## Greek

An Essential Grammar of the Modern Language

David Holton, Peter Mackridge and Irene Philippaki-Warburton

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## An Essential Grammar of the Modern Language

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- Discussion of points which often cause problems
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David Holton, Peter Mackridge and Irene Philippaki-Warburton

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## Preface

The aim of this book is to provide a concise, but sufficiently detailed, description of the Greek language as spoken and written in Greece today. Greek is a highly inflected language, and consequently we have had to devote considerable space to the basic patterns of declension and conjugation which learners need to master. However, we also give close attention to the structure of phrases and sentences, i.e. to the syntax of the language, which other grammars have tended to treat rather cursorily. Throughout the book, our intention is to provide a reliable guide to Greek grammar and usage, up to date in terms of both its linguistic approach and the linguistic material we use to exemplify the various aspects of the language.

The book is intended to serve the needs of adult learners, both those attending classes and those studying alone, of school students up to A level, and of first-year university students, particularly beginners or near-beginners. The terminology used is to a great extent traditional, although we have made certain innovations in the interests of greater transparency and precision (as we did in the Comprehensive Grammar which we co-authored). For example, we talk about the simple past tense rather than the 'aorist', a term inherited from descriptions of Ancient Greek grammar, but no longer meaningful for the modern language. All linguistic terms are fully explained in the text, as well as in the glossary. We frequently contrast Greek with English, in order to aid the learner in understanding the linguistic concepts and categories involved. Attention is paid to particular points of difficulty for English-speaking learners and to the most important differences between the two languages. All the linguistic features we discuss are illustrated by appropriate examples of their use in whole phrases or sentences. We give priority to the everyday spoken language, and this is reflected in the idiomatic language of the English translations given for all examples. More formal spoken and written usages, whether of grammatical forms or of sentence structures, are also noted and signalled as such.

This grammar is intended to serve as a work of reference. It does not provide a graded course of study, for which we assume the learner will use other materials. (Some suggestions of suitable works are given at the end of the book.) What the book does offer, in comparison with most 'methods', is more detailed and systematically organized information about the linguistic features which the learner will encounter. Users can consult the grammar in order to supplement the basic information presented in course books, and thus acquire a fuller understanding of the grammatical structure of Greek and patterns of contemporary usage.

Some comparison should be made with our Greek: A Comprehensive Grammar of the Modern Language. The present volume is not simply a shortened version of the earlier one, omitting the less common features of the language. While it is true that we have omitted a good many morphological features that are not commonly used in the spoken language, the Essential Grammar is structured in a quite different way: grammatical forms and their usage are generally covered together (rather than being separated in different parts of the book). As far as possible we have avoided repetition of the same material, such as examples of usage. The presentation of grammatical phenomena in the present work takes into account the different needs of its users, and, as already mentioned, there is more explicit comparison with English. On the other hand, the two books have much in common as regards the analysis presented and the terminology used. Users of this book who wish to continue their study of Greek to a more advanced level will be able to progress to the Comprehensive Grammar, where they will find further and more detailed information about forms and structures which native speakers employ in spoken and written registers.

Finally, a note on pronunciation: in the sections that deal with the sounds of Greek and with stress patterns, the underlying sounds are given between slashes (/ /). These sounds may have different variants in pronunciation. The actual pronunciation is given in square brackets ([ ]), using a simplified version of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Learners who are not familiar with the IPA are advised to study the sections describing the pronunciation of individual vowels and consonants, and either to consult a native speaker or to listen to suitable cassettes, in order to acquire a sure grasp of the pronunciation of Greek, particularly of those sounds which are not found in English.

David Holton<br>Peter Mackridge<br>Irene Philippaki-Warburton<br>April 2003

## Abbreviations and symbols

```
acc. accusative (case)
adj. adjective
def. art. definite article
dep. dependent (verb form)
F or fem. feminine
gen. genitive (case)
imp. imperative (mood)
imperf. imperfect (tense)
indef. art. indefinite article
lit. literally
M or masc. masculine
N or neut. neuter
nom. nominative (case)
pass. passive (voice)
pl. plural
sg. singular
voc. vocative (case)
\dagger indicates a verb which has no passive perfective forms
// around letters or groups of letters indicates underlying sounds
[ ] around letters or groups of letters indicates actual pronunci-
ation, using an adapted version of the International Phonetic
Alphabet
after a letter indicates that the sound is palatalized
/ indicates alternatives
```


## Chapter I

## The alphabet and pronunciation

In this section we focus on letters, while in sections $1.2-1.8$ we concentrate on sounds.

## I.I The Greek alphabet

The Greek alphabet consists of twenty-four letters. The table on page 2 presents each letter (in upper and lower case) in alphabetical order, its Greek name, and its basic pronunciation (for further details of pronunciation see sections 1.2-1.6).

Anyone who knows how to pronounce the Greek letters can pronounce any written word in the language; this is unlike English, where we often don't know how a word is pronounced unless we have heard it spoken. On the other hand, as in English, it is often impossible to tell how to spell a word that we have heard spoken.

Taken on their own, seven letters of the alphabet represent vowel sounds $(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{\eta}, \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{o}, \mathbf{v}, \boldsymbol{\omega})$, and seventeen represent consonant sounds (all the rest). But when some letters are combined together, they are pronounced differently. Each of the following combinations represents a single sound:

|  |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

The combination $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ is pronounced [af] at the end of a word and before the following consonants: $\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{\kappa}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\chi}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}$, but [av] before a vowel or any other consonant (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\delta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \zeta, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{v})$. Similarly, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ is pronounced [ef]
The Greek alphabet

| Form | Name | Pronunciation |  | Form | Name | Pronunciation |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A $\alpha$ | $\alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda \varphi \alpha$ | [álfa] | $a$ | N | Vl | [ni] | $n$ |
| B $\beta$ | $\beta \dot{\eta} \tau \alpha$ | [víta] | $v$ | $\Xi \xi$ | $\xi \mathrm{l}$ | [ksi] | ks (x in 'wax') |
| $\Gamma \gamma$ | $\gamma \alpha \dot{\alpha} \mu \alpha$ | [ $\gamma$ áma] | $\gamma^{*}, y$ | O 0 | ó $\mu$ ıкроv | [ómikron] | 0 |
| $\Delta \delta$ | $\delta \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \tau \alpha$ | [8élta] | th in 'this' | $\Pi \pi$ | $\pi \mathrm{l}$ | [pi] | $p$ |
| E $\varepsilon$ | Éభı ${ }^{\text {cov }}$ | [épsilon] | e | P $\rho$ | $\rho 0$ | [ro] | $r$ |
| Z $\zeta$ | $\zeta \dot{\eta} \tau \alpha$ | [zíta] | Z | $\Sigma \sigma$ | $\sigma i \gamma \mu \alpha$ | [sízma] | $s$ |
| H $\eta$ | ๆ่ $\tau \alpha$ | [íta] | i | ( $\varsigma$ at end of word) |  |  |  |
| $\Theta \theta$ | $\theta \dot{\eta} \tau \alpha$ | [ $\theta$ íta] | th in 'thin' | T $\tau$ | $\tau \alpha v$ | [taf] | $t$ |
| I 1 | $\gamma ı \omega \dot{\tau} \alpha$ | [jóta] | i | $\Upsilon v$ | Ú $\psi 1 \lambda 0 v$ | [ípsilon] | 1 |
| K к | к $\alpha$ ¢ $\alpha$ | [kápa] | $k$ | $\Phi \varphi$ | $\varphi \mathrm{l}$ | [fi] | $f$ |
| $\Lambda \lambda$ | $\lambda \alpha \dot{\mu} \mu \alpha$ | [lám $\delta \mathrm{a}$ ] | 1 | X $\chi$ | $\chi 1$ | [ $x^{\prime}$ i] | $x^{*}$ |
| $\mathrm{M} \mu$ | $\mu \mathrm{l}$ | [mi] | m | $\Psi \psi$ | $\psi$ | [psi] | ps |
|  |  |  |  | $\Omega \omega$ | $\omega \mu \varepsilon ́ \gamma \alpha$ | [omé $\gamma \mathrm{a}$ ] | 0 |

*These two sounds do not correspond to anything in English; see section I.4.
or [ev] in the same positions, and the rare combination $\boldsymbol{\eta} v$ is pronounced [if] or [iv].

Pairs of identical consonants are pronounced like a single consonant, except $\gamma \gamma$, which is pronounced $[(\mathrm{y}) \mathrm{g}]$ or $\left[(\mathrm{y}) \mathrm{g}^{\prime}\right]$ (see section 1.4). In addition, the following combinations of letters representing consonants are pronounced in a special way:

```
\gamma\kappa like }\boldsymbol{\gamma}\boldsymbol{\gamma}\mathrm{ (see above)
\mu\pi [(m)b]
v\tau [(n)d]
\tau\zeta [dz]
```

Finally, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is pronounced $[\mathrm{z}]$ before a voiced consonant $(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\delta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{v})$.

## Pronunciation

## I.2 Vowels

The Greek sound system has five distinct vowels: /i, e, a, $\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u} /$.
The vowel /i/ is pronounced between the English vowel in 'bit' and that in 'beat'. The Greek vowel /i/ corresponds to six different spellings: $\mathbf{v}, \boldsymbol{\eta}, \mathbf{v}$,




The vowel /e/ is pronounced like the English vowel /e/ in 'kept' but it is pronounced slightly longer and with lips more open. The Greek /e/ corresponds to two different spellings: $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, e.g. $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ [léne] 'they say', $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i v e}$ [kléne] 'they cry'.

The vowel $/ \mathrm{a}$ / is similar to the $a$ in 'father'. It corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ Mapía [i maría] 'Mary'.

The vowel /o/ is pronounced between the English vowel in 'pot' and that in 'bought' but the lips are slightly more closed and more rounded. The vowel /o/ corresponds to two different spellings: $\boldsymbol{o}$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ [to סóro] 'the present'.

The vowel /u/ is somewhere between the vowels in the English words 'put' and 'boot'. It corresponds to the spelling ov, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{v}$ ' [tu pe $\delta$ jú] 'of the child'.

The vowel /i/ may lose its vowel quality and become non-syllabic if unstressed and followed by another vowel.

Non-syllabic /i/ is pronounced as [j] (like the $y$ in ' $y e s$ ') if it follows a voiced consonant [b, d, g, v, $\delta, \gamma, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}$ ], as in $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}[\mathrm{pe} \delta \mathrm{já}]$ 'children' (contrast $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [peסía] 'education'), or as voiceless [x'] (pronounced like the $h$ in 'huge') if it follows a voiceless consonant [p, t, k, f, $\theta, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{s}]$, as in $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{q} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [ráfx'a] 'shelves'. This general reduction of /i/ to [j], or [x'] does not apply to words from the more formal vocabulary: compare $\boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i}$ [vjolí] 'violin’ with $\boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o}$ [violóyos] 'biologist'.

### 1.3 Combinations of vowels

Combinations of two or three vowels are possible, e.g. veגןós [nearós] 'young man', véci $\lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa o ́ s}$ [neoelinikós] 'modern Greek'. In words like
 where the unstressed /i/follows a vowel, it may be pronounced like the $y$ in the English words 'toy', 'spy', 'stay', etc.

### 1.4 Consonants

There are twenty-five consonant sounds, which we represent by the following symbols: $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{f}, \theta, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{v}, \delta, \gamma, \mathrm{k}^{\prime}, \mathrm{x}^{\prime}, \mathrm{g}^{\prime}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}$, n, 1, n .

|  | Bilab |  | Labio | dental | Den | ntal | Alve | olar | Vel |  | Pala | atal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | VL | VD | VL | VD | VL | VD | VL | VD | VL | VD | VL | VD |
| Plosive | P | b |  |  | t | d |  |  | k | $g$ | $\mathrm{k}^{\prime}$ | $g^{\prime}$ |
| Nasal |  | m |  |  |  |  |  | n |  | y |  | y |
| Flap |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | r |  |  |  |  |
| Fricative |  |  | f | v | $\theta$ | $\delta$ |  |  | x | $\gamma$ | $x^{\prime}$ | j |
| Sibilant |  |  |  |  | s | z |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Liquid |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |  |  |  |  | 11 |  |
| VL: voiceless |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

[The voiceless plosives [p], $[\mathrm{t}]$ and $[\mathrm{k}]$ are pronounced like their English equivalents in 'spot', 'stay' and 'scot' respectively. However, unlike their English counterparts, these Greek consonants remain without aspiration (expulsion of breath) even in initial position before a vowel. [p] corresponds to the spelling $\pi$, e.g. о $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [opatéras] 'the father', ко́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{s}$ [kápos] 'somewhat'.

The voiced bilabial plosive [b] corresponds to the spelling $\mu \pi$. It is optionally preceded by a short [m] when it is within a word, e.g. коv $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{s}$ [ $\mathrm{ku}(\mathrm{m})$ báros] 'best man'. This preceding nasal is generally absent when [b] occurs at the beginning of a word, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \pi \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [bóta] 'boot'.

The voiceless dental plosive [t] corresponds to the spelling $\tau$, e.g. $\tau \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{o}$ [topotó] 'the drink'.

The voiced dental plosive [d] corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ and is optionally preceded by a short nasal [ n ] when it occurs within a word, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$ ¢ $\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{n})$ dípalos] 'opponent'. This preceding nasal is generally absent when [d] occurs at the beginning of a word, e.g. v七ı́v@ [díno] 'I dress (someone)'.

The voiceless velar plosive $[\mathrm{k}]$ corresponds to the spelling $\mathbf{\kappa}$, e.g. к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{o}$ s [kalós] 'good', $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ко́ $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ [akómi] 'still'. [ k$]$ has a variant [ k '], which is pronounced like the first consonant in the English word 'queue', before the vowels /e/ and /i/, e.g. кє́́pt [k'éfi] 'good mood', exєívos [ek'ínos] 'that one'.

The voiced velar plosive [g] corresponds to the spellings $\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ and $\gamma \mathbf{\kappa}$, and is optionally preceded by a nasal [ n ] (pronounced like the $n g$ in English
 $[\mathrm{g}]$ has a variant [g'], pronounced like the $g$ in 'singular', when it precedes either [e] or [i], e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa v o s}$ [é( y$) \mathrm{g}$ 'ios] 'pregnant'.

The voiceless labiodental fricative [ f ] is pronounced like the English $f$ in 'fat' and it corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\varphi}$, e.g. $\varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ [fáros] 'lighthouse', véqos [néfos] 'smog'. The letter $\mathbf{v}$ is also pronounced as [ f ] in the combination $\boldsymbol{\alpha v}$ or $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v}$ when it is followed by one of the following sounds $[p, t$,
 'responsibility'.

The voiceless dental fricative [ $\theta$ ] is pronounced like the $t h$ in the word 'think' and it corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [ $\theta$ élo] 'I want', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ [é日nos] 'nation'.

The voiceless velar fricative $[\mathrm{x}]$ is pronounced like the $c h$ in the Scottish word 'loch'. [x] corresponds to the spelling $\chi$, e.g. $\chi \mathbf{\rho o \rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ [xorós] 'dance',
$\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [tréxo] 'I run'. [x] has a variant [ x '] before the vowels [e] and [i], which is pronounced like the $b$ in 'huge', e.g. $\chi \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho}$ [x'éri] 'hand', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \chi$ й [arx'í] 'beginning'.

The voiced labiodental fricative [v] is pronounced like the $v$ in 'vain' and corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [várka] 'boat', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o}$ [av $\gamma$ ó] 'egg'. [v] also corresponds to the $\mathbf{v}$ in $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha v}$ when this combination is followed by a vowel or one of the following sounds $[\mathrm{v}, \delta, \gamma, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}]$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rho \varepsilon \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [majirévo] 'I cook', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \gamma \nu \omega \mu \boldsymbol { \sigma } v} \boldsymbol{v \eta}$ [ev $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ nomosíni] 'gratitude', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [pávo] 'I stop'.

The voiced dental fricative [ $\delta$ ] is pronounced like $t h$ in 'this' and corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\delta}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [ $\delta i ́ n o$ ] 'I give', 的 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [á $\delta i a]$ 'permission’.

The voiced velar fricative $[\gamma]$ is pronounced like $[\mathrm{x}]$ except that it is voiced (i.e. with vibration of the vocal chords). $[\gamma]$ corresponds to the spelling $\gamma$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [ $\gamma$ áta] 'cat', $\boldsymbol{\gamma 0 v \rho o v ́ v t ~ [ \gamma u r u ́ n i ] ~ ' p i g ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ [aүónas] 'struggle’. When $[\gamma]$ precedes either [e] or [i], it is pronounced [j] (like the $y$ in 'yes'), e.g. $\gamma \varepsilon \mathbf{c}$ i$\boldsymbol{\tau o v a s}$ [jítonas] 'neighbour', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [pijéno] 'I go'. [j] is also the result of the combination $\gamma+$ unstressed /i/ + vowel, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varsigma$ [jatrós] 'doctor'.

The voiceless dental sibilant [s] is pronounced like the English $s$ in 'simple' but with the front of the tongue touching the back of the teeth. It corresponds to the spellings $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ and (at the end of the word) s, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [sirá] 'row, series', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ [ $\delta$ ásos] 'forest'.

The voiced dental sibilant [z] is pronounced like the English $z$ but with the front of the tongue touching the back of the lower teeth. It corresponds to the spelling $\zeta$, e.g. Ђळ́vŋ [zóni] ‘belt’, $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o v ́ \zeta \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ [lúzo] 'I wash hair’. The sound [z] also corresponds to the spelling $\sigma$ when it is followed by one of the consonants [v, $\gamma, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ ], e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ [zmínos] ‘swarm’, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [zvíno] 'I erase'.

The dental liquid [l] is pronounced like the English $l$ in 'fellow' and it corresponds to the spelling $\lambda$, e.g. $\lambda \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ [ló $\gamma o s]$ 'word, speech', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \lambda \lambda \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ [polá] 'many'. The combination of $\lambda+$ unstressed $/ \mathbf{i} /+$ vowel gives the pronunciation [ $\left.l^{\prime}\right]$, where the middle of the top of the tongue touches the middle of the roof of the mouth, as in $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda l \dot{\alpha}$ [el'á] 'olive, olive tree'.

The voiced alveolar flap [r] is pronounced like the Scottish [r]. The front of the tongue taps the front of the roof of the mouth once or twice. It corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, e.g. vع $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ ó [neró] 'water', кv́pıos [k'írios] 'mister'.

The bilabial nasal $[\mathrm{m}]$ corresponds to the spelling $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \lambda \mathbf{\lambda}$ [mílo] 'apple', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [ $\theta$ éma] 'theme'.

The alveolar nasal [ n ] corresponds to the spelling $\mathbf{v}$, e.g. vó $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o}$ s [nómos] 'law', 'Avva [ána] 'Ann'. The variant [n] (pronounced like $n$ in British English 'new'), where the middle of the tongue touches the middle of the roof of the mouth, is the result of the combination $v+$ unstressed $/ \mathrm{i} /+$ vowel, e.g. $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha}$ [ená] 'nine'. The variant [y] (pronounced like the $n$ in anger), where the back of the tongue touches the back of the mouth, is found before one of the consonants $/ \mathrm{x}, \gamma, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g} /$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ [a(y)gónas] 'elbow', 自 $\gamma \boldsymbol{\chi o s}$ [áyxos] 'anxiety'.

## I. 5 Combinations of consonants

Greek has a rich system of consonant clusters (consisting of up to three consonants) at the beginning of a word and an even richer one (up to four consonants) in the middle of a word.

The pronunciation of combinations of consonants is straightforward. It normally corresponds to the spelling, except that the double consonants that appear in the spelling are pronounced as single consonant sounds: $\gamma \rho \dot{\alpha} \mu \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [ $\gamma \mathrm{ra}$ ma] 'letter', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [alá] 'but'. The only exception is the combination $\gamma \gamma$, which is pronounced as $[(\mathfrak{y}) \mathrm{g}]$ : $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho}$ [fe( $\mathfrak{y}$ )gári] 'moon'. Most of the English consonant combinations also occur in Greek. Below we list those two-consonant combinations of Greek which do not occur at the beginning of a word in English.

| ps | $\boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ [psári] | fish |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ts | $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ [tsépi] | pocket |
| ks | ¢́̇vos [ksénos] | reigner |
| dz | $\tau \zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha ́ K ı}$ [dzáki] | fireplace |
| pn | $\boldsymbol{\pi \nu \varepsilon v ́ \mu \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ [pnévma] | spirit |
| kn | $\boldsymbol{\kappa v \eta \sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ о́s [knizmós] | itching |
| tm | $\tau \mu \dot{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [tmíma] | section |
| kt | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \tau \eta ́ v o s ~ [ k t i ́ n o s ] ~}$ | beast |
| pt | $\boldsymbol{\pi \tau \boldsymbol { \eta } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \eta } \text { [ptísi] }}$ | flight |
| mn | $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ [mními] | memory |
| өl | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i} \psi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ [日lípsi] | sadness |
| ¢r | $\boldsymbol{\delta \rho о ́ \mu o s ~ [ \delta r o ́ m o s ] ~}$ | road |
| x | $\chi \lambda \mathbf{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ о́s [xlomós] | pale |
| xr | $\chi$ ¢óvos [xrónos] | time, year |
| vl | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ¢ [vlákas] | stupid |
| vr | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha ́ \delta v}$ [vrádi] | evening |
| $\gamma \mathrm{r}$ | $\gamma \rho \alpha \dot{\mu} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [ $\gamma \mathrm{ráma}$ ] | letter |

Combinations

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of
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of
consonants
consonants

| The alphabet and pronunciation | $\gamma 1$ | $\gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\kappa \kappa o ́ s ~ [ \gamma l i k o ́ s ] ~}$ | sweet |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ft | $\varphi \tau \omega \chi$ ¢́s [ftoxós] | poor |
|  | sө | $\sigma \theta \varepsilon ́ v o s ~[s \theta e ́ n o s] ~$ | strength |
|  | sx | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \chi o \lambda \varepsilon i ́ o ~ [ s x o l i ́ o ] ~}$ | school |
|  | v $\delta$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [vסomá Ca ] | week |
|  | $\mathrm{v} \gamma$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{¢} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [vүázo] | I take out |
|  | $\gamma \delta$ | $\gamma \delta$ v́v@ [ $\gamma \delta$ íno] | I undress (someone) |
|  | f $\theta$ |  | I arrive |
|  | ft | $\varphi \tau \boldsymbol{\rho}$ о́ [fteró] | wing |
|  | $\mathrm{x} \theta$ | $\chi \theta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{l v o ́ s ~ [ x \theta e s i n o ́ s ] ~}$ | yesterday's |
|  | $\gamma \mathrm{n}$ | $\gamma \nu \dot{\omega} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta}$ [ $\gamma \mathrm{nómi}$ ] | opinion |
|  | xn |  | trace |
|  | zm | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \mu \eta \prime} \mathbf{v o s}$ [zmínos] | swarm |
|  | zv | $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [zvíno] | I erase |
|  | z $\gamma$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \gamma o v \rho o ́ s ~ [ z \gamma u r o ́ s ] ~}$ | curly |

Note that the $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ in the spellings $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ of the last three examples above is pronounced [z].

There are combinations of three consonants, most of which also occur in English. We give below the three-consonant combinations which are not found at the beginning of a word in English.

| skl | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \rho o ́ s ~ [ s k l i r o ́ s ] ~}$ | hard |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| skn | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa v i ́ \pi \alpha}$ [sknípa] | gnat, midge |
| sfr | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \varphi \rho \boldsymbol { \varphi } \boldsymbol { \gamma } \boldsymbol { i } \zeta \boldsymbol { \omega } \text { [sfrajízo] }}$ I stamp |  |

An interesting characteristic of Greek is that many words may be found with two different consonant clusters, differing in both spelling and pronunciation, as in the following examples:

| oх兀ف́ [oxtó] | ок兀ढ́ [októ] | eight |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\chi \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ [xtes] | $\chi \theta \varepsilon \varsigma$ [x x es] | yesterday |
| $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varphi \tau \alpha ́ \alpha ~ [ e f t a ́ ] ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \pi \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [eptá] | seven |
| $\varphi \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [ftáno] | $\varphi \theta \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [f $\theta$ áno] | I arrive |
| व́бкппиоऽ [ásk'imos] | $\dot{\alpha} \sigma \chi \chi \mu \mathrm{os}$ [ásx'imos] | ugly |
| $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \mathbf { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \tau \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ [Өapistó] |  | I will be persuaded |

The difference between the forms of the above two columns is stylistic: the forms in the first column are normally used in colloquial speech, while those in the second are normally used in formal writing.

### 1.6 Phonological phenomena across word boundaries

Some adaptations of pronunciation occur between words which form a single phrase, namely: between an article and the following word; between a weak pronoun and the following verb; between the negative particles $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{v}$ and the following verb; or between a preposition and the item governed by that preposition.

The final $/ \mathrm{n} /$ of the definite articles $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ or of the weak pronouns $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{v}$ or of the negative particles $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$, when followed by a word beginning with a $/ \mathrm{p} /$, is either pronounced $[\mathrm{m}]$ or is not pronounced at all. At the same time the initial $/ \mathrm{p} /$ of the following word is pronounced [b]: $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { v } \boldsymbol { v }} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} /$ ton patéra/ $\rightarrow$ [to(m)batéra] 'the father' (acc. sg.), $\boldsymbol{\tau o v}$ $\pi \dot{\rho} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ /ton pírame/ $\rightarrow$ [to(m)bírame] 'we took him’, $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / \mathrm{min}$ páte/ $\rightarrow$ [mi(m)báte] 'don't go'.

The initial consonant $/ \mathrm{t} /$ of a word following a final $/ \mathrm{n} /$ is pronounced [d], while the nasal sound /n/ may be deleted: $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o ́}^{\prime} /$ ton treló/ $\rightarrow$ [to(n)dreló] 'the madman' (acc. sg.), $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \tau \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ /tin tímisan/ $\rightarrow$ [ti(n)dímisan] 'they honoured her', $\boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \lambda } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \omega } / \delta e n ~ t o l m o ́ / ~} \rightarrow$ [ $\delta \mathrm{e}(\mathrm{n})$ dolmó] 'I don't dare'.

The initial consonant $/ \mathrm{k} /$ of a word following a final $/ \mathrm{n} /$ is pronounced $[\mathrm{g}]$ while the $/ \mathrm{n} /$ reduces to [ n ] or may be omitted: $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} /$ ton kálesan/ $\rightarrow$ [to(y)gálesan] 'they invited him', $\boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { \xi } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \omega } / \delta e n ~ k s e ́ r o / ~} \rightarrow$ [ $\mathrm{\delta e}(\mathrm{y})$ gzéro] 'I don't know'. (Note that when /k/ becomes [g] the following /s/ becomes voiced [z], as in the last example.)

The final $/ \mathrm{s} /$ of an article, a weak pronoun or the particle $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{s}$ 'let' is pronounced [z] if the word that immediately follows has a voiced initial consonant: $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /$ tis $\delta$ ósane/ $\rightarrow$ [tizסósane] 'they gave her', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ $\gamma \varepsilon \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega$ /as jeláso/ $\rightarrow$ [azjeláso] 'let me laugh'.

The final $/ \mathrm{n} /$ of the feminine article and weak pronoun $\tau \eta v$ is normally deleted in both speech and writing when immediately followed by a word with initial /f, $\theta, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{v}, \delta, \gamma, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n} /: \tau \boldsymbol{\eta}(\boldsymbol{v}) \lambda \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \xi \boldsymbol{\eta} / \mathrm{tin}$ léksi/ $\rightarrow$ [tiléksi] 'the word', $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta}(\boldsymbol{v}) \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v /$ tin sevástikan/ $\rightarrow$ [tisevástikan] 'they respected her', $\boldsymbol{\tau \eta}(\boldsymbol{v}) \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\varepsilon} v \eta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} /$ tin filoksénisa/ $\rightarrow$ [tifiloksénisa] 'I gave her hospitality'. The final $-\boldsymbol{v}$ of the negative particle $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ behaves in the same way: $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'don't pity me', $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \varsigma$ 'don't look', $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta}$ $\theta$ өию́vels 'don't get angry'.

When a weak pronoun or particle ends in a vowel and the following verb begins with the same vowel, the first vowel may be omitted: $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega$
[ $\theta$ aajoráso] or $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [ $\theta$ aroráso]. When the vowels are different, one of the two vowels, irrespective of their relative position, may be deleted. /i/ and /e/ may be deleted if they are next to an /o/, /u/ or /a/: $\boldsymbol{\tau 0} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ é $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [toípa] or $\boldsymbol{\tau 0}{ }^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [tópa] 'I said it', $\boldsymbol{\tau 0} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [toé $\delta$ osa] or $\boldsymbol{\tau 0}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [tó $\delta$ osa] 'I gave it', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [taíßa] or $\boldsymbol{\tau \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [tá $\delta \mathrm{a}$ ] 'I saw them', $\boldsymbol{\sigma 0 v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [suéסosa] or $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [sú $\delta$ osa] 'I gave you', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [ $\theta$ aéxo] or $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ' $\chi \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [ $\theta$ áxo] 'I shall have'. $/ \mathrm{o} /$ and $/ \mathrm{u} /$ may be deleted if they are next to an $/ \mathrm{a} /: \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ [muapá(n)dise] or $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ [mapá( n )dise], '( s )he replied to me'.

The final $/ \mathrm{o} /$ or $/ \mathrm{a} /$ of the neuter definite article may be deleted before a
 $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [taayórja] or $\tau$ ' $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o ́ p ı \alpha}$ [taүórja] 'the boys'.

The final vowel of the prepositions $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / \mathrm{se} /$ ' in, at' (obligatorily) and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o}$ /apó/ 'from' (optionally) is deleted before a following definite article: $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}+$
 $\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ' $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{A \theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [aptina日ína] 'from Athens'.

The final /e/ of a two-syllable singular perfective imperative may be deleted if followed by a neuter weak pronoun or a noun with a definite article:

 $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [kópsta] 'cut them'.

## Stress and intonation

### 1.7 Word stress

Every Greek word of two or more syllables has stress on one of its vowels. The vowel that carries the stress is pronounced at a higher pitch and is slightly longer and louder; compare the English word 'polish', where the stress falls on the first vowel, with 'police', where the stress falls on the second.

The stress of a word may occur either on the last syllable, the last but one syllable, or the third syllable from the end: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \varsigma$ [aүapitós] 'likeable',
 words that inflect, only the adjectives retain the stress on the same syllable in all their inflected forms (see sections 3.33-3.38 and 3.40).

In some classes of nouns the stress may move one or two syllables to the right, e.g. $\mu \dot{\alpha} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [má $\theta \mathrm{ima}$ ] 'lesson’, gen. sg. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ [ma日ímatos], gen.
 $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$ [ $\delta$ askálu], gen. pl. $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ [ $\delta$ askálon]; $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [日álasa] 'sea', gen. pl. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ [日alasón] (see sections 3.29-3.9).

In some verbs the stress may move to the left in past tenses: $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [spuסázo] 'I am studying', imperfect $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [spú $\delta a z a] ~ ' I ~ w a s ~ s t u d y i n g ' . ~$ When the inflectional ending creates three unstressed syllables at the end of the verb form the original stress moves one syllable to the right: $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ [סéxome] 'I accept', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi o} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ [ $\delta$ exómaste] 'we accept' (see Chapter 6).

## I.8 Enclisis

Enclisis of stress (the development of a second stress) applies within a phrase which consists of one or more weak pronouns and the preceding word which these pronouns are associated with. Such combinations are: verbs followed by weak object pronouns; nouns or adjectives followed by possessive pronouns; and adverbs followed by weak pronouns. In these combinations, where the basic stress falls more than three syllables from the end an additional stress is added to the second vowel to the right of the original stress, e.g.


```
\pi\alphá\rho\varepsilon + \tauоv + \tauo /páre tu to/ }->\boldsymbol{\pi}\boldsymbol{\alpha}\rho\varepsilon \tauov́ \tauo [páretúto] 'take it from
him'
\deltaívov\tau\alpha\Omega + \sigmaov + \tau\alpha /\deltaínontas su ta/ -> \deltaívov\tau\alphá\varrho \sigmaov \tau\alpha
[\deltaíno(n)dásuta] 'giving them to you'
```



```
\deltaáskalózmas] 'our teacher'
```



```
'opposite you'
```


### 1.9 Intonation

The intonation associated with statements is similar to that of English. There are, however, differences in the intonation of questions.

The main intonation contours are as follows:

- In yes/no questions the pitch of the voice rises and then slightly falls to a mid level at the end of the utterance:


$$
\begin{aligned}
& 122
\end{aligned}
$$

Will you see Nick tomorrow?

- An abrupt rise and fall conveys surprise:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
2 & 3 \quad 2
\end{array}
$$

## 2 'Нр日є кı о Гıóvvŋя;

So John came too?

- To show surprise and ask for more information the pitch rises and remains high at the end of an utterance:

```
3 3 4
3 O\alpha \delta\varepsilonı\varsigma \alphaúpto qov Níкo!;
    What! You are going to see Nick tomorrow!?
```

- To express doubt the pitch falls at the end of an utterance and then immediately rises:

- A stable falling intonation at the end of the utterance indicates conclusion:


## I I 2 I


And they lived happily ever after (lit. 'And they lived well and we even better').

The intonation peak (the word pronounced with the highest pitch) of a sentence normally falls on the last stressed word in the verb phrase because this word represents informationally the most important item:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ann will be bringing Nick with her. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ann will be leaving tonight. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The words $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{N i ́ \kappa o}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ are the most significant elements of these utterances in terms of information and carry the main stress of the utterance.

It is possible to place emphasis on one of the elements in a sentence when you want to express surprise or to convey contrast (see section 10.20). The emphasized element often occurs at the beginning of the utterance, though it may occur in other places too. It is always associated with rising pitch followed by a fall.
 Nick is the person Anna will be bringing with her (not somebody else).
 Anna will be bringing Nick (not somebody else).

## Chapter 2

## The writing system

### 2.1 Accents (the monotonic system)

The rules given here apply to the monotonic (single-accent) system taught in Greek schools since 1982. For details of the older polytonic system, which is still used by many writers, see Comprehensive Grammar, pp. 34-37.

An acute accent is placed over the stressed vowel in any word of more than one syllable, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varsigma$ [xóros] 'space, place', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho o ́ s}$ [xorós] 'dance'. The accent is placed before an initial capital letter representing a stressed vowel ('Ounpos [ómiros] 'Homer'), but no accent is written when the word is written entirely in capitals. When a stressed vowel sound is written as two letters, the accent is placed over the second letter: coixos [tíxos] 'wall'. Similarly, in the combinations $\boldsymbol{\alpha v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v}$ (when pronounced [af], [av], [ef] or $[\mathrm{ev}]$ ), the accent is placed on the second letter, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ [pávo] 'I stop'. However, when two letters are pronounced as separate vowels, the accent is placed on the first one if that is the stressed vowel, e.g. $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} t \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{s}$ [ $\gamma$ áj $\delta a r o s$ ] 'donkey'. When a word is stressed on two syllables as a result of enclisis (see Section 1.8), the accent is written over each of the stressed vowels: $\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \varphi \mathbf{o ́} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v}$ [oeksádelfózmu] 'my cousin'.

In general, the accent is not written on words of one syllable. It is however retained on words that have become monosyllabic as a result of vowel deletion, e.g. $\varphi \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ’ $\boldsymbol{\tau o}$ (short for $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ то) 'bring it'. In addition, the accent is written on three single-syllable words to distinguish them from other words that are otherwise written the same:

- the conjunction $\dot{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$ 'or', to distinguish it from the feminine nominative singular form of the article $\boldsymbol{\eta}$
- the question words $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'where' and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\xi}$ 'how', to distinguish them from the relative and complementizer $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{O v}$ and the complementizer

It is recommended that the accent be written on the weak personal pronoun when it functions as the object of a following verb, in cases where otherwise it might be read as a possessive modifying a preceding noun: thus

## la $\quad \mathbf{H} \boldsymbol{\mu} \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ и́ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i ́ \pi \varepsilon}$

The mother told me ( $\mu \mathrm{ov}$ is the indirect object of the verb عí $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ )
b $\quad \mathrm{H} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \alpha \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { c i n }} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
My mother said ( $\mu \mathrm{ov}$ is a possessive pronoun modifying the noun $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho})$

Finally, the accent is also used after Greek capital letters denoting ordinal


### 2.2 Other diacritics

Apart from the accent, two other diacritics are used, the diaeresis and the apostrophe.

The diaeresis is written on the second of two adjacent vowels to indicate that they are pronounced separately, e.g. $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{u} \delta \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho o v}[\gamma$ ajסáru] 'donkey' (gen. sg.). The diaeresis is not used when the first of the two vowels is stressed, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota} \delta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o} \varsigma[\gamma$ áj $\delta a r o s]$ 'donkey' (nom. sg.). Where a diaeresis appears on a stressed vowel, the diaeresis and accent are written thus: каîкı [kaík'i] 'caique', where the $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the following $\mathbf{l}$ are pronounced separately.

The apostrophe indicates that a vowel has been deleted, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I'll come', $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\alpha v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I'll come up'. When the apostrophe is used, the two words are separated by a space, as shown in the above examples.

### 2.3 The use of capital and lower-case letters

As in English, a capital letter is used at the beginning of a sentence and at the beginning of names of people, places, the days of week, the months, and religious festivals. Although usage varies, words derived from such nouns are usually written with a lower-case initial letter:

## la $\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha_{\varsigma}{ }^{\prime} E \lambda \lambda \eta v \alpha \varsigma$ <br> a Greek


Greek music

##  Mrs Mitsaki

Usage varies in titles of books, etc., some writers preferring to use an initial capital only for the first word, others for every word:

3a «To $\tau \boldsymbol{\text { íto }} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon \varphi \dot{\alpha} v ı »$<br>b «To Tpíto $\Sigma \tau \varepsilon \varphi \dot{v} v ı »$ The Third Wedding

### 2.4 Punctuation

Greek generally follows the same rules as English regarding punctuation. We first list the chief punctuation marks, then we confine ourselves to the main differences between Greek and English usage.

The chief punctuation marks are:

- full stop (UK) or period (USA) ( $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ : .
- comma (ко́ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ : ,


- question mark ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \omega \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \mathbf{o ́}):$;
- exclamation mark ( $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa o}$ ): !
- parentheses or brackets ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\iota}$ ) : ( )

The full stop is used chiefly

- to indicate the end of a sentence
- to indicate an abbreviation: $\pi$. $\chi . ~ ' e . g . ', ~ \pi . X . ~ ' B . C . ' ~ ' ~$
- to indicate clock times: $\mathbf{1 1 . 4 0}$
- to divide large numbers into groups of three figures; thus Greek 1.234.567 corresponds to British and US 1,234,567.

The comma is used to separate clauses or phrases within a sentence. It is also used to separate an integer from a decimal where English uses the full stop (decimal point); thus Greek 34,45 corresponds to British and American 34.45. In addition, the comma is written in the pronoun and determiner ó, $\boldsymbol{\tau l}$ (without a space after the comma) to distinguish it from

The raised point corresponds to the English semicolon, i.e. to a break less significant than one indicated by a full stop but more significant than one indicated by a comma.

The colon is used especially to introduce a list of items and to introduce direct speech.

The question mark looks the same as the English semicolon, with which the foreign learner must be careful not to confuse it. It is used at the end of a sentence expressing a direct question.

The exclamation mark is used at the end of a sentence expressing an exclamation or consisting of a vocative noun phrase, or a command or prohibition, e.g. Гıávvø! 'Eス $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ! 'John! Come here!'

Parentheses are used to isolate a word or phrase that is interpolated into a phrase, clause or sentence.

In addition, the hyphen ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \omega \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\iota} \mathbf{o}$ ) is used to join words together ( $\boldsymbol{\mu \imath \alpha}$ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varepsilon \psi \eta-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'a lightning visit'), while the dash ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ) is used, sometimes with a space either side, to separate phrases, e.g.:

## I O Гıóvvทร $\theta \alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \varepsilon \imath-\varepsilon \lambda \pi i \zeta \omega!$ - $\alpha v ́ \rho ı$. John will come - I hope! - tomorrow.

In practice, however, many writers confuse the two. The dash is also used to introduce the speech of each character in a dialogue (see below).

There are two different conventions for indicating direct speech. According to the first, each character's speech is introduced by a dash, with no indication of the boundary between the speech and the narrative. Alternatively, the speech can be contained within quote marks ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \ell \sigma \alpha \gamma \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \jmath } \boldsymbol { \kappa } \boldsymbol { \alpha } ) \text { ). }}$

## 2a - $\Delta v \sigma \tau v \chi \dot{\varrho} \varsigma, \tau \eta \varsigma \varepsilon i ́ \pi \alpha$, ท́ $\rho \theta \varepsilon \varsigma \alpha \rho \gamma \alpha ́$.

 'Unfortunately,' I told her, 'you've come too late.'

Quote marks are also used for titles and for quoting any piece of language word for word:

## 3 ot «Tó́ı $\mu$ §» <br> the Times

##  the so-called 'third way'

Finally, suspension points ( $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}})$ are often used to indicate either an incomplete sentence or thought, or to lead up to a word or phrase that is intended to come as a surprise to the reader:

## 

 Oh, if only you could come ... o $\pi \rho \omega \theta$ vлоv $\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ ós! Suddenly, as I was sitting in my seat, in came the prime minister!

### 2.5 The transcription of foreign names

This is a topic about which there is considerable disagreement. Some older foreign names have been naturalized in Greek in forms that inflect according to the Greek system, e.g. o $\Delta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{i} \mathbf{v o s}$ '[Charles] Darwin', $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ $\mathbf{O} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'Oxford'. Other names are transcribed according to their pronunciation, or as close to the original pronunciation as it is possible to get with the Greek alphabet, e.g. o M $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v} \varsigma^{\text {'Bush' (pronounced like northern }}$ English 'bus'), $\tau \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\Lambda o s}{ }^{\text {'Av}} \boldsymbol{\tau} \zeta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ [tolosándzeles] 'Los Angeles'. In the past, attempts were often made to achieve a compromise between the pronunciation and the spelling of the word in the original language, e.g. o Пí $\tau \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'Peter', то K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \boldsymbol{\zeta}$ 'Cambridge'. In recent years some linguists have recommended that all foreign names should be spelt as simply as possible in Greek, ignoring the foreign spelling and recommending transcriptions such as Пíveן and $\mathbf{K} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\imath} \tau \zeta$, but these modern versions are still controversial. On the other hand, it is very common for foreign names that do not have an established transcription in Greek to be written in the Roman alphabet.

## The noun and the noun phrase

### 3.1 Constituents of the noun phrase

A noun is a word that names a person, thing or concept (e.g. 'John', 'woman', 'plate', 'hope'). A noun phrase is normally a phrase whose chief constituent is a noun. It may consist of a noun alone (e.g. 'John'), or it may consist of a noun accompanied by various modifiers (article, adjective, etc., e.g. 'a busy woman', 'some new plates', 'false hopes'). Sometimes a noun phrase consists of an adjective or pronoun (e.g. 'me', 'someone') rather than a noun. In Greek, a noun phrase may also consist of a phrase or clause preceded by the definite article $\boldsymbol{\tau}$.

Here are some examples of noun phrases in Greek (for the sake of simplicity, these examples are all in the nominative case, but bear in mind that within a noun phrase, all other declinable words must agree with the noun in gender, number and case (see section 3.48)):

I o 「ı́́vvŋs (def. art. + noun (masc. sg.)) John
 a white house
 two white houses
$4 \boldsymbol{\alpha v} \tau$ ó $\tau \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi$ í $\tau \boldsymbol{l}$ (demonstrative + def. art. + noun (neut. sg.)) this house
 this white house
$6 \quad$ ó $\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (quantifier + demonstrative + def. art. + adj. + noun) all these white houses and the noun phrase

which white house?
$8 \quad \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \tau \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0}$ (def. art. + noun + possessive pronoun) my house

9 ह́vaç véos (indef. art. + adj.)
a young [man]
$10 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \dot{\omega}$ (emphatic pronoun) I, me (subject)

II $\tau \mathbf{o}$ ó $\tau \iota \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \chi \alpha \sigma \alpha \nu \tau \iota \varsigma \varepsilon \kappa \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ (def. art. + clause) the [fact] that they lost the elections

A noun phrase may include another noun phrase in the genitive (12), or a prepositional phrase (13), or a clause (14-15):

12 тo orítı $\tau 0 v$ Гıóvvø John's house (lit. 'the house of-the John')

13 тo $\sigma \pi i \tau \iota \sigma \tau \eta \gamma \omega v i ́ \alpha$ the corner house (lit. 'the house at-the corner')

14 то $\sigma \pi i \tau \iota \pi o v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{o} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha$ (relative clause) the house (which) I bought
 the fact that the prime minister spoke

### 3.2 Functions of the noun phrase

The chief functions of the noun phrase are

- to act as the subject of a verb (in the nominative: 1 );
- to act as the direct object of a verb (in the accusative: 2 );
- to act as the indirect object of a verb (in the genitive: 2 );
- to act as a subject predicate (3);
- to act as an object predicate (4);
- to be the object of a preposition (5);
- to address someone (in the vocative: 6).

I $\quad O \Sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \alpha v o s$ (nom.) $\theta \alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \varepsilon \imath \alpha u ́ p ı$.
Stephen will come tomorrow.
 $\boldsymbol{\tau o v}$ (acc.).
Tomorrow we'll give Stephen (indirect object) his clothes (direct object).
3 O Гíávvท̧ عíval $\delta \dot{\alpha} \sigma \kappa \alpha \lambda o s$ (nom.). John's a teacher.

4 Tov $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ ıópı $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha v \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o}$ (acc.).
They appointed him a teacher.

Mary came from Thessaloniki.
$\begin{array}{ll}\mathbf{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \varepsilon! \\ & \text { Stephen! }\end{array}$
More frequently, however, the indirect object expressed by a noun phrase is linked to the rest of the clause by the preposition $\boldsymbol{\sigma}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}]$ (+ accusative):

## 

 (same meaning as 2)A predicate appears in the same case as the word to which it refers (nominative for a subject predicate, accusative for an object predicate).
Certain types of noun phrase in the accusative may act as an adverbial phrase of time or place (see also section 3.51):

## 8 tov Iov́vio

in June
Finally, a noun phrase may depend on another noun. The dependent noun phrase may be in the genitive to indicate possession (9), or it may be in the same case as the main noun to indicate content (10-12: this last use is different from English):

9 тo oxítı $\tau 0 v$ Гıóvvŋ
John's house
 $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \tau \varepsilon \varsigma$, are in the same case (nominative or accusative)
according to their function in the clause)
a kilo of potatoes
II $\tau \rho i \alpha \mu \pi \mathbf{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \iota \alpha \kappa \rho \alpha \sigma i ́$ (both noun phrases, $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ $\mu \pi \boldsymbol{\sigma} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\iota} \alpha$ and $\kappa \rho \alpha \sigma$ i, are in the same case (nominative or accusative) according to their function in the clause) three bottles of wine

12 Tov̧ $\chi \alpha \rho i ́ \sigma \alpha \mu \varepsilon$ év人 $\mu \pi$ тоvќ́to крívov̧ (the noun phrases

The noun and the noun phrase $\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \kappa \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ and крívovs are in the accusative because they are the direct object of the verb). We gave them a bunch of lilies.

## Gender, number and case

### 3.3 Gender

Every Greek noun belongs to one of three gender classes: masculine, feminine or neuter. These do not correspond to the division between male, female and inanimate. Nevertheless, most nouns denoting humans are masculine if the person is male, and feminine if the person is female. Thus
 line, while $\gamma \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'woman, wife’ and Eגと́vŋ 'Helen' are feminine. However, $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ ' 'person, human being' is always masculine and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{i}$ 'child' is always neuter irrespective of the sex of the person they refer to, while корí $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ 'girl' and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'boy' are also neuter.

Nouns denoting animals, inanimate objects, substances, natural phenomena and abstract concepts may be masculine, feminine or neuter:

- $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'dog' is masculine and $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'cat' is feminine (though there is a feminine form $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'bitch' and a masculine form $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o}^{\text {s }}$ 'tomcat'), while two alternative forms exist for 'donkey', namely the masculine
 'female donkey'
- $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{o ́ \rho o s}$ 'marker (pen)' is masculine, $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'chair' is feminine and $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \zeta_{\mathbf{c}}$ 'table' is neuter
 $\xi \mathbf{v} \lambda \mathbf{\lambda}$ 'wood' is neuter
 'hail' is neuter
 $\boldsymbol{\kappa \varepsilon} \dot{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\ell}$ 'high spirits' is neuter (in fact the majority of abstract nouns are feminine)

The gender of a noun has to be learned at the same time as the noun. This is not difficult, since a noun in the nominative singular form can almost always be readily assigned to one of the three genders: all masculine nouns end in $-\varsigma$ (see sections 3.9-3.13), almost all feminine nouns end in either

- $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{- \eta}$ (see sections 3.14-3.19), and most neuter nouns end in -o, - $\boldsymbol{-}$ or $-\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (see sections 3.21-3.29).

Many nouns - most of them denoting people who practise certain professions - are of common gender, e.g. [o or $\boldsymbol{\eta}] \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{o ́ \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}$ ¢ '[the] president'. Although their endings follow the declension patterns of masculine nouns, they may be masculine or feminine (and are therefore accompanied by masculine or feminine articles, adjectives, etc.) according to the sex of the person denoted (see section 3.20).

Articles, adjectives and other modifiers that agree with a noun in the same noun phrase do so with the gender of the noun rather than the sex of the pronouns and person or animal denoted: thus in the sentence

```
I H (fem.) M\alpha\rhoí\alpha (fem.) &ív\alphal к\alpha\lambdaós (masc.) óv0\rho\omega\pios
(masc.).
Mary is a nice person.
```

the adjective $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ is in the masculine form to agree with the masculine noun $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ ' 'person' rather than in the feminine form, even though Mary is female. For agreement within the noun phrase see section 3.48 and for agreement of predicates see section 6.1.

When no noun is used and the sex of the person or persons referred to is unknown, or where they consist of a mixture of males and females, the pronouns and determiners appear in the masculine form:

## 2 Пotos (masc.) Eívat; <br> Who is it?

 $v \alpha \pi \varepsilon \rho \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$.
If anyone else comes, tell them to wait.
 All of you know him.

In example 2 the speaker is asking for someone's identity, irrespective of whether it is a male or a female; similarly the speaker in 3 does not know the sex of the relevant person. Example 4 may be addressed to a group of males or to a mixed group of males and females.

The neuter of numerals is used when counting. Compare example 5, where the numeral is in the neuter form because it is used simply as a number, with example 6, where the numeral is in the feminine form to agree with the feminine noun $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, which it modifies:

```
\ \eta \sigma\varepsilon\lambdaí\delta\alpha\alpha \tau\rhoí\alpha
page three
6 \tau\rho\varepsilonı\varsigma \sigma\varepsilon\lambdaí\delta\varepsilon\varsigma
three pages
```


### 3.4 Number

Number is a category that applies to noun phrases (nouns, adjectives, pronouns and determiners) and to verbs. As in English, there are two numbers, namely singular and plural. In Greek, number is always indicated in the inflection of every one of these words (except for the very few indeclinable words, mostly nouns and adjectives, for which see sections 3.31 and 3.42). As in English, dictionaries list these words in the singular unless they are only used in the plural.

Almost all nouns, pronouns and determiners have one set of case forms for the singular and another set of case forms for the plural; a few, however, only have singular or plural forms. (For the declensions of these words see sections 3.8-3.30 and 4.1-4.10.) Similarly, verbs have one set of person forms for the singular and another for the plural; the use of the singular or plural forms of the verb depends on whether the subject is singular or plural. (For number in the verb see section 6.3.)

Normally, a noun denoting a single person, thing, etc. is in the singular form, while a noun denoting more than one person, thing, etc. is in the plural:

## I $\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \sigma \pi i ́ \tau t$ (sg.)

one house, a house

## $2 \delta v o \sigma \pi i t \iota \alpha$ (pl.) two houses

However, in Greek, as in French, the plural of personal pronouns and verbs is used when addressing a single person politely (see section 12.1).

### 3.5 Case

For each of the two numbers (singular and plural) each noun, adjective, pronoun and determiner has a set of case endings which indicate the syntactical function of the noun phrase in the clause. The cases in Greek are nominative, accusative, genitive and vocative. For the use of the cases see Case in the glossary, and sections 3.50-3.53.

## The articles

Like other languages, Greek has two types of article which precede nouns and certain other words: a definite article ('the') and an indefinite one ('a', 'an'). The forms of the articles are given below. For the use of the articles see sections 3.54-3.56.

### 3.6 The forms of the definite article

The definite article is declined for gender, number and case and has the following forms:

|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nominative | o | $\eta$ | $\tau 0$ | Ot | Ot | $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Accusative | tov | $\tau \eta(v)$ | $\tau 0$ | tovs | $\tau \mathrm{c}$ ¢ | $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Genitive | $\tau 00$ | $\tau \eta S$ | тov | $\tau \omega v$ | $\tau \omega v$ | $\tau \omega v$ |

The feminine accusative singular form must have the final $-\boldsymbol{v}$ when the word immediately following begins with a vowel or with any of the following consonants or consonant clusters: $\mathbf{\kappa}, \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{\kappa}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \pi, \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}$. Examples:

## l $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v o t} \xi \boldsymbol{\eta}$

(in) the spring

## $2 \quad \tau \eta v$ кvpía $A \lambda \varepsilon \xi i ́ o v$ Mrs Alexiou (acc.)

Before other consonants the $-v$ may be omitted (and normally is not pronounced), e.g.

## $3 \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\Delta \varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ <br> on Monday

When the preposition $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ('to', 'at', 'in', 'on' etc.) is followed by a noun which has a definite article, the preposition combines with the article as one word: $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau}(\boldsymbol{v}), \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{o v} \varsigma, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \varsigma, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. For example:

The forms of the definite article
$4 \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \iota \varsigma$ о́ $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ऽ
The noun and the noun phrase
on the banks

The article must agree in gender, number and case with the noun which it modifies. For further information about the use (and omission) of the definite article see sections 3.54 and 3.56.

### 3.7 The forms of the indefinite article

The indefinite article has only singular forms, which are declined for gender and case:

|  | M | F | $N$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | ¢́vas | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\dot{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Accusative | ¢́vod(v) | $\mu \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{v})$ | ćva |
| Genitive | evós | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho^{\prime}$ | عvós |

The forms of the indefinite article are almost identical to those of the numeral 'one' (see section 5.2). The only exception is that the feminine forms of the indefinite article are pronounced as one syllable, while those of the numeral can be pronounced emphatically as a two-syllable word, with stress on the first syllable (written $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ). Compare these two examples:
la $\mu t \alpha \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \delta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
a week
b $\quad \mu$ óvo $\mu i ́ \alpha \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\delta}$ oúá $\boldsymbol{\delta} \alpha$
only one week
The final $-\boldsymbol{v}$ of the accusative forms of the masculine and feminine is not obligatory, but may be used before words beginning with a vowel or any of the consonants $\boldsymbol{\kappa}, \boldsymbol{\pi}, \tau, \xi$ or $\boldsymbol{\psi}$, e.g.
$2 \quad \gamma \iota \alpha \mu \iota \alpha \nu \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta$ бvvaík $\alpha$
for another woman
$3 \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ év $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ ки́pıo
to a gentleman

The indefinite article agrees with its noun for gender and case. In phrases which link two or more nouns, the appropriate form must precede each noun in the series:

## $4 \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \mu \alpha \chi \alpha i ́ \rho ı, \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha$ лı $\rho$ ov́vı коı $\mu \iota \alpha \chi \alpha \rho \tau о \pi \varepsilon \tau \sigma \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \alpha$ a knife, a fork and a paper napkin

For further information about the use (and omission) of the indefinite article see sections 3.55-3.56.

## Nouns

### 3.8 Declensions: an overview

A noun is a word denoting a person, place, thing, abstract quality, action or condition (e.g. in English, 'woman', 'Helen', 'Greece', 'ship', 'beauty', 'peace'). Every Greek noun belongs to one of the three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter) and to a particular declension, by which we mean the pattern of different endings which mark them for number (singular and plural) and case (nominative, accusative, genitive, vocative). For gender, number and case see sections 3.3-3.5. The detailed declension patterns are set out in sections 3.9-3.29. Some nouns, particularly ones of foreign origin, are indeclinable, which means that they have a single form which does not change for number or case (see section 3.31).

In the tables that follow, nouns are classified primarily by gender, and secondarily by the ending of the nominative singular. In many instances, the ending of the nominative singular is sufficient to indicate the relevant declension. For example, all nouns with a nominative singular ending in -o are neuter and follow the pattern in section 3.21. But things are not always so straightforward. Nouns ending in -os may be masculine (section 3.11 ), feminine (section 3.16) or neuter (section 3.24), with resulting differences in the way they form their other cases in the singular and plural.

We can set out some basic rules for the declension of nouns:

- Masculine nouns always end in a vowel $+-\varsigma$ in the nominative singular. In the accusative they drop the $-\varsigma$. The genitive singular is the same as the accusative, with the exception of nouns in -os, which have genitive in -ov.
- Feminine nouns, except for one type, have the same forms for nominative and accusative singular, which end in a vowel. For the

|  | Masculine |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular | Nom. | - $\alpha \varsigma$ | $-\eta S$ | -0¢ | -غ́as | - $\alpha$ s | $-\eta ¢$ | - $¢ ¢$ | -ov́s |
|  | Acc. | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $-\eta$ | -0 | - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $-\eta$ | - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\prime}$ | -ov́ |
|  | Gen. | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $-\eta$ | -0v | -غ́¢ | - $\alpha$ | $-\eta$ | -自 | -ov́ |
|  | Voc. | - $\alpha$ | - $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ | - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | -غ́¢ $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - $\alpha$ | - $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ | -غ́غ | -ov́ |
| Plural | Nom./Voc. | $-\varepsilon \varsigma$ | - $\varepsilon \varsigma$ | -0ı | -عís | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{¢} \text { ¢ }}$ | $-\eta \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | -غ́б¢¢ | -ov́סع¢ |
|  | Acc. | $-\varepsilon \varsigma$ | - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\zeta}$ | -ovs | $-\varepsilon i \varsigma$ | $\text { - } \dot{\alpha} \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $-\eta \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $-\dot{\varepsilon} \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | -ov́סes |
|  | Gen. | $-\omega v$ | -ف́v | - $\omega \boldsymbol{\nu}$ | $\text { - } \dot{\varepsilon} \omega v$ | $\text { -á } \delta \omega v$ | $-\eta \delta \omega \nu$ | $\text { -́́ } \delta \omega v$ | -ov́ $\mathbf{\omega} \omega$ |
|  | Feminine |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Singular | Nom. | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $-\eta$ | -0¢ | $-\eta$ | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ | -ov́ | - $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ |
|  | Acc. | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - $\alpha$ | $-\eta$ | -0 | - $\dagger$ | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ | -ov́ | - $\omega$ |
|  | Gen. | - $\alpha_{\text {S }}$ | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\text {S }}$ | - $\dagger$ S | -0v | $-\eta \varsigma /-\varepsilon \omega \varsigma$ | - $\mathbf{\alpha}_{\text {c }}$ | -ov́s | $-\omega \varsigma$ |
| Plural | Nom. | - $\varepsilon \varsigma$ | - $\varepsilon \varsigma$ | -عऽ | -0t | -E1s |  | -ov́de¢ | - |
|  | Acc. | $-\varepsilon \varsigma$ | - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | -ovs | -E15 | - $\chi^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | -ov́б\&¢ | - |
|  | Gen. | - $\omega \boldsymbol{\nu}$ | -ف́v | -ف́v | - $\omega \boldsymbol{v}$ | $-\varepsilon \omega \nu$ | - $\chi^{\alpha} \delta \omega v$ | -ov́ ${ }^{\text {cos }}$ | - |
|  | Neuter |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Singular | Nom./Acc. | -0 | -í | -l | -os | - $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $-1 \mu 0$ |  |  |
|  | Gen. | -0v | -ıov́ | -ıov́ | -ovs | $-\mu \alpha \tau 0 \varsigma$ | -í $\mu \alpha \tau о \varsigma$ |  |  |
| Plural | Nom./Acc. | - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | -ı血 | $-t \alpha$ |  | $-\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | -í $\mu \alpha \tau \alpha$ |  |  |
|  | Gen. | - $\omega \boldsymbol{\nu}$ | -ıóv | $-t \omega ́ v$ | -ळ́v | $-\mu \dot{\alpha} \tau \omega \nu$ | (- $\mu \dot{\mu} \tau \omega v$ ) |  |  |

genitive singular they add $-\varsigma$. The nominative and accusative plural also have the same forms, ending in $-\varsigma$. The exception is nouns in - $\mathbf{o}$, which follow the same pattern as masculine nouns in -os.

- Nouns of common gender may be either masculine or feminine, depending on the sex of the person they refer to. They follow the pattern of the corresponding masculine nouns ending in $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma,-\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$,

- Neuter nouns have a single form for the nominative and accusative singular, and a single one for the nominative and accusative plural. The plural typically ends in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, with the exception of nouns in - $\mathbf{o s}$.
- The genitive plural of nouns of all declensions ends in $\boldsymbol{- \omega v}$.

The situation is made more complicated by the position of stress, which may move, and by other peculiarities in the endings of certain declensions. However, the table on the pevious page shows, in summary form, the endings of the most common types of noun.

The vocative is not shown separately for feminine or neuter nouns, as it is the same as the corresponding nominative. (The only exception is feminine nouns in - $\mathbf{o}$, which do not normally have a vocative.)

## Masculine nouns

### 3.9 Nouns in $-\alpha_{\varsigma}$ (parisyllabic)

We need to make a distinction between parisyllabic nouns, which have the same number of syllables in the plural as in the singular (e.g. singular $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{s}$ 'father', plural $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'fathers'), and imparisyllabic nouns, which add an extra syllable in forming their plural (e.g. $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}^{\prime}$ 'priest', plural $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'priests' - see section 3.13 for such imparisyllabic masculine nouns). Parisyllabic masculine nouns in $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ are divided into two types, according to the stress of the genitive plural: (a) those that have a genitive plural with stress on the penultimate syllable; (b) those that undergo a shift of stress to the final syllable in the genitive plural. With these exceptions, the stress remains on the same syllable as in the nominative singular.
(a)

The noun and the noun phrase

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom. | үعítovas | үعítoves |
| Acc./Voc. | $\gamma \varepsilon i ́ \tau o v \alpha$ | үعítoves |
| Gen. | $\gamma \varepsilon i ́ \tau o v \alpha$ | үعıтóvov |

Note that $\boldsymbol{\gamma \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{v a s}$ and other nouns stressed on the third syllable from the end undergo a shift of stress in the genitive plural. Nouns stressed on the penultimate syllable, such as $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, have no shift of stress. Examples:





 $\boldsymbol{\chi \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon }} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ s 'winter'.
(b)

| o $\tau 0 v \rho i ́ \sigma \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ tourist |  |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular |


 $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'month', and all other masculine nouns in -ías and -ívias.

For certain nouns, alternative forms of the genitive singular ending in $\mathbf{- o s}$ are occasionally found in formal contexts: $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ (instead of $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ is often used

### 3.10 Nouns in $-\eta \varsigma$ (parisyllabic)

These nouns (apart from two exceptions given at the end of this section) always have stressed $\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \omega }} \boldsymbol{v}$ in the genitive plural. Consequently those nouns that are stressed on the penultimate syllable move the stress to the final syllable in the genitive plural. (For imparisyllabic nouns in $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$, i.e. those that add an extra syllable in the plural, see section 3.13.)

| $\boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ workman |  |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular |
| Nom. | Plural |
| Acc./Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ |
| Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta}$ |

Many nouns that follow this declension end in $-\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$. Examples include:
 'volunteer', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \pi \imath \boldsymbol { \beta } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \eta } \varsigma ~ ' p a s s e n g e r ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\xi}$ 'professor, secondary-school



 this pattern (with shift of stress in the genitive plural) include $\boldsymbol{\beta \iota} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 与 'bookseller' and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ' 'patriarch'.

Two other nouns, which form their plural irregularly, should be mentioned: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ 'vice-chancellor, rector (of a university)' and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ 'ambassador'. In the singular they follow the same pattern as $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\xi}$, but the plural is quite different: nominative/accusative/vocative $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$, genitive $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$. The plural of $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ has these same endings, with the stress remaining on the first syllable: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \beta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \varsigma, \pi \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega v$.

### 3.11 Nouns in -os

Nouns in this category may be stressed in the nominative singular on any
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}_{\varsigma}$ 'man, human being'. In nouns of the first two kinds, the stress remains on the same syllable throughout the declension:

The noun and the noun phrase



This is a very large category and includes: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \varphi \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varphi \mathbf{o} \varsigma$ 'brother',







The third kind, nouns stressed on the third syllable from the end, presents two different patterns. In type (a) the stress moves to the penultimate syllable in the genitive singular and in the accusative and genitive plural; in type (b) the stress remains on the same syllable throughout the declension:
(a)


|  | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | $\dot{\alpha} \nu \theta \rho \omega \pi$ оऽ | $\dot{\alpha} \nu \theta \rho \omega \pi$ о七 |
| Accusative |  | $\alpha \nu \theta \rho \omega ் \pi о \nu ร$ |
| Genitive | $\alpha \nu \theta \rho \omega ́ \pi о \nu$ | $\alpha \nu \theta \rho \omega ் \pi \omega \nu$ |
| Vocative | $\dot{\alpha} \nu \theta \rho \omega \pi \varepsilon$ | $\dot{\alpha} v \theta \rho \omega \pi$ о七 |

（b）

| о к $\alpha \lambda$ óvepos monk |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nominative | к $\alpha \lambda$ ó $\gamma \varepsilon \rho о$ ¢ | к $\alpha \lambda$ óvعро七 |
| Accusative |  |  |
| Genitive | ка入óүعроv |  |
| Vocative | к $\alpha \lambda \mathbf{o ́ \gamma \varepsilon \rho \varepsilon ~}$ | к $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o ́ \gamma \varepsilon \rho о 七 ~}$ |

Type（a）includes many nouns which survive from Ancient Greek and other nouns which are likely to occur in more formal contexts．Examples： $\mathbf{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$





 more recent formations，especially compounds．Examples： $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \varepsilon \mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$


 $\boldsymbol{\psi \varepsilon v ́ \tau \alpha \rho o \varsigma ~ ' b i g ~ l i a r ’ , ~ a n d ~ a l s o ~ s o m e ~ p e r s o n a l ~ n a m e s , ~ s u c h ~ a s ~ \Theta o ́ \delta \omega \rho о \varsigma , ~}$ $\Sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v o s}, \mathbf{X \alpha \rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ．However，the distinction between the two types is not completely fixed：forms without shift of stress like $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho$ ó－


Special mention must be made of the vocative of given names．Instead of the normal－ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ending，masculine names in $-\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ stressed on the penultimate syllable usually have a vocative in－о：А入д́ќко，Мо́рко，Níко，Пе́тло，
 nouns of two syllables also have a vocative singular in－o，e．g． $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}$＇old


Note also that the noun $\chi$ póvos＇year＇has an alternative genitive plural $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho o v} \boldsymbol{\omega}(\boldsymbol{v})$ used for expressions of age（see section 5．5，examples 9 and 10）． On the plural forms of this noun see further section 3．30．

Feminine nouns in - $\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ are considered in section 3.16; for nouns with the

The noun and the noun phrase same ending which may be either masculine or feminine (common gender) see section 3.20.

### 3.12 Nouns in -ச́ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$

Nouns of this type are declined like those in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (section 3.9) in the singular, but have nominative, accusative and vocative plural in -عis, and genitive in - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ :

| 0 коvן¢́as barber |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom. |  | кovpeis |
| Acc./Voc. | коขрغ́வ | коטрعís |
| Gen. | коขр $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \alpha$ | коטןغ́ف |

 бoviós, declined like nouns in section 3.11; the plural $\gamma \mathbf{o v \varepsilon i}$ s 'parents' is
 sector'.

Many nouns of this declension referring to persons are of common gender; for examples see section 3.20.

## 

The term 'imparisyllabic' refers to the fact that these nouns have an extra syllable in their plural forms, which always end in - $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ (nominative, accusative and vocative) or $\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \delta } \boldsymbol { \omega } \boldsymbol { v }}$ (genitive). In the singular they drop the $-\varsigma$ of the nominative in the other cases, but keep the same vowel $(-\boldsymbol{\alpha},-\boldsymbol{\eta}$, $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ or $-\mathbf{o v})$. The nominative singular of such nouns may be stressed on any of the last three syllables: $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\varsigma}$ 'milkman', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ 'greengrocer',甲ои́ $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{s}$ 'baker'. We consider these three types below, noting certain exceptions in the formation of the plural:
(a)

| o $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{\alpha}_{\varsigma}$ milkman |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom. | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma^{\prime}$ | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ |
| Acc./Voc. | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢ |
| Gen. | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \dot{\alpha}$ | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \delta \omega \nu$ |

## Examples:


 коvß $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ‘ b u c k e t ', ~ \mu \pi \varepsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ' t r o u b l e ', ~ \mu v \lambda \omega v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ' m i l l e r ', ~ \pi \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ' p r i e s t$ ', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ' m o n e y ', ~ \boldsymbol{\sigma o v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ' p e n k n i f e ', ~ \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma ~ ' s p o n g e ~ f i s h e r ', ~$
 'baker', and proper names such as $\Lambda \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$
 'smooth operator, wangler', $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \tau \zeta \boldsymbol { \eta } ร ~ ' c o f f e e - h o u s e ~ k e e p e r ' , ~}$








(b)

| o $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ¢ greengrocer |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom. | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
| Acc./Voc. | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon}$ ¢ |
| Gen. | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |

The noun and the noun phrase

- Singular in - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$, plural - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma: \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ 'boatman’, $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$
 vо七коки́р $\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'landlord, householder', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ 'granddad',

 stressed on the third syllable from the end in the plural, e.g. $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho}^{\text {'butchers'. }}$
- Singular in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, plural - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma: \boldsymbol{\mu} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'uncle, old man'. Note that the stress moves one syllable forward in the plural.
 'bespectacled person, "four-eyes" ', кор $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'womanizer, flirt', $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ то́кıая 'bag snatcher', $\boldsymbol{\tau v \chi \varepsilon \rho \boldsymbol { \alpha } к \boldsymbol { \kappa } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \varsigma ~ ' l u c k y ~ d e v i l ' . ~}$
(c)

| o ¢oúpvapף̧ baker |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom. | ¢ov́pvapףs |  |
| Acc./Voc. | ¢ov́pvapף |  |
| Gen. | ¢ov́pvapף |  |

Examples:

- Singular $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$, plural $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ (with stress on the third syllable from the end): $\boldsymbol{\gamma o v ́ v a \rho \eta s ~ ‘ f u r r i e r ' . ~}$
- Singular - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, plural - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ (with stress on the penultimate syllable): $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{c}_{\text {' }}$ chief shepherd'.


## Feminine nouns

### 3.14 Nouns in - $\alpha$ (parisyllabic)

The distinction between parisyllabic (same number of syllables in singular and plural forms) and imparisyllabic (an additional syllable in the plural)
here too. (For imparisyllabic nouns in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ see section 3.18.) Similarly, we must also divide the parisyllabic feminine nouns in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ into two types according to the stress of the genitive plural. Type (a) nouns have the stress on the penultimate syllable in the genitive plural. Type (b) move the stress to the final syllable in the genitive plural (if they are not stressed on the final syllable throughout their declension).
(a)

| $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \pi \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ hope |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \pi \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \pi \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\zeta}$ |
| Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \pi \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega v}$ |

Examples:

- With stress on the same syllable throughout: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'ray of light, radius', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'week', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ ко́va 'picture, image', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\phi} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'newspaper', $\boldsymbol{\mu \eta \tau \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \rho \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'mother', $\boldsymbol{\text { 人 }} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'group, team', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'fatherland', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \lambda \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'page', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \gamma } \boldsymbol { o } \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'drop', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha } \varphi i \boldsymbol { \delta } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'raisin', and many other nouns in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or -íd $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
- With movement of stress to the penultimate syllable in the genitive plural: к $\lambda \boldsymbol{i} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'scale', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \pi \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'trumpet', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'tunnel', סvvató $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'possibility', tкаvó $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'ability', $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \mathbf{o} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'identity, identity card', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'speed, gear' and all other nouns in -ó $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or - $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.

Some nouns have an alternative genitive singular in -os, which is some-

(b)

| $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ sea |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{c}$ |
| Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ |

Feminine nouns

Examples: 的 $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'anchor', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\theta o v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'hall', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'defence', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \xi \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'value', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'strike', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'attempt', $\beta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'needle', $\gamma \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'bridge', $\gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'tongue, language', $\gamma \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'necktie', $\gamma \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'woman, wife',
 'antenna, aerial', кvрí的 'lady, Mrs', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'mass, lump', $\boldsymbol{\mu \varepsilon ́ \lambda ı \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'bee', $(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \boldsymbol{\mu \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'day' (genitive plural always $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ - other forms with $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ - are regarded as more formal), $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o i} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'fate, degree (of a circle)', $\boldsymbol{\mu о \tau о \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \iota } \lambda \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$

 'flag', $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} v i \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'film, tape', $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \varepsilon \zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'bank', $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'hole’, $\chi \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'country', $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'hour'. Similarly all feminine nouns with the suffixes - $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \iota } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'schoolgirl, (female) pupil') or $\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ (e.g. $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'queen'), and

 'Seychelles', all of which have genitive stressed on the final syllable (e.g.

 of Athens'.

## 3. 15 Nouns in $-\eta$ with plural $-\varepsilon \varsigma$

Nouns in this category, like those in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ in section 3.14 (b), have an obligatory shift of stress to the final syllable in the genitive plural (if they are not stressed on the last syllable throughout). They must be distinguished from other feminine nouns in $\boldsymbol{- \eta}$ which form their plural in a different way (see section 3.17).

| $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ art, skill |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \nu \eta$ | тย́ชข¢ร |
| Gen. | $\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \cup \eta \bigcirc$ | $\tau \varepsilon \chi \nu \omega ่$ |

Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'love', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'change', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'beginning, principle',

 tion' (plural 'holidays'), $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i} \mathbf{\kappa \boldsymbol { \eta }}$ 'trial, lawsuit', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'science', ко́р $\boldsymbol{\eta}$
 $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'price, honour', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'luck', $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'voice', $\boldsymbol{\psi v \chi \eta}$ 'soul'. Similarly the plural place names $\boldsymbol{\Theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ 'Thermopylae’, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ 'Spetses'.
 to the imparisyllabic nouns in section 3.18): $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \varphi \boldsymbol{\eta} / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varphi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'sister', ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} /(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varphi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ '(female) cousin', vv́ $\varphi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'bride, daughter-in-law, sister-in-law’.

## 3. 16 Nouns in -os

Feminine nouns in this category have exactly the same endings as masculine nouns in -os (section 3.11), but are of course accompanied by the feminine forms of the articles. Nouns stressed on the third syllable from the end move the stress to the penultimate syllable in the genitive singular
and the accusative and genitive plural. These feminine nouns do not the end move the stress to the penultimate syllable in the genitive singular
and the accusative and genitive plural. These feminine nouns do not normally have a vocative.

| $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta o \delta o s}$ method |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nominative | $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{o \delta o s}$ | $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\chi}$ |
| Accusative | $\mu \varepsilon ́ \theta o \delta o$ | $\mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\theta o ́ \delta o v ¢ ~}$ |
| Genitive | $\mu \varepsilon$ ¢ódov | $\mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \omega$ v |







 towns, regions, countries and islands which follow this declension in the


 fact, almost all names of islands ending in -os.


### 3.17 Nouns in $-\eta$ with plural - $\varepsilon \iota \varsigma$

The noun
and the noun phrase

Nouns in this category generally follow the declension of other feminine nouns in $-\boldsymbol{\eta}$ in the singular (see section 3.15), but the plural forms are quite different. The stress of two-syllable words remains on the same syllable throughout the declension (e.g. $\gamma \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \eta$ 'knowledge', plural $\gamma \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\iota}$ ). The stress of words of more than two syllables moves one syllable forward in the plural forms. In the genitive singular, these nouns also have an alternative form which can be used in more formal contexts, with the same movement of stress as in the plural.


Examples: $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'force, strength', $\boldsymbol{\pi i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'faith', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'city', and almost all nouns ending in $-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta},-\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ or $-\boldsymbol{\Psi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ : e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'application', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'decision', ф́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'view, opinion', $\gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \nu \eta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'birth', $\gamma \nu \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'knowledge', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \lambda \omega \sigma \boldsymbol{\eta}$



 'poetry', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa \varepsilon ́ \psi \eta ~ ' t h o u g h t ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta$ 'stop', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta$ 'relation(ship)', $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta$ 'television’, vió $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'hypothesis, affair', $\boldsymbol{\Psi v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'freezing’. Similarly the place



### 3.18 Imparisyllabic nouns in -á and -ov́

These feminine nouns add an extra syllable in their plural, just like the masculine imparisyllabic nouns discussed in section 3.13. Their plural
 tive), and this ending is added directly to the nominative singular, which always ends in a stressed vowel, either - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or -ov́. Like other feminine nouns, they have a genitive singular in $-\varsigma$.

| $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{l} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\prime} \dot{\alpha}$ grandmother |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\gamma l \alpha \gamma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\alpha}$ |  |
| Gen. | ¢loylós | $\gamma \iota \alpha \gamma \iota \alpha \delta \omega v$ |

Examples: кvро́ 'missus, madam', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ 'mummy', vovó 'godmother', $\boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'nursemaid'.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\alpha \lambda \varepsilon \pi \%$ v́ | $\alpha \lambda \varepsilon \pi 0$ v́deऽ |
| Gen. | $\alpha \lambda \varepsilon \pi<$ v́s | $\alpha \lambda \varepsilon \pi 0 v ์ \delta \omega \nu$ |

Examples: $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'gossiping woman', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'monkey', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'story-teller', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o v}$ 'chatterbox', v $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho o v}$ 'sleepy-head', and many other words referring to females and often corresponding to a masculine
 $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'loud-mouthed man'.

## 3. 19 Nouns in - $\omega$

Feminine nouns ending in $\boldsymbol{- \omega}$ include many personal (given) names, often diminutives; they do not usually have a plural. There are two types, which differ in the formation of their genitive. The stress remains on the same syllable as in the nominative.

| $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ Froso (diminutive of Evppoovivף) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | Фро́бө |
| Gen. | Фро́б $\omega$ ¢ |

Examples: Aр $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, Ар $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ' 'the Argo' (but there is an alternative genitive

The noun and the noun phrase
 female given names.
$\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\omega}$ echo (no plural)

| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\eta} \chi \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\eta} \chi \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v} \varsigma$ |

Examples: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ' 'persuasion', $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'thrift', and the proper names Iع $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'Jericho', $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ' 'Leto' (with an alternative genitive $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma$ ).

## Nouns of common gender

### 3.20 Nouns which may be either masculine or feminine

Many nouns referring to persons, particularly nouns that denote occupations, are of common gender. In other words, the same forms of the noun are used for both male and female persons, but the article and any other words which modify it (such as adjectives) indicate whether the noun denotes a male or female person or persons in the specific context. For example:
 a good actor
b $\mu 1 \alpha \kappa \alpha \lambda \eta ́ \eta \theta о \pi о \iota o ́ s$ a good actress

Nouns of common gender follow the declension patterns of masculine nouns, but with masculine or feminine article etc. as appropriate. Some examples:

- Like masculine nouns in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (section 3.9): $\boldsymbol{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'professional man/woman', $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'scientist, scholar', $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta}$

- Like masculine nouns in - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ (section 3.10): $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta o v \lambda \varepsilon v \tau \eta ́ s ~ ' m e m b e r ~ o f ~}$
 $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma^{\prime}$ 'robber', $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma^{\text {'citizen' }}$




 'government minister', $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ऽ 'photographer', $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta}$ $\boldsymbol{\psi v \chi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ¢ 'psychologist'

 prosecutor', $\boldsymbol{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'writer, author'. When referring to females, the genitive singular of these nouns has the ending - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \varsigma$, e.g. $\tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega}$

However, many masculine nouns referring to people form a corresponding feminine noun by adding a suffix or different ending, e.g. о к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \gamma \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$
 teacher', $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'female teacher', but the list of those that use the same form as the masculine for female referents, as in the above examples, is growing as a result of women entering more professions (for the formation of feminine nouns from masculine ones see section 11.1).

There is one other type of noun of common gender, with singular in - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\xi}$ and plural in -عís. Strictly speaking, these are adjectives used as nouns (corresponding to the adjectives in section 3.39), but their singular endings are identical with those of the masculine nouns in section 3.10 (except for the alternative genitive form).

| $\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ¢ male/female relative |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom. | бvүชعvท́s | Ovز\%eveıs |
| Acc./Voc. | бvүүعvŋ́ | бvүүعveís |
| Gen. | бvүүعvท́ |  |
|  | or $\boldsymbol{\sigma v \gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |  |

Other examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\jmath} s$ 'sick person, patient', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \gamma \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \eta } s}$ 'nobleman or noblewoman'. In these two cases the genitive singular form in -ov́s is the more common one (while for $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{s}$ it is the form in $-\boldsymbol{\eta}$ ).
$\mathbf{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\mathcal { E }} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\prime} \varsigma$ male/female relative

The noun and the noun phrase

### 3.21 Nouns in -o

Nouns in this category may have stress on any of the last three syllables. As in the case of masculine nouns in -og (section 3.11), we must distinguish two types for nouns of more than two syllables stressed on the third syllable from the end, according to whether the stress moves in the genitive singular and plural. In nouns of type (a) the stress moves to the penultimate syllable in the genitive, whereas in type (b) it remains on the third syllable from the end throughout.
(a)

| то $\theta \dot{\varepsilon} \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{0}$ theatre |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\theta \mathbf{\varepsilon ́ \alpha o} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{0}$ | $\theta \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | $\theta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{0}$ | $\theta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |


 'expense' (usually in the plural), $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$ 'piece of furniture', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{o}$


 and place names such as Mé $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{o}$ and those which have plural forms only,

 which have only plural forms include: $\gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'birthday', $\delta$ í $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 'congratulations', X $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'Christmas'.
(b)

| тo $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ójvvo married couple |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\alpha \nu \tau \rho o ́ \gamma v v o$ | $\alpha v \tau \rho o ́ \gamma v v \alpha$ |
| Gen. |  |  |

Examples (with stress remaining on the same syllable): $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho}$





 -о́лоvдо, as well as many compounds.

The division between nouns of three or more syllables that have fixed stress and those that move the stress has some flexibility: in formal contexts some type (b) nouns may shift the stress to the penultimate syllable in the genitive singular and plural. Nouns that can have both types include: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$



In nouns stressed on the last or penultimate syllable, the stress remains on the same syllable throughout: $\boldsymbol{\alpha \varepsilon \rho o \pi \lambda \alpha ́ \boldsymbol { \alpha } o ~ ' a e r o p l a n e ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \boldsymbol{i}$ o 'book', $\boldsymbol{\beta o v v o}$



### 3.22 Nouns in -í

Neuter nouns in stressed -i have the same endings in the genitive singular and in the plural cases as the nouns in -0. They keep the stress on the final syllable throughout. In all forms except the nominative, accusative and vocative singular the $\mathbf{- t}$ - loses its syllabic value (see section 1.2).

| $\boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i}$ child |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{i} \mathbf{~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ |
| Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\imath o} \mathbf{v}$ | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ |


 'kiss', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i}$ 'paper', $\boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{i}$ 'bread', and all other nouns in -í stressed on the final syllable, except for words of foreign origin such as $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \xi \mathbf{i}$ 'taxi', which are normally indeclinable (see section 3.31). The noun $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{i}$

Neuter nouns
Neuter nouns
'morning' has genitive singular $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v o v}$, nominative and accusative plural
 'Chania' and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'Sfakia' are stressed on the penultimate syllable in the genitive: X $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v i} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$.

### 3.23 Nouns in -t

These nouns are always stressed on the penultimate syllable (with one exception, for which see below). In the genitive singular and plural they move the stress to the final syllable, with the - $\mathbf{t}$ - losing its syllabic value (compare the nouns in section 3.22).

| to a $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ ópı boy |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc./ Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ ópı | абópı $\alpha$ |
| Gen. | оборıov́ | аүорıóv |



 nouns in - $\mathbf{-}$. There is one noun which is stressed on the third syllable from the end: $\varphi$ ì $\boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'ivory', genitive $\varphi \boldsymbol{\imath} \lambda \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{o v}$ (no plural). Diminutives
 singular or plural.

A few nouns end in -v (instead of -i). They are: $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'evening' (but genitive singular $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\imath o v}$, nominative and accusative plural $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, genitive plural $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{v})$, $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{v}$ 'net', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{v}$ 'ear of corn'. An exception is $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'tear', spelt with $\mathbf{v}$ in all its forms: singular $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v}$ (the genitive is not normally used), nominative and accusative plural $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \kappa \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, genitive $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$. For other neuter nouns in -v see section 3.28.

Neuter nouns in -ál or -ól add a $\gamma$ before the endings in all forms other than the nominative and accusative singular, e.g. $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'tea', genitive
 'family, lineage'.

### 3.24 Nouns in -os

Neuter nouns in -os may be of either two syllables (like кро́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'state') or three syllables (like $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \delta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{o} \varsigma$ 'ground, territory'). They are all stressed on the first syllable in the nominative and accusative singular and move the stress to the final syllable in the genitive plural. Three-syllable words move the stress to the penultimate syllable in the genitive singular and the nominative and accusative plural (the vocative case is rarely used).

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. | кро́то¢ | кро́т $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ |
| Gen. | кро́̇ovs | кратळ́v |






| тo Édaloso ground, territory |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. | ¢́Soupos | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \delta \alpha ́ \alpha} \varphi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ |
| Gen. | عঠ́áqovs | $\varepsilon \delta \alpha \varphi \omega{ }^{\text {人 }}$ |



### 3.25 Nouns in $-\mu \alpha$

These nouns may be of two syllables, like ки́ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'wave' (stressed on the first syllable), or of three or more syllables, like $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'result' (stressed on the third syllable from the end). The endings of the genitive singular and all plural cases involve an additional syllable, which has implications for the position of the stress. The genitive singular and the nominative and
accusative plural of these nouns are always stressed on the third syllable from the end; the genitive plural always has the stress on the penultumate syllable. The vocative is the same as the nominative but is rarely found.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. Gen. | $\alpha \pi \sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \mu \alpha$ $\alpha \pi о \tau \varepsilon \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \mu \alpha \tau о \varsigma$ | $\alpha \pi 0 \tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \mu \alpha \tau \alpha$ $\alpha \pi о \tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \mu \dot{\alpha} \tau \omega \nu$ |

Examples: $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'statue', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'blood', $\gamma \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'letter', $\delta \boldsymbol{1} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$


 $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'system', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'sketch', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'body', $\boldsymbol{\chi \rho \omega} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'colour', and all other nouns ending in $-\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (with two exceptions: кре́ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'cream' and $\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'blade', which are feminine). Some nouns occur only in the plural, e.g. $\gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ -


### 3.26 Nouns in - $\boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o}$

These nouns are all derived from verbs and denote an action. Their nominative singular ends in $-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0},-\xi \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0}$, or $-\boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0}$, with the stress on the third syllable from the end. In the genitive singular and all cases in the plural they have endings like those of nouns in $-\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (section 3.25), with the same pattern of stress. The genitive plural of these nouns is rarely used.

| $\tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ (act of) washing |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. |  | $\pi \lambda v \sigma i \mu \alpha \tau \alpha$ |
| Gen. | $\pi \lambda v \sigma i \mu \alpha \tau 0 \varsigma$ | ( $\pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \omega \boldsymbol{\nu})$ |


 iour', $\varphi \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'fault, blame'.
3.27 Other neuter nouns in - $\varsigma$

A few neuter nouns end in $-\varsigma$, but are distinguished from nouns in -os (section 3.24) by the different vowel of the last syllable, or by the position of the stress in the nominative singular. The endings of the other cases (- $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}_{\mathrm{e}}$ etc.) are similar to those of neuter nouns in $-\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (section 3.25), but without the syllable $-\mu \boldsymbol{\mu}$-. The position of stress varies. In the first example, the stress of the genitive singular and the nominative and accusative plural is on the third syllable from the end; in the genitive plural it moves to the penultimate syllable (compare neuter nouns in $-\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ).

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. |  | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. |  | крعவ่́ $\tau \omega \nu$ |

Examples: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma^{\prime}$ 'end, conclusion' and $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'monster'. These are the only other nouns which follow this pattern.

Other neuter nouns in $-\varsigma$ have the same endings added to the last vowel ( $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ or $\mathbf{o})$. They keep the stress on the same syllable as in the nominative singular. First we give $\varphi \omega s$, which is irregular in that the stress of its genitive singular is on the last syllable.

| $\boldsymbol{\tau 0} \varphi \omega \varsigma$ light |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. | $\boldsymbol{\varphi \omega \varsigma}$ | $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\varphi \omega \tau \mathbf { o ́ s }}$ | $\boldsymbol{\varphi \omega \tau \omega \nu}$ |

Examples (with no shift of stress): $\boldsymbol{\gamma \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \gamma } \boldsymbol { o v o ́ } \varsigma ~ ' e v e n t , ~ f a c t ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma$ 'régime, status quo'. The following have no plural forms: $\boldsymbol{\alpha \varepsilon \rho \iota o ́ \varphi \omega s ~ ' g a s l i g h t ' , ~}$ $\eta \mu i ́ \varphi \omega \varsigma$ 'half-light, twilight', $\lambda \boldsymbol{v \kappa o ́ \varphi \omega \varsigma ~ ' d u s k ' . ~}$
3.28 Other neuter nouns ending in vowels

The noun and the noun phrase

A few other neuter nouns present certain irregularities. First, there are two nouns which have a genitive singular in - $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ :

| тo $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ milk |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. | $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau 0 \varsigma$ | ( $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \kappa \tau \omega v$ ) |
|  | or $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha k}$ |  |

The genitive plural of this noun is very rarely used. Similarly, $\mu \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ 'honey',


Second, there are two neuter nouns ending in -v which have a genitive singular in - $\mathbf{\varepsilon O} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$, but with different stress:
$\square$
to osú acid

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom./Acc. | ofú | ofté $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | O¢̧́zos | o $\boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\varepsilon} \omega \nu$ |

$\tau 0 \eta \mu \tau \sigma v$ half (no plural forms)

Nom./Acc.
$\dot{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v}$
Gen. $\quad \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$

For other neuter nouns ending in -v see section 3.23.

In this category are a number of nouns which derive from participles, and two other words which have slightly different endings. First we give the nouns originally derived from the neuter forms of participles (compare the adjective declensions in section 3.41). They keep the stress on the same syllable as in the nominative singular, except for the genitive plural, which is always stressed on the penultimate syllable.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. | عvס几a¢ćpov | $\varepsilon v \delta ı \alpha \varphi \varepsilon ́ \rho o v \tau \alpha$ |
| Gen. | عvסıа¢е́povtos | $\varepsilon v \delta ı \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \rho о ́ v \tau \omega \nu$ |

 'past', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \mathbf{o ́ v} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'present', $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \rho \imath \boldsymbol { \beta } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol { o v } ~ ' e n v i r o n m e n t , ~ s u r r o u n d i n g s ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\pi \rho o i ̈ o ́ v}$ 'product', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{v}$, 'qualification, advantage', $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'event', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$
 'vowel'.

The noun $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'everything' has a similar declension to the above, except that it is stressed on the final syllable in the genitive singular:

| $\tau 0 \pi \alpha \nu$ everything |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |
| Nom./Acc. | $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | $\pi \alpha v \tau o ́ s$ | $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |

Finally in this category, the noun $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'zero' has the following singular forms, but no plural:

The noun and the noun phrase
$\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ zero

Nom./Acc.
$\mu \eta \delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$
Gen.
$\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon v o ́ s}$

## Special types of noun

### 3.30 Nouns with a change of gender in the plural

The list below shows nouns which are masculine in the singular, but have a plural of neuter gender. Sometimes a masculine plural form also exists, but may have a different meaning:
 $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \delta \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varphi \imath \alpha / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \delta \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \varphi \imath \alpha$ 'siblings'
o $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{c}$ 'bush', pl. ot $\boldsymbol{\beta} \dot{\alpha} \tau \mathbf{\tau}$ or $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \dot{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
o $\boldsymbol{\beta} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{o s}$ 'rock', pl. ot $\boldsymbol{\beta} \rho \dot{\alpha} \chi$ ot or $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \rho \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
o $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o}_{\varsigma}$ 'bond, relationship', pl. ot $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o i}$ 'bonds' (metaphorical), $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'fetters, shackles' (literal)
о калvós 'smoke, tobacco', pl. о七 калvoí 'smoke', $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \nu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'tobacco(s)'

 $\lambda \mathbf{o ́} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'words'

o $\pi \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o v ́ \tau o s}$ 'wealth', $\mathrm{pl} . \tau \alpha \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \eta$ 'riches'
o $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \mathbf{o ́} \varsigma$ 'hay', pl. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 spectacle frames', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \kappa \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ' 'shelves or frames for display of merchandise'

o $\chi \boldsymbol{\rho}$ óvos 'time, year, tense (of verb)', pl. ot $\chi \boldsymbol{\rho}$ óvot 'times, tenses', $\tau \alpha \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho o ́ v ı \alpha}$ 'years'

### 3.3 I Indeclinable nouns

Indeclinable nouns have a single form，which serves for all cases，singular and plural．Like all other nouns，however，they have a gender：masculine， feminine or neuter．There is a large（and growing）number of nouns of foreign origin which have not been assimilated into the Greek declension system，including place names and proper names．Some common examples are given below．Also indeclinable are all the names of the letters of the Greek alphabet，which are neuter： $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\boldsymbol{\lambda}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ，etc．

Masculine：
$\mu \pi \dot{\alpha} \rho \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ barman
Feminine：

| ع $\lambda i \boldsymbol{\tau}$ | élite | $\sigma \alpha \nu \tau \iota \gamma i ́$ | whipped cream |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mu \pi \mathbf{\pi}$ оíк | boutique | $\sigma \varepsilon \zeta$ óv | season |
| Ovóбıүктоv | Washington DC | $\sigma \pi \varepsilon \sigma \iota \alpha \lambda l \tau \dot{\varepsilon}$ | speciality |
| $\pi \lambda \alpha \zeta$ | beach | $\tau \zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | jazz |

and names of football teams，e．g． $\boldsymbol{\eta}$＇A $\rho \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda$＇Arsenal＇
Common gender：
$\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \alpha \tau \zeta \varepsilon \rho \quad$ manager $\quad \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho \varepsilon \pi \dot{\rho} \rho \tau \varepsilon \rho$ reporter
$\boldsymbol{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \beta$ private detective
$\boldsymbol{o} / \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \quad$ star
Neuter：

| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ | lift |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ | steering－wheel |
| $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta$ | garage |
| $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \rho \omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | euro |


| коviak <br> $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta$ <br> $\mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \tau$ <br> $\mu \varepsilon \tau \rho о ́$ <br> $\mu \pi \alpha \rho$ |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

$\mu \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \sigma \kappa \varepsilon \tau \quad$ basketball
vólidov
$\pi \alpha \rho \mu \pi \rho i \zeta$
$\pi \dot{\alpha} \rho \tau \iota$
$\pi о \nu \lambda о ́ \beta \varepsilon \rho$
раvт\＆ßov́

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { к } \alpha \mu о v \varphi \lambda \dot{\alpha} \zeta \\ & \text { к } \varepsilon ́ \iota к \end{aligned}$ | camouflage cake |
| :---: | :---: |
| коитıо⿱㇒⿻丷木兀єр | computer |
| also masculine | a plural |
| коитıои́тยр | sometimes |
| found |  |
| $\rho \varepsilon \pi$ ó | day off |
| $\rho \varepsilon \tau \iota \rho \dot{\varepsilon}$ | penthouse |
| бок | shock |
| $\tau \boldsymbol{\mu} \mu \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{o}$ | picture， dashboard |
| $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | （military）tank |
| $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \xi^{\prime}$ | taxi |
| $\tau ⿺ \rho \mu \pi$ оvoóv | corkscrew |
| $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \kappa$ | stage fright， nerves |
| $\varphi \varepsilon \rho \mu$ оváp | zip |

The noun and the noun phrase

### 3.32 Adjectives in outline

An adjective is a word which denotes a property or characteristic of a certain noun or noun phrase, e.g. 'white', 'short', 'difficult', 'jealous'. Almost all Greek adjectives inflect for gender, number and case. The endings have close similarities with those of various noun declensions. Unlike nouns, however, most adjectives keep the stress on the same syllable for all their forms (for the exceptions see sections 3.39 and 3.41). A few adjectives have a single invariable form, and examples of these are given in section 3.42. The use of adjectives is discussed in section 3.57.

Adjectives may also have special forms which are used to express comparison. Just as in English, there is a comparative ('bigger') and a superlative ('biggest') form for many adjectives. These forms are presented in sections 3.44-3.47.

## The forms of adjectives

### 3.33 Adjectives in -os, - $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, -o

This very numerous category comprises adjectives which have either a consonant or an unstressed vowel other than /i/ immediately before the ending -os. Their endings correspond to those of nouns as follows: masculine like those of the nouns in section 3.11 ; feminine like nouns in section 3.15; neuter like nouns in section 3.21. The stress remains on the same syllable throughout.
$\psi \eta \lambda \mathbf{o} \varsigma$ high, tall

|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom. | $\psi \eta \lambda \mathbf{o ́ s}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \eta$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \dot{\prime}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda$ oí | $\psi \eta \lambda \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Acc. | $\psi \eta \lambda о ́$ | $\Psi \eta \lambda \eta$ | $\psi \eta \lambda$ о́ | $\psi \eta \lambda$ оv́s | $\psi \eta \lambda \underline{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | $\Psi \eta \lambda$ ои́ | $\Psi \eta \lambda \eta{ }^{\prime}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda$ оv́ | $\psi \eta \lambda \omega \dot{\nu}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \omega \dot{\nu}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \omega \nu$ |
| Voc. | $\psi \eta \lambda \dot{\varepsilon}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \eta$ | $\psi \eta \lambda$ о́ | $\Psi \eta \lambda$ oí | $\psi \eta \lambda \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}$ | $\psi \eta \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ |

## Examples:





 passive perfect participles ending in - $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v o s}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v o} \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ 'pleased'



### 3.34 Adjectives in -os, $-\alpha$, -o

The only difference between this type and that in section 3.33 is in the vowel of the feminine singular forms: they have nominative, accusative and vocative in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and genitive in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$. This type includes adjectives which have /i/ or any stressed vowel before the ending -os. Again the stress remains on the same syllable.






There are some other adjectives which do not have stems ending in vowels but follow the above pattern, with feminine in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ rather than $\boldsymbol{- \eta}$. Examples:
 The noun and the noun phrase

 $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varphi}$ о́ $о \boldsymbol{\rho}$＇fruitful＇．

## 3．35 Adjectives in－os， $\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \tau }} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ，－o

It is the form of the feminine singular that also distinguishes this type of adjective from those in the previous two sections．The endings are－ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ （nominative，accusative and vocative）and－ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$（genitive）．

| $\gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ ¢óg sweet |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  | Plural |  |  |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom． | ز $\lambda$ 人кós | $\gamma \lambda$ 人кı ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ү $\lambda$ око́ | $\gamma \lambda$ окоí | $\gamma \lambda 0 \kappa \varepsilon ์ ¢$ | $\gamma \lambda v \kappa \alpha \dot{1}$ |
| Acc． | $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa o ́$ | $\gamma \lambda$ окıо́ | ү入vко́ | $\gamma \lambda$ ккои́s | $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \varepsilon ́ ¢$ | $\gamma \lambda v \kappa \alpha \dot{1}$ |
| Gen． | $\gamma \lambda$ ккоט́ | $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \iota \alpha{ }_{\text {ćs }}$ | $\gamma \lambda$ кой | $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \omega ்$ | ү $\lambda$ окळ́v | $\gamma \lambda$ ккб́v |
| Voc． | $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \varepsilon ์$ |  | $\gamma \lambda$ кко́ | $\gamma \lambda$ ккоí | $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \varepsilon ́ \varsigma$ | $\gamma \lambda v \kappa \alpha \dot{1}$ |

There are very few adjectives that must follow this pattern：apart from $\gamma \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \varsigma$ ，the only common one is $\boldsymbol{\varphi \rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$＇fresh＇．However，a number of other adjectives may form their feminine singular with－ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ，as an alterna－

 $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varsigma$＇poor＇．The position of stress in the feminine forms is the same as in the corresponding masculine forms，e．g．$\beta \rho \omega \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\kappa \iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ，but $\varphi \tau \omega \chi \iota \dot{\alpha}$ ．

## 3．36 Adjectives in－v́s，－tó，－－v́

This type is characterized by the－ $\mathbf{v}$－vowel of the masculine and neuter singular forms．The remaining forms have a non－syllabic－l－（see section 1．2）before the endings，which are the same as those of the adjectives in section 3．34．The stress is always on the final syllable．The genitive of the

| $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ v́s heavy |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom． | $\beta \alpha \rho$ v́s | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ı́ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\beta \alpha \rho$ v́ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \alpha \rho ı$ oí | $\beta \alpha \rho t \varepsilon ́ \zeta$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Acc． | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ v́ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ | $\beta \alpha \rho$ v́ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ¢о⿱㇒日勺心 | $\beta \alpha \rho t \varepsilon ́ s$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢́ |
| Gen． | （ $\beta$ 人pıov́ $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{v})$ | $\beta \boldsymbol{\alpha \rho l \alpha ́ s}$ | （ $\beta$ 人pıov́／ $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{v})$ | $\beta \alpha \rho ı \omega ้$ | $\beta \alpha \rho ı \omega$ v | $\beta \alpha \rho ı \omega$ v |
| Voc． | $\beta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ри́ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ı́ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\beta \alpha \rho$ v́ | $\beta \boldsymbol{\alpha p ı o i ́}$ | $\beta \boldsymbol{\alpha \rho t \varepsilon ́ s ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |

Examples： $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ v́s＇heavy＇， $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \varsigma ~ ' t h i c k, ~ d e n s e ', ~ \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{v} \varsigma ~ ‘ l i g h t ’ ~(a n ~ a l t e r-~$
 $\tau \rho \alpha \chi \dot{v} \varsigma ~ ' r o u g h ', ~ \varphi \alpha \rho \delta \dot{v} \varsigma ~ ' w i d e ' . ~$

## 3．37 Adjectives in－ท́s，－ı̛́́，－í

This type is very similar to the previous one．The only difference is in the spelling of the endings：the masculine singular forms have－n－（instead of － $\mathbf{v}-$ ）and the neuter singular forms have－í（instead of－ $\mathbf{v}$ ）．Again the geni－ tive singular of the masculine and neuter is rare（see table on p .58 ）．This category consists mostly of adjectives denoting colour or material．


 tive form to $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \mathbf{\imath} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{s},-\boldsymbol{\alpha},-\mathbf{o}$.

## 3．38 The adjective（quantifier）$\pi o \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$

The adjective（or quantifier） $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v}$＇much，many＇needs special attention． The endings of the nominative and accusative masculine and neuter singular are basically the same as those of the adjectives in section 3．36． The endings of the remaining forms are identical to those of adjectives in $-\mathbf{o s},-\boldsymbol{\eta},-\mathbf{o}$（section 3．33），but it is important to note that the stem of these forms ends in double $\lambda$ ．The genitive singular forms of the masculine and neuter are rarely used，and there is no vocative（see p．58）．
$\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \tau и ́ ร ~ b r o w n ~}$

|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom. | коретйऽ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | коцвтí | коретıoí |  |  |
| Acc. | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \tau \tau ! ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi E \tau \iota \alpha ́}$ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi E \tau i ́}$ | коретtov́s | каретıв́ऽ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \Sigma \tau \iota \alpha ́}$ |
| Gen. | (кацعтıov́/ $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \tau i ́ ) ~}$ | карモ̇ıо́s | (кацعтıós/ $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ ) | $\kappa \alpha \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \iota \omega$ |  |  |
| Voc. | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta}$ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \Sigma \tau ı \alpha ́}$ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \tau i ́ ~}$ | кацрetioí | $\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \tau \iota \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \Sigma \tau ı \alpha ́}$ |


|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom. | $\pi$ пой́s | $\pi \mathbf{o} \lambda \lambda \eta \dot{\eta}$ | $\pi \mathrm{t} \lambda \boldsymbol{v}$ | $\pi \mathrm{o} \lambda \lambda \mathrm{oí}$ | $\pi \rho \lambda \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ | $\pi \mathbf{\sigma} \lambda \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ |
| Acc. | $\pi \mathrm{o} \lambda \dot{v}(v)$ | $\pi \mathbf{o} \lambda \lambda \dot{\eta}$ | $\pi 0 \lambda \underline{\prime}$ | тод入ov́s | $\pi 0 \lambda \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ | $\pi \mathbf{o} \lambda \lambda \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ |
| Gen. | ( $\pi \mathbf{o} \lambda \lambda \mathrm{ov}$ ) |  | ( $\pi \mathbf{0} \lambda \lambda 0$ ) | $\pi о \lambda \lambda \omega \dot{\nu}$ | $\pi 0 \lambda \lambda \omega \dot{v}$ |  |

## 3．39 Adjectives in $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varsigma},-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$

Adjectives of this type do not have separate forms for the masculine and feminine．There is one set of forms（singular and plural）for masculine and feminine genders．We give two examples below，because of their different stress patterns．In the first the stress remains on the same syllable（either the final or the penultimate syllable）for all forms．In the second the stress is on the penultimate syllable except that it moves to the third syllable from the end in the nominative and accusative of the neuter singular．Adjectives in this category do not normally have vocative forms．

| $\boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa \rho ı \boldsymbol { \beta }}$ ¢ е exact |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular |  | Plural |  |
|  | M／F | N | M／F | N |
| Nom． | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa \rho ı \beta и ̆ ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta \varepsilon ́ s ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta \varepsilon i s ~}$ | $\alpha<\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ |
| Acc． | $\alpha<\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta \varepsilon ́ s ~}$ | акрıßعís | $\alpha<\rho ı \beta \eta$ |
| Gen． | 人крıßойя | 人крıßov́s | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta \omega ้ ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta \omega ́ v ~}$ |

Examples（with stress remaining on the same syllable）： $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{q}_{s}$＇true＇，





 Adjectives ending in－ $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ follow the same pattern，except that their geni－ tive plural（all genders）has the stress on the final syllable，e．g．$\varphi \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\kappa \kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{s}$ ＇frightful＇，genitive plural $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$ ．

| $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta ̇ \theta \eta ¢ ~ u s u a l ~}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular |  | Plural |  |
|  | M／F | N | M／F | N |
| Nom． Acc． Gen． | бvvín $\theta$ s <br> бvvŋ́ $\theta \eta$ <br> бvvŋ́日ovs | $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ <br> бט́vŋ日es <br> बvvท́Өovs |  <br> бvvク่өとıs <br> $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta \dot { \eta } \theta v}$ | $\sigma v v \dot{\theta} \theta \eta$ <br> $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta}$ <br> $\sigma v v \eta \dot{\theta} \theta v$ |

Examples (with movement of stress to the third syllable from the end in the neuter nominative and accusative singular): $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ 'impudent',


### 3.40 Adjectives with neuter in -lкo

Two sets of adjective can be classified in this group. Those in the first set (a) mainly denote physical appearance, character or mood. Their masculine forms end in $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ and are declined like the corresponding nouns in section 3.13 (b); the feminine forms end in $-\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and follow the declension of the nouns in section 3.14 (but there is no genitive plural form); the neuter forms add -tко to the stem and are declined like other neuter adjectives (e.g. those in section 3.33). The stress remains on the same syllable throughout (see p. 61). When they do not refer to persons, these adjectives have masculine forms in -lкоя and feminine ones in -lкпŋ (declined like




 adjectives in which the second element denotes a part of the body, e.g.
 bish' (literally 'high-nosed').

The adjectives in the second set with neuter in -tко (b) also mainly denote aspects of physical appearance, character or behaviour. The masculine nominative singular ends in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ or - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$, and the plural is formed as for the corresponding nouns in section 3.13 (a). The feminine endings are the same as those of the noun declension in -ov́ in section 3.18. Just as the masculine and feminine plural forms add a $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ to the stem of the singular, so do all the neuter forms, which consequently end in - $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{\kappa o}$, etc (see p. 61). However, these adjectives also have masculine forms in - $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ and feminine ones in - $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\mathbf { k } \boldsymbol { \eta }}$, which are used for nouns that do not refer to persons,





The masculine and feminine forms of these adjectives are also regularly used as nouns, e.g. $\mathbf{o} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma_{\varsigma}^{\prime}$ 'the glutton' (compare sections 3.13 and 3.18).
(a) $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \varsigma$ lazy

|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom. | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \bigcirc$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \alpha$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \iota \lll$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon$ ¢ $\lambda \eta \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon ̇ \lambda ı к \alpha$ |
| Acc. | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \dot{\lambda} \lambda \alpha$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon$ ¢́入lко | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon ̇ \lambda ı \kappa \alpha$ |
| Gen. | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \alpha \varsigma^{\prime}$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda$ ıко才 | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \delta \omega \nu$ | - | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \iota<\kappa \omega$ |
| Voc. | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \alpha$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \iota$ ко | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \delta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon$ ¢ $\lambda$ ıк $\alpha$ |

(b) $\varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ gluttonous
Singular










Plural

The noun
and the noun phrase

This is a rather small category but it includes some frequently used adjectives. In origin, they are the declined participle forms of verbs and may be
 However, not all verbs can form adjectives in this way; in fact there are very few such words in everyday use. The masculine forms, except the nominative singular, and the neuter forms, except the nominative and accusative singular, have a stem ending in -ove-. The feminine forms have a stem ending in -ova-. In the genitive plural the masculine and neuter have stress on the penultimate syllable, while the feminine moves the stress to the last syllable. The vocative is rare, but is the same as the corresponding nominative.
$\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{c} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ urgent

|  | Singular |  |  | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom. | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon i \gamma \omega v$ | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon i ́ \gamma o v \sigma \alpha$ | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon$ írov | عляí\%ovte¢ | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon$ ¢́rovąऽ | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \alpha$ |
| Acc. |  |  | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon$ íरov |  |  | $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon$ íरov $\tau \alpha$ |
| Gen. | عляí\%ovtos | عлєí\%ovads | ع $\pi$ عírov | £ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \gamma$ о́v $\tau \omega \nu$ |  | £ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \gamma$ о́v $\tau \omega \nu$ |


 principal', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'studying', v $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'existing'.

Other adjectives with the same endings differ in the position of stress, e.g. $\pi \alpha \rho \omega \dot{v}, \pi \alpha \rho о \boldsymbol{v} \sigma \alpha, \pi \alpha \rho o ́ v$, plural $\pi \alpha \rho o ́ v \tau \varepsilon \varsigma, \pi \alpha \rho о v ́ \sigma \varepsilon \varsigma, \pi \alpha \rho o ́ v \tau \alpha ~ ' p r e s e n t ' . ~$ The stress remains on the same syllable, except for the genitive plural of the feminine, which has the stress on the final syllable: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$; similarly $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'absent', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'unsuccessful', $\boldsymbol{\tau v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'chancing to happen, ordinary'. A few others (deriving from second-conjugation verbs) have -ov́v in the nominative and accusative neuter singular and the syllable -ov́v $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ - instead of -óv $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ - in the relevant masculine and neuter forms: $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { o t }} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$, -ov́б人, -ov́v 'managing', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \pi \iota \kappa \boldsymbol { \iota } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \omega } \boldsymbol { v }}$ 'prevailing'. Finally, there is yet
 'ruling'.
3.42 Indeclinable adjectives

Some adjectives, mainly loan-words from other languages, do not decline; they have a single form for all genders and cases, singular and plural.

 packed'.

## Comparison of adjectives

### 3.43 Overview

Sections 3.33-3.42 give the basic (or positive) forms of adjectives. When we want to compare the extent to which different persons or things possess a particular property, we can use the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives: 'bigger, biggest'; 'better, best'. The comparative establishes a comparison between two persons, things or groups (e.g. 'John is kinder than Peter'). We need to make a distinction between the relative superlative ('the kindest') and the absolute superlative ('most kind', 'extremely kind'). The way such comparative and superlative forms are produced in Greek from the basic adjective forms is described in the next four sections.

### 3.44 The comparative

In English there are two ways of forming the comparative: we can either add the suffix -er to the positive form ('older', 'kinder', 'cleverer', etc.) or we can use the word 'more' ('more clever', 'more interesting', etc.). However, not all adjectives can use both ways of making a comparative. In addition, English has some irregular comparative forms, e.g. 'good' $\rightarrow$ 'better', 'bad' $\rightarrow$ 'worse'. Similarly in Greek there are two ways of making a comparative, but some adjectives do not have a one-word form; they can use only a form with the word $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{1 0}$ 'more'. There are also some irregular formations, for which see section 3.47.

All Greek adjectives can have a comparative form which simply puts $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{t} \mathbf{o}$

 number, gender and case, just like the positive forms. The alternative, oneword comparative is formed from the nominative of the neuter singular with the addition of the suffix - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \rho \rho o s}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{s}$ 'more important',
$\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o} \varsigma$ © broader＇．Such comparative forms have the stress on the third

The noun and the noun phrase
syllable from the end and are declined like the adjectives in section 3．33，i．e． with feminine singular in $\mathbf{- \eta}$ ．One－word comparatives of this kind do not
 or－ $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}$ ，－ov $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha},-\mathbf{o v}$ ；adjectives with neuter in－tко；indeclinable adjectives． Such adjectives only have the comparative with $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\imath} \mathbf{o}$ ．

The table below lists all the adjective types presented in sections 3．33－3．37 and 3．39－3．42，with the comparative forms available for each．The dash （－）indicates that a one－word comparative form does not exist for this type．

| $\Psi 1$ | $\pi 10 \psi \eta \lambda$ ós | $\psi \eta \lambda$ о́ $\tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ | higher，taller | （section 3．33） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\pi \iota 0 \tau \underline{\lambda} \lambda \varepsilon \iota 0 ¢$ | $\tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon ⿺ 𠃊 ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ | more perfect | （section 3．34） |
| $\varphi \rho \varepsilon ́ \sigma к о \varsigma$ | $\pi \iota 0$ ¢ре́бкоя | ¢рєбко́тعроऽ | fresher | （section 3．35） |
| $\beta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ и́s | $\pi \iota \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ v́s | $\beta \alpha \rho$ и́тعроя | heavier | （section 3．36） |
| коретйя |  | － | browner | （section 3．37） |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha к р ı в и ̆ s ~}$ | $\pi \iota 0$ 人крıßйs |  | more precise | （section 3．39） |
|  | $\pi \iota 0$ бvvŋ́ $\theta$ ¢ |  | more usual | （section 3．39） |
| $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta{ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | $\pi \iota 0 \tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon ̇ \lambda \eta S$ | － | lazier | （section 3．40） |
|  | $\pi \iota 0$ ¢обо́я | － | more | （section 3．40） |
|  |  |  | gluttonous |  |
| $\varepsilon \pi$ | $\pi \iota 0 \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} \gamma \omega \nu$ | － | more urgent | （section 3．41） |
| $\gamma \kappa \rho ⿺$ | $\pi \iota 0 \gamma \kappa \rho \iota$ | － | greyer | （section 3．42） |

For the use of the comparative in complete sentences，and for expressions of inferiority（e．g．＇less interesting＇）see section 10．22．

## 3．45 The relative superlative

The relative superlative is used to indicate that the person or thing to which it refers possesses a particular property to the highest degree relative to others in the same group，e．g．＇the cleverest person I have ever met＇，＇the most important member of the team＇，＇the tallest building in Europe＇．The relative superlative is formed in the same way as the comparative，but is preceded by the definite article．Adjectives that have a choice of two comparative forms also have two corresponding relative superlatives， declined in the same way．For convenience we give the relative superlative forms of the adjective types listed in section 3．44：

| $\lambda$ ¢́s | о $\pi \iota 0 \psi \eta \lambda \underline{\prime} \varsigma^{\prime}$ | о $\psi \eta \lambda$ о́т $\tau \rho о \varsigma ~$ | the highest／tallest |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | the most perfect |


| $\varphi \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \kappa о \varsigma$ $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ и́s | о $\pi \iota 0$ 甲 $\rho \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \kappa о \varsigma$ <br> о $\pi \imath 0$ ß $\alpha \rho$ v́s | о $\varphi \rho \varepsilon \sigma \kappa о ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ <br> o $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ри́тєроร | the freshest the heaviest | The absolute superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| коретйs |  | - | the brownest |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa р ı \beta ท ่ s ~}$ |  |  | the most precise |  |
| бvvŋ́Өŋs |  | о $\sigma v \vee \eta \theta \varepsilon ́ \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ | the most usual |  |
| $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \varsigma$ | о $\pi \iota 0 \tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \varsigma$ | - | the laziest |  |
| ¢обо́s |  | - | the most gluttonous |  |
| $\varepsilon \pi \varepsilon i ́ \gamma \omega \nu$ |  | - | the most urgent |  |
| $\gamma \boldsymbol{\kappa \rho !}$ |  | - | the greyest |  |

### 3.46 The absolute superlative

Greek has a special kind of superlative called the absolute superlative, which is used to stress an exceptional property of a person or thing. Compare the English 'She is a most able teacher' or 'This news is most significant'. In such cases we are not making a direct comparison with other, less able, teachers or other, less significant, news, but merely emphasizing the exceptional ability of the teacher or the exceptional significance of the news in question. In Greek the absolute superlative is formed from the neuter of the positive adjective with the addition of the suffix $-\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$. Like the comparative and the relative superlative, it is stressed on the third syllable from the end and declines like adjectives in -os, $\boldsymbol{- \eta},-\mathbf{o}$. Adjectives which do not have a one-word comparative in $-\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ cannot form an absolute superlative.

 'very deep indeed, profound', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \mathbf{o \chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'most eminent'. As can be seen from the translations given above, English has a variety of ways of expressing the same idea.

### 3.47 Irregular comparatives and superlatives

Some adjectives have comparative and/or superlative degrees that are not formed according to the patterns given in sections 3.44-3.46. The following table lists the most common irregular forms. The comparative and relative superlative forms are the same, except that the relative superlative is preceded by the definite article.

| Positive | Comparative／relative superlative | Absolute superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\alpha \pi \lambda \mathbf{o ́ s}$ simple ккко́s bad | （o）$\alpha \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ ó $\sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ s simpler，simplest <br> （o）$\chi \varepsilon \varepsilon \rho$ о́ $\tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ worse，worst | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ extremely simple ко́кıбто̧ most wicked थとíplatos worst |
| к $\alpha \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o ́}_{\varsigma} \operatorname{good}$ |  | ко่́ $\lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \sigma \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ，finest人́ $\rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \mathbf{o}$ excellent |
| кovtós short | （o）коv七ó $\tau \varepsilon \rho \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ shorter／est in height <br> （o）Kovtú $\tau \varepsilon \rho$ os shorter／est in length | － |
| 入íros little | （o）$\lambda \mathbf{l} \gamma \mathbf{o} \tau \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ less／fewer，least／fewest | $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ s extremely little／few |
| $\mu \varepsilon \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o s}$ big，great | （o）$\mu \varepsilon \gamma \alpha \lambda$ v́te ${ }^{\text {cos }}$ bigger，biggest |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\mu \iota \kappa \rho o ́ s ~ s m a l l ~}$ |  | £ $\lambda$ 人́xı $\sigma \tau 0 ¢$ minimal |
| $\pi$ поиvs much | （o）$\pi \varepsilon \rho 1 \sigma \sigma$ ó $\tau \varepsilon \rho 0$ ¢ more，most | $\pi \lambda \varepsilon \mathbf{\varepsilon i \sigma \tau o s ~ v e r y ~ m u c h / m a n y ~}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ¢ first | （o）$\pi \rho \omega \tau$ v́ $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ earlier，earliest |  |

The following comparative，relative and absolute superlative forms do not derive from adjectives in the positive degree；some of them derive from other parts of speech，as indicated in the first column（words in brackets are not normally used today）．

|  | Comparative／relative superlative | Absolute superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （自しめ） above |  superior | $\alpha \nu \omega ́ \tau \alpha \tau 0 \varsigma$ <br> highest，supreme |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \omega$ below | （o）к $\alpha \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ inferior | ка兀ळ́ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ऽ lowest，minimum |
| $\pi \rho о \tau \iota \mu \dot{\prime}$ I prefer | $\pi \rho о \tau \iota \mu о ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ | － |
| I prefer | preferable <br> （o）$\pi \rho о \gamma \varepsilon v \varepsilon ́ \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ prior，earliest | － |
| － | （o）$\mu \varepsilon \tau \alpha \gamma \varepsilon v \varepsilon ́ \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma$ subsequent，latest | － |
| （ $\pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{i o v}$ ） near | （o）$\pi \lambda \eta \sigma \iota \varepsilon ́ \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho \circ \varsigma$ <br> nearer，nearest | $\pi \lambda \eta \sigma \iota \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \alpha \tau 0 \varsigma$ very near |

## The use of noun phrases and of adjectives

## 3．48 Agreement within the noun phrase

As we said in section 3．1，the noun phrase typically consists of a noun（or a word substituting for a noun such as an adjective or pronoun），option－ ally accompanied by one or more of the following modifiers：an article，a determiner（for more on determiners see sections 4．3－4．9），an adjective，a numeral or a quantifier．All words in the same noun phrase and modifying the noun agree with the noun in gender，number and case（see also sections $3.3-3.5)$ ．This means that all declinable modifiers indicate in their inflec－ tion their gender，number and case agreement with the noun they modify：

## 

The other little road is more difficult．

Agreement within the noun phrase

In the noun phrase in example 1, since the noun $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ is masculine and

The noun and the noun phrase appears here in the nominative singular, the article $\mathbf{o}$, the determiner $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varsigma$ and the adjective $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{\ell \kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{o} \varsigma$ are all in the masculine nominative singular form. In the next example:
$2 \sigma \tau \eta \mu \varepsilon ́ \sigma \eta \tau \eta \varsigma \alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta \varsigma \mu \iota \kappa \rho \eta ́ \varsigma \pi \lambda \alpha \tau \varepsilon i ́ \alpha \varsigma$ in the middle of the other little square
the noun $\pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ g is feminine and is being used in the genitive singular; for this reason the article $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho$, the determiner $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho$ and the adjective $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\prime} \varsigma$ are also all in the feminine genitive singular form.

Sometimes a single modifier (normally an adjective) is used with two or more nouns. The modifier appears in the masculine plural if both nouns denote humans and both are masculine, or if one is masculine and the other feminine:

##  My dear John and George <br>  My dear John and Mary

If the nouns denote non-humans, the modifier usually appears in the gender and number of the noun nearest to it:
 Greek music and songs

Two or more modifiers may modify a singular noun within the same noun phrase even when the noun denotes two or more entities:
The Greek and Turkish representatives

### 3.49 The use of the cases: introduction

There are four cases in Greek:

- nominative
- accusative
- genitive
- vocative

Every declinable word (article, noun, adjective, pronoun, determiner or numeral) inflects for case, although in practice a word may not always
indicate unambiguously which case it is in. Only one class of nouns, namely most masculines in -os, has a separate form for each of the four cases, and then only in the singular. For the forms of the cases see sections 3.6-3.7 (for articles), 3.9-3.30 (for nouns), 3.33-3.42 (for adjectives), 4.1-4.10 (for pronouns and determiners) and 5.2 (for numerals).

### 3.50 The use of the nominative

The nominative is the basic case: dictionaries list declinable words in the nominative singular form.

The nominative is used to indicate the subject of a verb (i.e. the person, thing, etc. that does something (1), or is in a certain state (2), or undergoes a change (3), or has something done to him/her/it (4)):

## I H Maрía équүع. Mary left.

##  Paul is asleep.

## $3 \boldsymbol{H} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{v \nu \alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \pi \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon$ к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \omega$. <br> Ann fell down.

4 Фидакі́бтпкє о к $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \tau \eta \varsigma$.
The thief was imprisoned.
In addition, the nominative is used to indicate a subject predicate (i.e. a word or phrase referring to the same person, thing, etc., as the subject):

H Mapía eíval $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \rho o ́ s$.
Mary's a doctor.
The nominative is also used in certain more-or-less fixed expressions, e.g.:
$\sigma \tau 1 \varsigma \tau \varepsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma \eta \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{\omega} \rho \alpha}$
at four o'clock

### 3.5 The use of the accusative

The accusative has two chief uses. The first is to indicate the direct object of a verb (i.e. the person, thing, etc. that is affected by the subject):

##  <br> Mary shut the door.

Similarly, the accusative is used to express an object predicate (i.e. a word or phrase referring to the same person, thing, etc., as the object):

## Tov $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \omega ́$ 甲íגo $\mu о v$.

I consider him a friend of mine.
Second, the accusative is used for the object of most prepositions (for more on prepositions see Chapter 8):

## 

 John came from Athens.
##  I gave the book to John.

The accusative has a variety of other uses. Noun phrases in the accusative may be used adverbially, especially in expressions of measurement in time or space. Such uses of noun phrases in the accusative include the following:

- Duration (time)
$4 \Delta$ ои́ $\lambda \varepsilon \psi \alpha$ о́ $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \alpha$.
I worked all day.
- Distance (space or time)
 I ran three kilometres.
 It lasted alone year.
- Point in time
$7 \quad \tau \eta$ vv́ $\chi \tau \alpha$
during the night
 on Sunday afternoon
$9 \quad \tau \eta \nu \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \lambda \eta \mu \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \alpha$
the next day
b H Mapí $\tau \eta \nu \dot{\varepsilon} \kappa \lambda \varepsilon \imath \sigma \varepsilon$.
Mary shut it.
- Duration (time)

10 zov Av́ $\gamma$ ováto
in August
II $\tau \eta v \pi \rho \omega ́ \tau \eta ~ \Phi \varepsilon \beta$ povapíov
on the first of February (see also section 5.5)
$12 \quad \tau \eta \nu$ ávol $\boldsymbol{\eta} \eta$
in spring
13 то По́ $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
at Easter

in 2004

three times

- Rate (time or weight)

three times an hour

a thousand dollars a tonne
- Dimensions

a stick ten centimetres long

a stick ten centimetres [in] length
These examples are two alternative ways of saying the same thing.
- Degree of separation (space or time)

I live two streets further down.
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o ́} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon ́ v \alpha}$.
My sister is one year older than me.

3
The noun and the noun phrase

- Goal or aim


## 21 $\quad$ П'̀ $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \rho i ́ \pi \alpha \tau \sigma . ~}$ I went for a walk.

- In exclamations (whether or not the speaker is addressing the person described):


## $22 \tau \eta \nu$ каŋ $\mu \varepsilon ́ v \eta!$ (fem. sg.) poor thing!

- Location at or motion to

In colloquial usage the accusative of a place name (used without the article) may express location at or motion to the place:

##  I'll be in Corinth. <br>  Are you going to Ambelokipi?

In these examples the word in square brackets is inserted in less colloquial usage.

### 3.52 The use of the genitive

A noun phrase in the genitive may be governed by a verb, or it may depend on a noun. When a noun phrase in the genitive is governed by a verb, it most commonly acts as the indirect object (see 3.52.1). When it depends on a noun, a noun phrase in the genitive most commonly indicates the person or thing that possesses the noun on which it depends, though it may indicate various other, more abstract, relations instead. Broadly speaking, the genitive depending on a noun is equivalent to the English possessive case ('the girl's') or to the noun preceded by 'of' ('of the girl').

### 3.52. I The genitive governed by a verb

When it is governed by a verb, the genitive form of a weak personal pronoun or a noun phrase normally indicates that the pronoun or (more
whom an action is done．In examples 1－3 the indirect object denotes the person or thing to which something is given or said：

## I Mov $\chi$ 人́口ı $\sigma \varepsilon$ ह́v人 кодlı́． （S）he gave me a necklace．

##  I told her the news．

## 3 Eí $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ ऽ Mapía̧ $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ véa． I told Mary the news．

When the indirect object is a noun phrase rather than a pronoun，it is more usually expressed by $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}+$ accusative（see section 8.2 ）．
In example 4 the indirect object denotes the person for whom the action is done：

## $4 \Sigma \boldsymbol{\Sigma o v} \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ 甲ро́ov $\lambda \varepsilon \varsigma \sigma \dot{\eta} \mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha$.

l＇ve got strawberries for you today．
In example 5 the indirect object may be interpreted as the person from whom something is removed：

## 5 Tov $\pi \dot{\prime} \rho \alpha \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \alpha \pi \alpha \pi 0$ v́ $\tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ．

They took the shoes from him OR They took his shoes．
In examples $6-7$ the indirect object indicates the person affected by the action of the verb：

6 Tov ச́ $\pi \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon$ то $\mu \alpha \nu \tau i \lambda \lambda$.
He dropped his handkerchief（lit．＇to／from him fell the handkerchief）．

## 

One of my teeth has broken（ $\boldsymbol{\delta o ́ v t l}$ is the subject）OR（S）he／it broke one of my teeth（ $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{o} v \tau \boldsymbol{c}$ is the direct object）（lit．＇to me broke（3rd sg．）a tooth＇）．

The genitive is also used to indicate the object（usually a weak pronoun） of certain verbs that do not take direct objects，such as $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{~ ' I ~ p l e a s e ' , ~}$ $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$＇I suit＇，and $\varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ivouat＇I seem＇：
$8 \Delta \varepsilon v \mu o v \alpha \rho \varepsilon ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota ~ \alpha v \tau o ́ ~ \tau о ~ к \rho \alpha \sigma i ́ . ~$ I don＇t like this wine（lit．＇This wine doesn＇t please me＇）．
$9 \Sigma$ Lov $\pi \alpha ́ \varepsilon \iota ~ \alpha v \tau o ́ ~ \tau o ~ \varphi o ́ \rho \varepsilon \mu \alpha . ~$
This dress suits you（sg．）．
10 Ev́кодо $\mu$ ov بaívetal． It looks easy to me．

### 3.52.2 The genitive depending on a noun

The noun
and the noun phrase

- Possessive genitive

When a noun phrase or a weak pronoun is in the genitive it may indicate that the person or thing which it denotes is the possessor of the person or thing denoted by the noun on which it depends:

```
I la \tauo \sigma\pií\taul \tauov Kळ̈\sigma\tau\alpha
    Kostas's house
    b \tauo \sigma\pii\taul \tauov
    his house
12a \tau\alpha к\lambda\alpha\deltaı\alphá⿱㇒日
    the branches of the trees
    b \tau\alpha к\lambda\alpha\deltaı\alphá\alpha \tauovs
    their branches
```

For the use of the article in this construction see section 3.54.

- Subjective and objective genitive

A noun phrase or pronoun in the genitive depending on an abstract noun may indicate a more abstract relationship:

## 

Paul's creation
 the creation of this situation

In example 13 the noun phrase $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0}$ חavidov is an example of the subjective genitive, because Paul is the person who creates (i.e. the subject of the creative process), while in example 14 the noun phrase $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ S $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} s$ is an example of the objective genitive, since the situation is what is created (i.e. the object of the creative process).

- Other uses of the genitive

A noun phrase in the genitive may be used in a wide variety of ways, including the following:
 the Battle of Marathon (place)
 the Greeks of the twenty-first century (time)
$17 \eta$ пíкра $\tau 0 v \chi \omega \rho \imath \sigma \mu о$ v́ the sorrow of parting (cause)
 a beer-glass (i.e. a glass for beer: purpose)

a literature teacher/professor (specification)
20 oठós Ko八án
Korais Street (street name)
$21 \sigma$ бокодд́ $\tau \alpha \pi \sigma \lambda v \tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon i ́ \alpha \varsigma$
luxury chocolate (quality)

people of such a kind (quality)
$\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \pi \alpha \iota \delta i ́ ~ \tau \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha ́ \rho \omega v \chi \rho o v \omega v$
a four-year-old child (measurement)
$\mu \iota \alpha \sigma \varepsilon \iota \rho \dot{\alpha} \pi \varepsilon ́ v \tau \varepsilon \delta \iota \alpha \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \xi \varepsilon \omega v$
a series of five lectures (content)
$\sigma \tau \iota \gamma \mu \varepsilon ́ \varsigma \varepsilon v \tau v \chi i \alpha \Omega$
moments of happiness (content)

### 3.52.3 The genitive depending on a numeral, adjective or pronoun

A noun phrase or pronoun in the genitive may depend on a numeral, adjective or pronoun.

Numerals and certain adjectives and pronouns may be followed by a weak personal pronoun in the genitive which specifies more narrowly the scope of the word on which it depends. (If the item that depends on any of these words is a noun phrase rather than a weak pronoun, this noun phrase has to be in the accusative preceded by $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ó: see section 8.2 , example 6 .)

26

ol $\tau \rho \varepsilon \iota \varsigma \sigma \alpha \varsigma$

the three of you
$27 \begin{aligned} & \text { кגvévas } \boldsymbol{\tau o v s} \\ & \text { none/any of them }\end{aligned}$

The noun and the noun phrase
each of us
29 ó $\lambda$ ot $\mu \alpha \varsigma$
all of us
The intensive pronoun $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o} \mathbf{v o s}$ ¢ 'alone' may be followed by a weak personal pronoun in the genitive, the whole phrase meaning 'by oneself', in the sense of either 'without company' or 'without help': $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'by myself (fem.)' (see section 4.9).

### 3.52.4 Other uses of the genitive

The genitive of the weak personal pronoun may be used after the comparative or superlative form of an adjective, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'bigger/ older (masc. sg. nom.) than me'. In practice, however, the comparative is more usually followed by $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o}+\operatorname{accusative,~e.g.~} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (see section 10.22).

The weak pronoun in the genitive may depend on certain exclamatory words in greetings, wishes, and other exclamations (for more on greetings and wishes see section 12.3). Here again, the pronoun specifies the person to or for whom the wish is made:

## 30 K $\alpha \lambda \eta \mu \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}!$

Good day to you (pl.)!

Good for her!
32 Пعрабт七ко́ 兀ov!
I hope he gets well soon! (lit. '[may it be] passing to him')
$33 \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$ (sg.) or $\Gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ ( pl .)!
Hello/Goodbye!
In colloquial usage there are certain fixed expressions consisting of noun phrases in the genitive, which have a metaphorical adverbial or adjectival use. Here are a few examples:

##  <br> I didn't find a dress [that was] any good.

##  <br> There was a terrible commotion.


Short skirts are in fashion.

Certain prepositions whose use is chiefly confined to formal contexts govern the genitive (see section 8.2).

A noun phrase in the genitive may sometimes depend on a noun that has been omitted:

## 

 I went to John's [house]. This house is like John's [house].

### 3.53 The use of the vocative

The vocative indicates that the person or thing denoted by the noun phrase is being addressed:

```
39 'E\lambda\alpha, \Sigma\tau\varepsiloń\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\alphav\varepsilon!}
    Come on, Stephen!
40 \Deltao\lambdao\varphióve!
    Murderer!
```

A word in the vocative may, in familiar usage, be preceded by the exclamatory words $\boldsymbol{\mu} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ or $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, which are uninflected for case, number, and gender (see section 12.1).

### 3.54 The use of the definite article

The definite article in Greek is used in a broadly similar way as in English, i.e. to show that the noun that it modifies denotes a specific item; compare example 1 a , which uses the definite article, with 1 b , which uses the indefinite article:

```
la o \sigmaкv́\lambdaos
    the dog
    b \tilde{\varepsilon}v\alpha\varsigma \sigma\kappav́\lambdaos
        a dog
```

In addition to the uses of the definite article that Greek has in common with English, the Greek definite article is used in the following circumstances:
－with proper names referring to specific persons or places：
The noun and the noun phrase

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
2 & \boldsymbol{\eta} \text { M } \alpha \rho i ́ \alpha \\
& \text { Mary }
\end{array}
$$

 Mr Papadopoulos

## $4 \quad \boldsymbol{\eta} \Theta \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha \lambda$ ovíк $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ <br> Thessaloniki

When proper names are used in the vocative to address someone，the article

－with nouns modified by the possessive pronoun when the noun refers to a specific item；with the definite article the possessive is the equivalent of＇my＇，etc．（5a），whereas without the definite article it corresponds to＇of mine＇，etc．$(5 \mathrm{~b}-\mathrm{c})$ ：

my friend

$a$ friend of mine
c ко́̃兀 ¢í̀ot $\mu$ ov
some friends of mine
－with nouns accompanied by a demonstrative（＇this＇，＇that＇）：

## 6 avtó $\tau 0$ orítı

this house
 ＇whole＇（the latter can be used without the article，as in 8 b ）：

## 

everyone（lit．＇all the world＇）
8a одо́кдпро $\tau \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \omega \rho$ 七́
the whole village
b òóкえпра $\chi \rho$ о́via
（for）years on end（lit．＇whole years＇）
－with abstract nouns when they are viewed as denoting a definite entity：

## 9 O بóßos عíval évotıк兀o． Fear is an instinct．

－with nouns denoting substances：
$10 \quad$ O $\gamma \rho \alpha v i ́ \tau \eta \varsigma$ вíval $\pi \mathbf{\lambda} \lambda v ́ \sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \rho o ́ s . ~$ Granite is very hard．
－with plural nouns（11－12）and adjectives（13）denoting whole classes of items：

## II O九 $\dot{\alpha} v \tau \rho \varepsilon \varsigma \alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \alpha ́ v \varepsilon ~ \tau o ~ \pi о \delta o ́ \sigma \varphi \alpha \iota \rho o . ~$

 Men love football．
I love birds．

Young people listen to music all the time．
Example 11 also illustrates the use of the definite article with various other kinds of noun（here $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}$ ）where English does not use it．
－with days of the week，months，years，seasons and festivals，where the whole phrase either denotes the item itself（14a－18a）or（in the accusative）refers to the occasion on which something happens （14b－18b）：

I prefer Saturday（cf．év $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma}$＇one Saturday’）．
b To $\Sigma \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \beta \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\alpha} \mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \delta \rho о \mu \eta ́ . ~}$
On Saturday we＇ll go for an outing．

I don＇t like February．
b Tov Фعßроvópıo $\beta \rho \varepsilon ́ \chi \varepsilon ı ~ \pi о \lambda v ́ . ~$ It rains a lot in February．

16a To 2001 סعv ท́ $\tau \alpha \nu$ ка入ท́ $\chi \rho o v \imath \alpha ́$. 2001 wasn＇t a good year．
b To $2001 \pi \dot{\eta} \gamma \alpha \mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \nu$ A $\gamma \gamma \lambda i ́ \alpha$.

The noun and the noun phrase We went to England in 200 I.
 Last winter was very harsh.
b Tov $\chi \varepsilon ย \mu \dot{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ко́vоข $\mu \varepsilon$ бкı. In winter/ln the winter we go skiing.
 I love Greek Easter.
b To Пф́ $\sigma \chi \alpha \pi \dot{\eta} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \nu$ Kрй $\tau \eta$. We went to Crete at Easter.

- with dates and times of day:
$19 \sigma \tau \iota \varsigma \tau \varepsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma$ on the fourth [of the month]; at four (o'clock)
- in expressions of rate (in the accusative):
 one and a half million a/per month
 a hundred kilometres an/per hour
- in the neuter, to turn any word or phrase into a noun phrase or noun clause, e.g. to make a noun out of another part of speech (22); when talking about a word (23); or to introduce a complement clause, especially when it precedes the main clause (24-25):
 He never thinks about tomorrow (av́pıo is normally an adverb).

23 Пஸ́s $\gamma \rho \alpha ́ \varphi \varepsilon \tau \alpha \iota$ тo «vүعí $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$;
How is [the word] 'vүعí $\alpha$ ' spelt (lit. 'written')?

[The fact] that (s)he hasn't come back yet is a bad sign.

To say (2nd sg.) such things is difficult.

Finally, unlike in English, the definite article is normally repeated before the second and subsequent nouns of a co-ordinated sequence if the first one is itself accompanied by the definite article:
 the boys and girls

For the forms of the definite article see section 3.6.

### 3.55 The use of the indefinite article

The basic function of $\dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is to denote the number 'one'. It is


Someone came asking for you (lit. 'and you (acc. sg.) was-asking-for (3rd sg.)').

This means that it is not always used exactly like the English indefinite article 'a, an', though in many contexts it corresponds exactly to English:

##  <br> A dog bit him.

## 3 Eí $\alpha \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \alpha$ 甲í $\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma o v}$. <br> I saw a (female) friend of yours (sg.).

For the forms of the indefinite article see section 3.7.

### 3.56 Absence of article

In many contexts Greek does not use an article at all where English uses the indefinite article, or 'any' or 'some'. Among these uses are the following:

become': see also section 6.1):
I Eíval pidóえo
(S)he's a literature teacher.

2 'Eүıve pidó $\lambda \mathbf{o \gamma o s .}$
(S)he became a literature teacher.

- after $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'like’ (see also section 10.22.2):


## 3 'Е $\tau \rho \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon \sigma \alpha v \pi о \nu \lambda i$.

(S)he was trembling like $a$ bird.

- with the object of a verb, where the speaker does not wish to stress

The noun and the noun phrase that the object is specific or definite; this happens especially in fixed expressions (4-6) and in interrogative, negative and conditional sentences (7-11):

## 4 Форо́єı $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ко́кı.

(S)he's wearing a jacket (the speaker is not making a contrast between one particular jacket and another, but between wearing a jacket and not wearing a jacket).

At last l've found $a$ watch (the speaker is not stressing that (s)he's now found a particular watch, but simply that (s)he's found a watch, whereas previously (s)he hadn't found one).

I'm making a phone call.

Have you got a mobile?
$8 \Delta \varepsilon v \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ кıvŋтó.
I haven't got a mobile.

If I had a mobile I would call him.
 Have you any brothers and sisters?

## ll $\Delta \varepsilon v \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega \alpha \delta \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varphi ı \alpha$.

I don't have any/l have no brothers and sisters.

- with the subject, when that subject is indefinite, especially in interrogative (12), negative (13) and conditional (14) sentences:


## 

Is there a woman who doesn't know it?
 There isn't a woman who doesn't know it.

14 Av $\mu \varepsilon \rho \omega \tau о v ́ \sigma \varepsilon$ रuvaíка, $\theta \alpha \tau \eta \nu \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \varepsilon \lambda v \alpha \sigma \tau \eta$ $\sigma v v \alpha ́ \delta \varepsilon \lambda \varphi o ́ ~ \mu о v . ~$
If $a$ woman asked me, I would send her to my (female) colleague.

No article is used at all in noun phrases denoting an unspecified amount of a substance (15-16) or an unspecified number of items (17), where English uses 'some':

## $15 \Theta \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \omega$ крабi.

 I want some wine.16 Хv́Өŋкє крабí $\sigma \tau 0 \quad \tau \rho \alpha \pi \varepsilon \zeta о \mu \alpha ́ v \tau \imath \lambda 0$. Some wine has spilled on the tablecloth.

17 A $\gamma$ ó $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. I bought some shoes.

### 3.57 The use of adjectives

Almost all adjectives inflect for gender, number and case. For the forms of adjectives see sections 3.32-3.47.

The chief function of the adjective is to modify a noun. An adjective may modify the noun in either attributive or predicative use.

In attributive use an adjective modifies the noun in the same phrase; it must agree with its noun in gender, number and case (for agreement within the noun phrase see section 3.48):

##  a black dog

## $2 \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \rho \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (fem. nom./acc. sg.) <br> a black cat

The adjective normally comes immediately before the noun. It may, however, appear after the noun for special emphasis. In such cases, if the noun is preceded by the definite article, the article must be repeated before the adjective, as in example 4 :

##  <br> a black dog (as opposed to a dog of a different colour)

$4 \quad \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \rho \boldsymbol{\eta}$
the black cat (as opposed to the cat(s) of a different colour)
In predicative use the adjective refers to the subject or direct object without being in the same phrase; again, it agrees with the noun it refers to in gender, number and case (see also section 6.1):
 cate of the subject $\sigma \kappa v i \lambda o s)$. The dog is black.

6 Av $\boldsymbol{1} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \tau \alpha$ عíval $\mu \alpha \boldsymbol{v} \rho \eta$. This cat is black.
 John married young.

8 To á $\sigma \pi \rho о$ крабí $\pi i ́ v \varepsilon \tau \alpha l \pi \alpha \gamma \omega \mu \varepsilon ́ v o ~(n e u t e r ~ n o m . ~ s g) . ~ .$. White wine is drunk chilled.
 $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}$ is a predicate of the direct object $\boldsymbol{\text { ooi} ~} \boldsymbol{\chi o}$ ).
I painted the wall white.
In predicative use an adjective may refer to a pronoun (10) or to an item that is not explicitly mentioned (11):

I0 Tov $\dot{\varepsilon} \beta \alpha \psi \alpha \dot{\alpha} \sigma \pi \rho o$ ( $\dot{\alpha} \sigma \pi \rho o$ is an object predicate). I painted him/it white.

II Eíval $\dot{\varepsilon} \xi v \pi \nu \boldsymbol{\eta}$ (安 $\xi v \pi \nu \eta$ is a subject predicate). She/it's clever.

Example 10 may refer either to a man or to an item that is denoted in Greek by a masculine noun, such as $\boldsymbol{\text { oízos }}$ 'wall'. Example 11 may refer either to a woman or to an item that is denoted in Greek by a feminine noun, such as $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'cat' or $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'idea'.

The passive perfect participle is used like an adjective in both attributive and predicative use (for its formation see section 6.16). Example 8 above, using $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \omega \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \mathbf{v} \varsigma{ }^{\text {'chilled, frozen' (from } \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \omega \text { 'I chill, freeze'), shows }}$ the passive perfect participle in predicative use. An example of its attributive use is $\mu \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'a chilled beer'.

In noun phrases specifying a person's nationality, Greek uses the noun where English uses the adjective:

> 12a o ó $\gamma \gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ (masc. noun) $\pi \rho \omega \theta v \pi \sigma v \rho \gamma o ́ s$
> b $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (fem. noun) $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{v} \pi \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\rho} \gamma \boldsymbol{o} \varsigma$ the British prime minister

13a Eípat Á $\gamma \gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o s}$ (masc. noun).
b Eí $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{A} \gamma \gamma \lambda i ́ \delta \alpha$ (fem. noun).

Compare the following phrases in which the adjective is used to denote non－humans（ $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ós doesn＇t strictly denote human individuals，but the concept of＇people＇）：

14 о $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ о́s（masc．adj．）$\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ós
the English people
I5 $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\eta}$（fem．adj．）кovちíva English cooking

16 то $\alpha \gamma \gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\iota}$ кó（neuter adj．）$\chi$ ъо $\mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$
English humour
As we saw in section 3．54，example 13 （oc véot＇young people＇），Greek adjectives can be used as nouns．Unlike in English，the adjective used in this way can be singular：

```
I7 o véos
    the young [man]
```

In addition，a number of Greek adjectives are used to refer to specific items in phrases where the noun may be omitted．Here are some examples；the noun that can be optionally omitted is given here in square brackets：

## 18 то $\delta \eta \mu$ о七七кó［ $\sigma \chi 0 \lambda \varepsilon$ ío］ <br> （the）primary school

$19 \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\eta}$［ $\gamma \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ］
the demotic language（i．e．spoken Greek）
$20 \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \lambda \lambda \eta \nu \iota \kappa ท ́ ~ [ \gamma \lambda \omega ́ \sigma \sigma \alpha ] ~}$
Greek（i．e．the Greek language）

the Arts Faculty（of a university）
22 о тє $\lambda l$ ко́я［ $\alpha \gamma \omega \dot{v} \alpha \varsigma$ ］
the final（in sport）
23 то тєє $\rho \alpha \gamma \omega v \iota$ кó［ $\mu \dot{\varepsilon ́ \tau \rho о] ~}$
square metre

the Cyprus question
25 o $\varepsilon \mu \varphi$ v́ $\lambda \iota \circ$［ $\pi o ́ \lambda \varepsilon \mu о \varsigma$ ］
the civil war

street market $O R$ slang

## $27 \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\sigma} \tau \eta[\pi \alpha \rho \alpha ́ \sigma \tau \alpha \sigma \eta$ OR $\tau \alpha \chi v ́ \tau \eta \tau \alpha]$

The noun and the noun phrase

```
28 \piо\lambdav́ к\alpha\lambdaós
    very good
29 \pito кадо́s
    better (lit. 'more good')
30 \lambdaí\gammaо к\alpha\lambdav́\tau\varepsilon\rhoо\varsigma
    a bit better
31 к\alpha0\alpha\rho\alphá́ о七коvоцико́\varsigma
    purely economic
```

They may also be modified by weak pronouns in the genitive to indicate possession (32); the adjective $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ s 'known' is regularly accompanied by a genitive weak pronoun to indicate the person that the relevant item is known to (33):
$32 \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \pi \alpha \lambda \iota o ́ \mu \alpha \varsigma \sigma \pi i \tau \iota$
 'our house which is old')

a (female) professor who is an acquaintance of mine (lit. 'a known to-me professor (fem.)')

As in English, adjectives in Greek may take complements. These may be prepositional phrases (34), or clauses introduced by va (35) or ó $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ (36):

## 34 Eíval $\delta v v \alpha \tau \eta \dot{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \tau \iota \kappa \alpha \dot{\alpha}$.

She's good (lit. 'strong') at maths.
 Is he capable of doing this job?
 It's not certain (that) they'll come.

## Chapter 4

## Pronouns and determiners

Pronouns are words that stand instead of nounphrases. They perform the syntactic functions of nounphrases as subjects, objects, etc. English examples include 'he', 'she', 'someone', 'anything', 'who?'. Determiners are words that modify nouns. We use this term in this book to refer to words other than articles, adjectives and numerals. Determiners in English include 'some', 'any', and 'which' (e.g. in the phrase 'which book?'). In Greek, most pronouns, apart from personal pronouns, can also be used as determiners. For a table of pronouns and determiners (apart from personal pronouns) see Appendix 1.

## 4. I Personal pronouns: weak (clitic) forms

Personal pronouns are used to refer to the three grammatical persons: first (sg. 'I, me'; pl. 'we, us'), second ('you') and third (sg. 'he, him, she, her, it'; pl. 'they, them').

There are two distinct types of personal pronoun in Greek: emphatic and weak. In this section we present the weak forms; the emphatic pronouns are presented in section 4.2.

Weak pronouns are used only in close connection with verbs, nouns, adverbs and certain other words. They consist of one syllable and they are not stressed. They are sometimes known as clitic pronouns, which means that they are always pronounced together with the word they depend on (see also section 1.8). There are no weak forms for the nominative case of the first and second person, because the verb form always indicates the person of the subject; if a subject pronoun has to be present because the subject is emphasized, then an emphatic pronoun is used, as in section 4.2, example 1.

Weak personal pronouns

| First person: 'me, us' |  |  | Second person: 'you' |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sg. | Pl. |  | Sg. | Pl . |
| Acc. | $\mu \varepsilon$ | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | Acc. | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \alpha S}$ |
| Gen. | $\mu \mathrm{Ov}$ | $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | Gen. | $\boldsymbol{\sigma o v}$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ |

Third person: 'him, her, it, them'

|  | Sg. |  |  | Pl . |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | F | N | M | F | N |
| Nom. |  | $\tau \eta$ | $\tau 0$ | $\tau 01$ | $\tau \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Acc. | tov | $\tau \eta(v)$ | то | tovs | $\tau \iota ¢ / \tau \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Gen. | $\tau 00$ |  | $\tau 00$ | tovs | tovs | tov¢ |

I. The nominative forms of the weak pronoun are only used in exclamatory and interrogative constructions after $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'there!' and $\pi \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{v}$ ' $v$ ' 'where is/are', e.g. $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \eta$ ! 'there she is!', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$ ' $v$ ' $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$; 'where are they?'.
2. Tı $\varsigma / \tau \varepsilon \varsigma$ : these two forms, $\tau \mathbf{l} \varsigma$ is the obligatory form used before the verb, while either can be used after the gerund and after imperatives (for more on word order see below).

Weak pronouns are used far more frequently than emphatic pronouns. A weak personal pronoun may:

- act as the direct object (in the accusative) or indirect object (in the genitive) of a verb;
- act as a possessive pronoun (in the genitive) after a noun;
- be used as a subjective or objective genitive after a noun (see also section 3.52.2);
- (in the genitive) follow an adjective, numeral, pronoun or quantifier;
- (in the genitive) depend on an adverb.

A weak pronoun may be used as the direct or indirect object of a verb. When it is a direct object, it appears in the accusative case; when it is an indirect object it is in the genitive. Nothing can separate a weak object pronoun from the verb. Weak pronouns as objects appear immediately before the verb

```
I \(\quad \Sigma \varepsilon \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \delta \alpha\).
    I saw you (sg.).
```

```
2 \Delta\varepsilonv 0\alpha \tauov\varsigma \delta\varepsilonı\varsigma.
```

2 \Delta\varepsilonv 0\alpha \tauov\varsigma \delta\varepsilonı\varsigma.
You (sg.) won't see them (masc.).
You (sg.) won't see them (masc.).
3 Koí $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ! Look (sg.) at me!
$4 \Xi \varepsilon \varphi v \lambda \lambda i \zeta o v \tau \alpha ́ \varsigma ~ \tau o$ (neut. sg.), $\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha \lambda \alpha \beta \alpha i v o v \mu \varepsilon$ ó $\tau \iota$ $\pi \rho о ́ к \varepsilon \iota \tau \alpha \iota \gamma \iota \alpha \alpha \xi ı o ́ \lambda о \gamma о \beta ı \beta \lambda i ́ o$.
Flicking through it, we realize it's a noteworthy book.

```

For an explanation of the second stress on the verb forms in examples 3 and 4 see section 1.8. For the use of weak pronouns referring to an object noun phrase see section 10.20 .

Two weak object pronouns can be used together, one for the indirect object, the other for the direct object. In such cases the indirect object comes before the direct object (5-6: see also section 6.1), though after imperatives or a gerund the order is flexible (7):

\section*{\(5 \operatorname{Lov} \boldsymbol{\tau o}\) عíta. \\ I told you (lit. ‘To-you it I-said').}
 Don't show them to me.

7 Пعऽ \(\tau 0 v\) тo (less commonly Пes \(\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma}\) тov). Tell him (lit. 'Say to-him it' or 'Say it to-him').

In colloquial usage, the genitive singular form \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o v}\) may be reduced to \(\boldsymbol{\sigma}\), before a third-person pronoun: example 5 above would become \(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\) ' \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (sometimes written \(\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) ).

The genitive of the weak pronoun is regularly used as a possessive pronoun ('my', 'your', 'their', etc.; for the emphatic possessive see section 4.4). In this use, it normally comes immediately after the noun, which is normally preceded by the definite article (but see section 3.54):

\section*{\(6 \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \varphi\) о́s \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\zeta}\) her brother \\ \(7 \quad \tau \alpha \lambda \varepsilon \varphi \tau \alpha ́ \operatorname{\tau ov} \varsigma\) \\ their money}

When used as a possessive pronoun, the weak pronoun may be placed after an adjective or the quantifier ó \(\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \varsigma\) instead of after the noun:
 our new house
\(9 \mu \varepsilon\) ó \(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{v} v \alpha \mu \eta\) with all my strength

The genitive of the weak pronoun may be used after the comparative form of an adjective to express the second term of a comparison (10), or after the relative superlative form of an adjective to indicate the group of items among which the other term is supreme (11):
 \(\left.\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\alpha v} \tau \mathbf{o} v\right)\).
Anna is bigger/older than him.
II H Àvva \(\operatorname{\varepsilon ív\alpha ı} \eta \mu \varepsilon \gamma \alpha \lambda v ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho \eta ́ \mu \alpha \varsigma\) (alternatively \(\eta \mu \varepsilon \gamma \alpha \lambda v ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho \eta\) \(\alpha \pi o ́ ~ o ́ \lambda o v \varsigma \mu \alpha \varsigma)\).
Anna is the biggest/oldest of us.
The genitive of the weak pronoun can also be used after numerals (12), certain types of pronoun (13-16: compare sections 4.6 and 4.9) or the quantifier ó \(\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}\) (16) to specify the person (first, second or third) denoted by the other term:

12 ol \(\delta v ́ o \mu \alpha \varsigma\)
the two of us
\(13 \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho}\)
on her own
14 о ка日́́vas tovs
each one of them
15 к \(\alpha v\) évas \(\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) s
none of us

\section*{16 ó \(\lambda\) ol \(\sigma \alpha \varsigma\) \\ all of you}

Finally, weak pronouns in the genitive are used after certain adverbs (mostly adverbs of place: see section 8.3):
```

17 \deltaí\pi\lambda\alpha\mu\alphas
next to us
18 \mu\tilde{\varepsilon}\sigma\alpha \tau\eta\zeta
inside herlit (fem.)

```

\section*{4．2 Personal pronouns：emphatic forms}

The emphatic pronouns inflect for number and case；in addition，the third－ person forms inflect for gender too．

\section*{Emphatic personal pronouns}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{First person：＇l，we＇} & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Second person：＇you＇} \\
\hline & Sg． & Pl． & & Sg． & Pl． \\
\hline Nom． & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}\) & ع \(\mu\) ¢í¢ & Nom． & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma}\) ט́ & عбغís \\
\hline Acc． & \(\varepsilon \mu \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \alpha\) & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}{ }_{\text {c }}\) & Acc． & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\alpha} \varsigma\) \\
\hline Gen． & \(\varepsilon \mu \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \alpha\) & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\prime}\) & Gen． & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) & \(\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\alpha} \varsigma\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Third person：＇he，she，they＇
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Sg．} & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Pl．} \\
\hline & M & F & N & M & F & N \\
\hline Nom． & \(\boldsymbol{\alpha v}\) тós & \(\alpha v \tau \dot{\eta}\) & \(\boldsymbol{\alpha v \tau o ́}\) & வveoó & \(\boldsymbol{\alpha v \tau \varepsilon ́ s ~}\) & \(\boldsymbol{\alpha v \tau \alpha}\) \\
\hline Acc． & ¢v \(\boldsymbol{\tau}\) ó（v） & வv̇ท่（v） & ）\(\alpha v \tau 0\) & dvtov́s & \(\alpha v \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma\) & avt \({ }_{\text {人 }}\) \\
\hline Gen． & avtov́ & \(\boldsymbol{\alpha v \tau ท ่ s ~}\) & வvtov́ & வvтळ́v & 人v兀ळ́v & வv兀ळ́v \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

I．The accusative forms of the first－and second－person pronouns lose their initial vowel when preceded by the prepositions \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \mathbf{o}, \gamma \boldsymbol{\iota}\), e．g．\(\gamma \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}\)＇for me＇．The initial vowel of the nominative forms of the first－and second－person pronouns is often dropped in rapid speech when preceded by other words ending in a vowel；here the omission of the vowel is normally indicated by an apostrophe，e．g．छモ́ \(\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}\)＇\(\gamma \boldsymbol{\omega}\) ；＇How should I know？＇
2．The third－person pronoun is also used as the demonstrative＇this＇（see section 4．3）．It declines like adjectives in－os， \(\boldsymbol{- \eta}, \mathbf{- o}\)（see section 3．33），except that a final \(v\) is often added to the forms of the masculine and feminine accusative singular．Other demonstratives can also be used as third－person pronouns
 ＇that one＇．

3．There are alternative colloquial forms of the genitive of the third－person pronoun：masculine and neuter singular av 0 ovvov́，feminine singular \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} v \dot{\eta}\) ，plural \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \tau \omega v \omega \boldsymbol{v}\)（all genders）．There is also a colloquial version of the masculine accusative plural：\(\alpha v \tau o v v o v i s . ~\)

Emphatic pronouns are used to distinguish one person from another. They may function as the subject (1-2) or object (3-4) of a verb, or as the object of a preposition (5-6), or simply on their own (7):

I Eбv́ тo عíteऽ!
You (sg.) said it! ('It was you that said it')
 (As for me,) I don't want to go.

3 E \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\alpha} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) í \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) !
We saw you (pl.)! ('It was you we saw') (direct object)
4 E \(\mu\) éva \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}\) ! Give it to me! (indirect object)
 I did it for him.
\(6 \quad \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \varsigma ~ \alpha \pi o ́ ~ \mu \alpha \varsigma\) one of us

'Who wants it?' 'Me!’ ('I do’)
Emphatic pronouns may also be used to accompany noun phrases:
\(8 \quad \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon i ́ \varsigma\) ot 'Eג \(\boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{\eta} \nu \varepsilon \varsigma\) (masc. nom.) we Greeks

\subsection*{4.3 Demonstrative pronouns and determiners}
 decline like adjectives in -0¢, \(\mathbf{- \boldsymbol { \eta }}\), -o (see section 3.33). They may be used either as emphatic third-person pronouns ('he', 'she', 'it': see section 4.2) or as true demonstratives ('this', 'that') functioning as pronouns or as determiners modifying a noun (which must be preceded by the definite article). Demonstratives are used to point to something, as in examples 1-3 below.

Of the three, \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) is the least commonly used; it refers to something close to the speaker ('this'). Avtós also refers to something near the speaker ('this'), while \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \varepsilon}\) ívos, which is less frequently used, refers to something distant from the speaker ('that'). Example 1 shows aṽós and eкeivos being used as demonstrative pronouns:
 I want this [one] (neut.), not that [one].

When one of these words is used as a determiner (i.e. with a noun), the noun must be immediately preceded by the definite article, and the determiner must appear outside the combination of article + noun. When the noun denotes something that is present at the time of speaking, the normal order is determiner + article + noun:

\section*{2 Mov \(\alpha \rho \dot{\varepsilon ́ \sigma \varepsilon ı ~} \alpha v \tau \dot{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}\) орл \(\rho \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \alpha\). I like this umbrella.}
 That child is always playing.

In written language a determiner may be used to refer to something that has been previously mentioned. In this case it normally follows the noun rather than precedes it:
\(4 \Theta v \mu \alpha ́ \mu \alpha \imath\) то \(\pi \rho \omega ́ \tau о \mu \alpha \varsigma \sigma \pi i ́ \tau \imath . ~ T o ~ \sigma \pi i ́ \tau \imath ~ \alpha v \tau o ́ ~ \beta \rho ı \sigma \kappa o ́ \tau \alpha v\)

I remember our first house. This house was in the centre of town.

Finally, the demonstratives avđós and eкeivos may be used with a relative clause:
 The one who came yesterday was a strange man.
 \(\tau \boldsymbol{\mu} \omega \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}\).
Those who/People who say such things ought to be punished.
The qualitative demonstrative \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma}\) 'such, of such a kind, like this/that, this/that sort of' declines like adjectives in -os, - \(\boldsymbol{\alpha},-\mathbf{o}\) (see section 3.34) and functions as a pronoun (7-8) or determiner (9):

\section*{}

We didn't have such people/that sort of people/people like that in my youth.

I want one like that/one of those.

We don't have such things/that sort of thing/things like that.
It is also commonly used in the phrase кá \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o t o}\) 'something like that'.

Demonstrative pronouns and
determiners

The quantitative demonstrative tónos＇so much／many＇declines like adjec－ tives in－os， \(\mathbf{- \eta}\) ，－o（section 3．33）．It may be used as a pronoun（10）or a determiner（11）：

\section*{ So many［people］came today！ \\  \\ Don＇t put in so much sugar！}
＇So much／many＇can also be expressed by the adverb tó⿱宀⿱一𧰨匕o followed by the appropriate form of \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) ；alternatively，both \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) and \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma\) can be declined：

so many houses

\section*{4．4 Possessive pronouns and determiners}

The weak pronoun in the genitive is used as a non－emphatic possessive pronoun（see section 4．1）．The emphatic possessive \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\)（ \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0 v}\) etc．）is both a pronoun and a determiner（i．e．it may be used on its own，or together with a noun）．Like the other emphatic pronouns，it is used to distinguish between persons or generally to give emphasis（＇\(m y\) house＇，as opposed to yours etc．，or else＇my own house＇，or simply＇mine＇）．These forms are a combination of \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\xi}\) with the genitive of the weak personal pronoun． \(\Delta \mathbf{l} \boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) ，which must agree with the gender，number and case of the item possessed，is normally declined like adjectives in－os， \(\boldsymbol{- \eta}\) ，－o（see section 3．33），but there is an alternative set of feminine forms in colloquial use （ \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \mathbf{\iota} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}\) etc．），which declines like adjectives in－os，－t \(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \mathbf{- 0}\)（see section 3．35）． \(\Delta \mathbf{l} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \mathbf{o} \varsigma\)（ \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0 v}\) etc．）may be preceded by the definite article or not，according to whether it is used in a definite phrase or an indefinite phrase．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline  & my，mine，my own \\
\hline  & your，yours，your own（where the possessor is a single person） \\
\hline  & his，his own（＇its＇etc．，where the possessor is non－human） \\
\hline  & her，hers，her own（＇its＇etc．， where the possessor is non－ human） \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline  & our, ours, our own \\
\hline  & your, yours, your own (addressed to more than one person, or to a single person in the polite plural form) \\
\hline  & their, theirs, their own \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Like adjectives, the emphatic possessive can be used attributively (1-2) or predicatively (3-4) (see also section 3.57 ), or as the object of a preposition (5). Note the use of the definite article in the definite phrases in examples 1,3 and 5 , and its omission in the indefinite phrases in 2 and 4 :

Our house is old.
 She hasn't got a house of her own (lit. 'her own house').

3 To \(\tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon v \tau \alpha i ́ o ~ \sigma \pi i ́ \tau ı\) عíval \(\tau 0\) оıкó \(\mu \alpha \varsigma\). The last house is ours (i.e. it's the one where we live).
 The last house is ours (i.e. it belongs to us).
 Shall we go to your house or mine?

\subsection*{4.5 Interrogative pronouns and determiners}

Interrogative pronouns and determiners ('who?', 'which?', 'what?', 'how much?') belong to the category known as question words. (Other question words correspond to 'why?', 'when?', 'where?'. For the use of question words in direct and indirect questions see sections 10.6 and 10.10.)

There are three interrogative pronouns and determiners: \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) 'who?', 'which?', \(\boldsymbol{\tau \boldsymbol { l }}\) 'what?' and \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\boldsymbol { o } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \varsigma } \text { 'how much?'. Tt is indeclinable and may }}\) modify nouns of any gender, number or case. Пóros declines like adjectives in -0s, - \(\boldsymbol{\eta}\), -о (see section 3.33). Пoıos declines like adjectives in -os, \(-\boldsymbol{\alpha},-\mathbf{o}\), except that the accusative form of the masculine (and sometimes the feminine singular) adds an \(\boldsymbol{- v}\) and extended versions of the genitive singular and plural and the masculine accusative plural forms may be used:
\(\pi 010 \varsigma\) who？，which？
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{Singular} \\
\hline & M & F & N \\
\hline Nom． & \(\pi \mathrm{totos}\) & \(\pi \mathbf{0 t \alpha}\) & \(\pi 010\) \\
\hline Acc． & \(\pi 010\) & \(\pi \mathrm{tat}(\mathrm{v})\) & \(\pi 010\) \\
\hline Gen． & \(\pi 010 v / \pi 01 \alpha v o v ́\) & \(\pi 01 \alpha ¢ / \pi 01 \alpha v \eta ์ s\) & \(\pi 010 v / \pi 01 \alpha v o v ́\) \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{Plural} \\
\hline & M & F & N \\
\hline Nom． & \(\pi 0101\) & \(\pi 018 \varsigma\) & \(\boldsymbol{\pi} 01 \alpha\) \\
\hline Acc． & totovg／totavov́s & \(\pi \mathrm{tatc}\) & \(\pi \mathrm{tan} \alpha\) \\
\hline Gen． & \(\pi 0 七 \omega v / \pi 0 \iota \alpha \nu \dot{\nu}\) & \(\pi 0 七 \omega \nu / \pi 0 七 \alpha \nu \dot{\nu}\) & \(\pi 0 \iota \omega \nu / \pi 0 七 \alpha \nu ळ ์\) \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{In place of the genitive singular forms，tivos＇whose？＇is often used for the masculine and neuter，but not for the feminine．There is a genitive plural tivov （all genders）．} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{4．6 Indefinite pronouns and determiners}

Indefinite pronouns and determiners can be divided into two kinds：specific （＇someone’，＇something＇）and non－specific（＇anyone＇，＇anything，＇＇no one＇， ＇nothing＇）．

The specific pronouns and determiners are ко́ло七七s（declined like adjec－ tives in－os，\(-\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \mathbf{- 0}\) ，as in section 3．34，but with masculine accusative singular ко́л兀о七七 \(\boldsymbol{v}\) when used as a pronoun，i．e．without a noun），and indeclinable ки́ \(\tau \iota\) ：
 Someone＇s coming．
 I saw someone coming．

3 Kó \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i} \pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) ． Something＇s missing．
 or case．Kи́ \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota}\) may be used as a determiner with plural nouns of any gender and in any grammatical case to mean＇some＇：

\section*{}
some（female）teacher or other

\section*{5 ко́ло七几 \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rho \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha}\)}
some plays／films（or other）

\section*{6 кќ \(\tau \iota\) фíhot \(\mu\) оv \\ some friends of mine}

Kর่́t can be accompanied by a number of determiners，e．g．ки́ \(\tau \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \mathbf{\lambda}\)
 thing of my own＇；it may also be accompanied by an adjective，in which case the definite article is normally used，e．g．ко́ \(\tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{o}\)＇something nice＇．

The non－specific pronouns and determiners are каvés \(\varsigma / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\)＇any（one）， no（one）＇and the indeclinable \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) or \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\)＇any（thing），no（thing）＇．The
 （see section 3．7）and only has singular forms：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(M\) & F & N \\
\hline Nom． & каveí¢／каvévas & коцıо́／кхиі́а & каvéva \\
\hline Acc． & \(\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha v e ́ v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}(v)\) & к \(\alpha \mu \iota \dot{\alpha}(v) / \kappa \alpha \mu i ́ \alpha(v)\) & каvéva \\
\hline Gen． & каvevós & коцıо́¢／коцías & kavevós \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{\begin{tabular}{l}
I．The feminine forms with stressed－l－（к \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) etc．）are more emphatic． \\
2．The final \(-v\) may be added to the masculine and feminine accusative singular forms when they are followed by a word beginning with a vowel or voice－ less plosive．In addition，каvévav is the normal form of the masculine accusative singular when used as a pronoun（i．e．without a noun）． \\
3．In colloquial speech，the neuter к \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) may be shortened to kóv人，but only when used as a determiner，i．e．modifying a noun，or in the compound каva反vó（see p．99）．
\end{tabular}} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The non－specific pronouns and determiners（like the non－specific adverbs： see the end of section 7．2）are normally used in interrogative or negative clauses，or in other clauses that do not make a statement．Examples of interrogative use：

Indefinite pronouns and determiners

\section*{8 Еíreऽ тíлота;}

Did you say anything?
When they are used negatively with a verb, the verb must be accompanied by the appropriate negative particle \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}\) or \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}\) :

9 K \(\quad\) 人v́vas \(\delta \varepsilon v \varepsilon \mu \varphi \alpha v i ́ \sigma \tau \eta к \varepsilon\).
Nobody showed up.
 Don't send anyone here.

II \(\Delta \varepsilon v \varepsilon i ́ \pi \alpha\) тínota. I didn't say anything.

12 Протı \(\mu \dot{\omega} v \alpha \mu \eta \nu \pi \varepsilon \iota \varsigma \tau i ́ \pi o \tau \alpha\). I prefer you to say nothing.

These words are also used without a verb in a negative sense:
13 - По七о̧ \(\boldsymbol{\eta} \rho \theta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha ;\) - K \(\alpha v \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \varsigma . ~\) 'Who came today?' 'Nobody'.

14 - Tı \(\theta \dot{\varepsilon ́ \lambda \varepsilon ı s ; ~-~ T i ́ \pi o \tau \alpha . ~}\)
'What do you want?' 'Nothing'.
In addition, these words are used in subjunctive (15), conditional (16) and imperative (17) clauses:

15 'I \(\sigma \omega \varsigma \nu \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \delta \varepsilon \iota \kappa \alpha v \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \varsigma ~ \delta \alpha ́ \sigma \kappa \alpha \lambda о \varsigma . ~\) Perhaps a teacher will see you.

16 Av \(\sigma \varepsilon\) סet к \(\alpha v \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \varsigma ~ \delta \alpha ́ \sigma к \alpha \lambda о \varsigma, ~ \theta \alpha ~ \sigma \varepsilon ~ \alpha v \alpha \varphi \varepsilon ́ \rho \varepsilon ı . ~\) If a teacher sees you, he'll report you.

Ask a teacher.
The use of these words as determiners (i.e. modifying nouns) is illustrated in examples 15-17 above and 18 below.

When used in positive declarative sentences, these items have a vague sense of 'approximately one':

\section*{I8 Перıц́́vацє коцıо́ ю́ра.} We waited about an hour.

The indefinite non-specific determiner каvévas is used in the expression \(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) 'occasionally' (not 'never'), while кадни́ is also used with
 dozen'. The indeclinable colloquial compound ка⿰丿㇄ \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{v}\) (short for \(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) סvo) means 'one or two, a couple (of)'.

The form каveís has two distinct functions. First, it may be used as a slightly more formal alternative of каvévas. Second, it is used in rather formal styles to denote the indefinite subject of a verb in a non-negative clause, where it corresponds to the English 'one'; in this use it normally comes immediately after the verb:
 \(\pi о \lambda \varepsilon ́ \mu о v\).
One easily sees (i.e. 'it's easy to see') the frightful results of war.
The more colloquial alternative would be to use the second person singular of the verb in the same indefinite sense.

Títo \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\), like ко́ \(\tau \mathbf{\imath}\), can be accompanied by a number of determiners, or by
 'anything like that; nothing like that', títo \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) to \(\omega \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{o}\) 'anything nice; nothing nice'.

\subsection*{4.7 Relative and correlative pronouns and determiners}

Relative pronouns and determiners ('who', 'which', 'that') are used to introduce relative clauses. (For relative clauses see section 10.9.)

The basic equivalent of the English relative pronoun is the indeclinable relative particle \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{v}\). This does not agree in gender and number with the noun modified by the relative clause (in 'the man who came', the phrase 'the man' is modified by the relative pronoun 'who'). Unlike the English relative (e.g. 'who' and 'which'), the Greek relative does not change according to whether the modified noun denotes a human or a non-human.
 The man who came is my brother.
 The man (whom) you saw is my brother.

\section*{ \(\pi о \rho \tau о к \alpha \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}\).}

The tree that/which is growing in my back yard is an orange.

Relative and correlative pronouns and determiners

\section*{} The tree (that) you saw is an orange.

In examples 2 and 4 note that a Greek relative clause must begin with the relative pronoun or particle; the pronoun cannot be omitted, whereas in English it can be omitted when it acts as the direct or indirect object of the relative clause.

It is possible to use \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}\) to introduce any relative clause. However, there is a more complicated alternative: the relative pronoun phrase \(\mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{o} \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\). This consists of the definite article followed by the word onoios, and both items must be inflected not only for gender and number to agree with the modified noun, but also for case to suit their syntactical function within the relative clause (i.e. whether the relative pronoun phrase is the subject, direct object, etc.). O \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o i ́ o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) declines like adjectives in -os, \(\boldsymbol{- \alpha}\), -o (see section 3.34). For examples of use see section 10.9.

Apart from \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{v}\) and \(\mathbf{0}\) onoios, there are the following correlative pronouns and determiners, which are used in free relative clauses (i.e. relative clauses that do not modify a noun):
- о́ло七оя, - \(\boldsymbol{\alpha},-\mathbf{o}\) 'whoever', which declines like adjectives in section 3.34 (this must not be confused with the relative \(\mathbf{0}\) omoios, which is always used with the article and is always stressed on the last but one syllable)
 (stronger than ó \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) )
- ó, \(\boldsymbol{\tau l}\) (indeclinable) 'that which, what, whatever' (distinguished from the complementizer ó \(\tau \mathbf{\iota}\) by the comma after the first letter; also distinguish this from \(\tau \boldsymbol{\tau}\) 'what' used in interrogative sentences)

- ó \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{o},-\boldsymbol{\eta}\), -о (declined like adjectives in section 3.33) 'as much as, as many as, however much; (pl.) those which, however many'
 ó \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varsigma\), but stronger)

These items can be used as pronouns (i.e. without nouns) or as determiners (i.e. with nouns). When used as a pronoun, the masculine singular accusative of ónotos is ónotov, with final -v. For examples of their use see section 10.9.2.

\section*{4．8 The universal pronouns \(\kappa \alpha \theta \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \varsigma\) and \(\kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \tau i ́\) and the distributive determiner \(\kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\)}

K \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{s}\) and \(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau i ́ i n o r m a l l y\) function as pronouns，although they are occasionally used as determiners．K \(\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{s}\)＇every one，each one＇is inflected in a broadly similar way to the numeral and indefinite article \(\dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma\)（section 3．7）and the indefinite pronoun and determiner ка⿰㇒夫́vas（section 4．6）：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & M & F & N \\
\hline Nom． & каө́̇vas & \(\kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \mu \iota \alpha</ \kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \mu i ́ \alpha\) & \(\kappa \alpha \theta \dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) \\
\hline Acc． &  & \(\kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \mu \iota \alpha</ \kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \mu i ́ \alpha\) & к \(\alpha\) 日́̇v \(\boldsymbol{\alpha}\) \\
\hline Gen． & каөEvós & \(\kappa<\theta \varepsilon \mu \iota \alpha \ll / \kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \mu i ́ \alpha s\) & ка囚Evós \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

K \(\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau}\)＇＇each thing＇is indeclinable．Each of these pronouns may option－ ally be preceded by the definite article：
 Each one of us knows it．

\section*{}
（S）he complains about every single thing．
\(\mathbf{K} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\)＇each，every＇is an indeclinable determiner used with singular nouns only．It too may optionally be preceded by the definite article：

3 Проб่́ \(\chi \varepsilon \iota(\tau \eta v) \kappa \alpha ́ \theta \varepsilon \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \xi \eta\) ．
（S）he takes care over every word．
For \(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) in expressions of time see section 7．1．

\section*{4．9 Other pronouns and determiners}

The intensive pronouns and determiners ídıs＇same＇and \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o} \mathbf{v o s}\) ©＇only， alone＇decline like adjectives in－os，－ \(\boldsymbol{\alpha}\) ，－o（section 3．34）and－os， \(\mathbf{- \eta}\) ，－o （section 3．33）respectively．
＇ \(\mathbf{I} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{r o s}\) has two chief uses，in both of which it is preceded by the definite arti－ cle．As a pronoun，o íठוos means either＇the same＇or＇（my）self＇according to the context：

The universal pronouns \(\kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \varsigma\) and \(\kappa \alpha \theta \varepsilon \tau i ́\) and the distribu－ tive deter－ miner \(\kappa \alpha ́ \theta \varepsilon\)

I Ta ídıa Eíval. They're the same (things) (neuter).

\section*{\(2 \Theta \varepsilon ́ \lambda \omega v \alpha \mu \iota \lambda \eta \sigma \omega \mu \varepsilon \tau \eta \nu\) í \(\delta ı \alpha\).}

I want to speak to her in person (lit. herself).
As a determiner, when it immediately precedes the noun it accompanies, o ídios means 'the same':

We have the same problem.
When the definite article is repeated before the noun it accompanies, or when it follows an emphatic pronoun, o íסוos means 'myself', 'yourself', etc.:
 I want to speak to Mary herself.

5 Évío ídos to \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i ́ \pi \varepsilon \varsigma . ~}\)
You yourself said it.
' \(\mathbf{I} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\xi}\) is also used without the definite article to mean 'identical, alike':

All (the) chairs are alike.
Móvos, with or without a noun, typically means 'only':

He was the only student (masc.) who came.

He was the only [one] who came.
Used with a weak pronoun in the genitive, \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o} \mathbf{v o s}\) geans 'by myself', in the sense of either 'without company' or 'without help':

9 Méveı \(\boldsymbol{\mu}\) óv \(\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho}\).
She lives on her own.

\section*{10 Móvŋ \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma\) то \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \kappa \alpha v e . ~\)}

She did it by herself.
The contrastive pronoun and determiner \(\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) 'other, next' (sometimes
 tive emphatic forms for the genitive: masculine and neuter singular


II \(\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\imath} \dot{\alpha}\)
the other children
\(\tau \eta v \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta\) 甲оро́
the next/previous) time
' \(\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) may be used more than once in a single sentence in the sense of 'some . . . others . . .':
 Some came, others didn't (lit. 'others not').




When used with a numeral, \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) may either precede or follow the numeral, but with different meanings:

one more bottle (i.e. an extra one)

a different bottle

 \(\boldsymbol{\sigma о v \mu \varepsilon ~ \tau о ~} \sigma \pi i ́ \tau \iota\).
If we had twice as much money, we would be able to buy the house.
For the use of the reciprocal expression o évas \(\boldsymbol{\tau o v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \mathbf{\lambda}\) 'each other', see section 10.24.

\subsection*{4.10 Quantifiers}

A quantifier is a word that expresses quantity without expressing number. The quantifiers ó \(\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \varsigma^{\prime}\) 'all' and òóк \(\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}\) ¢ '(the) whole' decline like adjec-
 and \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v o s}\) (see section 4.3), when used with a noun ó \(\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}\) ¢ (always) and одо́к \(\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) (often) are accompanied by the definite article, in which case they always appear outside the article + noun combination:

\section*{ all the world/everyone}

(S)he/it ate the whole pie.

Other quantifiers include the following:
- \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \varsigma ~\) 'much, a lot of; too much; (pl.) many; too many'; comparative \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\imath \sigma \sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) ' 'more' (note that Greek does not normally distinguish between 'much/many' and 'too much/too many')

- ко́д \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) (less commonly \(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varsigma\) ) 'quite a few'
- \(\mu \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\kappa o s}\) 'plenty of'
- \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) коí (plural only) 'some'

- \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \lambda \alpha ́ \alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}\) ¢ 'very little; (pl.) very few'
- o v \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) 'the rest of' (always with definite article)
- \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \rho \boldsymbol{o}\) 'a whole load of'

The expression \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}\) (originally a noun phrase in the accusative meaning 'a pile') is used in colloquial speech and is indeclinable:

\section*{ \\ A whole load of Italians came.}

All the other quantifiers inflect for gender, number and case. They decline like adjectives in -os, \(\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \eta }}, \mathbf{- 0}\) except \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\), for which see section 3.38 . The following examples illustrate the use of \(\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\partial} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) :
```

6 \tauo v\pi
the rest of the flour
7 o^ v\piо́\lambdaо\iota\pi\varepsilon\varsigma \mu\alpha0\dot{\eta}\tau\rho\imath\varepsilon\varsigma (nom.)
the rest of the schoolgirls

```

Some quantifiers have corresponding adverbs: \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}\) 'very' (used with the positive forms of adjectives), 'much' (used with comparative forms of adjectives), 'a lot' (comparative \(\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \iota } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \rho }}\) 'more'); \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa \kappa \varepsilon \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha }}\) 'quite (a bit)';
 hardly' (used with adjectives) (see section 7.1: adverbs of quantity).

\section*{Chapter 5}

\section*{Numerals}

\section*{5. I Table of cardinal and ordinal numerals}

The table on pp. 106-7 gives the forms of the cardinal and ordinal numerals from 1 to \(1,000,000,000\) (a billion). The cardinal numerals are the basic forms ('one', 'two', 'three', etc.). The ordinal numerals indicate position in a series ('first', second', 'third', etc.). Several of the cardinal numerals are declined for gender and case. In the table those forms which decline are printed in italics, in their nominative masculine forms. The details of their declensional patterns are given in section 5.2. The ordinal numerals are all declined like adjectives in -os, \(\mathbf{- \boldsymbol { \eta }}\), -o (see section 3.33). 'Zero' or 'nought' is the neuter noun \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}\) (see section 3.29).

When counting, we use the declinable numbers in their neuter forms: \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}\), \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{o}, \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\), etc. For the use of the full stop and comma in Greek cardinal numerals and decimals see section 2.4.

Another system of numerals, which employs either the capitals or the lower-case letters of the Greek alphabet, is sometimes used for certain special purposes. We shall limit ourselves to the capital letters, which, when followed by an acute accent, are used as ordinal numerals rather in the way Roman numerals are used in English. According to this alphabetic system, the numbers from one to ten are: \(\mathbf{A}^{\prime}=1, \mathbf{B}^{\prime}=2, \Gamma^{\prime}=3, \Delta^{\prime}=4, \mathbf{E}^{\prime}=5, \varsigma^{\prime}\) \(=6, \mathbf{Z}^{\prime}=7, \mathbf{H}^{\prime}=8, \boldsymbol{\Theta}^{\prime}=9, \mathbf{I}^{\prime}=10\). (Note the special case of \(\varsigma^{\prime}\), often written as \(\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{T}^{\prime}\) (and pronounced \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) ), for the numeral 6.) From eleven to nineteen, \(\mathbf{I}\) is combined with the relevant number, e.g. \(\mathbf{I} \mathbf{\Delta}^{\prime}=14 ; 20\) is \(\mathbf{K}^{\prime}\). Numbers of this kind are often used for chapters or volumes of books, acts or scenes of a play, centuries, and the names of kings, queens, emperors, patriarchs and popes. Some examples:

5
Numerals
Cardinal numerals Ordinal numerals
1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline ¢́vas & \(\pi \rho \omega\) ¢оя \\
\hline סv́o／סvo &  \\
\hline \(\tau \rho \varepsilon \iota \varsigma\) & \(\tau\) ¢í \(\boldsymbol{\sigma}\) ¢ \\
\hline \(\tau \varepsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma\) &  \\
\hline \(\pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) & \(\pi \dot{\varepsilon} \mu \pi \tau 0\) ¢ \\
\hline \(\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \mathbf{l}\) &  \\
\hline \(\varepsilon \pi \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \varepsilon \varphi \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) & غ́¢боиоя \\
\hline октف́／oұ兀ف́ & о́ \(\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\delta O O}\) ¢ \\
\hline  & Évatos \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) &  \\
\hline  &  \\
\hline \(\delta \omega ் \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \alpha}\) & \(\delta \omega \delta \dot{\varepsilon ́ к \alpha \tau о \varsigma ~}\) \\
\hline  &  \\
\hline \(\delta \varepsilon \kappa \alpha \tau \varepsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma ~\) &  \\
\hline \(\delta \varepsilon \kappa \alpha \pi \varepsilon ́ v \tau \varepsilon\) &  \\
\hline  &  \\
\hline  &  \\
\hline бєкооктف́／бєккох兀ف́ &  \\
\hline бєкаєvvと́の／ סعкаعvvıа́ &  غ́vatos \\
\hline عíкоб七 & عıкобтós \\
\hline عíкобı ¢́vos &  \\
\hline عíкобı Sv́o &  \\
\hline \(\tau \rho 1 \dot{\alpha} v \tau \alpha\) & трıккобто́ऽ \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{\nu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) & \(\tau \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha \rho \alpha к о \sigma \tau о ́ \varsigma ~\) \\
\hline \(\pi \varepsilon v \eta ่ \nu \tau \alpha\) & \(\pi \varepsilon \nu \tau \eta \kappa о \sigma \tau\) о́s \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi \mathfrak{\eta} \nu \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) &  \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}\) & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) ¢боипкобто́¢ \\
\hline ofoóv \(\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) & оббопкобто́s \\
\hline  & عขعขทкобто́¢ \\
\hline £като́v／\＆като́ & £к儿兀обто́s \\
\hline عкатóv évas &  \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\delta ı \alpha \kappa o ́ \sigma ı о 七}\) & סıんкобtoбtós \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 300 &  т \(\boldsymbol{\alpha к о ́ \sigma \iota ь 七 ~}\) & трıккобıобто́¢ \\
\hline 400 & \(\tau \varepsilon \tau \rho \alpha к о ́ \sigma \iota \% \iota ~\) & тєтракобıобто́ऽ \\
\hline 500 &  &  \\
\hline 600 & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa ⿱ ㇒ 日 勺 大 亍 \iota o 七}\) & \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa о б 七 о б \tau о ́ s ~}\) \\
\hline 700 & єлтако́бıои／ \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varphi \tau \alpha к о ́ \sigma \iota о 七}\) &  \\
\hline 800 & октако́бıои／ ох兀ако́бıо七 & октんкобloбтós \\
\hline 900 & еvvıんко́бıoı／ єขveณко́бıо七 & عvve⿴кобıобтós \\
\hline 1.000 & \(\chi\) и̇入ıot & \(\chi\) д入ıoбтós \\
\hline 2.000 &  &  \\
\hline 3.000 &  & \(\tau \rho ⿺ 辶 \chi \iota \lambda \iota 0 \sigma \tau\) о́s \\
\hline 10.000 &  & סعкакıбхı入ıобто́я \\
\hline 1．000．000 &  & екотониорıобто́s \\
\hline 1．000．000．000 &  & סıбغкатоицорıобто́s \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

I．For some numerals there are alternative forms．These are shown in the table separated by an oblique line（／）．The form given first is the more common， or the more stylistically neutral．But it is often largely a matter of personal preference．For the numeral＇two＇， \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{0}\)（pronounced as two syllables）is more emphatic than \(\boldsymbol{\delta v o}\)（one syllable）and is also the form used in counting；other－ wise， \(\boldsymbol{\delta v o}\) is the form normally used in speech．
2．The cardinal numerals up to twenty consist of one word．From twenty－one onwards，the units，tens，hundreds etc．are written as separate words，e．g．
 hundred and ninety－nine＇．

Table of cardinal and ordinal numerals

\section*{ \\ Volume 6}

2 Про́ \(\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \Gamma^{\prime}(=\Pi \rho \alpha \dot{\xi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{i} \tau \eta)\)
Act 3 （or III）
 in the 19th century

5 о Mı \(\chi \alpha\) ŋ́ \(\lambda \mathbf{H}^{\prime}\)（＝o Mı \(\chi \alpha\) ŋ́ \(\lambda\) o ó \(\left.\gamma \delta o o s\right)\)
Michael VIII

\section*{5．2 The declined forms of cardinal numerals}

The cardinal numerals＇one＇，＇three＇and＇four＇，when used alone or in a
 －which is indeclinable），are declined as follows：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{ćvas one} \\
\hline & M & F & N \\
\hline Nominative & \(\dot{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{S}\) & \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) & \(\dot{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) \\
\hline Accusative & ¢́va（v） & \(\mu i \boldsymbol{\alpha}(v) / \mu \mathrm{l} \alpha(v)\) & ¢́vo \\
\hline Genitive & Evóg & \(\mu \mathrm{L} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) ¢ & evós \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These forms are almost identical to the indefinite article（see section 3．7）． The feminine forms \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) and \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}\) ，pronounced as two syllables，are more emphatic and stress the singularity of the noun referred to．We can contrast

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{\(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\iota}\) ¢ three} \\
\hline & M & F & N \\
\hline Nom．／Acc & \(\tau \rho \varepsilon ⿺ 𠃊\) & \(\tau \rho \varepsilon ⿺ 𠃊\) & \(\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) \\
\hline Gen． & \(\tau \rho ı \omega \nu\) & \(\tau \rho \iota \omega \nu\) & \(\tau \rho ı \dot{\nu}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{\(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{l}\) ¢ four} \\
\hline & M & F & N \\
\hline Nom．／Acc． Gen． & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\tau \varepsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma\) \\
\(\tau \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \omega\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma\) \\
\(\tau \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \dot{\alpha} \rho \omega v\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\tau \varepsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho \alpha\) \\
\(\tau \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha ́ \rho \omega v\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
 in 4.

The adjective \(\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{I \sigma} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{s}\) 'half' often combines with cardinal numerals, with some special forms according to the gender and case of the noun which it

 half hours', neuter \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \alpha ́} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\lambda i ́ \tau \rho o}\) 'one and a half litres'. Note the forms \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{\imath}\) (masculine and feminine), \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota}\) (neuter) and \(\boldsymbol{\tau \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \rho \mathbf { \imath } -}\)
 half' and 'four and a half' respectively. The forms \(\boldsymbol{\delta v} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{\imath}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma}\),
 used for the half-hours when telling the time: see section 5.5 , example 6 .

The forms of the other cardinal numerals which decline are as follows:
 follow the plural declension of adjectives in -os (see section 3.34). The genitive often undergoes a shift of stress to the penultimate syllable, e.g. \(\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa \sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v}\) 'of three hundred metres';
- \(\chi^{\mathbf{i}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{l o t}, \chi i \lambda l \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma, \chi i \boldsymbol{i} \mathbf{l} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) 'a thousand' is also an adjective and follows the same declension, with possible shift of stress in the genitive, as for the hundreds;
- the thousands from 2,000 onwards consist of the cardinal numerals 'two', 'three', 'four', etc. with the feminine plural noun \(\chi \mathbf{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{l}\) о́ \(\delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma\) 'thousands', with which they must agree (rather than with any noun to which the number refers), e.g. عíкобı \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma\) ' twenty-three thousand’. There is a genitive case \(\chi \mathbf{\imath} \lambda \iota \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v}\), e.g. \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \rho \omega v}\) \(\chi \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \omega \boldsymbol{v}\) 'of fourteen thousand';
 declined like the nouns in section 3.21. Examples: \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \alpha \tau \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { o }}\)

 million euros'.

\subsection*{5.3 Multiplicative numerals}

Multiplicative numerals express the idea of 'single', double', 'treble' etc. They end in \(-\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) and are declined like adjectives in -os, \(\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \eta }}\), -o (section 3.33). The commonest such forms are: \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\rho}\) 'single’ (or 'simple'), \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\)
 \(\pi \mathbf{\sigma} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \varsigma\) 'multiple'.
.

Collective numerals express the idea of 'group of two', 'group of three', etc. They are feminine nouns formed with one of two suffixes: either - \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (inclusive numerals for a definite number) or - \(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (approximative numerals for an approximate number). The latter are usually preceded by the indefinite determiner коциц่́. Examples of inclusive numerals are:
 'group of four', \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) 'group of ten'. Examples of approximative



\subsection*{5.5 Numerals in expressions of time, space and quantity}

In this section we give examples of the uses of numerals in various kinds of expression.

Dates are expressed with the feminine accusative singular of the ordinal numeral for the first day of the month, and for other days by \(\sigma \tau \iota \varsigma\) with the feminine accusative plural of the cardinal numeral:
l \(\quad \tau \eta \nu \pi \rho \dot{\tau} \tau \eta\) A \(\pi \rho \iota \lambda\) íov

The definite article is normally used with the more colloquial names of the months, as in example 2 b .

Dates in years are expressed with either \(\tau \boldsymbol{o}\) or \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) :
3 то 2004/ \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} 2004\)
in 2004
Times of day are expressed by \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta}\) (for 'one') or \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}\) (for other numbers) with the feminine accusative of the cardinal numeral; 'o'clock' can be expressed by \(\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) :

\section*{\(4 \quad \sigma \tau \iota \varsigma \tau \rho \varepsilon \iota \varsigma \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \rho \alpha\) at three o'clock}

The following examples show how minutes and fractions of the hour are expressed:
\(5 \quad \sigma \tau \iota \varsigma\) о \(\chi \tau \dot{\omega} \kappa \alpha \iota \delta \dot{\varepsilon} \kappa \alpha\) ( \(\lambda \varepsilon \pi \tau \dot{\alpha})\)
at ten (minutes) past eight

\subsection*{5.4 Collective numerals}
```

on the first of April
2a $\quad \sigma \tau \iota \varsigma \varepsilon$ عíкобı $\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma ~ \Sigma \varepsilon \pi \tau \varepsilon \mu \beta$ рíov
b $\sigma \tau \iota \varrho$ عí кобı $\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \sigma \varepsilon \rho ı \varsigma ~ \tau о v ~ \Sigma \varepsilon \pi \tau \varepsilon ́ \mu \beta \rho \eta ~$ on the twenty-fourth of September
on the first of April
\sigma\iota\varsigma \varepsiloníко\sigma\iota \tau\varepsiloń\sigma\sigma\varepsilon\rhoı\varsigma \Sigma\varepsilon\pi\tau\varepsilon\mu\betapíov
on the twenty-fourth of September

```
\(6 \quad \sigma \tau \iota \varrho \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \nu \tau \varepsilon \kappa \alpha \iota \mu \iota \sigma \dot{\eta} / \sigma \tau \iota \varsigma \pi \varepsilon \nu \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \mu \iota \sigma \iota\) (see section 5.2) at half past five
 at a quarter past one

8 Eíval \(\delta ळ ́ \delta \varepsilon к \alpha \pi \alpha \rho \alpha ́ ~ \varepsilon i ́ к о \sigma ı . ~\) It's twenty to twelve.

For the use of the accusative to express duration or point in time see section 3.51.

Ages are expressed by the genitive:
 'How old are you?' 'Nineteen.'
 I am twenty-one years old.

II \(\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \mu \omega \rho o ́ ~ \tau \varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha ́ \rho \omega v \mu \eta \nu \omega ́ v\) a four-month-old baby

Expressions of height, depth, size and distance use the accusative (see also section 3.51):

12a \(\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \kappa \tau \eta ́ \rho ı о ~ \delta \varepsilon к \alpha \pi \varepsilon ́ v \tau \varepsilon ~ \mu \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \rho \alpha ~ \psi \eta \lambda о ́ ~\)
b \(\dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \kappa \tau \eta ́ \rho ъ о ~ \delta \varepsilon к \alpha \pi \varepsilon ́ v \tau \varepsilon ~ \mu \varepsilon ́ \tau \rho \alpha ~ v ́ \Psi о \varsigma ~\) a building fifteen metres high

a pothole twenty centimetres deep
 an iron bar two metres long by five centimetres wide

My village is six kilometres away.
In expressions of quantity the term of measurement and the things measured are in the same case ('in apposition'):

\section*{ \\ There were two thousand people there.}

\section*{17 A \(\gamma\) ó \(\rho \alpha \sigma \alpha\) \(\tau \rho i ́ \alpha\) кı \(\lambda \dot{\alpha} v \tau о \mu \alpha ́ \tau \varepsilon \varsigma . ~\) I bought three kilos of tomatoes.}
 Each person drank two litres of water.

\section*{Chapter 6}

\section*{The verb and the verb phrase}

\subsection*{6.1 Introduction to the verb phrase}

\section*{6.I.I Constituents of the verb phrase}

A verb is a word which expresses the ways in which the subject of the sentence acts, the state in which it is, a change it undergoes, etc. Before dealing with the forms of the verb itself, we shall consider the ways in which the verb phrase functions in the sentence.

The verb phrase consists of either a verb alone (1), or a verb combined with a number of other elements such as objects (2-5), subject and object predicates (6), adverbial modifiers (7), etc. The Greek verb may also be preceded by particles expressing mood, tense, or negation (9-10) and weak object pronouns (10-11).

Here are some examples of verb phrases in Greek:
I O Níкоऽ \(\dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\).
Nick left.

Nick brought John.

Nick gave the book to John.
 Nick gave Mary a beautiful ring.

5 O Níкoş \(\theta \alpha \mu \iota \lambda \eta ́ \sigma e \iota ~ \sigma \tau o v ~ \Gamma ı \alpha ́ v v \eta . ~\) Nick will speak to John.
 Nick became a minister.

7 O Níkos \(\dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{v} \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma\). Nick left yesterday.
8 O Níкоৎ \(\dot{\varepsilon} \beta \alpha \lambda \varepsilon \tau o \beta \iota \beta \lambda i ́ o ~ \sigma \tau \eta \nu \tau \sigma \alpha ́ v \tau \alpha \tau o v\). Nick put the book in his bag.
 Nick will leave without Mary.

\section*{10 O Níко̧ \(\delta \varepsilon v \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma o v} \delta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \sigma \varepsilon \iota \tau \alpha \lambda \varepsilon \varphi \tau \alpha ́\).}

Nick won't give you the money.
 Nick told me that he won't leave tomorrow.

Verbs are intransitive when they do not require an object, as in example 1 , transitive when they take one or more objects. The object which is directly affected by the action of the verb is the direct object (2). It is usually in the accusative case. The object which is indirectly affected by the action of the verb is referred to as the indirect object and is expressed by either a prepositional phrase \((3,5)\) or the genitive case (4).
The same verb may appear both as transitive and intransitive with or without change in meaning, as in examples 12-15:

12 O Гıávvŋऽ \(\delta \iota \alpha \beta \alpha ́ \zeta \varepsilon \iota ~ \tau \eta v \varepsilon \varphi \eta \mu \varepsilon \rho i ́ \delta \alpha\). John is reading the newspaper.
 John reads a lot.

Helen is always laughing.

\section*{15 H Eגદ́vŋ \(\gamma \varepsilon ́ \lambda \alpha \sigma \varepsilon\) тov Níкo. Helen fooled Nick.}

\section*{6. I. 2 Objects and predicates}

The direct object is expressed by either a full noun phrase typically in the accusative case (16a), or an emphatic pronoun in the accusative (16b), or a weak pronoun in the accusative (16c) or a combination of the two (16d). The weak pronoun is placed immediately before the verb form unless it is a gerund or an imperative:
```

16a O B $\alpha \sigma i \lambda \eta \varsigma ~ к \alpha ́ \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon ~ \tau \eta v ~ ' A v v \alpha . ~$
Basil invited Anna.
b O B $\alpha \sigma i \lambda \eta \varsigma ~ к \alpha ́ \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon ~ \varepsilon \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha$.
Basil invited me.

```
c \(\mathbf{O B} \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{\sigma} i \lambda \eta \varsigma \mu \varepsilon\) к \(\dot{\alpha} \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon\).
Basil invited me.
 Basil did invite Anna.

A verb may also have two objects, one direct and one indirect. The indirect object may be expressed in the genitive case and it may consist of either a full noun phrase (17a), or a weak pronoun (17b), or a combination of these (17c). Both object noun phrases may combine with weak pronouns (17d). In addition, the weak pronouns may completely replace the noun phrases (17e):
 Lena gave Basil a watch.
 Lena gave him a watch.
 Lena gave Basil a beautiful watch.
 Lena gave Basil the watch.

Lena gave it to him.

There are some differences between objects expressed with full noun phrases and those expressed by weak pronouns. The full noun phrases may occur in either order so that the direct object may either precede the indirect object (17a) (though this order is becoming less usual than the reverse), or follow it \((17 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d})\). The combinations of weak pronouns, on the other hand, are more restricted. The indirect object in the genitive must always precede the direct object in the accusative (17d). Furthermore, not all combinations of person are possible. The permitted sequences consist of combinations of any member of column A with any member of column B:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline A & B \\
\hline \(\mu \mathrm{ov}\) & \(\tau 0 v\) \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\sigma o v}\) & \(\tau \eta \nu\) \\
\hline тov & \(\tau 0\) \\
\hline m¢ & tovs \\
\hline \(\mu \alpha \varsigma\) & \(\tau 15\) \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma\) & \(\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) \\
\hline tov¢ & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There are some verbs which take two objects, such as \(\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega}\) 'I teach', кєр \(\boldsymbol{\omega}\) ' 'I treat to', whose direct and indirect objects are both in the accusative case:
 Treat John to an ice-cream.

The indirect object is most usually expressed by a prepositional phrase introduced by \(\boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon}\) :

19 O Mı \(\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta \varsigma\) モ́ \(\sigma \tau \varepsilon \iota \lambda \varepsilon \mu \eta \dot{\nu} v \mu \alpha \sigma \tau \eta\) X \(\rho v \sigma o v i \lambda \alpha\). Michael sent a message to Chrysoula.

A few verbs may combine with a single object either in a prepositional phrase or in the genitive:

Angela will speak to John.

Angela will speak to John.
A genitive weak pronoun, which is not an indirect object, may accompany a transitive or an intransitive verb, as in examples 21-23. These genitive weak pronouns express the psychological involvement of the person referred to by the pronoun with the effect of the action denoted by the verb:

\section*{21 Tov \(\chi \alpha \lambda \alpha ́ \sigma \alpha \nu \varepsilon \tau \alpha \sigma \chi \varepsilon ́ \delta ı \alpha\). They spoiled his plans.}

\section*{ Will you iron my shirt for me?}

\section*{ Please don't get upset.}

Just as in English, the verb phrase may contain a number of adverbial modifications expressing place, time, manner, cause, purpose, etc. These consist of either prepositional phrases or adverbial phrases or adverbial clauses, as in the following examples:

\section*{\(24 \boldsymbol{\Sigma v v a v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (place). \\ They met in Athens.}
\(25{ }^{\prime} \mathbf{H \rho \theta \varepsilon} \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (time).
(S)he came very late.

26 Tov \(\mu \mathbf{i} \lambda \eta \sigma \varepsilon \pi o \lambda v ́ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \sigma \kappa \eta \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (manner).
(S)he spoke to him very rudely.

27 To غ́каve \(\alpha \pi \dot{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) (cause).
(S)he did it out of stubbornness.

(S)he's studying a lot in order to get good marks.

Some intransitive verbs, known as linking verbs, are followed by either a noun phrase or an adjectival phrase in the nominative, which functions as the predicate of the subject. If the subject predicate is an adjectival phrase it agrees with the subject not only in case but also in number and gender (29); if the subject predicate is a noun phrase it agrees with the subject in case only (30):
 His sister is/has become very neurotic.

30 O Níкos عíval/と́ \(\boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho i ́ \alpha\) \(\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta}\). Nick is/has become her salvation.

Some transitive verbs may, in addition to the direct object, take an object predicate in the form of either an adjective phrase (31) or a noun phrase (32). An object predicate agrees with the object to which it refers in case (i.e. the accusative), and if it is an adjectival phrase it must also agree in number and gender (31):

\section*{31 \(\Theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ v \tau \eta B \alpha ́ \sigma \omega \pi o \lambda v ́ ~ \varepsilon ́ g v \pi v \eta\). They consider Vasso very intelligent.}

\section*{ They appointed Vasso Minister of Education.}

\subsection*{6.2 Preliminary notes on the verb system}

Greek is a highly inflected language. Each verb is formed by the combination of a stem and an inflectional ending. The stem, which may be simple ( \(\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi\) - 'write') or derived ( \(\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v}-\) 'cure'), carries the essential meaning of the verb, while the inflectional ending expresses a complex system of grammatical categories, namely:
- Person: first, second, third
- Number: singular, plural
- Tense: past, non-past
- Voice: active, passive
- Aspect: perfective, imperfective
- Mood: imperative, non-imperative.

The inflected verb may be modified by the particles \(\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\), which precede the verb form and mark further divisions of mood (indicative/ subjunctive) and the tense opposition (future/non-future). The only invariant, non-finite, verb forms are (a) the gerund, ending in -oveas/ - \(\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma\) ( \(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{i} \zeta \mathbf{o v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma\) 'playing and laughing'), and (b) the nonfinite verb form which follows the auxiliary \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}\) 'I have' to form the perfect


\subsection*{6.3 Person and number}

The inflectional endings of a finite verb mark three persons (first, second and third: see also section 4.1) and two numbers (singular and plural). (For impersonal verbs see sections 6.6 and 10.25.) The person and number of the verb normally agree with the person and number of the subject, as in the following sentences:

``` I will pay the bill.
```


## $2 \boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \varsigma$ (2nd pl.) va $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ (2nd pl.). You should speak to him.

In general, the plural of the subject pronoun and the verb refers to more than one individual, but in Greek, as in some other European languages, the second person plural may also be used to refer to only one individual in a polite and respectful manner ('plural of politeness'; see section 12.1), as above, where $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is 'you' may refer to one or more persons.

Because the Greek verbal ending clearly shows variation in person and number, a subject pronoun becomes redundant and, for this reason, in many sentences no explicit subject is stated:

## $3 E \lambda \pi i \zeta \omega$ va $\sigma \varepsilon \beta \lambda \varepsilon ́ \pi o v \mu \varepsilon \sigma v \chi v \dot{\alpha}$. I hope that we will see you often.

##  <br> Do you know when (s)he will arrive?

The subject pronoun is present in the sentence only if it is associated with special emphasis:
 We, however, know nothing.
 You should speak to him.
 He's the problem.

The second person singular and third person plural can be used with general indefinite reference:
 Here you shout and nobody can hear you.

## 9 Пov́ $\boldsymbol{\tau \rho \omega} \boldsymbol{v \varepsilon}$ (3rd pl.) $\varphi \tau \eta \nu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} ;$ Where can one eat cheaply here?

### 6.4 Tense, aspect, voice and mood

Tense is the verbal category that indicates the time at which something happens. In main indicative clauses (see section 10.2) the point of time of the verb is defined in relation to the time of speaking. In other kinds of clause other factors are also relevant, such as the mood, the presence of particles and, for verbs in subordinate clauses, the tense of the main verb. The verb forms in Greek differentiate only between past and non-past. The future is formed with the particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, and the perfect and pluperfect are formed with the auxiliary verb $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I have'.

Aspect is the verbal category that indicates whether the action, process, etc. denoted by the verb is viewed either (a) as occurring repeatedly or being in progress (imperfective aspect), or (b) in its totality as a single completed event (perfective aspect), or (c) as an event completed in the past whose completion is relevant to some other point in time (perfect aspect). The combinations of the two categories tense and aspect produce the verb forms which are often referred to as the tenses of the verb. For the use of the tenses see section 6.5.

Voice is the grammatical category that in general (and more clearly in cases of action verbs) indicates whether the subject is the initiator of the action
 undergoes (is affected by) this action (passive voice), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \mathbf{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \lambda \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'I am annoyed'. In such situations the object of the active verb corresponds
to the subject of the passive verb, while the subject of the active verb corresponds to a prepositional phrase which may be present or understood:
 Helen annoys Mark very much.
 Mark is very much annoyed by Helen.

Not all verbs have both active and passive voices. Furthermore, the correlation between active and passive voice endings and the meaning conveyed does not always hold. There are verbs with active endings which do not indicate action, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ' 'I am hungry', and verbs with passive endings which may indicate action and may take an object, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$


Mood is the verbal category that typically, in main clauses, indicates the attitude of the speaker towards what is conveyed by the verb. The verb forms in themselves differentiate only between the imperative mood (3), where the speaker orders, requests, etc. the hearer to do something, and the non-imperative moods. (For the use of the imperative see section 10.4.) The non-imperative forms may be either in the indicative mood (4-5) or the subjunctive mood (6-8). The indicative mood is characterized by the absence of the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ and by the fact that its negative particle is $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$. It is used when the speaker simply states or describes a situation. The subjunctive has the same verb form as the indicative but it is accompanied by the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ (with a few marginal exceptions) and the negative particle is $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ (see also section 9.3). The subjunctive is used to express wishing, hoping, expecting, planning, etc.:

## $3 \Gamma \Gamma \alpha^{\psi} \psi \varepsilon$ то $\gamma \rho \dot{\alpha} \mu \mu \alpha$ ! (imperative) Write the letter!

##  Irene bought a new car.

##  Mary didn't understand properly.

 Should we invite John too?
$7 \quad$ 'O $\boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{l}, \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o v} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (subjunctive).
No, let's not invite him.
$8 \mathrm{~A} \varsigma$ 甲ú $\gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ (subjunctive). Let him/her/it go.

Tense, aspect, voice and mood

### 6.5 The use of the tenses and other verb forms

The verb and the verb phrase

Here we shall describe the use and the function of the verb forms (often referred to as tenses) derived from the combination of the categories of tense and aspect (see section 6.4). The particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ may combine with any of these forms to produce a variety of future tenses and conditionals.

The various combinations of perfective/imperfective aspect and past/nonpast give the first four simple forms below, while the combination of perfect aspect and past/non-past gives the two perfect tenses (names of forms are given in bold):

| Aspect: | Imperfective | Perfective | Perfect |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tense: |  |  |  |
| Non-past | $\delta \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}-\omega$ | $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{1}$ |
|  | 'I tie, | (no English | 'I have tied' |
|  | I am tying' | equivalent) |  |
|  | present | dependent | perfect |
| Past | $\dot{\varepsilon}-\delta \varepsilon v-\alpha$ | $\dot{\varepsilon}-\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |
|  | 'I was tying, | 'I tied' | 'I had tied' |
|  | I used to tie' |  |  |
|  | imperfect | simple past | pluperfect |

### 6.5.I Present (imperfective non-past)

The present expresses either a single event that is in progress (continuous) or a habitually repeated one:

I H K $\alpha \tau \varepsilon \rho i ́ v \alpha \pi o \tau i \zeta \varepsilon ı$ (repeated) $\tau \alpha \operatorname{\tau \rho \imath \alpha v\tau \alpha ́\varphi v\lambda \lambda \alpha \kappa \alpha ́\theta \varepsilon ~} \pi \rho \omega i ́$. Katerina waters the roses every morning.
 $\tau \alpha \tau \rho \iota \alpha \nu \tau \alpha ́ \varphi v \lambda \lambda \alpha$.
Right now she's in the garden watering the roses.
 (repeated).
 Don't speak to him because he's working.

The present may also be used occasionally to describe vividly an action that took place in the past. This is known as the 'historic present':
 Mapí $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta$. First thing yesterday morning there's a knock at the door, I open [it] and see Mary furious.

The present is also used in live sports commentaries:

## 阝о́ढとı $\boldsymbol{\gamma к о \lambda . ~}$ <br> Beckham runs, gets the ball, shoots and scores.

The present may also describe future events to convey immediacy:
 Don't worry, l'll give it to him tomorrow.

The present may also be used to refer to an action or situation that began in the past and continues in the present, where English uses the perfect:

l've been taking this medicine since 1999.

### 6.5.2 Imperfect (imperfective past)

The imperfect presents an action, process, etc. as occurring habitually (9) or continuously (10) in the past:
 $\pi \mathbf{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$ к $\alpha \lambda \dot{\alpha}$.
Last year I ran for half an hour each morning and I felt very well.

He was running towards the shore when I saw him.

### 6.5.3 Simple past (perfective past)

The simple past presents an action as having been completed at some point in the past:

II $\Delta \iota \alpha ́ \beta \alpha \sigma \alpha$ то $\dot{\alpha} \rho \theta \rho o ~ \sigma o v ~ \chi \theta \varepsilon \varsigma ~ к \alpha \iota ~ \varepsilon v \tau v \pi \omega \sigma \iota \alpha ́ \sigma \tau \eta \kappa \alpha . ~$ I read your article yesterday and I was impressed.

## 

John got tired of insisting.
13 А $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \alpha \sigma \varepsilon \varsigma ~ \tau \varepsilon \lambda \mathbf{l к \alpha ́ \alpha ~ \alpha v \tau о к i ́ v \eta \tau о ; ~}$
Did you buy a car in the end?

### 6.5.4 Dependent (perfective non-past)

The dependent cannot be used on its own. It is used in combination with the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ to form the perfective future ( $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I will write') and with the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ to form the perfective subjunctive ( $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'that I tie, to tie, let me tie'). It may also occur after certain conjunc-
 you leave'); it is obligatory after $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho \iota v}$ ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho \iota v} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{v} \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \varsigma$ 'before you leave').
 John will phone us at eight o'clock.

15 Өと́ $\lambda \varepsilon \iota v \alpha \operatorname{\tau ov} \tau \eta \lambda \varepsilon \varphi \omega v \eta ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota \varsigma ~ \sigma \tau \iota \varsigma ~ o \chi \tau \omega ́$. He wants you to phone him at eight o'clock.

### 6.5.5 Perfect

The perfect is formed with the present tense of the auxiliary verb $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ followed by the non-finite verb form consisting of the perfective verb stem plus the suffix - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ ' I have written'. It is used when the completed action in the past has present relevance and is often interchangeable with the simple past:
 l've drunk three coffees since the morning.

l've got tired of waiting.

### 6.5.6 Pluperfect

This tense is formed with the past tense of the auxiliary verb $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ followed by the non-finite form, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ 'I had written'. It is used to express an action completed in the past with consequences relevant to another past situation, either explicitly stated or understood:
 We'd already met George when we saw you.
$19 \Sigma \tau \iota \varsigma \varepsilon v v \varepsilon ́ \alpha$ то $\pi \rho \omega i ́ \varepsilon i ́ \chi \alpha v \varepsilon$ кıó̀ $\alpha \varsigma ~ \alpha v \alpha \chi \omega \rho \eta ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota . ~$ At nine o'clock in the morning they had already left.

### 6.5.7 Future

The future consists of the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed either by the imperfective non-past (present tense) to form the imperfective future, which presents the action as habitual or continuous, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{~ ' I ~ w i l l ~ t i e ~ r e p e a t - ~}$ edly' or 'I will be tying continuously', or by the dependent to form the perfective future, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I will tie', which presents the action as completed.

The imperfective future is used to indicate that the action of the verb will be taking place repeatedly or continuously in the future:
 Every Wednesday we'll eat at Mitsos's taverna.

21 'O $\tau \alpha v$ 甲 $\tau \alpha ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota \varsigma ~ \theta \alpha ~ \delta o v \lambda \varepsilon v ́ \varepsilon t . ~$ When you get there (s)he'll be working.

The perfective future is used to indicate that the action of the verb will be completed at a particular point in time in the future:
 I'll meet Mary tomorrow afternoon.

### 6.5.8 Conditional

This is formed by the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the imperfect. It expresses suppositions or counterfactual conditions (for more on conditional clauses see section 10.13):
 If I had a car I would go and see him.
 Had I known you were here I would have invited you.

### 6.5.9 Future perfect

This consists of the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the perfect. It expresses an action that will have been completed at a particular point in time in the future and will be relevant to that point in time:
 $\gamma \rho \alpha ́ \varphi \varepsilon \varepsilon$.
By the summer (s)he'll have finished the book (s)he's writing.
 I hope that (s)he'll have found the amount (s)he needs.

### 6.5.10 Perfect conditional

This consists of the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the pluperfect. It describes an action that could have happened but failed to do so. It is used in the main clause of counterfactual conditions (see section 10.13).
 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{v}$.
If you had met him you too would have liked him.
 If they had money they would have sent him to England.

### 6.5. II The gerund

This is an uninflected verb form used adverbially. Its subject is normally identical with the subject of the clause in which it occurs. Occasionally, the subject of the gerund may be different from that of the clause (32). The gerund expresses manner (29), simultaneity of time (30) and occasionally cause (31).
 vと́ $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
Rita's brother came running to tell her the news.

As I came in I heard them whispering.
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \eta$.
Because they recognize his importance they will give him a promotion.
 As George left, Helen started to cry.

### 6.6 Defective, impersonal and deponent verbs

Before we set out the basic verb forms, we must note that some verbs do not possess the full range of forms for each person, number, tense, aspect and voice. Different verbs lack different parts of the system.

Defective verbs have no perfective forms and exist only in the imperfective aspect (see section 6.4). Examples of defective verbs are: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I belong',


 $\boldsymbol{\tau} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\mu} \omega$ 'I tremble’, $\boldsymbol{\chi \rho \omega \sigma \tau \omega}$ 'I owe’.

Impersonal verbs have only third-person singular forms. The two most common verbs of this kind are $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \pi } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \iota }}$ 'it is necessary (that)' and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ 'be about to'. Both verbs are normally followed by $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and a verb in the present or dependent:

##  You must return by midday.

##  I had to work every day.

## $3 \Delta \varepsilon v \pi \rho o ́ \kappa \varepsilon \iota \tau \alpha l$ va 甲v́ชоv $\mu \varepsilon$ би́ $\mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha$. We're not going to leave today.

For impersonal uses of other verbs see section 10.25 .
Deponent verbs have only passive forms. It is important to note that these verbs are active in meaning, but their endings are those of the passive voice.

 ashamed', $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'I appear, seem', $\boldsymbol{\varphi о \beta \alpha ́ \mu \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'I fear'. A few other verbs are semi-deponent: they have passive forms for the present and imperfect, but active forms for other tenses. The main ones are: $\gamma \mathbf{i v o \mu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{l}$ 'I become,
 table of irregular verbs (section 6.25).

## The basic forms

Sections 6.7-6.13 give the basic forms of the verbs: the present, imperfect, simple past, dependent, imperfective and perfective imperatives (active and

Defective, impersonal and deponent verbs

6
The verb and the verb phrase

### 6.7 The verb 'to be'

The verb 'to be' ('I am', 'you are', etc.) is irregular, i.e. the pattern of personal endings is not the same as for any other verb, so it needs to be learnt separately. There are only two sets of tense forms: present and past (imperfect).

| Present |  |  |  | Imperfect |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg |  | cíuct | 1 am | $\mathfrak{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{O v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ | I was |
|  | 2 | cícout | you are | ท́ $\boldsymbol{\sigma o v v}(\alpha)$ | you were |
|  | 3 | Eíval | (s)he/it is | $\dot{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} v(\varepsilon)$ | (s)he/it was |
| PI. | I | вí $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | we are | $\eta \mu \alpha \sigma \tau \varepsilon /$ $\dot{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | we were |
|  | 2 | عíб $\tau \varepsilon /$ <br> عíб人бтє | you are | ท่ $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha \sigma \tau \varepsilon /$ <br> ท́ $\sigma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ | you were |
|  | 3 | Eíval | they are | $\boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} v(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ | they were |
| I. The forms of the imperfect with the additional vowel at the end ( $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{O} v \mathbf{v a}$, $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma v v a}, \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \varepsilon \varepsilon)$ are less formal alternatives. <br> 2. The difference between the other alternative forms (shown separated by /) is largely a matter of personal choice. <br> Note the different spellings of the initial vowel in the present ( $\varepsilon$ i-) and imperfect ( $\mathfrak{\eta}$-). |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

### 6.8 First-conjugation verbs

Greek verbs are divided into two main categories:
(1) those that, in their active present tense, have the stress on the last syllable of the stem, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I write', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I read' (and, in fact, the majority of Greek verbs);
(2) those that have a first person singular of the active present stressed on

We refer to verbs as belonging to the first or second conjugation，according to this fundamental distinction．In this section the basic forms of first－ conjugation verbs will be given．Those of second－conjugation verbs will be given in sections 6．9－6．11．For each tense or mood we give an approxi－ mate English meaning．For information about the use of the tenses and other verb forms see section 6．5．
$\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ I lose

| Present |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Active | Passive |
| Sg． | I | $\chi$ 人́v＠I lose | $\chi$ óvoual I get lost lose myself |
|  | 2 |  | $\chi$ 人́véa＠ı |
|  | 3 |  | $\chi$ ¢́vetal |
| Pl． | 1 | $\chi$ ¢́vovんを | $\chi \alpha \nu 0 ́ \mu \alpha \sigma \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 2 | $\chi$ ¢́vet¢ |  |
|  |  |  | $\chi \alpha \nu \mathbf{o ́ \sigma \alpha \sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 3 | $\chi$ ¢́ávovv（ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ） |  |
| I．The stress remains on the same syllable，except for the passive Ist person plural，and the alternative form of the passive 2nd person plural，where it moves forward by one syllable． |  |  |  |
| 2．The active 3 rd person plural form with $-\varepsilon$ is frequent in the spoken language， but less often used in more formal contexts． |  |  |  |
| 3．In the passive 2 nd person plural the form in $-\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon$ is more formal，while that in－ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is more colloquial． |  |  |  |

Imperfect

| Imperfect |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Active | Passive |
| Sg． | 1 | غ́qu＠va I was losing， | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha v o ́ \mu o v v ( \alpha )}$ |
|  |  | used to lose | I was getting lost， |
|  |  |  | losing myself |
|  | 2 | $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}{ }^{\text {c }}$ | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 人ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma o v v ( \alpha )}$ |
|  | 3 | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ） |

First－
conjugation verbs

6
The verb and the verb phrase

Pl. I
2
3 ह́ $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

## $\chi \alpha \nu o ́ \mu \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha \nu$ $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{o ́} \sigma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \sigma \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \nu$ $\chi$ о́vov $\alpha \alpha v /$ $\chi \alpha v$ óvтоvб $\alpha v /$ $\chi \alpha \nu o ́ v \tau \alpha v \varepsilon$

I. In the active imperfect, verbs with a one-syllable stem beginning with a consonant have a syllabic augment $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ - in the singular and in the 3 rd person plural, and this augment carries the stress (see section 6.21 for more details). The 3 rd person plural form with $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (and no augment) is more colloquial. Verbs with stems of more than one syllable have no augment, e.g. $\delta \mathbf{t} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I was reading', from $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$.
2. In the passive imperfect the stress moves forward one syllable, except for the 3 rd person plural in -ov $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$. The alternative singular forms with - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (Ist and 2 nd persons) or $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (3rd person) are colloquial. The two alternative endings for the 3rd person plural, -óv $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \nu$ and -óv $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \varepsilon$, are also colloquial.

## Simple past

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | I | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ I lost | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \eta \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ I was lost, lost myself |
|  | 2 | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 3 | $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\chi \dot{\alpha} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \varepsilon$ |
| PI. | 1 | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 2 | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 3 | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} / \boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \chi \chi \alpha \theta \dot{\eta} \kappa \alpha \nu \varepsilon$ |

I. The simple past tenses, active and passive, are based on the relevant perfective stems, and it is necessary to know what these stems are for each verb. (For the formation of the perfective stems of first-conjugation verbs see section 6.14.) The verb $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ has an active perfective stem $\boldsymbol{\chi \alpha \sigma}$ - and passive $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta$-. The active forms have the same endings as the active imperfect, added to the perfective stem. The syllabic augment $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ - is required for verbs with one-syllable stems, in the singular and in the 3rd person plural, just as in the imperfect.
2. The passive simple past is formed by adding an extra syllable - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa$ - and the past personal endings to the passive perfective stem: $\boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \theta-\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa}-\boldsymbol{\alpha}$. The endings are the same as the corresponding ones for the active simple past. The stress falls on the third syllable from the end in all forms. The 3 rd person plural in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v \varepsilon}$ is less formal.

## Dependent

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg． | I | $\chi \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$（no English equivalent） | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$（no English equivalent） |
|  | 2 | $\chi$ й́бとıऽ | $\chi \alpha \theta \varepsilon i ́ s$ |
|  | 3 | $\chi$ 人́aset | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ í |
| PI． | I |  | $\chi \alpha \theta$ ov́ $\mu \varepsilon$ |
|  | 2 |  | $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 3 | $\chi$ 人́coovv（ $\varepsilon$ ） | $\chi \alpha \theta 0$ óv $(\varepsilon)$ |

I．The active and passive dependent forms are based on the same stem as the active and passive simple past tenses respectively．The active endings are the same as those of the active present tense．The stress falls on the last syllable of the stem．The passive endings are the same，except for the vowel－ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon l}-$ in the 2 nd person plural．But there is a very important difference：the stress falls on the first（or only）syllable of these endings，rather than on the stem．
2．The 3rd person plural in both active and passive has a less formal alternative ending in $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ．

Imperfective imperative

## Active

Sg．$\quad \chi \dot{\alpha} v \boldsymbol{v}$ lose！
PI．$\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \varepsilon$
The imperative has only $2 n d$ person forms，singular and plural．The endings $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon}$ and $-\varepsilon \tau \varepsilon$ are attached to the imperfective（present）stem．The plural form is identical to the 2 nd person plural of the active present tense．In verbs of more than two syllables the stress of the singular form goes back to the third syllable from the end，e．g． $\boldsymbol{\delta t} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$＇read！＇There is no passive imperfective imperative． For the use of the imperative forms and alternative ways of expressing commands see section 10．4．

Perfective imperative

|  | Active | Passive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sg. | $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ lose! | $\boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o v}}$ get lost! lose yourself! |
| PI. | $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\chi \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha } \theta \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { i } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon }}$ |

I. The perfective imperative is formed from the perfective stem. The singular forms add $-\varepsilon$ for the active and $-\boldsymbol{o v}$ for the passive. In verbs of more than two syllables the stress of the active form is on the third syllable from the end: contrast $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'prepare (something)!' with $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{0}$ 'get yourself ready!' Note that the passive singular imperative uses the active perfective stem.
2. The active plural ending is $-\tau \varepsilon$ when the last consonant of the stem is $\lambda, \rho$, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{\xi}$ or $\boldsymbol{\psi}$. After other consonants the ending is $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \tau \varepsilon \varepsilon}$, e.g. $\pi \lambda \hat{v} v \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon$ 'wash!' (from $\pi \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} v \omega$ ). Sometimes verbs with perfective stems ending in $v$ have the shorter ending in colloquial use, e.g. кóvez 'do!' The plural of the passive perfective imperative is the same as the 2 nd person plural of the dependent.
3. Active singular imperatives with a stem ending in $\lambda, \rho, \boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{\xi}$ or $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ often drop the final vowel when followed by a 3rd-person weak pronoun or an object
 the books!'.
4. Some verbs form their active perfective imperative irregularly. See the table of irregular verbs in section 6.25.

Gerund


The gerund is formed by adding the ending -oveas to the imperfective stem. It is active in meaning. For the use of the gerund see section 6.5.II.

### 6.9 Second-conjugation verbs (type $\mathbf{A}$ )

Verbs of the second conjugation are divided into two types, according to the vowel which predominates in the endings of the active present tense. Those of the first type (A) are characterized by the $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ vowel in the endings of this tense. Type B is dealt with in section 6.10.

Verbs of type A include the following: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I love', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega} \dot{\omega}$ 'I answer',






 $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho \varepsilon \tau \epsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I greet', $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I break, spoil', $\chi \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \pi \omega^{\prime}$ 'I hit'. Some other verbs that can follow type A are listed in section 6.10.
$\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\prime}$ I love

| Present |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Active | Passive |
| Sg. | 1 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi ı \varepsilon ́ \mu \alpha ı}$ |
|  |  | I love | I am loved |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \alpha} \underbrace{\prime}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ |
|  | 3 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha}$ |  |
| Pl. | 1 |  | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\prime} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon /$ $\alpha \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ó $\sigma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 3 |  | $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \iota 0$ v́v $\tau \alpha \iota$ |
| I. The stress always falls on the endings. The passive present has a non-syllabic - $\mathbf{i -}$ (see section I.2) between the stem $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi$ - and the personal endings. <br> 2. Where alternative forms exist, the active endings - $\mathbf{\alpha} \omega,-$ - $\dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon},-\dot{\alpha} \mu \varepsilon$ and -áve and the passive 2 nd person plural in -ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon$ are regarded as less formal. |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

Imperfect

| Imperfect |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Active | Passive |
| Sg. | 1 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |
|  |  | I used to love | I used to be loved |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi о и ́ \sigma \varepsilon \varsigma ~}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\prime}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma o v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ |
|  | 3 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi о и ̆ \sigma \varepsilon}$ |  |

The stress always falls on the endings. The passive present has a non-syllabic -l- (see section I.2) between the stem $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi$ - and the personal endings.
2. Where alternative forms exist, the active endings - $\dot{\alpha} \omega,-\dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon},-\dot{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \varepsilon$ and the passive 2 nd person plural in -ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon$ are regarded as less formal.

Secondconjugation verbs (type A)

Pl. I
$2 \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
$3 \quad \alpha \gamma \alpha \pi 0 v ์ \sigma \alpha v(\varepsilon)$
$\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \iota \dot{\rho} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \nu$ $\alpha \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o ́} \sigma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \nu$ $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \iota$ óv $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} v(\varepsilon) /$ $\alpha \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ óv $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{l}$ $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \iota o v ́ v \tau \alpha \nu(\varepsilon)$
I. The active forms consist of the stem, an extra syllable -ov́ $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$-, which always carries the stress, and the personal endings of the active past tenses. Verbs of type B form their active imperfect in exactly the same way.
2. An alternative way of forming the active imperfect of type A verbs is also in use, mainly in central and southern Greece. Here the extra syllable is $-\alpha \gamma-$, and the stress falls on the third syllable from the end: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \varepsilon \varsigma$, $\alpha \gamma \dot{\alpha} \pi \alpha \gamma \varepsilon, \alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \dot{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \varepsilon, \alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \dot{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \varepsilon, \alpha \gamma \dot{\alpha} \pi \alpha \gamma \alpha v / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \dot{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \varepsilon$. These alternative forms are not normally used in formal contexts.
3. The passive forms are similar to those of the passive imperfect of firstconjugation verbs, but have a non-syllabic -l- inserted between the stem and the ending.

Simple past

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | I | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
|  |  | I loved | I was loved |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{¢}$ |
|  | 3 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ |
| PI. | I | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \bar{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \varepsilon$ |  |
|  | 3 | $\alpha \gamma \dot{\alpha} \pi \eta \sigma \alpha \nu /$ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \dot{\eta} \theta \eta \kappa \alpha \nu /$ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |

Verbs of the second conjugation normally form their perfective stems by adding the syllable $-\eta \sigma$ - for the active and $-\eta \theta$ - for the passive. (For important exceptions to this way of forming the perfective stems see section 6.15.) To form the active simple past, the past endings are added directly to the active perfective stem. As in first-conjugation verbs, the passive simple past has the additional syllable $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa$ - before the endings. In all these forms the stress falls on the third syllable from the end.
Exceptionally, two verbs in this category have a syllabic augment in the Ist, 2nd and 3rd persons ingular and the 3rd person plural of the active simple past: $\delta \boldsymbol{\rho} \omega$ 'I act' has the simple past $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, and $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (an alternative to $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ) 'I break' has $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Apart from these special cases, second-conjugation verbs do not have an augment.

## Dependent

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | I | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (no English equivalent) | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (no English equivalent) |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \eta ́ \sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~}$ |  |
|  | 3 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ | $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \eta \theta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
| PI. | 1 |  | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta o v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \varepsilon$ | $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \eta \theta \varepsilon i ́ \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 3 | $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \eta \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{O} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu}(\varepsilon)$ | $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \eta$ Oov́v ( $\varepsilon$ ) |

The dependent is based on the perfective stem, which usually ends in $-\eta \sigma$ - for the active and $\boldsymbol{- \eta} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ - for the passive. (For exceptions see section 6.15.) The endings and position of stress are the same as for first-conjugation verbs.

Imperfective imperative
Active

Sg. $\quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ love!
PI. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
The active imperfective imperative endings are $-\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ for singular and - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \varepsilon$ for plural. Both forms are stressed on the penultimate syllable. There are no passive forms.

Perfective imperative

|  | Active | Passive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sg. | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ love! | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \dot{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o v}$ be loved! |
| PI. | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ í $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ love one |
|  |  | another! |

The perfective imperative is formed from the perfective stems, just as for firstconjugation verbs.

6
The verb and the verb phrase

## Gerund


The gerund of second-conjugation verbs has the ending -ळ́v $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. The stress is on the penultimate syllable. For the use of the gerund see section 6.5.

### 6.10 Second-conjugation verbs (type B)

Type $B$ verbs of the second conjugation differ from those of type $A$ in the endings of the active present, which (apart from the first person singular) have the vowels $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varepsilon}$ or $\boldsymbol{o v}$. There are also differences in the endings of the passive present and imperfect tenses, and in the imperfective imperative. Examples of type B verbs are: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I constitute', $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I live’, $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I
 forgive'.

The following verbs can follow either type A or type B: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ' 'I
 'I proceed, go forward', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{\eta \tau \omega}$ 'I discuss', $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I am fond of,
 for'. Such verbs tend to have type B endings in more formal contexts.
$\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\omega}$ I consider, regard

Present

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | 1 | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\omega}$ I consider | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho о и ́ \mu \alpha \iota$ I am considered |
|  | 2 | Өccosis | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \varepsilon i ́ \sigma \alpha t$ |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \varepsilon i ́$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \varepsilon i ́ \tau \alpha ı$ |
| Pl. | 1 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho о$ и́ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho о$ ט́ $\mu \alpha \sigma \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 2 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \varepsilon i ́ \tau \varepsilon$ |  |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ v(\varepsilon)$ | Ocopov́v $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |

The endings of the passive present are rather different from those of type A verbs. The first vowel of the endings is $\boldsymbol{o v}$ for the Ist person singular and Ist and 3 rd persons plural, $\varepsilon \ell$ for the remaining persons (compare the corresponding active forms). This vowel carries the stress.

| Imperfect |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Active | Passive |
| Sg. | I | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho о$ v́ $\sigma \alpha$ I used to consider | ( $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ \mu o v v$ ) I was/used to be considered |
|  | 2 | Өع๗рои́бと¢ | ( $\boldsymbol{\text { cempov́бovv) }}$ |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ \sigma \varepsilon$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ่ v \tau \alpha v(\varepsilon$ |
| PI. | I | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho о$ о́ $\alpha \mu \varepsilon$ | ( $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho$ ov́ $\mu \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha v)$ |
|  | 2 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ \sigma \alpha \tau \varepsilon$ | ( $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ \sigma \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha v)$ |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho о$ ט́ $\sigma \alpha v(\varepsilon)$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho o v ́ v \tau \alpha v(\varepsilon)$ |
| I. The active imperfect is formed in the same way as for type $A$ verbs. (Note that type $B$ verbs do not have the alternative formation in $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ etc.) <br> 2. In the passive imperfect the bracketed forms are not normally used for $\theta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\omega}$. But there are several other verbs, including deponents (see section 6.6), which do have Ist and 2 nd person forms, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon \rho \omega$ ' 'I deprive', <br>  pretend'. Such verbs may have the additional vowel $-\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ in the Ist and 2 nd persons singular, like verbs of the first conjugation. |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

## Second-

Simple past

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | I | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \dot{\rho} \eta \sigma \alpha$ I considered | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \dot{\eta} \theta \eta \kappa \alpha$ <br> I was considered |
|  | 2 | $\boldsymbol{\theta \varepsilon \omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢ |  |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \sigma \varepsilon$ | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ |
| PI. | 1 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \dot{\sigma} \alpha \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \theta \underline{1} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 2 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta ์ \sigma \alpha \tau \varepsilon$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \theta \dot{\eta} \kappa \alpha \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 3 | Өєळ́рŋ $\sigma \alpha v /$ $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \dot{\sigma} \alpha v \varepsilon$ | ӨєळрйӨŋккข/ $\boldsymbol{\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta Ө \dot { \eta }} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |

The stems of the simple past are normally $\boldsymbol{- \eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ - (active) and $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ - (passive), but for exceptions see section 6.15. The endings are the same as those of type A verbs.
Verbs of this type do not normally have a syllabic augment, but there is one important exception: $\zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I live' has the active simple past $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \zeta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha$, with stressed augment in the singular and in the 3rd person plural $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \zeta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ (but also $\zeta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ).

The verb and the verb phrase

Dependent

|  |  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | I | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \dot{\eta} \sigma \omega$ (no English equivalent) | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (no Engish equivalent) |
|  | 2 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta ์ \sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~$ | $\theta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \omega \rho \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varepsilon i ́ s}$ |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \dot{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{⿺}$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \theta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{c}$ |
| Pl. | 1 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \dot{\eta} \sigma о \nu \mu \varepsilon$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \theta o v ́ \mu \varepsilon$ |
|  | 2 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \theta \varepsilon i ́ \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 3 | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \dot{\chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \dagger \theta$ Ov́v ( $\varepsilon$ ) |

The dependent forms are based on the active and passive perfective stems, and correspond exactly to those of verbs of type A.

Imperfective imperative

| Active |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sg. | - |  |
| PI. | $\boldsymbol{\theta \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ íte | consider! |

Type $B$ verbs have no singular form for the imperfective imperative. The plural form is the same as the 2 nd person plural of the present tense.

Perfective imperative

|  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ consider! | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o v}$ be considered! consider yourself! |
| Pl. | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta ் \sigma \tau \varepsilon$ | $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \theta \varepsilon i ́ \tau \varepsilon$ |

## Gerund

$\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \omega ́ v \tau \alpha \varsigma$ considering
The perfective imperative and the gerund are formed in the same way as those of type A verbs.

## 6．II Second－conjugation verbs with passive only

There are four verbs which are similar to second－conjugation verbs（with stress on the endings in the imperfective tenses），but do not have active forms．They can be called deponent verbs（see section 6．6）；that is to say， they have passive forms，but are active in meaning．These verbs are $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$＇I remember＇，коч $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota}$＇I sleep，go to sleep＇，$\lambda \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\prime}$＇I regret， I am sorry＇and $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\mu \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \imath }}$＇I fear，am afraid（of）＇．
$\boldsymbol{\kappa о 七 \mu \alpha ́ \mu \boldsymbol { \mu } \text { I sleep }}$

|  |  | Present | Imperfect |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg． | I | коч $\mu \dot{\alpha} \mu \alpha \iota / \kappa о 七 \mu о$ о́ $\mu \alpha \iota$ I sleep | коч $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ о́ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ I was sleeping， used to sleep |
|  | 2 |  | $\boldsymbol{\kappa 0 ı \mu o ́ \sigma o v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ |
|  | 3 |  | $\boldsymbol{\kappa o t \mu o ́ \tau \alpha v ( \varepsilon ) ~}$ |
| Pl． | 1 | $\boldsymbol{\kappa о 七 \mu о ́ \mu ~} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | коч $\mu$ о́ $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ |
|  | 2 | коч $\mu$ о́б $\tau \varepsilon / \kappa о ч \mu о ́ \sigma \alpha \sigma \tau \varepsilon ~$ | кочцо́ $\sigma \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha \nu$ |
|  | 3 | кочนоv́v $\tau \alpha$ | кочนóv $\tau \alpha v(\varepsilon) /$ <br> ко七几óvтоvб $\alpha v$ |
| I．The alternative forms given for the Ist person singular and the 2nd person plural of the present tense are both widely used． <br> 2．The imperfect endings are the same as those the passive imperfect of first－ conjugation verbs，except that the 3rd person plural has only forms stressed on the ending． |  |  |  |


|  |  | Simple past | Dependent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg． | I | коч $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \theta \eta к \alpha$ <br> I slept，fell asleep etc． | $\boldsymbol{\kappa о} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ <br> （no English equivalent） etc． |
| The simple past and the dependent are formed in exactly the same way as the corresponding passive forms of second－conjugation verbs． |  |  |  |

6 The verb and the verb phrase

Perfective imperative
Sg. кочи́бои sleep!
PI. коч $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ítє
The perfective imperative is formed in the same way as the passive perfective imperative of second-conjugation verbs.
These verbs have no imperfective imperative or gerund.

### 6.12 Verbs with contracted active present forms

Some verbs which have a stem ending in a vowel have 'contracted' forms in the active present tense. The endings of the active present are: $\boldsymbol{- \omega},-\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$, $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon},-\boldsymbol{\mu},-\boldsymbol{\tau},-\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. Note that the endings of the second person singular and the first, second and third persons plural have no vowel. The main verbs which follow this pattern are: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I hear', каí $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I burn', кл $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \omega$ 'I weep', $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$ 'I say', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \omega$ 'I go', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$ 'I eat', $\varphi \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$ 'I am to blame'. Further details will be given below for each of these verbs.
$\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \omega$ I say, tell

|  |  | Present | Imperfect |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sg. | 1 | $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \omega$ I say | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ I was saying, used to say |
|  | 2 | $\lambda \varepsilon \varsigma$ | $\dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathrm{c}^{\prime}$ |
|  | 3 | $\lambda \varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon \iota$ | $\dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
| PI. | I | $\lambda \varepsilon$ ¢ $\mu$ | $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
|  | 2 | $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \varepsilon$ | $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ |
|  | 3 | $\lambda \varepsilon ́ v \varepsilon$ | $\dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \bar{\varepsilon} \gamma \alpha \nu / \lambda \varepsilon \gamma^{\prime} \alpha \nu \varepsilon$ |
| The active imperfect adds a $-\gamma$ - to the stem, before the normal endings of the imperfect. Verbs which have a stem beginning with a consonant have the syllabic augment $\varepsilon$ - in the singular and the first form of the 3rd person plural. The augment is stressed. |  |  |  |

Imperfective imperative (active)
Sg. $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ speak!



Gerund
$\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ s saying
The imperfective imperative and the gerund also have a $-\gamma$ - before the endings.

For convenience we give some further notes on each of these verbs:

- $\lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ forms its passive present and imperfect from the stem $\lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma$-: $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \mathbf{O} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \mathbf{O} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ The simple past and the dependent are irregular: $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$. For other irregularities see the table of irregular verbs (section 6.25).
 imperfect $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$. Imperfective imperative sg. ब́коv, pl . $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. Simple past $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, dependent $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$.
 $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{O} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { O } v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$. Imperfective imperative not normally used. Simple past в́к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, dependent ко́́ $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$.
- к $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ : active imperfect $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Simple past $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, dependent $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \lambda \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$. The passive of this verb is rarely used.
- $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ : this form functions both as an alternative present to $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, and as the dependent of the same verb. The other imperfective forms (including the gerund) are based on the stem $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$ - Simple past $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. There are no passive forms.
- $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$ : active imperfect $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$; passive present $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, imperfect $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$. Imperfective imperative sg. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \mathrm{pl}$. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. Simple past $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, dependent $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, which is conjugated in the same way as the present of $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \omega$.
- $\varphi \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \omega$ : active imperfect $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \varphi \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Simple past $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varphi \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, dependent $\varphi \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \omega$. This verb has no imperative and no passive forms.


### 6.13 Verbs with irregular form of active dependent

The verb
and the verb phrase

The active dependents of the 'regular' verbs examined in sections 6.8-6.10 are stressed on the last syllable of the stem, e.g. $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}, \chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ etc. from $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I lose'. There are some common verbs which have an irregular dependent form consisting of a single syllable in the first person singular, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ from $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I find'. These dependent forms are stressed on the endings, which are slightly different from those of regular verbs. In fact the endings are the same as those of the passive dependent forms of regular verbs (compare $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\omega}, \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \varsigma$, etc.).

| Sg. | 1 | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \rho \omega$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2 | $\beta \rho \varepsilon ⿺ 𠃊$ |
|  | 3 | $\beta \rho \varepsilon \iota$ |
| PI. | 1 | $\beta$ рои́ия |
|  | 2 | $\beta \rho \varepsilon i ́ \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 3 | $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ ¢ovv/ $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ povive |

The singular forms and the 3rd person plural form $\beta \boldsymbol{\rho o v v}$ are monosyllables and are therefore written without an accent.

The following table lists verbs which have dependent forms of this kind. The active simple past forms are also given, as they are also formed irregularly:

| Present |  | Simple past | Dependent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\beta \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha i v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{0}$ | I go out | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0}$ | I see | عída | $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\beta р i ́ \sigma к \omega}$ | 1 find | $\boldsymbol{\beta \rho \eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |
| $\lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | I say | عí $\boldsymbol{\pi} \alpha$ | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \omega$ |
| $\mu \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ | I go in | $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\mu \pi \omega$ |
| $\pi i v \omega$ | I drink | $\dot{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\pi \iota \omega$ |

Special mention must be made of the dependent of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. There are two forms: $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ is conjugated regularly (as in section 6.8); the form ' $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, which can follow the particles $v \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (subjunctive and perfective future respectively), loses its initial vowel and is stressed on the endings, like the dependent forms given above: $(\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ ' $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega},(\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ ' $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \varsigma$, etc.

Other irregular forms of these verbs, such as the perfective imperative, are given in the table of irregular verbs (section 6.25).

## The formation of active and passive perfective stems

The perfective stems are used to form the simple past, the dependent and the perfective imperative, active and passive, for each verb. In the following two sections, we give the most common ways of forming these stems for firstand second-conjugation verbs. The passive perfect participle, which is formed from the passive perfective stem, will be examined in section 6.16.

## 6. I4 Perfective stems of first-conjugation verbs

The formation of the perfective stems of first-conjugation verbs depends on the ending of the imperfective stem. In the examples below, verbs which have no passive perfective forms are marked with a dagger ( $\dagger$ ).

## 6.I4.I Imperfective stems ending in a vowel:

(a) active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\sigma}$-, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ - (or, more formally, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ ),
 exclude', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda \kappa \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { \omega } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ 'I pull'. Similarly the deponent verb $\boldsymbol{\sigma v \gamma \kappa \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'I collide'.
(b) active perfective $\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \sigma }}$-, passive perfective $\boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { \theta }}$-, e.g. ı $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I establish',

 valid', $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v} \boldsymbol{\delta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I connect'.
(c) when the imperfective stem ends in $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon}$-, the active perfective stem ends in $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon v \sigma} \boldsymbol{-}$, passive perfective in $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon v \sigma \tau} \boldsymbol{-}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I inspire', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}-$ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. (For the internal augment in the active simple past see section 6.23.) Examples: $\dagger \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I collapse’ (simple past $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \tau \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \rho \rho \varepsilon \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { \alpha } ) , ~} \dagger \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I float, sail', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\tau v \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ 'I breathe’.

## Perfective

 stems of firstconjugation verbs6. I4.2 Imperfective stems ending in a labial consonant or cluster containing a labial:
(d) imperfective stem in $-\boldsymbol{\beta}-,-\pi-,-\pi \tau-,-\boldsymbol{\varphi}-$ or $-\boldsymbol{\varphi} \tau$-, active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\psi}-$, passive perfective - $\varphi \tau$ - (or, more formally, $-\varphi \theta-$ ), e.g. $\gamma \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \omega$ 'I write',
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \tau \omega$ 'I discover', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \mathbf{i} \pi \tau \omega$ 'I reject', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \tau \omega$ 'I flash', $\boldsymbol{\beta} \dot{\alpha} \varphi \omega$ 'I dye', $\boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \dot{\alpha} \pi \tau \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (or $\boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \dot{\alpha} \varphi \tau \omega$ ) 'I harm', $\gamma \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\varphi} \varphi \omega$ 'I lick', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ í $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I abandon', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I bury', к $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I steal' (see also the table of irregular verbs), к $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \omega$ 'I hide', $\dagger \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \omega$ 'I shine', $\dagger \lambda \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I am missing', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \omega$ 'I omit', $\boldsymbol{\pi \rho \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \lambda } \lambda \dot { \varepsilon } \pi \omega}$ 'I foresee', $\rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta}{ }^{\text {'I }}$ sew',
 twist, turn', $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \omega$ 'I rub', v $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \omega$ 'I sign'. Similarly the deponent

(e) when the imperfective stem ends in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha v}$ - or - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v}-$, active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi}-/$
 $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\iota \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I make angry, become angry',
 arrange, fix', † $\boldsymbol{\jmath \rho \rho \varepsilon v ́ \omega ~ ‘ I ~ a s k ~ f o r , ~ s e e k ' , ~ \delta o v \lambda \varepsilon v ́ \omega ~ ‘ I ~ w o r k ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\delta v \sigma \kappa о \lambda \varepsilon v ́ \omega ~}$ 'I make difficult', †ちท $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I envy', $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I enliven', $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath} \mathbf{\kappa \varepsilon \varepsilon v ́ \omega}$
 $\dagger \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I draw near', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I cook', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I gather',
 cease', $\pi \iota \sigma \tau \varepsilon v ́ \omega ~ ' I ~ b e l i e v e ', ~ † \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \xi \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I travel', $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I plant', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I dance'. Similarly the deponent verb oveıрєv́ouat 'I dream'.
(f) some verbs with imperfective stem in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha v}$ - or $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v}$-, have active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-/-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-$, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau-/-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \tau-$, ( or, more formally, $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta-/-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \theta} \theta-)$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I bind, tie down', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v}$ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I represent', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I forbid',

 'I interpret', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I treat, cure', † $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$ 'I migrate', $\mu \nu \eta \mu \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I mention', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I supply', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega$ ' I




## 6. I4.3 Imperfective stems ending in a velar consonant or cluster containing a velar:

(g) imperfective stem in $-\boldsymbol{\gamma}-,-\gamma \gamma-,-\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma},-\mathbf{\kappa}-,-\sigma \kappa-,-\chi-$ or $-\chi \nu$-, active perfective $-\xi$-, passive perfective in $-\chi \tau$ - (or, more formally, $-\boldsymbol{\chi \theta}-$ ), e.g. $\rho \mathbf{i} \chi \boldsymbol{\chi} \omega$ 'I
 endure’, $\boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I show', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{~ ' I ~ c h o o s e ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I teach', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I chase off, throw out' (active simple past $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}), \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I
 $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I pay attention (to), take care', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \pi \rho \omega} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I push', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \varphi \mathbf{i} \gamma \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ 'I squeeze', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\tau} \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ 'I run', $\tau \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{i} \gamma \omega$ 'I wind, wrap', $\varphi \tau \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \omega$ 'I make, fix’ (active simple past $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ), $\boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I search (for)'. Similarly the deponent verbs $\boldsymbol{\delta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I receive', $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \gamma } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \iota }}$ 'I jump up'.

### 6.14.4 Imperfective stems ending in a dental consonant:

(h) imperfective stem in $\boldsymbol{-} \boldsymbol{\delta}$ - or $\boldsymbol{- \theta} \boldsymbol{\theta}$, active perfective $\boldsymbol{-} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-$, passive perfective




## 6. I4.5 Imperfective stems ending in $-\sigma \sigma-$ or $-\tau \tau-$-:

(j) active perfective $-\xi$-, passive perfective $-\chi \tau$ - (or, more formally, $-\boldsymbol{\chi \theta}-$ ),
 $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I develop', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I exchange', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I keep in reserve', $\boldsymbol{\pi \lambda \dot { \eta } \tau \tau \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ 'I hit, get bored’, $\boldsymbol{\sigma v \nu \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ 'I draw up, compile’.
 'I hint at'.

## 6. I4.6 Imperfective stems ending in - $\zeta$-:

(k) active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\sigma}$-, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ - (or, more formally, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\theta}$-), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ‘I examine’, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: † $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I empty' (active simple past $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon ı} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}), \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I compel', $\gamma \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega \rho \dot{\zeta} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I know, get to know', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v i} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I lend', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I read', $\zeta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{i} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I make dizzy’, коvр́́ $\zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I tire'. Similarly the deponent verbs $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v i}$ -
 $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I need'. The great majority of verbs ending in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ or -i $\zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ form their perfective stems in this way. Some common exceptions are given in the next paragraph.
(1) active perfective $-\xi$-, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\chi} \tau$ - (or, more formally, $-\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\theta}-$ ), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \iota \rho \alpha ́ \zeta \omega ~ ' I ~ a n n o y ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \xi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \iota \rho \dot { \alpha } \chi \tau \eta \kappa \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \mathbf{i} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I

 support', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \varphi \boldsymbol { \alpha } \zeta \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ 'I slaughter', $\tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I shake', † $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{i} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I creak', $\dagger \tau \rho \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\zeta}$ 'I scare, take fright', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I call, shout'.

## 6.I4.7 Imperfective stems ending in -v- (after a vowel):

(m) active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$-, passive perfective - $\boldsymbol{\theta}-$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I tie’, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I spread', $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I undress', $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I
 $\boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I roast', and all verbs ending in - $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, except $\zeta \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (see next paragraph).
(n) active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$-, passive perfective - $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau}$-, e.g. к $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I close',
 $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I catch' (active simple past $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ), $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I extinguish', $\dagger \varphi \tau \alpha ́ v \omega$ 'I arrive', † $\varphi \tau \boldsymbol{v} v \omega$ 'I spit'.
(o) active perfective $-\boldsymbol{v}$-, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\theta}-$, e.g. крív $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I judge’, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$,
 Similarly the deponent verb $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\kappa \rho} \boldsymbol{i}$ voual 'I correspond'.
(p) active perfective $-\boldsymbol{v}-$, passive perfective -ve-, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I pollute',
 'I discourage', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I remove', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I manage', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \theta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ -
 aggravate'. Similarly the deponent verbs $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ 'I feel', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ 'I defend myself'.

Verbs with present ending in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ need to be divided into six types:
(q) active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$-, passive perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\theta}-$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I warm', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: † $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha } \alpha i ́ v \omega}$ 'I breathe',
 den', $\dagger \pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i v \omega$ 'I die', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \mathbf{v} \omega$ 'I conclude’, v $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ iv $\omega$ ‘I moisten',

(r) active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v$-, passive perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta}-$, e.g. $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I


 Similarly the deponent verb $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'I detest'.
(s) active perfective -vv-, no passive perfective forms, e.g. † $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I weigh down (on)', $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\dagger \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ive ${ }^{\prime}$ 'I raise the price of, become dearer', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{i v \omega}$ 'I make ugly, become ugly’,
 $\dagger \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I lengthen', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I fatten, become fat', $\dagger \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I increase', † $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \rho \alpha i v \omega ~ ' I ~ h a r d e n ' , ~} \dagger \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I make poor, become poor', † $\chi \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I get fat'.
(t) active perfective drops the syllable - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \mathbf{v}$-, normally no passive perfective forms, e.g. $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I suffer', $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\dagger \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I fail’ (simple past $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$, †каша $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'I understand', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i v \omega}$ 'I come across, happen', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I learn' (see table of
 irregular verbs), $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} i \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I have time to do, catch', $\dagger \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ iv $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I chance'.
(u) active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-$, no passive perfective forms, e.g. † $\boldsymbol{\chi o \rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} v \omega$ 'I
 something in time', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I fall silent'.
(v) active perfective $\boldsymbol{- \eta \boldsymbol { \eta }}$-, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta}-$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I increase',
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i v \omega}$ 'I resurrect', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ iv $\omega$ 'I fall ill', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ (or $\boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega})$ 'I sprout'.

## 6. I4.8 Imperfective stems ending in - $\alpha \rho-$ or -ı $\rho-:$

(w) active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-/-\boldsymbol{\imath} \rho \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-$ or $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho-/-\mathbf{\imath} \rho-$ (see below), passive


 'I pack up', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I park', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I pass (on)', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I
 $\tau \sigma \varepsilon \kappa \alpha ́ \rho \omega ~ ' I ~ c h e c k, ~ t i c k ', ~ † \varphi \lambda \varepsilon \rho \tau \alpha ́ \rho \omega ~ ' I ~ f l i r t ', ~ † \varphi \rho \varepsilon v \alpha ́ \rho \omega ~ ' I ~ b r a k e ’ . ~$ The active perfective forms with the extra syllable - $\boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ - are only found for the singular and the third person plural of the simple past. They are not found in the dependent. So the simple past of $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ has the following possible forms: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /$ $\pi \alpha ́ \rho к \alpha \rho \varepsilon \varsigma, \pi \alpha \rho к \alpha ́ \rho \imath \sigma \varepsilon / \pi \alpha ́ \rho к \alpha \rho \varepsilon, \pi \alpha \rho \kappa \alpha ́ \rho \alpha \mu \varepsilon, \pi \alpha \rho \kappa \alpha ́ \rho \alpha \tau \varepsilon, \pi \alpha \rho к \alpha ́ \rho \iota \sigma \alpha v /$ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} v / \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. The dependent is $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\kappa} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ etc.

Important note: the above lists include only the more common verbs. Further examples are given in the Comprehensive Grammar, pp. 147-55. For verbs not included in the lists it is advisable to consult a good dictionary.

Perfective stems of firstconjugation verbs

## 6. I5 Perfective stems of second-conjugation verbs

Most verbs of the second conjugation, both type $A$ and type $B$, form their perfective stems by adding $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ - (active) and $\boldsymbol{- \eta} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ - (passive) to the imperfective stem. For example: $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I give birth to', active simple past $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, passive simple past $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. (See sections 6.9 and 6.10 for the full forms.) Exceptions to this pattern are given below. For each verb we indicate whether it follows type A or type B in the forms based on the imperfective stem. Verbs which have no passive perfective forms are marked with a dagger ( $\dagger$ ).
(a) active perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-$, passive perfective - $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau-$, e.g. к $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\omega}$ (A) 'I hang',
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I detach, send on secondment', $\boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \lambda } \boldsymbol { \omega } \text { (A) 'I laugh, deceive', }}$ $\dagger \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \psi } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ (A) 'I am thirsty’, $\dagger \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}(\mathrm{A})$ 'I act' (active simple past $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$, $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I fool', † $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I break out', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \dot{\omega}$ (A) 'I am hungry', † $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I break' (active simple past $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ), $\dagger \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I stop working', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{\prime}$ (A) 'I spoil', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I smile'. Similarly the deponent verb кат $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (A) 'I curse'.
 tute', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi о} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \eta \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa \kappa} \dot{\prime}(\mathrm{B})$ 'I suffice, limit',

 $\dagger \chi \omega \rho \omega^{(A / B)}$ 'I contain, fit (into)'.
(c) active perfective $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon }} \boldsymbol{-}$, passive perfective $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \theta } - \text { - e.g. } \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \pi } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { \omega } \text { 'I praise', }}$ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (B) 'I remove’, †ß人ро́ (A) 'I beat, sound', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (B) 'I divide', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (B) 'I except', $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha } \varphi \rho \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$
 (also - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-,-\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta}-$ ), بорळ' (A) 'I put on, wear'. Similarly the deponent verbs $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ (A) 'I am bored, fed up’, $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ (A) 'I complain'.
(d) active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi}-$, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \tau-$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I throw,


(e) active perfective $\boldsymbol{- \eta \xi}$-, passive perfective $\boldsymbol{- \eta \chi \tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}$-, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I pull', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Examples: † $\boldsymbol{\beta \boldsymbol { o } \boldsymbol { \gamma } \boldsymbol { \omega } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ (A) 'I groan', $\boldsymbol{\beta о v \tau \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ (A) 'I
 'I squeeze’, $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I jump' (active perfective also - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma}-$ ), $\boldsymbol{\rho o v \varphi \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ (A) 'I suck', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa о v \nu \tau \omega}$ (A) 'I prod', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I blow', $\dagger \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) 'I rush'.
(f) verbs with imperfective stem ending in a consonant $+\mathbf{- v}$ - have active perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$-, passive perfective $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau$-, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \dot{\omega}$ (A) 'I forget',

 $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) ‘I pass’.

### 6.16 The passive perfect participle

All passive perfect participles end in $-\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ and are fully inflected for number, gender and case, like the adjectives in section 3.33. They are formed from verbs, although not all verbs have this form. In particular, intransitive verbs (which cannot have a direct object) do not normally have a passive perfect participle. (Some exceptions are given below.) The starting point for the formation of these participles is the passive perfective stem. Some participles have a consonant before the ending - $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\rho}$, ,- while others do not. Below we give the most common patterns for the formation of the passive perfect participle from the passive perfective stem, with examples of each kind:

 'polluted', $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ 'superseded', $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'forgotten', opı$\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ 'fixed, certain (unspecified)', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ 'extinguished', $\boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \rho }}$ $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho \imath \sigma \mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ 'served', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v o s} \varsigma$ 'spoilt, broken'.



 $\chi \alpha \mu \dot{\varepsilon ́ v o s ~ ' l o s t ', ~} \psi \eta \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma ~ ' r o a s t e d ' . ~$
 $\lambda \varepsilon \iota \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma ~ ' a b a n d o n e d ', ~ \theta \alpha \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma ~ ' b u r i e d ' . ~$

 'supported', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v o s}$ 'pulled'. In some verbs the $-\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ - is sometimes omitted, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \tau \boldsymbol { \alpha } ( \gamma ) \boldsymbol { \mu } \dot { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { v o s } \text { 'thrown'. }}$

Note also:
 $-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{o}$. The first form is found with verbs that are used in more formal contexts; the second is informal. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \mathbf{\nu}$
 down, obligated', $\boldsymbol{\mu \pi \varepsilon \rho \delta \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma ~ ' c o n f u s e d ' , ~} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mu \varepsilon ́ v \mathbf{v} \varsigma ~$ 'married'.

- Verbs in - גiva present many irregularities in the way they form their passive perfect participle (if they have one). Here we must restrict ourselves to a few examples: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathbf{v o s}$ ¢failed,


 'satiated, full up' ( $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v \omega})$. For other forms the use of a good dictionary is recommended.
- Some verbs which do not have finite passive forms do have passive







- Some passive perfect participles of learned origin have an extra syllable prefixed to the verb stem (and following any prepositional prefix). This phenomenon is known as reduplication. Examples of such forms in frequent use are: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \mathbf{v} \varsigma ~ ' p r o v e n ' ~$







For verbs which form their passive perfect participle irregularly, see the table of irregular verbs (section 6.25).

### 6.16.I Use of the passive perfect participle

The passive perfect participle functions as an adjective, agreeing in gender, number and case with the noun it modifies:

> I $\quad \chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \dot{\varepsilon ́ v \alpha ~} \lambda \mathbf{o ́} \gamma \mathbf{\imath \alpha}$ wasted (lit. 'lost') words

It can be modified by adverbs:

3 To $\sigma v v \varepsilon ́ \delta \rho ı \frac{\eta}{\tau} \tau \alpha v \pi o \lambda v ́ ~ к \alpha \lambda \alpha ́ ~ о \rho \gamma \alpha \nu \omega \mu \varepsilon ́ v o . ~$ The conference was very well organized.

Like other adjectives (see the end of section 3.57), it can be used with complements in the form of prepositional phrases:
$4 \Delta v v \alpha \mu \omega \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \imath \alpha \pi o ́ ~ \tau \iota \varsigma ~ \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon \iota \rho i ́ \varepsilon \varsigma ~ \tau o v \varsigma, ~ \sigma v v \varepsilon ́ \chi \imath \sigma \alpha v ~ \tau o v ~$ $\alpha \gamma \omega ́ v \alpha$.
Strengthened by their experiences, they continued the struggle.


## The formation of other tenses and verb forms

### 6.17 The perfective and imperfective futures

Most verbs have two future tenses, the perfective and the imperfective, which differ according to aspect (see section 6.4 and, for the use of the tenses, section 6.5). The perfective future refers to an action or event which will take place and be completed at a future point in time. It consists of the particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the dependent form of the verb, as in the following examples:
$\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\alpha} \psi \omega \quad$ I shall write, I'm going to write
$\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad$ we'll go out
$\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \quad$ they will speak, they're going to speak
$\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ i (s)he/it will get up
$\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \rho \varepsilon \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{u} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ we shall go mad
Any weak pronouns must be placed immediately before the verb, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ то $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'you will give me it'. Verbs which do not have perfective forms have no perfective future (see section 6.6).

The imperfective future, which denotes a repeated, habitual or continuous event in the future, is formed with the particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the present tense form of the verb, e.g.

| $\theta \alpha$ ¢í $\mu \alpha \sigma \tau \varepsilon$ | we shall be |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \mathrm{v} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | I'll remember |
|  | we shall correspond [by letter] |

## 6． 18 The perfect tenses and the auxiliary verb $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$

As in English，the three perfect tenses in Greek－perfect，pluperfect and future perfect－are formed with the auxiliary verb＇to have＇．We give first the basic forms of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$＇I have＇．The present tense has the same endings as first－ conjugation verbs．The past（imperfect）tense has a different vowel $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{1}$－for the first syllable，but the endings are the same as those of other active imperfects．

|  |  | Present | Past |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular | I | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ I have | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ íx $\boldsymbol{l}$ had |
|  | 2 |  | عíxes |
|  | 3 | $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | عí⿲丶 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
| Plural | 1 | غ́хоข $\mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | عí⿲ $\alpha \mu \varepsilon$ |
|  | 2 | $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \chi \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon$ | вí $\chi \alpha \tau \varepsilon$ |
|  | 3 | غ́¢Ovv（E） | عí $\chi \alpha v(\varepsilon)$ |

The perfect tense consists of the present tense of $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ followed by a special verb form called the non－finite．The non－finite is in fact identical to the third person singular of the dependent and exists in both active and passive voices；for instance $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$ are，respectively，the active and passive non－finite forms of $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$＇I lose＇．Note that the active non－finite has the stress on the penultimate syllable，while the passive non－finite has the stress on the final syllable．Thus the active perfect of $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega$ is $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ＇I have lost＇，$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$＇you have lost＇，etc．and the passive perfect is $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$＇I have been lost＇（or＇I have lost myself＇）， $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\mathbf{i}}$＇you have been lost＇，etc．The verbs given in section 6.13 ，which have an irreg－ ular form for the active dependent，have a one－syllable non－finite form，e．g．


Verbs of the second conjugation form their non－finite and perfect in the same way as first－conjugation ones，e．g．$\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\imath}$＇I have loved＇， $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$＇I have been loved＇．Deponent verbs have only a passive form of the perfect（but with active meaning），e．g． $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$＇I have worked＇，

pronouns must be placed before the appropriate form of $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ but after the negative particle, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ '(s)he hasn't spoken to us'.

The pluperfect (or past perfect) tense consists of the past of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\omega}$ followed by the non-finite form: $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{t}$ 'I had lost', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i}$ 'I had been lost' (or 'I had lost myself').

The future perfect consists of the particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the perfect, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'I shall have arrived’, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$ 'I shall have got up'. Any weak pronouns must be placed immediately before the relevant part of $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ то $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{O} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'they will have sent you it'.

The three perfect tenses exist only for verbs which have corresponding (active and/or passive) perfective forms. The use of the perfect tenses is discussed in section 6.5.

## 6. 19 The conditional and perfect conditional

The conditional is formed with the particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the imperfect tense, e.g. $\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ 'I would be', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I would lose', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{l v o ́} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ 'I would become', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi o \beta o ́} \boldsymbol{\mu o v v}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ 'I would be afraid [of]'. Any weak pronouns must be placed between $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the verb form, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ¢ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{o}$ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I would give you it'.

There is also a perfect conditional, which is formed with $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the pluper-
 have got lost', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i}$ 'I would have fallen asleep'.

For the uses of the conditional and the perfect conditional see section 10.13. The various uses of the particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ are summarized in section 9.3.

### 6.20 The subjunctive forms

Unlike many other languages, Greek does not have separate subjunctive forms as such. Instead a subjunctive clause or sentence is indicated by the use of the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ before the verb, and a different negative particle $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ (instead of $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ ). The verb may be in any tense. For further information on the subjunctive mood see section 6.4 , and for various uses of the subjunctive sections $9.3,10.3$ and 10.4.

The conditional and perfect conditional

## Augment

### 6.21 Syllabic augment

Syllabic augment is the vowel $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ - prefixed to the stem of the verb in a past tense, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}-\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I wrote'. The augment is required when the verb has a one-syllable stem beginning with a consonant, and a one-syllable ending. Since the stress of past-tense forms normally falls on the third syllable from the end, the augment carries the stress. It follows that when the ending of the verb has more than one syllable, no augment is needed. The augment is obligatory only in the active imperfect and simple past of first-conjugation verbs, and then only in the first, second and third persons singular, and the third person plural when the ending is $\boldsymbol{- \alpha \nu}$. For the relevant forms of $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ see section 6.8. (For the small number of second-conjugation verbs that have syllabic augment in the simple past, see sections 6.9 and 6.10.)

There are some irregular verbs with a one-syllable perfective stem which do not have the augment in the simple past. They are: $\boldsymbol{\beta} \gamma \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I went out'

 However, the imperfects of these verbs (with the exception of $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ) do have the augment in the singular and the third person plural, e.g. $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \beta \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ '(s)he/it was going out', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'they used to take'.

### 6.22 Vocalic augment

Syllabic augment applies to verbs that begin with a consonant. Vocalic augment, on the other hand, is relevant to verbs that begin with a vowel. It involves a change of the initial vowel in some verbs beginning with $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$-, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ - or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{t}$-. These vowels, with vocalic augment, become $\boldsymbol{\eta}$-. There are two words in common use which may have vocalic augment on stressed initial vowels in their active past tenses: $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I hope’ sometimes has imperfect
 control' can have $\dot{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\dot{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. But, as with syllabic augment, it is normally only a stressed syllable that can have vocalic augment.

There are three very common verbs that have the augment $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ - in some pasttense forms (even though these are not verbs beginning with a vowel):

- $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I want' has imperfect $\dot{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, but in the forms with a twosyllable ending there is no $\mathfrak{\eta}-: \boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'we wanted';
- $\boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \omega$ 'I know' has imperfect $\mathfrak{\eta} \xi \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, but, like $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, no extra vowel in $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'we knew', etc.;
- $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I drink' has simple past $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, with $\mathbf{\eta}$ - in all persons and numbers, but imperfect $\dot{\varepsilon} \pi \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.


### 6.23 Internal augment

Verbs that have a prepositional prefix place the augment, if they have one, between the preposition and the verb stem. These prefixes are derived from Ancient Greek prepositions (many of them no longer used as independent prepositions in the present-day language). They are: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \varphi \mathbf{\varphi}-, \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}-, \boldsymbol{\alpha} v \tau t-$,

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$-, ( $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ - before a labial consonant, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ - before a velar, $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \lambda$ - before $\lambda$ ), $\mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ - and vio-. Prepositions that end in a vowel drop the vowel before the augment, except for $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \rho t -}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho o}$-. Thus, v $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$ 'I submit' has simple past $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi}-\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}-\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I elect' has $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi-\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}-\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. When the augment would not have stress, it is normally omitted. So the first person plural of the simple past of these two verbs is vлоß $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \dot{\varepsilon} \xi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. For further examples, see the following in the table of irregular verbs

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega}$. In some verbs with prepositional prefixes the internal augment is never used, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi \rho o \tau \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I suggest', simple past $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.

Some verbs have two prepositional prefixes, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \rho} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I include'. In such cases the augment comes between the second preposition and the stem: $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I included'.

Finally, we must note some instances of internal vocalic augment, that is, a change of vowel to $-\boldsymbol{\eta}$ - in verbs with a prepositional prefix when the simple verb begins with a vowel. The most common example is the imperfect and simple past of $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I exist': v $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Internal vocalic augment also occurs in $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, simple past of $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I go on strike'. It is optional in $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, simple past of $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I order', as an alternative to $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.

### 6.24 Definition of an irregular verb

Sections 6.14 and 6.15 give the basic patterns for the formation of perfective stems of first- and second-conjugation verbs. These stems are used to create the active and passive simple past, dependent and perfective imperative, the perfect passive participle and the non-finite forms used in the perfect tenses. Verbs which do not conform to one of these patterns are regarded as irregular. The table in section 6.25 gives details of the most common irregular verbs. Also included in the table are verbs of the second conjugation which do not form their perfective stem with the syllable - $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ - (for the active) and $\boldsymbol{- \eta} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ - (passive), and verbs which have irregular passive perfect participles.

### 6.25 Table of irregular verbs

The table is set out as follows: the first column gives the active present tense of the verb or, in the case of deponent verbs, the passive present. Secondconjugation verbs are marked A or B according to the type of endings used in the imperfective forms (see sections 6.9 and 6.10). Impersonal verbs are given in the third person singular. For verbs with a prepositional prefix, we give only the most common examples. e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$ 'I order'. Other compounds of the same verb with a different prefix, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$ 'I announce', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \gamma \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ 'I recite', are not listed separately, unless they present significant differences.
The second column normally gives just one basic meaning of the verb; for the full range of meanings you should consult a dictionary.

In the third column we give the first person singular of the active simple past. In the case of verbs which do not have a simple past, the imperfect is given if it is formed irregularly. For deponent verbs the simple past (which has a passive form) is given in this column. If the dependent or the perfective imperative is formed irregularly, these forms are also given. Where the simple past contains an augment (see sections 6.21-6.23), the augment must be removed to form the dependent.

The fourth column gives the first person singular of the passive simple past; the passive dependent is given if it cannot be predicted from the simple past.

The fifth column gives the passive perfect participle. A dash (-) in the fourth or fifth column indicates that no form exists.

Alternative forms are shown separated by an oblique line ( / ). When a whole word is bracketed, it is rarely used.

| Present | Meaning | Active simple past | Passive simple past | Passive perfect participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha < о \nu \mu \pi \boldsymbol { \prime }}$ ( A$)$ | lean | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa о ข ́ \mu л \eta \boldsymbol { \chi }}$ | - |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \lambda \omega$ | postpone | $\alpha v \dot{\varepsilon} \beta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \mathbf{0}$ ¢ |
|  | reflect | $\alpha v$ ¢́к $\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \alpha \kappa \lambda \alpha \dot { \alpha } \sigma \tau \eta к \alpha}$ |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\gamma} v$ v́c | mix | $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \varepsilon ́ \mu ı \xi \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \alpha \mu i ́ \chi \theta \eta к \alpha}$ |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ív $\omega$ | resurrect | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \eta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \nu \alpha \sigma \tau \eta \prime ̇ \eta к \alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \eta \mu$ ¢́vos |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$ | rise |  | - | - |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \varepsilon \beta \alpha i v o ~}$ | go up | $\boldsymbol{\alpha v \dot { \varepsilon }} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | $\alpha v \varepsilon \beta \alpha \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$ |
|  |  | dep. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega} / \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |  |  |
|  |  | imp. $\alpha$ vé $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, |  |  |
|  |  | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ í $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |  |  |
| $\alpha v \varepsilon ́ \chi o \mu \alpha \iota$ | tolerate | $\alpha v \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \tau \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
| $\alpha \nu \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ | endure | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \nu \tau \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega$ | exempt | $\alpha \pi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\alpha \pi \alpha \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \chi \tau \eta \kappa \alpha$ dep. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | $\alpha \pi \alpha \lambda \lambda \alpha \gamma \mu \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} \chi_{0}$ |
| $\alpha \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ | am far from | imperf. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
| $\alpha \pi \mathbf{\delta \varepsilon ı к \nu v ́ \omega ~}$ | prove | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \iota \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  | $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \mathbf{O}(\delta \varepsilon) \delta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
| $\alpha \pi \mathbf{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega$ | enjoy | $\alpha \pi \dot{\eta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
|  |  | dep. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |  |  |


| Present | Meaning | Active simple | Passive simple | Passive perfect |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | past | participle |  |

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta \gamma \alpha \lambda \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v o \varsigma \\
& \beta \gamma \alpha \lambda \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s
\end{aligned}
$$

## 

 Son3ul( $\ell$ )3dgSonșilluncog


take out
go out
see
groan
graze
wish
dive
wet
find
thunder
suckle
$\boldsymbol{\beta} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$
$\beta \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$
$\beta \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \pi \omega$
$\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A)

乃оvтळ́ (A)
$\beta \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$
阝рі́бкш
$\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho o v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{(A)}$
$\beta v \zeta \alpha i v \omega$

| Present | Meaning | Active simple past | Passive simple past | Passive perfect participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\gamma \delta \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \omega$ | skin | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\gamma \delta \dot{\alpha} \rho \theta \eta \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\gamma \delta \alpha \rho \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v o \varsigma$ |
| $\gamma \varepsilon \lambda \lambda^{\prime}(\mathrm{A})$ | laugh | $\gamma \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\gamma \varepsilon \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ | $\gamma \varepsilon \lambda \alpha \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ | lean |  | - | $\gamma \varepsilon \rho \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma ~}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\gamma \varepsilon \rho \nu \boldsymbol { \omega }}$ ( A$)$ | grow old | $\gamma \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | $\gamma \varepsilon \rho \alpha \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s ~$ |
| $\gamma$ 'vouat | become | $\dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \mathbf{l v a}$, dep. $\gamma \mathbf{\gamma} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | - | $\gamma \iota v \omega \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v o \varsigma$ |
| $\delta \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{O} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | pray | $\delta \varepsilon \eta \chi^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \alpha$ | - | - |
| $\delta \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ | beat | غ́б̇ยı $\alpha$ | $\delta \dot{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\delta \alpha \rho \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\delta ı \alpha \beta \alpha i v \omega}$ | pass (by) | $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{1} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
|  |  | dep. $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |  |  |
| $\delta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | dispose | $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\delta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\delta 1 \alpha \tau \varepsilon \theta \varepsilon \iota \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s ~ ¢$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\delta 1 \alpha \kappa о ́ \pi \tau \omega}$ | interrupt | $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ ¢́̇коч $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\delta 1 \alpha \kappa о ́ л ๆ к к \alpha}$ |  |
|  | protest | $\delta ı \alpha \mu \alpha \rho \tau v \rho \eta 亍 Ө \eta к \alpha$ | - | $\delta ı \alpha \mu \rho \tau v \rho \eta \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s$ |
| $\delta i ́ v \omega$ | give | $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{o ́ \theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | סобиغ́voş |
|  |  |  |  | סєठонغ́vos |
| $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\psi} \dot{\text { ( }}$ ( A$)$ | am thirsty | $\delta i ́ \psi \alpha \sigma \alpha$ | - | $\delta \geq \psi \alpha \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s ~$ |
| $\delta \rho \omega$ (A) | act | $\dot{\varepsilon} \delta \boldsymbol{\rho} \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \alpha$ | - | - |

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
\varepsilon \gamma \varepsilon \rho \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma \\
\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\varepsilon} v o \varsigma
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon \kappa \tau \varepsilon \tau \alpha \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma
\end{aligned}
$$

| Present | Meaning | Active simple past | Passive simple past | Passive perfect participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| عv́zou¢ı | wish |  | － | － |
| $\varepsilon \varphi \varepsilon \cup \rho i ́ \sigma к \omega$ | invent | غ¢ワט́ра／E¢£v́ра | $\varepsilon \varphi \varepsilon \cup \rho \varepsilon ́ \theta \eta \kappa \alpha$ | － |
|  |  | dep． $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |  |  |
| غ́ $\chi \omega$ | have | imperf． $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ í $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | － | － |
| 丂ov入ف́（A） | squeeze | $\zeta$ оv́えท ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ちovגท่ $\chi$ ¢пк $\alpha$ | $\zeta$ ¢ov $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ ćvos |
| $\zeta \omega$（B） | live | $\dot{\varepsilon} \zeta \eta \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ | － | － |
| $\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \rho \omega^{(B)}$ | believe | $\theta \dot{\alpha} \rho \rho \varepsilon \psi \alpha$ | － | － |
| $\theta \varepsilon ̇ \lambda \omega$ | want | $\theta \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \eta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha$ | － | $\eta \theta \varepsilon \lambda \eta \mu \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}$ оऽ |
|  |  | imperf． $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |  |
| $\theta \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | place | $\dot{\varepsilon} \theta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \alpha$ | － |
| $\theta i \chi \gamma$ | touch | $\dot{\varepsilon} \theta \bullet \xi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | Өíx $\boldsymbol{\chi} \kappa \alpha / \varepsilon \theta i \chi \gamma \eta \nu$ | Orүú̇vos |
| $\theta \rho \varepsilon ́ \varphi \omega$（cf． $\tau \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \omega)$ | nourish | $\dot{\varepsilon} \theta \rho \varepsilon \psi \alpha$ | $\theta \rho \varepsilon ́ \varphi \tau \tau к \alpha$ | $\theta \rho \varepsilon \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \alpha \theta \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \omega^{\prime}(\mathrm{A})$ pass．кüío | render | $\kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \eta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\kappa \alpha \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \eta \nu$ <br> dep． $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | $\kappa \alpha \tau \varepsilon \sigma \tau \eta \mu \varepsilon ์ \cup \bigcirc \bigcirc$ |


| Present | Meaning | Active simple past | Passive simple past | Passive perfect participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa o l \tau \alpha ́ \zeta \omega / ~}$ <br> ко七七ஞ́（A） | look | коí $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | коı $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\kappa 0 ı \tau \alpha \gamma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s ~}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa \rho \varepsilon \mu \omega ́ ~ ( A ) ~}$ pass．кре́ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | hang | кр $\dot{\varepsilon} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\kappa \rho \varepsilon \mu \alpha \dot{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\kappa \rho \varepsilon \mu \alpha \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$ |
| кvдळ́（A） | roll | $\kappa v$ vin $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \alpha$ | кvえíбтпк $\alpha$ | $\kappa v \lambda ı \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s$ |
| $\lambda \alpha \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \nu \omega /$ $\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ ív $\omega$ | receive | $\dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | － | － |
| $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon}(\gamma) \omega$ | say | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, dep． $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ imp．$\pi \varepsilon \varsigma$ ， $\pi \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \varepsilon / \pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \varepsilon$ | $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \theta \eta \kappa \alpha /$ عı $\boldsymbol{\omega} \theta \eta к \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\varepsilon 1 \pi \omega \mu$ ¢́vos |
| $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{i} v \omega$ | learn | $\dot{\varepsilon} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\mu \alpha \theta \varepsilon$ v́т $\dagger \kappa \alpha$ | $\mu \alpha \theta \eta \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s$ |
| $\mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$（ A ） | get drunk | $\mu \dot{\varepsilon} \theta \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | － | $\mu \varepsilon \theta v \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s$ |
| $\mu \dot{\varepsilon} v \omega$ | stay | $\dot{\varepsilon} \mu \varepsilon ı v \alpha$ |  | － |
| $\mu \pi \alpha i v \omega$ | enter | $\mu \pi \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ，dep． $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ imp．$\mu \pi \varepsilon \varsigma / \varepsilon ́ \mu \pi \alpha$, $\mu \pi \varepsilon i ́ \tau \varepsilon$ | － |  |


| | |
萑





| Present | Meaning | Active simple | Passive simple | Passive perfect |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | past | Participle |  |



| $\pi v \mathbf{i} \gamma \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \alpha$ |
| :---: |
|  |
| $\pi \rho \eta \dot{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| － |
| $\pi \rho о \beta \lambda \dot{\eta} \theta \eta \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| $\pi \rho о \beta \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} ¢ \theta \eta \kappa \alpha$ |
| $\pi \rho о \sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \dot{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \alpha$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| роv¢ท́ $\chi \tau \eta \kappa \alpha$ |
|  |
| $\sigma$ $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \theta \eta \kappa \alpha$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa о ข v \tau \grave { \chi } \chi \tau \eta к \alpha}$ |
|  |
|  |
| $\sigma \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \theta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| － |

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { strangle, drown }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { invite } \\
\text { suggest }
\end{array} \\
& \text { suck } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { respect } \\
\text { drag }
\end{array} \\
& \text { prod } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { break } \\
\text { sow }
\end{array} \\
& \text { 䓂 } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\pi v i ́ \gamma \omega \\
\pi \rho v \omega \dot{(A)} \\
\pi \rho \eta \dot{\zeta} \omega \\
\pi \rho o \beta \alpha i ́ v \omega \\
\pi \rho o \beta \alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda \omega \\
\pi \rho o \beta \lambda \varepsilon ́ \pi \omega
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

| Present | Meaning | Active simple past | Passive simple past | Passive perfect participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \nu \omega \omega$ | send | $\dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \varepsilon ⿺ \lambda 入 \alpha$ | $\sigma \tau \dot{\alpha} \lambda \theta \eta \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |
|  | distress |  | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \tau \varepsilon v o \chi \omega \rho \dot { \varepsilon ́ \theta \eta к а / ~ }}$ | $\sigma \tau \varepsilon \nu о \chi \omega \rho \eta \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$ |
| (A/B) |  | $\sigma \tau \varepsilon v o \chi \omega \rho \eta \sigma \alpha$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma \tau \varepsilon v o \chi \omega \rho \eta ่ ~} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \omega$ | turn | $\dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \rho \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \phi \eta \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma v \gamma \chi \alpha i \rho \omega}$ | congratulate |  | - | - |
| $\sigma v \mu \beta \alpha i v e \iota$ | happens | $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \varepsilon ́ \beta \eta}$ | - | - |
|  |  | dep. $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i}$ |  |  |
| $\sigma v \mu \mu \varepsilon \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ | participate | imperf. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \mu \mu \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon$ í $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - |  |
|  |  | dep. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \chi \omega$ |  |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma v \mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \pi \tau \omega$ | coincide | $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v}$ v́r $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
| $\sigma \varphi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$ | am mistaken | $\dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \dot{\omega}^{(A)}$ | stop work | $\sigma \chi$ ól $\alpha \sigma \alpha$ | - | $\sigma \chi$ о $\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon ́ v o s ~}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | save | $\dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\sigma \omega \sigma \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v o \varsigma$ |
| $\sigma \omega \pi \alpha i v \omega$ | am silent | $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
|  |  | imp. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

( $\tau \varepsilon) \tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon \sigma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$
$\tau \rho \alpha \beta \eta \gamma \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$
-
$\theta \rho \varepsilon \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma$
$\varphi \alpha \gamma \omega \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v o \varsigma$
O





| $\tau \varepsilon \lambda \omega^{\prime}(\mathrm{B})$ |
| :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ (A) |
| $\tau \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \pi \boldsymbol{\omega}$ |
| $\tau \rho \dot{\varepsilon ́ \varphi \varphi ~}$ |
| $\tau \rho \omega ்$ |
| $v \pi \dot{\alpha} \rho \chi \omega$ |
| $v \pi o ́ \sigma \chi о \mu \alpha t$ $\boldsymbol{v} і \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \alpha \mu \alpha \mathbf{~}$ |
|  |  |
|  |
| $\varphi \dot{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ |
| $\varphi \varepsilon v ่ \gamma \omega$ |
| $\varphi \theta \varepsilon i ́ \rho \omega$ |
| ¢оро́ (A/B) |
| ¢таí $\omega$ |
| $\varphi v \lambda \dot{\alpha}(\gamma) \omega$ |
|  |


| Present | Meaning | Active simple past | Passive simple past | Passive perfect participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | am glad | $\chi$ ио́рๆкх | - | - |
| $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{(A)}$ | spoil | $\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\chi o \rho \tau \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ | am satiated | $\chi$ о́p $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | $\chi$ орт $\chi \sigma \mu$ ¢́vos |
| $\chi \nu \mu \dot{\prime}(\mathrm{A})$ | swoop | $\chi$ и́¢ $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | - | - |
| $\chi \omega \rho \omega^{\prime}(\mathrm{A} / \mathrm{B})$ | fit in | $\chi \omega \rho \varepsilon \sigma \alpha$ | - | - |
| $\psi \alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega / \psi \varepsilon ́ \lambda \lambda \nu \omega$ | chant | $\dot{\varepsilon} \psi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\psi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\psi \alpha \lambda \mu \varepsilon \chi^{\prime}$ |

In the above table there are a few forms for the active or passive simple past which end in $\boldsymbol{- \eta \nu}$. These forms are derived from the learned language and are used mainly in formal contexts. The forms for each person, taking
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'I was rendered, made’ (from $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \dot{\omega}$ ) as our example, are as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& - \\
& \dot{\square}
\end{aligned}
$$

PI.
(The Ist and 2nd persons plural are not normally used.) Compare $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \boldsymbol { \varepsilon }} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'it happened' (simple past of $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{i v \varepsilon t})$, which is often used in newspapers.

## Chapter 7

## The adverb and the adverbial phrase

An adverb is typically used to indicate the manner, time or place of an action ('badly', 'yesterday', 'here'). An adverbial phrase may consist of a single adverb, or else an adverb modified by another adverb ('very badly', 'right here'). An adverbial is any adverb or any phrase or clause that functions as an adverb. Prepositional phrases (e.g. 'to London') function adverbially, but we will deal with them separately in Chapter 8. A variety of subordinate clauses function adverbially; these are dealt with in sections 10.13-10.19. For the sake of simplicity we will normally use the term 'adverb' to refer to any adverb, adverbial phrase or adverbial. A table showing some of the most basic adverbs is given in Appendix 1.

## 7.I Types of adverb: manner, place, time, quantity, etc.

Adverbs are most commonly used to specify:

- manner

To éкаvȩ $\omega \rho \alpha i ́ \alpha$.
You did it beautifully.

- place
'E $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ !
Come here!
- time
'Eスん $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha!$
Come today!
- quantity

Ev $\chi \alpha \rho \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$.
Thank you [very] much.

The adverb and the adverbial phrase

Most adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives，like $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$＇beauti－ fully＇（i．e．＇in a beautiful way＇），from $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{c} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ，＇beautiful＇（see sections 7．3－7．5）．The other most common adverbs of manner are：

| $\pi \omega \dot{\rho}$ | how（interrogative） |
| :---: | :---: |
| о́ $\pi \omega$ ¢ | however（correlative：see section 10．9） |
| $\dot{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ | thus；in this／that way；like this／that |
| ко́л $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ ¢ | in some way |
| $\alpha \lambda \lambda l \omega ¢$ | otherwise；differently，in another way |
| кк日óえov | （not）at all |
|  | in some way or other；by all means；certainly |
| ко́ло才 | somehow or other |
| $\mu$ ¢́vo | only |
| $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$ | together |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | softly（quietly）；gently（slowly） |

The most common adverbs of place are the following：

| пov́ | where（interrogative） |
| :---: | :---: |
| ótov | where（ever）（relative and correlative） |
| $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ | here |
| عкєí | there |
| ки́̇о才 | somewhere |
| 人 $\lambda \lambda$ 人vó | elsewhere，somewhere else |
| $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ тov́ | everywhere |
| movervá | nowhere；anywhere（in interrogative sentences） |
|  | anywhere；wherever |
| $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | up；above；upstairs |
|  | down；below；downstairs |
| $\mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | inside |
| $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | outside |
|  | in front；forward（s） |
| $\pi \mathrm{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega$ | behind；back（wards） |
| кovtó | near |
| $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {人 }}$ | far away |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \dot{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | between |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ¢́vavtı | opposite |
| $\delta i ́ \pi \lambda \alpha, \pi \lambda \dot{\alpha} \iota$ | nearby；next door |
| $\gamma \mathbf{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | around |
| $\pi \varepsilon \dot{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | beyond，yonder |
| $\psi \eta \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | high up |


| $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | low down |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\chi \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | on the ground |
| $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ | to／on the right |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho \iota \sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ | to／on the left |

The most common adverbs of time are the following：

| $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | when（interrogative） |
| :---: | :---: |
| о́лотє | whenever（correlative） |
| оло́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | at which point，whereupon（also＇in which case＇） |
| $\tau \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | now |
| то́ $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | then（i．e．at that time）（also＇in that case＇） |
| ко́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | at some time；sometimes；once |
| $\alpha_{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \mathbf{o} \tau \varepsilon$ | at another time；formerly |
| $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | always |
| $\pi 0 \tau \varepsilon ์$ | never；ever（in interrogative sentences） |
|  | whenever；at any time |
| $\pi \rho \dot{\sim} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | first |
| $\pi \rho t v$ | before；ago |
| $\mu \varepsilon \tau \dot{\alpha}, \dot{v} \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho \alpha$, $\dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \alpha$ | afterwards，later；then，next |
| vopís | early |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | late |
| $\pi \rho о \chi \theta \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ | the day before yesterday |
| $\chi \theta \varepsilon \varsigma$ | yesterday |
| $\sigma и ̆ \mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha$ | today |
| av́pıo | tomorrow |
| $\mu \varepsilon \theta \alpha v ́ p ı o$ | the day after tomorrow |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ о́ч | this evening；tonight |
| $\pi \rho о ́ \pi \varepsilon \rho \sigma \iota$ | the year before last |
| $\pi \dot{\varepsilon} \rho[\mathbf{v}] \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{\iota}$ | last year |
|  | this year |
| ＜ov $\chi$ ¢óvov | next year |
|  | already |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \omega \varsigma$ | immediately |
| عлı七غ́入ovs | at last |
| $\mu o ́ \lambda l ¢$ | just |
| $\sigma v \chi \nu \dot{\alpha}$ | often |
|  | rarely，seldom |
| токтıко́ | regularly |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | usually |

Types of adverb： manner， place，time， quantity，etc．

о́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad$ whenever（correlative）
$\boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad$ at which point，whereupon（also＇in which case＇）
$\tau \omega ́ \rho \alpha$
то́ $\tau \varepsilon$
ки́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}$
at some time；sometimes；once
人́д $\lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \tau \varepsilon$
$\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \alpha$
always
never；ever（in interrogative sentences）
whenever；at any time
first
before；ago
afterwards，later；then，next
early
late
the day before yesterday
yesterday
today
tomorrow
the day after tomorrow
this evening；tonight
the year before last
last year
this year
next year
already
immediately
at last
just
often
rarely，seldom
regularly
usually

In addition, there are noun phrases introduced by the determiner ко́ $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'each, every' and used adverbially, such as:

| ки่́ $\theta \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon ́ \rho \alpha$ | every day |
| :---: | :---: |
| ки́ $\theta \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢оро́ | every time |
| ки́ $\theta \varepsilon$ то́ $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ о | every so often |
|  | how often |

The chief adverbs of quantity are the following:

| $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{0}$ | how much (interrogative) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Óбo | as much as (correlative) |
|  | however much (universal correlative) |
| тóбo | so; so much; this/that much |
|  | quite a lot |
| ко́л $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ | somewhat |
| $\pi \chi^{\text {dú }}$ | very; much, a lot; too [much] |
| $\pi \varepsilon \rho \iota \sigma \sigma о ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho о$ | more (comparative: see also section 10.22) |
| $\lambda i \gamma o$ | a little |
| $\lambda l \gamma$ о́tepo | less (comparative) |
| $\varepsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \chi<\sigma \tau \alpha$ | very little, hardly (absolute superlative) |
| кхөо́доv | (not) at all (in negative and interrogative sentences) |
| $\tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon i ́ \omega \varsigma, \varepsilon \nu \tau \varepsilon \lambda \omega ¢$ | completely, entirely |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha \rho к \varepsilon \tau < ~}$ | quite (a lot) |
| $\sigma \chi \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta}$ óv | almost, nearly |
| тоvえázıбтоv | at least |
| $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega$ ко́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | about, approximately |
| $\pi \varepsilon \rho$ ítov | approximately; more or less |
| $\mu \alpha^{\prime} \lambda \lambda \mathrm{ov}$ | rather |
| $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{0}$ | equally |

$\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \quad$ very（before $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v}: \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$＇very much；too much＇）
$\pi \iota 0$ more（before adjective or adverb to form the comparative and the relative superlative：see sections 3．44－3．45 and 7．6）

For noun phrases in the accusative case in adverbial use see section 3．51．

## 7．2 The use of adverbs and adverbial phrases

As their name implies，most adverbs are normally used to modify a verb：
I Mí $\eta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$（adverb of manner）． （S）he spoke well．

2 Mí入ך $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$（adverb of place）．
（S）he spoke here．
3 Mí入П $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$（adverb of time）．
（S）he spoke yesterday．
4 Mí $\boldsymbol{\eta \sigma \varepsilon \pi \sigma \lambda v ́ \text {（adverb of quantity）．}}$
（S）he spoke a lot．
Some adverbs may modify an adjective or adverb．Adverbs of manner may modify a perfect passive participle：

##  <br> well trained

Some adverbs of time may modify an adjective or adverb：

## $6 \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \varsigma \boldsymbol{\mu \varepsilon \tau \alpha ́}$ <br> immediately afterwards

Adverbs of quantity are very commonly used to modify verbs（7－11），adjec－ tives and adverbs（12－20）：

7 Mov 人́ $\rho \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon$ тodv́．
I liked（him／her／it）a lot．
8 Mov 人́ $\rho \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \rho \imath \sigma \sigma o ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho \sigma$.
I liked（him／her／it）more．
9 Фоß 人́даı $\lambda i ́ \gamma o$.
I＇m a bit frightened．
10 Mov á $\rho \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon$ дl $\gamma$ ó $\tau \varepsilon \rho \sigma$ ．
I liked（him／her／it）less．

II Mov ó $\rho \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \kappa \varepsilon \tau \dot{\alpha}$.
I liked (him/her/it) quite a lot.
$12 \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$ кадо́ş/када́
very good/well
$13 \pi \sigma \lambda$ v́ кади́ $\tau \varepsilon \rho о \varsigma / \kappa \alpha \lambda$ v́ $\tau \varepsilon \rho \alpha$
much better
 so good/well
 a little better
 less good/well

17 к $\alpha \theta$ Ó̀ $\boldsymbol{\sigma v}$ кадо́ģ/к $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ not at all good/well
 quite good/well
 extremely good/well $\pi \iota o$ к $\alpha \lambda \dot{o ́} ̧ / \kappa \alpha \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ better

Adverbs often modify adverbs of place. Here are some examples of combinations that are unlike English:

## $21 \pi \boldsymbol{\pi \iota \sigma}$ モठळ́/عкєí

 on this/that side (lit. 'more here/there')
## $22 \pi \iota \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega / \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}$

 further up/down (lit. 'more up/down')
## $23 \pi \iota \sigma \pi \rho \iota v$

earlier (lit. 'more before')

up/down here/there (lit. 'here/there up/down')

near here/there (lit. 'here/there near')

## A few adverbs of place and time may modify a noun:

```
26 \eta \pií\sigma\omega \pió\rho\tau\boldsymbol{\alpha}}\mathrm{ (place)
    the back door
27 \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\kappav}\boldsymbol{\beta}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\rho\nu\eta\boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}\mathrm{ (time)}
    the then government
```

A few adverbs of quantity may modify a numeral or quantifier:

```
28 \sigma\chi\varepsilon\deltaóv ó\lambda0u
    almost everybody
29 \tauоv\lambda\alphá\chi\iota\sigma\tauоv \tau\varepsiloń\sigma\sigma&\rhoı\varsigma \varphiо\rho\tilde{\varepsilon}\varsigma
        at least four times
```

Some adverbs may be used on their own to form complete utterances, for example:

| $v \alpha \downarrow$ | yes |
| :---: | :---: |
| ózı | no |
| $\mu \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \alpha$ | certainly |
| $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \tau \alpha ́ ¢ ¢ ¢ ~}$ | OK, all right |
| к $\alpha \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! | good! |
| $\omega \rho \alpha i \alpha!$ | lovely! fine! |

' $\mathbf{O} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\imath}$ can also be used to negate nouns, adjectives and adverbs:
30 óxı o Fı́́vuns
not John

31 ó $\chi \iota \kappa \alpha \lambda \mathbf{o ́ s} / \kappa \alpha \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ not good/well
$32 \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$
not here
Some adverbs are used to join clauses or sentences together, for example:

| о́ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ | however |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\omega \sigma \tau$ ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ | nevertheless |
| $\pi \alpha \rho, \quad$ ò $\lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \tau \dot{\alpha}$ | nevertheless |
| סıароретıко́ | otherwise |
| $\pi \alpha \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ | still, at any rate |
| $\lambda \mathrm{l}$ | well then |
| $\dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | therefore |
| $\varepsilon \pi о \mu \varepsilon ́ v \omega \varsigma$ | consequently |
| $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega \sigma \tau \varepsilon$ | besides |
| ع $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \lambda 00$ | besides | and the adverbial phrase

Some adverbs can either be used on their own or modify a whole sentence, for example:

| i $\sigma \omega$ ¢ | perhaps |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\alpha \sigma \varphi \alpha \lambda \omega ¢$ | certainly |
| $\boldsymbol{\beta} \dot{\varepsilon} \beta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | of course |
| бízovpa | of course |
| $\varphi$ vбıки́ | naturally |
| عข兀ขхळ́s | fortunately, luckily |
| $\boldsymbol{\delta v \sigma \tau v \chi \varrho ́ s ~}$ | unfortunately |

 and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o ́ v o}$ ) can take complement clauses introduced by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ in a number of idiomatic uses, for example:

## $33 \tau \omega \rho \alpha \pi \sigma v$ то $\lambda \varepsilon \varsigma$

now that you mention it (lit. 'now that it you-say')
34 тó $\tau \varepsilon \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ ท́ $\mu \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha \nu$ véo七
when we were young (lit. 'then that we-were young')

From where (lit. 'here that') I'm sitting I can't see you.

Whereas I was expecting John, Sophie came.
37 К $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi o v}$ то $\sigma \kappa \varepsilon ́ \varphi \tau \eta к \varepsilon \varsigma!~$
[lt's a] good [thing] you thought of it!

[lt's] lucky you told me!

I would buy it, only it's expensive.

 used as prepositions with the genitive form of the weak pronoun. The same adverbs can be combined with prepositions to make compound prepositions (see section 8.3 for their use).

The indefinite adverbs $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'nowhere, anywhere', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'never, ever', $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o v}$ '(not) at all' are used in interrogative or negative clauses, or in other clauses that do not make a statement, or on their own, that is, in the
same circumstances as non-specific indefinite pronouns and determiners (see section 4.6):

## $40 \boldsymbol{\Theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \alpha ́ \mu \varepsilon \pi о \tau \varepsilon ́ ;$

Will we ever eat?
41 $\Delta \varepsilon v \theta \alpha$ ч $\dot{\mu} \mu \varepsilon \pi о \tau \varepsilon ́!$
We'll never eat!
42 Av то $\beta \rho \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~ \pi o v \theta \varepsilon v \alpha \dot{\alpha}, ~ \alpha \gamma o ́ \rho \alpha \sigma \varepsilon ́ ~ \tau о . ~$
If you find it anywhere, buy it.

'Did you like the play/film?' 'Not at all'.

## The formation of adverbs from adjectives

### 7.3 Adverbs in - $\alpha$

Many adverbs are derived directly from adjectives by a change in the ending of the word. There are two principal kinds of formation, which will be examined in this section and the following one. The difference is mainly determined by the declension pattern of the adjective in question. We shall therefore be referring to the sections in which the forms of adjectives are set out in full.

Adjectives in -os (sections 3.33-3.35) have adverbs ending in - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, which are identical to the neuter plural (nominative and accusative) form of the corresponding adjective. Examples: $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'wildly, fiercely', $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'badly',

 'rarely’, $\boldsymbol{\sigma v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'often', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ 'correctly’, $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'perfectly', $\boldsymbol{\chi \omega \rho \boldsymbol { \omega } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'separately', $\psi \boldsymbol{\eta} \lambda \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$ 'high up'. Some passive past participles also form

 those that have neuters in -七ко (section 3.40) also form adverbs which are identical to the corresponding neuter plural. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'deep(ly)',
 $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \iota \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'far away', $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \iota \sigma \mu \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \rho 七 \kappa \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ 'stubbornly', $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'lazily'.

### 7.4 Adverbs in $-\omega \varsigma$

Certain other types of adjective form adverbs with the suffix - $\omega \varsigma$. They include, most importantly, adjectives in $-\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ with neuter $\boldsymbol{- \varepsilon} \varsigma$ (section 3.39). The stress of the adverb remains on the same syllable as the masculine nominative singular of the adjective except in the case of adjectives ending in - $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ : their adverbs have the stress on the final syllable. Examples:

 'scandalously', $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \varepsilon \pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ s 'consequently', $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \theta \omega \varsigma$ 'usually'.

A few adjectives in $\boldsymbol{- \omega v},-\mathbf{o v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha},-\mathbf{o v}$ (section 3.41) also have adverbs ending in - $\omega \varsigma$ but formed from the stem of the neuter plural -ove- and with stress on the penultimate syllable. Examples: $\boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon v \tau \varepsilon \rho \varepsilon v o ́ v \tau \omega \varsigma ~ ' s e c o n d a r i l y ' , ~}$ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{o} v \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ 'urgently'.

Some adjectives in - $\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ can also form an alternative adverb in $\boldsymbol{- \omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$. When such adverbs are derived from adjectives stressed on the third syllable from the end, they have a shift of stress to the penultimate syllable: $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ 'rare' $\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v i} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'rarely' (as a more formal alternative to $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha})$. Some common doublets, such as $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} / \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \omega$ s 'certainly', have no difference of meaning and hardly differ in usage. In other cases, however, the - $\omega \boldsymbol{s}$ form tends to be used in more formal contexts, or for stylistic reasons; for example, $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ s 'unjustly', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ s 'irrespectively'. But sometimes there are important differences of meaning or usage between the two forms, as in the following examples:

- к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ 'well, rightly', rather than кадд́, is used in some standard expressions, such as $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma \dot{\eta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ 'welcome'; $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma$ can also mean 'lower second [degree]'
- $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'with pleasure’ but $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v \chi \alpha ́ \alpha} \rho \mathbf{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'pleasantly'
- $\tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon i ́ \omega s$ 'completely' but $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \alpha$ 'perfectly'
- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega$ s 'immediately' but $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'directly’
- i $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \boldsymbol{s}$ 'perhaps' has a quite different meaning from í $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'equally'
- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma$ 'simply, merely' but $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'in a simple way’ (though this distinction is not always made)

Some common adverbs in $-\omega \varsigma$ which are derived from adjectives in - $\mathbf{0}$ 兮 are:



### 7.5 Other adverbs formed from adjectives

Some adverbs are formed from adjectives (or words declined like adjectives) in a different way from those described in sections 7.3 and 7.4. Certain very common adverbs are identical with the neuter singular (nominative and accusative) of the corresponding adjective:

- $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{0} \varsigma^{\text {'other' }}$ (really a contrastive pronoun/determiner; see section 4.9) has an adverbial form $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{0}$ 'any more, any longer', which is used only in questions or in negative statements or commands, e.g. M $\boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{v}$ то $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v e l s} \varsigma \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{0}$ ! 'Don't do it any more!'; there is also an adverb $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma$ 'otherwise'
- $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{o}$ ¢ 'little' gives rise to the adverb $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{o}$ '(a) little, to a small extent'
- $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o ́ v o s}$ 'alone, only' has the adverbial form $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o} \mathbf{v o}$ o 'only'
- $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \varsigma$ 'much, many' has the adverb $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$ ' 'very, much, a lot' (for the forms of $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ see section 3.38)

For the use of the adverbs of quantity $\lambda \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{o}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$ see section 7.1.

### 7.6 Comparison of adverbs

Like adjectives, adverbs derived from adjectives have two ways of forming the comparative degree. One way is to use $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ ' more ' before the positive

 specifically', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'more heavily'. Some other adverbs of place and time (see section 7.1) can also form a comparative in the same way, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'lower down, further down', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'further in', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'further along', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'further back', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$ 'earlier'.

Adjectives that have one-word comparative forms in - $\boldsymbol{\tau \varepsilon \rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ can also form comparative adverbs in a similar way. The ending is $-\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, which is identical with the neuter plural (nominative and accusative) ending of the corresponding comparative adjective, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\rho}$ tó $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'more fiercely'. Similarly, such adjectives can also have an absolute superlative adverb ending in $-\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, e.g. عvкодо́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'extremely easily'. Some further examples:

The adverb and the adverbial phrase

| Positive adverb |  | Comparative | Absolute superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha k \rho ı} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | expensively | 人кряßо́тєра | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta o ́ \tau \alpha \tau \alpha}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha к \rho ı \beta \omega ́ я ~}$ | exactly |  | $\boldsymbol{\alpha < \rho ı \beta \dot { \varepsilon }} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | slowly, late | $\boldsymbol{\alpha \rho \gamma о ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho \alpha ~}$ | - |
| $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | deeply | $\beta \alpha \theta$ v́т ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ 人 | $\beta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ v́ $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| үعvikú | generally |  | $\gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon v ı к o ́ \tau \alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | well | $\kappa \alpha \lambda v$ vé $\alpha$ | к $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda 1 \sigma \tau \alpha /$ $\dot{\alpha} \rho \iota \sigma \tau \alpha$ |
| $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta} \theta \omega$ ¢ | usually | $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho \alpha$ | $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \eta} \theta \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \alpha \tau \alpha$ |
| ¢póvı $\mu \alpha$ | prudently | ¢роขıцо́тєра | ¢povı ${ }^{\text {ó } \tau \alpha \tau \alpha}$ |

The only adverbs of quantity (see section 7.1) that be can used in the comparative and superlative degrees are the following:

| Positive adverb | Comparative | Relative superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\lambda i \gamma o$ (a) little | $\lambda l \gamma$ ótepo less | то $\lambda l \gamma \dot{\sigma} \tau \varepsilon \rho o /$ тo $\varepsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \chi \iota \sigma \tau 0$ at the least |
| $\pi$ modv very, much | $\pi \varepsilon \rho \imath \sigma \sigma$ ó $\tau \varepsilon \rho$ / $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v}$ more | to $\pi \iota 0 \pi o \lambda v$ <br> at the most |

Note also the special form $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{v}$ ' $a t$ least'.

## Chapter 8

## The preposition and the prepositional phrase

## 8. I Introduction to prepositions and prepositional phrases

A preposition ('in', 'from', etc.) is placed immediately before a noun phrase in order to indicate the relation of this phrase to some other phrase. A phrase introduced by a preposition is known as a prepositional phrase ('in the house', 'from the river').

The chief prepositions in Greek are:

- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \mathbf{o ́}^{\text {'from; }}$ since; by; than'
- $\quad \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\boldsymbol{c}} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'for; about'
- $\mu \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \rho \mathbf{~}$ 'until, up to’
- $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'with'
- $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'like'
- $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'to, into; at, in'
- $\chi \omega \rho i ́ \varsigma$ 'without'

In Greek, a noun phrase (including an emphatic personal pronoun) used after one of the basic prepositions appears in the accusative case, for example:

## $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \eta \nu \mathrm{A} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$

tolin Athens

```
\sigma' }\boldsymbol{\mu
to me (with contrastive emphasis, i.e. not to anyone else)
```

However, some prepositions are used with noun phrases in the genitive case, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i o v}$ 'against', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'because of' and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi}$ и́ 'between'; these three are the only ones that can be followed by weak personal pronouns. The uses of these and other prepositions are covered in alphabetical order

### 8.2 The uses of individual prepositions

Here we give the chief uses of each preposition in alphabetical order.

### 8.2.I A $\pi$ ó <br> 8.2.I A $n$ ó

- 'from' in expressions of place:

I Eí $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{A \theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v a}$. I'm from Athens.
$2{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{E} \varphi \boldsymbol{v} \gamma \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \mathbf{A \theta \eta ́ v \alpha}$. I left Athens.

- 'from' or 'of' in expressions of cause:
$3 \boldsymbol{\Theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o ́} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i ́ v \alpha}$. I'll die of hunger.
- 'from' or 'since' in expressions of time:

4 Пغрí $\mu \varepsilon v \alpha \alpha \pi$ о́ то $\pi \rho \omega i ́ \mu \varepsilon ́ \chi \rho ı ~ \tau о ~ \beta \rho \alpha ́ \delta v . ~$ I waited from morning till evening.
 I've been living in Patras since 1992.

- 'of' in partitive expressions:
in section 8.2. Finally, there is also a group of adverbs (mostly of place) that can be used either with a weak personal pronoun in the genitive or together with one of the basic prepositions followed by a noun phrase in the accusative case; this last group is covered in section 8.3.

A few prepositions can be followed by an adverb of place or time, such as:

$\mu \varepsilon ́ \chi \rho \iota ~ \varepsilon к \varepsilon ́ i ́ ~$<br>up to there<br>$\alpha \pi o ́ ~ \sigma \eta ́ \mu \varepsilon \rho \alpha$<br>from today<br>$\gamma \iota \alpha \tau \omega \dot{\rho} \alpha$<br>for now

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
6 & \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \varsigma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\prime} \text { tovs } \delta \mathbf{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha \beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \varepsilon \varsigma \\
& \text { one of the passers-by }
\end{array}
$$

## 7 каvévas $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$

none of you (emphatic; cf. section 3.52.3)

- 'by' in expressions of agent:

The demonstration was organized by the unions.
- 'made of' in expressions referring to material:


##  a table [made] of marble

- 'than' in expressions of comparison:

10 Eíhaı $\mu \varepsilon \gamma \alpha \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \tau \varepsilon \rho \eta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ Mapía.
I'm older (fem.) than Mary (see also section I0.22).

- 'through, past, by, along' in expressions of passage (often with the verb $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{\prime}$ 'I pass'):

(S)he went along the hall and entered the living-room.

I'll pass by your house (i.e. 'l'll drop by').

The fly came into the house through the window.
In colloquial usage, $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o}$ can be reduced to $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ' before the definite article: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ' $\tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{A \theta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'from Athens'.


### 8.2.2 $\Gamma$ L $\alpha$

- 'for' in expressions of benefit:

14 To $\alpha \gamma$ ó $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha$.
I bought it for you.

- 'for' in expressions of purpose:


## 

I'm going shopping (lit. 'I-go for shopping').
$\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is also used with $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ to introduce clauses expressing purpose ('in order to/that': see section 10.17).

8
The and the prepositional phrase

### 8.2.3 Evavtíov

Used with the genitive of a noun phrase (17) or a weak personal pronoun (18) to mean 'against':

## 

 the war against drugs$18 \Delta \varepsilon v$ é $\chi \omega$ тíло $\tau \alpha$ evavtíov $\sigma 0 v$. I've got nothing against you.

### 8.2.4 K $\boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \dot{\alpha}$

- Used with the accusative to mean 'about', especially in expressions of time:
about eleven
- Used with the accusative to mean 'according to':
$20 \boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ in my opinion
- Used with the genitive to mean 'against':
 against the death penalty
8.2.5 $\Lambda \mathbf{o} \gamma \omega$ (also, less commonly, $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota} \tau i ́ \alpha \varsigma)$
$\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ is used with the genitive of a noun phrase to mean 'because of':

The match was cancelled because of the bad weather.
$\mathbf{E} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ g is used with the genitive of a noun phrase or weak pronoun in the same meaning:

We were late because of you.
- 'about' in expressions of reference:

16 Mı $\lambda \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \sigma \alpha \mu \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ тov Mı $\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta$. We were talking about Michael.

## $19 \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \iota \varrho$ év $\tau \varepsilon \kappa \alpha$

### 8.2.6 Me

- 'with' (in the company of)

She came with her children.
- 'with' (instrument)

25 'Екочє то $\psi \omega \mu i ́ \mu \varepsilon \mu \alpha \chi \alpha i ́ \rho ı . ~$
(S)he cut the bread with a knife.

- 'by' (means of transport)
$26 \Theta \alpha \pi \alpha ́ \mu \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon \tau о \lambda \varepsilon \omega \varphi о \rho \varepsilon i ́ o l \mu \varepsilon \tau \alpha \pi o ́ \delta ı \alpha$.
We'll go by bus/on foot.
- manner

27 Tov $\alpha \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \varepsilon \iota \mu \varepsilon \pi \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{O}$.
(S)he loves him passionately (lit. 'with passion').

- 'by' (basis of calculation)

28 Пえทрळ́vонаı $\mu \varepsilon$ тоv $\mu \eta ́ v \alpha$.
I'm paid by the month.

- 'dressed in':

29 то корі́ $\tau \sigma \iota \mu \varepsilon \tau \alpha$ ко́ккı $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \alpha$
the girl in red

- 'to' in expressions of periods of time:

We have a lesson [from] eleven to twelve.
- 'despite, in spite of' (in the construction $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ' ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$, in which ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$ agrees with the noun in gender, number and case):

31
$\mu^{\prime} \dot{\mathbf{o}} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \zeta \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \boldsymbol{\eta}$
despite the heat

The construction $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ' ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'although, even though' introduces concessive clauses (see section 10.14).

### 8.2.7 Metó

Used with definite noun phrases to mean 'after':
$32 \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma v v \alpha v} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i \alpha}$ after the concert between us; between ourselves
8.2.9 Mغ́ $\chi \rho \boldsymbol{\imath}$ (also, less commonly, $\omega \varsigma$ or $\dot{\varepsilon} \omega \varsigma$ )
 including' (US: 'through'):

I waited till ten [o'clock]/the tenth [of the month].
 Кvрıккй.
The exhibition will remain open up to and including Sunday (US: ‘through Sunday').

- 'by' in expressions of time:

37 To $\sigma \alpha \kappa \alpha ́ к ı ~ \sigma \alpha \varsigma ~ \theta \alpha ~ \varepsilon i ́ v \alpha l ~ \varepsilon ́ \tau о ı \mu о ~ \mu \varepsilon ́ \chi \rho ı ~ \tau \eta v ~ T \rho i ́ \tau \eta . ~$ Your (pl.) jacket will be ready by Tuesday.

- 'as far as, up to' in expressions of place:
$38 \quad \Theta \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \pi \dot{\alpha} \omega \mu \varepsilon ́ \chi \rho \iota ~ \tau o ~ \Sigma v ́ v \tau \alpha \gamma \mu \alpha$. I'll take you as far as Syntagma.

The constructions $\boldsymbol{\mu \varepsilon ́ \chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ are used to introduce temporal clauses (see section 10.15).

### 8.2.10 Паро́

Used with noun phrases

- to mean 'contrary to':
$39 \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu}$
against my will
With emphatic pronouns and indefinite noun phrases $\boldsymbol{\mu} \varepsilon \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is normally followed by $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ (see section 8.3: Type 1 ).


### 8.2.8 Mé $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi}$ ט́

Used with the genitive of noun phrases and weak personal pronouns to mean 'between, among':


- often with the appropriate form of $\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \varsigma$, to mean 'despite, in spite of':
$40 \pi \alpha \rho \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma \tau \iota \varsigma \pi \rho о \sigma \pi \alpha \dot{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma \tau \eta \varsigma$
despite her efforts
- to express the number of minutes before the hour (note that the word order is the opposite of English; see also section 5.5):

twenty to ten
П $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (with the accent on the last syllable) should not be confused with the adverb $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (with accent on the first syllable), which is used in the construction $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v}$.

Mapó is also used as a conjunction in comparative constructions ('(rather) than': see section 10.22), or in constructions such as $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ' ó $\boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\iota}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ' ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ 'although' to introduce concessive clauses (see section 10.14).

### 8.2.1I Проя

Used with noun phrases to mean 'towards'; with weak pronouns the


## 

We were going towards Lamia.
43 Ги́ $\rho \imath \sigma \varepsilon \pi \rho о \varsigma \tau о \mu$ и́ $\rho o \varsigma ~ \mu о v . ~$
(S)he turned towards me.

With a small number of adverbs of place, $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ is followed by the neuter plural of the definite article, $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ :

## $44 \pi \rho \sigma \varsigma \tau \alpha \pi \alpha ́ v \omega$

upwards (lit. 'towards the up')

## $45 \pi \rho о \varsigma \tau \alpha \pi о v ́ ;$

where to?, in which direction? (lit. 'towards the where?').

### 8.2.12 $\Sigma \alpha v$

Used with noun phrases and emphatic personal pronouns to mean 'like' (resembling):

$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ is also used in the construction $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'as if, as though' (see sections 10.16 and 10.22).

### 8.2.13 $\Sigma \varepsilon$

$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is always reduced to $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ before the definite article (and is written with it as one word); in colloquial usage it may be reduced to $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ' before a word beginning with a vowel ( $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ' $\boldsymbol{o} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'in all things'). It is used with noun phrases and emphatic personal pronouns to mean:

- 'to' (indirect object)


## 48 To $\dot{\varepsilon} \delta \omega \sigma \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \mathbf{X \rho ı \sigma \tau i v \alpha}$.

I gave it to Christina.

- 'to; into' (motion)


## 49 Пท่ $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{~ \Lambda o v \delta i ́ v o . ~}$

I went to London.

## 

 I went (lit. 'passed') into the other room.- 'at; in' (location in space or time)

51 $\Sigma \pi$ ov́ $\delta \alpha \sigma \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ Гı́́vvıva. I studied at/in Yannina.

## $52 \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \iota \varsigma \delta \dot{\varepsilon} \kappa \alpha$

 at ten [o'clock on the tenth] $O R$ [of the month]- 'in' (lapse of time)
$53 \sigma \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{i} \gamma \varepsilon \varsigma \mu \varepsilon ́ \rho \varepsilon \varsigma$ in a few days
- 'on' (location)

Put it on the table.
8.2.14 X $\omega \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\varsigma} \varsigma$ (or, less commonly, $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i ́ \chi} \omega \varsigma$ )

Used with noun phrases (55-56) and emphatic personal pronouns (57) to mean 'without':

56
$\chi \omega \rho i ́ \varsigma ~ \dot{\alpha ́ \delta \varepsilon ı \alpha ~}$
without permission
$57 \Delta \varepsilon v \theta \alpha$ то $\dot{\varepsilon} \kappa \alpha v \alpha \chi \omega \rho i ́ \varsigma \varepsilon \sigma \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha$.
I wouldn't have done it without you/but for you.
X $\omega$ pis is also used in the construction $\chi \omega \rho \mathbf{\rho} \varsigma \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'without' to introduce clauses:

I did it without wanting to (i.e. without meaning to).

### 8.3 Compound prepositions; adverbs used as prepositions

In addition to the one-word prepositions covered in section 8.2, Greek has a number of compound prepositions, made up of two words, that introduce noun phrases and emphatic personal pronouns. These are of two types:

- compound prepositions that can only be used with noun phrases and emphatic personal pronouns (type 1);
- compound prepositions consisting of adverb of place + preposition (type 2).

In other contexts, adverbs that form part of the second type can be used with the genitive of the weak personal pronoun instead of a preposition.

### 8.3.1 Type I

This type consists of a small number of basic compound prepositions:

- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{l} \alpha$ 'instead of'

I went instead of George.
Aviti is also used in the construction $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'instead of' to introduce clauses:

Instead of George going, I went myself.

 or $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \tau o ́ s} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ ) 'unless’ to introduce conditional clauses (see section 10.13).
- $\mu \varepsilon \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ó 'after'
 accompanied by the definite article: see section 8.2.7).
after the party
$6 \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \tau \alpha \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ó $\mu \varepsilon ́ v \alpha$
after me
Metó is also used in the construction $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'after' to introduce temporal clauses (see section 10.15).
- $\pi \rho \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ ' 'before'
 accompanied by the definite article)
before the party
$8 \pi \rho \imath v \alpha \pi o ́ \mu \varepsilon ́ v \alpha$
before me
$\Pi \rho \boldsymbol{v}$ is also used as a conjunction ('before') to introduce temporal clauses (see section 10.15).

In addition, there are a number of other combinations of adverb + preposition, such as $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'according to, in proportion to', ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'as for', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \varphi \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ 'according to', $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'related to', $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o}$ 'after'.

### 8.3.2 Type 2

This type consists of a group of basic adverbs of place that may either (a) be accompanied by a preposition followed by a noun phrase or emphatic pronoun in the accusative, or (b) be followed by a weak personal pronoun in the genitive. When these adverbs are accompanied by prepositions, the

| $\alpha v \dot{\alpha} \mu \varepsilon \sigma \alpha \sigma \varepsilon$人лغ́vavtı $\sigma \varepsilon / \alpha \pi o ́$ | between; among opposite | Compound prepositions; |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\gamma \mathbf{\nu} \boldsymbol{\rho} \omega \alpha \pi \mathbf{\sigma} / \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ | around | adverbs |
| סín $\lambda \alpha \sigma \varepsilon$ | next to | used as |
| $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0}$ | outside (not used with weak pronoun) | prepositions |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\prime}$ | under, below |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa 0 v \tau \alpha ́ \boldsymbol { \sigma \varepsilon }}$ | near |  |
| $\mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | (together) with |  |
|  | a long way from; away from |  |
| $\mu \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $(\boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon})$ inside; ( $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0}$ ) through; from inside |  |
|  | (see examples below) |  |
| $\mu \pi \rho о \sigma \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{O} / \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ | in front of |  |
| $\pi \alpha \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ ¢ | $(\boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon})$ on; ( $\boldsymbol{\sim} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0}$ ) above (see examples below) |  |
| $\pi \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0}$ | behind |  |
| $\pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon}$ | beside |  |

Here are some examples of these adverbs, used with and without prepositions:
$9 \alpha v \alpha ́ \mu \varepsilon \sigma \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha \sigma \pi i \tau t \alpha$
between/among the houses
$10 \quad \alpha \pi \varepsilon ́ v \alpha \nu \tau i ́ \mu \alpha \varsigma$
opposite us
II $\gamma \dot{\rho} \rho \omega \alpha \pi$ ó $\tau 0 \delta \dot{\varepsilon} v \tau \rho o$
around the tree
12 रí $\pi \lambda \alpha$ бov
next to you (sg.)
$13 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi \omega \alpha \pi \mathbf{~} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \pi \mathbf{i} \tau \iota$
outside the house

under the table

near her
$16 \mu \alpha \zeta i ́ \mu o v$
with me
$17 \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \rho \imath \dot{\alpha} \alpha \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{o ́} \boldsymbol{\tau \eta \nu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o ́ \lambda \eta}$
[far] away from the city
$20 \mu \pi \rho о \sigma \tau \dot{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \varsigma$ in front of us
 The plate's on the table.
 The switch is above the table.
$23 \pi \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o ́} \mu \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
behind me (emphatic)

beside the house

## Chapter 9

## Conjunctions and particles

### 9.1 Co-ordinating conjunctions

Co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. 'and', 'or', 'but') are used to join two phrases or two independent clauses within the same sentence. The coordinating conjunctions in Greek are:

- кat 'and' (optionally reduced to $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{b}$ before a word beginning with a vowel in colloquial usage)
- ท́ 'or'
- عite 'or else; either . . . or . . .'
- ov́te 'nor; neither . . . nor . . .'
- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \dot{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'but'
- о́ $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ 'however'

For the use of these conjunctions see section 10.21.
In addition, $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ is very commonly used before a noun phrase, an emphatic pronoun, an adjective, an adverb or a prepositional phrase to mean 'too, also':

I $\quad \mathbf{H \rho \theta \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ Mapía (noun phrase). Mary came too.
 We've got a new house. It's big too.
 We had rain here too.
 We had rain in Athens too.

Before numerals accompanied by the definite article, kat may have the sense of 'both' or 'all':

## 5 к $\alpha \iota \tau \alpha \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{v o} \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\iota} \delta \iota \dot{\alpha}$

6 кı ol $\tau \rho \varepsilon ı \varsigma \mu \alpha \varsigma$ all three of us (masc./fem.)

After numerals, к $\boldsymbol{\alpha l}$ (pronounced with heavy stress) can mean 'at least':
7 Eíval $\tau \rho \imath \alpha \dot{\Delta} v \tau \alpha \kappa \alpha \iota$.
(S)he's at least thirty.

The expression $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$; is used to mean 'so what? what of it?' in response to a piece of information (compare the colloquial use in English of 'And . . .?'):

'My dad's come back.' 'What of it?'
$K \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ is used in a number of idiomatic expressions, e.g.:
 It'll just be us (lit. 'We'll be we and we').

10 ह́vas кı $\dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ (inflected for gender and case) hand-picked (i.e. selected for high quality)

K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ is also used in the constructions $\mathbf{\kappa \iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma^{\prime}$ 'even if', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'although, even though' to introduce concessive clauses (see section 10.14).

The negative conjunction ov́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is also used to mean 'not even':
ll ov́ $\tau \varepsilon$ 反غ́к人
not even ten

### 9.2 Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions are used to subordinate one clause to another (e.g. 'if', 'when', 'because', 'although'). Of the large number of subordinating conjunctions in Greek the most common are the following (for their uses see sections 10.9-10.19):

- relative particles/pronouns: $\boldsymbol{\pi 0 v}$, $\mathbf{o} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\pi o i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'who, which, that' (section 10.9)
- correlative pronouns and determiners: ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ s 'whoever', ó, $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ 'what(ever)', ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o}$ ¢ 'however much; as much . . . as' (section 10.9)
- correlative adverbs: ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'where(ever)', о́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau \varepsilon}$ 'whenever', ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$
- interrogative conjunction: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'if, whether' (section 10.10.1)
- interrogative pronouns and determiners: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'who', $\boldsymbol{\tau l}$ 'what', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ 'how much/many' (section 10.10.2)
 'how much', $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ í 'why' (section 10.10.2)
- complementizers: va 'to', $\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\iota}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'that' (section 10.2)
- dubitative conjunction (used with verbs of fearing, uncertainty or doubt): $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \pi \omega \varsigma$ 'in case; lest' (section 10.12.1)
- conditional conjunctions: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'if', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \mathbf{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o} v$ 'provided that',
 10.13)
- concessive conjunctions: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \mathbf{\kappa \imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}, \mathbf{k \imath} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'even if', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{l}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ' ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}, \boldsymbol{\mu}$ ' ó̀ $\boldsymbol{\lambda o} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'even though' (section 10.14)
- adversative conjunctions: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'instead of', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'without' (sections 8.3.1 and 8.2.14)
- temporal conjunctions: ó $\boldsymbol{\tau \boldsymbol { \alpha } v}$ 'when', ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'whenever', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o} \lambda \mathbf{\imath} \varsigma$, 'as

 10.15)
- manner conjunctions: ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ' 'as’ (section 10.16)
- purpose conjunctions: $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'in order to/that' (section 10.17)
- result conjunctions: $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$, $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ '(so) that' (section 10.18)
 $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} / \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'since' (section 10.19)
- comparative conjunctions: $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'as if, as though', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (v人) '(rather) than' (section 10.22)


### 9.3 Particles

Greek has a variety of very important little words called particles. These words are very versatile in their use, and most of them do not correspond precisely to any words in English. We shall deal with them in seven groups:

- the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
- the subjunctive particles $\mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$
- the negative particles $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$
- the complementizer and relative particle $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$
- the positive and negative response particles val and ó $\boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\imath}$
- the deictic particle va
- the hortatory particle $\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$

Some of the material in this section overlaps with material presented in other sections, but since the particles are so important, some repetition is justified.

### 9.3.I The future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$

$\boldsymbol{\Theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is used before any finite verb form, and can be separated from it only by weak pronouns. The prime use of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is to express actions that are expected to take place in the future. The use of the two aspects of the future tense (the perfective future consisting of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the dependent, and the imperfective future consisting of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the present tense) is covered in section 6.5. The use of the conditional (consisting of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the imperfect tense) and the perfect conditional (consisting of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ followed by the pluperfect tense) is also covered in the same section.

Apart from its use in future and conditional expressions, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ can be used to express probability. It can appear with any form of the verb in this use, but the most typical forms of the verb it occurs with are the simple past (1), the perfect (2) and the pluperfect (3). Such expressions are the equivalent of English 'must' or 'must have' when referring to probability rather than obligation. The verb tense used is the same as if the speaker was talking about something that definitely happened:

## 

He must have given him the money himself (cf. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{0 v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \delta \omega \sigma \varepsilon$ 'he gave him').

It must have rained, because the leaves are wet (cf. $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\varepsilon} \xi \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{~ ' i t ' s ~ r a i n e d , ~ i t ' s ~ b e e n ~ r a i n i n g ' ) . ~}$
 It must have rained, because the leaves were wet (cf. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{i} \chi \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \xi \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'it had rained, it had been raining').

### 9.3.2 The subjunctive particles v $\alpha$ and $\alpha \varsigma$

As we have said in sections 6.4 and 6.20 , the subjunctive mood of the verb is formed by any finite verb form (other than the imperative) preceded by one of the subjunctive particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$. Verbs introduced by one or other of these particles are negated by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ rather than $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$. These particles cannot be separated from the verb by any item other than the negative particle $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ and by weak pronouns.

In main clauses $\mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is used with any person of the verb to introduce sugges－ tions，wishes and requests（see section 10．3），and certain types of commands and prohibitions（see section 10．4）：

## $4 \mathrm{~N} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ．

Let me give them to you（offer or promise）．

## $5 \mathrm{Na} \boldsymbol{\sigma o v} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega$ ；

Should I give them to you？（offer in the form of a question）
$6 \mathrm{~N} \alpha \mu \mathrm{ov} \tau \alpha \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \iota \varsigma$.
You should give them to me（suggestion，request or command）．
$7 \mathrm{~N} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { o u }} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ．
（S）he shouldn＇t give them to him（prohibition or negative request）．

It is often used with the imperfect tense to express unfulfilled wishes：
$8 \mathrm{~A} \chi, v \alpha \sigma^{\prime} \dot{\varepsilon} \beta \lambda \varepsilon \pi \alpha!$
Oh，if only I could see you！
$\mathbf{N} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is often used after question words in questions that do not necessarily expect an answer：

## 9 Tt va ко́vovんと；

What are we to do？（frequently used either in its literal meaning or in the sense of＇there＇s nothing we can do about it＇）
（cf．Te $\theta \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ко́vov $\mu$ ；＇What shall we do？＇）
10 Пov́ va $\pi \dot{\eta} \gamma \varepsilon$ ，人́ $\rho \alpha \gamma \varepsilon$ ；
Where can（s）he／it have gone，I wonder？
（cf．Mov́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\eta} \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ；＇Where has（s）he／it gone？＇）

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II Mov́ va тo \(\xi \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \omega ;\)
How am I supposed to know？（lit．＇Where to I－know it？＇）
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$\mathbf{N} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ introduces a wide variety of subordinate clauses，usually as the subject or complement of a verb．In almost all cases the verb in the $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$－clause is in the dependent or the present tense．Typical uses are：
－after verbs of wanting（12），hoping（13），promising（14），suggesting （15）and trying（16），and in fact in most cases where English uses the infinitive（＇to＇＋verb）；

Particles
－after the verb $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\boldsymbol { o } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \omega }}$＇I can＇（in any person，number and tense except the perfect tenses：17）and the impersonal verb $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$＇it is necessary＇ （which exists only in the present，past and conditional：18－20）；
－after verbs of perception such as $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$＇I hear，listen＇， $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \pi \boldsymbol{\omega}$＇I see＇，
 （21）（in almost all cases the verb in the $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$－clause is in the present tense）；
－after the verbs $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\zeta} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$＇I begin＇（22）， $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$＇I stop’（23）， and $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \varepsilon \chi i} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha \kappa \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{0 v \theta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$＇I continue＇（24）（the verb in the va－ clause is always in the present tense）．
 I wanted to speak to him urgently．
$13 E \lambda \pi i \zeta \omega$ va $\dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \omega$ av́pıo． I hope to come tomorrow．

（S）he promised not to spoil my plans．
15 Про́ $\tau \varepsilon \imath v \varepsilon v \alpha \pi \alpha ́ \mu \varepsilon \mu \alpha \zeta$ í $\sigma \tau 0 \pi \alpha ́ \rho \tau \imath$.
（S）he suggested that we（should）go to the party together．
16 Пробл $\alpha$ Oоv́ $\sigma \varepsilon$ v人 $\beta \rho \varepsilon ı \lambda$ v́ $\sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~ \gamma ı \alpha$ ó $\lambda \alpha \tau \alpha \pi \rho о \beta \lambda \dot{\eta} \mu \alpha \tau \dot{\alpha} \tau 0 v$ ． （S）he was trying to find solutions to all his problems．

17 М $\boldsymbol{1} \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \varepsilon \sigma \alpha$ v人 ко́vळ ó，$\tau \iota \mathfrak{\eta} \theta \varepsilon \lambda \alpha$ ． I was able to do what（ever）I wanted．
 We must leave immediately．
 We had to leave immediately．
$20 \Theta \alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \pi \rho \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon$ v人 $\varphi$ и́ $\gamma о v \mu \varepsilon \alpha \mu \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \omega \varsigma$. We should leave immediately．
 I heard him say many unpleasant things．

22 ＇A $\rho \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \alpha v$ va $\tau \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \chi$ ovv． They started running．
$23 \Sigma \tau \alpha \mu \dot{\alpha} \tau \eta \sigma \varepsilon$ v $\alpha \beta \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \varepsilon \varepsilon$ ． It stopped raining．
(S)he went on reading.
$\mathbf{N} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clauses can also be used in indirect questions:

## $25 \Delta \varepsilon v \boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \alpha \mu \varepsilon \tau \iota \nu \alpha$ ко́vоv $\mu \varepsilon$. <br> We didn't know what to do.

They can also be used as the complement of a noun (26) or adjective (27):

It's pure stupidity (for you) to suffer like this.

## 27 Eíval $\delta v v \alpha \tau o ́ v v \alpha \mu \eta \mu \varepsilon \operatorname{\theta v\mu oviv\tau \alpha l} ;$ <br> Is it possible (that) they don't remember me?

$\mathbf{N} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ can also be used after certain prepositions ( $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{i} \mathbf{i}, \gamma \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\imath}$, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$, $\boldsymbol{\chi} \omega \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ : see sections 8.2, 8.3, 10.15 and 10.17).

While we are presenting the particle $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, something should be said about certain special uses of $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ and the impersonal form $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$ followed by $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. In this and the following paragraphs we are not concerned with the ordinary use of the impersonal verb $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ to express obligation ('I must, I should') and the personal verb $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ to express ability ('I can, I am able'). Instead, we are dealing with uses that are similar to the uses of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ in expressions other than future and conditional expressions (see 9.3.1).

Like $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (and like English 'must'), $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ can be used to express probability rather than obligation. Typically, the verb in the $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clause is in the simple past, the perfect (28) or the pluperfect, but it can be in any tense (e.g. the present: 30). The sentence can be negated by the use of the appropriate negative particle in either the main clause or the vo-clause (29).


I saw lights in their house. They must have come back from holiday.

 $\tau \iota \varsigma \delta \iota \alpha к о \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma$.
There are no lights in their house. They mustn't/can't have come back from holiday yet.
 They must be on their way back from holiday now.
 singular of the present tense) can express possibility (like English 'may': 31). In fact, $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \rho }} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ i can be used on its own to mean 'maybe'.
 Maybe they've come back from holiday/They may have come back from holiday.

When used with a negative particle, $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ i $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-constructions mean different things depending on which verb is negated:
 They may not have come back from holiday.
 They can't have come back from holiday.

A $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ is used with any verb form to express commands, permission, suggestions or wishes. Unlike $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, it is used only in main clauses:

Let's leave this subject.

Let Peter shout as much as he likes.
In comparison with $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, expressions with $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ tend to be less pressing, since $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ combines the sense of command with that of permission, or even indifference:

Let them come if they want.

Let him/her not give them to me, since (s)he doesn't want to.
$\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ is frequently used after $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{l}(\mathbf{\kappa \imath})$ in concessive clauses (see also section 10.14):

##  <br> War will probably happen, even if we don't want it (to).

A $\varsigma$ may be used with the imperfect tense to express a wish that something had happened in the past:

38 A $\varsigma \boldsymbol{\mu \eta \nu}$ тоv о́коv $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \varsigma \varsigma$. If only you hadn't listened to him/You shouldn't have listened to him.

### 9.3.3 The negative particles $\delta \varepsilon v, \mu \eta \nu$ and $\mu \eta$

Verbs in the indicative are negated by $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$, while verbs in the subjunctive (i.e. verbs preceded by $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ ) are negated by $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ :
$39 \Delta \boldsymbol{\Delta v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{t}$.
(S)he won't come.
$40 \quad \mathbf{N \alpha} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{t}$.
(S)he shouldn't come.
$\mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ may drop the final $-\boldsymbol{v}$ before certain letters (see section 1.6).
Apart from its use in negative clauses after $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ may be used to introduce negative commands (see section 10.4). In these uses it cannot be separated from the verb except by weak pronouns.

When negating items other than verbs, $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ does not take a final $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}$ (see section 10.7.7). It can also be used on its own (without final $\boldsymbol{v}$ ) in a singleword sentence to mean 'Don't!'

### 9.3.4 The complementizer and relative particle $\pi 0 v$

Hov has three chief functions. It may introduce a complement clause (41: see section 10.12), a result clause (42: see section 10.18), or a relative clause (43: see sections 4.7 and 10.9).
$41 \quad \Lambda v \pi \alpha ́ \mu \alpha \iota \pi o v \delta \varepsilon v \mu \pi o ́ \rho \varepsilon \sigma \alpha$ v $\alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \omega \sigma \tau \sigma \pi \alpha ́ \rho \tau \iota$. I'm sorry (that) I wasn't able to come to your party.
 I shouted so much (that) I can't speak.

The man who came is my father-in-law.

### 9.3.5 The positive and negative response particles val and ó $\chi \mathrm{l}$

N $\boldsymbol{\iota} \mathbf{l}$ and $\mathbf{~ o ́} \boldsymbol{\chi l}$ are used in responses to mean 'yes' and 'no' respectively. In addition, $\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\imath}$ can be used to negate any part of speech (see section 7.2, examples 30-2) or a whole clause (section 10.5.1).

### 9.3.6 The deictic particle va

The deictic particle $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (spelt the same as the subjunctive particle) is used as the equivalent of English 'there' when pointing out something. It can be
used on its own, or followed by a noun phrase (44) or a weak personal pronoun (45; see section 4.1) in the nominative.

## $44 \quad \mathrm{~N} \alpha$ то $\pi \rho о ́ \beta \lambda \eta \mu \alpha!$ <br> That's the problem!

$45 \mathbf{N} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ चos!
There he is!

### 9.3.7 The hortatory particle $\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \alpha$

The hortatory particle $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (spelt like the preposition) is used colloquially to express extra encouragement before an imperative form of the verb:

46 Гıа к人́ $\tau \sigma \varepsilon$ !
Do sit down!

## The clause

### 10.1 Types of clause

The clause is a syntactic unit that consists of a subject (explicit or implicit) and a verb phrase. The term 'sentence' may be used to refer either to a simple clause or to a larger unit, containing more than one clause. Clauses and sentences may be either main or subordinate. According to their function and syntactic characteristics, main clauses are subdivided into the following types:

- statements (section 10.2)
- suggestions, wishes, requests and promises (section 10.3)
- commands and prohibitions (section 10.4)
- yes/no questions (section 10.5)
- wh- questions (section 10.6)
- negative clauses (section 10.7)
- exclamations (section 10.8 )


## Main clauses

### 10.2 Statements

A statement is in the indicative mood (see section 6.4). In statements the verb is not introduced by the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ and is negated by $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'not':
 The new airport is very beautiful.
 Irene will go to Athens in December.
3 To $\tau \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon v \tau \alpha i ́ o ~ \tau o v ~ \beta ı \beta \lambda i ́ o ~ \delta \varepsilon v \nu \mu v$ á $\rho \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon \kappa \alpha \theta$ ó $\lambda o v$. I didn't like his last book at all.

A main clause expressing a suggestion, wish, request, promise, etc. is in the subjunctive mood. In other words, the verb is introduced by the particle $\boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ and is negated by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ :

I $\quad N \alpha \tau \eta v \pi \rho o \sigma \dot{\varepsilon} \chi \varepsilon ı \varsigma!$
You should take care of her!
 If only I was in Crete now!
 May I ask a favour of you?
$4 \quad N \alpha \mu \eta \nu \tau \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ каvévav.
You shouldn't tell anybody about this.
 You shouldn't have listened to him.
 Let his father bring him.

### 10.4 Commands and prohibitions

A positive command may be expressed by using the imperative mood of the verb, which has distinct forms (see sections 6.8-6.12). Sometimes the particle $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ introduces an imperative sentence to add encouragement (see section 9.3.7). A negative command (a prohibition) is expressed by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ with or without the particle $\mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, as in (5) and (7):

Bring me a glass of water.

Be quiet at last!
 Do bring us some ice too (please).

4 Eтoı $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! Get ready quickly!

Don't get ready so early.

## $6 \quad N \alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \varepsilon \iota \alpha \mu \varepsilon ́ \sigma \omega \varsigma$.

(S)he should come immediately.

Don't interrupt him when he's speaking.

### 10.5 Yes/no questions

Yes/no interrogative sentences seek the answer 'yes' or 'no'. Whereas in English these questions are characterized by an inversion of the subject and verb ('Are you coming?'), in Greek they are characterized simply by the question intonation (rise of the voice pitch followed by a slight fall at the end of the sentence; see section 1.9). Sometimes they are accompanied by the particles $\dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'I wonder' or $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ s 'could it be the case that', which reduce the directness of the question and make it perhaps more polite. The verb in yes/no interrogative sentences may be either in the indicative (1, 2, $5,6)$ or in the subjunctive (3-4):
 Have you had any news from John?

Will Mary come to England this year?

Should we invite him too?

What do you think? Shouldn't we take him with us?
 Did his behaviour bother you, by any chance?

Will they go on holiday together, I wonder?

### 10.5.I Alternative yes/no questions

These consist of a positive interrogative clause and a negative interrogative clause (or simply the particle ó $\boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\imath}$ ' $n o$ '), separated by the conjunction $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$ 'or':

Do you love him or don't you love him?

## b $\operatorname{Tov} \alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \alpha ́ \varsigma ~ \grave{\eta}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{1}$;

Do you love him or not?

These are formed by adding the tag question évol $\boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ éval；or $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ívat $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\tau \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \iota }}$ ；at the end of a statement：

8 O Гı́́рүоя $\alpha \pi о ч \alpha ́ \sigma ı \sigma \varepsilon ~ v \alpha ~ \mu \varepsilon i ́ v \varepsilon ı, ~ ச ́ \tau \sigma ı ~ \delta \varepsilon v ~ \varepsilon i ́ v \alpha ı ; / \delta \varepsilon v ~$ عívaı $\dot{\varepsilon} \tau \sigma \iota ;$
George decided to stay，didn＇t he？

## 10．6 Wh－questions

These sentences use the appropriate question word to ask a question about one constituent of the sentence．Question words are the pronouns and determiners $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$＇who，which＇， $\boldsymbol{\tau \boldsymbol { l }}$＇what＇，and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$＇how much＇，and the
 ＇when＇．Examples 8－10 illustrate the use of determiners with nouns．Note that the verb of such questions may be in the indicative，as in examples $1-3$ and $5-9$ ，or in the subjunctive，as in examples 4 and 10 ：

I Пoıoऽ $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ı ~ \alpha v \tau \varepsilon ́ \varsigma ~ \tau ı \varsigma ~ \alpha v o \eta \sigma i ́ \varepsilon \varsigma ; ~}$
Who says these silly things？
2 Hoıov $\theta \alpha$ ч $\quad$ ¢íбeıs；
Who will you vote for？

What made such an impression on her？
4 Пov́ v人 $\pi \alpha ́ \mu \varepsilon$ रı $\alpha \boldsymbol{\delta} \alpha \kappa о \pi \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma ;$
Where should we go for a holiday？

Why don＇t you like Theodorakis？
6 Пóte $\theta \alpha$ үívovv єкえоүと́s；
When will the elections take place？

How many will you invite to your party？

Which book didn＇t you manage to read？


Which friend of yours should I give the letter to?
Note that in questions involving prepositions the preposition must precede the appropriate question word or phrase. Unlike in English, the two elements (preposition and wh- word) cannot be separated (see example 10). Here are some further examples:

II ME $\pi о \iota o$ بí $\lambda o \tau \eta \varsigma \mu \alpha ́ \lambda \omega \sigma \varepsilon ;$
Which friend of hers did she quarrel with?
 Where did you buy those beautiful shoes from?
$13 \quad \Gamma \imath \alpha \pi о \iota \alpha \mu \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \rho v \alpha ́ s ;$ Who do you take me for? (female speaker)

## I0.6.I Multiple questions

As in English, it is possible to question more than one constituent in a sentence, but only one of these may appear at the beginning of the sentence (14-15) unless the two are co-ordinated (16):
$14 \quad$ Te v人 $\rho \omega \tau \dot{\eta} \sigma \omega$ rotov;
What should I ask of whom?
$15 \quad \Sigma \varepsilon \pi o \iota o v \nu \alpha \delta \omega ́ \sigma \omega \tau$;
To whom should I give what?

Why and with what money will you buy a car?

### 10.7 Negation

As in the case of questions, negation may apply to the whole sentence or to one of its constituents.

### 10.7.1 Sentence negation

A sentence is negated by one of the two negative particles $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ or $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$. For indicative sentences the negative particle is $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$, which is placed before the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}(2)$; for subjunctive sentences the negative particle is $\boldsymbol{\mu \eta} \boldsymbol{v}$, which is placed after the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma(3-4)$ :

2 O Кळ́б $\tau \alpha \varsigma \delta \varepsilon v \theta \alpha \tau \eta \varsigma \tau \sigma ~ \sigma v \gamma \chi \omega \rho \eta ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota ~ \alpha v \tau o ́ . ~$
Kostas won't forgive her for this.
 You shouldn't believe what they tell you.
 Let's not invite him, then.

A negative command or suggestion may be expressed with or without the particle $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ :
 Don't interrupt me now.
 Don't sit in the sun so long.

A single-word negative command is expressed with the prohibitive particle $\mu \eta$ ! 'don't!'

### 10.7.2 Negative interrogative sentences

These sentences consist of a negative sentence pronounced with an interrogative intonation:
$7 \Delta \varepsilon v \theta \alpha$ G $\alpha v \alpha ́ \rho \theta \varepsilon \iota ~ \sigma \tau \eta \nu$ E $\lambda \lambda \alpha \dot{\alpha} \delta \alpha ;$
Won't (s)he come to Greece again?
$8 \quad N \alpha \mu \eta v \tau \sigma v \delta \omega \sigma \omega \lambda i ́ \gamma \alpha \lambda \varepsilon \varphi \tau \alpha ́ ;$
Shouldn't I give him some money?

### 10.7.3 Negation with indefinite pronoun, determiner or adverbial

A non-specific indefinite pronoun (section 4.6) or adverbial ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 by a negative particle, can be used to form a negative sentence:
$9 \Delta \varepsilon v \tau \eta \varsigma \mu i ́ \lambda \eta \sigma \varepsilon \kappa \alpha v \varepsilon i ́ \varsigma ~ \sigma \tau о ~ \pi \alpha ́ \rho \tau t . ~$
No one spoke to her at the party.

 He doesn't trust any of his friends.

Don't ever come back!

You shouldn't go anywhere at such a time.
The indefinite items, such as those in italics above, have an indefinite meaning when used in positive or negative questions and commands:
 Will anybody speak to her at the party, I wonder?

## $15 \Delta \varepsilon v \theta \alpha \pi \alpha ́ \rho \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon$ каl к $\alpha v \varepsilon ́ v \alpha$ бокод $\tau \tau \alpha ́ \kappa \iota ;$ Won't you take a little chocolate?

 Take a coat with you.

## 17 Пท่ $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v \theta \varepsilon v \alpha ́ \alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi \theta \varepsilon \varsigma ; ~}$

 Did you go anywhere yesterday?These indefinite items have a negative meaning in sentences containing $\chi \omega \rho i \varsigma^{\prime}$ 'without' (18-19). They also have a negative meaning if they are in embedded subjunctive clauses following a negated main verb (20-21):
 Here he can read without anyone bothering him.

## 19 'Hp日ะ $\chi \omega \rho i ́ \varsigma ~ v \alpha ~ к \rho \alpha \tau \alpha ́ \varepsilon ı ~ \tau i ́ \pi о \tau \alpha . ~$

(S)he came without bringing anything.

(S)he doesn't want to learn anything.

He doesn't expect any friend of his to come.
When these indefinite items are used as single-word replies to a preceding question, they also have a negative meaning:
$22-\Sigma \varepsilon \pi \operatorname{mot} \boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \varepsilon \varsigma \boldsymbol{\alpha v} \tau \dot{\alpha} ;$
Who are you telling these things?

- $\Sigma \varepsilon$ каvévav.

No one.
$23-$-Пó $\tau \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon \lambda о \sigma \pi \alpha ́ v \tau \omega \nu \quad \theta \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma} \beta \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varepsilon \varepsilon v \tau \varepsilon i ́ s ;$
When will you ever get serious?
-Пот́́.
Never.

### 10.7.4 Constituent negation with ó $\chi$ l

The negative particle ó $\chi \mathbf{\imath}$ 'not' may be used to negate a word or phrase by being placed in front of this word or phrase.
 A $\gamma \gamma \lambda i ́ \alpha$.
I would like to take a trip, but not to England.
 Helen loves Stephen, not Kostas.
 Not only does she like him, but she's crazy about him.
10.7.5 Constituent negation with ovive

Constituent negation with ov́ve 'not even' is exemplified in example 27:
$27 \Delta \varepsilon v \mu \pi \mathbf{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ í ov́ $\tau \varepsilon$ 反vo $\beta \eta \dot{\mu} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ va ко́vet.
(S)he can't take even a couple of steps.
10.7.6 Constituent negation with ov́ $\tau \varepsilon \ldots$. . ov́ $\tau \varepsilon \ldots$

The expression ov́ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. . . ov่ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \ldots$. is used in negative sentences accompanying any word or phrase:
$28 \Delta \varepsilon v$ тov $\varepsilon i ́ \delta \alpha$ ov́ $\tau \varepsilon \tau \eta \Delta \varepsilon v \tau \varepsilon ́ \rho \alpha$ ov́ $\tau \varepsilon \tau \eta \nu$ Tрí $\tau \eta$.
I didn't see him either on Monday or on Tuesday.

I don't like either seeing you or hearing you.

### 10.7.7 Constituent negation with $\mu \eta \nu$ and $\mu \eta$

The negative particle $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ is generally used to negate gerunds (30-31), while the negative particle $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$, without final $\boldsymbol{v}$, is used to negate nouns (32-33) and adjectives (34), and occurs in some idiomatic expressions (35) (see also
 Not knowing who it was, (s)he spoke to him rather abruptly.


You will do what I say whether you like it or not.
 Evן由лаíovs.
These products are more expensive for non-Europeans.

This room is for non-smokers.

for non-serious reasons

May it not get any worse (= God forbid)!

### 10.8 Exclamations

These are expressions indicating surprise, both positive and negative, delight, admiration, etc. They are pronounced with a high pitch, which remains high throughout the exclamatory construction. Typical exclamations are introduced by $\boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\imath}$ 'what' or $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{o}$ 'how much', usually followed by an adjective or an adverb, sometimes followed by a clause introduced by $\pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'that'.

How beautiful Mary's eyes are!

How beautiful Helen is!

How badly (s)he behaves!
Tı крíl $\alpha$ лоv $\chi \omega \rho i \sigma \alpha v \varepsilon!$
What a pity they split up!

### 10.9 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are subordinate clauses that modify nouns. They are introduced by the relative pronoun phrase $\mathbf{o}$ onoios 'who, which, that' or by the indeclinable particle $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{0}$ (same meanings). In formal discourse o otoíos is preferred, while in casual discourse $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ is more frequent. Even in casual speech, o олоios is preferred when its syntactic function in the relative clause requires the genitive or when it is in a prepositional or adverbial phrase. Relative clauses can be divided into restrictive or non-restrictive. A restrictive relative clause provides necessary information for the identification of the noun to which it refers, while a non-restrictive relative clause adds some extra information as an afterthought. The second type is set off by pauses or commas. Examples 1-3 are restrictive relative clauses, while 4-5 are non-restrictive:
 $\sigma 0 v$.
The gentleman who came to see me was a fellow student of yours.
 Have you read the book (that) I lent you?
 Mapía.
We went and saw the film (that) Mary spoke to us about.
 $\delta \eta \mu о \varphi \iota \lambda \varepsilon i ́ \varsigma \pi о \imath \eta \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma \mu \alpha \varsigma, \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \rho \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon \gamma \lambda \omega \sigma \sigma \alpha \mu \iota \kappa \tau \eta \dot{\eta}$. Cavafy, who is one of our most popular poets, wrote in a mixed language.
 аvvлóqороя.
They also brought John along, who is unbearable.
Note that the relative pronoun or particle can never be omitted, as it sometimes can be in English.

It is possible, especially in cases of non-restrictive relative clauses, to find the relative phrase followed by a second instance of the noun it modifies, as in example 6:


Last Sunday we went to see Sophie, who has become very elegant.

The relative phrase may be the object of a preposition (3 and 7-9). In such cases the relative phrase $\mathbf{0}$ otoíos follows the preposition:
 $\pi \lambda п р о р о р i ́ \varepsilon \varsigma . ~$
These are the people (that) we got information from.

Who are these people (that) you are quarrelling with?
 екк $\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{i} \alpha$.
The school is the building next to which is the church.
When the relative phrase in the genitive case depends on a noun, it may either precede or follow the noun:

 My friend, whose mother is a teacher...

### 10.9.I Relative clauses introduced by $\pi 0 v$

The indeclinable particle $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ may be used to introduce a relative clause, in which case it can refer to the subject (11), the direct object (12), or the indirect object (13):
 Who is the author who got the Nobel last year?

I2 $\Theta \alpha \pi \alpha \dot{\alpha} \omega v \alpha \delta \omega \tau \eta \gamma ı \alpha \tau o ́ ~ \pi o v \mu o v \sigma v ́ \sigma \tau \eta \sigma \varepsilon \varsigma$. I will visit the (female) doctor (who) you recommended to me.
 The young man who they gave the scholarship to deserved it.

In relative clauses introduced by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o v}$, where the particle refers to anything other than the subject, the appropriate weak pronoun may appear in the relative clause. This is optional for direct objects (14), but fairly regular with indirect objects (13) and adverbial phrases (15).
 кадó̧ $\mu \mathbf{\mu}$ 甲íдos.
I will visit a (female) doctor who a good friend of mine recommended to me.


The girl near whom Nick is sitting is his wife. (Cf. the equivalent construction with o oroios in 9 above)

Relative clauses indicating place, time or instrument can be introduced with $\pi \mathbf{0 v}$ with no accompanying weak pronoun. Their function is inferred from the context:
 The house (that) we lived in for so many years has been demolished.
 At the time (when) I was a student I lived with my uncle.
 $\tau 0 v \mu v \theta \imath \sigma \tau$ о́ $\rho \boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
The pen with which he wrote his first novel is in the museum.
To make the function of relative clauses introduced by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ clearer it is possible to use a prepositional phrase after it:

$20 \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\varepsilon} v \alpha \operatorname{\pi ov} \mu^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\alpha v} \tau \dot{\eta} v$ と́ $\gamma \rho \alpha \psi \varepsilon$. . . (= 18)
Relative clauses may be followed by the indicative, as in all the examples given above, or by the subjunctive. Typically relative clauses are in the subjunctive when the main clause is negative or interrogative, or when the main verb expresses a wish, as in the following sentences:
$\lambda \varepsilon \varphi \tau$ о́.
I don't know anybody who doesn't like money.
Do you know a shop that sells newspapers?

In these cases the relative clauses indicate 'of the kind that'.

### 10.9.2 Free relative clauses

In free relative clauses the relative clause does not modify a noun. These

 correlative adverbs ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'wherever', ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'whenever', ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'however', ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{o}$ 'as much as'. Examples 24a and 25a illustrate the use of free relatives as pronouns, while 24 b and 25 b show their use as determiners (see also section 4.7):

There you can find whatever your heart desires.
 There you find whatever food your heart desires.


(S)he gossips about anyone (s)he may meet.
 $\lambda 0 v \lambda o v ́ \delta i \alpha$.
In her house, wherever you look you will see flowers.
When the relative clause is the direct object of a verb and the phrase containing the pronoun or determiner is the subject of the relative clause intro-
 nominative. This occurs when the relative clause follows the main clause.

She likes only whoever flatters her.

She is afraid of anyone who approaches her.
A free relative clause may also be introduced by the correlative pronoun and determiner ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma o s}$ ' as much as':

I brought you figs so you can eat as many as you want.
 $\alpha \pi о \rho \rho i ́ \pi \tau \varepsilon$.
(S)he fails those who do not bring their work on time.

No matter how much she tortures him, he loves her. introduced by $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ :

I will give you however many you ask for.
Free relatives are also found with prepositional and adverbial phrases:

Whoever you speak to, they'll tell you the same thing.
 He will speak to you as you speak to him.

All correlative words may be followed by the expression $\boldsymbol{\kappa \iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ or $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ which emphasizes indefiniteness, as in 31 above and the examples below:

35 Еүढ́ $\theta \alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \pi \varepsilon \rho \imath \mu \dot{\varepsilon} v \omega$ о́лотє кц $\alpha \nu \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \varepsilon \imath \varsigma$. I will wait for you no matter when/whenever you come.
 No matter where/wherever I go I meet her.

37 'Обо кı $\alpha \nu \varepsilon \pi \iota \mu \varepsilon ́ v \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~ \delta \varepsilon v ~ \theta \alpha \mu \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon i ́ \sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma . ~$
No matter how much/however much you insist, you will not persuade me.

### 10.10 Indirect questions

Indirect questions follow main verbs of asking, wondering, etc., or expressions equivalent to these.

### 10.10.1 Questioning the whole sentence

An indirect question concerning the truth or falsity of a whole clause is introduced by the conjunction $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'whether' or $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \pi \omega \rho$ 'by any chance'. The verb is in the indicative:
 ó $\chi \mathbf{l}$ ).
They never asked me whether their music bothers me (or not).

2 Алорळ́ $\alpha v$ к $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \alpha \beta \alpha i ́ v e ı ~ \tau i ́ \pi о \tau \alpha . ~$

## 

She's wondering whether by any chance they're lying to her.
An indirect question may be in the subjunctive without the introductory conjunction $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ or $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \omega \varsigma$, as in example 4. These indirect questions are introduced by va because the direct speech equivalent sentence is a deliberative question ( $\mathbf{N} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{\eta} \mathbf{~} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{l}$; 'Should I marry him or not?’):
 She asked me several times whether she should marry him or not.

## IO.10.2 Questioning one constituent

If the constituent questioned is a noun phrase it is introduced by the appropriate question word (see section 10.6) used either on its own, as a pronoun (5), or as a determiner followed by the noun (6):
 I wonder who went and told him.
 I don't know which employee they will fire.

$(\mathrm{S})$ he is wondering who (s)he should give the car to.
If the questioned constituent is in the genitive and is part of another noun phrase, the question word may either precede or follow that noun phrase:

They asked whose father was a doctor.

They asked whose father was a doctor.
Indirect questions may also refer to prepositional and adverbial phrases:
 They didn't explain to us by what right they do these things.
 Ask her which store she bought her shoes from.

An indirect question about someone's profession or other quality is introduced by $\tau \boldsymbol{c}$ 'what':
 $\gamma \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ о́s;
I wonder what Mr Papadakis is - a teacher or a doctor?

Moreover, if the question concerns some quality or characteristic of a noun, the indirect question may be introduced by $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ عíठovs + noun, or more colloquially $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ót + noun 'what sort of x ':
 I wonder what sort of man he is after all.
 Now tell me what kind of brother he is.

The verb in an indirect question may be either in the indicative, as in the examples above, or in the subjunctive, as below:
 Let her tell us who to invite.
 Ask him which way we should go.

### 10.11 Indirect commands

The difference between direct and indirect positive commands is that, whereas for the former the verb is typically in the imperative mood, for the latter it is in the subjunctive:
 She asked him to leave her in peace.

2 Tov $\pi \alpha \rho \alpha к \alpha \lambda \varepsilon ́ \sigma \alpha \mu \varepsilon ~ v \alpha ~ \tau \eta ~ \sigma v v o \delta \varepsilon v ́ \sigma \varepsilon ı ~ \sigma \tau о ~ \chi о \rho o ́ . ~$ We asked him to accompany her to the dance.

In a direct negative command (prohibition), as described in section 10.4, the particle $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is optional, but it is obligatory in indirect negative commands:

3 Tov $\delta \iota \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \alpha \xi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{v} \alpha \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \iota$.
(S)he ordered him not to speak.

I demand that you do not interrupt me.

### 10.12 Complement clauses

Complement clauses may accompany a verb (1a-c), a noun (2) or an adjec-
 He was telling me that he doesn't like fish.
 Irene wants to study music.
 I was very sorry that Stephen got upset.
$2 \Delta \varepsilon v$ тоv $\alpha \rho \varepsilon ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota ~ \eta ~ \imath \delta \varepsilon ́ \alpha ~ v \alpha ~ \pi \alpha \nu \tau \rho \varepsilon v \tau о v ́ v ~ \tau o ́ \sigma o ~ \gamma \rho \dot{\eta} \gamma о \rho \alpha . ~$ He doesn't like the idea of them getting married so soon.

3 Eíval $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ íyovogos ótı tov álkov́v. He's sure that they're being unfair to him.

Each of these constructions will be described in detail below.

### 10.12.I Complement clauses as objects of a verb

These clauses may be divided according to the mood of their verb into indicative clauses and subjunctive clauses.

- Indicative clauses

There are three varieties of indicative clauses according to the complementizer that introduces them and the type of main verb that governs them:
(a) Indicative clauses following verbs of saying, thinking, believing, etc. are introduced by ó $\boldsymbol{\iota}$ or $\boldsymbol{\pi} \omega \varsigma$ 'that', as in example 4;
(b) Indicative clauses following verbs expressing psychological states (joy, sorrow, regret, etc.) are introduced by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \mathbf{v}(5)$;
(c) Indicative clauses following verbs expressing fear are introduced by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$. M $\boldsymbol{\eta} \pi \omega \varsigma$ is not a negative particle. Clauses introduced by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ are negated by $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ (compare 6a and 6b).
 Everybody believes (that) the war will continue.

(S)he told me that (s)he doesn't know you.

(S)he regretted telling (lit. 'that (s)he told') her the truth.

(S)he was upset (that) (s)he didn't manage to see him.

- Subjunctive clauses

Complement clauses in the subjunctive follow verbs of wishing, hoping, planning, requesting, promising, etc. They are introduced by the subjunctive particle $\boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and are negated by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{v}$ :
$7 \Theta \alpha \theta \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \alpha \mu \varepsilon \alpha \pi \lambda \dot{\varrho} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\nu} \tau \eta \varsigma \mu \lambda \lambda \dot{\eta} \sigma о v \mu \varepsilon$. We would just like to speak to her.
$8 \Theta \alpha \varphi \rho о \nu \tau i \sigma \omega v \alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \theta \omega$ v $\omega \rho i ́ s$. l'll take care to come early.
 I hope (that) John won't be late.

Subjunctive complement clauses also follow verbs expressing perception, such as 'hear', 'see', 'feel', etc. In similar circumstances English may use the -ing form of the verb.

10 Tov عí $\delta \alpha \mu \varepsilon v \alpha \pi \varepsilon \rho \pi \alpha \tau \alpha \dot{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \iota \pi 0 \lambda$ v́ $\beta ı \alpha \sigma \tau \iota \kappa o ́ \varsigma . ~$ We saw him walking in a great hurry.
 You'll never hear Clea complaining.

12 Tఛ $\nu \dot{\varepsilon} v \iota \omega \sigma \alpha$ va $\tau \rho \varepsilon ́ \mu \varepsilon \iota$. I felt her trembling.

Some verbs of saying, thinking etc. that normally take an ótı-clause may also be followed by a $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clause. The difference between these two is that the ó $\tau \boldsymbol{\iota}$-clause implies more objective judgement while the $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clause implies more subjective, more emotional judgement, coloured with a degree of wishing:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { I3 } & \text { Hıб } \tau \varepsilon \mathbf{v} \omega \text { ó } \tau \iota \theta \alpha \mu \alpha \varsigma ~ \pi \lambda \eta \rho \omega ́ \sigma o v v ~ \\
\boldsymbol{\eta} \nu \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \eta \Delta \varepsilon v \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \alpha . \\
\text { I believe (that) they will pay us next Monday. }
\end{array}
$$


I'm worried (that) something may have happened to him.
b $\operatorname{Av\eta \sigma v\chi \dot {\prime }\mu \dot {\eta }\pi \omega \varsigma ~\delta \varepsilon v\dot {\varepsilon }\rho \theta \varepsilon ı.~}$
I'm worried (that) (s)he may not come.
Note that, unlike the English 'that', the complementizers ó $\boldsymbol{\tau} / \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$, $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\mu \dot{\eta} \pi \omega \varsigma$ cannot be omitted.

After verbs of perception we may also find an ótı-clause, as in examples 15 and 16. However, here the verb implies information rather than direct perception:

## 

We heard that (s)he sold the house too.

## 16 Eídes $\lambda \mathbf{~ o 七 \pi o ́ v ~ o ́ t ı ~ \varepsilon i ́ \chi \alpha ~ \delta i ́ k ı o ; ~}$

You see (lit. 'Did you see') now that I was right?
The verbs $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I know' and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ív $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I learn' may also be followed either by an ótr-clause, in which case they convey knowledge as information (17-18), or by a va-clause, in which case they convey knowledge as ability or skill (19-20):

## $17 \quad$ ' $\boldsymbol{\mu} \mu \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ о́ $\tau \iota \tau \eta \varsigma \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \varepsilon \gamma \alpha v \psi \dot{\varepsilon} \mu \alpha \tau \alpha$.

She found out (that) they were lying to her.

He knows (that) he's very good at his work.
 (S)he learned not to pay much attention to his words.

(S)he knows how to make very tasty dolmadakia.

Sometimes a complement clause may co-occur with a neuter weak pronoun attached to the main verb. This happens more frequently with indicative clauses introduced by ótı, and sometimes with subjunctive clauses introduced by $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or indicative clauses introduced by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{v v}$ :
 I didn't realize (that) you wanted to speak to me.

22 To $\mu \varepsilon \tau \alpha ́ v \iota \omega \sigma \varepsilon \varsigma$ ó $\tau \iota / \pi \sigma v$ ท́ $\rho \theta \varepsilon \varsigma ;$
Have you regretted coming?

(S)he wanted very much to meet him.

### 10.12.2 Complement clauses with impersonal verbs or impersonal expressions

Impersonal verbs such as paiverat 'it seems', $\boldsymbol{\pi \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \rho \boldsymbol { \alpha } \zeta \boldsymbol { \varepsilon \iota }}$ 'it matters, it bothers', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'it pleases', etc., and impersonal expressions such as $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ívat к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ ó 'it's good', عíval $\lambda v \pi \eta \rho o ́$ 'it's sad', عíval $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \omega \sigma \tau$ ó 'it's right', عíval

Complement clauses clause may be introduced with either ó $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ or $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ depending on the meaning of the main verb:
 It seems to me (that) they'll be late again.
 It bothers him that (s)he speaks to him so sharply.
$26 \Sigma \operatorname{\Sigma ov} \alpha \rho \varepsilon ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota v \alpha \tau \alpha \xi ı \delta \varepsilon v ́ \varepsilon ı \varsigma ;$ Do you like to travel?
 It's obvious that the situation will get worse.

28 Eívaı $\pi \iota \theta \alpha v o ́ v$ v $\alpha$ بо́ It's likely (that) we'll be leaving on Sunday.
 It's a pity (that) we won't meet after all.

## IO.I2.3 Complement clauses governed by adjectives and nouns

A complement clause may be governed by either an adjective (30-32) or a noun (33-34):

30 Eíval $\lambda v \pi \eta \mu \varepsilon ́ v o s ~ \pi o v ~ \theta \alpha ~ \varphi v ́ \gamma \varepsilon ı . ~$
He's sad that he is leaving.
 She's used to being pampered.
 She's certain (that) they're following her.
 She lives with the fear that she'll be burgled.
 (S)he's very happy (that) (s)he's going to see him again.

## IO.I2.4 Clauses functioning as noun phrases

A complement clause functioning as the subject (35a and 36) or object (35b) of a verb is introduced by the neuter definite article $\tau \mathbf{\sigma}$. If the clause
weak pronoun $\boldsymbol{\tau}$. The definite article preceding the complement clause is generally found when the complement clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence:
 It is known to everybody that he is stubborn.
 Everybody knows (that) he is stubborn.

36 To va $\pi \rho o \sigma \pi \alpha \theta \varepsilon i ́ \varsigma ~ v \alpha$ tov $\pi \varepsilon i ́ \sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~ \varepsilon i ́ v \alpha l ~ \mu \alpha ́ \tau \alpha l o . ~$ It's futile to try to convince him.

Clauses functioning as noun phrases can also occur as objects of prepositions:
 You won't persuade him by grumbling all the time.
 The moment she saw him coming in, she turned bright red.

### 10.13 Conditional constructions

Conditional constructions consist of a conditional clause (if-clause), referred to as the protasis, and a main clause, referred to as the apodosis. Conditional clauses are typically introduced by $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{v}$, $\dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\mu \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ (all meaning
 $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ 'in the event that', or $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varphi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'provided that'. Other more

 tional clauses introduced by the conjunctions or expressions listed above is $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$. A protasis may occasionally be introduced by the subjunctive particle $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, in which case the verb is negated by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$. The protasis may either precede or follow the apodosis. Conditional constructions may be divided into factual and counterfactual.

### 10.13.1 Factual conditional clauses

In a factual conditional construction, if the condition stated in the protasis is fulfilled, it follows that what the main clause (the apodosis) describes is, has been, will be or can be fulfilled also. In the protasis of factual conditionals the verb may be in any tense or aspect other than the pluperfect, conditionals are presented in the following sentences:
 If you're trying to persuade him, you're making a big mistake.
$2 A v(\theta \alpha) \tau 0 v \pi \alpha \rho \alpha \kappa \alpha \lambda \varepsilon ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota \varsigma ~ \theta \alpha ~ \sigma o v ~ \kappa \alpha ́ v \varepsilon ı ~ \tau \eta ~ \chi \alpha ́ \rho \eta . ~$ If you ask him, he'll do you the favour.
$3 \quad N \alpha \tau o v \delta \varepsilon ı \varsigma \tau \omega \rho \alpha \theta \alpha \tau o v \lambda v \pi \eta \theta \varepsilon i ́ \varsigma$. If you see him now, you'll feel sorry for him.
 $\theta \dot{\varepsilon} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu}$.
If they met, they most probably spoke about this matter too.
 $\alpha \mu \varepsilon ́ \sigma \omega \varsigma$.
If he so much as smiles at her sweetly, she immediately forgives him.
 Whether you speak to him or don't speak to him, it makes no difference (lit. 'it makes the same').
 If you got upset by what I said, I ask your forgiveness.

8 'А $\mu \alpha$ б $\varepsilon \varepsilon v о \chi \lambda \varepsilon i ́ ~ о ~ к \alpha \pi v o ́ \varsigma, ~ \alpha ́ v o ı \xi \varepsilon ~ \tau о ~ \pi \alpha \rho \alpha ́ \theta v \rho o . ~$ If the smoke bothers you, open the window.
 If you finish early come and see us (lit. 'so that you see us').

## IO.I3.2 Counterfactual conditionals

In counterfactual conditionals the protasis expresses a situation which has not been realized in the past or is not being realized in the present and as a consequence the content of the apodosis is also not realized or cannot be realized. In the protasis of counterfactual conditionals, the verb is either in the imperfect or the pluperfect, while in the apodosis the verb is either in the conditional or the perfect conditional. If the sentence refers to the past, any of these verb forms may be used (10). If the sentence does not refer to the past, only the imperfect and conditional may be used; thus a conditional sentence that uses the imperfect and the conditional may refer equally to the past or the present or the future (11-13).


c $A v \varepsilon i ́ \chi \varepsilon ~ \sigma \tau \varepsilon i ́ \lambda \varepsilon ı ~ \varepsilon к \varepsilon i ́ v o ~ \tau о ~ \gamma \rho \alpha ́ \mu \mu \alpha ~ \theta \alpha ~ \tau о v ~ \varepsilon i ́ \chi \varepsilon ~ \pi \varepsilon i ́ \sigma \varepsilon ı . ~$ If (s)he had sent that letter (s)he would have persuaded him.

II $A v \dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau \varepsilon \lambda v \varepsilon \varepsilon \kappa \varepsilon$ ívo to $\gamma \rho \alpha ́ \mu \mu \alpha$ $\theta \alpha \tau o v \dot{\varepsilon} \pi \varepsilon \imath \theta \varepsilon$. If (s)he sent that letter (s)he would persuade him OR If (s)he had sent that letter (s)he would have persuaded him.

12 Av к $\alpha \tau \alpha \alpha \dot{\beta} \alpha \iota v \varepsilon \varsigma ~ \tau \eta ~ \sigma \tau \varepsilon v о \chi ळ ́ \rho ı \alpha \mu о v ~ \delta \varepsilon v ~ \theta \alpha \mu \iota \lambda о v ́ \sigma \varepsilon \varsigma ~$ $\dot{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{l}$.
If you understood my distress you wouldn't speak like this $O R$ If you had understood my distress you wouldn't have spoken like that.

I3 $\Delta \varepsilon v \theta \alpha \operatorname{\tau ov} \pi \alpha v \tau \rho \varepsilon v o ́ \tau \alpha v \varepsilon \pi о \tau \varepsilon ́ \alpha v ~ \delta \varepsilon v ~ \tau o v ~ \alpha \gamma \alpha \pi o v ́ \sigma \varepsilon . ~$ She would never marry him if she didn't love him OR She would never have married him if she didn't love him.

### 10.14 Concessive clauses

Concessive clauses express a concession on the part of the speaker. They are indicative subordinate clauses introduced by the following expressions:

 that'. The concessive clause usually precedes the main clause, but it is also possible for the main clause to precede the concessive clause.

Although (s)he doesn't read much, (s)he knows a lot.
 Although we warned him, he didn't listen to us.
 In spite of the fact that (s)he has a lot of money, (s)he's tight-fisted. Concessive clauses may also be introduced by кı $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ' 'even though'. These are negated by the particle $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$.
 I like this house very much, even though it's small.
 She decided to go even though she didn't have an invitation.

### 10.15 Temporal clauses

Temporal clauses state whether the action of the verb of the main clause takes place before, will take place after or takes place at the same time as that of the main clause. The most common conjunction to introduce a temporal clause is ó $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ 'when'. Other temporal expressions are $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'when',



 junctions ó $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{\chi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{\imath} \varsigma, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \mathbf{o v}$, ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau \boldsymbol { \varepsilon }}$ may be followed by the dependent when not referring to the past (3-5). Evळ́, ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma o}$, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v o ́} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o v}$ are typically followed by the present or imperfect (6). $\Pi \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'before' combine only with the dependent, with or without $\boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (7). Mé $\chi \boldsymbol{\rho \varepsilon}$ 'until' is followed by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ and the indicative when the temporal clause refers to a real action (8). ' $\boldsymbol{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ 'until' may be followed by $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ when the temporal clause refers to a potential rather than a real action (9).
 When the cat's away the mice will play!
 When (s)he read his letter (s)he was very moved.
 After you finish, call me.

4 'Олотє то $\alpha \pi о \varphi \alpha \sigma i \sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma$ غ́ $\lambda \alpha$. Come whenever you decide.
 As soon as (s)he sees him (s)he'll realize that he's angry.
 $\pi \rho о ́ \beta \lambda \eta \mu \alpha$.
While he was drinking his coffee, I explained the problem to him.
 тo $\sigma \pi i \tau \mathrm{l}$.
You must speak to Nick before you sell the house.

(S)he kept on eating until (s)he burst.
$9 \Theta \alpha \varepsilon \pi \iota \mu \varepsilon ́ v \omega \mu \varepsilon ́ \chi \rho \imath v \alpha \sigma \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon i ́ \sigma \omega$.
I will persist until I persuade you.

### 10.16 Clauses of manner

These clauses describe the manner in which the action of the verb happens, will happen or happened. They are typically introduced by the manner conjunctions ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 与 and $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'as', or the expressions $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'in such a way', ó $\boldsymbol{\pi} \omega \varsigma \boldsymbol{\kappa \iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'in whatever way'. These conjunctions and expressions are followed by a verb in the indicative.

I T T $\pi \rho \alpha \dot{\gamma} \gamma \mu \alpha \alpha \alpha$ عíval $\delta v \sigma \tau v \chi \omega ́ \varsigma ~ o ́ \pi \omega \varsigma ~ \mu o v ~ \tau \alpha ~$ $\pi \varepsilon \rho ı \dot{\varepsilon} \gamma \rho \propto \psi \varepsilon \varsigma$.
Matters are unfortunately as you described them to me.


She cooked the artichokes as her grandmother had shown her.

## 

 No matter how we look at it, Irene is right.
### 10.17 Clauses of purpose (final clauses)

Purpose (or final) clauses are typically introduced by $\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'for' followed immediately by the particle va. No other word may intervene between the two. After verbs of motion $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ may be omitted.
 We invited her too in order to prevent her complaining (lit. 'in order that she not complain').

(S)he came to see her but she was out.

### 10.18 Clauses of result

Result clauses are frequently introduced by $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0 v}$ 'that' or $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'so that' followed by a verb in the indicative or subjunctive. In such sentences the main clause often contains the quantitative and qualitative words $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varsigma$ § so much'


 $\mu o ́ v \eta$ тทs.
We mustn't say anything to her so that she can decide on her own.
 $\pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
He has told so many lies (that) nobody believes him any more.


They built the house in such a way that it will withstand earthquakes.


We'll explain the situation to you in such a way that you will have a complete picture.

Note that the $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ or $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, unlike English 'that' in (3), cannot be omitted. The meaning of result may also be expressed by $\gamma \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ :
 pí̀o.
You must be very lucky to find such a friend.

### 10.19 Clauses of cause

These are introduced by a variety of conjunctions, namely $\gamma \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} i$ or more
 $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ 'since', followed by a verb in the indicative. When a clause expressing cause is introduced by $\gamma \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{i}$ or $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ it generally follows the main clause (1). When it is introduced by one of the other conjunctions it can either precede or follow the main clause (2-5).
 We won't pay you, because we don't have any money.
$2 E \pi \varepsilon \iota \delta \dot{\eta} \delta \varepsilon v$ коч $\boldsymbol{\eta} \theta \eta к \varepsilon \chi \theta \varepsilon \varsigma$ то $\beta \rho \alpha ́ \delta v, ~ v \iota \omega ́ \theta \varepsilon \iota ~ \pi о \lambda v ́$ коираб $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \mathbf{v}$.
Because he didn't sleep last night, he feels very tired.

Since he gave you his word, you have to believe him.

4 Káve $\lambda 0 \iota \pi o ́ v$ ó, 兀ı $\theta \varepsilon ́ \lambda \varepsilon ı \varsigma, ~ \alpha \varphi o v ́ ~ \varepsilon \pi \iota \mu \varepsilon ́ v \varepsilon ı \varsigma ~ \tau о \sigma o ~ \pi o \lambda v ́ . ~$ Do what you like then, since you insist so much.
 As you are here now, come and help me.

## Other syntactic phenomena

### 10.20 Word order, topicalization and focusing

### 10.20.1 Word order

Unlike English, Greek is a highly inflected language. This means that the subject and object of a clause are normally clearly indicated by the form of the noun phrases that make up the subject and object; the subject is in the nominative case, while the direct object is in the accusative. For this reason, the word order of Greek is far more flexible than English.

In English the two sentences below do not mean the same thing:

## la The dog bit Michael.

b Michael bit the dog.
It is the word order that distinguishes the meaning of these two sentences: in English, the subject normally precedes the verb, while the object normally follows it.

In Greek, since subject and object are distinguished by their form, word order is far less crucial for the meaning of the sentence. This means that the following five sentences have approximately the same meaning:

b Tov Mı $\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta \delta \dot{\alpha} \gamma \kappa \omega \sigma \varepsilon$ о $\sigma \kappa v ́ \lambda о \varsigma$.
c Tov Mı $\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta$ о $\sigma \kappa v i \lambda o s ~ \tau o v ~ \delta \alpha ́ \gamma к \omega \sigma \varepsilon . ~$
d $\Delta \dot{\alpha} \gamma \kappa \omega \sigma \varepsilon$ о $\sigma \kappa v ́ \lambda о \varsigma ~ \tau о v ~ M ı \chi \alpha ́ \lambda \eta \eta . ~$
e $\quad \Delta \dot{\alpha} \gamma \kappa \omega \sigma \varepsilon \operatorname{\tau ov}$ Mı $\chi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta$ о $\sigma \kappa v ́ \lambda о \varsigma . ~$ The dog bit Michael.

### 10.20.2 Topicalization and focusing

When we speak, we often use sentences that convey completely new information. For instance, if we are beginning a conversation about something that the other person knows nothing about, we may say something like,

Word order, topicalization and focusing this case, 1a would convey totally new information. More often, though, we combine words or phrases that refer to what has already been mentioned in the conversation with words and phrases that convey new information. For instance, the person we are talking to may know that the dog bit someone, but may be uncertain who this was. In English we have different ways of distinguishing new information from already known information; we can place heavy stress on the new element (3a), and we can optionally place it in an 'It is/was . . . that . . .' construction (3b).

## 3a The dog bit Michael (with heavy stress on 'Michael'). <br> b It was Michael (that) the dog bit.

The same applies if we want to make it clear which animal (e.g. the dog rather than the cat) bit Michael:

## 4a The dog bit Michael (with heavy stress on 'dog'). <br> b It was the dog that bit Michael.

If it is the verb that we want to emphasize (if, for instance, the other person doubts or denies that the dog bit Michael, or if the action is presented as a complete surprise), we can use the auxiliary 'do/did' with the verb (5a) or we can use an adverb such as 'actually' (5b):

## 5a The dog did bite Michael. <br> b The dog actually bit Michael.

In examples (3-5) the element in italics, i.e. the new information that is emphasized, is called the focus. Conversely, any noun phrase that is already known and agreed on by the speakers is called the topic of the sentence. The topic in example 3 is 'the dog', in 4 it is 'Michael', while in 5 both 'the dog' and 'Michael' are topics.

In Greek, as in English, heavy stress is used to indicate the focus of a sentence, but constructions such as 'It is/was . . . that . . .' are not frequently used, and there is no equivalent in Greek of the use of 'do/did' as an auxiliary verb. Instead, Greek uses an important device for indicating topic and focus, namely the use or non-use of weak pronouns referring to the object.

In examples 2 a and 2 d above, in which the order is subject-verb-object or verb-subject-object and there is no weak pronoun, we have a sentence that could be used after saying 'Did you hear what happened?', that is, a sentence that consists of entirely new information and therefore one that has no topic and no focus.

A weak pronoun can be used together with an object noun phrase to show that the object is the topic and that the focus is some other element in the sentence (usually the subject or the verb, but sometimes an adverbial). A weak pronoun that refers to the object of a clause is called a doubling pronoun. This is the case with example 2c on p. 229. In this sentence 'Michael' is the topic, while the focus may be either 'the dog' or 'bit', depending on which of these elements is heavily stressed. Thus 2c might be translated in any of the following ways:

6 It was the dog that bit Michael.
7a The dog did bite Michael.
b The dog actually bit Michael.
Conversely, in 2 b on p. 229, where the object is placed first but there is no doubling pronoun, the object is the focus. Thus example 2 b could be translated as:

8 It was Michael (that) the dog bit.
If we wanted to make Michael into the topic (as in example 6), we would have to use a doubling pronoun:

## 

Indirect objects behave in exactly the same way as direct objects as far as topicalization and focusing are concerned:
$10 \operatorname{Tov} \Gamma \iota \alpha ́ v v \eta \boldsymbol{\delta \varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\theta} \alpha \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \sigma 0 v v \varepsilon \alpha \dot{\alpha} \xi \eta \sigma \eta$. It's John they won't give a pay rise to.

## II Tov Гıávvŋ $\delta \varepsilon v$ 日a $\operatorname{\tau ov} \delta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \sigma o v v e \alpha v ́ \xi \eta \sigma \eta$.

They won't give a pay rise to John.
To sum up, the most neutral word order in Greek tends to be either subject-verb-object or verb-subject-object. If we want to place particular emphasis on some element of the sentence, we can introduce a doubling pronoun that refers to the object to show that we are emphasizing some element other than the object; this element is usually the subject or the verb, but it can be an adverbial, as in 12 below:

 The dog bit Michael yesterday or It was yesterday (that) the dog bit Michael [as opposed to today].

Word order, topicalization and focusing

In such cases, the object may optionally be placed before the verb, as in 12a. place the object before the verb and omit the doubling pronoun, as in 2 b on p. 229.

### 10.21 Co-ordination

It is possible to co-ordinate any constituents, whether they be clauses, phrases or simple words. The most common conjunctions marking co-
 $\ldots$. . $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \ldots$. . 'either . . . or . . .', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or the more colloquial $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'but', ov́ $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ $\ldots$. . ov́ $\tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \ldots$. . 'neither . . . nor . . .', and ó $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'however'. 'O $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ is used for co-ordinating only clauses; it may appear either between the two clauses $(7 a)$, or at the end of the second item (7b), or between the phrases of the second member of the co-ordination (8).

## I 0.2 I. 1 Co-ordination of clauses:

 Tomorrow l'll see John and l'll speak to him about you.
 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{\circ}$.
I'll telephone Nick but I won't invite him here.
 Eえévŋ;
Finally will you tell me what's going on, or should I ask Helen?
 In any case I will go, whether you come or not.
 I have neither eaten nor drunk anything since yesterday.
 I told her but she doesn't want to believe it.

7a $\Theta \alpha \sigma \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \rho \iota \mu \varepsilon ́ v \omega \sigma \tau о \gamma \rho \alpha \varphi \varepsilon$ ío, о́ $\mu \omega \varsigma \mu \eta \nu$

b $\Theta \alpha \sigma \varepsilon \pi \varepsilon \rho ı \mu \varepsilon ́ v \omega \sigma \tau 0$ $\gamma \rho \alpha \varphi \varepsilon i ́ o, ~ \mu \eta \nu \kappa \alpha \theta v \sigma \tau \varepsilon \rho \eta \dot{\eta} \sigma \varepsilon ı \varsigma$ о́ $\mu \omega \varsigma$. l'll be waiting for you at the office but don't be late.
$8 \Theta \alpha$ чо́ $\mu \varepsilon \mu \alpha \zeta$ í, тоv $\lambda о \gamma \alpha \rho \imath \alpha \sigma \mu o ́ ~ о ́ \mu \omega \varsigma ~ \theta \alpha ~ \tau о v ~ \pi \lambda \eta \rho ळ ́ \sigma \omega ~$ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$.
We'll eat together but l'll pay the bill.

### 10.2 I.2 Co-ordination of other constituents:

 $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
I will buy the yellow shirt and the black bag.

You have to choose Spiros or me.
 It wasn't Mary but Helen who spoke to her.

I like it with or without oil.
The co-ordinating conjunctions $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$, ov́ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and $\mathfrak{\eta}$ may appear before both of the elements that are connected:
 $\chi 0 \rho \tau \dot{\alpha} \tau \sigma$.
They want both the dog well fed and the pie whole (i.e. they want to have their cake and eat it).
$14 \Delta \varepsilon v$ عíval ov́ $\tau \varepsilon \psi \eta \lambda$ ós ov́ $\tau \varepsilon$ коข $\boldsymbol{\kappa}$ ós.
He's neither tall nor short.
 $\chi \alpha \rho i ́ \sigma \omega$.
I don't know what to do. Either l'll sell it or l'll give it away.
In the above examples the conjunction is pronounced with heavy stress.
The co-ordinating conjunction к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{r}$ may also be used in the place of a subordinating conjunction. Some of these uses are exemplified below:

- K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ may replace $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o v}$ after verbs of perception:


I heard them whispering.

b 'A $\rho \chi \iota \sigma \nu$ va tov $\pi \alpha \rho \alpha \kappa о \lambda o v \theta o v ́ v . ~$ They started following him.

b $\Sigma v v \dot{\chi} \chi ı \zeta \varepsilon v \alpha \mu \alpha \varsigma \lambda \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon \iota ~ \psi \varepsilon ́ \mu \alpha \tau \alpha$.
He continued to lie to us.
- Kal may express result:

 What does he do to be so unlikeable?
- K $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ may replace a relative clause:
 instead of
 кобтои́ $\mu \mathrm{l}$.
In came a young man (who was) wearing a beautiful suit.
- Kal may express reason:


Switch off the TV because I want to sleep.
- K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ may express a condition:
 instead of
 Do this favour for me and I will give you whatever you want.


### 10.22 Comparison

Comparison may be expressed by means of the comparative form of an adjective or adverb. The second member of the comparison is introduced either by the preposition $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{o}+$ accusative (1), or by the genitive case of a weak pronoun (2). Паро́ may also introduce the second member of the comparison, which is in the same case as the first member (3). П $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is also
used when the elements compared are not noun phrases but clauses (4), prepositional phrases (5) or adverbials (6):
 $\mu \pi \alpha \kappa \alpha \lambda l \dot{\alpha} \rho o$.
At this time of the year salmon is more expensive than cod.
 Helen is far older than him.
 Mıхо́дクァ. It's better that Nikos escorts us rather than Michael.
 $\kappa \lambda \alpha i \varepsilon t$.
I prefer to do what he wants than to hear him cry.
 I work better in the office than at home.
 It's better that you come today than tomorrow.

The second member of the comparison may be omitted if it is easily understood:

##  <br> I think that it's better this way.

For the comparative form of adjectives and adverbs see sections 3.44 and 7.6 respectively.

## IO.22. I Correlative comparison

Correlative comparison indicates that the two elements possess a quality to the same degree. The first part is introduced by the adverb ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ' 'as much as' and the second by the adverb tó $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ' 'so much', or by the correlative pronoun and determiner ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ and the quantitative pronoun and determiner $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o}$ ¢:

I give you as many wishes as the sky has stars.
 $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$.
The more cheerful he is the more Kate gets irritated.

### 10.22.2 Equation

In equation the two members compared are identical with respect to a certain property. The second member of the equation is introduced by $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$, $\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}, \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ or $\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} . \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ is followed by the accusative when the second member of the comparison is a definite noun phrase (11-12), or the nominative when it is indefinite (13):

II To $\pi \varepsilon \pi$ óvı $\alpha v \tau o ́ ~ \varepsilon i ́ v \alpha l ~ \gamma \lambda v \kappa o ́ ~ \sigma \alpha v ~ \tau o ~ \mu \varepsilon ́ \lambda l . ~ . ~$ This melon is sweet like honey.
 Nick's clever like his father.
 He's laughing like an idiot.

If $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ precedes a $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clause, it has the meaning 'as if':

(S)he's looking at me as if (s)he hasn't seen me before.

If the second member of the equation is introduced by $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ the meaning is 'in one's capacity as' rather than 'like':

## 

I'm speaking to you as a specialist in this subject.
' $\mathbf{O} \boldsymbol{\pi} \omega \varsigma$ introduces the second member of the equation in the nominative case:

16 O Паv́̀os عíval $\tau \varepsilon \mu \pi \varepsilon ́ \lambda \eta \varsigma ~ o ́ \pi \omega \varsigma ~(\kappa \iota) ~ \varepsilon \sigma v ́ . ~$ Paul is lazy like you.
 (S)he walks slowly like a tortoise.

It is also possible to express equation by placing tó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o}$ before the first member of the equation and ó $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o}$ before the second. The first element of the equation may be omitted, as in example 20:

 Is he as indifferent as he wants to appear, I wonder?
$\Delta \varepsilon v$ عíval $\sigma о \beta \alpha \rho \eta ́ ~ o ́ \sigma o ~ \varepsilon \sigma v ́ . ~$
She's not as serious as you.

### 10.23 Reflexive expressions

Languages use special means for expressing a situation in which the subject of the sentence is both the actor of the verb and the patient (i.e. the recipient of the action). There are three ways of achieving this in Greek: (a) by the reflexive expression $\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'myself', (b) by a passive verb form, or (c) by the verbal prefix $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \mathbf{0}-$ attached to a passive verb form.
(a) The definite article $\mathbf{o}$ and the noun $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \alpha v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'self' of the reflexive phrase $\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'myself' appear most frequently in the accusative case when the reflexive expression is the direct object of the verb, as in examples $1-2$. The reflexive expression may also occur in a prepositional phrase (3-4). The definite article and the noun $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \alpha v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o} \varsigma$ are normally in the singular even when the possessive pronoun is in the plural (2):
 You must look after yourself.
 They only look after themselves and no one else.
 You should only trust yourself.
 Mary has a very high opinion of herself.
(b) The passive verb form expresses reflexivity for some verbs of grooming or bodily care, especially when the subject is human:

You must dress warm in the winter here.

l'll wash my hair and l'll come.
7 Па́ $\lambda \iota \chi \tau \varepsilon v i ́ \zeta \varepsilon \sigma \alpha \iota ;$
Are you combing your hair again? passive verb:

This man destroyed himself.

### 10.24 Reciprocal expressions

Reciprocal expressions in Greek are used to express the English equivalent of 'one another'. There are three ways of achieving this: (a) by the recip-
 $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \mathbf{v}$ followed by a weak pronoun in the genitive, (b) by a passive verb form, or (c) by the prefix $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \lambda \mathbf{0}-$ attached to a passive verb form.
(a) The reciprocal periphrasis consists of two phrases: $\mathbf{o}$ ह́vas 'the one' and tov $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \mathbf{o}$ 'the other'. It is used with verbs expressing mutual feelings or actions motivated by these feelings. The first phrase ( $\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{S}$ ) is in the nominative case, while the second ( $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \mathbf{0}$ ) appears in the gender and case appropriate to its meaning and syntactic content:
 These two friends love each other very much.
 We women must help each other.
 They compete with each other.
 They often give money to each other.

The two parts of the reciprocal expression may be separated, the first functioning as the subject while the other is either in the accusative and functions as the object (5), or is in a prepositional phrase (6). In such constructions the verb in the sentence containing the reciprocal periphrasis is in the singular:
 The problem is that the one dislikes the other.

They do not trust one another (lit. 'The one does not have trust in the other').
(b) Some verbs which express feelings or actions motivated by feelings may be used in the plural form of the passive with a reciprocal meaning:

##  Nick and Olga love each other very much.

## $8 \Delta \varepsilon v$ тov̧ $\varepsilon i ́ \delta \alpha \pi 0 \tau \varepsilon ́ ~ v \alpha ~ \varphi ı \lambda ı o v ́ v \tau \alpha ı . ~$

l've never seen them kiss (each other).
(c) The prefix $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta} \lambda \mathbf{0}-$ can be attached to the plural of the passive forms of a small number of verbs to give a reciprocal meaning:

##  <br> Good friends support one another.

### 10.25 Impersonal uses of verbs

In English impersonal verbs appear with either 'it' or 'there' as their subject, e.g. 'it's raining', 'it seems Mary will be late', 'there's a lot of noise in here'. In Greek impersonal verbs have no subject and they appear in the third person singular. In addition to the verbs that are only impersonal (see section 6.6), there are several other verbs that may be used impersonally. Impersonal uses of verbs include the following:

- Weather verbs, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'it is raining', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\imath o v i \zeta \varepsilon ı}$ 'it is snowing':

Since October it's been raining almost every day.
- The impersonal $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \chi \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (lit. 'it has'):

There are a lot of people in there.
- Verbs such as पaiveral 'it seems', followed by either an ó $\boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\imath}$ - or a $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clause, and $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\kappa ́ \kappa \varepsilon \iota \tau \boldsymbol { \iota }}$ 'be going to' followed by a va-clause:
3 Ф人íve $\tau \alpha \iota$ ó $\tau \iota \delta \varepsilon v \tau \eta v \pi \iota \sigma \tau \varepsilon v ́ o v v$.
It seems that they do not believe her.

He does not seem to be pleased.


## $5 \Delta \varepsilon v \pi \rho o ́ \kappa \varepsilon \iota \tau \alpha \iota$ v人 $\tau \operatorname{cov} \xi \varepsilon \chi \alpha ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota$.

(S)he's not about to forget him.

- The verb $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{~ ' i t ~ p l e a s e s ' , ~ f o l l o w e d ~ b y ~ a ~ v \alpha - c l a u s e , ~ i s ~ a c c o m p a n i e d ~}$ by a personal pronoun in the genitive to express the meaning of the English expression 'I like':
6 Mov $\alpha \rho \varepsilon ́ \sigma \varepsilon \iota ~ v \alpha ~ \sigma \varepsilon ~ \alpha к о v ́ \omega ~ v \alpha \mu ı \lambda \dot{\alpha} \varsigma . ~$
I like to hear you talk.

He likes listening to music.
- The modal verbs $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'it must', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i}$ ' it is possible':

We must invite them.
 Maybe he wasn't the culprit.


## Word formation

Throughout its long history Greek has always had a great facility for creating new words，either by modifying existing words by means of a suffix or a prefix，or by combining two or more word stems to form a compound．The great richness of the Greek language（as well as its role as a source of lexical borrowings in other languages）is due in large measure to the ease with which new words can be formed．In the following sections we can give only a very small selection of the various ways of forming words which have created the vocabulary of contemporary Greek．The process does not stop：many of the elements given in our examples continue to be productive in the formation of new words．

## 11．1 Suffixation

Many nouns are formed from verbs by the addition of a suffix to the verb stem，e．g．
$-\boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$（masculine nouns for the person or appliance that carries out the action


 （vло⿱亠乂 $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega})$（see section 3.10 for the declension of these nouns）；

 ＇paper clip＇（ $\boldsymbol{\sigma v v \delta \dot { \varepsilon }} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ）（section 3．9：Type（a））；
$-\boldsymbol{\pi},-\xi \boldsymbol{\eta},-\boldsymbol{\eta}$（feminine nouns denoting the action of the verb），e．g． $\boldsymbol{\alpha \pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ＇answer’（from $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega}), \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$＇observation’（ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ），
 （section 3．17）；
$-\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (neuter nouns denoting the action or result of the verb), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 'help, aid' ( $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ) (section 3.25);
$-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\rho},-\boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0},-\xi \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{0}$ (neuter nouns denoting an action), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o}$ 'wash-
 ( $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega})$ (section 3.26).

Feminine nouns corresponding to masculine ones in $-\boldsymbol{\tau} \varsigma$ have the suffix

 $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'female student', $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'female dressmaker' (section 3.14: type (b)).

Other suffixes for nouns referring to females include:

 $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'Spartan woman' ( $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ ) (section 3.14: type (b));
-íva (with implications of familiarity, or sometimes depreciation, when referring to professional women), e.g. ßovisvtiva 'woman member of parliament' (from ßovisutís), $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{o \rho i ́ v \alpha}$ 'female lawyer' ( $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}$ ) (see also section 3.20 for the use of the masculine forms to refer to women);
-í $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'heroine' (from $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma)$ ), A $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v i ́ \delta \alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'American woman'
 type (a)).

Nouns denoting abstract concepts or qualities are often feminine, with suffixes such as:


- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} v \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'intelligence', $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'freshness' (section 3.14: type (a));
 'kindness' (section 3.15);
 $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'speed' (section 3.14: type (a)).

Words denoting ideologies, beliefs, artistic movements and scientific phe-

 'magnetism', $\boldsymbol{\rho \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \lambda } \mathbf { \imath } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \rho } \varsigma ~ ' r e a l i s m ' , ~ \rho \alpha \tau \sigma ı \sigma \mu o ́ s ~ ' r a c i s m ' , ~ \sigma о \sigma ı \alpha \lambda ı \sigma \mu o ́ s ~}$ 'socialism'.

The place where an action or business is carried out can have the following suffixes:
 type (a));
 'laboratory, workshop', $\gamma \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\imath} \mathbf{o}$ 'gymnasium' (section 3.21: type (a)).

Among the many suffixes used to form adjectives, or to modify the meaning of existing adjectives, we may note:

- $\mathbf{\varepsilon} v \mathbf{v o s}$ or $-\mathbf{l v o s}$ (indicating the material from which something is made),
 Gú $\lambda \mathbf{l v o s}$ 'wooden';



-tvós (usually indicating time or place), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\imath v} \mathbf{v o ́ s}$ 'today's, present-

- tós (usually indicating the result of a verb, with passive meaning), e.g.




Diminutives express small size, familiarity, affection or, sometimes, depreciation. The suffixes which are used to form diminutives from nouns include the following:
 person, "man in the street", but mainly used for proper names, such

-ov́ $\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}$ (for masculine nouns), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho o v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta} \varsigma$ 'daddy'; this suffix is often
 ster' (see section 3.40 for the declension);
-ov́ $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (attached to the stem of feminine nouns), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varphi \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'little
 moment';
-ít $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (attached to the stem of feminine nouns), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{i} \tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'little beer', $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ '(an) hour (or so)', and often for feminine proper names such as EגEvíto人 'Helen' (see section 12.2 for further examples);
-̛́́кı (neuter diminutives mainly, but not exclusively, derived from neuter nouns), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \varphi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ 'little brother', $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \varphi \varepsilon \delta \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \kappa } \iota}$ 'small coffee', $\boldsymbol{\mu \varepsilon \zeta \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } - ~}$
 3.23).

Augmentatives express large size or admiration, and can be formed with the following suffixes:


$-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ or $-\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \varsigma$ (masculine, denoting the male possessor of a quality), e.g.
 bellied person', $\varphi \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'loud-mouth' (see section 3.13: type (a));
 dog' (see section 3.11: type (b)).

Finally, we note some suffixes which are frequently used to form verbs (usually from nouns or adjectives):
 тіちゃ 'I programme';
$\boldsymbol{- \omega} \boldsymbol{\nu} \omega$, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I button', $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I soften', $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I pocket';

- $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \omega$ or -íp $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ (added to stems of words borrowed from other languages), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I park' (see section 6.14 (w) for further examples and the formation of other verb forms);
 'I standardize'.


## II. 2 Prefixation

The most commonly used prefixes are prepositions, including some Ancient Greek ones which no longer exist as independent prepositions. For a list of these prepositional prefixes see section 6.23. Each prefix has a wide range of meanings that cannot be detailed here. Often the same basic verb is prefixed with different prepositions to express different meanings. Thus סivo 'I give' (usually in the form - $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ) appears with different prefixes in, for example, $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I give back, attribute', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I give out, disseminate',


give in return'. For each of these verbs there is a corresponding feminine noun: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta$ 'yield, rendering', $\boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta$ 'dissemination', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'issue,
 $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho o \delta o \sigma i \alpha}$ 'betrayal', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta o \sigma \eta}$ 'repayment'.

Prepositional prefixes are found in various parts of speech (verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs). The main ones which are still productive are the following (with examples of each):
$\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}-$ or $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}-$ ('re-'): $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'restoration' (lit. 'making old again'), $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \lambda \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I re-elect';


 tant';
 $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'interconnection’;
$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa}$ - and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi}$ - before a vowel (denotes the process of change): $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho o v z}-$ $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{o ́} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ 'modernization', $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\xi} \mathbf{o v \delta \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \rho }} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I neutralize';

 ко́s 'post-war';
$\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho o -}$ ('before', 'pre-'): $\boldsymbol{\pi \rho \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \kappa } \boldsymbol { \iota } \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \iota } \boldsymbol { \kappa } \boldsymbol { \kappa } \boldsymbol { \varsigma } \varsigma ~ ' p r e l i m i n a r y ~ [ r o u n d ~ o f ~ c o m p e t i t i o n ] ' , ~}$ $\boldsymbol{\pi \rho о л о д \varepsilon \mu \iota к о ́ \varsigma ~ ' p r e - w a r ' ; ~}$

vлєр- ('over', 'trans-', 'super-'): v $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \kappa \mathbf{o} \varsigma ~ ' t r a n s a t l a n t i c ', ~ v \pi \varepsilon \rho-$

 total'.

Negative adjectives are normally formed with the prefix $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ - ( $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v}$ - before a vowel), which can be compared with English 'un-', 'in-', 'im-', etc. There is often a shift of stress: the negative adjectives normally have stress on the third syllable from the end. The positive and negative forms may also have differences in their endings. Some examples:

ónotos similar
$\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v o ́} \boldsymbol{\mu o t o s}$ dissimilar
$\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{o ́} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ probable $\quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v o s}$ improbable $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \mathbf{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ related $\quad \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ § unrelated, irrelevant
 $\boldsymbol{\varphi v \sigma \iota \kappa o ́ s ~ n a t u r a l ~ \alpha \varphi v ́ \sigma ı к о \varsigma ~ u n n a t u r a l ~}$


Other common prefixes include:
$\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ - ('again', 're-' prefixed to verbs): $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{i} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I begin again', $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}-$ $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \zeta \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I reread’;
$\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ - (prefixed to verbs, gives the opposite meaning; cf. English 'un-'): $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \omega$ 'I disembark', $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I quench my thirst', $\boldsymbol{\xi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \omega$ 'I undress';

$\boldsymbol{\mu}$ кро- ('small'): $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\iota} \rho о \pi \rho \boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'little things, trifles';

 $\boldsymbol{\mu v \rho ı o v ́ \chi o \varsigma ~ ' m u l t i m i l l i o n a i r e ' . ~}$

## II.3 Compound formation

In this section we shall give some examples of compounds formed from two (or more) separate words, a phenomenon which is very widespread in Greek and which continues to produce new words. The elements that make up a compound are typically linked by the vowel -o-. The first type of compound consists of words that link two elements which belong to the same part of speech (nouns, adjectives, verbs), where the resulting word combines the meaning of both:

- Compounds of two nouns: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\gamma} \gamma \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{v o}$ 'married couple' (自 $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ and




- Compounds of two adjectives: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'black and white'


- Compounds of two verbs: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta o \sigma} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I flash on and off' ( $\boldsymbol{\alpha v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$




There are very many compounds belonging to various parts of speech, in which the two elements may be a noun and a verb, two nouns, an adjective and a noun, etc. Here we can only give a very small number of examples:

 make the sign of the cross', $\varphi \boldsymbol{\nu} \lambda \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\mu} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I leaf through, browse', $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho о v o \tau \rho ı} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{\prime}$ 'I waste time';


 $\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{s}^{\text {'card-player'; }}$

 'high-nosed');

- adjective (or adverb) and verb: $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi i \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'cartoon',

- adjective and passive perfect participle: $\boldsymbol{\mu \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { \rho } \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { \tau } \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { \mu } \dot { \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } } \boldsymbol { v o s } \text { 'dressed in }}$ black', $\varphi \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma \kappa о \beta \alpha \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v о \varsigma ~ ' f r e s h l y ~ p a i n t e d ' , ~ \chi о \nu \tau \rho о к о \mu \mu \varepsilon ́ v o \varsigma ~ ' r o u g h l y ~}$ cut'.


## Conversational features

### 12.1 Politeness and familiarity

Below we give the most important and most commonly used politeness markers in Greek.

## I2.I.I The polite (formal) plural

The second person plural (instead of the second person singular) is used to a single addressee in the following circumstances:

- When the addressee is unknown or unfamiliar to the speaker, such as a passer-by (1) or a taxi-driver (2):
 Please can you tell me what time it is?

2 Млорєí $\tau \varepsilon v \alpha \sigma \tau \alpha \mu \alpha \tau \eta \dot{\sigma} \sigma \tau \varepsilon \sigma \tau \eta \nu$ о́ $\lambda \lambda \eta \gamma \omega v i ́ \alpha, \sigma \alpha \varsigma$ $\pi \alpha \rho \alpha \kappa \alpha \lambda \omega^{\prime}$
Can you stop at the next corner, please?

- When the addressee is older or of higher status than the speaker:
 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \rho \gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o v}$;
Will you be at your office tomorrow so I can bring you my essay?
 If you are tired come and sit here.

In all the above examples the pronouns and the verbs in italics are in the second person plural in spite of the fact that the person addressed is a single
individual. Notice, however, that in example 4 the adjective predicate
 plural but in the singular.

### 12.1.2 Diminutives

Greek often uses the diminutive forms of nouns and adjectives with linguistic acts like offers, compliments and requests, as a device to show affection or to minimize the imposition placed by the speaker on the addressee:

## 5 По́р $\tau \varepsilon$ غ́v人 $\mu \pi \imath \sigma \kappa о \tau \alpha ́ \kappa \iota ~(\pi \alpha \rho \alpha к \alpha \lambda \omega ́) . ~$ Please take a biscuit.

 ( $\pi \alpha \rho \alpha \kappa \alpha \lambda \omega$ );
Can you bring us one more beer and a little wine please?'

The wine is a little sour, or is it my imagination (lit. 'or does it seem to me?')?
$8 \Omega \rho \alpha i ́ \alpha \mu \pi \lambda o v \zeta i ́ \tau \sigma \alpha, \sigma 0 v \pi \eta \gamma \alpha i ́ v \varepsilon ı \tau \varepsilon ́ \lambda \varepsilon ı \alpha$. A lovely blouse. It suits you perfectly.

## I2.I.3 The adverb $\lambda$ í $\mathbf{~ o ~}$

In requests the adverb $\lambda \boldsymbol{i} \mathbf{\gamma} \mathbf{o}$ may be used to lessen the imposition on the addressee:

Why not come tomorrow so that we can have a chat.

Tell me your name, please.

## 12.I. $4 \mathrm{~N} \alpha$-clause

A $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$-clause may be used to express polite suggestions and polite requests:

> ll $\quad N \alpha \sigma \varepsilon \beta \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \pi \sigma о \mu \varepsilon \pi \iota o \sigma v \chi v \alpha ́$.
> We would like to see you more often.
$12 \quad$ N $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \rho \omega \tau \eta \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ко́ $\tau \iota ;$
May I ask you something?
$13 \quad N \alpha \pi \dot{\alpha} \tau \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon ́ \chi \rho \imath ~ \tau о ~ \pi \varepsilon \rho i ́ \pi \tau \varepsilon \rho o ~ к \alpha \imath ~ v \alpha ~ \sigma \tau \rho i ́ \psi \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon ~ \delta \varepsilon \xi ı \dot{\alpha}$. You should go as far as the kiosk and then turn right.

## I2.I.5 Present tense of the verb

The second person singular or plural of the present tense is used in interrogative utterances to express polite requests. It is equivalent to 'can you, could you?', for example:

## 

Can you open the window, please?

Could you bring the telephone closer?

## 12. I. 6 П $\rho \alpha к \alpha \lambda \omega$ 'please'

All requests may be accompanied by the word $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$, which can be placed at the beginning or the end of the utterance or between major phrases:
 $\pi \rho \omega i$.
Please come by my office on Tuesday morning.
17 Mov Síveve to $\beta \imath \beta \lambda i$ io $\sigma \alpha \varsigma, \pi \alpha \rho \alpha \kappa \alpha \lambda \omega$;
Can you give me your book, please?

Can you bring me a coffee too, please?
If the word $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega}$ is preceded by the plural pronoun $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ( $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varsigma}$ $\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega})$ it becomes more formal. Паракад $\boldsymbol{\omega}^{\prime}$ is also used as the response to $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'thank you':
$19-\Sigma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\varepsilon v} \chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \iota \sigma \tau \omega ́ \pi \mathbf{\pi} \lambda \dot{v}$.
Thank you very much.

- Па $\rho \alpha \kappa \lambda \omega$.

You're welcome (lit. 'please').
An alternative to $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ as a response to 'thank you' is the expression $\mathbf{N \alpha}$ ' $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$. . $B \mathrm{Be}$ in good health'.

## I2.I. 7 The verb $\mu \pi о \rho \dot{\prime}$

The second person plural of the verb $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ in the present or in the conditional is used to introduce more formal requests:
 Can you bring us the bill too, please?
 Could you do me this favour, please?

### 12.1.8 The conditional $\theta \alpha \dot{\eta} \theta \varepsilon \lambda \alpha$

The conditional of $\boldsymbol{\theta} \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega}$ 'I want', namely $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \theta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, is more polite than the present:

I would like a book for a present.

### 12.1.9 Familiarity

The items $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'hey you' are used to attract the attention of someone with whom the speaker is fairly familiar. They may optionally be followed either by $\boldsymbol{\sigma v}$ 'you' or by the first name of the addressee in the vocative, or by phrases such as $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{i}$ 'child' or $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{~} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{0} \boldsymbol{v}$ 'my child', $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'children', or others in the vocative. (For pet names see section 12.2.)

##  <br> Hey you, where did you go yesterday?


Hey John, what do you suggest we do?

Come this way, you guys.

### 12.2 Proper names and pet names

Many Greeks are normally known by a first name that is slightly different from their official name, which is used for official purposes such as identity cards. Here are some common examples:

## Proper

 names and pet names| Official form | Everyday form | English equivalent（if any） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{v}$ 人́atos | Oavóans |  |
|  | А入е́ко¢ | Alexander |
|  | А $\lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{\square}$ |  |
| Avaroúácıos | Tónoos |  |
| Avtóvios | Avtóvns | Anthony |
| Bafìzesos | Báìns | Basil |
| Baбı入ıкй | Báco |  |
|  | Гı́́p\％os | George |
| $\Delta \eta \mu \dot{\eta} \tau \rho \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢ | $\Delta \eta \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{¢}$ |  |
| Eıpйטワ | Péva | Irene |
| Eนцогоvи́入 | Mavó入ns，Mávos | Emmanuel |
| Evóryर̇入os |  |  |
| Evzevía | Tち廹ท |  |
| Evppoav́vๆ |  |  |
| Өعобळ́pa |  |  |
| Ocódopos | Oódopos | Theodore |
| Iovdía | Ţov́dıa | Julie，Julia |
| I¢ıү＇́veıa | Tち¢́vŋ |  |
| I¢óvva | 「ıávva | Joanna |
| I $\omega$ ávvワร | 「ıóvvŋs | John |
| K $\omega v \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ tioliva | NTiva |  |
| Køvatavtivos | Kóstas，N $\tau$ ¢ivos | Constantine |
|  | Mìdos |  |
| MıX $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda$ | Mıхо́入》ऽ | Michael |
| Nıкó入儿os | Níkos | Nicholas |
| Ovpavía | Pávia |  |
| Поvaүıف́ $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | Гıө́та |  |
| Паvaүıف́tทs | По́vos，То́кŋร |  |
| $\Sigma \pi v \rho i ́ \delta \omega v$ | ェлv́pos |  |
|  | $\Sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |  |
| Stu入lavós | $\Sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda l o s$ |  |
|  |  |  |
| X $\alpha \rho \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \pi \mathbf{\sigma}$ | $\mathbf{M \pi \alpha ́ \mu \pi \eta \varsigma ~}$ |  |

In addition，within the family and among close friends，people（especially， but not only，children）may be talked about and addressed affectionately with forms that incorporate diminutive endings（see section 11．1），such as the following：

| Base form | Diminutive form |
| :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{\prime} \mathbf{A v v \alpha}$ | Avvovida |
| Baбìn¢s |  |
| Fıávva | 「ıavvov́da |
| 「ıóvvŋs | Гıаиvákクร |
| Гı＠́p\％os | Гı＠рүо́кทร |
| $\Delta \dot{\eta} \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | $\Delta \eta \mu \eta \tau \rho о$ v́ $\lambda \alpha$ |
| $\Delta \eta \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ¢ |  |
| E入と́vŋ | E入cví $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| Katepiva | Katepıvıó |
|  | К $\omega \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\wedge} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ |
| Mapía | Mapov́ $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
|  |  |
| Níkos | Nıкоди́кクร（from the alternative familiar form Nıкó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ） |
| Паvayıఱ́tทร |  |

There are many more variations than this，both in the everyday forms and in the diminutive forms．Usage depends entirely on the individuals them－ selves and their family and close friends，and some people prefer to be known by their official name．The following is a sample of alternative names by which many people are normally known；notice that some alter－ native forms may correspond to more than one base form：

Proper names and pet names

| Base form | Alternative form |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | T $\alpha \boldsymbol{\sigma o v} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| ＇Avva | Novó |
| Baбı入ıкท́ | Bovid $\alpha$ ，Bíkv，Kov́d |
| Гع由ן $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | Zét $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ |
| $\Delta \eta \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | Pov́入 $\alpha$ ，Pí $\tau \sigma \alpha$ |
| $\Delta \eta \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ¢ |  |
| Eえévŋ | \́̇va |
| Oaváon¢ | ©ávos，Nó $\sigma o s$, ºvi $\lambda \eta \varsigma$, इヘ́кネร |
| Oóбopos | Өобори́s |
| Ка入入ıóлๆ，Пףve入óлๆ | По́лп |
| Katepiva |  |
| Kvpıaкй | Kov́入 $\alpha$ |
| K $\omega \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ | K $\omega \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ ¢ |
| Mapía |  Maíp |
| Mıхо⿱㇒日勺入》ร | Мíкпs |
| X $\alpha \rho \dot{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \pi \mathbf{\sigma}$ |  |

Greek women＇s surnames are based on the genitive form of their father＇s or husband＇s surnames．They are indeclinable．Certain types of feminine surname normally appear in an archaic form（this is illustrated in the
 in stressed vowel $+-\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ）：

| Masculine | Feminine |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | Мұтбо́ккๆ |
| Мףтбо́ккоя | Мף $\tau \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ о́коv |
|  |  |


| Петрíбทऽ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | Avactactúdov (or Avaбт $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta})$ |
| Подítпs | Подítov (or Подítๆ) |

With the feminine form Мұтболои́ $\boldsymbol{\lambda o v}$ (with shift of stress as in the genitive form of nouns like $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \varsigma)$ compare the normal genitive of the masculine form, Mף $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { \sigma o ́ }} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi o v \lambda o v}$ (without shift of stress, as in nouns like $\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o ́ \gamma \varepsilon \rho o s ) ; ~ s e e ~ s e c t i o n ~} 3.11$ (type (b)).

### 12.3 Greetings and wishes

The standard greetings for different times of the day are:

```
\(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) good morning
\(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) good evening
\(\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}\) good night
```

When used formally, or to more than one person, these greetings can be followed by the plural of the weak second-person pronoun $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, e.g. к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}-$ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ 'good morning to you'.

Other greetings of a less formal kind include:
$\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$ hello $O R$ goodbye ( $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{o v}$, when addressed to one person whom you know well)
$\chi \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \varepsilon$ hello $O R$ goodbye
avtío goodbye


Conversations often begin with:

Tı ко́veıs; (plural or formal Tı ко́vete;) How are you?
Пढ́s عícol/عíबte; How are you?
Tı $\gamma \mathbf{i} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ OR Пós $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$; How are you getting on?
Пós $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{\varepsilon}$; How's it going?

Welcomes and formal introductions:

When addressed to one person you know well, the forms are K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma \mathfrak{\eta} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma!$ OR K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. The normal reply is:

K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! (formal or to several people) OR K $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\eta} \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! (familiar, to one person) Good to see you!
 my friend Thanos Petropoulos.
X $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \rho \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v}$. Pleased to meet you.
$\mathbf{X \alpha ́ \rho \eta \kappa \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{v}$. Pleased to have met you OR Nice to see/hear you (at the end of a meeting or phone conversation).

There are many wishes of a more or less standard kind that use the adjec-
 accusative case:
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ ó $\boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{v}$ ! have a good evening!
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! have a good week! (said at the start of the week)
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! have a good month! (said at the start of the month)
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \kappa \varepsilon ́ \delta \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ! have a good time!, enjoy yourself!
$\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \lambda \eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ! enjoy your meal!, bon appétit!
$\kappa \alpha \lambda \eta ́ \varepsilon \pi \iota \tau \nu \chi i \alpha!/ \kappa \alpha \lambda \eta ́ \tau v ́ \chi \eta!$ good luck!
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o ́} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi} \mathbf{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{t}$ ! have a good journey!
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\varepsilon} \varsigma!$ have a good holiday!
$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\chi \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \mu \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { v } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \text { ! have a good winter! (said at the end of the summer }}$
holiday period)

$\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \mathbf{o ́}$ П́́ $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! happy Easter!
$\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o v t \boldsymbol { \alpha }}$ ! happy New Year!

Birthday wishes and wishes on someone's name day (i.e. the feast day of the saint after whom a person is named) can be expressed by:

र $\boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{o ́ v t \alpha} \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! happy birthday! (lit. 'many years'; the same phrase also serves as a general wish for festivals such as Christmas, Easter and New Year)
$\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \iota \varsigma!$ Long life! (lit. 'may you make them a hundred [years]')

Expressions used in toasts include:
$\boldsymbol{\gamma \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \varepsilon } \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! cheers (lit. 'health to us'), or more formally $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ !
$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \varepsilon \varsigma} \boldsymbol{v \gamma \varepsilon i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ ! good health

Some other wishes:
$\boldsymbol{\sigma v \gamma \chi \alpha \rho \eta \tau \eta ́ \rho ı \alpha ! ~ c o n g r a t u l a t i o n s ! ~}$
 [things]')
$\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma \zeta \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{!}$ ! may (s)he live long for you! (addressed to a parent when a child's birth is announced, or on special family occasions, or when a child is discussed)
$\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\gamma \varepsilon \iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ! lit. 'with health!' (to a person who has something new, such as clothes)
$\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}!$ get well soon! $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \iota \kappa \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{v} / \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 与 I hope (s)he will get well soon
 кळц $\boldsymbol{\text { cov }} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ óvov! here's to next year! (referring to an annual event)
Appendices
I Correspondence table of pronouns，determiners and adverbs

|  | Pronouns and determiners |  | Adverbs |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Masc．／fem．／neut．＇ | Neuter only ${ }^{\prime}$ | Place | Time | Manner | Quantity |
| Indefinite （specific） | ко́ $\boldsymbol{\pi o t o s}$ some（one） | ко́⿱㇒日儿七七 something | ко́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0}$ somewhere | ко́лотє once， at some time | $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \pi \omega \varsigma$ in some way， somehow | ко́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \omega \varsigma$ somewhat |
| Indefinite （non－specific） | каvévas any／no（one） | $\tau i \pi n \tau \alpha$ any／no（thing） | $\pi 0 v \theta \varepsilon v \alpha \dot{\alpha}$ anywhere， nowhere | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$（ n ）ever | к $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \theta$ ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o v}$（not） at all | к人日ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\mathbf{o v}}$ （not）at all |
| Interrogative ${ }^{2}$ | $\pi 010 \varsigma$ who， which по́бos how much／many | $\tau u$ what $\pi$ tóco how much | $\pi \chi^{\text {a }}$ where | $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ when |  | $\pi$ о́ $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{o}$ how much |
| Demonstrative | $\alpha v \tau \mathbf{o} \varsigma$ this عкعívos that | avió this екعívo that | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ here $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon \kappa \varepsilon ́}$ there | $\tau \dot{\rho} \rho \alpha$ now $\tau \boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ then | $\dot{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau}$ in this／ that way |  |

## tó $\sigma 0$ so much



 о́ $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$,
$\mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
however,
whichever way


$\boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ always
ó $\tau \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ when

'noxo

ónov where
ó, $\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
whatever
$\tau \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \tau 010 \varsigma$ such,
this/that kind of
demonstrative this/that kind of
поv, o otoíos
who, which



đó $\sigma 0$ so much
đó⿱ósos so much/
many
Quantitative
demonstrative
Qualitative
Correlative

## Universal ко日ச́vos

Relative
Distributive
I. i.e. when used as pronouns.
2. Also reason: $\gamma \mathbf{\imath} \alpha \tau$ ' 'why'.

## 2 Some abbreviations in common use

Below we give a list of abbreviations that are commonly used in Greece and Cyprus, with their English equivalents. When abbreviations referring to institutions are used, they appear in the same gender as the chief noun of the full name, e.g. $\boldsymbol{\eta} \Delta$.E.H., o O.T.E., $\tau \boldsymbol{\text { K K.T.E.A. Where the abbrevi- }}$ ation is commonly pronounced, we give the pronunciation in square brackets.

| A |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \gamma$. |  |
| A.E. | $=\boldsymbol{\alpha v \omega ́ v v \mu o s ~ e \tau \alpha 几 l \rho \varepsilon i ́ \alpha ~ ( l i m i t e d ~ c o m p a n y ) ~}$ |
| A.E.K. [áek] |  <br> Athens football team] |
| $\alpha \mathrm{c}$. | $=\boldsymbol{\alpha l o ́ v a s}$ (century) |
| A.K.E.A. [ak'él] |  political party] |
| $\boldsymbol{\alpha \rho}$. | $=\boldsymbol{\alpha \rho 1} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{o ́ s}$ (number) |
| Aqoí | $=\mathbf{A \delta \Sigma \lambda} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ¢oí (Brothers, Bros) |
| B | $=\boldsymbol{\beta o ́ p s t o s}($ north (ern) $)$ |
| BA | $=\boldsymbol{\beta o \rho \varepsilon ı o \alpha v \alpha \tau о \lambda l к о ́ s ~ ( n o r t h - e a s t ) ~}$ |
| B $\Delta$ | $=\boldsymbol{\beta o \rho \varepsilon ı о \delta v \tau \iota к o ́ s ~ ( n o r t h - w e s t ) ~}$ |
| Г.Г. |  |
| Г.E.E. [jes] |  |
| $\gamma \boldsymbol{\rho}$. | $=\gamma \rho \alpha \mu \mu \dot{\alpha} \rho$ ¢о (gram(s)) |
| Г.L.E.E. [jeseé] | $\begin{aligned} = & \boldsymbol{\Gamma \varepsilon v i к и} \boldsymbol{\Sigma v} \boldsymbol{v o \mu o \sigma \pi \mathbf { v } \boldsymbol { \delta } \boldsymbol { i } \boldsymbol { \alpha }} \mathbf{E \rho \gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{v} \mathbf{E \lambda \lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma \\ & \text { (General Trade Unions Federation of Greece) } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\Delta$ | $=\boldsymbol{\delta v} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa o ́ s}$ (west(ern)) |
|  | $\begin{aligned} = & \Delta \eta \mu \boldsymbol{o ́ \sigma \iota \alpha} \mathbf{E} \pi \iota \chi \varepsilon \mathbf{\imath} \rho \eta \sigma \eta \mathbf{H} \lambda \varepsilon \kappa \tau \rho \imath \sigma \mu \mathbf{o v} \text { [Greek } \\ & \text { electricity authority] } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\delta \eta \lambda$. | $=\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ( (that is, i.e.) |
| $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\iota}$ [ $\mathrm{\delta is}$ ] | $=\delta \mathbf{\varepsilon \varepsilon к \alpha \alpha \tau о \mu \mu v ́ \rho ı о ~ ( b i l l i o n ) ~}$ |
| $\Delta . \Sigma$. | $=\delta \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \mathbf{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (diplomatic corps) |
| E.E. |  |
| E.E.E. |  |
| غк. |  |


| E.K.A.B. [ekáv] |  | Some <br> abbreviations |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ES.AE. [elás] | $=\mathbf{E \lambda \lambda \eta \nu ı к \boldsymbol { \eta }} \mathbf{A \sigma t v v o \mu i ́ \alpha ~ ( G r e e k ~ P o l i c e ) ~}$ | in common |
| ES.TA. [eltá] |  |  |
| E.M.r. [émi] |  |  |
| E.O.T. [eót] |  |  |
| E.E.r. [esí] |  |  |
| E.T. [et] | $=\mathbf{E \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol { \eta } \boldsymbol { \iota } \kappa \boldsymbol { \eta }} \mathbf{T} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ [Greek state television service] |  |
| E.rı.A.П. <br> [ejסáp] |  |  |
| H/T |  |  |
| Н.П.А. | $=\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{H v \omega \mu \dot { \varepsilon } v \varepsilon \varsigma ~ П о \lambda ı \tau \varepsilon i ́ \varepsilon \varsigma ~ \tau \eta \varsigma ~ А \mu \varepsilon \rho ı к и ̆ \varsigma ~ ( U n i t e d ~ S t a t e s ~} \\ & \text { of America) } \end{aligned}$ |  |
| I.K.A. [íka] |  social security organization) |  |
| $\kappa$. | $=\boldsymbol{\kappa v o ́ p ı o s / к v p i ́ \alpha ~ ( M r / M r s ) ~}$ |  |
| к.á. | $=\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (and other people/things, et al.) |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\kappa \varepsilon \varphi . ~}$ | $=\boldsymbol{\kappa \varepsilon \varphi ¢ \alpha ́ \lambda \alpha \boldsymbol { \iota }}$ (chapter) |  |
| K.K.E. <br> (sometimes pronounced [kukué]) |  |  |
| $\kappa \lambda \pi$. | $=\boldsymbol{\kappa \alpha \iota l} \lambda \boldsymbol{o l} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (etc.) |  |
| K.T.E.S. [ktel] |  |  |
| к. $\tau . \lambda$. | $=\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o l} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (etc.) |  |
| $\lambda . \chi$. | $=\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{o v} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \mathbf{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\imath} \boldsymbol{v}$ (for instance, e.g.) |  |
| $\mu$. | $=\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} / \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (metre(s)) |  |
| $\mu . \mu$. | $=\mu \varepsilon \tau \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \eta \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ (p.m.) |  |
| M.M.E. |  |  |
| $\boldsymbol{\mu} . \mathrm{X}$. | $=\mu \varepsilon \tau \dot{\alpha} \mathbf{X \rho ı \sigma \tau o ́ v ~ ( A . D . ) ~}$ |  |
| N | $=$ vótıos $($ south $($ ern $)$ ) |  |
| NA |  | 261 |


| N $\Delta$ | $=$ votıodvetıkós (south-western) |
| :---: | :---: |
| N. $\Delta$. | ```= N\dot{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\alpha}\Delta\eta\boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\kappa}\rho\boldsymbol{\alpha}\boldsymbol{\tau}\boldsymbol{i}\boldsymbol{\alpha}\mathrm{ (New Democracy [a Greek} political party])``` |
| O.A. |  |
| O.H.E. [oié] | $\begin{aligned} = & \text { Op } \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mu \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \\ & \text { Organization) } \end{aligned}$ |
| O.T.E. [oté] |  |
| П.А.О. |  |
| П.А.O.K. [páok] |  ```K\omegav\sigma\tau\alpha\boldsymbol{v\tau\iotavov\pi\boldsymbol{\lambda}\boldsymbol{\iota}\boldsymbol{\omega}v}\mathrm{ [a Thessaloniki football} team]``` |
| ПА. $\mathbf{~ O . K .}$ [pasók] | ```= П\alphav\varepsilon\lambda\lambda\eta\dot{v\imatho \Sigmao\sigma\iota\alpha\lambda\imath\sigma\tau\iotaкó Kív\eta\mu\alpha} (Panhellenic Socialist Movement [a Greek political party])``` |
| $\pi \boldsymbol{\beta}$. | $=\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ (compare, cf.) |
| $\pi . \mu$. |  |
| ПРО-ПО [propó] |  |
| $\pi . \mathrm{X}$. | $=\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho o} \mathbf{X \rho ı \sigma \tau о v ́}$ (в.С.) |
| $\pi . \chi$. | $=\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{\rho \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { v }}$ (for example, e.g.) |
| P.I.K. [rik] | $\begin{aligned} &= \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \mathbf{\imath} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{\imath} \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \text { ' } \mathbf{I} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \text { Kи́ } \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho o v} \text { (Cyprus } \\ & \text { Broadcasting Corporation) } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\sigma . / \sigma \varepsilon \lambda$. | $=\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ (page, p.) |
| $\tau . \mu$. |  |
| r.「. | $=\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{o}$ (postscript, P.S.) |
| Ф.П.А. |  |
| $\chi \lambda \mu$. |  |
| $\chi \varphi$. | $=\chi \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {ój}} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ o (manuscript, ms.) |

## Glossary of grammatical terms

Note: This glossary should be used in conjunction with the Index of grammatical categories and concepts, which refers to the specific pages of the Grammar where these terms are discussed. Words in italics are terms that are defined in the glossary.
 pluperfect to express actions that would take place if certain conditions were fulfilled ( $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I would lose', $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\chi} \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ 'I would have lost');

augment
augmentative
bilabial
case
clause
comparative
complement clause
complementizer a word (in Greek ó $\boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \varsigma, \pi \mathbf{0} \mathbf{v}$ ) that introduces a complement clause a word made up of two stems ( $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rho \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'knives and forks') tenses of the verb formed by $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}+$ imperfect or
$\boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\alpha} \rho \tau \boldsymbol{\imath}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\varsigma} \boldsymbol{\tau o v} \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ 'If you come to the party, you'll see John')
a word placed before a noun to limit, individualize or give definiteness to the noun phrase; there are two kinds of article: definite ( $\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\eta}$, $\boldsymbol{\tau 0}$ 'the') and indefinite ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\mu t \alpha}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ' $a(n)$ ') grammatical property of verbs that indicates whether the action is presented as completed (perfective), as progressive or repeated (imperfective), or as a past action seen in relation to some other time (perfect)
the prefix added to certain verb stems to make certain forms of the past tenses ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I lost') a special form of a noun, formed with a suffix and expressing large size or admiration ( $\boldsymbol{\kappa o l \lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'big belly') (cf. diminutive) a consonant sound made by contact between the two lips, as in English and Greek [p] and [m] one of the forms of a noun, adjective, pronoun, numeral or article indicating the syntactic function of the noun phrase in the clause; the nominative case indicates the subject, the accusative the direct object, and the genitive normally the indirect object or the possessor of a noun; the vocative is used for addressing someone or something a syntactic unit consisting of at least a finite verb (i.e. a verb that is not a gerund, participle or nonfinite); a clause may be a main clause (a clause that can stand independently as a sentence) or a subordinate clause (a clause whose meaning depends on another clause) see degree a clause that completes meaning of a verb, noun or adjective (see section 10.3)
compound
conditional

|  | also sentences that express conditions ( $\mathbf{A v} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\iota} \varsigma$ <br>  party, you'll see John') | Glossary of grammatical terms |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| conjunction | a word that links phrases or clauses ( $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'and', $\boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ 'if', ó $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} v$ 'when') |  |
| declension | the pattern of endings by which a noun, adjective, pronoun, determiner, etc indicates number, gender and case |  |
| defective verb | a verb that has only imperfective aspect ('̇ $\boldsymbol{\chi} \omega$ 'I have') |  |
| degree | Greek distinguishes four degrees of comparison in adjectives and adverbs: positive ( $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{o} \boldsymbol{o s}$ 'lovely'), <br>  <br>  $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{s}$ 'the loveliest') and absolute superlative ( $\boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\rho \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \iota } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \alpha } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { c } \text { 'very lovely') }}$ |  |
| dental | a consonant sound formed by placing the tip of the tongue near or against the top teeth, as Greek [s], [t] and [l] |  |
| dependent deponent verb | the perfective non-past form of the verb ( $\boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ ) a verb without active forms but with active meaning (коч $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I sleep') |  |
| determiner | a word that is not an adjective or numeral but <br>  'some', каvév人as 'any; no'); most Greek determiners may also act as pronouns |  |
| diminutive | a special form of a noun, formed with a suffix and normally expressing small size or affection ( $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \varphi \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\kappa}$ 'small coffee') |  |
| direct object | a weak pronoun or noun phrase in the accusative case indicating the person or thing that the action of the verb is done to |  |
| enclisis | phenomenon whereby a second stress develops on a noun, verb, etc. stressed on the third syllable from the end when it is followed by a weak pronoun (o $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{o} \varsigma \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ऽ 'our teacher') |  |
| finite | any verb form that indicates both person and number |  |
| flap | a consonant sound formed by a single rapid contact between two vocal organs (e.g. between tip of tongue and alveolar ridge in Greek [r]) | 265 |


$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\begin{array}{l}\text { liquid } \\ \text { main clause } \\ \text { modifier }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { the English and Greek consonant sounds [l] and [r] } \\ \text { see clause }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Glossary of } \\ \text { grammatical }\end{array} \\ \text { any word, phrase or clause that limits the meaning } \\ \text { of a noun, verb, adjective or adverb } \\ \text { terms }\end{array}\right\}$

Glossary of grammatical terms

perfective
plosive
pluperfect
prefix
preposition
pronoun
protasis

| participle | a form of the verb used as an adjective (коvpa $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ vos ${ }^{\text {'tired') }}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| particle | one of a number of small words, including those preceding the verb (the subjunctive particles va and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \varsigma$, the future particle $\boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and the negative particles $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{v}$ ) |
| passive | when a verb is in the passive voice its subject is not the person or thing doing the action but the person or thing acted upon (cf. active) |
| perfect | (i) an aspect of the verb consisting of the present or imperfect forms of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ followed by the non-finite; it refers to a past action that is presented in relation to some other time; (ii) a tense of the verb consisting of the present forms of $\dot{\varepsilon} \chi \omega$ followed by the non-finite ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{~}$ 'I have written') |
| perfective | the aspect of the verb that presents an action as being complete (cf. imperfective) |
| plosive | a consonant sound produced when a complete closure in the vocal tract is suddenly released (as in English [p], [b], [t]) (cf. fricative) |
| pluperfect | a tense of the verb formed with the past forms of $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\omega}$ followed by the non-finite; it is used to express the completion of an action before a specified past time ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\chi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\psi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'I had written') |
| prefix | a component of a word added to the front of a stem ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho о \boldsymbol { o } \boldsymbol { \sigma } \boldsymbol { \lambda } \varepsilon \boldsymbol { \mu } \boldsymbol { 1 } \boldsymbol { \kappa o ́ s } \varsigma \quad \text { 'pre-war') }}$ |
| preposition | a word placed before a noun phrase that typically indicates time, place or manner ('at', 'on', 'with') |
| pronoun | a word that has the function of a noun phrase; it may be an emphatic personal pronoun ( $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \dot{\varepsilon} v \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'me'), a weak personal pronoun ( $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ' me '), or some <br>  <br>  pronouns other than personal pronouns may also act as determiners |
| protasis | the clause in a conditional sentence that expresses the condition that must be fulfilled if the action of the verb in the main clause (the apodosis) is to take <br>  'If you come to the party, you'll see John') |


| quantifier | a word that expresses quantity (e.g. ó $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{o}$ ¢ 'all', $\pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{v} \varsigma$ 'much') | Glossary of grammatical |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| question word | a pronoun or determiner ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{s}$, 'who', $\boldsymbol{\tau} \mathbf{~ ' w h a t ' , ~}$ <br>  'when', $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \tau \boldsymbol{\tau}$ ' 'why') that is used to introduce questions | terms |
| reduplication | a prefix added to some verbs in the passive perfect participle, usually formed by repeating the initial consonant of the stem and adding $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \varsigma$ 'convinced') |  |
| semantic semi-deponent verb | regarding the meaning of words, phrases, etc. <br> a verb that has only passive forms in the imperfective aspect and only active forms in the <br>  <br> (cf. deponent verb) |  |
| sentence | a syntactic unit that expresses a complete meaning and consists of one or more clauses |  |
| sibilant | the consonant sounds [ s ] and [ z ] |  |
| simple past | the perfective past form of the verb ('் $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'I wrote') |  |
| stem | the part of an inflected word (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) to which prefixes and suffixes are added |  |
| subject | the noun phrase denoting the person or thing doing the action of an active verb ('H $\mathbf{\rho} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{M \alpha \rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ 'Mary came') or undergoing the action of a passive verb ( $\boldsymbol{H}$ M $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \tau \tau \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'Mary was injured') |  |
| subject predicate | an adjective phrase or noun phrase referring to a subject by means of a linking verb (O Níkos عívat <br>  $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ § 'Nick's a teacher') |  |
| subjunctive | the mood of the verb that typically presents the action as wished for, hoped for, expected, planned, etc.; the subjunctive is marked by the particles $\boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\rho}$, and is negated by $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ |  |
| subordinate clause suffix | see clause <br> a component of a word added to the end of a stem ( $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ § 'older') |  |
| superlative | see degree |  |
| syntactic | regarding the way words, phrases, etc. are joined to make phrases, clauses and sentences | 269 |

Glossary of grammatical terms


## Some recommended books for further study

## Coursebooks

 Idryma Manoli Triantafyllidi, 3rd ed. Thessaloniki 1998. Workbooks and cassettes available.
K. Arvanitakis and F. Arvanitaki, Eлıкоıvตvŋ́ $\sigma \tau \varepsilon \varepsilon \lambda \lambda \eta \nu \iota \kappa \alpha ́$. Deltos, new ed. Athens 2002. A complete course in three volumes, with cassettes and workbooks.
 $\varepsilon \lambda \lambda \eta \nu \iota \kappa \eta ́ \varsigma \omega \varsigma \delta \varepsilon v ́ \tau \varepsilon \rho \eta \varsigma \xi \varepsilon ́ v \eta \varsigma \gamma \lambda \omega ́ \sigma \sigma \alpha \varsigma$. Idryma Meleton Lambraki, 2nd ed. Athens 1995. Written primarily for the needs of returning migrants, and entirely in Greek, this is an attractive course which links grammar with information about Greek culture. There is also a supplementary volume with vocabulary and outlines of grammar in English. A cassette is available separately.
G. Catsimali and others, Eגд $\quad$ vıко́ $\mu \varepsilon \tau \eta v \pi \alpha \rho \varepsilon ́ \alpha ~ \mu о v . ~ V o l . ~ 1 . ~ O r g a n i s m o s ~$ Ekdoseos Didaktikon Vivlion, Athens 1999. This is a fast course intended for students who already know some Greek. A second volume will appear soon.
G. Catsimali and other, Eג $1 \eta v \imath \kappa \alpha ́ \alpha \pi o ́ ~ \kappa o v \tau \alpha ́: ~ 20 ~(~ \gamma \lambda \omega \sigma \sigma ı \kappa \alpha ́) ~ \mu v \sigma \tau \eta ́ \rho ı \alpha ~ \gamma ı \alpha ~$ $\tau o v \varepsilon \pi \imath \theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \eta \tau \dot{\prime} \Sigma \alpha \chi i ́ v \eta . . . \kappa \iota \varepsilon \sigma \varepsilon ́ v \alpha$. E.DIA.M.ME., Rethymno, 2001. This book explains and provides practice for various grammatical phenomena of Greek which present difficulties.
D. Dimitra and M. Papacheimona, Eג $\lambda \eta \nu \iota \kappa \alpha ́ \alpha \omega \rho \alpha 1+1$. Nostos, 5th ed. Athens 2002. This is an excellent basic course, with cassettes and workbook, more suitable for class use than private study. There is also a second volume: Eג $\lambda \eta \nu \imath \kappa \alpha ́ \alpha \tau \dot{\rho} \rho \alpha 2+2$.

Some
D. A. Hardy, Greek Language and People. BBC Books, London 1983 (with cassettes). The material is attractively presented, but formal grammar is kept to a minimum.
S. Vogiatzidou, Learning Modern Greek as a Foreign/Second Language: a Communicative Approach. University Studio Press, Thessaloniki 2002. A well-illustrated course, with workbook and three cassettes.
N. Watts, Colloquial Greek: A Complete Language Course. Routledge, London and New York 1994. A step-by-step course with clear presentations of grammar, accompanied by two cassettes.

## Grammars

D. Holton, P. Mackridge and I. Philippaki-Warburton, Greek: A Comprehensive Grammar of the Modern Language. Routledge, London 1997, reprinted with corrections 1999 and 2002. A full descriptive grammar of the modern language.
C. Klairis and G. Babiniotis, Гроцца兀єкŋ́ $\tau \eta \varsigma ~ N \varepsilon ́ \alpha \varsigma ~ E \lambda \lambda \eta \nu \imath \kappa \eta ́ \varsigma . ~$
 So far only three (of the projected six) volumes of this advanced grammar have appeared. It is based on contemporary language teaching theory and aims at a full description of the morphological and syntactic structures of the modern language.
P. Mackridge, The Modern Greek Language: A Descriptive Analysis of Standard Modern Greek. Oxford University Press, Oxford 1985. This is not a reference grammar as such, but presents and analyses a wide range of material illustrating current usage. It is aimed at more advanced learners.
M. A. Triandaphyllidis, Concise Modern Greek Grammar. Translated by John B. Burke. Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki 1997. A translation of the abridged version (1974) of the 'official' grammar of 1941. The 1974 adaptation continues to be used in the Greek educational system, despite the fact that it has not been substantially updated to reflect contemporary usage.

## Dictionaries

J. T. Pring, The Pocket Oxford Greek Dictionary. Oxford University Press, Oxford 1982, reissued 2000. A compact two-way dictionary for basic use.
D. N. Stavropoulos, Oxford Greek-English Learner's Dictionary. Oxford University Press, Oxford 1988. This is the best available small dictionary for translation from Greek to English; it includes reliable information about forms, usage and idioms.
D. N. Stavropoulos and A. S. Hornby, Oxford English-Greek Learner's Dictionary. Oxford University Press, 2nd ed. Oxford 1998. This is an adaptation of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, and therefore intended primarily for the use of Greek-speaking learners of English. However, it is also quite useful for English-speaking learners of Greek.

There are also three large-format monolingual dictionaries suitable for advanced learners and native speakers:
$\Lambda \varepsilon \xi \imath \kappa o ́ ~ \tau \eta \varsigma ~ к о \imath v \eta ́ \varsigma ~ v \varepsilon о \varepsilon \lambda \lambda \eta \nu \imath \kappa \eta ́ \varsigma . ~ A r i s t o t e l e i o ~ P a n e p i s t i m i o ~ T h e s s a l o n i k i s, ~$ Institouto Neoellinikon Spoudon, Thessaloniki 1998.
G. Babiniotis, $\Lambda \varepsilon \xi_{\imath} \iota o ́ ~ \tau \eta \varsigma ~ v \varepsilon ́ \alpha \varsigma ~ \varepsilon \lambda \lambda \eta \nu \imath \kappa \eta ́ s ~ \gamma \lambda \omega ́ \sigma \sigma \alpha \varsigma, ~ \mu \varepsilon ~ \sigma \chi o ́ \lambda ı \alpha ~ \gamma ı \alpha ~ \tau \eta ~ \sigma \omega \sigma \tau \eta ́$ $\chi \rho \eta ́ \sigma \eta \tau \omega v \lambda \varepsilon ́ \xi \varepsilon \omega v$. Kentro Lexikologias, Athens 1998.
 $\kappa \alpha » \pi \rho о ч о \rho \imath \kappa \eta ́ \varsigma . ~ E k d o t i k i ~ A t h i n o n, ~ A t h e n s ~ 1995 . ~$

## Index of grammatical categories and concepts

This index is intended to be used in conjunction with the table of contents. Many of the terms below are defined in the Glossary of grammatical terms. Bold numbers refer to the pages where these items are most thoroughly treated.
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