

Classical Greek: A New Grammar

Greek grammar taught and explained, with examples

Juan Coderch

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First Edition

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Preface

Characteristics of this new grammar

My purpose in writing this new grammar has been to offer a complete and explained grammar, one that, while still being a handy grammar, user-friendly and simple, covers as much as possible. I have tried to write it in a teaching- and learning-oriented way, as practical as possible, positioning myself in the place of the usual university and college student (or a sixth-former) and thinking which kind of grammar I would like to have: one that helps me to learn the language, with explanations, with examples, etc., avoiding very advanced stages but at the same time without falling too short.

In the course of time I have observed that a lot of instructors like teaching the language directly from the grammar. Although my personal preference is using a textbook and using the grammar only as reference tool rather than using it as only teaching material, I have taken this practice into account and I have written this grammar also with it in mind, so that instructors that follow this practice may find it and its corresponding book of exercises a useful tool.

I would like to make some more comprehensive comments about its characteristics:

- **a) All the needed grammar:** As mentioned above, without falling too short and without making the student have to go to a larger grammar to find what they need after the initial stages, but at the same time avoiding a phone book, as students want something reduced but that offers all they need to read the classical authors.
- **b) Teaching skills:** Offering students very clear explanations of what is being presented, not just the presentation of tables and a couple of examples. I also include the same comments I make when teaching *in situ* in front of the students, for instance calling the students' attention to avoid some common mistakes, to make them realise this or that similarity, this or that difference, etc. We could say that at some points it may sound as if somebody had recorded the teachers' voice when explaining each item on the whiteboard and then had typed the explanations.
- **c) Clear structure:** A clear division of accidence, syntax, etc. (the Index of Contents is very illustrative about this point). This helps students to learn things in an ordered way and to find each item easily. I distinguish different blocks for the nominal system, the verbal system, syntax of clauses, etc., and inside each of these blocks the classification into different sub-sections makes finding each grammatical item easy.
- **d)** A good amount of exercises (in an additional book): Ideal for students who not only need to study Greek grammar but who want to be able to practise each one of the presented aspects. These exercises will be published as an additional shorter book; this has the advantage of leaving the grammar on its own in a much more reduced size (and cheaper), ideal for those who want only the grammar for consultation and do not want to buy an immense amount of exercises that they will not use.
- **e) Basic vocabulary:** This grammar offers a reduced list of the most useful terms that follow a given scheme (a declension, a verbal system, etc.) after that scheme has been presented. For instance, after liquid verbs have been presented, I offer a list of the most frequent verbs of this kind. This helps students to realize that the scheme they have learnt has not been studied just for itself, but for a given purpose: there they have the most usual terms that follow it.

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Use of original authors

An important point is the use of classical authors to illustrate what has been explained. A lot of the very initial examples are made up, which has allowed me to adapt any sentence to the level of a student who is beginning to learn this or that construction, but it would be nonsense not to offer at the same time original sentences taken from classical authors, so I have considered convenient to include, side by side with the made-up ones, real original sentences.

I have tried to be careful in this procedure of including sentences from original authors: there is nothing easier than typing a preposition in the searcher for TLG and finding sentences in which this or that preposition is used, but I would not see much sense in offering as an example a long sentence with a participle with αv or any other difficult structure just to show an example of this or that preposition, so that my tendency has been to choose easy sentences that illustrate what I want the student to see, avoiding unnecessary complications.

Note about the translation of Greek examples

In few cases, the translation of Greek sentences may not sound as fluent as an English speaker would expect and they may sound somehow "forced", but we have preferred to remain as faithful to the Greek as possible, to the detriment of English fluency, in order to help show the specific grammatical point being discussed.

Feedback

It would be a pleasure to receive comments from colleagues about any mistake they may spot or any suggestion. The way in which this book has been published (Print On Demand) allows me to modify the original pdf in 48 hours, so that any copy purchased after I have modified it and e-mailed the new version to the printer will already be printed with the modification in it. My e-mail address is: jc210@st-andrews.ac.uk

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Juan Coderch

Alphabet and writing

a) The alphabet [1]

Capital	Small	English name	Greek name	Pronunciation
A	α	alpha	ἄλφα	a as in father
В	β	beta βῆτα		Ь
Г	γ	gamma	γάμμα	g as in guest
Δ	δ	delta	δέλτα	d
E	ε	epsilon	ἒ ψιλόν	short <i>e</i> as in <i>met</i>
Z	ζ	zeta	ζῆτα	sd
Н	η	eta	ἦτα	long <i>e</i> as <i>ai</i> in <i>hair</i>
Θ	θ	theta	θῆτα	th as in think
I	ι	iota	ἰῶτα	i as in <i>police</i>
K	к	карра	κάππα	k
Λ	λ	lambda	λάμβδα	1
M	μ	mu	μῦ	т
N	ν	nu	νῦ	п
Ξ	ξ	xi	ξῖ	X
0	0	omicron	ὂ μικρόν	short o as in lock
П	π	pi	πῖ	Р
P	ρ	rho	ρ <mark>ံ</mark> စိ	r
Σ	σ, ς	sigma	σίγμα	5
Т	τ	tau	ταῦ	t
Υ	υ	upsilon	ὖ ψιλόν	French <i>u</i> as in <i>tu</i>
Ф	ф	phi	φῖ	f
X	χ	chi	χῖ	see <i>Notes</i> below
Ψ	Ψ	psi	ψῖ	ps
Ω	w	omega	ὧ μέγα	long oas in more

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Notes

1/ There is no general consensus regarding the pronunciation of Classical Greek, but variation exists between countries; some letters are pronounced otherwise, for instance ζ could be pronounced as ts or ds rather than sd.

- **2/** With respect to χ , in some countries it is pronounced as a very strong h, stronger than the h in house. The tradition in English-speaking countries is to pronounce it as the h in chorus.
- **3/** σ is used at the beginning and middle of a word (σῶμα, μάλιστα), ς is used only at the end of a word (as in στρατιώτης). There is also a third (unusual) option, the *sigma lunata*: c for all positions (as in cτρατιώτης).

b) Pronunciation of diphthongs and special combinations

[2]

1/ These combinations are pronounced as one long syllable, quite dissimilar to how they would be pronounced as two independent vowels:

```
• αυ as -ow- in how, allow
```

- ευ as -eo- in Beowulf
- ov as -oo- in too \diamond Observe that this is the only Greek diphthong pronounced as one unique sound.

2/ The following combinations are pronounced in a similar way as their two vowels independently, only they form one syllable:

```
• Et as -ei- in eight • vt as -wee- in sweet
```

• $\alpha \iota$ as the pronoun / • $\eta \upsilon$ same as $\varepsilon \upsilon$, but with the elonger

• ot as -oi- in void

3/ $\lambda\lambda$ is just a double λ , as in *ballot*.

4/ γ in front of γ , κ or χ is pronounced n, as in bank. So, ἄγγελος is pronounced angelos, NOT aggelos. Some linguists call a gamma in this circumstance an agma.

c) lota subscript [3]

1/ Sometimes, the vowels α , η , ω may have a sign under them in the form of a small ι , usually in the syllable at the end of the word; this is known as an *iota subscript*, and need not be pronounced (this point of pronunciation varies between countries). For instance (for the moment, disregard other signs):

2/ However, it is never used under a capital letter; in such cases it is written adjacent to the capital, and is called an *iota* adscript, and still need not be pronounced. The former four words in capital letters would be:

ΑΓΟΡΑΙ ΜΑΧΗΙ ΛΙΛΑΣΚΑΛΩΙ ΣΩΙΖΩ

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3/ Even if the first letter of a word has an iota subscript, when it is capitalised this becomes an iota adscript: $\mathring{\alpha}$ δης, which means HELL, if used as the proper name of the god HADES, becomes "A**t**δης. Again, the iota need not be pronounced, and it should be treated as if it were subscript.

d) Accents [4]

[The elementary accentuation rules, the ways to use these correctly, are explained towards the end of this book.]

1/ There are three forms of accent: • acute (\acute{a}) • grave (\grave{a}) • circumflex ($\~a$)

However, this may have been different in life in Ancient Greece, and the way in which accents affected pronunciation remains unascertained; the usual way to read them aloud is to raise the pitch of the syllable on which you find any accents.

2/ If a diphthong has an accent, it is placed on its second vowel: $\pi \vec{\alpha} \vec{\iota} \delta \alpha \zeta$, $\alpha \vec{\upsilon} \tau o \dot{\upsilon} \zeta$, $\tau o \dot{\upsilon} \tau o \iota \zeta$, $\tau \epsilon \vec{\iota} \theta \omega$, $\dot{\epsilon} \kappa \epsilon \vec{\iota} \tau o \zeta$, $\tau o \iota \alpha \dot{\upsilon} \tau \eta$, etc., and if the diphthong is pronounced as two sounds (always – except in the case of $o \upsilon$) the accent must be pronounced on the first one, as for instance when saying $\lambda \epsilon \dot{\iota} \tau \omega$ we must stress the ϵ , not the ι .

e) Breathings [5]

1/ When a word begins with a vowel, this initial vowel must have on it a breathing, which resembles a small comma. There are two types of breathing:

• smooth: $\dot{\alpha}$ • rough: $\dot{\alpha}$ \diamond They are not interchangeable.

If a smooth breathing $(\dot{\alpha})$ is used, the pronunciation is not affected. For example, $\ddot{\alpha}\rho\pi\iota\sigma\varsigma$ is pronounced artios.

But if a rough breathing (\dot{a}) is used, this is pronounced as if there were an initial h. For example, \dot{b} is pronounced ho, $\ddot{a}\mu\alpha\xi\alpha$ is pronounced hamaxa.

2/ In diphthongs, the same rule for breathings applies: put it on the second letter, but pronounce it as if it were on the first one. Observe the pronunciations of the following pairs of words that contain diphthongs; the first of each pair has a rough breathing, the second has a smooth one:

- αἰ hai αἰτία aitia
 εἶς heis εἴληφα eilefa
 οἱ hoi οἰκία oikia
 οὕτως hootos οὐδείς oodeis
- **3/** A vowel can have both a breathing and an accent. In this case the breathing is written before the acute or grave, or below if it is a circumflex: \ddot{a} \ddot{a} \ddot{a} \ddot{a} \ddot{a} \ddot{a}
- **4/** If the initial vowel is a capital, any breathing or accent that would be found on it is written to the left of the top of the letter. For example: ${}^{\prime}$ **A**θῆναι ${}^{\prime}$ **I**σθμος

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5/ Breathings should be memorized when learning a word that begins with a vowel, as they often help to differentiate between words that look similar:

- $\varepsilon i \zeta$ ONE $\neq \varepsilon i \zeta$ TOWARDS $\delta po \zeta$ BOUNDARY $\neq \delta po \zeta$ MOUNTAIN
- **6/** When ρ is the initial consonant of a word, it always has a rough breathing: $\dot{\rho}$ όδον, $\dot{\rho}$ ήτωρ, $\dot{\rho}$ υθμός. This indicates that the pronunciation of the ρ is very hard. It is the only consonant that has a breathing.

7/ When a whole word is written in upper case, no accents or breathings are used. For example:

ό διδάσκαλος ἀναγιγνώσκει πολλὰς βίβλους > Ο ΔΙΔΑΣΚΑΛΟΣ ΑΝΑΓΙΓΝΩΣΚΕΙ ΠΟΛΛΑΣ ΒΙΒΛΟΥΣ

f) Elision, crasis and diaeresis

[6]

1/ Elision: Sometimes a short final vowel of a word is elided if the following word begins with a vowel. In this case an apostrophe (resembles a smooth breathing) is written in the place of the elided vowel. This is called *elision* (compare with English don't, it's). Note this example: $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\dot{\alpha}\dot{\alpha}\dot{\alpha}v\eta\rho > \dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda'\dot{\alpha}\dot{\alpha}v\eta\rho$.

Moreover, if the second word starts with a rough breathing, this may affect the (now) last consonant of the first word, making it aspirate. For instance: $\mu\epsilon\tau\dot{\alpha}$ $\dot{\eta}\mu\tilde{\omega}\nu > \mu\epsilon\tau'$ $\dot{\eta}\mu\tilde{\omega}\nu > \mu\epsilon\theta'$ $\dot{\eta}\mu\tilde{\omega}\nu$. This happens also in compound verbs: $\dot{\epsilon}\phi\sigma\pi\lambda i\zeta\omega$ comes from $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\iota} + \dot{o}\pi\lambda i\zeta\omega$: the iota of $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\iota}$ has disappeared and the π has become aspirate ($\dot{\phi}$) because of the \dot{o} -.

- **2/ Crasis:** Sometimes a breathing is found on a vowel within a word $(\tau \alpha \dot{\mathbf{v}} \tau \dot{\alpha})$. This indicates that two words have been combined (this is known as *crasis*). For example, $\tau \dot{\mathbf{a}} \ \alpha \dot{\mathbf{v}} \tau \dot{\alpha}$ can be written as $\tau \alpha \dot{\mathbf{v}} \tau \dot{\alpha}$. The breathing (called *coronis* in this case) facilitates recognition of this fusion. Other examples can be $\mathbf{\tilde{\omega}}$ νδρες by $\mathbf{\tilde{\omega}} \ \mathbf{\tilde{\alpha}}$ νδρες, $\tau \dot{\mathbf{\alpha}}$ ληθῆ by $\tau \dot{\mathbf{\alpha}} \ \dot{\mathbf{\alpha}}$ ληθῆ, etc. See the section on Contractions in the chapter *Hellenisms: peculiarities and idioms*.
- **3/ Diaeresis:** Two points that are placed on the second vowel if two vowels must be pronounced separately instead of together; in other words: to indicate that the two vowels do not form a diphthong. For example, $\dot{\alpha}\ddot{\upsilon}$ $\dot{\tau}$ $\dot{\eta}$ (observe also that, as $\alpha\upsilon$ is not a diphthong, the breathing falls on the first vowel).

g) Punctuation marks

[7]

In Greek, the full stop and comma are used as in English, but the semicolon (;) represents a question mark. For example:

- τίς εἶ; Who are you?
- ποῦ ἐστιν ὁ Σωκράτης; Where is Socrates?

The high dot (α) found in Greek translates either as a colon or a semi-colon. For example:

- ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπε τάδε· Socrates said this: (whatever follows).
- ὁ παῖς γράφει· ὁ ἀνὴρ καθεύδει The boy is writing; the man is sleeping.

a) Definition of basic grammatical concepts: case, declension and gender

- Concepts of syntactical function, endings and case
- Main syntactical functions and correspondence to cases
- 3. Concept of declension
- 4. Concept of gender

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- 1. Accidence
- 2. Syntax

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- 2. 2nd declension
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- 4. Irregular adjectives
- 5. Position of the adjective

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- 3. Multiplicatives

f) Comparative and superlative

- 1. General observations
- 2. Accidence
- 3. Syntax

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- 2. Personal pronouns
- 3. Possessive pronouns
- 4. Reciprocal pronoun
- 5. Anaphoric pronoun
- 6. Identity pronouns
- 7. Reflexive pronouns
- 8. Interrogative pronoun
- 9. Other interrogative pronouns
- 10. Relative pronoun
- 11. Indefinite relative pronoun
- 12. Other indefinite pronouns
- 13. Negative pronouns

h) Adverbs and prepositional adverbs

- 1. General observations
- 2. Modal adverbs
- 3. Comparative and superlative of modal adverbs
- 4. Quantitative adverbs
- 5. Adverbs of time
- 6. Adverbs of place
- 7. Interrogative adverbs
- 8. Indefinite adverbs
- 9. Affirmative and negative adverbs
- 10. Prepositional adverbs

i) The correlatives

- 1. Correlative adverbs
- 2. Correlative adjectives

a) Definition of basic grammatical concepts: case, declension and gender

1. Concepts of syntactical function, endings and case

a) Concepts of syntactical function and endings

1/ In comparison to Modern English, Greek language works in a very peculiar way: like Latin, Russian and other languages, Greek is a highly inflected language, which means that the words of a sentence change their ending according to the grammatical function they implement, verbal forms change according to their person, etc. While Old English was a highly inflected language, Modern English is classified as a weakly inflected language, as only some characteristics of inflection are still present in English nowadays, such as plurals, the use of pronouns, some inflected verbal forms and the possessive indicator ('s, which derives from the Old English genitive case).

2/ Back to Modern English and Greek, observe these two sentences:

• THE GOD IS PURSUING THE GENERAL.

• THE GENERAL IS PURSUING THE GOD.

[8]

In English, word order is crucial to indicate the role (or grammatical function) of a word in a sentence. In the first example given above, the god is the subject (i.e. the one who performs the action), while in the second one it is the direct object (i.e. the one who is acted upon). The opposite happens with the general: it is the direct object in the first sentence, but is the subject in the second one.

3/ Observe now both sentences translated into Greek: (ὁ θεός The GOD; ὁ στρατηγός The GENERAL; διώκει PURSUES)

• ὁ θεὸς διώκει τὸν στρατηγόν
 • ὁ στρατηγὸς διώκει τὸν θεόν
 ΤΗΕ GOD IS PURSUING THE GENERAL.
 ΤΗΕ GENERAL IS PURSUING THE GOD.

As we can see, noun endings are different according to the function they perform in the sentence: $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ θεός, which is the subject in the first sentence, becomes $\tau \dot{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{v}$ θεόν in the second sentence, because here it is the direct object. The opposite happens with $\tau \dot{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{v}$ στρατηγόν: from being the direct object in the first sentence, it becomes $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ στρατηγός in the second one because here it is the subject of the action. Moreover, word order is very variable in Greek, as it can change on the basis of which element of the sentence you want to emphasize; for instance, the second sentence could have been presented as $\tau \dot{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{v}$ θεὸν διώκει $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ στρατηγός or even διώκει $\tau \dot{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{v}$ θεὸν $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ στρατηγός.

Both of them mean The General is pursuing the God: the endings $-\mathbf{o}_{\mathbf{c}}$ and $-\mathbf{o}_{\mathbf{v}}$ respectively are what indicates who the subject is and who the direct object is, not their position in the sentence (note as well that the articles change in agreement with the nouns they refer to). The sentence τ or θ or

b) Concept of case [9]

1/ The grammatical function of a noun in a Greek sentence (subject, direct object, etc.) is indicated by its form, not by its position in the sentence. In Greek a noun can take five different forms, according to the role it performs, and each of these forms is called a *case*. For instance, considering the two words employed in the former examples, we observed that the ending -oc was used when the noun represented the role of subject: this is an example of *nominative case* (i.e. the case of the subject of a sentence). We also noted the employment of the ending -ov associated with the role of direct object: this is an example of *accusative case* (i.e. the case of the direct object of a sentence). So, according to the function they must play, nouns change their form following different patterns, known as *declensions* (it must be noted that singular and plural endings of the same cases are different).

2/ There are five cases in Greek. Their names (and usual abbreviations) are as follows:

□ Nominative	Nom.	or	N.	♦ The order in which the cases are listed above is
□ Vocative	Voc.	or	٧.	common in many English-speaking countries, but
☐ Accusative	Acc.	or	A.	Greek grammars in other countries can present them
☐ Genitive	Gen.	or	G.	in a different order.
□ Dative	Dat.	or	D.	

2. Main syntactical functions and correspondence to cases

a) Main syntactical functions

[10]

1/ The next necessary step is to acquire a sound understanding of the main syntactical functions. We will offer two examples for each of these functions in English:

☐ The **subject** is the noun or pronoun that performs the action described in the sentence:

THE HORSE HAS GOOD TEETH
 THE HORSE is the subject of this sentence.
 THE CHILDREN CAME LATE
 THE CHILDREN is the subject of this sentence.

☐ The **predicative object** indicates how or what something or somebody is:

YOUR BIRTHDAY PRESENT IS NICE
 PETER IS OUR LEADER
 NICE is the predicative object of this sentence.
 OUR LEADER is the predicative object of this sentence.

☐ The **addressed object** is the person (or abstract entity) that is addressed directly by somebody:

"FATHER, COME HERE", SAID THE BOY FATHER is the addressed object.
 WHAT ARE YOU DOING, CHILDREN? CHILDREN is the addressed object.

☐ The **direct object** is the person (or entity, thing, etc.) who is acted upon by the subject:

I HAVE A BOOK is the direct object.
 I SEE THE CITY THE CITY is the direct object.

•		, etc.) to whom something belongs or is related:	
I SEE THE GATE OF THE HOUSE		is the <i>possessive object</i> of this sentence.	
• I see <i>Peter's</i> father	PETER'S	is the <i>possessive object</i> of this sentence.	
		♦ In the sense that it means <i>OF PETER</i> .	
☐ The indirect object is the	person (or thing) for who	m or to whom something is done:	
• I GIVE THIS TO PETER	to Peter	is the <i>indirect object</i> of this sentence.	
 I GIVE PETERTHIS 	PETER	is the <i>indirect object</i> of this sentence.	
		\diamondsuit In the sense that it means <i>TO PETER</i> .	
• I have brought this <i>for Pete</i>	FR FOR PETER	is the <i>indirect object</i> of this sentence.	
Important Students tend to confu	use between <i>direct object</i>	and indirect object when nouns or personal pronouns are	
•		eposition To. Observe these examples:	
• I see <i>HIM</i> : <i>HIM</i> is the	direct object		
	•	cause it means <i>to HIM.</i> The direct object is <i>THIS.</i>	
TIELL HIM THIS. HIM IS CITE	muneci objeci y bec	eadse terricalis 10 mm. The direct object is mis.	
2/ Prepositions are used in Greek as	s well. but not so frequen	tly as in English, because in some situations the meaning is	
•	·	nce, in the former example I see the GATE <i>OF THE HOUSE</i> , the	
	•	the correct case (therefore adding the necessary ending to	
		ranslated, as the meaning of the preposition is expressed by	
		ranslating the sentence I GIVE THIS <i>TO PETER</i> : the sense of the	
		of the word <i>PETER</i> , reflected by its ending; in this kind of	
sentence, the English preposition $ au c$	would not be translated.		
3/ Other questions may come to n	nind now; for instance, in	the sentences above there was no example featuring the	
•		FIELD, WITH MY FRIENDS, OR DURING THE SUMMER? As will be	
		plements can be expressed by combinations of prepositions	
and specific cases, or by the choice of		plements can be expressed by combinations of prepositions	
and specific cases, or by the choice of	n a particular case.		
b) Correspondences of functi	ons and cases		[11]
So, depending on the function of a	word in a sentence, we wi	Il put it in a specific case, which implies a definite ending to	
be added to the word. The correspon			
D Naminativa		Airesta Con in the contains a Transport	
		bjects. So, in the sentence <i>The TEACHER</i> SEES THE HOUSE, the	
		tive case. In the sentence THE TEACHER IS TALL, the predicative	
object TALL would also be <i>nom</i>	'Inative.		
☐ Vocative: Used to ad	Idress or call someone (ad	dressed object). So, in the sentence PETER, COME HERE!, PETER	
would be expressed by the <i>voc</i>	•		
said be enpressed by the vol			
☐ Accusative: Used for a	<i>direct objects</i> . So, in the s	sentence The students see <i>the table</i> , the direct object <i>the</i>	
TABLE would be expressed by t	he <i>accusative case</i> .		

☐ Genitive:	Used for <i>possessive objects</i> . So, in the sentence I LIKE THE PEOPLE <i>OF THIS CITY</i> , the possessive
object <i>of THIS CITY</i> w	ould be expressed by the <i>genitive case</i> .
☐ Dative:	Used for <i>indirect objects</i> . So, in the sentence I HAVE BROUGHT THIS FOR YOU, the indirect object FOR

Remember that questions on how to translate different complements (e.g. AT MIDDAY, WITHOUT HELP, etc.) will be dealt with in the corresponding sections; they will be expressed sometimes employing combinations of prepositions and cases, sometimes just choosing the correct case.

3. Concept of declension

you would be expressed by the *dative case*.

[12]

To decline a noun means to go through all its possible endings (five in singular and five in plural). Leaving adjectives to later analysis, Greek nouns can be classified in three groups, called declensions, and the words belonging to the same declension are declined following the same pattern, i.e. they adopt the same ending for each case. For instance, both the nouns we met in the previous examples ($\theta \epsilon \acute{o} \varsigma$ GOD and $\sigma \tau \rho \alpha \tau \eta \acute{o} \varsigma$ GENERAL) belong to the same declension, therefore they change their endings in the same way according to the function they must perform.

There are three declensions in Greek. The first declension has five sub-variants but is relatively easy to learn, as its structure is quite simple and regular. The second one has two main sub-variants (and two additional minor sub-variants) and is very regular. The third declension is the most complex one, as both of its main sub-variants present several different forms, or sub-categories.

4. Concept of gender

[13]

There are three genders in Greek: *masculine, feminine* and *neuter*. Although in some cases the correspondence between name and gender seems to be logical (for instance, the Greek words for MOTHER and SISTER are feminine, as expected, and those for FATHER and BROTHER are masculine, as expected), in other cases this logic doesn't seem to be apparent (for instance, the word for LAND is feminine, and the word for PLACE is masculine, while in English both would be considered neuter and we would use the pronoun *it* when referring to them).

The following list of nine English nouns and the gender of the corresponding Greek word shows that the gender of nouns is unpredictable and, for this reason, it must be learnt together with the noun (in the same way as a student of German must learn that in German Messer KNIFE is neuter, Löffel SPOON is masculine, and Gabel FORK is feminine):

• DEATH	θάνατος	masculine	• MIDDAY	μεσημβρία	feminine	• ARROW	βέλος	neuter
• WISDOM	σοφία	feminine	• CIRCLE	κύκλος	masculine	• WALL	τεῖχος	neuter
 FAMILY 	γένος	neuter	 DANGER 	κίνδυνος	masculine	• SHIP	ναῦς	feminine

How to know whether a noun is masculine, feminine or neuter will be explained in the chapter devoted to declensions.

b) The definite article

1. Accidence [14]

a/ Although in English the definite article has only one form, THE (THE table, THE tables, THE man, THE woman), in Greek the article presents several forms according to the case, the gender and the number of the noun it refers to:

		singula	r		plural	
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Nom.	ò	ή	τó	οί	αί	τά
Acc.	τόν	τήν	τό	τούς	τάς	τά
Gen.	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν
Dat.	τῷ	τῆ	τῷ	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς

b/ Note that there is no vocative form of the definite article and that most forms begin with τ : only four forms do not feature an initial τ and, instead, they begin with a *rough breathing*.

c/ For some reason, while learning the declension's endings *vertically*, in column, facilitates their memorisation, the article forms are memorised more easily if learned *horizontally*, in rows.

2. Syntax

a) Differences with English use of articles

[15]

1/ To begin with, Greek uses the definite article in many cases in which English does not:

- □ With proper names: ὁ Σωκράτης πάρεστιν Socrates is here.
 - ♦ In English, we would not say The Socrates is HERE.
- □ With abstract nouns: ἡ σοφία καλή ἐστιν Wisdom is beautiful.
 - ♦ In English, we would not say THE WISDOM IS BEAUTIFUL.
- □ With generic nouns: οἱ λέοντες ἐπικίνδυνοί εἰσιν Lions are dangerous.
 - ♦ In English, we would not say The LIONS ARE DANGEROUS.
- 2/ On the contrary, in Greek the definite article is usually omitted in the predicative object but it is necessary in English:
 - ὁ βασιλεὺς σωτηρία ἐστὶ τῇ πόλει The king is the salvation of the city.
 - \diamondsuit No article for σωτηρία salvation in the Greek sentence.

20 THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

3/ But it is not always omitted in the predicative object:

- The sentence οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι ἀσεβεῖς εἰσιν means The Spartans are impious.
- But οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι οἱ ἀσεβεῖς εἰσιν means The Spartans are the impious ones.
 - ♦ As if answering a question about which people are the impious ones: the Spartans or the Athenians.

b) Article + adjective [16]

1/ Sometimes the definite article can be followed directly by an adjective, without any noun to which the adjective refers. This noun may be supplied by the reader. Observe the following example:

• οἱ θεοὶ φιλοῦσι τοὺς ἀγαθούς ΤΗΕ GODS LOVE THE GOOD ...

There is no noun after the adjective $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta$ oúç, therefore the sentence could be translated in several ways: The GODS LOVE GOOD MEN/THE GOOD ONES/GOOD PEOPLE etc.

A typical example of this phenomenon is represented by $\mathbf{oi} \pi \lambda o \acute{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{voi}$ The RICH PEOPLE: this form originally is an adjective, not a noun, but in this specific use it becomes a *substantival adjective*, and therefore is treated as a noun. The same goes for $\pi o \lambda \acute{\epsilon} \mu \iota o \varsigma$ ENEMY, which is in fact an adjective, not a noun, but the plural $\mathbf{oi} \pi o \lambda \acute{\epsilon} \mu \iota o \varsigma$ is to be translated as a noun: The ENEMIS. THE ENEMY. Let's see an example:

- ἐὰν δὲ εὖ πράττωσιν οἱ πλούσιοι καὶ οἱ χρηστοί, ...
 If the rich ones and the honest ones are doing well, ...
 (Xenophon, Atheniensium Respublica).
- **2/** Related with the former point is the use of *article + participle*, given that a participle is an adjective. This use is very frequent and will be explained in detail in the corresponding section, but for now an example will suffice:
 - ἡ γράφουσα The one who is writing \Leftrightarrow GIRL, WOMAN, STUDENT, etc.: the context will clarify more in detail who this person is but just from this expression all we know is that the number is singular and the gender is feminine.

c) Neuter article + neuter adjective

[17]

- 1/ An evolution of the former construction is represented by the Greek form that features a *neuter article* followed by a *neuter adjective*. This is a very useful and common construction, employed in order to describe an abstract concept (TRUTH, BEAUTY, HOLINESS, etc.). For instance, we know that the abstract term for BEAUTY is $\kappa\acute{\alpha}\lambda\lambda \alpha\varsigma$, -ov ς , but we can use as well the *neuter form* of the adjective $\kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\alpha}\varsigma$, - $\acute{\eta}$, - $\acute{v}v$ with the *neuter article* to express the same concept:
 - τί δὲ τὸ καλόν; What is beauty? (Plato, Cratylus).
- **2/** For this same purpose, we can also use the *neuter plural* forms of the adjectives: for example, τὰ δίκαια (article and adjective in neuter plural) is roughly equivalent to the previous construction τὸ δίκαιον (article and adjective in neuter singular), and they are both used to express the concept of $\dot{η}$ δικαιοσύνη JUSTICE:
 - οἶμαί γε τοὺς τὰ δίκαια πράττοντας ἀναγκαῖον εἶναι καλὰ πράττειν | I believe that it is necessary that those who practice justice perform good actions (Plato, Alcibiades).

Another example would be τὰ ναυτικά THE NAVAL MATTERS.

3/ In the case in which the (either singular or plural) neuter adjective appears without an article, the expression will be indicating something more concrete:

κακὰ λέγω | I SAY BAD THINGS.
 κακὸν λέγω | I SAY SOMETHING BAD.

• καλὰ λέγεις περὶ τοῦ ποιητοῦ You say nice things about the poet (Plato, Ion).

♦ Or You speak NICELY ABOUT ... or similar expressions.

d) Article alone (i.e. without a noun)

[18]

1/ The article can be used alone in association with the particles $\mu \acute{\epsilon} v$ - $\delta \acute{\epsilon}$, in which case it must be translated as The ONE ... THE OTHER, SOME ... OTHERS, etc. For example:

• οἱ μὲν καθεύδουσιν, οἱ δὲ πονοῦσιν Some are sleeping, others are working.

• ἡ μὲν ἐν τᾶῖς ᾿Αθήναις ἐστίν, ἡ δὲ ἐν τῆ οἰκίᾳ One is in Athens, the other one is in the house.

ὅπλα ἐποιοῦντο, οἱ μὲν ξύλινα, οἱ δὲ οἰσύινα
 Τhey made weapons, some (made them) of wood, others of willow (Xenophon, Hellenica).

When used in this way, the forms of the article that normally have no accent can acquire one, making them look like relative pronouns, but the context will make clear whether it is an article or a relative pronoun. So, the first sentence of the previous examples could have been written as follows:

• οἱ μὲν καθεύδουσιν, οἱ δὲ πονοῦσιν (same meaning)

Also when found alone, the article can be used in all the grammatical cases. For instance:

- τῆ μὲν βίβλον δίδωμι, τῆ δὲ σῖτον I GIVE A BOOK TO ONE AND FOOD TO THE OTHER ONE.
- **2/** The article can be also used without a noun just with $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$ and no previous $\mu \dot{\epsilon} v$ to indicate a change of subject, provided that this subject was mentioned as the object of the former sentence. For instance:
 - οἱ γεωργοὶ τὸν διδάσκαλον ὁρῶσιν, ὁ δὲ καθεύδει The farmers see the teacher, and he (the teacher) is sleeping.
 - ἐπεὶ δὲ πάλιν ἦλθε, λέγει τὴν μαντείαν τῷ Σωκράτει. ὁ δ᾽ ἀκούσας ... When he came back he told the oracle to Socrates. And he (Socrates), after hearing it, ... (Xenophon, Anabasis).
 - ταῖς παρθένοις βίβλους διδόασι οἱ διδάσκαλοι, αἱ δὲ εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν τὰς βίβλους φέρουσιν ΤΗΕ TEACHERS GIVE BOOKS ΤΟ THE MAIDENS, AND THESE TAKE THE BOOKS INTO THE HOUSE.
 - ὁ ἰατρὸς φάρμακον δίδωσι τῷ νἱῷ, ὁ δὲ πάλιν πονεῖν ἐθέλει The physician gives a medicine to his son, and he (the son) is willing to work again.

It is worth noting that this use of the article as pronoun derives from some typical traits of the Greek language in its archaic developments. For instance, it is a recurrent feature in Homer (see the corresponding section).

c) declensions

General observations [19]

1/ To learn the declensions properly, it is convenient to have clear from the very beginning their scheme, which could be called the "map of declensions", the way in which they are grammatically structured. Therefore, we offer here a schematic table of the declensions and their sub-types:

[We include in this schematic table the title of the **a**) **Introduction** section in the 3rd declension just to make the **b**), **c**) and **d**) letters of the following sections coincide with what will be found in the chapter further ahead.]

- 1. 1st declension
- a) 1st sub-variant
- b) 2nd sub-variant
- c) 3rd sub-variant
- d) 4th sub-variant
- e) 5th sub-variant
- 2. 2nd declension
- a) 1st sub-variant
- b) 2nd sub-variant
- c) The Attic declension
- d) The contract declension

- 3. 3rd declension
- a) Introduction
- b) Consonant stems
 - 1/ Stems ending in labial (β, π) and guttural (γ, κ, χ) consonants
 - 2/ Stems ending in dental (δ, τ, θ) and nasal (v) consonants
 - 3/ Stems ending in the group $-v\tau$
 - 4/ Stems ending in liquid (ρ, λ) consonants
 - 5/ Stems ending in sigma
- c) Vowel stems
 - 1/ Stems ending in -1, -v
 - 2/ Stems ending in $-\varepsilon v$, $-\alpha v$, -o v
 - 3/ Stems ending in -oι, -ω
- d) Irregular nouns
- **2/** For each declension, we will highlight the *case endings* by writing them in bold type and by separating them from the stem of the word with a hyphen, to make it easier for the student to memorise them (our advice is not to memorise as a paradigm the whole declined word, but to memorise *only the endings*: $-\alpha$, $-\alpha$, $-\alpha$, $-\alpha$, $-\alpha$, etc.). Whether these endings are accented or not (and, if they are accented, what kind of accent they present), depends on each specific word. So, in the examples provided, the presence or absence of accents on the endings should not be interpreted as an example showing a general rule.
- **3/** Greek nouns are usually presented by their *singular nominative and genitive forms*. Even though adjectives also use inflectional models based on declensions, they will be presented in another way, introduced in the corresponding chapter.

1. 1st declension [20]

The first declension can be divided into *five sub-variants*: three for feminine nouns and adjectives and the two last ones for masculine nouns (no adjectives follow the two last sub-variants).

a) First sub-variant

	singular	plural	Example: ἀγορά, -ᾶς Market, Market square
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	 ἡ ἀγορ-ά ὧ ἀγορ-ά τὴν ἀγορ-άν τῆς ἀγορ-ᾶς τῆ ἀγορ-ᾶ 	αί ἀγορ- αί ὧ ἀγορ- αί τὰς ἀγορ- άς τῶν ἀγορ- ῶν ταῖς ἀγορ- αῖς	♦ See also the feminine article accompanyin the noun.

Note

It is worth noting that the particle $\tilde{\omega}$, found preceding vocative cases of any declension, is not an article but an exclamation ("O") that Greeks used to emphasise the vocative itself:

The following list presents some of the most frequent nouns belonging to this sub-variant. Keeping with the conventional practice mentioned above, here are listed the singular nominative and genitive forms of each noun:

ἀγορά, -ᾶς	MARKET, SQUARE	έπιθυμία, -ας	DESIRE	πενία, -ας	POVERTY
άδικία, -ας	INJUSTICE	έσπέρα, -ας	EVENING	πολιορκία, -ας	SIEGE
αἰτία, -ας	CAUSE	εὐδαιμονία, -ας	GOOD FORTUNE	πολιτεία, -ας	POLITICAL
άλήθεια, -ας	TRUTH	εὐσέβεια, -ας	PIETY		CONSTITUTION
άμαρτία, -ας	ERROR, MISTAKE	εὐτυχία, -ας	GOOD FORTUNE	προθυμία, -ας	DESIRE, ZEAL
ἀνδρεία, -ας	MANLINESS, COURAGE	ἡμέρα, -ας	DAY	σοφία, -ας	WISDOM
ἀπειρία, -ας	INEXPERIENCE	ἡσυχία, -ας	REST	στρατεία, -ας	EXPEDITION
ἀπορία, -ας	PERPLEXITY	$\theta \epsilon \dot{\alpha}$, $-\tilde{\alpha} \varsigma$	GODDESS	στρατιά, -ᾶς	ARMY
ἀσέβεια, -ας	IMPIETY	θύρα, -ας	DOOR	συμμαχία, -ας	ALLIANCE
βοήθεια, -ας	ASSISTANCE, HELP	θυσία, -ας	SACRIFICE	συμφορά, -ᾶς	MISFORTUNE
δειλία, -ας	COWARDICE	μανία, -ας	MADNESS	σωτηρία, -ας	SALVATION
δυστυχία, -ας	MISFORTUNE	ναυμαχία, -ας	NAVAL BATTLE	τιμωρία, -ας	VENGEANCE
έκκλησία, -ας	ASSEMBLY	οἰκία, -ας	HOUSE	φιλία, -ας	FRIENDSHIP
έλευθερία, -ας	FREEDOM	παιδεία, -ας	EDUCATION	χώρα, -ας	LAND, COUNTRY

Note that the stem of the words belonging to this sub-variant ends in one of these three letters: ρ , ϵ , ι .

^{• 🕉} Σώκρατες, δεῦρο ἐλθέ Ο SOCRATES, COME HERE!

b) Second sub-variant

[21]

	singular	plural	Example: μάχη, -ης BATTLE
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ή μάχ- η ὧ μάχ- η τὴν μάχ- ην τῆς μάχ- ης τῆ μάχ- η	αί μάχ -αι δ μάχ -αι τὰς μάχ -ας τῶν μαχ -ῶν ταῖς μάχ -αις	\diamondsuit With regard to the 1st sub-variant, the singular endings, previously featuring an $\alpha,$ here present η in all forms, while the plural endings are identical to the previous ones.

Some of the most frequent nouns of this sub-variant are:

άδελφή, -ῆς	SISTER	έορτή, -ῆς ἐπιστολή, -ῆς	FESTIVAL LETTER, EPISTLE	σιγή, -ῆς σκήνη, -ης	SILENCE TENT
'Αθήνη, -ης ἀνάγκη, -ης	ATHENA (goddess) NEED, NECESSITY	κεφαλή, -ῆς	HEAD	σπονδή, -ῆς	LIBATION
άρετή, -ῆς ἀρχή, -ῆς	VIRTUE, EXCELLENCE BEGINNING, EMPIRE	κόρη, -ης μάχη, -ης	GIRL BATTLE	σχολή, -ῆς σωφροσύνη, -ης	LEISURE PRUDENCE
βοή, -ῆς	SHOUT	μεταβολή, -ῆς	CHANGE	τελευτή, -ῆς	END
βουλή, -ῆς γῆ, -ῆς	COUNCIL EARTH	μηχανή, -ῆς νίκη, -ης	DEVICE VICTORY	τέχνη, -ης τιμή, -ῆς	SKILL, CRAFT HONOUR
γνώμη, -ης	OPINION	όργή, -ῆς	ANGER PREPARATION	τύχη, -ης	FORTUNE FOREST
δικαιοσύνη, -ης δίκη, -ης	JUSTICE JUSTICE	παρασκευή, -ῆς προσβολή, -ῆς	ATTACK	ὔλη, -ης φυγή, -ῆς	FLIGHT
εἰρήνη, -ης	PEACE	πύλη, -ης	GATE	ψυχή, -ῆς	SOUL

c) Third sub-variant

[22]

	singular	plural
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ή θάλαττ-α δ θάλαττ-α τὴν θάλαττ-αν τῆς θαλάττ-ης τῆ θαλάττ-η	αὶ θάλαττ- αι ὧ θάλαττ- αι τὰς θαλάττ- ας τῶν θαλαττ- ῶν ταῖς θαλάττ- αις
Dat.		ταῖς θαλάττ-αις

Example: θάλαττα, -ης SEA

♦ In this sub-variant, the singular endings present a combination of the endings introduced in the previous sub-variants, while the plural endings are still identical to the previous ones.

The nouns belonging to this sub-variant are not very numerous. These are some of the most frequent ones:

ἄμαξα, -ης	WAGON	δίαιτα, -ης	WAY OF LIVING	μοῦσα, -ης	MUSE
ἄμιλλα, -ης	CONTEST	δόξα, -ης	OPINION	τόλμα, -ης	DARING
γλῶττα, -ης	TONGUE, LANGUAGE	ἦττα, -ης	DEFEAT	τράπεζα, -ης	TABLE
δέσποινα, -ης	MISTRESS	θάλαττα, -ης	SEA		

Important Remarks

1/ The plural endings do not change in any of the sub-variants of the 1st declension; they will be the same for the two last sub-variants as well (they feature masculine nouns). So, the sub-variants differ only in the singular endings.

2/ The differences that we have seen in accentuation do not depend on the sub-variant, they are determined by the words taken as examples.

3/ The feminine definite article follows the pattern of the second sub-variant; the forms of this article will stay *unchanged for all feminine words* (also for those belonging to other declensions).

4/ Given that the conventional presentation (or "dictionary entry form") of Greek nouns features the *singular* nominative and genitive forms, it is easy to see what the declension and sub-variant of a word is. For example:

```
    • ἐσπέρα, -ας
    • τιμή, -ῆς
    • θάλαττα, -ης
    • α, -ης
    = 1st declension, 2nd sub-variant
    • θάλαττα, -ης
    = 1st declension, 3nd sub-variant
```

d) Fourth sub-variant

[23]

Both 4^{th} and 5^{th} sub-variants borrow the genitive singular ending -ov from the second declension and have an additional -c in the nominative singular ending. The plural endings are identical to the previous ones.

As nouns belonging to the 4th and 5th sub-variants are all masculine, the definite article accompanying the nouns is masculine as well; for this reason, it is important to note that the endings of the article and those of the nouns they accompany are not always identical.

	singular	plural
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen.	ό νεανί- ας ὧ νεανί- α τὸν νεανί- αν τοῦ νεανί- ου	οί νεανί- αι ὧ νεανί- αι τοὺς νεανί- ας τῶν νεανι- ῶν
Dat.	τῷ νεανί-ᾳ	τοῖς νεανί- αις

Example: νεανίας, -ου ΥΟΟΤΗ

 \Leftrightarrow There are only two recurrent nouns belonging to this sub-variant: **νεανίας**, **-ου** YOUTH, YOUNG PERSON, and **ταμίας**, **-ου** STEWARD. Some proper names also follow this declension, like 'Αρχίας, **-ου** ARCHIAS, Πυθαγόρας, **-ου** PYTHAGORAS.

e) Fifth sub-variant

[24]

	singular	plural
Nom. Voc.	ὁ ναύτ- ης ὧ ναῦτ- α	οί ναῦτ -αι ὧ ναῦτ -αι
Acc.	τὸν ναύτ -ην	τοὺς ναύτ- ας
Gen.	τοῦ ναύτ- ου	$\tilde{\tau \omega v} v \alpha v \tau - \tilde{\omega v}$
Dat.	τῷ ναύτ-η	τοῖς ναύτ- αις

Example: ναύτης, -ου SAILOR

 \Leftrightarrow With regard to the 4st sub-variant, the singular endings, previously featuring an α , here present η in all forms except in the vocative.

The most usual nouns belonging to this sub-variant are the following ones:

δεσπότης, -ου	MASTER	ληστής, -οῦ	PIRATE	προδότης, -ου	TRAITOR
δικαστής, -οῦ	JUROR, JUDGE	μαθητής, -οῦ	STUDENT, DISCIPLE	σοφιστής, -οῦ	SOPHIST
εὐεργέτης, -ου	BENEFACTOR	ναύτης, -ου	SAILOR	στρατιώτης, -ου	SOLDIER
ίδιώτης, -ου	INDIVIDUAL	νομοθέτης, -ου	LAWGIVER	τεχνίτης, -ου	ARTIST
ίκέτης, -ου	SUPPLIANT	ὁπλίτης, -ου	HOPLITE	τοξότης, -ου	ARCHER
κλέπτης, -ου	THIEF	Πέρσης, -ου	PERSIAN	ὑπηρέτης, -ου	SERVANT
κριτής, -οῦ	JUDGE	ποιητής, -οῦ	POET	ύποκριτής, -οῦ	ACTOR
κυβεονήτης, -ου	STEERSMAN	πολίτης, -ου	CITIZEN		

Note

Some proper names may have a vocative ending in $-\eta$ instead of in $-\alpha$, like $\tilde{\omega}$ Θουκυδίδη Ο THUCYDIDES.

2. 2nd declension

common; the 3rd and 4th sub-variants are usually called *Attic declension* and *Contract declension* respectively.

The second declension is the easiest one of the three. It has four sub-variants, the 1st and the 2nd of which are the most

a) First sub-variant [25]

	singular	plural	Example: ἀδελφός, - $ ilde{\mathbf{o}}$ brother
Nom. Voc. Acc.	ό ἀδελφ-ός ὧ ἄδελφ-ε τὸν ἀδελφ-όν	οἱ ἀδελφ- οἱ ὧ ἀδελφ- οἱ τοὺς ἀδελφ- ούς	Most of the words belonging to this subvariant are masculine, but there are some feminine ones as well.
Gen. Dat.	τοῦ ἀδελφ- οῦ τῷ ἀδελφ- ῷ	τῶν ἀδελφ- ῶν τοῖς ἀδελφ- οῖς	♦ The retraction of the accent in the Voc. is an exception for this word.

Note

Observe that nouns belonging to this variant and the masculine article follow the same ending pattern, except for the nominative singular (and the vocative forms as well but, as noted above, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\omega}}$ is not an article).

Some of the most frequent words of this declension are (all of these examples are masculine):

ἄγγελος, -ου	MESSENGER	βωμός, -οῦ	ALTAR	θάνατος, -ου	DEATH
ἀγρός, -οῦ	FIELD	γεωργός, -οῦ	FARMER	θεός, -οῦ	GOD
άδελφός, -οῦ	BROTHER	δῆμος, -ου	PEOPLE, DEME	θόρυβος, -ου	UPROAR
ἄνεμος, -ου	WIND	διδάσκαλος, -ου	TEACHER	ἰατρός, -οῦ	PHYSICIAN
ἄνθρωπος, -ου	MAN	δοῦλος, -ου	SLAVE	ἵππος, -ου	HORSE
ἄργυρος, -ου	SILVER	ένιαυτός, -οῦ	YEAR	καιρός, -οῦ	OPPORTUNITY
ἀριθμός, -οῦ	NUMBER	ἔπαινος, -ου	PRAISE	κίνδυνος, -ου	DANGER
βίος, -ου	LIFE	ἥλιος, -ου	SUN	λίθος, -ου	STONE

λόγος, -ου	WORD, STORY	ὄρος, -ου	BOUNDARY	σύμμαχος, -ου	ALLY
μῦθος, -ου	MYTH, TALE	οὐρανός, -οῦ	HEAVEN	τόπος, -ου	PLACE
νεκρός, -οῦ	CORPSE	όφθαλμός, -οῦ	EYE	τρόπος, -ου	WAY, MANNER
νόμος, -ου	LAW	ὄχλος, -ου	CROWD	τύραννος, -ου	TYRANT
ξένος, -ου	FOREIGNER, GUEST	πόλεμος, -ου	WAR	υἱός, -οῦ	SON
οἶκος, -ου	HOUSE	ποταμός, -οῦ	RIVER	ὕπνος, -ου	SLEEP
οἶνος, -ου	WINE	σῖτος, -ου	BREAD, FOOD	φίλος, -ου	FRIEND
ὄμιλος, -ου	CROWD	στέφανος, -ου	CROWN	φόβος, -ου	FEAR
ὄνειρος, -ου	DREAM	στρατηγός, -οῦ	GENERAL	χρόνος, -ου	TIME
ὄρκος, -ου	OATH	στρατός, -οῦ	ARMY	χρυσός, -οῦ	GOLD

 \Leftrightarrow With respect to $\theta \epsilon \delta \varsigma$, $- \delta \tilde{v}$ GOD: \Rightarrow Vocative sing. $\theta \epsilon \delta \varsigma$. The form $\theta \epsilon \epsilon'$ belongs to New Testament Greek. $\Rightarrow \dot{\eta} \theta \epsilon \delta \varsigma = \dot{\eta} \theta \epsilon \delta$ GODDESS

Feminine nouns of the second declension

[26]

A small number of feminine words follow the first sub-variant of the second declension; they are declined in the same way, i.e. use the same endings, but their article and adjectives, if any, will be feminine. The most usual ones are:

ἡ ἄμπελος, -ου	VINE	ἡ νῆσος, -ου	ISLAND	ἡ παρθένος, -ου	MAIDEN
ή βίβλος, -ου	воок	ἡ νόσος, -ου	ILLNESS, PLAGUE	ἡ τάφρος, -ου	DITCH
ή ἤπειρος, -ου	MAINLAND	ἡ ὁδός, -οῦ	WAY, ROAD	ἡ ψῆφος, -ου	VOTE, PEBBLE

In some cases, only the article will give you information regarding the gender of the noun. Observe these two cases:

- \Rightarrow ἡ ἄνθρωπος, -ου woman: same word for man, ὁ ἄνθρωπος, but different article; moreover, in the 3rd declension there is another word that means woman).
- \Rightarrow ἡ θεός, -οῦ GODDESS: same word for GOD, ὁ θεός, but different article; cf. the 1st declension synonym θεά, -ᾶς, GODDESS).

b) Second sub-variant

[27]

All the words belonging to this sub-variant are neuter, therefore the article accompanying these nouns is neuter as well. The differences with respect to the first sub-variant affect only the three first cases (nominative, vocative and accusative).

	singular	plural
Nom. Voc. Acc.	τὸ ἔργ- ον ὧ ἔργ- ον τὸ ἔργ- ον	τὰ ἔργ- α ὧ ἔργ- α
Gen. Dat.	τοῦ ἔργ-ου τῷ ἔργ-φ	τὰ ἔργ -α τῶν ἔργ -ων τοῖς ἔργ -οις

Example: ἔργον, -ου work, τΑSK

 \diamond It is important to know that for all neuter nouns the nominative, vocative and accusative endings are identical and the plural ending in these cases is always - α (this rule applies also to other languages, as for instance Latin and Russian).

The most common words of this sub-variant are:

ἄθλον, -ου	PRIZE	ἔργον, -ου	WORK, TASK	πεδίον, -ου	PLAIN
άργύριον, -ου	MONEY	ζῷον, -ου	ANIMAL	πλοῖον, -ου	BOAT
δάκρυον, -ου	TEAR	ίμάτιον, -ου	GARMENT	σημεῖον, -ου	SIGN
δεῖπνον, -ου	DINNER	μαντεῖον, -ου	ORACLE	στρατόπεδον, -ου	CAMP
δένδρον, -ου	TREE (irregular)	ναυτικόν, -οῦ	NAVY	τεκμήριον, -ου	PROOF
δεσμωτήριον, -ου	PRISON	ξύλον, -ου	WOOD	τόξον, -ου	BOW
δικαστήριον, -ου	LAW COURT	ὄπλον, -ου	WEAPON, ARM	χωρίον, -ου	PLACE
δῶρον, -ου	GIFT, BRIBE	παιδίον, -ου	LITTLE CHILD		

c) The Attic declension

[28]

	singular	plural
Nom.	ό νε-ώς	οί νε - φ
Voc.	ὧ νε-ώς	ὧ νε-ῷ
Acc.	τὸν νε -ών	τοὺς νε -ώς
Gen.	τοῦ νε-ώ	τῶν νε -ών
Dat.	τῷ νε-ψ	τοῖς νε -ώς

Example: $v \varepsilon \acute{\omega} \varsigma$, $-\acute{\omega}$ TEMPLE

 \Leftrightarrow The most frequent words that follow the Attic declension are $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ ve $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ ς TEMPLE and $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ λ e $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ ς PEOPLE. The \mathbf{o} is lengthened into $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ and the iota is always subscript.

Notes

- 1/ Observe that the dat. singular and the nom./voc. plural forms are identical ($v \varepsilon \acute{\omega}$).
- 2/ With regard to adjectives that follow the Attic declension, they will use the variant $-\omega v$ in the singular ending of the first three cases and $-\alpha$ in the plural ones if the adjective is needed in neuter gender (no neuter nouns follow the Attic declension); all the other endings will be identical to the ones given in the example $v\varepsilon \dot{\omega} \varsigma$.
- **3/** Some proper nouns follow this sub-type, like **Μενέλεως**, -ω MENELAUS and **Μίνως**, -ω MINOS.
- **4/** The "regular" forms $v\alpha \acute{o}\varsigma$, $-o\tilde{v}$ and $\lambda \alpha \acute{o}\varsigma$, $-o\tilde{v}$ can also be found.

d) The contract declension

[29]

This declension is followed by words whose stems end in $-\mathbf{o}$ or in $-\mathbf{\varepsilon}$. These vowels interact with the ones featured in the declension's endings (e.g. $\mathbf{v}\dot{\mathbf{o}}-\mathbf{o}\zeta > \mathbf{v}o\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\zeta$; $\dot{\mathbf{o}}\sigma\tau\dot{\mathbf{\varepsilon}}-\mathbf{o}\mathbf{v} > \dot{\mathbf{o}}\sigma\tau\sigma\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{v}$), producing this peculiar result. The most common words following this declension are $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\mathbf{v}o\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\zeta$ MIND, $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\pi\lambda\sigma\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\zeta$ NAVIGATION, $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\dot{\mathbf{p}}\sigma\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\zeta$ STREAM and the neuter $\tau\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\dot{\mathbf{o}}\sigma\tau\sigma\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{v}$ BONE:

	sing.	plur.	_		sing.	plur.
Nom.		v-oĩ		Nom.	ὀστ-οῦν	ὀστ-ᾶ
Voc.	ν-οῦ	v-oĩ		Voc.	ὀστ-οῦν	\dot{o} στ- $ ilde{m{lpha}}$
Acc.	ν-οῦν	ν-οῦς		Acc.	ὀστ-οῦν	\dot{o} στ- $ ilde{m{lpha}}$
Gen	ν-οῦ	v - $\tilde{\omega}v$		Gen.	ὀστ-οῦ	ὀστ-ῶν
Dat.	ν-ῷ	ν-οῖς		Dat.	ὀστ-ῷ	ὀστ -οῖς

 \diamond Observe that only the first three cases feature different endings from the standard 2nd declension. Remember as well that it is not uncommon to find the words uncontracted: $\dot{o}\sigma t \acute{e}o v$ and $v\acute{o}o c$.

3. 3rd declension

a) Introduction [30]

The third declension comprises a large amount of sub-variants. The standard endings of the 3rd declension are these:

	masc./fem.		ne	uter
	sing.	plur.	sing.	plur.
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen.	-ς or -ø -ς or -ø -α -ος	-ες -ες -ας -ων	-ø -ø -ø -oç	-α -α -α -ων
Dat.	-t	-σι(ν)	-t	-σι(ν)

[31]

1/ Main stem: One of the most important concepts related to the 3^{rd} declension is how to find out the main stem of a word: in order to do this, the ending $-o_{\varsigma}$ must be removed from the genitive singular form of the word and the remaining part will reveal the main stem of that word. For example, to find the stem of the word \dot{o} $\gamma i \gamma a \zeta$ GIANT it is necessary to look at the genitive singular form, $\gamma i \gamma a v \tau o \zeta$, and remove the genitive ending $-o_{\varsigma}$: this will reveal the stem $\gamma i \gamma a v \tau o \zeta$, which will be the basis for the whole declension.

2/ Learning both stems: As we can see from the example, the main stem of a word may look different, and sometimes very different, from the nominative and vocative singular form (and accusative as well, if the word is neuter). Sometimes they are so different that it is possible to think that they have *two stems*: one for the two first cases in the singular (or three, if the word is neuter) and another one (the main one) for the rest of the declension.

The key point for declining correctly a word of the third declension is to learn both stems, when they are different (almost always), and to understand clearly when the two different forms have to be used: the nominative stem, or the form appearing as the first in the dictionary entries, has to be employed exclusively in the nominative and vocative (and accusative, if the word is neuter) singular form, while in all other cases the main stem must be used.

3/ Two main groups: The third declension patterns can be divided into two large groups: those applying to words with *consonant stems* and those applying to words with *vowel stems*. Both these categories can be divided into different subclasses.

b) Consonant stems

1/ Stems ending in *labial* (β, π, ϕ) or *guttural* (γ, κ, χ) consonants

This sub-variant comprises both masculine and feminine nouns.

The consonant at the end of the stem and the sigma that is present in the nominative singular and the dative plural endings will combine with each other, in the interests of euphony. An example of each class follows: for labial, $\dot{\eta}$ φλέψ, φλεβός VEIN, and for guttural, \dot{o} φύλαξ, φύλακος GUARD.

	sing.	plur.	_		sing.	plur.
Nom.	φλέψ	φλέβες		Nom.	φύλαξ φύλαξ	φύλακες
Voc.	φλέψ	φλέβες		Voc.	φυλας	φύλακες
Acc.	φλέβα	φλέβας		Acc.	φύλακα	φύλακας
Gen.	φλεβός	φλεβῶν		Gen.	φύλακος	φυλάκων
Dat.	φλεβί	φλεψί(ν)		Dat.	φύλακι	φύλαξι(ν)

Note

When you decline a third-declension word, be careful not to add the endings to the nominative form as, for instance, φλέψ, going on with the wrong forms φλέψα, φλεψός, φλεψές etc. This is a very frequent mistake, but also one than can be easily avoided.

Other frequent words belonging to this category are the following:

γύψ, γυπός ὁ	VULTURE	σάλπιγξ, -ιγγος ἡ	TRUMPET
θώραξ, -ακος ὁ	BREASTPLATE	Σφίγξ, -ιγγος ἡ	Sphinx
κῆρυξ, -υκος ὁ	HERALD	φάλαγξ, -αγγος ἡ	PHALANX
κόλαξακος ὁ	FLATTERER		

A very frequent word belonging to this sub-variant is the word ἡ γυνή, γυναικός woman and, as it is quite irregular in its declension, it is important to study its peculiarities closely.

	sing.	plur.
Nom.	γυνή	γυναϊκες
Voc.	γύναι	γυναῖκες
Acc.	γυναϊκα	γυναϊκας
Gen.	γυναικός	γυναικῶν
Dat.	γυναικί	γυναιξί(ν)

[32]

[33]

2/ Stems ending in *dental* (δ, τ, θ) or *nasal* (v) consonants

This sub-variant comprises masculine, feminine and neuter nouns.

a/ Although the declension of words featuring dental stems should have been presented in the same section as the labial and guttural ones, as they form the so-called group of the occlusive consonants, they are presented together with the nasal ones because they share the same morphological characteristics. Let's begin with a dental stem:

	sing.	plur.	Example: ἡ λαμπάς, -άδος LAMP
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	λαμπάς λαμπάς λαμπάδα λαμπάδος λαμπάδι	λαμπάδες λαμπάδες λαμπάδας λαμπάδων λαμπάσι(ν)	→ The dental or the nasal consonant disappears when a sigma is added to the main stem.

Peculiar morphological phenomena for dental stems:

1/ Nouns with dental stems ending in $-\iota \varsigma$ and $-\upsilon \varsigma$ form the accusative singular by replacing the $-\varsigma$ of the nominative with a $-\upsilon$ if the nominative does not have an accent on the ending; if the ending is accented, instead, it follows the usual system, adding an $-\alpha$ to the main stem:

```
\Rightarrow χάρις, χάριτος GRACE: acc. sing. χάριν (because the -ις has no accent on it) \Rightarrow πατρίς, πατρίδος FATHERLAND: acc. sing. πατρίδα (because the -ις has an accent on it) \Rightarrow Exception: "Αρτεμις, -ιδος ARTEMIS can be either "Αρτεμιν or 'Αρτέμιδα in acc. sing.
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- 2/ Nouns in -ις have a vocative singular without sigma: ποῖς child, vocative singular ποῖ.
- **3/** κλείς, -ιδός ἡ κεγ has both κλεῖν and κλεῖδα for acc. sing., although κλεῖδα is late Greek, and both κλεῖς and κλεῖδας for acc. plural, although κλεῖδας is also late Greek.

Other common words with dental stem are:

ἀσπίς, -ίδος ἡ	SHIELD	κόρυς, -υθος ἡ	HELMET	ὕδωρ, ὕδατος τό	WATER
Έλλάς, -άδος ἡ	GREECE	ὄρνις, -ιθος ὁ / ἡ	BIRD	φυγάς, -άδος ὁ	FUGITIVE, EXILE
έλπίς, -ίδος ἡ	HOPE	παῖς, παιδός ὁ / ἡ	BOY, GIRL		
ἔρις, -ιδος ἡ	STRIFE	πούς, ποδός ὁ	FOOT		

Notes

- 1/ As an exception to the rule above, ὄρνις has both acc. ὄρνιθα and ὄρνιν, and three possible acc. pl.: ὄρνιθας, ὄρνις and ὄρνεις.
- **2/** Also as an exception to the same rule, κόρυς has both acc. κόρυθα and κόρυν.
- **3/ νύξ, νυκτός ἡ** NIGHT and ἄναξ, -ακτος ὁ KING, MASTER could also be considered guttural, as the disappearance of the -τ- in front of the sigma leaves a guttural (-κ-) as the last consonant, which then combines with the sigma (ἄνακτ-σι > ἄνακ-σι > ἄναξι). Apart from this, ἄναξ has a very unusual vocative singular: ἄνα.
- **b/** A very frequent type of dental stem is the $-\mu\alpha$, $-\mu\alpha\tau$ oc type:

	sing.	plur.	Example: τὸ σῶμα, -ατος ΒΟΟΥ
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	σῶμα σῶμα σῶματος σώματι	σώματα σώματα σώματα σωμάτων σώμασι(ν)	\diamondsuit All of the words that follow the pattern -μα, -ματος are neuter.

Some very common words of this type are:

ἄγαλμα, -ατος τό	STATUE	ὄνομα, -ατος τό	NAME	σῶμα, -ατος τό	BODY
ἀδίκημα, -ατος τό	ACT OF INJUSTICE	πρᾶγμα, -ατος τό	MATTER, AFFAIR	τείχισμα, -ατος τό	FORTIFICATION
αἷμα, -ατος τό	BLOOD	σῆμα, -ατος τό	SIGN	τραῦμα, -ατος τό	WOUND
ὰμάρτημα, -ατος τό	ERROR	στόμα, -ατος τό	MOUTH	χρῆμα, -ατος τό	THING, MATTER
κτῆμα, -ατος τό	POSSESSION	στράτευμα, -ατος τό	ARMY	χρήματα, -ων τά	MONEY

 $[\]diamond$ Observe the difference in meaning for $\chi \rho \tilde{\eta} \mu \alpha$, $-\alpha \tau o \varsigma$ in singular and plural.

c/ Let's see now a nasal stem:

[34]

	sing.	plur.	Example: ὁ λιμήν, -ένος Harbour
Acc. Gen.	λιμήν λιμήν λιμένα λιμένος λιμένι	λιμένες λιμένες λιμένας λιμένων λιμέσι(ν)	♦ Observe that also the -v- disappears in front of a sigma.

Some other common words in nasal are:

ἀγών, -ῶνος ὁ	CONTEST, STRUGGLE	κύων, κυνός ὁ / ἡ	DOG, BITCH	χειμών, -ῶνος ὁ	WINTER, STORM
γείτων, -ονος ὁ	NEIGHBOUR	λειμῶν, -ῶνος ὁ	MEADOW	χιών, -όνος ἡ	SNOW
Έλλην, -ηνος ὁ	GREEK (person)	μήν, μηνός ὁ	MONTH		
ἡγεμών, -όνος ὁ	LEADER	ποιμήν, -ένος ὁ	SHEPHERD		

3/ Stems ending in the group $-\nu\tau$ -

[35]

This group represents a sub-variant of the one comprising stems ending in dental consonants, as it ends in $-\tau$, but its characteristic morphological trait is that the whole group $-v\tau$ - disappears when a sigma is added after it, while the preceding vowel is sometimes lengthened in compensation. This lengthening takes different forms, depending on whether the stem finishes in $-\alpha$, $-\alpha$ or $-\varepsilon$. This sub-type is a very important one to remember, as a lot of participles use it. Let's see some examples:

	sing.	plur.	Example: ὁ γέρων, -οντος OLD MAN
Nom.	γέρων	γέροντες	\diamond Note the similarity of $\gamma \acute{\epsilon} \rho o \nu \sigma \iota$ and equivalent forms with the normal present indicative 3rd person plural verbal form; confusing them is a common mistake.
Voc.	γέρον	γέροντες	
Acc.	γέροντα	γέροντας	
Gen.	γέροντος	γερόντων	
Dat.	γέροντι	γέρουσι(ν)	

	sing.	plur.	Example: ὁ γίγας, -αντος GIANT
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	γίγας γίγαν γίγαντα γίγαντος γίγαντι	γίγαντες γίγαντες γίγαντας γιγάντων γίγασι(ν)	\Leftrightarrow Note that the - α - of the dative plural remains graphically as it is (although in fact it becomes a long alpha) after the elision of the group - $\nu\tau$
	sing.	plur.	Example: (ὁ) γραφείς, -έντος written
Nom.	γραφείς	γραφέντες	
Voc.	γραφείς	γραφέντες	♦ This example is a passive past participle: no usual
Acc.	γραφέντα	γραφέντας	nouns follow this type, so it is reported here to show
Gen.	γραφέντος	γραφέντων	how the declension in -$\epsilon v \tau$- works.
Dat.	γραφέντι	γραφεῖσι(ν)	

Note

Observe the different forms in the vocative singular cases: sometimes the stem vowel is shortened, as in $\gamma \epsilon \rho o v$, other times it will remain as it is. There is no specific rule to predict it and, therefore, its form must be learnt for each word.

With respect to the dative plural, the final summary is:

 Ψ Type -εις, -εντος dat. pl. -εισι Ψ Type -ων, -οντος dat. pl. -ουσι Ψ Type -ως, -οντος dat. pl. -ουσι Ψ Type -ας, -αντος dat. pl. -ασι

Some frequent words of this kind are:

ἄρχων, -οντος $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ RULER, GOVERNOR $\lambda \dot{\epsilon}$ ων, -οντος $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ LION $\mathbf{\Xi}$ ενοφῶν, -ῶντος $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ ΧΕΝΟΡΗΟΝ $\mathbf{\theta}$ εράπων, -οντος $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ SERVANT $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ δούς, -όντος $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ ΤΟΟΤΗ

4/ Stems ending in liquid (ρ , λ) consonants

a/ This declension is quite simple as both lambda and rho remain unvaried when a sigma is added. Let's see the two examples $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\dot{\mathbf{p}}\dot{\mathbf{\eta}}\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{\omega}\boldsymbol{\rho}$, $-\mathbf{o}\boldsymbol{\rho}\boldsymbol{o}\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ ORATOR and $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\boldsymbol{\theta}\dot{\mathbf{\eta}}\boldsymbol{\rho}$, $\boldsymbol{\theta}\boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\rho}\dot{\boldsymbol{\varsigma}}$ BEAST:

[36]

	sing.	plur.		sing.	plur.
Nom. Voc.	ρήτωρ ρῆτορ	ἡήτορες ἡήτορες	Nom. Voc.	θήρ θήρ	θῆρες θῆρες
Acc.	ἡήτορα	ρήτορες	Acc.	θῆρα	θῆρας
Gen. Dat	ρήτορος δήτορι	ἡητόρων ἡήτορσι(ν)	Gen. Dat.	θηρός θηρί	θηρῶν θηρσί(ν)
Dat.	ϸήτορι	pi(topot(v)	Dat.	vilhr	Oilpot(V)

As in the previous category, the vocative singular form is unpredictable here as well: in some cases the vowel shortens, and in other cases it remains as it is.

Other words of this sub-type are:

ἀήρ, ἀέρος ὁ	AIR	κρατήρ, -ῆρος ὁ	BOWL
αἰθήρ, -έρος ὁ	UPPER AIR	μάρτυς, -υρος ὁ	WITNESS
ἄ λς, ἀλός ὁ	SALT \diamond This is the only noun in $-\lambda$ -	πῦρ, πυρός τό	FIRE \Rightarrow dat pl. $\pi \nu \rho o i \varsigma$, as if of the 2 nd decl.
ἔαρ, ἦρος τό	SPRING (season)	χείρ, χειρός ἡ	HAND

b/ Three nouns in -ρ (πατήρ FATHER, μήτηρ MOTHER, θυγάτηρ DAUGHTER) present some irregularities, and it is important to learn them accurately as they recur very frequently. The noun π ατήρ, π ατρός FATHER declines as follows:

	sing.	plur.	_
Nom.	πατήρ	πατέρες	
Voc.	πάτερ	πατέρες	♦ Observe especially the unusual alpha in
Acc.	πατέρα	πατέρας	the dative plural and the loss of the $-\epsilon$ - in
Gen.	πατρός	πατέρων	some cases.
Dat.	πατρί	πατράσι(ν)	

 $[\]Rightarrow$ μήτηρ, μητρός $\dot{\eta}$ mother and θυγάτηρ, θυγατρός $\dot{\eta}$ DAUGHTER decline in the same way as $\pi \alpha \tau \dot{\eta} \rho$.

c/ The word $\dot{\alpha}$ νήρ, $\dot{\alpha}$ νδρός MAN presents even more irregularities:

	sing.	plur.	
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ἀνήρ ἄνερ ἄνδρα ἀνδρός ἀνδρί	ἄνδρες ἄνδρες ἄνδρας ἀνδρῶν ἀνδράσι(ν)	Observe especially the unexpected delta in most cases.

ἀνήρ means MAN as opposed to WOMAN, while ἄνθρωπος means MAN in the sense of HUMAN BEING, PERSON, and, therefore, can be either masculine or feminine (this last differentiation depends exclusively on the gender of any accompanying adjective or article).

5/ Stems ending in sigma

[38]

This group is rather difficult because intervocalic sigmas (i.e. sigmas placed between two vowels - in the present case between the final vowel of the stem and the initial vowel of the ending) disappear and the vowels contract.

This category can be divided into three groups:

 $[\]Rightarrow$ ἀστήρ, -έρος \dot{o} STAR is regular, but has a dative plural in the same style as $\pi \alpha \tau \dot{\eta} \rho$: ἀστράσι(ν).

a) Group of variable -EG

All of them are *neuter*, and there is an alternation $-\varepsilon_{\zeta}$ / $-o_{\zeta}$ in the stem. With this alternation and the contractions that take place after the disappearance of the sigma between vowels, the final result looks like this:

	sing.	plur.	Example: γένος, -ους FAMILY, CLASS
Acc. Gen.	γένος γένος γένος γένους γένει	γένη γένη γένη γενῶν γένεσι(ν)	\Leftrightarrow Do not confuse the $-o_{\varsigma}$ of this sub-variant with the $-o_{\varsigma}$ of the 2nd declension, and the $-\eta$ plural with the $-\eta$ of the 1st declension.

 $[\]diamond$ It could be said that the usual alpha of neuter plural is "hidden" inside the final contraction: $\gamma \acute{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \sigma \alpha > \gamma \acute{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \alpha > \gamma \acute{\epsilon} \nu \eta$.

Some frequent words of this kind:

βέλος, -ους τό	MISSILE	κλέος, -ους τό	GLORY	πάθος, -ους τό	SUFFERING
γένος, -ους τό	FAMILY, CLASS	κράτος, -ους τό	POWER, STRENGTH	πλῆθος, -ους τό	CROWD
δέος, -ους τό	FEAR	μέγεθος, -ους τό	MAGNITUDE	σκεῦος, -ους τό	EQUIPMENT
ἔπος, -ους τό	WORD	μέρος, -ους τό	PART	τεῖχος, -ους τό	WALL
ἔτος, -ους τό	YEAR	ξίφος, -ους τό	SWORD	τέλος, -ους τό	END, COMPLETION
θέρος, -ους τό	SUMMER	ὄνειδος, -ους τό	REPROACH	ψεῦδος, -ους τό	LIE
κάλλος, -ους τό	BEAUTY	ὄρος, -ους τό	MOUNTAIN		
κέοδος, -ους τό	GAIN	ὄφελος, -ους τό	BENEFIT		

b) Group of invariable $-\varepsilon \varsigma$

This group comprises only adjectives and proper names (like Socrates, Diogenes, etc.), with the exception of $\dot{\eta}$ τρι $\dot{\eta}$ ρης TRIREME, which is the only noun belonging to this group. But there is a reason for its inclusion: in fact τρι $\dot{\eta}$ ρης is simply an adjective but, because of its frequent use, it has come to be considered as a noun.

[39]

So, except for proper names and $\dot{\eta}$ τρι $\dot{\eta}$ ρης, this group is used for adjectives only. Hence, the examples that will follow will show the full declension of $\dot{\eta}$ τρι $\dot{\eta}$ ρης and of the neuter adjective $\dot{\alpha}$ ληθές TRUE, which will provide an example for the neuter form of this declension (for the complete explanation of this type of adjectives, see the appropriate section).

The ending $-\varepsilon \zeta$ was originally kept all along the declension, and this is why it is usually called *invariable*; nonetheless some contractions took place and, after the contractions, the final result is as follows:

	sing.	plur.		sing.	plur.
Nom.	τριήρης	τριήρεις	Nom.	ἀληθές	άληθῆ
Voc.	τριῆρες	τριήρεις	Voc.	άληθές	άληθῆ
Acc.	τριήρη	τριήρεις	Acc.	άληθές	άληθῆ
Gen.	τριήρους	τριήρων	Gen.	ἀληθοῦς	ἀληθῶν
Dat.	τριήρει	τριήρεσι(ν)	Dat.	άληθεῖ	άληθέσι(ν)

 $[\]diamond$ Observe that the accusative plural $\tau \rho \iota \hat{\eta} \rho \epsilon \iota \varsigma$ is identical to the nominative plural.

Some of the proper names following this declension are:

Διογένης, -ους Diogenes Σωκράτης, -ους Socrates

- \Leftrightarrow But proper names can also have an acc. in -ην, as if they belonged to the -ης, -ου sub-type of the 1st declension: Σωκράτην, Διογένην.
- Φ Περικλῆς Pericles and other proper names ending in -κλῆς (for instance, Ἡρακλῆς Heracles) present this peculiar declension: -κλῆς, -κλείς, -κλέους, -κλεί.

c) Group of -as

All the nouns comprised in this category are neuter. After the contractions, the final result is as follows:

[40]

	sing.	plur.	Example: γέρας, -ως REWARD
Nom.	γέρας	γέρα	Nouns belonging to this group are not very frequent.
Voc.	γέρας	γέρα	
Acc.	γέρας	γέρα	
Gen.	γέρας	γερῶν	
Dat.	γέρας	γέρασι(ν)	

Apart from γ έρας, the only frequent word is κέρας, -ως HORN, WING (of army). This last word can also follow a different declension, like σ $\tilde{\omega}$ μα, -ατος, resulting in κέρας, -ατος.

c) Vowel stems

1/ Stem ending in -ι or -υ:

[41]

This category can be divided into two groups: words featuring an *invariable stem* and words featuring a *variable stem*. In both cases, the main characteristic is in the accusative singular they use the ending $-\mathbf{v}$ and instead of $-\mathbf{a}$.

a) Invariable stem

	singular	plural	Example: ὁ ἰχθύς, -ύος FISH
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ἰχθύς ἰχθύ ἰχθύν ἰχθύος ἰχθύϊ	ίχθύες ίχθύες ίχθῦς ίχθύων ίχθύσι(ν)	 Observe the similarity between the nom. sing. and the acc. pl. forms, which differ only in the accents. ὰχθύς may have an acc. plural ἰχθύας.
Dat.	ἰχθύϊ	ἰχθύσι(ν)	

Actually, only a few words belong to this group; the two most frequent ones are:

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\dot{\eta} \dot{i}σχύς, -\dot{v}ος STRENGTH \dot{\eta} \dot{o}iς, \dot{o}iός SHEEP \dot{\phi} It declines as \dot{i}χθύς: acc. sing. \dot{o}iν, nom. pl. \dot{o}iες, etc.
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b) Variable stem

The most frequent type of this kind of substantive is the feminine one in $-\iota \zeta$, $-\varepsilon \omega \zeta$. The other one, masculine in $-\upsilon \zeta$, $-\varepsilon \omega \zeta$, is not so frequent, and the neuter type in $-\upsilon$, $-\varepsilon \omega \zeta$ even rarer. Here we have an example of each: the feminine $\dot{\eta}$ $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota \zeta$, $-\varepsilon \omega \zeta$ CITY, the masculine \dot{o} $\pi \rho \acute{e}\sigma \beta \upsilon \zeta$, $-\varepsilon \omega \zeta$ AMBASSADOR, and the neuter $\tau \grave{o}$ $\check{\alpha}\sigma \tau \upsilon$, $-\varepsilon \omega \zeta$ TOWN.

	sing.	plur.		sing.	plur.		sing.	plur.
Nom.	πόλις	πόλεις	Nom	πρέσβυς	πρέσβεις	Nom.	ἄστυ	ἄστη
Voc.	πόλι	πόλεις	Voc.	πρέσβυ	πρέσβεις	Voc.	ἄστυ	ἄστη
Acc.	πόλιν	πόλεις	Acc.	πρέσβυν	πρέσβεις	Acc.	ἄστυ	ἄστη
Gen.	πόλεως	πόλεων	Gen.	πρέσβεως	πρέσβεων	Gen.	ἄστεως	ἄστεων
Dat.	πόλει	πόλεσι(ν)	Dat.	πρέσβει	πρέσβεσι(ν)	Dat.	ἄστει	ἄστεσι(ν)

[♦] Observe that the accusative plural form is identical to the nominative plural, accent included.

The most frequent nouns of this type are:

αἴσθησις, -εως ἡ	PERCEPTION	πόλις, -εως ἡ	CITY	φρόνησις, -εως ἡ	PRUDENCE
ἀκρόπολις, -εως ἡ	ACROPOLIS	πρᾶξις, -εως ἡ	ACTION	φύσις, -εως ἡ	NATURE
δύναμις, -εως ή	POWER	πρόφασις, -εως ἡ	EXCUSE	μάντις, -εως ὁ / ἡ	SOOTHSAYER
κρίσις, -εως ἡ	DECISION, JUDGEMENT	στάσις, -εως ἡ	FACTION	πέλεκυς, -εως ὁ	AXE
ὄψις, -εως ἡ	SIGHT	τάξις, -εως ἡ	POST, ARRANGEMENT	πρέσβυς, -εως ὁ	AMBASSADOR, OLD MAN
πίστις, -εως ἡ	PLEDGE, TRUST	ὕβρις, -εως ἡ	INSOLENCE	ἄστυ, -εως τό	TOWN

38 DECLENSIONS

2/ Stem ending in diphthong $-\epsilon \upsilon$, $-\alpha \upsilon$ and $-\sigma \upsilon$

[43]

a/ The most frequent one is the type in $-\varepsilon v$. All the nouns belonging to this category are masculine.

	sing.	plur.	Example: ὁ βασιλεύς, -έως κινς
Nom.	βασιλεύς	βασιλεῖς	
Voc.	βασιλεῦ	βασιλεῖς	\diamondsuit Note that in this sub-type the accusative
Acc.	βασιλέα	βασιλέας	plural is different from the nominative (in the
Gen.	βασιλέως	βασιλέων	sub-type $\pi \rho \acute{\epsilon} \sigma \beta \upsilon \varsigma$, -εως they were identical).
Dat.	βασιλεῖ	βασιλεῦσι(ν)	

Other frequent nouns belonging to this category are the following:

άλιεύς, -έως ὁ	FISHERMAN	έρμηνεύς, -έως ὁ	INTERPRETER	συγγραφεύς, -έως ὁ	WRITER
'Αχιλλεύς, -έως ὁ	ACHILLES	ίερεύς, -έως ὁ	PRIEST	φονεύς, -έως ὁ	ASSASSIN
γονεύς, -έως ὁ	PARENT	ίππεύς, -έως ὁ	HORSEMAN	χαλκεύς, -έως ὁ	SMITH
δρομεύς, -έως ὁ	RUNNER	'Οδυσσεύς, -έως ὁ	ODYSSEUS		

b/ Nouns containing the diphthongs $-\alpha v$ and -ov are very unusual. The two most frequent ones are $\dot{\eta} \gamma \rho \alpha \tilde{v} \zeta$ OLD WOMAN and $\dot{o} \beta o \tilde{v} \zeta$ ox:

	sing.	plur.		sing.	plur.	
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	γραῦς γραῦ γραῦν γραός γραΐ	γρᾶες γρᾶες γραῦς γραῶν γραυσί(ν)	No Voc Acc Ger Dat	ς. βοῦ :. βοῦν n. βοός	βόες βόες βοῦς βοῶν βουσί(ν)	♦ Observe that in these words the accusative plural is identical to the nominative singular.

c/ A very important word containing the diphthong $-\alpha v$ is the word $\dot{\eta} v \alpha \tilde{v} \zeta$ SHIP. It is important to study its declension [44] in detail, as it features numerous irregularities:

	sing.	plur.
Nom.	ναῦς	νῆες
Voc.	ναῦ	νῆες
Acc.	ναῦν	ναῦς
Gen.	νεώς	νεῶν
Dat.	νηί	ναυσί(ν)

- \diamondsuit Observe the alternation not only between α and ϵ but also between ϵ and $\eta.$
- ♦ Apart from these standard forms, more are found in classical writers.

3/ Stem ending in -ot and -w

[45]

[46]

In this group we find *three types* of morphologically unusual words. The phenomena of elision, contraction, etc., produce peculiar endings, in some cases with many alternative options.

a) First type: αἰδώς, ἱδρώς, χρώς, φῶς

	sing.	Example: ἡ αἰδώς	RESPECT
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	αὶδώς αἰδώς αἰδῶ αἰδοῦς αἰδοῖ	∻ As a general rule,	these words lack plural.

The words appearing in the title follow this declension, but they can also use a stem ending in $-\tau$ (gender and meaning, of course, are the same), giving the following forms:

ἡ αἰδώς, -ῶτος	RESPECT	ὁ χρώς, χρωτός	SKIN
ὁ ἱδρώς, -ῶτος	SWEAT	τὸ φῶς, φωτός	LIGHT

In this case, they decline as normal nouns with dental stems.

b) Second type: πειθώ

	sing.	Example: ἡ πειθώ PERSUASION
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	πειθώ πειθώ πειθώ πειθοῦς πειθοῦ	 Other nouns that follow this type are: ἡ ἀχώ ΕCHO ἡ Σαπφώ SAPPHO (ACCοῦν) ἡ Λητώ LETO

c) Third type: ἥρως

The word $\eta\rho\omega\varsigma$ HERO presents several optional forms even within the Attic dialect:

	sing.	plur.	_
Nom.	ἥρως	ἥρωες - ἥρως	 \Other nouns that follow this declension are: \oundersite{\ounderline} Τρώς \Ounderline \ounderline
Voc.	ἥρως	ἥρωες - ἥρως	
Acc.	ἥρωα - ἥρω	ἥρωας - ἥρως	
Gen.	ἥρωος - ἥρω	ἡρώων	
Dat.	ἥρωι - ἥρῳ	ἥρωσι(ν)	

40 DECLENSIONS

d) Irregular nouns [47]

The word $\upsilon i \acute{o} \varsigma$, $-o \widetilde{\upsilon}$ son, which can be declined following the 2^{nd} declension, is sometimes declined following the 3^{rd} declension in some of its forms:

	sing.	plur.
Nom.		υίεῖς
Voc.		υἱεῖς
Acc.		υἱεῖς
Gen.	υίέος	υἱέων
Dat.	ນ ເຮົ	υἱέσι(ν)

♦ The missing forms are not used in the optional version created by following the 3rd declension.

Most of other 3^{rd} declension nouns that are usually considered to be irregular have already been included in the section corresponding to the sub-variant they belong to, if they occur very frequently: for instance, $\gamma \nu \nu \hat{\eta}$, $\gamma \nu \nu \alpha \iota \kappa \hat{\kappa} \hat{\varsigma}$ woman has been included in the sub-variant of the qutturals, and $\dot{\alpha} \nu \hat{\eta} \rho$, $\dot{\alpha} \nu \hat{\delta} \rho \hat{\varsigma} \hat{\varsigma}$ man in the sub-variant of stems in - ρ .

Other irregular nouns that do not occur so frequently were not listed in the sections corresponding to the sub-variant they belong to (for instance, $\tau \grave{o} \ o \check{v} \varsigma$, $\dot{\omega} \tau \acute{o} \varsigma$ EAR would clearly belong to the dental sub-variant, as its stem finishes in $-\tau$). The nominative and genitive forms of these nouns are so different that they seem to be irregular, while instead they decline regularly.

The main ones are:

τὸ οὖς, ἀτός EAR ἡ θρίξ, τριχός HAIR ὁ Ζεύς, Διός Zeus

As can be observed, they all have consonant stems, except for $Z\epsilon\acute{\nu}\varsigma$.

d) Adjectives

General observations [48]

a/ An adjective has gender: In Greek, as in many other languages, if an adjective accompanies a masculine noun, it must be masculine; the adjective must be feminine if it accompanies a feminine noun, and neuter if the noun is neuter. On the basis of the different classes adjectives belong to, gender will be expressed by means of different declensions.

b/ Classes of adjectives: There are three classes of adjectives in Greek, and each adjective belongs to one of these classes: please note that we are talking about *classes*, not *declensions*. For instance, the Greek adjective $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\alpha}\zeta$ GOOD belongs to the first class, the adjective $\dot{\alpha}\sigma\phi\alpha\lambda\dot{\eta}\zeta$ SAFE belongs to the second one, and the adjective $\tau\alpha\chi\dot{\nu}\zeta$ QUICK belongs to the third one.

1. 1st class of adjectives

[49]

a) The standard $-o\varsigma$, $-\alpha/-\eta$, -ov scheme

The first class uses the 1st and 2nd declensions. They are the so-called 2-1-2 adjectives, as they inflect as follows:

 \Rightarrow If the adjective is masculine, it follows the 2nd declension (1st sub-variant).

→ If the adjective is feminine, it follows the 1st declension (one of the sub-variants for feminine nouns).

 \Rightarrow If the adjective is neuter, it follows the 2nd declension (2nd sub-variant).

The dictionary form shows the three nominative forms (masc./fem./neuter). For instance:

 $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\alpha}\varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{\alpha}v$ GOOD $\dot{\delta}i\kappa\alpha\iota\sigma$, $-\alpha$, -ov LAWFUL, FAIR

The dictionary form will show which of the 1st declension sub-variants is to be used to inflect the feminine adjective. If the dictionary form of the adjective is $-o\varsigma$, $-\eta$, -ov, the $-\eta$ indicates that the feminine version will follow the 2nd sub-variant of the 1st declension (η all through). If the dictionary form is $-o\varsigma$, $-\alpha$, -ov, the feminine will use the 1st sub-variant (α all through). Hardly any adjectives follow the 3rd sub-variant for the feminine.

The most frequent adjectives following the 2-1-2 scheme are:

\square Type -oc, - η , -ov

ἀγαθός, -ή, -όν	GOOD	θαυμαστός, -ή, -όν	AMAZING	κενός, -ή, -όν	EMPTY
ἄσμενος, -η, -ον	GLAD	θνητός, -ή, -όν	MORTAL	κοινός, -ή, -όν	COMMON
δειλός, -ή, -όν	COWARDLY	ίκανός, -ή, -όν	SUFFICIENT	λοιπός, -ή, -όν	REMAINING
δεινός, -ή, -όν	TERRIBLE	ἴσος, -η, -ον	EQUAL	μέσος, -η, -ον	MIDDLE
δῆλος, -η, -ον	CLEAR, EVIDENT	καινός, -ή, -όν	NEW	μεστός, -ή, -όν	FULL
δυνατός, -ή, -όν	POSSIBLE, CAPABLE	κακός, -ή, -όν	BAD	μόνος, -η, -ον	ALONE
ἔσχατος, -η, -ον	FURTHEST	καλός, -ή, -όν	NICE, BEAUTIFUL	όλίγος, -η, -ον	LITTLE

42 ADJECTIVES

πιστός, -ή, -όν πρῶτος, -η, -ον σοφός, -ή, -όν	TRUSTWORTHY FIRST WISE	φίλος, -η, -ον χαλεπός, -ή, -όν χρήσιμος, -η, -ον	FRIENDLY DIFFICULT USEFUL	χρηστός, -ή, -όν	GOOD				
\Box Type $-o\varsigma$, $-\alpha$, $-ov$									
'Αθηναῖος, -α, -ον	ATHENIAN	έλεύθερος, -α, -ον	FREE	ὅμοιος, -α, -ον	SIMILAR				
αἰσχρός, -ά, -όν	SHAMEFUL	έπιτήδειος, -α, -ον	USEFUL	πλούσιος, -α, -ον	RICH				
αἴτιος, -α, -ον	RESPONSIBLE	έχθρός, -ά, -όν	HOSTILE	πολέμιος, -α, -ον	HOSTILE				
ἀναγκαῖος, -α, -ον	NECESSARY	$\theta \tilde{\epsilon i} o \zeta$, $-\alpha$, $-o v$	DIVINE	πονηρός, -ά, -όν	WICKED				
ἀνδρεῖος, -α, -ον	VALIANT, BRAVE	ἴδιος, -α, -ον	PRIVATE	πρότερος, -α, -ον	FORMER				
ἄξιος, -α, -ον	WORTHY	ίερός, -ά, -όν	SACRED	ῥάδιος, -α, -ον	EASY				
άρχαῖος, -α, -ον	ANCIENT	ἰσχυρός, -ά, -όν	STRONG	σπουδαῖος, -α, -ον	DILIGENT, EARNEST				
βλαβερός, -ά, -όν	HARMFUL	καθαρός, -ά, -όν	PURE	τελευταῖος, -α, -ον	FINAL				
δεύτερος, -α, -ον	SECOND	μακρός, -ά, -όν	BIG, LONG	φανερός, -ά, -όν	CONSPICUOUS				
δημόσιος, -α, -ον	PUBLIC	μικρός, -ά, -όν	SMALL, LITTLE	φοβερός, -ά, -όν	FRIGHTENING, FEARFUL				
δίκαιος, -α, -ον	JUST, RIGHT	νέος, -α, -ον	YOUNG						

Common mistake: ὁρῶ καλὸν νῆσον instead of ὁρῶ καλὴν νῆσον I see a nice island.

Adjective and noun must agree in case, number and gender (in this example, accusative feminine singular), but do not necessarily follow the same declension. $v\tilde{\eta}\sigma o_{\zeta}$ ISLAND is feminine in Greek, so the adjective must be feminine as well, therefore it will follow the first declension. The fact that the noun $v\tilde{\eta}\sigma o_{\zeta}$ ISLAND itself belongs to the second declension must not affect the choice of the declension used to inflect the adjective: this decision must be based on the *gender* of the noun, NOT on the declension followed by the noun.

b) The $-o\varsigma$, $-o\varsigma$, -ov scheme

This class of adjectives has a variant, which comprehends compound adjectives, i.e. adjectives formed by adding a prefix to the basic form of an adjective (for example, a privative alpha). These adjectives inflect the feminine forms using the 2^{nd} declension (it could be said that the follow a 2-2-2 scheme), although some of them can also follow the 1^{st} declension for the feminine (2-1-2 scheme), like $\alpha\theta\alpha\nu\alpha\tau$ os: we may find it both as an $-\infty$, $-\eta$, $-\sigma$ adjective and as an $-\infty$, $-\infty$, $-\sigma$, $-\sigma$ one.

The most frequent adjectives of this type are:

ἄδηλος, -ος, -ον	UNCLEAR	άπροσδόκητος, -ος, -ον	UNEXPECTED	ἔρημος, -ος, -ον	DESERT
ἄδικος, -ος, -ον	UNFAIR	ἄτιμος, -ος, -ον	DISHONOURED	έτοῖμος, -ος, -ον	READY
ἀδύνατος, -ος, -ον	IMPOSSIBLE, INCAPABLE	βάρβαρος, -ος, -ον	non Greek-speaking	ἥσυχος, -ος, -ον	QUIET
ἀθάνατος, -ος, -ον	IMMORTAL	βέβαιος, -ος, -ον	SECURE, FIRM	πρόθυμος, -ος, -ον	EAGER
ἀξιόλογος, -ος, -ον	WORTH MENTIONING	δύσμορος, -ον	DISGRACEFUL	φρόνιμος, -ος, -ον	PRUDENT
ἄπειρος, -ος, -ον	INEXPERIENCED	ἔμπειρος, -ος, -ον	EXPERIENCED	σύμμαχος, -ος, -ον	ALLIED
ἄπιστος, -ος, -ον	UNTRUSTWORTHY	ἔνδοξος, -ος, -ον	FAMOUS	ἀφέλιμος, -ος, -ον	BENEFICIAL

ἐγὼ δ' ὁρῶσα δύσμορος κατὰ στέγας κλαίω And I, ILL-FATED, SEEING IT, CRY THROUGHOUT THE HOUSE (Sophocles, *Electra*).
 ♦ Observe that δύσμορος refers to a feminine subject.

c) Adjectives following the contract or Attic declensions

[51]

Some 2-1-2 (or even 2-2-2) adjectives follow the contract or Attic declensions for masculine and neuter forms, while the feminine form (1st declension) does not differ.

1/ The most frequent adjectives following the contract declension are:

διπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν	DOUBLE	χρυσοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν	GOLDEN	
άπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν	SIMPLE	εὔνους, -ους, -ουν	BENEVOLENT	♦ Observe that this is a 2-2-2 scheme.
ἀργυροῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν	SILVER	κακόνους, -ους, -ουν	MALICIOUS	♦ Also a 2-2-2 scheme.

We can find them also without contraction: $\chi \rho \hat{\upsilon} \sigma \epsilon o \varsigma$, etc.

2/ The most important adjectives following the Attic declension are:

```
τίλεως, -ως, -ων FAVOURABLE \diamondsuit Observe that it is a 2-2-2 scheme. \pi\lambdaέως, -\alpha, -ων FULL \dot{\alpha}Υήρως, -ως, -ων UNDECAYING, IMPERISHABLE \diamondsuit Also a 2-2-2 scheme.
```

It must be noted that the neuter plural of Attic forms of adjectives does not contract: $\mathring{\imath}\lambda\varepsilon\alpha$, NOT $\mathring{\imath}\lambda\alpha$. Also some of the contract adjectives do not contract in neuter plural, while others do: $\varepsilon\mathring{\imath}\nu\sigma\alpha$ (uncontracted) but $\mathring{\alpha}\rho\gamma\nu\rho\mathring{\alpha}$ (contracted).

2. 2nd class of adjectives

[52]

This class of adjectives uses only the third declension to inflect all genders. Adjectives belonging to this type have two forms: the so-called $-\eta \varsigma$ adjectives and the so-called $-\omega v$ adjectives. In both categories, the masculine and feminine forms are identical, and the neuter form is just a little different, but all of them follow the third declension. As usual, their entry form in a dictionary features the masc./fem. and neuter nominatives. As the adjectives $\kappa \alpha \lambda \dot{\alpha} \varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{\alpha} v$ were called adjectives 2-1-2 on the basis of the declensions they employed, these are called adjectives 3-3.

a) Adjectives of the -ης, -ες type

[53]

The endings were affected by phenomena of contractions between the final ε of the stem and the vowels featured in the endings, as happened in the 3rd declension nouns in $-\sigma$ -. This type of adjectives follows, for the masculine and feminine forms, the same declension of $\tau \rho \iota \acute{\eta} \rho \eta \varsigma$, $-o \upsilon \varsigma$ TRIREME (which, as we noted in the corresponding section of the Declensions, is in fact a substantival adjective), while the neuter endings are similar to those of $\gamma \acute{\epsilon} \nu o \varsigma$, $-o \upsilon \varsigma$, apart from the Nom./Voc./Acc. singular endings in $-\acute{\epsilon} \varsigma$. Let's see the declension of the adjective that means FALSE, LYING:

	sing	gular	plural		Example: ψευδής, -ές FALSE
	masc./fem	neuter	masc./fem	neuter	
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ψευδής ψευδές ψευδῆ ψευδοῦς ψευδεῖ	ψευδές ψευδές ψευδές ψευδοῦς ψευδεῖ	ψευδεῖς ψευδεῖς ψευδεῖς ψευδῶν ψευδέσι(ν)	ψευδῆ ψευδῆ ψευδῆ ψευδῶν ψευδέσι(ν)	♦ Observe that the nominative, vocative and accusative plural forms are identical also in masc. and fem.

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Note

Some adjectives have -α instead of -η in the acc. sing. masc. and fem.: ὑγιής HEALTHY, acc. sing. ὑγιῆ, not ὑγιῆ.

The most frequent adjectives belonging to this category are:

ἀκριβής, -ές	EXACT, PRECISE	ἀσφαλής, -ές	SAFE, SECURE	εὐτυχής, -ές	FORTUNATE
άληθής, -ές	TRUE	δυσμενής, -ές	HOSTILE	πλήρης, -ες	FULL
ἀμαθής, -ές	IGNORANT	δυστυχής, -ές	UNFORTUNATE	σαφής, -ές	CLEAR
ἀμελής, -ές	NEGLIGENT	έμφανής, -ές	EVIDENT	συγγενής, -ές	AKIN
ἀσεβής, -ές	IMPIOUS	εὐγενής, -ές	NOBLE	ὑγιής, -ές	HEALTHY
ἀσθενής, -ές	WEAK, ILL	εὐσεβής, -ές	PIOUS	ψευδής, -ές	FALSE, LYING

b) Adjectives of the $-\omega v$, $-\omega v$ type

[54]

There are no contractions in this type, so it is easier than the previous one. It follows the type of $\lambda \iota \mu \dot{\eta} v$, - $\dot{\epsilon} v o \varsigma$ HARBOUR. Let's see the declension of the adjective that means PRUDENT:

	si	ng.	plu	ural	Example: σώφρων, -ον prudent
	masc./fem.	neuter	masc./fem.	neuter	
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	σώφρων σῶφρονα σώφρονος σώφρονι	σῶφρον σῶφρον σῶφρον σώφρονος σώφρονι	σώφρονες σώφρονες σώφρονας σωφρόνων σώφροσι(ν)	σώφρονα σώφρονα σώφρονα σωφρόνων σώφροσι(ν)	→ Observe that in this case the masc./fem. accusative plural is not identical to the nominative (because there have been no contractions).

The most frequent adjectives belonging to this category are:

έπιστήμων, -ον	SKILLED	κακοδαίμων, -ον	MISERABLE	τλήμων, -ον	WRETCHED
εὐδαίμων, -ον	BLESSED	σώφρων, -ον	PRUDENT, SENSIBLE		

c) Adjectives of the -15, -1 type

[55]

There are three adjectives ending in $-\iota \varsigma$, $-\iota$ that deserve some attention:

- φιλόπολις, -ι PATRIOTIC It declines like πόλις except the special cases for the neuter:
 φιλόπολι in the singular and φιλοπόλη in the plural.
 Εὕελπις, -ι HOPEFUL It declines like ἐλπίς except the special cases for the neuter:
- εὔελπι in the singular and εὖέλπιδα in the plural.
- άχαρις, -ι Thankless It declines like χάρις except the special cases for the neuter:
 άχαρι in the singular and ἀχάριτα in the plural.

There are other two-ending adjectives of this style, but very unusual, like $\alpha\pi\alpha\tau\omega\rho$, $-\omega\rho$ FATHERLESS.

3. 3rd class of adjectives

[56]

The third class uses a combination of the 1st and the 3rd declensions:

Masculine: 3rd declension Feminine: 1st declension Neuter: 3rd declension

Because of this distribution, they are also called 3-1-3 adjectives.

a) Adjectives of the type $-\upsilon \varsigma$, $-\varepsilon \iota \alpha$, $-\upsilon$

[57]

The masculine follows the type $\pi\rho\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\beta\nu\varsigma$, $-\epsilon\omega\varsigma$ but with a slight modification which will be highlighted in the notes, while the neuter follows the type $\alpha\sigma\tau\nu$, $-\epsilon\omega\varsigma$, but with another modification in the plural. Let's see the declension of the adjective that means FAST:

		sing.			plural	
	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ταχύς ταχύ ταχύν ταχέος ταχεῖ	ταχεῖα ταχεῖα ταχεῖαν ταχείας ταχεία	ταχύ ταχύ ταχύ ταχέος ταχεῖ	ταχεῖς ταχεῖς ταχεῖς ταχέων ταχέσι(ν)	ταχεῖαι ταχεῖαι ταχείας ταχειῶν ταχείαις	ταχέα ταχέα ταχέα ταχέων ταχέσι(ν)

Notes

The most frequent adjectives that follow this type are:

βαθύς, -εῖα, -ύ	DEEP	εὐρύς, -εῖα, -ύ	WIDE, BROAD	ὀξύς, -εῖα, -ύ	SHARP
βαρύς, -εῖα, -ύ	HEAVY	ἡδύς, -εῖα, -ύ	SWEET	ταχύς, -εῖα, -ύ	FAST, QUICK
βραδύς, -εῖα, -ύ	SLOW	ἥμισυς, -εια, -υ	HALF	τραχύς, -εῖα, -ύ	ROUGH
γλυκύς, -εῖα, -ύ	SWEET	θοασύς, -εῖα, -ύ	BOLD		

b) Adjectives of the type -ντ- in masculine and neuter

[58]

The masculine and neuter follow the $-v\tau$ - sub-variant of the 3^{rd} declension, with some variations in the nominative, and the feminine follows the 3^{rd} sub-variant of the 1^{st} declension. This type of adjectives with $-v\tau$ - in masculine and neuter is extremely important because it is used to inflect participles, which will be introduced in the relevant sections of the chapters on verbs.

^{1/} The genitive singular masc. and neuter ending is not $- \dot{\epsilon} \omega \varsigma$, but $- \dot{\epsilon} o \varsigma$. REMEMBER: $- \dot{\epsilon} \omega \varsigma$ in nouns, $- \dot{\epsilon} o \varsigma$ in adjectives.

^{2/} The neuter ending $-\varepsilon\alpha$ does not contract into $-\eta$, as happened with adjectives in $-\eta\varsigma$, $-\varepsilon\varsigma$.

^{3/} The masculine accusative plural is identical to the nominative.

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				11	1 1 1					10	~	~	~	
- 17	' A verv	/ IMI	portant a	adiective	belona	ına ta	this	categor	v is the	e adjective	πac.	πασα.	παν	AII:

	masculine	singular <i>feminine</i>	neuter	masculine	plural <i>feminine</i>	neuter
Nom.	πᾶς	πᾶσα	πᾶν	πάντες	πᾶσαι	πάντα
Voc.						
Acc.	πάντα	πᾶσαν	πᾶν	πάντας	πάσας	πάντα
Gen.	παντός	πάσης	παντός	πάντων	πασῶν	πάντων
Dat.	παντί	πάση	παντί	πᾶσι(ν)	πάσαις	πᾶσι(ν)

Usually this adjective $\pi \tilde{\alpha} \varsigma$ is used with the article if we want to make emphasis on the quantity:

• πάντες οἱ ἄνθρωποι ἔφυγον All the men fled.

But if the quality is meant, it will be found without the article (and usually in singular):

- πᾶς ἄνθρωπος τὴν πόλιν φιλεῖ Any man loves his city.
 - \Rightarrow It means the same as πάντες οἱ ἄνθρωποι, but in this case the emphasis falls on the quality.
- **2/** Another one is the adjective $\dot{\epsilon}$ κών, $-ο\tilde{v}$ σα, $-\acute{o}v$ willing:

		sing.			plural	
	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	έκών έκόντα έκόντος έκόντι	έκοῦσα έκοῦσαν έκούσης έκούση	έκόν έκόν έκόντος έκόντι	έκόντες έκόντας έκόντων έκοῦσι(ν)	έκοῦσαι έκούσας έκουσῶν έκούσαις	έκόντα έκόντα έκόντων έκοῦσι(ν)

3/ Another one, the adjective $\chi \alpha \rho i \epsilon \iota \varsigma$, $-\epsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha$, $-\epsilon v$ GRACEFUL:

	sing.			plural		
	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	χαρίεις χαρίεις χαρίεντα χαρίεντος χαρίεντι	χαρίεσσα χαρίεσσα χαρίεσσαν χαριέσσης χαριέσση	χαρίεν χαρίεν χαρίεν χαρίεντος χαρίεντι	χαρίεντες χαρίεντες χαρίεντας χαριέντων χαρίεσι(ν)	χαρίεσσαι χαρίεσσαι χαριέσσας χαριεσσῶν χαριέσσαις	χαρίεντα χαρίεντα χαρίεντα χαριέντων χαρίεσι(ν)

Note the irregular dative plural forms χαρίεσι, which substitutes the expected lengthened form χαρίεισι.

4. Irregular adjectives

[59]

A small number of adjectives that appear very frequently are irregular not just insofar as the morphology of each declension is concerned, but also with regard to the combination of declension-types.

a/ The two most frequent ones are:

```
\psi μέγας, μεγάλη, μέγα BIG, LARGE \psi πολύς, πολλή, πολύ MUCH \diamondsuit In plural, MANY
```

Although in nominative and accusative they look like adjectives of the 3-1-3 type, in fact they belong to the 2-1-2 type, but instead of the expected $-o\varsigma$, $-\eta$, -ov adjective forms we find some irregularities in the masculine and neuter *singular* inflection, while the plural forms are completely regular.

The irregularities are highlighted in *italics* in the following charts:

		sing.			plural	
	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	μέγας μεγάλε μέγαν μεγάλου μεγάλφ	μεγάλη μεγάλη μεγάλην μεγάλης μεγάλη	μέγα μέγα μέγα μεγάλου μεγάλφ	μεγάλοι μεγάλους μεγάλους μεγάλους	μεγάλαι μεγάλαι μεγάλας μεγάλων μεγάλαις	μεγάλα μεγάλα μεγάλον μεγάλοις
	I	sing.		İ	plural	
	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter

b/ There are two other adjectives that are not irregular in their inflection, but present some unusual combination of declension-type: they are of the *3-1-3 type*, but they do not look like -vç, -εια, -v.

These adjectives are:

↓ μέλας, μέλαινα, μέλαν↓ τάλας, τάλαινα, τάλανUNHAPPY

48 ADJECTIVES

	sing.			plural			
	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter	
Nom. Voc. Acc. Gen. Dat.	μέλας μέλας μέλαν μέλανος μέλανι	μέλαινα μέλαινα μέλαιναν μελαίνης μελαίνη	μέλαν μέλαν μέλαν μέλανος μέλανι	μέλανες μέλανες μέλανας μελάνων μέλασι	μέλαιναι μέλαιναι μελαίνας μελαινῶν μελαίναις	μέλανα μέλανα μέλανα μελάνων μέλασι	

τάλας τάλαινα, τάλαν declines in the same way.

c/ In the category of irregular adjectives we can include some other ones that are not declined irregularly but either have only one set of endings for the three genders, or can be only masculine or only feminine. The most common ones are:

```
    Ψ ἄπαις, -αιδος CHILDLESS
    Ψ πένης, -ητος POOR
    Ψ ἄρπαξ, -αγος RAPACIOUS
    Ψ μάκαρ, -αρος HAPPY
    Ψ Έλληνίς, -ίδος GREEK ♦ Only in fem.
```

5. Position of the adjective

[61]

1/ The adjective in Greek is usually placed between the article and the noun it agrees with, like in English:

- ὁ ἀγαθὸς πολίτης THE GOOD CITIZEN
 - \diamondsuit If we had written \dot{o} πολίτης ἀγαθός (or ἀγαθὸς \dot{o} πολίτης), it would mean The CITIZEN IS GOOD, with the elided verbal form ἐστί to be supplied.

However, a small number of adjectives that convey special meanings may give a different sense to the sentence according to their position, as shown in the following examples:

- τὸ μέσον ὄρος THE MIDDLE MOUNTAIN, THE MOUNTAIN IN THE MIDDLE
 - ♦ The mountain that is in the middle of a row of several mountains, for instance.
 - τὸ ὄρος μέσον THE MIDDLE OF THE MOUNTAIN.
 - ♦ The area between the base and the summit.
- τὸ ἀκρὸν οἴκημα THE HIGH BUILDING
- τὸ οἴκημα ἀκρόν THE HIGH PART OF THE BUILDING

[♦] For practical reasons, they could be considered almost like nouns rather than adjectives.

2/ Another use of leaving the adjective outside the group *article + noun* is the description of the noun by itself rather than differentiating it from others. Observe this example:

- ὁ παῖς τοὺς ποδὰς μικροὺς ἔχει The child has small feet.
 - ♦ Literally, it says The CHILD HAS THE FEET SMALL, as if answering to the question How does he have them?
- But if we write ὁ παῖς τοὺς μικροὺς ποδὰς ἔχει we would be saying something as strange as
 The CHILD HAS THE SMALL FEET, as if of several pairs of feet he had taken the small ones and somebody else had taken the big ones.

Two more examples:

- ὁ ᾿Αχιλλεὺς τῆ ἔχθρα μεγάλη μάχεται Achilles fights with strong hatred.
 - ♦ Literally, it says Achilles ATTACKS WITH THE HATRED STRONG, as if answering the question With which kind of hatred does he attack?
 - Maybe a better-sounding free translation could be Achilles Fights with a hatred that is really strong.
 - But if we write ὁ ᾿Αχιλλεὺς τῆ μεγάλη ἔχθρα μάχεται with the adjective inside the article + noun group, we would be saying something as strange as ACHILLES FIGHTS WITH THE STRONG HATRED, as if there were another hatred, a weak one, which he is not using.
- ἡ κόρη τὴν ἀγαθὴν βίβλον ἔγραψεν ΤΗΕ GIRL WROTE THE GOOD BOOK.
 - ♦ As if specifying from a group of books: good ones, bad ones, etc.
 - ♦ But if we leave the adjective outside the *article + noun* group, ἡ κόρη ἀγαθὴν τὴν βίβλον ἔγραψεν will mean The BOOK THAT THE GIRL WROTE WAS (Or IS) GOOD.

e) Numeral adjectives

To present all of the numeral adjectives would exceed the purpose of this grammar, so we present here those that the student is more liable to find.

1. Cardinals [62]

a/ The cardinals from 1 to 20 are:

1	εἷς, μία, ἕν	8	ὀκτώ	15	πεντεκαίδεκα
2	δύο	9	έννέα	16	έκκαίδεκα
3	τρεῖς, τρία	10	δέκα	17	ἑπτακαίδεκα
4	τέτταρες, τέτταρα	11	ἔνδεκα	18	όκτωκαίδεκα
5	πέντε	12	δώδεκα	19	έννεακαίδεκα
6	ἕξ	13	τρεῖς (τρία) καὶ δέκα	20	εἴκοσι(ν)
7	é ma és	14	πέππαρες (πέππαρα) καὶ δένα		

7 έπτά 14 τέτταρες (τέτταρα) καὶ δέκα

b/ Only the cardinals 1, 2, 3 and 4 can be declined, the rest are indeclinable. The declension of these four numbers is as follows:

	ONE		TWO THREE		FOUR			
	masc.	fem.	neuter	all genders	masc./fem.	neuter	masc./fem.	neuter
Nom. Acc. Gen. Dat.	εἷς ἕνα ἑνός ἑνί	μία μίαν μιᾶς μιᾶ	ἕν ἕν ἑνός ἑνί	δύο δύο δυοῖν δυοῖν	τρεῖς τρεῖς τριῶν τρισί(ν)	τρία τρία τριῶν τρισί(ν)	τέτταρες τέτταρας τεττάρων τέτταρσι(ν)	τέτταρα τέτταρα τεττάρων τέτταρσι(ν)

[♦] Observe that one follows a *3-1-3* scheme. Two follows an independent scheme, and THREE and FOUR follow the 3rd declension.

The adjective οὐδείς, οὐδεμία, οὐδέν (and the corresponding μηδείς etc.) NO ONE, NOBODY, NOTHING is declined like εἶς, μία, εν:

• οὐδεὶς ἄνθρωπος ἦλθε χθές
 • οὐδεὶς ἦλθε χθές
 Νο man came yesterday.
 • Νοβορίς came yesterday.

• οὐδένα εἶδον I SAW NOBODY.

c/ From here on, 20, 30, etc. are as follows:

30 τριάκοντα 60 ἑξήκοντα 80 ὀγδοήκοντα 40 τετταράκοντα 70 ἑβδομήκοντα 90 ἐνενήκοντα

50 πεντήκοντα

When we have to form a compound number, for instance EIGHTY-FIVE, we have these options:

[64]

- ↓ ὀγδοήκοντα καὶ πέντε
- ↓ ὀγδοήκοντα πέντε

If the compound number has the cardinals 1, 2, 3 or 4, any of these four is declined:

• ὁρῶ εἴκοσι καὶ τέτταρας οἰκίας I see twenty-four houses.

• ὤκησεν ἐν εἴκοσι καὶ τρισὶ χώραις He lived in twenty-three countries.

d/ From 100 on, they are as follows:

100 ἑκατόν	400 τετρακόσιοι, -αι, -α	700 έπτακόσιοι, -αι, -α
200 διακόσιοι, -αι, -α	500 πεντακόσιοι, -αι, -α	800 ὀκτακόσιοι, -αι, -α
300 τριακόσιοι, -αι, -α	600 έξακόσιοι, -αι, -α	900 ένακόσιοι, -αι, -α

 $[\]diamondsuit$ Observe that from 200 on they are declined following the 2-1-2 scheme, but 100 is indeclinable.

e/ Into the thousands:

1,000 χίλιοι, -αι, -α 3,000 τρισχίλιοι, -αι, -α 5,000 πεντακισχίλιοι, -αι, -α 2,000 δισχίλιοι, -αι, -α 4,000 τετρακισχίλιοι, -αι, -α and so on

 \diamond Observe that they are formed with the multiplicatives that can be found further down in Point 3.

f/ Reaching the ten thousand:

10,000 μύριοι, -αι, -α

Notes

 $1/\mu\nu\rho$ ίοι, -αι, -α (observe the difference in accent) means countless.

2/ There is also the substantive μυριάς, -άδος ή MYRIAD (10,000): δύο μυριάδες = 20,000.

g/ Some examples:

- ἀφίκετο Τισσαφέρνης πρὸς αὐτον ἄγων **ἕνα** τῶν ἱερέων Tissaphernes came to him bringing one of the priests (Plutarch, *Artaxerxes*).
- καὶ Κύρῳ παρῆσαν αἱ ἐκ Πελοποννήσου νῆες τριάκοντα καὶ πέντε And the thirty-five ships from the Peloponnesos arrived for Cyrus (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

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• ἐντεῦθεν ἐξελαύνει σταθμοὺς δύο παρασάγγας δέκα From there he advances ten parasangs in two stages (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

- ἐψηφίσαντο ὁπλίτας τε αὐτὸν καταλέξασθαι χιλίους, ἱππέας δὲ ἐκατόν, τριήρεις δὲ πεντήκοντα Τhey voted that he could take one thousand hoplites, one hundred cavalry men and fifty triremes (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- •... τὸν Ψάρον ποταμόν, οὖ ἦν τὸ εὖρος τρία πλέθρα ... The RIVER PSAROS, WHOSE WIDTH WAS THREE PLETHRA (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- •... ἔχων ναὖς ἐτέρας Κύρου πέντε καὶ εἴκοσιν ... WITH TWENTY-FIVE MORE SHIPS OF CYRUS (Xenophon, Anabasis).
- παρῆν δὲ καὶ Χειρίσοφος ... ἐπτακοσίους ἔχων ὁπλίτας Also Cheirisophus was there ... with seven hundred hoplites (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἀποστάντες ἦλθον παρὰ Κὖρον, τετρακόσιοι ὁπλῖται Rebelling, four hundred hoplites went over to Cyrus (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἐντεῦθεν ἐξελαύνει σταθμοὺς ... τρισκαίδεκα παρασάγγας ἐνενήκοντα FROM THERE HE ADVANCES NINETY PARASANGS IN THIRTEEN STAGES (Xenophon, Anabasis).

2. Ordinals [65]

The ordinals are adjectives that follow the 2-1-2 scheme:

πρῶτος, -η, -ον	FIRST	πέμπτος, -η, -ον	FIFTH	ὄγδοος, -η, -ον	EIGHTH
δεύτερος, -α, -ον	SECOND	ἕκτος, -η, -ον	SIXTH	ἔνατος, -η, -ον	NINETH
τρίτος, -η, -ον	THIRD	ἕβδομος, -η, -ον	SEVENTH	δέκατος, -η, -ον	TENTH
τέταρτος, -η, -ον	FOURTH				

 $[\]diamond$ Note that δεύτερος is the only ordinal that follows the alpha declension in the feminine.

To define a year, the ordinal, not the cardinal, is used:

• τὸ δισχιλιοστὸν ἔτος THE YEAR TWO THOUSAND ("THE TWO THOUSANDTH YEAR")

Some examples:

- καὶ ἀφικνοῦνται ἐπὶ τὸ ὄρος τῆ πέμπτη ἡμέρα And they arrived at the mountain on the fifth day (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- τῆ δὲ τετάρτη ἦκον οἱ τῶν πολεμίων ἱππεῖς On the fourth day the cavalrymen of the enemy arrived (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- ἡμέρᾳ πέμπτη ἢ ἕκτη καὶ δεκάτη ... διεπορεύθη ... ἑξήκοντα καὶ ἑκατὸν στάδια On the fifteenth or sixteenth day ... he travelled ... one-hundred and sixty stades (Xenophon, Hellenica).

3. Multiplicatives [66]

a/ These are not very frequent, but it would be worth knowing the following:

διπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν DOUBLE τριπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν TRIPLE \diamondsuit Note that they belong to the category of contract τετραπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν QUADRUPLE adjectives (also of the *2-1-2 scheme*). etc.

b/ Although they are not adjectives, it is not superfluous to include these multiplicative adverbs here:

ἄπαξ	ONCE	πεντάκις	FIVE TIMES
δίς	TWICE	έξάκις	SIX TIMES
τρίς	THRICE	πολλάκις	MANY TIMES
τετράκις	FOUR TIMES		

💠 Note the expression ἄπαξ λεγόμενα: words that appears only once – a useful expression when studying Homer.

 \diamond Observe that, from $\delta i\varsigma$ onwards, we have used them in Point 1 to form the thousands.

Here are some examples:

- καὶ δὶς μὲν ἢ τρὶς ἀπεκρούσαντο And Twice or thrice they rejected [them] (Thucydides, Historiae).
- ούχ ἄπαξ ... μέμνηται αὐτῆς, ἀλλὰ πολλάκις Not once ... he remembers her, but many times (Lucian, *Muscae Encomium*).
- δαρεικὸν ἕκαστος οἴσει τοῦ μηνὸς ὑμῶν, λοχαγὸς δὲ τὸ διπλοῦν, στρατηγὸς δὲ τὸ τετραπλοῦν ΕΑCH ONE OF YOU WILL OBTAIN A DARICOS PER MONTH, A CAPTAIN DOUBLE, AND A GENERAL QUADRUPLE (Xenophon, Anabasis).

f) Comparative and superlative

1. General observations [67]

Usually, when the concept of *comparative* degree of adjectives is mentioned, the first type that springs to mind is the comparative of superiority (*taller than...*); however, both in English and in Greek, there is another type of comparative, which will be introduced in this chapter: the comparative of inferiority (*less tall than...*).

To construct their comparative and superlative forms, adjectives must follow one of the two paradigms presented below. It is important to understand that it is not a matter of choice, but it is part of each specific adjective's morphology to follow one of the two systems; moreover, please remember that there is no correlation between the comparative system followed by an adjective and the adjective's own class: in other words, you will find adjectives belonging to the same class that will use two different systems to form their comparative degrees, as well as adjectives belonging to different classes that follow the same paradigm with regard to comparative forms.

2. Accidence

a) First paradigm: -ότερος / -ότατος

[68]

1/ Standard formation:

a/ Comparative. Most adjectives form the comparative of superiority by adding the following suffixes to the stem:

Examples:

```
\psi ὑψηλός, -ή, -όν high ὑψηλότερος, -α, -ον higher \psi χαλεπός, -ή, -όν difficult χαλεπότερος, -α, -ον more difficult
```

In the previous examples, you will have noted that the first case featured a short omicron ($-\acute{o}\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma\varsigma$) while in the second case the vowel was lengthened into an omega ($-\acute{o}\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma\varsigma$). There is a specific rule, with few exceptions, commanding this phenomenon:

- π If the vowel of the previous syllable is short, then the omicron is lengthened into an omega.
- μ If the vowel of the syllable preceding the suffix is long (for instance, the vowel η or a diphthong or any vowel followed by two consonants, which makes it long) then the omicron remains omicron.

b/ Superlative. Adjectives that inflect their comparatives in -ότερος, -οτέρα, -ότερον form the superlative degree by adding the following suffixes:

```
-ότατος, -οτάτη, -ότατον
```

These suffixes are subject to the same rule explained above with regard to the choice between omicron/omega.

Examples:

2/ Other ways of formation:

Both regarding comparatives and superlatives, there are several cases in which the regular form explained above is modified (although some Classical authors retain the regular forms). The most common altered comparative forms are reported in the following list:

🗖 -τερος, -τατος

Some adjectives drop the -o-:

Ψ γεραῖος AGED: γεραίτερος
 ΝΟΤ γεραιότερος
 ΝΟΤ βραχότερος
 Ψ μέλας
 ΒLΑCΚ: μελάντερος (genitive μέλαν-ος)
 ΝΟΤ μελανότερος
 ΝΟΤ μελανότερος

The superlatives are formed accordingly: $\beta \rho \alpha \chi \acute{\upsilon} \tau \alpha \tau o \varsigma$, etc.

-αίτερος, -αίτατος

Some adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding the altered suffix -αίτερος, -αίτατος:

- **Ψ ήσυχος** QUIET: ἡσυχαίτερος, ΝΟΤ ἡσυχώτερος
 - Note: There is also the adjective ἡσυχαῖος, and it could be argued that ἡσυχαίτερος comes from it after losing the omicron.
- ψ φίλος FRIENDLY: φιλαίτερος (sometimes also φίλτερος), NOT φιλώτερος
 - \Leftrightarrow Example: $\tilde{\omega}$ φίλτατ' Αἴας Ο ΑΙΑΧ, MY DEAREST! (Sophocles, Aiax).
- **Ψ μέσος** ΜΙΟΟΙΕ: **μεσαίτερος**, ΝΟΤ μεσώτερος

Note

The coincidence in the ending $-\alpha$ iτερος with some of the former section like γεραίτερος is due to the fact that those like γεραῖος happen to have a stem ending in $-\alpha$ i. (γεραῖ-ος), it is not the $-\alpha$ i- of the suffix $-\alpha$ iτερος.

🗖 -έστερος, -έστατος

The adjectives belonging to the *second class* (adjectives *3-3*) form their comparative and superlative form by using the suffix -έστερος -έστατος:

```
\psi άληθής, -ές TRUTHFUL (and all the adjectives of this type -ης, -ες): άληθέστερος
```

Ψ εὐδαίμων, -ov BLESSED (and all the adjectives of this type -ων, -ov): εὐδαιμονέστερος

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Note that, as far as adjectives like εὐδαίμων are concerned, the -εσ- is added as part of the suffix but on the contrary, with regard to adjectives like ἀληθής, the group -εσ- is already part of the stem of the adjective and consequently only the endings -τερος, -τατος are added to the stem. The final aesthetical result, anyway, looks like the comparative form of εὐδαίμων.

x Two points should be mentioned:

- 1/ χαρίεις GRACEFUL, an adjective of the 3rd class (*3-1-3 scheme*), also uses this suffix and becomes χαριέστερος.

 \$\diamoldarrow\$ The stem of the adjective is χαρίεντ-, but it is not used to form the comparative.
- **2/** Contract adjectives use the ending -έστερος as well but, after the contraction, the final form of the ending will be -ούστερος, -ούστατος, as in the following example: ἀπλοῦς SIMPLE: ἀπλούστερος (<ἀπλοέστερος).

b) Second paradigm: -ίων / -ιστος

[69]

1/ A small group of very common adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees by using a different set of suffixes and are declined following the 3^{rd} declension (like $\sigma\acute{\omega}\phi\rho\omega\nu$). In some cases, these adjectives feature two alternative forms, resulting from the loss of intervocalic - ν - followed by the contraction of the remaining vowels. In fact, the contract forms are much more frequent than the non-contract ones.

The comparative form sweeter, from the adjective $\dot{\eta}\delta\dot{v}\varsigma$, $-\tilde{\epsilon}i\alpha$, $-\dot{v}$ sweet, inflects as follows:

	singulaı	r	plural			
	masc./fem	neuter	masc./fem	neuter		
Acc. Gen.	ἡδίων ἡδίων ἠδίονα - ἡδίω ἠδίονος ἠδίονι	ἥδιον ἡδίονος	ἠδίονες - ἡδίους ἠδίονες - ἡδίους ἠδίονας - ἡδίους ἡδιόνων ἠδίοσι(ν)	ἡδίονα - ἡδίω ἡδίονα - ἡδίω ἡδίονα - ἡδίω ἡδιόνων ἡδίοσι(ν)		

Note

The alternative contract forms CANNOT be applied to normal adjectives like $\sigma \acute{\omega} \phi \rho \omega \nu$, but only to comparatives that follow this paradigm.

The superlative form is ἤδιστος, -η, -ον, which declines normally as any 2-1-2 adjective.

2/ This kind of adjectives, however, features very often some remarkable modifications in their stems (for instance, losing the $-\iota$ - of the suffix $-\iota\omega v$ in the comparatives). Sometimes a completely different stem is supplied in order to form the comparative and superlative forms. The most frequent adjectives of this kind are the following ones:

positive	comparative	superlative
αἰσχρός SHAMEFUL	αἰσχίων	αἴσχιστος
έχθρός ΕΝΕΜΥ	έχθίων	ἔχθιστος
καλός ΝΙCΕ	καλλίων	κάλλιστος
μέγας BIG	μείζων	μέγιστος
μικρός LITTLE	μείων	μεῖστος 💠 but also the regular version μικρότερος – μικρότατος
ὀλίγος FEW	έλάττων	ἐλάχιστος
πολύς ΜυζΗ	πλείων / πλέων	πλεῖστος \diamondsuit οἱ πλεῖστοι MOST PEOPLE
ῥάδιος ΕΑSY	ῥάων	ρ҅α҈στος
ταχύς QUICK	θάττων	τάχιστος

3/ There are two adjectives, $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{o}\varsigma$ GOOD and $\kappa\alpha\kappa\dot{o}\varsigma$ BAD, that have different comparative and superlative forms according to the meaning that the writer intends to convey:

√ ἀγαθός

meaning GOOD or VALIANT: ἀμείνων, ἄριστος
meaning HONEST OR VIRTUOUS: βελτίων, βέλτιστος
meaning STRONG: κρείττων, κράτιστος

√ κακός

meaning BAD: κακίων, κάκιστος or χείρων, χείριστος meaning weak: ἡττων ♦ There is no superlative form.

3. Syntax

a) The basic construction

[70]

1/ In the first place, remember that comparative and superlative forms are, grammatically speaking, adjectives and therefore must be employed following the rules we have previously given in the relevant section on Adjectives (e.g. in agreement with the noun it refers to, etc.):

ἔχω σοφοὺς φίλους I have wise friends.
 σὺ ἔχεις σοφωτέρους φίλους You have wiser friends.

- **2/** There are two ways of expressing the second term of comparison of an adjective. For example, in order to translate the sentence I have a TEACHER WISER THAN THE GENERAL, the main part can be translated as follows:
 - ἔχω διδάσκαλον **σοφώτερον** ... I have a teacher wiser ...

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The second term of the comparison (... THAN THE GENERAL) can be expressed in two alternative ways:

- ↓ In genitive: ἔχω διδάσκαλον σοφώτερον τοῦ στρατηγοῦ.

Examples:

- ἐπεχείρουν ... ἐρωτᾶν ὁπότερος δικαιότερος καὶ σοφώτερος αὐτῶν εἴη ΤΗΕΥ TRIED ΤΟ ASK WHICH ONE OF THE TWO WAS MORE JUST AND WISER (Plato, Lysis).
- ὁ ἐπίτροπος ὁ ἐμὸς **βελτίων** ἐστὶ καὶ **σοφώτερος ἢ Περικλῆς ὁ σός**Than Pericles, who is yours (Plato, *Alcibiades*).

 MY ADMINISTRATOR IS BETTER AND WISER

¤ It is very common to express a stronger degree of superiority by means of the adjective π o $\lambda\lambda$ $\tilde{\omega}$ ву мисн:

- οὖτοι οἱ ναῦται πολλῷ βελτίονές εἰσιν ἢ οἱ Πέρσαι These sailors are much better ("better by much") Than the Persians.
- 3/ The superlative can be used by itself (known as absolute superlative) meaning VERY + adjective:
 - γιγνώσκω παλαιτάτην πόλιν Ι KNOW A VERY ANCIENT CITY.

If we use a superlative adjective together with a second term of comparison, it will mean the most + adjective. In this case, the second term will be expressed in genitive, as happened with comparatives (even though some Classical authors put the preposition $\grave{\epsilon}_{\mathbf{K}}$ before the genitive as well). This construction is called *relative superlative*, because the superlative is conceived in relationship with other elements having the same quality. Let's see a couple of examples:

- ὁ ἐμὸς ἀδελφὸς ὑψηλότατος (ἐκ) πάντων τῶν μαθητῶν ἐστιν ΜΥ BROTHER IS THE TALLEST OF ALL THE STUDENTS.
- οὖτος ὑμῶν, ὧ ἄνθρωποι, σοφώτατός ἐστιν This one, ο Men, is the Wisest of All of You (Plato, Apologia).

4/ In order to compare two adjectives, both adjectives must be expressed in the comparative form:

- ὁ Σωκράτης ἀνδρειότερος ἢ ἐνδοζότερός ἐστιν Socrates is more courageous than famous.
- ♦ Literally, MORE COURAGEOUS THAN MORE FAMOUS.
- σοφώτερος ἢ ἀμαθέστερος δοκεῖ εἶναι

HE SEEMS TO BE MORE WISE THAN IGNORANT (Plato, Respublica).

b) Further observations

[71]

1/ Additional meanings of the comparative adjectives:

In addition to meaning MORE ..., the comparative form of an adjective can mean also RATHER + adj. or TOO + adj. For instance:

- οὖτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος γεραίτερός ἐστιν This man is too old.
- ὁ στρατηγὸς **σοφώτερός** ἐστιν The general is rather wise.

Underlying this use of the comparative form, there is the idea that the quality expressed by the adjective appears *more* than what one would expect. Therefore the context will indicate which is the best way to translate this feeling, by employing RATHER or TOO.

2/ Comparative with a number:

When the second term of comparison is represented by a number, the $\mathring{\eta}$ is not always expressed:

• ἔχομεν οὐ πλέον πεντήκοντα τριήρεις We have no more than fifty triremes.

$3/\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ + superlative:

If the particle $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ appears just before a superlative, then the sense of the superlative is enhanced, conveying the meaning As ... AS POSSIBLE. Compare and contrast the following examples:

- ὁ διδάσκαλος σοφώτατός ἐστιν The teacher is very wise / the wisest.

 ὁ διδάσκαλος ὡς σοφώτατός ἐστιν The teacher is the wisest possible / as wise as one can possibly be.
- δεῖ ... ἄπαντα ἄνδρα οὕτως παρασκευάζεσθαι, ὅπως ὡς σοφώτατος ἔσται ΕΑCH MAN MUST PREPARE HIMSELF SO AS TO BE AS WISE AS POSSIBLE (Plato, Euthydemus).

This construction is also used with superlative adverbs (cf. further explanation in the relevant chapter):

- ὁ στρατιώτης ἀνδρειότατα ἐμαχέσατο The soldier fought very bravely. ὁ στρατιώτης ὡς ἀνδρειότατα ἐμαχέσατο The soldier fought as bravely as possible.
- ἔπειθον αὐτοὺς ἡγεῖσθαι ὡς τάχιστα εἰς τὴν Λ ακωνικήν They persuaded them to lead them to Laconia as quickly as possible (Xenophon, Hellenica).

 \upmu Sometimes the particle $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ can be substituted by $\mathring{o}\pi$ and, rarely, by $\H{\eta}.$

4/ Idioms meaning *more than the average, more than there is need to*:

One way of translating the sentence Socrates is wiser than average is the following:

• ὁ Σωκράτης σοφώτερός ἐστι τοῦ μετρίου.

But we can also translate it in this other way:

• ὁ Σωκράτης σοφότερός ἐστι τοῦ δέοντος (Literally, ...wiser than is necessary).

Let's see an example by Isocrates:

• πλείους τοὺς πολέμους ἐποιούμεθα τοῦ δέοντος We have waged more wars than necessary (Isocrates, *Archidamus*).

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c) Other comparative/superlative constructions

[72]

A small number of adjectives do not form their comparative and superlative degrees by employing the regular suffixes (except in very late writers); therefore, in order to express these grammatical functions, the adverbs $\mu\tilde{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\sigma v$ more and $\mu\acute{\alpha}\lambda\iota\sigma\tau\alpha$ most are used in association with the positive adjective.

δῆλος, -η, -ον EVIDENT ϕ δηλότερος is not frequent. ϕ δηλότετα δῆλος MOST EVIDENT, VERY EVIDENT ϕ δηλότατος is not frequent.

d) Comparative and superlative of inferiority

The comparative and superlative of inferiority are expressed using adverbs: $\tilde{\eta}\tau\tau\sigma\nu$ LESS, and $\tilde{\eta}\kappa\iota\sigma\tau\alpha$ LEAST in conjunction with the positive adjective [cf. the previous Point c)]:

• ὁ πατὴρ ἦττον σοφός ἐστιν ἢ ὁ διδάσκαλος

The father is less wise than the teacher.

• ὁ πατὴρ ἤκιστα σοφός ἐστιν τῶν ἐν τῇ νήσφ ἀνθρώπων The father is the least wise of the men on the island.

In the following example, Aeschines is about to make a quotation from Euripides and he characterises the latter in this way:

• ὁ τοίνυν οὐδενὸς ἦττον σοφὸς τῶν ποιητῶν Εὐριπίδης ... λέγει που ... Euripides, in comparison with whom no other poet is wiser, ... says somewhere: ... (Aeschines, *In Timarchum*).

g) Pronouns

Introductory note: many of the pronouns presented in this chapter are adjectives in origin, but as a general rule they are referred to as *pronouns*, grammatically speaking. So if they accompany a noun, they are to be treated as adjectives (for instance, ὁρῶ τοῦτον τὸν ἄνδρα I SEE THIS MAN) but, if they appear alone, they are to be considered as pronouns (for instance, ὁρῶ τοῦτον I SEE THIS ONE). For this reason in some of the following explanations both the terms *adjective* and *pronoun* are used indistinctly. In some cases, nevertheless, they can only be pronouns, as for instance in the case of personal pronouns *we*, *you*, etc.

1. Demonstrative pronouns

[73]

a) Accidence

There are three demonstrative pronouns (also called *deictic pronouns*) in Greek:

Ψ οὖτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο
 ΤΗΙS
 Ψ ὄδε, ἤδε, τόδε
 ΤΗΙS
 Ψ ἐκεῖνος, ἐκείνη, ἐκεῖνο
 ΤΗΑΤ

In keeping with the grammar of adjectives, these are declined in singular or plural, masculine, feminine or neuter forms. These adjectives decline approximately following the paradigm provided by $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\alpha}\varsigma$, $\dot{-}\dot{\eta}$, $\dot{-}\dot{\alpha}v$. As usual, if the adjective accompanies a noun, they will agree in gender, case and number.

🗖 οὖτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο

	singular			plural		
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Gen.	τούτου	ταύτης	τοῦτο τοῦτο τούτου τούτῳ	τούτων	τούτων	τούτων

Learn carefully the use of -ου- and -αυ- in the feminine and neuter plural forms. A typical mistake is to write for instance $\tau \alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \omega \nu$ instead of the correct form $\tau \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu} \tau \omega \nu$ in the feminine genitive plural case, because it is similar to the feminine singular $\tau \dot{\alpha} \dot{\nu} \tau \tau \omega \nu$. Note as well that the neuter plural form is not $\tau \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu} \tau \tau \omega \nu$. Be also careful about the similarities between the two feminine forms beginning with $\alpha \dot{\nu} \tau$ - and some forms of $\alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu}$, - $\dot{\nu}$ as well, especially because of the morphological features resulting from contractions between opening vowel and article (e.g. $\alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \dot{\eta} \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu} \dot{\tau}$), as both forms present initial rough breathing marks.

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In this pronoun it is very frequent to find an additional $-\mathbf{i}$, called *deictic iota*, added as a suffix (e.g. $\mathbf{o}\mathbf{\hat{v}}\mathbf{vo}\mathbf{\hat{v}}\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{e}\mathbf{\hat{v}}\mathbf{v}$, etc.) to emphasise the meaning of the pronoun, meaning THIS ONE HERE (almost as if pointing at the person or object with one's finger):

• ὁ ἀνὴρ οὑτοσί This very man here

λέγε μοι ταυτί Tell me these very things (Demosthenes, De Corona).

🗖 ὄδε, ἥδε, τόδε

		singular		plural		
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Nom. Acc. Gen. Dat.	τοῦδε	ἥδε τήνδε τῆσδε τῆδε	τόδε τόδε τοῦδε τῷδε	οἴδε τούσδε τῶνδε τοῖσδε	τῶνδε	τάδε τάδε τῶνδε τοῖσδε

 \diamond As can be easily noticed, this pronoun is formed by the definite article and the particle $-\delta \varepsilon$ (which in this case has nothing to do with the particle $\delta \varepsilon$ AND).

🗖 ἐκεῖνος, ἐκείνη, ἐκεῖνο

		singular		plural		
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Acc. Gen.	ἐκεῖνον ἐκείνου	έκείνην έκείνης	ėkeivo ėkeivov	ἐκείνους ἐκείνων	ἐκεῖναι ἐκείνας ἐκείνων ἐκείναις	έκεῖνα έκείνων

b) Syntax [74]

1/ Position in the sentence:

When demonstrative pronouns agree with nouns, it is necessary to use a definite article to accompany the noun and the demonstrative pronoun must be placed outside the group *article + noun*. For example, THESE WOMEN can be translated into Greek as αὖται αὐται αὐται αὐται γυναῖκες οι αὖται γυναῖκες οι αὖται γυναῖκες οι αὖται γυναῖκες. Let's now look at an example from Xenophon:

• δῶρον δὲ καὶ αὖται αἱ πόλεις ἦσαν παρὰ βασιλέως These cities as well were a present from the king (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

2/ Difference οὖτος/ὄδε:

Both $o\tilde{b}\tau o\varsigma$ and $\delta\delta\varepsilon$ mean THIS; nevertheless, $o\tilde{b}\tau o\varsigma$ is used in reference to something which was already mentioned or is supposed to be already known by the reader:

• ὁ Σωκράτης τοὺς νεανίας διδάσκει· τοῦτον δὲ οἱ πολῖται φιλοῦσιν Socrates teaches the young boys: the citizens love him.

On the other hand, $\delta\delta\epsilon$ is rather used in reference to something which is about to be mentioned:

• οἴδε εἰσιν οἱ στρατηγοί· ὁ Περικλῆς καὶ ὁ Σωκράτης καὶ ὁ ᾿Αλκιβιάδης These are the generals: Pericles, Socrates and Alcibiades.

To put it concisely: $o\tilde{b}\tau o\varsigma$ "looks backwards" and $\delta\delta\varepsilon$ "looks forwards".

- ταῦτα δ' εἰπὼν ... ἡσυχίαν εἶγε Having said this, he kept quiet (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- ἐκκλησίαν ἀθροίσας τῶν Μιλησίων τάδε εἶπεν Ἐμοὶ μέν, ὧ Μιλήσιοι, ... Having gathered the assembly, he said these words: Το me, ο Milesians, ... (Xenophon, Hellenica).

3/ Use of demonstrative adjectives as pronouns:

[75]

a/ As all adjectives, demonstratives can be used on their own (i.e. without accompanying a name). In this case, the gender of the adjectives will indicate its referent. For example:

ὁρῶ τούτους
 ἱρῶ ταύτας
 ἱςΕΕ ΤΗΕSΕ ONES (masculine objects, such as boys, men, etc.).
 ἱςΕΕ ΤΗΕSΕ ONES (feminine objects, such as girls, women, etc.).
 καὶ Φαρνάβαζος μὲν τούτους ἦγεν
 ΑΝΟ PHARNABAZOS LED THESE ONES (Xenophon, Hellenica).

b/ It is very common to find demonstrative pronouns in neuter forms, where they stand for abstract concepts or imply a neuter object, as in the following examples:

ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπε τάδε:
 Socrates said these things (i.e. these words or just this).

• φιλοῦμεν τοῦτο We love this.

♦ This last object can be a concept, an activity, etc., since it is neuter.

• ταῦτα μὲν ἔστιν οὕτως, ὧ Σώκρατες (These) things are in this way, Socrates (Plato, *Cratylus*).

c/ Sometimes, instead of using the neuter form $\tau o \tilde{v} \tau o$, the demonstrative pronoun can anticipate the gender of the following attribute. Therefore, in order to translate This is the salvation for the city, rather than writing

τοῦτό ἐστιν ἡ τῆς πόλεως σωτηρία,

it is equally possible to use the feminine form, as follows:

αύτη ἐστὶν ἡ τῆς πόλεως σωτηρία.

Let's look at an example of this phenomenon in Plato:

• οὐχ αὕτη ἐστὶν ἡ τῶν λογοποιῶν τέχνη This is not the craft of speechwriters (Plato, Euthydemus).

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4/ Demonstrative pronouns do not have vocative forms:

While $\delta\delta\varepsilon$ and $\dot{\varepsilon}\kappa\tilde{\varepsilon}\iota vo\varsigma$ cannot be used to address someone, the missing vocative form of $o\tilde{v}\iota vo\varsigma$ is substituted by the nominative, as shown in the following example:

• $o\tilde{b}\tau o\varsigma$, $\tau i \pi oiei\varsigma$; You, what are you doing?

2. Personal pronouns

[76]

a) Accidence

	singular		Р	lural	
	I	you	we	you	
Nom.	έγώ	σύ	ἡμεῖς	ὑμεῖς	مراج والمحام المحام المحارب والماران والماران
Voc. Acc.	 ἐμέ / με	σύ σέ / σε	 ἡμᾶς	ὑμεῖς ὑμᾶς	♦ It will be noticed that there is no personal pronoun for the 3 rd person,
Gen.	έμοῦ/μου	σοῦ / σου	ἡμῶν	ὑμῶν	either in singular or in plural.
Dat.	έμοί / μοι	σοί / σοι	ήμῖν	ὑμῖν	

Unaccented forms, also known as *enclitic* forms, are never used after a preposition or as the opening word of a sentence:

πρὸς σὲ βαίνω Ι AM WALKING TOWARDS YOU.

 \Rightarrow **πρός σε** βαίνω would be wrong.

Moreover, accented forms are used when we want to emphasize the pronoun:

• βούλονται ἀποκτείνειν με ΤΗΕΥ WANT ΤΟ KILL ME.

• βούλονται ἀποκτείνειν οὐ σὲ ἀλλὰ ἐμέ ΤΗΕΥ WANT ΤΟ KILL NOT YOU BUT ME.

b) Syntax [77]

1/ The nominative form of personal pronouns is used only to emphasise the subject of an action, for example in order to highlight a contrast with someone else's action, as in the following example:

- ἐγὰ μὲν πονᾶ, σὰ δὲ καθεύδεις \Box AM WORKING, WHILE YOU ARE SLEEPING INSTEAD.
- οὐ γάρ πω οὐδ' αὐτὸς ἔγωγε μανθάνω' ὧ Έρμόγενες, σὺ δὲ μανθάνεις; I do not yet understand it myself. Do you, Hermogenes? (Plato, *Cratylus*).

2/ As there is no third personal pronoun in Greek, the oblique cases of $\alpha \dot{v} \tau \dot{o} \varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{o}$ (see this pronoun further down in Point 5) are used to replace it when needed as an object (note that, in this pronoun, the neuter form $\alpha \dot{v} \tau \dot{o}$ loses the final -v). Let's see some examples:

• ὁρῶ αὐτήν I see her.

• δίδωμι τὰς βίβλους αὐταῖς I Give the books to them / I give them the books.

• ἔπεμψαν αὐτοὺς εἰς Λακεδαίμονα ΤΗΕΥ SENT THEM TO LACEDAEMON (Xenophon, Hellenica).

3/ In order to translate a simple subject, such as HE or SHE, it is necessary to use the pronouns \vec{ovvog} THIS ONE and \vec{evvog} THAT ONE. It is not correct to use \vec{avvog} in the nominative case to indicate generally the subject of an action as it has a different meaning, which will be explained further ahead (Point 6, *Identity pronouns*).

3. Possessive adjectives

[78]

a) Accidence

In Greek, there are possessive adjectives for the first and second persons, but not for the third person, in the same way as there are no personal pronouns for the third person.

The existing forms of possessive adjectives, declined following the 2-1-2 scheme, are:

Ψ ἐμός, ἐμή, ἐμόν ΜΥ

 ψ $\sigma \dot{o} \varsigma$, $\sigma \dot{\eta}$, $\sigma \dot{o} v$ Your (sing.)

↓ ἡμέτερος, ἡμετέρα, ἡμέτερον OUR

ψ ὑμέτερος, ὑμετέρα, ὑμέτερον Your (plural)

Examples:

βίβλους δίδωμι τοῖς σοῖς φίλοις
 ἱ ἐμὸς υἱὸς τοὺς στρατιώτας ὁρᾳ
 ἐν τῆ ἡμετέρα οἰκία μένουσιν
 Ι GIVE BOOKS TO YOUR FRIENDS.
 ΜΥ SON SEES THE SOLDIERS.
 ΤΗΕΥ REMAIN IN OUR HOUSE.

• καὶ ὑμεῖς ἐπὶ τὴν ἡμετέραν χώραν ἔρχεσθε And you are marching against our land (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

b) Syntax [79]

1/ If the subject of the sentence is also the person who owns the objects referred to, then the possessive adjective is not used explicitly. For example, if we want to translate into Greek the sentence I GIVE BOOKS TO MY FRIENDS, we would write simply δίδωμι βίβλους τοῖς φίλοις, and it would be clear that the friends were mine. In keeping with this principle, the sentence ὁρᾶς τὸν πατέρα means You see Your FATHER. See the following example:

• ἔξεστί σοι, ὧ νἱέ, σῶσαι τὸν πατέρα Now, my son, you can save your father (Xenophon, Hellenica).

2/ In Greek, possessive adjectives must be preceded by a definite article (like in Italian, *la mia città*, equivalent to the English MY CITY), unless the possessive represents the predicative object of a sentence. Some examples:

• ὁ ἐμὸς πατὴρ ἐκεῖ ἐστιν My father is there.
 • τὴν ἐμὴν μητέρα ὁρῶ I see my mother.

- ἐλάμβανε Θεόφραστος ὁ ἐμὸς πατὴρ τὴν ἐμὴν μητέρα Theophrastus, my father, married my mother (Isaeus, *De Astyphilo*).
- οἱ ἀνδρεῖοι στρατιῶται ἐμοί εἰσιν The brave soldiers are mine.
 - \diamondsuit No article here as $\grave{\epsilon}\mu o \acute{\iota}$ is the predicative object of the sentence.
- τί οὖν; οὐ σός ἐστιν ὁ κύων;
 So what? Isn't the dog yours? (Plato, Euthydemus).

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3/ Possessive pronouns can be replaced by the genitive form of the corresponding personal pronoun (which will remain outside the *article + noun* group), by the enclitic form if there is one:

- τὴν μητέρα σου ὁρῶ I see your mother.
- χρόνον διατρίβουσι τὸν πατέρα μου διαβάλλοντες They spend time slandering my father (Isocrates, *De Bigis*).

The only difference is that in this case the emphasis on the possession is not so strong; if we use the possessive pronoun, we make emphasis on who the possessor is:

• τὴν σὴν μητέρα ὁρῷ I see your mother (making it clear that I see your mother, not anybody else's mother).

Given that there is no third person pronoun in Greek, in order to use the construction we have just looked at with reference to a third person, it is necessary to use the genitive of $\alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \dot{\alpha} \varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{\alpha} v$, (so that, rather than saying HIS, HER etc., the literal expression would be OF HIM, OF HER, etc.). Let's see some examples:

• χρήματα παρέχω τῷ πατρὶ αὐτοῦ Ι OFFER MONEY TO HIS FATHER ("ΤΟ THE FATHER OF HIM").

τὴν μητέρα αὐτῆς εἶδον
 I saw her mother ("The mother of her").

• διὰ τί ἔλαβες τὰ ὅπλα αὐτὧν; Why did you take their weapons (the weapons of them)?

• ... καὶ ὅτι σε ὁρῷ τὸν πατέρα αὐτοῦ παραλαμβάνοντα εἰς τὰς ... συνουσίας ... and that I see that you take his father along to the meetings (Xenophon, *Symposium*).

Notes

- 1/ Remember that in this construction the genitive always lies outside the group *article+noun*, as this is a recurrent mistake (for instance, for the second example, the order τὴν αὐτῆς μητέρα εἶδον would be wrong).
- 2/ Note as well that this use of the genitive form of αὐτός, -ή, -όν, in sentences whose subject is a third person, cannot have a reflexive meaning. For example, ἀναγιγνώσκει τὴν βίβλον αὐτοῦ means HE READS HIS (somebody else's) BOOK; in order to translate the sentence HE READS HIS (OWN) BOOK it is necessary to use a different construction (with the genitive of the reflexive pronoun, which will be introduced later on).

4. Reciprocal pronoun

[81]

a) Accidence

In order to indicate a mutual interaction between two or more people, in Greek it is necessary to use the reciprocal pronoun, which logically has only plural forms and no nominative forms, as this pronoun can not express the subject of a sentence. Its declension follows the 2-1-2 scheme:

	masc.	fem.	neuter
Acc.	άλλήλους	άλλήλας	ἄλληλα
Gen.	άλλήλων	άλλήλων	άλλήλων
Dat.	άλλήλους άλλήλων άλλήλοις	άλλήλαις	άλλήλοις

b) Syntax

This pronoun is quite straightforward to use, as it conveys in one word what is expressed in English by the pronouns EACH OTHER. Some examples will show this clearly:

ἀποκτείνουσιν ἀλλήλους
 ΤΗΕΥ ΚΙΙL ΕΑCH OTHER
 ὁ Μας.: men to men.
 ὁ διδόασι βίβλους ἀλλήλαις
 ΤΗΕΥ GIVE BOOKS ΤΟ EACH OTHER
 ἡ Επολημήσαμεν πρὸς ἀλλήλους
 WE WAGED WAR AGAINST EACH OTHER (Xenophon, Hellenica).

• κραυγὴν πολλὴν ἐποίουν καλοῦντες ἀλλήλους They made a lot of noise calling each other (Xenophon, Anabasis).

5. Anaphoric pronoun

[82]

a) Accidence

In order to supply the lacking personal pronoun in the third person when used as an object (not as subject), it is necessary to use the so-called *anaphoric* pronoun. The word *anaphoric* means that it refers to something / somebody already mentioned previously. As it cannot be used as a subject, it lacks nominative forms. Its declension is as follows:

	singular				plural	
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.
Gen.	αὐτοῦ	αὐτῆς	αὐτοῦ	αὐτούς αὐτῶν αὐτοῖς	αὐτῶν	αὐτῶν

b) Syntax

The anaphoric pronoun substitutes the 3rd person pronoun, and it must be used on its own and without article:

In Greek there is no need to mention the anaphoric pronoun if it can be easily understood from the context of the sentence (in the following examples, the Greek forms in brackets would be skipped):

• φέρω τοὺς καρπούς, σὺ δὲ ἐσθίεις (αὐτούς)

I bring the fruits and you eat (them).

• ἔχω δοῦλον καὶ πέμπω (αὐτὸν) πρὸς τὴν στρατιάν Ι have a slave and I send (him) to the army.

• ὁρῶ τὸν ἀδελφὸν καὶ δίδωμι (αὐτῷ) βίβλον | I see my brother and I give (him) a book.

• ἐγώ σε ἄξω καὶ ἐπὶ τούτους, ... , σὸ δὲ θεώμενος (αὐτοὺς) δήπου καταμαθήση I will take you to these men too; and you, observing (them), will realise it (Xenophon, *Oeconomicus*).

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6. Identity pronouns

[83]

a) Accidence

The pronoun αὐτός, αὐτή, αὐτό that we have seen above is also used as an identity pronoun. Its declension is the same one we have seen above, but in this case there are nominative forms as well:

	singular			plural		
				masc.		
Nom. Acc. Gen. Dat.	αὐτός αὐτόν αὐτοῦ αὐτῷ	αὐτή αὐτήν αὐτῆς αὐτῆ	αὐτό αὐτό αὐτοῦ αὐτῷ	αὐτοί αὐτούς αὐτῶν αὐτοῖς	αὐταί αὐτάς αὐτῶν αὐταῖς	αὐτά αὐτά αὐτῶν αὐτοῖς

b) Syntax

We have already seen how the oblique cases of αὐτός can be used to replace the lacking personal pronouns in the 3^{rd} person (e.g. φιλοῦμεν αὐτόν WE LOVE HIM). But αὐτός can be used to express two additional meanings as identity pronoun, with reference to all persons.

1/ Meaning SAME:

a/ Placed immediately after the article (with or without noun), this pronoun means same, as in the following examples:

σὺ καὶ ἐγὼ ἐν τῆ αὐτῆ οἰκίᾳ οἰκοῦμεν
 ΤΟυ AND I LIVE IN THE SAME HOUSE.
 ΤΟυ AND I SAY THE SAME THING.

• φανήσεται ὁ αὐτὸς ἀνὴρ ἐν τῇ αὐτῇ πόλει The same man will turn up in the same city (Aeschines, *In Ctesiphontem*).

b/ Very frequently the article and the corresponding form of αὐτός contract with each other, creating a new word that will have a peculiar breathing mark in the middle: this specific feature will prevent confusions with other forms of οὖτος, αΰτη, τοῦτο. Examples:

• σὺ καὶ ἐγὼ ἐν ταὐτῆ οἰκίᾳ οἰκοῦμεν You and I live in the same house.

• καὶ τῆ ὑστεραίᾳ δὲ ταὖτὰ ταῦτα ἐποίησεν And also at the following day he made these same things (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

• Κλέαρχος δὲ ταὐτὰ ἀπεκρίνατο Clearchus answered the same things (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Note

When αὐτός is used in its neuter singular form as a pronoun (i.e. not accompanying any nouns) and it contracts with the article, an ending -v can be added as if the neuter form were αὐτόν instead of αὐτό. Therefore, we can write the sentence σὺ καὶ ἐγὼ ταὐτὸν λέγομεν YOU AND I SAY THE SAME, but only if there is a contraction, and it would be WRONG to write <math>σὺ καὶ ἐγὼ τὸ αὐτὸν λέγομεν, as the genders of the article τὸ and the object αὐτόν do not agree, being respectively neuter and masculine.

2/ Meaning SELF:

This interpretation is possible in two circumstances:

a/ If αὐτός is the only word forming the subject. Remember, however, that if αὐτός were used as a pronoun in other cases, it would mean HIM, HER, etc. Moreover, observe in the examples that it can be used in reference to 1st and 2nd person, as will be indicated by the verb.

αὐτὸς τοῦτο ἐποίησεν
 ΗΕ HIMSELF DID THIS.
 ΜΥSELF DID THIS.

• αὐταὶ τοῦτο ἐποίησαν
• αὐταὶ τοῦτο ἐποίησαν
• αὐταὶ τοῦτο ἐποίησατε

Υου yourselves (fem.) did this.

• αὐτὸς μὲν πεζῆ ἦλθεν εἰς Σηστόν ΗΕ HIMSELF WENT TO SESTOS ON FOOT (Xenophon, Hellenica).

αὐτός, ἔφη, τοῦτο λέγεις, ὧ Σώκρατες
 And he said: "You yourself are saying this, Socrates" (Xenophon, Memorabilia).

b/ If αὐτός accompanies a noun in any case, but does not follow immediately the article (i.e., it is outside the group article + noun):

• εἴδομεν αὐτὸν τὸν βασιλέα = εἴδομεν τὸν βασιλέα αὐτόν We saw the king himself.

• $\alpha \dot{\nu} \dot{\tau} \dot{\eta} \dot{\eta} \dot{\theta} \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\tilde{\eta}} \dot{\lambda} \dot{\theta} \dot{\epsilon} v = \dot{\eta} \dot{\theta} \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\nu} \dot{\tau} \dot{\tilde{\eta}} \dot{\lambda} \dot{\theta} \dot{\epsilon} v$ The goddess herself came.

• καὶ αὐτοὶ οἱ θεοὶ ὑποδεικνύουσιν And the gods themselves indicate it (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

• ἀνδοκίδης δὲ καὶ αὐτοὺς τοὺς θεοὺς ἀδικήσας ... And Andocides, having wronged even the gods themselves, ... (Lysias, *In Andocidem*).

Observe the difference in meaning depending on word order:

• εἴδομεν τὸν αὐτὸν βασιλέα We saw the same king (and not a different one).

7. Reflexive pronouns

a) Accidence [84]

In English the reflexive pronoun *self* is used in order to say that the object of a sentence is the same as the subject, e.g.: he killed *himself*, she bought *herself* a book, etc. Greek reflexive pronouns follow a peculiar inflectional pattern, which features a combination of the basic personal pronouns and $\alpha\dot{v}\dot{t}\dot{c}$ as follows:

1st person:

	sin	gular	pl	ural	♦ It
	masc.	fem.	masc.	fem.	as
Acc. Gen. Dat.	έμαυτόν έμαυτοῦ έμαυτῷ	έμαυτήν έμαυτῆς έμαυτῆ	ήμᾶς αὐτούς ήμῶν αὐτῶν ήμῖν αὐτοῖς	ήμᾶς αὐτάς ήμῶν αὐτῶν ήμῖν αὐταῖς	♦ Ir m

- It lacks neuter forms and all nominatives, as they indicate an object.
- In plural compound forms, both words must be declined simultaneously.

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Some examples:

ἐμαυτὸν ὁρῶ ἐν τῷ ὕδατι I see myself (reflected) in the water.
 ἡμῖν αὐτοῖς ὅπλα ἠνέγκαμεν We have brought weapons for ourselves.

• βλάπτομεν ἡμᾶς αὐτούς We harm ourselves.

2nd person:

	singular		plural		
	masc.	fem.	masc.	fem.	♦ Sometimes contracted forms are used:
Acc. Gen. Dat.	σεαυτόν σεαυτοῦ σεαυτῷ	σεαυτήν σεαυτῆς σεαυτῆ	ύμᾶς αὐτούς ύμῶν αὐτῶν ὑμῖν αὐτοῖς	ύμᾶς αὐτάς ύμῶν αὐτῶν ὑμῖν αὐταῖς	σαυτόν (< σεαυτόν), σαυτήν (< σεαυτήν), etc.

Some examples:

• γνῶθι **σεαυτόν** Know thyself (Plato, in several dialogues).

• ὑμῶν αὐτῶν ἄρχετε Behave yourselves.

3rd person:

		singular			plural	
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Gen.	έαυτοῦ	έαυτῆς	έαυτό έαυτοῦ έαυτῷ	έαυτῶν	έαυτῶν	έαυτῶν

 \Leftrightarrow Sometimes contracted forms are used, e.g. αὐτόν (< ἑαυτόν), etc. Be careful not to confuse αὐτόν with αὐτόν etc., as the breathing marks are different

Notes

- 1/ The 3rd person reflexive pronoun inflects in all three genders, and its plural forms use the same stem as the singular, differently from the plural forms of 1st and 2nd persons
- 2/ There is also a compound form of the plural, even though not very common: σφᾶς αὐτούς, -άς, -ά, σφῶν αὐτῶν, σφίσιν αὐτοῖς, -αῖς, -οῖς.

Some examples:

- οἱ φιλόσοφοι θαυμάζουσιν ἑαυτούς Philosophers admire themselves.
- ή τοῦ στρατιώτου γυνὴ αὐτὴν ἀπέκτεινεν The soldier's wife killed herself.
- ἐπεὶ δὲ πάντη οἱ πολέμιοι κατεῖχον, ... παρέδοσαν **σφᾶς αὐτούς** When the enemy were keeping control of everywhere, ... they handed themselves in (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

b) Syntax [85]

These pronouns can be used plainly to represent the object of the sentence, but if their genitive depends on a noun preceded by an article they must be placed inside the group article + noun. See the following examples:

• πρὸς ἐμαυτὸν σκοπῷ Ι LOOK INTO MYSELF (Plato, *Euthyphro*).

• ἀγαθέ, μὴ ἀγνόει **σεαυτόν** Ο Dear Friend, do not ignore yourself (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

• ὁ Περικλῆς ἀναγιγνώσκει τὴν ἑαυτοῦ βίβλον Pericles reads his own book.

• ἀΑλκιβιάδης ... ἀπέπλευσεν εἰς Χερρόνησον εἰς τὰ ἐαυτοῦ τείχη Alcibiades ... sailed away to the Chersonesos, within his own walls (Xenophon, Hellenica).

 π Remember that, in order to express somebody else's possession of an object, the genitive of $\alpha \dot{v} \tau \dot{o} \varsigma$ must be left outside the group *article + noun*:

• ὁ Περικλῆς ἀναγιγνώσκει τὴν βίβλον αὐτοῦ Pericles reads his (somebody else's) book.

c) A special case: 3rd person reflexive pronouns in subordinate clauses (*indirect reflexive*)

[86]

1/ Sometimes in a subordinate sentence it is necessary to indicate a direct or indirect object which refers to the subject of the main sentence, as for instance in the following sentence:

HE SAYS THAT AN ALLY WOUNDED HIM ♦ HIM = HE, with the original sentence being AN ALLY HAS WOUNDED ME.

In this case, we could use a normal reflexive pronoun, but unless the context makes it clear it could refer to the subject of the subordinate sentence and not to the subject of the main sentence, as in this sentence:

• λέγει ὅτι σύμμαχός τις ἐαυτὸν ἔτρωσεν He says that an ally wounded himself or He says that an ally wounded him.

To solve this type of problems in Greek, authors generally use the pronoun $\alpha \dot{\nu} \dot{\tau} \dot{\sigma}_{\varsigma}$ as in the following sentence:

• λέγει ὅτι σύμμαχός τις αὐτὸν ἔτρωσεν He says that an ally wounded him (him being the same as He).

 μ Of course this $\alpha \dot{\nu} \dot{\tau} \dot{o} \dot{v}$ could also indicate a third person, neither the main subject nor the ally, but usually the context clarifies this point.

2/ Nevertheless, to avoid any possible confusion, there is an additional reflexive pronoun, the *indirect reflexive*, which even being part of a secondary clause refers to the subject of the main sentence. It declines as follows:

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	m./f./n.	mas./fem.	neuter	♦ The singular has also enclitic forms, i.e. without accent			
Acc		σφᾶς	σφέα	\diamond Do not confuse $o\tilde{v}$ with the genitive of the relative or with the adverb of place where, and $o\tilde{v}$ with the other			
Ger	า. 0งั	σφῶν	σφῶν	adverb of place where to.			
Dat	:. ર્ા	σφίσι(ν)	σφίσι(ν)	davery of pidee where to.			

~l...

cina

So, the sentence we were looking at above can be translated as follows using the *indirect reflexive* pronoun:

• λέγει ὅτι σύμμαχός τις ξε ἔτρωσεν He says that an ally wounded him (him being the same as He).

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More examples:

οἱ ἄρχοντες ... πρὸς σφᾶς ἐκέλευον λέγειν ὅτου δέοιτο
 ΤΗΕ LEADERS ... ORDERED (HIM) ΤΟ TELL THEM WHAT HE
 ΝΕΕDED (Xenophon, Hellenica).
 ♦ The σφᾶς are the ἄρχοντες themselves.

- οἱ τριάκοντα, οὐκέτι νομίζοντες ἀσφαλῆ **σφίσι** τὰ πράγματα, ... ΤΗΕ ΤΗΙRTY, THINKING THAT THE STATE OF AFFAIRS WAS NO LONGER SAFE FOR THEM, ... (Xenophon, *Hellenica*). ♦ The **σφίσι** is the **τριάκοντα** themselves.
- **3/** There is a form of possessive adjective derived from the *indirect reflexive* pronoun: $\sigma \phi \acute{\epsilon} \tau \epsilon \rho o c$, $-\alpha$, -o v. Let's see some examples:
 - ὁ διδάσκαλος λέγει ὅτι ὁ μαθητὴς τὴν σφετέραν βίβλον ἀνέγνω
 The teacher says that the student has read his own book
 ♦ The teacher's book, not the student's book.
 - εἶπον δὲ ὅτι ... βούλοιντο εἰς ἄστυ πρὸς τοὺς **σφετέρους** στρατιώτας παρελθεῖν They said that they wanted to go to the city with (towards) their own soldiers (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

8. Interrogative pronoun

[87]

a) Accidence

The basic meaning of the interrogative pronoun is Who/What/Which? for masculine and feminine ones and What/Which? for the neuter form. This pronoun inflects following the third declension, with masculine and feminine sharing the same forms. For some cases, there are alternative forms looking like the article, but they are rarely used.

	singu	ılar	plural		
	masc./fem.	neuter	masc./fem.	neuter	
Nom. Acc. Gen. Dat.	τίς τίνα τίνος - τοῦ τίνι - τῷ	τί τί τίνος τίνι	τίνες τίνας τίνων τίσι(ν)	τίνα τίνα τίνων τίσι(ν)	

b) Syntax

1/ The interrogative pronouns can also accompany a noun, becoming interrogative adjectives;

• τίς πάρεστιν; Who is here?

• τίς παῖς πάρεστιν; Which child is here?

The case, gender and number of the interrogative pronouns/adjectives have to agree with the (explicit or implicit) referent they refer to:

• au va $arepsilon i\delta arepsilon arepsilon \chi heta \dot{arepsilon} \dot$

• τίσι στρατιώταις τὰ χρήματα δίδως; Το which soldiers do you give the money?

• $\tau i \nu o \varsigma$ $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau i \ \dot{\eta} \ \beta i \beta \lambda o \varsigma;$ Whose book is it? (Literally, Of whom is the book?).

• τίνας γυναϊκας ὁρᾶν βούλει; Which women do you want to see? • διὰ τίνος πόλεως τρέχεις; Through which city do you run?

• τίνα δὴ συμβουλεύεις αὐτοῖς τίθεσθαι νόμον; What law do you advise them to set? (Plato, Leges). • τίνες ὑμεῖς ἄρα ἐστέ, ὧ ξένοι; Who are you, strangers? (Lucian, Verae Historiae).

• ἐρωτώμενος ἐν τίνι χρόνο μέλλοι ταῦτα πράττεσθαι, εἶπεν ὅτι ... Being asked at what time he was about to do these things, he said that... (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

2/ Observe that in English there are not specific plural forms for Who, Which etc.; so, the sentences τίς πάρεστιν; and τίνες πάρεισιν; will be both translated as Who is HERE?, even though in the second case clearly the question regards the identity of several people.

9. Other interrogative pronouns

[88]

In addition to the interrogative $\tau i\varsigma$, τi , in Greek there are other interrogative pronouns with more specific meanings, which will be described in the following paragraphs.

a) The quantitative interrogative pronoun $\pi \delta \sigma \sigma \varsigma$, $-\eta$, ov How Big? (How MANY? in plural)

πόσην οἰκίαν ἔχεις;
 How big is your house?
 ♦ Literally, How big a house do you have?

• πόσους φίλους ἔχεις; How many friends have you got?

- πόσοι δέ, ἔφην ἐγώ, πάντες οὖτοί εἰσιν; And I said: "How many are all these?" (Lucian, Verae Historiae).
- ἔσκεψαι πόσον χρόνον ἱκανός ἐστιν ὁ ... σῖτος διατρέφειν τὴν πόλιν You have looked into how long we will be able to feed the city with corn (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

b) The qualitative interrogative pronoun $\pi \circ i \circ \varsigma$, $-\alpha$, $-\circ v$ Of which kind?

• ποίας βίβλους ἔχεις; Which kind of books do you have?

• ποίους δὲ πένητας καὶ ποίους πλουσίους καλεῖς; What kind of people do you call poor and what rich? (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

c) The selective interrogative pronoun πότερος, -α, -ον Which of Both?

It is used to imply that the referents are exactly two in number:

• πότερον στρατιώτην ἀπέκτεινας; Which soldier did you kill?

♦ As we use this adjective, we imply that there were only two soldiers, so we could have translated it as WHICH ONE OF THE TWO SOLDIERS DID YOU KILL?

• πότερος ἀδικώτερός ἐστιν; Which of the two is more unjust? (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

• ποτέρους δὲ εὐδαιμονεστέρους χρὴ λέγειν; Which of the two (groups of people) should we call happier? (Plato, *Leges*).

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10. Relative pronoun

[89]

a) Accidence

The relative pronoun inflects as follows:

	singular			plural		
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Nom. Acc. Gen. Dat.	ὄς ὄν οὖ ὧ	ἥ ἥν ἧς ἧ	၀ ၀ ၀ ၀ စု	οἴ οὕς ὧν οἷς	αἴ ἄς ὧν αἶς	ἄ ἄ ὧν οἷς

 \Leftrightarrow It is possible to add to these basic forms the suffix $-\pi\epsilon\rho$ to add extra emphasis: $"oone\rho"$, etc. In this case, it will mean PRECISELY THE ONE WHO etc.

b) Syntax

As further detailed explanations regarding relative clauses will be given in the chapter devoted to secondary clauses, in this chapter is reported just an outline of its basic use.

Let's see an example of relative period, i.e. the group made of one main sentence and a relative subordinate clause:

• ὁρῶ τοὺς παῖδας οἶς δῶρα ἔδωκας I SEE THE BOYS TO WHOM YOU GAVE PRIZES.

Explanation:

 \vec{o} ίς (το whom) is the *relative pronoun* which introduces the secondary clause, while τοὺς παῖδας (THE BOYS) is the so-called *antecedent*, or the word to which the relative pronoun refers to. The relative pronoun and its antecedent must agree *in gender and number*, but not in case, as the case will depend on the function performed by the two terms in their respective sentence: τοὺς παῖδας (THE BOYS) is in accusative because it is direct object of the main sentence, while \vec{o} ίς (TO WHOM) is in dative because it is the indirect object of the relative sentence.

More examples:

• ὁ παῖς ος ἐκεῖ ἐστι σοφός ἐστιν

The boy who is there is clever.

• ὁ ἄνθρωπος ον σὸ χθὲς εἶδες τὴν μάχην ἐνίκησεν ΤΗΕ MAN THAT YOU SAW YESTERDAY WON THE BATTLE.

• αί γυναῖκες αἶς τὰς βίβλους παρέσχες σοφαί εἰσιν

The women to whom you offered the books are clever.

• αἱ γυναῖκες αἶσπερ τὰς βίβλους παρέσχες σοφαί εἰσιν The women precisely the ones to whom you offered the books are clever.

 \diamondsuit As said, we can add $-\pi\epsilon\rho$ to add emphasis, to make it clear that we mean these women, not any other ones.

- πάντες γὰρ οὖτοι νόμοι εἰσίν, σὓς τὸ πλῆθος ... ἔγραψε All these are laws which the people wrote (Xenophon, the *Memorabilia*).
- μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα ἐκκλησία ἐγένετο, ἐν ἦ τῶν στρατηγῶν κατηγόρουν ἄλλοι After this there was an assembly, in which other men accused the generals (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

11. Indefinite relative pronoun

a) Accidence [90]

The indefinite relative pronoun is made of the combination of two elements: the relative pronoun and the indefinite pronoun $\pi\iota\varsigma$, $\tau\iota$. Both halves are declined, each half according to its own declension. Genitive and dative singular masc./neuter and nominative and accusative plural neuter can have alternative forms; moreover the neuter singular form \mathring{o} $\tau\iota$ is usually written as two words, in order to avoid confusion with the conjunction $\mathring{o}\tau\iota$.

	singular			plural		
	masc.	fem.	neuter	masc.	fem.	neuter
Acc. Gen.	ὄστις ὄντινα οὖτινος - ὅτου ὧτινι - ὅτῳ			ώντινων	ἄστινας ὧντινων	ἄτινα - ἄττα ἄτινα - ἄττα ὧντινων οἷστισι(ν)

b) Syntax [91]

1/ The most common meaning of the indefinite relative pronoun is the one indicated by its own name, i.e. whoever, whatever, and is used in order to introduce a relative clause with a general meaning (sometimes with no antecedent):

• ὅστις τοῦτο ποιεῖ, σοφός ἐστιν Whoever makes this is clever.

• Φτινι τὰ χρήματα δίδως, τοῦτον ἀποκτενῶ Whoever you give the money to, I will kill him.

• ῷτινι ἐντυγχάνοιεν ελληνι ... πάντας ἔκτεινον Whatever Greek person they met, they killed them all (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

• παρ' ἐμοὶ δὲ οὐδεὶς μισθοφορεῖ, ὅστις μὴ ἱκανός ἐστιν ... πονεῖν Nobody serves in my army, who(ever) is not good enough (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

• ἐκέλευον δὲ καὶ τὸν Θηραμένην λαβεῖν ὄντινα βούλοιτο They also ordered Theramenes to take whomever he wanted to (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

In the corresponding chapters devoted to relative sentences and indefinite sentences further possibilities will be explained (e.g., subjunctive + $\tilde{\alpha}v$ to emphasise the indefinite character of the sentence, etc.).

Another indefinite sense of this pronoun is WHOEVER (IS) CAPABLE OF, as clarified in the following examples:

• λέγε μοι διδάσκαλον ὄστις τὸν ἐμὸν νἱὸν παιδεύει Tell me a teacher who may educate my son.

 \bullet δός μοι ξίφος $\tilde{\phi}$ τινι μάχομαι Give me a sword with which I may fight.

2/ Another possible meaning of this pronoun is the same as that of the interrogative $\pi i \zeta$, πi , but used in indirect questions, where the interrogative word $\pi i \zeta$, πi (in all cases) can be replaced by the corresponding form of the indefinite relative $\delta \sigma \pi i \zeta$, $\delta \pi i$ (note that this replacement is optional, not compulsory).

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Examples:

- τίνα ὀρῷς; Whom do you see? ἐρωτῷ τίνα ὀρῷς or ἐρωτῷ ὄντινα ὀρῷς He asks whom you see.
- ἐπεχείρησας σαυτὸν ἐπισκοπεῖν ὅστις εἴης;
 DID YOU TRY TO CONSIDER WHO YOU WERE? (Xenophon, Memorabilia).
 ♦ In this case, it is an indirect question inside another question.
- ὧ Κῦρε, οὐ μή σε κρύψω πρὸς ὄντινα βούλομαι ἀφικέσθαι Cyrus, I will not conceal from you whom I am trying to reach (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

12. Other indefinite pronouns

□ τις, τι [93]

a) Accidence

The basic meaning of this pronoun is someBody, some, any, a and it is declined the same way as the interrogative, with the only difference that generally it does not have any accents. However, if special cases of accentuation rules make this word bear an accent, this could go only on the second syllable, never on the first one.

	singula	ar	plural		
	masc./fem.	neuter	masc./fem.	neuter	A Take save not to confuse " (fuom
Nom. Acc. Gen.	τις τινά τινός - του	τι τι τινός	τινές τινάς τινῶν	τινά - ἄττα τινά - ἄττα τινῶν	\diamond Take care not to confuse $\alpha\tau\tau\alpha$ (from $\tau\iota\varsigma$) with $\alpha\tau\tau\alpha$ (from $\delta\sigma\tau\iota\varsigma$), as they differ only in the breathing mark.
Dat.	τινί - τφ	τινί	τισί(ν)	τισί(ν)	

b) Syntax

Like the interrogative pronoun, $\tau \iota \varsigma / \tau \iota$ can be used as well as an adjective, accompanying a noun:

ἄνθρωπός τις ἦλθε χθές
 Α MAN CAME YESTERDAY.
 ΚΟοπίτας ἀνθρωπος ἦλθε χθές;
 Εἴδομέν τινας ἐν τῷ ἀγρῷ
 WE SAW SOME PEOPLE IN THE FIELD.

This pronoun/adjective can never open a sentence, as it is an *enclitic* form, and usually it follows the noun it agrees with.

Let's see some examples:

• γυνή τις ἀνδρί τινί τι εἶπεν A woman said something to a man. • κόραις τισὶ τὰς βίβλους ἔδωκα I gave the books to some girls.

• ἐν τῆ μάχη ἐξαίφνης τι ἐγένετο Suddenly, something happened in the battle.

- ἀνήρ τις ἀλιεὺς παρὰ τὴν θάλασσαν ἄγραν ἰχθύων ἐποίει Α FISHERMAN WAS FISHING ON THE SEASHORE (Aesopus, Fabulae).

 \Box $\ddot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\circ\varsigma$, $-\eta$, $-\circ$

a) Accidence

It means ANOTHER ONE, and it inflects following in the usual 2-1-2 scheme apart from the neuter singular form, which lacks the ending $-\mathbf{v}$ in nominative and accusative.

b) Syntax

 $\mathring{\alpha}\lambda\lambda$ ος, $-\eta$, -o conveys the meaning THE REST OF when accompanied by a definite article:

• ἔπειτα δὲ οἱ ἄλλοι στρατιῶται ἀφίκοντο Later, the rest of the soldiers arrived.

♦ THE OTHER SOLDIERS would sound strange.

• τὰς μὲν ᾿Αθήνας εἶδον, τὴν δὲ ἄλλην χώραν οὐκέτι εἶδον Ι have seen Athens, but not the rest of the country yet.

♦ THE OTHER COUNTRY would sound strange.

• οἱ δ' ἄλλοι στρατηγοὶ εἰς τὸν Ἑλλήσποντον ιχοντο

The rest of the generals went to the Hellespont

(Xenophon, Hellenica).

If not accompanied by the definite article, it just means OTHER:

• ἔπειτα δὲ ἄλλοι στρατιῶται ἀφίκοντο Later, other soldiers arrived.

• ἄλλας βίβλους ἀναγιγνώσκω I read other books.

• ἄλλοι πολλοὶ τῶν ᾿Αρκάδων καὶ ᾿Αχαιῶν ἑκόντες ἦσαν Many others of the Arcadians and of the Achaeans

WENT WILLINGLY (Xenophon, Hellenica).

c) Double ἄλλος [95]

1/ We have seen that this indefinite, if not followed by the article, means OTHER, but there are some cases in which different acceptations of this pronoun are used in the same sentence:

• ἄλλοι παῖδες ἄλλας βίβλους ἀναγιγνώσκουσιν Different Children read different books.

♦ Literally, other children read other books.

♦ Literally, other men give offerings to other gods.

• ἄλλοι ἄλλα δίκαια ἡγοῦνται Different people regard different things as fair (Plato, Euthyphro).

2/ When we use two forms not in the same sentence but in two consecutive sentences (usually combined by $\mu \acute{\epsilon} v - \delta \acute{\epsilon}$), this pronoun indicates the conceptual opposition of two groups of objects, persons or concepts, so that they should be translated as SOME....OTHERS. In fact, this use is almost identical to the use of the article with $\mu \acute{\epsilon} v - \delta \acute{\epsilon}$:

• ἄλλους μὲν μισῶ, ἄλλους δὲ φιλῶ I hate some, I love others.

τὸ γοῦν αὐτὸ ... ἄλλοις μὲν ἀγαθόν, ἄλλοις δὲ κακόν
 The same thing... for some is good, for others is bad (Diogenes Laertius, Vitae Philosophorum).

• τοὺς μὲν μισῶ, τοὺς δὲ φιλῶ I hate some (of them), while I love the others.

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□ ἕτερος, -α, -ον

[96]

[97]

a) Accidence

This pronoun means THE OTHER ONE, and it inflects following the standard 2-1-2 scheme, even though the following contractions are also allowed:

ἄτερος = ὁ ἔτερος θάτερον = τὸ ἔτερον θατέρου = τοῦ ἑτέρου

b) Syntax

This pronouns is used only when we speak about couples of objects, people, etc., as in the following examples:

- ὁ ἔτερος φίλος ἀφίκετο χθές The other friend arrived yesterday \Leftrightarrow Referring to two friends.
- ἀνέβησαν ἐπὶ τὸν πρῶτον γήλοφον καὶ κατέβαινον, ὡς ἐπὶ τὸν ἔτερον ἀναβαίνειν Τη Went up onto the first hill and came down, as if they were going to climb the other one (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Like $\ddot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\alpha\varsigma$, it can be used in double sentences, repeating the same pronoun (even in different cases), or twice in the same sentence:

- τὸν μὲν ἔτερον μισῶ, τῷ δὲ ἑτέρᾳ χρήματα δίδωμι Ι HATE THIS ONE, WHILE I GIVE MONEY TO THE OTHER ONE.
- τέλος δὲ ὁ ἔτερος τὸν ἔτερον παίει And finally one hits the other (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἐδόκει ἄρα, ὡς ἔοικεν, Ὁμήρῳ ἔτερος μὲν εἶναι ἀνὴρ ἀληθής, ἔτερος δὲ ψευδής ΑΡΡΑΓΕΝΤΙΥ, ΟΝΕ SEEMED ΤΟ HOMER ΤΟ BE AN HONEST MAN, AND THE OTHER A LIAR (Plato, Hippias Minor).

🛘 μόνος, -η, -ον

a) Accidence

This pronoun means ONLY (which of course is an adverb) and ALONE, and it inflects following the 2-1-2 scheme.

b) Syntax

1/ The context will make clear whether it means ALONE or it should be translated using the adverb ONLY:

- μόνος ἐν τῆ νήσω εἰμί Ι AM ALONE ON THE ISLAND.
- μόνος ὁ Περικλῆς τοῦτο οἶδεν Only Pericles knows this.
- μόνος δ' ἐπορεύου, ἔφη, ἢ καὶ ἀκόλουθός σοι ἠκολούθει; Did you go alone, he said, or did an attendant accompany you? (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).
- **2/** Even when translated in the adverbial sense ONLY, in Greek $\mu \acute{o}vo\varsigma$, $-\eta$, -ov is an adjective and, therefore, must agree in case, number and gender with its referent:
 - μόναι αἱ κόραι τοῦτο ἴσασιν Only the girls know this.

3/ Sometimes it can convey the meaning THE ONLY ONE THAT (see former example on Pericles), as in these examples:

- ὁ Σωκράτης μόνος τὴν ἀλήθειαν ἔλεγεν SPOKE THE TRUTH.
- Only Socrates spoke the truth / Socrates was the only one who
- αὕτη δὲ μόνη διαμένει συνεχὴς βασιλεία REMAINS (Xenophon, Agesilaus).
- Only this monarchy remains / This is the only monarchy that
- ἡ ἡδονὴ μόνη αὕτη πλεῖστα ἀγαθὰ παρασκευάζει Only this pleasure brings very many benefits / This is the only pleasure that brings very many benefits (Xenophon, *Cynegeticus*).

Observe that the word order in this context plays an important role with regard to the overall meaning of the sentence:

- ὁ μόνος ἱερεὺς τοῦτο ἐποίησεν The only priest that was there.
- ὁ ἱερεὺς μόνος τοῦτο ἐποίησεν The priest did this alone. \diamondsuit Without help.

□ ἕκαστος, -η, -ον[98]

This pronoun inflects following the standard 2-1-2 scheme. Its meaning is EVERY, EACH, and it can use article or not:

- ἐκάστῳ στρατιώτη ξίφος ἔδωκα = ἐκάστῳ τῷ στρατιώτη ξίφος ἔδωκα | GAVE A SWORD TO EACH SOLDIER.
- ἡγεμὼν μὲν ἦν ὁ δεσπότης ἐκάστης τῆς οἰκίας ΤΗΕ MASTER OF EACH HOUSE WAS A LEADER (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἱμάτιον τ' ἔδωκεν ἐκάστῷ ΗΕ GAVE A CLOAK ΤΟ EACH ONE (Xenophon, Hellenica).

□ ἑκάτερος, -α, -ον[99]

This pronoun inflects following the standard 2-1-2 scheme, meaning EVERY, EACH with reference to couples of concepts, objects or persons, usually accompanied by the definite article (which in ἕκαστος is optional):

- ἐκατέρῳ τῷ στρατιώτῃ ξίφος ἔδωκα Ι GAVE A SWORD TO EACH OF THE TWO SOLDIERS.
- ♦ We do not need the words BOTH SOLDIERS in genitive, as this is implied in the sense of the pronoun.
- ἐκάτεροι ἐπεκαλοῦντο τὸν Κῦρον Each one of the two (groups) summoned Cyrus (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).
- εἰπέ μοι, ἔφη, ὦ ἸΑρίστιππε, ... πῶς ἀν ἐκάτερον παιδεύοις; ΤΕLL ΜΕ, ARISTIPPUS, HE SAID, HOW WOULD YOU EDUCATE EACH OF THE TWO? (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

□ ἀμφότεροι, -αι, -α
[100]

This pronoun inflects following the standard 2-1-2 scheme. It means вотн and it is followed by the plural accompanied by definite article: ἀμφότεροι οἱ ἄνδρες вотн мεν.

- ἰδόντες δὲ ἀλλήλους ... , τὸ μὲν πρῶτον ἔστησαν ἀμφότεροι Seeing each other..., at first both stood still (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- ἐγὼ δ᾽ οὖν φιλῶ μὲν ἀμφοτέρους ὑμᾶς ὁμοίως, ὧ παῖδες Therefore I love both of you on an equal basis, o sons (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

¤ Note that the unusual form ἄμφω must be followed by the dual (see the corresponding section): ἄμφω τὸ φύλακε.

• ἐνταῦθα καὶ ἀποθνήσκει Χαίρων τε καὶ Θίβραχος, ἄμφω πολεμάρχω Then both Chairon and Thibrachus die, both of them polemarchs (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

80 Pronouns

13. Negative pronouns

Sometimes they are considered to be a sub-category of indefinite pronouns, as they actually derive from them, but as they share the characteristic negative meaning we have grouped them separately.

🗖 οὐδείς, οὐδεμία, οὐδέν

[101]

a) Accidence:

It is formed by the combination of the negative $o\mathring{v}\delta\acute{\varepsilon}$ and the numeral adjective one (observe that in the masculine and neuter forms, the final $-\varepsilon$ of $o\mathring{v}\delta\acute{\varepsilon}$ has been elided as the second part of the word also begins with the same letter). It inflects exactly like $\varepsilon \mathring{\iota}_{\varsigma}$, $\mu \acute{\iota} \alpha$, $\varepsilon \acute{v}$: $o\mathring{v}\delta\acute{\varepsilon}\nu \acute{\alpha}$, $o\mathring{v}\delta\varepsilon \nu \acute{\alpha}$, etc.

b) Syntax:

1/ Its meaning is NO, NONE, NO ONE, NOBODY, NOTHING, to be translated according to its use as pronoun or as adjective, or alone in neuter, etc. Let's see some examples:

• οὐδεὶς ἀνὴρ ἐπανῆλθεν Νο ΜΑΝ CAME BACK.

• οὐδεὶς ἐπανῆλθεν Nobody / No one came back.

• οὐδεμία γυνὴ ἐπανῆλθεν Νο WOMAN CAME BACK.

• οὐδεμία ἐπανῆλθεν Nobody / No one came back.

♦ Specifically feminine agents: NO WOMAN, NO GIRL, NO FEMALE STUDENT, etc.

οὐδὲν ἐποίησα Ι DID NOTHING.
 ♦ Although in English we would say I DID NOT DO ANYTHING.

• οὐδένα εἶδον
 I saw NOBODY / NO ONE / NONE.
 ♦ Although in English we would say I DID NOT SEE ANYBODY.

• οὐδεμίαν εἶδον I saw nobody / no woman / no one / none.

♦ Specifically feminine agents: NO WOMAN, NO GIRL, NO FEMALE STUDENT, etc.

- οἱ δὲ ἐξ ἄστεως ἱππεῖς ... τῶν μὲν πολεμίων οὐδένα ἔτι εἶδον The Horsemen from the city ... did not see any of the enemies (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- ὑπὸ πολλῶν δὲ ἐρωτώμενος ... , οὐδενὶ ἀπεκρίνατο Being asked by many, ... he did not answer anyone (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

2/ A special construction: There is no one who... + negative sentence

[102]

The negative pronoun $o\dot{v}\delta\varepsilon$ combined with the indefinite relative $\ddot{o}\sigma\tau\iota$ should be translated by means of the periphrasis There is no one who...: please note that in the main sentence the verb $\dot{\varepsilon}\sigma\dot{\tau}$ is to be provided by the reader. Let's see an example:

• οὐδεὶς ὅστις οὐκ οἶδε τοῦτο There is nobody who does not know this.

To translate a sentence such as THERE IS NO ONE WHOM SOCRATES DOES NOT LOVE, generally we would decline only the WHOM, because the NOBODY apparently should be expressed in nominative, as it is the subject of the English sentence, with the following result:

• οὐδεὶς ὄντινα οὐ φιλεῖ ὁ Σωκράτης.

But the problem with this translation is that, in Greek, oideig in this construction must be in agreement with the relative pronoun, breaking the correspondence with the English sentence (according to which NOBODY should be the nominative); the correct Greek translation of the sentence, therefore, is the following:

• οὐδένα ὄντινα οὐ φιλεῖ ὁ Σωκράτης.

Both pronouns must be declined, and as far as the indefinite one is concerned the optional forms seen above for the indirect cases are to be used:

Acc. οὐδένα ὄντινα Gen. οὐδενὸς ὅτου Dat. οὐδενὶ ὅτφ

Examples:

• οὐδενὶ ὅτῷ χρήματα οὐ δίδωμι There is no one to whom I do not give money.

• οὐδενὸς ὅτου οὐ δικαιότερός ἐστιν οὖτος ὁ δικαστής

There is no one who is fairer than the judge is.

• ἀΑπολλόδωρος δὲ ... οὐδένα ὄντινα οὐ κατέκλασε τῶν παρόντων Τhere was no one whom Apollodoros did not break down (Plato, *Phaedo*).

🗖 μηδείς, μηδεμία, μηδέν

[103]

a) Accidence:

It declines in the same way as οὐδείς, οὐδεμία, οὐδέν, except that the negative component is represented by μή instead of οὐδέ.

b) Syntax:

Its meaning is the same as for $o\mathring{v}\delta\varepsilon$ ic, $o\mathring{v}\delta\varepsilon$ ic, $o\mathring{v}\delta\varepsilon$ ic, but $\mu\eta\delta\varepsilon$ ic etc. is used instead of $o\mathring{v}\delta\varepsilon$ ic etc. in the clauses that need $\mu\mathring{\eta}$ instead of $o\mathring{v}$ as simple negative for the verb, i.e. conditional sentences, participles with subjective meaning, clauses depending on verbs of wish, result clauses in infinitive, etc. Let's see some examples:

• **μηδένα** κακηγορείτω **μηδείς** Let nobody accuse anyone (Plato, *Leges*).

- - ♦ The conditional sense is evident, meaning If they do nothing. οἱ οὐδὲν ποιοῦντες would mean Those who are doing nothing.
- ὁ διδάσκαλος οὕτω ταχέως τρέχει ὥστε μηδένα αὐτὸν νικᾶν ΤΗΕ TEACHER RUNS SO QUICKLY THAT NOBODY BEATS HIM.
- σὸν ἔργον [ἐστι] **μηδένα** ἀφιέναι τῶν πρὸς σὲ ἀφικνουμένων Your duty is not to send away any of those that come to you (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

82 PRONOUNS

🗖 οὐδέτερος, -α, -ον

[104]

a) Accidence:

Its declension follows the normal 2-1-2 scheme.

b) Syntax:

οὐδέτερος is the negative of the indefinite pronoun ἕτερος, meaning no one of Both, Neither (NOT ... EITHER). Examples:

• – ἆρα τοὺς δύο στρατηγοὺς εἶδες; DID YOU SEE THE TWO GENERALS?

- οὐ μέντοι, οὐδέτερον εἶδον No, I have not seen either (of the two).

• οὐδέτερον γιγνώσκω, ὧ Σώκρατες Ι κνοω neither, Socrates (Plato, Euthydemus).

νυνὶ δ' οὐδέτερος αὐτῶν ... εἶπεν ἐν τοιούτῳ καιρῷ
 Then neither of them spoke in such a circumstance (Demosthenes, Contra Phormionem).

Observe that this OF BOTH is not the translation of any word meaning BOTH in genitive: it is used because the Greek sentence makes it clear that we are talking about two generals; it is the negative equivalent form of the interrogative $\pi \acute{o}\tau \epsilon \rho \sigma c$ and the indefinite $\acute{\epsilon}\kappa \acute{a}\tau \epsilon \rho \sigma c$.

🗖 μηδέτερος, -α, -ον

[105]

a) Accidence:

Its declension follows the normal 2-1-2 scheme.

b) Syntax:

As μηδείς corresponds to οὐδείς in sentences where the simple negative would be μή instead of οὐ, μηδέτερος corresponds to οὐδέτερος in the same sense of "no one of both" in sentences where the simple negative would be μή instead of οὐ. Let's see some examples:

- ἐὰν μηδέτερος ἔλθη, τά χρήματά σοι δώσω If NEITHER COMES, I WILL GIVE THE MONEY TO YOU.
- βούλομαι μηδέτερον ἐκ τῆς πόλεως ἐξεῖναι I WANT NEITHER TO LEAVE THE CITY.
- καίπερ μηδετέρου ἀφικομένου, ἐγὼ αὕριον ἄρξομαι Even if Neither has arrived, I will begin tomorrow.
- Observe that the use of μηδετέρου gives a conditional sense, meaning the possibility that tomorrow no one may have turned up; using οὐδετέρου would convey the following meaning: Αιτηουση no one of both has ARRIVED / WILL HAVE ARRIVED..., i.e. that no one of both has arrived or will arrive by then.
- δεῖ δὴ τἀληθὲς μηδέτερον λέγειν Neither should speak the truth (Plato, Phaedrus).
- προκαλούμεθα δὲ ὑμᾶς φίλοι μὲν εἶναι, πολέμιοι δὲ **μηδετέροις** We offer to be your friends, and enemies to neither side (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

h) Adverbs and prepositional adverbs

1. General observations

[106]

When we mention adverbs, we tend to think of some frequent English words ending in -LY, such as STRONGLY, QUICKLY, SLOWLY, etc., but this is just one of several different possible morphological forms of adverbs, which can be represented by words that appear very different from each other, such as TODAY, HARDLY, ENOUGH, QUICKLY, WHEN?, EVERYWHERE, etc.

Adverbs are indeclinable parts of speech with variable frequency rates, as some are really common while others are hardly attested. For this reason, we will present only the most frequent ones. We will include as well some recurrent adverbial expressions (i.e. formed by an adverb and other words), which are to be remembered as well.

2. Modal adverbs

These adverbs define the way in which an action is performed (they would respond to the question How?). While a lot of times the English equivalent form ends in -LY, other translations are possible as well.

a/ In Greek, most modal adverbs are formed adding the ending $-\tilde{\omega}\varsigma$ to the stem of the adjective they derive from (or replacing the $-\mathbf{v}$ of the genitive plural by a $-\varsigma$, if you prefer):

```
From σοφός
                     σοφῶς
                                 WISELY
From \dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\dot{\eta}c
                     ἀληθῶς TRULY
From δίκαιος
                     δικαίως FAIRLY, WITH JUSTICE
From ἡδύς
                                                  \diamond The genitive of the adjective is \dot{\eta}\delta\dot{\epsilon}o\varsigma.
                     ήδέως
                                 SWEETLY
From οδτος
                     ούτως
                                                 ♦ Note that this adverb has no corresponding English form in –LY.
                                 SO, THIS WAY
                     ώδε
From ὄδε
                                                 ♦ But the sigma has been lost.
                                 SO, THIS WAY
From ἄλλος
                     ἄλλως
                                 IN ANOTHER WAY
```

- ♦ Important expression: ἄλλως τε καί AND MAINLY, AND ESPECIALLY.
 - οὐδὲν νομίζω ἀνδρὶ ἄλλως τε καὶ ἄρχοντι κάλλιον εἶναι κτῆμα οὐδὲ λαμπρότερον ἀρετῆς καὶ δικαιοσύνης I THINK THAT FOR A MAN, AND ESPECIALLY IF HE IS A RULER, THERE IS NO BETTER OR BRIGHTER POSSESSION THAN VIRTUE AND JUSTICE (Xenophon, Anabasis).
- **b/** Other Greek adverbs do not follow the rule stated above:

[108]

```
τάχα QUICKLY ❖ Although ταχέως also exists

οὐδέν IN NO WAY

οὐδαμῶς IN NO WAY

βάδην STEP BY STEP
```

- \diamondsuit Important expression: **βάδην ταχύ** AT A QUICK PACE.
 - Χειρίσοφος δὲ **βάδην ταχ**ὺ ἐφείπετο σὺν τοῖς ὁπλίταις And Cheirisophos was going after [them] at a quick pace with the hoplites (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Some adverbs can even have a completely different stem from that of their related adjective: for example $\varepsilon \tilde{b}$ well has nothing to do with $\dot{a}\gamma a\theta \dot{o}\varsigma$.

c/ Many adverbs derive from accusative or dative forms of nouns or adjectives:

βία	BY FORCE	λάθρα	SECRETLY	προῖκα	FOR FREE
δημοσία	IN PUBLIC, PUBLICLY	έλληνιστί	IN GREEK	σφόδρα	STRONGLY
ίδία	IN PRIVATE, PRIVATELY	τέλος	FINALLY	μάτην	IN VAIN

- θαυμαστὸς οὐκ ἰδίᾳ μόνον ἀλλὰ καὶ δημοσίᾳ παρὰ πᾶσιν ἂν εἴης You would be admired not only within your private circle but also publicly (Xenophon, *Hiero*).
- d/ Finally other modal adverbs have absolutely independent forms, unrelated to any other adjective or noun:

```
μόλις HARDLY
ὥς SO, THIS WAY
```

• οὕτω μόλις ἀπῆλθον ἀπὸ τοῦ χωρίου, πῦρ ... ποιησάμενοι So they hardly went out of the place, after setting fire (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

3. Comparative and superlative of modal adverbs

[109]

a/ As well as adjectives do, adverbs may express different degrees of intensity:

HE DID IT WELL.
I DID IT BETTER.
YOU DID IT THE BEST.

Positive adverb
Comparative adverb
Superlative adverb

The starting point to form different degrees of an adverb is the adjective from which the adverb derives; for instance, if we want to say Socrates explained this wisely, we will say \dot{o} Σωκράτης τοῦτο διῆλθε σοφῶς, using the normal adverb wisely, but if we want to say more wisely (comparative adverb), we must first form the comparative of the adjective wise, which would be σοφώτερος, $-\alpha$, $-\infty$, and its neuter form σοφώτερον will be used as comparative adverb:

• ὁ Σωκράτης τοῦτο διῆλθε σοφώτερον Socrates explained this more wisely.

 π Note that some comparative adverbs ending in $-\omega \varsigma$ can be found exceptionally in Plato and Thucydides, for instance ἀληθεστέρως instead of ἀληθέστερον, or even using the irregular ones:

• τὸ πρᾶγμα μετζόνως ἐλάμβανον They τοοκ the matter rather seriously (Thucydides, Historiae).

[♦] Important expression: ἀλλὰ καὶ ὅς BUT EVEN SO.

If we want to say VERY WISELY, MOST WISELY, we will use the neuter plural superlative form of its adjective, σοφώτατα:

• ὁ Σωκράτης τοῦτο διῆλθε **σοφώτατα** Socrates explained this most wisely / very wisely.

 \blacksquare Note that the superlative adverb $\sigma \circ \phi \circ \tau = \tau \circ \tau$ could have been translated as well in this way:

• \dot{o} Σωκράτης τοῦτο διῆλθε **σοφώτατα** Socrates is the one who explained it in the wisest way.

More examples:

- ἐγὼ μὲν τοῦτο ἡδέως ἐποίησα, σὸ δὲ ἥδιον, ὁ δὲ Περικλῆς ἥδιστα I did this with pleasure, you with more pleasure, and Pericles with much pleasure. \diamondsuit Or ... and Pericles is the one who did it with the most pleasure.
- ἐνῆγε δὲ προθυμότατα τὴν στρατείαν ᾿Αλκιβιάδης Alcibiades encouraged the expedition most eagerly.
- ♦ Or Alcibiades is the one who encouraged the expedition most eagerly (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

b/ If the adjective forms its comparative and superlative forms irregularly, the same will happen with the different degrees of the adverb, as the comparative and superlative of the adjective will be the basis to form the comparative or superlative forms of the adverb:

- $\delta \Sigma \omega \kappa \rho \acute{\alpha}$ the touto $\delta i \tilde{\eta} \lambda \theta \epsilon \beta \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \tau i o v$ Socrates explained this better.
- ὁ Σωκράτης τοῦτο διῆλθε **βέλτιστα** Socrates explained this very well/socrates was the best at explaining this.
- ἐγὼ μὲν τοῦτο ταχέως ἐποίησα, σὰ δὲ θᾶττον, ὁ δὲ Περικλῆς τάχιστα I did this quickly, you did it more quickly, and Pericles very quickly. \diamondsuit Or Pericles is the one who did it most quickly.
- οἱ δὲ Σκιρῖται ἰδόντες αὐτοὺς θᾶττον ἢ βάδην ἀπῆλθον And the Sciritans, having seen them, departed more quickly than just walking (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

c/ In order to convey the expression As ... AS POSSIBLE with adverbs, we must use the particle $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ before the superlative form of the adverb, similarly to the construction $\dot{\omega}\varsigma + sup.$ adjective that we have already studied.

• ὁ στρατιώτης ἀνδρειότατα ἐμαχέσατο The soldier fought very bravely.

ό στρατιώτης ώς άνδρειότατα έμαχέσατο THE SOLDIER FOUGHT AS BRAVELY AS POSSIBLE.

• ὁ διδάσκαλος τάχιστα ἦλθεν The Teacher came very quickly.

ό διδάσκαλος $\dot{\omega}$ ς τάχιστα $\tilde{\eta}$ λθεν THE TEACHER CAME AS QUICKLY AS POSSIBLE.

• ἀκούσαντες ταῦτα οἱ στρατιῶται ... ἐψηφίσαντο πλεῖν αὐτὸν ὡς τάχιστα After hearing this, the soldiers ... νοτεd that he should depart as quickly as possible (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

4. Quantitative adverbs

[111]

a/ The most well-known adverbs are reported in the following sequence, which comprehends respectively the *positive* - *comparative* - *superlative* forms of the same adverb:

μάλα - μᾶλλον - μάλιστα MUCH/VERY - MORE - MOST

Let's remember that the expression RATHER ... THAN is $\mu\tilde{\alpha}\lambda\lambda$ ov ... η :

• μᾶλλον ἂν ἕλοιτό μ' ἢ τοὺς πάντας ᾿Αργείους λαβεῖν He would prefer to capture me rather than capture all the Argives (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).

- ♦ Another important expression: ὡς οἶόν τε μάλιστα AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE:
 - διέβαινον τὴν γέφυραν ... ὡς οἶόν τε μάλιστα πεφυλαγμένως They crossed the bridge ... paying as much attention as possible (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

b/ The following quantitative adverbs are independent from each other and do not form any family:

 πολύ
 ΜUCH
 ἄδην
 ABUNDANTLY

 ὀλίγον
 FEW
 μόνον
 ONLY

 ἄλις
 ENOUGH
 παντάπασιν
 COMPLETELY, A

ἄλις ENOUGH παντάπασιν COMPLETELY, AT ALL ἄγαν ΤΟΟ ΜUCH

• Κορίνθιοι μὲν παντάπασιν οὐκ ἡκολούθουν αὐτοῖς ΤΗΕ CORINTHIANS DID NOT ACCOMPANY THEM AT ALL (Xenophon, Hellenica).

 \diamondsuit While $\mu \acute{\alpha} \lambda \alpha$ is more relative to intensity, $\pi o \lambda \acute{v}$ is more relative to quantity.

5. Adverbs of time

They are quite easy to remember; the following list shows the most common ones, grouped by related meanings:

🗖 ἀεί / ἀιεί	ALWAYS	🗖 πάλαι	LONG AGO	🗖 πρώ	EARLY IN THE DAY	🗖 χθές	YESTERDAY
είς ἀεί	FOREVER	νῦν	NOW	ὀψέ	LATE	τήμερον	TODAY
οὐδέποτε	NEVER	τότε	THEN			αὔριον	TOMORROW

♦ IMPORTANT EXPRESSION: ὁ ἀεὶ χρόνος ETERNITY.

ἀρτιRECENTLYΞ εὐθύςAT ONCE, IMMEDIATELYἔως ἄρτιUNTIL JUST NOWαὐτίκαIMMEDIATELY

ἔτι STILL, YET αὐτίκα μάλα IN THE VERY MOMENT, IMMEDIATELY

ἤδη ALREADY

♦ Observe this possible use of ἤδη: οὐ μόνον... ἀλλὰ ἤδη = οὐ μόνον... ἀλλὰ καί ΝΟΤ ΟΝLY... ΒυΤ ALSO.

□πρῶτον FIRST □πάλιν AGAIN □ἐξαίφνης SUDDENLY ὕστερον AFTERWARDS αὖθις AGAIN ἔπειτα / εἶτα AFTERWARDS

- \diamondsuit &\$\delta\delta(\gamma)\delta\omega\text{ou}\delta\omega\text{has the same meaning as &\$\delta(\delta\omega)\empty\eta_s}.
 - ἐὰν ἀκούσητέ μου, ἐγὰ ὑμῖν **αὐτίκα** μάλα ἐπιδείξω If you listen to me, I will show you in this very moment (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
 - τοῖς μὲν ἐξ ὀλίγου τε ἐγίγνετο This happened suddenly to them (Thucydides, Historiae).
 - ♦ Meaning they did not expect it, they did not have time to react.

[113]

6. Adverbs of place

a/ Some adverbs of place state the position of an object with respect to a given point of reference. Some of these adverbs will be mentioned again in the section devoted to *Prepositional adverbs*, as they may also work as prepositions followed by a noun in genitive. The following list divides adverbs according to their sense, to facilitate their memorisation:

🗖 ἄνω	ABOVE	🗖 ἔνδον	INSIDE	🗖 ἔμπροσθεν	IN FRONT OF
κάτω	UNDER	ἔξω	OUTSIDE, APART FROM	ὄπισθεν	BEHIND
🗖 πλησίο	v NEAR	🗖 μεταξύ	IN THE MIDDLE OF /	BETWEEN	
έγγύς	NEAR	άντικρύ	IN FRONT		
μακράν	FAR AWAY				
πόρρω	FAR AWAY				

- οὐ πόρρω ἔδει αὐτὸν ἐλθεῖν He did not have to go far away (Demosthenes, *In Evergum et Mnesibulum*).
- τότε μὲν δὴ ὁ ᾿Αγησίλαος τροπαῖόν τ᾽ ἐστήσατο μεταξὺ Πραντὸς καὶ Ναρθακίου Agesilaos erected a monument of triumph between Pras and Narthacium (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

The most frequent adverbs of place are the following ones:

ένθάδε	HERE	δεῦρο	(TOWARDS) HERE	ἐνθένδε	FROM HERE
ἐκεῖ	THERE	έκεῖσε	(TOWARDS) THERE	ἐκεῖθεν	FROM THERE

b/ With reference to these last forms, note that the ending $-\theta \varepsilon v$ usually means FROM, and that the ending $-\sigma \varepsilon$ (that may suffer alterations) means usually TOWARDS. Let's see some examples:

_	πανταχοῦ	EVERYWHERE	🗖 αὐτόθι / αὐτοῦ	IN THE SAME PLACE	🗖 ἄλλοθι	ELSEWHERE
	πανταχόσε	(TOWARDS) EVERYWHERE	αὐτόσε	TO THE SAME PLACE	άλλοσε	TO ELSEWHERE
	πανταχόθε	v FROM EVERYWHERE	αὐτόθεν	FROM THE SAME PLACE	ἄλλοθεν	FROM ELSEWHERE
_	οἴκοι	AT HOME	🗖 'Αθήνησι	in Athens		
	οἴκαδε	(TOWARDS) HOME	'Αθήναζε	TOWARDS ATHENS		
	οἴκοθεν	FROM HOME	'Αθήνηθεν	FROM ATHENS		

This suffix $-\theta \epsilon v$ can be found in many adverbs indicating where from the object is moving:

```
ἄνωθενFROM ABOVEἔνδοθενFROM INSIDEκάτωθενFROM BELOWἔξωθενFROM OUTSIDE
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- ξένος πανταχοῦ εἰμι Ι AM A STRANGER EVERYWHERE (Xenophon, Memorabilia).
- προαφιγμένος δὲ αὐτόσε ἦν καὶ ὁ Θρασύβουλος ΤΗRASYBULUS HAD COME ΤΟ THE SAME PLACE (Thucydides, Historiae).

c/ There are many more adverbs of place that will be learnt by means of practice (e.g. $\pi o \lambda \lambda \alpha \chi o \tilde{v}$ IN MANY PLACES, etc.). An important expression to remember is $\tilde{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta$ Here and There. See this example:

• ἄλλη καὶ ἄλλη προσέπιπτον They attacked here and there (Flavius Arrianus, Alexandri Anabasis).

d/ As a final point, it would be worth mentioning that some adverbs of place, especially those ending in $-\omega$, have comparative and superlative forms (observe that they usually feature the irregular endings in $-\omega$, even though the regular forms in $-\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma$ and $-\tau\alpha\tau\alpha$ can also be found):

ἄνω	ABOVE	ἀνωτέρω	FURTHER ABOVE	άνωτάτω	VERY MUCH ABOVE
κάτω	UNDER	κατωτέρω	FURTHER UNDER	κατωτάτω	VERY MUCH UNDER
έγγύς	NEAR	έγγυτέρω	NEARER	έγγύτατα / ἔγγιστα	NEAREST
πόρρω	FAR AWAY	πορρωτέρω	FURTHER AWAY	πορρωτάτω	FURTHEST AWAY

- μετὰ δὲ τοῦτο Βρασίδας καὶ τὸ στράτευμα ἐχώρουν ἐγγυτέρω τῆς θαλάττης After this Brasidas and the army moved nearer to the sea (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- παρεσκευάζετο γὰρ πορευσόμενος ὡς δύναιτο ἀνωτάτω He was preparing to go as much above ("inland") as he could (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

7. Interrogative adverbs

[115]

a/ In modal sense:

 $π\tilde{\omega}$ ς; How? • $π\tilde{\omega}$ ς τοῦτο ἐποίησας; How did you do this?

b/ In *causal* sense:

 τi ; WHY? \diamond The usual way of asking WHY is $\delta i \dot{\alpha} \tau i$, but the neuter τi on its own may also have this meaning:

τί ἥκεις: Why have you come?

c/ In temporal sense:

πότε; When? • πότε αὕτη ἡ μάχη ἐγένετο; When did this battle take place?

ightharpoonup Important expression: ἔως πότε; Up until when?

ἔως πότε μεθυσθήση; UP UNTIL WHEN WILL YOU BE DRUNK? (Philo Iudaeus, De Ebrietate).

d/ In *local* sense:

 $\pi o \tilde{v};$ Where? $\pi o \tilde{t};$ Where to? $\pi o \theta \epsilon v;$ Where from?

• πόθεν καὶ ποῖ βαίνεις; Where [have you come] from and where are you going?

e/ In quantitative sense:

πόσον; How Much? \diamondsuit Important expression: ἐπὶ πόσω; For How Much? (asking for a price).

• ἐπὶ πόσῷ ἂν αὐτοῦ δέξαιο στέρεσθαι; For how much would you accept to be deprived of it? (Plato, Alcibiades).

8. Indefinite adverbs [116]

a/ In the section on pronouns, we have dealt with indefinite pronouns. There are also indefinite adverbs, indeclinable (as all adverbs), mostly deriving from interrogative adverbs, which become indefinite just by means of a change in the accentuation (or complete lack of it). Observe these two sentences:

ποῦ διδάσκει ὁ Σωκράτης; Where does Socrates teach?
ὁ Σωκράτης που διδάσκει Socrates teaches somewhere.

 \diamondsuit While $\pi o \tilde{v}$ means Where?, $\pi o v$ means somewhere.

Following the same rule:

πῶς τοσούτους πολεμίους ἐνίκησας;
Τοσούτους πολεμίους πως ἐνίκησεν.
Ηοw did you conquer so many enemies?
Ηε conquered so many enemies somehow.

 \diamondsuit While $\pi\tilde{\omega}\varsigma$ means How?, $\pi\omega\varsigma$ means somehow.

IN Note that sometimes the indefinite adverb, in spite of being indefinite, has an accent on it for reasons given by a combination of numerous accentuation rules, but note that the kind of accent is different or is placed on a different syllable:

πότε οὖτος ὁ πόλεμος τελευτήσει;
Οὖτος ὁ πόλεμος τελευτήσει ποτέ
ΤΗΙς WAR WILL END AT SOME TIME.

b/ As well as $\pi o \tilde{v}$, the interrogatives $\pi o \tilde{i}$ and $\pi o \theta \epsilon v$ have their indefinite adverbs too:

ποῖ τρέχεις; Where are you running to?
 τρέχω ποι I am running (το) somewhere.
 πόθεν ἥκεις; Where do you come from?

• ἐξαίφνης οἱ πολέμιοἱ ποθεν ἀφίκοντο Suddenly the enemies arrived from somewhere.

c/ Remember that these indefinite adverbs, as they are enclitics, can never open a sentence, e.g. it is wrong to write $\pi\omega\varsigma$ τοῦτο ποιήσω I will do this somehow. The indefinite adverb has to be postponed, so that the right sentence would be τοῦτό $\pi\omega\varsigma$ ποιήσω.

A couple more of examples:

- καὶ τότε δὴ ἤρξατο ὧδέ $\pi\omega\varsigma$. ΤΩ ἄνδρες Λακεδαιμόνιοι, ... And then he began somehow in this way: O Spartans, ... (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- καί τινες καὶ ἐπολέμησάν ποτε αὐτῶν And some of them also waged war at some point (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

9. Affirmative and negative adverbs

a) Affirmative adverbs [117]

The most important affirmative adverb is vai Yes, with the emphatic form $\mu a \lambda \sigma \tau a$, a very strong Yes.

Other expressions used to give affirmative answers are the following ones:

Ψ νὴ τὸν Δία
 Υες, βy Zeus.
 Ψ ἔστι γὰρ οὖν
 It is certainly so.

 ψ ἴσως Perhaps, Maybe. φ It is not an affirmative adverb, though, but we have included it here.

- ὁ οὖν Κέβης ὑπολαβών, Νὴ τὸν Δία, ὧ Σώκρατες, ἔφη And Cebes, Answering, said "Yes, by Zeus, Socrates" (Plato, Phaedo).
- ἴσως τοίνυν, ὧ ἄνδρες δικασταί, περὶ τούτων μὲν οὐδὲν ἀπολογήσεται Maybe, O Judges, He will provide NO excuses on these points (Lysias, *In Theomnestum*).

b) Negative adverbs [118]

1/ Main ones: $o\mathring{v}$ and $\mu\acute{\eta}$ NO / NOT

a/ The adverb $o\dot{v}$ has three possible morphological variants, according to the opening syllable of the word following the adverb: $o\dot{v}$ can be used if the following word starts with a consonant, $o\dot{v}\kappa$ can be used if the following word starts with a vowel with a smooth breathing mark, and $o\dot{v}\chi$ can be used if the following word starts with a vowel with a rough breathing mark.

- οὐ γράφω μύθους Ι DO NOT WRITE MYTHS.
- οὐκ ἔχω λίθους Ι DO NOT HAVE STONES.
- οὐχ οἱ δοῦλοι ἀλλὰ οἱ γεωργοὶ ἵππους ἔχουσιν ΝΟΤ THE SLAVES, BUT THE FARMERS HAVE HORSES.

The adverb $\mu \hat{\eta}$ is used to substitute $o\hat{v}$ in some main clauses expressing desire, prohibitions, etc., and in some subordinate clauses like conditionals, purpose and result clauses:

• $\epsilon \ddot{\imath} \theta \epsilon$ où $\pi o \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \mu \iota o \iota \mu \dot{\eta} \ddot{\eta} \kappa o \iota \epsilon v$ If only the enemy were not coming!

• μὴ ποίει τοῦτο Don't do this!

μὴ τοίνυν ὄκνει, ἔφη
 So do not hesitate, he said (Xenophon, Memorabilia).

- εἰ χρήματα τοῖς στρατιώταις μὴ παρέχεις, οὐ μάχονται IF YOU DO NOT OFFER MONEY TO THE SOLDIERS, THEY DO NOT FIGHT.
 - \diamond Observe that $\mu \acute{\eta}$ is used only in the "IF" clause (*protasis*).
- ἐκ τῆς πόλεως ἐξέρχομαι ἵνα οἱ πολέμιοι ἐμὲ μὴ λαβῶσιν Ι ΑΜ GOING OUT OF THE CITY SO THAT THE ENEMY CANNOT
- οὕτω δ' ἐτάχθησαν, ἵνα μὴ διέκπλουν διδοῖεν Τhey were arranged in this way, το avoid giving a way through (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

b/ In the sentences that would use $\mu \hat{\eta}$ as negative, as the ones provided above, compound negatives are formed with the [119] adverb $\mu \hat{\eta}$ as prefix:

• ἐκ τῆς πόλεως ἐξέρχομαι ἵνα μηδεὶς ἐμὲ ἀποκτείνη Ι ΑΜ GOING OUT OF THE CITY SO THAT NOBODY CAN KILL ME.

• οὕτως βραδύς ἐστιν ὥστε **μηδένα** νικᾶν δύνασθαι ΗΕ IS SO SLOW THAT HE CAN BEAT NOBODY.

• ἐὰν μηδὲν ποιῶμεν, τὴν πόλιν οὐ σώσομεν If we do not do anything, we will not save the city.

• τῆ ὀργῆ οὕτω χαλεπῆ ἐχρῆτο ... ὥστε **μηδένα** δύνασθαι προσιέναι And he had such a bad temper that nobody could approach him (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

2/ Strong denials:

A very strong way of answering No would be $o\dot{v}$ $\pi \dot{\alpha} v v \tau \iota$:

• οὐ πάνυ τι μέντοι μοι δοκεῖ οὕτως ἔχειν Ι DO NOT THINK THIS TO BE SO AT ALL (Plato, Cratylus).

Also οὐχί means a strong denial.

Other ways of expressing negative meaning:

Ψ In modal sense: οὐδαμῶς IN NO WAY
 Ψ In temporal sense: οὐδέποτε / οὕποτε NEVER

• ἄτοπα λέγεις, ὧ Σώκρατες, καὶ οὐδαμῶς πρὸς σοῦ ΙΤ IS STRANGE WHAT YOU SAY, SOCRATES, AND IN NO WAY NORMAL IN YOU (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

 μ Remember the possibility of swapping $o\dot{v}$ - with $\mu\eta$ - in these compound forms, if syntax needs it, as in the cases considered above.

3/ Position:

As a general rule, the negative is placed in front of the element to be denied:

οἰκῶ σὐκ ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις ἀλλὰ ἐν τῆ Σπάρτη
 Νῦν ὁ πατὴρ σὐ γράφει
 Τινε not in Athens but in Sparta.
 Τhe father is not writing now.

• οὐχ ὁ πατὴρ γράφει ἀλλὰ ἡ μήτηρ IT IS NOT THE FATHER WHO IS WRITING, BUT THE MOTHER.

10. Prepositional adverbs

[120]

a/ There are a group of words in Greek that perform as if they were prepositions, as for instance $\alpha v \epsilon v$ which takes the genitive and means without:

• ἐνίκησα ἄνευ βοηθείας Ι WON WITHOUT HELP.

But these words are not prepositions, although they look like it, and the distinguishing trait is that they can not be used to form compound verbs: for example, we can say ἀναβαίνω, καταβαίνω, etc., but we can not say ἀνευβαίνω. Sometimes they can play the role of simple adverbs:

• πόρρω εἰμί ΙΑΜ FAR AWAY.

b/ The first twelve adverbs of place mentioned in Point 6 (*Adverbs of place*) can be used as prepositional adverbs:

ἄνω above κάτω under ἔνδον inside ἔξω outside / apart from ἔμπροσθεν in front of ὅπισθεν behind πλησίον near ἐγγύς near μακράν far away from πόρρω far away from μεταξύ in the middle of ἀντικρύ in front of.

If used as such, all of them must be followed by a genitive:

• ἔξω τῆς οἰκίας OUT OF THE HOUSE

• ἐγγὺς τῆς πόλεως NEAR THE CITY

c/ Apart from these, there are other adverbs that can be used as prepositions, also taking the genitive (or sometimes an infinitive), except for $\dot{\omega}_{S}$ and $\ddot{\omega}_{\mu}\alpha$. The following list features the most frequent ones:

ἄνευ	WITHOUT	έναντίον	IN FRONT (OF)	ένεκα	BECAUSE OF
μέχρι	UNTIL	πέραν	BEYOND	πόρρω (ἀπό)	AWAY (FROM)
εἴσω	(TOWARDS) INSIDE	πλήν	EXCEPT	ἄλις	ENOUGH (OF)

 \diamondsuit The preposition $\dot{\alpha}\pi\dot{o}$ follows, if $\pi\dot{o}\rho\rho\omega$ is used as preposition.

• τίνι γὰρ ἂν πόλις ἀρέσκοι ἄνευ νόμων; Who would like a city without laws? (Plato, *Crito*).

ἄλις παιδιᾶς, ὧ Λυκῖνε
 ENOUGH OF JOKES, LYCINUS (Lucian, Navigium).

• τί οὖν μ' ἄνωγας ἄλλο πλὴν ψευδῆ λέγειν; What else have you ordered me except telling lies? (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).

ἕνεκα is always postponed to the genitive:

• τῆς νίκης ἔνεκα χαίρομαι | REJOICE BECAUSE OF THE VICTORY.

• τίνος ἕνεκα; Why?

d/ ἄμ α TOGETHER WITH takes the dative:

ἄμα τῷ ἡλίω
 ΤΟGETHER WITH THE SUN / AT SUNRISE

• ἄμα δὲ τῆ ἡμέρα ὁρῶσιν ἱππέας ΑΤ DAYBREAK THEY SEE SOME HORSEMEN (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

And the word $\dot{\omega}_{c}$, if used with a noun denoting a person, means towards and it takes the accusative:

• τρέχω ὡς τὸν φίλον = τρέχω πρὸς τὸν φίλον Ι AM RUNNING TOWARDS MY FRIEND.

• ἦκε δ' ἀγγέλλων τις ὡς τοὺς πρυτάνεις ὡς Ἐλάτεια κατείληπται IT was in the afternoon, and somebody came to the Prytaneans announcing that Elatea had been captured (Demosthenes, *De Corona*).

Observe, in this last example, the double use of $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$.

i) Correlatives

1. Correlative adverbs [122]

a) Definitions and example

The group of *correlatives* comprises words that share a stem and, according to their final form, may be a relative adjective/pronoun, a direct interrogative adverb, an indefinite adverb, etc. Let's see, for example, the series of correlatives deriving from the interrogative adverb $\pi \tilde{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ How:

- 1/ The interrogative adverb $\pi \tilde{\omega} \varsigma$; means How?, as in the following example:
 - πῶς τοῦτο ποιήσεις; How will you do this?
- **2/** The same adverb without accent (or with a change in it, depending on accent rules) conveys an indefinite nuance of the adverb, meaning SOMEHOW:
 - τοῦτό πως ποιήσω Ι WILL DO THIS SOMEHOW.
- **3/** In order to make the direct question indirect, we may add the prefix \dot{o} to the interrogative adverb (the choice is optional, and will probably cause a change in the accent), with the following result:
 - ὁ μαθητὴς ἐρωτῷ ὄπως τοῦτο ποιήσω The student is asking how I will do this.
 - \diamond Do not confuse this adverb $\check{o}\pi\omega\varsigma$ with the conjunction that introduces a purpose clause.
- **4/** The word without the initial π means As / HOWEVER in relative sense; please note that the rough breathing mark is still present in this form:
 - τοῦτο ποιήσω ὡς σὰ κελεύεις Ι WILL DO THIS [AS/IN THE WAY/HOWEVER] YOU ORDER.
 - \diamond Do not confuse this $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ with the conjunction that introduces a temporal clause.
- **5/** To convey this same relative sense but with an indefinite nuance (HOWEVER/IN WHATEVER WAY), we add \dot{o} -, as we have done to form the indirect interrogative:
 - τοῦτο ποιήσω ὅπως σὰ κελεύεις I WILL DO THIS IN WHATEVER WAY YOU ORDER.
- **6/** The final element that belongs to this "family" of correlatives of the same word is the demonstrative adverb, meaning so / THIS WAY:
 - τοῦτο τος (or τος o τοῦτως) ἐποίησα Ι DID THIS IN THIS WAY.

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7/ To sum up, the correlative adverbs deriving from $\pi \tilde{\omega} c$ are the following ones: ☐ Direct question: $\pi \tilde{\omega} \subseteq$ ☐ Indirect question: ŏπως ☐ Indefinite: ♦ Or change of accent, if needed by accent rules. πως ☐ Relative: ώς \Box Indefinite relative: $\delta\pi\omega\varsigma$ ♦ As for the indirect question. ■ Demonstrative: **ἄς, ούτως, ὧδε** Note The form of indirect question is also used to repeat a question: • πῶς ἔχεις; How are you? • ὅπως; κακῶς, ὧ φίλε How? Bad, My Friend. This can be applied to anyone of the other interrogative adverbs presented further ahead in this chapter. Let's see some examples: • οὐ μέντοι γε σιωπῶν οἶδα ὅπως ἄξια τοῦ δείπνου ἐργάσομαι IF I KEEP SILENT, I DO NOT KNOW HOW I WILL DO SOMETHING WORTHY OF THE DINNER (Xenophon, Symposium). • ἀλλ' ἔχει μέν, ἔφη ὁ Σωκράτης, ποικίλως πως ταῦτα, ὧ Κριτόβουλε BUT THIS, SOCRATES SAID, IS SOMEHOW COMPLICATED, o Critobulus (Xenophon, Memorabilia). • πῶς οὖν, ἔφη, τοῦτο διδάξω; How then - He said - Will I teach this? (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*). • ὕστερον δὲ ἐς τὸ αὐτὸ ξυνελθόντες οὐδ' τς ἐδυνήθησαν ξυμβῆναι LATER NOT EVEN BY MEETING IN THE SAME PLACE WERE THEY ABLE TO AGREE (Thucydides, Historiae). b) The same again with another adverb [123] Following the same rules exemplified above, let's see now the correlative adverbs belonging to the "family" of the

interrogative adverb $\pi o \tilde{v}$; where?:

♦ Observe that the demonstratives may have another stem.

■ Direct question: ποῦ ☐ Indirect question: ŏπου ☐ Indefinite: ♦ Or change of accent, if needed by accent rules. που ☐ Relative: တ် ☐ Indefinite relative: ♦ As for the indirect question. ŏπου

Some examples featuring these correlative adverbs:

☐ Demonstrative:

• ποῦ ἐστιν ὁ ἐμὸς ἀδελφός; WHERE IS MY BROTHER?

• ἐρωτῷ ὅπου ὁ ἀδελφός ἐστιν HE IS ASKING WHERE HIS BROTHER IS.

ἐνθάδε HERE, ἐκεῖ THERE

• ὁ ἐμὸς ἀδελφός πού ἐστιν MY BROTHER IS SOMEWHERE. ♦ Note the accent change.

 μενῶ οὖ σὺ κελεύεις I WILL WAIT WHERE YOU ORDER. • μενῶ ὅπου σὰ κελεύης ἄν I WILL WAIT WHEREVER YOU ORDER.

• ὁ ἀδελφὸς ἐνθάδε ἐστίν MY BROTHER IS HERE.

• ἐξέσται ἄσπερ τυφλοὺς ... τύπτειν ὅπου αν βουλώμεθα IT WILL BE POSSIBLE TO HIT THEM WHEREVER WE WANT, AS IF THEY WERE BLIND (Xenophon, Hellenica).

• καὶ οὖτοι μὲν νυκτὸς διακομισθέντες που τῆς χώρας εἰσῆλθον εἰς τὴν πόλιν And these men, being brought across by night somewhere in the country, entered the city (Xenophon, Hellenica).

c) With other adverbs

[124]

Therefore by adding the suffix \dot{o} -, making the adverb enclitic (no accent), or omitting the initial π -, etc., we can form all the correlative forms of an adverb. We could do the same with the interrogative adverbs $\pi o \tilde{\iota}$ where $\tau o \tilde$

1/ I WONDER WHEN HE WILL COME HERE.

Inside this sentence we have an indirect question, so let's put the $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ - at the beginning of $\pi \acute{\mathbf{o}} \tau \epsilon$ when? (but remember that it is not compulsory):

• θαυμάζω ὁπότε δεῦρο εἶσιν.

2/ PERHAPS I WILL DO THIS SOMETIME.

The adverb sometime is indefinite, so let's put the word $\pi \acute{o}\tau \epsilon$ when? as enclitic:

• ἴσως τοῦτό ποτε ποιήσω.

3/ HE WENT WHERE HE WAS ORDERED TO.

Here the adverb where has a relative sense ("TO THE PLACE TOWARDS WHICH"), so we will elide the initial π - from the word $\pi \tilde{o} \tilde{\iota}$ whither?:

• ἀπέβη οἱ ἐκελεύθη.

Some examples from Xenophon:

- ὑπότε τοίνυν σοι δοκεῖ καλῶς ἔχειν, πρόσιθι πρὸς αὐτόν Whenever it seems right to you, go to him (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).
- ὡς δ' ἐξήγαγέ ποτε, προθύμως μὲν ἠκολούθουν ὅποι ἡγοῖτο Whenever he led (them) out, they followed him eagerly wherever he would take them (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- πάντες οἱ τούτων ἄρχοντες ἔχουσι δεῖξαι ὑπόθεν ἔμαθον ταῦτα All who rule on these matters can show where they learnt these things from (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

Note

The adverbs $o\tilde{\mathbf{o}}$, $o\tilde{\mathbf{i}}$, $o\tilde{\mathbf{e}}$, v, derived from the interrogatives $\pi o\tilde{\mathbf{o}}$, $\pi o\tilde{\mathbf{i}}$, $\pi o\tilde{\mathbf{e}} v$, are sometimes called *relative adverbs*, as they actually replace them:

- πορεύομαι πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἐν ή οἰκεῖς $\,$ I AM GOING TOWARDS THE CITY IN WHICH YOU LIVE means the same as
- πορεύομαι πρὸς τὴν πόλιν $\mathbf{o} \dot{\mathbf{o}}$ οἰκεῖς I AM GOING TOWARDS THE CITY WHERE YOU LIVE.

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2. Correlative adjectives

[125]

In the first part of this chapter, we have learnt how to construct *families* of correlative adverbs; now let's do the same with adjectives. The method to be followed will be the same one, and moreover the correlative adjectives can be used in all grammatical cases.

a) The correlatives such ... as and so many ... as

1/ We will begin with the study of the *quantitative* and the *qualitative* correlative adjectives, given their importance as they can perform some functions proper to demonstrative and relative adjectives.

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↓ τοιοῦτος ... οἶος↓ τοσοῦτος ... ὅσος
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τοιοῦτος is a qualitative demonstrative, and it could be translated as SUCH, OF SUCH A KIND. It is declined like οὖτος:

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Nom. τοιοῦτος, τοιαύτη, τοιοῦτο Acc. τοιοῦτον, τοιαύτην, τοιοῦτο etc.
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οἶος is a *qualitative relative* used to establish comparisons, meaning (such) as, although the translation may vary to show the correlation with the demonstrative adjective τοιοῦτος, which is almost always used in combination with οἷος. οἷος follows the same declension of the adjective δίκαιος, $-\alpha$, $-\infty$.

2/ Now we will show with some examples how these qualitative demonstrative and qualitative relative adjectives are used to compare things or people:

- τοιαύτην πόλιν ὁρῷ οἴαν οὐδέποτε σὰ εἶδες | I see such a city as you have never seen before.
 - \diamond Literally, I see such a city such as you have never seen, but the second such is superfluous in the translation.
- τοιοῦτοί εἰσιν οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι οἴους νικᾶν οὐ δυνάμεθα The Athenians are such (literally, of such a kind) as we are not able to conquer.
 - ♦ A better translation could be The Athenians are the kind of people we can't conquer.
- ἐν τοιαύτη πόλει οἰκοῦμεν ἐν οἴᾳ πάντες οἰκεῖν φιλοῖεν ἄν We live in such a city as (literally, in such as) all would love to live.
 - ♦ Or also WE LIVE IN THE KIND OF CITY IN WHICH ALL WOULD LOVE TO LIVE. The possibilities of translation are several, provided that they show the correlation between the demonstrative and the relative.

The qualitative relative can also be used without the corresponding qualitative demonstrative:

• δοκῶ γὰρ οἶον εἶπας ἄντρον εἰσορᾶν ΙτΗΙΝΚ I see a cave such as the one you said (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).

Other examples:

• τοιαῦτα γὰρ καὶ ἐμελετομεν καὶ ἐσοφιζόμεθα οἶάπερ καὶ σὺ νῦν ἐμοὶ δοκεῖς μελετᾶν For we practised and philosophised about that kind of matters, such as now you seem to me to be practising (Xenophon, Memorabilia).

• οὐχ ὁ Κύρου τρόπος τοιοῦτος οἶος χρηματίζεσθαι, ἀλλὰ διδοὺς μᾶλλον ἢ κτώμενος ἥδεται Cyrus' way (of being) is not such as to accumulate wealth, but he prefers giving wealth away rather than getting it (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

3/ A similar phenomenon happens with the couple $\tau o \sigma o \tilde{\tau} o \sigma c$, but in this case what is pointed out is the quantity, not the quality, as they are a *quantitative demonstrative* and a *quantitative relative adjective*. They are inflected like the previous ones, with the difference being that the relative follows the -o c, $-\eta$, -o v scheme (instead of -o c, $-\alpha$, -o v).

τοσοῦτος could be translated as so BIG (so MANY in plural), and ισσος as (so BIG) As (so MANY As in plural). Let's see some examples:

• οὐδεὶς ἔχει τοσαύτας βίβλους ὅσας ἐγὼ ἔχω
 • τοσοῦτο ξίφος ἔχει οὖτος ὁ στρατιώτης ὅσον σὺ οὐδέποτε εἶδες
 NOBODY HAS AS MANY BOOKS AS I (HAVE).
 • ΤΗΙS SOLDIER HAS SUCH A BIG SWORD AS YOU

• ἐν τοσαύτη μάχη ἐμαχησάμην ὄσην οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι οὐδέποτε ἐποιήσαντο Ι FOUGHT IN SUCH A BIG BATTLE AS THE ATHENIANS NEVER FOUGHT.

Note that, if in the former sentence we had written ἐν τοιαύτη μάχη ἐμαχησάμην οἴαν οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι οὐδέποτε ἐποιήσαντο, we would emphasise some particular characteristic of the battle (cruel, harsh, or maybe short, or long, etc.), not the size: I FOUGHT IN SUCH (A KIND OF) A BATTLE AS ("OF THE KIND THAT") THE ATHENIANS NEVER FOUGHT.

- εὖ τοίνυν ἐπίστασθε ὅτι ὑμεῖς **τοσοῦτοι** ὄντες **ὅσοι** συνεληλύθατε μέγιστον ἔχετε καιρόν ΚΝΟW WELL THAT YOU, BEING AS MANY AS YOU ARE HERE, HAVE A GREAT OPPORTUNITY (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἀλλὰ γὰρ ὅπλα τῶν πολεμίων ἐσκύλευσαν τοσαῦτα ὅσα περ ὑμῶν ἀφείλοντο For they despoiled the enemy of as many arms as they took from you (Lysias, Against Eratosthenes).

The difference *qualitative-quantitative* must be clear:

HAVE NEVER SEEN.

οἰκῶ ἐν τοιαύτη πόλει... Ι LIVE IN SUCH A [NICE] CITY...
 ♦ Emphasis on the quality, style, etc.

οἰκῶ ἐν τοσαύτη πόλει... Ι LIVE IN SUCH A [BIG] CITY...
 ♦ Emphasis on the size.

4/ Sometimes the demonstrative is not mentioned in Greek, but it must be mentioned in English:

[127]

Often the antecedent is $\pi \acute{a} v \tau \epsilon \varsigma$, and in this case the sentence has the sense of ALL WHO:

• πάντες ὅσοι ἐν τῆ μάχη ἐμαχήσαντο ἀνδρεῖοί εἰσιν All who fought in the battle are brave.

The quantitative adjective $\delta \sigma o \iota$ may also be used without specifying the antecedent, although we need it in English. Therefore, the former example could have omitted the first word:

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- ὄσοι ἐν τῆ μάχη ἐμαχήσαντο ἀνδρεῖοί εἰσιν As many as fought in the battle are brave.
- τοὺς μὲν ἀπέκτειναν, ὄσοι ξυσελήφθησαν They killed some of them, as many as were caught (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- ἔσωσά σ΄, ὡς ἴσασιν Ἑλλήνων ὄσοι ταὐτὸν συνεισέβησαν ᾿Αργῷον σκάφος Ι SAVED YOU, AS SO MANY OF THE GREEKS AS EMBARKED THE SAME SHIP ARGO KNOW (Euripides, Medea).

 $\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{μ}}}$ Apart from these basic usages, <math>\mbox{$\bar{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\bar{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\bar{$\bar{$\mbox{$\bar{$\mbox{$\bar{$\bar{{\bar{$\bar{{\bar{$\arg}}}}}}}}} and idioms.}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}$

b) The whole series of correlative adjectives

[128]

1/ Here we will report the complete *family* of the correlative adjectives deriving from the *qualitative* interrogative adjective π οῖος, π οῖος, π οῖον, that means of which kind? (as in the sentence π οῖον ἄνδρα ζητεῖς; Which kind of MAN are you looking for?). For the sake of brevity, only the singular masculine forms will be given in the following list:

Direct question:	ποῖος
Indirect question:	όποῖος

□ Indefinite: $\pi \circ i \circ c$ \Leftrightarrow Change of accent.

■ Relative: oἷoς

□ Indefinite relative: $\dot{o}\pi\tilde{o}io\varsigma$ \diamondsuit As for the indirect question.

■ Demonstrative: τοιοῦτος SUCH

Some examples:

- εἴθ' ... τοιοῦτος ὢν φίλος ἡμῖν γένοιο
 (Xenophon, Hellenica).
 Φ Demonstrative.
- τοιούτους φίλους ἔχω οἴους σὺ οὐδέποτε ἕξεις Η HAVE SUCH NICE FRIENDS AS YOU WILL NEVER HAVE.

♦ Demonstrative and relative.

- εἰδέναι βούλομαι ὁποῖος πατήρ σοί ἐστιν Ι WANT ΤΟ KNOW WHAT KIND OF FATHER YOU HAVE.
 - ♦ Indirect question.
- Κῦρος ... ἠξίου, οἶόσπερ αὐτὸς Λακεδαιμονίοις ἦν ἐν τῷ πρὸς Αθηναίους πολέμῳ, τοιούτους καὶ Λακεδαιμονίους αὐτῷ γίγνεσθαι Cyrus ... demanded that the Lacedaemonians should behave with him in such a way as he had behaved toward sthem during the war against the Athenians (Xenophon, Hellenica).
 - ♦ Relative and demonstrative.

2/ The same rule can be applied to the quantitative interrogative $\pi \acute{o}\sigma o\varsigma$:

□ Direct question: πόσος□ Indirect question: ὑπόσος

□ Indefinite: ποσός \diamondsuit Change of accent.

■ Relative: ὄσος

u Indefinite relative: $\dot{o}πόσος$ \diamondsuit As for the indirect question.

☐ Demonstrative: τοσοῦτος SO LARGE

• δεῖ με εἰδέναι ὁπόσους στρατιώτας οἱ πολέμιοι ἔχουσιν

TROOPS THE ENEMIES HAVE. ♦ Indirect question.

• εἰσφορὰς **τοσαύτας** σοι προστάξουσιν ὄσας σὰ οὰ ῥαδίως ὑποίσεις They will demand of you such a large amount of taxes as you will hardly be able to bear (Xenophon, *Oeconomicus*). ♦ Demonstrative and relative.

c) The series of who, what

[129]

As far as the interrogative $\tau i \varsigma$, τi is concerned, the procedure is not so mechanical, as the indirect question is expressed by means of the compound $\delta \sigma \tau i \varsigma$ (the same word we use for indefinite relative pronoun):

• πολύ μοι διαφέρει ὄστις τοῦτο εἶπεν It is very important for me who said this.

The other words of the series of correlative adjectives deriving from $\pi i \varsigma$, πi have different stems, as in the following list:

Direct question: τίς, τί

□ Indirect question: ὄστις, ἥτις, ὅ τι

□ Indefinite: τις, τι□ Relative: ὄς, ἤ, ὄ

□ Indefinite relative: ὄστις, ἥτις, ὅτι ♦ As for indirect question.

□ Demonstrative: οὖτος τΗΙS, ἐκεῖνος ΤΗΑΤ

- οἴτινες ἂν τοῖς πολίταις αἰτιώτατοι ὧσι τοῦ τοῖς νόμοις πείθεσθαι, οὖτοι ἄριστοί εἰσι All those who are most responsible for persuading the citizens to obey the law, they are the best ones (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*). ♦ Indefinite relative and demonstrative.
- ῷτινι τὰ χρήματα ἔδωκας, τοῦτον ἰδεῖν βούλομαι The person whom you gave the money, this is the one I want to see. \Leftrightarrow Indirect question and demonstrative.
- ἥτις μὲν τοίνυν τέχνη καὶ ἐπιστήμη ἐστὶν αὕτη, εἰς αὖθις σκεψόμεθα What kind of art and science this is, we will enquire at some point (Plato, *Protagoras*). ♦ Indirect question and demonstrative.

d) The series of which one of BOTH

[130]

For the interrogative $\pi \acute{o}\tau \epsilon \rho o \varsigma$ which one of both, the series (irregular in the relative) is:

Direct question: πότερος
 Indirect question: ὁπότερος
 Indefinite: nonexistent

□ Relative: ὁπότερος ♦ Instead of the expected but nonexistent ὅτερος.

- δίδωμί σοι ... ὁπότερον βούλει ἑλέσθαι Ι GIVE YOU EITHER ONE YOU WANT TO CHOOSE (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

 † Indefinite relative.
- ὑμῶν οὖν, ἔφη, βούλομαι [παῖδα] τὸν ἔτερον ποιήσασθαι, ὁποτέρῳ ὑμῶν καλῶς ἔχει Ι WISH TO ADOPT [AS SON] ONE OF YOU TWO, WHOEVER IS FITTING (Isaeus, *De Menecle*). ♦ Demonstrative and indefinite relative.

THE VERBAL SYSTEM

a) General observations

- 1. The difficulty of Greek verbs
- 2. The tenses
- 3. The moods
- 4. The voices
- 5. Formation of tenses (all voices)
- 6. Formation of moods (all voices)
- 7. Types of verbs
- 8. Principal parts

b) Verbs in -ω: vocalic verbs

- 1. Non-contract verbs
- 2. Study of augment and reduplication
- 3. Contract verbs

c) Verbs in -ω: consonantal and liquid verbs

- 1. Consonantal verbs
- 2. Liquid verbs

d) Verbs in -ω: important phenomena

- 1. Strong tenses
- 2. Deponent tenses
- 3. A perfect with present meaning
- 4. Other presents and perfects with swapped meanings
- 5. Double tenses

e) Verbs in -μι: observations and verbs with reduplication

- 1. General observations
- 2. Verbs with reduplication in the present

f) Verbs in -μι: verbs with suffix -νυ- and stem verbs

- 1. Verbs with suffix -vv- in the present
- 2. Stem verbs: without reduplication and suffix

g) Overview of irregularities and peculiar constructions

- 1. Previous notes
- 2. List of verbs: forms and peculiar constructions

h) Compound verbs

- 1. General remarks
- 2. Meaning of the preposition
- 3. With or without preposition?
- 4. Regime of the verb
- 5. Main compound verbs

THE VERBAL SYSTEM 101

a) General observations

1. The difficulty of Greek verbs

[131]

The conjugation of Greek verbs poses one of the most difficult problems for students, and this is not only due to the large variety of moods and tenses, but also to the difficulty of establishing groups within which verbs are conjugated according to the same pattern. In this chapter we will subdivide Greek verbs into the main groups: non-contract, liquid, consonantic, etc., with the purpose of trying to learn a set model for each group. Then, once a verb has been identified as belonging to a particular group, we shall conjugate it following the model, in much the same way as it is done with the four Latin conjugations (apart from the few irregular Latin verbs).

Unfortunately, this will not be as straightforward as first anticipated, since it is common that a Greek verb, while forming the majority of tenses in exactly the same way as other verbs in that group, shows variation in some tenses and forms, following the model of an entirely separate group or even groups. Thus, it is these irregularities in the formation of tenses that complicates the study of Greek verbs.

2. The tenses

The tenses in Greek are more or less equivalent to those of any language (the translations supplied below apply for the indicative mood only):

- **a/ Present tense:** What happens or is happening: I SLEEP, I AM SLEEPING.
- **b/ Imperfect tense:** I was sleeping, continuous action in the past. In some cases, the imperfect may also have the meaning of starting an action or even of attempting it (I TRIED TO SLEEP).
- c/ Future tense: What will happen: I will SLEEP.
- **d/ Aorist tense:** This is the most important tense in Greek. It reflects punctual action in the past, I slept or I have slept The context will indicate which translation is more appropriate, as for instance in Greek we would use the aorist tense to say both This morning I have slept two hours and Yesterday I slept two hours.
- **e/ Perfect tense:** Generally, this tense is not used frequently. It denotes an action performed in the past but whose consequences are still lasting in the present, so, to some extent, it also has a present meaning. Nevertheless, it can usually be translated almost as if it were aorist, for example I have slept, but sometimes it will even be translated by a present, as for instance ὁ στρατηγὸς τέθνηκεν, which can be translated by The General has died but also by The General is dead, expressing in this last translation the present state resulting from a past action. Another example is the verb **κτάομαι** TO OBTAIN: its perfect κέκτημαι can be translated by TO Possess rather than TO HAVE OBTAINED. So, we must always bear in mind that the perfect tense has a very strong present component in its meaning.
- **f/ Pluperfect tense:** This tense is used infrequently, since in cases in which English would use the pluperfect, such as I HAD ALREADY FINISHED THE HOMEWORK, Greek tends to use the aorist tense instead. Nevertheless, when encountered, it should be translated by, for instance, I HAD SLEPT.

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g/ Future perfect: This tense is hardly used. Its use is so scarce that some textbooks do not even include it. It can be found in the passive voice, but sometimes can have active or middle meaning. For the purpose of completion, it will be shown in the paradigm of the first verb fully developed in the following pages. It will not be included in the paradigms of the other verbs. It would be translated by, for instance, IT WILL HAVE BEEN WRITTEN, I WILL HAVE BEEN SET LOOSE, ETC.

3. The moods

- **a/ Indicative:** This is the mood used to express real facts; all the examples given above are in indicative. It has all the tenses: *present, imperfect, future, aorist, perfect* and *pluperfect*.
- **b/ Imperative:** This is the mood used to give orders. It has the *present*, *aorist* and *perfect* tenses. Note that an order given using the aorist tense would of course have a present meaning; the aorist tense would simply denote a *punctual action* rather than a *continuous action*.
- **c/ Subjunctive:** This mood has various meanings. It is used for expressions such as LET's DO THIS, and in some subordinate clauses. As for the imperative, it has the *present*, *aorist* and *perfect* tenses, and again, the choice of the aorist tense does not correspond to a past action but to the expression of a punctual action.
- **d/ Optative:** Like the subjunctive, this mood has a variety of meanings, and is also found in some subordinate clauses. It has the *present*, *future*, *aorist* and *perfect* tenses. Usually, the choice of tense will not depend on the time to be expressed (present, past, etc.) but on the *aspect* (punctual or continuous action), but this is not always the case (for instance, in reported speech).
- e/ Infinitive: This is one of two impersonal moods. It has the same four tenses as the optative. Again, the choice of tense may depend on continuous or punctual aspect or on temporal circumstances (in reported speech). We must remember that an infinitive is a noun: βούλομαι ἐσθίειν, I WANT TO EAT: TO EAT is a noun, since it is the name of an action, and in this example it plays the role of direct object, as we could have said I WANT A BOOK. Note: the infinitive is a noun that does not decline (there is no equivalent to the Latin *gerund*).
- **f/ Participle:** This is the second impersonal mood. It is a very important mood; participles are far more common in Greek than in Latin. This mood has the same four tenses as the optative and the infinitive. In this mood, the choice of tense will almost always depend on the time to be expressed and almost never on the expression of aspect. We must remember that a participle is an adjective: $\dot{\eta}$ $\tau p \acute{e} \chi o v \sigma \alpha$ $\gamma v v \dot{\eta}$, THE RUNNING WOMAN: RUNNING is a verbal adjective that qualifies the subject of the action, acting in much the same way as for instance TALL would qualify somebody (with respect to a quality) in THE TALL WOMAN. Note: the participle is fully declinable.

Note on aspect

In moods other than the indicative and the participle, often the difference between the choice of the present or aorist tense (for example, the present infinitive or the aorist infinitive) is not a temporal difference but one of aspect: the present tense concerns a continuous or repeated action, whereas the aorist tense is related to a punctual action. The sentence I WANT TO WRITE can be translated by:

- βούλομαι γράψαι \Rightarrow γράψαι is an *aorist* infinitive.

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The choice between these two tenses is ultimately based on whether we mean that the action of writing will continue indefinitely (for example, to copy a long text) or that it will be a short action (for example, to copy a sentence).

The same also applies to the use of imperatives:

- θύε τοῖς θεοῖς SACRIFICE TO THE GODS!
 - ♦ Present imperative: This action is continuous, therefore not only applies to the present.
- θῦσον τοῖς θεοῖς SACRIFICE TO THE GODS!
 - ♦ Aorist imperative: The addressed person must make a sacrifice straightaway: Make the sacrifice to the gods!

4. The voices [135]

- **a/ The Active Voice.** With the usual meaning of performing an action:
 - βίβλον ἔγραψα Ι HAVE WRITTEN A BOOK.
- **b/ The Passive Voice.** With the usual meaning of an action being performed by somebody:
 - ἡ βίβλος ὑπὸ ἐμοῦ ἐγράφη The Book was written by Me.
- c/ The Middle Voice. It uses the same personal endings as the passive voice in some tenses. While it is simple to understand why a verb should be in either the active or passive voice, the reasons why a verb may use the middle voice are not quite so simple. There are three reasons:
- 1/ If a verb uses the middle voice, it may convey a sense of reflexivity. For example:

```
λούω
       TO WASH, if used in the middle voice λούομαι, may mean TO WASH ONESELF.
φαίνω
      TO SHOW, if used in the middle voice φαίνομαι, may mean TO SHOW YOURSELF, TO APPEAR, TO TURN UP.
```

2/ Sometimes the middle voice of a verb can cause it to have a different meaning (not necessarily reflexive); usually, it means that the subject takes an interest in the action. For instance, $\phi \epsilon \rho \omega$ means to carry, but if used in middle voice, φέρομαι, it means to carry for oneself, to win (a prize). However, in other cases this personal implication is not so discernible, and it must be assumed that the verb has another meaning (which has to be learnt). For example:

```
√ λύω
              TO FREE, TO LET GO
                                       but λύομαι means to ransom
↓ βαίνω
             TO WALK
                                       but Baivoua means to Make some BODY WALK
\sqrt{\delta ι \delta ασκω} το τεαςμ
                                       but διδάσκομαι τὸν παῖδα Ι HAVE MY SON EDUCATED (by somebody else), etc.
√ θύω
              TO MAKE A SACRIFICE
                                       but \theta \acute{o} \rho \mu \alpha \mu means to order a sacrifice (to make somebody else make it).
```

Yet, a verb may sometimes have the same meaning both in middle and in active. For example:

```
↓ μηχανάω / μηχανάομαι το PLAN, το DEVISE.
```

In some cases the two meanings may appear to diverge from all the rules. For example:

√ ἀποδίδωμι	TO GIVE BACK	ἀποδίδομαι	TO SELL
ψ δανείζω	TO LEND	δανείζομαι	TO BORROW
ψ πολιτεύω	TO BE A CITIZEN	πολιτεύομαι	TO DERECRM THE ROLE OF

TO PERFORM THE ROLE OF A CITIZEN

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3/ Finally, there is a group of verbs which only have the middle voice: these verbs are known as *deponent verbs*. They have the usual middle form, but their meaning is active. For instance, Ερχομαι means το go and βούλομαι means το want -Ερχομαι and βούλομαι means το want σerbs are presented in the dictionary with the middle ending -ομαι, since their active form in -ω does not exist.

The best-known deponent verb is $\gamma i \gamma v o \mu \alpha t$ to become / to happen / to take place / to be born / to be appointed:

• ὁ Οἰδίπους στρατηγὸς γίγνεται Oedipus is appointed (becomes) general.

τί γίγνεται; What is happening?
ὁ Ζεὺς ἐν τῆ Κρήτη γίγνεται Zeus is born in Crete.

Other frequent deponent verbs are:

ἀφικνέομαι	TO ARRIVE	ἡγέομαι	TO LEAD, TO REGARD	
βούλομαι	TO WANT	ἥδομαι	TO ENJOY	
δέχομαι	TO RECEIVE	θεάομαι	TO LOOK AT	
διαλέγομαι	TO CONVERSE WITH	μάχομαι	TO FIGHT WITH	
ἕπομαι	TO FOLLOW	ψεύδομαι	TO LIE (TO TELL A LIE)	
εὔχομαι	TO PRAY			

d/ Similarity between the middle and passive. Passive verbs in Greek are identical in form to middle with the exception of the future and agrist tenses. In any other form, therefore, the context will tell us whether we ought to translate the verb by middle or passive. For example:

↓ Example 1: ἡ οἰκία οἰκοδομεῖται.

It is obvious that the house does not construct anything for itself — The HOUSE CONSTRUCTS is a nonsensical statement. Thus, we must come to the conclusion that this verb is in the passive voice and translate it accordingly as The HOUSE IS BEING CONSTRUCTED.

Of course, if moreover there is an agent object (usually expressed by $\dot{\boldsymbol{v}}\boldsymbol{\pi}\dot{\boldsymbol{o}}$ + Genitive), the sense of passive is still more evident:

• ἡ οἰκία οἰκοδομεῖται ὑπὸ τῶν πολιτῶν The house is being constructed by the citizens.

Note

If the agent object is not a person but a thing (instrument, any kind of phenomenon, etc.), the plain dative is used:

- $\dot{\eta}$ $v\alpha\tilde{v}_{\zeta}$ $\delta\iota\epsilon\phi\theta\dot{\alpha}\rho\eta$ $\theta\upsilon\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\lambda\eta$ The ship was destroyed by a storm.
- ↓ Example 2: οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι νέον στρατηγὸν αἰροῦνται.

There is a direct object in this sentence, and passive sentences cannot have a direct object. Therefore, this should be translated by the middle voice. Note that the verb $\alpha i \rho \dot{\epsilon} \omega$ to take means to choose when in the middle voice, and so the appropriate translation would be The Athenians choose a new general.

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5. Formation of tenses

We can adhere to the following guidelines that are applicable, in general terms, to non-contract verbs of the 1st conjugation, for instance $\lambda \acute{\nu}\omega$. This is usually the group of verbs studied first when learning the formation of the tenses, moods, etc. The remaining sub groups are then usually studied by observing any differences.

a) Active voice

- 1/ Present tense: Simply add the corresponding personal endings to the stem. Example: $\lambda \hat{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{\omega}$.
- 2/ Imperfect tense: Only the indicative mood has the imperfect tense. It is formed adding an augment to the beginning of the stem (the letter $\dot{\varepsilon}$ -) and then adding imperfect personal endings, which differ from those of the present. Example: $\ddot{\varepsilon}$ - λv -ov. Morphologically, it is very much linked to the present tense (in the sense that any irregularity that appears in the present will appear also in the imperfect).
- 3/ Future tense: Take the stem, add $-\sigma$ and add the same personal endings as for the present. Example: $\lambda \dot{\upsilon} \sigma \omega$.
- 4/ Aorist tense: Take the stem, add an augment at the beginning of the verb (as for the imperfect), then also add a sigma to the stem (as for the future) and add the corresponding aorist personal endings. Example: $\ddot{\epsilon} \lambda v \sigma \alpha$.
- 5/ Perfect tense: Take the stem, add an augment at the beginning of the verb and repeat the first consonant before the augment (this is called *reduplication*), add a - κ to the stem, and add the corresponding perfect personal endings (these are very similar to those for the aorist). Example: λ - $\dot{\epsilon}$ - $\lambda \nu$ - κ - α .
- **6/ Pluperfect:** Follow the procedure of augment and reduplication as for the perfect, but moreover add another augment at the beginning. Then, add a - κ as for the perfect and add the corresponding pluperfect personal endings. Example: $\dot{\varepsilon}$ - λ - ε - $\dot{\lambda}$ 0/ κ - η .

b) Middle voice

The changes with respect to the active voice are as follows:

↓ Different personal endings for all tenses. Example: aorist ἐ-λυ-σ-άμην, not ἔ-λυ-σ-α.

 Ψ The perfect and pluperfect do not add a -κ- to the stem. Example: λ -έ- λ ν-μαι, not λ -έ- λ ν-κ-α.

c) Passive voice

Passive and middle differ only in the *future* and *aorist* tenses. The characteristics for the passive voice are:

- ψ In the *future* tense, instead of inserting -σ-, insert -θησ-. Example: λv -θήσ-ομαι.
- ightharpoonup The future perfect tense, which is found only in the passive voice, is formed by the reduplicated perfect stem + σ + the simple future personal endings. Example: λ -ε- λ ύ- σ -ομαι. Note: Although this belongs to the passive voice, do not add -θη σ -, add only - σ as if it belonged to the middle voice.

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6. Formation of moods

The other moods share the same temporal characteristics (for instance, active aorist optative, imperative, subjunctive, etc. continue to have the usual $-\sigma$ -), but they have different tense endings. It must be noted that only the indicative uses an augment.

The characteristics are as follows:

a/ Imperative: It has its own set of endings, and lacks the 1st person.

b/ Subjunctive: It has only three tenses: present, aorist and perfect. Moreover, the aorist never has past meaning, only aspectual meaning (as in the imperative mood). It is easily recognizable because its personal endings always have long vowels: the basic endings are -ω, -ης, -η, -ωμεν, -ητε, -ωσι for the active, and -ωμαι, -η, -ηται, -ωμεθα, -ησθε, -ωνται for the middle; nevertheless, some alterations will take place.

c/ Optative: Apart from different personal endings, note the -1- which is present in all optative verbs.

d/ Infinitive: It is a *noun*, and is undeclinable. It has its own endings (only one per tense).

e/ Participle: It is an *adjective*, therefore it does not have personal endings, but adjectival endings. The model verbs conjugated in the following pages will show that some participles follow a 2-1-2 scheme, declining the same as $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\alpha}\varsigma$, $-\dot{\alpha}$, $-\dot{\alpha}$, while others follow a 3-1-3 scheme, with the masculine and neuter using several forms of the 3rd declension.

Note that, as initial presentation, the letters M. - F. - N. will be included in the box of the participles only in the very first verbal table in the next chapter.

7. Types of verbs

Greek verbs are divided into two conjugations, each one of which is subdivided into smaller sub-classes:

a) The 1st conjugation, also called *thematic conjugation* or *conjugation in -* ω

1/ Non-contract verbs: Verbs whose stem ends in a vowel, which will therefore not produce any contraction with the personal endings. Example: $\lambda \acute{v}\omega$ TO LOOSEN.

2/ Contract verbs: Verbs whose stem ends in a vowel, which will therefore produce a contraction with the personal endings. Example: τιμάω το HONOUR.

3/ Consonantic verbs: Verbs whose stem ends in a consonant (other than λ , μ , ν , ρ); this will produce some alteration when adding certain consonants in the formation of some tenses. Example: $\delta \iota \acute{\omega} \kappa \omega$ TO PURSUE.

4/ Liquid verbs: Verbs whose stem finishes in one of the four consonants λ , μ , ν , ρ ; as with the consonantic verbs, this will produce some alteration (but in a different way) when adding other consonants for the formation of some tenses. Example: $\sigma t \in \lambda \lambda \omega$ TO SEND.

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b) The 2nd conjugation, also called athematic conjugation or conjugation in -μι

1/ Verbs with reduplication in the present: In present tense (and in imperfect, a tense always linked to the present), the stem reduplicates in $-\iota$ - at the very beginning. Example: $\delta \iota$ - $\delta \omega \mu \mu$ TO GIVE.

2/ Verbs with suffix -νυ- in the present: In present tense and in imperfect, the stem shows this suffix -νυ- between the stem and the personal endings. Example: δείκ-νυ-μι το show.

3/ Verbs with neither reduplication nor suffix: In present tense and in imperfect, these verbs present neither of the two former characteristics, but just the stem and the personal ending. Example: $\phi \eta - \mu i$ TO SAY.

8. Principal parts

Owing to the fact that many verbs form some of their tenses according to the parameters of groups other than their own, it is essential that we know not only the specific group to which it belongs, but also all of the verb's principal parts, in order to be able to conjugate any tense of a Greek verb. This would be equivalent to learning *rego*, *regere*, *rexi*, *rectum* in Latin.

For the very regular verbs it will suffice to know only the present stem, since the other stems can be deduced from it according to the general rules. However, for some verbs we will also need to know the aorist stem, for other verbs the aorist and the future stem, and for others only the future stem, etc. Therefore, there is no fixed rule regarding which principal parts must be supplied for each verb, and, although it is customary to give only the parts that cannot be deduced from the present stem because they are irregular, grammars differ in this aspect, as do dictionaries also.

For instance:

 ψ λύω TO LOOSEN: This verb is regular – we only need the present stem. From it we can deduce the stems for the remaining tenses.

 ψ ὁρά ω το see: Fut. ὄψομ α ι, aor. εἶδον, perf. ἑώρ α κ α , aor. pass. ὄφθην. This verb is so irregular that a

different stem is required for each tense.

 ψ πέμπω TO SEND: Perf. πέπομφα. This verb is fairly regular with the exception of the perfect tense, so we

must only learn this tense apart from the present.

b) Verbs in $-\omega$: vocalic verbs

1. Non-contract verbs [141]

We will present a chart of all the verbal tenses and moods in each voice, formed according to the rules explained in the previous chapter. To highlight the parts of each verb, a hyphen will separate different elements.

a) Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	λύ-ω λύ-εις λύ-ει λύ-ομεν λύ-ετε λύ-ουσι(ν)	λῦ-ε λυ-έτω λύ-ετε λυ-όντων	λύ-ω λύ-ης λύ-η λύ-ομεν λύ-ητε λύ-ωστ(ν)	λύ-οιμι λύ-οις λύ-οι λύ-οιμεν λύ-οιτε λύ-οιεν	λύ-ειν	Μ. λύ-ων,-οντοςF. λύ-ουσα-ούσηςΝ. λῦ-ον-οντος
Imp.	ἔ-λυ-ον ἔ-λυ-ες ἔ-λυ-ε(ν) ἐ-λύ-ομεν ἐ-λύ-ετε ἔ-λυ-ον					
Fut.	λύ-σ-ω λύ-σ-εις λύ-σ-ει λύ-σ-ομεν λύ-σ-ετε λύ-σ-ουσι(ν)			λύ-σ-οιμι λύ-σ-οις λύ-σ-οι λύ-σ-οιμεν λύ-σ-οιτε λύ-σ-οιεν	λύ-σ-ειν	Μ. λύ-σ-ων -οντος F. λύ-σ-ουσα -ούσης Ν. λῦ-σ-ον -οντος
Aor.	ἔ-λυ-σ-α ἔ-λυ-σ-ας ἔ-λυ-σ-ε(ν) ἐ-λύ-σ-αμεν ἐ-λύ-σ-ατε ἔ-λυ-σ-αν	λῦ-σ-ον λυ-σ-άτω λύ-σ-ατε λυ-σ-άντων	λύ-σ-ω λύ-σ-ης λύ-σ-η λύ-σ-ομεν λύ-σ-ητε λύ-σ-ωσι(ν)	λύ-σ-αιμι λύ-σ-ειας λύ-σ-ειε(ν) λύ-σ-αιμεν λύ-σ-αιτε λύ-σ-αιεν	λῦ-σ-αι	Μ. λύ-σ-ας -αντος F. λύ-σ-ασα -άσης Ν. λῦ-σ-αν -αντος
Per.	λέ-λυ-κ-α λέ-λυ-κ-ας λέ-λυ-κ-ε(ν) λε-λύ-κ-αμεν λε-λύ-κ-ατε λε-λύ-κ-αστ(ν)	λελυκώς ἴσθι λελυκώς ἔστω λελυκότες ἔστε λελυκότες ὄντων	λε-λύ-κ-ω λε-λύ-κ-ης λε-λύ-κ-η λε-λύ-κ-ωμεν λε-λύ-κ-ητε λε-λύ-κ-ωσι(ν)	λε-λύ-κ-οιμι λε-λύ-κ-οις λε-λύ-κ-οι λε-λύ-κ-οιμεν λε-λύ-κ-οιτε λε-λύ-κ-οιεν	λε-λυ-κ-έναι	Μ. λε-λυ-κ-ώς -ότος F. λε-λυ-κ-υῖα -υίας Ν. λε-λυ-κ-ός -ότος
Plu.						

♦ Alternative forms [142]

The singular persons of the aorist optative, rather than being λύσαιμι, λύσειας, λύσειε, can present the following alternative forms as well: λύσαιμι, λύσαις, λύσαι. Moreover, the 3rd person plural, can also be λύσειαν instead of λύσαιεν.

The pluperfect indicative singular, instead of being ἐλελύκειν, ἐλελύκεις, ἐλελύκει, can also be ἐλελύκη, ἐλελύκει (note that the 3rd person is identical in the two possible series).

Additional observations

- 1/ Note that the agrist subjunctive can be easily confused with the future indicative of the same verb: the 1st person singular is identical. Note as well that the personal endings are always the same in all subjunctive tenses.
- 2/ The imperfect and pluperfect tense exist only in the indicative mood.
- **3/** Insofar as participles are concerned, the chart presents only the nominative and genitive singular form of each gender: the four of them follow the *3-1-3 scheme*, with three of them following the $-v\tau$ type of the 3^{rd} decl. for masculine and neuter.
- 4/ The perfect participle does not correspond exactly to any of the patterns seen in the chapter treating adjectives.
- 5/ The perfect imperative, which is hardly used, is formed by the perfect participle combined with the present imperative of the verb TO BE (εἰμί). Remember that the participial part of this combination must be inflected in agreement with the subject's gender, although in the chart you will find only the masculine form as an example (e.g. if the order were given to a woman, it should be λελυκυῖα ἴσθι, etc.). There is another one-word form of the perfect imperative, which uses the same endings as the present imperative: λέλυκε, λελυκέτω etc. This last form is extremely rare, as it is almost always replaced by the mentioned periphrasis.
- **6/** In other verbal tables, participles that follow the usual 2-1-2 scheme (-o ς , - η , -ov) will be introduced in a more abbreviated form (none in the active voice follows the 2-1-2 scheme). If their declension may offer some doubt (especially if they make use of the 3^{rd} declension), the nominative and genitive will be offered, but in any case the abbreviations M. F. N. will be unnecessary.

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b) Middle voice [143]

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	λύ-ομαι λύ-ει λύ-εται λυ-όμεθα λύ-εσθε λύ-ονται	λύ-ου λυ-έσθω λύ-εσθε λυ-έσθον	λύ-ωμαι λύ-η λύ-ηται λυ-ώμεθα λύ-ησθε λύ-ωνται	λυ-οίμην λύ-οιο λύ-οιτο λυ-οίμεθα λύ-οισθε λύ-οιντο	λύ-εσθαι	λυ-όμενος, -ομένη, -όμενον
Imp.	έ-λυ-όμην έ-λύ-ου έ-λύ-ετο έ-λυ-όμεθα έ-λύ-εσθε έ-λύ-οντο					
Fut.	λύ-σ-ομαι λύ-σ-ει λύ-σ-εται λυ-σ-όμεθα λύ-σ-εσθε λύ-σ-ονται			λυ-σ-οίμην λύ-σ-οιο λύ-σ-οιτο λυ-σ-οίμεθα λύ-σ-οισθε λύ-σ-οιντο	λύ-σ-εσθαι	λυ-σ-όμενος, -ομένη, -όμενον
Aor.	έ-λυ-σ-άμην έ-λύ-σ-ω έ-λύ-σ-ατο έ-λυ-σ-άμεθα έ-λύ-σ-ασθε έ-λύ-σ-αντο	λῦ-σαι λυ-σ-άσθω λύ-σ-ασθε λυ-σ-άσθων	λύ-σ-ωμαι λύ-σ-η λύ-σ-ηται λυ-σ-ώμεθα λύ-σ-ησθε λύ-σ-ωνται	λυ-σ-αίμην λύ-σ-αιο λύ-σ-αιτο λυ-σ-αίμεθα λύ-σ-αισθε λύ-σ-αιντο	λύ-σ-ασθαι	λυ-σ-άμενος, -αμένη, -άμενον
Per.	λέ-λυ-μαι λέ-λυ-σαι λέ-λυ-ται λε-λύ-μεθα λε-λύ-σθε λε-λύ-νται	λέ-λυ-σω λε-λύ-σθω λέ-λυ-σθε λε-λύ-σθων	λελυμένος ὧ λελυμένος ἦς λελυμένος ἦ λελυμένοι ὧμεν λελυμένοι ἦτε λελυμένοι ὧσι	λελυμένος εἴην λελυμένος εἴης λελυμένος εἴη λελυμένοι εἶμεν λελυμένοι εἶτε λελυμένοι εἶεν	λε-λύ-σθαι	λε-λυ-μένος, -μένη, -μένον
Plu.	έ-λε-λύμην έ-λέ-λυ-σο έ-λέ-λυ-το έ-λε-λύ-μεθα έ-λέ-λυ-σθε έ-λέ-λυ-ντο					

♦ Alternative form

In present and future indicative, the ending $-\epsilon\iota$ in the 2nd singular can be written $-\eta$ as well.

Additional observations [144]

1/ Some middle tenses are formed periphrastically using a participle accompanied by εἰμί. As seen above, the participial part should agree in gender with the subject; for instance, to form the *perfect subjunctive plural*, with reference to a feminine subject in the 3rd person, the participle λελυμέναι has to be accompanied by the subjunctive form of εἰμί: λελυμέναι ὧσι.

2/ Middle participles are much easier to learn than in active forms, as all of them follow the *2-1-2 scheme*.

c) Passive voice [145]

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle				
Pre.		same as middle								
Imp.		same as middle								
Fut.	λυ-θήσ-ομαι λυ-θήσ-ει λυ-θήσ-εται λυ-θησ-όμεθα λυ-θήσ-εσθε λυ-θήσ-ονται			λυ-θησ-οίμην λυ-θήσ-οιο λυ-θήσ-οιτο λυ-θησ-οίμεθα λυ-θήσ-οισθε λυ-θήσ-οιντο	λυ-θήσ-εσθαι	λυ-θησ-όμενος, ομένη, -όμενον				
Aor.	έ-λύ-θ-ην έ-λύ-θ-ης έ-λύ-θ-η έ-λύ-θ-ημεν έ-λύ-θ-ητε έ-λύ-θ-ησαν	λύ-θ-ητι λυ-θ-ήτω λύ-θ-τηε λυ-θ-έντων	λυ-θ-ῶ λυ-θ-ῆς λυ-θ-ῆ λυ-θ-ῶμεν λυ-θ-ῆτε λυ-θ-ῶσι	λυ-θ-είην λυ-θ-είης λυ-θ-είη λυ-θ-εῖμεν λυ-θ-εῖτε λυ-θ-εῖεν	λυ-θ-ῆναι	λυ-θ-είς, -έντος λυ-θ-εΐσα, -είσης λυ-θ-έν, -έντος				
Per.	same as middle									
Plu.			sam	e as middle						
Fut. per.	λε-λύ-σ-ομαι etc.			λε-λυ-σ-οίμην etc.	λε-λύ-σ-εσθαι	λε-λυ-σ-όμενος, -ομένη, -όμενον				

♦ Alternative form

As in the middle voice, the 2nd singular $-\epsilon\iota$ can be written $-\eta$ as well.

Additional observations [146]

1/ For the sake of completeness, the chart above shows the *future perfect* as well, but it is important to remember that its use is extremely rare. To express meanings like HE WILL HAVE BEEN SET FREE, the periphrastic combination of a perfect participle and a form of εἰμί is more common: λελυμένος ἔσται. The same combination can be used for the active and the middle: I WILL HAVE SET FREE λελυκοῖα ἔσομαι.

2/ In the agriculture, the 3^{rd} person plural ending ($-\eta\sigma\alpha\nu$) features a sigma similar to the corresponding active ending ($-\sigma\alpha\nu$).

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3/ Note that the passive aorist uses active endings, and its participle follows the 3-1-3 scheme, with the $-v\tau$ - genitive form for the 3^{rd} declension.

4/ Some verbs, in the future and agrist passive, insert a sigma at the end of the stem: παύω το stop fut. παυσθήσομαι, agr. ἐπαύσθην.

d) Final remarks [147]

1/ So, this is the way in which a regular verb would form its tenses and moods. In the following sections, we will deal with the characteristics of other verbal groups, studying their differences with respect to this regular pattern.

Few verbs follow entirely the regular conjugation given above. Some frequent verbs that use this regular pattern are:

βασιλεύω	TO REIGN	κελεύω	TO COMMAND	παιδεύω	TO EDUCATE
βουλεύω	TO DELIBERATE	κινδυνεύω	TO BE IN DANGER	παύω	TO STOP
δακούω	TO CRY	λούω	TO WASH		

2/ In Greek, personal pronouns are usually omitted, as the verb endings are precise enough to distinguish different persons. E.g. ἔχομεν ἵππους We have horses, γράφουσιν They write, λαμβάνει He/She/It takes (context will tell you whether it means he, she or it).

2. Study of augment and reduplication

[148]

Given the importance that these two phenomena have in the formation of past tenses, we offer here a detailed presentation of both of them before proceeding to study other verbal groups.

a) Augment

Imperfect and a orist tenses feature a specific element that is the most marked characteristic of past tenses. This element is called the *augment*, and consists of an $\dot{\epsilon}$ - added at the beginning of the verbal stem; more specifically, this additional epsilon is called the *syllabic augment*. For instance, the imperfect of βαίνω το WALK begins with $\dot{\epsilon}$ βαιν-, the imperfect of κωλύω TO PREVENT begins with $\dot{\epsilon}$ κώλυ-, etc.

The basic procedure is very simple: just add an initial epsilon. But it is not always so easy, as in the following cases there are some exceptions to this rule:

1/ If the verb begins with a $\dot{\rho}$, the ρ is doubled when adding the epsilon: $\dot{\rho}$ ίπτω το τΗΡΟW, imperfect ἔρριπτ-.

2/ If the verb begins with a vowel, instead of adding an $\dot{\epsilon}$ - the initial vowel is lengthened: this is called the *temporal augment*. Example: $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\alpha\dot{\nu}\nu$ To GUIDE, imperfect $\ddot{\eta}\lambda\alpha\nu\nu$ - The lengthening process follows these correspondences:

\downarrow	α-	lengthens into η -	ἄρχω	TO RULE	imperf. $ ilde{\eta} ho\chi$ -
\downarrow	ε-	lengthens into η -	έλαύνω	TO GUIDE	imperf. ἤλαυν-
\downarrow	η-	lengthens into $\eta extsf{-}$	ἡσυχάζω	TO KEEP CALM	imperf. ἡσύχαζ-
\downarrow	ι-	lengthens into ι -	ίκετεύω	TO BESEECH	imperf. ἱκέτευ-

\downarrow	o-	lengthens into $\omega extstyle{-}$	ο πλίζω	TO ARM	imperf.	ὅ πλιζ-
\downarrow	ω-	lengthens into $\omega extstyle{ extstyle -}$	ἀφελέω	TO HELP	imperf.	ἀφέλ-
\downarrow	υ-	lengthens into $ \upsilon ext{-} $	 υβρίζω	TO OFFEND	imperf.	ὕβρι ζ-

As can be seen, some vowels do not show any apparent alteration (an ω cannot be lengthened any more, for instance). And in some cases, the augment is not applied: for instance, the imperfect form of the verb $\varepsilon \dot{\nu} \rho i \sigma \kappa \omega$ to find, can be either $\varepsilon \ddot{\nu} \rho i \sigma \kappa \omega$ or $\eta \ddot{\nu} \rho i \sigma \kappa \omega$.

3/ Some verbs beginning with ε - lengthen into $\varepsilon\iota$ - instead of into η -, as happens for instance with $\check{\varepsilon}\chi\omega$ TO HAVE, imperf. [149] $\varepsilon\check{\iota}\chi$ -. The most important ones are given in the following list (verbs with irregular aorists, which would not show this phenomenon, appear with the imperfect form):

• ἐάω	TO ALLOW	imperf. εἴων
• ἐθίζω	TO ACCUSTOM	imperf. εἴθιζον
• ἕπομαι	TO FOLLOW	imperf. εἱπόμην
• ἐργάζομαι	TO WORK	imperf. εἰργαζόμην
• ἔχω	TO HAVE	imperf. εἶχον

4/ If the initial vowel features an iota subscript, the augmented vowel will have the iota subscript as well. If the iota is adscript, i.e. written after the vowel, it becomes subscript:

```
    ἄδω TO SING imperf. ἦδον
    αἴρω TO RAISE imperf. ἦρον
```

5/ Augment in compound verbs (i.e. verbs formed with a preposition) is inserted between the preposition and the verb. **[150]** The last vowel of the preposition, if any, is elided:

```
    ἀπο-βάλλω ΤΟ THROW AWAY imperf. ἀπέβαλλον
    συν-άγω ΤΟ BRING TOGETHER imperf. συνῆγον
    ἀνα-βαίνω ΤΟ CLIMB imperf. ἀνέβαινον
    κατα-βαίνω ΤΟ DESCEND imperf. κατέβαινον
```

Exception: καθεύδω το SLEEP is formed by κατά and εὕδω, but this subdivision was not perceived any more, therefore there are two different augmented forms: the regular one, as in the imperfect καθηῦδον, and an irregular form that adds the augment to the prepositional prefix, ἐκάθευδον.

In some verbs, the preposition is altered in the present tense as its last consonant changes for the sake of euphony, depending on the first consonant of the verbal stem: e.g. $\sigma vv - \lambda \alpha \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} v \omega$ TO GATHER becomes $\sigma v \lambda \lambda \alpha \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} v \omega$. When the augment is added to this kind of verbs, the preposition is separated from the verb and therefore it "retakes" its original form: $\sigma vv - \varepsilon - \lambda \dot{\alpha} \mu \beta \alpha v v v$.

Another example: The verb $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\kappa\dot{\omega}$ is formed with the prepositional suffix $\dot{\epsilon}v$, but the contact with the kappa of $\kappa\omega\pi$ -transforms it into $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma$ -. As the augment prevents the contact with the kappa, the preposition shows its original form: imperfect $\dot{\epsilon}\nu\dot{\epsilon}\kappa\omega\pi\tau\omega$.

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If the preposition is $\dot{\epsilon}$ κ, it becomes $\dot{\epsilon}$ ξ when adding the augment: $\dot{\epsilon}$ κβαίν ω το 60 ουτ, imperf. $\dot{\epsilon}$ ξ $\dot{\epsilon}$ βαίνον.

IMPORTANT RULE: Do not elide the final vowel of the prepositions ἀμφί, περί and πρό. Examples: ἀμφιλέγω το DISPUTE, imperfect ἀμφιέλεγον; περιμάχομαι το FIGHT EVERYWHERE, imperfect περιεμαχόμην; προλαμβάνω το TAKE BEFOREHAND, imperfect προελάμβανον. Nonetheless, remember that the omicron of the prefix πρό- contracts with the augment in Attic Greek, a phenomenon that is indicated by a sign of crasis (similar to smooth a breathing mark): e.g. προὐλάμβανον.

6/ Double augment: Some verbs take both augments at the same time, the syllabic one and the temporal one. The most [151] common ones are:

```
    • ὀράω ΤΟ SEE imperf. ἑώρων
    • ἀνοίγω ΤΟ OPEN imperf. ἀνέφγον
```

Other verbs have two augments, as they feature one of them applied to the prepositional prefix and another one to the verb. So, they both lengthen the preposition and augment the stem:

```
    ἀντιβολέω ΤΟ ENTREAT imperf. ἠντεβόλουν
    ἐνοχλέω ΤΟ TROUBLE imperf. ἠνώχλουν
    ἀμφισβητέω ΤΟ DISPUTE imperf. ἠμφεσβήτουν
```

 \diamond NB: the final vowel of $\dot{\alpha}\mu\phi\dot{\iota}$ is elided, an additional exception to the rule seen above.

b) Reduplication [152]

The distinguishing characteristic of the perfect tense is reduplication, which is the repetition of the initial consonant after the augment ε (in these examples, please disregard the occasional absence of the expected κ at the end of the stem, which is not due to the way in which reduplication works):

```
    λύω ΤΟ LOOSEN perf. λέλυκα
    διώκω ΤΟ PURSUE perf. δεδίωχα
    γράφω ΤΟ WRITE perf. γέγραφα
```

If the verb begins with two consonants, only the first one is to be reduplicated:

```
• κλονέω το drive in confusion perf. κεκλόνηκα.
```

The basic concept is quite simple: the initial consonant of the verbal stem has to be repeated before the augment. But the following additional rules have to be added to the basic procedure:

1/ If the verb begins with an aspirated consonant, the consonant to be reduplicated at the beginning is in that case the corresponding hard consonant:

• θύω	TO SACRIFICE	perf. τέθυκα	not θέθυκα
• χορεύω	TO DANCE	perf. κεχόρευκα	not χεχόρευκα
• φονεύω	TO KILL	perf. πεφόνευκα	not φεφόνευκα

2/ In verbs that begin with a vowel, as there is no initial consonant to reduplicate, the vowel is lengthened, following the same procedure of that we have seen with regard to temporal augments; in other words, these verbs show only the augment, which substitutes the whole reduplication:

• ἄγω	TO LEAD	perf. ἦχα	• ὀφείλω	TO OWE	perf. ἀφείληκα
• ὁρίζω	TO BOUND	perf. ἄρικα	• ἀγγέλλω	TO ANNOUNCE	perf. ἤγγελκα
• ἀσεβέω	TO BE IMPIOUS	perf. ἠσέβηκα	• αἰσθάνομαι	TO REALISE	perf. ἤσθημαι
• εὑρίσκω	TO FIND	perf. ηὕρηκα			

In some verbs beginning with a vowel, a strange phenomenon called *Attic reduplication* takes place: the initial vowel + consonant are *both* repeated followed by the lengthened form of the original opening vowel:

```
      • ἀκούω
      ΤΟ HEAR
      perf. ἀκήκοα

      • ἀγείρω
      ΤΟ GATHER
      perf. ἀγήγερκα

      • ἐλαύνω
      ΤΟ GUIDE
      perf. ἐλήλακα
```

3/ Some combinations of consonants, as well as double consonants, do not accept any modification within the stem; in these cases only the augment will be added at the beginning of the verb, without repeating the initial consonant:

```
    στερέω το deprive perf. ἐστέρηκα
    ψαύω το τουςη perf. ἔψαυκα
```

Verbs beginning with the consonant ρ - do not allow reduplication either:

```
• ῥίπτω το throw perf. ἔρριφα
```

In all the cases in which augments stand for the whole reduplication, the augment in the perfect tense is kept throughout *all the moods*; for instance, the perfect participle of στερέω is ἐστερεκώς, -ότος, the perfect infinitive of ψαύω is ἐψανκέναι, etc.

Finally, some verbs feature reduplications only in one voice, e.g. in the active but not in the middle-passive (or viceversa): for instance $\kappa \tau i \zeta \omega$ to colonise, perf. active $\kappa \acute{\epsilon} \kappa \tau i \kappa \alpha$, middle-pass. $\check{\epsilon} \kappa \tau i \sigma \mu \alpha i$.

4/ As we have seen with regard to augments, reduplications will go between prefix and the stem in compound verbs:

```
• διαλύω το dissolve perf. διαλέλυκα
```

5/ In some other cases, the form of reduplication is irregular: for instance, some verbs feature unpredictable reduplications and in some cases on a completely modified stem (in these last cases, more than *irregular reduplication*, we should say *irregular perfect*):

```
    λέγω το say perf. εἴρηκα (active), εἴρημαι (passive)
    λαμβάνω το take perf. εἴληφα
    • φέρω το carry perf. ἐνήνοχα
    • ἔρχομαι το Go perf. ἐλήλυθα
```

[For a whole list, please check the list of irregular verbs supplied further ahead.]

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3. Contract verbs [155]

There are three kinds of contract verbs:

 Ψ With stem ending in - α Example: τιμάω TO HONOUR Ψ With stem ending in - ϵ Example: ποιέω TO DO, TO MAKE Ψ With stem ending in - ϵ Example: δηλόω TO SHOW

The difference with respect to non-contract verbs is that the combination of the vowel ending the verbal stem and the vowel opening the additional endings produces two kinds of alterations:

1/ In present and imperfect tenses, when the personal ending is added, vowels will contract and produce a new form. Example: $\tau \iota \mu \acute{\alpha} - \varepsilon \iota \varsigma$ becomes $\tau \iota \mu \acute{\alpha} \varsigma$. In some cases, differences with respect to non-contract verbs will be almost inappreciable; in other cases (as in the example) the difference is stronger.

2/ In the other tenses, when a consonant is added (for instance, the sigma to form the future), the vowel ending the verbal stem will lengthen. Example: $\tau\iota\mu\dot{\alpha}$ - σ - ω becomes $\tau\iota\mu\dot{\eta}\sigma\omega$.

π With respect to the personal endings, there is a slight change in the present optative active set: the singular, instead of using -οιμι, -οις, -οι, uses -οίην, -οίης, -οίη; of course, these endings can be altered after contractions.

To help students, verbs in dictionaries and grammars are always given in the first person without contractions, so that the contracted vowel, if any, can be identified. So, we will find $\dot{\mathbf{o}} \rho \dot{\mathbf{a}} \omega$, not $\dot{\mathbf{o}} \rho \ddot{\omega}$, not $\pi o \iota \ddot{\omega}$, and $\pi o \iota \ddot{\omega}$, and $\pi o \iota \ddot{\omega}$ and $\pi o \iota \ddot{\omega}$. As a consequence of this, a typical beginner's mistake is forgetting to add contractions when translating into Greek: e.g. it is necessary to write $\pi \iota \mu \ddot{\omega}$, NOT $\pi \iota \mu \dot{\omega} \omega$.

The following chart shows the conjugation of the present and imperfect tenses in full and the first person singular of other tenses, as these follow regular patterns.

a) Contract verbs in - α -

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pres.	τιμῶ τιμῷς τιμῷ τιμῶμεν τιμᾶτε τιμῶστ(ν)	τίμα τιμάτω τιμάτε τιμώντων	τιμᾶς τιμᾶς τιμᾶ τιμᾶμεν τιμᾶτε τιμᾶσι(ν)	τιμώης τιμώης τιμώμεν τιμ <u>ῶ</u> τε τιμῷεν	τιμᾶν	τιμῶν, -ῶντος τιμῶσα, -ης τιμῶν, -ῶντος
Imp.	έτίμων έτίμας έτίμα έτιμῶμεν έτιμῶτε έτίμων					

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Fut.	τιμήσω etc.			τιμήσοιμι etc.	τιμήσειν	τιμήσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ἐτίμησα etc.	τίμη σον etc.	τιμήσω etc.	τιμήσαιμι etc.	τιμῆσαι	τιμήσας, -ασα, -αν
Perf.	τετίμηκα etc.	τετιμηκὸς ἴσθι etc.	τετιμήκω etc.	τετιμήκοιμι etc.	τετιμηκέναι	τετιμηκώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plup.	έτετιμήκειν etc.					

Additional observations

- 1/ The present indicative and subjunctive are identical.
- **2/** The neuter present participle looks like the masculine one.
- **3/** The -1- of the optative is subscript.
- **4/** The present infinitive is easily confused with an accusative of the 1st declension, especially because the iota is elided.

Middle voice [157]

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	τιμόμαι τιμά τιμάται τιμόμεθα τιμάσθε τιμόνται	τιμῶ τιμάσθω τιμᾶσθε τιμάσθων	τιμῶμαι τιμῷ τιμᾶται τιμώμεθα τιμᾶσθε τιμῶνται	τιμώμην τιμῷτο τιμῷτεθα τιμῷσθε τιμῷντο	τιμᾶσθαι	τιμώμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	έτιμώμην έτιμῶ έτιμᾶτο έτιμώμεθα έτιμᾶσθε έτιμῶντο					
Fut.	τιμήσομαι etc.			τιμησοίμην etc.	τιμήσεσθαι	τιμησόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	έτιμησάμην etc.	τίμησαι etc.	τιμήσωμαι etc.	τιμησαίμην etc.	τιμήσασθαι	τιμησάμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	τετίμημαι etc.	τετίμησο etc.	τετιμημένος ὧ etc.	τετιμημένος εἴην etc.	τετιμῆσθαι	τετιμημένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έτετιμήμην etc.					

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Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle					
Pre.		same as middle									
Imp.			sam	e as middle							
Fut.	τιμηθήσομαι etc.			τιμηθησοίμην etc.	τιμηθήσεσθαι	τιμηθησόμενος, -η, -ον					
Aor.	έτιμήθην etc.	τιμήθητι etc.	τιμηθῶ etc.	τιμηθείην etc.	τιμηθῆναι	τιμηθείς, -εῖσα, -έν					
Per.	same as middle										
Plu.		same as middle									

Some common $-\alpha$ - contract verbs

[158]

Although some of these verbs feature irregular forms as well (for instance $\dot{o}\rho\dot{\alpha}\omega$ TO SEE), they are listed here as their present indicative forms are contract:

αἰτιάομαι	TO CONSIDER RESPONSIBLE	θεάομαι	TO CONTEMPLATE	πειράω	TO TRY
άμιλλάομαι	TO CONTEND	κτάομαι	TO OBTAIN	σιγάω	TO KEEP SILENCE
βοάω	TO SHOUT	μηχανάομαι	TO CONTRIVE	τελευτάω	TO END, TO DIE
γελάω	TO LAUGH	νικάω	TO WIN	τιμάω	TO HONOUR
ἐάω	TO ALLOW	ὸρά ω	TO SEE	τολμάω	TO DARE
έρωτάω	TO ASK	ὀρμά ω	TO SET IN MOTION		

Irregularities of some $-\alpha$ - contract verbs

[159]

1/ Four verbs have contractions in η , instead of α , both in the present indicative and subjunctive:

 $\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{2}}}$ To Be thirsty $\sqrt{\sqrt{2}}$ To Live, to Be alive $\sqrt{\sqrt{2}}$ πεινάω το Be hungry $\sqrt{\sqrt{2}}$ χράομαι το Use

Taking $\delta\iota\psi\acute{a}\omega$ as model, these verbs contract in the present as follows:

διψῶ, διψῆς, διψῆ, διψῶμεν, διψῆτε, διψῶσι(ν), instead of the expected διψῶ, διψῷς, διψῷ etc.

Also the imperfect form has the same modification:

ἐδίψων, ἐδίψης, ἐδίψη, ἐδιψῶμεν, ἐδιψῆτε, ἐδίψων instead of the expected ἐδίψων, ἐδίψας, ἐδίψα etc.

Finally, the infinitive form is $\delta\iota\psi\tilde{\eta}\nu$ instead of $\delta\iota\psi\tilde{\alpha}\nu$, $\chi\rho\tilde{\eta}\sigma\theta\alpha\iota$ instead of $\chi\rho\tilde{\alpha}\sigma\theta\alpha\iota$, etc.

2/ Other verbs in - α - feature the opposite phenomenon: in future and aorist tenses, where we should find the α lengthened into an η because of the addition of the sigma (as in $\dot{\epsilon}\tau\dot{\iota}\mu\eta\sigma\alpha$), the alpha remains unaltered: $\delta\rho\dot{\alpha}\omega$ TO DO, TO MAKE: aorist $\dot{\epsilon}\delta\rho\alpha\sigma\alpha$, NOT $\dot{\epsilon}\delta\rho\eta\sigma\alpha$. The same happens when adding the kappa to form the perfect tense: $\delta\dot{\epsilon}\delta\rho\alpha\kappa\alpha$, NOT $\delta\dot{\epsilon}\delta\rho\eta\kappa\alpha$.

The most frequent verbs that maintain $-\alpha$ - in future and agrist are:

αἰτιάομαι	TO ACCUSE	έστιάω	to entertain (as a guest)
γελάω	TO LAUGH	θεάομαι	TO OBSERVE
δράω	TO DO, TO MAKE	πειράω	TO TRY
έάω	TO ALLOW		

For instance, I will LAUGH = γελάσω, NOT γελήσω. I OBSERVED = ἐθεασάμην, NOT ἐθεησάμην.

• οἴμοι, τί **δράσω**; Alas, what am I to do? (Sophocles, *Aiax*).

b) Contract verbs in -ε-

[160]

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	ποιῶ ποιεῖς ποιεῖ ποιοῦμεν ποιεῖτε ποιοῦσι(ν)	ποίει ποιείτω ποιεῖτε ποιούντων	ποιῶ ποιῆς ποιῆ ποιῶμεν ποιῆτε ποιῶσι(ν)	ποιοίην ποιοίης ποιοίη ποιοίμεν ποιοίτε ποιοίεν	ποιεῖν	ποιῶν, -οῦντος ποιοῦσα, -ούσης ποιοῦν, -οῦντος
Imp.	ἐποίουν ἐποίεις ἐποίει ἐποιοῦμεν ἐποιεῖτε ἐποίουν					
Fut.	ποιήσω etc.			ποιήσοιμι etc.	ποιήσειν	ποιήσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	έποίησα etc.	ποίησον etc.	ποιήσω etc.	ποιήσαιμι etc.	ποιῆσαι	ποιήσας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	πεποίηκα etc.	πεποιηκώς ἴσθι etc.	πεποιήκω etc.	πεποιήκοιμι etc.	πεποιηκέναι	πεποιηκώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	έπεποιήκειν etc.					

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Middle voice [161]

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	ποιοῦμαι ποιεῖ ποιεῖται ποιούμεθα ποιεῖσθε ποιοῦνται	ποιοῦ ποιείσθω ποιεῖσθε ποιείσθων	ποιῶμαι ποιἣ ποιῆται ποιώμεθα ποιῆσθε ποιῶνται	ποιοίμην ποιοίο ποιοίτο ποιοίμεθα ποιοίσθε ποιοίντο	ποιεῖσθαι	ποιούμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	έποιούμην έποιοῦ έποιεῖτο έποιούμεθα έποιεῖσθε έποιοῦντο					
Fut.	ποιήσομαι etc.			ποιησοίμην etc.	ποιήσεσθαι	ποιησόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	έποιησάμην etc.	ποίησαι etc.	ποιήσωμαι etc.	ποιησαίμην etc.	ποιήσασθαι	ποιησάμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	πεποίημαι etc.	πεποίησο etc.	πεποιημένος ὧ etc.	πεποιημένος εἴην etc.	πεποιῆσθαι	πεποιημενος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έπεποιήμην etc.					

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle				
Pre.		same as middle								
Imp.		same as middle								
Fut.	ποιηθήσομαι etc.			ποιηθησοίμην	ποιηθήσεσθαι	ποιηθησόμενος, -η, -ον				
Aor.	έποιήθην etc.	ποιήθητι etc.	ποιηθῶ etc.	ποιηθείην etc.	ποιηθῆναι	ποιηθείς, -εῖσα, -έν				
Per.		same as middle								
Plu.		same as middle								

Some common $-\epsilon$ - contract verbs

[162]

ἀγανακτέω	TO FEEL INDIGNATION	ἀναχωρέω	TO WITHDRAW	βοηθέω	TO HELP
ἀγνοέω	NOT TO KNOW	ἀπειλέω	TO THREATEN	γαμέω	TO MARRY
ἀδικέω	TO DO WRONG	ἀπορέω	TO BE AT A LOSS	δειπνέω	TO HAVE DINNER
αίρέω	TO TAKE, TO CAPTURE	ἀσεβέω	TO BE IMPIOUS	δέομαι	TO REQUIRE
αἰτέω	TO ASK FOR	ἀφικνέομαι	TO ARRIVE	διανοέομαι	TO THINK

διηγέομαι	TO NARRATE	θαρρέω	TO DARE	όμολογέω	TO AGREE
δοκέω	TO SEEM	θορυβέω	TO RAISE A CLAMOUR	πλέω	TO SAIL
δυστυχέω	TO BE UNFORTUNATE	καθαιρέω	TO DEMOLISH	ποιέω	TO DO, TO MAKE
έξηγέομαι	TO NARRATE	καλέω	TO CALL	πολεμέω	TO MAKE WAR
ἐπαινέω	TO PRAISE	καταφρονέω	TO DESPISE	πολιορκέω	TO BESIEGE
ἐπιθυμέω	TO DESIRE	κατηγορέω	TO ACCUSE	σκοπέω	TO LOOK
έπιμελέομαι	TO TAKE CARE	κρατέω	TO PREVAIL	φιλέω	TO LOVE
εὐσεβέω	TO BE PIOUS	μισέω	TO HATE	φοβέομαι	TO FEAR
εὐτυχέω	TO BE LUCKY	ναυμαχέω	TO FIGHT A NAVAL BATTLE	φρονέω	TO THINK
ζητέω	TO LOOK FOR	νοσέω	TO BE ILL	ἀφελέω	TO HELP
ἡγέομαι	TO LEAD	οἰκέω	TO DWELL		

Irregularities of some $-\epsilon$ - contract verbs

[163]

1/ Some verbs in - ε - do not lengthen the thematic vowels following the regular pattern, similarly to what some verbs in α do. The most frequent ones are:

αἰδέομαιTO BE ASHAMEDἀρκέωTO SUFFICEἐπαινέωTO PRAISE

For example: It will suffice = ἀρκέσει. I will praise = ἐπαινέσω.

- 2/ There are two verbs that feature a peculiar phenomenon: τελέω το FINISH (plus relative compounds) and καλέω το CALL (plus relative compounds). In the same way as the previous -α- contract verbs, they do not lengthen the -ε- in the aorist (ἐτέλεσα ἐκάλεσα), but moreover their future form is exactly identical to the present: καλῶ, καλεῖς, καλεῖ, etc., and τελῶ, τελεῖς, τελεῖ, etc.
- **3/** Finally, monosyllabic verbs, like $\pi\lambda\acute{e}\omega$ To SAIL, present contractions only when two \acute{e} meet: the present indicative form, then, is $\pi\lambda\acute{e}\omega$, OT $\pi\lambda\acute{\omega}$, $\pi\lambda\acute{e}\omega$, $\pi\lambda\acute{e}\omega$, $\pi\lambda\acute{e}\omega$, not with -original endings -origi

The most common of these verbs are:

δέω	TO NEED	ρέω	TO FLOW
πλέω	TO SAIL	πνέω	TO BREATHE
νέω	TO SWIM		

Exception: δέω, in the sense το BIND, does contract: δοῦμεν, NOT δέομεν, etc., but in the usual sense of το NEED (and το ASK FOR in the middle voice) it does not contract: δεόμεθα, NOT δούμεθα, etc.

VERBS IN -ω: VOCALIC VERBS

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c) Contract verbs in -o-

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δηλῶ δηλοῖς δηλοῖ δηλοῦμεν δηλοῦτε δηλοῦσι(ν)	δήλου δηλούτω δηλούτε δηλούντων	δηλῶ δηλοῖς δηλοῖ δηλῶμεν δηλῶτε δηλῶσι(ν)	δηλοίην δηλοίης δηλοίη δηλοῖμεν δηλοῖτε δηλοῖεν	δηλοῦν	δηλῶν, -οῦντος δηλοῦσα, -ης δηλοῦν, -οῦντος
Imp.	έδήλουν έδήλους έδήλου έδηλοῦμεν έδηλοῦτε έδήλουν					
Fut.	δηλώσω etc.			δηλώσοιμι etc.	δηλώσειν	δηλώσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	έδήλωσα etc.	δήλωσον etc.	δηλώσω etc.	δηλώσαιμι etc.	δηλῶσαι	δηλώσας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	δεδήλωκα etc.	δεδηλωκὸς ἴσθι etc.	δεδηλώκω etc.	δεδηλώκοιμι etc.	δεδηλωκέναι	δεδηλωκώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	έδεδηλώκειν etc.					

 $[\]diamondsuit$ Do not confuse the present infinitive or participle $\delta\eta\lambda o\tilde{\upsilon}\nu$ with any form of the contract declension.

Middle voice [165]

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δηλοῦμαι δηλοῦ δηλοῦται δηλούμεθα δηλοῦσθε δηλοῦνται	δηλοῦ δηλούσθω δηλοῦσθε δηλούσθων	δηλώμαι δηλοῖ δηλώται δηλώμεθα δηλώσθε δηλώνται	δηλοίμην δηλοῖο δηλοῖτο δηλοίμεθα δηλοῖσθε δηλοῖντο	δηλοῦσθαι	δηλούμενος, -η, -ον
Ітр.	έδηλούμην έδηλοῦ έδηλοῦτο έδηλούμεθα έδηλοῦσθε έδηλοῦντο					
Fut.	δηλώσομαι etc.			δηλωσοίμην etc.	δηλώσεσθαι	δηλωσόμενος, -η, -ον

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Aor.	έδηλωσάμην etc.	δήλωσαι etc.	δηλώσωμαι	δηλωσαίμην etc.	δηλώσασθαι	δηλωσάμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	δεδήλωμαι etc.	δεδήλωσο etc.	δεδηλωμένος ὧ etc.	δεδηλομένος εἴην etc.	δεδηλῶσθαι	δεδηλωμένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έδεδηλώμην					

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle				
Pre.		same as middle								
Imp.			same	e as middle						
Fut.	δηλωθήσομαι etc.			δηλωθησοίμην etc.	δηλωθήσεσθαι	δηλωθησόμενος, -η, -ον				
Aor.	έδηλώθην etc.	δηλώθητι etc.	δηλωθῶ etc.	δηλωθείην etc.	δηλωθῆναι	δηλωθείς, -εῖσα, -έν				
Per.		same as middle								
Plu.		same as middle								

Some common -o- contract verbs

[166]

ἀξιόω	TO CONSIDER WORTHY	δουλόω	TO ENSLAVE
βεβαιόω	TO CONFIRM, TO ASSURE	έλευθερόω	TO FREE
βιόω	TO LIVE	έναντιόομαι	TO OPPOSE
δηλόω	TO SHOW		

Irregularities of some -o- contract verbs

1/ The verb αρόω το PLOUGH does not lengthen the omicron in future and a orist forms: αρόσω - ἤροσω.

2/ The two verbs **ἱδρόω** TO SWEAT and ὑιγόω TO SHIVER FROM COLD keep an omega for their contractions, resulting in unusual forms like the present indicative ἰδρῶ, ἱδρῷς, ἱδρῷ etc., NOT ἱδρῶ, ἱδροῖς, ἱδροῖ etc., and the curious infinitive ἰδρῶν, NOT ἱδροῦν.

c) Verbs in -ω: consonantal and liquid verbs

1. Consonantal verbs [167]

These are verbs that have a consonant as the last letter of their stem. They undergo no alteration when adding the personal endings directly onto the stem, so long as they begin with a vowel (present and imperfect tenses), but some alterations will take place when a consonant is added; this is the case in the future, the aorist, the perfect and the pluperfect tense endings: in some cases two consonants will amalgamate, in other cases one will disappear and moreover the remaining one will change, etc.

Since the added consonant is almost always the same for all the persons (sigma for aorist active, kappa for perfect active, etc.), the forms are easily deduced from the first example provided. However, the perfect and pluperfect middle/passive use endings with a variety of initial consonants ($-\mu\alpha$, $-\tau\alpha$, etc.), and the result is rather irregular; therefore, these two tenses have been presented in full.

a) Verbs ending in -βω, -πω, -φω, -πτω (labial verbs). Example: βλέπω το Look

[168]

The main alteration that these verbs undergo is that these consonants usually become ψ when a σ is added (note that this is not always the case; see the middle perfect imperative), and that they become a ϕ when the recognisable θ is added for the passive. Observe also that there is no - κ - in the perfect active and that the consonant suffers a modification in exchange.

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.			regular forr	mation		
Imp.			regular forr	mation		
Fut.	βλέψω etc.			βλέψοιμι etc.	βλέψειν	βλέψων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ἔβλεψα etc.	βλέψον etc.	βλέψω etc.	βλέψαιμι etc.	βλέψαι	βλέψας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	βέβλεφα etc.	βεβλεφὸς ἴσθι etc.	βεβλέφω etc.	βεβλέφοιμι etc.	βεβλεφέναι	βεβλεφώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	έβεβλέφειν etc.					

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.			regular fo	rmation		
Imp.			regular fo	rmation		
Fut.	βλέψομαι etc.			βλεψοίμην etc.	βλέψεσθαι	βλεψόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	έβλεψάμην etc.	βλέψαι etc.	βλέψωμαι etc.	βλεψαίμην etc.	βλέψασθαι	βλεψάμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	βέβλεμμαι βέβλεψαι βέβλεπται βεβλέμμεθα βέβλεφθε βεβλεμμένοι εἰσί	βέβλεψο βεβλέφθω βέβλεφθε βεβλέφθων	βεβλεμμένος ὧ etc.	βεβλεμμένος εἴην etc.	βεβλέφθαι	βεβλεμμένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έβεβλέμμην έβέβλεψο έβέβλεπτο έβεβλέμμεθα έβέβλεφθε βεβλεμμένοι ἦσαν					

Observe that the 3rd plural βεβλεμμένοι εἰσί and βεβλεμμένοι ἦσαν are periphrastic (to avoid forms with too many consecutive consonants). Of course, the participial part must agree with the subject.

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle			
Pre.		same as middle							
Imp.		same as middle							
Fut.	βλεφθήσομαι etc.			βλεφθησοίμην etc.	βλεφθήσεσθαι	βλεφθησόμενος, -η, -ον			
Aor.	ἐβλέφθην etc.	βλέφθητι etc.	βλεφθῶ etc.	βλεφθείην etc.	βλεφθῆναι	βλεφθείς, -εῖσα, -έν			
Per.	same as middle								
Plu.		same as middle							

Other verbs of the same style

γράφω	TO WRITE	πέμπω	TO SEND
ρίπτω	TO THROW	κόπτω	TO KNOCK, TO CUT DOWN

b) Verbs ending in -γω, -κω, -χω, -ττω (guttural verbs). Example: διώκω το pursue

[169]

[The inclusion of $-\tau\tau\omega$ is due to the fact that this $-\tau\tau$ - originates from a former $-\kappa$ -]

The main change is that these consonants become ξ when a σ is added, and that they become a χ when the recognisable θ is added for the passive. Observe also that there is no $-\kappa$ - in the perfect active and that the consonant suffers a modification in exchange.

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.			regular for	mation		
Imp.			regular for	mation		
Fut.	διώξω etc.			διώξοιμι etc.	διώξειν	διώξων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	έδίωξα etc.	διῶξον etc.	διώξω etc.	διώξαιμι etc.	διῶξαι	διώξας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	δεδίωχα etc.	δειωχώς ἴσθι etc.	δεδιώχω etc.	δεδιώχοιμι etc.	δεδιωχέναι	δεδιωχώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	έδεδιώχειν etc.					

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle			
Pre.		regular formation							
Imp.			regular form	nation					
Fut.	διώξομαι etc.			διωξοίμην etc.	διώξεσθαι	διωξόμενος, -η, -ον			
Aor.	έδιωξάμην etc.	διῶξαι etc.	διώξωμαι etc.	διωξαίμην etc.	διώξασθαι	διωξάμενος, -η, -ον			
Per.	δεδίωγμαι δεδίωξαι δεδίωκται δεδιώγμεθα δεδίωχθε δεδιωγμένοι εἰσί	δεδίωξο δεδιώχθω δεδίωχθε δεδιώχθον	δεδιωγμένος ὧ etc.	δεδιωγμένος εἴην etc.	δεδίωχθαι	δειωγμένος, -η, -ον			
Plu.	έδεδιώγμην έδεδίωξο έδεδίωκτο έδεδιώγμεθα έδεδίωχθε δεδιωγμένοι ἦσαν								

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle				
Pre.		same as middle								
Imp.		same as middle								
Fut.	διωχθήσομαι etc.			διωχθησοίμην etc.	διωχθήσεσθαι	διωχθησόμενος, -η, -ον				
Aor.	έδιώχθην etc.	έδιώχθητι etc.	<mark>διωχθῶ</mark> etc.	διωχθείην etc.	διωχθῆναι	διωχθείς, -εῖσα, -έν				
Per.	same as middle									
Plu.			same	same as middle						

 \Leftrightarrow Some verbs in -ττω behave as if they were dentals (see the following group) as for instance πλάττω το MOULD: future πλάσω, aorist ἔπλασα, etc.

Other verbs of the same style

αγω To LEAD \diamondsuit This verb also has a strong agrist, apart from the expected one η̃ξα.

πράττω ΤΟ ΜΑΚΕ, ΤΟ DO

ταράττω ΤΟ DISTURB, ΤΟ THROW INTO DISORDER

φυλάττω TO GUARD

c) Verbs ending in $-\delta\omega$, $-\tau\omega$, $-\theta\omega$, $-\zeta\omega$ (dental verbs). Example: $\pi\epsilon i\theta\omega$ to persuade

[170]

The main alteration that these verbs undergo is that these consonants disappear when a σ is added, and that they become another σ when the recognisable θ is added for the passive. This group keeps the - κ - in the perfect active (but the previous consonant disappears).

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.			regular for	mation		
Imp.			regular for	mation		
Fut.	πείσω etc.			πείσοιμι etc.	πείσειν	πείσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ἔπεισα etc.	πεῖσον etc.	πείσω etc.	πείσαιμι etc.	πεῖσαι	πείσας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	πέπεικα etc.	πεπεικώς ἴσθι etc.	πεπείκω etc.	πεπείκοιμι etc.	πεπεικέναι	πεπεικώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	ἐπεπείκειν etc.					

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle			
Pre.		regular formation							
Imp.			regular for	mation					
Fut.	πείσομαι etc.			πεισοίμην etc.	πείσεσθαι	πεισόμενος, -η, -ον			
Aor.	έπεισάμην etc.	πεῖσαι etc.	πείσωμαι etc.	πεισαίμην etc.	πείσασθαι	πεισάμενος, -η, -ον			
Per.	πέπεισμαι πέπεισαι πέπεισται πεπείσμεθα πέπεισθε πεπεισμένοι εἰσί	πέπεισο πεπείσθω πέπεισθε πεπείσθων	πεπεισμένος ἇ etc.	πεπεισμένος εἴην etc.	πεπεῖσθαι	πεπεισμένος, -η, -ον			
Plu.	έπεπείσμην έπέπεισο έπέπειστο έπεπείσμεθα ἐπέπεισθε πεπεισμένοι ἦσαν								

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle			
Pre.		same as middle							
Imp.		same as middle							
Fut.	πεισθήσομαι etc.			πεισθησοίμην etc.	πεισθήσεσθαι	πεισθησόμενος, -η, -ον			
Aor.	ἐπείσθην etc.	πείσθητι etc.	πεισθῶ etc.	πεισθείην etc.	πεισθῆναι	πεισθείς, -εῖσα, -έν			
Per.	same as middle								
Plu.			same	as middle					

Other verbs of the same style

 ἀτιμάζω
 TO DISHONOUR

 ψεύδω
 TO LIE, TO DECEIVE

 σκευάζω
 TO PREPARE

νομίζω το consider, το think

2. Liquid verbs

a) Definition and characteristics of liquid verbs

Verbs whose stem ends in one of these four consonants: λ , μ , ν , ρ are called *liquid verbs*. As in the case of the consonantal verbs, some changes take place when adding endings etc. These changes are:

1/ In future tense: No sigma is added, and the personal endings applied are exactly the same as those that would correspond to the present of the ε contract verbs. Moreover, the stem of the verb may change slightly. Example: $\sigma \tau \acute{\varepsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$ TO SEND, fut. $\sigma \tau \varepsilon \lambda \widetilde{\omega}$ (observe that one lambda has disappeared). Of course, when we meet one of these forms in a text, we will have to know whether it is the present of an ε contract verb or the future of a liquid verb. For instance, if we want to know the meaning of the form $\delta \iota \omega \phi \theta \varepsilon \rho \widetilde{\varepsilon} \widetilde{\omega}$ and we look for the verb $\delta \iota \omega \phi \theta \varepsilon \rho \widetilde{\varepsilon} \widetilde{\omega}$ in the dictionary and we do not find it, we will have to consider the possibility that we are faced with a liquid future, until we find out that it comes from $\delta \iota \omega \phi \theta \varepsilon \widetilde{\iota} \rho \widetilde{\omega}$ TO DESTROY.

2/ In aorist tense: As in the future tense, no sigma is added (but the endings are the usual ones for aorist), and again the stem may change slightly (but it will probably be a different change from that for the future tense). Example: στέλλω, aorist ἔστειλα (observe the new stem στειλ-).

3/ In perfect tense: It does have the usual kappa, but the stem may also change. Example: $\sigma \tau \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$, perfect $\acute{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \alpha \lambda \kappa \alpha$ (for this example, remember that verbs beginning with $\sigma \tau$ - cannot reduplicate, this has nothing to do with the verb being liquid or not).

4/ In future passive, aorist passive and perfect middle-passive tenses: Verbs follow their usual rules: -θησ- for the future passive, etc., but the three of them are based on the active perfect stem. Example: στέλλω το send, perfect active ἔσταλκα (stem -σταλ-), therefore future passive σταλθήσομαι, aorist passive ἐστάλθην, perfect middle-passive ἔσταλμαι (the lack of reduplication has nothing to do with the condition of liquid verb, it is just a coincidence).

With respect to the changes of stem, although they seem to follow a fixed pattern at times, in fact the exceptions outnumber the regular cases, so the best system is to learn the stems for each tense (example: $\phi\alpha\dot{\nu}\omega$ TO MAKE APPEAR, future $\phi\alpha\dot{\nu}\omega$, aorist $\dot{\epsilon}\phi\eta\dot{\nu}\alpha$, perfect $\pi\dot{\epsilon}\phi\alpha\dot{\nu}\kappa\alpha$, etc.). The change may involve the disappearance of a letter, the addition of a new one, etc.; nevertheless, sometimes the stem remains unchanged, in which case only the accent may provide an indication of tense (present or future); for instance, $\kappa\rho\dot{\nu}\nu\omega$ TO JUDGE, future $\kappa\rho\nu\dot{\omega}$.

b) A liquid verb fully conjugated

Here, we provide the forms of $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\lambda\omega$ TO ANNOUNCE as an example, but we further reinforce that the changes experienced by this verb in the stem do NOT mark a parameter to be followed by other liquid verbs with respect to the changes experienced by the stem in the different tenses. As in the case of the consonantal verbs, the perfect and pluperfect middle-passive are given in full owing to their complexity, given the variety of the initial consonants of their personal endings (but the alterations are much minor in the liquid verbs than in the consonantal ones).

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.			regular for	mation		
Imp.			regular for	mation		
Fut.	ἀγγελῶ etc. (like present of ποιέω)			ἀγγελοίην etc. (like present of ποιέω)	ἀγγελεῖν	ἀγγελῶν, -οῦσα, -οῦν (like present of ποιέω)
Aor.	ἤγγειλα etc.	ἄγγειλον etc.	ἀγγείλω etc.	ἀγγείλαιμι etc.	ἀγγεῖλαι	ἀγγείλας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	ἤγγελκα etc.	ήγγελκὼς ἴσθι etc.	ἠγγέλκω etc.	ἠγγέλκοιμι etc.	ήγγελκέναι	ήγγελκώς, -υῖα, -ος
Plu.	ήγγέλκειν etc.					

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle			
Pre.	regular formation								
Imp.			regular	formation		_			
Fut.	άγγελοῦμαι etc.			ἀγγελοίμην etc.	άγγελεῖσθαι	άγγελούμενος, -η, -ον			
Aor.	ήγγειλάμην etc.	ἄγγειλαι etc.	άγγείλωμαι etc.	άγγειλαίμην etc.	ἀγγείλασθαι	άγγειλάμενος, -η, -ον			
Per.	ἤγγελμαι ἤγγελσαι ἤγγελται ἠγγέλμεθα ἤγγελθε ἠγγελμένοι εἰσί	ήγγελσο ήγγέλθω ήγγελθε ήγγέλθων	ήγγελμένος ὧ etc.	ήγγελμένος εἴην etc.	ήγγέλθαι	ήγγελμένος, -η, -ον			
Plu.	ήγγέλμην ήγγελσο ήγγελτο ήγγέλμεθα ήγγελθε ήγγελμένοι ήσαν								

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle						
Pre.		same as middle										
Imp.			sar	ne as middle		_						
Fut.	άγγελθήσομαι etc.			άγγελθησοίμην etc.	άγγελθήσεσθαι	ἀγγελθησόμενος, -η, -ον						
Aor.	ἠγγέλθην etc.	άγγέλθητι etc.	άγγελθῶ etc.	άγγελθείην etc.	άγγελθῆναι	άγγελθείς, -εῖσα, -εν						
Per.	same as middle											
Plu.			sar	ne as middle		_						

c) Other frequent liquid verbs

[Only future and aorist active are given, the most common tenses.]

[173]

TO RAISE	fut. ἀρῶ	aor. ἡρα
TO ANSWER	fut. ἀποκρινοῦμαι	aor. ἀπεκρινάμην
TO KILL	fut. ἀποκτενῶ	aor. ἀπέκτεινα
TO CAST, TO THROW	fut. βαλ ῶ	aor. ἔβαλον
TO DESTROY	fut. διαφθερῶ	aor. διέφθειρα
TO JUDGE	fut. κρινῶ	aor. ἕκρινα
TO REMAIN, TO WAIT	fut. μενῶ	aor. ἔμεινα
TO DISTRIBUTE	fut. νεμ ῶ	aor. ἔνειμα
TO ARRANGE, TO DISPATCH	fut. στελ ῶ	aor. ἔστειλα
TO SHOW	fut. φανῶ	aor. ἔφηνα
	TO ANSWER TO KILL TO CAST, TO THROW TO DESTROY TO JUDGE TO REMAIN, TO WAIT TO DISTRIBUTE TO ARRANGE, TO DISPATCH	TO ANSWER TO KILL TO KILL TO CAST, TO THROW TO DESTROY TO JUDGE TO REMAIN, TO WAIT TO DISTRIBUTE TO ARRANGE, TO DISPATCH fut. ἀποκρινοῦμαι fut. βαλῶ fut. διαφθερῶ fut. κρινῶ fut. ψενῶ fut. νεμῶ fut. στελῶ

- \diamond Observe that, in the case of $\kappa\rho\nu\tilde{\omega}$, only the accent differentiates the future from the present. This is also the case for other verbs.
- $\dot{\hat{\epsilon}}$ $\ddot{\epsilon}$ $\beta \alpha \lambda o v$ is a *strong* aorist, not liquid. It follows another scheme.

d) Additional observations on liquid verbs

- 1/ Some verbs that end in $-i\zeta\omega$ (consonantal verbs in dental, theoretically) form the future in the same way as liquids; for instance, voμiζω το consider, active fut. voμiω, middle fut. voμiωμαι. This kind of future is called the *Attic future*.
- **2/** Other verbs that are neither liquid nor end in $-i\zeta_{\Theta}$ also have a future of the same kind, i.e., resembling an ε contract present. For instance, the verb $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma_{\Theta}$ to say, apart from the regular future $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \dot{\xi}_{\Theta}$, has also the future $\dot{\varepsilon} \rho \tilde{\omega}$, $\dot{\varepsilon} \rho \tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\iota} \zeta_{\Theta}$ etc., and the same applies for the verb $\mu \dot{\alpha} \chi_{\Theta} \rho \tilde{\omega} \tilde{\iota} \tilde{\iota}$ to FIGHT: future $\mu \alpha \chi_{\Theta} \tilde{\iota} \rho \tilde{\omega} \tilde{\iota}$.
- **3/** Several cases may be found which will not follow the given framework. For instance, while $\dot{o}\xi\dot{v}v\omega$ to sharpen forms the perfect middle-passive $\dot{o}\xi v\mu\mu\alpha t$, the verb $\phi\alpha\dot{v}v\omega$ forms it in $\pi\dot{e}\phi\alpha\sigma\mu\alpha t$: in the first verb, the v becomes a μ in the first person, and in the second verb it becomes a σ .

d) Verbs in -ω: important phenomena

1. Strong tenses

The term *strong tenses* is applied to the tenses of some verbs that are not formed according to the usual rules. They can be divided into two classes:

- **a/** Tenses formed using personal endings different to the regular ones: strong aorist active and middle (including the *root aorists*).
- **b/** Tenses formed using the expected personal endings, but with the irregularity that the expected temporal characteristic is omitted: future active and middle lacking the expected σ , perfect and pluperfect active lacking the expected κ , and future and a orist passive lacking the expected θ .

There is no firm consensus about whether the second class should be called *strong tenses*, and some textbooks only consider the first class to be *strong*.

a) Strong agrist (active and middle)

[175]

Many verbs form the active and middle aorist in a different way, producing the *strong aorist* (this is also known as the *second aorist*), in contraposition to the standard aorist, which is known as the *weak aorist* (also the *first aorist*). The strong aorist is hugely significant. The aorist is the most frequently used tense in Greek and, moreover, the most common verbs have a strong aorist.

The two identifiable characteristics of the strong aorist are:

- 1/ The stem is usually different from that for the present tense; sometimes the difference will be very minimal, as for instance in the verb $\beta \acute{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$ TO THROW, which has, for its aorist, the stem $\beta \alpha \lambda$ instead of the stem $\beta \alpha \lambda \lambda$ -. In other cases, the change will be absolute, entirely different to that of the present, as for instance in the verb $\acute{o}p\acute{\alpha}\omega$ TO SEE, which has, for its aorist, the stem $\ifmmode{i}\delta$ -. There are no rules to work out whether a verb has a strong aorist or a regular one, and it is even more difficult to predict the stem for the strong aorist (if the verb has this type of aorist). Therefore, it is essential that this is learnt as one of the principal parts.
- **2/** The endings added on this stem are, for the indicative, equivalent to those for the imperfect tense. For the other moods, the endings are equivalent to present tense endings. The reason for using present tense endings is that the other moods do not have the imperfect tense, therefore the present tense endings are used instead.

This second characteristic will cause both the imperfect and the strong agrist indicative of a verb to be very similar (both have the augment and imperfect endings), especially if the stem has changed just slightly. For example, the imperfect of $\beta \acute{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$, while the agrist is $\check{\epsilon} \beta \alpha \lambda \omega$. Of course, in the other moods the strong agrist, which uses present

endings, will be very similar to the present: in the case of the verb $\beta\acute{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\omega$, the present infinitive would be $\beta\acute{\alpha}\lambda\epsilon\iota\nu$ and the aorist infinitive would be $\beta\acute{\alpha}\lambda\epsilon\iota\nu$ (note, also, the difference in accent).

As an example, we offer here the present, imperfect and agrist tenses, and both the active and middle voices, of [176] $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} v \omega$ TO TAKE, (agr. $\ddot{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \beta o v$). Observe that the agrist indicative resembles the imperfect and that the agrist of the other moods resembles the present in those moods:

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	λαμβάνω etc.	λαμβάνε etc.	λαμβάνω etc.	λαμβάνοιμι etc.	λαμβάνειν	λαμβάνων, -ουσα, -ον
Imp.	έλάμβανον έλάμβανες έλάμβανε(ν) έλαμβάνομεν έλαμβάνετε έλάμβανον					
Aor.	έλαβον έλαβες έλαβε(ν) έλάβομεν έλάβετε έλαβον	λαβέ etc.	λάβω etc.	λάβοιμι etc.	λαβεῖν	λαβών, -οῦσα, -όν

Middle voice

	Indicative Imperative		Subjunctive	Subjunctive Optative		Participle	
Pre.	PIP		''' ''' ''' '''		λαμβάνεσθαι	λαμβανόμενος, -η, -ον	
Imp.	έλαμβανόμην έλαμβάνου έλαμβάνετο έλαμβανόμεθα έλαμβάνεσθε έλαμβάνοντο						
Aor.	έλαβόμην έλάβου έλάβετο έλαβόμεθα έλάβεσθε έλάβοντο	λαβοῦ etc.	λάβωμαι etc.	λαβοίμην etc.	λαβέσθαι	λαβόμενος, -η, -ον	

The most common verbs that have a strong aorist

[177]

ἄγω	TO LEAD	η̈γαγον 💠 Curious reduplication of the stem.
αίρέω	TO TAKE	είλον
αἰσθάνομαι	TO REALISE	ἢσθόμην
άμαρτάνω	TO MAKE A MISTAKE	ἥμαρτον
ἀποθνήσκω	TO DIE	ἀπέθανον
ἀφικνέομαι	TO ARRIVE	ἀφικόμην
βάλλω	TO THROW	ἔβαλον
γίγνομαι	ТО ВЕСОМЕ	έγενόμην
ἕπομαι	TO FOLLOW	έσπόμην
ἔρχομαι	TO GO	$\tilde{\eta}\lambda\theta ov$ \diamond Observe that the aorist is active.
ἐρωτάω	TO ASK	ἠρόμην ♦ In fact, this is the aorist of ἔρομαι, which is almost never used in the present tense. On the other hand, ἐρωτάω has its own weak aorist, ἠρώτησα, but this is rarely used, the verb "borrows" the other one for the aorist.
έσθίω	TO EAT	ἔ φαγον
εὑρίσκω	TO FIND	εὖρον οr ηὖρον
ἔχω	TO HAVE	ἔσχον
κάμνω	TO GET TIRED	ἔκαμον
λαμβάνω	TO TAKE	_έ λαβον
λανθάνω	TO ESCAPE THE NOTICE	_έ λαθον
λέγω	TO SAY	εἶπον \diamondsuit There is also a weak aorist, ἔλεξα, but this is not so common.
λείπω	TO LEAVE	_έ λιπον
μανθάνω	TO LEARN	ἔμαθ ον
ὸρά ω	TO SEE	είδον
πάσχω	TO SUFFER	ἔπαθον
πείθομαι	TO OBEY	ἐπιθόμην $$ The active πείθω το persuade has a weak aorist: ἔπεισα.
πίνω	TO DRINK	ἔπιον
πίπτω	TO FALL	ἔπεσον
πυνθάνομαι	TO LEARN BY INQUIRY	έπυθόμην
τέμνω	TO CUT	ἔταμον
τρέχω	TO RUN	ἔδραμ ον
τυγχάνω	TO HAPPEN TO BE	ἔτυχον
φέρω	TO CARRY	 ἤνεγκον
φεύγω	TO FLEE	ἔφυγον
ὀφείλω	TO OWE	ἄφελον

b) Root aorists (active)

[178]

Within this group of strong aorists, there is a special sub-group of verbs that have a so-called *root aorist* (some grammars call it the *third aorist*, or *athematic aorist*, and in fact, no agreement has been reached on whether this type of aorist should be considered a sub-group of the strong aorists or whether it is separate). Their identifiable characteristic is that they contain a long vowel in all cases of the indicative, and moreover, they lack the first vowel of the personal ending. To complicate matters further, the third person plural shows a different form in $-\sigma\alpha v$ (this actually is a weak aorist ending). Their appearance also resembles the passive aorist.

The most common root agrists are $\mathbf{β}$ αίνω and $\mathbf{γ}$ ιγνώσκω. We offer some more here, with relevant comments:

1/ βαίνω το σο

Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
ἔβην ἔβης ἔβη ἔβημεν ἔβητε ἔβησαν	βῆθι βήτω βῆτε βάντων	βῶ βῆς βῆ βῶμεν βῆτε βῶσι	βαίην βαίης βαίη βαῖμεν βαῖτε βαῖεν	βῆναι	βάς, βάντος βᾶσα, -ης βάν, βάντος

 $[\]Leftrightarrow$ The agrist of **βαίνω** is not found on its own in Attic prose, but always as a compound verb (ἀπέβην, εἰσέβην, etc.).

2/ γιγνώσκω το κνοψ

Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
ἔγνων ἔγνως ἔγνω ἔγνωμεν ἔγνωτε ἔγνωσαν	γνῶθι γνώτω γνῶτε γνόντων	γνῶ γνῷς γνῷ γνῶμεν γνῶτε γνῶσι	γνοίην γνοίης γνοίη γνοϊμεν γνοϊτε γνοῖεν	γνῶναι	γνούς, γνόντος γνοῦσα, -ης γνόν, γνόντος

3/ ἀποδιδράσκω ΤΟ FLEE

Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
ἀπέδραν ἀπέδρας ἀπέδρα ἀπέδραμεν ἀπέδρατε ἀπέδρασαν	ἀπόδραθι ἀποδράτω ἀπόδρατε ἀποδράντων	ἀποδρῶ ἀποδρῷς ἀποδρῷ ἀποδρῶμεν ἀποδρᾶτε ἀποδρῶσι	ἀποδραίην ἀποδραίης ἀποδραίη ἀποδραίμεν ἀποδραΐτε ἀποδραΐεν	ἀποδρᾶναι	ἀποδράς, -άντος ἀποδρᾶσα, -ης ἀποδράν, άντος

[♦] This verb is only found in compound forms.

 $[\]diamondsuit$ There is a regular agrist $\mathring{\epsilon}\beta\eta\sigma\alpha$, but this has a transitive meaning: TO MAKE GO.

4/δύομαι το SINK

Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
ἔδυν ἔδυς ἔδυ ἔδυμεν ἔδυτε ἔδυσαν	δῦθι δύτω δῦτε δύντων	δύω δύης δύη δύωμεν δύητε δύωσι	non existent	δῦναι	δύς, δύντος δῦσα, -ης δύν, -δύντος

- This verb will almost always be found in the compound form καταδύομαι.
- \diamond In the active (δύω), it means TO MAKE SINK, and would have a regular aorist ἔδυσα, but it is almost always found in its middle form (δύομαι), with the intransitive meaning TO SINK, and the corresponding root aorist is ἔδυν.

5/ χαίρω ΤΟ REJOICE

Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
έχάρην έχάρης έχάρη έχάρημεν έχάρητε έχάρησαν	χάρηθι χαρήτω χάρητε χαρέντων	χαρῶ χαρῆς χαρῆ χαρῶμεν χαρῆτε χαρῶσι	χαρείην χαρείης χαρείη χαρεῖμεν χαρεῖτε χαρεῖεν	χαρῆναι	χαρείς, -έντος χαρεῖσα, -ης χαρέν, έντος

6/Other verbs with root agrist

[179]

 \Box φθάνω το anticipate aorist ἔφθην, ἔφθης, etc.

This verb (the use of which will be dealt with subsequently in the chapter on participle clauses) also has a sigmatic aorist $\delta \theta \alpha \sigma \alpha$. However, in this case, both aorists have the same meaning, and there is no transitive / intransitive differentiation as in $\delta \delta \omega \alpha$.

🗖 ἀλίσκομαι το BE CAPTURED aorist ἑάλων, ἑάλως, etc.

Observe that the agrist of this verb is active but retains the passive meaning TO BE CAPTURED.

φύω transitive meaning TO PRODUCE aorist ἔφυσα
 intransitive meaning TO BE BORN, TO BE BY NATURE aorist ἔφυν, ἔφυς, etc.

Like $\delta \acute{v}o\mu\alpha\iota$, the root aorist of this verb has intransitive meaning, but the verb has a sigmatic aorist $\acute{\epsilon}\phi\upsilon\sigma\alpha$ which means TO PRODUCE. Observe that the present active shares both meanings.

- ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἀγαθὸς φύει Man is born good / man is good by nature.
 - \diamond In agrist, it would be $\mathring{\epsilon}\phi v$. Intransitive meaning.
- ἔφυν γὰρ οὐδὲν ἐκ τέχνης πράσσειν κακῆς Ι was not born to do anything with bad intention (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*). ♦ *Intransitive meaning*.
- ἡ γῆ καρποὺς φύει The Earth produces fruit. \diamond In aorist, it would be ἔφυσε. *Intransitive meaning*.

This verb is much used in its perfect tense, $\pi \acute{\epsilon} \phi \nu \kappa \alpha$, and this will be dealt with in Point 4 Other presents and perfects with swapped meanings.

🗖 ἴστημι το MAKE STAND aorist ἔστην, ἔστης, etc.

This is a verb of the second conjugation and has some special characteristics; the verb and its uses will be studied with the verb as a whole further ahead, with the $-\mu \iota$ verbs.

c) Strong future active and middle

[180]

These futures lack the usual sigma (so, they are also called *asigmatic futures*) and, as a result, the personal endings resemble those of the present of an ε contract verb. They include:

1/ The future tense of the liquid verbs presented in the former chapter:

 μένω
 TO REMAIN
 fut. μενῶ

 ἀποκτείνω
 ΤΟ KILL
 fut. ἀποκτενῶ

2/ Verbs ending in $-i\zeta\omega$ (also presented in the former chapter):

νομίζω το consider fut. νομιῶ

3/ Some other verbs that are neither liquid nor end in $-i\zeta\omega$ also have this future:

μάχομαι ΤΟ FIGHT fut. μαχοῦμαι

d) Strong perfect and pluperfect active

These perfects and pluperfects lack the expected kappa (as previously seen with consonantic verbs), and also undergo some alteration in the final consonant:

βλέπω το LOOK perf. βέβλεφα plup. ἐβεβλέφειν διώκω το PURSUE perf. δεδίωχα plup. ἐδεδιώχειν λείπω το LEAVE perf. λέλοιπα plup. (non existent)

♦ Note that in this last verb the final consonant has not changed, but the internal vowel has.

Some verbs have both perfects: a regular one and a strong one, or even two strong ones (both lacking kappa), such as πέπραχα and πέπραχα (from πράττω), with different meanings: πέπραχα I HAVE DONE, πέπραχα I HAVE FARED.

e) Strong future and agrist passive

[181]

1/ Some verbs lack the usual $-\theta$ - of the passive suffixes for the future and aorist tenses. Therefore, for the future tense, instead of adding the suffix $-\theta\eta\sigma$ -, the θ is omitted, and $-\eta\sigma$ - is added; and for the aorist, instead of adding $-\theta\eta$ -, only $-\eta$ - is added:

γράφω το WRITE Future γραφήσομαι ΝΟΤ γραφθήσομαι Aorist ἐγράφην ΝΟΤ ἐγράφθην κόπτω το ΚΝΟCΚ Future κοπήσομαι ΝΟΤ κοφθήσομαι Aorist ἐκόπην ΝΟΤ ἐκόφθην

 \diamond Observe in κοπήσομαι and ἐκόπην that the phonetic change that the presence of the -θ- would have produced on the consonant at the end of the stem (making it change from π to ϕ) is not produced.

2/ But in some cases the verb has both forms:

τρίβω	TO RUB	Future	τριφθήσομαι	AND	τριβήσομαι	Aorist	έτρίφθην	AND	έτρίβην
θφείρω	TO DESTROY	Future	φθαρθήσομαι	AND	φθαρήσομαι	Aorist	έφθάρθην	AND	έφθάρην
τάσσω	TO ARRANGE	Future	ταχθήσομαι	AND	ταγήσομαι	Aorist	έτάχθην	AND	ἐτάγην

2. Deponent tenses

[182]

a) Verbs with middle future but with active meaning

Some verbs that are active in the present tense form their future in the middle voice (but retain the same meaning). Sometimes the verb follows the regular rules for future formation and simply switches to the middle, but sometimes the stem suffers such a change that it is difficult to identify the verb from which it is derived, unless we have previously encountered that verb. The most common ones are:

ἀκούω	TO LISTEN	fut.	ἀκούσομαι	♦ This is absolutely regular, but middle.
ἀποθνήσκω	TO DIE	fut.	ἀποθανοῦμα	ta ♦ This, apart from being middle, also becomes -ɛ- contract, as if it were a liquid verb.
βαίνω	TO WALK	fut.	βήσομαι	
βλέπω	TO LOOK AT	fut.	βλέψομαι	
βοάω	TO SHOUT	fut.	βοήσομαι	
γιγνώσκω	TO KNOW	fut.	γνώσομαι	
λαγχάνω	TO OBTAIN BY LOT	fut.	λήξομαι	
λαμβάνω	TO TAKE	fut.	λήψομαι	
μανθάνω	TO LEARN	fut.	μαθήσομαι	
ὸράω	TO SEE	fut.	ὄψομαι	
πάσχω	TO SUFFER	fut.	πείσομαι	\diamondsuit Take care: $\pi \epsilon i \theta o \mu \alpha \iota$, middle of $\pi \epsilon i \theta \omega$, has the same future.
πίπτω	TO FALL	fut.	πεσοῦμαι	\diamondsuit This, apart from being middle, also becomes $-\varepsilon$ -contract, as if it were a liquid verb.
σιγάω	TO BE SILENT	fut.	σιγήσομαι	
τρέχω	TO RUN	fut.	δραμοῦμαι	\diamond Also this one becomes -ϵ- contract, as if it were a liquid verb.
τυγχάνω	TO HAPPEN TO BE	fut.	τεύξομαι	
φεύγω	TO FLEE	fut.	φεύξομαι	
φθάνω	TO ANTICIPATE	fut.	φθήσομαι	

As we can see, these are very irregular verbs. For instance, we would expect $\beta\alpha\dot{\nu}\omega$ to behave as a liquid verb, since its stem ends in $-\nu$ -, yet it produces a future with a sigma. Furthermore, its acrost is a root acrist ($\xi\beta\eta\nu$). Additionally, some of these futures are asigmatic, like $\dot{\alpha}\pi o\theta\nu\dot{\eta}\sigma\kappa\omega$ to DIE and $\tau\rho\dot{\epsilon}\chi\omega$ TO RUN.

b) Verbs with passive agrist but with active meaning

[183]

Many verbs, almost all of them deponent (therefore, using the middle voice in the present), form their aorist in the passive voice, but the meaning goes on being active; for instance, the aorist of the verb $\pi o \rho \epsilon \acute{\nu} o \mu \alpha \iota$ to travel is $\acute{\epsilon} \pi o \rho \epsilon \acute{\nu} \theta \eta \nu$ I travelled. As expected, any mood in aorist (infinitive, participle, etc.) will be in the passive voice but with

an active meaning: $\pi o \rho \epsilon \upsilon \theta \tilde{\eta} \upsilon \alpha \iota$ to travel / to have travelled, $\pi o \rho \epsilon \upsilon \theta \epsilon \iota \varsigma$ having travelled, etc. Furthermore, as usual, the stem may undergo some alterations. The main verbs that have this kind of aorist are:

βούλομαι	TO WANT	Aorist	έβουλήθην
δέομαι	TO BEG, TO NEED, TO LACK	Aorist	έδεήθην
διαλέγομαι	TO CONVERSE	Aorist	διελέχθην 💠 διελεξάμην also exists.
διανοέομαι	TO INTEND	Aorist	διενοήθην
δύναμαι	TO BE ABLE	Aorist	έδυνήθην
ένθυμέομαι	TO LAY TO HEART	Aorist	ένεθυμήθην
έπιμελέομαι	TO TAKE CARE	Aorist	έπεμελήθην
έπίσταμαι	TO KNOW	Aorist	ἠπιστήθην
έράω	TO FALL IN LOVE	Aorist	ἠράσθην
ἥδομαι	TO ENJOY	Aorist	ἥ σθην
μιμνήσκομαι	TO REMEMBER	Aorist	έμνήσθην
οἴομαι	TO BELIEVE	Aorist	φήθην
ὀργίζομαι	TO GET ANGRY	Aorist	ώργίσθην
ὀρέγομαι	TO TEND TO, TO DESIRE	Aorist	$\mathring{\omega}$ ρέχθην \diamondsuit This verb also exists in the active:
			ὀρέγω TO REACH OUT
πορεύομαι	TO TRAVEL, TO GO	Aorist	έπορεύθην
φαίνομαι	TO APPEAR	Aorist	έφάνην
φοβέομαι	TO FEAR, TO BE AFRAID	Aorist	έφοβήθην

Additional observations

1/ Some of these verbs may also have an aorist which keeps the middle form. For instance, πορεύομαι may have as aorist ἐπορευσάμην in middle and ἐπορεύθην in passive, both of them meaning I TRAVELLED.

2/ Another characteristic is that some may also have a future passive. For instance ἐπιμελέομαι may have as its future either ἐπιμελήσομαι in the middle voice, or ἐπιμεληθήσομαι in the passive, both of them meaning I will TAKE CARE.

3/ δύναμαι and ἐπίσταμαι are in fact -μι verbs, not - ω verbs, but they have been included here just because they also have this characteristic.

c) Verbs with middle future but with passive meaning

[184]

Essentially, this is the opposite from the former case; some verbs do not have a passive future and so they use the middle one with a passive meaning. For instance:

άδικέω	TO DO WRONG	Its middle future	άδικήσομαι	means	I WILL BE WRONGED
ἀπατάω	TO DECEIVE	Its middle future	ἀπατήσομαι	means	I WILL BE DECEIVED
κωλύω	TO PREVENT	Its middle future	κωλύσομαι	means	I WILL BE PREVENTED

BUT take care: These verbs do have a passive aorist with a passive meaning. For example:

ἦδικήθην I was wronged ἐκωλύθην I was prevented

3. A perfect with present meaning

[185]

The verb $\delta \tilde{i} \delta \alpha$ TO KNOW is a perfect with present meaning. Observe, moreover, that this perfect does not have the expected κ , so in fact it is a *strong* perfect. Given its significance, $\delta \tilde{i} \delta \alpha$ is always studied independently from the strong perfects, which are presented in the section dealing with strong tenses.

This verb has very irregular forms, therefore all are listed below. Note that since the perfect has a present meaning, the pluperfect will have an imperfect meaning. It has also an irregular future.

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Perfect (present meaning)	οἶδα οἶσθα οἶδε(ν) ἴσμεν ἴστε ἴσασι(ν)	ἴσθι ἴστω ἴστε ἴστων	είδῶ εἰδῆς εἰδῆ εἰδῶμεν εἰδῆτε εἰδῶσι(ν)	είδείην είδείης είδείη είδεῖμεν είδεῖτε είδεῖεν	εἰδέναι	είδώς, -ότος είδυῖα, -ας είδός, -ότος
Pluperfect (imperf. meaning)	 ἤδη - ἤδειν ἤδησθα - ἤδεις ἤδει(ν) ἤσμεν - ἤδεμεν ἤστε - ἤδετε ἤσαν - ἤδεσαν 					
Future	εἴσομαι εἴσει εἴσεται εἰσόμεθα εἴσεσθε εἴσονται			είσοίμην είσοῖο είσοῖτο είσοίμεθα είσοῖσθε είσοῖντο	εἴσεσθαι	εἰσόμενος, -η, -ον

Notes

- 1/ The pluperfect has alternative forms.
- **2/** The second singular imperative is identical to that of the verb $\varepsilon i \mu i$ TO BE.
- **3/** The future tenses are very similar to those of the verb εἰμί (ἔσεσθαι, ἔσομαι, etc.).
- **4/** The perfect optative plural can also be εἴημεν, εἴητε, εἴησαν.
- 5/ This verb is in fact a very old perfect of $\dot{\mathbf{o}} \rho \dot{\mathbf{a}} \omega$ TO SEE, which has its own perfect $\dot{\mathbf{e}} \dot{\omega} \rho \alpha \kappa \alpha$.

4. Other presents and perfects with swapped meanings

[186]

a) Other perfects with present meaning

 $1/\gamma$ έγονα is the active perfect of the present γίγνομαι το весоме, το таке place, το наррен. It means to be by Birth. The other perfect γεγένημαι retains the sense of το have happened.

• οὐ πάντες κακοὶ ἐκ γαστρὸς γεγόνασιν Νοτ all are wicked from birth (Theognis, *Elegiae*).

ὡς δ᾽ ἤσθοντο οἱ Θηβαῖοι τὸ γεγενημένον, ...
 When the Thebans heard about what had happened, ...
 (Thucydides, Historiae).

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 $2/\delta$ έδοικα and δέδια are two perfects with different stems of the verb δείδω, TO FEAR, unused in Attic in present tense. Note that the second does not even have the customary -κ- of the perfect tense. These two perfects have a present meaning I FEAR. They are in fact an alternative to ϕ οβέομαι (also TO FEAR).

- δέδοικ' ἀκούων τήνδε τὴν προθυμίαν Ι AM AFRAID, HEARING THIS DESIRE (Sophocles, Aiax).
- **3/ ἔοικα** is the perfect of the verb εἴκω, unused in Attic in present tense, and means to be similar and to seem. The participle ἐοικώς has a variant, εἰκώς, which is much used in the neuter τὸ εἰκός what is natural, and in expressions such as κατὰ τὸ εἰκός ACCORDING TO WHAT IS NORMAL / AS EXPECTED, and the adverb εἰκότως OF COURSE.
 - ἔοικα γοῦν τούτου ... σοφώτερος εἶναι Ι seem, then, to be ... wiser than this one (Plato, Apologia).
- 4/ εἴωθα is the perfect of the present ε̃θω, unused in Attic in present tense, and means TO BE USED TO.
 - ἀεὶ εἴωθα, ἐπειδάν τις λέγη τι, προσέχειν τὸν νοῦν Ι ΑΜ USED ΤΟ PAYING ATTENTION, WHENEVER ANYBODY SAYS SOMETHING (Plato, Hippias Minor).
- **5/ ἔστηκα** is the perfect of ἴστημι το set. In perfect tense, it means I AM STANDING.
 - τί πρὸς πύλαισι τήνδ' ἄγουσ' ἐρημίαν ἔστηκας;
 Why are you standing, in your solitude, at the gates?
 (Euripides, Medea).
- **6/** κέκτημαι is the perfect of the present κτάομαι. The present means to obtain, and the perfect means to possess (this follows logically, since something that has been obtained is now in our possession).
 - ναυτικόν τε **κεκτήμεθα** πλὴν τοῦ παρ' ὑμῖν πλεῖστον We possess the most complete navy, except yours (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- **7/** μέμνημαι is the perfect middle of the present μιμνήσκω. The active means to REMIND, the middle means TO REMIND TO REMIND.
 - ὅστις δ' ἦν, οὐ σαφῶς μέμνημαι Who it was, I do not remember exactly (Plato, *Phaedo*).
- **8/** ὅλωλα (ἀπόλωλα) is the perfect of the present ὅλλυμι το DESTROY. In perfect tense, it means I AM LOST.
 - ὄλωλα, τέκνον, οὐδέ μοι χάρις βίου ΙΑΜ LOST, MY SON, AND I HAVE NO JOY IN LIFE (Euripides, *Hippolytus*).
- 9/ πέποιθα is the perfect of the present πείθω το PERSUADE. In perfect tense, it means to TRUST. It rules a dative.
 - ἔγωγε οὐ πάνυ τῷ Τιμοκλεῖ πέποιθα Ι DO NOT TRUST TIMOCLES AT ALL (Lucian, *Juppiter Tragoedus*).
- **10/** πέφυκα is the perfect of φύω. The present means to produce (it is transitive), and the perfect has the intransitive meaning to be by NATURE. For instance:
 - ἀγαθοὶ πεφύκασιν οἱ ἄνθρωποι Human beings are good by nature.
 - πεφύκασί τε ἄπαντες καὶ ἱδίᾳ καὶ δημοσίᾳ ἀμαρτάνειν All men have the natural tendency, both in their private and in their social life, to commit offences (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

11/ τέθνηκα is the perfect of ἀποθνήσκω το DIE (note that the perfect does not use the prefix ἀπο-). The perfect tense can be translated both as I AM DEAD and as I HAVE DIED. Therefore, the perfect participle οἱ τεθνηκότες means THE DEAD ONES.

• οἱ νῦν τεθνηκότες ἱκανοὶ ἦσαν ζῶντες νικᾶν μαχόμενοι πάντας τοὺς βαρβάρους Those who now are dead were enough, when they were alive, to defeat all the barbarians in battle (Xenophon, Agesilaus).

As expected, the pluperfect of these verbs should be translated using an imperfect meaning. For example: $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\epsilon\mu\nu\dot{\eta}\mu\eta\nu$ I was remembering.

b) Presents with perfect meaning

[188]

There are two verbs that have a perfect meaning even when they are used in the present tense:

```
ἤκω TO HAVE COME, TO BE HEREοἴχομαι TO HAVE GONE, TO BE GONE
```

Accordingly, their imperfects will have a pluperfect meaning:

```
ἦκον I HAD ARRIVED
ἀχόμην I HAD GONE
```

Occasionally, these two verbs may be translated using a present meaning, I come instead of I have come, but the perfect meaning is more common.

Note that $\eta \kappa \omega$ has a perfect $\tilde{\eta} \kappa \alpha$, which is easily confused with the aorist of $\tilde{\iota} \eta \mu \iota$.

5. Double tenses

In some tenses, some verbs have two forms simultaneously: the regular one, also known as *weak*, and the irregular one, also known as *strong*. This applies for the future, the aorist and the perfect tenses. Sometimes the alternative form is a form "borrowed" from another verb.

a) In the case of the future

Both forms share the same meaning:

```
λέγω το say Future λέξω AND ἐρῶ (< ἐρέω, a liquid future) I will say ἔχω το have Future ἕξω AND σχήσω I will have
```

Note that there can in fact be a slight nuance in meaning: $\xi \xi \omega$ tends to have more of a durative meaning, and $\sigma \chi \dot{\eta} \sigma \omega$ conveys a sense of spontaneity.

```
• πολλὴν ἄρα ἐγὼ τῷ παιδὶ χάριν ἔζω I shall be very grateful to the boy (Plato, Gorgias).
```

• σχήσω σ' ἐγὼ τῆς νὖν βοῆς Ι will hold you back from what you say now (Aristophanes, *Lysistrata*).

b) In the case of the aorist

[190]

1/ Sometimes the meaning of both forms is the same:

```
λέγω το say Aorist ἔλεξα AND εἶπον (a strong aorist) I said
```

This is also the case in the passive voice:

```
τρίβω το oppress Passive aorist ἐτρίβη AND ἐτρίφθη He/she was oppressed
```

2/ Nevertheless, it is more common to find that the two forms of the verb have different meanings. The general rule is that the weak aorist has a *transitive* meaning, while the strong aorist has an *intransitive* meaning. The two main examples of verbs (apart from $\phi \dot{\omega} \omega$, mentioned in [179]) where this applies are:

δύω το sink

```
Weak aorist ἔδυσα I SANK (I SUBMERGED SOMETHING)

Strong aorist ἔδυν I SANK (I WENT UNDER THE SURFACE) ♦ It is a root aorist.
```

- ἔνδεκα μὲν ναῦς τῶν Συρακοσίων κατέδυσαν ΤΗΕΥ SANK ELEVEN SHIPS OF THE SYRACUSANS (Thucydides, Historiae).
 ♦ Weak aorist: transitive.
- τῶν δὲ ᾿Αθηναίων οὐδεμία κατέδυ ναῦς
 → Strong aorist: intransitive.

ἴστημι TO SET

```
Weak aorist ἔστησα I SET, POSITIONED SOMETHING

Strong aorist ἔστην I STOOD ♦ It is a root aorist.
```

- ἀΑλκιβιάδης δὲ τροπαῖόν τε ἔστησε Alcibiades set a trophy (Xenophon, Hellenica). ♦ Weak aorist: transitive.
- ἡσθέντες οὖν ἄμα καὶ φοβηθέντες ἔστημεν Thus, we stood, happy but afraid at the same time (Lucian, Verae Historiae).
 ♦ Strong aorist: intransitive.

Note

This is a $-\mu \tau$ verb (already mentioned in the section on *root aorists*) dealt with in the next chapter.

c) In the case of the perfect

The two forms almost always have different meanings (with the exception of $\delta \acute{\epsilon} \delta \iota \alpha$ and $\delta \acute{\epsilon} \delta \iota \kappa \alpha$, which have been presented above):

```
πράττω ΤΟ DO
```

```
Weak perfect πέπραχα I HAVE DONE ♦ Transitive.

Strong perfect πέπραχα I HAVE FARED ♦ Intransitive. Almost always accompanied by an adverb.
```

- εὖ ἔχει, εἶπεν, εἰ μὴ πάντα κακῶς πεπράχαμεν
 It is well, he said, if we have not done everything wrong
 (Plutarch, *Philopoemen*).
 ♦ Weak perfect: *transitive*.
- οἴμ', ὧ κρανοποί', ὡς ἀθλίως πεπράγαμεν
 Alas, Helmet-Maker, How simple we have been!
 (Aristophanes, Pax).
 ♦ Strong perfect: intransitive.

e) Verbs in -μι: observations and verbs with reduplication

1. General observations [191]

This second conjugation differs from the first one only in present, imperfect and aorist tenses. It is divided into three subvariants:

a/ With reduplication in the present. Four verbs feature in the present tense (and therefore also in the imperfect) a curious reduplication in iota at the beginning of the word:

δίδωμι το give The stem is δοτίθημι το put The stem is θετότημι το set The stem is στατότημι το set The stem is στατότημι το cast The stem is δε-

Special attention should be paid to the fact that the **-o-** and **-\epsilon-** that appear in these verbs at the end of the stem are NOT the same ones that appear, for instance, in $\lambda \acute{\mathbf{v}}$ - \mathbf{o} - $\mu \epsilon \mathbf{v}$, $\lambda \acute{\mathbf{v}}$ - ϵ - $\tau \epsilon$, etc., as in the case of the verbs in **-** $\mu \epsilon$ they actually belong to the stem, not to the ending. Those two vowels in the **-** ω verbs are called *thematic vowels* and this is why the second conjugation, or conjugation in **-** $\mu \epsilon$, is also called the *athematic conjugation* (and the 1st conjugation, or conjugation in **-** ω , is also called *thematic conjugation*).

b/ With suffix -vv- in the present. A group of verbs that feature in the present and in the imperfect a -vv- suffix between the stem and the personal ending (they behave like consonant verbs in the other tenses). For example:

δείκνυμι το show μείγνυμι το mix ῥήγνυμι το break

c/ Without reduplication and suffix. A reduced group of verbs:

εἰμί TO BE
εἶμι TO GO ♦ Observe the difference in accentuation with respect to εἰμί.

φημί TO SAY
δύναμαι TO BE ABLE

κεῖμαι TO LIE (On a surface)

καθῆμαι TO BE SEATED

 \diamond **Note about the presentation:** The tenses that present major differences in comparison with the verbs in $-\omega$ are conjugated in full. In the other tenses, when they follow the regular $-\omega$ model, only the first person is given.

2. Verbs with reduplication in the present

[192]

a) Verb δίδωμι το give

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δίδωμι δίδως δίδωσι(ν) δίδομεν δίδοτε διδόασι(ν)	δίδου διδότω δίδοτε διδόντων	διδῶ διδῷς διδῷ διδῶμεν διδῶτε διδῶσι(ν)	διδοίην διδοίης διδοίη διδοῖμεν διδοῖτε διδοῖεν	διδόναι	διδούς, -όντος διδοῦσα, -ης διδόν, -όντος
Imp.	έδίδουν έδίδους έδίδου έδίδομεν έδίδοτε έδίδοσαν					
Fut.	<mark>δώσω</mark> etc.			δώσοιμι etc.	δώσειν	δώσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ἔδωκα ἔδωκας ἔδωκε(ν) ἔδομεν ἔδοτε ἔδοσαν	δός δότω δότε δόντων	δῶ δῷς δῷ δῶμεν δῶτε δῶσι(ν)	δοίην δοίης δοίη δοῦμεν δοῦτε δοῦεν	δοῦναι	δούς, δόντος δοῦσα, -ης δόν, δόντος
Per.	δέδωκα etc.	δεδωκώς ἴσθι etc.	δεδώκω etc.	δεδώκοιμι etc.	δεδωκέναι	δεδωκώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	έδεδώκειν etc.					

Notes

(these notes can be applied also to the other verbs in $-\mu\iota$)

- 1/ In present and agrist indicative, the singular has a long vowel, while in the plural there is a short one.
- **2/** The endings are different from those of the 1^{st} conjugation, and also the infinitive ending -va.
- **3/** Observe the peculiarity of the aorist, which presents a kappa in the singular (ἴστημι will be an exception to this rule). Do not confuse it with the perfect, which will also feature a kappa.
- 4/ In some moods, the aorist is constructed in the same way as the present, but does not include the reduplication found in the present.
- 5/ Observe the difference between the reduplication in -ι- in the present and imperfect and the reduplication in -ε- in the perfect.

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δίδομαι δίδοσαι δίδοται διδόμεθα δίδοσθε δίδονται	δίδοσο διδόσθω δίδοσθε διδόσθων	διδῶμαι διδῷ διδῶται διδώμεθα διδῶσθε διδῶνται	διδοίμην διδοΐο διδοΐτο διδοίμεθα διδοΐσθε διδοΐντο	δίδοσθαι	διδόμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	έδιδόμην έδίδοσο έδίδοτο έδιδόμεθα έδίδοσθε έδίδοντο					
Fut.	δώσομαι etc.					
Aor.	έδόμην ἔδου ἔδοτο έδόμεθα ἔδοσθε ἔδοντο	δοῦ δόσθω δόσθε δόσθων	δῶμαι δῷ δῶται δώμεθα δῶσθε δῶνται	δοίμην δοῖο δοῖτο δοίμεθα δοῖσθε δοῖντο	δόσθαι	δόμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	δέδομαι etc.	δέδοσο etc.	δεδομένος ὧ etc.	δεδομένος εἴην etc.	δεδόσθαι	δεδομένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έδεδόμην etc.					

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle				
Pre.		same as middle								
Imp.		same as middle								
Fut.	δοθήσομαι etc.			δοθησοίμην etc.	δοθήσεσθαι	δοθησόμενος, -η, -ον				
Aor.	ἐδόθην etc.	δόθητι etc.	δοθ ῶ etc.	δοθείην etc.	δοθῆναι	δοθείς, -εῖσα, -έν				
Per.		same as middle								
Plu.		same as middle								

b) Verb τίθημι το PUT, ΤΟ PLACE

[193]

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	τίθημι τίθης τίθησι(ν) τίθεμεν τίθετε τιθέασι(ν)	τίθει τιθέτω τίθετε τιθέντων	τιθῶ τιθῆς τιθῆ τιθῶμεν τιθῆτε τιθῶσι(ν)	τιθείην τιθείης τιθείη τιθεῖμεν τιθεῖτε τιθεῖεν	τιθέναι	τιθείς, -έντος τιθεῖσα, -ης τιθέν, -έντος
Imp.	έτίθην έτίθεις έτίθει έτίθεμεν έτίθετε έτίθεσαν					
Fut.	θήσω etc.			θήσοιμι etc.	θήσειν	θήσων, -ουσα, -ον
	ἔθηκα ἔθηκα		θῶ	θείην		
Aor.	ἔθηκας ἔθηκε(ν) ἔθεμεν ἔθετε ἔθεσαν	θές θέτω θέτε θέντων	θῆς θῆ θῶμεν θῆτε θῶσι(ν)	θείης θείη θείμεν θείτε θείεν	θεῖναι	θείς, θέντος θεῖσα, -ης θέν, θέντος
Aor. Per.	ἔθηκε(ν) ἔθεμεν ἔθετε	θέτω θέτε	θῆ θῶμεν θῆτε	θείη θεῖμεν θεῖτε	θεῖναι τεθηκέναι	θεῖσα, -ης

Notes

- 1/ Most of the observations written at the end of the section on the active voice of $\delta i\delta\omega\mu\iota$ are also applicable here.
- **2/** Pay particular attention to the curious $-\eta$ in the 1st person of the imperfect.
- **3/** The participle τιθείς, -έντος etc. resembles the passive λυθείς, -έντος etc., but this is just a coincidence: in fact, the -θε- in τιθείς, -θέντος is the -θε- of the stem, not part of any passive suffix. The real passive agrist is τεθείς, -έντος (see further ahead).

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	τίθεμαι τίθεσαι τίθεται τιθέμεθα τίθεσθε τίθενται	τίθεσο τιθέσθω τίθεσθε τιθέσθων	τιθῶμαι τιθῆ τιθῆται τιθώμεθα τιθῆσθε τιθῶνται	τιθείμην τιθεῖο τιθεῖτο τιθείμεθα τιθεῖσθε τιθεῖντο	τίθεσθαι	τιθέμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	έτιθέμην έτίθεσο έτίθετο έτιθέμεθα έτίθεσθε έτίθεντο					
Fut.	θήσομαι etc.			θησοίμην	θήσεσθαι	θησόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	έθέμην ἔθου ἔθετο έθέμεθα ἔθεσθε ἔθεντο	θοῦ θέσθω θέσθε θέσθων	θῶμαι θἢ θῆται θώμεθα θῆσθε θῶνται	θείμην θεΐο θεΐτο θείμεθα θεΐσθε θεΐντο	θέσθαι	θέμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	τέθειμαι etc.	τέθεισο etc.	τεθειμένος ὧ etc.	τεθειμένος εἴην etc.	τεθεῖσθαι	τεθειμένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έτεθείμην etc.					

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle				
Pre.			san	ne as middle						
Imp.		same as middle								
Fut.	τεθήσομαι etc.			τεθησοίμην etc.	τεθήσεσθαι	τεθησόμενος, -η, -ον				
Aor.	ἐτέθην etc.	τέθητι etc.	τεθῶ etc.	τεθείην etc.	τεθῆναι	τεθείς, -η, -ον				
Per.		same as middle								
Plu.		same as middle								

Notes

1/ The similarity between θήσομαι (fut. middle) and $\tau \epsilon \theta$ ήσομαι (fut. passive) has to be explained: the -θησ- in θήσομαι is just the stem $\theta \eta$ + the sigma of future tense, while the -θησ- in $\tau \epsilon \theta$ ήσομαι is the usual characteristic feature of future passive (and the stem $\theta \epsilon$, in this case, has become $\tau \epsilon$, to avoid two consecutive θ , following what is known as *Grassmann's Law*).

2/ The same phenomenon happened in the aorist passive: it should have been $\dot{\epsilon}\theta\dot{\epsilon}\theta\eta\nu$, but, to avoid two consecutive θ , the stem has changed from $\theta\epsilon$ to $\tau\epsilon$.

c) Verb ιστημι το set, το place and its compounds

[194]

This verb belongs to the group of $\tau i\theta \eta \mu \iota$ and $\delta i\delta \omega \mu \iota$, but it presents some difficult characteristics both in conjugation and meaning. Therefore, the presentation will be organised differently.

1/ General observations

To begin with, the reduplication, which is so visible in δίδωμι and τίθημι, is not so easy to identify here. In fact, this verb was originally σίστημι, but the initial reduplicated sigma transformed into a rough breathing. So, the expected reduplication in the present and imperfect is just i- instead of σi -.

Apart from the several meanings that this verb has in its simple form, there are a lot of verbs formed by adding to this verb a prepositional prefix, and some of them occur very frequently,

We will begin with studying the basic form of this verb, without any kind of prefix.

2/ Transitive meaning: TO PLACE, TO MAKE STAND, TO SET

[195]

The forms that convey this meaning are the *active* ones:

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	ἴστημι ἴστης ἴστησι(ν) ἴσταμεν ἴστατε ἴστασι(ν)	ἴστη ἱστάτω ἴστατε ἱστάντων	ίστῶ ἱστῆς ἱστῆ ἱστῶμεν ἱστῆτε ἱστῶστ(ν)	ίσταίην ίσταίης ίσταίη ίσταῖμεν ίσταῖτε ίσταῖεν	ίστάναι	ὶστᾶς, -άντος ἱστᾶσα, -ης ἱστάν, -άντος
Imp.	ἴστην ἴστης ἴστη ἴσταμεν ἴστατε ἵστασαν					
Fut.	στήσω etc.			στήσοιμι etc.	στήσειν	στήσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor. (weak)	ἔστησα etc.	στῆσον etc.	στήσω etc.	στήσαιμι etc.	στῆσαι	στήσας, -σαντος στήσασα, -ης στήσαν, -αντος

Note

There is no perfect tense with transitive meaning.

- ὁ πατὴρ τὸν μικρὸν παῖδα ἐπὶ τὴν τράπεζαν ἔστησεν The father placed the little child on the table.
 - \diamond The meaning is very similar to $\pi i\theta \eta \mu \nu$, and sometimes either of them can be used.

3/ Transitive meaning: TO PLACE FOR ONESELF, TO MAKE TO STAND FOR ONESELF (unusual)

While the basic meaning is the same presented before, in this case there is an additional sense of involvement of the action with the benefit of the subject (I PLACE THIS HERE FOR ME, FOR MY OWN BENEFIT): this is one of the functions performed by the middle voice. Its conjugation, therefore, will be in the *middle voice*, as follows:

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	ἴσταμαι ἴστασαι ἴσταται ἰστάμεθα ἴστασθε ἴστανται	ϊστασο ἱστάσθω ἵστασθε ἱστάσθων	ίστῶμαι ίστῆ ίστῆται ίστώμεθα ίστῆσθε ίστῶνται	ίσταίμην ίσταῖο ίσταῖτο ίσταίμεθα ίσταῖσθε ίσταῖντο	ίστάσθαι	ίστάμενος, -η, -ον
Ітр.	ίστάμην ἴστασο ἴστατο ἴσταμεθα ἴστασθε ἴσταντο					
Fut.	στήσομαι etc.			στησοίμην etc.	στήσεσθαι	στησόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor. (weak)	έστησάμην etc.	στῆσαι etc.	στήσωμαι etc.	στησαίμην etc.	στήσασθαι	στησάμενος, -η, -ον

[•] τὰς βίβλους δεῦρο στήσομαι Ι WILL PLACE THE BOOKS HERE.

[♦] I WILL PLACE THEM HERE FOR MYSELF, NOT FOR ANYBODY ELSE: *middle voice*.

4/ Intransitive meaning: TO STAND (very important: it is the most frequent use of this verb)

[196]

The forms used to convey this meaning are the middle ones, identical to those ones seen in the former point 3/, with these exceptions: the aorist and the addition of a perfect and a pluperfect (perfect and pluperfect do not exist for the transitive meaning).

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Aor. (strong)	ἔστην ἔστης ἔστη ἔστημεν ἔστητε ἔστησαν	στῆθι στήτω στῆτε στάντων	στῶ στῆς στῆ στῶμεν στῆτε στῶσι(ν)	σταίην σταίης σταίη σταίμεν σταίτε σταΐεν	στῆναι	στάς, στάντος στᾶσα, -ης στάν, στάντος
Per.	έστηκα έστηκας έστηκε έσταμεν έστατε έστᾶσι(ν)	ἔσταθι ἐστάτω ἔστατε ἐστάντων	έστῶ έστῆς έστῆ έστῶμεν έστῆτε έστῶσι(ν)	έσταίην έσταίης έσταίη έσταῖμεν έσταῖτε έσταῖεν	έστηκέναι or έστάναι	έστηκώς, -οῖα, -ός or έστώς, -ῶσα, -ός
Plu.	είστήκειν etc.					

Notes

- 1/ The perfect tense presents several forms without kappa (2nd or strong perfect), as in the indicative plural. There are also a subjunctive ἐστήκω, ἐστήκω, ἐστήκως etc. and an optative ἐστήκοιμ, ἐστήκοις etc. with kappa (1st or weak perfect), but hardly used in Attic. Infinitive and participle have also double forms, as indicated in the boxes above.
- **2/** The perfect ἔστηκα has almost always the present meaning I AM STANDING (because I HAVE STOOD UP), and on it has been formed a future perfect ἐστήξω I WILL STAND.
- **3/** The aorist, perfect and pluperfect are ACTIVE in form, while the present, imperfect and future are middle. And as there are no perfect or pluperfect forms for the transitive meaning, there is no possible confusion: perfect and pluperfect are ALWAYS intransitive, although they are active in voice.
- 4/ Usually the aorist presents more problems: as can be seen, it is a root aorist, like ἔβην, ἔβης, ἔβης etc. It must be clear that both aorists, the transitive one ἔστησα and the intransitive one ἔστην, are active. It is common, when translating into Greek, to think mistakenly that the intransitive aorist must be middle, as happens in the present, imperfect and future. In addition, keep in mind that the βrd person plural, both in transitive and intransitive aorist, is identical.

• ὁ δῆμος τοῦτο τὸ ἄγαλμα ἐν τῆ ἀγορᾶ ἔστησεν

THE PEOPLE PLACED THIS STATUE IN THE AGORA.

♦ Strong aorist: *transitive*.

• ὁ δῆμος ἔστη, πρὸς τὴν ἄμιλλαν βλέπων

THE PEOPLE STOOD, WATCHING THE DISPUTE.

♦ Weak aorist: intransitive.

 πανταχοθεν τε περιειστήκει ύποψια ές τον `Αλκιβιαδην (Thucydides, Historiae).
 Pluperfect: intransitive.

5/ Passive meaning: TO BE PLACED, TO BE SET, TO BE MADE TO STAND (very unusual)

[197]

This form simply presents the basic meaning, but in passive sense, and logically the passive voice will be employed. As passive and middle forms differ only in future and aorist, we include here only these two tenses:

_		Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
	Fut.	σταθήσομαι etc.			σταθησοίμην etc.	σταθήσεσθαι	σταθησόμενος, -η, -ον
	Aor.	έστάθην etc.	στάθητι etc.	$σταθ\tilde{ω}$ etc.	σταθείην etc.	σταθῆναι	σταθείς, -θεῖσα, -θέν

Note

It is worth noting that that there is no perfect passive form (and, therefore, no pluperfect): if there is no perfect in the transitive meaning, there can not be one in the passive meaning.

• τοῦτο τὸ ἄγαλμα χθὲς ἐν τῆ ἀγορᾶ ἐστάθη This statue was placed in the agora yesterday.

6/ Compound forms [198]

This verb is almost always found in compound forms, with the addition of a prefix. The following list presents these common compound forms, ordered from high to low frequency, with examples of each use:

καθίστημι

a/ Transitive meaning: TO SET DOWN, TO PLACE, TO APPOINT, TO PUT IN A CERTAIN SITUATION

• τὸν Περικλέα στρατηγὸν **κατέστησαν** They appointed Pericles as general.

• ὁ ἐμὸς ἐχθρὸς εἰς πενίαν με **καταστῆσαι** πειρᾶ ${\sf M}$ Υ ENEMY TRIES TO MAKE ME FALL INTO POVERTY.

b/ Intransitive meaning: TO SETTLE, TO BECOME (TO BE APPOINTED), TO OPPOSE, TO FALL INTO A CERTAIN SITUATION

• ὁ Περικλῆς στρατηγὸς κατέστη Pericles was appointed as general.

• τούτου γενομένου, εἰς ἀπορίαν κατέστην ${\sf After}$ This had happened, I fell into perplexity.

• οὖτοι οἱ εἴκοσι ἄνθρωποι ἐν νῷ ἔχουσιν ἐν ἐκείνῃ τῇ νήσῳ καταστῆναι Τhese twenty men have in mind to settle on that island.

🗖 ἀνίστημι

a/ Transitive meaning: TO RAISE UP, TO ERECT, TO WAKE UP

• ἐν τῇ μαχή νικήσαντες, οἱ πολῖται ἱερὸν τοῖς θεοῖς ἀνίστασιν After winning a battle, the citizens erect a temple to the gods.

b/ Intransitive meaning: TO STAND UP, TO RISE

• ὀψὲ ἦν, ἐγὼ δ᾽ ἀνέστην IT WAS LATE, AND I STOOD UP.

• ὁ παῖς, ψόφον ἀκούσας, ἐξαίφνης ἀνέστη ΤΗΕ CHILD, AFTER HEARING A NOISE, SUDDENLY WOKE UP.

c/ In the middle voice, ἀνίσταμαι, it may mean to EMIGRATE.

🗖 ἐφίστημι

- **a/** Transitive meaning: TO PLACE / PUT IN COMMAND OF (+ Dat.)
 - ἐφίστημί σε τῆ στρατιᾳ I PUT YOU IN COMMAND OF THE ARMY.
- **b/** Intransitive meaning: TO BE PLACED / BE PUT IN COMMAND OF (+ Dat.), TO TURN UP
 - τῆ στρατιᾳ ἐπέστην I was put in command of the army.
 - ὁ διδάσκαλος ἀπροσδοκήτως ἐπέστη The teacher turned up unexpectedly.

□ ἀνθίστημι [199]

- **a/** Transitive meaning: TO PLACE / PUT IN FRONT OF (+ Dat.)
 - ὁ στρατηγὸς τὸ στράτευμα τοῖς πολεμίοις ἀντέστησεν The general placed the army in front of the enemy.
- **b/** Intransitive meaning: TO RESIST (+ Dat.)
 - τοῖς πολεμίοις ἀντέστημεν We resisted the enemy.
- 🗖 ἀφίστημι
- a/ Transitive meaning: TO REMOVE, TO MAKE SOMEONE REVOLT
 - χρήματα δόντες, οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι τοὺς νησιώτας ἐπὶ τοὺς Κορινθίους ἀποστήσουσιν: ἔπειτα δὲ αὐτοὺς πρὸς ἄλλην τινὰ νῆσον ἀποστῆσαι πειράσονται Giving them money, the Athenians will make the islanders revolt against the Corinthians; later, they will try to make them revolt against some other island.
- **b/** Intransitive meaning: TO STAND AWAY, TO REVOLT
 - ἐν ἐκείνῳ τῷ χρόνῳ τοῦ μάχεσθαι ἀπέστην In that time I stayed away from fighting.
 - οἱ Μιλήσιοι ἀπὸ τῶν Περσῶν ἀπέστησαν The Milesians revolted against (from) the Persians.
- συνίστημι
- a/ Transitive meaning: TO SET TOGETHER
 - οἱ θεοὶ ὕδωρ τε καὶ γῆν συστήσαντες τοὺς ἀνθρώπους ἐποίησαν ΤΗΕ GODS CREATED THE MEN BY MIXING TOGETHER WATER AND EARTH.
- **b/** Intransitive meaning: TO STAND TOGETHER, TO BE CONNECTED
 - οἴ τε ᾿Αθηναῖοι καὶ οἱ Λακεδαιμονῖοι συστάντες ἐπὶ τοὺς Πέρσας ἐμαχέσαντο ΤΗΕ ΑΤΗΕΝΙΑΝS AND THE SPARTANS, STANDING TOGETHER, FOUGHT AGAINST THE PERSIANS.

🗖 ἐπίσταμαι

Only in middle voice and only transitive meaning: TO KNOW

The present and the future tenses present regular conjugations, while the aorist is deponent passive and moreover presents the augment before the preposition rather than in between preposition and main stem: $\eta \pi \iota \sigma \tau \eta \theta \eta v$.

• οὐ σὺ λέγεις ὡς ἐγὼ οὐδὲν ἐπίσταμαι περὶ τῶν δικαίων καὶ ἀδίκων; Are you not saying that I know nothing about justice and injustice? (Plato, *Phaedrus*).

d) Verb ιημι το CAST, το SEND and its compounds

[200]

Some forms of $\mathring{\imath}\eta\mu\iota$ can be easily confused with forms of $\mathring{\imath}\sigma\tau\eta\mu\iota$, $\varepsilon\mathring{\iota}\mu\acute{\iota}$ and $\varepsilon\mathring{\iota}\mu\iota$. The stem is $\dot{\varepsilon}$ -, on which its several tenses are formed, but it has gone through some alterations, which changed substantially its appearance.

1/ The verb on its own

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	ἴημι ἴης ἴησι(ν) ἴεμεν ἴετε ἰᾶσι(ν)	ἴει ἱέτω ἵετε ἱέντων	ίῶ ἱῆς ἰῆ ἱῶμεν ἱῆτε ἱῶσι(ν)	iείην iείης iείη iεῖμεν iεῖτε iεῖεν	ίέναι	ίείς, ἱέντος ἱεῖσα, -ης ἱέν, ἱέντος
Ітр.	ἵην ἴεις ἴει ἵεμεν ἵετε ἵεσαν					
Fut.	<mark>ηဳσω</mark> etc.			ἥσοιμι etc.	ἥσειν	ἥσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ήκα ήκας ήκε(ν) είμεν είτε είσαν	Ĕς Ĕτω Ĕτε Ĕντων	ος ης ης ης ης ητε οσι(ν)	εἵην etc.	είναι	είς, έντος είσα, είσης έν, έντος
Per.	είκα etc.				είκέναι	είκώς, -υῖα, -ός
Plu.	εἴκειν etc.					

Notes

- 1/ Observe the infinitives: $i \dot{\epsilon} v \alpha \iota \neq i \dot{\epsilon} v \alpha \iota$ of $\dot{\epsilon} i \mu \iota$, and $\dot{\epsilon} i v \alpha \iota \neq \dot{\epsilon} i v \alpha \iota$ of $\dot{\epsilon} i \mu \iota$.
- **2/** Do not confuse the aorist $\tilde{\eta}\kappa\alpha$ with the perfect of $\tilde{\eta}\kappa\omega$ TO HAVE ARRIVED, as they have a similar form.

Middle voice (quite predictable, except for the future and aorist)

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	ἴεμαι ἴεσαι ἵεται ἱέμεθα ἵεσθε ἵενται	ἴεσο ἱέσθω ἵεσθε ἱέσθων	ίῶμαι etc.	iείμην etc.	ἵεσθαι	ίέμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	ιέμην ἴεσο ἵετο etc.					
Fut.	ἥσομαι etc.			ήσοίμην etc.	ἥσεσθαι	ήσόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	εϊμην είσο είτο εϊμεθα είσθε είντο	οὖ ἔσθω ἔσθε ἔσθων	ỗμαι ῗ etc.	εἴμην εἶο εἶτο etc.	ἕσθαι	ἕμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	εἷμαι etc.				εἷσθαι	εἰμένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	εἵμην etc.					

Note

Again note the infinitives: $\eta \sigma \varepsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota \neq \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ of $\varepsilon \iota \mu \iota$, and $\varepsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ a orist $\neq \varepsilon \iota \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ perfect.

Passive voice (as expected, it will differ from the middle one only in the future and aorist)

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Fut.	έθήσομαι έθήσει etc.			έθησοίμην έθήσοιο etc.	έθήσεσθαι	έθησόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	ε ϊ θην ε ἴ θης etc.	ἕθητι etc.	ຂໍθ ∞ ຂໍ ປ ຶຖς etc.	έθείην έθείης etc.	έθῆναι	έθείς, έθέντος έθεῖσα, -ης έθέν, έθέντος

2/ Compound forms

Th	is verb is hardly ever used on its own, but its compounds are very frequent; the most common ones are:	[201]
	ἀφίημι ΤΟ LET GO, TO ALLOW	
	 ἄφες μ' ἐς οἴκους Let me go home (Sophocles, Oedipus Tyrannus). 	
	μεθίημι το drop, το let go, το loose	
	 μεθῆκα τόξα I have loosed my arrows (Euripides, lon). 	
	παρίημι ΤΟ PASS, ΤΟ LET PASS	
	• εἰ δέ τῳ ἄλλως δοκεῖ, παρίημι αὐτῷ τὴν ἀρχήν	
	έφίεμαι το desire + Gen.	
	• οὐ δήπου, ὧ Εὐθύδημε, ταύτης τῆς ἀρητῆς ἐφίεσαι, δι' ἣν ἄνθρωποι πολιτικοὶ γίγνονται Νο doubt, o Euthydemos, you covet this excellence through which men become good statesmen (Xenophon, Memorabilia).	
	προΐεμαι το Betray, το Abandon	
	 ὁ δὲ Βροῦτος ἀπεῖπε καὶ προεῖτο τὰς ἐλπίδας But Brutus gave up and abandoned his hopes (Plutarch, Comparatio Dionis et Bruti). 	
	συνίημι TO UNDERSTAND	
	• οὐχὶ ξυνῆκας πρόσθεν; Did you not understand it previously? (Sophocles, <i>Oedipus Tyrannus</i>).	

These are just the basic meanings of these compounds; each one of them may have many different additional meanings. For instance, $\pi \rho o i \epsilon \mu a \iota$ may also mean to LET GO, TO GIVE UP:

• εἰ γὰρ ᾿Αμφίπολιν καὶ Ποτείδαιαν προεῖτο, οὐδ᾽ ἂν ἐν Μακεδονίᾳ μένειν ἀσφαλῶς ἐδύνατο If he had given up Amphipolis and Potidaea, not even in Macedonia would he be able to remain safe (Demosthenes, *Philippic 4*).

Note also that, except $\dot{\epsilon}\phi\dot{\epsilon}\mu\alpha\iota$ and $\pi\rho\sigma\dot{\epsilon}\mu\alpha\iota$, all the other verbs may have, among other meanings, a sense slightly related to the general concept of "LETTING GO".

f) Verbs in - $\mu\iota$: verbs with suffix - $\nu\upsilon$ - and stem verbs

1. Verbs with suffix -vv- in the present

[202]

We offer the conjugation of the verb δείκνυμι το show, as a model:

Active voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δείκνυμι δείκνυς δείκνυσι(ν) δείκνυμεν δείκνυτε δεικνύασι(ν)	δείκνυ δεικνύτω δείκνυτε δεικνύντων	δεικνύω δεικνύης etc.	δεικνύοιμι δεικνύοις etc.	δεικνύναι	δεικνύς, -ύντος δεικνῦσα, -ης δεικνύν, -ύντος
Imp.	έδείκνον έδείκνος έδείκνο έδείκνομεν έδείκνοτε έδείκνοσαν					
Fut.	δείξω etc.			δείξοιμι etc.	δείξειν	δείξων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ἔδειξα etc.	δεῖξον etc.	δείξω etc.	δείξαιμι etc.	δεῖξαι	δείξας, -ασα, -αν
Per.	δέδειχα etc.	δεδειχὼς ἴσθι etc.	δεδείχω etc.	δεδείχοιμι etc.	δεδειχέναι	δεδειχώς, -ότος δεδειχυῖα, -ας δεδειχός, -ότος
Plu.	έδεδείχειν etc.					

Middle voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δείκνυμαι δείκνυσαι δείκνυται δεικνύμεθα δείκνυσθε δείκνυνται	δείκνυσο δεικνύσθω δείκνυσθε δεικνύσθων	δεικνύωμαι δεικνύη etc.	δεικνυοίμην δεικνύοιο etc.	δείκνυσθαι	δεικνύμενος, -η, -ον

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Ітр.	έδεικνύμην έδείκνυσο έδείκνυτο έδεικνύμεθα έδείκνυσθε έδείκνυντο					
Fut.	δείξομαι etc.			δειξοίμην etc.	δείξεσθαι	δειξόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	έδειξάμην etc.	δεῖξαι etc.	δείξωμαι etc.	δειξαίμην etc.	δείξασθαι	δειξάμενος, -η, -ον
Per.	δέδειγμαι etc. (see note)	δέδειξο etc.	δεδειγμένος ὧ etc.	δεδειγμένος εἴην etc.	δεδεῖχθαι	δεδειγμένος, -η, -ον
Plu.	έδεδείγμην etc.					

Note

The perfect and pluperfect middle/passive use endings with a variety of initial consonants ($-\mu\alpha$, $-\sigma\alpha$, $-\tau\alpha$, etc.), and the final result will be the same as for the consonant verbs ending in a guttural.

Passive voice

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle		
Pre.			san	ne as middle				
Ітр.			san	ne as middle				
Fut.	δειχθήσομαι etc.			δειχθησοίμην etc.	δειχθήσεσθαι	δειθησόμενος, -η, -ον		
Aor.	έδείχθην etc.	δείχθητι etc.	δειχθῶ etc.	δειχθείην etc.	δειχθῆναι	δειχθείς, -θεῖσα, -θέν		
Per.		same as middle						
Plu.			san	ne as middle				

Other frequent verbs of this kind

[203]

ζεύγνυμι ΤΟ ΥΟΚΕ **μείγνυμι** ΤΟ ΜΙΧ

ὄλλυμι $\,$ To DESTROY $\,$ $\,$ $\,$ This verb has some special characteristics, both in forms and in meanings. Cf. the

following chapter.

ὄμνυμι TO SWEAR ἡήγνυμι TO BREAK

Most of these verbs have irregularities in their forms, which can be checked in the next chapter.

2. Stem verbs: without reduplication and suffix

[204]

a) The verb εἰμί το BE

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	εἰμί εἶ ἐστί(ν) ἐσμέν ἐστέ εἰσί(ν)	ἴσθι ἔστω ἔστε ὄντων - ἔστων	ỗ Ñς Ñ ἦμεν ἦτε ὧσι(ν)	είην είης είη είμεν - είημεν είτε - είητε είεν - είησαν	εἶναι	ἄν, ὄντος οὖσα, -ης ὄν, ὄντος
Imp.	η - ην ησθα ην ημεν ητε ησαν					
Fut.	έσομαι έσει - έση έσται έσόμεθα έσεσθε έσονται			έσοίμην ἔσοιο ἔσοιτο ἐσοίμεθα ἔσοισθε ἔσοιντο	ἔσεσθαι	

Notes

1/ This verb has no agrist; if the agrist tense is needed, we would use the agrist of γ i γ v ω μ α ι .

2/ Observe that one of the two possible forms for the 3rd person plural imperative is identical to the genitive plural of the participle.

3/ The accentuation of the 3rd singular: although it is an enclitic, sometimes we can find ἔστι, when it is the first word of the sentence, when it means THERE IS, EXISTS, and also when it stands for ἔξεστι IT IS POSSIBLE. Also in these cases: ἀλλ' ἔστι, ταῦτ' ἔστι, τοῦτ' ἔστι, τοῦτ' ἔστι, οὐκ ἔστι and εἰ ἔστι.

Compounds of εἰμί

There are several verbs formed adding to $\epsilon i \mu i$ a prepositional prefix. The most important ones are:

[205]

 Ψ πάρειμι το be present in + Dat.

 Ψ ἔνειμι TO BE IN \diamondsuit Sometimes instead of πάρεστι we can find πάρα, but observe the difference of accent with the preposition alone παρά.

 $\sqrt{\alpha}$ πειμι TO BE ABSENT FROM + Gen.

 $\sqrt{\pi}$ ερίειμι το survive, το be superior το + Gen.

 Ψ πρόσειμι το BE SIDE BY SIDE BY + Dat.

 Ψ σύνειμι то ве with + Dat.

- Ψ μέτεστι (impersonal) το τακε part / have a share in + Gen. (subject in Dat.)
 - τῷ πατρὶ μέτεστι τοῦ κέρδους The father has a share in the benefits.

Observe in these present tenses the curious position of the accent on the preposition rather than on the verb; this happens only in the present indicative (cf: $\pi\alpha\rho\tilde{\eta}\nu$, $\pi\epsilon\rho\iota\tilde{\eta}\nu$, $\pi\alpha\rho\acute{\epsilon}\nu\alpha\iota$, etc.).

b) The verb εἶμι το σο

[206]

This verb only has present and imperfect tenses:

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	εἴμι εἴ εἶσι(ν) ἴμεν ἴτε ἴασι(ν)	ἴθι ἴτω ἴτε ἰόντων	ἴω ἴης ἴη ἴωμεν ἴητε ἴωσι(ν)	ἴοιμι ἴοις ἴοι ἴοιμεν ἴοιτε ἴοιεν	ἰέναι	ἰών, ἰόντος ἰοῦσα, -ης ἰόν, ἰόντος

| ἦα - ἤειν | ἤεισθα - ἤεις | ἤει - ἤειν | ἦμεν - ἤειμεν | ἦτε - ἤειτε | ἦσαν - ἤεσαν

Notes

- **a/** As can be seen, its forms are very similar to the verb $\varepsilon i \mu i$. For instance, the subjunctive and the participle are the same except for the addition of an initial iota.
- **b/** Observe the optional forms for the imperfect. Moreover, both options feature an iota subscript, inexistent in the imperfect of $\varepsilon i u i$ TO BE.
- 1/ This verb presents some interesting uses: the present indicative has a future meaning, often substituting the future tense of ἔρχομαι το GO (which in any case has its own future, ἐλεύσομαι, but rarely used). So:
 - ἔρχομαι πρὸς τὴν Σπάρτην
 Εἶμι πρὸς τὴν Σπάρτην
 Ι WILL GO TO SPARTA.

The other moods may have either present or future meaning.

2/ The verb ἔρχομαι has its own infinitive (ἔρχεσθαι) and participle (ἐρχόμενος, etc.), but it is very common to use the corresponding forms of εἶμι instead:

Rather than saying
 ὁ Σωκράτης, οἴκαδε ἐρχόμενος, ...
 SOCRATES, WHILE GOING HOME, ...
 we will say
 ὁ Σωκράτης, οἴκαδε ἰών, ...
 (same meaning)

3/ Compound verbs can be formed with the same prefixes as the verb ἔρχομαι, conveying the same meanings: ἄπειμι = ἀπέρχομαι το GO AWAY, ἔξειμι = ἐξέρχομαι το GO OUT, etc. (apart from the future meaning of the present indicative).

c) Verb φημί [207]

This verb, which means to say, has an irregular (and incomplete) conjugation, which goes as follows:

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	φημί φής - φής φησί(ν) φαμέν φατέ φασί(ν)	φάθι φάτω φάτε φάντων	φῶ etc.	φαίην etc.	φάναι	φάς, φάντος φᾶσα, φάσης φάν, φάντος
Imp.	ἔφην ἔφης ἔφη ἔφαμεν ἔφατε ἔφασαν					
Fut.	φήσω etc.			φήσοιμι etc.	φήσειν	φήσων, -ουσα, -ον
Aor.	ἔ φησα etc.		φήσω φήσης etc.	φήσαιμι etc.	φῆσαι	φήσας, -ασα, -αν

Notes

- **a/** The agrist $\xi \phi \eta \sigma \alpha$ is almost never used, while in fact the imperfect $\xi \phi \eta \nu$ is employed with an agrist meaning.
- **b/** The present participle form $\phi \acute{\alpha}\varsigma$, $\phi \acute{\alpha} v \tau o \varsigma$ is extremely rare, and it is usually replaced by $\phi \acute{\alpha} \sigma \kappa \omega v$, $-ov \tau o \varsigma$, borrowed from the verb $\phi \acute{\alpha} \sigma \kappa \omega$.
- 1/ This verb must always be followed by an accusative + infinitive construction, NEVER by one:
 - φημὶ τὰς γυναῖκας νῦν ἐν τῆ ἀκροπόλει εἶναι Ι say that the women are now in the Acropolis.
 - ♦ φημὶ ὅτι αἱ γυναῖκες... would be wrong.
- **2/** When used in a negative sense, the way of saying I say THAT... NOT... is \vec{ov} $\phi\eta\mu\dot{\iota}$, in the sense of I DENY (cf. Latin *nego*):
 - οὐ φημὶ τὸν πατέρα τοῦτο ποιεῖν I say that my father does not do this.
 - ♦ It DOES NOT mean I do not say that my father does this.
- **3/** Moreover, the verb is very frequently inserted in the middle of a quotation in direct speech:
 - "διὰ τί οὐ περὶ τῆς ψυχῆς", ἔφη, "τοῖς μαθηταῖς διαλεγόμεθα, ὧ Σώκρατες;" "Why don't we talk with the students about the soul, Socrates?", he said.

d) Verb δύναμαι [208]

This verb, which means TO BE ABLE TO, has no active voice and is deponent; moreover, the grammatical voice of the aorist tense is passive (but with an active meaning). The other tenses follow the parameters of ἴσταμαι (without reduplication), although the perfect forms are hardly ever used:

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	δύναμαι δύνασαι δύναται δυνάμεθα δύνασθε δύνανται	δύνασο δυνάσθω δύνασθε δυνάσθων	δύνωμαι δύνη δύνηται δυνώμεθα δύνησθε δύνωνται	δυναίμην etc.	δύνασθαι	δυνάμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	έδυνάμην έδύνασο έδύνατο έδυνάμεθα έδύνασθε έδύναντο					
Fut.	δυνήσομαι etc.			δυνησοίμην etc.	δυνήσεσθαι	δυνησόμενος, -η, -ον
Aor.	έδυνήθην etc.	δυνήθητι etc.	δυνηθῶ etc.	δυνηθείην etc.	δυνηθῆναι (unfrequent)	δυνηθείς, -θεῖσα, -θέν
Per.	δεδύνημαι etc.	unused	unused	unused	unused	δεδυνημένος, -η, -ον

e) Verb κεῖμαι [209]

This verb is deponent as well, it means TO LIE (on a surface), and it has only three tenses; it follows, like $\delta \acute{v} \nu \mu \alpha$, the structure of $\acute{v} \tau \nu \mu \alpha$, but many of its forms are not found in classical authors. For instance, the subjunctive forms are not used, except the 3^{rd} singular, but for the sake of uniformity they are included in the chart underneath.

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	κεῖμαι κεῖσαι κεῖται κείμεθα κεῖσθε κεῖνται	κεΐσο κείσθω κεΐσθε κεΐσθων	κέωμαι κέη κέηται κεώμεθα κέησθε κέωνται	κεοίμην etc.	κεῖσθαι	κείμενος, -η, -ον

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Imp.	έκείμην ἔκεισο ἔκειτο ἐκείμεθα ἔκεισθε ἔκειντο					
Fut.	κείσομαι etc.			κείσοιμι etc.	κείσεσθαι	κεισόμενος, -η, -ον

Note

This verb is often used as the passive perfect tense of $\tau i\theta\eta\mu\iota$: something that has been placed is something that is lying there.

f) Verb κάθημαι [210]

This verb, which means TO BE SEATED, is also deponent and presents only present and imperfect tense; it follows the same parameters as **κεῖμαι** above, but it is worth noting that the future forms were mainly used in late texts (e.g., the New Testament):

	Indicative	Imperative	Subjunctive	Optative	Infinitive	Participle
Pre.	κάθημαι κάθησαι κάθηται καθήμεθα κάθησθε κάθηνται	κάθησο καθήσθω κάθησθε καθήσθων	καθῶμαι καθῆ καθῆται καθώμεθα καθῆσθε καθῶνται	καθοίμην etc.	καθῆσθαι	καθήμενος, -η, -ον
Imp.	έκαθήμην εκάθησο έκάθητο έκαθήμεθα έκάθησθε έκάθηντο					
Fut.	καθήσομαι etc.			καθησοίμην etc.	καθήσεσθαι	καθησόμενος, -η, -ον

Note

Do not confuse it with κ αθίζομαι TO SIT DOWN: κ άθημαι means TO BE SEATED, a state, not the process of moving from standing to sitting down (κ αθίζομαι).

g) Overview of irregularities and peculiar constructions

1. Previous notes [211]

a) The irregularities as a whole

We now know the following: some verbs have a strong aorist (example: εἶδον), some have a future in the middle voice (example: ἀκούσομαι), some have an aorist that is passive in form but active in meaning (example: ἐβουλήθην), some have a passive aorist without -θ- (example: ἐκόπην), some have a root aorist (example: ἔγνων), some are in fact a perfect but have a present meaning (example: οἶδα), etc. It is clear that it is impossible to group verbs according to their formation of different tenses, since some will be irregular in one tense, some in two, some in three. Moreover, the irregularities which occur also vary. Therefore, there is a difficulty in classifying Greek verbs into separate groups, primarily because many verbs would share characteristics of multiple groups according to the different tenses. For example, we have seen that some verbs are liquid with a strong aorist, yet others have a strong aorist but are not considered to be 'liquid'.

Nevertheless, we could not offer the principal irregular parts of the main verbs without first explaining the main irregularities, as we have done in the former sections. Now if, for example, we see " $\dot{o}p\acute{a}\omega$ to see: fut. $\ddot{o}\psi o\mu \alpha t$, aor. $\dot{e}t\ddot{o}ov$ ", we will not only know that this is an irregular verb but we will be able to understand the irregularities: it has a deponent future, and it has a strong aorist (and the stem is modified in both cases).

So, many Greek verbs (in fact, almost all of the most frequently used verbs) present some kind of irregularity; the irregularities are of so many different kinds that the best solution is to know the irregular principal parts of the most important verbs (as for instance a foreigner must learn *break/broke/broken*, *eat/ate/eaten*, etc. in English).

Therefore, the only way to master Greek verbs is to know the main parts of each verb for their tenses that are not conjugated regularly.

Although it is evident that the most important tense in Greek is the aorist, more parts must be learnt; dictionaries and grammars vary according to which principal parts are given. In this grammar, we will offer the following parts (where applicable):

- Aorist passive
- Perfect middle-passive

Not all of the verbs will have these six forms: for instance, some verbs lack a passive aorist (example: $\check{\epsilon}\chi\omega$ TO HAVE), while others only have an aorist in the passive voice, but which is active in meaning (example: $\delta\acute{\nu}\nu\alpha\mu\alpha$ TO BE ABLE).

Note that a lot of the forms presented below have already been presented in their corresponding sections of the former chapters.

b) The peculiar constructions

Apart from the irregularities in their conjugation, verbs may present some peculiarities in the way they are used. For instance, $\chi \rho \acute{\alpha} \rho \mu \alpha \iota$ to use rules a dative, $\beta \lambda \acute{\epsilon} \pi \omega$ to look is rarely used without the preposition $\pi \rho \acute{\alpha} \varsigma$, etc.

2. List of verbs: forms and peculiar constructions [212] Present Future Aorist act. Perfect act. Perfect m./p. Aorist pass. ἀγγέλλω ἀγγελῶ **ἤγγειλα** ήγγέλθην ήγγελκα ἤγγελμαι TO ANNOUNCE *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. ἄξω ἔαξα έάγην ἔαγα ἄγνυμι TO BREAK ♦ Almost always found in the compound κατάγνυμι. *Irregularities*: \diamondsuit Aorist passive without θ . \diamond Perfect without κ . ἦχα ἦγμαι ἄγω ἄξω **ἤγαγον** ήχθην TO LEAD ♦ Strong aorist with reduplication. *Irregularities* : ♦ The perfect active is usually found with a prepositional prefix. αἰδέομαι αίδέσομαι ήδεσάμην ήδέσθην **ἤδεσμαι** TO FEEL SHAME, TO REVERE *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe how the epsilon does not lengthen in future and aorist. αίρέω αίρήσω είλον ἡρέθην ἥρηκα ἥρημαι TO TAKE ♦ Strong active agrist. The epsilon does not lengthen in the passive agrist. *Irregularities*: \diamond Aorist participle: $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\dot{\omega}v$ after removal of augment. Construction: In the middle voice, it means to choose (= to take for oneself). In its compound ἀφαιρέομαι το DEPRIVE OF (usually in the middle voice), both the person deprived of something and the thing are in accusative:

• ὁ διδάσκαλος ἀφαιρεῖται τοὺς μαθητὰς τὰς βίβλους The teacher deprives the students of the books.

αἴρω ἀρῶ ἦρα **ἤρθην** ἦρκα ἦρμαι TO RAISE ♦ Liquid future and aorist. *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe that the iota of the present disappears in the other tenses. αἰσθάνομαι αἰσθήσομαι ἠσθόμην ἤσθημαι TO PERCEIVE, TO REALISE ♦ Deponent verb. *Irregularities*: ♦ Strong aorist. Construction: \diamond As with the verb $\dot{\alpha}\kappa\circ\dot{\omega}$, the object may be in *genitive* if considered a source: • αἰσθάμοναι τοῦ ἀνθρώπου τοῦτο λεγόντος I perceive that the man is saying this. ἀκούω ἀκούσομαι ἦκουσα ήκούσθην ἀκήκοα TO HEAR *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future, and observe the Attic reduplication in the perfect. Construction: \diamond It takes an *accusative* if it means to HEAR, but a *genitive* if it means to LISTEN TO; we can even find both possibilities combined (and in this case the preposition $\pi\alpha\rho\dot{\alpha}$ can be used with the genitive): • ἀκούω (παρὰ) τοῦ Περικλέους τὸν λόγον Ι HEAR PERICLES' SPEECH. άλίσκομαι άλώσομαι έάλων έάλωκα TO BE CAPTURED ♦ Passive meaning for all of the tenses. *Irregularities*: ♦ The agrist is conjugated as a root agrist. ♦ An alternative perfect is ἤλωκα. άλλάττω άλλάξω ήλλαξα ήλλάγην ἤλλαχα **ἤλλαγμαι** TO CHANGE *Irregularities*: \diamond Passive agrist without θ , and perfect without κ . άμαρτάνω άμαρτήσομαι **ημαρτον** ήμαρτήθην ήμάρτηκα ήμάρτημαι TO MAKE A MISTAKE, TO COMMIT AN OFFENCE, TO MISS *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. Construction: \diamondsuit The thing you miss is in the *genitive* case: • ἀμαρτάνω τῆς ὁδοῦ I MISS THE PATH, but if it means to COMMIT AN OFFENCE the person against whom you commit the offence must be in the accusative case preceded by $\pi \epsilon \rho i$ or $\epsilon i \varsigma$. ♦ The passive forms of the verb have the meaning of a mistake or an offence being committed:

• τὰ ἡμαρτημένα THE MISTAKES/OFFENCES THAT HAVE BEEN COMMITTED.

άμύνω ἀμυνῶ **ἤμυνα** TO WARD OFF, TO DEFEND *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. Construction: ♦ It has several, but the usual ones are these two: 1/ In active, the rejected object or person is in the accusative case, and the person (or city or whatever) from whom we reject/defend it is in the dative case: • ἀμύνω τοὺς πολεμίους τοῖς φίλοις I ward the enemy off my friends. 2/ In the middle voice, • ἀμύνομαι τοὺς πολεμίους would mean I defend myself from the enemy. ἀναλίσκω άναλώσω ἀνήλωσα άνηλώθην ἀνήλωκα άνήλωμαι TO SPEND *Irregularities*: \diamond This verb is in fact a compound of $\dot{\alpha}v\dot{\alpha}$ and $\dot{\alpha}\lambda i\sigma\kappa\omega$, but the verb is never found on its own. ἀρέσω **ἠρέσθην** ἀρέσκω ἤρεσα TO PLEASE ♦ Kappa only in the present stem. *Irregularities*: άρμόττω άρμόσω **ἥρμοσα ἡρμόσθην ἥρμοσμαι** TO FIT, TO JOIN TOGETHER *Irregularities*: \diamond One of the few - $\tau\tau\omega$ verbs that form their tenses as if dental: $\dot{\alpha}\rho\mu\dot{\alpha}\sigma\omega$ instead of $\dot{\alpha}\rho\mu\dot{\alpha}\zeta\omega$, etc. ἄρξω ἦρξα ἦρχθην ἦρχα ἦργμαι ἄρχω TO RULE, TO BEGIN ♦ Observe the perfect without kappa. *Irregularities*: Construction: \diamond In active voice, it means to RULE, and in middle to BEGIN (but meanings are often interchangable). When it means to BEGIN to DO SOMETHING, it can be followed by a participle or by an infinitive: • ἄρχομαι γράφων / γράφειν I START TO WRITE. αὐξάνω αὐξήσω ηὔξησα ηὐξήθην ηὔξηκα ηὔξημαι TO INCREASE Irregularities: ♦ Observe the augment in the role of reduplication. \diamond There is also a middle future $\alpha \dot{v} \xi \dot{\eta} \sigma o \mu \alpha \iota$ with passive meaning, apart from the expected αὐξηθήσομαι. άφικνέομαι άφίξομαι άφικόμην ἀφῖγμαι TO ARRIVE *Irregularities*: ♦ Strong aorist and perfect without kappa.

ἄχθομαι άχθέσομαι ήχθέσθην ἤχθημαι TO FEEL AFFLICTED ♦ Modified stem for the future. *Irregularities*: ♦ The passive aorist has active meaning. βαίνω βήσομαι **ἔβην** βέβηκα TO GO (on foot), TO WALK *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future, and usually found with a prefix. \diamond Root agrist, also usually found with a prefix. There is also an agrist $\ddot{\epsilon}\beta\eta\sigma\alpha$, corresponding to the unusual transitive meaning TO MAKE GO, TO PUT IN MOTION. βάλλω βαλῶ **ἔβαλον** έβλήθην βέβληκα βέβλημαι TO THROW Irregularities: ♦ Liquid future and strong aorist. βλάπτω βλάψω **ἔ**βλαψα έβλάβην βέβλαφα βέβλαμμαι TO HURT \diamondsuit Passive aorist without θ , but there is also a regular alternative $\dot{\epsilon}$ βλά ϕ θην. *Irregularities*: ♦ Perfect without kappa. βούλομαι βουλήσομαι έβουλήθην βεβούλημαι TO WANT ♦ Deponent verb. *Irregularities*: ♦ Passive aorist with active meaning. γαμέω γαμῶ ἔγημα γεγάμηκα γεγάμημαι TO MARRY *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future (therefore, identical to the present) and liquid agrist. Construction: ♦ If the subject is masculine, the verb is found in the active voice; if feminine, it is found in the middle voice, and in this case the man is in dative: • ἡ Δάφνη τῷ ἀπόλλωνι οὐ γαμεῖται Daphne does not marry Apollo. γελάω γελάσομαι έγέλασα έγελάσθην TO LAUGH *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe that the alpha does not lengthen. ♦ Deponent future.

γεύσω ἔγευσα έγεύσθην γέγευκα γέγευμαι γεύω TO TASTE *Irregularities*: ♦ Although some unusual forms can be found, it is mainly regular. Construction: ♦ In active, it means to offer someBody (Acc.) To TASTE SOMETHING (Gen.): • γεύω τὸν φίλον τοῦ κρέατος Ι OFFER TO MY FRIEND TO TASTE THE MEAT. In middle, it means to taste something (Gen.): • γεύομαι τοῦ κρέατος
I taste the meat. έγήρασα γηράσκω γηράσομαι γεγήρακα TO GET OLDER *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future. \diamond Disappearance of the suffix $-\sigma\kappa$ - in tenses other than present and imperfect. έγενόμην γέγονα γεγένημαι γίγνομαι γενήσομαι TO BECOME, TO HAPPEN *Irregularities*: ♦ Irregular future and strong aorist. \diamond Of both perfects, the active one has sometimes a present meaning of TO BE BY BIRTH. γιγνώσκω γνώσομαι ἔγνων έγνώσθην ἔγνωκα ἔγνωσμαι TO RECOGNISE, TO KNOW *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and root aorist. ♦ Additional sigma in passive agrist and perfect. Construction: Other than what has been explained in the corresponding section on indirect style, this verb may also be followed by an infinitive, in which case it means TO RESOLVE: • ταῦτα ἰδών, ἔγνω ἀποφυγεῖν After seeing this, he resolved to flee. δέω δεήσω έδέησα έδεήθην δεδέηκα δεδέημαι TO NEED *Irregularities*: \diamond Observe that tenses other than the present are formed as if on a present stem $\delta \epsilon \acute{\epsilon} \omega$, which explains the combination $-\varepsilon\eta$ -. ♦ Passive aorist with middle voice meaning. 💠 Do not confuse with δέω το ΤΙΕ, with almost regular forms: δήσω, ἔδησα, εδέθην, δέδεκα, δέδεμαι. Construction: ♦ In middle voice it may also mean TO ASK FOR (but the difference in meaning between both voices is not always kept), with the requested thing in the accusative and the person from whom we request it in the *qenitive*: • ἀεὶ δεῖται χρήματα τοῦ πατρός He is always asking his father for money. \diamond In active voice it is usually found in its impersonal use $~\delta arepsilon ilde{\iota}$ ~ IT IS NECESSARY ~ followed by an ~ acc. +infinitive construction, but another common construction, when expressing a need, is: $\bullet \delta \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{\iota}$ µor ταύτης τῆς βίβλου | I NEED THIS BOOK (person who needs something, in dative; thing needed, in

genitive), • δεῖ ὅπλων τῷ μαχουμένῳ The man who is going to fight needs weapons.

δείκνυμι δείξω ἔδειξα έδείχθην δέδειχα δέδειγμαι TO SHOW *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe the perfect without kappa. διδάσκω διδάξω έδίδαξα έδιδάχθην δεδίδαχα δεδίδαγμαι TO TEACH *Irregularities*: \diamond Disappearance of the $-\sigma$ - in tenses other than present and imperfect. ♦ Perfect without kappa. ♦ Two accusatives, one of the thing you teach and another of the person to whom you teach it: Construction: • διδάσκω τοὺς νόμους τοὺς παῖδας Ι TEACH THE LAWS TO THE CHILDREN. διδράσκω δράσομαι **ἔδραν** δέδρακα TO FLEE *Irregularities*: \diamond Almost always found with the suffix $\dot{\alpha}\pi o$ -. ♦ Root aorist, dealt with in the corresponding section. ♦ The person from whom one runs away is expressed in the *accusative*: Construction: • ὁ δοῦλός με ἀπέδρα The slave ran away from me. δίδωμι δώσω ἔδωκα έδόθην δέδωκα δέδομαι TO GIVE *Irregularities*: ♦ Verb fully presented and explained in the corresponding section; observe the aorist in kappa (in the singular). δόξω δοκέω ἔδοξα δέδογμαι TO SEEM *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe that only the present tense is contract, the other tenses look as if they have been formed from the present $\delta \acute{o} \kappa \omega$. δύναμαι δυνήσομαι έδυνήθην δεδύνημαι TO BE ABLE ♦ The aorist, although passive in form, has active meaning. *Irregularities* : έάω έάσω εἴασα εἰάθην εἴακα εἴαμαι TO ALLOW *Irregularities*: ♦ Irregular augment. ♦ Observe that the alpha does not lengthen in the future and agrist tenses.

έγείρω έγερῶ ἤγειρα ήγέρθην έγρήγορα TO AROUSE, TO AWAKEN (middle voice: TO WAKE) *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. ♦ Its perfect can only have intransitive meaning (I AM AWAKE), but it has a strong middle aorist ἠγρόμην ΙΑWOKE. ♦ Observe the Attic reduplication in the perfect. έθέλω έθελήσω ήθέλησα ήθέληκα TO BE WILLING *Irregularities*: \diamond Tenses other than the present appear as if they have been formed from the present $\dot{\epsilon}\theta\epsilon\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\omega$. \diamond The verb $\theta \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \omega$ also exists, with the same meaning, and in this case an initial ϵ would be an augment, like in the imperfect $\mathring{\epsilon}\theta \epsilon \lambda ov$. εἰμί ἔσομαι TO BE *Irregularities*: ♦ Verb fully presented and explained in the corresponding section. ♦ Future in middle voice. \diamond Imperfect $\tilde{\eta}v$. έλαύνω έλῶ ἥλασα ήλάθην έλήλακα έλήλαμαι TO DRIVE *Irregularities*: \diamond The future is contract in alpha, conjugated like the present of τιμάω. \diamondsuit Attic reduplication in the perfect, like ἀκούω. **ἔλκω** εἵλκυσα είλκυκα έλξω είλκύσθην είλκυσμαι TO DRAG ♦ Unusual augment. *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe the upsilon in some tenses. έπίσταμαι έπιστήσομαι ήπιστήθην TO UNDERSTAND, TO KNOW *Irregularities*: ♦ The passive aorist has active meaning. **ἕπομαι** έψομαι έσπόμην TO FOLLOW *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe the sigma following the augment in the aorist.

ἔρχομαι ΤΟ GO	έλεύσομαι	ἦλθον		έλήλυθα				
Irregularities :	\diamond The future is in fact almost always replaced by $\hat{\epsilon\iota}\mu\iota$ (see the corresponding chapter). \diamond The aorist and perfect tenses are active.							
έρωτάω ΤΟ ASK	έρωτήσω	έρώτησα	ἠρωτήθην	ἠρώτηκα	ήρώτημαι			
Irregularities :	The future and aorist are usually replaced by ἐρήσομαι and ἠρόμην, which are forms borrowed from the deponent verb ἔρομαι το ASK, almost never used in present tense.							
ἐσθίω ΤΟ ΕΑΤ	ἔδομαι	ἔφαγον	ἠδέσθην	έδήδοκα	έδήδεσμαι			
Irregularities :	\diamondsuit Future middle and strong aorist. \diamondsuit Observe the unusual reduplication $εδ-ηδ$ in the perfect.							
εὑρίσκω TO FIND	εὑρήσω	ηὖρον	ηὑρέθην	ηὕρηκα	ηὔρημαι			
Irregularities :	\diamondsuit The four past tenses can have forms in $\pmb{\epsilon}\dot{\pmb{\upsilon}}$ -, as if without augment: $\pmb{\epsilon}\ddot{\pmb{\upsilon}}\pmb{\rho}\pmb{o}\pmb{v}$, etc. \diamondsuit Strong aorist.							
έχθάνομαι TO BE HATEFUL	έχθήσομαι	ἠχθόμην			ἤχθημαι			
Irregularities :	 Verb found always in the compound form ἀπεχθάνομαι. Strong aorist. 							
ἔχω TO HAVE	ἕξω	ἔσχον		ἔσχηκα	ἔσχημαι			
Irregularities :	 There is another future, σχήσω, that indicates momentaneous possession. Strong aorist. Augment standing for reduplication in the perfect. It has εἶχον as imperfect. In the aorist optative, there may be some alternation of endings (-οιην, -οιης, -οιη or -οιμι, -οις, -οι) depending on whether it is a compound form or not: σχοίην, but κατάσχοιμι. 							
Construction:	 As pointed out in another section, with an adverb it may mean to be: • κακῶς ἔχω Ι feel bad. Also, with an infinitive it may mean to be able to: • γράφειν ἔχω Ι can write, • ὧ παγκάκιστε, τοῦτο γάρ σ' εἰπεῖν ἔχω Ο most wicked man, for I can call you this (Euripides, Medea). 							

ήδομαι ήσθήσομαι **ἥσθην** TO ENJOY, TO FEEL HAPPY ♦ Passive agrist and passive future have active meaning. *Irregularities*: Construction: \diamondsuit It rules a dative, with or without the preposition ἐπί: • (ἐπὶ) τῆ νίκη ἥδομαι Ι ΕΝΙΟΥ ΤΗΕ VICTORY, but it can also go with a participle: • ἥδομαι ἀναγιγνώσκων Ι ΕΝΙΟΥ READING; or even with an infinitive with the article in dative: • ήδομαι τῷ ἀναγιγνώσκειν Ι ENJOY READING. \diamond If we enjoy that something has happened or is happening, we must use the $\check{o}\pi$ construction: • ἥδομαι ὅτι τοῦτο ἐποίησας | FEEL HAPPY THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS. ♦ But if we mean that we will feel happy in case something takes place in the future we must keep the main verb in present tense and use an εί construction with the future indicative: • ἥδομαι εί τοῦτο ποιήσεις I will be happy if you do this (observe that in English we apply the sense of future tense to the main clause, not to the subordinate one). \diamond The same happens with other verbs of feeling: $\alpha i \sigma \chi \dot{\nu} \nu \rho \mu \alpha$ TO BE ASHAMED, $\chi \alpha i \rho \omega$ TO REJOICE, χαλεπαίνω το be violent, έλεέω το feel pity, ὀργίζομαι το get angry, etc. θάπτω θάψω ἔθαψα έτάφην τέθαμμαι TO BURY \diamond Observe the transformation of θ into τ in the passive agrist, which moreover does not have the *Irregularities*: expected θ as marker of the tense. θνήσκω θανοῦμαι ἔθανον τέθνηκα TO DIE *Irregularities*: \diamond Present, future and agrist almost always compound with $\dot{\alpha}\pi o$. ♦ Liquid future and strong agrist. \diamond The perfect has some alternative forms for the plural: $\tau \varepsilon \theta v \eta \kappa \alpha \mu \varepsilon v = \tau \varepsilon \theta v \alpha \mu \varepsilon v$ etc. θύσω θύω ἔθυσα έτύθην τέθυκα τέθυμαι TO SACRIFICE \diamond The - τ - in $\dot{\varepsilon}\tau\dot{\nu}\theta\eta\nu$ replaces the expected θ to avoid two consecutive thetas $\dot{\varepsilon}\theta\dot{\nu}\theta\eta\nu$. *Irregularities*: ἵημι ἥσω ήκα είθην eika. είμαι TO SEND, TO CAST Irregularities: ♦ Verb fully presented and explained in the corresponding section. ♦ Observe the agrist in kappa (only in the singular). Construction: ♦ Verb most often found in compound forms, with unexpected meanings such as συνίημι το understand.

ίκνέομαι **ίξομαι** ικόμην ίγμαι TO ARRIVE *Irregularities*: ♦ Verb almost always found in the compound form ἀφικνέομαι. ♦ Strong aorist. ♦ Reduplication imperceptible in the perfect, as it is an augmented iota. ίλάσκομαι ίλάσομαι ίλασάμην TO APPEASE *Irregularities*: \diamond The sigma of the future and agrist is not the same one of the present stem, as the suffix $-\sigma\kappa$ - of the present stem has disappeared in these tenses. ἵστημι ἔστησα έστάθην έστηκα έσταμαι στήσω TO STAND, TO MAKE STAND ♦ Verb presented fully and explained in the corresponding section. *Irregularities*: \diamond It has also the active agrist $\mathring{\epsilon}\sigma\eta\nu$. Construction: ♦ The complexity of the alternation of its forms between transitive and intransitive meanings has been explained previously in the corresponding section. καθαίρω καθαρῶ έκάθηρα έκαθάρθην κεκάθαρμαι TO PURIFY ♦ Liquid future and aorist. *Irregularities*: καθίζω καθιῶ έκάθισα TO MAKE SIT DOWN (in middle voice: TO SIT DOWN) *Irregularities*: \Leftrightarrow Liquid future (some verbs in $-i\zeta\omega$ have a liquid future). \diamondsuit The perfect does not exist, but the present of κάθημαι το BE SEATED is used instead. ἔκαυσα έκαύθην καίω καύσω κέκαυκα κέκαυμαι TO BURN ♦ Almost always found in its compound κατακαίω το BURN DOWN. *Irregularities*: \diamond Once the stem has changed from $\kappa\alpha i$ - to $\kappa\alpha i$ -, the conjugation is regular. καλέω καλῶ έκάλεσα έκλήθην κέκληκα κέκλημαι TO CALL *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future, which makes it identical to present. ♦ The epsilon does not lengthen in the aorist. ♦ The alpha of the stem disappears in some tenses.

κάμνω καμοῦμαι ἔκαμον κέκμηκα TO TOIL *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent and liquid future. ♦ Strong aorist. κεῖμαι κείσομαι TO LIE (on a surface) *Irregularities*: \diamond It has an imperfect $\dot{\varepsilon}\kappa\varepsilon\dot{\iota}\mu\eta\nu$. Construction: \diamond It is sometimes used as the perfect passive of $\tau i\theta \eta \mu \iota$: I HAVE BEEN PLACED, therefore I LIE. κεράννυμι έκέρασα έκράθην κεράσω κέκραμαι TO MIX \diamondsuit There is another passive agrist, more regular: ἐκεράσθην. *Irregularities*: κερδαίνω κερδανῶ έκέρδανα κεκέρδηκα TO GAIN *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. κλαίω ἔκλαυσα έκλαύσθην κλαύσομαι κέκλαυμαι TO CRY *Irregularities*: \diamondsuit Change of stem from $\kappa\lambda\alpha\dot{\iota}$ - to $\kappa\lambda\alpha\dot{\upsilon}$ - in some tenses. ♦ Middle future and perfect with active meaning. κλέπτω κλέψω ἔκλεψα έκλάπην κέκλοφα κέκλεμμαι TO STEAL \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . *Irregularities*: ♦ Perfect without kappa (and with vocalic change). ἔκλινα κλίνω κλινῶ έκλίθην κέκλικα κέκλιμαι TO BEND, TO LEAN ON ♦ Liquid future (almost equal to the present) and aorist. *Irregularities*: κομίζω έκόμισα έκομίσθην κεκόμικα κομιῶ κεκόμισμαι TO CARE FOR, TO TAKE *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future. ἔκρινα έκρίθην κρίνω κρινῶ κέκρικα κέκριμαι TO JUDGE

♦ Liquid future and aorist.

Irregularities:

κτείνω KTEVÕ **EKTELV**A **ἔκτονα** TO KILL *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. \diamond Verb usually found in the compound $\dot{\alpha}\pi$ orteiro with the same meaning, in fact the perfect is never found without the prefix $\dot{\alpha}\pi o$ -. λαγχάνω **ἔλαχον** έλήχθην εἴληγμαι λήξομαι εἴληχα TO OBTAIN BY LOT *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. ♦ Augment standing for reduplication in spite of the stem not beginning with a vowel. λαμβάνω λήψομαι **ἔλαβον** έλήφθην εἴληφα εἴλημμαι TO TAKE *Irregularities*: ♦ Change in the stem for some tenses. ♦ Middle future with active meaning. ♦ Strong aorist. ♦ Perfect without kappa and without reduplication. Construction: \diamond When used in middle voice with the meaning of TAKING HOLD OF, the object is in the *genitive*: • ὁ παῖς λαμβάνεται τῆς τοῦ πατροῦ χειρός The child takes hold of his father's hand. λανθάνω λήσω **ἔλαθον** λέληθα λέλησμαι TO ESCAPE SOMEONE'S NOTICE *Irregularities*: ♦ Strong change in stem for the future. ♦ Strong aorist. ♦ Perfect without kappa. ♦ Usually accompanied by a participle. This is fully explained in the corresponding section. Construction: είπον λέγω έρῶ έρρήθην εἴρηκα εἴρημαι TO SAY \diamondsuit Liquid future, and with another stem, but there is also the future $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \xi \omega$. *Irregularities*: \diamond Strong agrist, and with another stem, although $\check{\epsilon}\lambda\epsilon\xi\alpha$ also exists also (in compound forms, such as $\sigma v \lambda \lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$, the aorist must be $\mathring{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \xi \alpha$, like $\sigma v \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \xi \alpha$). ♦ The other tenses use the same stem as the future. $\diamond \check{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{u}$ clause or accusative + infinitive clause, but the agrist $\check{\mathbf{einov}}$ uses a $\check{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{u}$ clause only. Construction: λείπω λείψω **ἔλιπον** έλείφθην λέλοιπα λέλειμμαι TO LEAVE *Irregularities*: ♦ Strong aorist. ♦ Perfect without kappa.

μαίνω μανοῦμαι ἔμηνα έμάνην μέμηνα TO MADDEN ♦ Deponent future. *Irregularities*: ♦ The perfect has present and intransitive meaning TO BE MAD. μανθάνω μαθήσομαι **ἔμαθον** μεμάθηκα TO LEARN *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. έμαχεσάμην μεμάχημαι μάχομαι μαχοῦμαι TO FIGHT *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future. \diamond Aorist and perfect, formed as if on an imaginary present $\mu\alpha\chi\dot{\epsilon}o\mu\alpha\iota$ (which in fact is the future). ♦ The epsilon does not lengthen in the aorist. μείγνυμι μείξω ἔμειξα έμίγην μέμειγμαι TO MIX \diamondsuit There is also a regular passive agrist $\dot{\varepsilon}\mu\varepsilon\dot{\iota}\chi\theta\eta\nu$. *Irregularities*: μέλλω μελλήσω έμέλλησα TO BE ABOUT TO, TO INTEND *Irregularities*: \diamond Future and agrist formed as if on a second stem $\mu \epsilon \lambda \lambda \epsilon$. Construction: ♦ Usually followed by a future infinitive. μέλω μελήσω έμέλησα μεμέληκα TO INTEREST \diamondsuit Tenses other than present, formed as if on an imaginary stem $\mu \epsilon \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \omega$. *Irregularities*: Construction: \diamond Verb usually found in impersonal use: $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \iota$ IT INTERESTS, with dative of the interested person and genitive of the object: • τούτου μέλει μοι This interests me. μενῶ ἔμεινα μένω μεμένηκα TO REMAIN *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. \Rightarrow Perfect formed as if on $\mu \epsilon \nu \dot{\epsilon} \omega$ (which in fact is the future).

μιμνήσκω μνήσω ἔμνησα έμνήσθην μέμνημαι TO REMIND (in middle, TO REMEMBER) Almost always found in the compound form ἀναμιμνήσκω. *Irregularities*: ♦ The middle perfect is often used with present meaning, I REMEMBER, and its future would be the Construction: future perfect $\mu \epsilon \mu \nu \eta \sigma \sigma \mu \omega$. Apart from this, the remembered object is usually placed in genitive: • μέμνηται τοῦ πατρός He remembers his father. ἔνειμα νέμω νεμῶ ένεμήθην νενέμηκα νενέμημαι TO ALLOT, TO PASTURE *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future (almost equal to present) and aorist. νομίζω νομιῶ ένόμισα ένομίσθην νενόμικα νενόμισμαι TO CONSIDER ♦ Liquid future. *Irregularities*: őζω όζήσω ὤζησα ŏδωδα TO SMELL *Irregularities*: \diamond Future and agrist, formed as if it were an ε contract verb. ♦ The perfect, also irregular, has present meaning. Construction: \diamond It can be used impersonally with a *genitive* (with or without $\dot{\alpha}\pi\dot{\alpha}$) as origin of the smell: • $(\mathring{a}\pi\grave{o})$ τούτου τοῦ σίτου ὄζει This food smells / Some smell comes from this food. οἴγνυμι οἴξω εωξα έώχθην εωχα ἔφγμαι TO OPEN ♦ Double augment. *Irregularities*: ♦ Perfect without kappa. \diamond This verb is almost always found in the compound $\dot{\alpha}$ vo $\dot{i}\gamma$ vv μ i. οἶδα εἴσομαι ἤδη TO KNOW *Irregularities*: ♦ Verb presented in the corresponding section. \diamond The present $\delta i \delta \alpha$ is a perfect, and $\eta \delta \eta$ is in fact a pluperfect used as imperfect. Construction: ♦ Usually with a participle, as explained in the corresponding section.

οἴομαι οίήσομαι **φήθην** TO THINK ♦ The passive aorist has active meaning. *Irregularities*: \diamond This verb exists also as oinal. οἴχομαι οίχήσομαι **φχόμην** ፙχωκα TO BE GONE ♦ Verb with perfect tense meaning, presented in the corresponding section. *Irregularities*: ♦ Strong aorist. ὄλλυμι óλõ όλώλεκα **ἄλεσα** TO DESTROY Irregularities: ♦ Liquid future. \diamondsuit The middle agrist is strong: ἀλόμην. ♦ Observe the Attic reduplication in the perfect. \diamondsuit This verb is almost always found in the compound form ἀπόλλυμι. Construction: \diamond In the middle voice, it means to DIE. It also has a second active perfect, $(\dot{\alpha}\pi)\dot{\alpha}\lambda\omega\lambda\alpha$ I AM FINISHED, • μῶν ὀλώλαμεν; Are we done for? (Sophocles, Aiax). I AM DONE FOR: ὄμνυμι όμοῦμαι **ὄμοσα ώμόθην** όμώμοκα όμώμομαι TO SWEAR Irregularities: ♦ Liquid and deponent future. ♦ Observe the Attic reduplication in the perfect. Construction: \diamond It is usually followed by $\tilde{\eta} \mu \dot{\eta} v + infinitive$ (the tense of the infinitive will correspond to the temporal relationship): • ὄμνυμι ἦ μὴν τοῦτο ποιήσειν | I swear that I will do this. • ὄμνυμι ἦ μὴν τοῦτο $\pi o i \tilde{\eta} \sigma \alpha i$ I SWEAR THAT I HAVE DONE THIS. ὀνίνημι ονήσω ἄνησα ώνήθην TO BENEFIT (in middle: TO TAKE PROFIT) *Irregularities*: ♦ Observe the suffix -iv- in the present stem, which is absent in the other tenses. ὸράω ὄψομαι είδον ἄφθην έώρακα έώραμαι TO SEE *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. \diamond The perfect (which can also be $\dot{\epsilon}\acute{o}\rho\alpha\kappa\alpha$) has two augments (syllabic and temporal) as reduplication.

όφείλω όφειλήσω **ἄΦελον ώφείληκα** TO OWE *Irregularities*: \diamond Future and perfect formed as if on the stem $\dot{o}\phi \epsilon \iota \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \omega$. ♦ Strong agrist, but it also has a weak agrist ἀφείλησα. πάσχω πείσομαι **ἔπαθον** πέπονθα TO SUFFER ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. *Irregularities*: ♦ Perfect without kappa. παύω παύσω ἔπαυσα έπαύσθην πέπανκα πέπαυσμαι TO STOP \diamond Observe the additional σ in the passive agrist and in the perfect. *Irregularities*: Construction: ♦ In the active, it is transitive and there may be a participle attached to the direct object: • παύω αὐτοὺς μαχομένους Ι MAKE THEM STOP FIGHTING. ♦ In the middle voice, it is intransitive and it may rule either a genitive or a participle (in the nominative): • παύομαι τῆς μάχης or παύομαι μαχόμενος Istop Fighting in both cases. πείθω πείσω ἔπεισα έπείσθην πέπεικα πέπεισμαι TO PERSUADE \diamond The middle agrist is strong: $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\iota\theta\dot{o}\mu\eta\nu$. *Irregularities*: \diamond There is another perfect active $\pi \acute{\epsilon} \pi o \iota \theta \alpha$ with the meaning to TRUST. Construction: ♦ In middle voice, it means to obey and it rules a dative: • ὁ παῖς τῷ πατρὶ πείθεται ΤΗΕ CHILD OBEYS HIS FATHER. Also the other perfect $\pi \acute{\epsilon} \pi o \iota \theta \alpha$ rules a dative. έπέμφθην πέμπω πέμψω ἔπεμψα πέπομφα πέπεμμαι TO SEND Irregularities: ♦ Perfect without kappa. έπέτασα έπετάσθην πετάννυμι πετῶ πέπταμαι TO SPREAD *Irregularities*: \Leftrightarrow Liquid future contract in α : πετ $\tilde{\alpha}$, πετ $\tilde{\alpha}$ ς, πετ $\tilde{\alpha}$ ς, εtc. πέτομαι πτήσομαι έπτόμην TO FLY *Irregularities*: \diamond The future and agrist forms come in fact from the alternative verb $i\pi \pi \eta \mu \iota$.

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πίμπλημι πλήσω ἔπλησα έπλήσθην πέπληκα πέπλη(σ)μαι TO FILL *Irregularities*: ♦ Reduplication in the present stem. ἔπρησα έπρήσθην πίμπρημι πρήσω πέπρημαι TO BURN Irregularities: ♦ Reduplication in the present stem. \diamond This verb is almost always found in the compound form $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\rho\eta\mu\iota$, with the same meaning. πίνω πίομαι **ἔπιον** έπόθην πέπωκα πέπομαι TO DRINK ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. *Irregularities*: ♦ Vocalic change in some tenses. πίπτω πεσοῦμαι ἔπεσον πέπτωκα TO FALL *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid and deponent future. ♦ Strong aorist. Construction: \diamond Its compounds are sometimes used as the passive forms of the corresponding compounds of $\beta\acute{a}\lambda\lambda\omega$: • ὁ δοῦλος ἐξεβλήθη ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας ὑπὸ ἐμοῦ = ὁ δοῦλος ἐξέπεσεν ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας ὑπὸ ἐμοῦ ΤΗΕ SLAVE was thrown out of the house by Me. Observe that the agent object $\dot{\upsilon}\pi\dot{\upsilon}$ $\dot{\varepsilon}\mu\sigma\tilde{\upsilon}$ is retained (case similar to $\dot{\alpha}$ ποθνήσκω etc.). πλέω πλεύσομαι ἔπλευσα πέπλευκα TO SAIL ♦ Deponent future. *Irregularities*: \diamondsuit There is another future form, which is deponent and contract: πλευσοῦμαι (this future with sigma and contract at the same time is called a *Doric future*). \diamond Stem changes to $\pi \lambda \varepsilon v$ - in tenses other than present. πλήττω πλήξω ἔπληξα έπλήγην πέπληγα πέπληγμαι TO STRIKE *Irregularities*: \diamondsuit There is another passive agrist $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\lambda\dot{\alpha}\gamma\eta\nu$, but this is also without θ . \diamond Observe that the perfect active has a gamma, it is not the expected $\pi \epsilon \pi \lambda \eta \chi \alpha$. πνεύσομαι ἔπνευσα πέπνευκα πνέω TO BREATHE *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future.

πράττω πράξω ἔπραξα έπράχθην πέπραχα πέπραγμαι TO DO \diamond There is another perfect, also without kappa, with the intransitive meaning to FARE: $\pi \acute{\epsilon} \pi \rho \alpha \gamma \alpha$. *Irregularities*: ♦ When this verb has the intransitive meaning TO FARE, it is usually followed or preceded by an adverb: Construction: έπυθόμην πυνθάνομαι πεύσομαι πέπυσμαι TO INQUIRE, TO LEARN *Irregularities*: ♦ Stem change in future. ♦ Strong aorist. \diamond The person from whom we get the information may be accompanied by $\pi\alpha\rho\dot{\alpha}$, but it is always found Construction: in the *genitive*: • πεύσομαι πάντα (παρὰ) τοῦ βασιλέως Ι Will learn everything from the king. ω϶ά ρεύσομαι έρρύην έρρύηκα TO FLOW ♦ Deponent future. *Irregularities*: \diamond The agrist is a root agrist, but there is also a more regular agrist $\mathring{\epsilon}\rho\rho\epsilon\nu\sigma\alpha$. ρήγνυμι ϸήξω **ἔρρηξα** έρράγην ἔρρωγα ἔρρηγμαι TO BREAK Verb almost always found in the compound καταρρήγνυμε, with the same meaning. *Irregularities*: \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . ♦ Perfect without kappa. σβέννυμι σβέσω ἔσβησα ἐσβέσθην ἔσβηκα ἔσβεσμαι TO EXTINGUISH *Irregularities*: \diamond There is a root agrist $\check{\epsilon}\sigma\beta\eta\nu$ with intransitive meaning TO GO OUT, and the perfect active also has this intransitive meaning. σημαίνω σημανῶ έσήμηνα έσημάνθην σεσήμασμαι TO INDICATE *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. σκεδάννυμι σκεδῶ ἐσκέδασα έσκεδάσθην έσκέδασμαι TO SCATTER, TO EXTEND *Irregularities*: ♦ The future is alpha contract: σκεδῶ, σκεδᾶς, σκεδᾶ.

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σπείρω σπερῶ ἔσπειρα έσπάρην ἔσπαρμαι TO SOW Irregularities: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . σπένδω σπείσω ἔσπεισα ἔσπεικα ἔσπεισμαι TO POUR A LIBATION ♦ Inclusion of an iota in tenses other than present. *Irregularities*: Construction: ♦ In the middle voice it means to MAKE AN AGREEMENT. στέλλω στελῶ ἔστειλα έστάλην ἔσταλκα ἔσταλμαι TO SEND ♦ Liquid future and aorist. *Irregularities*: \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . στρέφω στρέψω ἔστρεψα έστράφην ἔστραμμαι TO TURN \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . *Irregularities*: σφάλλω σφαλῶ ἔσφηλα έσφάλην ἔσφαλμαι TO MAKE FALL *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . ἔσωσα σώζω σώσω έσώθην σέσωκα σέσωσμαι TO SAVE ♦ Observe the disappearance of the iota subscript in tenses other than present. Irregularities: έτάθην τείνω τενῶ ἔτεινα τέτακα τέταμαι TO EXTEND Irregularities: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. \diamondsuit There is also a future passive $\tau \alpha \theta \dot{\eta} \sigma o \mu \alpha \iota$. τελέω τελῶ έτέλεσα έτελέσθην τετέλεκα τετέλεσμαι TO FINISH *Irregularities*: \diamond The future is liquid, instead of the expected τελήσω (although τελέσω is also found), which in turn makes it appear identical to the present. ♦ Observe that the epsilon does not lengthen in the other tenses.

τέμνω τεμῶ ἔτεμον έτμήθην τέτμηκα τέτμημαι TO CUT ♦ Liquid future and strong aorist. *Irregularities*: τίθημι θήσω ἔθηκα ἐτέθην τέθηκα τέθειμαι TO PLACE *Irregularities*: ♦ Verb fully presented in the corresponding section. ♦ Aorist with kappa (in singular). \diamond The perfect passive is usually replaced by $\kappa \tilde{\epsilon} i \mu \alpha i$. τίκτω τέξομαι ἔτεκον τέτοκα TO BRING FORTH, TO BEAR, TO BEGET *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. ♦ Vocalic changes from tense to tense. τείσω ἔτεισα έτείσθην τίνω τέτεικα τέτεισμαι TO PAY *Irregularities*: \diamond Stem $\tau \epsilon \iota$ - in tenses other than present. ♦ In middle voice, it means TO PUNISH. Construction: τιτρώσκω τρώσω ἔτρωσα έτρώθην τέτρωμαι TO WOUND *Irregularities*: ♦ Reduplication in present tense. τρέπω τρέψω ἔτρεψα έτρέφθην τέτροφα τέτραμμαι TO TURN \diamond There is also a strong active agrist $\check{\epsilon}\tau\rho\alpha\pi\sigma\sigma$, and the middle agrist (TO TURN YOURSELF, TO FLEE) would *Irregularities*: be **ἐτραπόμην**. \diamond There is also a strong passive agrist (i.e. without θ), ἐτράπην. Observe that its perfect active coincides with that of $\tau \rho \acute{\epsilon} \phi \omega$. ♦ In the middle voice it means TO TURN YOURSELF, TO FLEE. Construction: \diamond The strong passive agrist ετράπην would have intransitive meaning only (TO TURN YOURSELF). θρέψω τρέφω ἔθρεψα έτράφην τέτροφα τέθραμμαι TO NOURISH \diamond Continuous alternation between θ and τ to avoid two consecutive aspirates. *Irregularities*: ♦ Perfect without kappa. \diamond Observe that its perfect active coincides with that of $\tau \rho \acute{\epsilon} \pi \omega$.

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τρέχω δραμοῦμαι ἔδραμον δεδράμηκα TO RUN ♦ Deponent verb and liquid future. *Irregularities*: τυγχάνω τεύξομαι ἔτυχον τετύχηκα TO HAPPEN, TO HIT *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future and on a modified stem. ♦ Strong aorist. Construction: \diamond Usually with a participle, as explained in the corresponding section. Nevertheless, it can be used on its own in the sense of TO HIT, and the object will be in the *genitive* case: • ὁ τοξότης τοῦ σκόπου ἔτυχεν The archer hit the target. In this use, its opposite would be $\lambda \alpha \nu \theta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$, to miss, also using a genitive: • ὁ τοξότης τοῦ σκόπου ἔλαθεν The Archer Missed the target. ύπισχνέομαι ύποσχήσομαι ύπεσχόμην **ὑπέσχημαι** TO PROMISE *Irregularities*: ♦ Strong aorist. Construction: ♦ Usually followed by a future infinitive. φαίνω φανῶ ἔφηνα έφάνην πέφηνα πέφασμαι TO SHOW (middle voice: TO APPEAR) *Irregularities*: ♦ Liquid future. \diamondsuit The passive aorist $\grave{\epsilon} \phi \acute{\alpha} v \eta v$ always has an intransitive meaning (TO APPEAR), and the same applies for the perfect active πέφηνα. Nevertheless, the more regular forms for these two tenses exist: ἐφάνθην and $\pi \hat{\epsilon} \phi \alpha \gamma \kappa \alpha$, but they retain the standard meaning of I was shown and I have shown respectively. Construction: ♦ Used in the middle voice, with a participle it states that the event is factual: • ὁ Σωκράτης φαίνεται σοφὸς αν Socrates is evidently wise, while with an infinitive it states the possibility: • ὁ Σωκράτης φαίνεται σοφὸς είναι Socrates seems to be wise (but this may not be the case). φέρω οἴσω ήνεγκα ήνέχθην ένήνοχα ένήνεγμαι TO CARRY *Irregularities*: ♦ It uses different stems in some tenses. Liquid aorist although the stem is not liquid, but it also has a strong aorist ἤνεγκον. ♦ Perfect without kappa. \diamond In middle voice it may mean to win = to take for yourself (a prize, for instance): Construction: • ἀεὶ τὸ βέλτιστον ἆθλον φέρομαι Ι ALWAYS GET THE BEST PRIZE.

φεύγω φεύξομαι ἔφυγον πέφευγα TO FLEE Irregularities: ♦ Deponent future and strong aorist. ♦ Perfect without kappa. φημί φήσω ἔφησα TO SAY *Irregularities*: ♦ Verb presented in the corresponding section. \diamondsuit The agrist is almost always replaced by the imperfect $\mathring{\epsilon}\phi\eta\nu$. ἔφθασα φθάνω **φθήσομαι** ἔφθακα TO ANTICIPATE *Irregularities*: ♦ Deponent future. ♦ Observe the augment standing for reduplication in the perfect. Construction: ♦ Usually with a participle, as explained in the corresponding section. φθείρω φθερῶ ἔφθειρα έφθάρην ἔφθαρκα ἔφθαρμαι TO DESTROY Irregularities: ♦ Liquid future and aorist. \diamondsuit Passive agrist without θ . ♦ Augment standing for reduplication in the perfect. φοβέομαι φοβήσομαι έφοβήθην πεφόβημαι TO FEAR *Irregularities*: ♦ The passive agrist and perfect have active meaning. \diamond This verb exists also in the active form, $\phi \circ \beta \acute{\epsilon} \omega$, meaning TO FRIGHTEN, but this is not commonly used. Construction: φύω φύσω έφυσα πέφυκα TO PRODUCE \diamond For the intransitive meaning, the agrist is the root agrist $\mathring{\epsilon}\phi vv$. *Irregularities*: Construction: \diamond The perfect $\pi \acute{\epsilon} \phi \nu \kappa \alpha$ is always intransitive with the present meaning I AM BY NATURE. έχάρην κεχάρημαι χαίρω χαιρήσω κεχάρηκα TO REJOICE *Irregularities*: ♦ Curiously, it does not have the expected liquid future. \diamond Passive agrist without θ , and moreover it has an active meaning.

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χέω TO POUR	χέω	ἔχεα	έχύθην	κέχυκα	κέχυμαι
Irregularities :	 Liquid future instead of the expected χήσω, and contracting only the -εε- forms as monosyllabics do (like πλέω). Liquid aorist. Change of vowel in the other tenses. 				
χ ρή TO BE NECESSARY	χρήσει				
Irregularities :	 Impersonal verb, presented in the corresponding section. It has two imperfects: χρῆν and ἐχρῆν. In fact, χρή is a noun that means NEED, and the future and imperfect tenses are formed by combining it with forms of εἰμί (for example, χρῆν = χρὴ + ἦν). 				
ἀθέω	ὤσω	ἔωσα	ἐώσθην		ἔωσμαι
TO PUSH					
Irregularities :	\diamond - $\theta\epsilon$ - removed in the future and aorist tenses, but present in passive aorist (where it becomes a sigma for the effect of the following consonant).				
ὀνέομαι	ὀνήσομαι	ὀνησάμην	έωνήθην		έώνημαι
TO BUY					
Irregularities :	 There is also an aorist ἐωνησάμην. The perfect also has an active meaning. In the aorist tense it is commonly replaced by the aorist of πρίαμαι: ἐπριάμην. 				

h) Compound verbs

1. General remarks [213]

Greek verbs are frequently found in compound forms with prepositions. For instance:

```
βαίνω το σο
                            + the preposition \varepsilon i \varsigma INTO
                                                                      είσβαίνω
                                                                                     TO ENTER
βαίνω το σο
                            + the preposition \dot{\alpha}v\dot{\alpha} UP
                                                                      ἀναβαίνω
                                                                                     TO GO UP, TO CLIMB
βαίνω το σο
                            + the preposition κατά DOWN
                                                                      καταβαίνω
                                                                                     TO GO DOWN, TO DESCEND
βάλλω το throw, το Pelt + the preposition ἐκ
                                                                      έκβάλλω
                                                        OUT OF
                                                                                     TO THROW OUT, TO EXPEL
```

Take into account that sometimes the last letter of the preposition may undergo some changes depending on the first consonant of the verb. For instance, when the preposition $\sigma \acute{v} v$ is compounded with the verb $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \acute{\alpha} v \omega$, the resulting compound form is $\sigma v \lambda \lambda \alpha \mu \beta \acute{\alpha} v \omega$ rather than the expected $\sigma v v \lambda \alpha \mu \beta \acute{\alpha} v \omega$. Furthermore, when the preposition $\sigma \acute{v} v$ is combined with $\chi \acute{\epsilon} \omega$, the compound produced is $\sigma v v \chi \acute{\epsilon} \omega$. Of course, when an augment splits preposition and verb, the preposition reverts to its original spelling: $\sigma v v \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \beta v v$. Practice will teach these changes.

2. Meaning of the preposition

The preposition does not always keep its original meaning. For instance, the preposition $\delta \iota \dot{\alpha}$ = THROUGH, but $\delta \iota \alpha \beta \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$ = TO SLANDER. Sometimes the meaning can be interpreted, as in the case of the verb $\kappa \alpha \iota \alpha \pi \dot{\iota} \nu \omega$ = TO DRINK COMPLETELY, "down to the bottom", but in other cases the meaning provided in the dictionary must be accepted. For example:

```
ἀπατάω = TO DECEIVE ἐξαπατάω = TO DECEIVE COMPLETELY
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The preposition $\&\kappa$ commonly means out of, but in some cases it conveys the sense of COMPLETELY or UTTERLY. Therefore prepositions may sometimes give the meaning of the compound verb a certain nuance that is very difficult to be deduced from the basic meaning of the preposition.

Another example:

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ἔχω = το HAVE παρέχω = το OFFER ♦ Yet the preposition παρά usually means at the side.
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3. With or without preposition?

[214]

Greek language is indeed quite free in the choice of whether or not to use a prepositional prefix to lend a verb a particular nuance, so there can be some variation when translating into Greek. For instance, the sentence I GO INTO THE HOUSE could be translated in two ways:

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- βαίνω είς τὴν οἰκίαν or εἰσβαίνω εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν
- \diamond Note that it is normal that the compound verb is followed by its own preposition (in the second option, $\varepsilon i \varsigma$ appears twice: as prepositional prefix in the verb and as preposition on its own).

4. Regime of the verb

An important detail to note is that the regime of various compound verbs may sometimes be due to the preposition attached to them. For instance, if the preposition $\dot{\nu}\pi\dot{\epsilon}\rho$, which is followed by a *genitive*, is compounded with $\mu\dot{\alpha}\chi o\mu\alpha\iota$, the resulting verb, $\dot{\nu}\pi\epsilon\rho\mu\dot{\alpha}\chi o\mu\alpha\iota$ TO FIGHT ON BEHALF OF, must be followed by a *genitive*:

- οἱ στρατιῶται ὑπερμάχονται τῆς πατρίδος The soldiers fight on behalf of their homeland.
- ♦ Note that in this case, the preposition is not repeated after the verb. Practice will teach these usages.

But we can also find:

• οἱ στρατιῶται μάχονται ὑπὲρ τῆς πατρίδος (same meaning).

Another example:

The preposition $\sigma \dot{v} v$ with must be followed by a dative, therefore verbs compounded with it usually rule a dative, such as $\sigma v \mu \pi \rho \dot{u} \tau v$ to collaborate:

• οἱ Θηβαῖοι οὐ συμπράττουσι τοῖς Ἀθηναίοις The Thebans do not collaborate with the Athenians.

5. Main compound verbs

[215]

Here we offer a list of the most common compound verbs that a student will encounter in a text and is likely to need when reading or composing Greek, focusing especially on verbs that have a meaning which cannot be deduced easily from the preposition-verb combination. The regime of the verb is also provided when it is not as expected.

Observations:

- **a/** In some cases, although the verb exists in all of its forms, its impersonal use is more common, so we have introduced it as such.
- **b/** Some verbs may have several translations. We have provided the most frequent one.
- **c/** Some of these verbs can also be found in the section entitled *Hellenisms: peculiarities and idioms* and in other parts of the book, according to which grammatical aspect is being considered.

190 COMPOUND VERBS

🗆 With ἀμφί			
ἀμφιλέγω	TO DISPUTE		
□ With ἀνά			
ἀναγιγνώσκω	TO READ	ἀνατίθημι	TO ERECT
ἀνάγομαι	TO PUT OUT TO SEA		♦ For instance, a statue.
	♦ With ἀνά meaning upwards,	ἀναχωρέω	TO WITHDRAW
	TOWARDS THE HORIZON.	ἀνέχομαι	TO BEAR, TO ENDURE (+ Gen.)
ἀνάγω	TO TAKE TO SEA	ἀνίσταμαι	TO STAND UP
ἀναιρέω	TO DESTROY	ἀνοίγνυμι	TO OPEN
ἀναμιμνήσκομαι	TO REMEMBER		
With ἀντί			
ἀνθίστημι	to put in front of (+ Dat.)	άντιδίδωμι	TO GIVE IN EXCHANGE
ἀντέχω	TO HOLD AGAINST	ἀντιπράττω	TO ACT IN OPPOSITION
ἀντιλέγω	TO CONTRADICT		
With ἀπό			
ἀπαιτέω	TO DEMAND BACK	ἀποθνήσκω	TO DIE
ἀπαλλάττομαι	TO DEPART	άποκρίνομαι	TO ANSWER
ἀπαντάω	to encounter (+ Dat.)	ἀποκτείνω	TO KILL
ἀπαρνέομαι	TO DENY	ἀπόλλυμι	TO DESTROY
ἄπειμι	TO BE ABSENT	άπολογέομαι	TO SPEAK IN DEFENCE
ἀπέχομαι	TO RESTRAIN ONESELF FROM (+ Gen.)	ἀποστέλλω	TO SEND OFF, TO DISPATCH
ἀπέχω	TO BE DISTANT FROM	ἀποστερέω	TO DEPRIVE OF
	(+ Gen., with or without $\dot{lpha}\picute{lpha}$	ἀφαιρέω	TO DEPRIVE OF
ἀποβαίνω	TO TURN OUT, TO HAPPEN	ἀφίημι	TO LET GO
	• τί ἀπέβη; What has happened?	ἀφικνέομαι	TO ARRIVE
ἀποβάλλω	TO THROW AWAY	ἀφίσταμαι	TO REVOLT FROM (+ Gen.)
ἀποδείκνυμι	TO DISPLAY		♦ This verb in active would mean
ἀποδημέω	TO BE ABROAD		DY REVOLT FROM, but its use in middle
ἀποδίδομαι	TO SELL	voice (intransiti	ve meaning) is much more frequent.
ἀποδίδωμι	TO GIVE BACK		
□ With διά			
διαβαίνω	TO CROSS	διαιρέω	TO DIVIDE
διαβάλλω	TO SLANDER	διακεῖμαι	TO FIND YOURSELF IN A GIVEN STATE
διάγω	TO PASS, TO SPEND TIME		\diamondsuit This verb is used as the
διαδίδωμι	TO DISTRIBUTE		passive of διατίθημι.

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διαλέγομαι	TO CONVERSE	διαφέρω	TO DIFFER FROM (+ Gen.)
διανοέω	TO CONSIDER	διαφθείρω	TO DESTROY
διαπράττω	TO FINISH, TO ACCOMPLISH	διεξέρχομαι	TO DESCRIBE, TO NARRATE
διατελέω	TO CONTINUE	διέρχομαι	TO GO THROUGH
διατίθημι	TO PUT IN A GIVEN STATE	διηγέομαι	TO RELATE
διατρίβω	TO SPEND TIME		
□ With εἰς			
εἰσβαίνω	TO GO INTO, TO EMBARK	εἰσβάλλω	TO INVADE ($\varepsilon i \varsigma + Acc.$)
□ With ἐκ			
έκβαίνω	TO GO OUT OF, TO DISEMBARK	έξαπατάω	TO DECEIVE COMPLETELY
έκδίδωμι	TO GIVE IN MARRIAGE	έξελαύνω	TO DRIVE OUT
έκπίπτω	TO FALL OUT	έξέρχομαι	TO GO OUT
	♦ Special meanings:	ἔξεστι	(impersonal) IT IS POSSIBLE
	TO BE EXPELLED, TO BE BANNED	έξηγέομαι	TO RELATE
□ With ἐν			
έμπίμπλημι	TO FILL	ἔνεστι	(impersonal) IT IS POSSIBLE
έμπίμπρημι	TO SET FIRE TO (+ Dat.)	ένθυμέομαι	TO CONSIDER (+ Gen.)
ἐμπίπτω	TO FALL UPON, TO ATTACK (+ Dat.)	έννοέω	TO CONSIDER
□ With ἐπί			
έπαινέω	TO PRAISE		
έπανέρχομαι	TO COME BACK	έπιθυμέω	TO DESIRE STRONGLY
	♦ Note that this is a compound verb	έπιλανθάνομαι	TO FORGET (+ Gen.)
	with two prepositions: ἐπί and ἀνά.	έπιμελέομαι	TO TAKE CARE OF (+ Gen.)
έπέρχομαι	TO ATTACK (+ Dat.)	ἐπιστέλλω	TO ISSUE INSTRUCTIONS TO (+ Dat.)
έπιβουλεύω	TO PLOT AGAINST (+ Dat.)	έπιτηδεύω	TO PRACTISE
έπιγίγνομαι	TO FOLLOW	έπιτίθεμαι	то аттаск (+ Dat.)
	• τοῦτο ἐποίησα τῆ ἐπιγιγνομένη ἡμέρα	ἐπιτρέπω	TO ENTRUST
	I DID THIS ON THE FOLLOWING DAY.	ἐφίεμαι	TO DESIRE (+ Gen.)
ἐπιδημέω	TO BE IN ONE'S COUNTRY	ἐφίστημι	TO PUT IN COMMAND OF (+ Dat.)
□ With κατά			
καθαιρέω	TO DEMOLISH		
καθεύδω	TO SLEEP		
	♦ In the course of time, it was forgotten th	at this is a compound	verb. The Greeks ended up writing

 \diamond In the course of time, it was forgotten that this is a compound verb. The Greeks ended up writing the augment at the beginning: ἐκάθευδον instead of καθηῦδον, but both forms can be found.

192 COMPOUND VERBS

καθῆμαι TO BE SEATED καθίστημι TO APPOINT, TO PUT INTO A CERTAIN STATE \diamond In middle voice (except in agrist, see the relevant section), this verb would mean TO BE APPOINTED, TO BE PUT INTO A CERTAIN STATE. καταγελάω TO MOCK, LAUGH AT (+ Gen.) καταγιγνώσκω TO CONDEMN \diamond The person condemned is put into the genitive, and the reason into the accusative: • τοῦ στρατιώτου δειλίαν καταγιγνώσκουσιν They condemn the soldier because of his cowardice. ♦ The penalty would also be in the accusative: • τοῦ στρατιώτου θάνατον καταγιγνώσκουσιν They condemn the soldier to death. κατακαίω TO BURN DOWN καταστρέφω TO SUBDUE καταλαμβάνω TO SEIZE, TO OVERTAKE καταφρονέω TO DESPISE καταλείπω κατέχω TO LEAVE BEHIND, TO ABANDON TO RESTRAIN, TO CONTROL □ With μετά μεταβάλλω TO CHANGE μεταδίδωμι TO GIVE A SHARE of (+ Gen.) μεταμέλει (impersonal) TO REPENT ♦ The person who is repenting would be in the Dat., and the reason in the Gen.: • μεταμέλει μοι τῆς κλοπῆς | REPENT THE THEFT. μετανοέω TO MAKE UP ONE'S MIND μετατίθημι TO CHANGE μεταπέμπομαι TO SEND FOR μετέχω TO HAVE A SHARE IN (+ Gen.) With παρά παραδίδωμι πάρειμι TO HAND OVER TO BE PRESENT παραινέω TO EXHORT, TO ADVISE παρέχω TO PROVIDE παρακαλέω TO SUMMON παροξύνω TO INCITE, TO PROVOKE παρασκευάζω TO PREPARE □ With περί περιγίγνομαι TO SURVIVE, TO BE SUPERIOR περίειμι TO SURVIVE, TO BE SUPERIOR \diamond Remember that $\gamma i \gamma v o \mu \alpha i$ is commonly used to supply the forms that $\varepsilon i \mu i$ does not have. With πρό προαιρέομαι προοράω TO PREFER TO FORESEE προδίδωμι TO BETRAY προχωρέω TO GO FORWARD

προέρχομαι

TO ADVANCE

THE VERBAL SYSTEM 193

With πρός			
προσβάλλω	TO ATTACK (+ Dat.)	προσδοκεῖ	(impersonal) to seem well moreover
προσδέχομαι	TO ACCEPT, TO EXPECT		• τοῦτο προσδοκεῖ μοι
προσδοκάω	TO EXPECT		Moreover this seems well to me.
προσέχω	TO APPLY		
	\diamond Commonly used in the idiom $\tau \grave{o} v v \~{o} \~{v} v$	προσέχω ΤΟ PAY A	TTENTION.
προσήκει	(impersonal) TO BE APPROPRIATE, TO INTERES	st (+ Dat.)	
	• τοῦτο οὐ προσήκει τῷ διδασκάλῷ This	IS NOT APPROPRIATE T	O THE TEACHER.
προσπίπτω	TO FALL UPON, TO ATTACK (+ Dat.)	προστάττω	TO ASSIGN
προσποιέομαι	TO PRETEND	προστίθημι	TO ADD
With σύν			
συγγιγνώσκω	TO FORGIVE	συγγράφω	TO COMPILE
	(+ Dat. of the person forgiven)	συλλαμβάνω	TO APPREHEND
συλλέγω	TO GATHER, TO COLLECT Although a compound of the verb λέγο same applies with respect to the other to		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
συμβαίνει	(impersonal) TO HAPPEN, TO BE THERE	συνδειπνέω	TO HAVE DINNER WITH
συμβαίνω	TO COME TO TERMS WITH (+ Dat.)	συνέρχομαι	TO GATHER, TO CELEBRATE A MEETING
συμβουλεύω	TO DECIDE IN COUNCIL	συνίημι	TO UNDERSTAND
συμφέρει	(impersonal) TO INTEREST,	σύνοιδα	TO SHARE IN KNOWLEDGE
	TO BE OF ADVANTAGE TO (+ Dat.)	συντάττω	TO ARRANGE
	 τοῦτο οὐ συμφέρει μοι This does not interest me. 	συντίθημι	TO AGREE WITH (+ Dat.)
□ With ὑπέρ			
ύπερβαίνω	TO TRESPASS	ύπεροράω	TO LOOK DOWN ON, TO OVERLOOK
□ With ὑπό			
ὑπακούω	TO OBEY (+ Dat.)	ὑπολαμβάν ω	TO ANSWER
ὑπάρ χω	TO BE AVAILABLE	ύποπτεύω	TO SUSPECT
ὑπισχνέομαι	TO PROMISE		

a) Use of cases

- 1. General observations
- 2. Nominative
- 3. Vocative
- 4. Accusative
- 5. Genitive
- 6. Dative

b) Prepositions

- 1. General observations
- 2. Prepositions of one case
- 3. Prepositions of two cases
- 4. Prepositions of three cases

c) Expressions of time and place

- 1. Expressions of time
- 2. Expressions of place

d) Regime of verbs and adjectives

- 1. General observations
- 2. Verbs that rule genitive or dative
- 3. Adjectives followed by genitive or dative
- 4. Appendix: Adjectives followed by infinitive or participle

a) Use of cases

1. General observations

[216]

In the section on syntactical functions we have already dealt with the basic ones and their distribution among cases; now we will try to examine further possibilities in the use of cases, but unfortunately, the repetition of the main functions is unavoidable.

Nominative and vocative, whose uses are rather simple, do not have complicated subdivisions of functions, but the other three cases do, and the way of classifying their several uses is an open choice: we could list all of the possibilities one by one, we could group these possibilities into common areas and so create several subgroups, etc. But even for some functions it would be very relative to decide whether this function must go within this or that subgroup. We have grouped them in a simple way, avoiding unnecessary theory.

A lot of times genitive and dative have functions very closely related to the ones presented here, so to simplify matters we have avoided presenting an excess of possibilities and we present only the big groups from which the other uses are derivations.

2. Nominative [217]

a/ The most common use is as subject:

• ὁ ἄνθρωπος καθεύδει The man is sleeping.

• οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι ἠπείγοντο πρὸς τὸν ᾿Ασσίναρον ποταμόν The Athenians hurried towards the river Assinaros (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

b/ The second most common use is the function of predicative object, usually with the verbs εἰμί το βε, καθίσταμαι το βε ΑΡΡΟΙΝΤΕΟ, ΤΟ ΒΕCOME, ΤΟ FALL INTO A CERTAIN STATE, γίγνομαι το βΕCOME, πέφυκα το βΕ ΒΥ NATURE, and similar ones:

• \dot{o} $\pi \alpha \tilde{i} \varsigma$ $\dot{\alpha} \gamma \alpha \theta \dot{o} \varsigma$ $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau i v$ The child is good.

Έλληνές ἐσμεν
 We are Greek men (Sophocles, Philoctetes).

• ὁ Δικαιόπολις στρατηγὸς κατέστη Dikalopolis was appointed general.

• οἱ στρατιῶται οὐδέποτε δειλοὶ πεφύκασιν The soldiers are never cowardly by nature.

• ἡ Δάφνη **βασίλεια** γενήσεται Daphne will become queen.

• ἀγωνοθέται δ' οἱ θεοἱ εἰσιν The gods are the referees (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

c/ Sometimes we can find the nominative where we would expect a vocative:

• ὧ παῖς, δεῦρο ἐλθέ Βογ, come here!

d/ And we will find it instead of the vocative in those pronouns that do not have vocative:

• οὖτος, διὰ τί τοῦτο ποιεῖς; You there, why are you doing this?

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3. Vocative [218]

Usually preceded by the word $\tilde{\omega}$, the function of the vocative is to address somebody directly (but see what is said on the nominative about it):

- ὧ παῖ, δεῦρο ἐλθέ ΒοΥ, COME HERE!
 - ♦ But compare with the same example above: *nominative* instead of vocative.
- ὧ Σώκρατες, ἔφη, ἐγρήγορας ἢ καθεύδεις;
 O Socrates, He said, are you awake or are you sleeping?
 (Plato, Protagoras).

4. Accusative [219]

a) Accusative direct object

1/ Main function:

The main function is that of direct object of a transitive verb:

• ὁ διδάσκαλος τοὺς μαθητὰς ὁρᾳ The teacher sees the students.

• τοὺς πολεμίους οὐ φιλῶ Ι DO NOT LOVE THE ENEMY.

- πέμπουσιν οὕτω τὴν Σαλαμινίαν ναῦν So, they send the ship "Salaminia" (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- ἐνίοτε τὰς σπονδὰς μᾶλλον ἐφοβούμην ἢ νῦν τὸν πόλεμον Sometimes I feared the truce more than the war now (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

2/ Double accusative: [220]

a/ Several verbs have a direct object, but some verbs, apart from a direct object, have also a *predicative object*, which could be considered the attribute of the direct one. Observe this sentence:

I REGARD SOCRATES AS GOOD.

Socrates is the direct object, it is what (or whom) I consider, but *GOOD* is what I consider him to be. The direct object would be in accusative, and the predicative must be in the same case as the object to which it refers:

• νομίζω τὸν Σωκράτη ἀγαθόν I regard Socrates as good.

More examples:

- οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι τὸν Περικλέα στρατηγὸν εἴλοντο The Athenians elected Pericles general.
- οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι τὸν Περικλέα στρατηγὸν κατέστησαν ΤΗΕ ΑΤΗΕΝΙΑΝS APPOINTED PERICLES GENERAL.

Other verbs that use the same construction:

καλέωΤΟ CALL SOMEBODY SOMETHINGὀνομάζωΤΟ NAME SOMEBODY SOMETHING

ποιέω το make somebody something (sad, for instance)

b/ Slightly related with this, some verbs have a direct object in the accusative and another object which would be indirect to us but which is expressed also in the accusative in Greek. For instance, with the verb TO TEACH:

I TEACH PHILOSOPHY TO THE CHILDREN.

PHILOSOPHY is what I teach, and therefore will be in the accusative, but TO THE CHILDREN, which sounds to us to be an indirect object (and therefore we would have the tendency to express it in the dative), will in fact also be in the accusative:

• διδάσκω φιλοσοφίαν τοὺς παῖδας Ι TEACH PHILOSOPHY TO THE CHILDREN.

Other verbs that use the same construction:

αἰτέωTO REQUEST SOMETHING FROM SOMEBODYἀναμιμνήσκωTO REMIND SOMEBODY ABOUT SOMETHINGἀφαιρέωTO TAKE SOMETHING AWAY FROM SOMEBODY

ἐρωτάωTO ASK SOMEBODY SOMETHINGκρύπτωTO HIDE SOMETHING FROM SOMEBODYστερέωTO DEPRIVE SOMEBODY OF SOMETHING

• τὸν φίλον βίβλον αἰτῷ Ι ASK MY FRIEND FOR A BOOK.

• τοὺς πολεμίους τὰ ὅπλα ἔκρυψα I hid the weapons from the enemies.

• πολλὰ ἐρωτήματα τὸν διδάσκαλον οἱ μαθηταὶ ἀεὶ ἐρωτῶσιν The disciples always ask many questions to the teacher.

c/ Some judicial verbs have also two accusatives – one of the person being accused and one of the accusation itself:

• ὁ Περικλῆς γράφεται τὸν ἀδελφὸν γραφήν Pericles writes an accusation against his brother.

b) Circumstantial accusative

[221]

Several uses come under this heading. The main ones are:

1/ Accusative of extension:

The time through which an action takes place is expressed in accusative, without any preposition. It is called *accusative* of extension in time. In English we could add DURING or FOR:

• οἱ στρατιῶται ἐπολέμουν πέντε ἡμέρας The soldiers fought (for) five days.

• ἐπὶ δὲ τὰ ὅπλα πολλοὶ οὐκ ἦλθον ταύτην τὴν νύκτα During that night many did not attend to their military duties (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Also the distance along which an action takes place is expressed in accusative, without any preposition. It is called accusative of extension in space:

- οἱ παῖδες ἐβάδιζον πολλὰ στάδια The children walked many stades.
- ἡ πόλις ἀπέχει μόνον τέτταρα στάδια The city is only four stades away.
 - ♦ The accusative is also used to express how far away something is.

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Note

Do not confuse a direct object with an accusative of extension (both will be in accusative without preposition):

• οἱ στρατιῶται τὰ ὅπλα (dir. ob.) πολλὰ στάδια (acc. ext.) ἔφερον The soldiers carried the weapons many stades.

2/ Accusative of respect:

Sometimes the accusative, instead of being the direct object of the verb, specifies with respect to what the action of the verb takes place. For instance:

- ἀλγῷ τὴν κεφαλήν ΙΑΜ ILL "WITH RESPECT TO THE HEAD" = I HAVE A HEADACHE.
- ὁ Σωκράτης ἔμπειρος ἦν τὴν οἰκοδομίαν
 Socrates was experienced "with respect to construction" = Socrates
 was an experienced constructor, Socrates was experienced in construction, etc.

In fact, the use of an infinitive after some adjectives is related with this, it is just the omission of the article $\tau \dot{o}$:

• ὁ Περικλῆς δεινός ἐστι λέγειν καὶ οἱ λόγοι αὐτοῦ ἡδεῖς εἰσιν ἀκούειν = ὁ Περικλῆς δεινός ἐστι τὸ λέγειν καὶ οἱ λόγοι αὐτοῦ ἡδεῖς εἰσι τὸ ἀκούειν Pericles is clever at speaking and his words are pleasant to hear.

Other examples of accusative of respect (in all of these examples, the article could be absent):

τὴν φύσιν ἀγαθός εἰμι Ι ΑΜ GOOD BY NATURE.
 Σπαρτιάτης εἰμὶ τὸ γένος Ι ΑΜ SPARTAN BY BIRTH.

τυφλὸς τά τ' ὧτα τόν τε νοῦν τά τ' ὄμματ' εἶ
 You Al (Sophocles, *Oedipus Tyrannus*).

You are blind in your ears, in your mind and in your eyes

[222]

• ὁ Νεῖλος πέντε σταδίων ἐστὶ τὸ εὖρος

THE NILE IS FIVE STADES WIDE ("WITH RESPECT TO WIDTH").

♦ Observe that the number is in genitive.

3/ Adverbial accusative: [223]

The neuter accusative of some nouns and adjectives is sometimes used in an adverbial sense, and in fact all of these accusatives could be considered accusatives of respect:

τοῦτον τὸν χρόνον τὸ πρῶτον IN THE FIRST PLACE IN THIS TIME τοῦτον τὸν τρόπον IN THIS WAY τὸ πρότερον BEFORE τὸ ἐναντίον ON THE OPPOSITE τέλος **FINALLY** οὐδέν τὸ τελευταῖον IN NO WAY, NOT AT ALL **FINALLY**

τὰ ἄλλα AS TO THE REST τὸ λοιπὸν (χρόνον) FOR THE REMAINING TIME

4/ Exclamative accusative:

Usually accompanied by the particles $\mu \dot{\alpha}$ and $v \dot{\eta}$ (sometimes $\mu \dot{\alpha}$ may have a negative meaning):

- νὴ τὸν Δία ΒΥ ΖΕυς!
- καὶ ὁ Σόλων "μὰ Δία" εἶπεν And Solon said "No, by Zeus!" (Plutarch, Solon).

5. Genitive [224]

a) Genitive of relation

1/ Main function:

The main function of the genitive is to indicate the relationship of possession:

- ὁρῶ τὴν τοῦ διδασκάλου οἰκίαν I see the teacher's house.
- ἀνίσταται καὶ συγκαλεῖ τοὺς **Προξένου** πρῶτον λοχάγους He gets up and first of all he calls Proxenos' officers (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Position of the genitive:

Usually, the possessive genitive is placed between the article and the noun (THE OF THE TEACHER HOUSE INSTEAD OF THE HOUSE OF THE TEACHER), but the position of the genitive may also be outside the article + noun as long as the article is repeated in whichever form it is. Observe:

- ἔχω τοὺς τοῦ δούλου ἵππους = ἔχω τοὺς ἵππους τοὺς τοῦ δούλου Ι HAVE THE SLAVE'S HORSES.
- φέρω ἐπιστολὴν τῷ τοῦ διδασκάλου δούλῳ = φέρω ἐπιστολὴν τῷ δούλῳ τῷ τοῦ διδασκάλου Ι CARRY A LETTER FOR THE TEACHER'S SLAVE.

Note: Observe that in these two last examples English uses only one article, but Greek will usually need two: one for the possessor and one for the genitive, as in fact the slave's horses means the horses of the slave. So, even if this way of expressing possession in English may sound similar to the Greek way of putting the genitive in the middle, English skips an article that Greek must have.

2/ Objective and subjective genitive:

[225]

Let's imagine this sentence: The FEAR OF THE ENEMY. If the enemies feel fear, the genitive OF THE ENEMY is called the *subjective genitive* (because the enemy are the *subject* who fears), and the genitive is written as usual, between the article and the noun:

ὁ τῶν πολεμίων φόβος οr ὁ φόβος ὁ τῶν πολεμίων

But if it means somebody else's fear towards the enemies, it is called the *objective genitive* (because the enemy are the *object* which somebody fears), and the genitive is written outside the group *article + noun*:

• ὁ φόβος τῶν πολεμίων

3/ Genitive of description:

In some cases the genitive may indicate, with respect to another word, a relationship that English may translate by OF, as in the possessive genitive, but in fact it does not indicate a relationship of possession (the same happens in English, in fact):

- ὁδὸς πέντε ἡμερῶν
 A WAY OF FIVE DAYS (FIVE DAYS LONG)
- ἄνθρωπος πολλῆς σοφίας A MAN OF MUCH WISDOM

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b) Circumstantial genitive

[226]

1/ Partitive genitive:

Obviously, it indicates the part out of a larger amount:

• ὀλίγοι μὲν ἀὐτῶν ... σίτου ἐγεύσαντο Few of them ... tasted any food (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

- \diamond σίτου is in fact also a partitive genitive: some verbs rule this case (see the corresponding chapter).
- μικρὸν ὕπνου λαχὼν εἶδεν ὄναρ Having achieved to sleep a little ("Having got a little of sleep"), he saw a dream (Xenophon, Anabasis).

Concerning the rule of including the genitive between article and noun, let's remember that this parenthetical construction is used when we wish to express possession, as in oi $\tau o \tilde{v}$ $\delta \iota \delta \alpha \sigma \kappa \acute{a} \lambda o v \pi \tilde{\alpha} \delta \epsilon \varsigma$ The TEACHER'S CHILDREN, but when we use the genitive to express a part of something (the so called *partitive genitive*), we do not put it into the middle but leave it "outside", as in these examples:

- οἱ ἀγαθοὶ τῶν ᾿Αθηναίων τοὺς μαθητὰς διδάσκουσιν The good ones of the Athenians (those of the Athenians who are good) teach the students.
- ἐγὼ ἀεὶ συμβουλεύω τοῖς σοφοῖς τῶν συμμάχων

 I Always consult with the wise ones of the allies (with those of the allies who are wise).

If, for instance, we had left the genitive "inside" in the last example, ἐγὼ ἀεὶ συμβουλεύω τοῖς τῶν συμμάχων σοφοῖς, it would have meant ... with the wise ones that belong to the allies, as if the wise ones were not part of them, but some property (prisoners, hired teachers, etc.), rather than ... with those of the allies who are wise.

This construction is also common with numbers, when we want to say for instance FIVE OF THE SOLDIERS instead of FIVE SOLDIERS:

• πέντε στρατιῶται five soldiers \neq πέντε τῶν στρατιωτῶν five of the soldiers (from a larger group).

2/ Judicial genitive: [227]

Many judicial verbs compounded with the prepositional suffix $\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha$ - use the genitive for the person, creating in fact an effect contrary to what would be expected by an English speaker:

- - \diamond Observe that HIM is in genitive, while OF MURDER is in accusative, in spite of the OF).
- καταγιγνώσκω αὐτοῦ θάνατον I condemn him to death (in this case, what is in accusative is the penalty).
- οἱ δ' Ἀθηναῖοι ... κατέγνωσαν αὐτοῦ τε καὶ τῶν μετ' ἐκείνου And the Athenians condemned him to death and those with him (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

BUT: verbs not compounded with the suffix $\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha$ - behave in the expected way:

- διώκω αὐτὸν κλοπῆς Γ I prosecute him (accusative) for theft (genitive).
- ζημιῶ αὐτὸν θανάτῷ Ι PUNISH HIM (accusative) WITH DEATH (dative).

3/ Exclamatory genitive:

Either in positive or in negative sense, and usually preceded by some exclamatory word:

• φεῦ τῆς μωρίας Alas, what stupidity!

φεῦ, τῆς ἀνοίας
 Alas, what foolishness (Sophocles, Electra).

• ὧ τῆς καλῆς ἑορτῆς What a nice festival!

• οἴμοι τῆς κακῆς τυχῆς What bad luck!

4/ Genitive of price:

It is used to express the value of something, in fact it can be considered a derivative use of the genitive of description:

• βίβλος πέντε δραχμῶν A BOOK OF FIVE DRACHMAS

6. Dative [228]

a) Dative indirect object

1/ Main function:

The main function of the dative is the role of indirect object:

- τὰς βίβλους τῷ Περικλεῖ δίδωμι Ι GIVE THE BOOKS TO PERICLES.
- ἐγὼ δέ σοι λέγω, ὅτι ...
 I TELL YOU THAT ... (Demosthenes, De Corona).
- ἐπεὶ δὲ πάλιν ἦλθε, λέγει τὴν μαντείαν τῷ Σωκράτει When he came back, he told the prophecy to Socrates (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

2/ Possessive dative:

To express possession, apart from using the verb $\xi \chi \omega$, there is another way. The sentence

can also be expressed using the verb $\epsilon i \mu i + dative$. The possessed object becomes the subject of the sentence (and therefore it must be in nominative) and the possessor is put in dative:

- τῷ διδασκάλῳ πέντε βίβλοι εἰσίν The teacher has five books.
 - ♦ Literally it means For the Teacher There are five BOOKS.
- ἐν Τροία δέ μοι πολλοὶ μὲν ἐχθροί Ιη Τκογ Ι ΗΑΝΕ ΜΑΝΥ ΕΝΕΜΙΕΣ (Sophocles, Aiax). ♦ Verb εἰμί elliptic.

So, I had a house can be said in these two ways:

- οἰκίαν είχον or έμοὶ οἰκία ην.
 - ♦ With the second option meaning literally For ME THERE WAS A HOUSE.

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Another verb that can be used in this sense, with the same meaning, is $\dot{v}\pi\dot{a}\rho\chi\epsilon\iota$:

• πολλαὶ βίβλοι ὑπάρχουσι τοῖς μαθηταῖς The students have many books.

Note: To translate a construction of possessive dative as if it were a genitive is a common mistake; the first Greek example could have been translated by mistake. The five BOOKS ARE THE TEACHER'S, which is not what is meant in the Greek sentence.

3/ Dative of interest: [229]

It points out the person who is benefited by an action:

As can be seen, the translation is practically equal to that of an indirect object.

• διαβεβηκόσι δὲ αὐτοῖς πάλιν φαίνεται Μιθραδάτης When they had crossed ("To them who had crossed"), Mithradates appeared again (Xenophon, Anabasis).

4/ Ethic dative:

A derivation of the previous use: the person in dative is emotionally affected by the action of the verb, either positively or negatively:

• ὁ πατήρ μοι ἀπέθανεν could be translated by My FATHER HAS DIED.

but this $\mu o \iota$ emphasises the emotional involvement, in this case obviously negative, so a possible translation could be Poor ME, MY FATHER HAS DIED, or I HAVE BEEN LEFT WITHOUT FATHER.

Another example:

• οἱ πολέμιοι ἡμῖν ἀπεληλύθασιν could be translated by The ENEMY HAS GONE.

but to reflect the emotional involvement of this $\dot{\eta}\mu\tilde{\iota}\nu$, in this case obviously positive, we could say for instance We have got rid of the enemy. The enemy have left us in peace.

- ἐπειδὴ δέ μοι ἡ μήτηρ ἐτελεύτησεν, ... When my mother died, ... (Lysias, *Death of Eratosthenes*).
- ὧ δύσθεον μίσημα, **σο**ὶ **μόνη** πατὴρ τέθνηκεν; Ο impious one, are you the only one who has lost the father? (Sophocles, *Electra*).

b) Circumstantial dative

[230]

1/ Instrumental dative:

It tells us the instrument with which some action is performed:

• γράφω **καλάμω** I write with a pen.

• ὁ Σωκράτης λόγοις διδάσκει Socrates teaches with (by means of) words.

• ἐσήμηνε τοῖς Ἔλλησι τῆ σάλπιγγι He gave a signal to the Greeks with the trumpet (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

• ἀκοδόμητο δὲ πλίνθοις κεραμεσῖς IT HAD BEEN BUILT WITH CLAY BRICKS (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

As can be seen, the preposition with is not used in Greek if it means the *instrument* with which we do something, but if with means *company* we will use $\mu \epsilon \tau \dot{\alpha} + genitive$ or $\sigma \dot{\nu} v + dative$:

• οἰκῶ ἐν τῆ οἰκίᾳ σὸν τοῖς φίλοις / μετὰ τῶν φίλων Live in the house with my friends.

BUT: Some verbs use the dative directly without any preposition to mean company:

ἀμφισβητῶ τοῖς διδασκάλοις
 Ι discuss with the teachers.
 διαλεγόμεθα τοῖς πολίταις
 We converse with the citizens.

• ἐξηλάσαμεν πᾶσι τοῖς στρατιώταις WE ADVANCED WITH ALL OF THE SOLDIERS.

2/ Causal dative:

There are several ways of expressing cause in Greek, and one of them is by means of the dative:

• φόβω τοῦτο ἐποίησα I DID THIS BECAUSE OF FEAR.

• πολλοὶ τῆ νόσφ τὴν πόλιν καταλείπουσιν Many are leaving the city because of the illness.

3/ Agent dative: [231]

In the passive voice, the agent object, the person by whom an action is performed (The BOOK WAS WRITTEN BY THE POET), is expressed in Greek by the preposition $\dot{v}\pi\dot{o}$ + genitive:

• $\dot{\eta}$ βίβλος ἐγρά $\dot{\eta}$ $\dot{\eta}$ $\dot{\eta}$ τοῦ ποιητοῦ ΤΗΕ ΒΟΟΚ WAS WRITTEN BY THE POET.

Nevertheless, if what causes the action is not a person, the *dative* is used, in its instrumental sense, but if it is personified then $\dot{v}\pi\dot{o}$ with the genitive may be used:

ἡ γέφυρα τῆ θυέλλη διεφθάρη
 ὁ ἐμὸς βίος διαφθείρεται ὑπὸ τοῦ φθόνου
 ΜΥ LIFE IS BEING DESTROYED BY ENVY.

If the perfect and pluperfect tenses are used, the agent is in the dative without a preposition, even if it is a person:

• ἡ βίβλος γέγραπται τῷ ποιητῆ • πολλοὶ πολέμιοι ἐμοὶ βεβλαμμένοι εἰσίν Μανν enemies have been wounded by me.

• ταῦτα τοίνυν ἄπαντα πέπρακται τοῖς ἐμοῖς ψηφίσμασι All of this has been done by my decrees (Demosthenes, *De Corona*).

But if there is any possibility of confusion, like in

• τοῦτο ἐμοὶ πεποίηται either This has been done for me (dative of indirect object)

or This has been done by Me (agent dative)

then we can keep the usual system of $\dot{\upsilon}\pi\dot{o}$ + genitive even if the main verb is a perfect:

• τοῦτο ὑπὸ ἐμοῦ πεποίηται This has been done by Me.

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4/ Adverbial dative: [232]

As happens with the accusative, some datives have become fixed expressions:

ίδία καὶ δημοσία PRIVATELY AND PUBLICLY ♦ These two adjectives/adverbs can be found also separately. ♦ This could almost be considered an instrumental dative. βία BY FORCE τῶ ὄντι IN FACT πολλῷ ὕστερον \diamondsuit LATER BY MUCH: this $\pi o \lambda \lambda \tilde{\omega}$ is also called dative of intensity. MUCH LATER τῷ ἔργῷ IN FACT ♦ This could be considered an instrumental dative. δίκη WITH JUSTICE κοινῆ IN COMMON πεζῆ ON FOOT

5/ Dative of manner:

It expresses the way in which something happens:

- πολλῷ θορύβῳ εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν εἰσῆλθον They went into the house with much uproar.
- λέγω σ' ἐγὼ δόλῳ Φιλοκτήτην λαβεῖν Ιτειι you to get Philoctetes through deceit (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).
- ταύτην βασιλεὺς Περσῶν ... οὐδενὶ τρόπῳ ἐδύνατο ἑλεῖν ΤΗΕ KING OF THE PERSIANS COULD NOT TAKE IT IN ANY WAY (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

6/ Dative of reference: [233]

It indicates the person with respect to whom an assessment makes sense:

- ὁ Περικλῆς τοῖς πολίταις ἀγαθὸς ἄρχων ἐστίν Pericles is a good ruler, according to the citizens' opinion.
- \diamond It could be argued that $\tilde{\tau o i g} \pi o \lambda i \tau \omega g$ is a dative of interest: Pericles is a good ruler for the citizens.
- οὐ γάρ τί μοι Ζεὺς ἦν ὁ κηρύξας τάδε
 For me, the one who made this announcement was not Zeus (Sophocles, Antigone).

It may also indicate some aspect with respect to which an assessment is made:

'Απολλωνίδης τις ἦν βοιωτιάζων τῆ φωνῆ There was a certain Apollonides who talked in Boeotian
 (... "using Boeotian with respect to the language") (Xenophon, Anabasis).

7/ Dative of measure or intensity:

The degree of difference (usually after a comparative or a superlative) is expressed by means of the dative:

- \dot{o} Σωκράτης πολλῷ σοφώτερός ἐστιν Socrates is much wiser (... "wiser by much").
- οὖτος σοφώτατός ἐστι πολλῷ This one is the wisest one by far.
- ὁ Σωκράτης τοσούτῳ σοφώτερός ἐστιν ὥστε οὐδεὶς αὐτὸν νικᾳ Socrates is so much wiser that nobody defeats him (... "wiser by so much that...").

It can be used with adverbs, but also in a comparative sense:

• τοσούτω χρόνω ὕστερον so Long After \diamond Moreover, here it is accompanying a noun.

b) Prepositions

1. General observations

[234]

In Greek, cases alone cannot convey certain meanings, and so some phrases must be constructed with prepositions. The cases that are used with prepositions are *accusative*, *genitive* and dative. Some prepositions take multiple cases, and the meaning is different according to which one they use. Furthermore, a preposition may have more than one meaning for each case. For instance, the preposition $\dot{v}\pi\dot{\epsilon}\rho$, when used with a genitive, may mean both ABOVE and ON BEHALF OF. The context will make this clear.

Note: When using prepositions of more than two syllables, it is frequently positioned after the word it rules; however, this causes the accent to shift backwards:

- ... τοῦδε πράγματος πέρι ... concerning this matter (Sophocles, Ajax).
 - \diamondsuit Instead of **περὶ** τοῦδε (τοῦ) πράγματος.

2. Prepositions of one case

a) Prepositions ἀνά and εἰς

[235]

These two prepositions can only be followed by the *accusative case*.

🔲 ἀνά

Its basic meaning is UPWARDS:

- ἀνὰ τὴν ὁδὸν βαίνομεν WE GO UP THE ROAD.
- τούτους δὲ ἔφασαν οἰκεῖν ἀνὰ τὰ ὄρη They said that these people lived up the mountain (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

But it may also have the temporal meaning of DURING:

• ἀνὰ πᾶσαν τὴν νύκτα DURING THE WHOLE NIGHT

• ἀνὰ πόλιν THROUGH THE CITY (meaning SCATTERED THROUGHOUT THE CITY)

• ἀνὰ κράτος WITH ALL OF ONE'S STRENGTH

ἀνὰ ῥοῦν AGAINST THE STREAM

 \square $\epsilon i \varsigma$ [236]

Its basic meaning is INTO:

• εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν ἦλθεν Ηε WENT INTO THE HOUSE.

• είς τὴν θάλατταν κατεδίωκον τοὺς πολεμίους | I pursued the enemy into the sea (Xenophon, Hellenica).

206 Prepositions

But it may also have the temporal and figurative meaning of AROUND:

• εἰς νύκτα AROUND NIGHT • εἰς πεντήκοντα AROUND FIFTY

Or just towards:

• καὶ ἄμα εἰς τὸν Ἰππίαν ἀπέβλεψεν And at the same time he deviated his eyes towards Hippias (Plato, Protagoras).

• εἰς κενόν IN VAIN • εἰς τέλος AT THE END

• εἰς κιδου INTO HADES (elision of τὴν οἰκίαν) • εἰς δύναμιν ACCORDING TO ONE'S CAPABILITIES

εἰς ἀΐδιον
 εἰς ἡμᾶς
 in our time
 εἰς φόβον
 in order to produce fear
 οὐκ εἰς μακράν
 soon

• ἔτος εἰς ἔτος YEAR AFTER YEAR

b) Prepositions ἀντί, ἀπό, ἐκ, πρό

[237]

These four prepositions can only be followed by the *genitive case*.

🔲 ἀντί

It has two basic meanings; INSTEAD OF and IN FRONT OF (note that, despite what it may seem at first, it does not mean AGAINST):

• ἀντὶ τοῦ πατρὸς ἦλθον ἐγώ I have come instead of my father. • ὁ στρατηγὸς ἀντί μου ἔστη The general stood in front of me.

ἀντὶ οὖ; WHY?

 \Box $\dot{\alpha}\pi\dot{\alpha}$ [238]

Its basic meaning is FROM, AWAY FROM, both in local and temporal meaning:

• ἀπὸ τῆς οἰκίας ἀποβαίνω Ι ΜΟΥΕ AWAY FROM THE HOUSE.

• ἀπὸ ἐκείνου τοῦ ἔτους FROM THAT YEAR ON

• ἀπῆλθεν εἰς Ἔφεσον, ἣ ἀπέχει ἀπὸ Σάρδεων τριῶν ἡμερῶν ὁδόν ΗΕ DEPARTED TO EPHESUS, WHICH IS A THREE-DAY JOURNEY AWAY FROM SARDIS (Xenophon, Hellenica).

• οἱ ἀπὸ Περικλέους	Pericles' descendants	• ἀπὸ τούτου	BECAUSE OF THIS
• οἱ ἀπὸ αἵματος	THE RELATIVES	• ἀπὸ δείπνου	AFTER DINNER
• ἀπὸ ἀληθείας	TRULY, REALLY	• ἀπὸ ἵππου	ON HORSEBACK

• ἀπὸ σπουδῆς	IN EARNEST	• ἀπὸ ῥυτῆρος	WITH LOOSE REIN
• ἀπὸ τοῦ ἴσου	ON EQUAL TERMS	• ἀπὸ ἄρτι	SINCE RECENTLY
• ἀπὸ τοῦ προφανοῦς	OPENLY	• ἀπὸ ἐμαυτοῦ	MOTU PROPRIO
• ἀπὸ τοῦ αὐτομάτου	SPONTANEOUSLY	• ἀπὸ συμβάσεως	ON AGREEMENT
• ἀπὸ τοῦ φρονίμου	PRUDENTLY		

 \square $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\mathrm{K}}(\dot{\varepsilon}_{\mathrm{S}})$ [239]

Its basic meaning is out of and from:

• ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας ἐκβαίνω Ι AM GOING OUT OF THE HOUSE.

ἐξ ἀρχῆς
 FROM THE BEGINNING

• ἔφυγεν ἐκ Σπάρτης He fled from Sparta (Xenophon, Hellenica).

• ἐκ τῶν δὲ πρώτων ἄρξομαι λέγειν Ι WILL BEGIN TO EXPLAIN FROM THE BEGINNING (Euripides, Medea).

• ἐκ τούτων	BECAUSE OF THESE THINGS	• ἐκ τοῦ ἀδίκου	UNJUSTLY
• ἐξ ἀγχιμόλου	FROM NEARBY	• ἐκ χειρός	AT CLOSE QUARTERS
• ἐκ τοῦ ἀκινδύνου	OUT OF DANGER	• κακὸς ἐκ κακοῦ	DISGRACE AFTER DISGRACE
• ἐξ ἀκοῆς	BY HEARSAY	• ἐκ τῶν ἐνδεχομένων	ACCORDING TO THE POSSIBILITIES
• έξ ἀπροσδοκήτου	UNEXPECTEDLY	• ἐκ τῶν ἐνόντων	ACCORDING TO THE POSSIBILITIES
• ἐκ τοῦ ἀφανοῦς	SECRETLY	• ἐκ τῶν ὁμολογέων	ACCORDING TO THE AGREEMENTS
• ἐκ βίας	BY FORCE	• ἐξ ἐπιβουλῆς	WITH PREMEDITATION
• ἐξ ἀνάγκης	BY FORCE	• ἐκ τοῦ ἀδίκου	UNJUSTLY
• ἐκ παιδός	FROM CHILDHOOD	• ἐξἴσου	ON EQUAL TERMS
• ἐκ δημοσίου	AT PUBLIC EXPENSE	• ἐξ οὐδενὸς λόγου	WITHOUT ANY REASON
• ἐκ τοῦ δικαίου	WITH JUSTICE	• ἐξ ἀέλπτου	SUDDENLY
• ἐκ τοῦ	FROM THEN	• ἐκ συνθέτου	ACCORDING TO THE TREATY

 \square $\pi\rho\dot{o}$ [240]

Its basic meaning is BEFORE, IN FRONT OF:

- $\pi\rho\grave{o}$ $\tau\~{\eta}\varsigma$ $\pi\acute{o}\lambda\epsilon\omega\varsigma$ Before the city, in front of the city
- πρὸ τῆς ἐκκλησίας BEFORE THE ASSEMBLY \diamondsuit Both temporal and local meaning.
- τότε μὲν κατέφυγεν εἰς Αἴγιναν μικρὸν πρὸ ἡλίου δυσμῶν ΤΗΕΝ ΗΕ FLED ΤΟ AEGINA A LITTLE BEFORE SUNSET (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- ἄμα τῆ ἡμέρᾳ ἐθύετο μὲν πρὸ τοῦ στρατεύματος ΑΤ DAYBREAK HE MADE A SACRIFICE IN FRONT OF THE ARMY (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

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c) Prepositions ἐν and σύν

[241]

Both must be followed by a dative.

🛘 ἐν

Its basic meaning is IN, AMONG:

ἐν ταῖς Ἀθήναις οἰκῶ I Live in Athens.
 ἐν ἐκείνῳ τῷ ἔτει In that year

- ὅταν τι λέγω ἐν τῆ ἐκκλησία... Whenever I say something in the assembly... (Plato, Euthyphro).
- πότερόν ἐστιν οἰκεῖν ἄμεινον ἐν πολίταις χρηστοῖς ἢ πονηροῖς; Is it better to live among honest citizens or wicked ones? (Plato, *Apologia*).

• ἐν τούτφIN THE MEANTIME, MEANWHILE• ἐν τῷ φανερῷPUBLICLY• ἐν ἍιδουIN HADES (elision of τῆ οἰκί ϕ)• ἐν κενοῖςIN VAIN

ἐν ἀκινδύνφ OUT OF DANGER
 ἐν τῷ παρόντι IN THE PRESENT MOMENT
 ἐν βραχυτάτφ IN VERY FEW WORDS
 οἱ ἐν τέλει THE GOVERNMENT

• ἐν τῷ ἐμφανεῖ PUBLICLY • ἐν ἡσύχῳ CALMLY

□ σύν

Its basic meaning is with:

• σὺν τοῖς φίλοις παίζω

I PLAY WITH MY FRIENDS.

• Θρασύβουλος δὲ σὺν τριάκοντα ναυσὶν ἐπὶ Θράκης ἄχετο Thrasybulos departed to Thracia with thirty ships (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

In fact this preposition is not used very often. The most normal way in which to express WITH, in the sense of *in the company of*, is to use $\mu \epsilon \tau \dot{\alpha} + genitive$.

• σὺν τοῖς θεοῖς WITH THE GODS' HELP • σὺν ἀφανεῖ λόγφ FOR SOME STRANGE REASON

3. Prepositions of two cases

The prepositions διά, κατά, μετά, ὑπέρ can be followed either by an accusative or by a genitive.

[243]

🛭 διά

4/ With an accusative, it means BECAUSE OF:

• τοῦτο ποιῶ διὰ τὴν ἡμετέραν φιλίαν Ι AM DOING THIS BECAUSE OF OUR FRIENDSHIP.

• Φοινίκη δὲ καὶ Συρία **διὰ τὸν πόλεμον** ἀνάστατοι γεγόνασιν Phoenicia and Syria have been devastated because of the war (Isocrates, *Panegyricus*).

• ἐν πενίᾳ μυρίᾳ εἰμὶ διὰ τὴν τοῦ θεοῦ λατρείαν Ι ΑΜ IN TOTAL POVERTY BECAUSE OF SERVING THE GOD (Plato, *Apologia*).

b/ With a *genitive*, it means THROUGH:

• διὰ τῆς πόλεως τρέχουσιν οἱ παῖδες THE CHILDREN RUN THROUGH THE CITY.

• πεζῆ ἐπορεύετο διὰ τῆς χώρας He advanced through the country on foot (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

□ Some idioms: (all of these with genitive)

• διὰ χρόνου IN THE COURSE OF TIME • διὰ ἀκριβείας WITH EXACTITUDE • διὰ ὀλίγου • διὰ κεφαλαίων SOON IN SUMMARY • οὐ διὰ μακροῦ • διὰ ὀργῆς IN A SHORT TIME **ANGRILY** • διὰ ταχέων • διὰ βραχέως IN A SHORT TIME QUICKLY

• διὰ έλαχίστου • διὰ βραχέων IN A FEW WORDS IN THE SHORTEST POSSIBLE TIME

• διὰ βραχυτάτων • διὰ κενῆς IN VERY FEW WORDS IN VAIN

• διὰ παντός • διὰ μακρῶν **ALWAYS** FOR A LONG TIME • διὰ πλείστου

🛘 κατά [244]

This preposition is considered to be the opposite of $\dot{\alpha}v\dot{\alpha}$, as its basic meaning is downwards, but there are many different idiomatic expressions that use this preposition (moreover $\dot{\alpha}v\dot{\alpha}$ rules one case, whereas $\kappa\alpha\tau\dot{\alpha}$ rules two).

a/ With an *accusative*, it means downwards:

• κατὰ τὴν ὁδὸν βαίνομεν We are going down the road.

FROM LONG AGO

It may also mean up and down in the sense of around. For example:

- τρέχομεν κατὰ τὴν πόλιν We are running up and down the city.
- ἐν τοιούτοις λόγοις γενόμενοι **κατὰ τὴν ὁδὸν** ἀφικόμεθα πρὸς τὴν οἰκίαν ENTANGLED IN SUCH CONVERSATION on our way, we arrived at the house (Plutarch, Septem Sapientium Convivium).

b/ With a *genitive* it may mean under/BELOW or AGAINST:

• οἱ ἀποθανόντες κατὰ τῆς γῆς οἰκοῦσιν THOSE WHO HAVE DIED GO BELOW THE EARTH.

• κατὰ τῶν πολεμίων λέγω I AM SPEAKING AGAINST THE ENEMY.

• λόγους ύπερηφάνους ὁ Σερτώριος κατὰ τοῦ Πομπηΐου διέσπειρε SERTORIUS UTTERED SOME ARROGANT SPEECHES AGAINST POMPEY (Plutarch, Pompeius).

• κατὰ τοὺς νόμους	ACCORDING TO THE LAWS	• κατὰ δύναμιν	IN THE POSSIBLE MEASURE
• κατὰ αἶσαν	FAIRLY, JUSTLY	• κατὰ τὸ δυνατόν	IN THE POSSIBLE MEASURE
• κατὰ θέρους ἀκμήν	UNDER THE HEAT	• κατὰ ὑπερβολήν	EXCESSIVELY
	OF THE SUMMER	• κατὰ ἐπήρειαν	IMPOLITELY
• κατὰ δίκην	WITH JUSTICE	• κατὰ νῆν	BY LAND

• κατὰ γῆν

BY LAND

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• κατὰ θάλατταν • κατά συντυχίαν BY SEA BY CHANCE • κατὰ ἡσυχίαν • κατὰ νοῦν ἐμοί CALMLY AGREEING WITH MY DESIRES • κατὰ τάχος • κατὰ ὑπερβολήν QUICKLY **EXCESSIVELY** • κατὰ πέντε • ὡς κατὰ ὄμματα IN GROUPS OF FIVE FROM WHAT ONE CAN SEE • κατὰ ἐμαυτόν MY WAY • κατὰ ἐκεῖνον τὸν χρόνον DURING THAT PERIOD • κατὰ ἡμέραν **EVERY DAY** κατὰ ἄκρας (gen. sing.) COMPLETELY, FROM HEAD TO TOE ♦ Usually καθ' ἡμέραν • αὕτη ἡ ἀπόκρισις οὐ κατὰ νοῦν ἐμοί ἐστιν This answer does not satisfy me / is not in accordance with my desire. 🔲 μετά [245] **a/** With an accusative, it means AFTER: • μετὰ ταῦτα AFTER THESE THINGS • μετὰ τὴν μάχην ἔστησαν τρόπαιον AFTER THE BATTLE THEY ERECTED A TROPHY (Plutarch, Timoleon). **b/** With a *genitive*, it means with: • μετὰ τῶν θεῶν οἰκοῦσιν ὅ τε Ἔκτωρ καὶ ὁ ἀχιλλεύς HECTOR AND ACHILLES LIVE AMONG THE GODS. • ἡρέθη κατάσκοπος αὐτὸς μετὰ Θεαγένους ὑπὸ ᾿Αθηναίων HE HIMSELF WAS CHOSEN INSPECTOR BY THE ATHENIANS, WITH THEAGENES (Thucydides, Historiae). • ἀπέπλεον μετὰ τῆς Σαλαμινίας ἐκ τῆς Σικελίας THEY SAILED FROM SICILY WITH THE SALAMINIA [name of a ship] (Thucydides, *Historiae*). □ Some idioms: • μετὰ ἀληθείας TRULY, REALLY • μετὰ ὀλίγον 500Ν • μετὰ λόγου WITH REASON 🔲 ὑπέρ [246] **a/** With an *accusative*, it means further away than, Beyond: • ἐκεῖνοι οἱ ἄνθρωποι οἰκοῦσιν ὑπὲρ τὸν πόταμον THOSE MEN LIVE BEYOND THE RIVER. • εἰσὶ δὲ δῆμος ὑπὲρ τὸν Ταγώνιον ποταμόν These are a people beyond the river Tagus (Plutarch, Sertorius).

b/ With a *genitive*, it may mean ABOVE or ON BEHALF OF:

• οἱ θεοὶ ὑπὲρ τῶν ἀνθρώπων εἰσίν GODS ARE ABOVE MEN.

• οἱ στρατιῶται ὑπὲρ τῆς πατρίδος μάχονται THE SOLDIERS FIGHT ON BEHALF OF THEIR MOTHERLAND.

• νῦν ἥκω παρὰ σέ, ἵνα ὑπὲρ ἐμοῦ διαλεχθῆς αὐτῷ Now I come to you in order that you talk to him in my favour (Plato, Protagoras).

• ταύτην δ' αὖ τὴν ἡμέραν ηὐλίσθησαν ἐν ταῖς κώμαις ταῖς ὑπὲρ τοῦ πεδίου THAT DAY THEY SLEPT IN THE VILLAGES WHICH WERE ABOVE THE PLAIN (Xenophon, Anabasis).

□ An idiom:

• ὑπὲρ δύναμιν BEYOND ONE'S FORCES

4. Prepositions of three cases

The prepositions ἀμφί, ἐπί, παρά, περί, πρός, ὑπό can be followed by the *accusative, genitive or dative cases.* [247]

🔲 ἀμφί

This has the same meaning as $\pi \epsilon \rho i$ (see below).

🗖 ἐπί

This preposition is one of the most complex, as it is used in a lot of idiomatic expressions.

a/ With the *accusative* and with verbs of movement it may mean onto and towards, but with verbs of attacking and similar it means AGAINST:

• ὁ παῖς ἐπὶ τὴν τράπεζαν ἀνέβαινεν The child climbed onto the table ("went up onto the table").

• πλέομεν ἐπὶ τὴν Ἐπίδαμνον We are sailing to Epidamnos.

• οἱ στρατιῶται ἐπὶ τοὺς πολεμίους ἐξέβησαν The soldiers went out against the enemy.

b/ With the *genitive* and with verbs that do not convey movement, it may mean on (meaning *with contact*):

• τὰ χρήματα ἐπὶ τῆς τραπέζης κεῖται ΤΗΕ MONEY IS ON THE TABLE.

Observe the difference:

- τά χρήματα ἐπὶ τὴν τράπεζαν κατέλιπον I LEFT THE MONEY ON THE TABLE.
 - ♦ In this case, we have used the accusative because the verb implies movement.

It may also have a meaning of somewhere in the AREA OF (note that this meaning is similar to that of a partitive genitive):

• ἐς τὰ ἐπὶ Θράκης χωρία βοήθειαν ἦγον They brought help to their positions around Thracia (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

Furthermore, it may mean DURING THE TIME OF and TOWARDS (especially with names of islands):

• ἐπὶ τοῦ Περικλέους IN THE TIME OF PERICLES

ἐπὶ τῆς Κρήτης πλέομεν We sall Towards Crete
 ♦ Very frequent use with names of islands.

c/ With the *dative* case, the main meaning is ON, OVER (English usage may prefer IN, BY or AT to reflect this geographical sense):

- πόλιν ἐπὶ τῆ θαλάττη κειμένην εἴδομεν WE SAW A CITY THAT LIES BY THE SEA.
- ὁ δὲ Καλλικράτιδας ... ἐδειπνοποιεῖτο τῆς Λέσβου ἐπὶ τῆ Μαλέᾳ ἄκρᾳ And Callicratidas ... τοοκ dinner at Cape Malea, in Lesbos (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

 $\mbox{\sc m}$ This preposition has copious meanings, many of which are purely idiomatic and so must be learnt by practice. Some of the most frequent ones are:

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with accusative

• ἐπὶ μακρόν • ἐπὶ πολύ FAR AWAY TO A GREAT EXTENT

• ὅσον ἐπὶ μακρότατον • ἐπὶ δόρυ TO THE RIGHT ("TO THE SPEAR") AS FAR AWAY AS POSSIBLE • ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολύ • ἐπὶ ἀσπίδα TO THE LEFT ("TO THE SHIELD") MOST OF THE TIMES

• ἐπὶ τὸ πλεῖστον • ἐπὶ ἀγχίμολον **NEAR** FOR THE MOST PART

with genitive

 ἐπὶ ἴσης • ἐπὶ ἐμοῦ ΙΝ ΜΥ ΤΙΜΕ **EQUALLY**

• ἐπὶ ξυροῦ ἀκμῆς IN THE CRITICAL POINT

with dative

• ἐπὶ εὐνοία BECAUSE OF BENEVOLENCE • ἐπὶ πόσω; FOR HOW MUCH? • ἐπὶ ἐμοί • ἐπὶ νυκτί IN MY POWER **DURING THE NIGHT** • ἐπὶ τῷ βασιλεῖ IN THE KING'S POWER • τὸ ἐπὶ ἐμοί

WITH RESPECT TO THE THINGS DEPENDING ON ME • έπὶ τούτοις • ἐπὶ τούτοις MOREOVER / ON THESE TERMS / AFTERWARDS **UNDER THESE CONDITIONS**

 ἐπὶ ὧ WITH THE CONDITION THAT

🔲 παρά [248]

a/ With the *accusative*, the basic meaning is ALONG, BY/AT THE SIDE OF:

• οἱ ναῦται πλέουσι παρὰ τὴν νῆσον THE SAILORS ARE SAILING ALONG THE ISLAND.

• ἐκ τούτου παρὰ τὸν ποταμὸν ἐξήλαυνεν From there he marched along the river (Plutarch, *Crassus*).

b/ With the *genitive*, it may mean FROM:

• παρὰ τῶν ἡγεμόνων τοῦτο κελεύω I ORDER THIS IN THE COMMANDERS' NAME ("FROM THE COMMANDERS").

c/ With the *dative*, it may mean AMONG, BY:

- παρὰ τοῖς Λακεδαιμονίοις τοῦτο οὐδέποτε γίγνεται This never happens among the Spartans.
- παρ' ἐκείνω γὰρ ἦν
 For He WAS BY HIM (BY HIS SIDE, during a battle) (Xenophon, Anabasis).

d/ When we use a proper name or a noun denoting a person, the three cases may share the meanings TO THE HOUSE OF, FROM THE HOUSE OF and IN THE HOUSE OF:

• βαίνω παρὰ τὸν στρατηγόν I AM GOING TO THE GENERAL'S HOUSE. • ήκω παρὰ τοῦ στρατηγοῦ I HAVE COME FROM THE GENERAL'S HOUSE. • νῦν εἰμι παρὰ τῷ στρατηγῷ I AM NOW IN THE GENERAL'S HOUSE.

• ἐνεχείρησα εὐθὺς **παρὰ σὲ** ἰέναι I TRIED TO COME TO YOUR HOUSE IMMEDIATELY (Plato, Protagoras).

• καταλύει δ' ... παρὰ Καλλία He is staying at Callias' place (Plato, *Protagoras*).

with accusative with dative

• παρὰ τοὺς νόμους AGAINST THE LAWS • παρὰ ἐμαυτῷ ΑΤ (MY) HOME

♦ The opposite of κατὰ τοὺς νόμους AGAINST ALL HOPE

• παρὰ ἐλπίδα

🗆 περί [249] a/ The use of this preposition with the dative case is extremely unusual and can be disregarded. With the accusative, it has the meaning of AROUND (in all senses - temporal, geographical, etc.): • ἀφικόμην περὶ τὴν ἑσπέραν WE ARRIVED AROUND EVENING. • οἱ παῖδες τρέχουσι περὶ τὴν οἰκίαν THE CHILDREN ARE RUNNING AROUND THE HOUSE. **b/** This preposition can also mean ABOUT, when used with *either* the accusative *or* the genitive: • ὁ Περικλῆς λόγον περὶ τὸν πόλεμον εἶπεν = ὁ Περικλῆς λόγον περὶ τοῦ πολέμου εἶπεν PERICLES MADE A SPEECH ABOUT THE WAR. • τοῦτο μὲν ἔξεστι λέγειν καὶ περὶ ζωγράφων καὶ περὶ τεκτόνων IT IS POSSIBLE TO SAY THIS ALSO ABOUT PAINTERS AND ABOUT BUILDERS (Plato, Protagoras). # Some idioms: • οί περὶ τὸν Σωκράτην SOCRATES' DISCIPLES ♦ Also οἱ ἀμφὶ τὸν Σωκράτην • τιμᾶν τινα περὶ πάντων TO HONOUR SOMEBODY ABOVE EVERYBODY ELSE. 🔲 πρός [250] **a/** With accusative, in all senses (geographical, temporal, etc.) it can be translated as TO, TOWARDS and AGAINST: • πρὸς τὴν οἰκίαν βαίνω I AM GOING TOWARDS THE HOUSE. • πρὸς ἑσπέραν ἀφίκοντο THEY ARRIVED TOWARDS EVENING. • ἦλθες πρὸς ἡμᾶς YOU HAVE COME TO US (Euripides, Medea). • πρός τούς πολεμίους στρατεύομεν WE ARE MARCHING AGAINST THE ENEMY. • μνείαν έποιοῦ πρὸς ἐμὲ ὑπὲρ τοῦ νεανίσκου YOU HAVE MADE SOME MENTION TO ME ON BEHALF OF THIS YOUNG BOY (Plato, Protagoras). **b/** With the genitive, it may mean FROM (as if it were $\dot{\alpha}\pi\dot{o}$, but this use is rare) and BY (ATTHE SIDE OF): • πρὸς τῶν ἡγεμόνων τοῦτο κελεύω I ORDER THIS IN THE COMMANDERS' NAME ("FROM THE COMMANDERS"). • πρὸς τοῦ ποταμοῦ ἐκαθεύδομεν WE WERE SLEEPING BY THE RIVER. **c/** With the dative, it means AT THE SIDE OF (as with the genitive): • πρὸς τῆ κρήνη καθεύδω I AM SLEEPING AT THE SIDE OF THE FOUNTAIN. • ὁ Νικίας ... πρὸς τῆ πόλει ἦν NICIAS WAS AT THE SIDE OF THE CITY (Thucydides, Historiae). with accusative with genitive with dative • πρὸς ῥοῦν • $\pi \rho \grave{o} \varsigma \tau \tilde{\omega} v \theta \epsilon \tilde{\omega} v$ In the gods' name • πρὸς τούτω /τούτοις AGAINST THE FLOW • πρὸς βίαν • οἱ πρὸς αἴματος THE RELATIVES MOREOVER VIOLENTLY • πρὸς τοῦτο WITH RESPECT TO THIS • πρὸς δίκης WITH JUSTICE

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 \Box $\dot{\mathbf{p}}\pi\dot{\mathbf{q}}$

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a/ It is used with the accusative, it means UNDER with a sense of movement:

• ἔρχομαι ὑπὸ τὸ δένδρον I AM GOING UNDER THE TREE.

• κατέκρυψεν ὑπὸ τὸν κέραμον τῆς οἰκίας He hid it under the tiles of the house (Plutarch, Lysander).

b/ It is used with the genitive if it means UNDER in the sense of COVERED BY:

• $\dot{\eta}$ $\dot{\beta}\dot{\beta}\lambda$ oc $\dot{\nu}\pi\dot{o}$ $\dot{\tau}o\tilde{\nu}$ $\dot{\iota}\mu\alpha\tau\dot{\iota}o\nu$ ke $\tilde{\iota}\tau\alpha\iota$ The book is under the cloak.

Of course, its most common use with a genitive is to express the *agent object* in the passive voice:

• ὁ Σωκράτης ὑπὸ τῶν δικαστῶν κατεγνώσθη Socrates was condemned by the judges.

• ταὕτ᾽ ἄρα, ὡς ἔοικεν, μισεῖταί τε ὑπὸ τῶν θεῶν καὶ φιλεῖται It seems that the same things are both hated and loved by the gods (Plato, Euthyphro).

c/ With the dative, it means UNDER in the sense of a lower position (with verbs of state, not of movement):

• ὑπὸ τῷ δένδρῳ καθεύδω I AM SLEEPING UNDER THE TREE.

• φυλαττόμενοι δὲ δραπετεύσουσιν ἀεὶ ὑπὸ ταῖς ἀσπίσιν Protecting themselves they will be continually skulking under their shields (Xenophon, Hellenica).

It also conveys the sense of AT THE BOTTOM OF, AT THE FOOT OF:

• ὑπὸ τῷ πύργῳ ἔμενεν He was waiting at the foot of the tower.

• τὰς δὲ λοιπὰς τῶν νεῶν ... ὑπὸ τῷ τείχει ἀνείλκυσε He drew up the remainder of the ships ... under the wall (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

A related derivative meaning is IN THE POWER OF:

- ή πόλις ὑπὸ τῷ βασιλεῖ ἐστίν The city lies in the king's power 🔷 The equivalent of ἐπὶ τῷ βασιλεῖ.
- νόμιζε τὰς Θήβας παντάπασιν ὑπὸ Λακεδαιμονίοις ... ἔσεσθαι Think that Thebes will be completely under the power of the Spartans (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

with accusative with genitive

• ὑπὸ νύκτα AT NIGHTFALL • ὑπὸ μνήμης BY HEART

• ὑπὸ τὸν αὐτὸν χρόνον ABOUT THE SAME TIME

• Φαίαξ δὲ ... ἐς Ἰταλίαν καὶ Σικελίαν πρεσβευτὴς ὑπὸ τὸν αὐτὸν χρόνον ἐξέπλευσεν Phaeax ... departed to Italy and Sicily about the same time as the ambassador (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

c) Expressions of time and place

1. Expressions of time

a) When? [252]

1/ The time in which something happens is expressed by the preposition $\dot{\epsilon}v + dative$. For example:

• ἐν τούτῳ τῷ χρόνῳ IN THIS TIME

2/ But if the mentioned period of time is a day, month or year, the *dative alone* is used (especially if an ordinal precedes it). Here are some examples:

τῷ δευτέρῳ ἔτει IN THE SECOND YEAR
 τῆ πρώτῃ ἡμέρᾳ
 ταύτῃ μὲν τῇ ἡμέρᾳ ... ἀπῆλθον οἱ βάρβαροι ON THAT DAY THE BARBARIANS WITHDREW (Xenophon, Anabasis).
 τῆ ἄλλη (supply ἡμέρᾳ) ἐπορεύοντο ON THE FOLLOWING DAY THEY DEPARTED (Xenophon, Anabasis).

3/ There are a number of expressions which are often used in Greek to convey *time when*, and some of these have been listed below. Adverbial expressions can be found in the corresponding section.

• ἄμα ἡμέρα • ἐν τῷ παρόντι AT DAYBREAK IN THE PRESENT TIME • πρὸς ἑσπέραν • ἐν τούτω TOWARDS EVENING IN THE MEANTIME • ὑπὸ νύκτα AT NIGHTFALL • ἐκ τούτου AFTER THIS • είς καιρόν • τῆ προτεραία ON THE PREVIOUS DAY AT THE RIGHT TIME • τῆ ὑστεραία • ἀγορᾶς πληθούσης ON THE FOLLOWING DAY AT THE TIME OF FULL MARKET • τοῦ λοιποῦ (IN THE MIDDLE OF THE MORNING) IN THE FUTURE

b) Within which period?

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The time within which something happens is expressed by the genitive (without preposition):

- νυκτός DURING/WITHIN THE NIGHT
- θέρους DURING/WITHIN THE SUMMER
- ἐκεῖνος λέγει ὅτι ἄξει αὐτοὺς πέντε ἡμερῶν εἰς χώριον ὅθεν ὄψονται θάλατταν ΗΕ SAYS THAT HE WILL TAKE THEM WITHIN FIVE DAYS TO A PLACE FROM WHERE THEY WILL SEE THE SEA (Xenophon, Anabasis).

c) Since when?

The time since when something is taking place is expressed by means of the ordinal in the accusative case:

• πέμπτην ἡμέραν ἐν τῆ νήσω μένει IT IS THE FIFTH DAY HE IS ON THE ISLAND.

• ἤδη τρίτην ἡμέραν οὐ καθεύδει It is already the third day he does not sleep.

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d) How long ago?

The *period of time elapsed* since a certain event is expressed, as the previous case, by means of the ordinal in the *accusative* case, but adding one unit more to the number of complete periods:

• πέμπτην ἡμέραν ἀπῆλθεν HE LEFT FOUR DAYS AGO. \diamondsuit i.e. today is the *fifth* day he is absent.

• ἐξῆλθον ἔτος τουτὶ τρίτον | I DEPARTED TWO YEARS AGO (Demosthenes, *Oratio 54*).

e) For how long? [254]

1/ The period of time through which an action takes place is expressed by the accusative (known as accusative of extension in time):

οἱ στρατιῶται τρεῖς ἡμέρας ἐμάχοντο
 The soldiers fought for three days.

• ἐνταῦθα ἔμεινεν ὁ Κῦρος καὶ ἡ στρατιὰ ἡμέρας εἴκοσιν

There Cyrus and the army remained for twenty days (Χενορηον, Αναβασίς).

• χρόνον μὲν οὖν τινα ὀλίγον οὕτω πρὸς ἀλλήλους ἡκροβολίσαντο So, they skirmished with each other for a short time (Thucydides, Historiae).

2/ Alternatively, this can be expressed by $\delta \iota \dot{\alpha}$ + genitive:

• οἱ στρατιῶται διὰ τριῶν ἡμερῶν ἐμάχοντο The soldiers fought for three days.

3/ If, rather than expressing specific units of time (number of days, of years, etc.), we wish to convey a loose temporal description, the *genitive* alone is used. This is especially the case if the main verb is negative (i.e. if something has not taken or will not take place):

πολλῶν ἐτῶν τοῦτο οὐκ ἐποίησα
 ΤΗΑΝΕ NOT DONE THIS FOR MANY YEARS.
 δέκα ἡμερῶν οὐδὲν ἔδομαι
 Ι WILL NOT EAT ANYTHING FOR TEN DAYS.

f) In how much time?

The period of time needed to complete an action is expressed by the preposition $\dot{\epsilon}v + dative$:

• ἐν τρίσι ἡμέραις ἐκ τῆς Σικελίας εἰς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας ἔπλευσα I sailed from Sicily to Athens in three days.

• ἐν πέντε ἡμέραις ἐβοηθήσατε αὐτοῖς καὶ ναυσὶ καὶ πεζῆ δυνάμει In five days you helped them both with a fleet and with a land force (Aeschines, *In Ctesiphontem*).

2. Expressions of place

These can be divided into four main types. Additionally, there is a fifth type that parallels one of the expressions of time [255] dealt with previously:

a) Where?

1/ The usual way of expressing the place where something happens is by using the preposition $\dot{\epsilon}v + dative$:

- ἐν τῆ οἰκία IN THE HOUSE
- ἐν τῆ πρόσθεν προσβολῆ ... ἔπαθε μὲν οὐδέν In the previous attack ... He had suffered no harm (Xenophon, Anabasis).
- ἦν γὰρ πολὺς σῖτος ἐν τᾶῖς κώμαις Because there was much grain in the villages (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- **2/** Other prepositions may indicate proximity:

• πρὸς τῆ κρήνη AT THE SIDE OF THE FOUNTAIN

• παρὰ τῷ Περικλεῖ AT Pericles' House

• παρὰ ταύτην τὴν πόλιν ἦν πυραμὶς λιθίνη Near this city there was a stone pyramid (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

3/ Some words have an adverbial form (and what remains of a former case, the locative) to denote place where:

• οἴκοι ΑΤ ΗΟΜΕ • Πλαταιᾶσι ΑΤ PLATAEA • ἀθήνησι ΑΤ ΑΤΗΕΝS

b) Where to? [256]

- 1/ Direction is indicated by the prepositions $\pi \rho \acute{o}\varsigma$ or $\epsilon \acute{\iota}\varsigma$ + accusative.
 - εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν INTO THE HOUSE
 - ἔρχεται εἰς τὸ δικαστήριον He is going into the courtroom (Plato, Euthyphro).
 - πρὸς τὴν οἰκίαν TOWARDS THE HOUSE
 - οἱ μὲν τὸ δεξιὸν κέρας ἔχοντες πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἔφευγον Those who were on the right flank started fleeing towards the city (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

 $\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mu$}}$ Note that $\hat{\epsilon i}_{\varsigma}$ is used if we mean$ *final arrival* $into the mentioned place, and <math>\pi\rho\acute{o}_{\varsigma}$ if we simply mean *direction* towards a place.

2/ Other prepositions may also express a sense of direction, sometimes with a different meaning:

ἐπὶ τοὺς πολεμίους
 παρὰ τὸν Περικλέα
 Το Pericles' House

• Ίπποκράτης γὰρ παρ' ἐμὲ ἀφικόμενος ... Since Hippocrates, after arriving at my place, ... (Plato, *Protagoras*).

• ἀφίκοντο ἐπὶ τὸν Τίγρητα ποταμόν They arrived at the river Tigris (Xenophon, Anabasis).

• ὡς τὸν Περικλέα Towards Pericles

 $\diamond \dot{\omega}_{\mathsf{G}}$ has a lot of meanings; it will mean towards only when followed by a person's name or pronoun.

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3/ We can also find $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\iota}$ + genitive meaning TOWARDS, and this use is common with names of islands:					
• ἐπὶ τῆς Νάζου πλέομεν We are sailing to Naxos.					
4/ Some words have an adverbial form that indicates <i>place to where,</i> by means of the suffix $-\delta \varepsilon$:					
 οἴκαδε HOMEWARDS ᾿Αθήναζε TOWARDS ATHENS ♦ The suffix -δε has undergone an alteration into -ζε. καὶ οἱ μὲν τριάκοντα Ἐλευσῖνάδε ἀπῆλθον ΑΝΟ ΤΗΕ ΤΗΙRTY WENT TO ELEUSIS (Xenophon, Hellenica). 					
c) Where from?	[257]				
1/ Place from where is expressed by the preposition $\dot{\epsilon}_{K}$ or $\dot{\alpha}\pi\dot{o}$ + genitive:					
 ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας Ουτ οf the house					
Observe how these prepositions can be paired:					
\Box $\dot{\epsilon}$ ig and $\dot{\epsilon}$ K INTO and OUT OF \Box $\pi \rho \dot{\alpha}$ g and $\dot{\alpha}\pi \dot{\alpha}$ TOWARDS and AWAY FROM					
2/ Other prepositions can also express movement from:					
• παρά τοῦ Περικλέους FROM PERICLES' HOUSE					
3/ Some words have an adverbial form, with the suffix $-\theta \epsilon v$, to mean <i>place from where</i> :					
\bullet οἴκοθεν from home \bullet ' $Aθήνηθεν$ from Athens					
d) Through where?	[258]				

Place through where is expressed by the preposition $\delta\iota\acute{\alpha}$ + genitive:

- διὰ τῆς πόλεως THROUGH THE CITY
- τὰ δὲ τοξεύματα ἐχώρει διὰ τῶν ἀσπίδων καὶ διὰ τῶν θωράκων ΤΗΕ ARROWS PASSED THROUGH THE SHIELDS AND THE BREASTPLATES (Xenophon, Anabasis).

e) How far?

The distance along which an action takes place is expressed by the accusative, known as the accusative of extension in space:

- οἱ παῖδες δέκα στάδια ἔδραμον THE CHILDREN RAN TEN STADES.
- ἐντεῦθεν διῆλθον ... παρασάγγας εἴκοσι From there they advanced twenty parasangs (Xenophon, Anabasis).

d) Regime of verbs and adjectives

1. General observations

[259]

a/ Most verbs that have an object rule the *accusative case*:

• $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\theta\dot{\omega}$ $\dot{\sigma}\dot{\sigma}v$ $\dot{\sigma}\dot{\iota}\tau \dot{\sigma}v$ I am eating the food

but some rule other cases. For instance, the verb $\beta o \eta \theta \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ rules the dative case:

• βοηθοῦμεν τοῖς Άθηναίοις We help the Athenians.

So, verbs that are transitive in English (i.e., they have a direct object) do not always use an accusative in Greek. Let's see more examples of this lack of correspondence between English and Greek:

The verb $\alpha \rho \chi \omega$ to rule is followed by a *genitive*:

• ἄρχω τῆς χώρας I rule the country.

The verb $\pi \iota \sigma \tau \epsilon \acute{\upsilon} \omega$ to trust is followed by a *dative*:

• πιστεύω τῷ ἀδελφῷ Ι TRUST MY BROTHER.

The regime of these unusual verbs is usually indicated in dictionaries.

b/ Moreover, some verbs will need a preposition and others will not – these must simply be learnt along with the verb. One verb may also take different cases. For instance, the verb $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\iota\chi\epsilon\iota\rho\dot{\epsilon}\omega$ TO ATTACK may be followed *either* by a dative *or* by $\pi\rho\dot{o}\varsigma$ + accusative:

• ὁ στρατηγὸς ἐπιχειρεῖ τοῖς πολεμίοις / ὁ στρατηγὸς ἐπιχειρεῖ πρὸς τοὺς πολεμίους ΤΗΕ GENERAL IS ATTACKING THE ENEMY.

Therefore, a verbal expression that has been taught in some given way may later be found used differently. Dictionaries may offer the most common regime, but bear in mind that the construction offered here or in any other book will not be the only possible construction.

c/ To complicate matters further, in some cases, a verb may have two objects. For instance, the verb $\dot{\epsilon}$ κβάλλω το THROW OUT, TO EXPEL, if used in the sense of TO THROW SOMEBODY OUT OF SOMEWHERE, will express *the person* in the accusative case and *the place* in the genitive case:

• ἐκβάλλω τὸν γεωργὸν τοῦ ἀγροῦ Ι EXPEL THE FARMER OUT OF THE FIELD.

Note that it would be normal to find ἐκβάλλω τὸν γεωργὸν ἐκ τοῦ ἀγροῦ, with a preposition (ἐκ) ruling the genitive [260] instead of the genitive alone. Continuous practice will teach this, and the easiest way of learning it is to try to remember the construction when you come across it. Again, it would be far too extensive to cover all of the possible constructions some verbs may adopt, and, when reading, the student must have some flexibility to accept previously unknown constructions and even to deduce them from comparison with verbs of similar meaning when composing in Greek.

We provide a list of some of the most frequent verbs that do not rule the usual accusative case. Although most verbs are quoted and translated, additional comments and/or examples have been supplied for some to help the student's understanding.

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d/ Some adjectives also require complementing words to be in certain cases. For instance, the adjective $i\sigma c$, $-\eta$, -ov EQUAL requires that the complement (the thing or person to which something or somebody is equal) be *in dative*:

• ὁ παῖς ἴσος τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἐστιν The boy is equal to his brother.

In the list offered here, note that several of these adjectives are related to some verbs given in the former section. As happens in the list of verbs, some of the adjectives have additional comments aside from the translation and/or an example when it has been considered convenient.

2. Verbs that rule genitive or dative

a) Verbs that rule genitive

[261]

 αἰσθάνομαι
 ΤΟ PERCEIVE

 ἀκούω
 ΤΟ LISTEN ΤΟ

This verb rules accusative if it has the meaning of to hear:
 ψόφον ἀκούω
 ΗΕΑΚ Α NOISE
 ΤΟῦ πατρὸς ἀκούω
 Ι LISTEN TO MY FATHER.

If, for instance, we said τὸν πατέρα ἀκούω, it would mean I HEAR MY FATHER (approaching, talking, etc.), just as I could hear any other noise, but it would not mean that I am paying attention to what he says.

άμαρτάνω το miss • άμαρτάνω τῆς ὁδοῦ I miss the path.

♦ In the New Testament it may have the meaning of TOSIN, in the sense of deviating from the right path, but its usual classical meaning is TOMISS, for example in the sense of missing a target when shooting an arrow.

ἀμελέω ΤΟ NEGLECT

ἀπέχομαι το abstain from • δεῖ σε ἀπέχεσθαι οἴνου You must abstain from wine.

ἀπέχω ΤΟ BE DISTANT FROM

ἀπολαύω ΤΟ ΕΝΙΟΥ

ἀποφεύγω ΤΟ BE ACQUITTED OF

♦ Of course, it means to flee away in the sense of "to achieve avoiding the punishment".

ἄπτομαι TO TOUCH ἄρχω TO RULE ἄρχομαι TO BEGIN

♦ The usual distribution of this verb is TO RULE in active voice and TO BEGIN in middle voice, but note these two factors: both voices may be found ruling an accusative instead of a genitive, and moreover the meanings are sometimes swapped – TO RULE in middle voice and TO BEGIN in active voice.

βασιλεύω TO BE KING OF **δέω** TO NEED, TO ASK FOR

- \diamond The idiom $\pi o \lambda \lambda o \tilde{v} \delta \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{\iota}$ Much is NEEDED is much used in the sense of TO BE FAR AWAY FROM:
 - κατηγοροίην ἂν ἐμαυτοῦ ὡς θεοὺς οὐ νομίζω. ἀλλὰ πολλοῦ δεῖ οὕτως ἔχειν, νομίζω τε γάρ, ὧ ἄνδρες ᾿Αθηνοῖοι They could accuse me of not believing in the gods, but this is far from being so; for I believe in them, o Athenians (Plato, Apologia).

διαφέρω TO BE DIFFERENT FROM

ἐπιθυμέω TO DESIRE ἐπιλανθάνομαι TO FORGET

έπιμελέομαι TO TAKE CARE OF έράω TO FALL IN LOVE WITH θαυμάζω TO WONDER AT, TO ADMIRE

θιγγάνω TO TOUCH καταγελάω TO LAUGH AT καταγιγνώσκω TO CONDEMN καταδικάζω TO CONDEMN

♦ These two judicial verbs put the person condemned in the genitive case and the penalty in the accusative case:

• καταδικάζομεν τοῦ στρατηγοῦ τὸν θάνατον We condemn the general to death.

καταφρονέω TO DESPISE

 \diamond Observe that compound verbs with the suffix $\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha$ -rule genitive if this suffix has a meaning of opposition.

κρατέω TO DOMINATE, TO CONQUER

λαμβάνομαι TO TAKE HOLD OF

♦ In active voice it just means TO TAKE and it rules an accusative: but in middle voice it means το τακε HOLD of and it rules a genitive: • ὁ πᾶις τῆς τοῦ πατρὸς χειρὸς λαμβάνεται

- τὴν βίβλον λαμβάνω Ι ΤΑΚΕ ΤΗΕ ΒΟΟΚ
- THE CHILD TAKES HOLD OF HIS FATHER'S HAND.

μέμνημαι TO REMEMBER

♦ Obviously, this form is a perfect tense but with present meaning.

μετέχω TO HAVE A SHARE IN όρέγομαι TO TEND TO, TO DESIRE παύομαι TO CEASE FROM

♦ In active voice, it means to stop someBody else, but in middle it means to stop yourself of doing something, and it can also be followed by a participle: • παύομαι τῆς μάχης = παύομαι μαχόμενος I stop Fighting.

περίειμι TO BE SUPERIOR TO

προέχω TO BE SUPERIOR TO, TO STAND OUT

στρατηγέω TO BE GENERAL OF

τοξεύω TO SHOOT AT (with a bow)

τυγχάνω TO HIT, TO REACH

 \diamond When used alone and not with a participle, it has the opposite meaning of $\dot{\alpha}\mu\alpha\rho\tau\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$ (which also rules genitive): TO HIT THE TARGET, as well as TO OBTAIN.

TO BE ACCUSED OF

 \diamond In the sense of trying to escape from an accusation, in the supposition that the accused person will try to prove his/her innocence.

ψαύω TO PALPATE, TO TOUCH

b) Verbs that rule dative

[262]

ἀπαντάω TO MEET, TO ENCOUNTER

ἀπειλέω TO THREATEN ἀπιστέω TO DISTRUST ἀρέσκω TO PLEASE

♦ Usually in the third person: • τοῦτό μοι ἀρέσκει This pleases me. **βοηθέω** ΤΟ HELP

 \diamond It almost always has a sense of military help, for example, sending troops to help a besieged city.

The usual sense of TO HELP is given by $\dot{\omega}\phi\varepsilon\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\omega$, which rules accusative.

διαλέγομαι TO CONVERSE WITH **δουλεύω** TO BE A SLAVE TO

έγκεῖμαι TO PUT PRESSURE ON SOMEBODY

εἰκάζω TO COMPARE εἴκω TO YIELD TO

έντυγχάνω ΤΟ MEET, ΤΟ COME ACROSS

 \diamondsuit Very close meaning to its stem verb τυγχάνω TO REACH. In any case, the meaning is different from TO FIND, which is instead conveyed by the verb εὑρίσκω.

ἔοικα TO BE SIMILAR TO

♦ Obviously, it is a perfect with present meaning.

ἐπιτίθεμαι ΤΟ ΑΤΤΑΚΚ

ἐπιτυγχάνω ΤΟ MEET, ΤΟ COME ACROSS

 \diamondsuit Please see the comment for $\dot{\varepsilon}v\tau v\gamma \chi \dot{\alpha}v\omega$ above.

ἐπιχειρέω ΤΟ ΑΤΤΑΚ

ἔπομαι το FOLLOW • **σοὶ** γὰρ **ἐψόμεσθ'** ἄμα WE WILL FOLLOW YOU (Sophocles, *Electra*).

ἡγέομαι TO GUIDE

♦ This verb can also mean TO CONSIDER, but then it rules an infinitive construction.

ἤδομαι TO REJOICEλοιδορέομαι TO ABUSEμάχομαι TO FIGHTμέλει TO INTEREST

♦ Almost always in 3rd person: • τοῦτο μέλει μοι This interests me.

μέμφομαι TO CENSURE, TO CRITICISE

 ὁμολογέω
 ΤΟ AGREE WITH

 ὀνειδίζω
 ΤΟ REPROACH

 ὀργίζομαι
 ΤΟ GET ANGRY WITH

παραινέω TO ADVISE **πείθομαι** TO OBEY

 \Leftrightarrow Active voice $\pi \epsilon i \theta \omega$ = TO PERSUADE, and it rules an accusative: • $\pi \epsilon i \theta \omega$ τοὺς $\pi ολίτας$ I PERSUADE THE CITIZENS. Do not confuse the present middle voice $\pi \epsilon i \theta o \mu \alpha \iota$ TO DBEY with the passive voice $\pi \epsilon i \theta o \mu \alpha \iota$ TO BE PERSUADED (obviously, in other tenses they will not look identical).

πιστεύω ΤΟ RELY ON πλησιάζω ΤΟ APPROACH προσβάλλω ΤΟ ATTACK προσχωρέω ΤΟ APPROACH ὑπακούω ΤΟ OBEY ὑπηρετέω ΤΟ SERVE φθονέω ΤΟ ENVY

χαλεπαίνω TO BE ANGRY WITH **χράομαι** TO USE, TO CONSIDER

3. Adjectives followed by genitive or dative

a) Adjectives followed by genitive

[263]

ἄξιος, -α, -ον WORTHY OF κοινός, -ή, -όν **COMMON TO** ἔμπειρος, -ος, -ον μακάριος, -α, -ον EXPERT IN HAPPY FOR ένδεής, -ές LACKING IN μεστός, -ή, -όν **FULL OF** ἐπιθυμητικός, -ή, -όν ANXIOUS OF μέτοχος, -ος, -ον SHARING IN έπιστήμων, -ον ACQUAINTED WITH μνήμων, -ονος MINDFUL OF ἔρημος, -ος, -ον **DEPRIVED OF** πλήρης -ες **FULL OF**

κένος, -η, -ον EMPTY OF

There are two adjectives that, when followed by a partitive genitive, present a special characteristic: they must agree in gender with the gender of the noun in genitive:

 \Box ήμισυς, -εια, -υ HALF \diamondsuit In Greek, HALF is an adjective.

ἡ ἡμίσεια τῆς χώρας HALF OF THE COUNTRY
 ὁ ἡμισυς τοῦ δήμου HALF OF THE DEME

 \Box πολύς, πολλή, πολύ Much \diamondsuit Most when used with a *partitive genitive*.

ὁ πολὺς τοῦ στρατεύματος MOST OF THE ARMY
 ἡ πολλὴ τῆς πόλεως MOST OF THE CITY

b) Adjectives followed by dative

[264]

 $α \dot{v} \dot{\tau} \dot{o} \dot{\varsigma}, -\dot{\eta}, -\dot{o}$ SAME AS

Remember that for this form to have this meaning it must be preceded by the article (otherwise, it would mean self or him, her etc.):
 • σύ τε καὶ ἐγὰ τὸ αὐτὸ ποιοῦμεν τῷ Περικλεῖ
 ΥΟυ AND I DO THE SAME AS PERICLES.

διάφορος, -ος, -ον DIFFERENT FROM

♦ Take care when composing into Greek as the English preposition FROM may make us think that it must be always followed by genitive; it is sometimes followed by genitive and sometimes by dative.

 δυσμενής, -ές
 HOSTILE TO

 ἐναντίος, -α, -ον
 OPPOSITE TO

 ἐοικώς, -υῖα, -ός
 SIMILAR TO

 \diamondsuit This is the perfect participle of the verb $\emph{\'eoux}\alpha$ to BE SIMILAR, a perfect itself.

 $\dot{\varepsilon}$ χθρός, - $\dot{\alpha}$, - $\dot{\alpha}$ ν ENEMY TO

 \diamond Enemy in the sense of Personal Enemy (*inimicus* in Latin).

ἴδιος, $-\alpha$, -ov PRIVATE TO $\mathring{\textbf{roo}}$ ς, $-\eta$, -ov EQUAL TO

• δεῖ τοὺς στρατιώτας ἴσους ἀλλήλοις εἶναι It is necessary that soldiers are equal to each other.

 κοινός, -ή, -όν
 COMMON TO

 ξένος, -η, -ον
 GUEST TO

 ὅμοιος, -α, -ον
 SIMILAR TO

 ὁμόλογος, -ος, -ον
 AGREEING WITH

 πιστός, -ή, -όν
 TRUSTWORTHY TO

πολέμιος, -α, -ον ΕΝΕΜΥ ΤΟ

 \diamond Enemy in the sense of military enemy (hostis in Latin).

φίλος, -η, -ον FRIEND ΤΟ

♦ Sometimes it is found also followed by a *genitive*, FRIEND OF.

χρηστός, - $\dot{\eta}$, - $\dot{0}$ ν USEFUL TO

4. Appendix: Adjectives followed by infinitive or participle

[265]

Although this is not directly linked with cases, it is convenient to add these further comments on the regime of some adjectives.

a/ The infinitive may complete the meaning of some adjectives that precede them (the way of translating the whole piece *adjective + infinitive* will depend on the sense of the adjective):

- ὁ Περικλῆς δεινὸς λέγειν ἦν Pericles was great at speaking.
 - ♦ The adjective means TERRIBLE, but of course it is used to mean TERRIBLY GOOD, BRILLIANT. And in this case the translation is AT + *gerund*.
- ἡ ᾿Ακρόπολις ἡδεῖα ὁρᾶν ἐστιν The Acropolis is pleasant to see.
 - ♦ In this case, the translation by a simple infinitive is obvious.
- οἱ στρατιῶται ἐτοῖμοι ἦσαν ἐπιτίθεσθαι The soldiers were ready to fight.
 - ♦ Again, translation by a simple infinitive.

χωρεῖν ἑτοῖμος
 ποῖ γὰρ μολεῖν μοι δυνατόν;
 ΜΗΕΠΕ CAN I GO? (Sophocles, Aiax).

b/ Some adjectives can be followed by a participle to complete the meaning (this is dealt with in greater detail in the chapter *Hellenisms*: peculiarities and idioms). For instance, the adjective $\delta \tilde{\eta} \lambda o \varsigma$, $-\eta$, -ov:

δῆλός εἰμι τοῦτο οὐ ποιήσας
 It is evident that I have not done this (literally, it means "I am evident not having done this").

Another adjective that uses this construction is φανερός, -ά, -όν, clearly related to the verb φαίνομαι:

• φανερά ἐστιν αὕτη ἡ κόρη σοφωτάτη οὖσα It is evident that this girl is very wise.

a) Simple clauses

- 1. Describing real actions
- 2. Expressing potential actions
- 3. Expressing commands and prohibitions
- 4. Expressing wishes
- 5. Asking questions
- 6. Impersonal verbs

b) Subordinate clauses

- 1. The concept of oblique optative
- 2. Causal clauses
- 3. Purpose clauses
- 4. Temporal clauses
- 5. Concessive clauses
- 6. Result clauses
- 7. Conditional clauses
- 8. Relative clauses
- o. Comparative clauses
- 10. Fear clauses
- 11. Indefinite clauses
- 12. Proviso clauses

c) Infinitive clauses

- 1. Which verbs use the infinitive and how?
- 2. Which tense of infinitive?
- 3. Where there is no change of subject
- 4. Infinitive with article
- 5. Infinitive after verbs of negative idea
- 6. Infinitive absolute
- 7. Infinitive imperative
- 8. Infinitive with αv

d) Participle clauses

- 1. Participle with article
- 2. Participle without article
- 3. The participle is impersonal
- 4. The temporal correlation
- 5. Verbs that usually require a participle
- 6. Adjectives that usually require a participle
- 7. Genitive absolute
- 8. Accusative absolute
- 9. Participle with αv

e) Indirect speech

- 1. An introduction
- 2. Indirect statement clauses
- 3. Indirect command clauses
- 4. Indirect question clauses
- 5. Subordinate clauses in indirect speech

f) Verbal adjectives

- 1. Ending in -τέος, -τέα, -τέον
- 2. Ending in -τός, -τή, -τόν

g) Combination of negatives

- 1. Negatives cancelling or reinforcing each other?
- 2. Other combinations of negatives side by side

h) The use of particles

- 1. General guidelines
- 2. Most common particles

i) Hellenisms: peculiarities and idioms

- 1. General remarks
- 2. Non-verbal expressions
- 3. Verbal expressions

a) Simple clauses

1. Describing real actions

[266]

a/ In order to describe real actions, it is necessary to use the indicative mood, in the appropriate tense:

διὰ τί τοῦτο ἐποίησας; Why did you do this?
οἱ μαθηταὶ σοφοί εἰσιν The students are clever.

• αὔριον τὴν ἐπιστολὴν γράψω Τοmorrow I will write the letter.

b/ It is worth remembering at this stage the difference in aspect between the imperfect and the aorist tenses: the imperfect indicates *continuous actions or processes*, while the aorist conveys the idea of a *punctual action*:

• τοῦτο ἔλεγον, καὶ ὁ Σωκράτης ἐξαίφνης ἀφίκετο Ι was saying this, and Socrates arrived suddenly.

• τοῦτο εἶπον, ἔπειτα δὲ ἀπῆλθον I said this, and then I left.

c/ A special case: omission of εἰμί:

Sometimes the verb $\varepsilon \iota \mu \iota$ is absent and has to be supplied by the reader. Observe in these examples how the predicative object lies outside the group *article + noun*; in these cases the verb *to be* has to be added by the reader:

• ὁ διδάσκαλος δεινός = ὁ διδάσκαλός ἐστι δεινός = ὁ διδάσκαλος δεινός ἐστιν
 • οἱ ἄγγελοι ἀγαθοί = οἱ ἄγγελοί ἐἰσιν ἀγαθοί = οἱ ἄγγελοι ἀγαθοί εἰσιν
 ΤΗΕ TEACHER IS AN EXPERT.

But compare the previous sentences with these examples:

ὁ δεινὸς διδάσκαλος THE EXPERT TEACHER
 οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἄγγελοι THE GOOD MESSENGERS

These are not complete sentences on their own and this can be noted as the adjective lies inside the group article + noun.

d/ Customary actions:

Although it is not very common, imperfect and aorist tenses with αv may be used to express frequent actions:

• πολλάκις ἠκούσαμεν ἂν ὑμᾶς We often listened to you (Aristophanes, *Lysistrata*).

2. Expressing potential actions

[267]

a) Future potentiality

1/ To express future potentiality in Greek, it is necessary to use the optative with the particle αv , which is usually placed after the verb. Let's see some examples:

λέγοιμι ἄν
 Ι would/could say.

γράφοις ἄν
 You would/could write.

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• βουλοίμην ἂν τὴν μητέρα ἰδεῖν I WOULD LIKE TO SEE MY MOTHER.

οἱ στρατιῶται τὴν πόλιν αἰροῖεν ἄν
 ΤΗΕ SOLDIERS WOULD/COULD CAPTURE THE CITY.
 οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι τὴν πόλιν πολιορκοῖεν ἄν
 οὐκ ἂν θανμάζοιμι
 ΤΗΕ SPARTANS WOULD/COULD BESIEGE THE CITY.
 Ι WOULD NOT BE SURPRISED (Plato, Euthyphro).

• ἦ πού με Τελαμών ... δέξαιτ' ἂν εὐπρόσωπος; Maybe Telamon would receive me amicably? (Sophocles, Aiax).

2/ If the verb is expressed in negative form, the particle $\tilde{a}v$ is positioned between the negative particle and the verb:

οὖκ ἂν λέγοιμι
 I would not / could not say.

• οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι τὴν πόλιν οὐκ ἂν πολιορκοῖεν The Spartans would not / could not besiege the city.

• οὐκ ἂν ἐκεῖνος δικάσειε κακῶς He would not be a bad judge (Lucian, *Dialogues of the Gods*).

• οὐκ ἂν δυναίμην σοὶ κακῶς φρονεῖν ποτε Ι WOULD NEVER BE ABLE TO DEVISE ANYTHING BAD AGAINST YOU

(Euripides, Medea).

3/ Apart from this basic use with potential meaning, this construction may be used as well to express a polite request instead of using the imperative (see next section): [268]

• γράφε Write!

γράφοις ἄν
 You could write = Please, could you write?

♦ Please note that there is no question mark in the Greek sentence.

• βαίνε πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας Go το Athens!

βαίνοις ἂν πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας
 Υου could go to Athens = Please, could you go to Athens?
 φέρε, ἔχοις ἄν εἰπεῖν τί ἐστι τὸ καλόν
 Come on, tell us what beauty is (Plato, Hippias Maior).

4/ It is important to keep this construction in mind when translating into Greek, as a way of expressing polite requests without using any equivalent of the English verbal form *could*:

COULD YOU TELL ME THIS, PLEASE?
 λέγοις ἂν τοῦτό μοι.
 Φ Observe the lack of question mark.

b) Present potentiality

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To express present potentiality, it is necessary to use the imperfect indicative $+ \tilde{\alpha} v$:

• οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι τὴν πόλιν ἐπολιορκοῦν ἂν

The Spartans would/could be besieging the city.

The difference with the previous sentence in optative (οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι τὴν πόλιν σὐκ ἄν πολιορκοῖεν) is that the optative one referred to a possible *future* event, while this one means that *at present* there is a possibility for the Spartans to besiege the city. Another example:

βίβλον ἔγραφον ἄν I could write a book.

The same happens here: while $\beta i \beta \lambda ov \gamma \rho \alpha \phi o i \mu \alpha v$ would mean that I could possibly write a book *in the future*, the use of the imperfect means that I could write it *now* (but for some reason I am not writing it). Another example:

• τί ἄν οὖν βουλόμενος ἐγὼ τοιοῦτον κίνδυνον ἐκινδύνευον; For which reason would I run such a risk?

(Lysias, De Caede Eratosthenis)

Note

This construction corresponds to the apodosis of a conditional period of unfulfilled condition in the present.

c) Potentiality in the past

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To express potentiality in the past, it is possible to use the agrist indicative $+ \ddot{\alpha}v$:

• βίβλον ἔγραψα ἄν I could have written a book.

• οὐ γὰρ ἂν δεῦρ᾽ ἰκόμην Ι WOULD NOT HAVE COME HERE (Sophocles, *Oedipus Tyrannos*).

- οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι τὴν πόλιν ἐπολιόρκησαν ἄν ΤΗΕ Spartans would/could have besieged the city.
- τίς ἀν ἀπετόλμησε, τούτων οὕτως ἐχόντων, ἐπιχειρῆσαι τοιούτῳ πράγματι; Who would have dared, in these circumstances, το handle such a question? (Lysias, *Areopagiticus*).

Note

This construction corresponds to the apodosis of a conditional period of unfulfilled condition in the past.

d) Uses of av on its own

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Sometimes the particle αv can be found without an accompanying verb, which is to be supplied by the reader (the context should make it clear whether an optative or an indicative):

- Question: τίς τοῦτο ποιεῖν δύναιτο ἄν; Who would be able to do this? Answer: ἐγὼ ἄν Ι would.
 - \diamondsuit δυναίμην to be mentally supplied; note that also in English the verb must be supplied.
- σù δ' οὐκ ἄν, ὧ "Απολλον; Wouldn'T you, Apollo? (Lucian, Dialogues of the Gods 17).
 - ♦ Apollo had asked Hermes if he would accept something.

e) $\ddot{a}v$ used twice in the same sentence

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1/ Sometimes, if the sentence is very long, the particle $\tilde{\alpha}v$ can be repeated again near the verb, in case it has been used at the beginning of the sentence and there are several words between it and the verb; this is to remind the reader/listener that this is a potential sentence and that $\tilde{\alpha}v$ was previously enunciated:

- τοῦτο ἐγὼ ἂν σὺν τοῖς θεοῖς καθ' ἡμέραν ὑπὲρ τῆς πόλεως καίπερ τοῦ πατρὸς κωλύοντος **ποιήσαιμι ἄν**I WOULD DO THIS EVERY DAY ON BEHALF OF THE CITY WITH THE HELP OF THE GODS, ALTHOUGH MY FATHER OPPOSES IT.
- 2/ In tragedy, we can even find both very near to the verb:
 - τίς γὰρ τοιαῦτ' ἄν οὐκ ἄν ὀργίζοιτ' ἔπη κλύων...;
 Who would not get angry hearing such words?
 (Sophocles, Oedipus Tyrannos).

3. Expressing commands and prohibitions

a) Commands [273]

1/ In order to express a command it is necessary to use, logically, the imperative mood; the choice between present and aorist imperative will depend on whether the order implies a *continuous action* or a *punctual action*. For instance, if we want to translate the order WRITE WHAT I SAY, we could translate it in the following ways:

eitherγράφε ο λέγω(present imperative)orγράψον ο λέγω(aorist imperative)

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In the first case, it is supposed that the action will be executed through a long period of time (for instance, a student taking notes of what the teacher says for one hour), while in the second case it is supposed that the action will take place just as a punctual one (for instance, a student writing a sentence that the teacher has just said). Another example:

• σίγησον KEEP SILENT (Sophocles, *Aiax*). ♦ Aorist: punctual action.

Nevertheless, in some cases the border between punctual or continuous aspect of an action may be blurred, making the choice quite relative, and classical authors themselves used either one or the other of the imperative tenses as long as it made sense.

- ἐρώτα, ὧ ᾿Αφροδίτη, τὸν σὸν νἱόν Ακκ YOUR SON, Ο APHRODITE (Lucian, *Dialogues of the Gods*).
 - ♦ Lucian could as well have used the *aorist imperative* instead of the present.

An imperative can be preceded by $\alpha\gamma\epsilon$ or ϵ (imperatives of $\alpha\gamma\omega$ and ϵ), meaning come on:

• ἄγε, δός μοι τὰ χρήματα Come on, give me the money.

• ἄγε δὴ ἀκούσατε καὶ ἄλλα Come on, listen to these other things as well (Xenophon, *Apologia Socratis*).

φέρ' εἰπέ
 Come on, tell me (Sophocles, Electra).

2/ Another way to give a command is by means of $\delta \pi \omega \varsigma$ + fut. indicative:

• ὅπως ἐν τῆ μάχη νικήσετε Win in the battle.

• ὅπως μεμνήση διακριθῆναι περὶ τοῦ κάλλους Remember to have a discussion about beauty

(Xenophon, Symposium).

In fact, this is just a case of a $\check{o}\pi\omega\varsigma$ clause following a *verb of effort* in imperative (like $\check{e}\pi\iota\mu\epsilon\lambda\tilde{e}\iota\sigma\theta\epsilon$, TAKE CARE THAT), but with this last imperative elided. For this kind of clauses, see the corresponding section of *Proviso clauses* in the chapter of subordinate clauses.

3/ A third way to express an order is to use the potential optative:

τοῦτό μοι λέγοις ἄν Please, tell me this.
 προάγοις ἄν Please, go on (Plato, Phaedrus).

The literal translation of the first sentence would be You could Tell ME THIS, which is a polite way to make a request. If translating into Greek, do not forget the αv , because in this way we would have an expression of wish (see next section).

4/ A very idiomatic expression can be used to give a command to be performed immediately:

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• οὐκ αν φθάνοις τοῦτό μοι λέγων Tell me this once and for all!

In this case, the verb $\phi\theta\acute{a}v\omega$ does not have any direct object, there is nobody before whom you do something, it is just an idiomatic construction. A similar example from Plato:

οὐκ ἂν φθάνοις λέγων
 Start your speech once and for all! (Plato, Symposium).

5/ Inside the class of commands we should include exhortations, equivalent to the English *Let's* + *infinitive*: the subjunctive is used for this purpose (called the *jussive subjunctive*). As with the imperative, we can use present or a orist subjunctive, in order to convey the *continuous* aspect (present) or *punctual* aspect (a orist) of the verb:

διαλεγώμεθα Let's talk. (present: continuous action)
 γράψωμεν Let's write. (aorist: punctual action)

προΐωμεν εὐθύ
 Let's go immediately (Lucian, Dialogues of the Gods).

χωρῶμεν, ἐγκονῶμεν
 Let's Go, Let's Hurry (Sophocles, Aiax).

• περὶ σωφροσύνης λέγωμεν Let's talk about common sense (Aristotle, Ethic to Nicomachus).

6/ The use of the 3rd person imperative is not very common, and a good translation in English would be LET HIM/HER/THEM + infinitive:

• πάντα λεγέτω Let him/her tell everything. • εἰσιόντων Let them go in.

b) Prohibitions [276]

There are two ways of expressing a prohibition:

1/ For prohibitions of general character (but sometimes also for prohibitions regarding a specific moment), it is necessary to use the negative form of the present imperative, always with the negative particle $\mu \hat{\eta}$:

• μὴ ἀποκτείνε Do not kill.

• μὴ νῦν μοι ἐν τῷ παρόντι ὄχλον πάρεχε Do not disturb me now (Xenophon, *Symposium*).
• μὴ κρῖνε, μὴ ζέταζε Do not ask, do not investigate (Sophocles, *Aiax*).

2/ In order to express a prohibition for more specific circumstances, as for instance Do NOT WRITE NOW, the normal rule would be to use the agrist imperative, as it describes punctual actions, but to express negative commands the agrist imperative is not employed (except for the 3rd person) and, instead, the most common mood is agrist subjunctive:

• μὴ γράψης νῦν Do not write now.

• μὴ ποιήσης ταῦτα \cdot εἰ δὲ μή, ἔφη, αἰτίαν ἕξεις Do not do this; if not, he said, you will be to blame (Xenophon, *Symposium*).

• μὴ νῦν ἔτ' εἴπης μηδέν Do not say anything (Sophocles, *Electra*).

Remember that one of the uses of the subjunctive is the so-called *iussive* (or exhortative) subjunctive:

• γράψωμεν Let's write. • μὴ γράψωμεν Let's not write.

4. Expressing wishes

[277]

a) For the future

1/ The form IF ONLY... and similar expressions, used to express a wish for the future, is translated into Greek by means of optative without $\tilde{a}v$ (as usual, the choice between present or a orist will be just aspectual, not temporal):

In this construction, the negative is $\mu \hat{\eta}$:

• μὴ τὸν ἐμὸν φίλον ἀποκτείνοις If only you would not kill my friend!

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2/ It is frequent to use the introductory words $\varepsilon i\theta \varepsilon$ or $\varepsilon i \gamma \alpha \rho$ at the beginning:

- εἴθε οἱ θεοὶ τὴν πόλιν σώζοιεν IF ONLY THE GODS WOULD SAVE THE CITY!
- εἰ γὰρ ὁ Σωκράτης τοὺς παῖδας διδάσκοι If only Socrates would teach the children!
- εἴθε, εἶπεν, ὧ Φαρνάβαζε, ... φίλος ἡμῖν γένοιο μᾶλλον ἢ πολέμιος If Only, Pharnabazus, you were our friend rather than our enemy! He said (Plutarch, Agesilaos).

3/ A very common use of this style of optative is $\alpha \pi o \lambda o i \mu \eta v$ May I DIE! Of course, it does not express a real desire of dying, it is just the usual sudden reaction in front of a negative situation.

b) For the present [278]

1/ To express wishes for the present, we will use the imperfect indicative (not the present tense!):

- εἴθε οἱ θεοὶ τὴν πόλιν ἔσωζον If only the gods would save the city!
 - ♦ The difference with respect to the same sentence in optative is that, by using the imperfect, we mean that now the gods are not saving the city, but we would like them to.
- εἰ γὰρ τὸν πατέρα ὁ υἱὸς ἐφίλει IF ONLY THE SON WOULD LOVE HIS FATHER!
 - ♦ Now he does not love him, but we would like him to.
- 2/ Another way of expressing a wish for the present is to use the strong aorist ἄφελον + present infinitive:
 - ἄφελον οἱ θεοὶ τὴν πόλιν σῷζειν
 ἄφελε τὸν πατέρα ὁ υἱὸς φιλεῖν

 If only the gods would save the city!

 If only the son would love his father!
 - ἄψελε ζῆν Βροῦτος IF ONLY BRUTUS WERE ALIVE! (Plutarch, Brutus).

c) For the past [279]

1/ To express a wish for the past, use the aorist indicative:

• εἴθε οἱ θεοὶ τὴν πόλιν ἔσωσαν

If only the gods had saved the city!
• εἰ γάρ μοι τοῦτο εἶπες

If only you had told me this!

2/ To express a wish for the past it is also possible to use the strong aorist $\mathring{\omega}\phi \epsilon \lambda o v$ (aorist of $\mathring{\phi}\phi \epsilon i \lambda \omega$ to owe) + aorist infinitive:

• εἴθε ἄφελον οἱ θεοὶ τὴν πόλιν σῶσαι If ONLY THE GODS HAD SAVED THE CITY!
• ἄφελές μοι τοῦτο εἰπεῖν If ONLY YOU HAD TOLD ME THIS!



In all three cases (present, past or future), the negative particle will be $\mu \dot{\eta}$, and this holds true for compound negative pronouns, adverbs, etc., as usually happens in sentences that express subjectivity.

• εἰ γάρ μοι τοῦτο μὴ εἶπες IF ONLY YOU HAD NOT TOLD ME THIS!

5. Asking questions [280]

a) Simple questions

1/ When a yes/no question is introduced and we do not know whether the answer will be affirmative or negative, we put $\tilde{a}\rho a$ or $\tilde{\eta}$ at the beginning (equivalent to the Latin -ne):

• ἄρα ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ὁρᾶς; But don't you see that man?

• ἄρα λέγεις ὂ καὶ ἐγὼ τότε ὑπώπτευσα ...; But do you mean what I supposed before ...? (Plato, *Theaetetus*).

2/ If we suppose that the answer will be *yes*, we put $\tilde{\alpha}\rho\alpha$ or $o\tilde{v}\kappa ovv$ at the beginning (equivalent to the Latin *nonne*):

• οὔκουν ἐν ταῖς Ἀθήναις ἐστὶ ὁ Περικλῆς; Isn't Pericles in Athens? (Pericles is in Athens, isn't he?).

ἄρα οὐχ οὕτω;
 Isn't it so? (Plato, Euthyphro).

3/ If we suppose that the answer will be *no*, we put $\tilde{\alpha}\rho\alpha$ $\mu\hat{\eta}$ or $\mu\tilde{\omega}v$ ($\mu\hat{\eta}+o\tilde{v}v$) at the beginning (equivalent to the Latin *num*):

μῶν μῶρός ἐστιν ὁ Σωκράτης;
 Is Socrates a fool? (Socrates isn't a fool, is he?).

• ἄρα μὴ ἄλλο τι ἦ ὁ θάνατος ἢ τοῦτο; Was death anything other than this? (Plato, Phaedo).

4/ Double questions (X *or* Y) are introduced by πότερον or πότερα (equivalent to the Latin *utrum*), and the *or* is translated by $\mathring{\eta}$:

- πότερον πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας ἰέναι βούλει ἢ πρὸς τὴν Σπάρτην; Do you want to go to Athens or Sparta?
- πότερον οὖν αἱ γυναῖκες ἐν ταῖς πόλεσιν φρονιμώτεραί σοι δοκοῦσιν εἶναι ἢ οἱ ἄνδρες; Do the women or the men of a city seem to you to be wiser? (Plato, *Cratylus*).
- πότερον ὄντος Αἰγίσθου πέλας λέγεις τάδ' ἡμῖν, ἢ βεβῶτος ἐκ δόμων; Are you telling us this with Aigistus being nearby or has he gone out of the house? (Sophocles, *Electra*).
- πότερον ἐγώ σοι σπουδαῖος δοκῶ ἢ οὕ;
 Do I seem a diligent person to you or not?
 (Diogenes Laertius, Vitae Philosophorum).

b) Deliberative questions

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1/ The subjunctive mood is used in deliberative questions. In these questions, usually in 1st person, the speaker uses the subjunctive (either present or agrist, to convey aspectual differences) to express some degree of uncertainty about what should be done, as if he/she were asking for instructions or suggestions. For instance:

• τί ποιοῦμεν νῦν; What are we doing now?
 • ἀλλὰ τί ποιῶμεν; But what are we to do? (Plato, Symposium).
 • ὁ Subjunctive: deliberative question.

In fact, a deliberative question is just the interrogative form of an exhortative subjunctive:

τί ποιῶμεν;
 Let's do what?

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2/ Given that in the case of several verbs the 1st person singular is identical both in indicative and in subjunctive, in some cases only the context will tell us whether it is a deliberative question or not. For example:

τί αὐτῷ λέγω; could mean either What am I telling him?
 ♦ If we consider it to be indicative.
 or What am I supposed to tell him?
 ♦ If we consider it to be subjunctive.

Of course, there is no doubt if we use an agrist subjunctive (if it doesn't look like its future indicative!):

- τί αὐτῷ εἴπω;
 What am I supposed to tell him?
- **3/** A lot of times we will find the deliberative subjunctive in this kind of double use:

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• μένωμεν ἢ ἀπίωμεν;

SHALL WE REMAIN HERE OR SHALL WE LEAVE?

- ἐπισκοπῶμεν αὖ τοῦτο, ὧ Εὐθύφρων, εἰ καλῶς λέγεται, ἣ ἐῶμεν ...; Shall we examine this again, Euthyphro, to see if it is right, or shall we leave it ...? (Plato, Euthyphro).
- **4/** To formulate a negative question, the particle to be used is $\mu \hat{\eta}$, not $o\hat{v}$:
 - τοῦτο μὴ ποιῶμεν; Are we not supposed to do this?
- 5/ This example is a very common use of the deliberative question with the verb χράομαι:
 - τί χρῶμαι ἐμαυτῷ; What am I to do with myself?
- **6/** Sometimes, the deliberative question is preceded by **βούλει** or **βούλεσθε** (which can be translated as Do YOU WANT TO?), but forming an expression independent from the main sentence:
 - βούλει, ὥσπερ Ὅμηρος, εὐχώμεθα ταῖς Μούσαις...; Shall we, like Homer, invoke the Muses ...? Would you like to? (Plato, *Republic*).

c) Other questions [283]

1/ Adverbial questions use an interrogative adverb as the interrogative element, and to repeat the question Greek uses the form of an indirect question of the adverb:

ποῦ ἐστιν ὁ πατήρ;
 ὅπου; ἐν τῆ οἰκία
 Where is my father?
 ♦ Direct question
 ♦ Question repeated

2/ Adjectival questions use an interrogative adjective as interrogative element, and to repeat the question use the form of indirect question, as with the adverbs:

• τίνα ὁρᾶς; Whom do you see? • - πόσους ἀνθρώπους εἶδες; How many men did you see? - ὁπόσους; εἴκοσι How many? Twenty.

Both these types of questions are dealt with in the corresponding sections on adverbs and pronouns/adjectives.

6. Impersonal verbs

[284]

In English, impersonal verbs normally use the pronoun T to indicate their subject: It is necessary to go there, It is not possible to do this, etc., but in Greek there is not a neuter pronoun equivalent to the pronoun T in this usage. As in most languages, the verb will always be in T person singular.

a) General information

1/ The most important impersonal verbs are:

δεῖ	IT IS NECESSARY	ἔνεστι	IT IS POSSIBLE
	♦ fut. δεήσει, aor. ἐδέησε	πάρεστι	IT IS POSSIBLE
χρή	IT IS NECESSARY	μέτεστι	THERE IS A SHARE (OF + Gen.)
	\diamondsuit fut. χρήσ $oldsymbol{arepsilon}$ and χρήσ $oldsymbol{ au}$ αι,	δοκεῖ	IT SEEMS WELL
	infinitive $\chi \rho \widetilde{\eta} \nu$ and $\chi \rho \widetilde{\eta} \nu \alpha \iota$, no aorist	συμβαίνει	IT HAPPENS
πρέπει	IT IS CONVENIENT	συμφέρει	IT IS CONVENIENT
ἔξεστι	IT IS POSSIBLE	μέλει	IT INTERESTS

2/ Impersonal verbs are almost always used with infinitives. For instance:

• δεῖ τοῦτο ποιεῖν
 IT IS NECESSARY TO DO THIS
 ♦ Note that there is no subject for the verb δεῖ.

• τὰ γὰρ ἀληθῆ χρὴ λέγειν It is necessary to speak the truth (Lysias, In Andocidem).

• ἐν οὖν τοιούτοις οὕτε σωφρονεῖν, φίλαι, οὕτ' εὐσεβεῖν πάρεστιν In such circumstances, my friends, it is not possible either to be prudent or to be pious (Sophocles, *Electra*).

3/ They can also rule a whole infinitive construction, i.e. the infinitive may have its own subject:

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- δεῖ ὑμᾶς τοῦτο ποιεῖν It is necessary for you to do this, you must do this, etc.
 - ♦ Observe that there are various ways to translate this construction.

Grammatically speaking, $\dot{\nu}\mu\alpha\varsigma$ τοῦτο ποιεῖν (YOU TO DO THIS) is in fact what it is necessary to do, therefore this infinitive clause represents the actual subject of $\delta\epsilon$ ῖ; but this is just a grammatical appreciation and it is not strictly necessary to translate it correctly. Another example:

- δεῖ οὖν τὸν στρατηγοῦντα τοῦτο παρασκευάζειν τοῖς ἑλομένοις αὐτὸν στρατηγόν The commander must therefore provide this to those who have chosen him general (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).
- **4/** This subject will be expressed in accusative only with the impersonal verbs $\delta \tilde{\epsilon \iota}$ and $\chi \rho \dot{\eta}$, while with the other ones it will take the dative:
 - ἔξεστί μοι ἐκεῖσε ἰέναι I can go there ("it is possible for me to go there"). • πάρεστι τῷ διδασκάλῳ πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας πορεύεσθαι It is possible for the teacher to go to Athens / The
 - TEACHER CAN GO TO ATHENS, ETC.
 - σοὶ μὲν ἔξεστιν εἰπεῖν ἄ βούλει, ἐμοὶ δὲ καὶ λέγειν καὶ ποιεῖν You can say what you want, but I can both say and do what I want (Plutarch, *Artaxerxes*).

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5/ If the infinitive is a verb that has a predicative object and the impersonal verb rules dative, the predicative object can be *either in accusative* (which is normal for the predicative object of an infinitive) *or in dative* (agreeing with the "subject"):

• ἔξεστί μοι δίκαιον εἶναι / ἔξεστί μοι δικαίφ εἶναι Ι CAN BE FAIR ("IT IS POSSIBLE FOR ME TO BE FAIR").

b) Special cases [286]

1/ $\chi p \dot{\eta}$ has a strange ending in $-\eta$, because in fact it is not a verb but a noun (the original expression was $\chi p \dot{\eta} \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \iota$, but the $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \iota$ was lost in the course of time), so that its imperfect is $\chi p \ddot{\eta} v$ ($\chi p \dot{\eta} + \ddot{\eta} v$, do not confuse it with the infinitive which can be written in the same way) or even $\dot{\epsilon} \chi p \ddot{\eta} v$ (a curious case of an augment in front of a noun, which proves that it ended up to be considered as a verb):

- ἐχρῆν / χρῆν σε τὴν πόλιν λαβεῖν You had to capture the city.
- ἐσημαίνετέ μοι ... ἄ τ᾽ ἐχρῆν ποιεῖν καὶ ἃ οὐκ ἐχρῆν YOU INDICATED TO ME WHAT IT WAS NECESSARY AND WHAT IT WAS NOT NECESSARY TO DO (Xenophon, Cyropaedia).
- **2/** When dealing with $\xi\xi\varepsilon\sigma\tau$, we must take into account that we may find the form $\xi\sigma\tau$ itself with the meaning IT IS POSSIBLE; observe that the only difference with the real HE/SHE IS $\xi\sigma\tau$ is the position of the accent:
 - ἔξεστι πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας πορεύεσθαι = ἔστι πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας πορεύεσθαι | It is possible to go to Athens.
 - νῦν δὲ διὰ τὰ πράγματα εὐωνοτάτους ἔστι φίλους ἀγαθοὺς κτήσασθαι Now, because of the state of affairs, it is possible to acquire good friends at a very cheap price (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

But be careful: if $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau\dot{\iota}$, with its normal meaning, is used to open a sentence, we will write $\ddot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau\iota$:

- ὁ Σωκράτης ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις ἐστίν = ἔστιν ὁ Σωκράτης ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις Δος Socrates is in Athens.
- ἔστιν ἐν ἀνθρώποις ψεύδεσθαι; ἔστι μέντοι, ἔφη
 Is the concept of Lying inherent to Men? It is indeed, he said (Xenophon, Memorabilia).
- **3/** δοκεῖ (the aorist is ἔδοξε, not ἐδόκησε as we would expect) is a verb that is frequently employed as a substitute [287] for the English verb TO DECIDE:
 - δοκεῖ τῷ στρατηγῷ τήμερον μάχεσθαι It seems good to the general to fight today = The general decides to fight today.
 - ἔδοξε τῷ δικαστηρίῳ δῆσαι τὸν Ἐρασινίδην It seemed good to the court to imprison Erasinides = The court decided to imprison Erasinides (Xenophon, Hellenica).
 - ἔδοζε πλεῖν τὸν ᾿Αλκιβιάδην
 It was decided that Alcibiades should depart (Thucydides, Historiae).

In fact, this verb stands for TO SEEM (among other secondary meanings), although it is frequently used with the enhanced meaning TO SEEM GOOD. But observe this example, where it conveys only the meaning of TO SEEM:

• πάντα αὐτοῖς ἐδόκει ἐπὶ ξυνωμοσία ὀλιγαρχικῆ καὶ τυραννικῆ πεπρᾶχθαι Everything seemed to them to have been done pointing towards an oligarchical and absolutist conspiracy (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

4/ There are two verbs, one of which is a compound form of the other one, that rule a *genitive of object*:

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μέλει: in fact the verb μέλω exists also as a personal verb, and it means to be of concern, to interest:

• μέλω τοῖς διδασκάλοις Interest the teachers, The teachers are interested in Me, etc.

But its use in the 3^{rd} person is so frequent that it is considered also as an impersonal verb, and in this case the object of interest is usually given in genitive:

• μέλει μοι τῶν βίβλων

BOOKS INTEREST ME.

• καὶ πάνυ γ', ἔφη ὁ Ἰσχόμαχος, μέλει μοι τούτων ὧν ἐρωτῷς And what you are asking interests me a lot, said Ischomachus (Xenophon, *Oeconomicus*).

This verb has a compound, $\mu \epsilon \tau \alpha \mu \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \iota$, which means to REPENT (OF), and also the object of repentance must be expressed either in the genitive case or as a participle:

• μεταμέλει μοι τῶν ἀμαρτημάτων I REPENT (OF) THE SINS.

• οὐ μεταμέλει μοι τῆς αἰρήσεως Ι DO NOT REPENT (OF) THE CHOICE (Lucian, Hermotimus).

• **μετεμέλοντο** τὰς σπονδὰς οὐ **δεξάμενοι** They repented (of) not having accepted the truce (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

5/ Another personal verb that may be used impersonally is $\sigma \nu \mu \beta \alpha \dot{\nu} \epsilon \iota$, in the sense of TO HAPPEN:

• ἔπειτα δὲ τάδε συνέβη And afterwards these things happened

 \diamond So, we can use it as a synonym of γίγνομαι.

• πολλὰ καὶ χαλεπὰ συμβαίνει τοῖς ἀνθρώποις Many bad things happen to men (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

c) The personal construction

[289]

Sometimes verbs that are not impersonal, like $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$, are used impersonally:

• λέγεται τοὺς παῖδας ἐν τῆ ἀγορᾶ εἶναι IT IS SAID THAT THE CHILDREN ARE IN THE AGORA.

But in Greek it is much more frequent to use the so called *personal construction*:

• οἱ παῖδες λέγονται ἐν τῇ ἀγορᾳ εἶναι It is said that the children are in the agora.

↓ Literally, The Boys are said to be in the agora.

• ὁ Τάνταλος ἐν Ἅιδου λέγεται τὸν ἀεὶ χρόνον διατρίβειν (Xenophon, *Oeconomicus*).

It is said that Tantalus spends eternity in Hades

♦ Literally, Tantalus is said to spend eternity in Hades.

b) Subordinate clauses

1. The concept of Oblique Optative

[290]

Before entering the forest of subordinate clauses, we must first acquaint ourselves with the Oblique Optative.

a) Replacing an indicative

1/ In indirect sentences, what is said (or would be said) in the direct style is usually kept in indicative:

• οὖτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος λέγει ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐν τῆ πόλει ἐστίν This man says that Socrates is in the city.

Note that if the introductory verb is in a secondary tense (imperfect, aorist or pluperfect), the natural tendency in English is to say This man said that Socrates was in the city. However, Greek retains the tense in which the reported speech was originally delivered, which, in this case, was Socrates is in the city:

- οὖτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐν τῆ πόλει ἐστίν ΤΗΙ SMAN SAID THAT SOCRATES WAS (literally, /s) IN THE CITY.
- **2/** There is an optional change that can be made in cases such as this, when the introductory verb is in secondary tense; [291] the indicative verb can be replaced by the equivalent tense in the optative mood. This is called the *Oblique Optative*:
 - οὖτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐν τῇ πόλει ἐστίν or εἴη (same meaning).

In the above example, a present optative can replace the present indicative. Observe another example:

- ὁ στρατηγὸς λέγει ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι μάχονται ΤΗΕ GENERAL SAYS THAT THE ATHENIANS ARE FIGHTING.
- $\dot{0}$ στρατηγὸς εἶπεν ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι μάχοιντο The general said that the Athenians were fighting.
- **3/** Verbs in other tenses can also undergo this switch to the optative: a future indicative will be replaced by a future optative, etc. However, there is no imperfect tense in the optative (only the indicative mood has an imperfect tense). Observe the following example:
 - $\dot{o} \; \Sigma \omega \kappa \rho \acute{\alpha} \mbox{thz en th pholes have Socrates was in the city.}$

If this is put into reported speech and the introductory verb is in a secondary tense, the original indicative can be kept or put into the optative, but as there is no imperfect optative the present tense would be used instead:

• οὖτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐν τῇ πόλει εἴη or ἦν This man said that Socrates was in the city.

Here are a couple of original examples:

- ὁ Τισσαφέρνης ... εἶπεν ὅτι εἰς λόγους **βούλοιτο** αὐτῷ ἀφικέσθαι Tissaphernes said that he wanted to talk to him (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
 - \diamond βούλοιτο replaces βούλεται: from the present indicative to the present optative.

• εὐθὺς δὲ Σεύθη εἶπεν ὅτι συστρατεύσοιτο αὐτῷ Immediately he told Seuthes that he would march with him (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

💠 συστρατεύσοιτο replaces συστρατεύσεται: from the future indicative to the future optative.

b) Replacing a subjunctive

[292]

[293]

1/ In subordinate sentences that use the subjunctive (with verbs of fear, purpose clauses and other subordinates that have not yet been introduced), the same phenomenon can take place: if the *introductory* verb is in a secondary tense, the subjunctive *can* be replaced by the equivalent tense in optative. For example:

• ἔρχεται οἴκαδε ἵνα νέαν βίβλον γράφη

HE GOES HOME TO WRITE A NEW BOOK.

• ἦλθεν οἴκαδε ἵνα νέαν βίβλον γράφη οτ γράφοι

HE WENT HOME TO WRITE A NEW BOOK.

• οὕτω δ' ἐτάχθησαν, ἵνα μὴ διέκπλουν διδοῖεν ΤΗΕΥ ΑΝΥ ΟΡΤΙΟΝ ΟΓ BREAKING THROUGH (Xenophon, Hellenica).

THEY [SHIPS] WERE ARRANGED IN THIS WAY, IN ORDER NOT TO GIVE

- φοβοῦμαι μὴ οἱ πολέμιοι τὴν πόλιν διαφθείρωνται
- I FEAR THE ENEMY MAY DESTROY THE CITY.
- ἐφοβεῖτο μὴ τῆ οὐρᾳ ἐπίθοιντο οἱ πολέμιοι (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

HE FEARED THE ENEMY WOULD FALL UPON HIS REAR

2/ Note that the same can also happen in deliberative questions (i.e. not a subordinate clause):

• τί ποιῶμεν;

WHAT ARE WE TO DO?

• ἠποροῦντο τί ποιῶσι οι ποιοῖεν

THEY WERE ASKING WHAT THEY WERE TO DO.

c) Final remarks:

1/ When the main verb is in a primary tense (present, future or perfect), the main sentence and the subordinate sentence are said to form a *primary sequence*; but if the main verb is in a past tense (imperfect, aorist or pluperfect) and the verb of the subordinate sentence can be moved to the optative, the main and the subordinate sentences are said to form a *secondary sequence*. Using one of the former examples:

• ὁ στρατηγὸς λέγει ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι μάχονται

THE GENERAL SAYS THAT THE ATHENIANS ARE FIGHTING.

♦ Primary sequence

• ὁ στρατηγὸς εἶπεν ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι μάχονται οr μάχοιντο

THE GENERAL SAID THAT THE ATHENIANS WERE FIGHTING.

♦ Secondary sequence

2/ In both former sections **a)** and **b)**, observe that the optative is *not* accompanied by αv . Furthermore, when the original mood (either the indicative or subjunctive) of the subordinate is retained in a secondary sequence instead of being replaced by the optative, it is said that the *vivid style* is being used, which means that it is supposed that the reader-listener will perceive the action as happening realistically in front of their eyes. Using one of the former examples:

• ὁ στρατηγὸς εἶπεν ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι μάχοιντο

THE GENERAL SAID THAT THE ATHENIANS WERE FIGHTING.

- ♦ Secondary sequence, normal style.
- ὁ στρατηγὸς εἶπεν ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι μάχονται
- THE GENERAL SAID THAT THE ATHENIANS WERE FIGHTING.
- ♦ Secondary sequence, vivid style.

240 SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

2. Causal clauses [294]

a) Which conjunctions?

1/ It is customary to introduce a causal subordinate with any of these conjunctions: $\emph{ὅτι}$, $\emph{διότι}$ and $\emph{ως}$ (note also that a causal subordinate introduced by any of these three conjunctions will usually stand *after* the main clause):

- τὸ ἆθλόν σοι παρέχω, διότι ὁ ἄριστος εἶ Ι GIVE YOU THE PRIZE BECAUSE YOU ARE THE BEST ONE.

It is clear that $\delta \tau \iota$ must not be translated by THAT if used in a causal sense. Similarly, the many other meanings of $\dot{\omega} \varsigma$ are not appropriate in causal clauses.

- 2/ The conjunctions ἐπεί and ἐπειδή can also be used. However, these two conjunctions may also have the temporal meaning when. Effectively, they are the equivalent to the *Historic "cum"* in Latin, therefore they can also be translated by As, thus maintaining a *half-causal/half-temporal* meaning. Note that a causal subordinate introduced by any of these two conjunctions will usually stand *before* the main clause:
 - ἐπεὶ ὁ Περικλῆς τοῦτο εἶπεν, πάντες ἀπήλθομεν As (BECAUSE/WHEN) PERICLES SAID THIS, ALL OF US LEFT.
 - ἐπεὶ δὲ οὕτε Χειρίσοφος ἦκεν οὕτε πλοῖα ἱκανὰ ἦν ..., ἐδόκει ἀπιτέον εἶναι As neither Cheirisophos had come nor were there sufficient ships, it seemed the best idea to depart (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

b) Which mood? [295]

1/ As a general rule, the causal clause will be in the indicative mood:

- οἱ στρατιῶται εἰς τὴν πόλιν ἐπανῆλθον διότι μάχεσθαι οὐκέτι ἐβούλοντο The soldiers went back into the city because they did not want to fight any longer.
- **2/** However, if we want to convey an *alleged* reason for the cause and the verb of the main sentence is in a secondary tense, then the optative mood can be used instead (note that this is reported speech, and not an *oblique optative*):
 - οἱ στρατιῶται εἰς τὴν πόλιν ἐπανῆλθον διότι τὸν Περικλέα ἰδεῖν βούλοιντο ΤΗΕ SOLDIERS WENT BACK INTO THE CITY, ALLEGEDLY BECAUSE THEY WANTED TO SEE PERICLES.

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In this last example, the soldiers would have said WE WANT TO SEE PERICLES, even if the *real* reason for their return was another one, e.g. they did not want to fight.

3. Purpose clauses

a) Usual method

- 1/ The main way to express purpose is through a subordinate sentence introduced by the conjunction $iv\alpha$, with the verb in the subjunctive (either present or agriculture):
 - πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας οἴχομαι ἴνα τὸν ἀδελφὸν ἴδω ΙΑΜ GOING ΤΟ ATHENS ΤΟ SEE MY BROTHER.

In order to make the purpose clause negative, use $\mu \hat{\eta}$:

• ἐγώ τοι, ἔφη, ἴνα μὴ πάσχω ταῦτα, οὐδ' εἰς πολιτείαν ἐμαυτὸν κατακλείω In order not to suffer this, I do not shut myself up in a community (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

• τρέχομεν ἴνα οἱ πολέμιοι μὴ λαβῶσιν ἡμᾶς We are running so that the enemies do not capture us.

mu Some authors reduced ἴνα μή to just μή, shifted to the place previously occupied by ἴνα. The former example could be written as:

- τρέχομεν μὴ οἱ πολέμιοι λαβῶσιν ἡμᾶς We are running so that the enemies do not capture us.
- τὸν οὖν παρόντα πέμψον ἐς κατασκοπήν, μὴ καὶ λάθη με προσπεσών Send this man here as a lookout, Lest he [somebody else] turns up and I do not realise it (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).

2/ Instead of $\tilde{\mathbf{t}} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, the conjunctions $\tilde{\mathbf{o}} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ can be used. In purpose clauses, the two last conjunctions (not $\tilde{\mathbf{t}} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$) may be accompanied by the particle $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{v}$:

- οἴκαδε βαίνει ὅπως (ἄν) ἀναπαύηται He is going home to rest.
- ἴθ', ἐκκάλυψον, ὑς ἴδω τὸ πᾶν κακόν Come on, unconceal him, so that I may see all the evil (Sophocles, *Aiax*).
- ήμεῖς οἱ στρατηγοὶ ... ἐβουλευομεθα σὰν τοῖς Κερασουντίοις ὅπως ἂν ταφείησαν οἱ τῶν Ἑλλήνων νεκροί We the generals ... deliberated with the people of Cerasus in order that the dead of the Greeks could be buried (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

3/ If the introductory verb is in a past tense (imperfect or aorist), the subjunctive may be replaced by the corresponding [297] tense of the optative (*oblique optative*):

- ἐδράμομεν ἵνα οἱ πολέμιοι μὴ λάβοιεν ἡμᾶς We ran so that the enemies would not capture us.
- οἱ δ' Ἀθηναῖοι, ἵνα μὴ διασπασθείησαν, ἐπηκολούθουν And the Athenians, in order not to be detached, followed them (Xenophon, Hellenica).

If Note this exception: if the main clause happens to be an expression conveying desire, the verb of the purpose clause must be in the *same mood* as the verb of the main clause:

- εἴθε τοῦτο εἰδείην ἵνα σοι εἴποιμι | If only I knew this so I could tell you!
- εἴθε αὐτὸν εἶδον ἵνα ἐφύλαξα If only I had seen him so I could have protected him!

In these two examples, iva is followed by an optative (this is not an oblique optative) and an indicative respectively.

b) Other methods [298]

1/ There are other methods through which purpose can be expressed. For example, using a *future participle* (sometimes preceded by $\dot{\omega}$ s):

- ὁ ἀχιλλεὺς τρέχει πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ὡς τοὺς πολεμίους ἀποκτενῶν Achilles is running towards the city in order to kill the enemies (observe that this is a future participle of a liquid verb).
- καὶ ὁ Θράσυλλος ... εἰς ᾿Αθήνας ἔπλευσε ταῦτα ἐξαγγελῶν καὶ στρατιὰν καὶ ναῦς αἰτήσων And Thrasyllus ... sailed to Athens to announce this and to ask for an army and ships (Xenophon, Hellenica).

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Remember that since it is a participle it can agree with an object instead of with the subject:

- τὸ ξῖφος τῷ στρατιώτη δίδωμι ὡς ἐν τῆ μάχη μαχησομένο I GIVE THE SWORD TO THE SOLDIER SO THAT HE MAY FIGHT IN THE BATTLE.
- ἔπεμψε Θεόπομπον ... εἰς Λακεδαίμονα ἀπαγγελοῦντα τὰ γεγονότα Ηε sent Theopompus ... το Lacedaemon so that he would announce the events (Xenophon, Hellenica).

2/ After some verbs, the infinitive can also have a meaning of purpose, especially after verbs that have meanings of *qiving, sending,* etc., although the use of the infinitive to express purpose is not a common method:

- πέμπω τὴν βίβλον τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἀναγιγνώσκειν Ι AM SENDING THE BOOK TO MY BROTHER TO READ.
- $\dot{\tau}$ où vou $\dot{\alpha}$ in $\ddot{\alpha}$ $\dot{\pi}$ in $\dot{\tau}$ I am taking the wine to drink.
- τοὺς ἐπιτηδείους ἔπεμψε τούτων ἐπιμεληθῆναι He sent the proper persons to take care of all these things (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- 3/ A peculiar method used to express purpose is by means of a neuter article in the genitive + infinitive:
 - τὰς βίβλους ἔκρυψα τοῦ μὴ τοὺς πολεμίους αὐτὰς καίειν Ι hid the books lest the enemy would burn them.

4. Temporal clauses

[300]

a) Main temporal clauses

1/ The main conjunctions that are used to translate the English word when are \Box ὅτε (or \Box ὁπότε whenever), \Box ἐπεί and \Box ἐπειδή. The primary difference between them is that ὅτε means when in the sense of at the same time as, while ἐπεί and ἐπειδή mean when in the sense of after:

- ὅτε ἐγὼ οἴκοι ἦν, σὸ ἐν τῆ ἀγορῷ ἦσθα
 When I was at home, you were in the agora
 Note that both actions happened simultaneously.
- ὅτε δ᾽ αὕτη ἡ μάχη ἐγένετο, Τισσαφέρνης ἐν Σάρδεσιν ἔτυχεν ὄν When this battle took place, Tissaphernes happened to be in Sardis (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- ἐπειδὴ οἱ ἡγεμόνες τοῦτο εἶπον, οἱ πολῖται ἀπῆλθον
 When the leaders had said this, the citizens left
 Note that this means After the leaders had said this, the citizens left: the action of the temporal clause took place first.
- ἐπεὶ δ' εἰς τὴν 'Ασίαν ἀφίκοντο, συνήγαγε στρατιώτας When they arrived in Asia, he gathered soldiers (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

Remember, also, from the previous section on causal clauses that $\epsilon \pi \epsilon i$ and $\epsilon \pi \epsilon i \delta i$ may have a causal meaning. These [301] two words can therefore be considered the equivalent to the *Historic* "cum" in Latin, with this half-causal / half-temporal meaning commonly translated by As.

2/ These two conjunctions also have the meaning of when:

- \Box ἡνίκα, used in the same way as ὅτε: when in the sense of at the same time as.
- \Box ώς, used in the same way as ἐπεί: WHEN in the sense of after.

• ἡνίκα δ' ἦν ἀμφὶ μέσας νύκτας, ... When it was around midnight, ... (Xenophon, Cyropaedia). • ώς δὲ ἔγνω τὸ πρᾶγμα, ... When he learned about the matter, ... (Xenophon, Cyropaedia). **3/** Other conjunctions or idiomatic combinations that introduce temporal clauses include: [302] □ ἐπεὶ πρῶτον and ἐπεὶ τάχιστα AS SOON AS • οἱ δὲ τριάκοντα ἡρέθησαν μὲν ἐπεὶ τάχιστα τὰ μακρὰ τείχη ... καθηρέθη ΤΗΕ THIRTY WERE CHOSEN AS SOON AS THE LONG WALLS ... HAD BEEN DEMOLISHED (Xenophon, Hellenica). \Box ἔστε, μέχρι and μέχρι οδ UNTIL (sometimes WHILE) • ἐμάγοντο ... μέχρι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι ἀπέπλευσαν εἰς Μάδυτον THEY FOUGHT UNTIL THE ATHENIANS SAILED AWAY TO MADYTUS (Xenophon, Hellenica). • ἐκεῖ ἔμεινε ... μέχρι οὖ Κῦρος εἰς Σάρδεις ἀφίκετο HE REMAINED THERE ... UNTIL CYRUS ARRIVED AT SARDIS (Xenophon, Hellenica). \Box $\dot{\epsilon}\xi$ $o\tilde{b}$ and $\dot{\alpha}\pi\dot{o}$ $o\tilde{b}$ (usually written $\dot{\alpha}\phi'$ $o\tilde{b}$) SINCE • τοὺς γὰρ ξένους, ἐξ οὖ ὅ τε Σίνις καὶ ὁ Σκείρων καὶ ὁ Προκρούστης ἀπέθανον, οὐδεὶς ἔτι ἀδικεῖ Since Scinis, Sceiron and Procrustes died, nobody offends the foreigners (Xenophon, Memorabilia). □ ἐν ὧ WHILE • ἐν δὲ πάντα ταῦτα ἐπράττετο, τὰ κατὰ θάλατταν ... γενόμενα διηγήσομαι Ι WILL EXPLAIN WHAT HAPPENED ... AT SEA

There are two more conjunctions that present some complications, as their meaning varies and is dependent on the verbal mood that accompanies them: $\pi \rho i v$ and $\epsilon \omega c$.

b) The conjunction $\pi \rho i \nu$ Until/Before

[303]

This conjunction may mean either UNTIL or BEFORE.

1/ If it is followed by a *finite verb*, it means UNTIL or BEFORE indistinctly:

WHILE ALL OF THIS WAS TAKING PLACE (Xenophon, Hellenica).

- ὁ ἀδελφὸς οὐκ ἀπῆλθε πρὶν ἦξα My brother did not leave until/before l arrived.
- οὐ πρόσθεν ἐπαύσαντο πρὶν ἐξεπολιόρκησαν τὸν Ὅλουρον ΤΗΕΥ DID NOT STOP UNTIL/BEFORE THEY HAD CAPTURED OLOUROS (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

Both meanings can be used interchangeably, but the final meaning will be the same one, and observe that the main sentence is usually *negative*. So, if we want to translate UNTIL into Greek (in a meaning transposable with BEFORE), as in DO NOT WRITE UNTIL/BEFORE THE TEACHER ORDERS YOU TO, we will use $\pi \hat{p}(v) + a$ finite form:

• μὴ γράφε πρὶν ὁ διδάσκαλος ἄν κελεύη Do not write until/before the teacher orders you to.

• οὐκ ἔγραψα πρὶν ὁ διδάσκαλός μοι ἐκέλευσεν I DID NOT WRITE UNTIL/BEFORE THE TEACHER TOLD ME TO.

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The main sentence will usually be negative, but this is not always the case. For example, in this sentence the main clause is *positive*, and $\pi \rho i \nu$ is followed by a finite form:

• ἐνθάδε ικοῦν πρὶν πρὸς τὴν Λακεδαιμονίαν μετέστην Ι Lived Here until/before I moved to Lacedaemonia.

2/ If it is followed by an *infinitive*, it will only convey the meaning of BEFORE:

[304]

- οἱ Ἀθηναῖοι πολῖται ἀεὶ ἐβουλεύοντο πρὶν ψηφίζεσθαι ΑTHENIAN CITIZENS ALWAYS DELIBERATED BEFORE VOTING.
- ἀεὶ λούομαι πρὶν καθεύδειν Ι ALWAYS TAKE A BATH BEFORE SLEEPING.
- δεῖ σέ μοι διαλέγεσθαι πρὶν παρὰ τὸν Κῦρον ἐλθεῖν You should talk with me before going to Cyrus.
- πρὶν δὲ πεντεκαίδεκα στάδια διεληλυθέναι ἐνέτυχον ἥδη νεκροῖς Before having advanced fifteen stades, they already came across corpses (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἐτοῖμος ἦν, πρὶν ἐκπλεῖν, κρίνεσθαι He was willing to be judged before sailing off (Thucydides, Historiae).

As it can be seen, in this case the main sentence is usually positive; but again this is not a golden rule, observe this example in which the main clause is negative, and $\pi\rho i v$ is followed by an infinitive:

• οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι πολῖται οὑ διενοήθησαν πρὶν ψηφίζεσθαι ΤΗΕ ΑΤΗΕΝΙΑΝ CITIZENS DID NOT THINK BEFORE VOTING.

3/ As usual, if the subject of the infinitive is different from the subject of the main verb, it will be in the accusative:

• ἀπήλθομεν πρὶν τὸν διδάσκαλον ἀφικέσθαι We departed before the teacher arrived.

• πρίν σε τὰς ᾿Αθήνας καταλιπεῖν, τὰς βίβλους ἀποδώσω Βefore you leave Athens, I will give you the books back.

c) The conjunction ἕως UNTIL/WHILE/AS LONG AS

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1/ If $\check{\epsilon}\omega\varsigma$ is followed by an *indicative*, it may mean either WHILE or UNTIL; the context will indicate which meaning is most appropriate. As a general rule, if followed by an imperfect it will mean WHILE (continuous action), and if followed by an aorist it will mean UNTIL (punctual action):

- ἔως σὺ ἐν τῆ Σ πάρτη ἦσθα, ἐγὼ τὴν οἰκίαν ὡκοδόμησα While you were in Sparta, I constructed the house.
- ὁ γεωργὸς ἔκαμνεν ἔως ὁ δεσπότης αὐτὸν οἴκαδε εἰσεκάλεσεν The farmer was working until the master called him home.
- ὁ μέντοι ᾿Αγησίλαος ... περιέμενεν ἔως οἱ φύγαδες τῶν Κορινθίων ἐποίησαν τῷ Ποσειδῶνι τὴν θυσίαν Agesilaos waited until the exiles of the Corinthians had made the sacrifice to Poseidon (Xenophon, Hellenica).

If $\check{\epsilon}\omega\varsigma$ is followed by a *subjunctive* + $\check{\alpha}v$ (or *optative* without $\check{\alpha}v$ in secondary sequence), it means UNTIL but with a sense [306] of temporal indefinition:

• μένε ἐνθανδε ἔως ἂν ἐγὼ ἐλπανέλθω Wait here until I come back.

ἐκέλευε ... φυλάττειν, ἔως ἀν αὐτὸς ἔλθη
 He ordered them ... To be on guard until he himself would come (Xenophon, Hellenica).

2/ As we can see, in the first examples $\check{\epsilon}\omega\varsigma$ dealt with facts that had really taken place: the master called the slave home, and somebody was in Sparta; but when $\check{\epsilon}\omega\varsigma$ is followed by a subjunctive + $\check{\alpha}v$ (primary sequence) or optative (secondary

sequence), it means UNTIL, and it always refers to a future action that may, or may not, take place. Observe the difference in these examples:

- ὁ γεωργὸς κάμνει ἔως ἀν ὁ δεσπότης αὐτὸν οἴκαδε εἰσκαλῆ ΤΗΕ FARMER WORKS UNTIL THE MASTER CALLS HIM HOME.
 - ♦ This means that he has decided to work until the master calls him, but this moment is indefinite.
- ὁ γεωργὸς ἔκαμνεν ἔως ὁ δεσπότης αὐτὸν οἴκαδε εἰσκαλέσειεν The farmer was working until the master would call him home.
 - ♦ This means that he had decided to work until the master would call him, but did the master ever call him?

3/ Another meaning of $\check{\epsilon}\omega\varsigma$ (like $μ\acute{\epsilon}χρι$) is as LONG AS:

• τοῖς δ' Ὀρχομενίοις εἶπεν, ἔως στρατεία εἴη, παύσασθαι τοῦ πολέμου He told the inhabitants of Orchomenos to stop making war as long as the campaign went on (Xenophon, Hellenica).

d) Indefinite ever temporal clauses

[307]

[308]

[This concept is dealt with in further detail in the corresponding section on indefinite clauses.]

Linked to this last point of temporal indefinition we have seen for $\mathbf{\check{\epsilon}\omega\varsigma}$, we can find the same type of construction with several other temporal constructions that would use the word EVER to be translated into English. When a future *indefinite* action is referred to in a subordinate sentence, as in When you send me your book I will read it (this is indefinite because who knows when that person will send the book, if ever), the verb of the main sentence is in the *future tense of the indicative*, as expected, and the subordinate sentence is in *subjunctive* + $\mathbf{\check{a}v}$. Note that the same applies for repeated actions in the present. In this case, rather than a repeated action, it is an *indefinite* action in the future tense. The particle $\mathbf{\check{a}v}$ is sometimes linked to the conjunction.

Observe the following examples:

(Xenophon, Hellenica).

• ἐπειδὰν τὸν παῖδα πρὸς ἐμὲ πέμψης, αὐτὸν παιδεύσω

• ὅταν οἱ πολέμιοι ἤκωσιν, ἐτοῖμοι ἐσόμεθα

• ὅταν τὸν Σωκράτη ἐν τῇ ἀγορῷ ἴδω, πάντα ἐρῶ

Ενερυτηίνος.

• ἔπειδὰν μέντοι τοῦτο γένηται, ἡγησόμεθα μέν, ἔφη, ἡμεῖς

Whenever I see Socrates in the agora, I will ask him

Whenever I see Socrates in the agora, I will ask him

Whenever I see Socrates in the agora, I will ask him

Whenever I see Socrates in the agora, I will ask him

Everything.

In Greek, there are two ways of expressing a clause introduced by ALTHOUGH, IN SPITE OF: with a subordinate or with a participle.

a) With a subordinate

5. Concessive clauses

We must use the conjunction $\kappa\alpha i$ and the conditional particle ϵi (or $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}v$, if it is an indefinite event); in fact, what we shall be translating literally is EVEN IF. Note that the choice between ϵi or $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}v$ and of the tense of the subordinate verb adheres to the same rules as seen for conditional sentences; for example:

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- καὶ εἰ (ορ εἰ καὶ) νοσῶ, ἐν τοῖς ἀγροῖς καρτερῶς πονῶ Although I am ill, I am working hard in the fields.
- εἰ καὶ τὰ μέγιστα εἰς ἐμὲ ἐξημάρτανον, οὐκ ἂν οἶόν τ' ἦν δίκην με παρ' αὐτῶν λαμβάνειν EVEN IF THEY HAD WRONGED ME VERY GREATLY, IT WOULD NOT BE POSSIBLE THAT I WOULD TAKE REVENGE FROM THEM (Lysias, Areopagiticus).
- καὶ ἐὰν (ορ ἐὰν καὶ) οὖτος ὁ ἀθλητὴς μάλιστα ἀσκῆ, τὰ Ὀλύμπια οὐ νικήσει Αιτhough this athlete may practise a lot, he will not win in the Olympic games.
- τοῦτο μὲν γὰρ καὶ ἐὰν κρατήσωσιν ὁμοίως δράσουσιν Ενεν if they win, they will nevertheless do this (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

b) With a participle [309]

The conjunction $\kappa\alpha i\pi\epsilon\rho$ must be placed before the participle, and the tense of the participle will be dependent upon the temporal relationship with the main event:

- καίπερ νικήσας, ὁ Περικλῆς τοὺς αἰχμαλώτους οὐκ ἀπέκτεινεν In spite of having won (although he had won), Pericles did not kill the prisoners.
- καίπερ ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις οὖσα, ἡ Λυσιστράτη τῷ Δικαιοπόλει οὐκ ἐνέτυχεν In spite of being in Athens, Lysistrata did not come across Dikaiopolis.
- ἀΑγησίλαος δέ, **καίπερ αἰσθανόμενος** ταῦτα, ὅμως ἐπέμενε τᾶις σπονδαῖς Agesilaos, in spite of knowing this, nevertheless went on abiding by the truce (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

This construction may also be used with a participle absolute:

- καίπερ τῶν Λακεδαιμονίων τὰς σπονδὰς λυσάντων, οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι τῆ Λακεδαιμονίᾳ οὐκ ἐπέθεντο Αιτhough the Spartans had broken the truce, the Athenians did not attack Lacedaemonia.
- καίπερ ἀκηρύκτφ πολέμφ τῶν Φωκέων χρωμένων, πεζη διεπορεύθη εἰς τὴν Βοιωτίαν Αιτhough the Phocians were waging a cruel war, he proceeded on foot into Boeotia (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

6. Result clauses

To express the result or consequence of what has been expressed in the main sentence, Greek uses a subordinate clause, introduced by ιστε (or, sometimes, ισς). The verb of the subordinate clause may be in the infinitive or the indicative, depending on the nuance we wish to convey. Usually we will find the adverb οιστω(ς) (so) in the main sentence as a marker of a following result clause.

a) Expression of the real result

If we want to express the real result of an action, we use the indicative:

- ούτω ταχέως τρέχει ἄστε οἱ φίλοι αὐτὸν οὐ νικῶσιν ΗΕ RUNS SO QUICKLY THAT HIS FRIENDS DO NOT BEAT HIM.
- ούτω σοφός ἐστι ἄστε πάντα γιγνώσκει He is so wise that he knows everything.
- ἐμὲ δὲ οὕτως ὀξέως καὶ ῥαδίως κατεῖδεν ἄστε ἀσεβείας ἐγράψατο He has examined me so sharply and so easily that he has accused me of impiety (Plato, *Euthyphro*).

The negative is $o\vec{v}$, since it denotes a fact. Note that result clauses *never* use the oblique optative when the main verb is past.

b) Expression of the possibility of the result

[311]

1/ If we want to express the possibility of the result, we use the infinitive. The negative is $\mu\dot{\eta}$, since it denotes a possibility:

- οὕτω σοφός ἐστι ἄστε πάντα γιγνώσκειν He is so wise so as to know everything.
- οὕτω ταχέως τρέχει ἄστε τοὺς φίλους νικᾶν ΗΕ RUNS SO QUICKLY SO AS TO BEAT HIS FRIENDS.
- ὁ δὲ οὕτως ἀντεσκευάσατο τὸ οἶκον **ἄστε** τούτων μηδενὸς **προσδεῖσθαι** But he, on the contrary, arranged his house in such a [simple] way as not to need any one of these things (Xenophon, *Agesilaos*).

The infinitive can be used in result clauses even in cases where it is evident that the result did happen:

- οὕτως ἀνδρεῖοι οἱ ελληνες ἦσαν ἄστε τοὺς Πέρσας ἐν τῷ Μαραθῶνι νικᾶν ΤΗΕ GREEKS WERE SO BRAVE AS ΤΟ DEFEAT THE PERSIANS AT MARATHON ♦ They did defeat them. This is a fact, not just a possibility.
- 2/ If the subject of the infinitive is different to that of the main clause, it will be in the accusative case:

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- οὕτως κακῶς διδάσκει **ἄστε πάντας τοὺς μαθητὰς ἀπελθεῖν** He teaches so badly as to make all the students leave.
- ἀδικοῦντα Φίλιππον ἐξήλεγχα φανερῶς οὕτως ἄστε τοὺς ἐκείνου συμμάχους αὐτοὺς ἀνισταμένους ὁμολογεῖν I proved that Philippos was acting wrongly so clearly as to make his allies stand up and agree [with me] (Demosthenes, *De Corona*).

It is clear that the THAT by which we translate $\mathring{\omega}\sigma\tau\epsilon$ is not the same as the THAT by which we translate other words, such as $\mathring{\sigma}\tau\iota$. The meaning of THAT by which we translate $\mathring{\omega}\sigma\tau\epsilon$ is one which denotes a following consequence.

3/ Sometimes the word that tells us that a result clause will follow may be a quantitative demonstrative (τοσοῦτος) [313] or a qualitative demonstrative (τοιοῦτος), instead of οὕτως:

- τοσούτους στρατιώτας εἶχον ἄστε τὴν πόλιν ῥαδίως ἔλαβον ΤΗΕ CITY EASILY.
- ἐγὰ δὲ δὴ εἰς τοσοῦτον ἀμαθίας ἥκω ἄστε καὶ τοῦτ ἀγνοᾶ I have reached such a point of ignorance that I do not even know this (Plato, *Apology*).
- εἰς τοῦτο μανίας ἀφικόμην ἄστε ἐπιθυμεῖν εἶς ὢν πολλοῖς μάχεσθαι I had reached such a state of madness so as to want to fight, I alone against many (Lysias, Contra Simonem).

Or there can even be no marker:

• πέφυκεν ἐσθλός, ἄστ' ἀρκεῖν φίλοις He is a brave man, so that he will help his friends (Sophocles, *Electra*).

c) A special use [314]

1/ The combination of a comparative adjective or adverb with $\check{\eta}$ (THAN) and a result clause using the infinitive, instead of the expected second term of the comparison, has the meaning of too + adjective...to + infinitive, as for instance, TOO CLEVER TO MAKE A MISTAKE. The construction is as follows:

• ὁ Σωκράτης σοφώτερός ἐστιν ἢ ἄστε ἀμαρτάνειν Socrates is too wise to make a mistake (literally, Socrates is wiser *Than so as to* make a mistake).

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This can be more easily understood if one imagines what has been elided between the $\mathring{\eta}$ and the $\mathring{\omega}\sigma\tau\epsilon$; for example, THE WAY HE SHOULD BE. Then the sentence would read SOCRATES IS WISER THAN (THE WAY HE SHOULD BE) SO AS TO MAKE A MISTAKE.

So, to translate He is too slow to win we would literally say He is slower than so as to win:

- βραδύτερός ἐστιν ἢ ὥστε νικᾶν ΗΕ IS TOO SLOW TO WIN.
- 2/ This construction can be used also with other verbs:
 - ἤσθοντο αὐτὸν ἐλάττω ἔχοντα δύναμιν ἢ ὤστε τοὺς φίλους ἀφελεῖν They realised that he had too small a force to help his friends (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

d) After a full stop [315]

ωστε after a full stop (or any mark of punctuation that denotes the end of a sentence) must be translated by THEREFORE or AS A RESULT:

- σὺ τοῦτο ἐποίησας, οἶδα ὅτι: ἄστε ἆθλόν σοι δώσω You have done this, I know. Therefore, I will give you a prize.
- ἄστε οὐδέποτε ἐκεῖ οἱ παῖδες ἔρημοι ἄρχοντός εἰσι Therefore, Children there [in Sparta] are never without a leader (Xenophon, *De Republica Lacedaemoniorum*).

7. Conditional clauses [316]

a) The conditional period

- 1/ A conditional period consists of two parts: the conditional clause, known as the *protasis*, and the main clause, known as the *apodosis*. For example, in the sentence IF YOU GIVE ME THE BOOK, I WILL BE GLAD: the introductory IF $(\varepsilon \hat{\iota})$ clause is the protasis, and the second clause is the apodosis. Both together form what is usually called a *conditional period*.
- **2/** There are several types of conditional periods. These are dependent on whether or not the condition takes place; whether it is probable or improbable. For example, in the sentence IF YOU HAD BEEN HERE YESTERDAY, WE WOULD HAVE WRITTEN THE LETTER, it is evident that the condition can no longer be accomplished. But in the sentence IF YOU WERE HERE, WE WOULD WRITE THE LETTER, it seems that this can still take place. Each period has its own degree of possibility of accomplishment.
- **3/** Conditional periods are classified in many different ways: according to the degree of accomplishment, according to the verbal mood they use, etc. There is no international agreement on this. The classification offered here is the most common method presented in grammars and textbooks.

The negative adverb in the protasis is $\mu \hat{\eta}$, and in the apodosis it is $o\hat{v}$ (the same rule applies to compounds with either).

b) Real conditionals [317]

1/ These are conditionals in which it is supposed that the condition is accomplished. They are also known as *open conditionals*. Both the protasis and apodosis use an indicative tense, but in some cases we can find an imperative. The translation into English should be literal.

εἰ τοῦτο λέγεις, μῶρος εἶ
 εἰ τοῦτο εἶπες, ἤμαρτες
 εἰ τοῦτο εἶπες, ἤμαρτες
 εἰ τοῦτο βούλει, δός μοι τὰ χρήματα
 εἰ δούλει βίβλον γράφειν, σοφὸς εἶ
 εἰ χρήματα εἶχες, πολλοὺς φίλους εἶχες
 εἰ βούλει τοῖς θεοῖς δῶρα δοῦναι, παρέχε αὐτοῖς πρόβατα
 εἰ βούλει τοῖς θεοῖς δῶρα δοῦναι, παρέχε αὐτοῖς πρόβατα
 εἰ βούλεσθε ἀκοῦσαι οἶος ἐν ταῖς μάχαις ἦν, ἐρῶ καὶ τοῦτ ὑμῖν
 (indicative + indicative)
 IF YOU WANT TO WRITE A BOOK, YOU ARE WISE.
 (indicative + indicative)
 (indicative + indicative)
 (indicative + imperative)
 • ει **βουλέσθε** ακουσαι οιος εν ταις μαχαις ην, **ερω** και τουτ υμιν (Indicative + Indicative) IF YOU WANT TO KNOW WHICH KIND OF MAN I WAS IN THE BATTLES, I WILL TELL YOU THIS ALSO (Plato, *Banquet*).

2/ But in some cases, the combination of tenses may look really strange to an English speaker, and then the translation should be adapted. For instance, observe this combination of *future + present* (in any case, take into account that poetic language allows itself some indulgences):

• εἰ δὲ τοῦ χρόνου πρόσθεν θανοῦμαι, κέρδος αὕτ' ἐγὼ λέγω If I (WILL) DIE BEFORE TIME, I CALL IT A BENEFIT (Sophocles, Antigone).

c) Eventual conditionals

[318]

1/ The most common variety of conditional period in Greek is the so-called eventual period, which follows this pattern:

 $\varepsilon i + \alpha v + \text{subjunctive } (protasis)$, future indicative (apodosis).

Almost always $\varepsilon \dot{t} + \ddot{\alpha}v = \dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\alpha}v$, which makes this kind of period very recognizable. In this category of conditionals, it is supposed that it is possible that the condition expressed in the protasis (the half containing $\dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\alpha}v$) may take place.

- ἐἀν τοῦτο τῷ στρατηγῷ λέγης, οὖτος νέα ὅπλα σοι δώσει If you say this to the general, he will give you new weapons.
- ἀλλ' ἔσται ταῦτα, ἐὰν θεὸς ἐθέλη ΙΤ WILL BE SO, IF THE GOD WISHES (Plato, *lon*).
- ἐἀν τὸ ἐμὸν τειχισμὸν βούλη δικαίως σκοπεῖν, εὑρήσεις ὅπλα καὶ ... If you want to inspect my fortification carefully, you will find weapons and ... (Demosthenes, *De Corona*).

2/ Note that this period of conditional has a variation: instead of a future indicative, an imperative may be used for the main sentence:

• ἐὰν νικᾶν βούλη, μάχου IF YOU WANT TO WIN, FIGHT.

The difference in this use of subjunctive + αv is that it has an ever meaning; we could have translated this sentence as IF YOU EVER WANT TO WIN, FIGHT. Another example:

- ἐὰν δὲ δημοκρατία γένηται, εὖ ἴστε, ἔφη, ὅτι διαμενεῖ ὑμῖν ἡ πόλις If ever democracy is established, be sure that the city will remain true to you (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- **3/** It is also common to find a participle instead of the usual protasis with εi if:
 - μὴ τοῦτο ποιήσας, οὐ νικήσεις Νοτ having done this / If you have not done this, you will not win.

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Observe that the negative is $\mu \hat{\eta}$, which in fact is what supplies the participle with the conditional nuance, since if the sentence were $o\hat{\boldsymbol{v}}$ τοῦτο ποιήσας, $o\hat{\boldsymbol{v}}$ νικήσεις then it would be implied that we know for certain that the person has not done τοῦτο.

Note

This use of a participle instead of a protasis is not restricted to this type of conditionals: it can be found in real conditionals, eventual conditionals, etc.

d) Potential conditionals

[320]

In this kind of conditionals, usually known as *potential conditionals*, in which the optative is used *both* in the protasis *and* in the apodosis, the condition expressed is a mere supposition of the speaker, and most probably has not yet taken place. These conditionals correspond to the English IF I WERE (in the future) IN ATHENS, I WOULD SEE THE ACROPOLIS, and with verbs other than *to be* they can be translated by SHOULD/WOULD. The apodosis must have the particle αv :

• εἰ ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις εἴην, τὴν ᾿Ακρόπολιν ἴδοιμι ἄν If I were in Athens, I would see the Acropolis. • εἰ τοῦτό μοι εἴποις, ἄσμενος ᾶν εἴην If you should tell me this, I would be happy.

εἰ ἀδίκως ἀλοίην, ἀποδραίην ἄν
 If I were to be declared guilty against justice, I would run away (Lysias, Pro Milite).

As usual, the choice between the present or the agrist optative is an aspectual matter.

e) Unfulfilled present conditionals

[321]

These conditionals are used to indicate that the condition is not being accomplished now, but could still possibly be accomplished in the future. In this case, the imperfect tense is used in both the protasis and the apodosis, and the particle $\ddot{\alpha}v$ is positioned near the verb in the apodosis. Note that, if the apodosis is negative, the negative $o\dot{v}$ is almost always written before $\ddot{\alpha}v$ (this rule is valid for all classifications of conditionals):

- εἰ τὴν βίβλον ἔγραφες, σοφὸς ἐγίγνου ἄν IF YOU WROTE THE BOOK, YOU WOULD BECOME WISE.
- εἰ ἐν τῆ μάχη ἐμάχου, ἐνίκας ἄν

 IF YOU FOUGHT IN THE BATTLE, YOU WOULD WIN.
- εἰ μὲν ἀλλάξασθαί σε ἔδει ..., οὐκ ἀν ἔγωγέ σοι συνεβούλευον If you had to change..., I would not advise you to (Xenophon, Hellenica).

Remember: Unfulfilled conditions in the present do not mean that the present tense is required, but rather that the condition is not fulfilled right now, in the present. It thus refers to the time in which the action takes place, and not to the tense that should be used.

f) Unfulfilled past conditionals

[322]

These conditionals are used to indicate that the condition has not been accomplished (and can no longer be accomplished). In this case, the aorist tense is used in both halves, and the particle αv is added in the apodosis:

- εἰ τὴν ἀλήθειαν εἶπες, ὁ βασιλεὺς πολλὰ χρήματά σοι παρέσχεν ἄν

 If you had spoken the truth, the king would have offered you much money.
- εἰ δὲ μὴ ἐβοήθησαν αὐτοῖς ..., ἐκινδύνευσαν ἄν ἄπαντες ἀπολέσθαι If they had not helped them ..., all of them would have been in danger of dying (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- εἰ χθὲς ἦλθες, τὸν ἐμὸν πατέρα εἶδες ἄν IF YOU HAD COME YESTERDAY, YOU WOULD HAVE SEEN MY FATHER.

g) Variations [323]

Of course, it is possible to combine the former types of conditionals into hybrid variations, if the meaning dictates this. For instance:

- εἰ χθὲς τὴν Σπάρτην κατέλιπες, νῦν ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις ἦσθα ἄν If you had left Sparta yesterday, now you would be in Athens.
 - ♦ Note the agrist tense in the protasis and the imperfect tense in the apodosis.
- εἰ δὲ κερδαίνειν ἐβούλου, τότ ἀν πλεῖστον ἔλαβες

 ΤΑΚΕΝ MORE (Lysias, *Areopagiticus*).

 IF YOU WANTED TO MAKE A PROFIT, YOU WOULD HAVE
 - ♦ Note the imperfect tense in the protasis and the agrist tense in the apodosis.
- οὐδ' ἱκόμην ἔγωγ' ἄν, εἰ σὰ μὴ κάλεις
 I WOULD NOT HAVE COME, IF YOU WERE NOT CALLING ME
 (Sophocles, Oedipus Tyrannos).
 - ♦ Note the imperfect tense in the protasis and the agrist tense in the apodosis.

h) Repeated condition in the present

[324]

These conditionals are in fact a derivation of the eventual period, but it is assumed that the stated condition takes place repeatedly, therefore the protasis is translated as EVERY TIME THAT rather than the customary IF. As in the case of eventual conditionals, the protasis uses $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}v$ + subjunctive, but the apodosis uses the present indicative.

• ἐἀν ὁ πατὴρ πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἤκη, δῶρα τοῖς παισὶ φέρει Every time the father comes to the city, he brings presents to the children.

i) Repeated condition in the past

[325]

These conditionals are similar to **h**), with the exception that the repeated actions have taken place in the past. The protasis uses the optative (the usual replacement in secondary sequence for a subjunctive + αv in primary sequence), and the apodosis uses the imperfect tense.

• εἰ ὁ πατὴρ πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἥκοι, δῶρα τοῖς παισὶ ἔφερεν Every time the father came to the city, he brought presents to the children.

8. Relative clauses [326]

a) An introduction to the use of the relative

1/ A relative clause is a subordinate clause that provides additional information concerning something or somebody (the antecedent) mentioned in the main clause. Relative clauses are introduced by a relative pronoun: in English this may be WHICH, WHO, THAT, WHOM, etc. It is imperative that the Greek relative pronoun agrees with the antecedent in both gender and number (although there are exceptions). Its case will be determined by its role in the relative sentence and is independent of the role of the antecedent in the main sentence. Let's see some examples:

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• The BOY WHO IS HERE IS CLEVER: WHO IS HERE is the relative clause inside the main clause The BOY IS CLEVER. The word BOY is its antecedent (the relative clause refers to it), so the relative who must be singular and masculine like BOY, and in the nominative case because it has the role of subject in the relative sentence (note that in this example both antecedent and relative are in the same case):

ό παῖς ὃς πάρεστι σοφός ἐστιν.

• THE WOMEN WHOM YOU SAW YESTERDAY WENT TO ATHENS: WHOM YOU SAW YESTERDAY is the relative clause, which is inside the main clause THE WOMEN WENT TO ATHENS. The word WOMEN is its antecedent, so the relative whom must be feminine and plural like WOMEN, and in the accusative case because it has the role of direct object in the relative sentence (note that in this example the antecedent and relative are in different cases):

αί γυναῖκες ὰς σὺ χθὲς εἶδες πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας ἦλθον.

- **2/** As we can see, the antecedent and the relative pronoun (usually known as *the relative*) may perform different roles in their respective sentences. Observe a further example:
 - The women *TO WHOM YOU OFFERED THE BOOKS* ARE CLEVER. Main clause: The women are clever. Relative clause: *TO WHOM YOU OFFERED THE BOOKS*. The antecedent of *TO WHOM* is THE WOMEN, so the relative must be *feminine and plural* like women, and in the *dative case* because it has the role of indirect object in the relative clause:

αί γυναῖκες αἷς τὰς βίβλους παρέσχες σοφαί εἰσιν.

The women (the antecedent) in the main clause performs the function of subject, in this case, and therefore is in the *nominative case*, but *TO WHOM* (the relative) performs the role of indirect object in its relative clause, therefore it must be in the *dative case*.

3/ A good way to identify the role of the relative in its clause is by replacing it with its antecedent and to then "reorder" the clause: *TO WHOM YOU OFFERED THE BOOKS > TO THE WOMEN YOU OFFERED THE BOOKS > YOU OFFERED THE BOOKS TO THE WOMEN*: the indirect object role of *TO THE WOMEN* (and, therefore, of the relative which was in its place) seems now evident.

b) Normal uses of the relative

[328]

The relative sentences we have dealt with up to now were fairly straightforward - the antecedent was the subject of its clause and the relative was in the appropriate case. Now, more complicated examples will be introduced.

1/ The antecedent may not be the subject:

- τὰ ὅπλα ἔδωκα τῷ ἀνθρώπῳ ὃν γιγνώσκεις Ι GAVE THE WEAPONS TO THE MAN (WHOM) YOU KNOW.
- ♦ Observe that sometimes it is not necessary to express the relative in English, but it must be expressed in Greek.

In this case, the antecedent (THE MAN) performs the role of indirect object, and therefore is in the dative case, and the relative performs the role of direct object, and therefore is in the accusative case.

• ἐπὶ δὲ τὸ ναυτικόν, ὃ ἐκεῖνος ἡθροίκει ..., ἐξεπέμφθη Κρατησιππίδας Cratesippidas was sent against the navy *that that man had gathered* (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

2/ Whose = of whom / of which:

[329]

Sentences with this kind of possessive relative may cause some confusion, but we must simply remember that whose is nothing else than of whom. Observe the following sentence:

I SEE THE SOLDIERS WHOSE WEAPONS YOU HAVE = I SEE THE SOLDIERS THE WEAPONS OF WHOM YOU HAVE.

Whose performs the role of possessive object, equivalent to of whom. By replacing the relative with the antecedent and re-ordering the sentence, we will have: The weapons of whom you have > The weapons of the soldiers you have > You have The weapons of the soldiers, from which it is evident that it is a possessive object and therefore will be in the genitive case. As the antecedent is soldiers, the relative will have to be masculine, plural and in the genitive case, and the final result will be:

• ὁρῶ τοὺς στρατιώτας ὧν τὰ ὅπλα ἔχεις | I see the soldiers whose weapons you have.

Two further examples:

- ἐκεῖ ἐστι ἡ παῖς ἦς τὸν πατέρα γιγνώσκεις There is the girl whose father you know (= there is the girl the father of whom you know).
- μαντικῆς δὲ πάμπολυ ἀποδεῖν μοι δοκεῖ, ἦς τὸ ἔργον τὰ ἄδηλα ... προγιγνώσκειν It seems to me that he is very far from divination, *the purpose of which is to discover what is unclear* (Lucian, *Hesiodus*).

3/ With prepositions: [330]

The relative, apart from adopting the necessary case, may also have prepositions, since it is in fact performing the role of a noun, in whichever case it may be. Observe these examples:

• οἱ παῖδες σὸν οἶς παίζεις ἀνδρεῖοἱ εἰσιν ΤΗΕ BOYS WITH WHOM YOU PLAY ARE BRAVE.

The expression with needs the preposition $\sigma \dot{v}v + dative$; therefore, the relative is masculine, plural and dative.

• οἰκῶ ἐν τῆ πόλει πρὸς ἣν βαίνεις Live in the city *τοwards which you go*.

The expression Towards requires the preposition $\pi\rho\acute{o}\varsigma$ + accusative; therefore, the relative is *feminine* (because $\pi\acute{o}\lambda\iota\varsigma$ is feminine), *singular* and *accusative*.

- ... ἐγγὺς Καδουσίων, ἐφ' οὺς ἐστράτευσεν ... NEAR THE CADUSIANS, AGAINST WHOM HE HAD MARCHED (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- ὁ σὸς δὲ πατὴρ ἔγημε τὴν τοῦ ἐμοῦ πατρὸς θυγατέρα, ἐξ ἦς σὸ ἐγένου Your father married the daughter of my father, from whom you were born (Xenophon, Cyropaedia).

c) Special uses of the relative

[331]

1/ Connective relative:

a/ It is possible to find a relative immediately following a strong pause, usually a full stop. It could be a relative that belongs to the next sentence, as in this example:

• ὁ ἐμὸς ἀδελφὸς στρατηγός ἐστιν' ὂν δὲ ὁρᾶς, στρατηγὸς οὐκ ἔστιν ΜΥ BROTHER IS A GENERAL; BUT THE MAN WHOM YOU SEE IS NOT A GENERAL.

In this case, the connective $\delta \dot{\varepsilon}$ shows that the relative belongs to the new sentence that follows after the pause. It is clear that there are *two sentences* after the high dot: the relative one and the main one.

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b/ However, if there is no connective particle after the pause, the relative is a *relative of connection*, and it should be translated as if it were a demonstrative or a personal pronoun:

• \dot{o} $\dot{\varepsilon}\mu\dot{o}$ ς $\dot{\alpha}\delta\epsilon\lambda\phi\dot{o}$ ς στρατηγός $\dot{\varepsilon}$ στιν: \dot{o} ν πάντες φιλοῦσιν My brother is a general; all love this one/him.

• πολλοὺς μαθητὰς ἔχω· οἶς βίβλους δίδωμι Ι HAVE MANY DISCIPLES; I GIVE BOOKS ΤΟ THESE/ΤΟ THEM.

Observe in both examples the lack of connective. Now let's see some examples without the initial sentences:

[following a full stop] ων εἶς καὶ Ξενοφῶν ἦν
 OF THESE, XENOPHON WAS ALSO ONE (Xenophon, Anabasis).

- [following a full stop] www καὶ τὸν ᾿Αλκιβιάδην ἐπητιῶντο ΤΗΕΥ MADE ALCIBIADES RESPONSIBLE FOR THIS (Thucydides, Historiae).
- [following a full stop] οὖς οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι, ἐπεὶ τὸ πρᾶγμα ἠγγέλθη, συλλαβόντες ἐφύλαττον ΤΗΕ ΑΤΗΕΝΙΑΝS, WHEN THE MATTER WAS REPORTED, SEIZED THESE MEN AND KEPT THEM UNDER GUARD (Xenophon, Hellenica).

2/ Attraction of the relative:

[332]

a/ If the antecedent is *either in the genitive or the dative* and the relative is expected to be in the *accusative*, the relative can then adopt the case of the antecedent:

- τοῦτο δίδωμι τοῖς στρατιώταις οὖς ὁρᾶς > τοῦτο δίδωμι τοῖς στρατιώταις οἶς ὁρᾶς Ι GIVE THIS TO THE SOLDIERS YOU SEE.
- ἔχω τὰς βίβλους τῆς παιδὸς ἣν φιλεῖς > ἔχω τὰς βίβλους τῆς παιδὸς ἦς φιλεῖς I have the books of the girl you love.
- εν ἐθαύμασα τῶν πολλῶν ὧν ἐψεύσαντο Ι was surprised by one of the many lies they told (Plato, Apologia).

b/ If the antecedent is simply a demonstrative, as previously seen, it may be absent, but the relative can nevertheless be attracted to the case in which it would have been found:

- ἔχω τὰ ὅπλα τούτου ον ἀπέκτεινα > ἔχω τὰ ὅπλα τούτου οὖ ἀπέκτεινα > ἔχω τὰ ὅπλα οὖ ἀπέκτεινα Ι have the weapons of the one I killed.
- ὁ μὲν δὴ Ξενοφῶν οὕτω θυσάμενος οἶς ἀνεῖλεν ὁ θεὸς ἐξέπλει Xenophon, after thus making sacrifices to those (gods) whom the god had said, sailed away (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

This happens even if there is a preposition:

• ἐργάζομαι σὸν τούτῳ ὃν ὁρᾶς > ἐργάζομαι σὸν τούτῳ ῷ ὁρᾶς > ἐργάζομαι σὸν ῷ ὁρᾶς Ι WORK WITH THE ONE YOU SEE.

3/ Lack of antecedent: [333]

Sometimes the antecedent, usually a generic THIS or THAT, is not expressed:

- ος νῦν τῷ Περικλεῖ μάχεται ὁ ἐμὸς ἀδελφός ἐστιν This one (masculine) who fights now with Pericles is My brother.
- αι πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας ἔρχονται σοφαί εἰσιν

 These (feminine) who go towards Athens are clever.

This one of the first sentence and These of the second are not expressed in Greek; if expressed, they would have been οὖτος and ἐκεῖναι respectively.

- πιστεύω γὰρ δίκαια εἶναι αι λέγω ΙτΗΙΝΚ ΤΗΑΤ WHAT I SAY IS FAIR (Plato, Apologia).
- εἰπὼν ἄπειμὶ ὧν οὕνεκὶ ἦλθο
 I WILL LEAVE AFTER SAYING WHY ("THE THINGS BECAUSE OF WHICH") I CAME
 (Sophocles, Oedipus Rex).
- παρεκάλεσαν δὲ καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἀνδρῶν οὖς ἐδόκουν δικαιοτάτους εἶναι Of the Other Men, they convoked also those whom they considered to be most fair (Xenophon, Anabasis).

4/ Agreement with more than one antecedent:

[334]

- **a/** If the antecedents are people and have different genders, the relative is put in *masculine plural*:
 - οἱ ἄνδρες καὶ αἱ γυναῖκες οὺς ὁρᾶς σοφοί εἰσιν ΤΗΕ ΜΕΝ AND THE WOMEN YOU SEE ARE CLEVER.

b/ If the antecedents are things (or abstract concepts or similar, but not people) and have different genders, the relative is put in *neuter plural*:

• θαυμάζω τὴν τιμὴν καὶ τὸν θυμὸν ἃ ὁ στρατηγὸς ἔχει Ι Admire the honour and the spirit that the general has.

5/ Attraction of the antecedent by the indefinite relative:

[335]

A sentence containing an indefinite relative, such as $o\dot{v}\delta\epsilon$ is $\dot{c}\sigma\tau$ is meaning THERE IS NOBODY WHO, can experience an attraction of the antecedent (and any noun accompanying it) to the case of the indefinite relative. After such a change the verb $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\iota}\mu\dot{\iota}$ is usually omitted.

- ἐν τῆ χώρα οὐκ ἦν **οὐδεὶς πολέμιος ὄντινα** ἐγὼ οὐκ ἐνίκησα In the country there was no enemy whom I had not defeated can become ἐν τῆ χώρα **οὐδένα πολέμιον ὄντινα** ἐγὼ οὐκ ἐνίκησα (same meaning).
- οὐδεμία βίβλος ἐστὶν ἥντινα ἐγὼ οὐκ ἀνέγνων There is no book which I have not read can become οὐδεμίαν βίβλον ἥντινα ἐγὼ οὐκ ἀνέγνων (same meaning).

6/ Inclusion of the antecedent:

[336]

a/ In some cases, the antecedent of a relative can be incorporated into the relative clause itself, and it will then take on the case of the relative. For example:

• ἔχω τὴν βίβλον ἐν ἢ τοῦτο γέγραπται Ι HAVE THE BOOK IN WHICH THIS IS WRITTEN can become ἐν ἢ βίβλω τοῦτο γέγραπται, ταύτην ἔχω (same meaning).

Note that the antecedent has lost the article and that we may use a demonstrative pronoun to make the connection easier, but this is not compulsory, as we can see in the following example:

• ἡ πόλις ἐν ἡ οἰκεῖς καλλίστη ἐστίν The city in which you live is very beautiful can become ἐν ἡ πόλει οἰκεῖς καλλίστη ἐστίν (same meaning).

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• ἀδικεῖ Σωκράτης οὖς μὲν ἡ πόλις νομίζει θεοὺς οὐ νομίζων Socrates commits a crime not believing in the gods in which the city believes (Xenophon, Memorabilia).

The "expected" order would have been ἀδικεῖ Σωκράτης τοὺς θεοὺς οὺς μὲν ἡ πόλις νομίζει οὐ νομίζων (note, moreover, that in this case no attraction has occurred, as both happened to be direct objects in their respective sentences).

b/ Sometimes, after including the antecedent into the relative clause, the relative takes the case of the antecedent:

• οἱ μὲν ἄλλοι τεχνῖται ἀποκρύπτονταί πως τὰ ἐπικαιριώτατα ἦς ἕκαστος ἔχει τέχνης The other artists somehow conceal the most important aspects of the skill that each one has (Xenophon, *Economics*).

We would have expected ... ἐπικαιρώτατα τῆς τέχνης ἣν ἕκαστος ἔχει.

Note

As the final result is that the relative clause appears before the main one, some grammarians call this inverse prolepsis.

7/ Generic μή in a relative clause:

[337]

As happens when applying $\mu \hat{\eta}$ instead of $o\hat{v}$ to a participle, $\mu \hat{\eta}$ can give the relative clause a general meaning:

- ἃ οὐκ ἔχω ποιεῖν οὐ ποιῶ Ιοο not do what I cannot do.
- ♦ Something definite, for example: to speak a particular language, to swim, etc.
- α μὴ ἔχω ποιεῖν οὐ ποιῶ
 Ι DO NOT DO THE KIND OF THINGS THAT I CANNOT DO.
- ♦ Something abstract: anything that I do not know how to do.
- οὐ γὰρ ἃ πράττουσιν οἱ δίκαιοι, ἀλλ᾽ ἃ μὴ πράττουσι, ταῦτα λέγεις You are saying not what the just do, but whatever they do not do (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

In fact, this is almost the same as using an indefinite clause with the indefinite relative in much the same way as:

• ὅστις ἂν τοῦτο μὴ λέγη, σοφός ἐστιν Whoever does not say this, is wise.

8/ Lack of agreement in number:

[338]

Sometimes a relative may be plural while the antecedent is singular. This is due to the fact that this singular can be taken as representative of a general whole (note that we have retained this incongruence in the English translations supplied below):

• ὅστις ἂν βίβλους γράφη, τούτους τιμῶ

Whoever writes books, I love these.

- ♦ Meaning anybody who writes books.
- ὁ ἐμὸς πατὴρ διδάσκαλός ἐστιν, οἱ τοὺς παῖδας παιδεύουσιν My father is a teacher, (those) who teach the children.

 † Meaning that all teachers teach the children.

9. Comparative clauses

[339]

a) First type

Comparative clauses comprehend four types of clauses, one of which has been explained in the previous chapter on correlatives: the comparisons by means of the correlatives $\tau o \iota o \tilde{v} \tau o \sigma o \tilde{v} \sigma o$

b) Second type

The second type of comparatives are those used to express THE MORE..., THE MORE..., for which we use a fixed form (either in the accusative neuter or in the dative) of the correlatives:

 \mathring{o} σον (or \mathring{o} σ \mathring{o}) ..., τοσο \mathring{v} τον (or τοσο \mathring{v} τ \mathring{o}) ... \diamondsuit Usually in this order.

• ὄσον μᾶλλον ἐν τοῖς ἀγροῖς κάμνω, τοσοῦτον πλουσιώτερος γίγνομαι The more I work in the fields, the richer I become.

• οὖτοι δὲ ὄσφ ἂν πλείω σπείρωσι, τοσούτφ μᾶλλον τῆς εἰρήνης ἐπιθυμήσουσι ΤHESE PEOPLE, THE MORE THEY SOW, THE MORE THEY WILL DESIRE PEACE (Xenophon, Hellenica).

c) Third type [340]

1/ The third type is comparative clauses that explain that something happens (or has happened, or will happen, or will not happen, etc.) in the same way as some other event. The comparison can be introduced by $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$, $\dot{\omega}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$ or $\dot{\sigma}\pi\omega\varsigma$:

• οὕτω ταχέως ἔδραμεν ὡς ὁ ἄλλος δρομεύς He ran as quickly as the other runner.

• τοῦτο οὕτως ἐποίησα, ἄσπερ με ἐκέλευσαν I DID IT SO, AS THEY ORDERED ME.

• οὖτοι μὲν οὖν, ἄσπερ ἐγὼ λέγω, ἤ τι ἢ οὐδὲν ἀληθὲς εἰρήκασιν These people, as I say, have said either little or nothing true (Plato, *Apologia*).

• ἐντὸς γὰρ εἴκοσιν ἡμερῶν ἥγαγε τοὺς ἄνδρας, ἄσπερ ὑπέστη FOR WITHIN TWENTY DAYS HE BROUGHT THE MEN, AS HE HAD PROMISED (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

2/ The use of ισπερ / ις + participle meaning as IF, in sentences such as He IS ALWAYS GIVING ME ORDERS, AS IF HE WERE MY MASTER, should also be included in this group:

• ἀεί με κελεύει, ἄσπερ ὁ ἐμὸς δεσπότης ἄν ΗΕ IS ALWAYS GIVING ME ORDERS, AS IF HE WERE MY MASTER.

• ἄλλοι δὲ τῶν Θρακῶν τὸν ἕτερον ἐξέφερον ὡς τεθνηκότα Other Thracians carried off the other one, as if he were dead (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

3/ Another way of expressing this meaning of AS IF is by means of ἄσπερ εἰ and then the potential construction of optative + ἄν, although usually the ἄν is placed immediately after the ὅσπερ:

- οὖτος γὰρ ἐμοὶ φαίνεται τὰ ἐναντία λέγειν αὐτὸς ἑαυτῷ ἐν τῆ γραφῆ ισπερ ἂν εἰ εἴποι· ᾿Αδικεῖ Σωκράτης θεοὺς οὐ νομίζων, ἀλλὰ θεοὺς νομίζων He seems to me to contradict himself in the accusation, as if he said "Socrates commits a crime not believing in gods but believing in gods" (Plato, Apologia).
- **4/** Or even imperfect indicative instead of optative (the choice of tense depends on the sense that we want to express: potential sense, sense of unfulfilled condition in the present, etc. Observe the parallelism to the conditional sentences):
 - ἀλλὰ προσέχων ἐμοὶ τὸ νοῦν ἀπόκριναι, **ἄσπερ ὰν εἰ** ἐξ ἀρχῆς πάλιν **ἡρώτων** But pay attention to me and answer as if I were asking again from the very beginning (Plato, Hipparchus).
- **5/** In some expressions, $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ alone will be enough to produce this effect:
 - ἀπέπλεον ... ἐκ τῆς Σικελίας ὡς ἐς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας They sailed away from Sicily as if towards Athens (Thucydides, Historiae).

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d) Fourth type [342]

The fourth type is formed by comparatives that have a form of the adjective $\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\alpha \dot{\mathbf{v}} \tau \dot{\mathbf{o}} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ (THE SAME) in the main sentence: THE SAME ... AS... For example: I HAVE THE SAME BOOK AS YOU.

1/ There are several ways in which to express as in such sentences: $\kappa \alpha i$ (obviously, in this case it will mean neither AND nor ALSO), $\delta \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho$ (when a comparison is drawn between the way in which actions are performed), or the necessary form of the relative $\delta \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho$ (in most cases, more than one option is acceptable):

- ἔχω τὴν αὐτὴν βίβλον ἤνπερ σύ
- I HAVE THE SAME BOOK AS YOU.
- ♦ Here the emphasis is on which you have, therefore the relative has been used.
- ἔχω τὴν αὐτὴν βίβλον καὶ σύ

- I HAVE THE SAME BOOK AS YOU.
- \Leftrightarrow Here the emphasis is on AS YOU HAVE, therefore **κα**ί has been used to convey this meaning of AS; alternatively, $\mathring{\mathbf{ωσπερ}}$ or the relative could also be used.
- ἐγὼ τοῦτο ἐποίησα τῷ αὐτῷ τρόπῳ ὧπερ σύ Η HAVE DONE THIS IN THE SAME WAY AS YOU.
 - \diamond Here the emphasis is on IN THE SAME WAY IN WHICH, therefore the relative should be used.
- 2/ Another way of expressing the second term of the comparison is by means of the dative:

[343]

• ἔχω τὴν αὐτὴν βίβλον σοί

- I HAVE THE SAME BOOK AS YOU.
- \diamondsuit Alternatively, καὶ σύ would also be appropriate, or also using ισπερ σύ.
- - \diamondsuit Alternatively, $\kappa\alpha\dot{\imath}$ $\sigma\dot{\upsilon}$ would also be appropriate, or also using $\mathring{\omega}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$ $\sigma\dot{\upsilon}$.

10. Fear clauses [344]

a) To fear that something may happen or may have happened

1/ The main verb that expresses fear is $\phi o \beta o \tilde{\nu} \mu \alpha \iota$. When expressing a positive fear, such as I FEAR / I AM AFRAID THAT HE WILL COME, the THAT clause is introduced by the negative $\mu \hat{\eta}$ which is not translated. However, when expressing a negative fear, such as I FEAR / I AM AFRAID THAT HE WILL NOT COME, the THAT clause is introduced by the double negative $\mu \hat{\eta}$ $o \hat{\upsilon}$, of which only the second negative is translated. Therefore:

 Ψ I fear that he will ... φοβοῦμαι μὴ ... Note: μή = that Ψ I fear that he will not ... φοβοῦμαι μὴ οὐ ... Note: μὴ οὐ = that ... not

2/ When expressing a fear concerning the present or the past, the *indicative* (in the relevant tense) is used in the THAT clause: [345]

 \bullet φοβούμεθα μὴ ἤδη τοῦτο ποιοῦσιν We fear that they are already doing this.

• φοβούμεθα μὴ ἤδη τοῦτο ἐποίησαν We fear that they have already done this.

• νῦν δὲ φοβούμεθα μὴ ἀμφοτέρων ἄμα ἡμαρτήκαμεν Now we fear that we have made a mistake in both aspects (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

3/ But, when expressing a fear concerning a future event, something that has not yet happened, then the *subjunctive* (either present or aorist, depending on the aspect) is used in the THAT clause:

- φοβοῦνται μὴ οἱ πολέμιοι αὔριον μάχωνται Τhey fear that the enemies will/may fight tomorrow.
- φοβοῦνται μὴ οἱ σύμμαχοι αὔριον οὐκ ἀφίκωνται They fear that the allies will / may not arrive tomorrow.
- οἱ στρατηγοὶ τῶν ᾿Αθηναίων ἀπεδέξαντο καὶ αὐτοὶ φοβούμενοι μὴ οὐχ ἱκανοὶ ὧσι Λέσβῳ πάση πολεμεῖν
 The generals of the Athenians acknowledged, they themselves also fearing that they would not be enough to fight against all Lesbos (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- 4/ As usual, if the introductory verb is past, the subjunctive may be replaced by the oblique optative:
 - ἐφοβούμην μὴ οἱ πολέμιοι ἀφίκοιντο I was afraid that the enemy might arrive.
 - ἐφοβεῖτο μὴ τῆ οὐρᾳ ἐπίθοιντο οἱ πολέμιοι He was afraid that the enemy would attack his rearguard. (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
 - ὁ Κλέαρχος οὐκ ἤθελεν ..., φοβούμενος μὴ κυκλωθείη ἑκατέρωθεν Clearchus did not want ..., fearing that he could be encircled from both sides (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

b) To fear to do something

[346]

When expressing a fear to do something, we must simply use an infinitive (again, either present or aorist). Note that in this case the negative $\mu\dot{\eta}$ will be translated as negative:

• διὰ τί φοβεῖ τοῦτο ποιῆσαι; Why are you afraid to do this?

• φοβοῦμαι μὴ νικᾶν Ι AM AFRAID NOT TO WIN.

c) They may also be introduced by...

[347]

Aside from the verb $\phi \circ \beta \circ \tilde{\upsilon} \mu \alpha \iota$, the verbs $\delta \acute{\varepsilon} \delta \circ \iota \kappa \alpha$ and $\delta \acute{\varepsilon} \delta \iota \alpha$ are also verbs of fearing, which in fact are perfects but have a present meaning (in much the same way as $\circ \tilde{\iota} \delta \alpha$), and also its a rist $\tilde{\varepsilon} \delta \varepsilon \iota \sigma \alpha$ (this form does have an a orist meaning):

• δεδοίκαμεν μὴ τήμερον ὁ Σωκράτης ἀποθανῆ We fear that Socrates may die today.

• δέδοικα, μή μου ἀμελήσης I fear lest you disregard me (Lucian, *Dialogues of the Gods*).

And some periphrasis that share this meaning are φόβος ἐστί THERE IS FEAR and κίνδυνός ἐστι THERE IS DANGER:

- οὐ φόβος (ἐστὶ) μή σε ἀγάγω ἐπὶ... There is no danger that I take you towards... (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).
- ἔλεγεν ὡς ... **κίνδυνος εἴη μὴ** καὶ οἱ Ἑλληνες, εἰ ταῦτα αἴσθοιντο, **συσταῖεν** He said that there was danger that also the Greeks, if they learnt about this, would become united (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

11. Indefinite clauses [348]

a) Indefinite construction of repeated action

When expressing that an action takes place repeatedly, as for instance the children are happy whenever (*every time that*) they see their father, the following should be used for the temporal clause:

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1/ Subjunctive + αv when the *present time* is referred to (present indicative in the main clause):

- οἱ παῖδες χαίρονται ὄταν τὸν πατέρα ὁρῶσιν

 The children are happy whenever they see their father

 † ὁρῶσιν is in subjunctive here.
- οἱ μαθηταὶ πολλὰ μανθάνουσιν ὁπόταν (= ὅταν) τοῦ διδασκάλου ἀκούωσιν ΤΗΕ STUDENTS LEARN A LOT WHENEVER THEY LISTEN TO THE TEACHER.
- φεύγω, ὅταν ἴδω αὐτό
 I FLEE WHENEVER I SEE THIS (Lucian, Dialogues of the Gods).
- ὅταν τι δρῷς ἐς κέρδος, οὐκ ὀκνεῖν πρέπει Whenever you look for the advantage, you must not hesitate (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).
- **2/** Subjunctive + αv when the *future time* is referred to (future indicative in the main clause):

[349]

• ἐπειδὰν εἰς τὴν Ἑλλάδα πορεύωμαι, δῶρά σοι οἴσομαι Whenever I go to Greece, I will bring you presents.

The possibility of the repeated action in the future is very relative, this sentence simply means Whenever I go..., maybe only once, if at all! It could also be translated as Every TIME I go..., but the sense of repeated action cannot be expressed since it has not yet taken place.

- ἐπειδὰν μέντοι τοῦτο γένηται, ἡγησόμεθα Whenever this happens, we will lead (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- **3/** Optative without αv when the *past time* is referred to (imperfect in the main clause, since this action took place several times):
 - οἱ παῖδες ἐχαίροντο ὅτε τὸν πατέρα ὁρῷεν ΤΗΕ CHILDREN WERE HAPPY WHENEVER THEY SAW THEIR FATHER.
 - οἱ μαθηταὶ πολλὰ ἐμάνθανον ὁπότε (= ὅτε) τοῦ διδασκάλου ἀκούοιεν

 The students learnt a lot whenever they listened to the teacher.
 - ἐπειδὴ δὲ ἔλθοιμεν εἴς τι καταγώγιον, ... Whenever we arrived at an inn, ... (Lucian, *Philopseudeis*).

b) Indefinite constructions of single action

[350]

These sentences are almost equivalent to the former constructions of repeated action, with the only difference that, rather than emphasising the repetition of the action, they focus on an indefinite aspect (author, object, etc.) of a single action. The relative (usually, the indefinite of whoever) can also be used in this indefinite sense.

- 1/ Referring to the present: indefinite clause in subjunctive + αv
 - σοφός ἐστιν ὄστις ἄν τὴν φιλοσοφίαν μανθάνη Whoever learns philosophy is wise.

Observe that if the sentence had been σοφός ἐστιν ος τὴν φιλοσοφίαν μανθάνει, it would identify a definite person performing the action; therefore, by using the indefinite relative and subjunctive + αν, the indefinite meaning of whoever is conveyed. Another example:

• δ μὲν ἄν πάντες οἱ θεοῖ μισῶσιν ἀνόσιόν ἐστιν, δ δ' ἀν φιλῶσιν, ὅσιον Whatever all the gods hate is unholy, and whatever they love, holy (Plato, *Euthyphro*).

2/ Referring to the past: indefinite clause in optative without αv

[351]

• ἀπέκτεινον ὄντινα ὁρῷεν They killed whomever they saw.

As before, the above sentence could have been written as ἀπέκτεινον $ο \mathring{v}_{\varsigma} \, \dot{\epsilon} \acute{\omega} \rho \omega v$, in which case it would mean that they had killed a definite number of people; so, by using the *indefinite relative* + *optative*, the indefinite meaning of whoever is conveyed. Another example:

• πᾶσαι γὰρ τότε αἱ πόλεις ἐπείθοντο ὅ τι Λακεδαιμόνιος ἀνὴρ ἐπιτάττοι Because then all the cities obeyed whatever the Spartan man would instruct them (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

3/ Referring to the future: indefinite clause in subjunctive $+ \ddot{\alpha} v$ or optative without $\ddot{\alpha} v$

[352]

• ἐπειδὰν πάντα μοι εἴπης, τὰ χρήματά σοι δώσω Whenever you tell me everything, I will give you the money.

Observe that this is equivalent to the conditional period of subjunctive + αv in the protasis, and the future indicative in the apodosis:

An example with indefinite relative:

• ἄττα κελεύης ἄν, ποιήσω Whatever you order, I will do it.

The sentence could have been written as $\tilde{\alpha}$ κελεύεις, ποιήσω, meaning that someone has delivered a specific order; so, by using the indefinite relative and subjunctive + $\tilde{\alpha}v$, the indefinite meaning of WHATEVER is conveyed.

An example with a temporal clause:

- ἐπειδὰν ἐκεῖσε ἔλθωμεν, βουλευσόμεθα When we are there, we will decide (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- **4/** If the future possibility were even more indefinite (meaning that the possibility of the event happening is even less likely), it would be appropriate to use the optative (without $\mathbf{\tilde{a}v}$) in the subordinate clause, and optative (+ $\mathbf{\tilde{a}v}$) also in the main clause:
 - φτινι τοῦτο παρέχοις, εὐδαίμων ἂν εἴη Whoever you offered this to, he would be happy.

 π Note that all of these types of sentences are in fact parallel to conditional sentences using the same moods.

12. Proviso clauses [353]

a) Verbs that commonly use this construction

1/ Verbs of precaution and effort, conveying meanings in the sense of TAKING CARE THAT, MAKE SURE THAT, are occasionally followed by $\ddot{o}\pi\omega\varsigma$ + future indicative. In fact, they closely resemble purpose clauses, and the meaning is very similar; usually, this future indicative is translated using a present:

- ἐπιμελοῦμαι ὅπως οἱ μαθηταὶ πάντα ἔξουσιν
- I TAKE CARE THAT THE STUDENTS HAVE EVERYTHING.
- ἐπιμελεῖσθε ὅπως οἱ μαθηταὶ τὰς βίβλους ἀναγνώσονται
- MAKE SURE THAT THE STUDENTS READ THE BOOKS.

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 ἀεὶ ἐπιμελεῖσθαι δεῖ ὅπως οἱ μαθηταὶ ὡς τάχιστα μαθήσονται LEARN AS QUICKLY AS POSSIBLE. IT IS ALWAYS NECESSARY TO TAKE CARE THAT STUDENTS

• ὅπως δ' ἀμυνούμεθα οὐδεὶς παρασκευάζεται οὐδὲ ἐπιμελεῖται ουκselves (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

NOBODY PREPARES OR CARES HOW WE WILL DEFEND

Despite the clause being in indicative, the negative adverb used is $\mu \hat{\eta}$:

- φροντίζω ὅπως σὺ μηδὲν κακὸν ποιήσεις Ι ΤΑΚΕ CARE THAT YOU DO NOT DO ANYTHING WRONG.
- 2/ Of course, the oblique optative can be used if the main verb is in the past tense:
 - ἀεὶ ἐπεμελούμην ὅπως οἱ μαθηταὶ ὡς τάχιστα μαθήσοιντο We always took care that the students would learn as quickly as possible.
- **3/** The main verbs that use this construction are:

έπιμελέομαι	TO TAKE CARE	φροντίζω	TO TAKE THOUGHT
παρασκευάζομαι	TO PREPARE	προθυμέομαι	TO MAKE AN EFFORT
σπουδάζομαι	TO BE ZEALOUS	φράζομαι	TO CONSIDER

b) Other verbs that use this construction

[354]

1/ Other verbs that have a meaning less directly related to SEEING TO IT THAT, TAKING CARE THAT, etc., can also be used in this sense, such as the verbs ὁράω, πράττω, σκοπέω or φυλάττω. For example:

φύλαττε ὅπως μὴ ἐν τῆ μάχη τρωθήσει
 IN THE BATTLE!

TAKE CARE THAT YOU ARE NOT WOUNDED

• ὅρα ὅπως ἐπικουρήσεις μοι, ἐάν με ἐλέγχειν ἐπιχειρῆ ὁ Μενέξενος Μενεχενος ΤRIES ΤΟ REFUTE ΜΕ (Plato, Lysis).

ENSURE THAT YOU COME TO MY HELP, IF

- **2/** The elision of the main verb in imperative form is very common, and it leaves the $\delta\pi\omega\varsigma$ sentence as main sentence. For instance, the first example could have been
 - ὅπως μὴ ἐν τῆ μάχη τρωθήσει (Mind) that you are not wounded in the battle!

and it should be understood that the initial imperative has been elided but should be supplied in the English translation. It is just another way of expressing an order (see the corresponding chapter).

c) Infinitive clauses

1. Which verbs use the infinitive and how?

[355]

a) Use of the infinitive

The infinitive is a verbal noun; it is a noun that indicates an action (to read, to sleep, to write) rather than a noun that indicates an object (chair, table). It is indeclinable (refer to the later section on the use of the infinitive with article), but due to its verbal nature, the noun can have its own objects.

The use of the infinitive may be very similar to its use in English:

- βούλομαι ἐσθίειν Ι WANT ΤΟ ΕΑΤ.
- ἔχω γράφειν I CAN WRITE.
- ὁ Σωκράτης πειρᾶ τὴν φιλοσοφίαν τοὺς μαθητὰς διδάσκειν Socrates tries to teach philosophy to the students.

As in the previous example, the infinitive in this sentence has two objects dependent upon it:

• ὁ γεωργὸς γράφειν μῦθον τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἐθέλει The farmer wishes to write a story for his brother.

Here, both $\mu \tilde{v}\theta o v$ and $\tau \tilde{\phi}$ $d\delta \epsilon \lambda \phi \tilde{\phi}$ depend on the infinitive $\gamma \rho \dot{\alpha} \phi \epsilon \iota v$. In the following example, the infinitive has three elements depending on it (a direct object, an adverb and a prepositional phrase):

• τοῦτο βούλομαι σαφῶς μαθεῖν παρ' ὑμῶν Ι WANT ΤΟ LEARN THIS FROM YOU CLEARLY (Xenophon, Memorabilia).

b) Verbs that use it

1/ Verbs of thinking, expressing an opinion and wanting are usually followed by an infinitive clause. The verb of this clause will be the infinitive, and if the subject (and predicative object, if any) of the infinitive is *different* to that of the main verb, it will be in the *accusative case*:

• ὁ διδάσκαλος νομίζει τὸν μαθητὴν σοφὸν εἶναι The teacher thinks that the student is clever.

The accusative $\tau \dot{o} v \mu \alpha \theta \eta \tau \dot{\eta} v$ is the subject of the infinitive $\epsilon \dot{i} v \alpha t$, and $\sigma o \phi \dot{o} v$ is its predicative object. Note also that in this example English uses a THAT clause, whereas the Greek sentence says THE TEACHER THINKS THE STUDENT TO BE CLEVER.

• βούλομαι τὸν στρατιώτην μάχεσθαι I WANT THE SOLDIER TO FIGHT.

The accusative τὸν στρατιώτην is the subject of the infinitive μάχεσθαι. Note also that in this example English does use an infinitive: ΤΟ FIGHT.

So, the subject of the infinitive clause must be in the accusative case. Observe the difference:

• ὁ πατὴρ βούλεται ἐσθίειν ΤΗΕ FATHER WANTS TO EAT.

• ὁ πατὴρ βούλεται τὸν νἱὸν ἐσθίειν The father wants the son to eat.

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2/ Some verbs that use this construction are:				
🗖 οἴομαι, ἡγέομαι, νομίζω το THINK, TO CONSIDER:				
 οἴομαι τὸν Σωκράτη ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις οἰκεῖν ἡγοῦμαι τὸν Σωκράτη σοφὸν εἶναι τοῦτο ἡγοῦμαι μέγα τεκμήριον ἄρχοντος ἀρετῆς εἶναι (Xenophon, <i>Oeconomicus</i>). 	I THINK THAT SOCRATES LIVES IN ATHENS. I THINK THAT SOCRATES IS WISE. I CONSIDER THAT THIS IS GREAT PROOF OF A RULER'S EXCELLENCE			
• νομίζουσιν οι Λακεδαιμόνιοι τοὺς Ἀθηναίους κακοὺς στρατιώτας εἶναι ΤΗΕ SPARTANS THINK THAT THE ATHENIAN				
ARE BAD SOLDIERS. • νομίζω οὖν τοὺς μὴ ὀρθῶς πράττοντας οὔτε σοφοὺς οὔτε σώφρονας εἶναι Ι ΤΗΙΝΚ ΤΗΑΤ ΤΗΟSE WHO DO NOT ACT CORRECTLY ARE NEITHER WISE NOR PRUDENT (Xenophon, <i>Memorabilia</i>).				
🗖 κωλύω το prevent:				
~	REN PREVENT THE FATHER FROM SLEEPING. PREVENTS YOU FROM KNOWING IT? (Xenophon, <i>Oeconomicus</i>).			
Observe that the English translation uses a gerund here, caused by the English verb to prevent, yet this translates in Greek as The CHILDREN PREVENT THE FATHER TO SLEEP and WHAT PREVENTS YOU TO KNOW IT?				
🗖 κελεύω to order, to command:				
• ὁ διδάσκαλος κελεύει τοὺς μαθητὰς τὰς βίβλους φέρειν				
□ βούλομαι το want:				
• βούλομαι τοὺς πολεμίους ἀποθανεῖν Ι WANT THE ENEMY TO DIE.				

Some of these verbs will appear again subsequently in the corresponding section of Indirect Statement; the use of infinitive clauses for Indirect Statement is just one of the several uses of the infinitive.

c) When using a negative

[356]

When verbs expressing desire introduce a negative infinitive clause, $\mu \dot{\eta}$ (not $o\dot{v}$) must be used:

- οἱ στρατηγοὶ ἐβούλοντο τοὺς στρατιώτας μὴ φυγεῖν The generals wanted the soldiers not to flee.
- **κελεύει**ς με ὅμως ἀποκρίνεσθαι, ἀλλὰ μὴ ἐπανερέσθαι; Do you order me to answer in any case, but not to ask in return? (Plato, *Euthydemus*).

But verbs of thinking, indirect statement and similar meaning use the negative $o\dot{\mathbf{v}}$:

- νομίζω τὸν παῖδα οὐ σοφὸν εἶναι Ι THINK THAT THE CHILD IS NOT WISE.
- νομίζω ... τοὺς ἀνθρώπους οὐκ ἐν τῷ οἴκῳ τὸν πλοῦτον καὶ τὴν πενίαν ἔχειν ἀλλὰ ἐν ταῖς ψυχαῖς Ι τΗΙΝΚ ... ΤΗΑΤ ΜΕΝ HAVE WEALTH AND POVERTY NOT IN THEIR HOUSES BUT IN THEIR SOULS (Xenophon, Symposium).

Therefore, as a rule, the negative of the infinitive is always $\mu \hat{\eta}$, except in the case of indirect statements, when it is $o\hat{v}$.

d) A double choice [357]

If the infinitive refers to a genitive or dative in the main sentence and has a predicative object, this predicative object can *either* be in the accusative (as shown previously) *or* agree with that genitive or dative:

- ἀγαθόν ἐστι τῷ διδασκάλω σοφὸν εἶναι IT IS GOOD FOR THE TEACHER TO BE WISE.
- \diamond Here, the predicative object of the infinitive, $\sigma \circ \phi \circ v$, is in the usual accusative case.
- ἀγαθόν ἐστι τῷ διδασκάλῳ **σοφῷ** εἶναι (same meaning).
 - \diamondsuit In this case, $\sigma o \phi \tilde{\phi}$ agrees with $\delta \iota \delta \alpha \sigma \kappa \dot{\alpha} \lambda \phi$.

I Note that in these examples there is no subject in the accusative for the infinitive.

2. Which tense of infinitive?

[358]

a) With verbs of desire

In the case of verbs expressing desire, the choice between present or aorist infinitive is simply aspectual rather than temporal; usually either can be used, taking into account the sense of the sentence. When the present infinitive is used, it shows that the action is a continuous process, however, when the aorist infinitive is used, it indicates that the action is a single, punctual event (note that it is translated as if it were in the present tense):

• βούλομαι τὸν παῖδα βίβλον γράφειν
 • βούλομαι τὸν παῖδα ἐπιστολὴν γράψαι
 Ι WANT THE CHILD TO WRITE A BOOK.
 ♦ An ongoing action.
 ♦ A punctual action.

Here, the use of the aorist infinitive does not denote a past meaning. Another example:

• βούλομαι τὴν βίβλον ἀναγιγνώσκειν Ι WANT TO READ THE BOOK ♦ The process is conducted over a long period.

• βούλομαι τὴν βίβλον ἀναγνῶναι
 I WANT TO READ THE BOOK
 ♦ The process is immediate and perfunctory.

However, sometimes one can hardly differentiate the meanings, and therefore the two infinitives can be used interchangeably - even classical authors alternated between the two. For example:

φούλομαι ἐσθίειν οr βούλομαι φαγεῖν Ι WANT TO EAT.
 τὸ φεύγειν αἰσχρόν ἐστιν οr τὸ φυγεῖν αἰσχρόν ἐστιν ΤΟ FLEE IS SHAMEFUL.

The choice of infinitive may provide a slight nuance, which is often lost in translation.

- ὑμῖν δὴ τοῖς δικασταῖς βούλομαι ἤδη τὸν λόγον ἀποδοῦναι Now I want to offer to you, judges, the explanation (Plato, *Phaedo*).
 - \diamondsuit Alternatively, the present infinitive $\dot{\alpha}\pi o\delta\iota\delta \dot{o}v\alpha\iota$ could have been used.

b) With verbs of indirect statement

[359]

In indirect statements (see the corresponding chapter), the infinitive expresses tense (therefore, this now includes the future infinitive):

• ὁ διδάσκαλος νομίζει τοὺς μαθητὰς τὴν βίβλον ἀναγιγνώσκειν ΤΗΕ TEACHER THINKS THAT THE STUDENTS ARE READING THE BOOK.

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• ὁ διδάσκαλος νομίζει τοὺς μαθητὰς τὴν βίβλον ἀναγνῶναι ΤΗΕ ΤΕΑCHER THINKS THAT THE STUDENTS HAVE READ THE BOOK.

• νομίζω, ἢν ἱππεὺς γένωμαι, ἄνθρωπος πτηνὸς ἔσεσθαι Ι ΤΗΙΝΚΤΗΑΤ, IF I EVER BECOME A RIDER, I WILL BE A WINGED MAN (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

c) Three special cases

There are three verbs that refer to future actions, and are usually followed by a future infinitive (note that the future infinitive will be used irrespective of the tense of the main verb):

🗖 ὑπισχνέομαι το PROMISE:

• ὁ Περικλῆς ὑπισχνεῖται τὴν πόλιν φυλάζειν Pericles promises to guard the city.

• ὁ δ' ὑπέσχετο ἀνδρὶ ἑκάστῳ **δώσει ν** πέντε ἀργυρίου μνᾶς AND HE PROMISED TO GIVE EACH MAN FIVE MINAE OF SILVER (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

□ μέλλω το be about to, to intend:

• ὁ ἀχιλλεὺς μέλλει πολλοὺς πολεμίους ἀποκτενεῖν Achilles intends to kill many enemies.

• μέλλω γὰρ ὑμᾶς διδάξειν ὅθεν μοι ἡ διαβολὴ γέγονεν Ι INTEND TO SHOW YOU WHERE THE SLANDER COMES FROM (Plato, Apologia).

□ ἐλπίζω ΤΟ ΗΟΡΕ:

• οἱ στρατιῶται ἐλπίζουσιν τὴν μάχην νικήσειν The soldiers hope to win the battle.

• οἱ στρατιῶται ἤλπιζον τὴν μάχην νικήσειν The soldiers expected to win the battle.

Note that after ὑπισχνέομαι we may find an *aorist infinitive* + ἄν: this is because (using the example given above) if the future infinitive ψυλάξειν is supposed to replace a future indicative ψυλάξω I will guard, the *aorist infinitive* + ἄν is supposed to replace an *aorist optative* + ἄν: ψυλάξαιμι ἄν I would/could guard, the meaning of which is not as strong as that of a future indicative, and this would produce ὁ Περικλῆς ὑπισχνεῖται τὴν πόλιν ψυλάξαι ἄν Pericles promises That He could guard the city.

3. Where there is no change of subject

[361]

[360]

a/ If the subject of the infinitive happens to be the same as that of the main verb, it is not expressed (see first example below), and in reported speech the predicative object, if any, will be in the nominative, since it agrees with the subject of the main verb (see second example below):

• $\dot{\text{o}}$ pathr boúletai èsbíein $\,$ The father wants to eat.

• νομίζουσι **σοφοὶ** εἶναι They think they are wise.

b/ If we want to add a subject to the infinitive for emphasis, the corresponding form of $\alpha \dot{v} \tau \dot{o} \varsigma$ in the nominative can be added:

- νομίζουσιν αὐτοὶ σοφοὶ εἶναι They think that they themselves are wise.
 - ♦ Note that νομίζουσιν **αύτοὺς σοφοὺς** εἶναι would mean ΤηΕΥ ΤΗΙΝΚ ΤΗΑΤ ΤΗΕΥ (somebody else) ARE WISE.

c/ Another system is using the indirect reflexive in *accusative*:

• ὁ τῶν Μεσσηνίων στρατηγὸς ... ἔφη πονεῖν σφᾶς The General of the Messenians said that they (the Messenians) were in distress (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

4. Infinitive with article

[362]

a) Its basic use

1/ The infinitive is a verb, yet it can also be used as the direct object of a verb, as in $\dot{\epsilon}\theta\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\omega$ $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\theta\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon\nu$ I WANT TO EAT, where the Greek equivalent of the English infinitive is used.

However, when it is not the direct object of a verb but is the subject, it may be used with an article; note that the gerund is used in English: EATING IS GOOD. In Greek this should be translated as TO EAT IS GOOD, using an infinitive. This infinitive is acting as a *verbal noun* and consequently may have an article; since an infinitive denotes an action, something abstract, it uses the neuter article (the predicative object, if any, will also be neuter). The infinitive is a *neuter (verbal) noun*, therefore the neuter article is used. Note these differences:

• ἐθέλω βαίνειν Ι WANT TO WALK.

• τὸ βαίνειν ῥάδιόν ἐστιν (THE ACT OF) WALKING IS EASY.

• ἐθέλω τρέχειν I want to run.

• $\dot{\tau}$ $\dot{\sigma}$ $\dot{\sigma}$

- τἀυτόν σοι δοκεῖ εἶναι τὸ γενέσθαι καὶ τὸ εἶναι, ἢ ἄλλο; Does it seem to you that becoming and being is the same? (Plato, *Protagoras*).
- τὸ σωθῆναί γε τὸ ψεῦδος φέρει The Lie Brings about our salvation ("The Lie Brings about the act of Being Saved")
 (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).

2/ The object of an infinitive may be found in any case, since it remains dependent on the case which this verb rules; this also applies in the case of an infinitive with article:

- τὸ τοῖς φίλοις βοηθεῖν καλόν ἐστιν It is good to help friends.
 - ♦ Observe the object between the article and the infinitive, following the usual parenthetical structure.

b) Declension of the infinitive

[363]

1/ If the infinitive must be declined into genitive or dative (in these cases, the use of the article is compulsory, and also in accusative after a preposition), only the article changes. Note that, since the article is neuter, the accusative is identical to the nominative:

- ἐγὼ ἐπιθυμίαν ἔχω τοῦ νικᾶν Ι HAVE THE DESIRE TO WIN.
- ἐν τῷ κάμνειν ἡ σωτηρία ἐστίν SALVATION IS IN (THE ACT OF) WORKING.
- καὶ ἡμεῖς ἀκούσαντες ἀπέσχομεν τοῦ δακρύειν And we, after hearing this, stopped crying (Plato, Phaedo).
- ὧ Σώκρατες, ...εἴωθας χρῆσθαι τῷ ἐρωτᾶν τε καὶ ἀποκρίνεσθαι Socrates, you are accustomed to making use of the resource of asking and answering (Plato, *Crito*).

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Here is a more complicated example – the infinitive has been declined, and there are two objects inside the clause:

- ἐπιθυμίαν ἔχομεν τοῦ ἐν τῆ μάχη ἐπὶ τοὺς πολεμίους νικᾶν We have the desire to win in the battle against the enemies.
 - ♦ Observe the degree of separation between the article and the infinitive: parenthetical structure.

2/ When used after a preposition, the use of the article with the infinitive is compulsory, and can also be found in accusative:

- πρὸς τὸ νικᾶν τοὺς μαθητὰς παιδεύω Ι TEACH THE CHILDREN TOWARDS WINNING (TOWARDS VICTORY).

5. Infinitive after verbs of negative idea

[364]

a) Normal construction

1/ Some verbs may have a negative idea implicit in their meaning (to deny, to hinder, to forbid, etc.). When these verbs have an infinitive depending on them, the negative adverb $\mu\hat{\eta}$ (or the corresponding word compound with it) is usually added before the infinitive. It should not be translated, but it again reinforces the negative idea:

• εἴργω αὐτοὺς οἴκαδε μὴ ἐλθεῖν	I HINDER THEM FROM GOING HOME.
• εἴργω σε μὴ τοῦτο ποιεῖν	I PREVENT YOU FROM DOING THIS.
• ὁ γὰρ διδάσκαλος αὐτὸν εἶρξε μηκέτι μοι προσιέναι ME ANY MORE (Lucian, <i>Dialogi Meretricii</i>).	BECAUSE THE TEACHER HAS FORBIDDEN HIM TO APPROACH
• ἀρνοῦμαι ταύτην τὴν πόλιν καλὴν μὴ εἶναι	I DENY THAT THIS CITY IS BEAUTIFUL.
• τὰ δὲ ἐξαρνοῦμαι μὴ τοῦτον ἔχειν τὸν τρόπον CHARACTER (Aeschines, <i>In Timarchum</i>).	WITH RESPECT TO OTHER POINTS I DENY THAT THEY HAVE THIS
 ἀμφισβητῶ μὴ τὸν Σωκράτη σοφὸν εἶναι 	I dispute that Socrates is wise.
• ἀπαγορεύω σοι μὴ οἶκαδε ἰέναι	I FORBID YOU TO GO HOME.
• ἀπηγόρευσε τοῖς στρατηγοῖς μὴ δέχεσθαι τὸν ἄνδρα (Plutarchus, <i>Cimon</i>).	He forbade the generals to receive the man
 καταρνοῦμαι μὴ τοῦτο ποιῆσαι 	I DENY THAT I HAVE DONE THIS.

2/ Following the verb $\kappa\omega\lambda\dot{\omega}$, the infinitive may or may not take the negative $\mu\dot{\eta}$:

[365]

• ὁ χειμὼν διεκώλυσε μηδὲν πρᾶξαι ὧν οἱ στρατηγοὶ παρεσκευάσαντο
The storm prevented them from doing anything of what the generals had arranged (Xenophon, Hellenica).

But be careful: sometimes the $\mu \hat{\eta}$ after $\kappa \omega \lambda \hat{\nu} \omega$ means really a negative sense that must be translated:

- στρατιώτας δ' οὐδὲν ἴσως **κωλύει μὴ** τοὺς τοιούτους κρατίστους εἶναι, ἀλλὰ τοὺς ἦττον μὲν ἀνδρείους Nothing prevents them from not being such excellent soldiers, but men who are less courageous (Aristotle, *Nicomachean Ethics*).
 - \diamond In the sense of *IT is possible that they are not the best soldiers, but men who are less courageous.*

3/ Verbs of hindering can also use the articular infinitive in genitive:

εἴργω σε τοῦ μὴ τοῦτο ποιεῖν | I prevent you from doing this ("I prevent you from the act of doing this").

b) Repetition of the negative

[366]

When making the main sentence negative, the negative adverb $o\vec{v}$ must be repeated again before the infinitive. Note that even though there will be two negative adverbs before the infinitive ($\mu\hat{\eta}$ and $o\vec{v}$), neither should be translated into English (see also the section on combinations of negatives which addresses this superfluous use of $\mu\hat{\eta}$):

• οὐκ εἴργω αὐτοὺς οἴκαδε μὴ οὐκ ἐλθεῖν
 • οὐκ ἀρνοῦμαι ταύτην τὴν πόλιν καλὴν μὴ οὐκ εἶναι
 • οὔτ' αὐτὸς ἐξαρνοῦμαι μὴ οὐ γεγονέναι ἐρωτικός (Aeschines, Against Timarchus).

6. Infinitive absolute [367]

Some idiomatic expressions use an infinitive, with or without $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$, but without any subject in the accusative:

□ ώς ἔπος εἰπεῖν SO ΤΟ SPEAK

□ ὡς εἰπεῖν λόγω το say it in just one word

□ ὡς ἐμοὶ δοκεῖν AS I UNDERSTAND IT

τὸ νῦν εἶναι FOR THE PRESENT MOMENT

□ ἐκὼν εἶναι AS FAR AS I AM CONCERNED

□ (ὡς) συνελόντι εἰπεῖν IN SHORT

□ ὀλίγου δεῖν NEARLY, ALMOST, WITHIN A LITTLE

Note

According to some grammarians, $\delta \tilde{\epsilon \iota v}$ is the shortened version of the participle $\delta \tilde{\epsilon \iota o v}$, which makes it look like an infinitive, and in this case it should be considered an accusative absolute.

Let's see some examples:

- ἄνευ γὰρ ἀρχόντων οὐδὲν ἂν οὕτε καλὸν οὕτε ἀγαθὸν γένοιτο ὡς μὲν συνελόντι εἰπεῖν οὐδαμοῦ Βεcause without leaders nothing good or convenient would happen, to say it in one word, anywhere (Xenophon, Anabasis).
- ὀλίγου δεῖν πλείους ἀπεκτόνασιν ᾿Αθηναίων ἐν ὀκτὰ μησὶν ἢ πάντες Πελοποννήσιοι δέκα ἔτη πολεμοῦντες
 Τhey have killed almost more Athenians in eight months than the whole of the Peloponnesians in ten years of war (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- παῦσαι, ἔφη, τὸ νῦν εἶναι μεμφόμενός μοι For the present moment, stop criticising me (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

7. Infinitive imperative

[368]

In some cases, the infinitive is used instead of the imperative. Perhaps the most famous case is the inscription in the Thermopylae asking foreigners to announce the news to Sparta:

• $^7\Omega$ ξεῖν', ἀγγέλλειν Λακεδαιμονίοις ὅτι τῆδε κείμεθα, τοῖς κείνων ῥήμασι πειθόμενοι Foreigner, tell the Spartans that we lie here, obedient to their instructions.

270 Infinitive clauses

8. Infinitive with $\ddot{a}v$ [369]

a) Its normal use (without prolepsis of αv)

1/ This use of αv is found in reported speech. Observe this conditional period which uses αv :

• εὶ τοῦτό μοι λέγοις, ἐγώ σοι χρήματα δοίην ἄν IF YOU WERE TO TELL ME THIS, I WOULD GIVE YOU MONEY.

If we pass it into reported speech and the verb that introduces the reported speech is a verb that must be followed by an infinitive construction (such as $\mathbf{vo\mu}\mathbf{i}\zeta\omega$), the conditional sentence will remain as it is and the verb of the main clause will become an infinitive in the same tense as the original sentence, but this infinitive will now carry the $\mathbf{\check{\alpha}v}$ of the original sentence with it:

• οὖτος νομίζει, εἰ τοῦτό μοι λέγοις, ἐμέ σοι χρήματα δοῦναι ἄν ΗΕ THINKS THAT IF YOU WERE TO TELL ΜΕ THIS I WOULD GIVE YOU MONEY.

Another example:

• εἰ τοῦτό μοι εἶπες, ἐγώ σοι χρήματα ἔδωκα ἄν If you had told me this, I would have given you money.

In reported speech:

- οὖτος νομίζει, εἰ τοῦτό μοι εἶπες, ἐμέ σοι χρήματα δοῦναι ἄν ΗΕ THINKS THAT IF YOU HAD TOLD ME THIS I WOULD HAVE GIVEN YOU MONEY.
- **2/** As can be seen, the infinitive may replace either a former indicative or a former optative. In this case, as the tense used in both examples is the agrist (one optative and the other indicative), the infinitive is agrist in both cases and in both infinitive sentences we have $\delta o \tilde{v} v a v$; the conditional sentences help us to deduce whether it replaces an indicative or an optative. But if, for instance, we only had the sentence
 - νομίζει ἐμέ σοι χρήματα δοῦναι ἄν

it could mean *either* HE THINKS THAT I WOULD GIVE YOU MONEY (replacing an optative) *or* HE THINKS THAT I WOULD HAVE GIVEN YOU MONEY (replacing an indicative). In this case, we must rely on the wider context.

Observe these double examples (first sentence – *direct speech*; second sentence – *reported speech*):

- τοὺς πολεμίους ἐνίκησας ἄν, εἰ συμμάχους ἔσχες You would have defeated the enemy, if you had had allies. οἴομαί σε τοὺς πολεμίους νικῆσαι ἄν, εἰ συμμάχους ἔσχες I think that you would have defeated the enemy, if you had had allies.
- τοὺς πολεμίους νικήσειας ἄν (or νικώης ἄν), εἰ συμμάχους ἔχοις You would defeat the enemy, if you had allies. οἴομαί σε τοὺς πολεμίους νικῆσαι ἄν (or νικᾶν ἄν), εἰ συμμάχους ἔχοις I think that you would defeat the enemy, if you had allies.
- Note the brackets: the infinitive must be in the same tense that was used in either the indicative or optative.

3/ An imperfect is always replaced by a present infinitive. For example:

• εἰ νῦν οἱ πολέμιοι ἐπετίθεντο, τὴν πόλιν ἐλάμβανον ἄν

If the enemy were attacking now, they

Would capture the city.

φημὶ εἰ νῦν οἱ πολέμιοι ἐπετίθεντο, τούτους τὴν πόλιν λαμβάνειν ἄν

They would capture the city.

- Κλέαρχος δὲ ὁ άρμοστὴς οἰόμενος οὐδένα ἄν τοῦτο ποιῆσαι, ... Clearchus the governor, thinking that nobody would do that, ... (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- οὐκ ἔφη ἑαυτοῦ γε ἄρχοντος οὐδέν ἀν Ἑλλήνων ... ἀνδραποδισθῆναι He said that, under his rule, no Greek would be enslaved (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

b) Prolepsis of $\ddot{\alpha}v$

1/ It is important to note that in this construction the particle αv has a tendency to be attracted by a negative adverb and by an interrogative word of the main sentence and therefore to move towards the beginning of the sentence:

• οὐκ οἴομαι τὸν ἀδελφὸν τοῦτο ποιεῖν ἄν Ι DO NOT THINK THAT MY BROTHER WOULD DO THIS is usually written as οὐκ ἂν οἴομαι τὸν ἀδελφὸν τοῦτο ποιεῖν (same meaning).

Another example:

- τίς οἵεται τὸν ἐμὸν ἀδελφὸν τοῦτο ποιεῖν ἄν; Who thinks that my brother would do this? is usually written as τίς ἂν οἵεται τὸν ἐμὸν ἀδελφὸν τοῦτο ποιεῖν; (same meaning).
- 2/ In some cases the prolepsis can take place even if there is no negative adverb or interrogative word:
 - οἶμαι ἄν ὑμᾶς κάλλιστα κρίνειν Ιτhink that you would judge it best (Xenophon, Hellenica).

d) Participle clauses

Previous note: The participle is a verbal adjective; thus describing the noun with which it agrees. Since it is both an adjective and a verb, it is fully declinable, and also has forms for the three voices (active, middle and passive) and for several tenses (present, future, etc.). It may take objects similar to those it would have if used as a normal verb.

1. Participle with article (also known as attributive participle)

[372]

a) Its usual adjectival meaning

1/ Basic meaning:

As a general rule, it can be said that the use of the participle with article restricts the range of the noun to which it is linked. Observe these two sentences that incorporate a standard adjective:

• \dot{o} καλὸς παῖς ἐστι ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις The handsome boy is in Athens.

• $\delta \rho \tilde{\omega} \tau \delta v \kappa \alpha \lambda \delta v \tau \alpha \tilde{\iota} \delta \alpha$ I see the handsome boy.

Now, observe these sentences that contain an adjectival participle. Note the typical translation by use of a relative sentence, and note also the morphological changes of the participles:

 $\bullet \ \ \dot{o} \ \gamma \rho \acute{a} \phi \omega v \ \pi \alpha \widetilde{i} \varsigma \ \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \iota \ \dot{\varepsilon} v \ \tau \alpha \widetilde{i} \varsigma \ \dot{A} \theta \acute{\eta} v \alpha \iota \varsigma \qquad \qquad \text{The boy who is writing / The writing boy is in Athens.}$

• α i γ ράφουσαι κόραι εἰσίν ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις The girls who are writing / the writing girls are in Athens.

ὁρῶ τὰς γραφούσας κόρας
 I see the girls who are writing / I see the writing girls.

Essentially, the participle is an adjective and as such it agrees in gender, number and case with the word it accompanies.

2/ Position: [373]

Note that the participle can be positioned between the group *article + noun*. However, an adjectival participle is commonly positioned outside, with the article repeated, therefore following the equivalent structure used for "normal" adjectives. Accordingly, one often finds:

ὁ παῖς ὁ γράφων	instead of	ὁ γράφων παῖς
τὸν παῖδα τὸν γράφοντα	instead of	τὸν γράφοντα παῖδα
αὶ κόραι αὶ γράφουσαι	instead of	αἱ γράφουσαι κόραι
τὰς κόρας τὰς γραφούσα ς	instead of	τὰς γραφούσας κόρας

3/ Without noun:

As an adjective can stand alone (où $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta$ où THE GOOD ONES), an adjectival participle can be used with an unnamed article:

- αὶ γράφουσαι κόραι ἥκουσιν The writing girls / The girls who write have arrived.
- αἱ γράφουσαι ἥκουσιν The writing ones / The ones that write have arrived.
 - ♦ Feminine: girls, women, goddesses, etc.; the context will clarify this.

• φίλος εἰμὶ τῶν τρεχόντων στρατιωτῶν Ι AM A FRIEND OF THE SOLDIERS WHO ARE RUNNING.

• φίλος εἰμὶ τῶν τρεχόντων
 I AM A FRIEND OF THOSE WHO ARE RUNNING / OF THE RUNNING ONES.

♦ Masculine: boys, men, gods, etc.; the context will clarify this.

• ὁ θεὸς αὐτός ἐστιν ὁ λέγων The god himself is the one who speaks (Plato, *Apologia*).

• οἱ μαχόμενοι πρὸ αὐτοῦ ἀπέθνησκον Those fighting in front of him started falling (Xenophon, Hellenica).

• τοὺς δράσαντας ἤδει οὐδείς Nobody knew who had done it (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

4/ With objects: [374]

Because of the verbal nature of the participle, it may take objects similar to those it would have if used as the main verb of a sentence (observe that the words dependent on the participle are positioned between the article and the participle, maintaining the familiar parenthetical structure):

• φιλῶ τοὺς ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις οἰκοῦντας
 ἱρῶ τὰς ταχέως τρεχούσας
 Ι LOVE THOSE (masc.) WHO LIVE IN ATHENS.
 • ὁρῶ τὰς ταχέως τρεχούσας
 I SEE THOSE (fem.) RUNNING QUICKLY.

• οὺχ οὖτοί εἰσιν οἱ ταῦτα λέγοντες These men are not the ones who say these things (Plato, Apologia).

5/ Which negative? [375]

When the action of the participle conveys a definite circumstance, the negative is $o\dot{\mathbf{v}}$:

- οἱ οὖ μαχόμενοι THOSE WHO DO NOT FIGHT (THOSE PARTICULAR MEN WHO DO NOT FIGHT).
- οἱ οὐ δυνάμενοι ἐπιβῆναι ... τὴν Φειὰν αἱροῦσιν Those who could not embark ... captured Pheia (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
 ♦ Thucydides is referring to a specific group of soldiers.

But when the participle has a generic or conditional meaning, the negative is $\mu \hat{\eta}$:

- οἱ μὴ μαχόμενοι THOSE WHO DO NOT FIGHT (THOSE WHO GENERALLY DO NOT FIGHT).
- οἱ μὴ ἐπιστάμενοι ἄρα, ἔφη, μανθάνουσιν, ὧ Κλεινία It is those who do not know that learn, Kleinias (Plato, Euthyphro).
 ♦ Here, Plato conveys the sense of whoever does not know, if any.

b) Using the participle of εἰμί

[376]

See the following examples for the use of the participle of $\varepsilon i \mu i$:

- οἱ σοφοὶ ὄντες τὴν χῶραν φυλάττουσιν Those (masc.) who are wise defend the country.
- ὁρῶ τὰς ἀνδρείας οὔσας I see those (fem.) who are brave.
- οἱ μὲν πονηροὶ κακόν τι ἐργάζονται τοὺς ἀεὶ ἐγγυτάτω αὐτῶν ὄντας Wicked people do something bad to those who are always very near to them (Plato, *Apologia*).

In this case, the participle of $\varepsilon \iota \mu \iota$ is used without an accompanying noun. This is commonly used in order to indicate a specific group of people.

c) Use of specific English terms

[377]

In some cases, instead of translating by THE WRITING ONE / THE ONE WHO WRITES etc., we can use an English term with the same meaning. Observe the alternative second translations:

Ψ οἱ τρέχοντες THOSE WHO RUN / THE RUNNERS.

 ψ $\dot{\alpha}$ ἐν τᾶς 'Αθήναις οἰκοῦσαι Those who live in Athens / the inhabitants of Athens.

Ψ οἱ φεύγοντες Those who flee / the fugitives, the exiles. Ψ τὰ γιγνόμενα The things that happen / the events.

- μετὰ δὲ ταῦτ', ἐπειδὴ κατῆλθον οἱ φεύγοντες ἐκ Πειραιέως, ... Later, when the exiles came back from Piraeus, ... (Isocrates, *In Callimachum*).
- ὡς δ' ἔγνω ὁ Κῦρος τὰ γιγνόμενα... When Cyrus learnt the events... (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

It must be remembered, however, that whenever the article precedes the participle, the participle is specificative (as for instance TALL is specificative in the sentence I SEE THE TALL BOYS).

2. Participle without article (also known as circumstantial participle)

[378]

a) Its normal descriptive meaning

1/ Agreeing with the subject:

If the participle is positioned outside the group *article* + *noun* (or, alternatively, without the preceding article), rather than imposing restrictions on the word to which it is linked, it simply provides further information concerning it, usually expressing the circumstance in which the action of the main verb takes place. Observe this sentence:

• \dot{o} παῖς διαλέγεται τοῖς φίλοις The boy converses with his friends.

In order to translate The Boy, walking, converses with his friends, we will use present participle of the verb $\beta \alpha i \nu \omega$ in order to translate walking, and, as usual, it will have to agree in number, gender and case with the Boy (singular, masculine and nominative):

• ὁ παῖς **βαίνων** διαλέγεται τοῖς φίλοις The Boy, Walking, converses with his friends.

Observe that the positioning of the participle is outside the group *article + noun*. If it were inside, the sentence ὁ βαίνων παῖς διαλέγεται τοῖς φίλοις would mean The walking Boy / The Boy who walks Talks with his FRIENDS.

Let us consider three further examples:

• οἱ στρατιῶται εὖ μαχόμενοι τὴν πατρίδα φυλάττουσιν.

There are various translations which could apply:

1	THE SOLDIERS,	FIGHTING WELL,	PROTECT THE COUNTRY.
2	THE SOLDIERS,	WHEN FIGHTING WELL,	PROTECT THE COUNTRY.
3	THE SOLDIERS,	BECAUSE OF FIGHTING WELL,	PROTECT THE COUNTRY.
4	THE SOLDIERS,	IF THEY FIGHT WELL,	PROTECT THE COUNTRY.

This first example highlights the several nuances that a circumstantial participle may have, without the necessity of expressing the terms WHEN, BECAUSE OF, IF, etc. in Greek.

• οἴ τε Πελοποννήσιοι ἐπικαταβάντες τοὺς ἐν τῷ ποταμῷ μάλιστα ἔσφαζον ΤΗΕ PELOPONNESIANS, COMING DOWN AGAINST THEM, MASSACRED THOSE WHO WERE IN THE RIVER (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

• τὰς χεῖρας ἀνέσεισαν, δηλοῦντες προσίεσθαι τὰ κεκηρυγμένα

They raised and waved their hands, showing that they accepted the requirements (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

2/ Agreeing with an object:

[379]

Here are some examples of the participle agreeing with a noun in different cases:

- δίδωμι βίβλους ταῖς κόραις διαλεγομέναις I GIVE BOOKS TO THE GIRLS WHILE THEY ARE TALKING.
 - ♦ Observe that it does not mean I give books to the girls who are talking.
- ὁρῷ τὸν παῖδα τρέχοντα I see the boy running.

Observe in the last example how in Greek, thanks to the case agreement of the participle with its noun, the possible confusion of who is running is avoided; if the person who is running were the subject of the sentence, it would translate as $\mathring{o}p\widetilde{\omega}$ $\mathring{v}v$ $\pi\widetilde{a}\widetilde{b}\omega$ $\mathring{v}v$ $\mathring{v}p\acute{e}\chi ov\sigma a$ (masc. / fem. subject).

Note

όρῶ τὸν τρέχοντα παῖδα (or ὁρῶ τὸν παῖδα τὸν τρέχοντα) would mean I SEE THE RUNNING BOY. Observe the positioning of the participle (between the article and the noun or with the article repeated), which results in the participle being restrictive (attributive participle).

• καὶ γὰρ ὑμεῖς ἐκείνων πρότερον ἡκούσατε **κατηγορούντων** FIRST YOU HAVE LISTENED TO THOSE IN THEIR ACCUSATIONS (Plato, *Apologia*).

b) Specific meanings

[380]

A participle can have a specific meaning, not just describing a circumstance in general terms but specifying which kind of circumstance (i.e. the participle can be equivalent to a subordinate clause). Sometimes the word(s) that accompany the participle will help us to discern this meaning. Note the following possibilities:

1/ A participle can have *concessive* meaning, if the general context suggests it:

- ἐγὼ τρέχων οὐ κάμνω This could be translated as Running, I do not get tired, but also by Although I run / Even running / In spite of running, I do not get tired.
 - ♦ The context will clarify which meaning is most appropriate.

Moreover, it is common to find the particle $\kappa\alpha i\pi\epsilon\rho$ at the beginning of the participial clause in order to reinforce this concessive meaning:

- καίπερ ἐν τῷ στρατοπέδῳ ἄν, τὸν φίλον οὐχ ὁρῷ Although I am in the camp, I do not see my friend.
- καίπερ τοῦ διδασκάλου ἀκούοντες, οὐ μανθάνομεν Although we listen to the teacher, we do not learn.
- ἀΑγησίλαος δέ, καίπερ αἰσθανόμενος ταῦτα, ὅμως ἐπέμενε ταῖς σπονδαῖς Although he realised this, nevertheless Agesilaos respected the treaty (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- τοῦ Κλέωνος **καίπερ** μανιώδης **οὖσα** ἡ ὑπόσχεσις ἀπέβη And Cleon's promise, although it was mad, succeeded (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

2/ When the participle has a conditional meaning, the negative $\mu \hat{\eta}$ is used:

[381]

• μὴ πονῶν χρήματα οὐ δέξει Νοτ making an effort (If you do not make an effort), you will not receive money.

If the sentence had read \vec{ov} $\pi ov \tilde{\omega}v$, Not making an effort would convey a definite, factual meaning, whereas by using $\mu \hat{\eta}$ a conditional sense is expressed – If you do not make an effort.

• πῶς, ἔφη, τοῖς διὰ δειλίαν φεύγουσι μὴ μαχόμενοι τοῖς δι᾽ ἀνδρείαν μένουσι μαχησόμεθα; How, he said, will we fight with those that stand because of their bravery, if we do not fight (not fighting) with those that flee because of their cowardice? (Plutarchus, Coniugalia Praecepta).

Here is an example of a participle that is linked to the object (rather than the subject) and also has a conditional meaning:

- ταύτη τῆ βίβλφ μὴ χρωμένοις οὐκ ἔξεσται ὑμῖν πάντα μανθάνειν Το you not using this book it will not be possible to learn everything.
 - ♦ Which is better translated by If you do not use this book, you will not be able to learn everything.

3/ A participle may also convey a comparative sense, usually translated by As IF, when preceded by ισπερ:

[382]

- ἀεὶ τὰ αὐτὰ ἔλεγον, ἄσπερ σύμμαχοι ὄντες They were always saying the same things, as if they were our allies.
- αὐτὸς μὲν **ὅσπερ ὑπὸ μοίρας τινὸς ἀγόμενος** ἐκπηδήσας πρῶτος ἐμπεσὼν τοῖς πολεμίοις ἀποθνήσκει And he, as if led by some kind of fate, leaping forth first of all and falling upon the enemy, dies (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- **4/** A participle may also have a causal meaning, and in this case it is usually preceded by any of the three words $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$, $o\tilde{\iota}\alpha$, $\ddot{\alpha}\tau\varepsilon$. The only difference between these words is that $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ implies that the speaker does not fully agree with the causal meaning of the participle:
 - χρήματά σοι δώσω **ἄτε** τοῦτό μοι **εἰπόντι** As you have told me this, I give you money.
 - ἀποκτενῷ σε ὡς τὴν πόλιν τοῖς πολεμίοις παραδόντα Ι WILL KILL YOU BECAUSE YOU HAVE HANDED THE CITY OVER TO THE ENEMIES.
 - οἱ ὁπισθοφύλακες, ἄτε ὑγιαίνοντες, ἐξαναστάντες ἔδραμον εἰς τοὺς πολεμίους The Rear-Guards, as they were in good condition, got up and ran towards the enemy (Xenophon, Anabasis).

π Note that, in this construction, any words that depend on the participle are positioned between the $\dot{ω}$ ς, οία, $\dot{α}$ τε and the participle.

c) Additional observations

[383]

1/ It is clearly a challenge to mix the two constructions, where the participle agrees with the subject or agrees with an object. Let us begin with a normal participle construction with a main verb that has an object and a participle agreeing with it:

• δείξω σε τοῦτο ποιήσαντα Ι will show that you have done this.

2/ If in some cases the object is the same as the subject, the object is omitted, and the participle continues to be in the nominative:

• δείξω τοῦτο ποιήσας I WILL SHOW THAT I HAVE DONE THIS.

• ἐγὰ δείζω πόλλ' ἀνηλωκός Ι WILL SHOW THAT I HAVE SPENT A LOT (Demosthenes, Contra Phaenippum).

3/ Finally, when emphasising the simultaneity of the action expressed by the present participle and that expressed by the main verb (or, if not simultaneity, the sense of one action succeeding another almost immediately), $\ddot{\alpha}\mu\alpha$ should precede the participle:

• τοῦτο ἔλεγον ἄμα γράφουσα I WAS SAYING THIS WHILE WRITING AT THE SAME TIME.

• καὶ ἄμα ταῦτα λέγων ἤει πρὸς τὴν Σκῆψιν ΑΝD SAYING THIS HE WENT TO SCEPSIS (Xenophon, Hellenica).

3. The participle is impersonal

[384]

We have seen that the participle, although it is a verbal form, is simply an adjective, therefore corresponds directly to the noun with which it agrees, rather than the person. See these examples, in which the participle is in the nominative case, therefore providing information about the subject, whichever person it is (*I, you, he*, etc.):

• εἰσβαίνων εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν, ἐγὰ τοὺς ἀδελφοὺς ὁρῷ Walking into the house, I see my brothers.

• εἰσβαίνων εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν, σὸ τοὺς ἀδελφοὺς ὁρᾶς Walking into the house, you see your brothers.

• εἰσβαίνων εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν, ὁ στρατηγὸς τοὺς ἀδελφοὺς ὁρῷ ΤΗΕ GENERAL, WALKING INTO THE HOUSE,

SEES HIS BROTHERS.

In the following examples, the participle is in the accusative case, therefore providing information about the direct object, whichever person it is (*I, you, he,* etc.):

• ὄψομαί **σε** μετ' ὀλίγον δ**ακρύουσαν** I WILL SOON SEE YOU CRYING (Lucian, *Dialogues of the Gods*).

• ὄψομαι αὐτὴν μετ' ὀλίγον δακρύουσαν I WILL SOON SEE HER CRYING.

4. The temporal correlation

[385]

a) Use of the present participle

1/ The use of the present participle indicates that the action takes place at the same time as the main verb (whether the main verb is present, past or future). Therefore, *present* means *simultaneous*, rather than *now*. For instance, here is a sentence where the main verb is in the imperfect, but a present participle has been used:

 \bullet ἐγὼ ἐβοήθουν τοῖς ἐν τῇ μάχῃ μαχομένοις I helped those who were fighting in the battle.

• οἱ στρατιῶται ἐδίωκον τοὺς τρέχοντας πολεμίους The soldiers were pursuing the running enemies / the enemies who were running.

Both participles are translated into English using the imperfect tense, but since the Greek participle is in the present tense it signifies that the action expressed by the participle was taking place at the same time as the action of the main verb. The actions take place simultaneously. Another example:

• εἶτα πρὸς τοὺς μαχομένους ... ἐχώρει Then he went towards those who were fighting (Plutarch, Fabius Maximus).

2/ In some cases, the action expressed by the participle is an action that takes place habitually (not only at one point in time), in which case the participle can be translated by the present tense even in a sentence where the main verb is in a past tense:

- ὅτε παῖς ἦν, ἐμίσουν τοὺς σοφοὺς ὄντας When I was a child, I used to hate those who were/are wise.
- οἱ στρατιῶται ἐφίλουν τοὺς ἐν τᾶις Ἀθήναις οἰκοῦντας ΤΗΕ SOLDIERS LOVED THOSE WHO LIVE/LIVED IN ATHENS.

b) Use of the future participle

[386]

Aside from the other uses that will be studied subsequently, the future participle has the following two functions:

1/ The person / thing etc. to whom / which the participle refers is expected to perform the action in the future. Compare the following:

• ὁρῷ ἄνδρα τινὰ γράφοντα I see a man who is writing.

• ὁρῷ ἄνδρα τινὰ γράψοντα | I see a man who will write / who is about to write.

• αἱ τρέχουσαι κόραι καθ' ἡμέραν ἀσκοῦσιν The girls who run practice every day.

αἱ δραμούμεναι κόραι καθ' ἡμέραν ἀσκοῦσιν
 THE GIRLS WHO WILL RUN / WHO ARE ABOUT TO RUN PRACTICE EVERY DAY.

Note that *in the future* means the future time with respect to the moment in which the action of the main verb takes place. For instance:

δίδωμι τὰ ὅπλα ταῖς γυναιξὶ ταῖς μαχουμέναις
 I GIVE THE WEAPONS TO THE WOMEN WHO WILL FIGHT / WHO ARE ABOUT TO FIGHT.

• ἔδωκα τὰ ὅπλα ταῖς γυναιξὶ ταῖς μαχουμέναις

I GAVE THE WEAPONS TO THE WOMEN WHO WOULD FIGHT / WHO WERE ABOUT TO FIGHT.

Observe that in the last sentence, if a future participle has been used, it means that the action of fighting was to take place *after* somebody had given the women the weapons; therefore, the English translation must be adapted to express this temporal relation. Here is another example:

- οἱ τὴν οἰκίαν οἰκοδομήσοντες ἔτι ἐν τοῖς αγροῖς εἰσιν Those who will / who are going to construct the house are still in the fields.
- οἱ τὴν οἰκίαν οἰκοδομήσοντες ἔτι ἐν τοῖς αγροῖς ἦσαν Those who would / who were going to construct the house were still in the fields.

Observe this double example:

• καὶ ἐν τῇ στρατηγίᾳ ... ἄλλους μὲν εὑρήσει τοὺς τάξοντας ἀνθ' ἑαυτοῦ, ἄλλους δὲ τοὺς μαχουμένους Also, in the Army he will find some who will command instead of him, and others who will fight (Xenophon, Memorabilia).

An important participle that has become a noun (as have so many other participles):

• τὰ γενησόμενα THE FUTURE ("THE THINGS THAT WILL HAPPEN").

2/ The other use is when the future participle has a *purpose meaning* (IN ORDER TO). Usually, if the main verb is not a verb of movement (*to go, to come,* etc.), we use it preceded by the word $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ (which has several meanings, to be met progressively), alternatively, if it is a verb of movement, we use it without $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$:

- ἔρχομαι πρὸς τὰς 'Αθήνας τὴν ἑορτὴν ἀψόμενος Ι ΑΜ GOING ΤΟ ATHENS ΤΟ SEE THE FESTIVAL.
- μάλα κάμνω ώς πολλὰ χρήματα δεξόμενος Ι WORK A LOT TO GET A LOT OF MONEY.
- Κῦρος δὲ καὶ Κυαξάρης συνταξάμενοι περιέμενον, ὡς εὶ προσίοιεν οἱ πολέμιοι, μαχούμενοι Cyrus and Cyaxares were waiting in combat formation, in order to fight if the enemy would approach (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ἡίλον πέμπομέν σοι βοηθήσοντα
 WE SEND YOU A FRIEND TO HELP YOU / WHO WILL HELP YOU.

Observe in this last example how the participle agrees with the direct object of the sentence – the person who will carry out the action expressed in the future participle. Translation can be facilitated with a relative clause.

c) Use of the aorist participle

[388]

- 1/ The aorist participle is used frequently, especially to indicate an action that has taken place before the action mentioned by the main verb (so, the aorist participle has *almost* always a temporal meaning, rather than an aspectual meaning):
 - ὁ Περικλῆς, ταῦτα εἰπών, ἀπῆλθεν Pericles, after saying this, left.
 - ♦ The sentence Pericles said this and LEFT would usually be translated into Greek using the structure Pericles, HAVING SAID THIS, LEFT.
 - ἐν τῆ μάχη νικήσαντες, οἱ στρατιῶται πρὸς τὰς ᾿Αθήνας ἦλθον Having won in the battle, the soldiers went towards Athens.

Alternatively, the agriculture can be translated as AFTER WINNING ..., or any other appropriate translation which conveys this temporal difference between the actions of the participle and the main verb:

- ἀπολαβόντες πάντα τὰ αἰχμάλωτα ἀπῆλθον After taking all the booty, he departed (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- **2/** When an aorist participle is used, the entirety of the sentence does not necessarily have to refer to past events. Indeed, it may concern the future:
 - τὴν βίβλον γράψας, δώσω σοι Having written the book, I will give (it) to you.

Maybe I have not written it yet, but whenever I may have written it I will give it to you; it is obvious that the event of the participle will already belong to the past when the event of the main verb takes place.

- **3/** In *some* cases, the aorist participle may refer to an action that took place simultaneously with the action of the main verb. For example:
 - ἀποκρινάμενος πάντα εἶπεν Having answered, he said everything.

It is clear that the subject is answering at the same time as he is speaking, therefore an appropriate translation is Answering / In his answer, he said everything. In this case, the use of the agrist tense rather than the present tense is idiomatic.

d) Use of the perfect participle

[389]

The use of the perfect participle is linked to its meaning of an event whose consequences are still lasting. It is not commonly found except in its use as a noun, i.e. with article:

- οἱ τεθνηκότες ἀεὶ τιμῶνται The dead men are always honoured.
- οἱ νῦν τεθνηκότες ἱκανοὶ ἦσαν ζῶντες νικᾶν μαχόμενοι πάντας τοὺς βαρβάρους Those who now are dead were enough, when alive, to defeat all the Barbarians in Battle (Xenophon, Agesilaus).

Note: où $\dot{\alpha}\pi\sigma\theta\alpha\nu\dot{\alpha}\nu\tau\epsilon\xi$, aorist participle, would rather mean THOSE WHO DIED, perhaps referring to a specific battle. The use of the perfect rather than the aorist gives this meaning that *now* they are no longer among us.

• οἱ ἀνεστηκότες τὴν πόλιν ἀπέλιπον The rebels left the city.

Note: οἱ ἀναστάντες, aorist participle, would rather mean THOSE WHO HAD REVOLTED, but perhaps they had given up their attitude on a separate occasion; the use of the perfect rather than the aorist supplies the meaning that their attitude was still the same, i.e. it was still lasting when they left the city, so the translation THE REBELS conveys this continuing feeling effectively. Nevertheless, the difference is really difficult to perceive in a translation.

5. Verbs that usually require a participle

[390]

Among the uncountable number of verbs in Greek that take a participle, there is a reduced group that deserve special study; we will find these verbs almost always accompanied by a participle *referring to the subject*, and therefore, in the nominative case. We will offer first a very literal translation for the purpose of showing the Greek structure and then one or two more fluent translations.

a) Most frequent verbs

- \Box $\lambda \alpha \nu \theta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$ TO ESCAPE SOMEBODY'S NOTICE DOING SOMETHING
 - ἐγὼ λανθάνω τὸν στρατηγὸν φεύγων | I escape the general's notice fleeing / The general does not realize that I flee / I flee without the general noticing, etc.
 - οἱ στρατιῶται λανθάνουσι τοὺς πολεμίους φεύγοντες The soldiers escape the enemies' notice fleeing / The enemies do not realize that the soldiers are fleeing / The soldiers flee without the enemies noticing, etc.
 - ἄρα λανθάνω σε ξένος ἄν;
 Do I escape your notice being a foreigner? / Do not you realise that I am a foreigner?
 - ἔλαθον ἡμᾶς ἀποδράντες We did not realise that they had escaped (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

Note that the person whose notice is escaped is in fact the direct object of the verb $\lambda\alpha\nu\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$. This verb can also be used without mentioning whose attention was missing. The following sentence does not specify any direct object:

- ἔλαθον ἐγγὺς προσελθόντες They approached nearer without being noticed (Xenophon, Anabasis).
- **Τυγχάνω** ΤΟ HAPPEN ΤΟ BE, ΤΟ BE BY CHANCE
 - τυγχάνεις σοφὸς ἄν

YOU HAPPEN TO BE BEING WISE / IT HAPPENS THAT YOU ARE WISE.

αί Μοῦσαι τυγχάνουσι τοὺς ποιητὰς διδάσκουσαι
 THE MUSES TEACH THE POETS.

The Muses happen to teach the poets $\,/\,$ It happens that

κατὰ δὲ τὸν ἀνάπλουν ἔτυχεν ἡμῖν συμπλέων Μεμφίτης ἀνήρ
 ΗΑΡΡΕΝΕΟ ΤΟ ΒΕ SAILING WITH US (Lucian, Philopseudeis).

 παρὼν ἐτύγχανον
 Ι ΗΑΡΡΕΝΕΟ ΤΟ ΒΕ PRESENT (Sophocles, Aiax).

If the participle is in the perfect tense, it has the meaning of TO HAVE JUST:

• τυγχάνω τοῦτο γεγραφώς I HAVE JUST WRITTEN THIS.

Note that when $\tau \nu \gamma \chi \dot{\alpha} v \omega$ is found on its own it has the meaning of HITTING (a target), and the object must be in *genitive*:

• βέλος μὲν ἐτόξευσα, τοῦ δὲ στρατιώτου οὐκ ἔτυχον I shot an arrow, but I did not hit the soldier.

[391]

- οἱ πολέμιοι φθάνουσι τοὺς ᾿Αθηναίους φεύγοντες
 FLEEING, THE ENEMIES LEAVE THE ATHENIANS BEHIND.
 ♦ The case of the participle makes it clear who is fleeing.
- οἱ μαθηταὶ φθάνουσι τὸν διδάσκαλον τὸ διδασκαλεῖον λείποντες The students anticipate the teacher in leaving the school / The students leave the school before the teacher does.
- καὶ φθάνουσιν ἐπὶ τῷ ἄκρῳ γενόμενοι τοὺς πολεμίους (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

THEY REACHED THE TOP BEFORE THE ENEMY DID

□ φαίνομαι TO APPEAR / TO BE EVIDENT DOING SOMETHING

- ὁ Περικλῆς φαίνεται ἐν τῆ ἐκκλησίᾳ λέγων Pericles appears speaking in the assembly / Pericles is evidently speaking in the assembly.
- ή ναυμαχία φαίνεται δεινὴ οὖσα ΤΗΕ NAVAL BATTLE APPEARS BEING CRUEL/THE NAVAL BATTLE SEEMS TO BE CRUEL.
- νῦν δ' ἐπειδὴ ἀθάνατος φαίνεται οὖσα, ... Now, as it is evident that it (the soul) is immortal, ... (Plato, Phaedo).

Note $\phi \alpha' v o \mu \alpha + infinitive$: this conveys that something only seems to be a certain way – it is not definite:

- ὁ ἐμὸς φίλος φ**αίνεται σ**οφὸς **εἶναι** My friend seems to be wise. \diamondsuit Maybe he is, maybe he is not.
- τοῦτο δὲ τὸ ὄνομα φαίνεται τὸν ἀναξάγοραν πιέζειν This name seems το put Anaxagoras under pressure (Plato, *Cratylus*).

b) Other verbs [392]

The following verbs, which are related to either continuing or ceasing an action, can also be followed by a participle, although they can also be found on their own:

 ψ διατελέω το keep on, το go on ψ λήγω το cease ψ ἀνέχομαι το endure ψ παύομαι το cease

Examples:

- παύομαι μαχόμενος I STOP FIGHTING.
 - * παύομαι τῆς μάχης (Gen.) would mean more or less the same, I stop taking part in the battle, but παύω τὴν μάχην (Acc.) would mean I stop the battle.
- διατελέω γράφουσα I GO ON WRITING.

• ἐπεὶ δὲ τοῦτο ὡμολόγησαν, εὐθὺς ἐπαύσαντο πολεμοῦντες IMMEDIATELY STOPPED FIGHTING (Xenophon, Anabasis). WHEN THEY REACHED AN AGREEMENT, THEY

 ὅδε ἀπὸ τοῦδε τοῦ χρόνου διατελεῖ στρατηγὸς ἄν MOMENT (Xenophon, Memorabilia). This man will go on being general from this very

6. Adjectives that usually require a participle

[393]

Some adjectives, usually predicative objects with the verb $\varepsilon \iota \mu \iota$, can be followed by a participle. The two most common examples are $\delta \tilde{\eta} \lambda o \varsigma$ and $\delta \alpha v \epsilon \rho \delta \varsigma$:

 $\bullet \; \delta\tilde{\eta} \hat{\lambda} \hat{\eta} \; \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \iota \; \sigma o \phi \grave{\eta} \; o \tilde{\upsilon} \sigma \alpha \qquad \qquad \text{It is clear/obvious that she is wise ("She is clear being wise")}.$

• φανεροί ἐσμεν ταχεῖς ὄντες
 IT IS CLEAR/OBVIOUS THAT WE ARE QUICK ("WE ARE CLEAR BEING QUICK").

A usual way of translating this is by means of an adverb: SHE IS OBVIOUSLY WISE, WE ARE OBVIOUSLY QUICK; for instance:

• δῆλος εἶ, ὧ Θεαίτητε, καταφρονῶν μου You obviously despise me, Theaetetus (Plato, *Theaetetus*).

This construction is also presented in the chapter Hellenisms: peculiarities and idioms.

7. Genitive Absolute [394]

a) Basic concepts

1/ Participles agree with some part of the sentence (with the subject, or the direct object, etc.), but there is a construction in Greek in which we will find a participle in the genitive case agreeing with a noun also in the genitive case, with both the noun and the participle being entirely independent from the rest of the sentence. The construction is therefore usually translated as a temporal or causal subordinate. For example:

• τῶν στρατιωτῶν νικησάντων, οἱ πολῖται ἐχάρησαν (literally) The soldiers having won, the citizens were happy.

The main sentence is The citizens were happy; the part The soldiers having won, which is independent from it, could be translated as When the soldiers had won, Because the soldiers had won, As the soldiers had won, After the victory of the soldiers, etc. (observe especially the last translation, using a noun instead of a verb).

Important The subject of the genitive absolute can never be part of the main sentence (although, to be honest, some classical authors skip this rule from time to time).

For instance, to translate While the GODS ARE IN HEAVEN, MEN HONOUR THEM, it would be wrong to say τῶν θεῶν ἐν τῷ οὐρανῷ ὄντων, οἱ ἄνθρωποι αὐτοὺς τιμῶσιν (unless them means somebody else rather than the GODS). We should, in this case, use a participle agreeing with the GODS:

- οἱ ἄνθρωποι τιμῶσι τοὺς θεοὺς ἐν τῷ οὐρανῷ ὄντας While the GODS ARE IN HEAVEN, MEN HONOUR THEM.
- 2/ A genitive absolute, as with any other participle, can have elements depending on it: objects, indirect questions, etc.:
 - ἐρομένου δέ μου τί αἱ θύραι νύκτωρ ψοφοῖεν, ... When I asked why the doors were making noise at night, ... (Lysias, *Death of Eratosthenes*).

b) Any tense, any voice

[395]

1/ The genitive absolute may also be in the present tense, in which case the action expressed is contemporaneous with that of the main verb:

- τοῦ παιδὸς τρέχοντος, ὁ πατὴρ ἐκάθευδεν
- WHILE THE CHILD WAS RUNNING, THE FATHER WAS SLEEPING.
- ♦ Literally The child running, the father was sleeping.
- ἐνίκησαν δὲ Λακεδαιμόνιοι ἡγουμένου ᾿Αγησανδρίδου won (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
- Under the leadership of Agesandrides, the Spartans
- ♦ Literally Agesandrides Leading, the Spartans won.

Observe the free use of a noun, LEADERSHIP. We could have said WHILE / BECAUSE AGESANDRIDES WAS LEADING, etc., but in some cases the use of a noun produces a more natural English.

- 2/ The participle may be in any voice:
 - τῆς πόλεως διαφθαρείσης, ὁ στρατηγὸς ἀνέστη

THE CITY HAVING BEEN DESTROYED, THE GENERAL STOOD UP.

χρόνου μεταξὸ διαγενομένου ...
 (Lysias, Death of Eratosthenes).

In the course of time \dots / As time was passing by \dots

c) Circumstantial meanings

[396]

1/ As happens with participles that agree with some element of the sentence, the genitive absolute can also have an additional circumstantial meaning. For instance, in this example we can see a genitive absolute with concessive meaning:

• τῶν θεῶν κελευόντων, θυσίας οὐ θύσεις; Although the gods order it, will you not perform sacrifices?

When or BECAUSE or AS would have sounded strange here - ALTHOUGH is the most appropriate option. As in the case of normal participles, this meaning of ALTHOUGH can be reinforced by adding $\kappa \alpha i \pi \epsilon \rho$:

- καίπερ τῶν θεῶν κελευόντων, θυσίας οὐ θύσεις; (same meaning)
- **2/** It can also have a causal or a temporal meaning:
 - πολλὰ καὶ μεγάλα πυρὰ ἐγένετο, ἄτε πολλῆς ὕλης παρούσης There was a big fire, because there was a lot of wood (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).
 - \diamond Causal: The presence of $\alpha \tau \varepsilon$ makes it clearly causal.
 - ταῦτα πάντα σοῦ ἀποθανόντος ηὑρόμην Ι found out all of this at your death (Sophocles, Aiax).
 - ♦ Temporal: In this case, the context makes it clear.
- 3/ In some cases, the genitive absolute could have either a causal or a temporal meaning simultaneously:
 - τοῦ στρατηγοῦ πολλὰ χρήματα δόντος, πάντες ἄσμενοι ἦσαν When / Because the general was giving money, all were happy.
 - γυναῖκα δὲ καλὴν καὶ ἀγαθὴν ἔλαβε μὲν τῶν γονέων κελευόντων When / Because his parents ordered it, he took a beautiful and good wife (Plutarch, *Artaxerxes*).

An easy way of translating a participle that can have this double causal / temporal meaning is by using As: As HIS PARENTS ORDERED IT, ...

4/ It can also have a conditional meaning:

• τοῦ παιδὸς μηδεμίαν βίβλον ἀναγνόντος, ὁ πατὴρ ὀργισθήσεται If the child has not read any book, the father will get angry.

In this last example, the use of $\mu\eta\delta\epsilon\mu\dot{\epsilon}\alpha\nu$ instead of $\sigma\dot{\upsilon}\delta\epsilon\mu\dot{\epsilon}\alpha\nu$ makes the conditional meaning clear (with $\sigma\dot{\upsilon}\delta\epsilon\mu\dot{\epsilon}\alpha\nu$ the genitive absolute would mean that the child really has not read any book, it would be clearly causal).

d) A curious difference with Latin

[397]

In Latin there is no present participle of the verb to be, so the usual ablative absolute of the style Cicerone consule has no participle, but in Greek the verb $\varepsilon i \mu i$ (and its compounds) does have a present participle:

- τοῦ Περικλέους στρατηγοῦ ὄντος ... When Pericles was general ...
- παρήει δ' οὐδείς, ἀπάντων μὲν τῶν στρατηγῶν παρόντων No one came forward, although all the generals were present (Demosthenes, *De Corona*).
- φανεροῦ γὰρ ὄντος τοῦ πράγματος, ... With the matter being clear, ... (Lysias, *Areopagiticus*).

e) Fixed idioms [398]

Some genitive absolutes have become idiomatic expressions:

• θεοῦ θέλοντος ... WITH GOD'S WILL ...

μηδενὸς κωλύοντος ...
 IF NOBODY OPPOSES ... (the conditional meaning is indicated by the use of μή as the negative instead of οὐ)

• τούτων οὕτως ἐχόντων ... This being the situation ...

ἀγορᾶς πληθούσης
 προϊόντος δὲ τοῦ χρόνου ...
 ΑΤ THE TIME OF FULL MARKET (IN THE MIDDLE OF THE MORNING)
 ΤΗΕ COURSE OF TIME ... (Lysias, Death of Eratosthenes).

• Δωριεὺς ὁ Διαγόρου ἐκ Ῥόδου εἰς Ἑλλήσποντον εἰσέπλει ἀρχομένου χειμῶνος Dorieus, son of Diagoros, sailed from Rhodes to the Hellespont at the beginning of the winter (Xenophon, Hellenica).

8. Accusative Absolute

[399]

a) Basic structure

We know what the impersonal verbs are:

• δεῖ τὸν μαθητὴν τῷ διδασκάλω πείθεσθαι The student must obey the teacher.

And we know also what a genitive absolute is:

• τοῦ πατρὸς ἀκούοντος, ὁ υίὸς πάντα ἐξηγήσατο While the father was listening, the son explained everything.

If we want to use an impersonal verb in an absolute construction, the participle of this verb must be *in accusative* (always singular neuter), not in genitive; but the regime of the verb will remain unchanged. For instance, we know that **EESTH** rules a dative:

ἔξεστι τῷ Σωκράτει ἀποφεύγειν It is possible for Socrates to flee (in English, we would rather say Socrates has the possibility of fleeing).

Then, if we want to say (literally) IT BEING POSSIBLE FOR SOCRATES TO ESCAPE, THE DISCIPLES PREPARED EVERYTHING, WE must express the IT BEING POSSIBLE *in accusative* (singular neuter always), but of course FOR SOCRATES will go on being in dative since the regime of the verb is the same:

- ἐξὸν τῷ Σωκράτει ἀποφεύγειν, οἱ μαθηταὶ πάντα παρεσκεύασαν It being possible for Socrates to flee, his disciples prepared everything.
- ἐξὸν δ' ἡμῖν ἐν εἰρένη πολιτεύεσθαι, οὖτοι ... πόλεμον ἡμῖν πρὸς ἀλλήλους παρέχουσιν It being possible for us to live in peace like citizens, these... bring war against each other to us (Xenophon, Hellenica).

b) Main difference with a Genitive Absolute

[400]

1/ In an accusative absolute construction, aside from the fact that the participle is in the accusative case, there is no subject (they are impersonal verbs) that agrees with it in the same case (unlike in the genitive absolute, where the subject had to be in the genitive case), but just a complement in the case as needed by the verb:

• ἐξὸν τῷ Περικλεῖ τοὺς πολίτας πεῖθειν, μακρὸν λόγον ἐποιήσατο It being possible for Pericles to persuade the citizens, he made a long speech.

Pericles is both the *object* of the accusative absolute and the *subject* of the main sentence; remember that in a genitive absolute the subject of the main sentence can not be found also in the genitive absolute part. This is different in an accusative absolute construction.

- **2/** However, it might also be the case that no object is specified:
 - πολλά με ἀνακρίνεις, ὧ οὖτος, ἤδη πίνειν δέον
 YOU ARE ASKING ME MANY QUESTIONS, WHEN WE SHOULD ALREADY
 BE DRINKING (Lucian, Saturnalia).

The $\delta \acute{\epsilon}ov$ is not accompanied by any specific accusative saying for whom it is necessary to drink, the translation we have been deduced from the general context.

c) Additional meaning

[401]

As in the genitive absolute, the accusative absolute can also convey some specific circumstantial meanings. Let's see an example with a clear concessive meaning and another one with a clear comparative meaning:

- ὁ δὲ Ἑρμῆς βραδύνει, πάλαι παρεῖναι δέον Hermes goes slowly, although he should have been here a while ago (Lucian, Cataplous).
 ♦ Concessive meaning.
- κατακείμεθα ἄσπερ ἐξὸν ἡσυχίαν ἄγειν We lie down, as if it were possible to be idle (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
 \$\diamoldarkappa Comparative meaning.

d) Main accusative absolutes

[402]

1/ The main impersonal verbs (or personal verbs when used impersonally) that may form an accusative absolute are:

2/ These three ones are in the present, aorist and perfect tenses of the same verb (the last two are in the active and middle voices respectively, but convey the same meaning):

 ψ δόξαν having seemed well, having been decided ψ δεδογμένον having seemed well, having been decided

- δόξαν μοι τοῦτο εὐθὺς ποιεῖν, ἐποίησα $\hspace{1.5cm}$ As it seemed well to me to do this immediately, $\hspace{0.5cm}$ I did it.
- δόξαν ἡμῖν ταῦτα ἐπορευόμεθα As it seemed well to us, we departed (Plato, *Protagoras*).
- συνδόξαν τῷ πατρὶ καὶ τῇ μητρὶ γαμεῖ τὴν Κυαξάρου θυγατέρα As it seemed well to his father and his mother, he married the daughter of Cyaxares (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).
- τὸ πλῆθος ἐψηφίσαντο πολεμεῖν. δεδογμένον δὲ αὐτοῖς εὐθὺς μὲν ἀδύνατα ἦν ἐπιχειρεῖν ΤΗΕ PEOPLE VOTED ΤΟ FIGHT. BUT, ALTHOUGH THEY HAD TAKEN THIS DECISION, AT FIRST IT WAS IMPOSSIBLE TO MAKE AN IMMEDIATE ATTEMPT (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- ἔτι δέ, ὦ Σώκρατες, οὐδὲ δίκαιόν μοι δοκεῖς ἐπιχειρεῖν πρᾶγμα, σαυτὸν προδοῦναι, ἐξὸν σωθῆναι Socrates, I do not think that you are doing anything fair by giving yourself up, when it would be possible to save you (Plato, *Crito*).
- εἰρημένον ἐν τᾶις πρότερον συνθήκαις ὅπλα μὴ ἐπιφέρειν... Although in the former treaty it had been specified that no weapons should be brought ... (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- σοὶ γὰρ παρὸν γῆν τήνδε καὶ δόμους ἔχειν ... For although it was possible for you to possess this land and this house ... (Euripides, Medea).

3/ And there are also some formed by a combination of the verb $\varepsilon i \mu i$ and an adjective:

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- ἀδύνατον ὂν τὴν πόλιν βία ἐλεῖν, ... ΙΤ BEING IMPOSSIBLE ΤΟ ΤΑΚΕ ΤΗΕ CITY BY FORCE, ... (Thucydides, Historiae).
- **4/** Although it is not very frequent, it may happen that a verb used in a personal way forms, together with its subject, an accusative absolute (usually preceded by $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ or $\check{\omega}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$):
 - σιωπῆ ἐδείπνουν, ἄσπερ τοῦτο προστεταγμένον αὐτοῖς They were having dinner in silence, as if this had been ordered to them (Xenophon, *Symposium*).

Observe that $\tau o \tilde{v} \tau o$ is the subject of the accusative participle $\pi \rho o \sigma \tau \epsilon \tau \alpha \gamma \mu \acute{\epsilon} v o v$.

9. Participle with αv

[404]

a) Its use in reported speech

1/ This formation is equivalent to the use of the *infinitive* + αv , but with verbs that require a participle construction. Let's see some double examples (a sentence in direct speech, transformed later into reported speech: the verb becomes a participle but "carries" the αv with it):

- τοὺς πολεμίους ἐνίκησας ἄν, εἰ συμμάχους ἔσχες YOU WOULD HAVE DEFEATED THE ENEMY, IF YOU HAD HAD ALLIES.
- ♦ With a verb followed by a participle:
- οἶδά σε τοὺς πολεμίους νικήσαντα ἄν, εἰ συμμάχους ἔσχες Ικνοω that you would have defeated the enemy, if you had had allies.
- εἰ τοῦτό μοι εἶπες, ἐγώ σοι χρήματα ἔδωκα ἄν IF YOU HAD TOLD ME THIS, I WOULD HAVE GIVEN YOU MONEY.
- ♦ With a verb followed by a participle:
- οὖτος οἶδεν, εἰ τοῦτό μοι εἶπες, ἐμέ σοι χρήματα δόντα ἄν Ηε knows that if you had told me this, I would have given you money.
- εἰ νῦν οἱ πολέμιοι ἐπετίθεντο, τὴν πόλιν ἐλάμβανον ἄν

 If the enemy were attacking now, they would capture the city.
- ♦ With a verb followed by a participle:
- αἰσθάνομαι, εἰ νῦν οἱ πολέμιοι ἐπετίθεντο, τούτους τὴν πόλιν λαμβάνοντας ἄν Ι realise that if the enemy were attacking now, they would capture the city.
- εἰ τὴν μάχην ἐνίκησας, ἐγένου ἄν λυπηρὸς τοῖς πολεμίοις If YOU HAD WON THE BATTLE, YOU WOULD HAVE BEEN DISTRESSING TO YOUR ENEMIES.
- ♦ With a verb followed by a participle:
- εὖ οἶδά σε, εἰ τὴν μάχην ἐνίκησας, λυπηρὸν γενομένον ἂν τοῖς συμμάχοις Ι κΝΟW THAT IF YOU HAD WON THE BATTLE, YOU WOULD HAVE BEEN DISTRESSING TO YOUR ENEMIES.
- **2/** As in the case of the infinitive $+ \ddot{\alpha} v$, a problem of translation arises when an aorist participle $+ \ddot{\alpha} v$ replaces either an aorist indicative $+ \ddot{\alpha} v$ or an aorist optative $+ \ddot{\alpha} v$ (note that in the former examples the IF clause helped us to solve this problem). For instance, this sentence could have two possible translations:
- οἶδά σε τοὺς πολεμίους νικήσαντα ἄν I know that you would defeat / would have defeated the enemies
 and this is because the original sentence could be
 - either τοὺς πολεμίους ἐνίκησας ἄν You would have defeated the enemies.
 - ♦ In this case the subsequent meaning of the former sentence would be I know that you would have defeated the enemies.
 - or τοὺς πολεμίους νικήσειας ἄν You would defeat the enemies.
 - ♦ In this case the subsequent meaning of the former sentence would be I know that you would defeat the enemies.

b) Its use to give the participle a potential meaning

[406]

The second use is far more complex; as before, the $\tilde{\alpha}v$ gives the participle a potential meaning, but in this case it is not just a personal verbal form that has become a participle in reported speech. As usual, the problem is deciding whether an aorist participle + $\tilde{\alpha}v$ conveys the meaning of an aorist indicative + $\tilde{\alpha}v$ or of an aorist optative + $\tilde{\alpha}v$.

We can distinguish three basic uses:

1/ It replaces a potential relative:

In the following examples, first we offer the potential relative sentence (as it would normally be expressed), then, the same sentence but using a participle. Observe that we provide some examples with translations based on both the aorist indicative $+ \ddot{\alpha}v$ and the aorist optative $+ \ddot{\alpha}v$, to highlight the difference in translation.

- Potential relative sentence: δεῖ εἰδέναι ἃ λεχθείη ἄν IT IS NECESSARY TO KNOW WHAT COULD (OR WOULD) BE SAID.
 Participle with ἄν: δεῖ εἰδέναι τὰ ἄν λεγόμενα (same meaning).
- \diamond Thus the participle + αv replaces the potential relative.
- Potential relative sentence: ὁρῷ τὸν στρατηγὸν ὃς αἰρεθείη ἄν I see the general who could be chosen. Participle with ἄν: ὁρῷ τὸν αἰρεθέντα ᾶν στρατηγόν (same meaning).
- \Rightarrow Note that the participle + αv could have replaced an indicative + αv (and therefore have this other meaning): ὁρῶ τὸν στρατηγὸν ὃς ἡρέθη αv I see the General who *could have Been* chosen.
- Potential relative sentence: ὁ Λουκιάνος διηγεῖται ἃ γένοιτο ἄν Lucian exposes things that could happen. Participle with ἄν: ὁ Λουκιάνος διηγεῖται γενόμενα ἄν (same meaning).
- Potential relative sentence: σύ, ὃς τοῦτο ἡδέως τότε ἐποίησας ἄν, νῦν οὐκ ἐθέλεις;
 YOU, WHO THEN WOULD [407]
 HAVE DONE THIS WITH PLEASURE, NOW DO NOT WANT TO?

Participle with αν: σύ, τοῦτο ἡδέως τότε ποίησας αν, νῦν οὐκ ἐθέλεις; (same meaning).

- Note that the participle + ἄν could have replaced an optative + ἄν (and therefore have this other meaning):
 σύ, ὃς τοῦτο ἡδέως τότε ποιήσειας ἄν, νῦν οὐκ ἐθέλεις;
 YOU, WHO THEN WOULD DOTHIS WITH PLEASURE, NOW ...
- Potential relative sentence: ἐπαινῶ τούτους οἱ χρήματα τῆ πόλει δοῖεν ἄν I praise those who would give money to the city.

Participle with ἀν: ἐπαινῶ τοὺς χρήματα τῆ πόλει δόντας ἀν (same meaning).

• *Potential relative sentence:* οἱ πολέμιοι ὁρῶσι τεῖχος ὃ ῥαδίως ληφθείη ἄν
The enemies see a wall that could be taken easily.

Participle with $\mathring{a}v$: οἱ πολέμιοι ὁρῶσι τεῖχος ῥαδίως ληφθὲν $\mathring{a}v$ (same meaning).

Its use with a future participle is extremely rare, but let us see one example:

• Potential relative sentence: ἐνθάδε ἄνθρωπος πάρεστι ὃς ἴσως **συμμαχεῖται ἄν** There is a man here who would perhaps join us in the fight.

Participle with ἄν: ἐνθάδε ἄνθρωπος πάρεστι ἴσως συμμαχούμενος ἄν (same meaning).

2/ It gives the participle a concessive meaning:

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In the next example the presence of αv produces a very small change in the meaning, in fact it could have been avoided altogether:

Participle without ἄν: ἔχων πολλὰ εἰπεῖν, σιγήσομαι
 Participle with ἄν: ἔχων ἂν πολλὰ εἰπεῖν, σιγήσομαι
 Although I would be able to say many things,
 I will keep silent.

With respect to this example, note the following:

- 💠 καίπερ could have been added to the first sentence: καίπερ ἔχων πολλὰ εἰπεῖν, σιγήσομαι (clear concessive meaning).
- \Leftrightarrow The optative + αv which the participle + αv would replace would be found if we had expressed the concession as a main sentence or as a concessive clause:
 - ἔχοιμι ἄν πολλὰ εἰπεῖν, ἀλλὰ σιγήσομαι Ι WOULD BE ABLE TO SAY MANY THINGS, BUT I WILL KEEP SILENT.
 - καὶ εἰ ἔχοιμι ἄν πολλὰ εἰπεῖν, σιγήσομαι Although I would be able to say many things, I will keep silent.

However, in the following example, observe how the addition of the particle αv completely changes the meaning:

• Participle without ἄν: ῥαδίως τὴν πόλιν ἑλών, ὁ στρατηγὸς ἀναχωρεῖν ἐκέλευσεν Ηανίνς τακέν τhe city easily, the general ordered to withdraw.

Participle with ἄν: ῥαδίως τὴν πόλιν ἑλὼν ἄν, ὁ στρατηγὸς ἀναχωρεῖν ἐκέλευσεν Αιτhough he would/could have taken the city easily, the general ordered to withdraw.

With respect to this example, note the following:

- \Leftrightarrow The agrist indicative + αv which the participle + αv would replace would be found if we had expressed the concession as a main sentence:
 - ῥαδίως τὴν πόλιν εἶλεν ἄν, ἀλλὰ ὁ στρατηγὸς ἀναχωρεῖν ἐκέλευσεν Ηε would/could have taken the city easily, but the general ordered to withdraw.

The difference in meaning is clear: by using the participle alone, we mean that the city was taken, while by using the participle + αv we mean that it *could* have been taken, but was not. Thus, while there is not much difference between BEING ABLE and ALTHOUGH I WOULD BE ABLE, there is a big difference between HAVING TAKEN THE CITY and ALTHOUGH HE COULD HAVE TAKEN THE CITY.

Observe this example from Plato (in this example, the concessive meaning is better reflected by EVEN IF rather than by ALTHOUGH):

• ἔχω ἐκκεχυμένως παντὶ ἀνδρὶ λέγειν, οὐ μόνον ἄνευ μισθοῦ, ἀλλὰ καὶ προστιθεὶς ἄν ἡδέως εἴ τίς μου ἐθέλει ἀκούειν I pour myself out profusely to anybody, not only without salary but also even if offering something myself if somebody wanted to listen to me (Plato, Euthyphro).

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3/ Preceded by $\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$, it replaces a potential causal sentence:

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• Causal sentence: ὑπερορῷ τούτους τοὺς στρατιώτας διότι οὐ δύναιντο ἄν μοι βοηθῆσαι Ι Look down on these soldiers because they would not be able to help me.

Participle with ἄν: ὑπερορῷ τούτους τοὺς στρατιώτας ὡς οὐ δυναμένους ἄν μοι βοηθῆσαι (same meaning).

Note that if we deleted the αv from the last sentence it would mean I LOOK DOWN ON THESE SOLDIERS BECAUSE THEY ARE NOT ABLE TO HELP ME, and this participle would have corresponded to this causal sentence:

• ὑπερορῷ τούτους τοὺς στρατιώτας διότι οὐ δύνανταί μοι βοηθῆσαι Ι LOOK DOWN ON THESE SOLDIERS BECAUSE THEY ARE NOT ABLE TO HELP ME.

So, the use of $\tilde{\alpha}v$ with the participle has resulted in the same meaning as optative + $\tilde{\alpha}v$: potentiality in the future. Let's see some more examples:

• Causal sentence: δώσω σοι τὰ χρήματα, διότι οὐ θαρρήσαιμι ἄν οὔποτε κατέχειν Ι WILL GIVE YOU THE MONEY BECAUSE I WOULD NEVER DARE TO KEEP IT.

Participle with ἄν: δώσω σοι τὰ χρήματα, ὡς οὐ θαρρῶν ἄν οὕποτε κατέχειν (same meaning).

• Causal sentence: ἐγὼ αὐτὸς τοῖς πολεμίοις μαχοῦμαι, διότι ἐκεῖνος οὐ μαχήσαιτο ἄν Ι Myself will fight against the enemies, because he would not fight.

Participle with αν: ἐγὸ αὐτὸς τοῖς πολεμίοις μαχοῦμαι, ὡς ἐκείνου οὐ μαχομένου αν (SAME MEANING).

• Causal sentence: ἐγὼ αὐτὸς τοῦτο ἐποίησα διότι ὑμεῖς ἀδύνατοι ἦτε ἄν Ι DID THIS MYSELF BECAUSE YOU WOULD BE UNABLE.

Participle with ἀν: ἐγὼ αὐτὸς τοῦτο ἐποίησα, ὑμῶν ἀδυνάτων ὄντων ἀν (same meaning).

Note that if the participle must replace an aorist indicative + αv (unfulfilled condition in the past), the aorist participle must be used:

• Causal sentence: δώσω σοι τὰ χρήματα, διότι οὐκ ἐθάρρησα ἂν οὕποτε κατέχειν Ι WILL GIVE YOU THE MONEY BECAUSE I WOULD NEVER HAVE DARED TO RETAIN IT.

Participle with ἀν: δώσω σοι τὰ χρήματα, ὡς οὐ θαρρήσας ἀν οὕποτε κατέχειν (same meaning).

• Causal sentence: ἐγὼ αὐτὸς τοῦτο ἐποίησα διότι ὑμεῖς ἀδύνατοι ἐγένεσθε ἄν Ι did this myself because you would have been unable.

Participle with ἀν: ἐγὼ αὐτὸς τοῦτο ἐποίησα, ὑμῶν ἀδυνάτων γενομένων ἄν (same meaning).

e) Indirect speech

1. An introduction [411]

Strictly speaking, indirect speech is the reproduction of somebody's words as part of a larger sentence. For example, if Socrates said The soldiers have behaved bravely, the inclusion of Socrates' words as part of the larger sentence Socrates said that the soldiers had behaved bravely is what is usually known as indirect style. In a broader sense, it also comprehends the reproduction of someone's thoughts, perceptions, opinions, etc.

Indirect speech can be divided into three parts:

Indirect statement clauses: As the name indicates, this is the reproduction of somebody's statement, as seen in the former example of Socrates' words. Moreover, in addition to verbs of saying (HE SAYS THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS), indirect statements include verbs of thinking (HE THINKS THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS, I CONSIDER THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS) verbs of physical or intellectual perception (HE SEES THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS, HE HAS REALISED THAT YOU HAVE DONE THIS). So, these sentences will not always be reproducing something that somebody has said, but may well be reproducing somebody's thoughts or perceptions.

Indirect command clauses: The reproduction of somebody's orders, advice, etc. (direct command: Do NOT ADVANCE; indirect command: The general ordered the soldiers NOT TO ADVANCE).

Indirect question clauses: The reproduction of somebody's question (direct question: Where is Socrates?; indirect question: He asked where Socrates was). Note that this may also include the reproduction of a question that has not been directly asked, as in the sentence I want to know where Socrates is: possibly the direct question, Where is Socrates? has not yet been asked, thus no former question is being reproduced here, but rather the question is being expressed as part of a compound sentence.

The behaviour of subordinate clauses in indirect statement may pose some difficulties; these are addressed at the end of this chapter.

2. Indirect statement clauses

[412]

There are three constructions to express what in English will usually be introduced by a THAT clause. Deciding which of these constructions must be used is not problematic when translating from Greek, but it may be more difficult when translating into Greek, as it will not depend solely on the verb of the main clause and so sometimes more than one option is possible. For instance, in the sentence I know that he is wise we can either use a $\delta \pi$ construction or an infinitive construction to express the that he is wise part.

Inside an indirect statement, when reproducing somebody's words (introduced with a verb of saying: HE SAID THAT...) rather than what somebody thought, saw, realised, etc., we form what is usually called *reported speech*.

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a) The ὅτι construction [413]

1/ Its use:

Almost all verbs of saying (except $\phi \eta \mu \hat{\iota}$) are followed by a $\check{o}\tau \iota$ sentence, translated by THAT ($\check{o}\tau \iota$ can be replaced by $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ if we want to express some reservation about the veracity of the statement). Observe the following examples:

- ὁ διδάσκαλος λέγει ὅτι οἱ μαθηταὶ ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις εἰσίν ΤΗΕ TEACHER SAYS THAT THE STUDENTS ARE IN ATHENS.
- λέγει ὅτι ἐλπίδας ἔχει καλῶς ἔσεσθαι He says that he has hopes that it will go well (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Other verbs which are not of saying, such as αἰσθάνομαι το PERCEIVE, can also use this ὅτι construction:

• ὁ βασιλεὺς αἰσθάνεται ὅτι οἱ στρατιῶται τὴν μάχην ἐνίκησαν ΤΗΕ KING PERCEIVES THAT THE SOLDIERS HAVE WON THE BATTLE.

Note that these examples could have been expressed using different constructions: $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ can also use an infinitive construction (although this is not common), and $\alpha \acute{\iota} \sigma \theta \acute{\alpha} v o \mu \alpha \iota$ can also use a participle construction (which in fact would be more frequent); both constructions are explained in due course.

2/ Verbs that use it:

Here are some of the verbs that can be followed in English by a THAT clause that would correspond to a $\delta \pi$ construction in Greek:

TO ANNOUNCE	διαβεβαιόομαι	TO MAINTAIN
TO PERCEIVE	λέγω	TO SAY
TO HEAR	μανθάνω	TO LEARN
TO KNOW	οἶδα	TO KNOW
TO DISPLAY		TO SEE
TO SHOW	πυνθάνομαι	TO LEARN BY INQUIRY
	TO PERCEIVE TO HEAR TO KNOW TO DISPLAY	TO PERCEIVE

Note

A lot of these verbs can also be followed by other constructions. For instance, $\dot{o}\rho\acute{\alpha}\omega$ is most frequently followed by a participle construction.

3/ The tenses: [414]

Special care must be taken with respect to the English tenses:

• Direct speech: ὁ βασιλεὺς βίβλον ἔγραψεν ΤΗΕ ΚΙΝG WROTE A BOOK.

• Indirect speech: ὁ ἄγγελος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ βασιλεὺς βίβλον ἔγραψεν ΤΗΕ MESSENGER SAID THAT THE KING HAD WRITTEN A BOOK.

In Greek, the tense of the original statement is always kept, but in English, if the introductory verb is in the past tense, we must move the translation one step back in time. In this example we have moved the simple past *WROTE* to the pluperfect *HAD WRITTEN*. Observe another example:

• Direct: ὁ βασιλεὺς βίβλον γράφει ΤΗΕ ΚΙΝΟ WRITES A BOOK.

• Indirect: ὁ ἄγγελος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ βασιλεὺς βίβλον γράφει ΤΗΕ MESSENGER SAID THAT THE KING WAS WRITING A BOOK.

Similarly, the English present tense translation has been moved one step backwards in time because the introductory verb was a past tense, but in Greek it goes on being in present tense. Observe another example:

• Κόνωνι δὲ εἶπεν ὅτι παύσει αὐτὸν μοιχῶντα τὴν θάλατταν He told Conon that he *would stop* him from committing adultery with the sea (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

♦ Obviously, the original sentence was παύσω αὐτόν ... I WILL STOP ...

Even if we make use of the oblique optative (which we can do in the secondary sequence, when the introductory verb is in a past tense: imperfect, aorist or pluperfect), it will go on being in the same tense, but the mood will now be optative. Note the following examples:

- ὁ μάντις ... ἔλεγεν ὅτι μέγας μὲν οἰωνὸς εἴη

 The soothsayer ... said that it was a great omen (Xenophon, Anabasis).
 - \diamondsuit Obviously, the original sentence was μέγας οἰωνός ἐστιν IT IS A GREAT OMEN.

Note

Indirect speech in secondary sequence is the only construction in which we can find the future optative:

• εἶπεν ὅτι βίβλον γράψει / γράψοι HE SAID THAT HE WOULD WRITE A BOOK.

4/ The phenomenon of the prolepsis:

[415]

In $\check{o}\pi$ constructions, the use of the *prolepsis* ("anticipation") is very frequent: the subject of the $\check{o}\pi$ sentence is placed as direct object of the main verb. Observe the example:

• λέγομεν ὅτι ὁ Περικλῆς ἀεὶ νικῷ We say that Pericles always wins

can be written as

• λέγομεν τὸν Περικλέα ὅτι ἀεὶ νικῷ (same meaning).

b) The infinitive construction

[416]

1/ Verbs that use it:

Verbs of thinking, considering and similar meanings (and φημί) are usually followed by an infinitive construction. For example, οἴομαι το τΗΙΝΚ and νομίζω το CONSIDER, ΤΟ ΤΗΙΝΚ:

- οἴομαι τὸν Σωκράτη ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις οἰκεῖν ΙτΗΙΝΚ ΤΗΑΤ SOCRATES LIVES IN ATHENS.
- νομίζω τοὺς ἡμετέρους στρατιώτας νικῆσαι Ι THINK THAT OUR SOLDIERS HAVE WON.
- νομίζεις κακόνουν τὴν μητέρα σοι εἶναι; Do you consider your mother to be malicious towards you? (Xenophon, *Memorabilia*).

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Other verbs that are followed by an infinitive construction are:

ήγέομαι το Think, το consider (rather strongly) ὁμολογέω το Agree ὑποπτεύω το Suspect ὑπολαμβάνω το Suppose

Most of the grammar affecting the infinitive construction, even when ruled by verbs of indirect statement, has been presented in the former chapter; here we shall now qualify it with further information. It must also be said that, in indirect statement, the negative of the infinitive is $o\dot{\mathbf{o}}$, not $\mu\dot{\mathbf{n}}$:

• νομίζω αὐτὰς ἐν τῇ πόλει οὐκ εἶναι Ι ΤΗΙΝΚ ΤΗΑΤ ΤΗΕΥ ARE NOT IN THE CITY.

But if the infinitive construction follows an imperative (or similar construction in subjunctive), the negative is $\mu\hat{\eta}$:

• νόμιζε τὸν Σωκράτη μὴ μῶρον εἶναι Consider that Socrates is not a fool.

2/ Verbs of saying: [417]

Most verbs of saying that use $\delta \tau \iota$ can also use an infinitive construction. For instance:

• ὁ παῖς λέγει <mark>ὅτι ὁ ἀδελφὸς ἐν τῆ ἀγορῷ ἐστιν = ὁ παῖς λέγει τὸν ἀδελφὸν ἐν τῆ ἀγορῷ εἶναι</mark> The child says that his brother is in the agora.

NOTE: $\phi\eta\mu\hat{\iota}$ must never be followed by a $\check{o}\tau\iota$ construction but by an infinitive one. Moreover, a negative preceding this verb affects the infinitive, not the main verb:

- ὁ διδάσκαλος **οὐκ ἔφη** τοὺς μαθητὰς ἥκειν does NOT mean The teacher did not say that the students had arrived but The teacher said that the students had not arrived.
- αὐτὸς δὲ οὐκ ἔφη ἰέναι He said that he would not go (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

In other words, $o\dot{v}$ $\phi\eta\mu\dot{t}$ has the meaning of TO DENY (equivalent to the Latin *nego*).

When verbs of saying are used, the infinitive also expresses tense. In other words, it is kept in the tense in which the sentence was originally said:

• ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἄνθρωπος ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γ**ράφει** ΤΗΑΤ ΜΑΝ IS WRITING THIS BOOK.

♦ λέγει ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γράφειν
HE SAYS THAT THAT MAN IS WRITING THIS BOOK.

💠 εἶπεν ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γράφειν 💮 Ηε said that that man was writing this book.

Observe that in the last sentence the present infinitive has been translated as past in English because of the change from HE SAYS to HE SAID, but the tense of the Greek infinitive remains unchanged.

• ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἄνθρωπος ταύτην τὴν βίβλον ἔγραψεν ΤΗΑΤ ΜΑΝ HAS WRITTEN THIS BOOK.

❖ λέγει ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γ**ράψαι** ΗΕ SAYS THAT THAT MAN HAS WRITTEN THIS BOOK.

❖ εἶπεν ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γράψαι
HE SAID THAT THAT MAN HAD WRITTEN THIS BOOK.

Observe that in the last sentence the agrist infinitive has been translated as pluperfect in English because of the change from He says to He said, but the tense of the Greek infinitive remains unchanged.

• ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἄνθρωπος ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γράψει

THAT MAN WILL WRITE THIS BOOK.

♦ λέγει ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γράψειν

HE SAYS THAT THAT MAN WILL WRITE THIS BOOK.

♦ εἶπεν ἐκεῖνον τὸν ἄνθρωπον ταύτην τὴν βίβλον γράψειν

HE SAID THAT THAT MAN WOULD WRITE THIS BOOK.

Observe that in the last sentence the future infinitive has been translated as potential mood in English because of the change from HE SAYS to HE SAID, but the tense of the Greek infinitive remains unchanged.

- τὰ μὲν πυρὰ οὐκ ἔφη ἰδεῖν He said he had not seen the fires (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
 - \diamond The original sentence would have been oùk $\epsilon i \delta o v ...$ I HAVE NOT SEEN ..., so the aorist is kept in the infinitive.

c) The participle construction

[419]

1/ Verbs that use it:

Verbs that express physical or intellectual perception, such as to see, to realise, to know, may use the $\delta \tau \iota$ construction:

• ὁρῷ ὅτι ὁ πατὴρ ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις ἐστίν I see that my father is in Athens.

But they may also use (as is more often the case) an *accusative* + *participle* construction, in which the participle will agree with the direct object:

• ὁρῶ τὸν πατέρα ἐν τᾶῖς ᾿Αθήναις ὄντα (same meaning, but literally I see MY FATHER BEING IN ATHENS).

The tense of the participle shows the temporal relationship with the main verb:

- οἶδα τὸν πατέρα βίβλον γράψοντα Ι know that my father is going to write a book.
- ἤδη τὸν πατέρα βίβλον γράψοντα Ι KNEW THAT MY FATHER WAS GOING TO WRITE A BOOK.
- ♦ The participle is in future tense, so the action is future with respect to the main verb.

Two further examples:

- τὸν ἀδελφὸν τοὺς πολεμίους λαβόντα εἶδον I saw my brother having captured the enemies = I saw that my brother had captured the enemies.
- Observe that the participle is translated by an English pluperfect, in order to indicate that the action is former to that of the main verb.
- ὡς εἶδε τοὺς μὲν Πέρσας φυλάττοντας τὴν ἄκραν... When he saw that the Persians were guarding the summit... (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).
- ♦ This could have also been translated as When HE SAW THE PERSIANS GUARDING THE SUMMIT....

The main verbs that use this construction are:

[420]

αἰσθάνομαι	TO PERCEIVE	έπίσταμαι	TO KNOW
ἀκούω	TO HEAR, TO LISTEN	μανθάνω	TO LEARN
γιγνώσκω	TO KNOW	μέμνημαι	TO REMEMBER
δείκνυμι	TO SHOW	οἶδα	TO KNOW
δηλόω	TO SHOW		TO SEE
έπιλανθάνομαι	TO FORGET	πυνθάνομαι	TO GET TO KNOW

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- οὐ γὰρ ἤδεσαν αὐτὸν τεθνηκότα They did not know that he had died (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- ὁ δὲ Κλεόμβροτος, ἐπειδὴ ἐπύθετο τὴν εἰρήνην γεγενημένην, ... And Cleombrotos, when he learned that peace had been reached, ... (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

Observe that some of these verbs are also found in the list of verbs that can be followed by a $\delta \tau \iota$ construction. The verb $\dot{\alpha} \kappa \omega \dot{\omega}$ is an unusual verb, since it rules the genitive if referring to a person:

• ἀκούω τοῦ διδασκάλου λέγοντος I LISTEN TO THE TEACHER SPEAKING.

But if it is used in the sense of reported speech then it takes an accusative:

- ἀκούω τὸν διδάσκαλον λέγοντα I HEAR THAT THE TEACHER IS SPEAKING.
 - \diamond Now we have translated it using a THAT clause, as if this information has been related by a third party.

2/ When speaking about oneself:

[421]

If the subject of the participle is the same as that of the main verb of the sentence, the subject is not mentioned (although $\alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \dot{\alpha} \dot{\zeta}$ could be used in the necessary form for emphatic purposes) and the participle (and the predicative object, if any) is in the nominative, agreeing with the subject:

• αὖται αἱ κόραι γιγνώσκουσι (αὐταὶ) σοφαὶ οὖσαι These girls know that they are wise.

3. Indirect command clauses

[422]

An indirect command is expressed by the infinitive:

- Original command: ἀναγνῶθι τὴν βίβλον Read the Book!
 - Indirect command: ὁ διδάσκαλος ἐκέλευσεν αὐτὸν ἀναγνῶναι τὴν βίβλον ΤΗΕ ΤΕΑCHER TOLD HIM ΤΟ READ THE BOOK.

Since the negative used for a negative order is $\mu \hat{\eta}$, the negative used in an indirect command clause will also be $\mu \hat{\eta}$:

• ὁ διδάσκαλος ἐκέλευσεν αὐτὸν μὴ ἀναγνῶναι τὴν βίβλον ΤΗΕ TEACHER TOLD HIM NOT TO READ THE BOOK.

Some verbs of ordering, such as **κελεύω**, rule an *accusative*, and others, such as **διακελεύομαι**, rule a *dative*. Practice will teach this.

Some more examples:

- οἱ δὲ ἀναβοήσαντες ἐκέλευον ἐκείνους ἄρχειν
 And they started shouting and ordered that those men should be in command (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- σέ, $\tilde{\omega}$ Πάρι, **κελεύει** $\dot{\omega}$ Ζεύς ... δικάσαι ταῖς θεαῖς, ἤτις αὐτῶν ἡ καλλίστη ἐστί Zeus orders you, Paris, to judge on behalf of the goddesses, which one of them is the most beautiful (Lucian, *Dialogues of the Gods*).
- τοσοῦτον ὑμῖν ἔτι διακελεύομαι μνημονεύειν, ὅταν φέρητε τὴν ψῆφον I urge you to remember such a great detail when you cast your vote (Isocrates, *Against Callimachus*).

4. Indirect question clauses

[423]

An indirect question (or *indirect interrogative*) is a question inside a main sentence. For instance:

Direct question: ποῦ ἐστιν ὁ Σωκράτης; Where is Socrates?
 Πdirect question: βούλεται εἰδέναι ποῦ ἐστιν ὁ Σωκράτης He wants to know where Socrates is.

a) What happens to the original verb?

The same tense must be kept, and also the indicative mood (unless it is a deliberative question in subjunctive, in which case subjunctive tense must be kept). If, for instance, the original question is formulated in future tense,

• τί ποιήσεις αὔριον; What will you do tomorrow?

the verb of the indirect question will be in the future tense, regardless of the tense of the main sentence:

- εἰδέναι ἐβούλετο τί ποιήσω αὔριον ΗΕ WANTED TO KNOW WHAT I WOULD DO TOMORROW
 - ♦ Observe that, as the introductory verb is past, the English will has become would, but in Greek the sentence reads literally as HE WANTED TO KNOW WHAT I WILL DO TOMORROW.
- ταύτην δὲ ἔχων τὴν ἡλικίαν οὔτε τί ἐστιν ὀλιγαρχία ἠπιστάμην ΑΤ ΤΗΑΤ AGE, I DID NOT EVEN KNOW WHAT OLIGARCHY IS / WAS (Lysias, *In Theomnestum*).

BUT: As in the cases of reported speech, the *oblique optative* can be used if the introductory verb is in a secondary tense, creating the so called *secondary sequence*:

• πῶς μαχήσονται οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι; How will the Athenians fight? ἤρετο πῶς μαχήσοιντο οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι He asked how the Athenians would fight.

 \diamondsuit Remember that this is optional; $\mu\alpha\chi\eta\sigma\sigma\sigma\tau\alpha$ would also have been correct.

b) What happens to the interrogative word?

[424]

1/ In the examples above, the interrogative word has not changed; nevertheless, it is very common to add the prefix \dot{o} , but this is optional (note that some accent alteration will occur if used):

• ἥρετο ὅπως μαχήσοιντο οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι He asked how the Athenians would fight.

• βούλεται εἰδέναι ὅπου ἐστιν ὁ Σωκράτης Ηε wants to know where Socrates is.

• εἰδέναι ἐβούλετο ὄ τι ποιήσω αὔριον Ηε wanted to know what I would do tomorrow.

 \diamondsuit Usually we write \mathring{o} π in two words to avoid confusing it with the other $\mathring{o}\pi.$

• ἐρωτῶσι ὁπότε ὁ Σωκράτης πρὸς τὴν Λακεδαιμονίαν εἶσιν They ask when Socrates will go to Lacedaemonia.

• θαυμάζω ὅπως ἠθέλησέ σοι ὁ τοῦ δεσμωτηρίου φύλαξ ὑπακοῦσαι Ι WONDER HOW THE PRISON GUARD WANTED TO AGREE TO YOUR REQUEST (Plato, *Crito*).

HE LEFT UNNOTICED, I DO NOT KNOW WHERE TO

 οὐκ οἶδ' ὅποι ἀφανὴς ἄχετο (Lucian, Philopseudeis).

2/ The use of $\tau i c$, τi or any of its forms is a separate issue:

• τίς ἐστιν ἐν τῆ οἰκία; Who is in the house?

 \diamondsuit ἐρωτᾶ τίς ἐστιν ἐν τῆ οἰκία He asks who is in the house.

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If instead of $\tau i \varsigma$ (in any case) we want to use the form with the added \dot{o} - prefix, the indefinite relative $\ddot{o}\sigma \tau i \varsigma$, $\ddot{\eta}\tau i \varsigma$, $\ddot{o}\tau i$ should be used (but this is optional):

• τὰ μὲν πρῶτα ἡγνόουν ὄστις ἦν ΑΤ ΤΗΕ BEGINNING I DID NOT KNOW WHO HE WAS (Lucian, *Philopseudeis*).

3/ In cases where a question is repeated by the listener, the \dot{o} – must be added at the beginning (this is compulsory):

• πότε μαχήσομεν; When will we fight? ὁπότε; οὐδέποτε When? Never.

c) And if there is no interrogative word?

[425]

Questions such as $\beta o \hat{\nu} \lambda \epsilon i \dot{\eta} \mu \tilde{i} v$ $\sigma v \epsilon \lambda \theta \epsilon \tilde{i} v$; Do you want to come with us? (questions in which a Yes or a No answer is expected) are introduced by the usual ϵi (IF) when indirect:

- ἐρωτῷ εἰ βούλει ἡμῖν συνελθεῖν Ι AM ASKING WHETHER YOU WANT TO COME WITH US.
- σφόδρα πιέσας αὐτοῦ τὸν πόδα, ἤρετο εἰ αἰσθάνοιτο Pressing His Foot Hard, He Asked if He Felt IT (Plato, Phaedo).

In cases where we also want to express an alternative (the usual or NOT or any second option), we may replace the εi with $\pi \acute{o} \tau \epsilon \rho o v$, with $\mathring{\eta}$ in its usual meaning of or. The expression or NOT can be either $\mathring{\eta}$ o \mathring{v} or $\mathring{\eta} \mu \acute{\eta}$:

- ἐρωτῷ πότερον βούλει ἡμῖν συνελθεῖν ἢ οὔ ΙΑΜ ASKING WHETHER YOU WANT TO COME WITH US OR NOT.
- ἐρωτῷ πότερον βούλει ἡμῖν συνελθεῖν ἢ ἐνθάδε μένειν Ι ΑΜ ASKING WHETHER YOU WANT TO COME WITH US OR TO STAY HERE.
- πέμπει οὖν πρὸς αὐτὸν καὶ ἐρωτῷ πότερον βούλεται εἰρήνην ἢ πόλεμον ἔχειν Therefore He sends to him and asks him whether He wants to have peace or war (Xenophon, Hellenica).

Also we can replace $\pi \acute{o}\tau \epsilon \rho o v...\mathring{\eta}$ with $\epsilon \acute{t}\tau \epsilon...\epsilon \acute{t}\tau \epsilon$:

- ἐρωτῶ εἴτε βούλει ἡμῖν συνελθεῖν εἴτε οὖ ΙΑΜ ASKING WHETHER YOU WANT TO COME ALONG WITH US OR NOT.
- ἐρωτῷ εἴτε βούλει ἡμῖν συνελθεῖν εἴτε ἐνθάδε μένειν Ι ΑΜ ASKING WHETHER YOU WANT TO COME ALONG WITH US OR TO REMAIN HERE.
- ἐξῆν ὁρᾶν εἴτε τι ὀρθῶς ἐπράττετο εἴτε τι ἡμάρτανον It was possible to see whether everything went well or they were making some mistake (Xenophon, Hellenica).

d) Another case of prolepsis

The subject of the interrogative sentence can be made the direct object of the main verb:

οἶδα ὅστις σὰ εἶ Ι ΚΝΟΨ WHO YOU ARE
 can also be expressed as οἶδα σε ὅστις εἶ (same meaning).

5. Subordinate clauses in indirect speech

[426]

We know that when we pass a sentence from direct into indirect statement it must be rewritten as an infinitive clause, or a participle, or preceded by $\delta \tau$ (the choice will, of course, depend on which verb introduces the indirect statement). Observe this sentence:

• ὁ Περικλῆς ἀγαθὸς στρατηγὸς ἔσται ἐἀν οἱ πολῖται μάχεσθαι βούλωνται Pericles will be a good general if the citizens want to fight.

In indirect statements, such as those introduced by $vo\mu i\zeta \omega$, we now know that an infinitive with an accusative subject must be used in the main sentence:

• νομίζω τὸν Περικλέα ἀγαθὸν στρατηγὸν ἔσεσθαι, ... Ι THINK THAT PERICLES WILL BE A GOOD GENERAL, ...

But what happens with the subordinate clause that depended on the main one (which has now become an infinitive sentence)? This is dependent upon the tense of the introductory verb.

a) Introductory verb in primary tense (i.e. present, future or perfect)

The mood of the subordinate clause remains as it was:

• νομίζω τὸν Περικλέα ἀγαθὸν στρατηγὸν ἔσεσθαι ἐὰν οἱ πολῖται μάχεσθαι βούλωνται Ι think that Pericles will be a good general if the citizens want to fight.

b) Introductory verb in secondary tense (i.e. imperfect, agrist or pluperfect)

[427]

1/ The verb of the subordinate clause, unless it is a secondary tense of the indicative, may be put into the optative mood; however, this change is optional:

- either $\dot{\epsilon}$ νόμισα τὸν Περικλέα ἀγαθὸν στρατηγὸν ἔσεσθαι $\dot{\epsilon}$ ὰν οἱ πολῖται μάχεσθαι βούλωνται I thought that Pericles would be a good general if the citizens wanted to fight .
- or ἐνόμισα τὸν Περικλέα ἀγαθὸν στρατηγὸν ἔσεσθαι εἰ οἱ πολῖται μάχεσθαι βούλοιντο (same meaning).

Observe that in this change from subjunctive to optative we have removed the αv that was linked to the conjunction ϵi .

- ὑπισχνεῖτο δὲ αὐτῷ, εἰ ἔλθοι, φίλον αὐτὸν Κύρῳ ποιήσειν He promised to make him friends with Cyrus, if he would come (Plato, *Apologia*).
- ♦ The original sentence would have been ἐὰν ἔλθης, ποιήσω ... IF YOU COME, I WILL ...
- ἔλεγεν ὁ Θηραμένης ὅτι εἰ μή τις κοινωνοὺς ἱκανοὺς λήψοιτο τῶν πραγμάτων, ἀδύνατον ἔσοιτο τὴν ὀλιγαρχίαν διαμένειν Theramenes said that, unless somebody would take enough collaborators for the businesses, the oligarchy would not be able to survive (Xenophon, Hellenica).
- ♦ The original sentence would have been εἰ μή τις ... λήψεται ..., ἀδύνατον ἔσται ... Unless someBody Takes ..., IT WILL BE IMPOSSIBLE...

2/ But if the verb of the subordinate clause is in secondary tense in the indicative, it should remain as such:

[428]

• ὁ μαθητὴς ἀνέγνω τὴν βίβλον ἣν ἔπεμψας The student read the book that you sent him.

The verb of the subordinate is in secondary tense in the indicative, so we will keep it thus:

• ἐνόμισα τὸν μαθητὴν ἀναγνῶναι τὴν βίβλον ἢν ἔπεμψας Ιτηουσητ τη της student had read the book that you had sent him.

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3/ A final double example:

• οἱ δικασταὶ καταγιγνώσκουσι τῶν ἀνδρῶν οἵτινες τὰ χρήματα κλέπτωσιν ἄν ΤΗΕ JUDGES CONDEMN WHOEVER STEALS THE MONEY.

Let's now put this into reported speech using the verb $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ in primary tense:

- λέγω ὅτι οἱ δικασταὶ καταγιγνώσκουσι τῶν ἀνδρῶν οἵτινες τὰ χρήματα κλέπτωσιν ἄν I say that the judges condemn whoever steals the money.
- \diamond The introductory verb $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ is in primary tense, so the verb of the subordinate remains unchanged.

And now with $\tilde{\epsilon i}\pi o v$, in secondary tense:

- either εἶπον ὅτι οἱ δικασταὶ καταγιγνώσκουσι τῶν ἀνδρῶν οἵτινες τὰ χρήματα κλέπτωσιν ἄν I said that the judges condemned whoever would steal the money
- or εἶπον ὅτι οἱ δικασταὶ καταγιγνώσκουσι τῶν ἀνδρῶν οἵτινες τὰ χρήματα κλέπτοιεν (same meaning).
- \diamond Note again the removal of the particle αv .

However, if the original sentence had been

• οἱ δικασταὶ καταγιγνώσκουσι τῶν ἀνδρῶν οἱ τὰ χρήματα ἔκλεψαν The judges condemn the men who stole the money

in this case, even if the main verb is in a secondary tense, the aorist ἔκλεψαν must remain as it is:

- εἶπον ὅτι οἱ δικασταὶ καταγιγνώσκουσι τῶν ἀνδρῶν οἳ τὰ χρήματα ἔκλεψαν I said that the judges condemned the men who had stolen the money.
- म Remember that, alternatively, we could have used the oblique optative καταγιγνώσκοιεν after εἶπον.

f) Verbal adjectives

1. Ending in - τέος, - τέα, - τέον

[429]

a) Formation and meaning

These adjectives, which are equivalent to the Latin gerundive *amandus*, -a, -um, imply that the noun with which the adjective agrees must suffer the action implied in the meaning of the verb, and they are formed by adding the suffixes

to the verbal stem, resulting in a meaning that denotes necessity. For instance:

• ποιέω	>	ποιητέος	MUST BE DONE
• ἐξαιρέω	>	έξαιρετέος	MUST BE CHOSEN
• πέμπω	>	πεμπτέος	MUST BE SENT

[♦] The translations are completely artificial, just for the sake of providing some kind of direct meaning.

In some cases, the stem of the verb suffers some small alteration. Nevertheless, they are easily recognisable from the different stems of the verb (the future stem, the aorist stem, etc.). For example:

• ἄγω	>	ἀκτέος	MUST BE DONE
• λαμβάνω	>	ληπτέος	MUST BE CAPTURED
• διαβαίνω	>	διαβατέος	MUST BE CROSSED
• γράφω	>	γραπτέος	MUST BE WRITTEN
• πράττω	>	πρακτέος	MUST BE DONE
• πείθω	>	πειστέος	MUST BE TRUSTED

Yet in other cases the stems undergo very irregular alterations, making it very difficult to identify the verbal origin. For example:

• λέγω	>	ϸητέος	MUST BE SAID
• φέρω	>	οἰστέος	MUST BE CARRIED
• εἶμι	>	ἰτέος	MUST BE GONE TO

b) Use [430]

1/ With transitive verbs:

There are two ways of using verbal adjectives; the first way, the *personal* way, is simply using it as a normal adjective, thus agreeing with its corresponding noun:

- αὕτη ἡ βίβλος γραπτέα ἐστίν This book has to be written (literally, this book is *that has to be written*).
 - \Leftrightarrow βίβλος is feminine, therefore the adjective γραπτέα is also feminine.

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οὖτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος τιμητέος ἦν This man had to be honoured (literally, this man was *that has to be honoured*).
 The adjective τιμητέος is masculine, agreeing with ἄνθρωπος.

• ποταμός δ' εἰ μέν τις καὶ ἄλλος ἄρα ἡμῖν ἐστι διαβατέος (ἐστι) οὐκ οἶδα Ι DO NOT KNOW IF WE MUST STILL CROSS ANOTHER RIVER (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

The second way, the *impersonal* way, is by using the verbal adjective in the neuter, nominative case, either singular or plural, and then writing the object in the case ruled by the verb on which the verbal adjective is based (usually, the accusative case):

- ταύτην τὴν βίβλον **γραπτέον / γραπτέα** ἐστίν
- This book has to be written.
- * τὴν βίβλον is in the accusative because this is the case ruled by the verb γράφω. Literally, it says IT IS TO BE WRITTEN (as if saying SOMEBODY MUST WRITE) THIS BOOK.
- τοῦτον τὸν ἄνθρωπον τιμητέον / τιμητέα ἐστίν
- This man had to be honoured.
- \Leftrightarrow τὸν ἄνθρωπον is in the accusative case. Literally, it says IT IS TO BE HONOURED THIS MAN.
- ὅπως τοι μὴ ἐπ' ἐκείνω γενησόμεθα πάντα ποιητέον HANDS (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- EVERYTHING MUST BE DONE SO THAT WE DO NOT FALL INTO HIS
- σκεπτέον μοι δοκεῖ εἶναι ὅπως ἀσφαλέστατα μενοῦμεν IT SEEMS ΤΟ ΜΕ THAT WE SHOULD CONSIDER HOW WE WILL BE SAFEST (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

 $\mbox{$\,^{\square}$}$ Note that in this construction the omission of the verb $\varepsilon i \mu i$ is very frequent.

2/ With intransitive verbs: [431]

Thus far we have dealt with the use of verbal adjectives with transitive verbs, but verbs that are intransitive, such as the verb ὑπακούω το οβΕΥ, cannot be used in the personal way, since this verb rules the genitive case. For example, it would be WRONG to translate the sentence The GENERAL MUST BE OBEYED as ὁ στρατηγὸς ὑπακουστέος ἐστιν.

Instead, we must use the impersonal form and observe the case ruled by the verb on which the verbal adjective is based; in this example, it is the genitive case:

• τοῦ στρατηγοῦ ὑπακουστέον / ὑπακουστέα ἐστιν The general must be obeyed.

This is also the case for verbs that neither have a direct object, nor any kind of object at all. For example, the verb $\pi o v \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ to work HARD; note also its use with the verb $\epsilon i \mu \tau$ to go (and see the irregularity of its verbal adjective, $i \tau \acute{\epsilon} o v$):

- τοῦ θέρους πονητέον ἐστιν In summer one must work hard, it is necessary to work hard, etc.
- ἰτέον ἐστὶ πρὸς τὴν μάχην One must go to the battle, It is necessary to go to the battle, etc.

Other examples:

- ὅμως δὲ ἐδόκει καὶ ἐπὶ τούτους ἰτέον εἶναι Nevertheless it seemed that they also had to go against those men (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- οὐχ ἱδρυτέον Ι must not remain here (Sophocles, Aiax).

3/ The agent: [432]

The person carrying out the action of the verbal adjective is usually in the dative case:

- ὁ οἶνος ποτέος τοῖς συμπόταις ἐστίν The wine must be drunk by the guests.
- ἡμῖν δέ γε οἶμαι πάντα ποιητέα ὡς μήποτε ἐπὶ τοῖς βαρβάροις γενώμεθα Ι τΗΙΝΚ ΤΗΑΤ WE MUST DO EVERYTHING SO THAT WE NEVER FALL INTO THE HANDS OF THE BARBARIANS (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

But if the impersonal form is used, the person can be either in the dative or in the accusative:

• τὸν οἶνον ποτέον ἐστὶ τοῖς συμπόταις / τοὺς συμπότας ΤΗΕ WINE MUST BE DRUNK BY THE GUESTS.

Of course, there may be some confusion in some cases:

- τὸν παῖδα κλητέον τὴν μητέρα ἐστιν

 The child must be called by the mother or The mother must be called by the child.
- τῷ στρατηγῷ βοηθητέον τῷ Περικλεῖ ἐστιν The general must help Pericles
 or Pericles must help the general.
 ♦ The verb βοηθέω rules dative.

2. Ending in $-\tau \dot{o} \varsigma$, $-\tau \dot{\eta}$, $-\tau \dot{o} v$

[433]

a) Formation and two primary meanings

Adjectives which have these endings added to a verb stem (which may suffer alterations) carry the meaning of the verb. Usually, this meaning is either the equivalent of an aorist passive participle, as for example $\sigma\pi\alpha\rho\tau\dot{o}\varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{o}v$ ($\sigma\pi\epsilon\dot{\iota}\rho\omega$ TO SCATTER) means SCATTERED. Alternatively, it expresses the possibility of carrying out the action, as for example $\theta\alpha\nu\mu\alpha\sigma\tau\dot{o}\varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{o}v$ ($\theta\alpha\nu\mu\dot{\alpha}\zeta\omega$ TO ADMIRE), means ADMIRABLE.

Some more examples of verbal adjectives that convey the *first meaning* are:

• παιδευτός EDUCATED • θρεπτός FED (from τρέφω TO FEED) • ὑιπτός THROWN

Some more examples of verbal adjectives that convey the *second meaning* are:

• ὁρατός VISIBLE • διαβατός CROSSABLE • μεμπτός REPROACHABLE

Examples in whole sentences:

- τί οὖν περὶ ψυχῆς λέγομεν; ὁρατὸν ἢ ἀόρατον εἶναι; What will we say about the soul? Is it visible or invisible? (Plato, *Phaedo*).
- καίτοι οὐκ ἂν εἴη μεμπτὸς μισθὸς ὁ τοιοῦτος Indeed your salary would not be reproachable (Plato, *Theaetetus*).

But, in some cases, the same adjective may carry both meanings. For example:

- τηκτός (τήκω το MELT) SOLUBLE and MELTED
- ὑπερβατός (ὑπερβαίνω το cross) crossable (e.g. a river) and inverted

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b) The third meaning [434]

Furthermore, in some cases, there may be a third appropriate meaning for the person performing the action, along with the other two meanings. Yet, this is rare. For instance, $\mu\epsilon\mu\pi\tau\dot{o}\varsigma$ may mean REPROACHABLE and WHO REPROACHES, as in the following sentences:

- αὕτη ἡ πράξις μεμπτή ἐστιν This action is reproachable.
- αὕτη ἡ γύνη τῷ παιδὶ μεμπτή ἐστιν This woman reproaches her son.
 - ♦ Literally This woman is one who reproaches her son.

Two more such cases are:

• ἄγνωστος unknown and ignorant

• πιστός RELIABLE / TRUSTWORTHY and ONE WHO RELIES / CREDULOUS

Example:

• πιστοὶ διαμένουσιν ἐν ταῖς συμφοραῖς They go on being reliable even in misfortunes (Xenophon, Hellenica).

Therefore, it is possible that there is more than one possible translation. For example:

• ὁ Περικλῆς πιστός ἐστιν Pericles is a reliable man / Pericles is a credulous man.

The context should make it clear. Observe this other example which includes a dative:

ὁ Περικλῆς πιστὸς τῷ στρατηγῷ ἐστιν
 either Pericles relies on the general (" Pericles is one who relies on the general")
 or In the general's opinion, Pericles is a reliable man.

The verb πιστεύω rules a dative of the person on whom you rely (thus its verbal adjective will also rule a dative case), which justifies the first translation. But since one use of the dative case is to express In THE OPINION OF ..., the second translation is also a viable option. Again, the context should make this clear.

• πιστοὶ τοῖς φίλοις ἐγένοντο They were reliable to their friends (Xenophon, Hellenica).

We could have translated They Relied on Their Friends, but the wider context in Xenophon shows that the first option is correct.

g) Combination of negatives

1. Negatives cancelling or reinforcing each other?

[435]

When two negatives are used in the same English sentence, they neutralise each other's negative force: NOBODY DID NOT COME = EVERYBODY CAME. When two or more negatives are present in the same Greek sentence, the meaning depends on the order of their appearance:

a/ If the main negative \vec{ov} appears first, any subsequent compound negative reinforces it:

- ἐγὰ οὐκ ἦν ἐν ταῖς ᾿Αθήναις οὐδέποτε Ι HAVE NEVER BEEN IN ATHENS.
- ὁ στρατηγὸς οὐκ εἶπεν οὐδέν The general did not say anything.
- πρὸς ἐνίας δὲ τῶν πόλεων καὶ προσέβαλεν, ὑπὸ τῶν ἀναγκαζόμενος, οὐ μὴν εἶλέ γε οὐδεμίαν He also made attempts against some of the cities, compelled by the Achaeans, but he did not capture any ("no one") (Xenophon, Hellenica).

b/ If the main negative \vec{ov} appears after a compound negative pronoun, it neutralizes the compound one:

- οὐδεὶς οὐκ ἦλθεν Nobody did not come = Everybody came.
- οὐδὲν οὐκ ἔδωκα τῷ πατρί Nothing I did not give to my father = I gave all to my father.
- τῶν ὁρώντων οὐδεὶς οὐκ ἔπασχέ τι τὴν ψυχὴν ὑπ' ἐκείνου Of those who were watching, there was no one who did not have his soul stirred by that one (Xenophon, *Symposium*).

Remember that in the case of expressions of fear, the negative $\mu \hat{\eta}$ does not have to be translated and so there is no problem concerning mutual reinforcement or elision:

• ὁ πατὴρ φοβεῖται μὴ ὁ φίλος οὐκ ἐπανέλθη ΤΗΕ FATHER IS AFRAID THAT THE SON MAY NOT COME BACK.

c/ Two compound negative pronouns following each other result in a mutual reinforcement of the negative character:

- οὐδεὶς οὐδὲν ἐποίησεν Nobody did anything (literally, nobody did *nothing*).
- οὐδεὶς οὐδὲν ὑγιὲς ὡς ἔπος εἰπεῖν περὶ τὰ τῶν πόλεων πράττει Nobody does anything (*nothing*) healthy, so to speak, concerning the affairs of the city (Plato, *Respublica*).
- οὐδεὶς γὰρ οὐδενὶ ἀργίζετο Nobody felt anger against anybody (against *nobody*) (Xenophon, *Hellenica*).

2. Other combinations of negatives side by side

[437]

There are some expressions in which the elision of some words has caused the two negatives $\mu\hat{\eta}$ and $o\hat{\upsilon}$ to be in the same clause (occasionally even juxtaposed). We will present each one of the two possible combinations, $o\hat{\upsilon}$ $\mu\hat{\eta}$ and $\mu\hat{\eta}$ $o\hat{\upsilon}$, and we will examine the different meanings that each one of them may have.

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a) οὐ μή

It can be followed by a subjunctive or by a future indicative, but in fact the meaning is almost the same for both constructions: a strong statement that tells us that something will not happen.

1/ First meaning - followed by subjunctive:

• οὐ μὴ οἱ πολέμιοι νικήσωσιν There is no fear that the enemy may win.

The words $\phi \circ \beta \eta \tau \acute{\epsilon} \circ \upsilon \acute{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \acute{\iota}$ are to be supplied after the $\circ \upsilon$, with which we would have a fear expression, and the verb after the $\iota \iota \acute{\eta}$ must be in subjunctive (as usual in a fear clause). The whole original sentence would have been:

• οὐ φοβητέον ἐστὶ μὴ οἱ πολέμιοι νικήσωσιν There is no fear that the enemy may win / The enemy will not win.

Another example:

οὐ μὴ τάληθῆ λέγη
 There is no fear that he may speak the truth / He will not speak the truth.

It can also be translated as a strong denial in the sense that somebody refuses to do something:

• οὐ μὴ μάχηται He will not fight / There is no way he will fight / Nothing will make him fight, etc.

• οὐ μὴ λάβω χρήματα There is no way laccept money / lassure you I will not accept money, etc.

• οὐ μὴ πίθηται There is no way he will obey (Sophocles, *Philoctetes*).

Another way of translating it is as an emphatic future; the last example could be translated by HE SHALL NOT OBEY.

If interrogative, it can be translated as a requirement but in the form of a complaint (as if saying Isn't THERE ANY WAY THAT YOU DO NOT...?):

• οὐ μὴ εἴπης; Won't you shut up?

2/ Second meaning - followed by future indicative:

[438]

• οὐ μὴ καταβήσει You shall not come down / Do not come down (Aristophanes, *Vespae*).

The negative sentence should have been $o\mathring{v}$ καταβήσει, but the insertion of $\mu\mathring{\eta}$ reinforces the certainty that something will not take place: YOU *SHALL* NOT COME DOWN.

It may also convey a strong prohibition:

• οὐ μὴ καταβήσει Do not come down.

As when followed by a subjunctive, if interrogative, it should be translated as a requirement but in the form of a complaint:

• οὐ μὴ δυσμενὴς ἔση φίλοις; Won't you stop being unpleasant to my friends? (Euripides, Medea)

b) μὴ οὖ [439]

1/ First use - with expression of fear elided:

• μὴ οὐ ὁ Περικλῆς τοῦτο εἴπη There is some chance that Pericles may not say this.

This construction is simply the negative of this one:

• μὴ ὁ Περικλῆς τοῦτο εἴπη There is some chance that Pericles may say this.

In this last example, the verb $\phi o \beta o \tilde{\nu} \mu \alpha \iota$ is missing, but with it the sentence would mean I fear that Pericles May say this, without it the sentence is reduced to (There is some chance) that Pericles May say this, expressing in fact that it would be better if he does not say it.

So, the first sentence $\mu \hat{\eta}$ $o \hat{o}$ \dot{o} Περικλῆς τοῦτο εἴπη is nothing else than the second one but with the fear clause negatived, and in it we find two negatives juxtaposed, but it would have been impossible to explain this without first explaining the second sentence. In fact, it is just a subordinate depending on a verb of fear but with the verb of fear elided.

• ἔς τε τὸ λοιπὸν μὴ οὐκέτι βούλωνται ἀμύνειν There is some chance that they may not help any longer (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

Another example (this time in indicative, as it refers to an event that has already taken place):

- μὴ τοῦτο δικαίως οὐκ ἐποίησα There is some chance that I did not do this justly.
 - \diamondsuit If $\phi \circ \beta \circ \tilde{\nu} \mu \alpha i$ is supplied at the beginning, it becomes a normal fear clause.

2/ Second use - with infinitive preceded by μή:

[440]

• οὐκ ἄδικόν ἐστι τὸν προδώτην μὴ οὐκ ἀποκτείνειν It is not unfair not to kill the traitor.

Observe this sentence:

• ἄδικόν ἐστι τὸν προδώτην μὴ ἀποκτείνειν IT IS UNFAIR NOT TO KILL THE TRAITOR.

If we make the main verb negative in order to mean IT IS NOT UNFAIR NOT TO KILL THE TRAITOR, not only do we add \vec{ov} to the main sentence, but we also add it again between the $\mu\acute{\eta}$ and the infinitive:

• οὐκ ἄδικόν ἐστι τὸν προδώτην μὴ οὐκ ἀποκτείνειν IT IS NOT UNFAIR NOT TO KILL THE TRAITOR.

So, in the case of infinitives preceded by $\mu \hat{\bf n}$, we add $o\hat{\bf v}$ twice: to the main sentence and to the infinitive itself.

εἰ μὴ γὰρ ὅρκοις θεῶν ἄφαρκτος ηἱρέθην, οὐκ ἄν ποτ' ἔσχον μὴ οὐ τάδ' ἐξειπεῖν πατρί
 If I, off my guard, had not been trapped by an oath of the gods, I would never have resisted not telling this to my father (Euripides, Hippolytus).

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This also happens in the cases of verbs which contain a negative idea and that have the $\mu\dot{\eta}$ (which is not translated) [441] before an infinitive (just for the sake of reinforcing the negative idea of the verb of the main clause; see the section *Infinitive after verbs of negative idea*):

- ἀρνεῖται τὸν Περικλέα ἀγαθὸν στρατηγὸν μὴ εἶναι
 οὑκ ἀρνεῖται τὸν Περικλέα ἀγαθὸν στρατηγὸν μὴ οὑκ εἶναι
- ὁ διδάσκαλος ἡμᾶς εἴργει μὴ ἐκεῖσε ἐλθεῖν
 ὁ διδάσκαλος ἡμᾶς οὐκ εἴργει μὴ οὐκ ἐκεῖσε ἐλθεῖν
- ἀμφισβητῶ σε μὴ τάληθῆ λέγειν
 οὐκ ἀμφισβητῶ σε μὴ οὐ τάληθῆ λέγειν
- ἀπαγορεύω σε μὴ ταῦτα ποιεῖν
 οὐκ ἀπαγορεύω σε μὴ οὐ ταῦτα ποιεῖν

He denies that Pericles is a good general.

He does not deny that Pericles is a good general.

The teacher prevents us from going there.

The teacher does not prevent us from going there.

I disagree that you speak the truth.

I do not disagree that you speak the truth.

I forbid you to do this.

I do not forbid you to do this.

• ἐγώ τοι σὖκ ἀμφισβητῶ μὴ σὖχὶ σὲ εἶναι σοφώτερον ἢ ἐμέ Ι DO NOT DISAGREE THAT YOU ARE WISER THAN ME (Plato, *Hippias Minor*).

Note that this does not happen with $\kappa\omega\lambda\dot{\omega}$, although it also means to prevent:

- ὁ διδάσκαλος ἡμᾶς κωλύει (μὴ) ἐκεῖσε ἐλθεῖν The teacher prevents us from going there
 - \Rightarrow The $\mu \dot{\eta}$ in front of the infinitive is optional with $\kappa \omega \lambda \dot{\omega} \omega$.
- ὁ διδάσκαλος ήμᾶς οὐ κωλύει ἐκεῖσε ἐλθεῖν The teacher does not prevent us from going there
 - \diamond No repetition of the $ο\dot{v}$, and moreover $\mu\dot{\eta}$ is never used after a negative form of $\kappa\omega\lambda\dot{\omega}\omega$.

But sometimes the $\mu\dot{\eta}$ used after the verb $\kappa\omega\lambda\dot{\omega}\omega$ must be translated (see the section of *Infinitive after verbs of negative idea* in the chapter of *Infinitive clauses*).

A curious case:

Observe this interrogative and why we find the two negatives for the infinitive without one in the main clause:

[442]

• τί ἐμποδών ἐστι μὴ σὖκ οἶκαδε ἡμᾶς ἰέναι; What prevents us from going home?

The expression $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\sigma\delta\dot{\omega}v\,\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau\iota$ is an expression of negative idea (something may be preventing us from doing something else), and this explains the presence of the $\mu\dot{\eta}$ for the infinitive; moreover, although there is no negative word in the question $\tau\dot{\iota}\,\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\sigma\delta\dot{\omega}v\,\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau\iota$, the sense of this expression having now been made negative (as we changed $\dot{\alpha}\mu\phi\iota\sigma\beta\eta\tau\tilde{\omega}$ to $\sigma\dot{\omega}\kappa\,\dot{\alpha}\mu\phi\iota\sigma\beta\eta\tau\tilde{\omega}$ in the former example) is implicit, as it is obvious that the question is implying the word Nothing for an answer, and this explains the $\sigma\dot{\omega}$.

• εἰ δὲ γενησόμεθα ἐπὶ βασιλεῖ, τί ἐμποδὼν μὴ οὐχὶ ... ὑβριζομένους ἀποθανεῖν; If we fall into the king's hands, what will prevent ... us receiving all kind of offences and dying? (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

h) The use of particles

1. General guidelines

[443]

The Greek language is full of particles. These are small words that are often included in a sentence and which sometimes are not translated directly. Instead, they add a nuance that is conveyed through a slightly modified translation.

There is no general agreement concerning which words should, or should not, be classified as particles. For instance, $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ can be translated as BECAUSE, but this should be considered a conjunction rather than merely a particle that gives a sentence an additional nuance.

In this chapter, the most common particles have been included in approximate order of frequency. Note that some require a more complex explanation than others.

2. Most common particles

 \square Particle $\delta \dot{\varepsilon}$

The particle $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$ cannot stand first in a sentence - sometimes this requires splitting two words that supposedly go together, such as an article and its noun. It is used to connect a sentence with the previous one, and has the simple meaning of AND. This is due to the fact that in Greek two sentences are often connected in order to express some kind of relationship or continuity between both. Depending on the context, it could also be translated by BUT or WHILE.

- - ♦ The context will indicate which translation is more appropriate.
- Κῦρος δὲ συγκαλέσας τοὺς στρατηγοὺς εἶπεν... And Cyrus, having summoned the generals, said... (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

 \Box Particles μέν-δέ [445]

1/ In order to link and contrast two sentences, Greek uses these two particles: $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu$ in the first sentence and $\delta \acute{\epsilon}$ in the second. They cannot stand in the first position:

• ὁ μὲν στρατηγὸς βαίνει πρὸς τὸν ποταμόν, οἱ δὲ πολέμιοι οὐ διώκουσιν αὐτόν The general walks towards the river, ΒυΤ/while/and the enemies do not pursue him.

There are several ways in which to express this contrast: BUT/WHILE/AND, for instance. The translations are the same as when we come across $\delta \acute{\epsilon}$ alone, but in this case the $\mu \acute{\epsilon} v$ heightens the contrast.

• ἐγὼ μὲν ἄνω διητώμην, αἱ δὲ γυναῖκες κάτω I LIVED UPSTAIRS, AND THE WOMEN DOWNSTAIRS (Lysias, *Death of Eratosthenes*).

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2/ Sometimes, sentences that have been linked by these two particles are not contrasted very strongly, and both sentences could simply be complementary; in this case a simple AND can suffice:

- ἐσπέρα μὲν γὰρ ἦν, ἦκε δ' ἀγγέλλων τις ...
 It was in the afternoon, and somebody came announcing...
 (Demosthenes, De Corona).
- 3/ It can also combine objects. For example:
 - πέμπω τὸν μὲν ἄγγελον πρὸς τὸν στρατηγόν, τὸν δὲ ἵππον πρὸς τὸν φίλον Ι send the messenger to the general and the horse to my friend.

In this case, the subject ("I", not explicitly mentioned in the Greek) and verb are common to both halves, so, in order to put the $\mu \hat{\epsilon} v$ in second position, we start "counting" from the first of the two elements to be combined (THE MESSENGER).

4/ These two particles can also be used with a repeated adverb in a distributive sense. For example:

[446]

- ἐνίστε μὲν καθεύδω, ἐνίστε δὲ γράφω Sometimes I sleep, sometimes I write.
- ἐνίστε μὲν ὁρῶ αὐτούς, ἐνίστε δὲ οὕ Sometimes I see them, sometimes I do not (Plato, *Theaetetus*).

Or with two different adverbs:

- πρῶτον μέν ..., ἔπειτα δέ ... First..., LATER... This is a very common expression in Greek.
- **5/** Its distributive use with the article is also very common:
 - οἱ μὲν εὐθὺς διεφθείροντο, οἱ δὲ ἐμπαλασσόμενοι κατέρρεον Some were killed immediately; Others, entangled (in their own gear), were taken downstream (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

 \Box Particle $\gamma \acute{a} \rho$ [447]

This particle has a causal meaning, and is usually translated by As or FOR, and sometimes as BECAUSE. It is also found in the second position:

- οἱ σύμμαχοι φεύγουσιν, οἱ γὰρ πολέμιοι τρέχουσιν πρὸς τὴν οἰκίαν The allies flee, as the enemies run towards The house.
- εἰ μὲν γὰρ τοῦτο λέγουσιν, ... (Plato, Apologia).
 - \diamond Observe that, in the case of coincidence, the $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu$ has priority for the second position.
- οὐ γὰρ τέχνῃ ταῦτα λέγουσιν ἀλλὰ θείᾳ δυνάμει
 FOR THEY DO NOT SAY THIS BY MEANS OF SOME
 TECHNIQUE, BUT BY MEANS OF A DIVINE FORCE (Plato, lon).

An important expression:

ἦ γάρ; Isn'τ ιτ so?

☐ Particle ovv

This particle means THEREFORE, and is also placed in second place:

• νῦν οὖν πρὸς Διὸς λέγε μοι...

THEREFORE, TELL ME NOW, BY ZEUS, ... (Plato, Euthyphro).

μέμνησαι οὖν ὅτι οὐ τοῦτό σοι διεκελευόμην
 (Plato, Euthyphro).

Therefore, remember that I did not order you this

Special uses of καί

[448]

καί is not a particle, but a conjunction (AND, BUT) and an adverb (ALSO). Nevertheless, it has been included in this section to explain it with examples of its use in combination with some particles.)

1/ When a noun is accompanied by two adjectives one of which is either MANY or BIG, Greek usually adds $\kappa\alpha i$ between both adjectives, but the $\kappa\alpha i$ is not translated:

- πολλοὶ καὶ ἀγαθοὶ ἄνθρωποι MANY GOOD MEN \diamond Observe the lack of AND in the translation.
- **2/** In addition to AND, another meaning of $\kappa\alpha i$ is ALSO, the context will make it clear which translation is more appropriate:
 - ..., ὁ δὲ διδάσκαλος καὶ μύθους γράφει ..., AND THE TEACHER ALSO WRITES MYTHS.

In this sentence the AND is the $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$, which connects it to the former sentence.

3/ Two important combinations:

καὶ δὴ καί AND MOREOVER

• καὶ δὴ καὶ νῦν τοῦτο ὑμῶν δέομαι δίκαιον And moreover I request now from you this fair favour (Plato, *Apologia*).

καὶ γάρ INDEED

- καὶ γὰρ ἐκεῖνοι ἐβοήθουν ἡμῖν ἐναντία Θηβαίοις ὅτε ὑμεῖς ἀπωκνεῖτε Indeed, they helped us against the Thebans when you refrained (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- καὶ γὰρ αὕτη ἡ λίθος οὐ μόνον αὐτοὺς τοὺς δακτυλίους ἄγει τοὺς σιδηροῦς Indeed, this stone does not only attract the iron rings (Plato, *lon*).

□ Particles τε...καί

[449]

1/ To express BOTH...AND..., Greek uses the word $\kappa\alpha\dot{\iota}$ and the particle $\tau\epsilon$, which must always go in second place of the first element. For instance:

• ὁρῶ τήν τε οἰκίαν καὶ τὸν ἀγρόν I see both the house and the field.

In this sentence, the first element to be combined is THE HOUSE, and the second is THE FIELD.

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2/ If the first element happens only to have one word, then automatically the $\tau \epsilon$ and the $\kappa \alpha i$ will be positioned adjacently. For example:

• νικῶ νῦν τε καὶ τότε Ι WIN BOTH NOW AND THEN.

When reading this aloud, the typical mistake is to read $v_i \kappa \tilde{\omega} v_i \tilde{v} v_i - \tau \epsilon \kappa \alpha \tilde{u} - \tau \delta \tau \epsilon$, as if the $\tau \epsilon \kappa \alpha \tilde{u}$ formed one unit, rather than $v_i \kappa \tilde{\omega} v_i \tilde{v} v_i \epsilon - \kappa \alpha \tilde{u}$ to $\tau \epsilon - \kappa \alpha \tilde{u}$ to $\tau \epsilon - \kappa \alpha \tilde{u}$ to the second.

- **3/** As can easily be seen, it may be used to connect two verbs, two direct objects, two adverbs, etc. Here is an example in which two participles are combined:
 - οἱ δὲ Συρακόσιοι καὶ οἱ σύμμαχοι προσέκειντο τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον πανταχόθεν βάλλοντές τε καὶ ἀκοντίζοντες The Syracusans and their allies went on in the same way, attacking and throwing spears from all sides (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

In the following example, two verbs are combined:

- ἀθρόοι γὰρ ἀναγκαζόμενοι χωρεῖν ἐπέπιπτόν τε ἀλλήλοις καὶ κατεπάτουν For, being compelled to proceed all in a pack, they fell on each other and trod on each other (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- 4/ Another way of expressing BOTH ... AND is to repeat $\kappa\alpha i$ at the front of each element to be combined. For example:
 - ὁρῶ καὶ τὴν οἰκίαν καὶ τὸν ἀγρόν I see both the house and the field.

In cases where there are several elements to be combined, Greek uses $\kappa\alpha i$ several times, rather than commas. A $\kappa\alpha i$ is also included at the front of the first element:

• καὶ ὁ στρατηγὸς καὶ οἱ στρατιῶται καὶ ὁ ἄρχων καὶ ὁ δικαστὴς ἐπανῆλθον ΤΗΕ GENERAL, THE SOLDIERS, THE ARCHON AND THE HUDGE RETURNED.

 $lue{}$ Particle $\gamma \epsilon$ [451]

Although it may have several meanings when combined with other particles, when this particle stands alone it has a restrictive meaning that sometimes can be translated by AT LEAST, but sometimes there is no English equivalent and the restrictive sense must just be taken into account; it must be placed as the second word:

- τιμῶ τὸν Περικλέα ὡς στρατηγόν γε Ι Honour Pericles, at least as general.
- αἰεὶ ἐν αὐτῷ θάπτουσι τοὺς ἐκ τῶν πολέμων, πλήν γε τοὺς ἐν Μαραθῶνι ΤΗΕΥ ALWAYS BURY IN IT THOSE FALLEN IN WAR, EXCEPT THOSE FALLEN IN MARATHON (Thucydides, Historiae).
 - ♦ The restrictive sense would mean that at least those fallen in Marathon have not been buried in that place; maybe also others have not either, but at least those fallen in Marathon.

It can also be attached to a pronoun:

• ἔγωγε Ι AT LEAST ♦ Observe that the accent has moved to the first syllable.

Particle δή [452]

It has several meanings, however the most frequent one is the intensive meaning. This meaning can be translated by NO DOUBT, INDEED, or other options. It must be placed in second position, especially as it adds emphasis on the preceding word:

- σοφώτατος $\delta \hat{\eta}$ έστιν ο Σωκράτης Socrates is, no doubt, the wisest one.
- ἐστρατεύετο μὲν δὴ οὕτως ἐξαπατηθείς He no doubt marched with the army, having been deceived in this way (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).
- \bullet τότε δή Then indeed.
- τ i $\delta \acute{\eta}$; What, pray? \diamondsuit A very common idiomatic use.
- $\kappa \alpha i \delta \hat{\eta}$ And moreover $\Leftrightarrow \kappa \alpha i \delta \hat{\eta} \kappa \alpha i$ also has this meaning.

□ Particle δήπου

This particle casts slight doubt on a statement, and can be translated as PROBABLY. It must be placed in second position:

- πάντα δήπου ἐποίησας You have done everything, probably.
- κακουργεῖν δεῖ, ὧ Κρίτων, ἢ οὕ; οὐ δεῖ δήπου, ὧ Σώκρατες Must we act wrongly, Criton, or not? Probably we must not, Socrates (Plato, *Crito*).

Particle δῆτα[453]

This is simply an emphatic form of $\delta \hat{\eta}$, and has the same intensive meaning. It is also placed as the second word:

- ἆρα τοῦτο ἐποίησας; ἐποίησα δῆτα Have you done this? I have indeed.
- ναὶ μὰ Δία, ὧ Σώκρατες, βουλευώμεθα δῆτα By Zeus, Socrates, Let's indeed deliberate (Plato, *Theages*).
- où $\delta \tilde{\eta} \tau \alpha$ Certainly not \diamond A very strong denial.

☐ Particle ἦ

Another particle with an assertive meaning, but it is usually found in combination with other particles:

- $\tilde{\eta}$ άδρείως μάχεται He fights bravely, I assure you.
- ἡ καλῶς λέγεις
 Τακε for granted that what you say is right (Plato, Theaetetus).
- ἦ γάρ;
 ISN'T IT SO?
 Observe that in this combination γάρ loses its original meaning.

 $\tilde{\eta} \mu \dot{\eta} v$ is used to introduce a strong assessment, several translations are possible:

- ἦ μὴν ἐγὰ ἔπαθόν τι τοιοῦτον | Lassure you that I have experienced something of this kind (Plato, Apologia).

□ Particle καίτοι [454]

The basic meaning of this particle is AND YET:

- καίτοι οὐδὲν σοφὸν εἴρηκας And yet you have said nothing wise.
- καίτοι ἀληθές γε ὡς ἔπος εἰπεῖν οὑδὲν εἰρήκασιν And yet they have said, so to speak, nothing true (Plato, *Apologia*).

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□ Particle μέντοι

This is an assertive and adversative particle, and can be translated by BUT CERTAINLY OF HOWEVER. It must be placed as the second word:

- ἀναγιγνώσκειν ἔχεις, μῶρος μέντοι εἶ You can read, but certainly you are a fool.
- ὁ μέντοι Ξενοφῶν ἀναγνοὺς τὴν ἐπιστολὴν ἀνακοινοῦται Σωκράτει τῷ ᾿Αθηναίῳ περὶ τῆς πορείας However, Xenophon, after reading the letter, tells Socrates, the Athenian, about the journey (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

Important expression:

• οὐ μέντοι ἀλλά ... AND NEVERTHELESS ...

☐ Particle μήν [455]

On its own it means indeed, and it is frequently found in the combination $\kappa\alpha\lambda$ $\mu\eta\nu$:

 καὶ μὴν Μάρων μοι πῶμ᾽ ἔδωκε, παῖς θεοῦ And Indeed Maron, son of a god, gave me [the] drink (Euripides, Cyclops).

Also in the expression $\mathbf{o}\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\mathbf{\mu}\dot{\mathbf{n}}\mathbf{v}$ $\mathbf{a}\lambda\lambda\dot{\mathbf{a}}$ AND NEVERTHELESS (this expression can also be found as $\mathbf{o}\dot{\mathbf{o}}$ $\mathbf{\mu}\dot{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{o}\mathbf{t}$ $\mathbf{a}\lambda\lambda\dot{\mathbf{a}}$, as above):

- οἱ πολέμιοι ἰσχυρώτατοἱ εἰσιν· οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ νικᾶν πειράσομαι The enemy are strong; and nevertheless I will try to win.
- οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ πειράσομαί γε ὡς διὰ βραχυτάτων [τοὺς λόγους ποιεῖσθαι] NEVERTHELESS I WILL TRY TO EXPLAIN IT AS BRIEFLY AS POSSIBLE (Plato, Gorgias).

Particle οὐκοῦν

This particle, which acts almost as an adverb, can be translated as THEREFORE:

• οὐκοῦν φοβεῖσθαι χρὴ τοὺς ψόγους Therefore we must fear the blame (Plato, *Crito*).

□ Particle οὔκουν [456]

This has the opposite meaning of $\vec{ov} \kappa \vec{ov}$: THEREFORE NOT. In fact it is simply the combination of the negative with \vec{ov} :

• οὔκουν ἔγωγε, ὧ Σώκρατες, ἔφη, ἔχω παρὰ ταῦτα ἄλλο τι λέγειν Therefore, Socrates, I cannot say anything else with respect to that (Plato, *Phaedo*).

Particle τοίνυν

This is a transitional particle, and can be translated by NOW THEN OF THEREFORE. It must be placed in second position:

 ἐκεῖνον μὲν τοίνυν ἐῶμεν, ἐπειδὴ καὶ ἄπεστιν Now then, let's leave him out, as he is not present (Plato, Meno).

i) Hellenisms: peculiarities and idioms

1. General remarks [457]

Greek has some peculiarities and idioms that may present some difficulty to the student. Some involve a verb, while others do not.

In the case of those that are not linked to a definite verb, a participle, an infinitive or even a personal verbal form may still be found, but note that the peculiarity or idiom does not depend on a definite verb. Here, they have been grouped under *Non-verbal expressions*, and then subdivided according to several concepts.

In some cases the peculiarity or idiom is introduced by Greek words exemplifying it, as in τ i β ov λ ó μ evo ς , and obviously it must be assumed that adjectives, articles, participles, etc. can be adapted in gender and number as necessary (τ i β ov λ ó μ evo ι , τ i β ov λ ó μ evo ι , etc.).

In the case of those that are linked to a definite verb, they have been grouped under *Verbal expressions* and classified by alphabetical order of that verb (compound verbs will be found also inside the group of the verb of which they are a compound). We have alternated both orders of verb + object, as this variety is typical of Greek; therefore, for example, you can find either $\dot{\eta}\sigma v \chi \dot{\iota} \alpha v \dot{\sigma} \gamma \omega \dot{\eta}\sigma v \dot{\chi} \dot{\iota} \alpha v$.

In several of the verbal expressions presented here the middle voice is more frequent than the active one, so we have provided the middle voice where we consider it to be more common, but this does not mean that the active voice cannot be found for the same expression.

2. Non-verbal expressions

a) Adverbs or prepositions involved

[458]

🛘 οἱ ἐκεῖ

1/ We know that the expression THE TEACHER'S HOUSE must be rendered in Greek as ἡ τοῦ διδασκάλου οἰκία (or ἡ οἰκία ἡ τοῦ διδασκάλου). Something similar happens when, instead of a possessive object as in the first example, we have a prepositional object that restricts the field of the words on which it depends:

• $\circ i \stackrel{\cdot}{\epsilon} v \stackrel{\cdot}{\tau \eta} v \mathring{\eta} \sigma \varphi \mathring{\alpha} v \theta \rho \omega \pi o \iota$ The Men on the Island \diamondsuit literally, the on the Island Men.

This parenthetical structure (some grammars call it *sandwiched construction*) is extremely frequent in Greek.

2/ αἱ ἐκ τῆς νήσου πάρθενοι means the maidens from the island, but it could also mean the maidens that *come* from the island. Observe that there is no verb in the Greek sentence, it literally says the from the island maidens, yet sometimes a verb can be supplied, and in the case of the former example οἱ ἐν τῆ νήσφ ἄνθρωποι we could also have said the men THATAREON THE ISLAND.

• ἐπολιόρκουν τοὺς ἐν τῆ νήσῷ Λακεδαιμονίους οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι ΤΗΕ ΑΤΗΕΝΙΑΝS WERE BESIEGING THE SPARTANS THAT WERE ON THE ISLAND (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

3/ Final step: We could even omit the noun. For example:

• οἱ ἐν τῆ νήσω THOSE ON THE ISLAND

♦ THOSE must be masculine, e.g. boys, men, soldiers, etc.

• ὁρῶ τὰς ἐν τῆ νήσω I see the women on the island.

 $\uparrow \tau \acute{\alpha} \varsigma$ must be somebody feminine, e.g. girls, women, goddesses, etc.

Moreover, the article could be followed by an adverb alone:

• Où ÉKEL THE ONES THERE, THOSE THERE

οἱ νῦν MEN OF NOWADAYS
οἱ τότε MEN OF THOSE TIMES

• οἱ ἐν τέλει THOSE IN POWER, THE GOVERNMENT

οἱ πάλαι MEN OF OLD TIMES

• εὐδαιμονέστεροί εἰσιν οἱ ἐκεῖ τῶν ἐνθάδε Those there are happier than these here (Plato, Apologia Socratis).

□ ἐν Ἅιδου
[459]

This use of the preposition $\dot{\epsilon}v$ with a genitive is nothing else than the absence of the words $\tau \tilde{\eta}$ oixiq. The original expression would be:

ἐν τῆ Ἅιδου οἰκία
 In the house of Hades.

• ἐκεῖ δ' ἐν Ἦδου κείσομαι χωρὶς σέθεν Ι WILL LIE THERE IN HADES, AWAY FROM YOU (Euripides, Hecuba).

The same use can be applied to other prepositions, and in some expressions the omitted word is $\gamma \tilde{\eta}$:

- εἰς διδασκάλου (= εἰς τὴν τοῦ διδασκάλου οἰκίαν) φοιτῶσιν οἱ παῖδες ΤΗΕ CHILDREN ARE GOING TO SCHOOL.
- διὰ πολεμίας (γῆς) πορευόμεθα We are advancing through enemy territory.

 \Box ποῦ τῆς γῆς; [460]

Some adverbs can be followed by a genitive (a *partitive genitive* in fact):

• $\pi o \tilde{v} \tau \tilde{\eta} \varsigma \gamma \tilde{\eta} \varsigma$; Where on Earth? ("Where of the Earth?")

• πηνίκα τῆς ἡμέρας ἐστὶ νῦν; What time is it now? ("Which moment of the day is it now?")

ὀψὲ τῆς ἡμέρας ἥκον
 THEY CAME LATE IN THE DAY ("THEY CAME LATE OF THE DAY")

🗖 ἐφ' ὧτε

This combination of preposition and relative (sometimes also written as $\vec{\epsilon}\phi$, $\vec{\phi}$) means on the condition that:

• ξυνέβησαν πρὸς τοὺς Λακεδαιμονίους ἐφ' ῷ ἐξίασιν ἐκ Πελοποννήσου They yielded to the Lacedaemonians on the condition that they would depart from the Peloponnesus (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

b) Adjectives or participles involved

[461]

🗖 αὐτοῖς τοῖς ναύταις

This use of $\alpha \dot{v} \dot{v} \dot{c}$ in the dative case outside the article-noun group means (WHATEVER) AND ALL. Observe these examples:

- τὰς τῶν πολεμίων ναῦς εἴλομεν αὐτοῖς τοῖς ναύταις We captured the enemy's ships, crew and all.
- ... τὸν τυρόν ... ὃν οὖτος αὐτοῖς τοῖς ταλάροις κατήσθιεν ... THE CHEESE, ... WHICH THIS MAN HAS DEVOURED BASKETS AND ALL (Aristophanes, Ranae).

🗖 ὁ τυχών

This strange use of the participle of $\tau \nu \gamma \chi \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$ means anybody, the first one you come across:

- οὐδ' ἂν ὁ τυχὼν ἀγνοήσειεν ὅτι πέπλασται
 AND THERE ISN'T ANYBODY WHO WOULD NOT REALISE THAT IT IS
 SOMETHING MADE UP (Plutarch, Themistocles).
- ... φέροντας ... συμφορὰν ... τῷ τυχόντι τῶν πολιτῶν
 ... BRINGING DISGRACE TO ANY ONE OF THE CITIZENS
 (Demosthenes, De Corona).

🚨 ἥσυχος τοῦτο εἶπεν [462]

A lot of times an adjective that agrees with the subject can be translated in English by a modal adverb:

- ήσυχος τοῦτο εἶπεν He said this quietly.
- ἄσμενος τοῦτο ἐποίησεν He did this happily / He was happy to do this.
- ήσυχος κατεθεᾶτο τὰς τάξεις He inspected the ranks quietly (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

τί βουλόμενος;

This expression (with the participle adapted in number and gender accordingly), literally Wanting what?, means With which purpose?:

• τίνος εἴνεκα ταδ᾽ ἔπραττεν ὁ Φίλιππος καὶ τί βουλόμενος; Why has Philippos done this and for what purpose? (Demosthenes, *De Corona*).

A very similar expression is $\tau i \pi \alpha \theta \dot{\omega} v$; which literally means HAVING SUFFERED WHAT?, implying some sort of bad experience:

- τ ί $\pi \alpha \theta$ ὰν ἐξαίφνης ἀπῆλθες; What made you leave suddenly?
 - ♦ Literally, Having suffered what did you leave suddenly?

And another idiomatic use of a participle closely linked to this, again with its variations of gender and number, is $\pi \subseteq \omega v$:

- τίνες οὖσαι εἰς τὴν ἐμὴν οἰκίαν εἰσβαίνετε; Who are you to enter my house?
 - ♦ Literally, Being who do you enter my house?

🛘 εἴ τις καὶ ἄλλος [463]

This combination, word by word IF EVEN ANYONE ELSE, may be translated by ABOVE ALL:

- εἴ τις καὶ ἄλλος ὁ Σωκράτης ἀεὶ τάληθῆ λέγει Socrates above all speaks the truth.
 - ♦ The meaning is If there is anyone who speaks the truth, it is Socrates.
- ἐπίσταται δ' εἴ τις καὶ ἄλλος ΗΕ ΚΝΟWS ΗΟ'

HE KNOWS HOW TO, IF ANY MAN DOES (Xenophon, Anabasis).

τελευτῶν / ἀρχόμενος

The use of a participle of the verb τελευτάω corresponds to what in English would be the adverb FINALLY:

• τελευτῶντές τε αὐτῶν ἀπέστησαν ὑπὸ τοῦ κακοῦ νικώμενοι Finally, they kept away from them, defeated by the evil (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

Similarly, the participle of ἄρχομαι obviously corresponds to the English expression in THE BEGINNING:

• ἀρχόμενοι γὰρ πάντες ὀξύτερον ἀντιλαμβάνονται Because in the beginning everybody starts an enterprise rather eagerly (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

c) Cases of unexpected agreement

[464]

σχῆμα 'Αττικόν

The Attic scheme is the use of a singular verb when the subject of the sentence is a neuter plural:

• ταῦτα τὰ ζῷα τρέχει These animals are running.

But let's take into account that adjectives etc. accompanying the subject would remain in plural:

• τὰ ζῷα ἔλαθεν ἡμᾶς ἐκβαίνοντα We did not see that the animals were going out.

Agreement κατὰ σύνεσιν ("according to the sense")

[465]

1/ There are other instances when we can observe the opposite phenomenon occurring; a singular subject, if it has a collective meaning, takes a plural verb:

- τὸ πλῆθος τοῦτο ποιεῖν οὐκ ἤθελον

 The multitude did not want to do this.
- τὸ πλῆθος ἐψηφίσαντο πολεμεῖν The multitude voted to wage war (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

This can also happen with a participle:

- τὸ πλῆθος, νομίζοντες τοὺς πολεμίους ἀφίξεσθαι, ἔφυγεν ΤΗΕ MULTITUDE, THINKING THAT THE ENEMY WOULD ARRIVE, FLED.
- **2/** Furthermore, when a predicative object is an adjective, we may find that the subject and predicative object do not agree in gender as one would expect. First let us take a look at the normal case:
 - ἡ νίκη καλή ἐστιν VICTORY IS BEAUTIFUL.

But we can find this:

• ἡ νίκη καλόν ἐστιν Victory is something beautiful.

In this case, although $vi\kappa\eta$ is feminine, the predicative object is in neuter, and we should translate it as SOMETHING BEAUTIFUL.

3/ A similar phenomenon is the use of a masculine or feminine demonstrative form instead of the expected neuter:

• τοῦτο ἦν ἡ τῆς ἀμίλλης ἀρχή

This was the beginning of the confrontation.

• αὕτη ἦν ἡ τῆς ἀμίλλης ἀρχή (same meaning).

 \diamond In this variant, the word that means This agrees with what is to come $(\mathring{a}\rho\chi\acute{\eta})$.

• ἀρχὴ μὲν οὖν **αὕτη** ἐγένετο τοῦ ἀδικήματος This was the beginning of the fraud (Demosthenes, *Contra Phormionem*).

□ ἔστιν οἳ ...

This expression means There are some who..., instead of the expected plural $\hat{\mathbf{eigiv}}$ of ...:

• ἔστιν οι ἐτύγχανον καὶ θωράκων καὶ γέρρων [after a battle has just begun by throwing clods of earth]
There were some that struck the Breastplates and Shields of the Enemy (Xenophon, *Cyropaedia*).

d) The personal construction

[467]

[466]

1/ Personal construction of the infinitive:

Instead of the *impersonal* construction of the infinitive, such as

• λέγεται τοὺς ᾿Αθηναίους σοφοὺς εἶναι IT IS SAID THAT THE ATHENIANS ARE WISE,

we can find the *personal* construction of the infinitive:

- οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι λέγονται σοφοὶ εἶναι
 (Literally, The Athenians are said to be wise).
- \diamond Observe that now the main verb has a personal subject and that $\sigma \circ \phi \circ \iota$ is in the nominative.
- νῦν δὲ καὶ τόδε λέγεται ξυμβῆναι It is said that also this happened (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
 - \diamond This could also be an example of impersonal construction, as $\tau \acute{o}\delta \varepsilon$ can be considered a nominative or an accusative.
- καί τις καὶ ἄνεμος αὐτοὺς λέγεται κωλῦσαι And some wind was also said to have hindered them (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

Moreover, we can find the *impersonal* construction with $\delta \tau \iota$ instead of with infinitive:

- λέγεται ὅτι οἱ ᾿Αθηναῖοι σοφοί εἰσιν It is said that the Athenians are wise.
- λέγεται ὅτι Θεμιστοκλῆς χωρίον πιπράσκων ἐκέλευσε ... It is said that Themistocles, when he bought a small parcel of land, ordered ... (Plutarch, Fragmenta).

2/ Personal construction with adjectives:

[468]

Some adjectives, combined with the verb $\varepsilon \iota \mu \iota$, may form a personal construction (using an infinitive or a participle) instead of an impersonal one followed by $\delta \tau \iota$ and a new sentence.

Observe an example of the impersonal construction with $\delta \tau \iota$:

- δῆλόν ἐστιν ὅτι τοῦτο οὐκ ἐποίησα It is evident that I have not done this.
 - \diamond Observe that $\delta \tilde{\eta} \lambda o v$ is neuter.

The same meaning will be conveyed by the personal construction:

- δῆλός εἰμι τοῦτο οὐ ποιήσας (same meaning).
- \diamond Literally, I am EVIDENT NOT HAVING DONE THIS, and observe that $\delta\tilde{\eta}\lambda o_{\varsigma}$ must agree in gender with the subject.
- εἶ δῆλος οὐκ εἰδὸς τί δρᾶς
 IT IS EVIDENT THAT YOU DO NOT KNOW WHAT YOU ARE DOING
 (Sophocles, Oedipus Tyrannus).

An example where the personal construction will use an infinitive:

- δίκαιόν έστι ὅτι στρατηγὸς κατέστην It is fair that I have been appointed general.
 - ♦ Impersonal construction.
- δίκαιός εἰμι στρατηγὸς καταστῆναι (same meaning).
 - ♦ Personal construction: literally, I am FAIR TO HAVE BEEN APPOINTED GENERAL.

e) Idioms with οἶος and ὄσος

[469]

1/ The neuter \vec{oiov} (and its plural \vec{oio}) may mean for example, for instance:

- ψευδῆ λέγεις \vec{o} ία λέγεις ὅτι ὁ Περικλῆς τοῖς Λακεδαιμονίοις ὀφελεῖ You lie; for instance, you say that Pericles heips the Spartans.
- **2/** The neuter \tilde{otov} (and its plural \tilde{oto}), preceding a participle, gives it a causal sense:
 - μισῶ σε οἶον τὸν ἀδελφὸν ἀποκτείναντα Ι hate you because you have killed my brother.
- **3/** The impersonal expression $\mathring{\epsilon}\xi\varepsilon\sigma\tau$ it is possible can also be expressed by \mathring{oiov} $\mathring{\tau}$ $\mathring{\epsilon}\sigma\tau$:
 - οἶόν τ' ἐστὶ ἄνευ χρημάτων ὄλβιον εἶναι It is possible to be happy without money.
 - καίτοι πῶς οἶόν τ' ἐστὶν ἑτέρων κατηγορεῖν, οἶς αὐτός τις ἔνοχός ἐστιν; But how is it possible to accuse other people of transgressions of which he himself is guilty? (Isocrates, In Callimachum).

The expression $\delta i \delta \zeta \tau \epsilon i \mu i$ is dealt with in the Point 3 *Verbal expressions*.

- **4/** With a superlative, the neuter $o\tilde{i}ov$ has the same effect as $\dot{\omega}_{S}$:
 - $\dot{\omega}$ ς τάχιστα = $\dot{\omega}$ ον τάχιστα AS QUICKLY AS POSSIBLE.

5/ The neuter $\ddot{o}\sigma ov$ followed by a number may mean AROUND:

• ὄσον δέκα ἔτη ἐκεῖ ἐνώκουν Lived there for around ten years.

• ἔστησαν ἀπέχοντες αὐτῶν ὄσον πεντεκαίδεκα σταδίους They halted at around some fifteen stades away from them (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

6/ In dative + μᾶλλον and in correlation with τοσούτφ, it means the MORE..., the MORE... (see also section *Comparative clauses*):

• ὄσφ μᾶλλον ἀναγιγνώσκω, τοσούτφ μᾶλλον μανθάνω The more I read, the more I learn.

f) Idioms of group [470]

The use of a neuter adjective (singular or plural) without any noun agreeing with it but with a genitive depending on it lends the whole phrase an abstract sense, implying that the article had been accompanied by the word MATTER, AFFAIR, THING, etc.:

τὰ τοῦ πολέμου THE AFFAIRS OF WAR
 τὰ τῆς πόλεως THE AFFAIRS OF THE CITY

• τὸ τῆς τύχης THE AFFAIRS OF FORTUNE, DESTINY

τὰ τῆς ἀρχῆς
 THE AFFAIRS OF THE GOVERNMENT, POWER

- μάλιστα γὰρ ἂν ὁ τοιοῦτος καὶ τὰ τῆς πόλεως δι' ἐαυτὸν βούλοιτο ὀρθοῦσθαι Because such a person would want the affairs of the city to prosper, for his own sake (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- τὸ τῆς τύχης γὰρ ἀφανὲς οἶ προβήσεται Fortune will come το you invisible (Euripides, Alcestis).

g) Strange constructions with a comparative

[471]

If we want to express a quality in a degree higher than expected, these are some of the ways of expressing it:

• οὖτος ὁ μαθητὴς **σοφώτερός** ἐστι **τοῦ μετρίου** This student is wiser than the average.

• οὖτος ὁ μαθητὴς σοφώτερός ἐστι τῆς γνώμης This student is wiser than what people think.

♦ Literally, ... THAN THE (GENERAL) OPINION.

• οὖτος ὁ μαθητὴς πλεῖον κάμνει τοῦ δέοντος This student puts in more effort than necessary.

• τὰ φῶτα κατεσβέννυσαν οἱ πολῖται, φοβούμενοι μὴ πορρωτέρω τοῦ μετρίου δόξωσιν ἐν συνουσίαις εἶναι καὶ πότοις The citizens extinguished the lights, for fear that it would seem that they were enjoying their company in entertainments and drinking beyond a normal measure (Plutarch, *Tiberius et Gaius Gracchus*).

h) Special meaning of the imperfect

[472]

Sometimes, the imperfect does not mean I was writing, I was sleeping, etc. It may also have these two nuances: the beginning of the action and the attempt to perform the action. For example:

• ὁ μαθητὴς ἔγραφε τὸν λόγον The student was writing / started to write / tried to write the story.

• τότε ἐπορευόμην Then I began the Journey.

- ἐπεὶ οἱ πολέμιοι ἀφίκοντο, ἐγὰ ἔφευγον
- WHEN THE ENEMY ARRIVED, I TRIED TO ESCAPE.
- ἐφοβήθησαν καὶ τραπόμενοι ἔφευγον διὰ τῆς πόλεως FLEEING THROUGH THE CITY (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

They were afraid and, turning on their heels, they started

Note

Of course there is a verb in Greek that means TO TRY, $\pi \epsilon \iota \rho \dot{\alpha} \omega$, but the imperfect of most verbs can also be used to express this nuance.

In some cases the context makes it easy to choose. For instance:

• οἱ πολέμιοι ἐξαίφνης ἀφίκοντο καὶ οἱ Ἑλληνες αὐτίκα ἐμάχοντο ΤΗΕ ΕΝΕΜΥ ARRIVED SUDDENLY AND THE GREEKS IMMEDIATELY STARTED TO FIGHT.

The translation of $\epsilon\mu\alpha\chi$ ovto by STARTED TO FIGHT seems quite clear, reinforced by the adverb $\alpha\dot{v}\tau$ ik α IMMEDIATELY; in this case, TRIED TO FIGHT would sound strange.

i) Contractions [473]

Sometimes the crasis of two words may create some forms that are not easily recognisable, especially in tragedy and comedy. Here are some examples:

έγῷδα	from	έγὼ οἶδα	κἀμέ	from	καὶ ἐμέ
έγὧμαι	from	έγὼ οἶμαι	κάν	from	καὶ ἐν
προὔργου	from	πρὸ ἔργου	κἄν	from	καὶ ἐάν
κἆτα	from	καὶ εἶτα	ἄνθρωπος	from	ὁ ἄνθρωπος
καὐτός	from	καὶ αὐτός	ὄνθρωπε	from	ὧ ἄνθρωπε
τοὖργον	from	τὸ ἔργον	τάργύριον	from	τὸ ἀργύριον
κἀγώ	from	καὶ ἐγώ			

 ήξει γὰρ αὐτά, κἂν ἐγὼ σιγῆ στέγω (Sophocles, Oedipus Tyrannus). This will arrive, even if I cover it with my silence

• τί φής, ἄνθρωπε;

WHAT DO YOU SAY, MY FRIEND? (Sophocles, Aiax).

Of course, the contraction of τάληθη should be well known, and also the Homeric formula καλὸς κάγαθός. More contractions can be found in the chapter on pronouns.

j) Gnomic aorist [474]

This is the use of aorist to express some sentences of perpetual value, including sayings, where one sentence in the past is used to represent a general case valid applicable at any time. Of course, the past tense is translated by present. For instance:

• άθυμοῦντες ἄνδρες οὔπω τρόπαιον ἔστησαν

DISHEARTENED MEN NEVER RAISE A TROPHY (Plato, Critias).

• ὁ χρόνος πάντα ἠκέσατο

TIME HEALS EVERYTHING.

k) Some other peculiar constructions

[475]

🗖 οὐκ ἔσθ' ὅπως οὐ ...

This expression means IT IS QUITE CERTAIN THAT ...:

• οὐκ ἔσθ' ὅπως τἀληθῆ οὐ λέγει It is quite certain that he speaks the truth.
• οὐκ ἔσθ' ὅπως αὕριον οὐ νικήσομεν It is quite certain that tomorrow we will win.

• οὐκ ἔσθ' ὅπως οὐκ ἐξελῶ κ τῆς οἰκίας Ι WILL CERTAINLY DRIVE HIM OUT OF THE HOUSE (Aristophanes, *Clouds*).

🗖 οὕτω δή

It can mean finally in the sense of NOT UNTIL THEN:

• **οὕτω δὴ** γνοὺς ἀπήγαγε πάλιν τὴν στρατιάν (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

3. Verbal expressions

[476]

As specified at the beginning of the chapter, the verbal expressions are listed alphabetically, grouping together the expressions based on the same verb; some additional explanation has been added when it has been considered necessary.

The list of verbal expressions can be endless, so we have included only those which students are more liable to come across.

With ἄγω

1/ ἐν τιμῆ ἄγω ΤΟ HAVE IN HIGH ESTEEM

 ἐν τιμῆ μὲν ἦγε τοὺς περὶ τὸν νέον Μάριον
 ΗΕ HELD THOSE WHO WERE WITH THE YOUNG MARIUS IN HIGH ESTEEM (Plutarch, Marius).

2/ ἄγω ἡσυχίαν ΤΟ ΒΕ ΑΤ ΡΕΑСΕ

• καὶ τὸ λοιπὸν ἡσυχίαν ἦγε And from then on he lived in peace (Plutarch, Solon).

With ἀκούω

εὖ/καλῶς/κακῶς ἀκούω ΤΟ ENJOY GOOD/BAD FAME

- ἤκουσε κακῶς ὑπὸ τῶν Μακεδόνων Ηε had a bad reputation among the Macedonians (Plutarch, *Pyrrhus*).
- \diamond This expression can be used as the passive of the corresponding idioms $\epsilon \tilde{b}$ $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ etc.

With δέω

These two combinations with the verb $\delta \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ in its sense of TO NEED (of something) are very frequent:

1/ δέω ὀλίγου ALMOST

• ὡς δ᾽ εἶδον τὴν ᾿Αρεταφίλαν, ὀλίγου ἐδέησαν ἐκλαθέσθαι τῆς πρὸς τὸν τύραννον ὀργῆς When they saw Aretaphile, they almost forgot their hatred against the king (Plutarch, Mulierum Virtutes).

$2/\delta \dot{\epsilon} \omega \pi o \lambda \lambda o \tilde{v}$ TO BE FAR AWAY FROM

• ὁ δὲ πολλοῦ δεῖ δρᾶν τοῦτο But he is far away from doing this (Plato, Laws).

With δίδωμι [477]

δίδωμι δίκην ΤΟ PAY A PENALTY, ΤΟ BE PUNISHED

• κατὰ τὸν αύτοῦ νόμον δίκην ἔδωκεν He was punished according to his own law (Plutarch, Camillus).

With εἰμί

1/ οἷός τ' εἰμι ΙΑΜΑΒΙΕ

This combination of the qualitative relative \vec{olog} , \vec{olov} with the verb \vec{elim} is the result of several ellipses, and the meaning is to be ABLE, to be CAPABLE.

- ὁ Περικλῆς οἶός τ' ἦν πάντας τοὺς πολίτας πείθειν Pericles was capable of persuading all the citizens.
- ἐγὼ μὲν οὖν ὡς οἶός τ' ἦν εἴρηκα περὶ τοῦ πράγματος I have told you about the matter as I have been able to (Isocrates, *In Lochitem*).

2/ ἐμποδών εἰμι Ι AM AN OBSTACLE

This means I am an obstacle, I am in the way $(\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\sigma\delta\dot{\omega}v)$ is indeclinable, it is not a nominative).

• ὑμεῖς δὲ ἀεὶ μέν φατε· αὐτονόμους τὰς πόλεις χρὴ εἶναι, αὐτοὶ δὶ ἐστὲ μάλιστα ἐμποδὼν τῷ αὐτονομίᾳ You are always saying "It is necessary that the states are independent", but you pose a major obstacle for independence (Xenophon, Hellenica).

With ἔρχομαι

1/ ἔρχομαι ἐπὶ πᾶν ΤΟ USE ALL RESOURCES

• ἆρ' οὐκ ἀν ἐπὶ πᾶν ἔλθοι ὡς ... πᾶσιν ἀνθρώποις φόβον παράσχοι τοῦ στρατεῦσαί ποτε ἐπ' αὐτον; Wouldn't he use all his resources in order to ... Inspire fear of campaigning against him in all men? (Xenophon, *Anabasis*).

2/ ὑπό τινος ἔρχομαι Ι AM BROUGHT TO TRIAL BY SOMEBODY

This is the so-called *virtual passive*: instead of saying ὁ Σωκράτης εἰσάγεται (εἰς τὸ δικαστήριον) ὑπὸ τοῦ 'Ανύτου, the sense of to be brought is conveyed by εἰσέρχομαι instead of by the passive of εἰσάγω, which thus produces the combination of εἰσέρχομαι + an agent object. This is quite similar to the construction ὁ στρατηγὸς ἀπέθανεν ὑπὸ τῶν πολεμίων ΤΗΕ GENERAL DIED AT THE HANDS OF THE ENEMY.

• ὁ Σωκράτης εἰσέρχεται ὑπὸ τοῦ ἀνύτου Socrates is brought to trial by Anytos.

With ἔχω [478]

1/ ἐν αἰτία ἔχω ΤΟ MAKE RESPONSIBLE

• τὸν μὲν Περικλέα ἐν αἰτίᾳ εἶχον They considered Pericles responsible (Thucydides, Historiae).

2/ ἔχω ἐν νῷ ΤΟ PLAN

• εἰπέ μοι, ὧ Σώκρατες, τί ἐν νῷ ἔχεις ποιειν; Tell, me, Socrates, what do you plan to do? (Plato, *Crito*).

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3/ καλῶς ἔχω TO FEEL WELL

The verb $\tilde{\epsilon}\chi\omega$ with an adverb must be translated by TO BE, TO FEEL:

• κακῶς ἔχω I FEEL IN A BAD STATE, I FEEL BAD.

• πῶς ἔχεις πρὸς ἐπιστήμην; How do you feel with respect to knowledge? (Plato, Protagoras).

We also find it in this common genitive absolute: τούτων οὕτως ἐχόντων, ... In these state of Affairs, ...

With ἥδομαι

• ἥδομαι ἐπὶ ἀνδρείοις τοῖς στρατιώταις I LIKE SOLDIERS IF THEY ARE BRAVE.

If we had come across the sentence ἤδομαι τοῖς ἀνδρείοις στρατιώταις, it would mean I like BRAVE SOLDIERS, in the clear sense that I do not like soldiers who are not brave, but by adding the preposition ἐπί and by leaving the adjective outside the article/noun group we produce the effect of a condition: I like SOLDIERS [ALL OF THEM] IF/WHEN THEY ARE BRAVE.

With ἠμί (verb unused in present tense)

[479]

There are two expressions that use the verb $\mathring{\eta}\mu \acute{\iota}$ TO SAY, which is almost never used aside from these two expressions:

• ἦν δ' ἐγω AND I SAID

• $\tilde{\eta}$ δ ' \check{o} ς AND HE SAID

With ἀποθνήσκω

• ἀποθνήσκω ὑπὸ τῶν πολεμίων I die at the hands of the enemy.

The verb ἀποκτείνω is not used in the passive voice: ἀποθνήσκω is used in its place. The sentence above would mean literally I DIE BY THE ENEMY, but it must be translated as I AM KILLED BY THE ENEMY; we can translate it by I DIE AT THE HANDS OF THE ENEMY, if we want to keep the sense of TO DIE.

• ἀπαχθέντες ἐς τὴν ᾿Αττικὴν ἀπέθανον ὑπὸ ᾿Αθηναίων ΑFTER BEING CARRIED AWAY TO ATTICA THEY WERE KILLED BY THE ATHENIANS (Herodotus, *Historiae*).

With $\lambda \acute{e}\gamma \omega$ and $\pi \odot i\acute{e}\omega$ [480]

1/ λέγω ἀγαθά τινα ΤΟ SPEAK WELL ABOUT SOMEBODY

When verbs like $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ or $\pi o \iota \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ are used in the sense of SPEAKING (ABOUT SOMEBODY) or TREATING (SOMEBODY) respectively, they may rule two accusatives: one of the person and another one, usually a neuter plural adjective, that will tell us how the subject acts with respect to that person or says about him/her:

- ὁ διδάσκαλος κακὰ ἡμᾶς λέγει The teacher speaks badly about us.
 - \diamond It could be considered an accusative of respect: The TEACHER SAYS BAD THINGS *WITH RESPECT TO US*.
 - \diamondsuit Important: it does not mean The TEACHER TELLS US BAD THINGS: $\mathring{\eta}\mu\tilde{\alpha}\varsigma$ is in the accusative, not in the dative.
- ὁ δὲ κατεῖχε τῆ βοῆ, τὰς μὲν γυναῖκας πόλλ' ἀγαθὰ λέγων, σὲ δὲ πολλὰ κακά And he controlled it with his shouting, saying much good of the women and much ill of you (Aristophanes, *Ecclesiazusae*).

Two examples with the verb π or $\acute{\epsilon}\omega$:

- ὁ διδάσκαλος ἀγαθὰ ἡμᾶς ποιεῖ The teacher treats us well.
 - ♦ Literally, The TEACHER DOES GOOD THINGS WITH RESPECT TO US.
- πολλὰ καὶ ἀγαθὰ τὴν πόλιν πεποιηκότες ἄρα ἀδίκως ὑπ' αὐτῆς ἀπόλλυνται After doing so much good to the city, they are unjustly ruined by it (Plato, Gorgias).

2/ λέγω εὖ/κακῶς τινα ΤΟ SPEAK WELL/BADLY ABOUT SOMEONE

Related to the former use, a *modal adverb* instead of a neuter adjective can be used in the same way (see $\varepsilon \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}}$ $\dot{\boldsymbol{a}} \kappa \omega \omega$ etc. as counterpart idiom):

• ἀκούσας ποτὲ ὅτι Πλάτων **αὐτὸν κακῶς λέγει**, ... Having heard once that Plato spoke badly about him, ... (Diogenes Laertius, *Vitae Philosophorum*).

And the same with $\varepsilon \tilde{v}/\kappa \alpha \kappa \tilde{\omega} \lesssim \pi o \iota \dot{\varepsilon} \omega$:

3/ μέγα λέγω ΤΟ SPEAK ARROGANTLY

• μὴ θορυβήσητε, μηδ' ἐὰν δόξω τι ὑμῖν μέγα λέγειν DO NOT MAKE A FUSS, EVEN IF I SEEM TO YOU TO BE BOASTING (Plato, *Apologia*).

With πάσχω [481]

εὖ/κακῶς πάσχω ὑπό τινος ΤΟ BE WELL/BADLY TREATED BY SOMEBODY

- εὖ ἔπαθον ὑπὸ των πολεμίων Ι WAS WELL TREATED BY THE ENEMIES.
- \diamond Although it means to suffer, $\pi \acute{\alpha} \sigma \gamma \omega$ may also have a passive meaning and therefore have an agent object too.

Moreover, note the idiom:

• τί παθὼν τοῦτο ἐποίησας; What has happened to you to make you do this?

With $\pi o \iota \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ (see also With $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ and $\pi o \iota \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ above)

[482]

1/ (περὶ) οὐδενὸς ποιοῦμαι ΤΟ CONSIDER OF NO IMPORTANCE

- ἐπικρύψασθαι τὴν ἀδικίαν περὶ οὐδενὸς ἐποιήσαντο They did not care at all to conceal their crime (Lysias, *Pro Milite*).
- \diamond This expression, as also the next one, can be used without the preposition $\pi \epsilon \rho i$.

2/(περί) πολλοῦ ποιοῦμαι το consider of much importance

It admits comparative or superlative degrees, all we have to do is modify the adjective:

- ἐμὲ δὲ περὶ πλείστου τῶν αὐτοῦ φίλων ἐποιεῖτο Ηε VALUED ΜΕ ABOVE ALL HIS FRIENDS (Isocrates, Aegineticus).
- \diamond This expression, as also the former one, can be used without the preposition $\pi \epsilon \rho \hat{\mathbf{i}}$.

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3/ The middle voice of ποιέω

Some verbs can be replaced by a combination of the verb $\pi o \iota \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ and a noun derived from the replaced verb: for instance, $\delta \epsilon \iota \pi v \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ TO HAVE DINNER can be replaced by $\delta \epsilon \iota \pi v v v \omega$. But a rule of these replacements (with the unavoidable exceptions) is that the verb $\pi o \iota \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ must be in the middle voice. Observe some examples:

 πολεμέω
 ΤΟ FIGHT
 > πόλεμον ποιοῦμαι

 λέγω
 ΤΟ SPEAK
 > λόγους ποιοῦμαι

 ἀπολογέομαι
 ΤΟ DEFEND ONESELF
 > ἀπολογίαν ποιοῦμαι

• πρός τε Ῥηγίνους λόγους ἐποιήσαντο They made a deal with the Rhegians (Thucydides, *Historiae*).

• ἀνάγκη πρὸς ταῦτα τὴν ἀπολογίαν ποιεῖσθαι I must make a defence with respect to these matters (Isocrates, *De Bigis*).

a) Elementary rules for accentuation

- 1. General remarks
- 2. Position of the accent
- 3. Types of accent
- 4. Position and kind of accent
- 5. Changes in the accent
- 6. General tendencies
- 7. Enclitics

b) The dual

- 1. General remarks
- 2. The article
- 3. Declensions
- 4. Pronouns
- 5. Verbal forms

c) Homeric dialect

- 1. General remarks
- 2. Article
- 3. Declensions
- 4. Adjectives
- 5. Pronouns
- 6. Prepositions
- 7. Spelling
- 8. Suffixes
- 9. Verbal forms
- 10. Conjunctions
- 11. Particle κέν

d) Words that are easily confused

- 1. Non-verbal forms
- 2. Verbal forms

a) Elementary rules for accentuation

1. General remarks [483]

Accentuation rules for Greek are complicated, and there are many exceptions; the guidelines offered here are just a summary of the most basic rules.

The type of accents found in words varies and have fixed positions, which cannot be guessed. The rules given below will determine this. Please note: the possibilities about where an accent can be placed and which kind of accent a word may have are not presented as a free choice of place and kind when translating into Greek, but as examples of how we may find it according to different factors.

2. Position of the accent

The last three syllables of a word (if it has three or more) are called, starting from the last syllable, *ultima*, *penult* and *antepenult*. The accent can appear only on one of these three last syllables. Here is an example of each:

• on the *ultima*: $\dot{\alpha}\gamma o p \dot{\alpha}$ • on the *penult*: $\dot{\eta} \mu \dot{\epsilon} p \alpha$ • on the *antepenult*: $\pi \acute{o}\tau \dot{\epsilon} p o v$

3. Types of accent [484]

There are three types of accent in Greek:

• acute accent (\acute{a}): \mathring{a} γορ \acute{a} , $\mathring{\eta}$ μέρ \acute{a} , $\mathring{\pi}$ ότερον • circumflex accent ($\~{a}$): καιρ $\~{o}$, $\mathring{\theta}$ ε $\~{a}$ ς, τυχε $\~{i}$ ν

• grave accent (à): ἀγορὰ, περὶ, θεὸς

4. Position and kind of accent

An acute accent can be on any of the three last syllables: ἀγορά, ἡμέρα, πότερον

A grave accent can be on the last syllable only: ἀγορὰ, αὐτὸν
 A circumflex accent can be on any of the last two syllables: ἀγορῶν, νῆσος

5. Changes in the accent

[485]

a/ If the following word has an accent (of any kind) and there is no comma or anything that produces a pause, a word that has an acute accent on the ultima must change this to a grave accent:

• ὁρῶ τὴν καλὴν ἀγοράν I SEE THE BEAUTIFUL AGORA.

Observe how ἀγοράν can retain the acute accent since there is no accented word following it (in this example, it is the last word of the sentence). The article $\tau \dot{\eta} v$ must change to $\tau \dot{\eta} v$ because there is an accented word following it (καλ $\dot{\eta} v$), and similarly καλ $\dot{\eta} v$ must change to καλ $\dot{\eta} v$ because there is also an accented word following it (ἀγοράν).

Of course, if $\alpha\gamma o \rho \dot{\alpha}v$ were followed by an accented word, it too would replace its acute accent with a grave:

- ὁρῷ τὴν καλὴν ἀγορὰν καὶ μάλιστα ἥδομαι I see the beautiful agora and I very much enjoy it.
 - ♦ Now καὶ follows it, so ἀγοράν must change to ἀγορὰν.

Note that the grave accent is only used as a replacement for the acute accent when a word has an acute on the ultima and is followed by another accented word. But:

- βουλοίμην ἄν, ὧ Σώκρατες, ... | I WOULD WANT, SOCRATES, ... (Plato, Euthyphro).
 - \diamond The αv must not change to αv because between it and the following word $(\tilde{\omega})$ there is a comma.

b/ A word that has a circumflex accent on the penult must change it to an acute accent if, for reasons of declension or conjugation, the ultima becomes long (a diphthong, for instance, is considered a long vowel). Compare:

- ὁρῶ τὴν νῆσον I see the island.
- ὁρῶ τὸν τῆς **νήσου** βασιλέα I see the king of the island.

Observe how, in the last example, $v\tilde{\eta}\sigma\sigma v$ changes its circumflex to $v\dot{\eta}\sigma\sigma v$ because, for declension reasons, the word has changed the ending -ov (short syllable) to -ov (long syllable).

c/ A word that has an acute accent on the antepenult must move it to the penult if, for reasons of declension or conjugation, the ultima becomes long. Compare:

- ὁρῶ τὸν ἄνθρωπον I see the man.
- ὁρῶ τὸν τοῦ ἀνθρώπου ἀδελφόν I see the man's brother.

Observe how, in the last example, $\mathring{a}v\theta\rho\omega\pi\sigma v$ has moved its accent to $\mathring{a}v\theta\rho\acute{\omega}\pi\sigma v$ because, for declension reasons, the ending of the word has changed from -ov (short syllable) to -ov (long syllable).

6. General tendencies [486]

a/ Nouns tend to try to keep the accent in the same place as found in the nominative, changing it according to the last two rules given in the former section:

- Ψ $\tilde{\omega}$ μος, $\tilde{\omega}$ μον, $\tilde{\omega}$ μον. \Leftrightarrow Change of accent, but no need to move it to the next syllable.
- ψ ἀμφότερος, ἀμφότερον, but ἀμφοτέρ ϕ . \diamondsuit Unavoidable move to the next syllable.

b/ Verbs try to send the accent as close to the beginning of the word as possible (of course never surpassing the antepenult) as long as the rules allow it. Observe these forms of the verb $\kappa\omega\lambda\dot{\omega}$:

- ψ ἐκώλυσα: The accent is as close to the beginning as possible nothing prevents this, as the ultima is short.
- ψ ἐκωλύσαμεν: The accent must move to the right, since it cannot precede the antepenult.
- Ψ ἐκωλύθην: The accent cannot be found as ἐκώλυθην, because -θην is a long syllable (it contains a long

vowel).

c/ With respect to declensions:

[487]

- 1- Nouns of the 1st declension that have the accent on the last syllable (for example, $\tau \iota \mu \dot{\eta}$) change this to a circumflex in the genitive and dative singular: $\tau \iota \mu \ddot{\eta} \varsigma$, $\tau \iota \mu \ddot{\eta}$. The same applies to nouns of the 2nd declension: $\sigma \tau \rho \alpha \tau \eta \gamma \dot{\sigma} \varsigma$, $-\dot{\sigma} \dot{\nu}$, $-\ddot{\sigma} \dot{\nu}$.
- **2-** The genitive plural of nouns of the first declension has a circumflex on the ending, $-\tilde{\omega}v$, even if the accent is found elsewhere in the other cases: $\mu\acute{\alpha}\chi\eta$, $-\eta_{c}$ gen. pl. $\mu\alpha\chi\tilde{\omega}v$, $\pio\lambda\acute{\iota}\tau\eta_{c}$, -ov gen. pl. $\pio\lambda\iota\tau\tilde{\omega}v$.
- **3-** The dative plural of the 1^{st} and 2^{nd} declensions have a circumflex accent: τιμαῖς, στρατηγοῖς. However, the nominative plural, although it contains the same vowels as the dative plural, keeps the accent short: τιμαί, στρατηγοί. This is because the endings - α 1 and - α 1 in nominative plural are considered to be short.
- **4–** It is worth remembering that, almost always, adjectives that follow the *2-1-2 pattern* **-**0ς, **-α**, **-ov** and have an accent on the antepenult move it to the penult in the feminine: δίκαιος, δικαία (NOT δίκαια), δίκαιον.
- **5-** With respect to the usual acc. pl. ending in -ας, if it belongs to the 1st declension it is long (nom. pl. στρατιῶται, but acc. pl. στρατιῶτας: observe the change of accent because now the last syllable, -ας, is long), but if it belongs to the 3rd declension it is short (nom. pl. φύλακες and acc. pl. φύλακας: observe that there is no need to shift the accent one syllable forward because the last syllable, -ας, is short).
- **6-** The final - α of neuter plural is short: δικαία if feminine singular (the accent has shifted forwards because the final - α is long), but δίκαια if neuter plural (the accent does not need to shift forwards because the final - α is short).

7. Enclitics [488]

- **a/** There are several words that are enclitics, i.e. they do not have any accents. It must be taken into account that an acute accent on the ultima of a word preceding an enclitic must remain acute:
 - ἱππεύς τις A HORSE
 - \diamond innews does not change to innews because the following word (τ is) is an enclitic. But: innews $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\alpha}s$.
 - ἀτεχνῶς γάρ μοι δοκεῖ ... For it seems to me that he really ... (Plato, Euthyphro).
 - $\Rightarrow \gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ is followed by an enclitic ($\mu o \iota$), so it does not need to change to $\gamma \grave{\alpha} \rho$.
- **b/** It may also cause a former word that should not have any accent to receive an acute one on its last (or only) syllable:
 - εἴ τις ἄλλος τῶν θεῶν ... If ANY OTHER ONE OF THE GODS ... (Plato, Euthyphro).

We should have found $\varepsilon i \pi \zeta \ \alpha \lambda \lambda o \zeta$, but $\pi \zeta$ is an enclitic, so it throws back an acute accent on εi , a conjunction that otherwise does not have accent on it.

c/ We can even find "chained cases". Observe this example:

• εἴ τίς μου ἐθέλει ἀκούειν ... If somebody wants to listen to me ... (Plato, *Euthyphro*):

μου is an enclitic, so it throws an acute accent on πς, an enclitic that should not have any one on it (take care not to confuse it now with the interrogative πίς; who?).

At the same time, as we have seen above, $\pi \iota \varsigma$ is an enclitic, and it throws back an accent on εi , a conjunction that does not have accent on it.

d/ An enclitic may also make a former word have two accents:

[489]

- ἄνθρωπός τις SOME MAN
 - \diamond ἄνθρωπος has an enclitic (τις) following it, and the enclitic throws an accent onto its last syllable.
- ἤκουσέ τις ὑμῶν One of you heard it (Plato, Apologia).
 - \diamondsuit ἤκουσε has become ἤκουσέ because of the enclitic (τις) following it.

BUT: If the first word has already got an acute accent on the penult, the enclitic does not throw back any accent on the ultima, but if it is a circumflex accent then it does; so, $\pi \acute{o}vov \tau \iota v\alpha$ does NOT become $\pi \acute{o}v\acute{o}v \tau \iota v\alpha$ (for what happens, please see the following lines), but $v \~{\eta} \sigma ov \tau \iota v\alpha$ must become $v \~{\eta} \sigma \acute{o}v \tau \iota v\alpha$:

- τοῦτό γέ μοι δοκεῖ ... This seems to me ... (Plato, Apologia).
 - \diamond Observe the double accent on $\tau \tilde{v}\tilde{v}\tilde{v}$ (and also the chained effect of the two consecutive enclitics).

e/ Also, it may be that an enclitic has an accent according to other more complicated rules that are not explained here [490] (we are only covering the most basic rules). For instance:

ἄνθρωπον τινα must become ἄνθρωπόν τινα (rule explained above), but ἀνθρώπων τινων must become ἀνθρώπων τινῶν: we would not expect τινων to have an accent because it is an enclitic, but one of the rules not explained here causes it to have an accent on its ultima. In fact, this is owing to the fact that the accent of ἀνθρώπων is an acute on the penult syllable and the enclitic following it has two syllables and there is some rule for this case, but, as said, we will not be covering these complicated rules here; this is just an example of how things can get more complicated.

f/ With respect to ἐστι, it would be worth noting that, when it follows the negative οὖκ, the combination must be accented οὖκ ἔστι instead of οὖκ ἐστι as it could seem; although ἐστι is an enclitic form, it does not throw back an accent on the οὖκ (see Note 3 in section on verb εἰμί):

- οὖκ ἔστιν ὅστις ... There is no one who ... (Thucydides, *Historiae*).
- ἐνδείκνυμαι ὅτι οὐκ ἔστι σοφός I show that he is not wise (Plato, Apologia).

b) The dual

1. General remarks [491]

The dual is an aspect of Greek by which we can express nouns, adjectives and verbal forms when referring to *two* entities; so, its grammatical position lies between the singular and the plural, although needless to say *two* is usually considered plural unless the dual endings are used.

The sentence οἱ ἀγαθοὶ στρατιῶται πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἀπῆλθον clearly states The good soldiers departed towards the city. If we want to specify that we mean two soldiers, we could simply include the word two:

• οἱ δύο ἀγαθοὶ στρατιῶται πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἀπῆλθον ΤΗΕ TWO GOOD SOLDIERS DEPARTED TOWARDS THE CITY.

But we could also signify this using the dual endings – a series of endings (for nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.) that are used to represent two subjects, two objects, etc.:

- τὰ ἀγαθὰ στρατιώτα πρὸς τὴν πόλιν ἀπηλθέτην (same meaning).
 - \diamond By using these endings we can omit the adjective $\delta \acute{o}o$, as the meaning of two is contained in the dual endings.

Although the use of the dual was not very common in the classical period, it may be useful to take a closer look at its main forms, since it can be found in authors such as Plato, Xenophon, Thucydides, etc.

2. The article [492]

One of the things that make it easy is that there is no distinction of gender - masculine, feminine and neuter have the same forms:

Nom., Voc. and Acc.: $\tau \acute{\omega}$ Gen. and Dat.: $\tau \~{\alpha}$ v

- οὐδ' ἄρα τώ γε ἰδὼν γήθησεν 'Αχιλλεύς And Achilles was not happy to see them (Homer, *Iliad I 329*).
 - ♦ Remember that in Homer the use of article may represent HIM, HER, etc.

3. Declensions [493]

a) 1st declension: Nom., Voc. and Acc.: -α Gen. and Dat.: -αιν

Independently from the sub-type (the same endings are used for any of the five sub-types of the 1st declension):

□ ναύτης, -ου produces τὼ ναύτα, τοῖν ναύταιν
 □ δόξα, -ης produces τὼ δόξα, τοῖν δόξαιν

- τὰ χρήματα δίδωμι **τοῖν στρατιώταιν** I give the money to the two soldiers.
- ἦν δὲ οὖτος μὲν τοῖν ἐρασταῖν περὶ μουσικὴν διατετριφώς This one of the two lovers had spent his time on music (Plato, *Lovers*).

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b) 2 nd declension: N	lom., Voc. ar	nd Acc.: -ω	Gen. and Dat.: -οιν	[494]
Independently from the su	b-type or gend	ler:		
ανθρωπος, -ουἔργον, -ουβίβλος, -ου (f.)	produces produces produces	τὼ ἀνθρώπω, τὼ ἔργω, τοῖ τὼ βίβλω, τοῖ		
• τὰ βίβλω ἤδη ἀνέγ • τὴν εἰσβολήν, ἥ ἐ τωο HILLS GOING INTO	στι μεταξὺ δυο ῖ		l have already read the two books. εἰς the entrance, which is a narrow passage between	ı
c) 3 rd declension: N	lom., Voc. aı	nd Acc.: -ε	Gen. and Dat.: -οιν	[495]
1/ The consonantal sub-ty	pes of the 3 rd d	eclension follow	this parameter:	
φύλαξ, -ακοςστράτευμα, -ματοφυγάς, -άδος	produce produce produce	s τ ὼ στρα τ	κε, τοῖν φυλάκοιν εύματε, τοῖν στρατευμάτοιν δε, τοῖν φυγάδοιν	
 τὰ φυγάδε ὁρῶ τοῖν στρατευμάτο πρῶτον δέ μοι διήγη (Plato, Euthydemu 	ισαι τὴν σοφίαν	-	l see the two exiles. With the two armies, I captured the city. ς ἐστιν First tell me what the wisdom of these two men is	;
2/ Some of the vocalic sub	o-types have th	e ending $-oldsymbol{arepsilon_{i}}$ ins	tead of -ε :	
πόλις, -εωςἔπος, -ους	produces produces	τὰ πόλει, τοῖ τὰ ἔπει, τοῖ\		
 οἱ πολέμιοι τὰ πόλ βούλομαι δ' ὀλίγῳ μ τwo cities (Isocrat 	ακρότερα περὶ		The enemy destroyed the two cities. $\pi\epsilon \tilde{\imath} v \qquad \text{I want to speak a little more at length about these}$	
3/ The type βασιλεύς, -έα	ος has -η or -ει	instead of -ε: τ	ὰ βασιλῆ / τὰ βασιλεῖ, τοῖν βασιλέοιν.	
d) Adjectives				[496]
The same endings are app δικαίοιν ἀνθρώποιν, τοῖν	-	-	to the declension they must follow: τὰ δικαία ἀνθρώπα, το φύλακε, etc.	οĩν
 τὰ δικαίω δικαστά καὶ Διοσκούροιν σχολῆς δὲ γενομένη (Xenophon. Hiero) 	τοῖν ὑμετέροι ς ἀμφοῖν εἶπεν	ν πολίταιν	The two fair judges freed the prisoner. and to the Dioscuri, your citizens, (Xenophon, Hellenic When both of them had some free time, Simonides said	ːa).

4. Pronouns [497]

These are the most frequent forms. It can be observed that they roughly make use of the 2^{nd} declension, and, again, note that there is no difference between genders; we use the singular form to introduce them:

- Demonstrative οὖτος, αὔτη, τοῦτο
 Nom. and Acc. τούτω
 Gen. and Dat. τούτοιν
 Demonstrative ὅδε, ἤδε, τόδε
 Nom. and Acc. τώδε
 Gen. and Dat. τοῦνδε
 Interrogative τίς, τί
 Nom. and Acc. τίνε
 Gen. and Dat. τίνοιν
 Personal pronoun ἐγώ
 Nom. and Acc. νώ
 Gen. and Dat. τίνοιν
 \diamond Do not confuse this with σφᾶς, σφᾶν, σφίσι, indirect reflexive, and also 3rd person pronoun in Homer).
- νὰ τούτοι τὰ βίβλω τούτοιν τοῖν μαθηταῖν ἔδοτον We both gave these two books to these two students.
- φράζε Λυσία ὅτι νὰ καταβάντε ἐς τὸ Νυμφῶν νᾶμά τε καὶ μουσεῖον ... ΤΕΙΙ Lysias that both of us, coming down to the fountain and sacred place of the Nymphs, ... (Plato, Phaedrus).
- τίνε λέγεις; Which two do you mean? (Plato, Philebus).

5. Verbal forms [498]

Firstly, it must be said that there is no 1st person, but only 2^{nd} and 3^{rd} . The endings are quite simple, as in fact they are just $-\tau ov$ / $-\tau \eta v$ for the active voice (and passive aorist) and $-\sigma \theta ov$ / $-\sigma \theta \eta v$ (and $-\sigma \theta ov$ for the imperative) for the middle/passive voice. The distribution is as follows:

a) Active voice

• ὧ παῖδε, δεῦρο ἔλθετον

• μόλετον, ἔλθετον, ἀντόμεθ', ὧ Θεσμοφόρω πολυποτνία

(Aristophanes, Thesmophoriazusae).

1/ Present, future and perfe	ect (primary tenses) of	the indicative and all tenses of the subjunctive:
\square 2 nd person: $-\tau ov$	3 rd person: -τον	♦ Both persons are identical.
• τὼ παῖδε τρέχετον	The two children are	ERUNNING.
		nses) of the indicative and all tenses of the optative:
2 nd person: -τον	3 rd person: -τι	ĮV
 τὼ παῖδε ἐδραμέτην 	,	THE TWO CHILDREN RAN.
• πράγους δὲ δὴ τοῦ δε	εομένω δεῦρ' ἤλθετον;	Which business have you both come looking for? (Aristophanes, Aves).
3/ Imperative (all tenses):		
\square 2 nd person: $-\tau ov$	3 rd person: -το	อง

CHILDREN, COME HERE BOTH OF YOU!

MOVE, COME, WE PRAY, O VENERABLE THESMOPHORAE

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b) Middle	voice				[499]
1/ Present,	future and perfect (primary tenses) of the indicat	tive and all tenses of subjun	ctive:	
□ 2 nd	person: -σθ ον	\square 3 rd person: $-\sigma\theta$ ov	♦ Both persons are identic	cal.	
• τὼ π	αῖδε παύεσθον γράσ	φοντες The two children sto	P WRITING.		
2/ Imperfec	ct, aorist and pluper	fect (<i>secondary tenses</i>) of the	e indicative and all tenses of	f optative:	
□ 2 nd	person: -σθον	3 rd person: -σθην			
 τῶν 	• • •	ράφοντες The two children deς προσελθόντε Ἄγιδι διελ dt to make battle (Thucydide	εγέσθην μὴ ποιεῖν μάχην	Two men of the A rgives went	
3/ Imperati	ve (all tenses):				
☐ 2 nd	person: -σθ ον	\square 3 rd person: $-\sigma\theta\omega\nu$			
• ὧ πο	ñδε, παύεσθον γράφ	ουντες CHILDREN, STOP WRITI	NG BOTH OF YOU!		
c) Passive	e voice				[500]
The passive for the activ		ings as for the middle, excep	in the aorist indicative, w	here the endings are the same as	5
□ 2 nd	person: -τον	3 rd person: -την			
• τούτ	τω τὼ βίβλω ἐγραφήτ	ην ύπὸ τοῦ ἐμοῦ διδασκάλου	These books were written	BY MY TEACHER.	

c) Homeric dialect

1. General remarks [501]

The artificial language used by Homer is predominantly Ionic, but it also has a considerable Aeolian component, aside from other dialectical forms, archaisms and so on. Some instances of divergence from the Attic dialect can be explained easily by the influence of another dialect (for example, the Aeolian dative plural -εσσι), while others seem random. In such cases, it must be taken into account that metric needs impose some changes on certain words. For example, double consonants where there should only be one, short vowels that become long by diphthongation, etc. Indeed, the feeling of irregularity experienced when reading Homeric works is heightened by the juxtaposition of these strange forms with regular Attic forms. Here, we will try to offer a short summary of the main differences of the Homeric dialect with respect to the Attic dialect. This is not, however, an exhaustive presentation on the Homeric dialect, but rather offers some of the main instances as a kind of "introduction", to give readers an idea of what can be expected in Homer.

2. Article

Some alternative forms of the article are used:

Gen. sing.: $\tau \tilde{vvo} = \tau \tilde{vv} \Leftrightarrow \text{See further down in } \textit{Declensions}.$

□ Gen. sing.: τοῦο = τοῦ ♦ See further down in*Declensions*.□ Nom. pl.: <math>τοἱ = οἱ, ταἱ = αἱ □ Gen. fem. pl.: τάων = τὧν

□ Gen. fem. pl.: τάων = τῶν□ Dat. fem. pl.: τῆς = ταᾶς□ Dat. masc. pl. and neuter: τοᾶσι = τοᾶς

• οἳ μὲν ἐκήρυσσον, τοὶ δ᾽ ἠγείροντο μάλ᾽ ὧκα Some made the announcement, and the others gathered quickly (liad II, 52).

ταὶ δὲ μεγάλα κτυπέουσαι πῖπτον ...
 AND THEY [TREES] KEPT FALLING WITH A MIGHTY NOISE (Iliad XXIII, 119).

3. Declensions [503]

a) Second declension

The genitive sing. of the second declension offers a form called the Mycenaean genitive:

 \Box -οιο instead of -ου For example: ἀνέμοιο = ἀνέμου

• ὄφρ' ὁ γέρων ἵπποιο παρηορίας ἀπέταμνε ... While the old man cut the reins of the horse ... (Iliad VIII, 87).

b) Third declension

The third declension offers these forms in genitive singular:

□ γένευς = γένους □ βασιλῆος = βασιλέως

 \diamond Quantitative metathesis: the two vowels swap their condition - the short one becomes long, and vice-versa.

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It offers also an Aeolian dative plural: -εσσι

🗖 φυλάκεσσι = φύλαξι

- πάντων μὲν κρατέειν ἐθέλει, πάντεσσι δ' ἀνάσσειν ΗΕ WANTS TO CONQUER ALL, AND TO RULE OVER ALL (Iliad I, 288).
- αὐτὰρ ἐπεὶ κόσμηθεν ἄμ' ἡγεμόνεσσιν ἕκαστοι ...
 (Iliad III, 1).

Aside from these general characteristics, words like $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota \varsigma$ may have various alternatives for several cases. For example, the Acc. pl. may be $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota \alpha \varsigma$, $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota \alpha \varsigma$ or $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota \varsigma$.

4. Adjectives [504]

a) Feminine forms in compound adjectives

Homer often uses the 1st declension feminine forms of some adjectives, which, in Attic, would follow the 2-2-2 scheme, for example $\dot{\alpha}\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\alpha\tau\sigma\varsigma$, $-\alpha$, $-\alpha\nu = \dot{\alpha}\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\alpha\tau\sigma\varsigma$, $-\alpha\varsigma$, $-\alpha\nu$.

In fact, examples of this can be found in the Attic dialect, as some $-o\varsigma$, $-o\varsigma$, -ov adjectives can also appear as $-o\varsigma$, $-\alpha/-\eta$, -ov; nevertheless, it is a much more frequent occurrence in Homer.

b) πολύς, πολλή, πολύ

Sometimes, Homer makes this adjective follow regular forms in the nominative: $\pi o \lambda \lambda \acute{o} \varsigma$, $-\acute{o} v$.

• πολλὸς δ' ἐπελήλατο χαλκός Much bronze had been welded (Iliad XIII, 804).

Moreover, he adopts 3^{rd} declension endings for some forms:

□ πολέες = πολλοί □ πολέος = πολλοῦ

🗖 πολέεσσι = πολλοῖς

• πολεές γὰρ ἐπ' αὐτῷ κάππεσον For many had fallen upon him (Iliad XVI, 661).

c) Comparatives and superlatives

Homer makes some unusual comparatives and superlatives follow the regular pattern instead of the irregular one:

βέλτερος = βελτίωνφέρτερος = βελτίων

🗖 φέρτατος = βέλτιστος

• βέλτερον αὖτ' ἔριδι ζυνελαυνέμεν ὅττι τάχιστα It is better to Join in Battle as Quickly as possible (Iliad XXII, 129).

5. **Pronouns** [505]

a) Personal pronouns

Homer uses several alternative forms of personal pronouns, sometimes even several forms for the same case.

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Singular
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\Box 1st person: ἐμεῖο, ἐμεῦ, ἐμεῦ, ἐμέθεν = ἐμοῦ
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 \Box 2nd person: τύνη = σύ and σεῖο, σεῦ, σέθεν = σοῦ

 \square 3rd person (anaphoric): $\mu \nu = \alpha \dot{\nu} \dot{\tau} \dot{\rho} \dot{\nu}$

• χειρί τέ $\mu \nu \nu$ κατέρεξεν And she stroked him with her hand (Iliad I, 361).

• ἐγὰ δὲ **σέθεν** πολὺ χείρων And I am much worse than you (Iliad XX, 434).

Plural

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\square 1st person: ἄμμες = ἡμεῖς and ἄμμε = ἡμᾶς \diamondsuit Observe the difference in breathing. \square 2nd person: ὅμμες = ὑμεῖς and ὅμμε = ὑμᾶς \diamondsuit Observe the difference in breathing.
```

• πόλεμον δ' οὐκ ἄμμε κελεύω δύμεναι Ι do not command that we descend into war (Iliad XIV, 62).

• αὐτίκα δ' ὔμμε κατακτενεῖ He will kill you immediately (Iliad XXIII, 412).

b) Possessive pronouns

[506]

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\square 2<sup>nd</sup> person sing.: \tau \acute{\epsilon} o \varsigma = \sigma \acute{o} \varsigma
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 \Box 3rd person sing.: $\dot{\epsilon}$ ός, ὄς = HIS \diamondsuit Inexistent in Attic.

 \Box 1st person pl.: ἀμός = ἡμέτερος \Box 2nd person pl.: ὑμός = ὑμέτερος

• σὺ δὲ παῦε τεὸν μένος And you, stop your fury (Iliad I, 282).

• πατέρ' ἀμὸν ἀπέκτανε δῖος ἀχιλλεύς Divine Achilles killed our father (Iliad VI, 414).

c) Demonstrative pronouns

Instead of the demonstrative itself, the article can be used:

- τὸν ὁρ $\tilde{\omega}$ I see HIM. \Rightarrow In Attic, we would say $\alpha \dot{v}$ τὸν ὀρ $\tilde{\omega}$.
- τὸν δ' ἀπαμειβόμενος προσέφη πολύμητις Ὀδυσσεύς Odysseus of the many counsels answered him and said (Iliad X, 423).

The relative in nominative may mean THAT, as if it were the corresponding form of $\dot{\epsilon}\kappa\tilde{\epsilon}ivo\varsigma$ (and without article):

• $\mathring{\mathbf{o}}$ ς ἄνθρωπος THAT MAN. \diamondsuit In Attic, we would say ἐκεῖνος $\mathring{\mathbf{o}}$ ἄνθρωπος.

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d) Relative pronoun [507]

Instead of the relative, the article may be used:

- ὁ ἄνθρωπος τὸν ὁρῶ ΤΗΕ ΜΑΝ ΤΗΑΤ I SEE.
- \Rightarrow In Attic, we would say ὁ ἄνθρωπος $\eth \mathbf{v}$ ὁρ $\tilde{\omega}$.
- ἡρᾶθ' ὁ γεραιὸς ᾿Απόλλωνι ἄνακτι, τὸν ἡὕκομος τέκε Λητώ

 The old man prayed to the Lord Apollo, whom fair-haired Leto bore (Iliad I, 36).

The indefinite relative presents some unusual forms. For example:

```
□ ὅττι = ὅτι□ ὅττεο = οὧτινος
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• ... εἰ δὴ σοὶ πᾶν ἔργον ὑπείξομαι ὅττί κεν εἴπης ... IF I AM TO YIELD TO YOU IN ANY MATTER, WHATEVER YOU SAY (Iliad I, 294).

e) Interrogative pronoun

Apart from the usual forms, it may also present these ones:

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    Gen. sing.: τεῦ = τίνος
    Dat. sing.: τέφ = τίνι
    Gen. pl.: τέων = τίνων
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• τίς δὲ σύ ἐσσι φέριστε τέων δ' ἔξεσσι τοκήων; Who are you, noble man, and from which parents? (Iliad XXIV, 387).

6. Prepositions [508]

a) The final vowel

The final vowel of a preposition disappears, and the consonant (which is now, after the elision of the final vowel, the last letter of the preposition) experiences a phonetic assimilation to the consonant with which the following word begins:

```
    □ κάλλιπε = κατ(έ)λιπε
    □ κὰκ κεφαλῆς = κατ(ὰ) κεφαλῆς
    □ κὰρ ῥόον = κατ(ὰ) ῥόον
    □ ἄμ πεδίον = ἀν(ὰ) πεδίον
```

• ἀχαιοὺς κάλλιπες You left the Achaeans (Iliad XXI, 414).

• θῦνε γὰρ ἄμ πεδίον For He stormed across the plain (Iliad V, 87).

b) Anastrophe

🗖 τῆς πόλεως ἄπο instead of ἀπὸ τῆς πόλεως

Observe the change in the position of the accent. In fact, this phenomenon also takes place in Attic, but it is much more frequent in the Homeric dialect.

• ἐπεσσεύοντο νεῶν ἄπο They hurried from the ships (Iliad II, 208).

c) Lack of preposition	
Sometimes prepositions are not used:	[509]
 □ ἔρχονται πεδίοιο They are going across the plain instead of ἔρχονται διὰ τοῦ πεδίου ♦ Observe the absence of the article (as well as the Mycenaean genitive). □ ἔβαν ναῦν I EMBARKED ONTO THE SHIP instead of ἔβην εἰς τὴν ναῦν 	
• μάλα δ' ὧκα διέπρησσον πεδίοιο And they rushed very quickly across the plain (Iliad II, 785).	
It could be argued that the preposition $διά$ is incorporated into $διέπρησσον$, but:	
• ἔρχονται πεδίοιο μαχησόμενοι προτὶ ἄστυ They go across the plain to fight against the city (Iliad II, 801).	
d) Unusual cases	
We can find prepositions with unusual cases:	
□ μετὰ ἀνδράσι WITH THE MEN ♦ μετά can not be followed by dative in Attic.	
• ἐγὼ μετὰ πᾶσιν ἀτιμοτάτη θεός εἰμι	
7. Spelling	[510]
Some words may contain double consonants:	
🗖 ὅττι = ὅτι 🗎 ἔσσομαι = ἔσομαι 🗎 ἔλλαβε = ἔλαβε	
• φόβος ἔλλαβε πάντας Fear seized all of them (Iliad XI, 402).	
In some words, a dental consonant can be found instead of a sigma:	
🗖 ἴδμεν = ἴσμεν	
• τό γε δὴ καὶ ἴδμεν ἄπαντες All of us know this (Iliad VII, 281).	
8. Suffixes	[511]
-φι is an instrumental and locative suffix:	
Θύρηφι AT THE DOORS Βίηφι BY FORCE	
- $ heta arepsilon_{oldsymbol{v}}$ means place from, and - $ heta arepsilon_{oldsymbol{v}}$ means place to where	
🗖 οὐρανόθεν FROM HEAVEN 📮 ἀγορήνδε TOWARDS THE AGORA	
$- heta\iota$ is a locative suffix:	

🗖 οἴκοθι ΑΤΗΟΜΕ

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αὐτὰρ ἐγὼν ἀγορήνδε ἐλεύσομαι
 Τά τ' ἔνδοθι καὶ τὰ θύρηφι
 Τό το της ανό της ανό του τοιαῦτα καὶ αὐτῷ οἴκοθι κεῖται
 Το καθε καὶ τὰ θύρηφι
 Το καθε καὶ τὰ θύρηφι
 Το καθε καὶ τὰ θύρηφι
 Το καθε καὶ αὐτῷ οἴκοθι κεῖται
 Ος καγβε με μας such devices at home (Odyssey XXI, 398).

These suffixes can also be found in Attic (except $- \omega$), but they are much more frequent in Homer.

9. Verbal forms [512]

a) Verb εἰμί

 \square 2nd singular: ἐσσί, εἶς = εἷ \square infinitive: ἔμμεν, ἔμμεναι = εἷναι

Other verbs also apply the endings $-\mu \epsilon \nu$ and $-\mu \epsilon \nu \alpha \tau$ to form their infinitives.

- τίς δὲ σύ ἐσσι φέριστε τέων δ' ἔξεσσι τοκήων; Who are you, noble man, and from which parents? (Iliad XXIV, 387).
- βούλομ' ἐγὰ λαὸν σῶν ἔμμεναι Ι WANT MY PEOPLE TO BE SAFE (Iliad I, 117).

b) Augment

It is optional. Sometimes we will encounter forms that have it and others that do not:

 \Box λῦσε = ἔλυσε \Box β $\tilde{η}$ = ἔβη

- ἵππους μὲν λ ῦσε He unyoked the horses (Iliad VIII, 440).
- Τυδεΐδη Διομήδεϊ Παλλὰς ᾿Αθήνη δῶκε μένος καὶ θάρσος Το Diomedes, son of Tydeus, Pallas Athene gave strength and courage (Iliad V, 1-2).

c) Contract verbs [513]

Verbs that are $-\alpha$ - contract in Attic experience a double phenomenon. Firstly, they appear without contraction, but, moreover, as if they were $-\alpha$ - contract verbs:

 \Box $\dot{o}\rho\dot{o}\omega$ = $\dot{o}\rho\tilde{\omega}$ ($\dot{o}\rho\dot{\alpha}\omega$)

• ... ὀρόων ἐπ' ἀπείρονα πόντον ... LOOKING ONTO THE BOUNDLESS SEA (Iliad I, 350).

d) Other verbal characteristics

The mentioned infinitive endings in $-\mu \epsilon v$ and $-\mu \epsilon v \alpha t$:

🗖 τιθήμεναι = τιθέναι

Infinitives of the verb $oi\delta \alpha$:

- 🗖 ἴδμεν, ἴδμεναι = εἰδέναι
- σὲ δὲ ἴδμεναι αὐτὸν όῗω ΙτΗΙΝΚ YOU KNOW HIM (Iliad XIII, 273).

e) Tmesis

The prepositional prefix may be split from the verb stem:

🗖 ἐκ δ' αὐτοὶ ἔβαν = ἐξέβαν δ' αὐτοί

• ἐκ δὲ καὶ αὐτοὶ βαῖνον ἐπὶ ῥηγμῖνι θαλάσσης And they disembarked onto the seashore (Iliad I, 437).

10. Conjunctions

[514]

a/ Conditional:

 $\Box \alpha i = \epsilon i$

b/ Temporal:

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□ ἦμος, εὖτε = ὅτε □ πάρος = πρίν
□ ἦμος = ἔως □ εἰς ὅκεν = ἔως ἄν
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- ἔνθ΄ μεν ἔμεινε πάρος Διὸς ὄσσε ἰδέσθαι There Sleep stopped, before Zeus' eyes would see him (Iliad XIV, 286).
- ἦμος δ' ἠέλιος κατέδυ ...
 When the sun set ... (Iliad I, 475).
- εὖτε πύλας ἵκανε ... (Iliad VI, 392).

c/ Temporal and purpose:

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🗖 ὄφρα = ἕως, ἵνα
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• ὄφρα μὲν ἡὼς ἦν ... While it was morning ... (Iliad VIII, 66).

11. Particle κέν [515]

Instead of αv we can find $\kappa \dot{\epsilon} v$:

- τοῦτο ἐγὰ ποιήσαιμι **κέν** Ι WOULD DO THIS.
- τότε **κέν** μιν ίλασσάμενοι πεπίθοιμεν Τhen, praying, we might propitiate him (Iliad I, 100).

Furthermore, the presence or absence of this modal particle is very variable, and it is possible that we do not find it in constructions where we would find it in Attic.

• οὐδέ τί πώ μοι πρόφρων τέτληκας εἰπεῖν ἔπος ὅττι νοήσης ... And you never tell me anything with a ready heart, whatever you may plan (Iliad I, 542-3).

We would have expected the usual $\check{\alpha}v$ or $\kappa \acute{\epsilon}v$ in order to express the sense of uncertainty, but there is no sign of either.

d) Words that are easily confused

In Greek, we often encounter words that appear to be almost identical, and which therefore may lead to confusion in meaning. These words differ only very slightly, perhaps in one letter or maybe even only in the accent or the breathing. Here we will present the words students most commonly confuse.

1. Non-verbal forms	[516]
🗆 αἰνός and αἶνος	\Box $lpha\lambda\lambdalpha$ and $lpha\lambda\lambdalpha$
 αἰνός, -ή, -όν DREADFUL αἶνος, -ου TALE 	 ἀλλά BUT ἄλλα neuter plural of ἄλλος
🗖 ἄρα, ἀρά and ἆρα	🛘 αὐτός and αὑτός
 ἄρα SO THEN ἀρά, -ᾶς CURSE, PRAYER, DESTRUCTION ἄρα particle that introduces 	 αὐτός same (if preceded by article) or self αὑτός contraction of ὁ αὐτός
a question	\diamond The same applies for the feminine $α \dot{v} τ \dot{\eta}$ and $α \dot{v} τ \dot{\eta}$.
🗖 αὐτόν and αὑτόν	
 αὐτόν accusative of αὐτός αὑτόν contraction of the reflexive ἑαυτόν 	
 The same applies for αὐτήν and αὑτήν, αὐτῷ and Note that while αὑτός and αὑτή are contractions (αὐτόν, αὑτῆς, etc.) they are contractions of the 	of the pronoun with the article, in the oblique cases
🗆 βασίλεια and βασιλεία	🗆 δῖα and διά
 βασίλεια, -ας QUEEN βασίλειον, -ου PALACE † plural βασίλεια, same meaning βασιλεία, -ας KINGDOM, ROYALTY 	• $\delta \tilde{\iota}$ oς, - α , - ov divine • $\delta \iota \acute{\alpha}$ through, because of
□εĭ and εἷ	🗆 ἔπαινος and ἐπαινός
• $\mathbf{\epsilon}$ i $\mathbf{\epsilon}$i followed by an enclitic = $\mathbf{\epsilon}$ i	• ἔπαινος, -ου PRAISE
• $ec{\epsilon i}$ YOU ARE	• ἐπαινός, -ή, -όν AWFUL

🗖 ή and ή	\Box $\mathring{\eta}_{V}$ and $\mathring{\tilde{\eta}}_{V}$
 ἡ EITHER, OR ἡ TRULY and also imperfect of εἰμί 	 ἤν ἐάν contracts into ἤν in some texts ἦν imperfect of εἰμί
lacksquare eta and eta e $lpha$	🗖 μύριοι and μυρίοι
 θέα, -ας SPECTACLE θεά, -ᾶς GODDESS 	 μύριοι TEN THOUSAND μυρίοι COUNTLESS
🗆 νομός and νόμος	🗆 oi, αi and oĭ, αἴ
 • νομός, -οῦ	 οἰ, αἰ are articles οἴ, αἴ are relative pronouns
$oldsymbol{\Box}$ olog and olog	🗆 ὄρος and ὄρος
 οἶος, -α, -ον SUCH AS οἴος, -η, -ον ALONE ♦ Its adverb οἶον means ONLY 	 ὄρος, -ους MOUNTAIN † This noun belongs to the 3rd declension. ὄρος, -ου BOUNDARY, LIMIT † This noun belongs to the 2nd declension.
🗖 οὐδέ and οὕτε	🗖 οὐκοῦν and οὔκουν
 οὐδέ ANDNOT This is simply the combination of οὐ and δέ οὕτε NEITHER/NOR 	 οὐκοῦν THEREFORE οὔκουν THEREFORENOT Observe that the change of accent alters the meaning entirely.
🖵 ταῦτα and ταὐτά	lacksquare $ au$ $ au$ is and $ au$ is
 ταῦτα plural of τοῦτο ταὐτά contraction of τὰ αὐτά 	 τίς WHO, WHAT The forms found with accent on the iota are interrogatives: τίνα, τίνες, τίνι, τί, etc.
 ὧμος and ἀμός • ὧμος, -ου SHOULDER • ἀμός, -ή, -όν SAVAGE, RAW 	 τις ANY, SOME, A The forms with no accent or with an accent that is not on the first iota are indefinites: τινα, τινός, τινες, τινί, τι, etc
🗖 τοῦτον and ταὐτόν	\Box $\phi \widetilde{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ and $\phi \widetilde{\omega}_{\varsigma}$
 τοῦτον accusative singular of οὖτος ταὐτόν contraction of τὸ αὐτό When, and only when, this specific contraction takes place, a final -v can be 	 • φῶς, φωτός τό LIGHT ⇒ The same as φάος, -ους τό. • φώς, φωτός ὁ HUMAN BEING

added to αὐτό.

WORDS THAT ARE EASILY CONFUSED 346

2. Verbal forms [517]

```
🗖 αίρέω and αἴρω
```

```
♦ Aorist εἷλον
• αἱρέω
                TO TAKE
                                 \Rightarrow Aorist \tilde{\eta}\rho\alpha
• αἴρω
                TO RAISE
```

 \Box $\delta \acute{\epsilon} \omega$ and $\delta \acute{\epsilon} \omega$

There are two verbs that have the same forms for the present, but not for the aorist.

```
• δέω
        TO BIND
                  ♦ Aorist ἔδησα
• δέω
                  ♦ Aorist ἐδέησα
        TO NEED
```

The well-known impersonal $\delta \tilde{\epsilon \iota}$ is related to the latter, and its agrist is $\dot{\epsilon} \delta \dot{\epsilon} \eta \sigma \epsilon$.

□ εἶναι, ἰέναι, εἶναι and ἱέναι

Some forms of the verbs εἰμί, εἶμι and ἵημι are very similar: εἰσί τΗΕΥ ARE and εἶσι ΗΕ/SHE GOES, etc. Even the second singular of $\varepsilon i \mu i$ and $\varepsilon i \mu i$ coincides: εi . The infinitives are as follows:

```
• εἶναι pres. inf. of
                         είμί ΤΟ ΒΕ

    iévat

         pres. inf. of
                         Eim TOGO
```

• ἱέναι pres. inf. of ἴημι TO CAST, TO SEND

• είναι aorist inf. of ἵημι το CAST, το SEND

□ ἐρῶ

- present of έράω I FALL IN LOVE
- ἐρῶ future of λέγω I WILL SAY

The irregular verb $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ to say has its own future, $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \xi \omega$, but this form is rarely used, the irregular $\acute{\epsilon} \rho \widetilde{\omega}$ (contraction from ἐρέω) is much more frequent. This form is in fact the liquid future of the verb εἴρω το say; however, this verb is hardly used in the present tense.

□ ἔσομαι and εἴσομαι

```
• ἔσομαι
          future of εἰμί Ι WILL BE
• εἴσομαι future of οἶδα Ι WILL KNOW
```

 \Box $\eta\delta\eta$ and $\eta\delta\eta$

- $\eta\delta\eta$ imperfect of $ο\delta\delta\alpha$ I knew \diamond In fact, $\eta\delta\eta$ is a pluperfect with imperfect meaning.
- ηδη ALREADY

🗆 ἧκα

```
    ἦκα perfect of ἤκω I have arrived
    ἦκα aorist of ἵημι I have sent
```

Both verbs ἤκω and ἵημι have identical perfects.

\Box $\tilde{\eta}\sigma\alpha\nu$ and $\tilde{\eta}\sigma\alpha\nu$

- ἦσαν imperfect of οἶδα They knew $\Leftrightarrow \text{In fact, ἦσαν is a pluperfect with imperfect meaning.}$
- ἦσαν imperfect of εἰμί THEY WERE

🛘 ἴσθι

- ἴσθι imperative of εἰμί Be! ἴσθι imperative of οἶδα Know!
- 🗖 μέλλω and μέλω
 - μέλλω το be about to \diamond Aorist ἐμέλλησα
 - μέλω το be an object of care / το care for ${}^{\diamondsuit}$ Aorist ἐμέλησα

🗖 πείσομαι

πείσομαι future of πάσχω I WILL SUFFER
πείσομαι future of πείθομαι I WILL OBEY

The two verbs have the same form in the future tense.

Index of grammatical terms

This index contains the English terms and expressions that have been used in the presentation of Greek grammar.

In some cases, the same function can be found under two or more different entries; for instance, the *Dative of purpose* can be found both under *Dative* and under *Purpose*. This will help students to find the requested item more easily. Also, in some cases it makes more sense to name the grammatical item in the singular or in the plural, independently from whether the entry is in singular or plural; for instance, under the entry of *Prepositions* (it is customary to use the plural when introducing this concept) we find the sub-entry *Lack of prep.*, obviously *Lack of preposition*, while further down we find the sub-entry *Preps. of one case*, obviously *Prepositions of one case*. The presence or absence of a final *-s* will make it clear.

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Index of Greek words

This index contains the Greek grammatical words, i.e. words associated to some grammatical function (like for instance $iv\alpha$ is associated to purpose clauses) or that have to be presented in the study of the grammar even if they are not associated to any definite grammatical function (like for instance the numeral $\epsilon i\varsigma$). It does not contain either the vocabulary used in the examples (all the examples, in any case, are translated) or the vocabulary of the lists of frequent terms that follow a given parameter.

With respect to the verbal forms, including all the irregular forms of each verb introduced in the grammar would have been excessive, but the strong agrists, given their importance, and also some other very important verbal forms have been included.

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πότε [115] σύ [76] τοιούτος [125], [128], [313] φόβος [347] ποτέ [116], [124] συμβαίνει [284], [288] τοσούτον [339] φύω [179], [187] πότερον [280], [425] συμφέρει [284] τοσούτος [125], [128], [313] χαίρω [178] πότερος [88], [30] σύν [242] τοσούτος [132], [128], [313] χαίρω [178] πότερος [88], [130] σύνειμι [205] τότε [112] χείρων [69] που [116], [123] συνίτημι [201] τούτοω [497] χθές [112] πράττοω [190] συνίστημι [190] τρεῖς [62-63] χρεύν [402] πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρίν [303-304] σφόδρα [108] τρίγρις [39] χρῖνν [286], [286] πρίν [303-304] σφῶ [497] τρίς [66] ὧ [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὧδε [107], [122], [256], πρότεα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [492] [250], [250], [255], τάχιστος [69] τόδε [497] τόδε [497] [310], [340], [361], [381], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχίς [69] τόδε [497] [310], [340], [361], [381], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχίς [69] τόδε [497] [310], [340], [361],	πόσος	[88], [128]	σεαυτόν	[84]	τοῖν	[492]	φθάνω	[179], [391]
ποτέ [116], [124] συμβοίνει [284], [288] τοσούτον [339] ούω [179], [187] πότερον [280], [425] συμφέρει [284] τοσούτος [125], [128], [313] χαίρω [178] πότερος [88], [130] σύν [242] τοσούτφ [339] χείριστος [69] ποῦ [115], [123] σύνειμι [205] τότε [112] χείρων [69] ποῦ [116], [123] συνίημι [201] τούτω [497] χθές [112] πράττω [190] συνίστημι [199] τρεῖς [62-63] χρεόν [402] πρέπει [284] σοᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σόδρα [108] τρίηρης [39] χρῆν [286], [218], [227] πρότ [240] σόδρα [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὧε [107], [122] πρότεμι [201] τάχα [108] τυχάν [177], [390] ὧε [107], [121-122], [256], πρότκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [407] [407] ὧε [107], [121-122], [256], πρότ [250], [255], τάχιστος [69] τάδε [449-450] τάδε [4497] τόδε [79] [30], [30], [30], [30], πρότον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] τάπερς [79] [30], [30] [30], [315] πρότον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] τάπερς [256], [256] τάχιστα [189] τάχιστος [469] τάδε [449-450] τάρε [190], [302] τάπερς [130], [315] πρότον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] τάπερς [246] τάπερς [177] τέμνω [177], [278-279] πόδε [115], [121] τέμνω [177] τέμνω [177] τάπερς [251], [251], [360] τάπερ [340-341], [382] πρότον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] τάπερς [251], [251]	ποσος	[128]	σός	[78]	τοίνυν	[456]	φοβέομαι	[344-346]
πότερον [280], [425] συμφέρει [284] τοσούτος [125], [128], [313] χαίρω [178] πότερος [68], [130] σύν [242] τοσούτω [339] χείριστος [69] ποῦ [115], [123] σύνειμι [205] τότε [112] χείρων [69] που [116], [123] συνίημι [201] τούτω [497] χθές [112] πράττω [190] συνίστημι [199] τρεῖς [62-63] χρεόν [402] πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφόδρα [108] τριήρης [39] χρῆν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφῶ [497] τρίς [60] ἄ [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ἄδε [107], [121-122], [256], πρόπα [108] τάχτα [108] τυχών [461] άξς [194], [294], [294], [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [492] [492] [294], [294], [294], [296], [287], πρόσειμι [205] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [497] [310], [340], [347], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] τάχιστος [69] τύςς [47] ἄς [47] ἄς [18], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] τύμέτερος [78] ἄστε [340-341], [382] πρόστον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] τάτος [62-63] τάτος [360] τάτος [477] τέμνω [177], [278-279] τάτος [108], [122] τάτος [108], [122] τάτος [108], [122] τάτος [108], [123] τάτος [108], [108], [108], [108] τάτος [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108], [108],	πότε	[115]	σύ	[76]	τοιοῦτος	[125], [128], [313]	φόβος	[347]
πότερος [88], [130] σύν [242] τοσύτφ [339] χείριστος [69] ποῦ [115], [123] σύνειμι [205] τότε [112] χείρων [69] που [116], [123] συνίημι [201] τούτω [497] χθές [112] πράττω [190] συνίστημι [199] τρέξ [62-63] χρεόν [402] πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρήν [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρίγης [39] χρήν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφᾶ [497] τρίς [66] ὦ [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυχάνω [177], [390] ὧδε [107], [121-122], [256], προῖκαι [108] τάχα [108] τυχών [461] ὡς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], προσηίκου [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε	ποτέ	[116], [124]	συμβαίνει	[284], [288]	τοσοῦτον	[339]	φύω	[179], [187]
ποῦ [115], [123] σύνειμι [205] τότε [112] χείρων [69] που [116], [123] συνίημι [201] τούτω [497] χθές [112] πράττω [190] συνίστημι [199] τρέζ [62-63] χρεόν [402] πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρίχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρίχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρό [402] σφᾶς [497] τρίχω [30] χρήν [286] πρό [234] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὧδε [218], [227] προῖ και [108] τάχιστα [108] τυχών [461] ώς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], πρότοι μα [108] τάχιστα [69] τώδε [497] [310]	πότερον	[280], [425]	συμφέρει	[284]	τοσοῦτος	[125], [128], [313]	χαίρω	[178]
που [116], [123] συνίημι [201] τούτο [497] χθές [112] πράττο [190] συνίστημι [199] τρεῖς [62-63] χρεόν [402] πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφόδρα [108] τριήρης [39] χρῆν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφῶ [497] τρίς [66] ὄ [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὄδε [107], [122] προῖεμαι [201] τάχα [108] τυχών [401] ὑς [71], [10], [121-122], [256], προῖκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [497] [401] ὑς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] τάδε [497] [310], [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ὑιός [47] ὄς [108], [122] προῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ὑμεῖς [76] ὅστερ [340-341], [382] πρῷ [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ἤτε [440] τέννθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὑφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πότερος	[88], [130]	σύν	[242]	τοσούτφ	[339]	χείριστος	[69]
πράττω [190] συνίστημι [199] τρεῖς [62-63] χρεόν [402] πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφόδρα [108] τριήρης [39] χρῆν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφᾶ [497] τρίς [66] ἄ χρῆν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφᾶ [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ἄδε [107], [122] πρό [201] τάχα [108] τυχάνω [477], [390] ἄδε [107], [121-122], [256], προῖκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294] [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ὑιός [492] [492] [310], [340], [347], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ὑιός [47] ὅς [108], [122] προῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ὑμεῖς [76] ὅσπερ [340-341], [382] πρό [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [231], [251] ὅστε [310], [315], [315] πρότον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [231], [251] ὑπέρ [231], [251]	ποῦ	[115], [123]	σύνειμι	[205]	τότε	[112]	χείρων	[69]
πρέπει [284] σφᾶς [84], [86] τρέχω [177] χρή [284], [286] πρέπον [402] σφόδρα [108] τριήρης [39] χρῆν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφῶ [497] τρίς [66] ὧ χρῆν [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὧδε [107], [122] προίεμαι [201] τάχα [108] τυχών [461] ώς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], προίκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ύιός [47] ὥς [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὥστεν [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὥστεν [310], [315], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [449-450] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [449-450] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [440-450] πνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177], [278-279]	που	[116], [123]	συνίημι	[201]	τούτω	[497]	χθές	[112]
πρέπον [402] σφόδρα [108] τριήρης [39] χρῆν [286] πρίν [303-304] σφῶ [497] τρίς [66] ὧ [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὧδε [107], [122] προίεμαι [201] τάχα [108] τυχών [461] ὧς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], προῖκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294], [294], [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ύιός [47] ὥς [108], [122] προῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὥσπερ [340-341], [382] πρφ΄ [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ύπέρ [246] ὧστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ύπόρ [231], [251]	πράττω	[190]	συνίστημι	[199]	τρεῖς	[62-63]	χρεόν	[402]
πρίν [303-304] σφῶ [497] τρίς [66] οι δια [218], [227] πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] οι δδε [107], [122] πρό [108] τάχα [108] τυχών [461] οις [71], [110], [121-122], [256], προῖκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294], [294], [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] υίος [47] οις [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] υμεῖς [76] οισπερ [340-341], [382] πρό [112] τέθνηκα [187] υμέτερος [78] οιστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] υπέρ [246] οιτε [460] οιτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] υπισχνέομαι [360] οιτε [177], [278-279] πος [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] υπό [231], [251]	πρέπει	[284]	σφᾶς	[84], [86]	τρέχω	[177]	χρή	[284], [286]
πρό [240] σχήσω [189] τυγχάνω [177], [390] ὧδε [107], [122] προίεμαι [201] τάχα [108] τυχών [461] ὡς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], προῖκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294], [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ὑιός [47] ὥς [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ὑμεῖς [76] ὥσπερ [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ὑμέτερος [78] ὥστε [340-341], [382] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [460] τυθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὧθελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρέπον	[402]	σφόδρα	[108]	τριήρης	[39]	χρῆν	[286]
προίεμαι [201] τάχα [108] τυχών [461] ώς [71], [110], [121-122], [256], προῖκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294], [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ύιός [47] ὥς [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὥσπερ [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὥστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ΅φελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρίν	[303-304]	σφῶ	[497]	τρίς	[66]	$\tilde{\omega}$	[218], [227]
προϊκα [108] τάχιστα [302] τώ [492] [294], [296], [298], [301], πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ύιός [47] ὅς [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὅσπερ [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὅστε [340-341], [382] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ύπέρ [246] ὅτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὅφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρό	[240]	σχήσω	[189]	τυγχάνω	[177], [390]	ώδε	[107], [122]
πρός [250], [255] τάχιστος [69] τώδε [497] [310], [340], [367], [382], [387] πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ύιός [47] ὅς [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὅσπερ [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὅστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὅτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὅφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	προίεμαι	[201]	τάχα	[108]	τυχών	[461]	ώς [71], [1	110], [121-122], [256],
πρόσειμι [205] ταχύς [69] ύιός [47] ὥς [108], [122] προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὥσπερ [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὥστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὤφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	προῖκα	[108]	τάχιστα	[302]	τώ	[492]		
προσῆκον [402] τε [449-450] ύμεῖς [76] ὅσπερ [340-341], [382] πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὅστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὅτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὄψελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρός	[250], [255]	τάχιστος	[69]	τώδε	[497]		
πρώ [112] τέθνηκα [187] ύμέτερος [78] ὥστε [310], [315] πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ὧτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὥφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρόσειμι	[205]	ταχύς	[69]	ὑιός	[47]	=	
πρῶτον [112], [302] τέλος [108], [223] ὑπέρ [246] ῷτε [460] πυνθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὥφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	προσῆκον	[402]	τε	[449-450]	ύμεῖς	[76]	ὥσπερ	
πουθάνομαι [177] τέμνω [177] ὑπισχνέομαι [360] ὥφελον [177], [278-279] πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρώ	[112]	τέθνηκα	[187]	ύμέτερος	[78]		[310], [315]
πῶς [115], [122] τέτταρες [62-63] ὑπό [231], [251]	πρῶτον	[112], [302]	τέλος	[108], [223]	ὑπέ ρ	[246]	φτε	
	πυνθάνομαι	[177]	τέμνω	[177]	ύπισχνέομαι	[360]	ἄφελον	[177], [278-279]
πως [116], [122] τήμερον [112] ὕστερον [112]	$\pi \tilde{\omega} \varsigma$	[115], [122]	τέτταρες	[62-63]	ύπό	[231], [251]		
	πως	[116], [122]	τήμερον	[112]	ὕστερον	[112]		