjunctive is only occasionally found in Local Clauses, and then, as a rule, only before forms like byddo (bō), gallo, and mynno, in certain stereotyped expressions:
 - e.g. lle y bō, wherever he may be; lle y mynno, wherever he *પ*ાં!!.
 - 3. The Negative is nad (nā), but nid (nī) is not unfrequently used, especially where the action is emphasised as a fact. -
 - 4. The following are instances of the Subjunctive in Local Clauses:—
 - (1) Prospective:

ni feiddia hi ddywedyd ei meddwl lle bwyfi, she will not · dare to speak her mind where I shall be.

Morgan Llwyd, c. 1653.

.

āed lie y mynno, let him go whithersoever he shall wish. arhosed lle y caffo lonydd, let him stay where he shall have peace.

(2) General (Ever-Clauses of Place):

lle pallo'r grym, ewyllys da a haedda glod, wherever strength fails a good will deserves praise.

Gr. Roberts, Milan, 1567.

gwir felly a ddywed y philosophydd na bydd uniawn barn lle bo cariad ne gas yn rheoli, the philosopher therefore says truly that iudgment will not be sound, wherever love or hate rules.

Gr. Roberts, Milan, 1567.

lle bo dolur y bydd llaw, wherever there is a wound there is a hand. Welsh Proverb.

Causal Clauses (§ 346 * c).

349a1

āf allan, gan nad yw yn gwlawio, I shall go out, since it is not raining.

gorphenwch eich gwaith, gan y bydd yn nôs yn fuan, finish your work, as it will soon be night.

ysgrifenwch yn fuan, am y carwn gael ateb, write soon, as I should like to have an answer.

RULE.—Causal Clauses take the Indicative: Neg. nad (nā). The use of the Causal Clause is practically limited (as in the case of Concessive Clauses and Noun Clauses of Statement) to cases in which the clause is negative, or when its tense is—

either a Present used as a Present Habitual or as a Future, or a Past Imperfect used either as a Past Imperfect Habitual or as a Secondary Future (§§ 501, 502), or a Pluperfect used as a Secondary Future Perfect (§§ 521, 523).

Equivalent Phrases.

349b1

The place of affirmative Causal Clauses is largely supplied in Welsh by verb-noun phrases depending on one of the prepositions gan, am, oherwydd, oblegid (§§ 288, 298).

When the verb of the corresponding Clause is in the Aorist or the Pluperfect (sometimes also in the Perfect), the doer of the action is denoted by the aid of the prep. i or o:

e.g. oherwydd i mi orphen, because I finished.

aeth ailan oblegid iddo gael digon, he went out because he had had enough.

a ydych yn ddig am i'r llanc ddyfod? are you angry because the lad has come?

When the verb of the corresponding Clause is in the Present

Tense and marks an action as now going on or a state as now existing, or is in the Past Imperfect and marks an action as going on in the past or a state as then existing, bod is employed, followed by the required verb-noun with yn: 1

e.g. gan ei fod yn gweled, since he sces; gan na wel, since he does not see.

gan ei fod yn gweled, since he saw; gan na welai, since he did not see.

Similarly bod followed by a verb-noun with wedi, expresses a Perfect or a Pluperfect:

e.g. gan fod y dyn wedi myned, since the man has (or had) gone. The Subject of the corresponding Clause is represented with bod in these cases as described in § 346b.

Cf. the French Clause-equivalents (without change of Subject): pour avoir, for having; en voulant, by wishing, because one wishes.

Final Clauses (§ 346 * d).

3501

ac yno y gwnā i'r newynog aros, fel y darparont ddinas i gyfaneddu, and there He maketh the hungry to dwell, that they may prepare a city for habitation. Ps. cvii. 36. tyfiant gwastad yw bywyd cenedl: y mae iddo ei wreiddiau yn y gorphenol, fel y gallo ddwyn ffrwyth yn y dyfodol, the life of a nation is a steady growth, it has its roots in the past, that it may be able to bear fruit in the future.

Dean Howell in "Y Geninen," April, 1893. nid gwiw i ddynion garu Duw fel y gallont gashau dynion, it is not right that men should love God in order that they

may hate men. "Y Genedl," Dec. 28, 1897. gweithiai fel y gallai enill ei fara beunyddiol, he worked that he might earn his daiiy bread.

RULES.—1. Final Clauses properly take the Subjunctive; but this use of the Subjunctive is now being more and more supplanted by the Indicative. Negative nad (nā).

2. in order that . . . not is rhag, fel nad, nad : lest . . . not is rhag nad (nā).

¹ If the verb of the Clause be one of the following: adwaen, I know; clywaf, I hear; gallaf, I am able; gwelaf, I see; gwn, I know; meddaf, I possess; and medraf, I am able; this meaning may be expressed by means of a clause.

Equivalent Phrases.

351

The place of affirmative Final Clauses is very largely supplied in Welsh by verb-noun phrases introduced by the prepositions i, er, rhag, and the prepositional phrase er mwyn. (Where the verbnoun phrase contains the preposition i, another preposition i is not added; one i does duty for both.)

āf i'r ty er mwyn imi gael gorphwys, I shall go into the house to have rest (=in order that I may have rest).

aeth i'r ty er mwyn iddo gael gorphwys, he went into the house to have rest (=in order that he might have rest).

daeth i'r ystafell i ysgrifenu, he came to the room to write. ewch allan i chwi gael gweled rhywbeth, go out that you may see something.

gosalwch rhag i chwi gael anwyd, take care lest you should

get a cold.

Cf. the French equivalents of a Final Clause (without change of Subject): pour aller, in order to go; afin de vivre, in order to live; Gk. βουλεύεσθαι, τοῦ βουλεύεσθαι, in order to deliberate; Lat. ad dēlīberandum, dēlīberandī causā, dēlīberātum (supine), in order to deliberate; Germ. zu geben, um zu geben, in order to give; as well as the English infinitive with to, in order to.

Consecutive Clauses (§ 346 * e).

352a

arhosodd yn y gwlaw, fel nes }y gwlychodd drwyddo, he stayed in the rain, so that he got wet through.

mae ei ddewrder yn gyfryw, fel nad yw yn ofni dim, his courage is such that he fears nothing.

a ydych chwi mor ddeillion nas gallwch fy ngweled? are you so biind that you cannot see me?

yr hwn sydd yn cynhyrfu y ddaear allan o'i llē, fel y cryno ei cholosnau hi, which shaketh the earth out of her place, and (=that) the pillars thereof tremble. Job ix. 6.

RULES.—1. Result is expressed by means of fel and nes: fel may take the negative nad (nā), but nes is never used with the negative. For fel nad (nā), nad (nā) alone is sometimes used.

2. The mood is the Indicative, but instances with the Subjunctive are occasionally found.

Equivalent Phrases.

352b

Consecutive verb-noun phrases are introduced by the preposition nes:

e.g. arhosodd yn y gwlaw, nes iddo wlychu, he stayed in the rain, so that he got wet.

edrychai yr athraw mor ddig, nes i'r plentyn ddychryn, the master looked so angry that the child was frightened.

Cf. the French equivalents of a Consecutive Clause (without change of Subject) formed by means of en sorte de, de manière à, de façon à, with the infinitive. Fr. Gram. § 352.*

If-Clauses (§ 346 * f).

353

- 1. A Complex Sentence, consisting of an Adverb-Clause of Condition (the If-clause, sometimes called the Protasis) and a Principal Clause (sometimes called the Apodosis), is called a Conditional Sentence.
 - 2 Conditional Sentences may be divided into two main classes—
- A. Those in which the Principal Clause does not speak of what would be or would have been, and the If-clause implies nothing as to fact or fulfilment:
 - e.g. if this is correct, that is incorrect: os yw hyn yn gywir, mae hynyna yn anghywir.
- B. Those in which the Principal Clause speaks of what would be or would have been, and the If-clause contains an implication as to fact or fulfilment:
 - e.g. pē delai y brenin, llawenychem, if the king were to come (implying 'I do not say that he will come'), we should rejoice.

pē delsai y brenin, llawenychasem, if the king had come (implying 'he did not come'), we should have rejoiced.

OBS.—In some languages there is a less important class (Class C) resembling Class A, in which the Principal Clause is the same as in Class A, but the Ifclause contains a slight implication as to fact or fulfilment. In Welsh this implication can be indicated only by the tone of the voice.

CLASS A (CONDITIONAL SENTENCES CONTAINING OS-CLAUSES).

354

Past time: os gweithredodd felly, yr oedd ar fai, if he acted so, he was in the wrong.

Present time: os yw yn gwiethredu felly, mae ar sai, if he acts so, he is in the wrong.

Future time: os gweithreda felly, bydd ar fai, if he acts (= shall act) so, he will be in the wrong.

os nā weithreda felly, bydd ar fai, unless he acts (= shall act) so, he will be in the wrong.

RULES.—1. When the Principal Clause does not speak of what would be or would have been, 'if' is expressed by os,* and the mood of the If-clause is the Indicative. Negative nad (nā): but for os nad (os nā) we sometimes find onid (oni).†

2. The time referred to need not be the same in both clauses:

e.g. os gweithredodd felly, ni lwydda, if he acted so (in the past), he will not succeed (in the future).

os yw wedi cychwyn, fe ddaw, if he has started, he will

3. The Principal Clause of this class is free, i.e. may contain a Statement in the Indicative, or an expression of Command or Wish:

e.g. os wyt yna, tyr'd yma, if thou art there, come here. os yw yn foddlon, boed felly, if he is willing, be it so.

354b

General Conditions are a subordinate variety of If-clause without implication, in which 'if' = 'if ever'; the Principal Clause expressing a habitual action or a general truth:—

os lladda nēb, fe'i cosbir, if any one kills, he will be punished.

os lladdai nēb, fe'i cosbid, if any one killed, he was punished.

In clauses of this type, os byth is often used for 'if ever.'

CLASS B (CONDITIONAL SENTENCES CONTAINING PE CLAUSES).

Past time: pē gwnelsai hyn, buasai ar fai, if he had done this, he would have been in the wrong.

Present time: pē gwnelai hyn, byddai ar sai, if he were doing this, he would be in the wrong.

Future time: pe gwnelai hyn, byddai ar fai, if he were to do this, he would be in the wrong.

^{*} For os, ō and od are sometimes found.

 $[\]dagger = \bar{0} + n\bar{i}$.

RULES.—1. When the Principal Clause speaks of what would be or would have been, 'if' is expressed by pē,* and the tense of both the If-clause and the Principal Clause is—

the Past Imperf. + when referring to pres. or fut. time.

the Pluperf. when referring to past time.

The Neg. is nad (nā); but for pē nad (pē nā), we sometimes find onid (oni).

Ons.—These tenses may possibly be regarded as tenses of the Subjunctive in the If-clause, corresponding to the English Subjunctive (e.g. were); in the Principal Clause they are tenses of the Indicative, the Past Impf. being used as a Secondary Future and the Pluperfect as a Secondary Fut. Perf. corresponding to the so-called "Conditionnel" in French (see §§ 501, 502, 521, 522). In most verbs the Past Imperfect and the Pluperfect Subjunctive are indistinguishable in form from the corresponding tenses of the Indicative, but a distinction seems to have been developed in the Past Imperfect of wyf and caf; and the instances in which these verbs are used may be considered as determining the rule for all other instances. So too in English, "if I had" might be Indic., but "if I were" can only be a Subjunctive.

- 2. An If-clause referring to past time may be joined to a Principal Clause referring to present time and vice versa:
 - e.g. pe nā buaswn wedi ei weled, byddai yn anhawdd gennyf gredu, if I had not seen him, I should find it hard to believe.
- 3. 'if-only' is expressed by means of am, followed by a verb in the Present Subjunctive or in the Future Indicative, if the verb in the main clause be in a tense of present or future time; in the Past Imperfect Subjunctive, if the verb of the main clause be in a tense of past time:
 - e.g. fe fydd yn dawel, am y caiff ddigon o arian, he will be content if only he has (=shall have) sufficient money.
 - fe fyddai yn dawel, am y caffai ddigon o arian, he used to be content, if only he had sufficient money.
- 356 N.B.—am, if only, is not used to introduce negative clauses.

Equivalent Phrases.

- 357 I. Conditional verb-noun phrases introduced by the prepositions oddieithr, oddigerth, except, are used to express a negative condition:
 - e.g. oddieithr oddigerth fy mod, or imi fod yno, unless I be there.

^{*} pē, if (occasionally ped and pes), has arisen from pei (an old form of the Past Imperf. Subjunctive S. 3. of wyf)=bei=bai, were it. See Appendix.
† The Past Imperf. Habitual in the case of wyf.

- 2. 'if only' may be expressed by the conjunction ond, but, followed by a verb-noun phrase:
 - e.g. ond imi gael hamdden, if only I have (=shall have) leisure.
- 3. Sometimes a verb-noun phrase introduced by one of the prepositions with, by, drwy, through, may be considered as the equivalent of a Conditional Clause:

e.g. ni lwydda neb wrth ddiogi, no one will succeed by idling (= if he idles).

Cf. the possible French equivalent of a Conditional Clause (without change of Subject), formed by means of 'en' with the Gerund: e.g. en agissant, by acting = if he acts. Fr. Gram. § 357.

Concessive Clauses (§ 346 * g).

358a

The Principal Clause' corresponding to a Concessive Clause has an adversative meaning, i.e. it expresses what is true in spite of what is granted or conceded:

e.g. er serch and bydd ef ei hūn yno, bydd ei galon yno, though he will not be there himself, his heart will be there. er nad yw y tād yma, mae y māb yma, though the father is not here, the son is here.

fe erys yn yr ūn fan, er y bydd hynny yn anfantais iddo, he will stay in the same place, though that will be a disadvantage to him.

RULES.—I. The mood in clauses introduced by er and serch

is the Indicative. Neg. nad (nā).

2. pē, even if, (often preceded by ïe, yes, yea) is used with the Past Imperfect as in § 355. The main clause generally has a verb in the Past Imperfect Indicative used as a Secondary Future, or in the Pluperfect Indicative used as a Secondary Future Perfect (see § 522), but the Future is also sometimes used. Neg. nad (nā):

e.g. ie, pe rhodiwn ar hyd glyn cysgod angeu, nid ofnaf niwed, yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil. Ps. xxiii. 4.

3. cyd, though (rare), takes the Subjunctive Mood. Neg. nad (nā):

e.g. cyd na byddo ond ammod dyn, though it be but a man's covenant. Gal. iii. 5.

N.B.—Concessive Clauses are subject to the same limitations of usage as Causal Clauses (\$\square\$ 349a, 349b).

Equivalent Phrases.

3581

- 1. The place of Concessive Clauses is very largely supplied by the use of verb-noun phrases:
 - serch } fy mod yn myned, though I am going (was going).

 fy mod wedi myned, though I have gone (had gone).

er serch } imi fyned, though I went (had gone).

- N.B.—Concessive phrases are employed under the same conditions as Causal phrases (§ 349b).
- 2. Sometimes Concessive Clause-equivalents are introduced by the preposition dros, over:
 - e.g. fe ddaw yma, dros iddo orfod cerdded, he will come here, though he might have to walk.
- 3. Cf. the French equivalents of a Concessive Clause (without change of Subject) formed by means of pour with the infinitive and en with the gerund (Fr. Gram. § 358):
 - e.g. pour aimer un mari, l'on ne hait pas ses frères, though one should love a husband, one need not hate one's brothers. tout en aimant ses enfants, elle les néglige, though she loves her children, she neglects them.

Comparative Clauses (§ 346 * h).

359a

Comparative Clauses fall into two divisions, according as they are introduced by words meaning (1) 'as,' (2) 'than,' thus corresponding to the Comparative of Equality and the Comparative proper respectively.

A. Introduced by words meaning 'as': e.g. ag (after Com-

paratives of Equality), fel, fel ag, megis, megis ag:

nid yw cyn gyfoethoced ag y bu, he is not so rich as he was. mae y peth fel yr wyf yn dweyd, the thing is as I say. aeth yno fel ag yr oedd, he went there just as he was. gwnaeth megis y dywedodd, he did as he had said.

Rules.—I. Words meaning 'as' almost always take the Indicative in Modern Welsh, though the Subjunctive is sometimes found in such expressions as—fel y mynno, as he may wish; fel y gallo, as he may be able; fel y bo, as it may be:

e.g. boed hynny fel y bō, be that as it may (Subj.). Contrast:

mae hynny fel yr oedd, that is as it was (Indic.).

pwy ohonoch a draethodd y gellwch 'i orchymyn angylion

Duw fal y mynnoch eych hunan? who of you stated

that you can command the angels of God as you yourselves

wish (= shall or may wish)?

M. Kyffin, 1595.

megis ag y byddo pōb ūn wedi darfod, just as each shall

have finished.

C. Edwards, 1671.

pōb ūn fel y gallo allan o'r Ysgrythyrau Sanctaidd, each as

he may be able out of the Hoiy Scriptures.

C. Edwards, 1671.

- 2. If the same verb belongs to both clauses of the sentence, it is often omitted in the Comparative Clause:
 - e.g. derbyniasant eu gilydd fel brodyr, they received each other as brethren.
- 3. The more—the more is expressed by using the Superlative preceded by pō (the old Ablative of the interrogative pronoun) at the beginning of the one clause, and at the beginning of the other the Superlative alone:
 - e.g. po iachaf y bo dyn, cryfaf öll fydd, the healthier a man is, the stronger he will be. Contrast Latin quō...eō with Comparatives.
- After po with the Superlative, the Subjunctive is not unfrequently used.
 - B. Introduced by nag (nā), than:

gwell (yw) tewi na siarad yn ofer, it is better to be silent than to talk vainly: for nag ydyw siarad, etc.

RULE.—nag (nā), than, takes the Indicative, which is often omitted when the same verb is used in both clauses.

Equivalent Phrases.

359b Sometimes the word uwch, the Comparative of uchel, high, used as a preposition,* introduces a phrase which is equivalent in meaning to a Comparative Clause:

e.g. maent uwch eu prisio, uwch eu deall, they are too exalted to be appraised or understood (lit. above appraising, above understanding. Cf. Lat. Gram. § 360: Gk. Gram. § 360, 2.)

^{*} The word following uwch was doubtless originally in an oblique case corresponding to the Greek Genitive of Comparison and the Latin Ablative of Comparison,

Combinations of 'as' and 'than' (representing a Comparative Clause) with a Clause of Condition.

360 1. mae yn cerdded, fel pe bai yn frenin, he walks as if he were a king.

rhedold fel pe buasai am ei fywyd, he ran as if it had been for his life.

mae cyn galeted a phe buasai yn garreg, it is as hard as if it had been a stone.

RULE.—as if (= as would be the case if) is expressed by \bar{a} phē (after the Comparative of Equality), or fel pē, with the same construction as pē, if, § 355 [Latin: quasi, velut si, tamquam sī; Gk. $\omega \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho$ ϵi or $\omega \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho$ $\delta \nu$ ϵi].

2. meddalach ydyw na phe buasai yn ymenyn, it is softer than if it had been butter.

Rule.—than if (=than would be the case if) is expressed by na phē (after the Comparative proper) with the same construction as pē, if, § 355.

Absolute Phrases (for Absolute Clauses).

The Welsh equivalent for the so-called Absolute Clauses of other languages (Latin Ablative Absolute, Greek Genitive Absolute, English Nominative Absolute) is a phrase in which the participle of Latin, Greek and English is replaced by a verb-noun with one of the prepositions yn, in; wedi, after; ar, on; am, about; heb, without (see § 240); the phrase as a whole being preceded by the word ac (a):

e.g. aeth i'r ystafell a'r dynion yn bwyta, he went into the room while the people were eating [Lat. hominibus edentibus: Gk. των ἀνθρώπων ἐσθιόντων].

arosasant yno a'r tan wedi diffodd, they stayed there after the fire had gone out.

buont yn ymdroi a'r tren ar gychwyn, they loitered while the train was on the point of starting.

dywedasant wrtho ac yntau heb ofyn, they told him, though he had not asked.

NOTE.—As ac, and, and ag, with, are only the same word applied to different uses and differently spelt, it is highly probable that ac, in the phrases in question, should be looked upon as the preposition ag, with (with its old spelling ac preserved). Hence the Welsh mode of expression is parallel with the Latin idiom in its original meaning, the Ablative Absolute having origin-

ated in an Ablative denoting Accompaniment or Cause or Time; for instance, the Latin, 'Trojā stante,' *Troy standing*, and the Welsh 'a Chaerdroia yn sefyll' may both have originally meant 'with Troy standing.'

The place of the preposition and the verb-noun may be taken by a Predicate-noun or a Predicate-adjective:

e.g. aeth allan {a'r gwynt yn ōer, a hithau ,, ,, }

he went out {though the wind was cold.}

OBS. 1.—In Absolute Phrases, the conjunctive personal pronouns (see Accidence, §§ 130, 131, 132) are largely employed.

OBS. 2.—In meaning, an Absolute Phrase may be equivalent to a Temporal, Causal, Conditional or Concessive Clause.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES (§ 313).

- 1. Adjective Clauses are introduced by Relative pronouns, yr hwn, y neb, y sawl, pwy bynnag, referring to a noun or nounequivalent called the Antecedent, expressed or implied in the Principal Clause, or by one of the quasi-relatives ag, ar, or by one of the proclifics a, yr (y).
 - 2. A Relative Clause takes the form of a sentence of inverted order; hence, if the Subject or the Object precede the verb, the verb will be immediately preceded by the word a; if some other word or group of words comes first, by the word yr (y). (See p. 83, note, and Appendix).

OBS. 1.—a is frequently omitted; with the orms wyf etc., oeddwn etc., and with sydd it is never used.

OBS. 2.—In Relative Clauses where yr hwn, y nēb, y sawl or pwy bynnag are expressed, it is certain that the modern Welsh mind attaches the relative force to these words and not to the a or yr (y) which immediately precedes the verb. The latter are, from the point of view of Welsh descriptive grammar, mere 'form-words,' and, in the words of Dr. Davies, a is an adverb or particle of no meaning prefixed to verbs ("A item est adverbium seu particula verbis preposita nihil significans"). So strongly is this felt that, when the proclitics a and yr (y) are used alone in Relative Clauses, a Welshman ignorant of their history naturally imagines the omission of yr hwn. See § 573, 576.

3. In place of yr hwn and y rhai, pa un and pa rai (cf. Breton 'péré') are sometimes used, but these forms are not considered very elegant. Even yr hwn and y rhai should not be used too frequently, especially after prepositions. The form of expression given in Accidence § 168 will often be found useful in translating English Relative Clauses.

Agreement of the Relative.

- 1. In idiomatic Welsh every relative introducing an affirmative clause is looked upon as of the 3rd pers. sing. and the verb of which it is the Subject is made to agree with it; in negative Relative Clauses the Relative agrees with its Antecedent in person and number:
 - e.g. gwelsom y dynion y rhai a fu yno, we saw the men who were there.
 - yr wyf yn eich hoffi chwi, na fuoch yn gas wrthyf, I am fond of you, who were not unkind to me.
 - pawb sydd yn pwyso atat ti | a wrendy weddi dostur, all incline towards thee, who hearest a prayer for mercy.

 E. Prys.
 - ni a'th adwaenom di a'th ddawn | i'r rhai sydd uniawn galon, we know thee and thy bounty to them that are upright in heart.

E. Prys.

- 2. For a long time, however, there has been a strong and perfectly intelligible tendency, especially where the linguistic consciousness is bilingual, to make the verb of the Relative Clause agree with its Antecedent as in Latin and English. This tendency is strongest and most natural in cases where it seems desirable to call attention to the person and number of the verb in the Relative Clause:
 - e.g. ein Tād, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, our Father, who art in heaven. Here the use of wyt rather than sydd forcibly reminds the reader that the clause in question is used in address and not in narrative.

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Moods in Relative Clauses.

364

I. Relative Clauses whose action is marked as fact:—
gwelais y ty y buoch ynddo, I have seen the house in which
you have been.

dyma y llyfr a ddarllenasom, here is the book which we have read.

y wlad na welais, the country which I did not see.

dyna y gwr { dros yr hwn y daethom, } there is the man on whose behalf we have come.

2. Relative Clauses whose action is marked as (a) prospective, i.e. merely contemplated as a future contingency; or (b) general:

(a) Prospective:

heb genfigen with neb a wnelo yn well nag ef, without envying anyone who should do better than he.

Gr. Roberts, Milan, 1567.

nid ofni rhag dychryn nös na rhag y säeth a ehedo y dydd, thou shalt not fear from dread by night nor from the arrow that flieth (= shall fly) by day. Psalm xci. 5. efe a wnā yr hyn a fynnwyf, he will do whatever I shall wish.

na friwa'r llaw a estyno, hurt not the hand that stretches out (= shall stretch out). Charles Edwards, 1671.

(b) General: (Here ar, y sawl, y neb and pwy bynnag are mainly employed to introduce the Relative Clause):

i ddyscu helpu, diddanu a pherpheiddio gwyr fy ngwlād ymhob pēth a fo golud iddynt, to teach, help, interest and perfect my countrymen in all that may be a boon to them.

Gr. Roberts, Milan, 1567.

pwy bynnag ar a laddo, whosoever kills. M. Cyffin, 1595. a'r sawl ni phlycco iddo a ddryllir, and whosoever does not submit to him will be destroyed. Morgan Llwyd, 1653. yn rhoddi ei drugaredd i'r neb a fynno, giving his mercy to whomsoever he wishes. C. Edwards, 1671.

y sawl a ddiango o'i bachau hi, gwyn ei fyd byth; whosoever escapes from her clutches, may he be for ever blessed.

Elis Wyn, 1713.

dyweded y neb a fyno, let whosoever will speak.

"Y Faner," Dec. 29, 1897.

nis gall godi rhyw lawer ar syniad y neb a'i darlleno, it cannot make the opinion of whoever reads it much higher.

RULES.—Relative Clauses almost always take the Indicative Mood in Modern Welsh. The Subjunctive is now rare, but is sometimes found in clauses where the action is to be marked as prospective or general. The general is often combined with the prospective meaning. The negative is generally nid (ni), especially where the action is to be marked as fact, in clauses introduced by ar, yr hwn, y neb, y sawl and pwy bynnag: in negative clauses corresponding to affirmative clauses in which the a or yr (y) would be used alone, the negative is nad (nā), but nid (nī) is also sometimes used. In all negative clauses a and yr (y) are omitted.

3. Final and Consecutive Relative Clauses:-

ansonwn genad yno, yr hwn a rydd dersyn ar yr ymrasael, we shall send a messenger there, who shall put an end to the dispute. (Final.)

nid oes undyn a allai oddef peth felly, there is no one who could stand such a thing as that. (Consecutive).

dechymyger rywbeth arall a fo gwell nag ef, let something else be imagined that shall be better than it.

Dr. J. D. Rhys, 1592.

lle bo gwr o ddysg a wypo ei deilyngdod, where there may be a man of learning who knows his worth.

E. Samuel, 1674-1748.

RULE.—In the special kinds of Relative Clause called Final and Consecutive the Indicative Mood is employed, but instances of the Subjunctive are found.

N.B.—A Relative Clause which cites an act only to exhibit the character of the Antecedent may be called a "Characterizing Relative Clause":

e.g. nid oes neb nad yw yn pechu, there is no one that does not sin.

NOUN CLAUSES AND PHRASES.

365 Noun Clauses may be divided into two main classes:

A. That-clauses:

- (i) Those which express that something is, was or will be (Dependent Statements): e.g. gwn y bydd yn ufudd, I know that he will be obedient.
- (ii) Those which express that something shall be or should be (Dependent Will-speech *): e.g. gofalaf y bydd yn ufudd, I shall take care that he shall be eledient: gorchymynaf na byddo yn anufudd; I order that he shall not be disobedient.
- B. Those which are introduced by an interrogative or exclamatory word:

(i) Interrogative (Dependent Questions): e.g. gofynaf a ydyw yn ufudd, I ask whether he is obedient.

(ii) Exclamatory (Dependent Exclamations): e.g. rhyfedd mor ufudd ydyw heddyw, it is strange how obedient he is to-day.

RULE.—As a general rule, the mood in Noun Clauses is the Indicative: but in Dependent Will-speech after verbs of commanding, entreating, praying, wishing, which are followed by negative clauses only, the Present or Past Imperfect Subjunctive is used. Negative nad (nā).

N.B.—Whether a Noun Clause is a Dependent Statement or Dependent Will-speech, or a Dependent Question or a Dependent Exclamation does not depend upon the verb of the Principal Clause, but upon the nature of the Subordinate Clause itself, i.e. whether that clause is a Statement (i.e. a statement of fact or a conditional statement) or an expression of aim, command, or request, or a question or an exclamation. (See § 340.)

Thus 'that it is (was or will be)' is always a Dep. Statement.

'that it shall be (or should be)' is always Dep. Will-speech.
'what (or how) it is' is a Dep. Question when the 'what'
or 'how' is interrogative, and a Dep. Exclamation
when the 'what' (or 'how') is exclamatory.

In certain cases phrases formed with verb-nouns are used as substitutes for Dependent Statements and Dependent Will-speech, but not for Dependent Questions and Dependent Exclamations.

^{*} By Dependent Will-speech is only meant a clause which expresses that something shall be or should be. Such a clause differs from a Dependent Statement (whether of fact or conditional) just as Will-speech in the Simple Sentence differs from a Statement.

Dependent Statements and Dependent Requests.

Modes of introducing Noun Clauses of Statement and of Will-speech.

- 366 Noun Clauses of Statement and of Will-speech are introduced as follows:
 - (a) When affirmative and of normal order, by the proclitic particle yr (y), placed immediately before the verb of the clause:
 - e.g. dywedodd gofalodd gr elai yno, he said should go that he should there.
 - (b) When affirmative and of inverted order, by the conjunction mai; for the history of mai see Appendix:
 - e.g. dywedodd mai yma y deuai, he said gofalodd mai yma y deuai, he took care that it was here that he would should come.
 - (c) When negative and of normal order, by nad (nā); when negative and of inverted order, by nad (before both vowels and consonants), or, less elegantly, by mai nid:

e.g. dywedodd nad elai gartref, he said that he would not go

dywedodd nad gartref yr elai, he said that it was not home that he would go.

Employment of Noun Clauses of Statement and Equivalent Phrases.

- Noun Clauses of Statement are employed as follows (as in Causal and Concessive Clauses, \$\mathbb{S}\$ 349a, 358a):—
 - 1. In all cases in which the Dependent Statement is negative.
 - 2. In all cases in which the Dependent Statement has inverted order.
 - 3. In some cases in which the Dependent Statement is affirmative and of normal order, viz. when the tense of the Clause is—either a Present used as a Present Habitual or as a Future; or a Past Imperfect used as a Past Imperfect Habitual or as a Secondary Future;
 - or a Pluperfect used as a Secondary Future Perfect. Occasionally, also, when the tense is Aorist.

In all other cases Noun Phrases are employed, the doer of the action being denoted as follows:—

(a) by the aid of the preposition i or o (§ 346b, 2), when the verb-noun corresponds to a verb in the Aorist or the Pluperfect with past meaning:

e.g. gwn iddo orphen, I know that he finished; gwyddwn iddo orphen, I knew that he had finished.

(b) without the aid of a preposition, by means of a dependent noun or a possessive adjective, when the verb-noun is bod corresponding to the true Present wyf, wyt, mae, etc., or to the true Past Imperfect oeddwn, oeddit, oedd, etc., in a Clause (§ 346b, 3):

e.g. gwn fod y dyn yn myned, I know that the man is going; gwn ei fod wedi myned, I know that he has gone.

OBS.—If the verb of the *dependent* clause be one of the following: adwaen, adnabyddaf, *I recognise* | gwelaf, *I see*

[Lat. cognosco] clywaf, I hear gallaf, I am able gwelaf, I see gwn, I know [Lat. scio] meddaf, I possess medraf, I am able

a clause may be employed even when the Present tense marks an action as now going on or a state as now existing, or the Past Imperfect marks an action as going on in the past or a state as then existing, or, less frequently, when the Pluperfect refers to past time.

Employment of Noun Clauses of Will-speech and Equivalent Phrases.

After Verbs of Effort (§ 3698, 9).

368a 1. A verb of Effort may take either a Noun Clause (affirmative or negative) or a Noun Phrase:

e.g. gofalaf y bydd y gwās yno

gofalaf fod y gwās yno

the servant shall be there.

gofelais y byddai y gwās yno

I took care that the servant
gofelais fod y gwās yno

should be there.

2. A Noun Phrase depending on the verb gosalas, I take care, is generally preceded by the fixed preposition am, for:

e.g. goselais am iddo tod yno, I took care that he should be there.

3. In Noun Phrases depending on a verb of Effort the doer of the action is generally denoted—

either (a) by means of a dependent noun or a possessive adjective (§ 346b, 3) when the verb noun is bod,

or (b) by means of the prep. i or o in the case of all verb-nouns (bod included). (§ 346b, 2).

After Verbs of Will and Desire (§ 369a, 10).

- 368b 1. A verb of Will or Desire takes a Noun Clause only when the Dependent Will-speech is negative or of inverted order:
 - e.g. gorchymynodd nad elwn yno, he ordered that I should not go thither.
 - dymunaf mai John a gaiff y wobr, 'I wish that John should have the prize.'
 - 2. If the Dependent Will-speech is affirmative and of normal order, many verbs of Will or Desire take neither a Noun Clause nor a Noun Phrase, but simply two Objects in a Simple Sentence with a Predicate of the Fourth Form (§ 333); so too in English:
 - e.g. gorchymynaf iddo fyned, I order him to go. crefais arno ddyfod, I begged of him to come.

In dependence on the verbs anogaf, *I exhort*, and cynghoraf, *I advise*, the verb-noun is introduced by the preposition i, to:

- e.g. cynghoraf ef i ddyfod, I advise him to come.
- 3. In some cases a verb of Will or Desire may take after it a Noun Phrase introduced by the fixed preposition ar, on. The verbs which may take this construction are, crefaf, *I beg*; deisyfaf, *I entreat*; dymunaf, *I desire*; gorchymynaf, *I command*; and gweddïaf, *I pray*:
 - e.g. dymunaf ar i'r dyn dewi, I desire the man to be silent.

With the use of these Noun Phrases of Statement and Will-Speech compare the French use of the infinitive (without change of Subject) in place of a Clause after croire, prétendre, vouloir, ordonner:

- e.g. je crois l'avoir vu, *I believe that I saw him*; je lui ordonne de venir, *I order him to come*.
- A Noun Phrase, formed with peidio, ceasing (see Accidence, § 2814), or with bod followed by heb with another verb-noun, may be equivalent to a negative clause:
 - e.g. addefodd iddo beidio (a) myned, he admitted that he did not go (lit. that he ceased to go).
 - cyffesodd ei fod heb ateb, he confessed that he had not answered (lit. that he was without answering).

369a List of Verbs taking Dependent Statements and Will-Speech.

I. Verbs of 'saying':—	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
addawaf, I promise	cymeraf arnaf, I pretend	
addefaf, I admit	dywedaf, I say	
awgrymaf, I suggest	gwadaf, I deny	
bygythiaf, I threaten	tyngai, I swear	
2. Verbs of 'thinking':—	Total,	
and of)	gobeithiaf, I hope	
coeliaf, I believe	disgwyliaf, I expect	
dychymygaf, I imagine	meddyliaf. I think	
dyfalaf, I guess	meddyliaf, <i>I think</i> tybiaf, <i>I suppose</i>	
3. Verbs of 'perceiving':—		
caf, I find	darganfyddaf, I discover	
canfyddaf, I perceive	gwelaf, I see	
clywaf, I hear		
4. Verbs of 'knowing':—		
anghofiaf, I forget	gwn, I know	
cofiaf, I remember		
5. Verbs of 'showing':—		
amlygaf, I reveal	egluraf, I show	
cyhoeddaf, I announce	profaf, I prove	
danghosaf, I show		
6. Verbs of 'rejoicing,' 'grieving' and 'wondering':—		
llawenychaf, <i>I rejoice</i> gofidiaf, <i>I grieve</i>	rhyfeddaf, <i>I wonder</i>	
gofidiaf, I grieve	synnaf, I marvel	
(N.B.—These verbs of 'rejoicing,' 'grieving,' and 'wondering'		
are rarely followed by an affirmative clause of normal order.)		
7. Verb of 'fearing':—ofnaf, I fear.		
8. Certain impersonal expressions denoting 'it happens,' 'it is		
possible,' 'it is right,' etc.:—		
dichon,* it is possible	hwyrach, perhaps	
mae yn digwydd, <i>it happens</i>	ona ogia, j	
rhaid, it must needs be	diammeu, undoubtedly	
Claudi, (Acrehance	gwir, (ii is) irue	
realial,	diau, (it is) certain	
9. Verbs of Effort:—		
gofalaf, I take care	paraf, I cause	
gwelaf, I see to it	sicrhāf, I make certain	
gwnāf, I bring it about		

^{*} dichon is also not unfrequently used in a personal construction, when it means can, is able. See Accidence, § 277, 3.

10. Verbs of Will or Desire:

anogaf, I exhort dymunaf, I wish I desire bwriadaf. I intend ewyllysiaf, gorchymynaf, I command crefaf, I beg cynghoraf, I advise gweddïaf, I pray I entreat deisyfaf,

Note carefully that after verbs of Effort, Will or Desire the dependent clause or clause-equivalent expresses that something shall be or should be (not that something is, was, or will be):

e.g. gosalwn y bydd rhywun yno, we shall take care that someone shall be there.

bwriadwn iddo fyned, I intended that he should go.

Sequence of Tenses in Dependent Statements and Will-Speech.

369b In dependence on a tense of past time a primary tense [i.e. a Present or Future or Perfect or Future Perfect] is generally changed into the corresponding secondary tense, viz.:—

a Present into a Past Imperfect
Future Secondary Future

Perfect Pluperfect

Future Perfect Secondary Fut. Perf.

e.g. dywed mai John yw y cryfaf, he says that John is the strongest.

dywedodd mai John oedd y cryfaf, he said that John was the strongest.

dywed mai John fydd y cryfaf, he says that John will be the strongest.

dywedodd mai John fyddai y cryfaf, he said that John would be the strongest.

dywed mai John sydd wedi gweithio, he says it is John that has worked.

dywedodd mai John oedd wedi gweithio, he said it was John that had worked.

dywed mai John fydd wedi gweithio, he says it will be John that will have worked.

dywedodd mai John fyddai wedi gweithio, he said it would be John that would have worked.

The secondary tenses (Past Imperfect, Pluperfect, and Aorist) remain unchanged

Dependent Questions.

370a

1. Dependent Questions are introduced either (a) by interrogative particles (see Accidence, §§ 283, 285):

a, in affirmative questions of normal order;

ai, in negative questions of normal order, and in affirmative and negative questions of inverted order.

e.g. gofynaf a yw John yno, I ask whether John is there. gofynais ai John oedd yno, I asked whether it was John that was there.

gofynodd ai ni chafodd John y llyfr, he asked whether John did not receive the book.

gofynodd ai nid y llyfr a gafodd John, he asked whether it was not the book that John received.

gofynent pa un a fyddai John yno ai peidio, they were asking whether John would be there or not.

asking whether John would be there or not.
gofynent pa un ai John ynte William oedd yno, they were
asking whether it was John or William that was there.

OBS. 1. For pa ūn, p'ūn, and also p'r'ūn (=pā ryw ūn) are used, especially in colloquial Welsh.

2. In Dependent Questions of inverted order, the conjunction ynte, or, is generally used to introduce the second alternative.

or (b) by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs, such as

e.g. gosynais pwy su yno, I asked who was there.
gosynais pwy na su yno, I asked who was not there.

holent pa fath ddynion oeddym, they enquired what kind of men we were.

holais paham nad aethent yno, I enquired why they had not gone there.

The mood in (a) and (b) is the indicative. In (a), the negative, in questions of normal order, is nid $(n\bar{i})$, in questions of inverted order, nid, before both vowels and consonants; in (b), the negative is nad $(n\bar{a})$, but nid $(n\bar{i})$ is also sometimes used.

Deliberative Dependent Questions.

370b Deliberative Dependent Questions (i.e. Dependent Questions as to what is or was to be done) are introduced in the same manner as other Dependent Questions:

e.g. gofynais a oeddwn i fyned, I asked whether I was to go. gofynodd ai nid oedd i fyned, he asked whether he was not to go.

petruswn pa un a awn yno ai peidio, I hesitated whether I should go there or not.

The mood is the Indicative. The negative is nid (ni).

Dependent Exclamations.

370c Dependent Exclamations are introduced by exclamatory adverbs such as mor, how, or without an exclamatory adverb when the Dependent Exclamation begins with an adjective in the comparative of equality:

e.g. gwelwch mor odidog odidoced yw yr adeilad, see how splendid the building is.

rhyfeddent mor flin oedd y daith, they marvelled how tedious the journey was.

Sequence of Tenses in Dependent Questions and Exclamations.

370* The same rules of sequence apply to Dependent Questions and Exclamations as to Dependent Statements and Will-Speech (§ 369b).

e.g. (1) Dependent Questions.

gofynaf ai John yw y cryfaf, I ask whether John is the strongest.

gosynwn ai John oedd y cryfaf, I was asking whether John was the strongest.

gosynas a syddwch yn y cyfarsod, I ask whether you will be at the meeting.

gofynais a fyddech yn y cyfarfod, I asked whether you would be at the meeting.

(2) Dependent Exclamations.

rhyfedda hardded yw y wlad, he marvels at the beauty of the country (lit. how beautiful the country is).

rhyfeddai hardded oedd y wlad, he marvelled at the beauty of the country (lit. how beautiful the country was).

REPORTED SPEECH.

371 Two methods may be employed in reporting:

A. The person reporting may quote words or views in their original independent form (Direct Speech, Orātiō Recta):

e.g. dywedodd "nid oes neb yma," he said "there is no one here."

B. The person reporting may use the form of a clause or clauses (or clause-equivalents) dependent on a verb of saying, thinking, etc., called the leading verb (Indirect Speech, Örātiö Oblīqua):

e.g. dywedodd nad oedd neb yno, he said that there was no one there.

DIRECT SPEECH.

Hwn yw yr ail o'r mesurau a ddygwyd yn mlaen i'r dyben o ledu rhan o Fiordd Haiarn Caer a Chaergybi er cyfarfod a'r drafnidiaeth gynnyddol. Ynddo ei hūn, y mae yr ymgymmeriad yn un o'r fath fwyaf dymunol; a phe cerid ef allan, er ystyriaeth briodol i fanteision masnachwyr Gogledd Cymru ac eiddo awdurdodau lleol y rhanbarthau hyny lle y mae ëangiad y llinell yn ymyraeth a hawliau cyhoeddus, nis gallai neb godi gwrthwynebiad iddo. Y mae yna amryw ddarpariaethau yn eisieu yn y mesur yn ei ffurf wreiddiol, er sicrhau hawliau y ffyrdd ac awdurdodau eraill yr effeithir arnynt. Y mae trafodaeth faith wedi cymeryd lle rhwng y cyrff hyn a chwmni y ffordd haiarn; a chanlyniad hyny ydyw fod trefniadau lled ffafriol wedi cael eu gwneyd."

INDIRECT SPEECH.

Dywedodd ... Mr. Herbert Lewis--mai hwn oedd yr ail o'r mesurau a ddygwyd yn mlaen i'r dyben o ledu rhan o ffordd Haiarn Caer a Chaergybi er cyfarfod a'r drafnidiaeth gynnyddol. Ynddo ei hūn, yr oedd yr ymgymmeriad yn un o'r fath fwyaf dymunol; a phe cerid ef allan, er ystyriaeth briodol i fanteision masnachwyr Gogledd Cymru ac eiddo awdurdodau lleol y rhanbarthau hyny lle yr oedd ëangiad y llinell yn ymyraeth a hawliau cyhoeddus, nis gallai neb godi gwrthwynebiad iddo. Yr oedd yna amryw ddarpariaethau yn eisieu yn y mesur yn ei ffurf wreiddiol, er sicrhau hawliau y ffyrdd, ac awdurdodau eraill yr effeithid Yr oedd trafodaeth faith wedi cymeryd lle rhwng y cyrff hyn a chwmni y ffordd haiarn; a chanlyniad hyny ydoedd fod trefniadau lled ffafriol wedi cael eu gwneyd."

"Y Faner," Aug. 3, 1898.

"This is the second of the Bills which have been brought forward for the purpose of widening a part of the Chester and Holyhead Railway in order to meet the increasing traffic. In itself, the undertaking is one of the most welcome; and if it should be carried out with due regard to the interests of the business men of North Wales and those of the local authorities of those districts where the extension of the line interferes with public claims, no one could raise any objection to it. There are several provisions lacking in the Bill in its original form, in order to secure the claims of the roads and other authorities that are affected. A lengthy correspondence has taken place between these bodies and the railway company, and the result is that fairly favourable arrangements have been made."

Mr. Herbert Lewis said—that that was the second of the Bills which had been brought forward for the purpose of widening a part of the Chester and Holyhead Railway in order to meet the increasing traffic. In itsely, the undertaking was one of the most welcome; and if it should be carried out with due regard to the interests of the business men of North Wales and those of the local authorities of those districts where the extension of the line interfered with public claims, no one could raise any objection to it. There were several provisions lacking in the Bill in its original form, in order to secure the claims of the roads and other authorities that were affected. A lengthy correspondence had taken place between these bodies and the railway company, and the result was that fairly favourable arrangements had been made.

RULES.—1. Simple Sentences and Principal Clauses of Direct Speech become Dependent Noun Clauses or Noun Phrases in Indirect Speech, according to the rules given in \$\\$367-370.

- 2. Noun Phrases in place of Clauses of normal order are generally employed only in proposals and resolutions and in the opening sentences of speeches reported in Indirect Speech. Hence proposals and resolutions generally begin with the word fod (the mutated form of the verb-noun bod).
- 3. Change from Indirect to Direct Speech and vice versa is not uncommon.
- 4. As it is often difficult to render verbs in the Imperative Pl. 2 into Indirect Speech, owing to the ambiguity of the Past Imperfect Indicative Pl. 3, the sentence containing the Imperative is not unfrequently allowed to stand in Direct Speech with the word meddai, said he, used parenthetically to indicate that the sentence is a quotation.

PART II.—MEANINGS OF FORMS.

Owing to the loss of the old case-endings and the fusion of the 272 old conjugations of the verb into one, Welsh does not possess a large number of inflected forms like Greek and Latin. In many respects, therefore, the language is in a stage of development similar to that of English or French.

There are in Welsh no cases distinguished by difference of case-ending; but the noun, by being placed after another noun, may express many of the meanings of the genitive; or, by being placed after the verb, may have the same force as the accusative of Greek and Latin.

A noun depending on another noun.

The following are some of the chief meanings of a noun dependent on another noun, like a genitive case in Greek or

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- 1. The dependent noun may denote 'belonging to,' 'connected with':
 - e.g. palas y brenin, the king's palace (= Possessive Genitive). llais y wlad, the voice of the country. delw Cesar, the image of Cæsar. gwyr Eryri,* the men of Eryri. merched Mon, the maidens of Anglesey.

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- 2. The dependent noun may denote what might have been expressed as the Object of a verb (=0bjective Genitive):
 - e.g. llofrudd y brenin, the murderer of the king (= he who murdered the king). ysgrifenwr y llyfr, the writer of the book. chwiliwr y calonau, the searcher of hearts.

OBS.—When the dependent noun denotes the person who acts or feels, it corresponds to what is sometimes called by contrast the Subjective Genitive: e.g. cariad māb, a son's affection; trallod y wraig, the wife's distress.

^{*} The place to which a person belongs is expressed without a preposition only after plural nouns. 136

- The dependent noun can express meanings (1) and (2) without a preposition only when the noun upon which it depends is definite in meaning.
- 3. The dependent noun may be used to define more closely a 377 given occupation:

e.g. gof aur, a goldsmith.

saer maen, a stone mason.

4. When the dependent noun has initial mutation after a femi-378 nine noun, its adjectival character is clearly seen; such a noun may denote:-

- (a) age: e.g. geneth deirblwydd, a girl of three (years).
 (b) material: e.g. ysgubor goed, a wooden barn; ty cerrig (pl.
- carreg, stone), a stone house; wal gerrig, a stone wall.

 (c) price: e.g. canwyll ddimai, a half-penny candle; llyfr swllt, a/shilling book.
- (d) time: e.g. y seren ddydd, the day star; y seren foreu, the morning star.

Occasionally, too, the dependent noun may be mutated in such expressions as y wal derfyn, the boundary wall (Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg).

NOTE.—The initial mutation after a feminine noun in these expressions is 379 probably a survival from Mediæval Welsh, in which a dependent noun was often mutated after a feminine, but not after a masculine noun. The practice has survived in these uses of the dependent noun owing to their affinity to those of the adjective.

REMARKS.

- 1. After the adjective llawn, full, what was probably an old Partitive 380 Genitive, has survived in the dependent noun in such expressions as: llawn cysur, full of comfort; llawn maeth, full of nourishment; also, with the dependent noun placed first, bwyd ddigon, plenty of food.
- 2. After uwch, higher, is, lower (now generally classed with prepositions). the dependent noun probably corresponded originally to the Genitive of Comparison of Greek and the Ablative of Comparison of Latin (Gk. Gram., § 411, Lat. Gram. § 359, 2. Obs. 1):
 - e.g. uwch y nefoedd, above the heavens, lit. higher than the heavens; ychydig is angylion, a little lower than angels (E. Prys).
- 3. In such expressions as rhai gwyr, some men; y fath ddyn, such a man; 382 rhyw fachgen, some boy; dim lle, no place; peth rheswm, some reason; the words gwyr, dyn, bachgen, lle and rheswm were originally in the genitive case depending on rhai (see Accidence, § 154), rhyw, dim and peth respectively. See Accidence, § 166.

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daear lawr (=llawr daear), the plain of carth.
boreu wawr (=gwawr boreu), the morning dawn.
gwyneb pryd (=pryd gwyneb), the form of the face.
angeu loes (=loes angeu), the agony of death.
Seion sail (=sail Seion), the foundation of Zion.
Caersaiem byrth (=pyrth Caersalem), the gates of Jerusalem.
Salem dir (=tir Salem), the land of Salem.
Eden ardd (=gardd Eden), the garden of Eden.
bwyd ddigon (=digon o fwyd), plenty of food.
merched rai (=rhai merched), some women.
dynion lawer (=llawer o ddynion), many men.

(For the use of the prepositions i and o see \\$ 389-404.)

A noun depending on a verb.

384] 1. A noun placed after a transitive verb may be its Object:

e.g. gorchfygodd y gelyn, he conquered the enemy.

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- 2. A noun placed after a verb may have an adverbial meaning, denoting time (either duration or point of time) or distance:
 - e.g. arhosodd ddiwrnod, he stayed a day. cerddodd filltir, he walked a mile.

bydd yno drennydd, he will be there the day after tomorrow.

a edrych blygain bob pen awr | a welo'r wawr yn codi, who looks at daybreak at every hour to see whether day is dawning. (E. Prys.)

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Used predicatively with the verb wyf, I am, a noun may express age, measurement, or price:

- (a) age: e.g. mae yn ugain (mlwydd) oed, he is twenty years of age.
- (b) measurement: e.g. mae yn ugain troedfedd o hyd, o led, etc., it is twenty feet in length, breadth, etc.
- (c) price: e.g. mae y llyst yn bedair ceiniog a dimai, the book is four-pence half-penny.

REMARKS.

In such an expression as y mae hi yn drwm ei chlyw, she is hard of hearing, where the adjective trwm agrees with clyw, we have probably a fusion of two constructions:

(a) y mae yn drwm ei chlyw, her hearing is hard (lit. heavy);
(b) y mae hi yn drom ei chlyw, she is hard as to her hearing;
clyw in (b) corresponding to the accusative of nearer definition of Greek and Latin. See Gk, Gram. § 383; Lat. Gram. § 383.

PREPOSITIONS.

388 Owing to the change which Welsh has undergone from being a language with case-endings into one in which the relations of words to each other are mainly determined by their order and arrangement, the prepositions have risen into great prominence, as words which serve to express these relations with precision. Some of these prepositions have a more general meaning than others, and are used to enable the nouns which follow them to convey the meaning expressed in inflected languages by the genitive, dative and ablative cases. The two chief prepositions of this type in Welsh are i, to, into; o, from, of.

> For the verbs which take fixed prepositions see \\$\ 329, 332. The preposition i, to, into.

In addition to the use of the preposition i in its fundamental 389 sense of to, into, it is employed to enable a noun or pronoun to express what would, as a rule, be expressed in Greek or Latin by the Dative Case.

(1) As a fixed preposition after certain verbs, mainly those of 390 giving (see $\S 332a$).

391 (2) In the case of personal pronouns only, to enable the pronoun to convey a meaning like that of the so-called Ethical Dative, i.e. to mark a person as interested in, or sympathizing with, what is said, as distinct from the action spoken of:

> e.g. with fyned ymlaen, iti, fe ddaeth pethau yn well, as we went on, you see, things got better.

(3)* To denote possession. This is the regular method of expressing possession after nouns which are indefinite in meaning:

e.g. llyfr i'r bachgen yw hwn, this is a book belonging to the boy. mae y gwr yn gyfaill imi, the man is a friend of mine. yn un pen i'r dref, at one end of the town.

(4)* To mark the doer of the action denoted by a verb-noun:

e.g. wedi i'r gwr fyned, after the man had gone. (5)* Occasionally after aml, ambell and llawer: †

e.g. aml i ddyn, many a man; llawer i greadur, many a creature.

(6) Before the verb-noun, to denote destination or purpose:

e.g. amser i hau, time for sowing.

aeth yno i weithio, he went there to work, i.e. for the purpose of working.

(For the limitations to the use i before the verb-noun in Welsh, see Cautions, §§ 330, 333).

† Now generally omitted after these words by good writers,

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^{*} In (3), (4), and (5) i probably stands for di, from. See § 397.

Compound prepositional expressions introduced by i, to, into.

i erbyn, against (used only with possessive adjectives): 396

e.g. rhuthrasant i'w herbyn, they rushed against them.

i blith, i fysg, into the midst (of)—used only with plural nouns and plural possessive adjectives:

e.g. dychwelodd i blith ei bobl, he returned into the midst of his people.

aeth i fysg y defaid, he went into the midst of the sheep.

i ganol, into the midst (of)—used with singular or plural:

eg. i ganol yr afon, into the midst of the river. i ganol y milwyr, into the midst of the soldiers.

Nore.—i blīth generally implies closer proximity than i fysg.

REMARKS.

1. The preposition i stands for an older di, which, at one period in the 397 history of the language, meant both to and from. Di meaning to is frequently found in the Book of Llandaf: e.g. dir pant to the valley. In the sense of from, di still survives in the double preposition oddi (=0+ddi), combined with ar, on, as in oddiar (0+ddi+ar), from on; or with tan, under, in odditan (=0+ddi+tan), from under; or with wrth, by, near, in oddiwrth (=0+ ddi+wrth), from near. In Mediæval Welsh, through the loss of initial d, di, from, had become y (=i), identical in form with the preposition y (=i), to, and still survived in the sense of from in such expressions as y gan, from association with; y dan, from under; y ar, from on. For the use of i in llawer i ddyn, etc., compare the partitive use of the French de. See Fr. Gram. P.G.S. § 397, 398.
2. In Mediæval Welsh the preposition i, to, into, was sometimes used

where the preposition at, to, towards, would now be employed:

e.g. a pheri yr kigyd . . . dyuot idi a tharaw bonclust arnei beunyd, and ordered the butcher . . . to go to her and strike her a blow on the ear daily. (Mabinogi of Branwen, Rhys and Evans, p. 34, l. 9. 10).

Also, not infrequently, in the sense of yn, in.

The Preposition o, from; with pronominal suffixes ohon-.

In addition to its regular meaning from, from within, the pre-398 position o is mainly employed to enable a noun or pronoun to express what would, as a rule, be expressed in Greek or Latin by the Genitive Case:

(1) To introduce a noun of closer definition:

e.g. gwr o saer, a carpenter: lit. a man (consisting) of a carpenter.

gwr o athrylith a man of genius. Sais o genedl, an Englishman by race. cloff o'i ddeudroed, lame in both feet.

399	(2) Conversely, to introduce the more general of the two nouns		
	thus brought together: e.g. cawr o ddyn, a giant of a man.		
1	truan o ddyn, a gunt of a man.		
	cywilydd o be h, a shameful thing: lit. a shame of a thing.		
l	Cf. Gk. μέγα χρημα συός, a monster of a boar.		
400	(3) To express a meaning corresponding to the Partitive		
1	Genitive of Greek or Latin:		
j	(a) After interrogative pronouns and superlative adjectives:		
	e.g. pwy ohonoch? who of you?		
1	y talaf o'r bechgyn, the tallest of the boys.		
	(b) After the following words denoting quantity: cymmaint, as much llawer,* much, many		
	cymmaint, as much	llawer,* much, many	
	cynnifer, as many		
1	chwaneg (ychwaneg), more	nonmous but little	
1	digon, sufficient dim, something	nemnawr, out tittle	
•	gormod, too much	pa lailli, noto much	
1	hyn, this much		
I	hynny. that much	vchydig. a little	
	hynny, that much Similarly after numerals; e.g. ug	ain o ddynion, twenty men.	
401			
	amddifad (o) destitute (of)		
	annhebyg (o) unlikely (to)	prin (o) short (of)	
	balch (o) proud (of)	rhwym (0) <i>bound to</i>	
	cyfrannog (o) sharing (in)	sicr (o) sure (to)	
	euog (o) guilty (of) hoff (o) fond (of)	tebyg (o) likely (to)	
	hoff (o) fond (of)	tellwing (o) worthy (of)	
402	(5) With an adjective, after one		
	rhyfeddol, wonderful; nodedig, remarkable; dychrynllyd, terrible:		
	e.g. ty hynod o gysurus, a remarka	this comfortable house	
	vr aedd yn ddychrynllyd a aei	r it was terribly cold	
402	yr oedd yn ddychrynllyd o ōer, it was terribly cold. (6) In such expressions as o fachgen, for a boy, etc., used to		
403	qualify statements of praise:		
	e.g. siaradai Saesneg yn dda iawn o Gymro, he spoke English		
	very well for a Welshman.		
	o fachgen yr oedd ei waith yn rhagorol, for a boy his work		
	was excellent.		

^{*} Also in Elis Wyn, y Bardd Cwsg, before singular nouns after myrdd and aneirif in the sense of an indefinite amount. This use is a survival from Mediæval Welsh.

Compound prepositional expressions introduced by o, from.

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- oddiallan i, outside: e.g. oddiallan i'r ty, outside the house. oddiar (=0+ddi+ar), from off: e.g. oddiar y llawr, from off the floor.
- o dan, odditan (=0+ddi+tan), beneath, under: e.g. o dan ugain, under twenty; odditan y ddaer, beneath the earth.
- oddiwrth (=0+ddi+wrth), from, from near, opposed to at, towards: e.g. ewch oddiwrth y ceffyl, go away from the horse: derbyniodd lythyr oddiwrth y brenin, he received a letter from the king.
- o achos
- o blegid \(\rangle \) on account (of): e.g. o achos y gwres, on account
- o herwydd) of the heat; oblegid y drafferth, on account of the trouble; oherwydd yr hin, on account of the weather.
- o blaid, in favour of: e.g. o blaid y llywodraeth, in favour of the Government.
- o fewn, oddifewn i, within : e.g. o fewn y cylch, within the circle; o fewn ychydig, within a little; oddifewn i'r ty, within the house.
- o fesur, by (used distributively): e.g. o tesur y dwsin, by the dozen.
- o flaen, before (mostly of place): e.g. o flaen yr orsedd, before the throne; o flaen yr amser, before the time.
- o gylch
- o amgylch
- o ddeutu
- o gwmpas

- around, about: Of place: e.g. o gylch y llē, around the place; o amgylch y ddinas, around

the city; oddeutu 'r drws, about the door; o

gwmpas y ty, around the house.

Of time: (oddeutu, o gylch, and o gwmpas only): e.g. bu yno oddeutu wythnos, he was there about a week; o gwmpas dwyawr, about two hours; o gylch tridiau, about three days.

- o ol, behind, used only with possessive adjectives: e.g. o'm hol, behind me.
- o ran, for the matter (of), as for: e.g. o ran hynny, for the matter of that.

Other Prepositions.

405 ag (a), with, mostly used to express the instrument: e.g. torri a chyllell, to cut with a knife.

Other meanings; aeth ymaith a'r fwyall, he went away with the axe; mae wedi darfod a mi, he has done with me; crefodd arnaf a dagrau, he begged of me with tears.

406 am, around, for, with pronominal suffixes amdan:

Of place: am ei arddwrn, around his wrist; am y pared, on the other side of the wall.

Of time: am yn hir, for a long time; am oriau, for hours; am dros flwyddyn, for over a year.

Other meanings: ni soniodd air am hynny, he did not say a word about that; am y trō, for the time; am y cyntaf, for the first; am reswm neillduol, for a certain reason; am ei fywyd, for his life; garw am arian, eager for money; am geiniog, for a penny; anfon am ddwfr, to send for water; nid awn yno am lawer, I should not go there for anything; am y testyn, mae yn ddigon hawdd, as for the subject, it is easy enough.

amdan (=am+dan), about, is mainly used with nouns in the expressions gwisgo amdan, to dress; tynu amdan, to undress.

am ben, upon, at: e.g. chwerthin am ben, to laugh at.

407 ar, on, with pronominal suffixes arn-:

Of place: ar y ffordd, on the road; ar farch, on horse-back; ar dir a mor, on land and sea.

Of time: ar y foment, at the moment; ar unwaith, at once; ar ddwywaith, in two attempts.

Other meanings: ar frys, quickly; ar yr ammod, on condition; ar y tīr, on the ground (that); ar sail y dystiolaeth, on the basis of the evidence; ar ei oreu, with all his might; ar gyfartaledd, on an average; ar lōg, at interest; ar werth, on sale; ar osod, to let; ar neges, on an errand; ar gynghor, by advice; ar gam, wrongly; ar yr iawn, in the right; ar ddechreu, at the beginning; ar ddiwedd, ar derfyn, at the end (of); ar gyfyng gynghor, in perplexity; ar y plwyf, on the parish; mae arno arian, he owes money. Occasionally after māth, kind: e.g. math ar liw, a kind of colour.

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In certain compound prepositional expressions:—

ar ben, upon:

Of place: ar ben y ty, on top of the

Of time: ar ben pob awr, at the end of

every hour.

Other meanings: ac ar ben y cwbl, dechreuodd wlawio, and, on top of it all, it began to rain; mae ar ben ei ddigon, he has ample means, lit. he is at the end of his sufficiency.

ar draws, across: Of place: ar draws y fford, across the road; ar draws y llē, all over the place.

Other meanings: rhedodd y cerbyd ar ei draws, the car ran over him; peidiwch a siarad ar draws y dyn, do not interrupt the man.

ar gyfer, opposite: Of place: ar gyfer y ty, opposite the house.

Of time: ar gyfer yr adeg, for, (=to)meet) the occasion; ar gyfer y gauaf,

for the winter.

ar gyfyl, near:

mainly used in negative sentences: Of place: ni ddaeth ar gyfyl y lle, he did

not come near the place.

ar hyd, over:

Of place; ar hyd y ddinas, over the city. Of time: ar hyd y nos, all night long.

ar ol, after:

Of place: aeth ar ol ei feistr, he went

after his master.

Of time: ar ol yr amser, after the time.

Other meanings: eich gardd chwi yw y swyaf ar ol un John, your garden is the largest after John's.

ar warthaf, down upon: e.g. ar warthaf y gelyn, upon the enemy.

at, to, towards (opposed to oddiwith, from by):

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Of place: af at y ty, I shall go to the house; y nesaf at yr heol, the next to the street.

Of time: at y gauaf, towards winter; at y nos, towards

night; at yr adeg, to the right time.

Other meanings; aeth at ei waith, he went to his work; mae at ei ddewis, at ei ryddid, he is free to choose; at eich gwasanaeth, at your service; chwaeth at, taste for; at ein chwaeth, to our taste; at bwy yr ydych yn cyseirio? to whom do you refer? ansonas lythyr atoch, I shall send you a letter; at yr anwyd, for a cold; cymeraf hynny at fy ystyriaeth, I shall take that into consideration.

409 cyn, before: --Of time: cyn dydd, before daybreak; cyn cinio, before dinner.

410 dan (tan), under, until:

Of place: dan y to, under the roof; dan y ddaear, under the earth.

Of time: dan y nos, until night; dan yfory, until tomorrow.

Other meanings: dan gerydd, under a rebuke; dan warth, in disgrace; dan glefyd, in sickness; mae dan anwyd, he is suffering from a cold, lit. he is under a cold; dan orfodaeth, under compulsion; dan amod, on condition; dan rwymedigaeth, under an obligation; dan esgus, with the excuse.

(For dan in amdan, o dan and odditan see §§ 406, 404).

411 dros (tros), over:

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Of place: gwaeddodd dros y lle, he shouted all over th

place; dros y ffordd, over the way.

Of time: dros y diwrnod, for the day; dros y trō, for once. Other meanings: dros fesur, beyond measure; dros gant, over a hundred; ymladdant dros eu gwlād, dros ryddid, they fight for their country, for freedom.

drwy (trwy), through:

Of place: drwy Ffrainc, through France; drwy y ty, through the house.

Of time: drwy'r flwyddyn, throughout the year.

efo, with, sometimes used for gyda. See gyda. This preposition, regularly used in the spoken Welsh of N. Wales to express with, was not originally a preposition but a personal pronoun S. 3, and has developed into a preposition through a mistake. Its original use was in such expressions as éfo a mi, he and I, or he with me, which became contracted into éfo mi, and éfo (also pronounced hefo) was taken to mean with, and used accordingly.

er, since:—Of time: er y boreu, since the morning; er yn blentyn, since childhood.

ers (=er ys), since*:—Of time: er ys oriau, for hours; er ys talm, since long ago.

er, in spite (of):—Adversative: er hynny, in spite of that; er ei 415 gystudd, in spite of his illness.

(delwedd F7328) (tudalen 145)

^{*}ers, er ys, is employed where since implies continuance: ys is probably the old form S. 3. Pres. Indic. of wyf, meaning it is (Irish 'is'): hence er ys oriau meant originally since it is hours, i.e. since hours have elapsed.

er gwaethaf, lit. in spite of the worst: er gwaethaf y tywydd, in spite of the weather.

416 er, for the sake of: er sicrwydd, for the sake of certainty; er mantais, for the sake of an advantage.

er mwyn, for the sake (of): er mwyn tawelwch, for the sake

of peace.

417 er, for, to (implying result): bu y peth er clod, er cysur iddo, the thing was to his credit, to his comfort; er ei syndod, to his surprise.

418 erbyn, by: Of time: erbyn trī o'r gloch, by three o'clock.

419 gan, with, by:

Of place * (rare in Modern Literary Welsh): fel miaren gan lawr, like a briar along the ground (Elis Wyn); a'u trwynau gan lawr, with their noses on the ground (Elis Wyn).

Of time (obsolete): gan wawr, with the dawn (Gododin)
To denote the agent, in passive constructions: gwelwyd

ef gan fachgen, he was seen by a boy.

With the meaning from, where gan stands for the older y gan, from association with:—e.g. cafodd gan y dyn fyned, he got the man to go, lit. he got from the man a going; dysgodd gan ei athraw, he learnt from his master; cafodd lyfr gan ei dād, he got a book from his father.

PHRASES: gan mwyaf, for the most part; gan hynny,

therefore; gan fyned, going, (see \$\\$547, 556), dā gennyf glywed, I am glad to hear. gan is largely employed in the expression mae gan, lit. there is with, denoting possession: e.g. mae gan y dyn arian, the man has money.

NOTE.—The use of gan by some writers in such expressions as yr apostol gan Bedr, the apostle Peter, is by no means elegant and should be avoided.

420 ger, close by:

Of place: ger y llif, near the flood; ger y lan, near the fire.

ger llaw, close by, lit. near the hand (of):

Of place: ger llaw y drws, near the door.

ger bron, before, lit. before the breast (of):

Of place: ger bron y brenin, before the king.

421 gerfydd, by, in such expressions as dal gerfydd ei draed, to hold by his feet.

^{*} In the Dimetian dialect of S. Wales this use of gan is not uncommon.

422 gydag (gyda), with (in N. Wales, the corresponding prep. efo is generally employed):

Of place: gyda glan yr ason, along the bank of the river.

Of time: gyda'r wawr, with the dawn; gyda'r nos, at nightfall.

Other meanings: aeth gydag ef, he went with (i.e. accompanied by) him; gyda'ch cennad, by your leave; gyda llāw, by the way; gyda hynny, in addition to that; gyda brys, with speed; gyda'r cyntaf, with the first; gyda bloedd, with a shout; gyda gwen, with a smile; gyda bendith, with a blessing; gyda phob parch, with all respect; gyda thrafferth, with difficulty.

423 gogyfer ag (a), opposite to: Of place: gogyfer a'r drws, opposite the door.

gyferbyn ag (a), opposite to: Of place: gyferbyn a'r llys, opposite the court.

gyfeiryd ag (a), opposite to (rare): Of place: gyfeiryd a hyn, yr oedd seler fawr, opposite to this there was a large cellar. Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg.

124 heb, without (Med. Welsh, past):—heb lyfr, without a book; heb achos, without a cause.

heb law, besides:—heb law hynny, besides that; heb law fi,*
besides myself.

heb waethaf (i), in spite of (rare): heb waethaf Holland, in spite of Holland. Elis Wyn.

425 heibio (i), past:—heibio 'r ty, past the house; heibio i mi, past me 426 hyd, along, until:

Of place: daeth adref hyd y ffordd, he came home along the road. In this sense ar hyd (see § 407*) is mostly used.

Of time: hyd drannoeth, until the following day; hyd angeu, till death.

hyd at, as far as: hyd at y ty, as far as the house: hyd at y diwedd, as far as the end.

hyd i, as far as, implying 'entrance into': hyd i'r ddinas, as far as the city.

^{*} Note that heb law does not require the preposition i, to, after it before pronouns.

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427 is, below, beneath:

Of place: is y nefoedd, beneath the heavens; is y don, beneath the wave.

is law, beneath: Of place: is law y tv, below the house.

Other meanings: mae y gwās is law ei feistr, the servant is below his master; is law sylw, beneath one's notice.

428 mewn, in:

Of place: mewn ystafell, in a room; mewn cerbyd, in a car.

Of time: mewn awr, in an hour; mewn blwyddyn, in a year.

Other meanings: mewn ofn, in fear; mewn perygl, in danger; mewn angen, in need. See §§ 437, 438.

429 rhag, from, implying the avoidance of some danger or discomfort:
e.g. cadw rhag y tān, to keep from the fire; achub rhag angeu,
to save from death.

PHRASE: rhag llaw, forthwith; rhag ofn, from fear.

430 rhwng, between:

Of place: rhwng Rhyl a Bangor, between Rhyl and Bangor.

Of time: rhwng nos a boreu, between night and morning. Other meanings: rhanasant yr arian rhyngddynt, they divided the money between them; rhyngom, ni a wnawn yn rhagorol, between us, we shall do excellently; rhyngddynt hwy a'r peth, between them and the matter.

431 tuag (tua), about, towards. This preposition is a compound of tū, side, and ag, with:

Of place: tua'r ty, about the house; tua'r dref, towards the town.

Of time: tua naw o'r gloch, about nine o'clock; tua thri, about three.

Other meanings: tua chant, about a hundred; tua phum ceiniog, about fivepence; tua milldir, about a mile.

tuagat, toward, towards: daeth tuagatom, he came towards us; rhoisant rywbeth tuagat y treuliau, they gave something towards the expenses.

432 uwch, above: uwch y don, above the wave; uwch y byd, above the world.

goruwch, above, is more commonly used to express these meanings than the simple uwch.

uwch ben, above: uwch ben y ty, above the house. uwch law, above: uwch aw y cyfan, above all.

433 wedi, after:

Of time: wedi nos, after nightfall; wedi 'r frwydr, after the battle.

Of succession: y talaf wedi John, the tallest after John.

434 wrth, by, to:

Of place: safai wrth y ty, he stood by the house.

After verbs of 'binding': cadwyno wrth y mūr, to chain to the wall.

Similarly—rhwym wrth y mūr, bound to the wall.

After verbs of speaking: llefaru with y dorf, to speak to the multitude.

Other meanings: cerdded wrth ei bwysau, to walk at his leisure; rhodio wrth ei ffon, to walk by the help of his stick; gweithio wrth reol, to work by rule; rhoddi wrth fesur, to give by measure; gwerthu wrth y pwys, to sell by the pound; wrth raid, if need be; wrth ei swydd, in virtue of his office; wrthyf fi a'in bath, compared with me and my sort.

435 yn, in:

Of place: yn y wlād, in the country; yng nghysgod craig, in the shelter of a rock; ym mhōb man, in every place; ym mhā lē, in what place; yn ei holl ardal, in his whole district.

Of time: yn y flwyddyn, in the year; ym mis Chwefror, in February.

Other meanings: yn angeu, in death; yn Gymraeg, in Welsh; ym mhawb, in every one.

yn is the first element of the following compound prepositional expressions:

yn erbyn, against: yn erbyn y gelyn, against the enemy.

yng ngwydd, in the presence (of): yng ngwydd tystion, in the presence of witnesses.

yng nghylch, about: yng nghylch ugain, about twenty; yng nghylch tridiau, about three days.

ym mhen, at the end (of): ym mhen pythefnos, at the end of a fortnight; ym mhen y ffordd, at the end of the road.

i.e. this end, hence this expression generally means at

the beginning of the road.

ym mhlith midst of, among: ym mhlith y tlodion, among ym mysg the poor; ymysg y Saeson, among the English.

ym mhlith and ym mysg are used only with plural nouns or plural possessive adjectives.

yn öl, after (rare in Modern Welsh):—yn öl hynny, after that.

Distinctions between yn and mewn.

yn, like Fr. dans, is generally employed before words defined 437 by means of the definite article or otherwise: mewn, like Fr. en, is generally employed before words not so defined:

e.g. yn y ty, in the house; mewn ty, in a house.

Proper names of places, and expressions such as angeu, death, 438 tragwyddoldeb, eternity, as well as pob, every, pawb, every one, yr hwn, y neb, y sawl, who, which (relative), pwy, who?, pa, what?, holl, whole, and all pronominal suffixes take yn:

e.g. ynddynt, in them; yn yr holl wlad, in the whole country. NOTE. - In the expressions yn tan, in (or into) the fire, yn ty, in the house, 439 the article is omitted. Note also the initial mutation in the expression yn Gymraeg (not yng Nghymraeg), in Welsh.

Distinctions between prepositions meaning from.

o, from, means from within: e.g. o'r ty, from (i.e. from within) 440 the house, as opposed to i, into.

oddiwrth, from near, means from a position of close proximity 441 to: e.g. oddiwrth y ty, from (i.e. from the outside of) the house, as opposed to at, towards. Verbs of 'separating' mostly take oddiwrth.

rhag, from before, implies the avoidance of some danger or dis-

comfort: e.g. cadw rhag y gwres, to keep from the heat.

gan, from association with, after verbs of 'receiving' etc. implies immediate and direct transmission: e.g. caf lyfr gan fy athraw, I shall get a book from my teacher.

oddiwrth, from near, after verbs of 'receiving' etc. generally 444 calls attention to the transmission of the object in question through intermediaries: e.g. caf lyfr oddiwrth fy athraw, I shall get a book from my teacher (i.e. transmitted through the agency of some other person).

REMARKS.

The following old prepositional forms deserve notice:

445 (1) behet, bet, up to, found in the Book of Llandaff, and even in Wiliam. Lleyn in the mutated form fed.

(2) cant, with, of which gan (for gant) is the mutated form. can still survives 446 as a prefix in canfu, he beheld, and canmolaf, I praise. The existence of this form explains the initial mutation in such expressions as a chanddo, and with him. Cant is probably cognate with Gk. kard.

(3) cyd, with, of which gyd in gyda is the mutated form. This preposition 447 in the forms cyf-, cy-, cyd-, cys- is a common prefix, having the force of the Gk. σύν, with, Lat. cum, con-, with.

(4) go (for guo-, under, = Gaulish vo-, Irish fo, Gk. ὑπό*), is now used as

448 a prefix and as an adverb, to express rather: e.g. go-drwm, rather heavy; go gynes, rather warm. It is also found as a prefix in many nouns and verbs.

- (5) gor (for guor-, over, = Gaulish vor-, ver-, Irish for, Gk. ὑπέρ*), is now used as a prefix to express exceedingly: e.g. gorddwin, exceedingly deep. gor is found as a prefix in many Welsh words.
- 450 (6) han, from, is the first element in the word han-fod, essence. In the form hon it is the second element in the forms ohonof, etc., from me, etc.
- (7) py, to (= O. Irish co. up to) occurs in the expression o ben bwy gilydd, for o ben by 'i gilydd, from one end to the other, lit. from one end to its fellow.
- 452 (8) tra, over, occurs in the expression ben dra-mwnwgl, head over heels; lit. head over neck. tra is now used as a prefix and as an adverb meaning exceedingly.

SUPPLEMENT TO PREPOSITIONS.

Expressions of Place.

yr oeddwn yn Llundain, I was in London.

""", """, """, "", the house.

euthum o Lundain, I went from London.

""" o'r ty "", "", the house.

""", oddiwrth y ty "", "", "",

"", i Lundain, "", to London.

"", i'r ty "", into the house.

,, at y ty ,, towards the house.

Rule:—"Place where," "place whence," and "place whither" are expressed as in English by using prepositions.

Note:—gartref, home (mutated form of cartref †) is used without a preposition.

Expressions of Space.

cerddodd bymtheng milldir, he walked fifteen miles.
mae Bangor driugain milldir o Gaerlleon, Bangor is sixty
miles from Chester.

RULE:—Distance is expressed by a noun without a preposition with verbs of motion and of rest.

NOTE.—"How long," "how high," "how broad" are expressed by using the nouns hyd, length, uchder, height, lled, breadth, respectively, preceded by the preposition o, from, of:

e.g. mae y ffordd yn ddeng milldir o hyd, the road is ten miles lone.

* Original p of Indo-European has disappeared in the Celtic languages. † cartref, home is probably from car, relative and tref, settlement, homestead, and would thus mean originally the common settlement of relatives under the Old Welsh System of land tenure.

Expressions of Time.

TIME WHEN.

yn Rhagfyr y cychwynodd, it was in December that he started.

(b) fe'm ganwyd ar y pummed o Awst yn y flwyddyn 18—,

I was born on the 5th of August in the year 18—.

(c) bydd y cyfarfod yn dechreu am saith o'r gloch, the meeting will begin at seven o'clock.

(d) bu yma boreu heddyw, he was here this morning.
daw adref y flwyddyn nesaf, he will come home next year.
aeth yno y Nadolig, he went there at Christmas.

RULE:—"Time when" is expressed by using the preposition yn, in, to mark the year or the month; ar, on, to mark the day; am, for, to mark the hour. In other cases the noun is employed either without a preposition or with the preposition yn, in.

TIME HOW LONG.

arhosodd yn Llundain ddyddiau lawer (or am ddyddiau lawer), he stayed in London many days.

bu yno bum wythnos (or am bum wythnos), she was there for five weeks.

RULE:—"Time how long" is expressed either by using a noun preceded by the preposition am, for, or without a preposition.

Note:—"How old" is expressed by a Predicate-noun followed immediately by the noun oed, age (possibly with the omission of o, from, of, before oed):

e.g. mae y plentyn yn bum mlwydd oed, the child is five years of age. (Note that blwydd is the form employed here).

TIME WITHIN WHICH.

ychydig ddyddiau cyn y frwydr, a few days before the battle. rhyw dridiau wedi (or ar ol) y Pasg, some three years after Easter.

ddeng mlynedd (or ym mhen deng mlynedd) wedi hynny, ten years after.

ychydig yn gynt, a little sooner.

gryn amser ar ol hynny, a considerable time after that.

RULE:—"Time how long before or after" is generally expressed by means of a noun without a preposition.

(For a list of adverbs of time see § 598.)

(delwedd F7335) (tudalen 152)

MEANINGS OF THE VOICES.

Owing to the peculiar history of the Passive Voice in Welsh (see Accidence, § 178), it is not always easy to say, in sentences with normal order, whether or not the verb has completely passed over into the Passive Voice; in other words, whether or not the sense of the original construction still survives in our grammatical consciousness. In sentences of inverted order, however, if the Subject precedes the verb, the verb then seems to be viewed as distinctly passive:

e.g. gwelwyd dyn, a man was seen (originally, there was seeing as to a man).

dyn a welwyd, 'a man was seen.'

The Active voice often has an intransitive meaning, even in the case of verbs which are capable of taking an Object:

e.g. cyfodaf, I rise, as well as I raise. dysgaf, I learn, ,, ,, I teach.

The Substitute for a Middle Voice.

In the case of many verbs a reflexive form, equivalent in meaning to the 'Middle Voice' of Greek, can be made by prefixing the preposition ym* (another form of am, around):

eg. golchaf, I wash; ym-olchaf, I wash myself.

Sometimes, verbs of this formation are not used in a direct reflexive sense, but, by means of the prefix in question, suggest a relation of the action to its agent, as involving his interest, etc.:

e.g. gwelaf, I see; ymwelaf, I visit (= I see for myself).

In the case of some verbs, ym appears to have a reciprocal force:

e.g. ymladdwn, we fight (lit. we strike † one another).

[Cf. French se battre, to fight.]

pan el lladron i ymgyhuddo, y caiff cywiriaid eu da, when thieves proceed to accuse one another, honest men come by their own.

Welsh Proverb.

466 Note:—ym and am (Irish imm), are cognate with Latin ambi-, and Greek άμφι, around [for original ambhi-].

^{*} The corresponding Irish preposition imm is also similarly used.

^{. †} lladdaf, now = 1 kill, meant originally 1 strike.

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES.

Some of the Welsh tense-forms have pairs of meanings as follows:

dysgaf, I learn (PRESENT), and I shall learn (FUTURE); dysgwn, I was learning (PAST IMPERFECT), and I should learn (SECONDARY FUTURE):

dysgaswn, I had learnt (PLUPERFECT), and I should have learnt (SECONDARY FUT. PERF.):

dysgais, I learnt (AORIST), and I have learnt (PERFECT).

From these forms it will be seen that the peculiarity whereby the Present tense-form has both a present and a future meaning is not confined to this tense-form alone, but shows itself also in the case of the tense-forms of the Past Imperfect and the Pluperfect.

- The Past Imperfect, when used as a Secondary Future, corresponds in meaning to the Secondary Future of French (the so-called 'Conditionnel Présent'), while the Pluperfect, when used as a Secondary Future Perfect, corresponds to the Secondary Future Perfect of French (the so-called 'Conditionnel Passé'). Welsh differs from French in having, in nearly all verbs, only one form for the Present and the Future; only one form for the Past Imperfect and the Secondary Future; and only one for the Pluperfect and the Secondary Future Perfect.
- In the case of wyf, I am, the pairs of tense-forms are as follows:

 byddaf, I am wont to be (PRES. HABITUAL), and I shall be (FUT.);

 byddwn, I was wont to be (PAST IMPERF. HABIT.), and I should be

 (SEC. FUT.);

 buaswn, I had been (Pluperfect), and I should have been (Sec.

 Fut. Perf.);

 bum, I was (Aorist), and I have been (Perfect).
- N.B.—Note that the tense-forms which have these pairs of meanings are all derived from the root bleu [Lat. fu-ī, I have been; Gk. φῦ-ναι, to grow].

Tenses of the Indicative. The Present.

- 472 The Present (Simple Form) has two chief meanings:-
 - (A) as a true Present;
 - (B) as a Future:

e.g. gweiaf, I see or I shall see.

- 473 (A) As a true Present, the simple form of this tense has two chief uses:
 - (1) In the case of verbs denoting a state, to mark the state as now existing:

e.g. wyf, I am; gailaf, I can, I am able.

So with verbs which denote states of mind rather than actions: e.g. gwelaf, I see; ystyriaf, I consider; teimlaf, I feel.

The corresponding meaning of verbs which denote an action is expressed by the compound form of the Present, which marks the action as now going on:

e.g. yr wyf yn ysgrifenu, I am writing (now), lit. I am in writing, I am a-writing.

y mae yn rhedeg, he is running (now).

yr wyt yn myned, thou art going, thou art a-going.

(2) In the case of verbs denoting an action and those denoting a state, to mark the action or the state, as recurring habitually in the present:

e.g. ysgrifena'r awdwr hwn bōb amser yn ddā, this author always writes well.

teimlant ambell waith yn boeth, they sometimes feel hot.

Very frequently this habitual meaning, whether of verbs denoting an action or a state, is expressed by using the compound form with byddaf, *I am habitually*:

e.g. byddaf yn myned, I am in the habit of going, lit. I am habitually in going (a-going).

byddaf yn teimlo, I am in the habit of feeling.

As a true Present, the simple form of this tense may also denote what is true at all times (including the present):

e.g. y plentyn yw tad y dyn, the child is father to the man.

bid* lawen iach, the healthy man is joyous. (Welsh Proverb.) dihunid a brydero, he that is anxious is sleepless.

In vivid narration the Present may be used of past events instead of the Aorist: in this use the Present is called Historical:

e.g. yna gwelir ef yn rhedeg, then he is seen running.

(delwedd F7338) (tudalen 155)

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^{*} A Pres. Indic. 3rd S. ending in -id, is sometimes found with this meaning, especially in old proverbs.

480 (B) As a Future, the Present tense-form is employed like the Future of Greek and Latin: (1) To mark an action as about to occur, or a state as about to exist, hereafter: e.g. ysgrifenaf, I shall write; byddaf yn ddedwydd, I shall be In the case of verbs of action the Future meaning, especially in 481 Principal Clauses, is often expressed by means of gwnaf, I shall make, followed by a verb-noun; e.g. gwnāf fyned, I shall go, lit. I shall make a going; similarly in the case of verbs of perceiving and thinking, the Future is generally expressed by caf, I shall obtain, followed by a verb-noun: e.g. caf weled, I shall see; caf wybod, I shall know. I shall be writing, etc. is expressed by byddaf yn ysgrifenu, etc. NOTE.—The use of gwnaf to express the Future meaning is very common in 482 sentences of inverted order, when the verb-noun precedes the verb which governs it: e.g. myned a wnāf, I shall go. 483 (2) To imply command or promise (in the 2nd or 3rd person, where English has shall, not will): e.g. cei fyned, you shall go. ni chei fyned, you shall not go. Note on the Present Indic. of wyf, 3rd pers. sing. (pers.) The five forms mae, yw, ydyw, oes and sydd which correspond to the 484 English is are distinguished in use as follows: I. In the sentence of normal order (see §§ 303, 304): mae is used in affirmative clauses: e.g. mae John yn y ty, John is in the house. 485 yw (ydyw) is used in negative clauses when the Subject is definite: indefinite: 486 e.g. nid yw y dyn yn y ty, the man is not in the house. nid oes ddyn yn y ty, there is no man in the house. 487 Similarly in interrogative sentences introduced by a, and also after os, if, in the subordinate clauses of conditional sentences: e.g. a yw y dyn gartres? is the man at home? a oes rhywun gartref? is someone at home? os yw y dyn gartref, if the man is dt home. os oes rhywun gartref, if someone is at home. The difference between yw and ydyw is mainly one of euphony, but ydyw is used in preference to yw in answers. 2. In the sentence of inverted order (see § 305):-488 sydd is used when the Subject precedes the verb in affirmative sentences, affirmative relative clauses and affirmative interrogative sentences and clauses introduced by pwy? who?; pa? what?; pa beth? (or beth?) what thing? e.g. John sydd yn canu, it is John that is singing.

> yr hwn sydd yn canu, he who is singing. pŵy sydd yn canu? who is singing?

(The reasons for the use of sydd in these cases are given in the Appendix.)

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yw (ydyw) is employed:-
      (a) wherever the verb of the sentence or clause is negatived:
         e.g. pwy nid yw yn gorfoleddu? who does not rejoice?
      (b) whenever the Predicate-noun, Predicate-adjective or Predicate-pronoun is
            placed first:
         e.g. dyn yw, he is a man; da yw, he is good; mysi yw, it is I.
        Similarly in questions like - pwy yw y dyn? who is the man? and relative
      clauses like—yr hwn yw y dyn (where y dyn is definite), pwy and yr hwn are
      treated as Predicate-pronouns.
        mae is employed where the verb-noun of a compound tense is placed first.
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      In these cases yn is generally omitted:
        e.g. myned y mae, he is going, for mae yn myned.
        OBS. The plural form corresponding to mae is maent; the plural forms
      corresponding to yw (ydyw) are ynt (ydynt).
                             The Past Imperfect.
        The Past Imperfect (Simple Form) has two chief meanings:
491
           (A) as a true Present of the past;
           (B) as a Secondary Future (Future of the past):
         e.g. gwelwn, I was seeing, or I should see.
      Both of these meanings are meanings of the Present transferred
      to past time.
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         As a true present of the past the Past Imperfect is employed,
      like the Past Imperfect of Greek and Latin—
        (1) To mark an action as going on in the past or a state as then
      existing:
         e.g. ysgrifenwn, I was writing (then).
                          I was running
             rhedwn,
                          I was going
             awn,
                          I was
             oeddwn,
             gallwn,
                          I was able
             teimlwn.
                          1 felt
494
        N.B.—The use of the simple form of the Past Imperfect is not
      subject to the same limitations as that of the simple form of the
      Present; see $\$ 473-475.
        In this sense the Past Imperfect is often used in the description
495
      of scenery and localities:
         e.g. arweiniai y llwybr i'r mynydd, the path led to the mountain.
        In the case of wyf, I am, the form oeddwn, I was, has this
· 496
      meaning; and it is regularly used to make a compound form of
      the Past Imperfect Continuous:
         e.g. yr oeddwn yn rhedeg, I was running.
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yr oeddwn yn teimlo, I was feeling.

(2) To mark an action or a state as recurring habitually in the past: e.g. ysgrifenai yr awdwr hwn bob amser yn ddā, this writer always used to write well. teimlent ambell waith yn boeth, they sometimes felt hot. Very frequently this habitual meaning is expressed by using the 498 compound form with byddwn, I was habitually: e.g. byddwn yn myned, I used to go. byddwn yn teimlo, I used to feel. (3) The Past Imperfect was the old Indo-European narrative 499 cense, and is so used in some expressions in Welsh, as it also is occasionally in Attic Greek, and, to a much larger extent, in Homer: e.g. wedi myned i mewn, gwelem y dyn ar ei eistedd, after going in, we saw the man sitting. **500** This use of the Past Imperfect is especially common in the case of the verbs gwelaf, I see, clywaf, I hear, and verbs of kindred meaning: e.g. ynghanol hyn, clywn rydwst tu a phen isa 'r stryd, in the midst of this, I heard an uproar at the lower end of the Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg. 501 (B) As a Secondary Future, the Past Imperfect is used: (1) To describe a future action or state from the point of view of the past: e.g. gwyddai yr ysgrifenwn, he knew that I should write; gwyddai y teimlwn, he knew that I should feel; corresponding in past time to gwyr yr ysgrifenaf, he knows that I shall write \ in present gwyr y teimlaf, he knows that I shall feel (2) In the Principal * Clause of a Conditional Sentence that 502 speaks of what would be (§ 355):

awn yno, pe byddai eisieu, I should go there, if there were need.

(For these uses of the Secondary Future in French, cf. Fr. Gram. §§ 485, 486.)

OBS 1.—When this meaning is expressed by means of a Compound Tense, 503 it should be noted that buaswn, the Pluperfect or Secondary Future Perfect form of wyf, is generally employed: e.g. buaswn (not byddwn) yn myned yno, pe byddai eisieu, I should go

there, if there were need.

^{*} For the Past Imperfect in the Subordinate Clause of a Conditional Sentence see § 526.

OBS. 2.—This tendency to use the Pluperfect form for the Secondary Future seems to have sprung from a desire to avoid the ambiguity that would arise if byddwn were employed, inasmuch as byddwn yn myned might mean I used to go. In present day Welsh the tendency to use the Pluperfect form as a Secondary Future and as a Past Imperfect Subjunctive is very marked. Similarly in Spanish, what was historically a Pluperfect Indicative has now become a by-form of the Past Subjunctive. See Span. Gram. P.G.S. § 503.

OBS. 3.—In the case of gwelaf, I see, clywaf, I hear, gwn, I know, this meaning is often expressed by means of the Past Imperiect form of caf, I

obtain, with the verb-noun:

e.g. caem weled, we should see; caech wybod, you would know.

OBS. 4.—In the case of many verbs denoting an action this meaning is sometimes expressed by using the Past Imperfect form of gwnāf, *I do*, with the verb-noun:

e.g. mi wnawn fyned yno, pe cawn, I should go there, if I were allowed.

The Aorist.

507 The Aorist has two chief meanings in Welsh:

(A) as a true Aorist;

(B) as a Perfect:

e.g. ysgrifenais, I wrote or I have written.

508 (A) as a true Aorist:

(1) To mark an action or state as simply occurring in the past; this is the commonest meaning of the tense:

e.g. gwelais, I saw; ysgrifenais, I wrote; būm, I was; teimlais,

I felt.

As the narrative tense (i.e. as the tense answering the question 'What happened next?'), the Aorist is used to recount a number of past actions which occurred in succession, by marking them each separately as simply past:

e.g. aeth i'r ty a chwiliodd y l'ē, he went into the house and

searched the place.

510 The Aorist is sometimes used, as in Greek, in an ingressive sense:

e.g. wylais, I burst into tears.—Contrast wylwn, I was weeping

or kept weeping.

before some other action in the past; i.e. as having occurred before some other action in the past; here English generally has the Perfect Participle Passive with had:

e.g. pan ganodd yr udgorn, cychwynasant, when the trumpet

had sounded, they advanced.

N.B.—The English Past Tense of verbs denoting an action is generally to be translated by the Aorist (e.g. lleferais, I spoke), but,

when it denotes past habit or describes the action as then going on, it must be translated by the Past Imperfect:

- e.g. yna torodd allan gythrwfl digyffelyb; wylai rhai, gwaeddai eraill, a rhuthrent fel y gallent am y pyrth, then there broke out a great uproar; some wept, others shouted, and rushed, as best they could, for the gates.
- OBS.—gwneuthum, *I did*, followed by a verb-noun, is often employed to express an Aorist, especially where the verb-noun is placed first in a sentence or clause of inverted order: *e.g.* rhedeg a wnaeth, *he ran*.
- 514 (B) As a Perfect, the Aorist may be used to describe an action as now completed:
 - e.g. būm yn Rhufain, I have been in Rome.

 deuthum adref, I have come home.

 gwelais y dyn, I have seen the man.

 dysgais fy ngwers, I have learnt my lesson.

The Perfect.

- The Perfect meaning is most commonly expressed by means of the Present of wyf, followed by the verb-noun with wedi, after, or by means of būm, I have been, the Perfect of wyf, followed by the verb-noun with yn, in, to express a Perfect Continuous: *

 e.g. yr wyf wedi myned, I have gone (lit. I am after going).

 būm yn myned, I have been going (lit. I have been in going, i.e. in the act of going).
- NOTE.—The Perfect forms of āf, I go; deuaf, I come; gwnāf, I make; are now obsolete. The old Present forms darwyf, hanwyf, canwyf, and gorwyf (see Acc. p. 58), were mostly used with Perfect meaning, possibly on the analogy of the Perfect forms of āf, deuaf and gwnāf.

The Future Perfect.

The Future Perfect meaning is expressed by means of byddaf, I shall be, followed by a verb-noun with wedi, after:
e.g. byddaf wedi gweled, I shall have seen.

The Pluperfect.

- The Pluperfect form, like that of the Past Imperfect, has two distinct meanings:
 - (A) as a true Perfect of the past (Past Perfect);
 - (B) as a Secondary Future Perfect (Future Perfect of the past):

e.g. gwelswn, I had seen or I should have seen.

^{*} The Perfect meaning is also commonly expressed by using darfu. See Accidence, § 280f.

519 (A) As a true Perfect of the past—

The Pluperfect is used to describe an action as completed at some point of time in the past, or a past state as the result of an action completed in the past:

e.g. y pryd hynny ysgrifenasai ddau lyfr, at that time he had written two books.

buasai yn glaf cyn i hynny ddigwydd, he had been ill before that happened.

520

In Principal Clauses, the Pluperfect meaning is usually expressed by means of a Compound Tense:

e.g. yr oedd wedi gweled, he had seen.

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buasai yn gweithio, he had been working (rare) (PLUPERF.
                                          Continuous)
(yr oedd wedi bod yn gweithio, "
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521 (B) As a Secondary Future Perfect—

(1) To describe the completion of a future action from the point of view of the past:

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e.g. gwyddai { yr aethwn (rare) } he knew that I should y buaswn wedi myned, } have gone.
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522

(2) In Principal Clauses of Conditional Sentences that speak of what would have been:

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e.g. {aethai buasai wedi myned, } pē cawsai, {he would have gone, if he had been allowed.
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523

This meaning of the Pluperfect is generally expressed by means of buaswn, the Pluperfect of wyf; followed by the verbnoun with wedi. For the use of buaswn, cf. § 503.

Note on the parsing of Compound tenses.

524

The so-called 'Compound Tenses' of Welsh form, strictly speaking, only a portion of a system whereby the verb wyf, followed by a verb noun with a . preposition, is used to express various meanings:

```
(lit. I am in going).
e.g. yr wyf yn myned, I am going
                                         (lit. I am after going).
    ,, ,, wedi
                      I have gone
                fyned, I am about to go (lit. I am on going).
                                         (lit. I am about going).
                       I intend to go
                                        (lit. I am without going).
                       I have not gone
       ,, heb
```

525

In order, therefore, to keep clearly in view the structure of these modes of expression and the principle upon which they are formed, yn and wedi in 'Compound Tenses' should be parsed, not as mere signs of tenses, but as prepositions governing the verb-nouns which follow them.

MEANINGS OF THE MOODS.

The Subjunctive Mood.

- The Subjunctive Mood, so far as it is used in Modern Welsh, is very largely a survival. It has only one special form, namely, that of the Present Subjunctive. The Past Imperfect Subjunctive and the Pluperfect Subjunctive are the same in form as the Past Imperfect Indicative and the Pluperfect Indicative, in all verbs except wyf and caf.*
- In Mediæval Welsh and even in the translation of the Bible the Subjunctive was much more frequently used than it is now. Several of the instances where it survives in modern Welsh prose are expressions such as fel y mynno, as he pleases; doed a ddelo, come what may; cyn bo hir, before (it shall be) long; costied a gostio, cost what it may; dyweded a ddywedo, say what he will.
- N.B.—Distinguish carefully the use of the Past Imperfect and Pluperfect tense-forms as Subjunctives from their use as Secondary Futures and Secondary Future Perfects (see §§ 501, 502, 521, 522).

The chief uses of the Present Subjunctive are:—

- 529 (1) Like the Latin Present Subjunctive and the Greek Optative, to express wish:
 - eg. Duw a'n bendithio! May God bless us!
- 530 (2) In Clauses expressing purpose:
 - e.g. fel y byddo byw eich enaid, that your soul may live.

 modd y caffo hi'r blaen ar lawer o'i chymydogesau, that

 she may be ahead of many of her neighbours.

(Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg.)

531 (3) Occasionally, in negative Noun Clauses after a verb mean ing to command or to beware:

e.g. gwel na'th orchfygo, see that he do not overcome thee.

532 (4) In Concessive Clauses after cyd (rare) and after Comparatives of Equality:

e.g. cyd gwichio'r fenn, hi a ddwg ei llwyth, though the waggon creak, it carries its load.

er pereiddied a chyflawned fyddont, however fragrant and perfect they may be. (Chas. Edwards.)

^{*} The forms bawn and casswn from wyf and cass (see Accidence §§ 195a, 263) are employed as sollows: bawn is used after pē, if; oni, if not; sel, so that (in Consecutive Clauses): casswn is used wherever the clause requires the Past Impersect Subjunctive.

(5) In Relative Clauses and Adverb Clauses of Time, Place, 533 and Comparison, when the action is to be marked as prospective (implying future contingency*) or general: also not unfrequently in Characterizing Relative Clauses:

> e.g. abl i bawb a'i bodlono, sufficient for each is that which satisfies (= shall or may satisfy) him. (Prospective Rel. Clause, § 364.)

a fynno iechyd, bid lawen, whosoever desires health, let him be joyful. (General Rel. Clause, § 364.)

llwm tir ni phoro dafad, bare is the land which a sheep does not graze. (Characterizing Rel. Clause, § 364.)

nes machludo yr haul, until the sun shall set.

(Prospective Clause of Time, § 347a.)

llon fydd y llygoden, pryd ni bo'r gath gartref, the mouse is merry, whenever the cat is not at home. (General Clause of Time, § 347a.)

hawdd cymod lle bo cariad, reconciliation is easy wherever there is love. (General Clause of Place, § 348.)

minnau attebaf yn oreu mettrwyf (Gr. Roberts, 1563), I shall answer as best I can (= shall be able). (Prospective Clause of Comparison, § 359.)

pōb ūn fel y gallo allan o'r Ysgrythyrau Sanctaidd (C. Edwards), each as he shall be able out of the Holy Scriptures. (Prospective Clause of Comparison, § 359.)

(6) Occasionally in Indirect Questions, when the action is marked as contingent:

534

e.g. nid gwaeth imi beth a ddywedo ffyliaid, it makes no difference to me what fools may say. (Morgan Llwyd.)

The Imperative Mood.

- The Imperative marks an action as demanded. Neg. nac (nā). 535 It is used:
 - (a) In Commands: e.g. dywed, say; nā ddywed, say not.

(b) In Suppositions and Concessions:

e.g. dyweded a fynno, ni newidiant, let him say what he will, they will not change.

^{*} It is the contingency of the action that is chiefly suggested by the Subjunctive in Welsh.

THE VERB-NOUN AND VERB-ADJECTIVES.

- The verb-noun in Welsh, inasmuch as it is the *name* of an action, is treated in many respects like a noun; but, as it is the name of an *action* some of its constructions resemble those of the verb.
- Modern Welsh, doubtless largely influenced in the course of centuries by 537 the practice of translating from other languages, tends to be conscious rather of the verbal aspect of the verb-noun as the name of an action, than of its nominal aspect as the name of an action. The student of the language, therefore, often finds it difficult to reconcile his treatment of the verb-noun from the point of view of accidence, where it has very largely the construction of a noun, with his inner consciousness of its verbal aspect. The Welshman of the present day is still more inclined to lay emphasis upon the verbal affinities of the verb-noun, owing to the fact that he habitually makes use of the verbnoun in translating the English Infinitive. To the student of language, nothing can be more interesting than the adjustment of the categories of one language to those of another, when the linguistic consciousness is of necessity bilingual. It is always interesting, too, to observe the discrepancies which sometimes arise between the subjective classifications of forms by those who speak a language, and the objective classifications based upon a study of the inherited forms themselves.

The verb-noun without a preposition.

The verb-noun may stand—

538 1. As the Subject of a sentence:

e.g. mae canu dā yn werth ei wrando, good singing is worth hearing.

ac mae'n ddylēd eu canmawl, and it is our duty to praise them: lit, the praising of them is a duty. (E. Prys.) aeth eu bod ac aeth eu henwau, their being and their names have vanished.

NOTE.—When the verb-noun is separated by means of a Predicate-adjective from the verb to which it is Subject, the verb-noun does not undergo initial mutation: e.g. mae yn anhawdd myned, it is difficult to go (lit. going is difficult.)

2. As the Object, depending on certain verbs (see § 330, where a list of verbs taking a verb-noun as their Object is given):

e.g. gall fyned, he can go; medr ysgrifenu, he can write.

3. In dependence upon a noun and forming with it the equivalent of a compound noun in English.

e.g. amser hau, the time of sowing. ysgol ganu, a singing school.

For the initial mutation in 'ganu' see §§ 376-379.

541 Sometimes the dependent verb-noun is qualified by an adjective used adverbially:

e.g. plentyn newydd eni, a newly born child.

dau o bendefigion newydd ddyfod, two noblemen just arrived. (Bardd Cwsg.)

The noun depending on a verb-noun.

- The analogy of Irish, the use of possessive adjectives with the verb-noun, together with the non-mutation of the initial consonant of a noun depending upon it, all point to the fact that in Welsh such a noun was originally in the genitive case. This was a natural construction when the noun character of the verb-noun was prominent in consciousness, and the forms of the language are a survival from this stage of its history. To the Welshman of the present day, however, in whose mind the verbal aspect of the verb-noun has the greater prominence, the noun following a verb-noun of transitive meaning is viewed more as the Object of a verb than as a noun depending on a noun. At the same time, the student should make it clear in parsing that he understands the original construction.
- A noun depending on a verb-noun may denote either the doer of the action expressed by the verb-noun (such a noun being originally a Subjective Genitive), or else the Object of the action (originally an Objective Genitive). If the verb-noun be intransitive, the dependent noun denotes the doer of the action; if transitive, its Object:

e.g. cyn dyfod y dyn, before the man came; lit. before the man's coming.

cyn gweled y dyn, before seeing the man; lit. before the seeing of the man.

The verb-noun qualified by possessive adjectives.

A possessive adjective corresponds to a genitive case. Hence, before an intransitive verb-noun, the possessive adjective denotes its Subject; before a transitive verb-noun, its Object:

e.g. cyn fy nyfod, before my coming.

cyn fy ngweled, before I was seen; lit. before my seeing = the seeing of me.

The use of the possessive adjective before a verb-noun of transitive meaning is very common when the verb wyf is followed by a verb-noun with a preposition; see § 524:

e.g. mae rhywun yn ei weied; lit. there is someone in (=in the act of) sceing him.

mae y dyn wedi ei ladd = $\begin{cases} (a) & \text{the man has slain him.} \\ (b) & \text{the man has been slain.} \end{cases}$

If the person denoted by the possessive adjective be the same as the Subject of the form of $\bar{w}yf$, we have the second meaning (b); if it be different, then we have the first meaning (a).

OBS.—Note the use of the possessive adjective with sefyll, standing, eistedd, sitting, gorwedd, reclining, in the following and similar expressions: yn ei sefyll, standing; ar fy eistedd, sitting; ar ei orwedd, reclining.

The verb-noun with prepositions.

546 By means of the verb-noun governed by prepositions are formed participle-equivalents or verb-noun phrases equivalent in meaning to Adjective or Adverb Clauses; see § 346b:

e.g. yn myned, going; wedi myned, having gone; ar fyned, about to go; gan ei fod, since he is; wedi (iddo) fyned, after he has gone.

OBS.—The verb-noun governed by the prep. i, to, and qualified by possessive adjectives is often used to convey a meaning equivalent to that of the Latin gerundive:

e.g. mae y dasg i'w gwneyd ar unwaith, the lesson is to be done at once.

Employment of gan, dan and yn with the verb-noun.

The accurate use of phrases formed by means of the prepositions gan and dan with the verb-noun can only be acquired by observation and practice.

547 gan with the verb-noun is employed in such expressions as the following:—

(a) aeth y gwr i'r ty, gan dybied fod rhywun yno, the man wen into the house, thinking that someone was there.

(b) gan farw ti a fyddi farw, verily (lit. d) ing) thou shalt di gan with the verb noun generally forms a Present participle equivalent, referring to the Subject of the principal verb, and serves to explain an action expressed by that verb.

In expressions similar to (b), gan with the verb-noun has been regularly employed in the Welsh Bible to translate the 'Infinitive Absolute' of Hebrew, when added to the finite verb for the sake of emphasis.

dan with the verb-noun is chiefly employed to form Present participle-equivalents which have a similar force to the predicate participles of Greek (see Gk. Gram. § 324, 4, 5, 6). Such expressions generally imply, as in the case of gan, that the action denoted by the verb-noun is contemporaneous with that of the verb of the sentence, and are especially common when the verb-noun expresses some emotion such as grief, joy, fear or the like:—

e.g. aeth yno dan ganu, he went there singing.

", ", wylo, ", ", weeping.

", ", grynu ", ", trembling.

", ", ", chwerthin ", ", ", laughing.

", ", ", gerdded * ", ", walking.

yn followed by a verb-noun often forms a phrase equivalent in force to an Adjective Clause, or to a Predicate-participle (see § 550 foll.) or to an Absolute Clause (see § 561):

e.g. dyna ddyn yn rhedeg, yonder is a man running (=who is running).

Verb-noun equivalents of participles as Predicate-adjectives.

550 The place of a Present participle used as a Predicate-adjective is most commonly supplied in Welsh by means of a verb-noun with yn, in; the place of a Perfect participle, by means of a verb-noun with wedi, after.

(a) With verbs of 'being' (wyf, I am, byddaf, I am habitually) and verbs denoting some modification of being, such as ymddanghosaf, I appear:

e.g. y mae yn gweithio, he is working.
bydd yn gweithio, he is in the habit of working.
yniddengys wedi heneiddio, he appears to have aged.

552 (b) With verbs of 'continuing,' 'holding out' and 'wearying': arhosaf, I remain | blinaf, I am tired

e.g. arhosaf yn siarad, I shall remain speaking. blinaf yn gwaeddi, I become tired of shouting.

553 (c) With verbs of 'perceiving,' 'knowing' and 'showing':

e.g. gwelaf ef yn agoshau, I see him approaching.
nis gwn am neb yn cashau y sawl a'i canmolant, I know of
no one that hates those who praise him.

dangoswch y bachgen yn rhedeg, show the boy running.

^{*} rhedeg, running, requires the preposition ar, on.

After the verbs daliaf and parhāf, *I continue*, the verb-noun is usually preceded by the preposition i, to:

e.g. daliaf i ysgrifenu, I continue to write. parhaf i weithio, I continue to work.

After verbs of 'doing well or ill' and verbs of 'rejoicing' and 'grieving,' the verb-noun is usually preceded by the preposition wrth, by:

e.g. yr ydych yn pechu wrth ddweyd celwydd, you are sinning in speaking falsehood.

ni lwyddwch wrth fod yn esgeulus, you will not succeed by being negligent.

llawenhāf with eich gweled yn iāch, I rejoice to see you well.

556 After verbs of 'going' and 'standing' the verb-noun generally takes gan and dan (see \$\ 547, 548).

Verb-adjectives in -edig and -adwy.

Welsh has now no participles (though it has participle-equivalents, \$\\$ 546-556). But it has two verb-adjectives, one ending in -edig, the other ending in -adwy.

The verb-adjective in -edig marks an action as either (1) done or (2) do-able (rare).

e.g. (1) gorphenedig, finished; (2) gweledig, visible.

559 The verb-adjective in -adwy generally marks an action as do-able, like the Latin Gerundive:

e.g. annileadwy, that cannot be blotted out.

credadwy, that can be believed.

canfyddadwy, that can be perceived.

In some verb-adjectives, however, such as safadwy, *stable*, and teimladwy, *sensitive*, the ending -adwy seems to have an active force.

Many verbs have no corresponding verb-adjectives,

The present-stem employed as a verb-adjective.

A few present-stems are employed in Welsh as verb-adjectives corresponding in meaning for the most part to those ending in -edig:

e.g. carreg nādd, a hewn stone.
bara pryn, bought bread.
creigiau llosg, burnt rocks.

mynydd llosg, a burning mountain, a volcano.

creigiau crog, overhanging rocks.

Similarly:—fel helyg plan | oddeutu glan yr ason, like planted willows about the river bank. (E. Prys.)

PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES CONNECTED THEREWITH.

(Sections 561-600 are supplementary to Accidence §§ 130-176).

Personal pronouns and possessive adjectives.

- 561 1. When the post-vocalic form of the personal pronoun in the accusative precedes the verb, the Subject of the verb, if pronominal, is rarely expressed:
 - e.g. yno y'm gwelodd, it was there that he saw me (not yno y'm gwelodd ef).
- 2. hwynt (simple pers. pron. 3rd pers. pl.) is now never used as Subject, or after a combination of a preposition with a suffix 3rd pers. pl., or as Object after verbal forms ending in -nt.
- 3. The following limitations to the use of certain forms of the personal pronouns should be carefully noted:—
- 564 (a) For the pronoun of the 1st pers., if it be the Subject of the verb, the forms fi, finnau are employed after verbs ending in d, f, or r; the forms i, innau after verbs ending in m, n, s:
 - e.g. gwelwyd fi, I have been seen; gwelir fi, I am seen; gwelaf fi, I see; but būm i, I have been; gwelais i, I have seen.

(After impersonal forms the pronoun following the verb may be viewed as its Object: see §§ 178, 461).

- 565 (b) For the pronoun of the 2nd pers. (Simple and Conjunctive) the forms ti, tithau, are employed after verbal forms ending in t:
 - e.g. gwelaist ti, thou hast seen.

gwelaist tithau, thou too hast seen.

- 566 (1) But if a verb is preceded by a post-vocalic pers. pron. S. 1, and a supplementary pers. pronoun be added after the verb, the forms i, innau must be employed:
 - e.g. fe'm gwelsant i, they saw me.

fe'm gwelsant innau, they saw me also.

Similarly, for the 2nd pers. the forms di and dithau must be employed.

567 (d) After combinations of prepositions with pronominal suffixes, the supplementary personal pronouns take the following forms:

for 1st pers. sing. fi, finnau 1st pers. plu. ni, ninnau.

" 2nd " " ti, tithau 2nd " " chwi, chwithau

and " and " hwy hwythau

,, 3rd ,, ,, ef, yntau(m) 3rd ,, ,, hwy, hwythau hi, hithau (1) 538 4. Sometimes the simple personal pronoun added to a verb, or to a noun preceded by a possessive adjective or to a preposition with a pronominal suffix is not emphatic. In that case it is an enclitic:

e.g. gwelais i = gwélaisi, *I saw.*ly nhād i = ly nhādi, my father.

arnaf fi = árnafi, upon me.

569 5. my own, thine own, etc. are expressed by adding fy hūn, dy hūn, ein hunain, etc., to a noun qualified by a possessive adjective:

e.g. fy nhỹ fy hūn or fy nhỹ ī fy hūn, my own house.

dy dy dy hūn or dy dy dī dy hūn, thine own house.
ein ty ein hunain or ein ty nī ein hunain, our own house.

Relative Pronouns.

27 The relatives of Welsh consist partly of survivals like the proclitics a 570 and yr (y), or ag and ar followed by a, and partly of demonstratives preceded by the article, like yr hwn, y neb, y sawl, or of interrogative forms like pwy bynnag, which, by their frequent association with the old relatives a and yr (y), have ultimately acquired a relative force. Thus the history of these relatives in Welsh is the history of a transference to them of a relative meaning which they did not originally possess.* Such a transference is not unknown in language (e.g. the development of the relative meaning of the English 'that' = 'which'), and it was doubtless facilitated in Welsh by the weakness and evanescence of the proclitic relative a. The proclitics a and yr (y), which always preceded the verb, came to be classed with meaningless verbal particles, and so completely has their relative origin sunk into oblivion in the minds of modern Welshmen, that a before the Aorist may be emphasized and lengthened to express a Persect: e.g. mi ā welais, 'I have seen.' Even where yr (y) have undoubtedly retained their relative sorce in expressions in which yr hwn etc. never were employed, the tendency of a Welshman ignorant of the history of these proclitics is to imagine that yr hwn etc. have been omitted. See Appendix.

571 ar, in Med. Welsh or (a), ar (a), is used in General Relative Clauses: e.g. pawb ar a welais, everyone that I saw.

572 ag, in Med. Welsh oc (a), is used chiefly after y fath and y cyfryw, such, after nouns qualified by Comparatives of Equality, and sometimes in General Relative Clauses:

e.g. y fath ag a welais, such as I saw.

y cyfryw ag oeddynt, such as they were.
cystal dyn ag a welwyd erioed, as good a man as was ever

pawb ag sydd mewn angen, everyone that is in need.

^{*} In such a sentence for instance as—cyfrenwch i'r hwn y derbyniasoch ganddo, give to him from whom you have received, yr hwn is preceded not by the preposition of the relative clause, but by the preposition of the antecedent.

- 573 yr hwn generally refers to a particular or individual antecedent: e.g. ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y neioedd, our Father who art in
- 574 ar, ag, y neb, y sawl and pwy bynnag are usually general:

e.g. gwyn ei fyd y neb sydd foddlon, blessed is he that is contented, i.e. whoever is contented.

- 575 yr hyn (like the demonstrative pronoun hyn) generally refers to some fact, circumstance or statement:
 - e.g. dywedodd ei fod yn flinedig, yr hyn sydd yn ddigon tebyg, he said that he was tired, which is not unlikely.
- 576 yr hwn, yr hon and yr hyn are sometimes used as adjectives:

e.g. yr hwn ddyn, which man; yr hon ddynes, which woman; yr hyn beth, which thing.

577 Sometimes pa un (like Breton 'pehini') is used for yr hwn, and pa rai (like Breton 'péré') for y rhai; but hitherto these forms have been generally avoided by good writers.

N.B.—In Relative Clauses, when yr hwn is expressed, the 578 negative is generally nid (ni): where a and yr (y) would be used alone in affirmative sentences, nad (nā) is used, but nid (nī) is also sometimes found.

Indefinite pronouns and adjectives.

579 By their constant use in negative expressions neb, someone, and dim, nothing, have acquired a negative meaning, like the French aucun, personne and rien:

e.g. pwy sydd yno? neb; who is there? no one.

beth a wnaethoch? dim; what did you do? nothing.

neb corresponds to the Irish nech, someone (cf. Fr. aucun for Lat. aliquis ūnus, someone).

dim was originally a noun meaning 'a bit,' as in—y dim lleiaf, the least bit (cf. Latin hilum, 'a whit,' from which ne-hilum = nihil, nothing. Similarly the Fr. rien, nothing, is derived from Lat. rem, acc. of res, thing).

not - any, no, is expressed by yr un: e.g. ni welais yr un dyn, I saw no man.

Demonstrative pronouns and adjectives.

580 The demonstrative hwn (hon, hyn) is sometimes employed after a noun qualified by a possessive adjective:

e.g. sy mab hwn, this my son.

hyn and hynny are generally employed for hwn and hwnnw after the nouns peth, thing, and pryd, time.

The Definite Article.

- 581 The chief uses of the article are the same as in other languages (especially French, German, and Greek):
 - (i) To mark off or distinguish particular individuals:

e.g. y tri brawd, the three brothers.

(ii) To denote the whole of a class or species: *

e.g. mae y llew yn greadur ysglyfaethus, the lion is a beast of prey. cofiwch y morwyr, remember the sailors.

Welsh employs the article in the following expressions where no article is employed in English:—

1. With the demonstrative adjectives hwn, hwnnw, and the demonstrative adverbs, yma, yna, acw:

e.g. y dyn hwn, this man (cf. Gk. o aryp ouros).

", " hwnnw, that man.

", ", yma, this man (here).

,, ., yna, that man (near you).

" acw, that man (yonder).

583 2. With certain words denoting fractions, when they denote a definite part of a known or previously mentioned whole:

e.g. yr hanner, a half (sometimes the half).
y traian, y drydedd ran, a third.

3. With certain names of places:

e.g. Yr Abermaw, Barmouth Yr Affrig, Africa Yr Amwythig, Shrewsbury Yr Aipht, Egypt Y Bala, Bala Yr Alban, Scotland Y Drefnewydd, Newtown Yr Almaer, Germany Y Rhyl, Yr Amerig, Rhyl America Y Trallwm, Welshpool Yr Eidal, **Italy** Yr Hispaen, Spain Y Wyddgrug, Mold Yr India, India Yr Iwerddon, Ireland

. 585 4. With the names of certain festivals:

e.g. Y Grawys, Lent Y Sulgwyn, Whitsunday Y Nadolig, Christmas Yr Ystwyll, Epiphany Y Pasg, Easter

5. In the following idioms (cf. German Gram. P.G.S. § 471):—
yn y drēf, in town
yn yr ysgol, in school
yn yr eglwys, in church
yn y nefoedd, in heaven
yn y capel, in chapel
Similarly i'r drēf, to town; o'r drēf, from town, etc.

^{*} In Welsh, as in English, the article is often omitted with a plural noun denoting the whole of a class or species.

Where a noun is followed by a dependent noun, with or without the article, the first noun does not take the article in Welsh; it is felt to be already sufficiently defined by the dependent noun:

e.g. māb y brenin, the son of the king (German, des Königs Sohn).

māb brenin, the son of a king.

Note, however, y pen teulu, the head of the family, where pen teulu is treated like a compound word.

Employment of the article with oll and holl.

589 oll is used as a noun meaning whole, hence yr oll means the whole:
e.g. yr oll ohono, the whole of it.

holl is an adjective meaning whole (entire), all (adj.).

e.g. yr holl fyd, the whole world, the entire world.

yr holl ddynion, all the men.

OBS.—The Welsh for everyone is pawb

" " " each one " pob un

" " " ,, each man,, pōb dyn

ADVERBS.

A. The Negatives.

590 nid (nī) is employed in Statements and Questions.

591 nac* (nā) ,, ,, Answers. ,, Prohibitions.

nad (nā) is employed in negative clauses corresponding to those affirmative clauses in which the verb would be preceded by a or yr (y). In Local Clauses and clauses with yr hwn or y sawl, nid (nī) is generally employed. nad (nā) is also employed after os, as well as in expressions of wish and interrogative clauses introduced by paham? why?

To negative individual words in Principal Clauses, nid is used; in negative Subordinate Clauses, where the corresponding affirmative clause would have mai, nad is employed (with the omission of mai).

In modern colloquial Welsh the negative employed in Statements and Questions takes the form nid (ni) ———— ddim, used in a manner similar to the French ne——pas, ne——point, not. From this construction nid (nī) is frequently omitted:

e.g. (ni) fum i ddim yno, I have not been there.

^{*} Chiefly before forms of wyf, such as wyf, ydwyf, oes, oedd. ydoedd.

595 The expression ddim o, nothing of, has been contracted into mō:
e.g. welais i mo'r dŷn, I did not see the man,

for ni welais i ddim o'r dyn, I saw nothing of the man.

Similarly 'ddim ohono' has become mohono, often contracted in spoken Welsh into mono.

Employment of the negative with certain adjectives.

596 The negative is sometimes employed with an adjective as follows:

ni waeth gennyf pwy ddaw, I do not mind who comes (lit. not worse with me who comes).

ni wiw iddo fyned, he must not go (lit. not fitting for him to go).

NOTE.—Similarly in Mediæval Welsh ni moch, not soon; ni phell, not far; ni well, not better; ni mad, not good, were used like ni waeth, ni wiw in the preceding examples.

These instances are perhaps to be explained by an ellipsis of yw, is, between the negative and the adjective, or by an ellipsis of the old form ys, it is, before the negative.

B. Adverbs of Time.

598 Some adverbs of Time are interesting as preserving old grammatical forms:—

he-ddyw, to-day he-no, to-night $\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{he-an old demonstrative meaning } this. \end{array} \right.$

y fory, to-morrow (lit. the morning); fory is for mory = morg-, akin to the Germ. morgen, Eng. morrow.

yn fore, early

yn hwyr, late yn is here an old form of the definite article.

yn awr, now

e-leni, this year; e=he, this; leni is from vleni=flynedd, year. y llynedd, last year (lit. the year) for yr flynedd.

trannoeth, next day from Lat. trans noctem, over night.

trennydd, the day after to-morrow. The origin of the first part of this word is doubtful.

tradwy, = the day after trennydd.

doe, yesterday.

neithiwr, last night.

echdoe, the day before yesterday; ech is cognate with Lat. ex, from, Gk. ¿ξ.

echnos, the night before last.

beunydd, daily, for beb-n-dydd; beb = bob for pob, every; n in beb-n is probably a remnant of the old accusative ending. gynneu, just now

```
byth, ever, for ever, referring to the present or to the future.

erioed, ever, referring to the past. erioed, stands for er i (=ei)

oed, since his life (began). In Mediæval Welsh a form

ermoed = er m oed = er fy oed, since my life (began), was

used.
```

weithion, weithian, by this time, =(y) weith hon, this time. eisoes, already, in Mediæval Welsh = yet, nevertheless.

trachefn, mutated into drachefn, again, lit. over her back, for dra ei chefn. In Mediæval Welsh a corresponding form draegeuyn = dra ei gefn, over his back, was employed.

er ys meityn, for a long time, lit. since the morning: meityn is from the Latin mātūtīnus, belonging to the morning.

C. Adverbs of Place.

The following adverbs of place, which are derived from prepositions by the addition of a suffix, should be noted:—

tanodd, underneath from tan (dan), under trwodd, through ,, trwy (drwy), through trosodd, over ,, tros (dros), over uchod, above = uchot, over thee, from uwch, over. isod, below = isot, under thee, ,, is, under.

WORDS REPRESENTING SENTENCES OR PARTS OF SENTENCES.

600 The following words, representing sentences or parts of sentences, are found in Welsh:—

```
behold
 wele,
 nachaf (obs.)
) nycha (obs.)
 llyma, here is (rare), for syll yma, look here.
                                                Fr. voici.
 llyna, there is (rare), ,, syll yna, look there.
                                                Fr. voilà.
                       " wel di yma, see thou here. Fr. voici.
 dyma, here
                       " wel di yna, see thou there. Fr. voilà.
 dyna, there is
 dacw, yonder is
                       ,, wel di acw, see thou yonder. Fr. voilà.
       yes
                       ,, i ef,
                                  it is (?)
 ïe,
                                               ef in all these ex-
                       " nag ef, not it
 nāge, no
                                               pressions represents
                       ,, a i ef, is it?
       is it so?
                                               the old neuter pro-
 onide, ynte, is it not so?,, o nid ef, is it not?
                                                   noun S. 3.
       that is, namely ,, ys ef, it is.
 tybed, I wonder, used parenthetically: derivation unknown.
       yes, when the verb of the question is Aorist.
 nāddo, no,
              ,,
```

APPENDIX.

NORMAL AND INVERTED ORDER.

The sentences described in §§ 303, 305 as sentences of normal and inverted order respectively are so described according to their natural classification, from the point of view of Descriptive Grammar, in the mind of a Welshman who forms them at the present day. In modern Welsh prose, good writers, in accordance with the regular practice of the spoken language, have more and more confined the use of a simple sentence or principal clause of inverted order to those statements or questions in which the words placed before the verb are embhatic. The emphatic words thus standing in the most prominent position in the sentence constitute what Paul, in his *Principles of Language*, calls "the psychological predicate," i.e. the words which express the information which the sentence in question is primarily intended to convey. In Mediæval Welsh, on the other hand, and even later, the Subject of the sentence was not unfrequently placed before the verb, even where it (the Subject) had no special emphasis laid upon it.

At the present day sentences of inverted order are formed by simple inversion; but it is highly probable that, historically, one of the inherited types upon which they are modelled (at any rate, when the words placed first in the sentence are emphatic) was not itself the product of mere inversion. The use in such sentences of the pre-verbal particles a (= Bret. a, Corn. a) and yr (y) (= Bret. ez (e), Cornish yth (y)), probably in their origin pronominal (see § 167), coupled with the fact that the verb of such a sentence, like that of a relative clause, * stands idiomatically in the 3rd pers. sing., forcibly suggests, as Zeusst has pointed out, that the type of sentence in question is parallel in its origin to the Irish construction, in which the sentence as a whole is complex, beginning with the word 'is' (=Welsh ys, it is) or with a noun standing absolutely. Since ys, in Welsh MSS., is rare before nouns, it is probable, unless we are to suppose the early omission of ys, that Welsh preferred the type of sentence in which the words specially emphasized stood in the absolute construction: e.g. dynion | sydd yma, rather than ys dynion sydd yma. The closer coalescence, in course of centuries, of the elements of disguised complex sentences like these has no doubt ultimately given the sentence of inverted order the aspect of a simple sentence.

This view of the origin of these sentences is, however, not entirely free from difficulty. It would be a mistake to suppose that Mediæval Welsh always required the use of one of the particles a or yd (=ydd, modern yr), when the order of the sentence was inverted. In mediæval poetry, especially, sentences of inverted order are often found, whose verb is preceded by no particle or by one of the particles ry (Irish ro, Gk. $\pi\rho\delta$) or dy (Irish do).

^{*} The use of the form sydd, when the subject precedes the verb, is a further confirmation of this view, sydd being the form of the Pres. Indic. S. 3 of wyf, which is used in a relative clause.

[†] Zeuss, Grammatica Celtica (2nd Edit., p. 926): "Est autem hæc constructio sine dubio eadem solutio sententiæ, per quam in vetusta lingua hibernica vox aliqua cum emphasi proferenda e regulari ordine vocum ad initium transfertur verbo substantivo præmisso, vel sine eo posita absolute."

Even in mediæval prose we occasionally find a sentence of inverted order with ry before the verb, without 'a': e.g. coet rywelsom ar y weilgi, 'we saw trees on the sea' (referring to the ships of Brân), Mab. Rhŷs-Evans, p. 35. In view of these considerations and the general tendency of the earlier stages of language to allow variation in the order of words, together with the fact that in Gaulish the Subject seems, in accordance with the regular Indo-European practice, to have generally preceded the verb, it would be rash to assert that simple sentences of inverted order did not continue to exist in Welsh side by side with the complex sentences to which reference has already been made.

The student of Welsh historical Syntax should note carefully all survivals of the Celtic practice, here indicated, of expressing a statement by means of a complex sentence beginning with a form of wyf. rather than by means of a simple sentence in the usual manner of most other languages. The tendency of Welsh, it is true, has been to eliminate or disguise, as far as possible, this somewhat cumbrous mode of expression; but, even in the modern language, there survive several instances of it, though most Welshmen are no longer aware of their history. Such survivals show themselves in the use of mai (in S. Wales taw) before noun and adverb clauses of inverted order, as well as in the forms pe, if, and canys, for. The word mai, now dissociated, in the mental linguistic groupings of Welshmen, from the verb wyf, is identical in origin with the form mae, there is; while taw, the verbal origin of which could only be guessed by a comparative grammarian, had a like meaning, and corresponded to the Irish tá, from the root sta-, cognate with Latin sta-re, to stand. Hence the sentence gwn mai taw ef oedd yno, meant originally, literally translated. I know it is he that was there. Similarly pē, if, stands for

translated, I know it is he that was there. Similarly pē, if, stands for pei = bei = bai, were it, so that pe bai would literally mean, were it that he (she or it) were, and canys stands for can + ys, since it is. Likewise the Mediæval

panyw, equivalent in force to mai, stood for pan + yw, that it is.

In reading Medieval Welsh prose and poetry, the use of these complex sentences, though even then disappearing, should be carefully noted. Such sentences illustrate sporadically in Welsh a very common phenomenon in Irish syntax. For example, in the story of Kilhwch and Olwen, we have, the sentence—yny uyd kaer uawr a welynt, until they saw a great fort, literally, until it is a great fort which they saw. The use of sentences of this kind is familiar as one of the most noticeable characteristics of English as spoken by uneducated Irishmen, and corresponds to a marked tendency of Irish Gaelic. It is not impossible, too, that the French method of beginning questions with 'est-ce que' is a survival of a similar tendency of Celtic speech.

In sentences of normal order, the verb is sometimes (chiefly in the colloquial Welsh of S. Wales) preceded by the word fe, a shortened form of efe, used as a formal pronoun (see § 133), where fe probably represents an old neuter pronoun S. 3. In Mediæval Welsh the corresponding simple form ef is used, in prose with a, in poetry often without a. The following instance illustrates the prose use—ef a dyuu y hiawnbwyll idi, her right mind returned to her. It is not easy to say, in the case of sentences of this kind, whether 'a' was originally used in them or not, since it may have crept in only by false analogy. The underlying principle of the construction is, however, clear enough: the 'ef' acts the part of a formal preparatory Subject, while the real Subject is put

after the verb in apposition to it, being added as a kind of explanatory after-thought.

In other cases the statement begins with a formal Predicate in combination with a formal Subject. For instance, a similar combination is found in the case of sef=ys+ef, frequently used in Mediæval Welsh prose (but rare in poetry) to introduce statements of the following form—

sei a oruc ynteu yna | ryuelu arnafi, this 15 (lit. it is) what he then did | he

fought (lit. fighting) against me, Mab. Peredur.

sef yw ynteu | Owein uab uryen, this is (lit. it is) who he is | Owen son of Urien. Mab. Owein and Lunet.

Here the information which the statement is especially intended to convey is expressed as a kind of afterthought by means of a word or group of words standing in apposition to the formal Subject or Object of the opening sentence.

In connexion with the development of the sentence (whether of normal or inverted order), the student of Welsh historical Syntax should carefully. observe the use of the pre-verbal particles. In modern Welsh, fe (in S. Wales) and mi (in N. Wales), though probably both of pronominal origin, practically play the part of pre-verbal particles before a verb which is not in a subordinate position, while a and yr (y), probably also of pronominal origin, are now mentally grouped as pre-verbal particles, which mark the verb as subordinate, either as a subordinate element of the sentence in which it stands, or as the verb of a subordinate noun clause, adjective clause, or adverb clause. The student of Comparative Grammar can trace earlier functions of these particles, especially their relative force; but to those who now speak the language they have developed new functions.

In Mediæval Welsh the uses of a and yd=ydd=yr and y before verbs do not always exactly correspond to their uses at the present day. All such differences of usage the student should carefully note, especially the use of ydd (y) before the verb even in a sentence of normal order, a use which now survives only in the case of some forms of wyf: e.g. yr wyf, yr oedd.

In the older stages of the language certain other pre-verbal particles were used which have now been lost or obscured. For example, one may note the particle yd (for older yt, and not to be confused with yd=ydd=yr), now represented only by the 'yd' of yd-wyf, yd-oedd, etc., and by the 'd' in nid (=ni+yd); nad (=na+yd), ped (=pe+yd), od (=o+yd). Another preverbal particle of frequent occurrence is neu, corresponding in force to the modern fe or mi, and often combined with yd as neud. The particle nu (rare) may be a weak form of neu. In addition to these, the particles ry (=Irish ro) and dy (=Irish do) were once extensively used. Modern spoken Welsh is characterised by an almost complete elimination of pre-verbal particles; a. the most common in Literary Welsh, is almost always omitted, and y is evanescent. In spoken Welsh, the determining factor in the use of the particles which remain, seems to be the prominence or non-prominence of the verb as the leading element in a statement; where the verb takes a prominent position, as in a sentence of normal order, it is preceded by the particle fe or mi; on the other hand, if it be subordinate in its own sentence to an Adjunct, yr (y) is placed before it, and similarly when it is clearly subordinate as the verb of a subordinate noun clause, adjective clause, or adverb clause.

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