THE CAMBRIDGE GRAMMAR OF

CLASSICAL GREEK

Evert van Emde Boas • Albert Rijksbaron Luuk Huitink • Mathieu de Bakker



Cambridge Grammar of Classical Greek

This is the first full-scale reference grammar of classical Greek in English in a century. The first work of its kind to reflect the significant advances in linguistics made in recent decades, it offers students, teachers and academics a comprehensive yet user-friendly treatment. The chapters on phonology and morphology make full use of insights from comparative and historical linguistics to elucidate the complex systems of roots, stems and endings. The syntax offers linguistically up-to-date descriptions of such topics as case usage, tense and aspect, voice, subordinate clauses, infinitives and participles. An innovative section on textual coherence treats particles and word order and discusses several sample passages in detail, demonstrating new ways of approaching Greek texts. Throughout the book numerous original examples are offered, all with translations and often with clarifying notes. Clearly laid-out tables, helpful cross-references and full indexes make this essential resource accessible to users of all levels.

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On Cs and Gs: History and Aims of the Book

Conception and Development

Readers picking up this hefty tome may be surprised to learn that the first C of CGCG (as we like to call it) once stood for Concise. The syntax part of that Concise Grammar of Classical Greek began, as so many grammar books no doubt have, as lecture handouts - to be precise, as EvEB's handouts used in first-year Greek syntax classes at the University of Oxford. The work grew from a dissatisfaction with existing teaching materials in English: the main concern was that those materials did not reflect decades' worth of advances in the linguistic description of Ancient Greek, inspired by the incorporation of insights from various areas of general linguistics. The last good full-scale reference grammar in English, Smyth's Greek Grammar, for all its excellence, stemmed from a time long before such advances had even been possible, and more recent grammar books had done nothing to bridge the gap. The truth was that no book existed that represented the current state of knowledge on the Greek language. There were other problems, too: Smyth was often perceived by undergraduates as daunting and dense, but alternatives were typically too limited in their coverage; examples used in existing grammars were not always representative, and based on antiquated text editions; terminology was confusing and outmoded; and so forth.

The lecture handouts began to look more like a book when EvEB was joined by AR in revising the material and producing additional chapters. LH, who had also been teaching at Oxford and who had run into similar difficulties with existing materials, then joined, and he and EvEB wrote the first version of the section on textual coherence – a particular *desideratum* in view of the advances in linguistics mentioned above.

Late in 2009, at the instigation of Juliane Kerkhecker, Grocyn Lecturer at Oxford, the material was sent, in the state that it had now attained (still without a morphology), to Cambridge University Press – not so much as a full-fledged book proposal (in the minds of the authors, at least: without the morphology the work could not yet lay full claim to its first G), but as an opening gambit. To our delight, the Press took the submission very seriously, and engaged a large number of readers to judge the work. This led to a contract, and a change of title to Cambridge Grammar of Classical Greek.

A very great deal of labour, however, was still to be done at this point. Over the next few years – with many delays as the result of other obligations – we drafted the phonology and morphology chapters, and overhauled the existing parts to take

into account the readers' reports (which had been gratifyingly favourable and detailed). It is in this period that MdB, former Grocyn Lecturer at Oxford, who had himself been planning a similar effort, joined the writing team.

The revised work, which had grown considerably due to addition of the phonology/morphology and further additions requested by our readers, was resubmitted to the Press in the final months of 2013, and another full set of readers' reports on the complete text followed in the subsequent year. These reports were once again very helpful and detailed, eliciting not only a final round of revision, but also a complete overhaul of the numbering system used for our sections. These changes were completed early in 2015; this was followed by a lengthy and complex production process (in our Bibliography, we have not systematically added references to works from 2016 or later).

The end product is in every way the result of a joint effort: although individual authors wrote first drafts of particular chapters, or took the initiative in revising chapters or sections, we discussed every page of the book as a group, and all four of us have reflected extensively on the entire work. Each of us is happy to share responsibility for the whole.

Target Audience and Scope

Our particular hope is that university students (at all levels) and teachers will profit from *CGCG*. Professional scholars whose main area of expertise is not Greek linguistics may also benefit from our presentation, particularly where it concerns areas which are less often covered in traditional grammars (word order is a prime example), but also more generally because of the manner in which we have tried to reflect current thinking in the field (on such issues as verbal aspect, the use of tenses, voice, the representation of reported discourse, complement constructions, particles, etc.).

CGCG's coverage is such, we suggest, that it could be used in the context of undergraduate and graduate language courses, and that a commentary on a classical text geared primarily to a student audience could refer to it for most grammatical features, except those so rare that they deserve fuller discussion anyway. Still, there are many subjects about which we might have said much more, and some about which we have said almost nothing at all (syllable structure, the interjections, and forms of address spring to mind here). Other expansions, such as a section on metre and/or prose rhythm, or the kind of stylistic glossary often found in grammars, were never seriously considered: to our mind, readers are much better served on these issues by specialized resources.

On the point of coverage, a few words must also be said about the second C and G of our title. There was a temptation (and a desire among a minority of our readers) to increase the diachronic and dialectological scope of the work to cover Homer, archaic lyric, the Koine, etc.; we also would have loved to say more about

the Greek of inscriptions. However, as any such move would have drastically increased the size and complexity of the book (and accordingly decreased its accessibility), we decided to limit our purview to classical Greek. Again, such omissions seemed all the more feasible given the availability of specialized resources on the dialects, Homeric grammar, etc. Since Herodotus and the dramatists fall clearly under the heading of classical Greek, we did include a chapter on Ionic prose and some dialectal features of drama (particularly the 'Doric' alpha).

Some Principles of Presentation

Although we abandoned *Concise* for our first C early on, we have still strived for concision and accessibility in our presentation. Implicated in this is our decision not to clutter the book's pages with bibliographical references or extensive discussion of diverging views. We do provide a brief, thematically organized bibliography at the end of the book, and trust that the resources listed there will allow interested readers to follow up particular subjects. We are well aware, of course, that at some points our presentation is open to genuine debate or uncertainty. Where we have elided such discussions, it is not from dogmatism but from a desire for consistency and clarity.

Another way in which we have attempted to keep the book accessible is by making it 'theory-light' and by taking a considered approach towards our terminological apparatus. Whether or not we have succeeded in this must be judged by our users: we provide some further discussion of our choices in terminology at pp. xl-xlii.

Keeping the book approachable also meant forgoing radical departures from 'normal' ways of organizing a grammar. Our syntax chapters, for instance, follow a traditional pattern, moving from the constructions of simple sentences (including basic nominal syntax and verbal categories such as tense, aspect and mood), to various kinds of subordinate constructions, gathered under such headings as 'causal clauses', 'purpose clauses', 'the participle', etc., which are strongly correlated to form. Another approach – one more attuned to the fact that language is not merely a system of forms, but a medium used by speakers and writers to accomplish certain goals and effects – might have been to give much more prominence to function, for instance by discussing all ways of expressing 'cause' or 'purpose' under one heading. This is not, in the end, the course we took, but gestures towards such an approach may be found throughout the book, and some chapters (e.g. the chapter on wishes, directives, etc.) more expressly align with such organizing principles.

We have put considerable effort into the selection of our Greek examples: some, of course, were found in our predecessors and recommissioned, but most were newly culled from a wide range of texts. Our aim has been to find, in varied sources, examples that are clear and actually representative of the phenomenon they are meant to exemplify. Digital search corpora such as the *Thesaurus Linguae Graecae*

and *Perseus under PhiloLogic* were of great help in finding suitable material. We also decided to dispense almost entirely with fabricated sentences, from a conviction that working with real Greek examples is the best way of learning how to deal with real Greek texts (and from what we consider a healthy mistrust of our own ability to produce Greek that would have sounded true to an ancient hearer).

In the phonology/morphology part, too, our presentation of forms is often based on a fresh examination of the corpus. Some exceptional forms that are often listed in grammars but do not actually occur in classical Greek have been left out. This is particularly relevant in the case of our list of principal parts, where we have generally avoided giving forms which are non-existent (or nearly so) in classical Greek.

While on the topic of the phonology/morphology: we have in those chapters provided rather more historical information than is now usual in university-level grammars. Much of what is 'irregular' in Greek forms and paradigms can be explained with a little historical background, and it is our experience that students benefit greatly from being provided with such information. It should be stressed that our aim in this was expressly didactic, not to provide a proper historical grammar. This is the only excuse we can offer to experts wondering about our principles of selection (no labiovelars?), or our manner of presentation (e.g. the use of the Greek alphabet for reconstructed forms, yielding, for instance, such infelicitous reconstructions as ${}^*\sigma_{EX}$ - instead of ${}^*seg^h$ -). Students interested in finding out more about the historical background of the language are strongly encouraged to refer to the works on this topic listed in the bibliography.

In the phonology/morphology part we have given indications of vowel quantity $(\breve{\alpha}/\breve{\alpha}, \breve{\imath}/\bar{\imath}, \breve{\upsilon}/\bar{\upsilon})$ where we deemed such indications helpful for the analysis of forms, or for students' memorization of prevalent patterns (e.g. vowel quantities in endings). We often give full indications only once within a section, or only when a form or ending first appears. We have not strived for complete consistency, nor attempted to replicate the information about individual lexical items available in dictionaries.

Finally, one other point of principle in the morphology has been to analyse forms explicitly: we find in our teaching that there is a crucial difference between telling a student that the acc. pl. masc. aor. ppl. act. of $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\nu}\omega$ is $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\nu}\sigma\alpha\nu\tau\alpha\varsigma$, and explaining that the form is built up from a sigmatic aorist stem $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\nu\sigma(\alpha)$ - (itself the product of regular processes of formation), the participle-suffix $-\nu\tau$ -, and a third-declension accusative ending $-\alpha\varsigma$. Our aim throughout has been to stimulate the second, analytical approach to Greek morphology.

Using CGCG: A Few Points of Guidance

The chapters of the book were written so as to be suitable for continuous reading, yet we recognize that most users of a reference grammar will come to it looking for

discussion of a particular topic. A detailed table of contents and extensive indexes should allow for easy navigation to the right place.

We have also included many cross-references throughout the book, so that related topics or terms may be followed up quickly. In some cases the 'target' of these references is a (more) complete treatment of a topic which is not (fully) discussed at the 'source'; in others, a cross-reference is inserted when a grammatical term or concept is used which users may not know, or which they may wish to see treated in more detail; we also use cross-references in the discussion of examples, helping readers with difficult points of grammar. Some readers will want to follow up more of these cross-references than others: we trust that individual users will soon develop their own preferences and practices in this respect.

A difference in type-size represents the difference between sections discussing features of the language that are more frequent, central, or significant (to our mind), and those that are less so. Notes are added to sections for further discussion, exceptions, etc. The general idea is that text in larger type presents the main features of a particular grammatical topic – those which an undergraduate student might be expected to know – whereas the notes and smaller-type sections offer additional information, or features with which students will be confronted when reading texts, but which they may not be expected to know by heart. Naturally, when *CGCG* is used as a teaching resource, instructors will determine for themselves which material they wish to emphasize.

In the morphology, tables of forms are presented before a paradigm is discussed in detail. Those looking for nothing but the tables, gathered together in one place, may find them online, at the book's page on the Cambridge University Press website.

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CGCG has been a long time in the making, and over the years many have contributed to its improvement. Where it falls short the responsibility is of course ours. It is a genuine pleasure to record here some of the debts we have incurred.

A first word of thanks must go out to the community of scholars working on Greek linguistics at large. Many of them will see their ideas reflected in these pages, and although, outside of our bibliography, we do not cite individuals by name (for reasons outlined above), their contribution in shaping our thinking is no less significant.

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Abbreviations, Symbols, Editions

Abbreviations Used in This Book

AUDICVI	ations esca in this b	UUK	
1	first person	ind.	indicative
2	second person	inf.	infinitive
2x acc.	double accusative	intr.	intransitive
3	third person	Ion.	Ionic
acc.	accusative	Ital.	Italian
act.	active	Lat.	Latin
adj.	adjective	lit.	(more) literally
adv.	adverb	masc./m.	masculine
Afrik.	Afrikaans	mid.	middle
aor.	aorist	mp.	middle-passive
athem.	athematic	n.	note
Att.	Attic	neut./n.	neuter
augm.	augment(ed)	nom.	nominative
cf.	compare (confer)	opt.	optative
class.	classical	pass.	passive
dat.	dative	pf.	perfect
decl. inf.	declarative infinitive	pl.	plural
du.	dual	plpf.	pluperfect (=secondary
			perfect indicative)
dyn. inf.	dynamic infinitive	ppl.	participle
Engl.	English	pres.	present
fem./f.	feminine	redupl.	reduplication/
			reduplicated
Fr.	French	refl.	reflexive
fut.	future	sec.	secondary
fut. pf.	future perfect	sg.	singular
gen.	genitive	sigm.	sigmatic
Germ.	German	subj.	subjunctive
Gk.	Greek	them.	thematic
imp.	imperative	voc.	vocative
impf.	imperfect (=secondary		
	present indicative)		

Abbreviations of authors and works used in the examples follow those of the Oxford Classical Dictionary, except that the orators are cited, where possible, by speech number, and that Euripides' Heracles is abbreviated (Her.). Fragments are

cited (fr.) with the edition from which they (and their numbering) are taken. When scholarly consensus holds a work to be spurious, this is indicated by square brackets (e.g. '[Andoc.] 4'). For a complete list see the Index of Examples at the end of the book.

Other Symbols

The symbol \rightarrow ('see') indicates a cross-reference to another chapter (e.g. \rightarrow 1), section (e.g. \rightarrow 1.2) or range of sections (e.g. \rightarrow 1.2-4). In some cases a cross-reference points to a specific note (e.g. \rightarrow 1.2 n.1).

Greek examples are numbered (1), (2), (3), etc. (the numbering restarts each chapter), and referred to using that format. Three dots (...) in Greek examples indicate that a part of the text has been left out for the sake of brevity or clarity. A vertical bar (|) indicates a line division in the Greek text. A double semicolon (::) is used to indicate a change of speaker. Explanatory notes in and following the translations of Greek examples are given in *italics*.

For the signs > and <, the asterisk * and the symbol †, $\rightarrow 1.48$.

For the representation of (reconstructed) sounds using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), \rightarrow 1.14.

Texts and Translations of Examples

Our examples were typically taken from electronic sources – we have made extensive usage of the online edition of *Thesaurus Linguae Graecae*, as well as the excellent search functionality of *Perseus under PhiloLogic*. All examples were subsequently checked against printed editions, normally the most recent Oxford Classical Text, in a few cases a Budé or Teubner edition. We have indicated any material left out, but have freely added full stops (or question marks) to sentences which are syntactically complete in our example but run on in the original. We have also indicated line divisions and speaker changes (see above, 'Other Symbols').

All translations are our own, although we have often borrowed phrasing from published translations (particularly those in the Loeb Classical Library series).

On Terminology

Problems and Principles

Greek grammar is something of a terminological morass. All kinds of phenomena are known by different overlapping – or not quite overlapping – labels, variously popular in different periods or different regions. Conversely, for some features of the language no good term has ever been firmly established. Matters are not helped by the fact that, outside of Greece, the traditional terminology for Greek grammar is largely based on Latin grammar, even though there are some fundamental differences between the two languages (particularly in the verbal system).

The challenges for the grammar writer are many, ranging from the trivial to the serious: should we call ϵi + optative a 'hypothetical' condition, a 'remote' condition, a 'should-would' condition, a 'potential' condition, or perhaps a 'future less vivid'? Should we refer to $\mu\dot{\eta}\nu$ as a 'modal', 'attitudinal' or 'interactional' particle, or perhaps as a particle which 'expresses a mode of thought in isolation' (all the while well aware that the term 'particle' itself has fallen out of favour with linguists today)? Being no real fans of the 'declarative' and 'dynamic' infinitive, should we yet abandon those terms – now fairly well established in Greek linguistics, if not in Classics at large – for an older apparatus which blurs the crucial distinctions? Are 'imperfective' and 'perfective', the fully standardized terms in the linguistic literature on verbal aspect, too confusing to use when there are also imperfects and (not at all perfective) perfects to contend with?

Any answer to such problems is inevitably a compromise, and one which will leave a number of people unhappy to see no preference accorded to their preferred terms. What remains is to briefly state our general principles in selecting and using terminology in this book:

- We aim to use, whenever possible, terms which have some currency in general linguistics, not merely in Greek grammar.
- We wish to reflect, through our selection of terms, some of the significant advances made in Greek linguistics in recent decades.
- We aim to use terminology which is accurate and discrete (i.e. terms cover the phenomena they are meant to cover, and no more or less).
- Taking the above principles into account, we aim to use terminology which is intuitive (ideally, self-explanatory) and, where possible, familiar.
- Finally, and most importantly, we have strived for 'terminological inclusiveness' throughout: our notes and our Index of Subjects provide many alternative terms for the phenomena we treat (sometimes we also indicate why those alternative terms were not chosen).

Verbal Terminology

Separate attention in this context is demanded by the verb. A satisfying description of the Greek verbal system is made especially difficult by the confusion plaguing traditional grammatical terminology. This confusion is not easily resolved, other than by completely abandoning that traditional terminology (a course we decided not to take). Although we aim to be precise in our use of verbal terminology, some overlaps and forms of shorthand will remain, and it is good to be clear about these at the outset (reference to the table that opens chapter 11 may be helpful here; fuller discussion of the relevant terms may be found in that chapter).

Tenses, Aspects and Moods

- The term **tense** is found used as (i) a morphological concept identifying certain indicatives ('the imperfect tense', 'the aorist tense', 'narrative tenses', etc.), (ii) as the equivalent of what we will call tense-aspect stems ('a participle of the aorist tense', 'a present-tense optative', 'the tenses outside the indicative', etc.) and (iii) as a grammatical concept referring to the expression of temporal relationships ('past tenses', 'present tenses', etc.; 'anteriority', 'simultaneity', etc.). In this grammar 'tense' is primarily used in the third sense, occasionally in the first. The second use will (and should) be avoided, since the term 'tense' is much less relevant to the description of (e.g.) participles and optatives.
- Similarly, the terms present, aorist, future and perfect are used both (i) to refer to tense-aspect stems ('a perfect infinitive', 'the aorist optative does not have an augment') and (ii) to refer to the indicatives of these tense-aspect stems ('aorists and imperfects', 'the aorist has an augment'). It may be noted that in the latter use, 'aorist' is a direct equivalent of 'imperfect', but not in the former (there is, in Greek, no 'imperfect subjunctive' parallel to the 'aorist subjunctive'). In this book we write 'aorist' for 'aorist indicative' (etc.) only when there can be no doubt about the intended meaning.

Note 1: Thus, most often, 'aorist' in this book stands for a stem which expresses a kind of aspect (perfective aspect), 'present' for a stem which expresses another kind (imperfective aspect), etc.: for these distinctions, →33.4–7. We observe that in some recent treatments in general linguistics, the stems are in fact referred to by these names (yielding such terminology as 'primary imperfective indicative' for Greek forms which we will call 'present indicative', and 'perfective infinitive' for what we call 'aorist infinitive'). Such a system has considerable advantages, but strays, perhaps, too far from territory familiar to most students and scholars of Greek.

We prefer simple imperfect and pluperfect over 'imperfect indicative' and 'pluperfect indicative', since the latter formulations are tautologous (Greek imperfects and pluperfects are by definition indicatives), and may suggest that

- other variables could go into the indicative 'slot' (which they cannot: there is no 'imperfect subjunctive'). For the definition of the imperfect as 'secondary present indicative' and the pluperfect as 'secondary perfect indicative', $\rightarrow 11.7$.
- We identify only indicatives, subjunctives, optatives and imperatives as moods:
 the infinitive and participle should not be classed as such.

On 'First' and 'Second' Aorists and Perfects

Finally, there is a persistent tradition in handbooks to distinguish between 'first' (or 'weak') and 'second' (or 'strong') forms in the aorist, aorist passive and perfect stems:

- An aorist stem is called first (or 'weak') when σ is added to the verb stem (e.g. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon\underline{\sigma}(\alpha)$ -), an aorist passive stem when θ is added (e.g. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon\underline{\theta}\eta$ -), a perfect stem when κ is added (e.g. $\pi\epsilon\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon\kappa$ -).
- Otherwise, forms are second (or 'strong').

We have not followed this use: 'first' and 'second' are, in our view, unhelpful terms which provide insufficient morphological information (note, for instance, that the 'second' thematic aorist $\dot{\epsilon}$ - $\lambda i\pi - \underline{o}$ - $\mu \epsilon \nu$ has a thematic vowel, whereas 'second' root aorist $\dot{\epsilon}$ - $\gamma \nu \omega$ - $\mu \epsilon \nu$ does not; these should not be classed together), and which misleadingly suggest that phenomena which are in fact highly regular (e.g. perfect active stems ending in χ or φ) are irregular. Instead, we distinguish between three types of aorist stem (sigmatic, thematic, root; \rightarrow 13), between two types of aorist passive stem ($\theta \eta$ - and η -; \rightarrow 14), and between three types of perfect active stem (κ -, aspirated, stem; \rightarrow 18).

Part I

Phonology and Morphology

The Signs and Sounds of Classical Greek

Writing: the Alphabet, Accent and Breathing Marks, Punctuation

The Alphabet

1.1 The standard Greek alphabet consists of twenty-four letters:

	capital	lower case	name		capital	lower case	name
1	A	α	ἄλφα alpha	13	N	ν	vũ nu
2	В	β	βῆτα beta	14	Ξ	ξ	ξεῖ (ξῖ) <i>xi</i>
3	Γ	Υ	γάμμα gamma	15	0	0	ὂ μικρόν
							omicron
4	Δ	δ	δέλτα delta	16	П	π	πεῖ (πῖ) <i>pi</i>
5	Е	ε	ἒ ψιλόν epsilon	17	P	ρ	ρῶ <i>rho</i>
6	Z	ζ	ζῆτα zeta	18	Σ, C	σ, ς, c	σῖγμα/σίγμα
							sigma
7	Н	η	ἦτα <i>eta</i>	19	Т	τ	ταῦ tau
8	Θ	0	θ ῆτα theta	20	Υ	U	ὖ ψιλόν
							upsilon
9	1	1	ἰῶτα <i>iota</i>	21	Φ	φ	φεῖ (φῖ) <i>phi</i>
10	K	к	κάππα <i>kappa</i>	22	X	χ	χεῖ (χῖ) <i>chi</i>
11	٨	λ	λά(μ)βδα	23	Ψ	Ψ	ψεῖ (ψῖ) <i>psi</i>
			la(m)bda				
12	M	μ	μῦ <i>mu</i>	24	Ω	ω	ὧ μέγα omega

1.2 Several other letters were used in Greek alphabets during and before the classical period. Of these, the following will be used in this book:

```
    letter name
    digamma or wau (→1.31, 1.74, 9.13); the symbols u or w are also used as an equivalent of this.
    koppa (→9.13)
    stigma (→9.13)
```

san or sampi $(\rightarrow 9.13)$

Not part of any Greek alphabet, but frequently used in the transcription of reconstructed Greek, is the sign y, $yod (\rightarrow 1.31, 1.74)$; this is also often written as \underline{i} or as \underline{j} .

Particulars

- 1.3 For the pronunciation (and phonetic categorization) of the letters, $\rightarrow 1.14-33$. α , ϵ , η , ι , o, v and ω represent vowels; the other letters represent consonants, apart from ζ , ξ and ψ , which each represent two consonants.
- 1.4 **Lower case sigma** is conventionally written σ in all positions except at the end of a word, where it is written ς: e.g. Σώστρατος, στάσις. Some text editions use so-called 'lunate' sigma C/c in all positions: e.g. Cώςτρατος, ςτάςις.
- 1.5 Some specific spelling conventions pertain to **diphthongs** (combinations of two vowels that are pronounced in a single syllable):
 - Only the first part of diphthongs is **capitalized**: e.g. Αἴγυπτος, Εὐριπίδης.
 - In three diphthongs ending in iota, the iota is conventionally printed underneath the first vowel: α, η and ω. This is called iota subscript.
 Alternatively, these diphthongs are sometimes printed with iota adscript: αι, ηι, ωι. Iota subscript is not used with capitals: e.g. "Αιδης, 'Ωιδή (lower case ἀδή).

For a complete list of diphthongs, their pronunciation, and details concerning iota subscript, $\rightarrow 1.20-3$. For accents and breathings on diphthongs, $\rightarrow 1.8$.

Accents and Breathings

- 1.6 Three accent signs are conventionally used in Greek texts:
 - the acute accent ': e.g. $\dot{\alpha}$, $\dot{\epsilon}$, \dot{o} , $\alpha \dot{i}$, $o \dot{i}$;
 - the **grave** accent ': e.g. $\dot{\alpha}$, $\dot{\epsilon}$, \dot{o} , $\dot{\upsilon}$, $\alpha \dot{i}$, $o \dot{i}$ (written only on the final syllable of a word);
 - the circumflex accent ~ (also frequently written ^): e.g. α, η, αῦ, οῖ (written only on long vowels or diphthongs).

For the value of these accents and the basic principles of Greek accentuation, \rightarrow 24.

- 1.7 Two breathing signs are conventionally used in Greek texts, written on words that begin with a vowel or diphthong, or with ρ :
 - the **smooth breathing** (*spiritus lenis*) ': e.g. ὄρος, αὐτή, ἦ;
 - the **rough breathing** (*spiritus asper*) ': e.g. ὅρος, αὕτη, ἦ.

A rough breathing indicates **aspiration**, i.e. a [h]-sound preceding the opening vowel/diphthong of a word (\rightarrow 1.27). In addition, words beginning with ρ are written with a rough breathing (e.g. $\dot{\rho}$ i $\pi\tau\omega$). A smooth breathing indicates the lack of aspiration.

1.8 The following conventions pertain to the placement of accents and breathing marks:

1.8–9 Writing 5

- Accents and breathing marks are written only on vowels (and the rough breathing on ρ). When written on a **capitalized** vowel or ρ , accents and breathings are placed **before** the letter:

ό Ἐρατοσθένης

ό Ἄδμητος

ή Ῥόδος

 When written on a diphthong, accents and breathings are written on the second vowel:

αἰτεῖν οὔκουν οἷος Εὐριπίδης ποίησον παιδεῦον

However, when an accent and/or breathing is written on a **diphthong with an iota subscript**, it is written on the first vowel. This convention is followed even in cases where adscript iota is used (in certain text editions, or if the diphthong is capitalized):

ผู้หอบง (adscript: ผู้เหอบง)

ή (adscript: ἡι)

"Αιδης

In combinations of breathing marks and accents, acute or grave accents are written after (i.e. to the right of) breathing marks (e.g. οὔκουν, ἃ, Ἄδμητος); the circumflex is placed above breathing marks (e.g. εἶδος, ῷ, Ἦρα).

Punctuation

- 1.9 Modern editions of Greek texts use the following signs of punctuation:
 - the **period** (.): serves the same function as in English usage;
 - the **comma** (,): serves the same function as in English usage;
 - the **high dot** (·): roughly the equivalent of the English semi-colon (;) and colon (:);
 - the **question mark** (;): the equivalent of the English question mark (?);
 - the **apostrophe** ('): used to indicate elision of a vowel $(\rightarrow 1.34-8)$;
 - dashes (—) or parenthesis signs (()) are used to mark parentheses; the dash is also used by some editors to mark interrupted/incomplete utterances in dramatic texts; other editors use three dots (. . .).

Modern editions are inconsistent in their use of **quotation marks**: some editions are printed entirely without quotation marks (often with a capital letter at the start of the quoted speech – this convention is followed in this book), some use "…" or '…'; finally, some text editions (particularly those printed in France and Italy) use «…».

Note 1: Modern punctuation of Ancient Greek texts traditionally follows the conventions used in modern languages (and therefore varies according to where an edition is printed): it often does not reflect the probable ancient intonation and/or writing conventions.

Further Diacritical Signs

- 1.10 Apart from the breathings, accents and punctuation signs listed above, the following signs are used:
 - the diaeresis ": written on the second of two vowels to indicate that they do not form a diphthong (e.g. δαΐζω, ἄϋπνος);
 - the coronis' (sign identical to a smooth breathing): used to indicate crasis, the merging of a word ending with a vowel/diphthong and a word beginning with a vowel/diphthong: e.g. ταὐτό (= τὸ αὐτό), κἦτα (= καὶ εἶτα); for details, →1.43-5.

The Alphabet, Breathings, Accents, Punctuation: a Very Brief Historical Overview

1.11 The Greeks adopted the **alphabet** from the Phoenicians, presumably in the ninth century BCE, with the first securely dated inscriptions attested in the eighth century BCE. The letters of the Phoenician alphabet all represented consonants, but the Greeks re-assigned the value of some of the letters to represent vowels, and added some letters. Most of the names of the Greek letters are derived from the Phoenician names.

Early Greek alphabets differed strongly from each other, with respect to both the inventory and the shape of the symbols. The East-Ionic alphabet (which had some particular innovations, such as assigning a vowel-sound to the letter H) was eventually adopted throughout the Greek world; in Athens, it was adopted for official state documents in 403/402 BCE, although it may have been introduced earlier for literary works. This is the standardized alphabet given above.

The division between upper and lower case letters is not ancient: small letters (minuscules) were introduced in the ninth/tenth centuries CE by Byzantine scholars; the ancient Greeks themselves only wrote in capital letters (majuscules/uncials). In modern editions, capital letters are conventionally used only at the beginning of names and sometimes at the beginning of a new sentence, a new paragraph, a new speech turn (in dialogues), or to mark the beginning of cited direct speech (the latter convention is followed in this book). Inscriptions are sometimes printed entirely in capital letters in modern editions.

Note 1: For the use of the letters of the alphabet as numerals, \rightarrow 9.13.

1.12 **Breathing marks** and **accents** were introduced by scholars working in the Library of Alexandria in the Hellenistic period. The system of accentuation adopted in modern text editions, although deriving indirectly from these Hellenistic scholars, is based on treatises by Byzantine scholars.

1.13 The Greeks also did not avail themselves systematically of **punctuation** or **word divisions** (although early inscriptions sometimes used the signs : or : for divisions between words or word groups). Both were introduced in Byzantine times and adopted in modern editions.

Pronunciation: Vowels and Diphthongs

The (reconstructed) pronunciation of sounds in classical Greek in the following sections is given in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), and with as close an approximation in English or another modern language as possible. IPA symbols are given between square brackets (e.g. [a]). Many IPA symbols are predictable and correspond to standard English usage; some, however, diverge (for these, a guide or the website of the *International Phonetic Association* may be consulted). The symbol: in IPA indicates a long vowel (e.g. [a:]).

Vowels

1.15 The following are the Greek **vowels**, and their pronunciation. In addition, an approximation of the classical pronunciation is given in English and/or another modern language.

vowel	sound	example	approximation
α	[a]	γ <u>ά</u> ρ [gár] <i>for</i>	aha, Germ. Mann, Ital. amare
	[a:]	χώρ <u>α</u> [kʰɔ́ːraː] <i>land</i>	ah <u>a</u> , Ital. am <u>a</u> re
ε	[e]	ψ <u>έ</u> γω [pségɔ:] <i>rebuke</i>	<u>fa</u> tal, Fr. cl <u>é</u>
η	[ε:]	ἦθος [ê:tʰos] character	<u>ai</u> r, Fr. tête
ı	[i]	πόλις [pólis] city	fanc <u>y</u> , Fr. écr <u>i</u> t
	[i:]	δελφ <u>ĩ</u> νος [delp ^h î:nos] dolphin (gen.)	w <u>ee</u> d
0	[o]	π <u>ο</u> τε [pote] once	g <u>o,</u> n <u>o</u> torious, Germ. M <u>o</u> tiv
υ	[y]	φ <u>ύ</u> σις [pʰýsis] <i>nature</i>	Fr. l <u>u</u> ne
	[y:]	μ <u>ῦ</u> θος [mŷ:t ^h os] <i>word, story</i>	Fr. m <u>u</u> se, écl <u>u</u> se
ω	[:c]	Πλάτ <u>ω</u> ν [plátɔːn] <i>Plato</i>	more, notorious

Below, to distinguish short and long α , 1 and υ , the marks $\check{}$ (*breve*, short) and $\check{}$ (*macron*, long) will frequently be used: $\check{\alpha}$, $\check{}$, and $\check{\upsilon}$ are short, $\check{\alpha}$, $\check{}$ and $\check{}$ are long. ε and $\check{}$ are always short. η and ω are always long.

Note 1: In conventional Anglophone pronunciation of Ancient Greek, ε is usually pronounced $[\varepsilon]$ as in \underline{get} , η is often (especially in America) pronounced $[\varepsilon]$ as in \underline{made} , ι is usually pronounced $[\iota]$ as in \underline{win} , and ι is often pronounced $[\iota]$ as in \underline{got} .

Phonetic Details

- 1.16 Vowels are produced by the uninterrupted flow of air from the vocal cords through the mouth (as opposed to consonants, which involve a complete or partial interruption of the air flow, \rightarrow 1.25).
- 1.17 The **quality** of a vowel (its sound) is determined by three factors:
 - height (or 'openness'): the vertical position of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth: for example, 1 and 0 are 'high' ('close') vowels, because the tongue is high in the mouth when they are pronounced; α is a 'low' ('open') vowel;
 - backness: the position of the tongue relative to the back of the mouth: for example, ι is a 'front' vowel, because the tongue is positioned towards the front of the mouth when it is pronounced; ο is a 'back' vowel; α is a 'central' vowel;
 - **roundedness**: whether the lips are rounded or not: for example, υ and o are 'rounded' because the lips are rounded when they are pronounced; ι , ε and α are 'unrounded'.
- 1.18 The **quantity** (length) of a vowel is determined primarily by the duration of its pronunciation, although there are often changes in quality between long and short vowels as well. Note that the letters α , 1 and ν are used to represent both short and long vowels. The long equivalent of ε is either η or 'spurious' ε_1 ; the long equivalent of ν is either ν or 'spurious' ou (ν 1.23).
- 1.19 Using these variables, the vowel system of classical Attic may be represented as follows (the outer triangle represents long vowels, the inner triangle short vowels; rounded vowels are underlined):

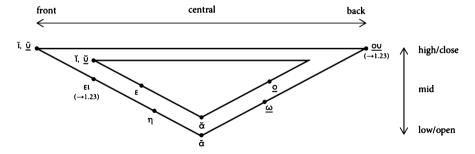


Figure 1.1: Vowel triangle: the vowel system of classical Attic

Diphthongs

1.20 Greek has thirteen **diphthongs**, combinations of two vowels that are pronounced in a single syllable. The second part of a diphthong is always either ι or υ. On the basis of the quantity of the first vowel, a distinction is made between 'short' and 'long' diphthongs (although the resulting syllable is always long for the purposes of metre and accentuation, except for final -oι/-αι in certain words; for details →24.7, 24.10).

Short Diphthongs

1.21 The following are the **short diphthongs**:

diphthong	sound	example	approximation
αι	[ai]	κ <u>αι</u> νός [kainós] <i>new</i>	high, eye (with short first vowel)
ει	[e:] (earlier [ei])	π <u>εί</u> θω [pé:t ^h ɔ:] persuade	<i>m<u>a</u>de</i> , Germ. <i>B<u>ee</u>t (earlier <u>eig</u>ht, h<u>ey</u>)</i>
01	[oi]	λ <u>οι</u> πός [loipós] remaining	Afrik. r <u>ooi</u> bos (with short first vowel)
Uι	[yj]	μ <u>υῖ</u> α [myĵa] <i>fly</i>	Fr. h <u>ui</u> t, hallel <u>uj</u> a
αυ	[au]	τ <u>αῦ</u> ρος [taûros] <i>bull</i>	<i>how</i> (with short first vowel)
ευ	[eu]	<u>εὖ</u> ρος [eûros] <i>width</i>	(no close equivalent available) a glide from <i>get</i> to <i>wide</i> ; cf. Cockney <i>bell</i>
ου	[o:] (earlier [ou], later [u:])	π <u>ού</u> ς [pό:s] <i>foot</i>	<i>mode</i> (earlier <i>low</i> , later <i>pool</i>)

Note 1: υ as second part of a diphthong was presumably closer to [u] (as in Engl. do) than to [y]. Moreover, ι and υ in diphthongs were not pronounced exactly like the equivalent single vowels, but as sounds approximating 'semivowels' [j] and [w] (as in Engl. you and wave); this was particularly the case when the diphthong preceded a vowel, in which case ι/υ was pronounced as a glide between the vowel sounds (as in Engl. hey you and new wave). For the semivowels, also $\rightarrow 1.31$.

Note 2: vi occurs only before vowels.

Long Diphthongs

1.22 In **long** diphthongs, if the second part is 1, it is written in most texts *under* the first letter (**iota subscript**):

diphthong	sound	example	approximation
ά	[a:i]	<u>ἄ</u> δω [aːídɔː] sing	r <u>y</u> e
ņ	[ε:i]	κομιδ <u>ῆ</u> [komidê:i] <i>entirely</i>	Fr. appar <u>eil</u>
ώ	[i:c]	τραγ <u>ω</u> δία [trago:idía:] tragedy	noise (with long first vowel)
αυ	[a:u]	τ <u>αὐ</u> τό [taːutó] <i>the same</i>	<i>how</i> (with long first vowel)
ηυ	[ɛːu]	<u>ηὖ</u> ρον [hê:uron] <i>found</i>	(similar to $\epsilon \upsilon$, but with long
			first vowel)
ωυ	$[\mathfrak{o}:\mathfrak{u}]$	έ <u>ωυ</u> τόν [heɔːutón] <i>himself</i>	a glide from more to wide;
		$(Ion., \rightarrow 25.14)$	cf. s <u>aw</u>

Note 1: The 1 as second part of long diphthongs was gradually lost in the pronunciation of post-classical Greek, and subsequently also in writing. Iota subscript was then introduced to indicate the original presence of the sound. In an increasing number of modern text editions, the iota is written as a full letter: **iota adscript** (η_1 instead of η , α_1 instead of α , α_2 instead of α). Observe that α_1 in this system is ambiguous (it can be both a 'short' and a 'long' diphthong; but -1.8 above for the position of accents and breathing marks).

Note 2: The 1 as second part of $\underline{\eta}$ was probably lost already in the classical period. This sound then appears to have merged with ε_1 .

Note 3: In conventional Anglophone pronunciation of Ancient Greek, iota subscript is usually not pronounced (i.e. η is pronounced as η , etc.).

'Spurious' Diphthongs & and ou

- 1.23 Two developments contributed to a peculiar feature of Greek (particularly Attic-Ionic) spelling:
 - a long e-sound and a long o-sound, [e:] and [o:], came into use as the result of contraction (→1.58–65) or compensatory lengthening (→1.67–9); these were distinct from namely 'higher' (→1.17–19) than the older long vowels [ε:] (eventually written η) and [o:] (eventually written ω);
 - the pronunciation of the diphthongs [ei] and [ou] gradually shifted towards [e:] and [o:] as well (they were monophthongized).

As a result, in the late fifth century, the digraphs ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 began to be used to represent [e:] and [o:], not just when these sounds developed from the older 'genuine' diphthongs (at that time no longer pronounced as such), but also when they resulted from contraction or compensatory lengthening. This spelling was later standardized.

Because E1 and OU in such cases represent sounds which were never genuine diphthongs, they are normally called 'spurious' diphthongs.

Note 1: Below, $\bar{\epsilon}$ and \bar{o} will occasionally be used to represent [e:] and [o:] when resulting from contraction or compensatory lengthening, in order to distinguish them from 'genuine' diphthongs. It may be noted that E and O was the spelling for both long [e:]/[o:] and short [e]/[o] in Attic inscriptions up to the late fifth century BCE: the use of EI and OY made it possible to distinguish the long vowels from short [e] and [o].

Note 2: The pronunciation of ou (whether originally genuine or 'spurious') soon shifted to [u:] (the pronunciation was fronted and raised, $\rightarrow 1.17-19$).

Pronunciation: Consonants

List of Consonants

1.24 The following are the Greek **consonants**, and their pronunciation:

consonant	sound	example	approximation
β	[b]	βαίνω [baino:] go, walk	<u>b</u> ed
Y	[g]	- γυνή [gynέ:] woman	_ guy
	before γ, κ, χ: [ŋ]	συχγενής [syngené:s] akin	livi <u>ng</u> ,
			ha <u>ng</u> man
δ	[d]	<u>δ</u> ιά [diá] through	<u>d</u> ear
ζ	[zd]	ζοή [zdoέ:] <i>life</i>	wi <u>sd</u> om
0	[t ^h]	<u>θ</u> άνατος [t ^h ánatos] <i>death</i>	(word-initial t)
			<u>T</u> om
к	[k]	<u>èк</u> [ek] out of, from	s <u>c</u> an
λ	[1]	κα <u>λ</u> ός [kalós] <i>beautiful</i>	<u>l</u> esson
μ	[m]	ῥῆ <u>μ</u> α [rʰɛ̂ːma] <i>word</i>	<u>m</u> other
ν	[n]	νύξ [núks] night	<u>n</u> othing
ξ	[ks]	ξίφος [ksíp ^h os] <i>sword</i>	<u>ex</u>
π	[p]	λεί <u>π</u> ω [lé:pɔ:] leave	s <u>p</u> ot
ρ	[r]	ည်έω [rʰéɔː] <i>flow</i>	<i>rhyme</i> (rolling r)
σ/ς	[s]	βά <u>σις</u> [básis] step	<u>s</u> ound
τ	[t]	κρά <u>τ</u> ος [krátos] <i>power</i>	s <u>t</u> ill
φ	[p ^h]	γράφω [grápʰɔ:] write	(word-initial p)
			<u>p</u> ot
x	[k ^h]	ταχύς [takʰýs] <i>quick</i>	<u>ch</u> orus
Ψ	[ps]	ρ΄αψωδός [rʰapsɔ:idós] rhapsode	la <u>ps</u> e

Phonetic Details

1.25 Consonants are sounds produced by the complete or partial interruption of the flow of air by a constriction at some point in the vocal tract: the Greek consonants may be divided into the following categories: stops (labial, velar and dental stops), fricatives, liquids, and nasals (for semivowels, \rightarrow 1.31).

Stops

- 1.26 **Stops** (or **plosives**): sounds produced by the complete interruption of the flow of air. Within this category, three groups may be distinguished, depending on the place of articulation:
 - (bi)labial stops: the flow of air is interrupted by pressing the lips (Lat. *labia*) together;
 - dental stops: the flow of air is interrupted by pressing the tongue against the teeth (Lat. dentes);

velar stops: the flow of air is interrupted by pressing the tongue against the roof
of the mouth (Lat. velum).

The stops may be further divided between:

- **voiced stops**: the vocal cords vibrate;
- voiceless stops: the vocal cords do not vibrate;
- aspirated (voiceless) stops: the sound is produced together with aspiration (an h-sound: →1.27).

The following are the nine stops of Greek:

	voiced	voiceless	aspirated (voiceless)
labial stops	β [b]	π [p]	$\varphi \ [p^h]$
dental stops	δ [d]	τ [t]	θ [t ^h]
velar stops	γ [g]	κ [k]	χ [k^h]

Note 1: In conventional Anglophone pronunciation, φ and θ are often pronounced as fricatives ([f] as in Engl. *fast* and $[\theta]$ as in *theatre*, respectively). This corresponds to the pronunciation of medieval and modern Greek.

Note 2: γ may also be a nasal, \rightarrow 1.29, with n.1.

Fricatives

1.27 **Fricatives**: sounds produced by 'squeezing' air through a constriction at some point in the mouth. The standard Greek alphabet has only one fricative, σ , a voiceless **sibilant** (a sharp 'hissing' sound; the obstruction is formed by pressing the tongue against the gums).

In addition, the rough breathing (') represents a fricative, [h].

Resonants

- 1.28 The category of **resonants** consists of the nasal consonants μ and ν (and in certain cases γ) and the so-called 'liquids' λ and ρ .
- 1.29 **Nasals**: the air flow is completely obstructed in the mouth, but flows through the nose. The Greek alphabet has three nasals (all voiced):
 - a labial nasal, μ [m]: the flow of air is interrupted by pressing the lips together;
 air escapes through the nose;
 - a **dental nasal**, ν [n]: the flow of air is interrupted by pressing the tongue against the teeth or gums; air escapes through the nose;
 - a **velar nasal**, γ [ŋ] (only when written before a velar stop γ , κ , χ): the flow of air is interrupted by pressing the tongue against the roof of the mouth; air escapes through the nose.

Note 1: The letter γ was, according to scholars in antiquity, pronounced as $[\eta]$ also before the nasal μ , e.g. in $\pi\rho\tilde{\alpha}\gamma\mu\alpha$ [pra: η ma]. This sound was then called 'angma'. In modern convention, however, this pronunciation is usually not followed, and γ before μ is given its 'regular' pronunciation as a voiced velar stop [g].

- 1.30 **Liquids**: two Greek letters belong to the class of liquids λ and ρ :
 - a lateral consonant, λ [1]: air escapes along the sides of the tongue, but not through the middle of the mouth;
 - a rhotic consonant (or 'tremulant'), ρ [r]: this was pronounced as a rolling, 'alveolar trill' sound, with the tongue vibrating against the gums. At the beginning of a word (and in some cases in the middle of a word), this sound was pronounced with aspiration (hence word-initial *rho* is always written β-).
- 1.31 To the category of resonants also belong the so-called **semivowels**:
 - [j], as in Engl. you: in the notation of Greek, the letter yod (y, also j) is used to represent this sound; some modern treatments use the symbol i;
 - [w], as in Engl. wave: various Greek alphabets used the letter digamma (f, also known as wau) for this sound; some modern treatments use the symbol w or u.

The semivowels are the equivalents of the vowels ι and υ , but they occur in different environments; for this, and for their disappearance from Greek, $\rightarrow 1.74-82$.

Geminates

Most of the consonants discussed above can be doubled (so-called 'geminates'), e.g. $\kappa\kappa$, $\mu\mu$, $\sigma\sigma$: these stand for 'lengthened' versions of the same sounds (cf. the pronunciation of English compounds such as *unnamed*, *part-time*). In geminates with an aspirated stop ($\pi\phi$, $\tau\theta$, $\kappa\chi$), only the second letter is written in its aspirated form (thus e.g. $\Sigma\alpha\underline{\tau}\underline{\phi}\omega$ *Sappho*). Geminates affect the metrical quantity of a syllable: thus e.g. the first syllable of $\ddot{\sigma}\mu\mu\alpha$ *eye* is long for the purpose of metre, even though the o is a short vowel.

Letters Representing Two Consonants

- 1.33 **Single letters, two consonants**: three letters in the Greek alphabet represent a combination of two consonants:
 - ζ [zd]: voiced sibilant, followed by voiced dental stop;
 - ξ [ks]: voiceless velar stop, followed by voiceless sibilant;
 - $-\psi$ [ps]: voiceless labial stop, followed by voiceless sibilant.

Note 1: In conventional Anglophone pronunciation, ζ is sometimes pronounced as a single voiced sibilant [z] (as in Engl. *zoo*). This corresponds to that of post-classical and later Greek.

Elision, 'Movable' Consonants, Crasis, Hiatus

Elision

1.34 Most short vowels at the end of a word may be dropped before a word beginning with a vowel or diphthong; this is called **elision**. That a vowel has been elided is indicated by an **apostrophe** ('):

ἀπ' αὐτοῦ (= ἀπ(ὁ) αὐτοῦ) from him

(1) ἔτ' ἄρ' Ἀθηνῶν ἔστ' ἀπόρθητος πόλις; (= ἔτ(ῖ) ἄρ(α) Ἀθηνῶν ἔστ(ῖ) ἀπόρθητος πόλις;) (Aesch. *Pers.* 348)

Is, then, the city of the Athenians still not sacked?

When π , κ or τ precedes the elided vowel, and the following word begins with a vowel/diphthong with rough breathing, the stop is aspirated (φ , χ , θ ; 'assimilation', \rightarrow 1.88–9):

ἀφ' οὖ (= ἀπ(ὁ) οὖ) since

- (2) ἀλλ' ἔσθ' ὅθ' ἡμᾶς αἰνέσεις. (= ἀλλ(α) ἔστ(ῖ) ὅτ(ε) ἡμᾶς αἰνέσεις.) (Eur. Alc. 1109) But there will be a day when you will praise me.
- 1.35 Elision also takes place in **compound words**, although this is not marked in writing:

<u>ἐπέ</u>ρχομαι come upon (ἐπί + ἔρχομαι), <u>ἄφε</u>σις discharge (ἀπό + ἕσις)

In monosyllabic words, the final vowel can only be elided if it is ε: e.g. γ' (γ ε), δ' (δ έ), μ' (μ ε), but not, for instance, the vowel of τό, τά, τί, πρό, etc.

The -ĭ of π ερί and ὅτι is never elided; the final ι of third-declension dative singular forms ending in ι (e.g. φύλακι) is elided only very rarely. Final -ŭ is never elided.

- 1.37 In poetry, the first vowel of a word (usually è-) may be elided when it *follows* a word ending in a long vowel or diphthong. This is called '**prodelision**' or 'aphaeresis'. E.g. ποῦ 'στι (= ποῦ (è) στι), ἐγὼ 'κ (= ἐγὼ (è)κ).
- Rarely, and only in poetry, final -αι or -οι is elided: e.g. εἶν' ἐν τῇ πόλει (= εἶν(αι) ἐν τῇ πόλει) to be in the city, οἴμ' ὡς ἀθυμῶ (= οἴμ(οι) ὡς ἀθυμῶ) woe, how I suffer.

'Movable' Consonants

- 1.39 Some verb forms and nominal forms normally get an additional -ν when a word beginning with a vowel or diphthong follows, and often at the end of a clause or sentence. This is called 'movable' nu (Gr. νῦ ἐφελκυστικόν). It occurs with the following forms:
 - nominal forms with a dative plural ending in -σι: e.g. πατράσι(ν), "Ελλησι(ν), τοῖσι(ν);

- third-person verb forms ending in -ε or -ι: e.g. ἔλεγε(ν), φέρουσι(ν), τίθησι(ν),
 ἐστί(ν):
- the 3 sg. impf. ἤει(ν) he went, and 3 sg. pluperfects ending in -ει(ν): e.g. ἤδει(ν) he knew; and in the 1 sg. impf. ἦ(ν) I was.

ἔλεγε<u>ν</u> αὐτοῖς she said to them
 ἔλεγ<u>ε</u> τοιάδε she said the following
 φέρουσι<u>ν</u> αΐδε πρόσπολοι these servants
 διαφέρουσ<u>ι</u> δ' αἱ φύσεις natures differ

πᾶσιν ἀνθρώποις all men πᾶσι θεοῖς all the gods

The optional presence of movable nu is indicated in this book by '-(ν)'.

Note 1: Especially in poetry, movable nu is written even before consonants: e.g. πᾶσιν βροτοῖς all mortals (often for metrical purposes, as it makes the final syllable of its word metrically 'long'). This occurs sometimes in prose texts as well, however.

1.40 The word οὕτως so, thus is usually spelled οὕτω (without final -5) when a word beginning with a consonant follows. This -5 is therefore sometimes also called 'movable':

οὕτω<u>ς ἐ</u>τελεύτησεν so he died οὕτ<u>ω δ</u>έχονται τὸν στρατόν so they receive the army

- 1.41 The preposition ἐκ takes the form ἐξ when followed by a word beginning with a vowel: ἐξ ἀνδρῶν from men ἐκ βροτῶν from mortals
- 1.42 The negative **où** *not* has three forms: où before consonants, oùκ before vowels/ diphthongs, but oùχ before vowels/diphthongs with rough breathing:

<u>οὐ θ</u>έμις it is not allowed οὐ<u>κ οἶ</u>δα I do not know οὐ<u>χ ὁ</u>ρᾳς; don't you see?

Note 1: For the forms oʊ/oʊ̃k/oʊ̃χ (with accent) and oʊ̃χi, \rightarrow 24.36, 56.1.

Note 2: $\mu\eta\kappa\dot{\epsilon}\tau$ 1 *no longer* (negative $\mu\dot{\eta} + \ddot{\epsilon}\tau$ 1) has its κ by analogy with où $\kappa\dot{\epsilon}\tau$ 1 *no longer* (où κ + $\ddot{\epsilon}\tau$ 1).

Crasis

1.43 Two words of which the first (a word of at most two syllables) ends in a vowel/diphthong, and the second begins with a vowel/diphthong, may 'blend' together, the two blended syllables forming a single new syllable. This is known as **crasis** ($\kappa\rho\tilde{\alpha}\sigma_{15}$ *mixing*), and is indicated in texts by the addition of a **coronis** (\rightarrow 1.10) on the new vowel/diphthong:

ταὐτά (= τὰ αὐτά) τοὐναντίον (= τὸ ἐναντίον) ἐγῷδα (= ἐγὼ οἶδα) the same things the opposite I know

If π , κ or τ precedes the new vowel/diphthong, and the second word started with a rough breathing, the aspiration is transferred to this stop (the coronis has its usual shape):

$$θ$$
οἰμάτιον (= τὸ ἱμάτιον) τῆδε $θ$ ημέρα (= τῆδε τῆ ἡμέρα) χ $ω$ (= καὶ ὁ) the cloak this day and the

Note 1: Some editors incorrectly print θοίμάτιον, θήμέρα, etc.

1.44 No coronis is present if the first word consists of only a single vowel or diphthong (this occurs especially with forms of the article). In such cases, only the breathing mark of the first word is written:

1.45 The vowel/diphthong resulting from crasis depends on the rules of contraction (→1.58–66). Thus e.g. τὸ ἐναντίον gives τοὐναντίον because ο + ε contracts to ('spurious') ου, τὰ ἐναντία gives τἀναντία because α + ε contracts to ā.

Note 1: In some cases the rules of contraction are not observed, in order to preserve the vowel quality of the second word's initial vowel: e.g. $\dot{\alpha}$ νήρ the man (= $\dot{\alpha}$ ανήρ, although $\dot{\alpha}$ + α normally gives $\dot{\alpha}$), $\dot{\alpha}$ ύτός (\rightarrow 1.44 above).

Note 2: When a diphthong with ι merges with a following word, the ι is lost: κἀγώ (= καὶ ἐγώ) and I, τἄρα (= τοι ἄρα), μεντἄν (= μέντοι ἄν); also θἡμέρα, χώ, αὐταί, and ούμοί (→1.43–4 above).

Note 3: Most crasis-forms of ὁ ἔτερος the other (of two) are based on an older form ἄτερος: e.g. ἄτερος (= ὁ ἄτερος), ἄτεροι (= οἱ ἄτεροι), θἄτερον (= τὸ ἄτερον), θἢτέρ α (= τῆ ἀτέρ α). θᾶτερο forms are often written without coronis; from this developed a fully-fledged alternative pronoun θάτερος.

Hiatus

1.46 'Hiatus' is the term for any instance of a word ending with a vowel followed by a word beginning with a vowel, e.g. τὰ δὲ ἐναντία, τοῦτο ἄρα. Hiatus is generally avoided in poetry and sometimes by prose writers: this is done by elision, the addition of movable consonants, or crasis.

Historical Developments: Introduction

1.47 The remaining sections of this chapter treat certain historical developments in the Greek language before the classical period. These sections are designed to elucidate many of the 'irregularities' of (Attic) Greek morphology. Contrast, for instance, the following pairs of nominatives and genitives of some third-declension nouns:

 nom. sg. ἀγών contest
 gen. sg. ἀγῶνος

 nom. sg. γένος race, offspring
 gen. sg. γένους

 nom. sg. βασιλεύς king
 gen. sg. βασιλέως

The endings of these genitives seem at first sight unrelated, but may in fact be explained as three instances of the same genitive singular ending -05 seen in $d\gamma \tilde{\omega} \nu - 05$:

- γένους derives from a form which is reconstructed as *γένεσ-ος, from which the first σ disappeared, giving γένεος; εο subsequently contracted to ō ('spurious' ου) (for these steps, →1.83, 1.58–60);
- βασιλέως derives from *βασιλῆς-ος, from which $_F$ disappeared, and ηο changed by a process known as *quantitative metathesis* to εω (for these steps, →1.80, 1.71).

Such changes are found to have occurred consistently in certain environments at certain periods, and are therefore sometimes referred to as **sound change 'laws'**: for instance, the disappearance of _F between vowels is such a law of Greek historical grammar. Most of the apparent irregularities of Greek morphology can be explained with reference to such laws, and it is therefore useful to have some familiarity with them.

Reference to the sections below will be made throughout the morphology.

- 1.48 The following conventions of **notation** will be used in the description of historical developments:
 - Earlier forms which are not actually attested in our extant texts, but which are reconstructed on the basis of our knowledge of historical developments, are marked with the symbol * (asterisk).
 - Non-existent hypothetical forms and impossible forms are marked with the symbol †.
 - The symbol > stands for 'develops into'; the symbol < stands for 'is derived from'; these symbols are used both for changes in individual forms (e.g. *γένεσος > γένεος), and for more general laws (e.g. ᾱ > η in Attic, →1.57).
- 1.49 In principle, the sound laws detailed below took place without exception (though they are often restricted to certain phonological 'environments' (e.g. between vowels), to certain dialect-regions, and always to certain periods in the development of the language). Still, numerous forms then remain which appear to violate the laws. Such unexpected forms are often the result of 'analogy', the process by which certain forms are remodelled after certain familiar other forms.

For instance, the nom./acc. pl. neut. form of the noun $\dot{\sigma}\sigma\tau\tilde{\sigma}v$ bone is $\dot{\sigma}\sigma\tau\tilde{\underline{\alpha}}$, and derives from $\dot{\sigma}\sigma\tau\tilde{\underline{\epsilon}\alpha}$; yet the combination $\varepsilon\alpha$ normally contracted to η (\rightarrow 1.59). The 'unexpected' form $\dot{\sigma}\sigma\tau\tilde{\underline{\alpha}}$ was presumably modelled on other nom./acc. pl. neut. forms, which nearly always end in $-\alpha$ (e.g. $\delta\tilde{\omega}\rho\alpha$ gifts).

Analogical remodelling often functioned to 'level' (i.e. regularize) nominal or verbal paradigms: for instance, the aor. pass. ($\theta\eta$ -aor.) of the verb $\chi \dot{\epsilon} \omega$ *pour* is $\dot{\epsilon} \chi \dot{\upsilon} \theta \eta \nu$, etc., even though the expected form, given sound change laws, would have been $\dagger \dot{\epsilon} \kappa \dot{\upsilon} \theta \eta \nu$ ($-\kappa \upsilon \theta - <^* - \chi \upsilon \theta -, \rightarrow 1.97$). Forms with $\chi \upsilon \theta$ - may be explained as levelling of the verb paradigm, given that all other forms of the verb have χ -.

1.50 Several of the developments detailed below apply only to **Attic Greek** (for other dialects, \rightarrow 25).

Historical Developments: Ablaut (Vowel Gradation)

Introduction; Qualitative and Quantitative Ablaut

1.51 In Greek, as in all Indo-European languages, there are often different **grades** (variants) of an individual root (for roots, $\rightarrow 23.2$): the different grades have **different vowels**. The German term **Ablaut** is normally used for this alternation.

For instance, the following grades of the root meaning 'father' are found, depending on the word in which that root is used, and the grammatical case:

```
    πατερ- e.g. in the voc. sg. πά<u>τερ</u>, nom. pl. πα<u>τέρες</u> (normal) e-grade
    πατηρ- in the nom. sg. πα<u>τήρ</u> father lengthened e-grade
    πατορ- e.g. in the gen. sg. ἀπα<u>τόρ</u>ος, acc. sg. ἀπα<u>τόρ</u>α (normal) o-grade
    πατωρ- e.g. in the nom. sg. of the adj. ἀπα<u>τώρ</u> fatherless lengthened o-grade
    πατρ- e.g. in the gen. sg. πατρός, dat. sg. πατρί zero-grade
```

Different grades also frequently appear in **different tense-aspect stems of a verb** (\rightarrow 11.11–12), for instance with the verb $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$ *leave*:

λειπ-	e.g. in the pres. ind. $\underline{\lambda \epsilon i \pi} \omega$, fut. ind. $\underline{\lambda \epsilon i \psi} \omega$	diphthong with e-grade
λοιπ-	e.g. in the pf. ind. λέ <u>λοιπ</u> α	diphthong with o-grade
λĭπ-	e.g. in the aor. ind. ἔ <u>λιπ</u> ον	no diphthong, zero-grade

Note 1: Indo-European ablaut is the cause of similar variation in English roots, such as *drink*, *drank*, *drunk*; and *blood*, *bleed*.

Note 2: Ablaut is in some older works called 'apophony'.

- 1.52 Two dimensions of ablaut may be distinguished:
 - qualitative ablaut: variation between e-grades and o-grades;
 - quantitative ablaut: variation between the zero-grade (or 'weak' grade), normal grade (or 'strong', 'full' grade), and lengthened grades.

This gives the following possibilities:

	e-grade	o-grade
normal grade	πάτ <u>ε</u> ρ	ἀπατ <u>ό</u> ρος
lengthened grade	πατ <u>ή</u> ρ	ἀπατ <u>ώ</u> ρ
zero-grade	πα <u>τ</u>	ρ ός

- 1.53 Often, the ablaut patterns outlined above are not immediately transparent in Greek variants of a root because historical sound changes and/or subsequent analogical remodelling have obscured them. For instance:
 - Roots with a nasal or liquid consonant often have a zero-grade with α
 (→1.85-7):

	e-grade	o-grade	zero-grade
τρέπω <i>turn</i>	τρεπ-	τροπ-	τρὰπ- (<*τ̞ӷπ-)
στέλλω dispatch	στελ-	στολ-	στἄλ- (<*στ <mark> </mark> -)
σπείρω sow	σπερ-	σπορ-	σπἄρ- (<*σπ̞r-)
πάσχω suffer, πένθος pain	πενθ-	πονθ-	πἄθ- (<*πῃθ-)

- The stems of some frequently occurring verbs, which alternate between a long and a short vowel, are reconstructed as e-grades and zero-grades. For instance:

	e-grade	zero-grade
δίδωμι give	δ <u>ω</u> -	δ <u>ο</u> -
ἵστημι make stand, set up	στη- (<στ $\bar{\alpha}$ -, $→1.57$)	στ <u>ἄ</u> -
τίθημι put, place	მ <u>უ</u> -	<u>θ</u> ε-
ἵημι send, let go	<u>ἡ</u> -	<u>ἑ</u> -

Note 1: The reconstruction of stems such as $\delta\omega$ -/δο-, $\sigma\tau\eta$ -/ $\sigma\tau\check{\alpha}$ -, etc. involves a series of consonants called 'laryngeals': for instance, $\delta\omega$ -/δο- is reconstructed as * deh_3 -/* dh_3 -, $\sigma\tau\eta$ -/ $\sigma\tau\check{\alpha}$ - as * $steh_2$ -/* sth_2 - (where h_2 and h_3 are symbols for laryngeals). These laryngeals disappeared from the language very early in its history, but left several traces. For treatments of laryngeal theory, consult the works on historical grammar listed in the Bibliography at the end of this book.

Some Typical Greek Ablaut Patterns

1.54 **Lengthened grade** forms are found primarily in the nominative singular masculine/feminine of nominal forms of the third declension (\rightarrow 4.31–92). Contrast e.g. the following pairs:

lengthened grade	normal grade
nom. sg. masc. δαίμ <u>ω</u> ν daemon	acc. sg. δαίμ <u>ο</u> να
nom. sg. fem. μήτηρ mother	acc. sg. μητέρα

1.55 Many first-declension **nouns** ending in $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$ (\rightarrow 4.3–7) and most second-declension nouns in -05 (\rightarrow 4.19–23) have a stem in the (normal) o-grade:

o-grade contrast: λόγος word, speech λέγω say, speak, e-grade στόλος expedition, στολή garment στέλλω dispatch, dress, e-grade

Note 1: Again, this pattern is sometimes obscured by sound changes (frequently involving laryngeals, \rightarrow 1.53 n.1 above):

```
φωνή voice (o-grade, φημί say, claim (<φ\bar{\alpha}μί, e-grade, <*b^heh_2-; cf. 1 pl. φ\bar{\alpha}μεν, <*b^hoh_2-) zero-grade, <*b^hh_2-; cf. \bar{\alpha}τη-/\bar{\alpha}τ-)
```

Neuter third-declension nouns in -05 ($\rightarrow 4.65-7$) and $-\mu\alpha$ ($\rightarrow 4.40-2$) often have a stem in the e-grade (for ablaut in the *endings* of neuter nouns in -05, $\rightarrow 4.66$).

e-grade contrast:

γένος race, offspring γί-<u>γν</u>-ομαι become, be born (zero-grade), γ<u>ό</u>νος child

(o-grade)

σπέρμα seed ἐσπάρην I was sown (zero-grade, <*σπ٢-), σπόρος

sowing (o-grade)

- 1.56 Many **verbs** originally had:
 - e-grade in thematic present, future, and sigmatic aorist stems;
 - o-grade in perfect active stems;
 - zero-grade in thematic agrist, agrist passive, and perfect middle-passive stems.

In the following example, this pattern is retained:

 e-grade
 o-grade
 zero-grade

 τρέπω turn
 pres. τρέπω
 pf. τέτροφα
 them. aor. ἐτρκαπόμην (<*τιπ-)</td>

 fut. τρέψω
 aor. pass. ἐτράπην

 sigm. aor. ἔτρεψα
 pf. mp. τέτρομμαι

However, this pattern has often been obscured by subsequent changes or analogical remodelling (\rightarrow 1.49).

Historical Developments: Vowels

Attic-Ionic $\bar{\alpha} > \eta$

1.57 In Attic, **long** $\bar{\alpha}$ was gradually 'raised' to η (for vowel height, \rightarrow 1.17):

μήτηρ mother (<μάτηρ), φυγή flight (<φυγά), νίκη victory (<νίκα), δεσπότης master (<δεσπότας), fem. δεινή impressive (<δεινά), ἵστημι make stand, set up (<ἵσταμι), aor. ἐτίμησα honoured (<ἐτίμασα), fut. νικήσω will conquer (<νικάσω).

But this sound change was reversed if $\bar{\alpha}$ stood immediately after ϵ , ι or ρ :

θ<u>έα</u> sight, αἰτ<u>ία</u> cause, σοφ<u>ία</u> wisdom, χώ<u>ρα</u> land, νεαν<u>ίας</u> young man, fem. δικα<u>ία</u> just, aor. ἔδ<u>ρα</u>σα did, fut. ἀν<u>ιά</u>σω will grieve.

Note 1: The change $\bar{\alpha} > \eta$ is peculiar to the Attic-Ionic dialect group. In Ionic, the change to η took place also after ϵ , ι or ρ : thus e.g. $\chi \omega \rho \underline{\eta}$, $\rightarrow 25.5$.

Note 2: If $\bar{\alpha}$ stands in other places than after $\epsilon/l/\rho$ in Attic, it is itself the result of another development, usually contraction (e.g. imp. $\tau i \mu \bar{\alpha} <^* - \bar{\alpha} \epsilon$, $\rightarrow 1.58-66$) or compensatory lengthening (e.g. $\pi \bar{\alpha} \varsigma$ every, all $<^* \pi \dot{\alpha} v \tau \varsigma$, $\rightarrow 1.68$).

Note 3: Quantitative metathesis (\rightarrow 1.71) took place after this change: thus e.g. gen. sg. νεώς ship ($<^*\nu\eta(\varepsilon)$ ός $<^*\nu\bar{\alpha}_{\varepsilon}$ ός). So too the disappearance of ε (\rightarrow 1.80): thus e.g. κόρη girl (with η after ε , $<^*\kappa$ όρ ε η $<^*\kappa$ όρ ε η).

Contraction of Vowels

1.58 **Contraction** is the merging of two vowels, or a vowel and a diphthong, into a single **long vowel** or a **diphthong**. This occurred especially when F, F, F or F disappeared between vowels (-1.74-84): e.g. 1 sg. F in F is F in F in

Contraction of α , ε , η , o and ω

1.59 Contraction of the vowels α , ϵ , η , o and ω involves two of the main factors determining vowel quality: **height** and **roundedness** (\rightarrow 1.17–19):

	unrounded	rounded
high	$\bar{\epsilon}$ (spelling: 'spurious' diphthong ϵ_1)	$\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ (spelling: 'spurious' diphthong ov)
	ε	0
	η	ω
low	ă. ā	

If at least one of the component vowels is (relatively) low, the product will be low; if at least one of the component vowels is rounded, the product will be rounded (roughly speaking: α -sounds 'beat' ϵ -sounds, α -sounds 'beat' everything else). The product is always a long vowel or a diphthong. Thus e.g.:

- ε + ε (none of the component vowels is rounded or low) > ē (high/unrounded, long); e.g. 2 pl. ποιεῖτε (= -ἔτε <-έετε);
- ϵ + \circ (none of the component vowels is low, one is rounded) > $\bar{\circ}$ (high/rounded, long); e.g. 1 pl. ποιοῦμεν (= -δμεν <-έομεν);
- o + o (none of the component vowels is low, both are rounded) > \bar{o} (high/rounded, long); e.g. 1 pl. δηλοῦμεν (= - \bar{o} μεν <- \bar{o} ομεν);
- α + ο (one of the component vowels is low, one of the component vowels is rounded) > ω (low, rounded); e.g. 1 pl. τιμῶμεν (<-άομεν).

If contraction leads to a low, unrounded product (i.e. contraction of α with ϵ/η), the rule is: α first $> \bar{\alpha}$; ϵ/η first $> \eta$. Thus e.g.:

- ε + α (one of the component vowels is low, ε first) > η (low, unrounded); e.g. nom./acc. pl. neut. $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \eta$ (<-εα);
- α + ϵ (same, but with α first) > $\bar{\alpha}$; e.g. 2 pl. τιμᾶτε (<-άετε).

Note 1: For the sequences $\eta \bar{\alpha}$, $\eta \bar{\alpha}$, $\eta \bar{\alpha}$, $\eta \bar{\alpha}$, and $\eta \bar{\omega}$, $\rightarrow 1.71$.

1.60 Long vowels $\bar{\epsilon}$ and \bar{o} were spelled in classical Greek as 'spurious' diphthongs ϵ_1 and ou ($\rightarrow 1.23$). Their behaviour in contraction, however, is entirely according to the rules given above. This means that when these sounds contract with another vowel, no 1 or u is involved. Thus e.g.:

- α + spurious ει > $\bar{\alpha}$ (not α): e.g. inf. τιμ $\tilde{\alpha}\nu$ (<*- $\dot{\alpha}$ - $\bar{\epsilon}\nu$);
- o + spurious ει > spurious ου (= \bar{o}): e.g. inf. δηλοῦν (= $-\bar{o}\nu < *-\dot{o}-\bar{\epsilon}\nu$);
- α + spurious ου > ω (not ωυ): e.g. 2 sg. imp. mp. τιμῶ (<*-α-ō).

Diphthongs

- 1.61 Contraction of a vowel with 1/υ generally leads to a **diphthong**: e.g. dat. sg. πόλει (<*πόλε(y)1), 3 sg. opt. παιδεύοι (-0-1).
- 1.62 When a vowel contracts with a diphthong, the product is a diphthong with the same ι or υ as its second part; for the first part of the diphthong, the rules given above apply (so e.g. $\varepsilon + \alpha \iota > \eta$, because $\varepsilon + \alpha > \eta$).

Exception: o + η > oι (e.g. 3 sg. subj. δηλοῖ <*-o-η).

Note 1: Diphthongs $\bar{\epsilon}_i$, \bar{o}_i and \bar{o}_{U} are 'shortened' to regular ϵ_i , o_i , o_{U} (so e.g. 3 sg. ind. δηλοῖ <*- ϕ - ϵ_i ($o + \epsilon > \bar{o}$)).

Note 2: The endings $-ε_1$ ς and $-ε_1$ of 2/3 sg. pres. act. ind. have a 'real' diphthong, but in the infinitive ending $-ε_1$ ν the diphthong is 'spurious' (contracted from $-ε_-ε_ν$): thus 3 sg. ind. $τιμ\ddot{α}$ (<* $-α_-ε_1$), but inf. $τιμ\ddot{α}$ ν (<* $-α_-ε_1$ ν); 3 sg. ind. δηλοῖ (<* $-ο-ε_1$), but inf. δηλοῦν (= -ον <*-ο-εν).

Summary Table of Contractions

1.63 The principles outlined above lead to the following possibilities for contraction:

first vowel		second vowel							
	ă/ā	ε	ει (ε)	η	1	0	ου (ō)	ω	U
ă/ā	ā	ā	ā	ā	αι/α	ω	ω	ω	αυ
ε	η	ει (ξ)	ει (ε̄)	η	ει	ου (ō)	ου (ō)	ω	ευ
η	$\eta \rightarrow 1.71$	η	η	η	ņ	$\omega \rightarrow 1.71$	$\omega \rightarrow 1.71$	$\omega \rightarrow 1.71$	ηυ
0	ω	ου (ō)	ου (ō)	ω	01	ου (ō)	ου (ō)	ω	ου
ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ωυ

first vowel	second vowel (diphthongs)							
	ει	n	αι	φ	Ol	ου	φ	
ἄ/ā	φ	φ	(a)	φ	φ	n/a	n/a	
ε	ει	ņ	n	n	01	n/a	φ	
η	ņ	n	η →1.71	n/a	$\omega \rightarrow 1.71$	n/a	n/a	
0	01	01	n/a	n/a	01	n/a	φ	
ω	φ	φ	n/a	n/a	φ	n/a	φ	

Occasionally, 1 or υ contracts with a following vowel, generally 'swallowing' it: e.g. nom. pl. $i\chi\theta\dot{\underline{\upsilon}}_{S}>i\chi\theta\dot{\underline{\upsilon}}_{S}$ fishes, $X\tilde{\imath}_{OS}>X\tilde{\imath}_{OS}$ Chios.

1.64 Some further examples:

– contraction beginning with α -:

- contraction beginning with ε-:

- contraction beginning with o-:

- contraction beginning with η- or ω-:

```
 \begin{aligned} \eta + \epsilon > \eta; \, \omega + \epsilon/\alpha > \omega & e.g. \, \chi \text{ρήεται} > \chi \text{ρ<u>n</u>ται}; \, \eta \text{ρως}; \, \eta \text{ρως} \\ > \eta \text{ρω} \\ \eta + \eta > \eta; \, \omega + \text{οι} > \omega & e.g. \, \zeta \eta; \, \lambda \text{αγώοι} > \lambda \text{αγώ} \end{aligned}
```

Further Particulars and Exceptions

1.65 If **f** disappeared (→1.80) between ε/η and another vowel, contraction only occurred if the second vowel was ε/η (or a diphthong with those sounds) as well. Thus e.g. 3 sg. πλεῖ sails (<*πλέρ-ει), Περικλῆς Pericles (<*-κλέρ-ης); but 1 pl. πλέομεν (<*πλέρομεν), gen. Περικλέους (<*-κλέρ-ος <*-κλέρε(σ)ος).</p>

If f disappeared between other vowels, these did not contract: e.g. pf. ἀκήκοα have heard (<*ἀκήκοςα).

Note 1: Even if $_{\rm F}$ disappeared between two instances of $_{\rm E}/\eta$, contraction did not occur consistently: contrast 3 sg. impf. κατέχ<u>εε</u> with ἐνέχ<u>ει</u> (both <*-έχε_Γε, of the verbs καταχέω pour down and ἐγχέω pour in, respectively), and nom. pl. ν<u>ῆες</u> ships with βασιλ<u>ῆς</u> kings (both <*-ῆ_Γες).

1.66 Frequently, **analogy** (→1.49) cancels the effects of contraction: e.g. nom./acc. neut. pl. ὀστέ-α > ὀστᾶ *bones* (not †ὀστῆ; by analogy with other neut. pl. forms in -α); nom. fem. pl. μνάαι > μναῖ *minae* (not †μνᾶ; by analogy with other fem. pl. forms in -αι), nom. fem. pl. χρυσέαι > χρυσαῖ *golden* (not †χρυσῆ).

Long and Short: the Augment, Stem Formation, Compensatory Lengthening

- 1.67 A number of grammatical rules and sound changes cause variants of certain forms to occur with either a long or a short vowel/diphthong:
 - the formation of many verbal and nominal stems: e.g. nom. sg. δαίμων spirit, contrast gen. sg. δαίμωνος; ποιη- (e.g. in fut. ποιήσω), contrast ποιε- (pres. stem of ποιέω make, do);
 - the formation of the augment with verbs starting with a vowel or diphthong:
 e.g. impf. ἤκουον (ἀκούω hear); for details, →11.37-8;
 - so-called compensatory lengthening, usually caused by the disappearance of a consonant in a cluster consisting of resonant + σ/y: e.g. aor. ἔφηνα showed (<*ἔ-φαν-σα).

All of these phenomena are often referred to as 'lengthening', but the sound changes underlying them are not the same, and occurred at different moments in the development of the language (in fact the heading 'lengthening' is often not accurate, particularly in the case of stem formation, where the alternation is typically the result of ablaut, $\rightarrow 1.51$ –6). They therefore lead to different results, especially where it concerns the long counterparts of $\check{\alpha}$, ε and o. For an overview of the different results, see the table below ($\rightarrow 1.69$).

Compensatory Lengthening

- 1.68 Compensatory lengthening, most often caused by the disappearance of a consonant from the cluster nasal/liquid + σ or y, occurs regularly in the following cases:
 - in the **pseudo-sigmatic aorist** (with verb stems ending in a resonant, →13.24–6);
 e.g. κρΐνω *judge*, verb stem κρ<u>ǐ</u>(ν)-, aor. ἔκρ<u>ī</u>να (<*ἔ-κρ<u>ĭν-σ</u>α); with φαίνω *show*,
 verb stem φην-/φαν-, aor. ἔφηνα (<*ἔ-φ<u>αν-σ</u>α);
 - in the **present stem** of verbs in -είνω/-είρω, -ΐνω/-ΐρω, and -ΰνω/-ΰρω,
 e.g. σπείρω sow (= σπέρω <*σπέρ-yω), κρίνω judge (<*κρίν-yω), φύρω mix (<*φύρ-yω);
 - in the dat. pl. masc./neut., the fem., and sometimes the nom. sg. masc. of nominal ντ-stems (→4.45–8, 5.15–18), e.g. nom. sg. masc. ppl. δεικν<u>ό</u>ς showing (<*δεικν<u>όνς</u>
 <*δεικν<u>όντς</u>), dat. pl. δεικν<u>ό</u>σι (<*<u>-ὑνσι</u> <*<u>-ὑντσι</u>), fem. δεικν<u>ό</u>σα (<*<u>-ὑνσα</u>
 <*-ὑντυχα), but gen. sg. masc. δεικν<u>ό</u>ντος, dat. δεικν<u>ό</u>ντι;

- in the 3 pl. pres. act. ind. of -ω verbs (thematic, →11.27, 12.3-7): e.g. 3 pl. παιδεύουσι educate (= παιδεύοσι <*παιδεύονσι), contrast 1 pl. παιδεύομεν;
- in the accusative plural endings of the first and second declensions: $τ\underline{\dot{\alpha}}$ ς ($<*τ\underline{\dot{\alpha}}$ νς), $τ\underline{o\dot{\nu}}$ ς (= $τ\underline{\dot{\alpha}}$ ς $<*τ\underline{\dot{o}}$ νς);
- other, incidental, cases, e.g. εἶς one (= ἔς <*ἔνς), contrast gen. ἑνός; εἰς (in)to
 (= ἐς <*ἐνς); εἰμί be (= ἔμί <*ἐσμί), contrast 2 pl. ἐστέ.

Two stages of compensatory lengthening are distinguished: in the first, σ or y disappeared and a resonant remained (e.g. $\xi \kappa \rho \underline{\imath} \nu \alpha < \xi \kappa \rho \alpha$

In Attic, the two stages led to different results in the case of lengthened α , as one stage occurred before the change $\bar{\alpha} > \eta$ ($\rightarrow 1.57$), the other after it; thus first-stage lengthened $\bar{\alpha}$ could subsequently change to η (e.g. $\xi \phi \underline{\eta} \nu \alpha < \xi \phi \underline{\alpha} \nu \alpha < \xi \phi \underline{\alpha} \nu \alpha$), whereas second-stage $\bar{\alpha}$ did not (e.g. $\tau \dot{\alpha} \varsigma < \tau \dot{\alpha} \dot{\gamma} \varsigma$).

Note 1: Results such as $\tau \dot{\alpha}_5$, $\tau o \dot{\nu}_5$, and $\epsilon \dot{\epsilon}_5$ originally would have occurred only when these words were followed by a vowel, but were generalized. Sometimes different dialects/authors generalized different forms (e.g. Ion. $\dot{\epsilon}_5$).

Note 2: In the dat. pl. of nominal *ν*-stems, the *ν* seems to disappear without compensatory lengthening: e.g. with δαίμων *spirit* (stem δαιμον-), dat. pl. δαίμοσι; with σώφρων *prudent* (stem σωφρον-), dat. pl. σώφροσι. This is presumably the result of analogical levelling of paradigms rather than a regular change: \rightarrow 4.51 n.1.

Summary Table

1.69 The following table summarizes the different vowel alternations: (the table on the next page)

Shortening: Osthoff's Law

1.70 **Long vowels** $(\bar{\alpha}, \eta, \bar{\imath}, \bar{\upsilon}, \omega)$ were **shortened** (to $\check{\alpha}, \varepsilon, \check{\imath}, \check{\upsilon}, o$, respectively) when they were followed by a **resonant** $(\mu, \nu, \lambda, \rho)$ and **another consonant**. This sound change is known as **Osthoff's Law**. Some examples:

```
gen. sg., ppl. aor. pass. παιδευθέντος (<*-θηντος), gen. pl. παιδευθέντων (<*-θηντων); cf. ἐπαιδεύθην;
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ppl. aor. γνόντες (<*γνωντες), dat. pl. γνοῦσι (= γνόσι <*γνόντσι <*γνωντσι); cf. ἔγνων.

To this sound change also belongs the **shortening of long diphthongs** before a consonant (or at word end), since the second part of diphthongs (ι , υ) counts as a resonant (cf. y, ι , ι). This explains such cases as:

βασιλ<u>εύς</u> king (<*-<u>ηυς</u>), voc. sg. βασιλ<u>εῦ</u> (<*-<u>ηυ</u>), cf. nom. pl. βασιλῆς (<*-<u>ῆρες</u>, \rightarrow 1.79–80);

long vowel		augmentation/stem formation							
short									
vowel		augmentation		stem formation					
ă	η	<u>ἄ</u> κούω impf. <u>ἤ</u> κοι	JOV	τιμ <u>ά</u> ω fut.					
				τιμ <u>ή</u> σω					
	ā (after ε,			δ <u>ρά</u> ω fut. δ <u>ρά</u> σω					
	ι or ρ)								
ε	η	ἐρωτάω impf. ἠρο	ώτων	ποι <u>έ</u> ω fut.					
J.	_	a : Ç a		ποιήσω					
ĭ	ī	້າຖຸມເ impf. ້າຖຸນ	, -	_					
0	ω	<u>ὀ</u> νομάζω impf. <u>ἀ</u> ι	νόμαζον	δηλ <u>ό</u> ω fut. δηλ <u>ώ</u> σω					
ŭ	Ū	<u>ὑ</u> βρίζω impf. <u>ὕ</u> βρ	ιζον	_					
long vowel	unchanged	ἤκω impf. ἦκον		n/a					
diphthong	first part as above	e, <u>αἰ</u> σχύνομαι impf.	ἦσχυνόμην	n/a					
	second part (1/u)	<u>εὑ</u> ρίσκω aor. <u>ηὑ</u> ρο							
	unchanged	<u>οἰ</u> κέω impf. <u>ἄ</u> κου	v						
long vow	el	compensatory leng	thening						
short	first stage (result:		second stage (result: σ						
vowel	resonant remains)		remains, res	onant disappears)					
ă	η	stem φ <u>αν</u> - aor. ἔφ <u>η</u> να (<*ἔφανσα)	ā dat. pl. (<*ίστο	, ἱστ <u>ᾶ</u> σι ἀνται)					
	$\bar{\alpha}$ (after ϵ , 1 or ρ)	stem μιαν- aor.	(1019	<u>a</u> , 101)					
	α (after ε , t of ρ)	stem μι <u>α</u> ν- aor. ἐμίανα (<*ἐμίανσα)							
ε	'spurious' $\epsilon_1 (= \bar{\epsilon})$	stem μ <u>ε</u> ν- aor. ἔμ <u>ει</u> να		τιθ <u>εῖ</u> σι					
		(<*ἔμενσα)	(<*τιθ <u>έ</u>						
ĭ	ī	stem κρ <u>ῖ</u> ν- aor. ἔκρ <u>ῖ</u> να (<*ἔκρῖνσα)	Ion. acc. pl. πόλ <u>ī</u> ς (<*πόλ <u>ĭ</u> νς, →25.22						
0	'spurious' ov (=ō)	_	dat. pl. διδ <u>οῦ</u> σι						
			(<*διδ <u>ά</u>	-					
			3 pl. in (<*λύ <u>ο</u>	d. λύ <u>ου</u> σι νσι)					
ŭ	Ū	stem ἀμ <u>ὔ</u> ν- aor.	dat. pl.	δεικν <u>ῦ</u> σι					
		ἤμ <u>υ</u> να (<*ἤμὔνσα)	(<*δεικ	ιν <u>ὔ</u> ντσι)					
long vowel	n/a								
diphthong	n/a								

Note 1: There are several exceptions to these 'rules' for the formation of the augment. For details, $\rightarrow 11.40-1$.

ναῦς ship (<*ναῦς, rather than > νηῦς), dat. pl. ναυσί (<*ναῦσί, rather than > νηυσί), cf. nom. pl. νῆες (<*νῆρες).

Note 1: The diphthong formed by the optative marker $1/1\eta$ ($\rightarrow 11.16$) is always short, even when it is added to stems which are otherwise long: e.g. $\gamma \nu \underline{o} \underline{i} \eta \nu$, $\sigma \tau \underline{o} \underline{i} \epsilon \nu$, $\pi \alpha i \delta \epsilon \upsilon \theta \underline{e} \underline{i} \mu \epsilon \nu$ (contrast $\dot{\epsilon} \gamma \nu \underline{\omega} \nu$, $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \underline{\eta} \nu$, $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \alpha i \delta \epsilon \dot{\upsilon} \theta \underline{\eta} \nu$). Osthoff's Law was presumably involved at least in forms whose endings begin with a consonant (e.g. $\pi \alpha i \delta \epsilon \upsilon \theta \dot{\epsilon} \mu \epsilon \nu < \pi \alpha i \delta \epsilon \upsilon \theta \dot{\eta} - i - \mu \epsilon \nu$); the reasons for the short diphthong in some other cases are controversial.

Quantitative Metathesis

- 1.71 The following changes are referred to as **quantitative metathesis** (= exchange of (vowel) quantity):
 - When η was followed by long α or ω, it was shortened in Attic-Ionic (i.e. ηᾱ > εᾱ, ηω > εω); if it was followed by ō ('spurious' ου), it was shortened and ō changed to ω (i.e. ηō̄ > εω).
 - When η was followed by short α or o, it was shortened and the second vowel lengthened to α or ω (i.e. ηα > εα, ηο > εω):

Contraction of the two resulting vowels then took place, unless f stood between them (\rightarrow 1.65).

 $\theta \underline{\epsilon} \alpha \ sight \ (<^*\theta \underline{\dot{\eta}(f)} \alpha); \ gen. \ sg. \ \nu \underline{\epsilon} \underline{\dot{\omega}} \ temple \ (<^*\nu \underline{\eta(f)} \overline{o}); \ gen. \ pl. \ βασιλ \underline{\dot{\epsilon}} \underline{\dot{\omega}} \nu \ kings \ (<^*\beta \alpha \sigma ιλ \underline{\tilde{\eta}(f)} \underline{\dot{\omega}} \nu), \ 1 \ sg. \ aor. \ subj. \ \theta \widetilde{\dot{\omega}} \ (<^*\theta \underline{\dot{\epsilon}} \underline{\dot{\omega}} \ <^*\theta \underline{\dot{\eta}} \underline{\dot{\omega}}), \ 3 \ pl. \ aor. \ subj. \ \sigma \tau \widetilde{\dot{\omega}} \sigma \iota \nu \ (<^*\sigma \tau \underline{\dot{\epsilon}} \underline{\dot{\omega}} \sigma \iota \nu \ <^*\sigma \tau \underline{\dot{\eta}} \underline{\dot{\omega}} \sigma \iota \nu).$

acc. sg. βασιλ<u>έ</u> $\bar{\alpha}$ (<*βασιλ<u>η̃(ξ)α</u>); gen. sg. βασιλ<u>έως</u> (<*βασιλ<u>η̃(ξ)ος</u>), nom. sg. ν<u>εώς</u> (<*νη(ξ)ός <*ναξός), nom. pl. ίλεω favourable (<*ίλη(ξ)οι).

Note 1: The term 'quantitative metathesis' is inaccurate in cases such as $\theta \dot{\epsilon} \tilde{\alpha}$, $\nu \epsilon \dot{\omega}$, etc., as there is no 'exchange' of vowel length, merely a shortening of the first. Nevertheless, the term tends to be used for such instances as well.

Historical Developments: Consonants

Consonants at Word End

1.72 Apart from vowels, only ν , ρ and ς (including ξ and ψ) can occur at word end.

Note 1: There are two exceptions (both proclitics, $\rightarrow 24.33-5$): the preposition $\underline{\dot{\epsilon}_K}$ and the negative $\underline{o\mathring{u}_K}/\underline{o\mathring{u}_X}$.

- 1.73 Other original consonants at word end were lost or changed:
 - stops at word end disappeared:
 voc. sg. γύναι woman (<*γύναικ, cf. γυναικός), nom. sg. γάλα milk (<*γάλακτ, cf. γάλακτος);

- voc. sg. παῖ child (<*παῖδ, cf. παιδός), neut. ppl. παιδεῦον (<*-οντ, cf. gen. παιδεύοντος), 3 pl. impf. ἔφερον carried (<*ἔφεροντ, cf. Lat. ferebant).
- μ at word end after a vowel became -ν (for -μ at word end after consonants,
 →1.85-6):

neut. ἔν one (<*σέμ, cf. fem. σμία), acc. sg. λύκον wolf (<*λύκομ, cf. Lat. lupum), 1 sg. impf. ἔφερον (<*ἔφερομ, cf. Lat. ferebam).

The Disappearance of f, y and σ

1.74 Many peculiarities of Greek morphology are due to the disappearance or change of the semivowels y and $_f$ (\rightarrow 1.31) and the fricative $_\sigma$ at different points in the history of the language. The most important sound changes involving these consonants are detailed below.

Semivowel $_{\Gamma}$ and vowel $_{\tilde{U}}$ are in fact the same sound in different environments (so e.g. $\tau\alpha\chi\dot{\underline{U}}_{S}$ quick (nom. sg., zero-grade) between consonants, but * $\tau\alpha\chi\dot{\epsilon}_{FOS}$ (gen. sg., e-grade, > $\tau\alpha\chi\dot{\epsilon}_{OS}$ between vowels). The same holds for semivowel y and vowel $_{\tilde{U}}$ (so e.g. $\pi\dot{\delta}\lambda\dot{\underline{U}}_{S}$ city (nom. sg., zero-grade) between consonants, but * $\pi\dot{\delta}\lambda\epsilon\underline{\nu}\epsilon_{S}$ (nom. pl., e-grade, > $\pi\dot{\delta}\lambda\epsilon\underline{\nu}$) between vowels).

Sound Changes Involving i/y

- 1.75 The **vowel** i is found:
 - Between consonants or at word end after a consonant. So e.g. πόλῖς, voc. πόλῖ.
 - Between a vowel and a consonant or at word end after a vowel, forming a diphthong with the preceding vowel. So e.g. εἶμι go, ἄδω sing (<ἀείδ-), ἄδη song (<ἀοίδ-), opt. παιδεύοιμι, 3 sg. παιδεύοι.
- 1.76 When semivowel **y** stood **between vowels**, it **disappeared without trace**; the vowels then contracted (→1.58–66): e.g. dat. sg. πόλει (<*πόλεγι), nom. pl. πόλεις (= πόλες <*πόλεγ-ες), 1 sg. ind. τιμῶ (<*τιμάγω), nom. τρεῖς three (= τρεῖς <*τρέγες).

Note 1: When 1 occurs between vowels, i.e. in a diphthong followed by a vowel, this is usually due to the loss of f or σ (e.g. $\pi \circ i \acute{e} \omega$ do, make $<^*\pi \circ i f \acute{e}$ -; $\tau \circ i \acute{o} \varsigma$ such $<^*\tau \circ \sigma y \circ \varsigma$), or analogy ($\rightarrow 1.49$, e.g. 2 sg. opt. $\delta \circ i \eta \varsigma$ ($<^*\delta \circ y \circ \eta \varsigma$), presumably modelled on e.g. 1 pl. $\delta \circ i \mu \epsilon \nu$; 1 sg. impf. $\tilde{\eta} \alpha$ went, modelled on forms such as 1 pl. $\tilde{\eta} \mu \epsilon \nu$).

- 1.77 **Stop** + **y before a vowel** had various results:
 - Labial stop + y (i.e. πy/φy) > πτ: e.g. βλάπτω harm (<*βλάπyω), θάπτω bury (<*θάφyω).
 - Voiceless dental or velar stop + y (i.e. τy/θy, κy/χy) > ττ: e.g. μέλι<u>ττ</u>α bee (<*μέλιτyα), κορύ<u>ττ</u>ω equip (<*κορύ<u>θy</u>ω), φυλά<u>ττ</u>ω guard (<*φυλάκ<u>γ</u>ω), ὀρύ<u>ττ</u>ω dig (<*ὀρύχ<u>γ</u>ω).

- But in some cases $\tau y > \sigma$: e.g. fem. $\pi \tilde{\alpha} \underline{\sigma} \alpha$ every, all (<* $\pi \dot{\alpha} \nu \underline{\sigma} \alpha$ <* $\pi \dot{\alpha} \nu \underline{\tau} \underline{\nu} \alpha$), τό $\underline{\sigma}$ ος so large (<* $\tau \dot{\sigma} \tau \dot{\sigma} \tau \dot{\sigma} \dot{\sigma} \dot{\sigma}$).
- Voiced dental or velar stop + y (i.e. δy or γy) > ζ: e.g. <u>Zεύς (<*Δγεύς)</u>, νομίζω believe (<*νομίδγω); κράζω shout (<*κράγγω), ἄζομαι revere (<*ἄγγομαι).

But also sometimes $\gamma y > \tau \tau$, e.g. $\tau \dot{\alpha} \underline{\tau \tau} \omega$ array ($<^* \tau \dot{\alpha} \underline{\gamma} \underline{\gamma} \omega$), probably by analogy with voiceless velars.

ττ as the result of these changes is specifically Attic; other dialects, including Ionic, have σσ, which is also preferred in tragedy, by Thucydides, and in Koine Greek (\rightarrow 25.10).

1.78 **Resonant** + y before a vowel also had various results:

- λy > λλ: e.g. ἀγγέλλω report (<*ἀγγέλ<u>ν</u>ω), βά<u>λλ</u>ω throw (<*βά<u>λν</u>ω), ἄ<u>λλ</u>ος other (<*ἄλγος).
- νy/py after α/ο> αιν/αιρ, οιν/οιρ (inversion of the ν/ρ and y): e.g. φαίνω show
 (<*φάνyω), μέλαινα black (<*μέλανyα), καθαίρω cleanse (<*καθάρyω), μοῖρα fate
 (<*μόρyα).
- νy/py after ε/ι/υ > ειν/ειρ (= εν/ερ), ιν/ιρ, υν/ιρ (y disappears with compensatory lengthening (→1.68-9) of the vowel before ν/ρ): e.g. κτείνω kill (<*κτένyω), σπεῖρα coil (<*σπέρyα), κρίνω judge (<*κρίνyω), ἀμύνω defend (<*ἀμύνyω), φύρω mix (<*φύρyω).

Note 1: σy and fy between vowels > y, resulting in a diphthong: e.g. το<u>ι</u>ος such (<*τό<u>σγ</u>ος), καίω burn (<*κάργω); sometimes the y disappeared, e.g. κάω next to καίω.

Sound Changes Involving U/F

1.79 The **vowel** $\ddot{\mathbf{v}}$ is found:

- Between consonants or at word end after a consonant. So e.g. ταχύς quick, neut. ταχύ, acc. sg. ἰσχύν strength, ἄστ<u>υ</u> town.
- Between a vowel and a consonant or at word end after a vowel, forming a diphthong with the preceding vowel. So e.g. Zεῦς, voc. sg. Zεῦ, βοῦς ox. If the preceding vowel was long, it was shortened (Osthoff's Law, →1.70): βασιλεύς king (<*βασιληύ-ς), ναῦς ship (<*ναῆ-ς).</p>

1.80 In other environments, the semivowel f disappeared:

- At word beginning before a vowel: so e.g. οἶκος house (<*ξοῖκος), ἄναξ lord (<*ξάναξ), ἔργον work (<*ξέργον).
- Between vowels: 1 pl. pres. ind. πλέομεν sail (<*πλέξομεν), gen. sg. Διός Zeus (<*Διξός). When f disappeared between two instances of ε or η, these vowels usually contracted (→1.65): Περικλῆς (<*Περικλέξης), 3 sg. pres. ind. πλεῖ (<*πλέξει), nom. pl. βασιλῆς (<*βασιλῆς εξουλήξες).
- 1.81 σ_F- at word beginning before a vowel disappeared leaving a rough breathing: e.g. <u>ή</u>δύς (<*σ_Fαδύς, cf. Lat. *suavis*, Engl. *sweet*), ἀνδάνω *please* (<*σ_Fα-).

1.82 In the combination resonant + f between vowels, f disappeared without trace: e.g. ξένος stranger (<*ξένρος) - but for Ion. ξεῖνος, →25.11.</p>

Sound Changes Involving o

- 1.83 σ disappeared between vowels or at word beginning before a vowel, leaving the sound [h]:
 - at word beginning before a vowel: the [h] appears as a rough breathing: so e.g. <u>ε</u>πομαι follow (<*σε-; cf. Lat. sequor), <u>μ</u>στημι make stand (<*σμστ-, →11.49), εξς one (= ξες <*ενς (→1.68) <*σένς), επτά seven (<*σεπτή, →1.86; cf. Lat. septem).
 - between vowels: the [h] subsequently disappeared, and contraction normally followed (→1.58–66): gen. sg. γένους race (<γένε(h)ος <*γένεσος), acc. Σωκράτη (<*-κράτεσα), 2 sg. mp. ind. ἐπαιδεύου (<*ἐπαιδεύεσο), fut. βαλῶ will throw (<*βαλέσω).

Note 1: If σ is found in classical Greek in these environments (i.e. between vowels or word-initially before a vowel), it is normally itself the product of sound changes (e.g. dat. pl. γένεσι races (<γένεσσι, \rightarrow 1.92), fut. ὀνομάσω will name (<*ὀνομάδσω, \rightarrow 1.91), τόσος so large (<*τότγος, \rightarrow 1.77)), or due to analogy (\rightarrow 1.49; e.g. dat. pl. ἰσχύσι strengths (modelled on e.g. φύλαξι), fut. παιδεύσω strengths (modelled on e.g. δείξω), aor. ἐπαίδευσα (modelled on e.g. ἔδειξα)).

Such instances of σ are often called **secondary**, or, together with instances where an original σ did not disappear (e.g. at word end), 'strong'.

In a cluster of **resonant** + σ , the σ usually disappeared, with compensatory lengthening of any preceding vowel (\rightarrow 1.68): so e.g. fem. μία *one* ($<^*\underline{\sigma}$ μία), and pseudo-sigmatic aor. ἔν<u>ειμ</u>α *dealt out* (= ἔνε̄μα $<^*$ ἔν<u>εμσ</u>α), ἔφ<u>ην</u>α *showed* (<ἔφ<u>αν</u>α $<^*$ ἔφανσα).

Word-final or 'secondary' σ (\rightarrow 1.83 n.1) in such clusters was not lost; instead the resonant disappeared, again with compensatory lengthening: so e.g. fem. $\pi\underline{\alpha}\sigma\alpha$ every, all ($<^*\pi\underline{\alpha}\nu\sigma\alpha <^*\pi\dot{\alpha}\nu\tau\gamma\alpha$), 3. pl. ind. $\pi\alpha$ ιδεύουσι (= $-\bar{\sigma}\sigma$ ι $<^*-\underline{o}\nu\sigma$ ι $<^*-o}\nu\tau$ ι), εἶς one (= ξ̃ς $<^*\bar{\epsilon}\nu\varsigma$).

Note 1: The cluster ρσ changed to ρρ in Attic: θά<u>ρρ</u>ος *courage* < θά<u>ρσ</u>ος, ἄ<u>ρρ</u>ην *masculine* < ἄ<u>ρσ</u>ην.

Note 2: The cluster λσ sometimes remained unchanged: e.g. ἄ<u>λσ</u>ος grove, aor. ἔκε<u>λσ</u>α put to shore.

Other Consonant Clusters: Vocalization of Resonants, Assimilation, Loss of Consonants

Vocalization of Syllabic Resonants

1.85 Resonants (nasals and liquids) could originally occur between consonants or at word end after a consonant: such nasals/liquids were pronounced in a separate

syllable, and are therefore called 'syllabic resonants'; they are commonly written m, n, l, r.

Note 1: The pronunciation of such nasals and liquids may be compared to English examples such as *seventh* [$sev^3n\theta$] and *bottle* [bvt^3 l].

Note 2: The relation between (e.g.) μ and m is identical to that between y and ι , and between ρ and ι : $\rightarrow 1.74$.

In Greek syllabic nasals m and n were 'vocalized' to $\ddot{\alpha}$:

έκ<u>α</u>τόν hundred (<*έ-<u>κητ</u>όν, cf. Lat. centum), δέκ<u>α</u> ten (<*δέ<u>κ-m</u>, cf. Lat. decem), ὄνομα name (<*ὄ-νομ-n, cf. Lat. nomen).

Note especially the endings $-\alpha/-\alpha\varsigma$ of the acc. sg./pl. of many third-declension nominal forms ($\rightarrow 2.4$ n.1, 2.6), and the zero-grade stem of some verbs ($\rightarrow 1.53$, 1.56):

acc. sg. πόδ<u>α</u> foot (<*πό<u>δ-m</u>, cf. e.g. Lat. ped<u>em</u>), γ ῦπ<u>α</u> vulture (<* γ ῦ<u>π-m</u>), cf. e.g. τόν (<*τόμ, \rightarrow 1.73);

acc. pl. πόδ $\underline{\alpha}$ ς (<*πό $\underline{\delta}$ - \underline{n} ς), γῦπὰς (<*γῦ $\underline{\pi}$ - \underline{n} ς), cf. e.g. τούς (<*τόνς, \rightarrow 1.68);

zero-grade stems: aor. pass. ἐτάθην (<*ἐ-τή-θην), pf. τέτακα (<*τέ-τη-κα), cf. τείνω stretch (<*τέν-γω, \rightarrow 1.78); aor. ἔπαθον suffered (<ἔ-πηθ-ον); cf. πένθος grief.

This change also explains the $-\alpha$ of the (pseudo-)sigmatic agrist (\rightarrow 13.7):

1 sg. aor. act. ind. ἔδειξὰ *showed* (<*ἔ-δειξ-<u>m</u>; cf. 1 sg. impf. act. ἔδεικνυν <*-νυ-μ, →1.73)

Syllabic liquids l, r were also vocalized, becoming λα/ρα (or αλ/αρ), respectively:
 dat. pl. πατράσι fathers (<*πατί-σι, cf. gen. sg. πατρ-ός), πλατύς wide (<*πlτύς).
 Note especially the zero-grade stem of some verbs (→1.53, 1.56):

aor. pass. ἐστ<u>ρά</u>φην (<*ἐ-σ<u>τίφ</u>-ην, cf. στρέφω turn), pf. mp. διέφθ<u>αρμαι</u> (<*δι-έ-φθ<u>τ</u>-μαι, cf. διαφθείρω destroy);

aor. pass. ἐκ<u>λά</u>πην (<*ἐ-κ<u>ĺπ</u>-ην, cf. κλέπτω *steal*), pf. mp. ἔστ<u>αλ</u>μαι (<*ἔ-σ<u>τ</u><u>lμ</u>αι, cf. στέλλω *dispatch*).

Assimilation in Consonant Clusters

- 1.88 **Assimilation** is a common morphological process by which one sound becomes more like another, nearby sound. In Greek sequences of two consonants, the first often changed under influence of the second ('regressive assimilation', as in e.g. συλλέγω collect <συν-λέγω); very rarely the reverse process occurred ('progressive assimilation', as in e.g. ὄλλυμι lose <*ὅλ-νυμι). The most common forms of assimilation are detailed below.
- 1.89 Assimilation in clusters of stops:
 - A labial or velar stop before a dental stop became voiceless, voiced, or aspirated (→1.26) in the same manner as that dental stop: thus the only

possible combinations are $\pi\tau/\kappa\tau$ (voiceless), $\beta\delta/\gamma\delta$ (voiced), and $\phi\theta/\chi\theta$ (aspirated):

- 3 sg. pf. mp. τέτρι $\underline{\pi}$ ται (<*τέτρι $\underline{\beta}$ -ται, cf. τρί $\beta\omega$ rub), aor. pass. ἐλέχ $\underline{\theta}$ ην (<*ἐλέγ-θην, cf. λέγ ω say), πλέγδην entwined (<*πλέκ-δην, cf. πλέκ ω plait).
- A **dental stop** before another **dental stop** changed to σ :

aor. pass. ἐπεί<u>σθ</u>ην (<*ἐπεί<u>θ-θ</u>ην, cf. πείθω *persuade*), 3 sg. pf. mp. κεκόμι<u>σ</u>ται (<*κεκόμι<u>δ-τ</u>αι, cf. κομιδή *attendance*), ψεύ<u>σ</u>της *liar* (<*ψεύ<u>δ-τ</u>ης, cf. ψεύδομαι *lie*).

Note 1: The preposition ἐκ- does not change in compounds, e.g. ἔκ<u>γ</u>ονος *descendant*, ἐκδίδωμι *give up*, ἔκθετος *put out*.

Note 2: For 'geminates' such as $\tau\tau$, $\rightarrow 1.32$.

1.90 Assimilation in clusters of **stop** + **nasal**:

Clusters of velar or dental stop with a nasal normally remained unchanged: e.g.
 ἀκμή point, ὀκνῶ shrink from, κεδνός diligent.

However, before μ in the conjugation of the middle-passive perfect, velars changed to γ , dentals to σ (i.e. $\kappa \mu/\chi \mu > \gamma \mu$; $\tau \mu/\delta \mu/\theta \mu > \sigma \mu$); this also occurs before some suffixes such as $-\mu \alpha$ and $-\mu \alpha \zeta$ ($\rightarrow 23.21-2$):

- pf. mp. πεφύλαχμαι (<*πεφύλα<u>κ-μ</u>αι, cf. gen. sg. φύλακος guard); δεῖχμα evidence (<*δεῖκ-μα, cf. δείκνυμι show);
- pf. mp. πέπεισμαι (<*πέπειθ-μαι, cf. πείθω persuade), ψεῦσμα lie (<*ψεῦδ-μα, cf. ψεύδομαι lie).
- Labial stops assimilate fully to a following μ (i.e. πμ/βμ/φμ > μμ;); also βν > μν:
 pf. mp. τέτριμααι (<*τέτριβ-μαι, cf. τρίβω rub); γράμμα writing (<*γράφ-μα, cf. γράφω write); σεμνός revered (<*σεβ-νός, cf. σέβομαι revere).
- Nasals before stops got the same place of articulation as the stop (→1.26, 1.29):
 the labial nasal μ before a labial stop, dental nasal ν before a dental stop, velar
 nasal γ before a velar stop:
 - συμβάλλω throw together, συντάττω array, συγκαλῶ convene (all <συν-). Cf. also the 'nasal infix' (\rightarrow 12.30) in verbs like λαμβάνω get, λανθάνω go unnoticed, λαγχάνω obtain by lot (cf. aor. ἔλαβον, ἔλαθον, ἔλαχον).

1.91 Assimilation in clusters of **stop** + σ :

- A dental stop before σ disappeared without trace:

aor. ἔψευ $\underline{\sigma}$ α (<*ἔψευ $\underline{\delta}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ α, cf. ψεύδω cheat); fut. πεί $\underline{\sigma}$ ω (<*πεί $\underline{\theta}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ω, cf. πείθω persuade); dat. pl. πράγμα $\underline{\sigma}$ ι things (<*πράγμα $\underline{\tau}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ι, cf. πράγμα $\underline{\tau}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ι, cf. πράγμα $\underline{\tau}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ι, cf. πράγμα $\underline{\tau}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ι, cf. νυκτός); dat. pl. πᾶσι all (<*πάν $\underline{\sigma}$ ι (\rightarrow 1.68) <*πάν $\underline{\tau}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ι, cf. πάν $\underline{\tau}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ ι, cf. πάντός).

Note 1: With some adverbs of direction in $-\delta\epsilon$ ($\rightarrow 6.11$), sibilant σ became voiced before the voiced dental δ , and the resulting cluster was spelled ζ ([zd], $\rightarrow 1.33$): e.g. Ἀθήναζε to Athens (<- $\alpha\sigma$ - $\delta\epsilon$).

- Labial stop + $\sigma > \psi$; velar stop + $\sigma > \xi$ (this is to some extent a matter of spelling rather than assimilation):
 - aor. ἔτριψα (<*ἔτριβ-σα, cf. τρίβω rub); fut. γράψω (<*γράφ-σω, cf. γράφω write); γύψ vulture (<*γύπ-ς, cf. gen. sg. γυπός);
 - aor. ἔπλεξα (<*ἔπλεκ-σα, cf. πλέκω plait); fut. τάξω will array (<*τάχ-σω, cf. ταγή battle line); φύλαξ guard (<*φύλακ-ς, cf. gen. sg. φύλακος).
- 1.92 A sequence of two sibilants $(\sigma + \sigma)$ was simplified to σ : e.g. dat. pl. $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \underline{\sigma}_1$ races $(\langle \gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \sigma \sigma_1)$, aor. $\dot{\epsilon} \gamma \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \sigma \alpha$ laughed $(\langle \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \sigma \sigma \alpha)$.
- 1.93 Assimilation in clusters of liquids and nasals:
 - In a sequence of ν before μ, the first nasal assimilated to the second: e.g. ἐμμένω abide (<ἐν-μένω), σύμμαχος ally (<σύν-μαχος). However, in the conjugation of the middle-passive perfect, νμ was sometimes replaced analogically by σμ; this also occurs before some suffixes such as -μα:
 - pf. mp. πέφασμαι (*πέφα<u>ν-μ</u>αι, cf. φαίνω show); μίασμα pollution (*μία<u>ν-μ</u>α, cf. μιαίνω defile); but contrast regularly formed pf. mp. ἤσχυμμαι (<*ἤσχυ<u>ν-μ</u>αι, cf. αἰσχύνομαι be ashamed)
 - The sequences $\nu\rho$, $\mu\rho$ and $\mu\lambda$ were expanded with a transitional sound, a voiced stop with the same point of articulation (i.e. labial or dental) as the nasal (\rightarrow 1.26, 1.28), i.e. $\nu\delta\rho$, $\mu\beta\rho$, $\mu\beta\lambda$. At the beginning of a word, the nasal was lost:
 - acc. sg. ἄ<u>ν</u>δρα man (<*ἄ<u>νρ</u>α (zero-grade), cf. voc. ἄνερ (e-grade)); <u>βλ</u>ώσκω come (<*<u>μλ</u>ω- (zero-grade), cf. aor. ἔ-μολ-ον (o-grade)).

Note 1: Exceptions: especially in compounds with $\sigma \upsilon \nu$ - and $\pi \alpha \upsilon$ -, the nasal often assimilates fully to the following liquid: e.g. $\sigma \upsilon \rho \dot{\nu} \omega$ flow together ($\sigma \upsilon \nu - \rho$ -), $\sigma \upsilon \lambda \dot{\nu} \omega$ collect ($\sigma \upsilon \nu - \lambda$ -), $\sigma \upsilon \lambda \dot{\nu} \omega$ freedom of speech ($\sigma \upsilon \nu - \lambda$ -).

Loss of Consonants

- 1.94 In clusters of three or more consonants, one was sometimes lost. This occurs especially in sequences consonant– σ -consonant in the conjugation of the perfect middle-passive, where the σ normally disappears:
 - pf. mp. inf. ἠγγέλθαι (<*ἠγγέλσθαι; ἀγγέλλω report), τετράφθαι (<*τετράπθαι <*τετράπσθαι; τρέπω turn); 2 pl. pf. mp. ind. τέταχθε (<*τέτα<u>γ</u>θε <*τέτα<u>γσθ</u>ε; τάττω array).

- 1.95 When σ stood between two stops with the same place of articulation, the first stop disappeared:
 e.g. λάσκω rattle (<*λάκσκω, cf. aor. ἔλακον).
- 1.96 For clusters with a dental stop before σ, →1.91 (dental disappears; e.g. νύξ night <*νύκτς; πάσχω suffer <*πάθσκω (<πήθ-σκ-ω, →1.86), with transference of aspiration).

Loss of Aspiration: Grassmann's Law

1.97 In a sequence **aspirated stop-vowel-aspirated stop**, the **first** aspirated stop **lost its aspiration** (this sound change is known as **Grassmann's law**). The change also occurred in such sequences with an intervening resonant:

```
<u>τίθημι put, place</u> (<^*\underline{\theta}\underline{i}\theta-), pf. <u>τέθη</u>κα (<^*\underline{\theta}\underline{i}\theta-), aor. pass. ἐ<u>τέθ</u>ην (<^*\underline{i}\theta\underline{i}\theta-); pf. <u>πέφ</u>ηνα (<^*\underline{\phi}\underline{i}\phi-; φαίνομαι appear), pf. <u>κέχ</u>υμαι (<^*\underline{\chi}\underline{i}\chi-; χέω pour), <u>τρέφ</u>ω nourish (<^*\underline{\theta}\underline{p}\underline{i}\phi-), <u>τρέχ</u>ω run (<^*\thetaρέχ-).
```

By the same process, a vowel with a rough breathing before an aspirated stop lost its aspiration:

ἔχω have (<*ἔχω <*σέχω; for the disappearance of σ , →1.83).

The change occurred after the disappearance of y, hence e.g. $\underline{\theta}$ άπτω bury (<*θάφyω, \rightarrow 1.77, not †τάπτω).

Note 2: Exceptions to this rule occur frequently, especially in later forms; these can normally be explained as the result of analogy (\rightarrow 1.49): e.g. aor. pass. ώρθώθην (ὀρθόω set straight), ἐχύθην (χέω pour), ἐφάνθην (φαίνω show; cf. also πεφάνθαι), ἐκαθάρθην (καθαίρω cleanse), etc.

Note also the 'inverse' application of the rule (with the second aspirated stop losing its aspiration) in the case of the 2 sg. imp. of $\theta\eta$ -aorists, e.g. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\nu}\theta\eta\tau$! ($*\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\nu}\theta\eta-\theta$!), $\rightarrow 14.6$.

Introduction to Nominal Forms

Basic Categories

- All nominal forms (the article, nouns, adjectives, participles, pronouns) express each of the following three categories:
 - case: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative or vocative;
 - **number**: singular, plural or dual (referring to a group of exactly two);
 - gender: masculine, feminine or neuter.

Some examples of nominal forms and the categories they express:

δώρ ω gift: a noun marked for case (dative), number (singular) and gender (neuter). παιδεύοντες educating: a participle marked for case (nominative), number (plural) and gender (masculine); the participle also expresses tense-aspect and voice (\rightarrow 11.2–4).

τοῖν *the*: an article marked for case (genitive *or* dative), number (dual) and gender (masculine, feminine *or* neuter).

Note 1: Nouns can have any case and number, but (usually) have only one gender: for instance, in the case of the noun οἶκος *house*, the form οἴκου is genitive singular, οἴκοις dative plural, and οἴκους accusative plural, but they are all masculine, as the noun is masculine.

The article, adjectives, participles and pronouns can have any combination of case, number and gender: for instance, in the case of the adjective $\delta \epsilon i \nu \delta j$ impressive, awful the form $\delta \epsilon i \nu \delta i$ is nominative plural masculine, $\delta \epsilon i \nu \delta i$ dative plural feminine.

Note 2: The genitive, dative and accusative are often referred to as oblique cases.

Building Blocks: Stems and Endings

2.2 All forms of a certain nominal word share a **stem**, which identifies the forms as deriving from that particular noun/adjective/etc.: for example, in any form of the adjective δεινός (e.g. δεινοῦ, δεινοῦς, δεινοὰ), the nominal stem δειν-identifies the form as belonging to that particular adjective and thus expressing the meaning *impressive*.

Some Greek nominal stems occur in different variants due to 'ablaut' vowel change ($\rightarrow 1.51$ -6). For example, the stem of the noun $\gamma \acute{e} v \circ \varsigma$ race occurs as either

γενοσ- (o-grade) or γενε(σ)- (e-grade), and the stem of the noun δαίμων spirit occurs as either δαιμων- (lengthened grade) or δαιμον- (full-grade). Which grade is used depends on the type of stem, case and number.

Some other nouns and adjectives use more strongly different variants of nominal stems. For instance, the adjective $\pi \circ \lambda \circ \varsigma$ *much, many* has some forms built on the stem $\pi \circ \lambda \circ \iota$ (e.g. $\pi \circ \lambda \circ \iota$), and some on the stem $\pi \circ \lambda \circ \iota$ (e.g. $\pi \circ \lambda \wedge \circ \iota$), $\pi \circ \lambda \wedge \circ \iota$).

With any such forms, all different variants of the stem are normally given in the following chapters.

2.3 Every nominal form also has an **ending**, which provides the information required to identify the case, number and (in the case of articles, adjectives and pronouns) gender of the form:

πατρός: the ending -os identifies the form as a genitive singular; the noun πατήρ *father* is masculine.

όδ<u>οῖς</u>: the ending -οις identifies the form as a dative plural; the noun ὁδός *road* is feminine.

αὐτοί: the ending -o1 identifies the form as a nominative plural masculine.

In a significant number of cases, a single ending may represent two or three different combinations of case, number and gender:

αὐτοῖς: the ending -ois identifies the form as a dative plural masculine *or* neuter. ἐκεῖνο: the ending -o identifies the form as a nominative *or* accusative singular neuter.

δειν<u>ων</u>: the ending -ων identifies the form as a genitive plural, masculine *or* feminine *or* neuter.

Declensions and Endings

Declensions

- 2.4 Greek nominal forms are constructed according to regular patterns, called declensions:
 - first or a-declension: nearly all forms show the presence of an α-sound in the ending (either $\check{\alpha}$ or $\bar{\alpha}$ in Attic, $\bar{\alpha}$ has changed to η , except after ε , ι , ρ , $\rightarrow 1.57$);
 - **second** or **o-declension**: nearly all forms show the presence of an o-sound in the ending (either o, ou, or ω);
 - third or consonant-declension (sometimes also called 'mixed' declension): a distinct set of endings is added to a stem, which ends in a consonant or 1 or ν (or semivowels ν/F , $\rightarrow 1.74$).

Some examples:

δειν-<u>άς</u> impressive: a first-declension form, with ending -ας for accusative plural. δούλ-<u>ους</u> slaves: a second-declension form, with ending -ους for accusative plural.

 $\gamma \tilde{\mathbf{u}} \pi - \epsilon \varsigma$ vultures: a third-declension form, with ending $-\epsilon \varsigma$ for nominative plural.

Note 1: Historically, the endings used in each of the declensions were largely the same. The differences between the declensions may be explained as follows:

- The second declension is 'thematic', i.e. includes a thematic vowel o (ε in the vocative singular; for thematic vowels, →11.18-19). Thus the second-declension nom. sg. δοῦλος slave can be analysed as consisting of a stem δουλ-, thematic vowel -o- and an original ending -ς. The thematic vowel is often considered to be part of the stem, so that the second declension consists of stems (usually) ending in o, such as δουλο-.
- The first declension (with stems ending in α) and third declension (with stems ending in a consonant or 1/υ) are 'athematic', i.e. endings are added directly to the stem. Thus the first-declension nom. sg. νεανίας young man and the third-declension nom. sg. γύψ vulture may be analysed as νεανία-ς and γύπ-ς, respectively, with the same ending -ς.

In many cases, however, such similarities between the declensions have been obscured by sound changes or variations in the use of endings. Thus, for instance, an original accusative singular ending *- μ has led to a - ν in the first/second declension (e.g. $\delta \circ \tilde{u} \wedge v = 1.73$) but in most subtypes of the third declension to an - \tilde{u} (e.g. $\gamma \tilde{u} \tilde{u} \tilde{u} = 1.86$); similarly, compare the accusative plural forms (original ending *- νs) of the first declension (e.g. $\nu \epsilon u \tilde{u} \tilde{u} s < \nu \epsilon u \tilde{u} \tilde{u} = 1.68$), second declension (e.g. $\delta \circ \tilde{u} \wedge v s = 0.168$), and third declension (e.g. $\gamma \tilde{u} \tilde{u} \tilde{u} s < \nu \tilde{u} \tilde{u} \tilde{u} = 0.168$).

For clarity's sake, the α -sound of the first declension and the o/ϵ of the second declension will be treated as **part of the endings** below.

2.5 It is often impossible to derive the stem and pattern of declension of a noun from the nom. sg. form alone: dictionaries therefore provide the article and/or gen. sg. form in addition. These forms together generally provide sufficient information to determine which subtype the noun belongs to. Compare, for example:

```
    ὁ δοῦλος slave, gen. δούλου but τὸ γένος race, gen. γένους (third decl.)
    (second decl.)
    ὁ Ξέρξης Xerxes, gen. Ξέρξου but ὁ Σωκράτης Socrates, gen. Σωκράτους
    (first decl.)
```

In the third declension, the nom. sg. and gen. sg. are usually needed to determine which 'subtype' of the third declension a noun belongs to: $\rightarrow 4.33$.

Table of Endings

2.6 The regular case endings for each of the declensions are given in the table below. Fuller information and exceptions will be given in the following chapters:

		first declension		second declension		third declension	
sg.	nom.	-ἄ or -ā/-η	-ας/-ης	-ος	-оv or -о	- s or -ø	-Ø
		(fem.)	(masc.)	(masc./fem.)	(neut.)	(masc./fem.)	(neut.)
	gen.	-ας/-ης	-ou	-ου	i	-05	
		(fem.)	(=-ō →1.23)	(=-ō →1.23)			
			(masc.)				
	dat.	-α/-ŋ		-φ		-ĭ	
	acc.	-αν or -αν/-	ην	-ον	= nom . ²	-α or -ν	= nom.
				(masc./fem.)	(neut.)	(masc./fem.)	(neut.)
	voc.	= nom . ³	-ἄ or -ā/-η	-ε	= nom . ²	= nom./-ø	
		(fem.)	(masc.)		(neut.)		
pl.	nom.	-αι		-01	- ă	-ες	- α
				(masc./fem.)	(neut.)	(masc./fem.)	(neut.)
	gen.	- ῶν (<-ἀων)	-ων		-ων	
	dat.	-αις ⁴		-015 ⁴		-σĭ(ν)	
	acc.	-ᾱς		-ους	= nom . ²	-ἄς	= nom.
				(=-ō ₅ →1.23)	(neut.)		(neut.)
				(masc./fem.)			
	voc.	= nom . ³		= nom . ³	1	= nom . ³	

¹ The symbol ø stands for 'no ending'. E.g. nom. sg. masc. Έλλην *Greek* (compare gen. sg. "Ελλην-05).

2.7 For the endings of the dual, \rightarrow 10.1.

² In the neuter, the nominative, accusative and vocative are always identical to each other.

The voc. sg. of feminine first-declension nouns is always identical to the nom. sg.; the voc. pl. of all nominal forms is identical to the nom. pl.

In poetry, the epic/Ionic (→25) dative plural endings -οισι(ν) and -αισι(ν) are frequently found; they are found occasionally in prose. The regular first-declension dative plural ending in Ionic prose is -ησι(ν).

The Article

3.1 For the meanings and uses of the article, \rightarrow 28. The forms are as follows:

		article			
			ό, ἡ, τό <i>the</i>		
		masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	ò	ή	τό	
	gen.	τοῦ	τῆς	тоῦ	
	dat.	τῷ	τῆ	τῷ	
	acc.	τόν	τήν	τό	
pl.	nom.	ဝင်	αί	τά	
	gen.	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν	
	dat.	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς	
	acc.	τούς	τάς	τά	

Except for the nom. sg. masc. \circ (which has no ending), the article uses second-declension endings in the masculine and neuter, and first-declension endings in the feminine. The forms start with τ -, except the nominatives of the masculine and feminine, which start with a rough breathing.

Note 1: The forms of the article are prepositive (\rightarrow 60.4-6, 60.13). For the purpose of accentuation they count as proclitics (24.33-9).

Note 2: In poetry, the dat. pl. forms $\tau \circ \tilde{\sigma} \circ 1$ and $\tau \circ \tilde{\sigma} \circ 1$ are frequently found. In some prose uses, the form of the nom. sg. masc. is $\tilde{\sigma} \circ 1$ ($\rightarrow 28.29-30$).

Note 3: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.26$.

Nouns

First-Declension Nouns

Stems, Types and Gender of First-Declension Nouns

- 4.1 The first declension is also known as the **a-declension**, since it consists of nouns with a stem ending in an a-sound (this sound is considered to be part of the endings, \rightarrow 2.4 n.1).
- 4.2 The following types of noun belong to the first declension:
 - **feminine nouns**, with a nominative singular ending either in short -α or long -α (which in Attic has changed to -η, except after ε, ι or ρ, →1.57);
 - **masculine nouns**, with a nominative singular ending in $-\eta\varsigma/-\bar{\alpha}\varsigma$.

The first declension does not have neuter nouns.

Feminine Nouns in -η, -α or -α

4.3 Overview of forms:

		with long α/η		with short ă	
		-	after ε, ι or ρ		after ε, ι or ρ
		ἡ φυγή flight	ή χώρᾶ land	ἡ μοῦσὰ muse	ἡ διάνοιἄ thought
sg.	nom. / voc.	φυγή	χώρᾶ	μοῦσἄ	διάνοιἄ
	gen.	φυγῆς	χώρᾶς	μούσης	διανοίᾶς
	dat.	φυγῆ	χώρα	μούση	διανοία
	acc.	φυγήν	χώρᾶν	μοῦσὰν	διάνοιϊν
pl.	nom. / voc.	φυγαί	χῶραι	μοῦσαι	διάνοιαι
	gen.	φυγῶν	χωρῶν	μουσῶν	διανοιῶν
	dat.	φυγαῖς	χώραις	μούσαις	διανοίαις
	acc.	φυγάς	χώρᾶς	μούσᾶς	διανοίᾶς

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.15$.

- 4.4 Most nouns of the first declension are **feminine**. There are two main types:
 - with a nominative singular in a long -η/-ᾱ: for example ἡ φυγἡ flight, ἡ τύχη fate, ἡ νίκη victory, ἡ ἀδελφἡ sister; ἡ Ἑλένη Helen; ἡ χώρᾱ land, ἡ θέᾱ sight, ἡ αἰτίᾱ cause; ἡ Ἡλέκτρᾱ Electra;
 - with a nominative singular in a short α: for example ἡ μοῦσα muse, ἡ θάλαττα sea, ἡ δόξα opinion; ἡ διάνοια thought; ἡ μοῆρα fate; ἡ Ἰφιγένεια Iphigenia.
- 4.5 Endings in the **singular** (\rightarrow 2.6):
 - Type with long $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$: long vowel throughout the singular (η, but $\bar{\alpha}$ when ε, ι or ρ precedes):

```
      τύχη: nom. sg.
      χώρα: nom. sg.

      φυγῆς: gen. sg.
      αἰτ<u>ί</u>ας: gen. sg.

      ἀδελφῆ: dat. sg.
      χώρα: dat. sg.

      νίκην: acc. sg.
      αἰτ<u>ί</u>αν: acc. sg.
```

– Type with **short** $\check{\alpha}$: short vowel in the nominative, accusative and vocative singular:

```
θάλαττἄ: nom. sg. μοῦσἄ: voc. sg. διάνοιἄν: acc. sg.
```

- In the other cases in the singular, the endings have either η or (after ε, 1 or ρ) long $\bar{\alpha}$:

```
      θαλάττης: gen. sg.
      διανοίας: gen. sg.

      μούση: dat. sg.
      μοίρα: dat. sg.
```

4.6 Endings in the **plural** (\rightarrow 2.6) are the same in all types:

```
φυγαί: nom. pl. θαλάτταις: dat. pl. μοῦσαι: nom. pl. αἰτίαις: dat. pl.
```

Observe that there is no distinction in spelling between the endings of the two main types if ϵ , 1 or ρ precedes (indications of vowel length are not given in standard texts): it is, however, often possible to determine the length of α from accentuation (e.g. in the case of nom. sg. διάνοιᾶ, \rightarrow 24.8–9, 24.27), and sometimes from the use of a word in certain metrical positions (for example if the final syllable occupies a position which must scan short).

Masculine Nouns in -ns or -as

4.8 Overview of forms:

		nouns in -ης	nouns in -ας (after ε, ι or ρ)
		ό δεσπότης master	ὁ νεανίᾶς young man
sg.	nom.	δεσπότης	νεανίᾶς
	gen.	δεσπότου	νεανίου
	dat.	δεσπότη	νεανία
	acc.	δεσπότην	νεανίαν
	voc.	δέσποτἄ	νεανίᾶ
pl.	nom. / voc.	δεσπόται	νεανίαι
	gen.	δεσποτῶν	νεανιῶν
	dat.	δεσπόταις	νεανίαις
	acc.	δεσπότᾶς	νεανίᾶς

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.16$.

- 4.9 Nouns of the first declension with a nom. sg. in -ς are masculine (most are proper names or professions): for example ὁ δεσπότης master, ὁ πολίτης citizen, ὁ κριτής judge; ὁ ἀτρείδης son of Atreus, ὁ Εὐριπίδης Euripides, ὁ Πέρσης Persian; ὁ νεανίᾶς young man, ὁ ταμίᾶς treasurer; ὁ Ξανθίᾶς Xanthias.
- 4.10 Masculine nouns of the first declension have the same endings as feminine ones, with two exceptions:
 - the **nominative singular ends in -ς**: contrast e.g. ὁ κριτής with ἡ τύχη;
 - the ending -ου is used in the genitive singular: contrast e.g. τοῦ κριτ<u>οῦ</u> with τῆς τύχης.

Note 1: This genitive ending was presumably formed with the genitive ending $-(\sigma)o$, via a process $-\bar{\alpha}(\sigma)o > -\eta o$ ($\rightarrow 1.57, 1.83$) $> -\epsilon \omega$ ($\rightarrow 1.71$) $> -\epsilon o$ (by analogy, $\rightarrow 1.49$) $> -\bar{o}$ ($\rightarrow 1.58-60$; $=-o\upsilon$). The second-declension ending $-o\upsilon$ (itself $< -o(\sigma)o$), used for many masculine nouns, may also have directly influenced this formation.

- 4.11 There are no masculine nouns of the first declension with short ἄ; thus the **endings** in the singular are always long (e.g. nom. sg. πολίτης, acc. sg. νεανί<u>α</u>ν), except sometimes in the vocative.
- 4.12 The voc. sg. is formed as follows:
 - with nouns in -της and with the names of races/peoples: -α (e.g. with κριτής, voc. κριτά; with Πέρσης, voc. Πέρσα);

- with other first-declension nouns in -ης/-ας, including all proper names in -άδης and -ίδης:
 voc. in -η/-α (e.g. with ἀτρείδης, voc. sg. ἀτρείδη; with νεανίας, voc. sg. νεανία, with Ξανθίας,
 voc. sg. Ξανθία).
- 4.13 Proper names in -ης may also belong to the third declension: e.g. ὁ Σωκράτης (gen. Σωκράτους, →4.65-9). All names in -άδης and -ίδης are first-declension.

Further Notes and Exceptions

- A few nouns of the first declension have endings resulting from **contraction with** ϵ **or** α . In α -contracts the long $\bar{\alpha}$ resulting from the contraction is found in all forms. In ϵ -contracts, the endings are like those of the type $\phi \nu \gamma \dot{\eta}$ ($\rightarrow 4.3-7$), but with differences in accentuation ($\rightarrow 24.12$):
 - α-contracts: ἡ μνᾶ mina (<*μνά-ᾱ), gen. μνᾶς, etc.; ἡ 'Αθηνᾶ Athena (<'Αθηνα(ί)-ᾱ), gen.
 'Άθηνᾶς, etc;
 - ε-contracts: ἡ γαλῆ weasel (<*γαλέ-ᾱ), gen. γαλῆς, etc.; ὁ Ἑρμῆς Hermes (<*Ἑρμέ-ᾱς), gen.
 Ἑρμοῦ, etc.; ὁ Βορρᾶς north wind (<Βο(ρ)ρέ-ᾱς, with ᾱ because of the preceding ρ), etc.

Note that in the ε -contracts, various forms are different from what the rules of contraction ought to have produced, by analogy with uncontracted first-declension endings (\rightarrow 1.49): e.g. nom. pl. $\gamma\alpha\lambda\tilde{\alpha}$ (rather than $\gamma\alpha\lambda\tilde{\eta}$ <* $\gamma\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}$ - α 1).

- 4.15 Occasionally, a genitive in -ā is used with proper names ending in -āς (the 'Doric' genitive, →25.47): e.g. gen. Εὐρώτā (with ὁ Εὐρώτāς Eurotas), gen. Καλλίā (with ὁ Καλλίāς Callias).
- 4.16 ή κόρη girl and ή δέρη neck have -η in the sg., even though ρ precedes (originally, f intervened: e.g. κόρη <*κόρf α , \rightarrow 1.57 n.3).

Second-Declension Nouns

Stems, Types and Gender of Second-Declension Nouns

- 4.17 The second declension is also known as the **o**-declension, since it consists of nouns with a stem which normally ends in \circ (the \circ is treated here as part of the endings, \rightarrow 2.4 n.1).
- 4.18 The following types of noun belong to the second declension:
 - masculine (and several feminine) nouns, with a nominative singular ending in
 -oς (or -ους or -ως);
 - **neuter** nouns, with a nominative singular ending in -ov (or -ouv).

Masculine (and Feminine) Nouns in -o5 or -ou5

4.19 Overview of forms:

		nouns in -os	nouns in -ous	
		ό δοῦλος slave	ο νοῦς mind	
sg.	nom.	δοῦλος	νοῦς	(<-ό-ος)
	gen.	δούλου	νοῦ	(<-ό-ου)
	dat.	δούλω	νῷ	(<-ό-ῳ)
	acc.	δοῦλον	νοῦν	(<-ό-ον)
	voc.	δοῦλε	νοῦ	(<-ό-ε)
pl.	nom. / voc.	δοῦλοι	voĩ	(<-ό-οι)
	gen.	δούλων	νῶν	(<-ό-ων)
	dat.	δούλοις	νοῖς	(<-ό-οις)
	acc.	δούλους	νοῦς (<-ό-ους	

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.18$.

- 4.20 Most nouns of the second declension are masculine: these have a nom. sg. in -0ς.
 E.g. ὁ δοῦλος slave, ὁ ἰατρός physician, ὁ πόλεμος war, ὁ ποταμός river; ὁ Αἴσχυλος Aeschylus.
- 4.21 With a few masculine nouns of the second declension, the vowels of the endings have contracted (→1.58-64) with a preceding o in the stem. For example ὁ νοῦς mind (<νό-ος) and ὁ ἔκπλους sailing away (<ἔκπλο-ος).</p>
- 4.22 Several nouns of the second declension are **feminine**. These include:
 - ἡ παρθένος maiden, ἡ ἤπειρος mainland, ἡ νόσος disease, ἡ νῆσος island, ἡ ὁδός road (and compounds, e.g. ἡ εἴσοδος entrance);
 - many geographical entities, e.g. ἡ Αἴγυπτος Egypt, ἡ Κόρινθος Corinth, ἡ Ῥόδος Rhodes;
 - most trees and plants, e.g. ή ἄμπελος vine, ή πλάτανος plane-tree.

They are declined exactly like second-declension masculine nouns:

τῆς ὁδοῦ: gen. sg. fem. ταῖς νήσοις: dat. pl. fem.

A few others occur both as **masculine and feminine** nouns (these are often called 'common gender' nouns), again with no changes in the declension: $\dot{\phi}/\dot{\eta}$ θεός god/goddess, $\dot{\phi}/\dot{\eta}$ ἄνθρωπος man/woman, $\dot{\phi}/\dot{\eta}$ τροφός nurse, etc.:

τοῦ ἀνθρώπου: gen. sg. masc. τῆς ἀνθρώπου: gen. sg. fem.

4.23 There are also nouns with a nominative in -05 which belong to the third declension, always neuter: e.g. τὸ γένος (gen. γένους, →4.65-7); these should not be confused with second-declension nouns.

Neuter Nouns in -ov or -ouv

4.24 Overview of forms:

		nouns in -ov	nouns in -ouv	
		τὸ δῶρον gift	τὸ ὀστοῦι	bone
sg.	nom. / voc.	δῶρον	ὀστοῦν	(<-έ-ον)
	gen.	δώρου	ὀστοῦ	(<-έ-ου)
	dat.	δώρῳ	ὀστῷ	(<-έ-ῳ)
	acc.	δῶρον	ὀστοῦν	(<-έ-ον)
pl.	nom. / voc.	δῶρἄ	ὀστᾶ	
	gen.	δώρων	ὀστῶν	(<-έ-ων)
	dat.	δώροις	ὀστοῖς	(<-έ-οις)
	acc.	δῶρἄ	ὀστᾶ	

Note 1: For Ionic forms, \rightarrow 25.18.

- 4.25 There are many **neuter** second-declension nouns: for example τὸ ἄστρον star, τὸ δεῖπνον meal, τὸ δῶρον gift, τὸ ἱμάτιον cloak. Note that nominative and accusative are identical, and that in the plural these end in -α.
- 4.26 With a few neuter nouns of the second declension, the vowels of the endings have contracted (→1.58–66) with a preceding ε in the stem. For example τὸ κανοῦν basket (<κανέ-ον) and τὸ ὀστοῦν bone (<ὀστέ-ον).</p>

Note 1: The ending of the nom./acc. pl. in $-\bar{\alpha}$ (oot $\bar{\alpha}$) is due to analogy with the a-sound in e.g. $\delta \bar{\omega} \rho \alpha$ ($\rightarrow 1.49$; regular contraction of $-\epsilon \bar{\alpha}$ would have resulted in $-\eta$, cf. e.g. $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \eta < \gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \bar{\alpha}$, $\rightarrow 1.59$).

Further Notes and Exceptions

4.27 The so-called **Attic second declension** consists of a few masculine and feminine nouns whose nominative singular ends in -ως, for example ὁ νεώς temple, ὁ λεώς people, ἡ ἕως dawn; ὁ Μενέλεως Menelaus. Their endings throughout the declension include ω. These endings are usually the result of quantitative metathesis (→1.71):

		ο νεώς ten	ıple	
sg.	nom. / voc.	νεώς	(<*νηϝός)	
	gen.	νεώ	(<*νηϝδ)	
	dat.	νεώ	(<*νηϝῷ)	
	acc.	νεών	(<*νηϝόν)	
pl.	nom. / voc.	νεώ	(<*νη _Γ οί)	
	gen.	νεών	(<*νηϝῶν)	
	dat.	νεώς	(<*νηροῖς)	
	acc.	νεώς	(<*νηϝός)	

nouns in -ως (Attic second declension)

Also in the Attic declension, but not the result of quantitative metathesis, are a few nouns like δ λαγώς hare (<*λαγωός), δ κάλως cable (<*κάλωος). The resulting endings are identical to those of νεώς.

The acc. sg., particularly with nouns of the $\lambda \alpha \gamma \dot{\omega}_5$ type, sometimes ends in -ω. This is always the case with $\xi \omega_5$ dawn (originally declined like $\alpha \delta \dot{\omega}_5$, $\rightarrow 4.71$): τὴν $\xi \omega$.

Note 1: The Attic declension is not used consistently in Attic poetry, or in Ionic (\rightarrow 25.19), and was not adopted in the Koine; these use e.g. $M\epsilon\nu\epsilon\lambda\bar{\alpha}$ 05, $\lambda\bar{\alpha}$ 65, etc. The term 'Attic' derives, in fact, from the contrast with Koine Greek.

Note 2: For the accentuation of forms such as Mενέλεως, \rightarrow 24.10 n.2.

- 4.28 Some second-declension nouns have both masculine and neuter forms (such words, following different patterns of declension, are often called **heteroclitic**):
 - ὁ δεσμός band, bond, chain has both masculine and plural neuter forms: nom. pl. δεσμά as well as δεσμοί/δεσμούς (only the masculine forms are used when δεσμοί refers to chains or bonds used for imprisonment).
 - ὁ σῖτος grain has neuter plural forms: nom./acc. pl. τὰ σῖτα.
 - τὸ στάδιον stade has both neuter and masculine plural forms: nom./acc. pl. οἱ στάδιοι/τοὺς σταδίους as well as τὰ στάδια.
- 4.29 With θεός god, the nom. sg. is used as voc. sg., rather than a form in -ε: ὧ θεός.
- 4.30 For the declension of τὸ δάκρυον tear, ὁ ὄνειρος dream, ὁ σκότος shade and ὁ υίός son, →4.91.

Third-Declension Nouns

Stems, Types and Gender of Third-Declension Nouns

4.31 All third-declension nouns have a **stem ending in a consonant or 1 or u** (or semivowels y or F).

- 4.32 Although the endings used are generally the same throughout the entire declension (→2.6, for exceptions see the individual sections below), a number of different **subtypes** of the third declension are distinguished: the differences between these types largely depend on two factors:
 - the (type of) consonant, or 1/0, in which the stem ends;
 - whether or not there is ablaut ($\rightarrow 1.51-6$) in the stem.
- 4.33 It is often impossible to derive the stem of a third-declension noun (and thus the exact pattern of that noun's declension) from the nominative singular alone: the genitive is required to determine which subtype the noun belongs to. Compare, for example:

```
ὁ ἀγών contest, gen. ἀγῶνος,
                                    but
                                          ὁ γέρων old man, gen. γέροντος,
  stem in v
                                             stem in vт
ή ἐλπίς hope, gen. ἐλπίδος,
                                          ή πόλις city, gen. πόλεως,
                                    but
  stem in δ
                                             stem in 1
ή κόρυς helmet, gen. κόρυθος,
                                    but
                                          ὁ ἰχθῦς fish, gen. ἰχθύος,
  stem in \theta
                                             stem in u
                                    but
                                          ὁ πῆχυς forearm, gen. πήχεως,
                                             stem in v, with ablaut
ό σωτήρ saviour, gen. σωτῆρος,
                                    but
                                          ὁ πατήρ father, gen. πατρός,
                                             stem in \rho, with ablaut
  stem in \rho
```

For a complete overview of noun types, $\rightarrow 4.93$ below.

4.34 Third-declension nouns are masculine, feminine or neuter. Some subtypes occur only in certain genders, however: see the individual sections below.

Stems in a Labial Stop (π, β, φ) or Velar Stop (κ, γ, χ)

4.35 Overview of forms:

		nouns in -ψ	nouns in -ξ
		ό γύψ vulture stem γυπ-	ό φύλαξ guard stem φυλακ-
sg.	nom. / voc.	γύψ	φύλαξ
	gen.	γυπός	φύλακος
	dat.	γυπΐ	φύλακῖ
	acc.	γῦπἄ	φύλακἄ
pl.	nom. / voc.	γῦπες	φύλακες
	gen.	γυπῶν	φυλάκων
	dat.	γυψτ(ν)	φύλαξῖ(ν)
	acc.	γῦπἄς	φύλακᾶς

- 4.36 Third-declension nouns with a stem ending in a labial or velar stop are either masculine or feminine: e.g. ὁ γύψ vulture (γυπ-), ἡ φλέψ vein (φλεβ-), ὁ Πέλοψ Pelops (Πελοπ-); ὁ φύλαξ guard (φυλακ-), ὁ/ἡ αἴξ goat (αἰγ-), ἡ σάλπιγξ trumpet (σαλπιγγ-), ἡ θρίξ hair (θριχ-), ὁ ὄνυξ claw (ὀνυχ-).
- 4.37 Labial + $\sigma = \psi$; velar + $\sigma = \xi$:
 - in the nom. sg.: $\gamma \dot{\upsilon} \pi$ - ς > $\gamma \dot{\upsilon} \psi$; $\varphi \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \beta$ - ς > $\varphi \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \psi$; $\ddot{\sigma} \nu \upsilon \chi$ - ς > $\ddot{\sigma} \nu \upsilon \xi$;
 - in the dat. pl.: $\gamma u \pi \sigma i > \gamma u \psi i$; $\varphi \lambda \epsilon \beta \sigma i > \varphi \lambda \epsilon \psi i$; $\ddot{o} \nu u \chi \sigma \iota > \ddot{o} \nu u \xi \iota$.
- 4.38 The noun ἡ γυνή woman is, apart from its irregularly formed nom. sg., declined according to this type (stem γυναικ-): gen. sg. γυναικός, dat. pl. γυναιξί, etc.

The voc. sg. is $\gamma \dot{\nu} \nu \alpha i$ (<* $\gamma \dot{\nu} \nu \alpha i \kappa$, $\rightarrow 1.73$).

4.39 The stem of θρίξ hair has lost its initial aspiration in all cases where aspirated χ is retained (→1.97 n.1): gen. sg. τριχός, dat. τριχί, acc. τρίχα; nom. pl. τρίχες, gen. τριχῶν, acc. τρίχας; but nom. sg. θρίξ, dat. pl. θριξί.

Stems in a Dental Stop $(\tau, \delta, \theta, \text{ except } \nu \tau)$

4.40 Overview of forms:

		stems in a dental stop			
		nouns in -μα (always neuter)	nouns in -is (with accented final syllable)	nouns in -15 (or -05) (with unaccented final syllable)	other nouns
		τό πρᾶγμα thing stem πραγματ-	ἡ ἑλπίς expectation stem ἐλπιδ-	ἡ ἔρις strife stem ἐριδ-	ἡ ἐσθής clothing stem ἐσθητ-
sg.	nom.	πρᾶγμα	ἐλπίς	ἔρις	ἐσθής
	gen.	πράγματος	ἐλπίδος	ἔριδος	έσθῆτος
	dat.	πράγματι	ἐλπίδι	ἔριδι	ἐσθῆτι
	acc.	πρᾶγμα	ἐλπίδα	ἔριν	ἐσθῆτα
	voc.	= nom.	ἐλπί	ἔρι	= nom.
pl.	nom. / voc.	πράγματα	ἐλπίδες	ἔριδες	ἐσθῆτες
	gen.	πραγμάτων	ἐλπίδων	ἐρίδων	ἐσθήτων
	dat.	πράγμασι(ν)	ἐλπίσι(ν)	ἔρισι(ν)	ἐσθῆσι(ν)
	acc.	πράγματα	ἐλπίδας	ἔριδας	ἐσθῆτας

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.20$.

4.41 Third-declension nouns with a stem ending in a dental stop may be:

neuter, usually with a stem in μάτ: e.g. τὸ πρᾶγμα thing (πραγματ-), τὸ σῶμα body (σωματ-), τὸ ὄνομα name (ὀνοματ-);

Note 1: There are a few other neuter nouns with a stem in τ: e.g. τὸ γόνυ knee (γονατ-), τὸ δόρυ spear (δορατ-), τὸ μέλι honey (μελιτ-), τὸ οὖς ear (ἀτ-), τὸ τέρας omen (τερατ-), τὸ ὕδωρ water (ὑδατ-), τὸ φῶς light (φωτ-). Also $\rightarrow 4.90-1$.

- feminine: e.g. ἡ ἐλπίς expectation (ἐλπιδ-), ἡ ἔρις strife (ἐριδ-), ἡ ἐσθής clothing (ἐσθητ-), ἡ κακότης baseness (κακοτητ-), ἡ κόρυς helmet (κορυθ-), ἡ χάρις favour, gratitude (χαριτ-); ἡ Ἄρτεμις Artemis (Ἀρτεμιδ-);
- occasionally masculine: e.g. ὁ πούς foot (ποδ-); common gender: ὁ/ἡ ὄρνις bird
 (ὀρνιθ-), ὁ/ἡ παῖς child (παιδ-).

4.42 Dental stops disappear without trace before $\sigma (\rightarrow 1.91)$:

- in the nom. sg.: e.g. *ἐλπίδ-ς > ἐλπίς;
- in the dat. pl.: e.g. *ἐλπίδ-σι > ἐλπίσι; *τέρατ-σι > τέρασι.

Neuter nouns with a stem in $\mu\alpha\tau$ have no ending in the nom./acc. sg., and the final τ is lost ($\rightarrow 1.73$): * $\pi\rho\tilde{\alpha}\gamma\mu\alpha\tau > \pi\rho\tilde{\alpha}\gamma\mu\alpha$.

Note 1: ἡ νύξ night derives from νύκ(τ)-ς (stem νυκτ-, cf. gen. sg. νυκτός); dat. pl. νυξί < νυκ(τ)-σί. Similarly ὁ ἄναξ lord (gen. ἄνακτος). Also cf. neut. τὸ γάλα milk (stem γαλακτ-, nom./acc. <*γάλα(κτ), gen. γάλακτος; sg. only).

Nouns in -15 (or -υ5) which do not have the accent on the final syllable of the stem (i.e. on the 1 or υ) have an accusative singular in -1ν (or -υν):

ὄρνις, gen. ὄρνιθος	acc. ὄρνιν
χάρις, gen. χάριτος	acc. χάρι <i>ν</i>
Ἄρτεμις, gen. Ἀρτέμιδος	асс. "Артєμιι
κόρυς, gen. κόρυθος	acc. κόρυ <i>ν</i>
but:	
ἐλπίς, gen. ἐλπίδος	acc. ἐλπίδα

4.44 The **voc. sg.** is usually formed without ending and with loss of the final dental: e.g. $\mathring{\omega}$ παῖ (<*παῖδ, \rightarrow 1.73). In other cases it is identical to the nominative.

Stems in vt

4.45 Overview of forms:

		stems in ντ		
		ό γίγας giant stem γιγάντ-	ὁ γέρων old man stem γεροντ-	
sg.	nom.	γίγᾶς	γέρων	
	gen.	γίγἄντος	γέροντος	
	dat.	γίγἄντι	γέροντι	
	acc.	γίγἄντα	γέροντα	
	voc.	γίγαν	γέρον	
pl.	nom. / voc.	γίγαντες	γέροντες	
	gen.	γιγάντων	γερόντων	
	dat.	γίγᾶσι(ν)	γέρουσι(ν)	
	acc.	γίγἄντας	γέροντας	
		•		

4.46 Third-declension nouns with a **stem in ντ** are **masculine**: e.g. ὁ γέρων old man (γεροντ-), ὁ γίγας giant (γιγάντ-), ὁ δράκων serpent (δρακοντ-), ὁ λέων lion (λεοντ-), ὁ ὀδούς tooth (ὀδοντ-); ὁ Ξενοφῶν Xenophon (Ξενοφωντ-).

4.47 The combination ντ disappeared before σ, with compensatory lengthening $(\rightarrow 1.68-9)$:

- in the nom. sg., when it is formed with -ς: *γίγἄντ-ς > γίγᾶς; *ὀδοντ-ς > ὀδούς
 (= ὀδός); note, however, that some nouns have a nom. sg. ending not in -ς, but with a long vowel and no τ: e.g. γέρων; δράκων;
- in the dat. pl.: *γέροντ-σι > γέρουσι (= γέροσι); *γίγαντ-σι > γίγασι.
- 4.48 The **voc. sg.** is formed without ending (\rightarrow 2.6) and without -τ: e.g. $\mathring{\omega}$ γέρον.

Stems in v

4.49 Overview of forms:

		stems in v			
			(with ablaut)		
		ό ἀγών contest stem ἀγων-	ό ποιμήν shepherd stem ποιμεν-/ποιμην-	ό δαίμων spirit stem δαιμον-/δαιμων-	
sg.	nom.	ἀγών	ποιμήν	δαίμων	
	gen.	ἀγῶνος	ποιμένος	δαίμονος	
	dat.	ἀγῶνι	ποιμένι	δαίμονι	
	acc.	ἀγῶνα	ποιμένα	δαίμονα	
	voc.	= nom.	ποιμήν	δαῖμον	
pl.	nom. / voc.	ἀγῶνες	ποιμένες	δαίμονες	
	gen.	ἀγώνων	ποιμένων	δαιμόνων	
	dat.	ἀγῶσι(ν)	ποιμέσι(ν)	δαίμοσι(ν)	
	acc.	ἀγῶνας	ποιμένας	δαίμονας	

- 4.50 Third-declension nouns with a stem in ν may be:
 - masculine: e.g. ὁ ἁγών contest (ἀγων-), ὁ δαίμων spirit (δαιμον-), ὁ δελφίς dolphin (δελφιν-), ὁ ἡγεμών guide (ἡγεμον-), ὁ ποιμήν shepherd (ποιμεν-); ὁ ἀγαμέμνων Agamemnon (Ἁγαμεμνον-), ὁ "Ελλην Greek (Ἑλλην-), ὁ Πλάτων Plato (Πλατων-);
 - in fewer cases, feminine: e.g. ἡ εἰκών image (εἰκον-), ἡ σταγών drop (σταγον-), ἡ ἀδίς childbirth pain (ἀδιν-); ἡ Σαλαμίς Salamis (Σαλαμιν-).
- 4.51 The final ν of the stem has **disappeared before** σ :
 - in the nom. sg. of a few nouns: *δελφίν-ς > δελφίς (gen. δελφῖνος), *Σαλαμίν-ς > Σαλαμίς (gen. Σαλαμῖνος); observe, however, that most nouns of this type form a nom. sg. without an ending (→2.6), and with a long vowel (→1.54): e.g. ἀγών (stem ἀγων-); δαίμων (stem δαιμον-);
 - in the dat. pl.; there is no compensatory lengthening: e.g. ἀγῶσι, δαίμοσι, σταγόσι.

Note 1: The dat. pl. was presumably formed through the process *δαίμη-σι (zero-grade, $\rightarrow 1.51-3$) > *δαίμασι (n > α, $\rightarrow 1.86$) > δαίμοσι (analogical levelling of the paradigm, $\rightarrow 1.49$, with o for α). It is thus more accurate to say that there was, in the dat. pl., never a cluster -νσ-between vowels which could have resulted in compensatory lengthening. This pattern is found in all nominal ν-stems (adjectives, $\rightarrow 5.24$, 5.27; pronouns, $\rightarrow 7.24$).

- 4.52 The **voc. sg.**, without ending (\rightarrow 2.6), is often identical to the nominative (e.g. $\tilde{\omega}$ Πλάτων, $\tilde{\omega}$ ποιμήν), although with some nouns a short vowel grade is used: e.g. $\tilde{\omega}$ Άγάμεμνον, $\tilde{\omega}$ δαῖμον, $\tilde{\omega}$ ὅπολλον (also \rightarrow 4.53).
- 4.53 **ὁ Ἀπόλλων** Apollo has acc. ἀπόλλ<u>ω</u> next to ἀπόλλωνα. So too **ὁ Ποσειδῶν** Poseidon, acc. sg. Ποσειδ<u>ῶ</u> next to Ποσειδῶνα. Their voc. is Ἄπολλον, Πόσειδ<u>ο</u>ν.
- **ό κύων** dog uses the stem κυν- throughout the rest of its declension (gen. sg. κυνός, dat. sg. κυνί, etc.), except for the voc. sg. κύον.

Stems in a Liquid (λ or ρ)

4.55 Overview of forms:

		stems in a liquid		
		ὁ ἄλς salt stem ἁλ-	ό ἡήτωρ <i>orator</i> stem ἡητορ-	
sg.	nom.	ἄλς	ρήτωρ	
	gen.	άλός	ϸήτορος	
	dat.	άλί	ρήτορ ι	
	acc.	ἄλα	ρήτορα	
	voc.	_	ρ҅ῆτορ	
pl.	nom. / voc.	ἄλες	ρήτορες	
	gen.	άλῶν	ἡητόρων	
	dat.	άλσί(ν)	ἡήτορσι(ν)	
	acc.	ἄλας	ρήτορας	

- 4.56 Third-declension nouns with a **stem ending in a liquid** are:
 - normally masculine: e.g. ὁ ῥήτωρ orator (ῥητορ-), ὁ κρατήρ mixing bowl (κρατηρ-), ὁ σωτήρ saviour (σωτηρ-), ὁ φώρ thief (φωρ-); ὁ "Εκτωρ Hector (Έκτορ-). A few feminine nouns occur: e.g. ἡ κήρ fate (κηρ-), ἡ χείρ hand (χειρ-);
 - masculine or feminine are ὁ ἄλς (grain of) salt, ἡ ἄλς sea (άλ-); ὁ/ἡ ἀἡρ air
 (ἀερ-); ὁ/ἡ αἰθήρ heaven (αἰθερ-);
 - two nouns are neuter: τὸ ἔαρ spring and τὸ πῦρ fire (\rightarrow 4.61).

4.57 The **nom. sg.** is normally without ending. Several nouns of this type have ablaut in the stem, and then use the lengthened vowel in the nom. sg. (→1.54): e.g. αἰθήρ (gen. αἰθέρος), ῥήτωρ (gen. ῥήτορος); other nouns have a long vowel throughout the declension: e.g. κρατήρ (gen. κρατῆρος), φώρ (gen. φωρός).

In ἄλς, -ς is added to the stem (without change) to form the nom. sg.

- 4.58 The voc. sg. is formed without ending (→2.6), normally with a short vowel: ὧ ἡῆτορ, ὧ σῶτερ, ὧ "Εκτορ.
- 4.59 ἡ χείρ hand (stem χειρ-, gen. χειρός) has dat. pl. χερσί: this shorter variant of the stem (χερ-) is found in the other cases as well, especially in poetry.
- 4.60 **ὁ μάρτυς** witness (stem μαρτυρ-, gen. μάρτυρος, dat. μάρτυρι, etc.) has dat. pl. μάρτυσι.
- 4.61 The neuter nouns τὸ πῦρ fire and τὸ ἔαρ spring occur only in the singular. They are declined πῦρ, πυρός, πυρί, πῦρ and ἔαρ, ἔαρος (often > ἦρος), ἔαρι (often > ἦρι), ἔαρ.

Stems in (ε)ρ, with Three Ablaut Grades (Type πατήρ, ἀνήρ)

4.62 Overview of forms:

		type πατήρ	ἀνήρ
		ό πατήρ father stem πατ(ε)ρ-	ό ἀνήρ <i>man</i> stem ἀν(ε)ρ-
sg.	nom.	πατήρ	ἀνήρ
	gen.	πατρός	ἀνδρός
	dat.	πατρί	ἀνδρί
	acc.	πατέρα	ἄνδρα
	voc.	πάτερ	ἄνερ
pl.	nom. / voc.	πατέρες	ἄνδρες
	gen.	πατέρων	ἀνδρῶν
	dat.	πατράσι(ν)	ἀνδρἄσι(ν)
	acc.	πατέρας	ἄνδρας

- 4.63 Four nouns ending in -τηρ ὁ πατήρ father, ἡ μήτηρ mother, ἡ θυγάτηρ daughter, ἡ γαστήρ belly show three different ablaut variations (→1.51–2) through their declension:
 - lengthened e-grade in the nom. sg.: e.g. πα<u>τή</u>ρ, μή<u>τηρ</u>;
 - e-grade in the acc. and voc. sg.; nom., gen. and acc. pl.: e.g. πα<u>τέρ</u>α, θυγα<u>τέρ</u>ων, γαστέρας;

- zero-grade in the gen. and dat. sg., and in the dat. pl., e.g. μη<u>τρ</u>ός, θυγα<u>τρ</u>ός; in the resulting combination of the dat. pl., *-τρ-σι, the ρ has expanded to ρᾶ (→1.87): e.g. πατράσι, γαστράσι.
- 4.64 ὁ ἀνήρ man is similarly declined using three ablaut variations: lengthened grade in the nom. sg. (ἀνήρ), e-grade in the voc. sg. (ἄνερ); however, the zero-grade appears in all the other cases, where the resulting combination νρ has changed to νδρ (→1.93): e.g. ἀνδρί, ἀνδρῶν. Note the dat. pl. ἀνδράσι.

Stems in σ (Neuter Nouns in -05, Names in - η 5)

4.65 Overview of forms:

	neuter nouns in -05			proper names in -ης				
		τὸ γένος <i>τ</i> stem γενο	_	Σωκράτης Sa stem Σωκρα		Περικλῆς <i>Pericles</i> stem Περικλε(_F)εσ-		
sg.	nom.	γένος		Σωκράτης		Περικλῆς	(<*-έ(ϝ)ης)	
	gen.	γένους	(<*-ε(σ)ος)	Σωκράτους	(<*-ε(σ)ος)	Περικλέους	(<*-έ(ϝ)ε(σ)ος)	
	dat.	γένει	(<*-ε(σ)ι)	Σωκράτει	$(<^*-\epsilon(\sigma)\iota)$	Περικλεῖ	$(<^*$ -έ (F) ε (σ) ι $)$	
	acc.	γένος		Σωκράτη	$(<^*-\epsilon(\sigma)\alpha)$	Περικλέᾶ	$(<^*-\dot{\epsilon}(\digamma)\epsilon(\sigma)\alpha)$	
				or Σωκράτηι	,			
	voc.	= nom.		Σώκρατες		Περίκλεις	$(<^*-\epsilon(\digamma)\epsilon\varsigma)$	
pl.	nom. / voc.	γένη	(<*-ε(σ)α)	_		_		
	gen.	γενῶν	(<*-ε(σ)ων)					
	dat.	γένεσι(ν)	(<*-εσσι(ν))					
	acc.	γένη	(<*-ε(σ)α)					

Note 1: For Ionic forms, \rightarrow 25.21.

- 4.66 Third-declension nouns with a stem ending in σ may be:
 - neuter: nouns ending in -05, with two ablaut variations in the stem, 0σ- (used in nom./acc. sg.) and εσ- (used in all other cases): e.g. τὸ γένος race (γενεσ-), τὸ ἔπος word (ἐπεσ-), τὸ ἔτος year (ἐτεσ-), τὸ κράτος might (κρατεσ-), τὸ τεῖχος wall (τειχεσ-);
 - masculine: a number of masculine proper names in -ης, with a stem in εσ:
 e.g. ὁ Διογένης Diogenes (Διογενεσ-), ὁ Σωκράτης Socrates (Σωκρατεσ-); also names in -κλῆς, with a stem originally ending in ε(ξ)εσ-: e.g. ὁ Περικλῆς Pericles (Περικλε(ξ)εσ-), ὁ Σοφοκλῆς Sophocles (Σοφοκλε(ξ)εσ-).

The masculine proper names are built on the same stems as some of the neuter nouns: Δ ιογένης (γένος), Σωκράτης (κράτος), Περικλῆς (κλέος *fame*, <*κλέρος).

- 4.67 Between vowels, the σ of the stem has disappeared (→1.83), and the remaining vowels have contracted (→1.58–66): e.g. gen. sg. Σωκράτ<u>ους</u> (= -τος) < -εος < *-εσος; nom./acc. pl. γένη < -εα < *-εσα.
 - In the dat. pl., the combination $-\epsilon \sigma \sigma_1$ has been simplified to $-\epsilon \sigma_1$: e.g. $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \underline{\sigma}_1$, $\dot{\epsilon} \tau \epsilon \underline{\sigma}_1 < -\epsilon \sigma_0$.
- 4.68 Proper names in -ης often get an **acc. in -ην** (modelled on the first declension): e.g. τὸν Σωκράτην, τὸν Διογένην.
- 4.69 In the declension of names ending in -κλῆς, both the σ and the $_{\rm F}$ have disappeared between vowels. After the disappearance of $_{\rm F}$ further contraction has occurred in the nom., dat. and voc. (Περικλῆς <*-κλέρης; Περικλεῖ <*-κλέρεσι; Περικλεῖς <*-κλέρεσος; Περικλέους <*-κλέρεσος; Περικλέοως <*-κλέρεσος; Μερικλέοως <*-κλέρεσος; With α after ε, \rightarrow 1.57).
- 4.70 There are a few **neuter nouns with a stem in ασ**-: e.g. τὸ γέρας gift of honour, τὸ γῆρας old age, τὸ κρέας flesh. These are declined as follows: nom./acc. sg. γέρας, gen. γέρως (<*- α (σ)ος), dat. γέρα (<*- α (σ)ι); nom./acc. pl. γέρᾶ (<*- α (σ)α), gen. γερᾶν (<*- α (σ)ων), dat. γέρασι (<*- α (σ) σι).
- 4.71 To the σ-stems also belong two feminine nouns ἡ τριήρης trireme and ἡ αἰδώς shame. They are declined as follows:
 - τριήρης (properly an adjective with an unexpressed form of ἡ ναῦς ship): gen. τριήρους, dat.
 τριήρει, acc. τριήρη; nom. pl. τριήρεις, gen. τριήρων, dat. τριήρεσι, acc. τριήρεις (for the declension, cf. ἀληθής, →5.28-9);
 - αἰδώς (sg. only): gen. αἰδοῦς (<*-ὁ(σ)ος), dat. αἰδοῖ (<*-ὁ(σ)ι), acc. αἰδῶ (<*-ὁ(σ)α).
- 4.72 **ὁ Ἄρης** Ares has gen. Ἄρεως or (poetic) Ἄρεος, dat. Ἄρει, acc. Ἄρη or (poetic) Ἄρεα, voc. Ἄρες.
- 4.73 Proper names ending in -ης may also be of the first declension (→4.8–13): e.g. ὁ Εὐριπίδης,
 gen. Εὐριπίδου. But all names in -γένης, -κράτης, -μένης and -σθένης are third-declension.

Stems in 1/ε(y) (Type πόλις)

4.74 Overview of forms:

		stems in ι/ε(y) ἡ πόλις city			
		stem πολι-/-	πολε(y)-		
sg.	nom.	πόλῖς			
	gen.	πόλεως			
	dat.	πόλει	(<*-ε(y)ι)		
	acc.	πόλῖν			
	voc.	πόλἵ			
pl.	nom. / voc.	πόλεις	(<*-ε(y)ες)		
	gen.	πόλεων	(<*-ε(y)ων)		
	dat.	πόλεσῖ(ν)			
	acc.	πόλεις			

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.22$ (the Ionic paradigm differs strongly from the Attic one).

4.75 Third-declension nouns with a stem ending in ĭ are nearly all feminine: e.g. ἡ πόλις city, ἡ δύναμις power, ἡ ὕβρις brutality. Many such nouns end in -σις (→23.27): e.g. ἡ ποίησις poetry, ἡ λύσις release, ἡ πρᾶξις act. A few nouns are masculine: e.g. ὁ μάντις seer, ὁ ὄφις serpent.

These nouns show two ablaut variations in the stem:

- (zero-grade) in ι: in nom., acc. and voc. sg.: e.g. πόλι-ς, πόλι-ν, πόλι;
- (e-grade) in εy, the y of which disappeared (→1.76): in dat. sg. πόλει (<*πόλε(y)-ι), nom. pl. πόλεις (= πόλες <*πόλε(y)-ες, with contraction).
- 4.76 The dat. pl. was probably modelled on the nom. pl., using a stem πολε-: dat. πόλε-σι. The acc. pl. also derives from the nom. pl., either directly or building on the stem πολε-: acc. πόλεις = πόλ $\bar{\epsilon}$ ς <*πόλε-νς (\rightarrow 1.68).

The gen. sg. and pl. in $-\epsilon\omega_S/-\epsilon\omega_V$ is built on a stem πολη- (attested in Homer): πόλεως < πόληος; πόλεων <*πολήων (quantitative metathesis, \rightarrow 1.71; for the accentuation of πόλεως/ πόλεων, \rightarrow 24.10 n.2).

- 4.77 The 1-stem noun οἶς *sheep* has a declension without ablaut: nom. sg. οἶς (<*ὄ(ϝ)1-ς) gen. οἰός, dat. οἶτ, acc. οἶν; nom. pl. οἶες, gen. οἰῶν, dat. οἶσι, acc. οἷς (<*ὄ(ϝ)1-νς).
- 4.78 A few compound proper names in -πόλις are declined as dental-stem nouns (→4.40-4; i.e., not according to the declension of πόλις): so e.g. ὁ Δικαιόπολις *Dicaeopolis*, gen. Δικαιοπόλιδος, dat. Δικαιοπόλιδι, acc. Δικαιόπολιν, voc. Δικαιόπολι.

Stems in υ (Type ἰσχύς) or in υ/ε(ε) (Type πῆχυς)

4.79 Overview of forms:

			stems in v
		(without ablaut)	(with ablaut)
		ἡ ἰσχύς strength stem ἰσχυ-	ό πῆχυς forearm stem πηχυ-/πηχε(ϝ)-
sg.	nom.	ἰσχύς	πῆχὔς
	gen.	ἰσχύος	πήχεως
	dat.	ἰσχύϊ	πήχει (<- $ε(ξ)ι$)
	acc.	ἰσχύν	πῆχὔν
	voc.	ἰσχύ	πῆχυ
pl.	nom. / voc.	ἰσχύες <i>or</i> ἰσχῦς	πήχεις (<-ε(ϝ)ες)
	gen.	ἰσχύων	πήχεων (<-έ(ϝ)ων)
	dat.	ἰσχύσι(ν)	πήχεσι(ν)
	acc.	ἰσχῦς <i>or</i> ἰσχύας	πήχεις

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.23$.

- 4.80 Third-declension nouns with a stem ending in u are of two types:
 - without ablaut: feminine and a few masculine nouns in -υς, with a gen. in -υος:
 e.g. ἡ ἰσχύς strength, ἡ χέλυς tortoise, ἡ Ἐρινύς Fury; ὁ ἰχθῦς fish, ὁ νέκυς corpse.
 - (infrequently) with ablaut in the stem (ῦ/εϝ, →1.74): these nouns have a gen. sg.
 in -εως and are masculine: e.g. ὁ πῆχυς forearm, ὁ πέλεκυς axe, ὁ πρέσβυς elder.
- 4.81 In the type without ablaut, the regular third-declension endings are added to the stem in υ ; note acc. sg. $i\sigma\chi\dot{\upsilon}-\nu$ and acc. pl. $i\sigma\chi\ddot{\upsilon}\varsigma$ (<* $i\sigma\chi\dot{\upsilon}-\nu\varsigma$, \rightarrow 1.68; $i\sigma\chi\dot{\upsilon}\alpha\varsigma$ occurs sometimes). The nom. pl. is usually $i\sigma\chi\dot{\upsilon}\epsilon\varsigma$, but the (contracted) form $i\sigma\chi\ddot{\upsilon}\varsigma$ occurs as well.

Note 1: The quantity of υ in this type varies. For instance, of ἰσχύς, metrical texts attest both nom. sg. ἰσχύς/acc. sg. ἰσχύν and ἰσχύς/ἰσχύν. However, the gen. and dat. regularly have -ὕος, -ὕι, -ὕων, -ὕσι(ν).

4.82 The type with ablaut corresponds in most of its declension with type πόλις ($\rightarrow 4.74-6$), since F has disappeared in the same place as Y there. The irregular forms in the gen. sg., dat. pl. and acc. pl. were, in fact, probably modelled on the πόλις-type (the acc. pl. πήχεις may also have been modelled on the nom. pl.).

Note 1: The accentuation of these nouns is also analogous to that of the $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota_{S}$ -type ($\rightarrow 24.10 \text{ n.2}$).

4.83 There is one neuter noun of the type with ablaut, τὸ ἄστυ town: the rest of the declension is gen. sg. ἄστεως, dat. ἄστει, nom./acc. pl. ἄστη (<*-ερα), gen. ἄστεων, dat. ἄστεσι(ν). For the accentuation, →24.10 n.2.

Stems in ηυ/η(_F) (Type βασιλεύς)

4.84 Overview of forms:

		nouns ending ir	1 - ε ύς
		ό βασιλεύς <i>king</i>	
		stem βασιλη(ϝ)-	
sg.	nom.	βασιλεύς	(<-ηυς)
	gen.	βασιλέως	(<-η(_F)ος)
	dat.	βασιλεῖ	(<-ŋ(p)ı)
	acc.	βασιλέᾶ	(<-η(_F)α)
	voc.	βασιλεῦ	(<-ηυ)
pl.	nom. / voc.	βασιλῆς	(<-η(ϝ)ες)
		or βασιλεῖς	
	gen.	βασιλέων	(<-η(ϝ)ων)
	dat.	βασιλεῦσι(ν)	(<-ηυσι)
	acc.	βασιλέᾶς	(<-η(ϝ)ἄς)
		later βασιλεῖς	

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.24$.

- 4.85 Third-declension nouns ending in -εύς are all masculine; they are proper names or indications of profession or geographical origin: e.g. ὁ βασιλεύς king, ὁ ἱππεύς horseman, ὁ χαλκεύς metal-worker, ὁ Πρωτεύς Proteus, ὁ Αχαρνεύς Acharnian (from the deme Acharnae). The forms of these nouns derive from a stem in ηυ/ η_f (→1.74, 1.79–80):
 - before a consonant (and in the voc. sg.): diphthong ηυ, which was shortened to ϵu ($\rightarrow 1.70$): so nom. sg. βασιλεύ-5, dat. pl. βασιλεῦ-σι.
 - before a vowel: ηϝ, from which ϝ disappeared, followed in many cases by quantitative metathesis (\rightarrow 1.71): gen. sg. βασιλέως <*-ηϝος; acc. sg. βασιλέα <*-ηϝα; gen. pl. βασιλέων < *-ηϝων; acc. pl. βασιλέας <*-ηϝας. In two cases contraction has taken place: dat. sg. βασιλεῖ <*-ῆϝι (with ει shortened from η); nom. pl. βασιλῆς <*-ῆϝες.

Note 1: A later nom. pl. form $\beta \alpha \sigma_1 \lambda \epsilon_5$, modelled on the ϵ -forms of the sg. $(-\epsilon_5 <^* - \epsilon - \epsilon_5)$ gradually replaced the form in $-\eta_5$ from the fourth century onwards. Later an acc. pl. in $-\epsilon_5$ was modelled on the new nominative (cf. $\pi \delta \lambda_1 \epsilon_5 \rightarrow 4.76$).

Ζεύς, ναῦς, βοῦς

4.86 Overview of forms:

	Ζεύς		ναῦς		βοῦς		
	ό Ζεύς Zeus		ή ναῦς shi	ip .	δ/ἡ βοῦς <i>οχ/cow</i>		
	stem A	λγευ-/Δι(ϝ)-	stem νᾶυ-	-/νā(ϝ)-	stem β	ου-/βο(ϝ)-	
nom.	Ζεύς	(<*Δyεύς <*Δyηύς)	ναῦς	(<*νᾶῦς)	βοῦς		
gen.	Διός	(<*Διϝός)	νεώς	(<*νηρός <*ναρός)	βοός	(<*βορός)	
dat.	Διΐ	(<*Δι _Γ ί)	νηΐ	(<*vηρί <*vāρί)	βοΐ	(<*βο _Γ ί)	
acc.	Δία also Zi	(<*Δί _F α) 	ναῦν	(<*νᾶῦν)	βοῦν		
voc.	Ζεῦ	(<*Δyεῦ)	ναῦ		βοῦ		
nom.	_		νῆες	(<*νῆρες <*νᾶρες)	βόες	(<*βόρες)	
gen.			νεῶν	(<*νηςῶν <*νᾶςῶν)	βοῶν	(<*βοςῶν)	
dat.			ναυσί(ν)	(<*νᾶυσί(ν))	βουσί(ν)	
acc.			ναῦς		βοῦς		
E	gen. dat. ccc. occ. nom. gen. dat.	gen. Διός lat. Διΐ ncc. Δία also Ζί nom. — gen. dat.	gen. Διός (<*Διϝός) dat. Διΐ (<*Διϝί) acc. Δία (<*Δίϝα) also Ζῆνα σοc. Ζεῦ (<*Δγεῦ) nom. — gen. dat.	gen. Διός (<*Δι _Γ ός) νεώς lat. Διΐ (<*Δι _Γ ί) νηΐ lcc. Δία (<*Δι _Γ α) ναῦν also Ζῆνα roc. Ζεῦ (<*Δγεῦ) ναῦ nom. — νῆες gen. νεῶν lat. ναυσί(ν)	gen. Διός (<*Διϝός) νεώς (<*νηϝός <*νᾶρός) dat. Διΐ (<*Διϝί) νηῗ (<*νηεί <*νᾶρί) acc. Δία (<*Δίϝα) ναῦν (<*νᾶῦν) also Ζῆνα σοc. Ζεῦ (<*Δγεῦ) ναῦ ναῦν (<*νῆρες <*νᾶρες) gen. νεῶν (<*νηρων <*νᾶρων) dat. ναυσί(ν) (<*νᾶοσί(ν))	gen. Διός (<*Διϝός) νεώς (<*νηϝός <*νᾶϝός) βοός dat. Διΐ (<*Διϝί) νηΐ (<*νηεί <*νᾶρί) βοΐ acc. Δία (<*Δίξα) ναῦν (<*νᾶῦν) βοῦν also Ζῆνα σος. Ζεῦ (<*Δγεῦ) ναῦ βοῦ hom. — νῆες (<*νῆϝες <*νᾶϝες) βόες gen. νεῶν (<*νῆσῶν <*νᾶρῶν) βοῶν λαυσί(ν) (<*νᾶοσί(ν)) βουσί(

Note 1: For the Ionic declension of $v\alpha\tilde{v}_{\varsigma}$, $\rightarrow 25.25$.

- 4.87 The nouns ὁ Zεύς Zeus, ἡ ναῦς ship and ὁ/ἡ βοῦς ox/cow, like nouns in -εύς (→4.84-5), had a stem ending in υ/F that formed a diphthong with the preceding vowel before a consonant (and in the voc.), but disappeared between vowels (→1.74, 1.79-80).
 - ὁ Zεύς in addition shows three ablaut variations in the stem: lengthened grade $^*\Delta y_{\Pi} u$ (in the nom.; $_{\Pi} u$ shortened to $_{E} u$, $_{\Pi} 1.70$), normal e-grade $^*\Delta y_{E} u$ -, and zero-grade $^*\Delta u$ ($_{F}$)-. Apart from the different results of $_{U}/_{F}$, the declension was complicated by the change $_{S} v$ > $_{C} (_{\Pi} 1.77)$.
 - In the declension of ἡ ναῦς, the long ā of the stem (νᾶυ-/νᾶϝ-) became short in those cases where it formed diphthong αυ (before a consonant), but remained long in those where ϝ disappeared (between vowels). Long ā changed to η (→1.57), resulting in quantitative metathesis (→1.71) in the gen. sg. and gen. pl. (e.g. νεώς < νηός <*νᾶϝός).</p>
- 4.88 The declension of ἡ γραῦς old lady is in origin identical to that of ναῦς, but Attic forms differ in various cases because of ρ preceding α (→1.57): nom sg. γραῦς, gen. γραός, dat. γραῖ, acc. γραῦν, voc. γραῦς nom. pl. γρᾶες, gen. γρᾶῶν, dat. γραυσί, acc. γραῦς.

Further Notes and Exceptions

4.89 There are a few feminine nouns, usually of women's names, with a stem in ωy/οy: e.g. ἡ Σαπφώ Sappho, ἡ πειθώ persuasion. For their declension, see below, and compare the declension of αἰδώς (→4.71).

Very few nouns, all masculine, have a stem in ω_F , e.g. ὁ ἥρ ω_S hero, ὁ μητρ ω_S maternal uncle, ὁ δμ ω_S slave. The complete declension is given below. An occasionally occurring gen. sg. in - ω (e.g. $\eta_P\omega$) is modelled on the Attic second declension (\rightarrow 4.27):

		stems in ω(y)/o(y)	stems in ω(_F)		
		ή Σαπφώ Sa	ppho	ბ ἥρως <i>hero</i>		
		stem Σαπφο	(y)-	stem ἡρω(_F)-		
sg.	nom.	Σαπφώ	(<*Σαπφώ(y))	ἥρως	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)ς)	
	gen.	Σαπφοῦς	(<*-ó(y)os)	ἥρωος <i>οτ</i> ἥρω	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)ος)	
	dat.	Σαπφοῖ	(<*-ό(y)ι)	ἥρωϊ <i>or</i> ἥρῳ	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)ι)	
	acc.	Σαπφώ	(<*-ό(y)α)	ἥρωα <i>οτ</i> ἥρω	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)α)	
	voc.	Σαπφοῖ		= nom.		
pl.	nom. / voc.	_		ἥρωες or ἥρως	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)ες)	
	gen.	_		ήρώων	(<*ἡρώ(ϝ)ων)	
	dat.	_		ἥρωσι(ν)	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)σι)	
	acc.	_		ἥρωας <i>or</i> ἥρως	(<*ἥρω(ϝ)ας)	

- 4.90 Several third-declension nouns have forms built on different stems (heteroclitic nouns):
 - τὸ κέρας horn has dental-stem and σ-stem forms (→4.40-4 and cf. σ-stem γέρας, →4.70):
 thus gen. sg. κέρατος οr κέρως, dat. sg. κέρατι or κέρα, etc.
 - So too ὁ χρώς skin (sg. only, cf. σ-stem αἰδώς, →4.71) gen. χρωτός or χροός (uncontracted), χρωτί or χροί, acc. χρῶτα or χρόα. The dat. sg. χρῷ also occurs. The σ-stem forms are poetic.
 - τὸ γόνυ knee and τὸ δόρυ spear have nom./acc. sg. of the υ-type (cf. ἄστυ, →4.83), but other forms built on a stem in ατ- (→4.40-4; e.g. gen. sg. δόρατος, dat. pl. γόνασι).
 - τὸ ὕδωρ water similarly has a stem in ατ (ὑδατ-): e.g. gen. sg. ὕδατος, dat. ὕδατι.
 - So too τὸ ἦπαρ liver, gen. ἤπατος, dat. ἤπατι; and ἦμαρ day, gen. ἤματος (poetic).
 - τὸ κάρα head (poetic) has gen. sg. κρατός, dat. κρατί (but also κάρα), gen. pl. κράτων.
 The nom./acc. sg. τὸ κρᾶτα also occurs.
 - For ἡ γυνή, →4.38.
- 4.91 Other heteroclitic nouns have both second-declension and third-declension forms:
 - ὁ ὄνειρος dream (in poetry also τὸ ὄνειρον) has alternative dental-stem type forms: so e.g. gen.
 sg. ὀνείρου οτ ὀνείρατος, etc. The nom./acc. sg. τὸ ὄναρ also occurs.
 - ὁ γέλως laughter, gen. γέλωτος is normally declined as a dental stem; in poetry,
 'Attic' second-declension acc. sg. γέλων also occurs.

- ὁ ἔρως love, gen. ἔρωτος is normally declined as a dental stem; in poetry, second-declension ἔρος, dat. ἔρω, acc. ἔρον also occur.
- ὁ σκότος shade, second-declension, also occurs as a neuter third-declension σ-stem noun:
 nom./acc. sg. τὸ σκότος, gen. σκότους, dat. σκότει, etc.
- τὸ δένδρον tree similarly has dat. sg. δένδρει, nom./acc. pl. δένδρη, dat. pl. δένδρεσι next to δένδρω, δένδρω, δένδρως.
- ὁ υίός son has, next to its regular second-declension forms, alternative υ-stem type forms: gen. sg. υίέος, dat. υίεῖ; nom. pl. υίεῖς, gen. υίέων, dat. υίέσι, acc. υίεῖς (for these forms, cf. the declension of ἡδύς, →5.21)
- Similarly, τὸ δάκρυον tear has dat. pl. δάκρυσι next to δακρύοις. Nom./acc. sg. δάκρυ is found in poetry, next to δάκρυον.
- 4.92 The form τᾶν (indeclinable) occurs only as a form of address: ὧ τᾶν dear man, good sir.

Conspectus of Noun Types

4.93 Listed below, alphabetically, are the endings of nom. sg. and gen. sg. of most types of noun (excluding individual exceptions), followed by an indication of the declension (with subtype), gender, and a reference to the sections above where that type is treated:

nom. sg.	gen. sg.	de	clension	gender	section(s)
-ἄ	-āς	1	(after ε, ι, ρ)	fem.	→4.3-7
-ἄ	-ης	1		fem.	→4.3-7
-ā	-āς	1	(after ϵ , ι , ρ)	fem.	→ 4.3–7
-āς	-ou	1	(after ϵ , ι , ρ)	masc.	→4.8–13
-āς	-ἄντος	3	ν т-stem	masc.	→4.45-8
-ἄς	-ἄτος	3	dental-stem	neut.	→4.40-2
-ἄς	-ως	3	σ-stem	neut.	→ 4.70
-εύς	-έως	3	ευ-stem	masc.	→4.84-5
-η	-ης	1		fem.	→ 4.3 - 7
-ην	-ηνος	3	v-stem	masc.	→4.49-52
-ην	-ενος	3	v-stem	masc. or fem.	→ 4.49 - 52
-ηρ	-ηρος	3	liquid-stem	masc.	→4.55-8
-ηρ	-ερος	3	liquid-stem	mostly masc.	→4.55-8
-(τ)ηρ	-(τ)ρος	3	ρ-stem with ablaut	masc. or fem.	→4.62-4

nom. sg.	gen. sg.	de	clension	gender	section(s)
-ῆς	-έους	3	σ-stem	masc. proper names	→4.65-9
-ης	-ητος	3	dental-stem	fem. or masc.	→4.40-2
-ης	-ου	1		masc.	→ 4.8 – 13
-ης	-ους	3	σ-stem	masc. proper names	→4.65-8
-ĭς	-εως	3	ı/ε(y)-stem	mostly fem.	→4.74-7
-ĭς	-ἴδος/-ἴθος/-ἴτος	3	dental-stem	mostly fem.	→4.40-4
-īς	-ῖνος	3	v-stem	mostly fem.	→4.49-52
-μα	-ματος	3	dental-stem	neut.	→4.40-2
-ξ	-γος/-κος/-χος	3	velar-stem	masc. or fem.	→4.35-7
-ος	-ou	2		mostly masc.	→4.19-22
-ος	-ους	3	σ-stem	neut.	→ 4.65 - 7
-ον	-ov	2		neut.	→4.24-6
-ουν	-ou	2	(with contraction)	neut.	→4.24-6
-ους	-οντος	3	ντ-stem	masc.	→4.45-8
-ους	-ov	2	(with contraction)	masc.	→ 4.19 – 22
- U	-εως	3	υ/ε(ϝ)-stem	neut.	→4.83
-υς	-υος	3	υ-stem	mostly masc.	→ 4.79–81
-υς	-εως	3	υ/ε(ϝ)-stem	masc.	→4.79-82
-ψ	-βος/-πος/-φος	3	labial-stem	masc. or fem.	→4.35-7
-ω	-ους	3	oy-stem	fem.	→4.89
-ων	-ονος	3	v-stem	masc. or fem.	→4.49-52
-ων	-οντος	3	ντ-stem	masc.	→4.45-8
-ων	-ωνος	3	v-stem	mostly masc.	→4.49-53
-(τ)ωρ	-(τ)ορος	3	liquid-stem	masc.	→4.55-8
-ως	-ω	2	'Attic'	mostly masc.	→4.27
-ως	-ωος (or -ω)	3	۶-stem	masc.	→4.89

Adjectives and Participles

First-and-Second-Declension Adjectives and Participles

Of Three Endings $(-05, -\eta/-\bar{\alpha}, -0\nu)$

Adjectives

5.1 Overview of forms:

		-ος, -η, -ον			-ος, -ᾱ, -ον (after ε, 1, ρ)			
			δεινός impre	ssive	δίκαιος just			
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	δεινός	δεινή	δεινόν	δίκαιος	δικαίᾶ	δίκαιον	
	gen.	δεινοῦ	δεινῆς	δεινοῦ	δικαίου	δικαίᾶς	δικαίου	
	dat.	δεινῷ	δεινῆ	δεινῷ	δικαίω	δικαία	δικαίω	
	acc.	δεινόν	δεινήν	δεινόν	δίκαιον	δικαίᾶν	δίκαιον	
	voc.	δεινέ	= nom.	= nom.	δίκαιε	= nom.	= nom.	
pl.	nom./voc.	δεινοί	δειναί	δεινά	δίκαιοι	δίκαιαι	δίκαιἄ	
	gen.	δεινῶν	δεινῶν	δεινῶν	δικαίων	δικαίων	δικαίων	
	dat.	δεινοῖς	δειναῖς	δεινοῖς	δικαίοις	δικαίαις	δικαίοις	
	acc.	δεινούς	δεινάς	δεινά	δικαίους	δικαίᾶς	δίκαιἄ	

- 5.2 The most common type of adjective has second-declension forms in the masculine and neuter, and first-declension forms in the feminine. E.g. δεινός, -ή, -όν impressive, καλός, -ή, -όν beautiful, ὀλίγος, -η, -ον little, few, λεπτός, -ή, -όν fine, φίλος, -η, -ον dear, δίκαιος, -α, -ον just, αἰσχρός, -α, -όν shameful, νέος, -α, -ον young, new. These adjectives are declined:
 - like δοῦλος (→4.19, second declension) in the **masculine**;
 - like φ υγή in the **feminine**, or if ϵ , ι , or ρ precedes the endings like χώρ $\bar{\alpha}$ (\rightarrow 4.3, first declension); the endings of the fem. sg. have a long vowel throughout;
 - like δῶρον (→4.24, second declension) in the **neuter**.

Note 1: But the accentuation does not necessarily correspond to such nouns, depending, rather, on the 'base accent' of the adjective's nom. sg. masc. (\rightarrow 24.14); for the accentuation of the gen. pl. fem., \rightarrow 24.22 n.1.

Participles

5.3 Overview of forms:

		-μενος, -μένη, -μενον						
		pre	es. mp. ppl. παιδεύω <i>ea</i>	ducate				
		masc.	fem.	neut.				
sg.	nom.	παιδευόμενος	παιδευομένη	παιδευόμενον				
	gen.	παιδευομένου	παιδευομένης	παιδευομένου				
	dat.	παιδευομένω	παιδευομένη	παιδευομένω				
	acc.	παιδευόμενον	παιδευομένην	παιδευόμενον				
	voc.	παιδευόμενε	= nom.	= nom.				
pl.	nom./voc.	παιδευόμενοι	παιδευόμεναι	παιδευόμενα				
	gen.	παιδευομένων	παιδευομένων	παιδευομένων				
	dat.	παιδευομένοις	παιδευομέναις	παιδευομένοις				
	acc.	παιδευομένους	παιδευομένας	παιδευόμενα				

Like δεινός, -ή, -όν are declined all middle-passive participles ending in -μενος,
 -μένη, -μενον:

pres. mp. ppl.
 e.g. παιδευόμενος, ποιούμενος, τιμώμενος, δηλούμενος, δεικνύμενος
 aor. mid. ppl.
 e.g. παιδευσάμενος, λαβόμενος, δόμενος
 fut. mid. ppl.
 e.g. παιδευσόμενος, νεμούμενος
 fut. pass. (θη-/η-) ppl.
 e.g. παιδευθησόμενος, βουλησόμενος
 pf. mp. ppl.
 e.g. πεπαιδευμένος, τετριμμένος (note the different accentuation, →24.20)

Of Three Endings, with Contraction (-οῦς, -ῆ/-ᾶ, -οῦν)

5.5 Overview of forms:

		-οῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν χρυσοῦς gold(en)			-οῦς, -ᾶ, -οῦν (after ε, 1, ρ) ἀργυροῦς silver		
	·						
	·	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom./voc.	χρυσοῦς	χρυσῆ	χρυσοῦν	ἀργυροῦς	ἀργυρᾶ	ἀργυροῦν
	gen.	χρυσοῦ	χρυσῆς	χρυσοῦ	ἀργυροῦ	ἀργυρᾶς	ἀργυροῦ
	dat.	χρυσῷ	χρυσῆ	χρυσῷ	ἀργυρῷ	ἀργυρᾶ	ἀργυρῷ
	acc.	χρυσοῦν	χρυσῆν	χρυσοῦν	ἀργυροῦν	ἀργυρᾶν	ἀργυροῦν
pl.	nom./voc.	χρυσοῖ	χρυσαῖ	χρυσᾶ	ἀργυροῖ	ἀργυραῖ	ἀργυρᾶ
	gen.	χρυσῶν	χρυσῶν	χρυσῶν	ἀργυρῶν	ἀργυρῶν	ἀργυρῶν
	dat.	χρυσοῖς	χρυσαῖς	χρυσοῖς	ἀργυροῖς	ἀργυραῖς	ἀργυροῖς
	acc.	χρυσοῦς	χρυσᾶς	χρυσᾶ	ἀργυροῦς	ἀργυρᾶς	ἀργυρᾶ

Note 1: For Ionic forms, \rightarrow 25.27.

In some first-and-second-declension adjectives, the endings are contracted with a preceding ε or o in the stem. These are adjectives expressing material, e.g. χρυσοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν gold(en) (-ἑος, -ἑα, -έον), ἀργυροῦς, -α, -οῦν silver, πορφυροῦς, -α, -οῦν purple; and those expressing multiplication ending in -πλοῦς, e.g. ἀπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν single (-ὁος, -ἑα, -όον); διπλοῦς, -ῆ, -οῦν double.

These adjectives are declined:

- like $vo\tilde{v}_{\varsigma}$ (\rightarrow 4.21) in the **masculine**;
- like ϕ υγή in the **feminine**, or if ε, ι, or ρ precedes the endings like χώρα (→4.3, first declension). The endings of the fem. sg. have a long vowel throughout;
- like ὀστοῦν (→4.24) in the **neuter**.

Note 1: Even if the stem has 0, the feminine endings are as if contracted with ϵ : thus $\dot{\alpha}\pi\lambda\tilde{o}\tilde{\iota}\varsigma$ (- $\dot{\delta}o\varsigma$), but $\dot{\alpha}\pi\lambda\tilde{\eta}$ (- $\dot{\epsilon}\bar{\alpha}$).

Note 2: The ending of the nom./acc. pl. neut. in $-\bar{\alpha}$ (χρυσᾶ, ἀργυρᾶ) is due to analogy with e.g. δεινά (\rightarrow 1.49; regular contraction of $-\epsilon\bar{\alpha}$ would have resulted in $-\eta$, cf. γένη < γένεᾶ, \rightarrow 1.59). The same holds for the endings of the feminine (e.g. nom. pl. χρυσαῖ rather than expected †χρυσῆ < $-\epsilon\bar{\alpha}$ 1).

Of Two Endings (-os, -ov or -ous, -ouv)

5.7 Overview of forms:

		-05,	-ov	-ous,	-ουν	
		ἄδικος	unjust	εὔνους well-disposed		
		masc. and fem.	neut.	masc. and fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	ἄδικος ἄδικον		εὔνους	εὔνουν	
	gen.	ἀδίκου	ἀδίκου	ะข้งอบ	εὔνου	
	dat.	ἀδίκῳ	ἀδίκῳ	εὔνῳ	εὔνῳ	
	acc.	ἀδίκῳ	ἄδικον	ะบ้ ขอบข	εὔνουν	
	voc.	ἄδικε	= nom.	= nom.	= nom.	
pl.	nom/voc.	ἄδικοι	ἄδικα	εὖνοι	εὔνοα	
	gen.	ἀδίκων	ἀδίκων	εὔνων	εὔνων	
	dat. ἀδίκοις		ἀδίκοις	εὔνοις	εὔνοις	
	acc.	ἀδίκους	ἄδικα	εὔνους	εὔνοα	

5.8 Some adjectives have **no distinct forms for the feminine**. With such adjectives, second-declension forms are used for all three genders, and the feminine forms are identical to the masculine ones ('of two endings' thus means one set of forms for the masculine *and* feminine, and one set for the neuter). Compare e.g.:

```
    ὁ ἄδικος ἀνήρ the unjust man
    ἡ ἄδικος δίκη the unjust trial
    τὸ ἄδικον ἔργον the unjust deed
```

- 5.9 Adjectives of two endings are declined:
 - like δοῦλος (→4.19, second declension) in the **masculine** and feminine;
 - like δῶρον (\rightarrow 4.24, second declension) in the **neuter**.

A few adjectives of two endings show contraction (e.g. εὔνους, -ουν, well-disposed; ἄπλους, -ουν unseaworthy); such adjectives are declined:

- like $vo\tilde{v}_{\varsigma}$ ($\rightarrow 4.19$) in the masculine and feminine;
- like ὀστοῦν (→4.24) in the **neuter**; but note that the endings of the nom. and acc. pl. are not contracted (-oα).
- 5.10 Adjectives of two endings fall into two groups.
 - **compound adjectives**, formed from two or more distinct components $(\rightarrow 23.37-40)$, regularly have two endings:

ἔν-δοξος, -ον famous
περί-οικος, -ον dwelling round
εὔ-φημος, -ον reverentially silent, well-spoken
θεήλατος, -ον god-driven (θεός, ἐλαύνω)

Note adjectives with so called 'privative' &-:

ἄ-δικος, -ον unjust
 ἄ-λογος, -ον without reason
 ἄ-φιλος, -ον friendless
 ἀ-κίνητος, -ον motionless

- a few non-compound adjectives, e.g.:

 βάρβαρος, -ον
 non-Greek

 βέβαιος, -ον
 safe, secure, clear

 ἔρημος, -ον
 abandoned, uninhabited

 ἥσυχος, -ον
 calm

 φρόνιμος, -ον
 thoughtful, careful

 χρήσιμος, -ον
 useful

Note 1: Comparatives and superlatives ($\rightarrow 5.36-8$) of these adjectives are of three endings: e.g. with ἄδικος, comparative ἀδικώτερος, $-\bar{\alpha}$, -ον, with βέβαιος, superlative βεβαιότατος, $-\eta$, -ον.

- Adjectives which regularly have three endings sometimes appear as adjectives of two endings, and vice versa, in specific authors, texts or in individual places. This occurs frequently in poetry. Thus e.g. with the adjective βέβαιος (usually -ος, -ον):
 - σοὶ δ' ὁμιλία πρὸς τόνδε ... βέβαιος. (Soph. Phil. 70-1)
 Your relationship with him is safe. Of two endings, as usual.
 - (2) ἀρετῆς βέβαιαι ... αἱ κτήσεις μόνης. (Soph. fr. 194 Radt)
 Only of valour are the gains safe. Of three endings.

Further Particulars

A few (first-and-)second-declension adjectives are declined in the masculine and neuter following the 'Attic' second declension (\rightarrow 4.27). Of these, only $\pi\lambda\epsilon\omega\varsigma$, $-\epsilon\bar{\alpha}$, $-\epsilon\bar{\omega}\nu$ full has three endings; others, such as $\hbar\epsilon\omega\varsigma$, $-\epsilon\omega\nu$ favourable, and compound adjectives such as $\hbar\kappa\pi\lambda\epsilon\omega\varsigma$, $-\epsilon\omega\nu$ completely full, all have two endings. The full declension of these adjectives is as follows:

			-εως, -ε α , -	-εως, -εων			
			πλέως fu	11	ῗλεως favourable		
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc. and fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom./voc.	πλέως	πλέα	πλέων	ΐλεως	ΐλεων	
	gen.	πλέω	πλέᾶς	πλέω	ΐλεω	ΐλεω	
	dat.	πλέω	πλέα	πλέω	ἵλεω	ἵλεῳ	
	acc.	πλέων	πλέαν	πλέων	ΐλεων	ΐλεων	
pl.	nom./voc.	πλέω	πλέαι	πλέᾶ	ΐλεω	ἵλε̄α	
	gen.	πλέων	πλέων	πλέων	ΐλεων	ΐλεων	
	dat.	πλέως	πλέαις	πλέως	ΐλεως	ΐλεως	
	acc.	πλέως	πλέᾶς	πλέᾶ	ΐλεως	ΐλε̄α	

Note 1: For Ionic forms of $\pi \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \omega \varsigma$, $\rightarrow 25.27$.

Mixed-Declension Adjectives

5.13 Overview of forms:

		πολ	πολύς, πολλή, πολύ			μέγας, μεγάλη, μέγα			
	,	πο	ολύς great, n	nany	μέγας large, great				
	,	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.		
sg.	nom.	πολύς	πολλή	πολύ	μέγας	μεγάλη	μέγα		
	gen.	πολλοῦ	πολλῆς	πολλοῦ	μεγάλου	μεγάλης	μεγάλου		
	dat.	πολλῷ	πολλῆ	πολλῷ	μεγάλῳ	μεγάλη	μεγάλώ		
	acc.	πολύν	πολλήν	πολΰ	μέγαν	μεγάλην	μέγα		
	voc.	= nom.	= nom.	= nom.	μεγάλε	= nom.	= nom.		
pl.	nom./voc.	πολλοί	πολλαί	πολλά	μεγάλοι	μεγάλαι	μεγάλἄ		
	gen.	πολλῶν	πολλῶν	πολλῶν	μεγάλων	μεγάλων	μεγάλων		
	dat.	πολλοῖς	πολλαῖς	πολλοῖς	μεγάλοις	μεγάλαις	μεγάλοις		
	acc.	πολλούς	πολλάς	πολλά	μεγάλους	μεγάλᾶς	μεγάλἄ		

Note 1: For Ionic forms (regular πολλός, πολλή, πολλόν), \rightarrow 25.27.

- 5.14 The adjectives πολύς great, many and μέγας great, large have a mixed declension, and are built on two different stems:
 - The **nom. and acc. sg. in the masc. and neut**. are third-declension forms built on the stems π ολῦ- and μ εγᾶ-; the nom. sg. masc. ends in -5, the acc. sg. masc. in - ν ; the nom./acc. sg. neut. has no ending. So:

nom. sg. masc. πολύ-ς, μέγα-ς acc. sg. masc. πολύ-ν, μέγα-ν nom./acc. sg. neut. πολύ, μέγα

All other forms are built on the stems πολλ- and μεγάλ-, and are of the first-and -second declension type, declined like δεινός (→5.1). So e.g.:

nom. pl. masc. πολλ-οί, μεγάλ-οι gen. sg. fem. πολλ-ῆς, μεγάλ-ης

First-and-Third-Declension Adjectives and Participles

Of Three Endings, Stems in ντ (-ων, -ουσα, -ον and πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν) Adjectives

5.15 Overview of forms:

		-	-ων, -ουσα, -ον			τᾶς, πᾶσα,	πᾶν	
			έκών willin	g	πᾶς every, whole, all			
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom./voc.	έκών	έκοῦσὰ	ἑκόν	πᾶς	πᾶσᾶ	πᾶν	
	gen.	ἑκόντος	έκούσης	ἑκόντος	πἄντός	πἁσης	παντός	
	dat.	έκόντῖ	έκούση	έκόντῖ	πἄντἴ	πάση	πἄντΐ	
	acc.	έκόντα	έκοῦσὰν	έκόν	πάντα	πᾶσἄν	πᾶν	
pl.	nom./voc.	έκόντες	έκοῦσαι	έκόντα	πάντες	πᾶσαι	πάντα	
	gen.	ἑκόντων	έκουσῶν	ἑκόντων	πάντων	πᾶσῶν	πάντων	
	dat.	έκοῦσῖ(ν)	έκούσαις	ἑκοῦσῖ(ν)	πᾶσι(ν)	πἁσαις	πᾶσι(ν)	
	acc.	έκόντας	έκούσᾶς	έκόντα	πάντας	πάσᾶς	πάντα	

- 5.16 The adjectives ἐκών willing (ἑκοντ-), ἄκων unwilling (ἀκοντ-) and πᾶς whole, every, all (πᾶντ-) have a **stem ending in ντ**. They are declined:
 - in the masculine: following the third declension, like γέρων or γίγας (→4.46).
 With ἑκών and ἄκων the nom. sg. masc. has a long stem-vowel and no final τ (so ἑκών with stem ἑκόντ-). With πᾶς the ending -ς was added and ντ disappeared with compensatory lengthening (πᾶς <*πάντς, →1.68). In the dat. pl. of each of these adjectives, again, ντ disappeared with compensatory lengthening (ἑκοῦσι = ἑκδοτι <*ἐκόντ-σι; πᾶσι <*πάντ-σι);
 - in the feminine: the suffix *-yα (→23.9) was added to the stem, resulting in -σα (<*-ντyα, →1.77) with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel (→1.68). So e.g. ἑκοῦσα (<*ἑκόντ-yα), πᾶσα (<*πάντ-yα). The resulting forms are declined following first declension nouns with short α, like μοῦσα (→4.3);
 - in the neuter: the nom./acc. sg. is identical to the stem but has lost the final τ: e.g. ἐκόν (<*ἐκόντ), πᾶν (<*πάντ, but →n.1). The nom./acc. pl. ends in -α. Other forms are identical to the masc.

Note 1: The long $\bar{\alpha}$ in the nom./acc. sg. neut. $\pi \bar{\alpha} \nu$ is irregular; it is modelled on other cases throughout the paradigm, such as (regular) $\pi \bar{\alpha} \varsigma$, $\pi \bar{\alpha} \sigma \alpha$ (analogy, $\rightarrow 1.49$).

Participles

5.17 Overview of forms:

			-ων, -ουσα, -ο	ν	-ῶν, -οῦσα, -οῦν			
		pres. act.	ppl. of παιδεύ	ω educate	pres. act. ppl. of ποιέω make, do			
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	παιδεύων	παιδεύουσα	παιδεῦον	ποιῶν	ποιοῦσα	ποιοῦν	
	gen.	παιδεύοντος	παιδευούσης	παιδεύοντος	ποιοῦντος	ποιούσης	ποιοῦντος	
	dat.	παιδεύοντι	παιδευούση	παιδεύοντι	ποιοῦντι	ποιούσῃ	ποιοῦντι	
	acc.	παιδεύοντα	παιδεύουσαν	παιδεῦον	ποιοῦντα	ποιοῦσαν	ποιοῦν	
pl.	nom.	παιδεύοντες	παιδεύουσαι	παιδεύοντα	ποιοῦντες	ποιοῦσαι	ποιοῦντα	
	gen.	παιδευόντων	παιδευουσῶν	παιδευόντων	ποιούντων	ποιουσῶν	ποιούντων	
	dat.	παιδεύουσι(ν)	παιδευούσαις	παιδεύουσι(ν)	ποιοῦσι $(ν)$	ποιούσαις	ποιοῦσι(ν)	
	acc.	παιδεύοντας	παιδευούσας	παιδεύοντα	ποιοῦντας	ποιούσας	ποιοῦντα	

		-	-ῶν, -ῶσα, -ῶν			-ῶν, -οῦσα, -οῦν			
		pres. act	. ppl. of τιμ	άω honour	pres. act.	ppl. of δηλόα	w make clear		
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.		
sg.	nom.	τιμῶν	τιμῶσα	τιμῶν	δηλῶν	δηλοῦσα	δηλοῦν		
	gen.	τιμῶντος	τιμώσης	τιμῶντος	δηλοῦντος	δηλούσης	δηλοῦντος		
	dat.	τιμῶντι	τιμώση	τιμῶντι	δηλοῦντι	δηλούσῃ	δηλοῦντι		
	acc.	τιμῶντα	τιμῶσαν	τιμῶν	δηλοῦντα	δηλοῦσαν	δηλοῦν		
pl.	nom.	τιμῶντες	τιμῶσαι	τιμῶντα	δηλοῦντες	δηλοῦσαι	δηλοῦντα		
	gen.	τιμώντων	τιμωσῶν	τιμώντων	δηλούντων	δηλουσῶν	δηλούντων		
	dat.	τιμῶσι(ν)	τιμώσαις	τιμῶσι(ν)	δηλοῦσι(ν)	δηλούσαις	δηλοῦσι(ν)		
	acc.	τιμῶντας	τιμώσας	τιμῶντα	δηλοῦντας	δηλούσας	δηλοῦντα		

			-ύς, -ῦσα, -ύ	עז	-άς, -ᾶσα, -άν			
		pres. a	ct. ppl. of δείκ	νῦμι show	pres. act.	ppl. of ἵστημ	ı make stand	
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	δεικνύς	δεικνῦσα	δεικνύν	ίστάς	ίστᾶσα	ίστάν	
	gen.	δεικνύντος	δεικνΰσης	δεικνΰντος	ίστἄντος	ίστἁσης	ίστἄντος	
	dat.	δεικνύντι	δεικνύση	δεικνύντι	ίστάντι	ίστἁση	ίστάντι	
	acc.	δεικνύντα	δεικνῦσαν	δεικνύν	ίστάντα	ίστᾶσαν	ίστάν	
pl.	nom.	δεικνύντες	δεικνῦσαι	δεικνύντα	ίστάντες	ίστᾶσαι	ίστάντα	
	gen.	δεικνύντων	δεικνῦσῶν	δεικνύντων	ίστάντων	ίστασῶν	ίστάντων	
	dat.	δεικνῦσι(ν)	δεικνΰσαις	δεικνῦσι(ν)	ίστᾶσι(ν)	ίστἁσαις	ίστᾶσι(ν)	
	acc.	δεικνύντας	δεικνύσας	δεικνύντα	ίστάντας	ίστάσας	ίστάντα	

		-είς, -εῖσα, -έν				-ούς, -οῦσα, -όν			
		pres. act.	ppl. of τίθτ	ημι <i>put, place</i>	pres. a	pres. act. ppl. of δίδωμι give			
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.		
sg.	nom.	τιθείς	τιθεῖσα	τιθέν	διδούς	διδοῦσα	διδόν		
	gen.	τιθέντος	τιθείσης	τιθέντος	διδόντος	διδούσης	διδόντος		
	dat.	τιθέντι	τιθείση	τιθέντι	διδόντι	διδούση	διδόντι		
	acc.	τι θ έντα	τιθεῖσαν	τι θ έν	διδόντα	διδοῦσαν	διδόν		
pl.	nom.	τιθέντες	τιθεῖσαι	τιθέντα	διδόντες	διδοῦσαι	διδόντα		
	gen.	τιθέντων	τιθεισῶν	τιθέντων	διδόντων	διδουσῶν	διδόντων		
	dat.	τιθεῖσι(ν)	τιθείσαις	τιθεῖσι(ν)	διδοῦσι(ν)	διδούσαις	διδοῦσι(ν)		
	acc.	τιθέντας	τιθείσας	τιθέντα	διδόντας	διδούσᾶς	διδόντα		

- All active participles (except perfect active participles in -ώς, -υῖα, -ός, \rightarrow 5.19–20), and aorist passive (θη-/η-aorist) participles, are built on a stem ending in $\nu\tau$, and thus follow the pattern of declension of ἑκών or πᾶς:
 - like ἑκών (with a nom. sg with a long stem-vowel, without τ):

```
pres. act. of -ω verbs

pres. act. of εἰμί be

pres. act. of εἰμί be

pres. act. of εἰμί go

fut. act.

αστ. act., thematic

αστ. αct. of -ω verbs

αν (gen. -οντος), παιδεύουσα, παιδεῦον

ἀν (gen. ἀντος), ιοῦσα, ἀν

ἐων (gen. ἀντος), ιοῦσα, ἰόν

ε.g. παιδεύσων (gen. -οντος), παιδεύσουσα,

παιδεῦσον

ε.g. λαβών (gen. -όντος), λαβοῦσα, λαβόν
```

Note the forms of participles with contraction:

pres. act. of -έω verbs	e.g. ποιῶν (genοῦντος), ποιοῦσα, ποιοῦν
pres. act. of -άω verbs	e.g. τιμῶν (genῶντος), τιμῶσα, τιμῶν
pres. act. of -όω verbs	e.g. δηλῶν (genοῦντος), δηλοῦσα, δηλοῦν
fut. act., Attic	e.g. νεμῶν (genοῦντος), νεμοῦσα, νεμοῦν

- like $\pi \tilde{\alpha}_{\varsigma}$ (with a nom. sg. ending in - ς and compensatory lengthening):

	8 3 3 4 4 8 8 8 8
pres. act. of -µ1 verbs	e.g. δεικνύς (genὑντος), δεικνῦσα, δεικνὑν
	e.g. ἱστάς (genἀντος), ἱστᾶσα, ἱστάν
	διδούς (genόντος), διδοῦσα, διδόν
	τιθείς (genέντος), τιθεῖσα, τιθέν
	ίείς (genέντος), ίεῖσα, ίέν
aor. act., sigmatic	e.g. παιδεύσας (genἄντος), παιδεύσασα, παιδεῦσαν
aor. act., root	e.g. δύς (gen. δύντος), δῦσα, δύν
	e.g. στάς (genάντος), στᾶσα, στάν

e.g. θείς (gen. -έντος), θεῖσα, θέν e.g. δούς (gen. -όντος), δοῦσα, δόν

aor. θη-/η- e.g. παιδευθείς (gen. -έντος), παιδευθεῖσα, παιδευθέν

e.g. φανείς (gen. -έντος), φανεῖσα, φανέν

Of Three Endings, Perfect Active Participles in -ώς, -υῖα, -ός

5.19 Overview of forms:

			-ώς, -νῖα, -ός	
			ppl. pf. act. of παιδεύω	o educate
		masc.	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	πεπαιδευκώς	πεπαιδευκυῖἄ	πεπαιδευκός
	gen.	πεπαιδευκότος	πεπαιδευκυίᾶς	πεπαιδευκότος
	dat.	πεπαιδευκότι	πεπαιδευκυία	πεπαιδευκότι
	acc.	πεπαιδευκότα	πεπαιδευκυῖἄν	πεπαιδευκός
pl.	nom.	πεπαιδευκότες	πεπαιδευκυῖαι	πεπαιδευκότα
	gen.	πεπαιδευκότων	πεπαιδευκυιῶν	πεπαιδευκότων
	dat.	πεπαιδευκόσι(ν)	πεπαιδευκυίαις	πεπαιδευκόσι(ν)
	acc.	πεπαιδευκότας	πεπαιδευκυίας	πεπαιδευκότα

- 5.20 The participle of the perfect active has, in the masculine and neuter, some forms with a stem in oσ and other forms with a stem in oτ. Feminine forms are built on a stem in υι. The forms are declined as follows:
 - in the masculine: following the third declension; in the nom. sg., the stem in οσis used, without ending, but with lengthened stem-vowel (i.e. -ως), e.g. πεπαιδευκώς; in all other cases the stem in οτ- is used, e.g. gen. sg. πεπαιδευκότος, dat. pl. πεπαιδευκόσι (dental τ disappears before -σι);
 - in the feminine: following the first declension, type διάνοια (→4.3, note the ι preceding the α), hence gen. sg. πεπαιδευκυίας, dat. sg. -υία;
 - in the neuter: in the nom./acc. sg. the stem in οσ- is used, without ending (e.g. πεπαιδευκός); other cases use the stem in οτ-, e.g. nom./acc. pl. πεπαιδευκότα; gen. and dat. forms are thus identical to the masc.

Of Three Endings, Stems in U/EF (-US, -EIQ, -U)

5.21 Overview of forms:

		-υς, -εια, -υ					
		ἡδύς sweet					
		masc.	fem.	neut.			
sg.	nom.	ήδΰς	ήδεῖἄ	ἡδΰ			
	gen.	ήδέος	ήδείας	ἡδέος			
	dat.	ἡδεῖ	ήδεία	ἡδεῖ			
	acc.	ἡ δῢν	ήδεῖἄν	ήδΰ			
	voc.	ἡδΰ	= nom.	= nom.			
pl.	nom./voc.	ἡδεῖς	ἡδεῖαι	ήδέα			
	gen.	ήδέων	ήδειῶν	ήδέων			
	dat.	ἡδέσῖ(ν)	ἡδείαις	ἡδέσῖ(ν)			
	acc.	ἡδεῖς	ήδείας	ήδέα			

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.27$.

- 5.22 A group of adjectives ending in -us, -εια, -u is built on stems with two ablaut variants ending in zero-grade ŏ or e-grade ε_Γ (for ŏ/_Γ, →1.79): e.g. ἡδύς sweet, βαρύς heavy, εὐρύς wide, ὀξύς sharp, ταχύς quick.
 - in the masculine: following the third declension, similar to πῆχυς (→4.79, but note the different gen. sg.). The zero-grade stem in υ is used in the nom. and acc. sg. ἡδύ-ς, ἡδύ-ν. The other cases use the full e-grade *ἡδερ-, the ρ of which disappeared: gen. sg. ἡδέ(ρ)ος, gen. pl. ἡδέ(ρ)ων; there is contraction in the dat. sg. ἡδεῖ (<*ἡδέ(ρ)ι) and nom. pl. ἡδεῖς (= ἡδε̄ς <*ἡδέ(ρ)ες);

Note 1: The forms of the dat. pl. and acc. pl. were presumably built on a stem ήδε-, analogous to (e.g.) the nom. pl.; for this kind of formation, cf. πόλις (\rightarrow 4.76) and πῆχυς (\rightarrow 4.82).

- in the feminine: the suffix *-yα (→23.9) was added to the e-grade stem ἡδερ-, producing ἡδεῖα (<*ἡδέ(ρ)yα). The forms are declined according to the first declension, like διάνοια (→4.3, note ι preceding α);
- in the neuter: following the third declension, similar to ἄστυ (→4.83, but note the uncontracted gen. sg. and nom./acc. pl.). The nom./acc. sg. is built on the zero-grade and has no ending: ἡδύ; other cases use the full e-grade. The nom./acc. pl. ends in -α (ἡδέα <*ἡδέ(ϝ)α, without contraction). Other forms are identical to the masc.

Of Three Endings, Stems in ν (-ας, -αινα, -αν)

5.23 Overview of forms:

		-ας, -αινα, -αν		
			μέλας <i>dark</i>	:
		masc.	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	μέλᾶς	μέλαινα	μέλἄν
	gen.	μέλἄνος	μελαίνης	μέλἄνος
	dat.	μέλἄνι	μελαίνη	μέλἄνι
	acc.	μέλἄνα	μέλαινα	μέλἄν
	voc.	μέλἄν	= nom.	= nom.
pl.	nom./voc.	μέλἄνες	μέλαιναι	μέλἄνα
	gen.	μελάνων	μελαινῶν	μελάνων
	dat.	μέλᾶσι(ν)	μελαίναις	μέλᾶσι(ν)
	acc.	μέλἄνας	μελαίνας	μέλἄνα

- 5.24 The adjectives **μέλας** dark (stem μελάν-) and **τάλας** miserable (stem ταλάν-) have stems ending in ν. Their declension is as follows:
 - in the **masculine**: following third-declension ν-stems (\rightarrow 4.49). In the nom. sg. μ έλας and τ άλας have the ending -ς, with loss of ν and compensatory lengthening (μ έλᾶς <* μ έλᾶνς, \rightarrow 1.68).

Note 1: The short vowel in the dat. pl. (μ έλ $\underline{\alpha}$ σι) is presumably the result of analogy, cf. ν -stem forms such as δαίμοσι, \rightarrow 4.51 n.1.

- in the feminine: the suffix *-yα (→23.9) was added to the stem, producing μέλαινα, τάλαινα through inversion (<*τάλανγα, →1.78);
- in the neuter: the nom./acc. sg. has no ending: μέλαν, τάλαν. The nom./acc. pl. ends in -α: μέλανα. Other forms are identical to the masc.

Note 2: Also with a stem in ν is the adjective $\tau \epsilon \rho \eta \nu$ tender (stem $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu$). The nom. sg. masc. $\tau \epsilon \rho \eta \nu$ has no ending and a long stem-vowel; the fem. is $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu \alpha$ (= $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu \alpha$ <* $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu \alpha$, $\rightarrow 1.78$), gen. $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu \alpha$, neut. $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu \alpha$, gen. $\tau \epsilon \rho \epsilon \nu \alpha$. Declined like the masc./neut. of $\tau \epsilon \rho \eta \nu$ is $\delta \rho \rho \eta \nu$ male (of two endings).

Note 3: There are also adjectives with a stem in ν of two endings (in $-\circ\nu$): \rightarrow 5.26 below.

Of Three Endings, Stems in εντ (-εις, -εσσα, -εν)

5.25 A few first-and-third-declension adjectives chiefly found in poetry and meaning *rich in* ... or ... ful have the endings -εις, -εσσα, -εν: e.g. χαρίεις graceful, φωνήεις voiced, δακρυόεις tearful. The stem of these adjectives ends in ντ, and they are declined in most of the masculine and

neuter as in 5.17 above (cf. e.g. $\tau_1\theta\epsilon i\varsigma$, $\tau_1\theta\epsilon i\varsigma$). In the feminine, however, forms with $-\epsilon\sigma\sigma$ - (known from epic poetry) are used. The full declension is as follows:

			-e15, -eooa, -e	V
			χαρίεις gracefi	ıl
		masc.	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom./voc.	χαρίεις	χαρίεσσα	χαρίεν
	gen.	χαρίεντος	χαριέσσης	χαρίεντος
	dat.	χαρίεντι	χαριέσση	χαρίεντι
	acc.	χαρίεντα	χαρίεσσαν	χαρίεν
pl.	nom./voc.	χαρίεντες	χαρίεσσαι	χαρίεντα
	gen.	χαριέντων	χαριεσσῶν	χαριέντων
	dat.	χαρίεσι(ν)	χαριέσσαις	χαρίεσι(ν)
	acc.	χαρίεντας	χαριέσσας	χαρίεντα

Third-Declension Adjectives

Of Two Endings, Stems in ον (-ων, -ον)

5.26 Overview of forms:

		-ων, -ον	
		σώφρα	ov prudent
		masc. and fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	σώφρων	σῶφρον
	gen.	σώφρονος	σώφρονος
	dat.	σώφρονι	σώφρονι
	acc.	σώφρονα	σῶφρον
	voc.	σῶφρον	= nom.
pl.	nom./voc.	σώφρονες	σώφρονα
	gen.	σωφρόνων	σωφρόνων
	dat.	σώφροσι(ν)	σώφροσι(ν)
	acc.	σώφρονας	σώφρονα

- 5.27 A group of adjectives of two endings (i.e., with no separate forms for the feminine) have stems ending in ov. E.g. σώφρων prudent (σωφρον-), εὐδαίμων fortunate (εὐδαιμον-), μνήμων mindful (μνημον-). Their declension is as follows:
 - in the **masculine** and feminine: like δαίμων (\rightarrow 4.49). The nom. sg. uses a long stem-vowel and no ending (e.g. σώφρων with stem σωφρον-).

in the neuter: the nom./acc. sg. has no ending, e.g. σῶφρον. The nom./acc. pl. ends in -α. Other forms are identical to the masc./fem.

Note 1: In the dat. pl. ν disappears without compensatory lengthening (e.g. σώφρ<u>οσ</u>ι). For this type of formation, \rightarrow 4.51 n.1.

Of Two Endings, Stems in σ (-ης, -ες)

ἀληθεῖς

ἀληθῶν

5.28 Overview of forms:

pl. nom./voc.

gen.

			άληθής <i>true</i>		ύγιής healthy	
		masc. and	l fem.	neut.	masc. and	fem. neut.
sg.	nom.	ἀληθής		ἀληθές	ύγιής	ύγιές
	gen.	ἀληθοῦς	(<-έ(σ)ος)	ἀληθοῦς	ύγιοῦς	ύγιοῦς
	dat.	ἀληθεῖ	$(<-\dot{\epsilon}(\sigma)\iota)$	ἀληθεῖ	ύγιεῖ	ύγιεῖ
	acc.	ἀληθῆ	$(<-\dot{\epsilon}(\sigma)\alpha)$	ἀληθές	ύγιᾶ	ύγιές
	voc.	ἀληθές		= nom.	ύγιές	= nom.

åληθη (<-έ(σ)α)

ἀληθῶν

ύγιεῖς

ύγιῶν

ύγιᾶ

ύγιῶν

-ης, -ες

dat. ἀληθέσι(ν) (<-έσσι(ν)) ἀληθέσι(ν) ὑγιέσι(ν) ὑγιέσι(ν) αcc. ἀληθεῖς ἀληθῆ (<-έ(σ)α) ὑγιεῖς ὑγιᾶ

 $(<-\dot{\epsilon}(\sigma)\epsilon\varsigma)$

 $(<-\dot{\epsilon}(\sigma)\omega\nu)$

Note 1: For Ionic forms, \rightarrow 25.27.

- 5.29 A group of adjectives of two endings in -ης, -ες have stems ending in εσ. E.g. ἀληθής true (ἀληθεσ-), εὐγενής well-born (εὐγενεσ-), εὐκλεής famous (εὐκλεεσ-), ὑγιής healthy (ὑγιεσ-). Their declension is as follows:
 - in the masculine and feminine: the nom. sg. uses a long stem-vowel and no ending (e.g. ἀληθής, stem in other cases ἀληθεσ-). The other case forms are the result of contraction (→1.58-64) after the σ of the stem disappeared (→1.83). Note the acc. pl. in -εῖς (for which cf. πόλεις, →4.76);
 - in the neuter: the nom./acc. sg. has no ending, e.g. ἀληθές, εὐκλεές. The nom./acc. pl. ends in -η (contracted from -ε(σ)α). The gen. and dat. sg./pl. are identical to the masc./fem.
- 5.30 With adjectives that have ε or 1 preceding the εσ of the stem, e.g. εὐκλεής, ὑγιής, the forms of the acc. sg. masc./fem. and nom./acc. pl. neut. normally do not contract to -η, but to -α (→1.57): e.g. εὐκλεα, ὑγιᾶ (however, ὑγιῆ also occurs).

Further Particulars

Adjectives Formed with Dental-Stem Nouns

5.31 A few third-declension adjectives are compounds (thus of two endings, →5.10) formed with a dental-stem noun as their second part: e.g. εὔελπις hopeful (compounded with ἐλπίς, stem ἐλπίδ-; gen. εὐέλπιδος), ἄχαρις graceless (compounded with χάρις, stem χαρῖτ-; gen. ἀχάριτος), ἄπολις city-less (compounded with πόλις, treated as if from stem πολῖδ-; gen. ἀπόλιδος; cf. proper names in -πολις, →4.78).

The forms of such adjectives are largely declined as the relevant nouns ($\rightarrow 4.40$; the nom./ acc. pl. neut. ends in $-\alpha$, e.g. $\dot{\alpha}\chi\dot{\alpha}\rho_1\tau\alpha$). But the acc. sg. masc. always ends in $-\iota\nu$ ($\rightarrow 4.43$), the nom./acc. sg. neut. in $-\iota$ (e.g. $\epsilon \ddot{u}\epsilon\lambda \pi \iota$).

Adjectives of One Ending

There are also a few other adjectives of two endings with stems ending in a dental stop (or in some cases another type of consonant). Since no separate neuter forms of these adjectives are found, they are sometimes called 'of one ending':

πένης poor gen. πένητος ἀγνώς unknown, ignorant gen. ἀγνῶτος φυγάς fugitive gen. φυγάδος ἄρπαξ thieving, raping gen. ἄρπαγος

Used only in the masculine is $\epsilon\theta\epsilon\lambda$ 0ντής, -0ῦ volunteer- (first declension, \rightarrow 4.8). Only used in the feminine are adjectives in -ίς, gen. -ίδος (third declension, \rightarrow 4.40), such as Έλληνίς *Greek*, συμμαχίς *allied*.

μάκαρ *blessed*, gen. μάκαρος, may also be listed here (μάκαρ may be masc./fem./neut.), although a separate fem. μάκαιρᾶ (<*-αρ-yἄ, →23.9, 1.78) also occurs in poetry.

5.33 Many of these adjectives are **used regularly as nouns** (e.g. ὁ/ἡ φυγάς *fugitive*, ὁ πένης *poor man*, ἡ Ἑλληνίς *Greek woman*).

Comparison of Adjectives

Introduction

- 5.34 The **comparative** (expressing greater degree) and **superlative** (expressing greatest degree) of adjectives are formed in two different ways:
 - most adjectives form comparatives using the suffix -τερος, -τέρα, -τερον; corresponding superlatives are formed using the suffix -τατος, -τάτη, -τατον. Ε.g. δικαιότερος more just, fairly just, too just, most just (of two); δικαιότατος most just, very just;
 - a smaller group of adjectives forms comparatives using the suffix -(i)ων- (nom. -(i)ων); corresponding superlatives are formed using the suffix -ιστος, -ίστη, -ιστον. E.g. κακίων worse, fairly bad, too bad, worst (of two), κάκιστος worst, very bad.

5.35 For the meanings and uses of comparatives and superlatives, \rightarrow 32.

Note 1: Apart from by single forms, comparison may also be expressed by the adverb μᾶλλον *more* (itself the comparative form of μάλα *very*): e.g. μᾶλλον φίλος *dearer*.

Similarly, an alternative for the superlative is the use of the adverb μάλιστα *most* (itself superlative of μάλα): e.g. μάλιστα φίλος *dearest*.

Comparatives in -τερος and Superlatives in -τατος

- 5.36 The **comparative degree** of most adjectives is formed with the suffix -τερος, -τέρα, -τερον, added to the (masculine) stem of the adjective's positive degree (for details see below). Such comparatives are declined as first-and-second-declension adjectives, like δίκαιος (→5.1-2, note -τέρα).
- 5.37 The **superlative degree** of these adjectives is formed by adding the suffix -τατος, -τάτη, -τατον to the same stem. Such superlatives are declined as first-and-second -declension adjectives, like δεινός (→5.2).
- 5.38 The following individual types may be distinguished:
 - For adjectives with a masc. in -o₅ (→5.1-2, 5.7-10), if the preceding syllable is long (i.e. its vowel is long or followed by two or more consonants), the comparative has the form -ότερος, superlative -ότατος:

positive	comparative	superlative
δ <u>ει</u> νός impressive	δειν <u>ό</u> τερος	δειν <u>ό</u> τατος
δίκ <u>αι</u> ος <i>just</i>	δικαι <u>ό</u> τερος	δικαι <u>ό</u> τατος
ἰσχ <u>υ</u> ρός strong	ἰσχūρ <u>ό</u> τερος	ἰσχῦρ <u>ό</u> τατος
λ <u>επτ</u> ός fine	λεπτ <u>ό</u> τερος	λεπτ <u>ό</u> τατος
π <u>ικρ</u> ός <i>painful</i>	πικρ <u>ό</u> τερος	πικρ <u>ό</u> τατος

- If the preceding **syllable is short** (i.e. its vowel is short) the comparative has the form -ώτερος, superlative -ώτατος:

ἄξ <u>ῖ</u> ος worthy	ἀξῖ <u>ώ</u> τερος	ἀξῖ <u>ώ</u> τατος
ίκ <u>ἄν</u> ός suitable, sufficient	ίκἄν <u>ώ</u> τερος	ίκἄν <u>ώ</u> τατος
ν <u>έ</u> ος young	νε <u>ώ</u> τερος	νε <u>ώ</u> τατος
χαλ <u>επ</u> ός difficult	χαλεπ <u>ώ</u> τερος	χαλεπ <u>ώ</u> τατος

- Adjectives with a masc. in -ας (stem in ν, →5.23-4) have -άντερος, -άντατος:
 μέλας dark
 μελάντερος
 μελάντατος
- Adjectives with a masc. in -us (→5.21-2) have -úτερος/-úτατος (but for exceptions, →5.43 below):

βαρύς heavy	βαρύτερος	βαρύτατος
βραχύς short	βραχύτερος	βραχύτατος

Adjectives with a masc. in -ης (→5.28-30) have -έστερος/-έστατος:

άληθής *true* άληθέστερος άληθέστατος εὐκλεής *famous* εὐκλεέστερος εὐκλεέστατος

Adjectives with a masc. in -ων (→5.26-7) add -έσ- to the stem, giving
 -ονέστερος/-ονέστατος:

εὐδαίμων fortunate εὐδαιμονέστερος εὐδαιμονέστατος σώφρων prudent σωφρονέστερος σωφρονέστατος

So too, in most cases, adjectives with a contracted masc. in -ous (→5.5-6, 5.7-10), giving -ούστερος (<-οέστερος), -ούστατος:

but also: άπλοώτερος

εὔνους well-disposed εὐνούστερος εὐνούστατος

And adjectives with a masc. in -εις (→5.25) also have -έστερος, -έστατος:

χαρίεις graceful χαριέστερος χαριέστατος

5.39 The following exceptions may be noted:

The adjective φίλος dear has comparative and superlative forms without 0: φίλτερος dearer,
 φίλτατος dearest (occasionally φιλαίτερος, φιλαίτατος, see below). So too ἐνέρτερος lower,
 ἐνέρτατος lowest with οἱ ἔνεροι those below (only masc. pl.).

- Also without o are the comparative and superlative of several adjectives ending in -αιος, e.g.:

γεραίος old, grey γεραίτερος γεραίτατος παλαίος ancient παλαίτερος παλαίτατος σχολαῖος leisurely σχολαίτερος σχολαίτατος

but also: σχολαιότερος but also: σχολαιότατος

- Some other adjectives also get a comparative and superlative in -αίτερος, -αίτατος, e.g.:

ὄψιος late ὀψιαίτερος ὀψιαίτατος ἥσυχος calm ἡσυχαίτερος ἡσυχαίτατος

but also: ἡσυχώτερος but also: ἡσυχώτατος

- κενός empty and στενός narrow (<*κενρός, *στενρός, →1.82) normally have -ότερος/-ότατος,
 even though the preceding syllable is short/open in Attic.
- πένης *poor* (gen. πένητος) shortens its vowel, giving πεν<u>έ</u>στερος (<*πενέτ-τερος, →1.89), πεν<u>έ</u>στατος.
- Some adjectives form a comparative in -ίστερος, superlative in -ίστατος: e.g. λάλος babbling,
 comparative λαλίστερος, superlative λαλίστατος.

5.40 Some comparatives and superlatives of this type are not based on an adjective, but on a preposition/adverb or no positive degree whatsoever:

positive	comparative	superlative
(ἐκ out)	_	ἔσχατος extreme, utmost
(πρό <i>before</i>)	πρότερος earlier, before	πρῶτος first
(ὑπέρ above)	ὑπέρτερος <i>higher</i>	ὑπέρτατος highest
_	ὕστερος later	ὕστατος latest

Comparatives in -(ί)ων and superlatives in -ιστος

- 5.41 Several frequently occurring adjectives form their comparative degree by adding the suffix -iov-/-(y)ov- to the adjective's stem (this occurs especially with adjectives in -us), or to an entirely different stem. For the declension of such comparatives, \rightarrow 5.44 below.
- 5.42 The superlative degree of these adjectives is formed by adding the suffix -10T05, -ίστη, -ιστον to the same stem. Such superlatives are declined as first-and-seconddeclension adjectives of three endings, like δεινός, -ή, -όν (\rightarrow 5.1-2).
- 5.43 The following comparatives and superlatives belong to this type:

positive	comparative	superlative
ἀγαθός good, strong	άμείνων	ἄριστος (see below)
11	ἀρείων (poetry only)	ἄριστος
11	βελτίων	βέλτιστος
11	λώων	λῷστος
(κρατύς strong	κρείττων better	κράτιστος best
(Homer only))		
αἰσχρός ugly	αἰσχτίων	αἴσχιστος
ἐχθρός hostile	έχθίων	ἔχθιστος
ήδύς sweet	ήδἱων	ἥδιστος
κακός bad, evil	κακΐων	κάκιστος
11	but also: κακώτερος (poetry only)	
11	χείρων	χείριστος
п	ἥττων worse	ἥκιστος <i>worst</i> (usually adv. ἥκιστα)
καλός beautiful	καλλίων	κάλλιστος
μακρός long	(μάσσων (<*μάκ-yων, →1.77),	μήκιστος
	poet.)	but also: μακρότατος
	but normally: μακρότερος	
μέγας large, great	μείζων (Ion. μέζων <*μέγ-yων, →1.77)	μέγιστος

μικρός small	ἐλάττων (<*ἐλάχ-yων, $→1.77$)	ἐλάχιστος
II .	μείων	_
	but also: μικρότερος	μικρότατος
ὀλίγος little, few	ἐλάττων (<*ἐλάχ-yων, $→1.77$)	ἐλάχιστος
II.	μείων	ὀλίγιστος
II.	ἥττων less	ἥκιστος least (usually adv.
		ἥκιστα)
πολύς great, many	πλέων or πλείων	πλεῖστος
ράδιος easy	ρ΄άων	ϸᾶ̞στος
ταχύς quick	θάττων (<*θάχ-yων, $→1.77$)	τάχιστος
$(<^*\theta\alpha\chi^-, \rightarrow 1.97)$		

Note 1: The various comparatives and superlatives of ἀγαθός (each translatable by *better* and *best*) and κακός (each translatable by *worse* and *worst*) have different nuances of meaning: broadly speaking, ἀρείων/ἄριστος refer to capability/prowess, βελτΐων/βέλτιστος to (moral) suitability, λώων/λῷστος to usefulness, benefit. χείρων/χείριστος refer to lack of worth, ἤττων/ἥκιστος to weakness. ἀμείνων and κακίων share the range of meanings of ἀγαθός and κακός. These shades of meaning are not always fully clear in individual examples.

5.44 Comparatives in -(†)ων are **declined** as third-declension adjectives of two endings with a stem in ον-, like σώφρων (\rightarrow 5.26–7; the nom. sg. masc./fem. uses a long stem-vowel).

In some cases (acc. sg. masc./fem.; nom./acc. pl. masc./fem. and neut.), alternative forms based on an older suffix *-yo σ - are used more frequently than the ovforms (for these forms, cf. αἰδώς, \rightarrow 4.71).

The full declension is as follows:

-(ί)ων, -(ι)ον

		(*)	(1)00		
		μείζων larger, more			
		masc. and fem.	neut.		
sg.	nom.	μείζων	μεῖζον		
	gen.	μείζονος	μείζονος		
	dat.	μείζονι	μείζονι		
	acc.	μείζονα	μεῖζον		
		more often μείζω (<*-ο(σ)α)			
	voc.	μείζον	= nom.		
pl.	nom./voc.	μείζονες	μείζονα		
		more often μείζους (<*-ο(σ)ες)	more often μείζω (<*-ο(σ)α)		
	gen.	μειζόνων	μειζόνων		
	dat.	μείζοσι(ν)	μείζοσι(ν)		
	acc.	μείζονας	μείζονα		
		more often μείζους (= nom.)	more often μείζω (<*-ο(σ)α)		

Note 1: For the accentuation of this type of comparative, \rightarrow 24.32.

Adverbs

Formation of Adverbs

Introduction

- 6.1 Nearly all adverbs derive from original case-forms of an adjective or noun.
 - A few of these case endings developed into suffixes specifically used for the formation of adverbs; chief among these is -ω_S (an old case-ending -ω, with a suffix -_S); this suffix -ω_S was freely added (i.e. it was productive) to the stems of adjectives to create manner adverbs, e.g. adv. ἡδέω_S sweetly, with the adj. ἡδύς sweet. →6.3.

Less productive, but still widely used, were various endings indicating various local relationships, e.g. $-\delta\epsilon/-\sigma\epsilon$ (indicating place to which), $-\theta\epsilon\nu$ (indicating place from which), etc. $\rightarrow 6.7-11$.

– In numerous other cases, another case-form came to be used as adverb: in some instances the derivation was still transparent in classical Greek (as the case-form in question was still used, e.g. adv. πολύ *very, greatly*, originally acc. sg. neut. πολύ of the adj. πολύς *great, many*); however, in other cases, the original noun/adjective had gone out of use, and the adverb remained as a fossilized, isolated form. $\rightarrow 6.4$ –6.

Note 1: Even in the case of adverbs whose derivation was transparent, however, they were presumably no longer 'felt' to be adjectives; this may be seen most clearly in cases where the adverb is accented differently from the original adjective form: e.g. σφόδρα *very, strongly* (originally acc. pl. neut. σφοδρά of σφοδρός *vehement*).

A few adverbs did not originate as case forms of a noun or adjective. Some of these are treated below. For adverbs formed from (the stems of) pronouns (e.g. πότε, όπότε, τότε, τῆδε, ταύτη), →8.2. For adverbs formed from numerals (usually in -άκις), →9.12.

Manner Adverbs in -ως

6.3 The productive adverbial suffix -ως formed primarily adverbs of manner. The suffix is added directly to the stem.

Note 1: This means that the form of these adverbs is nearly identical to the gen. pl. masc. of the corresponding adjectives, except for the final -5 (in short, replacing -ων in the gen. pl. masc. with -ως forms the adverb); the parallelism in the formation extends to accentuation. E.g. with ἄξιος worthy, adv. ἀξίως in a worthy manner (cf. gen. pl. ἀξίων); with καλός beautiful, fine, noble, adv. καλῶς well, nobly (cf. gen. pl. καλῶν).

Such adverbs are formed from all types of adjectives, and occasionally from participles.

Formed from adjectives:

ἀξίως	in a worthy manner	(ἄξιος worthy)
ἄλλως	otherwise; in vain	(ἄλλος other)
καλῶς	well, nobly	(καλός beautiful, fine, noble)
άπλῶς	simply	(ἁπλοῦς simple)
πάντως	wholly, in every way	(πᾶς all, whole)
ἀληθῶς	truly, really	(ἀληθής true)
ήδέως	sweetly, pleasantly	(ἡδύς <i>sweet</i>)
ἀφρόνως	senselessly	(ἄφρων senseless)
χαριέντως	gracefully	(χαρίεις graceful)

Formed from participles:

ὄντως	truly, really, actually	(ppl. ἄν, with εἰμί <i>be</i>)
διαφερόντως	differently	(ppl. διαφέρων, with διαφέρω differ)

Note 2: ὁμῶς *likewise, similarly* and ὅμως *nevertheless, still* (cf. Engl. *all the same*) are related to an adjective ὁμός *one and the same* (in classical Greek the adj. ὅμοιος *similar* is used instead of ὁμός; this has its own, regularly formed adverb, ὁμοίως *in a similar manner*).

Note 3: The suffix -ως also functions as an adverbial suffix in its own right, e.g. in:

- the demonstrative manner adverb οὕτως thus, in that way (also οὕτω →1.40; this adverb corresponds to οὕτος; note that its formation is not parallel to that of the gen. pl. masc. τούτων);
- the interrogative adverb πῶς; how?, in what way?;
- the relative manner adverb ώς (such) as, like.

For these forms, also \rightarrow 8.2.

Adverbs Based on Other Case-Forms

- 6.4 Various adverbs derive from other case-forms of adjectives.
 - accusative neuter (singular or plural); $\rightarrow 30.18$ for the adverbial accusative:

```
μέγα (also μεγάλως) greatly, very, loudly (μέγας great)
μικρόν a little (μικρός small)
ὀλίγον a little (ὀλίγος few, small)
πολλά often (πολύς large, many)
```

πολύ much, very (πολύς large, many) ταχύ (also ταχέως) fast, quickly (ταχύς quick)

Note 1: Also based on an accusative is the adverb μακράν far, long (μακρός long; fem., supply όδόν: a long way; cf. superlative (τὴν) ταχίστην in the quickest possible way, \rightarrow 6.13 below). **Note 2:** For forms in -η, also \rightarrow 8.2.

– genitive (neuter):

μικροῦ almost (μικρός *small*) ὀλίγου almost (ὀλίγος *few, small*)

- **dative** (usually feminine: $δδ\tilde{ω}$ may be supplied; cf. above n.1):

ἰδία privately (ἴδιος private)

κοινῆ in common, commonly (κοινός communal, shared)

πεζῆ on foot, by land (πεζός on land)

Some adverbs are based on **case-forms of nouns**: these are often difficult to distinguish from particular usages of cases, such as the accusative of the internal object (\rightarrow 30.12), accusative of respect (\rightarrow 30.14) or dative of manner (\rightarrow 30.44).

τέλος in the end (τὸ τέλος end) δωρεάν for free, freely (ἡ δωρεά gift) κύκλω in a circle, round about (ὁ κύκλος circle) σιγῆ in silence (ἡ σιγή silence)

- 6.6 For many adverbs which derive from an original case-form, there is no longer a corresponding adjective or noun in classical Greek: only the adverb remains as an isolated, **fossilized** form. Some examples are (there are many more):
 - Originally accusative:

ἄγαν, λίαν too, excessively

μάτην in vain

εὖ well (adverb with ἀγαθός 'good'; ἐύς 'good, brave'

occurs in epic)

πάλιν back, again

- Originally genitive:

ἐξῆς in a row, one after the other

- Originally dative:

εἰκῆ randomly

λάθρα in secret, secretly

- Formed with adverbial - ς (cf. - $(\omega)\varsigma$):

ἄπαξ once

ἄλις sufficiently

μόγις, μόλις with difficulty, hardly, scarcely εὐθύς (also εὐθύ, εὐθέως) directly, immediately, straight

- Other, in some cases obscure derivations (only a few examples are given):

πέλας nearby μάλα very

πάνυ altogether, completely, very (related to $\pi \tilde{\alpha}_{S}$)

νῦν now χθές yesterday

Specific Formations of Adverbs Indicating Space

6.7 With place names and a few other nouns of the first declension (in $-\eta/-\alpha$), which have a dative plural in $-\alpha_{15}$, an older form of the dative plural, in $-\bar{\alpha}\sigma_{1}$ or $-\eta\sigma_{1}$, is still used as a **locative** (denoting **place where**):

Ἀθήνησι in Athens Πλαταιᾶσι in Plataea

6.8 There also remain in classical Greek a few fossilized examples of an original locative in -1.

οἴκοι (at) home χαμαί on the ground Πυθοῖ at Delphi

Note 1: This ending is also found in $\alpha(i)$ ϵi always.

6.9 Some **genitives** are also used to indicate place where:

αὐτοῦ here, there, in this very place (αὐτός) ὁμοῦ in the same place, together, at once, close at hand (ὁμός, →6.3 n.2 above)

6.10 An old instrumental ending $-\omega$ is used in various adverbs indicating direction, often related to prepositions:

ἄνω above, upwards (ἀνά above) κάτω below, downwards (κατά below) ἔξω (to) outside, away (ἐξ (away) from)

πόρρω forward ὀπίσω backward

Note 1: This ending is also found in οὖπω/μήπω not yet, οὐ πώποτε/μἡ πώποτε never yet.

- 6.11 Several other suffixes (originally case endings) are used to form spatial modifiers:
 - The suffixes -σε and -δε (attached to the accusative) indicate place to which:

πανταχό<u>σε</u> in all directions ὁμό<u>σε</u> to the same place

Ἀθήναζε (<Ἀθήνασ-δε) to Athens (for ζ , →1.91 n.1)

οἴκαδε (to) home

- The suffix -θεν indicates place from where:

πανταχό<u>θεν</u> from every direction

'Αθήνη<u>θεν</u> from Athens οἴκοθεν from home

- The suffix -θι indicates (with certain stems only) place where:

ἄλλοθι elsewhere

ἀμφοτέρωθι on both sides (= in both ways)

αὐτόθι (≈ αὐτοῦ) in that very place

For the use of these suffixes in the system of correlative adverbs, \rightarrow 8.2.

Adverbs Deriving from Prepositions/Prepositional Phrases

- 6.12 Finally some adverbs derive from a preposition or prepositional phrase:
 - Adverbs deriving from a combination of **preposition and noun** (for this type of formation, →23.38):

 ἐκποδών
 out of the way
 (ἐκ ποδῶν)

 παραχρῆμα
 immediately
 (παρὰ χρῆμα)

 παράπαν
 altogether, absolutely
 (παρὰ πᾶν)

- Many **prepositions** are used also as adverbs (\rightarrow 31.6):

μετά thereafter

πρός furthermore, besides

For adverbs such as ἄνω (ἀνά), κάτω (κατά), etc., →6.10 above.

Comparison of Adverbs

6.13 The comparative and superlative degrees of adverbs are identical to the **neuter accusative** of the corresponding comparative and superlative adjectives. The acc. neut. **singular** of the comparative adjective is used for the **comparative** adverb; the acc. neut. **plural** of the superlative adjective is used for the **superlative** adverb. Thus:

positive	comparative	superlative
ἀληθῶς	άληθέστερον more truly	ἀληθέστατα most truly
ἀξίως	άξιώτερον in a more worthy	ἀξιώτατα in the most worthy
	manner	manner
άπλῶς	άπλούστερον more simply	ἁπλούστατα most simply
ἀφρόνως	ἀφρονέστερον more senselessly	ἀφρονέστατα most senselessly
χαριέντως	χαριέστερον more gracefully	χαριέστατα most gracefully

The same rules apply to superlative adverbs based on 'irregular' comparatives and superlatives (\rightarrow 5.41-4):

εὖ (ἀγαθῶς)	ἄμεινον in a better manner	ἄριστα in the best manner
ἡδέως	ἥδιον more pleasantly	ἥδιστα most pleasantly
μεγάλως, μέγα	μεῖζον more greatly	μέγιστα most greatly
καλῶς	κάλλιον more beautifully	κάλλιστα most beautifully
ὀλίγον	ἥττον less	ἥκιστα <i>least</i>
πολύ	πλεῖον more	πλεῖστα most
ταχέως, ταχύ	θᾶττον more quickly	τάχιστα most quickly;
		also: (τὴν) ταχίστην
		(in) the fastest way

Observe that some comparative/superlative adverbs have no directly corresponding adverb in the positive degree (\rightarrow 5.40):

(πρό)	πρότερον earlier, before	πρῶτον/πρῶτα firstly
	also: τὸ πρότερον the	also: τὸ πρῶτον/τὰ
	previous time	πρῶτα the first time
_	ὕστερον later	ὕστατον lastly
	also: τὸ ὕστερον the	also: τὸ ὕστατον/τὰ
	next time	ὕστατα the last time

In some cases, comparative and superlative adverbs are formed from a positive adverb. Note especially:

μάλα very μᾶλλον more μάλιστα most

Note 1: A few adverbs, e.g. ἄλλως and πάντως, due to their meaning, have no comparative and superlative.

6.14 In addition to the above forms, comparative adverbs in -τέρως are fairly frequent. E.g.:

δικαιοτέρως more justly	(δίκαιος, next to δικαιότερον)
χαλεπωτέρως in a more difficult way	(χαλεπός, next to χαλεπώτερον)
σωφρονεστέρως more prudently	(σώφρων, next to σωφρονέστερον)

Superlative adverbs in -τάτως occur infrequently, e.g.:

συντομωτάτως in the most summary fashion (σύντομος, next to συντομώτατα)

Pronouns

Personal Pronouns

7.1 For the meanings and uses of the personal pronouns, \rightarrow 29.1–6. The forms are as follows:

		first person ἐγώ Ι, me; ἡμεῖς we, us		second person σύ you (sg.); ὑμεῖς you (pl.)	
		accented	unaccented	accented	unaccented
sg.	nom.	ἐγώ	_	σύ (also voc.)	_
	gen.	_{έμο} ῦ	μου	σοῦ	σου
	dat.	_έ μοί	μοι	σοί	σοι
	acc.	ἐμέ	με	σέ	σε
pl.	nom.	ἡμεῖς		ύμεῖς (also voc.)	
	gen.	ήμῶν		ύμῶ <i>ν</i>	
	dat.	ἡμῖν		ὑμῖν	
	acc.	ήμᾶς		ύμᾶς	

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.28$.

Note 2: The unaccented forms are enclitic (\rightarrow 24.33-4).

In poetry some editors follow the ancient grammatical tradition of distinguishing unaccented forms of the oblique cases of the plural (these have their accent on the first syllable): ἤμων; ἤμῖν (or ἦμῖν), ἤμεας/ἤμᾶς (or ἦμᾶς), ὕμεων/ὕμων, ὕμῖν (or ὖμῖν), ὕμεας/ὕμᾶς (or ὖμᾶς). In poetry, the last syllable -ιν in the dat. pl. often scans short, so that there is indeed good reason to print ἦμιν/ὖμιν in those cases.

- 7.2 For the third-person personal pronoun, classical Greek uses primarily oblique forms of αὐτός
 (→29.5, 29.7). A separate third-person pronoun is almost entirely absent from classical Greek.
 However:
 - In poetry and Ionic, the form μιν is frequently found as accusative third-person pronoun. In poetry, νιν is also found as accusative singular and plural.
 - Forms of an older separate third-person pronoun, still used in Homeric epic, are used in Attic as indirect reflexives (→29.18); in Herodotus they are also used as personal pronoun, →25.28. The complete paradigm is (in Attic):

third	person
unira	Derson

		him, he	him, her, it; they, them	
		accented	unaccented	
sg.	nom.	_	_	
	gen.	ပိပ	ού	
	dat.	οί	oi	
	acc.	ξ	έ	
pl.	nom.	σφεῖς	_	
	gen.	σφῶν	σφων	
	dat.	σφίσι(ν)	σφισι(ν)	
	acc.	σφᾶς	σφᾶς	

Note 1: For Ionic forms, $\rightarrow 25.28$

Note 2: The unaccented forms are enclitic (\rightarrow 24.33–4).

Reflexive Pronouns

7.3 For the meanings and uses of the reflexive pronouns, \rightarrow 29.14–20. The forms of the 'direct' reflexive pronoun are as follows:

		first person εμαυτοῦ, -ῆς myself, ourselves		second person σ(ε)αυτοῦ, -ῆς yourself, yourselves	
		masc.	fem.	masc.	fem.
sg.	nom.	_	_	_	_
	gen.	ἐμαυτοῦ	ἐμαυτῆς	σ(ε)αυτοῦ	σ(ε)αυτῆς
	dat.	ἐμαυτῷ	ἐμαυτῆ	σ(ε)αυτῷ	σ(ε)αυτῆ
	acc.	ἐμαυτόν	ἐμαυτήν	σ(ε)αυτόν	σ(ε)αυτήν
pl.	nom.	_	_	_	_
	gen.	ήμῶν αὐτῶν	ήμῶν αὐτῶν	ύμῶν αὐτῶν	ύμῶν αὐτῶν
	dat.	ήμῖν αὐτοῖς	ήμῖν αὐταῖς	ύμῖν αὐτοῖς	ύμῖν αὐταῖς
	acc.	ήμᾶς αὐτούς	ήμᾶς αὐτάς	ύμᾶς αὐτούς	ύμᾶς αὐτάς

- 1		
th	ird	person

		έαυτοῦ, -ῆς, -οῦ himself, herself, itself; themselves			
		masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	_	_	_	
	gen.	έαυτοῦ, αύτοῦ	έαυτῆς, αύτῆς	έαυτοῦ, αὑτοῦ	
	dat.	έαυτῷ, αύτῷ	έαυτῆ, αύτῆ	έαυτῷ, αὑτῷ	
	acc.	έαυτόν, αύτόν	έαυτήν, αύτήν	έαυτό, αύτόν	
pl.	nom.	_	_	_	
	gen.	έαυτῶν, αὑτῶν	έαυτῶν, αὑτῶν	έαυτῶν, αύτῶν	
		σφῶν αὐτῶν	σφῶν αὐτῶν		
	dat.	έαυτοῖς, αὑτοῖς	έαυταῖς, αὑταῖς	έαυτοῖς, αὑτοῖς	
		σφίσιν αὐτοῖς	σφίσιν αὐταῖς		
	acc.	έαυτούς, αύτούς	έαυτάς, αύτάς	έαυτά, αύτά	
		σφᾶς αὐτούς	σφᾶς αὐτάς		

Note 1: There is no nominative of the reflexive pronoun.

Note 2: The genitives ἐμαυτοῦ, σεαυτοῦ, and ἑαυτοῦ originally result from crasis of ἐμέο αὐτοῦ, σέο αὐτοῦ and ἕο αὐτοῦ (ἕο (so found in Homeric epic) = classical Attic οὖ). The other cases were generalized from these forms (analogy, \rightarrow 1.49), and built on ἐμ-, σ ε-, έ-.

- 7.4 Third-person ἐαυτοῦ was gradually generalized to the first and second person as well; for details, →29.19.
- 7.5 For the use of the obsolete third-person pronoun οὖ/οὑ, οἶ/οἱ, ἕ/ἑ; σφῶν/σφων, etc. (→7.2 above) as 'indirect' reflexive pronoun, →29.18.

The Reciprocal Pronoun

7.6 For the uses of the reciprocal pronoun ἀλλήλων each other, →29.26. It has the following forms:

reciprocal pronoun

			ἀλλήλων each other		
		masc.	fem.	neut.	
pl.	nom.	_	_	_	
	gen.	ἀλλήλων	ἀλλήλων	ἀλλήλων	
	dat.	ἀλλήλοις	ἀλλήλαις	ἀλλήλοις	
	acc.	ἀλλήλους	ἀλλήλας	ἄλληλα	

The Possessive 'Pronoun'

7.7 For the uses of possessive adjectives, \rightarrow 29.21–5. They are:

	singular	plural
first	ἐμός, ἐμή, ἐμόν my, mine	ἡμέτερος, -τέρᾶ, -τερον our, ours
second	σός, σή, σόν your, yours	ὑμέτερος, -τέρᾶ, -τερον <i>your, yours</i>
third	_	σφέτερος, -τέρᾶ, -τερον their

They are declined like the adjectives in -0, $-\eta/-\bar{\alpha}$, -0ν ($\rightarrow 5.1$).

Note 1: The term 'pronoun' for these adjectives is somewhat misleading: they are properly adjectives, and not used pronominally (\rightarrow 26.22, although they may, like all adjectives, be used as head of a noun phrase (\rightarrow 26.20), e.g. $\tau \dot{\alpha} \stackrel{\text{è}}{=} \dot{\mu} \dot{\alpha}$ my things).

7.8 In Attic, there is no third person singular possessive adjective, and for 'plural possession' σφέτερος is relatively infrequent. Instead, the genitive of αὐτός, of the reflexive pronoun, or more rarely, of a demonstrative pronoun is used.

Note 1: σφέτερος is properly a form of an older third-person possessive pronoun, which is still used regularly in Homeric epic. In the singular, its forms are ὅς/ἑός, ἥ/ἑή, ὄν/ἑόν.

7.9 Especially in the plural, the possessive pronouns are occasionally strengthened by a gen. of αὐτός when they are used for 'reflexive' possession: e.g. ἐμὸν αὐτῆς my own, ἡμέτερος αὐτῶν our own, σφετέροις αὐτῶν their own, etc.

αὐτός

7.10 For the meanings and uses of $\alpha \dot{\omega} \tau \dot{\delta} \varsigma$, $\rightarrow 29.7-13$. The forms are as follows:

neut. αὐτό αὐτοῦ
αὐτοῦ
αὐτῷ
αὐτό
αὐτά
αὐτῶν
αὐτοῖς
αὐτά

αὐτός is declined like the adjectives in -05, -η, -0ν, with the exception of nom. and acc. sg. neut., which is αὐτό, using the pronominal ending -0 found also with the article (τό), οὖτος (τοῦτο), ἐκεῖνος (ἐκεῖνο, \rightarrow 7.14–15).

7.11 Forms of the article ending in a vowel or diphthong frequently coalesce with αὐτ-(crasis, \rightarrow 1.43–5), as follows:

αὐτός = ὁ αὐτός, αὐτή = ἡ αὐτή, ταὐτό = τὸ αὐτό (but ταὐτόν is also found) ταὐτοῦ = τοῦ αὐτοῦ, ταὐτῷ = τῷ αὐτῷ ταὐτῆ = τῆ αὐτῆ $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac$

Note 1: For Ionic forms in crasis, $\rightarrow 25.14$.

Note 2: Forms of αὐτός and ὁ αὐτός (with crasis) are often confused with each other or with forms of οὖτος or ἑαυτοῦ: for the differences between the forms, \rightarrow 7.26.

Demonstrative Pronouns

7.12 For the uses of the demonstrative pronouns, \rightarrow 29.27–37.

őδε

7.13 őδε is declined as follows:

			ὄδε	
			ὄδε, ἥδε, τόδε <i>this</i>	(here)
		masc.	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	ὅδε	ἥδε	τόδε
	gen.	τοῦδε	τῆσδε	τοῦδε
	dat.	τῷδε	τῆδε	τῷδε
	acc.	τόνδε	τήνδε	τόδε
pl.	nom.	οΐδε	αἵδε	τάδε
	gen.	τῶνδε	τῶνδε	τῶνδε
	dat.	τοῖσδε	ταῖσδε	τοῖσδε
	acc.	τούσδε	τάσδε	τάδε

 $\"{o}$ δε is declined by adding the 'deictic' suffix -δε to the forms of the **article** ($\rightarrow 3.1$):

οὖτος

7.14 οὖτος is declined as follows:

			οὖτος				
			 οὖτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο <i>this, that</i>				
		masc.	fem.	neut.			
sg.	nom.	οὖτος	αὕτη	τοῦτο	_		
	gen.	τούτου	ταύτης	τούτου			
	dat.	τούτῳ	ταύτη	τούτω			
	acc.	τοῦτον	ταύτην	τοῦτο	_		
pl.	nom.	οὖτοι	αὖται	ταῦτα			
	gen.	τούτων	τούτων	τούτων			
	dat.	τούτοις	ταύταις	τούτοις			
	acc.	τούτους	ταύτας	ταῦτα			

The endings of $o\tilde{\upsilon}\tau o\varsigma$ are those of e.g. $\alpha\tilde{\upsilon}\tau o\varsigma$ (i.e. those of adjectives ending in $-o\varsigma$, $-\eta$, $-o\nu$, but with pronominal ending -o in nom./acc. sg. neut.). With regard to the stem(s) of the forms, note that:

- they start with τ -, except in the nominatives of the masc. and fem., which start with a rough breathing (compare the article, \rightarrow 3.1);
- the stem is (τ)ουτ- or (τ)αυτ- depending on the ending (not the gender): if an α/η-sound follows, (τ)αυτ- is used; if an o-sound follows, (τ)ουτ- is used. Note particularly gen. pl. fem. τούτων and nom./acc. pl. neut. ταῦτα.

ἐκεῖνος

7.15 ἐκεῖνος is declined as follows:

	ἐκεῖνος					
		ἐκεῖνος <i>that (t</i>	here)			
	masc.	fem.	neut.			
nom.	ἐκεῖνος	ἐκείνη	έκεῖνο			
gen.	ἐκείνου	ἐκείνης	ἐκείνου			
dat.	ἐκείνῳ	ἐκείνῃ	ἐκείνῳ			
acc.	ἐκεῖνον	ἐκείνην	ἐκεῖνο			
nom.	έκεῖνοι	ἐκεῖναι	ἐκεῖνα			
gen.	ἐκείνων	ἐκείνων	ἐκείνων			
dat.	ἐκείνοις	ἐκείναις	ἐκείνοις			
acc.	ἐκείνους	ἐκείνας	ἐκεῖνα			
	gen. dat. acc. nom. gen. dat.	nom. ἐκεῖνος gen. ἐκείνου dat. ἐκείνω acc. ἐκεῖνου nom. ἐκεῖνου gen. ἐκεῖνου				

ἐκεῖνος is declined like αὐτός (\rightarrow 7.10).

Note 1: ἐκεῖνος has an alternative form κεῖνος, which is used in poetry for metrical reasons, and occasionally in Herodotus.

Further Particulars

Other Demonstratives

7.16 The following pronominal adjectives are also demonstrative (for details on these, \rightarrow 8.1):

τοσόσδε, τοσήδε, τοσόνδε of such a size, so great, so much;

plural: so many

τοιόσδε, τοιάδε, τοιόνδε τοσοῦτος, τοσαύτη, τοσοῦτο *or -*ον of such a kind/nature/quality, such of such a size; so great, so much,

plural: so many

τοιοῦτος, τοιαύτη, τοιοῦτο *or* -ον

such (as) ..., of such a kind/quality/nature

Note 1: τοσόσδε and τοιόσδε combine the adjectives τόσος and τοῖος (which are found in poetry with the same meaning), and the suffix $-\delta\epsilon$ (compare $\delta\delta\epsilon$, \rightarrow 7.13). τοσοῦτος and τοιοῦτος are built from τοσ- and τοι- + οὖτος, respectively.

7.17 Less frequent are τηλικόσδε, τηλικήδε, τηλικόνδε so old, so big, and τηλικοῦτος, τηλικαύτη, τηλικοῦτο(ν) so old, so big.

Deictic Iota

7.18 Forms of demonstrative pronouns, adjectives or adverbs are sometimes expanded with the suffix -i, usually called the **deictic iota**. When this suffix is present, the pronoun is always accented on it. Before the suffix the short vowels α , ϵ and o disappear.

e.g. ὁδί, τουδί, τωδί, τονδί; ἡδί, τοδί; ούτοσί, τουτουί, τουτωί, τουτονί; αύτηϊ, τουτί; ἐκεινοσί, ἐκεινηΐ

For the use of deictic iota and further examples, \rightarrow 29.36.

Note 1: In comedy, long vowels and diphthongs preceding deictic iota count as short: αὑτ<u>ň</u>ί, τουτ<u>οῦ</u>ί, etc.

Relative Pronouns

7.19 For the uses of relative pronouns, $\rightarrow 50$.

ὄς and ὄστις

7.20 Overview of forms:

			ŏς		οστις οστις, ήτις, ότι whoever, anyone who			
		გ ვ, უ, გ	who, wh	ich, that				
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	őς	ἥ	ő	ὄστις	ἥτις	ὅτι	
	gen.	οὖ	ής	οὖ	οὖτινος / ὅτου	ἦστινος / ὅτου	οὖτινος / ὅτου	
	dat.	ထို	ń	$\tilde{\phi}$	ὧτινι / ὅτῳ	ήτινι / ὅτω	ώ̃τινι / ὅτω	
	acc.	őν	ἥν	ő	ὄντινα	ἥντινα	őτι	
pl.	nom.	οΐ	αἵ	ά	οἵτινες	αἵτινες	ἄτινα / ἄττα	
	gen.	ών	ών	ὧν	ώντινων / ὅτων	ώντινων / ὅτων	ώντινων / ὅτων	
	dat.	οἷς	αἷς	οἷς	οἷστισι(ν) / ὅτοις	ς αἷστισι(ν) / ὅτοι	ς οἷστισι(ν) / ὅτοις	
	acc.	οΰς	ἄς	ä	οὕστινας	ἄστινας	ἄτινα / ἄττα	

The 'definite' relative pronoun $\mathring{\sigma}_{\mathbf{5}}$ is declined like (the endings of) $\alpha\mathring{\upsilon}\tau\acute{\circ}_{\mathbf{5}}$ ($\rightarrow 7.10$), beginning with a rough breathing. The 'indefinite' relative pronoun $\mathring{\sigma}\sigma\tau\imath_{\mathbf{5}}$ is formed by adding the appropriate form of the indefinite pronoun $\tau\imath_{\mathbf{5}}$ ($\rightarrow 7.24$) to that of $\mathring{\circ}_{\mathbf{5}}$.

Note 1: In many text editions the neuter sg. nom and acc. of $\delta\sigma\tau\iota\varsigma$ is printed as $\delta\tau\iota$, to differentiate it from the conjunction $\delta\tau\iota$ that, because.

Note 2: The alternative forms ὅτου, ὅτω (indeclinable ὅ + the alternative genitive and dative of τις, \rightarrow 7.24) and ἄττα (<*ὅ-τyα, \rightarrow 1.77), are all far more common than regularly formed οὖτινος and ὧτινι and ἄτινα. The plural forms ὧντινων, ὅτων and οἶστισι(ν), ὅτοις are rare. Note 3: For Ionic forms, \rightarrow 25.31.

- 7.21 Forms of \mathring{o}_{S} are frequently followed by the enclitic particle $-\pi\epsilon\rho$ ($\rightarrow 59.55$), and then written as one word, $\mathring{o}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$, etc.
- 7.22 For the use of the article as relative pronoun in poetry, \rightarrow 28.31.

Other Relative Pronouns

7.23 Some other pronouns used in relative clauses are (for details on these pronouns, \rightarrow 8.1):

```
όπότερος, -\bar{\alpha}, -ον (the person of the two . . .) that, which definite ὅσος, -\eta, -ον (so much/great . . .) as, pl: (so many . . .) as
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indefinite ὁπόσος, -η, -ον definite οἶος, οἵα, οἷον (such . . .) as, (of such a kind/nature . . .) as indefinite ὁποῖος, -α, -ον
```

Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns

τίς, τί; τις, τι

7.24 For the meanings and uses of interrogative pronouns, $\rightarrow 38.11-14$ (direct questions), 42.5-6 (indirect questions). For the meanings and uses of indefinite pronouns, $\rightarrow 29.38-42$. The forms of the central interrogative pronouns $\tau i \varsigma$ and τi , are as follows:

		interrog	ative pronoun	indefinite pronoun τις, τι independent someone, something as adjective some		
		-	τίς, τί dent who? what? ive which? what?			
		masc./fem.	neut.	masc./fem.	neut.	
sg.	nom.	τίς	τί	τις	τι	
	gen.	τίνος / τοῦ	τίνος / τοῦ	τινος / του	τινος / του	
	dat.	τίνι / τῷ	τίνι / τῷ	τινι / τω	τινι / τω	
	acc.	τίνα	τί	τινα	τι	
pl.	nom.	τίνες	τίνα	τινες	τινα / ἄττα	
	gen.	τίνων	τίνων	τινων	τινων	
	dat.	τίσι(ν)	τίσι(ν)	τισι(ν)	τισι(ν)	
	acc.	τίνας	τίνα	τινας	τινα / ἄττα	

They are declined following the third declension, with two endings and a stem ending in ν (\rightarrow 5.26)

Note 1: The forms $\tau \tilde{\omega} / \tau \omega$, $\tau \tilde{\omega} / \tau \omega$, etc. occur frequently in both prose and poetry, but are somewhat less common than $\tau i \nu \sigma / \tau i \nu \sigma$, $\tau i \nu i / \tau i \nu i$, etc. The form $\tilde{\alpha} \tau \tau \alpha$ (nom./acc. neut. pl. of the indefinite pronoun) is much less common than $\tau i \nu \alpha$, and particularly rare in poetry.

Note 2: For the accentuation of these pronouns, $\rightarrow 24.38$ n.1.

Note 3: For Ionic forms, \rightarrow 25.30.

Other Interrogative Pronouns

7.25 Some other interrogative pronouns are (for details on these pronouns, \rightarrow 8.1):

πότερος, ποτέρα, πότερον which of the two?

πόσος, πόση, πόσον how great, how much? pl.: how many?

ποῖος, ποία, ποῖον what sort/kind of?

Note 1: Also, but rarely, πηλίκος, -η, -ον how old, how big?

Seemingly Similar Forms of αὐτός, ὁ αὐτός, ἑαυτοῦ and οὖτος

7.26 Forms of αὐτός, ὁ αὐτός (with crasis), ἑαυτοῦ (when contracted) and οὖτος can easily be confused. They may be distinguished by looking at the position of the accent, and at breathings. Note that *no* form or combination is ambiguous:

_	αὐτός	ξαυτοῦ (contracted)	ὁ αὐτός (in crasis)	οὖτος
	-smooth breathing -accent on the last syllable	-rough breathing -accent on the last syllable -oblique cases only	-rough breathing in nom. masc./ femτ/coronis in other forms -accent on the last syllable	-rough breathing in nom. masc./fem. -τ in other forms -accent on the first syllable (with ου/αυ)
nom. sg./pl. masc.	αὐτός, αὐτοί	-	αύτός, αύτοί	οὖτος, οὖτοι
nom. sg./pl. fem.	αὐτή, αὐταί	_	αύτή, αύταί	αὕτη, αὖται
nom./acc. sg. neut.	αὐτό	αύτό (acc.)	ταὐτό(ν)	τοῦτο
nom./acc. pl. neut.	αὐτά	αὑτά (acc.)	ταὐτά	ταῦτα
gen./dat. sg. m./n.	αὐτοῦ, αὐτῷ	αύτοῦ, αύτῷ	ταὐτοῦ, ταὐτῷ	τούτου, τούτω
dat. sg. fem.	αὐτῆ	αύτῆ	ταὐτῆ	ταύτη
other forms	αὐτῆς, αὐτόν, αὐτήν, αὐτῶν, αὐτοῖς, etc.	αύτῆς, αύτόν, αύτήν, αύτῶν, αύτοῖς, etc.	-	ταύτης, τοῦτον, ταύτην, τούτων, τούτοις, etc.

Correlative Pronouns and Adverbs

The System of Correlative Pronouns and Adjectives

8.1 The (cor)relative pronouns/adjectives are as follows:

	interrogative		-	personal and demonstrative	relative		
	direct	indirect	•		'definite'	'indefinite'	
basic forms	τίς;	ὄστις, τίς	τις	ὄδε	őς	ὄστις	
	who?	who, which	someone	this (here)	who,	who(ever)	
	which?			οὖτος	which, that		
	what?			that (there)			
				ἐκεῖνος			
				that (far away)			
-τερος	πότερος;	όπότερος ,	πότερος	(ὁ) ἕτερος	-	όπότερος	
of two	which of	πότερος	one/other	the one/the other		which(ever) of	
	the two?	which of	(of two)	(of two)		the two	
		the two	(very rare)				
-οσο-	πόσος;	όπόσος ,	ποσος of	τοσόσδε ²	ὄσος	όπόσο ς	
size, number	how great,	πόσος	some size/	τοσοῦτος	(as great,	(however	
	how much?	how great,	quantity	so great, so much;	much) as;	great, much) as;	
	pl. how	how much,		pl. so many	pl. (as	pl. (however	
	many?	pl. how			many) as	many) as	
		many					
-010-	ποῖος;	όποῖος,	ποιος	τοιόσδε	οἶος	όπο ῖος	
kind, sort	what kind?	ποῖος	of some kind	τοιοῦτος	(such) as	(such ever) as	
		what kind		such, of this kind			

The indefinite pronouns are enclitic (\rightarrow 24.33-4).

¹ πότερος is accented like interrogative πότερος but nonetheless enclitic, unlike the interrogative.

² In poetry also τόσος, τοῖος.

The System of Correlative Adverbs

8.2 The (cor)relative adverbs are as follows:

	interrogative		indefinite demonstrative		relative		
	direct	indirect			'definite'	'indefinite'	
-ou	ποῦ;	ὄπου, ποῦ	που	αὐτοῦ	(ἐνταῦθα)	ὄπου	
position	where?	where	somewhere,	on the spot, in	οὖ, ἵνα, ἔνθα	(somewhere	
			anywhere	this very place) where	
				ἐν θ άδε	(there)		
				here	where		
				ἐνταῦθα			
				ἐκεῖ			
				there			
-n	πῆ;	ὄπη, πῆ	πη	τῆδε	ñ	ὄπη	
way by	(in) which	(in) which	(in) some	ταύτη	(in the way)	(in some way	
which,	way?	way; how	way,	ἐκείνῃ	in which) in which	
manner	how?		somehow	(in) that way,			
				on that side			
-θεν	πόθεν;	πόθεν,	ποθεν	ἔνθεν, ἐνθένδε	ἔνθεν, ὅθεν	όπόθε ν	
separation	from	όπόθεν	from some	from here	(the place)	(somewhere)	
	where?	from where	place or	ἐντεῦθεν ,	from where	from where	
			other	ἐκεῖθεν			
				from there			
-01	ποῖ;	ὅποι, ποῖ	ποι	ἐν θ άδε	οἷ	ὅποι	
destination	(to) where?	(to) where,	(to)	(to) here	(the place)	(some place)	
	to what	to what	somewhere	ἐνταυθοῖ, ἐνταῦθα	to which	to which	
	end?	end		ἐκεῖσε,			
				κεῖσε, ἐκεῖ			
				(to) there			
-TE	πότε;	όπότε, πότε	ποτε	νῦν	őτε	όπότε	
time when	when?	when	sometime,	now	(the time)	(sometime)	
			once	τότε, ἐνταῦθα	when	when	
				then, on that			
				occasion			
-ως	πῶς;	ὅπως, πῶς	πως	ὧδε	(οὕτως) ώς	ὅπως	
manner	how?	how	somehow	in this way, in	(in such a way	how	
				the following way) as		
				οὕτως			
				ἐκείνως			
				in that way			

The indefinite adverbs are enclitic (\rightarrow 24.33–4).

The relationship between ἐνθένδε/ἐντεῦθεν/ἐκεῖθεν, ὧδε/οὕτως/ἐκείνως, etc., is similar to that between ὅδε/οὖτος/ ἐκεῖνος.

¹ In poetry also ἔνθα.

Numerals

List of Numerals

9.1 The numerals are as follows:

	(one, two, three,)	ordinal adjectives (first, second, third,)
1	εἷς, μία, ἕν	πρῶτος, πρώτη, πρῶτον
2	δύο	δεύτερος, -α, -ον
3	τρεῖς, τρία	τρίτος, -η, -ον
4	τέτταρες, τέτταρα	τέταρτος
5	πέντε	πέμπτος
6	ἕξ	ἕκτος
7	ἑπτά	ἕβδομος
8	ὀ κτώ	ὄγδοος (not contracted)
9	ἐννέα	ἔνατος
10	δέκα	δέκατος
11	ἕνδεκα	ένδέκατος
12	δώδεκα	δωδέκατος
13	τρεῖς/τρία καὶ δέκα	τρίτος καὶ δέκατος
14	τέτταρες/-ρα καὶ δέκα	τέταρτος καὶ δέκατος
15	πεντεκαίδεκα	πέμπτος καὶ δέκατος
16	έκκαίδεκα	ἕκτος καὶ δέκατος
17	έπτακαίδεκα	ἕβδομος καὶ δέκατος
18	όκτωκαίδεκα	ὄγδοος καὶ δέκατος 1
19	έννεακαίδεκα	ἔνατος καὶ δέκατος ¹
20	εἴκοσι(ν)	εἰκοστός
21, etc.	εἷς/μία/ἒν καὶ εἴκοσι, etc.	πρῶτος καὶ εἰκοστός, etc.
30	τριάκοντα	τριακοστός
40	τετταράκοντα	τετταρακοστός
50	πεντήκοντα	πεντηκοστός
60	έξήκοντα	έξηκοστός
70	έβδομήκοντα	έβδομηκοστός
80	όγδοήκοντα	ὀγδοηκοστός
90	ἐνενήκοντα	ἐνενηκοστός
100	ἑ κατόν	έκατοστός
101, etc.	εἷς καὶ ἑκατόν, etc.	πρῶτος καὶ ἑκατοστός, etc.
200	διακόσιοι, -αι, -ἄ	διακοσιοστός

	cardinal numbers (one, two, three,)	ordinal adjectives (first, second, third,)
300	τριακόσιοι	etc.
400	τετρακόσιοι	
500	πεντακόσιοι	
600	έξακόσιοι	
700	έπτακόσιο ι	
800	όκτακόσιο ι	
900	ἐνακόσιοι	
1000	χίλιοι, -αι, -ἄ	χιλιοστός
1001, etc.	είς και χίλιοι, etc.	
2000	δισχίλιοι (lit. 'twice thousand')	
10,000	μύριοι, -αι, -ἄ	μυριοστός
20,000, etc.	δισμύριοι, etc.	

Outside classical Attic, the forms πεντεκαιδέκατος, έκκαιδέκατος, έπτακαιδέκατος, όκτωκαιδέκατος, έννεακαιδέκατος are also used.

Declension of Numerals

9.2 The declension of the **first four cardinal numbers** is as follows:

εἷς one			δύο <i>two</i>	ο τρεῖς three		τέτταρες <i>four</i>		
	masc.	fem.	neut.	m./f./n.	m./f.	n.	m./f.	n.
nom	. εἷς	μία	ἕν	δύο	τρεῖς	τρία	τέτταρες	τέτταρα
gen.	ένός	μιᾶς	ένός	δυοῖν	τριῶν	τριῶν	τεττάρων	τεττάρων
dat.	ένί	μιᾶ	ένί	δυοῖν	τρισί(ν)	τρισί(ν)	τέτταρσι(ν)	τέτταρσι(ν)
acc.	ἕνα	μίαν	ἕν	δύο	τρεῖς	τρία	τέτταρας	τέτταρα

- 9.3 Like $\varepsilon i s$ is declined:
 - οὐδείς, gen. οὐδενός; fem. οὐδεμία, -ᾶς; neut. οὐδέν, οὐδενός no one, nothing, no
 - so too μηδείς, μηδεμία, μηδέν, in constructions where μή can occur (→56).

Unlike εἶς, μία, ἕν, the forms οὐδείς and μηδείς also have plural forms: οὐδένες, οὐδένων, οὐδέσι(ν), οὐδένας (these are infrequent, however). The non-contracted forms οὐδὲ εἶς, οὐδὲ μία, οὐδὲ ἕν are also used, as emphatic variants: not even one.

- 9.4 The numerals ending in -κόσιοι, χίλιοι, etc. and μύριοι, etc. are declined like the plurals of adjectives in -05, $-\bar{\alpha}$, -0ν (\rightarrow 5.1–2).
- 9.5 Other numerals are not declined: e.g. ἑξήκοντα καὶ πέντε νεῶν sixty-five ships (gen. pl. fem.), ὀγδοήκοντα καὶ πέντε ἔτεσι eighty-five years (dat. pl. neut.).

Further Particulars

- 9.6 Complex numbers above 20 may be **ordered** in two ways:
 - in the order units-tens-hundreds-thousands, in which case they must be connected by καί
 (in Herodotus also τε καί);
 - or, more rarely, in the reverse order, in which case they may but need not be connected by καί:

πέντε καὶ εἴκοσι or εἴκοσι (καὶ) πέντε twenty-five

πέντε (τε) καὶ πεντακόσια (neut.) five hundred and five

Also with ordinals: e.g. ἔτει πέμπτω καὶ τετταρακοστῷ in the forty-fifth year.

9.7 Our two-digit numerals ending in 8 or 9 (18, 19, etc.) can also be expressed by means of the participle of δέω lack + δυοῖν and ἑνός/μιᾶς, respectively:

δυοῖν δέοντα εἴκοσιν ἔτη eighteen years (lit. 'twenty years lacking two') μιᾶς δέουσαι τετταράκοντα νῆες thirty-nine ships (lit. 'forty ships lacking one')

Also with ordinals: e.g. ἔτος ένὸς δέον εἰκοστόν the nineteenth year (lit. 'the twentieth year lacking one')

- 9.8 There are also abstract and collective numeral nouns, ending in -άς, -άδος: e.g. ἡ δεκάς decade, ἡ μυριάς (a number of) ten thousand. μυριάς is frequently used to express large numbers: e.g. πέντε καὶ εἴκοσι μυριάδες ἀνδρῶν twenty-five ten thousands of men (= 250,000).
- 9.9 Ancient grammarians made a distinction (in accent) between:
 - μύριοι, -αι, -α ten thousand
 - μυρίοι, -αι, -α innumerable, countless (also singular, e.g. μυρίον ἄχθος an endless burden, etc.)

For the oblique cases, however, rules of accentuation usually render this distinction void (e.g. both have acc. $\mu\nu\rho iou_S$, $\rightarrow 24.8-10$). In such cases, the context (e.g. the presence of another numeral) usually clarifies which meaning is meant: $\tau\rho i\sigma\chi i\lambda iou_S$ καὶ $\mu\nu\rho iou_S$ thirteen thousand, ὑπὲρ $\mu\nu\rho iou_S$ more than ten thousand, ἢ Ὀδυσσέα ἢ $\Sigma i\sigma\nu\rho i$ ἄλλους $\mu\nu\rho iou_S$ Odysseus or Sisyphus or countless others.

- 9.10 Note that Greek counts '**inclusively**' from a certain point of orientation, i.e. that point of orientation is included in the number counted: e.g. τρίτον ἔτος τουτί *two years ago* (lit. 'this is the third year'; for τουτί, →7.18, 29.36).
- 9.11 Fractions are expressed e.g. by ἥμισυς half (declined like ἡδύς, \rightarrow 5.21–2). Some examples:

τάλαντον καὶ ἥμισυ one and a half talents τὸ ἥμισυ τῆς ὅλης μισθώσεως half of the whole rent τὸν ἥμισυν τοῦ χρόνου half of the time (acc.) τὰς ἡμισείας τῶν νεῶν half of the ships (acc.)

Some other expressions: ἡμιτάλαντον half a talent; τριτημόριον one third; τρίτον μέρος ἀνθ' ἡμίσεος one third instead of half; τρίτον ἡμιτάλαντον two and a half talents (lit. 'the third half', i.e. the one between two and three = 2½); Πελοποννήσου τῶν πέντε τὰς δύο μοίρας two fifths of the Peloponnese (lit. 'the two parts of the five of . . .')

9.12 **Multiplication** is expressed by adverbs and adjectives:

adverbs: ἄπαξ once, δίς twice, τρίς three times; all other adverbs are formed with the suffix
 -άκις: τετράκις four times, πεντάκις five times, etc. (cf. the adverb πολλάκις often):

τὰ δὶς πέντε δέκα ἐστίν

two times five equals ten

adjectives: either formed with -πλοῦς, -πλῆ, -πλοῦν -fold: ἀπλοῦς single, simple, διπλοῦς twofold, double, etc. (for the declension, →5.5-6); or with -πλάσιος, -ᾱ, -ον: διπλάσιος double, twice as great/much/many, τριπλάσιος triple, three times as great/much/many, etc.

9.13 The Greeks usually wrote out numbers in full. In manuscripts and inscriptions, two sign-systems were in use:

- (In inscriptions of the classical period:) a vertical stroke I for one unit, and the initial letter of words designating certain numbers, e.g. Γ = πέντε = 5, Δ = δέκα = 10, ΔI = 11, [\$\mathbb{P}\$] = πεντάκις δέκα = 50, H = έκατόν (hεκατόν) = 100, X = χίλιοι = 1000, etc. This system was used especially to indicate value, weight and measure.
- (In later inscriptions, papyri and manuscripts:) the letters of the alphabet as 'numbers' in a decimal system; these were often modified by an oblique stroke above and to the right of the letter for numbers up to and including 999:

α'	β′	γ'	δ′	ε'	ح' or ۴'	ζ′	η'	θ'
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ι'	κ'	λ'	μ′	ν'	ξ'	o′	π'	Q'
10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
ρ'	σ'	τ'	υ′	φ′	x'	Ψ'	ω′	ক্ '
100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900

(The letters ς (stigma), ς (digamma/wau), ς (koppa), and \gt (sampi), which were no longer in common use, were introduced into this numeral system to supplement the standardized 24, insufficient by themselves to write all numbers up to 999.)

The same letters were used with a stroke below and to the left of the letter for numbers starting with 1000: $\alpha = 1000$, $\beta = 2000$, etc.

Complex numbers are formed by combining the letter symbols. Only the rightmost letter (and the leftmost with numbers over 1000) have the stroke:

```
τιθ' = 319 (any ordering was possible: τθι', θτι', etc.)

ατιθ' = 1319
```

Until Hellenistic times, Greek had no letter-symbol for 0 ('zero'; the Hellenistic symbol was ¬). The corresponding item in written form was οὐδέν.

The Dual: Nominal Forms

Endings

10.1 Nominal forms of the dual number (referring to groups of exactly two) are formed in exactly the same manner as the forms treated in the preceding chapters. The only respect in which they differ is their **endings**.

The dual endings for the different declensions are as follows:

	first declension	second declension	third declension
nom.	-ā	-ω	-8
gen. dat.	-αιν	-017	-01 <i>v</i>
dat.	-αιν	-017	-01 <i>v</i>
acc.	-ā	-ω	-ε
voc.	= nom.	= nom.	= nom.

Forms

The Article

10.2 The forms of the dual article are as follows:

	ό, ἡ, τό masc./fem./neut.
nom.	τώ
gen.	τοῖν
dat.	τοῖν
acc.	τώ

Note 1: Occasionally the feminine dual article ταῖν is found, e.g. ταῖν χειροῖν the two hands (gen./dat.). The nom./acc. form τά is not frequently found in Attic; modern editions often correct it to τώ, although this may not be justified.

Nouns and Adjectives/Participles

10.3 Examples of **first-declension** forms:

δυοῖν χώραιν two lands

μόνα νώ λελειμμένα the two of us left all alone (for νώ, see below)

10.4 Examples of **second-declension** forms:

τώ ἀνθρώπω, τοῖν ἀνθρώποιν the two men

δυοῖν καλοῖν two good things (neut.)

τώ παρθένω, τοῖν παρθένοιν the two maidens

τώ θεώ, τοῖν θεοῖν the two goddesses (Demeter and Korê)

10.5 Examples of **third-declension** forms:

τώ χεῖρε, τοῖν χειροῖν the two hands ἄμφω τὼ πόλεε/τὼ πόλει, ἀμφοῖν τοῖν both states

πολέοιν

τώ φύλακε κωλύοντε the two guards, preventing τοῖν παρόντοιν πραγμάτοιν the two present problems

δυοῖν <u>νεοῖν</u> ἐναντίαιν περιπλέοντες sailing around with two ships in different

directions

Pronouns

10.6 The **personal pronouns** of the first and second person have separate dual forms:

	personal pronouns			
	first person	second person		
	the two of us	the two of you		
nom.	νώ	σφώ		
gen.	νῷν	σφῷν		
dat.	νῷν	σφῷν		
acc.	νώ	σφώ		

10.7 Examples of other pronouns:

- demonstrative pronouns:

τούτοιν τοῖν διαθήκαιν these two wills ἐκείνω τὼ λόγω those two arguments

<u>τωδὶ</u> τὼ τρίποδε these two tripods here (for -i, \rightarrow 7.18)

10.7 Forms 107

(1) θερμὸν καὶ ψυχρὸν ἤ τινε δύο <u>τοιούτω</u> (Pl. Soph. 243d) warm and cold, or any such pair of things

- possessive adjectives:

τοῖν <u>ὑμετέροιν</u> πολίταιν your two fellow citizens ἀφμὶ τοῖν σοῖν δυσμόροιν παίδοιν about your two unhappy sons

- relative pronouns:
- (2) τὼ μὲν οὖν ἀδελφὼ αὐτῷ ἄ περ ἐγενέσθην ἄμφω ἄπαιδε ἐτελευτησάτην.
 (Isae. 6.6)
 The two brothers that were born to him both died childless. For the dual were

The two brothers that were born to him both died childless. For the dual verb forms ἐγενέσθην and ἐτελευτησάτην, $\rightarrow 21$.

(3) δύ' . . . τώδ' ἄνδρ' ἔλεξας, $\underline{οἶν}$ ἐγὼ | ἥκιστ' ἄν ἠθέλησ' ὀλωλότοιν κλύειν. (Soph. Phil. 426–7)

You have named two men there of whose death I would have least wanted to hear.

- indefinite/interrogative pronouns:
- (4) ΣΩ. ἐστὸν δή τινε δύο . . . :: ΠΡ. πῶς τούτω καὶ τίνε λέγεις; (Pl. Phlb. 53d) (Socrates:) There are two things. :: (Protarchus:) What do you mean? What are these two? For the dual verb form ἐστόν, →21.
- αὐτός, ἄλλος, ἕτερος, ἀλλήλων, etc.

ἀλλήλοιν each other

έκατέρω τώ γένει each of the two races

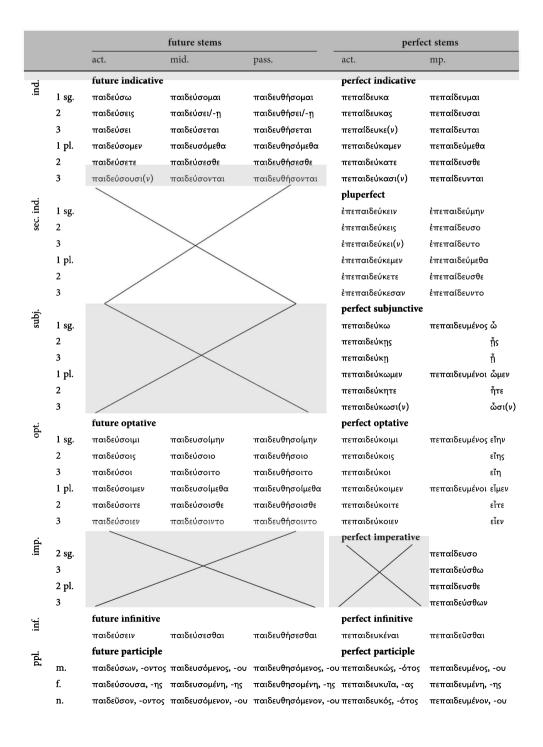
(5) δύο γένη τινὲ αὐτώ, τῶν μὲν τριῶν ἄλλω (Pl. Soph. 254e) two certain classes by themselves, separate from the other three

Note 1: Feminine nom./acc. forms of these pronouns in $-\bar{\alpha}$ (e.g. $\tau \dot{\alpha} \delta \epsilon$, $\tau \alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \bar{\alpha}$, etc.) are not normally found in classical Greek. The gen./dat. forms in $-\alpha \iota \nu$ do occur (particularly in Sophocles), but are rare.

Introduction to Verb Forms

Summary of the Greek Verbal System

		present s	tem		aorist stems	
		act.	mp.	act.	mid.	pass.
-ji		present indicative	:			
ind.	1 sg.	παιδεύω	παιδεύομαι			
	2	παιδεύεις	παιδεύει/-η			
	3	παιδεύει	παιδεύεται		\times	
	1 pl.	παιδεύομεν	παιδευόμεθα		/	
	2	παιδεύετε	παιδεύεσθε			
	3	παιδεύουσι(ν)	παιδεύονται			
-i		imperfect		aorist indicative		
sec. ind	1 sg.	ἐπαίδευον	ἐπαιδευόμην	ἐπαίδευσα	ἐπαιδευσάμην	ἐπαιδεύθην
sec	2	ἐπαίδευες	ἐπαιδεύου	ἐπαίδευσας	ἐπαιδεύσω	ἐπαιδεύθης
	3	ἐπαίδευε(ν)	ἐπαιδεύετο	ἐπαίδευσε(ν)	ἐπαιδεύσατο	ἐπαιδεύθη
	1 pl.	ἐπαιδεύομεν	ἐπαιδευόμεθα	ἐπαιδεύσαμεν	ἐπαιδευσάμεθα	ἐπαιδεύθημεν
	2	ἐπαιδεύετε	ἐπαιδεύεσθε	ἐπαιδεύσατε	ἐπαιδεύσασθε	ἐπαιδεύθητε
	3	ἐπαίδευον	ἐπαιδεύοντο	ἐπαίδευσαν	ἐπαιδεύσαντο	ἐπαιδεύθησα <i>ν</i>
5		present subjuncti	ve	aorist subjunctive		
subj	1 sg.	παιδεύω	παιδεύωμαι	παιδεύσω	παιδεύσωμαι	παιδευθῶ
	2	παιδεύης	παιδεύῃ	παιδεύσης	παιδεύση	παιδευ θ ῆς
	3	παιδεύῃ	παιδεύηται	παιδεύση	παιδεύσηται	παιδευ θ ῆ
	1 pl.	παιδεύωμεν	παιδευώμεθα	παιδεύσωμεν	παιδευσώμεθα	παιδευθῶμεν
	2	παιδεύητε	παιδεύησ $θ$ ε	παιδεύσητε	παιδεύσησθε	παιδευθῆτε
	3	παιδεύωσι(ν)	παιδεύωνται	παιδεύσωσι(ν)	παιδεύσωνται	παιδευθῶσι(ν)
opt.		present optative		aorist optative		
0	1 sg.	παιδεύοιμι	παιδευοίμην	παιδεύσαιμι	παιδευσαίμην	παιδευθείην
	2	παιδεύοις	παιδεύοιο	παιδεύσειας	παιδεύσαιο	παιδευθείης
	3	παιδεύοι	παιδεύοιτο	παιδεύσειε(ν)	παιδεύσαιτο	παιδευθείη
	1 pl.	παιδεύοιμεν	παιδευοίμεθα	παιδεύσαιμεν	παιδευσαίμεθα	παιδευθεῖμεν
	2	παιδεύοιτε	παιδεύοισθε	παιδεύσαιτε	παιδεύσαισθε	παιδευθεῖτε
	3	παιδεύοιεν	παιδεύοιντο	παιδεύσειαν	παιδεύσαιντο	παιδευθεῖεν
mp.		present imperativ	re	aorist imperative		
Ë	2 sg.	παίδευε	παιδεύου	παίδευσον	παίδευσαι	παιδεύθητι
	3	παιδευέτω	παιδευέσθω	παιδευσάτω	παιδευσάσθω	παιδευθήτω
	2 pl.	παιδεύετε	παιδεύεσθε	παιδεύσατε	παιδεύσασθε	παιδεύθητε
	3	παιδευόντων	παιδευέσθων	παιδευσάντων	παιδευσάσθων	παιδευθέντων
inf.		present infinitive		aorist infinitive		
		παιδεύειν	παιδεύεσθαι	παιδεῦσαι	παιδεύσασθαι	παιδευθῆναι
ppl.		present participle	:	aorist participle		
Б	m.	παιδεύων, -οντος	παιδευόμενος, -ου	παιδεύσας, -αντος	παιδευσάμενος, -ου	παιδευθείς, -έντος
	f.	παιδεύουσα, -ης	παιδευομένη, -ης	παιδεύσασα, -ης	παιδευσαμένη, -ης	παιδευθεῖσα, -είσης
	n.	παιδεῦον, -οντος	παιδευόμενον, -ου	παιδεῦσαν, -αντος	παιδευσάμενον, -ου	παιδευθέν, -έντος



Note 1: For the forms of the future perfect, $\rightarrow 20$. For dual verb forms, $\rightarrow 21$. For the remaining case forms of participles, $\rightarrow 5.3-4$, 5.17-20. For the formation of verbal adjectives (in $-\tau \acute{o}\varsigma$ or $-\tau \acute{e}\varsigma$), $\rightarrow 23.34$, 23.29.

Basic Categories and Elements

Categories of the Verb

Finite versus Non-finite Verb Forms

Greek verb forms are either **finite** (indicatives, subjunctives, optatives, imperatives) or **non-finite** (infinitives, participles, and verbal adjectives in -τός or -τέος). Finite verbs have a personal ending (\rightarrow 11.15) and express person, number and mood; non-finite verbs do not have a personal ending and do not express person or mood.

Categories Pertaining to All Verb Forms: Tense-Aspect and Voice

- 11.2 All Greek verb forms, i.e. both finite and non-finite forms (except verbal adjectives in -τός or -τέος), are marked for the categories of **tense-aspect** and **voice**.
- 11.3 **Tense-aspect**: Greek verb forms fall into four overarching systems, depending on which stem of the verb is used (→11.12); these four systems differ primarily in their expression of aspect, although in the case of the future stems tense is the more important variable (these terms are treated in detail in 33):
 - the present-stem system, covering the present indicative (or primary present indicative), the imperfect (or secondary present indicative), the present subjunctive, the present optative, the present imperative, the present infinitive, and the present participle;
 - the aorist-stem system, covering the aorist indicative, the aorist subjunctive, the aorist optative, the aorist imperative, the aorist infinitive, and the aorist participle;
 - the **future-stem system**, covering the future indicative, the future optative, the future infinitive, and the future participle;
 - and the perfect-stem system, covering the perfect indicative (or primary perfect indicative), the pluperfect (or secondary perfect indicative), the perfect subjunctive, the perfect optative, the perfect imperative, the perfect infinitive, and the perfect participle.

Within these systems, **tense** is expressed by the indicatives, and by all forms of the future-stem system. **Aspect** is expressed by all forms except future-stem forms.

Note 1: For the rare future perfect (technically a fifth tense-aspect system), $\rightarrow 17$ and 33.46–7.

- 11.4 **Voice**: all Greek verb forms also express voice, treated in detail in 35. A basic two-way distinction between different kinds of forms may be made:
 - active forms;
 - and **middle-passive** forms.

In the aorist-stem system and in the future-stem system, further sub-divisions usually exist between different kinds of middle-passive forms, most often between **middle** forms and **passive** forms.

Note 1: In the present-stem and perfect-stem systems, a single set of forms is thus used for middle-passive voice (covering the entire range of meanings expressed by this voice). Present forms will be identified below either as 'active' (act.) or as 'middle-passive' (mp.). The three-way distinction between 'active', 'middle' (mid.) and 'passive' (pass.) forms in the aorist-stem and future-stem systems is traditional, but $\rightarrow 35.8-29$ for more accurate distinctions.

Categories Pertaining Only to Finite Verb Forms

- 11.5 All finite verb forms, in addition to belonging to one of the four tense-aspect systems and being marked for voice, are also marked for the categories of **person** and **number**, and the category of **mood**.
- 11.6 Finite verb forms express one of the following **persons**:
 - first person ('I'/'we');
 - second person ('you');
 - or **third person**('he'/'she'/'it', 'they').

And they express one of the following **numbers**:

- singular ('I', 'you', 'he'/'she'/'it');
- plural ('we', 'you', 'they');
- in addition, Greek has a **dual number**, occurring only in the second and third person ('you two', 'the two of them', \rightarrow 21).
- Finite verb forms also express one of the following **moods** (for the uses and meanings of these moods, \rightarrow 34):
 - indicative; within this category a distinction may be made between primary indicatives (expressing present or future tense) and secondary indicatives (usually expressing past tense); both types of indicative occur in the present-stem system (present indicative and imperfect) and the perfect-stem system (perfect indicative and pluperfect); the aorist-stem system has only a secondary indicative; the future-stem system has only a primary indicative;
 - subjunctive;
 - optative;
 - imperative.

- 11.8 Some examples of finite verb forms and the categories they express:
 - παιδεύεις: 2 sg. pres. act. ind.: *you are educating* a part of the present-stem system; expresses second person, singular number, and indicative mood (primary indicating present tense), aspect and active voice;
 - παιδευώμεθα: 1 pl. pres. mp. subj.: *let us be educated* a part of the present-stem system; expresses first person, plural number, and subjunctive mood, as well as aspect and middle-passive voice;
 - ἐπαίδευσε(ν): 3 sg. aor. act. ind.: he educated a part of the aorist-stem system; expresses third person, singular number, and indicative mood (secondary normally indicating past tense), aspect and active voice;
 - παιδεύθητε: 2 pl. aor. imp. pass.: be educated! a part of the aorist-stem system; expresses second person, plural number, and imperative mood, as well as aspect and passive voice;
 - ἐπεπαιδεύκεσαν: 3 pl. plpf. (= sec. pf. ind.) act.: they had educated a part of the perfect-stem system; expresses third person, plural number, and indicative mood (secondary normally indicating past tense), aspect and active voice.

Categories Pertaining to Non-finite Verb Forms

- 11.9 Non-finite verb forms are marked for the following categories:
 - Infinitives only express tense-aspect and voice.
 - **Participles** express tense-aspect and voice, and, like adjectives, are also marked for the categories of case, number and gender $(\rightarrow 2.1)$.
 - **Verbal adjectives** are only marked for the categories of case, number and gender.
- 11.10 Some examples of non-finite verb forms and the categories they express:
 - παιδευθῆναι: aor. pass. inf. to be/have been educated an infinitive, part of the aorist-stem system; expresses aspect and passive voice;
 - παιδεύουσα: nom. pl. fem., pres. act. ppl.: *educating* a participle, part of the present-stem system; expresses nominative case, plural number, feminine gender, as well as aspect and active voice;
 - παιδευτέος: nom. sg. masc. *X must be educated* a verbal adjective (a gerundive, →37.2); expresses nominative case, singular number, and masculine gender.

Morphological Building Blocks: Stems, Endings, and Other Markings Verb Stems and Tense-Aspect Stems

11.11 All forms of a certain verb share a **verb stem**, which identifies the forms as deriving from that particular verb: for example, in any form of the verb παιδεύω (e.g.

ἐπαίδευσε(ν), ἐπεπαιδεύκεσαν, παιδεύουσαι), the verb stem παιδευ- identifies the form as belonging to that particular verb (and thus expressing in some way the meaning *educate*).

Many Greek verb stems occur in different variants due to ablaut vowel gradation (\rightarrow 1.51–6): for example, the verb stem of the verb $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$ leave occurs as either $\lambda \epsilon i \pi$ (e-grade), $\lambda i \pi$ - (zero-grade) or $\lambda o i \pi$ - (o-grade). Different tense-aspect stems of such verbs differ in the vowel-grade they show.

A particular common type of variation in verb stems (originally also due to ablaut, but greatly regularized in the language) is that between long and short variants of the final vowel of a stem: $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$ (or after ϵ , ι , ρ : $\bar{\alpha}/\bar{\alpha}$, $\rightarrow 1.57$), η/ϵ , ω/o : for example, the verb stem of $\tau \iota \mu \dot{\alpha} \omega$ honour occurs as either $\tau \iota \mu \ddot{\alpha}$ - or $\tau \iota \mu \eta$ -, the verb stem of $\pi o \iota \dot{\epsilon} \omega$ make, do as either $\pi o \iota \epsilon$ - or $\pi o \iota \eta$ -, and the verb stem of $\delta \eta \lambda \dot{\omega} \omega$ make clear as either $\delta \eta \lambda o$ - or $\delta \eta \lambda \omega$ -.

For verbs which have variant verb stems, all variants are given below, where required.

11.12 Through the selection of one of the variants of a verb stem and/or the addition of various suffixes, a **tense-aspect stem** is formed. The tense-aspect stem identifies the form as having a particular combination of tense-aspect and voice – though many tense-aspect stems are used for more than one voice.

Seven different kinds of tense-aspect stems may be distinguished; these fall into the four overarching systems described above (\rightarrow 11.3):

- present tense-aspect: **present stems** (act./mp.);
- aorist tense-aspect: **aorist stems** (act./mid.) and **aorist passive stems** ($\theta\eta$ -/ η -aor. stems);
- future tense-aspect: future stems (act./mid.) and future passive stems;
- perfect tense-aspect: perfect stems (act.) and perfect middle-passive stems.

Note 1: Two additional (but rare) tense-aspect stems are the future perfect stem (act.) and the future perfect middle-passive stem. For these, $\rightarrow 17$.

Some examples:

πεπαιδευκέναι to have educated: the perfect stem πεπαιδευκ- (based on the verb stem παιδευ-) identifies the form as deriving from the verb παιδεύω, belonging to the perfect tense-aspect system, and expressing active voice.

ἐ<u>παιδεύσα</u>μεν we educated: the aorist stem παιδευσ(α)- (based on the verb stem παιδευ-) identifies the form as deriving from the verb παιδεύω, and belonging to the aorist tense-aspect system.

ἔ<u>λιπε</u>(ν) (s)he left: the aorist stem λῖπ- (one of the variants of the verb stem λειπ-/λοιπ-/<u>λῖπ-</u>) identifies the form as deriving from the verb λείπω, and belonging to the aorist tense-aspect system.

<u>λελοιπ</u>ότες *having left*: the perfect stem λελοιπ- (based on one of the variants of the verb stem $\lambda \epsilon i \pi - / \lambda o i \pi - / \lambda i \pi$ -) identifies the form as deriving from $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$, belonging to the perfect tense-aspect system, and expressing active voice.

The mechanisms involved in forming tense-aspect stems from verb stems are detailed in the individual chapters on the present (\rightarrow 12), aorist (\rightarrow 13–14), future (\rightarrow 15–16), and perfect (\rightarrow 17–19) stems.

- 11.13 In a few cases, entirely different verb stems are used to form different tense-aspect stems of 'the same' verb: for instance, with the verb αίρέω take, the verb stem αίρη-/αίρε- is used in the present, aorist passive (ἡρέθην), future (αίρήσω), perfect and perfect middle-passive (ἡρηκα/ἤρημαι), but not in the aorist active and middle, where the verb stem ἑλ- is used (e.g. 1 sg. act. ind. εἶλον). Such verbs are called **suppletive verbs**.
- 11.14 Verbs lacking certain tense-aspect stems altogether are called **defective verbs**: for instance, the verb εἴωθα be accustomed lacks present-stem forms in classical Greek (εἴωθα is a perfect, the present ἔθω occurs in Homer), and has no forms of other stems (aorist or future) at all.

Endings

- 11.15 Every verb form also has an **ending**, which provides the information required to identify the form as either finite or non-finite, and usually its voice.
 - For finite verbs, the ending ('personal ending') also expresses person, number and sometimes (in the imperative) mood.
 - Infinitive endings merely express voice.
 - The endings of participles and verbal adjectives express case, number and gender.

Some examples:

ἐπαιδευό<u>μην</u>: the personal ending -μην identifies the form as first person singular, middle-passive.

γνῶ<u>θι</u>: the personal ending -θι identifies the form as a second person singular imperative active.

πεπαιδεῦ<u>σθαι</u>: the ending $-\sigma\theta\alpha$ ι identifies the form as a middle-passive infinitive. πεπαιδευμέν<u>α</u>: the ending -(μεν)α identifies the form as a nominative or accusative plural neuter participle.

The endings are treated more fully below, $\rightarrow 11.20-34$.

Thematic Vowels, Optative Suffixes, Participle Suffixes

- 11.16 Some elements appear between the stem and the ending:
 - Many Greek verb forms include a thematic vowel (or: 'theme vowel'), either o or ε, standing between the stem and the ending, e.g. παιδεύομεν, ἐπαιδεύεσθε, λιπόντων; for details, →11.18-19 below.

- Subjunctives are identified by a long thematic vowel, either ω or η, e.g.
 παιδεύησθε, λίπωμεν.
- Optatives are identified by the suffix -1- or in some cases -1η-, directly preceding the ending. The 1 always forms a diphthong (always 'short', →1.70 n.1) with either a preceding thematic vowel, e.g. παιδεύομι, παιδεύομεν, or a preceding stem vowel, e.g. παιδευθεῖμεν, τιθείην, ἱσταίμεθα.
- Active participles and aorist passive participles are identified by the suffix -ντ-, e.g. παιδεύοντος, παιδευθέντων; in several cases ντ is not visible in the form, e.g. παιδεύουσα (<*παιδεύοντ-yα, →1.77, 1.68): for the full declensions, →5.17-18. However, perfect active participles are identified by -οτ- (masc., neut.) or -υι- (fem.) e.g. λελοιπότας, πεπαιδευκυῖα: for the full declension, →5.19-20.
- All middle-passive participles except aorist passive participles are identified by the suffix -μεν-, e.g. πεπαιδευμένον, λιπόμενα.

Augments and Prepositional Prefixes

11.17 Finally, some elements **precede the stem**:

- Secondary indicatives (imperfect, aorist, pluperfect) include an augment, which takes the form of an ε directly preceding the stem (e.g. ἔλιπον), or, if the verb stem begins with a vowel, that vowel is lengthened (e.g. ώμολόγουν). For details, →11.35-42.
- Many compound verbs begin with a prepositional **prefix**, an original preposition integrated into the verb form, e.g. ἐκπαιδεύω, ἀπολείπω (→23.51). These prefixes are always the first element of a form, preceding even augments and reduplications (→11.51-8).

A final consonant of such prefixes often assimilates to the following sound: e.g. $\underline{\grave{\epsilon}\lambda}$ -λείπει but $\underline{\grave{\epsilon}\nu}$ -έλιπε (\rightarrow 11.54). If the prefix ends in a vowel, this vowel usually drops out before another vowel (elision, \rightarrow 1.35): e.g. $\underline{\grave{\alpha}\pi o}$ -βαίνει but $\underline{\grave{\alpha}\pi}$ -έρχεται, $\underline{\grave{\alpha}\phi}$ -ίησι.

Note 1: For reduplications (which are themselves part of the perfect stem), $\rightarrow 11.43-50$ below.

Thematic and Athematic Conjugations

- 11.18 Greek verb forms are either **thematic** or **athematic**. Thematic forms include a thematic vowel (o/ϵ , subj. ω/η) between the stem and the ending. Athematic forms do not include a thematic vowel: thus in athematic forms endings are attached immediately to the stem (only optative or participle suffixes can stand in between):
 - **Thematic conjugations**: present-stem forms of -ω verbs, the present optative of -νυμι verbs, some imperfects of -μι verbs, aorist forms of the 'thematic' type, all

future and future perfect forms, nearly all perfect active optatives. Moreover, as subjunctives are identified by a long thematic vowel (η/ω) , *all* subjunctives are thematic.

- **Athematic conjugations**: present-stem forms of -μι verbs (except subjunctives, the optative of -νυμι verbs and some imperfects), all aorists of the 'sigmatic' and 'root' types (except subjunctives), all aorist passive forms (except subjunctives), all perfect forms (except subjunctives and active optatives).

Some examples with the verb δείκνυμι show:

δείκνυ-σι(ν): 3 sg. pres. act. ind., athematic: the ending -σι(ν) is added immediately to the present stem δεικνυ-;

δεικνύ-<u>ο</u>1-μεν: 1 pl. pres. act. opt., thematic: a thematic vowel and optative 1 (merged as diphthong o1) stand between the present stem and the ending -μεν;

δείξ- $\underline{\epsilon}$ -τε: 2 pl. fut. act. ind., thematic: a thematic vowel stands between the future stem δειξ- and the ending -τε;

δέδεικ-ται: 3 sg. pf. mp. ind., athematic: the ending -ται follows directly on the perfect stem δεδεικ-.

Note 1: It is misleading to call verbs as a whole 'thematic' or 'athematic' – for example, future verb forms (no matter from what verb) are always thematic; perfect middle-passive forms are always athematic. It is only in the present and in the aorist that a significant distinction exists between verbs with thematic conjugations and those with athematic conjugations (for the present: between $-\omega$ verbs and $-\mu$ 1 verbs).

- 11.19 Which thematic vowel $(\varepsilon/\eta \text{ or } o/\omega)$ is used depends on the sound following it:
 - o/ω is used before μ or ν, and in the first person singular ending -ω: e.g.
 παιδεύω, παιδεύομεν, παιδευόντων, παιδεύωμαι, etc.
 - o is used before the optative suffix -1-/-1η- (so in all thematic optatives), forming a diphthong with the following 1: e.g. παιδεύοις, παιδεύοισθε, πεπαιδεύκοι, etc.
 - in all other cases, ε/η is used: e.g. παιδεύετε, παιδεύησθε, παίδευε, etc.

Note 1: With the exception of optatives, the division of thematic vowels among persons is normally 1 sg. 0, 2 sg. ϵ , 3 sg. ϵ ; 1 pl. 0, 2 pl. ϵ , 3 pl. 0. This 'rule' is, however, a result of the rules given above, and there are further exceptions: note e.g. the difference between 3 pl. pres. act. imp. $\pi\alpha\delta\epsilon\nu\underline{\acute{e}}\tau\omega\nu$ (preceding ν) and its middle-passive equivalent $\pi\alpha\delta\epsilon\nu\underline{\acute{e}}\sigma\theta\omega\nu$ (also 3 pl., but preceding σ).

Endings

Personal Endings

11.20 The **personal endings** of finite verb forms are either active or middle-passive, and either primary or secondary (except for imperatives):

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Active endings are used for all active forms, and for aorist passive forms.
 Middle-passive endings are used for all middle and passive forms, apart from aorist passive forms.

- Primary endings are used for all indicatives referring to the present or future ('primary indicatives'), for all subjunctives, and for a few optatives. Secondary endings are used for all indicatives referring to the past (those indicatives that have an augment, 'secondary indicatives'), and for nearly all optatives. Imperatives have their own set of separate endings.
- 11.21 The most common forms of these endings are set out in the tables below, with examples per person/number.

Tables of Endings

11.22 First person singular:

	active			middle-passive		
1	primary	secondary	primary	secondary		
-ω (them.)	-μĭ (athem.)	-ν	-μαι	-μην		

Includes a thematic vowel (ending and thematic vowel have inextricably fused).

Examples:

active, primary: e.g. pres. ind. π αιδεύ $\underline{\omega}$, τιμ $\widetilde{\omega}$ (<*-ά $\underline{\omega}$), δείκνυ $\underline{\mu}$ ι, εἰ $\underline{\mu}$ ί; secondary: impf. ἐπαίδευο $\underline{\nu}$, ἐδείκνυ $\underline{\nu}$, pres. opt. ποιοίη $\underline{\nu}$, aor. pass. ἐπαιδεύθη $\underline{\nu}$

middle-passive, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύο<u>μαι</u>, δείκνυ<u>μαι</u>, δύνα<u>μαι</u>; pf. ind. πεπαίδευ<u>μαι</u>; secondary: impf. ἐπαιδευό<u>μην</u>, plpf. ἐπεπαιδεύ<u>μην</u>, pres. opt. παιδευοίμην

11.23 Second person singular:

	active			middle-passive		
	P	rimary	secondary	primary	secondary	
-εις	(them.)	- s ² (athem.)	- s ²	-σαι ³	-σο ³	

¹ Includes a thematic vowel (ending and thematic vowel have inextricably fused).

Primary ending originally -σĭ (still 'visible' in pres. ind. εῖ you are (<*ἐσ-σ಼i)); the primary/secondary ending -θα is also sometimes found (e.g. pf. ind. οἶσθα; impf. ἦσθα).

³ The σ in these endings has usually disappeared between vowels (\rightarrow 1.83); see the examples below.

Examples:

active, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύ<u>εις</u>, τιμᾶς (<*-ά<u>εις</u>), δείκνυς, τίθης; impf. ἐπαίδευες, ἐδείκνυς, aor. ind. ἐπαίδευσας, pres. opt. παιδεύοις, aor. pass. ἐπαιδεύθης

middle-passive, primary: e.g. pres. ind. δείκνυ<u>σαι</u>, παιδεύη (<*-ε<u>σαι</u>), pf. ind. πεπαίδευ<u>σαι</u>; secondary: impf. ἐδείκνυ<u>σο</u>, ἐπαιδεύου (<*-ε<u>σο</u>), aor. ind. ἐπαιδεύσω (<*-σασο), plpf. ἐπεπαίδευσο, pres. opt. παιδεύοιο (<*-οισο)

11.24 Third person singular:

	active			middle-passive	
pı	rimary	secondary	primary	secondary	
-ει (them.)	-σ $\tilde{\iota}(v)^2$ (athem.)	no ending	-ται	-то	

¹ Includes a thematic vowel (ending and thematic vowel have inextricably fused).

Examples:

active, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύ<u>ει</u>, τιμᾶ (<*-ά<u>ει</u>), δείκνυ<u>σι</u>(ν), τίθη<u>σι</u>(ν); secondary: impf. ἐπαίδευε(ν) (no ending; for movable ν, \rightarrow 1.39), ἐδείκνυ (no ending), pres. opt. παιδεύοι (no ending), aor. pass. ἐπαιδεύθη (no ending)

middle-passive, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύε<u>ται</u>, δείκνυ<u>ται</u>, pf. ind. πεπαίδευ<u>ται</u>; secondary: impf. ἐπαιδεύε<u>το</u>, ἐδείκνυ<u>το</u>, aor. ind. ἐπαιδεύσα<u>το</u>, plpf. ἐπεπαίδευ<u>το</u>, pres. opt. παιδεύοι<u>το</u>

11.25 First person plural:

	active	middle-passive		
primary	secondary	primary	secondary	
-μεν	-μεν	-μεθἄ	-μεθἄ	

^l In poetry, especially in lyric, sometimes -μεσθά.

Examples:

active, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύο<u>μεν</u>, τιμᾶ<u>μεν</u>, δείκνυ<u>μεν</u>, ἐσ<u>μέν</u>; secondary: impf. ἐπαιδεύο<u>μεν</u>, ἐδείκνυ<u>μεν</u>, pres. opt. παιδεύοι<u>μεν</u>, aor. pass. ἐπαιδεύθη<u>μεν</u> middle-passive, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδευόμε<u>θα</u>, δεικνύ<u>μεθα</u>, pf. ind. πεπαιδεύ<u>μεθα</u>; secondary: impf. ἐπαιδευό<u>μεθα</u>, ἐδεικνύ<u>μεθα</u>, aor. ind. ἐπαιδευσά<u>μεθα</u>, plpf. ἐπεπαιδεύ<u>μεθα</u>, pres. opt. παιδευοί<u>μεθα</u>

² Originally -τἴ(ν) (still visible in pres. ind. ἐστί(ν)).

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11.26 Second person plural:

	active	n	middle-passive			
primary secondary		primary	secondary			
-тε	-τε	-σθε	-σθε			

Examples:

active, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύε<u>τε</u>, τιμ<u>ατε</u>, δείκνυ<u>τε</u>, ἐσ<u>τέ</u>; secondary: impf. ἐπαιδεύετε, ἐδείκνυτε, pres. opt. παιδεύοιτε, aor. pass. ἐπαιδεύθητε

middle-passive, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύε<u>σθε,</u> δείκνυ<u>σθε,</u> pf. ind. πεπαίδευ<u>σθε;</u> secondary: impf. ἐπαιδεύε<u>σθε,</u> ἐδείκνυ<u>σθε,</u> aor. ind. ἐπαιδεύσα<u>σθε,</u> plpf. ἐπεπαίδευσθε, pres. opt. παιδεύοισθε

11.27 Third person plural:

_		active		midd	lle-passive
	primary		secondary	primary	secondary
•	-[ν] σ ἴ(ν) (them.)	- ασ ῖ(ν) (athem.)	-ν, -σαν or -εν ²	-νται	-νто

The first ν in this ending has disappeared, resulting in compensatory lengthening (\rightarrow 1.68–9) of the preceding vowel; see the examples below.

Examples:

active, primary: e.g. pres. ind. π αιδεύου $\underline{\sigma}_1(v)$ (<*-ον $\underline{\sigma}_1(v)$), τιμῶ $\underline{\sigma}_1(v)$ (<*-άον $\underline{\sigma}_1(v)$), δεικνύ $\underline{\alpha}\underline{\sigma}_1(v)$; secondary: impf. ἐπαίδευον, aor. ind. ἐπαίδευσαν; impf. ἐδείκνυ $\underline{\sigma}\underline{\sigma}$ ν, aor. pass. ἐπαιδεύθη $\underline{\sigma}\underline{\sigma}\underline{v}$; pres. opt. $\underline{\pi}\underline{\sigma}_1$ δεύοι $\underline{v}\underline{v}$

middle-passive, primary: e.g. pres. ind. παιδεύο<u>νται</u>, δείκνυ<u>νται</u>, pf. ind. πεπαίδευ<u>νται</u>; secondary: impf. ἐπαιδεύο<u>ντο</u>, ἐδείκνυ<u>ντο</u>, aor. ind. ἐπαιδεύσα<u>ντο</u>, plpf. ἐπεπαίδευ<u>ντο</u>, pres. opt. παιδεύοι<u>ντο</u>

Subjunctives

As noted above, all **subjunctives** are thematic (with a long thematic vowel), and all have primary endings: thus all subjunctives are formed by adding -ω, -ηs, -η, -ωμεν, -ητε, -ωσῖ(ν) (act.) or -ωμαι, -η, -ηται, -ώμεθᾶ, -ησθε, -ωνται (mp.) to the stem, no matter which stem is concerned.

Note 1: 2 sg. mp. - η is contracted from - $\eta\sigma\alpha$ 1 (see on - $\sigma\alpha$ 1 above, \rightarrow 11.23).

² -εν occurs only in the optative.

Examples:

active: e.g. pres. παιδεύω, τιμᾶς (<*-άης), δηλῶτε (<*-όητε), δεικνύη, aor. παιδεύσωμεν, βάλητε, aor. pass. παιδευθῶσι(ν) (<-έωσι(ν), <*-ήωσι(ν), \rightarrow 1.71) middle-passive: e.g. pres. παιδεύη, δεικνύωνται, aor. παιδεύσωμαι, θώμεθα (<θεώμεθα <*θηώμεθα, \rightarrow 1.71).

Imperatives

11.29 Separate endings are used in the **imperative**:

	active	middle-passive
2 sg.	no ending or -θι or -ς	-σο
	sigmatic aorist: $-(\sigma)o\nu (\rightarrow 13.10)$	sigmatic aorist: $-(\sigma)\alpha i (\rightarrow 13.10)$
3 sg.	-τω	-σθω
2 pl.	-τε	-σθε
3 pl.	-ν τ ων ²	-σθων ²

- 1 The σ in this ending has often disappeared between vowels (\rightarrow 1.83); see the examples below.
- 2 Later -τωσαν (active) and -σθωσαν (middle-passive).

Examples:

- 2 sg. active: pres. παίδευε (no ending), τίμα (<*-αε, no ending), δείκνυ (no ending); pres. ἴσθι, aor. στῆθι, aor. pass. (η-aor.) φάνηθι, aor. pass. (θη-aor.) παιδεύθητι (→1.97 n.2); aor. δός, σχές; sigm. aor. παίδευσον, pseudo-sigm. aor. ἄγγειλον (<*-ελ-σον);
- other, active: 3 sg., pres. παιδευέ<u>τω</u>, τιμά<u>τω</u>, δεικνύ<u>τω</u>, aor. παιδευσά<u>τω</u>, aor. pass. παιδευθή<u>τω</u>; 2 pl., pres. παιδεύε<u>τε</u>, τιμᾶ<u>τε</u>, aor. pass. παιδεύθη<u>τε</u>; 3 pl., pres. παιδευό<u>ντων</u>, aor. παιδευσά<u>ντων</u>;
- 2 sg. middle-passive: pres. παιδεύου (<*παιδεύε<u>σο</u>), τιμῶ (<*-άε<u>σο</u>), δείκνυ<u>σο</u>; aor. θοῦ (<*θέ<u>σο</u>); sigm. aor. παίδευ<u>σαι</u>, pseudo-sigm. aor. ἄγγειλαι (<*-ελ-<u>σαι</u>);
- other, middle-passive: 3 sg., pres. παιδευέ<u>σθω</u>, τιμά<u>σθω</u>, δείκνύ<u>σθω</u>, aor. παιδευσά<u>σθω</u>; 2 pl., pres. παιδεύε<u>σθε</u>, τιμᾶ<u>σθε</u>, δείκνυ<u>σθε</u>; 3 pl., pres. παιδευέ<u>σθων</u>, aor. παιδευσά<u>σθων</u>.

Note 1: The 2 pl. imperative of any stem is always identical to the 2 pl. indicative, except for augments: e.g. pres. παιδεύετε (ind./imp.); aor. ἐπαιδεύσασθε (ind.)/παιδεύσασθε (imp.).

Exceptions

11.30 Although the endings discussed above are present in most forms, a few exceptions still remain. In particular, several endings in the **perfect and pluperfect active** differ from those given above: \rightarrow 18.5.

Endings of Non-finite Forms

Infinitives

- 11.31 The endings of **active infinitives** are as follows:
 - Thematic: -εν; this contracts with the preceding thematic vowel ε to form
 -ειν (with 'spurious' ει, →1.23, 1.59), e.g. παιδεύ<u>ειν</u>; this may then further contract with the final vowel of a verb stem: e.g. τιμᾶν (<*τιμά-ε-εν), δηλοῦν (<*δηλό-ε-εν).
 - **Athematic**: -ναι (e.g. pres. δεικνύναι, διδόναι, εἶναι, aor. pass. παιδευθῆναι) or -εναι (e.g. pres. ἰέναι, aor. δοῦναι (<*δόεναι), pf. πεπαιδευκέναι).

The ending in the sigmatic agrist is $-(\sigma)\alpha_1$: e.g. παιδεῦσαι, γράψαι, ἀγγεῖλαι (<*-ελ-σαι).

Note 1: For the differences in accentuation between e.g. aor. act. inf. $\pi\alpha$ 1 δεῦσαι and aor. mid. imp. $\pi\alpha$ 1 δευσαι, \rightarrow 24.20 n.1.

11.32 The ending of all **middle-passive infinitives** is -σθαι: e.g. pres. παιδεύε<u>σθαι,</u> δείκνυσθαι, aor. παιδεύσασθαι, pf. πεπαιδεῦσθαι.

Participles and Verbal Adjectives

- 11.33 The endings of **participles** are those of adjectives of the first and third declensions $(\rightarrow 5.17-20)$.
- **Verbal adjectives** (in -τέος, -τέ $\bar{\alpha}$, -τέον, and in -τός, -τή, -τόν) have endings of the first and second declensions ($\rightarrow 5.1-2$).

Augments and Reduplications

Formation of the Augment

11.35 Secondary indicatives (imperfect, aorist indicative, pluperfect) normally include an **augment**, which immediately precedes the stem. The form of the augment is determined by the initial sound of the (tense-aspect) stem.

With Stems Beginning with a Consonant

11.36 If the stem begins with a **consonant**, the augment takes the form $\dot{\epsilon}$ -:

παιδεύω educate pres. stem $\underline{\pi}$ αιδευ- impf. $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ παίδευον λύω loosen, release aor. stem $\underline{\lambda}$ υσ(α)- aor. ind. $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ λυσα δίδωμι give aor. stem $\underline{\delta}$ ω-/ $\underline{\delta}$ ο- aor. $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ δωκα βλάπτω harm, damage aor. pass. (η-aor.) stem βλαβη- aor. pass. ind. $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ βλάβην

With stems beginning with ρ , that ρ is doubled after the augment:

ρίπτω throw	pres. stem ἑιπτ-	impf. <u>ἔρρ</u> ιπτον
ἡήγνυμι (cause to) break	aor. stem ῥηξ(α)-	aor. ind. <u>ἔρρ</u> ηξα

Note 1: This type of augment is called 'syllabic' (Lat. *augmentum syllabicum*), because a syllable is added.

With Stems Beginning with a Vowel or Diphthong

If the stem begins with a **vowel**, the augment has the form of the **lengthened** initial vowel (\rightarrow 1.67–9):

$\breve{\alpha}>\eta$	ἄγω lead, bring	aor. stem <u>ἀ</u> γαγ-	aor. ind. <u>ἤ</u> γαγον
$\epsilon > \eta$	ἐλπίζω expect	pres. stem ἐλπιζ-	impf. <u>ἤ</u> λπιζον
${\breve{\iota}} > {\bar{\iota}}$	ίκετεύω beg	pres. stem ั้เหรายบ-	impf. <u>ἡ</u> κέτευον
ο > ω	ὀνομάζω name	aor. stem <u>ὀ</u> νομασ(α)-	aor. ind. <u>ἀ</u> νόμασα
$reve{\upsilon} > ar{\upsilon}$	ύβρίζω abuse	aor. stem ὑβρισ(α)-	aor. ind. ὕβρισα

Long vowels stay unchanged:

ἡγέομαι lead, guide, consider pres. stem ήγε- impf. ήγούμην ἀφελέω benefit aor. stem ἀφελησ(α)- aor. ind. ἀφέλησα

11.38 Stems beginning with a **diphthong** lengthen the first part of that diphthong:

αἰτιάομαι <i>accuse</i>	aor. stem <u>αἰ</u> τιασ(α)-	aor. ind. <u>ἠ</u> τιασάμην
αὐξάνω increase	pres. stem <u>αὐ</u> ξαν-	impf. <u>ηὔ</u> ξανον
εἰκάζω <i>liken</i>	aor. stem εἶκασ(α)-	aor. ind. <u>ἤ</u> κασα
εὑρίσκω find	aor. stem <u>εύ</u> ρ-	aor. ind. <u>ηὖ</u> ρον
οἰκέω <i>live</i>	pres. stem <u>οἰ</u> κε-	impf. <u>ἄ</u> κουν

Note 1: The type of augment described in 11.37-8 is sometimes, somewhat unhelpfully, called 'temporal' (Lat. *augmentum temporale*), as it normally causes the initial vowel/diphthong to be pronounced for a greater amount of time (vowel quantity, $\rightarrow 1.18$).

Further Particulars

11.39 Augments are not part of the stem, and occur only in the secondary indicative:

1 sg. impf. act. ήγον, but 1 sg. pres. act. opt. ἄγοιμι, pres. act. ppl. nom. sg. masc. ἄγων, etc. 1 sg. aor. act. ind. ἐπαίδευσα, but 1 sg. aor. act. subj. παιδεύσω, aor. act. inf. παιδεῦσαι, etc.

11.40 Augmentation occurred before the disappearance of consonants f, y and σ (→1.74–84). The result of this is that some augments, although originally regularly formed, appear irregular in classical Greek:

```
ἔχω have, hold verb stem ἐχ-/σχ- (<*σ(ε)χ-) impf. \underline{\epsilon}Ιχον (<*ἔεχον <*ἔ-σεχον); note aor. \underline{\epsilon}-σχ-ον) \underline{\epsilon}άω allow verb stem ἐ\bar{\alpha}-/ἐ\bar{\alpha}- (<*σερα-) aor. εἴασα (<*\hat{\epsilon}-σερα-), impf. εἴων
```

```
ἐργάζομαι work verb stem ἐργ- (<*ϝεργ-) impf. εἰργαζόμην (<*ἔ-ϝεργ-) 
ἵημι send, let go verb stem ἡ-/έ- (<*yη-/*yε-) aor. pass εἵθην (<*ἔ-yε-)
```

In some such cases, the original augment seems to have been $\dot{\eta}$ -, resulting (through quantitative metathesis, \rightarrow 1.71) in augmented forms beginning with $\epsilon\bar{\alpha}$ - or $\epsilon\omega$ -:

```
άλίσκομαι be verb stem άλ(ω)- (<*_{\rm F}άλ(ω)-) aor. \underline{\dot{\epsilon}}άλων (<*_{\rm 1}^{\dot{\gamma}}-_{\rm F}άλ-); cf. e.g. inf. άλῶναι; aor. ήλων is also found) όράω see verb stem όρα- (<*_{\rm F}ορα-), \mathring{\rm 1}δ- impf. \underline{\dot{\epsilon}}ώρων (<*\mathring{\rm 1}-_{\rm F}ορ-); also cf. (<*_{\rm F}1δ-), \mathring{\rm 0}π- aor. \underline{\dot{\epsilon}}1δον (<*\mathring{\dot{\epsilon}}-_{\rm F}1ο-) impf. \mathring{\rm d}ν-\underline{\dot{\epsilon}}4ωγον (<*_{\rm 1}-_{\rm 1}-_{\rm F}0ιγ-); rarely also ήνοιγον (_{\rm 1}1.57)
```

- 11.41 Observe the following further exceptions:
 - Sometimes, stems beginning with a diphthong (especially εἰ-) are not augmented; stems beginning with οὐ- are never augmented:

```
εἰκάζω liken pres. stem εἰκαζ- impf. εἴκαζον (next to ἤκαζον) οὐτάζω stab pres. stem οὐταζ- impf. οὔταζον
```

- With ἄδω sing, the long diphthong ἄ- (<ắει-) is augmented to ἠ- (<ἠει-): e.g. impf. ἦδον.
- With αἴρω lift, the aorist stem ἀρ- (<*ἀερ-) is augmented to ἠ-: e.g. 1 sg. ind. ἦρα (cf. aor. inf. ἆραι, etc.).
- The verbs βούλομαι, δύναμαι and μέλλω are found in fourth century and later Greek with the augment ή- instead of ἐ-: ἠβουλόμην, ἠδυνήθην, ἤμελλον, etc.
- The form χρῆν it was necessary originally combined from the noun χρή necessity and the augmented form ἦν there was (→12.44) is often given an extra augment: ἐχρῆν.
- 11.42 The augment is frequently **omitted** in epic poetry and occasionally in other poetry; in tragedy the syllabic augment (\rightarrow 11.36 n.1) is sometimes omitted in narrative passages (messenger speeches, etc.). For the omission of the temporal augment (\rightarrow 11.38 n.1) in Herodotus, \rightarrow 25.43.

Formation of Reduplications

11.43 Perfect stems are formed by the addition of a **reduplication** to the verb stem. Reduplications either consist of a consonant $+ \varepsilon$, or they are formed exactly like the augment, depending on the initial sound of the verb stem.

Two Types of Reduplication

- 11.44 With verb stems beginning
 - with a single consonant (except ρ),
 - or with a combination of stop + resonant $(\mu, \nu, \lambda, \rho)$:

reduplication = initial consonant + ε:

```
παιδεύω educate verb stem \underline{\pi}αιδευ- pf. \underline{\pi}επαίδευκα λύω loosen, release verb stem λ\overline{\nu}-/\underline{\lambda}\overline{\nu}-
```

δίδωμι give verb stem δω-/δο- pf. δέδωκα

γίγνομαι become, be born verb stem χεν(η)-/χον-/γν- pf. χέγονα, χεγένημαι

βλάπτω harm, damage verb stem $\underline{βλ}$ αβ- pf. $\underline{βε}$ βλαφα κλ \overline{t} νω cause to lean verb stem κλ \overline{t} (ν)- pf. κέκλ \overline{t} κα

With stems beginning with an aspirated stop $(\theta/\phi/\chi)$, the reduplication uses the **unaspirated**, voiceless stop $(\tau/\pi/\kappa, \rightarrow 1.97)$:

φονεύω murder verb stem φονευ- pf. $\frac{\pi \epsilon}{16}$ φόνευκα τίθημι put, place verb stem $\frac{\theta}{10}$ γε- $\frac{1}{16}$ γε- $\frac{1}{16}$

- 11.45 With verbs whose stem begins
 - with ρ-,
 - with two consonants other than stop + resonant (including $\zeta/\xi/\psi$) or $\sigma\tau\rho$ -,
 - or with a vowel:

reduplication = formed like the augment ($\rightarrow 11.35-41$):

ἄγω lead, bring	verb stem <u>ἄ</u> γ-	pf. <u>ἦ</u> χα
ζητέω seek	verb stem ζητη-/ζητε-	pf. <u>ἐ</u> ζήτηκα
ξενόομαι entertain	verb stem ξενω-/ξενο-	pf. <u>ἐ</u> ξένωμαι
κτίζω found	verb stem <u>κτ</u> ĭδ-	pf. <u>ἔ</u> κτικα
ὀρθόω straighten	verb stem <u>ὀ</u> ρθω-/ὀρθο-	pf. <u>ὤ</u> ρθωκα
στρατηγέω lead	verb stem στρατηγη-/στρατηγε-	pf. <u>ἐ</u> στρατήγηκα
ρίπτω throw	verb stem ῥῖπ-	pf. <u>ἔρρ</u> ῖφα
ἡήγνυμι (cause to) break	verb stem ῥηγ-/ <u>ῥ</u> ωγ-/ῥᾶγ-	pf. <u>ἔρρ</u> ωγα
ὑβρίζω abuse, maltreat	verb stem ὑβρῖδ-	pf. <u>ὕ</u> βρικα

Further Particulars

- 11.46 Reduplications, unlike augments, are **part of the stem** (even when formed like an augment), and thus occur both in non-finite and in finite forms (all moods):
 - 1 sg. pf. act. ind. ἐστρατήγηκα, pf. act. ppl. nom. sg. masc. ἐστρατηγηκώς; contrast e.g. the aor. equivalents ἐστρατήγησα (ind., with augment), στρατηγήσας (ppl., no augment)
- 11.47 Reduplication occurred before the disappearance of consonants _F, y and σ (→1.74–84). The result of this is that some reduplications, although originally regularly formed, seem irregular in classical Greek. For example:

```
ἵημι send, let go
                                   verb stem ή-/έ- (<*yη-/*yε-)
                                                                                  pf. εἶκα (<*yέyε-)
ἄγνυμι break
                                   verb stem \dot{\alpha}\gamma-/\dot{\alpha}\gamma- (<*F\bar{\alpha}\gamma-/*F\bar{\alpha}\gamma-)
                                                                                  pf. ἔαγα (<* κέκαγ-)
with λέγω say, speak
                                   verb stem ἐρ-/ῥη- (<*ϝερ-/*ϝρη-)
                                                                                  pf. εἴρηκα (<* εξρη-)
μείρομαι obtain by lot
                                   verb stem μερ-/μορ-/μάρ- (<*σμς-,
                                                                                  pf. εἵμαρται (3 sg.,
                                       \rightarrow 1.87
                                                                                     <*σεσμι-)
λαμβάνω get, take
                                   verb stem ληβ-/λάβ-(<*σλάβ-/*σλάβ-) pf. εἴληφα (<*σεσλάβ-)
```

Note also:

λαγχάνω obtain by lot verb stem ληχ-/λαχpf. εἴληχα (εἰ- by analogy with εἴληφα) pf. συν-είλεγμαι συλ-λέγω collect verb stem λεγ-/λογ-

(ei- by analogy)

- 11.48 The following further exceptions may be observed:
 - The verbs ἴστημι, κτάομαι, μιμνήσκω and πίπτω though their verb stems begin with two consonants that are not stop + resonant - get reduplications including the initial consonant:

ἵσταμαι come to stand verb stem στη-/σταpf. ἕστηκα $(<^*σέστηκα; →1.83).$ μιμνήσκω remind verb stem μνηpf. mp. μέμνημαι κτάομαι acquire verb stem κτη-/κτάpf. κέκτημαι (also ἔκτημαι) πίπτω fall verb stem π εσ-/ $\underline{\pi}\underline{\tau}$ (ω)pf. πέπτωκα

- Most verb stems beginning with $\gamma \nu$ - or $\gamma \lambda$ - - though their verb stems begin with stop + resonant - get reduplications formed like the augment:

γιγνώσκω know, recognize verb stem γνωpf. ἔγνωκα γνωρίζω make known verb stem γνωρίδpf. ἐγνώρικα

- A few verb stems beginning with α, ε or o followed by a single consonant, get a so-called 'Attic' reduplication, by duplicating the vowel and consonant, and lengthening the initial vowel of the verb stem:

ἀκούω hear verb stem ἀκο(υ)(σ)pf. ἀκήκοα pf. ἐγήγερμαι, also ἐγείρομαι wake up, verb stem ἐγερ-/ἐγορ-/ἐγρbe woken ἐγρήγορα (note ἐγρ-) pf. ὀμώμοκα ὄμνυμι swear verb stem ὀμ(ο)with ἔρχομαι go, come verb stem ἐλευθ-/ἐλ(υ)θpf. ἐλήλυθα with φέρω carry, bring verb stem ἐνεκ-/ἐνοκ-/ἐγκpf. ἐνήνοχα

Reduplications Outside the Perfect

- 11.49 Various **present stems** show reduplication as well, in this case **with** 1: e.g. γι-γνώσκω know, recognize (verb stem γνω-), τί-θημι put, place (verb stem θη-/θε-), ἵ-στημι *make stand, set up* ($<^*$ σιστ-, \rightarrow 1.83; verb stem στη-/στα-).
- 11.50 Very few verbs have a form of reduplication in the **aorist**: e.g. with $\check{\alpha}\gamma\omega$ lead, bring, aor. stem. άγαγ- (verb stem ἀγ-), aor. ind. ἤγαγον; with φέρω carry, bring, aor. stem. ἐνεγκ- (verb stem έγκ-), aor. ind. ἤνενγκον.

The Relative Position of Augments, Reduplications and Prefixes

Basic Rules

11.51 In **compound verbs** that include a prepositional prefix, any augment or reduplication comes after the prefix:

προσ-βαίνω go towards impf. προσ<u>έ</u>βαινον pf. προσ<u>βέ</u>βηκα εἰσ-άγω lead into impf. εἰσ<u>ῆ</u>γον pf. εἰσ<u>ῆ</u>χα

11.52 Prepositional **prefixes ending in a vowel** drop that vowel before an augment (or reduplication formed like an augment), except in the case of $\pi\epsilon\rho$ 1- and $\pi\rho$ 0-. When $\pi\rho$ 0- is followed by ϵ , this may contract to $\pi\rho$ 00- (by crasis, \rightarrow 1.43-5; also sometimes printed $\pi\rho$ 00- without coronis):

ἀνα-βαίνω go up impf. ἀν $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ βαινον impf. ἐπ $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ βαινον

ἀπο-στερέω rob aor. ind. ἀπεστέρησα pf. ind. ἀπεστέρηκα δια-στρέφομαι be distorted aor. ind. διεστράφην pf. ind. διέστραμμαι

but:

περι-βαίνω go around impf. περι<u>έ</u>βαινον

προ-σκέπτομαι consider aor. ind. πρ<u>οε</u>σκεψάμην pf. πρ<u>οέ</u>σκεμμαι or beforehand or πρ<u>ού</u>σκεψάμην πρ<u>ού</u>σκεμμαι

Before vowels, and hence before an augment (or reduplication formed like an augment), $\hat{\epsilon}_{\kappa}$ - becomes $\hat{\epsilon}_{\xi}$ - (\rightarrow 1.41):

ἐκ-βαίνω go away impf. ἐξέβαινον

ἐκ-ρέω flow out aor. ind. ἐξερρύην pf. ἐξερρύηκα

11.54 Prefixes whose final consonant assimilates to the first sound of the verb stem in unaugmented/unreduplicated forms (\rightarrow 1.90), are used in their **non-assimilated** form before an augment (a reduplication starting with a vowel):

ἐ<u>μβ</u>αίνω go onto impf. <u>ἐνέ</u>βαινον ἐ<u>γγ</u>ράφω write onto impf. <u>ἐνέ</u>γραφον

συ<u>ρρ</u>ήγνυμαι break apart aor. ind. συ<u>νερ</u>ράγην pf. ind. συ<u>νέρ</u>ρωγα συ<u>λλ</u>έγω collect impf. συ<u>νέ</u>λεγον pf. ind. συ<u>νεί</u>λοχα

11.55 In the **pluperfect**, the augment precedes the stem and thus the reduplication:

παιδεύω educate verb stem παιδευ- plpf. <u>ε-πε</u>παιδεύκειν

(pf. ind. πεπαίδευκα)

θραύω injure verb stem θραυ(σ)- plpf. pass. $\frac{\dot{\epsilon} - \tau \epsilon}{1 - \tau \epsilon}$ θραύσμην

(pf. ind. τέθραυσμαι)

However, if the reduplication is formed like an augment or otherwise starts with a vowel, no extra augment is added in the pluperfect:

ὀρθόω straighten verb stem ὀρθω-/ὀρθο- plpf. ἀρθώκειν (pf. ind.

ὤρθωκα)

στρατηγέω lead verb stem στρατηγη-/ plpf. ἐστρατηγήκειν

στρατηγε- (pf. ind.

(I -- ---

ἐστρατήγηκα)

λαμβάνω get, take verb stem ληβ-/λᾶβ- plpf. εἰλήφειν (pf. ind. ειληφα)

Further Particulars

- 11.56 Only compound verbs with **prepositional** prefixes get the augment between prefix and stem. Compounds formed from other elements are augmented as normal, e.g. ἀδικέω act unjustly, aor. ind. ἡδίκησα; δυστυχέω be unfortunate, aor. ind. ἐδυστύχησα. For such verbs, →23.50.
- 11.57 The verbs καθεύδω, κάθημαι, καθίζω, and ἀμφιέννυμι are usually treated as if they were not compounds, and thus get their augment/reduplication before the prefix:

κάθ-ημαι sit impf. ἐκαθήμην

καθ-εύδω sleep impf. ἐκάθευδον (but also καθηῦδον) καθ-ἴζω make sit down, sit down impf. ἐκάθῖζον (but also κάθῖζον)

άμφι-έννυμι envelop aor. ind. ήμφίεσα

The verb ἐπίσταμαι is never treated as a compound:

ἐπίσταμαι know, be able impf. ήπιστάμην

11.58 Some compound verbs take a **double augment**, i.e. both the prefix and the stem are augmented. For instance:

ἀν-έχομαι endure impf. <u>ἠνειχ</u>όμην, aor. <u>ἠνε</u>σχόμην ἀμφι-γνοέω be doubtful impf. <u>ἠ</u>μφεγνόουν, aor. <u>ἠ</u>μφεγνόησα ἀμφισ-βητέω disagree, dispute impf. <u>ἡ</u>μφεσβήτουν, aor. ἡμφεσβήτησα

The Present

Thematic (-ω) and Athematic (-μι) Presents

- 12.1 Forms built on the present stem follow either a **thematic** or an **athematic** conjugation.
 - The thematic conjugation, comprising all verbs in -ω, is much more common.
 With these verbs, a thematic vowel (ε/ο) stands between the present stem and the endings: e.g. 1 pl. act. ind. παιδεύ-ο-μεν, 2 pl. παιδεύ-ε-τε.
 - The athematic conjugation comprises all verbs ending in -μ1. The endings follow immediately on the present stem (apart from some exceptions detailed below): e.g. 1 pl. act. ind. δείκνυ-μεν, 2 pl. δείκνυ-τε.
- Apart from the thematic vowel, there are two important points of distinction between thematic and athematic presents:
 - Endings: the endings of thematic and athematic presents differ:
 - in the present indicative singular: thematic (including thematic vowels) $-\omega$, $-\epsilon_{15}$, $-\epsilon_{1}$, athematic $-\mu_{1}$, $-\varsigma$, $-\sigma I(\nu)$;
 - in the present third person plural: thematic (including thematic vowel) $-00\sigma i(\nu)$ (<*-0 ν ori(ν), \rightarrow 11.27), athematic $-\bar{\alpha}\sigma\bar{i}(\nu)$;
 - in the imperfect third person plural: thematic -v, athematic: $-\sigma\alpha v$;
 - and in the active infinitive: thematic (including thematic vowel) $-\epsilon_1\nu$ (= $-\bar{\epsilon}\nu$ <*- ϵ_1 - ϵ_2 , \rightarrow 11.31), athematic $-\nu\alpha_1$.
 - Contrast e.g. 2 sg. pres. act. ind. παιδεύ<u>εις</u> (thematic) with δείκνυ<u>ς</u> (athematic); pres. act. inf. παιδεύ<u>ειν</u> (thematic) with δεικνύ<u>ναι</u> (athematic).
 - Variation of vowel length in the stem: athematic presents use a stem with a long vowel in the singular of the present active indicative, the singular of the imperfect active, and in the subjunctive, but a stem with a short vowel elsewhere. Contrast e.g. 1 sg./pl. act. ind. λ½ω/λ½ομεν (thematic) with δείκνῦμι/δείκνῦμεν (athematic). For details, →12.37-8.

The Thematic Present

Overview of Forms

12.3 **Active** forms:

			verbs in -ω	contract verbs						
				verbs in -έω	verbs in -έω verbs in -άω		άω	verbs in -όω		
			παιδεύω educate	ποιέω make, do		τιμάω honour		δηλόω make clear		
prim.	sg.	1	παιδεύω	ποιῶ	(<έω)	τιμῶ	(<άω)	δηλῶ	(<όω)	
ind.		2	παιδεύεις	ποιεῖς	(<έεις)	τιμᾶς	(<άεις)	δηλοῖς	(<όεις)	
(pres.)		3	παιδεύει	ποιεῖ	(<έει)	τιμኞ	(<άει)	δηλοῖ	(<όει)	
	pl.	1	παιδεύομεν	ποιοῦμεν	(<έομεν)	τιμῶμεν	(<άομεν)	δηλοῦμεν	(<όομεν)	
		2	παιδεύετε	ποιεῖτε	(<έετε)	τιμᾶτε	(<άετε)	δηλοῦτε	(<όετε)	
		3	παιδεύουσι(ν)	ποιοῦσι(ν)	(<έōσι)	τιμῶσι(ν)	(<άōσι)	δηλοῦσι(ν)	(<όōσι)	
sec.	sg.	1	ἐπαίδευον	ἐποίουν	(<εον)	ἐτίμων	(<αον)	ἐδήλουν	(<00v)	
ind.	_	2	ἐπαίδευες	ἐποίεις	(<εες)	ἐτίμας	(<αες)	ἐδήλους	(<οες)	
(impf.)		3	ἐπαίδευε(ν)	ἐποίει	(<εε)	ἐτίμα	(<αε)	ἐδήλου	(<οε)	
_	pl.	1	ἐπαιδεύομεν	ἐποιοῦμεν	(<έομεν)	ἐτιμῶμεν	(<άομεν)	ἐδηλοῦμεν	(<όομεν)	
		2	ἐπαιδεύετε	ἐποιεῖτε	(<έετε)	ἐτιμᾶτε	(<άετε)	ἐδηλοῦτε	(<όετε)	
		3	ἐπαίδευον	ἐποίουν	(<e0v)< td=""><td>ἐτίμων</td><td>(<αον)</td><td>ἐδήλουν</td><td>(<00V)</td></e0v)<>	ἐτίμων	(<αον)	ἐδήλουν	(<00V)	
subj.	sg.	1	παιδεύω	ποιῶ	(<έω)	τιμῶ	(<άω)	δηλῶ	(<όω)	
		2	παιδεύης	ποιῆς	(<έῃς)	τιμᾶς	(<άῃς)	δηλοῖς	(<óῃs)	
		3	παιδεύη	ποιῆ	(<έῃ)	τιμᾶ	(<άῃ)	δηλοῖ	(<όη)	
	pl.	1	παιδεύωμεν	ποιῶμεν	(<έωμεν)	τιμῶμεν	(<άωμεν)	δηλῶμεν	(<όωμεν)	
		2	παιδεύητε	ποιῆτε	(<έητε)	τιμᾶτε	(<άητε)	δηλῶτε	(<όητε)	
		3	παιδεύωσι(ν)	ποιῶσι(ν)	(<έωσι)	τιμῶσι(ν)	(<άωσι)	δηλῶσι(ν)	(<όωσι)	
opt.	sg.	1	παιδεύοιμι	ποιοίην	(<εοίην)	τιμώην	(<αοίην)	δηλοίην	(<00ίην)	
		2	παιδεύοις	ποιοίης	(<εοίης)	τιμώης	(<αοίης)	δηλοίης	(<00ίης)	
		3	παιδεύοι	ποιοίη	(<εοίη)	τιμώη	(<αοίη)	δηλοίη	(<00ίη)	
	pl.	1	παιδεύοιμεν	ποιοῖμεν	(<έοιμεν)	τιμῷμεν 2	(<άοιμεν)	δηλοῖμεν 2	(<όοιμεν)	
		2	παιδεύοιτε	ποιοῖτε 2	(<έοιτε)	τιμῷτε ²	(<άοιτε)	δηλοῖτε 2	(<όοιτε)	
		3	παιδεύοιεν	ποιοῖεν	(<έοιεν)	τιμῷεν	(<άοιεν)	δηλοῖεν	(<όοιεν)	
imp.	sg.	2	παίδευε	ποίει	(<εε)	τίμα	(<αε)	δήλου	(<οε)	
		3	παιδευέτω	ποιείτω	(<εέτω)	τιμάτω	(<αέτω)	δηλούτω	(<οέτω)	
	pl.	2	παιδεύετε	ποιεῖτε	(<έετε)	τιμᾶτε	(<άετε)	δηλοῦτε	(<όετε)	
		3	παιδευόντων	ποιούντων	(<εόντων)	τιμώντων	(<αόντων)	δηλούντων	(<οόντων)	
inf.			παιδεύειν	ποιεῖν	(<έ̄εν)	τιμᾶν	(<άε̄ν)	δηλοῦν	(<όε̄ν)	
ppl.	mas	SC.	παιδεύων,	ποιῶν,	(<έων)	τιμῶν,	(<άων)	δηλῶν,	(<όων)	
			-οντος	-οῦντος		-ῶντος		-οῦντος		
	fem	١.	παιδεύουσα,	ποιοῦσα,	(<έōσα)	τιμῶσα,	(<άōσα)	δηλοῦσα,	(<όōσα)	
			-σης	-σης		-σης		-σης		
	neu	t.	παιδεῦον,	ποιοῦν,	(<έον)	τιμῶν,	(<άον)	δηλοῦν,	(<όον)	
			-οντος	-οῦντος		-ῶντος		-οῦντος		

¹ Also ποιοῖμι/ποιοῖς/ποιοῖ; τιμῷμι/τιμῷς/τιμῷ; δηλοῖμι/δηλοῖς/δηλοῖ.

² Also ποιοίημεν/ποιοίητε; τιμώημεν/τιμώητε; δηλοίημεν/δηλοίητε.

12.4 **Middle-passive** forms:

			verbs in -ω		contract verbs						
					verbs in -έω)	verbs in -ά	ω	verbs in -60)	
			παιδεύομαι		ποιέω make, do		τιμάω honour		δηλόω make clear		
prim.	sg.	1			ποιοῦμαι	(<έομαι)	τιμῶμαι	(<άομαι)	δηλοῦμαι	(<όομαι)	
ind.		2	παιδεύη/ει	$(<^*-\epsilon(\sigma)\alpha\iota)$	ποιῆ/εῖ	(<έῃ/έει)	τιμᾶ	(<άη)	δηλοῖ	(<óŋ)	
(pres.)		3	παιδεύεται		ποιεῖται	(<έεται)	τιμᾶται	(<άεται)	δηλοῦται	(<όεται)	
	pl.	1	παιδευόμεθα		ποιούμεθα	(<εόμεθα)	τιμώμεθα	(<αόμεθα)	δηλούμεθα	(<οόμεθα)	
		2	παιδεύεσθε		ποιεῖσθε	(<έεσθε)	τιμᾶσθε	(<άεσθε)	δηλοῦσθε	(<όεσθε)	
		3	παιδεύονται		ποιοῦνται	(<έονται)	τιμῶνται	(<άονται)	δηλοῦνται	(<όονται)	
sec.	sg.	1	ἐπαιδευόμην		ἐποιούμην	(<εόμην)	ἐτιμώμην	(<αόμην)	ἐδηλούμην	(<οόμην)	
ind.		2	ἐπαιδεύου	(<*-ε(σ)ο)	ἐποιοῦ	(<έō)	ἐτιμῶ	(<άō)	ἐδηλοῦ	(<óō)	
(impf.))	3	ἐπαιδεύετο		ἐποιεῖτο	(<έετο)	ἐτιμᾶτο	(<άετο)	ἐδηλοῦτο	(<όετο)	
	pl.	1	ἐπαιδευόμεθο	α	ἐποιούμεθα	(<εόμεθα)	ἐτιμώμεθα	(<αόμεθα)	ἐδηλούμεθα	(<οόμεθα)	
		2	ἐπαιδεύεσθε		ἐποιεῖσ θ ε	(<έεσθε)	ἐτιμᾶσθε	(<άεσθε)	ἐδηλοῦσ θ ε	(<όεσθε)	
		3	ἐπαιδεύοντο		ἐποιοῦντο	(<έοντο)	ἐτιμῶντο	(<άοντο)	ἐδηλοῦντο	(<όοντο)	
subj.	sg.	1	παιδεύωμαι		ποιῶμαι	(<έωμαι)	τιμῶμαι	(<άωμαι)	δηλῶμαι	(<όωμαι)	
		2	παιδεύη	$(<^*-\eta(\sigma)\alpha\iota)$	ποιῆ	(<¢ŋ)	τιμᾶ	(<άῃ)	δηλοῖ	(<óῃ)	
		3	παιδεύηται		ποιῆται	(<έηται)	τιμᾶται	(<άηται)	δηλῶται	(<όηται)	
	pl.	1	παιδευώμεθα		ποιώμεθα	(<εώμεθα)	τιμώμεθα	(<αώμεθα)	δηλώμεθα	(<οώμεθα)	
		2	παιδεύησθε		ποιῆσθε	(<έησθε)	τιμᾶσθε	(<άησθε)	δηλῶσ θ ε	(<όησθε)	
		3	παιδεύωνται		ποιῶνται	(<έωνται)	τιμῶνται	(<άωνται)	δηλῶνται	(<όωνται)	
opt.	sg.	1	παιδευοίμην		ποιοίμην	(<εοίμην)	τιμώμην	(<αοίμην)	δηλοίμην	(<οοίμην)	
		2	παιδεύοιο	(<*-οι(σ)ο)	ποιοῖο	(<έοιο)	τιμῷο	(<άοιο)	δηλοῖο	(<óo1o)	
		3	παιδεύοιτο		ποιοῖτο	(<έοιτο)	τιμῷτο	(<άοιτο)	δηλοῖτο	(<όοιτο)	
	pl.	1	παιδευοίμεθο	1	ποιοίμεθα	(<εοίμεθα)	τιμώμεθα	(<αοίμεθα)	δηλοίμεθα	(<οοίμεθα)	
		2	παιδεύοισθε		ποιοῖσθε	(<έοισθε)	τιμῷσθε	(<άοισθε)	δηλοῖσθε	(<όοισθε)	
		3	παιδεύοιντο		ποιοῖντο	(<έοιντο)	τιμῷντο	(<άοιντο)	δηλοῖντο	(<όοιντο)	
imp.	sg.	2	παιδεύου	(<*-ε(σ)ο)	ποιοῦ	(<έō)	τιμῶ	(<άō)	δηλοῦ	(<óō)	
		3	παιδευέσθω		ποιείσθω	(<εέσθω)	τιμάσθω	(<αέσθω)	δηλούσθω	(<οέσθω)	
	pl.	2	παιδεύεσθε		ποιεῖσθε	(<έεσθε)	τιμᾶσθε	(<άεσθε)	δηλοῦσθε	(<όεσθε)	
		3	παιδευέσθων		ποιείσθων	(<εέσθων)	τιμάσθων	(<αέσθων)	δηλούσθων	(<οέσθων)	
inf.			παιδεύεσθαι		ποιεῖσθαι	(<έεσθαι)	τιμᾶσθαι	(<άεσθαι)	δηλοῦσθαι	(<όεσθαι)	
ppl.	maso	:.	παιδευόμενος	;	ποιούμενος	(<εόμενος)	τιμώμενος	(<αόμενος)	δηλούμενος	(<οόμενος)	
	fem.		παιδευομένη		ποιουμένη	(<εομένη)	τιμωμένη	(<αομένη)	δηλουμένη	(<οομένη)	
	neut		παιδευόμενοι	,	ποιούμενον	(<εόμενον)	τιμώμενον	(<αόμενον)	δηλούμενον	(<οόμενον)	

For the ending of the 2 sg. pres. ind. $(-\eta/-\epsilon_1)$, $\rightarrow 12.7$ n.1 below.

Non-Contract and Contract Presents

- 12.5 Two types of thematic conjugation can be distinguished, depending on the ending of the present stem:
 - Present stems ending in 1, υ, a diphthong or a consonant, e.g. χρίω anoint, λύω loosen, release, παιδεύω educate, λέγω say, speak. The thematic vowel and endings follow on the stem.
 - Present stems ending in other vowels (typically ε, α, ο), e.g. ποιέ-ω make, do, τιμά-ω honour, δηλό-ω make clear. The thematic vowel and endings contract with the final vowel of the stem: ποιῶ, τιμῶ, δηλῶ. These are called contract(ed) verbs.

Endings

- 12.6 The endings of thematic present-stem forms are listed in 11.20–33. The forms are built as follows.
- 12.7 **Present indicative**: formed with primary endings: e.g. 1 sg. act. παιδεύ-<u>ω</u>, 2 sg. παιδεύ-<u>εις</u>; 1 sg. mp. παιδεύ-ο-<u>μαι</u>.

Note the contraction in the 2 sg. mp., e.g. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \dot{\nu}\eta/-\epsilon i$ (<*- ϵ - $(\sigma)\alpha i$), and compensatory lengthening in the 3 pl. act., e.g. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \dot{\nu}$ ουσι(ν) (= $-\bar{o}\sigma i\nu$ <*-o- $(<math>\nu$) $\sigma i\nu$).

Note 1: The older (and, given the rules of contraction (\rightarrow 1.58–66), expected) form of the 2 sg. mp. is $\pi\alpha_1\delta\epsilon\dot{v}\eta <^*\pi\alpha_1\delta\epsilon\dot{v}-\epsilon$ -(σ) α_1 . But from the fourth century onwards, the pronunciation of η and ϵ_1 approximated each other and both were in use. Modern editors differ in what they print. However, both in modern editions and in ancient sources, it is nearly always βούλει *you want*, οἴει *you think* and δέει *you need* (for the last form, also \rightarrow 12.17).

- 12.8 **Imperfect**: formed with the augment, and with secondary endings: e.g. 1 sg. act. ἐ-παίδευ-ο-ν, 2 sg. ἐ-παίδευ-ε-ς; 1 sg. mp. ἐ-παιδευ-ό-μην. Note the contraction in the 2 sg. mp., e.g. ἐπαιδεύου (= -ō<*-ε-(σ)ο).
- 12.9 **Imperative**: the 2 sg. act. has no ending after the thematic vowel: e.g. $\pi\alpha$ ίδευ-ε. Note the 2 sg. mp., e.g. $\pi\alpha$ ιδεύου (= $-\bar{o}$ <*- ϵ - (σ) o).
- 12.10 **Subjunctive**: formed with the long thematic vowel of the subjunctive and primary endings, e.g. 1 pl. act. παιδεύ-ω-μευ, 1 sg. mp. παιδεύ-ω-μαι.
- 12.11 **Optative**: formed with the optative suffix -1-/-1η- and (mostly) secondary endings, e.g. 2 sg. act. παιδεύ-<u>01-5</u>, 3 pl. mp. παιδεύ-<u>01-ντο</u>. Note the 2 sg. mp., e.g. παιδεύοιο (<*-<u>01-(σ)ο</u>).
- 12.12 **Active infinitive**: formed with -εν, which contracts with the preceding thematic vowel, e.g. act. παιδεύ-ειν (<*-ε-εν).

Middle-passive infinitive: formed with -σθαι, e.g. παιδεύ-ε-σθαι.

12.13 **Active participle**: formed with $-\nu\tau$ -; for the declension, $\rightarrow 5.17-18$. E.g. gen. sg. masc. παιδεύ-ο- $\nu\tau$ -ος, nom. sg. fem. παιδεύ-ουσα (<*-ο $\nu\tau$).

Middle-passive participle: formed with -μεν-; for the declension, $\rightarrow 5.3-4$. E.g. nom. sg. masc. παιδευ-ό-μεν-ος, nom. sg. fem. παιδευ-ο-μέν-η.

12.14 The verb οἴομαι think is regularly thematic, but has some forms without the thematic vowel, particularly 1 sg. pres. ind. οἷμαι and 1 sg. impf. ὤμην.

Contract Presents

Simple Contraction Rules

12.15 The relevant contraction rules for each type of contract verb may be summarized as follows (for a more elaborate treatment of contraction, $\rightarrow 1.58-63$):

- with present stems ending in &:

```
\varepsilon + \varepsilon/\bar{\varepsilon} > \varepsilon 1 (spurious, = \bar{\varepsilon})
\varepsilon + o/\bar{o} > ov (spurious, = \bar{o})
```

- ϵ + any other long vowel or diphthong: ϵ merges with (disappears into) the long vowel/diphthong
- with present stems ending in α:

```
\begin{array}{l} \alpha + [e]\text{-sound } (\epsilon/\bar{\epsilon}/\eta) > \bar{\alpha} \\ \\ \alpha + (genuine) \ \epsilon i \ or \ \eta > \alpha \\ \\ \alpha + [o]\text{-sound } (o/\bar{o}/\omega) > \omega \\ \\ \alpha + o_1 > \omega \end{array}
```

- with present stems ending in o:

```
o + \epsilon/\bar{\epsilon} or o/\bar{o} > ov (spurious, = \bar{o})
o + \eta/\omega > \omega
o + (genuine) \epsilon i, \eta or oi > oi
```

Note 1: Ionic forms of verbs in $-\epsilon\omega$ often do not contract; verbs in $-\epsilon\omega$ are conjugated in various forms as verbs in $-\epsilon\omega$. For full details, $\rightarrow 25.33-5$.

12.16 The following points should be noted especially:

- Since no 1 or υ was involved in the formation of spurious diphthongs ε1 and ου (→1.23) in such forms as inf. act. παιδεύειν (<-ε-εν), 2 sg. imp. mp. παιδεύου (<-ε-σο), fem. ppl. act. παιδεύουσα (<*-ο-ντγα), corresponding forms of the contract verbs also do not have diphthongs with 1/υ (also →1.60, 1.62 n.2): thus e.g. inf. τιμᾶν (<-α-ε-εν), δηλοῦν (spurious ου; <-ο-ε-εν); imp. τιμᾶ (<-α-ε-σο); ppl. ποιοῦσα (spurious ου; <*-έ-ο-ντγα), τιμᾶσα (<*-ά-ο-ντγα). But 2/3 sg. pres. ind. act. παιδεύεις and παιδεύει have genuine diphthongs, and corresponding contract verb forms also have a genuine diphthong (e.g. τιμᾶς, δηλοῖ).</p>
- The active optative singular of contract verbs usually has different endings from those of the non-contract verbs, formed with optative suffix -ιη-. But next to ποιοίην/ποιοίης/ποιοίη we occasionally find ποιοῖμι, ποιοῖς, ποιοῖ; next to τιμώην/τιμώης/τιμώη occasionally τιμῷμι/τιμῷς/τιμῷ; next to δηλοίην/δηλοίης/δηλοίη occasionally δηλοῖμι/δηλοῖς/δηλοῖ.
- The active optative plural of contract verbs usually has the same endings as those of the non-contract verbs. But occasionally we find forms with -ιη- in the first and second person. Thus next to ποιοῖμεν/ποιοῖτε we find ποιοίημεν/ποιοίητε; next to τιμῷμεν/τιμῷτε, we find τιμώημεν/τιμώητε; and next to δηλοῖμεν/δηλοῖτε we find δηλοίημεν/δηλοίητε.

Further Particulars

12.17 Most verbs with a monosyllabic stem in ε (originally in ε_Γ, →12.25 below) only contract if the result is ει: So, with πλέω sail (<*πλέ_Γω), pres. ind. πλέω, πλεῖς, πλεῖ, πλέομεν, πλεῖτε, πλέουσι (ν); impf. ἔπλεον, ἔπλεις, etc.; subj. πλέω, πλέης, etc.; opt. πλέοιμι, πλέοις (forms with -ιη- do not

occur); inf. πλεῖν; part. πλ<u>έων</u>, πλ<u>έουσα, πλέου</u>. Similarly conjugated are e.g. πνέω blow, ῥέω flow, χέω pour and δέω lack, its middle δέομαι ask, need (note the 2nd person singular middle δέει) and impersonal δεῖ it is necessary (imperfect: ἔδει; participle: δέον).

However, this conjugation is not followed by $\delta \dot{\epsilon} \omega \ bind \ (<^*\delta \dot{\epsilon}$ -y ω), which contracts regularly like $\pi o i \dot{\epsilon} \omega$.

- 12.18 The verbs κάω (older καίω) set on fire and κλάω (older κλαίω) cry, weep do not contract $(\rightarrow 12.29)$.
- 12.19 There is a small number of verbs whose **stem ends in η**: ζήω *live*, διψήω *be thirsty*, πεινήω *be hungry*, χρήομαι *use*, *need*. These verbs follow the conjugation of τιμάω, except for the following contraction rule: η + [e]-sound > η

The paradigm is as follows:

			verbs in -ήω/-ήομαι					
			active		middle-passiv	ve		
			διψήω be thir	esty	χρήομαι <i>use</i> ,	need		
prim.	sg.	1	διψῶ	(<ή-ω)	χρῶμαι	(<ή-ομαι)		
ind.		2	διψῆς	(<ή-εις)	χρῆ	(<ἡ-ṇ)		
(pres.)		3	διψῆ	(<ή-ει)	χρῆται	(<ή-εται)		
	pl.	1	διψῶμεν	(<ή-ομεν)	χρώμεθα	(<η-όμεθα)		
		2	διψῆτε	(<ή-ετε)	χρῆσθε	(<ή-εσθε)		
		3	διψῶσι(ν)	(<ή-ōσιν)	χρῶνται	(<ή-ονται)		
sec.	sg.	1	ἐδίψων	(<η-ον)	ἐχρώμην	(<ή-ομην)		
ind.		2	ἐδίψης	(<η-ες)	ἐχρῶ	(<ή-ō)		
(impf.)		3	ἐδίψη	(<η-ε)	ἐχρῆτο	(<ή-ετο)		
=	pl.	1	ἐδιψῶμεν	(<ή-ομεν)	έχρώμεθα	(<η-όμεθα)		
		2	ἐδιψῆτε	(<ή-ετε)	ἐχρῆσθε	(<ή-εσθε)		
		3	ἐδίψων	(<η-ον)	ἐχρῶντο	(<ή-οντο)		
subj.	sg.	1	διψῶ	(<ή-ω)	χρῶμαι	(<ή-ωμαι)		
		2	διψῆς	(<ή-ῃς)	χρῆ	(<ή-ӈ)		
		3	διψῆ	(<ή-ῃ)	χρῆται	(<ή-ηται)		
	pl.	1	διψῶμεν	(<ή-ωμεν)	χρώμεθα	(<η-ώμεθα)		
		2	διψῆτε	(<ή-ητε)	χρῆσθε	(<ή-ησθε)		
		3	διψῶσι(ν)	(<ή-ωσι)	χρῶνται	(<ή-ωνται)		
opt.	sg.	1	διψώην	(<η-οίην)	χρώμην	(<η-οίμην)		
		2	διψώης	(<η-οίης)	χρῷο	(<ή-οιο)		
		3	διψώη	(<η-οίη)	χρῷτο	(<ή-οιτο)		
	pl.	1	διψῷμεν	(<ή-οιμεν)	χρώμεθα	(<η-οίμεθα)		
		2	διψῷτε	(<ή-οιτε)	χρῷσ θ ε	(<ή-οισ θ ε)		
		3	διψῷεν	(<ή-οιεν)	χρῷντο	(<ή-οιντο)		
imp.	sg.	2	δίψη	(<η-ε)	χρῶ	(<ή-ō)		
		3	διψήτω	(<η-έτω)	χρήσθω	(<η-έσθω)		
	pl.	2	διψῆτε	(<ή-ετε)	χρῆσθε	(<ή-εσθε)		
		3	διψώντων	(<η-όντων)	χρήσθων	(<η-έσθων)		
inf.			διψῆν	(<ή-ε-εν)	χρῆσθαι	(<ή-εσθαι)		
ppl.	maso	:.	διψῶν,	(<ή-ων)	χρώμενος	(<η-όμενος)		
			-ῶντος					
	fem.		διψῶσα,	(<ή-ōσα)	χρωμένη	(<η-ομένη)		
			-σης					
	neut	•	διψῶν,	(<ή-ον)	χρώμενον	(<η-όμενον)		
			~					

-ῶντος

- 12.20 Two verbs have a present stem ending in ω: **iδρώω** *sweat* and **ῥιγώω** *shiver*. These verbs contract to ω (or ω) throughout their conjugation: e.g. 3 sg. act. subj. ῥιγῷ (<-ώ-η), act. inf. ῥιγῶν (<-ώ-ε-εν), dat. sg. masc. ppl. pres. act. ἱδρῶντι (<-ώ-οντι). We also find forms of these verbs, however, which are conjugated in the same way as -όω verbs, and manuscripts sometimes vary (and ῥιγἑω *shiver* also occurs).
- 12.21 In Attic, the verb **λούω** wash, bathe, deriving from *λος έω, behaves sometimes like an uncontracted verb (e.g. λούει, λούειν, λουόμενοι, λούεσθαι), but in other cases, especially in earlier authors, shows contraction (e.g. ἐλοῦμεν, λοῦται, λοῦσθαι, λούμενος).

Thematic Present Stem Formation

- 12.22 Basic points on the formation of thematic present stems are given in the sections that follow. The formation of athematic present stems is treated separately, \rightarrow 12.39-44. For further details on present stem formation, \rightarrow 23.41-51.
- 12.23 In general, a distinction may be made between verbs whose present stem is unelaborated (i.e. identical to (a variant of) the verb stem), and verbs whose present stem is formed by the addition of one or more suffixes to the verb stem:
 - unelaborated present stems: e.g. παιδεύω educate (verb stem παιδευ-), γράφω write (verb stem γραφ-), etc.
 - present stems with elaborations: e.g. φυλάττω guard (verb stem φυλακ-),
 γιγνώσκω recognize (verb stem γνω-).

Note 1: Present stems formed with elaborations are sometimes called 'characterized presents' (the present stem is characterized by one or more additions to the verb stem). The present stem of such verbs often differs significantly from *all* other tense-aspect stems of a verb. Being aware of the most common elaborations makes it possible to derive the verb stem, and hence other tense-aspect stems, systematically from the dictionary form (i.e. from the present stem) of a verb.

Presents without Elaboration

12.24 With several verbs, the thematic present stem is simply **identical to (a variant of) the verb stem**. Some examples:

 verb
 verb stem

 γράφω write
 γράφ

 δέρω skin
 δερ-/δάρ

 διώκω pursue
 διωκ

λέγω say, speak <u>λεγ-</u>/λογ-, εἰπ-, ἐρ-/ῥη-

λύω loosen, release λ<u>ū</u>-/λ<u>ŭ</u>παιδεύω educate παιδευπέμπω send <u>πεμπ-</u>/πομππείθω persuade πειθ-/ποιθ-/π<u>ŭ</u>θ-

τρίβω *rub* <u>τρῖβ-</u>/τρĭβψεύδω *cheat* ψευδ**Note 1:** Most, but not all of these examples can be described as 'primitive verbs', meaning that the verb stem is itself an unelaborated verbal root: for details on this, $\rightarrow 23.2$ with n.3.

12.25 With a few other verbs, the present stem is identical to the (original) verb stem, but part of that verb stem is no longer visible in the present conjugation due to sound changes. This holds especially for verbs whose verb stem ended originally in σ or ρ , both of which disappeared (\rightarrow 1.74–84) in the present stem, but are often visible in other tense-aspect stems of the verb. Some examples:

Note 1: For the effect of the lost ε on the conjugation of $\pi \lambda \dot{\varepsilon} \omega$, $\rightarrow 12.17$ above.

Presents with an Original Yod

- 12.26 To a very large number of verb stems a **yod** (\rightarrow 1.31) was originally added to form the thematic present stem. This yod has in many cases left traces in the present stem.
- 12.27 Verb stems ending in a **stop**:
 - Verb stems ending in a **voiceless velar or dental stop** (κ , χ , τ , θ) have a present stem in $\tau\tau$ ($\sigma\sigma$ in Ionic, Koine, tragedy, Thucydides, etc.):

```
      verb (present stem)
      verb stem + yod
      compare

      φυλά<u>ττ</u>ω guard
      <*φυλάκ-yω</td>
      aor. ἐφύλαξα; φυλακή watch

      ταρά<u>ττ</u>ω confuse
      <*ταράχ-yω</td>
      aor. ἐτάραξα; ταραχή confusion

      ἐρέ<u>ττ</u>ω row
      ἐρέτης rower

      πλάττω mould
      <*πλάθ-yω</td>
      κοροπλάθος doll-maker
```

– Verb stems ending in a **voiced velar or dental stop** (γ,δ) have a present stem in ζ :

```
οἰμώζω lament <*οἰμώχ-yω οἰμωγή lament 
ἐλπίζω hope, expect <*ὲλπίδ-yω ἐλπίς, gen. ἐλπίδος hope, expectation
```

- Verb stems ending in a **labial** (π , φ , β), have a present stem in $\pi\tau$. Some examples:

```
τύ<u>πτ</u>ω hit <*τύ<u>π</u>-yω aor. ἔτυπον(/ἔτυψα)
κρύ<u>πτ</u>ω hide <*κρύ<u>φ</u>-yω κρυφῆ secretly
βλά<u>πτ</u>ω harm, damage <*βλά<u>β</u>-yω βλάβη damage
```

Note 1: A few verb stems in γ do not get ζ, but ττ: for example $\pi \rho \dot{\alpha} \underline{\tau} \underline{\tau} \omega$ do, act <* $\pi \rho \dot{\alpha} \underline{\gamma} \underline{\gamma} \omega$ (cf. pf. $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \pi \rho \alpha \gamma \alpha$), and $\tau \dot{\alpha} \underline{\tau} \tau \omega$ array, appoint (<* $\tau \dot{\alpha} \gamma \underline{\gamma} \omega$, cf. $\tau \alpha \gamma \dot{\alpha} \varsigma$ commander). This is probably due to analogy with stems ending in voiceless velar stops (κ, χ).

Note 2: Verbs with a stem in $\gamma\gamma$ also often get a stem in ζ , e.g. κλάζω scream <*κλά<u>γγ</u>-yω (cf. fut. κλάγξω), σαλπίζω sound the trumpet <*σαλπί<u>γγ</u>-yω (cf. ἡ σάλπιγξ trumpet, gen. σάλπιγγος). But note φθέγγομαι make a sound (stem φθεγγ-), not formed with yod.

Note 3: The suffixes $-i\zeta\omega/-\dot{\alpha}\zeta\omega$ became productive in their own right (\rightarrow 23.48), and therefore occur often: for example, $\dot{\delta}\pi\lambda-i\zeta\omega$ arm, $\dot{\alpha}\nu\alpha\gamma\kappa-\dot{\alpha}\zeta\omega$ force, $\dot{\epsilon}\rho\gamma-\dot{\alpha}\zeta\omega\omega$ work, perform.

12.28 Verb stems ending in a **resonant**:

- Verb stems ending in λ have a present stem in $\lambda\lambda$:

```
verb (present stem) verb stem + yod compare 
ἀγγέ<u>λλ</u>ω report <*ἀγγέ<u>λ</u>-yω fut. ἀγγελῶ 
βά<u>λλ</u>ω throw, hit <*βά<u>λ</u>-yω aor. ἔ-βαλ-ον
```

- Yod-presents whose verb stem ends in ν/ρ behave differently depending on the vowel in front of the resonant. The following rules apply (also $\rightarrow 1.78$):

```
-άνγω > -αίνω; -άργω > -αίρω;
-ένγω > -είνω; -έργω> -είρω;
-ἴνγω > -ΐνω; -ἴργω > -ΐρω;
-ὔνγω > -ΰνω; -ὔργω > -ΰρω
```

Examples:

```
verb (present stem)
                      verb stem + yod
                                        compare
φαίνω show
                      <*φάν-γω
                                        fut. φἄνῶ
                      <*καθάρ-γω
καθαίρω cleanse
                                        fut. καθἄρῶ
τείνω stretch, tighten
                      <*τέν-γω
                                        fut. τενῶ; adjective ἀτενής tight
σπείρω sow
                      <*σπέρ-γω
                                        σπέρμα seed
κρίνω judge
                      <*κρίν-γω
                                        fut. κρῖνῶ
οἰκτίρω pity
                      <*οἰκτἴρ-γω
                                        fut. οἰκτἴρῶ
                      <*ἀμΰν-γω
ἀμύνω defend
                                        fut. ἀμῦνῶ
                      <*φύρ-уω
φύρω mix
                                        φύρδην mingled up
```

12.29 Most verbs whose **present stem ends in a vowel** (i.e. contract verbs) also belong to the yod-presents. In this case yod simply disappeared, paving the way for contraction. For example: τιμά-ω *honour* <*τιμά-yω; ποιέ-ω *do, make* <*ποιξέ-yω.

Note 1: With several such verbs, it is not only yod which has disappeared, but also σ or ρ . These may again be visible in other tense-aspect stems (cf. $\pi\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\omega$, \rightarrow 12.25), and may result in other peculiarities in the conjugation. For instance:

```
γελάω laugh <*γελάσ-yω epic aor. ἐγέλασσα, fut. γελάσομαι τελέω finish <*τελέσ-yω aor. pass. ἐτελέσθην, epic aor. ἐτέλεσσα αἰδέομαι be ashamed <*αἰδέσ-yομαι pf. mp. ἤδεσμαι, epic fut. αἰδέσσομαι κάω set on fire <*κάρ-yω aor. ἔκαυσα, pf. κέκαυκα
```

Το κάω compare κλάω *cry, weep*; these verbs also have the form καίω/κλαίω. Note that they do not contract (\rightarrow 12.18 above).

Note 2: With some other verbs, the vowel *is* the elaboration. For example, δοκέω may be analysed as δοκ-έ-ω (cf. aor. ἔδοξα).

Note 3: Many new verbs in $-\epsilon\omega$ were formed after the disappearance of yod: \rightarrow 23.44, 23.50; their conjugation is identical to older $-\epsilon\omega$ verbs (the conjugation of the $-\epsilon\omega$, $-\epsilon\omega$ and $-\epsilon\omega$ types was strongly regularized).

Presents with a Nasal Infix

12.30 Numerous present stems were formed with a **nasal infix** $(-\nu - /-\alpha \nu - /-\nu - \alpha \nu -)$:

verb (present stem)	verb stem	compare
τέμ- <u>ν</u> -ω <i>cut</i>	<u>τεμ-</u> /τμη-	aor. ἔ-τεμ-ον
αὐξ- <u>άν</u> -ω increase	αὐξ-	fut. αὐξ-ήσω
ὀφλ-ισκ- <u>άν</u> -ω become a debtor	ὀφλ-	fut. ὀφλ-ήσω
λα- <u>ν</u> -θ- <u>άν</u> -ω go unnoticed	ληθ-/ <u>λἄθ-</u>	aor. ἔ-λαθ-ον
λα- <u>μ</u> -β- <u>άν</u> -ω <i>take</i>	ληβ-/ <u>λἄβ-</u>	aor. ἔ-λαβ-ον
λα- <u>γ</u> -χ- <u>άν</u> -ω acquire by lot	ληχ-/ <u>λἄχ-</u>	aor. ἔ-λαχ-ον
τυ- <u>γ</u> -χ- <u>άν</u> -ω hit upon, happen to	τευχ-/ <u>τὔχ-</u>	aor. ἔ-τυχ-ον
also ἐλα- <u>ὑ-ν</u> -ω <i>drive</i>	ἐλα-	aor. ἤλα-σα

Note 1: For μ/γ in $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega / \lambda \alpha \gamma \chi \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$, $\rightarrow 1.90$.

Note 2: With a few verbs, the nasal suffix is extended to some (but not all) other stems, as if part of the verb stem: e.g. κρΐνω decide, judge (<*κρΐ-ν-yω, \rightarrow 12.28 above), aor. ἔκρῖνα (<*ἔ-κρῖν-σα, \rightarrow 13.24), fut. κρῖνῶ (\rightarrow 15.32), but θη-aor. ἐκρἴθην, pf. κέκρἴκα, pf. mp. κέκρἴμαι. Similarly κλΐνω cause to lean, aor. ἔκλῖνα, fut. κλῖνῶ, η-aor. ἐκλΐνην, but θη-aor. ἐκλΐθην, pf. κέκλἴκα, pf. mp. κέκλἴμαι. Also \rightarrow 18.17, 19.30.

Presents with the Suffix -(1)σκ-

12.31 A number of presents are formed with the suffix $-(i)\sigma\kappa$:

verb (present stem)	verb stem	compare
εὑρ- <u>ίσκ</u> -ω <i>find</i>	εύρ-	fut. εύρ-ήσω
ὀφλ- <u>ισκ</u> -άν-ω become a debtor	ὀφλ-	fut. ὀφλ-ήσω
γι-γνώ- <u>σκ</u> -ω recognize	γνω-	aor. ἔ-γνω-ν
πάσχω suffer (<*παθ- $\underline{\sigma}$ κ-, →1.96)	πενθ-/πονθ-/ <u>πἄθ-</u>	aor. ἔπαθον

Reduplicated Presents

12.32 A number of present stems were formed with a **reduplication**, consisting of the first consonant of the verb stem plus 1:

verb (present stem)	verb stem	compare
<u>γ</u> ι-γνώσκω recognize	γνω-	aor. ἔ-γνω-ν
$\underline{\gamma}$ ί-γνομαι $become$	γεν(η)-/γον-/ <u>γν-</u>	aor. ἐ-γεν-όμην
<u>τί</u> -κτω give birth (<*τί-τκ-ω)	τεκ-/τοκ-/ <u>τκ-</u>	aor. ἔ-τεκ-ον
πί-πτω fall	πεσ-/πτ(ω)-	aor. ἔ-πεσ-ον

The Athematic Present

Overview of Forms

Verbs in -vuµi

12.33 Active and middle-passive forms:

			ver	bs in - νυμι
		_		ίκν ϋ μι <i>show</i> δεικνῦ-/δεικν
			active	middle-passive
prim.	sg.	1	δείκνῦμι	δείκνŭμαι
ind.		2	δείκνūς	δείκνŭσαι
(pres.)		3	δείκνῦσι(ν)	δείκνὔται
	pl.	1	δείκνϋμεν	δεικνύμεθα
		2	δείκνϋτε	δείκνŭσθε
		3	δεικνὔᾶσι(ν)	δείκνῦνται
sec.	sg.	1	ἐδείκνῦν	ἐδεικνὔμην
ind.		2	ἐδείκνῦς	ἐδείκνῦσο
(impf.)		3	ἐδείκνῦ	ἐδείκν ῦτο
	pl.	1	ἐδείκνŭμεν	έδεικνύμε θ α
		2	ἐδείκνŭτε	ἐδείκνῦσ θ ε
		3	έδείκνŭσαν	ἐδείκν ῦντο
subj.	sg.	1	δεικνύω	δεικνύωμαι
		2	δεικνύης	δεικνύη
		3	δεικνύη	δεικνύηται
	pl.	1	δεικνύωμεν	δεικνῦώμεθα
		2	δεικνύητε	δεικνύησθε
		3	δεικνύωσι(ν)	δεικνύωνται
opt.	sg.	1	δεικνύοιμι	δεικνὔοίμην
		2	δεικνΰοις	δεικνύοιο
		3	δεικνΰοι	δεικνύοιτο
	pl.	1	δεικνύοιμεν	δεικνυοίμε θ α
		2	δεικνύοιτε	δεικνύοισ θ ε
		3	δεικνύοιεν	δεικνύοιντο
imp.	sg.	2	δείκνῦ	δείκνŭσο
		3	δεικνύτω	δεικνύσ θ ω
	pl.	2	δείκνŭτε	δείκνŭσ θ ε
		3	δεικνύντων	δεικνύσ θ ων
inf.			δεικνύναι	δείκνὔσ θ αι
ppl.	masc.		δεικνύς, -νύντος	δεικνύμενος
	fem.		δεικνῦσα, -νὑσης	δεικνῦμένη
	neut.		δεικνύν, -νύντος	δεικνύμενον

In the active, some thematic variants occasionally occur (\rightarrow 12.54).

Reduplicated Verbs

12.34 **Active** forms:

			verb stems in η/ἄ	τίθημι	ΐημι	δίδωμι
		_	їστημι make stand stem ίστη-/ίστα-	τίθημι put, place stem τιθη-/τιθε- stem ίη-/ίε-		δίδωμι give stem διδω-/διδο-
prim.	sg.	1	ΐστημι	τίθημι	រីημι	δίδωμι
ind.		2	ΐστης	τίθης	της	δίδως
(pres.)		3	ΐστησι(ν)	τίθησι(ν)	້ຳຖວາ(ν)	δίδωσι(ν)
	pl.	1	ΐστἄμεν	τί θ εμεν	ΐεμεν	δίδομεν
		2	ΐστἄτε	τί θ ετε	ĭ́єтє	δίδοτε
		3	ἵστᾶσι(ν) (<-ἁᾶσιν)	τιθέᾶσι(ν)	ໍ່າαັσι(ν) (<-έᾱσιν)	διδόᾶσι(ν)
sec.	sg.	1	ΐστην	ἐτίθην	์ โยเง	ἐδίδουν
ind.		2	ῗστης	ἐτίθεις	์ เียเร	ἐδίδους
(impf.)		3	ῗστη	ἐτίθει	เ๊ยเ	ἐδίδου
	pl.	1	ῗστἄμεν	ἐτίθεμεν	เ เ ็ยทธก	ἐδίδομεν
		2	ῗστἄτε	ἐτίθετε	เ๊ะтะ	ἐδίδοτε
		3	ῗστἄσαν	ἐτίθεσαν	ῗεσαν	ἐδίδοσαν
subj.	sg.	1	ίστῶ	τιθῶ	ίῶ	διδῶ
·	-	2	ίστῆς	τιθῆς	រ៉ែក្ល័s	διδῷς
		3	ίστῆ	τι θ ῆ	ក្កែ	διδῷ
	pl.	1	ίστῶμεν	τιθῶμεν	ίῶμεν	διδῶμεν
		2	ίστῆτε	τι θ ῆτε	ίῆτε	διδῶτε
		3	ίστῶσι(ν)	τιθῶσι(ν)	ίῶσι(ν)	διδῶσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	ίσταίην	τι θ είην	ίείην	διδοίην
		2	ίσταίης	τιθείης	ίείης	διδοίης
		3	ίσταίη	τιθείη	ίείη	διδοίη
	pl.	1	ίσταῖμεν	τιθεῖμεν	ἱεῖμεν	διδοῖμεν
		2	ίσταῖτε	τιθεῖτε	ίεῖτε	διδοῖτε
		3	ίσταῖεν	τιθεῖεν	່າຄົເຂນ	διδοῖεν
imp.	sg.	2	ἵστη	τί θ ει	ໂει	δίδου
		3	ίστάτω	τιθέτω	ίέτω	διδότω
	pl.	2	ἵστατε	τίθετε	ἵετε	δίδοτε
	_	3	ίστάντων	τιθέντων	ἱέντων	διδόντων
inf.			ίστάναι	τιθέναι	ίέναι	διδόναι
ppl.	mas	c.	ίστάς, -άντος	τιθείς, -έντος	ίείς, -έντος	διδούς, -όντος
	fem.		ίστᾶσα, -σης	τιθεῖσα, -σης	ίεῖσα, -σης	διδοῦσα, -σης
	neut	t	ίστάν, -άντος	τιθέν, -έντος	ίέν, -έντος	διδόν, -όντος

Some thematic variants occur in the pres. ind.: e.g. $\tau_1\theta\epsilon\tilde{\imath}_5$ (instead of $\tau_1\theta\eta_5$), if (instead of $\eta\sigma_1$): $\rightarrow 12.55$.

12.35 **Middle-passive** forms:

		_	verb stems in η/α	τίθημι	ΐημι	δίδωμι
			ιστημι make stand	τίθημι put, place	ἵημι let go	δίδωμι give
			stem ίστη-/ίστα-	stem τιθη-/τιθε-	stem iη-/iε-	stem διδω-/διδο-
prim.	sg.	1	ΐσταμαι	τίθεμαι	ἵεμαι	δίδομαι
ind.		2	ἵστασαι	τίθεσαι	້ຳέσαι	δίδοσαι
(pres.)		3	ΐσταται	τίθεται	ΐεται	δίδοται
	pl.	1	ΐστάμεθα	τιθέμεθα	ἵέμε θ α	διδόμεθα
		2	ἵστασθε	τ ίθεσθε	ῗεσθε	δίδοσ θ ε
		3	ΐστανται	τ ί θ εν τ αι	ΐενται	δίδονται
sec.	sg.	1	ΐ στάμην	ἐτιθέμην	[†] έμην	ἐδιδόμην
ind.		2	ΐστασο	ἐτίθεσο	້ຳເσο	ἐδίδοσο
(impf.)		3	ΐστατο	ἐτί θ ετο	ΐετο	ἐδίδοτο
	pl.	1	ἱ στάμεθα	ἐτιθέμεθα	τέμεθα	ἐδιδόμεθα
		2	ἵστασθε	ἐτίθεσθε	ῗεσθε	ἐδίδοσθε
		3	ΐσταντο	ἐτίθεντο	ΐεντο	ἐδίδοντο
subj.	sg.	1	ίστῶμαι	τι θ ῶμαι	ίῶμαι	διδῶμαι
		2	ίστῆ	τι θ ῆ	ក្កែ	διδῷ
		3	ίστῆται	τιθῆται	ίῆται	διδῶται
	pl.	1	ίστώμεθα	τιθώμεθα	ἱώμεθα	διδώμε θ α
		2	ίστῆσθε	τιθῆσθε	ίῆσθ ε	διδῶσ θ ε
		3	ίστῶνται	τιθῶνται	ίῶνται	διδῶνται
opt.	sg.	1	ίσταίμην	τιθείμην	iείμη <i>ν</i>	διδοίμην
		2	ίσταῖο	τιθεῖο	ໍ່າຍາເວ	διδοῖο
		3	ίσταῖτο	τιθεῖτο	ίεῖτο	διδοῖτο
	pl.	1	ίσταίμεθα	τιθείμεθα	ἱείμεθα	διδοίμεθα
		2	ίσταῖσθε	τιθεῖσθε	ίεῖσ θ ε	διδοῖσ θ ε
		3	ίσταῖντο	τιθεῖντο	ίεῖντο	διδοῖντο
imp.	sg.	2	ἵστασο	τίθεσο	ໂεσο	δίδοσο
		3	ίστάσθω	τιθέσθω	ἱέσθω	διδόσ θ ω
	pl.	2	ἵστασθε	τίθεσθε	ἵεσθε	δίδοσθε
		3	ίστάσθων	τιθέσθων	iέσθων	διδόσ θ ων
inf.			ἵστασθαι	τίθεσθαι	ἵεσθαι	δίδοσθαι
ppl.	masc.		ίστάμενος	τιθέμενος	ἱέμενος	διδόμενος
	fem.		ίσταμένη	τιθεμένη	ίεμένη	διδομένη
	neut.		ίστάμενον	τιθέμενον	ίέμενον	διδόμενον

Root Presents

12.36 Forms of εἰμί be, εἶμι go, and φημί say:

			εἰμί be stem ἐ(σ)-	ะเ ีม <i>เ go</i> stem ะใ-/ใ-	φημί say, claim stem φη-/φα-
prim.	sg.	1	εἰμί	εἶμι	φημί
ind.		2	εἶ	εἶ	φής/φής
(pres.)		3	ἐστί(ν)	εἶσι(ν)	φησί(ν)
	pl.	1	ἐσμέν	ἴμεν	φἄμέν
		2	ἐστέ	ἴτε	φἄτέ
		3	εໄσί(ν)	ἴασι(ν)	φᾶσί(ν)
sec.	sg.	1	$ ilde{\eta}(u)$	ἤειν/ἦα	ἔφην
ind.		2	ἦσθα	ἤεις/ἤεισθα	ἔφησθα/ἔφης
(impf.)		3	ήν	ຸ້໗໌ει(ν)	ἔφη
	pl.	1	ήμεν	ἡμεν	ἔφἄμεν
		2	ἦτε	ἦτε	ἔφἄτε
		3	ἦσαν	ຖ້σαν/ἤεσαν	ἔφἄσαν
subj.	sg.	1	ప్	ĭω	φῶ
•	_	2	ทู้ร	រ៉ែ្ ប ាទ	φῆς
		3	ň	រ៉ែញ វិញ	φῆ
	pl.	1	ώμεν	ἴωμεν	φῶμεν
	-	2	ἦτε	ἴητε	φῆτε
		3	ὧσι(ν)	ἴωσι(ν)	φῶσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	εἴην	ἰοίην/ἴοιμι	φαίην
-		2	εἴης	້ຳວາς	φαίης
		3	εἴη	້າວເ	φαίη
	pl.	1	εἷμεν/εἴημεν	ἴοιμεν	φαῖμεν/φαίημεν
	_	2	εἶτε/εἴητε	ἴοιτε	φαίητε
		3	εἴεν/εἴησαν	ใดเยง	φαῖεν
imp.	sg.	2	້ໃ σθ ι	ἴ ᠐ ι	φάθι
_	_	3	ἔστω	ἴτω	φάτω
	pl.	2	ἔστε	ἴτε	φάτε
	-	3	ἔστων	ἰόντων	φάντων
inf.			εἶναι		φάναι
ppl.	masc.		ἄν, ὄντος	ἰών, ἰόντος	φάσκων, -οντος / φάς, φάντος
	fem.		οὖσα, οὔσης	ἰοῦσα, ἰοῦσης	φάσκουσα, -σης / φᾶσα, φάσης
	neut.		ὄν, ὄντος	ἰόν, ἰόντος	φάσκον, -οντος / φάν, φάντος

For the accentuation of the pres. ind. of Eimi be and Thii, \rightarrow 24.34.

Present Stems with a Long and Short Variant

12.37 The present stem of -µ1 verbs nearly always has **two variants**, one with a **long** and one with a **short** final vowel:

verb	present stem
δείκνυμι show	δεικνῦ-/δεικνῦ-
ἵστημι make stand, set up	ίστη-/ίστα-
τίθημι put, place	τ ι θ η-/ τ ι θ ε-
ἵημι send, let go	iη-/iε-
δίδωμι give	διδω-/διδο-
φημί say, claim	φη-/φἄ-

- 12.38 The **long variant** appears in:
 - singular forms of the active indicative (but for thematic forms of the imperfect, →12.53);
 - all forms of the subjunctive.

The **short variant** appears in all other forms (including all middle-passive forms except the subjunctive).

Types of - µ1 Verb; Present Stem Formation

Verbs in -vuµi

12.39 A number of athematic present stems are formed with the nasal infix - νv -. Most of these verbs have a verb stem ending in a velar stop, or in the case of verbs in - $\nu \nu \nu \nu \mu$, a verb stem originally ending in σ (there are some others). E.g.:

verb (present stem)	verb stem	compare
verb stems ending in a velar stop:		
δείκνυμι show	δεικ-	aor. ἔδειξα
ζεύγνυμι <i>yoke</i>	<u>ζευγ-</u> /ζŭγ-	aor. ἔζευξα
μείγνυμι <i>mix</i>	<u>μειγ-</u> /μἴγ-	aor. ἔμειξα
πήγνυμι affix, fasten	<u>πηγ-</u> /πἄγ-	aor. ἔπηξα
ἡήγνυμι (cause to) break	<u>ῥηγ-</u> /ῥωγ-/ῥἄγ-	aor. ἔρρηξα
verb stems originally ending in σ :		
κεράννυμι <i>mix</i> (<*κεράσ-νυ-μι)	<u>κερἄ(σ)-</u> /κρ $\bar{\alpha}$ -	aor. ἐκέρασ(σ)α
κρεμάννυμι hang up (<*κρεμάσ-νυ-μι)	κρεμἄ(σ)-	aor. ἐκρέμασ(σ)α
σβέννυμι quench, put out (<*σβέσ-νυ-μι)	σβη-/ <u>σβε(σ)-</u>	aor. pass. ἐσβέσθην
χώννυμι heap up (<*χώσ-νυ-μι)	χω(σ)-/χο-	aor. pass. ἐχώσθην

other verbs

ὄμνυμι swear $\underline{ομ}(ο)$ - aor. ἄμοσα δλυμι <math>lose (<*ὅλ-νυ-μι) $\underline{ολ}(ε)$ - fut. ολῶ

Reduplicated Verbs

12.40 A few important athematic present stems are formed by **reduplication** (\rightarrow 12.32 above):

verb (present stem)	verb stem	compare
ἵ-στημι make stand, set up (<*σί-στᾶμι)	στη-/στα-	aor. ἔστησα
δί-δωμι give	δω-/δο-	aor. ἔδωκα
τί-θημι <i>put, place</i>	θ η-/ θ ε-	aor. ἔθηκα
ї-ημι <i>send, let go</i> (<*yí-yημι)	ή-/ἑ-	aor. ἧκα

12.41 More complex is the formation of πίμπλημι, πίμπρημι, and ὀνίνημι, which have a nasal infix in addition to reduplication. They are all conjugated in the present like ιστημι:

verb (present stem)	verb stem	compare
πί-μ- $π$ λημι $fill$	πλη-/πλἄ-	aor. ἔπλησα
πί-μ-πρημι <i>burn</i>	πρη-/πρἄ-	aor. ἔπρησα
ό-νί-νημι help, benefit	ὀνη-/ὀνα-	aor. ὤνησα

Root Presents

12.42 Finally, there are several athematic **root presents** (or 'primitive verbs'), whose present stem is an unelaborated verbal root (\rightarrow 23.2 with n.3):

verb (present stem)	verb stem
εἰμί <i>be</i>	ἐσ- (εἰμί = ἐμί <*ἐσμί, $→1.68$)
εἷμι <i>go</i>	εἶ-/ῗ-
φημί <i>say, claim</i>	φη-/φἄ-
ἠμί say, speak	ή-

Note 1: The verb $\mathring{\eta}\mu i$ say occurs primarily in the past-tense forms $\mathring{\eta}\nu$ *I* said, $\mathring{\eta}$ he/she said, normally in the speech formulas $\mathring{\eta}\nu$ δ' $\mathring{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}$ and *I* said and $\mathring{\eta}$ δ' $\mathring{\delta}\varsigma$ and he said.

12.43 To this category also belong a few verbs with only middle-passive forms (thus only a short-vowel stem is used in the present conjugation, \rightarrow 12.38):

verb (present stem)	verb stem
κεῖμαι lie	KE1-
(κάθ)ημαι sit	ἡ(σ)-
ἄγαμαι admire, love	ἀγἄ-
ŝπίσταμαι know he ahle	ŝπιστη-/ŝπ

ἐπίσταμαι know, be able
 ἐπιστη-/ἐπιστα δύναμαι be able
 κρεμαμαι hang
 κρεμά(σ)-

Note 1: κεῖμαι is conjugated like middle-passive δείκνυμαι; the subj. and opt. use the stem κε-, e.g. 3 sg. subj. κέηται, 3 pl. opt. κέοιντο.

The present/imperfect forms of κεῖμαι serve as the perfect/pluperfect passive of the verb τίθημι put, place, particularly its compounds: e.g. διατίθημι dispose, put in a certain state; διάκειμαι be disposed, be in a certain state.

Note 2: ἄγαμαι, ἐπίσταμαι, δύναμαι, and κρέμαμαι are conjugated in the present like ἵσταμαι (although there are, with δύναμαι, ἐπίσταμαι and κρέμαμαι, a few differences in accentuation, e.g. 3 pl. opt. δύναιντο/ίσταῖντο).

Note 3: (κάθ)ημαι is conjugated like middle-passive δείκνυμαι, but with subj. καθῶμαι, καθῆ, etc.; opt. καθοίμην, etc. The original σ of the stem is visible in 3 sg. impf. καθῆστο (next to ἐκάθητο, see below).

The present/imperfect forms of κάθημαι sit serve as the perfect/pluperfect of the verb καθέζομαι sit down.

It is frequently treated as a simplex verb in the imperfect (augment $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ καθήμην rather than καθήμην; \rightarrow 11.58).

The simplex (non-compound) verb $\tilde{\eta}\mu\alpha$ 1 occurs sometimes in poetry, not in prose.

12.44 Most forms of impersonal χρή it is necessary derive from combinations of the noun χρή necessity and forms of εἰμί be: subj. χρῆ (<χρἡ ἦ), opt. χρείη (<χρἡ εἴη), inf. χρῆναι (<χρἡ εἴναι), part. χρέων (<χρἡ ὄν, →1.71). The imperfect is χρῆν (<χρἡ ἦν) or ἐχρῆν (with an additional augment).

Endings

- 12.45 The endings of athematic presents are listed in 11.20–33. Present-stem forms of -μι verbs are built as follows.
- 12.46 **Present indicative**: formed with primary endings. E.g. 1 sg. act. δείκνυ-μι, τίθη-μι, 2 sg. act. δείκνυ-χι 1 sg. mp. δείκνυ-μαι, τίθε-μαι. Note that the σ of the 2 sg. mp. does not disappear: δείκνυ-σαι, τίθε-σαι. The root presents have several irregular forms (see the overview of forms).

Note 1: Occasionally, the σ of the 2 sg. mp. *does* disappear after α: e.g. δύνα (more regularly δύνασαι), ἐπίστα (ἐπίστασαι).

12.47 Imperfect: formed with the augment, and with secondary endings. E.g. 1 sg. act. ἐ-δείκνῦ-ν, 2 sg. act. ἐ-δείκνῦ-ς; 1 sg. mp. ἐ-δεικνύ-μην. Note that the σ of the 2 sg. mp. does not disappear: ἐ-δείκνῦ-σο. Some singular active forms are thematic, →12.53 below. The root presents have several irregular forms (see the overview of forms).

Note 1: Occasionally, the σ of the 2 sg. mp. *does* disappear after α, followed by contraction: e.g. ἠπίστω (more regularly ἠπίστασο), ἐδύνω (ἐδύνασο), ῗστω (ῗστασο).

- 12.48 **Imperative**: the 2 sg. act. is usually formed without ending (some are thematic), but the root presents have ἴσ<u>θι</u>, ἴ<u>θι</u>, φά<u>θι</u>. Other imperatives: e.g. 2 pl. act. δείκνὔ-<u>τε</u>, 2 sg. mp. δείκνὔ-<u>σο</u>.
- 12.49 **Subjunctive**: formed with the long thematic vowel of the subjunctive and primary endings. In reduplicated -μ1 presents and in κάθημαι, the long thematic vowel contracts with the preceding (long) vowel: e.g. 1 sg. act. διδῶ (<*-ώ-ω), 2 sg. act. διδῷς (<*-ώ-ης), 1 sg. mp. διδῶμαι (<*-ώ-μαι), 2 sg. act. ἱῆς (<*ἱή-ης), 2 pl. mp. ἱστῆσθε (<*ἱστή-η-σθε).

Note 1: For the forms built on stems ending in η and with subjunctive long thematic vowel ω , which involve quantitative metathesis, $\rightarrow 1.71$: e.g. 1 sg. act. i $\tilde{\omega}$ (<i\(i\varphi\) <*\(i\eta\)-\(\omega\), 1 sg. mp. $\tau_1\theta\tilde{\omega}$ act. (<\(\text{i}\varphi\)\(\omega\) \rm *\(\text{i}\varphi\)-\(\omega\)-\(\omega\).

12.50 **Optative**: the optatives of -νυμι verbs, κάθημαι and κεῖμαι are thematic, \rightarrow 12.53. Others are formed with the optative suffix -ιη- in the singular, with optative suffix -ι- in the plural and all middle-passive forms, and with secondary endings. The iota forms a diphthong with the preceding short stem vowel. E.g. 1 sg. act. διδοίη-ν, 1 pl. act. διδοῖ-μεν, 1 sg. mp. διδοί-μην; 1 sg. act. τιθείη-ν, 1 pl. act. τιθεῖ-μεν, 1 sg. mp. τιθεί-μην.

Note 1: In the optative of εἰμί *be* and φημί *say*, plural forms with -ιη- occur frequently, next to forms with ι (e.g. εἴημεν next to εἶμεν, φαίημεν next to φαῖμεν; 2 pl. φαῖτε does not occur in classical Greek, perhaps by chance).

Note 2: There is, in classical Greek (as transmitted), one probable case of an athematic optative of a stem in $\nu \nu$, πηγνῦτο (Pl. *Phd.* 118a, with the optative suffix contracted into ν). Homeric Greek has more ν -optatives, e.g. δῦμεν (1 pl. aor. opt. of δύομαι *dive*).

12.51 **Active infinitive**: formed with -ναι. E.g. act. δεικνύ-<u>ναι</u>. But the inf. of εἷμι *go* ends in -εναι: ἰ-<u>έναι</u>.

Middle-passive infinitive: formed with -σθαι. E.g. δείκνὔ-σθαι, κεῖ-σθαι

12.52 **Active participle**: formed with -ντ-; for the declension, →5.17–18. E.g. gen. sg. masc. δεικνὕ-<u>ντ</u>-ος, nom. sg. fem. δεικνῦσα (<*-ὑ<u>ντ</u>yα).

Middle-passive participle: formed with -μεν-; for the declension, →5.3-4. E.g. nom. sg. masc. δεικνύ-μεν-ος, nom. sg. fem. δεικνύ-μέν-η.

Thematic Forms

- 12.53 Some forms of -μι verbs are **regularly thematic**:
 - most forms of the singular impf. act. of τίθημι, ἵημι, and δίδωμι: e.g. ἵεις (formed like ἐποίεις), ἐδίδουν (formed like ἐδήλουν);

- all subjunctives (with long theme vowels): e.g. 1 pl. act. δεικνύωμεν, τιθῶμεν (< τιθέωμεν <*τιθή-ωμεν, →1.71), ὧμεν (< ἔωμεν);
- all optatives of the verbs in -νυμι, of εἶμι go, and of κάθημαι and κεῖμαι: e.g. 2 sg.
 act. δεικνύοις, 1 pl. δεικνύοιμεν, 3 pl. ἴοιεν, 1 sg. καθοίμην, 3 pl. κέοιντο;
- 2 sg. act. imp. of τίθημι, ἵημι, δίδωμι: e.g. τίθει (formed like ποίει), δίδ<u>ου</u> (formed like δήλου);
- participles of εἰμί be (with no visible stem in Attic) and εἶμι go; e.g. with εἰμί, nom. pl. masc. ἄντες, nom./acc. pl. neut. ἄντα; with εἷμι, nom. pl. masc. ἰόντες, nom./acc. pl. neut. ἰόντα.

Note 1: For the Ionic participle of εἰμί (ἐών, etc.), →25.40.

12.54 In the active of -νυμι verbs, **alternative thematic forms** are found next to the 'regular' athematic forms, especially from the fourth century onwards: e.g. 3 sg. pres. ind. δεικνύ<u>ει</u>, 2 sg. imp. δείκνυε, inf. δεικνύειν, nom. sg. masc. act. ppl. δεικνύων, gen. δεικνύοντος.

Note 1: The thematic forms of these verbs are frequent in Ionic, $\rightarrow 25.38$.

12.55 Similarly, thematic variants occur of (primarily) second- and third-person forms in the pres. act. ind. of reduplicated athematic verbs: iεῖς, iεῖ; τιθεῖς, τιθεῖς, διδοῖς, διδοῖς ἱστῷς, ἱστῷ (the thematic alternatives are formed like ποιεῖς, δηλοῖς, τιμῷς, etc.).

Note 1: These forms occur particularly often in Ionic, $\rightarrow 25.38$.

- 12.56 The verb φημί say uses some thematic forms built on the stem φασκ- (for -σκ-, \rightarrow 12.31):
 - in Attic prose, the regular forms of the participle are φάσκων, φάσκοντος, etc. (in poetry and Ionic prose, φάς, φάντος, etc.);
 - the imperfect ἔφασκον, etc. occurs regularly;
 - some other forms occur, e.g. 1 sg. opt. φάσκοιμι, 3 pl. subj. φάσκωσιν.

The Aorist: Active and Middle

Types of Aorist (Active and Middle) Stem

- 13.1 Aorist (active and middle) stems are formed in one of three different ways:
 - **Sigmatic aorists** (the most common type): aorist stems are formed by adding σ (and α , $\rightarrow 13.6-7$) to the verb stem. E.g. with παιδεύω *educate* (verb stem παιδευ-): aorist stem παιδευ<u>σ</u>(α)-, 1 sg. ind. aor. act. ἐπαίδευσα; with δείκνūμι *show* (verb stem δεικ-): aorist stem δειξ(α)-, 1 sg. ind. aor. act. ἔδειξ α .

With verb stems ending in a resonant the sigma disappeared with compensatory lengthening of the vowel preceding the resonant: the so-called '**pseudo-sigmatic**' aorist. E.g. with $\mathring{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\lambda\lambda\omega$ report (verb stem $\mathring{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\underline{\lambda}$ -): aorist stem $\mathring{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\underline{\lambda}(\alpha)$ - (<* $\mathring{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda\alpha$ -), 1 sg. ind. aor. act. $\mathring{\eta}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda\alpha$; with $\mathring{\alpha}i\nu\omega$ show (verb stem $\mathring{\alpha}\check{\alpha}\nu$ -): aorist stem $\mathring{\alpha}\nu$ -): aorist stem $\mathring{\alpha}\nu$ -). 1 sg. ind. aor. act. $\mathring{\epsilon}\mathring{\eta}\gamma\nu\alpha$.

- Thematic aorists: a group of aorists is formed by adding a thematic vowel and endings directly to the aorist stem (normally identical to (a variant of) the verb stem), which ends in a consonant. E.g. with λαμβάνω get, take (verb stem ληβ-/λᾶβ-): aorist stem λᾶβ-, 1 sg. ind. aor. act. ἔ-λαβ-ο-ν; with λείπω leave (verb stem λειπ-/λοιπ-/λῖπ-): aorist stem λῖπ-, 1 sg. ind. aor. act. ἔ-λιπ-ο-ν.
- Root aorists: a small number of verbs has aorists formed by directly adding endings to the aorist stem, which always ends in a vowel. E.g. with γιγνώσκω know, recognize (verb stem γνω-): aorist stem γνω-, 1 sg. ind. aor. act. ἔ-γνω-ν; with ἵσταμαι come to stand (verb stem στη-/στα-): aorist stem στη-, 1 sg. ind. aor. act. ἔ-στη-ν.

Note 1: Thus sigmatic aorist stems are formed by an *addition* $(-\sigma\alpha^-)$ to the verb stem, while in the case of both thematic and root aorists, the stem is usually *identical* to (a variant of) the verb stem. The difference between the latter two is that forms of the thematic aorist (stems usually ending in a consonant) are formed using a thematic vowel, whereas root aorists (which have stems ending in a vowel) are not: contrast e.g. $\xi - \lambda_1 \underline{\pi} - \underline{o} - \nu$ with $\xi - \gamma \nu \underline{\omega} - \nu$. **Note 2:** Sigmatic aorists are often called 'first' or 'weak' aorists; thematic and root aorists are often called 'second' or 'strong' aorists. For these distinctions, see the section *On Terminology* at the start of this book.

- 13.2 The verbs δίδωμι give, τ iθημι put, place and $\tilde{\imath}$ ημι send, let go have a distinct conjugation in the agrist, mostly of the root type but with some peculiarities. \rightarrow 13.51–62.
- 13.3 Although most verbs have only one type of a rist, there are a few that have more than one, in some cases with important distinctions of meaning. For these verbs, \rightarrow 13.63–4.

Sigmatic (and Pseudo-Sigmatic) Aorists

Overview of Forms

13.4 **Active** forms:

		_	verb stems end- ing in 1, 0 or a diphthong	verb stems ending in α, ε, o or η	verb stems end- ing in a labial or velar stop	verb stems ending in a dental stop	verb stems ending in a resonant
			παιδεύω educate stem παιδευσ(α)-	τιμάω <i>honour</i> stem τιμησ(α)-	τρίβω <i>rub</i> stem τριψ(α)-	κομίζω <i>convey</i> stem κομισ(α)-	άγγέλλω report stem άγγειλ(α)-
ind.	sg.	1	ἐπαίδευσα	ἐτίμησα	ἔτριψα	ἐκόμισα	ἤγγειλα
		2	ἐπαίδευσας	ἐτίμησας	ἔτριψας	ἐκόμισας	ἤγγειλας
		3	ἐπαίδευσε(ν)	ἐτίμησε(ν)	ἔτριψε(ν)	ἐκόμισε(ν)	ἤγγειλε(ν)
	pl.	1	ἐπαιδεύσαμεν	ἐτιμήσαμεν	ἐτρίψαμεν	ἐκομίσαμεν	ἠγγείλαμεν
		2	ἐπαιδεύσατε	ἐτιμήσατε	ἐτρίψατε	ἐκομίσατε	ἠγγείλατε
		3	ἐπαίδευσαν	ἐτίμησαν	ἔτριψαν	ἐκόμισαν	ἥγγειλαν
subj.	sg.	1	παιδεύσω	τιμήσω	τρίψω	κομίσω	ἀγγείλω
		2	παιδεύσης	τιμήσης	τρίψης	κομίσης	ἀγγείλῃς
		3	παιδεύσῃ	τιμήσῃ	τρίψῃ	κομίση	ἀγγείλῃ
	pl.	1	παιδεύσωμεν	τιμήσωμεν	τρίψωμεν	κομίσωμεν	ἀγγείλωμεν
		2	παιδεύσητε	τιμήσητε	τρίψητε	κομίσητε	ἀγγείλητε
		3	παιδεύσωσι(ν)	τιμήσωσι(ν)	τρίψωσι(ν)	κομίσωσι(ν)	ἀγγείλωσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	παιδεύσαιμι	τιμήσαιμι	τρίψαιμι	κομίσαιμι	ἀγγείλαιμι
		2	παιδεύσειας	τιμήσειας	τρίψειας	κομίσειας	ἀγγείλειας
		3	$παιδεύσειε(ν)^2$	τιμήσειε(ν)2	τρίψειε(ν)	κομίσειε $(v)^2$	άγγείλειε $(v)^2$
	pl.	1	παιδεύσαιμεν	τιμήσαιμεν	τρίψαιμεν	κομίσαιμεν	ἀγγείλαιμεν
		2	παιδεύσαιτε	τιμήσαιτε	τρίψαιτε	κομίσαιτε	ἀγγείλαιτε
		3	παιδεύσειαν	τιμήσειαν	τρίψειαν ³	κομίσειαν	ἀγγείλειαν
imp.	sg.	2	παίδευσον	τίμησον	τρῖψον	κόμισον	ἄγγειλον
		3	παιδευσάτω	τιμησάτω	τριψάτω	κομισάτω	ἀγγειλάτω
	pl.	2	παιδεύσατε	τιμήσατε	τρίψατε	κομίσατε	ἀγγείλατε
		3	παιδευσάντων	τιμησάντων	τριψάντων	κομισάντων	ἀγγειλάντων
inf.			παιδεῦσαι	τιμῆσαι	τρῖψαι	κομίσαι	ἀγγεῖλαι
ppl.	maso	: .	παιδεύσας,	τιμήσας,	τρίψας,	κομίσας,	ἀγγείλας,
			-αντος	-αντος	-αντος	-αντος	-αντος
	fem.		παιδεύσασα,	τιμήσασα,	τρίψασα,	κομίσασα,	ἀγγείλασα,
			-άσης	-άσης	-άσης	-άσης	-άσης
	neut		παιδεῦσαν,	τιμῆσαν,	τρῖψαν,	κομίσαν,	ἀγγεῖλαν,
			-αντος	-αντος	-αντος	-αντος	-αντος

 $^{^1}$ Also -σαις, e.g. παιδεύσαις, τιμήσαις, etc.

² Also -σαι, e.g. παιδεύσαι, τρίψαι, etc.

 $^{^3}$ Also -σαιεν, e.g. παιδεύσαιεν, ἀγγείλαιεν, etc.

13.5 **Middle** forms:

		_	verb stems ending in 1, υ or a diphthong παιδεύω educate stem παιδευσ(α)-	verb stems ending in α, ε, ο or η Τιμάω honour stem τιμησ(α)-	verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop τρίβω rub stem τριψ(α)-	verb stems ending in a dental stop κομίζω convey stem κομισ(α)-	ending in a resonant ἀγγέλλω report stem ἀγγείλ(α)-
ind.		1	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		, , , ,	, ,,	
ma.	sg.	1 2	ἐπαιδευσάμην ἐπαιδεύσω	ἐτιμησάμην ἐ	ἐτριψάμην ἐ(ἐκομισάμην ἐ	ήγγειλάμην **
		3	επαιοευσω ἐπαιδεύσατο	ἐτιμήσω ἐ	ἐτρίψω 	ἐκομίσω ἐνονίσου	ήγγείλω ήγγείλατο
	pl.		έπαιδευσάμεθα	ἐτιμήσατο	ἐτρίψατο ἐ	ἐκομίσατο ἐνουν=έννοθον	
	pı.	1	,	ἐτιμησάμεθα ἐ	ἐτριψάμεθα ἐ (····0-	ἐκομισάμεθα ἐ	ήγγειλάμεθα *
		2	ἐπαιδεύσασθε 	ἐτιμήσασθε , ,	ἐτρίψασθε	ἐκομίσασθε	ἠγγείλασθε
		3	ἐπαιδεύσαντο	ἐτιμήσαντο	ἐτρίψαντο	ἐκομίσαντο	ήγγείλαντο
subj.	sg.	1	παιδεύσωμαι	τιμήσωμαι	τρίψωμαι	κομίσωμαι	ἀγγείλωμαι
		2	παιδεύση	τιμήση	τρίψη	κομίση	ἀγγείλῃ
	_	3	παιδεύσηται	τιμήσηται	τρίψηται	κομίσηται	άγγείληται
	pl.	1	παιδευσώμεθα	τιμησώμεθα	τριψώμεθα	κομισώμεθα	άγγειλώμεθα
		2	παιδεύσησθε	τιμήσησθε	τρίψησθε	κομίσησθε	ἀγγείλησθε
		3	παιδεύσωνται	τιμήσωνται	τρίψωνται	κομίσωνται	ἀγγείλωνται
opt.	sg.	1	παιδευσαίμην	τιμησαίμην	τριψαίμην	κομισαίμην	ἀγγειλαίμην
		2	παιδεύσαιο	τιμήσαιο	τρίψαιο	κομίσαιο	ἀγγείλαιο
		3	παιδεύσαιτο	τιμήσαιτο	τρίψαιτο	κομίσαιτο	ἀγγείλαιτο
	pl.	1	παιδευσαίμεθα	τιμησαίμεθα	τριψαίμεθα	κομισαίμεθα	ἀγγειλαίμεθα
		2	παιδεύσαισθε	τιμήσαισθε	τρίψαισθε	κομίσαισθε	ἀγγείλαισθε
		3	παιδεύσαιντο	τιμήσαιντο	τρίψαιντο	κομίσαιντο	ἀγγείλαιντο
imp.	sg.	2	παίδευσαι	τίμησαι	τρῖψαι	κόμισαι	ἄγγειλαι
		3	παιδευσάσθω	τιμησάσθω	τριψάσθω	κομισάσθω	ἀγγειλάσθω
	pl.	2	παιδεύσασθε	τιμήσασθε	τρίψασθε	κομίσασθε	άγγείλασθε
		3	παιδευσάσθων	τιμησάσθων	τριψάσθων	κομισάσθων	ἀγγειλάσθων
inf.			παιδεύσασθαι	τιμήσασθαι	τρίψασθαι	κομίσασθαι	ἀγγείλασθαι
ppl.	mas	c.	παιδευσάμενος,	τιμησάμενος,	τριψάμενος,	κομισάμενος,	άγγειλάμενος,
			-ou	-ou	-ou	-ou	-ou
	fem.		παιδευσαμένη,	τιμησαμένη,	τριψαμένη,	κομισαμένη,	άγγειλαμένη,
			-ης	-ης	-ης	-ης	-ης
	neut		παιδευσάμενον,	τιμησάμενον,	τριψάμενον,	κομισάμενον,	άγγειλάμενον,
			-ou	-ou	-ou	-ou	-ou

Sigma and Alpha

- 13.6 As the name suggests, sigmatic (and pseudo-sigmatic) agrists feature a **sigma** in the stem (though this σ has disappeared in the case of pseudo-sigmatic agrists, \rightarrow 13.24).
- In addition, nearly all forms of the sigmatic aorist have an **alpha**. This $\check{\alpha}$ goes back to an original 1 sg. ending *-m (final *-m changed to - $\check{\alpha}$ after consonants (\rightarrow 1.86),

e.g. ξ -δειξ- α < * ξ -δειξ-m; it changed to - ν after vowels, \rightarrow 1.73, contrast e.g. ξ - $\lambda\alpha\beta$ -o- ν < *-o-m). The alpha was then generalized throughout the conjugation, so that sigmatic aorists in general may be recognized by the combination $\sigma\alpha$ (or merely α in the case of pseudo-sigmatic aorists): in essence, the alpha has become part of the aorist stem. Note, however, that the alpha is absent in the 3 sg. act. ind. (e.g. ξ - α (δ ευσε), the 2 sg. act. imp. (e.g. π αίδευσο ν), all aor. subjunctives (e.g. 1 sg. mid. π αιδεύσωμαι), and some optative forms (e.g. 2 sg. act. π αιδεύσειας). Below, aorist stems are therefore given with the alpha between parentheses.

Endings

- 13.8 The endings of (pseudo-)sigmatic aorists differ in some cases from those listed in 11.20–33, particularly in imperative, optative, and infinitive. They are detailed below.
- The agrist **indicative**, as a secondary (past-tense) indicative, is formed with the augment (\rightarrow 11.35). The endings per person are:
 - The 1 sg. act. ind. ends in -α as described above (→13.7): e.g. ἐ-παίδευσα,
 ἤγγειλα.
 - All other indicative forms add the regular secondary endings to the stem with the alpha: e.g. 2 sg. act. ind. ἐ-παίδευσα-ς, 1 pl. act. ind. ἠγγείλα-μεν, 1 sg. mid. ind. ἐ-παιδευσά-μην, 3 pl. mid. ind. ἠγγείλα-ντο. The ending of 3 pl. act. ind. is -ν, e.g. ἐ-παίδευσα-ν.

However, in the 3 sg. act. ind. the alpha is *not* used; it ends in $-\varepsilon(\nu)$: e.g. $\dot{\varepsilon}$ -παίδευσ- $\varepsilon(\nu)$, ἢγγειλ- $\varepsilon(\nu)$.

Note the 2 sg. mid. ind., where the ending -σο has lost its σ, and α and ο have contracted: e.g. ἐ-παιδεύσω (<*ἐ-παιδεύσα-(σ)ο).

Note 1: The 2 sg. mp. does not contract in Ionic, \rightarrow 25.6, 25.32.

Note 2: Note that the augment is used *only* in indicatives (contrast e.g. 1 sg. act. ind. $\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\epsilon}$ παίδευσα with 1 sg. act. subj. παιδεύσω, inf. παιδεῦσαι).

13.10 Imperative:

- the 2 sg. act. imp. does not have the alpha and ends in -ov: e.g. παίδευσον,
 ἄγγειλου;
- the 2 sg. mid. imp. ends in -αι: e.g. παίδευσαι, ἄγγειλαι;
- all other imperative forms add regular imperative endings (→11.29) after the alpha: e.g. 3 sg. act. imp. ἀγγειλά-τω, 2 pl. imp. mid. παιδεύσα-σθε.

- 13.11 Aorist **subjunctives** do not have α. The long thematic vowel of the subjunctive and primary endings are used. E.g. 1 pl. act. subj. παιδεύσ-ω-μεν, 1 sg. mid. subj. παιδεύσ-ω-μαι, 3 sg. mid. subj. ἀγγείλ-η-ται.
- 13.12 Aorist **optatives** use the optative suffix -1-, which forms a diphthong with the preceding alpha of the stem (→11.16); secondary endings are added (→11.22-7). E.g. 1 pl. act. opt. ἀγγείλ<u>αι-μεν</u>, 1 sg. mid. opt. παιδευσ<u>αί-μην</u>. The 1 sg. act. opt. uses the primary ending -μι, e.g. παιδεύσαι-μι.

More frequent alternative forms exist for the 2 sg. act. opt. $(\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\sigma\underline{\epsilon}i\alpha\underline{\varsigma})$ next to $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\sigma\alpha_1$ - ς), 3 sg. act. opt. $(\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\sigma\underline{\epsilon}i\varepsilon(\nu))$ next to $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\sigma\alpha_1$) and 3 pl. act. opt. $(\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\sigma\epsilon_1\alpha\nu)$ next to $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\sigma\alpha_1$ - $\epsilon\nu$).

13.13 The active infinitive ends in -αι: e.g. παιδεῦσαι, ἀγγεῖλαι.

The middle infinitive ends in -σθαι: e.g. παιδεύσα-σθαι, ἀγγείλα-σθαι.

Note 1: For differences in accentuation between different forms ending in $-(\sigma)\alpha_1$, $\rightarrow 24.20$ n.1.

13.14 **Active participles** add -ντ- to the stem: e.g. gen. sg. masc. παιδεύσἄ-<u>ντ</u>-ος, gen. sg. fem. παιδευσάσης (<*-σάντy-). For the entire declension, →5.17-18.

Middle participles add -μεν- to the stem: e.g. nom. sg. masc. ἀγγειλά-μεν-ος, nom. sg. fem. ἀγγειλα-μέν-η. For the entire declension, $\rightarrow 5.3-4$.

Stem Formation of Sigmatic Aorists

Verb Stems Ending in 1, u or a Diphthong

13.15 Verb stems ending in 1, υ , or diphthongs stay unchanged before the added σ . Some examples:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
χρίω anoint	χρῖ-	χρισ(α)-	ἔχρισα	χρῖσαι
κωλύω hinder	κωλῦ-	κωλυσ(α)-	ἐκώλυσα	κωλῦσαι
παίω strike	παι-	παισ(α)-	ἔπαισα	παῖσαι
παύω stop	παυ-	παυσ(α)-	ἔπαυσα	παῦσαι
παιδεύω educate	παιδευ-	παιδευσ(α)-	ἐπαίδευσα	παιδεῦσαι
ἀκούω hear	<u>ἀκο(υ)</u> (σ)-	ἀκουσ(α)-	ἤκουσα	ἀκοῦσαι

Verb Stems Ending in ε , α or \circ (or η or ω)

- With verb stems ending (in the present) in ε , α or ο (i.e. contract verbs), the aorist stem is built on the **long variant** of the verb stem (\rightarrow 11.11):
 - pres. stem ε: aor. stem η;
 - pres. stem $\bar{\alpha}$ (or η): aor. stem η (but $\bar{\alpha}$ after ε, ι or ρ);

– pres. stem o: aor. stem ω ; a few verbs with a verb stem ending in ω have a similarly formed aorist.

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ποιέω make, do	<u>ποιη-</u> /ποιε-	ποιησ(α)-	ἐποίησα	ποιῆσαι
ἡγέομαι lead, consider	<u>ἡγη-</u> /ἡγε-	ήγησ(α)-	ἡγησάμην	ἡγήσασθαι
τιμάω honour	<u>τιμη-</u> /τιμᾶ-	τιμησ(α)-	ἐτίμησα	τιμῆσαι
κτάομαι <i>acquire</i>	<u>κτη-</u> /κτἄ-	κτησ(α)-	ἐκτησάμην	κτήσασθαι
δράω <i>do</i>	<u>δρα-</u> /δρα-	δρᾶσ(α)-	ἔδρᾶσα	δρᾶσαι
δηλόω make clear	<u>δηλω-</u> /δηλο-	δηλωσ(α)-	ἐδήλωσα	δηλῶσαι
χρήομαι use, need	χρη-	χρησ(α)-	ἐχρησάμην	χρήσασθαι
τιτρώσκω wound	τρω-	τρωσ(α)-	ἔτρωσα	τρῶσαι

13.17 Similarly, with - μ 1 verbs that have variant verb stems ending in η/α (\rightarrow 12.37–8), the long variant of the verb stem is used:

ï	στημι make stand, set up	<u>στη-</u> /στἄ-	στησ(α)-	ἔστησα	στῆσαι
٦	πίμπλημι <i>fill</i>	<u>πλη-</u> /πλἄ-	πλησ(α)-	ἔπλησα	πλῆσαι
ć	δνίνημι benefit	ὀνη-/ὀνα̈-	ὀνησ(α)-	ὤνησα	ὀνῆσαι

13.18 Some verbs in - $\dot{\alpha}\omega$ and - $\dot{\epsilon}\omega$ that had a verb stem ending in σ do not have a long vowel in the aorist (the original σ is visible in the Homeric/epic aorist in - $\sigma\sigma\alpha$, and often in other tense stems):

```
\zetaέω boil (verb stem \zetaε(σ)-) aor. ἔζεσα (<ἔζεσαα, epic) inf. ζέσαι τελέω finish (verb stem τελε(σ)-) aor. ἐτέλεσα (<ἐτέλεσαα, epic) inf. τελέσαι γελάω laugh (verb stem γελά(σ)-) aor. ἐγέλασα (<ἐγέλασαα, epic) inf. γελάσαι
```

In some cases such verbs did not originally have a stem in σ , but were absorbed into this type by analogy (\rightarrow 1.49), based on an epic aorist in $-\sigma\sigma\alpha$:

```
καλέω call (verb stem κάλε-/κλη-) aor. ἐκάλεσα (ἐκάλεσσα, epic) inf. καλέσαι
```

Verbs in -άννυμι and -έννυμι also had a stem in σ:

```
κεράννυμι mix (<*κεράσ-νυμι) aor. ἐκέρᾶσα (<ἐκέρᾶσσα, epic) inf. κεράσαι 
ἀμφι-έννυμι clothe (<*-ἔσ-νυμι) aor. ἠμφίεσα (<-ἐσσα, epic) inf. ἀμφιέσαι
```

13.19 A few other verbs have only a verb stem with a short vowel (and no variant with a long vowel); these verbs thus have a short vowel in the aorist:

```
(ἐπ)αἰνέω praise (verb stem αἰνε-) aor. ἤνεσα inf. αἰνέσαι ἀρκέω suffice (verb stem ἀρκε-) aor. ἤρκεσα inf. ἀρκέσαι
```

13.20 A few verbs in $-\alpha\omega$ and $-\epsilon\omega$ that originally had a verb stem ending in β (\rightarrow 12.25, 12.29 n.1) have an aorist in $-\alpha\omega\sigma\alpha$ or $-\epsilon\omega\sigma\alpha$, respectively:

```
κάω (also καίω) set on fire (<*κάτρω) αοτ. ἔκαυσα (<*ἔκατρα) inf. καῦσαι πλέω sail (<*πλέτω) αοτ. ἔπλευσα (<*ἔπλετρα) inf. πλεῦσαι πνέω blow (<*πνέτω) αοτ. ἔπνευσα (<*ἔπνετρα) inf. πνεῦσαι
```

Verb Stems Ending in a Labial or Velar Stop

13.21 Verb stems ending in a labial stop get an aorist stem in $\psi(\alpha)$ ($\pi/\beta/\phi + \sigma = \psi$). Some examples:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
πέμπω send	<u>πεμπ-</u> /πομπ-	πεμψ(α)-	ἔπεμψα	πέμψαι
τρίβω <i>rub</i>	<u>τρῖβ-</u> /τρĭβ-	τριψ(α)-	ἔτριψα	τρῖψαι
γράφω write	γρἄφ-	γραψ(α)-	ἔγραψα	γράψαι

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\pi\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

βλάπτω harm, damage	βλἄβ-	βλαψ(α)-	ἔβλαψα	βλάψαι
κρύπτω <i>hide</i>	κρύφ-/κρύβ-	κρυψ(α)-	ἔκρυψα	κρύψαι

13.22 Verb stems ending in velar stops get an aorist stem in $\xi(\alpha)$ (κ/γ/χ + σ = ξ). Some examples:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
διώκω chase	διωκ-	διωξ(α)-	ἐδίωξα	διῶξαι
λήγω cease	ληγ-	ληξ(α)-	ἔληξα	λῆξαι
ἄρχω rule, begin	ἄρχ-	ἀρξ(α)-	ἦρξα	ἄρξαι

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\tau\tau\omega$, and a few in $-\zeta\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

φυλάττω guard	φυλἄκ-	φυλαξ(α)-	ἐφύλαξα	φυλάξαι
τάττω array, appoint	τἄγ-	ταξ(α)-	ἔταξα	τάξαι
οἰμώζω <i>groan</i>	οἰμωγ-	οἰμωξ(α)-	ὤμωξα	οἰμῶξαι

And note that a number of - $\nu\nu\mu$ 1 verbs have verb stems ending in a velar stop (\rightarrow 12.39). For example:

δείκνυμι show	δεικ-	δειξ(α)-	ἔδειξα	δεῖξαι
πήγνυμι affix, fasten	<u>πηγ-</u> /πἄγ-	πηξ(α)-	ἔπηξα	πῆξαι

Verb Stems Ending in a Dental Stop

13.23 With verb stems ending in a dental stop $(\tau/\delta/\theta)$, that **dental stop disappears** before σ in the agrist:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ἀνύτω complete	ἀνῦ(τ)-	ἀνυσ(α)-	ἥνυσα	ἀνύσαι
ψεύδομαι <i>lie</i>	ψευδ-	ψευσ(α)-	ἐψευσάμην	ψεύσασθαι
πείθω persuade	$\frac{\pi \epsilon i \theta}{\pi} / \pi o i \theta - / \pi i \theta$	- πεισ(α) <i>-</i>	ἔπεισα	πεῖσαι

· '	-	•	•	•
άρμόζω/άρμόττω	άρμοδ-/άρμοτ-	άρμοσ(α)-	ἥρμοσα	άρμόσαι
fit together				
λογίζομαι count	λογĭδ-	λογισ(α)-	ἐλογισάμην	λογίσασθαι
κομίζω <i>convey</i>	κομῖδ-	κομισ(α)-	ἐκόμισα	κομίσαι
νομίζω believe	νομῖδ-	νομισ(α)-	ἐνόμισα	νομίσαι
ἐρέττω <i>row</i>	ἐρετ-	ἔρεσ(α)-	ἤρεσα	ἐρέσαι
πλάττω mould	πλἄθ-	πλασ(α)-	ἔπλασα	πλάσαι

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\zeta\omega$, and a few in $-\tau\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

The Pseudo-Sigmatic Aorist - Verb Stems Ending in a Resonant

13.24 With verb stems ending in a resonant (nasal (μ, ν) or liquid (λ, ρ)) consonant, the **sigma of the aorist has disappeared** (hence the term 'pseudo-sigmatic' aorist); the alpha remains. The disappearance of the sigma led to **compensatory lengthening** of the vowel preceding the resonant.

E.g. with φαίνω show (verb stem φην-/ ϕ αν-): 1 sg. aor. act. ind. ἔφηνα (<*ἔφανα <*ἔ-φαν-σα), aor. act. inf. φῆναι (<*φάν-σαι).

E.g. with ἀγγέλλω report (verb stem ἀγγελ-): 1 sg. aor. act. ind. ἤγγειλα (<*ἤγγελ-σα), aor. act. inf. ἀγγεῖλαι (<*ἀγγέλ-σαι).

Some other examples:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
μένω stay, (a)wait	μεν-	μειν(α)-	ἔμεινα	μεῖναι
νέμω deal out	νεμ-	νειμ(α)-	ἔνειμα	νεῖμαι
δέμω <i>build</i>	δεμ-	δειμ(α)-	ἔδειμα	δεῖμαι

Note especially verbs that have a present in -λλω or in -αίνω/-αίρω, -είνω/-είρω, -ίνω/-ήρω, -ύνω/-ύρω (\rightarrow 12.28):

στέλλω dispatch	<u>στελ-</u> /στἄλ-	στειλ(α)-	ἔστειλα	στεῖλαι
σφάλλω cause to stumble	σφἄλ-	σφηλ(α)-	ἔσφηλα	σφῆλαι
ἀπο-κτείνω kill	<u>κτεν-</u> /κτον-/κτάν-	κτειν(α)-	ἀπ-έκτεινα	ἀποκτεῖναι
μιαίνω stain	μιἄν-	μιᾶν(α)-	ἐμίᾶνα	μιᾶναι
καθαίρω cleanse	καθἄρ-	καθηρ(α)-	ἐκάθηρα	καθῆραι
ἀμὑνω defend,	ἀμϋν-	ἀμῦν(α)-	ἤμῦνα	ἀμῦναι
succour				
κρ ί νω decide, judge	κρῖ(ν)-	κρῖν(α)-	ἔκρῖνα	κρῖναι
But note:				
αἴρω lift	ἆρ- (<*ἀερ-)	$\dot{\bar{\alpha}} \rho(\alpha)$ -	ἦρα	ἆραι

13.25 The present stem of these verbs is often different from the verb stem as well, usually due to the disappearance of y. In some cases, the present and aorist have the same vowel as a result, e.g. with verb stem κτεν-, pres. ἀποκτείνω (<*ἀποκτέν-yω), aor. ἀπέκτεινα (<*ἀπέκτεν-σα): →1.68-9.

As a result, the 3 sg. impf. act. and 3 sg. aor. act. ind. of some verbs may be identical: cf. e.g. impf. $d\pi \acute{\epsilon} \kappa \tau \epsilon \nu (<^* d\pi - \acute{\epsilon} - \kappa \tau \epsilon \nu - \nu \epsilon)$ with aor. $d\pi \acute{\epsilon} \kappa \tau \epsilon \nu = (<^* d\pi - \acute{\epsilon} - \kappa \tau \epsilon \nu - \nu \epsilon)$.

13.26 This type of stem is sometimes called 'sigmatic agrist improper', or 'liquid first agrist'.

Thematic Aorists

Overview of Forms

13.27 **Active** forms:

			regular forms	ἔχω	φέρω (mixed thematic/ α-conjugation)		
			λαμβάνω get, take	have, hold	carry, bring		
			stem λἄβ-	stem σχ-	stem ἐνεγκ(α)-		
ind.	sg.	1	ἔλαβον	ἔσχον	ἤνεγκον <i>0τ</i> ἤνεγκα		
		2	ἔλαβες	ἔσχες	ἤνεγκας		
		3	ἔλαβε(ν)	ἔσχε(ν)	ἤνεγκε(ν)		
	pl.	1	ἐλάβομεν	ἔσχομεν	ἠνέγκαμεν		
		2	ἐλάβετε	ἔσχετε	ἠνέγκατε		
		3	ἔλαβον	ἔσχον	ἦνεγκαν		
subj.	sg.	1	λάβω	σχῶ	ἐνέγκω		
		2	λάβης	σχῆς	ἐνέγκης		
		3	λάβη	σχῆ	ἐνέγκῃ		
	pl.	1	λάβωμεν	σχῶμεν	ἐνέγκωμεν		
		2	λάβητε	σχῆτε	ἐνέγκητε		
		3	λάβωσι(ν)	σχῶσι(ν)	ἐνέγκωσι(ν)		
opt.	sg.	1	λάβοιμι	σχοίην	ἐνέγκαιμι		
		2	λάβοις	σχοίης	ἐνέγκοις <i>or</i> ἐνέγκαις		
		3	λάβοι	σχοίη	ἐνέγκοι <i>or</i> ἐνέγκαι		
	pl.	1	λάβοιμεν	σχοῖμεν	ἐνέγκοιμεν <i>or</i> ἐνέγκαιμεν		
		2	λάβοιτε	σχοῖτε	ἐνέγκαιτε		
		3	λάβοιεν	σχοῖεν	ἐνέγκοιεν <i>or</i> ἐνέγκαιεν		
imp.	sg.	2	λαβέ	σχές	ἔνεγκε		
		3	λαβέτω	σχέτω	ἐνεγκάτω		
	pl.	2	λάβετε	σχέτε	ἐνέγκατε		
		3	λαβόντων	σχόντων	ἐνεγκάντων		
inf.			λαβεῖν	σχεῖν	ἐνεγκεῖν		
ppl.	mas	c.	λαβών, -όντος	σχών, -όντος	ἐνεγκών, -όντος or ἐνέγκας, -αντος		
	fem.		λαβοῦσα, -ούσης	σχοῦσα, -ούσης	ἐνεγκοῦσα, -ούσης or ἐνέγκασα, -άσης		
	neut	i .	λαβόν, -όντος	σχόν, -όντος	ἐνεγκόν, -όντος or ἐνέγκαν, -αντος		

13.28 **Middle** forms:

			regular forms	φέρω (α-conjugation)
			λαμβάνω get, take	carry, bring
			stem λἄβ-	stem ἐνεγκ(α)-
ind.	sg.	1	έλαβόμην	ηνεγκάμην
		2	ἐλάβου	ἠνέγκω
		3	ἐλάβετο	ἠνέγκατο
	pl.	1	ἐλαβόμεθα	ἠνεγκάμεθα
		2	ἐλάβεσ θ ε	ἠνέγκασθε
		3	ἐλάβοντο	ἠνέγκαντο
subj.	sg.	1	λάβωμαι	ἐνέγκωμαι
		2	λάβῃ	ἐνέγκῃ
		3	λάβηται	ἐνέγκηται
	pl.	1	λαβώμεθα	ἐνεγκώμε θ α
		2	λάβησθε	ἐνέγκησθε
		3	λάβωνται	ἐνέγκωνται
opt.	sg.	1	λαβοίμην	ἐνεγκαίμην
		2	λάβοιο	ἐνέγκαιο
		3	λάβοιτο	ἐνέγκαιτο
	pl.	1	λαβοίμεθα	ἐνεγκαίμε θ α
		2	λάβοισθε	ἐνέγκαισθε
		3	λάβοιντο	ἐνέγκαιντο
imp.	sg.	2	λαβοῦ	ἐνεγκοῦ
		3	λαβέσθω	ἐνεγκάσθω
	pl.	2	λάβεσθε	ἐνέγκασθε
		3	λαβέσθων	ἐνεγκάσθων
inf.			λαβέσθαι	ἐνέγκασθα ι
ppl.	masc.		λαβόμενος, -ου	ένεγκάμενος , -ου
	fem.		λαβομένη, -ης	ἐνεγκαμένη, -ης
	neut.		λαβόμενον, -ου	ἐνεγκάμενον, -ου

Stems and Endings

- 13.29 The agrist stem of verbs with a thematic agrist is always **different from the present stem**, in three possible ways:
 - because it has a different variant of the verb stem from the present: e.g. with $\frac{\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega}{2}$ (verb stem $\frac{\lambda \epsilon i \pi}{2}$): aorist stem $\frac{\lambda \epsilon \pi}{2}$;
 - because the present stem is the result of changes/additions to the verb stem $(\rightarrow 12.30)$: e.g. with $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$ (verb stem $\lambda \eta \beta$ -/ $\lambda \ddot{\alpha} \beta$ -): aorist stem $\lambda \ddot{\alpha} \beta$ -;

- in some cases because an entirely different verb stem is used for the aorist than for the present (suppletive verbs, →11.13): e.g. with αἱρέω (verb stem αἱρη-/αἰρε-, ἑλ-): aorist stem ἑλ-.
- 13.30 The endings and thematic vowels used are those listed in 11.18–34, and are thus exactly the same as those used with the present system of $-\omega$ verbs (\rightarrow 12.3–13). Note that the aorist indicative, a past tense, uses secondary endings (these are thus the same as those of the imperfect of $-\omega$ verbs).

E.g. λαμβάνω: act: ind. ἔλαβ<u>ον</u> (cf. impf. ἐλάμβαν<u>ον</u>), opt. λάβ<u>οιμι</u> (pres. opt. λαμβάνοιμι), imp. λαβέ (pres. imp. λάμβανε), ppl. λαβών (pres. ppl. λαμβάνων), etc.

Note 1: Since the endings of thematic aorists are identical to those of the present system of $-\omega$ verbs, the only difference between present and aorist forms of these verbs is in the **stem** used; this is sometimes only a small difference. Contrast e.g. 1 sg. impf. act. $\xi \lambda = \pi \omega$ with 1 sg. aor. act. ind. $\xi \lambda = \pi \omega$, and pres. act. inf. $\lambda = \pi \omega$ with aor. act. inf. $\lambda = \pi \omega$ with aor. act. inf. $\lambda = \pi \omega$.

Note 2: For differences in accentuation between thematic agrist forms and present-stem participles and infinitives (e.g. agr. act. inf. λ iπεῖν vs. pres. act. inf. λ είπειν), \rightarrow 24.20. For the accentuation of imperatives such as λ αβέ and ἐνεγκοῦ, \rightarrow 24.17.

'Irregular' Forms

- 13.31 The verb ἔχω *have*, *hold* has some irregular forms in the aorist (built on the stem σχ-): 2 sg. aor. act. imp. σχ-έ-ς, and sg. aor. opt. σχ-οίη-γ, σχ-οίη-ς, σχ-οίη.
- 13.32 Several verbs with a thematic agrist nonetheless have forms with α (analogous to the sigmatic agrist) in their conjugations:
 - The aorist of φέρω carry, bring formed with stem ἐνεγκ-, has a mixed thematic/
 α-conjugation; α predominates, particularly in the middle. E.g. 3 pl. aor. act. ind.
 ἤνεγκαν, 1 sg. aor. act. opt. ἐνέγκαιμι, etc. See the overview of forms, →13.27–28.
 - In the aorist of λέγω say, speak, formed with stem εἰπ-, several forms with α are found alongside thematic ones. Alongside εἶπον, εἶπες and imp. εἰπέτω, εἴπετε also occur: εἶπας, εἶπας, εἰπάτω and εἴπατε. In Herodotus also alongside inf. εἰπεῖν and ppl. εἰπών: inf. εἶπαι, ppl. εἴπας, -αντος. Over time, the α-forms of this aorist gradually replaced the thematic ones.
 - In addition, the verb χέω pour has 1 sg. aor. act. ind. ἔχεα, with (in compound forms only) inf. -χέαι, 3 sg. aor. imp. -χεάτω, etc. (These forms derive from a stem *χερ-, e.g. ἔχεα <*ἔχερ-m, cf. Homeric ἔχευα).

Note 1: For other agrists with an α-conjugation, e.g. ἐπριάμην, ἐπτάμην, $\rightarrow 13.50$. The difference with such agrists – root agrists – is that the α in ἐπριάμην, etc., is (considered to be) part of the stem, and used consistently throughout the conjugation.

The Most Common Thematic Aorists

Verbs with Vowel Variations between the Present and Aorist Stems

13.33 A number of verbs show different ablaut grades (\rightarrow 1.51-6) in the present and thematic agrist stems (the zero-grade is normally used in the agrist):

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ἕπομαι follow	ἑπ-/ <u>σπ-</u>	σπ-	έσπόμην	σπέσθαι
ἔχω have, hold	ἐχ-/ <u>σχ-</u>	σχ-	ἔσχον	σχεῖν
λείπω leave	λειπ-/λοιπ-/ <u>λĭπ-</u>	λιπ-	ἔλιπον	λιπεῖν
πείθομαι believe, obey	πειθ-/ποιθ-/ <u>πῖθ-</u>	$\pi \iota \theta$ -	ἐπιθόμην	πιθέσθαι
τρέπομαι turn around (intr.)	τρεπ-/τροπ-/ <u>τρ</u> απ-	τραπ-	ἐτραπόμην	τραπέσθαι
φεύγω flee	φευγ-/ <u>φŭγ-</u>	φυγ-	ἔφυγον	φυγεῖν

13.34 But several verbs with a reduplicated present stem have the zero-grade in the present stem, and normal e-grade in the aorist stem:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
γί-γν-ομαι become, be born	$\gamma \epsilon \nu (\eta) - /\gamma o \nu - /\gamma \nu -$	γεν-	ἐγενόμην	γενέσθαι
τίκτω give birth (<*τί-τκ-ω)	<u>τεκ-</u> /τοκ-/τκ-	τεκ-	ἔτεκον	τεκεῖν
πί-πτ-ω fall	πεσ-/πτ(ω)-	πεσ-	ἔπεσον	πεσεῖν

Other Differences between the Present and Aorist Stems

- 13.35 Several presents formed with a **nasal infix** (\rightarrow 12.30) have thematic agrists:
 - Verbs ending in -άνω/-άνομαι:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
αἲσθάνομαι perceive	αἰσθ-	αἶσ 0 -	ἦσθόμην	αἰσθέσθαι
άμαρτάνω miss, err	άμἄρτ-	άμαρτ-	ἥμαρτον	άμαρτεῖν
ἀπ-εχθάνομαι incur hatred	ἐχθ-	ἐχθ-	$\mathring{\alpha}\pi\eta\chi\theta\acute{o}\mu\eta\nu$	$\mathring{\alpha}\pi\epsilon\chi\theta\acute{\epsilon}\sigma\theta\alpha\imath$
λαγχάνω obtain by lot	ληχ-/ <u>λἄχ-</u>	λαχ-	ἔλαχον	λαχεῖν
λαμβάνω get, take	ληβ-/ <u>λἄβ-</u>	λαβ-	ἔλαβον	λαβεῖν
λανθάνω go unnoticed	ληθ-/ <u>λἄθ-</u>	λαθ-	ἔλαθον	$\lambda \alpha \theta \epsilon \tilde{\imath} \nu$
μανθάνω learn, understand	μαθ-	μαθ-	ἔμαθον	$\mu \alpha \theta \epsilon \tilde{\imath} \nu$
πυνθάνομαι inquire, learn	π ευ θ -/ $\underline{\pi}$ $\underline{\upsilon}\theta$ -	πυθ-	ἐπυθόμην	πυθέσθαι
τυγχάνω hit upon, happen to	τευχ-/ <u>τŭχ-</u>	τυχ-	ἔτυχον	τυχεῖν

- Other verbs with a nasal infix:

κάμνω toil, be sick	<u>κἄμ-</u> /κμη-	καμ-	ἔκαμον	καμεῖν
πίνω drink	πω-/πο-/	πĭ-	ἔπιον	πιεῖν
	πῖ-/ <u>πῖ-</u>			
τέμνω <i>cut</i>	<u>τεμ-</u> /τμη-	τεμ-	ἔτεμον	τεμεῖν
ἀφικνέομαι arrive	ั้เห-	iκ-	ἀφ-ικόμην	ἀφ-ικέσθαι

13.36	A few verbs whose	present stem is formed	l with the suffix -((1) ok- have thematic agrists:
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verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ἀπο-θνήσκω/	<u>θἄν-</u> /θνη-	θαν-	ἀπέ-θανον	ἀπο-
-θνήσκω die				θ ανεῖν
βλώσκω come	<u>μολ-</u> /(μ)βλω-	μολ-	ἔμολον	μολεῖν
εὑρίσκω find	εὑρ-	εύρ-	ηὖρον	εὑρεῖν
πάσχω suffer	π ενθ-/ π ονθ-/ $\underline{\pi}$ αθ-	παθ-	ἔπαθον	$\pi \alpha \theta \epsilon \tilde{\imath} v$
$(\to 1.96)$				

13.37 Two verbs show other differences between the present and agrist stems:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ἄγω lead, bring	ἄγ-	ἀγαγ- (→11.50)	ἤγαγον	ἀγαγεῖν
βάλλω throw, hit	<u>βἄλ-</u> /βλη-	βαλ-	ἔβαλον	βαλεῖν
$(\to 1.78)$				

Suppletive Verbs

13.38 Finally, a number of verbs have an aorist stem built on an entirely **different verb** stem from the present stem:

verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
αίρέω take	αίρη-/αίρε-, <u>έλ-</u>	έλ-	εἷλον	έλεῖν
ἔρχομαι go, come	$\dot{\epsilon}$ ρχ-, $\dot{\epsilon}$ λευθ-/ $\dot{\epsilon}$ λ($\ddot{\upsilon}$)θ-, ε $\dot{\epsilon}$ -/ $\dot{\tilde{\iota}}$ -	ἐλ θ -	ἦλ θ ον	ἐλθεῖν
ἐρωτάω <i>ask</i>	<u>ἐρ-,</u> ἐρωτη-/ἐρωτα-	ἐρ-	ἠρόμην	ἐρέσθαι
ἐσθίω eat	ἐσθῖ-, <u>φἄγ-</u> , ἐδε-/ἐδο-/ἐδ-	φαγ-	ἔφαγον	φαγεῖν
λέγω say, speak	λεγ-/λογ-, <u>εἰπ-</u> , ἐρ-/ῥη-	εỉπ- but	εἶπον/	εἰπεῖν/
		also: λεξ(α)-	ἔλεξα	λέξαι
όράω see	όρἄ-, <u>ἴδ-</u> , ὀπ-	ίδ-	εἶδον	ίδεῖν
τρέχω <i>run</i>	τρεχ-, <u>δρἄμ-</u>	δραμ-	ἔδραμον	δραμεῖν
φέρω carry, bring	φερ-, ἐνεκ-/ἐνοκ-/ <u>ἐγκ-</u> ,	ἐνεγκ- (→13.28)	ἤνεγκον	ἐνεγκεῖν
	oἰτ-			

Note 1: Observe that the aorist stem of $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ is $\dot{\epsilon} i \pi$ - (cf. inf. $\dot{\epsilon} i \pi \epsilon \tilde{\imath} \nu$). In the ind. $\dot{\epsilon} i \pi \sigma \nu$ the augment has been absorbed into the opening diphthong. The $\dot{\epsilon} i$ in $\dot{\epsilon} i \delta \sigma \nu$ (aor. with $\dot{\delta} \rho \dot{\epsilon} \omega$) and $\dot{\epsilon} i \lambda \sigma \nu$ (aor. with $\dot{\delta} \rho \dot{\epsilon} \omega$), however, is different from the stems $i \delta$ - (cf. inf. $i \delta \dot{\epsilon} i \nu$) and $i \delta \lambda$ - (cf. inf. $i \delta \dot{\epsilon} i \nu$), due to augment $i \dot{\epsilon}$ - ($\rightarrow 11.40$).

Note 2: Of the two aorists of $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ *say, speak*, $\epsilon \bar{1} \pi o \nu$ is more common, while $\dot{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \xi \alpha$ is in the classical period used especially in contexts in which its proper meaning *argue*, *explain* has some force (e.g. in the introductions of long directly reported speeches).

In compound verbs the difference between the two aorists is more marked. Compounds with -έλεξα typically belong to λέγω in its meaning *gather*, whereas compounds with -εῖπον have meanings related to *say*, *speak*. Compounds with the same prefix correspond to different presents: aorists with -εῖπον are suppletive to presents with -αγορεύω or -φημι. For instance:

ἀπέλεξα with ἀπολέγω pick out ἀπεῖπον with ἀπαγορεύω forbid ἐξέλεξα with ἐκλέγω pick out ἐξεῖπον with ἐξαγορεύω declare, make known κατέλεξα with καταλέγω reckon (mid. κατεῖπον with καταγορεύω denounce, speak draw up a list) against συνέλεξα with συλλέγω collect συνεῖπον with συναγορεύω/σύμφημι agree, speak in support of

For other verbs with more than one type of aorist, \rightarrow 13.63.

Root Aorists

Overview of Forms

13.39 The conjugation of root aorists is as follows:

			stems ending in η	stem ending in $\bar{\alpha}$	stems ending in ω	stems ending in ū
		_	ισταμαι come to stand aorist stem στη-	ἀπο-διδράσκω run away aorist stem δρᾶ-	γιγνώσκω know, recognize aorist stem γνω-	δύομαι dive aorist stem δū-
ind.	sg.	1	ἔστην	ἀπ-έδρᾶν	ἔγνων	ἔδῦν
		2	ἔστης	ἀπ-έδρᾶς	ἔγνως	ἔδῦς
		3	ἔστη	ἀπ-έδρᾶ	ἔγνω	ἔδῦ
	pl.	1	ἔστημεν	ἀπ-έδρᾶμεν	ἔγνωμεν	ἔδῦμεν
		2	ἔστητε	ἀπ-έδρᾶτε	ἔγνωτε	ἔδῦτε
		3	ἔστησαν	ἀπ-έδρᾶσαν	ἔγνωσαν	ἔδῦσαν
subj.	sg.	1	στῶ	ἀπο-δρῶ	γνῶ	δύω
		2	στῆς	ἀπο-δρᾶς	γνῷς	δύῃς
		3	στῆ	ἀπο-δρᾶ	γνῷ	δύῃ
	pl.	1	στῶμεν	ἀπο-δρῶμεν	γνῶμεν	δύωμεν
		2	στῆτε	ἀπο-δρᾶτε	γνῶτε	δύητε
		3	στῶσι(ν)	ἀπο-δρῶσι(ν)	γνῶσι(ν)	δύωσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	σταίην	ἀπο-δραίην	γνοίην	
		2	σταίης	ἀπο-δραίης	γνοίης	
		3	σταίη	ἀπο-δραίη	γνοίη	
	pl.	1	σταῖμεν	ἀπο-δραῖμεν	γνοῖμεν	
		2	σταῖτε ²	ἀπο-δραῖτε	γνοῖτε ²	
		3	σταῖεν	ἀπο-δραῖεν	γνοῖεν ³	
imp.	sg.	2	στῆθι	ἀπό-δρᾶθι	γνῶθι	δῦθι
		3	στήτω	ἀπο-δράτω	γνώτω	δύτω
	pl.	2	στῆτε	ἀπό-δρᾶτε	γνῶτε	δῦτε
		3	στάντων	ἀπο-δράντων	γνόντων	δύντων
inf.			στῆναι	ἀπο-δρᾶναι	γνῶναι	δῦναι
ppl.	mas	c.	στάς, -άντος	ἀπο-δράς, -άντος	γνούς, -όντος	δύς, -ΰντος
	fem		στᾶσα, -ἁσης	ἀπο-δρᾶσα, -ἁσης	γνοῦσα, -ούσης	δῦσα, -ὑσης
	neu	t.	στάν, -άντος	ἀπο-δράν, -άντος	γνόν, -όντος	δύν, -ύντος

 $^{^1}$ Also -ίημεν, e.g. σταίημεν, ἀποδραίημεν.

 $^{^2}$ Also -ίητε, e.g. σταίητε, γνοίητε.

³ Also γνοίησαν.

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Stems

13.40 The agrist stem of verbs with a root agrist is always an unelaborated verbal root (\rightarrow 23.2 with n.3), usually **different from the present stem**, in one of three ways:

- because a different variant of the verb stem is selected: e.g. with $\underline{\beta\alpha\dot{\nu}}\omega$ go, walk (verb stem $\beta\eta$ -/ $\beta\ddot{\alpha}(\nu)$ -), a orist stem $\beta\eta$ -;
- or because the present stem is the result of changes/additions to the verb stem
 (→12.25): e.g. with γιγνώσκω know, recognize (verb stem γνω-), aorist stem γνω-;
- or, in one case, because an entirely different verb stem is used for the aorist than for the present (a suppletive verb, \rightarrow 11.13): ζήω *live* (verb stem ζη-), aorist stem βιω- (verb stem βιω-).

With δύομαι *dive* (verb stem $\delta\bar{\upsilon}$ -/δŭ-) the present stem and aorist stem differ only in vowel length (δύομαι vs. ἔδ $\bar{\upsilon}\nu$); with φύομαι *grow* (verb stem φ $\bar{\upsilon}$ -), the aorist and present stems are identical ($\phi\bar{\upsilon}$ -).

- Only a handful of verbs have a root agrist. Their stems end either in η ($\bar{\alpha}$ after ρ), $\bar{\nu}$, or ω . The most frequent verbs and their stems are:
 - Stems ending in η (- $\bar{\alpha}$):

	verb	verb stem	aorist stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
	ἵσταμαι come to stand	<u>στη-</u> /στἄ-	στη-	ἔστην	στῆναι
	ἀπο-διδράσκω run away	δρᾶ-	δρᾶ-	ἀπ-έδραν	ἀπο-δρᾶναι
	βαίνω go, walk	<u>βη-</u> /βἄ(ν)-	βη-	ἔβην	βῆναι
	(τλάω) endure, dare to	<u>τλη-</u> /τλἄ-	τλη-	ἔτλην	τλῆναι
_	Stems ending in ω :				
	άλίσκομαι be captured	άλ(ω)-	άλω-	έάλων/ἥλων	άλῶναι
	γιγνώσκω know, recognize	γνω-	γνω-	ἔγνων	γνῶναι
	ζήω live	ζη-, <u>βιω-</u>	βιω-	ἐβίων	βιῶναι
-	Stems ending in $\bar{\upsilon}$:				
	δύομαι dive	<u>δū-</u> /δŭ-	δū-	ἔδυν	δῦναι
	φύομαι <i>grow</i>	φū-	φū-	ἔφυν	φῦναι

Note 1: For a few other, much less frequent root agrists, e.g. ἔσβην (σβέννυμαι go out, be quenched), ἔφθην (φθάνω be first), \rightarrow 22.9.

Note that $\xi \sigma \beta \eta \nu$ is not exactly conjugated as $\xi \sigma \tau \eta \nu$, particularly in the opt. and ppl. (opt.: $\sigma \beta \epsilon i \eta \nu$, etc.; ppl. $\sigma \beta \epsilon i \varsigma$, etc.; the η of the stem does not derive from $\bar{\alpha}$, but is the long variant of ϵ). Note 2: For aor. $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \rho i \dot{\alpha} \mu \eta \nu$ (suppletive with $\dot{\omega} \nu \dot{\epsilon} o \mu \alpha i$), $\rightarrow 13.50$.

Endings

- 13.42 The endings used in the conjugation of root agrists are those detailed in 11.20–33. Note that **no thematic vowel is used** in conjugating the root agrist. The following additional points should be noted.
- **Indicative**: formed with the augment and secondary endings. The 3 pl. ending is $-\sigma\alpha\nu$. E.g. ξ -βη- ν , ξ -βη- ν .
- 13.44 **Subjunctive**: with aorist stems ending in α, η or ω (but not υ), the subjunctive endings have contracted with the preceding vowel, e.g. 1 sg. βῶ (<*βή-<u>ω</u>), 2 sg. βῆς (<*βή-<u>ης</u>); 1 sg. ἀπο-δρῶ (<*δρά-<u>ω</u>), 2 sg. δρᾶς (<*δρά-<u>ης</u>); 1 sg. γνῶ (<*γνώ-<u>ω</u>), 2 sg. γνῶς (<*γνώ-_{ης}); but δύ-ω, δύ-ης, etc.
- 13.45 **Optative**: formed in the singular with optative suffix -ιη-, in the plural with optative suffix -ι-. The iota forms a diphthong with a **shortened** stem vowel (→1.70 n.1). Secondary endings are used: e.g. 1 sg. βαίη-υ, 1 pl. βαῖ-μευ; 1 sg. γνοίη-ν, 1 pl. γνοῖ-μεν; etc.

However, in the plural, alternative forms with optative suffix -ιη- are found, e.g. 1 pl. $\beta\underline{\alpha}$ ίη-μεν, 2 pl. γ νοίη-τε.

Note 1: The optative of stems ending in \cup appears not to occur, but $\rightarrow 12.50$ n.2.

- **Imperative**: the 2 sg. imp. ends in -θι: e.g. $β\tilde{\eta}$ - $\underline{\theta}$ ι, $γν\tilde{\omega}$ - $\underline{\theta}$ ι, $δ\tilde{\upsilon}$ - $\underline{\theta}$ ι. Note that the vowel of the stem is shortened in the 3 pl. imp.: e.g. $β\tilde{\alpha}$ -ντων, $γν\dot{ο}$ -ντων, $δ\dot{\upsilon}$ -ντων (→1.70).
- 13.47 The **infinitive** ends in -ναι: e.g. βῆ-ναι, ἀποδρᾶ-ναι, φῦ-ναι.
- 13.48 In the **participle** the long stem vowel is **shortened** before -ντ- (→1.70): e.g. gen. sg. masc. βά-ντ-ος, gen. sg. fem. βάσης (<*βάντy-); gen. sg. masc. γνό-ντ-ος, nom. sg. masc. γνούς (<*γνόντς). For the entire declension, →5.17-18.
- 13.49 Apart from the verbs δίδωμι, τίθημι, and ἵημι (treated below, →13.51–2) and ἐπριάμην, ἐπτάμην (→13.50), root aorists use only active endings. Note, however, that the root aorists ἔστην, ἔδυν and ἔφυν go with the middle (senses of the) verbs ἵσταμαι, δύομαι and φύομαι (for details, →13.64), respectively, and that ἑάλων goes with middle-only ἁλίσκομαι. For such voice distinctions more generally, →35.
- 13.50 A root aorist with only middle forms is ἐπριάμην, suppletive aorist with the verb ἀνέομαι *buy*: e.g. 1 sg. ind. ἐπριάμην, 2 sg. ind. ἐπρίω; 1 sg. subj. πρίωμαι, 1 sg. opt. πριαίμην, inf. πρίασθαι, nom. sg. masc. ppl. πριάμενος. Note 2 sg. imp. πρίω (<*πρίασο).

Similarly, the verb πέτομαι *fly* has a middle root aorist ἐπτάμην, next to a thematic aor. ἐπτόμην, as well as a rare (active) root aorist ἔπτην.

δίδωμι, τίθημι and ἵημι

Overview of Forms

13.51 **Active** forms:

			δίδωμι	τίθη μι	ἵημι	
		_	give	put, place	send, let go	-
			stem δω-/δο-	stem $\theta\eta$ -/ $\theta\epsilon$ -	stem ἡ-/ἑ-	
ind.	sg.	1	ἔδωκα	ἔθηκα	ἡκα	-
		2	ἔδωκας	ἔθηκας	ἡκας	
		3	ἔδωκε(ν)	ἔθηκε(ν)	ἦκε(ν)	
	pl.	1	ἔδομεν	ἔθεμεν	εἷμεν	
		2	ἔδοτε ²	ἔθετε ²	εἶτε ²	
		3	ἔδοσαν ³	ἔθεσαν ³	εἷσαν	
subj.	sg.	1	δῶ	θῶ	ω	
		2	δῷς	θῆς	กั๋ร	
		3	δῷ	θ <u>ῆ</u>	ทั้	
	pl.	1	δῶμεν	θῶμεν	ώμεν	
		2	δῶτε	θῆτε	ἦτε	
		3	δῶσι(ν)	θῶσι(ν)	ὧσι(ν)	
opt.	sg.	1	δοίην	θείην	εἵην	
		2	δοίης	θ είης	εἵης	
		3	δοίη	θείη	εἵη	
	pl.	1	δοῖμεν 4	θ εῖμεν 4	εἷμεν ⁴	
		2	δοῖτε ⁵	θ εῖτε ⁵	εἶτε ⁵	
		3	δοῖεν ⁶	θ εῖεν ⁶	εἷεν ⁶	
imp.	sg.	2	δός	θές	ἕς	
		3	δότω	θέτω	ἕτω	
	pl.	2	δότε	θέτε	ἕτε	
		3	δόντων	θέντων	ἕντων	
inf.			δοῦναι	θεῖναι	είναι	
ppl.	maso	ε.	δούς, -όντος	θείς, -έντος	εἵς, ἕντος	
	fem.		δοῦσα, -ούσης	θεῖσα, -είσης	εἷσα, εἵσης	
	neut		δόν, -όντος	θέν, -έντος	ἕν, ἕντος	

¹ Also -καμεν, e.g. ἐδώκαμεν, ἐθήκαμεν.

² Also, -κατε, e.g. ἐδώκατε, ἥκατε.

³ Also -καν, e.g. ἔθηκαν, ἦκαν.

⁴ Also -ίημεν, e.g. δοίημεν, θείημεν.

⁵ Also -ίητε, e.g. δοίητε, θείητε.

 $^{^{6}}$ Also -ίησαν, e.g. δοίησαν, εἵησαν.

13.52 Middle forms:

			δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἵημι
			give	put, place	send, let go
			stem δω-/δο-	stem $\theta\eta$ -/ $\theta\epsilon$ -	stem ἡ-/έ-
ind.	sg.	1	ἐδόμην	ἐθέμην	εἵμην
		2	ἔδου	ἔθου	εἷσο
		3	ἔδοτο	ἔθετο	εἶτο
	pl.	1	ἐδόμεθα	ἐθέμεθα	εἵμεθα
		2	ἔδοσ θ ε	ἔθεσθε	ϵ i σ θ ϵ
		3	ἔδοντο	ἔθεντο	εἷντο
subj.	sg.	1	δῶμαι	θῶμαι	ώμαι
		2	δῷ	θῆ	ή
		3	δῶται	θῆται	ἦται
	pl.	1	δώμεθα	θώμεθα	ὥμε θ α
		2	δῶσθε	θῆσθε	ἦσ θ ε
		3	δῶνται	θῶνται	ὧνται
opt.	sg.	1	δοίμην	θ είμην	εἵμην
		2	δοῖο	θεῖο	εἷο
		3	δοῖτο	θεῖτο	εἶτο
	pl.	1	δοίμεθα	θείμεθα	εἵμεθα
		2	δοῖσθε	θεῖσθε	εἶσ θ ε
		3	δοῖντο	θεῖντο	είντο
imp.	sg.	2	δοῦ	θοῦ	οὖ
		3	δόσ θ ω	θέσθω	ἕσ θ ω
	pl.	2	δόσ θ ε	θέσθε	ἕσθε
		3	δόσθων	θέσθων	ἕσθων
inf.			δόσθαι	θέσθαι	ἕσ θ αι
ppl.	masc.		δόμενος, -ου	θέμενος, -ου	ἕμενος, -ου
-	fem.		δομένη, -ης	θεμένη, -ης	έμένη, -ης
	neut.		δόμενον, -ου	θέμενον, -ου	ἕμενον, -ου

Stems

- 13.53 The verbs δίδωμι give (verb stem $\delta\omega$ -/ δ o-), τίθημι put, place (verb stem $\theta\eta$ -/ θ ε-) and ἵημι send, let go (verb stem $\dot{\eta}$ -/ $\dot{\epsilon}$ -) have a distinct conjugation in the aorist:
 - Most forms are built on the short variant of the (unelaborated) verb stem, and follow the root aorist pattern.
 - However, a number are built on the long variant of the stem, and formed differently.

- Observe that these verbs have a middle conjugation in addition to an active one (unlike the root aorists treated above).
- 13.55 In prose, the verb τίθημι occurs most often in compound forms (ὑποτίθημι, etc.), the verb ἵημι almost exclusively: their corresponding root aorists, accordingly, also occur most often in compounds.

Endings

13.56 In the **indicative**:

- The **singular** forms of the active are built on the **long** form of the stem $(\delta\omega /\theta\eta /\hat{\eta})$, and followed by a **kappa** and alpha-endings $-\alpha$, $-\alpha_S$, $-\epsilon(\nu)$: $\dot{\epsilon}-\delta\omega \underline{\kappa}\alpha$, $\dot{\epsilon}-\delta\omega \underline{\kappa}$
- The plural forms of the active and all forms of the middle are built on the short form of the stem (δο-/θε-/έ-), and are formed like root aorists, e.g. 1 pl. act. ἔ-δο-μεν, 1 sg. mid. ἐ-δό-μην, 1 pl. mid. ἐ-δό-μεθα; 1 pl. act. ἔ-θε-μεν, 1 sg. mid. ἐ-θέ-μην, 1 pl. mid. ἐ-θέ-μεθα; 1 pl. act. εῖ-μεν, 1 sg. mid. εῖ-μεθα.
- However, alternative kappa/alpha-forms are sometimes found for these latter forms as well, e.g. ἐ-δώ-καμεν, ἔ-θη-καν, ἥ-καντο.
- The second singular middle indicative has lost the σ of the ending -σο (→1.83), and the forms have contracted, in the case of ἔδου (<*ἔ-δο-(σ)ο) and ἔθου (<*ἔ-θε-(σ)ο), but not in εἶσο.

Note 1: Observe the different results of augment + stem with " $\eta\mu$ 1: sg. $\tilde{\eta}\kappa\alpha$ (<* $\tilde{\epsilon}$ -(y) η - $\kappa\alpha$) and $\epsilon\tilde{l}\mu\epsilon\nu$ (<* $\tilde{\epsilon}$ -(y) ϵ - $\mu\epsilon\nu$): \rightarrow 11.40.

- 13.57 The **subjunctive** endings contract with the preceding long vowel, sometimes after quantitative metathesis (\rightarrow 1.71): e.g. 1 sg. act. δῶ (<*δώ- $\underline{\omega}$), 2 sg. act. δῷς (<*δώ- $\underline{\eta}$ ς), 1 sg. mid. δῶμαι (<*δώ- $\underline{\omega}$ - $\underline{\mu}$ αι); 1 sg. act. ὧ (<ἔω <* $\mathring{\eta}$ - $\underline{\omega}$), 2 sg. act. $\mathring{\eta}$ ς (<* $\mathring{\eta}$ - η ς), 1 sg. mid. ὧμαι (<ἔωμαι <* $\mathring{\eta}$ - ω - μ αι).
- 13.58 **Optatives** are formed with optative suffix -ιη- in the singular, with optative suffix -ι- in the plural and all middle forms. The iota forms a diphthong with the preceding short stem vowel. Secondary endings are used. E.g. 1 sg. act. δοίη-υ, 1 pl. act. δοί-μεν, 1 sg. mid. δοί-μην; 1 sg. act. θείη-ν, 1 pl. act. θεί-μεν, 1 sg. mid. θεί-μην.

In the first- and second-person plural active, alternative forms with optative suffix $-i\eta$ - are found, e.g. 1 pl. $\theta \underline{\epsilon} \underline{i} \eta - \mu \underline{\epsilon} \nu$, 2 pl. $\theta \underline{\epsilon} \underline{i} \eta - \tau \underline{\epsilon}$. See the overview of forms, $\rightarrow 13.51$.

Note 1: Isolated thematic optative forms of these verbs occasionally occur, e.g. προ<u>ο</u>ῖτο (3 sg. aor. mid. opt. of προίημι *send forth*), ἐπιθ<u>ο</u>ῖντο (3 pl. aor. mid. opt. of ἐπιτίθημι *put, place on*).

- 13.59 The subjunctive and optative forms differ from the corresponding forms of the present (→12.49-50) only by the absence of the present reduplication: compare 2 pl. act. subj. δῶτε, θῆτε, ἦτε with present διδῶτε, τιθῆτε, ἱῆτε; 3 sg. mid. opt. δοῖτο, θεῖτο, εἶτο with present διδοῖτο, τιθεῖτο, ἱεῖτο.
- 13.60 The **imperative** is built on the short variant of the stem. The second singular active imperative ends in -ς: δό-ς, θέ-ς, ἕ-ς.

In all three verbs, the second singular middle imperative lost the σ of its ending $-\sigma \circ (\rightarrow 1.83)$, and the form has contracted: $\delta \circ \tilde{\upsilon} (<^*\delta \circ \underline{(\sigma)} \circ)$, $\theta \circ \tilde{\upsilon} (<^*\theta \circ \underline{(\sigma)} \circ)$, $\theta \circ \tilde{\upsilon} (<^*\theta \circ \underline{(\sigma)} \circ)$.

13.61 The **active infinitive** is built on the short variant of the stem, and ends in -εναι, the ε of which contracts with the preceding short vowel: δοῦναι (<*δό-<u>εναι</u>), θεῖναι, εἶναι.

The **middle infinitive** ends in $-\sigma\theta\alpha$ 1 as normal: $\delta\delta-\sigma\theta\alpha$ 1, $\theta\epsilon-\sigma\theta\alpha$ 1, $\theta-\sigma\theta\alpha$ 2.

13.62 **Active participles** use the short variant of the stem before the suffix -ντ-: e.g. gen. sg. masc. θέ-ντ-ος, gen. sg. fem. θείσης (<*θέντy-); gen. sg. masc. ξ-ντ-ος, nom. sg. masc. εἵς (<*ξντς). For the entire declension, →5.17-18.

Middle participles also use the short variant of the stem before $-\mu \epsilon \nu$ -: e.g. nom. sg. masc. θέ- $\mu \epsilon \nu$ -ος, nom. sg. fem. θε- $\mu \epsilon \nu$ -η, nom. sg. masc. ξ- $\mu \epsilon \nu$ -ος, nom. sg. fem. ϵ - $\mu \epsilon \nu$ -η. For the entire declension, $\rightarrow 5.3-4$.

Verbs with More Than One Type of Aorist

13.63 Most verbs have only one type of aorist, but there are a few exceptions. Typically the different types of aorist are built on different variants of the verb stem or different verb stems altogether (suppletion, →11.13):

verb	verb stem	aorists	
ἐρωτάω <i>ask</i>	<u>ἐρ-,</u> <u>ἐρωτη-</u> /ἐρωτἄ-	sigm.: ἠρώτησα	them.: (mid.) ἠρόμην
λέγω say	<u>λεγ-</u> /λογ-, <u>εἰπ-</u> , ἐρ-/	sigm.: ἔλεξα	them.: εἶπον (also εἶπα,
	ρ η-		→ 13.32)
(ἀπο)κτείνω	<u>κτεν-</u> /κτον-/ <u>κτάν-</u>	pseudo-sigm.:	them.: ἔκτανον (in poetry)
kill		(ἀπ)έκτεινα	
τρέπω <i>turn</i>	<u>τρεπ-</u> /τροπ-/ <u>τρᾶπ-</u>	sigm.: ἔτρεψα	them.: ἔτραπον (in
			poetry)
πέτομαι fly	πετ-/πτη-/πτ(ἄ)-	them.: ἐπτόμην	root: ἐπτάμην/ἔπτην

In several other cases, different agrist stems also represent a significant **difference** of meaning, especially in the middle (for such differences of voice, \rightarrow 35, and

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observe that similar meanings are also often expressed by \theta n - /n-aorists; for fuller
details on these individual verbs, \rightarrow 22.9):
δύω submerge (verb stem δū-/δŭ-)
with act. δύω
                               sigmatic aor. (act.) ἔδυσα: submerged X
with mp. δύομαι dive
                               root aor. ἔδυν: dived
ἐγείρω wake, rouse (verb stem ἐγερ-/ἐγορ-/ἐγρ-)
with act. ἐγείρω
                               pseudo-sigmatic aor. (act.) ἤγειρα: woke X
with mp. ἐγείρομαι wake up
                               thematic aor. (mid.) ἠγρόμην: woke up
                                  (also ἠγέρθην, \rightarrow35.17 with n.2)
їστημι make stand, set up (verb stem στη-/στα-)
                               sigmatic aor. (act.) ἔστησα: made X to stand
with act. ιστημι
with mp. ἵσταμαι come to
                               root aor. ἔστην: came to stand, stood still
  stand
πείθω persuade (verb stem πειθ-/ποιθ-/πῖθ-)
with act. πείθω
                               sigmatic aor. (act.) ἔπεισα: persuaded
                               thematic aor. (mid.) ἐπιθόμην: believed,
with mp. πείθομαι believe,
  obey
                                  obeyed (also θη-aor. ἐπείσθην, \rightarrow35.19 with
                                 n.1)
τρέπω turn (verb stem τρεπ-/τροπ-/τραπ-)
with act. τρέπω
                               sigmatic/thematic aor. (act.) ἔτρεψα/ἔτραπον:
                                  turned X
with mp. τρέπομαι turn
                               thematic aor. (mid.) ἐτραπόμην: turned
  around (intr.)
                                  around (also ἐτράπην/ἐτρέφθην, \rightarrow35.17
                                 with n.2)
φύω cause to grow (verb stem φū-)
with act. φύω
                               sigmatic aor. (act.) ἔφυσα: caused X to grow
with mp. φύομαι grow (up)
                               root aor. ἔφυν: grew (up), was born
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The Aorist: Passive $(\theta \eta - /\eta -)$

Types of Aorist Passive Stem

- 14.1 There are two types of stem which are commonly called 'aorist passive':
 - stems formed by adding the suffix -θη- to the verb stem, e.g. with παιδεύω educate (verb stem παιδευ-), aor. pass. stem παιδευ<u>θη</u>-; with δείκνυμι show (verb stem δεικ-), aor. pass. stem δειχθη- (for χθ, →14.19 below);
 - stems formed by adding the suffix -η- to the verb stem, e.g. with γράφω write (verb stem γράφ-), aor. pass. stem γραφη-; with βλάπτω harm, damage (verb stem βλάβ-), aor. pass. stem βλαβη-.

The common element of both stems, then, is the vowel η . Most verbs have only one of the two stems, and the agrist in $-\theta\eta$ - is the much more common one. Some verbs have both stems: e.g. with $\varphi\alpha i\nu\omega$ show (verb stem $\varphi\eta\nu$ -/ $\varphi\alpha\nu$ -), $\varphi\alpha\nu\theta\eta$ - and $\varphi\alpha\nu\eta$ -.

Note 1: The 'passive' aorist has passive meaning only when it is formed from active and some middle verbs which take an object or complement ($\rightarrow 26.3$): e.g. with παιδεύω educate, ἐπαιδεύθην was educated; with δείκνυμι show, ἐδείχθην was shown; with αἰτιάομαι accuse, ἡτιάθην was accused. With other verbs, however, the passive aorist does not have (or rarely has) passive meaning. Thus with βούλομαι want, prefer, there is nothing semantically passive about the aorist ἐβουλήθην wanted. Of the 'passive' aorists formed with -η-, in fact, only a minority (regularly) has passive meaning. Below, therefore, these aorists are called 'θη-aorist' or 'η-aorist', and with several verbs the meaning of the θη-/η-aorist is added for clarity.

For full details about the meanings and forms of the 'passive' agrist, and the development of its use in Greek, \rightarrow 35.

Conjugation of $\theta\eta$ -Aorists and η -Aorists

Overview of Forms

14.2 $\theta\eta$ -aorists:

			verb stems ending in 1, 0 or a diphthong	verb stems ending in α, ε, ο or η	verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop	verb stems ending in a dental stop	verb stems ending in a resonant
			παιδεύω educate stem παιδευθη-	τιμάω <i>honour</i> stem τιμηθη-	δείκνυμι show stem δειχθη-	κομίζω <i>convey</i> stem κομισθη-	ἀγγέλλω report stem ἀγγελθη-
ind.	sg.	1	ἐπαιδεύ θ ην	ἐτιμήθην	ἐδείχ θ ην	ἐκομίσθην	ἠγγέλθην
		2	ἐπαιδεύθης	ἐτιμήθης	ἐδείχθης	ἐκομίσθης	ἠγγέλθης
		3	$\dot{\epsilon}\pi\alpha$ ιδεύ θ η	ἐτιμή θ η	$\dot{\epsilon}$ δείχ θ η	ἐκομίσθη	ἠγγέλθη
	pl.	1	ἐπαιδεύ θ ημεν	ἐτιμήθημεν	ἐδείχ θ ημεν	ἐκομίσθημεν	ἠγγέλθημεν
		2	ἐπαιδεύ θ ητε	ἐτιμήθητε	$\dot{\epsilon}$ δείχ θ ητε	ἐκομίσθητε	ἠγγέλθητε
		3	ἐπαιδεύ θ ησαν	_{έτιμήθησαν}	ἐδείχθησαν	ἐκομίσθησα <i>ν</i>	ἠγγέλθησα ν
subj.	sg.	1	παιδευθῶ	$τιμηθ$ $\tilde{\omega}$	δειχθῶ	κομισθῶ	ἀγγελθῶ
		2	παιδευθῆς	τιμηθῆς	δειχθῆς	κομισθῆς	ἀγγελθῆς
		3	παιδευθῆ	$τιμηθ$ $\tilde{η}$	δειχθῆ	κομισθῆ	ἀγγελθῆ
	pl.	1	παιδευθῶμεν	τιμηθῶμεν	δειχθῶμεν	κομισθῶμεν	ἀγγελθῶμεν
		2	παιδευθῆτε	τιμη θ ῆτε	δειχθῆτε	κομισθῆτε	ἀγγελθῆτε
		3	παιδευθῶσι(ν)	τιμη θ ῶσι(ν)	δειχθῶσι(ν)	κομισθῶσι(ν)	ἀγγελθῶσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	π αιδευθείην	τιμηθείην	δειχθείην	κομισθείην	ἀγγελθείην
		2	παιδευθείης	τιμηθείης	δειχθείης	κομισθείης	ἀγγελθείης
		3	π αιδευ θ είη	τιμη θ είη	δειχθείη	κομισθείη	ἀγγελθείη
	pl.	1	παιδευθεῖμεν	τιμηθεῖμεν	δειχθεῖμεν	κομισθεῖμεν	ἀγγελθεῖμεν
		2	π αιδευ θ εῖτε	τιμη θ εῖτε	δειχ θ εῖτε 1	κομισθεῖτε	ἀγγελθεῖτε
		3	π αιδευ θ εῖεν	τιμηθεῖεν	δειχ θ εῖεν 1	κομισθεῖεν	ἀγγελθεῖεν
imp.	sg.	2	π αιδεύ θ ητι	τιμή θ ητι	δείχ θ ητι	κομίσθητι	άγγέλθητι
		3	παιδευθήτω	τιμηθήτω	δειχθήτω	κομισθήτω	ἀγγελθήτω
	pl.	2	$π$ αιδεύ θ ητε	τιμήθητε	δείχ θ ητε	κομίσθητε	ἀγγέλθητε
		3	παιδευθέντων	τιμηθέντων	δειχθέντων	κομισθέντων	ἀγγελθέντων
inf.			π αιδευ θ ῆναι	τιμη θ ῆναι	δειχ θ ῆναι	κομισθῆναι	ἀγγελ θ ῆναι
ppl.	ma	sc.	παιδευθείς,	τιμη θ είς,	δειχθείς,	κομισθείς,	ἀγγελθείς,
			- θ έντος	-θέντος	-θέντος	-θέντος	-θέντος
	fem	ι.	παιδευθεῖσα,	τιμη θ εῖσα,	δειχθεῖσα,	κομισθεῖσα,	ἀγγελθεῖσα,
			- θ είσης	-θείσης	-θείσης	-θείσης	- θ είσης
	neu	ıt.	παιδευθέν,	τιμηθέν,	δειχθέν,	κομισθέν,	άγγελθέν,
			-θέντος	-θέντος	-θέντος	-θέντος	-θέντος

 $^{^{1}}$ Also -θείημεν, -θείητε, -θείησαν, e.g. παιδευθείημεν, παιδευθείητε, παιδευθείησαν.

14.3 η -aorists:

			η-aorists
			φαίνω show
			stem φανη-
ind.	sg.	1	
		2	ἐφάνης
		3	ἐφάνη
	pl.	1	ἐφάνημεν
		2	ἐφάνητ ε
		3	ἐφάνησαν
subj.	sg.	1	φανῶ
		2	φανῆς
		3	φανῆ
	pl.	1	φανῶμεν
		2	φανῆτε
		3	φανῶσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	φανείην
		2	φανείης
		3	φανείη
	pl.	1	φανεῖμεν
		2	φανεῖτε
		3	φανεῖεν
imp.	sg.	2	φάνηθι
		3	φανήτω
	pl.	2	φάνητε
		3	φανέντων
inf.			φανῆναι
ppl.	masc.		φανείς,
			-έντος
	fem.		φανεῖσα,
			-είσης
	neut.		φανέν,
			-έντος

¹ Also -είημεν, -είητε, -είησαν.

Endings

- 14.4 $\theta\eta$ and η -aorists have **active** personal endings (\rightarrow 11.20).
- Indicatives are formed with the augment ($\rightarrow 11.35-42$), and active secondary endings ($\rightarrow 11.22-7$): e.g. 1 sg. $\mathring{\epsilon}$ -παιδεύθη- $\underline{\nu}$, 2 sg. $\mathring{\epsilon}$ -δείχθη- $\underline{\varsigma}$, 2 pl. $\mathring{\epsilon}$ -γράφη- $\underline{\tau}\varepsilon$, etc. The ending of 3 pl. ind. is $-\sigma \alpha \nu$, e.g. $\mathring{\epsilon}$ -παιδεύθη- $\underline{\sigma}\alpha \underline{\nu}$.

- **Imperative**: the 2 sg. imp. ends in -θι: e.g. 2 sg. imp. φάνη-<u>θι</u>, κατακλίνη-<u>θι</u>. With θη-aorists, however, the ending changes to -τι, e.g. παιδεύθη-<u>τι</u> (instead of expected †-τηθι <*-θηθι (\rightarrow 1.97), by analogy with e.g. παιδεύθητε, 2 pl.).
 - Other imperatives have the regular (active) endings: e.g. 2 pl. π αιδεύθη- $\underline{\tau}$ ε, 3 pl. φ ανέ-ντων (<*-ήντων, \rightarrow 1.70)
- 14.7 **Subjunctives** are formed with the long thematic vowel of the subjunctive (→11.16) and primary endings; these contract with the η of the stem, sometimes after quantitative metathesis (→1.71). E.g. 1 pl. δειχθῶμεν (<-θέωμεν <*-θήωμεν), 2 pl. γραφῆτε (<*-ἡητε).
- 14.8 **Optatives** are formed with the optative suffix -1η in the singular, with the optative suffix -1- in the plural (-1η is found occasionally also in the plural). The iota forms a diphthong with the η of the stem, shortened to ε (\rightarrow 1.70 n.1). Active secondary endings are added. E.g. 1 sg. $\varphi \alpha \nu \varepsilon i \eta \nu$, 1 pl. $\pi \alpha i \delta \varepsilon \upsilon \theta \varepsilon \tilde{\iota} \mu \varepsilon \nu$.
- 14.9 The **infinitive** ends in -ναι: e.g. λ ειφθῆ-ναι.
- 14.10 **Participles** add -ντ- to the stem, which is shortened to -(θ)ε- (\rightarrow 1.70): e.g. gen. sg. masc. παιδευθέ-<u>ντ</u>-ος, gen. sg. fem. γραφείσης (<*-έ<u>ντ</u>y-). For the entire declension, \rightarrow 5.17–18.

θη-Aorist Stems

Formation of $\theta\eta$ -Aorist Stems

Verb Stems Ending in v or a Diphthong

14.11 Verb stems ending in \mathbf{v} or a diphthong stay unchanged before the added -θη(although there may be variations in vowel length). Some examples:

verb	verb sten	n θη-aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
θύω sacrifice	θū-/ <u>θŭ-</u>	τŭθη- (→1.97)	ἐτύθην	τυθῆναι
ίδρύω found, establish	ΐδρῦ-	ΐδρυθη-	ί δρύθην	ΐδρυ θ ῆναι
λὑω loosen, release	λū-/ <u>λŭ-</u>	λŭθη-	ἐλύθην	λυθῆναι
μηνύω reveal, make known	μηνῦ-	μηνυθη-	ἐμηνύθην	μηνυθῆναι
παίω strike	παι-	παιθη-	ἐπαίθην	παιθῆναι
παιδεύω educate	παιδευ-	παιδευθη-	ἐπαιδεύθη <i>ν</i>	παιδευθῆναι
λούω bathe	λου-	λουθη-	ἐλούθην	λουθῆναι

Note 1: With monosyllabic stems which have long $\bar{\upsilon}$ in the present stem, the $\theta\eta$ -aorist has a short $\check{\upsilon}$. See e.g. $\theta \dot{\upsilon} \omega$, $\lambda \dot{\upsilon} \omega$.

14.12 The θη-aorist of κάω/καίω set on fire, which originally had verb stem *καξ- (\rightarrow 12.29), is ἐκαύθην. The θη-aorist of χέω pour (original verb stem *χεξ-/χῦ-) is ἐχύθην.

Verb Stems Ending in Other Vowels

- 14.13 With verb stems ending in η/ϵ , $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$, ω/o (i.e. contract verbs), $-\theta\eta$ is added to the **long variant** of the verb stem (→11.11):
 - pres. stem ε: $\theta\eta$ -aor. stem η;
 - pres. stem $\bar{\alpha}$: θη-aor. stem η (but $\bar{\alpha}$ after ϵ , ι or ρ);
 - pres. stem o: $\theta\eta$ -aor. stem ω ; a few verbs with a verb stem ending in ω have a similarly formed $\theta\eta$ -aorist.

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ποιέω make, do	<u>ποιη-</u> /ποιε-	ποιη $θ$ η-	ἐποιήθην	ποιηθῆναι
τιμάω honour	<u>τιμη-</u> /τιμᾶ-	τιμηθη-	ἐτιμή θ ην	τ ιμηθῆναι
πειράομαι try	<u>πειρᾶ-</u> /	$πειρ\bar{\alpha}\thetaη-$	ἐπειράθην tried	πειρᾶθῆναι
	πειρά-			
αἰτιάομαι accuse	<u>αἰτιᾶ-</u> /αἰτιᾶ-	αἰτι $\bar{\alpha}\theta$ η-	ἠτιάθην was	αἰτιᾶθῆναι
			accused	
ἀξιόω deem worthy	<u>ἀξιω-</u> /ἀξιο-	άξιωθη-	ἠξιώθην	άξιωθῆναι
σώζομαι escape	σω-	σωθη-	ἐσώθην escaped	σωθῆναι
τιτρώσκω wound	τρω-	τρωθη-	ἐτρώθην	τρωθῆναι

- 14.14 The alternation between α and η also occurs with the passive-only -μι verbs δύναμαι have the power (to), be able (to), aor. ἐδυνήθην was able (also, more rarely, ἐδυνάσθην, →14.27), and ἐπίσταμαι know (how to), understand, aor. ἡπιστήθην knew.
- 14.15 With the verbs ιστημι, τίθημι, ιημι and δίδωμι, the θη-aorist is built on the short variant of the stem:

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ἵστημι make stand,	στη-/ <u>στἄ-</u>	στἄθη-	ἐστάθη <i>ν</i>	σταθῆναι
set up				
τίθημι <i>put, place</i>	θη-/ <u>θε-</u>	τεθη- (→1.97)	ἐτέ θ ην	τεθῆναι
ἵημι send, let go	ἡ-/ <u>ἑ-</u>	έθη-	εἵθην (→11.40)	έθῆναι
δίδωμι give	δω-/ <u>δο-</u>	δοθη-	ἐδόθην	δοθῆναι

Note 1: The simplex forms of $\eta \mu 1$ are rare, especially in prose; the verb normally occurs in compound forms like $d \phi \epsilon i \theta \eta \nu$, $\pi \alpha \rho \epsilon i \theta \eta \nu$.

14.16 Several verbs in -άω and -έω, which have a verb stem ending in a σ (→12.29 n.1), retain that σ before the added $\theta\eta$:

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
αἰδέομαι stand in awe	αἰδε(σ)-	αἰδεσθη-	ἠδέσθην stood	αίδεσθῆναι
			in awe	
ἔραμαι love	ἐρἄ(σ)-	ἐρασ θ η-	ἠράσθην fell in	ἐρασθῆνα ι
			love	
τελέω finish	τελε(σ)-	τελεσθη-	έτελέσ θ ην	τελεσθῆναι
Also note verbs in -άννυμι	and -έννυμι (which	have a stem in o	5):	
κεράννυμι <i>mix</i>	κερἄ(σ)-/κρᾶ-	κερασθη-	ἐκεράσθην	κερασθῆναι
σβέννυμι quench,	σβη-/σβε(σ)-	σβεσθη-	ἐσβέσθη <i>ν</i>	σ βε σ θῆν α ι
put out				

Some verbs which do not have this σ as part of their stem nevertheless have it in their $\theta\eta$ -aorist (a so-called 'parasitic' σ). So e.g. with γιγνώσκω know, recognize (verb stem γνω-), ἐγνώ<u>σ</u>θην. For these verbs, $\rightarrow 14.27$ below.

14.17 Observe the following further exceptions with verbs in -έω:

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
αἰνέω <i>praise</i>	αίνε-	αἰνεθη-	ἠνέ 0 ην	αἰνεθῆναι
αἱρέω take	αίρη-/ <u>αίρε-,</u> έλ-	αίρεθη-	ἡρέθην was taken	αίρεθῆναι
also mid. αἱρέομαι choose			was chosen	!
δέω bind	δη-/ <u>δε-</u>	δεθη-	ἐδέθην	δεθῆναι
καλέω call, summon	κἄλε-/ <u>κλη-</u>	κλη θ η-	ἐκλήθην	κληθῆναι
ώθέω thrust, push	ѽθη-/ ѽθ(ε)-	ώσθη- (→14.20) ἐώσθην	ώσθῆναι

Verb Stems Ending in a Labial or Velar Stop

κρύπτω hide

14.18 Stems ending in a labial stop get a $\theta\eta$ -aor. stem in $\varphi\theta\eta$ ($\pi/\beta/\varphi + \theta\eta > \varphi\theta\eta$):

κρύφ-/κρύβ-

verb	verb stem	θη-aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.	
λείπω leave	λειπ-/λοιπ-/λῖπ-	λειφθη-	ἐλείφθην	λειφθῆναι	
πέμπω send	<u>πεμπ-</u> /πομπ-	πεμφθη-	ἐπέμφθην	πεμφθῆναι	
τρ ί βω <i>rub</i>	τρῖβ-/τρĭβ-	τριφθη-	ἐτρίφθην	τριφθῆναι	
λαμβάνω get, take	<u>ληβ-</u> /λἄβ-	ληφθη-	ἐλήφ θ ην	ληφθῆναι	
Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\pi\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):					
ρίπτω throw	ῥ ῖπ-	ρίφ θ η-	_έ ρρίφθην	$\dot{\rho}$ ιφ θ ῆναι	
βλάπτω harm, damage	βλἄβ-	βλαφθη-	ἐβλάφθην	βλαφθῆναι	

Note 1: For the more common η-aorists (with passive meaning) ἐτρίβην was rubbed (τρίβω), ἐβλάβην was harmed (βλάπτω), ἐρρίφην was thrown (ῥίπτω), \rightarrow 14.30.

κρυφθη-

ἐκρύφθην

κρυφθῆναι

14.19 Stems ending in a velar stop get a θη-aor. stem in $\chi \theta \eta$ ($\kappa/\gamma/\chi + \theta \eta > \chi \theta \eta$):

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
διώκω chase	διωκ-	διωχθη-	ἐδιώχ θ ην	διωχ θ ῆναι
ἄγω lead, bring	ἀγ-	ἀχθη-	ἤχ θ ην	ἀχθῆναι
λέγω say, speak	<u>λεγ-</u> /λογ-,	λεχθη-	ἐλέχθην	λεχθῆναι
διαλέγομαι converse	εἰπ-, ἐρ-/ ῥη-		διελέχθην discussed	διαλεχθῆναι
συλλέγομαι come together			συνελέχθην came together	συλλεχθῆναι
ἄρχω rule, begin	ἄρχ-	ἀρχθη-	ἤρχθη <i>ν</i>	ἀρχθῆναι

Note especially (almost all) verbs that have a present in $-\tau\tau\omega/-\tau\tau\sigma\mu\alpha$ (\rightarrow 13.22), a few in $-\zeta\omega$, and several in $-\nu\nu\mu$:

ἀπαλλάττομαι depart	ἀλλἄγ-	ἀλλαχθη-	ἀπ-ηλλάχθην	ἀπαλλαχθῆναι
			departed	
τάττω array, appoint	τἄγ-	ταχθη-	ἐτάχθην	ταχθῆναι
ὀρύττω dig	ὀρῦχ-	ὀρυχθη-	ѽρύχθην	ὀρυχθῆναι
δαΐζω cleave	δαϊγ-	δαϊχθη-	ἐδαΐχθην	δαϊχ θ ῆναι
δείκνυμι <i>show</i>	δεικ-	δειχθη-	ἐδείχ θ ην	δειχθῆναι
μ(ε)ίγνυμι <i>mix</i>	μειγ-/μἴγ-	$\mu(\epsilon)$ ιχθη-	ἐμ(ε)ίχθην	μ(ε)ιχθῆναι

Note 1: Besides ἐλέχθην (λέγω), the aorist ἐρρήθην (suppletive, \rightarrow 11.13) occurs frequently (e.g. ἐρρήθη *it was said*).

Note 2: For the more common η-aorists συνελέγην came together (συλλέγομαι), ἀπηλλάγην departed (ἀπ-αλλάττομαι; -ηλλάγην is more frequent in prose, -ηλλάχθην in poetry), ἐμίγην was mixed, had intercourse with (μείγνυμι), $\rightarrow 14.30$.

Verb Stems Ending in a Dental Stop

14.20 Stems ending in a dental stop get a θη-aor. stem in $\sigma\theta\eta$ ($\tau/\delta/\theta + \theta\eta > \sigma\theta\eta$, \rightarrow 1.89):

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ψεύδομαι err	ψευδ-	ψευσ θ η-	ἐψεύσθην erred	ψευσ θ ῆναι
ἥδομαι <i>enjoy</i>	ήδ-	ήσθη-	ἥσθην enjoyed	ησθηναι
πείθω persuade	πειθ-/ποιθ-/πἴθ-	πεισθη-	ἐπείσθην	πεισθῆναι

Note especially most verbs that have a present in $-\zeta\omega/-\zeta o\mu\alpha i$, and a few in $-\tau\tau\omega$ ($\rightarrow 13.23$):

κομίζω <i>convey</i>	κομῖδ-	κομισθη-	ἐκομίσθην	κομισθῆναι
νομίζω believe	νομῖδ-	νομισθη-	ἐνομίσθην	νομισθῆναι
λογίζομαι count,	λογϊδ-	λογισθη-	ἐλογίσθην was	λογισθῆναι
reckon			counted	
άρμόζω/άρμόττω	άρμοδ-/άρμοτ-	άρμοσθη-	ήρμόσθη <i>ν</i>	άρμοσθῆναι
fit together				
πλάττω mould	πλἄθ-	πλασθη-	ἐπλάσθην	πλασθῆναι

Note 1: With ψεύδω *cheat, deceive,* sigmatic aor. mid. ἐψευσάμην = *lied*; θη-aor. ἐψεύσθην = was mistaken, was deceived, erred.

Note 2: Next to ἐπείσθην was/became persuaded, there is also a thematic middle aorist ἐπιθόμην believed, obeyed (\rightarrow 13.64). ἐπείσθην is more regular in prose, and became progressively more common.

Verb Stems Ending in a Resonant

14.21 Verb stems ending in a resonant (nasal/liquid) **stay unchanged** before -θη-. Note especially verbs that have a present in -λλω in -αίνω/-αίρω, -είνω/-είρω, -ἱνω/-ἱρω, -ὑνω/-ὑρω, (→12.28). Some examples:

verb stem	θ η-aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
αἰσχὔν-	αἰσχϋνθη-	ἠσχύνθην was	αἰσχυνθῆναι
		ashamed	
άγγελ-	ἀγγελθη-	ήγγέλ θ ην	άγγελ θ ῆναι
τῖλ-	τιλ θ η-	ἐτίλθην	τιλ θ ῆναι
ἀ ρ-	ἀρθη-	ἤρθην	ἀρθῆναι
<u>ἐγερ-</u> /ἐγορ-/	ἐγερθη-	ἠγέρθην woke up	έγερθῆνα ι
έγρ-			
μιάν-	μιανθη-	ἐμιάνθην	μιανθῆναι
φην-/ <u>φἄν-</u>	φανθη-	ἐφάνθην	φανθῆναι
	αἰσχῦν- ἀγγελ- τῖλ- ἀρ- ἐ <u>γερ-</u> /ἐγορ-/ ἐγρ-	αἰσχῦν- αἰσχῦνθη- ἀγγελ- ἀγγελθη- τῖλ- τιλθη- ἀρ- ἀρθη- ἐγερ-/ἐγορ-/ ἐγερθη- ἐγρ- μιᾶν- μιανθη-	αἰσχῦν- αἰσχῦνθη- ἤσχύνθην was ashamed ἀγγελ- ἀγγελθη- ἤγγέλθην τῖλ- τιλθη- ἐτίλθην ἀρ- ἀρθη- ἤρθην ἐγερ-/ἐγορ-/ ἐγερθη- ἤγέρθην woke up ἐγρ-

Note 1: With φαίνω show, ἐφάνθην = was shown (pass.), η-aor. ἐφάνην = appeared, seemed (-14.30).

Note 2: Next to ἠγέρθην (ἐγείρομαι *wake up*), there is also a thematic middle aorist ἠγρόμην woke up ($\rightarrow 13.64$). ἠγέρθην is normal in prose, and on the whole more common.

14.22 Observe the agrist passive of τείνω stretch:

τείνω stretch τεν-/τα- (\rightarrow 1.86) ταθη- ἐτάθην ταθῆναι

14.23 Some verbs with a present stem ending in a nasal do not have that nasal in the aorist passive (it was not originally part of the verb stem, but a suffix added in the present stem (\rightarrow 12.30), even though this was sometimes extended to other stems):

κλίνομαι lean κλί(ν)- κλίθη- ἐκλίθην leaned κλίθῆναι κρίνω pick out, decide κρί(ν)- κρίθη- ἐκρίθην κρίθηναι

For the more common η-aorist -εκλίνην leaned (κλίνω, but only in compounds), \rightarrow 14.30.

- Numerous verbs with a stem in a nasal or liquid have an η-aorist: \rightarrow 14.30. Several other verbs which have a stem in a nasal or liquid form a θη-aorist with an extra η intervening between stem and θη: e.g. with $\nu \dot{\epsilon} \mu \omega$ deal out (verb stem $\nu \epsilon \mu$ -), $\dot{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \mu \dot{\eta} \theta \eta \nu$. For these verbs, \rightarrow 14.28.
- 14.25 The θη-aor. of εύρίσκω find (verb stem εύρ-, cf. inf. aor. act. εύρ-εῖν), is ηὑρέθην.

Suppletive Stems

14.26 With a few frequently occurring verbs the stem of the $\theta\eta$ -aor. is wholly unrelated to that of the present stem (\rightarrow 11.13):

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
λέγω say, speak	λεγ-/λογ-, εἰπ-, ἐρ-/ <u>ῥη-</u>	ἡη θ η-	ἐρρήθην	ρ ηθῆναι
όράω see	ὁρᾶ-, ἴδ-, <u>ὀπ-</u>	ὀφθη-	దథθην	ὀφθῆναι
φέρω <i>carry</i> ,	φερ-, <u>ἐνεκ-</u> /ἐνοκ-/ἐγκ-,	ἐνεχ θ η-	ἠνέχθην	ἐνεχθῆναι
bring	oἰτ-			

Note 1: For ἐλέχθην as alternative to ἐρρήθην (λέγω), \rightarrow 14.19 above.

Further Notes and Exceptions

Numerous verbs with a stem ending in a vowel get a 'parasitic' σ between the verb stem and the $\theta\eta$ -suffix (contrast 14.16, verbs with a stem ending in an original σ ; this σ spread to other vowel-verbs). For instance:

verb	verb stem	$\theta\eta$ -aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ἄγαμαι admire	ἀγἄ-	ἀγα <u>σ</u> θη-	ἠγάσθην admired	ἀγασθῆναι
γιγνώσκω know,	γνω-	γνω <u>σ</u> θη-	ἐγνώσθην	γνωσθῆναι
recognize				
δράω do	δρα-/δρα-	δρα <u>σ</u> θη-	έ δράσθην	δρασθῆναι
δύναμαι be able	δυνη-/ <u>δυνά-</u>	δυνα <u>σ</u> θη-	ἐδυνάσθην was able	δυνασθῆναι
ἕλκω draw, drag	έλκ(ϋ)-	έλκυ <u>σ</u> θη-	είλκύσθην (→11.40)	έλκυσθῆναι
ἐσθίω eat	ἐσθῖ-, φἄγ-,	ἐδε <u>σ</u> θη-	_ή δέσθην	έδεσθῆνα ι
	<u>ἐδε-</u> /ἐδο-/ἐδ-			
κελεύω order	κελευ-	κελευ <u>σ</u> θη-	έκελεύσ θ ην	κελευσθῆναι
κλαίω/κλάω cry, weep	κλα(υ)-	κλαυ <u>σ</u> θη-	ἐκλαύσθην	κλαυσθῆναι
κλήω/κλείω close	κλη-/κλει-	κλη <u>σ</u> θη-/	ἐκλήσθην/	κλησθῆναι
		κλει <u>σ</u> θη-	ἐκλείσθην	κλεισθῆναι
μιμνήσκομαι remember	μνη-	μνη <u>σ</u> θη-	_{έμνήσθην}	μνησθῆναι
μιμνήσκομαι remember	μνη-	μνη <u>σ</u> θη-	ἐμνήσθην remembered	μνησθῆναι
μιμνήσκομαι remember ὄμνυμι swear	μνη- ὀμ(ο)-	μνη <u>σ</u> θη- όμο <u>σ</u> θη-		μνησθῆναι ὀμοσθῆναι
			remembered	
			remembered ὧμόσθην, also	
ὄμνυμι swear	ỏμ(o)-	όμο <u>σ</u> θη-	remembered ὤμόσθην, also ὤμόθην	όμοσθῆναι
ὄμνυμι swear	ỏμ(o)-	όμο <u>σ</u> θη-	remembered ὧμόσθην, also ὧμόθην ἐπαύσθην, also	όμοσθῆναι
ὄμνυμι swear παύω stop	ỏμ(o)- παυ-	ὀμο <u>σ</u> θη- παυ <u>σ</u> θη-	remembered ἀμόσθην, also ἀμόθην ἐπαύσθην, also ἐπαύθην	όμοσθῆναι παυσθῆναι
ὄμνυμι swear παύω stop πίμπλημι fill	ὀμ(ο)- παυ- <u>πλη-</u> /πλά-	όμο <u>σ</u> θη- παυ <u>σ</u> θη- πλη <u>σ</u> θη-	remembered ἀμόσθην, also ἀμόθην ἐπαύσθην, also ἐπαύθην	όμοσθῆναι παυσθῆναι πλησθῆναι
ὄμνυμι swear παύω stop πίμπλημι fill πίμπρημι burn	όμ(ο)- παυ- <u>πλη-</u> /πλά- <u>πρη-</u> /πρά-	όμο <u>σ</u> θη- παυ <u>σ</u> θη- πλη <u>σ</u> θη- πρη <u>σ</u> θη-	remembered ὧμόσθην, also ὧμόθην ἐπαύσθην, also ἐπαύθην ἐπλήσθην ἐπρήσθην	όμοσθῆναι παυσθῆναι πλησθῆναι πρησθῆναι
όμνυμι swear παύω stop πίμπλημι fill πίμπρημι burn σπάω draw, tear	ὀμ(ο)-παυ-<u>πλη-</u>/πλά-<u>πρη-</u>/πρά-σπά-		remembered ἀμόσθην, also ἀμόθην ἐπαύσθην, also ἐπαύθην ἐπλήσθην ἐπρήσθην ἐσπάσθην	όμοσθῆναι παυσθῆναι πλησθῆναι πρησθῆναι σπασθῆναι

For ἐδυνήθην, the more frequent alternative to ἐδυνάσθην (δύναμαι), \rightarrow 14.14 above.

14.28 Various verbs with stems ending in a consonant have an additional η between the verb stem and the $\theta\eta$ -suffix. For example:

stems ending in a dental stop:

άμαρτάνω miss, err	άμἄρτ-	ἁμαρτ <u>η</u> θη-	ήμαρτήθην	άμαρτηθῆναι
stems ending in a resonant:				
βούλομαι want, prefer νέμω deal out	βουλ- νεμ-	βουλ <u>η</u> θη- νεμ <u>η</u> θη-	ἐβουλήθην <i>wanted</i> ἐνεμήθην	βουληθῆναι νεμηθῆναι
stems ending in ξ or ψ :				
αὐξάνω, αὔξω increase ἕψω boil	αὐξ- ἑψ-	αὐξ <u>η</u> θη- ἑψ <u>η</u> θη-	ηὐξήθην ἡψήθην	αὐξηθῆναι ἑψηθῆναι

Note 1: With γίγνομαι, thematic aor. mid. ἐγενόμην = *became*, *was born*; θη-aor. ἐγενήθην = *was born*. ἐγενήθην is much more frequent in later Greek.

η-Aorist Stems

Formation of η-Aorist Stems

14.29 η -aorists occur only with stems ending in a consonant. The suffix $-\eta$ - is added immediately to the verb stem, which may show a different vowel grade from the present stem (see below).

Verbs without Vowel Differences between the Present and η-Aorist Stem

14.30 The following verbs have the same vowel in the present and η -aorist stems:

verb	verb stem	η-aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
βλάπτω harm,	βλἄβ-	βλαβη-	ἐβλάβην	βλαβῆναι
damage				
τύπτω hit	τὔπ-	τυπη-	ἐτύπην	τυπῆναι
κόπτω hit	κοπ-	κοπη-	ἐκόπην	κοπῆναι
γράφω write	γρὰφ-	γραφη-	ἐγράφην	γραφῆναι
ρίπτω throw	ῥῖπ-	ῥ ῖφη-	ἐρρίφην	ρ ιφῆναι
κρύπτω <i>hide</i>	<u>κρŭφ-</u> /κρŭβ-	κρυφη-	ἐκρύφην	κρυφῆναι
θάπτω bury	θὰφ-	ταφη- (→1.97)	ἐτάφην	ταφῆναι
(κατ)άγνυμαι	ἆγ-/ <u>ἄγ-</u>	ἄγη-	κατ-εάγην	καταγῆναι
break (intr.)			broke (intr.)
ἀπαλλάττομαι	ἀλλἄγ-	άλλαγη-	ἀπ-ηλλάγην	ἀπαλλαγῆναι
depart			departed	

<u>πληγ-</u> /πλἄγ-	πληγη-	ἐπλήγην	πληγῆναι
λεγ-/λογ-	λεγη-	συν-ελέγην came	συλλεγῆναι
		together	
κλ ĭ(ν) -	κλινη-	κατ-εκλίνην	κατακλινῆναι
		reclined	
σφἄλ-	σφαλη-	ἐσφάλην	σφαλῆναι
		stumbled	
μην-/ <u>μᾶν-</u>	μανη-	ἐμάνην raged	μανῆναι
φην-/ <u>φᾶν-</u>	φανη-	ἐφάνην	φανῆναι
		appeared	
χἄρ-	χαρη-	ἐχάρην rejoiced	χαρῆναι
	λεγ-/λογ- κλῖ(ν)- σφἄλ- μην-/ <u>μἄν-</u> φην-/ <u>φἄν-</u>	λεγ-/λογ- λεγη- κλῖ(ν)- κλινη- σφᾶλ- σφαλη- μην-/μᾶν- μανη- φην-/φᾶν- φανη-	λεγ-/λογ- λεγη- συν-ελέγην came together κλῖ(ν)- κλινη- κατ-εκλίνην reclined σφᾶλ- σφαλη- ἐσφάλην stumbled μην-/μᾶν- μανη- ἐμάνην raged φην-/φᾶν- φανη- ἐφάνην appeared

Note 1: Many of these verbs also have a θη-aorist: βλάπτω, θάπτω, ρίπτω, κρύπτω, άλλάττω, συλλέγω, κλίνω, φαίνω. \rightarrow 14.18–19.

Verbs with Vowel Differences between the Present and η -Aorist Stems

14.31 Verbs that have vowel-variation (ablaut, \rightarrow 1.51) between the present and η-aorist stems (the η-aorist uses the zero-grade):

verb	verb stem	η-aor. stem	1 sg. ind.	inf.
ζεύγνυμι <i>yoke</i>	ζευγ-/ <u>ζŭγ-</u>	ζŭγη-	ἐζύγην	ζυγῆναι
κλέπτω steal	κλεπ-/κλοπ-/	κλἄπη-	ἐκλάπην	κλαπῆναι
	κλἄπ-			
μ(ε)ίγνυμι/μίσγω mix	μειγ-/ <u>μἴγ-</u>	μῖγη-	ἐμίγην	μιγῆναι
πήγνυμαι become solid	πηγ-/ <u>πἄγ-</u>	πἄγη-	ἐπάγην became solid	παγῆναι
ἐκπλήττομαι be panic-stricken	πληγ-/ <u>πλἄγ-</u>	πλἄγη-	έξ-επλάγην lost my wits	ἐκπλαγῆναι
ῥέω <i>flow</i>	ῥε-/ <u>ῥŭ-</u>	ῥऍη-	ἐρρύην flowed	ρ υῆναι
ἡήγνυμαι <i>break</i>	ἡηγ-/ἡωγ-/	ῥ ἄγη-	ἐρράγην broke	ρ αγῆναι
(intr.)	<u>ῥἄγ-</u>		(intr.)	
σπείρω sow	σπερ-/ <u>σπἄρ-</u>	σπἄρη-	ἐσπάρην	σπαρῆναι
στέλλομαι set out	στελ-/ <u>στἄλ-</u>	στἄλη-	ἐστάλην set out	σταλῆναι
στρέφομαι <i>turn</i> around (intr.)	στρεφ-/στροφ-/ <u>στράφ-</u>	στράφη-	ἐστράφην turned around	στραφῆναι
τήκομαι melt	τηκ-/ <u>τἄκ-</u>	τἄκη-	ἐτάκην melted	τακῆναι
(intr.)				
τρέπομαι turn	τρεπ-/τροπ-/	τρἄπη-	ἐτράπην turned	τραπῆναι
around (intr.)	<u>τρἄπ-</u>		around	

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τρέφομαι grow(up) θρεφ-/θροφ-/ τράφη- ἐτράφην grew(up) τραφῆναι \frac{\theta ρ α φ}{\delta c} (\rightarrow 1.97) δια-φθείρομαι φθερ-/φθορ-/ φθάρη- δι-εφθάρην φθαρῆναι errish errish errish
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Note 1: Some of these verbs also have θη-aorists, e.g. $\grave{\epsilon}\mu(\epsilon)$ ίχθην (μείγνυμι, \rightarrow 14.19), $\grave{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\eta}\chi\theta\eta\nu$ (πήγνυμαι), $\grave{\epsilon}$ στρέφθην (στρέφομαι), $\grave{\epsilon}$ τρέφθην (τρέπομαι), $\grave{\epsilon}$ θρέφθην (τρέφω, instead of expected $\dagger \grave{\epsilon}$ τρέφθην, \rightarrow 1.97).

The Future: Active and Middle

Types of Future Stem

- 15.1 The future stem of nearly all verbs is **sigmatic**, i.e. it is formed by adding a σ to the verb stem:
 - Most verbs add this σ immediately to the verb stem: e.g. with παιδεύω educate (verb stem παιδευ-), fut. stem παιδευσ-; with δείκνυμι show (verb stem δεικ-), fut. stem δειξ-.
 - However, verbs with a stem in a resonant, or with a polysyllabic stem in 1δ- (i.e. most verbs in -iζω/-iζομαι), have a so-called Attic future, formed with an ε and having lost the sigma: e.g. with ἀγγέλλω report (verb stem ἀγγελ-), fut. stem ἀγγελε-; with κομίζω convey (verb stem κομῖδ-), fut. stem. κομιε-.

Note 1: The formation of the sigmatic future stem thus greatly resembles that of the sigmatic aorist stem (\rightarrow 13.15–23). Compare:

verb	verb stem	future stem	aorist stem
παιδεύω educate	παιδευ-	παιδευσ-	παιδευσ(α)-
τιμάω honour	<u>τιμη-</u> /τιμά-	τιμησ-	τιμησ(α)-
τρίβω <i>rub</i>	<u>τρīβ-</u> /τρĭβ-	τρῖψ-	τρῖψ(α)-
διώκω <i>chase</i>	διωκ-	διωξ-	διωξ(α)-
κολάζω punish	κολἄδ-	κολασ-	κολασ(α)-

But the formation of Attic futures diverges from that of (pseudo-)sigmatic aorists:

ἀγγέλλω report	ἀγγελ-	άγγελε-	ἀγγειλ(α)-
κομίζω <i>convev</i>	κομῖδ-	κομιε-	κομισ(α)-

Conjugation of the Future

Overview of Forms

Sigmatic Future

15.2 **Active** forms:

			verb stems ending in 1, υ or a diphthong παιδεύω educate stem παιδευσ-	verb stems ending in α, ε, ο or η τιμάω honour stem τιμησ-	verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop $\tau \rho$ μ μ stem $\tau \rho$ μ	verb stems ending in a dental stop κολάζω punish stem κολασ-
ind.	sg.	1	παιδεύσω	τιμήσω	τρίψω	κολάσω
		2	παιδεύσεις	τιμήσεις	τρίψεις	κολάσεις
		3	παιδεύσει	τιμήσει	τρίψει	κολάσει
	pl.	1	παιδεύσομεν	τιμήσομεν	τρίψομεν	κολάσομεν
		2	παιδεύσετε	τιμήσετε	τρίψετε	κολάσετε
		3	παιδεύσουσι(ν)	τιμήσουσι(ν)	τρίψουσι(ν)	κολάσουσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	παιδεύσοιμι	τιμήσοιμι	τρίψοιμι	κολάσοιμι
		2	παιδεύσοις	τιμήσοις	τρίψοις	κολάσοις
		3	παιδεύσοι	τιμήσοι	τρίψοι	κολάσοι
	pl.	1	παιδεύσοιμεν	τιμήσοιμεν	τρίψοιμεν	κολάσοιμεν
		2	παιδεύσοιτε	τιμήσοιτε	τρίψοιτε	κολάσοιτε
		3	παιδεύσοιεν	τιμήσοιεν	τρίψοιεν	κολάσοιεν
inf.			παιδεύσειν	τιμήσειν	τρίψειν	κολάσειν
ppl.	mas	c.	παιδεύσων, -οντος	τιμήσων, -οντος	τρίψων, -οντος	κολάσων, -οντος
	fem	•	παιδεύσουσα, -ούσης	τιμήσουσα, -ούσης	τρίψουσα, -ούσης	κολάσουσα, -ούσης
	neu	t.	παιδεῦσον, -οντος	τιμῆσον, -οντος	τρῖψον, -οντος	κολάσον, -οντος

15.3 **Middle** forms:

			verb stems ending in 1, 0 or a diphthong	verb stems ending in α , ϵ , \circ or η	verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop	verb stems ending in a dental stop
			παιδεύω educate stem παιδευσ-	τιμάω honour stem τιμησ-	τρίβω <i>rub</i> stem τριψ-	κολάζω punish stem κολασ-
ind.	sg.	1	παιδεύσομαι	τιμήσομαι	τρίψομαι	κολάσομαι
		2	παιδεύσει/-ῃ	τιμήσει/-ῃ	τρίψει/-ῃ	κολάσει/-ῃ
		3	παιδεύσεται	τιμήσεται	τρίψεται	κολάσεται
	pl.	1	παιδευσόμεθα	τιμησόμεθα	τριψόμεθα	κολασόμεθα
		2	παιδεύσεσθε	τιμήσεσθε	τρίψεσθε	κολάσεσθε
		3	παιδεύσονται	τιμήσονται	τρίψονται	κολάσονται
opt.	sg.	1	παιδευσοίμην	τιμησοίμην	τριψοίμην	κολασοίμην
		2	παιδεύσοιο (<*-σοι-σο)	τιμήσοιο	τρίψοιο	κολάσοιο
		3	παιδεύσοιτο	τιμήσοιτο	τρίψοιτο	κολάσοιτο
	pl.	1	παιδευσοίμεθα	τιμησοίμεθα	τριψοίμεθα	κολασοίμεθα
		2	παιδεύσοισθε	τιμήσοισθε	τρίψοισθε	κολάσοισθε
		3	παιδεύσοιντο	τιμήσοιντο	τρίψοιντο	κολάσοιντο
inf.			παιδεύσεσθαι	τιμήσεσθαι	τρίψεσθαι	κολάσεσθαι
ppl.	masc.		παιδευσόμενος, -ου	τιμησόμενος, -ου	τριψόμενος, -ου	κολασόμενος, -ου
	fem.		παιδευσομένη, -ης	τιμησομένη, -ης	τριψομένη, -ης	κολασομένη, -ης
	neut.		παιδευσόμενον, -ου	τιμησόμενον, -ου	τριψόμενον, -ου	κολασόμενον, -ου

Attic Future

15.4 **Active** forms:

			verb stems ending	in a resonant	polysyllabic verb s	tems ending in ιδ-
			ἀγγέλλω report		κομίζω convey	
			stem ἀγγελε-		stem коµιε-	
ind.	sg.	1	ἀγγελῶ	(<-έω)	κομιῶ	(<-έω)
		2	ἀγγελεῖς	(<-έεις)	κομιεῖς	(<-έεις)
		3	ἀγγελεῖ	(<-éεı)	κομιεῖ	(<-έει)
	pl.	1	ἀγγελοῦμεν	(<-έομεν)	κομιοῦμεν	(<-έομεν)
		2	ἀγγελεῖτε	(<-έετε)	κομιεῖτε	(<-έετε)
		3	ἀγγελοῦσι(ν)	(<-έουσιν)	κομιοῦσι(ν)	(<-έουσιν)
opt.	sg.	1	ἀγγελοίην / -οῖμι	(<-εοίην)	κομιοίην	(<-εοίην)
		2	άγγελοίης / -οῖς	(<-εοίης)	κομιοίης	(<-εοίης)
		3	ἀγγελοίη / -οῖ	(<-εοίη)	κομιοίη	(<-εοίη)
	pl.	1	ἀγγελοῖμεν	(<-έοιμεν)	κομιοῖμεν	(<-έοιμεν)
		2	ἀγγελοῖτε	(<-έοιτε)	κομιοῖτε	(<-έοιτε)
		3	ἀγγελοῖεν	(<-έοιεν)	κομιοῖεν	(<-έοιεν)
inf.			ἀγγελεῖν	(<-έεεν)	κομιεῖν	(<-έεεν)
ppl.	maso	: .	ἀγγελῶν,	(<-έων)	κομιῶν,	(<-έων)
			-οῦντος	(<-έοντος)	-οῦντος	(<-έοντος)
	fem.		ἀγγελοῦσα,	(<-έουσα)	κομιοῦσα,	(<-έουσα)
			-ούσης	(<-εούσης)	-ούσης	(<-εούσης)
	neut		ἀγγελοῦν,	(<-éov)	κομιοῦν,	(<-έον)
			-οῦντος	(<-έοντος)	-οῦντος	(<-έοντος)

15.5 **Middle** forms:

			verb stems ending in a resonant		polysyllabic verb ster	polysyllabic verb stems ending in 1δ-		
			ἀγγέλλω report		κομίζω convey			
			stem ἀγγελε-		stem коµιε-			
ind.	sg.	1	ἀγγελοῦμαι	(<-έομαι)	κομιοῦμαι	(<-έομαι)		
		2	ἀγγελεῖ / -ῆ	(<-έε(σ)αι)	κομιεῖ / -ῇ	(<-έε(σ)αι)		
		3	άγγελεῖται	(<-έεται)	κομιεῖται	(<-έεται)		
	pl.	1	ἀγγελούμεθα	(<-εόμεθα)	κομιούμεθα	(<-εόμεθα)		
		2	άγγελεῖσθε	(<-έεσθε)	κομιεῖσθε	(<-έεσ θ ε)		
		3	άγγελοῦνται	(<-έονται)	κομιοῦνται	(<-έονται)		
opt.	sg.	1	ἀγγελοίμην	(<-εοίμην)	κομιοίμην	(<-εοίμην)		
		2	ἀγγελοῖο	(<-έοι(σ)ο)	κομιοῖο	(<-έοι(σ)ο)		
		3	ἀγγελοῖτο	(<-έοιτο)	κομιοῖτο	(<-έοιτο)		
	pl.	1	ἀγγελοίμεθα	(<-εοίμεθα)	κομιοίμεθα	(<-εοίμεθα)		
		2	ἀγγελοῖσθε	(<-έοισθε)	κομιοῖσθε	(<-έοισθε)		
		3	ἀγγελοῖντο	(<-έοιντο)	κομιοῖντο	(<-έοιντο)		
inf.			άγγελεῖσθαι	(<-έεσθαι)	κομιεῖσθαι	(<-έεσθαι)		
ppl.	maso	: .	ἀγγελούμενος, -ου	(<-εόμενος)	κομιούμενος, -ου	(<-εόμενος)		
	fem.		άγγελουμένη, -ης	(<-εομένη)	κομιουμένη, -ης	(<-εομένη)		
	neut		άγγελούμενον, -ου	(<-εόμενον)	κομιούμενον, -ου	(<-εόμενον)		

Endings

- 15.6 The active and middle future is **always thematic** (\rightarrow 11.18). The endings are identical to those used in the present of $-\omega$ verbs (\rightarrow 12.3–16). This means that the conjugation after the stem is identical to that of the present of $\pi\alpha$ 10 ϵ 2 ω 6, but with Attic futures, the conjugation after the stem is identical to that of the present of π 01 ϵ 2 ω 6.
- 15.7 **Indicatives**: formed with primary endings, e.g. 1 sg. act. παιδεύσ-<u>ω</u>, 2 sg. παιδεύσ-<u>εις</u>, 1 sg. mid. παιδεύσ-<u>ο-μαι</u>; Att.: 1 sg. act. ἀγγελ<u>ω</u> (<-έ-ω), 2 sg. ἀγγελ<u>εῖς</u> (<-έ-εις), 1 sg. mid. ἀγγελοῦμαι (<-έ-ο-μαι).
- 15.8 **Optatives**: formed with the optative suffix -1-/-1η- and (mostly) secondary endings, e.g. 2 sg. act. παιδεύσ-<u>01-5</u>, 3 pl. mid. παιδεύσ-<u>01-ντο</u>; Att. 2 sg. act. ἀγγελ<u>οίης</u> (<-ε-οίη-5), 3 pl. mid. ἀγγελοῖντο (<-έ-01-ντο).
- **Infinitives**: formed in the act. with -εν and in the mid. with -σθαι, e.g. act. παιδεύσ-ειν (<-ε-εν), mid. παιδεύσ-ε-σθαι; Att. ἀγγελεῖν (<-έ-ε-εν), ἀγγελεῖσθαι (<-έ-ε-σθαι).
- 15.10 **Active participles**: formed with -ντ-; for the declension, →5.17-18. E.g. gen. sg. masc. παιδεύσ-ο-ντ-ος, nom. sg. fem. παιδεύσ-ουσα (<*-οντ-γα); Att. gen. sg. masc. ἀγγελοῦντος (<-έ-ο-ντ-ος), nom. sg. fem. ἀγγελοῦσα.
- 15.11 **Middle participles**: formed with - μ εν-; for the declension, \rightarrow 5.3-4. E.g. nom. sg. masc. παιδευσ-ό- μ εν-ος, nom. sg. fem. παιδευσ-ο- μ έν-η; Att. nom. sg. masc. ἀγγελούμενος (<-ε-ό- μ ενος), nom. sg. fem. ἀγγελουμένη (<-ε-ο- μ ένη).
- 15.12 There is **no future imperative or subjunctive**.
- 15.13 A few Attic futures have a conjugation which is identical to that of the present of τιμάω. For these verbs, \rightarrow 15.38.
- 15.14 Quite a few verbs with an active present have a future with only middle forms. E.g. with ἀκούω hear, 1 sg. fut. ind. ἀκούσομαι. For these verbs, →15.40.

Sigmatic Future Stems

Stem Formation

Verb Stems Ending in 1, u or a Diphthong

15.15 Verb stems ending in 1, υ , or diphthongs stay unchanged before the added σ . Some examples:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
χρίω <i>anoint</i>	χρῖ-	χρισ-	χρίσω
δύομαι dive	<u>δū-</u> /δŭ-	δūσ-	δύσομαι
λὑω loosen, release	<u>λυ-</u> /λυ-	λūσ-	λύσω

κωλύω hinder	κωλῦ-	κωλυσ-	κωλύσω
παίω strike	παι-	παισ-	παίσω
παύω stop	παυ-	παυσ-	παύσω
παιδεύω educate	παιδευ-	παιδευσ-	παιδεύσω
λούω bathe	λου-	λουσ-	λούσω
ἀκούω hear	ἀκο(υ)(σ)-	ἀκουσ-	ἀκούσομαι

Verb Stems Ending in Other Vowels

- 15.16 With verb stems ending in η/ε, η/α, ω/ο (i.e. contract verbs), σ is added to the **long** variant of the verb stem (→11.11):
 - pres. stem ε : fut. stem η ;
 - pres. stem $\bar{\alpha}$ (or η): fut. stem η (but $\bar{\alpha}$ after ϵ , ι or ρ);
 - pres. stem o: fut. stem ω ; a few verbs with a verb stem ending in ω have a similarly formed future.

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
ποιέω make, do	<u>ποιη-</u> /ποιε-	ποιησ-	ποιήσω
ἡγέομαι lead, consider	<u>ἡγη-</u> /ἡγε-	ήγησ-	ήγήσομαι
τιμάω honour	<u>τιμη-</u> /τιμᾶ-	τιμησ-	τιμήσω
κτάομαι <i>acquire</i>	<u>κτη-</u> /κτἄ-	κτησ-	κτήσομαι
δράω do	<u>δρᾶ-</u> /δρᾶ-	δρᾶσ-	δράσω
δηλόω make clear	<u>δηλω-</u> /δηλο-	δηλωσ-	δηλώσω
χρήομαι use, need	χρη-	χρησ-	χρήσομαι
τιτρώσκω wound	τρω-	τρωσ-	τρώσω

15.17 Similarly, with -μι verbs that have variant verb stems ending in $\eta/\ddot{\alpha}$, η/ϵ , or ω/o (\rightarrow 12.37), the **long** variant of the stem is used:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
δίδωμι give	<u>δω-</u> /δο-	δωσ-	δώσω
δύναμαι be able	<u>δυνη-</u> /δυνα-	δυνησ-	δυνήσομαι
ἐπίσταμαι know, be able	<u>ἐπιστη-</u> /ἐπιστά-	ἐπιστησ-	ἐπιστήσομαι
ἵημι send, let go	<u>ἡ-</u> /ἑ-	ήσ-	ἥσω
ἵστημι make stand, set up	<u>στη-</u> /στἄ-	στησ-	στήσω
πίμπλημι <i>fill</i>	<u>πλη-</u> /πλαັ-	πλησ-	πλήσω
τίθημι put, place	<u>θη-</u> /θε-	θησ-	θήσω

15.18 The verbs βαίνω and φθάνω also use a stem with long η (as opposed to $\check{\alpha}$):

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
βαίνω go, walk	<u>βη-</u> /βἄ(ν)-	βησ-	βήσομαι
φθάνω be first	<u>φθη-</u> /φθά-	φ θ η σ -	φθήσω

15.19 A few verbs in -έω and -άω which originally had a verb stem ending in a σ (or were 'absorbed' into that type, →13.18) do not have a long vowel in the future:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
ἀρκέω suffice	ἀρκε(σ)-	άρκεσ-	ἀρκέσω
γελάω laugh	γελἄ(σ)-	γελἄσ-	γελάσομαι
ζέω boil	ζε(σ)-	ζεσ-	ζέσω
καλέω call	<u>κἄλε-</u> /κλη-	καλεσ-	καλέσω (but for the much
			more common future
			καλῶ, →15.35)
τελέω finish	τελε(σ)-	τελεσ-	τελέσω (but for the more
			common future
			τελῶ, →15.35 n.1)

Also note the short vowel of:

(ἐπ)αἰνέω praise αἰνε- αἰνεσ- (ἐπ)αἰνέσω

Similarly formed (i.e. with a short vowel) are the futures of verbs in - $\dot{\alpha}$ ννυμι or - $\dot{\epsilon}$ ννυμι (which have a stem in σ), as well as $\dot{\epsilon}$ 1 $\dot{\mu}$ 1 $\dot{\mu}$ 2 $\dot{\mu}$ 2.

εἰμί be ἐσ- ἐσ- ἔσομαι (3 sg. ind. ἔσται) ἔννυμι put on (clothing) έ (σ) - έσ- ἔσ $(\sigma)\omega$ (κατα)σβέννυμι <math>quench σβη-/σβε(σ)- σβεσ- $(κατα)σβέσ<math>(\sigma)\omega$, but also (ἀπο)σβήσομαι

15.20 A few verbs in - $\alpha\omega$ and - ω that originally had a verb stem ending in ω (\rightarrow 12.29 n.1) have a future in - $\alpha\omega$ and - ω 0 and - ω 0. respectively:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
κἁω (also καίω) set on fire	κα(υ)- (<*κἄϝ-)	καυσ-	καύσω
κλάω (also κλαίω) cry, weep	κλα(υ)- (<*κλἄ -)	κλαυσ-	κλαύσομαι
πλέω sail	πλε(υ)- (<*πλε _F -)	πλευσ-	πλεύσομαι
πνέω blow	πνε(υ)- (<*πνε _Γ -)	πνευσ-	πνεύσομαι

15.21 The future of the -έω verbs δοκέω seem, think, and ἀθέω thrust, push is built on the stems δοκαια από άθ-, respectively: δόξω, ἄσω (→15.27), the latter mostly in ἀπώσω. Occasionally, however, δοκήσω and ἀθήσω are found.

Verb Stems Ending in a Labial Stop

15.22 Stems ending in a **labial stop** get a future stem in ψ ($\pi/\beta/\phi + \sigma = \psi$). Some examples:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
πέμπω send	<u>πεμπ-</u> /πομπ-	πεμψ-	πέμψω
ἕπομαι follow	<u>ἑπ-</u> /σπ-	έψ-	ἕψομαι
τρ ί βω <i>rub</i>	<u>τρῖβ-</u> /τρĭβ-	τρῖψ-	τρίψω
γράφω write	γρἄφ-	γραψ-	γράψω

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\pi\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

κλέπτω steal	<u>κλεπ-</u> /κλοπ-/κλἄπ-	κλεψ-	κλέψω
βλάπτω harm, damage	βλἄβ-	βλαψ-	βλάψω
κρύπτω hide	κρύφ-/κρύβ-	κρυψ-	κρύψω

15.23 The future of $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$ get, take (verb stem $\lambda \eta \beta - /\lambda \ddot{\alpha} \beta$ -) uses the long variant of the verb stem, and has middle endings ($\rightarrow 15.40$): future stem $\lambda \eta \psi$ -, 1 sg. ind. $\lambda \dot{\eta} \psi \omega \omega$.

Verb Stems Ending in a Velar Stop

15.24 Stems ending in a **velar stop** get a future stem in $\xi (\kappa/\gamma/\chi + \sigma = \xi)$. Some examples:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
διώκω chase	διωκ-	διωξ-	διώξω
λήγω cease	ληγ-	ληξ-	λήξω
ἄγω lead, bring	ἄγ-	ἀξ-	ἄξω
φεύγω flee	<u>φευγ-</u> /φŭγ-	φευξ-	φεύξομαι
ἄρχω rule, begin	ἄρχ-	ἀρξ-	ἄρξω

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\tau\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27), and a few in $-\zeta\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

φυλάττω guard	φυλἄκ-	φυλαξ-	φυλάξω
τάττω array, appoint	τἄγ-	ταξ-	τάξω
ὀρύττω dig	ὀρῦχ-	ὀρυξ-	ὀρύξω
οἰμώζω <i>groan</i>	οἰμωγ-	-ξωμίο	οἰμώξομαι
κλάζω scream	κλἄγγ-	κλαγξ-	κλάγξω

And note that a number of verbs in $-\nu \bar{\nu} \mu \iota$ have a stem ending in a velar stop ($\rightarrow 13.22$). For example:

δείκνυμι <i>show</i>	δεικ-	δειξ-	δείξω
ζεύγνυμι yoke	<u>ζευγ-</u> /ζŭγ-	ζευξ-	ζεύξω
πήγνυμι affix, fasten	πηγ-/πἄγ-	πηξ-	πήξω

15.25 $\xi \times \omega$ have, hold has two future stems:

For the alternation between rough/smooth breathing, \rightarrow 1.97 n.1. For the added η in $\sigma \chi \eta \sigma$ -, \rightarrow 15.30 below.

ἕξω is considerably more common in Attic prose. The difference between the two forms appears to be primarily aspectual: ἕξω will have/hold, imperfective aspect; σχήσω will get (also will hold back/restrain), perfective aspect; for such aspectual distinctions, \rightarrow 33.4–7, 33.43 n.2.

15.26 The future of τυγχάνω *hit upon, happen to* (verb stem τευχ-/τὔχ-) uses the e-grade of the verb stem, and has middle endings (→15.40): future stem τευξ-, 1 sg. ind. τεύξομαι.

Verb Stems Ending in a Dental Stop

With most stems ending in a **dental stop** the stop disappears before the σ of the future $(\tau/\delta/\theta + \sigma = \sigma, \rightarrow 1.91)$; the stems may show vowel and other variations:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
ἀνύτω accomplish	ἀνῦ(τ)-	ἀνῦσ-	ἀνύσω
ψεύδομαι lie, cheat	ψευδ-	ψευσ-	ψεύσομαι
οἶδα <i>know</i>	<u>εἰδ-</u> /οἰδ-/ἰδ-	εἰσ-	εἴσομαι
πάσχω suffer	πενθ-/πονθ-/πἄθ-	πεισ-	πείσομαι (<*πένθσομαι)
πείθω persuade	<u>πειθ-</u> /ποιθ-/πἴθ-	πεισ-	πείσω
πυνθάνομαι inquire,	<u>πευθ-</u> /πŭθ-	πευσ-	πεύσομαι
learn			

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\zeta\omega$ (and some in $-\tau\tau\omega$) (\rightarrow 12.27):

άρμόζω/άρμόττω	άρμοδ-/άρμοτ-	άρμοσ-	άρμόσω
fit together			
παρασκευάζω	σκευάδ-	σκευασ-	παρασκευάσω
prepare, provide			
κτίζω found	κτἴδ-	κτισ-	κτίσω
σχίζω split, cleave	σχῖδ-	σχισ-	σχίσω

Note 1: πείσομαι can be the future both of middle-passive πείθομαι *believe*, *obey* and of πάσχω *suffer*.

15.28 Verbs in -ίζω with a verb stem with more than one syllable – unlike κτίζω and σχίζω, which have a monosyllabic verb stem – have an Attic future: →15.33 below.

Suppletive Verbs

15.29 In a few cases the future is built on a different stem from that of the present and/or other tenses (suppletive verbs, \rightarrow 13.38):

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
ἔρχομαι <i>go, come</i>	ἐρχ-, <u>ἐλευθ</u> -/ἐλ(ŭ)θ-, εἰ-/ἴ-	έλευσ-	ἐλεύσομαι
δράω see	όρα-, ἴδ-, <u>ὀπ</u> -	ỏψ-	ὄψομαι
φέρω carry, bring	φερ-, ἐνεκ-/ἐνοκ-/ἐγκ-,	oìσ-	ဝၢိσω
	<u>οἰτ</u> -		

Further Particulars

15.30 Various verbs with a verb stem ending in a consonant have an additional η between the verb stem and the σ of the future. For example:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
άμαρτάνω miss, err	άμἄρτ-	ἁμαρτησ-	άμαρτήσομαι
(ἐ)θέλω be willing	(ἐ)θελ-	ἐθελησ-	ἐθελήσω
εὑρίσκω find	εὑρ-	εύρησ-	εύρήσω
μανθάνω learn	μἄθ-	μαθησ-	μαθήσομαι
αἰσθάνομαι perceive	αἰσθ-	αἰσθησ-	αἰσθήσομαι
βούλομαι want, prefer	βουλ-	βουλησ-	βουλήσομαι

15.31 The future of ῥέω flow (<*ῥέϝω, verb stem ῥε(ϝ)-/ῥŭ-) is built on the zero-grade of the stem + η: ῥῦἡσομαι. Cf. aor. ἐρρύην, →14.31.</p>

Attic Future Stems

Stem Formation

Verb Stems Ending in a Resonant

15.32 With most verb stems ending in a resonant (nasal (μ , ν) or liquid (λ , ρ)), an ϵ is added to the verb stem. Originally, this ϵ was followed by $-\sigma\omega$, $-\sigma\epsilon\iota\varsigma$, etc., but in classical Greek the **sigma has disappeared**: *- $\epsilon\sigma\omega$ > - $\epsilon\omega$, which in Attic contracted to - $\tilde{\omega}$. This is called the **Attic future** (or 'contract future'). It is conjugated like the present of contracted verbs in - $\epsilon\omega$ (π 01 $\epsilon\omega$, \rightarrow 12.3–4).

Note 1: The name 'Attic future' derives from antiquity; it does not refer to a dialect phenomenon per se (this type of future also occurs in Ionic), but to the fact that this future is not much used in later Koine Greek.

E.g. with ἀγγέλλω report (verb stem ἀγγε $\underline{\Lambda}$ -): future stem ἀγγελε-, 1 sg. fut. act. ind. ἀγγελῶ (<ἀγγελέω <*ἀγγελέσω), 1 pl. ἀγγελοῦμεν (<ἀγγελέομεν), inf. ἀγγελεῖν, (<*ἀγγελέεεν) gen. sg. masc. act. ppl. ἀγγελοῦντος (<ἀγγελέοντος).

E.g. with βάλλω throw, hit (verb stem βα $\overline{\lambda}$ -): future stem βαλε-, 1 sg. fut. act. ind. βαλῶ (<βαλέω <*βαλέσω), 1 pl. βαλοῦμεν (<βαλέομεν), inf. βαλεῖν (<βαλέειν), gen. sg. masc. act. ppl. βαλοῦντος (<βαλέοντος).

Note 2: The origin of the ε in these futures is a matter of controversy. With $\beta \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$ and some other verbs, a variant of the verb stem in ε (i.e. $\beta \alpha \lambda \varepsilon$ -) can safely be reconstructed; the use of the ε in the future of this verb may then have been generalized across verb stems ending in a resonant. However, the ε may also have an independent origin.

Other examples:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. fut. ind.
μένω stay, (a)wait	μεν-	μενε-	μενῶ (<-έω)
νέμω deal out	νεμ-	νεμε-	νεμῶ (<-έω)
ἀποθνήσκω die	<u>θἄν</u> -/θνη-	θἄνε-	ἀποθανοῦμαι
			(<-έομαι)
ἀπόλλυμι destroy	<u>ὀλ</u> (ε)-	όλε-	ἀπολῶ (<-έω)
τέμνω cut	<u>τεμ-</u> /τμη-	τεμε-	τεμῶ (<-έω)

Note especially verbs that have a present in -λλω or in -αίνω/-αίρω, -είνω/-είρω, -ίνω/-ήρω, -ὑνω/-ὑρω (\rightarrow 12.28):

σφάλλω cause to stumble	σφἄλ-	σφἄλε-	σφἄλῶ (<-έω)
στέλλω dispatch	<u>στελ</u> -/στἄλ-	στελε-	στελῶ (<-έω)
φαίνω show	φην-/ <u>φἄν-</u>	φἄνε-	φανῶ (<-έω)
τείνω stretch	<u>τεν-</u> /τἄν-	τενε-	τενῶ (<-έω)
ἀποκτείνω kill	<u>κτεν</u> -/κτον-/κτάν-	κτενε-	ἀποκτενῶ (<-έω)
διαφθείρω destroy	φθερ-/φθορ-/φθἄρ-	διαφθερε-	διαφθερῶ (<-έω)
σπείρω sow	σπερ-/σπάρ-	σπερε-	σπερῶ (<-έω)
κρτνω decide, judge	κρῖ(ν)-	κρῖνε-	κρῖνῶ (<-έω)

Verb Stems Ending in a Dental Stop

15.33 The future in $-\epsilon\omega$ ($-\tilde{\omega}$) is also found with polysyllabic stems in $-i\delta$ - (i.e. most verbs in $-i\zeta\omega/-i\zeta\omega\omega$), without the δ of the verb stem.

E.g. with κομίζω *convey* (verb stem κομίδ-): future stem κομιε-, 1 sg. fut. act. ind. κομιῶ (<κομιέω), 1 pl. κομιοῦμεν (<κομιέομεν), inf. κομιεῖν (<κομιέειν), gen. sg. masc. act. ppl. κομιοῦντος (<κομιέοντος).

The future of such verbs was probably regularly sigmatic at an earlier stage ($\kappa o \mu i \sigma \omega$, with δ disappearing before σ , $\rightarrow 15.27$); after the sigma dropped out between vowels ($\rightarrow 1.83$), the forms were given the same conjugation as other non-sigmatic (Attic) futures like $\beta \alpha \lambda \tilde{\omega}$ (i.e. as $-\epsilon \omega$ verbs).

Other examples:

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
νομίζω <i>believe</i>	νομῖδ-	νομιε-	νομιῶ (<-έω)
βαδίζω walk, go	βαδῖδ-	βαδιε-	βαδιοῦμαι (<-έομαι)
άγωνίζομαι contend	ἀγωνῖδ-	άγωνιε-	άγωνιοῦμαι (<-έομαι)
λογίζομαι reckon	λογϊδ-	λογιε-	λογιοῦμαι (<-έομαι)

Note 1: 'Regularly' sigmatic forms of (some) of these verbs also occur, especially in later Greek, e.g. with ἐλπίζω hope, expect, fut. ἐλπίσω next to ἐλπιῶ.

Note 2: The verb καθίζω *make sit down, sit down* also has a future of the Attic type (καθιῶ <-έω), analogous to other verbs in -ίζω, although its verb stem did not originally end in 1δ (the stem is 1ζ - < reduplicated * σ i- σ δ-).

Other Attic Futures

15.34 In a few cases an Attic future is built on a different stem from the present or other tenses (suppletive verbs, \rightarrow 11.13):

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
λέγω say, speak	λεγ-/λογ-, εἰπ-, <u>ἐρ-</u> /ῥη-	ἐρε-	ἐρῶ (<-έω)
τρέχω <i>run</i>	τρεχ-, δράμ-	δραμε-	δραμοῦμαι (<-έομαι)

15.35 There are also a few verbs with a present stem in ε that does not alternate with η , as in ποιέω/ποιήσω/ἐποίησα, but retains the ε in future and aorist active (for these aorists, \rightarrow 13.18). In the future this results in forms that are formally identical with Attic futures, and are usually also called 'Attic':

verb	verb stem	future stem	1 sg. ind.
καλέω call, summon	<u>κἄλε-</u> /κλη-	καλε-	καλῶ (<-έω <*-έσω)
γαμέω marry	γἄμ(ε)-	γαμε-	γαμῶ (<-έω)

Note 1: τελέω *finish* has both a future in -σω ($\rightarrow 15.19$) and an Attic future, τελῶ. The conjugation of the Attic future τελῶ is identical to the present, as is that of καλῶ and γαμῶ.

Similarly, in addition to καλῶ, the future καλέσω (\rightarrow 15.19) occasionally occurs.

- 15.36 Some other verbs have an Attic future:
 - μάχομαι fight (verb stem μἄχ(ε)-), fut. stem μαχε-, 1 sg. ind. μαχοῦμαι (<-έομαι), cf. aor.
 ἐμαχεσάμην;
 - πίπτω fall (verb stem πεσ-/πτ(ω)-), fut. stem πεσε-, 1 sg. ind. πεσοῦμαι (<-έομαι);
 - καθ-έζομαι sit down (verb stem έδ-), fut. stem έδε-, 1 sg. ind. καθεδοῦμαι (<-έομαι).
- 15.37 The future of ὅμνυμι swear (verb stem ὁμ(o)-) is ὁμοῦμαι (<*ὁμόσομαι, cf. aor. ἄμοσα). But this future was reinterpreted as an Attic future in -έομαι: the 3 sg. ind. fut. is ὀμεῖται.
- 15.38 There are also some verbs with an Attic future in -άω (conjugated like τιμάω, \rightarrow 12.3-4). The most important are:
 - ἐλαύνω drive, ride (verb stem ἐλα-), fut. stem ἐλα-, ind. ἐλω, ἐλως, etc., inf. ἐλων (cf. aor. ἤλασα);
 - verbs in -ἄννυμι (with a verb stem originally in σ, →12.39): e.g. σκεδάννυμι scatter, disperse (verb stem σκεδα(σ)-), fut. stem σκεδα-, ind. σκεδα, σκεδας, etc., inf. σκεδαν (cf. aor. ἐσκέδασα); so too κρεμάννυμι hang up, fut. ind. κρεμα, κρεμας, etc.; πετάννυμι spread out, fut. ind. πετας, πετας, etc.

Other Futures

15.39 With the verbs ἐσθίω eat and πίνω drink, the future is formed without sigma or any other kind of suffix; the future uses a different stem than the present:

```
    verb
    verb stem
    future stem
    1 sg. ind.

    ἐσθίω eat
    ἐσθῖ-, φᾶγ-, ἐδε-/ἐδο-/ἐδ-
    ἐδ-
    ἔδομαι

    πΐνω drink
    πω-/πο-/πῖ-
    πῖ-
    πΐομαι (forms with

    πῖ- also occur)
```

These futures are conjugated simply as the present middle-passive $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\nu}o\mu\alpha i$ ($\rightarrow 12.4$).

Note 1: These were based on an older form of the subjunctive, using short thematic vowels ο/ε.

Verbs with a Middle Future

15.40 There are numerous verbs with an active present which have only or predominantly **middle forms in the future**. These verbs tend to belong to one of a few specific semantic categories: a list of the most frequent verbs with a middle future, arranged according to these semantic categories, is given here.

The list is not exhaustive; information about further individual verbs may be found in dictionaries. Several of the verbs in the list have irregularly formed future stems; some have suppletive stems. These are treated in more detail in the list of principal parts, $\rightarrow 22.9$.

- Verbs of **uttering sounds/speech** (and their opposites, of **keeping silence**):

```
verb
                                     future (1 sg. ind.)
ἄδω sing
                                     ἄσομαι
βοάω shout, call on
                                     βοήσομαι
γελάω laugh
                                     γελάσομαι
ἐγκωμιάζω praise
                                     έγκωμιάσομαι (but also έγκωμιάσω)
ἐπαινέω praise
                                     ἐπαινέσομαι (but also ἐπαινέσω)
ἐρωτάω ask
                                     ἐρήσομαι (but also ἐρωτήσω)
οἰμώζω groan
                                     οἰμώξομαι
ὄμνυμι swear
                                     όμοῦμαι, -ῆ
σιγάω keep silence, be still; keep
                                     σιγήσομαι
  secret
σιωπάω keep silence, be still; keep
                                     σιωπήσομαι
  secret
```

- Verbs of **grasping**, **taking** (in), **obtaining**, both mentally and physically (and their opposites, of **missing**):

ἀκούω hear ἀκούσομαι ἁμαρτάνω miss, err ἁμαρτήσομαι ἀπολαύω benefit from, enjoy ἀπολαύσομαι

άρπάζω seize, snatch άρπάσομαι (but also άρπάσω) βλέπω look, see βλέψομαι (but also βλέψω)

γιγνώσκω know, recognize γνώσομαι δάκνω bite δήξομαι λαγχάνω obtain by lot λήξομαι λαμβάνω get, take λήψομαι μανθάνω learn μαθήσομαι οἶδα know εἴσομαι δράω see ὄψομαι σκοπέω/σκέπτομαι look, examine σκέψομαι τυγχάνω hit upon, happen to τεύξομαι

- Verbs of taking in food/drink:

βιβρώσκω eat βρώσομαι ἐσθίω eat ἔδομαι πίνω drink πίομαι

- Verbs of **movement**:

 ἀπαντάω meet, oppose
 ἀπαντήσομαι

 βαδίζω walk, go
 βαδιοῦμαι, -ῆ

 βαίνω go, walk
 βήσομαι

 βλώσκω come
 μολοῦμαι, -ῆ

 (ἀπο)διδράσκω run away
 (ἀπο)δράσομαι

διώκω chase διώξομαι (but also διώξω)

πλέω sail πλεύσομαι πέπτω fall πεσοῦμαι, -ῆ ἡέω flow ἡυήσομαι τρέχω run δραμοῦμαι, -ῆ φεύγω flee φεύξομαι φθάνω be first φθήσομαι

χωρέω give way, go χωρήσομαι (but also χωρήσω)

Verbs of bodily conditions and affections:

εἰμί be ἔσομαι (3 sg. ἔσται)

ζήω/βιόω *live* βιώσομαι

(ἀπο)θνήσκω die (ἀπο)θανοῦμαι, -ῆ κάμνω toil, be sick καμοῦμαι, -ῆ

πάσχω suffer πνέω breathe, blow τίκτω give birth

πνεύσομαι τέξομαι (but also τέξω)

πείσομαι

- Verbs expressing various **emotions**:

δέδοικα / δείδω (Ion.) fear θαυμάζω wonder, marvel at σπουδάζω be eager (about)

δείσομαι (not in Attic)

θαυμάσομαι σπουδάσομαι

The Future: Passive $(\theta \eta - /\eta -)$

Types of Future Passive Stem

- Based on the aorist passive in $-\theta\eta\nu$ or $-\eta\nu$ (\rightarrow 14) Greek developed a 'passive' sigmatic future in $-\theta\dot{\eta}\sigma o\mu\alpha i$ and $-\dot{\eta}\sigma o\mu\alpha i$, respectively. The stem is formed by adding a sigma to the $\theta\eta$ -/η-aorist stem:
 - $\theta\eta$ -future (with verbs with a $\theta\eta$ -aorist):
 - e.g. with π αιδεύω *educate* (verb stem π αιδευ-, θ η-aor. stem π αιδευθη-): θ η-future stem π αιδευθησ-;
 - e.g. with δείκνυμι *show* (verb stem δεικ-, θη-aor. stem δειχθη-): θη-future stem δειχθη<u>σ</u>-.
 - η -future (with verbs with an η -aorist):
 - e.g. with γράφω *write* (verb stem γράφ-, η-aor. stem γραφη-): η-future stem γραφησ-;
 - e.g. with φαίνω *show* (verb stem φην-/ $\underline{\phi}\underline{\alpha}\underline{\nu}$ -, η-aor. stem φανη-): η-future stem φανησ-.

Note 1: The 'passive' future, like the 'passive' aorist, has passive meaning *only* when it is formed from active verbs taking an object: e.g. with $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\omega$ educate, $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon i\theta i\rho\sigma o\mu\alpha I$ will be educated; with $\delta\epsilon i\kappa\nu i\mu i$ show, $\delta\epsilon i\chi\theta i\rho\sigma o\mu\alpha I$ will be shown. With many other verbs it has a 'change-of-state' meaning: e.g. with $\phi\alpha i\nu\omega$ show, cause to appear, $\phi\alpha\nu i\rho\sigma o\mu\alpha I$ will appear; some other meanings occur with passive-only verbs. For all these features, $\rightarrow 35$. Below, the meaning of the $\theta\eta$ -/ η -future is added with several verbs for clarity.

On the whole, the meaning of a future 'passive' stem corresponds to that of the aorist 'passive' stem on which it is built.

Note 2: The middle future (\rightarrow 15) may also express the meanings expressed by the θη-/η-future: e.g. τιμήσομαι *I will be honoured* (passive), φανοῦμαι *I will appear* (change-of-state meaning, \rightarrow 35.17). With η-aorists with change-of-state meaning in particular, the corresponding future is often the middle rather than an η-future: e.g. with τρέπομαι *turn*, aor. ἐτράπην *I turned around*, fut. τρέψομαι *I will turn around*. For details, also on the diachronic development of this phenomenon, \rightarrow 35.30.

The conjugation is thematic; the indicative uses primary endings: this means that the sigma is followed by the endings that are identical to those of the future middle $(\rightarrow 15.3)$: $-\sigma \circ \mu \alpha_1$, $-\sigma \varepsilon \cdot \tau \alpha_1$, $-\sigma \varepsilon \cdot \tau \alpha_1$, etc.

As with all future stems, there is **no imperative or subjunctive**.

Conjugation of the Future Passive

Overview of Forms

16.3 $\theta\eta$ -futures and η -futures:

			θη-future	η-future
			παιδεύω educate	φαίνομαι appear, seem
			stem παιδευθησ-	stem φανησ-
ind.	sg.	1	παιδευθήσομαι	φανήσομαι
		2	παιδευθήσει/-ῃ	φανήσει/-η
		3	παιδευθήσεται	φανήσεται
	pl.	1	παιδευθησόμεθα	φανησόμεθα
		2	παιδευθήσεσθε	φανήσεσθε
		3	παιδευθήσονται	φανήσονται
opt.	sg.	1	παιδευθησοίμην	φανησοίμην
		2	παιδευθήσοιο	φανήσοιο
		3	παιδευθήσοιτο	φανήσοιτο
	pl.	1	παιδευθησοίμεθα	φανησοίμεθα
		2	παιδευθήσοισθε	φανήσοισθε
		3	παιδευθήσοιντο	φανήσοιντο
inf.			παιδευθήσεσθαι	φανήσεσθαι
ppl.	mas	c.	παιδευθησόμενος, -ου	φανησόμενος, -ου
	fem.		παιδευθησομένη, -ης	φανησομένη, -ης
	neut	t.	παιδευθησόμενον, -ου	φανησόμενον, -ου

Particulars

16.4 Some further examples of $\theta\eta$ -futures:

verb	$ heta\eta$ -aorist	θη-future
λὑω loosen, release	ἐλᡠ θ ην	λŭθήσομαι
τιμάω honour	ἐτιμήθην	τιμη θ ήσομαι
πολιορκέω besiege	ἐπολιορκήθην	πολιορκηθήσομαι
τίθημι <i>put, place</i>	ἐτέ θ ην	τεθήσομαι
βάλλω throw, hit	ἐβλήθην	βλη θ ήσομαι
όράω see	ὤφθην	ὀφθήσομαι
λέγω say, speak	ἐρρήθην	ρηθήσομαι

16.5 Some further examples of η -futures:

verb η-future η-aorist βλάπτω harm, damage βλαβήσομαι ἐβλάβην πλήττω strike ἐπλήγην πληγήσομαι ἐκπλήττομαι be panic**έξεπλάγην** ἐκπλαγήσομαι will be frightened stricken σφαλήσομαι will stumble σφάλλομαι stumble ἐσφάλην

δια-φθείρομαι perish δι-εφθάρην δια-φθαρήσομαι will perish

Not all verbs with $\theta \eta$ -/ η -aorists form the corresponding futures. Note in particular the following two:

βούλομαι want, prefer ἐβουλήθην βουλήσομαι (middle) will want πείθομαι believe, obey ἐπείσθην πείσομαι (middle) (older: ἐπιθόμην) will believe, obey

Also $\rightarrow 16.1$ n.2.

The Perfect (and Future Perfect): Introduction

Perfect (and Future Perfect) Stems

Types of Stem

- 17.1 There are two types of **perfect stem** (many verbs have both, some have only one):
 - A perfect active stem. There are three types: κ-perfect, aspirated perfect, and stem perfect. In addition, there are some verbs which have a mixed perfect. For details, →18.
 - A perfect middle-passive stem. For details, \rightarrow 19.

For the meanings of the perfect stem, \rightarrow 33.11–12, 33.34–42.

- 17.2 There are also two types of **future perfect stem**:
 - A **future perfect active** stem, formed by adding σ to the perfect active stem. These forms are very rare, and occur with only a few verbs.
 - A **future perfect middle-passive** stem, formed by adding σ to the perfect middle-passive stem. These forms also occur infrequently.

For details, $\rightarrow 20$. For the meanings of the future perfect stem, $\rightarrow 33.46-7$.

- 17.3 All perfect and future perfect stems (except those of oil α know) include a **reduplication**. For the rules governing the formation of perfect reduplications, $\rightarrow 11.43-8$.
- 17.4 Some examples of perfect and future perfect stems:

with παιδεύω educate (verb stem παιδευ-):

pf. act. stem πεπαιδευκ-: πε- παιδευ- κ-

reduplication verb stem kappa

with δείκνυμι show (verb stem δεικ-):

pf. act. stem $\delta \epsilon \delta \epsilon_{1} \gamma$: $\delta \epsilon$ - $\delta \epsilon_{1} \gamma$ -

reduplication verb stem $(\delta \epsilon_{i\varkappa}-)$ + aspiration

with νικάω educate (verb stem νικη-/νικά-):

pf. mp. stem νενικη-: νε- νικη-

reduplication verb stem

with $\lambda\dot{\upsilon}\omega$ loosen, release (verb stem $\lambda\bar{\upsilon}$ -/ $\underline{\lambda}\underline{\upsilon}$ -):

fut. pf. mp. stem lelve-: $\lambda \epsilon$ - $\lambda \dot{\nu}$ - σ -

reduplication verb stem sigma

Periphrastic Forms

Perfect forms may also be **periphrastic**: a periphrastic construction consists of a **perfect participle and an auxiliary form of εἰμί** – as opposed to single, 'synthetic' forms. This occurs especially with the perfect middle-passive, where in some cases *only* periphrastic forms occur (→19.8–9); but active periphrastic forms are also found, especially in the subjunctive and the optative.

- 17.6 The forms of $\varepsilon i \mu i$ ($\rightarrow 12.36$) used in periphrastic constructions are:
 - For the periphrastic perfect indicative: the pres. ind. of εἰμί: e.g. ἀφιγμένοι εἰσί(ν) 3 pl. pf. mp. ind. of ἀφικνέομαι arrive; γεγονυῖά ἐστι(ν) instead of γέγονε(ν), 3 sg. pf. act. ind. of γίγνομαι become, be born.
 - For the periphrastic pluperfect: the impf. of εἰμί: e.g. γεγραμμένοι ἦσαν 3 pl. plpf.
 mp. of γράφω write; δεδωκώς ἦν instead of ἐδεδώκει, 3 sg. plpf. act. of δίδωμι give.
 - For the periphrastic future perfect indicative: the fut. ind. of εἰμί: e.g. ἐγνωκὼς ἔσται, 3 sg. fut. pf. act. ind. of γιγνώσκω know, recognize.
 - For the periphrastic perfect subjunctive: the pres. subj. of εἰμί: e.g. παρεσκευασμένον ἢ 3 sg. pf. mp. subj. of παρασκευάζω prepare.
 - For the periphrastic perfect optative: the pres. opt. of εἰμί: e.g. πεποιηκώς εἴη instead of πεποιήκοι, 3 sg. pf. act. opt. of ποιέω make, do.
 - For the periphrastic perfect infinitive: the pres. inf. εἶναι: e.g. πεπραγμένα εἶναι instead of πεπρᾶχθαι, pf. mp. inf. of πράττω do, act.
- 17.7 The participle in periphrastic constructions **agrees** in number and gender with the subject (→27.7): e.g. οἱ νόμοι γεγραμμένοι εἰσίν the laws have been written, ἡ μίσθωσις ἦν γεγραμμένη the contract had been written.

The Perfect: Active

Types of Perfect Active Stem

- 18.1 All perfect stems (except $o\tilde{i}\delta\alpha$ *know*) include a **reduplication**, either in the form of a consonant + ε or formed in the same way as the augment; for the rules governing reduplication, $\rightarrow 11.43-8$.
- 18.2 Apart from reduplication, **perfect active stems** are formed in one of three different ways:
 - κ-perfects: with most verb stems ending in a vowel, resonant or dental stop, a κ is added to the verb stem. E.g. with παιδεύω educate (verb stem παιδευ-): perfect stem πεπαιδευκ-.
 - Aspirated perfects: with most verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop, the perfect stem is formed by using the aspirated variant of that stop (φ or χ). E.g. with βλάπτω harm, damage (verb stem βλάβ-): perfect stem βεβλαφ-.
 - **Stem perfects**: with a number of verbs (whose verb stems always end in a consonant), no additions other than reduplication are made to the verb stem in the perfect stem; in most cases, such perfect stems differ from the present stem because of ablaut (\rightarrow 1.51-6). E.g. with λείπω leave (verb stem λειπ-/λοιπ-/λῖπ-): perfect stem λελοιπ-.

To this category belong also the verbs οἶδα, ἔοικα and εἴωθα, which have some irregular forms.

There are, in addition, a few 'mixed' perfects, formed partly like κ-perfects, partly like stem perfects: δέδοικα *fear*, ἕστηκα (ἵσταμαι *come to stand*), τέθνηκα ((ἀπο)θνήσκω *die*), and βέβηκα (βαίνω *go, walk*).

Note 1: κ -perfects and regularly formed aspirated perfects are a relatively late development of the language, and are younger than stem perfects, from which they derive their conjugation. For verbs that formed a κ -perfect in addition to an already existing stem perfect (normally with a distinction in meaning), \rightarrow 18.26.

Note 2: Stem perfects are often called 'second' or 'strong' perfects: for this terminology, see the section *On Terminology* at the start of this book.

к-Perfects, Aspirated Perfects, Stem Perfects: Conjugation

Overview of Forms

18.3 к-perfects:

			verb stems ending in 1, υ or α diphthong	verb stems ending in α, ε, ο or η	verb stems ending in a dental stop	verb stems ending in a resonant
			παιδεύω educate stem πεπαιδευκ-	τιμάω honour stem τετιμηκ-	κομίζω convey stem κεκομικ-	άγγέλλω report stem ἠγγελκ-
prim.	sg.	1	πεπαίδευκα	τετίμηκα	κεκόμικα	ἤγγελκα
ind. (pf	.)	2	πεπαίδευκας	τετίμηκας	κεκόμικας	ἤγγελκας
		3	πεπαίδευκε(ν)	τετίμηκε(ν)	κεκόμικε(ν)	ἤγγελκε(ν)
	pl.	1	πεπαιδεύκαμεν	τετιμήκαμεν	κεκομίκαμεν	ἠγγέλκαμεν
		2	πεπαιδεύκατε	τετιμήκατε	κεκομίκατε	ἠγγέλκατε
		3	πεπαιδεύκασι(ν)	τετιμήκασι(ν)	κεκομίκασι(ν)	ἠγγέλκασι(ν)
sec.	sg.	1	ἐπεπαιδεύκειν	ἐτετιμήκειν	ἐκεκομίκειν	ἠγγέλκειν
ind.		2	ἐπεπαιδεύκεις	ἐτετιμήκεις	ἐκεκομίκεις	ἠγγέλκεις
(plpf.)		3	ἐπεπαιδεύκει(ν)	ἐτετιμήκει(ν)	ἐκεκομίκει(ν)	ἠγγέλκει(ν)
	pl.	1	ἐπεπαιδεύκεμεν	ἐτετιμήκεμεν ²	ἐκεκομίκεμεν ²	ἠγγέλκεμεν
		2	ἐπεπαιδεύκετε	ἐτετιμήκετε ²	ἐκεκομίκετε	ἠγγέλκετε
		3	ἐπεπαιδεύκεσαν	ἐτετιμήκεσαν 2	ἐκεκομίκεσαν	ἠγγέλκεσαν
subj.	sg.	1	πεπαιδεύκω	τετιμήκω	κεκομίκω	ἠγγέλκω
		2	πεπαιδεύκης	τετιμήκης	κεκομίκης	ἠγγέλκῃς
		3	πεπαιδεύκη	τετιμήκη	κεκομίκη	ἠγγέλκῃ
	pl.	1	πεπαιδεύκωμεν	τετιμήκωμεν	κεκομίκωμεν	ἠγγέλκωμεν
		2	πεπαιδεύκητε	τετιμήκητε	κεκομίκητε	ἠγγέλκητε
		3	πεπαιδεύκωσι(ν)	τετιμήκωσι(ν)	κεκομίκωσι(ν)	ἠγγέλκωσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	πεπαιδεύκοιμι	τετιμήκοιμι	κεκομίκοιμι	ἠγγέλκοιμι
		2	πεπαιδεύκοις	τετιμήκοις	κεκομίκοις	ἠγγέλκοις
		3	πεπαιδεύκοι	τετιμήκοι	κεκομίκοι	ἠγγέλκοι
	pl.	1	πεπαιδεύκοιμεν	τετιμήκοιμεν	κεκομίκοιμεν	ἠγγέλκοιμεν
		2	πεπαιδεύκοιτε	τετιμήκοιτε	κεκομίκοιτε	ἠγγέλκοιτε
		3	πεπαιδεύκοιεν	τετιμήκοιεν	κεκομίκοιεν	ἠγγέλκοιεν
imp. ⁵			>	\rightarrow	\rightarrow	><
inf.			πεπαιδευκέναι	τετιμηκέναι	κεκομικέναι	ήγγελκέναι
ppl.	mas	sc.	πεπαιδευκώς, -ότος	τετιμηκώς, -ότος	κεκομικώς, -ότος	ήγγελκώς, -ότος
	fem	1.	πεπαιδευκυῖα, -υίας	τετιμηκυῖα, -υίας	κεκομικυῖα, -υίας	ήγγελκυῖα, -υίας
	neu	ıt.	πεπαιδευκός, -ότος	τετιμηκός, -ότος	κεκομικός, -ότος	ἠγγελκός, -ότος

¹ Also (older) -κη, e.g. ἐπεπαιδεύκη.

 $^{^2}$ Also (newer) -κειμεν, -κειτε, -κεισαν, e.g. ἐπεπαιδεύκειμεν.

³ The pf. subj. is very rare: often periphrastic (e.g. πεπαιδευκώς ὧ)

 $^{^4}$ The pf. opt. is very rare: often periphrastic (e.g. πεπαιδευκώς εἴην)

 $^{^5}$ $\,$ The pf. act. imp. does not exist: only periphrastic (e.g. πεπαιδευκώς ἴσθι)

18.4 Aspirated perfects, stem perfects, οἶδα:

			verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop (aspirated perfects)	stem perfects	οίδα
			τρίβω <i>rub</i>	φεύγω flee	οΐδα know
			stem τετριφ-	stem πεφευγ-	stem είδ-/οίδ-/ίδ-
prim. ind.	sg.	1	τέτριφα	πέφευγα	οἶδα
(pf.)		2	τέτριφας	πέφευγας	οἷσθα
		3	τέτριφε(ν)	πέφευγε(ν)	οἷδε(ν)
	pl.	1	τετρίφαμεν	πεφεύγαμεν	ἴσμεν
		2	τετρίφατε	πεφεύγατε	ἴστε
		3	τετρίφασι(ν)	πεφεύγασι(ν)	ἴσασι(ν)
sec. ind.	sg.	1	ἐτετρίφειν	ἐπεφεύγειν	ἤδη or ἤδειν
(plpf.)		2	ἐτετρίφεις	ἐπεφεύγεις	ἤδησ θ α or ἤδεις
		3	ἐτετρίφει(ν)	ἐπεφεύγει(ν)	ἤδει(ν)
	pl.	1	ἐτετρίφεμεν ²	ἐπεφεύγεμεν ²	ἤσμεν or ἤδεμεν 2
		2	ἐτετρίφετε ²	ἐπεφεύγετε ²	ἤστε <i>or</i> ἤδετε
		3	$\dot{\epsilon}$ τετρίφεσαν 2	ἐπεφεύγεσαν ²	ἤσαν or ἤδεσαν 2
subj. ³	sg.	1	τετρίφω	πεφεύγω	εἰδῶ
		2	τετρίφης	πεφεύγῃς	εἰδῆς
		3	τετρίφη	πεφεύγῃ	εἰδῆ
	pl.	1	τετρίφωμεν	πεφεύγωμεν	εἰδῶμεν
		2	τετρίφητε	πεφεύγητε	εἰδῆτε
		3	τετρίφωσι(ν)	πεφεύγωσι(ν)	εἰδῶσι(ν)
opt.4	sg.	1	τετρίφοιμι	πεφεύγοιμι	εἰδείην
		2	τετρίφοις	πεφεύγοις	εὶδείης
		3	τετρίφοι	πεφεύγοι	εἰδείη
	pl.	1	τετρίφοιμεν	πεφεύγοιμεν	εἰδεῖμεν
		2	τετρίφοιτε	πεφεύγοιτε	εἰδεῖτε
		3	τετρίφοιεν	πεφεύγοιεν	εἰδεῖεν
imp.	sg.	2			΄ ἴσθι
		3			ἴστω
	pl.	2			ἴστε
		3			∕ ἴστων
inf.			τετριφέναι	πεφευγέναι	εἰδέναι
ppl.	mas	c.	τετριφώς, -ότος	πεφευγώς, -ότος	εἰδώς, -ότος
	fem.		τετριφυῖα, -υίας	πεφευγυῖα, -υίας	εἰδυῖα, -υίας
	neut	t.	τετριφός, -ότος	πεφευγός, -ότος	εὶδός, -ότος

¹ Also (older) -η, -ης e.g. ἐτετρίφη, ἐπεφεύγης, etc.

² Also (newer) -ειμεν, -ειτε, -εισαν, e.g. ἐπεφεύγειτε, ἤδειμεν.

The pf. subj. is very rare: periphrastic forms (e.g. τετριφώς ὧ) are more common. οἶδα does have regularly used separate forms.

⁴ The pf. opt. is very rare: periphrastic forms (e.g. τετριφώς εἴην) are more common. οἴδα does have regularly used separate forms.

 $^{^{5}}$ The pf. act. imp. does not exist (except with οἶδα): periphrastic forms do occur (e.g. τετριφώς ἴσθι).

Note 1: $\[\]$ if $\[\sigma\theta \]$ (2 sg. pf. imp. of $\[\sigma \]$ is identical to the imperative of $\[\epsilon \]$ imp. ($\[\]$ is identical to the imperfect of $\[\epsilon \]$ imp. ($\[\]$ 12.36).

Endings, Periphrastic Forms

18.5 The primary and secondary **indicatives** (i.e. the pf. ind. and plpf.) have different sets of endings from those listed in 11.20–33. They are as follows:

	primary	secondary
1 sg.	- α	-ειν
		(also, older: $-\eta$ ($<-\epsilon\alpha$))
2 sg.	-ἄς	-εις
		(also, older: $-\eta_{\varsigma}$ ($<-\epsilon\alpha_{\varsigma}$))
3 sg.	-ε(ν)	-ει(ν)
1 pl.	-ἄμεν	-εμεν
	(mixed: -μεν)	(also, newer: -ειμεν)
		(mixed: -μεν)
2 pl.	-ἄτε	-ετε
	(mixed: -τε)	(also, newer: -ειτε)
		(mixed: -τε)
3 pl.	- ασι(ν)	-εσαν
		(also, newer: -εισαν)
		(mixed: -σαν)

Pluperfects also have an augment (\rightarrow 11.35–42, 11.55).

E.g. 1 pl. pf. act. ind. πεπαιδεύκ-<u>αμεν</u>, 1 pl. pf. act. ind. (mixed): δέδι-<u>μεν</u>; 2 sg. plpf. act. ἐ-πεπαιδεύκ-εις (older ἐπεπαιδεύκης).

- 18.6 Perfect active **subjunctives and optatives** are **thematic**, and have the usual endings (resulting in subjunctive -ω, -ης, -η, etc.; optative -οιμι, -οις, -οι, etc.). E.g. 2 sg. act. subj. πεπαιδεύκ-<u>ης</u>, 3 pl. act. opt. πεπαιδεύκ-<u>οιεν</u>. These forms, however, are exceedingly rare: often we find 'periphrastic' forms instead, which use a participle and forms of εἰμί (→17.5–7).
- 18.7 The perfect active **imperative** occurs only with a few verbs, \rightarrow 18.23, 18.30.
- 18.8 The ending of the perfect active **infinitive** is -**έναι**, e.g. πεπαιδευκ-<u>έναι</u>.
- 18.9 Perfect active **participles** follow the pattern masc. -ώς, gen. -ότος; fem. -υῖα, gen. -υίας; neut. -ός, gen. -ότος. E.g. dat. sg. masc. πεπαιδευκ<u>ότι</u>. For the entire declension, →5.19-20.

к-Perfects, Aspirated Perfects, Stem Perfects: Stems

Stem Formation

Verb Stems Ending in 1, v or a Diphthong

18.10 Verb stems ending in 1, υ or a diphthong stay unchanged before the added κ , although the stems may show variations in vowel length. Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
χρίω anoint	χρῖ-	κεχρικ-	κέχρικα
θὑω sacrifice	θū-/ <u>θŭ-</u>	τεθŭκ-	τέθυκα
λὑω loosen, release	λū-/ <u>λŭ-</u>	λελŭκ-	λέλυκα
μηνύω disclose	μηνῦ-	μεμηνυκ-	μεμήνυκα
παίω strike	παι-	πεπαικ-	πέπαικα
παιδεύω educate	παιδευ-	πεπαιδευκ-	πεπαίδευκα
λούω bathe, wash	λου-	λελουκ-	λέλουκα

Note 1: With monosyllabic stems that have long \bar{v} in the present stem, the perfect active has a short \check{v} ; cf. the θ_{η} -aor., $\rightarrow 14.11$ n.1.

Verb Stems Ending in Other Vowels

- 18.11 With verb stems ending in η/ϵ , $\eta/\tilde{\alpha}$, ω/o (i.e. contract verbs), κ is added to the **long** variant of the verb stem (\rightarrow 11.11):
 - pres. stem ε: pf. stem η;
 - pres. stem $\check{\alpha}$ (or η): pf. stem η (but $\bar{\alpha}$ after ε, ι or ρ);
 - pres. stem o: pf. stem ω ; a few verbs with a verb stem ending in ω have a similarly formed perfect.

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
ποιέω make, do	<u>ποιη-</u> /ποιε-	πεποιηκ-	πεποίηκα
στρατηγέω be general	<u>στρατηγη-</u> /	ἐστρατηγηκ-	ἐστρατήγηκα
	στρατηγε-		
τιμάω honour	<u>τιμη-</u> /τιμᾶ-	τετιμηκ-	τετίμηκα
δράω <i>do</i>	<u>δρα-</u> /δρα-	δεδρᾶκ-	δέδρακα
πεινήω be hungry	πεινη-	πεπεινηκ-	πεπείνηκα
δηλόω make clear	<u>δηλω-</u> /δηλο-	δεδηλωκ-	δεδήλωκα
γιγνώσκω know, recognize	γνω-	ἐγνωκ-	ἔγνωκα
σώζω save	σω-	σεσωκ-	σέσωκα

18.12 Similarly, with - μ 1 verbs that have variant verb stems ending in $\eta/\tilde{\alpha}$, η/ϵ or ω/ω 0 (\rightarrow 12.37), the long variant of the verb stem is used:

verb stem verb perfect stem 1 sg. ind. πίμπλημι fill πλη-/πλάπεπληκπέπληκα τεθηκ- (also τεθεικ-) τέθηκα (also τέθεικα) τίθημι put, place $\theta\eta$ -/ $\theta\epsilon$ δεδωκδέδωκα δίδωμι give δω-/δο-

But the verb inul uses the short verb stem in the perfect:

ἵημι send, let go ἡ-/ $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ $\underline{\epsilon}$ ίκ- (\rightarrow 11.47) ϵ ἶκα

18.13 Some other verbs have a short stem-vowel in the perfect (these verbs usually also have a short vowel in the agrist and future stems; \rightarrow 13.18-19, 15.19). For example:

```
αἰνέω praise pf. ind. ἤνεκα  \tauελέω finish \text{ (verb stem } \tauελε(σ)-\text{)} \qquad pf. ind. τετέλεκα \text{ (note the loss of } σ\text{)}   \delta έω bind \qquad pf. ind. δέδεκα \text{ (but aor. ind. } ἔδησα)
```

18.14 A few verbs in -άω and -έω that originally had a verb stem ending in ρ (→13.20, 15.20, 19.17) have a perfect in -αυκα and -ευκα, respectively:

```
κάω (also καίω) set on fire (<*κάργω) pf. ind. κέκαυκα (<*κέκαρκα) pf. ind. πέπλευκα (<*πέπλερκα) pf. ind. πέπλευκα (<*πέπλερκα) pf. ind. πέπνευκα (<*πέπνερκα)
```

Verb Stems Ending in a Dental Stop

18.15 With verb stems ending in a dental stop $(\tau/\delta/\theta)$, that **dental stop disappears** before κ in the perfect:

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.	
ἀνύτω complete	ἀνϋ(τ)-	ἦνυκ-	ἤνυκα	
πείθω persuade	πειθ-/ποιθ-/πῖθ-	πεπεικ-	πέπεικα	
Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\zeta\omega$ or $-\tau\tau\omega$ (\to 12.27):				
****************	àouas làouat	ກ່ວນວະ	ร็อบอะจ	

άρμόζω/άρμόττω άρμοδ-/άρμοτήρμοκήρμοκα fit together κομίζω convey κομῖδκεκόμικα κεκομικνομίζω believe νομῖδνενόμικα νενομικὀνομάζω name ὀνομάδὢνόμακα ώνομακπλάττω mould πλἄθπεπλακπέπλακα

Verb Stems Ending in a Resonant

18.16 Verb stems ending in a resonant stay unchanged before the added κ. Some examples (note especially verbs that have a present in $-\lambda\lambda\omega$ or in $-\alpha i\nu\omega/-\alpha i\rho\omega$, $-\epsilon i\nu\omega/-\epsilon i\rho\omega$, $-\dot{\upsilon}\nu\omega/-\dot{\upsilon}\rho\omega$, $\rightarrow 12.28$):

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
ἀγγέλλω report	ἀγγελ-	ἠγγελκ-	ἤγγελκα
αἴρω lift	ἆρ-	ήρκ-	ἦρκα

Note that ν before κ is spelled γ ('angma', $\rightarrow 1.29$ n.1):

φαίνω show φην-/φαν- πεφαγκ- πέφαγκα

Many liquid-stem verbs use the zero-grade variant of the verb stem in the perfect. This usually results in a stem with α ($\rightarrow 1.53$):

δια-φθείρω destroy φθερ-/φθορ-/φθάρ- δι-εφθάρκ- δι-έφθαρκα στέλλω dispatch στελ-/στάλ- ἐστάλκ- ἔσταλκα

Several other verbs add η between the resonant and κ : for such verbs, $\rightarrow 18.24$.

Some verbs with a present stem ending in a nasal do not have that consonant in the perfect (it was not originally part of the verb stem, but a suffix added to the present stem, and then sometimes extended to other stems; →12.30 n.2):

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
κλΐνω cause to lean	κλῖ(ν)-	κεκλϊκ-	κέκλικα
κρτνω pick out, decide, judge	κρῖ(ν)-	κεκρϊκ-	κέκρικα
(ἐκ)τίνω pay, atone	τει-/τἴ-	TCTCIV-	(čr) TÉTEIRA

18.18 Observe the perfect of τείνω stretch

verb verb stem perfect stem 1 sg. ind. τείνω stretch τ εν-/τα- (<*τη- \rightarrow 1.86) τετακ- τ έτακα

The Aspirated Perfect – Verb Stems Ending in a Labial or Velar Stop

- 18.19 With most verb stems that end in a labial stop $(\pi/\beta/\phi)$, the perfect stem uses the aspirated version of that labial stop: ϕ (those with ϕ remain unchanged). There are often vowel changes between the perfect stem and other tense stems as well. Some examples:
 - Without vowel change (between the perfect and present stems):

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
τρ ί βω <i>rub</i>	τρῖβ-/ <u>τρĭβ-</u>	τετρῖ <u>φ</u> -	τέτρῖφα
γράφω write	γρἄφ-	γεγραφ-	γέγραφα

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\pi\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

κόπτω hit κοπ- κεκοφ- κέκοφα ἡίπτω throw ἡῖπ- ἐρριφ- ἔρριφα

- With vowel change (often with 0, \rightarrow 1.56):

```
κλέπτω steal
                     κλεπ-/κλοπ-/κλάπ-
                                               κεκλοφ-
                                                                 κέκλοφα
                                               εἰληφ- (→11.47)
λαμβάνω get, take
                     ληβ-/λἄβ-
                                                                 εἴληφα
πέμπω send
                     πεμπ-/πομπ-
                                               πεπομφ-
                                                                 πέπομφα
τρέφω nourish, rear
                     τρεφ-/τροφ-/τράφ-
                                               τετροφ-
                                                                 τέτροφα
```

- Similarly, with most verb stems that end in a velar stop $(\kappa/\gamma/\chi)$, the perfect stem uses the aspirated version of that velar stop: χ (those with χ remain unchanged). Again, there are often vowel changes between the perfect stem and other tense stems as well. Some examples:
 - Without vowel change (between the perfect and present stems):

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
διώκω chase	διωκ-	δεδιωχ-	δεδίωχα
ἄγω lead, bring	ἄγ-	<u> ἠχ</u> -	ἦχα
ἄρχω begin, rule	ἄρχ-	ἦρ <u>χ</u> -	ἦρχα

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\tau\tau\omega$ (\rightarrow 12.27):

```
φυλάττω guard φυλάκ- πεφυλαχ- πεφύλαχα τάττω array, appoint τάγ- τεταχ- τέταχα
```

Of the -νυμι verbs that have verb stems ending in a velar stop (\rightarrow 12.39), only δείκνυμι has a regular aspirated perfect in classical Greek (for (ἀν)οίγνυμι, \rightarrow 18.25):

```
δείκνυμι show δεικ- δεδειχ- δέδειχα
```

- With vowel change (often with 0, \rightarrow 1.56):

```
λαγχάνω obtain by lot \frac{\lambda\eta\chi}{\lambda} εἰληχ \frac{\lambda\eta\chi}{\lambda} ειληχ \frac{\lambda\eta\chi}{\lambda} εἰληχ \frac{\lambda\eta\chi}{\lambda} ειληχ \frac{\lambda\eta}{\lambda} ει
```

Stem Perfects

18.21 Stem perfects have a perfect stem which, apart from the reduplication, is identical to the verb stem. Many of these verbs have vowel change between the perfect stem and other tense stems (ablaut, →1.51-6; the o-grade is frequently used in the perfect stem). Several active stem perfects correspond to a middle-passive present (with a 'change-of-state' meaning, →35.17; the meanings of these perfects are given below).

The most common stem perfects are the following:

- Without vowel change (between the perfect and present stems):

verb ἀπόλλυμαι perish πήγνυμαι become solid	verb stem <u>ὀλ</u> (ε)- <u>πηγ-</u> /πἄγ-	perfect stem ὀλωλ- (→11.48) πεπηγ-	1 sg. ind. (ἀπ)όλωλα have perished πέπηγα be stuck
φεύγω flee	<u>φευγ-</u> /φŭγ-	πεφευγ-	πέφευγα
- With vowel change ((often with $0, \rightarrow$)	1.56):	
ἀκούω <i>hear</i>	ἀκο(υ)- (<*ἀκο _Γ -)	ἀκήκο- (→11.48)	ἀκήκοα (<*ἀκηκορα))
ἀποκτείνω kill	κτεν-/ <u>κτον-</u> / κτάν-	-ἐκτον-	ἀπέκτονα
γίγνομαι become, be born	γεν(η)-/ <u>γον-</u> / γν-	γεγον-	γέγονα be (born)
διαφθείρομαι perish	φθερ-/ <u>φθορ-</u> / φθἄρ-	-ἐφθορ-	διέφθορα have lost one's wits
ἐγείρομαι wake up	ἐγερ-/ <u>ἐγορ-</u> / ἐγρ-	έγρηγορ- (→11.48)	ἐγρήγορα be awake
ἔρχομαι <i>go, come</i>	ἐρχ-, ἐλευθ-/ <u>ἐλ(ٽ)θ-,</u> εἰ-/ἴ-	ἐληλυθ- (→11.48)	ἐλήλυθα <i>have come</i>
λανθάνω go unnoticed	<u>ληθ-</u> /λἄθ-	λεληθ-	λέληθα
λείπω leave	λειπ-/ <u>λοιπ-</u> / λĭπ-	λελοιπ-	λέλοιπα
μαίνομαι rage	<u>μην-</u> /μἄν-	μεμην-	μέμηνα be furious
πάσχω suffer	πενθ-/ <u>πονθ-</u> / πἄθ-	πεπονθ-	πέπονθα
πείθομαι believe, obey	πειθ-/ <u>ποιθ-</u> /πἴθ	- πεποιθ-	πέποιθα believe, trust
ἡήγνυμαι <i>break</i> (intr.)	ἡηγ-/ <u>ῥωγ-</u> / ῥἄγ-	ἐρρω γ-	ἔρρωγα be torn
στρέφομαι turn around	στρεφ-/ <u>στροφ-</u> / στράφ-	ἐστροφ-	ἔστροφα have turned around
τίκτω give birth	τεκ-/ <u>τοκ-</u> /τκ-	τετοκ-	τέτοκα
φαίνομαι appear, seem	<u>φην-</u> /φᾶν-	πεφην-	πέφηνα have appeared

Note 1: There is no real difference between aspirated perfects and stem perfects if the verb stem itself ends in a - φ or - χ already. E.g. with γρά φ ω (verb stem γρά φ -), pf. ind. γέγρα φ - α .

Irregular Stem Perfects: ἔοικα, εἴωθα, οἶδα

- 18.22 The verbs ἔοικα *be likely* and εἴωθα *be accustomed*, of which no corresponding presents exist, are conjugated like other stem perfects, except for the following points:
 - no subjunctive or optative forms of these verbs occur;
 - ἔοικα has participle εἰκώς, -ότος (next to ἐοικώς, -ότος); it has infinitive εἰκέναι
 next to ἐοικέναι;
 - the infinitive of εἴωθα (εἰωθέναι) is very rare.
- 18.23 The verb οἶδα *know*, of which no corresponding present exists, has an irregular conjugation, built on the verb stem εἶδ-/οἶδ-/ἶδ- (<*fεῖδ-/*fοῖδ-/*fοῖδ-/*fοῖδ-):

E.g. 1 sg. pf. ind. οἶδ-α, 2 sg. οἶσθα (<*οἶδ-θα, \rightarrow 1.89), 2 pl. ἴστε (<*ἴδ-τε); 2 sg. imp. ἴσθι (<*ἴδ-θι); 1 sg. plpf. ἤδ-η (εἶδ- with augment); inf. εἶδ-έναι.

Full forms are given in the overview, $\rightarrow 18.4$. Note that unlike most perfects, oiδα has imperative forms (as well as subjunctive and optative forms, which are also absent from many perfects). It behaves in all respects like a present.

Further Particulars

18.24 A number of verbs that in other tenses use a verb stem which ends in a consonant, have a perfect stem with an additional n. For example:

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
stems ending in a dental or v	elar stop:		
άμαρτάνω miss, err	άμἄρτ-	ήμαρτ <u>η</u> κ-	ήμάρτηκα (cf. aor. ήμαρτ-ον)
ἔχω have, hold	ἐχ-/ <u>σχ-</u>	ἐσχ <u>η</u> κ-	ἔσχηκα (cf. aor. ἔ-σχ-ον)
μανθάνω learn, understand	μ ἄθ -	μεμαθ <u>η</u> κ-	μεμάθηκα (cf. aor. ἔ-μαθ-ον)
stems ending in a resonant:			
εύρίσκω find	εύρ-	ηὑρ <u>η</u> κ-	ηὕρηκα (cf. aor. ηὖρ-ον)
μένω stay, (a)wait	μεν-	_ μεμεν <u>η</u> κ-	μεμένηκα (cf. pres. μέν-ω)
νέμω deal out	νεμ-	– νενεμ <u>η</u> κ-	νενέμηκα (cf. pres. νέμ-ω)
stems ending in ξ or ψ :			
αὐξάνω, αὔξω increase	αὐξ-	ηὐξηκ-	ηὔξηκα (cf. pres. αὔξ-ω)
ἕψω boil	έψ-	ήψηκ-	ἥψηκα (cf. pres. ἕψ-ω)

18.25 The verbs ἀν-οίγω (also: ἀνοίγνυμι) open and πράττω do, act have both an aspirated perfect (ἀνέωχα and πέπρᾶχα, respectively), and a stem perfect (ἀνέωγα and πέπρᾶγα, respectively). πέπραχα is typically construed with an object (have done something), πέπραγα with an adverb (have fared a certain way).

For the reduplication in $\dot{\alpha}\nu\dot{\epsilon}\omega\chi\alpha/\dot{\alpha}\nu\dot{\epsilon}\omega\chi\alpha$, \rightarrow 11.40.

Several verbs have both κ-perfect and stem perfect forms. The κ-perfects are a later development, and tend to have a different meaning, especially if the stem perfects correspond to a middle-passive present with a 'change-of-state' meaning (for full discussion, $\rightarrow 35.17$):

ἀπ-όλλυμι destroy (verb stem όλ(ε)-)

with act. ἀπόλλυμι κ-pf. ἀπολώλεκα: have destroyed X with mid. ἀπόλλυμαι perish stem pf. ἀπόλωλα: be ruined

δια-φθείρω destroy (verb stem φθερ-/φθορ-/φθάρ-)

with act. διαφθείροω κ-pf. διέφθαρκα and stem pf. διέφθορα: have destroyed X with mid. διαφθείρομαι perish stem pf. διέφθορα: have lost one's wits, be corrupted (Homer and late prose only)

έγείρω wake, rouse (verb stem έγερ-/έγορ-/έγρ-)

with act. ἐγείρω (in later Greek:) κ-pf. ἐγήγερκα: have woken X

with mid. ἐγείρομαι wake up stem pf. ἐγρήγορα: be awake (in later Greek also mp. pf. ἐγήγερμαι)

φαίνω show (verb stem φην-/φαν-)

with act. φαίνω (rare) κ-pf. πέφαγκα: have shown, have caused X to

appear

with mid. φαίνομαι appear, stem pf. πέφηνα: have appeared

seem

Mixed Perfects (δέδοικα, ἕστηκα, τέθνηκα and βέβηκα)

Overview of Forms

- 18.27 The following perfects have some distinct forms:
 - δέδοικα fear (verb stem δει-/δοι-/δῖ-; no corresponding present occurs in classical Greek): perfect stems δεδοικ-/δε(ι)δι-;
 - (ἀπο)θνήσκω die (verb stem θαν-/θνη-): perfect stems τεθνηκ-/τεθνα- be dead;
 - ἵσταμαι *come to stand* (verb stem στη-/στα-): perfect stems ἑστηκ-/ἑστα- *stand*;
 - βαίνω go, walk (verb stem βη-/β $\ddot{\alpha}$ (ν)-): perfect stems βεβηκ-/βεβα- stand (firm).

These verbs have regular κ -perfect forms built on the long variant of the stem. Other forms occur, however, which are built on a short variant of the stem, and use slightly different endings. The following tables give the most frequently occurring **short-stem forms** (note that these perfects, unlike most active perfects described above, have imperative forms):

	δέδοικα fear (no present) stem δε(1)δ1-	τέθνηκα be dead (ἀπο)θνήσκω die stem τεθνα-	ἔστηκα stand ἵσταμαι come to stand stem έστα-	βέβηκα stand (firm) βαίνω go, walk stem βεβα-
prim. ind. (pf.)	1 pl. δέδιμεν, 2 pl. δέδιτε, 3 pl. δεδίασιν also: 1 sg. δέδια, 3 sg. δέδιεν	3 pl. τεθνᾶσι(ν)	2 pl. ἔστατε, 3 pl. ἐστᾶσι(ν)	3 pl. βεβᾶσι(ν)
sec. ind. (plpf.)	1 pl. ἐδέδιμεν, 2 pl. ἐδέδιτε, 3 pl. ἐδέδι(ε)σαν also: sg. ἐδεδίειν, ἐδεδίεις, ἐδεδίει(ν)	3 pl. ἐτέθνασαν	3 pl. ἔστασαν	_
subj.	3 sg. δεδίη, 3 pl. δεδίωσι(ν)	_	_	_
opt.	_	1 sg. τεθναίην, 3pl. τεθναῖεν, etc.	_	_
imp.	2 sg. δέδιθι	2 sg. τέθναθι, 3 sg. τεθνάτω	2 sg. ἔσταθι, 3 sg. ἑστάτω	_
inf.	δεδιέναι	τεθνάναι	έστάναι	_
ppl.	δεδιώς, -ότος	τεθνεώς, -ῶτος	έστώς, -ῶτος	βεβώς, -ῶτος
	δεδιυῖα, -υίας	τεθνεῶσα, -ώσης	έστῶσα, -ώσης	βεβῶσα, -ώσης
	δεδιός, -ότος	τεθνεός, -ῶτος	έστώς, -ῶτος	βεβώς, -ῶτος

Particulars

18.28 In the **indicative** (perfect and pluperfect):

- Most forms are built on the long form of the stem (δεδοικ-/τεθνηκ-/ἔστηκ-), and conjugated like κ-perfects. Thus pf. ind. δέδοικα, δέδοικας, δέδοικε(ν); τέθνηκα, etc.; ἔστηκα, etc., plpf. ἐδεδοίκειν, ἐδεδοίκεις, ἐδεδοίκειν; ἐτεθνήκειν, etc.; ἑστήκειν, etc.
- Some forms, however, especially 3 pl. forms, are built on the short form of the stem (δεδι-/τεθνα-/έστα-): thus. e.g. pf. ind. δέδι-μεν, δέδι-τε, δεδί-ασι(ν); τεθνᾶσι(ν) (<*τεθνά-ασι); έστᾶσι(ν) (<*έστά-ασι).

However, alternative κ-forms are often found for the short-stem forms as well, e.g. δεδοίκαμεν, τεθνήκασι(ν), etc.

Note 1: In the pluperfect of ἔστηκα, κ-forms regularly begin with εί- (with visible augment) rather than έ-: for example, είστήκη (next to ἑστήκη), είστήκεσαν (next to ἑστήκεσαν).

- Short-stem forms of the **subjunctive and optative** are rare (the subj. and opt. are rare altogether), although optative τ εθναίην (etc.) does occur occasionally.
- 18.30 **Imperatives** (very infrequent) are built on the short variant of the stem. The second singular active imperative ends in -θι: e.g. δέδι-θι, τέθνα-θι, ἕστα-θι.
- 18.31 The **infinitive** is normally built on the short variant of the stem, and ends in -έναι (δεδιέναι) or -ναι (τεθνάναι, έστάναι). However, κ-forms are also found alongside the short-stem forms, e.g. δεδοικέναι, τεθνηκέναι, έστηκέναι, βεβηκέναι.
- 18.32 The **participle** is normally built on the short variant of the stem (e.g. δεδιώς, -ότος), and has some irregular forms:
 - with τέθνηκα: masc. τεθνεώς, -ῶτος; fem. τεθνεῶσα, -ώσης; neut. τεθνεός, -ῶτος;
 - with ἔστηκα: masc. ἑστ $\underline{\omega}$ ς, - $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ τος; fem. ἑστ $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ σα, - $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ σης; neut. ἑστ $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ ς, - $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ τος;
 - with βέβηκα: masc. βεβ $\underline{\omega}$ ς, - $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ τος; fem. βεβ $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ σα, - $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ σης; neut. βεβ $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ ς, - $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ τος.

However, alternative κ-forms are also found alongside the short-stem forms, e.g. δεδοικώς, τεθνηκώς, έστηκώς, βεβηκώς, etc.

Note 1: The verb γίγνομαι *become, be born* occasionally has a similarly formed pf. ppl. in poetry: γεγώς, fem. γεγῶσα.

The Perfect: Middle-Passive

The Perfect Middle-Passive Stem

- 19.1 All middle-passive perfect stems include a **reduplication** (just like active perfect stems), either in the form of a consonant $+ \varepsilon$, or formed in the same way as the augment. For the rules governing reduplication, $\rightarrow 11.43-8$.
- 19.2 Apart from reduplication, perfect middle-passive stems have **no additions** to the verb stem. Thus e.g. with the verb παιδεύω *educate* (verb stem παιδευ-), the perfect middle-passive stem is πε<u>παιδευ</u>-; with δείκνυμι *show* (verb stem δεικ-), the perfect middle-passive stem is δεδεικ-.
- 19.3 With verb stems that occur in different 'ablaut' vowel-grades, the middle-passive perfect stem normally shows one of the following:
 - e-grade, same as the present stem but different from the active perfect stem: e.g. with πέμπω send, pf. act. stem πεπομφ-, pf. mp. stem πεπ<u>ε</u>μπ-; with λείπω leave, pf. act. λελοιπ-, pf. mp. stem λελειπ-;
 - in some cases, particularly with stems in liquids: zero-grade, normally resulting in a stem with ă (→1.53, 1.87); different from the present stem, but same as the active perfect stem: e.g. with στέλλω, pf. act. stem ἐσταλκ-, pf. mp. stem ἐσταλ-.

Conjugation of the Perfect Middle-Passive

Overview of Forms

19.4 The perfect middle-passive is conjugated as follows:

			verb stems endi diphthongs or l		verb stems er	nding in α, ε,	verb stems er	nding in v
			παιδεύω educat	e	τιμάω honou	r	φαίνομαι αρρ	ear, seem
			stem πεπαιδευ-		stem τετιμη-		stem πεφάν-	
prim. ind.	sg.	1	πεπαίδευμαι		τετίμημαι		πέφασμαι	
(pf.)		2	πεπαίδευσαι		τετίμησαι		πέφανσαι	
		3	πεπαίδευται		τετίμηται		πέφανται	
	pl.	1	πεπαιδεύμεθα		τετιμήμεθα		πεφάσμεθα	
		2	πεπαίδευσθε		τετίμησθε		πέφανθε	
		3	πεπαίδευνται		τετίμηνται		πεφασμένοι ε	σί(ν)
sec. ind.	sg.	1	ἐπεπαιδεύμην		ἐτετιμήμην		ἐπεφάσμην	
(plpf.)		2	ἐπεπαίδευσο		ἐτετίμησο		ἐπέφανσο	
		3	ἐπεπαίδευτο		ἐτετίμητο		ἐπέφαντο	
	pl.	1	ἐπεπαιδεύμεθα		ἐτετιμήμεθα		ἐπεφάσμεθα	
		2	ἐπεπαίδευσθε		ἐτετίμησθε		ἐπέφανθε	
		3	ἐπεπαίδευντο		ἐτετίμηντο		πεφασμένοι ἦ	σαν
subj.	sg.	1	πεπαιδευμένος		τετιμημένος		πεφασμένος	
		2		ทั้ร		ñs		ńs
		3		ň		ň		ň
	pl.	1	πεπαιδευμένοι	ὧμεν	τετιμημένοι	ὧμεν	πεφασμένοι	ὧμεν
		2		ἦτε		ἦτε		ἦτε
		3		ὧσι(ν)		ὧσι(ν)		ὧσι(ν)
opt.	sg.	1	πεπαιδευμένος	εἴην	τετιμημένος	εἴην	πεφασμένος	εἴην
		2		εἴης		εἴης		εἴης
		3		εἴη		εἴη		εἴη
	pl.	1	πεπαιδευμένοι	εἶμεν	τετιμημένοι	εἶμεν	πεφασμένοι	εἶμεν
		2		εἶτε		εἶτε		εἶτε
		3		εἷεν		eเ ี ้ยง		εἷεν
imp.	sg.	2	πεπαίδευσο		τετίμησο		πέφανσο	
		3	πεπαιδεύσθω		τετιμήσθω		πεφάνθω	
	pl.	2	πεπαίδευσθε		τετίμησθε		πέφανθε	
		3	πεπαιδεύσθων		τετιμήσθων		πεφάνθων	
inf.			πεπαιδεῦσθαι		τετιμῆσθαι		πεφάνθαι	
ppl.	mas	c.	πεπαιδευμένος,	-ou	τετιμημένος, -	·ou	πεφασμένος, -	-ou
	fem		πεπαιδευμένη, -	ης	τετιμημένη, -1	ns	πεφασμένη, -	ns
	neu	t.	πεπαιδευμένον,	-ου	τετιμημένον,	-ου	πεφασμένον,	-ου

			verb stems ending in labial stops		verb stems er velar stops	nding in	n verb stems ending dental stops		
			τρίβω <i>rub</i>	δείκνυμι <i>show</i>		<i>y</i>	κομίζω convey		
			stem τετριβ-		stem δεδεικ-		stem κεκομἴδ-		
prim. ind.	sg.	1	τέτριμμαι		δέδειγμαι		κεκόμισμαι		
(pf.)		2	τέτριψαι		δέδειξαι		κεκόμισαι		
		3	τέτριπται		δέδεικται		κεκόμισται		
	pl.	1	τετρίμμεθα		δεδείγμεθα		κεκομίσμεθα		
		2	τέτριφθε		δέδειχ θ ε		κεκόμισθε		
		3	τετριμμένοι ε	ίσί(ν)	δεδειγμένοι εἰ	ίσί(ν)	κεκομισμένοι ε	ἰσί(v)	
sec. ind.	sg.	1	ἐτετρίμμην		ἐδεδείγμην		ἐκεκομίσμην		
(plpf.)		2	ἐτέτριψο		ἐδέδειξο		ἐκεκόμισο		
pl		3	ἐτέτριπτο		ἐδέδεικτο		ἐκεκόμιστο		
	pl.	1	ἐτετρίμμεθα		ἐδεδείγμεθα		ἐκεκομίσμεθα		
		2	ἐτέτριφ θ ε		ἐδέδειχ θ ε		ἐκεκόμισ θ ε		
		3	τετριμμένοι ἦ	σαν	δεδειγμένοι ἦ	σαν	κεκομισμένοι ἦ	σαν	
subj.	sg.	1	τετριμμένος		δεδειγμένος		κεκομισμένος	ω̃	
		2		ทู้ร		ทู้ร		ทั้ร	
		3		ñ		ñ		ñ	
	pl.	1	τετριμμένοι	ὧμεν	δεδειγμένοι	ὧμεν	κεκομισμένοι	ὧμεν	
		2		ἦτε		ἦτε		ἦτε	
		3		ὧσι(ν)		ὧσι(ν)		ὧσι(ν)	
opt.	sg.	1	τετριμμένος	εἴην	δεδειγμένος	εἴην	κεκομισμένος	εἴην	
_	_	2		εἴης		εἴης		εἴης	
		3		εἴη		εἴη		εἴη	
	pl.	1	τετριμμένοι	εἷμεν	δεδειγμένοι	εἷμεν	κεκομισμένοι	εἶμεν	
	-	2		εἶτε	-	εἶτε		εἶτε	
		3		εἶεν		εἶεν		εἶεν	
imp.	sg.	2	τέτριψο		δέδειξο		κεκόμισο		
-	_	3	τετρίφθω		δεδείχθω		κεκομίσθω		
	pl.	2	τέτριφθε		δέδειχ θ ε		κεκόμισθε		
	-	3	τετρίφθων		δεδείχθων		κεκομίσθων		
inf.			τετρῖφθαι		δεδεῖχ θ αι		κεκομίσθαι		
ppl.	mas	c.	τετριμμένος, -	-ou	δεδειγμένος, -	-ou	κεκομισμένος,	-ou	
= =	fem		τετριμμένη, -1	ηs	δεδειγμένη, -1	ηs	κεκομισμένη, -	ης	
	neu	t.	τετριμμένον,	-ou	δεδειγμένον,	-ou	κεκομισμένον,	-ou	

Endings

19.5 All perfect middle-passive forms are **athematic**: endings follow immediately upon the stem. The regular endings listed in 11.20–33 are used in the perfect middle-passive, but the following points should be noted.

- 19.6 Endings beginning with σθ (e.g. second person plural -σθε or infinitive -σθαι) lose their σ with all perfect middle-passive stems except those ending in a vowel or diphthong (→1.94): e.g. πεπαίδευ-σθε but ἔρριφ-θε (for this latter form, also →19.7).
- 19.7 The final sound of perfect middle-passive stems **ending in a consonant** often changes by **assimilation** (\rightarrow 1.88–93) to the ending: e.g. βέβλα<u>μ</u>-μαι, βέβλα<u>π</u>-ται with stem βεβλαβ-. For an overview of such changes, \rightarrow 19.10.
- 19.8 The **third person plural indicative** exists as a 'synthetic' (single) form only with perfect middle-passive stems ending in a vowel/diphthong (e.g. ἐπεπαίδ<u>ευ</u>ντο); with all other verbs, 'periphrastic' forms are used (the perfect middle-passive participle and a form of εἰμί be, $\rightarrow 17.5-7$), e.g. δεδειγμένοι εἰσί(ν).

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Note 1: For the Ionic 3 pl. ind. endings -\alpha \tau \alpha \iota (pf.) and -\alpha \tau \sigma (plpf.), \rightarrow 25.39.
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19.9 Middle-passive **subjunctives and optatives** do not exist as synthetic (single) forms: in their place periphrastic forms are used (\rightarrow 17.5–7).

Overview of Middle-Passive Perfect Stem Changes Before Different Endings

19.10 The following table presents an overview of the changes of the final sound of a verb stem before different perfect middle-passive endings:

		endings beginning with				
verb stems ending with	μ	σ	т	(σ)θ		
vowels/diphthongs/liquids e.g. παιδευ-	no change πεπαίδευμαι	no change πεπαίδευσαι	no change πεπαίδευται	no change πεπαίδευσθε		
v	(- μμ - or) - σμ -	no change	no change	-ν θ -		
e.g. φαν-	πέφασμαι	πέφανσαι	πέφανται	πέφανθε		
labial stops	-μμ-	-ψ-	-गर-	-φθ-		
e.g. τριβ-	τέτριμμαι	τέτριψαι	τέτριπται	τέτριφθε		
velar stops	-γμ-	-ξ-	-кт-	-χθ-		
e.g. δεικ-	δέδειγμαι	δέδειξαι	δέδεικται	δέδειχ θ ε		
dental stops	-σμ-	-σ-	-στ-	- σθ -		
e.g. ψευδ-	ἔψευσμαι	ἔψευσαι	ἔψευσται	ἔψευσθε		

Perfect Middle-Passive Stems

Stem Formation

Verb Stems Ending in 1, u or a Diphthong

19.11 Verb stems ending in 1, v, or a diphthong do not change. Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect mp. stem	ı 1 sg. ind.
παιδεύω educate	παιδευ-	πεπαιδευ-	πεπαίδευμαι
χρίω anoint	χρῖ-	κεχρι-	κέχριμαι (also κέχρισμαι, →19.32)
λύω loosen, release	λū-/ <u>λŭ-</u>	λελŭ-	λέλϋμαι
κλήω/κλείω close	κλ <u>η</u> -/ <u>κλει-</u>	κεκλει-	κέκλειμαι (also κέκλεισμαι, \rightarrow 19.32)
παύω stop	παυ-	πεπαυ-	πέπαυμαι
κρούω strike	κρου(σ)-	κεκρου(σ)-	κέκρουμαι, also κέκρουσμαι

Note 1: With monosyllabic stems which have long $\bar{\upsilon}$ in the present stem, the perfect middle-passive has a stem with short $\check{\upsilon}$; also $\rightarrow 14.11$ n.1, 18.10 n.1.

19.12 These verbs add all the endings as normal, including $-\sigma\theta\epsilon$ and $-\sigma\theta\alpha$ 1. There are 'synthetic' forms (\rightarrow 17.5) for the whole conjugation except subjunctives and optatives (where periphrastic forms are always used).

Verb Stems Ending in Other Vowels

- 19.13 With verb stems ending in η/ε, η/α, ω/ο (i.e. contract verbs), the **long variant** of the verb stem is used (\rightarrow 11.11):
 - pres. stem ε: pf. mp. stem η;
 - pres. stem $\check{\alpha}$ (or η): pf. mp. stem η (but $\bar{\alpha}$ after ϵ , ι or ρ);
 - pres. stem o: aor. stem ω ; a few verbs with a verb stem ending in ω have a similarly formed perfect middle-passive.

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
ποιέω make, do	<u>ποιη-</u> /ποιε-	πεποιη-	πεποίημαι
ἡγέομαι lead, consider	<u>ἡγη-</u> /ἡγε-	ήγη-	ἥγημαι
τιμάω honour	<u>τιμη-</u> /τιμᾶ-	τετιμη-	τετίμημαι
νικάω win	<u>νικη-</u> /νικα-	νενικη-	νενίκημαι
αἰτιάομαι accuse	<u>αἰτιᾶ-</u> /αἰτιᾶ-	ἠτια-	ἤτίᾶμαι
δηλόω make clear	<u>δηλω-</u> /δηλο-	δεδηλω-	δεδήλωμαι
ἐναντιόομαι oppose	<u>ἐναντιω-</u> /ἐναντιο-	ήναντιω-	ἠναντίωμαι
χρήομαι use, need	χρη-	κεχρη-	κέχρημαι
τιτρώσκω wound	τρω-	τετρω-	τέτρωμαι

19.14 With several - μ 1 verbs that have variant verb stems ending in $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$, η/ϵ or ω/σ 0 (\rightarrow 12.37), the **short variant** of the verb stem is used in the perfect middle-passive:

verb	verb stem	perfect mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
ἵστημι make stand, set up	στη-/ <u>στἄ-</u>	έστα- (→11.48)	ἕσταμαι
ἵημι send, let go	ἡ-/ <u>ἑ-</u>	εi- (→11.47)	εἷμαι
δίδωμι give	δω-/δο-	δεδο-	δέδομαι

But πίμπρημι uses the long verb stem in the perfect middle-passive:

πίμπρημι burn

πρη-/πρά-

πεπρη-

πέπρημαι

And $\tau i\theta \eta \mu 1$ has the irregular perfect middle-passive stem $\tau \epsilon \theta \epsilon 1$ - (cf. pf. act. $\tau \epsilon \theta \epsilon 1 \kappa \alpha$, $\rightarrow 18.12$; note, however, that forms of $\kappa \epsilon \tilde{\imath} \mu \alpha 1$ are often used as the perfect passive of $\tau i\theta \eta \mu 1$, $\rightarrow 12.43$ n.1):

τίθημι put, place

 $\theta \eta - /\theta \epsilon -$

τεθει-

τέθειμαι

19.15 A few verbs in $-\dot{\alpha}\omega$ and $-\dot{\epsilon}\omega$ that originally had a verb stem ending in σ (or were treated as such, \rightarrow 13.18) have that σ in the middle-passive perfect (except before endings which themselves begin with σ):

```
αἰδέομαι fear (<*αἰδέ\underline{\sigma}-(y)ομαι, \rightarrow12.29 n.1) pf. mp. ind. ἤδεσμαι 
τελέω finish (<*τελέ\underline{\sigma}-(y)ω, \rightarrow12.29 n.1) pf. mp. ind. τετέλεσμαι (but τετέλεσαι <*-εσ-σαι)
```

Also note verbs in -έννυμι and -ἄννυμι (which have a stem in σ):

```
άμφιέννυμαι dress oneself (<*-έ\underline{\sigma}νυμαι) pf. mp. ind. ἡμφίεσμαι (for the reduplication, \rightarrow11.57)
```

For ἔγνωσμαι, πέπρησμαι, etc., which have a 'parasitic' σ, →19.32 below.

- 19.16 (ἐπ)αινέω *praise*, which in all other stems uses a short vowel (e.g. aor. ἤν<u>ε</u>σα, pf. act. ἤν<u>ε</u>κα, →15.19,
 18.13), has a long stem vowel in the middle-passive perfect: (ἐπ)ἡνημαι.
- 19.17 A few verbs in $-\alpha\omega$ (also $-\alpha\omega$) and $-\omega\omega$ that originally had a verb stem ending in $\beta\omega$ (\rightarrow 13.20, 15.20, 18.14) have a middle-passive perfect in $-\alpha\omega\omega$ and $-\omega\omega\omega$, respectively:

```
κάω (also καίω) set on fire (<*κάργω) pf. mp. ind. κέκ<u>αυ</u>μαι (<*κέκαρμαι) 
πλέω sail (<*πλέρω) pf. mp. ind. πέπλευμαι (<*πέπλερμαι) 
πνέω blow (<*πνέρω) pf. mp. ind. πέπνευμαι (<*πέπνερμαι)
```

19.18 These verbs add all the endings as normal, including $-\sigma\theta\epsilon$ and $-\sigma\theta\alpha$. There are synthetic forms (\rightarrow 17.5) for the whole conjugation except subjunctives and optatives (where periphrastic forms are always used).

Verb Stems Ending in a Labial Stop

- 19.19 With most verb stems that end in a labial stop $(\pi/\beta/\phi)$, that stop changes before the first sound of the ending, in the following way:
 - labial + μ > μμ: e.g. with τρίβω, verb stem τρῖβ-/τρῖβ-, pf. mp. stem τετριβ-(both ī and ĭ are found), 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. τέτριμμαι (<*τέτριβ-μαι), nom. sg. masc. ppl. τετριμμένος (<*τετριβ-μένος);
 - labial + σ > ψ (only -σαι and -σο, for -(σ)θε and -(σ)θαι see below): e.g. 2 sg. pf.
 mp. ind. τέτριψαι, 2 sg. plpf. mp. ἐτέτριψο;
 - labial + τ > $\pi\tau$: 3 sg. pf. mp. ind. τέτριπται (<*τέτριβ-ται);
 - **labial** + θ > $\varphi\theta$ (-σθε and -σθαι lose σ): e.g. pf. mp. inf. τετρῖφθαι/τετρήφθαι (<*τετριβ-(σ)θαι).

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
τρίβω <i>rub</i>	τρīβ-/τρĭβ-	τετρῖβ-/τετρῖβ-	τέτριμμαι
γράφω write	γρἄφ-	γεγραφ-	γέγραμμαι
λείπω leave	λειπ-/λοιπ-/λĭπ-	λελειπ-	λέλειμμαι

Note especially verbs that have a present in $-\pi \tau \omega$ ($\rightarrow 12.27$):

βλάπτω harm, damage	βλἄβ-	βεβλαβ-	βέβλαμμαι
ρίπτω throw	ρ ῖπ-	ἐρριπ-	ἔρριμμαι
θάπτω bury	θἄφ-	τεθαφ-	τέθαμμαι

- 19.20 If a stem has a μ preceding the labial consonant, and the ending starts with μ, the resulting combination μμμ is simplified to μμ: e.g. with πέμπω, pf. mp. stem πεπεμπ-, 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. πέπεμμαι.
- 19.21 These verbs always use a periphrastic form in the third person plural indicative and all subjunctives and optatives, e.g. τετριμμένοι εἰσίν 3 pl. pf. mp. ind.

Verb Stems Ending in a Velar Stop

- 19.22 With verb stems that end in a velar stop $(\kappa/\gamma/\chi)$, that stop changes before the first sound of the ending, in the following ways:
 - velar + μ > γμ: e.g. with δείκνυμι, verb stem δεικ-, 1 sg. pf. mp. inf. δέδειγμαι
 (<*δέδεικ-μαι), nom. sg. masc. ppl. pf. mp. δεδειγμένος (<*δεδεικ-μένος);
 - velar + σ > ξ (only -σαι and -σο, for -(σ)θε and -(σ)θαι see below): e.g. 2 sg. pf.
 mp. ind. δέδειξαι, 2 sg. plpf. mp. ἐδέδειξο;
 - velar + τ > κτ: e.g. with τάττω, verb stem τἄγ-, 3 sg. pf. mp. ind. τέτακται (<*τέταγ-ται);
 - **velar** + θ > $\chi\theta$ (σ is lost from -σθε and -σθαι): e.g. pf. mp. inf. δεδεῖχ θ αι (<*δέδεικ-(σ)θαι).

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
ἄγω lead, bring	ἄγ-	ἦγ-	ἦγμαι
ἄρχω begin, rule	ἄρχ-	ἦρχ-	ἦργμαι
πλέκω plait, weave	πλεκ-	πεπλεκ-	πέπλεγμαι

Note especially (almost all) verbs that have a present in $-\tau\tau\omega/-\tau\tau\sigma\mu\alpha$ (\rightarrow 12.27), a few in $-\zeta\omega$, and several in $-\nu\nu\mu$:

τάττω array, appoint	τἄγ-	τεταγ-	τέταγμαι
φυλάττω guard	φυλἄκ-	πεφυλακ-	πεφύλαγμαι
αἰνίττομαι speak in riddles	αἰνῖγ-	ἠνιγ-	ἤνιγμαι
δείκνυμι show	δεικ-	δεδειγ-	δέδειγμαι

- 19.23 If a stem has a γ preceding the velar consonant, and the ending starts with μ, the resulting combination γγμ is simplified to γμ: e.g. with ἐλέγχω test, prove, pf. mp. stem ἐληλεγχ-(→11.48), 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. ἐλήλεγμαι.
- 19.24 These verbs always use a periphrastic form in the third person plural indicative and all subjunctives and optatives, e.g. δεδειγμένοι εἰσίν 3 pl. pf. mp. ind.

Verb Stems Ending in a Dental Stop

- 19.25 With verb stems ending in a dental stop $(\tau/\delta/\theta)$:
 - dental disappears before σ, e.g. 2 sg. pf. mp. ind. ἔψευσαι (<*ἔψευδ-σαι), 2 sg. pf. imp. mp. ἔψευσο (<*ἔψευδ-σο);
 - or becomes σ itself before other sounds, e.g. 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. ἔψευσμαι (<*ἔψευδ-μαι), 3 sg. ἔψευσται (<*ἔψευδ-ται).

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect stem	1 sg. ind.
ψεύδομαι lie	ψευδ-	ἐψευδ-	ἔψευσμαι
πείθω persuade	πειθ-/ποιθ-/πἴθ-	πεπειθ-	πέπεισμαι

Note especially most verbs that have a present in $-\zeta\omega/-\zeta o\mu\alpha i$, and a few in $-\tau\tau\omega$ ($\rightarrow 12.27$):

ἀγωνίζομαι contend, fight	άγωνῖδ-	ήγωνιδ-	ἠγώνισμαι
κομίζω <i>convey</i>	κομῖδ-	κεκομιδ-	κεκόμισμαι
άρμόζω/άρμόττω fit together	άρμοδ-/άρμοτ-	ήρμοτ-	ἥρμοσμαι
πλάττω mould, shape	πλἄ θ -	πεπλαθ-	πέπλασμαι

19.26 These verbs always use a periphrastic form in the third person plural indicative and all subjunctives and optatives, e.g. ἐψευσμένοι εἰσίν 3 pl. pf. mp. ind.

Verb Stems Ending in a Resonant

19.27 Verb stems **ending in a liquid consonant** (λ/ρ) stay unchanged (except for reduplication) before the endings (e.g. with ἀγγέλλω, verb stem ἀγγελ-, 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. ἤγγελ-μαι). Note that σ is lost from the endings -σθε and -σθαι (e.g. with ἀγγέλλω, pf. mp. inf. ἦγγέλθαι). Note especially verbs that have a present in -λλω or in -αίρω/-είρω (\rightarrow 12.28).

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	perfect mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
φύρω mix, defile	φŭρ-	πεφυρ-	πέφυρμαι
ἀγγέλλω report	ἀγγελ-	ἠγγελ-	ἤγγελμαι
ποικίλλω embroider	ποικῖλ-	πεποικιλ-	πεποίκιλμαι
καθαίρω cleanse	καθἄρ-	κεκαθαρ-	κεκάθαρμαι
αἴρω lift	ἆρ-	ἦρ-	ἦρμαι

Many liquid-stem verbs use the zero-grade variant of the verb stem in the perfect middle-passive. This usually results in a stem with $\check{\alpha}$ ($\rightarrow 1.56$):

δια-φθείρω destroy	φ θ ερ-/φθορ-/	δι-εφθαρ-	δι-έφθαρμαι
	<u>φθ</u> ἄρ-		
σπείρω sow	σπερ-/ <u>σπἄρ-</u>	ἐσπαρ-	ἔσπαρμαι
στέλλω dispatch	στελ-/στἄλ-	ἐσταλ-	ἔσταλμαι

19.28 With verb stems ending in ν :

- ν + μ > μμ: e.g. with ὀξύνω sharpen (verb stem ὀξύν-) 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. ἄξυμμαι (<*ἄξυν-μαι), nom. sg. masc. ppl. pf. mp. ἀξυμμένος (<*ἀξυν-μένος). Most of these verbs, however, get an irregular perfect mp. stem ending in σ before μ (i.e. ν + μ gives σμ), notably φαίνω (verb stem φην-/φᾶν-): 1 sg. pf. mp. ind. πέφασμαι, nom. sg. masc. ppl. pf. mp. πεφασμένος (σμ was probably imported from dental stems by analogy, →19.25).</p>
- ν stays unchanged before other sounds: e.g. 2 sg. pf. mp. ind. πέφανσαι, pf. mp. inf. πεφάνθαι. (Note that σ is lost from the endings -σθε and -σθαι).

Some examples:

verb	verb stem	pf. mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
αἰσχΰνομαι be ashamed	αἰσχϋν-	ἦσχυν-	ἤσχυμμαι
φαίνω show	φην-/ <u>φᾶν-</u>	πεφαν-	πέφασμαι
ἡδὑνω make pleasant	ήδὔν-	ήδυν-	ἥδυσμαι
σημαίνω signify	σημάν-	σεσημαν-	σεσήμασμαι

- 19.29 Verbs with a stem ending in a resonant always use a periphrastic form in the third person plural indicative, and all subjunctives and optatives, e.g. ἠγγελμένοι εἰσίν, πεφασμένοι εἰσίν 3 pl. pf. mp. ind.
- 19.30 Some verbs with a present stem ending in ν do not have the nasal in the perfect (it was not originally part of the verb stem, but a suffix added to the present stem, and then extended to some other stems; \rightarrow 12.30 n.2):

verb	verb stem	pf. mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
κλίνω cause to lean	κλῖ(ν)-	κεκλι-	κέκλιμαι
κρίνω pick out, decide, judge	κρῖ(ν)-	κεκρι-	κέκριμαι

19.31 Observe the perfect middle-passive of $\tau \epsilon i \nu \omega$ stretch:

τείνω stretch τεν-/
$$τα$$
- τετα- τέταμαι (<*τη- →1.86)

Further Notes and Exceptions

19.32 Several verbs with verb stems ending in a vowel may get a 'parasitic' σ between stem and ending in the perfect middle-passive (also often in the aorist passive, \rightarrow 14.27). Whether this parasitic σ is used in a particular verb may vary from author to author, although some verbs always have it. For example:

verb	verb stem	pf. mp. stem.	1 sg. ind.
γιγνώσκω know, recognize	γνω-	ἐγνω <u>σ</u> -	ἔγνωσμαι
ἕλκω draw, drag	έλκ(ŭ)-	είλκυ <u>σ</u> -	εἵλκυσμαι
κλήω/κλείω close	κλ <u>η</u> -/ <u>κλει-</u>	κεκλει(<u>σ</u>)-	κέκλειμαι <i>or</i> κέκλεισμαι
πίμπρημι burn	<u>πρη-</u> /πρα-	πεπρη(<u>σ</u>)-	πέπρημαι <i>or</i> πέπρησμαι
σώζω save	σω-	σεσω(<u>σ</u>)-	σέσωμαι <i>or</i> σέσωσμαι

19.33 A number of verbs that in other tenses use a verb stem which ends in a consonant have a middle-passive perfect stem with an additional η (these verbs also have this η in the perfect active, $\rightarrow 18.24$). For example:

stems ending in a dental or velar stop:

άμαρτάνω miss, err ἔχω have, hold μανθάνω learn, understand	άμάρτ- ἐχ-/ <u>σχ-</u> μάθ-	ήμαρτ <u>η</u> - ἐσχη- μεμαθ <u>η</u> -	ήμάρτημαι (cf. act. ἡμάρτηκα) ἔσχημαι (cf. act. ἔσχηκα) μεμάθημαι (cf. act. μεμάθηκα)
stems ending in a resonant:			
βούλομαι want, prefer νέμω deal out	βουλ- νεμ-	βεβουλ <u>η</u> - νενεμ <u>η</u> -	βεβούλημαι νενέμημαι (cf. act. νενέμηκα)
stems ending in ξ or ψ :			
αὐξάνω, αὔξω increase	αὐξ-	ηὖξ <u>η</u> -	ηὔξημαι (cf. act. ηὔξηκα)
ἕψω boil	έψ-	ἡψ <u>η</u> -	ἥψημαι (cf. act. ἥψηκα)

The Future Perfect

Formation of the Future Perfect

General

- The **future perfect stems** (active and middle-passive) are formed by adding σ to the relevant perfect stem:
 - active: e.g. with (ἀπο)θνήσκω die (verb stem θἄν-/θνη-), perfect active stem τεθνηκ-: future perfect active stem τεθνηξ-;
 - middle-passive: e.g. with γράφω write (verb stem γράφ-), perfect middle-passive stem γεγραφ-: future perfect middle-passive stem γεγραψ-.
- 20.2 **Active future perfects** are conjugated like active futures, e.g. 1 sg. ind. τεθνήξω *I will be dead*, 2 sg. τεθνήξεις, inf. τεθνήξειν, etc. However, more often a periphrastic construction is used (→20.5 below).

Middle-passive future perfects are conjugated like middle futures, e.g. 1 sg. ind. γεγράψομαι, 2 sg. γεγράψει/-η, inf. γεγράψεσθαι, etc. They normally have passive meaning (γεγράψεται it will have been written).

20.3 For the meanings and uses of the future perfect, \rightarrow 33.46-7.

Future Perfect Active: Particulars

- 20.4 The **active** future perfect is **very rare**. Regularly formed future perfects are practically confined to:
 - ἵσταμαι come to stand, pf. ἕστηκα stand, future perfect ἑστήξω will stand;
 - and (ἀπο)θνήσκω die, be killed, pf. τέθνηκα be dead, future perfect τεθνήξω I will be dead.
- 20.5 More often the active future perfect is expressed by a **periphrastic construction** (→17.5–7), which combines the forms of the active perfect participle with forms of the future of εἰμί be (ἔσομαι, ἔσει/-η, ἔσται, etc.). For instance:
 - with γιγνώσκω know, recognize (pf. ἔγνωκα): 3 sg. fut. pf. act. ind. ἐγνωκὼς ἔσται he will have recognized;

with ἀφαιρέω take away (pf. ἀφήρηκα): 1 pl. fut. pf. act. ind. ἀφηρηκότες ἐσόμεθα we will have taken away;

with γίγνομαι become, be born (pf. γέγονα): 3 sg. fut. pf. act. ind. γεγονώς ἔσται he will have become;

with δίδωμι give (pf. δέδωκα): fut. pf. act. inf. ἔσεσθαι δεδωκώς to be going to have given.

Future Perfect Middle-Passive: Particulars

20.6 The **middle-passive** future perfect is more common than the active, although still rare. Some examples:

verb	pf. mp. stem	fut. pf. mp. stem	1 sg. ind.
τιμάω honour	τετιμη-	τετιμησ-	τετιμήσομαι will have been honoured
αίρέω take	ἡρη-	ήρησ-	ἡρήσομαι will have been chosen (→35.9)
λείπω leave	λελειπ-	λελειψ-	λελείψομαι will have been left
κτάομαι acquire	(κ)εκτη-	(κ)εκτησ-	κεκτήσομαι, ἐκτήσομαι will possess
μιμνήσκομαι remember	μεμνη-	μεμνησ-	μεμνήσομαι will remember
παύω stop	πεπαυ-	πεπαυσ-	πεπαύσομαι will have stopped
λέγω say, speak	εἰρη-/λελεγ-	εἰρησ-/λελεξ-	εἰρήσομαι/λελέξομαι will have been said

Note 1: Perfect middle-passive stems ending in a short vowel lengthen that vowel in the future perfect, just as in the future active and middle:

δέω bind δεδε- δεδησ- δεδήσομαι

20.7 The middle-passive future perfect may also be expressed by a **periphrastic construction** (→17.5–7), which combines the forms of the middle-passive perfect participle with forms of the future of εἰμί be (ἔσομαι, ἔσει/-ῃ, ἔσται, etc.). For instance:

with ψεύδομαι lie, be mistaken (pf. ἔψευσμαι): 3 pl. fut. pf. ind. ἐψευσμένοι ἔσονται they will have lied;

with καταστρέφομαι subdue (pf. κατέστραμμαι): 2 sg. fut. pf. ind. κατεστραμμένος έσει you will have subdued;

with τάττω array, appoint (pf. mp. τέταγμαι): 3 sg. fut. pf. mp. opt. ἔσοιτο τεταγμένη (that) it would have been appointed.

The Dual: Verb Forms

Endings

Dual verb forms (verb forms whose subject is a group of exactly two) are formed in exactly the same way as verb forms treated in the preceding chapters: they use the same stems, thematic vowels, augment, optative/subjunctive markers, etc. The only respect in which they differ is their **endings**.

Like the other endings of the verb (\rightarrow 11.20–34), dual endings may be divided between:

- primary endings (used in the indicative present, future and perfect, and in the subjunctive), secondary endings (used in secondary indicatives imperfect, aorist and pluperfect and in the optative), and imperative endings;
- active endings (used in active forms and forms of the $\theta\eta$ -/η-aorist) and middle-passive endings (used in middle-passive forms).

21.2 Overview of endings:

	active			middle-passive		
	primary	secondary	imperative	primary	secondary	imperative
1 du.	_	_	_	(-μεθον)	_	_
2 du.	-τον ²	-τον ²	-τον ²	-σθον	-σθον	$-\sigma\theta$ o v^2
3 du.	-τον	-την ³	-των	-σθον	-σθην	$-\sigma\theta$ ων 4

The 1 du. middle-passive ending -μεθον is exceedingly rare, e.g. λελείμμεθον (1 du. pf. pass. ind. λείπω, the two of us have been left; Soph. El. 950).

21.3 Some further points:

- **Thematic** dual forms always use the thematic vowel ε or (subj.) η , except in the optative (always o before the 1 of the opt.);
- Present-stem dual forms of -μι verbs are built on the short variant (→12.37) of the stem
 (e.g. δίδο-τον, not διδω-).
- 21.4 For the endings of dual participles, $\rightarrow 10.1$.

² In the second person, the primary, secondary and imperative endings are identical.

³ -την is also, but rarely and only in poetry, used as a second-person secondary ending.

⁴ Note that in the third person middle-passive, the imperative ending of the dual is identical to that of the plural (→11.29)

Examples of Dual Forms

21.5 Examples of dual forms in each of the tense-aspect stems are given below.

21.6 **Present** stem (\rightarrow 12):

-ω verbs

φυλάττετον 2/3 du. pres. act. ind. φυλάττω the two of you/them guard

2 du. pres. act. imp. guard (you two)!

ἐπραττέτην 3 du. impf. act. πράττω the two of them did, acted
 ἀνηρεῖσθον 2 du. impf. mid. ἀναιρέω the two of you took up for

yourselves

όπόταν γίγνησθον 2/3 du. pres. mid. subj. γίγνομαι when the two of you/them become

εὐδαιμονοῖτον 2 du. pres. act. opt. εὐδαιμονέω may you two be happy

εὐτυχοίτην 3 du. pres. act. opt. εὐτυχέω may the two of them be successful

χαίρετον ἄμφω 2 du. pres. act. imp. χαίρω greetings to both of you έπέσθων 3 du. pres. mid. imp. ἕπομαι the two of them must follow

ζῶντε nom./acc. du. masc./neut. pres. living

act. ppl. ζήω

ήγουμένω nom./acc. du. masc./neut. pres. leading, considering

mid. ppl. ἡγέομαι

γιγνομέναιν gen./dat. du. fem. pres. mid. ppl. becoming

γίγνομαι

-μι verbs

προδίδοτον 2/3 du. pres. act. ind. προδίδωμι the two of you/them betray

2 du. pres. act. imp. betray (you two)!

ἔστων 3 du. pres. act. imp. εἰμί the two of them must be

παρόντοιν gen./dat. du. masc./neut. pres. being present

act. ppl. πάρειμι

Note 1: ἔστων and ἑπέσθων are also 3 pl. imp.: they must be, they must follow (\rightarrow 21.2 n.3).

21.7 **Aorist** stem (active and middle, \rightarrow 13):

(pseudo-)sigmatic:

ήρκέσατον 2 du. aor. act. ind. ἀρκέω the two of you sufficed ήθελησάτην 3 du. aor. act. ind. ἐθέλω the two of them were willing 3 du. aor. mid. ind. νέμω the two of them divided between them ένειμάσθην φιλήσατόν με 2 du. aor. act. imp. φιλέω kiss me (you two)! παύσασθον 2 du. aor. mid. imp. παύομαι stop (you two)! ἀποκτείναντε nom./acc. du. masc./neut. aor. having killed

act. ppl. ἀποκτείνω

thematic:

ἀπεφύγετον 2 du. aor. act. ind. ἀποφεύγω the two of you escaped 3 du. aor. mid. ind. αίρέω the two of them chose είλέσθην when the two of you/them lead

όπόταν 2/3 du. aor. mid. subj. ἄγω

ἀγάγησθον

(in your/their own interest) οὐκ ἄν γενοίσθην 3 du. aor. mid. opt. γίγνομαι the two of them could not become ἔλθετον 2 du. aor. act. imp. ἔρχομαι come (you two)!

nom./acc. du. masc./neut. aor. having taken for themselves λαβομένω

mid. ppl. λαμβάνω

root:

ἐθέσθην 3 du. aor. mid. ind. τίθημι the two of them placed in their own

ἀνταποδοῖτον 2. du. aor. act. opt. ἀνταποδίδωμι μέθετόν με 2. du. aor. act. imp. μεθίημι διαδύντε nom./acc. du. masc./neut. aor.

act. ppl. διαδύομαι

interest may you two return the favour

let me go (you two)! having slipped through

21.8 **Aorist passive** stem $(\theta \eta - / \eta - aorist, \rightarrow 14)$:

 $\theta\eta$ -aorist:

όταν συμμιχθήτον 2/3 du. aor. pass. subj. συμμείγνυμαι whenever the two of you/them are

> mixed together converse (you two)!

διαλέχθητον 2 du. aor. pass. imp. διαλέγομαι βασανισθέντοιν gen./dat. du. masc./neut. aor. pass. having been put to the test

ppl. βασανίζω

η-aorist:

when the two of you/them are όταν συμπαγήτον 2/3 du. aor. pass. subj. συμπήγνυμι

formed

nom./acc. du. masc./neut. aor. pass. having been reared τραφέντε

ppl. τρέφω

21.9 **Future** stem (active and middle, \rightarrow 15):

sigmatic:

2/3 du. fut. act. ind. συμφέρω the two of you/them will bring συνοίσετον

together, benefit

the two of you/them will stand up προστήσεσθον 2/3 du. fut. mid. ind. προΐσταμαι

before

nom./acc. du. masc./neut. fut. ἐπιδείξοντε about to/in order to display

act. ppl. ἐπιδείκνυμι

Attic:

ἀπολεῖσθον 2/3 du. fut. mid. ind. ἀπόλλυμαι the two of you/them will

perish, go to ground

ἀποθανεῖσθον 2/3 du. fut. mid. ind. ἀποθνήσκω the two of you/them will die

21.10 **Perfect active** stem $(\rightarrow 18)$:

и-perfect:

δεδράκατον 2/3 du. pf. act. ind. δράω the two of you/them have done

aspirated perfect:

μετειλήφατον 2/3 du. pf. act. ind. μεταλαμβάνω the two of you/them have

acquired a share of

stem perfect:

ἴστον 2/3 du. pf. act. ind. οἶδα the two of you/them know

2 du. pf. act. imp. know (you two)!

mixed perfect:

τέθνατον 2/3 du. pf. act. ind. (ἀπο)θνήσκω the two of you/them are dead

έστάτην 3 du. plpf. act. ἵσταμαι the two of them stood

δεδιότε nom./acc. du. masc./neut. being afraid

pf. act. ppl. δέδοικα

21.11 **Perfect middle-passive** stem $(\rightarrow 19)$:

γεγένησθον 2/3 du. pf. mid. ind. γίγνομαι the two of you/them have

become/been born

ἀφιγμένω ἐσμέν 1 du. pf. mid. ind. (periphras- the two of us have arrived

tic) ἀφικνέομαι

ἀπεστερημένοιν gen./dat. du. masc./neut. pf. having been robbed of

pass. ppl. ἀποστερέω

Note 1: As with the endings $-\sigma\theta\epsilon$ and $-\sigma\theta\alpha$, the σ of the dual ending $-\sigma\theta\sigma\nu$ drops out in forms of perfect middle-passive stems ending in a consonant (\rightarrow 19.6), e.g. $\dot{\alpha}\dot{\phi}\tilde{\chi}\underline{\theta}\sigma\nu$ (<*- $\tilde{\chi}\underline{\gamma}-\sigma\theta\sigma\nu$) 2/3 du. pf. mid. ind. the two of you/them have arrived.

21.12 Future perfect stem (\rightarrow 20):

ἐκτετμήσεσθον 2/3 du. fut. pf. pass. ind. ἐκτέμνω the two of you/them will have

been cut out

Principal Parts

- 22.1 The **principal parts** are divided into two lists (numbered consecutively):
 - the first contains the principal parts of verbs without irregularities; the listed verbs may serve as examples of specific types of verb stem;
 - the second list contains principal parts with irregularities/peculiarities.

Both lists give the 1 sg. ind. active of the present, aorist, future and perfect stems, followed by the 1 sg. ind. aorist and perfect passive. Some verbs (as a whole or their individual tense stems), however, only occur in one voice (e.g. β ούλομαι want, prefer, which is a passive-only verb, \rightarrow 35.6, 35.26), whereas other verbs are not found in all tense stems (e.g. ἀρκέω suffice, which does not occur in the perfect tense in classical Greek). The future passive is omitted unless it cannot be derived from the aorist passive.

The lists also include the meaning(s) of the verb, the verb stem(s), and, under 'particulars', additional information about irregularities and, where useful, alternative forms that are found in poetry and/or Ionic prose. Indications of vowel length ($^{\circ}$ or $^{-}$) are given for α , 1 and 0 in the verb stems, and for other verb forms only if variations in vowel length occur.

A dash (—) indicates that the verb form is very rare or not found in classical Greek, and therefore not included in the list.

Regular Principal Parts

- 22.2 The overview below (\rightarrow 22.3) gives the principal parts of examples of 'regular' verbs, with verb stems ending in:
 - u or a diphthong;
 - $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$ (or $\bar{\alpha}/\bar{\alpha}$), η/ϵ , ω/o : 'contract verbs' ($\rightarrow 12.3-5$, 12.15-21);
 - labial or velar stops $(\pi, \beta, \varphi; \kappa, \gamma, \chi)$;
 - dental stops (τ, δ, θ) ;
 - resonants $(\lambda, \rho; \mu, \nu)$.

Note 1: The present stem of these verbs was usually formed with a yod (e.g. κρύπτω <*κρύφ-yω, φυλάττω <*φυλάκ-yω, καθαίρω <*καθάρ-yω; for details \rightarrow 12.26–9); such formations are considered regular below.

The verbs in the list share the following characteristics:

- a sigmatic aorist in $-\sigma\alpha$, or, in the case of verb stems ending in a resonant, a pseudo-sigmatic aorist in $-\alpha$;
- an aorist passive in -θην (θη-aorist);
- a sigmatic future active in - $\sigma\omega$, or, in the case of verbs ending in resonants and in -ίζω, an Attic future with contracted endings (- $\tilde{\omega}$, - $\tilde{\epsilon}$ iς, etc.);
- a κ-perfect (active) in -κα, or, in the case of verbs ending in labial or velar stops, an aspirated perfect in - $\varphi\alpha$ or - $\chi\alpha$;
- a perfect middle/passive in -μαι.

22.3 Verb stems ending in v or a diphthong:

verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect
παιδεύω	παιδευ-	ἐπαίδευσα	παιδεύσω	πεπαίδευκα
educate		ἐπαιδεύθην		πεπαίδευμαι
λύω	λū-/λŭ-	ἔλῦσα	λύσω	λέλŭκα
loosen, release		ἐλΰ θ ην		λέλὔμαι

22.4 Verb stems ending in $\eta/\bar{\alpha}$ (or $\bar{\alpha}/\bar{\alpha}$), η/ϵ or ω/o :

verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect
τιμάω	τῖμη-/τῖμἄ-	ἐτίμησα	τιμήσω	τετίμηκα
honour		ἐτιμήθην		τετίμημαι
ποιέω	ποιη-/ποιε-	ἐποίησα	ποιήσω	πεποίηκα
make, do		ἐποιήθην		πεποίημαι
δηλόω	δηλω-/δηλο-	ἐδήλωσα	δηλώσω	δεδήλωκα
make clear		ἐδηλώθην		δεδήλωμαι

All stems except the present stem are built on the **long** variant of the verb stem $(\rightarrow 1.11)$.

Observe that verb stems ending in $\epsilon\alpha$, $i\alpha$ and $\rho\alpha$ have long $\bar{\alpha}$ in all stems ($\rightarrow 1.57$), e.g. $\theta_{\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\alpha}}$ ομαι gaze, view, fut. $\theta_{\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\alpha}}$ σομαι, ἀν<u>ιά</u>ω grieve, aor. ἠνί $\bar{\alpha}$ σα, δ<u>ρά</u>ω do, pf. δέδρ $\bar{\alpha}$ κα.

Note 1: For regular η-contract verbs (e.g. χρήομαι, διψήω, πεινήω) and ω-contract verbs (e.g. ἱδρώω), \rightarrow 12.19–20.

22.5 Verb stems ending in a labial or velar stop:

verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
τρίβω rub	τρῖβ-/τρἴβ-	ἔτρῖψα ἐτρΐφθην	τρίψω	τέτρϊφα τέτριμμαι	also (more frequent) η -aor. ἐτρήβην; both $\bar{\iota}$ and $\check{\iota}$ found in pf. mp.

	κρύπτω hide	крйφ-/крйβ-	ἔκρυψα ἐκρύφθην	κρύψω	— κέκρυμμαι	pres. <*κρύφ-yω; also η-aor. ἐκρύφην (rare; in later Gk. frequently ἐκρύβην); pf. κέκρυφα only in later Gk.			
	ἄρχω	ἄρχ-	ἦρξα	ἄρξω	ἦρχα	one, an accertain			
	rule, begin		ἤρχθην		ἦργμαι				
	φυλάττω	φυλἄκ-	ἐφύλαξα	φυλάξω	πεφύλαχα	pres. <*φυλάκ-yω			
	guard		ἐφυλάχθην		πεφύλαγμαι				
22.6	Verb stems ending in a dental stop:								
	verb (presen	it) verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars			
	ὀνομάζω	ὀνομᾶδ-	ώνόμασα	ὀνομάσω	ώνόμακα	for -άζω, →23.48			
	name		ώνομάσθην		ώνόμασμαι				
	νομίζω	νομῖδ-	ἐνόμισα	νομιῶ, -εῖς	νενόμικα	pres. <*νομίδ-yω			
	believe		ἐνομίσθην		νενόμισμαι				
22.7	Verb stems	ending in a	resonant:						
	verb (preser	nt) verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars			
	ἀγγέλλω	ἀγγελ-	ἤγγειλα	ἀγγελῶ, -εῖς	ἤγγελκα	pres. <*ἀγγέλ-yω			
	report		ἠγγέλθην		ἤγγελμαι				
	καθαίρω	καθάρ-	ἐκάθηρα	καθαρῶ, -εῖς	_	pres. <*καθάρ-yω;			
	cleanse		ἐκαθάρθην		κεκάθαρμαι	pf. act. κεκάθαρκα			
						only in later Gk.			
	αἰσχΰνω	αἰσχϋν-	ἤσχῦνα	αἰσχυνῶ,	_	pres. <*αἰσχΰν-yω;			
	disgrace		_Π οχύνθην	-εῖς	ἤσχυμμαι	pf. act. ἤσχυγκα			
	mp. be ashamed					only in later Gk.			
	μιαίνω	μιἄν-	ἐμίανα	μιανῶ, -εῖς	_	pres. <*μιάν-yω;			
	stain		ἐμιάνθην		μεμίασμαι	pf. act. μεμίαγκα only in later Gk.			

Principal Parts with Peculiarities

22.8 The principal parts of the most common verbs with peculiarities are listed below $(\rightarrow 22.9)$ in alphabetical order.

Note 1: Verbs which rarely occur as simplex (uncompounded) forms are listed alphabetically under the simplex form, but with the most common prefix added in parentheses (e.g. $(\hbar\pi)\alpha\nu\dot{\epsilon}\omega$ praise; simplex $\alpha\dot{\nu}\dot{\epsilon}\omega$ is rare). If the simplex form does not occur at all, the verb is listed as a compound (e.g. $\dot{\alpha}\pi$ - $\epsilon\chi\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega\mu\alpha$) incur hatred; simplex $\dot{\epsilon}\chi\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega\mu\alpha$) does not occur).

Typical peculiarities are the following:

- changes in vowels between the tense stems due to ablaut, e.g. pres. πέμπω send, pf. πέπομφα ($\rightarrow 1.51-6$);
- tense stems have different etymological derivations (suppletive verbs), e.g. pres. ὁράω see, aor. εἶδον (stems ὁρα- and ἴδ-) (\rightarrow 11.13);
- an athematic (-μι) present, e.g. ζεύγνυμι yoke (→12.33–56);
- a thematic agrist, e.g. agr. ἔβαλον with pres. βάλλω throw, hit (\rightarrow 13.27-38);
- a root aorist, e.g. aor. ἔγνων with pres. γιγνώσκω know, recognize (→13.39-50); also aorists in -κα, e.g. ἔδωκα with δίδωμι give (\rightarrow 13.51–62);
- an aorist passive in -ην (η-aorist), e.g. aor. ἐγράφην with γράφω write (→14.29–31);
- an unexpected Attic future, e.g. fut. γαμῶ, -εῖς with pres. γαμέω marry (→15.34–7);
- an Attic future in -άω, e.g. fut. ἐλῶ, -ᾶς with pres. ἐλαύνω drive, ride (→15.38);
- a stem perfect, e.g. pf. ἀπέκτονα with pres. ἀποκτείνω kill (\rightarrow 18.21-3);
- a mixed perfect, e.g. pf. τέθνηκα, pl. τέθναμεν with (ἀπο)θνήσκω die (→18.27-32);
- the verb is passive-only, e.g. aor. ήσθην, fut. ήσθήσομαι with ήδομαι enjoy $(\rightarrow 35.6, 35.21-9);$
- tense stems are different in voice but not in meaning, e.g. pres. ἀκούω *hear*, fut. ἀκούσομαι (future middle) I will hear; verbs that have a middle future but no other anomalies (e.g. διώκω chase, fut. διώξομαι) are not included in the list (for an overview of the most frequent of these verbs, $\rightarrow 15.40$);
- an (original) stem ending in σ (\rightarrow 12.29 n.1) as well as some verbs which were 'absorbed' into this type (\rightarrow 13.18); the σ is indicated within brackets: e.g. pres. τελέω finish, verb stem τελε(σ)-;
- a 'parasitic' σ added to certain tense stems: e.g. pres. μιμνήσκω remind (verb stem $\mu\nu\eta$ -), θη-aor. ἐμνήσθην; the parasitic σ is not indicated in the verb stem; verbs that in one or more stems have a 'parasitic' σ but no other anomalies (e.g. κελεύω order, θη-aor. pass. ἐκελεύσθην, pf. mp. κεκέλευσμαι) are not included in the list (for more examples of verbs that have a 'parasitic' σ , $\rightarrow 14.27$, 19.23);
- vowels are added to certain tense stems, e.g. pres. ὀφείλω owe, be bound to (verb stem ὀφε(1)λ-), fut. ὀφειλήσω (\rightarrow 12.29 n.2, 14.28, 15.30, 18.24, 19.33);
- 'irregular' formation of the augment or reduplication due to disappearing consonants, e.g. aor. e $i\bar{\alpha}\sigma\alpha$ (<* $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\dot{\epsilon}_{f}\alpha$ -, from $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}\omega$ allow) (\rightarrow 11.40);
- a perfect with Attic reduplication, e.g. pf. ὀμώμοκα (ὄμνῦμι swear) (→11.48).

Note 2: Verbs whose active forms have a 'causative' sense, and whose middle-passive forms (may) express a change of state or a (change of) mental state, are given a separate middle-passive entry in the list when the latter meaning is expressed by separate aorist, future and/or perfect forms. Thus e.g. with causative ιστημι make stand, set up, there is a separate entry for (change-ofstate) ἵσταμαι come to stand, because a separate aorist (ἔστην I came to stand) and perfect (ἔστηκα I stand) express the change-of-state sense. For details on such verbs, $\rightarrow 35.4, 35.17-20$.

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
1	ἄγαμαι admire	ἀγἄ-	ήγάσθην	ἀγάσομαι	·	pass. only; athem. pres.; parasitic σ in $\theta\eta$ -aor.
2a	(κατ)άγνυμι (cause to) break	ἆγ-/ἄγ-	(κατ)έαξα/-ῆξα	(κατ)άξω	_	augm./redupl. $\hat{\epsilon}\alpha$ - (verb stem <* $f\alpha\gamma$ -); athem. pres.
2b	(κατ)άγνυμαι break (intr.)		(κατ)ἐᾶγην		(κατ)έᾶγα	η-aor.; act. stem pf. (κατέαγα be broken); Ion. pfέηγα
•	(ἀπ)αγορεύω →λέγω					
3	ἄγω	ἄγ-	ἤγαγον	ἄξω	ἧχα	them. aor. with redupl. \rightarrow 11.50
	lead, bring		ἤχ θ ην		ἦγμαι	
4	αἰδέομαι be ashamed, fear	αὶδε(σ)-	ἦδεσάμην/ἦδέσθην	αἰδέσομαι	ἤδεσμαι	pass. only, but also occasionally mid. aor.; fut. mid.; verb stem in σ (hence short ε outside pres.)
5	(ἐπ)αινέω praise	αἶνε-	(ἐπ)ἡνεσα (ἐπ)ῃνέθην	(ἐπ)αινέσω	(ἐπ)ήνεκα (ἐπ)ήνημαι	in Att., short ε outside pres., except in pf. mp.; simplex verb rare in Att. prose
6	αίρέω take;	αίρη-/αίρε-, έλ-	εἶλον ἡρέθην	αίρήσω	ἥρηκα ἥρημαι	suppletive; them. aor.; augm. in aor. εί- (verb stem <*σελ-); short ε in θη- aor.; Ion. pf. ἀραίρηκα, ἀραίρημαι

ἀρῶ, -εῖς

αἶσθήσομαι

ἦρκα

ἦρμαι

ἤσθημαι

ἦρα

ἤρθην

ἦσθόμην

ἀρ-

αὶσθ-

verb stem <* $\mathring{\alpha}$ ερ-; pres. $\mathring{\alpha}$ είρω and θη-aor. $\mathring{\eta}$ έρθην in Ion. and poetry

them. aor.; η added in fut. and pf.

7

8

mid.: choose

αἲσθάνομαι

perceive

αἴρω

lift

11	ward off	anen ranes	ηλεςα/ ηλεςησα	aregar aregina		άλεξήσω
12a	άλίσκομαι be captured	ἁλ(ω)-/ἁλο-	έάλων/ἥλων	άλώσομαι	έάλωκα/ἥλωκα	pres. with suffix -ισκ-; augm./ redupl. $\dot{\epsilon}\alpha$ - (verb stem $<^*F\ddot{\alpha}\lambda(\omega)$ -); act. root aor. and pf. ($\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}\lambda\omega\nu$ was
12b	ἀν-αλίσκω/ἀν-αλόω		ἀνήλωσα	ἀνᾶλώσω	ἀνήλωκα	captured, ἐάλωκα have been captured)
	spend		ἀνηλώθην		ἀνήλωμαι	captarea)
13a	ἀλλάττω	ἀλλἄγ-	ἤλλαξα	ἀλλάξω	ἤλλαχα	η -aor. more frequent in prose; $\theta\eta$ -
	(ex)change		ἠλλάγην/ἠλλάχθην		ἤλλαγμαι	aor. mostly in Ion. and poetry
13b	ἀπ-αλλάττω		ἀπήλλαξα	ἀπαλλάξω	ἀπήλλαχα	
	remove;		ἀπηλλάγην/		ἀπήλλαγμαι	
	mp.: depart		ἀπηλλάχθην			
14	ἄλλομαι leap	άλ-	ήλάμην/ήλόμην	άλοῦμαι, -ῆ	_	them. aor. (next to pseudo-sigm. aor.)
	1					

ἀκούσομαι

ἀλείψω

ἀλέξω/ἀλεξήσω

ἀκήκοα

ἀλήλῖφα

ἀλήλιμμαι

verb stem <*ἀκο $\mathfrak{f}(\sigma)$ -; fut. mid.; stem pf. (-κοα <*-κο $\mathfrak{f}\alpha$); Att.

redupl.; pf. mp. ἤκουσμαι only in later Gk.

mostly in direct-refl. mid. ἀλείφομαι anoint oneself \rightarrow 35.11; stem pf.; Att. redupl.

η added in aor. ἠλέξησα and fut.

(Continued)

9

10

11

ἀκούω

ἀλείφω

anoint

ἀλέξω

hear

ἀκο(υ)(σ)-

άλειφ-/άλἵφ-

άλεκ-/άλεξ-

ἤκουσα

ἤλειψα

ἠλείφθην

ἤλεξα/ἠλέξησα

ήκούσθην

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
15	άμαρτάνω miss, err	άμἄρτ-	ἥμαρτον ἡμαρτήθην	άμαρτήσομαι	ήμάρτηκα ήμάρτημαι	fut. mid.; them. aor.; η added is $\theta\eta$ -aor., fut., and pf. stems
16	άνδάνω please	άδ-	ἕαδον/ἦσα	άδήσω	_	augm. $\dot{\epsilon}\alpha$ - (verb stem <* $\sigma_F\alpha\delta$ - them. aor.
17	ἀνώγω/ἄνωγα command	ἀνωγ-	_	_	ἄνωγα	poetic; all other tenses derive from pf.; aor. ἤνωξα and fu ἀνώξω in epic Gk.
18	ἀπ-εχθάνομαι incur hatred	ẻχθ-	ἀπηχθόμην	ἀπεχθήσομαι	ἀπήχθημαι	them. aor.; η added in fut. and pi in poetry occasionally $\xi\chi\theta\omega$ hate
19	ἀραρίσκω fit together	ἄρ-	ἤραρον/ἦρσα	_	ἄρᾶρα	redupl. in them. aor.; pres. ster based on aor., with suffix -ισκ aor. ppl. ἄρμενος; stem pf. wit Att. redupl.; mostly in poetry
20	ἀρέσκω please	άρε-	ἤρεσα	ἀρέσω	_	pres. with suffix -σκ-; short ε i aor. and fut.; θη-aor. op ἀρεσθείη in Soph.
21	ἀρκέω suffice	άρκε-	ἦρκεσα	ἀρκέσω	_	short ϵ in aor. and fut.
22	άρμόζω/άρμόττω fit together	άρμοδ-/άρμοτ-	ἥρμοσα ἡρμόσθην	άρμόσω	ήρμοκα ήρμοσμαι	pres. άρμόττω regular in pros άρμόζω more frequent in poetry

23	αὐξάνω/αὔξω increase; mp.: grow	αὐξ-	ηὔξησα ηὐξήθην	αὐξήσω	ηὔξηκα ηὔξημαι	pres. with nasal suffix - $\alpha \nu$ -; η added in stems outside pres.	
24	ἄχθομαι be angry	${{\alpha}\chi\theta}\text{-}/{{\alpha}\chi\theta}\epsilon(\sigma)\text{-}$	ἠχθέσθην	ἀχθέσομαι	_	pass. only; verb stem in σ used outside pres; fut. also ἀχθεσθήσομαι	
25	βαίνω go, walk	βη-/βἄ(ν)-	ἔβην	βήσομαι	βέβηκα	pres. <*βάν-yω; root aor.; mixed pf.; causative (\rightarrow 35.4) aor. ἔβησα made go and fut. βήσω will make go	
26	βάλλω	βἄλ-/βλη-	ἔβαλον	βαλῶ, -εῖς	βέβληκα	pres. <*βάλ-yω; them. aor.	
	throw, hit		ἐβλήθην		βέβλημαι		
27	βάπτω	βἄφ-	ἔβαψα	βάψομαι	_	η -aor.; fut. mid.	
	dip		ἐβάφην		βέβαμμαι		
28	βιβάζω	βιβἄδ-	ἐβίβασα	βιβῶ, -ᾳς	_	Att. fut. in - $\alpha\omega$; causative (\rightarrow 35.4)	
	cause to go		ἐβιβάσθην		βεβίβασμαι	of βαίνω	
29	βιβρώσκω	βρω-	_	_	βέβρωκα	pres. with redupl. and suffix $-\sigma\kappa$ -;	
	eat		ἐβρώθην		_	mostly Ion. (Att. uses ἐσθίω); aor. ἔβρωσα and fut. βρώσω in epic Gk.; root aor. ἔβρων and pf. ppl. βεβρώς, -ὧτος in poetry	
30	βλάπτω	βλἄβ-	ἔβλαψα	βλάψω	βέβλαφα	$\eta\text{-aor.}$ and $\theta\eta\text{-aor.}$ both used	
	harm, damage		ἐβλάβην/ἐβλάφθην		βέβλαμμαι		

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
31	βλαστάνω sprout	βλἄστ-	ἔβλαστον	βλαστήσω	βεβλάστηκα	pres. with nasal suffix - αv -; them. aor.; η added in fut. and pf. stems
32	βλώσκω come, go	μολ-/(μ)βλω-	ἔμολον	μολοῦμαι, -ῆ	μέμβλωκα	βλ- <* $μλ$ - →1.93; pres. with suffix - $σκ$ -; them. aor.; fut. mid.; only in poetry
33	βούλομαι want, prefer	βουλ-	ἐβουλήθην	βουλήσομαι	βεβούλημαι	pass. only; fut. mid.; impf. ἠβουλόμην →11.41
34	γαμέω marry (a woman); mid: marry (a man)	γἄμ(ε)-	ἔγημα	γαμῶ, -εῖς	γεγάμηκα γεγάμημαι	Att. fut. (identical to pres.)
35	γελάω laugh	γελἄ(σ)-	ἐγέλασα ἐγελάσθην	γελάσομαι	_	fut. mid.; verb stem in σ (hence short $\breve{\alpha}$ in aor. and fut.)
36	γηθέω rejoice	γ ηθ(ε)-	ἐγήθησα	γηθήσω	γέγηθα	nearly exclusively pf. (be glad, \rightarrow 33.37) in class. Gk.
37	γίγνομαι become, be born	γεν(η)-/γον-/γν-	ἐγενόμην/ἐγενήθην	γενήσομαι	γέγονα/γεγένημαι	pres. redupl.; them. aor.; θη-aor. and act. pf. (ἐγενήθην was born, γέγονα be, have been born); pf. ppl. γεγώς in poetry \rightarrow 18.32 n.1; Ion. γίνομαι \rightarrow 25.14
38	γιγνώσκω know, recognize	γνω-	ἔγνων ἐγνώσθην	γνώσομαι	ἔγνωκα ἔγνωσμαι	pres. with redupl. and suffix -σκ-; root aor.; fut. mid.; parasitic σ in $\theta\eta$ -aor. and pf. mp.; Ion. γ īνώσκω \rightarrow 25.14

39	γράφω	γρἄφ-	ἔγραψα	γράψω	γέγραφα	η-aor.
	write		ἐγράφην		γέγραμμαι	
40	δάκνω	δηκ-/δἄκ-	ἔδακον	δήξομαι	_	pres. with nasal suffix -v-; them.
	bite		ἐδήχθην		δέδηγμαι	aor.; fut. mid.
41	(δέδοικα)	δει-/δοι-/δι-	ἔδεισα	_	δέδοικα	mixed pf.; forms, →18.27; fut.
	fear					δείσομαι not found in classical Gk.
42	δέρω	δερ-/δἄρ-	ἔδειρα	δερῶ, -εῖς	_	η-aor.; δἄρ- <*δӷ-
	skin		ἐδάρην		δέδαρμαι	
43	δέω (i)	δη-/δε-	ἔδησα	δήσω	δέδεκα	pres. <*δέ-yω; short ε in
	bind		ἐδέθην		δέδεμαι	θη-aor. and pf. stems
44a	δέω (ii)	δε-	ἐδέησα	δεήσω	δεδέηκα	pres. <* $\delta \acute{\epsilon}_F$ - ω ; η added outside
	lack					pres.
44b	δεῖ		ἐδέησε(ν)	δεήσει	δεδέηκε(ν)	impers. →36.3
	it is necessary					
44c	δέομαι		_έ δεήθην	δεήσομαι	δεδέημαι	
	ask, need					
45	διδάσκω	διδἄ(σ)κ-	ἐδίδαξα	διδάξω	δεδίδαχα	pres. redupl. $\delta\iota\text{-}$ and suffix $\text{-}\sigma\kappa\text{-}$
	teach		ἐδιδάχθην		δεδίδαγμαι	generalized throughout other stems
46	(ἀπο)διδράσκω	δρᾶ-	(ἀπ)έδρᾶν	(ἀπο)δράσομαι	(ἀπο)δέδρᾶκα	pres. with redupl. and suffix -σκ-;
40	run away	ορα	(απ)εοραν	(απογορασομαί	(απο)οεορακα	root aor.; fut. mid.; stem in ā after ρ; simplex διδράσκω very rare
						(5

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
47	δίδωμι give	δω-/δο-	ἔδωκα ἐδόθην	δώσω	δέδωκα δέδομαι	pres. redupl.; athem. pres.; κα-aor.
48a	δοκέω seem, think	δοκ(ε)-	ἔδοξα	δόξω	δέδοχα δέδογμαι	stem δοκε- used only in pres.; in poetry sometimes aor. ἐδόκησα, fut. δοκήσω, pf. δεδόκηκα
48b	δοκεῖ it seems (right)		ἔδοξε(ν)	δόξει	δέδοκται	impers. (for uses \rightarrow 36.4)
49	δύναμαι be able	δυνη-/δυνά-	ἐδυνήθην (ἐδυνάσθην)	δυνήσομαι	δεδύνημαι	pass. only; fut. mid.; athem. pres.; impf. ἡδυνάμην, aor. ἠδυνήθην \rightarrow 11.41
50a	δύω submerge	δῦ-/δὕ-	ἔδῦσα ἐδύθην	δύσω	— δέδὔμαι	δύνω also used
50b	δύομαι dive		ἔδῦν	δύσομαι	δέδυκα	act. root aor. and pf. ἔδυν dived, δέδυκα be under
51	ἐάω allow	ἐā-/ἐă-	εἴασα εἰάθην	ἐάσω	εἴ̄ακα εἴ̄αμαι	augm./redupl. εἰ- (verb stem <*σέ F α-)
52a	ἐγείρω wake, rouse	έγερ-/έγορ-/έγρ-	ἤγειρα ἠγέρθην	ἐγερῶ, -εῖς	_	Att. redupl.; act. pf. ἐγήγερκα only in later Gk.
52b	έγείρομαι wake up ἔδω →ἐσθίω		ἦγέρθην/ἦγρόμην	_	ἐγρήγορα	them. aor.; act. stem pf. ἐγρήγορα be awake; Att. redupl.; pf. mp. ἐγήγερμαι only in later Gk.; ἠγρόμην rare

53a	(καθ)έζομαι sit (down)	-έδ-/-ίζ-	(ἐκαθ)εζόμην/ (καθ)εζόμην	(καθ)εδοῦμαι, -ῆ	(κάθημαι)	<*σεδ-, pres. <*σεδy-, redupl. aor. <*σε-σδ; them. aor.; pres. κάθημαι used as pf.; simplex not in prose; for the augm. →11.57
53b	$(\kappa\alpha\theta)$ ίζω make sit down, sit down (intr.)		ἐκάθισα/-εισα	καθιῶ, -εῖς	_	redupl. pres. <* σ_1 - σ 8-, with aor. ἐκάθισα and fut. derived from the pres.; for the augm. \rightarrow 11.57; simplex ἵζω mainly in poetry, ἵζομαι in Ion. prose
54	(ἐ)θέλω be willing	(ἐ)θελ-	ήθέλησα	ἐθελήσω	ἠθέληκα	η added outside pres.
55a	εἰμί be	ἐσ-	_	ἔσομαι 3 sg. ἔσται	-	for the conjugation of pres. and impf., \rightarrow 12.36
55b	ξ ξεστι(ν)/ ξ στι(ν) it is possible, it is permitted		-	ἐξέσται/ἔσται	_	impers. →36.4
56	εἷμι go	ะใ-/ใ-	_	_	_	for the conjugation of pres. and impf. \rightarrow 12.36; \rightarrow ξ $\rho\chi$ $\rho\mu\alpha$; pres. with fut. value
57	(εἴωθα) be accustomed	ඨθ-	-	_	εἴωθα	Ion. ἔωθα; stem pf.; no pres.; \rightarrow 18.22

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
58	ἐλαύνω drive, ride	ἐλα-	ἤλασα ἠλάθην	ἐλῶ, -ᾳς	ἐλήλακα ἐλήλαμαι	pres. with -υν-; Att. fut. in -άω; Att. redupl.; pf. mp. ἐλήλασμαι rare
59	ἐλέγχω test, prove	ἐλεγχ-	ἤλεγξα ἠλέγχθην	ἐλέγξω	— ἐλήλεγμαι	Att. redupl.
60	ἕλκω draw, drag	έλκ(ὔ)-	εΐλκυσα είλκύσθην	ἕλξω	εΐλκυκα εΐλκυσμαι	augm./redupl. εί- (verb stem <* σ ελκ-); stems outside pres. and fut. add υ (Ion. fut. έλκύσω); parasitic σ in θη-aor. and pf. mp.
61a 61b	ἀμφι-έννυμι clothe with ἀμφι-έννυμαι	έ(σ)-	ἠμφίεσα ἠμφιεσάμην	ἀμφίῶ, -εῖς ἀμφιέσομαι	— ἠμφίεσμαι	verb stem <* ϵ ; athem. pres.; augm./redupl. before prefix \rightarrow 11.57; simplex only in poetry, with fut. $\epsilon\sigma(\sigma)\omega$
	dress oneself in				. [6-4-3-5-3-3	will rate co(o) w
62	(ἔοικα) be like(ly)	εἰκ-/οἰκ-	_	(εἴξω)	ἔοικα	<*féfoικα; stem pf., no pres.; plpf. ἐἀκη; ppl. εἰκώς; Ion. οἶκα (without redupl.) →25.43; often impers. ἔοικε(ν) it seems, it is reasonable
63	ἐπίσταμαι know, be able	ἐπιστη-/ἐπιστά-	ήπιστήθην	ἐπιστήσομαι	_	pass. only; athem. pres.
64	ἕπομαι follow	έπ-/σπ-	έσπόμην	ἕψομαι	-	middle only; impf. είπόμην with augm. εί- (<*ἐσε-)

65	ἕρπω walk, go	έρπ-/έρπυδ-	εἵρπυσα/ἦρψα	ἔ ρψω		augm. εί- (verb stem $<^*\sigma$ ερπ-); Att. forms in $-\upsilon\sigma$ - based on pres. έρπ υ ζ ω (only in Hom.); mainly in poetry
66	ἔρχομαι go, come	$\dot{\epsilon}$ ρχ-, $\dot{\epsilon}$ λευθ-/ $\dot{\epsilon}$ λ($\ddot{\upsilon}$)θ-, ϵ ἰ-/ $\ddot{\iota}$ -	ἦλθον	έλεύσομαι/εἷμι	ἐλήλυθα	suppletive; them. aor. (in poetry sometimes ἤλυθον); stem pf.; ἔρχομ α mainly in pres. indicative, for other forms \rightarrow ε $\overline{1}$ μ 1 go, 12.36
67	ἐρωτάω ask	ἐρ-, ἐρωτη-/ ὲρωτἄ-	ἦρώτησα/ἦρόμην	ἐρωτήσω/ ἐρήσομαι	_η ρώτηκα	suppletive; them. aor.; Ion. pres. εἴρομαι, impf. and aor. εἰρόμην
			ήρωτήθη <i>ν</i>		ἦρώτημαι	
68	ἐσθίω eat	ἐσθῖ-, φᾶγ-, ἐδε-/ ὲδο-/ἐδ-	ἔφαγον ἠδέσθην	ἔδομαι	ἐδήδοκα ἐδήδεσμαι	suppletive; them. aor.; fut. mid.; Att. redupl.; act. ἔδω rare; in poetry and Ion. prose pf. βέβρωκα, βέβρωμαι
69	(καθ)εύδω (go to) sleep	εύδ-	(ἐκαθ)εύδησα	(καθ)ευδήσω	_	impf. ἐκάθευδον and καθηῦδον; η added in aor. and fut.; aor. rare in Att.; simplex mainly in poetry and Ion. prose
						pres. with suffix -10K-; them. aor.;

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
71a	ἔχω have, hold; aor.: get; mid: be held	ἐχ-/σχ-	ἔσχον ἐσχέθην	ἕξω/σχήσω	ἔσχηκα ἔσχημαι	verb stem $<^*\sigma(\epsilon)\chi^-$; pres. $\dot{\epsilon}\chi^- <^*\dot{\epsilon}\chi^- \rightarrow 1.97$; them. aor.; impf. ϵ ίχον $(<^*\ddot{\epsilon}-\sigma\epsilon\chi o\nu) \rightarrow 11.40$; aor. imp. $\sigma\chi\dot{\epsilon}\varsigma$
71b	ἀν-έχομαι endure, bear		ήνεσχόμην	ἀνέξομαι	_	them. aor.; double augm. and redupl. →11.58; impf. ἠνειχόμην
71c	ύπισχνέομαι promise		ύπεσχόμην	ύποσχήσομαι	ύπέσχημαι	them. aor.; pres. with suffix - $\nu\epsilon$ -(hence ϵ -contract)
72	ζεύγνυμι yoke	ζευγ-/ζὔγ-	ἔζευξα ἐζύγην	ζεύξω	— ἔζευγμαι	athem. pres.; occasionally $\theta\eta\text{-aor.}$ $\dot{\epsilon}\zeta\epsilon\dot{\nu}\chi\theta\eta\nu$
73	ζέω boil	ζε(σ)-	ἔζεσα	ζέσω	_	verb stem in σ (hence short ϵ outside pres.); $\theta\eta$ -aor. $\hat{\epsilon}\zeta\hat{\epsilon}\sigma\theta\eta\nu$ and pf. pass. $\check{\epsilon}\zeta\epsilon\sigma\mu\alpha$ in later Gk.
74	ζήω live	ζη-, βἴω-	ἐβίων/ἐβίωσα	βιώσομαι	βεβίωκα βεβίωμαι	suppletive; pres. $βιόω$ gradually more frequent; $ζήω$ $η$ -contract; root aor. $ἑβιων$; fut. mid., but occasionally act. $βιώσω$
75	ζώννυμι	ζω(σ)-	ἔζωσα	ζώσω	——————————————————————————————————————	athem. pres.; verb stem in $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$
76	gird ἥδομαι enjoy	ήδ-	ἐζώσθην ἥσθην	ήσθήσομαι	ἔζωσμαι —	pass. only
77	(κάθ)ημαι sit	-ἡ(σ)-	_	_	_	athem. pres.; used as pf. to $\kappa\alpha\theta\dot{\epsilon}\zeta o\mu\alpha; \qquad impf. \qquad usually \\ \dot{\epsilon}\kappa\alpha\theta\dot{\eta}\mu\eta\nu, \longrightarrow 11.57$

78	θάπτω bury θέλω →ἐθέλω	θἄφ-	ἔθαψα ἐτάφην	θάψω	— τέθαμμαι	pres. <*θάφ-yω; ταφ- <*θαφ-, →1.97; θη-aor. ἐθάφθην rare
79	θέω run	θε(υ)-	ἔθευσα	θεύσομαι	_	verb stem <* $\theta\epsilon_F$ -; fut. mid.
80	θιγγάνω touch	θῖγ-	ἔθῖγον	θίξομαι	_	them. aor.; fut. mid.; mainly in poetry
81	(ἀπο)θνήσκω/-θνήσκω die	θἄν-/θνη-	(ἀπ)έθανον	(ἀπο)θανοῦμαι, -ῆ	τέθνηκα	θνήσκω <*θνη-ίσκ-ω; fut. mid.; τέθνηκα <i>be dead</i> ; simplex θνήσκω/θνήσκω only in poetry
82	$θ$ ύω $sacrifice \\ (καθ)ίζω \rightarrow (καθ)έζομαι$	θῦ-/θὕ-	ἔθῦσα ἐτΰθην	θύσω	τέθϋκα τέθϋμαι	τυθη- <*θυθη- \rightarrow 1.97
83	ἵημι send, let go	ή-/έ-	ήκα εΐθην	ἥσω	εἶκα εἶμαι	verb stem <*y η -/*y ϵ -; pres. <*y iy -(pres. redupl.); athem. pres.; $\kappa\alpha$ -aor.; augm./redupl. ϵ i-; in prose mostly in compounds
84	ίλάσκομαι appease	ΐλἄ(σ)-	ίλασάμην	ίλάσομαι	_	pres. $\dagger \lambda$ - <* $\sigma i \sigma \lambda$ - (pres. redupl.) and with suffix - $\sigma \kappa$ -; long $\bar{\iota}$ generalized in other tenses
						(Continued)

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
85	(ἀφ)ικνέομαι arrive	Ťκ-	(ἀφ)ῖκόμην	(ἀφ)ίξομαι	(ἀφ)ῖγμαι	them. aor.; pres. with suffix -νε- (hence ε-contract); simplex ἱκνέομαι mainly in poetry
86a	ἵστημι	στη-/στά-	ἔστησα	στήσω	_	pres. <*σί-στ- (redupl.), pf.
	make stand, set up		ἐστάθην	σταθήσομαι	ἔσταμαι	<*σέ-στ-; athem. pres.; in prose mostly in compounds
86b	ἵσταμαι		ἔστην	στήσομαι	ἕστηκα	act. root aor. and pf. ἔστην came to
	come to stand					stand, ἕστηκα stand
87	(κατα)καίνω kill	κον-/κάν-	(κατ)έκανον	(κατα)κανῶ, -εῖς	(κατα)κέκονα	them. aor.; stem pf.; καίνω mainly in poetry; κατακαίνω Doric for Att. ἀποκτείνω (adopted by Xen.)
88	καίω/κἇω	κα(υ)-	ἔκαυσα	καύσω	κέκαυκα	pres. <*κάρ-yω; κάω does not
	set on fire		ἐκαύθην/ἐκάην		κέκαυμαι	contract; η-aor. ἐκάην rare, mainly in poetry
89	καλέω	κἄλε-/κλη-	ἐκάλεσα	καλῶ, -εῖς/καλέσω	κέκληκα	pres. and Att. fut. are identical;
	call, summon		ἐκλήθην		κέκλημαι	aor. and fut. καλέσω analogous to verbs with stem in $\sigma \rightarrow 13.18$
90	κάμνω toil, be sick	κἄμ-/κμη-	ἔκαμον	καμοῦμαι, -ῆ	κέκμηκα	pres. with nasal suffix $-\nu$ -; them. aor.; fut. mid.

91	κεῖμαι	KE1-	_	κείσομαι	_	athem. pres.; used as pf. pass. of $\tau i\theta \eta \mu \iota \rightarrow 12.43 \text{ n.1}$
	lie, be put					1101/01
92	κεράννυμι	κερἄ(σ)-/κρᾶ-	ἐκέρἄσα	1)—,:	_	verb stem in σ; athem. pres.
	mix		ἐκεράσθην/ἐκράθην		κέκρᾶμαι/	
					κεκέρἄσμαι	
93	κλαίω/κλἁω	κλα(υ)-	ἔκλαυσα	κλαύσομαι/	κέκλαυκα	pres. <*κλάρ-yω; pres. κλάω does
	cry, weep			κλαήσω		not contract; fut. mid.; parasitic σ in θ_{η} -aor.
			ἐκλαύσθην		κέκλαυ(σ)μαι	111 01 -401.
94	κλέπτω	κλεπ-/κλοπ-/	ἔκλεψα	κλέψω	κέκλοφα	η-aor., in poetry and Ion.
	steal	κλάπ-	ἐκλάπην		κέκλεμμαι	occasionally ἐκλέφθην; stem pf.; *κλἄπ- <*κļπ-
95a	κλίνω	κλĭ(ν)-	ἔκλῖνα	κλϊνῶ, -εῖς	κέκλϊκα	pres. (<*κλίν-yω) with nasal suffix
	cause to lean;		ἐκλΐθην		κέκλϊμαι	-v-, extended to aor., fut.; in
	mp.: lean					poetry also θη-aor. ἐκλίνθην
95b	κατακλΐνομαι		κατεκλίνην	κατακλϊνήσομαι	κατακέκλϊμαι	η-aor.; θη-aor. κατεκλίθην also
	recline					found
96	κόπτω	κοπ-	ἔκοψα	κόψω	κέκοφα	η-aor.
	hit		ἐκόπην	100000	κέκομμαι	
97	(ἀνα)κράζω	κράγ-/κράγ-	(ἀν)έκρἄγον	κεκράξομαι	(ἀνα)κέκρᾶγα	them. aor.; stem pf. κέκρᾶγα
	shout					scream, fut. pf. κεκράξομαι used as regular fut.; pres. rare until later Gk., which also has aor. (ἀν)έκραξα, fut. (ἀνα)κράξω
						(Continued)

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
98a	κρεμάννυμι hang up	κρεμἄ(σ)-	ἐκρέμασα ἐκρεμάσθην	κρεμῶ, -ᾳς	— κεκρέμᾶσμαι	verb stem in σ ; athem. pres.; Att. fut. in -άω; mostly in compounds
98b	κρέμαμαι hang		_	κρεμήσομαι	_	athem. pres. (conjugation analogous to ἵσταμαι)
99	κρίνω decide, judge	κρῖ(ν)-	ἔκρῖνα ἐκρΐθην	κρῖνῶ, -εῖς	κέκρῖκα κέκρῖμαι	pres. (<*κρΐν-yω) with nasal suffix -ν-, extended to aor., fut.
100	κτάομαι acquire	κτη-/κτά-	ἐκτησάμην	κτήσομαι	ἔκτημαι/ κέκτημαι	pf. ἔκτημαι mainly Ion. and Pl.
101	(ἀπο)κτείνω kill	κτεν-/κτον-/κτάν-	(ἀπ)έκτεινα/ (ἀπ)έκτανον	(ἀπο)κτενῶ, -εῖς	(ἀπ)έκτονα	stem pf.; them. aor. (ἀπ)έκτανον in poetry; also athem. ἀποκτίννυμι in prose
102	λαγχάνω obtain by lot	ληχ-/λᾶχ-	ἔλαχον	λήξομαι	εἴληχα εἴληγμαι	pres. with nasal suffix - γ - $\alpha\nu$ -; them. aor.; fut. mid.; pf. with redupl. ϵ i-; in poetry occasionally pf. $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \circ \chi \propto$
103	λαμβάνω get, take	ληβ-/λἄβ-	ἔλαβον ἐλήφθην	λήψομαι	εἴληφα εἴλημμαι	pres. with nasal suffix -μ-αν-; them. aor.; fut. mid.; redupl. εἰ-; pf. mp. λέλημμαι in tragedy; in Hdt. θη-aor. ἐλάμφθην and pf. act. λ ελάβηκα
104a	λανθάνω go unnoticed	ληθ-/λἄθ-	ἔλαθον ἐλήσθην	λήσω	λέληθα λέλησμαι	pres. with nasal suffix -ν-αν-; them. aor.; stem pf.; in poetry also pres. λήθω, λήθομαι
104b	ἐπιλανθάνομαι forget		ἐπελαθόμην	ἐπιλήσομαι	ἐπιλέλησμαι	

105a	λέγω say, speak	λεγ-/λογ-, εἰπ-, ἐρ-/ῥη-	ἔλεξα/εἶπον ἐλέχθην/ἐρρήθην	λέξω/ἐρῶ, -εῖς	εἴρηκα εἴρημαι/λέλεγμαι	suppletive; them. aor. (for $\epsilon \bar{i} \pi \alpha /$ $\epsilon \bar{i} \pi \sigma \nu \rightarrow 13.32$; for $\bar{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \xi \alpha$ vs. $\epsilon \bar{i} \pi \sigma \nu$, $\rightarrow 13.38$ n.2); redupl. $\epsilon i - <^* \epsilon \rho$ -
105b	δια-λέγομαι converse		δι-ελέχθην/ δι-ελέγην	διαλέξομαι	δι-είλεγμαι	fut. mid.; fut. διαλεχθήσομαι is occasionally found
105с	συλ-λέγω collect; mp: come together		συνέλεξα συνελέγην/ συνελέχθην	συλλέξω	συνείλοχα συνείλεγμαι	η-aor.
105d	ἀπ-αγορεύω forbid, give up	άγορευ-, εἰπ-, ἐρ-/ῥη-	ἀπεῖπον ἀπερρήθην	ἀπερῶ, -εῖς	ἀπείρηκα ἀπείρημαι	them. aor.; occasionally aor. ἀπήγορευσα; simplex verb ἀγορεύω proclaim only in pres./ impf. in Att.
106	λείπω leave	λειπ-/λοιπ-/λἴπ-	ἔλιπον ἐλείφθην	λείψω	λέλοιπα λέλειμμαι	them. aor.; stem pf.
107	μαίνομαι rage	μην-/μἄν-	ἐμάνην	μανοῦμαι, -ῆ	μέμηνα	η-aor.; in poetry causative (\rightarrow 35.4) aor. ἔμηνα made mad occasionally; act. stem pf. (μέμηνα be furious)
108	μανθάνω learn, understand	μἄθ-	ἔμαθον	μαθήσομαι	μεμάθηκα	pres. with nasal suffix $-\nu-\alpha\nu$; them. aor.; fut. mid.

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
109	μάχομαι fight	μἄχ(ε)-	ἐμαχεσάμην	μαχοῦμαι, -ῆ	μεμάχημαι	aor. with short ε; Att. fut.; η added in pf. stem; Ion. fut. μαχήσομαι
110	μ(ε)ίγυνμι/μίσγω mix	μειγ-/μἴγ-	ἔμ(ε)ιξα ἐμίγην/ἐμ(ε)ίχθην	μείξω	— μέμ(ε)ιγμαι	athem. pres.; $\eta\text{-aor.};$ Homeric pres. $\mu\text{i}\sigma\gamma\omega$ sometimes also in Att.
111a	(ἐπι)μέλομαι/ (ἐπι)μελέομαι take care	μελη-/μελ(ε)-	(ἐπ)εμελήθην	(ἐπι)μελήσομαι	(ἐπι)μεμέλημαι	presέομαι more common than -ομαι
111b	μέλει it is of concern		ἐμέλησε(ν)	μελήσει	μεμέληκε(ν)	impers. →36.15
112	μέλλω be about to, delay	μελλ-	ἐμέλλησα	μελλήσω	_	impf. ἤμελλον \rightarrow 11.41; η added outside pres.
113	μένω stay, (a)wait	μεν-	ἔμεινα	μενῶ, -εῖς	μεμένηκα	η added in pf.; in poetry also pres. μίμνω (with redupl.)
114	μιμνήσκω remind; mp.: remember	μνη-	ἔμνησα ἐμνήσθην	μνήσω	— μέμνημαι	pres. redupl. and suffix -(1)0k-; act. mostly in compounds; parasitic σ in $\theta\eta$ -aor.
115	νέμω deal out	νεμ-	ἔνειμα ἐνεμήθην	νεμῶ, -εῖς	νενέμηκα νενέμημαι	η added in $\theta\eta\text{-aor.}$ and pf. stems
116	νέω swim	νε-	ἔνευσα	νεύσομαι	νένευκα	ευ-forms possibly by analogy with πλέω; fut. mid.
117	(νίπτω/)νίζω wash	νĭπ-	ἔνιψα ἐνιψάμην	νίψω	— νένιμμαι	pres. νίζω <*νίγ-yω; other stems (and newer pres. νίπτω) built on νιπ-

118	(ἀν)οίγνυμι/(ἀν)οίγω open	οίγ-	(ἀν)έωξα (ἀν)εώχθην	(ἀν)οίξω	(ἀν)έωχα/ (ἀν)έωγα (ἀν)έωγμαι	athem. pres.; stem pf. \rightarrow 18.25; augm./redupl. \rightarrow 11.40
119	(οἶδα) know	εὶδ-/οὶδ-/ῒδ-	_	εἶσομαι	οἷδα	verb stem <* $_{\text{Fe}1\delta}$ -/* $_{\text{Fo}1\delta}$ -/* $_{\text{Fi}\delta}$ -; no pres.; for conjugation \rightarrow 18.4; fut. mid.
120	οἴομαι/οἷμαι think	ol-	ѽήθην	οἰήσομαι	_	pass. only; fut. mid.; οἶμαι and ἄμην without thematic vowel; η added in $\theta\eta$ -aor. and fut.
121	οἴχομαι depart, be gone	oìχ-	_	οἰχήσομαι	ὤχωκα/οἴχωκα	no aor.; η added in fut.; act. pf. οἴχωκα in Ion. and poetry, but also διοίχημαι in Hdt.
122a	(ἀπ)όλλυμι destroy	ỏλ(ε)-	(ἀπ)ώλεσα	(ἀπ)ολῶ, -εῖς	(ἀπ)ολώλεκα	stem with ϵ in sigm. aor., pf. (and Att. fut.); athem. pres.; Att. redupl.
122b	(ἀπ)όλλυμαι perish		(ἀπ)ωλόμην	(ἀπ)ολοῦμαι, -ῆ	(ἀπ)όλωλα	them. aor.; act. stem pf. ὅλωλα be $ruined$
123	ὄμνυμι swear	ỏμ(o)-	ὤμοσα ὤμό(σ)θην	όμοῦμαι, -ῆ	ὀμώμοκα ὀμώμομαι	athem. pres., but also them. forms (ὀμνύω, etc.); fut. mid.; Att. redupl. →11.48; occasionally pf. mp. ὀμώμοσμαι

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
124	ὀνίνημι benefit; mid. benefit from	ὀνη-/ὀνά-	ὤνησα ὤνήθην	ονήσω	-	athem. pres.; root mid. aor. ὢνήμην/ὢνἄμην; impf. supplied by ὡφελέω benefit, help; mostly in poetry
125	όράω see	όρα-, ἴδ-, ὀπ-	εἶδον ὤφθην	ὄψομαι	έόρακα/έώρακα/ ὅπωπα έόραμαι/έώραμαι/ ὧμμαι	suppletive; όρά- <* $_{\rm F}$ ορά-; † δ- <* $_{\rm F}$ ίδ- (cf. ο † δα); impf. † έωρων (augm. \rightarrow 11.40), also ἄρων; fut. mid.; stem pf. ὅπωπα
126	ὀρύττω dig	ὀρὔχ-	ὤρυξα ὤρύχθην	ὀρύξω	— ὀρώρυγμαι	Att. redupl.; η-futορυχησ- in Ar.
127	ὀφείλω owe, be bound to	ὀφε(ι)λ-	ώφείλησα/ἄφελον	ὀφειλήσω	ώφείληκα	pres. ὀφέλλω in poetry; them. aor.; also impf. and aor. ὄφελ(λ)ον; η added in various stems
128	ὀφλισκάνω incur a charge, lose (a case)	ὀφλ-	ὤφλησα/ὧφλον	ὀφλήσω	ὤφληκα ὤφλημαι	pres. with suffixes -10%- and -0\$\nu\$-; them. aor.; \$\eta\$ added in various stems
129	πάσχω suffer	πενθ-/πονθ-/ πἄθ-	ἔπαθον	πείσομαι	πέπονθα	pres. $<^*\pi_{\eta}^{\prime}\theta$ -sk-w \longrightarrow 1.96; fut. $<^*\pi_{\ell}\nu\theta$ soma; them. aor.; fut. mid; stem pf.
130a	πείθω persuade	πειθ-/ποιθ-/πἴθ-	ἔπεισα ἐπείσθην	πείσω	πέπεικα πέπεισμαι	in poetry occasionally aor. $\xi\pi\iota\theta o\nu$
130b	πείθομαι believe, obey		ἐπιθόμην/ἐπείσθην	πείσομαι	πέποιθα	them. aor.; act. stem pf. (πέποιθα trust)

131	πέμπω send	πεμπ-/πομπ-	ἔπεμψα ἐπέμφθην	πέμψω	πέπομφα πέπεμμαι	
132	πετάννυμι spread out	πετἄ(σ)-	ἐπέτασα ἐπετάσθην	πετῶ, -ἄς	πέπταμαι	athem. pres.; poetic alternatives πίτνημι, πιτνάω; verb stem in σ; Att. fut. in -άω (-άσω found in poetry); mostly in compounds
133	πέτομαι fly	πετ-/πτη-/ πτ(ἄ)-	ἐπτόμην/ἐπτάμην/ ἔπτην	πτήσομαι/ πετήσομαι	_ '	occasionally athem. pres. πέταμαι; them. aor.; in poetry also root aor. ἐπτάμην (→13.32 n.1, 13.50, 13.63); root aor. ἔπτην (rare)
134a	πήγνυμι affix, fasten	πηγ-/πἄγ-	ἔπηξα	πήξω	_	athem. pres.
134b	πήγνυμαι become solid		ἐπάγην/ἐπήχθην	παγήσομαι	πέπηγα	act. stem pf. (πέπηγα be set, fixed)
135	πίμπλημι fill	πλη-/πλἄ-	ἔπλησα ἐπλήσθην	πλήσω	πέπληκα πέπλη(σ)μαι	pres. redupl.; athem. pres.; in poetry occasionally mid. root aor. $\frac{1}{6}\pi\lambda\dot{\eta}\mu\eta\nu$ I filled myself; parasitic σ in $\theta\eta$ -aor.
136	(ἐμ)πίμπρημι burn	πρη-/πρά-	(ἐν)έπρησα (ἐν)επρήσθην	(ἐμ)πρήσω	(ἐμ)πέπρηκα (ἐμ)πέπρη(σ)μαι	pres. redupl.; athem. pres.
137	πίνω drink	πω-/πο-/πῖ-/πῖ-	ἔπῖον ἐπόθην	πίομαι	πέπωκα πέπομαι	pres. with nasal suffix - ν -; them. aor. with short ĭ, but imp. $\pi \bar{\tau} \theta_1$; fut. mid.
138	πιπράσκω sell	πρᾶ-	— ἐπράθην	_	πέπρᾶκα πέπρᾶμαι	pres. with redupl. and suffix -σκ-; pres. and aor. usually supplied by ἀποδίδομαι, pres. and fut. also by πωλέω (Continued)

verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
πίπτω fall	πεσ-/πτ(ω)-	ἔπεσον	πεσοῦμαι, -ῆ	πέπτωκα	pres. redupl. ($\pi\iota$ - $\pi\tau$ -); in poetry occasionally pres. π ($\tau\nu\omega$; them. aor.; fut. mid.
πλέκω	πλεκ-/πλάκ-	ἔπλεξα	πλέξω		η-aor. (in Ion. also ἐπλέκην)
plait, devise		ἐπλάκην/ἐπλέχθην		πέπλεγμαι	
πλέω sail	πλε(υ)-	ἔπλευσα	πλεύσομαι	πέπλευκα	pres. <*πλέρω; fut. mid.; Ion. πλώω
πλήττω	πληγ-/πλἄγ-	ἔπληξα	πλήξω	πέπληγα	η-aor.; stem pf.
strike		ἐπλήγην	πληγήσομαι	πέπληγμαι	
(ἐκ)πλήττω		(ἐξ)έπληξα	(ἐκ)πλήξω	(ἐκ)πέπληγα	η-aor. with short stem (πλάγ-);
frighten;		(ἐξ)επλάγην		(ἐκ)πέπληγμαι	θη-aor. ἐξεπλήχθην rare
mp.: be frightened					
πνέω blow	πνε(υ)-	ἔπνευσα	πνεύσομαι	πέπνευκα	pres. $<^*\pi\nu\acute{\epsilon}_F\omega;$ fut. mid.; occasionally fut. $\pi\nu\epsilon\acute{\nu}\sigma\omega$ and $\pi\nu\epsilon\iota\sigma\sigma\breve{\nu}\mu\alpha$, - $\breve{\eta}$
(ἔπορον)	πορ-/πρω-	ἔπορον	_	_	them. aor.; aor. and pf. only;
give; pf. pass. it is destined				πέπρωται	poetry only
πράττω	πρᾶγ-	ἔπραξα	πράξω	πέπρᾶχα/	stem pf. πέπραγα; Ion. πρήσσω
do, act				πέπρᾶγα	
				πέπραγμαι	
	πίπτω fall πλέκω plait, devise πλέω sail πλήττω strike (ἐκ)πλήττω frighten; mp.: be frightened πνέω blow (ἔπορον) give; pf. pass. it is destined πράττω	πίπτω πεσ-/πτ(ω)- fall πλέκω πλεκ-/πλάκ- plait, devise πλέω πλε(υ)- sail πλήττω πληγ-/πλάγ- strike (ἐκ)πλήττω frighten; mp.: be frightened πνέω πνε(υ)- blow (ἔπορον) πορ-/πρω- give; pf. pass. it is destined πράττω πράγ-	πίπτω πεσ-/πτ(ω)- ἔπεσον fall πλέκω πλεκ-/πλάκ- ἔπλεξα plait, devise τηλε(υ)- ἔπλευσα sail πλήττω πληγ-/πλάγ- ἔπληξα strike ἐπλήγην (ἐξ)ἐπληξα frighten; (ἐξ)επλάγην mp.: be frightened πνέω πνε(υ)- ἔπνευσα blow (ἔπορον) πορ-/πρω- ἔπορον give; pf. pass. it is destined πράττω πράγ- ἔπραξα	πίπτω πεσ-/πτ(ω)- ἔπεσον πεσοῦμαι, -ῇ fall πλέκω πλεκ-/πλᾶκ- ἔπλεξα πλέξω μlait, devise τλάκην/ἐπλέχθην πλεύσομαι sail πλήττω πληγ-/πλᾶγ- ἔπληξα πλήξω strike ἐπλήγην πληγήσομαι (ἐξ)ἐπληξα (ἐκ)πλήξω (ἐκ)πλήττω (ἐξ)ἐπληξα (ἐκ)πλήξω τρίghten; (ἐξ)ἐπληξα πνεύσομαι πνέω πνε(υ)- ἔπνευσα πνεύσομαι blow (ἔπορον) πορ-/πρω- ἔπορον — give; pf. pass. it is destined πράττω πρᾶγ- ἔπραξα πράξω	πίπτω πεσ-/πτ(ω)- ἔπεσον πεσοῦμαι, -ῆ πέπτωκα fall πλέκω πλεκ-/πλᾶκ- ἔπλεξα πλέξω — πέπλεγμαι πλέω πλε(υ)- ἔπλευσα πλεύσομαι πέπλευκα sail πλήττω πληγ-/πλᾶγ- ἔπληξα πλήξω πέπληγα strike ἐπλήγην πληγήσομαι πέπληγμαι (ἐκ)πλήττω (ἐξ)ἐπληξα (ἐκ)πλήξω (ἐκ)πέπληγα frighten; (ἐξ)ἐπληξα (ἐκ)πλήξω (ἐκ)πέπληγα πρι: be frightened πνέω πνε(υ)- ἔπνευσα πνεύσομαι πέπνευκα blow (ἔπορον) πορ-/πρω- ἔπορον — πέπρωται destined πράττω πρᾶγ- ἔπραξα πράξω πέπρᾶχα/ do, act

146	πυνθάνομαι inquire, learn	πευθ-/πὔθ-	ἐπυθόμην	πεύσομαι	πέπυσμαι	pres. with nasal suffix $-\nu$ - $\alpha\nu$ -; them. aor.
147	ρέω flow	ῥε(υ)-/ῥŭ-	ἐρρύην	ρυήσομαι	ἐρρύηκα	pres. <*ἡέξω; impf. ἔρρεον; η-aor./ fut.; aor. ἔρρευσα and fut. ἡεύσομαι/-έομαι rare; η added in pf.
148a	ρήγνυμι cause to break	ἡηγ-/ἡωγ-/ἡᾶγ-	ἔρρηξα	ἡήξω	_	athem. pres.
148b	ἡήγνυμαι break (intr.)		ἐρράγην		ἔρρωγα	η-aor.; act. stem pf. (ἔρρωγα be $torn$)
149	ρίπτω throw	ρ ῖπ-	ἔρριψα ἐρρίφθην/ἐρρἵφην	ρίψω	ἔρριφα ἔρριμμαι	$\eta\text{-aor.}$ (with short $\check{\iota}$ and $\varphi)$
150	ρώννυμι strengthen; mp.: have strength	ρω(σ)-	ἔρρωσα ἐρρώσθην	_	— ἔρρωμαι	athem. pres.; verb stem in σ ; fut. $\dot{\rho}\dot{\omega}\sigma\omega$ in later Gk.
151a	σβέννυμι quench, put out	σ βη-/ σ βε (σ) -	ἔσβεσα ἐσβέσθην	σβέσω σβεσθήσομαι	— ἔσβεσμαι	athem. pres.; verb stem in σ ; usually in compounds
151b	σβέννυμαι go out, be quenched		ἔσβην	σβήσομαι	ἔσβηκα	act. root aor. and stem pf. (ἔσβην went out, ἔσβηκα be out)
						(Continued)

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
152a	σήπω	σηπ-/σἄπ-	ἔσηψα	σήψω	-	act. forms very rare
	make rotten					
152b	σήπομαι		ἐσάπην	σαπήσομαι	σέσηπα	η-aor.; act. stem pf. (σέσηπα be rotten)
	rot					rotteny
153	σκάπτω	σκἄφ-	ἔσκαψα	σκάψω	ἔσκαφα	η-aor.
	dig		ἐσκάφην		ἔσκαμμαι	
154	σκεδάννυμι	σκεδἄ(σ)-	ἐσκέδασα	σκεδῶ, -ᾳς	—	athem. pres.; verb stem in σ; Att.
	disperse;		_έ σκεδάσθην		ἐσκέδασμαι	fut. in -άω; poetic alternative σκίδνημι; often in compounds
	mp.: spread out (intr.)					oktorijas, otten in compounds
155	σκοπέω/σκέπτομαι	σκεπ-/σκοπε-	ἐσκεψάμην	σκέψομαι	ἔσκεμμαι	later Gk. has tense stems derived
	look, examine					from σκοπέω
156	σπάω	σπἄ(σ)-	ἔσπασα	σπάσω	ἔσπακα	verb stem in σ (hence short $\check{\alpha}$ in
	draw, tear		ἐσπάσθην		ἔσπασμαι	aor. and fut.)
157	σπείρω	σπερ-/σπἄρ-	ἔσπειρα	σπερῶ, -εῖς	ἔσπαρκα	η-aor.; σπάρ- <*σπӷ-
	sow		ἐσπάρην		ἔσπαρμαι	
158	σπένδω	σπενδ-	ἔσπεισα	σπείσω	_	σπεισ- <*σπενδσ-
	pour liquid, libate;				ἔσπεισμαι	
	mid.: make a treaty					
159	στέλλω	στελ-/στἄλ-	ἔστειλα	στελῶ, -εῖς	ἔσταλκα	η-aor., στἄλ- <*στ -
	dispatch; mp.: journey		ἐστάλην		ἔσταλμαι	
160	στόρνυμι/στρώννυμι	στορ(εσ)-/στρω-	ἐστόρεσα/ἔστρωσα	στορῶ/στρώσω	1—1	athem. pres.; also στορέννυμι
	cover, make level		ἐστορέσθην/		ἐστόρεσμαι/	
			ἐστρώθην		ἔστρωμαι	

161	στρέφω turn (around); mp.: turn around (intr.)	στρεφ-/στροφ-/ στράφ-	ἔστρεψα ἐστράφην/ ἐστρέφθην	στρέψω	ἔστροφα ἔστραμμαι	η-aor.; stem pf. ἔστροφα rare; $\sigma \tau ρ α φ - <^* \sigma \tau_{\bar{k}} φ -$
162	σφάλλω cause to stumble; mp.: stumble	σφἄλ-	ἔσφηλα ἐσφάλην	σφαλῶ, -εῖς	ἔσφαλκα ἔσφαλμαι	η-aor.
163	σφάττω/σφάζω slaughter	σφάγ-	ἔσφαξα ἐσφάγην/ἐσφάχθην	σφάξω	— ἔσφαγμαι	η-aor.; σφάττω Att., σφάζω Ion. and in poetry; pf. ἔσφακα in later Gk.
164a	σώζω save	σω-	ἔσωσα	σώσω	σέσωκα	pres. <*σω-ίζω; aor./fut. also sometimes written σ ϕ σ-
164b	σώζομαι escape		ἐσώθην		σέσω(σ)μαι	σέσωμαι regular in poetry, σέσωσμαι in prose
165	τείνω stretch	τεν-/τἄ-	ἔτεινα ἐτάθην	τενῶ, -εῖς	τέτακα τέταμαι	τ ἄ- <*τ η-
166	τελέω finish	τελε(σ)-	ἐτέλεσα ἐτελέσθην	τελέσω/τελῶ, -εῖς	τετέλεκα τετέλεσμαι	stem in σ (hence short ϵ outside pres.); Att. fut. identical to pres.
167	(ἀνα)τέλλω (cause to) rise	τελ-/τἄλ-	(ἀν)έτειλα	(ἀνα)τελῶ, -εῖς	(ἀνα)τέταλκα (ἀνα)τέταλμαι	τἄλ- <*τឿ-
168	τέμνω cut	τεμ-/τμη-	ἔτεμον ἐτμήθην	τεμῶ, -εῖς	τέτμηκα τέτμημαι	them. aor.; Ion. τάμνω, them. aor. ἔτἄμον

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
169a	τήκω cause to melt	τηκ-/τἄκ-	ἔτηξα	τήξω	_	
169b	τήκομαι melt		ἐτάκην	_	τέτηκα	η-aor.; act. stem pf. (τέτηκα be melted)
170	τίθημι put, place	$\theta\eta$ -/ $\theta\epsilon$ -	ἔθηκα ἐτέθην	θήσω	τέθηκα/τέθεικα τέθειμαι/κεῖμαι	athem. pres.; pres. redupl.; $\kappa\alpha$ -aor.; τ :10-/ τ \epsilon 0-/\delta 0-/\delta 0-/\delta 0-37; κ \epsilon used as pf. pass.; often in compounds
171	τίκτω give birth	τεκ-/τοκ-/τκ-	ἔτεκον	τέξομαι	τέτοκα	pres. <* τ i- $\tau \kappa \omega$ (redupl.); them. aor.; fut. mid.; in poetry occasionally $\theta \eta$ -aor. $\dot{\epsilon} \tau \dot{\epsilon} \chi \theta \eta \nu$ and fut. $\tau \dot{\epsilon} \xi \omega$
172	τίνω pay, atone; mid.: make pay, avenge	τει-/τἴ-	ἔτεισα	τείσω	τέτεικα τέτεισμαι	pres. with nasal suffix -ν-; pf. only found in compound ἐκτίνω pay off
173	(ἔτλην) endure, dare to	τλη-/τλά-	ἔτλην	τλήσομαι	τέτληκα	pres. τλάω not found (τολμάω is used); root aor.; mostly in poetry
174	τιτρώσκω wound	τρω-	ἔτρωσα ἐτρώθην	τρώσω	τέτρωκα τέτρωμαι	pres. with redupl, and suffix $\mbox{-}\sigma\kappa\mbox{-}$

	τρέπω turn τρέπομαι turn around (intr.)	τρεπ-/τροπ-/ τράπ-	ἔτρεψα/ἔτρᾶπον ἐτρέφθην ἐτράπην/ ἐτραπόμην	τρέψω τρέψομαι	τέτροφα τέτραμμαι τέτραμμαι	them. aor. ἔτραπον mostly in poetry; stem pf.; τράπ- <*τړπ- $\eta\text{-aor.}$ and them. aor.
176	τρέφω nourish, rear; mp.: grow (up)	θρεφ-/θροφ-/ θράφ-	ἔθρεψα ἐτράφην	θρέψω	τέτροφα τέθραμμαι	τρεφ- <*θρεφ-, τροφ- <*θροφ- $\rightarrow 1.97;$ η-aor.; ἐθρέφθην rare; θρᾶφ- <*θ $_{\rm t}$ φ-; stem pf.
177	τρέχω run	τρεχ-, δράμ-	ἔδραμον	δραμοῦμαι, -ῆ	δεδράμηκα	suppletive; them. aor.; in poetry also rarely aor. $\xi\theta\rho\epsilon\xi\alpha$; fut. mid.
178	τυγχάνω hit upon, happen to	τευχ-/τὔχ-	ἔτυχον	τεύξομαι	τετύχηκα	pres. with nasal suffix - γ - $\alpha\nu$ -; them. aor.; fut. mid.
179	τύπτω hit	τὔπ-	ἔτυψα ἐτύπην	τύψω/τυπτήσω	— τέτυμμαι	η-aor.; occasionally them. aor. ἔτυπον for ἔτυψα
180a	φαίνω show	φην-/φἄν-	ἔφηνα ἐφάνθην	φανῶ, -εῖς	πέφαγκα πέφασμαι	pf. act. and mp. rare and mostly in compounds
180b	φαίνομαι appear, seem		ἐφάνην	φανήσομαι/ φανοῦμαι, -ῆ	πέφηνα	η-aor.; act. stem pf. (πέφηνα have appeared)
181	φέρω carry, bring	φερ-, ἐνεκ-/ἐνοκ-/ ἐγκ-, οἰτ-	ἤνεγκον/ἤνεγκα ἦνέχθην	οἴσω	ἐνήνοχα ἐνήνεγμαι	suppletive; them. aor.; for aor. ἤνεγκα \rightarrow 13.27, 13.32; Ion. aor. ἤνεικα; stem pf. with Attic reduplication

	verb (present)	verb stem	aorist	future	perfect	particulars
182	φεύγω flee	φευγ-/φὔγ-	ἔφυγον	φεύξομαι	πέφευγα	them. aor.; fut. mid.; fut. ϕ ευξοῦμαι, - $\tilde{\eta}$ occasionally in poetry
183	φημί/φάσκω say, claim	φη-/φα-	ἔφησα	φήσω	_	athem. pres.; impf. ἔφην \rightarrow 12.36, 12.42; φάσκω not found in pres. ind., but supplies ppl. φάσκων, impf. ἔφασκον, etc. (\rightarrow 12.56)
184	φθάνω be first	φθη-/φθἄ-	ἔφθασα	φθήσομαι	ἔφθακα	pres. with nasal suffix -v-; also root aor. $\xi \phi \theta \eta \nu$; fut. mid.
185a	(δια)φθείρω destroy	φθερ-/φθορ-/ φθάρ-	(δι)έφθειρα	(δια)φθερῶ, -εῖς	(δι)έφθαρκα	φθἄρ- <*φθӷ-
185b	(δια)φθείρομαι perish		(δι)εφθάρην		(δι)έφθορα/ (δι)έφθαρμαι	η-aor.; act. stem pf. (διέφθορα have lost one's wits)
186a	φύω cause to grow	φŪ-	ἔφῦσα	φύσω	_	usually $\varphi \bar{\upsilon}\text{-}$ before vowels, $\varphi \bar{\upsilon}\text{-}$ before consonants
186b	φύομαι grow (up)		ἔφῦν	φύσομαι	πέφῦκα	act. root aor. and pf. (ἔφυν grew, πέφυκα be (by nature))

187	χαίρω rejoice	χἄρ-	ἐχάρην	χαιρήσω	κεχάρηκα	η-aor. (with act. sense); fut. built on pres. stem, with added η; in poetry occasionally pf. mp. κέχαρμαι, κεχάρημαι
188	χέω	χε(υ)-/χŭ-	ἔχεα	χέω	κέχυκα	pres. <*χέρω; in poetry also rarely
	pour		ἐχύ θ ην		κέχυμαι	aor. ἔχευα and ἐχύμην
189	χώννυμι/χόω	χω(σ)-/χο-	ἔχωσα	χώσω	κέχωκα	athem. pres.; verb stem in σ ; pres.
	heap up		ἐχώ(σ)θην		κέχωσμαι	χόω occasionally in Att., Hdt.
190	ώθέω	ώθη-/ώθ(ε)-	ἔωσα/ὧσα	ὢθήσω/ὢσω	_	augm./redupl. ἐω- (verb stem
	thrust, push		ἐώσθην, ἄσθην		ἔωσμαι	<* _F ωθ-)
191	ώνέομαι	ώνη-/ώνε-, πρῖ-	ἐπριάμην	ώνήσομαι	ἐώνημαι	augm./redupl. usually $\hbar\omega$ - (verb stem $<^*F\omega\nu$ -); for suppletive $\hbar\pi$ ριάμην \rightarrow 13.32 n.1, 13.50
	buy		ἐωνήθην			

Word Formation

Introduction

- Ancient Greek had a wide variety of means to form new words. Two main processes of word formation may be distinguished:
 - Derivation: the addition of suffixes to a root (→23.2) to derive a new nominal or verbal form. In English, cf. e.g. singer, writer, driver, formed with the suffix -er added to a verbal root (sing, write, drive) to form nouns indicating 'someone (habitually) performing the activity of . . .' (so-called 'agent nouns', see below); childish, foolish, formed with the suffix -ish added to nouns (child, fool) to form adjectives; childishly, foolishly, with -ly to form adverbs from adjectives; childishness, foolishness, with -ness to form nouns from adjectives indicating 'the condition of being . . .'; etc.
 - Composition: the combination of two (or more) nominal or verbal roots to form a new nominal or verbal form. Compound forms are opposed to simplex (non-compound) forms.
 - In English, cf. e.g. sunrise (sun + rise), headache (head + ache); washing machine, car radio, etc.
- 23.2 The basis for word-forming processes are not words as such, but **roots**. Thus, the Greek root κρι- (signifying 'decision', 'judgement') is the base of the derived nouns ἡ κρίσις judgement, decisive moment, ὁ κριτής judge, τὸ κριτήριον means for judging, court; of the adjective κριτικός, -ἡ, -όν critical, judging; and of the verb κρίνω decide, judge (<*κρί-ν-νω, →12.28, 12.30 n.2).

Similarly, the compound noun δ $\nu\alpha\nu\pi\eta\gamma\delta\varsigma$ *shipbuilder* is composed of the two roots $\nu\alpha\nu$ - and $\pi\eta\gamma$ -, also present in the noun $\dot{\eta}$ $\nu\alpha\tilde{\nu}\varsigma$ *ship* and the verb $\pi\dot{\eta}\gamma\nu\nu\mu\iota$ *affix, fasten*.

Note 1: Strictly speaking, nouns such as κρίσις and κριτής combine the root κρι- with the suffixes $-\sigma_1$ - $-\sigma_{\epsilon}(y)$ - and $-\tau\bar{\alpha}$ -, respectively, followed by the nominal case *ending* $-\varsigma$ (itself originally a suffix). The parts κρισι-/κρισε(y)- and κριτ $\bar{\alpha}$ - are (nominal) *stems*. Below, endings are treated as part of derivational suffixes. For nominal stems and endings, $\rightarrow 2$.

Note 2: In addition to derivation and composition (and the introduction of entirely new words, i.e. new roots), the vocabulary of a language also changes by the addition of new *uses* and/or *meanings* to existing words; these are not discussed here.

Note 3: Although they often overlap, roots may be distinguished from nominal or verbal stems in that the latter can have elaborations. Thus, the verb stem $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon$ - which serves as the basis for all forms of the verb $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon \omega$ educate, and which itself is elaborated in specific tense-aspect stems, such as aor. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon \omega (\alpha)$ -, aor. pass. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon \theta \eta$ -, pf. act. $\pi\epsilon\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon \upsilon \kappa$ -, etc., derives from the root $\pi\alpha i\delta$ - ('child') and an elaboration -ευ-. In the case of certain types of verbal conjugation, such as the present of 'primitive' verbs ($\rightarrow 12.24$ n.1, 12.42) and root aorists ($\rightarrow 13.40$ -1), the stem used is an unelaborated root without any kind of suffix (e.g. root aorist ξ - σ τ η - ν , using the root σ τ η - as aorist stem).

23.3 The greater part of the Greek vocabulary consists of words that are in one way or another the product of word formation along the lines discussed above. Few words, in fact, consist of just a root (and case endings, where applicable). Examples of such **root nouns** are: ἡ χείρ hand, arm, τὸ πῦρ fire, ἡ γῆ land, earth, ὁ ἰχθῦς fish (with nom. sg. ending -ς), ὁ γύψ vulture (with nom. sg. ending -ς).

The main suffixes and principles involved in Greek word formation are treated below. For fuller treatments, the works referenced in the Bibliography at the end of this book may be consulted.

Nominal Word Formation

Nominal Word Formation by Means of Derivation

The following sections deal with the **derivation of nouns and adjectives**: some specific terminology concerning different kinds of nouns is treated first.

Some Terminology Concerning Nouns

Abstract nouns refer to ideas, emotions, concepts, etc., not to physical entities; in English e.g. *love*, *justice*, *kingship*.

Concrete nouns refer to specific entities (typically, but not necessarily, physical entities which can be observed by the senses), in English e.g. *lover*, *judge*, *kingdom*.

- (**De**)**verbal nouns** are nouns that are derived from a verbal root. Such nouns may refer, among other things:
 - to an action, process or event itself: action/event nouns, in English e.g. investigation (from the verbal root investigat-), the <u>building</u> of the wall (from the root build-);
 - to the entity performing an action: **agent nouns**, e.g. *investigator*, builder;
 - to the result or effect of an action: **result/effect/object nouns**, e.g. *dent*, *scratch*, *a stone building*.

List of Derivational Suffixes

23.7 Below follows a list, in alphabetical order, of the most common suffixes that are involved in the derivation of nouns and adjectives. The list predominantly contains suffixes that are found in classical Attic prose and in Herodotus. Some less frequent suffixes are printed in smaller type.

Note 1: If the accentuation of a particular type of (simplex, i.e. non-compound) derived noun or adjective is regular (and persistent, \rightarrow 24.21), this is usually indicated below (on the suffix itself or in the accompanying explanation).

Note 2: The suffixes of participles and infinitives are not included systematically in this list; for their formation, $\rightarrow 11.16$, 11.31-3. Verbal adjectives in $-\tau \acute{e}o_{\varsigma}$ and $-\tau \acute{o}_{\varsigma}$, however, are treated in this chapter: $\rightarrow 23.29$, 23.34.

23.8 -ἀ/-ἡ (accentuation varies): forms feminine action nouns:

```
    ἀρχή reign; beginning
    γραφή writing, indictment
    μάχη fight(ing)
    θέα seeing, sight
    (ἄρχω reign, rule; begin)
    (γράφω write, γράφομαι indict)
    (μάχομαι fight)
    (θεάομαι gaze, view)
```

If the corresponding verb shows e-grade ablaut in the present stem, the noun usually shows the o-grade (\rightarrow 1.55):

```
    (δια)φθορά destruction
    πομπή escort, procession
    σπουδή haste, speed
    τροφή nurture, rearing; nourishment
    but φυγή flight, exile (zero grade)
    (δια)φθείρω destroy)
    (πέμπω send, conduct)
    (σπεύδω make haste)
    (τρέφω nurture, rear, cause to grow)
    (φεύγω flee, escape)
```

- *-yα: frequent suffix forming **feminine** forms of the following types of adjectives and participles:
 - adjectives in -υς (→5.21-2): e.g. ἡδεῖα sweet (<*ἡδέρ-yα; with masc. ἡδύς, -έος);
 - ν-stem adjectives (→5.23-4): e.g. μέλαινα dark (<*μέλαν-yα; with masc. μέλας,
 -ανος); also with the adjective μάκαρ blessed (stem in ρ), poetic μάκαιρα (<*μάκαρ-yα; →5.32);
 - ντ-stem adjectives/participles (→5.15–18): πᾶσα every, all (<*πάντ-yα; with masc. πᾶς, παντός);
 - perfect active participles ($\rightarrow 5.20 \text{ n.1}$).
 - *-y α also forms feminine counterparts to masculine agent nouns, of different types (these nouns are all recessive, \rightarrow 24.27):
 - consonant stems: e.g. ἄνασσα queen, lady (<*ἄνακ(τ)-yα, cf. masc. ἄναξ lord), Φοίνισσα Phoenician woman (cf. masc. Φοῖνιξ Phoenician; in later

- Greek -ισσα became a frequent suffix in its own right, e.g. βασίλισσα *queen*);
- nouns ending in -εύς (→23.15): e.g. βασίλεια queen (<*βασίλης-yα, cf. βασιλεύς king), ἱέρεια priestess (cf. ἱερεύς priest);
- nouns ending in -τήρ (→23.30): e.g. σώτειρα (female) saviour (<*σώτερ-yα, cf. σωτήρ saviour).
- 23.10 -ἀς, -ἀδος: forms masculine and feminine agent nouns, e.g. φυγάς fugitive, exile (φεύγω flee, escape), αἱ Κυκλάδες (νῆσοι) the Cyclades ('the encircling islands').
- 23.11 -εία (Ion. -είη):
 - This suffix forms (mostly abstract) action nouns, alongside verbs in -εύω:

παιδεία training and teaching, education (παιδεύω educate)
πολιτεία administration, (form of) government (πολιτεύω, -ομαι be a citizen, govern)
βασιλεία kingdom, monarchy (βασιλεύω be king, rule)

Also, feminine abstract nouns from third-declension adjectives in -ής were formed originally in -εία: in Ionic this changed to -είη (→25.15 n.1), but in Attic these nouns end in -εια (they were analogically assimilated to fem. forms such as ἡδεῖα, βασίλεια):

ἀλήθειὰ truth(fulness), Ion. ἀληθείη (ἀληθής true) ἀσέβειὰ impiety, Ion. ἀσεβείη (ἀσεβής impious)

These nouns are recessive (\rightarrow 24.13, 24.27).

23.12 -εῖον: forms neuter nouns denoting a *location*, from nominal stems:

καπηλεῖον shop, tavern (κάπηλος dealer) χαλκεῖον forge, smithy (χαλκεύς (copper)smith)

- 23.13 -εις, -εσσα, -εν (declension →5.25): suffix forming adjectives expressing 'rich in . . .' or '. . .-ful'; mainly poetic: e.g. δακρυόεις tearful (δάκρυ/δάκρυον tear), τιμήεις honoured (τιμή honour).
- 23.14 $-\dot{\epsilon}o\varsigma$, $-\dot{\epsilon}\bar{\alpha}$, $-\dot{\epsilon}o\nu$: see $-o\tilde{\upsilon}\varsigma$, $\rightarrow 23.26$.
- 23.15 -εύς, -έως (declension →4.84-5): forms masculine agent nouns, from nominal stems; the general meaning of -εύς is '(professionally) occupies himself with ...':

ίερεὑς priest (ἱερά offerings)

συγγραφεὑς prose writer (συγγραφή prose writing)
χαλκεὑς (copper)smith (χαλκός copper)

Note 1: A few nouns in -εύς are 'primitive', i.e. non-derived agent nouns, e.g. βασιλεύς *king*, έρμηνεύς *interpreter*.

Note 2: The suffix -εύς is also found in proper names: ἀτρεύς, ἀχιλλεύς, Ὀδυσσεύς, Τυδεύς, etc., and in adjectives indicating geographical origin: ἀλικαρνασσεύς from Halicarnassus, Μεγαρεύς from Megara, ἀχαρνεύς from (the deme of) Acharnae.

23.16 -iā: forms abstract nouns denoting qualities or properties, from other nouns or from adjectives:

ἐλευθερία freedom, liberty (ἐλεύθερος free) ἡγεμονία leadership, authority, supremacy (ἡγεμών ruler, guide) σοφία cleverness, wisdom (σοφός wise)

Note 1: Where a corresponding verb exists, forms in -ία may also have action noun or result noun meaning, e.g. in ἀδικία *unjust act* (as well as *injustice*) (ἀδικέω *act unjustly*).

23.17 -ικός, -ή, -όν: productive suffix used to form adjectives from nouns, with the general meaning 'pertaining to ...', often 'skilled in ...', 'occupying oneself with ...':

γραμματικός expert in letters; grammarian (γράμμα letter) ἱππικός of a horse; skilled in riding (ἵππος horse) ποιητικός capable of making, creative (ποιητής maker, poet) φυσικός natural, concerning nature, (φύσις nature)

physical

Feminine forms (in -ική) often have the meaning 'the art of ...', with or without τέχνη added: ἡ γραμματική (τέχνη) (the art of) grammar, ἡ ἱππική (τέχνη) the art of horse riding, ἡ ποιητική (τέχνη) the art of poetry, etc.

23.18 -10v: forms neuter nouns from nominal roots, with various meanings: 'place where', 'part of', 'made of'. The general meaning is: 'denotes an object or action related to . . .' (cf. -105 below). These nouns are recessive if they have more than three syllables (accentuation varies in trisyllabic nouns):

τὰ Διονύσια festival of Dionysus
ἀργύριον silver coin, money
(ἄργυρος silver)
(χρυσίον piece of gold
(χρυσός gold)
(γυμνάσιον exercise; (gymnastic) school
συμπόσιον drinking-party
(συμπότης fellow-drinker)

-ιον is also used as a **diminutive** suffix: alone, or with enlargements (-άριον, -ίδιον, -ύλλιον), the suffix forms diminutive nouns, denoting a small specimen or used as a term of affection or depreciation:

ληκύθιον small oil-flask
οἰκίδιον small house
παιδίον small or young child
παιδάριον small child
(παῖς child)

ἐπύλλιον short (epic) poem (ἔπος word, epic poem)

23.19 -ιος, -ια, -ιον (also -αιος; -ειος, Ion. -ἡϊος): forms adjectives from a variety of nominal roots. The general meaning of the suffix is: 'belonging to . . . ', 'pertaining to . . . ':

πάτριος derived from one's fathers, hereditary (πατήρ father) ἀναγκαῖος necessary, inevitable (ἀνάγκη necessity) δίκαιος lawful, just (δίκη justice)

όμοῖος like, resembling (ὁμός one and the same)

οἰκεῖος of the house, personal, private (οἶκος house)

- 23.20 -ίσκος, -ίσκη: forms diminutive nouns (cf. -1ον, →23.18), e.g. ἀνθρωπίσκος little person (ἄνθρωπος person), νεανίσκος youth, young man (νεανίας young man), παιδίσκη young girl, young female slave (παῖς child, slave).
- 23.21 -μα, -ματος (declension →4.40): a frequent suffix which forms neuter effect/result nouns; often in the form -ημα. As neuter third-declension nouns, they are recessive (→24.28):

γράμμα line (drawn), (written) character, letter (γράφω write) μάθημα (what is learnt) lesson (μανθάνω learn) πρᾶγμα deed, thing, affair (πράττω do) χρῆμα thing (used); esp. pl. χρήματα (χρήομαι use) property, goods, money

23.22 -μός, -μοῦ: forms masculine action nouns, particularly from verbs with a stem in a velar consonant:

διωγμός chase, pursuit (διώκω chase, pursue) όλολυγμός loud cry (όλολύζω cry out)

The suffix also occurs frequently in the form $-\sigma\mu\dot{o}_{S}$ with nouns derived from verbs in $-\dot{\alpha}\zeta\omega$ or $-\dot{\zeta}\omega$ (i.e. with a stem in δ: $-\delta\mu\dot{o}_{S} > -\sigma\mu\dot{o}_{S}$, $\rightarrow 1.90$):

ἐνθουσιασμός inspiration, frenzy, (ἐνθουσιάζω be inspired/inspire)

enthusiasm

λογισμός counting, calculation; (λογίζομαι calculate)

reasoning

μηδισμός conspiracy/sympathy (μηδίζω conspire/sym-

with the Persians pathize with the Persians)

From the late fifth century onward it was especially frequent in the form $-i\sigma\mu\dot{o}\varsigma$ (corresponding to verbs in $-i\zeta\omega$), notably in technical terms (from medicine, philosophy, linguistics, literary and historical studies, etc.):

ἀττικισμός loyalty to Athens; later: (ἀττικίζω side with the
Attic style Athenians; later: use Attic)
βαρβαρισμός use of a foreign language (βε)ὀστρακισμός ostracism (ὀστρακίζω ostracize)

-os, -ou: forms masculine action nouns. These nouns are normally paroxytone (→24.5). If the corresponding verb shows e-grade ablaut in the present stem, the noun usually shows the o-grade (→1.55):

λόγος reckoning, account; reasoning, speech (λέγω say) πλοῦς/πλόος sailing, voyage (πλέω sail) πόνος toil, labour (πένομαι toil, work) στόλος equipment; journey (στέλλω fit out, dispatch) τόκος childbirth; offspring (τίκτω, ἔτεκον give birth) τρόπος direction, way (of acting, behaving) (τρέπω, -ομαι turn around) φόρος payment, tribute (φέρω bear, offer, present) ψόγος blame, censure (ψέγω blame, censure)

23.24 - $\delta \varsigma$, -o $\tilde{\upsilon}$: forms masculine agent nouns. If the corresponding verb shows e-grade ablaut in the present stem, the noun usually shows the o-grade ($\rightarrow 1.55$):

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ἀοιδός singer (ἀείδω sing)
σκοπός spy, lookout (σκέπτομαι look, examine)
τροφός feeder, rearer; esp. ἡ τροφός wet-nurse (τρέφω feed, nourish)

In compounds (also →23.37–40, and →24.29 for accentuation):
οἰκοδόμος architect ('house-builder') (οἶκος house + δέμω build, construct)
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- 23.25 -os, -ous (σ -stem nouns, declension \rightarrow 4.65): this suffix forms neuter nouns:
 - Nouns in -o₅ are often deverbal, denoting an object or condition involved in the verbal action:

βέλος missile, arrow (what is thrown) (βάλλω throw) γένος race, offspring; class (γίγνομαι become, be born) εἶδος form (what is seen) (εἶδον (aor.) saw) ἔπος word (what is said) (εἶπον (aor.) said) θέρος summer (<heat) (θέρομαι become hot) πάθος suffering, experience (what (πάσχω, aor. ἔπαθον suffer, is suffered) experience) ψεῦδος lie, falsehood (ψεύδομαι lie)

Note 1: In principle, these nouns do not denote a result, which is rather expressed by nouns in - $\mu\alpha$ ($\rightarrow 23.21$). But the distinction should not be pressed: thus, both $\pi \dot{\alpha} \theta \sigma_{\zeta}$ and $\pi \dot{\alpha} \theta \eta \mu \alpha$ are used for 'what one suffers' ($\pi \dot{\alpha} \theta \eta \mu \alpha$ is preferred in technical prose writing, $\pi \dot{\alpha} \theta \sigma_{\zeta}$ in poetry).

- -os is also used in the formation of various other neuter nouns:

αἶσχος disgrace, ugliness (cf. αἰσχρός disgraceful, ugly)

ἔχθος hate
 κάλλος beauty
 μέγεθος greatness, magnitude
 τάχος speed, velocity
 (cf. καλός beautiful)
 (cf. μέγας great, large)
 (cf. ταχύς quick)

These nouns are all recessive, as are all neuter third-declension nouns (\rightarrow 24.28).

- 23.26 -οῦς, -ᾶ, -οῦν (contracted from -έος, etc., declension →5.5; Ion. -έος, -έη, -έον): forms adjectives of material, e.g. ἀργυροῦς (of) silver (ἄργυρος silver), χρυσοῦς gold(en) (χρυσός gold).
- 23.27 $-\sigma_{15}$, $-\epsilon\omega_{5}$ (declension $\rightarrow 4.74$): the most productive action noun suffix: it could be added to virtually any verbal root, especially in the formation of a technical or scientific vocabulary. Such nouns are feminine, and recessive:

ἀκρόασις the listening to; also lecture (ἀκροάομαι listen) γένεσις generation, coming into being (γίγνομαι become, be born) κρίσις decision, judgement; critical point (κρίνω decide) (λύω release, loosen) λύσις releasing, solution (μανθάνω learn) μάθησις (the act of) learning ποίησις fabrication, production; poetry (ποιέω make, do) πρᾶξις doing, act(ion), performance (πράττω make, do, act) σκέψις examination, consideration (σκέπτομαι look, examine)

Note 1: In principle, these words do not denote a result, which is rather expressed by nouns in $-\mu\alpha$ (see above). But the distinction should not be pressed: thus, both $\pi\circ i\eta\sigma_{i}$ ('a(n act of) producing') and $\pi\circ i\eta\mu\alpha$ ('a production') may be used for 'what is made' (there is nonetheless a difference: $\pi\circ i\eta\mu\alpha$ is a countable noun (cf. Engl. *a poem*), whereas $\pi\circ i\eta\sigma_{i}$ is a mass noun (cf. Engl. *poetry*).

23.28 -σύνη: forms a small number of abstract nouns, mostly from adjectives in -ων, -ονος, especially -φρων and -μων:

σωφροσύνη prudence, self-control (σώφρων prudent) ἀπραγμοσύνη easy-goingness (ἀπράγμων easy-going) μνημοσύνη mindfulness, memory (μνήμων mindful)

Other nouns were formed by analogy, e.g. δικαιο-σύνη righteousness (δικαιός just).

23.29 -τέος, -τέα, -τέον: forms verbal adjectives expressing passive necessity (for the use of these adjectives, \rightarrow 37.2-3). The suffix is added directly to the verb stem:

παιδευτέος to be educated (παιδεύω educate, verb stem παιδευ-) γραπτέος to be written (γράφω write, verb stem γραφ-; for πτ

(assimilation), \rightarrow 1.89)

φυλακτέος to be guarded (φυλάττω guard, verb stem φυλακ-)

κομιστέος to be brought (κομίζω bring, verb stem κομιδ-; for $\sigma\tau$, \rightarrow 1.89)

With verb stems that have ablaut variants, the full e-grade is typically used; with verb stems alternating between a long and a short final stem vowel, the long vowel is used (\rightarrow 11.11):

φευκτέος to be fled (φεύγω flee, verb stem φευγ-/φῦγ-) λειπτέος to be left (λείπω leave, verb stem λειπ-/λοιπ-/λῖπ-) ποιητέος to be done, made (ποιέω do, make, verb stem ποιη-/ποιε-) τιμητέος to be honoured (τιμάω honour, verb stem τιμη-/τιμά-)

- 23.30 -τήρ, -τῆρος (declension, →4.55-7): forms masculine agent nouns, especially in dialects other than Attic. In Attic, -τής is preferred, and -τήρ is virtually confined to tragedy, predominantly in words borrowed from Homer. Some examples are ἀροτήρ ploughman (ἀρόω plough), δοτήρ giver, dispenser (δίδωμι give), σωτήρ saviour (σώζω save). Also in κρατήρ mixing vessel, bowl (κεράννυμι mix).
- 23.31 -τήριον, -ου: forms concrete nouns denoting instruments and locations; originally formed from agent nouns in -τήρ and the suffix -ιον (for both, see above); in Attic frequently corresponding to an agent noun in -τής:

ποτήριον drinking cup (πίνω, θη-aor. ἐπόθην drink)

δικαστής judge, member of jury;, cf. δικάζω be a judge)

χρηστήριον oracle (cf. χρήω give an oracle)

23.32 - $\tau\eta$ s, -ou (declension, \rightarrow 4.8-10; accentuation varies): forms masculine agent nouns:

θεᾶτής spectator(θεάομαι gaze, view)κριτής judge(κρίνω decide)ποιητής maker, poet(ποιέω make)

σοφιστής expert, wise man, sophist (σοφίζομαι be wise, be clever)

ύφάντης weaver (ύφαίνω weave)

23.33 -της, -τητος (declension, →4.40–1; accentuation varies): forms feminine abstract nouns denoting qualities or properties, from adjectives in -oς or -υς; the general meaning is 'the quality/property of being . . .':

κακότης badness, wickedness (κακός bad, wicked) λευκότης whiteness (λευκός white) ταὐτότης identity (τὸ αὐτό the same) ταχυτής quickness, velocity (ταχύς quick)

23.34 -τός, -τή, -τόν: forms verbal adjectives expressing a passive state or passive possibility (for the use of these adjectives, →37.4). The formation is directly analogous to that of adjectives in -τέος (→23.29 above), with the suffix added directly to the verb stem:

παιδευτός teachable (παιδεύω educate, verb stem παιδευ-)
 φευκτός avoidable (φεύγω flee, verb stem φευγ-/φῦγ-)
 ποιητός done, made (ποιέω do, make, verb stem ποιη-/ποιε-)

Note 1: When such adjectives are built on a compound stem, accentuation can vary, sometimes with a corresponding difference of meaning: e.g. διαλυτός capable of dissolution, διάλυτος relaxed (δια-λύω dissolve). For accentuation of compound adjectives more generally, $\rightarrow 24.29$.

23.35 -τρον, -ου (accentuation varies): forms concrete deverbal neuter nouns denoting instruments and locations:

κάτοπτρον mirror (καθοράω spot, see) σκῆπτρον staff (σκήπτομαι lean on) θέατρον theatre ('viewer-place') (θεάομαι gaze, view) λουτρόν bath (λούω wash, bathe)

23.36 -ών, -ῶνος (declension →4.49; Ion. -εών, -εῶνος): forms masculine nouns denoting locations from nominal roots, e.g. ἀνδρών, -ῶνος men's apartment (ἀνήρ man), παρθενών, -ῶνος maiden's apartment (παρθένος maiden).

Nominal Word Formation by Means of Composition

Compound Adjectives with Nominal/Adverbial Element + Nominal Element

23.37 The first member in these compounds qualifies the second. The first member may be the root of a noun or adjective, a numeral, a preposition, or an adverbial prefix (e.g. δυσ-, εὐ-). Some examples:

μεγαλόψυχος high-souled, generous (μέγας great, large, ψυχή soul)
Πολυκράτης Polycrates ('having (πολύς much, great, κράτος power)
much power')
πενταέτης five-year-long (πέντε five, ἔτος year)
ἔνθεος inspired ('having a (ἐν in, θεός god)
god within')

temper')

περίφοβος very frightened ('having exceeding (περί exceeding, φόβος fear) fear')
δυστυχής unfortunate ('with a bad fate') (δυσ- bad-, ill-, τύχη fate) εὐμενής well-disposed, kind ('with a good (εὖ well, μένος purpose, force)

To this category belong also adjectives with so-called **privative** $\dot{\alpha}$ - (before consonant) or $\dot{\alpha} v$ - (before vowel), with the general meaning 'not' (cf. Engl. un-, a-, im-):

ἄδικος unjust (ἀ-, δίκη justice)
ἀθάνατος immortal (ἀ-, θάνατος death)
ἀνάξιος unworthy (ἀν-, ἀξία worth, value)

Note 1: $\delta u \sigma$ - and $\dot{\alpha}$ -/ $\dot{\alpha} v$ - do not exist outside compounds.

Note 2: There are also compound nouns in which the first member qualifies the second member in this way: ἀκρόπολις, ἡ *citadel* (the highest part of the city; ἀκρός, πόλις); σύνδουλος *fellow-slave* (σύν, δοῦλος); τρίπους *tripod* (τρεῖς, πούς).

A few compound nouns have a nominal case form as first member, e.g. Διόσκουροι Zeus' sons (Διός gen. sg. of Ζεύς), Ἑλλήσποντος Hellespont ('Helle's sea'; "Ελλης gen. sg. of "Ελλη).

23.38 A special case is that of compound adjectives, and some nouns, of the type παράδοξος. These compounds can be considered nominalizations of prepositional phrases: παράδοξος incredible, unexpected is the adjectival form of the prepositional phrase παρὰ δόξαν contrary to expectation. Some further examples:

ἐγκέφαλος, ὁ brain
(ἐν κεφαλῆ in the head)
 ἐκποδών (adverb) out of the way, away
ἐπιχώριος (being) in or of the country, local
σύμφωνος agreeing in sound, harmonious
φροῦδος gone, vanished
(ἐκ ποδῶν away from the feet)
(ἐπὶ χώρα in the country)
(σύν φωνῆ together with the sound)
 φροῦδος gone, vanished

Note 1: Such adjectives may also be based on noun phrases, e.g. πολυχρόνιος *long lasting*, based on πολύν χρόνον *for a long time*.

Compound Forms with Verbal Element + Nominal Element

23.39 In these compounds the second (nominal) member fulfils the role of object to the first (verbal) member. The first member ends in:

- o:

λιποτάξιον, τό desertion (λείπω leave, τάξις position) φιλόσοφος loving wisdom (φιλέω love, σοφία wisdom) φιλότιμος loving honour, ambitious (φιλέω love, τιμή honour)

Also with elision of o:

μισ-/φιλάνθρωπος hating/loving mankind

(μισέω hate / φιλέω love, ἄνθρωπος man, person)

- ε (mainly poetic):

έλέπ(τ)ολις city-destroying

(αίρέω, aor. εἶλον take, πόλις city)

- σ_1 (cf. action nouns in - σ_{15} , $\rightarrow 23.27$):

λυσιτελής *profitable* ('paying expenses') Πεισίστρατος Pisistratus

(λύω loosen, resolve τέλος payment) (πείθω persuade, στρατός army)

Compound Forms with Nominal/Adverbial Element + Verbal Element

23.40 To this category belong several groups of nouns and adjectives:

- Agent nouns, and adjectives referring to either the agent or the object of an action. When such nouns or adjectives refer to the agent, the first (nominal) part fulfils the role of object or instrument to the second (verbal) part. The verbal root occurs in the o-grade if it has different ablaut variants $(\to 1.55)$:

δορυφόρος spear-bearer, bodyguard οἰκοδόμος (house)builder, architect στρατηγός commander of an army, (δόρυ spear, φέρω bear) (οἶκος house, δέμω build, construct)

(στρατός army, ἄγω lead)

general

λιθοβόλος throwing stones, λιθόβολος

(λίθος stone, βάλλω throw, hit)

hit by stones

'Ολυμπιονίκης conqueror in the

(Ὀλύμπια Olympia, νικάω win)

Olympic games

Note 1: Compound nouns and adjectives in -o5 of this type normally have the accent on the verbal part (i.e. they are oxytone or paroxytone) when they refer to the agent: e.g. λιθοβόλος throwing stones, ψυχοπομπός guide of souls, λαιμοτόμος throat-cutting (but note exceptions such as ἡνίοχος rein-holder, ἵππαρχος commander of horses); they are recessive when they refer to the object: λιθόβολος hit by stones, stoned, λαιμότομος with throat cut.

- Agent nouns, with a second member formed with the suffix $-\tau \eta \varsigma$ ($\rightarrow 23.32$):

ἐπιστάτης overseer, one who is set over νομοθέτης lawgiver προδότης traitor

(ἐφίσταμαι come to stand over) (νόμος law, τίθημι put in place) (προδίδωμι betray)

- Adjectives with passive meaning, from verbal adjectives in -τoς (for such adjectives, →23.34):

δοριάλωτος taken by the spear, taken (δόρυ spear, άλίσκομαι be taken)

in war

περίρρυτος surrounded with water (περί around, ῥέω flow)

σύμμεικτος commingled (σύν together, μείγνυμι mix)

εὔγνωστος well-known; easily known, (εὖ well, γιγνώσκω know, recognize)

easy to know

ἄβατος impassable; not to be trodden (ά-, βαίνω go)

Verbal Word Formation

Many of the suffixes involved in the formation of Greek verbs are treated in the chapters on verbal morphology (→11 for thematic vowels, the optative suffix, the augment, reduplication, endings, etc.; and the relevant chapters for suffixes marking tense-aspect). Below, some further details are given on the processes involved in the formation of **denominative verbs** (verbs derived from nominal stems), and on **compound verbs**.

Denominative Verbs Formed with *-yw

- 23.42 The suffix *-y\omega was used to derive many (present stems of) denominative verbs:
 - verbs derived from a nominal stem ending in a vowel (i.e. contract verbs in -έω, -άω, -όω and -ἡω); these verbs were contracted in Attic after the disappearance of y (→1.76, 12.29);
 - verbs derived from a nominal stem ending in a consonant.

Note 1: -ω verbs like λέγω, λείπω, πείθω, πέμπω, τρέχω, and many other so-called 'non-derived' or 'primitive' verbs, are formed without a suffix: thematic vowels/endings follow directly after the root (\rightarrow 12.24 n.1).

Verbs Formed with *-y\omega from Nominal Stems Ending in a Vowel

23.43 -ἀω/-ἀομαι: from nominal stems in $\bar{\alpha}/\eta$ (i.e. first-declension nouns): e.g. τιμάω honour (<*-ᾱyω; cf. τιμή honour); the ᾱ was shortened in the formation of the present stem (not elsewhere: e.g. aor. ἐτίμησα, fut. τιμήσω, pf. τετίμηκα; all with Att. $\bar{\alpha} > \eta$, $\rightarrow 1.57$). Other examples:

νικάω win, be victorious (νίκη victory)

μηχανάομαι contrive by design (μηχανή contrivance, scheme)

θηράω hunt, chase (θήρα hunting, chase)

αἰτιάομαι accuse (αἰτία cause)

Note 1: There are also a few primitive presents in $-\dot{\alpha}\omega$, where the endings follow directly after the root e.g. $\delta p \dot{\alpha} \omega do$.

Note 2: A few verbs in -άω derive from σ-stems rather than a stem ending in $\bar{\alpha}/\eta$, e.g. $\gamma \epsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \omega$ laugh <* $\gamma \epsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma$ -yω ($\rightarrow 12.29$ n.1). The σ of the stem has, with such verbs, usually left traces in other tense stems: e.g. aor. ἐγέλασα (epic aor. ἐγέλασσα, $\rightarrow 13.18$), fut. $\gamma \epsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \omega \omega$ ($\rightarrow 15.19$), etc.

23.44 -έω/-έομαι:

- <*-έyω, from the e-grade of thematic nominal stems (i.e. second-declension nouns in oς): e.g. οἰκέω *inhabit* (<*(ϵ)οικέyω, cf. οἶκος *house*); the stem was lengthened in other tenses (e.g. aor. ὤκησα, fut. οἰκήσω), by analogy with the -ἀω type and verbs such as φιλέω (→n.1 below). Some further examples:

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κοσμέω order, arrange, adorn (κόσμος order)
νοσέω be ill (νόσος illness)
ἀριθμέω count (ἀριθμός number)
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There are, however, also numerous denominative verbs in $-\epsilon\omega/-\epsilon\omega\mu\alpha$ deriving from other nominal stems, including stems ending in a consonant:

- -έω<*-έσγω, from the stem in εσ of neuter nouns in ος: e.g. τελέω finish
 (<*τελέσγω, cf. τέλος end); for such verbs, also →12.29 n.1;
- other stems: e.g. μαρτυρέω bear witness, give evidence (cf. μάρτυς witness, gen. μάρτυρ-ος).

Further examples:

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μισέω hate (μῖσος, -ους hatred)
εὐδαιμονέω be prosperous, be happy (εὐδαίμων, -ονος happy)
ὑπηρετέω serve (ὑπηρέτης servant)
φωνέω speak out (φωνή voice)
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Note 1: Numerous verbs in -έω probably derive from original stative verbs in *-ήνω, built on the suffix -η- (cf. η-aorists, \rightarrow 14): e.g. φιλέω love (<*φιλ-ήνω), ἀλγέω feel pain (<*ἀλγ-ήνω); the 'original' η is still visible in aor. ἐφίλησα, fut. φιλήσω, pf. πεφίληκα, etc. (it was shortened in the present stem).

Note 2: With a few verbs in -έω deriving from a stem in εσ, such as τελέω finish, the σ of the original stem has left traces in other tense stems: e.g. aor. ἐτέλεσα (epic aor. ἐτέλεσα, \rightarrow 13.18), θη-aor. ἐτελέσθην (\rightarrow 14.16), Attic fut. τελῶ (sometimes τελέσω; \rightarrow 15.19), etc. But with other such verbs the conjugation is fully like that of the standard -έω type, e.g. μισέω, aor. ἐμίσησα, etc.

Note 3: There are also some verbs in -έω that are derived from other verbs; they show o-ablaut in their stem and have intensive-frequentative meaning: e.g. σκοπέω, -ομαι behold, consider (σκέπτομαι look, examine), and φορέω carry habitually (φέρω carry).

Note 4: A few verbs in -έω are primitive (i.e. non-derived); these have always lost $_{\mathsf{F}}$, $_{\mathsf{G}}$, or $_{\mathsf{G}}$ after $_{\mathsf{E}}$: e.g. ῥέω $_{\mathsf{F}}$ $_{\mathsf{G}}$ $_{\mathsf{G}$

Note 5: For $-\epsilon\omega$ forming compound verbs, $\rightarrow 23.50$.

23.45 -ὁω/-ὁομαι: from nominal stems in o. These verbs generally have **factitive** meaning (make . . .), and are mostly built on (second-declension) **adjectives** in -os; e.g. δηλόω make clear, show, make manifest (<*δηλόyω, cf. δῆλος manifest). Some other examples:

ἀξιόω think worthy, claimἐλευθερόω set freeἀξιος worthy)ἐλεύθερος free)

Some are built on nouns in -os:

δουλόω enslave (δοῦλος slave, possibly originally an adj.)

στεφανόω (give a) crown (στέφανος crown, garland)

Note 1: Note pairs like factitive δουλόω *enslave* as against stative δουλεύω *be a slave*.

23.46 Verbs in -εύω were originally the result of denominative formations in based on nouns in -εύς (→4.84–5); later -εύω became a productive suffix in its own right, used also to form verbs from other noun types. Verbs in -εύω often have stative meaning:

βασιλεύω be king (βασιλεύς king) ἀγορεύω speak in public (ἀγορά marketplace) δουλεύω be a slave (δοῦλος slave) παιδεύω educate (παῖς child)

Verbs Formed with *-yω from Nominal Stems Ending in a Consonant

23.47 When combined with a nominal stem ending in other consonants, the y of the suffix *-y ω led to varying results, for instance:

άρπάζω snatch away, seize <*άρπάγ-yω (cf. άρπαγ-ή seizure)
ἐλπίζω expect, hope <*ἐλπίδ-yω (ἐλπίς, -ίδος hope)
ἀγγέλλω report, bear a message <*ἀγγέλ-yω (cf. ἄγγελ-ος messenger)
παίζω play <*παίδ-yω (παῖς, παιδός child)
ταράττω stir, trouble <*ταράχ-yω (cf. ταραχή disturbance)

For the sound changes involved, $\rightarrow 1.77-8$; for a fuller overview of these present stems, $\rightarrow 12.27-8$.

Note 1: There are also verbs in this group which are not denominative, e.g. φράζω *point out, explain* ($<^*φράδ-yω$), βαίνω *go, walk* ($<^*βάν-yω$), φαίνω *show* ($<^*φάν-yω$).

- 23.48 Several of these formations resulted in newly productive suffixes:
 - The formations in -άζω and -ίζω were the basis for the development of -άζω and -ίζω as suffixes in their own right, which were used to form a large number of denominative verbs:

ἀναγκάζω force (ἀνάγκη necessity) (γυμνός naked) γυμνάζω exercise θαυμάζω marvel at, admire (θαῦμα wonder) εὐδαιμονίζω call/consider happy (εὐδαίμων happy) κουφίζω make light, lighten (κοῦφος light) λογίζομαι count, reckon; consider (λόγος reckoning) έλληνίζω speak/write pure Greek ("Ελλην Greek) νομίζω believe; have as a custom (νόμος law, custom) ύβρίζω abuse, maltreat (υβρις abuse, brutality)

Note 1: Verbs in -ίζω generally have either 'factitive' meaning ('make X Y'; e.g. κουφίζω), or meanings having to do with types of behaviour (e.g. έλληνίζω, ὑβρίζω).

Note 2: Other stems of these verbs are formed as if derived from stems in - $i\delta$ - and - $\alpha\delta$ - (that is to say, the pattern of - $i\zeta\omega$ /- $\alpha\zeta\omega$ verbs was highly regularized): e.g. aor. ἐθαύμασα, fut. λογιοῦμαι, pf. mp. ἠνάγκασμαι, etc. (for these regular principal parts, \rightarrow 22.6).

- αίνω: this suffix – originally the result of *-άνγω, e.g. εὐφραίνω make glad (<*εὐφράνγω, cf. εὔφρων) – forms verbs derived from nouns in -μα and certain adjectives in -ος and -ης:

ὀνομαίνω name, call by name (ὄνομα name)
σημαίνω show by a sign, indicate (σῆμα sign)
χαλεπαίνω be angry ('make difficulties') (χαλεπός difficult)
ὑγιαίνω be sound, be healthy (ὑγιής healthy)

- - ὑνω: used to form verbs from adjectives in - ὑς:

θρασύνω embolden, encourage (θρασύς bold) ὶθύνω make straight, straighten (ἰθύς straight) ὀξύνω sharpen (ὀξύς sharp)

Note 3: - $\dot{\nu}\nu\omega$ is also found with some nouns in -05, e.g. $\alpha i \sigma \chi \dot{\nu}\nu\omega$ disgrace, disfigure ($\alpha i \sigma \chi o c disgrace$, disfigurement).

Compound Verbs

- 23.49 There are two ways of forming compound verbs:
 - by forming denominative verbs from compound nouns and adjectives;
 - by **prefixation** of simplex verbs.

Denominative Compound Verbs from Compound Nouns/Adjectives

23.50 Several verbs are formed from compound nouns and adjectives ($\rightarrow 23.37-40$), with the suffix -έω:

οἰκοδομέω build (οἰκοδόμος architect, builder)

στρατηγέω be general (στρατηγός general)

ἐπιστατέω preside, be in charge (ἐπιστάτης president, commander)

(δυστυχής unfortunate) δυστυχέω be unfortunate

φιλοσοφέω love/pursue knowledge (φιλόσοφος lover of knowledge)

Note 1: Some verbs of this type may be construed with a direct object and can also be passivized: e.g. οἰκοδομέω γέφυραν build a bridge, οἰκοδομέομαι be built. This shows that the nominal stem of the first member (oiko-), which denotes the object of the verbal action (δέμω), was no longer felt as such in compounds such as οἰκοδομέω.

Compound Verbs Formed by Prefixation

23.51 A very large number of compound verbs are formed by **prefixation**, i.e. by prefixing one or more prepositions (preverbs) to a simplex verb or a denominative verb:

ἐκ-βαίνω go out of συν-εκ-βαίνω go out together $(\beta\alpha i\nu\omega go, walk)$ ἐμ-βιβάζω put on board μετ-εμ-βιβάζω transfer to (βιβάζω cause to go) another ship a ship κατα-τίθεμαι deposit for παρα-κατα-τίθεμαι deposit (τίθεμαι lay down one's property with another for oneself) oneself (οἰκοδομέω build)

across

παρ-οικοδομέω build

Note 1: Prefixation is the only way in which simplex verbs are compounded.

Note 2: Only compound verbs formed by prefixation are separable by an augment or κατ-ε-τιθέμην, συν-εκ-βέ-βηκα, but έ-φιλοσόφουν, (denominative compounds); also $\rightarrow 11.56$. However, when a denominative verb is formed from a compound noun which itself includes a preposition (e.g. ἐπιστατέω preside formed from ἐπιστάτης president), it is sometimes treated as if it were formed by prefixation (impf. ἐπεστάτει).

Accentuation

Introduction

24.1 Some familiarity with the basic rules of Ancient Greek accentuation is invaluable in distinguishing between different grammatical forms (e.g. ποιεῖ 3 sg. pres. act. ind., but ποίει 2 sg. pres. act. imp.), or between different words (e.g. ἤ or, than, but ἤ truly, really or 1 sg. impf. of εἰμί be; νόμος law, custom but νομός pasture, province). Below, an overview of the basic rules of Greek accentuation is given. For more comprehensive studies, see the Bibliography at the end of this book.

Note 1: For conventions regarding the placement of accents on diphthongs and capitals, $\rightarrow 1.8$.

- Ancient Greek was a pitch-accent language. Unlike English or Modern Greek, words were not pronounced with fixed emphasis (or stress) on one syllable, but with a variation in pitch (or tone) that was partially fixed and partially dependent on a word's position in its clause. Written Greek uses three accent signs to indicate these variations. Two of them are placed on the vowel of a syllable that is marked for its high pitch:
 - The acute accent, e.g. ά, οί (Greek: ὀξεῖα προσωδία) marks the syllable with the highest pitch of the word. It can be written on all short and long vowels and on diphthongs, e.g. ὅψ νοίce, ἄρα then, γένος race, ὁδός road, ἀλήθεια truth, ἥδομαι I enjoy, πορεύομαι I march.
 - The circumflex accent, e.g. α, οῖ (Greek: περισπωμένη προσωδία) also marks the syllable with the highest pitch in the word, but it is only written on long vowels and diphthongs and indicates that the highest pitch falls on the first part of the long vowel or diphthong and that the pitch lowers in the second part, e.g. παῖς child, slave, ὧδε thus, πνεῦμα breath, Περικλῆς Pericles, κακοῦργος villain, εἶμι I will go.

Note 1: If the highest pitch falls on the second part of the long vowel or diphthong, an acute accent is used, e.g. πορευώμεθα *let us march*, ηΰρομεν *we found*. The circumflex accent is always placed on the second letter of the diphthong, although it marks the high pitch of its first part. As a sign, the circumflex results from a fusion of acute and grave accent. Thus $\varepsilon \tilde{\upsilon} < \dot{\varepsilon} \dot{\upsilon}$.

The third accent sign, the **grave accent**, e.g. à, οὶ (Greek: βαρεῖα προσφδία), is conventionally written in continuous texts to replace an acute accent on the final syllable of a word if it is followed by a non-enclitic word (for enclitic words and their accentuation → 24.34, 24.38 below) without intervening punctuation, e.g. αὐτὸ τὸ θηρίον ἀγαθὸν καὶ καλόν ἐστι the wild beast itself is noble and beautiful (observe that καλόν keeps the acute accent as it is followed by enclitic ἐστι). The grave is not used on interrogative τίς and τί, even if followed by a non-enclitic word.

Note 2: There is no conclusive evidence about the pitch that is indicated by the grave accent on the last syllable; the most likely possibility is that it indicates that a syllable is pronounced on a higher pitch than the unaccented syllables of the word, but on a lower pitch than other accented syllables.

Greek also has unaccented words (enclitics and proclitics). For the specific rules applying to their accentuation, $\rightarrow 24.33-9$ below.

General Rules of Accentuation

Possible Positions of the Accent; 'Long' and 'Short' Syllables

- 24.4 Accents can only fall on one of the last three syllables of a word:
 - the **ultima**: the final syllable of a word $(x \cdot x \cdot x)$;
 - the **penult**: the second-to-last syllable of a word $(x \cdot x \cdot x)$;
 - the **antepenult**: the third-to-last syllable of a word $(x \cdot x \cdot x)$.
- 24.5 The acute may fall on any of the last three syllables of a word. The circumflex accent may fall only on the ultima or the penult. Thus the following five positions of the accent are distinguished:
 - oxytone: an acute accent on the ultima (x·x·x/x), e.g. ἀνήρ, ὀξύς, ἐπί, τιθείς, ἀγαγών, αὐτός, οὐδείς;
 when the accent changes to a grave (→24.2 above), such words are also called barytone;
 - **paroxytone**: an acute accent on the penult $(x \cdot \underline{\hat{x}} \cdot x)$, e.g. τύχη, παρθένος, Εὐριπίδης, λελειμμένος, δεικνύναι, ἐνθάδε;
 - proparoxytone: an acute accent on the antepenult (x/x·x·x), e.g. ἄγαλμα, ὅσιος,
 δίκαιος, βασίλεια, φυόμενος, τέθνηκα, πεντήκοντα, μακρότερος;
 - **perispomenon**: a circumflex accent on the ultima $(x \cdot x \cdot \tilde{x})$, e.g. Σοφοκλῆς, ἀργυροῦς, ἀληθῶς, τιμῶ, ποιεῖν, ἐμαυτῷ, οὐκοῦν;
 - **properispomenon**: a circumflex accent on the penult $(x \cdot \underline{x} \cdot x)$, e.g. σῆμα, νῆες, πολῖται, τοιοῦτος, ἀπῆγε, δηλοῦμεν, ἐκεῖθεν.

24.6 The positions on which the accent *can* fall are further limited by the rule of limitation (\rightarrow 24.8–10) and the σωτῆρα-rule (\rightarrow 24.11).

The position on which the accent **does** actually fall depends on whether a word is a verbal form or a nominal form, and is then conditioned by further rules (for verbs, $\rightarrow 24.16-20$; for nominal forms, $\rightarrow 24.21-32$).

- Accentuation is determined strongly by the **length** of the last two syllables of a word. For the purposes of accentuation:
 - a syllable is **long** if it contains a **long vowel** or a **diphthong**;
 - a syllable is **short** if it contains a **short vowel** (or, in the case of the ultima, -01 or $-\alpha_1$, $\rightarrow 24.10$).

For vowel quantity (long/short), \rightarrow 1.18. The quantity of vowels in nominal and verbal endings is given in the relevant sections of the morphology (particularly the tables of endings, \rightarrow 2.6, 11.22–30). Vowel quantity is also normally given in dictionaries.

Note 1: The length of a syllable for the purposes of accentuation is not the same as its metrical quantity or 'weight'. For instance, the first syllables of $\underline{\nu}\dot{\nu}$ κτα, $\underline{\xi}$ ργον and $\underline{\tau}\dot{\nu}$ πτε are short for the purposes of accentuation because they have a short vowel, but they count as 'heavy' (or 'long') for metrical purposes because the vowels are followed by a double consonant (meaning that the syllables end in a consonant: $\nu\dot{\nu}$ κ·τα, ξ ρ·γον, $\tau\dot{\nu}$ π·τε).

The Rule of Limitation

- 24.8 The syllables that can be accented are *limited* to:
 - the **last three** of a word in the case of the **acute** accent:
 - the **last two** in the case of the **circumflex** accent.

Thus †παιδεύομενος, †ἦγαγες and †τῖματε are impossible (correct: παιδευόμενος, ἤγαγες and τιμᾶτε).

- 24.9 If the **ultima** of a word is **long**:
 - the acute accent is limited to the last two syllables: †παιδευόμενης, †πόλιτου are impossible (correct: παιδευομένης, πολίτου);
 - the circumflex accent can fall only on the last, long syllable: †σκῆνης, †αὖτοις are impossible (correct: σκηνῆς, αὐτοῖς).
- 24.10 If a word **ends in -01** or -01, however, the ultima counts as **short**. Thus the acute may fall on the antepenult and the circumflex on the penult, e.g. παιδευ<u>ό</u>μεν<u>οι</u>, ἐπιτ<u>ή</u>δει<u>αι</u>, ἑκ<u>οῦσαι</u>, ο<u>ἶοι</u>.

But optative endings -01 and -α1 are long. Thus π αιδε<u>ν</u>01 (not †παίδευ01), βουλεύσαι (aor. opt., \rightarrow 13.12).

Note 1: Also long are the endings -01 and - α 1 of some old locative forms such as $\alpha \times \alpha \times \alpha$ 2 at home, and interjections such as $\alpha \times \alpha \times \alpha$ 3 at home,

Note 2: When ω in an ultima results from quantitative metathesis (\rightarrow 1.71), the accentuation reflects the state prior to quantitative metathesis (and therefore sometimes appears to violate the rule of limitation): e.g. $\pi \underline{\acute{o}}\lambda \epsilon \omega_{\varsigma}$ (gen. sg.) <* $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \eta_{\varsigma}$, Μενέλεως (nom. sg.) <*Μενέλα(\mathfrak{c})ος. The gen. pl. $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \epsilon \omega_{\varsigma}$ is analogous to $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \epsilon \omega_{\varsigma}$.

Several υ-stem nouns (\rightarrow 4.79–83) received accentuation analogous to the πόλις-type, e.g. with πῆχυς *forearm*, gen. sg. πήχεως, gen. pl. πήχεων; with ἄστυ *city*, gen. sg. ἄστεως (gen. pl. ἀστέων in (texts of) Pindar; ἄστεων in later Greek).

The σωτῆρα-Rule

- 24.11 If the following three conditions hold:
 - the **ultima** is **short**,
 - the penult is long, and
 - the accent falls on the **penult**,

then this accent is always circumflex (i.e. the word is properispomenon):

e.g. σωτ<u>η</u>ρα (contrast σωτήρων), λ<u>ῦ</u>ε (contrast λύου), <u>η</u>γες (contrast ήγου), πολ<u>ι</u>τα (contrast πολίτης), βασιλ<u>εῦ</u>σιν (contrast βασιλεύσας), τοσ<u>οῦ</u>τος (contrast τοσούτω).

Note 1: The σωτῆρα-rule applies *only* if it is the penult that carries the accent. Thus, e.g. οἶκος *house* (gen. sg. οἴκου), but ἄποικος *colony* (gen. sg. ἀποίκου).

Note 2: Since final -αι and -οι (except optative endings, \rightarrow 24.10) count as short, the σωτῆρᾶ-rule also applies with these endings, e.g. πολ<u>ῖται</u> (nom. pl.), δ<u>οῦλοι</u> (nom. pl.).

Note 3: The σωτῆρα-rule is also sometimes called the 'properispomenon rule'.

Contraction

- 24.12 The accentuation of words that contain a long vowel or diphthong which results from contraction (\rightarrow 1.58–66) is determined by the position of the accent **before** the contraction took place. The following rules apply:
 - (i) If the accent originally fell on the **first vowel involved in the contraction**, the resulting vowel or diphthong is accented with a **circumflex**: e.g. $\dot{\alpha}\epsilon > \tilde{\alpha}$, $\dot{\epsilon}\alpha > \tilde{\eta}$, $\dot{\epsilon}o > o\tilde{\upsilon}$, $\dot{\alpha}o > \tilde{\omega}$.
 - (ii) If the accent originally fell on the **second vowel involved in the contraction**, the resulting vowel or diphthong has the **same accent**, e.g. $\alpha \dot{\epsilon} > \dot{\alpha}$, $\epsilon \dot{\alpha} > \dot{\eta}$, $\epsilon \dot{\alpha} > \dot{\alpha}$, $\epsilon \dot{\alpha} > \dot{\alpha}$, $\epsilon \dot{\alpha} > \dot{\alpha}$.
 - (iii) If **neither vowel** involved in the contraction contained an accent the resulting contracted vowel or diphthong is not accented.

These rules may be illustrated by the sg. of νοῦς *mind* and the impf. act. and mp. of the contract verb ποιέω *make*, *do*:

```
uncontracted
                    contracted
                    νοῦς (i)
νό-ος
                >
νό-ου
                >
                   voũ (i)
νό-ω
                    νῷ (i)
νό-ον
                    νοῦν (i)
impf. act.
                                      impf. mp.
uncontracted
                    contracted
                                      uncontracted
                                                           contracted
ἐ-ποίε-ον
                    έ-ποίουν (iii)
                                      έ-ποιε-όμην
                                                      >
                                                          έ-ποιούμην (ii)
ἐ-ποίε-ες
                >
                    έ-ποίεις (iii)
                                      ἐ-ποιέ-ου
                                                      >
                                                          έ-ποιοῦ (i)
                    έ-ποίει (iii)
è-ποίε-ε
                >
                                      έ-ποιέ-ετο
                                                      >
                                                          έ-ποιεῖτο (i)
έ-ποιέ-ομεν
                                      ἐ-ποιε-όμεθα
                                                          έ-ποιούμεθα (ii)
                >
                    έ-ποιοῦμεν (i)
                                                      >
έ-ποιέ-ετε
                >
                    έ-ποιεῖτε (i)
                                      ἐ-ποιέ-εσθε
                                                      >
                                                           έ-ποιεῖσθε (i)
ἐ-ποίε-ον
                    ἐ-ποίουν (iii)
                                      ἐ-ποιέ-οντο
                                                      >
                                                           έ-ποιοῦντο (i)
```

Note 1: The σωτῆρᾶ-rule (as applied to the resulting form) takes precedence over these rules, e.g. κληδο<u>οῦχ</u>ος, *not* †κληδούχος (although <*κληδο-όχος).

Note 2: In compound adjectives ending in -νους (<-νοος; εὔνους favourable, κακόνους ill-disposed) these rules are disregarded, e.g. εὧνου (gen. sg.; not †εὐνοῦ <*εὐνό-ου), εὖνων (gen. pl.; not †εὐνοῦν <*εὐνό-ων).

Note 3: If the nominative and accusative dual ending $-\dot{\omega}$ is accented, it is always accented with an acute/grave, regardless of contraction, e.g. $\nu\underline{\dot{\omega}}$ (two minds; $<^*\nu\dot{o}\omega$), $\varepsilon\dot{\upsilon}\nu\underline{\dot{\omega}}$ favourable (nom./acc. du.).

Note 4: For contraction in optative forms, $\rightarrow 24.18$ below.

Recessive, Persistent, and Mobile Accentuation

- 24.13 Many Greek words, including nearly all finite verb forms, have an accent which falls on ('recedes to') the earliest syllable possible within the confinements of the rule of limitation and the rules of contraction. This is called **recessive accentuation** (for details, \rightarrow 24.16 below).
- Non-finite verb forms (participles and infinitives), and many nominal forms (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, etc.), have a **persistent accent**, which remains in place when these words are declined unless it is affected by the rule of limitation, the $\sigma\omega\tau\tilde{\eta}\rho\tilde{\alpha}$ -rule or the rules of contraction.

Here, a distinction may be made between base accent and case accent:

The base accent is provided by the nom. sg. of nouns, and the nom. sg. masc. of adjectives/participles/pronouns. For instance, base accents are provided by nom. sg. <a href="mailto:\delta\text{o}\text{o}\text{o}\text{man}, nom. sg. map\text{e}\text{vos} maiden, and nom. sg. masc. δεινός impressive.
 The base accent is placed according to regular patterns in the case of non-finite verb

- forms (participles and infinitives, \rightarrow 24.20 below). For nouns, adjectives and pronouns some patterns can be identified in words of similar morphological or semantic categories (\rightarrow 24.25–32 below), but there are many exceptions;
- In the other grammatical cases of these words the accent (case accent) stays on the same syllable (counted from the beginning of the word) as the base accent, unless this is prohibited by the rule of limitation, the σωτῆρᾶ-rule or the rules of contraction. For instance, nom. pl. ἄνθρωποι (same syllable as base accent), but gen. pl. ἀνθρώπων (not †ἄνθρωπων, prohibited by the law of limitation, as final -ων is long).

Note 1: There is no practical difference between recessive accentuation and persistent accentuation with words such as ἄνθρωπος whose base form is proparoxytone.

Some third-declension nouns have a **mobile accent**, which alternates between falling on the ultima and the penult, depending on the case. For details, $\rightarrow 24.23$.

Finite Verbs: Recessive Accentuation

24.16 Nearly all **finite verb forms** are **recessive**: the accent recedes to the earliest syllable possible, given the rule of limitation (marked (i) below), the σωτῆρα-rule (ii) and the rules of contraction (iii).

Note 1: For uncontracted forms, this gives the following possibilities (syllable divisions are indicated by dots):

- Forms with three syllables or more:

short ultima proparoxytone e.g. λυ·ό·με·θα, λέ·γω·μαι, ἐ·μεί·να·μεν long ultima (i) paroxytone e.g. λυ·οί·μην, κω·λύ·ω, δεικ·νὕ·οις

- Forms with two syllables:

short penult paroxytone e.g. τύπ·τει, τύπ·τε long penult, long ultima paroxytone e.g. λύ·ω, κλΐ·νεις, κλαύ·σαι

(aor. opt. act.; opt. -αι = long)e.g. λῦ·ε, κλῖ·νον, κλαῦ·σαι

long penult, short ultima (ii) properispomenon e.g. λῦ·ε, κλῖ·νον, κλαῦ·σαι (aor. inf. act.; inf. -αι = short)

- Forms with one syllable (the accent can, of course, fall only on that syllable):

short oxytone e.g. θές, δός long perispomenon e.g. εἶ

The following examples illustrate these principles. Given are the pres. mp. ind. of $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\omega}\omega$ educate, the impf. act. of $\check{\alpha}\gamma\omega$ lead, bring, and the pres. mp. ind. of $\tau\iota\mu\dot{\alpha}\omega$ honour:

```
ἦ·γον (i, ii)
                                                 τιμῶμαι (<*τιμά·ο·μαι) (i, ii, iii)
παιδεύ•ο•μαι (i)
παιδεύ·η (<*παιδεύ·ε·αι,
                               ἦ·γες (i, ii)
                                                 τιμᾶ (<*τιμά·ει) (i, iii)
  \rightarrow1.83, 11.23) (i, iii)
                                                 τιμᾶται (<*τιμά·ε·ται) (i, ii, iii)
παιδεύ ε ται (i)
                               ἦ·γε (i, ii)
παιδευ•ό•με•θἄ (i)
                               ή·γο·μεν (i)
                                                 τιμώμεθα (<*τιμα·ό·με·θα) (i, iii)
παιδεύ εσ θε (i)
                               ή·γε·τε (i)
                                                 τιμᾶσθε (<*τιμά·εσ·θε) (i, ii, iii)
                               ἦ·γον (i, ii)
                                                 τιμῶνται (<*τιμά·ον·ται) (i, ii, iii)
παιδεύ ον ται (i)
```

- 24.17 The following finite verbs, by way of exception, are **not recessive**:
 - 2 sg. pres. ind. φής/φής (→12.36);
 - the following five 2 sg. act. imp. forms of thematic aorists: εἰπἐ say!, ἐλθἑ come!, εὑρἑ find!, ἰδἑ see!, λαβἑ take!;
 - all 2 sg. imp. mid. forms of thematic aorists (in -οῦ), e.g. ἀπολοῦ perish!, ἀφικοῦ arrive!,
 γενοῦ become!, ἐλοῦ choose!, ἐροῦ ask!;
 - χρή it is necessary, impf. (ἐ)χρῆν (not originally verb forms, \rightarrow 11.41, 12.44).
- 24.18 The following **subjunctive** and **optative** forms are **contracted**, and are accented accordingly:
 - present of contract verbs, e.g. subj. ποι<u>ω</u>μεν < ποιέ·ω·μεν, opt. ποι<u>ο</u>ῖο < ποιέ·οι·ο; δουλ<u>ο</u>ῖντο < δουλό·οι·ντο;
 - present of -μι verbs, e.g. subj. ἱστ<u>ω</u>μαι <*ἱστή·ω·μαι, τιθ<u>ῆς</u> <*τιθή·ῃς, <u>ω</u>σι <*ἔ·ω·σι; opt. διδοῖμεν <*διδό·ι·μεν, τιθεῖσθε <*τιθέ·ι·σθε;
 - root aorists, e.g. subj. μεθ<u>η</u>σθε <*μεθή·η·σθε, γν<u>ω</u>μεν <*γνώ·ω·μεν, δ<u>ω</u>μεθα <*δω·ώ·μεθα; opt.
 ἀφεῖεν <*ἀφέ·ι·εν;
 - θη-/η-aorists, e.g. subj. λυθῶ <*λυθή·ω, φανῆς <*φανή·ης; opt. λυθεῖτε <*λυθέ·ι·τε;
 - mixed perfects, e.g. subj. ἐστ<u>ω</u> <*ἐστέ·ω (ἵσταμαι), and οἶδα know, e.g. subj. εἰδ<u>ω</u> <*εἰδέ·ω, opt. εἰδεῖεν <*εἰδέ·ι·εν.

But no contraction takes place in the case of athematic stems ending in 1/0, e.g. \underline{r} ω (ε \overline{t} μι go), δεικν \underline{v} ω (δείκνυμι), δ \underline{v} ωμεν (root aor. of δύομαι dive, \rightarrow 13.39–41, 13.44), φ \underline{v} ωμεν (root aor. of φύομαι grow (up), \rightarrow 13.39–41, 13.44). Present subjunctives and optatives of the (middle-only) -μι verbs δύναμαι be able, eπίσταμαι know, and κρέμαμαι hang are also treated as uncontracted: e.g. δύνωμαι, eπίσταιντο.

In other optative forms than those listed above, the diphthong formed with the optative suffix -1- counts as uncontracted: e.g. παιδεύ·οι·μεν (contrast διδοῖμεν above), τιμή·σαι·σθε (contrast τιθεῖσθε above).

24.19 **Compound** verbs are recessive, but the accent cannot fall earlier than a syllable containing an augment or reduplication:

```
    ἀπ-άγω carry away
    e.g. ἀπῆγε (impf.), ἀπῆχε (pf.); contrast pres. imp. ἄπαγε
    παρ-έχω provide
    e.g. παρεῖχε (impf.) and παρέσχε (aor.); contrast pres. imp. πάρεχε
```

If a prefix has two syllables, the accent never recedes before the last syllable of the prefix: e.g. περ<u>ί</u>θες (aor. imp. περι-τίθημι *put around*), ἀπ<u>ό</u>δος (aor. imp. ἀπο-δίδωμι *give away*).

Non-Finite Verb Forms: Participles and Infinitives

- 24.20 The overview below details the accentuation of participles and infinitives:
 - Participles have a persistent accent (→24.14). The base accent is provided by the nom. sg. masc. form: other cases (and genders) keep the *same accent* on the *same syllable* (counted from the front of the word), as long as this is not prohibited by the rule of limitation (marked (i) below), the σωτῆρα-rule (ii) and the rules of contraction (iii).
 - Infinitives (indeclinable forms) normally have the accent on the same syllable as
 the base accent of corresponding *active* participles (this often, but not always,
 holds for middle-passive infinitives as well); for details see the table.

		active	middle-passive
then	natic present and future		
		base accent: paroxytone	base accent: proparoxytone
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	παιδ <u>εύ</u> (σ)ων	παιδευ(σ) <u>ό</u> μενος
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	παιδ <u>εύ</u> (σ)οντος	παιδευ(σ)ομ <u>έ</u> νου (i)
	dat. pl. masc./neut.	παιδ <u>εύ</u> (σ)ουσι	παιδευ(σ)ομ <u>έ</u> νοις (i)
	nom. sg. fem.	παιδ <u>εύ</u> (σ)ουσἄ	παιδευ(σ)ομ <u>έ</u> νη (i)
	gen. sg. fem.	παιδευ(σ) <u>ού</u> σης (i)	παιδευ(σ)ομ <u>έ</u> νης (i)
	gen. pl. fem.	παιδευ(σ)ουσ $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ ν (<*- $\underline{\dot{\alpha}}$ ων) (i, iii)	παιδευ(σ)ομ <u>έ</u> νων (i)
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	παιδ <u>εῦ</u> (σ)ον (ii)	παιδευ(σ) <u>ό</u> μενον
inf.		παιδ <u>εύ</u> (σ)ειν	παιδ <u>εύ</u> (σ)εσθαι
cont	ract verbs (present)		
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	τιμ <u>ῶ</u> ν (<*- <u>ά</u> ων) (iii)	τιμ <u>ώ</u> μενος (<*-α <u>ό</u> μενος)
	nom. sg. fem.	τιμ <u>ῶ</u> σἄ (<*- <u>ά</u> ουσἄ) (ii, iii)	τιμωμ <u>έ</u> νη (i)
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	τιμ <u>ῶ</u> ν (<*- <u>ά</u> ον) (iii)	τιμ <u>ώ</u> μενον
inf.		τιμ <u>ᾶ</u> ν (<*- <u>ά</u> ειν) (iii)	τιμ <u>ᾶ</u> σθαι (<*- <u>ά</u> εσθαι) (ii, iii)
then	natic aorist		
		base accent: oxytone	base accent: proparoxytone
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	λαβ <u>ώ</u> ν	λαβ <u>ό</u> μενος
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	λαβ <u>ό</u> ντος	λαβομ <u>έ</u> νου (i)
	dat. pl. masc./neut.	λαβ <u>οῦ</u> σι (ii)	λαβομ <u>έ</u> νοις (i)
	nom. sg. fem.	λαβ <u>οῦ</u> σἄ (ii)	λαβομ <u>έ</u> νη (i)
	gen. sg. fem.	λαβ <u>ού</u> σης	λαβομ <u>έ</u> νης (i)
	gen. pl. fem.	λαβουσ <u>ῶ</u> ν (i, iii)	λαβομ <u>έ</u> νων (i)
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	λαβ <u>ό</u> ν	λαβ <u>ό</u> μενον
inf.		λαβεῖν (perispomenon)	λαβ <u>έ</u> σθαι
sign	natic aorist		
		base accent: paroxytone	base accent: proparoxytone
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	παιδ <u>εύ</u> σᾶς	παιδευσ <u>ά</u> μενος
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	παιδ <u>εύ</u> σαντος	παιδευσαμ <u>έ</u> νου (i)
	dat. pl. masc./neut.	παιδ <u>εύ</u> σασι	παιδευσαμ <u>έ</u> νοις (i)
	nom. sg. fem.	παιδ <u>εύ</u> σασἄ	παιδευσαμ <u>έ</u> νη (i)

		active	middle-passive
	gen. sg. fem.	παιδευσ <u>ά</u> σης (i)	παιδευσαμ <u>έ</u> νης (i)
	gen. pl. fem.	παιδευσασ <u>ῶ</u> ν (i, iii)	παιδευσαμ <u>έ</u> νων (i)
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	παιδ <u>εῦ</u> σἄν (ii)	παιδευσ <u>ά</u> μενον
inf.		παιδ <u>εῦ</u> σαι (ii)	παιδε <u>ύ</u> σασθαι
		τρ <u>έ</u> ψαι	τρ <u>έ</u> ψασθαι
athe	matic stems (present of	-μι verbs, root aorist, θη-/η-aorist)	
	-μι verbs	base accent: oxytone	base accent: proparoxytone
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	δεικν <u>ύ</u> ς	δεικν <u>ύ</u> μενος
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	δεικν <u>ύ</u> ντος	δεικνυμ <u>έ</u> νου (i)
	dat. pl. masc./neut.	δεικν <u>ὔ</u> σι (ii)	δεικνυμ <u>έ</u> νοις (i)
	nom. sg. fem.	δεικν <u>ῦ</u> σὰ (ii)	δεικνυμ <u>έ</u> νη (i)
	gen. sg. fem.	δεικν <u>ύ</u> σης	δεικνυμ <u>έ</u> νης (i)
	gen. pl. fem.	δεικνυσ <u>ῶ</u> ν (i, iii)	δεικνυμ <u>έ</u> νων (i)
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	δεικν <u>ύ</u> ν	δεικν <u>ύ</u> μενον
inf.		δεικν <u>ύ</u> ναι	δ <u>εί</u> κνυσθαι
	root aorists	base accent: oxytone	base accent: proparoxytone
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	δ <u>ού</u> ς	δ <u>ό</u> μενος
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	δ <u>ό</u> ντος	δομ <u>έ</u> νου (i)
	nom. sg. fem.	δ <u>οῦ</u> σἄ (ii)	δομ <u>έ</u> νη (i)
	gen. sg. fem.	δ <u>ού</u> σης	δομένης (i)
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	δ <u>ό</u> ν	δ <u>ό</u> μενον
inf.		δ <u>οῦ</u> ναι (ii)	δ <u>ό</u> σθαι
	θη-/η-aorists	base accent: oxytone	
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	παιδευθ <u>εί</u> ς	
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	παιδευθ <u>έ</u> ντος	
	nom. sg. fem.	παιδευθ <u>εῖ</u> σἄ (ii)	
	gen. sg. fem.	παιδευθ <u>εί</u> σης	
	nom./acc. sg.	παιδευθ <u>έ</u> ν	
inf.		παιδευθ <u>ῆ</u> ναι (ii)	
perf	ect		
		base accent: oxytone	base accent: paroxytone
ppl.	nom. sg. masc. (base)	πεπαιδευκ <u>ώς</u>	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νος
	gen. sg. masc./neut.	πεπαιδευκ <u>ό</u> τος	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νου
	dat. pl. masc./neut.	πεπαιδευκ <u>ό</u> σι	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νοις
	nom. sg. fem.	πεπαιδευκ <u>υῖ</u> ἄ (ii)	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νη
	gen. sg. fem.	πεπαιδευκ <u>υί</u> ᾶς	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νης
	gen. pl. fem.	πεπαιδευκυι <u>ῶ</u> ν (i, iii)	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νων
	nom./acc. sg. neut.	πεπαιδευκ <u>ό</u> ς	πεπαιδευμ <u>έ</u> νον
inf.		πεπαιδευκ <u>έ</u> ναι	πεπαιδ <u>εῦ</u> σθαι (ii)
		λελυκ <u>έ</u> ναι	λελ <u>ύ</u> σθαι

3 sg. aor. act. opt. (reces-

aor. act. inf. (not recessive) βουλεῦσαι

sive; $-\alpha i = long$)

forms ending in -σαι:			-	
	verb stem ending in a long vowel/diphthong		verb stem ending in a short vowel	
	two or more syllables	one syllable	two or more syllables	one syllable
2 sg. aor. mid. imp. (recessive: -or = short)	βο <u>ύ</u> λευσαι	λ <u>ῦ</u> σαι	κ <u>ά</u> λεσαι	τρ <u>έ</u> ψαι

λύσαι

λῦσαι

καλέσαι

καλέσαι

τρέψαι

τρέψαι

Note 1: Observe the differences in accent between several (pseudo-)sigmatic aorist

Nominal Forms: Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Numerals

βουλεύσαι

General Rules

24.21 Almost all nouns, adjectives and pronouns have a persistent accent $(\rightarrow 24.14)$. The nom. sg. provides the (position of the) base accent of nouns; the nom. sg. masc. form provides the base accent of adjectives. Other cases (and genders) keep the accent on the same syllable, as long as this is not prohibited by the rule of limitation (marked (i) below), the σωτῆρα-rule (ii) and the rules of contraction (iii).

This principle may be illustrated by the declensions of ὁ ἄνθρωπος man, ἡ θάλαττα sea, ή χώρα place, and τὸ ῥεῦμα current:

		ό ἄνθρωπος	ή θάλαττα	ή χώρᾶ	τὸ ῥεῦμᾶ
		man	sea	place	current
sg.	nom.	<u>ἄ</u> νθρωπος	θ <u>ά</u> λαττἄ	χ <u>ώ</u> ρᾶ	ρε <u>ῦ</u> μὰ (ii)
	gen.	ἀνθρ <u>ώ</u> που (i)	θαλ <u>ά</u> ττης (i)	<u>χώ</u> ρᾶς	ρε <u>ύ</u> ματος
	dat.	ἀνθρ <u>ώ</u> πω (i)	θαλ <u>ά</u> ττη (i)	χ <u>ώ</u> ρα	ρε <u>ύ</u> ματι
	acc.	<u>ἄ</u> νθρωπον	θ <u>ά</u> λαττἄν	χ <u>ώ</u> ρᾶν	ῥε <u>ῦ</u> μα (ii)
	voc.	<u>ἄ</u> νθρωπε	θ <u>ά</u> λαττἄ	χ <u>ώ</u> ρᾶ	ῥε <u>ῦ</u> μα (ii)
pl.	nom.	<u>ἄ</u> νθρωποι	θ <u>ά</u> λατται	χ <u>ῶ</u> ραι (ii)	ρ <u>εύ</u> ματα
	gen.	ἀνθρ <u>ώ</u> πων (i)	θαλαττ <u>ῶ</u> ν	χωρ <u>ῶ</u> ν (<*-άων)	ρευμ <u>ά</u> των (i)
			(<*-άων) (i, iii)	(i, iii)	
	dat.	ἀνθρ <u>ώ</u> ποις (i)	θαλ <u>ά</u> τταις (i)	χ <u>ώ</u> ραις	ρ <u>εύ</u> μασι
	acc.	ἀνθρ <u>ώ</u> πους (i)	θαλ <u>ά</u> ττᾶς (i)	χ <u>ώ</u> ρᾶς	ρ <u>εύ</u> ματα

24.22 An additional rule affects nominal forms of the first and second declensions with a base accent on the ultima: the genitive and dative singular and plural forms of such words always have a circumflex accent.

This may be illustrated by the declensions of $\theta \epsilon \delta \varsigma god(dess)$, the adjectives $\epsilon \epsilon \delta \varsigma$ holy and πολύς much and the article $\dot{0}$, $\dot{\eta}$, $\dot{\tau}\dot{0}$:

		θε	ός god(dess)	ίερός <i>ho</i> masc.	ly	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	θε	ός	ίερός		ίερ ἁ	ίερόν
	gen.	θε	<u>oũ</u>	ἱερ <u>οῦ</u>		ἱερ <u>ᾶ</u> ς	ἱερ <u>οῦ</u>
	dat.	θε	$ ilde{\omega}$	ίερ $ ilde{\omega}$		ίερ <u>ᾶ</u>	ίερ <u>ῷ</u>
	acc.	θε	όν	ίερόν		ίερ ἁν	ίερόν
pl.	nom.	θε	oí	ίεροί		ίεραί	ίερά
	gen.	θε	<u> </u>	ίερ <u>ῶ</u> ν		ἱερ <u>ῶ</u> ν	ἱερ <u>ῶ</u> ν
	dat.	θε	<u>οῖ</u> ς	ίερ <u>οῖ</u> ς		ίερ <u>αῖ</u> ς	ἱερ <u>οῖ</u> ς
	acc.	θε	ούς	ίερούς		ίερ άς	ίερά
		πολύς <i>muc</i>	rh		ό, ἡ, τό		
		masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	πολύς	πολλή	πολύ	ó	ή	τό
	gen.	πολλ <u>οῦ</u>	πολλ <u>ῆ</u> ς	πολλ <u>οῦ</u>	т <u>ой</u>	τ <u>ῆ</u> ς	τ <u>οῦ</u>
	dat.	$πολλ$ $ ilde{\omega}$	πολλ <u>ῆ</u>	$πολλ$ $\tilde{\omega}$	τ <u>ῷ</u>	τ <u>ñ</u>	τ <u>ῷ</u>
	acc.	πολύν	πολλήν	πολύ	τόν	τήν	τό
pl.	nom.	πολλοί	πολλαί	πολλά	oi	αί	τά
	gen.	πολλ <u>ῶ</u> ν	πολλ <u>ῶ</u> ν	πολλ <u>ῶ</u> ν	τ <u>ῶ</u> ν	τ <u>ῶ</u> ν	τ <u>ῶ</u> ν
	dat.	πολλ <u>οῖ</u> ς	πολλ <u>αῖ</u> ς	πολλ <u>οῖ</u> ς	τ <u>οῖ</u> ς	τ <u>αῖ</u> ς	τ <u>οῖ</u> ς
	acc.	πολλούς	πολλάς	πολλά	τούς	τάς	τά

Note 1: First-declension gen. pl. forms are (in Attic) contracted from $-\epsilon\omega\nu$ (<- $\dot{\eta}\omega\nu$ <- $\dot{\alpha}\omega\nu$, \rightarrow 1.57), and are accordingly always accented $-\tilde{\omega}\nu$ (cf. e.g. $\theta\alpha\lambda\alpha\tau\tau\underline{\tilde{\omega}\nu}$ next to $\theta\dot{\alpha}\lambda\alpha\tau\tau\alpha$, $\theta\alpha\lambda\dot{\alpha}\tau\tau\eta$ ς; $\chi\omega\rho\underline{\tilde{\omega}\nu}$ next to $\chi\dot{\omega}\rho\alpha$, etc).

This also holds for the feminine declension of many adjectives and participles, except when the gen. pl. fem. is *identical* in form to the masc. and neut.: in such cases, the accentuation of the masc./neut. is used in the fem. as well: so, e.g. masc./neut. $\mu\epsilon\lambda\alpha\nu\omega\nu$ and fem. $\mu\epsilon\lambda\alpha\nu\omega\nu$ (distinct forms, fem. accented $-\omega\nu$), but masc./fem./neut. $\mu\epsilon\gamma\alpha\lambda\omega\nu$ (form and accent identical in all three genders); participles: masc./neut. $\pi\alpha\imath\delta\epsilon\nu\omega\nu$, fem. $\pi\alpha\imath\delta\epsilon\nu\omega\nu$, but masc./fem./neut. $\pi\alpha\imath\delta\epsilon\nu\omega\nu$.

Mobile Accentuation of Some Third-Declension Nouns

24.23 With **third-declension** nominal forms with a **monosyllabic stem**, the accent of the **genitive and dative** falls on the ending (an acute if the ending has a short vowel, a circumflex if it has a long vowel): so, e.g. the nouns μήν *month*, χείρ *hand*, πούς foot. This rule also applies to the inflected cardinals εἶς one, δύο two and τρεῖς three:

		μήν <i>moi</i>	nth χε	iρ hand	πούς	foot		
sg.	nom.	μήν	χε	ίρ	πούς			
	gen.	μην <u>ό</u> ς	χε	ιρ <u>ό</u> ς	ποδ <u>ό</u>	S		
	dat.	μην <u>ί</u>	χε	ιρ <u>ί</u>	ποδ <u>ί</u>			
	acc.	μῆνὰ	χε	ῖρἄ	πόδŏ	ć		
pl.	nom.	μῆνες	χε	ῖρες	πόδε	S		
	gen.	μηνῶν	χε	ιρῶν	ποδά	จัง		
	dat.	 μησ <u>ί</u> (ν)	χε	_ ρσ <u>ί</u> (ν)	ποσί	(v)		
	acc.	μῆνᾶς	χε	- ῖρἄς	πόδŏ	άς		
		εἷς one				δύο <i>two</i>	τρεῖς three	
		masc.	fem.	neut			masc./fem.	neut.
sg.	nom.	εἷς	μία	ἕν		δύο	τρεῖς	τρία
	gen.	ένός	μιᾶς	ένός		δυοῖν	τριῶν	τριῶν
	dat.	– ἑνί	– μι <u>ᾶ</u>	_ ἑνί		— δυοῖν	_ τρισί(ν)	_ τρισί(ν)
	acc.	- ἕνα	μίαν	ἕν		δύο	- τρεῖς	τρία -

Note 1: Exceptions to this rule are the gen. pl. of παῖς *child*, *slave* (παίδων) and the gen. and dat. pl. masc./neut. of πᾶς, πᾶν *every*, *all* (πάντων, πᾶσιν, but παντός, παντί).

24.24 The noun ἀνήρ man also has mobile accentuation: ἀνήρ, ἀνδρός, ἀνδρί, ἄνδρες, ἀνδρες, ἀνδρῶν, ἀνδράσι, ἄνδρας. With the nouns πατήρ father, μήτηρ mother, γαστήρ stomach, θυγάτηρ daughter, the accent falls on the ending in the gen. and dat. sg, but not in the gen. pl. and dat. pl. Thus e.g. πατήρ, πατρός, πατρί, πατέρα; πατέρες, πατέρων, πατράσι, πατέρας. For these nouns, →4.62-4.

Some Rules for the Placement of Base Accents on Nominal Forms

- 24.25 The rules that determine the placement of the base accent on nouns and adjectives with persistent accentuation are complex. Only very limited guidance is given in the sections below; for more information, specialized reference works may be consulted (see the Bibliography at the end of this book); the accentuation of some types of regularly formed nouns and adjectives is also treated in 23.
- 24.26 Most proper names are recessive, e.g. Πεισίστρατος, Νικίας, Μυρρίνη, Νέαιρα, Πλάτων, ἀριστοτέλης, Διογένης. Note that names in -κλῆς (Ἡρακλῆς, Σοφοκλῆς) owe their perispomenon accent to contraction -κλῆς < -κλέης.
 - Exceptions are names ending in $-ε\dot{\nu}_5$ (Άχιλλε $\dot{\nu}_5$, Περσε $\dot{\nu}_5$, Ζε $\dot{\nu}_5$) and in $-\dot{\omega}$ (Καλυψ $\dot{\omega}$, Σαπφ $\dot{\omega}$, Λαμπιτ $\dot{\omega}$), which have acute in nominative and circumflex in vocative (Ζε $\ddot{\nu}$, Σαπφο $\ddot{\nu}$).
- 24.27 Nouns ending in short -α are recessive: ἀλήθεια truth, γαῖα earth, θάλαττα sea, δόξα opinion.
- 24.28 Neuter third-declension nouns are recessive: ὄνειδος rebuke, ὄνομα name, πρᾶγμα affair, deed.

24.29 Most compound nouns and adjectives are recessive, e.g. σύμβολον symbol, token; περίπατος a walk; ἄμορφος misshapen, shapeless; πρόδρομος running ahead.

Exceptions are compound adjectives ending in -ής, which are mostly oxytone, e.g. ἀκλεής without fame; συμπρεπής befitting; εὐτυχής successful.

For the difference in accentuation between such forms as $\lambda_1\theta$ όβολος *struck with stones* and $\lambda_1\theta$ οβόλος *throwing stones*, \rightarrow 23.40 n.1.

- 24.30 Many adjectives have an oxytone base accent:
 - nearly all non-compound adjectives in -υς, e.g. ταχύς quick, όξύς sharp, ήδύς sweet, βραχύς short; exceptions are θῆλυς feminine and ήμισυς half;
 - most adjectives in -ης, many of which are compounds (→24.29), e.g. ἀληθής true, ὑγιής healthy, εὐτυχής successful, ἀσθενής weak; there are several exceptions, however (e.g. πλήρης full, εὐήθης good-hearted);
 - a large number of adjectives in -05, e.g. ἀγαθός good, noble, καλός fine, beautiful, ξενικός foreign (so all adjectives in -ικός), δεινός impressive, αἰσχρός shameful, ugly (and most other adjectives in -νος or -ρος); but there are numerous exceptions (e.g. γνώριμος familiar, πλούσιος rich, δύστηνος wretched, ἐλεύθερος free; also →24.32).
- 24.31 Adverbs ending in -ως are accented in the same way as the corresponding adjective's genitive masculine plural: e.g. ἀληθῶς truly (gen. pl. masc. ἀληθῶν), ὀξέως sharply (gen. pl. masc. ὀξέων); for details, →6.3.
- 24.32 Comparatives and superlatives are properly recessive in all their forms (there is no base accent, meaning that the accent may fall further from the end of a form than in the corresponding nom. sg. masc.): e.g. δεινότερος more impressive, δεινότατος most impressive; ἀληθέστερος more truthful, ἀληθέστατος most truthful; ἀμείνων better (note neut. ἄμεινον), ἄριστος best; κακίων worse (note neut. κάκιον), κάκιστος worst; μείζων greater (neut. μεῖζον), μέγιστος greatest.

Enclitics and Proclitics

Introduction

- 24.33 Two groups of words do not have an accent of their own (though they may acquire one in a sentence):
 - enclitics: unaccented words that 'lean back on' (cf. ἐγκλίνομαι) the preceding word and together with this word form a single unit in pronunciation;
 - proclitics: words that 'lean towards' (cf. προκλίνομαι) the following word and together with this word form a single unit in pronunciation.

Note 1: Enclitics and (unaccented) proclitics were pronounced with a lower pitch than the accented syllable of the word on which they 'leaned'.

24.34 The following words are **enclitic**:

- the indefinite pronoun τις and all its forms (τινος/του, τινι/τω, τινα, τινων, etc.),
 except ἄττα (→7.24);
- indefinite adverbs such as πω, που, ποι, πη, ποτε, ποθεν, ποθι (→8.2);
- unaccented forms of the personal pronoun (→7.1–2): μου, μοι, με, σου, σοι, σε, έ,
 οὑ, οἱ, μιν, νιν, σφε, etc.;
- the particles $\gamma \varepsilon$, $\tau \varepsilon$, $\nu \upsilon (\nu)$ (not the adverb $\nu \tilde{\upsilon} \nu$), $\tau \circ \iota$, $\pi \varepsilon \rho$;
- present indicative forms of εἰμι be and φημι say, claim except the 2 sg. forms εἶ and φής/φής (note that this last form is not recessive, $\rightarrow 24.17$).

Note 1: Alongside enclitic 3 sg. ἐστι *he/she/it is*, there is a recessive form ἔστι, used at the start of the clause, in the 'existential' use *there is* (\rightarrow 26.10), *it is possible* (= ἔξεστι), and when it follows οὐκ, μή, εἰ, ώς, καί, ἀλλά οτ τοῦτο.

24.35 The following words are **proclitic**:

- the forms of the article that begin with a vowel: ὁ, ἡ, οἱ, αἱ;
- the prepositions ἐν, εἰς/ἐς, ἐκ/ἐξ, ὡς;
- the conjunctions εἰ and ὡς;
- the negative οὐ/οὐκ/οὐχ.

The following also behave like proclitics, but are always written with an accent; they are often called **prepositives** to distinguish them from the proper proclitics:

- other forms of the article: τοῦ, τῆς, τοῖς, ταῖς, τά, etc.;
- other prepositions: ἀνά, ἀπό, διά, ἐπί, πρός, σύν/ξύν, ὑπό, etc.;
- the conjunctions/particles ἀλλά, καί, οὐδέ, μηδέ, ἐπεί, ἢ;
- the negative μή.
- 24.36 The negative οὐ/οὐκ/οὐχ has an accented counterpart (οὔ/οὔκ/οὔχ) which serves as an emphatic negative, used when it stands before punctuation, as in $\pi \tilde{\omega}_{S} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ oὔ; of course; this occurs especially in answers (\rightarrow 38.21).
- 24.37 Two-syllable prepositions have the accent on the ultima; this normally changes to a grave, e.g. ἀπὸ τῶν νεῶν away from the ships, περὶ παίδων about children. However, when the preposition is placed after the noun which it governs (anastrophe, →60.14) the accent recedes to the first syllable, e.g. νεῶν ἄπο away from the ships, παίδων πέρι about the children.

The accent also recedes to the first syllable when a preposition is used instead of a compound form with èsti or eisi, e.g. $\pi \alpha \rho \alpha = \pi \alpha \rho \epsilon \sigma \tau i/\pi \alpha \rho \epsilon \sigma i$, $\epsilon \nu i = \epsilon \nu \epsilon \sigma \tau i/\epsilon \nu \epsilon \sigma i$, $\epsilon \tau i = \epsilon \nu \epsilon \sigma \tau i/\epsilon \tau i$ and particularly frequently with the impersonal use of $\pi \alpha \rho \epsilon \sigma \tau i$, $\epsilon \tau i = \epsilon \sigma \tau i/\epsilon \sigma i$.

Accentuation of Enclitics and Proclitics

- 24.38 The following rules apply to enclitics and the words they follow:
 - oxytone word + enclitic: the acute on the preceding word remains in place and does not change into a grave (x·x·x/2 e), e.g. ποιμήν τις a certain shepherd (but ποιμήν είς one shepherd), οὐ γάρ που for not, I think (but οὐ γὰρ δή for not, indeed);
 - **perispomenon word** + **enclitic**: no change $(x \cdot x \cdot \hat{x} \cdot e)$, e.g. $\tilde{\eta}_{\nu}$ τις ἀνήρ there was a certain man, ἐμοῦ γε ὄντος at least while I am alive;
 - proparoxytone word + enclitic: a second acute is added to the ultima of the preceding word (x·x·x/x e), e.g. λέαινά τις a certain lioness; ἄνθρωπός τε and a man, παιδεύουσί τινες some people educate;
 - **properispomenon word** + **enclitic**: an acute is added to the ultima of the preceding word $(x \cdot \hat{x} \cdot \hat{x} \cdot e)$, e.g. οἶκός τις a (certain) house; δῶρόν τε and a gift, σωτῆρά τινα a certain saviour;
 - **paroxytone word** + **monosyllabic enclitic**: no change $(x \cdot \acute{x} \cdot x \, e)$, e.g. παρθένος τις a certain maiden, πολέμου γε ὄντος at least at a time of war;
 - paroxytone word + two-syllable enclitic: an acute/grave is added to the second syllable of the enclitic (x·x·x e·e/s; τινων gets a circumflex), e.g. παρθένοι τινές certain maidens, ἄλλων τινων some others, ὅστις ἐστὶ μὴ κακός whoever is not hase:
 - if an enclitic is followed by another enclitic, an auxiliary accent is placed on the (last syllable of the) first enclitic, e.g. ἦσάν τινές ποτε παρθένοι once there were certain maidens; τοῦτό χέ μοι δοκεῖ καλὸν εἶναι this, I think, is beautiful.

Note 1: As these rules show, forms of indefinite (enclitic) τις a certain, some(one) with two syllables are accented, if at all, on the second syllable (e.g. τινά, τινές, τινῶν): this allows easy distinction from two-syllable forms of interrogative τίς who?, which? (e.g. τίνα, τίνες, τίνων). Similarly, when accented at all, indefinite πού somewhere (or the particle πού I suppose), ποτέ sometime, πή somehow, etc., are always distinct from interrogative ποῦ where?, πότε when?, πῆ how?, etc.

Only when monosyllabic enclitic τ_{15} or τ_{1} receive an acute do these forms overlap with interrogative τ_{15}/τ_{1} (always with acute, $\rightarrow 24.2$), but context then allows distinction between the two.

24.39 Proclitics do not affect the accentuation of other words. However, if an unaccented **proclitic is followed by an enclitic**, the proclitic gets an acute: e.g. οἴ τε ἄνδρες καὶ γυναῖκες *the men and women*.

Observe that οὖτε/μήτε neither, εἴτε or, εἴπερ if indeed, ὥστε so that, so as to, ὥσπερ as if, which are accented according to this rule, are written as one word. Note that these words appear to violate the σωτῆρἄ-rule; so too certain forms of ὅδε: τήνδε, τούσδε, τάσδε.

Elision and Crasis

24.40 **Elision** (→1.34–8): if a vowel which would be accented is elided, the accent recedes to the previous syllable as an acute, e.g. <u>σόφ</u>' εἰδέναι to know wise things (= σοφὰ εἰδέναι), <u>λάβ'</u> ἄλλα take other things (= λαβὲ ἄλλα), <u>αὔτ'</u> ἐάσω I will let these things lie (= αὐτὰ ἐάσω).

However, this does not happen with most elided prepositions or particles, e.g. $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda$ εἶπε but he said (= ἀλλὰ εἶπε); οὐδ εἶπε and/but he did not say (= οὐδὲ εἶπε); παρ αὐτῶν from them (= παρὰ αὐτῶν).

- 24.41 If a two-syllable enclitic follows an elided word (this happens particularly with forms of εἰμί), an acute or grave is added to the second syllable of the enclitic, e.g. οὐχ ὑγιεία μεγάλη τοῦτ' ἐστί; Is this not a very healthy thing?, ἄτιμοι δ' ἐσμὲν οἱ πρὸ τοῦ φίλοι We who were previously friends are held in disregard.
- 24.42 **Crasis** (→1.43–5): the first word of two that merge in crasis loses its accent; the accentuation of the second word remains unchanged: e.g. ἄνθρωπε (= ὧ ἄνθρωπε), τοὐρανοῦ (= τοῦ οὐρανοῦ), τἀν (= τὰ ἐν). But the σωτῆρᾶ-rule takes precedence: τοὖργον (= τὸ ἔργον, not †τοὔργον).

Ionic and Other Dialects

Introduction

25.1 Different dialects of Greek were spoken throughout Greece: the Spartans, for example, spoke Laconian, the Thebans Boeotian, and the Milesians Ionic. Until the third century BCE, our written sources attest about thirty such dialects apart from (and different to a greater or smaller extent from) Attic, the dialect used in Athens in the classical period, which this grammar primarily treats.

The attested dialects are usually classified as belonging to the following four groups:

- Attic-Ionic dialects (Attica, Euboea, the Cyclades and Ionia);
- Arcado-Cypriot dialects (Arcadia in the Peloponnese, and Cyprus);
- **Aeolic** dialects (Thessaly, Boeotia and the north-eastern Aegean; Lesbian, the dialect of the lyric poetry of Sappho and Alcaeus, belongs to this category);
- West Greek dialects (also sometimes called 'Doric' dialects; north-western and central Greece, most parts of the Peloponnese, and many colonies across the Mediterranean, e.g. Syracuse on Sicily).
- Alongside the dialects of everyday and official language, **literary dialects** developed within Greek literature. These were based on the spoken dialects, but came to be identified with specific genres of Greek literature to such an extent that in the course of time it was primarily the choice of genre (not the origin of the author) that determined the literary dialect used.

The four main literary dialects that are distinguished until the end of the fourth century are the following:

- Attic:

Tragedy and comedy (spoken parts): e.g. Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes (fifth century)

Historiography: e.g. Thucydides (fifth century), Xenophon (fourth century)

Oratory: e.g. Lysias, Demosthenes, Isocrates (fourth century)

Philosophical dialogue: e.g. Plato, Xenophon (fourth century)

- Ionic:

Epic: e.g. Homer, Hesiod (eighth century) (but see n.1)

Elegiac: e.g. Archilochus, Tyrtaeus, Solon (seventh-sixth century)

Historiography: e.g. Herodotus (fifth century)

Medical writings: Hippocratic corpus (fifth century and later)

- Aeolic/Lesbian:

Lyric: Alcaeus and Sappho (seventh-sixth century)

- Doric:

Choral lyric: e.g. Alcman, Stesichorus, Bacchylides, Pindar (sixth-fifth century) Tragedy and comedy (choral parts have a superficial Doric 'colouring'): e.g. Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes (fifth century)

Note 1: All literary dialects are to a certain extent artificial constructs, only partially representing spoken language. The language of the Homeric epics is a special case – a blend of forms from different dialects (primarily Ionic, with older Aeolic elements and some traces of a dialect that was in use during the Mycenaean era), and wholly artificial forms created for metrical convenience. The language of Homeric epic greatly influenced later Greek poetry throughout antiquity. In the Hellenistic period it was studied in depth at the Library of Alexandria, and affiliated third-century poets like Theocritus (who wrote a highly stylized form of Doric), Callimachus and Apollonius modelled their own poetry on it.

- 25.3 Already in the classical period a version of Attic with several Ionic features was adopted as a common language for commerce, diplomacy and officialdom. In the Hellenistic period this formed the basis for the **Koine** (κοινή, 'common') dialect that came to be used across the Mediterranean and the Near East for (administrative and literary) writing and increasingly also as spoken language (presumably still with regional variations). The Koine was used, among others, by Polybius (second century BCE), Josephus (first century CE), Arrian and Plutarch (second century CE), by the translators of the *Septuagint* (third century BCE) and by the authors of the *New Testament* (first century CE). It is the basis of all later forms of Greek, including present-day Modern Greek.
- This chapter is confined to a summary of the characteristics of the main non-Attic dialect of the classical period, the **Ionic literary prose** dialect of the historian Herodotus (→25.5–45). A few observations about the '**Doric'** ᾱ in the dialect of choral lyric (→25.46–7) are given at the end of the chapter. For more extensive treatments of the different Greek dialects, specialized works may be consulted (see the Bibliography at the end of this book).

Note 1: Some Attic authors use certain forms which are Ionic rather than strictly Attic. Thus, for instance, Thucydides and the tragedians write $-\sigma\sigma$ - rather than $-\tau\tau$ - (\rightarrow 1.77) and $-\rho\sigma$ - rather than $-\rho\rho$ - (\rightarrow 1.84 n.1); Thucydides has $\dot{\epsilon}_5$ (\rightarrow 25.14) rather than $\dot{\epsilon}_1$ 5 (the two alternate in tragedy), etc.

Ionic Literary Prose

Phonology

Original $\bar{\alpha}$ always changed to η , also after ϵ , ι and ρ (for Attic, $\rightarrow 1.57$):

e.g. γενεή generation, οἰκίη house, χώρη land, πρῆγμα thing, κρητήρ mixing bowl, νεηνίης young man (Att. γενεά, οἰκία, χώρα, πρᾶγμα, κρατήρ, νεανίας)

Note 1: $\bar{\alpha}$ resulting from (second stage) compensatory lengthening (\rightarrow 1.57 n.2) has not changed: $\pi\tilde{\alpha}\sigma\alpha < \pi\dot{\alpha}\nu\tau$ - $\nu\alpha$ (not: $\tau\dot{\alpha}\eta\sigma\alpha$), acc. pl. δόξ $\alpha\varsigma$ < $\tau\dot{\alpha}$ δόξ $\alpha\varsigma$ (not: $\tau\dot{\alpha}$ δόξ $\gamma\varsigma$).

- 25.6 Ionic has the following rules of **contraction** (\rightarrow 1.58–66):
 - εα, εε, εει, εη, εω and oo are often left uncontracted: e.g. nom./acc. pl. γένεα races, mp. inf. ποιέεσθαι do, make, act. inf. ποιέειν do, Ἡρακλέης Heracles, Ποσειδέων Poseidon, νόος mind (Att. γένη, ποιεῖσθαι, ποιεῖν, Ἡρακλῆς, Ποσειδῶν, νοῦς).
 - εο is either left uncontracted or made into a diphthong ευ: e.g. 1 pl. mp. ind.
 ποιεόμεθα, ποιεύμεθα we do, gen. ἐμέο, ἐμεῦ (Att. ποιούμεθα, ἐμοῦ).
 - οη is more often contracted to ω than in Attic, where it is sometimes left uncontracted: e.g. 1 sg. aor. ind. ἐβ<u>ω</u>σα *cried* (Att. ἐβόησα).
 - when uncontracted εε is followed by a vowel, one ε has disappeared; this is called hyphaeresis (ὑφαιρέω take out): e.g. 2 sg. imp. ἡγέο lead, consider (<*ἡγέεο), gen. sg. Ἡρακλέος (<Ἡρακλέεος), 2 sg. ind. φοβέαι you fear (<*φοβέ-εαι) (Att. ἡγοῦ, Ἡρακλέους, φοβεῖ/-ῆ).
- 25.7 In both Attic and Ionic the rules of **quantitative metathesis** apply (→1.71), but in Ionic no subsequent contraction has taken place: e.g. 1st decl. gen. pl. ending -έων (<-ἡων <-ἁων), χρέωμαι use (<*χρήομαι), aor. subj. θέω put, place (<*θήω), pl. θέωμεν (<*θήομεν) (Att. -ῶν, χρῶμαι, θῶ, θῶμεν).
- 25.8 For Att. ει(ο), Ionic has ηϊ(ο) in many nouns (e.g. μαντήϊον oracle, χαλκήϊον cauldron) and adjectives (e.g. βασιλήϊος royal, γυναικήϊος of a woman) and in some verbs (e.g. οἰκηϊόω appropriate, κληΐω shut) (Att. μαντεῖον, χαλκεῖον, βασίλειος, γυναικεῖος, οἰκειόω, κλείω).
 - Exceptions are θεῖος divine, proper names like $\Delta \alpha \rho$ εῖος Darius and ethnic adjectives (Ἡργεῖος Argive, Ἡλεῖος Elean).
- Ionic has lost the aspirate [h] (\rightarrow 1.7) at the beginning of words/stems: this is called **psilosis** ('baring', 'stripping'). The rough breathing is however written in Ionic texts by convention. As a result, psilosis can only be observed in the case of elision (\rightarrow 1.34) and compounds (\rightarrow 1.35):
 - e.g. ἀπ' οὖ since, κάτημαι be seated, ἀπαιρέω remove, μετίημι abandon, κάτοδος return (Att. ἀφ' οὖ, κάθημαι, ἀφαιρέω, μεθίημι, κάθοδος).

Note 1: The aspirated stops (θ, φ, χ) have *not* lost aspiration: χώρη (not: †κώρη).

Note 2: Because of psilosis, the form κατά can be both conjunction (Att. καθά/καθ' ἄ *just as*) and preposition (Att. κατά)

25.10 Ionic has σσ ($<^*\kappa y/^*\tau y$, $\rightarrow 1.77$) where Attic has $\tau \tau$:

e.g. φυλά<u>σσ</u>ω guard (<*φυλάκ-yω), ἥ<u>σσ</u>ων worse (<*ἥκ-yων), μέλι<u>σσ</u>ὰ bee (<*μέλιτyἄ) (Att. φυλάττω, ἥττων, μέλιττὰ).

Note 1: If Att. ττ is not the result of *κy/*τy, Ionic has ττ as well: e.g. in toponyms such as 'Αττική *Attica*, proper names such as 'Αλυάττης *Alyattes*, and the loanword ἀττέλεβος *locust*.

- 25.11 The loss of f after most consonants (\rightarrow 1.80–2) has normally led to compensatory lengthening (\rightarrow 1.68–9) of a preceding vowel:
 - e.g. $\xi \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{\nu} \circ \zeta stranger$, guest-friend (<* $\xi \dot{\epsilon} \nu \circ \zeta$), $\mu \circ \tilde{\nu} \circ \zeta$ alone (<* $\mu \dot{\nu} \circ \zeta \circ \zeta$) (Att. $\xi \dot{\epsilon} \nu \circ \zeta$).
- 25.12 Indefinite, interrogative and indefinite relative pronouns have κ instead of π -:
 - e.g. κοῦ where?, κου somewhere, ὅκου where; κότε when?, κοτε once, ὁκότε when, etc. (Att. ποῦ, που, ὅπου; πότε, ποτε, ὁπότε)

But τίς who?, τις someone and ὅστις whoever have τ-.

- 25.13 Assimilation of ρσ to ρρ (→1.84 n.1) has not taken place in Ionic: e.g. ἄρσην male, masculine, θάρσος courage (Att. ἄρρην, θάρρος).
- 25.14 Observe the following further phonological particulars:
 - τωὐτό *the same*, ἑωυτοῦ, -τῷ *himself*, etc. (Att. ταὐτό, ἑαυτοῦ, -τῷ, etc.);
 - τρ<u>ω</u>μα disaster, θ<u>ω</u>μα (object of) admiration, θ<u>ω</u>μάζω admire (Att. τραῦμα, θαῦμα, θαυμάζω);
 - gen. sg. βασιλέος king (Att. βασιλέως, →4.84-5);
 - comparatives μέζων bigger, κρέσσων better, stronger (Att., irregularly: μείζων, κρείττων);
 - 1 pl. ind. of οἶδα know: ἴδμεν (Att. ἴσμεν);
 - γΐνομαι become, be born, γῖνώσκω (get to) know (γ lost with compensatory lengthening; Att. γἴγνομαι, γἴγνώσκω);
 - ων (Att. οὖν);
 - the ppl. of εἰμί be is ἐών (Att. ἄν), →25.40 below;
 - ἐς (in)to (Att. normally: εἰς);
 - οὔνομα name, εἵνεκα/εἵνεκεν because, due to (Att. ὄνομα, ἕνεκα);
 - ἐπεάν/ἐπήν (ἐπεί + ἄν; Att. normally ἐπάν);
 - ἤν if (εἰ + ἄν; Att. ἐάν/ἄν/ἤν).

Note 1: Editions of Herodotus do not normally print movable ν (\rightarrow 1.39) except in quoted hexameter poetry: e.g. ἔδοξ<u>ε</u> αὐτοῖσι (not ἔδοξεν), ἐστ<u>ι</u> ἄνθρωπος (not ἐστιν). Whether or not Herodotus actually used movable ν is unclear; in any case it is left out in the tables below.

Morphology: Nominal Forms

First Declension

- 25.15 Feminine words (\rightarrow 4.3–7):
 - type φυγή *flight*, χώρη *land* (Att. φυγή, χώρα):

```
      sg.
      pl.

      nom. = νοc.
      χώρη
      χῶραι

      gen.
      χώρης
      χωρ<u>έων</u> (<*-ἡων, Att. -ῶν)</td>

      dat.
      χώρη
      χώρησι (Att. -αις)

      acc.
      χώρην
      χώρᾶς
```

- type δόξἄ opinion:

	sg.	pı.
nom. = voc.	δόξἄ	δόξαι
gen.	δόξης	δοξ <u>έων</u> (<*-ήων, Attῶν)
dat.	δόξη	δόξ <u>ησι</u> (Attαις)
acc.	δόξἄν	δόξᾶς

Note 1: Some abstract nouns of the Att. διάνοιὰ type are in Ionic declined like χώρη: e.g. ἀληθείη *truth*, εὐνοίη *good will* (Att. ἀλήθειὰ, εὔνοιὰ). Also →23.11.

25.16 Masculine words, type δεσπότης master (\rightarrow 4.8–12):

	sg.	pl.
nom.	δεσπότης	δεσπόται
gen.	δεσπότ <u>εω</u> (<*-ηο, Attου)	δεσποτ <u>έων</u> (<*-ἡων, Attῶν)
dat.	δεσπότη	δεσπότ <u>ησι</u> (Attαις)
acc.	δεσπότην	δεσπότας
voc.	δέσποτἄ	= nom.

In Ionic -ης, etc. are also used after ϵ , ι , ρ ($\rightarrow 25.5$): hence $\dot{\circ}$ νεηνίης young man (Att. νε $\bar{\alpha}$ νί $\bar{\alpha}$ ς), $\dot{\circ}$ ταμίης treasurer (Att. ταμί $\bar{\alpha}$ ς).

Note 1: Some proper names of this category occasionally have a genitive in -εος (Ὁτάνεος *Otanes*) and/or an accusative in -εα (Γύγεα *Gyges*, Ξέρξεα *Xerxes*), imported from the third declension. These forms occur alongside those given above (e.g. Ξέρξην).

Note 2: Ionic uses ὁ πολιήτης citizen (Att. πολίτης).

Second Declension

25.17 Types δοῦλος slave, δῶρον gift (\rightarrow 4.19–26): the **dat. pl**. ends in -**οισι** (Att. -οις).

25.18 Types νόος mind, ὀστέον bone (Att. νοῦς, ὀστοῦν, →4.19-26): forms are uncontracted (→25.6 above). E.g.:

```
pl.
        sg.
        νόος (Att. νοῦς)
                                             νόοι (Att. νοῖ)
nom.
        νόου (Att. νοῦ)
                                             νόων (Att. νῶν)
gen.
        νόφ (Att. νῷ)
dat.
                                             νόοισι (Att. νοῖς)
        νόον (Att. νοῦν)
                                             νόους (Att. νοῦς)
acc.
        νόε (Att. νοῦ)
voc.
```

25.19 The Attic second declension (\rightarrow 4.27) is not consistently used. Both λ εώς band, army and older λ āός are found in Herodotus (possibly owing to confusion in the manuscript tradition); νηός temple is generally preferred over νεώς.

Third Declension

25.20 **Stems ending in labial** (π, β, φ), **velar** (κ, γ, χ) and **dental stops** (τ, δ, θ), and stems ending in ντ, ν, λ, ρ and (ε)ρ (πατήρ *father*, ἀνήρ *man*) display no differences between Attic and Ionic. For their declensions, →4.35, 4.40, 4.45, 4.49, 4.55, 4.62. Observe that instead of φύλαξ Ionic uses second-declension ὁ φύλακος *guard*.

Note 1: χάρις *favour*, *gratitude* (χαριτ-) and ὄρνις *bird* (ὀρνιθ-) have acc. sg. forms ending in -ν and -α: χάριν and χάριτα; ὄρνιν and ὄρνιθα.

Stems ending in σ (\rightarrow 4.65–73); type γένος *race*, Πολυκράτης *Polycrates*, Ἡρακλέης *Heracles*; the endings are uncontracted (\rightarrow 25.6).

```
pl.
        sg.
nom.
        γένος
                                           γένεα (Att. γένη)
        γένεος (Att. γένους)
                                           γενέων (Att. γενῶν)
gen.
        γένεϊ (Att. γένει)
dat.
                                           γένεσι
acc.
        γένος
                                           γένε<u>α</u> (Att. γένη)
        Πολυκράτης
                                           Θεμιστοκλέης (Att. -κλῆς)
nom.
        Πολυκράτεος (Att. -κράτους)
                                           Θεμιστοκλέος (<*-κλέεος, hyphaeresis,
gen.
                                             →25.6; Att. -κλέους)
dat.
        Πολυκράτεϊ (Att. -κράτει)
                                           Θεμιστοκλέϊ (<*-κλέεϊ; Att. -κλεῖ)
                                           Θεμιστοκλέἄ (<*-κλέεα; Att. -κλέα)
acc.
        Πολυκράτεα (Att. -κράτη, -ην)
        Πολύκρατες
                                           Θεμιστόκλεες (Att. -κλεις)
voc.
```

25.22 **Stems ending in ι** (\rightarrow 4.74–6); type πόλις *city*; there is no ablaut variation (cf. Att. οἶς *sheep* \rightarrow 4.77):

```
pl.
               sg.
nom.
               πόλῖς
                                                   πόλιες (Att. πόλεις)
                                                   πολίων (Att. πόλεων)
gen.
               πόλἴος (Att. πόλεως)
               πόλι (Att. πόλει)
                                                   πόλἴσι (Att. πόλεσι(ν))
dat.
                                                   πόλις (<*-ινς, Att. πόλεις)
асс.
               πόλῖν
voc.
                πόλῖ
                                                   = nom.
```

Note 1: $\pi \acute{o}\lambda \iota \varsigma$ in modern editions of prose texts (without indication of vowel length) can be both nom. sg. and acc. pl.

Stems ending in υ (\rightarrow 4.79–83); the type without ablaut (ἰσχύς *strength*) is declined as in Attic; the type *with* ablaut ($\pi\tilde{\eta}\chi \upsilon_S$ *forearm*, ἄστυ *town*) has uncontracted endings:

```
pl.
               sg.
                                                 πήχεες (Att. πήχεις)
nom.
               πῆχυς
               πήχεος (Att. πήχεως)
gen.
                                                 πήχεων
dat.
               πήχεϊ (Att. πήχει)
                                                 πήχεσι
                                                 πήχεας (Att. πήχεις)
acc.
               πῆχυν
nom.
               ἄστυ
                                                 ἄστεα (Att. ἄστη)
               ἄστεος (Att. ἄστεως)
                                                 ἄστεων
gen.
dat.
               ἄστεϊ (Att. ἄστει)
                                                 ἄστεσι
                                                 ἄστεα (Att. ἄστη)
acc.
               ἄστυ
```

25.24 **Stems ending in ευ** (type βασιλεύς king, \rightarrow 4.84–5):

```
sg.
nom.
               βασιλεύς
                                                  βασιλέες (Att. βασιλεῖς/-ῆς)
               βασιλέος (Att. βασιλέως)
                                                  βασιλέων
gen.
dat.
               βασιλέϊ (Att. βασιλεῖ)
                                                  βασιλεῦσι
               βασιλέα (Att. βασιλέα)
                                                  βασιλέας (Att. βασιλέας, βασιλεῖς)
асс.
voc.
               βασιλεῦ
                                                  = voc.
```

25.25 $va\bar{v}ship (\rightarrow 4.86-7)$:

```
      sg.
      pl.

      nom.
      νηῦς (Att. ναῦς)
      νέες (Att. νῆες)

      gen.
      νεός (Att. νέως)
      νεῶν

      dat.
      νηΐ
      νηυσί (Att. ναυσί(ν))

      acc.
      νέἄς (Att. ναῦν)
      νέἄς (Att. ναῦς)
```

Ζεύς Zeus and βοῦς ox are declined as in Attic (\rightarrow 4.86-7).

The Article, Adjectives

25.26 The **article** is declined in accordance with the rules given for the first and second declensions above (\rightarrow 25.15–18), but the gen. pl. fem. is identical to the masc./neut. ($\tau \tilde{\omega} \nu$). Forms different from the Attic declension (\rightarrow 3.1) are underlined:

	sg.			pl.			
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
nom.	ò	ή	τό	οί	αί	τά	
gen.	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν	
dat.	τῷ	τῆ	τῷ	<u>τοῖσι</u>	<u>τῆσι</u>	<u>τοῖσι</u>	
acc.	τόν	τήν	то́	τούς	τάς	τά	

- Adjectives follow, depending on their patterns of declension (for which, \rightarrow 5), the paradigms given above. Some specific points:
 - first-and-second-declension adjectives which are contracted in Attic (type χρυσοῦς gold(en), →5.5) are not contracted in Ionic, e.g. dat. pl. masc./neut. χρυσέοισι (Att. χρυσοῖς), dat. sg. fem. σιδερέη iron (Att. σιδηρᾶ);
 - πλέος, πλέη, πλέον full (Att. πλέως, πλέ $\bar{\alpha}$, πλέων, →5.12);
 - πολλός, πολλή, πολλόν large, many, declined regularly (Att. πολύς, \rightarrow 5.13-14);
 - adjectives ending in -ης (type ἀληθής true, with a stem in εσ, →5.28-30) have uncontracted forms: e.g. ἀληθέος (Att. ἀληθοῦς), ἀληθέες (Att. ἀληθεῖς), etc.;
 - adjectives ending in -υς (type ἡδύς sweet, with a stem in υ/εϝ, →5.21-2) have uncontracted forms in the masc. and neut., e.g. ἡδέες (Att. ἡδεῖς), and the feminine is declined ἡδέα, ἡδέης, etc. (Att. ἡδεῖα, ἡδείας, etc.).

Pronouns

25.28 **Personal pronouns** (accented and unaccented, \rightarrow 7.1–2); forms different from Attic are underlined:

first person second person third person (for Att., →7.2) sg. nom. ἐγώ σύ
$$-$$
 gen. ἐμέο (Att. ἐμοῦ); $σέο; σεο, σευ$ (Att. $εὑ$ $ωευ, μου$ σοῦ; σου) dat. ἐμοἱ; μοι σοἱ; σοι, τοι αcc. ἐμέ; με σέ; σε $ωιν$ pl. nom. ἡμεῖς, ἡμέες ὑμεῖς, ὑμέες (σφεῖς) gen. ἡμέων (Att. ἡμῶν) ὑμέων (Att. ὑμῶν) $σφέων$ (Att. σφῶν); $σφεων$ dat. ἡμῖν ὑμῖν σφίσι; σφισι; σφι acc. ἡμέας (Att. ἡμᾶς) ὑμέας (Att. ὑμᾶς) $σφεας$ (Att. σφᾶς); $σφεας$; neut. $σφεας$ $σφεας$ (πο Att. equivalents)

Note 1: & (3 sg. acc., \rightarrow 7.2) is used in Herodotus only in quoted hexameter poetry. Note 2: τ 01 is also used in Herodotus with the force of an attitudinal particle, for which \rightarrow 59.51.

- 25.29 For **forms of αὐτός in crasis** (τ<u>ωὐ</u>τά = τὰ αὐτά; reflexive pronoun ἑ<u>ωυ</u>τοῦ), \rightarrow 25.14.
- 25.30 **Interrogative and indefinite pronouns**: apart from the regular third-declension forms (→7.24), some second-declension forms are used: gen. sg. τέο/τεῦ, dat. τέω, gen. pl. τέων, dat. τέοισι.

Hence also indefinite relative pronouns such as ὅτεο, ὁτέοισι, etc.

25.31 **Relative pronouns:** the form of the relative pronoun is identical with the article in all cases except the nom. sg. masc. ὅς, and with respect to accentuation, the nom. sg. fem. ἡ and the nom. pl. masc./fem. oĭ and oĭ:

	sg.			pl.			
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	
nom.	őς	ή	<u>τ</u> ό	οἵ	αἵ	<u>τ</u> ά	
gen.	<u>τ</u> οῦ	<u> </u>	<u> τ</u> οῦ	<u>τ</u> ῶν	<u>τ</u> ῶν	<u>τ</u> ῶν	
dat.	<u>τ</u> ῷ	<u>τ</u> ñ	<u>τ</u> ῷ	<u>τ</u> οῖσι	<u>τ</u> ῆσι	<u>τ</u> οῖσι	
acc.	<u>τ</u> όν	<u>τ</u> ήν	<u>τ</u> ό	τούς	<u>τ</u> άς	<u>τ</u> ά	

Example: δοῦναι <u>τὸ</u> ἀνθρώπω τυχεῖν ἄριστόν ἐστι to give what is best for a man to get (Hdt. 1.31.4)

But when they follow a preposition that can be elided the relative pronouns are used as in Attic: $\mathring{\alpha}\nu\tau$ ' $\mathring{\omega}\nu$ (note psilosis: Att. $\mathring{\alpha}\nu\theta$ ' $\mathring{\omega}\nu$), $\mathring{\epsilon}\pi$ ' $\mathring{\circ}\mathring{\circ}\sigma$! (Att. $\mathring{\epsilon}\varphi$ ' $\mathring{\circ}\mathring{\circ}\sigma$!), $\pi\alpha\rho$ ' $\mathring{\eta}\nu$.

Morphology: Verbal Forms

Thematic Conjugations

- 25.32 **Thematic conjugations** do not differ much from Attic (παιδεύω, παιδεύεις, etc.). The 2 sg. middle-passive endings are not contracted: -εαι (<*-εσαι; Att. -ει/η) and -εο (<*-εσο):
 - e.g. pres. ind. βούλ<u>εαι</u> you want, impf. ἐπηγγέλλ<u>εο</u> you offered, aor. ind. εἴρ<u>εο</u> you asked, aor. ind. ἐγέν<u>εο</u> you became, pres. imp. αἰτ<u>έο</u> ask! (<αἰτέεο, \rightarrow 25.6) (Att. βούλει, ἐπηγγέλλου, ἤρου, ἐγένου, αἰτοῦ).
- 25.33 **α-stem contract verbs** (Att. type τιμάω *honour*): usually contracted as in Attic. Before an o/ω an uncontracted form may be used with an ε as substitute for α:
 - e.g. τολμ<u>έω</u> I dare (Att. τολμῶ <-ἀω), ἐφοίτ<u>εον</u> they visited (next to ἐφοίτων <-αον; so in Att.), ἐπιτιμ<u>έων</u> honouring (Att. ἐπιτιμῶν <-ἀων).

25.34 ε-stem contract verbs (type ποιέω make, do) are generally left uncontracted (→25.6 above), but εο can be contracted to ευ:

		present active	present middle-passive
sg.	1	ποιέω (Att. ποιᾶ)	ποιέομαι/ποιεῦμαι (Att. ποιοῦμαι)
	2	ποιέεις (Att. ποιεῖς)	ποιέαι (with hyphaeresis, \rightarrow 25.6;
			Att. ποιεῖ/-ῆ)
	3	ποιέει (Att. ποιεῖ)	ποιέεται (Att. ποιεῖται)
pl.	1	ποιέομεν/ποιεῦμεν (Att. ποιοῦμεν)	ποιεόμεθα/ποιεύμεθα (Att.
			ποιούμεθα)
	2	ποιέετε (Att. ποιεῖτε)	ποιέεσθε (Att. ποιεῖσθε)
	3	ποιέουσι/ποιεῦσι (Att. ποιοῦσι)	ποιέονται/ποιεῦνται (Att.
			ποιοῦνται
		imperfect active	imperfect middle-passive
sg.	1	ἐποίεον/ἐποίευν (Att. ἐποίουν)	2 1 12 1 () 4 1 2 1 3
		endicoviendicov (IIII. endicov)	ἐποιεόμην/ἐποιεύμην (Att. ἐποιούμην)
	2	ἐποίεες (Att. ἐποίεις)	εποιεομην/εποιευμην (Att. εποιουμην) ἐποιέο (with hyphaeresis; Att. ἐποιοῦ)
			ἐποιέο (with <i>hyphaeresis</i> ; Att.
pl.	2	ἐποίεες (Att. ἐποίεις)	ἐποιέο (with <i>hyphaeresis</i> ; Att. ἐποιοῦ)
pl.	<i>2 3</i>	ἐποίεες (Att. ἐποίεις) ἐποίεε (Att. ἐποίει)	ἐποιέο (with <i>hyphaeresis</i> ; Att. ἐποιοῦ) ἐποιέετο (Att. ἐποιεῖτο)
pl.	<i>2 3</i>	ἐποίεες (Att. ἐποίεις) ἐποίεε (Att. ἐποίει) ἐποιέομεν/ἐποιεῦμεν (Att.	ἐποιέο (with <i>hyphaeresis</i> ; Att. ἐποιοῦ) ἐποιέετο (Att. ἐποιεῖτο) ἐποιεόμεθα/ἐποιεύμεθα (Att.

Also note:

- optatives sometimes contract after diphthongs: e.g. 1 sg. ποι<u>οῖμι</u>, 3 sg. ποι<u>οῖ</u> (but uncontracted 3 pl. ποιέοιεν; Att. ποιοῖεν);
- optatives are always uncontracted after consonants: κα<u>λέοι</u>, φρο<u>νέοιεν</u> (Att. καλοίη/καλοῖ, φρονοῖεν);
- infinitive: ποιέειν, ποιέεσθαι (Att. ποιεῖν, ποιεῖσθαι);
- participle: ποι<u>έων</u>, ποι<u>έουσα</u>, ποι<u>έον</u>, etc. (Att. ποιῶν, ποιοῦσα, ποιοῦν, etc.); also attested are forms such as ποιεῦντα, ποιεῦσα.
- 25.35 **o-stem contract verbs** (type δηλόω *make clear*): contracted as in Attic. In some editions spurious forms like ἐδικαίευν (= ἐδικαίουν *I thought it right to*) and ἀξιεῦμαι (= ἀξιοῦμαι *I deem worthy*) are found.
- 25.36 Observe quantitative metathesis (→1.71, 25.7) and the absence of contraction (→25.6) in η-stem contract verb forms like χρέωμαι use (<*χρήομαι, Att. χρῶμαι).

Athematic Conjugations

25.37 The 2 sg. middle ending of the sigmatic aorist is not contracted: -αο (<*-ασο, Att. -ω):
e.g. ἐδέξ<u>αο</u> you received (δέχομαι), ἐφθέγξ<u>αο</u> you uttered (φθέγγομαι) (Att. ἐδέξω, ἐφθέγξω).

Thematic forms are found in the present and imperfect conjugations of - μ 1 verbs (for similar forms in Attic, \rightarrow 12.53-6):

τίθημι put, place: 3 sg. pres. act. ind. τιθεῖ (Att. τίθησι)

δίδωμι give: 2 sg. pres. act. ind. διδ<u>οῖς</u>, 3 sg. διδ<u>οῖ</u> (also δίδωσι), 3 pl. διδ<u>οῦσι</u> (Att. δίδως, δίδωσι, διδόασι)

ἵστημι make stand, set up: 3 sg. pres. act. ind. $ἱστ\underline{α}$, 2 sg. pres. act. imp. $ἵστ\underline{α}$ (Att. ἵστησι, ἵστη)

ἵημι send, let go: 3 sg. pres. act. ind. ἐξιεῖ (Att. ἐξίησι)

κεχωρισμένοι/-αι εἰσί, κάθηνται, ἡπίσταντο).

- -νυμι verbs (e.g. δείκνυμι *show*, ὄμνυμι *swear*, ζεύγνυμι *yoke*): 3 sg. pres. act. ind. δεικνύ<u>ει</u>, 3 pl. ὀμνύ<u>ουσι</u>, 1 sg. impf. ἐζεύγνυ<u>ον</u>, 3 sg. ἐζεύγνυ<u>ε</u> (Att. δείκνυσι, ὀμνύασι, ἐζεύγνυν, ἐζεύγνυ)
- 25.39 Instead of the 3 pl. middle-passive endings -νται and -ντο, -ἄται and -ἄτο (with vocalized ν, →1.86) are generally used in athematic conjugations (this includes pf. and plpf. forms which in Attic occur only as periphrastic forms, →17.5-7, 19.8):
 e.g. τιθέαται, κέαται, κεχωρίδαται, κατέαται, ἠπιστέατο (Att. τίθενται, κεῖνται,

Note 1: These endings are also used in the optative: βουλοί<u>ατο, γενοίατο</u> (Att. βούλοιντο, γένοιντο).

25.40 siµi be:

	present	imperfect
1 sg.	ε ဲ μί	$\underline{\mathring{\epsilon}\alpha}$ (Att. $\mathring{\eta}(\nu)$)
2	<u>εἷς</u> (Att. εἷ)	<u>ἔας</u> (Att. ἦσθα)
3	ἐστί	ήν
1 pl.	<u>εἰμέν</u> (Att. ἐσμέν)	<u>ἔαμεν</u> (Att. ἦμεν)
2	ἐστέ	<u>ἔατε</u> (Att. ἦτε)
3	દોσί	ἦσαν

subj. 1 sg. $\underline{\check{\epsilon}\omega}$, 3 pl. $\underline{\check{\epsilon}\omega\sigma_1}$ (Att. $\tilde{\omega}$, $\tilde{\omega}\sigma_1(\nu)$)

ppl. $\underline{\mathring{\epsilon}}\underline{\mathring{\omega}}\underline{\nu}$, $\underline{\mathring{\epsilon}}\underline{\mathring{o}}\underline{\mathring{v}}\underline{\sigma}\alpha$, $\underline{\mathring{\epsilon}}\underline{\mathring{o}}\underline{\nu}$, etc. (Att. $\mathring{\omega}\nu$, $\underline{\mathring{o}}\underline{\mathring{v}}\underline{\sigma}\alpha$, $\mathring{o}\nu$)

25.41 The endings of the aorist passive subjunctive are uncontracted (→25.6 above): e.g. ἀπαιρεθέω I am robbed of (subj.) (<*-θη-ω, →14.7; Att. ἀφαιρεθῶ).</p>

Similarly, note e.g. aor. subj. θέωμεν let us place (<θήομεν, Att. θῶμεν).

Further Points on Verbal Morphology

25.42 Herodotus uses imperfects with the **iterative suffix -σκ**-, always without the augment: ἔσκε he was, διαφθείρεσκε he kept destroying, ποιέεσκον I/they kept doing.

25.43 The so-called temporal augment (with stems that begin with a vowel or diphthong, →11.37-8, with n.1) is often lacking: ἀμείβετο he replied (impf. of ἀμείβομαι, instead of ἡμείβετο), διαιτώμην I dwelt (impf. of διαιτάομαι, instead of διητώμην), οἴκητο it was inhabited (plpf. of οἰκέω, instead of ἤκητο).

Observe also the absence of reduplication in the case of the irregular perfect \underline{oi} κα be likely (Att. ἔοικα, \rightarrow 18.22), ppl. οἰκός, οἰκός (ἐστι) (it is) likely.

25.44 In a compound verb a postpositive particle (such as τε, δέ, μέν, ὧν) may separate the prefix from the verb: e.g. κατ' ὧν ἐκάλυψε he buried (Hdt. 2.47.3): this is called **tmesis**.

Further Particulars

- 25.45 Observe the following further uses which diverge from Attic:
 - ἐπείτε when alongside ἐπεί, and ἔπειτε thereupon occasionally, alongside more frequent ἔπειτα (note the difference in accentuation between ἐπείτε and ἔπειτε);
 - ἐς ὅ and ἐς οὖ until (conjunctions; Att. ἕως);
 - μετά after is also used in adverbial sense afterwards;
 - $\mathring{\omega}$ στε + ppl. and \mathring{o} iα + ppl. are used in the same sense as \mathring{a} τε + ppl. (→52.39);
 - οὐδαμά, μηδαμά never.

The 'Doric' \(\bar{\alpha}\) in Choral Lyric

25.46 A particular feature of the choral lyric of the Attic dramatists, which has a superficial 'Doric' colouring (\rightarrow 25.2), is the **use of original long** $\bar{\alpha}$ rather than the Attic-Ionic η (\rightarrow 1.57, 25.5).

Note 1: This use of $\bar{\alpha}$ is therefore often called 'Doric', even though long $\bar{\alpha}$ was used in all dialects apart from Attic-Ionic.

- 25.47 Long $\bar{\alpha}$ for Attic η is found in lyrics in drama under the following circumstances:
 - in first declension endings: γ<u>α</u> land, βιοτ<u>α</u> living, πταμέν<u>α</u>ς βροντ<u>α</u>ς (gen.) when the thunder flies, Κρονίδ<u>α</u>ς son of Cronus (Att. γῆ, βιοτή, πταμένης βροντῆς, Κρονίδης);

'Doric' long $\bar{\alpha}$ + o/ω contracts to $\bar{\alpha}$ (not ω): thus, gen. sg. of masculine first-declension nouns in $\bar{\alpha}$ (<- $\bar{\alpha}$ ο, Att. -ου), and gen. pl. of all first-declension nouns in $\bar{\alpha}\nu$ (<- $\bar{\alpha}\omega\nu$, Att. - $\bar{\omega}\nu$): $\nu\epsilon\bar{\alpha}\nu$ i $\bar{\alpha}$ young man, $\beta\alpha\kappa\chi\underline{\tilde{\alpha}\nu}$ bacchants, $\mu\epsilon\lambda\iota\sigma\underline{\tilde{\alpha}\nu}$ bees (Att. $\nu\epsilon\bar{\alpha}\nu$ iου, $\beta\alpha\kappa\chi\tilde{\omega}\nu$, $\mu\epsilon\lambda\iota\tau\tau\tilde{\omega}\nu$);

- 1 sg. middle-passive forms with secondary ending -μαν: e.g. ἀνειλόμαν I killed
 (Att. ἀνειλόμην);
- in **augmented** forms of ἄγω lead, bring, e.g. ᾶγες (Att. ἦγες);
- in other individual words like μ $\underline{\alpha}$ τηρ mother, $\underline{\alpha}$ Λιος sun, etc.

Note 1: The use of the 'Doric' ᾱ in choral lyric is not consistent. In the lyrical parodos to the *Bacchae*, for example, Euripides uses ἡδύν sweet (Eur. Bacch. 66) and ἡδύς (135), but ἑδυβόα sweet-sounding (127).

Part II

Syntax

Introduction to Simple Sentences

- Below, the basic syntactic principles and concepts that will be relevant in chapters
 to 38 are discussed. All examples in this chapter are taken from Xenophon's
 Anabasis, unless otherwise indicated.
- 26.2 Chapters 40 to 52 deal with the various types of subordinate constructions found in complex sentences (subordinate clauses, participles, infinitives, and verbal adjectives): these will be separately introduced in chapter 39.

The Sentence Core

Predicate, Subject, Object, Complement

- 26.3 Most sentences (for the exceptions, \rightarrow 26.13) contain at least a **predicate** (nearly always a finite verb) and one or more **obligatory constituents** that belong to that predicate; together these make up the **sentence core**.
 - Nearly all verbs take at least one obligatory constituent, a **subject**. Subjects are marked by the nominative case (\rightarrow 30.2), and agree in person and number with the predicate (\rightarrow 27.1). Some verbs take only a subject:
 - Κῦρος_{SUBJECT} . . . ἐτελεύτησεν_{PREDICATE}. (1.9.1)
 Cyrus came to his end.
 - (2) ἀπέθανον_{PREDICATE} δὲ ἀλίγοι_{SUBJECT}. (6.5.29)
 And a few died.
 - (3) <u>ὑμεῖς_{SUBJECT}</u> δὲ <u>εὐτυχοῖτε_{PREDICATE}</u>. (Xen. *Hell.* 7.1.11) May you be fortunate.
 - Many verbs take both a subject and another obligatory constituent. With a majority of such verbs, this second obligatory constituent is the (direct) object, which is marked by the accusative case (→30.8); some verbs take second obligatory constituents in a different case (such constituents are called complements):
 - (4) στρουθόν_{ΟΒ}JECT δὲ οὐδεὶς_{SUB}JECT ἔλαβεν_{PREDICATE}. (1.5.3)
 No one caught an ostrich.
 - (5) ἐγώ_{SUBJECT} ... ὑμᾶς_{OBJECT} ἐπαινῶ_{PREDICATE}. (1.4.16)
 I commend you.

- (6) <u>πάντες οἱ πολῖται_{SUBJECT} ... μετεῖχον_{PREDICATE} τῆς ἑορτῆς_{COMPLEMENT}.</u> (5.3.9) All the citizens took part in the festival.
- (7) οἱ δὲ στρατιῶται_{SUBJECT} ἐχαλέπαινου_{PREDICATE} τοῖς στρατηγοῖς_{COMPLEMENT}. (1.4.12)

The soldiers were angry at the generals.

- Some verbs take more than two obligatory constituents: a subject, an object, and one (or more) further complements. Often the third obligatory constituent is the **indirect object**, which is marked by the dative case (→30.37); other verbs take a second complement in the accusative or genitive:
- (8) Συέννεσις_{SUBJECT} μὲν ἔδωκε_{PREDICATE} Κύρω_{INDIRECT} ΟΒJECT χρήματα πολλά_{OBJECT}. (1.2.27)
 Syennesis gave Cyrus much money.
- (9) ἀρίστιππος δὲ ὁ Θετταλὸς SUBJECT ... αἰτεῖ PREDICATE αὐτὸν OBJECT ... δισχιλίους ξένους COMPLEMENT. (1.1.10)
 Aristippus the Thessalian asked him for two thousand mercenaries.
- In the examples above, the obligatory constituents of a verb are expressed by a **noun phrase or a pronoun** (these are treated more fully below, →26.16-23). Such obligatory constituents may also take other forms, however. The most important of these are:
 - prepositional phrases (consisting of a preposition and its complement):
 - (10) ἀφικνοῦνται_{PREDICATE} πρὸς Ἡριαῖον _{COMPLEMENT} ... οἱ ἀδελφοί_{SUBJECT}. (2.4.1) Το Ariaeus came his brothers.
 - adverbs:
 - (11) <u>ἐνταῦθα_{COMPLEMENT} ἀφικνεῖται_{PREDICATE} Ἐπύαξα_{SUBJECT}.</u> (1.2.12) Epyaxa came there.
 - subordinate clauses:
 - (12) οὖτοι_{SUBJECT} ἔλεγον_{PREDICATE} ὅτι Κῦρος ... τέθνηκεν_{OBJECT}. (2.1.3) These men said that Cyrus was dead. The declarative subordinate clause (→41) fulfils the role of object with the predicate ἔλεγον: compare ταῦτα in ἔλεγον ταῦτα 'They said those things.'
 - infinitive constructions:
 - (13) ἐγώ_{SUBJECT} φημι_{PREDICATE} ταῦτα... φλυαρίας εἶναι_{OBJECT}. (1.3.18)
 I say that that is nonsense. The accusative-and-infinitive construction (→51.21)
 fulfils the role of object with the predicate φημι: compare ταῦτα in φημὶ ταῦτα
 'I say those things.'

- participle constructions:

(14) ἐγώ_{SUBJECT} ... οἶδα_{PREDICATE} ... ἡμῖν ὅρκους γεγενημένους _{OBJECT} (2.5.3) I know that there are oaths between us. The accusative-and-participle construction (→52.13) fulfils the role of object with the predicate οἶδα: compare ταῦτα in οἶδα ταῦτα 'I know those things.'

When a constituent is expressed in the form of a subordinate clause or a construction with an infinitive or participle, this is called a **complex sentence**. For complex sentences, $\rightarrow 39$.

Note 1: The number of obligatory constituents that accompany a verb is called the 'valency' of that verb: thus ἀποθνήσκω *die* (2) has a valency of one (or: is 'one-place'), δίδωμι *give* (8) has a valency of three (or: is 'three-place').

Some verbs have different valencies in different meanings. For instance, the verb $\varphi \epsilon \dot{\nu} \gamma \omega$, when it takes only a subject, means *run away*, *flee*, *be in exile*, but may also take an object and then means *flee* (*someone*), *be chased by someone*:

- (15) οἱ βάρβαροι_{SUBJECT} . . . φεύγουσι_{PREDICATE}. (1.8.19)
 The barbarians fled.
- (16) οἱ δειλοὶ κύνες_{SUBJECT} ... τοὺς ... διώκοντας_{OBJECT} φεύγουσιν_{PREDICATE}. (3.2.35) Cowardly dogs run away from those who chase them.

Note 2: The subject, object and other obligatory constituents that belong to the predicate are also called 'arguments'. The sentence core is also called the 'nucleus' of a sentence.

26.5 There are a few verbs which do not have a subject ('impersonal' verbs, →36), and very few of these take no other obligatory constituents (i.e. are 'zero-place'). The sentence core then consists of nothing but the verb: e.g. ὕει it is raining.

'Omission' of the Subject and Other Constituents

- 26.6 That a verb takes a certain number of obligatory constituents does not mean that all those constituents are necessarily expressed every single time that verb is used. A constituent may be omitted if it is sufficiently clear from the context who or what is meant:

- The lack of an explicit, separately expressed **subject** is particularly frequent in Greek, and constitutes a regular feature of the language. Information about the subject of a verb is often expressed only by the **personal ending** of that verb:
 - (18) λέγει Σεύθης· Ἀργύριον μὲν οὐκ ἔχω. (7.7.53)
 Seuthes said: 'I do not have silver.' The subject ('I') is expressed by the first-person singular ending.
 - (19) θέσθε τὰ ὅπλα ἐν τάξει. (7.1.22)
 Position your weapons in battle order. The subject is expressed by the second-person plural ending. Note that English, too, normally omits the subject with imperatives.
 - (20) Κῦρος δὲ ... ὡρμᾶτο ἀπὸ Σάρδεων· καὶ ἐξελαύνει διὰ τῆς Λυδίας. (1.2.5)
 Cyrus set off from Sardis. And he marched through Lydia. The subject of ἐξελαύνει is expressed by the third-person singular ending; the identity of the subject, Cyrus, is clear from the preceding context.

In the third person, the omission of the subject is regular if the subject of the previous sentence is continued, as in (20). If the subject changes, as in (17), an explicitly expressed subject is normally required.

In the first and second person, explicitly expressed subjects (in the form of the personal pronouns ἐγώ, σύ, ἡμεῖς, ὑμεῖς) are used only for emphasis or contrast. For such 'contrastive' pronouns, $\rightarrow 29.1-4$.

Note 1: The omission of other elements than the subject (such as the object in (17)) is much more restricted and infrequent than the lack of an explicitly expressed subject.

Linking Verb, Predicative Complement

A linking verb (or copulative/copular verb, copula) 'links' a subject to a nominal constituent, the so-called **predicative complement**, which identifies the subject or assigns a property to it. The predicative complement is usually an **adjective** which agrees in case, number and gender with the subject, or a **noun** which agrees with the subject in case (\rightarrow 27.7, 30.3).

Examples of verbs that can function as linking verbs are εἰμί be, γίγνομαι become, καθίσταμαι become, μένω remain, stay, φαίνομαι seem, appear to be, prove to be, etc.

- (21) τὸ στράτευμα_{SUBJECT} πάμπολυ_{PREDICATIVE} ADJECTIVE ἐφάνη_{LINKING} VERB _{PREDICATE} (3.4.13)

 The army appeared to be very large. πάμπολυ agrees with τὸ στράτευμα in case, number and gender.
- (22) μεγάλα_{PREDICATIVE} ADJECTIVE ... τόξα τὰ Περσικά_{SUBJECT} ἐστιν_{LINKING} VERB_{PREDICATE}. (3.4.17)

The Persian bows are large. $\mu \epsilon \gamma \dot{\alpha} \lambda \alpha$ agrees with $\tau \dot{\phi} \xi \alpha$ in case, number and gender.

(23) τὰ δὲ ἆθλα_{SUBJECT} ἦσαν_{LINKING} VERB στλεγγίδες χρυσαῖ PREDICATIVE NOUN PREDICATE. (1.2.10)

The prizes were golden strigils. $\sigma\tau\lambda\epsilon\gamma\gamma$ ίδες χρυσ α ĩ agrees with $\tau\dot{\alpha}$ $\tilde{\alpha}\theta\lambda\alpha$ in case. For the plural ἦσ $\alpha\nu$ with a neut. pl. subject, \rightarrow 27.2.

Note 1: Predicative nouns or adjectives are sometimes called 'predicate nouns/adjectives'. Predicative complements agreeing with a subject are also sometimes called 'subject(ive) complements'.

- 26.9 Many linking verbs also occur with an adverbial expression of place or circumstance as their complement: e.g. εἰμί be (somewhere), find oneself (somewhere), γίγνομαι get somewhere, μένω stay somewhere. In many grammatical treatments, such complements are also seen as predicative complements:
 - (24) <u>ἐνθάδε_{COMPLEMENT}</u> δ' <u>εἰμί_{LINKING VERB}</u>. (3.3.2)
 I am here.
 - (25) Πρόξενος δὲ καὶ Μένων_{SUBJECT} . . . ἐν μεγάλῃ τιμῆ_{COMPLEMENT} εἰσιν_{LINKING VERB}. (2.5.38) And Proxenus and Meno are (held) in great esteem.
- - (26) <u>ἔστι_{PREDICATE} χωρίον χρημάτων πολλῶν μεστόν_{SUBJECT}.</u> (5.2.7) There is a place filled with many riches.
 - (27) ἀγαθὸν_{SUBJECT} ... γεγένηται_{PREDICATE}. (5.4.19)
 A good thing has happened.
- As an alternative for the linking verb $\epsilon i\mu i + adjective$ classical Greek frequently uses $\xi \chi \omega + adverb$ in the meaning to be (in a . . . state), e.g.:
 - (28) χαλεπῶς δὲ ἔχει ἡμῖν πρὸς τοῖς ἄλλοις καὶ ἡ πειθώ. (Thuc. 3.53.4)

 In addition to the other things persuading is difficult for us as well.
 - (29) ΔΗ. ὧ κακόδαιμον, πῶς ἔχεις; :: ΝΙ. κακῶς, καθάπερ σύ. (Ar. Eq. 7-8)
 (Demos:) you wretched one, how are you? :: (Nicias:) I'm not doing well, just like you.
- 26.12 Some other verbs link an **object** to a predicative complement that agrees with that object (both are accusative). Examples of such verbs are νομίζω *consider X (to be) Y*, ἡγέομαι *consider X (to be) Y*, ποιέω *make X Y*, αἰρέομαι *appoint X as Y* (for more details, →30.10):
 - (30) σχολαίαν $_{\text{PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVE}}$... ἐποίουν $_{\text{VERB}}$ $_{\text{PREDICATE}}$ τὴν πορείαν $_{\text{OBJECT}}$... τὰ ὑποζύγια $_{\text{SUBJECT}}$. (4.1.13)
 - The baggage animals made the journey slow. $\sigma \chi o \lambda \alpha i \alpha v$ agrees with $\tau \dot{\eta} v$ $\pi o \rho \epsilon i \alpha v$ in case, number, and gender.

- (31) δικαστάς PREDICATIVE NOUN δὲ τοὺς λοχαγούς ΟΒJECT ἐποιήσαντο VERB PREDICATE. (5.7.34)

 As judges they appointed the captains. δικαστάς agrees with τοὺς λοχαγοὺς in case
- (32) μηκέτι <u>με_{OBJECT} Κῦρον_{PREDICATIVE} NOUN νομίζετε_{VERB} PREDICATE</sub>.</u> (1.4.16) You must no longer consider me (to be) Cyrus. Κῦρον agrees with με in case.

Note 1: Predicative complements agreeing with an object are sometimes called 'object(ive) complements'.

Omission of a Linking Verb: Nominal Sentences

- Frequently, a linking verb such as $\epsilon \sigma \tau i(\nu)$ or $\epsilon i \sigma i(\nu)$ is lacking in a sentence, whose core then contains only nominal elements. This occurs especially in the following cases:
 - with evaluative words, such as χαλεπόν (it is) difficult, ἀνάγκη (it is) necessary,
 εἰκός (it is) likely, proper, etc.:
 - (33) ἀναμιμνήσκονται ἄρα ἄ ποτε ἔμαθον; :: ἀνάγκη_{PREDICATE}. (Pl. *Phd.* 76c) (Socrates:) Then they recollect the things they once learned? :: (Simmias:) Necessarily. *Lit.*: '<*it is> a necessity*'.
 - (34) Σω. σὐ δὲ αὐτός ... Μένων, τί φὴς ἀρετὴν εἶναι; ... :: ΜΕ. ἀλλ' οὐ χαλεπόν_{PREDICATE}, ὧ Σώκρατες, εἰπεῖν_{SUBJECT}. (Pl. Men. 71d-e) (Socrates:) But you yourself, Meno, what do you say virtue is? :: (Meno:) Why, it is not hard to say, Socrates.
 - with verbal adjectives in -τέος, -τέα, -τέον (especially in the impersonal use of the neuter, →37.3):
 - (35) ἡ δ' ὁδὸς_{SUBJECT} πορευτέα_{PREDICATE}. (Soph. *Phil.* 993)

 The road must be travelled. (*lit. 'the road <is> to be travelled'*)
 - (36) πορευτέον_{PREDICATE} δ' ἡμῖν τοὺς πρώτους σταθμούς. (2.2.12)
 We must make the first marches. Impersonal use (lit. 'There <is> to be travelled by us the first marches'); for this construction, →37.3.
 - in so-called gnomic utterances (proverbs, maxims, etc.), general statements and exclamations:
 - (37) δυσάρεστος ήμῶν καὶ φιλόψογος PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVE πόλις SUBJECT. (Eur. El. 904)
 - Our city is peevish and inclined to criticize.
 - (38) οἶον_{PREDICATIVE} ADJECTIVE Τὸ ΤΕΚΕῖν_{SUBJECT}. (Ar. Lys. 884)

 How momentous is motherhood! Lit.: 'What a thing <is> bearing <children>!'

- in formulaic questions and answers:
- (39) εἶτα τί_{PREDICATE} τοῦτο_{SUBJECT}; (Ar. Nub. 347) So what? Lit.: 'What <is> this, then?'
- and sometimes more freely:
- (40) καλὸς_{PREDICATE} ᾿Αρχίας_{SUBJECT}. (IG I³ 1405) Archias is handsome.

Only the present indicative of $\epsilon i\mu i$ be is regularly omitted as linking verb in this way: other forms such as imperfect $\tilde{\eta}\nu$ or potential optative $\epsilon i\eta$ $\tilde{\alpha}\nu$ ($\rightarrow 34.13$) are not normally omitted.

Optional Constituents

Adverbial Modifiers and Other Optional Constituents

26.14 Many core sentences are elaborated by one or more optional (non-obligatory) constituents, which can be left out without making the sentence ungrammatical, and which supplement the sentence core in various ways. Most often such constituents are adverbial modifiers.

Such optional constituents can be expressed by:

- adverbs:
- (41) Τισσαφέρνης_{SUBJECT} ... ἐκεῖ_{ADVERBIAL} MODIFIER συντυγχάνει_{PREDICATE} βασιλεῖ_{COMPLEMENT}. (1.10.8)
 Tissaphernes met the king there. Adverbial modifier of place.
- noun phrases and pronouns (in the accusative, genitive or dative, $\rightarrow 29, 30$):
- (42) Ξενοφῶν_{SUBJECT} ... ἄχετο_{PREDICATE} <u>τῆς νυκτός</u>_{ADVERBIAL MODIFIER}. (7.2.17) Xenophon departed during the night. Adverbial modifier of time, expressed by the genitive, →30.32.
- (43) ἄλλο δὲ στράτευμα_{SUBJECT} αὐτῷ_{OPTIONAL CONSTITUENT} συνελέγετο_{PREDICATE} ἐν Χερρονήσῳ. (1.1.9)
 - Another army was being assembled for him in the Chersonese. Constituent representing the beneficiary/interested party, expressed by the dative, $\rightarrow 30.49$. Such constituents are often taken as indirect objects, but unlike indirect objects with verbs of giving, etc. (for which $\rightarrow 26.3$), they are optional.
- prepositional phrases:
- (44) <u>ἐπὶ τούτω</u>_{ADVERBIAL} MODIFIER Κλεάνωρ ὁ Ὀρχομένιος_{SUBJECT} ἀνέστη_{PREDICATE}. (3.2.4)

Thereupon, Cleanor the Orchomenian stood up. *Adverbial modifier of time*. And in the case of complex sentences, by:

- subordinate clauses:

(45) <u>ἐπεὶ δὲ καὶ οἱ ἄλλοι στρατιῶται συνῆλθον</u> ADVERBIAL MODIFIER ἀνέστη PREDICATE . . . Χειρίσοφος ὁ Λακεδαιμόνιος SUBJECT. (3.2.1)

When the other soldiers too had assembled, Chirisophus the Spartan stood up. The temporal subordinate clause (\rightarrow 47) serves as an adverbial modifier of time.

- participle constructions (also $\rightarrow 26.26$):
- (46) καὶ <u>ἄμα ταῦτα ποιούντων ἡμῶν</u> ADVERBIAL MODIFIER ... Ἀριαῖος SUBJECT ἀφεστήξει PREDICATE. (2.4.5)

 And while we are doing that, Ariaeus will have abandoned us. *The genitive*

absolute construction serves as an adverbial modifier of time.

- 26.15 Adverbial modifiers operate on different 'levels' of the sentence:
 - The adverbial modifiers in examples (41)-(46) express such semantic categories as the place where, the time when, the circumstance(s) under which, the manner in which, the reasons because of which, etc., the action expressed by a predicate takes place. Adverbial modifiers functioning at this level (i.e. those which have scope over (the verb in) the core sentence) are often called adjuncts.
 - Adverbial modifiers may also have scope over a constituent only, modifying nouns, attributive modifiers, other adverbial modifiers, etc. (such adverbial modifiers are called subjuncts):
 - (47) τούς ... λοχαγούς $_{\rm HEAD}$ τούς $_{\rm L}$ μάλιστα $_{\rm ADVERBIAL}$ MODIFIER φίλους $_{\rm ATTRIBUTIVE}$ MODIFIER (7.8.11)
 - the captains who were his most intimate friends . . . $\mu\dot{\alpha}\lambda\iota\sigma\tau\alpha$, a so-called 'intensifier', modifies $\varphi(\lambda\circ\iota\varsigma)$, which itself is an attributive modifier with $\lambda\circ\chi\alpha\gamma\circ\iota\varsigma$.
 - (48) ἐκλώπευον $_{PREDICATE}$... οἱ Παφλαγόνες $_{SUBJECT}$ εὖ μάλα $_{ADVERBIAL}$ μουίς αποσκεδαννυμένους $_{OBJECT}$. (6.1.1)

The Paphlagonians very easily kidnapped the stragglers. The intensifier $\mu\dot{\alpha}\lambda\alpha$ modifies $\epsilon\dot{\upsilon}$, which itself is an adverbial modifier of manner.

- (49) ἐξεπλάγη_{PREDICATE} δέ ... καὶ_{ADVERBIAL MODIFIER} βασιλεύς _{SUBJECT}. (2.2.18)
 And even the king was terrified. καί, a marker of 'scope' (→59.56), modifies βασιλεύς, which is the subject of ἐξεπλάγη.
- Some other adverbial modifiers are, syntactically speaking, more detached, and have scope over the sentence as a whole, expressing the attitude of the speaker towards the reality or desirability of the *content* of his sentence, or his attitude towards the *form* or *style* of the sentence (such modifiers are often called **disjuncts**):
- (50) ἴσως_{ADVERBIAL MODIFIER} δὲ καὶ τῶν ἐπιτηδείων σπανιεῖ. (2.2.12)
 Perhaps he will lack supplies as well. The adverb ἴσως expresses the speaker's attitude towards the reality of the content of the sentence.

- (51) ἀληθές γε ὡς ἔπος εἰπεῖν_{ADVERBIAL MODIFIER} οὐδὲν εἰρήκασιν. (Pl. Ap. 17a)
 They have said not a single thing, so to say, which is true. The idiomatic phrase ὡς ἔπος εἰπεῖν (→51.49) expresses the speaker's (Socrates') attitude towards the form of his utterance Socrates signals that his words (specifically οὐδέν) should not be taken too literally.
- Finally, grammars typically recognize a fourth type of adverbial modifier, that of conjuncts, which indicate how one sentence or larger unit of text relates to its surrounding context, i.e. which play a role in structuring a text; such forms are treated in this grammar as connective discourse particles, →59.7-39:
- (52) ἐνταῦθα ἔμεινεν ὁ Κῦρος καὶ ἡ στρατιὰ ἡμέρας εἴκοσιν· οἱ <u>γὰρ</u> στρατιῶται οὐκ ἔφασαν ἰέναι τοῦ πρόσω· ὑπώπτευον <u>γὰρ</u> ἤδη ἐπὶ βασιλέα ἰέναι· μισθωθῆναι <u>δὲ</u> οὐκ ἐπὶ τούτῳ ἔφασαν. (1.3.1)

There Cyrus and the army stayed for twenty days, for the soldiers said that they would not go on. For they already suspected that they were moving on the king, and they said that they had not enlisted with that in mind.

Noun Phrases

Elements of the Noun Phrase

26.16 In most of the examples above, constituents take the form of a noun phrase. A noun phrase consists of (at least) a head, and (possibly) various kinds of modifiers which are added to the head.

For example, in each of the examples below, a noun phrase with $\alpha\nu\delta\rho\alpha$ as its head serves as object to a form of $\delta\rho\delta\omega$ see:

- (53) <u>ἄνδρα_{HEAD} οΒJECT</u> ὁρῶ_{PREDICATE}. I see a man.
- (54) <u>Τόν_{MODIFIER} ἄνδρα_{HEAD}</u> ορῶ_{PREDICATE}. (1.8.26) I see the man.
- (55) ἐν πολέμω δὲ ἤδη εἶδες_{PREDICATE} ἄνδρα_{HEAD} δειλόν<sub>MODIFIER</sup> OBJECT; (Pl. Grg. 498a)
 And in war, have you ever seen a cowardly man?</sub>
- (56) ὁρᾳ_{PREDICATE} τόν_{MODIFIER} ἄνδρα_{HEAD} τῆς γυναικός_{MODIFIER} _{OBJECT}. (Ar. Av. 794) He sees the woman's husband.
- (57) οὐκ εἶδον_{PREDICATE} οὕτως <u>ἄνδρ'</u>_{HEAD} ἄγροικον . . . | οὐδ' ἄπορον οὐδὲ σκαιὸν οὐδ' ἐπιλήσμονα | ὅστις σκαλαθυρμάτι' ἄττα μικρὰ μανθάνων | ταῦτ' ἐπιλέλησται πρὶν μαθεῖν_{OBIECT}. (Ar. Nub. 628–31)

I have seen no man so boorish, so incapable, so dimwitted, so forgetful that when he learns petty quibbles he has forgotten them before he has learnt them. All of the adjectives and the $\delta\sigma\tau\iota\varsigma$ -clause may be seen as modifiers of $\delta\sigma\tau\iota\varsigma$ -clause, however, $\rightarrow 50.25$).

Types of Modifier

- 26.17 The following types of modifier **agree** with the head in case, number and gender $(\rightarrow 27.7)$:
 - the **definite article** (for a full treatment, \rightarrow 28);
 - demonstrative, indefinite, interrogative, and possessive pronouns (for details, →29):

Such was the ending of this day. ταύτης agrees with ήμέρας, τοῦτο with τέλος.

- (59) τίνα_{MODIFIER} γνώμην_{HEAD} ἔχεις περὶ τῆς πορείας; (2.2.10)
 What opinion do you have concerning the expedition? τίνα agrees with γνώμην.
- numerals: cardinal numerals such as εἶς one, δύο two, ordinal numerals such as πρῶτος first, δεὐτερος second (for details, →9); among the ordinals may also be reckoned adjectives such as ἄλλος other and ἕτερος other (for details, →29.48–52), λοῖπος further, remaining, and several others:
- (60) αἰτεῖ αὐτὸν ... δισχιλίους MODIFIER ξένους HEAD. (1.1.10)

 He asked him for two thousand mercenaries. δισχιλίους agrees with ξένους.
- (61) ἀφικνοῦνται ἐπὶ τὸ ὄρος τῆμοριστίες πέμπτημοριστίες ἡμέρα_{HEAD}. (4.7.21) They reached the mountain on the fifth day. πέμπτη agrees with ἡμέρα.
- quantifiers: certain adjectives indicating quantity, such as πολύς much, many,
 ὀλίγος little, few, πᾶς all, every, ἕκαστος every, each:
- (62) ἦρχον δὲ τότε $\boxed{\underline{πάντων_{MODIFIER}}\ \tau \tilde{\omega} \nu_{MODIFIER}\ \epsilon}$ Ελλήνων $_{HEAD}$ οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι. (6.6.9)

The Spartans ruled over all the Greeks at that time. πάντων agrees with Ελλήνων.

- (other) adjectives and participles (\rightarrow 52):
- (63) Τήν_{MODIFIER} δὲ <u>Ἑλληνικήν_{MODIFIER}</u> δύναμιν_{HEAD} ήθροιζεν. (1.1.6)

 He gathered the Greek force. *Adjective*; Έλληνικήν agrees with δύναμιν.
- (64) ἦκον_{PREDICATE} ... οί_{MODIFIER} προπεμφθέντες_{MODIFIER} σκοποί_{HEAD}. (2.2.15)

 The scouts who had been sent ahead arrived. *Participle*; προπεμφθέντες agrees with σκοποί.

Note 1: For the relative ordering of such modifiers, particularly with respect to the article, \rightarrow 28.11.

Note 2: Most of these pronouns, numerals and adjectives/participles may also have a predicative relationship with a noun, either as predicative complement (\rightarrow 26.8 above) or as predicative modifier (\rightarrow 26.26 below).

- 26.18 The following types of modifier do not agree with their head:
 - attributive genitives: noun phrases/pronouns in the genitive very frequently serve as modifier in a noun phrase (for details, $\rightarrow 30.28-9$):
 - (65) Τὸ_{MODIFIER} Μένωνος_{MODIFIER} στράτευμα_{HEAD}... ἐν Κιλικίᾳ ἦν. (1.2.21) Menon's army was in Cilicia.
 - (66) ἐστεφανωμένους τοῦ ξηροῦ χιλοῦ_{MODIFIER} στεφάνοις_{HEAD} (4.5.33) crowned with wreaths of hay ... Observe that τοῦ ξηροῦ χιλοῦ, as a noun phrase, has its own internal structure, with a head (χιλοῦ) and modifiers (τοῦ, ξηροῦ).
 - (67) ἄχοντο ἀπελαύνοντες εἰς τὸ_{MODIFIER} ξαυτῶν_{MODIFIER} στρατόπεδον_{HEAD}
 (7.6.42)
 They rode into their (own) camp.

Note 1: For the relative ordering of such genitives and the article (if present), \rightarrow 28.15. **Note 2:** In several uses, the attributive genitive may also be used as predicative complement; for details, \rightarrow 30.26.

- adverbs or prepositional phrases:
- (68) παίουσιν . . . τοὺς <u>ἔνδον</u>_{ΜΟΟΙΓΙΕ} ἀνθρώπους_{ΗΕΑΟ} (5.2.17)

 They struck the people (who were) inside.
- (69) ὁρῶσι τὰ ἐπὶ ταῖς πύλαις_{MODIFIER} πράγματα_{HEAD}. (7.1.17) They saw the things (that were happening) at the gates.
- **relative clauses** (for a full treatment, \rightarrow 50).

Types of Head

- 26.19 The **head** of a noun phrase is typically a **noun**, such as ἄνδρα in (53)–(57); proper names also belong to this class:
 - (70) εἶδε τὸν_{MODIFIER} Κῦρον_{HEAD}. (Xen. *Cyr*. 3.2.15) He saw Cyrus.
 - (71) πικρὰν_{MODIFIER} <u>Ἑλένην</u>_{HEAD} ὄψει. (Ar. *Thesm.* 853) You will see a bitter Helen.
- 26.20 Most of the kinds of modifiers listed above (\rightarrow 26.17–18) may also serve as head, however, particularly when they are modified by the article (\rightarrow 28.23):
 - adjectives and participles; normally with the article, sometimes with other modifiers as well:
 - (72) τοιγαροῦν αὐτῷ οἱ_{MODIFIER} μὲν καλοί τε καὶ ἀγαθοὶ_{HEAD} τῶν συνόντων_{MODIFIER} εὖνοι ἦσαν, οἱ_{MODIFIER} δὲ ἄδικοι_{HEAD} ἐπεβούλευον. (2.6.20)
 For that reason, the good and brave among those in his company were well-disposed to him, while the unjust plotted against him. Adjectives as head.

- (73) πολλοὶ ... ἦσαν οἱ_{MODIFIER} τετρωμένοι_{HEAD}. (3.4.30) The wounded were many. *Participle as head*.
- attributive genitives, adverbs and prepositional phrases; always with the article:
- (74) τά_{MODIFIER} τῶν θεῶν_{HEAD} καλῶς εἶχεν. (3.2.9) The affairs of the gods were in good order.
- (75) εἶχε δὲ τὸ μὲν δεξιὸν Μένων καὶ οί_{ΜΟΟΙΓΙΕΚ} σὐν αὐτῷ_{ΗΕΑΟ}. (1.2.15) Menon and those with him occupied the right flank.
- 26.21 In these uses masculine forms/forms with the masculine article refer to men or mixed groups of people, feminine forms to women, neuter forms to objects, concepts, etc.:

oi ἀγαθοί the good men ai ἀγαθαί the good women

τὰ ἀγαθά the good things, benefits

Pronominal and Adnominal Use of Pronouns, Quantifiers and Cardinal Numerals

- 26.22 In addition to the types of head treated above, various **pronouns** and **quantifiers** and (occasionally) **cardinal numerals** can serve as head. For these forms, a distinction is made between:
 - the **pronominal use**, when the pronoun/quantifier serves as head;
 - the adnominal use, when the pronoun/quantifier serves as modifier.

In the pronominal use, such forms typically cannot be modified by the article or other modifiers (there are exceptions, however); in other words, such pronouns/ quantifiers then function as noun phrases **by themselves**:

- (76) οὖτοι_{ΗΕΑΟ}... βαρβάρους ἀνθρώπους ἔχουσιν. (Xen. Mem. 2.7.6)
 These people keep foreign men (as slaves). Pronominal use.
- (77) ἔχουσι δὲ <u>οὖτοι_{ΜΟΟΙΓΙΕΚ}</u> οί_{ΜΟΟΙΓΙΕΚ} ἄνθρωποι_{ΗΕΑΟ} ἀνὰ ὀκτὼ δακτύλους ἐφ' ἑκατέρα χειρί. (Ctes. fr. 45.561–2 Lenfant)

These people have up to eight fingers on each hand. Adnominal use.

- (78) καὶ ἄμα ἐφθέγξαντο πάντες ... καὶ πάντες δὲ ἔθεον. (1.8.18)

 And at the same time, everyone struck up the war cry ... and next, everyone was running. *Pronominal use*.
- (79) πάντες_{MODIFIER} οί_{MODIFIER} περὶ αὐτὸν_{MODIFIER} φίλοι_{HEAD} καὶ συντράπεζοι_{HEAD} ἀπέθανον. (1.9.31)

All his bodyguard of friends and table companions perished. *Adnominal use*.

Note 1: Personal, reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are used only pronominally (\rightarrow 29). Note 2: For so-called 'autonomous' relative clauses (i.e. relative clauses serving as noun phrases by themselves), \rightarrow 50.7.

26.23 In the pronominal use, masculine forms refer to men or mixed groups of people, feminine forms to women, neuter forms to objects, concepts, etc.:

οΐδε	these men, these people	εἷς	one man
αΐδε	these women	μία	one woman
τάδε	these things, this	ἕν	one thing

Apposition

- Apposition is the placement of two words or word groups parallel to each other without any coordinating particle ($\tau \epsilon$ or $\kappa \alpha i$, $\rightarrow 59.20-2$, 59.37), with one, the 'appositive' defining or modifying the other. In this way, two noun phrases (each with their own head), may together serve as a single constituent:
 - (80) ή δ' ήμετέρα πόλις μεαρ ή κοινή καταφυγήμεας τῶν Ἑλλήνων ... νῦν οὐκέτι περὶ τῆς τῶν Ἑλλήνων ήγεμονίας ἀγωνίζεται. (Aeschin. 3.134)

 Our city, the shared safe haven for the Greeks, is now no longer contending for the leadership of the Greeks. The combined phrase ἡ δ' ἡμετέρα ... Ἑλλήνων is subject of ἀγωνίζεται.
 - (81) Τὴν θυγατέρα $_{\rm HEAD}$, δεινόν $_{\rm HEAD}$ τι κάλλος καὶ μέγεθος . . . ἐξάγων ὧδ' εἶπεν· . . . (Xen. Cyr.~5.2.7)

He brought out his daughter, an impressive creature in beauty and stature, and spoke as follows: ... The combined phrase $\tau \dot{\eta} \nu \ldots \mu \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \epsilon \theta o_5$ is object of $\dot{\epsilon} \xi \dot{\alpha} \gamma \omega \nu$.

For agreement in apposition, $\rightarrow 27.13-14$.

- 26.25 Certain nouns denoting age, gender, occupation, status or geographical origin are used in apposition particularly often in Greek. Among them are ἀνήρ man, ἄνθρωπος man/woman, γυνή woman, ἕλλην Greek, etc.:
 - (82) ἀπόκριναί μοι, τίνος οὕνεκα χρή θαυμάζειν ἄνδρα ποιητήν; (Ar. Ran. 1008)

 Answer me: why ought someone to be impressed by a poet? ἀνήρ in such cases does not permit easy translation.
 - (83) ἀλαλάξαντες ο<u>i "Ελληνες πελτασται</u> ἔθεον. (6.5.26) Raising a shout, the Greek peltasts ran forward.

Vocative forms of ἀνήρ are frequently so used in (respectful) forms of address (ὧ) ἄνδρες δικασταί gentlemen of the jury, (ὧ) ἄνδρες πολῖται citizens.

Predicative Modifiers

26.26 Some constituents simultaneously serve as adverbial modifier and to modify the head of a noun phrase. Such constituents are called **predicative modifiers**: they occur in the form of adjectives and especially participles, which agree with their noun in case, number and gender. For example:

- (84) ἀναστὰς PREDICATIVE MODIFIER ... εἶπε PREDICATE Ξενοφῶν SUBJECT · ... (3.2.34)

 Having stood up, Xenophon said: ... The participle ἀναστάς agrees with the subject Ξενοφῶν in case, number and gender: it describes Xenophon. At the same time, it serves as an adverbial modifier, describing the circumstances/time of Xenophon's speech.
- (85) οἱ "Ελληνες_{SUBJECT} ἔθεον_{PREDICATE} ἐπὶ τὰ ὅπλα ... ἐκπεπληγμένοι_{PREDICATIVE} MODIFIER. (2.5.34)
 - The Greeks ran to their weapons panic-stricken. The participle $in \pi \epsilon \pi \lambda \eta \gamma \mu \epsilon \nu \sigma$ agrees with the subject of $\epsilon \lambda \eta \nu \epsilon$: it describes the Greeks. At the same time, it serves as an adverbial modifier, describing the manner/circumstances of the Greeks' running.
- (86) προσβάλλουσι_{PREDICATE} πρὸς τὸν λόφον ορθίοις PREDICATIVE MODIFIER Τοῖς λόχοις ADVERBIAL MODIFIER. (4.2.11)

They attacked the hill, with their companies in column. The adjective $\delta\rho\theta$ iois agrees with τ 0 \tilde{i} 5 λ 6 χ 0i5: it describes the companies. At the same time, it serves as an adverbial modifier, describing the manner of the attack.

Note 1: For this so-called 'circumstantial' use of the participle in (84) and (85) (by far its most frequent use), $\rightarrow 52.29-45$.

Note 2: For the position of predicative modifiers relative to their head and the article (if present), \rightarrow 28.11.

Elements Interrupting or Outside the Syntax of a Sentence

Parentheses

- 26.27 Sentences may be interrupted by other sentences **parentheses**. These are often relatively short, and frequently contain some form of comment, as in:
 - (87) ἃ πρέπει, οἶμαι ἔγωγε, ἀνδρὶ εἰπεῖν καὶ ὁποῖα γυναικί ... (Pl. *Ion* 540b) The things, I imagine, that it befits a man to say, and a woman, ...
 - (88) ἄρα ὁποῖα ἄρχοντι, λέγεις, ἐν θαλάττη χειμαζομένου πλοίου πρέπει εἰπεῖν, ὁ ραψωδὸς γνώσεται κάλλιον ἢ ὁ κυβερνήτης; (Pl. *Ion* 540b)

 So what sort of thing someone in charge of a storm-tossed vessel at sea should say the rhapsode, you mean, will know better than the pilot?

Parenthetical sentences or clauses are also used to introduce, beforehand, important information which relates to the host sentence that is still to come, as in:

(89) ταῦτα νομίζων, <u>ἦν γάρ οἱ τῶν αἰχμοφόρων Γύγης ... ἀρεσκόμενος μάλιστα,</u> τούτῳ τῷ Γύγῃ ... τὰ σπουδαιέστερα τῶν πρηγμάτων ὑπερετίθετο ὁ Κανδαύλης. (Hdt. 1.8.1)

(Lit.) (Candaules,) believing this – there was among his bodyguard a certain Gyges, who was his favourite – to this Gyges Candaules entrusted all his most important secrets. Such preposed parentheses usually do not permit easy 'literal' translation into English. For this use of $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$, $\rightarrow 59.15$.

Elements 'Outside' the Syntax of a Sentence

- 26.28 Some elements stand 'outside' the sentence, i.e. they are not part of the syntactic structure of predicates, complements and modifiers. The most important of these are:
 - forms of address (\rightarrow 30.55):
 - (90) φιλοσόφω μὲν ἔοικας, <u>ὧ νεανίσκε</u>. (2.1.13) You resemble a philosopher, young man.
 - exclamations, interjections, etc. (also, in answers, ναί yes):
 - (91) ἀλλὰ μὰ τοὺς θεοὺς οὐκ ἔγωγε αὐτοὺς διώξω. (1.4.8) But, by the gods, I will not pursue them.
 - (92) παπαῖ, φεῦ. παπαῖ μάλ', ὧ πούς, οἶά μ' ἐργάσῃ κακά. (Soph. *Phil.* 785-6) Aiai! Alas! Aiaiai! Oh foot, what evils will you inflict on me!
 - (93) φεῦ τοῦ ἀνδρός. (Xen. Cyr. 3.1.39)
 Alas for the man! For this use of the genitive, →30.30.
 - (94) ἐνταῦθα δὴ ἀναγιγνώσκει αὐτὸν καὶ ἤρετο· Ἡ σὺ εἶ ὁ τὸν κάμνοντα ἀγαγών;
 Ναὶ μὰ Δί', ἔφη· Σὺ γὰρ ἠνάγκαζες. (5.8.6)
 At that he recognized him, and asked: 'Are you the one who carried the sick man?' 'Yes, by Zeus,' he said, 'for you forced me to do so.'
- 26.29 Some other elements which stand outside the syntactic structure (or rather: have no syntactic structure) are:
 - list entries:
 - (95) Σπαρτόλιοι : HH Αἰραῖοι : HHH (IG I³ 259, col. III, 24–5)
 Spartolians: 200; Aeraeans: 300. A 'tribute list', inscribed on a stone found in Athens; for these numerals, →9.13.
 - headings/titles:
 - (96) Ξενοφῶντος Κύρου ἀναβάσεως λόγος πρῶτος. Δαρείου καὶ Παρυσάτιδος γίγνονται παῖδες δύο... (1.1)

Xenophon's Expedition of Cyrus, Book One. Darius and Parysatis had two children. . .

Such elements normally appear in the nominative case (however, in (95) the nominatives could also be interpreted as subjects with an implied verb; *give*, *pay*, or the like; note that the genitives Ξενοφῶντος Κύρου ἀναβάσεως in (96) are all attributive (ἀναβάσεως modifying λόγος; Κύρου modifying ἀναβάσεως; Ξενοφῶντος modifying the combined Κύρου ἀναβάσεως).

Agreement

Subject - Finite Verb

Basic Rule

27.1 Basic rule: a finite verb agrees in **person and number** with its subject:

ή ναῦς ἀνάγεται the ship is setting out (third person singular)
αἱ νῆες ἀνάγονται the ships are setting out (third person plural)
ἡμεῖς ἀναγόμεθα we are setting out (first person plural)

Exceptions

- 27.2 When a subject is **neuter plural**, the verb is normally singular:
 - τὰ ἔθνη ταῦτα τῆ πόλει πολέμια ἦν. (Thuc. 5.51.2)
 These tribes were hostile to the city.
 - (2) οὐ καθεῖτο τείχη ὥσπερ νῦν. (Thuc. 4.103.5)
 The walls did not reach down as they do now.

The plural form of the verb may, however, be used to emphasize that the subject consists of various individual members:

- (3) τοσάδε μὲν μετὰ Ἀθηναίων ἔθνη ἐστράτευον. (Thuc. 7.57.11)
 So many tribes fought on the side of Athens. This is the conclusion of a catalogue that mentions each individual tribe.
- (4) ἦσαν δὲ ταῦτα δύο τείχη, καὶ τὸ μὲν ..., τὸ δὲ ... (Xen. An. 1.4.4)
 These were two walls, and the first ..., whereas the second ... Note the numeral.
- When the subject is **dual**, the verb may be either dual or plural. When the subject consists of a pair, but is grammatically plural, the verb sometimes appears in the dual:
 - (5) τω ἄνδρε ... ἐγενέσθην φύλακε. (Xen. Hell. 4.4.8)
 Both men became guards. Dual subject, dual verb.
 - (6) ἔλεξαν γὰρ ... ὅτι αὐτώ με τὰ θεὰ παραγάγοιεν. (Andoc. 1.113)
 For they said that the Two Goddesses themselves led me astray. Dual subject, plural verb.

- (7) τῶν δὲ ἀργείων δύο ἄνδρες, Θράσυλός τε ... καὶ ἀλκίφρων ..., Ἄγιδι διελεγέσθην μἡ ποιεῖν μάχην. (Thuc. 5.59.5)
 Two men belonging to the Argive army, Thrasylus and Alciphron, urged Agis in a conversation not to bring on a battle. Plural subject, dual verb.
- When there are **multiple subjects**, the verb will normally be plural. Sometimes, however, especially when the verb precedes a first singular subject, it may be singular:
 - (8) Εὐρυμέδων καὶ Σοφοκλῆς ... ἀφικόμενοι ἐς Κέρκυραν ἐστράτευσαν ... (Thuc. 4.46.1)
 - After their arrival in Corcyra, Eurymedon and Sophocles made an attack . . . *Multiple subjects, plural verb*.
 - (9) ἔλεγε δὲ ὁ Στύφων καὶ οἱ μετ' αὐτοῦ ὅτι ... (Thuc. 4.38.2)
 Styphon said, as did his company, that ... The verb agrees merely with ὁ Στύφων, not with the other subject.
 - (10) πάρειμι καὶ ἐγὼ καὶ οὖτος Φρυνίσκος . . . καὶ Πολυκράτης. (Xen. An. 7.2.29) I am present, and so are this man Phryniscus and Polycrates. The verb agrees merely with ἐγώ, not with the other subjects (note that πάρειμι also agrees only with ἐγώ in person.
- 27.5 When there are **multiple subjects of different persons** and the verb is plural, the verb will normally be in the first person if a first-person subject is present and combined with a second- and/or third-person subject, and in the second person if a second-person subject combines with a third-person subject. Exceptions to this general rule are, however, fairly frequent:
 - (11) ἀεὶ γὰρ ἐγὰ καὶ ὁ σὸς πατήρ ἑταίρω τε καὶ φίλω ἦμεν. (Pl. La. 180e) For your father and I always were comrades and friends.
 - (12) οὐ $\underline{\sigma\dot{\upsilon}}$ μόνος $\underline{o\dot{\upsilon}\delta\dot{\varepsilon}}$ οἱ σοὶ φίλοι πρῶτοι καὶ πρῶτον ταύτην δόξαν $\underline{\check{\epsilon}\sigma\chi\varepsilon\tau\varepsilon}$. . . (Pl. Leg. 888b)
 - You and your friends are not the first and foremost to have taken this as their view . . .
 - (13) ἐἀν ὑμεῖς τε καὶ οἱ θεοὶ θέλωσιν (Antiph. 1.20) if you and the gods wish it so . . . One of the subjects is second-person, yet the verb is third-person.
- 27.6 The verb may agree in number with the subject in meaning rather than in grammatical form: this is called the **sense construction** (Lat. *constructio ad sensum*, Gr. κατὰ σύνεσιν, 'according to sense'); for example, when the subject is singular but refers to a collective, the verb may be plural in form:

- (14) τοιαῦτα δὲ ἀκούσασα ἡ πόλις . . . ἀγησίλαον εἵλοντο βασιλέα. (Xen. Hell. 3.3.4) The city, when it had heard such arguments, elected Agesilaus king.
- (15) φρουρὰ μία τῶν περὶ τὴν χώραν . . . ξυνεσελθεῖν μὲν ἐς τὸ τεῖχος οὐκ ἠθέλησαν. (Thuc. 4.57.1)

One of the district garrisons refused to accompany them inside the city walls.

Head – Modifier (in Noun Phrases); Predicative Modifiers and Complements

Basic Rule

27.7 Basic rule: an article, adjective, participle, adnominal pronoun or numeral agrees in case, number and gender with the head it modifies:

ό σοφὸς ἀνήρ the wise man (nom. sg. masc.)
 τοῖς σοφοῖς ἀνδράσιν the wise men (dat. pl. masc.)
 ἡ γυνή ἡ σοφή the wise woman (nom. sg. fem)
 τούτων τῶν γυναικῶν those wise women (gen. pl. fem.)
 εἶς ἀνήρ one man (nom. sg. masc.)
 μία γυνή one woman (nom. sg. fem.)

An adjective, pronoun, etc., functioning as predicative modifier (\rightarrow 26.26) or predicative complement (\rightarrow 26.8–12) similarly agrees with its head/subject in case, number and gender:

ή γυνή σοφή the woman is wise / the woman, being wise, ... (nom. sg. fem., adjective in predicative position)

Note 1: Not all adjectives/pronouns have separate masculine and feminine forms (for adjectives 'of two endings', $\rightarrow 5.7-11$); this does not mean that the basic rule does not apply (in ἄδικος γυνή *unjust woman*, ἄδικος is feminine).

Note 2: Only some numerals decline: for indeclinable numerals, $\rightarrow 9.2-5$.

Note 3: Other types of modifiers do not agree with their head, particularly attributive genitives, adverbs and prepositional phrases. For examples, $\rightarrow 26.20$.

Exceptions

A masculine or feminine abstract noun is often construed with a **neuter adjective used as predicative complement** ('X is a Y thing'). This occurs especially in generalizations, gnomic statements, etc.:

- (16) σοφὸν ... ἡ προμηθίη. (Hdt. 3.36.1)
 Foresight is a sensible thing.
- (17) καλὸν μὲν ή σωφροσύνη τε καὶ δικαιοσύνη, χαλεπὸν μέντοι καὶ ἐπίπονον. (Pl. Resp. 364a)

Temperance and justness are a beautiful thing, yet difficult and laborious.

- A demonstrative pronoun which serves as subject to a linking verb and predicative noun ('this is X', 'that is X') may either agree with that noun, or appear in the neuter:
 - (18) παρὰ τῶν προγεγενημένων μανθάνετε· αὕτη γὰρ ἀρίστη διδασκαλία. (Xen. Cyr.~8.7.24)

Learn from what happened before, for that is the best source of teaching.

- (19) εἰ δέ τις <u>ταύτην</u> εἰρήνην ὑπολαμβάνει ... (Dem. 9.9) But if anyone considers that to be peace ...
- (20) <u>τοῦτ'</u> ἐστὶν <u>ἡ δικαιοσύνη</u>. (Pl. Resp. 432b)

 This is what we call justice. Neuter subject ('this thing is . . .').

Antecedent - Relative Pronoun

Basic Rule

27.10 Basic rule: a relative pronoun **agrees in number and gender** with its antecedent, but its **case** is determined by its syntactical function in the relative clause (for details, →50.8):

ἡ ναῦς ἡ ἀνάγεται the ship which is putting out to sea singular and feminine as the antecedent, nominative as subject in the relative clause

ἡ ναῦς <u>ἣν</u> ὁρᾳς the ship which you see

singular and feminine as the antecedent, accusative as object in the relative clause

Exceptions

- 27.11 The sense construction (\rightarrow 27.6) is frequent with relative pronouns:
 - (21) ... ἀπὸ Πελοποννήσου παρεσομένης ώφελίας, οι τῶνδε κρείσσους εἰσί (Thuc. 6.80.1)
 - ... as help will come from the Peloponnesians (lit. 'from the Peloponnese'), who are stronger than these men.
- 27.12 For other exceptions, especially 'relative attraction', $\rightarrow 50.13-14$.

Apposition

- 27.13 An appositive (\rightarrow 26.24–5) agrees in case with the word it belongs to, but has its own number and gender:
 - (22) <u>Θῆβαι, πόλις</u> ἀστυγείτων (Aeschin. 3.133)Thebes, our neighbouring city
 - (23) τὴν θυγατέρα, δεινόν τι κάλλος καὶ μέγεθος . . . ἐξάγων ὧδ ᾽ εἶπεν· . . . (Xen. Cyr. 5.2.7)

He brought out his daughter, an impressive creature in beauty and stature, and spoke as follows: . . .

- 27.14 Note a few special cases with respect to agreement:
 - An appositive to a **possessive pronoun** (or an adjective equivalent to a possessive) may stand in the **genitive**:
 - (24) τὸν ἐμὸν ... τοῦ ταλαιπώρου ... βίον (Ar. Plut. 33-4) the life of me, miserable me
 - (25) <u>Ἀθηναῖος</u> ὤν, <u>πόλεως τῆς μεγίστης</u> (Pl. Ap. 29d) being a citizen of Athens (*lit.* 'an Athenian'), the greatest city
 - An appositive to a **whole clause or sentence** usually stands in the **accusative** $(\rightarrow 30.19)$, occasionally in the **nominative**:
 - (26) εὐδαιμονοίης μισθὸν ἡδίστων λόγων. (Eur. El. 231)
 May you fare well a payment for your most pleasing message.
 Accusative.
 - (27) τὸ λοίσθιον δέ, θριγκὸς ἀθλίων κακῶν, | δούλη γυνή γραῦς Ἑλλάδ' εἰσαφίξομαι. (Eur. *Tro*. 489–90)

And finally – to cap my miserable suffering – I will come to Greece, a slave in my old age. *Nominative* (*lit.* 'a capstone of . . . ').

The nominative in apposition to clauses is especially frequent in phrases with a neuter (superlative) adjective such as $\tau \delta \lambda \delta i \sigma \theta i \sigma v$ the last thing, finally (as in (27)), $\tau \delta \mu \epsilon \gamma i \sigma \tau \sigma v$ the greatest thing, most significant of all, $\tau \delta \delta \epsilon i \nu \delta \tau \sigma \tau \sigma v$ the worst thing of all, $\tau \delta \kappa \epsilon \phi \delta \lambda \sigma \sigma v$ the main point, to sum up, etc. Such appositions introduce and qualify the sentence that follows them:

(28) καὶ τὸ πάντων δεινότατον, ὑμεῖς μὲν τοῦτον οὐ προὔδοτε, . . . οὖτος δ' ὑμᾶς νυνὶ προδέδωκεν. (Aeschin. 3.161)

And worst of all, you did not betray him, but he has now betrayed you.

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Note 1: The clause following such appositions in the nominative is sometimes introduced by the particle $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ (which may be translated in such instances by *namely*, or left untranslated, $\rightarrow 59.14$):

(29) τό δὲ μέγιστον τῶν κακῶν δεδιότες γὰρ διατελοῦσιν μὴ Θηβαῖοι ... μείζοσιν αὐτοὺς συμφοραῖς περιβάλωσιν τῶν πρότερον γεγενημένων. (Isoc. 5.50)
And the greatest of their ills (is this), namely (that) they are continually afraid that the Thebans will involve them in greater calamities than those that have happened before.

θαυμαστότατον and what is the most amazing thing of all: ... For this construction, $\rightarrow 50.12$.

Note, apart from $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$, the use of a high dot in most text editions to punctuate between the appositive and the main sentence.

Note 2: A closely parallel construction is the use of a relative clause with neuter δ in apposition to a sentence, e.g. δ δὲ μέγιστον and what is most significant: . . . , καὶ δ πάντων

The Article

Meaning of the Definite Article

Basic Meaning

- Greek has a **definite article** (\acute{o} , $\acute{\eta}$, $\tau \acute{o}$ *the*), but no indefinite article (Engl. singular a(n)). The Greek equivalent of an indefinite article is the **lack of an article**:
 - (1) πρῶτον μὲν ἠρεμεῖν δεῖ διδάσκειν τὸν ἵππον. (Xen. Eq. 7.8) First it is necessary to teach the horse to stay still.
 - (2) οὐ γὰρ πώποτε ἐκτήσω <u>ἵππον</u> πλείονος ἄξιον ἢ τριῶν μνῶν. (Isae. 5.43) For you have never had a horse worth more than three minae.

The article is 'definite' because it refers to someone/something that is **identifiable**: the article expresses that it is clear who/what is meant, and that it can be distinguished from other people/things.

Note 1: Greek often uses the definite article where English would not (see examples below). **Note 2:** For the indefinite pronoun τ_{15} (which can in some cases be translated as a(n)) $\rightarrow 29.38-42$.

- 28.2 The lack of an article in prose is normally significant, but in poetry the article is omitted much more freely:
 - (3) χολωθεὶς τέκτονας Δίου πυρὸς | κτείνω Κύκλωπας· καί με θητεύειν πατὴρ | θνητῷ παρ' ἀνδρὶ τῶνδ' ἄποιν' ἠνάγκασεν. (Eur. Alc. 5–7)

 In anger, I slew the Cyclopes, makers of Zeus' fire: and in punishment for this, my father forced me to work as servant for a mortal man. τέκτονας . . . Κύκλωπας, πυρός and πατήρ are all identifiable, and in prose would probably have been given an article (θνητῷ . . . ἀνδρί would probably be without article in prose).

Reasons for Identifiability of a Referent

- 28.3 The referent of a noun is usually identifiable when it has been **mentioned before**:
 - (4) κἄν ἄρα γέ τις ἵππον πριάμενος μὴ ἐπίστηται αὐτῷ χρῆσθαι, ἀλλὰ καταπίπτων ἀπ' αὐτοῦ κακὰ λαμβάνῃ, οὐ χρήματα αὐτῷ ἐστιν ὁ ἵππος; (Xen. Oec. 1.8) And so when someone buys a horse and does not know how to manage it, but keeps falling off of it and getting injured, the horse is not wealth for him, is it? When the horse is first introduced it is not yet identifiable and has no article. The next time it is mentioned, it is identifiable and therefore has the article.

- A referent is identifiable when it is **obvious from the context** or **made specific by** the immediate context:
 - (5) ἱππεύς τις προσήλαυνε καὶ μάλα ἰσχυρῶς ἱδρῶντι τῷ ἵππω. (Xen. Hell. 4.5.7) A horseman rode up, with his horse sweating profusely. A rider implies the presence of a horse, so the horse is identifiable at first mention. For the translation 'his', see n.1 below.
 - (6) τῷ ἀνδρὶ ὅν ἄν ἔλησθε πείσομαι ἦ δυνατὸν μάλιστα. (Xen. An. 1.3.15)
 I will obey the man you choose as best I can. The relative clause provides the information needed to make the man identifiable.

Note 1: In many cases, if a noun with article refers to something whose possessor or origin is obvious (usually the subject), Greek uses only the article where English would use a possessive pronoun (\rightarrow 29.24), as in (5) and in:

(7) περὶ τούτων γὰρ ὑμεῖς νυνὶ τὴν ψῆφον οἴσετε. (Dem. 40.60) For you will now cast your vote about these matters.

- 28.5 A referent is identifiable when it is considered **generally well-known**:
 - (8) ὁ δὲ κολωνός ἐστι ἐν τῆ ἐσόδω, ὅκου νῦν <u>ὁ λίθινος λέων</u> ἕστηκε ἐπὶ Λεωνίδη. (Hdt. 7.225.2)

The hill is at the mouth of the pass, where the stone lion dedicated to Leonidas now stands. *The lion-statue is a famous monument.*

- A referent is identifiable when it is a **species or class in its entirety** (in this use the article is called **generic** note that English does not use the definite article in many such cases):
 - (9) οὐκ ἐκβάλλει δ' ἔνια αὐτῶν πλὴν τοὺς κυνόδοντας, οἶον οἱ λέοντες. (Arist. Gen. an. 788b16-17)
 Some of them do not shed any (teeth) except the canine teeth, for example lions.
 - (10) πονηρόν, ἄνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, πονηρόν <u>ὁ συκοφάντης</u> ἀεί. (Dem. 18.242) An informant is a vile creature, men of Athens, a vile creature always.
 - (11) ό ἀγαθὸς ἀνὴρ πάντας τοὺς φίλους εὖ ποιεῖ. (Arist. Rh. 1402b5)The good man treats all his friends well.
- A noun usually also has the article when it refers to an **abstract concept** (note that English does not use the article in such cases):
 - (12) ἡ σωφροσύνη ... καὶ αὐτὴ ἡ φρόνησις μὴ καθαρμός τις ἢ. (Pl. Phd. 69c) Restraint and wisdom itself may well be some form of purification. For μή ... ἢ, →34.10.
 - (13) ἡ ἀρετἡ μᾶλλον ἢ ἡ φυγἡ σώζει τὰς ψυχάς. (Xen. Cyr. 4.1.5)
 Valour rather than flight saves lives.

- 28.8 **Proper names** often have an article, especially when the person or place is generally well-known or prominent in the context:
 - (14) τοσαῦτα εἰπὼν ... <u>ὁ Ἀρχίδαμος Μελήσιππον</u> πρῶτον ἀποστέλλει ἐς <u>τὰς</u> Ἀθήνας. (Thuc. 2.12.1)

Having said this much, Archidamus first sent Melesippus to Athens. Archidamus has been a major focus of attention in this part of the narrative, while Athens is generally well-known; Melesippus, by contrast, is here mentioned for the first time, and is not very famous.

Note 1: In many cases, however, the lack of the article with proper names is difficult to account for, and depends on idiom and the preferences of individual authors.

Note 2: βασιλεύς (the) King is regularly used without an article to refer to the Persian king, even if he is clearly identifiable. In this use βασιλεύς is much like a proper name or title.

- A predicative complement (→26.8–12) normally does not have the article, as it generally introduces new information. However, it has the article when it is identifiable for one of the reasons given above (e.g. because the concept has been mentioned before, or because it refers to an entire class):
 - (15) ὁ ἐρῶν τῶν καλῶν ἐραστής καλεῖται. (Pl. Phdr. 249e)
 He who loves beautiful things is called a lover.
 - (16) οἱ τιθέμενοι τοὺς νόμους οἱ ἀσθενεῖς ἄνθρωποί εἰσιν. (Pl. Grg. 483b)

The people who institute laws are the weak sort. The article is used because the noun refers to a class.

For the articles in δ έρ $\tilde{\omega}$ ν, $\tau \tilde{\omega}$ ν καλ $\tilde{\omega}$ ν and δ ί τιθέμενοι, \rightarrow 28.23.

- 28.10 The principle that the article indicates identifiability is also valid for words that are in **apposition** (\rightarrow 26.24-5). If an appositive has the article, it means that the word(s) to which it is appended is/are identifiable through the information added in the apposition:
 - (17) Έκαταῖος δ' <u>ό λογοποιὸς</u> ... οὐκ ἔα πόλεμον βασιλέϊ τῶν Περσέων ἀναιρέεσθαι. (Hdt. 5.36.2)

But Hecataeus the historian advised them not to start a war against the king of Persia. The addition of δ λ 0 γ 0 π 0i0i5 helps to identify Hecataeus by his profession as a historian. For β 0 α 0i1i2i8.8 i7.2.

(18) Θουκυδίδης <u>Άθηναῖος</u> ξυνέγραψε τὸν πόλεμον τῶν Πελοποννησίων καὶ Άθηναίων. (Thuc. 1.1.1)

Thucydides, an Athenian, has recorded the war between the Peloponnesians and the Athenians. Thucydides introduces himself for the first time to his readers; Θ ounu δ i δ 1 η 5 δ $A\theta$ 1 η v δ 1 δ 0 would have meant 'Thucydides the Athenian' (already known as such).

Relative Position of Article, Head and Modifiers in a Noun Phrase

Attributive and Predicative Position

- 28.11 When the head of a noun phrase is modified by the article and one or more other modifiers (adjectives, pronouns, numerals, participles, →26.17–18), two different orderings of article, head and modifier can be distinguished:
 - so-called attributive position of the modifier (the modifier is preceded directly by the article):

```
    ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἀνήρ
    ὁ ἀνήρ ὁ ἀγαθός
    ἀνηρ ὁ ἀγαθός (less frequent)
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- so-called **predicative position** of the modifier (the modifier is not preceded directly by the article):

```
\frac{\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\delta}_{S}(\dots)\dot{\delta}\dot{\alpha}\nu\dot{\eta}\rho}{\dot{\delta}\dot{\alpha}\nu\dot{\eta}\rho(\dots)\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\delta}_{S}} the man, being good, ... (or: the man is good)
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Note 1: For the difference between the different possible orderings of head and modifier (head-modifier vs. modifier-head), $\rightarrow 60.15-16$.

Note 2: The difference between the pattern ὁ ἀνὴρ ὁ ἀγαθός and ἀνὴρ ὁ ἀγαθός resides in the identifiability of the head: in the article-head-article-modifier configuration, the head is identifiable on its own, and the modifier is added to confirm that this is the intended referent, or to specify a subgroup; in the less frequent head-article-modifier configuration, the head is typically not identifiable without the information provided by the modifier.

- 28.12 The general difference between attributive and predicative position may be described as follows:
 - A modifier in attributive position describes an attribute/characteristic of the referent, or describes its origin/possessor/target etc. Modifiers so used typically serve to identify the referent of the head noun (cf. e.g. Engl. the good man, as opposed to any other man):
 - (19) ταῦτα ... πράττειν, Αἰσχίνη, τὸν καλὸν κάγαθὸν πολίτην ἔδει. (Dem. 18.306) These things, Aeschines, are what a good and right citizen ought to do.
 - (20) <u>τὸν χρυσοῦν στέφανον</u> ... ἱερὸν εἶναι ... ὁ νόμος κελεύει. (Aeschin. 3.46) The law ordains that the golden crown is sacred.
 - (21) ἐγὰ μὲν καὶ ἐτράφην καὶ ἐπαιδεύθην . . . ἐν τῆ τοῦ πατρὸς οἰκία. (Dem. 40.50)

 I was raised and brought up in my father's house.
 - (22) συνέβη γὰρ αὐτῷ διὰ τὴν ἄφιξιν τὴν εἰς Κύπρον καὶ ποιῆσαι καὶ παθεῖν πλεῖστ' ἀγαθά. (Isoc. 9.53)

 Because of his arrival on Cyprus, he chanced to do and experience very many good things.

- (23) ἄν τις Ἀθηναίων ... έταιρήση, μὴ ἐξέστω αὐτῷ <u>τῶν ἐννέα ἀρχόντων</u> γενέσθαι. (Aeschin. 1.19)
 - If an Athenian has prostituted himself, let it not be permitted for him to become one of the nine archons.
- A modifier in predicative position is not used to identify the referent. Rather, adjectives and participles in predicative position say something about the condition the referent is in (cf. Engl. I drink my coffee <u>black</u>, They found the premises deserted):
- (24) ἐπὶ ψυχρὸν τὸν ἰπνὸν Περίανδρος τοὺς ἄρτους ἐπέβαλε. (Hdt. 5.92η.2) Periander put the loaves in the oven when it was cold.
- (25) <u>ἀθάνατον τὴν περὶ αύτῶν μνήμην</u> καταλείψουσιν. (Isoc. 9.3) They will leave their memory behind to be immortal.
- (26) τάς τριήρεις ἀφείλκυσαν κενάς. (Thuc. 2.93.4)

 They towed the triremes without their crews (lit. 'empty').
- (27) οὐχ ... <u>ἕνα τὸν ἀγῶνα</u> περὶ τοῦ πράγματος ἐποιήσω, ἀλλὰ ἀμφισβήτησιν καὶ λόγον ὑπελείπου. (Antiph. 5.16)

 You have not arraigned the case concerning this matter to be tried once, but you left room for argument and discussion.
- 28.13 The predicative position is always used for **predicative complements** with linking verbs (\rightarrow 26.8–9):
 - (28) κοινή ... ή τύχη καὶ τὸ μέλλον ἀόρατον. ([Isoc.] 1.29)
 Fate is common to all, and the future is invisible. For the omission of ἐστί, →26.13.
 - (29) πάντα... τἄλλ' εὐτυχῆ τὴν πόλιν κρίνων, εν οὐδέποτ' εὐτυχῆσαι τοῦτο νομίζω. (Dem. 62.55.1)
 Although I consider the city fortunate in every other respect, in this one respect I believe that it has never been fortunate.
- 28.14 However, there are various kinds of modifiers which can occur only in attributive or only in predicative position: in such cases the distinction between the positions outlined above does not hold. These are treated below, \rightarrow 28.15–22.

Attributive Genitives

28.15 Most attributive genitives (\rightarrow 30.28-9; e.g. 'possessive', 'subjective', 'objective' genitives) can occur in both positions:

```
    ὁ δῆμος ὁ τῶν Ἀθηναίων
    ὁ δῆμος τῶν Ἀθηναίων
    τὸ Παυσανίου μῖσος
    τὸ μῖσος τῶν Λακεδαιμονίων
    the Athenian people
    the hatred of Pausanias
    τὸ μῖσος τῶν Λακεδαιμονίων
```

Note 1: The difference between the two constructions appears to be that in attributive position, the genitive is presented as (more) vital for the identification of the head noun (for example, when the Athenian people are contrasted with another people, the attributive position will be used). But often the distinction is slight. Also $\rightarrow 60.15$.

- 28.16 Some types of attributive genitive, however, only occur in one of the two positions:
 - Partitive genitives (\rightarrow 30.25, 30.29) stand in predicative position:

οἱ πλούσιοι τῶν πολιτῶν the rich among the citizens

τούτων οἱ πλεῖστοι the majority of them

– Genitives of **personal pronouns** (μου, σου, etc., \rightarrow 7.1, 29.1) and genitives of αὐτός used as a personal pronoun (\rightarrow 7.2, 7.10, 29.7) always follow the head in predicative position when used attributively:

ή οἰκία αὐτοῦ his house

τὸν πατέρα μου διαβάλλοντες slandering my father

But attributive genitives of demonstrative pronouns (τοῦδε, etc., →7.13-15), of the reflexive pronoun (ἐμαυτοῦ, etc., →7.3) and of the reciprocal pronoun (ἀλλήλων, →7.6) all stand in attributive position:

τὸ ταύτης βιβλίον her book

τὸ <u>ἑαυτοῦ</u> βιβλίον his (own) book

(30) χαίρουσιν ἐπὶ τοῖς ἀλλήλων κακοῖς. (Isoc. 4.168)

They take pleasure in each other's troubles.

Note 1: In each of these uses, modifiers in 'predicative' position actually do not have predicative function (for predicative function, $\rightarrow 26.8-12$, 28.12). The terminology is therefore somewhat misleading, and should be taken to refer merely to word order.

Demonstrative and Possessive Pronouns

28.17 The **demonstrative pronouns** ὅδε *this*, οὖτος *this/that* and ἐκεῖνος *that*, when used adnominally, always stand **in predicative position**. In prose, heads modified by these pronouns nearly always have the article:

ὁ πόλεμος <u>ὅδε</u> this war
 ἐν ταύτη τῆ πόλει in that city

ἐκεῖνο τὸ πάγκαλον ἔργον that very beautiful work

Note 1: With these pronouns, 'predicative' position should again not be taken to imply predicative function (cf. 28.16 n.1 above).

Note 2: Particularly in prose, when a noun is modified by a demonstrative pronoun but does not have the article, this indicates that the noun has predicative function:

(31) <u>ταύτην</u> γὰρ <u>τέχνην</u> ἔχει. (Lys. 1.16) He has this as a profession. (ταύτην <u>τὴν</u> τέχνην ἔχει would have meant 'he has this profession'. Also $\rightarrow 29.34$).

28.18 The **possessive adjectives** ἐμός *my*, ἡμέτερος *our*, etc., normally stand **in attributive position**:

ή ἐμὴ μήτηρ my mother

πρός τοὺς <u>σφετέρους</u> συμμάχους against their allies συμφέρει τῆ πόλει τῆ <u>ὑμετέρα</u> it benefits your city

Note 1: These pronouns may also be used as predicative complements with linking verbs $(\rightarrow 26.8-10)$, and then of course stand in predicative position:

(32) καὶ ἕως μὲν ἄν ἐγὼ ζῶ, ἐμὴ γίγνεται ἡ ἐν Πέρσαις βασιλεία. (Xen. Cyr. 8.5.26)
As long as I live, the Persian throne is mine.

αὐτός

28.19 When used as an adjective, αὐτός differs in meaning depending on whether it stands in attributive or predicative position:

ὁ ἀνὴρ <u>αὐτός</u> / <u>αὐτὸς</u> ὁ ἀνήρ the man himself
 ὁ αὐτὸς ἀνήο the same man

ό <u>αὐτὸς</u> ἀνήρ the same m

For details, \rightarrow 29.7–13.

Quantifiers

28.20 Many quantifiers, such as $\pi \tilde{\alpha}_{S}$ every, all, whole, $\tilde{\delta}$ λο_S whole, in its entirety, etc. may appear either in attributive or predicative position, with a distinction in meaning. For details, $\rightarrow 29.45-52$.

28.21 The following quantifiers always take predicative position when combined with the article: ἕκαστος each, every, ἑκάτερος each (of two), either, ἄμφω/ἀμφότερος both:

έκάτερον τὸ πάθος either of the two affections

έκάστη ή παρ' ήμῖν ἐπιστήμη each form of knowledge available to us

<u>ἄμφω</u> τὼ πόλεε both cities

Adjectives Determining Position (μέσος, ἄκρος, ἔσχατος etc.)

28.22 **Adjectives that determine a position**, such as μέσος *middle*, ἄκρος *high*, ἔσχατος *utmost*, *extreme*, have different meanings when in attributive or predicative position:

ἐν τῆ μέση ἀγορᾳ in the middle marketplace (of three or more)

ἐν μέση τῆ ἀγορᾳ in the middle of the marketplace

εἰς τὸ ὄρος τὸ ἄκρον to the high mountain εἰς ἄκρον τὸ ὄρος to the top of the mountain

ἐν τῆ ἐσχάτη νήσω on the last island

ἐν ἐσχάτῃ τῇ νήσω at the edge of the island

The Article as Substantivizer

- 28.23 When a word (group) other than a noun is modified by the definite article, it is 'substantivized' (i.e. 'turned into a noun'), and serves as head of a noun phrase $(\rightarrow 26.16, 26.20-1)$.
- 28.24 Depending on the gender of the article, such constructions may refer to men or people **in general** (masculine article), to women (feminine article), or to things/concepts (neuter article):

```
ό ἀγαθός the good man οἱ ἀγαθοί good men ἡ ἀγαθή the good woman αἱ ἀγαθαί good women
```

τὸ ἀγαθόν the good thing, goodness τὰ ἀγαθά good things, benefits

Alternatively, such constructions may identify a subset from a larger group; the group may be expressed in the form of a partitive genitive (\rightarrow 30.25, 30.29) or supplied from the context:

- (33) τοὺς μὲν δὴ ἱππέας ἐδέξαντο οἱ ἀγαθοὶ τῶν Περσῶν. (Xen. Ages. 1.32)
 The elite forces of the Persians stood to face the (charge of) the riders.
- (34) ... οἱ τὰς πολιτείας καθιστάντες, οἵ τε τὰς ἀριστοκρατικὰς καὶ οἱ τὰς οἰναρχικὰς καὶ πάλιν οἱ τὰς δημοκρατικάς ... (Arist. Pol. 1288a21-2) ... those who introduce forms of government, be they those who introduce aristocratic ones, oligarchic ones, or, again, democratic ones ... The article functions as substantivizer in all instances in this example except the first τάς (which modifies πολιτείας).

Note 1: In translation, a relative clause often conveys such senses well: e.g. τὰ ἀγαθά the things that are good, οἱ σοφοί men who are wise. Also note the translation of οἱ ... καθιστάντες in (34).

- 28.25 The following types of word or phrase are frequently substantivized in this way:
 - Adjectives (the article is often generic, \rightarrow 28.6):

τὸ κακόν evil τὸ δίκαιον justice

οί πολλοί the many, the masses, the majority

ή δύστηνος the wretched woman

- **Participles** (in any tense and voice; the article is often generic, \rightarrow 28.6):

ὁ ἐρῶν the man who loves, the lover

ό βουλόμενος anyone who likes

οί τεθνηκότες the dead

τὰ γενόμενα the things which have happened, the events

- (35) ... ὅπως ὧσι καὶ οἱ ποιἡσοντες ἡμῖν τὰ ἐπιτήδεια. (Xen. Cyr. 4.2.40)
 ... so that we have people to provide for us as well (lit. 'who will make provisions').
- (36) μετέγνων καὶ <u>τὰ πρόσθ' εἰρημένα</u>. (Eur. *Med.* 64)
 I regret what I have said already (lit. 'what has already been said').

- Adverbs:

οἱ ἔνδον the people inside

οί πέλας those nearby, the neighbours

οί νῦν those living today

οί πάλαι the people of long ago, our forebears

τὸ νῦν, τὰ νῦν the present moment/period (often used adverbially,

'now')

τὸ πρότερον the last time, the earlier period, (often used

adverbially, 'previously', $\rightarrow 6.13$)

- Prepositional phrases:

οἱ ἐν τέλει those in charge, the authorities οἱ ἐπὶ τῶν πραγμάτων those in power (the government)

oi ἐπ' ἐμοῦ those in my lifetime, the people of my generation

οἱ ἐν τῆ ἡλικία those in the prime of their youth

Attributive genitives (frequently with a neuter article to indicate 'the affairs of ...'):

οἱ Ξέρξου the soldiers/men of Xerxes τὸ τῶν Ἑρμῶν the affair of the Hermae τὰ τοῦ γήρως the lot of old age

τὰ τοῦ γήρως the lot of old (37) τὰ τοῦ δήμου φρονεῖ. (Ar. Eq. 1216)

He favours the people's side.

(38) ἄδηλα . . . <u>τὰ τῶν πολέμων.</u> (Thuc. 2.11.4)

The events of wars are unpredictable.

Infinitives, with the neuter article ('articular' infinitive, →51.38-46):
 τὸ ὑπὸ ἡδονῶν ἄρχεσθαι (the) being led by pleasures, to be led by pleasures

ἐνικήσαμεν τῷ λέγειν we have conquered by speaking

- Whole word groups, clauses or sentences, with the neuter article:
- (39) λέγω δὲ δεδημοσιευμένα οἶον τὸ γνῶθι σαυτὸν καὶ τὸ μηδὲν ἄγαν. (Arist. Rh. 1395a21-2)

I am referring to sayings which have become popularized, such as 'Know thyself' and 'Nothing in excess'.

Note 1: The negative with substantivized adjectives, participles, adverbs and prepositional phrases is $\mu\dot{\eta}$ when the noun phrase has a generic sense: e.g. $\dot{\delta}$ $\mu\dot{\eta}$ $\dot{\epsilon}$ $\dot{\delta}\dot{\delta}\dot{\delta}$ whoever does not know, but $\dot{\delta}$ $\dot{\delta}\dot{\delta}\dot{\delta}$ the (specific) man who does not know: \rightarrow 56.16 n.1.

Pronominal Uses of the Article

In a few highly specific uses the article has a pronominal function (i.e. serves as a noun phrase by itself, $\rightarrow 26.16$).

Note 1: These uses are remnants from earlier Greek, in which the article had a largely pronominal function. In Homer, forms of the article are still used nearly exclusively as a demonstrative pronoun:

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    (40) <u>τὴν</u> μὲν ἐγώ . . . πέμψω. (Hom. Il. 1.183-4)
    I will send her away.
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This use has largely disappeared from classical Greek, but is retained in the specific expressions treated below.

28.27 Parallel articles combined with the particles μέν and δέ (e.g. ὁ μέν . . . ὁ δέ; →59.24) are used to contrast individuals, groups, etc.:

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ὁ μέν . . . ὁ δέ the one (man) . . . the other (man) . . . ; someone . . . someone else . . . ; the former . . . the latter oi μέν . . . οἱ δέ some . . . others . . . ; a few . . . others . . . ; the former . . . the latter on the one hand . . . on the other hand . . . ; partly . . . partly . . . (also: τοῦτο μέν . . . τοῦτο δέ)
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- (41) καὶ οἱ μὲν ὕπνον ἡροῦντο κατὰ μέρος, οἱ δὲ ἤλαυνον. (Thuc. 3.49.3) And taking turns, one group went to sleep and the other rowed.
- (42) σοφή γὰρ οὖσα, <u>τοῖς μέν</u> εἰμ' ἐπίφθονος, ... <u>τοῖς δ'</u> αὖ προσάντης. (Eur. *Med.* 303–5)
 - Because I am wise, I am enviable to some, and despicable to others.
- (43) ἆρ' οὖν ἐθελήσαις ἂν . . . διατελέσαι τὸ μὲν ἐρωτῶν, τὸ δ' ἀποκρινόμενος; (Pl. Grg. 449b)
 - Would you be willing, then, to keep going, partly by asking questions, partly by answering them?
- (44) τοῦτο μὲν δή, εἰ νικήσεις, τί σφεας ἀπαιρήσεαι, τοῖσί γε μὴ ἔστι μηδέν; τοῦτο δέ, ἢν νικηθῆς, μάθε ὅσα ἀγαθὰ ἀποβαλέεις. (Hdt. 1.71.3)
 If, on the one hand, you conquer them, what will you take from them, who have nothing? But if, on the other hand, you are defeated, discover how many good things you will lose. For εἰ νικήσεις . . . ἢν νικηθῆς →49.5-6.
- 28.28 An article combined with δέ (ὁ δέ, ἡ δέ, etc.) at the start of a clause or sentence indicates a shift from one 'topic' (the person or thing spoken about, usually the subject, →59.16) to the next. Usually, the new topic is present in the preceding sentence. In such cases, ὁ δέ may be translated by and he, but he, or he, however:
 - (45) Σίμων δὲ ούτοσὶ καὶ Θεόφιλος ... εἶλκον τὸ μειράκιον. ό δὲ ῥίψας τὸ ἱμάτιον ἄχετο φεύγων. (Lys. 3.12)
 Simon here and Theophilus were dragging the boy along. He, however,

flung off his cloak and ran away. The first sentence is about the men

- dragging the boy along; it does mention that boy, who is then taken up as the topic of the new sentence, and referred to by δ $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$.
- (46) ἐγὼ τὴν γυναῖκα ἀπιέναι ἐκέλευον ... ἡ δὲ τὸ μὲν πρῶτον οὐκ ἤθελεν. (Lys. 1.12) I was telling my wife to go away, but she, at first, did not want to. The wife, mentioned in the first sentence, is the topic of the second.
- 28.29 Much less frequently, topic shift is indicated by καὶ ὅς (acc. καὶ τόν, fem. καὶ ἡ, etc.; ὅς is the article expanded with -ς characteristic of the nom. sg. masc.).
- 28.30 The article is used similarly in the phrases δς καὶ ὅς (acc. τὸν καὶ τόν, neut. τὸ καὶ τό, etc.) so and so, this and that, and in πρὸ τοῦ previously.
- 28.31 The article is sometimes used in poetry as a relative pronoun:
 - (47) ΟΡ. ἦ καὶ μετ' αὐτοῦ μητέρ' ἄν τλαίης κτανεῖν; $|:: H\Lambda$. ταὐτῷ γε πελέκει τῷ πατἡρ ἀπώλετο. (Eur. *El.* 278–9)
 - (Orestes:) Would you really dare to kill your mother with him? :: (Electra:) Yes, with the same axe by which my father perished.

Pronouns and Quantifiers

Personal Pronouns

Contrastive and Non-Contrastive Personal Pronouns

29.1 Personal pronouns are used only pronominally (\rightarrow 26.22–3). They are either accented or non-accented (for details, \rightarrow 7.1–2): to an extent, this distinction corresponds to a **contrastive** (or: 'emphatic') and a **non-contrastive** (or: 'unemphatic') function. The distinctions between these functions are treated below, \rightarrow 29.4–5, 29.7.

Contrastive: first person: $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}$, $\dot{\epsilon}\mu o \ddot{\iota}$, $\dot{\epsilon}\mu \dot{\epsilon}$ I, me; pl. $\dot{\eta}\mu \tilde{\epsilon} \ddot{\iota}$, $\dot{\eta}\mu \tilde{\omega}\nu$, $\dot{\eta}\mu \tilde{u}\nu$, $\dot{\eta}\mu \tilde{u}$

second person: σύ, σοῦ, σοί, σέ you; pl. ὑμεῖς, ὑμῶν, ὑμῖν, ὑμᾶς you

Non-contrastive: first person: μου, μοι, με me; ἡμῶν, ἡμῖν, ἡμᾶς us

second person: σου, σοι, σε γου; ύμῶν, ὑμῖν, ὑμᾶς γου

Attic prose does not use separate personal pronouns of the third person (he, him; she, her; it), but the oblique cases of $\alpha \dot{0} \tau \dot{0} \varsigma$ are used as non-contrastive pronouns ($\rightarrow 7.10, 29.5, 29.7$).

Note 1: The oblique cases of the plural do not have distinct forms for non-contrastive functions. But in poetry some editors follow the ancient grammatical tradition of distinguishing non-contrastive forms of the oblique cases of the plural: for these forms \rightarrow 7.1 n.2. Note 2: The unaccented personal pronouns (μ 00, etc.) are enclitic (\rightarrow 24.34). Non-contrastive plural forms (\uparrow μ $\tilde{\omega}\nu$, etc.) and forms of $\alpha\dot{\nu}\tau\dot{\sigma}s$ used as personal pronoun behave like enclitics for

- 29.2 The old forms of the third-person personal pronoun (e.g. oὖ/oὑ, oὖ/oὑ; for these forms, →7.2) are not used in Attic prose as personal pronouns (they are so used in Herodotus, →25.28). These forms do occur as indirect reflexive pronouns (→29.18 below).
- In tragedy and Herodotus μιν is frequently used as accusative singular personal pronoun of the third person, →25.28. νιν is also used in tragedy as accusative, singular and plural.

First and Second Person

the purposes of word order (\rightarrow 60.5).

- 29.4 For the **first** and **second-person personal pronouns**, the following rules apply:
 - When describing the subject: the nominative forms of the personal pronouns (ἐγώ, ἡμεῖς; σύ, ὑμεῖς) are mostly used when some form of (contrastive) emphasis is placed on the subject – i.e. to distinguish it from a different subject, to clarify

- the identity of the subject, to emphasize responsibility, etc. When no (contrastive) emphasis is needed, the personal endings of the verb form suffice:
- (1) ἐπεὶ ὑμεῖς ἐμοὶ οὐ θέλετε πείθεσθαι, ἐγὼ σὺν ὑμῖν ἕψομαι. (Xen. An. 1.3.6) Since you do not wish to obey me, I will follow you. Contrastive emphasis.
- (2) οὐδένες ὑμῶν . . . μᾶλλόν εἰσιν αἴτιοι. οὐδὲ γὰρ δίκην ἔτι λαμβάνειν ἐθέλε<u>τε</u> παρὰ τῶν ἀδικούντων. (Dem. 23.204)
 - No one is more to blame than you. For you no longer wish to punish criminals. Personal ending only: the subject 'you' is taken from the previous sentence, and requires no emphasis.
- The **oblique cases** of accented pronouns are used in cases of (contrastive) emphasis, and **after prepositions**. The unaccented pronouns are used when there is no specific emphasis on the pronoun:
- (3) τί μᾶλλον <u>ἐμοῦ σὺ</u> ταῦτα κατηγορεῖς ἢ <u>ἐγὼ σοῦ</u>; (Dem. 18.196) Why do you accuse me of these things rather than I you?
- (4) καὶ πείσας ἐμὲ πιστὰ . . . ἔδωκάς μοι καὶ ἔλαβες παρ' ἐμοῦ; (Xen. An. 1.6.7)
 And after you persuaded me, did you pledge me your faith and did you receive it from me?
- (5) οὕτω μὲν ἃ κατηγόρηταί μου, πάντα ἄπιστά ἐστιν. (Antiph. 2.2.10) As such, the things of which I stand accused are all unreliable.

Note 1: For the use of the oblique cases of personal pronouns as reflexives (i.e. to refer back to the subject), $\rightarrow 29.17-18$ below.

Third Person

- 29.5 For **third-person pronouns**, the following rules apply:
 - When describing the subject: a demonstrative pronoun or a nominative of αὐτός (emphatic use, →29.9) can be used to clarify the identity of the subject or to provide (contrastive) emphasis. In other cases personal endings suffice:
 - (6) αύτη δὲ ὀργιζομένη ... ὅτι οὐκέτι ὁμοίως ἐφοίτα ... ἐφύλαττεν ἕως ἐξηῦρεν ὅ τι εἴη τὸ αἴτιον. (Lys. 1.15)
 - This woman, angry because (her lover) no longer visited as frequently, waited until she discovered what the reason for this was. $\alpha \ddot{\upsilon} \tau \eta$ (a form of demonstrative $o \dot{\upsilon} \tau o \varsigma$) is used to clarify the subject.
 - (7) ἔλεξ<u>εν</u>... ὅτι καὶ <u>αὐτὴ</u> ἀδικοῖτο ὑπὸ τοῦ πατρὸς τοῦ ἡμετέρου. (Antiph. 1.15) She said (personal ending only) that she herself (emphatic use of αὐτός, →29.9) too was being treated unjustly by our father.

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In the oblique cases, forms of αὐτός are used as non-contrastive third-person pronouns (→29.7); also after prepositions (9). If (contrastive) emphasis is required, an oblique case of a demonstrative pronoun is used (10):

- (8) ἐκέλευον <u>αὐτὴν</u> ἀπιέναι. (Lys. 1.12)I told her to go away.
- (9) ἦ καὶ μετ' αὐτοῦ μητέρ' ἄν τλαίης κτανεῖν; (Eur. El. 278)
 Would you truly dare to kill your mother together with him?
- (10) πότερον ἐκείνω παῖδες οὐκ ἦσαν διπλοῖ, | οὓς τῆσδε μᾶλλον εἰκὸς ἦν θνήσκειν; (Soph. El. 539–40)
 - Did he (Menelaus) not have two children, who should in fairness have died instead of her (Iphigenia)?
- In Herodotus, and very rarely in Attic (only in the plural), oblique cases of an old third-person personal pronoun are used (for these forms, \rightarrow 7.2, 25.28):
 - (11) εἰ νικήσεις, τί <u>σφεας</u> ἀπαιρήσεαι, τοῖσί γε μἡ ἔστι μηδέν; (Hdt. 1.71.3)

 If you are victorious, of what will you deprive them they who have nothing?
 - (12) χερσί τὰν θιγών | δοκοῖμ' ἔχειν σφας. (Soph. OT 1469-70)

 When I touch them with my hands, I might seem to have them with me.

αὐτός

As Third-Person Personal Pronoun

29.7 The oblique cases of αὐτός (αὐτοῦ, αὐτῷ, αὐτόν, αὐτῆς, etc.) are used as non-contrastive personal pronouns of the third person (him, her, it; them; etc.; →29.5); in this use αὐτός is purely pronominal (→26.22-3).

When used as a third-person pronoun, αὐτός always refers back to someone or something introduced before (anaphoric use):

- (13) τί ποτε λέγει ὁ θεός, καὶ τί ποτε αἰνίττεται; ... οὐ γὰρ δήπου ψεύδεταί γε· οὐ γὰρ θέμις αὐτῷ. (Pl. Ap. 21b)
 What on earth is the god saying, and what do his riddles mean? For at any rate
- he is not lying, I think, since that is not allowed to him.
 (14) καὶ ἡμεῖς ἐκελεύομεν <u>αὐτὸν</u> πείθειν <u>αὐτὴν</u> περὶ τούτων. (Isae. 2.8)
- And we told him to persuade her with regard to those matters. αὐτόν refers to Menecles, the accused, and αὐτήν to the sister of the plaintiff.
- (15) ἄρχει τις αὐτῶν, ἢ 'πὶ τῷ πλήθει λόγος; (Soph. OC 66)
 Does someone govern them, or does authority rest with the masses? αὐτῶν refers to the Athenians, the topic of discussion.

(16) καὶ εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν αὐτοῦ εἰσεφόρησαν ὡς ἐδύναντο πλεῖστα. (Xen. An. 4.6.1) And they carried as much as they could into his house. The attributive genitive αὐτοῦ here expresses possession, →30.28.

Note 1: Nominative forms of $\alpha \dot{\sigma} \dot{\tau} \dot{\sigma} \dot{\varsigma}$ are not used as a personal pronoun (non-contrastive third-person *he*, *she*, *it* are typically expressed by the verbal endings, $\rightarrow 29.5$).

Note 2: The oblique cases of $\alpha \dot{\omega} \tau \dot{\phi}_S$ normally do not refer back to the subject of the clause (in that case, a form of the reflexive pronoun is more often used; for full details and exceptions, $\rightarrow 29.14-20$).

As an Adjective, Expressing Identicalness: The Same

- 29.8 αὐτός (in any case) is used as an attributive adjective expressing identicalness: (the) same. In this use αὐτός is always **directly preceded by the article**, and thus stands in attributive position (→28.11–12):
 - (17) γέγραφε δὲ καὶ ταῦτα ὁ αὐτὸς Θουκυδίδης Ἀθηναῖος. (Thuc. 5.26.1) Of this, too, the same Thucydides of Athens is the author.
 - (18) καὶ τριήρης <u>τῆ αὐτῆ ἡμέρα</u> ἀλίσκεται τῶν Ἀθηναίων ὑπὸ τῶν Συρακοσίων. (Thuc. 7.3.5)
 - And on the same day, a trireme of the Athenians was captured by the Syracusans.
 - (19) πάλιν δἡ ἐπὶ τῶν αὐτῶν τεχνῶν λέγωμεν ὧνπερ νυνδή. (Pl. Grg. 453e)
 Let us, then, resume our discussion concerning the same arts we spoke of just now.

Forms of $\alpha \mathring{\text{o}} \tau \acute{\text{o}} \varsigma$ in this use frequently serve as head of their noun phrase ($\rightarrow 26.22$), e.g. $\acute{\text{o}}$ $\alpha \mathring{\text{o}} \tau \acute{\text{o}} \varsigma$ the same man, $\acute{\text{o}}$ \emph{o} \emph

(20) σὺ δ' ἴσως διὰ τὸ πολυμαθής εἶναι περὶ τῶν αὐτῶν οὐδέποτε τὰ αὐτὰ λέγεις.
(Xen. Mem. 4.4.6)

And perhaps it is on account of the fact that you are so learned that you never say the same things about the same things.

Note 1: To express the person or entity to which someone or something is identical, Greek uses the dative, $\kappa\alpha i$, or a relative clause introduced by a form of $\delta\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$ (as in (19) above). For details, $\rightarrow 32.14-15$.

Note 2: In this use, particularly when αὐτός is the head of the noun phrase, the article often coalesces with the form of αὐτός (crasis, $\rightarrow 1.43-5$): αὐτός (= ὁ αὐτός), αὐτή (= ἡ αὐτή), ταὐτὰ ταῦτα (= τὰ αὐτὰ ταῦτα):

(21) καὶ νῦν ἔθ' αὐτός εἰμι τῷ βουλεύματι. (Soph. OT 557)
And even now, I am still of the same mind. Lit. 'the same man in mind'.

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As an Adjective, Emphatic Use: Self

29.9 Finally, αὐτός (in any case) is used as a predicative adjective stressing the identity of a person or thing, in opposition to other persons or things: *self*. In such cases αὐτός always stands in **predicative position** (i.e. not preceded directly by the article, $\rightarrow 28.11-12$):

- (22) ἀκούσας δὲ καὶ <u>αὐτὸς ὁ Ψαμμήτιχος</u> ἐπυνθάνετο οἵτινες ἀνθρώπων Βεκός τι καλέουσι. (Hdt. 2.2.4)
 - When Psammetichus himself had been told as well, he inquired which people have a word 'bekos'.
- (23) ἀνατείνας τὼ σκέλει διαμηριῶ | τὴν Ἱριν αὐτήν. (Ar. Av. 1254-5)
 I'll spread her two legs and screw Iris herself.
- (24) ώς δὲ ἀληθῆ λέγω, αὐτὸ ὑμῖν τὸ ψήφισμα δηλώσει. (Lys. 13.71)

 That I am speaking the truth, the decree itself will make clear to you.

αὐτός self also frequently stands on its own in the nominative, agreeing with the (unexpressed) subject of a verb:

- (25) ΕΧ. αὐτός, ὧ Φαίδων, παρεγένου Σωκράτει ἐκείνῃ τῇ ἡμέρᾳ ῇ τὸ φάρμακον ἔπιεν ... ἢ ἄλλου του ἤκουσας; :: ΦΑ. αὐτός, ὧ Ἐχέκρατες. (Pl. Phd. 57a). (Echecrates:) Were you with Socrates yourself, Phaedo, on that day when he drank the poison ... or did you hear about it from someone else? :: (Phaedo:) I was there myself, Echecrates.
- (26) αὐτός σοι ἡγήσομαι. (Xen. Hell. 5.2.28)
 I will act as your guide myself.
- 29.10 In some cases personal pronouns in the nominative are strengthened by αὐτός:
 - (27) τοῦτο ... οὐκ ἐπεχείρησα ποιεῖν, ὡς αὐτοὶ ὑμεῖς ἐπίστασθε. (Xen. An. 7.6.12)

 I did not try to do that, as you know for yourselves.
- 29.11 Forms of αὐτός are often combined with reflexive pronouns to emphasize a direct reflexive relationship (→29.17):
 - (28) οὕτω μεῖζον ἀν καὶ ἔλαττον εἴη αὐτὸ ἑαυτοῦ τὸ ἔν. (Pl. Prm. 151a)
 In this way, the one thing would be both greater and smaller than itself (lit. 'the one thing itself . . . than itself').
- 29.12 Some further idiomatic uses of αὐτός:
 - by itself, in itself, unaided, alone, bare, very:
 - (29) ἥξει γὰρ αὐτά. (Soph. OT 341)
 For it will happen on its own accord.

- just, merely:
- (30) λεγόντων ἄλλο μὲν οὐδὲν ὧν πρότερον εἰώθεσαν, αὐτὰ δὲ τάδε ὅτι ... (Thuc. 1.139.3) saying nothing of what they previously used to say, but merely this, that ...
- exactly, precisely (with expressions of time or place):
- (31) φυλάξαντες . . . αὐτὸ τὸ περίορθρον (Thuc. 2.3.4) waiting for the exact moment of dawn
- with ... and all (with the dative of accompaniment, $\rightarrow 30.51$):
- (32) εἶπεν . . . ἥκειν εἰς τὰς τάξεις <u>αὐτοῖς</u> στεφάνοις. (Xen. *Cyr.* 3.3.40) He told them to come to their posts with crowns and all.
- with/and . . . others (with ordinals):
- (33) τεσσαράκοντα δὲ ναυσὶ καὶ τέσσαρσι Περικλέους δεκάτου αὐτοῦ στρατηγοῦντος ἐναυμάχησαν. (Thuc. 1.116.1)

 They gave battle with forty-four ships, under the command of Pericles (himself) and nine others (lit. 'himself the tenth').

Summary of the Uses of αὐτός

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29.13 The following overview lists the main differences between the three basic uses of αὐτός:

as third-person personal pronoun: him, her, it, etc.	expressing identicalness: the same	emphatic use: self
oblique cases only used pronominally (i.e. as a noun phrase by itself)	all cases used adnominally, with the article often as head of a noun phrase:	all cases used adnominally, as predicative modifier
	e.g. τὰ αὐτά the same things attributive position, always directly preceded by the article: ὁ αὐτὸς ἀνὴρ τοῦτο ποιεῖ the	predicative position: ὁ ἀνὴρ αὐτὸς τοῦτο ποιεῖ the man does this himself
	same man does this	often by itself in the nom., agreeing with an unexpressed subject: e.g. αὐτός ποιεῖ ταῦτα he himself does these things

Reflexive Pronouns and Other Reflexive Expressions

Introduction; Pronouns Used as Reflexives; Direct and Indirect Reflexives

- 29.14 **Reflexivity** is the phenomenon whereby a pronoun is used to 'reflect' (i.e. refer back or forwards to) another constituent of the sentence or clause, nearly always the **subject**:
 - (34) ἐκεῖνον μὲν οὐδὲν ἐπαινῶ, ἐμαυτὸν δὲ ψέγω. (Xen. Ages. 5.7)
 I am in no way praising him, I am censuring myself. ἐμαυτόν refers to the (unexpressed) first-person subject of ψέγω.
 - (35) οί δὲ ἡττώμενοι ἄμα <u>ἑαυτούς</u> τε καὶ τὰ <u>ἑαυτῶν</u> πάντα ἀποβάλλουσιν. (Xen. Cyr. 3.3.45)

The vanquished throw both themselves and all their possessions away. έαυτούς and έαυτῶν refer back to οἱ ἡττώμενοι.

Note 1: Rarely, reflexives refer back to a constituent other than the subject, e.g. the object:

(36) τούς μὲν Σπαρτιάτας ἀπέλυσεν οἴκαδε, τοὺς δὲ περιοίκους ἀφῆκεν ἐπὶ τὰς ἑαυτῶν πόλεις.(Xen. Hell. 6.5.21)

He let the Spartiates go home, and sent the Perioeci to their respective cities. $\dot{\epsilon}$ αυτῶν refers back to the object τοὺς περιοίκους.

29.15 A distinction is made between:

- direct reflexivity: pronouns which refer back to an element within the same clause/construction;
- indirect reflexivity: pronouns in a subordinate construction (subordinate clauses, infinitive or participle constructions), which refer back to an element in the main/matrix clause (for subordination, \rightarrow 39.2, 39.5):
- (37) γνῶθι <u>σαυτόν</u>.

 Know thyself. Direct reflexive: σαυτόν is object of γνῶθι, and refers to its (unexpressed) subject.
- (38) οὐδέν σε κωλύσει σεαυ τον ἐμβαλεῖν εἰς τὸ βάραθρον. (Ar. Nub. 1448–9)

 Nothing will prevent you from throwing yourself into the pit. Direct reflexive: σεαυτόν is object of ἐμβαλεῖν, and refers to its subject (2 sg. taken from σε).
- (39) τοιοῦτος γίγνου περὶ τοὺς γονεῖς, οἵους ἄν εὔξαιο περὶ σεαυτόν γενέσθαι τοὺς σεαυτοῦ παῖδας. ([Isoc.] 1.14)

 Behave yourself towards your parents such as you would wish your

children to behave themselves towards you. Lit. 'be(come) such as ...'. Indirect reflexives: $\sigma \in \alpha \cup \tau \circ \nu$ and $\sigma \in \alpha \cup \tau \circ \nu$ refer back to the subject of $\varepsilon \circ \nu \in \nu$ but syntactically are part of the accusative-and-infinitive construction $\gamma \in \nu \in \sigma \circ \alpha \cup \tau \circ \nu$. $\sigma \circ \sigma \circ \sigma \circ \nu$.

Note 1: Direct reflexive actions can also be expressed by the middle voice, but only with certain verbs ('verbs of grooming', $\rightarrow 35.11$). In other cases a pronoun is required.

The term 'indirect reflexive' is also used for a different phenomenon in connection with the middle voice, for which \rightarrow 35.8–9.

- 29.16 The following pronouns are used in reflexive constructions:
 - most widely: the reflexive pronoun (ἐμαυτοῦ, σεαυτοῦ, ἑαυτοῦ, ἡμῶν αὐτῶν, etc., →7.3);
 - forms of the obsolete third-person personal pronoun (οὖ/οὑ, οἶ/οἱ, ἕ/ἑ; σφεῖς, σφῶν/σφων, etc., →7.2);
 - (oblique cases of) the personal pronoun (μου/ἐμοῦ, σου/σοῦ, ἡμῶν, etc.);
 - (oblique cases of) αὐτός (αὐτοῦ, etc.).

Note 1: A distinction should thus be maintained between 'reflexive pronouns' (a morphological category, referring to a specific type of pronoun, ἐμαυτοῦ, etc.) and 'pronouns used in reflexive constructions' (a syntactic phenomenon). While reflexive pronouns always express reflexivity, reflexivity is not always necessarily marked by the use of a reflexive pronoun.

Note 2: Reflexive pronouns are frequently used in contexts where English does not use *myself, yourself,* etc. or *my own, his own,* etc., especially in the case of attributive genitives (cf. (35) and (36) above) and indirect reflexives (cf. (39)).

Pronouns Used as Direct and Indirect Reflexives

Direct Reflexivity

- 29.17 In the direct reflexive use, the **reflexive pronoun** (ἐμαυτοῦ, σεαυτοῦ, ἑαυτοῦ, etc., →7.3) is normally required:
 - (40) οἱ δὲ ... τὰ ὅπλα παρέδοσαν καὶ σφᾶς αὐτούς. (Thuc. 4.38.3)
 And they gave up their weapons and surrendered (lit. 'gave up . . . themselves').
 σφᾶς αὐτούς, object of παρέδοσαν, refers back to its subject οἱ δέ.
 - (41) ἐκεῖνο <u>ἐμαυτῷ</u> σύνοιδα, ὅτι περὶ Ὁμήρου κάλλιστ᾽ ἀνθρώπων λέγω. (Pl. *Ion* 533c)
 - This one thing I know of myself: that I excel all men in speaking on Homer. $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\alpha\nu\tau\tilde{\alpha}$ refers to the (unexpressed) first-person subject of $\sigma\dot{\nu}\nuoi\delta\alpha$.
 - (42) αἰσχρὰ μὲν σαυτῷ λέγεις. (Eur. Andr. 648)
 You say things which are shameful to yourself. Reflexive pronoun σαυτῷ refers to the (unexpressed) subject of λέγεις.
 - (43) ὑμεῖς οὖν, ἐὰν σωφρονῆτε, οὐ τούτου ἀλλ' <u>ὑμῶν αὐτῶν</u> φείσεσθε. (Xen. Hell. 2.3.34)
 - If you are wise, you will not spare this man, but rather yourselves. $\dot{\nu}\mu\tilde{\omega}\nu$ α $\dot{\nu}\tau\tilde{\omega}\nu$ refers to the subject of φείσεσθε, $\dot{\nu}\mu\tilde{\epsilon}i\varsigma$.

However, in the first and second person, and in poetry much more freely than in prose, **personal pronouns** can be used as direct reflexives:

- (44) ὡς ἐγὼ δοκῶ μοι τῶν σοφῶν τινος ἀκηκοέναι (Pl. Resp. 583b) as I think I have heard from some wise man (lit. 'I seem to me to have heard'). Personal pronoun μοι refers to the subject of δοκῶ. δοκῶ ἐμαυτῷ is rare, and used particularly in cases of contrastive emphasis.
- (45) φονέας ἔτικτες ἆρά <u>σοι</u>. (Eur. El. 1229)

 Apparently you bore your own killers. Personal pronoun σοι refers to the subject of ἔτιμτες. Contrast (42) above.

Note 1: In tragedy, manuscript evidence provides several instances of αὐτός being used as a third-person direct reflexive: these are usually corrected in modern editions to contracted forms of ἑαυτοῦ (the difference between e.g. αὐτοῦ and αὑτοῦ resides only in the breathing mark (\rightarrow 7.26), and manuscript evidence is not reliable when it comes to breathings, \rightarrow 1.7, 1.12). It is possible, however, that such examples are authentic.

Note 2: For combinations of αὐτός and ἑαυτοῦ in direct reflexive contexts: $\rightarrow 29.11, 29.19$.

Indirect Reflexivity

- 29.18 In indirect reflexive contexts, the following pronouns are used:
 - In the **first** and **second person**, personal pronouns are typically used (the reflexive pronoun is relatively rare):
 - (46) οὐ λόγῳ ἀλλ' ἔργῳ . . . ἐνεδειξάμην ὅτι <u>ἐμοὶ</u> θανάτου μὲν μέλει . . . οὐδ' ὁτιοῦν. (Pl. Ap. 32d)
 - I have shown, not only in word but in deed, that I am not in the least concerned about death. *Personal pronoun*.
 - (47) ὧ τέκν', ἀκούεθ' οἶος εἰς ὑμᾶς πατήρ; (Eur. Med. 82)
 O children, do you hear what kind of man your father is toward you? Personal pronoun.
 - (48) οὐ τοῖς εἰσηγησαμένοις ταῦτ' ἐπιτιμῶ ... ἀλλ' ὑμῖν, εἰ ταῦθ' ἱκανὰ ὑμῖν αὐτοῖς ὑπολαμβάνετ' εἶναι. (Dem. 13.30)
 I do not blame those who have introduced these measures, but you, if you think that these things are sufficient for you. Reflexive pronoun.
 - In the **third person**, the reflexive pronoun occurs regularly:
 - (49) παρεκελεύοντο δὲ αὐτῷ πάντες ... μἡ μάχεσθαι, ἀλλ' ὅπισθεν ἑαυτῶν τάττεσθαι. (Xen. An. 1.7.9)

 All urged him not to take part in the fighting, but to take position behind them. ἐαυτῶν refers back to πάντες.
 - (50) τούτους δ' ἐάσω, μή με φῶσιν κακῶς αὐτοὺς λέγειν. (Dem. 38.26)

 I shall leave them unmentioned, so that they may not say that I am slandering them. αὐτούς refers back to the subject of φῶσιν.

In addition, the forms où, oì, ξ , $\sigma\phi\tilde{\omega}\nu$, etc. (contrastive) and où, oi, ξ , $\sigma\phi\omega\nu$ (non-contrastive) are regularly used as indirect reflexives:

- (51) ες τὴν Ἔγεσταν πέμψαντες ἐκέλευον ἵππους σφίσιν ώς πλείστους πέμπειν. (Thuc. 6.88.6)
 - They sent to Egesta and asked that they send them as many horses as possible. σφίσιν refers back to the subject of ἐπέλευον.
- (52) κατιδών . . . ήμᾶς . . . Πολέμαρχος . . . ἐκέλευσε δραμόντα τὸν παῖδα περιμεῖναί ἑ κελεῦσαι. (Pl. *Resp*. 327b)

Catching sight of us, Polemarchus . . . ordered his boy to run and bid us to wait for him. $\dot{\epsilon}$ refers back to $\Pi o \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \mu \alpha \rho \chi o \varsigma$; strictly speaking it could also have referred back to the boy, although the context leaves no doubt about who is meant.

Finally, oblique cases of αὐτός are frequently used as third-person indirect reflexives:

(53) οἱ δ' . . . εὐθὺς ἀφήσουσι τὴν λείαν, ἐπειδὰν ἴδωσί τινας ἐπ' αὐτοὺς ἐλαύνοντας. (Xen. Cyr. 1.4.19)

They will drop their booty as soon as they see anyone charging them. $\alpha \dot{\upsilon} \tau o \dot{\upsilon} \varsigma$ refers back to the subject of $i\delta \omega \sigma i$.

Note 1: It is difficult to account fully for the difference between the use of these pronouns in the third-person indirect reflexive. Reflexive pronouns ($\dot{\epsilon}\alpha$ utoũ, etc.) are consistently used, even in the first and second person, when they function as attributive genitives; otherwise, the use of reflexive pronouns and forms of oů, etc., is particularly prevalent in those cases where the subordinate construction represents the thoughts, words or intentions of the subject of the matrix clause (nom. $\sigma \varphi \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{\iota} \tilde{\iota} \tilde{\iota}$ can also be so used; for examples of indirect reflexives in indirect speech/thought, $\rightarrow 41.9$ (16), 41.20 (46)).

After the fifth century $\alpha \mathring{\upsilon} \tau \acute{o}_S$ appears to gain ground as a standard form for indirect reflexives (but for problems of manuscript transmission, $\rightarrow 29.17$ n.1).

Further Particulars

- 29.19 The third-person reflexive pronoun is not infrequently used instead of a first- or second-person pronoun:
 - (54) ἀμ|φὶ δ' αὐτᾶς θροεῖς | νόμον ἄνομον. (Aesch. Ag. 1140-2)
 You cry a lawless strain about yourself. αὐτ- instead of σ(ε)αυτ-. For ā in αὐτᾶς,
 →25.46-7.

This occurs regularly in fixed phrases such as αὐτὸς καθ' αὐτόν by myself/yourself/himself, αὐτὸς ἐφ' αὐτοῦ by myself/yourself/himself and superlative + αὐτὸς αὐτοῦ at his/her/its -est (for which, \rightarrow 32.10):

(55) ὅσας ... ναυμαχίας <u>αὐτοὶ καθ' αὑτοὺς</u> νενικήκατε ... (Xen. *Hell.* 1.1.28)
All the naval battles that you have won by yourselves ...

Again, such instances are sometimes emended in modern text editions: many instances are probably authentic, however. Especially from the fourth century onwards, the third-person reflexive pronoun seems to have gradually supplanted the first-person and second-person reflexive pronouns.

- 29.20 Reflexive pronouns are not infrequently used to express reciprocal relationships, where one might expect the reciprocal pronoun ἀλλήλων (for which →29.26):
 - (56) οἱ συγγενεῖς σύνεισι σφίσιν αὐτοῖς. (Xen. *Hell.* 1.7.8) Kinsmen join with each other.

The two pronouns may be combined, however, to express a contrast between reflexive and reciprocal actions:

(57) ἀμφισβητοῦμεν <u>ἀλλήλοις</u> τε καὶ <u>ἡμῖν αὐτοῖς</u>; (Pl. *Phdr.* 263b) Do we disagree with each other as well as with ourselves?

Possessive Pronouns and Other Expressions of Possession

Introduction; Pronouns Used as Possessives

- 29.21 Greek uses the following pronouns to express **possession**, **belonging**, **descent**, **origin**, etc.:
 - possessive pronouns (ἐμός, -ἡ, -όν my; σός, -ἡ, -όν your (sg.); ἡμέτερος, -α, -ον our; ὑμέτερος, -α, -ον your (pl.); these are properly adjectives, and thus always agree with their head noun); the plural forms in particular are sometimes combined with the genitive of αὐτός: e.g. ἡμέτερος αὐτῶν our (own), σφετέρας αὐτῶν their (own), →7.7-9;
 - the genitive of the non-contrastive personal pronoun (μου, σου, ἡμῶν, ὑμῶν),
 and the genitive of αὐτός (αὐτοῦ, αὐτῆς, αὐτῶν, used as a non-contrastive third-person personal pronoun);
 - the genitive of the reflexive pronoun (ἐμαυτοῦ, σεαυτοῦ, ἑαυτοῦ);
 - the genitive of demonstrative pronouns (τούτου, ἐκείνης, etc.).

Note 1: For the position of each of these pronouns relative to noun and article, \rightarrow 28.16, 28.18.

Pronouns Used in Different Constructions

First and Second Person

29.22 For the **first** and **second person**, the following pronouns are used:

- If the possessor is also the subject of the sentence, the possessive pronoun (ἐμός, etc.) is used, or, with emphasis, the genitive of the reflexive pronoun (ἐμαυτοῦ, etc.).
 In the plural, the emphatic combinations ἡμέτερος αὐτῶν, ὑμέτερος αὐτῶν occur:
- (58) τόν ... παΐδα τὸν <u>ἐμὸν</u> παρέδωκα βασανίσαι. (Andoc. 1.64) I gave up my slave to be tortured.
- (59) αἰτιασάμενος ... με ..., τὸν πατέρα ὡς ἀπέκτονα ἐγὼ τὸν ἐμαυτοῦ ..., εἰς ἀγῶνα κατέστησεν. (Dem. 22.2)
 Bringing the accusation against me that I have killed my own father, he has taken me to court. For the word order, with τὸν πατέρα preceding its clause, →60.33.
- (60) διδάσκετε τοὺς παῖδας τοὺς <u>ὑμετέρους αὐτῶν</u>. (Isoc. 3.57) Teach your (own) children.
- If the possessor is **not the subject** of the sentence, the genitive of the non-contrastive personal pronoun (μου, etc.) or the possessive pronoun (ἐμός, etc., especially when with emphasis) is used:
- (61) πλείω χρόνον διατρίβουσι τὸν πατέρα μου διαβάλλοντες. (Isoc. 16.2) They spend more time slandering my father.
- (62) διητᾶτο παρ' ήμῖν τὸν ἄπαντα χρόνον ὁ ἀστύφιλος καὶ ἐπαιδεύθη ὑπὸ τοῦ πατρὸς τοῦ <u>ἐμοῦ</u>. (Isae. 9.27)
 Astyphilus lived in our house the whole time, and was brought up by my father.

Third Person

- 29.23 For the **third person**, the following pronouns are used:
 - If the possessor is also the subject of the sentence, the genitive of the reflexive pronoun is used (ἐαυτοῦ, -ῆς; αὐτοῦ, αὐτῆς). In the plural the form is either ἑαυτῶν or (less commonly) σφέτερος αὐτῶν:
 - (63) Περδίκκας δὲ ὕστερον Στρατονίκην τὴν <u>ἑαυτοῦ</u> ἀδελφὴν δίδωσι Σεύθῃ. (Thuc. 2.101.6)
 - Afterwards Perdiccas gave his sister Stratonice to Seuthes.
 - (64) οἰκέτας τοὺς σφετέρους αὐτῶν ἐπικαλοῦνται μάρτυρας. (Antiph. 1.30) They call their slaves to witness.
 - If the possessor is **not the subject** of the sentence, the genitive of αὐτός is used, or (less commonly, with emphasis) the genitive of demonstrative pronouns (ἐκείνου, etc.):
 - (65) ό γὰρ πατήρ <u>αὐτῆς</u> Ἱππόνικος . . . τὸν πατέρα τὸν ἐμὸν . . . κηδεστήν ἐπεθύμησε ποιήσασθαι. (Isoc. 16.31)
 - For her father Hipponicus set his heart upon making my father related to him by marriage.

(66) τὸ ταύτης σῶμα τιμᾶσθαι χρεών. (Eur. Alc. 619)We must honour her body.

Further Particulars

- 29.24 When the possessor is beyond doubt, Greek often uses no more than the **article** (which may then be translated as a possessive pronoun, \rightarrow 28.4 n.1). This is especially frequent in cases of 'inalienable' possession:
 - (67) πρῶτον μὲν σεαυτὸν σῷσον, εἶτα δὲ τὸν πατέρα. (Andoc. 1.50) Save yourself first, and next your father.
- 29.25 All the possessive expressions treated above may be used with the force of a subjective or objective genitive ($\rightarrow 30.28$):

φιλία τῆ ἐμῆ out of my friendship (for someone else) / friendship for me διὰ τὴν ἐκείνων ἀπιστίαν on account of mistrust for them / their mistrust

Reciprocal Pronouns

- 29.26 The **reciprocal pronoun**, used only pronominally, expresses the idea that two or more persons are **simultaneously involved** in one and the same action, like English *each other*, *one another*:
 - (68) ὡς δὲ κατεῖδον ἀλλήλους, ἀντιπαρετάσσοντο. (Thuc. 1.48.3)

 As soon as they got sight of each other, they arrayed themselves against each other.
 - (69) λυσιτελεῖ γὰρ οἶμαι ἡμῖν ἡ ἀλλήλων δικαιοσύνη καὶ ἀρετή. (Pl. Prt. 327b) For we profit, I think, from each other's justice and virtue.

Note 1: The reciprocal pronoun does not have a nominative and is always plural. As appears from example (69), the genitive ἀλλήλων may also be used as a possessive, in attributive position (\rightarrow 28.16).

Note 2: Reciprocal actions can also be expressed in Greek by the middle voice (e.g. διελέγοντο they conversed with each other; cf. also ἀντιπαρετάσσοντο in (68); →35.24), by the reflexive pronoun (ἔκοπτον αὐτούς they hit themselves/each other; →29.20 above) and by the repetition of nouns:

(70) <u>τάξις</u> δὲ <u>τάξιν</u> παρεκάλει. (Aesch. *Pers.* 380)Line cheered on line.

Demonstrative Pronouns

Pronominal and Adnominal Use; Pointing Outside or Inside the Text

29.27 The three demonstrative pronouns (ὅδε, οὖτος, ἐκεῖνος) may be used pronominally or adnominally. In the latter case, they normally take the article (in prose), and stand in predicative position (\rightarrow 28.17):

οδε / οδε ο ανήρ this man (here)

οὖτος / οὖτος ὁ ἀνήρ this man

ἐκεῖνος / ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἀνήρ that man (there)

Note 1: Predicative position is in this case not indicative of predicative function.

- 29.28 Demonstratives have a pointing or **deictic** function (from δείκνυμι *point*). They may either point to someone/thing in the world **outside the text**, or to a single word or larger segment of **the text itself**. When a demonstrative refers to an element in the text itself it may refer backward to something introduced before (**anaphoric** use) or point forward in the text to something about to be introduced (**cataphoric** use):
 - (71) καὶ οὕτω καταφρονεῖς τῶνδε καὶ οἶει αὐτοὺς ἀπείρους γραμμάτων εἶναι ὅστε ...; (Pl. Ap. 26d)
 Do you so despise these gentlemen (here) and think that they are so unversed in letters that ...? τῶνδε refers to the judges, men actually present for Socrates' speech we might imagine Socrates pointing at them.
 - (72) ὁ δὲ Ἡριαῖος εἶπε· ... ἐπὶ τούτοις Ξενοφῶν τάδε εἶπε· ... (Xen. An. 2.5.40)
 And Ariaeus said: ... In reaction to these words Xenophon spoke as follows: ...
 The pronouns refer to elements in the text τούτοις anaphorically to Ariaeus' speech, and τάδε cataphorically to Xenophon's speech which is to follow.

General Differences between ὅδε, οὖτος and ἐκεῖνος

- 36ε refers to something **immediately near/present to the speaker** (physically or mentally). Often one may imagine the speaker pointing at something or someone nearby: it is used in drama to announce characters coming onstage (73), and can even refer to the speaker himself (74). When it points to an element within the text, öδε normally serves to announce something that will follow immediately (cataphoric use, (75)), or refers to something prominent in the speaker's mind (76):
 - (73) ἀλλ' <u>ὅδε</u> ... βασιλεὺς ... χωρεῖ. (Soph. *Ant.* 155–8) But here comes the king.
 - (74) <u>τῆσδέ</u> γε ζώσης ἔτι (Soph. *Trach.* 305) while this women still lives (i.e. 'while I still live')

- (75) καὶ <u>τόδε</u> ἔτερον συνέπεσε γενόμενον ... (Hdt. 9.101.1)

 And in addition the following coincidence occurred: ... *Cataphoric*.
- (76) ὁ μέντοι μῦθος εἰ σαφὴς ὅδε | οὐκ οἶδα· βουλοίμην δ' ἄν οὐκ εἶναι τόδε. (Eur. Med. 72–3)

Yet if this story is true I do not know, but I would wish that this is not the case.

- 29.30 οὖτος refers to something within the reach of the speaker and/or addressee (physically or mentally), but not specifically near to the speaker. The reference may be to something within reach of the addressee, or even to the addressee him/ herself. In oratory, it is often used to point to accusers or defendants present in the court (77). It is occasionally used in dialogue to address someone ('hey there', (78)). οὖτος very frequently points in the text, and is then used most often to refer to something mentioned previously (anaphoric use, (79)):
 - (77) ἔπειτά εἰσιν οὖτοι οἱ κατήγοροι πολλοὶ καὶ πολὺν χρόνον ἤδη κατηγορηκότες.
 (Pl. Ap. 18c)
 Moreover, these accusers are many and have been making their accusations
 - already for a long time.
 (78) <u>οὖτος</u>, τί ποιεῖς; (Ar. *Ran.* 198)
 Hey there, what are you doing?
 - (79) ταύτην ... τὴν ἡμέραν καὶ τῆς ὑστεραίας μέρος τι προσβολὰς ποιησάμενοι ἐπέπαυντο. (Thuc. 4.13.1)

 Having continued their efforts for that day (just described) and part of the next, they were now quiet. Anaphoric.
 - (80) Γοργίας ... οὖτος ὁ Λεοντῖνος σοφιστής ... (Pl. Hp. mai. 282b)

 Gorgias, that sophist from Leontini ... A recognisable figure to both speaker and addressee: the use of οὖτος may indicate that the speaker suggests some 'distance' between himself and Gorgias.
- 29.31 ἐκεῖνος refers to something beyond the reach of the speaker and addressee (physically or mentally). It may refer to something physically far away (or out of sight) from both speaker and addressee (81). When ἐκεῖνος points within the text, it usually refers anaphorically to something which has not been mentioned for a while (or it is used to pick up something which was mentioned before a form of οὖτος or ὅδε 'intervened') (82). It may also refer to something that is 'distant' in other ways: because it is special or unexpected, because it lies in distant memory, etc. (83):
 - (81) τοῖς δὲ Κερκυραίοις . . . οὐχ ἑωρῶντο . . . πρίν τινες ἰδόντες εἶπον ὅτι νῆες ἐκεῖναι ἐπιπλέουσιν. (Thuc. 1.51.2)
 - They went unseen by the Corcyraeans, until a few noticed them and said that there in the distance ships were approaching.

- (82) (ἔδοξέ μοι) αὐτῶν αὕτη ἡ πλημμέλεια ἐκείνην τὴν σοφίαν ἀποκρύπτειν. (Pl. Ap. 22d)
 - This folly (just mentioned) of theirs seemed to me to obscure that wisdom (mentioned further back in the text). Anaphoric.
- (83) γραφήν σέ τις, ώς ἔοικε, γέγραπται· οὐ γὰρ ἐκεῖνό γε καταγνώσομαι, ώς σὺ ἕτερον. (Pl. Euthphr. 2b)
 - It seems that someone has brought a suit against you. For of one thing I will not accuse you, that you have done so against someone else. Cataphoric; $\dot{\epsilon}$ ne $\dot{\epsilon}$ vo appears to emphasize that the content of the $\dot{\omega}_{S}$ -clause (Socrates bringing a suit against someone else) is unimaginable.
- 29.32 As a general rule, when referring within the text, οὖτος is the pronoun used anaphorically (pointing backwards), and ὅδε the pronoun used cataphorically (pointing forwards):

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    ταῦτα εἰπών ... having said these things ...
    ... εἶπε τάδε· ... he said the following: ...
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Note 1: There are, however, many exceptions to this rule: οὖτος may refer forward (especially when it introduces a relative clause); ὄδε may refer backward:

- (84) καὶ φιλόπολις οὖτος ὀρθῶς ... $\frac{\delta\varsigma}{}$ ἄν ἐκ παντὸς τρόπου ... πειραθῇ αὐτὴν ἀναλαβεῖν. (Thuc. 6.92.4)
 - That man is truly a patriot, who seeks to recover it (his country) by all means.
- (85) τάδε μὲν ἡμῖν πατέρες οἱ ὑμέτεροι ἔδοσαν. (Thuc. 2.71.3)
 These are the things (just described) your ancestors passed on to us. The use of τάδε rather than ταῦτα may emphasize that the things passed on are still relevant for the speaker and his audience.
- 29.33 When referring back to two persons/groups/things just mentioned, 'the former ... the latter' in Greek is represented by 'ἐκεῖνος ... οὖτος/ὅδε' (but also frequently by ὁ μέν ... ὁ δέ, →28.27):
 - (86) πολύ ἄν δικαιότερον ἐκείνοις τοῖς γράμμασιν ἢ <u>τούτοις</u> πιστεύοιτε. (Lys. 16.7) You would be far more justified relying on the former lists than the latter.
 - (87) ύμεῖς ἐκείνων πρότερον ἠκούσατε κατηγορούντων καὶ πολὺ μᾶλλον ἢ τωνδε των ὕστερον. (Pl. Ap. 18e)

You have heard the former make their accusations earlier and with much more vehemence than these men here who came later. Socrates has just distinguished two groups among his accusers.

Further Particulars

29.34 The demonstrative pronouns are often used with a noun in a predicative relationship. In such cases, the noun usually does not have the article; the

demonstrative pronoun is used pronominally and functions as subject/object of the verb. Contrast:

- (88) 'Αρπάγω μὲν 'Αστυάγης δίκην ταύτην ἐπέθηκε. (Hdt. 1.120.1)

 This was the punishment which Astyages inflicted on Harpagus. Predicative use. More literally, 'Astyages inflicted this as punishment on Harpagus'; ταύτην refers anaphorically to the preceding context, in which Astyages' treatment of Harpagus was described.
- (89) οὐδεμιᾳ φιλοπραγμοσύνη ... τὴν δίκην ταύτην ἔλαχον Βοιωτῷ. (Dem. 39.1) It was not through any love of litigation that I brought this suit against Boeotus. Adnominal use. ταύτην expresses the nuance 'just mentioned'.

For the agreement between the pronoun and the noun in such cases, also \rightarrow 27.9.

29.35 There are also groups of **demonstrative adjectives** and **adverbs** which correspond, in the ways in which they 'point', to ὅδε and οὖτος (and sometimes ἐκεῖνος):

Used like ὄδε	Used like οὖτος	Used like ἐμεῖνος	Meaning
τοιόσδε	τοιοῦτος		such, of such a kind
τοσόσδε	τοσοῦτος		so great (sg.), so many (pl.)
చ్ δε	οὕτω(ς)		in this way, so, such
ἐνθένδε	ἐντεῦθεν	ἐκεῖθεν	from here/there
etc. (→8)			

Note 1: The placement of τοιοῦτος and τοσοῦτος is different from that of οὖτος: when they are used adnominally, they stand in attributive position: e.g. οἱ τοιοῦτοι ἄνδρες such men, τὰ τοσαῦτα καὶ τοιαῦτα ἀγαθά so many and such blessings.

These adjectives and adverbs often anticipate or pick up a correlative relative clause (e.g. τοσοῦτος ... ὅσος so large ... as; ὅσοι ... τοσοῦτοι so many as ..., so many (too); \rightarrow 50.5) or anticipate a result clause (e.g. τοιοῦτος ... ώστε such ... that; \rightarrow 46.2).

- 29.36 Forms of demonstrative pronouns, adjectives or adverbs are sometimes expanded with the **deictic suffix** -i (\rightarrow 7.18). In such cases the demonstrative nearly always refers to something in the world outside the text: deictic iota appears to emphasize the 'pointing' effect of the pronoun. It is especially frequent in comedy:
 - (90) <u>όδὶ</u> δὲ τίς ποτ' ἐστίν; οὐ δήπου Στράτων; (Ar. *Ach.* 122) And this guy here, who's he? Can't be Straton, can he?
 - (91) καὶ μὴν ὁρῶ καὶ Βλεψίδημον <u>τουτονὶ</u> | προσιόντα. (Ar. *Plut.* 332–3) And look, there I see Blepsidemus approaching too.
 - (92) ΠΕ. ούτοσὶ δὲ πηνέλοψ. :: ΕΥ. ἐκεινηὶ δέ γ' ἀλκυών. (Ar. Αν. 298)
 (Pisetaerus:) And that one is a wigeon. :: (Euelpides:) And that one a halcyon.

- (93) <u>τοιουτοσί</u> τοίνυν με δαρδάπτει πόθος | Εὐριπίδου. (Ar. *Ran.* 66–7) Such, I tell you, is the desire for Euripides which is devouring me.
- 29.37 A relatively frequent idiomatic use of anaphoric οὖτος is in the fixed expression καὶ ταῦτά (γε) and ... at that, and ... to boot, and what's more: ..., modifying a participle, noun phrase or adjective:
 - (94) Οὐκοῦν καὶ χρυσίον, ἦ δ' ὅς, ἀγαθὸν δοκεῖ σοι εἶναι ἔχειν; :: Πάνυ, καὶ ταῦτά γε πολύ, ἔφη ὁ Κτήσιππος. (Pl. Euthd. 299d)
 - 'Don't you think,' he said, 'that it is a good thing to have gold?' :: 'Certainly,' said Ctesippus, 'and a lot of it at that.' $\tau\alpha\tilde{v}\tau\alpha$ picks up the idea 'it is good to have gold', to which Ctesippus adds the additional and specific proviso (for $\kappa\alpha$ and $\gamma\varepsilon$, \rightarrow 59.20, 59.53) that it should be a lot of gold.

Indefinite Pronouns

- 29.38 The **indefinite pronoun** τ_{15} *any, some, a(n), (a) certain*, can be used pronominally or adnominally. It refers to someone/something that is not identifiable as a specific individual:
 - Normally, τις is used to refer to any of a number of individuals whose specific identity is **unknown** or **irrelevant**:
 - (95) ήμῶν . . . ἔχει <u>τις</u> κατηγορῆσαι ἢ ὡς ἐπὶ <u>πόλιν τινὰ</u> ἐστρατεύσαμεν ἢ ὡς χρήματά <u>τινων</u> ἐλάβομεν; (Xen. Hell. 6.5.37)
 - Can anyone accuse us of attacking some city or taking anyone's possessions?
 - (96) εἴ τις ἐπιβουλεύει τι τῷ δήμῳ κακὸν | τῷ τῶν γυναικῶν . . . κακῶς ἀπολέσθαι τοῦτον αὐτὸν κῷκίαν | ἀρᾶσθε. (Ar. Thesm. 335-6, 349-50)
 If anyone plans to do any harm to the Women's Commonwealth, pray that he himself and his house may perish miserably.
 - (97) εἰ δή τω σοφώτερός του φαίην εἶναι, τούτω ἄν ... (Pl. Ap. 29b)

 If I were to claim that I am wiser than anyone in any respect, it would be in this respect, that ... For the forms τω and του, \rightarrow 7.24.
 - Sometimes, τις is used when the speaker does not wish to reveal, or pay attention to, the identity of a specific individual:
 - (98) δώσει <u>τις</u> δίκην. (Ar. Ran. 554)

 Someone is going to pay for this! The speaker means: 'you're going to pay for this'.
 - (99) ἴθ', ὧ γύναι, δήλωσον εἰσελθοῦσ' ὅτι | Φωκῆς ματεύουσ' ἄνδρες Αἴγισθόν τινες. (Soph. *El.* 1106–7)
 - Go on, woman, go inside and let it be known that there are certain Phocians here looking for Aegisthus.

- 29.39 The indefinite pronoun can convey a **collective** sense, where *someone* is short for *every someone* (cf. Germ. *man*, Fr. *on*). The combinations πᾶς τις and ἕκαστός τις in particular are used with this meaning:
 - (100) γαστρὶ δὲ <u>πᾶς τις</u> ἀμύνων λιμὸν αἰανῆ τέταται. (Pind. *Isthm.* 1.49) Everyone is intent on warding off persistent hunger from his belly.
- 29.40 Forms of τις may be added to **adverbs and numerals** to weaken their force or make them less specific:

σχεδόν <u>τι</u> pretty nearly, virtually ὀγδοήκοντά τινες roughly/around/some eighty

- 29.41 The acc. sg. neut. τι is frequently used in the meaning somehow, somewhat, in some way:
 - (101) παρεθάρρυνε μέν τι αὐτοὺς καὶ ὁ χρησμὸς ὁ λεγόμενος ὡς . . . (Xen. Hell. 6.4.7) They were also somewhat encouraged by the oracle which was given, that . . .
 - (102) διαλεγομένω τε οὔ τι προσδιελέγετο. (Hdt. 3.50.3) When spoken to he would not reply in any way.
- 29.42 Also note the following idiomatic uses:

λέγειν <u>τι</u> to make sense, have a point (*lit.* 'to say something') εἶναί <u>τις</u> to be someone (of worth, to be reckoned with)

εἴ τις ἄλλος if any, if at all; as . . . as any

(103) νῦν δ', εἴ τις ἄλλη, δυστυχεστάτη γυνή. (Eur. Andr. 6)

But as it is I am, if any woman ever was, the most unfortunate woman of all.

Interrogative Pronouns

29.43 The **interrogative pronoun** τίς *who?*, *which?* can be used pronominally or adnominally:

τίς λέγει τοῦτο; Who says that?

τίς ἀνὴρ λέγει τοῦτο; Which man says that?

For its use in direct and indirect questions, $\rightarrow 38.11-14$ and 42.5-6.

Relative Pronouns

29.44 For the use of relative pronouns, $\rightarrow 50.8-16$.

Quantifiers

πᾶς

29.45 The quantifier $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\tilde{\alpha}}\mathbf{\varsigma}$ (also $\mathbf{\tilde{\alpha}}\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\alpha}\mathbf{\varsigma}$, $\mathbf{\sigma}\dot{\mathbf{\upsilon}}\mu\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\alpha}\mathbf{\varsigma}$) in the singular means (as a) whole, in its entirety when it stands with the article (usually in predicative position). Without the article, it usually means each, every:

πãσα ἡ πόλις / ἡ πόλις πãσα the city as a whole, the entire city

πᾶσα πόλις each/every city (sometimes: an entire city)

In the plural, it means *each*, *every*, *all*. The form of $\pi \tilde{\alpha}_{S}$ usually stands in predicative position, but sometimes in attributive position to emphasize the collective nature of the group:

πᾶσαι πόλεις each/every city, all cities

πᾶσαι αἱ πόλεις/αἱ πόλεις πᾶσαι all the cities

αἱ πᾶσαι πόλεις the whole group of cities, the cities collectively

ὄλος

29.46 ὅλος means *in its entirety, as a whole* in predicative position, and *whole, entire* in attributive position:

(104) περὶ τὸ πρᾶγμα <u>ὅλον</u> ἄδικός ἐστιν ἄνθρωπος. ([Dem.] 48.36)

He acts as an unlawful fellow in the case as a whole. Predicative.

(105) ὑμεῖς τὸ <u>ὅλον</u> πρᾶγμα συνίδετε. (Aeschin. 1.46)

Look at the entire matter. Attributive.

μόνος

- 29.47 μόνος means by itself, alone, (as the) only in predicative position, and the only in attributive position:
 - (106) τἠμῆ δὲ παιδὶ στέφανος εἶς μιᾳ μόνη | πόλεως θανούση τῆσδ' ὕπερ δοθήσεται. (Eur. fr. 360.34–5 Kannicht)

To my single child shall be given a single crown, since she alone shall have died for this city. Predicative; for τἡμῆ (crasis), $\rightarrow 1.43$ –5, for ὕπερ (anastrophe), $\rightarrow 24.37$, 60.14.

(107) παίσας εἰς τὰ στέρνα τὸν μόνον μοι καὶ φίλον παῖδα ἀφείλετο τὴν ψυχήν. (Xen. Cyr. 4.6.4)

He struck my only and beloved child in the chest, and took his life. Attributive.

ἄλλος and ἕτερος

29.48 The basic meaning of ἄλλος is other (out of many), stressing similarity. The basic meaning of ἔτερος is other (than something else), stressing difference:

ή ρητορική καὶ αἱ <u>ἄλλαι</u> τέχναι

rhetoric and the other arts

ή ρητορική <u>έτέρα</u> τέχνη τῆς γραμματικῆς ἐστίν

rhetoric is an art different from grammar

Often, however, ἕτερος alternates with ἄλλος without a discernible difference in meaning.

29.49 With the article, ὁ ἕτερος (ἄτερος in crasis, →1.45 n.3) means 'the other' of a pair:

ὁ ἔτερος ποῦς the other foot

29.50 With the article, ὁ ἄλλος means 'the rest', 'the other(s)':

ή ἄλλη Ἑλλάς

the rest of Greece

οί ἄλλοι διδάσκαλοι

the other teachers / the rest of the teachers

Sometimes ἄλλος with the article is found with a noun that has to be interpreted as an appositive, in which case ἄλλος has the meaning *besides, moreover*:

(108) παρεκάλεσαν τοὺς ἐν τῷ καταλόγῳ ὁπλίτας καὶ τοὺς <u>ἄλλους</u> ἱππέας. (Xen. *Hell*. 2.4.9)

They summoned the hoplites on the roll and the cavalry besides ('and the others, namely the cavalry').

- 29.51 **A form of ἄλλος followed by another form of ἄλλος** (or adverbial ἄλλως, ἄλλη) expresses the same as English *different* . . . *different*, or a twofold statement *one* . . . *one, another* . . . *another*:
 - (109) οὖτοι μέν, ὧ Κλέαρχε, <u>ἄλλος ἄλλα</u> λέγει. σὺ δ' ἡμῖν εἰπὲ τί λέγεις. (Xen. An. 2.1.15–16)

As for them, Clearchus, one says one thing and another says something else. But you must tell us what your opinion is. Note that $\check{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\circ\varsigma$ ($\check{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\alpha$) stands in apposition ($\rightarrow 26.24-5$) to $o\check{\upsilon}\tau$ 01 (for the position of $o\check{\upsilon}\tau$ 01 as 'theme', $\rightarrow 60.33-4$).

(110) ἐντεῦθεν πλήν τετταράκοντα νεῶν ἄλλαι ἄλλη ἄχοντο. (Xen. Hell. 1.1.8) From there, all but forty ships departed, each in a different direction. For $\mathring{a}\lambda \lambda \eta$, $\rightarrow 8.2$.

Similarly, a form of ετερος followed by another form of ετερος in another case is used when comparison is made between two members of a pair:

- (111) τί οὖν ἄν ... ἔτερος ἑτέρου διαφέροι ἡμῶν πλὴν τόλμη; (Xen. Cyr. 2.1.17)
 How might the one of us differ from the other except in courage?
- 29.52 For the idiomatic use of a form of ἄλλος followed by (καὶ δὴ) καὶ (among other ..., in particular; particularly), \rightarrow 59.70.

Cases

Functions, Meanings and Labels

- The four main cases of Greek (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative) are used in different syntactic functions (for the vocative, $\rightarrow 30.55$):
 - to mark obligatory constituents with verbs and adjectives (subject, object, complement; here belong also certain uses in constructions like the accusative-and-infinitive, accusative-and-participle, etc.);
 - to complement **prepositions**;
 - to mark attributive modifiers (the main function of the genitive);
 - to mark various adverbial modifiers (here belong also certain uses in constructions like the genitive absolute and accusative absolute);
 - a few other, idiomatic uses.

In the overview below, the most important uses of each of the cases are listed, organized by syntactic function. The prepositions are treated separately, $\rightarrow 31$.

Note 1: The uses of Greek cases in attributive and adverbial modifiers are commonly distinguished by the use of certain semantic 'labels', like of quantity, of respect, of place, etc. While such labels are helpful, they often do not distinguish between intrinsically different uses, but between different nuances of a general syntactic function. For example, the genitive is often used to express a close relationship between two nouns (as attributive modifier, $\rightarrow 30.28-9$ below), without expressing the precise nature of that relationship. Which label applies (and how to translate the genitive) depends on the meanings of the nouns involved and on the context:

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ή οἰκία ἡ τοῦ ἀνδρός the man's house (genitive of possession)
ἡ φιλία ἡ τοῦ ἀνδρός the love for the man (genitive of the object)
ἡ φιλία ἡ τοῦ ἀνδρός the man's love (for someone else) (genitive of the subject)
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30.1–2 Nominative 361

Things are different with individual verbs that can be construed with different cases, with a distinction in meaning. For example, the verb $\hat{\eta}\gamma\dot{\epsilon}\omega\mu\alpha$ may be construed with a dative to mean *lead*, *guide*, with a genitive to mean *lead*, *command*, and with a 'double accusative' or with an (accusative and) infinitive to mean *believe*, *think*. (Note that in some other cases, however, there appears to be very little difference between alternating constructions with the same verb: for instance, $\pi\epsilon i\theta\omega\mu\alpha$ *believe*, *obey* is usually construed with a complement in the dative, but is also sometimes found with a complement in the genitive.)

It is also often possible to group together verbs which are related in meaning and construed with the same case. For instance, verbs and adjectives which mean 'filling', 'emptying', '(being) full/empty' normally take a direct object in the accusative for the thing filled/emptied, and a complement in the genitive for the substance \rightarrow (30.22). Verbs in such related spheres of meaning are listed together below.

Nominative

As Obligatory Constituent with Verbs

- The nominative is the case used for the **subject** of a finite verb (and any modifiers that agree with it, \rightarrow 27.7).
 - (1) μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα οὐ πολλαῖς ἡμέραις ὕστερον ἦλθεν ἐξ Ἀθηνῶν <u>Θυμοχάρης ἔχων</u> ναῦς ὀλίγας· καὶ εὐθὺς ἐναυμάχησαν αὖθις <u>Λακεδαιμόνιοι</u> καὶ <u>Ἀθηναῖοι</u>, ἐνίκησαν δὲ <u>Λακεδαιμόνιοι</u> ἡγουμένου Ἁγησανδρίδου. μετ' ὀλίγον δὲ τούτων <u>Δωριεὺς ὁ</u> Διαγόρου ἐκ Ῥόδου εἰς Ἑλλήσποντον εἰσέπλει ἀρχομένου χειμῶνος τέτταρσι καὶ δέκα ναυσὶν ἄμα ἡμέρα. κατιδών δὲ ὁ τῶν Ἀθηναίων ἡμεροσκόπος ἐσήμηνε τοῖς στρατηγοῖς. (Xen. Hell. 1.1.1-2)
 - After these events, not many days later, Thymochares came from Athens with a few ships. And promptly the Spartans and Athenians fought another naval battle, and the Spartans, led by Agesandridas, were victorious. Shortly after this, as winter was setting in, Dorieus the son of Diagoras sailed from Rhodes into the Hellespont with fourteen ships, at daybreak. And when the day-scout of the Athenians spotted him, he signalled to the generals.
 - (2) ὅτι μὲν ὑμεῖς, ὧ ἄνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, πεπόνθατε ὑπὸ τῶν ἐμῶν κατηγόρων, οὐκ οἶδα-ἐγὼ δ' οὖν καὶ αὐτὸς ὑπ' αὐτῶν ὀλίγου ἐμαυτοῦ ἐπελαθόμην, οὕτω πιθανῶς ἔλεγον. καίτοι ἀληθές γε ὡς ἔπος εἰπεῖν οὐδὲν εἰρήκασιν. (Pl. Ap. 17a)

 How you, men of Athens, have been affected by my accusers, I do not know. I, for my part, however, almost forgot who I was because of them, so convincingly did they speak. And yet they have said not a single thing, so to say, which is true.

Note 1: The subject of Greek finite verbs is very often not explicitly expressed, when the context and the personal ending of the verb make it sufficiently clear who or what is meant $(\rightarrow 26.7)$. In such cases, no subject constituent in the nominative is present; cf. $o\bar{i}\delta\alpha$, $\xi\bar{i}\delta\epsilon\gamma o\nu$ and $\epsilon\bar{i}\rho\dot{\eta}\kappa\alpha\sigma\nu$ in (2), which have no explicit subjects (the translation 'adds' *I*, they).

- Predicative complements with linking verbs (\rightarrow 26.8) agree with their subject (\rightarrow 27.7), and thus also stand in the nominative:
 - (3) πᾶν ἐστι ἄνθρωπος συμφορή. (Hdt. 1.32.4)
 A human being is in every way (a victim of) chance.

Note that adjectives, participles and some numerals agree not only in case (nominative), but also in number and gender:

- (4) $\underline{\acute{\eta}}$ δ' ἀρετ $\dot{\acute{\eta}}$. . . οὐ πάνυ δειν $\dot{\acute{\eta}}$ ἐστιν ἐν τῷ παραυτίκα εἰκ $\ddot{\acute{\eta}}$ συνεπισπᾶσθαι. (Xen. Cyr. 2.2.24)
 - Virtue is not very clever at drawing people in at first appearance and at random. Nom. sg. fem.
- (5) αί μὲν μηνύσεις . . . περὶ τῶν μυστηρίων . . . ἐγένοντο τέτταρες. (Andoc. 1.25) The reports regarding the mysteries were four in number. *Nom. pl. fem.*

Note 1: In the accusative-and-infinitive construction (\rightarrow 51.11–12, 51.21, 51.41), and in various constructions with participles (\rightarrow 52.13–15, 52.32), such predicative complements may of course take other cases than the nominative.

Other Uses

- 30.4 The nominative is also used in bare **lists** (\rightarrow 26.29), including entries in dictionaries.
- 30.5 For the nominative used in apposition to a sentence, \rightarrow 27.14.
- 30.6 For the use of the nominative as a vocative, \rightarrow 30.55 n.1.

Accusative

The accusative is used to complement verbs (its most frequent function), as well as in various adverbial expressions.

As Obligatory Constituent (to Complement Verbs)

- The accusative is the standard case for the **direct object** with verbs which take an object $(\rightarrow 26.3)$:
 - (6) γυναῖκα ἠγαγόμην εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν. (Lys. 1.6) I brought a wife into my house.
 - (7) πάντες <u>τὸν ἄνδρα</u> ἐπαινοῦσιν. (Pl. *Prt.* 310e) Everyone praises the man.

Note 1: Often, a construction with a Greek verb taking a direct object in the accusative is best rendered into English by means of a prepositional phrase. A few examples:

αἰσχύνομαι be ashamed of, feel shame for (sometimes + dat.)

30.8–10 Accusative 363

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λανθάνω go unnoticed by (→52.11)
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φοβέομαι be afraid of

φυλάττομαι be on guard against

30.9 Several verbs take a '**double accusative**' – a direct object (X) and a complement (Y) in the accusative:

- verbs meaning 'treat', 'do':

```
ποιέω do X to Y (also with adverbs: 'treat X in a ... way') do X to Y (also with adverbs: 'treat X in a ... way')
```

some verbs meaning 'ask', 'demand':

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αἰτέω ask, demand X from Y
```

ἐρωτάω ask X Y (also with indirect questions, →42.2)

- some other verbs:

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ἀφαιρέομαι take X from Y (also + gen.: 'to take away X (acc.) from Y (gen.)') διδάσκω teach X Y, teach Y to X κρύπτω hide X from Y
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- (8) ἔλεγε ὅσα ἀγαθὰ Κῦρος Πέρσας πεποιήκοι. (Hdt. 3.75.1)
 He recounted how many good things Cyrus had done to the Persians.
- (9) ὁ Ἡριππίδας ... αἰτεῖ τὸν Ἁγησίλαον ὁπλίτας ... εἰς δισχιλίους. (Xen. Hell.
 4.1.21)

Herippidas asked Agesilaus for up to two thousand hoplites.

- (10) πολλὰ διδάσκει μ' ὁ πολὺς βίοτος. (Eur. Hipp. 252) My long life teaches me many lessons.
- (11) Διογείτων <u>τὴν μὲν θυγατέρα ἔκρυπτε</u> <u>τὸν θάνατον</u> τοῦ ἀνδρός. (Lys. 32.7) Diogiton kept the death of her husband hidden from his daughter.

Note 1: When such verbs appear in the passive, the object of the active construction is used as the subject of the passive verb, while the complement (Y) still stands in the accusative; for details, \rightarrow 35.15.

30.10 The following verbs (→26.12) take a direct object (X) and a predicative complement (Y) that agrees with that object (and thus also stands in the accusative; this, too, is often called a 'double accusative'):

```
αἱρέομαι appoint/select X to be Y 
ἡγέομαι think/consider X to be Y (+ gen. = 'lead', 'rule'; + dat. = 'guide'; + inf. = 'believe')
τίθημι turn X into Y, make X Y
καθίστημι install, appoint X as Y
καλέω name/call X Y
λέγω name/call X Y
```

νομίζω think/consider X to be Y (+ inf. = 'think', 'believe')ποιέω appoint X as Y, make X into Y

- (12) ἐκείνη γάρ, ὅταν μὲν πόλεμος ἦ, στρατηγοὺς ἡμᾶς αἰρεῖται. (Xen. Hell. 6.3.4) For whenever there is war, it (the state) appoints us as generals.
- (13) ἕνα ἕκαστον <u>λέγω</u> <u>αὐτὸν</u> ἑαυτοῦ <u>ἄρχοντα</u>. (Pl. *Grg*. 491d)
 I call every individual man his own ruler.
- (14) τοῦτον νόμιζε Ζῆνα, τόνδ' ἡγοῦ θεόν. (Eur. fr. 941.3 Kannicht) Consider that to be Zeus, and this to be a god.

Note 1: When these verbs are passive, both the subject and the predicative complement stand in the nominative; for details, $\rightarrow 35.15$.

30.11 The accusative is also used in the accusative-and-infinitive (\rightarrow 51.11-12, 51.21, 51.41), the accusative absolute (\rightarrow 52.33) and accusative-and-participle constructions (\rightarrow 52.13).

Internal Object

- 30.12 With verbs that normally do not take a direct object (→26.3), an 'internal' or 'cognate' object in the accusative can be added to specify the nature of the action. This accusative is often related in meaning and lexical origin to the verb, and is usually plural and/or modified by an adjective or pronoun:
 - (15) πέντε τριήρεις ἐθελοντής ἐπιδούς ... ἐτριηράρχησε τριηραρχίας. (Dem. 45.85) He performed his duties as trierarch by contributing five ships willingly.
 - (16) ἑωρᾶτε... Σωκράτη τινὰ... πολλὴν φλυαρίαν φλυαροῦντα. (Pl. Ap. 19c)
 You have seen that a certain Socrates talks a lot of nonsense (lit. 'drivels a lot of drivel').

The accusative can be 'cognate' to the verb only in meaning (and not in lexical origin):

(17) εἰς Αἴγιναν κατοικισάμενος <u>ἠσθένησεν</u> <u>ταύτην τὴν νόσον</u> ἐξ ἦσπερ ἀπέθανεν. (Isoc. 19.24)

When he had settled in Aegina he fell ill with this disease which resulted in his death.

Note 1: Occasionally, the noun in the accusative is omitted, in which case only an adjective or pronoun serves as internal object:

(18) τοῦτον μὲν ἀνέκραγον ὡς ἀλίγας παίσειεν. (Xen. An. 5.8.12)
They shouted that he had given that man too few blows. ἀλίγας agrees with an omitted πληγάς, 'blows'; note that παίσειεν also has a direct object, τοῦτον; for the position of τοῦτον, →60.33.

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30.13 Observe the following idioms, in which κακά/ἀγαθά is an internal object (and X marks a direct object, also in the accusative):

κακὰ/ἀγαθὰ λέγω X speak ill of X κακὰ/ἀγαθὰ ἀκούω be spoken ill of

(19) ὁ Θεμιστοκλέης κεῖνόν τε καὶ τοὺς Κορινθίους ... κακὰ ἔλεγε. (Hdt. 8.61.2) Themistocles spoke ill of him and of the Corinthians.

Note 1: Similarly, κακῶς/εὖ λέγω τινά and κακῶς/εὖ ἀκούω (with adverbs) mean *speak ill/well* of, be spoken ill/well of:

(20) οὐ προδώσω τὸν πατέρα κακῶς ἀκούοντα ἐν ὑμῖν ἀδίκως. (Antiph. 5.75)

I will not betray my father, who has a bad reputation among you, undeservedly.

As an Optional Constituent (Adverbial Modifier)

- 30.14 With active and middle verbs which do not take an object, with passive verbs, and with adjectives, an **accusative of respect** or **limitation** may be added to specify to which particular element the action or adjective applies ('as concerns ...', 'with respect to'): ἀλγεῖ τοὺς πόδας his feet hurt (*lit.* 'he has a pain with respect to his feet')
 - (21) διαφέρει γυνή ἀνδρὸς <u>τὴν φύσιν</u>. (Pl. Resp. 453b)Man and woman differ by nature.
 - (22) τρίτον δὲ σχῆμα πολιτείας οὐχ ἡ τοῦ πλήθους ἀρχή, δημοκρατία τοὔνομα κληθεῖσα; (Pl. Plt. 291d)
 Isn't the third form of government the rule of the many, called 'democracy' by name? τοὔνομα = τὸ ὄνομα, with crasis, →1.43-5.

The accusative of respect is also used with nouns, especially in measurements: ποταμὸς εὖρος δύο πλέθρων a river two plethra wide (*lit. 'in width'*)

- 30.15 The **accusative of (duration of) time** expresses the length of time taken up by an action. Usually, such accusatives are accompanied by a numeral or an adjective of quantity (e.g. πολύς, ὀλίγος):
 - (23) ἀπέπλεε ... πολιορκήσας ... <u>εξ καὶ εἴκοσι ἡμέρας</u> ... τὴν νῆσον. (Hdt. 6.135.1) He sailed away after having laid siege to the island for twenty-six days.
 - (24) νύμφη μὲν ἦν <u>τρεῖς ἡμέρας</u> (Ar. Thesm. 478)I had been married for three days.

With an ordinal number (without the article), and often with a form of oὑτοσί $(\rightarrow 29.36)$, this accusative expresses 'how long (since)':

(25) τὴν δὲ μητέρα τελευτήσασαν πέπαυμαι τρέφων τρίτον ἔτος τουτί. (Lys. 24.6) I have not been supporting my mother only since her death two years ago (lit. 'this (as) the third year'; note that Greek counts 'inclusively', →9.10).

- (26) ΕΤ. ἄ τί λέγεις; Πρωταγόρας ἐπιδεδήμηκεν; :: ΣΩ. τρίτην γε ἤδη ἡμέραν. (Pl. Prt. 309d)
 - (Friend:) What news! Protagoras is in town? :: (Socrates:) Yes, already since the day before yesterday.
- 30.16 Similarly, the **accusative of space** is used to express the extent of space or distance traversed in an action; this accusative is again often accompanied by a numeral (compare the accusative of duration above):
 - (27) Μενέλαε, . . . σε κιγχάνω μόλις, | <u>πᾶσαν</u> πλανηθείς <u>τήνδε βάρβαρον χθόνα</u>. (Eur. Hel. 597-8)
 - Menelaus, I come to you at last, having wandered through all of this barbarian country.
 - (28) ἐπορεύθησαν διὰ τῆς Ἀρμενίας <u>πεδίον ἄπαν καὶ λείους γηλόφους οὐ μεῖον ἢ</u> πέντε παρασάγγας. (Xen. An. 4.4.1)
 - They journeyed through Armenia across entirely level country and sloping hills, no less than five parasangs.
- In poetry only, the bare **accusative of direction** is sometimes used to express the place 'to where':
 - (29) ἐπεὶ ... ἦλθον πατρὸς ἀρχαῖον τάφον. (Soph. *El.* 893) When I had come to my father's old grave, ...
- 30.18 Many **adverbs** derive their form from the neuter accusative of corresponding adjectives: this is often called the **adverbial accusative**:

οὐδέν in no way μέγα greatly, loudly πολύ very, highly, much πολλά often, frequently

Note 1: These forms are usually best seen as actual adverbs in their own right, not as (e.g.) modifiers in a noun phrase with the head left implicit. Alongside adverbial accusatives, some such adjectives (but not e.g. $\pi o \lambda \dot{0}$) also have adverbs formed regularly with the suffix $-\omega \varsigma$ ($\rightarrow 6.3-4$), e.g. $\mu \epsilon \gamma \dot{\alpha} \lambda \omega \varsigma$.

Note 2: This is the regular process by which adverbs of comparatives and superlatives are formed: $\rightarrow 6.13-14$.

Apposition to a Sentence

- When an **appositive** is added to an entire sentence or clause, it normally stands in the accusative (\rightarrow 27.14):
 - (30) ἄλλαι δὲ θύρσους ἵεσαν δι' αἰθέρος | Πένθεως, στόχον δύστηνον. (Eur. Bacch. 1099–1100)
 - And other women threw their thyrsus staves through the air at Pentheus, a woeful aiming.

30.19–21 Genitive 367

(31) Ἑλένην κτάνωμεν, Μενέλεω λύπην πικράν. (Eur. Or. 1105)
Let us slay Helen; a sore grief to Menelaus!

Genitive

30.20 The main function of the genitive is at the level of the noun phrase, to mark attributive modifiers (i.e. expressing various relations between (pro)nouns/noun phrases). It is also used to mark some required constituents (complements) with verbs/adjectives, and functions in a few adverbial expressions.

As Obligatory Constituent (to Complement Verbs/Adjectives)

Verbs Taking the Genitive

μεταμέλει μοι (impers.)

πείθομαι φροντίζω

- 30.21 The genitive is used to complement, among others, the following **verbs**:
 - some verbs meaning 'begin' or 'end':

```
ἄρχω/ἄρχομαι begin (sometimes + acc.; also + ppl. or inf., \rightarrow52.27) 
λήγω cease from (also + ppl., \rightarrow52.9) 
παύομαι cease from (also + ppl., \rightarrow52.9)
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- many verbs expressing sensorial or mental processes:

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perceive (by ear, the gen. marks the source of
αἰσθάνομαι
                              sound; αἰσθάνομαι + acc. = 'become aware of',
                              'learn'; combinations of gen./acc. occur)
ἀκούω
                           hear (the gen. marks the source of sound; ἀμούω +
                              acc. = 'be told', 'hear', e.g. ἀκούω λόγον 'hear
                              a story'; combinations of gen./acc. occur)
                           listen to, hear (in combinations gen./acc., the gen.
ἀκροάομαι
                              marks the speaking person (i.e. the source of
                              sound), the acc. the thing said)
ἄπτομαι
                           grab hold of, touch
                           taste
γεύομαι
                           long for, desire
ἐπιθυμέω
ἐπιλανθάνομαι
                           forget (sometimes + acc.)
ἐπιμελ(έ)ομαι
                           take care of, ensure (also + inf. or effort-clause =
                              'ensure that', \rightarrow 44.1)
                           strive, long for (also + inf. = 'strive to')
ἐφίεμαι
μιμνήσκομαι
                           remember (sometimes + acc.)
μέλει μοι (impers.)
                           ... is of concern to me, I care for
```

I am sorry about, I regret

obey, listen to (rare; much more frequently + dat.)

be concerned about (sometimes + acc.)

- many verbs expressing leading, difference or superiority:

ἄρχω lead, rule over (sometimes + dat.)

διαφέρω differ from, excel, surpass

ἡγέομαι lead (also + dat. = 'guide'; + 2x acc. = 'consider'; +

inf. = 'believe')

κρατέω rule, be master of (also + acc. = 'defeat')

περιγίγνομαι be superior to, overcome προέχω be ahead of, beat, surpass

- many verbs meaning 'take part in', 'meet', 'strive for', and their opposites:

άμαρτάνω miss, mistake, fail (also + ppl. = 'err in')

ἀπέχω be distant from

δεῖ (impers.) there is a lack of, ... is needed

δέομαι require, lack, need (also + 2x gen. = 'ask for X from Y')

ἔχομαι cling to, border on, pertain to

κυρέω hit upon, meet, get, achieve (also + ppl. = 'happen to',

 \rightarrow cf. 52.11)

μετέχω take part in (sometimes + acc. for the part itself)

μέτεστί μοι (impers.) I have a share in something

τυγχάνω hit upon, meet, get, achieve (also + ppl. = 'happen to',

 \rightarrow 52.11)

- (32) ἀλλ' οὐ μὲν δἡ | λήξω θρήνων στυγερῶν τε γόων. (Soph. El. 103-4)
 But I will not quit my lamentations and wretched wails.
- (33) καὶ μὴν <u>αἰσθάνομαι ψόφου τινός</u>. (Ar. *Ran.* 285) Hang on, I'm noticing some sort of sound.
- (34) ταῦτα δὲ ἀσμένως τινὲς ἤκουον αὐτοῦ. (Dem. 18.36) Some of them were relieved to hear this from him. Note the combination of ταῦτα (acc.) and αὐτοῦ (gen.).
- (35) εἶναι γὰρ ὁμολογεῖται σωφροσύνη τὸ <u>κρατεῖν</u> ἡδονῶν καὶ ἐπιθυμιῶν. (Pl. Symp. 196c)

It is agreed that self-control is to have control over pleasures and desires.

- (36) ἐμοὶ ἐφαίνετο <u>οὐδεμιᾶς παιδείας μετεσχηκώς</u>. (Aeschin. 3.117)

 It was clear to me that he had had no share of any education.
- The following verbs take an **object in the accusative** (X) **and a complement in the genitive** (Y):
 - verbs meaning 'accuse', 'convict', etc. (acc. for the person accused, etc.; gen. for the crime or punishment):

αἰτιάομαι accuse X of Y

διώκω accuse X of Y, charge X with Y

30.22–3 Genitive 369

Note also:

άλίσκομαι be convicted of Y

But if the verb begins with $\kappa\alpha\tau\alpha$ - or $\dot{\alpha}\pi\sigma$ - the genitive, which syntactically depends on the preverb, usually expresses the person accused, the acc. expresses the crime/punishment:

ἀπογιγνώσκω acquit Y of X ('adjudicate an accusation (X) away from Y') ἀποψηφίζομαι acquit Y of X, reject the punishment of X for Y ('vote an

accusation/punishment (X) away from Y')

καταγιγνώσκω condemn, convict Y of X ('adjudicate an accusation/pun-

ishment (X) against Y')

καταψηφίζομαι condemn, convict Y of X ('vote an accusation/punishment

(X) against Y')

κατηγορέω accuse Y of X, bring the charge of X against Y

- verbs meaning 'remove from', 'rob of', 'free from' etc.:

ἀπαλλάττω remove/release X from Y

ἀποστερέω rob X of Yἐλευθερόω free X from Y

παύω make X stop from Y

verbs meaning 'fill', 'empty', etc.:

κενόω empty X of Y πίμπλημι fill X with Y πληρόω fill X with Y

- (37) εἰ γὰρ ἀποψηφιεῖσθε ἀγοράτου τουτουί ... καὶ ἐκείνων τῶν ἀνδρῶν ... τῆ αὐτῆ ψήφω ταύτη θάνατον καταψηφίζεσθε. (Lys. 13.93)

 For if you acquit this man Agoratus, you also, by that same vote, are condemning those men to death.
- (38) οὐ δῆτ', ἐπεί σε τοῦδ' ἐλευθερῶ φόνου. (Eur. *Hipp.* 1449) Not at all, since I absolve you from this murder.
- (39) οὖτος δὲ ἡμᾶς ἀλλοτριότητος μὲν κενοῖ, οἰκειότητος δὲ πληροῖ. (Pl. Symp. 197d) He (Love) rids us of estrangement, and fills us with intimacy.
- 30.23 The following **adjectives** (often related in meaning to the verbs above) are complemented by a genitive:

ἄξιος worth(y of), deserving of

ἐλεύθερος free fromἔμπειρος experienced inἐνδεής lacking in

ἐπιστήμων knowledgeable about ἔρημος deserted by, lacking in ίερός consecrated to μεστός filled with

μέτοχος (taking/having) part of

πλήρης filled with

- (40) ΑΔ. αἰαί. :: ΧΟ. πέπονθας ἄξι' αἰαγμάτων. (Eur. Alc. 872-3)
 (Admetus:) Ai! :: (Chorus:) You have suffered things that are worthy of shouts of 'Ai!'
- (41) οἱ παρόντες σπουδῆς μέν, ὡς ὁρᾶς, μεστοί, γέλωτος δὲ ἴσως ἐνδεέστεροι. (Xen. Symp. 1.13)

The guests, as you can see, are full of seriousness, but perhaps rather lacking in laughter.

Genitive of Comparison

- 30.24 The **genitive of comparison** is used to complement comparatives:
 - (42) (φὴς) Σιμμίαν <u>Σωκράτους</u> ... μείζω εἶναι, <u>Φαίδωνος</u> δὲ <u>ἐλάττω</u>. (Pl. *Phd.* 102b) You say that Simmias is taller than Socrates, but shorter than Phaedo.

For more details on comparatives and their constructions, $\rightarrow 32$.

Attributive Genitives as Object, Predicative Complement, or Prepositional Complement

- 30.25 The partitive genitive (\rightarrow 30.29) is sometimes used in place of a direct object, and then implies that the action concerns only part of something larger, or a subsection from a larger group:
 - (43) Χειρίσοφος πέμπει τῶν ἐκ τῆς κώμης σκεψομένους πῶς ἔχοιεν οἱ τελευταῖοι. (Xen. <math>An. 4.5.22)
 - Chirisophus sent some of the people from the village, to see how those in the rear were faring. Note that the participle $\sigma \varkappa \omega \psi \circ \mu \omega v \circ \omega v$
 - (44) <u>τῆς τε γῆς ἔτεμον</u> καὶ αὐτὸ τὸ πόλισμα εἶλον. (Thuc. 2.56.6)
 They ravaged part of the land and captured the settlement itself.
- Many of the **attributive uses** of the genitive (\rightarrow 30.28–9) also occur **as predicative complement** with linking verbs:
 - (45) Ἱπποκράτης ὅδε <u>ἐστὶν</u> μὲν <u>τῶν ἐπιχωρίων</u>, Ἀπολλοδώρου ὑός, <u>οἰκίας μεγάλης τε</u> καὶ εὐδαίμονος. (Pl. *Prt.* 316b)

This man Hippocrates is one of the locals, a son of Apollodorus, and belongs to a great and prosperous house. *Partitive genitive and genitive of belonging*.

30.26–8 Genitive 371

(46) ἐντεῦθεν ἐξελαύνει ... ἐπὶ τὸν Εὐφράτην ποταμόν, <u>ὄντα</u> τὸ εὖρος <u>τεττάρων</u> σταδίων. (Xen. An. 1.4.11)

From there he marched to the river Euphrates, which is four stades in width. Genitive of quantity.

(47) τὸν καθ' ἡμέραν | βίον λογίζου σόν, τὰ δ' ἄλλα τῆς τύχης. (Eur. Alc. 788-9) Regard this day's life as your own, but the rest as belonging to fate. Genitive of possession. Note that the possessive pronoun σόν is functionally equivalent to the genitive τῆς τύχης.

The **genitive of quality**, used to express a certain characteristic or manner of being, occurs exclusively in this way:

- (48) ἐγὰ δὲ τούτου τοῦ τρόπου πώς εἰμ' ἀεί. (Ar. Plut. 246) I am always somehow of that disposition.
- (49) ὅσοι τῆς αὐτῆς γνώμης ἦσαν (Thuc. 1.113.2) all who were of the same opinion
- 30.27 Similarly, attributive uses of the genitive may occur instead of other cases after certain **prepositions** (→31.8 εἶς, ἐν); this occurs regularly with ἐν, εἶς or ἐκ + proper name (in the genitive) to express 'in/to/from someone's house' (frequently with Aἴδου *the house of Hades*, i.e. the Underworld):
 - (50) ἐκέλευον ... ἐμὲ ... μεθ' αὐτῶν ἀκολουθεῖν εἰς Δαμνίππου. (Lys. 12.12) They commanded me to follow them to Damnippus' house.

As Modifier in a Noun Phrase: the Attributive Genitive

- 30.28 The genitive is used particularly within noun phrases, to mark a noun phrase or pronoun as modifier of a head (\rightarrow 26.18). Traditionally, many different categories within this **attributive genitive** use are distinguished; the most important of these are given below:
 - The **genitive of possession** or **belonging** denotes ownership, belonging, possession, etc.:
 - ή τοῦ πατρὸς οἰκία his father's house/the house belonging to his father τὴν ψυχὴν τὴν Σόλωνος Solon's soul
 - The genitive of origin denotes the origin, offspring, source, etc. of the head:
 ἡ τῆς Νεαίρας θυγάτηρ Neaera's daughter
 τὰ τοῦ Σόλωνος ἐλεγεῖα Solon's elegies/the elegies authored by Solon
 - With nouns that express an action ('action nouns', →23.6), the genitive is used for the subject or object of that action genitive of the subject (or 'subjective' genitive) or of the object (or 'objective' genitive):

ἡ μάχη ἡ τῶν στρατιωτῶν
 ἡ τοῦ τείχους ποίησις
 ἡ τοῦ πολεμίων φόβος
 the building of the wall (of the object)
 the enemies' fear/the fear felt by the enemies
 (of the subject) or the fear for/inspired by
 the enemies (of the object) (ambiguous,
 the interpretation depends on the context)

- To measure time, space, degree, age, the genitive of **quantity** or **measure** can be used (usually with a numeral):

όκτώ σταδίων τεῖχος a wall eight stades in length ἀνὴρ εἴκοσιν ἐτῶν a man twenty years of age

Note 1: For expressions of age, a construction with γ εγονώς (pf. ppl. of γ ίγνομαι) and the accusative of duration (\rightarrow 30.15) is more common: e.g. εἴκοσιν ἔτη γεγονώς *twenty years old* (lit. 'having been in existence twenty years').

- Other relations between nouns: material/contents, price/value, elaboration, etc.:
- (51) δῶρα . . . χρυσοῦ τε καὶ ἀργύρου προσεφέρετο. (Thuc. 2.97.3)
 Gifts of gold and silver were added.

χιλίων δραχμῶν δίκην φεύγω Ι am defendant in a lawsuit involving

a thousand drachmas.

τὸ τῶν Ἑρμῶν the affair of the Hermae/concerning the Hermae

 γραφή κλοπῆς
 a charge of theft

 ή Σόλωνος εἰκών
 the statue of Solon

 τὸ τῆς ἀρετῆς ὄνομα
 the word 'virtue'

Note 2: Attributive genitives are frequently used as predicative complement (\rightarrow 26.8). Note 3: For the position of attributive genitives relative to the head noun and the article, \rightarrow 28.15.

The **partitive genitive** (also 'of the divided whole') denotes a whole to which the head belongs as a part:

οἱ χρηστοὶ τῶν ἀνθρώπων the good people (lit. 'the good among the people') πολλοὶ τῶν λόγων many of the words

(52) τούτῳ τῷ ἀνδρὶ ἐτύγχανε ἐοῦσα γυνἡ καλλίστη μακρῷ <u>τῶν ἐν Σπάρτη</u> γυναικῶν. (Hdt. 6.61.2)

This man happened to have by far the most beautiful wife of all women in Sparta.

Note 1: The partitive genitive is frequently used as predicative complement (\rightarrow 26.8). **Note 2:** For the position of partitive genitives relative to the head noun and the article, \rightarrow 28.16.

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The partitive genitive is often used with the interrogative pronouns $\pi o \tilde{v}$, $\pi o \tilde{v}$, $\pi o \tilde{v}$, and with neuter forms of the demonstrative pronoun $o \tilde{v} \tau o \tilde{v}$ and the demonstrative adjective $\tau o \sigma o \tilde{v} \tau o \tilde{v}$:

- (53) τίς τε ἐὼν καὶ κόθεν τῆς Φρυγίης ἥκων ἐπίστιός μοι ἐγένεο; (Hdt. 1.35.3)
 Who are you, where in Phrygia did you come from, that you are now my suppliant?
- (54) εἰς τοσοῦτον ὕβρεως καὶ ἀναιδείας ἦλθεν Στέφανος ούτοσὶ ... , ὥστε ... ([Dem.] 59.72)

This fellow Stephanus reached such a state of brutality and shamelessness, that he . . .

As an Optional Constituent (Adverbial Modifier)

- 30.30 In sentences which have a verb or other expression of emotion (e.g. admiration, sorrow, anger, envy, etc.), the **genitive of cause** or **source of emotion** may express the reason for that emotion:
 - (55) στένω σε ... τῆς άμαρτίας. (Eur. Hipp. 1409)I bewail you for your error.

This genitive is also used in **exclamations** (\rightarrow 38.50), without a verb of emotion:

- (56) ἀλλὰ <u>τῆς ἐμῆς κάκης,</u> | τὸ καὶ προσέσθαι μαλθακοὺς λόγους φρενί. (Eur. Med. 1051-2)
 - But oh, what cowardice on my part, even to let soft words into my heart.
- In sentences which have a verb meaning 'sell' or 'buy', the price of something bought or sold may be expressed in the genitive **genitive of price/value**:
 - (57) τῆ σάλπιγγι τῆδε ... | ἡν ἐπριάμην δραχμῶν ποθ' ἑξήκοντ' ἐγώ (Ar. Pax. 1240-1)
 this bugle, which I once bought for 60 drachmas

Note 1: This genitive is also used, but normally with the preposition περί added, in the fixed expressions περὶ πολλοῦ (πλείονος, πλείστου, etc.) ποιέομαι/τιμάομαι/ἡγέομαι value highly (more highly, most highly) and περὶ ὀλίγου (ἐλάττονος, ἐλαχίστου, etc.) ποιέομαι/τιμάομαι/ἡγέομαι value lightly (more lightly, most lightly):

- (58) ἀποκτιννύναι μὲν γὰρ ἀνθρώπους περὶ οὐδενὸς ἡγοῦντο, λαμβάνειν δὲ χρήματα περὶ πολλοῦ ἐποιοῦντο. (Lys. 12.7)
 - For they thought nothing of killing men, but placed a premium on getting money.
- (59) ποιλοῦ γὰρ ποιοῦμαι ἀκηκοέναι ἃ ἀκήκοα Πρωταγόρου. (Pl. Prt. 328d) For I consider it a treat to have heard what I have heard from Protagoras.
- 30.32 The **genitive of time** expresses the time within which something takes place; with some specific nouns, notably νύξ *night*, θέρος *summer* and χειμών *winter*, it can also express the time when:

- (60) βασιλεύς οὐ μαχεῖται δέκα ἡμερῶν. (Xen. An. 1.7.18)
 The king will not fight within the next ten days.
- (61) ἀποδράντες <u>νυκτὸς</u> ἄχοντο εἰς Δεκέλειαν. (Xen. Hell. 1.2.14)
 Running off in the night, they headed for Decelea.
- (62) οί δ' ἐν τῆ Σικελίᾳ Ἀθηναῖοι <u>τοῦ αὐτοῦ χειμῶνος</u> ἔς τε τὴν Ἱμεραίαν ἀπόβασιν ἐποιήσαντο. (Thuc. 3.115.1)

The same winter, the Athenians in Sicily made landing at Himera.

With the article, this genitive can be used **distributively** to mean 'once per ...', 'every ...':

- (63) δραχμὴν ἐλάμβανε τῆς ἡμέρας. (Thuc. 3.17.4)
 He earned a drachma per day.
- The **genitive of space** is sometimes used to express the space within which an action takes place. This occurs primarily in poetry:
 - (64) <u>λαιᾶς δὲ χειρὸς</u> . . . | οἰκοῦσι Χάλυβες. (Aesch. *PV* 714–15)

 And on the left hand dwell the Chalubes.
- The **genitive of separation** is used with verbs of motion to express the place or entity from which the motion takes place. This use is rare in prose:
 - (65) ἀλλ' ὡς τάχιστα, παῖδες, ὑμεῖς μὲν <u>βάθρων</u> | ἵστασθε. (Soph. *OT* 142-3) But, children, get up from the steps as quickly as possible.
- 30.35 The genitive is also used in the **genitive absolute** construction (\rightarrow 52.32) and the **genitive and participle** construction (\rightarrow 52.14).

Dative

The main function of the dative is to mark non-obligatory (adverbial) modifiers. It is also used to mark some required complements with verbs/adjectives.

As Obligatory Constituent (to Complement Verbs/Adjectives)

As Indirect Object

- The dative is used to express the **indirect object** (Y) with the following types of verbs (X indicates a direct object in the accusative, where present):
 - verbs meaning 'give', 'entrust', etc.:

παρέχω entrust X to Y/furnish Y with X

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verbs meaning 'say', 'tell', 'report', etc. (usually with direct or indirect statement,
 →41.3):

λέγω tell/say to Y

ἀγγέλλω convey/report to Y

most verbs meaning 'command', 'order', 'advise' etc. (usually together with an infinitive, →51.8):

ἐπιτάττω order/command Y (to do something)
 λέγω tell/command Y (to do something)
 παραγγέλλω convey an order to Y (to do something)
 παραινέω recommend to Y (to do something)

- most verbs meaning 'seem', 'appear', etc.:

δοκέω seem (also + inf. (without dat.) = 'think'; for the possible constructions, $\rightarrow 51.30$)

φαίνομαι appear, seem (for the possible constructions, \rightarrow 52.24)

(66) ἔπρασσε δὲ ταῦτα μετὰ Γογγύλου τοῦ Ἐρετριῶς, ፩περ ἐπέτρεψε τό τε Βυζάντιον καὶ τοὺς αἰχμαλώτους. (Thuc. 1.128.6)

He did this together with Gongylus of Eretria, to whom he had entrusted Byzantium and the prisoners.

- (67) εἰπέ μοι, τουτὶ τί ἦν; (Ar. Ach. 157)
 Tell me, what was that?
- (68) εἶπεν αὐτοῖς ἀπιέναι ἐκ τοῦ στρατεύματος ὡς τάχιστα. (Xen. Cyr. 7.2.5) He told them to leave the army as soon as possible.
- (69) καλῶς γέ μοι, ὧ Εὐθύφρων, φαίνη λέγειν. (Pl. Euthphr. 12e)
 You seem to me to be speaking well, Euthyphro.

Note 1: For verbs of speech used as verbs of commanding, \rightarrow 51.32. Note that κ ελεύω takes an accusative-and-infinitive (\rightarrow 51.11–12), not a dative.

30.38 The dative as indirect object complements the following **impersonal verbs** $(\rightarrow 36.4-5)$, usually together with an infinitive $(\rightarrow 51.8)$ (Y marks the dative):

δοκεῖ it seems (right) to Y (to do something), Y decides (to do something)

συμφέρει it profits Y (to do something)

λυσιτελεῖ it profits Y (to do something), it is best for Y (to do something) μ έλει it is of concern to Y (to do something), Y cares for (frequently + gen., \rightarrow 36.15)

11 (37 ()

ἔξεστι it is possible for Y (to do something) πρέπει it is fitting for Y (to do something)

(70) ἔδοξεν τῷ δήμω ... ἐπαινέσαι ... (inscriptions)
The people have resolved to praise ...

(71) κάλει δὴ καὶ τὸν Στράτωνα αὐτὸν τὸν τὰ τοιαῦτα πεπονθότα· ἑστάναι γὰρ ἐξέσται δήπουθεν αὐτῷ. (Dem. 21.95)

Also call Straton himself, the man who has endured such things. For no doubt he will be allowed to stand up in court.

With Other Verbs and Adjectives

30.39 The dative is used as first complement with the following **verbs** (among others):

ἀπειλέω threaten

ἀρέσκω please, satisfy (sometimes + acc.)

βοηθέω help, come to the aid of

διαλέγομαι converse with

εἴκω yield, give way to (sometimes combined with gen. of separation,

 $\rightarrow 30.34$

ἐπιτίθεμαι apply oneself to, attack

ἕπομαι follow (also often with prepositions, especially σύν + dat. and μετά

+ *gen.*)

ἡγέομαι guide (also + gen. = 'lead', 'rule'; + 2x acc. = 'consider'; + inf. =

'believe')

μάχομαι fight against ὀργίζομαι get angry at

πείθομαι listen to, believe, obey (rarely + gen.)

πελάζω approach (sometimes + gen.)

πιστεύω trust, believe πολεμέω make war against

συγγιγνώσκω forgive, pardon (also + acc. = 'acknowledge', 'confess')

συμβουλεύω advise, counsel

φθονέω be envious of, bear ill will to (sometimes combined with gen. of

cause, \rightarrow 30.30)

χαλεπαίνω be angry at (sometimes with gen. of cause, →30.30)

χρήομαι use, treat with, be intimate with

(72) τοῖς δὲ ἀποψηφισαμένοις ἡδέως ἂν διαλεχθείην ὑπὲρ τοῦ γεγονότος τουτουὶ πράγματος. (Pl. Ap. 39e)

I would be happy to discuss this thing that has happened with those who voted for my acquittal.

(73) νομίζοντες ἀδυνάτους ἔσεσθαι Ἀθηναίους <u>βοηθεῖν</u> <u>τοῖς Μεγαρεῦσιν</u> (Thuc. 1.105.3)

thinking that the Athenians would be unable to come to the Megarians' aid

- (74) Βοιωτοὶ ἀθηναίοισι ἐμαχέσαντο χρόνον ἐπὶ συχνόν. (Hdt. 9.67) The Boeotians fought against the Athenians for a long time.
- (75) οὐδενὶ χρῆ τῶν οἰκείων οὐδὲ πιστεύεις τῶν σαυτοῦ οὐδενί. ([Dem.] 49.41)
 You are on good terms with none of your relatives, and trust none of your friends.

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Note 1: There are also verbs with similar meanings which take a direct object in the accusative: e.g. ἀφελέω benefit, βλάπτω harm, damage, μισέω hate, ζηλόω envy.

30.40 The following **adjectives** are complemented by a dative:

ἐναντίος opposite, contrary to
 εὔνους well-disposed towards
 ἐχθρός hostile to, hated by
 ἴσος equal to, the same as

κοινός shared with

ὄμοιος similar to, equal to φίλος friendly with, loved by

also: ὁ αὐτός the same as

(76) κοινός ... δὴ ἔστω ὑμῖν ὁ λόγος. (Pl. Prt. 358a)
Let our conversation be shared with you.

(77) καὶ ἐάν τινα αἰσθανώμεθα <u>ἐναντίον</u> <u>τῆ ὀλιγαρχία</u>, ὅσον δυνάμεθα ἐκποδών ποιούμεθα. (Xen. Hell. 2.3.26)

And if we discover someone opposed to the oligarchy, we get rid of him, so far as we have the power.

Note 1: For the constructions of $\updelta \mu$ 00005, $\updelta \sigma$ 00005 and $\updelta \sigma$ 00005, \rightarrow 32.14–15.

Dative of the Possessor

- 30.41 The **dative of the possessor** is used to complement 'existential' εἰμί and γίγνομαι (there is, there (be)comes, \rightarrow 26.10), denoting possession, belonging, or interest:
 - (78) ... εἰρομένου Ξέρξεω εἰ ἔστι ἄλλη ἔξοδος ἐς θάλασσαν τ Πηνει $\tilde{\omega}$... (Hdt. 7.130.1)
 - ... when Xerxes asked if the (river) Peneus had any other outlet into the sea ...
 - (79) τοῖς ... πλουσίοις πολλὰ παραμύθιά φασιν εἶναι. (Pl. Resp. 329e)
 It is said that rich people have much comfort (lit. 'that there are many comforts for rich people').

As an Optional Constituent (Adverbial Modifier)

Referring to Things or Abstract Entities

30.42 The dative is very frequently used to express optional adverbial modifiers (→26.14). It marks **nouns referring to things or abstract entities** in various kinds of adverbial modifiers.

30.43 The **dative of instrument** expresses the instrument used in an action.

λίθοις ἔβαλλον they were pelting with rocks οὐδὲν ἤνυε τούτοις he accomplished nothing by this

- (80) μητέρα κατειργάσαντο κοινωνῷ ξίφει. (Eur. IT 1173) They killed their mother with one common sword.
- The **dative of means, manner** or **circumstance** expresses the method by which or the circumstances under which an action takes place:
 - (81) κραυγῆ πολλῆ ἐπίασιν. (Xen. An. 1.7.4)
 They will attack shouting loudly / with loud shouting.
 - (82) ταῦτα ἔπρηξα τῆ σῆ μὲν εὐδαιμονίη, τῆ ἐμεωυτοῦ δὲ κακοδαιμονίη. (Hdt. 1.87.3)

 I have done these things for your good fortune, but to my own detriment.

Note 1: In some cases it is difficult to distinguish between instrument and means :

(83) βούλονται δὲ πολέμω μᾶλλον ἢ λόγοις τὰ ἐγκλήματα διαλύεσθαι. (Thuc. 1.140.2) They prefer to resolve complaints with war rather than with words.

But this is a 'problem' of classification rather than of case meaning (for the value of labels, $\rightarrow 30.1 \text{ n.1}$).

Note 2: The dative of manner underlies the use of the ending $-\eta$ in various pronominal forms meaning 'in a certain manner', 'via a certain route': e.g. $\tau\alpha\dot{\nu}\tau\eta$ that way, $\pi\tilde{\eta}$ how?, $\pi\eta$ somehow, etc. For these forms, also $\rightarrow 8.2$.

- 30.45 The **dative of cause** expresses reason or cause:
 - (84) ἔφερον ... οἱ ὁπλῖται ... αὐτοὶ τὰ σφέτερα αὐτῶν σιτία, οἱ μὲν ἀπορία ἀκολούθων, οἱ δὲ ἀπιστία. (Thuc. 7.75.5)
 The hoplites carried their own food themselves, some for lack of servants, others from mistrust of them.
 - (85) <u>ὕβρει</u> καὶ οὐκ <u>οἴνω</u> τοῦτο ποιοῦντος (Dem. 21.74) doing this out of insolence, and not because he was drunk
- The **dative of time** expresses the time when the action takes place (it refers to a specific moment or period). It is often accompanied by a numeral:

τρίτω ἔτει in the third year / after two years (→9.10) τῆ ὑστεραία (on) the following day

(86) ... δεδόχθαι τῆ βουλῆ ... στεφανῶσαι Χαρίδημον ... καὶ ἀναγορεῦσαι Παναθηναίοις τοῖς μεγάλοις ἐν τῷ γυμνικῷ ἀγῶνι καὶ Διονυσίοις τραγῳδοῖς καινοῖς. (Dem. 18.116)

(A decree) that it be resolved by the Council to crown Charidemus and to proclaim this at the Great Panathenaea at the gymnastic contest, and at the Dionysia at the performance of new tragedies.

30.47–51 Dative 379

30.47 In poetry, the bare **dative of place** may be used to express the place where an action takes place. In prose, this dative occurs only with a limited number of place names (in other cases a preposition is normally required, \rightarrow 31.4):

- (87) ἐπεὶ δὲ χῆ | ἔκειτο τλήμων, δεινά γ' ἦν τὰνθένδ' ὁρᾶν. (Soph. OT 1266-7)
 And when the hapless woman lay on the ground, what happened next was horrible to see.
- (88) (ἐπαιδεύθησαν ὑπὸ) τῶν τε Μαραθῶνι μαχεσαμένων καὶ τῶν ἐν Σαλαμῖνι ναυμαχησάντων. (Pl. Menex. 241b)

 (They have been educated by) those who fought at Marathon and those who were in the naval battle at Salamis.

Referring to Persons

- 30.48 The dative may also mark **nouns referring to persons**, to indicate individuals or groups who are in some way closely involved in the action expressed by the verb (these uses may be gathered under the general heading **dative of interest**).
- 30.49 The **dative of advantage** and **dative of disadvantage** are used to indicate the beneficiary (or opposite) of an action; they express in or against whose interest an action is performed:
 - (89) ἐπειδἡ αὐτοῖς οἱ βάρβαροι ἐκ τῆς χώρας ἀπῆλθον, ... (Thuc. 1.89.3)
 When the barbarians had departed their country for them (for their benefit), ...
 - (90) ἥδε ἡ ἡμέρα τοῖς Ἑλλησι μεγάλων κακῶν ἄρξει. (Thuc. 2.12.3) This day will spell for the Greeks the beginning of great evils.
- 30.50 With verbs in the passive, the **dative of agent** can be used to express the agent of the action. This occurs in prose almost exclusively with passive verbs in the (plu)perfect (91) and with verbal adjectives in -τέος (92), but in poetry sometimes also with other passive verb forms (93):
 - (91) ἐπειδἡ <u>αὐτοῖς παρεσκεύαστο</u> ... (Thuc. 1.46.1)

 When preparations had been made by them ...
 - (92) οὔ σφι περιοπτέη ἐστὶ ἡ Ἑλλὰς ἀπολλυμένη. (Hdt. 7.168.1)

 It is not to be endured by them that Greece is being destroyed.
 - (93) οἶδά σοι στυγουμένη. (Eur. Tro. 898) I know that I am hated by you.
- 30.51 The **dative of accompaniment**, without preposition, is used almost exclusively with military terminology to denote accompaniment (in other cases, a preposition is normally used):
 - (94) πέντε δὲ ἔλαβον, καὶ μίαν τούτων αὐτοῖς ἀνδράσιν. (Thuc. 4.14.1)
 They captured five (ships), one of them with crew and all. For this use of αὐτός, →29.12.

- (95) οί ... Ἀθηναῖοι ἀπίκοντο <u>εἴκοσι νηυσί</u>. (Hdt. 5.99.1) The Athenians arrived with twenty ships.
- The dative also marks the person **from whose perspective or vantage point** the action is perceived:
 - (96) ὁ μὲν χρύσεος ἔκειτο ἐπὶ δεξιὰ <u>ἐσιόντι</u> ἐς τὸν νηόν. (Hdt. 1.51.1)

 The golden (bowl) stood on the right for someone entering the temple.
 - (97) οἴκτιρον . . . με | πολλοῖσιν οἰκτρόν. (Soph. *Trach*. 1070-1)
 Take pity on me, who am pitiable in the eyes of many.
- 30.53 Difficult to translate is the use of the so-called **ethical dative** ('of feeling'): personal pronouns of the first or second person (μοι, ἡμῖν, σοι, ὑμῖν) can loosely express the involvement of the speaker or addressee in the action:
 - (98) ὧ μῆτερ, ὡς καλός μοι ὁ πάππος. (Xen. *Cyr.* 1.3.2) Mother, how handsome is my grandfather!
 - (99) τοιοῦτο ... <u>ὑμῖν</u> ἐστι ἡ τυραννίς. (Hdt. 5.92η.4) There's tyranny for you.
 - (100) σύντεμνέ μοι τὰς ἀποκρίσεις καὶ βραχυτέρας ποίει. (Pl. Prt. 334d)
 Please cut your answers short, and make them more succinct. With an imperative, μοι may often appropriately be translated 'please'.

With Expressions of Comparison

30.54 With comparatives, superlatives and other expressions of comparison, the **dative of measure of difference** expresses the degree to which one entity differs from another:

κεφαλῆ ἐλάττων a head shorter

πολλῷ τε κάλλιστα καὶ by far the most beautiful and by far the

πολλῷ μέγιστα greatest things οὐ πολλαῖς ἡμέραις ὕστερον not many days later

For the possible constructions of comparatives and superlatives with this dative, \rightarrow 32.11.

Vocative

- 30.55 The vocative case is used:
 - in **calls** or **summonses**, always at the beginning of a sentence, to attract the attention of a person nearby, or of a god;
 - in addresses, to acknowledge or maintain contact with some person nearby.

Vocatives are often, but not always, preceded by the word $\tilde{\omega}$:

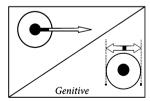
- (101) <u>Εὐριπίδη, Εὐριπίδιον,</u> | ὑπάκουσον, εἴπερ πώποτ' ἀνθρώπων τινί. (Ar. Ach. 404–5)
 - Euripides, my little Euripides, listen, if you've ever listened to anyone. *Call/summons*.
- (102) ὁ δὲ Κῦρος . . . ἐπηύξατο· Ἀλλ', $\underline{\tilde{\omega}}$ Ζεῦ μέγιστε, αἰτοῦμαί σε, δὸς . . . (Xen. Cyr. 5.1.29)
 - Cyrus uttered this prayer: 'Zeus almighty, I beseech thee, grant that . . .' Call/summons.
- (103) καλῶς ἔλεξας, <u>ὧ γύναι</u>. (Eur. Hel. 158)
 Well said, my lady! Address.

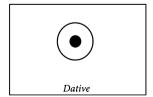
Note 1: In a few cases, the nominative is used instead of the vocative in calls/summonses, e.g. δ $\pi\alpha\tilde{\imath}_{5}$ (rather than $\tilde{\omega}$ $\pi\alpha\tilde{\imath}_{5}$) used by masters to call their slaves (*boy!*), and $\tilde{\omega}_{5}$ *hey there!* ($\rightarrow 29.30$).

Observe that in many further cases (and always in the plural), the vocative is morphologically identical to the nominative, as $E\mathring{\nu}_{\rho}$ in (101).

Cases and the Expression of Time and Space

- 30.56 For the different uses of the cases in expressions of time and space, →30.15–16, 30.17, 30.28, 30.32–3, 30.46. For the uses of these cases with prepositions to indicate time and space, →31.4, 31.8–9. Whether they are used with a preposition or not, the following generalizations about the various cases can be made:
 - In spatial expressions (with or without a preposition), the genitive tends to express place from which or space within which; the dative tends to express the place where, and the accusative the place to which or the distance traversed:





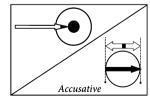
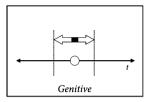
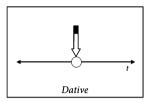


Figure 30.1: The use of cases in spatial expressions

 In temporal expressions (with or without a preposition), the genitive tends to express time within which, the dative time when, and the accusative time during which:





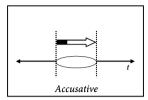


Figure 30.2: The use of cases in temporal expressions

- 30.57 Apart from the genitive, dative and accusative, Greek also uses various **fossilized forms** (originally case forms) in spatial (and sometimes temporal) expressions: e.g. οἴκοι *at home*, Ἀθήνησι *in Athens*, Ἀθήνηθεν *from Athens*, Ἀθήναζε *to Athens*. For details on such forms, →6.7–11.
- 30.58 For **measurements**, Greek normally uses a combination of genitive of measurement (\rightarrow 30.28) and accusative of respect (\rightarrow 30.14), usually with article:
 - (104) κρηπὶς . . . τὸ εὖρος <u>πεντήκοντα ποδῶν</u> καὶ <u>τὸ ὕψος πεντήκοντα</u> (Xen. An. 3.4.11)
 - a foundation fifty feet wide and fifty feet high

Prepositions

Introduction

- 31.1 Greek **prepositions** can be accompanied by (pro)nominal constituents in the genitive, dative or accusative. Together with this constituent they form a **prepositional phrase** (e.g. εἰς τὴν πόλιν into the city). These can be used to indicate spatial, temporal or other, more abstract relationships:
 - (1) τὴν γὰρ ἄνθρωπον ἀποπέμψω ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας. ([Dem.] 59.82) For I will send the woman away, out of my house. *Spatial*.
 - (2) ὑμᾶς δέ, ὦ παῖδες, οὕτως ἐξ ἀρχῆς ἐπαίδευον. (Xen. Cyr. 8.7.10)
 And in this way I educated you, my children, from the beginning.
 Temporal.
 - (3) ταῦτα γάρ οἱ ἐνετέταλτο ἐκ Δαρείου, Θρηίκην καταστρέφεσθαι. (Hdt. 5.2.2) For this had been ordered to him by Darius, to conquer Thrace. Abstract, the prepositional phrase indicates the source/origin of the order expressed by ἐνετέταλτο ('by' in the Engl. translation somewhat obscures this relationship).
- 31.2 Distinction is made between
 - 'proper' prepositions: prepositions that also appear in compound verbs, such as ἐκ (cf. e.g. ἐκβαίνω, ἐξέρχομαι) and ἀπό (cf. e.g. ἀποβαίνω, ἀπαγγέλλω, ἀφίστημι): →31.8;
 - 'improper' prepositions: prepositions that are not used in compound verbs, such as χωρίς + gen., $\mathring{\alpha}\mu\alpha$ + dat., $\mathring{\omega}_S$ + acc.: these also appear regularly as adverbs without accompanying constituent: \rightarrow 31.9.
- 31.3 Some prepositions are always accompanied by constituents in a single fixed case (e.g. ἐκ + gen., ἐν + dat., εἰς + acc.), whereas others allow a choice between two or three cases (e.g. διά + gen./acc., παρά + gen./dat./acc.) and differ in meaning accordingly (→31.8). Improper prepositions are always accompanied by one fixed case.

- 31.4 With the spatial senses of prepositions:
 - the **genitive** is frequently used for motion away from something (e.g. ἐκ + gen. away from, παρά + gen. from the side of);
 - the **dative** is frequently used for stationary position (e.g. $\dot{\epsilon}\nu$ + dat. *in*, *at*, παρά + dat. *at the side of*);
 - the **accusative** is normally used for motion towards something (e.g. εis + acc. to (wards), παρά + acc. to the side of), or motion through a larger area or stretch of space (e.g. παρά + acc. alongside).

For these values, cf. also the 'genitive of separation' (\rightarrow 30.34), the 'dative of place' (\rightarrow 30.47), and the 'accusative of direction' and the 'accusative of space' (\rightarrow 30.16-17); also \rightarrow 30.56.

In the other senses of prepositions the contribution of an individual case to the meaning of a preposition-case combination is frequently more difficult to determine. In some cases the distinction between the use of one case and another with the same preposition is very slight.

- 31.5 Prepositional phrases can be substantivized by the addition of an article, e.g. τὰ περὶ Κύρου the events concerning Cyrus; →28.25, cf. 26.19–20.
- 31.6 Many prepositions can also occur without an accompanying constituent, as adverbs; this is, however, relatively rare in prose, apart from πρός furthermore, besides, and μετά thereafter.
- 31.7 For the accentuation of the proper prepositions, →24.37; note especially that prepositions with two syllables have their accent on the ultima, unless they follow their accompanying constituent ('anastrophe', →60.14), are used adverbially, or are used instead of a compound with ἐστί(ν)/εἰσί(ν) (e.g. πάρα = πάρεστι/πάρεισι, ἔνι = ἔνεστι/ἔνεισι).

Common Uses of the Prepositions

Proper Prepositions

31.8 The table below gives the most frequent uses of prepositions in classical Greek. Only 'proper' prepositions are included in the table, listed alphabetically. Some deviating uses in Ionic (Herodotus) and poetry have been left out.

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
		ἀμφί (ἀμφ')	
+ genitive + dative (poetry and			concerning, about ἡ δίκη ἀμφὶ τοῦ πατρός the trial concerning the father (cause) about, for the sake of φοβεῖται ἀμφὶ τῆ γυναικί
Ion.)			he is afraid for the sake of his wife
+ accusative	around	around, about	concerning, about
	άμφὶ πῦρ καθήμενοι	άμφὶ μέσας νύκτας	εἶναι/ἔχειν ἀμφί τι
	sitting around the fire	around midnight	be occupied /concerned with something
	(with people)		(with numerals) about
	οί ἀμφὶ Κῦρον		άμφὶ τοὺς δισχιλίους
	Cyrus and his followers		about two thousand
		ἀνά (ἀν')	
+ dative (poetry)	(position) on, upon ἀνὰ ναυσίν on their ships		
+ accusative	(vertical) up along	(distributively)	(to express proportion)
	ἀνὰ τὸν ποταμόν	ἀν' ἕκαστον ἔτος	ἀνὰ λόγον
	up along the river,	year by year, yearly	proportionately
	upstream		ἀνὰ κράτος
	ἀνὰ τὸ ὄρος	ἀνὰ χρόνον	with all his might (= 'proportionate to
	up the mountain	over time	his strength')
	(horizontal) spread out ov	er,	
	ἀνὰ τὴν χώραν		
	spread across the country	y	
		ἀντί (ἀντ', ἀνθ')	
+ genitive			in exchange for, instead of ἀντὶ χρημάτων (in exchange) for money πολέμιος ἀντὶ φίλου enemy instead of friend
			on account of, because of ἀντὶ τοῦ; because of what?, why?

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
		ἀπό (ἀπ', ἀφ')	
+ genitive	(away/originating) from ἀπὸ τῶν νεῶν from the ships	since, from ἀπ' ἀρχῆς since the beginning	(separation) οὐκ ἀπὸ τρόπου true to character
	ἀπὸ τῆς θαλάττης at a distance from the sea	ἀφ' οὖ (conjunction) since	
	ἀφ' ἵππου μάχεσθαι fight on horseback		ἀπὸ τῶν παρόντων based on the available means ἐπράχθη ἀπ' αὐτῶν οὐδέν nothing was done on their part
		διά (δι')	
+ genitive + accusative	through διὰ τοῦ θώρακος (clean) through the breastplate	through(out), long διὰ νυκτός throughout the night, all night long διὰ βίου his whole life long διὰ χρόνου after (a period of) time	through, via, by means of δι' ἑρμηνέως λέγειν speak via an interpreter δι' ἑαυτοῦ on his own strength διὰ τάχους with speed δι' ὀργῆς εἶναι be furious (causal) thanks to, on account of, because of δι' ἀρετὴν ἐνίκησαν they won because of their valour διὰ ταῦτα because of this
+ accusative	into, to, towards, against εἰς ὕδωρ βάλλειν throw in(to) the water εἰς τὴν πόλιν into the city εἰς οἰκίαν εἰσιέναι to go into a house εἰς Αἴγυπτον to/against Egypt	tis (Ion. ές) up to, until εἰς τὴν τελευτήν up to the end ἐς ὅ (Ionic conjuction) until towards εἰς ἐσπέραν towards the evening, at dusk	(goal) εἰς Ἀθηναίους ἀγορεύειν speak to Athenians) ἀμαρτάνειν εἰς τοὺς θεούς err against the gods (specification) as far as is concerned, in πρῶτος εἰς πάντα first in everything

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
		(with a limited period) for	ἐς τὰ ἄλλα
	εὶς "Αιδου	εἰς ἐνιαυτόν	in other respects
	to the house of Hades	for a year	
	(i.e. to the Underworld; for the gen.,		(with numerals) up to, as many as,
	→30.27)		close on
			εὶς τριάκοντα
			as many as thirty
		Ebefore a vowel)	(anisin) from (ant) of from within
genitive	(away) from, out (of)		(origin) from, (out) of, from within
	έκ τῆς μάχης ἔφυγεν	έξ ἀρχῆς	έκ πατρὸς ἀγαθοῦ
	he fled from the battle	from/since the	from a good father
		beginning	ἐκ ξύλου
	ἐκ δεξιᾶς / ἐξ ἀριστερᾶς	ἐκ τούτου	(made) from wood
	on the right / on the left	after that, since that	ἐκ τῶν δυνάτων
		time	judging from the possibilities
		ἐξ οὖ (conjunction)	
		since	(cause, instrument) on the basis of,
			through, by means of, via
			ἐκ θεοπροπίου
			on the basis of an oracle
			προστέτακται ἐκ μαντείων
			it is commanded by way of oracles
			(with passives) by
			τὰ λεχθέντα ἐξ ἀλεξάνδρου
			the things said by Alexander
			έξ ἴσου
			equally
	ἐν (Io	n./poetry also ėvi)	
- dative	(usually stationary) in, on,	in, during, on, at	(circumstances, manner)
	among	έν μι νυκτί	ἐν τάχει
	έν τῆ οἰκία	in one night	quickly, in a hurry
	in the house	ἐν τούτῳ τῷ καιρῷ	ἐν μέρει
	έν πᾶσιν ἀνθρώποις	at that crucial moment	taking turns
	in the presence of all	έν τούτω	ἐν ἀπορίᾳ εἶναι
	έν νήσω	meanwhile	be at a loss
	on an island	ẻν ὧ (conjunction)	ἐν σοί ἐστιν
	έν τοῖς ὅπλοις	while	it depends on you
	armed	·/ 	• ,
	ἐν " Α ιδου		οί ἐν τέλει
	in the house of Hades (i.e. in the		those in power
	Underworld; for the gen., \rightarrow 30.27)		r

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
	(with motion, emphasizing the end		
	point)		
	ἐν τῆ θαλάττη πίπτειν		
	fall into the sea		
	Ė	πί (ἐπ', ἐφ')	
+ genitive	(stationary) on (top of)	during, in the time of	(in various expressions)
	ἔχειν τι ἐπὶ τῶν ὤμων	ἐπ' εἰρήνης	ἐπ' ἐμαυτοῦ
	have something on one's	in peacetime	on my own, by myself, independentl
	shoulders	τὰ ἐπ' ἐμοῦ	οί ἐπὶ τῶν πραγμάτων
		the events of my	those in power
	(motion) heading for, in the direction	lifetime	ἐπὶ τεττάρων ταχθῆναι
	of		be drawn up four deep
	ἐπ' Αἰγύπτου ἀποπλεῖν		
	sail off heading for Egypt		(judicial)
			ἐπὶ πάντων
			before all, in the presence
			of all
+ dative	(near)by, on	(directly) following on	(addition)
	ἐπὶ ποταμῷ οἰκεῖν	ἐπὶ τούτω	ἐπὶ τούτοις
	live on a river	after that, subsequently	moreover, in addition
	τὸ ἐπὶ θαλάσση τεῖχος		,
	the wall by the sea		(cause)
	·		θαυμάζειν τινὰ ἐπί σοφία
			to admire someone for their wisdom
			γελᾶν ἐπί τινι
			to laugh at/over someone
			(motive, reason, goal)
			ἐπ' ἐλευθερώσει τῶν Ἑλλήνωι
			in order to free the Greeks
			(condition)
			ἐπὶ τούτῳ
			on that condition
			ἐφ' ὧ (conjunction)
			on the condition that
			(→49.26)
			(sphere of influence)
			έφ' ὑμῖν ἐστιν
			of own corn

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
+ accusative	(end point) up to, on(to)	during, for	(purpose) for
	ἐπὶ τοὺς ἵππους	ἐπὶ πολύν χρόνον	ἐπὶ τί;
	ἀναβῆναι	for a long time	with what purpose?, why?
	climb on the horses, mount		
	the horses		(in various expressions)
	(goal) towards, against		τὸ ἐπ᾽ ἐμέ
	ἐπ' Ἀθήνας		as far as I am concerned
	• -		ώς ἐπὶ τὸ πολύ
	towards Athens		in general, normally
	έφ' ὕδωρ πέμπειν		
	send to get water		
	ἐπὶ τοὺς πολεμίους ἰέναι -		
	move against the enemies		
	(with surfaces) extended over		
	ἐπὶ πᾶσαν Εὐρώπην		
	(extended) all over Europe		
	κα	τά (κατ', καθ')	
+ genitive	down from, down toward		against, to the detriment of
	κατὰ τοῦ ὄρους		λέγειν κατά τινος
	down from the mountain		speak against someone
	under		(in a weakened sense) with respect to
	κατὰ γῆς κρύπτειν		concerning
	hide under the ground		καθ' άπάντων
	_		with respect to everyone
	κατὰ νώτου εἶναι τοῦ πολεμίου		
	be in the enemy's rear		
+ accusative	(motion) following, with	(distributively) per, every	(manner) conforming to,
	κατ' οὖρον	καθ' ἡμέραν	according to
	following the wind	per day, every day	κατὰ τοὺς νόμους
	(downwards motion)	at the time of	according to the laws
	κατὰ τὸν ποταμόν	κατ' ἀρχάς	κατὰ δόξαν
	downstream	in the beginning	as expected
		κατ' ἐκεῖνον τὸν χρόνον	κατὰ δύναμιν
	(with surfaces) spread out	(roughly) at/during that time	according to one's means, as much as possible
	over, everywhere on, across		κατὰ κράτος
	κατὰ τὴν ἀγοράν		by force
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		καθ' ἑαυτόν
	in various places across the		
	market		on his own, by himself

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
	(with fixed points) off, near,		(distributively)
	opposite		κατ' ἔθνη
	κατά τοὺς "Ελληνας τάττειν		nation by nation, per nation
	position opposite the Greeks		καθ' ἕκαστον
			point by point, in detail
			κατὰ μικρόν
			little by little
			(relation) with respect to, as to
			τὸ κατ' ἐμέ
			as to me, as far as it concerns me
	μετ	ιά (μετ', μεθ')	
+ genitive	together with,		(accompanying
	accompanied by		circumstances)
	μετὰ τῶν συμμάχων		μετὰ σπουδῆς
	together with the allies		with haste, hastily
			μετὰ τοῦ νόμου
			with the law on my side
+ dative	(usually with people) among		
(poetry)	μετὰ μαινάσι		
	among the maenads		
+ accusative		after	(of rank) after
		μετὰ τὰ Μηδικά	ἄριστος μετά τινα
		after the Persian wars	the best after someone
		μετὰ ταῦτα	
		afterwards, after that	
		μεθ' ἡμέραν	
		by day, during the	
		day (orig. 'after day (break)')	
•••••	п	τ αρά (παρ')	
+ genitive	(origin, with motion, usually		(origin, usually with people)
	with people) from (the side/ quarter of)		from (the side/quarter of) λαμβάνειν τι παρά τινος
	ἄγγελος παρὰ βασιλέως ἥκει		get something from someone
	a messenger has come from		μανθάνειν τι παρά τινος
	the Persian King		hear/learn something from someone

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
			(with passives) by
			τὰ λεγόμενα παρά τινος
			the things said by someone
+ dative	(usually with people) with, at,		in the eyes of
	in the presence of		παρ' ἐμοί
	οί παρὰ σοί		in my opinion
	those with you		Advista of the discounts of
	παρὰ δικασταῖς		at the side of, in the service of
	before the jury		στρατηγεῖν παρὰ Κύρῳ
			be a general in the service of Cyrus
+ accusative	(end point, usually with peo-	during, throughout	(in comparisons) next to,
	ple) to, at (the side of)	παρὰ πάντα τὸν	compared to
	ἀφικνεῖσθαι παρά τινα	χρόνον	γελοῖος παρ' αὐτὸν
	arrive at someone's side πέμπειν παρά τινα send to someone	all the time, throughout time	laughable as compared to him
			(exclusion) next to, apart from
			οὐδὲν ἄλλο παρὰ ταῦτα
			nothing other than that
	(with verbs meaning 'put',		contrary to, against, in violation of
	'position') next to, with		παρὰ τοὺς νόμους
	καθέζεσθαι παρά τινα		in violation of the laws
	sit down next to someone		
	(of parallel extent) along, alongside, beside		
	παρὰ τὴν ἤπειρον πλεῖν		
	sail alongside the mainland		
	περ	(never elided)	
+ genitive			(with verbs of competition, strife, etc.) about, for, over μάχεσθαι περὶ πατρίδος
			fight for one's home country
			(with verbs of fearing and concern) of, concerning, abou φοβεῖσθαι περί τινος be concerned about someone/something

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
		•	(with verbs of speaking, etc.) about, over βουλεύεσθαι περὶ τῆς εἰρήνης deliberate about the peace ἀκούειν περί τινος hear about someone (relations) in relation to, concerning τὰ περὶ τῆς ἀρετῆς that which concerns virtue
+ dative	(with weapons and clothing) around		consider of great/little importance (with verbs of fearing and concern) for, concerning
	ἃ περὶ τοῖς σώμασιν ἔχουσιν the clothes they have on their bodies		δεδιότες περὶ τῷ χωρίῳ afraid for their land
+ accusative	around περὶ τὴν ἀττικὴν περιέρχεται he goes around Attica περὶ τὸ στρατόπεδον φυλακαὶ ἦσαν around the camp there were sentries οἱ περὶ Κῦρον Cyrus and his followers	around περὶ τούτους τοὺς χρόνους around that time	about, with respect to γνώμην ἔχειν περί τι/τινα have an opinion about some- thing/someone άμαρτάνειν περί τινα err with respect to someone εἶναι περί τι be occupied/concerned with something
	πρό	(never elided)	
+ genitive	in front of πρὸ τῶν ἀμαξῶν in front of the wagons πρὸ ποδῶν at one's feet	before πρὸ τῶν Μηδικῶν before the Persian wars πρὸ τοῦ previously, earlier	in defence of, on behalf of, for πρὸ τῶν πολιτῶν μάχεσθαι fight for the citizens
		previously, earlier	in preference to αίρεῖσθαι τι πρό τινος prefer something over something

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
A		πρός	
+ genitive + dative	at, near πρὸς αὐτῆ τῆ πόλει καθίστανται they position themselves near the city itself /right near the city	προς	from the side of, at the hands of πάσχειν πρός τινος suffer at the hands of someone ἀκούειν πρός τινος hear from someone on the side of πρὸς ἡμῶν ἐστιν he is on our side (with passives) by τὸ ποιούμενον πρός τινος the thing done by someone (in exclamations) by πρὸς θεῶν by the gods! (addition) with πρὸς τούτῷ, πρὸς τούτοις moreover, on top of that
+ accusative	(motion) towards, facing	by, towards	be occupied with something (with verbs of speaking, etc.)
	towards	πρὸς ἑσπέραν	to, addressing
	ἄγειν πρός τινα bring to someone ἀποβλέπειν πρός τινα	towards dusk	λέγειν πρὸς τὸ πλῆθος speak to the multitude
	look at someone		(relations) concerning, with regard to
	(hostile) against πορεύεσθαι, πολεμεῖν πρός τινα march against, wage war against		πρὸς ταῦτα in view of that, with regard to that χρήσιμος πρός τι useful with regard to something

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
			(direction, goal) towards, to
			πρὸς ἀνδρείαν παιδεύεσθαι
			be educated/raised to
			bravery
			λέγειν τι πρὸς χάριν τινός
			say something to oblige someone
			(comparison) in comparison to,
			according to
			πρὸς τὴν δύναμιν
			according to one's means/ability
			κρίνειν πρός τι
			judge by something
			πρὸς βίαν
			violently
		σύν /ξύν	······································
+ dative	(together) with, accompanied		including
	by (rare in Att.; usually μετά +		δισχίλιαι δραχμαὶ σὑν ταῖς
	gen.)		Νικίου
	πολεμεῖν σὺν τοῖς φυγάσι		two thousand drachmas
	wage war together with the exiles		including those of Nicias
			(accompanying
			circumstances)
			σὺν κραυγῆ
			with a loud scream
			σὺν θεῷ
			with god's help
		ὑπέρ	
+ genitive	(stationary) above		in defence of, to protect
	ύπὲρ τῶν γονάτων		on behalf of
	above the knees		ύπὲρ τῆς πατρίδος
	ύπὲρ Άλικαρνησσοῦ μεσόγαια		in defence of (his) home
	the hinterland of Halicarnassus		country
	(relative geographical position:		ἀποκρίνεσθαι ὑπέρ τινος
	inland from)		answer on someone's behal
	(motion) over		(cause) about, in order to
	ύπὲρ τῶν ἄκρων κατέβαινον		χάριν ἔχειν ὑπέρ τινος
	•		
	they came down over the hilltops		be grateful about somethin
			ύπὲρ τοῦ ταῦτα λαβεῖν
			in order to get this

	spatial	temporal	abstract/metaphorical
+ accusative	above, beyond		beyond
	οἱ ὑπὲρ τὸν Ἑλλήσποντον		ύπὲρ δύναμιν
	οἰκούμενοι		beyond one's means
	those who live beyond the		ύπὲρ ἐλπίδα
	Hellespont		beyond expectation
	ύ	πό (ὑπ', ὑφ')	
+ genitive	(motion away from) out from under		(with passives and verbs with
	λαβών βοῦν ὑπὸ ἁμάξης		passive meaning, expressing the
	taking an ox from a wagon		agent) by
	under		παιδεύεσθαι ὑπό τινος
	τὰ ὑπὸ γῆς		be raised by someone
	the things under the earth		πάσχειν τι ὑπό τινος
			suffer something at the hands of someone
			(with causes)
			ύπὸ λιμοῦ ἀπόλλυσθαι
			perish from hunger
			perisir from hunger
			(accompanying
			circumstance)
			ύπὸ σάλπιγγος
			at the sound of a trumpet
+ dative	at the foot of, under		(subjection, dependence, influence)
	ύπ' Ἰλίφ		ύφ' ἑαυτῷ εἶναι
	under the walls of Troy (rare in prose)		be in his power
	prose		ύπὸ παιδοτρίβη ἀγαθῷ πεπαιδευμένος
			educated under a good master
+ accusative	(end point) at/to the foot of,	in the course of, during	(subjection, dependence, influence)
1 decusative	to under	ύπὸ τὴν νύκτα ταύτην	ύπὸ σφᾶς ποιεῖσθαι
	ἔστησε τὸ στράτευμα ὑπὸ	in the course of that night	bring under their power
	τὸν λόφον	ύπὸ τὴν εἰρήνην	
	he made the army halt at	under peacetime	(accompaniment)
	the foot of the hill	conditions	ύπὸ ὄρχησίν τε καὶ ὠδήν
		ύπὸ νύκτα	acompanied by dance and song
		under cover of night	. ,

Improper Prepositions

Unlike the 'proper' prepositions (\rightarrow 31.2, 31.8), the following 'improper' prepositions are not used in compound verbs:

αμα + dat.together with (also temporal: 'at the same time with', αμ'

ἕω, ἀμ' ἡμέρᾳ = 'at daybreak')

ἄνευ + gen. without, apart from
 δίκην + gen. in the way of, like
 ἐγγύς + gen. near, close to

εἴσω, ἔσω + gen. inside

ἐναντίον + gen. opposite, in the presence of

gen. + ἕνεκα (also οὔνεμα; because of, owing to, on account of, for the sake of

usually a postposition, but \rightarrow 41.4 n.1, 48.2)

ἐκτός + gen. outside of, apart from ἐντός + gen. within (also temporal)

 $\xi = \xi \omega + gen.$ outside of, out (also abstract: $\xi = \xi \omega$ φρεν $\omega = \xi = \xi \omega$)

wits')

ἐπίπροσθεν + gen. in the way of (especially with γίγνομαι, 'get in the way of')

μεταξύ + gen. between (also temporal)

μέχρι + gen. up to (also temporal: 'up until', μέχρι ου = 'until the

moment that')

όμοῦ + dat. together with (also temporal: 'at the same time as')

οπισθεν + gen. behind, at the rear of

πάροιθε + gen. in front of, before (also temporal)

gen. + πέλας (commonly near to, alongside

a postposition)

πέρα(ν) + gen. further than, beyond, on the other side of (also abstract:

πέρα τοῦ μετρίου = 'beyond measure')

 π λήν + gen. except (also with subordinate clauses: π λήν ὅτι =

'except that'; $\pi \lambda \dot{\eta} \nu \epsilon i = \text{'except if'}$

πλησίον + gen. near to

πόρρω, πρόσω + gen. far from, far in (also abstract: πόρρω σοφίας ήμειν = 'to

come far in wisdom')

πρόσθεν, ἔμπροσθεν + at the front of, before (also temporal)

gen.

gen. + χάριν for the sake of

(postposition)

χωρίς + gen. apart from (also abstract: 'not considering')

ώς + acc. to (only with persons, e.g. ώς Ἀλέξανδρον to Alexander)

Comparison

Meaning of Comparatives and Superlatives

32.1 The comparative (formed with -τερος or -(i)ων, →5.34, 5.36, 5.38-40, 5.41, 5.43-4) expresses the higher degree of the meaning of an adjective, the superlative (formed with -τατος or -ιστος, →5.34, 5.37-40, 5.42-4) the highest degree:

οὖτος σοφώτερος Σωκράτους That man is wiser than Socrates (with genitive of comparison, $\rightarrow 32.6$ below)

Σωκράτης <u>σοφώτατος</u> πάντων Socrates is wisest of all (*with partitive genitive*, →32.8 below)

When two entities are compared, the **comparative** expresses the higher and thereby automatically the **highest degree**:

Σωκράτης σοφώτερος ἡμῶν
 δυοῖν
 Socrates is the wisest of the two of us
 (with partitive genitive, →32.9 below)

When an element of comparison is absent, the **superlative** may express a **very high degree** (sometimes called the 'elative' use):

Σωκράτης σοφώτατος Socrates is very wise

- 32.3 The comparative suffix -τερος often expresses a **contrast** between two concepts, persons, entities or groups, as can be seen in δεξίτερος *right* vs. ἀρίστερος *left*, or in an example like
 - (1) οὕτως ... ἐπαίδευον, τοὺς μὲν γεραιτέρους προτιμᾶν, τῶν δὲ νεωτέρων προτετιμῆσθαι. (Xen. Cyr. 8.7.10)
 This is how I raised you, to give preference in honour to the old, and to be honoured above those who are young.
- 32.4 When the **superlative** is **preceded by ως** (sometimes ὅπως) or ὅτι it means as . . . as possible:
 - (2) εὶ μἡ θήσομαι | τἄμ' ώς ἄριστα, φαῦλός εἰμι κοὐ σοφός. (Eur. Andr. 378-9)

 If I shall not put my things in order as well as possible, I am worthless and not smart.

Comparison

- 32.5 Greek has various constructions that can be used to express the entity to which someone or something is compared. Distinction should be made between:
 - constructions that follow a comparative (cf. e.g. Engl.: better than ..., more than ...): →32.6-7;
 - constructions that are used to indicate that something is identical, similar or equal to something else (cf. e.g. Engl.: like ..., just as, similar to):
 →32.14-15.

Note 1: For clauses of comparison ($\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ -clauses) $\rightarrow 50.37$; for comparative temporal and conditional clauses ($\dot{\omega}_{\varsigma}$ ő τ ε-clauses and $\dot{\omega}_{\sigma}(\pi\epsilon\rho)$ ε $\dot{\epsilon}$ -clauses), $\rightarrow 47.17$, 49.22–4; for participles of comparison (with $\ddot{\omega}_{\sigma}\pi\epsilon\rho$), $\rightarrow 52.43$.

Constructions of Comparison that Follow a Comparative or Superlative

- 32.6 Comparatives are usually construed with a genitive of comparison (\rightarrow 30.24) or with $\mathring{\eta}$; in the latter case, the second member of the comparison (after $\mathring{\eta}$) stands in the same case as the first:
 - (3) πόλεμος ἔνδοξος εἰρήνης αἰσχρᾶς αίρετώτερος. (Dem. fr. 13.26 Baiter-Sauppe) A glorious war is preferable to a shameful peace. *Genitive of comparison*.
 - (4) ἀνδρός . . . ένὸς τοῦ ἀρίστου οὐδὲν ἄμεινου ἄν φανείη. (Hdt. 3.82.2)
 Nothing would appear better than the rule of one man, the best one. Genitive of comparison.
 - (5) οὖτος ὁ Ἡγήσανδρος ἀφικνεῖται, ὃν ὑμεῖς ἴστε κάλλιον ἢ ἐγώ. (Aeschin. 1.56) This fellow Hegesandrus arrives, whom you know better than I.
 - (6) οὐ πολλῷ τινὶ <u>ὑποδεέστερον</u> πόλεμον ἀνηροῦντο <u>ἢ τὸν πρὸς Πελοποννησίους</u>. (Thuc. 6.1.1)

They undertook a war not much inferior to that against the Peloponnesians. For $\pi o \lambda \lambda \tilde{\varphi}$, $\rightarrow 32.11$.

A construction with $\mathring{\eta}$ is normally used when the first and second member of the comparison stand in the **genitive** or **dative** (the genitive of comparison is rare in such cases):

- (7) ἐγὼ . . . οὖτ' ἄν μίλτου ἁπτοίμην ἤδιον ἢ σοῦ. (Xen. Oec. 10.6)
 I would not touch red lead with more pleasure than (I would touch) you.
- (8) σοί τε νῦν ἔτι ἐχθίονές εἰσιν ἢ ἐμοί. (Xen. Cyr. 4.5.23)
 They are now even more hostile to you than to me.
- 32.7 The same constructions are used when the comparative is expressed by way of μᾶλλον (ἢ) more (than), rather (than):

- (9) τὸ θῆλυ γάρ πως μᾶλλον οἰκτρὸν ἀρσένων. (Eur. Her. 536)
 For the female sex is in a way more emotional than men. Genitive of comparison.
- (10) οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι πάση πολιτεία μᾶλλον ἄν ἢ δημοκρατία πιστεύσειαν. (Xen. Hell.~2.3.45)

The Spartans would trust any constitution more than a democracy. Comparative with $\mathring{\eta}$.

Note 1: The genitive (of comparison) is also found with verbs that are derived from comparatives, such as ὑστερέω to be later (cf. ὕστερος later), πλεονεκτέω have a larger share (cf. πλείων more), ἡττάομαι to be weaker than, be defeated by (cf. ἥττων weaker) – for the genitive as complement with verbs, $\rightarrow 30.21-2$:

- (11) ἡττώμεθα . . . ἀμφότεροι τοῦ ταῦτα ἔχοντος βεβαίως βίου. (Pl. *Phlb*. 11e) We are both defeated by the life that has firm possession of that.
- Superlatives are often combined with a partitive genitive (\rightarrow 30.29) to express the group or class within which something is marked as the highest:

εὐδαιμονέστατοι <u>τῶν Ἑλλήνων</u> the most fortunate people of the Greeks <u>πάντων</u> μέγιστον ἄλγος the greatest ill of all

Note 1: This use occasionally occurs when the superlative refers to an entity which is not itself part of the group indicated by the partitive genitive; the genitive is in such cases also often called 'comparative':

- (12) Θουκυδίδης ἀθηναῖος ξυνέγραψε τὸν πόλεμον ... ἐλπίσας ... ἔσεσθαι ... ἀξιολογώτατον τῶν προγεγενημένων. (Thuc. 1.1.1)

 Thucydides from Athens has written a book about the war, as he expected it to be most noteworthy, more than any of the wars that preceded. The war that Thucydides describes is not one of those that came before.
- 32.9 The partitive genitive is also sometimes used with **comparatives**, especially when two entities are compared (in which case the comparative marks the highest degree, \rightarrow 32.1 above).
 - (13) δυοῖν γὰρ ἀθλίοιν εὐδαιμονέστερος μὲν οὐκ ἄν εἴη. (Pl. Grg. 473d)
 For among two wretched men there could not be a most fortunate one.
 ἀθλίοιν is dual, →10.1-5.
- 32.10 Other constructions with superlatives:
 - superlatives may be strengthened by 'adverbial' καί (\rightarrow 59.56):
 - (14) οἷμαι δ' αὐτὸ καὶ σοφώτατον | θνητοῖσιν εἶναι κτῆμα τοῖσι χρωμένοις. (Eur. Bacch. 1151-2)

 And I think that this is the very most sensible possession for mortals who use it.

- superlatives may be modified by the fixed expression αὐτὸς (ἑ)αυτοῦ at his/her/its -est, indicating that the feature denoted by the adjective is or has been present in the same entity to various degrees; the superlative then refers to the highest of those degrees:
- (15) ... ἡ λίμνη ... ἐοῦσα βάθος, τῆ <u>βαθυτάτη αὐτὴ ἑωυτῆς</u>, πεντηκοντόργυιος. (Hdt. 2.149.1) ... the lake, being, at the point where it is at its deepest, fifty fathoms deep. The lake is less deep elsewhere.
- in prose (particularly Herodotus, Thucydides and Plato) superlatives are sometimes combined with the idiomatic expression ἐν τοῖς:
- (16) ἐν τοῖς πρῶτοι δὲ Ἀθηναῖοι τὸν ... σίδηρον κατέθεντο. (Thuc. 1.6.3)
 The Athenians were the first to lay down their sword. ἐν τοῖς (lit. 'among them/some')
 appears to make explicit that the Athenians were not the only ones to stop carrying weapons, but that, of those who did, they were the first.
- Both the comparative and the superlative may be modified by an expression of degree in the dative (**dative of measure**, $\rightarrow 30.54$):

πολλῷ ἀμείνων much better

σωφρονέστατα καὶ ἀσφαλέστατα μακρῷ most sensible and safest by far

Note the frequent use of this dative in correlative clauses with $(\tau \circ \sigma \circ \circ \tau \varphi \text{ and}) \circ \sigma \varphi (\rightarrow 50.5)$, to express the more . . . the more . . . :

- (17) σσω ἄν μείζω τούτω δωρήση, τοσούτω μείζω ύπὸ τούτου ἀγαθὰ πείση. (Xen. An. 7.3.20)
 - The greater the gifts you bestow on him, the greater good will you experience at his hands.
- 32.12 When **two adjectives or adverbs** that refer to the same subject or predicate are compared to each other, they are **both comparative**, or the first is modified by μᾶλλον ἤ, and the second comparative:
 - (18) ἐποίησα <u>ταχύτερα</u> ἢ <u>σοφώτερα</u>. (Hdt. 3.65.3)

 I acted more quickly than wisely.
 - (19) εἰς Ἰωλκὸν ἱκόμην | σὑν σοί, πρόθυμος μᾶλλον ἢ σοφωτέρα. (Eur. Med. 484–5) I came to Iolcus with you, eager rather than wise.
- 32.13 Note the following fixed expressions with comparatives:
 - comparative with ἢ ὥστε + infinitive (→46.8), or with ἢ κατά + accusative: too . . . :
 - (20) σοφώτερ' ἢ κατ' ἄνδρα συμβαλεῖν ἔπη (Eur. Med. 675) words too wise for a man to understand

- (21) νεώτεροί εἰσιν ἢ ἄστε εἰδέναι οἵων πατέρων ἐστέρηνται. (Lys. 2.72)

 They are too young to know of what kind of fathers they have been deprived.
- comparative with $\mathring{\eta}$ + comparative $\mathring{\omega}_{S}$ -clause ($\rightarrow 50.37$): too ... to ... (this occurs particularly when the $\mathring{\omega}_{S}$ -clause has a potential optative or counterfactual secondary indicative):
- (22) ἔστι γὰρ μείζω τἀκείνων ἔργα ἢ ὡς τῷ λόγῳ τις ἄν εἴποι. (Dem. 6.11) For their achievements are too great for anyone to put them in words (lit. 'greater than that anyone could somehow . . .').
- (23) εἰσπηδήσαντες εἰς τὸν πηλὸν <u>θᾶττον ἢ ὥς</u> τις <u>ἄν ὥετο</u> μετεώρους ἐξεκόμισαν τὰς ἁμάξας. (Xen. An. 1.5.8)

 They jumped into the mud and lifted the wagons on dry land more quickly than anyone could have thought possible.
- οὐδενὸς ἐλάττων (also χείρων, ὕστερος, etc.), lit. 'inferior to no one' = better than all, the best by far:
- (24) ο κάμοι δοκεῖ οὐδενὸς ἔλαττον εἶναι τεκμήριον τῆς ἀπογραφῆς ὅτι ἀληθής οὖσα τυγχάνει. (Lys. 29.1)

 This seems also to me to be the clearest evidence by far that the declaration happens to be true.

Constructions of Comparison that Express Identicalness, Similarity or Equality: ὁ αὐτός, ὅμοιος and ἴσος

- 32.14 The most common adjectives or pronouns that express identicalness, similarity or equality are:
 - ὁ αὐτός (often with crasis: αὑτός, αὑτή, ταὐτά, \rightarrow 7.11) the same as
 - ὅμοιος similar to, like
 - ἴσος like, equal to

Each of these may be followed by a complement in the **dative** ($\rightarrow 30.40$) or by $\kappa\alpha i$:

- (25) φαίνεται γὰρ τῷ δήμῳ βοηθῶν, τῆς αὐτῆς πολιτείας ὑμῖν ἐπιθυμῶν. (Isoc. 16.41) He is evidently supporting the people, desiring the same constitution as you.
- (26) οὐκ, ἐπειδὰν <u>ταὐτὸν</u> γένηταί <u>τώ</u> τι, εν γίγνεται. (Pl. *Prm*. 139d)
 Whenever a thing becomes the same as any thing, it does not become one.
- (27) κλίμακας ἐποιήσαντο <u>ἴσας τῷ τείχει</u> τῶν πολεμίων. (Thuc. 3.20.3)

 They made ladders for themselves that were equal (in height) to the wall of the enemy.
- (28) <u>ταὐτὰ</u> ὑμῖν συνέφερε καὶ τοῖς ἐκεῖ. (Lys. 20.27) The same happened to you as to the people there.

- (29) οἶον δὲ πνεῖς . . . | :: μῶν οὖν ὅμοιον καὶ γυλιοῦ στρατιωτικοῦ; (Ar. Pax 525-7) How wonderful do you smell! :: Not then, I take it, like the smell of a soldier's knapsack? γυλιοῦ στρατιωτικοῦ is genitive of belonging (→30.28) with an omitted 'smell'.
- (30) οὐ δῆθ' ὅτῳ γε νοῦς ἄσος καὶ σοὶ πάρα. (Soph. OC 810)
 Certainly not for a man who has a mind equal to yours. For the accentuation and position of πάρα, →24.37, 36.6.
- 32.15 After the same expressions (especially after ὁ αὐτός) a relative clause with -περ (e.g. ὅσπερ) is also regularly found, sometimes with 'adverbial' καί *also, too* following the relative pronoun:
 - (31) ἡ γὰρ πάλαι ἡμῶν φύσις οὐχ αὐτὴ ἦν ἤπερ νῦν. (Pl. Symp. 189d)
 For our original nature was not the same as our present one.
 - (32) ἐκ τοῦ αὐτοῦ ... χωρίου ἡ ὁρμἡ ἔσται ὅθενπερ καὶ ἐκεῖνος ἐμὲ ἐπεδέξατο γυμνήν. (Hdt. 1.11.5)

 The attack will take place from the same spot as the one from which that man displayed me naked.
 - (33) μόνοι τε ὄντες <u>ὅμοια ἔπραττον ἄπερ</u> ἄν μετ' ἄλλων ὅντες. (Xen. An. 5.4.34) When they were alone, they behaved just as if they were with others (lit. 'they did similar things as (they would do) if they had been with others').

The Verb: Tense and Aspect

Basic Notions and Terminology

Tense

- 33.1 **Tense** concerns the location of an action in time relative to some other moment. A distinction can be made between absolute tense and relative tense:
 - Absolute tense concerns the location of an action in the past, present or future, relative to the moment of speaking:

The Greeks burned Troy. past The Greeks are burning Troy. present The Greeks will burn Troy. future

- Relative tense concerns the location of an action in time relative to another temporal reference point given in the context, either prior to that reference point (anteriority), at the same time as that reference point (simultaneity), or after it (posteriority):

We arrived when the Greeks had burned

anterior to a moment in the past

We arrived when the Greeks were burning

simultaneous with a moment in

the past

By the time we arrive, the Greeks will

anterior to a moment in the future

have burned Troy. The Greeks said that they would burn

posterior to a moment in the past

Troy.

- 33.2 The indicatives of the Greek verb, when used in main clauses, express absolute tense:
 - the present indicative and perfect indicative refer to the present (i.e. the moment of speaking);
 - the imperfect, aorist indicative and pluperfect refer to the past (these are 'secondary' indicatives (\rightarrow 11.7), and have secondary endings (\rightarrow 11.20-7) and an augment $(\rightarrow 11.35-42)$;
 - the future indicative and future perfect indicative refer to the future:



Figure 33.1: Absolute tense expressed by indicatives

- οἱ Ἀριαίου πρόσθεν σὑν ἡμῖν ταττόμενοι νῦν ἀφεστήκασιν. (Xen. An. 3.2.17)
 Ariaeus' men, although they previously used to line up alongside us, have now deserted us. Pf. ind. referring to the present; note νῦν.
- (2) τότε . . . πεδία πλήρη γῆς πιείρας ἐκέκτητο, καὶ πολλὴν ἐν τοῖς ὄρεσιν ὕλην εἶχεν. (Pl. Criti. 111c)
 - At that time, (the country) possessed plains full of rich soil, and had much forestland in the mountains. *Plpf. and impf. referring to the past; note* $\tau \acute{o} \tau \varepsilon$.
- (3) ἦ μἡν σὺ δώσεις αὔριον τούτων δίκην. (Ar. Vesp. 1331)
 I swear, you'll pay for this tomorrow. Fut. ind., referring to the future; note αὔριον.
- Outside main clauses, indicatives frequently receive a relative-tense interpretation in addition to, or instead of, an absolute-tense interpretation (\rightarrow 33.57–62 below).

Moods other than the indicative (i.e. the subjunctive, optative and imperative) and **non-finite forms of the verb** (infinitives, participles and verbal adjectives), **do not inherently express tense**, but only aspect. Their aspectual value, however, may lead to a relative-tense interpretation ($\rightarrow 33.57-62$ below).

Aspect

Grammatical Aspect

- Grammatical aspect (usually simply called 'aspect') concerns the way in which an action is presented or regarded, particularly with respect to its internal composition: it can be presented as a single and complete whole (an action in its entirety), without any separate component parts of the action being envisaged, or as incomplete (an action that is ongoing or repeated, that can conceivably be interrupted), with several component parts being envisaged. Note that what matters is not whether an action has component parts, but whether the speaker is interested in presenting these component parts as relevant.
- With the exception of the future-tense forms (see below) all Greek verb forms express aspect.
- 33.6 The tense-aspect **stems** of the Greek verb express three different aspectual values:

- The present stem presents an action as incomplete, focusing on one or more of
 its intermediate stages, but leaving its boundaries (beginning and end) out of
 focus. It thus normally signifies that an action is ongoing or repeated. This is
 called imperfective aspect.
- The aorist stems (aorist stem, aorist passive stem) present an action as complete, as a single (uninterruptable) whole: it ignores any component parts by looking only at the boundaries of the action, rolling beginning, middle and end into one. This is called perfective aspect.
- The perfect stems (perfect active stem, perfect middle-passive stem, future perfect stem) present an action as a state resulting from a preceding completed action, or it signifies that the effects of the completed action are somehow still relevant.

The future stems (future stem, future passive stem) have a temporal value (they express futurity/posteriority) but no aspectual one: they are aspectually neutral, and make no formal distinction between an imperfective or perfective presentation of actions.

Note 1: Note that 'perfective' aspect is expressed by the aorist stem: this is not to be confused with the Greek perfect, which does not express perfective aspect.

Other terms found for the aspect expressed by the present stem are 'durative', 'progressive', 'iterative', 'habitual', 'unbounded'; other terms found for the aspect expressed by the aorist stem are 'aoristic', 'confective', 'semelfactive', 'punctual', 'bounded', 'simple'. These terms do not always overlap entirely, and there is some disagreement (and much confusion) in scholarly views concerning the precise values of the Greek aspect stems.

- As the above definitions indicate, the selection of a specific stem (grammatical aspect) depends not so much on any objective properties of the action itself (for such objective properties, →33.8-9), but on a speaker's (subjective) needs and choices in presenting an action in a certain way. What matters most is whether a speaker is interested in drawing attention to any component parts (or conversely, the boundaries) of an action. This crucial feature will become fully apparent in the sections below, but a few initial examples may illustrate the point:
 - (4) οἱ δὲ Ὀλύνθιοι ὡς εἶδον προθέοντας τοὺς πελταστάς, ἀναστρέψαντες ... διέβησαν πάλιν τὸν ποταμόν. οἱ δ᾽ ἠκολούθουν μάλα θρασέως, καὶ ὡς φεύγουσι διώξοντες ἐπιδιέβαινον. ἔνθα δἡ οἱ Ὀλύνθιοι ἱππεῖς, ἡνίκα ἔτι εὐχείρωτοι αὐτοῖς ἐδόκουν εἶναι οἱ διαβεβηκότες, ἀναστρέψαντες ἐμβάλλουσιν αὐτοῖς, καὶ ... ἀπέκτειναν ... πλείους ἡ ἑκατόν. (Xen. Hell. 5.3.4)

 The Olynthians, when they saw the peltasts running forward turned around

The Olynthians, when they saw the peltasts running forward, turned around and crossed the river again. The peltasts followed them very rashly, and, convinced that they were fleeing, proceeded to cross so as to give chase.

Then the Olynthian horsemen, at a moment when those who had crossed still seemed to them to be easy to overcome, wheeled about and attacked them, and they killed more than a hundred. The narrator uses the aorist indicative διέβησαν to describe the Olynthians' crossing in its entirety (perfective aspect): he is interested in the simple fact that it happened, not in its process; further events which took place during their crossing are not referred to. When the peltasts cross, however, he uses present-stem (impf.) ἐπιδιέβαινον to describe the crossing in process (i.e. before its end-point was reached; imperfective aspect), because he is interested in other events that happened during it (the attack). The perfect participle διαβεβημότες, finally, refers to men who are in the state of having successfully crossed the river. Observe that the killing of these men is expressed by means of aorist ἀπέμτειναν (even though it will have taken quite some time to kill over a hundred men), because the narrator is interested in the simple fact that it happened; again, further events which took place during the killing spree (individual killings, resistance, etc.) are not referred to. For this kind of alternation between imperfects and agrists in narrative texts, $\rightarrow 33.48-9$. For the historical present ἐμβάλλουσιν, $\rightarrow 33.54-5$.

- (5) Πρωταγόρας μὲν ... τοιαῦτα ἐπιδειξάμενος ἀπεπαύσατο τοῦ λόγου. καὶ ἐγὰ ἐπὶ μὲν πολὺν χρόνον ... πρὸς αὐτὸν ἔβλεπον ὡς ἐροῦντά τι, ἐπιθυμῶν ἀκούειν· ἐπεὶ δὲ δὴ ἠσθόμην ὅτι τῷ ὄντι πεπαυμένος εἴη, ... εἶπον, βλέψας πρὸς τὸν Ἱπποκράτη· ... (Pl. Prt. 328d)

 Protagoras, having made such a performance, stopped speaking. And for a long time, I kept looking at him as if he was going to say something else, desirous to hear it. But when I realized that he was truly done, I said, casting my glance towards Hippocrates: ... The aorist indicative ἀπεπαύσατο presents
 - desirous to hear it. But when I realized that he was truly done, I said, casting my glance towards Hippocrates: ... The aorist indicative $\mathring{\alpha}\pi\epsilon\pi\alpha\mathring{\omega}\sigma\alpha\tau\sigma$ presents Protagoras' falling quiet after a long speech, without any reference to component parts of the action of finishing; it is picked up later by the perfect-stem form $\pi\epsilon\pi\alpha\upsilon\mu\acute{\epsilon}vo\varsigma$ $\epsilon \mathring{\epsilon}\eta$ (for the optative, $\rightarrow 40.12$, 41.15), which emphasizes that Protagoras had not simply paused, but finished altogether, resulting in a new state (that of 'being done'). The example also features a contrast between present-stem (impf.) $\check{\epsilon}\beta\lambda\epsilon\pi\sigma\nu$, used to refer to an ongoing gaze, and the aorist participle $\beta\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\psi\alpha\varsigma$, which is used to refer to the single moment that Socrates shifted his gaze towards another participant in the conversation (for this 'ingressive' interpretation of the aorist, $\rightarrow 33.29$).
- (6) τοῖσι ὑπολειπομένοισι <u>ἔδοξε</u> <u>πλανᾶν</u> μὲν μηκέτι Πέρσας, σῖτα δὲ ἑκάστοτε ἀναιρεομένοισι <u>ἐπιτίθεσθαι</u>. νωμῶντες ὧν σῖτα ἀναιρεομένους τοὺς Δαρείου ἐποίευν τὰ βεβουλευμένα. (Hdt. 4.128.2)
 - Those (Scythians) who remained behind decided to lead the Persians astray no longer, but to attack them wherever they were foraging for provision. So, observing the men of Darius as they were foraging, they carried out their plans.

(7) ὁ δὲ ἀρκεσίλεως εἵπετο φεύγουσι, ἐς οὖ ἐν Λεύκωνί τε τῆς Λιβύης ἐγίνετο ἐπιδιώκων καὶ ἔδοξε τοῖσι Λίβυσι ἐπιθέσθαι οἱ. συμβαλόντες δὲ ἐνίκησαν τοὺς Κυρηναίους. (Hdt. 4.160.3)

Arcesilaus pursued them as they fled, until he came in his pursuit to Leucon in Libya and the Libyans decided to attack him. They engaged and overcame the Cyrenaeans.

The present infinitive $\partial \pi \pi i \partial \pi \partial \pi i$ in (6) refers to a composite campaign, which is to consist of repeated attacks made on different occasions (interest in the component parts: imperfective aspect). The aorist infinitive $\partial \pi i \partial \pi i$ in (7), by contrast, refers to a single attack to be made on a particular occasion. What is also relevant for the choice of the aorist stem is that the narrator immediately moves from the moment of attack to their victory ($\partial \pi i \partial \pi i \partial$

Lexical Aspect

33.8 **Lexical aspect** refers to the temporal structure of a specific action **inherent in the verb's meaning**: does it have duration, and is it directed towards an end-point? As opposed to grammatical aspect, lexical aspect thus has to do with the **objective** properties of an action, rather than with subjective ways of presenting that action.

For instance, inherent in the meaning of the verb $\delta \iota \alpha \beta \alpha i \nu \omega \ cross$ is that it has an end-point, namely the moment at which someone reaches the other side. The simplex verb $\beta \alpha i \nu \omega \ go, \ walk$, on the other hand, has no natural end-point which is part of the inherent meaning of the verb (in principle, one can walk for as long as one likes). The following categories of lexical aspect are important for the interpretation of Greek verb forms:

- Telic verbs: verbs which, inherent in their meaning, are directed towards an endpoint: e.g. διαβαίνω cross, πείθω persuade, δίδωμι give, κατεργάζομαι achieve, make an end of, τήκομαι melt;
- Atelic verbs: verbs which are not inherently directed towards an end-point: e.g. βαίνω go, walk, γελάω laugh, θαυμάζω admire, θεάομαι gaze at. A subset of this class consists of so-called stative verbs, verbs which normally have a prolonged duration and in which no change takes place over time: e.g. βασιλεύω be king, φιλέω love, νοσέω be ill, εἰμί be, ἔχω have.

Note 1: Lexical aspect is frequently referred to by the German term *Aktionsart*, sometimes also by the terms 'actionality' or 'situation type'. Other terminology commonly found for telic verbs is 'terminative' and 'bounded', and for atelic verbs 'non-terminative' and 'unbounded'. Again, the terminology does not always overlap entirely.

Below, when the bare term 'aspect' is used, it refers to grammatical aspect.

- 33.9 Lexical aspect depends not only on the verb itself, but also on the context/construction in which that verb is used. For instance, the verb τρέχω *run* has a different lexical aspect in the following two examples:
 - (8) οἶα πιππίζουσι καὶ τρέχουσι διακεκραγότες. (Ar. Av. 306)
 How they chirp and run around screeching! Atelic: not directed towards an end-point: one can run around for as long as one likes.
 - (9) ἦ πρός τε μαστοῖς εἰσι χὐπὸ μητέρων | πλευρὰς <u>πρέχουσι</u>; (Eur. Cyc. 207-8)
 Are they at the teat and running to their mothers' sides? Telic: directed towards an endpoint, the moment of arrival at the mother's side.

Factors Influencing Interpretation

- 33.10 The interpretation of tense and aspect in any specific verb form depends on a variety of factors:
 - the nature of the verb form used (finite or non-finite; with finite forms, mood –
 note that absolute tense is expressed only by indicatives) and the construction in
 which it is used (main clauses, various kinds of subordinate clauses, various uses
 of the participle and infinitive);
 - the interaction between grammatical and lexical aspect;
 - the type of text in which the form is used (see especially below on narrative vs. non-narrative texts, \rightarrow 33.13).

The remainder of this chapter first treats the uses of the indicative in main clauses, followed by a discussion of the possible interpretations of aspect outside the indicative.

Tense and Aspect Combined: The Indicative in Main Clauses

Basic Values of the Indicative; Narrative and Non-Narrative Text

The Seven Indicatives of Greek: Basic Values

33.11 Sections 33.14–55 give an overview of the use of **indicatives in main clauses** (for indicatives in subordinate clauses, →40.5–11 and chapters 41–5). The interpretation of indicatives depends in the first place on the **interaction between tense and grammatical aspect**. Combining the aspectual and temporal values described above, the Greek indicative expresses the following tense/ aspect-distinctions (using the verbs κτάομαι acquire and παιδεύω educate as examples):

- The **present indicative** expresses an action, located at the moment of speaking (i.e. in the present), that is presented as **ongoing or repeated**:

κτῶμαι I am acquiring / I (habitually) acquire παιδεύω I am educating / I (habitually) educate

- The **imperfect** (or 'secondary present indicative') expresses an action, located in the **past**, that is presented as **ongoing or repeated**:

ἐκτώμην I was acquiring / I (habitually) acquired ἐπαίδευον I was educating / I (habitually) educated

- The **aorist indicative** expresses an action, located in the **past**, presented as a **complete** whole:

ἐκτησάμην I acquired / I have acquired (for these translations,

 \rightarrow 33.28 with n.1)

ἐπαίδευσα I educated/ I have educated

- The **future indicative** expresses an action (either as a single occurrence or as ongoing/repeated), located in the **future**:

κτήσομαι I will acquire / I will be acquiring παιδεύσω I will educate / I will be educating

The perfect indicative expresses a state, located at the present, that is the result
of a completed action; or it expresses that the effects of the completed action are
still in some way relevant at the present:

κέκτημαι I possess (< I have acquired)

πεπαίδευκα I have educated / I am responsible for the education of

 $(\rightarrow 33.34-5 \text{ below})$

- The pluperfect (or 'secondary perfect indicative') expresses a state, located in the past, that is the result of a completed action; or it expresses that the effects of the completed action are in some way relevant at the moment in the past:

ἐκεκτήμην I possessed (< I had acquired)

ἐπεπαιδεύκειν I had educated / I was responsible for the education of

- The (rare) future perfect indicative expresses a state, located in the future, that is the result of a completed action; or it expresses that the effects of the completed action are in some way relevant at the moment in the future:

κεκτήσομαι I will possess (< I will have acquired)

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33.12 The	Tonowing	table	provides ar	overview	or ure	e sevem i	indicatives:

	imperfective aspect (present stem)	perfective aspect (aorist stem)	perfect-stem aspect
present	present indicative	_	perfect indicative
	κτῶμαι		κέκτημαι
past	imperfect	aorist indicative	pluperfect
	ἐκτώμην	ἐκτησάμην	ἐκεκτήμην
future	future indicative		future perfect indicative
	κτήσομαι		κεκτήσομαι

Note 1: As this table shows, there is no designated form referring to the present which expresses perfective aspect. The need for such a form is in fact limited, since speakers normally refer to actions occurring in the present only when they are (still) ongoing at the moment of speaking. There are, however, exceptions in highly specific kinds of context: for these exceptions, \rightarrow 33.20, 33.32-3, 33.54-6.

Narrative and Non-Narrative Text

- 33.13 The **type of text** in which an indicative (in a main clause) is used is often significant in interpretation. A (rough) distinction may be drawn here between **narrative** and **non-narrative** text:
 - Narrative text is storytelling: it relates (usually in chronological order) a sequence of actions that took place in the (real or fictive) past, and how they are related to each other. It normally contains a mix of imperfects/pluperfects and aorist indicatives together with less frequent historical presents. Examples: historical accounts, mythological tales, narrationes in oratory, messenger speeches in tragedy, etc.
 - Non-narrative text is everything else. Main verbs will normally be indicatives of the present, aorist, perfect and future stems, with other moods used apart from the indicative. Examples: most dialogue in tragedy/comedy, philosophical discussions, arguments, general descriptions of habits and customs, etc.

Note 1: Narrative and non-narrative passages can come in quick succession or mixed together. A clear distinction between the two is not always possible. For further discussion of 'text types' and more extensive examples, $\rightarrow 58.7-10$, 61.

The use of indicatives in narrative is treated in detail in 33.48–55, including some phenomena which are peculiar to narrative contexts.

Present Indicative

Basic Uses

- 33.14 The present indicative refers to actions that occur at the **moment of speaking**. By virtue of its imperfective aspect (incomplete), it is used by default to refer to actions which are **ongoing** at the moment of speaking:
 - (10) τί κάτησθε, ὧ Πέρσαι, ἐνθαῦτα; (Hdt. 3.151.2) Why are you sitting there, Persians?
 - (11) παραβοηθεῖθ', ὡς ὑπ' ἀνδρῶν <u>τύπτομαι</u> ξυνωμοτῶν. (Ar. *Eq.* 257) Help me: I'm being roughed up by conspirators!

Note 1: The ongoing action referred to by the present indicative may have begun long before the moment of speaking, and an expression of duration is sometimes added:

- (12) εἰ διδακτόν ἐστιν ἀρετἡ πάλαι σκοποῦμεν. (Pl. Men. 93b)

 We have long been investigating whether virtue is something that can be taught.

 Observe that Engl. here prefers a present perfect ('have been investigating').
- 33.15 The present indicative is also used to refer to **repeated** or **habitual actions**; the habit is in effect at the moment of speaking:
 - (13) οὖτος μὲν γὰρ ὕδωρ, ἐγὰ δὲ οἶνον πίνω. (Dem. 19.46)
 For this man tends to drink water, whereas I normally drink wine.
 - (14) πάντες γὰρ οἱ τῶν ἀρίστων Περσῶν παῖδες ἐπὶ ταῖς βασιλέως θύραις παιδεύονται. (Xen. An. 1.9.3)

 For all the sons of the Persian aristocracy are educated at the King's palace.
- 33.16 The present indicative may be used to refer to **general** or **timeless truths** which are continuously in effect (also \rightarrow 33.31 for the 'gnomic' aorist):
 - (15) ἄγει δὲ πρὸς φῶς τὴν ἀλήθειαν χρόνος. (Men. Sent. 11)
 Time brings the truth to light.
 - (16) τὰ δὶς πέντε δέκα ἐστίν. (Xen. Mem. 4.4.7)Two times five is ten.

Specific Interpretations

33.17 With **telic** verbs such as πείθω *persuade*, δίδωμι *give*, βάλλω *throw*, *hit*, the present stem may refer to an (unsuccessful) attempt, because it indicates that the end-point of the action has so far not been reached (imperfective aspect). This is called the **conative** interpretation of the present:

(17) ταῦτ' ἐστίν, ὧ Λάκριτε, ἃ τουτουσὶ πείθεις. (Dem. 35.47)
This is the opinion, Lacritus, of which you are trying to persuade these men.
Present indicative.

Note 1: The notion of 'attempt' is an *interpretation* (rather than an inherent feature of the present), relying on context and the combination of imperfective grammatical aspect and telic lexical aspect. As such, it is not limited to the present indicative, but available for any present-stem form of the relevant verbs. For the conative imperfect, \rightarrow 33.25. For other forms, \rightarrow 33.60.

33.18 With a number of specific verbs (all telic), the present stem may refer to the **ongoing result** of an action as well as to the action itself. This **resultative** use occurs particularly with the following verbs:

ἀδικέω be unjust, treat unjustly / have treated unjustly

δίδωμι give / have given

γίγνομαι be born / be a descendant ἥκω arrive / have arrived, be present ἡττάομαι suffer a defeat / be vanquished νικάω defeat / be victorious, have defeated

οἴχομαι depart / be gone τίκτω give birth / be parent φεύγω flee / be in exile

- (18) ἤκω Διὸς παῖς τήνδε Θηβαίαν χθόνα | Διόνυσος. (Eur. Bacch. 1-2)
 I, Dionysus, son of Zeus, have come to this Theban land. Dionysus is already in Thebes, so 'am arriving' is not a possible translation for ἥκω.
- (19) λέγει Κάλχας τάδε· ... ἀγάμεμνον, ... παῖδ' ... σἡ Κλυταιμήστρα δάμαρ | τίκτει ... ἡν χρή σε θῦσαι. (Eur. IT 16-24) Calchas spoke as follows: 'Agamemnon, your wife Clytaemestra has borne a child, whom you must sacrifice.' Interpreting τίκτει as 'is giving birth' is impossible (Iphigenia was clearly already born). λέγει is historical present, →33.54-5.

Note 1: This use is sometimes called 'present for perfect' or 'perfective present', as the present stem resembles the perfect stem in this use (this 'perfective' label should not be confused with perfective aspect).

Other present-stem forms of these specific verbs may also be resultative: for the imperfect, \rightarrow 33.26; for other forms, \rightarrow 33.60.

Note 2: οἴχομαι *depart, be gone*, when used with resultative meaning, is often combined with a participle expressing the manner of departure: \rightarrow 52.42 n.3.

Note 3: Similar, but not exactly the same, is the use of the present indicative of some verbs of hearing, learning, saying, etc., to refer to the content of an earlier speech or message. For instance:

ἀκούω hear / have heard (cf. Engl. *I hear that*)
λέγω say / have said (cf. Engl. *John here says that* . . .)
πυνθάνομαι inquire, learn / have learned

- 33.19 The present indicative of εἶμι go normally refers to the future: e.g. εἷμι I will go, εἴσι(ν) he will go, ἴασι(ν) they will go. Observe that this does not normally hold for forms other than the present indicative (impf. ἦα I went, ppl. ἰών going, etc.).
- 33.20 In certain highly specific contexts, speakers can refer to a single action begun and completed at (approximately) the moment of speaking the instantaneous present.

 In such cases the present-tense value of the present indicative is more important for its selection than the imperfective aspect expressed by its stem.

A frequent context for this use is that of **performatives**, first-person indicatives which describe the speech act of which they are part (and thus refer to actions that are completed as soon as the utterance is completed):

(20) νῦν οὖν σὺ μὲν φύλασσε τὰν οἴκωι καλῶς, | ... | ὑμῖν δ' ἐπαινῶ γλῶσσαν εὔφημον φέρειν | ... | τὰ δ' ἄλλα τούτῳ δεῦρ' ἐποπτεῦσαι λέγω. (Aesch. Cho. 579–83)
So now you (Electra) must watch what happens in the house carefully, and you (Chorus) I advise to keep silent; as for the rest, I call upon him (Apollo) to cast his glance this way. With ἐπαινῶ and λέγω, the speaker (Orestes) describes the speech acts he is performing.

The instantaneous present also occurs, rarely, in 'simultaneous narration', i.e. when a speaker narrates a sequence of actions as they occur in the present. This in fact occurs much more frequently when speakers present actions in the past *as if* they occur in the present — the 'historical present'. This use is treated separately in 33.54-5 (cf. also the 'present for the future', $\rightarrow 33.56$).

Note 1: For performatives expressed by an aorist indicative (the 'tragic aorist'), $\rightarrow 33.32$.

- 33.21 Questions with (τί) οὐ + first- or second-person present indicative are sometimes used as requests or suggestions (also →38.33):
 - (21) Τί οὖν, ἢ δ' ὅς, οὐκ ἐρωτᾶς; :: ἀλλλ' ἐρήσομαι, ἦν δ' ἐγώ. (Pl. Ly. 211d) 'Why not ask him, then?', he said. 'Indeed I will ask', I said.

The speaker observes, with such questions, that the action is not being carried out, and implies that it should be.

Note 1: For such questions with an aorist indicative, \rightarrow 33.33.

Imperfect

33.22 The imperfect, being built on the same stem, has the same basic values as the present indicative, but refers to the past. It is primarily used in narrative texts to provide background information; in this use it alternates with the aorist as one of the main ingredients of narration. This alternation is treated more fully below (→33.48–53), and some specifically narrative interpretations of the imperfect are treated there as well.

For the 'modal' use of the imperfect (in counterfactual statements, unrealizable wishes, and with verbs of possibility/necessity), $\rightarrow 34.15-18$.

Basic Uses

- The imperfect is used to refer to actions which are presented as **ongoing** in the past:
 - (22) καὶ ταῦτα πολὺν χρόνον οὕτως ἐγίγνετο, καὶ ἐγὰ οὐδέποτε ὑπώπτευσα, ἀλλὶ οὕτως ἡλιθίως διεκείμην, ὥστε ὤμην τὴν ἑαυτοῦ γυναῖκα πασῶν σωφρονεστάτην εἶναι τῶν ἐν τῇ πόλει. (Lys. 1.10)

 The situation was like this for a long time, and I never got suspicious, but I was so naive that I supposed that my wife was the most chaste of all in the city. Each of the imperfects expresses ongoing actions (ἐγίγνετο may also be interpreted as referring to repeated actions, →33.24). Contrast aorist ὑπώπτευσα, referring to (the absence of) a single action within the ongoing period referred to by the imperfects.
- 33.24 The imperfect is also used to refer to **repeated actions** in the past:
 - (23) οἵπερ πρόσθεν <u>προσεκύνουν</u>, καὶ τότε προσεκύνησαν. (Xen. An. 1.6.10)

 The very men who earlier used to prostrate themselves before him, prostrated themselves on that occasion too. Note the aorist προσεκύνησαν, expressing a single action.
 - (24) σὺ δ' αὐτὸν καὶ ζῶντα ἔλεγες κακῶς καὶ νῦν γράφεις κακῶς. (Unknown origin, cited at Arist. Rh. 1410a35-6)
 You used to speak ill about him while he was alive, and now (that he is dead) you write ill about him as well.

Note 1: To express emphatically that an action occurred on repeated occasions, $\check{\alpha}\nu$ is sometimes added to the imperfect or a risk indicative. In this use, $\check{\alpha}\nu$ is called **iterative**:

- (25) ὁ δὲ χορός γ' ἤρειδεν ὁρμαθούς ἄν | μελῶν ἐφεξῆς τέτταρας. (Ar. Ran. 914)
 And the chorus would hurl forth four strings of lyrics, one after the other.
- (26) σαφὲς δ' ἄν εἶπεν οὐδὲ ἔν. (Ar. Ran. 927)
 And he would not say a single thing that was intelligible.

In this scene of the Frogs, Euripides is discussing dramatic techniques that Aeschylus used time and time again in his plays. The difference between the

imperfect (ἤρειδεν) and aorist indicative (εἶπεν) in these cases is purely aspectual (note ἐφεξῆς in (25), referring to repeated actions, and ἕν in (26), referring to (the absence of) a single action).

The combination of a secondary indicative (i.e. impf. or aor. ind.) with $\alpha \nu$ occurs much more frequently in the counterfactual use, for which $\rightarrow 34.16$.

Specific Interpretations

- 33.25 Like the present indicative (\rightarrow 33.17), and more often than it, the imperfect of telic verbs may refer to an (unsuccessful) attempt, thus eliciting a **conative** interpretation:
 - (27) Νέων δὲ καὶ παρ' Ἀριστάρχου ἄλλοι ἔπειθον ἀποτρέπεσθαι· οἱ δ' οὐχ ὑπήκουον. (Xen. An. 7.3.7)

 Neon and others from Aristarchus tried to persuade them to turn back, but they would not listen.
 - (28) ή Ἀβουλία ἀτυχία δοκεῖ εἶναι, ὡς οὐ βαλόντος οὐδὲ τυχόντος οὖ τ᾽ ἔβαλλε. (Pl. Cra. 420c)

The word ἀβουλία seems to refer to a failure to hit, as if someone missed and did not hit the target which he aimed for (*tried to hit*).

Note 1: Related to the conative use is the use of the imperfect of telic verbs to refer to actions which were **likely** or **about** to happen, but in the end did not:

- (29) μεταρσία ληφθεῖσ' ἐκαινόμην ξίφει. | ἀλλ' ἐξέκλεψεν ... | Ἄρτεμις (Eur. IT 27-8)
 I was lifted high in the air and about to be killed by the sword. But Artemis stole me away.
- 33.26 Verbs whose present stem may have a **resultative** sense (\rightarrow 33.18) can also be so used in the imperfect; with several such verbs, such as ἥκω *arrive/have arrived*, νικάω *defeat/be victorious*, the resultative sense is, in fact, the default interpretation of the imperfect:
 - (30) περὶ αὐτῶν ὁ Θεμιστοκλῆς τοῖς Ἀθηναίοις κρύφα πέμπει κελεύων . . . μἡ ἀφεῖναι πρὶν ἄν αὐτοὶ πάλιν κομισθῶσιν (ἤδη γὰρ καὶ ἦκον αὐτῷ οἱ ξυμπρέσβεις). (Thuc. 1.91.3)
 - Concerning these men, Themistocles sent a secret message to the Athenians not to let them go before they themselves had returned (for his fellow ambassadors had now also arrived). $\tilde{\eta}\delta\eta$ and the wider context make it clear that $\tilde{\eta}\mu\nu\nu$ cannot be interpreted as 'were arriving'. $\pi \epsilon \mu \pi \epsilon i$ is historical present, $\rightarrow 33.54-5$.

Aorist Indicative

The agrist indicative is used very often in narrative texts (for details on its use there, \rightarrow 33.48-9); however, it also has a few specific uses outside narrative.

For the 'modal' use of the aorist (in counterfactual statements, unrealizable wishes, etc.), $\rightarrow 34.15-18$.

Basic Uses

- 33.28 The agrist indicative is used to present the occurrence of an action in the past, without reference to its duration or process, but presenting the action as a single, uninterruptable whole. As such, the agrist is the default tense in narrative texts to record single, complete actions:
 - (31) σκοπούς δὲ καταστήσας συνέλεξε τούς στρατιώτας καὶ ἔλεξεν· ... (Xen. An. 6.3.11)
 - He posted watchmen, called his troops together, and spoke as follows: . . .
 - (32) ἄμα δὲ τῆ ἡμέρα συνελθόντες οἱ στρατηγοὶ ἐθαύμαζον ὅτι Κῦρος οὔτε ἄλλον πέμπει . . . οὔτε αὐτὸς φαίνοιτο. ἔδοξεν οὖν αὐτοῖς . . . ἐξοπλισαμένοις προϊέναι εἰς τὸ πρόσθεν. (Xen. An. 2.1.2)

In **non-narrative text**, the aorist is typically used to observe or conclude that an action has been completed by the moment of speaking. This is sometimes called the **constative aorist**:

- (33) ἔλεγε Ξέρξης τάδε· ... ὑμέας νῦν ἐγὼ συνέλεξα, ἵνα ... (Hdt. 7.8-8α.2)
 Xerxes spoke as follows: 'I have now called you together, in order that ...'
 Aorist indicative συνέλεξα, used in a speech by Xerxes (non-narrative text).
 Note νῦν, which locates the completion of the 'calling together' in the very immediate past.
- (34) <u>ἔδοξε</u> τῆ βουλῆ . . . (decrees)
 The Council has resolved . . .

Note 1: Observe the different translations in (31)/(33) and (32)/(34): whereas the English present perfect (*I have called, the Council has resolved*) is often the most suitable translation for the constative use, the simple past (*he called, they resolved*) is the most suitable translation of aorist indicatives in narrative.

Specific Interpretations

33.29 With **atelic** verbs (→33.8) such as γελάω *laugh*, βλέπω *gaze*, and particularly with **stative** verbs, such as πλουτέω *be rich*, βασιλεύω *rule*, ἐράω *love*, νοσέω *be sick*, ἔχω *have*, the aorist stem often leads to an **ingressive** interpretation (referring to the

beginning of a state; observe that perfective aspect is concerned with the 'boundaries' of an action, $\rightarrow 33.4-6$):

- (35) καί οἱ πάντα τε ἐκεῖνα διδοῖ καὶ πρὸς ἑτέροισἱ μιν δωρέεται ... οὕτω μὲν ἐπλούτησε ἡ οἰκίη αὕτη μεγάλως. (Hdt. 6.125.5)
 And he gave all those things to him and in addition gifted him with others.
 In this way, that family became very wealthy. διδοῖ and δωρέεται are historical presents, →33.54-5 below; for πρός, →31.6.
- (36) ἀποβάντες τοὺς ἀντιστάντας μάχη νικήσαντες τὴν πόλιν ἔσχου. (Thuc. 8.23.3) They disembarked, defeated those who met them in battle, and gained possession of the city.

Note 1: The ingressive interpretation is not limited to the indicative, but available for any agrist-stem form of the relevant verbs. For non-indicative forms, $\rightarrow 33.59$; cf. also $\beta\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\psi\alpha\varsigma$ in (5).

- The aorist of such verbs can, however, also be used as an expression of an entire period (viewed as a complete whole from beginning to end, without any interest in its component parts). This is the so-called **complexive** (or 'concentrating') use of the aorist. Typically, an **expression of the duration** of the action is included:
 - (37) Ἄρδυος δὲ βασιλεύσαντος ἑνὸς δέοντα πεντήκοντα ἔτεα ἐξεδέξατο Σαδυάττης ὁ Ἄρδυος, καὶ ἐβασίλευσε ἔτεα δυώδεκα, Σαδυάττεω δὲ Ἀλυάττης. οὖτος δὲ Κυαξάρη τε τῷ Δηιόκεω ἀπογόνῳ ἐπολέμησε. (Hdt. 1.16.1–2)

 When Ardys had ruled for forty-nine years, his son Sadyattes assumed the throne, and he ruled for twelve years. Alyattes then took over the throne from Sadyattes. He made war against Cyaxares, the descendent of Deioces. Herodotus details a succession of rulers, presenting some basic narrative facts about their exploits. In the case of Sadyattes, Herodotus uses the aorist ἐβασίλευσε to relate the simple fact of his kingship (with its duration), without going into any of the events that occurred during that period.
 - (38) αὐτοὶ δὲ Κυδωνίην τὴν ἐν Κρήτῃ ἔκτισαν ... ἔμειναν δ' ἐν ταύτῃ καὶ εὐδαιμόνησαν ἐπ' ἔτεα πέντε. (Hdt. 3.59.1–2)

 They themselves settled in Cydonia on Crete. They stayed there and prospered for five years.

Note 1: The complexive interpretation is, again, not limited to the indicative, but available for any aorist-stem form (for instance, βασιλεύσαντος in (37) is an example of a complexive aorist participle).

Non-Past Uses of the Aorist

- 33.31 The aorist is sometimes used in non-narrative text to express general tendencies, habits, procedures, etc. In this use the aorist does not seem to refer to the past: it is called the **gnomic aorist** (γνώμη saying, maxim; also 'generic' aorist):
 - (39) καὶ σώφρων <u>ήμαρτε</u>. (Thgn. 665) Even a wise man makes mistakes.
 - (40) ἐν δὲ ὀλιγαρχίη ... στάσιες ἐγγίνονται, ἐκ δὲ τῶν στασίων φόνος· ἐκ δὲ τοῦ φόνου ἀπέβη ἐς μουναρχίην. (Hdt. 3.82.3)

 In an oligarchy, factions tend to occur, and from these factions arises bloodshed; and from the bloodshed, the result is a shift towards monarchy.

Note 1: The gnomic agrist occurs with telic verbs ($\rightarrow 33.8$); it is not normally used with stative verbs, like $\xi \chi \omega$ have, $\beta \alpha \sigma i \lambda \epsilon \dot{\omega} \omega$ be king, etc. For truly 'timeless' truths the present indicative is used ($\rightarrow 33.16$).

- 33.32 In answers and reactions in tragic and comic dialogue, the first-person aorist indicative is sometimes used with verbs that refer to the performance of speech acts, such as ὄμνυμι swear, ἐπαινέω praise, οἰμώζω bewail, lament. This use of the aorist indicative in performatives is known as the tragic aorist (or 'dramatic aorist', 'instantaneous aorist'):
 - (41) ἐγημάμεσθ', ὧ ξεῖνε, θανάσιμον γάμον. | :: ἄμωξ' ἀδελφὸν σόν. (Eur. El. 247-8)
 I have entered into a deathly marriage, stranger. :: I lament your brother!

Note 1: The use of the aorist indicative for performatives, which are by definition perfective (by uttering the act, it is complete), makes sense given the lack of a present-tense perfective form in the tense/aspect framework of classical Greek (\rightarrow 33.12 n.1): the aorist is chosen for its aspectual value, in spite of its tense. Performatives may, however, also be expressed by the present indicative (\rightarrow 33.20). The co-existence of these two uses suggests that either tense (pres. ind.) or aspect (aor. ind.) could be emphasized. Note, however, that the tragic aorist is confined to a few specific genres (tragedy and comedy): variables such as register and metre may also have played a role.

- 33.33 Questions introduced by τί οὐ and with a first- or second-person aorist indicative are sometimes used as requests or suggestions (also →38.33):
 - (42) ΕΤ. τί οὖν οὐ διηγήσω ἡμῖν τὴν συνουσίαν, εἰ μή σέ τι κωλύει . . . ; :: ΣΩ. πάνυ μὲν οὖν. (Pl. Prt. 310a)

(Friend:) Let me have the story of your gathering, then, if nothing prevents you. :: (Socrates:) Certainly.

Note 1: For such questions expressed by the present indicative, $\rightarrow 33.21$. The aorist indicative in this use may suggest that the action should already have been carried out ('Why haven't you...?'), in which case it is not really a non-past use. Alternatively, as with the tragic aorist ($\rightarrow 33.32$ n.1), the aorist may be used purely for its aspectual value and in spite of its tense.

Perfect Indicative

Basic Uses; Active versus Passive

- 33.34 The **perfect indicative** signifies that an action has been completed in the past and that the effects of that action are in some way **relevant in the present**; frequently it expresses a more or less **permanent state in the present** which exists as the result of a completed action in the past:
 - (43) ἔτι δὲ χρήματα μὲν ὀλίγα, φίλους δὲ πολλοὺς κέκτηται. (Isoc. 21.9)
 As of now he possesses little money, but many friends (< has acquired).
 - (44) κεῖνος μὲν οὖν δέδωκε σὺν θεοῖς δίκην. (Eur. Tro. 867)
 That man, with the gods' help, has paid the penalty. κεῖνος refers to Paris, who is now dead his punishment for taking Helen.
 - (45) οἱ νόμοι ... περὶ ... τῶν δωροδοκούντων δύο μόνον τιμήματα πεποιήκασιν, ἢ θάνατον ... ἢ δεκαπλοῦν ... τὸ τίμημα τῶν δώρων. (Din. 1.60)

 The laws have prescribed only two forms of punishment concerning those involved with bribery: either the death penalty, or a fine amounting to the bribe tenfold. The penalties prescribed by law have relevance to the case in hand.
- Especially with telic verbs, **active forms** of the perfect are often used to emphasize the **responsibility** of the subject for the state that has resulted from a past action (they are particularly frequent in oratory):
 - (46) <u>γέγραφε</u> δὲ καὶ ταῦτα ὁ αὐτὸς Θουκυδίδης Ἀθηναῖος. (Thuc. 5.26.1)

 Of this, too, the same Thucydides of Athens is the author (< has written).
 - (47) ὅ δὲ πάντων δεινότατον οἱ συνεστηκότες <u>πεποιήκασιν</u> (καί . . . μηδεὶς ὑπολάβῃ δυσκόλως, ἐὰν τοὺς ἠδικηκότας ἐμαυτὸν πονηροὺς ὄντας ἐπιδεικνύω) . . . (Dem. 57.59)

And the worst of all things that the conspirators have on their conscience (< have done) (and let no one be offended if I show that the people who have done me wrong are villains) . . .

Passive forms of the perfect stem, on the other hand, usually indicate that the subject is in the state resulting from the action completed upon it. The emphasis in

such cases is not so much on the responsibility of the agent of the action, but on the current state of the subject:

- (48) τὸν Ὀλυμπιονίκαν ἀνάγνωτέ μοι | ᾿Αρχεστράτου παῖδα, πόθι φρενός | ἐμᾶς γέγραπται. (Pind. Ol. 10.1-3)
 Read me the name of the Olympic champion, the son of Archestratus, where it is etched firmly in my heart (< has been written).</p>
- (49) μῦ μῦ. :: τί μύζεις; πάντα πεποίηται καλῶς. (Ar. Thesm. 231)
 Muuh! muuh! :: What are you muuh-ing about? It's all done, well and good (< everything has been done nicely).</p>

Note 1: The perfect indicative is a **present tense**, referring to the moment of speaking (\rightarrow 33.2). Note that it has no augment, it uses primary endings (in the middle passive e.g. - $\mu\alpha_1$, - $\sigma\alpha_1$, etc.; for the active endings, \rightarrow 18.5), and, if followed by subordinate clauses, these are not in secondary sequence (\rightarrow 40.12, cf. (45)). The balance between these two components (present and past reference) varies: while a resulting state in the present is often the main focus, in other cases there is greater focus on the past action, the completion of which is presented as particularly relevant at the moment of speaking – the so-called 'current-relevance perfect'. Examples such as (44), (45) and (47) are sometimes classed under this heading.

Note 2: Differences of nuance between active and passive perfects are, of course, not restricted to the indicative. Observe, for instance, the implication of responsibility present in active ἠδικηκότας in (47).

Specific Interpretations

33.36 A number of specific Greek verbs, when they occur in the perfect stem, express an ongoing state without any clear reference to an (inferable) preceding action, and therefore function much like present-stem forms. These are sometimes called **perfects with present meaning** (but they do not differ in a real sense from other perfects). For instance:

```
be (by nature)
πέφυκα
                                         (φύομαι grow, be born)
           remember
                                         (μιμνήσκομαι call to mind; the pre-
μέμνημαι
                                            sent is rare until later Greek)
πέποιθα
            trust, have confidence in
                                         (πείθομαι obey, believe)
            be accustomed to
εἴθισμαι
                                         (ἐθίζομαι become accustomed to)
βέβηκα
            stand (firm)
                                         (\beta\alpha i\nu\omega go, walk)
ἕστηκα
            stand
                                         (ισταμαι come to stand)
```

A number of verbs occur (at least in classical Greek) **only in the perfect stem**, and do not have a corresponding present stem. Such verbs may be considered functionally equivalent to presents in nearly all respects:

οἶδα know δέδοικα fear ἐοικα be likely, be proper, appear
 εἴωθα be used to, be accustomed to

These normally have the pluperfect as their only past indicative (but note aor. $\xi \delta \epsilon i \sigma \alpha$ with $\delta \xi \delta \delta i \kappa \alpha$).

(50) γυνή ... οὐκ ἂν ἐξαπατηθείη ποτέ· | αὐταὶ γάρ εἰσιν ἐξαπατᾶν εἰθισμέναι. (Ar. Eccl. 236–8)

A woman will not easily be deceived: they themselves are used to deceiving.

(51) τῆς δὴ ταλασιουργικῆς δύο τμήματά ἐστον, καὶ τούτοιν ἑκάτερον ἅμα δυοῖν πεφύκατον τέχναιν μέρη. (Pl. Plt. 282b)

There are two parts to woolworking, and of these each is a part of two arts at once. Note that $\pi \varepsilon \phi \dot{\nu} \kappa \alpha \tau o \nu$ is coordinated with pres. ind. $\dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau o \nu$ (duals, $\rightarrow 21$).

(52) οἱ μὲν γὰρ εἰδότες ἑαυτοὺς τά τε ἐπιτήδεια ἑαυτοῖς <u>ἴσασι</u> καὶ διαγιγνώσκουσιν ἅ τε δύνανται καὶ ἃ μή. (Xen. Mem. 4.2.26)

For those who know themselves, know what things are good for them and recognize what they can and cannot do. *Note that ἴσασιν is coordinated with pres. ind. διαγιγνώσκουσιν.*

Note 1: The 'present-like' sense of these perfects is not limited to perfect indicatives: cf. e.g. $\epsilon i\delta \delta \tau \epsilon \varsigma$ in (52), which similarly expresses a state without reference to an (inferable) preceding action. For pluperfects, $\rightarrow 33.41$. For other forms, $\rightarrow 33.61$.

The four verbs δέδοικα, ἔοικα, εἴωθα and (especially) οἴδα, occur with some frequency in the subjunctive, optative, and imperative. With other verbs, forms of these moods of the perfect stem are typically very rare (except the somewhat more frequent pf. imp. pass., $\rightarrow 34.21$). With these four verbs, such forms are functionally equivalent to present-stem subjunctives, optatives, and imperatives.

33.37 With atelic verbs (→33.8), such as φοβέομαι be afraid, θαυμάζω be in awe, admire, νομίζω believe, the perfect stem often gives rise to a so-called intensive interpretation (marking an extreme degree of the state). Again, there seems to be no clear reference to an (inferable) preceding action with these perfects. For instance:

γέγηθα	be delighted	(γηθέω be pleased; rare in the present)
μέμηνα	be raging mad	(μαίνομαι rage)
νενόμικα	be convinced	(νομίζω <i>believe</i>)
πεφόβημαι	be terrified	(φοβέομαι <i>be afraid</i>)
σεσιώπηκα	maintain complete silence	(σιωπάω be silent)
τεθαύμακα	be very surprised, admire	(θαυμάζω wonder, admire)
	greatly	

The perfect is also so used with some verbs that refer to various ways of **making** sound:

λέληκα shriek (λάσκω cry)

κέκραγα scream (κράζω shout, rare in the present)

(53) πολλά δὲ θαυμάζων τῶν εἰωθότων λέγεσθαι παρ' ὑμῖν, οὐδενὸς ἦττον, ὧ ἄνδρες ᾿Αθηναῖοι, <u>τεθαύμακα</u>, ὁ καὶ πρώην τινὸς ἤκουσα εἰπόντος ἐν τῆ βουλῆ. (Dem. 8.4)

Although I am often surprised about the speeches that are usually delivered before you, men of Athens, I am positively astounded, more than at anything else, at what I heard someone say in the Council the other day.

(54) τί κέκραγας; ἐμβαλῶ σοι πάτταλον, | ἢν μἡ σιωπᾶς. (Ar. Thesm. 222-3)
What are you screaming about? I'll put a peg in you, if you don't shut up.

Note 1: The intensive interpretation is, again, not limited to the perfect indicative, but available for any perfect-stem form. For intensive pluperfects, \rightarrow 33.42; for other forms, \rightarrow 33.61.

- 33.38 The perfect indicative is occasionally used, especially after conditional clauses, for actions that have not actually occurred yet: these are thereby presented as already having had effect. This is sometimes referred to as the **rhetorical** (use of the) perfect, or the 'perfect for future perfect':
 - (55) τοὺς νόμους οὖν δεῖ τηρεῖν . . . ποιεῖν τοὺς ἀεὶ δικάζοντας ὑμῶν . . . εἰ δὲ μή, <u>λέλυται</u> πάντα, ἀνέωκται, συγκέχυται. (Dem. 25.24–5)

It is necessary that those of you who sit on a jury, protect the laws. If you don't, everything is dissolved, broken up, thrown into confusion (< has been dissolved, has been opened, has been mixed together).

Pluperfect

33.39 The pluperfect is used primarily in narrative text, where (like the imperfect) it serves to provide background information (\rightarrow 33.50). Being built on the same stem as the perfect indicative, it has the same basic values, but refers to the past rather than the present.

Basic Uses

33.40 The **pluperfect** expresses that at a moment in the past a state existed as the result of a previous action, or that the effects of a previous action were still in force and relevant at that moment in the past:

- (56) λογίσασθαι δ' ἤθελον αὐτῷ καθ' ἕκαστον ... οὕτω γάρ μοι ἀκριβῶς ἐγέγραπτο, ὥστ' οὐ μόνον αὐτά μοι τἀναλώματα ἐγέγραπτο, ἀλλὰ καὶ ὅποι ἀνηλώθη. (Dem. 50.30)
 - I was ready to reckon everything up for him item by item. For I had such an accurate account to hand that not only the expenditures themselves stood recorded, but also what they had been spent on. The pluperfects refer to the state of being written down, and provide relevant background information. Note the contrast with the aorist $dv\eta\lambda\omega\theta\eta$, which does not refer to a state resulting from the expenditure.
- (57) ὁ Δαρεῖός τε ἤσχαλλε καὶ ἡ στρατιἡ πᾶσα οὐ δυνατἡ ἐοῦσα ἑλεῖν τοὺς Βαβυλωνίους, καίτοι πάντα σοφίσματα καὶ πάσας μηχανὰς ἐπεποιἡκεε ἐς αὐτοὺς Δαρεῖος. (Hdt. 3.152)
 - Darius was bitter, as was his entire army, about being unable to seize Babylon. And yet Darius had tried every possible trick and device against them. The pluperfect emphasizes the ongoing effects for Darius of his previous failed attempts.

Note 1: Unlike the English (and Latin) pluperfect, the Greek pluperfect does not necessarily express a 'past in the past' ('John came back to class. He *had been ill* the week before': the Engl. pluperfect here is a relative tense, expressing anteriority to 'came'). This is because the pluperfect, like other Greek indicatives in main clauses, expresses absolute tense. To express past in the past, Greek can use any of the three past tenses (aorist, imperfect and pluperfect), with their normal aspectual values: it is the context which warrants an interpretation as past in the past:

- (58) ἐνταῦθα πόλις ἦν ἐρήμη ... · ἄκουν δ' αὐτὴν τὸ παλαιὸν Μῆδοι. (Xen. An. 3.4.7)
 There lay an abandoned city: in the past, Medes had lived/used to live there. The impf. expresses an ongoing action in the past; the adverb τὸ παλαιόν locates it in a more remote past than that of the previous sentence (ἦν).
- (59) τούς ... Ίμεραίους ἔπεισαν ... τοῖς ἐκ τῶν νεῶν τῶν σφετέρων ναύταις ... ὅπλα παρασχεῖν. τὰς γὰρ ναῦς <u>ἀνείλκυσαν</u> ἐν Ίμέρα. (Thuc. 7.1.3)
 - They persuaded the Himeraeans to supply weapons for the seamen from their vessels. For they had beached their ships at Himera. The aor. ind. expresses a complete action anterior to the action of the preceding sentence ($\xi\pi\epsilon\iota\sigma\alpha\nu$); note the particle $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\rho$ which signals that the new sentence provides explanatory information (taking a step back in the historical chronology), $\rightarrow 59.14$.
- (60) σπανιώτερα τὰ ἐπιτήδεια ἦν· τὰ μὲν γὰρ ἀνήλωτο, τὰ δὲ διήρπαστο. (Xen. Hell. 6.5.50)
 The supplies were more scarce: some of them had been consumed, others had been plundered. The plpf. forms express states in the past resulting from a previously completed action (the states themselves are in fact simultaneous with ἦν); note again the particle γάρ.

Specific Interpretations

- Perfects with a 'present-like' sense normally use the pluperfect as their regular past tense ('pluperfect for imperfect'):
 - (61) ἐφύλαττον αὐτὸν εἰ καὶ τὴν νύκτα ἑστήξοι. ὁ δὲ εἰστήκει μέχρι ἕως ἐγένετο καὶ ἥλιος ἀνέσχεν.(Pl. Symp. 220d)
 - They watched him to see if he would actually stay standing through the night, too. And he stood there until dawn came and the sun came up. $\epsilon i\sigma\tau\eta\kappa$ el expresses the state of standing in the past, without reference to a preceding 'coming to stand'. For the fut. pf. opt. $\epsilon\sigma\tau\eta\xi$ ol, $\rightarrow 20.4$ (form), 42.7 (use of the opt.).
 - (62) ἰδών δ' ὁ κῆρυξ τὰ ὅπλα . . . ἐθαύμαζε τὸ πλῆθος· οὐ γὰρ ἤδει τὸ πάθος. (Thuc. 3.113.2)
 When the herald saw the arms, he was amazed at their number. For he did not know about the disaster. οἴδα has no present-stem forms.
- 33.42 Like the perfect indicative (→33.37), pluperfects of certain atelic verbs may also be intensive:
 - (63) ἔξω . . . οἱ τῶν Ἀρκάδων ὁπλῖται παντάπασιν οὐκ ἀντεξῆσαν· οὕτω τοὺς πελταστὰς ἐπεφόβηντο. (Xen. Hell. 4.4.16)

The Arcadian hoplites did not come out to meet them at all. Such overwhelming fear did they feel for the peltasts. *Intensive pluperfect*.

Future Indicative

- 33.43 The **future indicative** presents the realization of some action in the future as (virtually) certain (more so than, for example, the 'potential' optative, →34.13). Depending on the context, the future indicative can be used for various communicative purposes, such as predictions, statements of intention, announcements, promises, threats, suggestions, etc.:
 - (64) τήνδε δείξω μὴ λέγουσαν ἔνδικα. (Eur. Tro. 970)
 I will show that this woman is not speaking justly. Announcement.
 - (65) οὔτοι καταπροίξει ... τοῦτο δρῶν. (Ar. Vesp. 1366) You won't get away with this behaviour. *Threat*.
 - (66) Θηβαῖοι δ' ἔχουσι μέν . . . ἀπεχθῶς, ἔτι δ' ἐχθροτέρως σχήσουσιν. (Dem. 5.18) The Thebans are hostile, and will become more hostile still. *Prediction. For* ἔχω + adv., $\rightarrow 26.11$. For σχήσω vs. ἔξω, $\rightarrow 15.25$.

Note 1: Future actions may also be expressed by $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$ + infinitive: $\rightarrow 51.33$.

Note 2: The future indicative is normally aspect-neutral, i.e. it may refer both to a single action seen as an uninterruptable whole, or to an action presented as ongoing or repeated in the future. For exceptions, $\rightarrow 15.25$, 35.30.

- 33.44 The second-person future indicative may be used in **questions introduced by οὐ**, with the force of an **urgent command**; prohibitions have οὐ μή:
 - (67) οὐ μἡ φρενώσεις μ', ἀλλὰ δέσμιος φυγών | σώση τόδ'; (Eur. Bacch. 792)
 Do not lecture me; rather, now that you have escaped from prison, hold on to that.

For this use, also \rightarrow 38.32.

Note 1: To express a strong command or exhortation, the future indicative is also sometimes used with $\delta\pi\omega_{S}$ ($\mu\dot{\eta}$). This is the construction of 'effort clauses' (\rightarrow 44), but used in main clauses. For this use, \rightarrow 38.34.

- The future indicative predominantly refers to an action that is situated in the 'actual' future relative to some other moment (in main clauses, the moment of speaking), as in (64)–(67). The future indicative may, however, also be used to express:
 - hypothetical scenarios and general truths (cf. Engl. If A is larger than B, B will be smaller than A; Oil will float on water);
 - inferences (cf. Engl. That'll be the postman).

In such cases the realization of the action does not necessarily lie in the future; rather, the sense underlying the use of the future indicative is that the truth of the statement will be ascertainable at some future moment (if reasoning is followed to its logical conclusion, or if evidence becomes available):

- (68) λείπεται δὴ ἐκεῖνος μόνος ... φίλος τῷ τοιούτῳ, ὂς ἄν ὁμοήθης ἄν ... οὖτος μέγα ἐν ταύτῃ τῇ πόλει δυνήσεται, τοῦτον οὐδεὶς χαίρων ἀδικήσει. οὐχ οὕτως ἔχει; (Pl. Grg. 510c)
 - The only possible friend that remains for such a man (a tyrant) is whoever shares his temper. That man will have great power in that city, and no one will wrong him with impunity. Isn't that right? This passage concludes a section of a (hypothetical) argument about how someone can avoid being wronged. The future indicative presents the conclusion as the logical outcome of the argument. Note the assent-seeking question $o\dot{v}\chi$ $o\ddot{v}\tau\omega_{S}$ $\ddot{e}\chi\epsilon_{I}$; (with a present indicative), by which Socrates asks his interlocutor to confirm that the reasoning holds.
- (69) Ἄκουε δή, ἦ δ' ὅς. Φημὶ γὰρ ἐγὼ εἶναι τὸ δίκαιον οὐκ ἄλλο τι ἢ τὸ τοῦ κρείττονος συμφέρον.
 ἀλλὰ τί οὐκ ἐπαινεῖς; ἀλλ' οὐκ ἐθελήσεις. Ἐὰν μάθω γε πρῶτον, ἔφην, τί λέγεις· νῦν γὰρ οὔπω οἶδα. (Pl. Resp. 338c)
 - 'So listen', he said. 'I claim that justice is nothing other than what is beneficial for the stronger. Why aren't you applauding my claim? Well, I suppose you won't want to.' 'Yes I do', I said, 'if only I learn first what it is that you mean. For I don't know that yet now.' On the basis of their preceding conversation, Thrasymachus draws an inference about Socrates' unwillingness to agree with him. Socrates challenges that inference in his reply.

Future Perfect Indicative

- 33.46 The (rare) **future perfect indicative** serves as the future tense of the perfect stem, and expresses that a resulting state will exist, or that the effects of a completed action will be relevant at some point in the future:
 - (70) σὲ δ' ἄλλη τις γυνή <u>κεκτήσεται</u>. (Eur. *Alc.* 181)

 Some other woman will have you (< will have acquired).
 - (71) ταῦτα ὅκως σοι πρὸ τῶν ἐπιμηνίων ἡμέρῃ μιῇ πρόσθεν <u>πεποιήσεται</u>. (Hippoc. *Mul.* 37.30)
 - Make sure that you have completed this treatment one day before menstruation (< will have been done by you). For strong commands expressed by $\delta\pi\omega_{S}$ (Ion. $\delta\kappa\omega_{S}$, \rightarrow 25.12) + fut. (pf.) ind., \rightarrow 38.34.
- 33.47 Specific interpretations of the perfect stem ('present-like', intensive, \rightarrow 33.36-7) may also be attached to the future perfect (in any of its forms, not only the indicative):
 - (72) ἤν τ' ἴδη λύκον, | κεκράξεται. (Eup. fr. 1.2-3 Kock)
 When he sees a wolf, he will cry out. Intensive with a verb of making sound (κράζω, →33.37).

The Alternation of Tenses in Narrative Text

Narrative text normally consists of a mix of aorist indicatives, imperfects, pluperfects and historical present indicatives, and within narrative each of these tenses performs specific roles. The following sections discuss this division of labour. For an extended example of narrative with discussion, $\rightarrow 61.1-3$.

Aorist versus Imperfect (and Pluperfect)

Aorist indicatives and imperfects are the main tenses of Greek narrative; both tenses locate an action in the past, but they differ aspectually. Imperfects, by suggesting that the actions they express are incomplete (imperfective aspect), typically do not 'push a story forward': rather they are used to 'set the stage' or to create a background/framework in which main events take place which do move the story forward. These main events, in turn, appear in the aorist indicative:

- (73) καὶ ὅτε δἡ ἦν δεκαέτης ὁ παῖς, πρῆγμα ἐς αὐτὸν τοιόνδε γενόμενον ἐξέφηνέ μιν· ἔπαιζε ἐν τῆ κώμη . . . μετ ' ἄλλων ἡλίκων ἐν ὁδῷ. καὶ οἱ παῖδες παίζοντες εἵλοντο έωυτῶν βασιλέα εἶναι τοῦτον δἡ τὸν τοῦ βουκόλου ἐπίκλησιν παῖδα. ὁ δὲ αὐτῶν διέταξε τοὺς μὲν οἰκίας οἰκοδομέειν . . . (Hdt. 1.114.1-2) Now when the boy (Cyrus) was ten years old, the following occurrence revealed him for what he was. He was playing outdoors in the village with others of his age. The boys in their games chose to be their king this one who was supposed to be the son of the cowherd. Then he assigned some of them to the building of houses. The imperfect $\xi\pi\alpha i\xi\epsilon$ 'sets the stage' for the events that take place (it forms the background against which the rest of the story is presented). The agrists είλοντο and $\delta_i \in \tau \alpha \xi \varepsilon$ are used to narrate the events that move the story along, while the children were playing (note the present participle $\pi\alpha i \zeta o \nu \tau \epsilon \varsigma$ 'while they were playing', implying simultaneity with ε [λ 0 ν τ 0; \rightarrow 33.57). Note further the aorist έξέφηνε, which summarizes the entire story by way of announcement (an imperfect here would have suggested that the 'revealing' served as background to other actions).
- (74) δμῶες πρὸς ἔργον πάντες ἵεσαν χέρας· | οἱ μὲν σφαγεῖον ἔφερον, οἱ δ᾽ ἦρον κανᾶ, | ἄλλοι δὲ πῦρ ἀνῆπτον ἀμφί τ᾽ ἐσχάραις | λέβητας ἄρθουν· πᾶσα δ᾽ ἐκτύπει στέγη. | . . . ἐκ κανοῦ δ᾽ ἐλὼν | Αἴγισθος ὀρθὴν σφαγίδα, μοσχείαν τρίχα | τεμὼν ἐφ᾽ άγνὸν πῦρ ἔθηκε δεξιᾳ. (Eur. El. 799–812)
 The slaves all applied their hands to the work. Some brought a sacrificial bowl, others took up baskets, while others kindled fire and set cauldrons around the hearth: the whole house was clattering with the sound. And Aegisthus took from a basket a long straight knife, and cutting off some of the calf's hair laid it with his right hand on the sacred fire. A long series of imperfects (here abbreviated) paints a scene which forms the background against which the main events of the sacrifice, starting with the aorist ἔθημε, take place.
- 33.50 Like the imperfect, the **pluperfect** often sketches the **background** circumstances under which main actions take place:
 - (75) φθάνουσι τῶν Πλαταιῶν καὶ οἱ ὕστατοι διαβάντες τὴν τάφρον, χαλεπῶς δὲ καὶ βιαίως· κρύσταλλός τε γὰρ ἐπεπήγει οὐ βέβαιος ἐν αὐτῇ ὥστ' ἐπελθεῖν, . . . καὶ ἡ νὺξ . . . ὑπονειφομένη πολὺ τὸ ὕδωρ . . . ἐπεποιήκει. (Thuc. 3.23.4–5)

 Even the last of the Plataeans managed to cross the ditch in time, although with difficulty and effort. For ice had formed on it, not firm enough to walk on, and the snow that had fallen in the night had made the water deep. φθάνουσι is historical present, →33.54–5.

Special Uses of the Imperfect in Narrative

In its 'stage-setting' use, the **imperfect** of **telic** verbs may refer to actions which have clearly reached their end-point by the time the next action in a narrative

occurs. In such cases, the aspect of the present stem suggests that the action and its effects are not yet complete, and the imperfect thus **directs attention towards the consequences** of the action. This occurs particularly often with verbs of speech and verbs of commanding, when a reaction to a speech or command is expected:

- (76) ὁ μὲν δή σφι τὰ ἐντεταλμένα ἀπήγγελλε, τοῖσι δὲ ἕαδε μὲν βοηθέειν Ἀθηναίοισι ... (Hdt. 6.106.3)
 So he delivered the message with which he had been charged, and they decided to come to the Athenians' aid. The reason for the use of the impf. is obviously not that the narrator is interested in something else that happened during the delivery of the message, and the narrator immediately moves on to what happened after it (contrast (4) and (73)–(74)); rather, the imperfect suggests that with ἀπήγγελλε, this 'episode' of the narrative is not yet complete,
- (77) ἐκεῖθεν δὲ τῇ ὑστεραίᾳ ἔπλεον οἱ Ἀθηναῖοι ἐπὶ Κύζικον. οἱ δὲ Κυζικηνοὶ τῶν Πελοποννησίων καὶ Φαρναβάζου ἐκλιπόντων αὐτὴν <u>ἐδέχοντο</u> τοὺς Ἀθηναίους- Ἀλκιβιάδης δὲ μείνας αὐτοῦ εἴκοσιν ἡμέρας καὶ χρήματα πολλὰ λαβών παρὰ τῶν Κυζικηνῶν, οὐδὲν ἄλλο κακὸν ἐργασάμενος ἐν τῇ πόλει ἀπέπλευσεν εἰς Προκόννησον. (Xen. Hell. 1.1.18–20)

and focuses attention on the reaction to the message.

- 33.52 With **atelic** verbs, the imperfect in narrative may refer to an action in process immediately following on another action; this use is sometimes called **immediative** (or the 'imperfect of consecutive action'):
 - (78) καὶ τάχα δὴ ἀκούουσι βοώντων τῶν στρατιωτῶν Θάλαττα θάλαττα καὶ παρεγγυώντων. ἔνθα δὴ ἔθεον πάντες. (Xen. An. 4.7.24)

 And soon they heard the soldiers shouting 'The sea! The sea!', and passing the word around. And then everyone was running.

Note 1: The terms 'inceptive' or 'inchoative' are sometimes used in grammars for this use of the imperfect, but they are misleading. Although the beginning of the action is implied (and the translation *began to/proceeded to* ... sometimes works), the imperfect expresses the

action *in process* rather than its starting point: indeed, the use of the imperfect implies that there was no clear dividing line between this and the preceding action (cf. Engl. *no sooner had* ... than ...). To refer to the beginning of an action, Greek may use $\eth \rho \chi \rho \mu \alpha 1 + ppl./inf.$ ($\rightarrow 52.27$) or the ingressive aorist ($\rightarrow 33.29$). The difference between such uses is clear in the following example:

(79) ώς δὲ πορευομένων ἐξεκύμαινέ τι τῆς φάλαγγος, τὸ ὑπολειπόμενον ἤρξατο δρόμω θεῖν· καὶ ἄμα ἐφθέγξαντο πάντες οἶον τῷ Ἐνυαλίω ἐλελίζουσι, καὶ πάντες δὲ ἔθεον. (Xen. An. 1.8.18)

When a part of the phalanx swerved out as they went, the part that was left behind began to run. And at the same time, everyone struck up the war cry which they raise to Enyalius. And next, they were all running. $\check{\alpha}\rho\chi o\mu\alpha i + inf$. explicitly indicates that one part of the phalanx began (i.e. was the first) to run; the ingressive aorist $\dot{\epsilon}\phi\theta\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\xi\alpha\nu\tau\sigma$ refers to the initial onset of the Greeks' war cry; next, the immediative imperfect $\dot{\epsilon}\theta\epsilon\sigma\nu$ puts the reader in the middle of the all-out charge that followed.

- 33.53 The **pluperfect** may be similarly used, even to refer to main events in a narrative. It then suggests that an action was accomplished completely in a very brief period, as if the resulting state existed almost immediately:
 - (80) ἐπεὶ δ' ἄπαξ ἤρξαντο ὑπείκειν, ταχὺ δὴ πᾶσα ἡ ἀκρόπολις ἔρημος τῶν πολεμίων ἐγεγένητο. (Xen. Hell. 7.2.9)

Once they had begun to give way, the whole acropolis had before long become free of enemies.

Historical Present

- 33.54 The **present indicative** is used occasionally to highlight **decisive or crucial events** in a narrative, often those that definitively change the situation in the narrated world; in effect, this so-called **historic(al) present** (or 'narrative present') makes it seem as if an action that occurred in the past occurs in the present and is, therefore, all the more urgent. It occurs nearly exclusively with telic verbs (thus verbs such as εἰμί be, κεῖμαι lie, are not normally used as historical presents):
 - (81) παρῆν καὶ ἡ γυνή. ἐσελθοῦσαν δὲ καὶ τιθεῖσαν τὰ εἵματα ἐθηεῖτο ὁ Γύγης. ὡς δὲ κατὰ νώτου ἐγένετο ἰούσης τῆς γυναικὸς ἐς τὴν κοίτην, ὑπεκδὺς ἐχώρεε ἔξω. καὶ ἡ γυνὴ ἐπορᾳ μιν ἐξιόντα. (Hdt. 1.10.1-2)

The woman appeared as well. Gyges saw her come in and undress. And, as the woman was getting into bed and her back was turned to him, he slipped away and was on his way out. And the woman spotted him leaving. The historical present $\dot{\epsilon}\pi o \rho \tilde{\varphi}$ marks the pivotal moment in the story that will have dramatic consequences for the woman, her husband the king, and his bodyguard Gyges.

(82) ὤσαντες δὲ τὴν θύραν τοῦ δωματίου οἱ μὲν πρῶτοι εἰσιόντες ἔτι εἴδομεν αὐτὸν κατακείμενον παρὰ τῆ γυναικί, οἱ δ᾽ ὕστερον ἐν τῆ κλίνη γυμνὸν ἑστηκότα. ἐγὼ δ᾽, ὧ ἄνδρες, πατάξας καταβάλλω αὐτόν. (Lys. 1.24–5)

And pushing in the door of the bedroom, the first of us to go in saw him still lying with my wife, and those who came in later saw him standing naked on the bed. And I, gentlemen, gave him a blow and struck him down. The speaker's violent reaction to the man he catches in bed with his wife is expressed in the historical present.

Note 1: The imperfective aspect of the present stem appears to play no role in the historical present, which usually presents actions as complete. For this, $\rightarrow 33.20$.

For other examples of the historical present cf. (4), (19), (30), (35), (75), (85), and especially $\rightarrow 61.1-3$.

- Authors make a fairly individual use of the historical present. In some texts it is not so much used at dramatic turns, but rather to 'punctuate' a narrative, dividing it up into separate sections by highlighting each new step:
 - (83) Κῦρος... ὡρμᾶτο ἀπὸ Σάρδεων· καὶ ἐξελαύνει διὰ τῆς Λυδίας... ἐξελαύνει διὰ Φρυγίας... ἐντεῦθεν ἐξελαύνει ... εἰς Κελαινάς (Xen. An. 1.2.5, 1.2.6, 1.2.7, etc.)

 Cyrus set forth from Sardis; and he marched through Lydia ... He marched through Phrygia ... From there he marched to Celaena. The historical present ἐξελαύνει here introduces each successive new stage in Cyrus' march.

Note 1: This use may be similar to the use of the English simple present in summaries and chapter headings (e.g. Henry Fielding, *Tom Jones*, Book 5, chapter 7, *In which Mr Allworthy appears on a Sick-Bed*). The reason for the use of a present tense in such cases appears to be that the information is presented as accessible at any time. On this analysis, this use is in fact closer to the 'timeless' use of the present indicative (\rightarrow 33.16) than to the historical present of 33.54.

- Just as the present indicative may be used to present past actions as if they occur in the present, it may also be used to present actions in the future as if they take place in the present. This present for the future occurs particularly in the language of oracles and prophecies: the future is seen as taking place in front of the prophet's eyes:
 - (84) τότ' ἐλεύθερον Ἑλλάδος ἦμαρ | εὐρύοπα Κρονίδης ἐπάγει καὶ πότνια Νίκη. (Hdt. 8.77.2)
 At that time, far-seeing Zeus and mighty Victory shall bring the day of freedom for Greece. The conclusion of an oracle, as reported by Herodotus.

Aspect Outside the Indicative in Main Clauses

Aspect and Relative Tense

- 33.57 Greek verb forms, other than those of the future stem, **do not inherently express** relative tense. However, in a number of subordinate constructions, anteriority or simultaneity is conventionally implied by the use of a form of a certain tense-aspect stem, by virtue of the aspect expressed by that form. Aspect tends to lead to a relative-tense interpretation when there is a clear, fixed point of reference given by the verb in the matrix clause:
 - with finite verb forms (indicatives, subjunctives and optatives) in **temporal** clauses (\rightarrow 47), causal clauses (\rightarrow 48), conditional clauses (\rightarrow 49), and relative clauses (\rightarrow 50);
 - with the oblique optative in indirect speech and thought (→41.9); time relative to the moment of speech/thought);
 - with the declarative infinitive (→51.25-6; time relative to the moment of speech/thought);
 - with participles (\rightarrow 52.4).

In such cases:

- **present**-stem forms, by virtue of their imperfective aspect ('not-complete'), tend to suggest that the action is not-complete *relative to the action in the matrix clause* (normally the main verb, $\rightarrow 39.2-4$), i.e. they imply **simultaneity**;
- perfect-stem forms, too, by referring to an ongoing state or ongoing effects (resulting from a preceding action), imply simultaneity;
- aorist-stem forms, by virtue of their perfective aspect ('complete'), tend to suggest that the action is complete relative to the action in the matrix clause, i.e. they imply anteriority;
- **future** forms always express **posteriority**.

Note 1: For the temporal interpretation of the indicative in indirect speech/thought and indirect perception/knowledge/emotion, \rightarrow 41.8, 41.10, 41.14, 41.15.

Some examples:

(85) ἐπεὶ δὲ πορευόμενοι ἐκ τοῦ πεδίου ἀνέβησαν ἐπὶ τὸν πρῶτον γήλοφον καὶ κατέβαινον ..., ἐνταῦθα ἐπιγίγνονται οἱ βάρβαροι. (Xen. An. 3.4.25)
And when, during their march out of the plain, they had ascended onto the first hill and were descending it, at that moment the foreigners attacked them. The main verb ἐπιγίγνονται (a historical present, →33.54) refers to an action in the past; in the temporal clause introduced by ἐπεί, aor. ind. ἀνέβησαν is anterior to that action, impf. (i.e. present-stem) κατέβαινον is simultaneous with it.

- (86) χρή δέ, ὅταν μὲν τιθῆσθε τοὺς νόμους, ὁποῖοί τινές εἰσιν σκοπεῖν, ἐπειδὰν δὲ θῆσθε, φυλάττειν καὶ χρῆσθαι. (Dem. 21.34)

 When you are instituting the laws, you should carefully look at what sort of laws they are, but once you have instituted them, you should safeguard them and abide by them. The present subjunctive τιθῆσθε expresses the institution of the laws in process, i.e. as an action simultaneous with σκοπεῖν; the aorist subjunctive θῆσθε in the second temporal clause is anterior to φυλάττειν and χρῆσθαι (procedures to be followed once the laws have been put in place).
- (87) ἀμόσας μὴ λαβεῖν δῶρα μηδὲ λήψεσθαι ... εἰληφὼς ἢλέγχθη ... εἴκοσι μνᾶς. (Aeschin. 1.114–15)
 Although he had sworn that he neither had taken bribes nor would take them, it was proven that he was guilty of accepting twenty minae. The declarative infinitives λαβεῖν (aor.) and λήψεσθαι (fut.) refer to actions which are anterior and posterior, respectively, to the moment of swearing (ὀμόσας). The aor. ppl. ὀμόσας itself implies that the action of promising took place before ἠλέγχθη.
- (88) (ἀδικοῦσι) τοὺς ἢ πεποιηκότας κακῶς ἢ βουληθέντας ἢ βουλομένους ἢ ποιἡσοντας. (Arist. Rh. 1373a13-14)

 They commit crimes against those who are responsible for mistreating them, or those who have intended to do so, or those who are intending to do so, or who are about to do so. The participles all refer to actions whose time is relative to that of ἀδικοῦσι: respectively simultaneous (πεποιηκότας; for the translation, →33.35), anterior (aor. βουληθέντας), simultaneous (pres. βουλομένους) and posterior (fut. ποιήσοντας).

Further Interpretations; Exceptions

- 33.58 The relative-tense interpretation which attaches to the forms listed above is a conventional one, but not a necessary one. In many cases, a choice of a specific tense stem leads to interpretations in addition to, or other than, that of a relative-tense relationship to the matrix verb. Some examples of such 'exceptions' are given below; for further discussion and examples, \rightarrow 51.26 with n.1 (declarative infinitives) and 52.4–5 (participles).
- Rather than implying anteriority (only), aorist-stem forms may be ingressive $(\rightarrow 33.29)$ or complexive $(\rightarrow 33.30)$:
 - (89) ἐπειδἡ δὲ Θησεὺς ἐβασίλευσε, ... διεκόσμησε τὴν χώραν. (Thuc. 2.15.2)
 When Theseus had become king, he organized the country. Aorist indicative in temporal clause with ingressive interpretation; note that the implication of anteriority still holds.

(90) πολλοί γὰρ καὶ χρημάτων δυνάμενοι φείδεσθαι πρὶν ἐρᾶν, <u>ἐρασθέντες</u> οὐκέτι δύνανται. (Xen. Mem. 1.2.22)

Many, after all, who are able to be careful with their money before they love, after falling in love are no longer able to do so. *Ingressive aorist participle.* Again, the implication of anteriority still holds.

Participles, in particular, sometimes express an action which is not anterior to that of the matrix verb, but overlaps with it entirely (from beginning to end). This is called the **coincident** use of the aorist participle:

(91) ἀπώλεσέν μ' εἰποῦσα συμφορὰς ἐμάς. (Eur. Hipp. 596)
She has destroyed me by speaking of my troubles. Both actions (ἀπώλεσεν and εἰποῦσα) coincide and are presented in their entirety.

For more examples of coincident agriculture, $\rightarrow 52.5$.

- Present-stem forms may, rather than being simultaneous (only), refer to actions which are presented as **ongoing or repeated**, invite a **conative** interpretation $(\rightarrow 33.17)$ or, with certain verbs, be **resultative** $(\rightarrow 33.18)$:
 - (92) πρότερον γὰρ οὐκ ἔχων πρόφασιν ἐφ' ἦς τοῦ βίου λόγον δοίην, νυνὶ διὰ τοῦτον εἴληφα. (Lys. 24.1)
 For although in the past I had no excuse on account of which I could give an account of my life, I have got one now, because of this man. Present participle referring to an ongoing action anterior to the matrix verb (note πρότερον, which rules out a simultaneous interpretation, and νῦν). The participle in such cases is sometimes called an 'imperfect participle'.
 - (93) τίνας οὖν εὐχὰς ὑπολαμβάνετ' εὔχεσθαι τοῖς θεοῖς τὸν Φίλιππον, ὅτ' ἔσπενδεν, ἢ τοὺς Θηβαίους; (Dem. 19.130)

 What prayers do you suppose Philip made to the gods, when he made his libation, or the Thebans? The present infinitive presents an action which is anterior to the matrix verb ὑπολαμβάνετε, as is shown by ὅτ' ἔσπενδεν. It presents the action of praying as a process (note that Demosthenes, through τίνας εὐχάς, appears to ask about its constituent parts). A corresponding direct speech would have impf. ηὔχετο.
 - (94) ὅστις δ' ἀφικνεῖτο τῶν παρὰ βασιλέως πρὸς αὐτὸν πάντας οὕτω διατιθεὶς ἀπεπέμπετο ὥστε αὐτῷ μᾶλλον φίλους εἶναι ἢ βασιλεῖ. (Xen. An. 1.1.5) Whoever came to him from the king, he always treated all of them in such a way that they were more devoted to him than to the king, and then sent them away. Present participle referring to a repeated action. διατιθείς is not necessarily simultaneous with ἀπεπέμπετο.

- (95) οὕτω μὲν ἑκάτεροι νικᾶν ἠξίουν. (Thuc. 1.55.1)
 In this way, both sides claimed victory. Declarative infinitive with resultative meaning ('that they had won'), specific to the verb νικάω.
- Perfect-stem forms of some verbs may be 'present-like' (\rightarrow 33.36) or intensive (\rightarrow 33.37), in addition to indicating simultaneity:
 - (96) ὁ δὲ Σιλανὸς δεδιώς μὴ γένηται ταῦτα . . . ἐκφέρει εἰς τὸ στράτευμα λόγον ὅτι . . .
 (Xen. An. 5.6.17)
 Silanus, afraid that this might happen, carried a report to the camp, that . . .
 'Present-like' perfect participle.
 - (97) ΣΩ. οὐκοῦν ἐὰν μὲν οὖτος ἐμμένῃ, γεγηθώς ἀπέρχεται ἐκ τοῦ θεάτρου ὁ ποιητής· ἐὰν δὲ ἐξαλειφθῆ . . . πενθεῖ αὐτός τε καὶ οἱ ἑταῖροι. :: ΦΑ. καὶ μάλα. :: ΣΩ. δῆλόν γε ὅτι οὐχ ὡς ὑπερφρονοῦντες τοῦ ἐπιτηδεύματος, ἀλλ' ὡς τεθαυμακότες. (Pl. Phdr. 258b)

 (Socrates:) Isn't it the case that if this motion is carried, the author leaves the theatre greatly pleased, but if it is stricken, he himself and his friends are aggrieved? :: (Phaedrus:) Certainly :: (Socrates:) Obviously not because they look down on the pursuit, but because they greatly admire it. Intensive perfect participles.
- Finally, **future-stem forms always express posteriority**, but may have additional nuances such as **result**, **purpose**, or **likelihood**, particularly in relative clauses and participles (also $\rightarrow 50.24-5$, 52.41, 52.49 n.1):
 - (98) καὶ αὐτῶν μία μὲν ἐς Πελοπόννησον ἄχετο, πρέσβεις ἄγουσα οἵπερ τά ... σφέτερα φράσουσιν ὅτι ἐν ἐλπίσιν εἰσί. (Thuc. 7.25.1)

 One of these (ships) went to the Peloponnese, carrying ambassadors who were to describe the hopeful state of their affairs. The future indicative in a relative clause expresses purpose.
 - (99) τοῖς στρατηγοῖς τὸ μὲν ἐνθύμημα χαρίεν ἐδόκει εἶναι, τὸ δ' ἔργον ἀδύνατον- ἦσαν γὰρ οἱ κωλύσοντες πέραν πολλοὶ ἱππεῖς, οἱ εὐθὺς τοῖς πρώτοις οὐδὲν ἄν ἐπέτρεπον τούτων ποιεῖν. (Xen. An. 3.5.12)

 It seemed to the generals that the plan was appealing but impossible in practice; for there were people on the other side (of the river) who would stop them, many horsemen, who would immediately prevent even the first comers from carrying out any part of the plan. The future participle (with article) expresses likelihood/ability.

Aspectual Interpretation in Temporally Fixed Contexts

33.63 There are many constructions, both in main and subordinate clauses, which have a **fixed temporal reference**, in particular an **absolute or relative future reference**. For instance, an imperative like 'Close the door' necessarily expresses an action

which is located in the future (the door is not closed yet at the moment of speech). An expression of purpose such as 'He closed the door in order to *have* privacy' necessarily refers to a situation (having privacy) which is located after the action expressed in the matrix verb (closing the door; for the term 'matrix verb', $\rightarrow 39.2-4$).

- 33.64 In Greek, the following constructions necessarily refer to the **future**:
 - the imperative (\rightarrow 34.19);
 - hortatory subjunctive, prohibitive subjunctive, and deliberative subjunctive $(\rightarrow 34.6-8)$;
 - the optative in realizable wishes (\rightarrow 34.14);
 - (usually) the potential optative (\rightarrow 34.13).

The following subordinate constructions refer to actions which are for the most part **posterior** to that of the matrix verb:

- (most) fear clauses (\rightarrow 43);
- effort clauses $(\rightarrow 44)$;
- purpose clauses $(\rightarrow 45)$;
- (most) result clauses (\rightarrow 46);
- most dynamic infinitives (after verbs meaning 'command', 'want', etc., \rightarrow 51.8–17).
- In each of these constructions, both present-stem and aorist-stem forms may be used (perfect-stem forms are considerably more rare). As the temporal reference of the verb form used in such constructions is predetermined by the construction itself, the different stems are in **aspectual opposition only**. The choice for one form or the other depends on the speaker's subjective choices in presenting an action as complete or incomplete, given various possible connotations of these two aspects (repeated vs. single actions, general procedures vs. specific instances, ongoing/interruptable processes vs. uninterruptable actions, etc., as well as interpretations such as 'conative', 'ingressive', 'complexive', etc.):
 - (100) σκοπεῖτε δή καὶ λογίσασθ' ἐν ὑμῖν αὐτοῖς, εἰ ... (Dem. 20.87)

 Consider the case and decide for yourselves, whether ... The jurors are invited to engage in a process of deliberation (present imperative) and then to reach a single, definitive conclusion (aorist imperative).
 - (101) εἴπωμεν ἢ σιγῶμεν; (Eur. Ion 757)

 Should we speak up or keep quiet? Deliberative subjunctives, both referring to a possible action in the future: the aorist subjunctive εἴπωμεν expresses a single action presented as a complete whole, namely a single utterance the speaker could make which would irrevocably interrupt the continuous silence (present subjunctive σιγῶμεν).

(102) δεήσεται δ' ύμῶν οὖτος μὲν ὑπὲρ τῆς μητρός ... ὅπως δίκην μὴ <u>δῷ</u> ... ἐγὼ δ' ὑμᾶς ὑπὲρ τοῦ πατρὸς τοὐμοῦ τεθνεῶτος αἰτοῦμαι, ὅπως παντὶ τρόπῳ <u>δῷ</u>· ὑμεῖς δέ, ὅπως <u>διδῶσι</u> δίκην οἱ ἀδικοῦντες, τούτου γε ἕνεκα καὶ δικασταὶ ἐγένεσθε καὶ ἐκλήθητε. (Antiph. 1.23)

This man will plead with you, on behalf of his mother, so that she may not be punished. But I ask you, for the sake of my dead father, that she may by all means be punished. And you have become and been called judges for this very reason: so that wrongdoers may be punished. Subjunctives in purpose clauses (introduced by $\delta\pi\omega_5$, $\rightarrow 45.2$ –3). The speaker twice uses the aorist subjunctive (\deltainnv) $\delta\tilde{\omega}$ to refer to a single, concrete instance of punishment, without regard for the process or duration of these instances. However, he uses the present subjunctive $\delta i\delta \tilde{\omega} \sigma i \delta innv$ to refer to the punishment that criminals should face in general (as a repeated procedure, with no regard to its end-point).

- (103) καὶ δή σφι πρὸς ταῦτα ἔδοξε τῷ κήρυκι τῶν πολεμίων χρᾶσθαι, δόξαν δέ σφι ἐποίευν τοιόνδε· ὅκως ὁ Σπαρτιήτης κῆρυξ προσημαίνοι τι Λακεδαιμονίοισι, ἐποίευν καὶ οἱ Ἀργεῖοι τἀυτὸ τοῦτο. (Hdt. 6.77.3)
 - Therefore, in the face of this they decided to make use of the enemies' herald, and they carried out their decision in the following way: whenever the Spartiate herald signalled anything to the Spartans, the Argives did the same.
- (104) ἄμα ἡμέρη δὲ ἐς λόγους προεκαλέετο τοὺς Βαρκαίους. οἱ δὲ ἀσπαστῶς ὑπήκουσαν, ἐς ὅ σφι <u>ἕαδε</u> ὁμολογίη χρήσασθαι. τὴν δὲ ὁμολογίην ἐποιεῦντο τοιἡνδε τινά, . . . (Hdt. 4.201.2)

When day came, he invited the Barcaeans to talks. They readily consented, (and they talked) until they decided to come to an agreement. The agreement they made was something like this, . . .

The present infinitive $\chi\rho\tilde{\alpha}\sigma\theta\alpha$ in (103) refers to a line of conduct, to be carried out in repeated actions. The aorist infinitive $\chi\rho\dot{\eta}\sigma\alpha\sigma\theta\alpha$ in (104) by contrast, receives an ingressive interpretation, in that it refers to the reaching of an agreement.

Also cf. (6)–(7) above.

Note 1: Observe that, despite the fact that these constructions normally have a future/ posterior reference, future stem forms are not used. The main exception are 'effort clauses', which also necessarily have a posterior time reference, but are construed with a future indicative (or optative); $\rightarrow 44$. For the use of the future infinitive after $\partial h = \partial h = \partial h$ δμνυμι swear, state under oath, $\rightarrow 51.31$.

Note 2: Perfect-stem forms are rare in each of these constructions, apart from forms of verbs which typically occur only in the perfect stem (such as o $\bar{1}\delta\alpha$; $\rightarrow 33.36$). When perfect forms do appear, the stem has its typical aspectual value(s), for which $\rightarrow 33.6-7$, 33.34-5. For the perfect imperative, also $\rightarrow 34.21$.

For further discussion and examples, $\rightarrow 38.30$ (imperatives and subjunctives in commands), 38.41 (wishes), 51.15 (dynamic infinitives).

The Verb: Mood

Introduction to Moods

- A distinction should be drawn between moods as they are **used in main clauses** and moods which are grammatically required in various types of subordinate clause. The moods used in subordinate clauses are treated in 40.5–16 and in the relevant chapters, 41–50. An overview of all uses of moods is provided in 54.
- 34.2 The various moods of the Greek verb are used in main clauses to express different communicative functions (for more on this, \rightarrow 38) and different attitudes on the part of the speaker towards an action, in terms of its reality or desirability. For example:
 - (1) καλὸν τὸ πῶμα δαιτὶ πρὸς καλῆ <u>δίδως</u>. (Eur. *Cyc.* 419)

 You offer me a fine drink on top of a fine meal. δίδως = 2 sg. pres. <u>indicative</u> act.: the speaker states, asserts that the addressee is giving.
 - (2) πλέων δὲ τὸν σκύφον δίδου μόνον. (Eur. Cyc. 556)
 Just give me the cup when it is full. δίδου = 2 sg. pres. <u>imperative</u> act.: the speaker orders the addressee to give.
 - (3) ὧ Ζεῦ, διδοίης τοῖσι τοιούτοισιν εὖ. (Soph. OC 642)
 Zeus, may you provide such men well. διδοίης = 2 sg. pres. optative act.: the speaker wishes, hopes that the addressee may give.
- 34.3 The nuances expressed by an individual mood in a main clause depend on various factors:
 - the type of sentence in which the verb stands (declarative, interrogative, directive, →38.1);
 - the presence of the **modal particle** $\alpha \nu$ ($\rightarrow 34.4$);
 - the presence of a **negative** (οὐ, μή);
 - the **person** of the verb (first, second, third);
 - the tense/aspect of the verb;
 - other contextual factors.
- 34.4 Several of the Greek moods may be combined with the **modal particle αν**. The precise function of this particle varies depending on the mood with which it is combined (for an overview, →55). **In main clauses**, the basic function of constructions with αν is to qualify the **likelihood** of the realization of the action. For example:

action will occur.

- (4) τοσούτῳ δ' ἄν δικαιότερον οὖτος ἀποθάνοι τῶν ἐκ τῶν στρατοπέδων φευγόντων. (Lycurg. 1.131)
 This man would die that much more justly than those who have deserted the camp. Optative + ἄν; potential construction, →34.13; it is (still) possible that the
- (5) εὶ τὸ καὶ τὸ ἐποίησεν ἄνθρωπος ούτοσί, οὐκ ἄν ἀπέθανεν. (Dem. 18.243)
 If this man had done this or that, he would not have died. Indicative + ἄν; counterfactual construction, →34.16; it is no longer possible for the action to be undone, i.e. not to occur.

Note 1: $\[Delta v\]$ is not combined with the primary indicative, imperative, or future optative. For subj. + $\[Delta v\]$ in subordinate clauses, $\rightarrow 40.7-9$; for inf. + $\[Delta v\]$, $\rightarrow 51.27$; for ppl. + $\[Delta v\]$, $\rightarrow 52.7$.

Indicative in Main Clauses

34.5 The **indicative** is used in **statements and assertions of fact** (or expressions of belief presented as fact), and **questions about facts**, concerning actions in the past, present or future. For details of the use of the different tenses of the indicative, →33.11-55. For the indicative used in interrogatives to express requests, commands or suggestions (où + second-person fut. ind.; (τί) où + first- or second-person pres./aor. ind.), →38.32-3.

For the 'modal indicative' (in counterfactual statements and unrealizable wishes), $\rightarrow 34.15-18$.

Subjunctive in Main Clauses

Hortatory and Prohibitive Subjunctive (in Commands/Requests)

- 34.6 **Hortatory subjunctive**: in the **first person** (usually plural), the subjunctive is used both in positive commands and negative commands (with μή):
 - (6) ἀλλ' <u>ἴωμεν</u> ἐς δόμους. (Eur. *El.* 787) But let us go into the palace.
 - (7) <u>ἴδωμεν</u> δἡ εἴ τι λέγουσιν. (Pl. Chrm. 159b)
 Let us see if there is something in what they say.
 - (8) καὶ μὴ περιίδωμεν ὑβρισθεῖσαν τὴν Λακεδαίμονα. (Isoc. 6.108)

 And let us not overlook the fact that Sparta has been humiliated.
- **Prohibitive subjunctive**: in the second, and occasionally the third, person, to express a prohibition the **aorist subjunctive** with $\mu\dot{\eta}$ is used (not the aor. imp.; in the present stem prohibitions are expressed by $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + imp., \rightarrow 38.26):
 - (9) μὴ οὖν προδόται γένησθε ὑμῶν αὐτῶν. (Thuc. 3.40.7)
 Do not, then, become traitors to your own cause.

(10) ἀλλὰ μή μ' ἀφῆς | ἐρῆμον. (Soph. *Phil*. 486-7) No. don't leave me behind alone.

Deliberative Subjunctive (in Questions)

- 34.8 The **deliberative** (or 'dubitative') **subjunctive**: first-person subjunctives are used in questions, to express doubt about what action to take (in specifying questions, \rightarrow 38.4), or whether or not to proceed with a certain action (in yes/no-questions and alternative questions, \rightarrow 38.4). The negative is $\mu \dot{\eta}$:
 - (11) οἴμοι, τί <u>δράσω</u>; ποῖ <u>φύγω</u> μητρὸς χέρας; (Eur. *Med.* 1271) Woe, what should I do? Where should I flee from my mother's hands?
 - (12) πότερον βίαν <u>φῶμεν</u> ἢ μὴ <u>φῶμεν</u> εἶναι; (Xen. *Mem.* 1.2.45) Are we to call this violence, or aren't we?

Note 1: The deliberative subjunctive is also used in indirect questions, \rightarrow 42.8.

Note 2: In dialogue, deliberative subjunctives are sometimes introduced by βούλει/βούλεσθε or θέλεις do you want . . .; in such cases the speaker asks the addressee whether he/she should do something:

(13) <u>βούλεσθε</u> δῆτα κοινῆ | <u>σκώψωμεν</u> Ἀρχέδημον; (Ar. Ran. 416–17)
If you want, shall we make fun of Archedemus together?

Further Particulars

- 34.9 The combination οὐ μή + subjunctive expresses an emphatic denial, a strong belief that something will not be the case:
 - (14) κοὐ μή ποτέ σου παρὰ τὰς κάννας οὐρήσω μηδ' ἀποπάρδω. (Ar. Vesp. 394)
 And I'll never ever piss or fart on your fence.
 - (15) οὐ μὴ πίθηται. (Soph. *Phil*. 103)He will certainly not obey.
- 34.10 The combination $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + subjunctive (the construction of fear clauses, \rightarrow 43) is sometimes used in independent sentences to express an anxious, cautious or **tentative assertion** (negative $\mu\dot{\eta}$ oὐ). This occurs primarily in Plato:
 - (16) μἡ ἀγροικότερον ἦ τὸ ἀληθὲς εἰπεῖν. (Pl. Grg. 462e)
 I suspect it's too rude to tell the truth.
 - (17) ἀλλὰ μὴ οὐ τοῦτ' χαλεπόν, ὧ ἄνδρες, θάνατον ἐκφυγεῖν, ἀλλὰ πολύ χαλεπώτερον πονηρίαν. (Pl. Ap. 39a)
 - But, gentlemen, the difficult thing is perhaps not to escape death; rather it may be much more difficult to escape wickedness.
- 34.11 The difference between the use of present and agrist subjunctives in each of the constructions above is purely one of aspect, \rightarrow 33.63-5, 38.30. The perfect subjunctive is rarely used in these

- constructions (but the perfect has its normal aspectual value(s) when it is, e.g. μεμνώμεθα *let us remember*, hortatory pf. subj.).
- In classical Greek (unlike in Homer) the subjunctive is not used together with $\alpha \nu$ in main clauses, only in subordinate clauses. For the uses of $\alpha \nu$ + subjunctive in subordinate clauses, $\rightarrow 40.7-9$.

Optative in Main Clauses

Potential Optative with av (in Statements/Questions)

- 34.13 The **optative with** $\alpha \nu$ is used to indicate that the realization of an action is possible: the **potential construction**. This construction is used to express a range of nuances:
 - to describe actions that might hypothetically occur, or to make a weak assertion (i.e. to state something more cautiously than with the indicative):
 - (18) εἰ δοίητε ὑμέας αὐτοὺς βασιλέϊ . . . ἕκαστος ἄν ὑμέων ἄρχοι γῆς Ἑλλάδος δόντος βασιλέος. (Hdt. 7.135.2)
 Should you deliver yourselves to the king, each of you would rule over land in Greece at the bequest of the king. For the combination with εἰ + opt. →49.8-9.
 - (19) ἀρετὴ μὲν ἄρα, ὡς ἔοικεν, ὑγίειά τέ τις <u>ἄν εἴη</u> καὶ κάλλος καὶ εὐεξία ψυχῆς. (Pl. Resp.~444d)
 - Virtue, then, would as it appears be a kind of health and beauty and good condition of the soul.
 - (20) γνοίης δ' ἄν ὅτι τοῦθ' οὕτως ἔχει. (Xen. *Cyr.* 1.6.21) You might/could/may acknowledge that this is so.
 - the negative potential optative (with où) expresses an **emphatic negation**: it is not even possible that the action could occur:
 - (21) πρὸς βίαν δ' οὐκ ἄν λάβοις. (Soph. *Phil.* 103) You can never take him by force.
 - the second-person potential optative can express a **cautious command or request**; the first-person potential optative can indicate that someone cautiously takes **permission** to do something, or complies with an order or request:
 - (22) <u>λέγοις ἄν</u> εἴ τι τῶνδ' ἔχεις ὑπέρτερον. | :: . . . | λέξω, κελεύεις γάρ, τὸν ἐκ φρενὸς λόγον. (Aesch. Cho. 105-7)
 If you have a better way than this, please explain it (lit. 'you might say it'). ::
 I will voice my inmost thoughts, since you bid me to. Note κελεύεις, which makes clear that the potential optative is felt to be a request.
 - (23) ΜΕ. λέγ'· . . . :: ΟΡ. λέγοιμ' ἄν ἤδη. (Eur. Or. 638–40) (Menelaus:) Speak . . . :: (Orestes:) I will go ahead and speak, then. Note imperative λέγ', to which λέγοιμ' ἄν is a reaction.

Note 1: The difference between the use of present, agrist and (much less frequently) perfect optatives in the potential construction is purely aspectual, $\rightarrow 33.63-5$.

Cupitive Optative (in Wishes)

- 34.14 The **optative without** ἄν is used in wishes (**cupitive optative**), often with εἴθε, εἰ γάρ or ὡς. The negative is μή:
 - (24) <u>εὶ γὰρ γενοίμην</u>, τέκνον, ἀντὶ σοῦ νεκρός. (Eur. *Hipp*. 1410) May I die (*lit. 'become a corpse'*) in your place, child.
 - (25) ὧ παῖ, γένοιο πατρὸς εὐτυχέστερος, | τὰ δ' ἄλλ' ὁμοῖος. (Soph. Aj. 550-1) Child, I wish that you become more fortunate than your father, but equal in all other respects.
 - (26) μὴ πλείω κακὰ | πάθοιεν. (Soph. Ant. 928-9)
 May they suffer no more evil.

Note 1: For an overview of constructions used to express various kinds of wishes, $\rightarrow 38.38-42$. Note 2: The difference between the use of present and agrist optatives in wishes is purely aspectual, $\rightarrow 33.63-5$.

The perfect optative is rarely used in wishes, but has its normal aspectual value(s) when it is (e.g. $\tau \epsilon \theta \nu \alpha i \eta \nu I$ wish I were dead).

'Modal' (Secondary) Indicative in Main Clauses

34.15 The **secondary indicative** – i.e. the indicative of past tenses (with an augment): imperfect, aorist or pluperfect – is used in various constructions, some with ἄν and some without, to express **counterfactual** actions (or 'contrary-to-fact', 'unreal'). The indicative in these uses is called **modal**.

In Statements/Questions

- 34.16 The secondary **indicative with** αv is used in statements or questions to indicate that an action would occur or would have occurred under certain conditions which are/were *not* met. The conditions may be expressed by a conditional elclause (\rightarrow 49.10), a participle (\rightarrow 52.40), an adverb, or left unexpressed:
 - (27) ἔπραξαν ἀν ταῦτα, εἰ μὴ ὑπ' ᾿Αγοράτου τουτουὶ ἀπώλοντο. (Lys. 13.16)
 They would have done these things, if they had not been destroyed by this man Agoratus (but they have been).
 - (28) εἰ μἡ πατἡρ ἦσθ', <u>εἶπον ἄν</u> σ' οὐκ εὖ φρονεῖν. (Soph. *Ant*. 755)

 If you were not my father (*but you are*), I would say that you are out of your mind.
 - (29) καὶ μὴ γενομένης μὲν κρίσεως περὶ τοῦ πράγματος ἑάλω ἄν. (Aeschin. 1.85)
 Even if there had not been a trial about the matter (but there is a trial), he would have been convicted.
 - (30) τότε δὲ αὐτὸ τὸ πρᾶγμα ἄν ἐκρίνετο ἐφ' αύτοῦ. (Dem. 18.224) At that time, the matter would be judged on its own merits.

With a negative (où), this construction expresses that (even) if certain conditions were/had been met, the action would *not* occur/have occurred:

- (31) μἡ κατηγορήσαντος Αἰσχίνου μηδὲν ἔξω τῆς γραφῆς οὐδ' ἄν ἐγώ λόγον οὐδένα ἐποιούμην ἕτερον. (Dem. 18.34)

 If Aeschines had not gone beyond the written indictment in his accusation (but he has), I would not be making a single other argument.
- (32) σίγησε δ' αἰθήρ ... θηρῶν δ' οὐκ ἄν ἤκουσας βοήν. (Eur. Bacch. 1084-5)
 The air fell silent, and you would not have heard the shout of wild animals (if you had been there, but you weren't).

Note 1: The term 'counterfactual' should not be taken to mean that the action expressed by the indicative $+ \alpha v$ is itself necessarily contrary to reality: in the case of (29), for instance, the accused does in fact get convicted; in (32), the addressee in fact did not hear the shouts of animals. Rather, the *conditions under which* the action would have occurred are contrary to fact.

In most cases, however, it is *implied* that the action expressed by indicative $+ \, \check{\alpha} v$ is itself also contrary to fact: this is the case, for instance, in (27) (they did in fact not succeed), (30) (the matter was in fact not decided on its own merits), and (31) (Demosthenes is in fact digressing). In some cases, by extension, the counterfactual construction is used *to argue that* the conditions under which the action would have occurred must be contrary to fact, since the action expressed by the indicative $+ \, \check{\alpha} v$ did not occur:

(33) καίτοι οὖτοι, εὶ ἦσαν ἄνδρες ἀγαθοί, ὡς σὑ φής, οὐκ ἄν ποτε ταῦτα ἔπασχον. (Pl. Grg. 516e)

And yet these men, if they had been good men – as you claim – would never have suffered these things (but they did suffer those things, so they cannot have been good men).

Note 2: Examples such as (32) are often considered a distinct type (the so-called 'past potential') in grammars – a translation with 'could/might (not)' is possible. This occurs most often in cases with a generic or second-person subject, and in questions (e.g. τί ἄν ἐποίησεν; what could he have done?). There is no real difference between such cases and other counterfactual statements: the conditions under which a certain action would *or could* occur are not realized.

Note 3: The difference between the imperfect and the aorist indicative in this construction is one of aspect. In practice, the aorist indicative usually refers to something which would have happened in the past (cf. (27), (29), (32), but contrast (28)), while the imperfect usually refers to something which would be occurring in the present (cf. (31)), less frequently in the past (cf. (30), (33)).

The pluperfect indicative is much less frequently used, but tends to refer to a state which would exist in the present under certain counterfactual conditions:

- (34) μή γὰρ ὁμολογούντων τῶν ἀνδραπόδων οὖτός τ' εὖ εἰδώς ἄν ἀπελογεῖτο . . . καὶ ἡ μήτηρ αὐτοῦ ἀπήλλακτο ἄν ταύτης τῆς αἰτίας. (Antiph. 1.8)
 - If the slaves had denied this, he would be mounting his defence based on sure knowledge, and his mother would be clear (would (already) have been cleared) of this charge.
- 34.17 In some types of statement with a counterfactual nuance, čv is omitted:
 - The imperfect of impersonal verbs expressing necessity, obligation, or appropriateness (e.g. ἔδει, (ἐ)χρῆν, καλῶς εἶχε, etc.) can be used without ἄν to indicate that an action contrary to the one occurring is or was required:

- (35) <u>ἔδει</u> τὰ ἐνέχυρα τότε λαβεῖν. (Xen. An. 7.6.23)
 We ought to have taken the fortified positions then (but we didn't).
- (36) εἶεν, τί σιγᾶς; οὐκ ἐχρῆν σιγᾶν, τέκνον. (Eur. *Hipp*. 297) Well now, why do you keep silent? You shouldn't be silent, my child (*but you are*).
- The first-person imperfect ἐβουλόμην I would want/would have wanted is normally used without ἄν, referring to a desire for an action which does not/did not occur:
- (37) <u>ἐβουλόμην</u> . . . τὴν βουλὴν τοὺς πεντακοσίους . . . ὑπὸ τῶν ἐφεστηκότων ὀρθῶς διοικεῖσθαι· (Aeschin. 3.2)

 I would wish that the Council of the Five Hundred were properly conducted
 - by those who preside over them (but it isn't).
- The imperfect of μέλλω be about/going to (+ inf., →51.33) can be used without ἄν to refer to an action bound or likely to happen in a given counterfactual scenario:
- (38) ἔτι δὲ καὶ ἡ ἑτέρα θυγάτηρ ἀνέκδοτος ἔμελλεν ἔσεσθαι· τίς γὰρ ἄν ποτε ... ἔλαβεν ἄπροικον; ([Dem.] 59.8)

 Moreover, his other daughter would have been likely to remain unmarried. For who would ever have taken a woman without a dowry?

Note 1: In the first two of these uses, the necessity/obligation (ἔδει, (ἐ)χρῆν, etc.) or desire (ἐβουλόμην) itself does/did exist, but its 'target' is/was not realized: in (35) the fortified positions were not taken, in (36) Phaedra is silent; in (37) the Council is not properly presided over.

When imperfects such as ἔδει are themselves combined with ἄν, this indicates that the necessity or obligation *itself* does/did not exist (i.e. these are 'regular' counterfactuals):

(39) εὶ μέν που ἦσαν πεπαιδευμένοι, <u>ἔδει ἄν</u> τὸν ἐπιχειροῦντα αὐτοῖς ἀνταγωνίζεσθαι . . . ἰέναι ώς ἐπ' ἀθλητάς. (Pl. *Alc*. 1.119b)

I suppose that if they were well-educated, anyone attempting to contend against them would need to go as if against athletes (but they aren't well-educated, so there's no need).

Note 2: Observe that these uses may refer to counterfactual scenarios either in the present, as in (36)–(37), or the past, as in (35) and (38).

In Unrealizable Wishes

- 34.18 The secondary indicative is used without αν, but always together with either είθε or εί γάρ, to express unrealizable wishes (for something desirable that can no longer occur, also \rightarrow 38.39, with n.1). The negative is $\mu \dot{\eta}$:
 - (40) <u>εἰ γὰρ</u> τοσαύτην δύναμιν <u>εἶχον</u>. (Eur. *Alc*. 1072) Would that I had such power (but I don't).
 - (41) εἴθε σοι, ὧ Περίκλεις, τότε συνεγενόμην. (Xen. Mem. 1.2.46)
 If only, Pericles, I had met you then (but I didn't).

(42) εἴθε σ' εἴθε σε | μήποτ' εἰδόμαν. (Soph. OT 1217-18)
Would, would that I had never seen you (but I did). For εἰδόμαν (= εἰδόμην),
→25.46-7.

Note 1: The distinction between a orist indicatives and imperfects in such wishes is one of aspect. In practice, the agrist indicative is used in unrealizable wishes about the past, as in (41)–(42), the imperfect usually in wishes about the present, as in (40), sometimes in wishes about the past. The pluperfect seems not to be used in unrealizable wishes.

Note 2: Unrealizable wishes may also be expressed by a form of $\&\phi \in \lambda \circ \nu + inf$. For this construction and all other possible constructions of wishes, $\rightarrow 38.38-42$.

Imperative

- 34.19 The imperative mood is used in **second- or third-person directives** (commands, requests, etc.). The negative (for **prohibitions**) is $\mu\dot{\eta}$:
 - (43) ταῦτά μοι πρᾶξου, τέκνου, | καὶ μὴ βράδυνε. (Soph. Phil. 1399–1400)
 Do this for me, child, and do not delay.
 - (44) <u>λεγέτω</u> εἴ τι ἔχει τοιοῦτον. (Pl. Ap. 34a)
 Let him say if he has something of that nature.

In second-person prohibitions, the imperative is used only in the present stem (the prohibitive subjunctive is used for prohibitions with the aorist stem, \rightarrow 38.26): thus $\uparrow \mu \dot{\eta} \pi o i \eta \sigma o \nu$ (with aor. imp.) is not used.

34.20 The imperative can express a variety of nuances: peremptory commands, polite requests, suggestions, etc. Such nuances depend on the content of the directive and on the context in which it is uttered (the relative authority/status of the speaker and addressee, their relationship, the level of imposition on the addressee inherent in the requested action, etc.). The Greek imperative is thus not inherently impolite.

In some cases, the nuance expressed by an imperative is not properly directive:

- in expressions of (often sarcastic) **concession** or **resignation**:
- (45) ἐξημπόλημαι κἀκπεφόρτισμαι πάλαι. | κερδαίνετ' ... εὶ βούλεσθε ... | τάφω δ' ἐκεῖνον οὐχὶ κρύψετε. (Soph. Ant. 1036-9)
 I have long been sold out and traded away. Well, go on making your profit, if you want: you will not bury him!
- in greetings (specifically imperatives of χαίρω: χαῖρε/χαίρετε hello/goodbye, χαιρέτω farewell to him, etc.) and curses (e.g. βάλλ' ἐς κόρακας go to hell!).

Also \rightarrow 38.2.

Note 1: For an overview of constructions used to express commands, directions, exhortations, etc., and for the differences between such constructions, $\rightarrow 38.25-37$.

- 34.21 The difference between present and aorist imperatives is purely one of aspect, →33.63-5, 38.30.

 The perfect imperative occurs infrequently, except with a few isolated verbs (ἴσθι with οἶδα know, μέμνησο with μέμνημαι remember), and in the third person passive. The perfect has its normal aspectual value(s) in the imperative:
 - (46) ἀλλὰ περὶ μὲν τούτων τοσαῦτά μοι εἰρήσθω· πάλιν δ' ἐπάνειμι ὅθεν ἀπέλιπον. (Isae. 5.12)

 But concerning these topics, this much must suffice (let this much have been said): I will now return to where I left off. The perfect refers to a completed state.

Overview of the Uses of Moods in Main Clauses

34.22 The following table gives a summary of the uses described above:

mood		meanings / uses	negative
indicative		statements and questions about present, past and future	οử
subjunctive		'hortatory': first person exhortations	μή
		'prohibitive': second person prohibitions, with μή, aorist only	
		ʻdeliberative': first person doubtful questions emphatic denials with οὐ μή	
		doubtful assertions with $\mu\dot{\eta}$	
optative	αν	'cupitive' in wishes	μή
	+ ἄv	'potential' in statements and questions of possibility, cautious assertions	οử
modal (secondary	– ἄν)	unrealizable wishes (with εἴθε or εἰ γάρ)	οử
indicative	+ ἄν	'counterfactual' statements and questions	ν̈́ο
	- ἄν	impf. of impersonal verbs (ἔδει, etc.): unfulfilled necessity, etc.	
		ἐβουλόμην Ι would (have) want(ed)	
		ἔμελλον I would (have) be(en) going/likely to	
imperative		second and third person commands and prohibitions (second person prohibitions: pres. imp. only)	μή

The Verb: Voice

Introduction

Basic Terminology

Voice: Active and Middle-Passive Meanings

- 35.1 The category of **voice** pertains to **different ways in which the subject** of a verb form is **affected** by the action. The Greek voice-system derives from a basic two-way distinction:
 - A voice which is traditionally called active: this voice may be considered semantically neutral, in that it does not inherently say anything about the affectedness of the subject:
 - παρασκευάζει he makes (something) ready, he prepares (something)
 - The so-called middle-passive voice, which expresses that the subject is somehow affected by the action; the precise way in which the subject is affected may vary, so that a range of different meanings may be expressed by this voice, for example:
 - παρασκευάζεται he makes (something) ready for himself (the subject benefits from the action: indirect-reflexive meaning);
 - he gets ready, he prepares himself (the subject performs the action on himself: direct-reflexive meaning);
 - he is made ready, he is being prepared (the action is performed on the subject by someone else: passive meaning).

The different possible meanings of the middle-passive voice are treated below, $\rightarrow 35.8-29$.

Note 1: That the active voice is 'neutral' means that the subject of an active verb *can* be affected by the action: in fact, some active verbs express actions in which the subject is very clearly affected, e.g. ἀποθυήσκει he dies, πάσχει κακά he suffers evil.

When there is an opposition between active and middle-passive forms of the same verb (e.g. παρασκευάζει vs. παρασκευάζεται), the active verb nearly always takes an object or other complement (→35.8–16).

Active, Middle and Passive Forms

In the **present** and **perfect** stems, all different possible meanings of the middle-passive voice are expressed by a single set of forms (middle-passive forms).

However, in the **aorist** and **future** stems, different possible meanings of the middle-passive voice are realized by different forms. Traditionally, a distinction is then made between **middle** forms and **passive** forms:

παρεσκεύασε(ν) (3 sg. aor. ind. active form)
παρεσκευάσατο (3 sg. aor. ind. middle form)

he made (something) ready (active meaning: no indication of the affectedness of the subject); he made (something) ready for himself (indirect-reflexive meaning), →35.8-10; he made himself ready (direct-reflexive meaning),

 \rightarrow 35.11–12;

παρεσκευάσθη (3 sg. aor. ind. passive form)

he was made ready (*passive meaning*), \rightarrow 35.13–16.

Since no morphological distinction exists between middle and passive forms in the present and perfect stems, how to interpret them depends on the context, e.g.:

- οἱ Κορίνθιοι ... παρεσκευάζοντο ... νεῶν στόλον. (Thuc. 1.31.1)
 The Corinthians prepared an expeditionary force of ships for themselves.
 Indirect-reflexive meaning: the equivalent form of the aorist would be middle.
- (2) Κορινθίων νῆες παρεσκευάζοντο τριάκοντα. (Thuc. 1.27.2) Thirty ships of the Corinthians were prepared. Passive meaning: the equivalent form of the aorist would be passive.

For more details on the different forms expressing voice, \rightarrow 35.5–7 below.

Note 1: The terms 'active', 'middle' and 'passive' are used traditionally to describe both morphological distinctions and distinctions of meaning. This is often unfortunate, since, for example, not all 'passive' forms express passive meaning (e.g. ἢγέρθην *I woke up*, ἐβουλήθην *I preferred*; for these verbs, $\rightarrow 35.17$ and 35.26, respectively), and because some verbs have distinct forms expressing distinct meanings which nonetheless belong to the same morphological category (e.g. ἔστησα *I made stand* and ἔστην *I came to stand*, both morphologically 'active'; for an overview of this verb, $\rightarrow 35.35$).

Another term for the meaning of a particular voice is **diathesis** (ἐβουλήθην then has passive 'voice' morphologically, but no passive diathesis).

Below, several different meanings of the middle-passive voice are distinguished, and these are linked to the forms that may express them.

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Verbs with and without an Object; Causative Verbs

35.3 A useful distinction for the interpretation of Greek verbs with respect to voice is that between verbs which normally take an object or complement, and those which do not:

- Verbs that take an object in the accusative, or a complement in the genitive or dative, express actions in which two (or more) entities are involved, usually because one somehow affects the other. These verbs may appear in the passive (→35.13–15 below): e.g. τύπτω hit, παρασκευάζω make ready, γράφω write, φιλέω love, δείκνυμι show, display, ἐπιβουλεύω + dat. plot against, κατεργάζομαι finish, achieve.
- Verbs that do not take an object or complement express actions in which only one entity is involved; they take only a subject, and cannot normally appear in the passive: e.g. ἀποθυήσκω die, νοσέω be sick, βασιλεύω be king, βαίνω go, walk, εἰμί be, ἔρχομαι go, come, γίγνομαι become, be born.

Note 1: This distinction is traditionally described as one between 'transitive' and 'intransitive' verbs. In many current linguistic treatments, however, 'transitivity' is viewed as a scale rather than a binary opposition, and there are other reasons why the terminology is not always helpful in describing Greek verbs:

- 'transitive' is a term often reserved for verbs which take a direct object in the accusative, which wrongly suggests that Greek verbs taking a complement in the genitive or dative are intransitive;
- there are some Greek verbs, such as φοβέομαι fear, which do take an object in the accusative but which should not be seen as properly transitive (for this verb, →35.19; note that 'passive' aorist ἐφοβήθην means I feared, never I was feared).

In this grammar, we use 'intransitive' (intr.) only to clarify the sense of some English verbs used as translations of Greek ones, e.g. τήκω (cause to) melt vs. τήκομαι melt (intr.). For the difference between τήκω and τήκομαι, $\rightarrow 35.17$ (and the next section).

Numerous middle-passive verbs which do not take an object or complement, and which express a change of physical or mental state, have an active counterpart which does take an object; this counterpart expresses that an entity brings about that change in another entity. Such active counterparts are called **causative verbs**. For example:

ἐγείρομαι wake up
 ταμαι come to stand
 τήκομαι melt
 φύομαι grow (up)
 φαίνομαι appear, seem
 causative ἐγείρω cause to wake up, wake, rouse
 τόττημι make stand, set up
 causative τήκω cause to melt, melt something
 causative φύω cause to grow
 causative φαίνω cause to appear, show

There are also some causative verbs whose middle-passive counterpart does take an object or complement:

φοβέομαι + acc. be afraid of causative φοβέω make afraid, terrify μιμνήσκομαι + gen. remember causative μιμνήσκω cause to remember, remind

Note 1: The middle-passive forms of all these verbs tend to occur more frequently than the causative active ones.

The Morphology of Voice

Voice Distinctions in the Different Tense Stems

Each of the different tense-aspect stems has two or more distinct conjugations that differ in their expression of voice:

- present stem (\rightarrow 12):

active conjugations in -ω (thematic) e.g. παρασκευάζω, ἄγω, γράφω, and -μι (athematic) φαίνω, ἵστημι, δίδωμι middle-passive conjugations in -μαι (thematic e.g. παρασκευάζομαι, ἄγομαι, and athematic) γράφομαι, φαίνομαι, ἵσταμαι, δίδομαι

- aorist stems (\rightarrow 13-14):

active conjugations in -(σ)α ((pseudo-) e.g. παρεσκεύασα, ήγαγον, sigmatic) and -v or -κα (theἔγραψα, ἔφηνα, ἔστησα and matic and root) ἔστην, ἔδωκα middle conjugations in -μην ((pseudo-) e.g. παρεσκευασάμην, ήγαγόμην, sigmatic, thematic and root) έγραψάμην, έφηνάμην, ἐστησάμην, ἐδόμην conjugations in -θην and -ην passive e.g. παρεσκευάσθην, ήχθην, (θη-aorists and η-aorists) έγράφην, έφάνθην and έφάνην, ἐστάθην, ἐδόθην

- future stems (\rightarrow 15-16):

active	conjugations in -σω/-ῶ	e.g. παρασκευάσω, ἄξω, γράψω,
	(sigmatic and Attic)	φανῶ, δείξω, στήσω, δώσω
middle	conjugations in -σομαι/	e.g. παρασκευάσομαι, ἄξομαι,
	-οῦμαι (sigmatic and	γράψομαι, φανοῦμαι,
	Attic)	δείξομαι, στήσομαι, δώσομαι
passive	conjugations in -θήσομαι	e.g. παρασκευασθήσομαι,
	and -ήσομαι	γραφήσομαι, φανήσομαι,
		σταθήσομαι, δοθήσομαι

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- perfect stems (\rightarrow 18-19):

active conjugations in -α (kappa, e.g. παρεσκεύακα, ἦχα, γέγραφα, πέφηνα aspirated, mixed) and πέφαγκα, δέδειχα, ἕστηκα, δέδωκα middle-passive conjugation in -μαι e.g. παρεσκεύασμαι, ἦγμαι, γέγραμμαι, πέφασμαι, δέδειγμαι, ἕσταμαι, δέδομαι

Note 1: As these examples show, the voice system of some verbs is very complex: ἵστημι has two morphologically 'active' aorists and a total of four different aorists (ἔστησα, ἔστην, ἐστησάμην, ἐστάθην); φαίνω has four different aorists too (ἔφηνα, ἐφηνάμην, ἐφάνην, ἐφάνθην), as well as two morphologically 'active' perfects (πέφαγκα, πέφηνα). For an overview of these specific verbs, →35.35.

Verbs with Only One Voice; Verbs Switching Voice between Tense Stems

35.6 Some verbs have only one morphological voice: for instance, ἀσθενέω be weak, ἐθέλω be willing, have only active forms.

Verbs with only middle-passive forms (much more frequent than verbs with only active forms) may be further distinguished with respect to the type of conjugation they have in the agrist (and future):

- Middle-only verbs (media tantum): verbs that have middle forms in the aorist (and future), e.g. ἡγέομαι lead, guide, consider (aor. ἡγησάμην), κτάομαι acquire (aor. ἐκτησάμην), μηχανάομαι contrive (aor. ἐμηχανησάμην).
- Passive-only verbs (passiva tantum): verbs that have only passive forms in the aorist (and future), e.g. βούλομαι want, prefer (aor. ἐβουλήθην), δύναμαι be able (aor. ἐδυνήθην), φοβέομαι be afraid (aor. ἐφοβήθην).

For more details on middle-only verbs and passive-only verbs, $\rightarrow 35.21-9$ below.

Note 1: Middle-only and passive-only verbs are often grouped together and then called 'deponent' verbs (a term borrowed from Latin grammar): it is useful, however, to distinguish between the two categories, since they tend to express different kinds of meanings. **Note 2:** Several passive-only verbs do have middle forms in the future (but are still referred to in this grammar as 'passive-only'): for examples, $\rightarrow 35.31$

- 35.7 Many verbs **switch voice between tense stems**. Note in particular the following groups:
 - A large number of active verbs of moving, acquiring, perceiving and saying have a corresponding middle future, e.g. βαίνω go, walk (fut. βήσομαι), φεύγω flee (fut. φεύξομαι), λαμβάνω get, take (fut. λήψομαι), όράω see (fut. ὄψομαι); cf. also εἰμί be (fut. ἔσομαι). For a fuller list of such verbs, →15.40.
 - The verbs άλίσκομαι be captured, φύομαι grow, ἴσταμαι come to stand and δύομαι dive have corresponding active root aorists (→13.39–50) ἐάλων was captured, ἔφυν

grew, $\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\sigma}\underline{\tau}\underline{\eta}\underline{\nu}$ came to stand, and $\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\delta}\underline{\upsilon}\underline{\nu}$ dived. These verbs also have corresponding active perfects $\underline{\eta}\lambda\omega\kappa\alpha$, $\underline{\pi}\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\rho}\underline{\upsilon}\kappa\alpha$, $\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\sigma}\underline{\tau}\underline{\eta}\kappa\alpha$, and $\underline{\delta}\underline{\epsilon}\underline{\delta}\underline{\upsilon}\kappa\alpha$. For details, $\rightarrow 35.17$, 35.28.

Note 1: Apart from ἀλίσκομαι, each of these verbs has an active causative counterpart: φύω cause to grow, ἴστημι make stand, set up, δύ(ν)ω submerge, with a corresponding sigmatic aorist: ἔφυσα, ἔστησα, ἔδυσα.

- Several other active perfects (usually of the 'stem' type, →18.21) correspond to middle-passive forms in other tenses: e.g. pf. πέφηνα (φαίνομαι appear, seem), pf. ἀπόλωλα (ἀπόλλυμαι perish), pf. πέποιθα (πείθομαι believe, obey), pf. γέγονα (γίγνομαι become, be born). For details, →35.17 with n.3.
- Some suppletive verbs (→11.13) use different voices in their different verb stems: thus e.g. middle-passive ἔρχομαι go, come has active aorist ἦλθον, active ἐρωτάω ask has middle aorist ἠρόμην (in Attic), etc.

Middle-Passive Meanings

Indirect-Reflexive Meaning

35.8 With most verbs whose active forms take an object, middle-passive forms can be used – also with an object – to indicate that the subject has a special interest in (i.e. benefits from) the action expressed by the verb. This meaning is called **indirect-reflexive**.

Indirect-reflexive meaning is expressed in the aorist and future by **middle forms** (i.e. aorist $-\mu\eta\nu$, future $-\mu\alpha$ 1).

Contrast the following pairs of examples:

- (3) πλοῖα καὶ ἐπικούρους <u>παρασκευασάμενοι</u> διέβησαν ἐς τὴν νῆσον. (Thuc. 3.85.3) Having procured ships and allies they crossed over to the island. *Middle*.
- (4) ναυτικόν <u>παρεσκεύαζον</u> ὅτι πέμψουσιν ἐς τὴν Λέσβον. (Thuc. 3.16.3) They prepared a fleet to send it to Lesbos. *Active*.

The middle $\pi\alpha\rho\alpha\sigma\kappa\epsilon\nu\alpha\sigma\acute{\alpha}\mu\epsilon\nu$ oi in (3) indicates that the subject has prepared the ships and allies for their own benefit – they will use them; the active $\pi\alpha\rho\epsilon\sigma\kappa\epsilon\acute{\nu}\alpha\acute{\zeta}$ ov in (4) does not express whether the subject especially benefited or not (the subject is here preparing the fleet for someone else).

- (5) οὐ γάρ κώ τοί ἐστι υίὸς οἶον σὲ ἐκεῖνος κατελίπετο. (Hdt. 3.34.5)
 For you do not have a son yet such as he has left you. Middle.
- (6) κατέλιπε δὲ τούς τε ὄνους καὶ τοὺς ἀσθενέας τῆς στρατιῆς. (Hdt. 4.135.2) He left behind the asses and those of the army who were weakened. Active. The middle καταλείπομαι is used in the context of dynastic succession, as in (5). The royal family benefits from the birth of a son which may guarantee its continuation. In other contexts active καταλείπω is used, as in (6).

- (7) ἀπὸ ὁλυρέων ποιεῦνται σιτία. (Hdt. 2.36.2)
 They make food from a coarse grain. *Middle*.
- (8) οἱ ἀστοὶ ἄλευρά τε καὶ ἄλφιτα ἐποίευν. (Hdt. 7.119.2)
 The townspeople made wheat and barley meal. *Active*.

The food prepared in (7) is used by the subject of π o ϵ \tilde{v} τ α i themselves; the food in (8) is made by the townspeople for the Persian king.

Note 1: Indirect-reflexive meaning is usually easily recognizable by the presence of a direct object, as in (3), (5) and (7).

35.9 Observe the specific meaning of the indirect-reflexive middle with verbs such as:

 active
 middle

 αἰρέω take
 αἰρέομαι choose

 αἰτέω ask, demand
 αἰτέομαι beg

 ἀποδίδωμι give back
 ἀποδίδομαι sell

 γράφω write
 γράφομαι indict

μισθόω let, hire out μισθόομαι rent (for oneself)
τιμωρέω avenge, help (+ dat.) τιμωρέομαι take revenge on (+ acc.)
τίνω pay, atone τίνομαι make pay, avenge, punish
χράω give an oracle χράομαι consult an oracle

Note also that compounds of $\tau i\theta \eta \mu \iota$ and $\eta \eta \iota$ occur frequently in the indirect-reflexive middle, often with specific meanings: e.g. κατατίθεμαι deposit, lay aside (κατατίθημι put down), προσίεμαι admit, accept, allow (προσίημι let near). For other compounds of $\eta \iota$ τίθημι and $\eta \iota$ τίθημι, $\tau \iota$ 35.17 nn.1–2, 35.27 n.3.

35.10 Passive forms of these verbs normally have passive meaning: e.g. ἐποιήθην was done, ἐφυλάχθην was guarded. In some cases, passive forms express the passive variant of a particular indirect-reflexive meaning: note particularly αἰρέω take, middle αἰρέομαι choose (aor. εἰλόμην), passive αἰρέομαι be taken or (more often) be chosen (aor. ἡρέθην).

The perfect middle-passive of these verbs may, like the present, express both indirect-reflexive and passive meaning: e.g. $\pi \epsilon \pi \circ \int \eta \omega d\omega$ have done for one's own benefit (indirect-reflexive) or have been done (passive): the passive sense is much more common.

Direct-Reflexive Meaning

35.11 Primarily with verbs that denote a habitual physical treatment, like λούω bathe, κείρω cut hair, κοσμέω adorn, ἀλείφω anoint – so-called verbs of grooming – the middle-passive voice may indicate that the subject applies the action to himself: direct-reflexive meaning. A few other verbs whose middle-passive voice may have direct-reflexive meaning are παρασκευάζω prepare, γυμνάζω train, στεφανόω crown, τάττω array, δέφω knead (the middle δέφομαι means masturbate).

Direct-reflexive meaning is expressed in the agrist and future by **middle forms** (i.e. agrist $-(\sigma)\alpha\mu\eta\nu$, future $-\sigma\omega\mu\alpha$).

- (9) οὐκ ἐλούσατ' ἐξ ὅτουπερ ἐγένετο. (Ar. Plut. 85)He hasn't bathed since he was born.
- (10) ύπὸ ταῖς μορίαις ἀποθρέξει \mid στεφανωσάμενος καλάμω λεπτῷ. (Ar. Nub. 1005-6)
 - You'll run races beneath the olive trees, having crowned yourself with fine reeds.
- (11) μετὰ τοῦ <u>γυμνάζεσθαι</u> <u>ἠλείψαντο</u>. (Thuc. 1.6.5)

 In the course of their exercise they anointed themselves.
- (12) τοῖς αἰσχροῖς | ἐψήφισται προτέροις βινεῖν, | ὑμᾶς δὲ τέως . . . ἐν τοῖς προθύροισι δέφεσθαι. (Ar. Eccl. 705-9)
 It's been decreed that the ugly ones get to fuck first, while you have to jerk off in the doorway in the meantime.

Active forms of these verbs (which take an object) indicate that the action is performed on someone other than the subject:

(13) πρῶτον μὲν <u>αὐτὸν</u> ἐπὶ θάλατταν ἤγομεν, | ἔπειτ' <u>ἐλοῦμεν</u>. (Ar. *Plut*. 656-7) First we took him to the sea, then we bathed him.

Note 1: The middle of verbs that do not belong to this limited set of verbs cannot normally express direct-reflexive meaning: when the subject performs the action on himself this is expressed by means of a reflexive pronoun (ἐμαυτόν, etc.). Thus παιδεύεται cannot mean *he educates himself*, λύεται cannot mean *he releases himself* (instead, this would be παιδεύει ἑαυτόν, λύει ἑαυτόν). For example:

- (14) ρίπτει αὐτὸν εἰς τὴν θάλατταν. (Dem. 32.6)
 He throws himself into the sea.
- 35.12 Middles such as κείρομαι, παρασκευάζομαι, etc. may also have indirect-reflexive meaning, for which →35.8 above; this is the only possible interpretation when these verbs are construed with a direct object, as e.g. in (1) and (3). Passive forms of these verbs express passive meaning: e.g. ἐλούθην was bathed, ἐκοσμήθην was adorned, παρεσκευάσθην was made ready, ἐστεφανώθην was crowned. The perfect middle-passive of these verbs may, like the present, express all three meanings, e.g. παρεσκεύασμαι have prepared X (for one's own benefit) (indirect-reflexive), have prepared oneself (direct-reflexive), have been prepared (passive).

Passive Meaning

Passive meaning occurs only with verbs which take an object in the accusative, or sometimes with verbs that take a complement in the genitive or dative, \rightarrow 30.21, 30.39. The middle-passive voice in this case expresses that an action is performed

on the subject by someone else. The object/complement in an active construction serves as subject in the passive construction.

Passive meaning is expressed in the aorist and future by **passive** forms, usually by $\theta\eta$ -aorists, sometimes by η -aorists.

- (15) καὶ διητᾶτο παρ' ἡμῖν τὸν ἄπαντα χρόνον ὁ Ἀστύφιλος καὶ ἐπαιδεύθη ὑπὸ τοῦ πατρὸς τοῦ ἐμοῦ. (Isae. 9.27)

 Astyphilus lived in our house the whole time, and was brought up by my father. παιδεύω takes a direct object in the accusative: compare ὁ πατὴρ ὁ ἐμὸς ἐπαίδευσε τὸν Ἀστύφιλον 'my father educated Astyphilus'.
- (16) αἱ δὲ κῶμαι αὖται ἦσαν δεδομέναι ὑπὸ Σεύθου Μηδοσάδη. (Xen. An. 7.7.1)

 These villages had been given to Medosades by Seuthes. δίδωμι takes a direct object in the accusative: compare ταύτας τὰς κώμας ἐδεδώκει Σεύθης Μηδοσάδη 'Seuthes had given these villages to Medosades'.
- (17) ἐπιβουλευόμενοι διάξουσι πάντα τὸν βίον. (Pl. Resp. 417b)

 They will pass their entire life being plotted against. ἐπιβουλεύω takes a complement in the dative: compare ἐπιβουλεύει αὐτοῖς 'he plots against them'.

Note 1: η-aorists with passive meaning include ἀπηλλάγην was removed (ἀπαλλάττω remove; ἀπηλλάχθην also occurs, $\rightarrow 35.17$), ἐβλάβην was damaged (βλάπτω harm, damage), ἐγράφην was written (γράφω write), ἐδάρην was flayed (δέρω skin), ἐκόπην was struck (κόπτω hit), ἐρρίφην was thrown (ῥίπτω throw; ἐρρίφθην also occurs), ἐτύπην was hit (τύπτω hit).

The vast majority of passive agrists are $\theta\eta$ -agrists.

Note 2: The middle agrist of $\xi \chi \omega$ have, hold and its compounds may also have passive meaning:

- (18) οἱ νεηνίαι οὐκέτι ἀνέστησαν, ἀλλ' ἐν τέλεϊ τούτῳ ἔσχοντο. (Hdt. 1.31.5)
 The young men did not rise again, but ended their lives like this (lit. 'were held in this end').
- 35.14 The **agent** (the entity controlling the action) of a passive verb is often not expressed; it may, however, be expressed by:
 - ὑπό (sometimes παρά, πρός or ἐκ) + genitive:
 - (19) ἦ δεινὸν ... ἐλεύθερον ὄντα ὑπὸ δούλου ἄρχεσθαι. (Pl. Ly. 208c)
 It is really terrible as a free man to be commanded by a slave. Also cf. (15)–(16).
 - a dative of agent (→30.50), usually with perfect passives and adjectives in -τέος:
 - (20) ἀναμνήσω ὑμᾶς τὰ τούτω πεπραγμένα. (Xen. Hell. 2.3.30)
 I will remind you of the things that have been done by him.

- 35.15 Some active verbs take both an object and another complement in the accusative ('double accusative', →30.9), e.g. ἐρωτάω τινά τι ask something of someone, αἰτέω τινά τι demand something of someone. When such verbs are put in the passive, the object ('someone') is used as the subject of the passive verb, the second complement still stands in the accusative:
 - (21) ἐτελεύτησεν οὐ ... τὸν δῆμον αἰτήσας δωρεάς. (Din. 1.17)
 He died without having asked the people for gifts. Active, object and complement in the accusative.
 - (22) ἕν αἰτηθεὶς πολλὰ δίδως. (Pl. Tht. 146d)
 Although you were asked for one thing, you give many. Passive, with ἕν as complement in the accusative.

However, with verbs that take an object and a predicative complement (\rightarrow 30.10), both constituents are put in the nominative when the verb is passive:

- (23) Ἰφικράτην στρατηγὸν <u>είλοντο</u>. (Xen. An. 6.5.49)

 They appointed Iphicrates general. Active, object and predicative complement in the accusative.
- (24) ἡγεμών δὲ καὶ κύριος ἡρέθη Φίλιππος ἁπάντων. (Dem. 18.201)
 Philip was appointed leader and master of all. Passive, subject and predicative complement in the nominative.
- 35.16 A few active verbs which do not take an object may also serve as the passive to different verbs (suppletion, →11.13): ἀποθνήσκω die, be killed (passive of ἀποκτείνω kill); φεύγω flee, be prosecuted (passive of διώκω prosecute); ἐκπίπτω fall out, be banished (passive of ἐκβάλλω throw out, banish). Note also middle-only άλίσκομαι be captured (passive of e.g. αίρέω take). These verbs are construed as other passives (e.g. with ὑπό + gen. to express the agent).

Change-of-State Verbs

Change of Physical State or Position

35.17 Verbs that express a change of (physical) state by a spontaneous process, a change of body position or change of position of a group are often middle-passive. These verbs usually have active causative counterparts. The most common verbs of this type are:

Middle-passive		Active causa	itive
άθροίζομαι	gather, get together	άθροίζω	gather someone/thing
ἀπαλλάττομαι	depart	ἀπαλλάττω	remove
δύομαι	dive	δύ(ν)ω	cause to dive, submerge
ἐγείρομαι	wake up	ἐγείρω	wake, rouse
ἵσταμαι	come to stand	ΐστημι	make stand, set up
κλίνομαι	lean, recline	κλίνω	cause to lean
κομίζομαι	journey, travel	κομίζω	convey

(ἀπ)όλλυμαι	perish	(ἀπ)όλλυμι	destroy, lose
πήγνυμαι	be fixed, become solid	πήγνυμι	affix, fasten
πορεύομαι	travel	πορεύω	make go, convey
ρήγνυμα ι	burst, break	ῥήγνυμ ι	(cause to) break, shatter
στέλλομαι	set out, journey	στέλλω	dispatch, send
στρέφομαι	turn around	στρέφω	turn someone/thing around
συλλέγομαι	gather, come together	συλλέγω	gather someone/thing, collect
σφάλλομαι	stumble, err	σφάλλω	cause to stumble
σώζομαι	get to safety, escape	σώζω	save, make safe
τήκομαι	melt	τήκω	cause to melt
τρέπομαι	turn around (intr.)	τρέπω	turn someone/thing around
τρέφομαι	grow (up)	τρέφω	cause to grow, nourish, rear
φαίνομαι	appear, seem	φαίνω	cause to appear, show
φύομαι	grow (up)	φύω	cause to grow, bring forth, beget

Note 1: Observe the specific meaning of various compounds of ἴστημι: ἀνίσταμαι stand up (to speak) (ἀνίστημι make stand up), ἀφίσταμαι come to stand at a remove, revolt (ἀφίστημι set at a remove, incite to revolt), καθίσταμαι acquire a position (καθίστημι install, set down), ἐφίσταμαι come to stand at, gain charge of (ἐφίστημι make stand at, put in charge of), etc.

Change-of-state verbs usually have **passive forms** in the aorist ($\theta\eta$ -/ η -aorists) and future. A significant number of η -aorists belongs to this category. E.g. ἀπηλλάγην departed (also ἀπηλλάχθην), ἐπορεύθην travelled, ἐστάλην set out, συνελέγην gathered, ἐσφάλην stumbled, ἐσώθην escaped, ἐτάκην melted, ἐφάνην appeared, seemed.

However, the verbs ἵσταμαι *come to stand* (ἵστημι), δύομαι *dive* (δύ(ν)ω) and φύομαι *grow* (up) (φύω) have corresponding **active root aorists**: ἔστην *came to stand*, ἔδυν *dived*, ἔφυν *grew* (up).

Note 2: In some cases a thematic middle aorist occurs to express this meaning: e.g. ἀπωλόμην perished (ἀπόλλυμαι), ἠγρόμην woke up (ἐγείρομαι; next to ἠγέρθην), ἐτραπόμην turned around (τρέπομαι; next to ἐτράπην/ἐτρέφθην).

To this category also belong compounds such as ἐπιτίθεμαι attack, apply oneself to (ἐπιτίθημι set against, impose) and (ἐφ)ίεμαι hasten towards, long for ((ἐφ)ίημι let go towards): these have middle root aorist forms, e.g. ἐπεθέμην attacked.

Some of these verbs have corresponding **active perfects** (normally of the 'stem' type, \rightarrow 18.21): e.g. ἐγρήγορα be awake, ἕστηκα stand, ὅλωλα have perished, be dead, πέφηνα have appeared.

Note 3: Such perfect forms express the state resulting from the spontaneous process, change of (body) position, etc.: for instance, being awake (ἐγρήγορα) is the state resulting from waking up (ἐγείρομαι), standing (ἔστηκα) is the state resulting from coming to stand (ἵσταμαι).

- (25) οὐδέτεροι οὐδὲν πλέον ἔχοντες <u>ἐφάνησαν</u> ἢ πρὶν τὴν μάχην γενέσθαι. (Xen. Hell. 7.5.27)
 - Neither party turned out to have anything more than before the battle occurred. For $\varphi\alpha i\nu o\mu\alpha i + ppl.$, $\rightarrow 52.10$; for $o\dot{v}\delta\dot{\epsilon}\tau\epsilon\rho oi\ o\dot{v}\delta\dot{\epsilon}\nu$, $\rightarrow 56.4$.
- (26) οἱ Χῖοι καὶ οἱ ἄλλοι σύμμαχοι συλλεγέντες εἰς ερεσον ἐβουλεύσαντο ... πέμπειν εἰς Λακεδαίμονα πρέσβεις. (Xen. Hell. 2.1.6)

 The Chians and other allies, having gathered in Ephesus, resolved to send emissaries to Sparta.
- (27) ἐκ δὲ τούτου ἀνίσταντο οἱ μὲν ἐκ τοῦ αὐτομάτου, λέξοντες ἃ ἐγίγνωσκον. (Xen. An. 1.3.13)
 After this some stood up on their own initiative, in order to say what they were thinking.
- (28) καὶ τῆς ἀρχῆς ἀπόδειξιν ἔχει τῆς τῶν Ἀθηναίων ἐν οἵφ τρόπφ κατέστη. (Thuc. 1.97.2)
 And (my discussion) can show of the empire of the Athenians in what way it acquired its power.
- (29) [°]Ω Σώκρατες, ἔφη, <u>ἐγρήγορας</u> ἢ καθεύδεις; (Pl. *Prt.* 310b) 'Socrates,' he said, 'are you awake or are you sleeping?'
- 35.18 The active (causative) counterparts of most of these verbs may themselves have middle-passive forms which express indirect-reflexive or passive meaning. This results in highly complex voice systems: thus άθροίζομαι may mean *get together* (change-of-state, aor. ἡθροίσθην) but also either *gather for oneself* (indirect-reflexive, aor. ἡθροισάμην) or *be gathered together* (passive, aor. ἡθροίσθην). For the cases of ἵσταμαι *come to stand* and φαίνομαι *appear, seem* →35.35 below.

(Change of) Mental State

35.19 To the category of change-of-state verbs also belong several verbs which express a (change of a) certain mental state. These verbs tend to take an object or complement in the middle-passive; they also have active causative counterparts. Examples are:

Middle-passive		Active causative		
μιμνήσκομαι + gen.	call to mind, remember	μιμνήσκω	remind, call to mind	
ὀργίζομαι + dat.	be(come) angry	ὀργίζω	make angry	
πείθομαι + dat .	believe, obey	πείθω	convince, persuade	
φοβέομαι + <i>acc</i> .	be(come) afraid	φοβέω	make afraid, terrify	

These verbs have **passive aorists**: ἐμνήσθην remembered, ὡργίσθην was angry, ἐπείσθην believed, obeyed, ἐφοβήθην was afraid.

- (30) τίνι τρόπω | Χρεμύλος πεπλούτηκ' ἐξαπίνης; οὐ <u>πείθομαι</u>. (Ar. *Plut.* 335-6) How has Chremulus got rich all of a sudden? I don't believe it.
- (31) καί μοι μηδὲν <u>ὀργισθῆς</u>· οὐδὲν γὰρ φλαῦρον ἐρῶ σε. (Dem. 20.102)

 And don't get angry with me: for I will not say anything offensive about you.
- (32) τίς δὲ οὐκ ἄν πολέμιος φοβηθείη ἰδών διηυκρινημένους ὁπλίτας; (Xen. *Oec.* 8.6) And what enemy would not be afraid on seeing carefully arranged hoplites?

Note 1: π είθομαι also has a thematic middle aorist which expresses this meaning: ἐπιθόμην believed, obeyed (next to ἐπείσθην, which is more frequent in later Greek). In addition, it has an active perfect, π έποιθα believe (next to π έπεισμαι, more frequent in prose).

35.20 The passive forms of these verbs may also express passive meaning: e.g. aor. ἐπείσθην was persuaded, ἐφοβήθην was made afraid; pf. πέπεισμοι be convinced/persuaded.

Middle-Only Verbs and Passive-Only Verbs

35.21 Middle-only verbs and passive-only verbs can express any of the meanings treated above, as well as various similar meanings (the basic meaning of 'subject-affectedness' is relevant in each case).

Middle-only verbs belong to categories which use middle aorist and future forms (e.g. indirect-reflexive meaning, \rightarrow 35.8 above), passive-only verbs mostly belong to categories which use passive aorist and future forms (e.g. change-of-state verbs, \rightarrow 35.17–19 above).

Indirect-Reflexive Meaning

35.22 Some **middle-only** verbs express **indirect-reflexive meaning** (the subject benefits from the action). Examples are:

δέχομαι - ἐδεξάμην accept

ἐργάζομαι - εἰργασάμην achieve, work

κτάομαι - ἐκτησάμην acquire

ἀνέομαι buy (with suppletive aor. ἐπριάμην)

35.23 These middle-only verbs may also get passive forms to express passive meaning: ἐκτήθην was acquired, εἰργάσθην was achieved, ἐωνήθην was bought. The perfect middle-passive may have both senses: e.g. εἴργασμαι have achieved/be achieved, ἐώνημαι have bought/be bought.

Reciprocal Meaning

35.24 Some **middle-only** verbs indicate that the subject is (part of) a group of which the members perform an action on each other: **reciprocal meaning** (this is similar to

direct-reflexive meaning, \rightarrow 35.11). Some of these verbs take a complement in the dative. Examples are:

άγωνίζομαι - ήγωνισάμην fight, struggle

μάχομαι - ἐμαχεσάμην fight against (+ dat.)

άμιλλάομαι - ήμιλλησάμην contend with (+ dat.), strive

Note 1: The verb ἁμιλλάομαι *strive*, *contend* also has passive aorist ἡμιλλήθην *strove* (more frequent in classical Greek). The verb διαλέγομαι *converse*, which can be grouped under this header, uses only passive aorists διελέχθην/διελέγην *conversed*.

Change-of-State; Mental State

35.25 Some middle-only verbs express a change of state or position (\rightarrow 35.17):

ἀφικνέομαι - ἀφικόμην arrive

γίγνομαι - ἐγενόμην become, be born (later also aor. ἐγενήθην 'was born';

act. stem pf. γέγονα, later also mid. pf. γεγένημαι)

ἕπομαι - ἑσπόμην follow

ἔρχομαι go, come (with suppletive active aor. ἦλθον)

οἴχομαι depart (no aor., fut. οἰχήσομαι)

πέτομαι - ἐπτμόμην fly

Passive-only verbs usually belong to the category of mental (change-of-)state verbs (\rightarrow 35.19). Examples are:

αἰδέομαι - ἠδέσθην be ashamed, respect (+ acc.)

ἄχθομαι - ἠχθέσθην be angry with/about (+ dat., also with ppl.)

βούλομαι - ἐβουλήθην want, prefer

διανοέομαι - διενοήθην think, suppose, intend

ένθυμέομαι - ένεθυμήθην ponder (+ acc.)

ἐπιμελ(έ)ομαι - ἐπεμελήθην take care of (+ gen., also with effort clause)

ἐπίσταμαι - ἠπιστήθην know, be able

ήδομαι - ήσθην be glad, be happy about (+ dat.)

οἴ(ο)μαι - ώήθην think

Note 1: Classical Greek also has an active causative counterpart ήδω *make glad* corresponding to ήδομαι, developed in post-Homeric Greek, but never widely used.

Other Middle-Only and Passive-Only Verbs

35.27 Remaining verbs generally belong to one of the following groups:

- Verbs of intentional or unintentional mental activity (the subject is affected mentally or emotionally), notably verbs of perception: e.g. (intentional) ἀκροάομαι listen to, ἡγέομαι believe, consider, θεάομαι gaze at, view admiringly, λογίζομαι reckon, calculate, μηχανάομαι devise, plan, σκέπτομαι look, examine, τεκμαίρομαι judge from signs; (unintentional) αἰσθάνομαι perceive, notice, ὀσφραίνομαι smell;
- Verbs that express certain **types of speech**: ἀράομαι *pray*, αἰτιάομαι *accuse*, ἀρνέομαι *refuse*, *deny*, δέομαι *ask*, *beg*, εὕχομαι *pray*, μέμφομαι *censure*, ὀλοφύρομαι *lament*, ὑπισχνέομαι *promise*.

These verbs are nearly all middle-only (i.e. have (sigmatic) middle aorist and future forms: e.g. ἐσκεψάμην examined, ἐθεασάμην viewed, ἐλογισάμην calculated, ἤτιασάμην accused, ἐμεμψάμην censured). The verbs δέομαι and ἀρνέομαι, however, are passive-only (with θη-aorists ἐδεήθην asked, ἤρνήθην refused).

Note 1: From the fourth century onwards, more passive forms are found in these meanings (the $\theta\eta$ -aorist was 'gaining ground' in the development of the language): e.g. ώσφράν $\theta\eta\nu$ smelled, ἐλογίσ $\theta\eta\nu$ calculated.

Note 2: μέμφομαι also occurs as a verb expressing a mental state in the meaning *blame*, *be angry at*, and then takes the corresponding passive aorist ἐμέμφθην *blamed*.

Note 3: There are also some active verbs whose middle-passive counterparts express these types of meaning: e.g. γ εύω have (someone) taste (something), γ εύομαι taste (perception); τ ίθημι make X into Y, τ ίθεμαι regard X as Y (mental activity); with ποιέω make, the idiom περὶ πολλοῦ/ὀλίγου ποιέομαι value highly/little (mental activity); συμβουλεύω give counsel, συμβουλεύομαι ask counsel (type of speech).

In some cases an active causative verb was developed in a later period to correspond to one of these middle-only or passive-only verbs, e.g. ὀσφραίνω cause to smell, θ εάω cause to see; these are rare.

- 35.28 The verb ἀλίσκομαι be captured (with active root aorist ἑάλων, and active perfect ἑάλωκα/ἥλωκα) is passive in meaning.
- 35.29 The passive-only verb **δύναμαι** be able (aor. ἐδυνήθην, ἐδυνάσθην) is difficult to classify.

Further Particulars

Middle Future Forms with Passive Meaning

In classical Greek (especially in poetry), **middle future forms** frequently have passive or change-of-state/mental state meaning. In these meanings, there is sometimes an aspectual distinction between the use of the future middle and the future passive: the future middle (built on the aspect-neutral future stem, \rightarrow 33.6), can be used for ongoing or repeated actions, whereas the future passive (built on an aorist stem in $\theta\eta/\eta$ (+ σ , \rightarrow 16.1) is used for actions presented as a complete whole.

(33) ἢν δέ τις ἄρα καὶ βουληθῆ, κολασθήσεται τῆ πρεπούση ζημία, οἱ δὲ ἀγαθοὶ τιμήσονται τοῖς προσήκουσιν ἄθλοις τῆς ἀρετῆς. (Thuc. 2.87.9)

Should, then, someone choose to go on doing so (misbehaving), he shall be punished with the appropriate penalty, while the brave shall be honoured with the appropriate rewards of valour. The ἀγαθοί will be continuously (or each individually) held in esteem,

as opposed to the wrongdoers who will be punished once.

- (34) καὶ εἰ καταστρέψονται ἡμᾶς Ἀθηναῖοι, ταῖς μὲν ὑμετέραις γνώμαις κρατήσουσι, τῷ δ' αὑτῶν ὀνόματι τιμηθήσονται. (Thuc. 6.80.4)

 And if the Athenians subdue us, they will be victorious due to your decisions, but they will meet with honour in their own name. The bestowing of honour on the Athenians for their putative victory is presented as a single, complete whole.
- (35) ἐν τοῖς γὰρ οἰκείοισιν ὅστις ἔστ' ἀνὴρ | χρηστός, φανεῖται κὰν πόλει δίκαιος ἄν. (Soph. Ant. 661-2)
 The man who is good in family matters, will be seen to be just in the city as well. A generic/repeated action.
- (36) φανήσεται δὲ παισὶ τοῖς αὐτοῦ ξυνών | ἀδελφὸς αὐτὸς καὶ πατήρ. (Soph. OT 457-8)
 He (Oedipus) will turn out to live together with his own children, the same man both as brother and as father. A single moment will bring the truth to light.

This aspectual difference apparently disappeared in about the fourth century, when futures in $-(\theta)\eta\sigma o\mu\alpha l$ became more prominent.

35.31 Similarly, many passive-only verbs have (only) middle futures until (at least) the fourth century: e.g. βούλομαι want, prefer, aor. ἐβουλήθην, fut. βουλήσομαι; ἐπίσταμαι know, be able, aor. ἡπιστήθην, fut. ἐπιστήσομαι; δέομαι ask, need, aor. ἐδεήθην, fut. δεήσομαι; ἄχθομαι be angry, aor. ἠχθέσθην, fut. ἀχθέσομαι (also ἀχθεσθήσομαι); etc.

'Synonymous' Active and Middle Verbs

35.32 A few verbs have approximately the same meaning in the active and middle voice: e.g. βουλεύω/βουλεύομαι consider, deliberate, ὁρμάω/ὁρμάομαι set out, start, get in motion (but ὁρμάω can also be causative, cause to move), πολιτεύω/πολιτεύομαι be/ act as a citizen. In some cases which form is chosen depends on the individual preference of an author.

Overviews

Overview of the Middle-Passive Meanings and Forms of Some Important Types of Verbs

(Active) Verbs which Take an Object/Complement

35.33 Examples include παιδεύω, λύω, τιμάω, δηλόω, ποιέω, and most other verbs taking an object.

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	present	aorist	future	perfect
active educate	παιδεύω	ἐπαίδευσα	παιδεύσω	πεπαίδευκα
indirect-reflexive educate for oneself	παιδεύομαι	ἐπαιδευσάμην	παιδεύσομαι	πεπαίδευμαι
passive be educated	παιδεύομαι	ἐπαιδεύθην	παιδευθήσομαι	πεπαίδευμαι

Verbs Whose Middle-Passive May Have a Direct-Reflexive Meaning

35.34 Examples include παρασκευάζω, κοσμέω, κείρω, γυμνάζω, στεφανόω, etc.:

	present	aorist	future	perfect
active prepare, make ready	παρασκευάζω	παρεσκεύασα	παρασκευάσω	παρεσκεύακα
indirect-reflexive prepare for oneself	παρασκευάζομαι	παρεσκευασάμην	παρασκευάσομαι	παρεσκεύασμαι
direct-reflexive prepare oneself	παρασκευάζομαι	παρεσκευασάμην	παρασκευάσομαι	παρεσκεύασμαι
passive be prepared, be made ready	παρασκευάζομαι	παρεσκευάσθην	παρασκευασθήσομαι	παρεσκεύασμαι

Verbs Whose Middle-Passive May Have a Change-of-State Meaning

35.35 Examples include φαίνω, ἵστημι, άθροίζω, ἀπόλλυμι, σφάλλω, φοβέομαι, etc.:

	present	aorist	future	perfect
active show	φαίνω	ἔφηνα	φανῶ	πέφαγκα (rare)
indirect-reflexive show for oneself	φαίνομαι	ἐφηνάμην	φανοῦμαι	πέφασμαι
change-of-state appear, seem ¹	φαίνομαι	ἐφάνην	φανήσομαι/φανοῦμαι	πέφηνα
passive be shown	φαίνομαι	ἐφάνθην	φανθήσομαι	πέφασμαι

In the meaning seem, φαίνομαι (+ inf.) need not denote a change of state ('become visible') but may refer to a state proper ('be visible'). This sense is probably derived from the change-of-state meaning. The perfect πέφηνα inherently expresses a state ('have appeared', 'be visible').

	present	aorist	future	perfect
active make stand, set up	ΐστημι	ἔστησα	στήσω	_
indirect-reflexive make stand for onesely	ἵσταμαι f	ἐστησάμην	στήσομαι	ἕσταμαι
change-of-state come to stand	ἵσταμαι	ἔστην	στήσομαι	ἔστηκα
passive he made to stand	ἵσταμαι	ἐστάθην	σταθήσομαι	ἕσταμαι

Overview of the Meanings Expressed by Aorist and Future Conjugations

35.36 The figure below details the meanings which different types of aorist and future forms can express (blocks indicate types which consistently express a certain meaning; more sporadic cases are listed separately):

	aorist				future	
	(pseudo-) sigmatic	thematic	root	θη/η-aorist	sigmatic/ Attic	θη/η-future
active	-(σ)α	-ov	-ν/-κα		-σω -ῶ	
indirect- reflexive (→35.8-10)		-όμην	έδόμην έθέμην εἵμην			
direct- reflexive (→35.11-12)	-(σ)άμην				-σομαι -οῦμαι	
reciprocity, mental activity, etc. (→35.24, 35.27)		e.g. ἢσθόμην	e.g. ἐθέμην	······		[·····
change-of- state, etc. (→35.17-19, 35.25-6)		e.g. ὰφικόμην ἐπιθόμην ἀπωλόμην	e.g. ἔστην ἔδυν	-(θ)ην	→35.30-1	-(θ)ήσομαι
passive (→35.13)		ἐσχόμην	έάλων			

Impersonal Constructions

Introduction

- 36.1 Impersonal verbs have no subject in the normal sense. Such verbs always appear in the third person singular (and, if marked for gender, neuter). They can be further divided in the following categories:
 - 'Quasi-impersonal' verbs, for which an (accusative and) infinitive or subordinate clause functions as the subject; for details, $\rightarrow 36.3-10$ below. For example:
 - (1) <u>δεῖ</u> με γίγνεσθ' Ἀνδρομέδαν. (Ar. Thesm. 1012)
 I must become Andromeda (lit. 'It is necessary that I become Andromeda').
 The accusative-and-infinitive construction με γίγνεσθαι Ἀνδρομέδαν serves as subject of δεῖ.
 - (2) <u>πρόδηλόν ἐστιν</u> ὅτι παῖδες ὅντες καλῶς ἐπαιδεύθησαν. (Hyp. *Epit.* 4.27) It is evidently clear that when they were children they were well educated. *The ὅτι-clause serves as subject of πρόδηλόν ἐστιν; note that πρόδηλον is neuter.*
 - 'Proper' impersonal verbs, which have no subject at all. This group is virtually limited to weather terms, expressions of time, and 'impersonal passive' constructions; for details, →36.11-15 below. For example:
 - (3) νείφει. βαβαιάξ. (Ar. Ach. 1141)It's snowing. Blast! Weather term.
 - (4) ἤδη δὲ ἦν ὀψὲ καὶ ἐπεπαιάνιστο αὐτοῖς ὡς ἐς ἐπίπλουν. (Thuc. 1.50.5)
 It was already late and the paean had been sung by them as if for the attack.
 Time expression and impersonal passive; lit. 'there had been paean-singing'.

Some proper impersonal verbs do not have a subject, but do take other obligatory constituents:

(5) καὶ πάνυ γ' ... μέλει μοι τούτων ὧν ἐρωτᾶς. (Xen. Oec. 11.9)
I am indeed very concerned about the things about which you ask. Impersonal μέλει 'there is concern' takes complements in the dative (person to whom there is concern) and in the genitive (thing about which there is concern).

Note 1: English impersonal verbs use the so-called 'dummy pronoun' it, e.g. \underline{It} is raining. With English quasi-impersonal verbs it 'anticipates' the subordinate construction, e.g. \underline{It} is clear that he is coming (cf. That he is coming is clear.)

36.2 For infinitives of impersonal constructions, \rightarrow 51.10 n.1, 51.20 n.1. For participles of impersonal constructions (especially the accusative absolute construction), \rightarrow 52.16, 52.33.

Quasi-Impersonal Verbs and Constructions

Verbs

The following common quasi-impersonal verbs take an (accusative-and-) infinitive construction as their subject ($\rightarrow 51.11$):

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\delta \epsilon \tilde{\imath} (με) + inf. it is necessary (for me) to, I must/ought \chi \rho \dot{\eta} (με) + inf. it is necessary (for me) to, I must/ought
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- (6) τί δεῖ ἡμᾶς, ὧ ἄνδρες, μάχεσθαι; (Xen. Hell. 7.4.25)Why, men, must we fight?
- (7) γυναῖκα γὰρ χρὴ πάντα συγχωρεῖν πόσει. (Eur. El. 1052)
 A woman must accede to her husband in everything.

Note 1: $\delta \epsilon \tilde{\imath}$ is also construed (as a proper impersonal verb) with a genitive in the meaning there is a need for (something); $\rightarrow 36.15$ below.

The following quasi-impersonal verbs take an (accusative and) **infinitive** as subject, and frequently also a complement in the **dative**:

```
δοκεῖ (μοι) + inf. it seems a good idea (to me), I decide 

ἔξεστί/πάρεστί (μοι) + inf. it is possible/permitted (for me), I can 

μέτεστί (μοι) + inf. it is my nature, I am capable 

πρέπει (μοι) + inf. it is fitting/becoming (for me), it suits (me) 

προσήκει (μοι) + inf. it is fitting/becoming (for me), it suits (me) 

συμβαίνει (μοι) + inf. it happens (to me) 

συμφέρει (μοι) + inf. it is of use (to me), it is advantageous (for me)
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συμφερει (μοι) + inf. It is of use (to me), it is advantageous (for me) λ υσιτελεῖ (μοι) + inf. it is profitable (for me)

ενεστί (μοι) + inf. It is promable (for me)

it is in my power, I am able

(8) καὶ ἔδοξεν αὐτοῖς ἐπὶ τῆς Ἱμέρας πλεῖν. (Thuc. 7.1.2)
They decided to sail for Himera.

(9) μἡ σκυθρώπαζ', ὧ τέκνον. | οὐ γὰρ πρέπει σοι τοξοποιεῖν τὰς ὀφρῦς. (Ar. Lys. 7-8)

Don't frown, child. It doesn't suit you to knit your eyebrows.

The simplex ἔστι (so accented) is often used instead of ἔξεστι it is possible:

- (10) καὶ ταῦτα . . . ἔστι μοι | κομπεῖν. (Soph. OC 1344-5) And I can boast these things.
- 36.5 With some of these verbs, there sometimes appears to be little difference between their construction with a dative complement and the construction with an accusative-and-infinitive:
 - (11) ἀγαθοῖς τε ὑμῖν προσήκει εἶναι. (Xen. An. 3.2.11)
 It is fitting for you to be brave.
 - (12) <u>ὑμᾶς προσήκει</u> ... ἀμείνονας ... εἶναι. (Xen. *An.* 3.2.15)

 It is fitting for you to be braver (more literally: 'it is fitting that you be braver').
- 36.6 Especially in poetry, bare prepositions are sometimes used instead of forms compounded with impersonal ἐστί: thus e.g. πάρα (so accented, →24.37) for πάρεστι, μέτα for μέτεστι, ἔνι for ἔνεστι:
 - (13) τί γὰρ οὐ πάρα μοι μελέα στενάχειν; (Eur. Tro. 106)
 For why is it not permitted for me, unhappy one, to wail?
- 36.7 In poetry, the form λύει is sometimes used instead of λυσιτελεῖ.

Neuter Adjectives; Nouns

36.8 The **neuter singular** of many **adjectives** is used with a third-person singular form of εἰμί *be* in quasi-impersonal constructions, taking an (accusative-and-)infinitive construction or ὅτι-clause. For example:

αἰσχρόν ἐστι it is shameful ἀναγκαῖόν ἐστι it is necessary δῆλόν ἐστι it is clear δυνατόν ἐστι it is possible

καλόν ἐστι it is good, honourable

οἷόν τέ ἐστι it is possible φανερόν ἐστι it is clear χαλεπόν ἐστι it is difficult

Some **nouns** are similarly used in quasi-impersonal constructions. For example:

ἀνάγκη ἐστί it is necessary θέμις ἐστί it is right, proper

(14) χαλεπόν ἐστι περὶ τὴν αὐτὴν ὑπόθεσιν δύο λόγους ἀνεκτῶς εἰπεῖν. (Isoc. 5.11) It is difficult to make two speeches about the same topic in a tolerable fashion.

- (15) πολύ γὰρ οὐχ οἶόν τε ἦν ἀπὸ τοῦ ἄλλου στρατεύματος διώκειν. (Xen. An. 3.3.9)
 For it was not possible to make a pursuit far away from the rest of the army.
 For ἄλλος meaning 'rest (of)', →29.50.
- (16) ἐμοὶ ἀνάγκη ἐστὶ πολλὴ βοηθεῖν τῷ ... πατρί. (Isae. 2.1)
 It is absolutely necessary for me to help my father.
- With such adjectives and nouns $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau\dot{\iota}$ is very often **omitted** (\rightarrow 26.13):
 - (17) <u>δῆλον</u> ὅτι τῶν χρηστῶν τις ... εἶ. (Ar. *Plut.* 826) It is clear that you are one of the good men.
 - (18) οὐ θέμις εἰσορᾶν | ὄργια σεμνά. (Ar. Thesm. 1150-1)
 It is not proper to look on the holy rites.
- 36.10 The adverb corresponding to these adjectives may be used in the impersonal construction ἔχει + adverb it is ..., the impersonal counterpart of the construction ἔχω + adv. (for which →26.11). For example:
 - (19) ἀναγκαίως ἡμῖν ἔχει δηλῶσαι πρὸς ὑμέας . . . (Hdt. 9.27.1)
 It is necessary for us to make clear to you . . .

Proper Impersonal Verbs and Constructions

Weather and Time Expressions

36.11 Weather verbs such as the following are used impersonally:

ὕει it rains / it is raining
 ἀστράπτει there is lightning
 νείφει it snows / it is snowing

χειμάζει there is a storm

βροντῷ there is a thunderstorm σείει there is an earthquake

- (20) ἡμέρας . . . ἐχείμαζε τρεῖς. (Hdt. 7.191.2)
 It stormed for three days.
- (21) τοῦ αὐτοῦ μηνὸς ἱσταμένου ἔσεισεν. (Thuc. 4.52.1)

 In the early part of the same month there was an earthquake.

Note 2: These verbs sometimes take the place where it rains, snows, etc. as their object. This construction may, in turn, be put in the passive, with the place as subject:

- (22) έπτὰ δὲ ἐτέων μετὰ ταῦτα οὐκ <u>ὖε</u> τὴν Θήρην. (Hdt. 4.151.1) For seven years after this there was no rain in Thera.
- (23) <u>ὕεται</u> πᾶσα ἡ χώρη τῶν Ἑλλήνων. (Hdt. 2.13.3)
 There is rain everywhere in the land of the Greeks (lit. 'the entire Greek land is rained upon').

Note 3: Somewhat similar to weather verbs (and regularly treated as impersonal verbs) are some instances of third-person verbs referring to procedural actions whose subject is an unspecified person to be supplied from the context, e.g. σαλπίζει *the trumpet sounds* (lit. '(the trumpeter) sounds the trumpet'), ἐκήρυξε *a proclamation was made* (lit. '(the herald) proclaimed'), ἐσήμηνε *the signal was given* (lit. '(the appointed person) gave the signal').

36.12 Some expressions of time use an impersonal form of εἰμί be:

ὀψέ ἐστι it is late

(24) ἤδη . . . ἀμφὶ ἡλίου δυσμὰς ἦν. (Xen. An. 6.4.26)
It was already around sunset.

Impersonal Passives and the Impersonal Use of Verbal Adjectives in -τέον

- Occasionally, a third-person singular passive form without a subject is used of verbs which do not take an object ($\rightarrow 35.3$) or which take a complement in the genitive or dative. Such **impersonal passives** occur particularly with the perfect passive; the agent may be expressed in the dative ($\rightarrow 30.50$):
 - (25) οὐκ ἄλλως αὐτοῖς <u>πεπόνηται</u>. (Pl. *Phdr*. 232a)

 Their labour has not been in vain (*lit.* 'there has been laboured by them').
 - (26) ἐμοὶ ... <u>βεβοήθηται</u> τῷ τεθνεῶτι καὶ τῷ νόμῳ. (Antiph. 1.31)
 I have lent my aid to the dead man and to the law (lit. 'there has been given aid by me'). βοηθέω takes a complement in the dative (→30.39).

Note 1: More commonly (with verbs that do take an object), a subject for such passive forms can be supplied from the context, or occurs in the form of a subordinate construction:

- (27) κατὰ δὲ τοῦτο τοῦ ὄρεος ἐφύλασσον, ὡς καὶ πρότερόν μοι δεδήλωται, Φωκέων χίλιοι ὁπλῖται. (Hdt. 7.217.2)
 - At that part of the mountain, as I have said before, a thousand Phocian hoplites stood guard (lit. 'as (it) has been made clear by me').
- (28) ἐψήφισται τοὺς ἀδικοῦντας τοῖσι δικασταῖς παραδοῦναι. (Ar. Vesp. 591)

 It has been decided to hand over the culprits to the judges. The infinitive παραδοῦναι serves as subject to ἐψήφισται.
- 36.14 To this category belongs also the impersonal use of neuter adjectives in -τέον:
 - (29) οὐκ ἀποστατέον ἔτι τοῦ πολέμου ... ἀλλ' ἐθελοντὶ <u>ἰτέον</u> ἐπὶ τοὺς Ἀθηναίους. (Thuc. 8.2.1)

We should no longer stand aside from the war, but willingly go against the Athenians (lit. 'there should no longer be stood aside', 'there should be gone').

For details on this construction, \rightarrow 37.3.

Proper Impersonal Verbs with a (Dative and) Genitive

36.15 The following impersonal verbs take a complement in the genitive (\rightarrow 30.21), usually combined with a complement in the dative for the person involved:

δεῖ (μοί) τινος there is a need (for me) for something, I need

μέτεστί μοί τινος I have a share in something

μέλει μοί τινος I care for something, something is of concern to me

μεταμέλει μοί τινος I am sorry about something, I regret

προσήκει μοί τινος something pertains/belongs to me, I have something

to do with something

(30) τῶν γὰρ πατρώων οὐδ' ἀκαρῆ μέτεστί σοι. (Ar. Av. 1649)
 You have not even the smallest claim to your father's possessions.

- (31) νῦν τοίνυν ὑμῖν μεταμελησάτω τῶν πεπραγμένων. (Lys. 30.30) So now you ought to regret the things you have done.
- (32) πάνυ άπλοῦν ἐστιν διαγνῶναι ὑμῖν ὑπὲρ ταύτης τῆς δίκης, καὶ οὐδὲν <u>δεῖ λόγων</u> πολλῶν. (Dem. 56.37)

It is very simple for you to come to a verdict concerning this suit, and there is no need for a long exposition. Note that $o\dot{v}\delta\dot{\epsilon}v$ is an adverbial accusative ($\rightarrow 30.18$, lit. 'there is in no way a need'); it is often so used with $\delta\dot{\epsilon}i$ (similarly $\delta\dot{\epsilon}i$ τi , 'there is in some way a need').

Note 1: $\delta \epsilon \tilde{\imath}$ is also construed with an (accusative and) infinitive, $\rightarrow 36.3$ above.

Note 2: μέλει μοι is also construed with an effort clause (ὅπως + fut. ind.), $\rightarrow 44$.

Note 3: μεταμέλει + dat. is also construed with a participle (dative-and-participle construction, $\rightarrow 52.15$), sometimes with a δτι-clause ($\rightarrow 41.3-15$).

Verbal Adjectives

Types of Verbal Adjectives

- 37.1 Greek has two types of **verbal adjectives** (adjectives formed from verb stems):
 - adjectives in -τέος, -τέα, -τέον;
 - adjectives in -τός, -τή, -τόν (the accent varies: sometimes, in compounds, -τος, -τη, -τον).

For the formation of these adjectives, $\rightarrow 23.29$, 23.34. For the use of participles (which are also a kind of verbal adjective), $\rightarrow 52$.

Adjectives in -τέος, -τέα, -τέον

As Predicative Complement

37.2 Verbal adjectives in -τέος, -τέον (also called gerundives) express a passive necessity: the word or phrase with which the adjective agrees is to undergo a certain action, e.g. παιδευτέος (ἐστί) (he is) to be educated, τὰ πρακτέα the things which must be done (substantivized, →28.23).

Such adjectives are used as predicative complement with the linking verb $\epsilon i \mu i be$ (though the linking verb is in fact often omitted, $\rightarrow 26.13$):

- (1) ἐὰν δέ τις κατά τι κακὸς γίγνηται, κολαστέος ἐστί. (Pl. *Grg.* 527b)

 If someone becomes bad in some respect, he ought to be punished. (κολάζω)
- (2) οὐκοῦν αὖται (ἀρμονίαι), ἦν δ' ἐγώ, ἀφαιρετέαι; (Pl. Resp. 398e)
 'Aren't these modes of music,' I said, 'to be done away with?' (ἀφαιρέω)

If expressed, the agent appears in the dative ($\rightarrow 30.50$):

- (3) ταῦτα μὲν οὖν, ὧ ἄνδρες δικασταί, <u>τούτοις</u> ποιητέα ἦν. (Andoc. 1.136)
 These are the things, men of the jury, that had to be done by these men. (ποιέω)
- (4) νουθετητέος δέ μοι | Φοῖβος. (Eur. Ion 436-7)
 I must rebuke Phoebus. (νουθετέω)

Impersonal Use

- 37.3 The neuter singular form in $-\tau \acute{\epsilon}$ ον (rarely the plural $-\tau \acute{\epsilon}$ α) may be used **impersonally** (\rightarrow 36) to indicate that an action ought to be performed. The **dative** is used to express the agent (\rightarrow 30.50), if present. This construction is used:
 - with verbs that do not take an object/complement (these cannot otherwise be used in the passive, →35.3):
 - (5) εἰσιτέον εἴσω δ' ἐστίν. (Men. Cith. 63)
 I should go inside (lit. 'there is to be gone inside'). εἴσειμι cannot normally be used in the passive.
 - (6) ἐν ἀσπίσιν σοι πρῶτα κινδυνευτέον. (Eur. Supp. 572)
 First, you must run a risk behind your shields (lit. 'there is to be run a risk by you'). (κινδυνεύω)
 - with verbs that take an object or complement; in this case such objects or complements are expressed in the case-form required by the verb:
 - (7) πᾶσαν κολακείαν ... φευκτέον. (Pl. Grg. 527c) Every kind of flattery must be avoided. φεύγω takes a direct object in the accusative.
 - (8) ἀκροατέον ὑμῖν ἐν μέρει τῶν κρειττόνων. (Ar. Av. 1228)
 It's now your turn to obey your superiors. ἀκροάομαι takes a complement in the genitive, →30.21.
 - (9) τί ταῦτ' ἀλύω; πειστέον πατρὸς λόγοις. (Eur. Hipp. 1182)
 Why should I be distraught at this? The words of a father must be obeyed.
 πείθομαι takes a complement in the dative, →30.39.

Note 1: Such expressions may be seen as roughly equivalent to $\delta \epsilon \tilde{l}/\chi \rho \dot{\eta} + inf.$; for (7), for instance, cf. $\delta \epsilon \tilde{l} \phi \epsilon \dot{l} \psi \epsilon i \nu \pi \tilde{\alpha} \sigma \alpha \nu \kappa \delta \lambda \alpha \kappa \epsilon \dot{l} \alpha \nu$. This similarity was clearly felt by Attic authors, who sometimes express the agent with an accusative (the case to complement $\delta \epsilon \tilde{l}/\chi \rho \dot{\eta}$) rather than a dative:

(10) οὐ μὴν δουλευτέον τοὺς νοῦν ἔχοντας τοῖς οὕτω κακῶς φρονοῦσιν. (Isoc. 9.7)

Men of intelligence should not serve as slaves to those who are perverted in this way.

Note 2: With verbs which have a different meaning in the active and middle-passive (e.g. $\pi\epsilon i\theta\omega$ persuade, convince and $\pi\epsilon i\theta\omega\mu\alpha$ obey, believe, $\rightarrow 35.19$), the impersonal verbal adjective in $-\tau \dot{\epsilon}\omega$ is ambiguous, and may correspond to either meaning. The construction or context makes clear which meaning is intended. For example, with (9), compare:

(11) τοὺς φύλακας ἐκεῖνο ἀναγκαστέον ποιεῖν καὶ πειστέον. (Pl. Resp. 421b)

The guardians must be forced and persuaded to do this. πειστέον corresponds to active πείθω, which takes a direct object in the accusative.

Adjectives in -τός, -τή, -τόν

37.4 The adjectives in -τός, -τή, -τόν either express a **passive state** (like a perfect passive participle) or express **passive possibility**:

κρυπτός hidden (passive state; μρύπτω)

πόλις ἀφύλακτος an unguarded city (passive state; φυλάττω)

πιστός reliable (= 'who can/may be trusted', passive possibility; πείθομαι)

ποταμός διαβατός a fordable river (passive possibility; διαβαίνω)

(12) δίδαξον, εὶ <u>διδακτόν,</u> ἐξ ὅτου φοβῆ. (Soph. *Trach.* 671)

Explain to me, if it may be explained, the cause of your fear.

Note 1: 'Passive possibility' should here be taken to include a range of nuances, such as 'permission' (as in (12)), 'right', 'appropriateness', etc.

Several adjectives have both meanings, e.g.:

ἄγνωστος unknown; unknowable (γιγνώσκω)

ἀόρατος unseen; invisible (ὁράω)

Note 2: A few of these adjectives have both passive and active meaning:

δυνατός which can/may be done (*passive*); capable, powerful (*active*) (δύναμαι) ἄπρακτος intractable, unprofitable, not to be done (*passive*); unsuccessful (*active*)

(πράττω)

Questions, Directives, Wishes, Exclamations

Introduction: Sentence Types and Communicative Functions

- 38.1 In principle, utterances belong to one of three different sentence types:
 - declarative: e.g.
 - ὧ ξέν', οὐ δίκαια δρᾶς. (Soph. OC 831)
 Stranger, what you are doing is wrong.
 - interrogative: e.g.
 - (2) οὖτος, τί δρᾶς; (Ar. Av. 1567)Hey there, what are you doing?
 - imperative: e.g.
 - (3) μὴ δρᾶ τάδε. (Soph. OT 1064)Do not do this.

Sentence type is determined principally by the mood of the main verb (\rightarrow 34) and by the intonation of the utterance.

Note 1: It is sometimes not straightforward to determine the sentence type of an individual utterance: our knowledge about the intonation of Greek utterances is limited, and written punctuation and accents were added only after the classical period $(\rightarrow 1.12-13)$. Modern editions of texts are typically based on the evidence provided in medieval manuscripts.

Note 2: 'Desideratives' (wishes) and 'exclamatives' (exclamations) are sometimes distinguished as additional, separate sentence types. For wishes and exclamations, $\rightarrow 38.38-42$ and 38.43-51.

Although there is a correlation between the sentence type of an utterance and the **communicative functions** that may be performed by that utterance (such functions include 'request', 'wish', 'command', 'assertion', 'question'), one and the same linguistic form may (in different contexts) serve various communicative functions. For instance, each of the following examples is in the interrogative form, but the communicative functions they perform are different:

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(4) ΕΥ. τί οὖν; ποιήσεις ταῦτα; :: ΑΓ. μὴ δόκει γε σύ. (Ar. Thesm. 208) (Euripides:) So what's your answer? Will you do this? :: (Agathon:) Don't you count on it. Interrogative ποιήσεις ταῦτα; is used in a question, a genuine request for information, which is answered by Agathon.

- (5) οὐ μὴ ... ποιήσεις ἄπερ οἱ τρυγοδαίμονες οὖτοι; | ἀλλ' εὐφήμει. (Ar. Nub. 296–7)
 - Don't do what these poor-devil poets do, but speak words of good omen. Interrogative où $\mu\dot{\eta}$... π oi $\dot{\eta}\sigma\epsilon_{1}$...; (lit. 'won't you refrain from doing ...?') expresses a command; $\rightarrow 38.32$.
- (6) ἴσως καὶ μάλιστα πρέπει μέλλοντα ἐκεῖσε ἀποδημεῖν διασκοπεῖν ... περὶ τῆς ἀποδημίας τῆς ἐκεῖ ... τί γὰρ ἄν τις καὶ ποιοῖ ἄλλο ἐν τῷ μέχρι ἡλίου δυσμῶν χρόνῳ; (Pl. Phd. 61d-e)
 Perhaps, in fact, it is most fitting to investigate living there (in the Underworld), since I am about to go and live there. For what else might someone do in the time

until sunset? $\tau i \, \tilde{\alpha} \nu \, \tau_{15} \, \pi_{010} \tilde{\imath}$ is phrased as a question, but used to assert something ('there is nothing else that we can do') – this is a 'rhetorical' question (\rightarrow 38.19).

Conversely, different linguistic forms may serve similar communicative functions. For instance, each of the following examples serves as a request or command to someone to speak (for the different nuances of each of these constructions, \rightarrow 38.31-7):

- (7) <u>λέγε</u>, πέραινε σοὺς λόγους. (Eur. *Ion* 1348)
 Speak, finish what you were saying. *Present imperative*.
- (8) φέρε τοῦτό μοι ἀτρεκέως εἰπέ. (Hdt. 7.47.1)
 Come, tell me this truthfully. Aorist imperative.
- (9) τί σοί ποτ' ἔστ' ὄνομ'; οὐκ ἐρεῖς; (Ar. Pax 185)
 What on earth is your name? Won't you speak? Interrogative with oὐ + future indicative.
- (10) <u>λέγοις ἄν· εὔνους δ' οὖσ' ἐρεῖς ὅσ' ἄν λέγης.</u> (Eur. *Ion* 1336)
 Please speak: you will say whatever you say kindly. *Potential optative*.
- (11) εἰπεῖν μοι πρὸς βασιλέα, Μαρδόνιε, ὡς ἐγὼ τάδε λέγω. (Hdt. 8.68α.1)
 Tell the king for me, Mardonius, these things as I say them. Imperatival infinitive.
- (12) δεῖ σε λέγειν τι καινόν. (Ar. Nub. 1032)
 You must say something new. δεῖ + accusative + infinitive (declarative sentence type).
- (13) αὐτοῖς ... ὑμᾶς κελεύω λέγειν. (Xen. Cyr. 3.3.39)
 I bid you to speak to them. κελεύω + accusative + infinitive (declarative sentence type).
- (14) τί σιγῆς; οὐκ ἐχρῆν σιγᾶν, τέκνον. (Eur. Hipp. 297)
 Why are you silent? You shouldn't be silent, child. Interrogative, followed by 'modal' ἐχρῆν (→34.17; declarative sentence type).

Note 1: The technical term for the communicative function of an utterance (as distinct from sentence type) is 'illocution' or 'illocutionary force'.

Note 2: For examples of the imperative mood used to express non-directive communicative functions, $\rightarrow 34.20$.

38.3 This chapter treats:

- the basic forms of **questions**, and some of the communicative uses to which the Greek interrogative sentence type may be put $(\rightarrow 38.4-24)$;
- the basic constructions used for directives (commands, requests, exhortations, etc.), and some other constructions used to perform similar communicative functions (→38.25-37);
- the different constructions used in wishes (\rightarrow 38.38-42);
- some points about exclamations (\rightarrow 38.43-51).

Questions

Introduction: Basic Terminology

- 38.4 There are two main types of questions:
 - Questions that are answered by yes or no: 'yes/no-questions' cf. Are whales fish? A subset of this type consists of questions that give two (or more) alternatives to choose from: 'alternative questions' or 'double questions' cf. Are whales fish or mammals?
 - Questions that are answered by specifying one or more persons, things, places, etc. (or 'no one', 'nothing', etc.). Such questions are commonly known as 'wh-questions' (as they are, in English, usually introduced by a 'wh-word', such as who?, when?, why? etc.), or as 'specifying questions': cf. What kind of animal are whales?
- For indirect/dependent questions, i.e. the representation of questions in indirect speech/thought (cf. Engl. He asked what kind of animal whales are), \rightarrow 42.1–8.

Yes/No-Questions and Alternative Questions

- Questions may be introduced by various particles. Yes/no-questions introduced by $\tilde{\alpha}\rho\alpha$ (\rightarrow 59.43) or $\tilde{\eta}$ (\rightarrow 59.48) are **neutral**: they do not explicitly expect or desire a particular answer:
 - (15) ΣΩ. ἄρα ἐρωτᾶς ἥντινα τέχνην φημὶ εἶναι; :: ΠΩ. ἔγωγε. (Pl. Grg. 462b) (Socrates:) Do you ask me what kind of art I claim it (rhetoric) to be? :: (Polus:) Yes, I do.

(16) OI. $\frac{\pi}{0}$ κἀν δόμοισι τυγχάνει τανῦν παρών; $|:: I\Omega$. οὐ δῆτ'. (Soph. OT 757–8) (Oedipus:) Does he happen to be in the house now? :: (Iocasta:) Certainly not.

Frequently, no particle at all is used to introduce a neutral yes/no-question:

- (17) Θησεύς τιν' ἡμάρτηκεν ἐς σ' άμαρτίαν; (Eur. *Hipp.* 320) Has Theseus committed some wrong against you?
- 38.7 By using a question introduced by où, ἀρ' où, or οὐκοῦν (→59.33), a speaker signals that he expects or desires the answer to be 'yes' (cf. in English the similar use of the negative, of a negative 'tag question', or surely):
 - (18) οὐχὶ ξυνῆκας πρόσθεν; (Soph. OT 360)
 Did you not understand me before? / You understood me before, didn't you? / Surely you understood me before?
 - (19) Πρῶτον μὲν αὐτῶν τούτων, καίπερ ὄντων γενναίων, ἄρ' οὐκ εἰσί τινες ... ἄριστοι; :: Εἰσίν. (Pl. Resp. 459a)
 (Socrates:) In the first place, among these men themselves, even though they are noble, are there not some who are the best? :: (Glaucon:) Indeed there are.
- 38.8 By starting a question with μή (seldom ἆρα μή) or μῶν, a speaker signals that he is reluctant to accept a positive answer as true, often to convey apprehension or surprise (cf. Engl. really?, surely not?, or the use of a positive 'tag question'):
 - (20) Άλλὰ μὴ ἀρχιτέκτων βούλει γενέσθαι; ... Οὔκουν ἔγωγ', ἔφη. (Xen. Mem. 4.2.10)
 - 'But you don't want to become an architect, do you?' / 'But surely you don't want to become an architect?' 'Indeed I don't,' he said.
 - (21) ἰδού, πάρειμι. μῶν ἐπισχεῖν σοι δοκῶ; (Ar. Pax 1042)
 Look, here I am. You don't think I've taken long, do you?
- Occasionally, questions are introduced by μῶν οὐ, indicating that the speaker is **reluctant to** accept a negative answer as true:
 - (22) Al. μῶν οὐ πέποιθας; ἢ τί σοι τὸ δυσχερές; | :: MH. πέποιθα. (Eur. *Med.* 733–4) (Aegeus:) Surely you do not distrust me? Or what is your difficulty? :: (Medea:) I do trust you.
- 38.10 Alternative questions in Greek have ἤ or between the parts that make up the question. They can be (but do not have to be) introduced by πότερον/πότερα (which marks the question as an alternative one, and cannot be translated):
 - (23) πότερα δ' ἐν οἴκοις, ἢ 'ν ἀγροῖς ὁ Λάιος, $| \mathring{\underline{\eta}} \gamma$ ῆς ἐπ' ἄλλης τῷδε συμπίπτει φόνῳ; (Soph. OT 112)
 - Did Laius fall to this murder in the house, in the fields, or on other ground?
 - (24) ΟΔ. ἄνωθεν ἢ κάτωθεν; . . . :: ΝΕ. τόδ' ἐξύπερθε. (Soph. *Phil*. 28–9) (Odysseus:) Above you, or beneath you? :: (Neoptolemus:) Here, above me.

Specifying Questions

38.11 Specifying questions in Greek are introduced by a **question word** – an interrogative pronoun, adjective or adverb (these begin with τ - or π -, \rightarrow 8.1–2). The most common are:

τίς: / τί; who?, what?; which? τί; / διὰ τί; why? who of the two?; which . . . of the two? πότερος; how large? (sg.); how many? (pl.) πόσος; ποῖος; what sort of? where? ποῦ; to where? ποῖ; from where? πόθεν; when? πότε; how? πῶς; πῆ; along which route?, in what way?, how?

Note 1: Observe the accentuation of these question words: $\tau i \varsigma$ who?, what?; which? (always with acute, $\rightarrow 24.2$) as opposed to indefinite $\tau i \varsigma$ some(one), a(n), (a) certain, $\tau i \varsigma$ when? as opposed to indefinite $\tau i \varsigma$ sometime, etc. For details, $\rightarrow 24.38$ n.1.

Note 2: Ionic forms begin with κ- rather than π -: κῶς, κότε, etc. (\rightarrow 25.12).

- Interrogative pronouns and adjectives can be used **pronominally** (independently, as a noun) or **adnominally** (modifying a noun): $\rightarrow 26.22-3$.
 - (25) κἆτα τίς γαμεῖ; (Soph. OT 1500)
 And then who will marry you? Pronominal.
 - (26) τίς με πότμος ἔτι περιμένει; (Soph. Ant. 1296)
 What fate still awaits me? Adnominal: τίς modifies πότμος, agreeing with it in case, number and gender.
 - (27) Οὐ πάνυ, ἦν δ' ἐγώ, ἔτυχες οὖ λέγω. Ποῖα μήν, ἔφη, λέγεις; (Pl. Resp. 523b) 'You have quite missed my meaning,' I said. 'What kind of things do you mean?', he asked. Pronominal.
 - (28) καὶ ποῖ ἀδικήματα ζητεῖθ ἔτερα μείζω τῶν εἰρημένων ἀκοῦσαι; (Din. 3.17)

 And what kind of other injustices, greater still than those which have already been said, are you seeking to hear about? Adnominal: ποῖ(α) modifies ἀδικήματα.
- Interrogative pronouns and adjectives also frequently occur in a predicative relationship with a noun (cf. the similar use of demonstrative pronouns, \rightarrow 29.34):
 - (29) ἀλλὰ ποῖα ταῦτα λέγεις; (Pl. Cra. 391e)
 But what sort of instances are you referring to? ποῖα is predicative with ταῦτα: lit. 'you are referring to these instances (being) of what sort?'.

- 38.14 In Greek, question words may function as obligatory constituents and modifiers not only of the main verb (as in the examples above), but also of subordinate constructions such as participles:
 - (30) ὁ δὲ Καλλίας τί βουλόμενος ἐτίθει τὴν ἱκετηρίαν; (Andoc. 1.117)
 With what motive (lit. 'wanting what') did Callias place the bough (on the altar)? τί is object of βουλόμενος: note that such examples often do not permit literal translation into English.

The Use of Moods in Questions

- 38.15 Most direct questions have the indicative (cf. (15)–(30) above). However, other moods occur, particularly the potential optative (\rightarrow 34.13) and counterfactual indicative (\rightarrow 34.16):
 - (31) πῶς δ', ὧ Σώκρατες, ἄν εἶεν ψευδεῖς ἡδοναὶ ἢ λῦπαι; (Pl. Phlb. 36c) But, Socrates, how could there be false pleasures or pains? Potential optative.
 - (32) τί ἄν ἀπεκρίνω μοι, εἴ σε ἠρόμην· . . . εἰπέ, τί ἄν ἀπεκρίνω οὕτως ἐρωτηθείς; (Pl. Men. 72b)
 What would have been your answer to me, if I had asked you: ' . . . '; tell me,

What would have been your answer to me, if I had asked you: '...'; tell me, what would you have answered if asked such questions? *Counterfactual indicative*.

- 38.16 The (first-person) subjunctive is used in deliberative questions (\rightarrow 34.8):
 - (33) τί <u>δρῶμεν</u>; <u>ἀγγέλλωμεν</u> ἐς πόλιν τάδε | ἢ σῖγ' ἔχωμεν; (Eur. *Or.* 1539–40) What must we do? Should we report this to the city? Or should we keep quiet?
 - (34) ἀλλ' ἐκδιδαχθῶ δῆτα δυσσεβεῖν, πάτερ; (Soph. *Trach.* 1245) Am I to be taught, then, father, to be ungodly?
- 38.17 Deliberative questions are sometimes introduced by **βούλει/βούλεσθε** do you want, or (in poetry) θέλεις/θέλετε:
 - (35) θέλεις | μείνωμεν αὐτοῦ; (Soph. El. 80-1)
 Would you like us to stay here?

Further Particulars

Is That a Question? – 'Non-Standard' Communicative Functions of the Interrogative Sentence Type

38.18 Many expressions in the interrogative sentence type are not used by speakers to elicit information, but perform other communicative functions (\rightarrow 38.2 above), e.g. assertions, commands/requests, etc.

38.19 Any type of interrogative may be used in **rhetorical questions**, i.e. interrogatives which (although they have the appearance of a 'genuine' question) actually have the **force of a (strong) assertion**. Cf. e.g. (25) above: Oedipus' question κἆτα τίς γαμεῖ; does not really invite his children to come up with the names of future husbands, but asserts that they will never marry (Oedipus makes this implicit assertion explicit in his next line: οὐκ ἔστιν οὐδείς, ὧ τέκν' there is no one, my children). In (28), ποῖα ἀδικήματα ζητεῖτε implies 'there are no greater injustices'.

Rhetorical questions are very frequent in Greek literature, particularly in oratory.

Note 1: When used rhetorically:

- yes/no-questions with oὐ/ἆρ' oủ imply that the answer is 'yes' (→38.7); neutral questions imply that the answer is 'no';
- specifying questions imply that the answer is an 'empty set': τίς in (25) implies 'no one'; ποῖα in (28) implies 'of no kind'; specifying questions with a negative imply the answer 'all' (e.g. τίς οὐ...; who not? implies 'everyone'); cf. also next note.

Note 2: Observe the following idiomatic expressions (these are in essence rhetorical questions):

- πῶς γὰρ οὔ; certainly, of course (lit. 'for how not?'); πῶς γάρ; certainly not (lit. 'for how?');
- τί γὰρ οὔ; certainly, of course (lit. 'for why not?); τί γάρ; certainly not (lit. 'for why?').

For $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ in these expressions, $\rightarrow 59.14$.

- 38.20 The following types of interrogative are regularly used to express commands/requests (directives):
 - Questions with où + second person future indicative (neg. où μή): \rightarrow 38.32.
 - Questions with (τί) οὐ + first- or second-person present/aorist indicative:
 →38.33.

Answers

38.21 To answer yes/no-questions:

Affirmative answers ('yes') may be expressed by:

- the repetition of the focus (→60.20-4) of a question in the answer: cf. (19) above, εἰσί yes,
 there are answering ἄρ' οὐκ εἰσί; are there not?;
- a personal pronoun reinforced by γε (especially ἔγωγε), when the question asks whether a person is doing something: cf. (15) above, ἔγωγε I am, answering ἐρωτῆς are you asking?;
- first-person verbs expressing affirmation or agreement: φημί *I say so*, ὁμολογῶ *I agree*;
- various expressions of likelihood and truth: ἀνάγκη (that's) inevitable, φαίνεται (so) it seems,
 εἰκός (γε) (that's) likely; ἔστι ταῦτα that is the case, ἀληθῆ true; πῶς δ' οὔ;/πῶς γὰρ οὔ;/τί γὰρ
 οὔ; (→38.19 n.2);

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affirmative adverbs and adverbial phrases (the Greek equivalents of yes, certainly, by all means, of course, etc.): ναί, μάλα, μάλα γε, μάλιστα, πάνυ γε, παντάπασί γε, παντάπασι μὲν οὖν, etc.

Negative answers may be expressed by:

- ou not (so accented; a verb has to be supplied from the question), e.g.:
- (36) ΝΕ. οὐκ αἰσχρὸν ἡγῆ δῆτα τὸ ψευδῆ λέγειν; | :: ΟΔ. οὔκ, εἰ τὸ σωθῆναί γε τὸ ψεῦδος φέρει.(Soph. Phil. 108-9)
 - (Neoptolemus:) Do you not think it disgraceful to tell lies? :: (Odysseus:) Not (i.e. 'I do not think it disgraceful') if the lie brings us salvation.
 - A translation *no* will often be preferred for oὔ. It may be reinforced by particles (e.g. οὖν in (20) above, οὔκουν ἔγωγε *indeed I don't*, δῆτα in (16) *certainly not*).
- ἥκιστα not at all, οὐδαμῶς certainly not, and πῶς γάρ;/τί γάρ; certainly not.

Note 1: For the use of $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ and $\gamma \varepsilon$ in answers to yes/no-questions, $\rightarrow 59.14$, 59.53.

- 38.22 **Alternative questions**, which present a choice between two possibilities, are normally answered by one of these possibilities: cf. (24) above.
- **Specifying questions** will naturally be answered by an item that satisfies the information asked for, e.g.:
 - (37) ΣΩ. ὧ φίλε Φαῖδρε, ποῖ δὴ καὶ πόθεν; :: ΦΑ. παρὰ Λυσίου . . . τοῦ Κεφάλου · πορεύομαι δὲ πρὸς περίπατον ἔξω τείχους. (Pl. Phdr. 227a)
 (Socrates:) My dear Phaedrus, where are you going, and where are you coming
 - from? :: (Phaedrus:) From Lysias, the son of Cephalus; and I am going for a walk outside the wall.
- 38.24 Speakers may, of course, also provide 'non-answers' to any type of question (e.g. οὐκ οἶδα *I don't know*), or no answer at all.

Directives

Basic Constructions

- 38.25 Commands, suggestions, requests, exhortations (etc.) in the **second or third person** are regularly expressed by the **imperative**:
 - (38) σὺ οὖν ἐκείναις <u>λέγε</u> ὅτι ἀντὶ κυνὸς εἶ φύλαξ. (Xen. Mem. 2.7.14)
 You must tell those women, then, that you are their guardian in place of a dog.
 - (39) <u>λεγέτω</u> δ' ὑπὲρ ὑμῶν μί' ἄπερ ἄν κἀγὼ λέγω. (Ar. Lys. 210)
 Let one woman, on behalf of all of you, repeat exactly what I say.

For self-exhortations in the **first person** (most often plural), the **hortatory subjunctive** is used:

- (40) ἴωμεν ἐπὶ τοὺς πολεμίους. (Xen. Cyr. 1.5.11)

 Let us move against our enemies.
- Negative commands and requests (**prohibitions**) in the **second person** are formed with $\mu\dot{\eta}$ and either the **present imperative** or the **aorist subjunctive** ($\mu\dot{\eta}$ + second-person aorist imperative and $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + second-person present subjunctive do not occur):
 - (41) πιστούς δὲ μὴ νόμιζε φύσει φύεσθαι ἀνθρώπους. (Xen. *Cyr.* 8.7.13) Don't think that men are born trustworthy by nature.
 - (42) μἡ γὰρ ἄλλο τι νομίσητε τἡν γῆν αὐτῶν ἢ ὅμηρον. (Thuc. 1.82.4)
 Don't consider their land to be anything other than a hostage.

In the **third person**, $\mu\dot{\eta}$ is most commonly used with the imperative (either aorist or present), but the subjunctive (most often aorist, seldom present) also occurs:

- (43) καὶ μηδεὶς αὐτὰ φαῦλα νομισάτω εἶναι. (Xen. Cyn. 2.2)
 And let no one think that these things are meaningless. Aorist imperative.
- (44) ὑπολάβη δὲ μηδεὶς ὡς οὐδὲν προσῆκον ὑμῶν κηδόμεθα. (Thuc. 6.84.1)

 And let no one suppose that we are concerned for you when we have nothing to do with you. *Aorist subjunctive*.

In the first person, the hortatory subjunctive + $\mu\dot{\eta}$ is used:

- (45) μὴ μέλλωμεν ἤδη τώδε τίλλειν καὶ δάκνειν. (Ar. Av. 352) Let's not wait any longer to pluck and bite these two.
- 38.27 Each of these constructions may be preceded by interjections like ἄγε(τε), φέρε(τε), ἴθι (often with δή): come (on), go ahead:
 - (46) <u>ἄγε δή</u>, ὧ Ἀριαῖε, ... <u>εἰπὲ</u> τίνα γνώμην ἔχεις. (Xen. An. 2.2.10) Come now, Ariaeus, say what your opinion is.
 - (47) φέρετε, τοῦ λοιποῦ μὴ πειθώμεθα αὐτοῦ. (Hdt. 6.12.3)
 Come, let us not listen to him in the future. For the infrequent construction of πείθομαι with the genitive, →30.21.
- 38.28 Indirect directives, i.e. the representation of a command/request in indirect speech/thought (→41.1-2; cf. Engl. *He told him to leave* (indirect) as opposed to *Leave!* (direct)), are expressed in Greek by means of a 'manipulative' verb (verbs meaning 'command', 'request', 'beg', etc.) followed by a dynamic infinitive. For details, →51.8-15.

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38.29 Overview of basic directive constructions:

	first person	second person	third person
positive (commands, exhortations, suggestions, etc.)	subjunctive	imperative	imperative
negative (prohibitions, warnings, etc.)	μή + subjunctive	μή + present imperative $or μή + aorist$ subjunctive	μή + imperative (or subjunctive)

Difference between Present-Stem and Aorist-Stem Imperatives/ Subjunctives

- 38.30 The difference between present and aorist imperatives/subjunctives in these constructions is **purely aspectual** (→33.63-5): present-stem forms (with imperfective aspect) present the action to be carried out as a process, i.e. as ongoing or repeated; aorist-stem forms (with perfective aspect) present an action as a single complete whole:
 - (48) ΣΩ. καὶ νῦν δὴ τούτων ὁπότερον βούλει ποίει, ἐρώτα ἢ ἀποκρίνου. :: ΠΩΛ. ἀλλὰ ποιήσω ταῦτα. καί μοι ἀπόκριναι, ὧ Σώκρατες· ἐπειδὴ Γοργίας ἀπορεῖν σοι δοκεῖ περὶ τῆς ῥητορικῆς, σὺ αὐτὴν τίνα φὴς εἶναι; (Pl. Grg. 462b) (Socrates:) So now please do whichever of these you like, either ask the questions or answer them. :: (Polus:) All right, I will do so. So, answer me, Socrates: Since you think Gorgias is confused about oratory, which craft do you say it is? Socrates uses the present imperatives ἐρώτα and ἀποκρίνου to press Polus to undertake a certain process (the pres. imp. is often so used in 'procedural' commands: Polus is to act either as 'questioner' or as 'answerer'). Polus' aorist imperative ἀπόκριναι is a request to answer a single question.

The present imperative/subjunctive may also function as a request to get an action underway (this is sometimes called the **immediative** use of the present imperative):

(49) ἀνάγνωθι δέ μοι λαβών τουτονὶ ... τὸν νόμον, δς διαρρήδην οὐκ ἐᾳ ... ἀναγίγνωσκε. (Dem. 24.32)

Take up and read aloud for me this law, which plainly forbids ... Go on, read it out. The aorist imperative refers to the reading out in its entirety (a command to do something), whereas the 'immediative' present imperative refers to the process of reading out (a command to be doing something).

(50) καί μοι, ὧ ἄνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, μὴ θορυβήσητε, μηδ' ἐὰν δόξω τι ὑμῖν μέγα λέγειν . . . εἰς Δελφοὺς ἐλθὼν ἐτόλμησε τοῦτο μαντεύσασθαι – καί, ὅπερ λέγω, μὴ θορυβεῖτε, ὧ ἄνδρες – ἤρετο γὰρ δὴ εἴ τις ἐμοῦ εἴη σοφώτερος. (Pl. Ap. 20e-21a) And please, Athenians, do not interrupt me, not even if I shall seem to be saying something outrageous to you. . . When he arrived at Delphi, he dared to put the following matter to the oracle – and as I have said, gentlemen, please do not interrupt me – he asked whether there was someone wiser than myself. With the aorist subjunctive (μὴ) θορυβήσητε, Socrates formulates his request as a simple instruction not to perform a certain action. He is not (yet) interested in the 'process' of not-disturbing, only in the basic fact of non-disturbance. Later, when the possibility that the audience will cause an uproar is at its peak (Socrates is about to say something outrageous, μέγα λέγειν), he reformulates the request using the present imperative (μὴ) θορυβεῖτε: the process is now relevant, as the previously stated request (note ὅπερ λέγω) becomes 'operational'.

The present imperative/subjunctive is also used to command someone to continue or (with $\mu\dot{\eta}$) cease doing something (**continuative** use):

- (51) ἔστιν οὖν ὅστις βούλεται ὑπὸ τῶν συνόντων βλάπτεσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ ὡφελεῖσθαι; ἀποκρίνου, ὧ ἀγαθέ· καὶ γὰρ ὁ νόμος κελεύει ἀποκρίνεσθαι. (Pl. Ap. 25d)

 Is there anyone who wishes to be harmed by those around him rather than be helped? Keep answering, good man, for the law demands that one keeps answering. Socrates' question is part of an ongoing series of questions.
- (52) γυναικὶ δὴ ταύτῃ τῷ νῦν συνοικέεις μὴ συνοίκεε. (Hdt. 9.111.2) Stop living with this woman with whom you are living now.

Note 1: Perfect imperatives and subjunctives are rarely used, but have their normal aspectual value(s) when they are. For the use of the third-person passive perfect imperative, \rightarrow 34.21.

Other Expressions Used as Directives; Differences between These Expressions

38.31 There are several other idiomatic ways to express commands and requests in Greek (cf. also (7)–(14) above). The reasons why a speaker may select one directive expression over another are complex, having to do with differences of social status between speaker and addressee, the urgency and severity of the directive, the desire to be polite, etc.

The most frequent alternative expressions with directive force are listed below.

- 38.32 Interrogatives with oὐ + second-person future indicative function as urgent commands or requests, or (with oὐ μή) as urgent prohibitions (also \rightarrow 33.44):
 - (53) οὐ καὶ σὺ αὖ ὁμολογήσεις μηδὲν ὑπ' ἐμοῦ ἀδικεῖσθαι; (Xen. Cyr. 5.5.13)
 Will you not for your part also agree that you have in no way been wronged by me? (= 'agree that . . . !')

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Interrogatives with (τi) où + first- or second-person present/aorist indicative are used to express a request or suggestion (also $\rightarrow 33.21, 33.33$):

- (54) ΑΘ. τί οὐ καλοῦμεν δῆτα τὴν Λυσιστράτην, | ἥπερ διαλλάξειεν ἡμᾶς ἄν μόνη; | :: ΛΑ. ναὶ τὼ σιώ. (Ar. Lys. 1103-5)
 (Athenian:) Let's call Lysistrata, then, since she's the only one who can reconcile us. :: (Spartan:) By the two gods, let's. σιώ is Laconian (→25.1) for θεώ (dual).
- (55) Τί οὖν, ἔφην ἐγώ, οὐ καὶ Πρόδικον καὶ Ἱππίαν ἐκαλέσαμεν καὶ τοὺς μετ' αὐτῶν, ἵνα ἐπακούσωσιν ἡμῶν; :: Πάνυ μὲν οὖν, ἔφη ὁ Πρωταγόρας. (Pl. Prt. 317d) 'Let's call', said I, 'Prodicus and Hippias and those with them as well, so they can listen to us.' 'Absolutely', said Protagoras.

Note 1: The difference between present and aorist indicatives in such questions may be purely aspectual (and not temporal): \rightarrow 33.33 n.1 (and cf. 38.30).

- 38.34 ὅπως (neg. ὅπως μή) + second/third person **future indicative** (the construction of effort clauses, →44) can be used independently to express an **emphatic exhortation/warning**. ὅπως is not a conjunction in these cases:
 - (56) $\frac{\mathring{\sigma}\pi\omega\varsigma}{\mathring{\sigma}} \frac{\mathring{\sigma}}{\mathring{\sigma}} \frac{\mathring{\epsilon}\sigma}{\mathring{\epsilon}} \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial s} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma}^{\sigma} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma}^{\varepsilon} \mathring{\sigma} \mathring{\sigma$
- The second-person **potential optative** (with αν) may have the force of a **cautious command or request** (\rightarrow 34.13):
 - (57) τῷδ' ἄν μὴ προέσθαι ἡμᾶς μάθοιτε. (Thuc. 1.36.3) You should learn from this not to betray us.

Similarly, the **first-person potential optative** may be used to express a **cautious self-exhortation**: this is often found when the speaker has been invited to do something:

- (58) ΙΦ. οὐκοῦν λέγειν μὲν χρἡ σέ, μανθάνειν δ' ἐμέ; | :: ΟΡ. λέγοιμ' ἄν. (Eur. IT 810-11)
 (Iphigenia:) Isn't it proper for you to speak, then, and for me to be informed? :: (Orestes:) I shall speak.
- 38.36 Especially in circumstances where a speaker wishes not to be too direct (for instance in addressing a superior), he or she may use an impersonal construction such as δεῖ/χρἡ:

oracles of the god. The chorus advises Oedipus, its king.

(59) $\underline{\delta \epsilon \tilde{\imath}}$ δ' οὐ τοιούτων, ἀλλ' ὅπως τὰ τοῦ θεοῦ | μαντεῖ' ἄριστα λύσομεν, τόδε σκοπεῖν. (Soph. OT 406–7)

There is no need for such things, but to examine how we may best resolve the

- 38.37 The infinitive is sometimes used in directives the **imperatival infinitive** (Lat. *infinitivus pro imperativo*), to express the **proper procedure** to be followed in a specific type of, mostly conventional, situation:
 - (60) εἰ μὲν γὰρ ἀξιόχρεος δοκέεις εἶναι σεωυτῷ τοῖσι ἐμοῖσι πρήγμασιν ἀντιωθῆναι, σὑ δὲ ... μάχεσθαι· εἰ δὲ συγγινώσκεαι εἶναι ἥσσων, σὑ δὲ ... δεσπότῃ τῷ σῷ ... ἐλθὲ ἐς λόγους. (Hdt. 4.126)

For if you think yourself capable of opposing my power, then you must fight. But if you admit you are weaker, then come to terms with your master. The infinitive $\mu\dot{\alpha}\chi\epsilon\sigma\theta\alpha$ expresses the proper procedure to follow in war if one party thinks it has a chance of winning. The imperative $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\theta\dot{\epsilon}$ is what the speaker (Darius) actually wants the addressee to do. For 'apodotic' $\delta\dot{\epsilon}$ (twice with $\sigma\dot{\upsilon}$ $\delta\dot{\epsilon}$), $\rightarrow 59.17$.

(61) σύ νυν τοῦτον τὸν ἄνδρα παῦσον ταῦτα ποιεῦντα, ἵνα μἡ οἰκηίω πολέμω συνέχη... ἐπεὰν δὲ αὐτὸν περιλάβης, ποιέειν ὅκως μηκέτι κεῖνος ἐς Ἕλληνας ἀπίξεται. (Hdt. 5.23.3)

Stop this man, then, from doing this, so that you may not be embroiled in a civil war. And when you have him in your grasp, proceed to take measures so that he never returns to Greece. $\pi oi \epsilon \epsilon i \nu$ expresses the procedure to follow in dealing with the threat posed by Histiaeus ($\tau o \tilde{\nu} \tau o \nu \tau o \nu \tilde{\nu} v \delta \rho \alpha$).

Note 1: The imperatival infinitive is a 'dynamic' infinitive (the negative is $\mu\dot{\eta}$, and the difference between present and agrist infinitives is purely aspectual; $\rightarrow 51.4$).

Wishes

Realizable and Unrealizable Wishes

- 38.38 In wishes that a speaker considers **realizable** the **cupitive optative** without $\alpha \nu$ is used (\rightarrow 34.14), sometimes introduced by $\epsilon i\theta \epsilon$, $\epsilon i \gamma \alpha \rho$ or $\alpha \varsigma$ (poetic): 'would that', 'if only', 'may...', 'I wish that...'. The negative is $\mu \eta$:
 - (62) γένοιτο ... κατὰ νόον τοι, βασιλεῦ. (Hdt. 7.104.5)May it go according to plan for you, sire.
 - (63) εἴθ', ὧ λῷστε, σύ τοιοῦτος ὢν φίλος ἡμῖν χένοιο. (Xen. Hell. 4.1.38)
 May you, my dearest man, being such as you are, become our friend.
- 38.39 In wishes that (the speaker thinks) can no longer come true unrealizable wishes the modal (secondary) indicative (aorist, imperfect, or pluperfect) is used, always introduced by εἴθε or εἰ γάρ (→34.18). The negative is μή:
 - (64) εἴθ' ἦν Ὀρέστης πλησίον κλύων τάδε. (Eur. El. 282)
 If only Orestes were nearby to hear these things!

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(65) εἴθε με Καδμείων <u>ἔναρον</u> στίχες ἐν κονίαισιν. (Eur. Supp. 821)
Would that the ranks of the Cadmeans had laid me in the dust. ἔναρον is an unaugmented aorist (of ἐναίρω 'slay').

Note 1: Unrealizable wishes do not express hope for the realization of an action, but rather serve as a regretful or resigned comment on a situation which can no longer be altered.

- 38.40 Unrealizable wishes may also be expressed by a form of the imperfect ἄφελον + infinitive (lit: I ought to have, I owed . . .).
 - (66) ἄφελε ... Κῦρος ζῆν. (Xen. An. 2.1.4)
 If only Cyrus were alive.
 - (67) <u>ὀλέσθαι</u> δ' <u>ἄφελον</u> τῆδ' ἡμέρα. (Soph. OT 1157)
 Would that I had perished that day.

Note 1: εἰ γὰρ ἄφελον/ἄφελεν can stand on its own, meaning *If only!*; the thing longed for in such instances is clear from the context.

Difference between Present-Stem and Aorist-Stem Forms

- 38.41 The difference between agrist and present optatives in realizable wishes is one of aspect (→33.63–5): present-stem optatives (with imperfective aspect) regard an action as ongoing/repeated, agrist optatives (with perfective aspect) regard an action in completion, as a single whole.
 - (68) ληφθείς γ' ὑπὸ λῃστῶν ἐσθίοι κριθὰς μόνας. (Ar. Pax 449)
 May he be captured by bandits and eat only barley.
 - (69) καὶ μήποτ' αὐτῆς μᾶζαν ἡδίω <u>φάγοι</u>. (Ar. *Pax* 3) And may it never eat a tastier cake than that one.

In (68), the chorus use a present optative to emphasize the habitual/ongoing duress that they wish the subject to suffer from. In (69), the speaker is talking about a single and discrete action of cake-eating, as appears from the use of the aorist.

Note 1: The perfect optative is very rarely used in wishes, but has its normal aspectual value(s) when it is (e.g. τ εθναίην *I wish I were dead*).

Note 2: The 'immediative' and 'continuative' nuances described above for the present imperative (\rightarrow 38.30) may occasionally be detected in the present optative.

38.42 Similarly, in unrealizable wishes, the difference between imperfects and aorist indicatives (or with ἄφελον, present and aorist infinitives) is aspectual. In practice, unrealizable wishes about the present use present-stem forms (impf., pres. inf.: cf. (64) and (66) above), while unrealizable wishes referring to the past normally use aorist-stem forms (aor. ind., aor. inf.: cf. (65) and (67)). Also →34.18 n. 1.

Exclamations

Introduction: Basic Terminology

- Exclamatory sentences express a speaker's strong emotion (surprise, indignation, anger, happiness, etc.) towards an action, person or thing. In principle, any sentence can be an exclamation (this is signalled in English by an exclamation mark e.g. Alice did a great job! but no exclamation mark is used in standard Greek texts). However, special sentence types, whose form indicates that an exclamation is being expressed, can also be used (in English, for instance, by means of an inverted word order: Did Alice ever do a great job!).
- 38.44 Several types of exclamation need to be distinguished:
 - Exclamations of degree or wh-exclamations (cf. Engl. What a great job!):
 In Greek, such exclamations are expressed by means of the definite relative adjectives and adverbs (οἴος, ὅσος, ὡς, etc.);
 - Nominal exclamations (cf. Engl. *Great job!*): In Greek, such exclamations are expressed by means of the nominative or genitive case;
 - Sentence exclamations (cf. Engl. Did Alice do a great job!): To the extent that such exclamations are expressed through a special construction in Greek, the infinitive is used (\rightarrow 38.51).
- 38.45 Exclamatory sentences in Greek are often accompanied by vocatives and/or interjections (φεῦ, οἴμοι, etc.).
- For indirect exclamations, i.e. the representation of exclamations in indirect discourse (cf. Engl. He was amazed at what a cool car John drove), $\rightarrow 42.9-11$.

Exclamations of Degree

- 38.47 With exclamations of degree, the speaker expresses his/her surprise or emotion at the fact that a situation or thing has in some respect (quality, quantity, etc.) exceeded his expectations. To express this type of exclamation, Greek uses the definite relative adjectives (οἶος, ὅσος, etc.; →8.1). The adjective may modify a noun (adnominal use) or be used pronominally (→26.22-3):
 - (70) ὧ πάππε, ὅσα πράγματα ἔχεις ἐν τῷ δείπνῳ, εἰ ἀνάγκη σοι ἐπὶ πάντα τὰ λεκάρια ταῦτα διατείνειν τὰς χεῖρας καὶ ἀπογεύεσθαι τούτων τῶν παντοδαπῶν βρωμάτων. (Xen. Cyr. 1.3.4)
 - Oh grandfather, how many troubles you have at dinner, if you have to stretch out your arms to all those dishes and have to taste of all those different kinds of food! $\delta\sigma\alpha$ modifies $\pi\rho\dot{\alpha}\gamma\mu\alpha\tau\alpha$, agreeing with it in case, number and gender.

(71) ὧ δύσδαιμον, οἶα πάσχομεν. (Eur. Alc. 258)
My unhappy wife, what (lit. 'what kind of') things we suffer! οἶα is used pronominally, as the object of πάσχομεν.

The **relative manner adverb** $\dot{\omega}_{5}$ how is used to qualify either adjectives (or adverbs) or verbs (with the latter it expresses the remarkable degree to which an action is carried out):

- (72) παπαιάξ, ώς καλὴν ὀσμὴν ἔχει. (Eur. Cyc. 153) My oh my! What a beautiful smell it has!
- (73) ὧ φίλταθ' Αἷμον, ὧς σ' ἀτιμάζει πατήρ. (Soph. Ant. 572)
 My dearest Haemon, how your father dishonours you!
- 38.48 The definite relative adjectives may be used predicatively (cf. the similar use of interrogative adjectives and demonstrative pronouns, \rightarrow 38.13, 29.34):
 - (74) ὅσην ἔχεις τὴν δύναμιν, ὧναξ δέσποτα. (Ar. Plut. 748)
 How great is the power you wield, lord my master! ὅσην is used predicatively with τὴν δύναμιν (note the article), the object of ἔχεις.
 - (75) οἴαν ἔχιδναν τήνδ' ἔφυσας. (Eur. Ion 1262)
 What a viper is this woman you have begotten! οἴαν ἔχιδναν is used predicatively with τήνδ', the object of ἔφυσας.

These examples differ subtly from (70)–(71). In (74), for instance, the exclamation only concerns the predicative part; one could paraphrase the sentence as 'you wield power and how great is it!' By contrast, in (70) the exclamation concerns the whole expression $\delta\sigma\alpha$ $\pi\rho\dot{\alpha}\gamma\mu\alpha\tau\alpha$ exerg.

- 38.49 Exclamations of degree frequently omit a verb:
 - (76) ὧ Ζεῦ πολυτίμηθ', ὡς καλαί. (Ar. Eq. 1390)O much-honoured Zeus, what beautiful women!

Nominal Exclamations

- Nominal exclamations express a speaker's surprise or emotion about a person or thing. They can be expressed by the **nominative case** (often with the interjection $\overset{\circ}{\omega}$ added) or by the **genitive of cause** ($\rightarrow 30.30$). With the latter construction an interjection (such as $\varphi \in \widetilde{U}$, $O^{\circ}(\mu \cap 1)$ or $\mathring{\omega}(\mu \cap 1)$ is virtually always present (interjections are a direct expression of grief/indignation/etc., to which the genitive is then added to convey the cause of that grief/indignation/etc.):
 - (77) ΦΑ. γέγραφε γὰρ δὴ ὁ Λυσίας πειρώμενόν τινα τῶν καλῶν, οὐχ ὑπ' ἐραστοῦ δέ, ἀλλ' αὐτὸ δὴ τοῦτο καὶ κεκόμψευται . . . :: ΣΩ. ἄ γενναῖος. (Pl. Phdr. 227c) (Phaedrus:) For Lysias represents one of the beautiful boys as being seduced, but not by a lover. That's the clever thing about it. :: (Socrates:) O, noble man! Note the accentuation of the interjection ἄ (not 'vocative' ὧ).

(78) οἴμοι <u>ταλαίνης</u> ἄρα <u>τῆσδε συμφορᾶς</u>. (Soph. El. 1179)
Ah, so sad, then, is this misfortune! More literally 'Alas, then, for this misfortune.'

Note 1: With interjections such as οἴμοι, the genitive of cause is used to refer to the second and third person; to refer to him/herself, the speaker uses the nominative:

(79) οἴμοι <u>τάλαινα</u>. (Soph. Ant. 554)Ah, poor me!

The Exclamatory Infinitive

- 38.51 The **infinitive** is used in exclamations to express surprise or indignation at **the very fact that a certain situation obtains**. The subject, if present, is expressed in the accusative (accusative-and-infinitive construction, $\rightarrow 51.21$):
 - (80) βάλλ' ἐς κόρακας. τοιουτονὶ <u>τρέφειν</u> κύνα. (Ar. *Vesp.* 835)

 Damn it to hell! Oh that anyone would keep such a dog!
 - (81) $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial$

That I should have been treated so – ah! – and that I, old and wise as I am, should live under the earth!

Introduction to Complex Sentences

Definitions; Functions of Subordinate Clauses

- 39.1 In chapter 26, an account was given of simple sentences, which are structured around a single predicate and several obligatory and optional constituents. When a sentence contains more than one predicate, we speak of **complex sentences**.
- 39.2 Predicates can combine to form complex sentences either
 - by **co-ordination** (also 'parataxis', lit.: 'placement next to');
 - or by **subordination** (also 'hypotaxis', lit.: 'placement under').

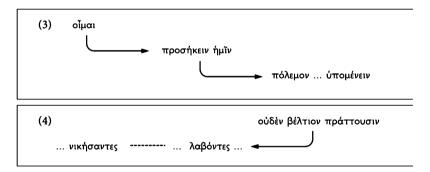
In subordination, one predicate is 'superior' to another in the structure of the sentence, in that the subordinate predicate fulfils a syntactic role with its super-ordinate predicate:

- τότε μὲν οὖν ... ἐδειπνηποιήσαντο καὶ ἐκοιμήθησαν. (Xen. Ages. 2.15)
 Then they took dinner and went to sleep. Co-ordination two main clauses are co-ordinated by καί.
- (2) τότε μὲν οὖν ... δειπνηποιησάμενοι ἐκοιμήθησαν. (Xen. Hell. 4.3.20)
 Then, having taken dinner, they went to sleep. Subordination the subordinate predicate, which here takes the form of a participle (δειπνηποιησάμενοι), fulfils the role of predicative modifier (→26.26) with the superordinate predicate ἐκοιμήθησαν.

Superordinate predicates such as ἐκοιμήθησαν in (2) will be called **matrix predicates** below; the clauses in which such predicates stand will be called **matrix** clauses.

- 39.3 Subordinate predicates may fulfil all syntactic roles which nominal elements can fulfil. Thus they may be an **obligatory constituent** of the matrix predicate (subject, object, complement), an **optional constituent** with that predicate (adverbial modifier, predicative modifier) or, in the case of many relative clauses and participles, a **modifier within a noun phrase**.
 - (3) πόλεμον ... οἶμαι προσήκειν ἡμῖν ὑπομένειν. (Isoc. 6.89)
 I think that it is fitting for us to endure war. The infinitive construction consisting of προσήκειν and everything that depends on it fulfils the role of object

- (an obligatory constituent) with the main predicate οἶμαι; in turn, the infinitive construction πόλεμον ὑπομένειν fulfils the role of subject (again an obligatory constituent) with προσήμειν.
- (4) καλλίστην γὰρ μάχην <u>νικήσαντες</u> καὶ δόξαν ἐξ αὐτῆς μεγίστην <u>λαβόντες</u>... οὐδὲν βέλτιον πράττουσιν. (Isoc. 5.53)
 - For although they won a splendid victory and acquired a very great reputation from it, they are no better off. The two co-ordinated participle constructions fulfil the role of predicative modifiers in the clause centred around $\pi \rho \acute{\alpha} \tau \tau \sigma \upsilon v$.
- (5) $\frac{\mathring{\epsilon} κεῖνοι}{(Lys. 12.88)}$ δέ, $\frac{ους}{ουτοι}$ $\frac{\mathring{\alpha}πώλεσαν}{(Lys. 12.88)}$. . . πέρας $\frac{\mathring{\epsilon}χουσι}{(Lys. 12.88)}$ τῆς παρὰ τῶν $\mathring{\epsilon}χθρῶν$ τιμωρίας.
 - But those men, whom these men have killed, are beyond getting satisfaction from their enemies. The relative clause ous ... $\alpha\pi\omega\lambda\epsilon\sigma\alpha\nu$ fulfils the role of attributive modifier with $\epsilon\kappa\epsilon\nu$, a constituent of the matrix clause centred around the predicate $\epsilon\chi\nu$ ous.
- 39.4 Examples (3) and (4) make clear that co-ordination and subordination are **recursive processes**: subordinate predicates can themselves have further subordinate predicates, or be co-ordinated with other subordinate predicates. Schematically, the hierarchical structure of the examples can be rendered as follows:



Note that in (3) προσήκειν is the matrix predicate of the infinitive construction πόλεμον ὑπομένειν. Thus there is a difference between the terms 'matrix predicate/clause' and 'main predicate/clause': the latter term refers only to the 'outermost' matrix clause, in which all subordinate constructions are embedded (e.g. οἷμαι in (3)).

Types of Subordinate Constructions

- As the examples given above show, Greek displays three major types of subordination, defined in terms of the verb form of the subordinate predicate:
 - infinitives (e.g. (3));
 - participles (e.g. (2) and (4));
 - **finite clauses** (e.g. (5)), which contain a **subordinator** (conjunction, relative pronoun, etc.) and **finite verb** (with a personal ending).

Note 1: Just as predicates may determine the case of the nominal constituents in a simple sentence (e.g. $\pi\alpha i\delta\epsilon\dot{\omega}\omega$ educate takes an object in the accusative, but $\beta\alpha\eta\theta\dot{\epsilon}\omega$ aid takes a complement in the dative), so matrix predicates often pose constraints on the expression of tense, mood and other features of the subordinate predicate.

In (4), for instance, a choice of οἶμαι *think* predetermines the selection of an infinitive for the object, because this verb always takes an infinitive (and not a ὅτι/ώς-clause or participle, \rightarrow 51.19 with n.1); the same restriction exists for προσήκειν (\rightarrow 51.8).

In (2), the participle is built on the aorist stem, implying that the 'taking dinner' temporally preceded the 'going to sleep': the matrix predicate functions as the temporal anchor for the subordinate predicate (\rightarrow 33.57). Furthermore, the participle agrees with the subject of the matrix predicate.

Although all these forms involve strategies of subordination, the term **subordinate clause** is usually reserved for the last category. In the structure of this book, too, we first treat different kinds of finite subordinate clauses (40-50), while the syntax of the infinitive and of the participle are treated separately in 51 and 52.

An overview of the various subordinate constructions is given in 53.

Introduction to Finite Subordinate Clauses

Subordinators

- 40.1 The following types of **subordinators** introduce Greek finite subordinate clauses:
 - **conjunctions** (ὅτι, ὡς, εἰ, ὅτε, ἐπεί, διότι, μή, etc.);
 - relative pronouns (ὅς, ἥ, ὅ; ὅστις, etc.), relative adjectives (οἶος, ὅσος; ὅποιος, ὅποσος, etc.), or relative adverbs (ἔνθα, ὡς; ὅπως, etc.);
 - in indirect questions, interrogative pronouns (τίς, etc.), or indefinite relative pronouns (ὅστις, etc.).

Note 1: Greek finite subordinate clauses **always** have a subordinator, in contrast to English, where such subordinators may sometimes be left out (contrast *He said that I was clever* with *He said I was clever*; *The man that/whom I saw was ugly* with *The man I saw was ugly*).

The only exception in Greek is the use of the subjunctive after second-person βούλει/ βούλεσθε or θέλεις/θέλετε, for which $\rightarrow 34.8$ n.2, 38.17. (This is perhaps best seen as a case of coordination, rather than subordination, however.)

Functions and Types of Finite Subordinate Clauses

- 40.2 The following types of subordinate clause function as **obligatory constituents** with certain kinds of matrix predicates: the subordinate clause functions as subject or object with the matrix predicate (and the subordinate clause therefore cannot be left out). Such clauses are called **complement clauses**:
 - declarative subordinate clauses (indirect statement), introduced by ὅτι or ὡς
 (→41);
 - indirect questions, introduced by εἰ / πότερον ... ἤ / εἴτε ... εἴτε, interrogative pronouns/adjectives/adverbs (τίς, πόσος, ποῦ, etc.), or indefinite relative pronouns/adjectives/adverbs (ὅστις, ὁπόσος, ὅπου, etc.); and indirect exclamations, introduced by definite relative adjectives or adverbs (ὅσος, ὡς, etc.) (→42);
 - fear clauses, introduced by μή (→43);
 - **effort clauses**, introduced by δπως (→44).

Note 1: These clauses are also often called 'substantival clauses' (because they fulfil the same syntactic role that may be fulfilled by noun phrases, i.e. substantives) or 'object clauses'. Note that, in spite of the terms 'complement clause' and 'object clause', such clauses may also function as subject, e.g. in $\hat{\epsilon}\lambda\hat{\epsilon}\gamma\epsilon\tau$ 0 $\hat{\sigma}\tau$ 1 . . . it was reported that . . ., where the $\hat{\sigma}\tau$ 1-clause is subject of $\hat{\epsilon}\lambda\hat{\epsilon}\gamma\epsilon\tau$ 0.

- 40.3 The following types of subordinate clause can be added to a matrix clause optionally; the subordinate clause functions as an **optional adverbial modifier** with the matrix predicate. Such clauses are called **adverbial clauses**:
 - **purpose clauses**, introduced by \tilde{v} να, \tilde{o} πως, $\tilde{ω}$ ς, or $\mu\dot{\eta}$ (→45);
 - result clauses, introduced by ὥστε (→46);
 - **temporal clauses**, introduced by ὅτε, ἐπεί, πρίν, ἕως, etc. (\rightarrow 47);
 - causal clauses, introduced by ὅτι οr διότι (→48);
 - conditional clauses, introduced by εὶ (also concessive clauses introduced by εἰ καί/καὶ εἰ) (→49).
- 40.4 Finally, **relative clauses** (→50), introduced by the relative pronouns ὅς, ὅστις, etc. or by relative adjectives such as οἶος, ὅσος, etc., typically function as an (attributive) **modifier** of a head (pro)noun in the matrix clause (the antecedent). However, there are also 'autonomous' relative clauses, which lack a nominal antecedent in the matrix clause (→50.7) and function as constituents in the matrix clause by themselves. Such clauses can or cannot be omitted depending on their function in the sentence.

Note 1: Because they usually modify an antecedent noun, relative clauses are often called 'adjectival clauses'. But autonomous relative clauses are not properly 'adjectival'.

Other **relative clauses** function as optional adverbial modifiers (particularly those introduced by relative adverbs such as ἔνθα, ὡς: $\rightarrow 50.34-40$).

Moods in Subordinate Clauses

Subordinate Clauses Which Use the Same Moods as Independent Sentences

- Several types of subordinate clause use the same moods as are used in independent sentences (\rightarrow 34):
 - declarative ὅτι/ώς-clauses (→41);
 - indirect questions (→42; the same moods are used as in direct questions, for which →38.15-17);
 - causal clauses (\rightarrow 48);

- some result clauses with ωστε (→46.4-5);
- 'digressive' relative clauses (\rightarrow 50.6, 50.17).

In the first three of these ($\delta\tau_1/\dot{\omega}_5$ -clauses, indirect questions and in causal clauses introduced by $\delta\tau_1$), an oblique optative may 'replace' the mood used in historic sequence ($\rightarrow 40.12-14$).

Note 1: The main moods used in all these clauses are the indicative, 'potential' optative $(+ \, \check{\alpha} \nu)$ and 'counterfactual' modal (secondary) indicative $(+ \, \check{\alpha} \nu)$. The optative and modal indicative in wishes and the imperative and subjunctive in commands are all very rare in subordinate clauses.

Subordinate Clauses with Required Moods

- 40.6 Several types of subordinate clause grammatically **require the use of a certain** mood:
 - fear clauses (fear for the future): the subjunctive (clauses expressing concern about the past or present use the indicative) (\rightarrow 43);
 - effort clauses: the future indicative, sometimes the subjunctive $(\rightarrow 44)$;
 - purpose clauses: the subjunctive (\rightarrow 45).

In each of these types, an oblique optative may 'replace' the mood used in historic sequence (\rightarrow 40.12–14).

Moods and the Use of av in Temporal, Conditional and Relative Clauses

- 40.7 In temporal clauses (→47), conditional clauses (→49) and 'restrictive' relative clauses (→50.6, 50.18-22) a speaker may use different moods and/or the particle ἄν to express differences with respect to the time, reality or likelihood of the action in the subordinate clause. These constructions are discussed in detail in the relevant chapters; since these types share certain features, however, some general points may be made here.
- 40.8 Various factors play a role in the choice of moods in temporal, conditional and relative clauses:
 - whether the action referred to is in the past, present or future;
 - whether the speaker refers to a single action or a repeated/habitual action;
 - in conditional and some relative clauses, in addition, whether it is considered likely, (remotely) possible, or no longer possible that an action will take place (or is taking place/has taken place), or if no such attitude about the likelihood of the action is adopted (i.e. a neutral attitude).

Note 1: Temporal clauses always present an action as taking place: no distinctions between different degrees of likelihood are expressed by such clauses.

- 40.9 The following constructions are commonly used in **temporal**, **conditional**, **and** relative clauses:
 - Indicative: used by a speaker (in temporal clauses and relative clauses) to refer to actions which factually took place in the past or are taking place in the present, or used (in conditional and certain relative clauses) when a speaker adopts a neutral attitude towards the reality/likelihood of a past, present or future action:
 - (1) ἐπειδὴ δὲ Θησεὺς ... δημοκρατίαν ἐποίησεν ..., τὸν ... βασιλέα οὐδὲν ἦττον ὁ δῆμος ἡρεῖτο ἐκ προκρίτων. ([Dem.] 59.75)
 And when Theseus had established a democracy, the people nonetheless chose their king from a select few. Temporal clause with aor. ind.; the narrator presents the establishment of the democracy as a factual event in the past.
 - (2) ... περὶ Ὑπερβορέων εἰρημένα ... ἔστι ... Ὁμήρῳ ἐν Ἐπιγόνοισι, εἰ δὴ τῷ ἐόντι γε Ὅμηρος ταῦτα τὰ ἔπεα ἐποίησε. (Hdt. 4.32)
 There is discussion of the Hyperboreans by Homer in his Epigoni, if indeed Homer did write that work. Conditional clause with aor. ind.; the narrator expresses a neutral stance: he gives no verdict on whether Homer wrote the Epigoni or not (though a degree of scepticism is expressed by τῷ ἐόντι γε; for such scepticism in neutral conditional clauses, →49.4).
 - 'Prospective' subjunctive + ἄν: to refer to actions which the speaker presents as occurring (temporal clauses) or probably occurring (conditional/relative clauses) in the future; the main clause normally has a verb form with future reference (e.g. a future indicative, imperative, hortatory subjunctive, etc.; →33.63-4):
 - (3) ὁπότερος ἄν σφῷν ... με μᾶλλον εὖ ποιῆ, | τούτῳ παραδώσω τῆς Πυκνὸς τὰς ἡνίας. (Ar. Eq. 1108-9)
 Whichever one of you two treats me better, to him I will return the reins of the state. Relative clause with ἄν + subj., main clause with fut. ind.; the speaker refers to good treatment in the future, which he considers very likely.
 - 'Indefinite' subjunctive + ăv: to refer to actions which occur habitually (repeatedly, typically, generically) in or up to the present; the main clause normally has a present indicative referring to an habitual action (→33.15):

(4) <u>ος αν</u> δακρῦσαι μάλιστα ... <u>ποιήση</u> πόλιν, οὖτος τὰ νικητήρια <u>φέρει</u>. (Pl. Leg. 800d)

Whoever best succeeds at making the city cry, that man (always) carries off the palm of victory. Relative clause with $\delta v + subj$, main clause with pres. ind.; the speaker refers to a recurring situation in the city.

In historic sequence, the **indefinite** construction (referring to actions which took place repeatedly in the past) is expressed by '**iterative**' **optative** without dv (\rightarrow 40.13); the main clause usually has an imperfect referring to a habitual action in the past (\rightarrow 33.24):

(5) <u>ὅκως</u> γὰρ τειχήρεας <u>ποιήσειε</u>, τὸ ἐνθεῦτεν χώματα χῶν πρὸς τὰ τείχεα <u>ἐπόρθεε</u>. (Hdt. 1.162.2)

Whenever he had locked them up inside their walls, he would next heap up mounds against the walls and destroy the city. *Temporal clause with opt.*, main clause with impf.: the narrator refers to repeated build-ups to sieges.

Note 1: The prospective construction (sometimes called 'anticipatory') is the default construction for temporal/conditional/relative clauses referring to the future; in temporal clauses it is the only possible construction (\rightarrow 47.8). Note that English in such cases uses present-tense forms (the so-called 'concealed' future, cf. 'treats' in the translation of (3)). **Note 2:** Different labels such as 'prospective' and 'indefinite' for subjunctive + $\alpha \nu$ are traditional, but the distinction between the two types should not be pressed too hard; both

Even so, the distinction is sometimes irrelevant:

- (6) τοῦτο ὑμῶν δέομαι ... ἐὰν διὰ τῶν αὐτῶν λόγων ἀκούητέ μου ἀπολογουμένου δι' ὧνπερ εἴωθα λέγειν ... μήτε θαυμάζειν μήτε θορυβεῖν τούτου ἕνεκα. (Pl. Ap. 17c-d)

 This thing I ask of you: if/whenever you hear me defend myself using the same words which I am accustomed to speak, not to be surprised or to make a disturbance on that account. The dynamic infinitives in the matrix clause (θαυμάζειν and θορυβεῖν, dependent on δέομαι) have future reference, and ἄν + subj. could therefore be seen as 'prospective'; at the same time, the sentence refers to a general prescription, so an 'indefinite' reading is equally valid.
- 40.10 In **conditional and some relative clauses** (but *not* temporal clauses), the following additional constructions are possible:
 - 'Potential' optative: to refer to actions in the future (or a different reality), of which the speaker considers it **possible** (but no more than that) that they will occur; the main clause normally has potential optative + $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ (\rightarrow 34.13):

- (7) εἰ μέν τις τῶν τραγικῶν ποιητῶν ... ποιήσειεν ἐν τραγῳδία τὸν Θερσίτην ὑπὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων στεφανούμενον, οὐδεὶς ἄν ὑμῶν ὑπομείνειεν. (Aeschin. 3.231) If some tragic poet should portray Thersites in a tragedy being crowned by the Greeks, none of you would abide it. Conditional clause with opt., main clause with ἄν + opt.; the speaker refers to a possible (but not very likely) plot of a tragedy.
- 'Counterfactual' modal (secondary) indicative: to refer to actions in the present or past, which the speaker considers no longer possible; the main clause normally has counterfactual modal indicative + ἄν (→34.16):
- (8) εἰ τὸ καὶ τὸ ἐποίησεν ἄνθρωπος ούτοσί, οὐκ ἄν ἀπέθανεν. (Dem. 18.243)
 If this man had done this or that, he would not have died. Conditional clause with secondary ind., main clause with ἄν + secondary ind.: the doing of 'this or that' is presented as no longer possible. For τὸ καὶ τό, →28.30.
- 40.11 The following table summarizes the possible constructions:

construction/meaning	subordinate clause	matrix clause
factual/neutral:	indicative	any tense/mood
prospective:	subjunctive + ἄν	future indicative, etc. present indicative, etc.
indefinite:	subjunctive + ἄν	
(in historic sequence:)	ʻiterative' optative without ἄν	imperfect
	Conditional and Relative Clauses	(only)
construction/meaning	subordinate clause	matrix clause
potential:	optative (without ἄν)	optative + ἄν
counterfactual:	secondary indicative (without ἄν)	secondary indicative + čv

Temporal, Conditional and Relative Clauses

Sequence of Moods; the Oblique Optative

- 40.12 In many (but not all) types of subordinate clause, the use of moods may be affected by the **tense** $(\rightarrow 33.1-2)$ of the matrix clause:
 - if the verb in the matrix clause is in a non-past tense (present, perfect, future) –
 this is called primary sequence the use of moods is normally not affected;
 - if the verb in the matrix clause is in a past tense (imperfect, aorist, pluperfect) this is called historic (or secondary) sequence a so-called oblique optative is regularly used in the subordinate clause, 'replacing' the mood that would be used in primary sequence, although that 'original' mood may also be 'retained'; the tense stem is always unchanged.

For example:

- (9) ... ὁ ... <u>δέδοικ'</u> ἐγὼ μἡ <u>πάθηθ'</u> ὑμεῖς. (Dem. 9.65)
 ... which I am afraid you might suffer.
- (10) <u>ἔδεισα</u> μἡ . . . <u>πάθοιτέ</u> τι. (Xen. *Cyr*. 2.1.11)
 I was afraid that you might suffer something.
- (11) πολύν μὲν φόβον ἡμῖν παρείχετε μή τι πάθητε. (Xen. Cyr. 4.5.48) You gave us much fear that you might suffer something.
 - In (9), in primary sequence (after pf. ind. δέδοικ(α)), the subjunctive $\pi άθητ(\varepsilon)$ is used in a fear clause ($\rightarrow 43.3$). In (10), in historic sequence (after aor. ind. ἔδεισ α), the oblique aor. optative $\pi άθοιτε$ replaces an aor. subj. Finally, in (11), in historic sequence (after impf. $\pi \alpha p \varepsilon i \chi \varepsilon \tau \varepsilon$), the aor. subj. $\pi άθητ\varepsilon$ is retained.
- (12) <u>λέγει</u> ὅτι παρὰ τοῦ αὐτοῦ ἀνθρώπου ἔχει τὸ ἀργύριον. ([Dem.] 48.37) He says that he has got the money from his own slave.
- (13) εἶπε ... ὅτι παρασπόνδους ὑμᾶς ἔχοι. (Lys. 12.74) He said that he held you to be oathbreakers.

In (12), in primary sequence (after pres. ind. $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \epsilon i$), the indicative $\dot{\epsilon} \chi \epsilon i$ is a standard mood in a declarative $\ddot{\delta} \tau i$ -clause ($\rightarrow 41.7$); in (13), in historic sequence (after aor. ind. $\epsilon \ddot{i} \pi \epsilon$), the oblique pres. optative $\ddot{\epsilon} \chi o i$ replaces a pres. ind.

Note 1: Thus, unlike English, Greek does not normally have a sequence of tenses with 'backshifting' (compare $He \underline{says}$ that $he \underline{has}$, $He \underline{said}$ that $he \underline{had}$; for fuller discussion, $\rightarrow 41.1$), only a sequence of moods. For exceptions, $\rightarrow 41.15$.

Note 2: It is often said that in historic sequence the 'original' tense or mood is either 'retained' or 'replaced' by an oblique optative of the same tense stem. Such formulations are a didactic convenience and occasionally used in this grammar. However, they should not be taken to reflect what speakers actually consciously do, nor should it be inferred that the oblique optative is a more marked or unexpected construction. In most contexts, the oblique optative is the more common, even default, option (\rightarrow 41.13 n.1, 45.3).

In historic sequence, there is a nuanced difference between retaining the original mood and using the oblique optative. For detailed discussion and examples of this difference in various types of subordinate clause, \rightarrow 41.13–14, 43.3 n.2, 45.3 n.1, 48.2.

- 40.13 Indefinite subordinate clauses (\rightarrow 40.9) in historic sequence always use the iterative optative (without αv ; in primary sequence, they have $\alpha v + \beta v +$
- 40.14 If a subordinate clause in historic sequence that may take the oblique optative **itself has another subordinate clause**, that subordinate clause too *may* (but does not have to) take the optative:

(14) ἐσκόπει ὁ Μενεκλῆς ὅπως ... ἔσοιτο αὐτῷ ὅστις ζῶντα ... χηροτροφήσοι. (Isae. 2.10)

Menecles wondered how he might have someone to attend to him while still alive. Relative clause (ὅστις ... γηροτροφήσοι) subordinate to an indirect question (ὅπως ... αὐτῷ), which is itself subordinate to ἐσκόπει; fut. opt. ἔσοιτο 'replaces' fut. ind. ἔσται; fut. opt. γηροτροφήσοι replaces fut. ind. γηροτροφήσει. For relative clauses with a fut. ind., $\rightarrow 50.24$.

In such clauses, prospective/indefinite αv + subjunctive is replaced (if not retained) by optative without αv :

(15) ἡπείλησε τῆ γυναικὶ ὅτι εἰ μὴ <u>βούλοιτο</u> ἑκοῦσα, ἄκουσα ποιήσοι ταῦτα. (Xen. Cyr. 6.1.33)

He threatened the woman that if she did not choose it willingly, she would do these things against her will. Conditional clause (εἰ ... ἐκοῦσα) subordinate to a declarative ὅτι-clause (ὅτι ... ταῦτα), itself subordinate to ἡπείλησε: fut. opt. ποιήσοι replaces fut. ind. ποιήσει; pres. opt. βούλοιτο replaces pres. subj. βούληται + ἄν.

Attraction of Mood

- 40.15 In subordinate clauses modifying a matrix clause with a **potential optative** + $\alpha \nu$ (\rightarrow 34.13) or a **cupitive optative** (\rightarrow 34.14), the finite verb in the subordinate clause sometimes also appears in the optative (rather than in another, 'expected' mood): the action is thus presented as part of the possible or wished-for scenario. This phenomenon is known as **attraction of mood**. For example:
 - (16) <u>βούλοιντ' ἄν</u> ἡμᾶς πάντας ἐξολωλέναι, | ἵνα τὰς τελετὰς <u>λάβοιεν</u> αὐτοὶ τῶν θεῶν. (Ar. *Pax* 412–13)
 - They'd want us all annihilated, so they could take over the rites of the gods themselves. Purpose clauses with $\[iva]$ normally take the subjunctive ($\rightarrow 45.3$); here, the optative $\lambda \acute{\alpha} \beta o \imath \epsilon \nu$ is used instead, as the mood attracts to that of potential $\beta o \acute{\nu} \lambda o \imath \nu \tau$ $\[iva]$ $\[iva]$
 - (17) ἔρδοι τις ἣν ἕκαστος εἰδείη τέχνην. (Ar. Vesp. 1431)
 May everyone perform the craft that he is knowledgeable of. The optative εἰδείη is attracted to cupitive ἔρδοι: the relative clause introduced by ἥν would otherwise have taken indefinite ἄν + subj.

Attraction of mood also occurs in subordinate clauses modifying matrix clauses with a **counterfactual modal (secondary) indicative** (\rightarrow 34.15–18). In such clauses the verb in the subordinate clause is a secondary indicative. For example:

(18) ἐβουλόμην δ' ἄν, ὧ βουλή, Σίμωνα τὴν αὐτὴν γνώμην ἐμοὶ ἔχειν, ἵν' ἀμφοτέρων ἡμῶν ἀκούσαντες τὰληθῆ ῥαδίως ἔγνωτε τὰ δίκαια. (Lys. 3.21)

I would have preferred, Council, for Simon to have the same intention as myself, so that you might have easily come to a just verdict after hearing the truth from both sides. *Purpose*

clauses with "va take the subjunctive (or optative in historic sequence): in this case the

secondary indicative is found, attracted to counterfactual ἐβουλόμην ἄν.

Indirect Statements

Introduction: Indirect Speech

Direct versus Indirect Speech

- 41.1 A reporter may represent speech (or thought) in one of two forms:
 - Direct: 'John said to Jane: "I want to see you."
 - Indirect: 'John said to Jane that he wanted to see her.'

Direct speech conveys the impression that John's words are reported in the same form in which he spoke them (whether John *actually* said anything of the sort is an open question). Indirect speech conveys the impression that the reported words are given from the perspective of the reporter, necessitating certain changes to their original form. These changes include:

- Indications of grammatical person: in direct speech, person indications (I, you, he) are oriented on the perspective (or 'deictic centre') of the person whose words are reported. In the first example John and Jane are referred to by first-person I and second-person you respectively, evoking the roles of speaker and addressee which John and Jane fulfilled in the reported speech situation. In indirect speech, such indications are oriented on the reporter's perspective. In the second example both John and Jane are referred to by third-person pronouns (he, her) from the perspective of the reporter, as John and Jane are not the speaker and addressee of the current speech situation.
- Tense: in direct speech tense is oriented on the temporal perspective of the person whose words are reported. In the first example, the present tense want is used, expressing the idea that the moment of 'wanting (to see Jane)' was in the present for John when he spoke. In indirect speech tense is oriented on the temporal perspective of the reporting speaker: in the second example, the past tense wanted expresses the idea that the moment of 'wanting to see Jane' is in the reporter's past. This operation is called the back-shifting of tense.
- Subordination vs. co-ordination: direct speech is not explicitly subordinated to
 a verb of 'speaking' or 'thinking': the syntactic relationship between the two
 clauses is best thought of as paratactic (→39.2). By contrast, indirect speech is

explicitly subordinated to a verb of 'speaking' or 'thinking', in the example above through the conjunction *that*.

The first two changes are not mechanical, but depend on the relationship of the participants and time in the reported and in the current speech situation. For instance, if the reporter reports John's utterance to Jane (who was also the addressee in the reported speech situation), the appropriate indirect report is *John said to you that he wanted to see you*. Furthermore, some languages (including Greek) may use paratactic indirect speech and subordinated direct speech (\rightarrow 41.16 and 41.5).

Types of Indirect Speech

- Different types of utterances (\rightarrow 38.1) are subordinated to a matrix verb in different ways when they are indirectly reported:
 - Indirect declarative clauses, called indirect statements or that-clauses: these are regularly introduced by ὅτι or ὡς that; this chapter is concerned with such ὅτι/ὡς-clauses.

Depending on the matrix verb, indirect declarative constructions may also take the form of a declarative infinitive or participle: for these constructions, \rightarrow 51.19-27 and 52.8, 52.10.

Note 1: For the differences between declarative infinitives and $\delta\tau_1/\dot{\omega}_5$ -clauses, $\rightarrow 51.19$ n.1; for the differences between declarative participles and $\delta\tau_1/\dot{\omega}_5$ -clauses, $\rightarrow 52.28$. For an overview, also $\rightarrow 53.1-4$.

- Indirect interrogative clauses, called **indirect questions**; $\rightarrow 42$:
- νῦν ἐρωτῆς εἰ ἔχω σε διδάξαι. (Pl. Men. 82a)
 Now you are asking whether I am capable of teaching you.
- Indirect exclamations; →42:
- (2) τὸν λόγον δέ σου πάλαι θαυμάσας ἔχω, ὅσω καλλίω τοῦ προτέρου ἀπηργάσω.(Pl. Phdr. 257c)

As for your speech, I have all this time been surprised how much more beautifully you managed it than your earlier one.

- Indirect commands; Greek uses the dynamic infinitive for these, \rightarrow 51.2-4, 51.8-15:
- (3) <u>πέμπειν</u> οὖν ἐκέλευεν αὐτοὺς ναῦς. (Thuc. 7.31.4)So he ordered them to send ships.

Indirect Statements

Verbs Introducing Indirect Statements

41.3 There are many verbs which may take ὅτι/ώς-clauses. Some of the most frequent are:

αἰσθάνομαι learn that, hear that ἀκούω hear, be told that ἄχθομαι be angry that

γιγνώσκω realize that, recognize that

point out that δείκνυμι it is clear that δῆλόν (ἐστι) διδάσκω teach that λέγω/εἶπον say that μανθάνω learn that know that οἶδα όράω see that learn that πυνθάνομαι φαίνεται it is clear that φράζω say that χαίρω be glad that

Note 1: Many verbs which take indirect statements do not involve speech, but rather knowledge, (mental) perception, or emotion (these verbs are also regularly construed with a participle, \rightarrow 52.10). In the case of impersonal expressions like $\delta\tilde{\eta}\lambda\dot{\delta}\nu$ $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau_1$ and $\varphi\alpha\iota\nu\epsilon\tau\alpha_1$, there is not even a clearly defined reported 'speaker'. In such cases, it is perhaps not quite appropriate to speak of 'indirect speech' and a corresponding 'direct speech', but the term is a convenient shorthand.

Subordinators Introducing Indirect Statements

41.4 Indirect statements (that-clauses) are introduced by ὅτι or ὡς.

Note 1: Alternative subordinators for indirect statements are ὅπως (next to ὡς), διότι (next to ὅτι; διότι usually introduces causal clauses, $\rightarrow 48.2$), οὕνεκα and ὁθούνεκα (both confined to poetry).

- ὅτι, but not on the whole ὡς, is sometimes used to introduce direct speech; this use is known asὅτι recitativum:
 - (4) ἐπεὶ δὲ Πρόξενος εἶπεν ὅτι αὐτός εἰμι ὃν ζητεῖς, εἶπεν ὁ ἄνθρωπος τάδε· ... (Xen. An. 2.4.16)
 When Proxenus said (that) 'I am the very man you are looking for', the man said the following: . . .
- In classical Attic ὅτι is the default conjunction (and ὡς becomes progressively rarer over time).
 ὡς is mostly used if the reporter expressly wishes to convey that the truth of the reported

statement is open to doubt. But $\dot{\omega}_S$ is also used to give the meaning 'how' or 'how it can be said that' (compare $\pi\tilde{\omega}_S$ $\lambda \dot{\epsilon}_Y \epsilon_{1S}$; 'What do you mean?'/'How is it that you say . . . ?'), and so is often employed in (factual) summaries:

- (5) λέγουσιν <u>ώς</u> οὐδὲν κακὸν οὐδ' αἰσχρὸν εἰργασμένοι εἰσίν. ἐγὼ δ' ἐβουλόμην ἄν αὐτοὺς ἀληθῆ λέγειν. (Lys. 12.22)
 - They say that they have not perpetrated any wicked or disgraceful act. I would wish they speak the truth. Through the use of $\dot{\omega}_5$ the reporter indicates that he believes the reported speakers' statement to be false.
- (6) κατηγόρει πρῶτον μὲν ώς μετὰ τὴν ἐκφορὰν αὐτῇ προσίοι, ἔπειτα ώς αὐτὴ τελευτῶσα εἰσαγγείλειε καὶ ώς ἐκείνη τῷ χρόνῳ πεισθείη, καὶ τὰς εἰσόδους οἶς τρόποις προσιεῖτο . . . καὶ τἄλλα τὰ γενόμενα πάντα ἀκριβῶς διηγήσατο. (Lys. 1.20)

 She accused him, telling first how after the funeral he had approached her, then how she ended up acting as his messenger and how my wife in time was persuaded, and the ways in which she used to let him into the house . . . And all the other things that had happened
 - she told me in detail. The use of ω_s 'how' suggests that the reported speaker focused in a detailed way on how the reported states of affairs came about; $\delta \tau_1$ 'that' would not carry the same suggestion: compare 'She told me how he had approached her' to 'She told me that he had approached her'. The reported speaker said more than is reported in the ω_s -clauses, so that the report only presents a summary of what originally was a much lengthier story. Note, too, the co-ordination of ω_s with δ_s $\tau_s \delta_s$
- (7) ἡγοῦμαι τοίνυν, ὧ βουλή, ἐμὸν ἔργον ἀποδεῖξαι, ὡς, ἐπειδἡ τὸ χωρίον ἐκτησάμην, οὔτ' ἐλάα οὔτε σηκὸς ἐνῆν ἐν αὐτῷ. (Lys. 7.5)
 I believe therefore, members of the Council, that it is my task to prove (how it can be) that when I acquired the estate, there was neither an olive tree nor a stump on it. The speaker

summarizes beforehand the points which he will go on to present in greater detail.

Tense and Mood in ὅτι/ώς-Clauses

In Primary Sequence

- 41.7 In **primary sequence** (→40.12) i.e. after verbs in a **primary tense** (present, future, perfect), and also after imperatives, potential optatives and modal indicatives the tense stem and mood of the corresponding direct speech are retained:
 - (8) <u>λέγει</u> δ' ώς ήμεῖς <u>ἤλθομεν</u> ἐπὶ τὴν οἰκίαν τὴν τούτου ὄστρακον ἔχοντες, καὶ ὡς <u>ἤπείλουν</u> αὐτῷ ἐγὼ ἀποκτενεῖν, καὶ ὡς τοῦτό <u>ἐστιν</u> ἡ πρόνοια. (Lys. 3.28) He says that we came to his house carrying pieces of broken pottery and that I threatened to kill him, and that this constitutes 'premeditation'. *Direct speech*: ἦλθον, ἤπείλει, ἐστίν.

- (9) καὶ ἐμοὶ οὐδεὶς <u>λόγος ἔσται</u> ἔτι, ἐάν τι πάσχω, ὡς παρανόμως <u>ἀπωλόμην</u>. (Antiph. 5.96)
 - And I will have no reason left for complaining, if I am convicted, that I have been destroyed illegally. Direct speech: $\dot{\alpha}\pi\omega\lambda\delta\mu\eta\nu$. Note that the 'destroying' may take place in the reporter's future, but by the time he will speak about it, it will be in the past.
- (10) ἀλλ' εἴποι ἄν τις ὅτι παῖδες ὄντες ἐμάνθανον. (Xen. Cyr. 4.3.10)
 But perhaps someone will say that they learned when they were boys. Direct speech: ἐμάνθανον.
- (11) παρελθών τις ... δειξάτω ... ώς οί ... δεδουλωμένοι νῦν οὐκ ἄν ἐλεύθεροι γένοιντο ἄσμενοι. (Dem. 2.8)
 Let someone come forward and show that those who have been reduced to slavery would not now welcome their freedom. Direct speech: οὐκ ἄν γένοιντο.

In Historic Sequence

With Verbs of Speaking

- 41.8 In historic sequence (→40.12) i.e. after a verb in a **secondary tense** (imperfect, aorist, pluperfect, and after historical presents) the tense stem and mood may be the same as that of the corresponding direct speech (in contrast to English, then, Greek does not 'back-shift' tense):
 - (12) αὐτίκα δὲ ἔς τε τοὺς δήμους φάτις ἀπίκετο ὡς Ἀθηναίη Πεισίστρατον κατάγει. (Hdt. 1.60.5)
 - Word soon reached the demes that Athena was bringing Pisistratus back. Direct speech: $\kappa\alpha\tau\dot{\alpha}\gamma\epsilon$. Note back-shifted 'was bringing' in the translation. Note also $\dot{\omega}_{5}$ (\rightarrow 41.6): as the reader already knows from the preceding context, it is in fact not Athena who is bringing back Pisistratus.
 - (13) ἀπεκρίνατο ... ὅτι πειθομένοις αὐτοῖς οὐ μεταμελήσει. (Xen. An. 7.1.34)

 He replied that they would not regret obeying. Direct speech: ὑμῖν οὐ μεταμελήσει. Note back-shifted 'would ... regret' in the translation.
 - (14) Κροῖσος δέ οἱ ἐπαλιλλόγησε ... ὡς ἐπαρθεὶς τῷ μαντηίῳ ἐστρατεύσατο ἐπὶ Πέρσας. (Hdt. 1.90.3)
 Croesus recapitulated for him ... how, encouraged by the oracle, he had gone to war against the Persians. Direct speech: ἐστρατευσάμην. Note back-shifted 'had gone to war' in the translation.
 - (15) Εὐφίλητος ... <u>λέγει</u> πρὸς αὐτοὺς ὅτι <u>πέπεισμαι</u> ταῦτα συμποιεῖν καὶ <u>ώμολόγηκα</u> αὐτῷ μεθέξειν τοῦ ἔργου. (Andoc. 1.62)

 Euphiletus said to them that I had consented to join them and had agreed to help him in carrying out the crime. *Direct speech*: πέπεισται, ώμολόγηκε. λέγει is historical present (→33.54); note back-shifted 'had consented' and 'had agreed' in the translation.

the usual periphrastic form, \rightarrow 19.9).

ήκουον.

- Alternatively, the **oblique optative** is used instead of the indicative mood of the verb in direct speech; the tense-aspect stem stays the same:
 - (16) εἶπον ὅτι σφίσι μὲν δοκοῖεν ἀδικεῖν οἱ Ἀθηναῖοι. (Thuc. 1.87.4)
 They said that they thought the Athenians did them wrong. Direct speech: ἡμῖν δοκοῦσι. The present indicative is replaced by a present optative. Note that first-person ἡμῖν is replaced by the indirect reflexive third-person pronoun σφίσι (→29.18).
 - (17) <u>ἔλεγεν</u> ὅτι <u>πεισθείη</u> ὑπὸ τούτων ἐμοῦ καταψεύδεσθαι. (Antiph. 5.33) He said that he had been persuaded by these men to lie about me. *Direct speech: ἐπείσθην. The aorist indicative is replaced by an aorist optative.*
 - (18) εἶπεν ὡς τὸν Παφλαγόνα φίλον ποιήσοιντο. (Xen. An. 5.6.3)
 He said that they would make the Paphlagonian their friend. Direct speech:
 ποιησόμεθα. The future indicative is replaced by a future optative.
 - (19) ἐπέστελλον ... καὶ ἄλλοι πολλοὶ τῷ Ξενοφῶντι ὡς διαβεβλημένος εἴη. (Xen. An. 7.6.44)
 Many others also sent word to Xenophon, that he had been slandered. Direct speech: διαβέβλησαι. The perfect indicative is replaced by a perfect optative (in
- 41.10 In principle, the present optative replaces both the present indicative and imperfect, and the perfect optative both the perfect indicative and pluperfect. In practice, however, the confusion which this could cause is avoided, in that the **imperfect and pluperfect are only very occasionally replaced** by an optative:
 - (20) εἶχε γὰρ λέγειν καὶ ὅτι μόνοι τῶν Ἑλλήνων βασιλεῖ συνεμάχοντο ἐν Πλαταιαῖς, καὶ ὅτι ὕστερον οὐδεπώποτε στρατεύσαιντο ἐπὶ βασιλέα. (Xen. Hell. 7.1.34)

 For he could state both that they alone among the Greeks had fought on the side of the king at Plataea, and that they had never since undertaken a campaign against the king. Direct speech: καὶ συνεμαχόμεθα ... καὶ ... οὐδεπώποτε ἐστρατευσάμεθα. Note that while the imperfect is retained, the aorist indicative is replaced by an aorist optative.
 - (21) ταῦτα μὲν τοῦ ὀΡχομενίου Θερσάνδρου ἤκουον, καὶ τάδε πρὸς τούτοισι, ὡς αὐτὸς αὐτίκα λέγοι ταῦτα πρὸς ἀνθρώπους πρότερον ἢ γενέσθαι ἐν Πλαταιῆσι τὴν μάχην. (Hdt. 9.16.5)

 This is what I heard from Thersander of Orchomenus, and he added to it that he himself had immediately told the story to others, before the battle of Plataea took place. Direct speech ἔλεγον, not λέγω (the optative, unusually, replaces an imperfect). Note πρότερον ἢ γενέσθαι ἐν Πλαταιῆσι τὴν

 $\mu \dot{\alpha} \chi \eta \nu$, which shows that the whole clause belongs to the past with respect to

- Potential optatives (+ $\alpha \nu$, $\rightarrow 34.13$) and counterfactual modal indicatives (+ $\alpha \nu$, $\rightarrow 34.16-17$) are **always retained** in indirect speech:
 - (22) ἀπελογοῦντο ὡς οὐκ ἄν ποτε οὕτω μῶροι ἦσαν ὡς ... (Xen. Hell. 5.4.22)
 They pleaded that they would never have been so foolish as to ... Direct speech: οὐκ ἄν ἦμεν.
 - (23) πέμψας πρὸς τὸν Δερκυλίδαν εἶπεν ὅτι ἔλθοι ἄν εἰς λόγους, εἰ ὁμήρους λάβοι. (Xen. Hell. 3.1.20)
 He (Midias) sent to Dercylidas and said that he would meet to negotiate with him, if he could first take hostages. Direct speech: ἔλθοιμι ἄν.
- 41.12 The possibilities for tense and mood in indirect statements in ὅτι/ώς-clauses after a secondary tense are set out in the following table:

Tense/Mood Direct			
Speech	Direct	Indirect	
pres. ind.	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολήν <u>γράφει</u> Socrates is writing a letter	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>γράφει</u> / <u>γράφοι</u> (pres. ind./opt.) He said that Socrates was writing a letter	
		(Socrates was writing while the reported speaker spoke)	
impf.	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν ἔγραφε	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν ἔ <u>γραφε</u> (/ <u>γράφοι</u>)	
	Socrates was writing a letter	(impf. / pres. opt. (rarely))	
		He said that Socrates had been writing a letter	
		(Socrates was writing before the reported speaker spoke)	
fut. ind.	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>γράψει</u>	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν γράψει / γράψοι	
	Socrates will write a letter	(fut. ind./opt.)	
		He said that Socrates would write a letter	
aor. ind.	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>ἔγραψε</u>	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν ἔγραψε /γράψειε	
	Socrates wrote a letter	(aor. ind./opt.)	
		He said that Socrates had written a letter	
pf. ind.	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>γέγραφε</u>	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν χέγραφε / χεγράφοι	
	Socrates is the writer of a letter	(pf. ind. /opt.)	
		He said that Socrates was the writer of a letter	
plpf.	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>ἐγεγράφει</u>	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν ἐγεγράφει	
	Socrates was the writer of a letter	(/χεγράφοι)	
		(plpf. / pf. opt. (rarely))	
		He said that Socrates had been the writer of a letter	
opt. + ἄν	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>γράψειεν ἄν</u>	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν γράψειεν ἄν	
	Socrates may write a letter	$(opt. + \alpha \nu)$	
		He said that Socrates might write a letter	
ind. + ἄν	ό Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν ἔγραψεν ἄν Socrates would have written a letter	εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Σωκράτης ἐπιστολὴν <u>ἔγραψεν ἄν</u> (ind. + ἄν)	
		He said that Socrates would have written a letter	

- 41.13 In those cases in which the reporter has a choice, there is a nuanced difference between retaining the mood of direct speech in historic sequence and using the oblique optative:
 - The oblique optative signals that the reporter presents everything from his own temporal perspective: he puts himself between the original speaker and the addressee, emphasizing his role as mediator.
 - The use of the mood of the corresponding direct speech presents the content of the speech emphatically from the perspective of the reported speaker. As such, the construction functions as a distancing device: it may suggest that the reporter believes the reported words to be false or otherwise inappropriate, or that the reported words were of particular importance in the reported speech situation (crucial to the reported speaker and to the addressee) and less important in the current speech situation.

Such nuances are especially clear in instances in which both constructions are used in single reports:

- (24) ἔτι δὲ ἀμφὶ δείλην ἔδοξαν πολεμίους ὁρᾶν ἱππέας ... ἐν ὡ δὲ ὡπλίζοντο ἦκον λέγοντες οἱ προπεμφθέντες σκοποὶ ὅτι οὐχ ἱππεῖς εἰσιν, ἀλλ' ὑποζύγια νέμοιντο. (Xen. An. 2.2.14–15)
 - While it was still late in the afternoon, they thought they saw enemy horsemen ... While they were arming themselves, the scouts who had been sent ahead said that they were not enemy horsemen, but yoke-animals grazing there. The part of the message of particular importance to the soldiers is that which corrects their expectations: contrary to what they believed, the animals they saw were not enemy horsemen (but yoke-animals).
- (25) ὁ δ' ἐρμηνεὺς εἶπε περσιστὶ ὅτι παρὰ βασιλέως πορεύονται πρὸς τὸν σατράπην.
 αἱ δὲ ἀπεκρίναντο ὅτι οὐκ ἐνταῦθα εἴη, ἀλλ' ἀπέχει ὅσον παρασάγγην. (Xen.
 An. 4.5.10)
 - The interpreter said in Persian that they (the Greeks) were on their way from the king to the satrap. The women answered that he wasn't there, but was about a parasang away. The interpreter tells a 'white lie' to some local women to find out the satrap's whereabouts (the Greeks are not actually on their way to him, but trying to avoid him) the reporter does not take responsibility for $\pi o \rho \epsilon \dot{\nu} o \nu \tau \dot{\nu} \sigma \alpha \tau \rho \dot{\alpha} \tau \eta \nu$. The most salient part of the women's answer is not their assertion about where he is not (the Greeks had suspected that he was not there; hence they took this route), but their assertion that he is only a parasang away.

Note 1: The optative is the more common construction throughout classical prose (discounting indicatives which cannot easily be replaced by the optative; \rightarrow 41.14), although there are differences between individual authors. However, the future and perfect optative are both rare forms and the indicative of these tenses is more often retained than that of the present and aorist. Furthermore, the oblique optative rapidly disappeared from common use after ca. 300 BCE.

Note 2: The future optative is used almost exclusively as oblique optative in indirect speech contexts (although it also occurs in effort clauses, \rightarrow 44.2).

- Not all present indicatives in historic sequence are readily replaced by the optative. If the speaker/narrator wishes to stress that a reported state of affairs obtained in the reported speaker's past and continues to obtain in the present, the optative is not usually found. For such indirect statements, it is not quite correct to say that the present indicative from the corresponding direct speech has been retained: tense is oriented on the reporter's 'now'. Note that in English, too, the tense is normally not 'back-shifted' under these circumstances (cf. the translations of (26)–(27)):
 - (26) κάγὼ ἔγνων αὐτὸν ὅτι μοι χαλεπαίνοι διαστέλλοντι τὰ λεγόμενα ... ἀνεμνήσθην οὖν τοῦ Κόννου, ὅτι μοι κἀκεῖνος χαλεπαίνει ἑκάστοτε ὅταν αὐτῷ μὴ ὑπείκω, ἔπειτά μου ἦττον ἐπιμελεῖται ὡς ἀμαθοῦς ὄντος. (Pl. Euthd. 295d)
 - I realized that he (Euthydemus) was angry with me for making distinctions in his phrases ... I remembered that Connus, too, becomes angry with me every time I do not give in to him and that afterwards he devotes less attention to me because he believes that I am stupid. Euthydemus is no longer angry with Socrates when the latter reports his anger. By contrast, Connus' getting angry and (not) paying attention are habitual actions (note έκάστοτε and the indefinite), which continue to the present time. Note that the reason for the alternation of the indicative and optative in this example is different from that in examples such as (24)–(25).
 - (27) ταῦτα ... ἐποίεε, ἐπιστάμενος ὅτι τῷ δικαίῳ τὸ ἄδικον πολέμιὸν ἐστι. (Hdt. 1.96.2)
 These things ... he did, understanding that injustice is the enemy of justice. The ὅτι-clause contains a generalization which is always valid, including at the reporter's time; for this use of the present indicative, →33.16.

The future indicative also occasionally pertains to the reporter's future, and not only to that of the reported speaker:

(28) τοῦτο ... ὁ τιθεὶς τὸν νόμον εἶδεν, ὅτι τούτων μὲν οὐδεὶς εἴσεται τὸν ἑαυτῷ κεχαρισμένον ὑμῶν, οἱ θεοὶ δὲ εἴσονται καὶ τὸ δαιμόνιον τὸν μὴ τὰ δίκαια ψηφισάμενον. (Dem. 19.239) This ... is what the legislator saw, that not one of these men will know which one of you has done him a favour, but that the gods and the divine will know whoever casts an unrighteous vote. The procedure under discussion (secret voting) is still in place and, as τούτων shows (→29.30), what matters to Demosthenes is the current trial, the outcome of which depends on the jurors' future voting.

With Verbs of Perception, Knowledge and Emotion

- 41.15 With verbs of perception, knowledge and emotion in a **secondary tense**, Greek on the whole uses the same constructions of ὅτι/ώς-clauses as after verbs of speaking: either the tense stem and mood of the corresponding direct speech are used, or the oblique optative:
 - (29) οὖτος ὁ Κόμων ἐτελεύτησεν ἄπαις ... καὶ ἦν πρεσβύτερος ὅτε ἐτελεύτα. καὶ ἐγὰ ἐπειδὴ ἤσθόμην ὅτι οὐχ οἶός τέ ἐστιν περιγενέσθαι ... ([Dem.] 48.5)

 This man Comon died childless and was quite old when he died. And when I became aware that he was not able to recover, ... Pres. ind. retained ('direct speech': οὐχ οἶός τέ ἐστιν περιγενέσθαι).
 - (30) ἐπεὶ δ' ἤσθοντο οἱ μὲν "Ελληνες ὅτι βασιλεὺς σὺν τῷ στρατεύματι ἐν τοῖς σκευοφόροις εἴη ... (Xen. An. 1.10.5)
 When the Greeks became aware that the king was in their baggage train with his forces, ... Oblique optative ('direct speech': βασιλεὺς ἐν τοῖς σκευοφόροις ἐστί).

- (31) καὶ εὐθὺς ἔγνωσαν πάντες ὅτι ἐγγύς που ἐστρατοπεδεύετο βασιλεύς. (Xen. An. 2.2.15)

 And immediately everybody realized that the king was camping somewhere nearby. 'Direct speech': στρατοπεδεύεται 'he is camping'.
- (32) ἐν πολλῃ δὴ ἀπορίᾳ ἦσαν οἱ "Ελληνες, ἐννοούμενοι ... ὅτι ἐπὶ ταῖς βασιλέως θύραις ἦσαν, ... ἀγορὰν δὲ οὐδεὶς ἔτι παρέξειν ἔμελλεν ... προυδεδώκεσαν δὲ αὐτοὺς καὶ οἱ σὺν Κύρῳ ἀναβάντες βάρβαροι, μόνοι δὲ καταλελειμμένοι ἦσαν. (Xen. An. 3.1.2)

 The Greeks were naturally in great perplexity, reflecting that they were at the King's gates, that no one would provide them with a market any longer, that the barbarians who had made the upward march with Cyrus had also betrayed them, and that they were left on their own. 'Direct speech': ἦσαν for ἐσμέν 'we are', παρέξειν ἔμελλεν for παρέξει 'he will provide', προυδεδώκεσαν for προδεδώκασιν 'they are traitors', καταλελειμμένοι ἦσαν for καταλελείμμεθα 'we are left'.

Note 1: In this construction, the indirect statements are not presented as thoughts of the subject of the main clause, but as independent facts from the reporter's temporal perspective, on which the subject of the matrix verb reflects. By contrast, the use of the indicative of the corresponding 'direct speech' (29) or of the optative (30) after verbs of perception, knowledge and emotion has the effect that the reported statement is presented as a mental content which occurred to the subject of the matrix clause in the past.

Note 2: For the use of participles with verbs of perception, knowledge and emotion, \rightarrow 52.10, with further discussion at 52.17–28.

The Continuation of Indirect Speech

- 41.16 Indirect speech often consists of more than one sentence. Reporters have several ways of indicating that the indirect speech extends over more than one statement:
 - To each new sentence a new verb of speaking can be added; forms of φημί with a declarative infinitive (→51.19–27) are particularly frequent:
 - (33) οἱ δὲ στρατιῶται ἔκοπτον τὰς πύλας καὶ ἔλεγον <u>ὅτι</u> ἀδικώτατα <u>πάσχοιεν</u> ἐκβαλλόμενοι εἰς τοὺς πολεμίους· <u>κατασχίσειν</u> τε τὰς πύλας <u>ἔφασαν</u>, εἰ μἡ ἑκόντες ἀνοίξουσιν. (Xen. An. 7.1.16)

 The soldiers were heating on the gates and kept saving that it was most
 - The soldiers were beating on the gates and kept saying that it was most unjust that they were being thrown out into enemy territory. And they said that they would smash down the gates, if they would not voluntarily open them.
 - A shift from a ὅτι/ώς-clause to a declarative infinitive can also take place without an inserted ἔφη:
 - (34) ἡ δὲ ἀπεκρίνατο ὅτι βούλοιτο μὲν ἄπαντα τῷ πατρὶ χαρίζεσθαι, ἄκοντα μέντοι τὸν παῖδα χαλεπὸν εἶναι νομίζειν καταλιπεῖν. (Xen. Cyr. 1.3.13)

 She answered that she wished to please her father in everything, but that she believed it was difficult to leave her son behind if he did not want her to.
 - Since the oblique optative is a clear marker of indirect speech, its use can indicate that a report continues beyond a single sentence:
 - (35) ἔλεξα ὅτι τὸν μὲν νόμον οὐ δικαίως μου προκαθισταίη Φιλοκράτης ... διαβάλλων εἰς τὸ δικαστήριον ... ἃ μέντοι ... διαβάλλοι, ῥαδίως ἐξελεγχθήσοιτο ψευδόμενος· εἶεν γὰρ οἱ συνειδότες πολλοί ... καὶ εἶπόν ... ταῦτα ἐν τῷ δικαστηρίῳ. (Antiph. 6.21–3)

 I said that Philocrates had no right to place legal impediments in my way, by slandering me before the court; that, however, concerning the content of his slander, it would be easy to prove that he was lying. After all, there were many witnesses. This was what I told the court.
 - Another frequent way of continuing reported speech is by switching from indirect to direct speech, with or without an inserted ἔφη:
 - (36) ἔλεγον ὅτι ἐγὰ πάντα εἴην πεπυσμένος τὰ γιγνόμενα ἐν τῆ οἰκίᾳ· Σοὶ οὖν, ἔφην, ἔξεστι δυοῖν ὁπότερον βούλει ἑλέσθαι, . . . (Lys. 1.18)
 I said that I had heard all about what was happening in my home. 'Therefore', I continued, 'two options are open to you, whichever you want, . . .'.

(37) ἐπεὶ δὲ ἀφίκοντο ἐπὶ σταθμόν, εὐθὺς ὥσπερ εἶχεν ὁ Ξενοφῶν ἐλθὼν πρὸς τὸν Χειρίσοφον ἢτιᾶτο αὐτὸν ὅτι οὐχ ὑπέμεινεν, ἀλλ' ἢναγκάζοντο φεύγοντες ἄμα μάχεσθαι. Καὶ νῦν δύο καλώ τε κἀγαθώ ἄνδρε τέθνατον καὶ οὔτε ἀνελέσθαι οὔτε θάψαι ἐδυνάμεθα. (Xen. An. 4.1.19)

When they reached a staging area, Xenophon immediately went, without further ado, to Chirisophus and reproached him for not waiting, but forcing them to fight and retreat at the same time. 'And now, two great men are dead and we could not collect their bodies and bury them.'

Subordinate Clauses in Indirect Speech

- 41.17 Reported sentences in indirect speech (whether they are statements, interrogatives, commands or exclamations) can have their own subordinate clauses. In the corresponding direct speech, these would be subordinate clauses to the main clause. In English, cf.:
 - Direct: 'John said to Jane: "I want to see you as soon as I arrive."
 - Indirect: 'John said to Jane that he wanted to see her as soon as he arrived.'

In Greek, the use of moods in such subordinate clauses is largely similar to that described above (\rightarrow 41.7–15), with a few further points of note.

- 41.18 In **primary sequence**, all subordinate verbs retain the tense stem and mood of the corresponding direct speech (\rightarrow 41.7):
 - (38) λέγουσιν ώς, <u>ἐπειδάν</u> τις ἀγαθὸς ὢν <u>τελευτήση</u>, μεγάλην μοῖραν καὶ τιμὴν <u>ἔχει</u>. (Pl. Cra. 398b)
 - They say that, when someone who is good dies, he enjoys great esteem and honour. Direct speech: ἐπειδάν ... τελευτήση, ... ἔχει (habitual temporal clause with ἄν + subjunctive, \rightarrow 47.9).
 - (39) λέγουσιν, ὅτι εἰ σαρκώδης $\frac{\tilde{\eta}\nu}{1}$, μακροβιώτερον $\frac{\tilde{\alpha}\nu}{1}$ τὸ γένος. (Arist. Part. an. 656a16–17)
 - They say that, if it were more fleshy, the species would live longer. Direct speech: $\varepsilon i \ldots \tilde{\eta} v$, ... $\tilde{\alpha} v \tilde{\eta} v$ (counterfactual conditional clause with a modal secondary indicative, $\rightarrow 49.10$).
- 41.19 In **historic sequence**, all tense stems and moods may be retained (\rightarrow 41.8). Alternatively, **indicatives** may be replaced by an oblique optative of the same tense stem (\rightarrow 41.9), with the exception of the imperfect and pluperfect (\rightarrow 41.10).

- (40) ἀπεκρίνατο ὅτι μανθάνοιεν οἱ μανθάνοντες ἃ οὐκ ἐπίσταιντο. (Pl. Euthd. 276e)

 He answered that learners learned things which they did not understand.

 Direct speech: μανθάνουσι ... ἃ οὐκ ἐπίστανται. The present indicative in the relative clause is replaced by a present optative.
- (41) εἶχε γὰρ λέγειν ... ὡς Λακεδαιμόνιοι διὰ τοῦτο πολεμήσειαν αὐτοῖς, ὅτι οὐκ ἐθελήσαιεν μετ' Ἄγησιλάου ἐλθεῖν ἐπ' αὐτὸν οὐδὲ θῦσαι ἐάσαιεν αὐτὸν ἐν Αὐλίδι τῇ Ἄρτέμιδι. (Xen. Hell. 7.1.34)

 For he (Pelopidas) was able to explain how the Spartans had waged war against them, because they had not been prepared to go with Agesilaus against him and had refused to let him make sacrifices to Artemis in Aulis.

Direct speech: ἐπολέμησαν ἡμῖν, ὅτι οὐκ ἡθελήσαμεν ... οὐδὲ ... εἰάσαμεν.
The aorist indicatives of the causal clause are replaced by aorist optatives.

- In historic sequence, modal secondary indicatives and all optatives remain unchanged (\rightarrow 41.11). But **subjunctives** (in any use) may be replaced by the optative; if $\alpha\nu$ was required for the subjunctive, it disappears:
 - (43) ἐδόκει . . . εἰ μὴ ἔφθασαν δὴ αὐτοὶ . . . ξυλλαβόντες τοὺς ἄνδρας, προδοθῆναι ἄν ἡ πόλις. (Thuc. 6.61.2)
 It seemed that, if they themselves had not first arrested the men, the city would have been betrayed. Direct speech: εἰ μὴ ἐφθάσαμεν . . . προυδόθη ἄν. The aorist indicative, required by the counterfactual conditional (→49.10), is retained.
 - (43) εἶπον ὅτι ἀπίοιεν ἄν, εἰ σφίσιν ἀσφάλειαν μετὰ τῶν ὅπλων ἀπιοῦσι διδοῖεν. (Xen. Hell. 5.4.11)
 They said that they would withdraw, if they (the Thebans) were to allow them safe passage with their weapons while withdrawing. Direct speech: ἀπίοιμεν ἄν εἰ ἀσφάλειαν διδοῖτε. The optative required by the potential conditional (→49.8) is retained in indirect speech.
 - (44) ἤλπιζον ὑπὸ τῶν σφετέρων αὐτῶν παίδων γηροτροφηθέντες, ἐπειδἡ τελευτήσειαν τὸν βίον, ταφήσεσθαι. (Lys. 13.45)
 They imagined that they would be taken care of by their own children in their old age and, when they died, that they would be buried by them. Direct speech: ἐπειδὰν τελευτήσωμεν..., ταφησόμεθα. ἄν + aorist subjunctive, required by the temporal clause referring to the future (→47.8), is replaced by an aorist optative, without ἄν.
 - (45) Κίμωνος εἰπόντος ὅτι φοβοῖτο μὴ δικαιολογούμενος <u>περιγένοιτο</u> ἡμῶν ὁ Φίλιππος ... (Aeschin. 2.21)

 And when Cimon said that he was afraid that Philip would get the better of us in pleading his cause ... Direct speech: φοβοῦμαι μὴ περιγένηται. The aorist subjunctive, required by the construction of verbs of fearing in primary sequence (→43.3) is replaced by an optative.

Note 1: Since it is potentially unclear whether an aorist optative represents an original aorist indicative or subjunctive, aorist indicatives are often retained in subordinate clauses in indirect speech, while aorist subjunctives are more readily replaced by the optative.

Note 2: Some cases allow for more than one feasible interpretation of an optative, typically either as replacing original subjunctive + $\alpha \nu$, or retaining an original optative:

- (46) οἱ δὲ πεμφθέντες λέγουσι Κύρῳ ὅτι μισοῖέν τε τοὺς ᾿Ασσυρίους δικαίως, νῦν τ᾽, εἰ <u>βούλοιτο</u> ἰέναι ἐπ᾽ αὐτούς, καὶ σφεῖς σύμμαχοι ὑπάρξοιεν καὶ ἡγἡσοιντο. (Xen. Cyr. 4.2.4)

 Those who were sent told Cyrus that they had good grounds for hating the Assyrians and that now, if he wished to march against them, they themselves would, in fact, be his allies and his guides. Direct speech: μισοῦμέν τε ... νῦν τ᾽, ἐὰν βούλη/εἰ βούλοιο ... καὶ αὐτοὶ σύμμαχοι ὑπάρξομεν καὶ ἡγησόμεθα. Pres. opt. βούλοιτο may represent either ἄν + pres. subj. (prospective conditional clause; direct speech: 'if you wish') or pres. opt. (potential conditional clause; direct speech: 'if you should wish'). Both options are compatible with the future optatives of the apodosis, replacing future indicatives (the option with an original optative would represent a common type of 'mixed' conditional, → 49.17; this would add a note of politeness). Note further the emphatic indirect reflexive pronoun σφεῖς (equivalent to αὐτοί in direct speech), and the use of νῦν to refer to the present moment of the reported speech.
- 41.21 Subordinate clauses which are not part of the reported words, but which are inserted as a comment by the reporter, are presented from the temporal perspective of the reporter: the oblique optative is then not used, and imperfects and pluperfects can be used in a manner similar to English 'back-shifting' (cf. 41.15 with n.1):
 - (47) ἤδει δὴ σαφῶς, οἶμαι, τοῦτο ὅτι νῦν, ἡνίκ' ἐστασίαζε μὲν αὐτῷ τὰ Θετταλῶν, καὶ Φεραῖοι πρῶτον οὐ συνηκολούθουν, ἐκρατοῦντο δὲ Θηβαῖοι καὶ μάχην ἤττηντο καὶ τρόπαιον ἀπ' αὐτῶν εἰστήκει, οὐκ ἔνεστι παρελθεῖν, εἰ βοηθήσεσθ' ὑμεῖς. (Dem. 19.320)

 For he (Philip) knew perfectly well, I suppose, that now, when things in Thessaly were at variance with him, and the Pheraeans, for one, were refusing to join him, and the Thebans were being beaten and losing in battle and had a trophy erected over them, it would be impossible to force the passage if you would come to the rescue. The temporal clause is an additional comment by the reporter, Demosthenes. Had the clause been presented from Philip's perspective, στασιάζει, συνακολουθοῦσιν, etc. would have been expected. Observe that the other subordinate clause, εἰ βοηθήσεθ', does represent Philip's temporal perspective: this is clear from the retained future indicative βοηθήσεσθ' (for which, →49.5).
- These rules also apply in subordinate clauses which are subordinated to a declarative (accusative and) infinitive (\rightarrow 51.19–27) in historic sequence:
 - (48) οὐδεὶς ἦν ὅστις οὐκ ὤετο, εὶ μάχη ἔσοιτο, τοὺς ... κρατήσαντας ἄρξειν. (Xen. Hell. 7.5.26)

 There was no one who did not think that, if a battle were to happen, the victors would rule. Conditional clause (εἰ ... ἔσοιτο) subordinate to the accusative-and-infinitive construction τοὺς κρατήσαντας ἄρξειν. Fut. opt. ἔσοιτο replaces fut. ind. ἔσται.

- 41.23 Occasionally, the declarative infinitive is used in subordinate clauses in indirect speech, when the matrix clause is also reported in the infinitive:
 - (49) λέγεται . . . ἐπειδὴ ἐκ τῆς Ὀάσιος ταύτης <u>ἰέναι</u> . . . ἐπιπνεῦσαι νότον μέγαν τε καὶ ἐξαίσιον. (Hdt. 3.26.3)

It is said that when they were crossing (the desert) from that city Oasis, a strong and violent southern wind blew upon them. Direct speech: $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\epsilon i\delta\dot{\eta}\,\dot{\eta}\sigma\alpha\nu$... $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\epsilon}\pi\nu\epsilon\nu\sigma\epsilon$ vótos; the indicative in the $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\epsilon i\delta\dot{\eta}$ -clause is replaced by an infinitive.

Indirect Questions and Indirect Exclamations

Indirect Questions

Introduction: Direct versus Indirect Questions

- 42.1 Indirect (or 'dependent') questions are the counterpart in indirect speech/thought of direct questions:
 - direct: e.g. τίς εἶ; who are you?; (ἦ/ἆρα) ἐποίησε τοῦτο; has he done that?
 - indirect: e.g. ἐρωτῷ τίς εἰμι he asks who I am; οὐκ ἤδη εἰ τοῦτο ἐποίησεν I didn't know whether he had done that.

For direct questions (types, use of moods, etc.), \rightarrow 38.4–24. For indirect speech/thought in general, \rightarrow 41.1–2.

Verbs Introducing Indirect Questions

42.2 Indirect questions can be introduced by verbs of asking, wondering, learning, telling, showing, knowing, etc. Some examples of such verbs are:

ἀγγέλλω report, announce be at a loss ἀπορέω γιγνώσκω (come to) know, recognize δείκνυμι show ἐρωτάω ask θαυμάζω wonder μανθάνω learn οἶδα know πυνθάνομαι learn όράω see

Verbs which refer to knowledge or (mental) perception may take indirect questions when the matrix clause expresses a **lack of knowledge**, as in 'I don't know if ...', 'Do you know if ...?', 'Who knows if ...?' (cf. (2)-(3), (13)-(15), (18) below).

Subordinators Introducing Indirect Questions

Yes/No-Questions and Alternative Questions

- 42.3 **Indirect yes/no-questions** are introduced by si whether, if:
 - νῦν ἐρωτῷς εἰ ἔχω σε διδάξαι. (Pl. Men. 82a)
 Now you are asking if I am capable of teaching you.
 - (2) τίς οἶδεν εἰ κάτω 'στιν εὐαγῆ τάδε; (Soph. Ant. 521) Who knows if below these things are free from blame?
 - (3) τίς οὖν ὁ γνωσόμενος εἰ τὸ προσῆκον εἶδος κερκίδος ἐν ὁποιῳοῦν ξύλῳ κεῖται; (Pl. Cra. 390b)
 - Who is likely to know whether the correct form of a shuttle resides in a certain piece of wood?
- 42.4 **Indirect alternative questions** are introduced by one of the combinations πότερον/α... ἤ, εἰ... ἔ, εἰ τε or εἴτε ... εἴτε whether/if... or. The negative in the second member is μή:
 - (4) ἐρωτῷ <u>πότερον</u> βούλεται εἰρήνην <u>ἢ</u> πόλεμον ἔχειν. (Xen. *Hell.* 3.2.1) He asked if he wanted to have peace or war.
 - (5) ἀθρήσατ' . . . $\underline{\epsilon i}$ τὸν Αἵμονος | φθόγγον συνίημ', $\underline{\mathring{\eta}}$ θεοῖσι κλέπτομαι. (Soph. Ant. 1216–18)
 - Observe whether it is Haemon's voice that I recognize, or if I am being deceived by the gods.
 - (6) καὶ δείξεις τάχα | εἴτ' εὐγενὴς πέφυκας εἴτ' ... κακή. (Soph. Ant. 37-8)
 And you will soon show whether you are noble by nature or cowardly.
 - (7) σκοπεῖτε εἴτ' ὀρθῶς λογίζομαι ταῦτ' εἴτε μή. (Dem. 15.11) Consider whether I reason rightly or not.

Specifying Questions

- 42.5 Indirect specifying questions can be introduced either by the regular interrogative pronouns/adjectives/adverbs (τίς, πόσος, ποῦ, etc.; →8.1–2, 38.11), or by the corresponding indefinite relative pronouns/adjectives/adverbs (beginning with ὁ-: ὅστις, ὁπόσος, ὅπου, etc.; →8.1–2).
 - (8) ὅταν σ' ἐρωτῷ τίς τε καὶ πόθεν πάρει ... (Soph. Phil. 56)
 When he asks you who and from where you are ...
 - (9) ἐρωτῶντος γὰρ Στρατοκλέους ὅστις αὐτῷ ἀποδώσει τὰ χρήματα . . . (Isoc. 17.37)
 - For when Stratocles asked who would give him the money . . .
 - (10) ἐλθών δέ σ' ἠρώτησα \overline{m} τροχηλάτου | μανίας αν ἔλθοιμ' ἐς τέλος πόνων τ' ἐμῶν. (Eur. IT 82)
 - I came and asked you how I might reach the end of this whirlwind of madness and of my troubles.

- (11) τοῦτο δὴ ἄρτι ἠρώτων, <u>ὅπως</u> χρὴ τοῖς ὀνόμασι χρώμενον λέγειν περὶ αὐτῶν. (Pl. *Tht.* 198e)
 - This, then, was my question just now, in what terms one should speak about them (lit. 'using terms in which way it is necessary to speak about them').
- As in direct questions (→38.14), question words may function as obligatory constituents and modifiers not only of the finite verb, but also of subordinate constructions such as participles:
 - (12) ἐλθών δ' ὁ Ξενοφῶν ἐπήρετο τὸν Ἀπόλλω $\overline{\text{τίνι}}$ ἄν θεῶν θύων καὶ εὐχόμενος κάλλιστα καὶ ἄριστα ἔλθοι τὴν ὁδόν. (Xen. An.~3.1.6)
 - Xenophon went and asked Apollo to which of the gods he should offer and pray in order to best and most successfully complete the journey (lit. 'offering and praying to which of the gods'). τίνι is indirect object with θύων and εὐχόμενος.

The Use of Moods in Indirect Questions

- 42.7 In indirect questions, the same **sequence of moods** is used as in ὅτι/ώς-clauses of indirect statement (→41.7–14): tense and mood are unchanged (relative to the corresponding direct question) with a matrix clause which has a non-past tense (primary sequence):
 - (13) κεῖνος δ' ὅπου | βέβηκεν οὐδεὶς οἶδε. (Soph. Trach. 40-1)
 No one knows where that man has gone. Direct question: ποῦ βέβηκεν;
 - (14) ἐγὰ μὲν οὐκ οἶδ' ὅπως ἄν τις σαφέστερον ἐπιδείξειεν. (Dem. 27.48)
 I for my part do not know how someone could show it more clearly. Direct question: πῶς ἄν ἐπιδείξειεν;

The oblique optative of the same tense stem may (but does not have to) be used in a past-tense environment (historic sequence):

- (15) τὸν Μιλύαν δ' οὐδ' ὅστις ἔστιν οὐδεὶς ἤδει. (Dem. 29.29)
 As for Milyas, not a single person even knew who he was. Original mood retained; direct question: τίς ἔστιν; For the double negative οὐδ'... οὐδείς, →56.4.
- (16) ἔφη . . . παραγενέσθαι ἐρωτωμένῳ ἑτέρῳ ὑπὸ ἑτέρου ὅπου εἴη Ἀρδιαῖος ὁ μέγας. (Pl. Resp.~615c)
 - He said that he had been present when one was asked by another where Ardiaeus the Great was. Oblique optative; direct question: $\pi o \tilde{v} \stackrel{\circ}{\epsilon} \sigma \tau v$;

Note 1: For the difference between the use of the oblique optative as opposed to retaining the original mood, $\rightarrow 41.13-14$.

42.8 The exact same rules hold for **deliberative questions** (\rightarrow 34.8, 38.16): in primary sequence, the deliberative subjunctive is retained, in historic sequence the optative may be used:

- (17) καὶ ἐρωτῷ δἡ πῶς με θάπτη. (Pl. Phd. 115d)
 And he asks how he is to bury me. Primary sequence; direct question: πῶς σε θάπτω:
- (18) ὁ ἀριστεὺς . . . ἠπόρησε . . . ὁποτέρωσε διακινδυνεύση χωρήσας. (Thuc. 1.63.1) Aristeus was at a loss as to which direction he should risk taking. Historic sequence, with retained subjunctive; direct question: ποτέρωσε διακινδυνεύσω;
- (19) οὐχ ὡς ἐπιθυμοῦντες τῆς ἐξόδου ἠρωτήσατε εὶ ἐξίοιτε. (Xen. Cyr. 4.5.21)
 It was not out of desire for the expedition that you asked whether you should go on the expedition. Historic sequence, with oblique optative; direct question: ἐξίωμεν;

Indirect Exclamations

Introduction: Direct versus Indirect Exclamations

- 42.9 Indirect (or 'dependent') exclamations are the counterpart in indirect speech/ thought of direct exclamations:
 - direct: e.g. οἷός ἐστι What a man he is!
 - indirect: e.g. θαυμάζω οἷός ἐστι I am amazed at what a man he is.

For direct exclamations, $\rightarrow 38.43-51$. For indirect speech/thought in general, $\rightarrow 41.1$.

Note 1: Only exclamations of degree have an identifiable construction in indirect speech/thought – there is no separate construction for nominal exclamations and sentence exclamations (for these categories, $\rightarrow 38.44$).

Verbs Introducing Indirect Exclamations

42.10 Indirect exclamations are used in particular to complement verbs which refer to the **expression of emotions**, such as θαυμάζω *express surprise/admiration* and κατοικτείρω/-ίρω *feel/show pity*, and after verbs which refer to a process of **reflection**, such as ἐνθυμέομαι *reflect*.

Construction of Indirect Exclamations

42.11 Indirect exclamations of degree are introduced in the same way as their direct counterparts, by the **definite relative adjectives or adverbs** (οἶος, ὅσος, etc.; ὡς).

They follow the constructions of indirect statements (\rightarrow 41.7–14): in primary sequence, tenses and moods of the corresponding direct exclamations are used; in historic sequence the optative may be used. The negative is où:

- (20) ἐννοηθέντες δὲ οἶά τε πάσχουσιν ὑπὸ τῶν ᾿Ασσυρίων ... ταῦτα ἐνθυμουμένοις ἔδοξεν αὐτοῖς νῦν καλὸν εἶναι ἀποστῆναι. (Xen. Cyr. 4.2.3)

 But as they reflected what (terrible) things they suffered at the hands of the Assyrians ... when they reflected on these matters, they thought now was the right time to revolt. Direct exclamation: οἶα πάσχομεν.
- (21) ὁ μὲν δἡ ταῦτ' εἰπὼν ἀπήει, κατοικτίρων τήν τε γυναῖκα οἴου ἀνδρὸς στέροιτο καὶ τὸν ἄνδρα οἴαν γυναῖκα καταλιπὼν οὐκέτ' ὅψοιτο. (Xen. Cyr. 7.3.14) When he had said this, he left, feeling pity for the woman, thinking of what a husband she was robbed, and for the man, reflecting what a woman he left and would never see again. Direct exclamation: οἵου ἀνδρὸς στερεῖται . . . οἵαν γυναῖκα καταλιπὼν οὐκέτ' ὄψεται.
- (22) <u>ἐθαύμαζεν</u> ... ὁ Λύσανδρος <u>ώς</u> καλὰ μὲν τὰ δένδρα <u>εἴη</u>. (Xen. Oec. 4.21)

 Lysander expressed his admiration at how beautiful the trees were. Direct exclamation: ώς καλὰ τὰ δένδρα ἐστί.

Note 1: Indirect exclamations should be distinguished from indirect questions (\rightarrow 42.1–8 above), introduced by the interrogative pronouns/adverbs ($\pi\tilde{\omega}_{\varsigma}$, etc.) or the indefinite relative pronouns/adverbs ($\tilde{\sigma}\pi\omega_{\varsigma}$, etc.). Compare to (22):

(23) ἴσως ... θαυμάζεις σὺ πῶς ἐγὼ ἀνήλωκα σοῦ αὐτοὺς τρέφοντος. (Xen. Cyr. 2.4.9)
Perhaps you wonder how I have spent money on them while you maintained them.
In (22), θαυμάζω is followed by an indirect exclamation and means 'express admiration at something'; in (23), it is followed by an indirect question and means 'wonder about something'.

Fear Clauses

Introduction; Verbs of Fearing and Apprehension

43.1 Subordinate **fear clauses**, introduced by **μή** that (negative μἡ οὐ), may complement verbs of fearing, apprehension, anxiety, suspicion, etc. Some examples of such verbs are:

δέδοικα fear, be afraid that φοβέομαι be afraid that δέος ἐστί there is a fear that κίνδυνός ἐστι there is danger/risk that φόβος ἐστί there is a fear that ἀθυμέω be anxious that φροντίζω be worried that

ύποπτεύω suspect that, be concerned that

- 43.2 In combination with a fear clause, these verbs may express:
 - fear/apprehension that an action will occur in the future: μή (οὐ) is followed by an aor./pres. subjunctive or, in historic sequence, optative; e.g. φοβοῦμαι μή τοῦτο ποιήση *I am afraid that he may do that*;
 - fear/apprehension that it will prove in the future that an action is currently taking place or has already taken place: μή (οὐ) is followed by a pres./pf. subjunctive or, in historic sequence, optative; e.g. φοβοῦμαι μή τοῦτο ποιῆ I am afraid that he may (prove to) be doing that;
 - disappointment/apprehension concerning (the consequences of) an action whose reality has already been ascertained (i.e. about facts): μή (οὐ) is followed by a pf./pres. indicative; e.g. φοβοῦμαι μὴ τοῦτο ποιεῖ *I am afraid that he is doing that* (i.e. he is, I fear, doing that).

Note that, in these constructions, $\mu\dot{\eta}$ should generally be translated *that* (i.e. not with a negative).

Note 1: Several of the verbs listed above also have different senses in combination with different constructions. For instance, $\varphi \circ β \circ \overline{\nu} \mu \alpha 1$ *fear* may, with varying senses, be followed by a dynamic infinitive ('be afraid to do something'), indirect questions (e.g. 'doubt whether'), prepositional phrases (e.g. with $\pi \epsilon \rho i$ 'be afraid for'), a direct object ('be afraid of'), etc.

There is, in particular, a great deal of overlap between verbs of fearing and verbs of effort $(\rightarrow 44.6-7$, also for the use of verbs of effort with fear clauses).

Construction and Meaning of Fear Clauses

Fear for Possible Future Actions

- When the subject's fear or apprehension concerns an action which may possibly occur in the future, the fear clause has $\mu\dot{\eta}$ (o\dot) + aorist or present subjunctive:
 - (1) ταῦτ' οὖν περί μου δέδοικε μὴ διαφθαρῶ. (Ar. Vesp. 1358) So that's his worry about me, that I'll be corrupted.
 - (2) οί Περσέων στρατηγοὶ πυθόμενοι τὸ πλῆθος τῶν Ἰάδων νεῶν καταρρώδησαν μὴ οὐ δυνατοὶ γένωνται ὑπερβαλέσθαι. (Hdt. 6.9.1)

 The Persian generals, upon learning the number of Ionic ships, feared that they would not be able to defeat it.
 - (3) οἱ μέγιστον δυνάμενοι ... αἰσχύνονται ... καταλείπειν συγγράμματα ἑαυτῶν, δόξαν φοβούμενοι τοῦ ἔπειτα χρόνου, μὴ σοφισταὶ καλῶνται. (Pl. Phdr. 257d) The most influential men are ashamed to leave their writings behind, afraid that they will, in the opinion of posterity, be known as sophists. Observe that φοβούμενοι is construed here with a direct object (δόξαν; lit. 'afraid of the opinion of posterity'), which is then elaborated by the fearing clause. Such elaborating fearing clauses are not uncommon.

In **historic sequence**, such fear clauses frequently have an oblique **optative**, although the subjunctive may also be retained:

- (4) οἱ πρὸς τοῖς Κερκυραίοις ... <u>δείσαντες μὴ</u> ὅπερ ἐν Ναυπάκτω <u>γένοιτο</u>, ἐπιβοηθοῦσι. (Thuc. 3.78.2)

 The (Peloponnesian) division facing off against the Corcyraeans, fearing that exactly what happened at Naupactus would happen (again), sent a relief-party. Optative; note that ἐπιβοηθοῦσι is historic present.
- (5) οἱ δὲ Λακεδαιμόνιοι . . . ἐν φυλακῆ πολλῆ ἦσαν, φοβούμενοι μἡ σφίσι νεώτερόν τι <u>γένηται</u>. (Thuc. 4.55.1)
 - The Spartans were very much on the defensive, afraid that some unexpected ill would befall them. *Subjunctive retained*.

Note 1: The difference between the use of present and aorist subjunctives/optatives in such fear clauses is purely one of aspect (\rightarrow 33.63–5). Aorist subjunctives/optatives are the most common (so in (1)–(2) and (4)–(5)), since the action feared is usually presented as a complete whole. By contrast, in (3), pres. subj. $\kappa\alpha\lambda\tilde{\omega}\nu\tau\alpha$ 1 is used to refer to an ongoing reputation.

Note 2: For the difference between the oblique optative and retaining the subjunctive, $\rightarrow 41.13$. The difference between $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \sigma_1 \tau \sigma_2$ in (4) and $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \sigma_1 \tau \sigma_2$ in (5) appears to be that subjunctive $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \sigma_1 \tau \sigma_2$ presents the fear from the perspective of the Spartans, whereas the optative $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu \sigma_1 \tau \sigma_2$ presents the Peloponnesians' fear as 'moderated' by the narrator.

Fear for (Uncertain) Present or Past Actions

- When the subject's fear or apprehension concerns an action which may possibly be occurring in the present or may already have occurred, but whose certainty has not been ascertained yet, the fear clause is construed with a present or perfect subjunctive:
 - (6) δεινῶς ἀθυμῶ μἡ βλέπων ὁ μάντις ἦ. (Soph. OT 747)
 I am very worried that the seer can see. For βλέπων ἦ, →52.51.
 - (7) γυναῖκες, ὡς δέδοικα μὴ περαιτέρω | πεπραγμέν' ἦ μοι πάνθ' ὅσ' ἀρτίως ἔδρων. (Soph. Trach. 663-4)
 Friends, how I fear that I have gone too far in everything that I have just been doing!

In historic sequence, such fear clauses may again get the oblique optative:

(8) τὰ περὶ τοῦ Μνασίππου αὐτόπτου μὲν οὐδενὸς ἦκηκόει, <u>ὑπώπτευε</u> δὲ <u>μὴ</u> ἀπάτης ἕνεκα <u>λέγοιτο</u>. (Xen. *Hell*. 6.2.31)

He had not heard the news about Mnasippus from any eye-witness, and he suspected that it was being told to deceive him.

Note 1: Observe that present subjunctives/optatives are also used in fear clauses concerning future actions (e.g. (3) above). Perfect-stem subjunctives/optatives are, on the whole, relatively rare in fear clauses.

Use of Fear Clauses to Express Disappointment

- Fearing verbs (normally in the first person) may also be used to express the subject's regret, disappointment or apprehension about (the consequences of) an action which has been ascertained to be true: in such cases $\mu\dot{\eta}$ (où) is followed by a perfect or present indicative:
 - (9) νῦν δὲ φοβούμεθα μὴ ἀμφοτέρων ἄμα ἡμαρτήκαμεν. (Thuc. 3.53.2)
 As matters stand, we must, we fear, conclude that we have been deceived in both regards.
 - (10) δέδοικά σ', ὧ πρεσβῦτα, μὴ πληγῶν δέει. (Ar. Nub. 493)
 I'm afraid, old man, that you need some blows.

In such cases the fearing construction does not express an actual fear as such, but is rather used as a 'hedge', i.e. to assert the content of the fear clause in a polite or careful fashion (this device may also be used ironically, as in (10)).

Note 1: The perfect indicative is especially common in such clauses (signifying that an undesired state exists as the result of a completed action). The agrist indicative is not normally so used in classical Greek, although it is found in Homer:

(11) δείδω μὴ δὴ πάντα θεὰ νημερτέα εἶπεν. (Hom. Od. 5.300)
I am afraid that the goddess has said everything truthfully.

Independent Use of $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + Subjunctive

43.6 For the independent use of μή (οὐ) + subj. (the construction of fear clauses) to express a cautious or anxious statement, →34.10.

Effort Clauses

Introduction; Verbs of Effort, (Pre)caution and Contriving

Effort clauses (introduced by ὅπως *that*, sometimes ὡς) are used to complement verbs of effort, (pre)caution, contriving, etc.; some examples of such verbs are:

ἐπιμέλομαι take care that, ensure that εὐλαβέομαι take care that, ensure that

μέλει μοι I take care that (lit. 'it is of concern to me that')

μηχανάομαι contrive that, devise that

δράω see to it that

παρασκεύαζομαι make preparations in order that

ποιέω make, ensure that σκοπέω see to it that σπεύδω strive to φροντίζω take care that

φυλάττω/-ομαι be on one's guard (in order) that

In combination with a ὅπως-clause (or ὡς-clause), these verbs express an effort or precaution which ensures that a certain action will or will not take place in the future: e.g. μηχανῶνται ὅπως τοῦτο γενήσεται they contrive that this will happen.

Note 1: Many of the verbs listed above also have different senses in combination with different constructions; for instance, $\delta\rho\delta\omega$ is most often used as a verb of perception (*see*); $\phi\rho\rho\nu\tau$ iζ ω is also used as a verb of fearing (*be concerned that*, with fear clauses, \rightarrow 43.1).

In particular, effort verbs are also often construed with purpose clauses (\rightarrow 44.3 below), and with dynamic (accusative-and-)infinitive constructions (\rightarrow 51.8, including as verbs of hindering, \rightarrow 51.34). There is, finally, a great deal of overlap between verbs of effort and verbs of fearing (\rightarrow 44.6–7).

Construction of Effort Clauses

- 44.2 Effort clauses are introduced by ὅπως (sometimes ὡς) (so) that and followed by a **future indicative**; the negative is ὅπως μή:
 - (1) τοῦτο δεῖ <u>παρασκευάσασθαι, ὅπως</u> ὡς κράτιστα <u>μαχούμεθα</u>. (Xen. An. 4.6.10) We must prepare to this end, that we fight as well as possible.

- (2) <u>ὅρα</u> δ' <u>ὅπως</u> <u>ἀθήσομεν</u> τούσδε . . . ἐξ ἄστεως. (Ar. *Eccl.* 300) See to it that we expel these men from the city.
- (3) φύλαττέ θ' ὅπως μὴ τὴν βάλανον ἐκτρώξεται. (Ar. Vesp. 155) And take care that he doesn't eat the bolt-pin.

The future indicative is normally **retained in historic sequence** (\rightarrow 40.12), although the future optative also occurs (rarely):

- (4) <u>ἔπρασσον</u> <u>ὅπως</u> τις βοήθεια <u>ἥξει</u>. (Thuc. 3.4.6)

 They were trying to ensure that some form of help would come.
- (5) ἐπεμελεῖτο δὲ ὅπως μήτε ἄσιτοι μήτε ἄποτοί ποτε ἔσοιντο. (Xen. *Cyr.* 8.1.43) He took care that they would never be without food or drink.
- 44.3 Effort clauses are similar in sense to purpose clauses (with ὅπως/ὡς/ἵνα + subj./ opt.; \rightarrow 45.2–3). Indeed, verbs of effort are fairly often **construed with a purpose clause** with ὅπως/ὡς (but not ἵνα), i.e. followed by a **subjunctive** rather than a future indicative. This is especially frequent in Xenophon:
 - (6) ἐπιμελητέον ... ὅπως τρέφωνται οἱ ἵπποι. (Xen. Eq. mag. 1.3)
 Care must be taken that the horses are fed.
- 44.4 Occasionally, such clauses are construed with ὅπως (μὴ) ἄν + subjunctive; the use of ἄν + subjunctive (prospective, \rightarrow 40.9, cf. 45.4) may suggest that it is considered very likely that the objective aimed at will occur:
 - (7) καὶ αὐτός τε θηρῷ καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἐπιμελεῖται ὅπως ἄν θηρῶσιν. (Xen. Cyr. 1.2.10) He takes part in the hunt himself and ensures that the others hunt as well.
- After verbs such as σκοπέω and φροντίζω, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish effort clauses from indirect questions (ὅπως may then also be the counterpart of πῶς how?; \rightarrow 42.5):
 - (8) ἡμεῖς . . . οὐδὲν φροντίζομεν, οὐδὲ σκοποῦμεν ὅπως ἐπανορθώσομεν αὐτήν. (Isoc. 7.15)
 We do not give it any thought, nor do we see to it that we put it (the city) right. Or, as an indirect question: 'consider how we will put the city right'.

Further Particulars

'Interference' between Fear and Effort Clauses

44.6 Not infrequently, verbs of effort are construed with fear clauses (with μή + subjunctive/ optative). The fear or apprehension concerning a future or present action expressed by such fear clauses (→43.3) is combined with the matrix predicate's meaning, i.e. 'strive to ensure that something feared may not happen' or 'strive to ascertain that something feared is not happening'. In such cases μή may be translated *that not, for fear that, lest*:

- (9) ... ἵνα | σκοπῆτε ... μὴ καὶ προσπέση | ὑμῖν ... πρᾶγμα δεινὸν καὶ μέγα. (Ar. Thesm. 579-81)
 - ... so that you watch out that some great danger doesn't actually happen to you. Aor. subj.: fear for a future action.
- (10) φύλαξαι μὴ θράσος τέκη φόβον. (Aesch. Supp. 498)
 Be on your guard lest audacity breed fear. Aor. subj.: fear for a future action.
- (11) ὑποβλέπουσ' ἡμᾶς <u>σκοποῦνταί</u> τ' εὐθέως | <u>μὴ</u> μοιχὸς ἔνδον <u>ῆ</u> τις <u>ἀποκεκρυμμένος</u>. (Ar. *Thesm*. 396-7)

They look at us suspiciously, and right away start checking to make sure that there isn't a lover hidden inside. *Pf. subj.: fear for a present state.*

Note 1: In examples such as (9) and (10) it is sometimes also possible to interpret the construction as a purpose clause (with $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + subj.), for which \rightarrow 44.3.

- Conversely, verbs of fearing are occasionally construed with effort clauses (with ὅπως μή + fut. ind.):
 - (12) δέδοιχ' ὅπως | μὴ κ τῆς σιωπῆς τῆσδ' ἀναρρήξει κακά. (Soph. OT 1074-5)
 I fear that sorrows will break forth from this silence.

Note 1: This construction may imply that the subject of the fearing verb intends to make an effort to avert the thing feared.

Independent Use of ὅπως + Future Indicative

44.8 For the independent use of ὅπως (μή) + fut. ind. (the construction of effort clauses) to express a strong command, \rightarrow 38.34.

Purpose Clauses

Introduction

- 45.1 To communicate the (intentional) **purpose** of an action, Greek can use the following expressions:
 - a purpose clause (also called 'final' clause), treated below;
 - a future participle, frequently combined with $ω_{\varsigma}$ (→52.41);
 - a relative clause with a future indicative (\rightarrow 50.24);
 - certain prepositional phrases (e.g. ἐπί + dat.; →31).

Note 1: Greek, unlike English, does not normally use the infinitive to express purpose. However, an infinitive with purpose-value may occur after verbs of going, giving or taking: $\rightarrow 51.16-17$.

For $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}v$ + subj. or $\dot{\epsilon}i$ + opt. expressing purpose (in the hope that), \rightarrow 49.25. For $\ddot{\omega}\sigma\tau\epsilon$ -clauses expressing an intended result, \rightarrow 46.9.

Construction of Purpose Clauses

45.2 Greek purpose clauses are introduced by ἵνα, ὅπως and sometimes ὡς in order that, in order to, so that, (so as) to.

Negative purpose clauses are introduced by ἵνα μή, ὅπως μή, ὡς μή and occasionally by μή alone: in order that not, etc., to prevent/avoid that.

Note 1: In poetry, the conjunction $\mathring{o}\varphi \rho \alpha$ is occasionally used in purpose clauses.

- 45.3 In **primary sequence**, the mood in purpose clauses is the **subjunctive**:
 - (1) τῶν παίδων ἕνεκα βούλει ζῆν, ἵνα αὐτοὺς ἐκθρέψης καὶ παιδεύσης; (Pl. Cri. 54a) Do you wish to live for the children's sake, so that you may raise and educate them?
 - (2) πορεύεσθε ἔμπροσθεν, ὅπως ... <u>λανθάνωμεν</u> ὅτι πλεῖστον χρόνον. (Xen. Cyr. 4.2.23)
 - You must march in front of us, in order that we may go undetected for as long as possible.
 - (3) διενοοῦντο τὰς προσβάσεις . . . φυλάσσειν, ὅπως μἡ . . . λάθωσι σφᾶς ἀναβάντες οἱ πολέμιοι. (Thuc. 6.96.1)
 - They decided to guard the access routes (of the mountain), to prevent the enemy from ascending it unnoticed by them.

In **historic sequence**, purpose clauses frequently use the **oblique optative** $(\rightarrow 40.12)$, although the subjunctive may also be retained:

- (4) ἐπρεσβεύοντο ... πρὸς τοὺς Ἀθηναίους ἐγκλήματα ποιούμενοι, ὅπως σφίσιν ὅτι μεγίστη πρόφασις εἴη τοῦ πολεμεῖν. (Thuc. 1.126.1)

 Making complaints, they sent messengers to the Athenians, in order to have as great an excuse for waging war as possible. Oblique optative.
- (5) οἱ πλείους αὐτῶν, ἵνα μὴ ἀπ' οἴκου ὧσι, χρήματα ἐτάξαντο ἀντὶ τῶν νεῶν. (Thuc. 1.99.3)

The majority of them, to avoid being away from home, furnished money instead of ships. Retained subjunctive.

Note 1: For the difference between the optative and the retained subjunctive, \rightarrow 41.13. The difference between $\epsilon i \eta$ in (4) and $\delta \sigma i$ in (5) appears to be that the subjunctive $\delta \sigma i$ presents the intention from the perspective of the subject of the matrix clause (the narrator takes no responsibility for their motives), whereas the optative $\epsilon i \eta$ presents the purpose of an action as 'moderated' by the narrator.

In examples where the subjunctive and optative are used next to each other, the subjunctive tends to highlight the purpose more immediately relevant for the subject of the verb:

(6) τῶνδε δὲ εἴνεκα ἀνῆγον τὰς νέας, <u>ἵνα</u> δὴ τοῖσι ελλησι μηδὲ φυγεῖν <u>ἐξῆ</u>, ἀλλ' . . . <u>δοῖεν</u> τίσιν τῶν ἐπ' Ἀρτεμισίῳ ἀγωνισμάτων. (Hdt. 8.76.2)

They put out their ships for the following reason, that it would not be possible for the Greeks to escape, but that they would be punished for their achievements off Artemisium. The 'retained' subjunctive $\dot{\epsilon}\xi\tilde{\eta}$ presents the purpose which is most immediately relevant for the subject; the optative $\delta \tilde{o}$ presents a secondary purpose.

The subjunctive is also used in cases where the original purpose is still valid at the moment of speaking (\rightarrow 41.14):

(7) τούτων ἕνεκα ἐγεννήθη τῶν ἄστρων ὅσα . . . ἔσχεν τροπάς, ἵνα τόδε ὡς ὁμοιότατον $\underline{\tilde{\eta}}$ τῷ τελέ $\underline{\omega}$. . . ζώ $\underline{\omega}$. (Pl. Ti. 39d-e)

For these reasons were generated all those stars which turned themselves around, in order that this (universe) would be as similar as possible to the perfect creature. The purpose for the design of the universe is still valid in the speaker's present.

Note 2: The difference between the use of present and aorist subjunctives/optatives in purpose clauses is one of aspect (\rightarrow 33.63–5). For instance, in (3) the aor. subj. λάθωσι expresses an action *in its entirety* (the enemy is not to escape notice at all), whereas the pres. subj. λανθάνωμεν in (2) expresses an action *in process* (note ὅτι πλεῖστον χρόνον).

- 45.4 After ὅπως or ὡς (but not ἵνα), purpose clauses sometimes have ἄν + subjunctive:
 - (8) δεῦρ' ἔλθ', ὅπως ἄν καὶ σοφώτερος γένη. (Eur. Alc. 779)
 Come here, so that you may become wiser still.
 - (9) ώς δ' ἄν μάθης . . . ἀντάκουσον. (Xen. An. 2.5.16) So that you might learn, listen to me in turn.

Note 1: This is the prospective use of $\alpha \nu$ + subj. (\rightarrow 40.9), and a prospective nuance may be present: the purpose is presented as something which very likely will occur.

Result Clauses

Introduction

- To communicate the (intentional or unintentional) **result** of an action, Greek uses the following expressions:
 - a **result clause** (also called 'consecutive' clause) with ωστε, treated below;
 - a relative clause, often with ὅστις or with οἶος, etc. (→50.25); for the infinitive after οἷος, etc., →46.10.
- Result clauses in Greek are introduced by $\omega \sigma \tau \epsilon$ (infrequently by ω_S) (so) that, (so as) to. In the matrix clause, there is often a 'signpost' anticipating the result clause. Such signposts are words like (also $\rightarrow 8.1-2$):

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οὕτω(ς) so, in such a way such, of this kind so great, so much, so many (pl.) εἰς τοῦτο + gen. so far in ..., to such an extent of ...
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- 46.3 There are two possible constructions for result clauses:
 - ωστε + the moods of independent sentences (normally the indicative): expressing an actual result (→46.4-6);
 - ώστε + infinitive (or acc.-and-inf. construction): expressing a potential (natural, inevitable) result ($\rightarrow 46.7-11$).

Construction of Result Clauses

With the Moods of Independent Sentences

- When ἄστε is used with an **indicative**, the result is presented as **fact**, i.e. actually taking place at a particular point in time. The negative is oὐ:
 - (1) οὕτω πονηρός ἐστι ... <u>ὅστε</u> ... ποιησαμένων αὐτὸν Τροιζηνίων πολίτην ... κατασταθεὶς ἄρχων <u>ἐξέβαλεν</u> τοὺς πολίτας ἐκ τῆς πόλεως. (Hyp. Ath. 15.5–11) He is so vile that, after the Troezenians had given him citizenship, when he had been installed as magistrate, he expelled the citizens from the city.

- (2) ή τῶν ἰδίων ἐπιμέλεια ... τοὺς ... πλουσίους ἐμποδίζει, <u>ὥστε</u> πολλάκις <u>οὐ κοινωνοῦσι</u> τῆς ἐκκλησίας. (Arist. *Pol.* 1293a7–9)

 The care of their private affairs hinders the rich, so that they often do not take part in the assembly.
- (3) αύτοὺς . . . ἐς κίνδυνον καθίστασαν, <u>ὥστε</u> τέλος ἡσυχίαν <u>ἦγον</u>. (Thuc. 2.100.5) They put themselves at risk, so that in the end they desisted.
- 46.5 **Other moods** of independent sentences may also be used:
 - ἄστε + ἄν + optative (potential, \rightarrow 34.13) indicates that a possibility (actually) results from an action;
 - ὥστε + ἄν + modal indicative (counterfactual, →34.16) indicates that as the result of an action, another action would (have) come about if certain conditions had been met (but they are/were actually not met):
 - (4) οὕτω γὰρ ἀμφοτέρων σφόδρα πεπείρασθε, <u>ἄστε</u> καὶ τοὺς ἄλλους ὑμεῖς ἄριστ' <u>ἄν</u> διδάξαιτε περὶ αὐτῶν. (Isoc. 18.44)

 You are so very experienced in both things, that it is you who might best teach the others about them.
 - (5) τοὺς στρατιώτας τὸν μισθὸν ἀπεστέρησεν, <u>ἄστε</u> τὸ μὲν ἐπ' ἐκείνῳ πολλάκις <u>ἄν</u> <u>διελύθησαν</u>, διὰ δὲ τὸν ἐφεστῶτα ... ναυμαχοῦντες ἐνίκησαν. (Isoc. 4.142) He deprived the soldiers of their pay, so that, had it been up to him (τὸ μἐν ἐπ' ἐκείνῳ; but it wasn't up to him), they would have been disbanded more than once; but thanks to their commander, they won a naval battle.

ώστε Introducing a New Sentence

- 46.6 Frequently, ιωστε occurs at the start of a new sentence (as printed in modern editions). In such cases, ιωστε may be translated the result was that ..., as a result, or therefore, so:
 - (6) βασιλεύς ... ἔδοξε ... Κύρφ ... ἀπεγνωκέναι τοῦ μάχεσθαι <u>ἄστε</u> τῆ ὑστεραία Κῦρος ἐπορεύετο ἠμελημένως μᾶλλον. (Xen. An. 1.7.19)
 It seemed to Cyrus that the king had decided against offering battle. As a result Cyrus proceeded more carelessly the next day.
 - (7) τίνες ἄν τούτοις τῶν ἄλλων Ἑλλήνων ἤρισαν ... ἀρετῆ; ὧστε δικαίως ... τἀριστεῖα τῆς ναυμαχίας ἔλαβον παρὰ τῆς Ἑλλάδος. (Lys. 2.42-3)
 Who among the other Greeks could have vied with these men in valour? So it was just that they received from Greece prize of prowess in the sea-fight. ὅστε indicates the result of the Athenians' superlative valour, which Lysias asserts by way of a rhetorical question (→38.19).

This occurs frequently when ωστε introduces a command or a direct question:

- (8) θνητοῦ πέφυκας πατρός, Ἡλέκτρα, φρόνει, | θνητὸς δ' Ὀρέστης· <u>ὥστε</u> μὴ λίαν στένε. (Soph. *El.* 1171–2)
 - You are sprung from a mortal father, Electra, keep that in mind, and Orestes is mortal. So do not wail excessively.
- (9) προσήκει δήπου... χάριν αὐτοὺς ἔχειν... <u>ὅστε πῶς</u> οὐ βοηθήσουσιν ἡμῖν ἐπ' Ὠρωπόν; (Dem. 16.13)
 Surely, I think, they ought to be grateful... How, therefore, can they refuse

With the Infinitive

to help us at Oropus?

- When ἄστε/ώς is used with the (accusative and) infinitive, the speaker presents the result as one which naturally or inevitably results from the action in the matrix clause. It is not specified whether or not the result actually occurs or has occurred, merely that the action in the matrix clause is of a kind which enables or favours the bringing about of the result. The negative is μή:
 - (10) ἔχει γὰρ οὕτως <u>ὥστε μὴ</u> σιγᾶν <u>πρέπειν</u>. (Soph. *Trach*. 1126)
 The situation is such that it is not right to keep silent.
 - (11) πειράσομαι οὕτω ποιεῖν <u>ὥστε</u> καὶ <u>ὑμᾶς</u> ἐμὲ <u>ἐπαινεῖν</u>. (Xen. *Cyr*. 5.1.21) I will try to act in such a way that you praise me as well.
 - (12) τὸν μὲν ἄλλον χρόνον οὕτω διεκείμην ὥστε μήτε λυπεῖν μήτε λίαν ἐπ' ἐκείνῃ εἶναι ὅ τι αν ἐθέλῃ ποιεῖν. (Lys. 1.6)
 - For some time I behaved towards her in such a way as not to harass her, nor to have it be too much up to her to do whatever she wanted.

Note 1: The difference between ιστε + the moods of independent sentences and ιστε + infinitive may be illustrated from examples such as the following:

- (13) εἰς τοῦτ' ἀφικνεῖται βδελυρίας <u>ὥστε</u> τύπτειν <u>ἐπεχείρησε</u> τὸν ἄνθρωπον. (Dem. 25.60) He came to such a level of disgrace that he tried to strike the man.
- (14) ἀλλὰ ξυνέπεσεν ἐς τοῦτο ἀνάγκης ἄστε ἐπιχειρῆσαι ἀλλήλοις τοὺς Κορινθίους καὶ ἀθηναίους. (Thuc. 1.49.7)

 But it came to the point of necessity for the Corinthians and Athenians to attack each other.

In (13) – part of a forensic speech – the attack itself is presented as a relevant fact which has taken place at a certain point in time: that fact is presented as the result of poor character. In (14) – part of a narrative description of a naval battle, in which the Athenian fleet is gradually drawn into a fight in which it wanted no active part – the principal import of the sentence is that the (climactic) point of the battle was reached where the two sides had no option but to engage; that they did in fact fight is implied (and clear from the surrounding context).

Note 2: The difference between ιστε + present infinitive and ιστε + aorist infinitive is one of aspect: $\rightarrow 33.63-5$.

- 46.8 The infinitive is used by default:
 - after a negative matrix clause (e.g. (15));
 - after a comparative with η ωστε ('more X than to' = 'too X to'; e.g. (16));
 - when the matrix clause is a **conditional clause** (e.g. (17)):
 - (15) οὐ γὰρ ἀλκὴν ἔχομεν <u>ὥστε μὴ θανεῖν</u>. (Eur. Her. 326) We do not have a defence against death (lit. 'so as not to die').
 - (16) καταφανέστερον ἢ ὥστε λανθάνειν οὐ προθύμως ξυνεπολέμει. (Thuc. 8.46.5)
 (Tissaphernes) engaged in war with a lack of zeal that was too clear to escape notice (lit. 'clearer than so as to escape notice').
 - (17) εἰ οὖν μηχανή τις γένοιτο ἄστε πόλιν γενέσθαι ... ἐραστῶν τε καὶ παιδικῶν ... (Pl. Symp. 178e)
 If, then, there were some method so that a city of lovers and their favourites might exist ...

Note 1: In each of these cases the use of the infinitive rather than the moods of independent sentences is expected: there is no question of an *actual* result: in (15) and (17) the action leading to the result is itself not presented as actually taking place; in (16) the construction indicates that the actual situation is in conflict with the result (Tissaphernes' lack of zeal was so obvious that it was not possible for it to go unnoticed).

- 46.9 The infinitive is also used when the ωστε-clause refers to an **intended result**:
 - (18) πᾶν ποιοῦσιν <u>ὥστε</u> δίκην μὴ <u>διδόναι</u>. (Pl. *Grg*. 479c) They do everything so as to avoid being punished.

Note 1: Again, the use of the infinitive is expected in such cases: the matrix clause expresses an action which is performed *in such a way* that it (naturally) leads to the intended result. Herein also lies the difference between $\&\sigma\tau\epsilon$ -clauses referring to an intended result and purpose clauses (\rightarrow 45; purpose clauses do not specify the nature of consequence between the matrix clause and the subordinate clause). These clauses are, however, similar in sense to effort clauses (\rightarrow 44).

- 46.10 When the matrix clause has a signpost like τοιοῦτος, τοσοῦτος (→46.2), a result clause may also be formed using the **correlative adjectives οἴος**, ὅσος (→8.1) with the **infinitive** (the sense is similar to the construction with ὥστε + infinitive described above):
 - (19) ἐγώ ... τοιοῦτος οἶος ... μηδενὶ ἄλλω πείθεσθαι ἢ τῷ λόγω ὃς ... (Pl. Cri. 46b)
 I am the type of man who follows nothing but the reasoning which ...

This sometimes occurs without a preceding form of τοιοῦτος, etc.:

(20) ἐλείπετο τῆς νυκτὸς ὅσον σκοταίους διελθεῖν τὸ πεδίον. (Xen. An. 4.1.5) So much of the night remained that they could cross the plain in the dark.

The use of the infinitive distinguishes such result clauses from correlative clauses introduced by o \cos , \cos with a finite verb (for which \rightarrow 50.28), giving them an unambiguous result meaning.

46.11 For the redundant use of ιστε with obligatory infinitives after verbs such as πείθω, →51.17.

Temporal Clauses

Introduction

Expressions of 'Time When'

- 47.1 To communicate **when** an action takes place, Greek can use the following expressions:
 - a prepositional phrase with temporal meaning $(\rightarrow 31)$:
 - (1) μετὰ ταῦτα ... οἱ Θηβαῖοι ... ἀπῆλθον οἴκαδε. (Xen. Hell. 7.1.22)
 After this, the Thebans went home.
 - a temporal adverb;
 - a dative or genitive used as an adverbial modifier of time (\rightarrow 30.32, 30.46, 30.56):
 - (2) καὶ δὴ καὶ τότε πρωαίτερον συνελέγημεν· τῆ γὰρ προτεραία ἐπειδὴ ἐξήλθομεν ἐκ τοῦ δεσμωτηρίου <u>ἑσπέρας</u>, . . . (Pl. *Phd*. 59d-e)
 - And on that occasion we gathered at an earlier hour. For on the day before, when we had left the prison in the evening, . . .
 - a connected participle or genitive absolute expressing a temporal relation
 (→52.35-7)
 - (3) ταῦτ' ἀκούσαντες οἱ στρατηγοὶ ... ἀπῆλθον. (Xen. An. 2.2.5) Having heard this, the generals left.
 - a **subordinate temporal clause** (treated below):
 - (4) <u>ἐπεὶ κατεστρατοπεδεύοντο οἱ ελληνες</u> . . . , ἀπῆλθον οἱ βάρβαροι. (Xen. An. 3.4.18)

When the Greeks were setting up camp, the foreigners withdrew.

Note 1: For impersonal expressions of time, e.g. $\partial \psi \hat{\epsilon} \hat{\epsilon} \sigma \tau i$ it is late, $\rightarrow 36.12$.

Conjunctions Used in Temporal Clauses

47.2 Temporal clauses are introduced by one of the following subordinating conjunctions:

ἐπεί, ἐπειδή (Ion. ἐπείτε) after, when; now that ώς after, when 47.2–5 Introduction 537

ὄτε when, after; now that ὁπότε when(ever); now that

ἐπεί/ὡς τάχιστα as soon as

ἡνίκα at the moment that, (exactly) when

ξωςso long as or until μέχρι (οὖ)so long as or until ξοτεso long as or until πρίν (ἤ)before or until

 πρότερον ἤ
 before

 ἐν ὧ
 while

 ἐς ὅ
 until

 ἐξ/ἀφ' οὖ
 since

When followed by ἄν, the conjunctions ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ὅτε and ὁπότε become, by crasis (\rightarrow 1.43–5), ἐπήν/ἐπεάν/ἐπάν, ἐπειδάν, ὅταν and ὁπόταν.

Note 1: Combinations such as $\hat{\epsilon}\nu$ $\tilde{\phi}$, consisting of a preposition and a relative pronoun ('while' < 'during (the time) that') were fossilized to such an extent that they may be seen as individual conjunctions (note that they are never separated: we find e.g. $\hat{\epsilon}\nu$ $\tilde{\phi}$ $\delta\hat{\epsilon}$, not $\hat{\epsilon}\nu$ $\delta\hat{\epsilon}$ $\tilde{\phi}$).

Moods and Tenses Used in Temporal Clauses

47.3 Different kinds of temporal relations are expressed in Greek not only by the selection of different conjunctions, but also by the selection of different tense-aspect stems for the verb in the temporal clause. For instance:

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ềπεί + impf. when but ềπεί + aor. ind. after, when (\rightarrow 47.7) ἕως ἄν + pres. subj. so long as but ἕως ἄν + aor. subj. until (\rightarrow 47.12)
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- 47.4 The **use of moods** (and the negative) in temporal clauses varies according to the nature of the temporal relationship between the subordinate and matrix clause. There are three main types:
 - temporal clauses referring to (a single action in) the **past**, with a secondary (i.e. past-tense) **indicative**, negative où; $\rightarrow 47.7$;
 - temporal clauses referring to the future, with subjunctive + ἄν (prospective),
 negative μή; →47.8;
 - temporal clauses referring to a **repeated/habitual** action: such clauses have **subjunctive** + $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ (**indefinite**) if the temporal clause refers to the present or future, or an **iterative optative** (without $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$) if the temporal clause refers to the past; the negative is $\mu\dot{\eta}$; \rightarrow 47.9-11.
- The conjunction $\pi \rho i \nu$ can be followed both by finite verb forms in various moods and by an infinitive; $\rightarrow 47.14-16$ below.

'Temporal' Clauses with Causal Force

47.6 In non-narrative contexts (→33.13), clauses introduced by ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ἐπείτε, ὅτε and (more rarely) ὁπότε and ὡς are also used with **causal** meaning: *now that, as, since.*

When they are so used, the moods and tenses used are those of independent sentences. The negative is où. These clauses are treated separately in 48.3–5.

Note 1: The use of an indicative with present reference (pres. ind., pf. ind.) with any of these conjunctions generally indicates that the clause has a causal sense. Such clauses are thus not treated in this chapter.

Temporal Clauses Referring to a Single Action in the Past

- 47.7 Temporal clauses referring to a single action in the **past** use a secondary (i.e. pasttense) indicative: **aorist, imperfect**, or **pluperfect**; the negative is où. The matrix clause may have any past tense or, rarely, a present tense. The difference between the tenses of the subordinate clause is aspectual; in temporal clauses, there is nearly always an implication of relative tense (→33.57). Generally:
 - the imperfect, by presenting the action of the subordinate clause as incomplete, suggests that the action of the subordinate clause is going on at the same time as that of the matrix clause (simultaneity);
 - (more rarely) the **pluperfect**, by referring to an ongoing state (resulting from a previously completed action), suggests that that state exists at the same time as the action of the matrix clause (**simultaneity**);
 - the **aorist indicative**, by presenting the action of the subordinate clause as complete, suggests that the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the matrix clause (**anteriority**):
 - (5) ώς ἐγεωργοῦμεν ἐν τῆ Νάξω, ἐθήτευεν ἐκεῖ παρ' ἡμῖν. (Pl. Euthphr. 4c)
 When we were farmers on Naxos, he was a labourer for us there. Imperfect, simultaneous.
 - (6) Ἀριαῖος ... ἐθωρακίζετο καὶ οἱ σὺν αὐτῷ. ἐν ῷ δὲ ὡπλίζοντο ἦκον ... οἱ προπεμφθέντες σκοποὶ. (Xen. An. 2.2.14–15)
 Ariaeus put on his breastplate and so did those who were with him. While they were arming themselves, however, the scouts returned. Imperfect, simultaneous.
 - (7) ἐπειδὴ οὐ προυχώρει ἤ προσεδέχοντο, ἀπῆλθον ἐπ' ἀντίσσης. (Thuc. 3.18.1)
 When it was not turning out for them as they expected, they left for Antissa.
 Imperfect, simultaneous.

- (8) ἑβδομαῖος ἀφ' οὖ ἔκαμεν ἔξω τοῦ ἱεροῦ ἐτελεύτησε. (Xen. Hell. 5.3.19)
 On the seventh day after he had fallen sick, he died outside the sanctuary.
 Aorist, anterior.
- (9) ἐπεὶ δὲ παρεσκεύαστο ἀμφοτέροις, ἦσαν ἐς χεῖρας. (Thuc. 3.107.4)
 As soon as everything was prepared on both sides, they were locked in battle.
 Pluperfect ('had been prepared by both sides'); the resulting state is presented as simultaneous with ἦσαν (for the 'immediative' interpretation of this impf., →33.52).

Note 1: Temporal clauses with a negative (such as (7)) often have a causal connotation. Note 2: In narrative texts, clauses with conjunctions meaning when, after (ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ἐπείτε, ὡς, ὅτε, ὁπότε, ἡνίκα) or while (ἐν ῷ) usually precede the matrix clause (as in (5)–(9)), whereas clauses with ἐς ὅ until follow the matrix clause. Such sentences exhibit a so-called 'iconic' ordering: what came first is presented first, what came last, last. (Another factor influencing initial placement is the frequent function of temporal clauses as 'setting', for which $\rightarrow 60.32$).

Particularly ἡνίκα-clauses, however, may also follow the matrix clause, in which case the temporal clause generally expresses the more important action, and often includes an idea of delay or surprise:

(10) καὶ ἤδη . . . ἦν ἀμφὶ ἀγορὰν πλήθουσαν . . ., χνίκα Πατηγύας . . . προφαίνεται. (Xen. An. 1.8.1)

It was already about full-market time, when Pategyas appeared. Note that the $\eta\nu$ inaclause is construed, unusually, with the historical present ($\pi\rho\sigma\phi\alpha$ ive $\tau\alpha$); the historical present is rare in subordinate clauses.

Temporal Clauses Referring to the Future

47.8 Temporal clauses referring to the **future** always have αν + **subjunctive** (prospective, →40.9); the negative is μή. The matrix clause has either a future indicative or another verb with future reference (e.g. imperative, hortatory subjunctive, etc.; →33.63-4).

The difference between the use of present and aorist subjunctives is aspectual, typically implying relative tense (as above in 47.7):

- ἄν + present subjunctive (imperfective aspect) normally suggests that the action in the temporal clause is situated at the same time as the action in the main/matrix clause (simultaneity);
- αν + aorist subjunctive (perfective aspect) normally suggests that the action in the temporal clause is situated before the action in the main/matrix clause (anteriority):

- (11) καὶ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ οὕτως, ώς ἔοικεν, ἐγγυτάτω $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ τοῦ εἰδέναι . . . (Pl. $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t$
 - And while we live, we will, it seems, be nearest to knowing in the following way . . . Future indicative in the matrix clause; the present subjunctive implies simultaneity.
- (12) ἐξάρξω μὲν οὖν ἐγὼ ἡνίκ' ἄν καιρὸς ἢ παιᾶνα. (Xen. Hell. 2.4.17)
 I will strike up the paean when the time is right. Future indicative in the matrix clause; the present subjunctive implies simultaneity.
- (13) τοὺς ὑεῖς μου, ἐπειδὰν ἡβήσωσι, τιμωρήσασθε, ὧ ἄνδρες. (Pl. Ap. 41e) Gentlemen, you must punish my sons when they have grown up. Imperative in the matrix clause; the aorist subjunctive implies anteriority.
- (14) νῦν ὧν μοι δοκέει, ἐπεὰν τάχιστα νὺξ ἐπέλθη . . . ἀπαλλάσσεσθαι. (Hdt. 4.134.3) So now it seems best to me to depart as soon as night has fallen. The dynamic infinitive ἀπαλλάσσεσθαι has future reference; the aorist subjunctive implies anteriority.

Note 1: Perfect-stem subjunctives (other than of $o\tilde{i}\delta\alpha$) are infrequently used in such clauses; when they do occur the perfect has its normal aspectual value (\rightarrow 33.6, 33.34–7), which in temporal clauses typically implies simultaneity:

(15) ὅταν γὰρ ἐν κακοῖς | ἤδη βεβήκης, τἄμ' ἐπαινέσεις ἔπη. (Soph. El. 1056-7) Eventually, when you find yourself in trouble, you will approve of my words. Future indicative in the matrix clause; the perfect subjunctive (referring to an ongoing state) implies simultaneity.

Note 2: Greek does not normally use a future indicative in temporal clauses referring to the future (for causal clauses with fut. ind., $\rightarrow 48.3$ with n.1; for conditional clauses, $\rightarrow 49.5$).

Note 3: Observe that English typically uses a present-stem form (a 'concealed future') in temporal clauses referring to the future (e.g. live in the translation of (11), is in (12)).

Temporal Clauses Referring to a Repeated or Habitual Action

47.9 Temporal clauses referring to a **repeated** or **habitual** action **in the present or future** have αν + **subjunctive** (indefinite, →40.9); the negative is μή. The matrix clause contains a generalized statement, usually in the present indicative.

The difference between aorist and present subjunctives is aspectual, normally with an implication of relative tense (as above):

(16) οἱ γὰρ ἀδικούμενοι πάντες εἰσίν, ὁπόταν τις τὴν πόλιν ἀδικῆ. (Pl. Leg. 768a) Everyone is being wronged whenever someone wrongs the city. Present indicative in the matrix clause; the present subjunctive implies simultaneity.

- (17) μεγίστη <u>γίγνεται</u> σωτηρία, | <u>ὅταν</u> γυνὴ πρὸς ἄνδρα <u>μὴ διχοστατῆ</u>. (Eur. Med. 14–15)
 - It is the greatest source of safety, when a woman is not at odds with her husband. Present indicative in the matrix clause; the present subjunctive implies simultaneity.
- (18) ἡνίκ' ἄν οὖν ὁ ἀγών ἔλθη τοῦ πολέμου, πᾶς τις εὐχερῶς ἑαυτὸν σώζει. (Dem. 60.25)
 - Whenever, then, the test of war has arrived, everyone handily saves himself. Present indicative in the matrix clause; the aorist subjunctive implies anteriority.
- When the temporal clause refers to the **past**, it has an **iterative optative** (without αν). The matrix clause normally has an imperfect, sometimes a pluperfect.

The difference between the agrist and present optatives is aspectual, normally with an implication of relative tense (as above):

- (19) ἐθήρευεν ἀπὸ ἵππου, <u>ὁπότε</u> γυμνάσαι <u>βούλοιτο</u> ἑαυτόν τε καὶ τοὺς ἵππους. (Xen. An. 1.2.7)
 - He used to hunt on horseback whenever he wanted to give himself and his horses exercise. *Imperfect in the matrix clause; the present optative implies simultaneity.*
- (20) ἐπὶ τῷ λιμένι, όπότε μὴ χειμών κωλύοι, ἐφώρμει. (Xen. Hell. 6.2.7)

 He put up a blockade (lit. 'anchored') at the mouth of the harbour, whenever a storm did not prevent it. Imperfect in the matrix clause; the present optative implies simultaneity.
- (21) ἐπειδή γὰρ προσβάλοιεν ἀλλήλοις, οὐ ῥαδίως ἀπελύοντο ὑπό τε τοῦ πλήθους καὶ ὅχλου τῶν νεῶν. (Thuc. 1.49.3)

 Each time they had charged each other, it was not easy to untangle them, due to the multitude and throng of ships. Imperfect in the matrix clause; the aorist optative implies anteriority.

Note 1: Perfect subjunctives/optatives (other than of $o\bar{i}\delta\alpha$) are not frequently used in such clauses; when they do occur the perfect stem has its normal aspectual value, which in temporal clauses typically implies simultaneity:

(22) τούς δὲ παραδιδομένους νόμους δοκιμασάτω πρότερον ἡ βουλὴ καὶ οἱ νομοθέται οἱ πεντακόσιοι οὖς οἱ δημόται εἴλοντο, ἐπειδὰν ὀμωμόκωσιν. (Andoc. 1.84)

The laws which are handed over shall be scrutinized beforehand by the Council and the five hundred Lawgivers elected by the Demes, when they are under oath. The imperative δοκιμασάτω is a general instruction: the condition of being sworn in (ἐπειδὰν ὀμωμόκωσιν, perfect subjunctive) is simultaneous with δοκιμασάτω.

- 47.11 In general statements, the optative (without ἄν) is infrequently used in temporal clauses which do not refer to the past:
 - (23) ὁ ... ἐκὼν πεινῶν φάγοι ἀν ὁπότε βούλοιτο. (Xen. Mem. 2.1.18)
 He who is hungry willingly may eat whenever he wants.

This occurs especially when the main clause has a potential optative with αv , as in (23) (cf. 'potential' conditional clauses, $\rightarrow 49.8$; such cases may be seen as instances of attraction of mood, $\rightarrow 40.15$).

ἕως

- 47.12 The conjunction ἔως can mean either *as long as* or *until*. The interpretation depends on the aspectual value of the (subordinate) verb it is found with:
 - With a verb form expressing **incompleteness** (present indicative, imperfect/ pluperfect, αν + present subjunctive, present optative), εως = **as long as**, indicating that the action of the matrix clause is simultaneous with, and conditional upon, the action in the temporal clause;
 - With a verb form expressing **completeness** (aorist indicative, $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ + aorist subjunctive, aorist optative), $\ddot{\epsilon}\omega_{S} = until$, expressing that the action of the matrix clause reaches its end when the action in the subordinate clause takes place. The $\ddot{\epsilon}\omega_{S}$ -clause typically follows the matrix clause.

Some examples:

- (24) οὐδὲν γὰρ κωλύει διαμυθολογῆσαι πρὸς ἀλλήλους ἔως ἔξεστιν. (Pl. Ap. 39e) For nothing prevents us from chatting with each other as long as it is possible. ἔως + present indicative: 'as long as'; single present action.
- (25) ἔως δὲ ἀφειστήκη πόρρωθεν, ἐφαίνετό τί μοι λέγεσθαι. (Pl. Tht. 208e) As long as I was standing at a distance, it seemed to me that there was something in the discussion. ἔως + pluperfect: 'as long as'; single past action; for the idiom λέγω τι, →29.42.
- (26) ἐφίει τὸ δόρυ διὰ τῆς χειρός, ἔως ἄκρου τοῦ στύρακος ἀντελάβετο. (Pl. La. 184a)
 - He let the spear slip through his hand until he gripped it by the butt-end of the shaft. $\xi\omega_S$ + aorist indicative: 'until'; single past action.
- (27) <u>ἔωσπερ ἄν ἐμπνέω</u> καὶ <u>οἶός τε ὧ</u>, οὐ μἡ παύσωμαι φιλοσοφῶν. (Pl. Ap. 29d) As long as I am breathing and able, I will certainly not stop practising philosophy. ἔως ἄν + present subjunctive (prospective): 'as long as'; action (continuing) in the future; for οὐ μή + subj., →34.9.

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(28) ἀλλὰ χρή, ἔφη ὁ Σωκράτης, ἐπάδειν αὐτῷ ἑκάστης ἡμέρας <u>ἕως ἂν</u> <u>ἐξεπάσητε</u>. (Pl. *Phd.* 77e)

- 'Ah,' said Socrates, 'you must sing charms to him every day until you have charmed away his fear.' $\xi\omega_5 \, \alpha\nu + aorist \, subjunctive \, (prospective)$: 'until'; action in the future.
- (29) περιεμένομεν οὖν ἑκάστοτε ἔως ἀνοιχθείη τὸ δεσμωτήριον ... ἐπειδἡ δὲ ἀνοιχθείη, εἰσῆμεν παρὰ τὸν Σωκράτη. (Pl. Phd. 59d)

 So we would wait, every time, until the jail was opened; and when it was opened, we would go to see Socrates. ἕως + aorist optative: 'until'; repeated action in the past.
- 47.13 The rarer conjunctions ἔστε and μέχρι (οὖ) function in the same way as ἕως. Two examples are:
 - (30) ἐγώ μὲν οὖν ἔστε μὲν αί σπονδαὶ ἦσαν οὔποτε ἐπαυόμην ἡμᾶς ... οἰκτίρων. (Xen. An. 3.1.19)
 - As for me, then, as long as the treaty was in effect I never ceased pitying us.
 - (31) ἐμάχοντο ἀπό τε τῶν νεῶν καὶ τῆς γῆς μέχρι οἱ Ἀθηναῖοι ἀπέπλευσαν εἰς Μάδυτον. (Xen. Hell.~1.1.3)
 - They fought in naval and land battles until the Athenians sailed away to Madytus.

πρίν

- 47.14 The conjunction **πρίν** (also **πρίν ἥ**, and sometimes πρότερον ἥ), which expresses that the action of the subordinate clause is **posterior** to that of the matrix clause, is construed in two ways:
 - When the **matrix clause is negative** (or has an intrinsically negative verb like ἀπαγορεύω forbid, ἀδύνατόν (ἐστι) it is impossible, etc.), πρίν is usually followed by a finite aorist-stem form. In such cases, πρίν can be translated with before or until (or, leaving the negative in the matrix clause untranslated, only when). The πρίν-clause typically follows the matrix clause:
 - (32) πρότερον δ' <u>οὐκ</u> ἦν γένος ἀθανάτων, <u>πρὶν</u> Ἔρως <u>ξυνέμειξεν</u> ἄπαντα. (Ar. Av. 700)
 - And there was no race of immortals before Eros mixed everything together. *Aorist indicative; single past action.*
 - (33) οὐ πρότερον κακῶν παύσονται αἱ πόλεις, πρὶν ἄν ἐν αὐταῖς οἱ φιλόσοφοι ἄρξωσιν. (Pl. Resp. 487e)
 - The cities will cease their wrongdoings only when the philosophers assume power in them. $\check{\alpha}_{\nu}$ + aorist subjunctive (prospective); future action.

- (34) $\frac{\dot{\alpha}\pi\eta\gamma\acute{o}ρευε}{1.4.14}$ μηδένα βάλλειν, $\underline{πρὶν}$ Κῦρος $\frac{\dot{ε}μπλησθείη}{1.4.14}$ θηρῶν. (Xen. Cyr.
 - He forbade anyone from throwing a spear until Cyrus had gotten his fill of hunting. For the construction after verbs of preventing, $\rightarrow 51.35$; the aorist optative $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\lambda\eta\sigma\theta\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\eta}$ is oblique, replacing prospective $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ + subjunctive ($\rightarrow 40.14$); the 'direct command' would have been e.g. $\mu\dot{\eta}$ βάλλετε $\pi\rho i\nu$ $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ Κῦρος $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\pi\lambda\eta\sigma\theta\tilde{\eta}$ θηρῶν.
- When the matrix clause is affirmative (not-negative), πρίν is normally followed
 by the (accusative and) infinitive. In such cases, πρίν can be translated only with
 before, not with until:
- (35) λέγοιμ' ἄν ἤδη. πρὶν λέγειν δ', ὑμᾶς τοδὶ | ἐπερήσομαί τι μικρόν. (Ar. Lys. 97-8)
 I'll make my speech momentarily. But before making it, I'll ask you this, a small issue.
- (36) ὀλίγον δὲ πρὶν ἡμᾶς ἀπιέναι μάχη ἐγεγόνει ἐν τῇ Ποτειδαία. (Pl. *Chrm.* 153b) Not long before we went back, a battle had taken place in Potidaea.
- (37) ἦν ἡμίν, ὧναξ, Λάιός ποθ' ἡγεμὼν | γῆς τῆσδε, πρὶν σὲ τήνδ' ἀπευθύνειν πόλιν.
 (Soph. OT 103-4)
 Once, my lord, Laius was the king of this land, before you had control of this city.

Note 1: $\pi\rho i\nu$ -clauses, either with finite verbs or with infinitives, cannot normally themselves be negated.

Note 2: Posteriority may also be expressed by $\xi \omega \varsigma$, $\rightarrow 47.12$.

- 47.15 Occasionally in poetry, and rarely in prose, πρίν with a finite aorist-stem form occurs after an affirmative main clause (and may in such cases be translated with either *before* or *until*):
 - (38) ἠγόμην δ' ἀνὴρ | ἀστῶν μέγιστος τῶν ἐκεῖ, <u>πρίν</u> μοι τύχη | τοιάδ' <u>ἐπέστη</u> ... (Soph. *OT* 775–7)
 - I was considered to be foremost among the citizens there, until the following chance event befell me: . . .
- 47.16 In poetry and Herodotus (and, according to the manuscript tradition, Thucydides), ἄν is occasionally omitted in πρίν-clauses referring to the future or a habitual action:
 - (39) οὐκ ἔστιν ὅστις αὐτὸν ἐξαιρήσεται | ..., πρὶν γυναῖκ' ἐμοι μεθῆ. (Eur. Alc. 848-9)
 No one will free him until he releases the woman to me. For οὐκ ἔστιν ὅστις, →50.12.

Note 1: πρὶν ἢ is never followed by ἄν, taking only the subjunctive when referring to the future or a habitual action.

Comparative Temporal Clauses (ώς ὅτε/ώς ὁπότε)

- 47.17 ὅτε and ὁπότε are sometimes combined in poetry with ὡς (ὡς ὅτε/ὡς ὁπότε as when), in comparisons and similes, comparing one situation to another. The verb in such clauses is regularly omitted (in such cases ὡς ὅτε may be translated with like, as it were):
 - (40) χρυσέας ὑποστάσαντες . . . | κίονας, ώς ὅτε θαητὸν μέγαρον | πάξομεν. (Pind. Ol. 6.1–3) Putting up golden columns, we will build, as it were, a marvellous hall.

Causal Clauses

Introduction

- To communicate for what **reason, motive** or **cause** the action expressed by a verb takes place, the following expressions are regularly used in Greek:
 - modifiers in the dative (\rightarrow 30.45), or, with verbs of emotion, in the genitive (\rightarrow 30.30);
 - preposition phrases, especially with διά and ἕνεκα (\rightarrow 31);
 - circumstantial participles, especially when modified by $ω_S$ or $α_{TE}$ ($\rightarrow 52.38-9$);
 - certain types of relative clauses (\rightarrow 50.23);
 - causal clauses, introduced by ὅτι or διότι, or by one of the conjunctions used in temporal clauses (ἐπεί, etc.); these are treated below.

Note 1: Reason, motivation and cause are also frequently expressed in sentences introduced by the particle $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ ($\rightarrow 59.14-15$). There is a significant difference, however, between causal clauses (adverbial subordinate clauses), which are syntactically integrated in a complex sentence ($\rightarrow 39$), and explanatory $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ -clauses, which form new independent sentences. Compare the two constructions in:

(1) ταῦτα ἐς τοὺς πάντας "Ελληνας ἀπέρριψε ὁ Κῦρος τὰ ἔπεα, <u>ὅτι</u> ἀγορὰς στησάμενοι ἀνῆ τε καὶ πρήσι χρέωνται· αὐτοὶ <u>γὰρ</u> οἱ Πέρσαι ἀγορῆσι οὐδὲν ἐώθασι χρᾶσθαι, οὐδέ σφι ἐστὶ τὸ παράπαν ἀγορή. (Hdt. 1.153.2)

These words Cyrus meant as an insult against the whole Greek nation, because they set up market-places and buy and sell there; for the Persians themselves do not tend to use markets, and in fact have no market-place at all. In the $\delta\tau_1$ -clause Herodotus ascribes to Cyrus a reason for his (unfriendly) words to the Greeks ($\delta\pi\epsilon\rho\rho\nu$), while in the $\gamma\delta\rho$ -clause Herodotus explains why Cyrus specifically mentioned markets to the Greeks.

Note also that only ὅτι/διότι-clauses (not γάρ-clauses) can answer a question expressed by τί; and διὰ τί; why?, for what reason? (cf. e.g. examples (2) and (5) below).

Construction of Causal Clauses

ὅτι and διότι

48.2 In causal clauses introduced by the conjunctions ὅτι and διότι (in poetry also ὁθούνεκα and οὕνεκα), the moods and tenses used are those of independent

declarative sentences (\rightarrow 34). The indicative is by far the most common mood; counterfactual indicatives (+ $\mathring{\alpha}\nu$) and potential optatives (+ $\mathring{\alpha}\nu$) also occur. The negative is o $\mathring{\alpha}$:

- (2) ΘΕ. διὰ τί δῆτα κλαύσομαι; | :: ΣΤ. ὅτι τῶν παχειῶν ἐνετίθεις θρυαλλίδων. (Ar. Nub. 58-9)
 (Servant:) Why then will I be punished? :: (Strepsiades:) Because you were putting in one of the thick wicks.
- (3) ὀκνῶ εἰπεῖν ὅτι οὐκ ἔχω τί λέγω, διότι μοι νυνδὴ ἐπέπληξας εἰπόντι αὐτό. (Pl. Tht. 158a)
 I hesitate to admit that I don't know what to say, because you've scolded me just now when I said that.
- (4) οἵ τ' Ἀθηναῖοι ἐνόμιζον ἡσσᾶσθαι ὅτι οὐ πολὺ ἐνίκων. (Thuc. 7.34.7) The Athenians thought themselves vanquished, because they were not decidedly victorious. Note that in this example it is the narrator who provides, as an independent fact, the reason for the Athenians' thinking, i.e. the ὅτι-clause does not present the Athenians' own explanation for the loss they believed themselves to have suffered (contrast (6) below, and \rightarrow 41.21). For the translation of present-stem ἡσσᾶσθαι and ἐνίμων, \rightarrow 33.18.
- (5) τί ποτ' οὖν ... τῶν ἐμοὶ πεπραγμένων οὐχὶ μέμνηται; ὅτι τῶν ἀδικημάτων ἀν ἐμέμνητο τῶν αὑτοῦ. (Dem. 18.79)
 Why on earth, then, doesn't he mention the things done by me? Because he would have been reminded of his own unlawful deeds (if he had mentioned them, but he didn't).

In historic sequence (when the verb in the main clause is imperfect, aorist or pluperfect) the **oblique optative** (\rightarrow 40.12) may also be used in a causal clause, when the reason is reported or alleged:

(6) τὸν Περικλέα . . . ἐκάκιζον ὅτι στρατηγὸς ὢν οὐκ ἐπεξάγοι. (Thuc. 2.21.3)
They abused Pericles on the ground that, although he was their general, he did not lead them out.

'Temporal' Conjunctions with Causal Force

48.3 The temporal conjunctions ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ὅτε and (less frequently) ὁπότε are also used with **causal force**. This occurs specifically in **non-narrative text** (→33.13). The subordinate clause most often refers to the present: moods used are those of independent sentences, i.e. present indicative, perfect indicative, 'constative' aorist indicative, but also future indicative, potential optative (+ ἄν) and counterfactual modal (secondary) indicative (+ ἄν).

Note 1: Observe that the moods used in such clauses do not normally occur in 'proper' temporal clauses (\rightarrow 47.4), but are the same as those used in $\delta\tau_1/\delta_1\delta\tau_1$ -clauses treated above.

- When such a clause **precedes its matrix clause**, it expresses **cause or reason**; the matrix clause regularly has a form with future reference (fut. ind., imp., etc.; $\rightarrow 33.63-4$):
 - (7) επεί με αναγκάζεις δεσπότεα τὸν ἐμὸν κτείνειν οὐκ ἐθέλοντα, φέρε ἀκούσω . . . (Hdt. 1.11.4)
 - Now that you are compelling me to slay my master against my will, please let me hear . . . Pres. ind. in the $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\epsilon\dot{\epsilon}$ -clause; hortatory subj. in the main clause.
 - (8) νῦν δὲ ἐπειδἡ οὐκ ἐθέλεις καὶ ἐμοί τις ἀσχολία ἐστὶν . . . εἷμι. (Pl. Prt. 335c) But now, since you do not want to and I have an obligation, I'm off. Pres. ind. in the ἐπειδή-clause; εἷμι in the main clause has future reference (→33.19).
 - (9) ὅτε ... διακεκρίμεθα χωρὶς τάς τε καθαρὰς ἡδονὰς καὶ τὰς ... ἀκαθάρτους ..., προσθῶμεν ... (Pl. Phlb. 52c)
 Now that we have a distinction between the pure and the impure pleasures, let us add ... Pf. ind. in the ὅτε-clause; hortatory subj. in the main clause.
 - (10) ἐπεὶ δὲ τάδε ἀκινδυνότερα ἔδοξεν εἶναι, ἡμῖν ... ἀπολογητέον. (Antiph. 4.4.1) But since we have decided that this is the safer course of action, we must conduct the defence. 'Constative' aor. ind. (→33.28) in the ἐπεί-clause; ἀπολογητέον in the main clause has future reference.

When such a clause with ἐπεί or ἐπειδή **follows its matrix clause**, it nearly always expresses the **motivation** for making the preceding utterance. ώς is also so used:

- (11) ἀλλ' ἐμοῦ μὲν οὐ τυραννεύσουσ', ἐπεὶ φυλάξομαι καὶ φορήσω τὸ ξίφος. (Ar. Lys. 631-2)
 But they won't control me, since I'll be on guard and bear my sword. Fut. ind.
- (12) Λακεδαιμόνιοί . . . ἄκοντας προσάγουσι τοὺς πολλοὺς ἐς τὸν κίνδυνον, ἐπεὶ οὐκ ἄν ποτε ἐνεχείρησαν ἡσσηθέντες παρὰ πολὺ αὖθις ναυμαχεῖν. (Thuc. 2.89.4) The Spartans lead the majority into danger against their will, since they would never have ventured to fight at sea again after having been defeated very severely (if they hadn't been forced, but they were). Counterfactual modal secondary ind. + ἄν.
- (13) προϊέναι βέλτιστα νῷν, | ώς οὖτος ὁ τόπος ἐστὶν οὖ τὰ θηρία | τὰ δείν ἔφασκ ἐκεῖνος. (Ar. Ran. 277–9)
 We'd better move on, as this is the place where that man said there are terrifying creatures. Pres. ind.

ἐπεί/ώς Introducing a New Sentence

- 48.5 When used to provide a motivation for the preceding utterance, ἐπεί and ὡς regularly **introduce a new sentence** (as printed in modern editions), and may occur after a change of speaker:
 - (14) τί ποτε λέγεις, ὧ τέκνον; ὡς οὐ μανθάνω (Soph. *Phil.* 914) What on earth are you saying, child? For I do not understand.
 - (15) Ιω. μητρὸς τάδ ' ἡμῖν ἐκφέρεις ζητήματα; | :: ΠΡ. $\underline{\dot{\epsilon}}$ πεί γ ' ὁ δαίμων βούλεται. (Eur. Ion 1352–3)
 - (Ion:) Are you laying out the means to find my mother here? :: (Priestess:) Yes, since the god wants it.

Conditional Clauses

Introduction

49.1 A **conditional sentence** consists of:

- a subordinate conditional clause (the **protasis**): 'If Achilles is shot in the heel, ...';
- a matrix clause (the apodosis): '... (then) he will die.'

The whole of the conditional sentence expresses that the realization of the action in the matrix clause depends on the realization of the action in the subordinate clause.

By using different types of conditional sentences, speakers can indicate their assessment of the **likelihood/factuality of the condition's fulfilment**. In English, cf. e.g.:

- (1) 'If Achilles has (in fact) been shot in the heel, he will die.' A 'neutral' or 'open' condition: no indication of likelihood/factuality.
- (2) 'If Achilles were to be shot in the heel, he would die.' A 'remote' or 'future hypothetical' condition: fulfilment is possible (in the future), but no more than that
- (3) 'If Achilles had been shot in the heel, he would have died.' A 'counterfactual', 'unfulfilled', or 'past hypothetical' condition: fulfilment is no longer possible.

Along such lines, Greek has a complex system of five basic types of conditional clauses: **neutral**, **prospective**, **potential**, **counterfactual** and **habitual** conditions. Each type expresses a different attitude of the speaker towards the likelihood of the condition in the protasis being fulfilled. Different moods and tenses are used in each of the different types.

- 49.2 Greek conditional clauses are introduced by εί. If εί is joined with ἄν, it becomes ἐάν, ἤν or ἄν through crasis (→1.43-5). The negative in the protasis is nearly always μή.
- 49.3 The definition of conditional sentences given above, that the realization of the action in the apodosis depends on the realization of the action in the protasis, holds for a majority of

conditional sentences, but not for all. In some conditional sentences, the protasis specifies a condition on the *truth* or *relevance* of (putting forward) the apodosis:

- truth: e.g. If my sources are correct, Achilles has died. Achilles' death does not depend on the
 correctness of the speaker's sources; the truth of the statement Achilles has died, however,
 does (and Achilles may still be alive);
- relevance: e.g. If you're interested: Achilles has died. Again, Achilles' death does not depend on
 the addressee's interest, nor does the truth of the statement Achilles has died (Achilles is in fact
 dead); the condition pertains to whether or not the utterance of that statement is itself relevant
 or of interest to the addressee.

The latter type of conditional clause is often called an 'illocutionary condition'; such conditions function as an adverbial disjunct ($\rightarrow 26.15$).

An example in Greek of the former type (truth) is (9) below; examples of the latter type (relevance) are (7) and (37).

Neutral Conditions

49.4 In **neutral conditions**, the speaker gives no indication of the likelihood of the realization of the action in the protasis. The speaker simply puts forward that 'if it is true that X' or 'if it is the case that X', 'then Y'.

Neutral conditions have $\epsilon \hat{i}$ + **indicative** in the protasis; **any mood and tense** may be used in the apodosis.

- (4) ἀξιῶ δέ, ὧ βουλή, εἰ μὲν ἀδικῶ, μηδεμιᾶς συγγνώμης τυγχάνειν. (Lys. 3.4) I do not ask, Council, to meet with any forgiveness if I am guilty.
- (5) εί . . . ύμᾶς <u>οἴονται</u> . . . ύπὸ τῶν διαβολῶν πεισθέντας καταψηφιεῖσθαί μου, οὐκ ἂν θαυμάσαιμι. (Lys. 9.2)
 - If they think that you, having been persuaded by slander, will convict me, that would not surprise me.
- (6) εἰ μεγάλ' ἐγκαλῶν ὀλίγ' ἐπράξατο, οὐ . . . τοῦτο τεκμήριόν ἐστιν ὡς ἡ δίαιτα οὐ γέγονεν. (Isoc. 18.14)
 - If, when he was making enormous demands he exacted only little, this is not evidence that there was no arbitration.
- (7) μέλλω κτενεῖν σου θυγατέρ', εἰ βούλη μαθεῖν. (Eur. *Or.* 1578) I intend to kill your daughter, if you care to know.

The use of a neutral condition often implies a degree of **scepticism** on the speaker's part, which may be made explicit by adding a phrase like ($\dot{\omega}_S$) $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\tilde{\omega}_S$ really, truly:

- (8) εἰ γάρ τις ώς ἀληθῶς χαίρει τῆ εἰρήνη, τοῖς στρατηγοῖς, ὧν κατηγοροῦσιν ἄπαντες, χάριν αὐτῆς ἐχέτω. (Dem. 19.96)

 For if anyone is truly pleased with the peace, let him be thankful for it to the
 - generals whom everyone is accusing.

(9) Ἀλκμεωνίδαι δὲ ἐμφανέως ἠλευθέρωσαν, εἰ δὴ οὖτοί γε ἀληθέως ἦσαν οἱ τὴν Πυθίην ἀναπείσαντες προσημαίνειν Λακεδαιμονίοισι ἐλευθεροῦν τὰς Ἀθήνας. (Hdt. 6.123.2)

Clearly the Alcmeonids set (the city) free, if it is in fact true that they were the ones who persuaded the Pythia to indicate to the Spartans that they should free Athens.

Neutral Conditions with a Future Indicative in the Protasis

- 49.5 In the case of a neutral condition with a **future indicative**, the apodosis often carries a connotation of unpleasantness, undesirability, etc. Conditionals with the future indicative are therefore often found in **threats, appeals, warnings**, etc.:
 - (10) εἰ δ' αὐτὸν εἴσω τῆσδε λήψομαι χθονός, | παύσω κτυποῦντα θύρσον ἀνασείοντά τε | κόμας, τράχηλον σώματος χωρὶς τεμών. (Eur. Bacch. 239–41)

 But if I catch him within this land, I will make him stop making noise with the thyrsus and shaking his hair by severing his head from his body.
 - (11) ὅτι γε οὐ στήσεται, δῆλον, εἰ μή τις κωλύσει. (Dem. 4.43)
 That he will not desist unless someone stops him, that much is clear.

Note 1: In many grammars, conditions with ϵi + future indicative in the protasis are called 'future most vivid' conditions or 'emotional future' conditions, because they are often found in threats, etc. Such terms are not always applicable, however: the value of the indicative is really no different than in other neutral conditions, although this value lends itself well for contexts of scepticism, threat, etc. (the speaker indicates simply that the action in the apodosis (e.g. punishment, destruction) will follow if the condition in the protasis is fulfilled, leaving it to the addressee to assess the likelihood of that fulfilment). For other 'loaded' uses of the future indicative, $\rightarrow 33.43$.

Prospective Conditions

49.6 **Prospective conditions** are by far the most common type of conditionals referring to the future. By using this type of condition, the speaker presents fulfilment of the condition as very well possible/likely: 'If X happens – and I consider it very well possible that it will, then Y will happen.'

Note 1: This type of condition is often called 'future more vivid' or 'future open' in grammars.

Prospective conditions in Greek have $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}\nu$ + subjunctive (prospective, \rightarrow 40.9) in the protasis, and a verb form with future reference (e.g. future indicative, imperative, hortatory subjunctive; \rightarrow 33.63-4) in the apodosis.

- (12) ἐὰν δὲ νῦν καταληφθεὶς ἀποθάνω, ἀνόσια ὀνείδη τοῖς παισὶν ὑπολείψω. (Antiph. 2.2.9)

 If I am now taken into custody and die, I will leave shameful disgrace to my children. Future indicative in the apodosis.
- (13) Τεύκρω..., ἢν μόλη, σημήνατε | μέλειν μὲν ἡμῶν. (Soph. Aj. 688-9)

 If Teucer comes, tell him to take care of me. Imperative in the apodosis.
- (14) καί με μηδεὶς ὑπολάβη ἀπαρτᾶν τὸν λόγον τῆς γραφῆς, ἐὰν εἰς Ἑλληνικὰς πράξεις . . . ἐμπέσω. (Dem. 18.59)
 And let no one suppose that I am separating my argument from the indictment, if I touch upon Greek affairs. Prohibitive subjunctive in the apodosis. In this example ἄν + subj. might also be taken as indefinite, →40.9 n.2.
- (15) ἄν σοι πειθώμεθα, οὔτε ὁ γεωργὸς γεωργὸς ἔσται οὔτε ὁ κεραμεὺς κεραμεύς. (Pl. Resp. 420e)
 If we obey you, the farmer will not be a farmer, nor the potter a potter. Future indicative in the apodosis.
- (16) ἢν ... χρόνον τινὰ μέλλης ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ μένειν, ὑγιεινοῦ πρῶτον δεῖ στρατοπέδου μὴ ἀμελῆσαι. (Xen. Cyr. 1.6.16)
 If you are going to remain in the same place for some time, your first concern must be a clean place to camp. δεῖ + inf. has future reference.

Note 2: Note that in the translations above, the English conditional clauses typically have a simple present (a so-called 'concealed' future).

- 49.7 The difference between the use of present and aorist subjunctives is aspectual, typically implying relative tense relationships (\rightarrow 33.57). As a rule:
 - αv + aorist subjunctive implies anteriority, as in (12)-(13);
 - αv + present subjunctive implies simultaneity, as in (15)–(16).

Note 1: As always, such implications of relative tense are typical (holding in a majority of cases), but not necessary. For instance, in examples such as (14), and perhaps also (12), the aorist subjunctive seems to refer to a 'coincident' action. For discussion, $\rightarrow 33.58-62$.

Potential Conditions

49.8 **Potential conditions** also refer to the future (although a future which is considered less likely to occur), or refer to a hypothetical possibility. The speaker considers fulfilment of the condition possible, but no more than that. It is usually

implied that the condition is only remotely relevant: 'If X should/were to happen,' Y would happen,' 'If X happened, Y would happen.'

Note 1: This type of condition is variously called 'future less vivid', 'should-would' or 'future remote' condition in grammars.

Potential conditions have $\epsilon i + optative$ in the protasis and $\alpha \nu + optative$ (potential construction, $\rightarrow 34.13$) in the apodosis.

- (17) παραχθεὶς δὲ ὑπὸ τῶνδε εἰ ἀδίκως άλοίην, ἀποδραίην ἄν. (Lys. 9.21)

 But if, summoned by them, I were to be unjustly convicted, I would run away.
- (18) $\frac{\theta έλοις ἄν, εἰ σώσαιμί σ', ἀγγεῖλαί τί μοι | πρὸς Ἄργος ἐλθών τοῖς ἐμοῖς ἐκεῖ φίλοις; (Eur. <math>IT$ 582–3)
 - Would you be willing, if I saved you, to go to Argos and convey a message to my friends there?
- (19) ὑμᾶς γὰρ ἄν αὐτοὺς ἀτιμάζοιτ' εἰ τοιαῦτα γιγνώσκοιτε περὶ τῶν πολιτῶν. (Isoc. 20.19)
 - For you would be paying disrespect to yourselves, should you have such an opinion about the citizen population.
- (20) εἰ δὲ ὑπ' ἑνὸς ἄρχοιτο ἢ φρονέοι κατὰ τώυτό, ἄμαχόν τ' ἄν εἴη καὶ πολλῷ κράτιστον πάντων ἐθνέων κατὰ γνώμην τὴν ἐμήν. (Hdt. 5.3.1)

 If they were ruled by one man, or united in purpose, they would be invincible and by far the strongest of all races, in my opinion.
- 49.9 The difference between the use of present and aorist optatives is aspectual; typically relative-tense relationships are implied. As a rule:
 - ϵ i + aorist optative implies anteriority, as in (17)–(18);
 - ϵi + present optative implies simultaneity, as in (19)–(20).

Counterfactual Conditions

49.10 **Counterfactual conditions** indicate that the speaker considers the fulfilment of a present or past condition impossible or no longer possible: 'If X were true, Y would be true (but X isn't true)' or 'If X had happened, Y would have happened (but X didn't happen).'

Note 1: This type of condition is variously called 'unfulfilled', 'unreal' or 'hypothetical' in grammars.

Counterfactual conditions have $\epsilon i + modal$ (secondary) indicative in the protasis and modal (secondary) indicative + $\alpha \nu$ ($\rightarrow 34.16$) or a counterfactual construction without $\alpha \nu$ ($\rightarrow 34.17$) in the apodosis.

- (21) ἴσαι αἱ ψῆφοι αὐτῷ ἐγένοντο· εἰ δὲ μία ψῆφος μετέπεσεν, ὑπερώριστ ἀν. (Aeschin. 3.252)
 - The votes cast over him were tied; and if a single vote had gone the other way, he would now be banished (*but it didn't go the other way*).
- (22) καὶ ταῦτα εἰ μὲν ἠπίστουν, ἐξελέγχειν ἄν ἐζήτουν. ([Lys.] 8.9)

 And if I disbelieved these things, I would seek to test them (but I don't disbelieve them).
- (23) εἰ... ὁ Καμβύσης ἐγνωσιμάχεε καὶ ἀπῆγε ὀπίσω τὸν στρατόν, ... ἦν ἄν ἀνὴρ σοφός (Hdt. 3.25.5)
 If Cambyses had relented and led his army back, he would have been a wise man (but he didn't give up).
- (24) οὐ γὰρ ἔσθ' ὅπως οὐκ ἠναντιώθη ἄν μοι τὸ εἰωθὸς σημεῖον, εἰ μή τι ἔμελλον ἐγὰ ἀγαθὸν πράξειν. (Pl. Ap. 40c)
 For the familiar sign would absolutely have stopped me, if something good were not about to happen to me (but it is about to). For οὐ γὰρ ἔσθ' ὅπως οὐκ, →50.39.
- (25) εἰ γάρ με τότε <u>ἤρου, εἶπον ἄν</u> ὅτι ... (Pl. *Prt.* 350c)

 If you had asked me then, I would have said that ...
- (26) ἀλλ' εἴ σ' ἐγὼ ἠρόμην· . . . τί ἄν μοι ἀπεκρίνω; (Pl. Ion 540e) But if I asked you . . . ; how would you answer me?
- 49.11 The difference between modal imperfects, pluperfects and aorist indicatives is aspectual. In practice, however:
 - the aorist indicative usually refers to something which would have happened in the past, as in (21), (24) and (25); but contrast (26), where aor. ἠρόμην and ἀπεκρίνω are used to refer to a single question-and-answer pair in a hypothetical (unreal) scenario;
 - the imperfect usually refers to a something which would be occurring in the present, as in (22); so too the (rare) pluperfect, as in (21); less frequently they refer to the past, as in (23); imperfect ἔμελλον, together with the infinitive (→51.33), may also refer to a counterfactual future scenario, as in (24);
 - observe that the protasis and apodosis may refer to different times, as in (21) and (24).

For further examples, \rightarrow 34.16 n.3.

Habitual Conditions

49.12 Using a **habitual condition**, speakers indicate that a recurring action is dependent on something else happening, in other words, that one repeated or habitual action leads to another: 'If ever (≈ whenever) X happens, then Y happens.' Different constructions are used for present and past habitual conditions.

Note 1: This type of condition is variously called 'indefinite', 'generic' or 'general'.

- 49.13 Habitual conditions referring to the **present** have $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ + **subjunctive** (**indefinite**, \rightarrow 40.9) in the protasis and typically have a **present indicative** (expressing a repeated action or a general fact) in the apodosis:
 - (27) <u>ἐάν ... νουθετῆ</u> τις εὐνοία λέγων, | <u>στυγεῖς</u>. (Soph. *Phil*. 1322–3)

 If someone admonishes you, speaking with good intentions, you detest him.
 - (28) αἰτιᾶσθε δὲ πολλάκις ἐξαπατᾶν ὑμᾶς αὐτούς, ἐὰν μἡ πάνθ' ὅν ἄν ὑμεῖς τρόπον βούλησθε χένηται. (Dem. 62.25.1)

 But you often accuse someone of deceiving you, whenever everything does not go the way you want.

Habitual conditions referring to the **past** have (**iterative**) **optative without** $\alpha \nu$ in the protasis and an **imperfect** (or pluperfect) in the apodosis:

- (29) τῶν δὲ πολλῶν εἴ τις αἴσθοιτο, ἐσίγα καὶ κατεπέπληκτο. (Dem. 9.61)

 And if ever anyone among the common people learned of it, he would keep silent and be in terror.
- (30) ὑμῖν δέ, εἴ τι δέοισθε, χρήματα ὑπῆρχε κοινῆ πλεῖστα τῶν πάντων Ἑλλήνων. (Dem. 23.209)
 And you had, if ever you lacked something, funds surpassing all Greeks in your treasury.

Note 1: Observe that the construction of habitual conditional clauses is, in the subordinate clause, identical to that of prospective conditions $(\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}\nu + \mathrm{subj.}; \rightarrow 49.6)$ or, when referring to the past, to potential conditions $(\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\imath} + \mathrm{opt.}, \rightarrow 49.8)$. It is only with reference to the matrix clause that it is possible to determine which type of subordinate clause is at issue.

- 49.14 The difference between the use of present and aorist subjunctives/optatives is aspectual, typically implying relative tense relationships:
 - $\ddot{\alpha}v$ + aorist subjunctive/optative implies anteriority, as in (28) and (29);
 - $-\ddot{\alpha}v$ + present subjunctive/optative implies simultaneity, as in (27) and (30).
- 49.15 In poetry and Herodotus, αν is sometimes omitted (εἰ + subj. is used):
 - (31) ἀλλ' ἄνδρα, κεῖ τις ἢ σοφός, τὸ μανθάνειν | πόλλ' αἰσχρὸν οὐδέν. (Soph. Ant. 710–11) But there is no shame in a man learning much, even if he is someone wise. For καὶ εἰ (κεῖ by crasis), $\rightarrow 49.19-21$. ἄνδρα is subject with (τὸ) μανθάνειν, $\rightarrow 51.41$.
- 49.16 The difference between habitual conditional clauses and habitual temporal clauses (→47.9–10) is sometimes difficult to grasp. The protasis of a habitual condition refers to something that sometimes occurs and other times does not occur (the apodosis applies only in the cases that it does occur); habitual temporal clauses, on the other hand, refer simply to something which takes place more than once. In general, both may be translated with whenever:

- (32) <u>ἐπειδή</u> δὲ <u>προσμείξειαν</u>, οἱ ἐπιβάται . . . ἐπειρῶντο ταῖς ἀλλήλων ναυσὶν ἐπιβαίνειν. (Thuc. 7.70.5)
 - And whenever they (the ships) came close the marines tried to board each other's ships.
- (33) εἰ μὲν ἐπίοιεν οἱ Ἀθηναῖοι, ὑπεχώρουν, εἰ δ᾽ ἀναχωροῖεν, ἐπέκειντο. (Thuc. 7.79.5)
 If the Athenians attacked, they (the Syracusans) would retreat, and if they (the Athenians) withdrew from battle, they (the Syracusans) would press upon them.

The habitual temporal clause in (32) refers to a type of fighting that took place more than once during the naval battle between Athenians and Syracusans. The habitual conditional clauses in (33) refer to Athenian actions in battle that cannot take place simultaneously: if the one action (attacking) occurs, the other (withdrawing) does not. The apodosis in each case describes the Syracusan military response depending on the action undertaken by the Athenians.

Further Particulars

Mixed Conditionals

- 49.17 Although most examples from Greek texts follow the prototypes above, there are also many **mixed conditionals** where a protasis and an apodosis from different types are used together. The protasis and apodosis separately have the senses outlined above. Some possible combinations are:
 - Neutral protasis with future indicative, potential apodosis:
 - (34) πάντων γὰρ ἀθλιώτατος <u>ἄν γενοίμην, εἰ</u> φυγὰς ἀδίκως <u>καταστήσομαι</u>. (Lys. 7.41)
 - I would become the most unfortunate of all men, if I am to be driven into exile unjustly
 - Potential protasis, future indicative in the apodosis:
 - (35) ὅλως γὰρ εἰ ἀθέλοιμεν σκοπεῖν τὰς φύσεις τὰς τῶν ἀνθρώπων, εὐρήσομεν τοὺς πολλοὺς αὐτῶν οὔτε τῶν σιτίων χαίροντας. (Isoc. 2.45)

 For should we wish to examine the nature of men as a whole, we shall find that most of them do not take pleasure in food.
 - Potential protasis, non-future indicative in the apodosis:
 - (36) εἰ γὰρ σύ μοι ἐθέλοις συνεῖναι, ἐξαρκεῖ καὶ οὐδένα ἄλλον ζητῶ. ([Pl.] *Thg.* 127a) For should you be willing to take me on, that is enough, and I seek no other.
 - (37) ὁ χρυσός, εἰ βούλοιο τὰληθῆ λέγειν, | ἔκτεινε τὸν ἐμὸν παῖδα καὶ κέρδη τὰ σά. (Eur. Hec. 1206–7)
 - For if you were willing to speak the truth: it was gold, and your profit, that killed my child. On this example, also \rightarrow 49.3.

Various other combinations occur.

- 49.18 Occasionally, two different types of protasis are found in quick succession, referring to different possible outcomes which are presented with different degrees of likelihood:
 - (38) εἰ μὲν οὖν πρὸς ἕκαστον αὐτῶν τὰς πράξεις τὰς Εὐαγόρου παραβάλλοιμεν ..., οὔτ' ἄν ὁ χρόνος τοῖς λεγομένοις ἀρκέσειεν· ἢν δὲ προελόμενοι τοὺς εὐδοκιμωτάτους ... σκοπῶμεν ..., πολὺ ... συντομώτερον διαλεχθησόμεθα περὶ αὐτῶν. (Isoc. 9.34)
 - If we were to compare the deeds of Evagoras with those of each of them, the time would not suffice for the telling. But if we select the most illustrious of these rulers and perform our examination, our discussion will be much more brief. Potential condition (ϵi + optative), referring to the less likely (and by implication less desirable) course of action, followed by a prospective condition ($\eta \nu$ + subj.), referring to the more likely one.
 - (39) ὥστ' εἰ μὲν ἀποψηφιεῖσθε τούτων, οὐδὲν δεινὸν δόξει αὐτοῖς εἶναι ... ἐκ τῶν ὑμετέρων ἀφελεῖσθαι· ἐὰν δὲ καταψηφισάμενοι θανάτου τιμήσητε, ... τούς ... ἄλλους κοσμιωτέρους ποιήσετε ἢ νῦν εἰσι. (Lys. 27.7)

 Therefore, if you acquit these men, they will think that making a profit at your expense is in no way dangerous; but if you condemn them and sentence them to death, you will make the rest more orderly than they are now. Neutral condition (with a connotation of undesirability: εἰ + fut. ind.) referring to the verdict the speaker does not hope for, followed by a prospective condition (ἐάν + subj.) referring to the verdict the speaker wants.

Concessive Clauses: εί καί and καὶ εί

49.19 Conditional clauses introduced by καὶ εἰ or εἰ (...) καὶ even if are known as concessive clauses, and express an exceptional or unlikely condition. The realization of the action of the apodosis is presented as contrary to expectation given the realization of the action in the protasis, yet in the end not affected by that realization.

All types of conditional occur, and the use of moods and tenses is as described above. The negative counterpart of such clauses is expressed by où6' ϵ 1/ μ n6' ϵ 1 not even if. The apodosis may have $\delta\mu\omega_S$ all the same, nevertheless, to emphasize the contrast between protasis and apodosis.

- (40) ἀλλά τοι εἰ καὶ πάντα ταῦτα πεποίηκε καὶ ἄλλα τούτων πολλαπλάσια, οὐδεἰς ἄν δύναιτο αὐτῆς ἀνασχέσθαι τὴν χαλεπότητα. (Xen. Mem. 2.2.7)

 Yet let me tell you: even if she has done all these things, and far more besides, still no one could put up with her vile temper. Neutral condition.
- (41) τοῦτο μέν, | οὐδ' ἢν θέλῃ, δράσει ποτ'. (Soph. Phil. 981-2)
 That he will never do, even if he wishes to. Prospective condition.
- (42) εἰ καὶ τὸν ἄλλον χρόνον εἴθιστο συκοφαντεῖν, τότ' ἄν ἐπαύσατο. (Isoc. 21.11) Even if he had been accustomed to bring slanderous accusations in former times, he would have given up the practice then. Counterfactual condition.

(43) τῆς γῆς κρατοῦντες καὶ εἰ θαλάττης εἴργοιντο, δύναιντ' ἄν καλῶς διαζῆν. (Xen. Hell.~7.1.8)

With control over the land, they could live comfortably even if they should be cut off from the sea. *Potential condition*.

Note 1: For this adverbial use of $\kappa\alpha$ i, and où δ é as its negative counterpart, \rightarrow 59.56.

Note 2: Not all instances of καὶ εἰ or εἰ καί are concessive: in some cases of καὶ εἰ, καί is simply a coordinating conjunction: *and if*;

(44) οὕτω γὰρ ἄν πονεῖν τε ἔτι μᾶλλον δύναιτο καὶ εἰ ἕλκοι τις αὐτὸν ἢ ώθοίη ἦττον ἄν σφάλλοιτο. (Xen. Eq. 7.7)

For in this way, (the horse) will be able to last longer, and if someone drags or pushes it, he will stumble less quickly.

And in some cases of ϵi (...) $\kappa \alpha i$, $\kappa \alpha i$ has narrow scope over a single element of the subordinate clause: *if* ... *as well*; *if also* ...; *if, in fact* ...:

(45) ΑΝ. ἀλλ' οἶδ' ἀρέσκουσ' οἶς μάλισθ' άδεῖν με χρή. $|:: |\Sigma.$ εἰ καὶ δυνήση γ'. (Soph. Ant. 89–90)

(Antigone:) But I know that I am pleasing those whom I must please above all. :: (Ismene:) If you will in fact be able to. καί has scope over δυνήση only.

- 49.20 The difference between καὶ εἰ and εἰ καί may be described as follows:
 - καὶ εἰ (where καί has scope over the entire εἰ-clause) tends to emphasize that the action in the apodosis will be realized, may be realized, would have been realized (etc.), in spite of any unfavourable conditions, including the (extreme) one given in the protasis thus, (43) could be paraphrased 'They will live comfortably EVEN if they are cut off from the sea.'
 - εἰ καί (where καί has scope over the predicate or another element *within* the εἰ-clause) puts focus on the action in the protasis, often to emphasize its unlikely nature thus, example (40) could be paraphrased 'Even if she *HAS* done all those things (which is unusual/unlikely/exceptional), no one could stand her.'

In practice, however, the difference is often very slight. $\kappa\alpha$ i is, on the whole, the more frequent of the two combinations.

- 49.21 In some cases an indicative in the protasis expresses an action whose realization is presupposed i.e. that action is not presented as in doubt. In such cases εἰ καί and καὶ εἰ may be translated *although*, *even though*:
 - (46) καὶ γὰρ εἰ πένης ἔφυν, | οὕτοι τό γ' ἦθος δυσγενὲς παρέξομαι. (Eur. El. 362-3)
 Even though I am poor, I will show that my character is not ill-bred. The speaker is poor.

Such concessive relationships are more commonly expressed by $\kappa\alpha'\pi\epsilon\rho$ + ppl., for which \rightarrow 52.44.

Comparative Conditional Clauses: ώς εί, ὥσπερ εί and ὥσπερ ἂν εί as if

49.22 To compare an action with another, hypothetical one (cf. Engl. as if, like), Greek may combine εἰ with comparative ὡς or ὥσπερ (for which, →50.37), often with ἄν added: ὡς εἰ, ὥσπερ εἰ, ὥσπερ ἀν εἰ.

Such clauses normally take an optative (potential conditional clauses, \rightarrow 49.8) or a modal (secondary) indicative (counterfactual conditional clauses, \rightarrow 49.10):

- (47) ὧ Άγησίλαε, <u>ὥσπερ εἰ</u> ἐν αὐτοῖς <u>εἴημεν</u> τοῖς πολεμίοις, οὕτω μοι σημαίνεται. (Xen. Hell. 3.3.4)
 - Agesilaus, it is as if we were in the very midst of the enemies that a sign is given to me.
- (48) πρός μόνους τοὺς προγόνους τοὺς ἡμετέρους συμβαλόντες ὁμοίως διεφθάρησαν <u>ὅσπερ ἄν εἰ</u> πρὸς ἄπαντας ἀνθρώπους <u>ἐπολέμησαν</u>. (Isoc. 4.69)

 Fighting against only our forefathers, they perished as if they had waged war against all of mankind.

Note 1: For participles with $\omega \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho$ (with a comparative interpretation), $\rightarrow 52.43$.

- 49.23 ώς εἰ, ὥσπερ εἰ and ὥσπερ ἂν εἰ are often written as one word: ὡσεί, ὡσπερεί, ὡσπερανεί.
- 49.24 ώσεί, ώσπερεί and ώσπερανεί (written together or apart) are frequently found without a finite verb in the conditional clause:
 - (49) ἀλλ' οὖν εὐνοίᾳ γ' αὐδῶ, | μάτηρ ώσεί τις πιστά. (Soph. Ant. 233-4)
 Well, I speak with good intent, like a mother whom you can trust.
 - (50) χώ κολοιὸς ούτοσὶ | ἄνω κέχηνεν ώσπερεὶ δεικνύς τί μοι. (Ar. Av. 50-1)
 And the jay here is craning its neck and opening its beak as if showing me something or other. χώ = καὶ ὁ by crasis, →1.43-5.

εί/ἐάν in case, in the hope that

- 49.25 Clauses with ἐάν + subjunctive or (in past contexts) with εί + (oblique) optative sometimes have a force similar to that of purpose clauses, best translated *in the hope that*. Such clauses normally follow their main clause:
 - (51) ἴθ', ἀντιβολῶ σ', <u>ἤν</u> πως <u>κομίσωμαι</u> τὼ βόε. (Ar. *Ach.* 1031) Come, I'm begging you, in the hope that I may retrieve my two oxen.
 - (52) ἐπέπλει οὖν ... πρὸς τὴν Σύμην ..., εἴ πως <u>περιλάβοι</u> ... τὰς ναῦς. (Thuc. 8.42.1) So he sailed in the direction of Syme, in the hope that he might in some way intercept the ships.

Such instances cannot really be called 'conditional' clauses: the fulfilment, truth or appropriateness of the main clause does not depend on the fulfilment of the action in the subordinate clause.

Note 1: This fact (that there is no relation of dependence between main clause and subordinate clause) makes it relatively straightforward to distinguish this type of ε i-clause from 'genuine' conditional clauses. Note that example (52), in a narrative past tense, can easily be distinguished as well from conditions on the truth or appropriateness of the matrix clause (for which \rightarrow 49.3 above), although it is feasible that this use is an extension of the latter type.

Note 2: The use of moods in such clauses is fundamentally the same as in purpose clauses ($\rightarrow 45.3-4$; subjunctive or, in past contexts, optative). The difference between purpose clauses with " $\nu\alpha/\delta\pi\omega\varsigma/\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ and this type appears to be that the use of the conditional conjunction ($\epsilon i/\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\alpha}\nu$) explicitly indicates that the realization of the action hoped for is uncertain, and not controlled by the subject of the verb in the matrix clause.

ἐφ' ῷ(τε) on the condition that

- 49.26 A separate type of clause expressing conditionality is introduced by ἐφ' ῷ or ἐφ' ῷτε on the condition that (for ἐπί + dat. with conditional force, →31.8). Such clauses usually have an **infinitive** (sometimes the future indicative). The negative is μή.
 - (53) ἀφίεμέν σε, ἐπὶ τούτῳ μέντοι, ἐφ' ὧτε μηκέτι ... φιλοσοφεῖν (Pl. Ap. 29c)
 We are letting you go; on the condition, however, that you will no longer be a philosopher.
 - (54) ξυνέβησαν ... ἐφ' ὧ ἐξίασιν ἐκ Πελοποννήσου ὑπόσπονδοι καὶ μηδέποτε ἐπιβήσονται αὐτῆς. (Thuc. 1.103.1)
 They made an agreement on the condition that they would leave the Peloponnese bound by a treaty and never enter it again. ἐξίασιν, formally a present-tense form, is functionally a future indicative, →33.19.

Conditional Clauses in Indirect Discourse

- 49.27 When an entire conditional sentence is reported as indirect speech or thought after a verb of speaking/thinking/etc. in a past tense (historic sequence), the oblique optative may be used, both in the protasis and in the apodosis; if the optative replaces subjunctive + ἄν in the protasis, ἄν is dropped:
 - (55) ήγεῖτ' οὖν, εἰ μὲν ὑμᾶς ἔλοιτο, φίλους ἐπὶ τοῖς δικαίοις αἰρήσεσθαι. (Dem. 6.12) So he thought that if he chose you, he would choose friends, based on justice. Direct speech: ἐὰν αὐτοὺς ἔλωμαι, φίλους ἐπὶ τοῖς δικαίοις αἰρήσομαι.

The oblique optative is not used in the case of counterfactual conditionals or potential conditionals. For further details, \rightarrow 41.19–22.

Overview of Conditional Sentences (Basic Types)

49.28 The following overview lists the basic types of conditional sentence described above:

	past		present		future	
	protasis	apodosis	protasis	apodosis	protasis	apodosis
neutral	εί + past ind.	any tense/ mood	εί + pres. ind.	any tense/ mood	εἰ + fut. ind.	any tense/ mood
	εί τοῦτο	κολασθήσε-		κολασθήσε-	εἰ τοῦτο	κολασθήσε-
	ἐποίησε	ται	ποιεῖ	ται	ποιήσει	ται
	If he has	he will be	If he is	he will be	If he is to do	
	done that	punished.	doing that	punished.	that Often used in ings, etc.	punished. threats, warn-
prospective					ings, etc. ἐάν + subj.	fut. ind./ etc.
					έὰν τοῦτο ποιήση	κολασθήσε- ται
					If he does	he will be punished.
potential					εί + opt.	αν + opt.
•					εὶ τοῦτο	κολασθείη
					ποιήσειε	ἄν
					If he were to do that	he would be punished.
counter-	εί + aor. ind.	ἄν + aor.	εỉ + impf.	ἄν + impf.		
factual		ind.				
	εἰ τοῦτο	ἐκολάσθη	εὶ τοῦτο	ἐκολάζετο		
	ἐποίησεν	ἄν	ἐποίει	ἄν		
	If he had	he would	If he were	he would be		
	done that	have been punished.	doing that	punished.		
		ne difference between aor. ind. and impf. is aspectual: the st-present distinction indicated here is a rule of thumb				
habitual	εί + opt.	impf.	ἐάν + subj.	pres. ind.		
	εἰ τοῦτο	ἐκολάζετο	ἐὰν τοῦτο	κολάζεται		
	ποιήσειεν		ποιήση			
	If he did that	he would	If he does	he is		
		always be punished.	that	punished.		

Relative Clauses

Introduction

Relative Pronouns, Adjectives and Adverbs; Definite and Indefinite Relatives

50.1 **Relative clauses** are introduced by one of the following relative pronouns/adjectives/adverbs:

Definite Pronouns	Indefinite	
1,0,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	u	- h - (···) - h - h - h - h
ὄς	ὅστις	who(m), which, that
Adjectives		
οἷος	όποῖο <u>ς</u>	such as, of the kind that
őσoς	όπόσος	as great, much (sg.)/many (pl.) as (often best
		translated by 'all who(m)')
Adverbs		
ἔνθα, οὖ	ὅπου	where
ἔνθεν, ὅθεν	όπόθεν	from where
ἔν θ α, οἷ	ὅποι	to where
ň	ὅπῃ	along which/where, by which/where, as, like, in
		the way of
ယ်ς	ὅπως	as, like, in the way of

Note 1: For the forms of the relative pronoun in Ionic, $\rightarrow 25.31$. For the use of the article as relative pronoun in poetry, $\rightarrow 28.31$.

Note 2: The indefinite pronouns, adjectives and adverbs are also used in indirect questions (\rightarrow 42.5); ofos and 800s are also used in direct and indirect exclamations (\rightarrow 38.47–9, 42.9–11) and in result clauses (\rightarrow 46.10). 8 π 0s is also used in effort clauses (\rightarrow 44) and purpose clauses (\rightarrow 45). For other uses of ∞ 5, \rightarrow 57.

50.2 As a general rule:

- the **definite relative** is used when the relative clause refers to a specific (identifiable) entity; when there is an antecedent (a word or phrase in the matrix clause to which the relative refers) it will often have the article;

- the indefinite relative is used when the relative clause refers to an unspecific (unidentifiable, generic) entity, i.e. when the relative could refer to any of a number of entities or when the precise referent is unknown; when there is an antecedent it will usually not have the article.
- (1) τίς ἡ γυνὴ δῆτ' ἐστὶν ἡν ἥκεις ἄγων; (Soph. Trach. 400)
 Who, then, is the woman with whom you have come here? A specific woman is meant; note the use of the article with the antecedent, →28.1.
- (2) <u>γυνὴ</u> δ' ἀπόντος ἀνδρὸς <u>ἥτις</u> ἐκ δόμων | ἐς κάλλος ἀσκεῖ, διάγραφ' ὡς οὖσαν κακήν. (Eur. *El.* 1072–3)

A woman who, when her husband is away from home, concerns herself with beauty, write her off as no good. A certain type of woman, not a specific woman is meant; note the lack of article with the antecedent. For the theme construction (nominative absolute), $\rightarrow 60.34$.

- 50.3 The distribution between ὅς and ὅστις is, however, not always easy to account for:
 - Note particularly that in relative constructions with indefinite subjunctive + ἄν or iterative optative (→50.21 below), the definite relative is more common:
 - (3) ἐπειδὰν δὲ κρύψωσι γῆ, ἀνὴρ ἡρημένος ὑπὸ τῆς πόλεως, ὅς ἄν . . . ἀξιώσει προήκη, λέγει ἐπ' αὐτοῖς ἔπαινον τὸν πρέποντα. (Thuc. 2.34.6).

After they have buried (the fallen), a man elected by the state, who is pre-eminent in reputation, pronounces the appropriate eulogy over them. The relative pronoun does not refer to a specific person (the speaker changes yearly), and the antecedent has no article, yet the definite relative pronoun is used.

Indefinite $\delta \sigma \tau_{15} \delta v + \text{subj.}$ does occur, suggesting that even extreme cases should be taken into account (whoever at all ...):

- (4) καὶ ἤν τινες ἐς τὴν Ἀθηναίων γῆν ἴωσι πολέμιοι ..., ὡφελεῖν Λακεδαιμονίους Ἀθηναίους τρόπῳ ὅτῳ ἄν δύνωνται ἰσχυροτάτῳ. (Thuc. 5.23.2)

 And if enemy forces invade Athenian territory, (the treaty states that) the Spartans must
- Conversely, ὄστις is sometimes used to refer to a very specific person or thing, with a definite antecedent:

come to the Athenians' aid in whatever most effective manner they can.

(5) ἐγώ ... | μαίνομαι; σὺ μᾶλλον, ὅστις ἀπολέσας κακὸν λέχος | ἀναλαβεῖν θέλεις. (Eur. IA 388-90)

Am I mad? No, you are, who after losing an evil wife are seeking to take her back.

For the nuances that $6\sigma\tau_{15}$ -clauses typically have in such cases, $\rightarrow 50.6$ n.2 and 50.23.

50.4–6 Introduction 565

50.4 The definite relative may be compounded with **περ** (ὅσπερ exactly who), expressing identity. The 'indefiniteness' of an indefinite relative may be emphasized by adding **ποτε** (ὅστις ποτέ whoever).

Note 1: For our added to indefinite relatives to express universality, $\rightarrow 59.35$.

Correlative Clauses

Relative pronouns, adjectives and adverbs are frequently anticipated or followed by a demonstrative pronoun, adjective or adverb in the matrix clause. For instance:

Matrix clause	Relative clause	
οὖτος	ὄσ(τις)	that man who
τοιοῦτος	οἷος	such as
τοσοῦτος	ὄσος	so great/many as
ένταῦθα	ἔνθα	there where
οὕτω(ς)	ယ်ς	such as

Such clauses are called **correlative clauses**. For the full system of correlative pronouns, adjectives and adverbs, \rightarrow 8.

Clauses introduced by relative adjectives and adverbs (where correlation is particularly frequent) are treated more fully below, $\rightarrow 50.27-40$.

Digressive, Restrictive and Autonomous Relative Clauses

- 50.6 Two types of relative clause may be distinguished:
 - **Restrictive** (or 'determinative') relative clauses: the information in the relative clause serves to identify the antecedent, or limit it to a certain subset:
 - (6) τῷ Φιλοκτήμονι ἐκ μὲν τῆς γυναικὸς ἦ συνώκει οὐκ ἦν παιδίον οὐδέν. (Isae. 6.5) Philoctemon had no child by the woman he was living with. The relative clause helps to identify the antecedent: without it, it is unclear to which woman the speaker refers.
 - (7) πότερ' ἄν βούλοιο τούτους τοὺς στρατιώτας ους Διοπείθης νῦν ἔχει ... εὐθενεῖν ..., ἢ ... διαφθαρῆναι; (Dem. 8.20)
 - Would you want those soldiers that Diopithes now has to thrive, or to be destroyed? The relative clause limits the group of soldiers to a specific subset.
 - The use of moods and tenses in restrictive relative clauses is similar to that in temporal/conditional clauses ($\rightarrow 50.18-22$ below).
 - Digressive (or 'non-restrictive', 'explanatory') relative clauses: the relative clause gives additional information that is not required to identify or specify the antecedent. In other words, the antecedent still refers to the same entity if the relative clause is left out:

- (8) ... ἐξηρηκότες ... τὴν Σουσίδα γυναῖκα, ἢ καλλίστη δὴ λέγεται ἐν τῇ ᾿Ασία γυνὴ γενέσθαι, ... (Xen. Cyr. 4.6.11)
 - ... having selected the lady of Susa, who is said to have been the most beautiful woman in Asia, ... The relative clause is not required to identify the apparently well-known lady of Susa, but provides additional information about her.
- (9) στέγαι ... εἰσιν ... οὐδὲ τῷ δήμῳ τῶν στρατιωτῶν, <u>ὧν ἄνευ ἡμεῖς οὐκ ἄν</u> δυναίμεθα στρατεύεσθαι. (Xen. Cyr. 6.1.14)

There is also no shelter for the rank and file of the soldiers, without whom we would not be able to wage war. The relative clause does not identify, or determine a subset of, the soldiers.

Digressive relative clauses are particularly common with proper names. The use of moods and tenses in digressive relative clauses is similar to that of independent sentences (\rightarrow 50.17 below).

Note 1: In English, restrictive relative clauses normally do not stand between commas; digressive clauses normally do (contrast the two relative clauses in *The animal that you see here is a whale, which is a kind of mammal*). Only restrictive clauses can use *that* as a relative pronoun (cf. 'the soldiers that Diopithes has' in the translation of (7)) or omit a pronoun altogether (cf. 'the woman he was living with' in (6)).

Note 2: As it is a defining feature of digressive relative clauses that they refer to an identifiable entity (in that the antecedent of the clause is identifiable even without the relative clause), the indefinite relatives $\mathring{o}\sigma\tau_{15}$, $\acute{o}\pi\sigma\tilde{o}_{5}$, etc. are in principle not suitable to be used in digressive clauses. Nevertheless, they do occasionally occur in such clauses, and then nearly always have a causal nuance (for details, $\rightarrow 50.23$).

- A special type of restrictive relative clause is the so-called **autonomous** relative clause, which has no antecedent:
 - (10) ΙΩ. $\frac{\eta}{0}$ δ' ἔθρεψέ με :: ΚΡ. τίς; . . . :: ΙΩ. Φοίβου προφῆτιν μητέρ' ὡς νομίζομεν. (Eur. Ion 319–21)

(Ion:) The woman who raised me – :: (Creusa:) Who was she? :: (Ion:) A prophetess of Phoebus; I regard her as my mother.

Note 1: In translation, an antecedent (e.g. 'the woman' in (10)) often needs to be supplied for autonomous relative clauses; grammars often treat autonomous relative clauses as instances of the 'omission' of an antecedent.

Antecedent, Agreement, Attraction and Connection

Basic Principles of Agreement

- 50.8 The relative pronoun ὅσ(τις) and the relative adjectives (ὁπ)όσος and (ὁπ)οῖος:
 - agree in gender and number with their antecedent,
 - but their **case** is determined by their **syntactic function** in the relative clause:

- (11) ὅδ' ἐστὶν ἀνὴρ ον λέγεις. (Ar. Thesm. 635)
 This is the man to whom you are referring. Masc. sg. in agreement with ἀνήρ, acc. as object of λέγεις. ἀνήρ = ὁ ἀνήρ (crasis, →1.45 n.1).
- (12) ἀνἡρ παρ' ἡμῖν ἐστιν, ... | "Ελενος ἀριστόμαντις, ος λέγει ... (Soph. Phil. 1337–8)
 There is a man with us, Helenus, an exceptionally gifted prophet, who says ...
 Masc. sg. in agreement with ἀνήρ, nom. as subject of λέγει.

Note 1: The relative pronoun is sometimes formed according to the meaning rather than the grammatical form of its antecedent. For this construction 'according to sense' (Gr. κατὰ σύνεσιν), →27.11 (also cf. 27.6).

- 50.9 Greek generally avoids the use of repeated relative pronouns in successive clauses referring to the same antecedent, especially if the case of the relative pronoun would be different in the different clauses. Instead, subsequent clauses referring to the same antecedent either have no relative pronoun of their own, or use a form of αὐτός or a demonstrative pronoun in the appropriate case:
 - (13) ᾿Αριαῖος δέ, δν ἡμεῖς ἡθέλομεν βασιλέα καθιστάναι, καὶ ἐδώκαμεν καὶ ἐλάβομεν πιστὰ ..., καὶ οὖτος ... ἡμᾶς ... κακῶς ποιεῖν πειρᾶται. (Xen. An. 3.2.5.)
 And Ariaeus, whom we were willing to install as king and with whom we exchanged pledges, even he is trying to cause us harm. Only the single relative pronoun öν (acc.; object of καθιστάναι) is used; the following clause ἐδώκαμεν καὶ ἐλάβομεν πιστὰ is not given one of its own (something like μεθ' οὖ may be supplied; observe the translation 'with whom'). Also note that ᾿Αριαῖος δέ ... is a theme constituent (→60.33), picked up by 'resumptive' οὖτος (cf. (29) below and 59.15 (14)); this makes it clear that the main clause proper begins only with καθὶ οὖτος.
 - (14) ποῦ δὴ ἐκεῖνός ἐστιν ὁ ἀνὴρ ος συνεθήρα ἡμῖν καὶ σύ μοι μάλα ἐδόκεις θαυμάζειν αὐτόν. (Xen. Cyr. 3.1.38)
 - Where, then, is that man, who used to hunt with us and whom, I think, you admired greatly? 'The man' is subject in the relative clause (nom. ὅς), but would be object in the subsequent clause (dependent on θαυμάζειν): instead of a second relative pronoun, αὐτόν is used.
- 50.10 In the case of autonomous relative clauses, masculine (or feminine) relatives usually refer to individuals or groups of people, neuter pronouns to 'things'; the case is again determined by the function in the relative clause:
 - (15) οι τὰς πόλεις ἔχουσι ... | τοῖς ἀνθαμίλλοις εἰσὶ πολεμιώτατοι. (Eur. Ion 605–6)
 - Those who hold cities are most hostile to their competitors. *Masc. pronoun, referring to people; nom. as subject of ἔχουσι; the clause as a whole is subject of εἴσί.*
 - (16) σὺ μὲν βία | πράξεις α βούλει. (Eur. fr. 953.42-3 Kannicht)
 You will do what you want by force. Neut. pronoun, referring to things or actions.

- 50.11 Autonomous relative clauses occur particularly frequently after prepositions. The preposition may then function either in the relative clause, or in the matrix clause:
 - (17) οὐκ ἔχω, ὧ Σώκρατες, ὅπως χρἡ πρὸς κ λέγεις ἐναντιοῦσθαι. (Pl. Cra. 390e)

 I don't know how to argue against what you are saying, Socrates. πρός functions in the matrix clause (i.e. depends on ἐναντιοῦσθαι), while the autonomous relative clause complements πρός: cf. ἐναντιοῦσθαι πρὸς ταῦτα κ λέγεις 'argue with the things that you are saying'.
 - (18) καὶ κάλει <u>πρὸς οὖς</u> ἐξεμαρτύρησεν. (Aeschin. 2.19)

 And call those before whom he made the deposition. πρός functions in the relative clause (i.e. depends on ἐξεμαρτύρησεν); the autonomous relative clause, including the preposition, serves as object: cf. κάλει τούτους, πρὸς οὖς ἐξεμαρτύρησεν 'call those before whom he made the deposition'.
- 50.12 Observe the following idiomatic uses of autonomous relative clauses:
 - Autonomous relative clauses with the neuter pronoun ő, and typically with a superlative adjective, can stand in apposition to an entire clause or sentence, e.g. ὅ δὲ πάντων δεινότατον and what is the worst thing of all: ..., καὶ ὅ πάντων θαυμαστότατον and the thing that is most amazing of all: ...; ἐστί is nearly always omitted from such clauses (cf. 'what is the worst thing'). For this use, compare the closely parallel use of phrases with the neuter article, e.g. τὸ δεινότατον (→27.14):
 - (19) δ δὲ μέγιστον τεκμήριον Δῆμος γὰρ ὁ Πυριλάμπους . . . (Lys. 19.25) But the strongest piece of evidence is this: Demus, son of Pyrilampes, . . . Lit. 'but what is the strongest evidence, . . .'. Note the use of γάρ (for which →27.14 n.1), which cannot easily be translated.
 - Autonomous relative clauses are sometimes used in combination with a third-person form of 'existential' εἰμί (→26.10): ἔστιν ὅστις someone (there is someone who), εἰσὶν οι some (there are some who), etc., and with the negative οὐκ ἔστιν ὅστις no one (there is no one who):
 - (20) οὐκ ἄν εἴη ὅστις οὐκ ἐπὶ τοῖς γεγενημένοις ἀγανακτοίη. (Lys. 1.1) Everyone would be angry (lit. 'there would not be anyone who would not be angry') at what has happened. For the use of the optative, →50.22.
 - The construction was heavily fossilized, so that ἔστι could be used even with the plural (ἔστιν οῖ, ἔστιν ὧν, etc., *some*), and even in past or future contexts (in spite of present-tense ἔστιν):
 - (21) ... αἰσθανόμενοι δὲ τοὺς συμμάχους πάντας μὲν ἀθύμως ἔχοντας πρὸς τὸ μάχεσθαι, ἔστι δὲ οὖς αὐτῶν οὐδὲ ἀχθομένους τῷ γεγενημένῳ ... (Xen. Hell. 6.4.15) ... and observing that all the allies were unenthusiastic about fighting, and that some of them were not even displeased about what had happened ... ἔστι ... οὕς does not refer to the present (this example comes from a stretch of narrative); the accusative is due to the accusative-and-participle construction following αἰσθανόμενοι, →52.13; note also how the phrase as a whole has its own attributive genitive αὐτῶν.

Relative Attraction

- 50.13 An exception to the rules of agreement is the so-called **attraction** of the relative. The relative nearly always takes on the same case as its antecedent if (and only if):
 - the relative clause is **restrictive**;
 - a form of ὅς, οἶος or ὅσος (but not their indefinite forms) is object in its relative clause, internal object, or subject of an infinitive, i.e. when an **accusative is expected**;
 - the antecedent is in the genitive or dative:
 - (22) ὅπως οὖν ἔσεσθε ἄνδρες ἄξιοι τῆς ἐλευθερίας ἦς κέκτησθε. (Xen. An. 1.7.3)

 You must, then, be men worthy of the freedom which you possess. Object of κέκτησθε, but genitive under the influence of τῆς ἐλευθερίας which is genitive complement with ἄξιοι.

Attraction also occurs in autonomous relative clauses, i.e. when the genitive or dative antecedent is not expressed:

- (23) ἢν δ' ἐπιδειχθῆ . . . πολίτης ὢν . . . τοιοῦτος οἶος οὐδεὶς ἄλλος $\underline{\mathring{\omega}\nu}$ ἡμεῖς ἴσμεν, . . . (Isoc. 15.106)
 - If he is shown to be a citizen such as no other of the men (that) we know, ... Object with ἴσμεν, but genitive under the influence of the construction of the matrix clause: οὐδεὶς ἄλλος is construed with a partitive genitive. The relative clause is autonomous.
- (24) τίνα γὰρ εἰκὸς ἦν ἦττον ταῦτα ὑπηρετῆσαι ἢ τὸν ἀντειπόντα οἶς ἐκεῖνοι ἐβούλοντο πραχθῆναι; (Lys. 12.27)

 For who was less likely to receive such orders than the man who had spoken

against what they wanted to be done? Subject of the infinitive $\pi\rho\alpha\chi\theta\tilde{\eta}\nu\alpha$ (accusative-and-infinitive construction expected with $\epsilon\beta\phi\dot{\nu}\lambda\phi\nu\tau\phi$), but dative under the influence of $\dot{\alpha}\nu\tau\epsilon \pi\dot{\phi}\nu\tau\alpha$ (which takes a dative complement). The relative clause is, again, autonomous.

Relative attraction occurs particularly frequently after prepositions, often in autonomous clauses:

- (25) ἐπαινῶ σε ἐφ' οἶς λέγεις. (Xen. An. 3.1.45)
 I praise you for what you say. Object of λέγεις, but dative after ἐπί.
- (26) ταῦτα μὲν οὖν ἐάσω, ἀπ' αὐτῶν δὲ $\underline{\~ων}$ αὐτὸς βεβίωκεν ἄρξομαι. (Dem. 18.130)

Those things, then, I will leave alone, but I will begin with precisely the ways in which he himself has conducted his life. Internal object ($\rightarrow 30.12$) of $\beta \epsilon \beta i \omega \kappa \epsilon \nu$, but genitive after $\dot{\alpha}\pi \dot{\alpha}$; $\alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \tilde{\omega} \nu$ modifies the entire relative clause.

Note 1: Very rarely, relative attraction occurs when a nominative or dative (rather than an accusative) is 'expected' in the relative clause:

(27) ὀλίγοι <u>ἄν</u> ἐγὰ ἐντετύχηκα (Pl. Resp. 531e)

a few of those that I have encountered; a dative is 'expected' with ἐντετύχηκα, but a genitive is used under the influence of the construction of the matrix clause (partitive genitive modifying ὀλίγοι).

Inverse Relative Attraction

- 50.14 In some cases an antecedent **preceding** its relative clause attracts to the case of the relative following it (rather than appearing in the case expected for its syntactic function). This is known as **inverse attraction**:
 - (28) πολιτείαν δ' οἴαν εἶναι χρὴ παρὰ μόνοις ἡμῖν ἐστιν. (Isoc. 6.48)
 And a form of government such as it ought to be exists only with us. πολιτείαν is subject of ἐστιν, so the expected case for it would be nominative; instead, it attracts to the accusative case of οἴαν (acc. with εἶναι χρή).
 - (29) τὸν ἄνδρα τοῦτον, ον πάλαι | ζητεῖς ... | ..., οὖτός ἐστιν ἐνθάδε. (Soph. OT 449–51)

 This man, for whom you have long been looking, is here. τὸν ἄνδρα τοῦτον is subject of ἐστιν, but attracts to accusative ὄν (object of ζητεῖς). Note the resumptive pronoun οὖτος, which picks up τὸν ἄνδρα τοῦτον and is in the expected case.

Note 1: Inverse attraction occurs only with nouns whose expected case is nominative (primarily with subjects of passive verbs, verbs which do not take an object, or with $\epsilon i \mu i b e$, as in (28)–(29)) or accusative. It occurs only with constituents functioning as 'theme' or 'topic' in their clause (\rightarrow 60.25–9, 60.33); the rest of the clause always follows the relative clause.

Incorporation of the Antecedent in the Relative Clause

- 50.15 Sometimes the word that 'should' be antecedent is **incorporated** into a relative clause. The case of this 'antecedent' is identical to that of the relative pronoun (as determined by the rules above; attraction is not unusual):
 - (30) εὶ δέ τινα ὁρώη ... κατασκευάζοντα ... ἦς ἄρχοι χώρας ... (Xen. An. 1.9.19)
 If he saw that a man was organizing the country over which he ruled ... The relative clause is object with κατασκευάζοντα; the genitive is complement with ἄρχοι.
 - (31) τούτους ... ἄρχοντας ἐποίει ἦς κατεστρέφετο χώρας. (Xen. An. 1.9.14)

 He appointed them as rulers of the territory which he was subduing. With relative attraction: object with ματεστρέφετο, but genitive as attributive modifier of ἄρχοντας.

(32) Ίπποκράτης ὅδε Πρωταγόρα συγγενόμενος, $\underline{\tilde{\eta}}$ ἄν αὐτῷ $\underline{\tilde{\eta}}$ μέρα συγγένηται, βελτίων ἄπεισι. (Pl. Prt. 318d)

Hippocrates here, upon coming under Protagoras' tutelage, will go away a better man on the day that he has come under his tutelage. $\hat{\eta}\mu\acute{e}\rho\alpha$, with its relative clause, is an adverbial modifier of time with $\check{\alpha}\pi\epsilon\imath\sigma$.

Incorporated 'antecedents' do not have the article. They may be seen as the head of a noun phrase, with the relative clause as a modifier (\rightarrow 26.16–18). This construction occurs particularly when the relative clause expresses salient information that identifies the 'antecedent'.

Note 1: For this construction, cf. e.g. Engl. I took what books she gave me.

Relative Connection

- 50.16 The relative pronoun is occasionally used to introduce a new independent sentence (the antecedent stands in a previous sentence). This is called relative connection. The relative in such cases has a function similar to that of a demonstrative or personal pronoun (and may be translated as such):
 - (33) ἀνδρῶν γὰρ ἐπιφανῶν πᾶσα γῆ τάφος ... οὖς νῦν ὑμεῖς ζηλώσαντες ... μἡ περιορᾶσθε τοὺς πολεμικοὺς κινδύνους. (Thuc. 2.43.3-4)
 For men of renown all the earth is a grave-monument. These men you should now emulate in your turn and not stay aloof from the dangers of war. For the translation of the participle ζηλώσαντες, →52.6.
 - (34) ἡμῖν δὲ δὴ δίδωσιν Ἡλέκτραν ἔχειν | δάμαρτα ... ἢν οὔποθ' ἀνὴρ ὅδε ... | ἤσχυν' ἐν εὐνῆ. (Eur. El. 34–44)
 Το me he gave Electra, to have as my wife. This woman I have never brought dishonour in bed. For 'I' as translation of ἀνὴρ ὅδε, →29.29.

Moods and Tenses in Relative Clauses

In Digressive Clauses

50.17 In digressive relative clauses, the use of moods and tenses is identical to that of independent sentences (→34). The indicative is by far the most common; the potential optative and modal indicative occur regularly; very rarely also the imperative, hortatory subjunctive, or cupitive optative, etc. The negative is normally oὐ, unless μἡ is required (e.g. in a wish with the optative).

- (35) ἀπῆλθεν εἰς Ἔφεσον, $\frac{n}{2}$ ἀπέχει ἀπὸ Σάρδεων τριῶν ἡμερῶν ὁδόν. (Xen. Hell. 3.2.11)
 - He left for Ephesus, which is a three-day journey from Sardis. *Indicative*.
- (36) "Άλυν ..., <u>ον</u> οὐκ <u>αν δύναισθε</u> ανευ πλοίων διαβῆναι (Xen. An. 5.6.9) the Halys, which you could not cross without boats ... Potential optative.
- (37) κρατῆρές εἰσιν ... <u>ἄν</u> κρᾶτ' <u>ἔρεψον</u>. (Soph. *OC* 472–3)

 There are mixing-bowls, the brims of which you must cover. *Imperative*.
- (38) τοιαῦτ' ἐβούλευσ'· <u>ἄν</u> ἐμοὶ <u>δοίη</u> δίκην. (Eur. *El.* 269)

 Such were his schemes: may he requite me for them. *Cupitive optative; note the relative connection* (→50.16).

In Restrictive Clauses

- 50.18 In most **restrictive** relative clauses, the **use of moods and tenses is very much like that of temporal/conditional clauses**; thus, the following can be found in restrictive relative clauses.
- 50.19 **Indicative**; the negative is either oὐ or μή the latter with a conditional or generic
 - (39) ..., ἵν' εἴπω παρθένου χωρὶς λόγους | οῦς οὐκ ἀκούειν τὰς γαμουμένας πρέπει. (Eur. IA 1107–8)
 - ... in order that I may, away from the maiden, speak words which are not fit for girls who are getting married to hear.
 - (40) δν μή σὺ φράζεις πῶς ὑπολάβοιμ' ἄν λόγον; (Eur. IA 523)
 How can I understand your meaning if you do not make it clear to me? (lit. 'which you do not make clear').
 - In (39), with negative où, the relative clause refers to specific words which Agamemnon is planning to say, which marrying girls should not hear. In (40), with negative $\mu\dot{\eta}$, the relative clause has a conditional nuance (note the translation 'if you do not make it clear').
 - (41) ύμεῖς ἄρα μανθάνοντες <u>ἃ οὐκ</u> ἡπίστασθε, ἀμαθεῖς ὄντες ἐμανθάνετε. (Pl. Euthd. 276b)
 - So when you learned the things which you did not know, you were ignorant when you learned them.
 - (42) πότερον γὰρ οἱ μανθάνοντες μανθάνουσιν ἃ ἐπίστανται ἢ $\frac{α}{α}$ μὴ ἐπίστανται; (Pl. Euthd. 276d)
 - Do learners learn things they know or things they don't know?
 - In (41), with oi, the relative clause refers to the set of specific things which learners did not know but then learned. In (42), with $\mu\dot{\eta}$, the relative clause refers generically to whatever things the learners do not know.

Note 1: For the conditional/generic force of $\mu\dot{\eta}$, cf. $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + participle: $\rightarrow 52.40$, 52.48.

- Prospective: in restrictive relative clauses referring to the future, $\alpha v + subjunctive$ (prospective, $\rightarrow 40.9$) is regularly used; the negative is $\mu \dot{\eta}$. The matrix clause has a form with future reference, e.g. future indicative, imperative, etc. ($\rightarrow 33.63-4$):
 - (43) τῷ ἀνδρὶ <u>ον ἀν ἕλησθε</u> πείσομαι. (Xen. An. 1.3.15)
 I will obey the man whom you choose.
 - (44) ἀκούοντες καὶ σοῦ καὶ τῶν τοῦ Λακωνικοῦ αίρησόμεθα αν κράτιστα δοκῆ εἶναι. (Xen. An. 7.3.8)
 We will, listening to both you and the Spartan's messengers, choose the option which seems best to us.
- 50.21 **Habitual**: in restrictive relative clauses referring to an habitual or repeated action, αν + subjunctive (indefinite, →40.9) is used in clauses referring to the present, and iterative optative without αν is used in clauses referring to the past; the negative is μή. The matrix clause normally has a present indicative or imperfect, respectively:
 - (45) ἀποτίνει ζημίην τὴν ἄν οἱ ἱρέες τάξωνται. (Hdt. 2.65.5)
 He pays whatever penalty the priests determine. For the Ionic relative pronoun τήν, →25.31.
 - (46) καὶ οὖς μὲν ἴδοι εὐτάκτως καὶ σιωπῆ ἰόντας, προσελαύνων αὐτοῖς ... ἐπήνει. (Xen. Cyr. 5.3.55)
 And whomever he saw moving in an orderly fashion and in silence, he approached and praised.

Note 1: In poetry and Herodotus, $\check{\alpha}\nu$ is sometimes omitted from the indefinite construction with subjunctive: \rightarrow 49.15.

- 50.22 The following (less frequent) types normally have a strong **conditional** nuance (for the use of moods, \rightarrow 49.8–11):
 - Potential: in restrictive relative clauses referring to a (remotely) possible action, an optative without ἄν is used in the relative clause (negative μή). The matrix clause has a potential optative with ἄν:
 - (47) ἐγώ γὰρ ἀκνοίην μὲν ἄν εἰς τὰ πλοῖα ἐμβαίνειν ἃ ἡμῖν δοίη. (Xen. An. 1.3.17)
 For I would hesitate to embark in the vessels that he might give us (= 'if he were to give us any').
 - **Counterfactual**: in restrictive relative clauses referring to an action which can no longer be realized, a **modal (secondary) indicative without** αν is used in the relative clause (negative μη). The matrix clause has a modal secondary indicative + αν:

(48) οὔτε γὰρ ἂν αὐτοὶ ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν ἃ μἡ ἡπιστάμεθα, . . . οὔτε τοῖς ἄλλοις έπετρέπομεν ... ἄλλο τι πράττειν ἢ ὅ τι πράττοντες ὀρθῶς ἔμελλον πράξειν. (Pl. Chrm. 171e)

For (in the hypothetical scenario under consideration) neither would we ourselves undertake to do anything that we did not understand (= 'if we did not understand it'), nor would we entrust to the others to do anything other than what they were likely to do well when doing it (= 'if they were likely . . .').

Note 1: In both these constructions, the use of moods is perhaps best seen as an instance of attraction of mood (\rightarrow 40.15).

Further Particulars

Relative Clauses Expressing Cause, Purpose, or Result

- 50.23 Relative clauses may have a causal nuance; this nuance occurs primarily with digressive clauses (since these are not needed to identify the antecedent, they come to express other meanings). Causal relative clauses usually have the indicative (negative ou):
 - (49) θαυμαστόν ποιεῖς, ὃς ἡμῖν ... οὐδὲν δίδως. (Xen. Mem. 2.7.13) You do a strange thing, you who have given us nothing (= 'because you have . . . '). The use of the indefinite relative 60 Tr in digressive relative clauses ($\rightarrow 50.6 \text{ n.2}$) often expresses such a causal nuance:
 - (50) Λοξία δὲ μέμφομαι, | ὅστις μ' ἐπάρας ἔργον ἀνοσιώτατον, | τοῖς μὲν λόγοις ηὔφρανε, τοῖς δ' ἔργοισιν οὔ. (Eur. Or. 285-7) I blame Loxias, who drove me to do a most unholy deed and then cheered me with words, but not in deed (= 'because he drove me . . .').
 - (51) οἴκτιρόν τέ με | ..., ὄστις ὥστε παρθένος | βέβρυχα κλαίων. (Soph. Trach. 1070 - 2)Have pity on me, who am crying loudly like a girl (= 'because I am . . . ').
- 50.24 Relative clauses with the **future indicative** (digressive or restrictive) often express a nuance of **purpose** (negative μή):
 - (52) ἀλλ' εἶμ' ἐπὶ τὸν Κλέων', ὃς αὐτοῦ τήμερον | ἐκπηνιεῖται ταῦτα. (Ar. Ran. 577-8) I'm going to get Cleon, who'll wind this out of him today (= 'so that he'll . . . '). Digressive.
 - (53) ἀποκρύπτεσθαι γὰρ καὶ διαδύεσθαι καὶ πάντα ποιεῖν ἐξ ὧν μὴ λειτουργήσεις τουτοισὶ μεμάθηκας. (Dem. 42.23) For you have learned how to be secret, how to evade, and how to do everything which will permit you to avoid rendering public service to these men here. Restrictive.

Note 1: The future indicative may be used even after a past tense matrix verb: this construction is similar to indirect statement, suggesting that the relative clause expresses the intentions/thoughts underlying the action of the matrix clause; indeed, the oblique future optative typical of indirect statement (\rightarrow 41.13 n.2) is sometimes found in this type of relative clause.

- (54) ἔδοξε τῷ δήμῳ τριάκοντα ἄνδρας ἑλέσθαι, οι τούς ... νόμους συγγράψουσι, καθ' ους πολιτεύσουσι. (Xen. Hell. 2.3.2)
 - The people decided to elect thirty men to codify the laws according to which they were to govern. Future indicatives after a past tense ($\xi\delta\delta\xi\varepsilon$).
- (55) οἱ δὲ τριάκοντα ἡρέθησαν . . . ἐφ' ὧτε συγγράψαι νόμους, καθ' οὕστινας πολιτεύσοιντο. (Xen. Hell. 2.3.11)
 - And the thirty were elected on the condition that they would codify laws according to which they were to govern. *Oblique future optative*.
- 50.25 Relative clauses with the **indicative** which follow their matrix clause may also have the nuance of a **result clause**; such clauses are often anticipated by οὕτως, τοιοῦτος etc. in the matrix clause (cf. result clauses, →46.2). The indefinite relative ὅστις occurs frequently in such clauses; the negative is οὐ:
 - (56) τίς οὕτω μαίνεται <u>ὅστις οὐ βούλεταί</u> σοι φίλος εἶναι; (Xen. *An.* 2.5.12) Who is so mad that he doesn't wish to be your friend?
 - (57) τί οὐκ ἄν πράξειεν ὁ <u>τοιοῦτος</u>, <u>ὅστις</u> γράμματα λαβών μὴ <u>ἀπέδωκεν</u> ὀρθῶς καὶ δικαίως; (Dem. 34.29)
 - What would he not do, the kind of man that has taken letters and not related them in due and proper course?

Nuances of purpose and result may be combined when a matrix clause with τοιοῦτος, etc. is followed by a relative clause with a future indicative:

(58) κρεῖττόν ἐστιν ... τοῖς <u>τοιούτοις</u> τῶν ἔργων ἐπιτίθεσθαι, <u>α</u> καὶ πρεσβυτέρω γενομένω <u>ἐπαρκέσει</u>. (Xen. *Mem.* 2.8.3)

It is better to take up such types of work as will sustain you even after you

have grown older (= 'to sustain ...').

Note 1: For the use of olos, odos, etc. with an infinitive in result clauses, $\rightarrow 46.10$.

Potential and Counterfactual Constructions in Restrictive Clauses

50.26 As well as in digressive clauses (→50.17 above), **potential optative** + ἄν (negative oὐ) and **counterfactual modal indicative** + ἄν (negative oὐ) also occur in restrictive relative clauses:

- (59) οὐκ ἔσθ' <u>ὅτου θίγοιμ' ἄν</u> ἐνδικώτερον. (Eur. *El.* 224)

 There is no one whom I might touch with more right. *Autonomous (i.e. restrictive)*, potential optative + ἄν.
- (60) πρὸς ταῦτα δἡ ἀκούσατε α΄ ἐγὼ οὐκ ἄν ποτε εἶπον τούτου ἐναντίον, εἰ μή μοι παντάπασιν ἀγνώμονες ἐδοκεῖτε εἶναι. (Xen. An. 7.6.23)
 In reply to this, listen to words which I would never have spoken to that man's face, if you did not seem to me to be utterly senseless. Autonomous (i.e. restrictive), counterfactual ind. + ἄν.

(Cor)relative Clauses with Relative Adjectives or Adverbs

50.27 The use of moods and tenses in (cor)relative clauses introduced by relative adjectives or adverbs is identical to that in relative clauses introduced by relative pronouns, as described above.

With Relative Adjectives (οἶος, ὁποῖος, ὅσος, ὁπόσος)

- 50.28 The relative adjectives οἶος, ὅποιος, ὅσος, and ὅποσος are frequently anticipated (or followed) in the matrix clause by an 'antecedent' in the form of a demonstrative adjective (τοιοῦτος, τοσοῦτος, etc.):
 - (61) οὐδεὶς τοσαῦτα ἀγαθὰ πεποίηκε τὴν πόλιν ὅσα οὖτος ἠδίκηκεν. (Lys. 30.33) No one has done so much good for the city as this man has done it harm.
 - (62) δίκαιοί ἐστε καὶ ὑμεῖς περὶ τούτων τοιαύτην ἔχειν τὴν γνώμην οἵανπερ καὶ αὐτοὶ περὶ αὐτῶν ἔσχον. (Andoc. 1.3)

You too are right to pass such a verdict on them as they passed on themselves.

However, such clauses are also frequently **reduced** (i.e. autonomous), occurring without a demonstrative in the matrix clause:

- (63) οὕτω δὴ ἐξῆλθον σχεδὸν ἄπαντες καὶ οἱ Μῆδοι πλὴν ὅσοι σὺν Κυαξάρη ἔτυχον σκηνοῦντες. (Xen. *Cyr.* 4.2.11)

 The result was that nearly all came out, even the Medes, except all those who (as many as) happened to be encamped together with Cyaxares.
- (64) ἔκαιον οἶς τοῦτο ἔργον ἦν ὁπόσων μὴ αὐτοὶ ἐδέοντο. (Xen. Cyr. 4.5.36)
 Those whose task this was burned whatever (as many things as) they did not need themselves. Both the subject and object of ἔκαιον are expressed by autonomous relative clauses (subject: οἷς . . . ἦν, object: ὁπόσων ἐδέοντο).

Note 1: Only when they are preceded by a demonstrative, as in (61)–(62) can the relative adjectives o $\log/\log \log$ be translated with as (with the demonstratives being translated with such ..., as much ..., as many ..., etc.): in other cases the translation required for the relative is respectively such as, as much as, as many as, etc., as in (63)–(64).

- 50.29 Clauses with a relative adjective also frequently stand in apposition (\rightarrow 26.24) to a noun, which serves as its antecedent:
 - (65) καὶ ἐκ μὲν τοῦ πρώτου ἀλόντος χαλεπῶς οἱ ἄνθρωποι, ὅσοι καὶ ἐς τὰ πλοῖα καὶ ὁλκάδα τινὰ κατέφυγον, ἐς τὸ στρατόπεδον ἐξεκομίζοντο. (Thuc. 7.23.2)

 The men from the first (fort) that was taken, as many of them as had been able to take flight on board boats and merchant ships, had difficulty reaching the camp. The ὅσοι-clause stands in apposition to οἱ ἄνθρωποι.
 - (66) ... <u>αθλ</u>', <u>οἶα</u> μηδεὶς τῶν ἐμῶν τύχοι φίλων. (Soph. *Phil*. 509)
 ... pains, such as none of my friends may suffer. *Note the cupitive optative in a digressive relative clause*.
- 50.30 Plural forms of ὄσος and ὁπόσος are frequently anticipated by a form of πᾶς:
 - (67) στρατηγόν δὲ αὐτὸν ἀπέδειξε <u>πάντων</u> ὅσοι ἐς Καστωλοῦ πεδίον ἁθροίζονται. (Xen. An. 1.1.2)

He appointed him commander of all those who gather in the plain of Castolus.

Note 1: These forms (with or without an anticipating form of $\pi \tilde{\alpha}_{5}$) are often best translated with *all who*, *everything that*, etc. – cf. also the translations of (63)–(64) above.

- 50.31 Relative attraction (\rightarrow 50.13) occurs in correlative clauses with relative adjectives as well:
 - (68) Μήδων ... ὅσων ἑώρακα ... ὁ ἐμὸς πάππος κάλλιστος. (Xen. Cyr. 1.3.2)
 Of all the Medes that I have seen, my grandfather is the most handsome. Object of ἐώρακα, but genitive under the influence of Μήδων.
- 50.32 The neuter forms of ov and of av are often used adverbially, in which case they can well be translated with for example, for instance, such as:
 - (69) νῦν δὲ περὶ ὀλίγας οἰκίας αἱ κάλλισται τραγωδίαι συντίθενται, οἴον περὶ ᾿Αλκμέωνα καὶ Οἰδίπουν καὶ ᾿Ορέστην ... (Arist. Poet. 1453a18-20)
 But as it is, the best tragedies are composed about only a few families; for example about Alcmeon, Oedipus, Orestes, ...
- 50.33 For the use of (τοσούτω...) ὄσω, as a dative of measure with comparatives, to express the more... the more, →32.11. For the use of οἶος, ὄσος, etc. with an infinitive in result clauses, →46.10.

With Relative Adverbs

Relative Adverbs of Place (and Time)

50.34 Correlative clauses introduced by adverbs of place (οὖ, ἔνθα, οἶ, ὅθεν, ϯ, etc.; ὅπου, ὅποι, etc. →8) may be anticipated or followed by a demonstrative adverb:

(70) τί οὖν ἐγὰν ἐνταῦθα ἠδίκησα ἀγαγὰν ὑμᾶς ἔνθα πᾶσιν ὑμῖν ἐδόκει; (Xen. An. 7.6.14)

What injustice, then, did I commit by leading you where (*there*, *where*) you all decided to go?

But such clauses are more often **reduced** (i.e. autonomous, without a preceding demonstrative adverb):

- (71) ἄξω ὑμᾶς ἔνθα τὸ πρᾶγμα ἐγένετο. (Xen. Cyr. 5.4.21)
 I will take you to (the place) where the event took place.
- (72) ἐθήρα ὅπουπερ ἐπιτυγχάνοιεν θηρίοις. (Xen. Cyr. 3.3.5)
 He hunted wheresoever they came upon animals. Note the iterative optative, →50.12.
- 50.35 Autonomous correlative clauses of this type can be used together with 'existential' ἔστιν (→50.12 above): ἔστιν οὖ there is a place where, somewhere, ἔστιν ὅτε there is a time when, sometimes.
- 50.36 Temporal clauses introduced by ὅτε/ὁπότε (→47) are in essence also adverbial correlative clauses of time, usually 'reduced'. Their correlative nature may be seen most clearly in cases where they are anticipated or followed by τότε, for instance:
 - (73) εἴθε σοι, ὧ Περίκλεις, τότε συνεγενόμην ὅτε δεινότατος ἑαυτοῦ ἦσθα. (Xen. Mem. 1.2.46) Ah, Pericles, if only I had met you at the time when you were at your cleverest. For ἑαυτοῦ, →29.19.

Relative Adverbs of Manner: Clauses of Comparison

- 50.37 **Clauses of comparison** are introduced by the relative adverbs ώς, ὅπως, ὥσπερ, and καθάπερ (*just*) as, (*in such a way*) as. They are sometimes preceded or followed by οὕτω(ς) (καί) thus, in this/that/such a way (also), so (too):
 - (74) Πάνυ, ἔφη, ἔχει οὕτως ώς λέγεις. (Pl. *Phd.* 68c) 'It is indeed just as you say,' he said. *For ἔχει + adv.*, \rightarrow 26.11 and 36.10.
 - (75) οὕτω γὰρ ποιήσω ὅπως ἄν σὰ κελεύης. (Pl. Euthd. 295b)
 I will act in such a way as you command. Prospective subjunctive + ἄν.
 - (76) ἄσπερ οἶνος κιρνᾶται τοῖς τῶν πινόντων τρόποις, οὕτω καὶ φιλία τοῖς τῶν χρωμένων ἤθεσιν. (Dem. fr. 13.27 Baiter-Sauppe)

 Just as wine is mixed with the customs of those who drink it, thus also friendship is mixed with the characters of those who enjoy it.

However, most clauses of comparison are **reduced** (i.e. autonomous, without a preceding $o\ddot{\upsilon}\tau\omega(\varsigma)$): only the entity with which someone or something is compared is expressed. The relative adverbs can in such cases also be translated with *as*, *like*:

- (77) ποίει ὅπως ἄριστόν σοι δοκεῖ εἶναι. (Xen. Cyr. 4.5.50)
 Do as it seems to be best to you.
- (78) καί μ' ἀφείλεθ' ή τύχη | <u>ὥσπερ</u> πτερὸν πρὸς αἰθέρ' ἡμέρα μιᾳ. (Eur. *Her.* 509–10)
 - And fate took it away from me in a single day like a feather into the sky.
- (79) περιιστώμεθα δὴ καθάπερ ἀθληταὶ πρὸς τοῦτον αὖ τὸν λόγον. (Pl. *Phlb.* 41b) Let us then like athletes position ourselves around this argument, in turn.

Note that in (78) and (79), the comparative clauses have no finite verb: this occurs frequently with comparative clauses.

- 50.38 The relative $\tilde{\eta}$ may also have this sense (\rightarrow 8.2), and may be anticipated by ταύτη:
 - (80) θεούς ... μάρτυρας ποιούμενοι πειρασόμεθα ἀμύνεσθαι πολέμου ἄρχοντας $\underline{\text{ταύτη}}\ \underline{\tilde{\eta}}\ \tilde{\alpha}$ ν ύφηγῆσθε. (Thuc. 1.78.4)
 - Taking the gods as our witness, we will attempt to ward you off, if you begin hostilities, in whatever manner (*in that way which*) you choose.
- 50.39 Observe the idioms ἔστιν ὅπως there is a way in which; it is possible that, οὐκ ἔστιν ὅπως there is no way in which; it is impossible that; →50.12 and 50.35 above.
- 50.40 For comparative ὥσπερ εὶ and ὥσπερ ἄν εἰ, →49.22-4. For comparative participles with ὥσπερ, →52.43.

The Infinitive

Introduction

Basic Properties

- 51.1 Infinitives are **verbal nouns**:
 - they are like nouns in that they may fulfil syntactic roles which are typically fulfilled by noun phrases (subject, object, complement; →26.3), and in that they may be modified by the article;
 - they are like verbs in that they are marked for tense-aspect and voice; may be construed with an object, complement, etc.; modified by adverbs; etc.

Overview of Uses: Dynamic and Declarative Infinitives, Articular Infinitives, Other Uses

Without the Article: Dynamic and Declarative Infinitive

- The use of the infinitive **without the article** can be broadly divided into two categories:
 - the dynamic infinitive: to complement verbs meaning 'must', 'can', 'be able', etc. (modal verbs); 'want', 'desire', 'dare', 'try', etc. (desiderative/volitional verbs); 'be good at', 'teach how to', 'learn how to', etc. (practical knowledge verbs); 'command', 'suggest', 'compel', etc. (manipulative verbs); 'begin', 'stop', etc. (phase verbs); and certain adjectives and nouns with similar meanings; for details, →51.8-18;
 - the declarative infinitive: to complement certain verbs of speech and verbs of belief and opinion, introducing a form of indirect statement (→41.1-2); for details, →51.19-27;
- 51.3 As complements, the dynamic and declarative infinitive are different in nature:
 - The dynamic infinitive expresses an action, the realization of which is enabled, attempted, desired, forced, necessitated, asked for, etc. The action may or may not be realized.

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 The declarative infinitive expresses the content of someone's speech or belief about an action. This content (so-called 'propositional' content) may or may not be true.

(1) ἡ δὲ Παρύσατις ... ἐκέλευσε ... τἡν ... Ῥωξάνην ζῶσαν κατατεμεῖν· καὶ ἐγένετο. (Ctes. fr. 15.56 Lenfant)
Parysatis ordered Roxane to be cut up alive. And so it happened. κατατεμεῖν, complementing κελεύω 'command', is a dynamic infinitive. Parysatis asks for a gruesome execution. The narrator then continues to say that this execution

was actually carried out.

- (2) φημὶ τοίνυν ἐγώ (καὶ ... μηδεὶς φθόνω τὸ μέλλον ἀκούση, ἀλλ' ἄν ἀληθὲς ἦ σκοπείτω), ... κάλλιον Κόνωνα τὰ τείχη στῆσαι Θεμιστοκλέους. (Dem. 20.74) Now I maintain (and let no one take offence at what is coming, but consider whether it is true) that Conon has put up the walls in a more laudable manner than Themistocles. στῆσαι, complementing φημί 'say', is a declarative infinitive. Demosthenes puts forward his opinion and asks his audience to consider whether that opinion is true or false.
- (3) <u>ἔδοξε</u> δὲ καὶ τοῖς τῶν Ἀθηναίων στρατηγοῖς ... <u>πλεῖν</u> ... ταῦτα δὲ <u>βουλομένους</u> <u>ποιεῖν</u> ἄνεμος καὶ χειμὼν διεκώλυσεν αὐτοὺς. (Xen. Hell. 1.6.35)

 The generals of the Athenians also decided to sail. But although they wanted to do this, the wintry, stormy weather prevented them. ποιεῖν is a dynamic infinitive, complementing βουλομένους, a verb of wanting (so too πλεῖν, after a verb of deciding, impers. ἔδοξε). The Athenian generals want to go ahead with the expedition; the narrator goes on to say that the expedition is in fact not realized.
- (4) οὔ φημι ποιεῖν αὐτοὺς ἃ βούλονται· ἀλλά μ' ἔλεγχε. (Pl. Grg. 467b)

 I claim that they are not doing what they want: refute me if you can. ποιεῖν is a declarative infinitive, complementing a verb of speech/opinion (φημί). Socrates puts forward his own opinion and challenges his addressee to prove that opinion false.

The dynamic infinitive and the declarative infinitive have in common that they do not in themselves specify whether the action is or is not realized or whether the propositional content is or is not true.

Note 1: The infinitive differs in this respect from the supplementary participle, which on the whole specifies the action it expresses as realized or the propositional content as true (-52.8).

Note 2: The 'dynamic' infinitive is so called because it refers to actions which exist 'potentially' (Gk. ἐν δυνάμει). This infinitive is in some works called 'prolative'.

Note 3: With a few verbs taking a dynamic infinitive, notably those meaning 'force' or 'compel' (e.g. ἀναγκάζω, βιάζομαι), but also τολμάω *dare* and ἄρχομαι *begin*, the *full realization* of the matrix verb entails the realization of the action expressed by the infinitive as well:

- (5) πρῶτα μὲν τοὺς Λυδοὺς <u>ἡνάγκασε</u> τὰς Κύρου ἐντολὰς <u>ἐπιτελέειν</u> ἐκ τούτου δὲ κελευσμοσύνης Λυδοὶ τὴν πᾶσαν δίαιταν τῆς ζόης μετέβαλον. (Hdt. 1.157.2)

 He first compelled the Lydians to carry out Cyrus' instructions. And because of his order the Lydians changed their whole way of life. The compelling of the Lydians is carried out and completed. As the subsequent sentence shows, their 'following Cyrus' orders' is realized as well.
- (6) πρῶτος δὲ Κλέαρχος τοὺς αὐτοῦ στρατιώτας ἐβιάζετο ἰέναι· οἱ δ' αὐτόν τε ἔβαλλον καὶ τὰ ὑποζύγια τὰ ἐκείνου, ἐπεὶ ἄρξαιντο προϊέναι. (Xen. An. 1.3.1)
 Clearchus was the first who tried to compel his own troops to march on. But they pelted him and his pack-animals with stones, every time they began to move forward. ἐβιάζετο is a conative imperfect, which suggests that the action was never fully realized (→33.25). As the subsequent sentence shows, the soldiers in fact do not 'march on'.

Note 4: Some verbs may be complemented either by a dynamic infinitive or by a declarative infinitive; the difference in complement corresponds to a difference in meaning of the matrix verb. For full details on these verbs, $\rightarrow 51.28-33$. Some verbs may also be construed with a participle, $\rightarrow 52.22-7$.

- The differences detailed above correspond to several crucial **differences of construction** between dynamic and declarative infinitives:
 - The **negative** with dynamic infinitives is $\mu \dot{\eta}$ (→51.13), with declarative infinitives nearly always oὐ (→51.22-3);
 - The dynamic infinitive is never modified by ἄν, whereas the declarative infinitive may be modified by ἄν (→51.27);
 - The future infinitive is never used as dynamic infinitive, the perfect infinitive rarely; infinitives of all tense-aspect stems are used as declarative infinitives. For full details on the interpretation of the tense-aspect stems in infinitives, →51.15 (dynamic) and 51.25-6 (declarative).

With the Article; Other Uses

- 51.5 A neuter article (in any case, always singular) may be added to an infinitive to turn it into (the head of) a noun phrase. The infinitive itself never declines: τὸ παιδεύειν, τοῦ παιδεύειν, etc. For full details on this use, the articular infinitive, →51.38-45.
- 51.6 Some remaining uses of the infinitive are treated in 51.47–9.
- 51.7 For the infinitive with ιστε (or οίος, etc.) in result clauses, →46.7-11. For the infinitive with εφ' ιζ(τε) on the condition that, →49.26. For the infinitive with πρίν, →47.14.

The Dynamic Infinitive

Verbs Taking a Dynamic Infinitive

51.8 The following classes of verbs take a dynamic infinitive as their complement:

Note 1: Many of the verbs below also have different constructions, in which case they no longer belong to the specific class under which they are listed below. For instance, the verb $\mu\alpha\nu\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$ is used as a verb of practical knowledge (*learn (how) to*) taking a dynamic infinitive, but also as a verb of intellectual knowledge (*learn that*), in which case it takes a supplementary participle (\rightarrow 52.10) or a $\delta\tau$ 1/ $\dot{\omega}$ 5-clause (\rightarrow 41.3).

For an overview of verbs belonging to different classes taking either a dynamic or a declarative infinitive, $\rightarrow 51.28-32$. For verbs taking either an infinitive or a participle, $\rightarrow 52$. 22-7. For a complete overview of different classes of verb and the type of complements they take, $\rightarrow 53$.

 Modal verbs - the verb expresses the need or possibility of an action taking place, e.g.:

δεῖ it is necessary to

δύναμαι be able to

ἔξεστι it is possible to, it is permitted to (+ dat.)

ἔχω can, be able toπροσήκει it is fitting toχρή it is necessary to

- (7) σκοπέειν δὲ χρὴ παντὸς χρήματος τὴν τελευτήν. (Hdt. 1.32.9)
 It is necessary to examine the end of every thing.
- (8) οὐδ' ... νόμον ἔξουσι δεῖξαι καθ' ὂν ἐξῆν αὐτῷ ταῦτα πρᾶξαι. (Isae. 10.11)
 And they will not be able to produce a law according to which it was allowed for him to do these things.
- Verbs of practical knowledge the subject learns, teaches, or knows how to do something, e.g.:

διδάσκω teach (how) to, instruct how to

ἐπίσταμαι know how toμανθάνω learn (how) to

(9) παίδευσις . . . καλή διδάσκει χρῆσθαι νόμοις καὶ λέγειν περὶ τῶν δικαίων. (Xen. Cyn. 12.14)

A good education teaches (a man) to observe laws and to speak about what is right.

Desiderative/volitional verbs – the subject intends, wishes or resolves that an action should be realized, e.g.:

αίρέομαι choose to

βουλεύω/βουλεύομαι deliberate, resolve to βούλομαι want to, prefer to διανοέομαι decide to, intend to

δοκεῖ it seems right to, it is decided to $(+ dat.; \rightarrow 36.4, 51.30)$

ἐθέλω be willing to, wish toσπουδάζω make haste to, strive to

(10) πρῶτον δὲ <u>διηγήσασθαι</u> <u>βούλομαι</u> τὰ πραχθέντα τῆ τελευταία ἡμέρα. (Lys. 1.22)

First I want to go through the things which happened on the last day.

- (11) οὐ γὰρ λόγοισι τὸν βίον <u>σπουδάζομεν</u> | λαμπρὸν <u>ποεῖσθαι</u> μᾶλλον ἢ τοῖς δρωμένοις. (Soph. *OC* 1143-4)
 - It is not in words that I strive to give my life renown, so much as it is by my deeds.
- Verbs of ordering, forcing, manipulating the subject forces, tells or asks someone else to do something, e.g.:

αὶτέωask to, require toἀναγκάζωforce to, compel toδέομαιask to, require toκελεύωcommand to, bid toπείθωpersuade to

(12) κελεύει με Μαρδόνιος μένοντα αὐτοῦ <u>πειρᾶσθαι</u> τῆς Πελοποννήσου. (Hdt. 8.101.2)

Mardonius commands me to stay here and make an attempt on the Peloponnese.

Note 2: To this category belong also verbs of preventing, hindering, etc.; for these, $\rightarrow 51.34-7$. **Note 3:** For verbs of speaking (e.g. $\lambda \acute{e} \gamma \omega$) used as verbs of ordering, $\rightarrow 51.32$.

Some phase verbs – the verb expresses some phase of the action (beginning or end), e.g.:

ἄρχομαι begin to, be the first to

παύω stop/prevent (someone from doing something)

(13) ἐκ τῶν δὲ πρώτων πρῶτον ἄρξομαι λέγειν. (Eur. Med. 475)
I will begin my speech at the very beginning.

Note 4: These and other phase verbs are (more) regularly construed with a participle (\rightarrow 52.9); for the difference between the two constructions, \rightarrow 52.27.

The dynamic infinitive is also used to complement certain **adjectives and nouns** with meanings similar to those listed above, i.e. expressing ability, possibility, need, desire, etc. Some examples:

Adjectives

ἄξιος worth(y)

δεινός good at, skilful, impressive

ἐπιτήδειος suitable

ίκανός competent, adequate, capable

οἶός τε capable ῥάδιος easy to

Nouns

ὥρα (ἐστί) it is time to (+ pres. inf.)

ἵμερος a desire to

σχολή leisure to, the opportunity to

νόμος the law (commands that), it is customary to

(14) ἐξ αὐτῶν δὲ τούτων ἐπιδείξω αὐτὸν <u>ἐπιτηδειότερον</u> <u>τεθνάναι</u> μᾶλλον ἢ σώζεσθαι. ([Andoc.] 4.25)

Based on these very things, I will show that he is more fit to be dead than to survive.

(15) <u>ἄρα προβαίνειν</u>, ὧνδρες, ἡμῖν ἐστι. (Ar. *Eccl.* 285) It is time, gentlemen, for us to come forward.

Note 1: The constituent to which such an adjective belongs can be supplied with the infinitive as its subject (as in (14), where 'he' is subject of $\tau \epsilon \theta \nu \dot{\alpha} \nu \alpha \iota / \sigma \dot{\omega} \zeta \epsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$) or as its object (as in (16)). In either case, the infinitive tends to be active:

(16) ἦν ... ὁ Θεμιστοκλῆς ... ἄξιος θαυμάσαι. (Thuc. 1.138.3)
Themistocles was worthy of admiration (i.e. 'to be admired'). Themistocles can be supplied as object to θαυμάσαι.

Expression of the Subject of Dynamic Infinitives

- 51.10 The subject of a dynamic infinitive is **not separately expressed** when it is already given as an obligatory constituent of the matrix verb governing the infinitive:
 - as its subject (when the subjects of the infinitive and its matrix-verb are 'co-referential'):
 - (17) καὶ τέσσερας ἵππους <u>συζευγνύναι</u> παρὰ Λιβύων <u>οἱ ελληνες μεμαθήκασι</u>. (Hdt. 4.189.3)

And the Greeks have learned how to yoke four horses from the Libyans. The subject of the infinitive is the same as that of $\mu \epsilon \mu \alpha \theta \dot{\eta} \mu \alpha \sigma_i$, i.e. of $\epsilon \lambda \eta \nu \epsilon_s$.

This is always the case with verbs meaning 'begin to', 'be able to', 'know how to', 'be willing/strive to', or with passive forms of verbs meaning 'force', 'command', etc.:

- (18) πῶς γὰρ οὐχὶ γεννάδας, | ὅστις γε πίνειν οἶδε καὶ βινεῖν μόνον; (Ar. Ran. 739–40)
 - Of course he's a gentleman: all he knows is how to drink and fuck. The subject of the infinitives is co-referential with the subject of oi $\delta \varepsilon$ ($\delta \sigma \tau_{1} \varsigma$).
- (19) <u>ἠναγκάσθησαν ... ναυμαχῆσαι</u> πρὸς Φορμίωνα. (Thuc. 2.83.1)

 They were compelled to make a naval attack upon Phormio. The subject of ναυμαχῆσαι is co-referential with the subject of passive ἠναγμάσθησαν.
- as its **object** or **complement**:
- (20) <u>ἔπεισε</u> μὲν <u>Τισσαφέρνην</u> μὴ <u>παρέχειν</u> χρήματα Λακεδαιμονίοις. (Isoc. 16.20) He persuaded Tissaphernes not to give money to the Spartans. Τισσαφέρνην is object of ἔπεισε, and serves as subject of παρέχειν.
- (21) ἐδέοντο αὐτοῦ παντὶ τρόπῳ ἀπελθεῖν Ἀθήνηθεν. (Lys. 13.25)
 They asked him to leave Athens at all costs. αὐτοῦ is a complement in the genitive with ἐδέοντο (→30.21); it serves as subject of the infinitive ἀπελθεῖν.
- (22) βασιλεύς ὁ Αἰθιόπων συμβουλεύει τῷ Περσέων βασιλέϊ ... ἐπ' Αἰθίοπας ... στρατεύεσθαι. (Hdt. 3.21.3)

 The king of the Ethiopians counsels the king of the Persians to attack the Ethiopians. τῷ ... βασιλέϊ is a complement in the dative with συμβουλεύει

Note 1: Naturally, dynamic infinitives of impersonal verbs (\rightarrow 36) also do not have an explicitly expressed subject (as they have no subject at all):

 $(\rightarrow 30.39)$; it serves as subject of στρατεύεσθαι.

- (23) πολλάκις ἐξεργάζεται ὧν μεταμέλειν ἀνάγκη. (Xen. Eq. 6.13)

 He often does what it is necessary to regret. μεταμέλειν is a dynamic infinitive representing impersonal μεταμέλει + gen. (→36.15); the inf. depends on ἀνάγκη.
- 51.11 If the subject of the dynamic infinitive is not expressed as an obligatory constituent of the matrix verb, it is **separately expressed in the accusative**: this is called the **accusative-and-infinitive construction** (or 'accusative plus infinitive', 'accusative with infinitive'; Lat. *accusativus cum infinitivo*, AcI):
 - (24) ἄμα δ' ἐκέλευεν ἀναγνωσθῆναι τὸ ψήφισμα τοῦ δήμου. (Aeschin. 2.50)

 At the same time he called for the decree of the people to be read. τὸ ψήφισμα is subject of ἀναγνωσθῆναι, the entire accusative-and-infinitive construction is object of ἐκέλευεν; note that it is impossible in this case to take τὸ ψήφισμα as object of ἐκέλευεν (one cannot give instructions to a decree).

This occurs frequently with impersonal expressions, such as $\delta \epsilon \tilde{\imath}$ it is necessary, $\chi \rho \dot{\eta}$ it is necessary, $\xi \delta o \xi \epsilon$ it was decided, $\pi \rho \dot{\epsilon} \pi \epsilon \iota$ it is fitting, $o \tilde{\imath} \dot{o} v \tau \dot{\epsilon} (\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \iota)$ it is possible, etc. $(\rightarrow 36.3-5)$:

- (25) <u>δεῖ σε καθεύδειν</u> | ... παρ' ἐμοί. (Ar. Eccl. 700-1)
 You must sleep with me (lit. 'it is necessary that you ...'). σε is the subject of καθεύδειν; the entire construction σε καθεύδειν παρ' ἐμοί is subject of δεῖ (→36.3).
- (26) ἔδοξε πλεῖν τὸν ἀλκιβιάδην. (Thuc. 6.29.3) It was decided that Alcibiades should sail. τὸν ἀλκιβιάδην is the subject of πλεῖν; the entire construction πλεῖν τὸν ἀλκιβιάδην is subject of ἔδοξε $(\rightarrow 36.4)$.
- (27) ὑμᾶς δὲ πρέπει συνεπαινεῖν ... τοιούτους ἄνδρας. (Pl. Menex. 246a)
 It is fitting that you should join in praising such men. ὑμᾶς is subject of συνεπαινεῖν; the entire accusative-and-infinitive construction is subject of πρέπει (→36.4).

Predicative complements (\rightarrow 26.8) and predicative modifiers (\rightarrow 26.26) of the subject of an infinitive agree with that subject:

- In the accusative-and-infinitive construction, predicative complements/modifiers agree with the accusative subject (the subject may be implied):
- (28) δεῖ με γίγνεσθ' 'Ανδρομέδαν (Ar. Thesm. 1012)
 I must become Andromeda. 'Ανδρομέδαν is predicative complement agreeing with με (subject of γίγνεσθ(αι)), and thus accusative.
- (29) χρή μικρὰν καὶ ἀσθενῆ γενέσθαι τὴν πόλιν. (Lys. 12.70)
 The city must become small and weak. μικρὰν and ἀσθενῆ agree in case, number and gender with τὴν πόλιν (subject of γενέσθαι).
- (30) καὶ τί δεῖ καθ' εν εκαστον λέγοντα διατρίβειν; (Isoc. 2.45)
 Why should one waste one's time on talking about every single instance?
 λέγοντα agrees with the subject of διατρίβειν, which is not expressed;
 a generalizing subject in the accusative is implied.
- When the subject of the infinitive is taken from the matrix clause, predicative complements/modifiers typically agree with the relevant constituent in the matrix clause:
- (31) ἄλλα τε πάμπολλα ἀγαθὰ γίγνοιτ' ἄν, εἰ τοῦ νόμου τις τούτου δύναιτο ἐγκρατής εἶναι. (Pl. Leg. 839b)
 Many other good things might happen, if someone were able to be in control of this law. The predicative complement ἐγκρατής agrees with τις, the subject of δύναιτο . . . εἶναι (the subjects are co-referential).

- (32) νῦν σοι ἔξεστιν, ὧ Ξενοφῶν, ἀνδρὶ γενέσθαι. (Xen. An. 7.1.21)

 Now, Xenophon, it is possible for you to become a man. The predicative complement ἀνδρί agrees with σοι, the dative complement of ἔξεστιν and the subject of γενέσθαι.
- **Note 1:** However, such predicative modifiers/complements also sometimes appear in the accusative, as this is the case typically associated with infinitive-subjects (and anything agreeing with them):
- (33) Λακεδαιμονίοις ἔξεστιν ὑμῖν φίλους γενέσθαι. (Thuc. 4.20.3)

 It is possible for you to become friends to the Spartans. The predicative complement φίλους appears in the accusative, even though the dat. ὑμῖν is taken as subject for γενέσθαι. Contrast (32).
- (34) ὁ Σωκράτης ... συμβουλεύει τῷ Ξενοφῶντι ἐλθόντα εἰς Δελφοὺς ἀνακοινῶσαι τῷ θεῷ. (Xen. An. 3.1.5)
 Socrates advised Xenophon to go to Delphi and consult the god. ἐλθόντα is accusative, even though the subject for ἀνακοινῶσαι is taken from dative τῷ Ξενοφῶντι.

Negatives with Dynamic Infinitives

- 51.13 The **negative** with the dynamic infinitive is μή:
 - (35) ἀπιέναι δ' ἐκέλευεν καὶ μὴ ἐρεθίζειν, ἵνα σῶς οἴκαδε ἔλθοι. (Pl. Resp. 394a)

 He ordered him to go away and not to trouble him, so that he might come home in one piece.
 - (36) μάλιστα μὲν οὖν ἄν ἠβουλόμην μὴ ἔχειν πράγματα. ([Dem.] 47.4)

 I would much have preferred not to have proceedings.
- 51.14 For μὴ οὐ, τὸ μὴ οὐ, etc., particularly with verbs of forbidding, hindering, preventing, abstaining, etc. →51.34–7.

Tense and Aspect of Dynamic Infinitives

- 51.15 The dynamic infinitive is limited almost exclusively to the **present and aorist** stems (the perfect is rare; the future infinitive is never dynamic). Both refer to actions which may or may not occur, normally posterior to the matrix verb; the difference between the stems is purely **aspectual** (\rightarrow 33.63–5):
 - the present infinitive refers to actions as a process (ongoing or repeated; imperfective aspect);
 - the aorist infinitive refers to actions presented as complete and therefore in their entirety (perfective aspect).
 - (37) κεῖνον ... ἐκέλευον ἀναβάντα ἐπὶ πύργον ἀγορεῦσαι ὡς ... (Hdt. 3.74.3)
 They ordered him to go up on a tower and declare that ... For the translation of the ppl. ἀναβάντα, →52.6.

- (38) ἀνεβίβασαν αὐτὸν ἐπὶ πύργον καὶ ἀγορεύειν ἐκέλευον. (Hdt. 3.75.1)

 They brought him up on a tower and ordered him to (start) speak(ing).

 Herodotus twice narrates how Prexaspes is ordered to speak. The aorist infinitive ἀγορεῦσαι in (37) looks at the speech that he has to make as a whole (note that the content of that speech is given by the ὡς-clause that will follow).

 The present infinitive ἀγορεύειν in (38) is used to refer to the actual process of speaking, which Prexaspes is ordered to get underway. Note that the action expressed by both infinitives is necessarily posterior to ἐπέλευον (one cannot command someone to already be doing or have done something).
- (39) δεῖ . . . τὸν βουλόμενόν τι ποιῆσαι τὴν πόλιν ἡμῶν ἀγαθὸν τὰ ὧτα πρῶτον ὑμῶν ἀσασθαι· διέφθαρται γάρ. (Dem. 13.13)
 Whoever wants to do our city a good turn must first cleanse your ears. For they have been corrupted.
- (40) ώρμηκότα νῦν τὸν ἄνθρωπον φίλον εἶναι καὶ βουλόμενόν τι ποιεῖν ἀγαθὸν τὴν πόλιν εἰς ἀθυμίαν τρέψομεν, εἰ καταψηφιούμεθα. (Dem. 23.194)

 The man (*Chersobleptes*), who has now embarked on a course of friendship, and who wants to (be) do(ing) the city a good turn, we will cause to be disheartened, if we are to vote down the decree.
 - In (39) the aorist inf. $\pi \circ i\tilde{\eta} \sigma \alpha i$ indicates that the speaker is not interested in the process of providing benefit to the city, but in anyone's aspiration towards the simple fact of it. Example (40), on the other hand, concerns a type of behaviour (present inf. $\pi \circ i\tilde{\epsilon} i\nu$) which Chersobleptes has already begun ($\acute{\omega} \rho \mu \eta \kappa \acute{\sigma} i \alpha i$) to display: he wants to provide some benefit to the city, but this provision might be interrupted if the Athenians vote the 'wrong' way.

Note 1: The interpretation attached to the present infinitive in (38) is similar to the 'immediative' nuance of the present imperative, for which \rightarrow 38.30.

Further Particulars

Dynamic Infinitives Expressing Purpose or Result

- 51.16 A dynamic infinitive is added regularly to verbs meaning 'give', 'entrust', 'take', 'receive', etc., or verbs meaning 'have (at one's disposal)', to express **purpose or result** (without ἄστε or ὡς). This use of the infinitive is usually called **final-consecutive**:
 - (41) ταύτην τὴν χώραν ἐπέτρεψε διαρπάσαι τοῖς Ελλησιν. (Xen. An. 1.2.19) That country he left to the Greeks to plunder.
 - (42) οἱ στρατιῶται ἤχθοντο, ὅτι <u>οὐκ εἶχον</u> ἀργύριον <u>ἐπισιτίζεσθαι</u> εἰς τὴν πορείαν. (Xen. An. 7.1.7)
 - The soldiers were angry, because they did not have money to provision themselves for the journey.

Note 1: This use may be seen – rather than as a special use of the infinitive – as a special construction of the relevant verbs of giving, entrusting, etc. Thus, for instance, in (41) $\frac{1}{2}$ επέτρεψε is construed with a subject ('he'), object (ταύτην τὴν χώραν), indirect object (τοῖς "Ελλησιν) and a fourth obligatory constituent in the infinitive (διαρπάσαι).

Note 2: Especially in poetry, final-consecutive infinitives are sometimes added more freely – i.e. after other kinds of verbs (and adjectives/nouns):

(43) ἀρχόμεσθ' ἐκ κρεισσόνων | καὶ ταῦτ' ἀκούειν κἄτι τῶνδ' ἀλγίονα. (Soph. Ant. 63-4)

We are ruled by men who are more powerful, so that we (must) obey in these things and things more painful than these still. The infinitive expresses the result of the men's superior power (κρεισσόνων).

Note 3: The final-consecutive infinitive is sometimes called 'epexegetical' ('added to explain'): however, this term, if used at all, is best reserved for the infinitive limiting the meaning of adverbs and nouns, for which $\rightarrow 51.18$.

- 51.17 Sometimes, ἄστε is added to make explicit the consecutive value of a dynamic infinitive although it follows a verb belonging to one of the classes listed in 51.8. In such cases ἄστε is redundant (and need not be translated):
 - (44) ὁ Πειθίας . . . πείθει ἄστε τῷ νόμῳ χρήσασθαι. (Thuc. 3.70.5)
 Pithias persuades (them) to use the law. πείθω is regularly followed by a 'bare' infinitive.

Dynamic Infinitives Specifying Adjectives and Nouns

- 51.18 Especially in poetry, the dynamic infinitive is sometimes used to **limit or specify** the meaning of an adjective or noun (other than those with the types of meaning listed in 51.9); the infinitive in this use is often called **epexegetic(al)**:
 - (45) λευκόπωλος ήμέρα | πᾶσαν κατέσχε γαῖαν εὐφεγγής ἰδεῖν. (Aesch. *Pers.* 386–7) White-horsed day, bright to see, covered the entire earth.
 - (46) ΚΛ. ἐν Αἰγύπτῳ δὲ δἡ πῶς τὸ τοιοῦτον φἡς νενομοθετῆσθαι; :: ΑΘ. <u>θαῦμα</u> καὶ <u>ἀκοῦσαι</u>. (Pl. Leg. 656d)

(Clinias:) How then do you say that this matter is legislated in Egypt? :: (Athenian:) It is a wonder even to hear it.

In such cases the infinitive does not express purpose or result; in sense this use is similar to the accusative of respect, for which $\rightarrow 30.14$.

Note 1: Such infinitives tend to be active in form, even though they typically depend on a noun or adjective referring to the 'object' of the infinitive (note the translation 'hear it' in (46)); also $\rightarrow 51.9$ n.1 above.

The Declarative Infinitive

Verbs Taking a Declarative Infinitive

- The declarative (accusative and) infinitive is used in indirect discourse (\rightarrow 41.1) after verbs of opinion and verbs of believing, and after certain verbs of speech:
 - verbs of opinion and believing, e.g.:

γιγνώσκω judge that

λογίζομαι reckon that, guess that

νομίζω believe that

ἡγέομαι believe that, be of the opinion that

οἴομαι/οἶμαι think that

πιστεύω believe that, trust that ὑπολαμβάνω assume that, grasp that

ύποπτεύω suspect that

To this group belong also verbs meaning 'seem', i.e. verbs relating to the belief or opinion of someone other than the subject:

φαίνομαι seem (+ dat.; for the difference with φαίνομαι + ppl., \rightarrow 52.24) δοκέω seem (+ dat.; for other constructions of δοκέω/δοκεῖ, \rightarrow 51.30)

- declarative utterance verbs, i.e. verbs of speech, e.g.:

ἀγγέλλω report that, announce that ἀκούω hear (in the sense be told that)

δηλόω make clear that

λέγω say that

φημί say that, claim that

For verbs of denying, $\rightarrow 51.34-6$.

Note 1: Verbs of speech, apart from $\varphi\eta\mu$ i, more regularly take a $\mathring{o}\tau t/\mathring{\omega}\varsigma$ -clause. The declarative infinitive occurs for the most part when it does not represent an actual utterance, but an opinion or a rumour (in other words, when the verb is used more as a verb of opinion). The infinitive frequently occurs in this way with $\mathring{\sigma}\kappa\circ\mathring{\omega}$ (in the sense *be told*) and $\mathring{\delta}\epsilon\gamma\omega$ (especially with the forms $\mathring{\delta}\epsilon\gamma\circ\upsilon\sigma$ 1 they say and $\mathring{\delta}\epsilon\gamma\varepsilon\iota\sigma$ 1 it is said), but much less frequently with $\mathring{\epsilon}\tilde{\iota}\pi\circ\upsilon$ 2. The infinitive is the standard construction with $\mathring{\phi}\eta\mathring{\omega}$ 3 ($\mathring{\sigma}\tau\mathring{\iota}$ 3-clauses are very rare with this verb), because the verb usually means *claim* (rather than *utter*), and with $\pi\varepsiloni\theta\omega$ *convince* (for this verb, \rightarrow 51.32):

(47) Κριτίαν ... ἀπέτρεπε φάσκων ἀνελεύθερόν τε εἶναι καὶ οὐ πρέπον ... τὸν ἐρώμενον ... προσαιτεῖν ὥσπερ τοὺς πτωχοὺς ... τοῦ δὲ Κριτίου τοῖς τοιούτοις οὐχ ὑπακούοντος οὐδὲ ἀποτρεπομένου, λέγεται τὸν Σωκράτην ἄλλων τε πολλῶν παρόντων καὶ τοῦ Εὐθυδήμου εἰπεῖν ὅτι ὑικὸν αὐτῷ δοκοίη πάσχειν ὁ Κριτίας. (Χεη. Μεm. 1.2.29–30)

He tried to restrain Critias by saying that it was mean and unbecoming to approach one's beloved like a beggar. But when Critias paid no heed to such words and was not restrained, it is said that Socrates said, in the presence of

Euthydemus and many others, that he thought that Critias had the sentiments of a pig. $\varphi\acute{\alpha}\sigma\varkappa\omega\nu$, followed (as almost always) by an infinitive, refers to a general claim Socrates made about what is and what is not fitting; $\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\gamma\epsilon\tau\alpha$, followed by an infinitive ($\epsilon\dot{\epsilon}n\epsilon\tilde{\epsilon}\nu$), refers to a rumour about Socrates; $\epsilon\dot{\epsilon}n\epsilon\tilde{\epsilon}\nu$ itself, followed by a $\delta\tau$ -clause, refers to a single utterance made by Socrates.

Expression of the Subject with Declarative Infinitives

- 51.20 When the subject of the infinitive and the matrix verb governing it are the same (when they are **co-referential**), the subject of the infinitive is **not separately expressed**:
 - (48) ὑπώπτευον γὰρ ἤδη ἐπὶ βασιλέα ἰέναι. (Xen. An. 1.3.1)
 For they already suspected that they were on their way to attack the king.
 - (49) ὁ ᾿Ασσύριος εἰς τὴν χώραν ... ἐμβαλεῖν ἀγγέλλεται. (Xen. Cyr. 5.3.30)
 It is reported that the Assyrian will invade the country. Note the passive: lit. 'The Assyrian is reported . . . '.

Any predicative complements or modifiers with the subject (which must agree with the subject) naturally also occur in the nominative (the **nominative-and-infinitive** construction):

(50) ἀλλὰ <u>φημὶ</u> μὲν ἔγωγε, ὧ Σώκρατες, καὶ αὐτὸς <u>τοιοῦτος</u> ε<u>ἶναι</u> οἶον σὺ ὑφηγῆ. (Pl. *Grg.* 458b)

But, Socrates, I myself too claim that I am the sort of man you are suggesting.

Note 1: Naturally, declarative infinitives of impersonal verbs $(\rightarrow 36)$ also do not have an explicitly expressed subject (as they have no subject at all): so e.g. the frequent phrase \tilde{o} \tilde{b} \tilde{e} \tilde{v} \tilde{b} \tilde{e} \tilde{v} \tilde{e} \tilde{v} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} \tilde{e} in the indirect discourse construction dependent on \tilde{o} \tilde{e} $\tilde{e$

- In the vast majority of cases, the subject of a declarative infinitive is not the same as that of the matrix verb: in this case, the subject is **separately expressed in the accusative (accusative-and-infinitive construction)**:
 - (51) ἐκ τούτων δὲ τῶν λίθων ἔφασαν τὴν πυραμίδα οἰκοδομηθῆναι τὴν ἐν μέσω τῶν τριῶν ἑστηκυῖαν. (Hdt. 2.126.2)

 They said that the pyramid standing in the middle of the three had been built from these stones. τὴν πυραμίδα . . . τὴν . . . ἑστηκυῖαν is subject of οἰκοδομηθῆναι; the entire accusative-and-infinitive construction complements ἔφασαν.
 - (52) <u>ἥξειν</u> νομίζεις <u>παῖδα σὸν</u> γαίας ὕπο; (Eur. Her. 296)
 Do you think your son will return from beneath the earth? παῖδα σόν is subject of ἥξειν; the entire accusative-and-infinitive construction complements νομίζεις.

Any predicative complements or modifiers with the subject of the infinitive (which must agree with the subject) naturally also occur in the accusative:

(53) πονηράν μὲν φήσομεν οὕτω γίγνεσθαι δόξαν, πονηράν δὲ καὶ ήδονήν; (Pl. Phlb.37d)

Shall we say that in this way opinion becomes bad, and that pleasure becomes bad as well? $\pi o \nu \eta \rho \dot{\alpha} \nu$ agrees with $\delta \dot{\delta} \xi \alpha \nu$ and $\dot{\eta} \delta o \nu \dot{\eta} \nu$, respectively, the subjects of $\gamma \dot{\gamma} \nu \epsilon \sigma \theta \alpha i$.

Negatives with the Declarative Infinitive

- The **negative** with the declarative infinitive is normally **où** (as it would be in corresponding direct statements):
 - (54) κυάμους . . . οἱ . . . ἱρέες οὐδὲ ὁρέοντες ἀνέχονται, νομίζοντες <u>οὐ</u> καθαρὸν <u>εἶναί</u> μιν ὄσπριον. (Hdt. 2.37.5)
 - The priests cannot bear even to see beans, believing that it is not a clean kind of legume. Corresponding direct speech: οὐ μαθαρόν ἐστι.
 - (55) καὶ νῦν ἤδη τινὲς λέγουσιν <u>οὐ γιγνώσκειν</u> τὰς διαλλαγὰς αἵτινές εἰσι. (Andoc. 3.36)
 - And now already, some are saying that they do not understand what the point of the treaty is. *Corresponding direct speech:* οὐ γιγνώσκομεν.
- However, $\mu \dot{\eta}$ is sometimes used with the declarative infinitive when it corresponds to an **emphatic declaration** (often in oracles):
 - (56) πάντες <u>ἐροῦσι</u> τὸ λοιπὸν <u>μηδὲν εἶναι</u> κερδαλεώτερον ἀρετῆς. (Xen. *Cyr.* 7.1.18) Everyone will say in the future that *nothing* is more profitable than valour.
 - (57) ἤρετο γὰρ δὴ εἴ τις ἐμοῦ εἴη σοφώτερος. ἀνεῖλεν οὖν ἡ Πυθία μηδένα σοφώτερον εἶναι. (Pl. Ap. 21a)
 - So he asked if anyone was wiser than I am. The Pythia responded that no one was wiser.

This use of μή is fully regular with verbs such as ἐλπίζω *expect*, ὑπισχνέομαι *promise* and ὅμνυμι *swear*, \rightarrow 51.31.

51.24 For μὴ οὐ, τὸ μὴ οὐ, etc. with verbs of denying, \rightarrow 51.34–6.

Note 1: With $\varphi\eta\mu i$, when the verb is used to refer to an opinion/claim that something is *not* the case, the negative most often is attached to the matrix verb ($\varphi\eta\mu i$) rather than the infinitive. In other words: où $\varphi\eta\mu i = claim$ that not, deny that.

Tense and Aspect of Declarative Infinitives

51.25 The infinitive of **all tense-aspect stems** can be used as declarative infinitive: which stem is used depends on the tense-aspect of the form that would have been used in a corresponding direct statement (i.e. the speech or thought which the infinitive construction represents, \rightarrow 41.1):

- (58) ἔφασαν ἐκβάλλειν τοὺς ξεινικοὺς θεούς. (Hdt. 1.172.2)

 They said that they were expelling the foreign gods. Present infinitive ἐκβάλλειν represents present indicative ἐκβάλλομεν ('we are expelling') from a corresponding direct speech.
- (59) τούτους δέ φασιν ... τοὺς Πεισιστράτου παῖδας ἐκβαλεῖν. (Dem. 21.144)

 They say that it is these men who expelled the sons of Pisistratus. Aorist infinitive ἐκβαλεῖν represents aorist indicative ἐξέβαλον ('they expelled') in a corresponding direct speech.
- In practice, this means that the various tense-aspect stems typically get a relativetense interpretation (\rightarrow 33.57):
 - The **present infinitive** typically expresses an action which is **simultaneous** with that of the verb of speech/belief/opinion:
 - (60) οἱ ἄλλοι τοῦτον τὸν χρόνον ... ἐδόκουν ... προσκτᾶσθαί τι. (Xen. Cyr. 4.3.3)

 During that period the others seemed to be gaining something.

 Corresponding 'direct speech': pres. ind. προσκτῶνται.
 - The **future infinitive** always expresses an action which is **posterior** to that of the verb of speech/belief/opinion:
 - (61) ... ἔχοντες ... ἔπιπλα καὶ ἱμάτια γυναικεῖα ὅσα οὐδεπώποτε ἄοντο κτήσεσθαι.(Lys. 12.19)
 - ... having more furniture and women's clothing than they ever thought they would get. *Corresponding direct speech: fut. ind. μτησόμεθα*.
 - The **aorist infinitive** typically expresses an action which is **anterior** to that of the verb of speech/belief/opinion:
 - (62) τολμᾶ ... λέγειν ... ὑμᾶς ... ταῦτα ποιήσαντας ... τιμὴν παρὰ πᾶσιν ἀνθρώποις κτήσασθαι. (Lys. 14.32–3)

 He has the temerity to claim that you, by doing these things, have won recognition among all men. Corresponding direct speech: aor. ind. ἐκτήσαντο/ἐκτήσασθε.
 - The perfect infinitive typically expresses a state (or lasting effects), simultaneous with that of the verb of speech/belief/opinion, resulting from a previous, completed action:
 - (63) καὶ γὰρ τὰ Ὁμήρου σέ φασιν ἔπη πάντα κεκτῆσθαι. (Xen. Mem. 4.2.10)
 And in fact, they tell me that you possess a complete copy of Homer.
 Corresponding direct speech: pf. ind. κέκτησαι.

Note 1: There are occasional exceptions to the relative-tense interpretation outlined above (also \rightarrow 33.58–62): in particular, the present declarative infinitive is sometimes used to refer to *habitual* actions preceding the verb of speech/belief/opinion – i.e. when direct speech would have the imperfect:

(64) καὶ τοὺς ἐπὶ τῶν προγόνων ἡμῶν λέγοντας ἀκούω . . . τούτῳ τῷ ἔθει . . . χρῆσθαι. (Dem. 3.21)

And as a matter of fact, I hear that speakers who lived at the time of our forebears used this custom. Corresponding direct speech: impf. $\dot{\epsilon}\chi\rho\tilde{\omega}\nu\tau_0$; the action referred to by $\chi\rho\tilde{\eta}\sigma\theta\alpha$ is anterior to that of $\dot{\alpha}\kappa o\dot{\omega}\omega$. This interpretation is required given the presence of the temporal modifier $\dot{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\imath}$ $\tau\tilde{\omega}\nu$ $\tau\rho\sigma\gamma\dot{\sigma}\nu\omega\nu$, which refers to the past.

Similarly, the perfect infinitive may be used when direct speech would have the pluperfect.

αν with the Declarative Infinitive

- The declarative infinitive **may be modified by** $\alpha \nu$, and then has a **potential** sense (corresponding to a potential optative, $\rightarrow 34.13$) or a **counterfactual** sense (corresponding to a counterfactual modal indicative, $\rightarrow 34.16$):
 - (65) οἷμαι ἄν σε ταῦτα διαπραξάμενον ἀποπλεῖν, εἰ βούλοιο. (Xen. Hell. 3.4.5.)
 I think that you could sail off having accomplished these things, should you want to. ἄν . . . ἀποπλεῖν represents ἀποπλέοις ἄν (potential opt. + ἄν) in direct speech (note the 'potential' conditional clause εἰ βούλοιο).
 - (66) καὶ πόσα <u>ἄν</u> ἤδη οἴει μοι χρήματα <u>εἶναι,</u> εἰ συνέλεγον χρυσίον ὥσπερ σὺ κελεύεις; (Xen. Cyr. 8.2.16)

And how much money do you think I would have already, if I were amassing gold as you're telling me to do? (But I'm not.) $dv \ldots \epsilon i v \alpha i$ represents dv dv (counterfactual ind. dv dv dv) in direct speech (note the counterfactual conditional clause $ei \sigma u v \epsilon \lambda \epsilon \gamma \sigma v$).

Note 1: In the absence of explicit clues like the conditional clauses in (65) and (66), context must determine whether $\check{\alpha}\nu$ + declarative inf. represents a potential or a counterfactual construction:

(67) οἱ δὲ ἀκαρνᾶνες ἠξίουν Δημοσθένη ... ἀποτειχίζειν αὐτούς, νομίζοντες ῥαδίως γ' <u>ἄν</u> ἐκπολιορκῆσαι καὶ πόλεως αἰεὶ σφίσι πολεμίας <u>ἀπαλλαγῆναι</u>. (Thuc. 3.94.2)

Note 2: Note that the tense-aspect stem of the infinitive is identical to that of the direct speech it represents: in (65) present-stem ἀποπλεῖν represents present optative ἀποπλέοις, in (66) present-stem εἶναι represents imperfect (i.e. present-stem) ἦν, in (67) the agrist infinitives ἐκπολιορκήσαι and ἀπαλλαγῆναι represent agrist optatives ἐκπολιορκήσαιμεν and ἀπαλλαγεῖμεν.

Verbs Taking Both Constructions

51.28 A number of verbs can be followed either by a dynamic or by a declarative infinitive. With such verbs, there is a distinction in meaning between the two constructions (the verbs belong to different classes depending on how they are construed). The most important ones are given below.

Note 1: For verbs which may be construed with an infinitive or a participle, $\rightarrow 52.22-7$.

51.29 γιγνώσκω:

- with a declarative inf. = *judge that* (verb of opinion);
- with a dynamic inf. = resolve to, decide to (desiderative verb):
- (68) <u>ἔγνωσαν</u> οἱ παραγενόμενοι Σπαρτιητέων Ἀριστόδημον . . . ἔργα <u>ἀποδέξασθαι</u> μεγάλα. (Hdt. 9.71.3)
 - The Spartiates that were there judged that Aristodemus had achieved great feats. Declarative aorist infinitive; corresponding direct speech: $\dot{\alpha}\pi\epsilon\delta\dot{\epsilon}\xi\alpha\tau o$.
- (69) οἱ δὲ Κυμαῖοι ἔγνωσαν συμβουλῆς πέρι ἐς θεὸν ἀνοῖσαι τὸν ἐν Βραγχίδησι. (Hdt. 1.157.3)

The Cymaeans resolved to appeal to the god at Branchidae as to what counsel they should take. *Dynamic aorist infinitive*.

Note 1: For γιγνώσκω + ppl. *realize that* (and other possible constructions), →52.24 n.2.

51.30 δοκέω:

- as an impersonal verb (δοκεῖ/ἔδοξε/δέδοκται), with a dynamic infinitive (and a dative complement) = it seems good to (someone) to (do something) > it is resolved/decided; someone (dat.) decides to (do something) (desiderative verb);
- as a verb with personal forms (e.g. δοκῶ), with a declarative infinitive (and a dative complement) = seem (to someone) to > someone thinks that . . . (verb of (engendering) belief);
- as a verb with personal forms (e.g. δοκῶ), with a declarative (accusative and) infinitive = think, deem (verb of belief):
- (70) τοῖσι δὲ στρατηγοῖσι ἐπιλεξαμένοισι τὸ βυβλίον ... ἔδοξε μἡ καταπλῆξαι Τιμόξεινον προδοσίη. (Hdt. 8.128.3)

- (71) εἰ μὲν ὅσιὰ σοι παθεῖν δοκῶ ... (Eur. Hec. 788)
 If you think that I (lit. 'if I seem to you to') have experienced things that are sanctioned by the gods ... Personal form with a dative complement and a declarative infinitive. Corresponding direct speech: ἔπαθον.
- (72) ..., πην ἐγώ ... | οὐκ ἄν ποτ' ἐς τοσοῦτον αἰκίας πεσεῖν | ἔδοξ'. (Soph. OC 747–9)
 - ..., of whom I thought that she could never fall to such a depth of misery. ἔδοξ(α) is a personal form with a declarative accusative-and-infinitive. Corresponding direct speech: οὐκ ἄν πέσοι. Note the negative οὐκ and the use of ἄν (potential). For the relative pronoun τήν, $\rightarrow 28.31$.
- 51.31 ἐλπίζω hope, expect, ὑπισχνέομαι promise and ὅμνυμι swear, state under oath are followed:
 - regularly, by a declarative infinitive most often with the future infinitive:
 ἐλπίζω = expect that (verb of belief), ὑπισχνέομαι = promise that (declarative utterance verb), ὄμνυμι = swear that (declarative utterance verb);
 - sometimes, by a dynamic infinitive only when the subjects of the infinitive and matrix verb are co-referential (\rightarrow 51.10): ἐλπίζω = *expect*, *plan to* (desiderative verb), ὑπισχνέομαι = *promise to* (desiderative/manipulative verb), ὄμνυμι = *swear to* (desiderative/manipulative verb).

Either way, the infinitive with these verbs always has negative μή:

- (73) ... ἐλπίζων τὸν θεὸν μᾶλλόν τι τούτοισι ἀνακτήσεσθαι. (Hdt. 1.50.1)
 ... expecting that with such things he would win the god over even more.
 Declarative future infinitive.
- (74) τὸ Ῥἡγιον ἤλπιζον πεζῆ τε καὶ ναυσὶν ἐφορμοῦντες ῥαδίως χειρώσασθαι. (Thuc. 4.24.4)
 - They expected to capture Rhegium without difficulty, investing it both by land and by sea. *Dynamic agrist infinitive*.
- (75) <u>ὑπισχνοῦντο μηδὲν</u> χαλεπὸν αὐτοὺς <u>πείσεσθαι</u>. (Xen. Hell. 4.4.5)

 They promised that they would suffer no harm. Declarative future infinitive; note the negative.

Note 1: Observe that if such a verb is followed by an accusative-and-infinitive construction, it must be interpreted as a declarative infinitive:

- (76) ὅμνυσιν ... | μὴ πώποτ' ἀμείνον' ἔπη τούτων κωμώδικὰ μηδέν' ἀκοῦσαι (Ar. Vesp. 1046-7)
 He swears ... that no one has ever heard any comic poetry better than that. Declarative aorist infinitive.
- 51.32 Several **verbs of speaking** (i.e. declarative utterance verbs), especially λέγω/εἶπον, but normally not φημί, can also be construed as **verbs of commanding** (i.e.

manipulative verbs) with a dynamic infinitive: thus $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ + declarative inf. or $\ddot{\delta} \tau \iota / \dot{\delta} \varsigma$ -clause = say that; $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$ + dat. + dynamic inf. = tell (someone) to.

- (77) τούτοις ἔλεγον πλεῖν τὴν ταχίστην ἐφ' Ἑλλησπόντου. (Dem. 19.150)
 I told them to sail for the Hellespont as quickly as possible.
- (78) εἶπον μηδένα τῶν ὅπισθεν κινεῖσθαι. (Xen. Cyr. 2.2.8)
 I gave instructions that no one of those behind should make a move. μηδένα (note the negative with a dynamic infinitive) is subject-accusative of κινεῖσθαι (the person to whom the command was addressed would have been expressed in the dative).

To this group also belongs $\pi\epsilon i\theta\omega$ + acc. + declarative (accusative and) infinitive = convince someone that (something is the case) (declarative utterance verb); $\pi\epsilon i\theta\omega$ + acc. + dynamic infinitive = persuade someone to (do something) (manipulative verb):

(79) οἱ δὲ τοῦ δήμου προστάται πείθουσιν αὐτὸν πέντε μὲν ναῦς τῶν αὐτοῦ σφίσι καταλιπεῖν ..., ἴσας δὲ αὐτοὶ πληρώσαντες ἐκ σφῶν αὐτῶν ξυμπέμψειν. (Thuc. 3.75.2)

The leaders of the people persuaded him to leave them five of his ships and they convinced him that they on their part would man and send with him an equal number of their own ships. In this unusual example, $\pi \epsilon i\theta o u \sigma i v$ is followed first by a dynamic infinitive ($\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha \lambda i \pi \epsilon i v$), and then immediately by a declarative (nominative-plus-)infinitive ($\alpha \dot{u} \tau o \dot{i} \dots \xi u \mu \pi \dot{e} \mu \psi \epsilon i v$; corresponding direct speech: $\xi u \mu \pi \dot{e} \mu \psi o \mu \epsilon v$).

- 51.33 μέλλω be about/going/likely to, plan to, wait to, delay may be construed with:
 - a future infinitive (very regularly):
 - (80) μέλλω ... ὑμᾶς διδάξειν ὅθεν μοι ἡ διαβολὴ γέγονεν. (Pl. Ap. 21b)
 I am going to tell you what the source of the prejudice against me is.
 - (81) Σοφοκλέα δὲ ... ἐπὶ τῶν πλειόνων νεῶν ἀποπέμψειν ἔμελλον. (Thuc. 3.115.5) As for Sophocles, they were going to send him out with the main body of the fleet.
 - a dynamic infinitive (μέλλω + pres. inf. is common, and means be about to;
 μέλλω + aor. inf. is rare, and normally has a connotation of inevitability be doomed to):
 - (82) Σκόπει δὲ ὂ μέλλω λέγειν. :: Λέγε, ἔφη. (Pl. Resp. 473c)
 'Examine what I am about to say.' :: 'Go ahead and speak,' he said.
 - (83) καὶ ἐν τῷ παρόντι καιρῷ, ὡς ἤδη ἔμελλον μετὰ κινδύνων ἀλλήλους ἀπολιπεῖν, μᾶλλον αὐτοὺς ἐσήει τὰ δεινὰ ἢ ὅτε ἐψηφίζοντο πλεῖν. (Thuc. 6.31.1)

 And in the present moment, when they were set to leave each other amidst their dangers, the magnitude of it entered upon them more than when they had been voting to sail.

The Infinitive with Verbs of Preventing and Denying

51.34 Some common verbs meaning 'prevent', 'hinder', 'forbid', 'abstain from', etc. and verbs meaning 'dispute', 'deny', etc. are:

Preventing/hindering/abstaining/etc. Denying/disputing/etc.

ἀναβάλλομαι delay ἀντιλέγω/ἀντεῖπον contradict, dispute

ἀπαγορεύω forbid ἀμφισβητέω dispute ἀπεῖπον (no present) forbid (ἀπ-/ἐξ-/κατ-)ἀρνέομαι deny ἀπέχομαι refrain/abstain from ἔξαρνός εἰμι deny

ἀπέχω prevent

εἴργω prevent, cut off from

οὐκ ἐάω forbid φυλάττομαι beware of

Note 1: For κωλύω prevent, hinder and παύω prevent, hinder, \rightarrow 51.36 n.1.

Note 2: Another common construction meaning 'deny' is ou $\varphi\eta\mu$ 1 say that not, deny that $(\rightarrow 51.24 \text{ n.1})$; this is, however, not construed according to the rules given below, but always with a declarative (accusative and) infinitive.

- The most common construction with such verbs is $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + infinitive (verbs of preventing, hindering, etc.: + dynamic infinitive; verbs of denying, etc.: + declarative infinitive). The negative in Greek conveys the 'not-occurring' of the action (in being prevented or denied); in English translation, $\mu\dot{\eta}$ normally cannot be translated as a negative:
 - (84) ἀλλ' ἀπαγορεύω μή ποιεῖν ἐκκλησίαν | τοῖς Θραξὶ περὶ μισθοῦ. (Ar. Ach. 169-70) But I forbid having a meeting of parliament about paying wages to the Thracians. Dynamic infinitive.
 - (85) τὸν νοῦν τ' ἀπείργει μὴ λέγειν ἃ βούλεται. (Eur. fr. 88a Kannicht)
 He prevents his mind from speaking what it wants. *Dynamic infinitive*.
 - (86) φής, ἢ καταρνῆ μὴ δεδρακέναι τάδε; (Soph. Ant. 442)
 Do you admit or do you deny that you are responsible for these acts?
 Declarative infinitive.

When a verb of preventing, hindering or denying **is itself negated**, it is followed by $\mu\dot{\eta}$ où (neither negative can be translated as such):

- (87) οὐκ ἄν ποτ' ἔσχον μὴ οὐ τάδ' ἐξειπεῖν πατρί. (Eur. Hipp. 658)
 I would never have refrained from divulging this to my father. Dynamic infinitive; negated verb of preventing.
- (88) τῶν δὲ φρατέρων <u>οὐδεὶς ἀντεῖπεν</u> οὐδ' <u>ἠμφεσβήτησε μὴ οὐκ</u> ἀληθῆ ταῦτα <u>εἶναι</u>. (Isae. 8.19)

No one of the phratry denied or disputed that these things were true. Declarative infinitive; negated verb of denying.

- 51.36 Some other constructions that are more or less common with such verbs:
 - τὸ μή + infinitive, or, when the matrix verb itself is negated, τὸ μἡ οὐ + inf. (for the article, →51.38–9):
 - (89) καὶ ἡμῶν οἱ πολλοὶ . . . οἶοἱ τε ἦσαν κατέχειν τὸ μὴ δακρύειν, ὡς δὲ . . . (Pl. Phd. 117c)
 - And most of us had been able to refrain from crying, but when ...
 - (90) ἐκόμπασε, | μηδ' ἄν τὸ σεμνὸν πῦρ νιν εἰργαθεῖν Διὸς | τὸ μὴ οὐ . . . ἑλεῖν πόλιν. (Eur. Phoen. 1174–6)
 - He boasted that not even the holy flame of Zeus could prevent him from taking the city.
 - similarly, in the genitive, τοῦ μή or τοῦ μἡ oὐ + inf.:
 - (91) πᾶς γὰρ ἀσκὸς δύ' ἄνδρας <u>ἕξει τοῦ μὴ καταδῦναι</u>. (Xen. An. 3.5.11) For each wineskin will prevent two men from going under.
 - sometimes, with ωστε μή + inf.:
 - (92) εὶ μέλλοιμεν τούτους <u>εἴργειν ὥστε μὴ δύνασθαι</u> βλάπτειν ἡμᾶς πορευομένους . . . (Xen. An. 3.3.16)
 - If we should plan to prevent them from being able (lit. 'so that they are unable') to harm us on our way ... For the redundant use of $\omega \sigma \tau \varepsilon$, $\rightarrow 51.17$.
 - sometimes, with a **bare infinitive** (i.e. without $\mu \dot{\eta}$):
 - (93) ὀλίγους ἐπὶ Ὁλύνθου ἀποπέμπουσιν, ὅπως εἴργωσι τοὺς ἐκεῖθεν ἐπιβοηθεῖν. (Thuc. 1.62.4)
 - They sent a few men to Olynthus, to prevent the people there from coming to aid.

Note 1: The verbs κωλύω prevent, hinder and παύω prevent, hinder are usually construed with a bare infinitive – observe that παύω is much more frequently construed as a 'phase' verb with a participle (make someone stop doing something; \rightarrow 52.9):

- (94) χάριν δὲ δοῦναι τήνδε κωλύει τί σε; (Eur. IT 507)
 What hinders you from giving me this favour?
- (95) ἡαψῳδοὺς ἔπαυσε ἐν Σικυῶνι ἀγωνίζεσθαι τῶν Ὁμηρείων ἐπέων εἵνεκα. (Hdt. 5.67.1)

 He prevented rhapsodes from holding contests at Sicyon because of the Homeric poems.

The Construction of Verbs of Hindering/Preventing with Other Verbs

51.37 Several verbs (or nouns/adjectives), which are by themselves **not verbs of hindering or preventing**, have meanings very similar to such verbs when followed by μή + dynamic infinitive: e.g. δύναμαι μή + inf. be able not to is similar in sense to abstain from. Accordingly, there is a great deal of overlap between the construction of verbs of hindering/denying and other verbs followed by μή.

In particular, when such a matrix verb is itself **negated**, the negative with the dynamic infinitive is frequently $\mu\dot{\eta}$ où (one of these negatives must often be translated):

- (96) οὐδεὶς οἶός τ' ἐστὶν ἄλλως λέγων μὴ οὐ καταγέλαστος εἶναι. (Pl. *Grg.* 509a) No one is able not to sound ridiculous when claiming otherwise.
- (97) ἐγώ μὲν δἡ κατανοῶν τοῦ ἀνδρὸς τήν τε σοφίαν καὶ τὴν γενναιότητα οὔτε μἡ μεμνῆσθαι δύναμαι αὐτοῦ οὔτε μεμνημένος μἡ οὐκ ἐπαινεῖν. (Xen. Ap. 34)

 When I consider the man's wisdom and nobility, I cannot help but remember him, and praise him when I remember him (lit. 'I am not able not to praise him').

Note 1: The use of $\mu\dot{\eta}$ où in such cases is by no means consistent: bare $\mu\dot{\eta}$ is often found after a negated matrix verb:

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    (98) οὔτοι μὰ τὴν Δήμητρα δύναμαι μὴ γελᾶν. (Ar. Ran. 42)
    By Demeter, I can't help laughing (lit. 'I am not able not to laugh')!
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Also note μή μεμνῆσθαι (not μή οὐ μεμνῆσθαι) in (97).

Note 2: The alternative constructions given above also occur, e.g. τὸ μὴ οὐ:

(99) κοὐδείς γέ μ' ἄν πείσειεν ἀνθρώπων τὸ μὴ οὐκ | ἐλθεῖν ἐπ' ἐκεῖνον. (Ar. Ran. 68-9)
And no one could persuade me not to go to him.

The Articular Infinitive

Introduction

51.38 The neuter singular article, functioning as a 'substantivizer' (\rightarrow 28.23–5), may be added to an infinitive, turning it, together with its complements/modifiers, into (the head of) a noun phrase. This is called the **articular infinitive**.

The articular infinitive can appear in any case, but only the article changes form: e.g. τὸ παιδεύειν, τοῦ παιδεύειν, τὸ παιδεύειν.

Note 1: The articular infinitive is often best translated into English by a gerund, e.g. $\tau \dot{o}$ $\pi \alpha i \delta \epsilon \dot{\upsilon} \epsilon i \nu$ educating. For other possible translations, see of the examples below.

Note 2: Articular infinitives, although substantivized, retain all their **verbal characteristics**. For instance:

- they have voice and tense-aspect; for details, $\rightarrow 51.44-5$;
- they can take objects/complements in the case normally required by the verb: contrast e.g.
 τὸ παῖδας παιδεύειν educating children (object, acc.) with ἡ παίδων παίδευσις the education of children (objective gen.); for the expression of subjects with articular infinitives, →51.
 40-1;
- they can be modified by adverbs: e.g. τὸ καλῶς παιδεύειν educating well.

- 51.39 The articular infinitive can be used like any other noun phrase, i.e. as a subject, object, or complement of verbs; as an attributive modifier (in the genitive); to complement prepositions; etc. For example:
 - (100) οὐκ ἄρα <u>τὸ χαίρειν</u> ἐστὶν εὖ πράττειν. (Pl. *Grg.* 497a)
 So enjoying oneself is not to fare well. *Nominative as subject of ἐστιν*.
 - (101) ... τὸ ζῆν περὶ πλείονος ποιησάμενοι τοῦ καλῶς ἀποθανεῖν. (Andoc. 1.57) ... placing a higher value on living than on dying well. τὸ ζῆν is accusative as object of ποιησάμενοι, τοῦ ... ἀποθανεῖν genitive of comparison after πλείονος.
 - (102) πολλά δ' ἄν τις ἔχοι ... ἐπιδεικνύναι σημεῖα τοῦ τοῦτον συκοφαντεῖν. (Dem. 36.12)
 One could show many proofs that this man is committing slander. Accusative-and-infinitive construction (→51.41) in the genitive, as attributive modifier of σημεῖα.
 - (103) οὐ λίαν ἔγωγε μέγα ἔργον εἶναι νομίζω τὸ κατηγορεῖν. (Aeschin. 1.44)
 I do not consider the accusation to be too great a task. Accusative as subject of εἶναι.

For an overview of some particularly frequent uses of the articular infinitive, \rightarrow 51.46.

Expression of Subjects with Articular Infinitives

- 51.40 Articular infinitives are regularly expressed without a subject:
 - to refer to an action in general (i.e. when no specific subject is intended): cf. examples (100), (101) and (103) above;
 - when the subject of the infinitive is identical to a constituent of the matrix clause (typically the subject):
 - (104) καὶ τὴν Θέτιν γ' ἔγημε διὰ τὸ σωφρονεῖν ὁ Πηλεύς. (Ar. Nub. 1067)
 And Peleus married Thetis on account of his being prudent. Peleus (the subject of the matrix clause) is understood as the subject of σωφρονεῖν.

In this case any predicative modifiers/complements take the case of the relevant constituent in the matrix clause (typically the nominative):

- (105) ἐκ <u>τοῦ πρότερος λέγειν</u> ὁ διώκων ἰσχύει. (Dem. 18.7)

 The prosecutor is strong due to his being the first to speak. *Nominative* πρότερος agrees with ὁ διώκων.
- In some cases the **infinitive has its own subject**, which is expressed in the accusative (**accusative-and-infinitive construction**); any predicative modifiers/complements naturally also occur in the accusative:

(106) ηὕρισκον οὐδὲν μεῖον Λακεδαιμονίοις ἢ σφίσιν ἀγαθὸν τὸ ἀρκάδας μὴ προσδεῖσθαι Θηβαίων. (Xen. Hell. 7.4.2)

They found that it was no less a benefit for the Spartans than for themselves that the Arcadians should not require the help of the Thebans.

The accusative Άρκάδας is subject of προσδεῖσθαι. For σφίσιν, $\rightarrow 29.18$.

(107) καὶ ἐπιδεδείχθω ... χαλεπὸν ὂν τὸ πόλιν εὔνομον γίγνεσθαι. (Pl. Leg. 712a) And let it count as proven that it is difficult for a city to become well-governed. The accusative πόλιν is subject of γίγνεσθαι, the predicative complement εὔνομον agrees with πόλιν (εὔνομος is of two endings, →5.7-10).

Negative with the Articular Infinitive

- 51.42 The **negative** with the articular infinitive is $\mu \dot{\eta}$:
 - (108) τὸ μὴ κακῶς φρονεῖν | θεοῦ μέγιστον δῶρον. (Aesch. Ag. 927-8)

 Not to have one's mind go astray is the greatest gift from the god.
 - (109) ... τοῦ μὴ λύειν ἕνεκα τὰς σπονδάς. (Thuc. 1.45.3)
 ... for the sake of not breaking the treaty.
- 51.43 For τὸ μἡ (οὐ) + inf. and τοῦ μἡ (οὐ) + inf. after verbs of preventing, hindering or denying, →51.36.

Tense and Aspect of Articular Infinitives

prosperous . . .

- In the articular use, like in the dynamic use, the difference between present and aorist infinitives is often **purely aspectual**:
 - (110) ... εἰδότες ... ἐν τῷ ποιῆσαι τὴν πόλιν εὐδαίμονα τοὺς χρηστοὺς τῶν πονηρῶν διαφέροντας ... (Isoc. 8.122)
 ... knowing that good (leaders) differ from bad ones in making the city
 - (111) τίς οὐκ οἶδε ... τοὺς μὲν δημοτικοὺς καλουμένους έτοίμους ὄντας ὁτιοῦν πάσχειν ὑπὲρ τοῦ μἡ ποιεῖν τὸ προσταττόμενον. (Isoc. 7.64)

 Who is unaware that 'the people's party', as it was called, was ready to suffer anything for the sake of not doing what was ordered?
 - In (110), $\tau \tilde{\varphi} \pi o i \tilde{\eta} \sigma \alpha i$ (aor.) expresses the action of making the city prosperous as a complete whole (i.e. without reference to its process); the overall evaluation of good leadership depends on leaders having this trait or not. In (111), $\dot{\upsilon} \pi \dot{\epsilon} \rho \tau o \tilde{\upsilon} \dots \pi o i \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{\upsilon}$ (pres.) expresses an ongoing, consistent posture of defiance.
- However, when an articular infinitive is used to refer to an action which is actually taking place or has actually taken place (at a specific time and place), the tense-aspect stem of the infinitive often also leads to an interpretation of **relative tense** (\rightarrow 33.57):

- the aorist infinitive typically expresses actions anterior to the action of the matrix clause;
- the present infinitive typically expresses actions simultaneous with the matrix clause:
- (112) ... τὸ τῶν παρθένων ... μνῆμα, αι λέγονται διὰ τὸ βιασθῆναι ὑπὸ Λακεδαιμονίων τινῶν ἀποκτεῖναι ἑαυτάς. (Xen. Hell. 6.4.7) ... the memorial for the maidens, of whom it is said that they killed themselves on account of their having been raped by some Spartans. The aorist infinitive in τὸ βιασθῆναι refers to an action preceding the maidens' suicide.
- (113) οὐχ οἶόν τ' ἐστὶν εἰπεῖν τοῦτον τὸν λόγον, ὡς ἡμεῖς μὲν διὰ τὸ δημοκρατεῖσθαι κακῶς ἐχρησάμεθα τοῖς πράγμασιν. (Isoc. 8.95)

 The following claim cannot be made, that we managed our affairs poorly on account of our having a democratic constitution. The present infinitive in τὸ δημοκρατεῖσθαι refers to an ongoing form of government, simultaneous with ἐχρησάμεθα.

Frequent Uses of the Articular Infinitive

- 51.46 The articular infinitive, as noted above, can be used like any other noun phrase (as subject, object, etc.). It occurs particularly often in the following uses:
 - the dative of the articular infinitive and διὰ τό + infinitive are frequently used as instrumental or causal modifiers:
 - (114) τὴν ἄνοιαν εὖ φέρειν | τῷ σωφρονεῖν νικῶσα προυνοησάμην. (Eur. $\it Hipp.$ 398–9)
 - My intention was to bear this madness nobly, overcoming it by means of self-control.
 - (115) χαλεπῶς δὲ αὐτοῖς διὰ τὸ αἰεὶ εἰωθέναι τοὺς πολλοὺς ἐν τοῖς ἀγροῖς διαιτᾶσθαι ἡ ἀνάστασις ἐγίγνετο. (Thuc. 2.14.2)

 But because most of them had been used to living in the fields, their evacuation grieved them.
 - the genitive of the articular infinitive, especially with the negative (i.e. τοῦ μἡ + inf.), is sometimes used with purpose value:
 - (116) ἐτειχίσθη δὲ καὶ ἀταλάντη ... τοῦ μὴ ληστάς ... κακουργεῖν τὴν Εὔβοιαν. (Thuc. 2.32)
 - Atalanta, too, was fortified, so that pirates could not plunder Euboea.
 - for τὸ μἡ (οὐ) + inf. and τοῦ μἡ (οὐ) + inf. after verbs of preventing, hindering or denying, →51.36.

Other Uses of the Infinitive

The infinitive is occasionally used independently in **commands** (the **imperatival** infinitive):

(117) σὺ δέ μοι ἐπὶ τὴν Ἑλλάδα <u>στρατεύεσθαι</u>. (Hdt. 3.134.5) You must undertake an expedition against Greece.

For details, \rightarrow 38.37.

51.48 The infinitive is infrequently used in **exclamations**:

(118) τῆς μωρίας, | τὸν Δία νομίζειν ὄντα τηλικουτονί. (Ar. Nub. 818–19)
 What madness! To believe in Zeus, at your age!

For details, \rightarrow 38.51.

51.49 Finally, the infinitive is used in some **idiomatic expressions**, for instance:

ώς (ἔπος) εἰπεῖν so to say, if I may use this expression, as it were,

practically (often with forms of $\pi \tilde{\alpha}_{5}$, 'practically

everyone', οὐδείς, 'practically no one')

(ώς) συνελόντι εἰπεῖν in short, to be brief, to cut to the chase, if I may be

brief

τὸ σύμπαν <u>εἰπεῖν</u> in short, in any case ὀλίγου <u>δεῖν</u> almost, practically ἐμοὶ δοκεῖν it seems to me

ώς εἰκάσαι it seems/appears, so far as one might guess

έκὢν εἶναι voluntarily, willingly, intentionally

τὸ νῦν εἶναι for the time being

In each of these expressions, the infinitive is used absolutely, i.e. not dependent on a verb, adjective, etc.:

- (119) ἔλαβε ἐκ θεοῦ νέμεσις μεγάλη Κροῖσον, $\underline{\dot{\omega}_{\text{S}}}$ εἰκάσαι, ὅτι ἐνόμισε ἑωυτὸν εἶναι ἀνθρώπων ἁπάντων ὀλβιώτατον. (Hdt. 1.34.1)
 - A great vengeance from the god fell on Croesus, so far as one might guess, because he considered himself to be most blessed of all men.
- (120) πέπεισμαι ἐγὼ <u>ἑκὼν εἶναι</u> μηδένα ἀδικεῖν ἀνθρώπων. (Pl. Ap. 37a)

 I am convinced that I do not wrong anyone intentionally.

The Participle

Introduction

Basic Properties; Main Uses

- 52.1 Participles are **verbal adjectives**:
 - they are like adjectives in that they are marked for case, number and gender, and follow the rules of agreement (\rightarrow 27.7);
 - they are like verbs in that they are marked for tense-aspect and voice, and may be construed with an object, complement, etc.; modified by adverbs; etc.

Note 1: For verbal adjectives in $-\tau \acute{o}_5$ or $-\tau \acute{e}_{05}$, $\rightarrow 37$.

- 52.2 The uses of participles may be grouped under three headings:
 - **Supplementary** (\rightarrow 52.8–28): the participle is used as an obligatory constituent with verbs:
 - (1) ὅλην ἀδικῶν φανήσεται τὴν πόλιν. (Dem. 24.29)

 He will prove to be doing wrong to the city as a whole. ὅλην ἀδικῶν . . . τὴν πόλιν is a complement of φανήσεται.
 - Circumstantial (→52.29-45): the participle is added as an optional constituent to clauses to express a circumstance, cause, condition, motivation, purpose, etc.
 It either agrees with a constituent of the clause (connected use) or is added with its own subject in the genitive (genitive absolute):
 - (2) φίλος ... ἐβούλετο εἶναι τοῖς μέγιστα δυναμένοις, ἵνα ἀδικῶν μἡ διδοίη δίκην. (Xen. An. 2.6.26)
 - He wanted to be friend those who yielded most power, so that he would not be punished if he did wrong. ἀδικῶν is a predicative modifier agreeing with the subject of διδοίη ('he'): it can be left out without making the clause ἵνα μὴ διδοίη δίκην ungrammatical. It expresses a condition ('if').
 - (3) αὐτοὶ δ' οὐ δύνανται ... ἡσυχίαν ἄγειν οὐδενὸς αὐτοὺς ἀδικοῦντος. (Dem. 8.67) They themselves cannot keep quiet, even though no one is wronging them. οὐδενὸς αὐτοὺς ἀδικοῦντος is an optional constituent added in the genitive absolute construction (for details, →52.32), expressing a concession ('even though').

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 Attributive/substantival (→52.46-50): the participle is used, normally with the article, in noun phrases, as modifier (attributive use) or head (substantival use):

- (4) ... βοηθεῖν ταῖς ἀδικουμέναις πόλεσι. (Xen. Hell. 6.3.18)
 ... to help the cities that were being wronged. Attributive: modifier with ταῖς πόλεσι.
- (5) τίμιος ... ό μηδὲν ἀδικῶν (Pl. Leg. 730d)
 The man who does no wrong is honourable. Substantival: used as head of a noun phrase.

Additionally, the participle is used in various **periphrastic constructions**. For these, \rightarrow 52.51-3 below.

Placement of Participles

- 52.3 Both circumstantial participles and supplementary participles occur in predicative position relative to any (head) noun with which they agree; attributive participles naturally occur in attributive position (→28.11):
 - (6) ὁρῶντες ... τοὺς ἑαυτῶν ἱππέας φεύγοντας (Xen. An. 4.3.23) seeing that their own cavalry was fleeing ... Supplementary participle, predicative position.
 - (7) οὔτε οἱ πεζοὶ τοὺς πεζοὺς ἐκ πολλοῦ φεύγοντας ἐδύναντο καταλαμβάνειν. (Xen. An. 3.3.9)
 - The infantry could not overtake the (enemy's) infantry either, because it had a head start in their flight. Circumstantial participle, predicative position.
 - (8) τοὺς δούλους παρέλυσεν | τοὺς φεύγοντας. (Ar. Pax 742-3)
 He cut loose the slaves who run away. Attributive participle, attributive position.

Tense/Aspect and 'Mood' of Participles

- 52.4 Each of the **tense-aspect stems** has its own participle: the difference between the stems is **aspectual** (except for the future stem). In the case of the participle, these aspectual differences lead to a **relative-tense interpretation** in a large majority of cases (→33.57):
 - The present participle typically expresses an action simultaneous with that of the matrix verb:
 - (9) ταῦτα γράφων ἔννομα . . . ἔγραψα. (Dem. 7.25)
 In writing those things I wrote things that were lawful.
 - The **aorist participle** usually expresses an action **anterior** to that of the matrix verb:

verb.

Socrates.' Ingressive interpretation.

- (10) κάν δέλτου πτυχαῖς | χράψας ἔπεμψα πρὸς δάμαρτα τὴν ἐμήν. (Eur. IA 98-9) After writing (a message) on a folded tablet, I sent it to my wife.
- The **perfect participle** typically refers to a **state** (or lasting effects), **simultaneous** with the matrix verb, resulting from a previously completed action:
- (11) ὑπανέγνω τὸ ψήφισμα ὁ γεγραφώς αὐτὸς ἦν. (Aeschin. 2.109)
 He read aloud the motion of which he himself was the author. Being the author of something is the state that results from writing it.
- The **future participle** always has a relative-tense interpretation, referring to an action **posterior** to that of the matrix verb:
- (12) οὐδέπω... δῆλος ἦν... ἐκεῖνος τοιαῦτα γράψων. (Dem. 19.236) It was not yet clear that that man was going to draft such proposals. For the use of the future participle to express purpose, →52.41.
- Although the relative-tense interpretation of the stems of the participle outlined above is usually valid, there are numerous exceptions. In such cases, a different interpretation of a certain tense-aspect stem takes precedence over (or is present in addition to) the conventional relative-tense interpretation:
 - The aorist participle is not infrequently used to refer to an action which does not precede, but coincides with the action of the matrix verb (so-called coincident aorist participle); the aorist is then used to refer to the action in its entirety (→33.6). This is especially frequent with circumstantial participles used as a modifier of manner (→52.42):
 - (13) Σόλων δὲ οὐδὲν ὑποθωπεύσας, ἀλλὰ τῷ ἐόντι χρησάμενος λέγει·... (Hdt. 1.30.3) But Solon, not flattering him in any way, but relying on the truth, said: ... The 'flattering' and 'truth-using' have not ended before Solon's utterance, but coincide with it.
 - (14) δοκεῖ μοί τις οὐκ ἄν άμαρτεῖν εἰπών ὅτι ... (Dem. 25.6)
 It seems to me that someone would not be mistaken in saying that ... εἰπών and (ἀν) άμαρτεῖν coincide.
 - (15) κτενῶ γὰρ αὐτὸν ... | ποινὰς ἀδελφῶν καὶ πατρὸς λαβοῦσ' ἐμοῦ. (Eur. Tro. 359-60)
 For I shall kill him, exacting revenge for my brothers and my father. λαβοῦσ(α) coincides with κτενῶ; the aorist participle here expresses the effect of the matrix
 - The aorist participle of atelic verbs may also have an ingressive or complexive interpretation (→33.29–30):
 - (16) καὶ ὁ Ἰσχόμαχος <u>γελάσας</u> εἶπεν· Ἀλλὰ παίζεις μὲν σύγε, ἔφη, ὧ Σώκρατες. (Xen. *Oec.* 17.10)

 And Ischomachus burst out laughing and said: 'But you're being playful,

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(17) τῶν δ' ἐμῶν προγόνων ἀκούω τὸν πρῶτον βασιλεύσαντα ὅμα τε βασιλέα καὶ ἐλεύθερον γενέσθαι. (Xen. Cyr. 7.2.24)

I am told that the first of my ancestors to have been king was both a king and a free man. Complexive interpretation: βασιλεύσαντα refers to the kingship in its entirety. An ingressive interpretation ('the first . . . to have become king') would also be possible.

- A present participle may be used to refer to an ongoing, habitual or repeated action (→33.11) preceding the action of the matrix verb; the present participle in such cases is sometimes called an 'imperfect participle'. An explicit indication of anteriority is usually present:
- (18) ... ὥστε φίλος ἡμῖν οὐδεὶς λελείψεται, ἀλλὰ καὶ οἱ πρόσθεν ὄντες πολέμιοι ἡμῖν ἔσονται. (Xen. An. 2.4.5)
 - ... so that we will have no friend left, but even those who were our friends before will be hostile to us. Attributive οντες is anterior to εσονται; this interpretation is forced by πρόσθεν.
- (19) οἱ Κορίνθιοι μέχρι τούτου προθύμως πράσσοντες ἀνεῖσαν τῆς φιλονικίας καὶ ἀρρώδησαν. (Thuc. 5.32.4)
 - The Corinthians, although they had acted with zeal up to this point, now slackened in their desire for victory and became anxious. $\pi \rho \acute{\alpha} \sigma \sigma o \nu \tau \epsilon \varsigma$ is anterior to ἀνεῖσαν and ἀρρώδησαν, as is made clear by μέχρι τούτου.
- (20) τὴν γὰρ χώραν οἱ αὐτοὶ αἰεὶ οἰκοῦντες διαδοχῆ τῶν ἐπιγιγνομένων μέχρι τοῦδε ἐλευθέραν δι' ἀρετὴν παρέδοσαν. (Thuc. 2.36.1)

 For those same people, who dwelt in the country continuously, passed it on in freedom, on account of their valour, handing it over from generation to generation until the present time. μέχρι τοῦδε makes it clear that οἱ οἰκοῦντες refers to several generations in the past; note the distributive use of αἰεί, referring to those who dwelt in the land on each given occasion.
- Present participles of telic verbs may also have a conative interpretation, or an interpretation as a resultative present (→33.17-18):
- (21) ἐμοῦ τ' ἐκδιδόντος τὸν παῖδα ... βασανίζειν ... οὐκ ἠθέλησε παραλαβεῖν. (Dem. 29.18)
 - And when I offered my slave for torture, he did not want to accept him. Conative interpretation: the speaker attempts to give up his slave but is rebuffed.
- (22) ἐπειδἡ ἔμαθε ἀπολωλότας τοὺς Πέρσας καὶ <u>νικῶντας</u> τοὺς ελληνας, ... (Hdt. 9.76.1)
 - When she learned that the Persians had perished and that the Greeks had won, . . . Resultative present; note that νιμῶντας is used in conjunction with the perfect participle ἀπολωλότας.
- For the aspectual values of supplementary participles following verbs of perception, →52.18-21.

- Just as the tense expressed by a participle is, as outlined above, normally relative to the matrix verb, the **modality** (in a broad sense) of a participle is also usually (if not always) relative to the matrix verb:
 - (23) ἰδού· λαβών ἔκπιθι καὶ μηδὲν λίπης. (Eur. Cyc. 570)
 Here you go: take it and drink up, and don't leave anything. The matrix verb is an imperative, and the 'mood' expressed by the circumstantial participle λαβών depends on it: λαβών is part of the command. For the translation with a main verb (in this case an imperative), cf. (99) below.
 - (24) μἡ οὖν ὕστερον τοῦτο γνῶτε, ἀναίτιόν με ὄντα ἀπολέσαντες. (Antiph. 5.71)
 Do not, then, discover later that you have destroyed me even though I was innocent.
 ἀπολέσαντες is supplementary to μἡ γνῶτε, and as such expresses a hypothetical discovery,
 one which the speaker implores the judges not to have to make. When he says this, the judges have obviously not 'destroyed' him yet by returning a guilty verdict.

Also cf. (29) and (109) below.

ἄν with Participles

- The participle (in any of its uses) may be **joined with** $\alpha \nu$, and then has the force either of a potential optative (\rightarrow 34.13) or a counterfactual indicative (\rightarrow 34.16):
 - (25) καὶ ὁρῶν τὸ παρατείχισμα τῶν Συρακοσίων ... ἡαδίως ἄν ... ληφθέν ... (Thuc. 7.42.4) And seeing that the fortification of the Syracusans might easily be taken ... ἄν ληφθέν is supplementary with ὁρῶν, and represents ληφθείη ἄν (potential opt. + ἄν). For more on supplementary participles + ἄν, → 52.10 n.1.
 - (26) Ποτείδαιαν ... έλών καὶ <u>δυνηθεὶς</u> <u>ἄν</u> αὐτὸς ἔχειν, εἴπερ ἐβουλήθη, παρέδωκεν. (Dem. 23.107)
 - Having taken Potidaea, and even though he would have been able to keep it by himself, had he wanted to, he gave it up. $\delta \nu \eta \theta \epsilon i s$ δv is circumstantial, and represents $\delta \delta \nu \eta \theta \eta$ δv (counterfactual ind. + δv).

The Supplementary Participle

Introduction; Verbs Taking a Supplementary Participle

- 52.8 The use of the supplementary participle can be broadly divided into three categories:
 - to complement verbs expressing direct sensory perception ('see', 'hear'), verbs expressing some phase of an action ('begin', 'continue', 'stop') and verbs meaning to 'endure', 'persist', etc.;
 - to complement verbs meaning 'know', 'recognize', 'make clear', etc. and verbs that express an emotional state ('be glad', 'regret', etc.);
 - to complement a few verbs that express a certain manner of being or acting
 (τυγχάνω happen to, λανθάνω be hidden, φθάνω anticipate).

The supplementary participles with the first and second of these groups are different in nature (\rightarrow 51.3 for a similar distinction between the dynamic and declarative infinitive):

- with the first group, the participle expresses an **action**, the realization of which is seen, heard, stopped, begun, endured, etc.;
- with the second group, the participle expresses the **propositional content** of someone's **knowledge of, or emotional response to, an action**.

All supplementary participles have in common that they specify that the action is actually realized or that the propositional content is true:

- (27) καὶ τῶν τις Σκυθέων . . . ἐσήμηνε τῷ βασιλέϊ Σαυλίῳ· ὁ δὲ καὶ αὐτὸς ἀπικόμενος ὡς εἶδε τὸν ἀνάχαρσιν ποιεῦντα ταῦτα, τοξεύσας αὐτὸν ἀπέκτεινε. (Hdt. 4.76.5)
 - One of the Scythians told the king, Saulius. And when he came to the scene in person and saw Anacharsis doing this, he shot and killed him. $\pi o \iota \epsilon \tilde{\nu} v \tau \alpha$ refers to an action actually taking place, which is perceived visually by Saulius when he arrives on the scene.
- (28) μάγους μὲν γὰρ ἀτρεκέως <u>οἶδα</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιέοντας</u>· ἐμφανέως γὰρ δὴ ποιεῦσι. (Hdt. 1.140.2)
 - I know with certainty that the Magi do this. For they do it out in the open. π oiéov $\tau \alpha_S$ expresses the content of Herodotus' knowledge, which he presents as fact.

Note 1: The participle differs in this respect from dynamic and declarative infinitives, which do not specify the actions they express as realized or the propositional content they express as true (\rightarrow 51.3).

Note 2: Some verbs may be complemented by both kinds of participle; the difference in complement corresponds to a difference in meaning of the matrix verb. For details, $\rightarrow 52.18-20$.

Note 3: The factuality expressed by a participle may (but need not) be cancelled if the matrix verb itself is not realized, counterfactual, etc. (for this modal dependency, \rightarrow 52.6):

- (29) καὶ ἡμῖν γ' ἄν οἶδ' ὅτι τρισάσμενος ταῦτ' ἐποίει, εἰ ξώρα ἡμᾶς μένειν κατασκευαζομένους. (Xen. An. 3.2.24)
 - And, surely, he would be three times more willing to do these things for us, if he saw us make preparations to stay. The speaker, using a counterfactual conditional (\rightarrow 49.10), imagines what would happen if the Persian king saw the Greeks making preparations to settle in the king's country. The king is not described as actually seeing anything, nor, as the previous context shows, are the Greeks actually making preparations to stay.
- (30) Κῦρος δὲ αὐτός ... ἀπέθανε ... οὐ ... ἤδεσαν αὐτόν τεθνηκότα. (Xen. An. 1.8.27, 1.10.16) And Cyrus himself perished ... They did not know that he was dead. Xenophon first reports that Cyrus is among the fallen of the battle of Cunaxa; several sections later he mentions that some of his soldiers did not know that Cyrus had died. The factuality of the participle τεθνηκότα is not affected by the negation of ἤδεσαν.

Verbs Taking a Supplementary Participle which Expresses an Action which is Realized

- 52.9 With the following verbs, a supplementary participle expresses an action which is realized:
 - verbs of direct sensory perception the subject perceives an action occurring (almost exclusively with pres. ppl.):

αἰσθάνομαι perceive, hear (+ gen.), see (+ acc.; \rightarrow 52.20)

ἀκούω hear (+ gen.; \rightarrow 52.14)

όράω see

πυνθάνομαι perceive, hear, see

so-called **phase verbs** – the verb expresses some phase of the action (beginning, continuation or end), e.g. (only with pres. ppl.):

ἄρχομαι begin

διατελέω continue, go on λήγω stop, cease

παύω stop (someone (acc.) from doing something)

παύομαι stop, cease

To this category also belong verbs meaning endure, persist, allow, give up:

ἀνέχομαι endure, bear ἀπαγορεύω give up

ἀπεῖπον (no present) get tired of, fail to

περιοράω allow, permit, stand idly by while

- (31) <u>ὁρῶ</u> γὰρ αὐτὸν πρὸς δόμους <u>στείχοντ'</u> ἐμούς. (Eur. *Phoen.* 696) For I see him coming to my halls. *Verb of sensory perception*.
- (32) ὁ νόμος οὖτος διατελέει ἐὼν ὅμοιος τὸ μέχρι ἐμεῦ ἀπ' ἀρχῆς. (Hdt. 2.113.3)
 This law has continued to be the same from its beginning to my time. Phase verb.
- (33) μόνον δή τὸ αύτὸ κινοῦν, ἄτε οὐκ ἀπολεῖπον ἑαυτό, οὔποτε <u>λήγει</u> κινούμενον. (Pl. *Phdr*. 245c)
 - Only that which moves itself, given that it never leaves itself, never ceases to move. *Phase verb*.
- (34) νῦν δ' οὖν οὔ σε περιόψομαι | γυμνὸν ἄνθ' οὕτως. (Ar. Lys. 1019–20)
 But right now, I won't permit you to be naked like this. Verb in the group 'endure', etc.

Note 1: Verbs of perception are also often used as verbs of knowledge: \rightarrow 52.18–19.

Verbs Taking a Supplementary Participle which Expresses Propositional Content

- 52.10 With the following verbs, the supplementary participle expresses the propositional content of someone's knowledge of, or emotional reaction to, an action:
 - verbs of intellectual knowledge the subject learns, discovers, knows or understands that something is the case:

οἶδα know that ἐπίσταμαι understand that

γιγνώσκω know that, recognize that, realize that, find that

μανθάνω learn that μέμνημαι remember that

αἰσθάνομαι learn that, find that, become aware of the fact that (+ acc.,

 $\rightarrow 52.20$)

ἀκούω learn (by being told) that (+ acc., →52.19)

όράω see that, acknowledge that

πυνθάνομαι learn that, realize that, be told that

To this category also belong verbs meaning make it clear that, it is clear that, be clear: the subject in this case conveys knowledge that something is the case:

ἀγγέλλω report that (for ἀγγέλλω + inf., →52.25)

δείκνυμι make it clear that

δῆλός εἰμι be clearly, it is clear that I am (doing something)

φαίνομαι be clearly, be obviously, prove/turn out to be (doing

something)

φανερός είμι be clearly, it is clear that I am (doing something)

- Verbs expressing an **emotional state** - the subject has a certain emotional attitude to the fact that something is the case:

αἰσχύνομαι be ashamed that

ἄχθομαι be displeased that, be annoyed that

ἥδομαι enjoy, be pleased that

μεταμέλομαι regret that

μεταμέλει μοι regret that (impers.)

χαίρω rejoice, enjoy, be pleased that

- (35) Χαρμίδην δὲ τόνδε <u>οἶδα</u> πολλοὺς μὲν ἐραστὰς <u>κτησάμενον</u>. (Xen. Symp. 8.2) I know that Charmides here has won many lovers. Verb of intellectual knowledge.
- (36) ώς ἥ τε ἡμέρα ἐγένετο καὶ ἔγνωσαν τοὺς Ἀθηναίους ἀπεληλυθότας, . . . (Thuc. 7.81.1)

When day broke and they found that the Athenians had gone, ... Verb of intellectual knowledge.

- (37) πῶς ἂν φανερώτερον ἢ οὕτως <u>ψευδομένους</u> ἀποδείξαιμι τοὺς κατηγόρους; (Lys. 25.14)
 - How might I prove more clearly than this that the claimants are lying? Verb of intellectual knowledge ('make clear that').
- (38) ἀριστοκρατεῖσθαι δῆλος εἶ ζητῶν. (Ar. Av. 125)
 You're obviously / it's clear that you're looking to live in an aristocracy. Verb of intellectual knowledge ('be clear').
- (39) οὔτε νῦν μοι μεταμέλει οὕτως ἀπολογησαμένω. (Pl. Ap. 38e)
 And I do not now regret having defended myself this way. Verb expressing an emotional state.
- (40) ΧΟ. καὶ δέδρακας τοῦτο τοὖργον; :: ΕΠ. καὶ δεδρακώς γ' ἤδομαι. (Ar. Av. 325) (Chorus:) And have you done this? :: (Hoopoo:) Yes, and I'm pleased I have. Verb expressing an emotional state.

Note 1: Of the verbs that can take a supplementary participle, only this group can take a participle with $\alpha \nu$ ($\alpha \nu$ + ppl. in such cases represents a potential or counterfactual construction, $\rightarrow 52.7$):

(41) πάντ' ἄν φοβηθεῖο' ἴσθι. (Eur. Hipp. 519)
Know that you would be afraid of anything. ἄν φοβηθεῖο(α) is supplementary with ἴσθι, and represents potential φοβηθείης ἄν, 'you would be afraid'.

For a similar distinction between verbs which can and cannot take an infinitive with $\overset{\alpha}{\circ}\nu$, $\rightarrow 51.4$. $\overset{\alpha}{\circ}\nu$ occurs more often with circumstantial than with supplementary participles.

Note 2: Many of these verbs may also be followed by different constructions, e.g. a $\delta \tau \iota / \omega \varsigma$ -clause or an infinitive. For the differences between these constructions, $\rightarrow 52.22-8$.

Note 3: With verbs expressing an emotional state, it is sometimes difficult to assess whether one is dealing with a supplementary participle or a circumstantial participle; thus, in (40), for instance, we could also translate *having done it, I am happy* (with $\delta\epsilon\delta\rho\alpha\kappa\dot{\omega}_{S}$ taken as a circumstantial participle).

Verbs Taking a Supplementary Participle which Expresses a Way of Being

52.11 The following three verbs express a certain way of being or acting and are complemented by a participle:

τυγχάνω happen to (do something), (do) as it happens go unnoticed (by someone (acc.) in doing something), be hidden φθάνω be earlier (than someone (acc.) in doing something), anticipate

(42) ὅτε δ' αὕτη ἡ μάχη ἐγένετο, Τισσαφέρνης ἐν Σάρδεσιν <u>ἔτυχεν</u> <u>ἄν</u>. (Xen. Hell. 3.4.25)

And when this battle occurred, Tissaphernes happened to be in Sardis.

- (43) οὐ φοβῆ δικαζόμενος τῷ πατρὶ ὅπως μἡ αὖ σὺ ἀνόσιον πρᾶγμα τυγχάνης πράττων; (Pl. Euthphr. 4e)
 - Are you not afraid that you are the one who, as it happens, is behaving impiously by prosecuting your father? For $\delta \pi \omega_S \mu \dot{\eta}$ in fear clauses, $\rightarrow 44.7$.
- (44) παρεσκευάζοντο εὐθὺς ὅπως μὴ <u>λήσουσιν</u> <u>αὐτοὺς</u> αἱ νῆες ... <u>ἀφορμηθεῖσαι</u>. (Thuc. 8.10.1)
 - Straight away they made preparations so that the ships would not set out without their notice.
- (45) περιέπλεον Σούνιον, βουλόμενοι φθῆναι τοὺς Ἀθηναίους ἀπικόμενοι ἐς τὸ ἄστυ. (Hdt. 6.115)
 - They sailed around Sunium, because they wanted to arrive at the city before the Athenians.

When these verbs are construed with a participle, they may be seen as a kind of auxiliary verb: the participle expresses the main action, while the $-\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$ verb qualifies the action in some way.

Note 1: Observe that with $\lambda \alpha \nu \theta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$, the participle is commonly translated as a main verb, with $\lambda \alpha \nu \theta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega + acc$. translated with *unnoticed by X, with X unawares*, etc. (or alternatively, the object may be translated as subject: *X does not notice that Y* . . .).

With $\phi\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$, too, the participle is commonly translated as main verb, and $\phi\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$ + acc. with before X: note the translation arrive before the Athenians in (45).

Note 2: For οἴχομαι + ppl. (a construction also commonly listed under this heading), \rightarrow 52.42 n.3.

The Case Form of Supplementary Participles and their Subjects

- 52.12 If the subjects of the matrix verb and the supplementary participle are the same (i.e. are co-referential), the participle (and any predicative complement or modifier) agrees with the subject, and therefore typically stands in the nominative (nominative-and-participle construction):
 - (46) ἐγὼ ... ἀπείρηκα ... συσκευαζόμενος καὶ βαδίζων καὶ ... (Xen. An. 5.1.2)

 I, for my part, am tired of packing up and walking, and ...
 - (47) ἐπειδή ... ἀδύνατοι ὁρῶμεν ἄντες ... περιγενέσθαι ... (Thuc. 1.32.5)

 Now that we see that we are unable to prevail ...
 - (48) ἔτυχον ... ἐν τῆ ἀγορῷ ὁπλῖται καθεύδοντες. (Thuc. 4.113.2)
 Hoplites happened to be sleeping in the marketplace.

Note 1: This is always the case with phase verbs (except παύω when it takes an object), with φαίνομαι, δῆλός εἰμι, etc., and with λανθάνω, τυγχάνω, and φθάνω.

- 52.13 If the **subjects of the participle and the matrix verb are different**, the subject of the participle is generally expressed separately in the accusative, and the participle agreeing with its subject also appears in the accusative (**accusative-and-participle construction**):
 - (49) βούλομαι <u>δεῖξαι αὐτὸν ψευδόμενον</u>. (Dem. 37.21) I propose to demonstrate that he is lying.
 - (50) ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ ἤκουσε Κῦρον ἐν Κιλικία ὅντα, . . . (Xen. An. 1.4.5) But when he learned that Cyrus was in Cilicia, . . .
 - (51) τοὺς ξυμμάχους . . . οὐ περιοψόμεθα ἀδικουμένους. (Thuc. 1.86.2)
 We will not tolerate our allies being wronged.

Any predicative complements or modifiers with the subject of the participle (i.e. words which agree with the subject) naturally also occur in the accusative:

- (52) πάντες δέ σ' ἤσθοντ' οὖσαν Ἑλληνες σοφήν (Eur. Med. 539)
 All the Greeks have learned that you are clever. σοφήν agrees with σ(ε), subject of οὖσαν.
- 52.14 But when **verbs of hearing** (ἀκούω, αἰσθάνομαι) are used to express **direct** auditory perception, a supplementary participle and its subject are expressed in the genitive (**genitive-and-participle** construction):
 - (53) <u>ἤκουσα</u> . . . <u>αὐτοῦ</u> καὶ περὶ φίλων <u>διαλεγομένου</u>. (Xen. *Mem.* 2.4.1)

 I heard him have a conversation about friendship as well.
 - (54) ὅστις ... σ' ἐξέθρεψα, | αἰσθανόμενός σου πάντα τραυλίζοντος ... (Ar. Nub. 1380–1)
 - I, the one who raised you, listening to all your baby-talk . . .

Note 1: Contrast the uses of ἀκούω in (53) (direct perception) and (50) (intellectual knowledge) above. For this difference, also \rightarrow 52.19.

- 52.15 Finally, with some verbs, a supplementary participle and its subject are expressed in the dative (dative-and-participle construction): this occurs with χαίρω enjoy, and with certain impersonal verbs: e.g. μεταμέλει μοι + ppl. I regret (cf. (39) above), φίλον ἐστί μοι + ppl. it is pleasing for me that I, etc.
 - (55) χαίρουσιν ἐξεταζομένοις τοῖς οἰομένοις μὲν εἶναι σοφοῖς, οὖσι δ' οὔ. (Pl. Ap. 33c)
 They enjoy it when those who think they are wise, but are not, are examined.
 The participle ἐξεταζόμενοις and its subject (the entire phrase τοῖς . . . οὔ) are in the dative;
 note that the subject consists of two contrasting substantivally used participles (οἰομένοις and οὖσι, both modified by τοῖς); the predicative complement (εἶναι) σοφοῖς also agrees with these datives. χαίρω is more commonly construed with ἐπί + dat. + ppl.
 - (56) Ζεύς, ὅστις ποτ' ἐστίν, εἰ τόδ' αὐ |τῷ φίλου κεκλημένῳ, ... (Aesch. Ag. 160-1)
 Zeus, whoever he is, if in fact it is pleasing for him to be called that, ...

- The supplementary participle of impersonal verbs takes the form of the accusative neuter singular (cf. the 'accusative absolute', \rightarrow 52.33):
 - (57) Εὐρύλοχος δὲ καὶ οἱ μετ' αὐτοῦ ὡς <u>ἤσθοντο</u> ... <u>ἀδύνατον ὄν</u> τὴν πόλιν βία ἑλεῖν, ἀνεχώρησαν ... ἐς τὴν Αἰολίδα. (Thuc. 3.102.5)

 When Eurylochus and those in his company found that it was impossible to capture the city by force, they withdrew to Aeolis. ἀδύνατον ὄν is the participle of impersonal ἀδύνατόν ἐστι; it is a complement of ἤσθοντο.

Supplementary Participles and Other Complement Constructions

52.17 A number of verbs which can be complemented by a certain type of supplementary participle can also take various other kinds of complement constructions.

Verbs of Perception Taking More Than One Type of Supplementary Participle

- 52.18 **Verbs of visual perception**, such as ὁράω see, are not only used to refer to the visual perception of an action, but are also frequently used to refer to intellectual knowledge/understanding (cf. Engl. *I see your point*, in which no actual visual perception is involved):
 - when used as verbs of visual perception, such verbs are complemented by a participle expressing the action perceived; the participle occurs almost exclusively in the present stem (because the action is necessarily ongoing when it is perceived);
 - when used as verbs of intellectual knowledge, they are complemented by a participle expressing the propositional content of the knowledge; the participle occurs in any stem (with the usual relative-tense implication; →52.4):
 - (58) εἶδε Κλέαρχον διελαύνοντα. (Xen. An. 1.5.12)

 He saw Clearchus riding through. Present participle; εἶδε denotes visual perception.
 - (59) όρῶ δὲ καὶ τὴν τύχην ἡμῖν συλλαμβάνουσαν καὶ τὸν παρόντα καιρὸν συναγωνιζόμενον. ([Isoc.] 1.3)

 And I see that luck is on our side, too, and that the present circumstances are in league with us. Present participles (simultaneous with ὁρῶ); ὁρῶ denotes intellectual understanding.
 - (60) ἐπειδὴ δ' οὐδ' ὡς ἄνευ ἀγῶνος ἑώρα ἐσόμενα τὰ πράγματα, ... (Andoc. 1.122) But when he realized that even so matters would not be settled without a trial, ... Future participle (posterior to ἑώρα); ἑώρα denotes intellectual understanding.

Note 1: With examples of visual perception, such as (58), the subject of the participle is always an entity which can itself be visually perceived. This makes it possible to interpret the participle as circumstantial: 'He saw Clearchus, while he was riding.' With

examples of intellectual knowledge, this is not necessarily the case: note that one cannot actually visually perceive 'luck' or 'the present circumstances' in (59) or 'the matters' in (60).

Note 2: When used in their 'intellectual knowledge' sense, verbs of visual perception can also be complemented by a $\delta \tau l/\delta \varsigma$ -clause ($\rightarrow 52.28$).

- 52.19 Similarly, **verbs of auditory perception**, such as ἀκούω *hear*, can be used not only to refer to the actual auditory perception of an action, but also to refer to the transmission of factual information, and then means 'learn', 'be told (a fact)' (cf. Engl. *I hear that Julia has performed well in her job*, in which no auditory perception of Julia working is involved):
 - when used as verbs of auditory perception, such verbs are complemented by
 a genitive-and-participle construction (→52.14); the participle occurs nearly
 exclusively in the present (because the perceived action is necessarily ongoing
 when it is perceived);
 - when used as verbs of (acquiring) knowledge, they are complemented by an accusative-and-participle construction expressing the propositional content of the information; all tenses of the participle are used, with the usual relative-tense implication (→52.4):
 - (61) καὶ ταῦτα πολλοὶ ἡμῶν ἤκουον τοῦ ἱεροφάντου λέγοντος. (Lys. 6.1)

 And many of us heard the priest say these things. Present participle in the genitive; ἤκουον denotes auditive perception.
 - (62) ἀβροκόμας δὲ ... ἐπεὶ ἤκουσε Κῦρον ἐν Κιλικίᾳ ἄντα, ἀναστρέψας ἐκ Φοινίκης παρὰ βασιλέα ἀπήλαυνεν (Xen. An. 1.4.5)
 When it was made known to Abrocomas that Cyrus was in Cilicia, he turned about from his journey from Phoenicia and marched off to the king. Present participle (simultaneous with ἤκουσε) in the accusative; ἤκουσε means 'learn (from being told)'.
 - (63) προειδότες καὶ προακηκοότες παρὰ τούτων καὶ τοὺς συμμάχους ἀπολουμένους καὶ Θηβαίους ἰσχυροὺς γενησομένους ... (Dem. 19.219)

 Having foreknowledge and having been warned by these men that your allies would be ruined and that the Thebans would gain strength, ... Future participles (posterior to προαμημοότες) in the accusative; προαμημοότες means to 'be reliably informed' (note its coordination with a verb of knowledge, προειδότες).

Note 1: With examples of actual auditory perception, it is possible to interpret the participle as circumstantial: e.g. in (61) 'We heard the priest (genitive of the source of sound), while he was speaking.' With examples of the acquisition of knowledge, such as (62), this is impossible: it is not suggested that Cyrus makes any audible noise in Cilicia.

Note 2: ἀκούω can also be construed as a declarative utterance verb, taking a declarative infinitive or ὅτι/ώς-clause (for the difference between the two, \rightarrow 51.19 n.1), or an indirect question (\rightarrow 41.3): for the difference between the construction as a verb of knowledge (with participle) or a declarative utterance verb, \rightarrow 52.25.

52.20 αἰσθάνομαι perceive is used as a verb of auditory perception (+gen. and pres. ppl., hear), a verb of visual perception (+acc. and pres. ppl., see) and as a verb of intellectual knowledge (+acc. and ppl., perceive, see).

πυνθάνομαι perceive, enquire has all these same constructions, and is additionally construed with a declarative infinitive, ὅτι/ώς-clause or indirect question: for details, \rightarrow 52.25.

With αἰσθάνομαι and πυνθάνομαι, there is some interference between the genitive-and-participle and the accusative-and-participle constructions (the one sometimes being used where one would expect the other).

- Infrequently, participles complementing a verb of actual visual or auditory perception occur in the aorist, which is in aspectual opposition to the present (the action is of necessity simultaneous with the matrix verb; compare the aspectual difference between the present and aorist dynamic infinitive; $\rightarrow 51.15$).
 - (64) τοσαῦτα φωνήσαντος εἰσηκούσαμεν. (Soph. OC 1645)
 That much we heard him say. The aorist participle refers to the speech as a whole: 'this much', and nothing more or less, was said.
 - (65) ὡς δὲ εἶδεν ἔλαφον ἐκπηδήσασαν, ... (Xen. Cyr. 1.4.8)
 When he (Cyrus) saw a deer spring out from under cover, ... The aorist participle indicates that Cyrus perceived the deer's jumping in its entirety, i.e. until the deer had completely appeared. As above (→52.18 n.1), it is also possible in such cases to interpret the participle as circumstantial: 'a deer, after it had sprung out'.

Verbs Taking a Participle or an Infinitive: Verbs of Knowledge

- 52.22 The main characteristic of the participial complement is that it refers to actions which actually occur, or expresses propositional content which is actually true $(\rightarrow 52.8)$. These values become particularly clear in the case of verbs which may be construed with either a participle or an infinitive: infinitives with such verbs express actions which may or may not occur or propositional content which may or may not be true $(\rightarrow 51.3)$.
- 52.23 Many **verbs of knowledge** take either a participle to express **intellectual knowledge** ('know that something is the case'), or a dynamic infinitive to express **practical knowledge** ('know how to do something', →51.8): examples are οἶδα *know that* (+ ppl.)/know how to (+ inf.), ἐπίσταμαι understand that (+ ppl.)/know how to (+ inf.), μανθάνω learn that (+ ppl.)/learn how to (+ inf.):

- (66) τά τε κατὰ τὴν θάλασσαν συντυχόντα σφι παθήματα κατεργασαμένους μάλιστα Ἀθηναίους ἐπίστατο. (Hdt. 8.136.2)

 And he understood that the Athenians in particular had wrought the calamities that had befallen them at sea.
- (67) νῦν δ' ἄπας τις τῶν ποιμένων ἐπίσταται ξυλοργέειν (Hdt. 3.113.2) But now every single shepherd knows how to do carpentry.

Note 1: When these verbs are used as verbs of intellectual knowledge, they can also be construed with $\delta \pi i/\delta \varsigma$ -clauses (for the difference, $\rightarrow 52.28$), and especially when negated, with indirect questions ($\rightarrow 42.2$).

- 52.24 Some verbs are used either as a **verb of intellectual knowledge** (with a participle) or as a **verb of opinion** (with a declarative infinitive): the difference is one of degree in certainty. Examples are ὑπολαμβάνω assume that (+ inf.) / grasp that (+ ppl.); εὑρίσκω think (upon reflection) that (+ inf.) / find that (+ ppl.), αἰσθάνομαι believe that (+ inf.) / perceive that (+ ppl.).
 - (68) ἱστορέων δὲ εὕρισκε Λακεδαιμονίους τε καὶ Ἀθηναίους προέχοντας, τοὺς μὲν τοῦ Δωρικοῦ γένεος, τοὺς δὲ τοῦ Ἰωνικοῦ. (Hdt. 1.56.2)

 When he inquired he found that the Spartans and Athenians were the outstanding people, the former among the Dorian race, the latter among the Ionian. The participle refers to knowledge regarded as certain by Herodotus.
 - (69) φροντίζων δὲ εὕρισκέ τε ταῦτα καιριώτατα εἶναι. (Hdt. 1.125.1)
 On reflection, he found that the following measures might be most effective.
 The declarative infinitive expresses the subject's opinion (just how effective the proposed measures are remains to be seen).

To this group also belongs φαίνομαι seem (+ inf.) / appear, prove to (+ ppl.):

- (70) καὶ οἱ κατήγοροι ... οὐδαμῆ εὖνοι ὄντες ἐφαίνοντο τῷ δήμῳ. (Lys. 20.17)
 And the accusers proved to be in no way well-intentioned towards the people.
 ἐφαίνοντο + ppl. refers to a fact which is now known.
- (71) οἱ ... χῶροι οὖτοι τοῖσι "Ελλησι εἶναι ἐφαίνοντο ἐπιτήδεοι. (Hdt. 7.177.1)
 These lands seemed to the Greeks to be suitable. ἐφαίνοντο + inf. expresses the impression/opinion which Herodotus ascribes to the Greeks.

Note 1: When these verbs are used as verbs of knowledge, they can also be construed with $\delta \tau_1/\delta_5$ -clauses (for the difference, $\rightarrow 52.28$), and especially when negated, with indirect questions ($\rightarrow 42.2$).

Note 2: The verb γιγνώσκω belongs to this category, but has an additional use as a desiderative verb (\rightarrow 51.29):

- as a verb of knowledge: γιγνώσκω + ppl. or ὅτι/ὡς-clause = find, notice, realize, know that;
- as a verb of opinion: γιγνώσκω + declarative inf. = judge;
- as a desiderative verb: γιγνώκσω + dynamic inf. = decide, resolve to.

- (72) καὶ ὂς ἐθαύμασεν ... κὰγὼ χνοὺς αὐτὸν θαυμάζοντα ... ἔφην ... (Pl. Euthd. 279d)
 He was puzzled ... and when I noticed his puzzlement, I said ... Participle. For καὶ ὅς,
 →28.29.
- (73) Τελμησσέες μέντοι τάδε <u>ἔγνωσαν</u>, στρατὸν ἀλλόθροον προσδόκιμον <u>εἶναι</u> Κροίσῳ ἐπὶ τὴν χώρην. (Hdt. 1.78.3)
 - However, the Telmessians' interpretation was that Croesus should expect a foreign army to invade his land. *Declarative infinitive*.
- (74) ὁ ἀγησίλαος ... ἔγνω διώκειν τοὺς ἐκ τῶν εὐωνύμων προσκειμένους. (Xen. Hell. 4.6.9)

 Agesilaus decided to pursue those who were attacking from the left. Dynamic infinitive.
- Similarly, a few verbs are used either as a **verb of (conveying) intellectual knowledge** (with a participle) or as a **declarative utterance verb** (with a declarative infinitive). Again, the difference resides in the degree of certainty. The most important of these are ἀγγέλλω relay (the fact) that (+ ppl.)/report (the rumour) that (+ inf.), ἀκούω be informed (of the fact) that (+ ppl.)/be told (the rumour) that (+ inf.), and πυνθάνομαι (same senses as ἀκούω):
 - (75) ἐπειδἡ τάχιστα ἠγγέλθη ᾿Αστύφιλος τετελευτηκώς ... (Isae. 9.3)
 As soon as it was reported that Astyphilus was dead, ... Astyphilus' death is presented as fact.
 - (76) μετὰ δὲ τοῦτο ... ἠχγέλλετο βασιλεὺς διανοεῖσθαι ὡς ἐπιχειρήσων πάλιν ἐπὶ τοὺς ελληνας. (Pl. Menex. 241d)

 After this (the victory at Plataea) there were reports that the King was planning another assault on the Greeks. Xerxes' plans were rumoured only: a further invasion never took place.

Note 1: ἀκούω and πυνθάνομαι are also used as verbs of direct sensory perception, →52.19.

Verbs Taking a Participle or an Infinitive: Other Verbs

- 52.26 αἰσχύνομαι is used in two senses, with different types of complement:
 - αἰσχύνομαι + dynamic inf. = be ashamed to, be hesitant to, do not want to (as a kind of desiderative verb);
 - αἰσχύνομαι + ppl. (or ὅτι/ὡς-clause) = be ashamed that (as a verb expressing an emotional state):
 - (77) <u>αἰσχύνομαι</u> οὖν ὑμῖν <u>εἰπεῖν</u>, ὧ ἄνδρες, τάληθῆ. (Pl. *Ap.* 22b) So I hesitate, gentlemen, to tell you the truth.
 - (78) οὐκ <u>αἰσχύνη</u> εἰς τοιαῦτα <u>ἄγων</u>, ὧ Σώκρατες, τοὺς λόγους; (Pl. *Grg.* 494e)

 Are you not ashamed, Socrates, to be taking the discussion to such topics?

the sea.

- 52.27 The phase verbs ἄρχομαι and παύω may be construed either with a dynamic infinitive or with a (present) participle:
 - ἄρχομαι + infinitive = undertake to do something, begin to do something (for the first time), be the first to do something;
 - ἄρχομαι + participle = begin doing something (perform the first stage of an action):
 - (79) <u>ἤρξαντο</u> δὲ κατὰ τοὺς χρόνους τούτους καὶ τὰ μακρὰ τείχη Ἀθηναῖοι ἐς θάλασσαν οἰκοδομεῖν. (Thuc. 1.107.1)

 Around this time, the Athenians began to construct the Long Walls towards
 - (80) εἰ τοίνυν ἐχιόνιζε . . . ταύτην τὴν χώρην . . . ἐκ τῆς ἄρχεται ῥέων ὁ Νεῖλος, . . . (Hdt. 2.22.4)

Now if it snowed in this land from where the Nile starts flowing, ...

- $\pi\alpha\dot{\upsilon}\omega$ + dynamic infinitive = prevent (someone from doing something) the action that is prevented has not actually started yet;
- $\pi\alpha\dot{\nu}\omega$ + participle = *stop* (*someone doing something*) the subject stops or interrupts an action that has already begun:
- (81) εὔχετο ... μηδεμίαν οἱ συντυχίην τοιαύτην γενέσθαι ἥ μιν <u>παύσει</u> καταστρέψασθαι τὴν Εὐρώπην πρότερον ἢ ἐπὶ τέρμασι τοῖσι ἐκείνης γένηται. (Hdt. 7.54.2)
 - He prayed that no accident might befall him of such a kind that it would prevent him from subduing Europe before he reached its borders.
- (82) λέγει γὰρ τὰ γεγραμμένα ὅσην ἡ πόλις ὑμῶν ἔπαυσέν ποτε δύναμιν ὕβρει πορευομένην ἄμα ἐπὶ πᾶσαν Εὐρώπην καὶ ᾿Ασίαν. (Pl. Ti. 24e)

 For our records state what a great power your city once stopped marching in insolence against the whole of Europe and Asia.

Note 1: Middle $\pi\alpha\dot{\nu}$ o $\mu\alpha$ 1 *stop (doing something)* only takes a (present) participle, as it always expresses the interruption of an ongoing action.

Verbs Taking Both Participles and ὅτι/ώς-Clauses

- 52.28 **Verbs of intellectual knowledge** and **verbs of emotion** may be construed with a ὅτι/ὡς-clause as well as a supplementary participle. The difference between the two constructions is subtle:
 - if a participle is used, this generally suggests that the information presented in the complement is considered to be already known and not in itself salient;
 - if a ὅτι/ώς-clause is used, this generally suggests that the information presented in the complement is new ('asserted', \rightarrow 60.20) and therefore salient:

- (83) λέγει ὁ Κλέαρχος τάδε· Ἐγώ, ὧ Τισσαφέρνη, οἶδα μὲν ἡμῖν ὅρκους γεγενημένους καὶ δεξιὰς δεδομένας μὴ ἀδικήσειν ἀλλήλους· φυλαττόμενον δὲ σέ τε ὁρῶ ὡς πολεμίους ἡμᾶς ... ἐπεὶ δὲ σκοπῶν οὐ δύναμαι οὔτε σὲ αἰσθέσθαι πειρώμενον ἡμᾶς κακῶς ποιεῖν ἐγώ τε σαφῶς οἶδα ὅτι ἡμεῖς γε οὐδὲ ἐπινοοῦμεν τοιοῦτον οὐδέν, ἔδοξέ μοι εἰς λόγους σοι ἐλθεῖν. (Xen. An. 2.5.3-4)
 - Clearchus said the following: 'Tissaphernes, I am well aware that we have sworn under oath and pledged that neither of us will initiate hostilities against the other, but I see that you are taking the kinds of precautions against us that you would against enemies. However, my investigations have produced no evidence that you are trying to injure us and I know for sure that we have no such scheme in mind either. So I wanted to talk things over with you' Clearchus first reminds Tissaphernes of the oaths they have sworn (ppl.); this is but a preliminary point, and one with which Tissaphernes is, of course, familiar. Next, Clearchus assures Tissaphernes that the Greeks are not plotting against him (öti-clause): this is the main point Clearchus wishes to make, and it is newsworthy for Tissaphernes.
- (84) τί οὖν . . . ἔτι ἀπιστεῖς, ἐπειδὴ ὁρᾶς ἀποθανόντος τοῦ ἀνθρώπου τό γε ἀσθενέστερον ἔτι <u>ὄν;</u> (Pl. *Phd*. 87a)
 - Why, then, do you still disbelieve, when you see that after a man has died, the weaker part (the soul) still exists?
- (85) καὶ ὅταν γέ τις αἴρεσις ἦ . . . <u>ὁρᾶς ὅτι</u> οἱ ῥήτορές <u>εἰσιν</u> οἱ συμβουλεύοντες καὶ οἱ νικῶντες τὰς γνώμας. (Pl. *Grg.* 456a)
 - And when there is an election, you see that it is the orators who offer the advice and whose advice carries the day.
 - In (84), the fact that the soul continues its existence after the body dies has been established in the preceding discussion (\acute{o} p $\acute{a}\omega$ + ppl.). In (85), the speaker wishes, at this point in the discussion, to establish it as a fact that orators are influential in elections (\acute{o} p $\acute{a}\omega$ + \acute{o} τ 1-clause).

The Circumstantial Participle

Introduction

52.29 The circumstantial participle is an optional constituent, added to a clause to express time, cause, motivation, condition, purpose, etc. (which interpretation is relevant depends on context and the use of certain adverbs, \rightarrow 52.34-44).

The Case Form of Circumstantial Participles and their Subjects

- 52.30 The **subject** of a circumstantial participle is:
 - either identical to a constituent of the matrix clause: the participle is then **connected** to that constituent (agreeing with it in case, number and gender);

or not a constituent of the matrix clause: the subject is then added separately,
 and together with the participle stands in the genitive case – the so-called
 genitive absolute construction.

Circumstantial participles of impersonal verbs appear in the accusative singular neuter: the **accusative absolute** construction.

Connected Participles

- 52.31 When the subject of the participle is a constituent of the matrix clause, the participle is connected to that constituent as a predicative modifier (\rightarrow 26.26), agreeing with it in case, number and gender:
 - (86) ὁ δὲ Κῦρος ταῦτα ἀκούσας ἐπηύξατο· ... (Xen. Cyr. 5.1.29)
 Cyrus, upon hearing these things, uttered this prayer: ... ὁ Κῦρος is nominative as subject of ἐπηύξατο; ἀκούσας agrees with it in case, number and gender.
 - (87) ἀκούσαντι ταῦτα τῷ Κύρω ἔδοξεν ἄξια ἐπιμελείας λέγειν. (Xen. Cyr. 5.4.37)
 Upon hearing these things, it seemed to Cyrus that he (Gadatas) was saying things worthy of consideration. τῷ Κύρω is dative complement of ἔδοξεν; ἀπούσαντι agrees with it in case, number and gender.
 - (88) (λέγεται) ... <u>ἀκούσαντα</u> ... ταῦτα <u>τὸν Κῦρον</u> ἡσθῆναί τε καὶ εἰπεῖν ... (Xen. Oec. 4.22)
 - It is said that Cyrus, upon hearing these things, was glad, and said ... $\tau \dot{o} \nu$ $K \tilde{u} \rho \rho \nu$ is accusative as subject of $\hat{\eta} \sigma \theta \tilde{\eta} \nu \alpha l$ (accusative and infinitive); $\dot{\alpha} \kappa \rho \dot{\nu} \rho \sigma \alpha \nu \tau \alpha$ agrees with it in case, number and gender.

Note 1: Participles may agree with a subject which is not explicitly expressed (\rightarrow 26.7):

- (89) ἀκούσας δὲ τοῦ ἰατροῦ ὅτι οὐδὲν ἔτι εἴη ἡ ἄνθρωπος, πάλιν ἑτέρους μάρτυρας παραλαβών τήν τε ἄνθρωπον ἐπέδειξα ὡς εἶχεν. ([Dem.] 47.67)

 Upon hearing from the doctor that the woman's condition was hopeless, I again gathered further witnesses and showed them what condition she was in. Both ἀκούσας and παραλαβών agree with the first-person subject of ἐπέδειξα.
- (90) ἀκούσας δὲ οὖ ἕνεκα ἤλθομεν, αὐτὸς σκέψαι. (Pl. Prt. 316b)
 Hear why we have come and then decide for yourself. ἀπούσας agrees with the second-person subject of the imperative σπέψαι. For the translation of the agrist participle preceding an imperative, →52.6.

Genitive Absolute

52.32 When the subject of the participle is not a constituent of the matrix clause, it must be expressed separately. In this case, both the participle and its subject are added in the genitive case. This is called the genitive absolute construction:

- (91) τὰ δ' ἐκ τῆς ἄλλης οἰκίας ἐξέφερον σκεύη, ἀπαγορευούσης τῆς γυναικὸς μἡ ἄπτεσθαι αὐτοῖς. ([Dem.] 47.56-7)
 - They carried away the furniture from the rest of the house, even though my wife forbade them to touch it. Since the wife is not a constituent of the clause $\tau \dot{\alpha} \delta' \dot{\epsilon} \mu \tau \eta \dot{\gamma} \delta' \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \eta \dot{\gamma} \delta' \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \eta \dot{\gamma} \delta' \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\gamma} \dot{\gamma} \delta' \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\gamma} \dot{\gamma} \dot{\gamma}$, the participle 'forbidding' cannot be connected to a form of $\gamma \nu \nu \dot{\gamma}$ already present in that clause. Instead, both are added in the genitive case.
- (92) προθύμως . . . ἐλευκοῦντο οἱ ἱππεῖς τὰ κράνη κελεύοντος ἐκείνου. (Xen. Hell. 7.5.20)
 - The horsemen eagerly painted their helmets white at his (Epaminondas') command. Epaminondas is not a constituent of the clause $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\epsilon\nu\kappa o\bar{\nu}\nu\tau o$ of $i\pi\pi\epsilon i\bar{\epsilon}$ $\tau\dot{\alpha}$ $\kappa\rho\dot{\alpha}\nu\eta$: the pronoun referring to him and the participle are added in the genitive.
- (93) οὕτως οὖν ἐχόντων τούτων τῆ φύσει, πρὸς τοὺς πρὸ ἐμαυτοῦ νῦν ἐγὼ κρίνωμαι καὶ θεωρῶμαι; μηδαμῶς. (Dem. 18.315)
 - Given, then, that these things are so by nature, am I now to be judged and examined in comparison to my predecessors? Certainly not! The subject of the initial genitive absolute ('these things') is not a constituent of the remainder of the sentence.

Note 1: Observe the following exceptions and special cases:

- Occasionally, when the subject of a genitive absolute may be easily supplied from the context, it is not expressed:
 - (94) εἵποντο δ' αὐτοῖς καὶ τῶν Ἑλλήνων τινές ... οἱ δὲ πολέμιοι προσιόντων τέως μὲν ἡσύχαζον. (Xen. An. 5.4.16)
 - Some Greeks were following them. And the enemy forces kept quiet for a while as they (the Greeks) were drawing near. The subject of $\pi\rho\sigma\sigma\dot{\phi}\nu\tau\omega\nu$ is the Greeks, but this is not separately expressed by a genitive noun (e.g. $\tau\ddot{\omega}\nu$ Έλλήνων) or pronoun (e.g. $\alpha\dot{\omega}\tau\ddot{\omega}\nu$).
- Infrequently, the subject of a genitive absolute is used as a constituent of the matrix clause; this occurs primarily when the genitive absolute precedes that clause (in essence, the construction begins one way, and is modified midway through the sentence):
 - (95) οὕτω δἡ δεξαμένου τοῦ Κύρου οί . . . γεραίτεροι αἱροῦνται αὐτὸν ἄρχοντα. (Xen. Cyr. 1.5.5)
 - When Cyrus had accepted (the invitation) in this way, the elders elected him general. Since Cyrus (αὐτόν) is object of αἰροῦνται, the genitive absolute construction is, strictly speaking, ungrammatical (the construction δεξάμενον τὸν Κῦρον αἰροῦνται ἄρχοντα is possible). The use of the genitive absolute suggests that it is a separate unit.

Accusative Absolute

- 52.33 Circumstantial participles of **impersonal verbs** cannot agree with a subject (since they have no subject, \rightarrow 36.1). Such participles are expressed in the accusative singular neuter form: this is called the **accusative absolute** construction:
 - (96) τί δἡ ὑμᾶς ἐξὸν ἀπολέσαι οὐκ ἐπὶ τοῦτο ἤλθομεν; (Xen. An. 2.5.22)
 Why then, when it was possible to kill you, did we not proceed to do so? ἐξόν is accusative absolute of impersonal ἔξεστι 'it is possible'.
 - (97) καὶ δή σφι πρὸς ταῦτα ἔδοξε τῷ κήρυκι τῶν πολεμίων χρᾶσθαι, δόξαν δέ σφι ἐποίεον τοιόνδε· (Hdt. 6.77.3)
 In reaction to this, they decided to use the enemies' herald; and when they had reached this decision, they went about it in the following way: . . . δόξαν is (aorist) accusative absolute of impersonal ἔδοξε 'it was decided' (→51.30) and

it takes its regular dative complement ($\sigma \varphi \iota$). $\delta \delta \xi \alpha \nu$ picks up the preceding $\xi \delta \delta \xi \epsilon$.

Note 1: But impersonal weather terms which can take a god as subject (\rightarrow 36.11 n.1) sometimes occur in the genitive absolute, without an explicitly expressed subject: e.g. ὕοντος when it is/was raining, βροντήσαντος when a thunderstorm has come on.

Interpretation of Circumstantial Participles

52.34 How a circumstantial participle should be interpreted (as expressing time, cause, motivation, etc.) depends on the context, and on certain adverbs and/or particles which may appear with the participle. It is not always possible, and certainly not necessary, to limit the interpretation of a circumstantial participle to one of the possibilities outlined below.

Time, Circumstance

- 52.35 Circumstantial participles are often naturally interpreted as expressing the **time** when (or **circumstances** under which) the action in the matrix clause takes place. This is especially the case when the participle **precedes the matrix verb** (often as 'setting', $\rightarrow 60.32$):
 - (98) ους δ' ἐν τῷ πολέμῳ συμμάχους ἐκτησάμεθα, εἰρήνης ουσης ἀπολωλέκασιν οὖτοι. (Dem. 3.28)
 - Those whom we gained as allies during the war, these men have lost in peace-time. The parallelism with $\dot{\epsilon}v \tau \tilde{\varphi} \pi o \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \mu \varphi$ encourages the temporal interpretation.
- 52.36 An **aorist participle** preceding a finite verb is very often used to express a sequence of actions (particularly in narrative text, \rightarrow 58.9; the order ppl.-verb is 'iconic', \rightarrow 47.7 n.2):
 - (99) συλλέξας στράτευμα ἐπολιόρκει Μίλητον. (Xen. An. 1.1.7)

- He collected an army and laid siege to Miletus. Note that the sequence of events may be conveyed in translation by two co-ordinated main verbs ('collected', 'laid siege').
- (100) ἐξ Ἐρετρίης δὲ ὁρμηθέντες διὰ ἑνδεκάτου ἔτεος ἀπίκοντο ὁπίσω. (Hdt. 1.62.1)

 After ten years they set out from Eretria and returned home. For 'inclusive' counting (διὰ ἑνδεκάτου ἔτεος = 'after ten years'), →9.10.
- 52.37 The temporal relationship between the participle and the matrix verb may be made explicit by temporal adverbs such as ἄμα while, at the same time, ἤδη already, αὐτίκα immediately, etc.
 - (101) ἐπαιάνιζον ... ἄμα ... πλέοντες. (Thuc. 2.91.2) They were singing a paean while rowing.

Note 1: Circumstantial participles of $\tau \in \lambda \in U \cap \Delta \omega$ finish should normally be interpreted as adverbial expressions of time, with the sense finally, eventually, in the end, at last:

(102) πολλὰ ἄν εἴη λέγειν, ὅσον πένθος ἐν τῇ ἐμῇ οἰκίᾳ ἦν ἐν ἐκείνῳ τῷ χρόνῳ. τελευτῶσα δὲ ἡ μήτηρ αὐτῶν ἠντεβόλει με καὶ ἰκέτευε ... (Lys. 32.11)

It would take long to tell how much mourning there was in my house in that period.
In the end, their mother beseeched and begged me ...

Cause, Motivation

- 52.38 Circumstantial participles often express the **cause or motivation** for an action or statement, especially when they **follow the matrix verb**:
 - (103) Παρύσατις μὲν δὴ ἡ μήτηρ ὑπῆρχε τῷ Κύρῳ, φιλοῦσα αὐτὸν μᾶλλον ἢ τὸν βασιλεύοντα Ἀρταξέρξην. (Xen. An. 1.1.4)
 Parysatis, the mother, was on the side of Cyrus, as she loved him more than Artaxerxes, who ruled as king.
- 52.39 The relationship between participle and matrix verb may be made explicit by:
 - ως to give a 'subjective' reason or motivation, for which responsibility lies with the subject of the matrix verb (because, thinking that, in the conviction that, as);
 - ἄτε (sometimes οἶα, οἶον) to give an 'objective' reason, for which the speaker/narrator takes responsibility (because, given the fact that, (inasmuch) as).
 - (104) αὐτοὶ ἐνταῦθ' ἔμενον $\underline{\dot{\omega}_{S}}$ τὸ ἄκρον $\underline{\kappa}$ ατέχοντες. οἱ δ' οὐ κατεῖχον. (Xen. An. 4.2.5)

There they remained thinking that they held the summit. But they did not hold it. Subjective reason. The narrator does not share the subjects' reasoning, as of δ ' où natescore makes clear.

- (105) λέξατε οὖν πρός με τί ἐν νῷ ἔχετε $\underline{\dot{\omega}}_{S}$... <u>βουλόμενον</u> κοινῆ σὐν ὑμῖν τὸν στόλον ποιεῖσθαι. (Xen. An. 3.3.2).
 - So, tell me what your plans are, in the conviction that I wish to make the journey together with you. The speaker (Mithradates) provides the addressees (Greek commanders) with certain assumptions about him on which they should base the answer which he wants them to give.
- (106) καὶ τὸ μειράκιον, ἄτε μεγάλου ὄντος τοῦ ἐρωτήματος, ἠρυθρίασέν τε καὶ ἀπορήσας ἐνέβλεψεν εἰς ἐμέ. (Pl. Euthd. 275d)

 And since the question was a big one, the young man blushed and glanced at me in his helplessness. The speaker gives the reason for the young man's reaction.
- (107) καὶ οἶα δὴ ἀπιόντων πρὸς δεῖπνον . . . τῶν πελταστῶν . . . ἐπελαύνουσι. (Xen. Hell. 5.4.39)
 - And since the peltasts were going away to dinner, they (the Thebans) charged upon them. The genitive absolute with $oi\alpha$ explains why the Thebans could attack easily.

Condition

- 52.40 A participle may express the **condition** under which the action in the main clause may occur:
 - (108) σὐ δὲ κλύων εἴσει τάχα. (Ar. Av. 1390) If you listen, you will soon find out.

If the matrix clause has a potential optative (\rightarrow 34.13) or a counterfactual indicative (\rightarrow 34.16), the participle may have the force of the corresponding potential or counterfactual conditional clause:

- (109) νῦν δὲ ᾿Αθηναίους ἄν τις λέγων σωτῆρας γενέσθαι τῆς Ἑλλάδος οὐκ ἄν άμαρτάνοι τάληθέος. (Hdt. 7.139.5)
 As it is, if anyone were to say that the Athenians were the saviours of Greece, he would not be wrong. Given the potential optative (οὐκ ἄν άμαρτάνοι) in the matrix clause, the participle has the force of a potential conditional clause (→49.8). For the repetition of ἄν, →60.12.
- (110) ἀκρίτου μὲν γὰρ ὅντος τοῦ πράγματος οὐκ ἄν ἠπίστασθ' ... (Isoc. 19.2)
 For if the case had not gone to trial, you would not have known ...
 The genitive absolute has counterfactual force, given the counterfactual matrix clause (οὐκ ἄν ἠπίστασθ(ε)).

The **negative** with the participle in the conditional use is $\mu\dot{\eta}$ ($\mu\dot{\eta}$ + circumstantial participle is nearly always conditional):

(111) ... ὁ νῦν ὑμεῖς μὴ πειθόμενοι ἡμῖν πάθοιτε ἄν. (Thuc. 1.40.2)
... which might well happen to you now if you do not listen to us.

Purpose

- 52.41 The **future participle** usually expresses **purpose**, often in combination with ώς, which expresses the intention of the subject:
 - (112) παρεσκευάζοντο ώς πολεμήσοντες. (Thuc. 2.7.1) They prepared in order to wage war.
 - (113) δεξιᾶ δὲ λαμπάδα | Τιτὰν Προμηθεὺς ἔφερεν <u>ώς πρήσων</u> πόλιν. (Eur. *Phoen.* 1121-2)

The Titan Prometheus carried a torch in his right hand to burn the city.

But $\dot{\omega}_S$ is frequently omitted, especially after verbs of sending and going:

(114) αὖθις ὁ βάρβαρος . . . ἐπὶ τὴν Ἑλλάδα δουλωσόμενος ἦλθεν. (Thuc. 1.18.2)

The barbarian returned to Greece in order to enslave it.

Note 1: Observe the idiomatic expression $\xi \rho \chi O \mu \alpha 1$ + fut. ppl. be about to, be going to, especially with participles of verbs of speech:

(115) ἐγὰ δὲ περὶ μὲν τούτων οὐκ ἔρχομαι ἐρέων ὡς ... (Hdt. 1.5.3)
 I am not going to say about these things, that ...

Manner, Means

- 52.42 A present participle or 'coincident' aorist participle (→52.5) is sometimes used to express manner or means:
 - (116) <u>ληζόμενοι</u> ζῶσι. (Xen. *Cyr.* 3.2.25) They live by pillaging.
 - (117) ἀπώλεσέν μ' <u>εἰποῦσα</u> συμφορὰς ἐμάς. (Eur. *Hipp*. 596)

 She has destroyed me by revealing my misfortunes. *Coincident aorist participle*.

Note 1: Circumstantial participles of verbs meaning 'have', 'take', 'use', etc. (e.g. ἔχων, χρώμενος (+ dat.), φέρων, ἄγων, λαβών) often express little more than Engl. *with*:

(118) ἔρχεται ... τὸν υίὸν <u>ἔχουσα</u>. (Xen. *Cyr*. 1.3.1) She came with her son.

Note 2: The participle ἔχων may be combined with a present indicative with the sense *continually, unceasingly*:

(119) ΣΩ. τὸν σκυτοτόμον ἴσως μέγιστα δεῖ ὑποδήματα καὶ πλεῖστα ὑποδεδεμένον περιπατεῖν. :: ΚΑ. ποῖα ὑποδήματα; φλυαρεῖς ἔχων. (Pl. Grg. 490e)

(Socrates:) Perhaps the shoemaker should walk around wearing the largest and the most shoes. :: (Callicles:) Shoes? What shoes? You keep talking nonsense.

Note 3: The verb οἴχομαι depart, be gone (\rightarrow 33.18) is often combined with a participle, usually of a verb of motion, to express the manner of departure: e.g. οἴχεται φεύγων he has fled, ικρετο ἀπελαύνων he rode off, ικροντο ἀπιόντες they left.

Comparison

- 52.43 A participle may be combined with ισπερ (sometimes ως) like, as (if) to express comparison:
 - (120) αὖθις γὰρ δή, <u>ὥσπερ</u> ἑτέρων τούτων <u>ὄντων</u> κατηγόρων, λάβωμεν αὖ τὴν τούτων ἀντωμοσίαν. (Pl. *Ap.* 24b)

Let us then again, as if they are other plaintiffs, take up in turn their sworn statement.

Note that $\omega \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho$ can be accompanied by $\delta \mu o i \omega \varsigma$ in a similar way as (if), just as though:

(121) κείνη δ', όμοίως ὥσπερ οὐκ ἰδοῦσα φῶς, | τέθνηκε κοὐδὲν οἶδε τῶν αὑτῆς κακῶν (Eur. *Tro.* 641-2)

But she is dead, just as though she has never seen light, and she knows nothing of her own misfortunes.

Note 1: Comparison may also be expressed by $\dot{\omega}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho\alpha\nu\epsilon i$ ($\ddot{\omega}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$ $\ddot{\alpha}\nu$ ϵi) + participle. This construction may be seen as a case of a comparative conditional clause without a verb (\rightarrow 49.24):

(122) κραυγή καὶ βοή τῶν γυναικῶν τοσαύτη ... ἦν ώσπερανεὶ τεθνεῶτός τινος, ὥστε ... (Dem. 54.20)

There was so much wailing and shouting of the women as if someone had died, that . . .

Concession

- 52.44 To express concession, a participle is usually combined with καίπερ, καί (even though, although, even if) or καὶ ταῦτα (and that even though, regardless of the fact that) preceding the participle:
 - (123) Ἄδρηστον κατοικτίρει, καίπερ ἐών ἐν κακῷ . . . τοσούτῳ. (Hdt. 1.45.2) He took pity on Adrastus, although he found himself in so much agony.
 - (124) πῶς οὐκ ἄν ἄθλιοι γεγονότες εἶεν . . . μηδὲν πλέον νέμοντες τοῖς φίλοις . . . ἢ τοῖς ἐχθροῖς, καὶ ταῦτα ἄρχοντες ἐν τῇ ἑαυτῶν πόλει; (Pl. Grg. 492b-c)

 How could they fail to be wretched, if they did not give a larger portion to their friends than to their enemies, and that even though they ruled in their own city?

Note 1: In poetry $\pi \epsilon \rho$ ($\rightarrow 59.55$) is sometimes used to give concessive force to the participle:

(125) χώρει σύ· μὴ πρόσλευσσε, γενναῖός <u>περ ἄν</u>. (Soph. *Phil.* 1068) Go. Don't look at him, noble though you are.

Dominant Use of Circumstantial Participles

52.45 Occasionally, a circumstantial participle is indispensable for the correct interpretation of a sentence, providing more relevant information than the head noun it modifies

(syntactically speaking). The participle, together with its noun, serves as obligatory constituent (and as such, the participle is not syntactically 'optional'). This is called the **dominant** use of the participle:

(126) ἐλύπει αὐτὸν ἡ χώρα πορθουμένη. (Xen. An. 7.7.12)

The fact that the country was being ravaged grieved him (lit. 'the country being ravaged grieved him'). The entirety of $\dot{\eta} \chi \dot{\omega} \rho \alpha \pi o \rho \theta o \nu \mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu \eta$, not merely $\dot{\eta} \chi \dot{\omega} \rho \alpha$, is subject of $\dot{\epsilon} \lambda \dot{\omega} \pi \epsilon i$. The interpretation as a dominant participle is facilitated by the fact that a country cannot normally cause grief.

In essence, such constructions are nominalized clauses: ἡ χώρα πορθουμένη in (126) represents ἡ χώρα πορθεῖται *the country is being ravaged* in nominal form (in the nom. as subject of ἐλύπει).

Dominant participle constructions are also often used to complement prepositions:

μετὰ <u>Σόλωνα οἰχόμενον</u> after Solon's departure ἐπὶ Θεοφίλου ἄρχοντος during the archonship of Theophilus

(127) ἐς μὲν γὰρ <u>ἄνδρα</u> σκῆψιν εἶχ' <u>ὀλωλότα</u>, | παίδων δ' ἔδεισε μὴ φθονηθείη φόνω. (Eur. *El.* 29–30)

For with respect to the death of her husband she had an excuse (*lit.* 'with respect to her husband, being dead, she had an excuse'), but she feared that she would be despised for the murder of her children.

Note 1: The construction is also sometimes called the *ab urbe condita* construction, after the comparable Latin construction (*ab urbe condita* = 'from the founding of the city').

The Participle in Noun Phrases

Attributive Use (as Modifier) and Substantival Use (as Head)

52.46 The participle can be used with an article in noun phrases, either as a modifier (attributive use) or as head (substantival use):

οἱ νόμοι οἱ κείμενοι the standing laws (attributive, modifier with νόμοι) τὰ παρόντα πράγματα the present circumstances (attributive, modifier

with πράγματα)

οί ἀπόντες the absent ones, absentees, those who are/were

absent (substantival, used as head)

τὰ ἀεὶ <u>παρόντα</u> the circumstances at any given time (substantival,

used as head)

(128) ἐν ῷ δὲ ὡπλίζοντο ἦκον ... οἱ προπεμφθέντες σκοποί. (Xen. An. 2.2.15)

- While they were arming, the scouts who had been sent ahead returned. Attributive, modifier with $\sigma \varkappa \sigma \pi o i$.
- (129) ἔλεγον ώς εἴη τὰ ἔργα τὰ <u>γεγενημένα</u> οὐκ ὀλίγων ἀνδρῶν ἀλλ' ἐπὶ τῆ τοῦ δήμου καταλύσει. (Andoc. 1.36)
 - They claimed that the acts which had been committed were not those of a few men, but were intended to overthrow the democracy. Attributive, modifier with $\tilde{\epsilon}\rho\gamma\alpha$.
- (130) ΚΑ. τίνος πρόσωπον δῆτ' ἐν ἀγκάλαις ἔχεις; | :: ΑΓ. λέοντος, ὥς γ' ἔφασκον αἱ θηρώμεναι. (Eur. Bacch. 1277-8)
 (Cadmus:) Whose head, then, are you carrying in your arms? :: (Agaue:) That of a lion, or so the hunting women said, at least. Substantival.
- (131) ἀναλαβών . . . τοὺς ἐν τῇ μάχῃ πρὸς τοὺς ελληνας αὐτομολήσαντας. (Xen. An.~1.10.6)
 - ... having picked up those who had defected to the Greeks during the battle. Substantival. Observe that the participle is itself modified by ἐν τῆ μάχῃ πρὸς τοὺς ελληνας.

Note 1: For the position of the participle relative to the article (and the head noun), $\rightarrow 28.11-12$, 28.25.

Note 2: Some substantivally used participles developed into nouns: e.g. ὁ ἄρχων *chief, magistrate* (cf. ἄρχω *rule*).

- 52.47 Occasionally, attributive/substantival participles occur without an article:
 - (132) ... φαμένη τὸν Νεῖλον ῥέειν ἀπὸ τηκομένης χιόνος. (Hdt. 2.22.1)
 - ... claiming that the Nile flows from melting snow. Attributive, modifier with χίονος.
 - (133) ἔπλει δώδεκα τριήρεις ἔχων ἐπὶ πολλὰς ναῦς κεκτημένους. (Xen. Hell. 5.1.19)

 He sailed with twelve triremes against men who had many ships. Substantival.

Generic Use

- 52.48 When the article is used with a participle (especially with present participles), it often has **generic value** (\rightarrow 28.6), with the sense 'whoever . . .'. The **negative** in this case is μή:
 - (134) πῶς ἄν γένοιντο πονηρότεροι ἄνθρωποι ... τοῦ παιδεύοντος τὰ τοιαῦτα; (Dem. 35.42)
 - How could there be men more wicked than whoever teaches such things?
 - (135) ό μὴ γαμῶν ἄνθρωπος οὐκ ἔχει κακά. (Men. Sent. 437)
 An unmarried man has no troubles.

Note 1: The participle of βούλομαι *want* is used generically particularly often: ὁ βουλόμενος *anyone who likes, any chance person*:

(136) ΣΥ. κατηγορεῖ δὲ τίς; | :: ΔΙ. ό βουλόμενος. :: ΣΥ. οὔκουν ἐκεῖνός εἰμ' ἐγώ; (Ar. Plut. 917–18)
 (Sycophant:) And who's the accuser? :: (Just Man:) Any volunteer. :: (Sycophant:) I'm it!

Tense/Aspect of Attributive and Substantival Participles

- 52.49 The **aspectual distinctions** between different tense stems (\rightarrow 52.4–5) are fully relevant for attributive and substantival participles.
 - Such distinctions typically result in an interpretation of relative tense (→33.57);
 for instance, προπεμφθέντες in (128) above is anterior to ἦκον, θηρώμεναι in (130) is simultaneous with ἔφασκον, γεγενημένα in (129) refers to a state simultaneous with εἴη;
 - Not infrequently, however, other connotations of aspect are equally or more relevant (also \rightarrow 33.58):
 - (137) Τραυσοὶ ... κατὰ δὲ τὸν γινόμενόν σφι καὶ ἀπογινόμενον ποιεῦσι τοιάδε· τὸν μὲν γενόμενον ... ὀλοφύρονται, ... τὸν δ' ἀπογενόμενον παίζοντές τε καὶ ἡδόμενοι γῆ κρύπτουσι. (Hdt. 5.4.1)

The Trausi behave as follows with respect to those who are born and those who die. When a child is born they lament it, but when someone dies they bury him with celebration and gladness. The present participles γινόμενον and ἀπογινόμενον refer to repeated births and deaths ('every time someone is born/dies'), while the aorist participles γενόμενον and ἀπογενόμενον single out an individual birth or death to discuss what happens in such cases ('the one who is born/who has died').

Note 1: The future participle with the article can be used to refer to an identifiable group or class of people who intend, are intended and/or are able and likely to carry out an action:

(138) τίς οὖν <u>ὁ γνωσόμενος</u> εἰ τὸ προσῆκον εἶδος κερκίδος ἐν ὁποιῳοῦν ξύλῳ κεῖται; ὁ ποιἡσας, ὁ τέκτων, ἢ <u>ὁ χρησόμενος</u> ὁ ὑφάντης; (Pl. *Cra*. 390b)

Who is likely to know whether the correct form of a shuttle resides in a certain piece of wood? The person who made it, the carpenter, or the one who is to use it, the weaver?

Participles in Apposition

52.50 Attributive participles may also occur **in apposition** to a noun (phrase). This occurs particularly frequently with the participle of εἰμί *be*, often in apposition to a proper name.

(139) ἦγον δὲ καὶ ἄλλοι Θεσσαλῶν αὐτὸν καὶ ἐκ Λαρίσης Νικονίδας Περδίκκα ἐπιτήδειος ἄν. (Thuc. 4.78.2)

Other Thessalians escorted him as well, among them Niconidas from Larissa, who was a friend of Perdiccas. Περδίμμα ἐπιτήδειος ὤν stands in apposition to Νιμονίδας.

Note 1: As the participle in such cases does not stand in attributive position relative to the head noun and the article, context must determine whether a participle is to be interpreted as being in apposition or as a circumstantial participle (i.e. as standing in predicative position). In some cases both interpretations are possible:

(140) Ἐριχθόνιος ... παρὰ Κέκροπος ἄπαιδος <u>ὄντος</u> ἀρρένων παίδων ... τὴν βασιλείαν παρέλαβεν. (Isoc. 12.126)

Erichthonius took over the kingship from Cecrops, who was without male children. As translated, the participle is interpreted as being in apposition; it is also possible to translate 'because he was without male children' (circumstantial participle).

Periphrastic Uses of the Participle

είμί + Participle

- 52.51 In **ei**µ**i** + **participle** (usually present or perfect, less frequently aorist), the combined phrase is roughly equivalent to a finite form of the same verb (and in the same tense-aspect stem):
 - (141) ... ὅπως, ἄν μὲν ὑμῖν ἑκατὸν δέῃ τριήρων, τὴν ... δαπάνην ἑξήκοντα τάλαντα συντελῆ ... ἄν δὲ διακοσίων, τριάκοντα ... ἦ τάλαντα τὴν δαπάνην συντελοῦντα. (Dem. 14.20)
 - ... so that, if you need a hundred triremes, sixty talents will cover the cost, but if you need two hundred, thirty talents will cover the cost. ἢ συντελοῦντα corresponds roughly to pres. subj. συντελῆ, which is in fact used earlier in the sentence.
 - (142) οί δὲ Αἰτωλοὶ (<u>βεβοηθηκότες</u> γὰρ ἤδη <u>ἦσαν</u> ἐπὶ τὸ Αἰγίτιον) προσέβαλλον τοῖς 'Ἀθηναίοις. (Thuc. 3.97.3)
 - But the Aetolians (since by this time they had come to the rescue of Aegition), attacked the Athenians. βεβοηθημότες ἦσαν corresponds to ἐβεβοηθήμεσαν.

Note 1: There are various reasons why authors may have used a periphrastic construction with eiµi instead of a synthetic form, including possible slight differences of meaning, considerations of word order, metrical constraints (in poetry), register, variation, etc.

The considerations involved were probably not consistent over time, nor across tense stems or types of verb used for the participle.

52.52 Various perfect middle-passive forms occur only in periphrastic form with forms of εἰμί. For details, →19.8.

ἔχω + Participle

- 52.53 **ἔχω + participle** (nearly always with an aorist participle) a construction known as the σχῆμα ἀπτικόν οr σχῆμα Σοφόκλειον is roughly equivalent to a perfect indicative:
 - (143) καὶ νῦν ἀδελφὰ τῶνδε κηρύξας ἔχω | ἀστοῖσι παίδων τῶν ἀπ' Οἰδίπου πέρι. (Soph. Ant. 192–3)
 - And now I have proclaimed things akin to these to the citizens, concerning the sons of Oedipus. μηρύξας ἔχω is roughly equivalent to μεμήρυχα.
 - (144) τὸν λόγον δέ σου πάλαι <u>θαυμάσας ἔχω</u> ... (Pl. *Phdr.* 257c)

 For a long time I have wondered about your speech ... θαυμάσας ἔχω corresponds to τεθαύμακα.

Note 1: $\xi \chi \omega$ + participle occurs primarily in Sophocles and, less frequently, in Euripides and Herodotus. It occurs only rarely in later prose authors.

Note 2: The difference between $\xi \chi \omega$ + aorist participle and a perfect indicative (e.g. τεθαύμακα) is not always clear, and (as with εἰμί + ppl., \rightarrow 52.51 n.1) various considerations may have played a role in the choice of one over the other. The connotations of the periphrastic construction also were probably not consistent over time, nor across various types of verb used as the participle.

Overview of Subordinate Constructions

Complements

- Complement clauses fulfil the role of an obligatory constituent of the main predicate, usually subject or object (\rightarrow 39.3). Such complements can take the form of:
 - a dynamic or declarative infinitive;
 - a supplementary participle;
 - a ὅτι/ώς-clause;
 - an indirect question;
 - a fear clause with μή;
 - or an effort clause with ὅπως.

The following overview lists a number of semantically determined classes of verbs, together with the complements they take.

Verb Class	Meaning	Complement	\rightarrow
Phase	The verb expresses some	Present participle;	51.8,
ἄρχομαι <i>begin</i>	phase of the action (beginning,	Dynamic infinitive	52.9
παύομαι stop	continuation or end)		
παύω stop (someone)			
Modal	The verb expresses the need	Dynamic infinitive	51.8
δύναμαι be able	or possibility of an action		
δεῖ it is necessary	taking place		
Manipulative	The subject forces, tells or	Dynamic infinitive	51.8
ἀναγκάζω force	asks someone else to do		
κελεύω order	something		
Desiderative/Volitional	The subject wishes or decides	Dynamic infinitive	51.8
βούλομαι want to	that something should		
αἱρέομαι choose to	happen		
γιγνώσκω resolve to, decide to	•		
Practical knowledge	The subject knows how to do	Dynamic infinitive	51.8
ἐπίσταμαι know (how to)	something or teaches others		
διδάσκω teach (how to)	how to do something		
Direct perception	The subject perceives an	Present participle	52.9,
όράω see	action occurring by (one of)		52.14
ἀκούω hear	the senses		
Fearing	The subject fears the (future)	μή + subjunctive ¹	43
φοβέομαι <i>fear</i>	realization of an action	(for $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + ind., \rightarrow 43.5)	
φόβος ἐστί there is a fear			

Verb Class	Meaning	Complement	\rightarrow
Effort	The subject makes an effort to realize an	ὅπως + future indicative	44
φροντίζω take care σπεύδω strive	action	(for other constructions, $\rightarrow 44.6-7$)	
Opinion νομίζω believe οἴομαι think	The subject believes the action expressed in the complement to be true	Declarative infinitive	51.19
γιγνώσκω judge Intellectual knowledge and emotion ἐπίσταμαι understand γιγνώσκω know, realize	The subject knows, or emotionally responds to, the action expressed in the complement	Participle;	41.3, 41.15, 52.10
ἥδομαι be pleased, enjoy Declarative utterance (verbs of speech) λέγω say φημί say, claim	The subjects asserts the action expressed in the complement	Declarative infinitive; ὅτι + any tense/mood (φημί very rarely with ὅτι/ώς- clause)	41.3, 51.19
Interrogative utterance ἐρωτάω ask βουλεύομαι deliberate	The subject is uncertain about (an aspect of) the action expressed in the complement	(yes/no-questions) εἰ, πότερον ἤ , εἰ εἴτε; (specifying questions) τίς/ὅστις, πόσος/ὁπόσος, etc. + tense/mood of direct questions	42

Or oblique optative in historic sequence (after past-tense matrix verbs, $\rightarrow 40.12$).

Further Particulars

- 53.2 There are numerous verbs which depending on their complement may belong to more than one type: for example γιγνώσκω + declarative inf. = *judge* (verb of opinion), γιγνώσκω + dynamic inf. = *resolve to*, *decide to* (desiderative verb), γιγνώσκω + ppl. or ὅτι/ώς-clause = *realize* (intellectual knowledge). For overviews of such verbs, →51.28–33 and 52.17–28.
- 53.3 Some classes in the overview may be construed with more than one type of complement, with a distinction of meaning between the use of one complement or the other. For details, \rightarrow 52.27 (phase verbs), \rightarrow 52.28 (verbs of intellectual knowledge and emotion), and \rightarrow 51.19 n.1 (declarative utterance verbs).
- For the difference between the use of an oblique optative and 'retaining' the original mood in historic sequence, $\rightarrow 41.13-14$.

Adverbial and Adjectival Subordinate Clauses

53.5 The following overview lists the different adverbial and adjectival (i.e. relative) subordinate clauses of Greek, together with the conjunction(s) and mood(s) used for each type; if the use of a particular mood is dependent on (or strongly corresponds to) the use of a particular tense/mood in the matrix clause, this is given as well:

	Mood/tense in subordinate clause	Mood/tense in matrix clause	→
Purpose: ἵνα, ὅπως, α	ώς, μή (neg.)		45
	subjunctive (tense stem according to aspect);		
	oblique optative frequent with past-tens matrix clauses	se	
Result: దరాక			46
actual result	moods/tenses as in independent senten	ces	
natural/inevitable result	infinitive (tense stem according to aspect)		
Temporal: ὅτε, ὡς, ἐ	πεί, ἐπειδή, ἐν ὧ, ἔως, πρίν, etc.		47
referring to the past	past indicative		
referring to the	ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem	form with future	
future	according to aspect)	reference	
referring to habitual occurrence	ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem according to aspect)	present indicative	
	optative without ἄν (tense stem according to aspect)	imperfect	
πρίν	as above (with aorstem finite verb)	negative main clause, any tense/mood	
	infinitive (tense stem according to aspect)	non-negative main clause, any tense/ mood	
Causal: ὅτι, διότι and	d ἐπεί, ὡς		48
	moods/tenses as in independent sentences	any tense/mood	
	oblique optative with past-tense matrix clauses (with reported or alleged reason)		
Conditional: ei (con	cessive with καὶ εἰ / εἰ καί)		49
neutral	indicative (present or past tense) future indicative (often in threats, warnings, etc.)	any tense/mood form with future reference	

Mood/tense in subordinate clause	Mood/tense in matrix clause	\rightarrow
ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem	form with future	
according to aspect)	reference	
optative without ἄν (tense stem	ἄν + optative (tense	
according to aspect)	stem according to aspect)	
modal (secondary) indicative	αν + modal (second-	
	•	
(aor./impf./plpf. according to aspect)	(aor./impf./plpf. according to aspect)	
ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem	present indicative	
according to aspect)	•	
optative without av (tense stem	imperfect, pluperfect	
according to aspect)		
e clause) and apodosis (main clause) from two di	ferent types are often	
ditionals').		
etc.), ὄστις (etc.), ἔνθα, ὡς, etc.		50
moods/tenses as in independent senter	nces	
moods/tenses as in temporal and		
conditional clauses;		
counterfactual ἄν + sec. ind. and potential ἄν - opt. are possible	+	
	ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem according to aspect) optative without ἄν (tense stem according to aspect) modal (secondary) indicative without ἄν (aor./impf./plpf. according to aspect) ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem according to aspect) optative without ἄν (tense stem according to aspect) optative without ἄν (tense stem according to aspect) e clause) and apodosis (main clause) from two diditionals'). etc.), ὅστις (etc.), ἔνθα, ὡς, etc. moods/tenses as in independent senter moods/tenses as in temporal and conditional clauses; counterfactual ἄν + sec. ind. and potential ἄν -	matrix clause ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem according to aspect) optative without ἄν (tense stem according to aspect) modal (secondary) indicative without ἄν according to aspect) modal (secondary) indicative without ἄν according to aspect) ἄν + modal (secondwithout ἄν ary) indicative (aor./impf./plpf. according to aspect) ἄν + subjunctive (tense stem present indicative according to aspect) optative without ἄν (tense stem present indicative according to aspect) optative without ἄν (tense stem imperfect, pluperfect according to aspect) e clause) and apodosis (main clause) from two different types are often ditionals'). etc.), ὅστις (etc.), ἔνθα, ὡς, etc. moods/tenses as in independent sentences moods/tenses as in temporal and conditional clauses; counterfactual ἄν + sec. ind. and potential ἄν +

The future indicative can be used in relative clauses with purpose value; past or present indicatives are used with causal value or result value (often after ὄστις).

Further Particulars

- For the difference between the use of an oblique optative and 'retaining' the subjunctive in purpose clauses, $\rightarrow 45.3$ n.1.
- For attraction of mood (i.e. subordinate clauses taking on the mood of their matrix clauses), overriding the use of moods as detailed in the table, $\rightarrow 40.15$.

Overview of Moods

Indicative

54.1 Indicative in main clauses:

use	negative	\rightarrow
in statements and questions about present, past and future	οὐ	34.5
ποιοῦσι ταῦτα they are doing that		
τί ποιοῦσιν; what are they doing?		
où + second-person fut. ind. expressing an urgent command	(οὐ) μή	38.32
οὐ ποιήσεις ταῦτα; won't you do that? / do that!		
(τi) $o\dot{\upsilon}$ + first- or second-person pres./aor. ind. expressing a request or suggestion	(vo)	38.33
τί οὐκ ἐποιήσαμεν ταῦτα; why don't we do that?		
ὅπως + fut. ind. expressing a strong command	μή	38.34
ὅπως ποιήσεις ταῦτα (make sure you) do that!		

54.2 Indicative in **subordinate clauses**:

use	negative	\rightarrow
in fear clauses expressing disappointment about a present or past fact, with $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + pres. or pf. ind.	οὖ	43.5
δέδοικα μὴ πεποιήκασι ταῦτα I fear that they have done that		
in effort clauses (depending on a verb of effort), with $\ddot{o}\pi\omega_{S}$ ($\dot{\omega}_{S})$ + fut. ind.	μή	44.2
ὅρα <u>ὅπως ποιήσουσι</u> ταῦτα see to it that they do that		
in temporal clauses to refer to a single action in the past <u>ὅτε</u> ταῦτα <u>ἐποίησαν</u> , ηὐτύχουν when they had done that, they prospered	οử	47.7
in neutral conditional clauses , with εἰ εἰ ταῦτα <u>ποιοῦσιν</u> εὐτυχοῦσιν if they do that they prosper	μή	49.4
in neutral conditional clauses , with e i + fut. ind . (esp. in threats, warnings, etc.)	μή	49.5
εἰ ταῦτα ποιήσουσιν ἀποθανοῦνται if they do that they will die		
in restrictive relative clauses ἐπαινῶ ταῦτα <u>ἃ ποιοῦσιν</u> I praise the things which they are doing	οὐ/μή	50.19
in (digressive) relative clauses with causal force	οὖ	50.23

use	negative	\rightarrow
μή θορυβήσητε, <u>οι</u> οὐδὲν <u>λέγουσιν</u> don't make noise, you who speak nonsense		
in relative clauses with purpose force, with fut. ind.	οử	50.24
σύλλεγε ἄνδρας <u>οἳ</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιήσουσιν</u> gather men to do that (who will do that)		
in relative clauses with result force	οὐ	50.25
οὐδεὶς οὕτω μάχεται <u>ὄστις</u> οὐκ ἀποθανεῖν <u>ἐθέλει</u> no one fights in such a way that he is not willing to die		
for indirect statements, indirect questions, result clauses, causal clauses, digressive relative clauses, $\rightarrow 54.11$		

Modal (Secondary) Indicative

54.3 Modal indicative in **main clauses**:

ἄv	use	negativ	e →
+ ἄv	in counterfactual statements and questions	οử	34.16
	ἐποίησαν ἄν ταῦτα they would (have) do(ne) that (but didn't)		
- ἄv	in unrealizable wishes , with εἴθε, εἰ γάρ	μή	34.18
	<u>εἴθε ἐποίησαν</u> ταῦτα <i>would that they had done that</i> (but they haven't)		
	imperfect of impersonal verbs expressing unfulfilled necessity	οử	34.17
	<u>ἔδει</u> αὐτοὺς ποιεῖν/ποιῆσαι ταῦτα they should do/have done that (but don't/didn't)		
	imperfect ἐβουλόμην Ι would (have) like(d), ἔμελλον Ι would (have) be(en) likely to	οử	34.17

54.4 Modal indicative in **subordinate clauses**:

ἄν	use	negative	\rightarrow
+ ăv	in relative clauses referring to a counterfactual action	oử	50.17, 50.26
	ἐπαινῶ ταῦτα ἃ ἄν ἐποίησαν I praise the things which they would have done (but didn't)		
	for indirect statements, indirect questions, result clauses, causal clauses, digressive relative clauses, —54.11		
- ἄv	in counterfactual conditional clauses (main clause: modal (secondary) indicative with ἄν)	μή	49.10
	εἰ ταῦτα ἐποίησαν ηὐτύχουν ἄν if they had done that they would prosper (but they didn't)		
	in restrictive relative clauses with a counterfactual conditional force (main clause: modal (secondary) indicative with ἄν)	μή	50.22
	ἐπήνεσεν ἂν ταῦτα <u>ἃ ἐποίησαν</u> he would have praised the things they would have done (i.e. if they had done them, but they didn't)		
	through attraction of mood	μή	40.15

Subjunctive

54.5 Subjunctive in **main clauses**:

use	negative	\rightarrow
in first-person exhortations (hortatory) <u>ποιῶμεν</u> ταῦτα <i>let us do that</i>	μή	34.6
in second-person prohibitions, (prohibitive) with μή, aor. subj. only μή ποιήσης ταῦτα <i>don't do that</i>	μή	34.7
in first-person doubtful questions (deliberative) τί <u>ποιῶμεν</u> ; what should we do?	μή	34.8
in emphatic denials with οὐ μή <u>οὐ μἡ ποιήσω</u> ταῦτα <i>I will certainly not do that</i>	οὐ μή	34.9
in doubtful assertions with μή μή οὐχ οὕτως ἔχη I suspect that is not the case	(μὴ) οὐ	34.10

54.6 Subjunctive in **subordinate clauses**:

ἄv	use	negative	: →
- ἄ <i>ν</i>	in fear clauses (depending on a verb of fearing) referring to the future, with $\mu\dot{\eta}$	οử	43.3
	δέδοικα μὴ ποιήσωσι ταῦτα Ι fear that they do that		
	in fear clauses (depending on a verb of fearing) referring to an uncertain present or past action, with $\mu\dot{\eta}$	οử	43.4
	δέδοικα <u>μὴ πεποιήκωσι</u> ταῦτα <i>I fear that they may have done that</i>		
	in purpose clauses , with ἵνα, ὅπως, ὡς (also sometimes in effort clauses with ὅπως, ὡς)	μή	45.3, 44.3
	ἀπέρχονται <u>ἵνα ποιήσωσιν</u> ταῦτα they are leaving in order to do that		
+ ἄv	in prospective temporal, conditional and restrictive	μή	40.9, 47.8,
	relative clauses referring to (single) actions in the		49.6, 50.20
	future (main clause: fut. ind., imp., etc.)		
	<u>ὅταν/ἐὰν</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιήσωσιν</u> εὐτυχήσουσιν when/if they do that they will prosper		
	ἐπαινέσω ταῦτα <u>ἃ ἄν ποιήσωσιν</u> I will praise the things which they do (i.e. if they do them)		
	in indefinite temporal, conditional and restrictive	μή	40.9, 47.9,
	relative clauses referring to a non-past habitual/repeated		49.13, 50.21
	action (main clause: pres. ind.)		
	<u>ὅταν/ἐὰν</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιήσωσιν</u> εὐτυχοῦσιν whenever/if ever they do that they prosper		
	ος ἄν ταῦτα ποιῆ εὐτυχεῖ whoever does that prospers		

54.6-8 Optative 643

ἄv	use	negative	\rightarrow
	occasionally in purpose clauses (also in effort clauses) with $\mathring{o}\pi\omega_S$, $\mathring{\omega}_S$; prospective $\mathring{o}v$ + subj.	μή	45.5, 44.4
	ἀπέρχονται <u>ὅπως ἄν</u> <u>ποιήσωσι</u> ταῦτα they are leaving in order to do	that	

Optative

54.7 Optative in **main clauses**:

ἄν	use	negat	ive →
- ἄν	in realizable wishes (' cupitive '), often with εἴθε, εἰ γάρ, ώς	μή	34.14
	(εἴθε) ποιοίης ταῦτα may you do that		
+ ἄν	potential optative:	οử	34.13
	 in statements and questions about possible actions <u>ποιοῖεν ἄν</u> ταῦτα they may/might/could do that 		
	 - (with a negative) in emphatic negations οὐ ποιοῖεν ἄν ταῦτα they could/would not do that 		
	- in cautious commands, permissions, etc. ποιοίης ἄν ταῦτα <i>please, do that</i>		

54.8 Optative in **subordinate clauses**:

ἄν	use	negative	: →
- ἄν	iterative optative: in temporal, conditional and restrictive relative clauses referring to a habitual/repeated action in	μή	40.9, 47.10, 49.13, 50.21
	the past (main clause: imperfect)		
	<u>ὅτε/εἰ</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιήσειαν</u> ηὐτύχουν whenever/if ever they did that they prospered		
	<u>ος</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιοίη</u> ηὐτύχει whoever did that prospered		
	in potential conditional clauses (main clause: potential	μή	49.8
	optative with ἄν)		
	εὶ ταῦτα ποιοῖεν εὐτυχοῖεν ἄν if they were to do that they may/could/might prosper		
	in restrictive relative clauses with a potential conditional value (main clause: potential optative with $\alpha\nu$)	μή	50.22
	ἐπαινέσαιμ' ἄν ταῦτα <u>ὰ ποιήσειαν</u> I would praise the things which they do (i.e. if they should do them)		

ἄν	use	negative	·>
	in historic sequence an oblique optative can be used in: 40.1		
	- indirect statements (ὅτι/ὡς)	νο	41.9
	ἔλεγον <u>ὅτι</u> ποιοῖεν ταῦτα they said that they were doing that	•	
	- indirect questions (also to replace deliberative subj.)	οὐ	42.7
	ἥροντο <u>τί</u> <u>ποιοῖεν</u> they asked what they did/should do		
	- fear clauses (frequently)	(μἡ) οὐ	43.3
	ἐφοβούμην <u>μἡ ποιήσειαν</u> ταῦτα <i>I feared that they would</i> do that		
	- effort clauses (rarely) with fut. opt.	μή	44.2
	ἐπεμέλοντο <u>ὅπως</u> <u>ποιήσοιεν</u> ταῦτα they took care that they did that		
	- purpose clauses (frequently)	μή	45.3
	ἀπῆλθον ἴνα ποιοῖεν ταῦτα they left in order to do that		
	- causal clauses, to refer to an alleged/reported reason	οὖ	48.2
	ἐγράφοντο αὐτὸν <u>διότι</u> τοὺς νέους <u>διαφθείρειε</u> they sued him on the grounds that he spoilt the youth		
	- also in subordinate clauses within subordinate clauses		40.14, 41.19
	(where ἄν + subj. is replaced by opt. without ἄν), particularly subordinate clauses within indirect speech		
	ἔλεγον ὅτι εὐτυχήσοιεν <u>ὅτε/εἰ</u> ταῦτα <u>ποιήσειαν</u> they said that they would prosper when/if they did that		
	through attraction of mood	μή	40.15
	for the (rare) use of the cupitive optative in subordinate clauses, \rightarrow 54.11		
+ ἄν	in relative clauses referring to a possible action	οὐ	50.17, 50.26
	ἐπαινῶ ταῦτα <u>ἃ ἂν ποιήσειαν</u> I praise the things which they might do		
	for indirect statements, indirect questions, result clauses, causal clauses, digressive relative clauses, \rightarrow 54.11		

Imperative

54.9 Imperative in main clauses:

use	negati	ve →	
in second- and third-person commands, requests, etc.		34.19-20	_
ποίει ταῦτα do that			
ποιείτω ταῦτα let him do that			
in second-person prohibitions with $\mu\dot{\eta}$, (pres. imp. only)	μή	34.19-20	
μὴ ποίει ταῦτα don't do that / stop doing that			

54.10 For the (rare) use of the imperative in subordinate clauses, \rightarrow 54.11.

Moods of Independent Sentences in Subordinate Clauses

54.11 In indirect statements (ὅτι/ὡς-clauses; →41.7–15), indirect questions (→42.7–8), result clauses (not with the inf., →46.4–6), causal clauses (→48.2–3), and in digressive relative clauses (→50.17) the moods of independent sentences are used (although imperatives, hortatory/prohibitive subjunctives and cupitive optatives are all rare).

The oblique optative can be used in historic sequence in some of these types (indirect speech, indirect questions, causal clauses).

Overview of the Uses of av

In Independent Sentences

The uses of $\alpha \nu$ in independent sentences:

	main clause	(corresponding subordinate clause)
with optative (pres./aor./pf.)	potential construction (\rightarrow 34.13): in statements/questions about a possible action, cautious requests, etc.	corresponding conditional/relative clauses usually have optative without $\Drev{a}\nu$ ($\rightarrow 40.10$)
	ποιήσειαν ἄν ταῦτα	εὶ πλούσιοι <u>γένοιντο</u> .
	They would/might/could do that	if they should become rich.
with secondary indicative (impf./aor./plpf.)	counterfactual construction (→34.15–17): in statements/questions about an action that would have occurred under certain circumstances which were/are not realized	corresponding conditional/relative clauses usually have secondary indicative without ἄν ($ ightarrow 40.10$)
	ἐποίησαν ἄν ταῦτα They would have done that	εὶ πλούσιοι ἦσαν if they were rich (but they were not).
	iterative ἄν (→33.24 n.1): referring to repeated actions in the past ἐποίησαν ἄν ταῦτα They used to do that.	

In Finite Subordinate Clauses

55.2 The uses of ἄν in subordinate clauses:

	subordinate clause	corresponding matrix clause
with subjunctive (pres./aor./pf.)	prospective construction $(\rightarrow 40.9)$:	verb form with future reference (fut. ind., imp., subj., →33.63-4)
	in temporal, conditional and relative clauses referring to the future	

	subordinate clause	corresponding matrix clause			
	ἐὰν ποιήσωσι ταῦτα	πλούσιοι <u>γενήσονται</u>			
	If they (will) do that	they will become rich.			
	the prospective construction is sometimes used in purpose clauses (\rightarrow 45.4), and in effort clauses (\rightarrow 44.4)				
	indefinite construction (\rightarrow 40.9): in temporal, conditional and relative clauses referring to a repeated, typical action	present indicative (or other verb form referring to a repeated, typical action)			
	<u>ἐὰν ποιήσωσι</u> ταῦτα	πλούσιοι <u>γίγνονται</u>			
	Whenever they do that	they become rich.			
with optative	potential construction: in subordinate				
(pres./aor./pf.)	clauses that use the moods of main clauses				
	$(\rightarrow 40.5)$, and sometimes in restrictive				
	relative clauses (\rightarrow 50.26)				
with secondary	counterfactual construction: in subordi-				
indicative	nate clauses that use the moods of main				
(impf./aor./plpf.)	clauses (\rightarrow 40.5), and sometimes in restric-				
	tive relative clauses (\rightarrow 50.26)				

With Infinitives and Participles

55.3 The uses of $\alpha \nu$ with infinitives and participles:

with infinitive (pres./aor./pf.)	with declarative infinitives (in indirect speech/thought, \rightarrow 51.27), representing either:		
	- a potential construction:		
	οἴει αὐτοὺς τοῦτο <u>ἄν ποιῆσαι,</u> εἰ πλούσιοι γένοιντο;		
	Do you think that they could/might/would do that, if they should become rich?		
	- or a counterfactual construction:		
	οἴει αὐτοὺς τοῦτο <u>ἄν ποιῆσαι,</u> εἰ πλούσιοι ἦσαν;		
	Do you think that they would have done that, if they had been rich?		
with participle (pres./aor./pf.)	with the participle in any use (but not with all types of supplementary participle, and only sometimes with circumstantial participles), representing either a potential optative or a counterfactual indicative (\rightarrow 52.7, 52.10 n.1)		

Overview of Negatives

General Points

où versus un

56.1 The distinction between two different negatives in Greek, οὐ and μή, extends throughout their use in various compound forms:

```
ύo
οὔτε . . . οὔτε
                        μήτε . . . μήτε
                                                 neither ... nor; not ... and not
οὐδέ
                        μηδέ
                                                 and not; but not; not even
                                                 no one / nothing
οὐδείς
                        μηδείς
οὐδαμοῦ
                        μηδαμοῦ
                                                 nowhere
οὔποτε / οὐ . . . ποτε
                        μήποτε / μή . . . ποτε
                                                never
οὔπω / οὐ . . . πω
                        μήπω / μή . . . πω
                                                 not yet (in poetry also: in no way)
οὐκέτι / οὐ . . . ἔτι
                        μηκέτι / μή . . . ἔτι
                                                 no longer
```

Before vowels, où takes the form où<u>k</u>; before vowels with rough breathing, où<u>x</u> (\rightarrow 1.42). The form oʊ/oʊk/oʊx (with accent) is used primarily in answers (\rightarrow 38.21). There is also an intensive, emphatic form, oùxí.

- 56.2 The distinction between the two negatives is, broadly speaking, as follows:
 - οὐ is the **neutral negative**, expressing that something is factually not the case (or, in questions, asking whether it is not). It contradicts or denies: οὐκ ἔστι ταῦτα that is not true.
 - μή is the subjective negative, expressing something about what is desired or hoped. It rejects and deprecates: μἡ ἔστω ταῦτα let that not be true.

There are, however, several specific uses of $\mu\dot{\eta}$ which do not easily fall under this definition ($\rightarrow 56.6$ –17).

Multiple Negatives

- 56.3 If there are two or more negatives in one clause, they **cancel** each other if (and only if):
 - the second negative is simple, i.e. not a compound form;
 - both negatives belong to the same predicate:

- (1) οὐδεὶς ἀνθρώπων ἀδικῶν τίσιν οὐκ ἀποτίσει. (Hdt. 5.56.1)

 No man will not get punishment for being unjust. (= 'Everyone who is unjust will be punished.'; the second negative is simple and both negatives belong to the same predicate, so they cancel each other.)
- If the second negative is a compound, it **intensifies** the first (only one should be translated as negative):
 - (2) οὐκ ἔστιν ἀνδρὶ ἀγαθῷ κακὸν οὐδέν. (Pl. Ap. 41d) Nothing evil (at all) happens to a good man. The second negative is a compound form, so it strengthens the first.
- 56.5 Negatives belonging to different predicates or phrases keep their force:
 - (3) οὐ διὰ τὸ μὴ ἀκοντίζειν οὐκ ἔβαλον αὐτόν. (Antiph. 3.4.6)
 It was not because they did not throw (lit. 'not because of the not-throwing') that they did not hit him. The first οὐ modifies the prepositional phrase διὰ . . . ἀποντίζειν, μή modifies ἀποντίζειν, the second οὐπ modifies ἔβαλον: the suggestion is 'it was not for a lack of trying that they missed him'.

In Independent Sentences

- 56.6 In **statements**, où and its compounds are used with:
 - the indicative:
 - the potential optative with $\alpha \nu (\rightarrow 34.13)$;
 - the modal (secondary) indicative with ἄν (counterfactual, →34.16); also the 'modal' use of imperfects like ἔδει/(ἐ)χρῆν (→34.17).

Note 1: The combination où $\mu\dot{\eta}$ + (aor.) subj. expresses an emphatic denial, a strong belief that something will not be the case (\rightarrow 34.9).

Note 2: The combination $\mu\dot{\eta}$ (o \dot{v}) + subj. expresses a doubtful assertion (\rightarrow 34.10).

- In negative wishes, negative adhortations, prohibitions, etc., $\mu\dot{\eta}$ and its compounds are used with:
 - the imperative or agrist subjunctive (in prohibitions) (\rightarrow 34.19, 34.7);
 - the first-person (or third-person) subjunctive (in negative adhortations) (\rightarrow 34.6);
 - the cupitive optative without $\alpha \nu$ (in negative wishes) ($\rightarrow 34.14$).
- 56.8 In questions:
 - when introducing a yes/no-question, οὐ/οὐκοῦν signals that the answer yes is expected: 'isn't it the case that ...?', 'it is the case that ..., isn't it?', 'surely ...?' (→38.7);

- μή/μῶν is used in yes/no-questions to indicate that the speaker is reluctant to accept a positive answer as true: 'is it really the case that ...?', 'it isn't the case that ..., is it?', 'surely not ...?' (\rightarrow 38.8);
- in specifying questions (\rightarrow 38.11-14), où is used.

In Subordinate Clauses

- 56.9 In the following types of subordinate clause, où is used:
 - declarative ὡς/ὅτι-clauses (indirect speech) (→41) and indirect questions/exclamations (→42);
 - fear clauses (note that the subordinator in these clauses is $\mu \dot{\eta}$ that) (\rightarrow 43);
 - result clauses (ιωστε) with the moods of independent sentences (actual result) (→46.4-6);
 - **temporal clauses** referring to the past (ἐπεί, ὅτε, etc.) (\rightarrow 47.7);
 - causal clauses (ὅτι, διότι; ἐπεί, etc.) (→48);
 - digressive **relative clauses** (\mathring{o}_5 , etc.), some restrictive relative clauses, relative clauses with causal or result force, relative clauses with potential opt. + $\mathring{a}v$ or counterfactual modal ind. + $\mathring{a}v$ ($\rightarrow 50.17, 50.19, 50.23, 50.25-6$).
- 56.10 In the following types of subordinate clause, $\mu \dot{\eta}$ is used:
 - effort clauses (ὅπως) (→44);
 - purpose clauses (ἵνα, ὅπως, ὡς; μή is also used on its own) (\rightarrow 45);
 - result clauses (ωστε) with the infinitive (likely/natural result) (→46.7-11);
 - **temporal clauses** referring to the future or to repeated/habitual occurrences $(\rightarrow 47.8-11)$;
 - conditional clauses (εἰ) and concessive clauses (εἰ καί/καὶ εἰ) (→49);
 - most restrictive **relative clauses** (${}^{\circ}_{5}$, etc.), relative clauses with the force of purpose-clauses ($\rightarrow 50.18-22, 50.24$).

Note 1: Restrictive relative clauses with the indicative have $\mu\dot{\eta}$ when the clause has conditional or generic force: $\rightarrow 50.19$.

With Infinitives

56.11 The negative with the **dynamic infinitive** (to complement verbs) is $\mu \dot{\eta}$ (\rightarrow 51.13).

Note 1: When a verb that takes a dynamic infinitive is itself negated, the negative with the infinitive is often $\mu \dot{\eta} \circ \dot{v}$, $\rightarrow 51.37$.

- The negative with the **declarative infinitive** (used in indirect speech) is nearly always $o\dot{\mathbf{u}}$ ($\rightarrow 51.22$; for exceptions, $\rightarrow 51.23$).
- 56.13 μή is always used with verbs of denying (+ decl. inf.) and verbs of preventing, forbidding, etc. (+ dyn. inf.). When a verb of denying or preventing, etc. is itself negated, it is followed by μἡ οὐ (→51.34-6).
- 56.14 The articular infinitive (with the article) has negative $\mu\dot{\eta}$ (\rightarrow 51.42).

With Participles

- 56.15 With the **supplementary** participle (used to complement verbs, e.g. τυγχάνω, οἶδα, χαίρω), the negative is **οὐ**.
- 56.16 The participle in noun phrases has:
 - οὐ when it refers to a specific entity: ὁ οὐ βαίνων the (specific) man who is not walking;
 - μή when it refers to an entire species or class ('generic', →52.48): ὁ μἡ βαίνων = whatever man is not walking.

Note 1: This same 'generic' use of $\mu\dot{\eta}$ is also common with nouns and with substantivized adjectives: οἱ $\mu\dot{\eta}$ πλούσιοι whoever are not rich (i.e. the non-rich); ὁ $\mu\dot{\eta}$ ιατρός whoever is not a doctor; and with restrictive relative clauses with the indicative, \rightarrow 50.19.

56.17 The **circumstantial** participle (connected/genitive absolute) usually has oὐ, but μή when the participle has a conditional nuance (→52.40).

Overview of the Uses of ώς

As a Conjunction

- 57.1 The word ώς functions as a **conjunction** in the following cases:
 - as a relative adverb in clauses of comparison (such as, like; also ὅπως, ὅσπερ and καθάπερ), either with or without οὕτω(ς) in the matrix clause,
 →50.37:

 ώς ἔοικε
 as it appears

 ώς ἐμοὶ δοκεῖ
 as it seems to me

(1) ἐκέλευσε δὲ τοὺς ελληνας, <u>ὡς</u> νόμος αὐτοῖς εἰς μάχην, <u>οὕτω</u> ταχθῆναι. (Xen. An. 1.2.15)

He ordered that the Greeks be stationed as was their custom in battle.

Also in answers to questions with $m\tilde{\omega}_{5}$ (more frequently $\tilde{\omega}\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$):

(2) ΘΕ. πῶς τοὺς θανόντας θάπτετ' ἐν πόντῳ νεκρούς; | :: ΜΕ. ὡς ἄν παρούσης οὐσίας ἕκαστος ἦ (Eur. Hel. 1252-3) (Theoclymenus:) How do you bury those who die at sea? :: (Menelaus:) As well as each man's wealth allows.

Note 1: For comparative temporal clauses ($\dot{\omega}_5$ $\ddot{\sigma}_{\tau\epsilon}$ as when, like), \rightarrow 47.17; for comparative conditional clauses ($\dot{\omega}_{\sigma}(\pi_{\epsilon\rho})$ ($\ddot{\alpha}_{\nu}$) $\dot{\epsilon}_i$ as if, like), \rightarrow 49.22–4.

- in **indirect statement** after verbs of speech, etc. (that, how), \rightarrow 41.4-6:

λέγει ώς . . . he says that . . .

- in **indirect exclamations** (what, how), $\rightarrow 42.9-11$:

θαυμάζει <u>ώς</u> . . . he is amazed at how . . .

- to complement verbs of **effort**, with the future indicative (more frequently onumber one one of the formula of the future of the future indicative (more frequently one of the future indicative (more f
- in **purpose clauses** with the subjunctive (or optative in historic sequence), sometimes with δv (so as to, in order to), $\rightarrow 45$:

57.1–2 As an Adverb 653

(3) καὶ ἄμα ταῦτ' εἰπὼν ἀνέστη, ὡς μἡ μέλλοιτο ... τὰ δέοντα. (Xen. An. 3.1.47) And as soon as he had said these things, he stood up, so that what was required would not be delayed.

- in **result clauses** (more frequently ἄστε), with the infinitive or with the moods of independent sentences (so that, with the result that), \rightarrow 46:
- (4) ... ύψηλὸν δὲ οὕτω ... ώς τὰς κορυφὰς οὐκ οἶα τε εἶναι ἰδέσθαι. (Hdt. 4.184.3) ... but so high that it was impossible to see the mountaintops.
- in **temporal clauses** (when, after, as soon as, especially in the form ω₅ (...) τάχιστα), →47:
- (5) ώς τάχιστα ἕως ὑπέφαινεν, ἐθύοντο. (Xen. An. 4.3.9)
 As soon as a shimmer of daylight was breaking through, they sacrificed.
- (6) <u>ώς</u> διαβαίνειν ἐπειρᾶτο ὁ Κῦρος . . . , ἐνθαῦτα . . . (Hdt. 1.189.1) When Cyrus tried to cross, at that moment . . .
- introducing **new sentences**, with **causal** force, expressing a motivation for the previous utterance (*because*, as), $\rightarrow 48.5$.

As an Adverb

- 57.2 In the following constructions, ώς is an adverb:
 - in **direct exclamations** (*how!*), modifying an adjective, adverb or verb, \rightarrow 38.47:
 - (7) ώς πολλὸν ἀλλήλων κεχωρισμένα ἐργάσαο. (Hdt. 7.46.1)
 How different from each other the things that you have done!
 - with a superlative (as . . . as possible):
 ώς κράτιστα as strong as possible
 - with a participle, giving a subjective reason or motivation (because, on the grounds that, thinking that), purpose (with the future participle, so as to, in order to) or to express comparison (as (if), just like), →52.39, 52.41, 52.43:
 - (8) ταύτην τὴν χώραν ἐπέτρεψε διαρπάσαι τοῖς Ελλησιν $\underline{\omega_{S}}$ πολεμίαν οὖσαν. (Xen. An. 1.2.19)
 - He turned this country over to the Greeks to ravage, on the grounds that it was hostile.
 - (9) παρεσκευάζοντο ώς πολεμήσοντες. (Thuc. 2.7.1) They made preparations to go to war.
 - (10) λέγουσιν ἡμᾶς ώς ὀλωλότας. (Aesch. Ag. 672)They speak of us as dead.
 - in various idiomatic expressions with the infinitive, e.g. ως εἰπεῖν as it were, if
 I may use this expression, →51.49;
 - in wishes (in poetry) (would that, if only), \rightarrow 38.38;

- with **numerals** and **words indicating degree** (roughly, about):
- (11) ὁπλίτας ἔχων ώς πεντακοσίους (Xen. An. 1.2.3) having about five hundred hoplites

Note 1: ως (so accented) is a demonstrative adverb (so, thus, in this way):

καὶ ὥς

even so

οὐδ' ὥς

not even in that case

Similarly:

ώσαύτως

in the same way

As a Preposition

57.3 $ω_S$ functions as a **preposition** with the accusative meaning *to(wards)*, used only with motion to people, \rightarrow 31.9:

<u>ώς</u> Σωκράτη

to Socrates

Part III

Textual Coherence

Introduction to Textual Coherence

Coherence

Sentences versus Texts

- Almost all of the grammatical phenomena discussed in part II of this book operate at the level of individual **sentences**. However, when people communicate in speech or writing, they usually do not stop at a single sentence. Rather, their sentences combine to form a larger whole: a speaker may relate a series of separate events to tell an overarching story, or make a claim and back it up with proofs and explanations, or describe a person or thing, commenting on various relevant aspects, and so forth. In short, when people communicate with each other, they usually speak or write entire **texts**, which may vary in length from a few sentences to entire speeches or books.
- Texts do not consist of sentences which are randomly placed together: a text is always more than the sum of its parts. In fact, when people hear or read a text, they intuitively look for relationships between the individual sentences: they look for textual coherence.

By way of example, the following two English sentences may, at first sight, be nothing more than two assertions randomly put together:

- (1) It was raining.
- (2) Mary stayed at home.

However, it is rather difficult to resist the urge to regard these two sentences together, as a coherent and meaningful text. When we do, it is easy to find a relationship between the sentences. If we read the sentences together,

(3) It was raining. Mary stayed at home.

we will interpret the first sentence as providing the reason for the second: *It was raining* explains why *Mary stayed at home*.

The coherence between the two sentences may be made explicit by adding a word which connects them:

(4) It was raining. Therefore Mary stayed at home.

In this new text, the word *therefore* is an explicit signal that there is a causal connection between the two sentences. The addition of *therefore* is not necessary to establish that causal connection, but it is a way for the speaker/writer to make interpreting the text easier for the addressee.

Relations between Text Segments; Hierarchy; Interactional Relations

- In the following two examples, as in (4), the word *therefore* indicates a connection between two segments of text:
 - (5) It is raining. Therefore (=that is why) the streets are wet.
 - (6) The streets are wet. Therefore (≠that is why) it is raining.

In (5) it is possible to speak of a 'real-world' causal connection between the two sentences: the fact that it is raining causes the streets to be wet. But in (6), a different kind of causal relationship exists: the fact that the streets are wet is not the cause of rain, but rather, the speaker of (6) uses *therefore* to explain why he can say that it is raining. Note that here *is* might be paraphrased as *must be*.

Often, textual devices which indicate coherence relations in texts function specifically on this latter level: they do not refer to relations or entities in the world described by the text, but to **relationships between text segments**. Such relations include 'explanation', 'justification', 'conclusion', 'elaboration', etc. Greek connective particles (\rightarrow 59.7–39) function to indicate such relations particularly often.

- It is often useful to think of the relations between text segments in terms of hierarchy: one text segment may be more 'central' than, or 'superior' to, another text segment which serves to explain, support, elaborate, etc. the former. Many indicators of coherence relations have a rather abstract function indicating hierarchy, with different individual 'effects' in different contexts:
 - (7) Two times two equals four. <u>So</u> four divided by two equals two. The first sentence logically entails and thus supports the second: 'so' indicates the transition to the conclusion, which is the hierarchically 'superior' text segment.
 - (8) John left home late. So he missed his train. The main 'point' of this bit of story is that John missed his train; the fact that he left home late is information needed to understand that point; 'so' indicates the transition to the more central text segment.
 - (9) That is what he said about that. <u>So</u> let us examine if what he said was true. The first sentence appears to round off a previous text segment, after which the speaker turns to the now more relevant part of what he wants to do; 'so' marks the transition.

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Note 1: There is, of course, a causal relationship between (e.g.) 'leaving home late' and 'missing one's train' in (8), but this relationship of causality, although very frequently present with *so*, may be seen as only one possible instantiation of a more basic function, indicating certain kinds of (hierarchical) textual relations.

Thus, meanings such as 'cause', 'explanation', 'justification', etc. may sometimes be seen as side effects of more abstract, basic textual functions. An additional complication is that devices often change their function over time: words which originally had a very specific meaning (e.g. cause) may develop into an indicator of more abstract textual relationships (e.g. indicating hierarchical relationships), while maintaining its original function in some instances.

- In addition to relations between text segments, some indicators of coherence operate on the level of **interaction between speaker**, **addressee and text**:
 - (10) It is raining. After all, the streets are wet.

Just like in (6), *after all* serves to explain why the speaker can say that it is raining. But it also appears to do something else: *after all* appeals to the knowledge of the addressee, or at least to the addressee's willingness to accept that the streets are wet. Apart from appealing to addressees' knowledge, speakers may also use such **interactional** devices to indicate their own commitment to a point, forestall any doubt or objections an addressee may have, etc.

Devices Indicating Coherence

- The chapters in part III are about various kinds of linguistic clues in Greek which establish coherence between sentences. A great number of aspects of the grammar of Greek cannot be completely understood without widening the level of analysis from sentences to larger units of texts. These aspects include:
 - Pronouns: in 29.28 we discussed the 'cataphoric' and 'anaphoric' uses of the demonstrative pronouns ὅδε, οὖτος and ἐκεῖνος and of non-nominative forms of αὐτός. Whether or not a person can be referred to by these pronouns, and which one should be used, is determined in large part by the extent to which that person is already familiar from the previous context. This is true for English pronouns as well:
 - (11) Jane celebrated her birthday. She got a lot of presents.

In (11), it is clear that *she* refers to Jane. But we can only ascertain this by looking at the surrounding context (without the first sentence, we would not know who is meant by *she*). The context is similarly important for distinguishing between the uses of 'contrastive' and 'non-contrastive' personal pronouns (\rightarrow 29.1), as well as several other uses of pronouns.

- Tenses: in 33.49-51 we looked at the way in which the imperfect tense in narratives can create a framework, in which other events, expressed by the aorist (which pushes the story forward), occur. The imperfect raises the question 'What else happened?', and the subsequent context answers that question. We also saw that the historical present is used to mark 'decisive' events in a story (→33.54). Tenses are therefore of vital importance in recognizing how a speaker or writer organizes his text hierarchically (→58.4). As we will show in chapter 61, the use of tenses also varies significantly according to the specific communicative purpose a speaker has in formulating his text. Tenses are thus also important for understanding what it is a speaker is trying to accomplish.
- Particles: many Greek particles (indeclinable, small words) establish relationships of all kinds between sentences, similar to 'therefore' and 'so' in English (see examples above). These are called 'connective' (or 'text-structuring') particles. Another set of particles allows speakers to provide their addressees with an indication of how a piece of information is to be considered: as a fact or not, as important, as something that the addressee is expected to agree with, etc. These are called 'attitudinal' (or 'interactional') particles. A third group of particles is used to specify the extent to which (parts of) utterances are applicable: we call these particles of 'scope'. Particles will be treated in detail in chapter 59.
- Word order: the order of constituents in a Greek sentence is often determined by the importance and the 'newness' of the information each constituent contributes to the text. Therefore, when describing the word order of a sentence, it is crucial to look at the context surrounding that sentence. Word order is discussed in chapter 60.

As noted above, how these aspects work together to establish textual coherence cannot be fully understood unless they are studied at the level of larger sections of text. For that reason, four case studies are provided in chapter 61: these are analyses of longer passages in which all of the factors mentioned above, and many more, are at work.

Text Types

The excerpts in chapter 61 have been selected as representative of various text types. It was mentioned in 33.13 that there is an important difference between narrative and non-narrative text, but it is useful to draw finer distinctions still: someone who relates a story will structure his text in different ways from someone who is describing a landscape, and this is different again from someone who is defending a certain claim in a debate. The differences between these text types lie, among others, in how they progress through time, how they refer to the entities which they speak about, and in the ways speakers and addressees are 'visible' in the text.

- A first important distinction that may be made between various kinds of texts is that between **monological texts** and **dialogical texts**:
 - In **monological texts**, a single speaker/writer controls the 'flow' of the text, stringing together sentences to construct a longer story, argument, etc.
 - In dialogical texts, two or more interlocutors together build a text, exchanging facts, opinions and instructions and often trying to convince or persuade each other. Dialogical texts are often characterized (at least more so than monological texts) by a wide variety of moods and tenses, by the frequent occurrence of attitudinal particles (→59.40), and by the use of the first and second person.

Although the distinction monologue vs. dialogue appears straightforward, it is actually better to see 'monological' and 'dialogical' as opposite ends on a scale. In dialogues, individual speakers may expand in long speeches which seem almost monological; conversely, even a very long speech or treatise by a single speaker or author can show the presence of an addressee (e.g. a speech addressed to a specific audience, a letter to a friend), which can influence how a text is constructed and presented.

- Secondly, we can distinguish between various uses to which a text can be put: to tell a story, to describe an object or characterize a person, to provide information, to persuade, etc. More or less in line with such functions, we discuss here three text types that occur frequently in Greek literature: **narrative**, **description** and **argument** (the list is not exhaustive; various other text types may be distinguished):
 - In a narrative, a speaker relates a series of successive events, typically in the past. Normally (excepting flashbacks and flash-forwards), the events are related in chronological order, which means that many finite verbs in main clauses push the narrative forward in time, although through the choice of tenses and the frequent use of subordinate clauses a speaker may also indicate background events. Usually, a narrative features a limited number of characters, who are referred to repeatedly, but in different ways. The speaker may or may not be a participant in the story: narratives can be told in the first or the third person.
 - A description of a person or thing, by contrast, does not usually progress through time; rather, the speaker discusses several aspects of the person/thing in turn, resulting in an enumeration of these aspects. Although descriptions may be set either in the present or the past, the flow of time plays no part in them, which normally results in the consistent use of the same tense (present or imperfect) throughout a descriptive passage. The order in which the individual items are treated often depends on spatial considerations (e.g. a description may 'zoom in', getting ever more detailed, or describe an object from top to bottom,

- or vice versa). Because various aspects are discussed, new entities are often introduced throughout the text.
- In an argumentative text, a speaker makes one or more claims which he backs up with proofs, explanations, etc. Often, claims in arguments are meant to have a general validity, resulting in the frequent use of the present tense. An argument often has a complex hierarchical structure, which involves a varied set of connective particles. Since arguments are meant to convince or persuade someone, there may be frequent signs of the addressee to whom the argument is directed, e.g. in the form of second-person verbs and attitudinal particles.
- 58.10 The four passages treated in chapter 61 exemplify some of the many different possible combinations of forms (monological, dialogical) and functions (narrative, descriptive, argumentative, etc.) that are found in texts. It should be observed that texts seldom correspond simply to the generalizations made above, and that they are very often mixed. Descriptions, for example, are often part of a larger narrative; a narrative, in turn, may support a claim by providing an example of the applicability of that claim, and thus be rather argumentative; and so forth. The four 'representative' samples discussed in 61 are, as such, by no means examples of 'pure' narrative, description, etc.

Note 1: The notions of different text types presented above should be seen as distinct from, but not wholly unrelated to, **genres** (epic, tragedy, comedy, lyric, historiography, philosophical dialogue, etc.). Any genre may feature various different text types, although certain types tend to proliferate in certain genres: historiography primarily consists of narrative and descriptive material, philosophical dialogues are rich in argumentative text, etc.

58.11 In chapter 61, we attempt to elucidate the manifold factors which are at work in making our four sample passages into organized, meaningful texts: an interplay between not only the features mentioned above (pronouns, tenses, word order and particles), but many other grammatical features as well. Cross-references to the relevant sections of the grammar will be made throughout.

Particles

Introduction

Meanings and Functions; Types of Particle

Particles are usually considered a class separate from adverbs, conjunctions and interjections (οἷμοι, ἔα, ἔ ἔ, etc.), even though there is a considerable overlap between these classes. It is indeed almost impossible to draw clear boundaries between particles and adverbs, or between particles and conjunctions.

Note 1: The connective particles καί, ἀλλά, τε and ή are, in fact, often unambiguously used as co-ordinating conjunctions.

The dividing line between particles and adverbs is particularly blurry since particles can typically be described, in terms of their syntactic function, as adverbial modifiers operating on different levels of the sentence, i.e. as disjuncts, conjuncts and occasionally as subjuncts; for these terms, $\rightarrow 26.15$.

In some treatments, certain lexical items are considered to belong in some of their uses to one class, and in others to another (e.g. $\alpha \ddot{\upsilon}$, which is sometimes treated as an adverb, sometimes as a connective particle).

The words classed as particles do share some formal characteristics:

- they are **short words** (mostly one or two syllables) that are **never declined**, and normally not derived (\rightarrow 23.1);
- they are either **postpositive** or **prepositive** $(\rightarrow 60.5-6)$.
- 59.2 Particles often have no 'meaning' in the same way that words like οἰκία house, σοφία wisdom, βαίνειν walk, or ἀνδρεῖος courageous have meaning. Such words refer to entities, actions, relationships or properties in the world described by a text ('referential meaning'). Particles, rather, have a functional meaning: they indicate how certain parts of the text itself relate to each other, or how the text relates to the attitudes and expectations of the speaker and the addressee (→58.3–5).

Note 1: Because they have a (often rather abstract) functional meaning rather than a referential meaning, and because there is not always an English word with the exact same function, there is often no one-to-one equivalent for a particular Greek particle in English translation. The same basic function of a particle may, in different contexts and/or text types (\rightarrow 58.7–11), lead to different interpretations, which in turn lead to different possible translations.

It is sometimes difficult to determine what the exact function of a Greek particle is, especially because such functions may also change and become more diffuse over time. Furthermore, there is not always scholarly consensus about the function of an individual particle.

- 59.3 Particles may be subdivided among the following categories, each treated separately below:
 - connective (or 'text-structuring') particles, which function (primarily) to indicate relationships between (the content of) text segments: ἀλλά, αὖ, γάρ, δέ, ἤ, καί, καίτοι, μέν, μέντοι, νυν, οὐδέ/μηδέ, οὔκουν/οὐκοῦν, οὖν, οὖτε/μήτε, τε, τοιγάρ, τοιγαροῦν, τοιγάρτοι and τοίνυν (→59.7–39);
 - attitudinal (also: 'modal' or 'interactional') particles, which function (primarily) to indicate a speaker's attitude towards the content of his/her utterance, or his/her anticipation of the addressee's attitude towards that content: ἄρα, ἄρα, δή, δήπου, ἦ, μήν, που, and τοι (→59.40-51);
 - **particles of scope**, which determine the applicability of an utterance's content to a particular element: $\gamma \epsilon$, $\gamma \circ \tilde{u} v$, so-called 'adverbial' καί, and $\pi \epsilon \rho$ ($\rightarrow 59.52-6$).

Note 1: In several cases particles (may) have both a connective and an attitudinal function, and sometimes it is difficult to draw a clear distinction between the two: such particles are discussed under the heading of 'connective particles' below if their use is considered to prevent asyndeton (for which $\rightarrow 59.9$; connective $\delta \dot{\eta}$ and $\mu \dot{\eta} \nu$ are, however, treated together with their attitudinal uses: $\rightarrow 59.44$, 59.49). Connective particles and attitudinal particles together are often called 'discourse particles'.

Note 2: This chapter does not treat the particle $\alpha \nu$, for which $\rightarrow 55$.

Particle Combinations

59.4 Particles very frequently occur in **combinations**: e.g. ἀλλὰ μήν, μὲν οὖν, καὶ δή, ἦ μήν. It is not always possible to reduce the function of these particle combinations to the sum of their individual parts, as certain (relatively) fixed combinations have acquired specific uses. Such particle combinations are treated separately below, →59.57-76.

Some particle combinations are so fixed that they were probably not 'felt' as separate particles in their use, and are indeed conventionally written as one word, e.g. καίτοι (καί + τοι), μέντοι (μέν + τοι), τοίνυν (τοι + νυν), δήπου (δή + που): these are treated below as single particles; all others are treated as combinations.

There are also frequent combinations of particles with negatives, also traditionally written as one word: e.g. οὐδέ, οὔτε, οὐκοῦν. These are also treated as single particles below.

The Position of Particles

- 59.5 Many particles cannot occur in the first position of a clause but are **postpositives**, i.e. they stand in 'second position' of the clause or word group that they modify (for details, →60.7–12). These postpositive particles are: ἄρα, αὖ, γάρ, γε, γοῦν, δέ, δή, δήπου, μέν, μέντοι, μήν, νυν, οὖν, περ, που, τε, τοι, τοίνυν.
- 59.6 Other particles are **prepositives**, i.e. they normally stand in front of the clause or word group that they modify (for details, →60.13). These prepositive particles are: ἀλλά, ἄρα, ἤ, ἤ, καί, καίτοι, and οὐδέ/μηδέ, οὔκουν/οὐκοῦν, οὔτε/μήτε, τοιγάρ, τοιγαροῦν, τοιγάρτοι.

Connective Particles

Introduction

- 59.7 The vast majority of Greek sentences are 'connected' in some way to their surrounding context, in most cases by a **connective particle**. Different connective particles establish different kinds of coherence relationships between the text segment they stand in and the preceding and/or following context (segments may have more than one connective particle to indicate complex relationships, and there are several common combinations).
- 59.8 Connective particles are used to connect individual sentences, but they can also function to link various clauses within a sentence, various elements within a clause, or (very frequently) to indicate relationships between larger sections of text.
- 59.9 The lack of any particle to connect sentences is relatively rare in Greek texts. It is called **asyndeton**, and occurs only in certain circumstances (→61 for several examples).

Note 1: This characterization ('relatively rare') holds for transitions between sentences uttered by a single speaker: the use of particles by one speaker to connect a sentence to that of another speaker is much less regular, although not uncommon.

59.10 Most connective particles have a rather abstract function, indicating general (often hierarchical, →58.4) relations between text segments. In different contexts, such general functions may result in different specific interpretations (and translations).

For instance, the particle $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\dot{\alpha}$ has as its basic general function **substitution** or **correction**: (an element of) the new text segment introduced by $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\dot{\alpha}$ – the 'host' segment – replaces (an element of) the preceding text segment. This basic function has a wide range of specific instantiations in different contexts:

- (1) δοκεῖτε ... μοι νήφειν. οὐκ ἐπιτρεπτέον οὖν ὑμῖν, ἀλλὰ ποτέον. (Pl. Symp. 213e) You seem to me to be sober. You must not be allowed this: rather you must drink. Substitution of an explicit element: ἀλλά replaces one explicit alternative (ἐπιτρεπτέον) with another (ποτέον); it is frequently so used in the formula 'οὐ X, ἀλλά Y' (= 'not X, but (rather) Y'), in which case ἀλλά is a co-ordinating conjunction.
- (2) ΦΙ. διατρώξομαι τοίνυν ὀδὰξ τὸ δίκτυον. :: ΒΔ. ἀλλ' οὐκ ἔχεις ὀδόντας. (Ar. Vesp. 164-5)
 (Philocleon:) Then I'll gnaw through the net with my teeth. :: (Bdelycleon:) But you don't have any teeth! Substitution of a presupposed element: Philocleon's assertion that he will use his teeth presupposes that he has any to begin with;

άλλά corrects this presupposition.

- (3) Εἰπέ, ἀγαθέ, τίς αὐτοὺς ἀμείνους ποιεῖ; :: Οἱ νόμοι. :: ἀλλὶ οὐ τοῦτο ἐρωτῶ, ὧ βέλτιστε, ἀλλὰ τίς ἄνθρωπος; (Pl. Ap. 24d-e) (Socrates:) Tell me, sir, who makes them better? :: (Meletus:) The laws do. :: (Socrates:) But that's not what I'm asking, my dear sir: which man makes them better? Substitution of an implicit element: ἀλλά corrects the notion (implicit in Meletus' reply) that Socrates' question has been satisfactorily answered. The second ἀλλά replaces an explicit element, as in (1).
- (4) ΣΩ. πειρῶ ἀποκρίνεσθαι τὸ ἐρωτώμενον ἢ ἄν μάλιστα οἴη. :: ΚΡ. ἀλλὰ πειράσομαι. (Pl. Cri. 49a)
 (Socrates:) Try to answer what I ask you in the way you deem best. :: (Crito:) Of course I'll try. In this case, ἀλλά 'replaces' the implicit possibility that Crito will not comply with Socrates' request (which is still open) with the assurance that that request will be fulfilled. Thus Crito implies that he is ready to move on to the questions, and that there was no need for Socrates to worry about his preliminary request.
- (5) οὐκ ἀντέτεινον ἀλλ' εἶκον, μέχρι ὅσου κάρτα ἐδέοντο αὐτῶν ... · ώς γὰρ δὴ διωσάμενοι τὸν Πέρσην περὶ τῆς ἐκείνου ἤδη τὸν ἀγῶνα ἐποιεῦντο ... ἀπείλοντο τὴν ἡγεμονίην τοὺς Λακεδαιμονίους. ἀλλὰ ταῦτα μὲν ὕστερον ἐγένετο. τότε δὲ ... (Hdt. 8.3.2-4.1)
 - (The Athenians) did not resist but waived (their claim to the command), as long as (the Greeks) desperately needed them; for when they had driven the Persians out and brought the battle to their territory, they deprived the Spartans of the command. That, however, happened later; presently, ... Substitution of a discourse topic: ἀλλά breaks off the story about the Athenians' later action, as Herodotus wants to return to the storyline he left behind earlier. The first ἀλλά replaces an explicit element.

Note 1: Depending on the specific context, ἀλλά may thus receive very different translations into English e.g. but, no, rather, however, on the contrary and in some cases as well, anyway; of course, all right, etc. As noted above (\rightarrow 59.2 n. 1), there is often no single equivalent in English for a Greek particle: translation often depends on an analysis of the specific context (including text type, \rightarrow 58.7–11) of a particle's use, as well as that particle's basic function.

The descriptions of connective particles below concern both their abstract general function and certain common types of specific contexts in which the particle is found. Suggested possible translations are given in parentheses (these are not exhaustive).

List of Connective Particles

άλλά

- 59.11 Basic function: **substitution/correction/elimination** ἀλλά corrects one explicit or implicit element and replaces it with another:
 - (as a co-ordinating conjunction within sentences:) correcting explicit elements:
 οὐ A, ἀλλά B = 'not A but B' (but, rather, no, on the contrary);
 - correcting implicit or presupposed elements from the preceding contexts (but, on the contrary);
 - to break off a certain topic of discourse and replace it with a new one (well, however, anyway, so much for that);
 - in dialogue frequently in commands/requests, suggesting that the preceding line
 of conversation is broken off and that the addressee should turn to the new
 matter at hand (but, well, now, so much for that);
 - in dialogue also frequent in answers, suggesting that no more attention needs to be paid to (an element of) the context eliciting the answer (*but*, *all right*, *of course*).

For examples \rightarrow 59.10.

- 59.12 ἀλλά is sometimes used in a main clause 'correcting' or 'substituting' (an element from) a preceding subordinate clause so-called **apodotic ἀλλά**:
 - (6) νῦν ὧν ἐπειδὴ οὐκ ὑμεῖς ἤρξατε τούτου τοῦ λόγου, ἀλλ' ἡμεῖς ἄρξομεν. (Hdt. 9.48.3)
 Well then, since you did not start this conversation, we will rather start it. Picking up οὐκ (ὑμεῖς), ἀλλά dismisses 'you' in the subordinate ἐπειδή-clause, and replaces it with 'we' as the initiator of the conversation in the main clause.

As apodotic ἀλλά syntactically has no connective function (it could be left out without disrupting the syntax), it is often called 'adverbial'; its basic function (substitution, etc.) is not fundamentally different, however.

ἀτάρ

 $\rightarrow \delta \epsilon 59.18$.

αὖ and αὖτε

- 59.13 Postpositive. Basic function: indicates a shift to a **different topic** αὖ(τε) signals that the speaker is moving on to another, related discourse topic (for 'topic', →60.25; e.g. a second, third, etc. member of a larger group; an opposing idea, etc.); the particle is often combined with δέ:
 - in argumentative and descriptive texts (infrequently in narrative), moving to a different, related topic (in turn, again, on the other hand, then, as for, furthermore);
 - in questions introducing a different, related topic (and what about X, then?, again, in turn, on the other hand, as for).
 - (7) τὰ μὲν καθ' Ἑλένην ὧδ' ἔχει· σὲ δ' αὖ χρεών, | Ὀρέστα, . . . Παρράσιον οἰκεῖν δάπεδον. (Eur. Or. 1643-5)
 - This is how things stand with Helen. As for you, in turn, Orestes, you must live on Parrhasian soil.
 - (8) Τὸ ἐπιμελεῖσθαι καὶ ἄρχειν ... καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα πάντα, ἔσθ' ὅτῳ ἄλλῳ ἢ ψυχῆ δικαίως ἄν αὐτὰ ἀποδοῖμεν ...; :: Οὐδενὶ ἄλλῳ. :: Τί δ' αὖ τὸ ζῆν; οὐ ψυχῆς φήσομεν ἔργον εἶναι; (Pl. Resp. 353d)
 - (Socrates:) Concerning management, and rule, and all such things, is there anything else than the soul to which we could rightly assign these? :: (Thrasymachus:) Nothing else. :: (Socrates:) And what about life, in turn? Shall we not say that it is a function of the soul?

Note 1: αὖτε is used only in (early) poetry, αὖ elsewhere.

Note 2: αὖ and αὖτε also have 'purely' adverbial uses, meaning *again* (i.e. for a second time), *once more.*

γάρ

- 59.14 Postpositive. Basic function: introduces a subsidiary text segment the segment containing γάρ serves as **explanation**, **motivation**, **elaboration** or **exemplification** for the surrounding context; the information provided by the γάρ segment helps to interpret the information in the preceding (or, much more rarely, the following) segment:
 - in argumentative texts: to provide supporting arguments, explanations, etc. (*for*, *after all, for example*, sometimes best left untranslated or 'translated' by a colon);
 - in narrative texts: to provide explanatory background information about certain characters, entities or events, motivations for certain actions, etc. (for, sometimes best left untranslated or 'translated' by a colon);

- in dialogue, γάρ can be used by one speaker to connect his/her utterance to that
 of another (especially in answers to questions: the answer 'yes' or 'no' is often
 implicit in the use of γάρ, which then provides an explanation for that answer)
 (yes/no, for; (you say that) because);
- in dialogue also often in certain short idiomatic questions:

πῶς γὰρ οὖ; / τἱ γὰρ οὖ; of course, naturally, how could it not? πῶς γὰρ; / τἱ γάρ; of course not, how could that be?

οὐ γάρ; isn't that the case?

Examples:

- (9) οὐ περὶ τῶν ἴσων ἀγωνίζομαι· οὐ <u>γάρ</u> ἐστιν ἴσον νῦν ἐμοὶ τῆς παρ' ὑμῶν εὐνοίας διαμαρτεῖν καὶ τούτω μἡ ἑλεῖν τὴν γραφήν. (Dem. 18.3)

 I am not contesting this suit on equal footing. For at present it is not the same for me to lose your goodwill as it is for him not to win the verdict. The γάρ-clause explains the preceding claim.
- (10) τὸν μὲν ἀμφὶ τὸν χειμῶνα χρόνον διῆγεν ἐν Βαβυλῶνι ἑπτὰ μῆνας· αὕτη γὰρ ἀλεεινὴ ἡ χώρα. (Xen. Cyr. 8.6.22)

 In the winter season he spent seven months in Babylon, for that country has a warm climate. Explanatory background information in a narrative.
- (11) ἀλλ' ὁ μέν, ὡς καὶ πρότερόν μοι εἴρηται, ὁδῷ χρεώμενος ἄμα τῷ ἄλλῳ στρατῷ ἀπενόστησε ἐς τὴν Ἀσίην. μέγα δὲ καὶ τόδε μαρτύριον· φαίνεται γὰρ Ξέρξης ἐν τῇ ὀπίσω κομιδῇ ἀπικόμενος ἐς Ἄβδηρα. (Hdt. 8.119–20)

 No, as I have said before, he travelled back to Asia via the road, together with the rest of his army. And the following is convincing proof for this: it turns out that Xerxes visited Abdera during his retreat. γάρ introduces information (Xerxes' visit to Abdera, which is on the land route, not the sea route, to Persia) which functions as the supporting evidence which Herodotus has announced (τόδε μαρτύριον). Note that γάρ is 'translated' with a colon here.
- (12) ΧΟ. ἀλλὰ κτανεῖν σὸν σπέρμα τολμήσεις, γύναι; :: ΜΗ. οὕτω γὰρ ἄν μάλιστα δηχθείη πόσις. (Eur. Med. 816–17)
 (Chorus:) But will you dare to kill your offspring, woman? :: (Medea:) Yes, as that way my husband may be injured most severely. Medea gives an affirmative answer and provides an explanation for it.
- 59.15 Although γάρ typically introduces a segment which supports or explains (only) the preceding text (as in each of the examples above), γάρ is also sometimes used **in anticipation** of information still to come. The speaker breaks off a line of reasoning or narrative in order to provide information which will be required to understand what follows. In this use, the γάρ-segment in fact sometimes interrupts a sentence (**parenthesis**, →26.27):

- (13) ἔτι τοίνυν ἀκούσατε καὶ τάδε. ἐπὶ λείαν $\underline{\gamma}$ άρ ὑμῶν ἐκπορεύσονταί τινες, οἴομαι οὖν βέλτιστον εἶναι . . . (Xen. An. 5.1.8)
 - Now, listen as well to this further advice. Some of you will go out to plunder. I think, then, that this is our best course of action: ... Before proceeding to give the advice he has announced, the speaker provides background information in the light of which the advice is to be seen as relevant. Note that when he resumes his 'main' line of reasoning, i.e. the advice itself, he marks the transition with ov (for which $\rightarrow 59.34$).
- (14) ὁ Κανδαύλης ... ἐνόμιζέ οἱ εἶναι γυναῖκα πολλὸν πασέων καλλίστην. ὥστε δὲ ταῦτα νομίζων ἦν <u>γάρ</u> οἱ τῶν αἰχμοφόρων Γύγης ... ἀρεσκόμενος μάλιστα τούτῳ τῷ Γύγῃ καὶ τὰ σπουδαιέστερα τῶν πρηγμάτων ὑπερετίθετο ὁ Κανδαύλης καὶ δὴ καὶ τὸ εἶδος τῆς γυναικὸς ὑπερεπαινέων. (Hdt. 1.8.1)

Candaules believed that his wife was the most beautiful of all by far. So as he believed this – and here I should add that there was among his bodyguard a certain Gyges, who was his favourite – to this Gyges, Candaules entrusted his most intimate secrets, including praising his wife's beauty. The $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\rho$ -segment introduces Gyges, who will be one of the main figures in the following narrative. The $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\rho$ -segment is used parenthetically, intervening between $\acute{\omega}\sigma\tau\epsilon$ $\delta\dot{\epsilon}$ $\tau\alpha\~{\sigma}\tau\alpha$ $\nu o\mu i\zeta\omega\nu$ and $\tauo\acute{\nu}\tau\alpha$ $\tau\~{\sigma}$ $\Gamma\acute{\nu}\gamma\eta$, which picks up the interrupted sentence and the narrative where it left off (observe the 'resumptive' use of $\tauo\acute{\nu}\tau\alpha$, and the repeated subject \acute{o} $K\alpha\nu\delta\alpha\acute{\nu}\lambda\eta\varsigma$).

In some cases in narrative texts $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ introduces an entire embedded narrative which serves as background information:

(15) τό μὲν ἀττικὸν κατεχόμενον ... ἐπυνθάνετο ὁ Κροῖσος ὑπὸ Πεισιστράτου τοῦ Ἱπποκράτεος τοῦτον τὸν χρόνον τυραννεύοντος ἀθηναίων. Ἱπποκράτεῖ γὰρ ἐόντι ἰδιώτη καὶ θεωρέοντι τὰ Ὀλύμπια τέρας ἐγένετο μέγα. (Hdt. 1.59.1)

Croesus learned that the Attic people were held subjugated by Pisistratus, son of Hippocrates, who at that time ruled the Athenians. A great marvel had befallen Hippocrates when he was a private citizen visiting the Olympic games. $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ introduces an embedded narrative which provides the necessary background information about Hippocrates and Pisistratus; it will go on for five chapters, after which the main story about Croesus is picked up again.

Parenthetical $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ is also regularly used after forms of address (vocatives), intervening between the addressee and the remainder of an utterance to explain why that utterance is directed at that particular addressee, or why that particular form of address has been chosen:

(16) ὧ δέσποτ' - ἤδη γὰρ τόδ' ὀνομάζω σ' ἔπος - | ὅλωλα. (Eur. Hel. 1193-4)
Lord, for by this name I address you now, I am destroyed! Note that γάρ is not really anticipatory in this case (it explains the form of address, not ὅλωλα); the degree to which γάρ following a form of address is anticipatory varies.

δέ

- 59.16 Postpositive. Basic function: δέ indicates a **shift to a new, distinct, text segment,** often with a change of topic (for 'topic', →60.25); δέ is one of the commonest particles in Greek texts to connect clauses and/or sentences:
 - in moving to a new point, a new argument, a new topic for discussion, or another aspect of a certain larger topic (and, now, next; with a new topic: as for ..., as regards ...; in contrasts: but; often best left untranslated);
 - in narrative: in moving to a new step in the story, shifting to a different character, etc. (and, now, next; and as for ..., and as regards ...; in contrasts: but; often best left untranslated);
 - frequently in combination with a preceding μέν (→59.24; for ὁ μέν ... ὁ δέ, τὸ μέν ... τὸ δέ, etc., →28.27);
 - in dialogue, idiomatic τί δέ; what now?, how so?; also τί δέ X; and what of X?;
 - for δ δέ resuming a topic, \rightarrow 28.28.
 - (17) τὸν βίον οὐκ ἐκ τῶν ἰδίων προσόδων πορίζεται, ἀλλ' ἐκ τῶν ὑμετέρων κινδύνων. πρὸς δ' εὐγνωμοσύνην καὶ λόγου δύναμιν πῶς πέφυκε; δεινὸς λέγειν, κακὸς βιῶναι. (Aeschin. 3.173–4)
 - He provides for himself not from his private means but from your risk. Now as for his good judgement and his power of speech, what kind of man is he? Impressive in words, infamous in life! Aeschines moves on to a new topic for discussion: $\delta \epsilon$ marks the shift.
 - (18) κατά δὲ τὸν αὐτὸν χρόνον ... Εὐρυμέδων καὶ Σοφοκλῆς ... ἀφικόμενοι ἐς Κέρκυραν ἐστράτευσαν ... ἐπὶ τοὺς ἐν τῷ ὄρει τῆς Ἰστώνης Κερκυραίων καθιδρυμένους ... προσβαλόντες δὲ τὸ μὲν τείχισμα εἶλον, οἱ δὲ ἄνδρες καταπεφευγότες ... ξυνέβησαν. (Thuc. 4.46.1–2)
 - In the same period Eurymedon and Sophocles, having arrived at Corcyra, attacked the Corcyraeans established on mount Istone. They attacked the fortification and captured it; the men, having escaped, accepted terms. The first $\delta \epsilon$ marks a shift in the narrative to another episode in Thucydides' narrative about the year 425 BCE; the next stage in that episode, the capture of the fortification, is again indicated by $\delta \epsilon$; the topic of the narrative then shifts (with $\delta \epsilon$) to the Corcyraeans who flee and surrender.
 - (19) ἐς δὲ Προιτίδας | πύλας ἐχώρει ... | ὁ μάντις Ἀμφιάραος ... ՝ Ω γύγια δ' ἐς πυλώμαθ' Ἱππομέδων ἄναξ | ἔστειχ' ... Όμολώσιν δὲ τάξιν εἶχε πρὸς πύλαις | Τυδεύς. (Eur. *Phoen.* 1109–20)
 - Towards the Proetean gates came the prophet Amphiaraus. To the Ogygian gates marched lord Hippomedon ... At the Homoloean gates

Tydeus had his post. A messenger relates which attacker attacked which Theban gate: each new section about a gate/attacker is marked by $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$.

(20) ΑΝ. νέα πέφυκας καὶ λέγεις αἰσχρῶν πέρι. | :: ΕΡ. σὺ δ' οὐ λέγεις γε, δρᾶς δέ μ' εἰς ὅσον δύνα. | :: ΑΝ. οὐκ αὖ σιωπῆ Κύπριδος ἀλγήσεις πέρι; | :: ΕΡ. τί δ'; οὐ γυναιξὶ ταῦτα πρῶτα πανταχοῦ; (Eur. Andr. 238–41) (Andromache:) You are young and speak of shameful things. :: (Hermione:) And you do not speak of them, but you do them to me as much as you can. :: (Andromache:) Will you not suffer over your marriage in silence? :: (Hermione:) What? Are these things not of principal importance to women everywhere? The first δ' marks a shift from Hermione to Andromache; the second from speaking to doing. τί δ' is a surprised question, normally immediately followed by another question. For δύνα (an alternative form for δύνασαι), →12.46 n.1.

Note 1: For the difference between $\delta \epsilon$ and $\kappa \alpha i$, $\rightarrow 59.21$.

- 59.17 Similarly to ἀλλά (→59.12), δέ is sometimes used to set off a main clause from a subordinate clause which precedes it so-called **apodotic δέ**:
 - (21) εἰ δὲ συγγινώσκεαι εἶναι ἥσσων, σὑ $\underline{\delta \dot{\epsilon}}$... δεσπότη τῷ σῷ ... ἐλθἑ ἐς λόγους. (Hdt. 4.126)

But if you admit that you are weaker, then come to terms with your master. The second $\delta \epsilon$ marks the main clause as 'distinct' from the subordinate conditional clause, emphasizing its importance. Note that unlike the first $\delta \epsilon$ (following ϵi), the second $\delta \epsilon$ does not connect sentences, and could easily be left out without disrupting the syntax.

As with apodotic ἀλλά, the particle syntactically has no connective function in this use, and is therefore often called 'adverbial'; its basic function (introducing a distinct segment of text) is not fundamentally different, however.

- 59.18 The particle ἀτάρ is very similar in function to δέ, although the 'break' suggested by ἀτάρ is often a bit stronger than by δέ. It is usually found in contexts where δέ cannot be used, e.g. together with vocatives (often at the beginning of a new speaking turn). It may have been colloquial in tone:
 - (22) ἀτάρ, ὧ φίλε Φαΐδρε, δοκῶ τι σοί ... θεῖον πάθος πεπονθέναι; (Pl. Phdr. 238c)
 Well, my dear Phaedrus, do I seem to you to be divinely inspired? Socrates has just finished a speech meant to surpass the eloquence of Lysias. ἀτάρ is used (together with the vocative) to signal the break from the speech itself to its evaluation.

ή

- 59.19 Basic function: indicates **disjunction** η connects two alternatives:
 - as a co-ordinating conjunction within sentences: connecting two alternative clauses or phrases (*or*, *or else*); often with $\mathring{\eta}$ also preceding the first alternative ($\mathring{\eta}$... $\mathring{\eta}$ *either* ... *or*); so also in alternative questions (\rightarrow 38.10): the first alternative is often preceded by πότερον (in indirect alternative questions also by $\varepsilon \mathring{\iota}$, \rightarrow 42.4);
 - at the beginning of questions providing a self-correction and/or alternative suggestion (or rather . . . ?);
 - after comparatives, μᾶλλον and forms of ἄλλος to introduce the second element of a comparison (*than*) (→32.6-7).
 - (23) ἀμαθής τις εἶ θεός ἢ δίκαιος οὐκ ἔφυς. (Eur. Her. 347) You are an unwise god, or else you are not just.
 - (24) πρὸς ἕκαστα δὲ δεῖ ἢ ἐχθρὸν ἢ φίλον μετὰ καιροῦ γίγνεσθαι. (Thuc. 6.85.1)

 One must in every case become either an enemy or a friend according to circumstances.
 - (25) πότερον συνηγόρευες τοῖς κελεύουσιν ἀποκτεῖναι ἢ ἀντέλεγες; (Lys. 12.25) Did you agree with those who were giving the order to kill, or did you oppose them?
 - (26) τίς αὐτὸν τῶν ἐπιστημῶν ποιεῖ εὐδαίμονα; ἢ ἄπασαι ὁμοίως; (Pl. Chrm. 174a) Which of the sciences makes him happy? Or do all in equal measure?
 - (27) τούς γε μὴν διαβόλους μᾶλλον ἢ τοὺς κλέπτας ἐμίσει, μείζω ζημίαν ἡγούμενος φίλων ἢ χρημάτων στερίσκεσθαι. (Xen. Ages. 11.5)

 He hated slanderers more than thieves, thinking it a graver loss to be robbed of friends than of money.

Note 1: For $\pi \rho i \nu \, \mathring{\eta}$, $\rightarrow 47.14$, 47.16 n.1. For $\mathring{\eta}$, $\rightarrow 59.48$.

καί

- 59.20 Basic function: indicates **addition** καί connects two elements, adding the second to the first:
 - as a co-ordinating conjunction within sentences: to connect two words or word groups, or two clauses (and); the first of two connected elements is sometimes preceded by καί, signalling that another καί will follow (the first καί is adverbial, →59.56): καί A καί B = 'both A and B' (both . . . and, as well as, and also);

- connecting sentences (i.e. beginning a sentence), indicating that the new sentence is closely linked to the previous one; for instance in narratives to indicate that one action closely follows upon, or is the direct consequence of, another (and, also, and so, and then); in this use καί is often combined with other particles (e.g. καὶ γάρ, καὶ δή, καὶ μήν; for these combinations, →59.66-71);
- for combinations of $\kappa\alpha i$ and $\tau \epsilon$, $\rightarrow 59.37$.
- (28) ταῦθ' ὑμεῖς, ὧ ἄνδρες δικασταί, ὀρθῶς καὶ καλῶς πᾶσιν ελλησι καὶ βαρβάροις δοκεῖτε ἐψηφίσθαι κατ' ἀνδρῶν προδοτῶν καὶ θεοῖς ἐχθρῶν. (Dem. 19.268) It seems to all the Greeks and foreigners, gentlemen of the jury, that you have acted righteously and properly in passing this vote against traitors and enemies of the gods. καί connects ὀρθῶς and καλῶς, ελλησι and βαρβάροις, and ἀνδρῶν προδοτῶν and θεοῖς ἐχθρῶν, respectively.
- (29) πολλάκις ή γυνή ἀπήει κάτω καθευδήσουσα ώς τὸ παιδίον, ἵνα τὸν τιτθὸν αὐτῷ διδῷ καὶ μὴ βοᾳ. καὶ ταῦτα πολὺν χρόνον οὕτως ἐγίγνετο, καὶ ἐγώ οὐδέποτε ὑπώπτευσα. (Lys. 1.10)

 Often my wife would go down to sleep, to the baby, so that she could breastfeed it and it wouldn't cry. And things went on like this for a long time, and I never even got suspicious of anything. καί connects clauses (διδῷ and βοᾳ) and sentences. The quick succession of instances of καί in the narrative portion of this speech may suggest a 'simple' style of narration.
- (30) καὶ μὴν ὁρῶ καὶ Κλειναρέτην καὶ Σωστράτην | προσιοῦσαν ἤδη τήνδε καὶ Φιλαινέτην. (Ar. Eccl. 41-2)
 Look, I see Clinarete coming, as well as Sostrate here, and also Philaenete.
 Adverbial καί precedes the first of the listed names, the next two instances of καί connect the other names. For καὶ μήν marking entrances in drama, →59.71.

Note 1: For 'adverbial' $\kappa \alpha i$ also, even, $\rightarrow 59.56$.

- 59.21 Although both δέ and καί (and τε, →59.37) may be translated with *and*, these particles operate on different levels: whereas δέ serves to indicate shifts from one text segment/topic to another (→59.16), καί connects several things said about a topic, linking several elements *within* a larger text segment. For the difference between καί/τε and δέ, compare also the following example:
 - (31) οὖτος ὧν ὁ Ὀτάνης ... Βυζαντίους τε εἶλε καὶ Καλχηδονίους, εἶλε δὲ Ἅντανδρον τὴν ἐν τῆ Τρῳάδι γῆ, εἶλε δὲ Λαμπώνιον, λαβών δὲ παρὰ Λεσβίων νέας εἶλε Λῆμνόν τε καὶ Ἦβρον. (Hdt. 5.26)
 - This Otanes, then, captured Byzantium and Calchedon; next he captured Antandrus in the Troad, and next Lamponius; and having taken some ships from the Lesbians he captured Lemnus and Imbrus. Some of the captured cities are connected by $(\tau \varepsilon) \kappa \alpha i$, others by $\delta \dot{\varepsilon}$: this suggests several distinct campaigns of conquest, with Byzantium and Calchedon being captured in the one campaign, and Lemnus and Imbrus in another.

59.22 The particle ἠδἱ (and) connects only elements within sentences; in the classical period it is found only in tragic and lyric poetry.

καίτοι

- 59.23 Basic function: indicates a transition to a text segment which adds information (καί) which is worthy of note (τοι) in light of the preceding context καίτοι invites a **reconsideration** of what the speaker has just said:
 - introducing objections (often in the form of a rhetorical question); the καίτοιsegment shows that (an element in) the preceding context is to be rejected (but,
 and yet, (al)though);
 - introducing background information in narrative or argumentative texts: the information in the καίτοι-segment gives rise to expectations which are contradicted by the preceding information (cf. Engl. 'he is unhappy, even though he is rich'; this is the inverse of 'denial of expectation', for which cf. μέντοι, →59.27) (and yet, even though, (al)though, and that despite the fact that):
 - (32) εἰς τοῦτ' ἀναισχυντίας ἐληλύθασιν, ὥστε ... τῆς ... τῶν ἄλλων δουλείας αὑτοὺς κυρίους καθιστᾶσιν. καίτοι τίς οὐκ ἄν μισήσειε τὴν τούτων πλεονεξίαν, οἳ τῶν μὲν ἀσθενεστέρων ἄρχειν ζητοῦσι; (Isoc. 14.19–20)

 They (the Thebans) have reached such a point of shamelessness that they give themselves the right to impose slavery upon everybody else. And yet who would not detest the greed of these people, who seek to rule the weaker? The rhetorical question (implying 'everyone detests the Thebans' greed') formulates an objection to the Thebans' behaviour.
 - (33) καί μοι χέρ', ὧναξ, δεξιὰν ὅρεξον, ὡς | ψαύσω ... | καίτοι τί φωνῶ; πῶς σ' ἄν ἄθλιος γεγώς | θιγεῖν θελήσαιμ' ἀνδρὸς ῷ τίς οὐκ ἔνι | κηλίς; (Soph. OC 1130-4)
 Give me your right hand, lord, so I may touch it. Yet what am I saying? How could I, wretch that I've become, want you to touch a man in whom every defilement is found? Oedipus raises an objection to his own request: given his state, that request seems misguided. For the accentuation of ἔνι (=ἔνεστι), →24.37; for τίς οὐκ ἔνι κηλίς;, →38.19 n.1.
 - (34) ὁ Δαρεῖός τε ἤσχαλλε καὶ ἡ στρατιἡ πᾶσα οὐ δυνατὴ ἐοῦσα ἑλεῖν τοὺς Βαβυλωνίους. καίτοι πάντα σοφίσματα καὶ πάσας μηχανὰς ἐπεποιήκεε ἐς αὐτοὺς Δαρεῖος· ἀλλ' οὐδ' ὡς ἐδύνατο ἑλεῖν σφεας. (Hdt. 3.152)

 Darius and the entire army were upset because they were incapable of conquering the Babylonians. This despite the fact that Darius had tried every trick and every device against them; but even so, he could not conquer them. καίτοι introduces background information which stands in contrast to

the preceding point: Darius' intensive efforts to capture Babylon would normally give rise to the expectation that he would succeed, but in fact he has failed. Darius' failure is restated ($\mathring{\alpha}\lambda\lambda'$ o $\mathring{\omega}\delta'$ $\mathring{\omega}\delta$) after the $\varkappa\alpha$ (τ 0)-segment.

μέν

- 59.24 Postpositive. Basic function: indicates **incompleteness** or **open-endedness** μέν signals that its host segment in itself does not provide all the necessary information; it raises the expectation that another text segment will follow to provide an addition or contrast:
 - the expectation raised by μέν is nearly always resolved by δέ: μέν ... δέ is a very common way in Greek to mark contrasts (e.g. 'A did X, but B did Y'), or more neutral enumerations ('A did X, B did Y, C did Z') (μέν is usually best left untranslated, the corresponding δέ translated with but or and; in contrasts, μέν or δέ may also be translated with while, whereas, with the other particle left untranslated); μέν ... δέ may balance phrases, clauses or larger segments of text; often the words immediately preceding the particles are the 'contrastive topics' (→60.28) forming the basis for the contrast or enumeration;
 - for ὁ μέν ... ὁ δέ, τὸ μέν ... τὸ δέ, etc., →28.27;
 - particles other than δέ that may be co-ordinated with μέν are ἀλλά, μέντοι,
 ἀτάρ (each of these suggests a stronger contrast than μέν ... δέ), and καί and τε;
 - in some cases μέν is not followed by another particle (so-called μέν solitarium):
 usually this means that the segment or element contrasting with/adding to the μέν-segment is left implicit (at least, for one, as for . . .).
 - (35) ώς δὲ δῆλον ἐγένετο ὅτι οὐκ ἐξίοιεν οἱ πολέμιοι . . . ὁ μὲν Κυαξάρης καλέσας τὸν Κῦρον . . . ἔλεξε τοιάδε· Δοκεῖ μοι, ἔφη, . . . δηλοῦν ὅτι θέλομεν μάχεσθαι. οὕτω γάρ, ἔφη, ἐὰν μἡ ἀντεπεξίωσιν ἐκεῖνοι, οἱ μὲν ἡμέτεροι μᾶλλον θαρρήσαντες ἀπίασιν, οἱ δὲ πολέμιοι . . . μᾶλλον φοβήσονται. τούτω μὲν οὕτως ἐδόκει. ὁ δὲ Κῦρος, Μηδαμῶς, ἔφη, . . . (Xen. Cyr. 3.3.29-31)
 - When it became clear that the enemy would not come out, Cyaxares called Cyrus and spoke as follows: 'I propose', he said, 'to show them that we are eager to fight. That way,' he went on, 'if they don't come out to meet us, our men will come back to camp with more courage, whereas the enemy will be more frightened.' Such was his proposal, but Cyrus said: 'In no way . . .' The first $\mu \acute{e}\nu$ suggests that Cyaxares' speech will not be the whole story, but will receive a reaction; when his speech is complete, $\mu \acute{e}\nu$ is repeated in the summarizing phrase $\tau o \acute{\nu} \tau \acute{\varphi} \ldots \acute{e}\delta \acute{o}\pi e$, and then picked up by \acute{o} $\acute{o}\acute{e}$ $K \~{\nu} \rho o s$. Within the speech, there is a $\mu \acute{e}\nu / \delta \acute{e}$ -pair balancing of $\acute{\eta} \mu \acute{e} \tau \acute{e} \rho o i$ and of $\pi o \lambda \acute{e} \mu o o$.

- (36) ἐγὼ δὲ λέξω δεινὰ μέν, δίκαια δέ. (Ar. Ach. 501)
 I will say things which are terrifying, but right. μέν . . . δέ balances individual words, both object of λέξω.
- (37) πολλούς μἐν ... | ξένους μολόντας οἶδ' ἐς ᾿Αδμήτου δόμους, | ... ἀλλὰ τοῦδ' οὔπω ξένου | κακίον' ... ἐδεξάμην. (Eur. Alc. 747–50)
 I know of many guests who have come to Admetus' palace; but I have not yet received a guest more evil than this one. μέν is 'completed' by ἀλλά, whose corrective force (→59.11) suggests that the μέν-clause is as good as irrelevant: the servant's previous experience with guests good and bad could not prepare him for this one.
- (38) πρῶτα μὲν σκοποὺς | πέμψω ... μάντεις τ' ἀθροίσας θύσομαι. (Eur. Heracl. 337-40)
 First, I will send scouts, and then I will gather seers and sacrifice. μέν is 'completed' by τε.
- (39) φασὶ δὲ οἱ αὐτοὶ οὖτοὶ, ἐμοὶ μὲν οὐ πιστὰ λέγοντες, τὸν θεὸν αὐτὸν φοιτᾶν ... ἐς τὸν νηόν. (Hdt. 1.182.1)
 And these same men say though I for one do not believe them that the god himself frequents the shrine. μέν solitarium: there is no particle in the following context which is paired with μέν, but a contrast is still implied: Herodotus suggests that, while others may believe the story about the god, he at least doesn't.
- 59.25 In certain particle combinations, especially in Ionic, μέν has the force of μήν (→59.49): so, in Herodotus, in the particle combinations οὐ μὲν οὐδέ, γε μέν (δή), καὶ μέν (δή); for most of these combinations, →59.71–6 below. In Attic writers, the same holds for ἀλλὰ μὲν (δή), some cases of μὲν οὖν (→59.72), for μέντοι (→59.26–8), and occasionally for μέν alone.

μέντοι

- 59.26 Postpositive. Two different uses of this particle may be distinguished, as an 'adversative' connective particle, and as an 'emphasizer' (in answers).
- 59.27 Adversative μέντοι. Basic function: denial of expectation or modification μέντοι indicates a transition to a text-segment which contradicts or modifies the expectations raised by the preceding context (cf. Engl. 'he is rich, but he is unhappy'):
 - contrasting explicit statements: statement A gives rise to a certain expectation, which statement B (with μέντοι) contradicts (nevertheless, however, still, but, be that as it may, mind you);
 - modifying textual relationships: (especially in dialogue) to indicate that
 a speaker makes a different kind of contribution than might be expected given
 the preceding context (however, but; often difficult to translate):

- (40) καὶ εὐθὺς . . . ἐς Οἰνιάδας ἐστράτευσαν καὶ ἐπολιόρκουν, οὐ μέντοι εἶλόν γε, ἀλλ' ἀπεχώρησαν ἐπ' οἴκου. (Thuc. 1.111.3)
 - And straight away they attacked Oeniadae and besieged it; they did not, however, capture it, but departed for home. The mention of a siege gives rise to the expectation that the city will be captured; the $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu \tau o \iota$ -segment explicitly denies that expectation.
- (41) ἀπικόμενοι παρὰ τὸν Κροῖσον ... ἄγγελοι ἔλεγον τάδε· ³Ω βασιλεῦ, ... προσδεόμεθά σευ τὸν παῖδα καὶ λογάδας νεηνίας καὶ κύνας συμπέμψαι ἡμῖν ... Κροῖσος δὲ ... ἔλεγέ σφι τάδε· Παιδὸς μὲν πέρι τοῦ ἐμοῦ μἡ μνησθῆτε ἔτι· οὐ γὰρ ἄν ὑμῖν συμπέμψαιμι· ... Λυδῶν μέντοι λογάδας καὶ τὸ κυνηγέσιον πᾶν συμπέμψω. (Hdt. 1.36.2–3)
 - Messengers came to Croesus and said: 'Sire, we beg you to send your son and a hunting party with dogs to accompany us.' But Croesus said to them: 'Do not mention my son again: I will not send him with you. But as for Lydian huntsmen, I will send you some, together with a complete hunting outfit.' Croesus' first rejection may have given rise to the expectation that he would reject the entire request: μέντοι contradicts this. Note that in this example (παιδός) μέν is 'completed' by μέντοι.
- (42) ΚΡ. μεῖνον, τί φεύγεις; :: ΤΕ. ἡ τύχη σ', ἀλλ' οὐκ ἐγώ. | :: ΚΡ. φράσον πολίταις καὶ πόλει σωτηρίαν. | :: ΤΕ. βούλῃ σὑ μέντοι κοὐχὶ βουλήσῃ τάχα. (Eur. *Phoen.* 897–9)
 - (Creon:) Wait, why are you fleeing? :: (Tiresias:) Fortune is fleeing you, not I. :: (Creon:) Tell me what can save the citizens and their city. :: (Tiresias:) You want this now; soon enough you will not want it. Creon's request to Tiresias to explain what might save the city raises the expectation of an answer. Tiresias circumvents that expectation ($\mu \acute{e} \nu \tau o_l$) and enigmatically states that Creon will not want to know about $\sigma \omega \tau \eta \rho \acute{l} \alpha$ at all.

Note 1: Although ἀλλά, καίτοι and μέντοι are all three 'adversative', there is a difference between them: whereas, in 'A ἀλλά B', B *replaces* A (A is falsified, \rightarrow 59.11–12), in 'A καίτοι B' (\rightarrow 59.23) as well as in 'A B μέντοι', both A and B are valid, but one counters expectations raised by the other.

- 59.28 **Emphasizing μέντοι**. Basic function: indicates that the speaker is committed to the truth or relevance of his statement, no matter what the addressee might expect (→59.49, μήν) and brings that commitment home to the addressee (→59.51, τοι) this use of μέντοι is virtually confined to answers, usually assenting:
 - (43) Λέγεται ψυχή ή μὲν νοῦν τε ἔχειν ..., ἡ δὲ ἄνοιαν ... καὶ ταῦτα ἀληθῶς λέγεται; :: ᾿Αληθῶς μέντοι.
 (Pl. Phd. 93b-c)
 - (Socrates:) It is said that one soul possesses sense, another folly ... And is it true what they say? :: (Simmias:) Most certainly it is. Simmias confirms the correctness of $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\tilde{\omega}\varsigma$ in Socrates' question.

νυν

- 59.29 Basic function: indicates a transition to a new text segment which proceeds from the preceding text segment (cf. οὖν below): in Attic νυν is used almost exclusively in commands and requests in dialogue, where it **indicates that the directive flows naturally from the preceding context** (*then*, *so*):
 - (44) ΠΥ. ἐς κοινοὺς λόγους | ἔλθωμεν, ὡς ἄν Μενέλεως συνδυστυχῆ. | :: ΟΡ. ὡ φίλτατ', εἰ γὰρ τοῦτο κατθάνοιμ' ἰδών. | :: ΠΥ. πιθοῦ νυν, ἀνάμεινον δὲ φασγάνου τομάς. | :: ΟΡ. μενῶ, τὸν ἐχθρὸν εἴ τι τιμωρήσομαι. | :: ΠΥ. σίγα νυν· ὡς γυναιξὶ πιστεύω βραχύ. (Eur. Or. 1098–1103)
 (Pylades:) Let us agree on a plan for how Menelaus may share in suffering. :: (Orestes:) Dearest friend, would that I might die having seen that. :: (Pylades:) Listen to me then, and delay the strokes of your sword. :: (Orestes:) I will wait to see if I can take revenge on my enemy in some way. :: (Pylades:) Hush then! I do not have much confidence in women. In both instances, νυν indicates that Pylades' instructions follow from Orestes' preceding utterances.

Note 1: The postpositive ($\rightarrow 60.5$) particle $v\bar{v}v$ (with short \check{v}) is to be distinguished from the adverb $v\bar{v}v$ now (with long \bar{v}). In some cases in poetry, enclitic $v\bar{v}v$ has a long \bar{v} for metrical reasons (it is then accented $v\bar{v}v$ in some editions). The enclitic particle is found as $v\bar{v}$ in epic and in dialect inscriptions.

- 59.30 In Herodotus, νυν is often used in contexts where Attic would use οὖν, especially in the combination μέν νυν ... δέ (for μὲν οὖν ... δέ, →59.73):
 - (45) ταῦτα μέν νυν Πέρσαι τε καὶ Φοίνικες λέγουσι. ἐγὼ δὲ περὶ μὲν τούτων οὐκ ἔρχομαι ἐρέων ὡς οὕτως ἢ ἄλλως κως ταῦτα ἐγένετο. (Hdt. 1.5.3)
 This, then, is what the Persians and Phoenicians say. As for me, I will not venture to say about these things that they happened this way or that. For ἔρχομαι + fut. ppl., →52.41 n.1.

οὐδέ/μηδέ and οὔτε/μήτε

- 59.31 οὐδέ/μηδέ is the negative of καί (\rightarrow 59.20); it is used only after a preceding negative: οὐ X οὐδὲ Y = 'not X; and not Y' (and not, but not, nor), but also \rightarrow 59.32 n.1.
- 59.32 οὔτε/μήτε is the negative of τε (\rightarrow 59.37): οὔτε X οὔτε Y = 'neither X nor Y' (neither . . . nor, and not).
 - (46) ... μυρίους ἔδωκε δαρεικούς· οὓς ἐγὼ λαβὼν οὐκ εἰς τὸ ἴδιον κατεθέμην ἐμοὶ οὐδὲ καθηδυπάθησα, ἀλλ' εἰς ὑμᾶς ἐδαπάνων. (Xen. An. 1.3.3)

 He gave me ten thousand darics. Having received them, I did not set them aside for private use, nor did I squander them, but I spent them on you.

- (47) ... <u>οὔτε</u> σίδηρον <u>οὔτε</u> ξύλον <u>οὔτε</u> ἄλλο οὖδὲν ἔχων, ῷ τοὺς εἰσελθόντας ἂν ἡμύνατο. (Lys. 1.27)
 - ... having neither a sword, nor a stick, nor anything else, with which he could have defended himself against those who came in.

Note 1: For oὐδέ/μηδέ *not even* (as the negative of adverbial καί), $\rightarrow 59.56$ below; in this use, oὐδέ/μηδέ need not be preceded by another negative.

Note 2: For the contexts in which où and $\mu \dot{\eta}$ are used, $\rightarrow 56$.

οὐκοῦν and οὔκουν

- 59.33 Both these particles combine the negative oὐ with the connective particle οὖν (→59.34): the difference between the two is that in οὔκουν the negative has its normal negative force, whereas in οὖκοῦν it functions as a question word, the emphasis being on οὖν:
 - οὐκοῦν introduces yes/no questions; the negative has its usual force of indicating that a positive answer is expected (→38.7), and οὖν serves its regular function of 'getting to the point' (isn't it the case, then?; not, therefore?);
 - οὐκοῦν is also occasionally used in statements and directives (this use probably derives from its use in questions); the negative here has no force, and the particle is very similar to simple οὖν (then, so, well, therefore);
 - οὔκουν is used in questions, with emphasis on the negative, expressing doubt that the addressee will really answer 'no' to the question (is it really the case that not ..., then?; so ... not?);
 - οὔκουν is also, but infrequently, used in statements (particularly in negative answers), again with emphasis on the negative (not ..., then); typically combined with $\gamma \epsilon$ (not ... at any rate).
 - (48) Τοὐναντίον ἄρα ἐστὶν τὸ ἀφρόνως πράττειν τῷ σωφρόνως; :: ἔφη. :: Οὐκοῦν τὰ μὲν ἀφρόνως πραττόμενα ἀφροσύνῃ πράττεται, τὰ δὲ σωφρόνως σωφροσύνῃ; :: ὡμολόγει. (Pl. Prt. 332b)
 - 'Acting immoderately, then, is the opposite of acting wisely?' :: He said that it was. :: 'Isn't it the case, then, that immoderate acts are performed due to a lack of moderation, and moderate acts due to moderation?' :: He agreed. οὐκοῦν introducing a yes/no question.
 - (49) τίνας οὖν εὐχὰς ὑπολαμβάνετ' εὔχεσθαι τοῖς θεοῖς τὸν Φίλιππον ...; ἆρ' οὐ κράτος πολέμου ... διδόναι ...; <u>οὐκοῦν</u> ταῦτα συνηύχετο οὖτος καὶ κατηρᾶτο τῆ πατρίδι. (Dem. 19.130)
 - What prayers do you suppose Philip made to the gods? For them to give him victory in war, wouldn't you think? Well, this man joined in this prayer, and cursed his fatherland. $o\dot{v}no\tilde{v}v$ in a statement, indicating a transition to Demosthenes' central point: Aeschines was ill-intentioned towards Athens. For $\tilde{\alpha}\rho'$ oi, $\rightarrow 38.7$.

- (50) ΣΩ. ὅρα οὖν εἰ ἐθελήσεις . . . διδόναι ἔλεγχον ἀποκρινόμενος τὰ ἐρωτώμενα. ἐγὰ γὰρ δὴ οἷμαι καὶ ἐμὲ καὶ σὲ καὶ τοὺς ἄλλους ἀνθρώπους τὸ ἀδικεῖν τοῦ ἀδικεῖσθαι κάκιον ἡγεῖσθαι . . . :: ΠΩ. πολλοῦ γε δεῖ, ἀλλ' οὖτ' ἐγὰ οὖτε σὺ οὖτ' ἄλλος οὐδείς. :: ΣΩ. οὔκουν ἀποκρινῆ; :: ΠΩ. πάνυ μὲν οὖν. (Pl. Grg. 474b-c) (Socrates:) See if you want to be examined by answering my questions. I believe that both I and you and everyone else thinks that it is worse to commit an injustice than it is to suffer one. :: (Polus:) Far from it: on the contrary, that isn't true for me, for you, or for anyone else. :: (Socrates:) So you won't answer? :: (Polus:) To be sure I will. Polus' answer leads Socrates to surmise (-ουν) that he does not (οὔκ-) want to answer his questions: he asks if that is really the case.
- (51) ΧΟ. τούτων ἄρα Ζεύς ἐστιν ἀσθενέστερος; | :: ΠΡ. οὔκουν ἄν ἐκφύγοι <u>γε</u> τὴν πεπρωμένην. (Aesch. PV. 517-18)
 (Chorus:) Are you saying that Zeus is weaker than they? :: (Prometheus:) There is no way, at any rate, in which he may escape what has been fated. Emphatic οὔκουν ... γε in a negative answer.

Note 1: Editors vary greatly in printing οὐκοῦν or οὔκοῦν, and in punctuating sentences with οὐκοῦν as questions or statements. As accents are later additions (→1.12), there is no sure way of knowing which variant is authentic in each case.

οὖν

- 59.34 Ion. ὧν. Postpositive. Basic function: οὖν indicates a **transition to more to-the- point, crucial or relevant information**, and indicates that the preceding context should be seen as preliminary/explanatory to its host segment:
 - in argumentative texts: indicating a transition from arguments/premises to a conclusion or summary (so, then, therefore; the point is that);
 - in narratives: indicating a transition to the main, foregrounded storyline after a segment with background narrative (now, so, then, well);
 - in dialogue (often in questions), to indicate that the point the speaker makes, the question the speaker asks, etc., is the main thing the speaker wants to convey or ask, given the preceding context (so, now, well then, therefore);
 - in dialogue: τί οὖν; so what?, what, then?
 - (52) καὶ ... παμπόλλους ἔχω λέγειν, οἵ αὐτοὶ ἀγαθοὶ ὄντες οὐδένα πώποτε βελτίω ἐποίησαν ... ἐγὼ οὖν, ὧ Πρωταγόρα, εἰς ταῦτα ἀποβλέπων οὐχ ἡγοῦμαι διδακτὸν εἶναι ἀρετήν. (Pl. *Prt*. 320b)
 - And I can tell you of many, who, although they were themselves good, never made anyone any better. Therefore, Protagoras, considering these matters I do not think that virtue is something that can be taught. oùv marks the

- transition from Socrates' arguments (of which only one is printed in the example) to the conclusion validated by those arguments.
- (53) οἱ τριάκοντα ... φάσκοντες χρῆναι τῶν ἀδίκων καθαρὰν ποιῆσαι τἡν πόλιν ... οὐ τοιαῦτα ποιεῖν ἐτόλμων ... Θέογνις γὰρ καὶ Πείσων ἔλεγον ... περὶ τῶν μετοίκων, ὡς εἶέν τινες τῆ πολιτεία ἀχθόμενοι· καλλίστην οὖν εἶναι πρόφασιν τιμωρεῖσθαι μὲν δοκεῖν, τῷ δ' ἔργῳ χρηματίζεσθαι· ... ἔδοξεν οὖν αὐτοῖς δέκα συλλαβεῖν. (Lys. 12.5-7)
 - The Thirty, although they said that they needed to cleanse the city of criminals, dared to behave in a very different fashion. For Theognis and Pison said concerning the metics, that there were some who were disgruntled with the regime; so that there was an excellent pretext to appear to exact punishment, but in reality to acquire funds. So they decided to arrest ten of them. The second ov marks a transition (back) to the main narrative line, rounding off a stretch of explanatory background material (introduced by $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$) which details the deliberations leading up to the Thirty's decision. The first ov connects two parts of Theognis' and Pison's argument: the preliminary assertion that they have opposition among the resident aliens leads up to the relevant point their proposal to use them as an excuse for income-gathering. For this passage, also $\rightarrow 61.1-3$.
- (54) ΕΥ. ἀγάθωνά μοι δεῦρ' ἐκκάλεσον ... | :: ΘΕ. μηδὲν ἱκέτευ'· αὐτὸς γὰρ ἔξεισιν τάχα· | καὶ γὰρ μελοποιεῖν ἄρχεται· χειμῶνος οὖν | ὄντος κατακάμπτειν τὰς στροφὰς οὐ ῥάδιον, | ἢν μὴ προῖη θύρασι ... | :: ΕΥ. τί οὖν ἐγὰ δρῶ; :: ΘΕ. περίμεν', ὡς ἔξέρχεται. (Ar. Thesm. 65–70)

 (Euripides:) Call out Agathon for me. :: (Servant:) No need to beg: he'll come out himself soon enough. In fact, he's beginning to compose the point being that since it's winter, it's not easy for him to mould his couplets unless he comes outside. :: (Euripides:) So what should I do? :: (Servant:) Wait here: he's coming out. The servant's point that Agathon is beginning to compose is not very helpful in itself; the transition to the relevant point (that this means that he will come out) is indicated by οὖν. Euripides then wants the servant to answer the point which matters for him (what he should do in order to speak to Agathon); οὖν marks the relevant question.
- 59.35 οὖν is sometimes added to indefinite relative pronouns/adjectives to express universality; such pronouns/adjectives usually do *not* introduce (cor)relative clauses, but are used as indefinite pronouns: ὁστισοῦν anybody who(so)ever, ὁτιοῦν anything whatsoever, ὁποσοιοῦν however many, etc.
- 59.36 For the use of μων (= μἡ οὖν), \rightarrow 38.8.

τε

- 59.37 Postpositive. Basic function: indicates **addition** (cf. καί above):
 - as a co-ordinating conjunction within sentences: $\tau \varepsilon$ follows the word it connects to the preceding context: X Y $\tau \varepsilon$ = 'X and Y' (and, as well as);
 - τε is also very commonly used to signal that something is the first in an enumeration, in which case καί or another τε follows it: X τε καὶ Y = 'X and Y'; X τε Y τε = 'X and Y' (the first τε is typically not translated; and, both . . . and, as well as).
 - (55) ἐν ἐκείνη τῆ νυκτὶ ἐψόφει ἡ μέταυλος θύρα . . . , ὁ οὐδέποτε ἐγένετο, ἔδοξέ τέ μοι ἡ γυνὴ ἐψιμυθιῶσθαι. (Lys. 1.17)
 That night the inner doors made a sound, which had never happened, and my wife seemed to me to have put on make-up.
 - (56) ὶὼ μέλαθρα βασιλέων, φίλαι στέγαι, | σεμνοί τε θᾶκοι, δαίμονές τ' ἀντήλιοι . . .
 (Aesch. Ag. 518–19)
 Hail, halls of kings dear roofs, and blessed thrones, and gods who face the sun . . .
 - (57) ἄξιον ἐπαινέσαι τήν <u>τε</u> πατρίδα <u>καὶ</u> τὸ γένος αὐτοῦ. (Xen. Ages. 1.4) It is worth praising his fatherland and descent.

Note 1: In tragic and lyric poetry only (in the classical period), $\tau\epsilon$ is sometimes used to introduce a general truth. In this use the particle is called **epic** $\tau\epsilon$; it is especially found in digressive relative clauses ($\rightarrow 50.6$):

(58) παῖ Ῥέας, ἄ τε πρυτανεῖα λέλογχας, Ἑστία, ... (Pind. Nem. 11.1)
Daughter of Rhea, to whom city halls have been allotted, Hestia, ...

Note 2: Observe the idiom οἶός τέ (εἰμι) (be) able to, (be) capable of.

τοιγάρ, τοιγαροῦν, and τοιγάρτοι

59.38 Basic function: indicates **consequence** – these (infrequent) particles combine a demonstrative element τοι- (cf. τοιόσδε, τοιοῦτος) with γάρ (whose meaning here is unclear); their function is to indicate a transition to a text segment whose content follows from the preceding context.

τοιγάρ typically occurs in answers, τοιγαροῦν and τοιγάρτοι usually in continuous argumentative or narrative texts (therefore, hence, thus, that is why).

(59) ΣΙ. Βρομίου δὲ πῶμ' ἔχουσιν, ἀμπέλου ῥοάς; | :: ΟΔ. ἥκιστα· τοιγὰρ ἄχορον οἰκοῦσι χθόνα.
 (Eur. Cyc. 124-5)

(Silenus:) Do they possess Dionysus' drink, that flows from the vine? :: (Odysseus:) Not at all! Hence the land they dwell in knows no dancing.

(60) ἐξ ὧν αὐτοὶ συνίσασι καὶ ἐξητάκασι, τὴν ψῆφον φέρουσι. τοιγάρτοι διατελεῖ τοῦτο τὸ συνέδριον εὐδοκιμοῦν ἐν τῆ πόλει. (Aeschin. 1.92)

They cast their verdict based upon what they themselves know and have examined. That is why this court continues to be reputable in the city.

Note 1: τοιγάρ is mainly found in epic and tragedy, never in Attic prose, which rather uses (more forceful) τοιγαροῦν and τοιγάρτοι.

τοίνυν

- 59.39 Postpositive. Basic function: indicates a **transition to a newly relevant, to-the- point text segment** (νυν, cf. οὖν, →59.29-30, 59.34), and stresses **the importance or relevance for the addressee** of that new point (τοι, →59.51):
 - in argumentative texts, in transitions to an important new point or an important conclusion (well, then, so, now; I'll have you know, then);
 - in dialogue, indicating that the statement, question or command uttered by the speaker is to the point and should be of particular note to the addressee (then, so, well); the reasons why the addressee should take note vary: e.g. because he/she has asked for it (very well, then), because it implies a criticism of him/her (might I point out, then), etc.;
 - τοίνυν is rare in narrative.
 - (61) νῦν δ' οὕνεχ' Ἑλένη μάργος ἦν ... | τούτων ἕκατι παῖδ' ἐμὴν διώλεσεν. | ἐπὶ τοῖσδε τοίνυν καίπερ ἠδικημένη | οὐκ ἠγριώμην οὐδ' ἂν ἔκτανον πόσιν. (Eur. El. 1027-31)
 - As it was, because Helen was lewd, for that reason he killed my child. Now, in response to this, although I had been wronged, I was not spiteful, nor would I have killed my husband. Clytaemestra moves on to a new point in her argument: she was initially forgiving towards Agamemnon; this is something she particularly wants to point out to her addressee, her vindictive daughter Electra.
 - (62) ΧΟ. τὴν σαυτοῦ φύσιν εἰπέ. | :: ΚΡ. λέξω τοίνυν. (Ar. Nub. 960-1) (Chorus:) Tell us about your nature. :: (Better Argument:) Very well then, I will speak. Since the Chorus has asked for the exposition, Better Argument implies that his speech is of particular interest to them.

Note 1: The difference between τοίνυν and the more neutral οὖν is the former's attitudinal nuance: τοίνυν, in addition to indicating that its host segment presents to-the-point information, also conveys the notion that this information is of particular interest or importance for the addressee.

Attitudinal Particles

Introduction

59.40 The particles ἄρα, ἆρα, δή, δήπου, ἦ, μήν, τοι and που (also μέντοι, καίτοι and τοίνυν described above) play a role in managing the attitudes and beliefs that speaker and addressee have towards what is said. By using these particles, speakers can signal that their utterance should be interpreted in a specific way, or they can anticipate what the addressee might or should think about it. These particles are by far the hardest to translate, and the 'definitions' below are by no means certain.

Note 1: Similar devices in English are *perhaps*, *surely*, *really*, *apparently*, *you know*, *obviously*, etc.

59.41 These particles normally have no connective function, but there are some exceptions (notably ἄρα and δή).

List of Attitudinal Particles

ἄρα

- 59.42 Postpositive. Basic function: indicates that the speaker, in view of the preceding context, cannot but make the contribution he/she is making (often to his/her surprise or displeasure):
 - in statements (apparently, it seems, then, so, in that case, if this is granted); often in conclusions, signalling that the conclusion follows necessarily (often surprisingly) from the preceding context;
 - commonly with the imperfect or aorist when a speaker retrospectively realizes that something was the case (*apparently, it seems, then, so, as it turns out*);
 - in questions, to indicate that the question is necessarily brought on by the context (so, then, in that case);
 - in later usage, the particle occasionally appears to develop a connective function, linking sentences.
 - (63) βαρέως δὲ φέρων τῇ ἀτιμίᾳ ... εἶπεν· Ὁ ἀγησίλαε, μειοῦν μὲν ἄρα σύγε τοὺς φίλους ἡπίστω. (Xen. Hell. 3.4.9)
 And not bearing his disgrace well, he said: 'It seems that you, at any rate, Agesilaus, knew how to humiliate your friends.' ἄρα + imperfect to mark a surprising realization in hindsight.
 - (64) $\Sigma\Omega$. τί . . . ἀν εἴη . . . τὰ παρ' ἡμῶν δῶρα τοῖς θεοῖς; :: ΕΥ. τί . . . ἄλλο ἢ τιμή τε καὶ γέρα καί . . . χάρις; :: $\Sigma\Omega$. κεχαρισμένον ἄρα ἐστίν, ὧ Εὐθύφρων, τὸ ὅσιον, ἀλλ' οὐχὶ ὡφέλιμον οὐδὲ φίλον τοῖς θεοῖς; :: ΕΥ. οἶμαι ἔγωγε πάντων γε μάλιστα

φίλον. :: $\Sigma\Omega$. τοῦτο ἄρ' ἐστὶν αὖ, ὡς ἔοικε, τὸ ὅσιον, τὸ τοῖς θεοῖς φίλον. (Pl. Euthphr. 15a-b)

(Socrates:) What would our gifts to the gods be? (Euthyphro:) What else than honour and praise and gratitude? :: (Socrates:) So holiness is gratifying, but not beneficial or precious to the gods? :: (Euthyphro:) I do think that it is, above all, precious. :: (Socrates:) In that case, again, it would seem that holiness is what is precious to the gods. The first $\check{\alpha}p\alpha$ introduces a question which suggests the inevitable conclusion of the preceding discussion. The second similarly introduces a hypothesis which is inescapable given the preceding line of thought (note $\acute{\omega}$ 5 $\check{\epsilon}oine$).

(65) δῆλον . . . τῆς ἀρετῆς ἐνέργειαν τῆς ψυχῆς ἄριστον εἶναι. ἦν δὲ καὶ ἡ εὐδαιμονία τὸ ἄριστον. ἔστιν <u>ἄρα</u> ἡ εὐδαιμονία ψυχῆς ἀγαθῆς ἐνέργεια. (Arist. *Eth. Eud.* 1219a28–35)

It is clear that the activity of excellence is the greatest good of the spirit. And happiness was also the greatest good: so happiness is the activity of a good spirit. $\check{\alpha}\rho\alpha$ here also appears to have developed a connective function, as no other connective is present.

ἆρα

59.43 $\tilde{\eta}$ (\rightarrow 59.48) + $\tilde{\alpha}\rho\alpha$ (\rightarrow 59.42), used specifically in yes/no-questions. For its use, \rightarrow 38.6.

δαί

 $\rightarrow \delta \dot{\eta}$ 59.46.

δή

Note 1: $\delta \dot{\eta}$ has a particularly wide range of uses. Its basic function is difficult to ascertain, and the subject of considerable scholarly debate.

- 59.44 Postpositive. Basic function: δή indicates that the speaker considers (and invites the addressee to consider) the text segment or word (group) which it modifies as evident, clear or precise:
 - following individual words or word groups: δή in such cases indicates that the word or word group in question is entirely or evidently applicable (in fact, actually, very, precisely, indeed, or translated by emphasis); the particle is so used particularly with adjectives/adverbs expressing quantity, size, frequency, intensity, etc.; with superlatives; with δῆλος; and with certain types of pronouns (in this use δή might more properly be considered a particle of scope, for which →59.52);

- modifying entire clauses, to present the content of the clause as clearly true or relevant (certainly, indeed; often with a nuance of obviousness: obviously, of course, clearly);
- in many such cases, $\delta\dot{\eta}$ appears to have developed a connective function, indicating a transition to a new, obviously relevant segment (*then*, *well*, *now*, *so*);
- in causal clauses (→48), purpose clauses (→45), comparative clauses (→50.37), and with ώς + participle (→52.39), the sense 'evidently' is often used with an ironic or sarcastic nuance (I'm sure, obviously, apparently, no doubt).
- (66) κίνησις γὰρ αὕτη μεγίστη <u>δὴ</u> τοῖς ελλησιν ἐγένετο καὶ μέρει τινὶ τῶν βαρβάρων. (Thuc. 1.1.2)
 - For this was indeed the greatest movement to occur, for the Greeks as well as a part of the barbarian world. $\delta \dot{\eta}$ modifies the superlative $\mu \epsilon \gamma i \sigma \tau \eta$, underlining that the expedition was undeniably the largest ever.
- (67) σὲ $\underline{\delta \acute{\eta}}$, σὲ τὴν νεύουσαν εἰς πέδον κάρα, | φὴς ἢ καταρνεῖ μὴ δεδρακέναι τάδε; (Soph. Ant. 441–2)
 - You, you with your head bowing towards the ground: do you affirm or deny that you have done this? $\delta \dot{\eta}$ highlights the personal pronoun $\sigma \dot{\epsilon}$, with a note of contempt; it is also possible to read $\delta \dot{\eta}$ as indicating that Creon's questioning of Antigone is expected given the preceding context ('you then').
- (68) ἔστι δὲ οὖτος ᾿Αξιόχου μὲν ὑὸς ... ὄνομα δ᾽ αὐτῷ Κλεινίας. ἔστι δὲ νέος-φοβούμεθα δἡ περὶ αὐτῷ, οἶον εἰκὸς περὶ νέῳ. (Pl. Euthd. 275a-b)

 This is the son of Axiochus; his name is Clinias; he's young, and so of course we're concerned for him, as is to be expected with a young man. Concern is predictable given Clinias' youth; the particle here also appears to have a connective function, connecting the φοβούμεθα-sentence to the preceding one (note that no other connective is present).
- (69) ἐγὰ δ' οὐκ ἀγνοᾶ ... ὅτι πολλάκις ... τοὺς ὑστάτους περὶ τῶν πραγμάτων εἰπόντας ἐν ὀργῆ ποιεῖσθε, ἄν τι μὴ κατὰ γνώμην ἐκβῆ· οὐ μὴν οἶμαι δεῖν τὴν ἰδίαν ἀσφάλειαν σκοποῦνθ' ὑποστείλασθαι ... φημὶ δὴ διχῆ βοηθητέον εἶναι ... · εἰ δὲ θατέρου τούτων ὀλιγωρήσετε, ὀκνῶ μὴ μάταιος ἡμῖν ἡ στρατεία γένηται. εἴτε γὰρ ... εἴτε ... δεῖ δὴ πολλὴν καὶ διχῆ τὴν βοήθειαν εῖναι. (Dem. 1.16–18)
 - And I am well aware that you often get angry at the most recent speakers concerning an affair, if something goes against plan. Yet I believe that I must not, looking at my personal safety, keep quiet. I argue, then, that there must be two relief expeditions. And if you neglect either of them, I worry that our

(70) Πολυνείκης πίτνει. | ὁ δ', ὡς κρατῶν δή καὶ νενικηκὼς μάχῃ, | ξίφος δικὼν ἐς γαῖαν ἐσκύλευἐ νιν. (Eur. Phoen. 1415–17)
Polynices fell. And he (Eteocles), believing, no doubt, that he had defeated him and won the battle, put his sword down on the ground and proceeded to strip his body. With an ironic nuance: the 'subjective' motivation given by ὡς κρατῶν (→52.39) will prove to be tragically misguided: Polynices is still alive, and will kill Eteocles.

Note 1: δή is sometimes written as one word with a following indefinite pronoun or adverb which it modifies: e.g. δήποτε; for δήπου, \rightarrow 59.47.

- 59.45 The particle δῆτα (postpositive) is a stronger form of $\delta \dot{\eta}$, used primarily in answers and questions:
 - (71) ΗΤ. οὐδὲ γὰρ εἶναι πάνυ φημὶ δίκην... ποῦ ' στιν; :: ΚΡ. παρὰ τοῖοι θεοῖς. :: ΗΤ. πῶς δῆτα δίκης οὔσης ὁ Ζεὺς οὐκ ἀπόλωλεν, τὸν πατέρ' αὐτοῦ δήσας; (Ar. Nub. 902-6) (Weaker Argument:) I say that there is no justice at all; where is it? :: (Stronger Argument:) With the gods. :: (Weaker Argument:) How is it possible, then, if there is justice, that Zeus didn't perish when he bound his own father?
- 59.46 The particle δαί (postpositive) is a probably colloquial variant of δή, used specifically in questions.

The particle $\delta\tilde{\eta}\theta\epsilon(\nu)$ appears to be synonymous with $\delta\dot{\eta}$, although it is found primarily in the 'ironic' contexts described above.

δήπου

allies.

- 59.47 Postpositive. Basic function: combines the 'evidential' force of δή (→59.44) with the uncertainty of που (→59.50) δήπου tentatively suggests that something ought to be as clear or obvious to the addressee as it is to the speaker (for possible translations →που, 59.50):
 - (72) ἀναμνήσθητε ὅτι καὶ ἐψηφίσασθε <u>δήπου</u> τοὺς φυγάδας ἀγωγίμους εἶναι ἐκ πασῶν τῶν συμμαχίδων. (Xen. Hell. 7.3.11)

 Remember: you voted, if I'm not mistaken, that exiles can be extradited from all of our

δῆτα

 $\rightarrow \delta \dot{\eta}$, 59.45.

ή

- 59.48 Basic function: 'objective' emphasizer $\tilde{\eta}$ indicates a high level of commitment on the part of the speaker to the truth of the content of an utterance, which is considered to be *objectively* true:
 - in statements, to underline that the speaker considers his/her statement or a part of it objectively true (*really*, *truly*, *certainly*);
 - in questions (for $\tilde{\alpha}$ ρα (= $\tilde{\eta}$ + $\tilde{\alpha}$ ρα) →59.43), to ask whether the addressee really considers something the case (*really*, *truly*); often to introduce a suggested answer to a previous question (*I suppose*, *is it the case that*).
 - (73) $\frac{\tilde{\eta}}{1}$ πολύ πλεῖστον ἐκεῖνοι κατὰ τὴν ἀρετὴν ἁπάντων ἀνθρώπων διήνεγκαν. (Lys. 2.40)

These men truly surpassed all men in valour by a great deal.

- (74) ἦ κἀν θεοῖσι ταὐτὸν ἐλπίζεις τόδε; (Eur. Hipp. 97)
 Do you really expect that this same principle is true among the gods as well?
- (75) τίνες δ' ἔχουσι γαῖαν; ἢ θηρῶν γένος; (Eur. Cyc. 117)
 Who lives here? Wild beasts, I suppose?

Note 1: $\tilde{\eta}$ may be seen as a positive counterpart to the negation où: whereas où expresses that something is *not* the case, $\tilde{\eta}$ expresses emphatically that it *is*.

μήν

- Postpositive. Basic function: 'subjective' emphasizer $\mu \dot{\eta} \nu$ indicates that the speaker is committed to the truth or relevance of his/her utterance, and anticipates or assumes a possible lack of commitment on the part of the addressee.
 - in statements, μήν signals that the speaker vouches for the truth or relevance of his/her statement, no matter what the addressee may believe (it anticipates disbelief or scepticism) (*I assure you, really, truly, certainly, in fact, know that,* let me tell you that);
 - in questions, typically after a previous answer has been rejected, to indicate that the speaker wants the addressee to give an answer which *is* true or relevant (translation other than by stress is difficult); so frequently with question words, e.g. ποῦ μήν ...; where is ...?, τί μήν; then what is ...?; τί μήν is also used 'elliptically', with the sense what of it? yes, but what is your point?;
 - μήν also appears to have developed a connective force, indicating a transition to
 a point which is somehow unexpected (however, be that as it may, yet; in this use
 μήν is very similar to adversative μέντοι, →59.27; it is often anticipated by μέν);

- μήν is frequently combined with negatives: οὐ μήν (truly not, not however; well, ... not) (this use is normally combined with γ ε).
- (76) ΓΟ. εἰσὶ μέν ... ἔνιαι τῶν ἀποκρίσεων ἀναγκαῖαι διὰ μακρῶν τοὺς λόγους ποιεῖσθαι· οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ πειράσομαί γε ὡς διὰ βραχυτάτων... :: ΣΩ. τούτου μὴν δεῖ, ὧ Γοργία· καί μοι ἐπίδειξιν ... ποίησαι τῆς βραχυλογίας ... :: ΓΟ. ἀλλὰ ποιήσω. (Pl. Grg. 449b-c) (Gorgias:) Some answers, Socrates, need to be made with long expositions; nevertheless I will try, at least, to make mine as short as possible. :: (Socrates:) That is in fact what is needed, Gorgias; give me a display of your brevity. :: (Gorgias:) I will. Socrates affirms that he really does want a short explanation (possibly to avoid the impression that he would like Gorgias to make one of his famed longer speeches.) For οὐ μὴν ἀλλά, →59.75.
- (77) ΤΕ. ἐθαύμαζον ὅτι οὐχ οἶός τ' ἦ εὑρεῖν. :: ΕΥ. οὐ γὰρ ἦ κατὰ πόλιν. :: ΤΕ. ποῦ μήν; (Pl. Tht. 142a)
 (Terpsion:) I was surprised that I couldn't find you. :: (Euclides:) You couldn't because I wasn't in the city. :: (Terpsion:) Then where were you?
- (78) καλὸν μὲν ἡ ἀλήθεια, ὧ ξένε, καὶ μόνιμον ἔοικε μὴν οὐ ῥάδιον εἶναι πείθειν. (Pl. Leg. 663e)
 The truth is a noble thing, stranger, and an enduring one. Yet to convince men of it appears to be no easy matter. The μήν-clause is unexpected given the preceding μέν clause.
- (79) διπλοῖς κέντροισί μου καθίκετο. | οὐ μὴν ἴσην γ' ἔτεισεν ... κτείνω δὲ τοὺς ξύμπαντας. (Soph. OT 809–13)
 He struck me with his double whip. Well, he did not pay an equal price ...
 I killed them all. μήν underlines the (unexpected) disparity between the attack on Oedipus and his violent reaction to it.

Note 1: μήν most frequently occurs in combinations, e.g. ἀλλὰ μήν (\rightarrow 59.60), ἢ μήν (59.65), καὶ μήν (59.71), οὐ μήν ἀλλά (59.75–6).

που

59.50 Ion. κου. Postpositive. Basic function: indicates **uncertainty** – by using που a speaker signals that he/she is not entirely sure about what he/she is saying (the uncertainty may be feigned to convey irony or politeness).

 π ou is used almost always in statements, as a hedging device (*perhaps, possibly, somehow, I suppose, I think, I believe, if I'm not mistaken*):

- (80) εἶπον δέ που, πρὶν ἀναγιγνώσκεσθαι τούτους, ώς . . . (Isoc. 15.75) I said, I believe, before these words were read, that . . .
- (81) ἀλλὰ ταῦτα δαίμονί κου φίλον ἦν οὕτω γενέσθαι. (Hdt. 1.87.4)

 No, it was perhaps the desire of a god that it happened in that way.

Note 1: This use of $\pi o u$ probably derives from its meaning as an indefinite adverb somewhere.

Note 2: $\pi o \nu$ is sometimes used in questions, particularly in certain combinations: $o \nu$ $\pi o \nu$; (don't tell me that ...; questions about things which the speaker hopes are not true), $o \nu$ τ $\pi o \nu$; (surely ... not ...?; questions about things which the speaker cannot believe are true), and $\tilde{\eta} \pi o \nu$ (I suppose that ...?; questions about things which the speaker believes are true, but does not want to state too firmly).

TOI

- Postpositive. Basic function: serves to bring an utterance **to the specific attention of the addressee** (τοι was originally a dative of the second-person pronoun):
 - most often in statements, especially in dialogue (*mark you, note, I'll have you know, you know, know that*; sometimes best translated only by emphasis); the reasons why a point is brought to the specific attention of the addressee vary greatly: e.g. to boast, to threaten, correct or criticize, to compliment, to persuade, to point out that a generalization is specifically applicable to the addressee, etc.);
 - often with the negative, οὔτοι;
 - sometimes in a command, wish or question, to point out that it has specific relevance for the addressee.
 - (82) ΚΛ. κτενεῖν ἔοικας, ὧ τέκνον, τὴν μητέρα. | :: ΟΡ. σύ τοι σεαυτήν, οὐκ ἐγώ, κατακτενεῖς. (Aesch. Cho. 922–3)
 (Clytaemestra:) It appears, child, that you are about to kill your mother. :: (Orestes:) It is you who will kill yourself, not I. Orestes uses τοι to drive home the point that Clytaemestra is responsible for her own demise (correcting her preceding utterance).
 - (83) ΟΔ. μή χαῖρ', ἀτρείδη, κέρδεσιν τοῖς μή καλοῖς. | :: ΑΓ. τόν <u>τοι</u> τύραννον εὐσεβεῖν οὐ ῥάδιον. | :: ΟΔ. ἀλλ' εὖ λέγουσι τοῖς φίλοις τιμὰς νέμειν. | :: ΑΓ. κλύειν τὸν ἐσθλὸν ἄνδρα χρὴ τῶν ἐν τέλει. | :: ΟΔ. παῦσαι· κρατεῖς <u>τοι</u> τῶν φίλων νικώμενος. (Soph. *Aj*. 1349–53)
 - (Odysseus:) Do not, son of Atreus, take pleasure in unjust profits. :: (Agamemnon:) It is not easy, I'll have you know, for a ruler to behave piously. :: (Odysseus:) But easy enough to treat friends who give good advice with respect. :: (Agamemnon:) A good man should listen to those in power. :: (Odysseus:) Give up: you still have power, you know, when you surrender to friends. Agamemnon's \tau opoints out that the generalization about kings and good behaviour is relevant here, and that Odysseus' request is thus unreasonable. Odysseus' \tau oi is designed to help persuade Agamemnon that he can accede to it anyway.

Particles of Scope

Introduction

59.52 The particles γ ε, γ οῦν, καί (negative οὐδέ) and π ερ are particles that delimit the **scope** or applicability of a certain statement. A speaker can use these particles to signal that what he/she says is applicable 'at least in the case of X', 'even in the case of X' or 'precisely in the case of X'.

List of Scope Particles

γε

- 59.53 Postpositive. Basic function: expresses concentration/limitation γε focuses attention on the word or phrase it follows (or sometimes the clause as a whole), and limits the applicability of the content of the utterance to at least or (more) precisely that specific element:
 - emphasizing words, phrases or clauses (at least, when it comes to, to be precise, often best translated by means of stress);
 - in dialogue, at the beginning of a speaking turn, $\gamma \epsilon$ is used to pick up the previous speaker's syntax but focus it on a specific element (*to be precise*); in answers to yes/no questions, the answer *yes* or *no* is often implied.
 - (84) οὐκ ἔφη ἑαυτοῦ <u>γε</u> ἄρχοντος οὐδέν' ἄν Ἑλλήνων εἰς τὸ ἐκείνου δυνατὸν ἀνδραποδισθῆναι. (Xen. *Hell.* 1.6.14)

 He said that, at least while he was commander, no Greek would be reduced to slavery, as far as was in his power.
 - (85) καὶ μὲν δὴ τοῦτό <u>γε</u> ἐπίστασθε πάντες, ὅτι ἐσώθην καὶ ἐγώ καὶ ὁ ἐμὸς πατήρ. (Andoc. 1.20)
 - And if there is one thing which you all know, it is that I and my father survived.
 - (86) ΚΡ. δοκεῖ παρεικαθεῖν; :: ΧΟ. ὅσον χ', ἄναξ, τάχιστα. (Soph. Ant. 1102-3) (Creon:) Do you think that I should give way? :: (Chorus:) Yes, my lord, with all speed.

Note 1: Certain combinations with $\gamma \varepsilon$ are sometimes written as one word (e.g. σύγε, καίτοιγε); this is regularly the case with $\xi \gamma \omega \gamma \varepsilon$ *I* (at least), ($\xi \gamma \omega + \gamma \varepsilon$; note the shift of accent; dat. $\xi \mu \omega \gamma \varepsilon$, also with accent shift).

γοῦν

59.54 Ion. γῶν. Postpositive. A combination of γε and οὖν, γοῦν modifies an utterance which elaborates (οὖν, →59.34) upon (part of) the preceding utterance by restricting its applicability (γε, →59.53) (at least, at any rate). It is often used in sentences which provide the 'minimal evidence' or the 'minimal applicability' for a preceding statement:

(87) παρὰ μὲν γὰρ ἐκείνοις μείζων ἐστὶν ὁ τοῦ μέλλοντος φόβος τῆς παρούσης χάριτος, παρὰ δ' ὑμῖν ἀδεῶς ἃν λάβη τις ἔχειν ὑπῆρχε τὸν <u>γοῦν</u> ἄλλον χρόνον. (Dem. 20.16)

For in those communities the fear of tomorrow outweighs the favour of today, but in your city it was possible for a man to keep what he wins without fear of loss, at any rate in time past. τὸν γοῦν ἄλλον χρόνον limits the applicability of the positive description of the city at least to 'time past'.

Note 1: The negative counterpart of youv is ourkouv ... ye, for which \rightarrow 59.33.

περ

- Postpositive. Basic function: expresses **exclusive limitation** $\pi \epsilon \rho$ limits the applicability of an utterance's content to exactly and only the word (group) it follows.
 - in classical Greek $\pi\epsilon\rho$ is common only in combination with relatives (ὅσ $\pi\epsilon\rho$ precisely who), with ϵ i (if and only if, precisely if), and in the combination καί $\pi\epsilon\rho$ (used with participles \rightarrow 52.44);
 - in earlier Greek poetry (e.g. Homer, Hesiod, Aeschylus), $\pi\epsilon\rho$ is used on its own, with concessive force (especially with predicative modifiers (\rightarrow 26.26), particularly participles) (even though, even if).
 - (88) Πάντ', ἔφη, λέγεις οἶα<u>περ</u> ἄν γένοιτο. (Pl. Resp. 538c)
 He said: 'You describe everything exactly as it may occur.'
 - (89) μένει τὸ θεῖον δουλίᾳ <u>περ</u> ἐν φρενί. (Aesch. Ag. 1084)
 The divine power remains in the mind, even though it (the mind) is enslaved. δουλίᾳ (adj.) is a predicative modifier with φρενί.

'Adverbial' καί

- 59.56 Basic function: expresses **addition/extension** καί signals that the applicability of an utterance also extends to the word or phrase following it:
 - marking additions which exceed a certain comparable or expected level (also, too, even, as well);
 - marking the highest point on a scale (even, also, indeed, too); for this use with participles (even though), →52.44; or marking the lowest point on a scale (at all, even, so much as).
 - (90) βουλόμενος δὲ καὶ αὐτὸς λαμπρόν τι ποιῆσαι ... καταθεῖ. (Xen. Cyr. 5.4.15) And wanting also himself to do something illustrious, he ran off.
 - (91) ἐρρήθη γάρ που οὕτως ἡμῶν εἶναι ἡ ψυχὴ καὶ πρὶν εἰς σῶμα ἀφικέσθαι . . . (Pl. Phd. 92d)
 - For it was said, I think, that our soul, even before it enters the body, is of the following nature . . .

(92) τίς δὲ καὶ προσβλέψεται | παίδων σ', ἵν' αὐτῶν προσέμενος κτάνης τινά; (Eur. IA~1192-3)

Which of your children will so much as look at you, when you've conceded to killing one of them?

The negative is οὐδέ/μηδέ (also not, not even, not so much as, not at all):

(93) τούτω μὲν <u>οὐδὲ</u> διελέγετο, ἀλλ' ἐμίσει πάντων ἀνθρώπων μάλιστα. (Lys. 3.31)

He did not even exchange words with that man, but hated him above all.

Particle Combinations

List of Particle Combinations

άλλὰ γάρ and άλλὰ . . . γάρ

- 59.57 A speaker breaks off (ἀλλά, \rightarrow 59.11) a line of reasoning or narrative, often in midspeech, and explains why (γάρ, \rightarrow 59.14) (but enough about this, for . . . ; but why go on? for . . . ; but as a matter of fact . . .):
 - (94) ΠΡ. δοκοῦσί γε οὐ φαύλως λέγειν. :: ΣΩ. πῶς γὰρ ἄν, μὴ φαῦλοί γε ὄντες; ἀλλὰ γὰρ ὑπεκστῆναι τὸν λόγον ἐπιφερόμενον τοῦτον βούλομαι. (Pl. Phlb. 43a) (Protarchus:) They appear to speak with some weight. :: (Socrates:) Of course, they are weighty persons. But as a matter of fact I would prefer to dodge this line of reasoning that is advancing upon us. For πῶς γάρ, →38.19 n.2; 59.14.
 - (95) ἀλλ' εἰσορῶ γὰρ ... | Πυλάδην δρομῷ στείχοντα, Φωκέων ἄπο, | ἡδεῖαν ὄψιν. (Eur. Or. 725)
 But I must stop, for I see Pylades ... coming at a run from Phocis, a welcome sight. For the appositive ἡδεῖαν ὄψιν, →27.14.
- 59.58 Observe that in the examples above, ἀλλὰ γάρ and ἀλλὰ ... γάρ are combinations used in a single clause (i.e. with a single predicate). Next to this 'simple' use, the particles also occur, with the same general sense, in 'complex' form, i.e. separately in two clauses, each with their own predicate. In such cases the γάρ-clause is parenthetical:
 - (96) Φοῖβος δέ, Φοῖβος ἀλλ', ἄναξ γάρ ἐστ' ἐμός, | σιγῶ. (Eur. El. 1245-6)
 And Phoebus, Phoebus ... No, I hold my tongue, for he is my lord. ἀλλ' introduces the σιγῶ-clause, γάρ introduces the clause with ἐστ'.

Occasionally, in poetry, the particles are not separated when $\grave{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\grave{\alpha}$ $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\rho$ is so used (i.e. each with their own clause):

(97) <u>ἀλλὰ γὰρ</u> Κρέοντα λεύσσω ... | πρὸς δόμους στείχοντα, παύσω ... γόους. (Eur. Phoen. 1307-8)

But I see Creon coming to the palace, so I will cease from my laments. Strictly speaking, $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\dot{\alpha}$ introduces the $\pi\alpha\dot{\nu}\sigma\omega$ -clause and $\gamma\dot{\alpha}\rho$ the $\lambda\epsilon\dot{\nu}\sigma\sigma\omega$ -clause; this use may be seen as a contamination of the 'simple' and the 'complex' uses.

άλλὰ (. . .) δή

- 59.59 Introduces a text-segment that corrects or replaces an element of the preceding discourse (ἀλλά, →59.11), while indicating that the new utterance is plainly relevant or obvious (δή, →59.44):
 - (98) οὐκ ἐννοῶ, ὧ Σώκρατες· ἀλλὰ δὴ τίνα γραφήν σε γέγραπται; (Pl. Euthphr. 2b-c)
 I don't remember him, Socrates; but which indictment has he brought against you then?
 The identity of the accuser having turned out to be a dead end, Euthyphro breaks off that line of discussion and naturally passes on to the indictment.

άλλὰ μήν

- 59.60 Introduces a text-segment that corrects (implications of) earlier information (ἀλλά, \rightarrow 59.11), while the speaker vouches for the correctness and relevance of his/her utterance ($\mu\dot{\eta}\nu$, \rightarrow 59.49) (but, I can assure you; yet it is clear that; well, don't worry; etc.):
 - (99) ΣΩ. οὐκοῦν τὸ μετὰ τοῦτο χρὴ ζητεῖν, εἴπερ ἐπιθυμεῖς εἰδέναι, ἥτις ποτ' αὖ ἐστιν αὐτοῦ ἡ ὀρθότης. :: ΕΡ. ἀλλὰ μὴν ἐπιθυμῶ γε εἰδέναι. :: ΣΩ. Σκόπει τοίνυν. (Pl. Cra. 391b) (Socrates:) Then our next task is to try to find out, if you care to know, what kind of correctness, in turn, that is. :: (Hermogenes:) To be sure I care to know. :: (Socrates:) Then investigate. ἀλλά reacts to the εἴπερ-clause, and corrects the implication that Hermogenes might be unwilling; μήν underlines his commitment.

άλλ' οὖν

- 59.61 Corrects or dismisses the preceding information (ἀλλά, →59.11) in favour of information which is considered more relevant (οὖν, →59.34) (be that as it may, anyhow, at any rate); frequently 'apodotic' (→59.12, ἀλλά) after a conditional clause:
 - (100) ἔπειτ' εἰ καὶ τυγχάνομεν ἀμφότεροι ψευδῆ λέγοντες, ἀλλ' οὖν ἐγὼ μὲν τούτοις κέχρημαι τοῖς λόγοις, οἶσπερ χρἡ τοὺς ἐπαινοῦντας. (Isoc. 11.33)

 Further, even if both of us happen to be wrong, I, at any rate, have used only such arguments as authors of eulogies must use.

γὰρ δή

59.62 δή (\rightarrow 59.44) may lend a nuance of certainty or obviousness to the explanation/motivation given by γάρ (\rightarrow 59.14):

(101) Μάγους ... ἀτρεκέως οἶδα ταῦτα ποιέοντας· ἐμφανέως γὰρ δὴ ποιεῦσι. (Hdt. 1.140.2) I know with certainty that this is the practice of the Magi, since they do this where all can see it. δή expresses the idea that the explanation of the statement 'I know with certainty' is uncontroversial.

γὰρ οὖν

- 59.63 Offers an explanation/motivation of the preceding text segment (γ άρ, \rightarrow 59.14) in more relevant terms (οὖν, \rightarrow 59.34) (actually, as a matter of fact, that is to say, what I mean by that is):
 - (102) οἴμοι, τόδ' οἴον εἶπας· αἴσθησις <u>γὰρ οὖν</u> | καὶ τῶν θυραίων πημάτων δάκνει βροτούς. (Eur. El. 290-1)

Ah, what a thing you have said! I mean, knowing about afflictions, even those of outsiders, is hurtful for mortals.

Note 1: Sometimes, $o\tilde{v}v$ in this combination seems merely to indicate that the information in the explanation is inferable from the preceding context; with this use of $o\tilde{v}v$, the combination occurs frequently as a formula in answers:

(103) ΞΕ. καὶ τοῦ πτηνοῦ μὲν γένους πᾶσα ἡμῖν ἡ θήρα λέγεταί πού τις ὀρνιθευτική. :: ΘΕ. Λέγεται γὰρ οὖν. (Pl. Soph. 220b)
(Stranger:) And as for the hunting of winged creatures, as a whole we call it fowling, I suppose. :: (Theaetetus) Yes, as a matter of fact, we do.

δ' οὖν

- 59.64 The preceding information is abandoned (δέ, indicating a shift, →59.16) in favour of a point which is considered more relevant (οὖν, →59.34) at the particular juncture (be that as it may, however that may be, anyhow) (cf. ἀλλ' οὖν, →59.61):
 - (104) τότε δ' οὖν παρελθών τοῖς 'Αθηναίοις παρήνει τοιάδε. (Thuc. 6.15.5)
 However that may be, he now came forward and gave the following advice to the Athenians. This follows on a digression about Alcibiades and the Athenians' prior views of him.
 - (105) οὐκ ἠξίωσε τοῦ θεοῦ προλαμβάνειν | μαντεύμαθ'· ἕν $\underline{\delta'}$ οὖν εἶπεν· . . . (Eur. Ion 407–8)

He did not think it right to anticipate the god's prophecies. Be that as it may, one thing he did say: . . .

ἦ μήν

59.65 Very strong emphasizer, used by the speaker to affirm both the objective (ἢ, →59.48) and subjective (μήν, →59.49) truth of the utterance; it is used especially in oaths, strong predictions, etc. (truly, most certainly, I affirm that):

(106) λαβόμενος τοῦ βωμοῦ ὤμοσεν ἦ μὴν μὴ εἶναί οἱ υἱὸν ἄλλον μηδὲ γενέσθαι πώποτε, εἰ μὴ Ἱππόνικον ἐκ τῆς Γλαύκωνος θυγατρός. (Andoc. 1.126)

Taking hold of the altar he swore that he most certainly had no son, nor had he ever had one, other than Hipponicus, by the daughter of Glaucon.

καὶ γάρ

- 59.66 The values of καί (→59.20, 59.56) and γάρ (→59.14) may be combined in various ways:
 - most often, in continuous discourse, introducing additional information (καί) which has explanatory force (γάρ) (and as matter of fact, in point of fact, indeed):
 - (107) τὸ δὲ δἡ μετὰ τοῦτο ἐπιθυμῶ ὑμῖν χρησμῳδῆσαι, ὧ καταψηφισάμενοί μου· καὶ γάρ εἰμι ἤδη ἐνταῦθα ἐν ῷ μάλιστα ἄνθρωποι χρησμῳδοῦσιν, . . . (Pl. Ap. 39c) And as for the next point, I wish to prophesy to you, you who have condemned me; and as a matter of fact I am now at the time in which men most prophesy, . . .
 - in continuous discourse, with γάρ introducing an explanation/motivation, and 'adverbial' καί (for also, for even):
 - (108) θάρσει, παρέσται· καὶ γὰρ εἰ γέρων ἐγώ, | τὸ τῆσδε χώρας οὐ γεγήρακε σθένος. (Soph. OC 726-7)
 Do not be afraid, it shall be there! For even if I am old, the strength of this land has not grown aged. For καὶ εἰ, →49.19-20.
 - in answers in dialogues, with γάρ expressing assent, and 'adverbial' καί (yes, ... too):
 - (109) ΠΩ. οὐκ ἄρτι ὡμολόγεις ποιεῖν ἃ δοκεῖ αὐτοῖς βέλτιστα εἶναι . . . ; :: ΣΩ. καὶ γὰρ νῦν ὁμολογῶ. (Pl. Grg. 467b)
 (Polus:) Did you not admit just now that they do what they think best? :: (Socrates:) Yes, and I admit it now too.

καὶ . . . δέ

- Introduces new, closely related information ($\kappa\alpha i$, $\rightarrow 59.20$), which nevertheless is somehow distinct from the preceding context (δi , $\rightarrow 59.16$) (and on the other hand, and furthermore, and ... as well):
 - (110) ... Ξενοφῶντι, ὁρῶντι ... πελταστὰς πολλούς καὶ τοξότας καὶ σφενδονήτας καὶ ἱππέας δὲ ..., καλὸν ... ἐδόκει εἶναι ... (Xen. An. 5.6.15)
 ... as Xenophon's eyes rested upon a great body of peltasts, bowmen, slingers, and horsemen as well ..., it seemed to him that it was a fine thing ... The last item (καὶ ἱππέας δέ) is set off from the rest: it is the only group of soldiers which is mounted.

καὶ δή

59.68 Typical uses:

- in dialogue in drama, καὶ δή draws attention to the fact that an action is actually taking place before the eyes of speaker and addressee; so used, it frequently signals that an order is carried out (there you are, see), or marks the occurrence of an event or the entrance of a character on the stage (see here, and look):
- (111) ΗΡ. τόλμα προτεῖναι χεῖρα καὶ θιγεῖν ξένης. :: ΑΔ. καὶ δὴ προτείνω. (Eur. Alc. 1117–18)
 - (Heracles:) Have the courage to hold out your hand and touch the stranger. :: (Admetus:) There, I'm holding it out. καὶ δή signals that an order is carried out.
- (112) φίλαι, πάλαι ... | καραδοκῶ τἀκεῖθεν οἶ προβήσεται. | καὶ δὴ δέδορκα τόνδε τῶν Ἰάσονος | στείχοντ' ὀπαδῶν. (Eur. Med. 1116–19)
 Friends, for a long time I have been waiting to see how matters in that quarter will turn out. And look, here I see one of Jason's servants coming. καὶ δή marks the arrival of a character.
- in a narrative, adding new information (καί, →59.20) and asking the addressee to visualize the action reported (δή, →59.44) (and see!, lo!, and there he . . .):
- (113) ἄλλην ἔδωκα κύλικα, γιγνώσκων ὅτι | τρώσει νιν οἶνος καὶ δίκην δώσει τάχα. | καὶ δὴ πρὸς ὦδὰς εἶρπ'. (Eur. Cyc. 421-3)

 I gave him another cup, knowing that wine would be his undoing and he

I gave him another cup, knowing that wine would be his undoing and he would soon pay the penalty. And lo! he fell to singing.

καὶ δὴ καί

- 59.69 Very common in Herodotus and Plato. Adds an extra piece of information (καί . . . καί and also, \rightarrow 59.20), and singles out the addition (δή, \rightarrow 59.44) (and specifically, and in particular, and above all):
 - (114) ἀλλὶ ἔστι μέν, ὧ Νικία, χαλεπὸν λέγειν περὶ ὁτουοῦν μαθήματος ὡς οὐ χρἡ μανθάνειν· πάντα γὰρ ἐπίστασθαι ἀγαθὸν δοκεῖ εἶναι. καὶ δἡ καὶ τὸ ὁπλιτικὸν τοῦτο, εἰ μέν ἐστιν μάθημα, . . . (Pl. La. 182d-e)

 But it is difficult, Nicias, to say of anything that can be learnt that it ought not to be learnt; for it seems good to know all things. And take specifically this skill at arms, if it is something that can be learnt . . .
- 59.70 (καὶ δὴ) καὶ frequently follows on a form of ἄλλος, singling out one specific entity from a larger group (other(s) ... and in particular; above all):
 - (115) ἔς τε δὴ ὧν τὰς ἄλλας ἔπεμπε συμμαχίας καὶ δὴ καὶ ἐς Λακεδαίμονα. (Hdt. 1.82.1)

He sent messengers to his other allies, and in particular to Sparta.

καὶ μήν

- 59.71 The speaker adds information (καί, \rightarrow 59.20), and indicates that he/she vouches for the correctness or relevance of the addition, even if the addressee may not expect it ($\mu\dot{\eta}\nu$, \rightarrow 59.49).
 - in dialogue, often in favourable reactions to e.g. a request or order (*certainly, all right, well then*):
 - (116) ΟΡ. ἄκου'· ὑπὲρ σοῦ τοιάδ' ἔστ' ὀδύρματα, | αὐτὸς δὲ σώζη τόνδε τιμήσας λόγον. | :: ΧΟ. καὶ μὴν ἀμεμφῆ τόνδ' ἐτείνατον λόγον. (Aesch. Cho. 508–10) (Orestes:) Hear us; they are for your sake, such laments as these, and by respecting our words you gain security for yourself. (Chorus:) Well, the two of you certainly cannot be blamed for addressing him at length.
 - in drama, to signal the (unexpected or unannounced) entrance on the stage of a new character (look here, see, here is; contrast καὶ δή, which can mark the entrance of a character without the connotation of unexpectedness, →59.68):
 - (117) ΚΡ. κάτω νυν ἐλθοῦσ', εἰ φιλητέον, φίλει | κείνους· ἐμοῦ δὲ ζῶντος οὐκ ἄρξει γυνή. | :: ΧΟ. καὶ μὴν πρὸ πυλῶν ἥδ' Ἰσμήνη. (Soph. Ant. 524-6) (Creon:) Then go below and love them, if you must! But as long as I live a woman will not rule. :: (Chorus:) See, here before the gates is Ismene.
 - moving to a new step in argumentative or narrative texts (but, and, now, well, and in fact):
 - (118) οἱ μὲν δὴ Θηβαῖοι ... παρεσκευάζοντο ὡς ἀμυνούμενοι, οἱ δ᾽ Ἀθηναῖοι ὡς βοηθήσοντες. καὶ μὴν οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι οὐκέτι ἔμελλον, ἀλλὰ Παυσανίας ... ἐπορεύετο εἰς τὴν Βοιωτίαν. (Xen. Hell. 3.5.17)

 So the Thebans made preparations for defending themselves, and the Athenians for aiding them. And in fact the Spartans did not longer delay, but Pausanias marched into Boeotia. μήν confirms that the Boeotians and Athenians were justified in making preparations: the Spartans definitely were a threat.

μὲν οὖν (attitudinal μήν + οὖν)

59.72 The speaker vouches for the correctness or relevance of his/her utterance (μήν, →59.49; for μὲν in this use, →59.25), and indicates that it is presented in more relevant terms (οὖν, →59.34); the combination is used specifically in dialogue, in corrective answers/reactions, improving or enlarging on what precedes (you'll mean, you should say, I'd rather say, rather); in Plato, sometimes simply in assenting answers (indeed):

(119) ΑΓ...δοκῶν γυναικῶν ἔργα νυκτερήσια | κλέπτειν ... :: ΚΗ. ἰδού γε κλέπτειν νἡ Δία, βινεῖσθαι μὲν οὖν. (Ar. Thesm. 204-6)
(Agathon:) ... because I'll seem to be stealing the women's nocturnal business. :: (Inlaw:) 'Stealing' my ass: you mean 'being fucked', by Zeus!

μεν οὖν (. . . δέ) and μεν τοίνυν (. . . δέ)

- 59.73 These combinations indicate a transition to a more to-the-point, relevant text segment (οὖν/τοίνυν, →59.34, 59.39); the transition occurs in two stages (μέν . . . δέ, →59.24), with the relevant new step presented in the δέ-segment; the μέν-clause typically presents a summary or rounding-off of the preceding stretch of text:
 - (120) περὶ μὲν οὖν τούτων τοσαῦτά μοι εἰρήσθω· ὑπὲρ ὧν δέ μοι προσήκει λέγειν, ὡς ἄν οἶόν τε διὰ βραχυτάτων ἐρῶ. (Lys. 24.4)

 Concerning these things, then, let as much as I have said suffice; as for the things about which it is fitting for me to speak, I will speak as briefly as possible. The μέν-clause rounds off the preface of this speech, δέ starts the narrative section; οὖν indicates that the speaker is transitioning to the currently most relevant point (the narrative). Note that οὖν has scope over the entire μέν-δέ structure, not merely the μέν-clause.
- 59.74 Similarly, μὲν δή (... δέ): indicates a transition to an obviously relevant text segment (δή, \rightarrow 59.44), occurring in two stages (μέν/δέ, \rightarrow 59.24); the μέν-clause sometimes contains a summary or rounding-off of the preceding stretch of text:
 - (121) καὶ τἄλλα μὲν δἡ ἡαδίως ἔσω νεώς | ἐθέμεθα κουφίζοντα· ταύρειος δὲ ποὺς | οὐκ ἤθελ' ὀρθὸς σανίδα προσβῆναι κάτα. (Eur. Hel. 1554–6)

 Now, the other victims we easily put on the ship, as they were light; but the bull's hoofs did not want to go forward along the plank. δή again appears to have scope over the entire μέν-δέ structure, introducing the crucial phase in the narrative about the bull.

ού μὴν ἀλλά and οὐ μέντοι ἀλλά

- 59.75 The speaker asserts strongly, and against expectations raised by the preceding context (μήν, \rightarrow 59.49/μέντοι, \rightarrow 59.27) that nothing other is the case than that (οὐ ... ἀλλά, \rightarrow 59.11) (and yet ... nothing but ...; still, ... absolutely ...).
 - (122) ἐδυσχέρανε μὲν ἐπ' οὐδενὶ τῶν γεγραμμένων, ἐπήνεσε δ' ὡς δυνατὸν μάλιστα, ... · οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ φανερὸς ἦν οὐχ ἡδέως ἔχων ἐπὶ τοῖς περὶ Λακεδαιμονίων εἰρημένοις. (Isoc. 12.201) He did not complain about any part of what I had written, but praised it in the strongest possible terms: and yet he was plainly nothing but displeased about what had been said about the Spartans. Note that οὐ μὴν ἀλλά here 'completes' μέν.

ού μην ούδέ and ούδὲ μήν

- The speaker asserts strongly, and against the expectations raised by the preceding context $(\mu\dot{\eta}\nu, \rightarrow 59.49)$ that something is also not the case $((o\dot{\upsilon})\dots o\dot{\upsilon}\delta\dot{\epsilon}, \rightarrow 59.56)$ (nor, yet; nor, indeed; not ... either, indeed, ...)
 - (123) καὶ κραυγή μὲν οὐδεμία παρῆν, <u>οὐ μὴν οὐδὲ</u> σιγή, φωνὴ δέ τις ἦν τοιαύτη οἵαν ὀργή τε καὶ μάχη παράσχοιτ' ἄν. (Xen. Ages. 2.12)
 - There was no shouting, nor yet was there silence, but there was the strange sort of sound which rage and battle may produce.

Word Order

Introduction

- A consideration of some randomly chosen sentences containing the verb ξ δωκε(ν) raises many questions about the order in which the words appear:
 - (1) μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα ἐπεὶ συνεγένοντο ἀλλήλοις, Συέννεσις μὲν ἔδωκε Κύρῳ χρήματα πολλὰ εἰς τὴν στρατιάν, Κῦρος δὲ ἐκείνῳ δῶρα ἃ νομίζεται παρὰ βασιλεῖ τίμια. (Xen. An. 1.2.27)
 - When they met afterwards, Syennesis gave Cyrus much money for the expedition, and Cyrus gave him gifts which are considered tokens of honour at the royal court.
 - (2) ἐκ δὲ τούτου πολλὰ καὶ καλὰ ἔδωκε δῶρα τῷ Ύστάσπᾳ, ὅπως τῇ παιδὶ πέμψειε. (Xen. Cyr. 8.4.26)
 - Then he gave many beautiful gifts to Hystaspes to send to the young woman.
 - (3) καὶ ἔδωκεν ὁ παρελθών χρόνος πολλὰς ἀποδείξεις ἀνδρὶ καλῷ κάγαθῷ. (Dem. 18.310)
 - And the past period offered many opportunities to an upstanding man.
 - (4) ἑκάστω δὲ ἀρχὴν πολλῶν ἀνθρώπων καὶ τόπον πολλῆς χώρας ἔδωκεν. (Pl. Criti.114a)
 - And to each he gave leadership over many men and large tracts of land.
- Word order in these sentences can be considered on several levels:
 - The position of certain types of individual words is relatively fixed. All articles appear in front of their nouns: (1) τὴν στρατιάν, (2) τῷ Ὑστάσπᾳ, (3) ὁ παρελθών χρόνος. Prepositions appear in front of the noun phrase they modify: (1) μετὰ ταῦτα, εἰς τὴν στρατιάν, παρὰ βασιλεῖ; (2) ἐκ τούτου. In (1), (2) and (4) the connective particle δέ is the second word of the sentence, but καί in (3) is the first word of the sentence.
 - Within **noun phrases**, it is more difficult to spot regularities. In some cases, we find the order modifier-head (noun): (3) ὁ παρελθών χρόνος, πολλὰς ἀποδείξεις, (4) πολλῶν ἀνθρώπων, πολλῆς χώρας. In other cases, however, we find the order head-modifier: (1) χρήματα πολλά, (3) ἀνδρὶ καλῷ τε κἀγαθῷ, (4) ἀρχἡν πολλῶν ἀνθρώπων, τόπον πολλῆς χώρας. In one case, finally, the modifier and the head noun are separated by an intervening word: (2) πολλὰ καὶ καλὰ ἔδωκε δῶρα.

- At the level of the sentence or clause, with regard to the order of constituents, such as Subject (S), Object (O), Indirect Object (IO) and Verb (V), many different orderings are possible: (1): S-V-IO-O (Συέννεσις ἔδωκε Κύρω χρήματα); (2): V-O-IO (ἔδωκε δῶρα τῷ Ὑστάσπᾳ); (3): V-S-O-IO (ἔδωκεν ὁ χρόνος ἀποδείξεις ἀνδρί); (4): IO-O-V (ἐκάστῳ ἀρχὴν καὶ τόπον ἔδωκεν) in short, syntactic function does not seem to be the main factor determining constituent order.
- 60.3 The principles which govern word order on all these levels, except the first one, are not fully understood. However, the assertion, often made in grammars, that Greek word order is more or less 'free' is not true; even if much remains uncertain, a number of **tendencies** can be observed.

Words with a Fixed Position: Postpositives and Prepositives

Mobile, Postpositive and Prepositive Words

- Most Greek words may occur at the beginning, at the end or in the middle of a clause; such words are referred to as **mobile**. Others, however, have a more fixed position. These are known as **postpositives** and **prepositives**.
- 60.5 **Postpositive** words attach themselves to the preceding word. From this it follows that postpositive words may not normally occur as the first word of a clause. The most important postpositive words are:
 - many connective particles: αὖ, γάρ, δέ, μέν, μέντοι, νυν (not νῦν, a mobile word),
 οὖν, τε, τοίνυν;
 - many attitudinal particles: ἄρα, δή, μήν, που, τοι;
 - the scope particles γε, περ;
 - the modal particle ἄν;
 - non-contrastive personal pronouns: μοι, σοι, με, σε, etc.; also ού, οἱ, ἑ (μιν in Herodotus), σφων, etc.;
 - non-nominative forms of αὐτός (when they function as third-person personal pronouns);
 - indefinites like τις (not τίς), ποτε (not πότε), που (not ποῦ), etc.
- 60.6 **Prepositive** words attach themselves to the following word. From this it follows that prepositive words may be the first word of a clause, but usually not the last. The most important prepositive words are:
 - articles (ὁ, ἡ, τό, etc.);
 - prepositions (ἀμφί, ἀνά, ἀντί, etc.);

- some connective particles, like ἀλλά, ἀτάρ, ἤ, καί (also in its adverbial use
 (→59.56), οὐδέ, οὔτε, τοίγαρ;
- the attitudinal particles $\tilde{\alpha}\rho\alpha$ (= $\tilde{\eta}$ $\tilde{\alpha}\rho\alpha$) and $\tilde{\eta}$;
- subordinators (ἐπεί, ὅτε, ὅτι, ὡς, etc.);
- relative pronouns (ὅς, ἥ, ὅ);
- negatives (οὐ, μή).

The Placement of Postpositives

- 60.7 **Postpositive** words tend to occur after the first word of the sentence, clause or word group they belong to, that is, **in second position**; this rule is known as **Wackernagel's Law**. Depending on several factors 'second position' may mean slightly different things in different contexts:
- Depending on the size of the unit over which they have **scope**, connective and scope-particles occur in the second position of a **sentence**, **clause or word group**:
 - (5) ἐλθών δὲ ἐς Λακεδαίμονα τῶν μὲν ἰδία πρός τινα ἀδικημάτων ηὐθύνθη, τὰ δὲ μέγιστα ἀπολύεται μὴ ἀδικεῖν. (Thuc. 1.95.5)
 When he arrived in Sparta, he was censured for the wrongs he had privately committed against certain people, but was pronounced innocent of the gravest charges. The first δέ connects the entire sentence to the preceding context; but this sentence is itself divided up into two contrasting clauses, each featuring a text-structuring particle (μέν ... δέ) in second position.
 - (6) εἰκὸς γὰρ ἐν ἀνδράσι γε ἀγαθοῖς καὶ ἄνευ τῆς αἰτήσεως τὴν ἀκρόασιν ὑπάρχειν τοῖς φεύγουσιν. (Antiph. 5.4)
 For amidst good men, at least, it is likely that the defendants receive a hearing even without asking for it. γάρ connects the entire sentence to the preceding context; the scope-particle γε appears in the second position of the noun phrase to which it lends emphasis (with ἐν ἀνδράσι being treated as a single, indissoluble unit), →60.10.
- The first word of a clause may be followed by **more than one postpostive**. The standard order of postpositives in such cases is as follows: 'forward-linking' connective particles (especially $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu$, and often $\tau \epsilon$) > 'backward-linking' connective particles ($\delta \acute{\epsilon}$, $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$, $o \~{\nu} \nu$, etc.) > other particles > indefinite pronouns > personal pronouns:
 - (7) ἀλογία μὲν γὰρ δή τις φαίνεται διὰ τούτων. (Theophr. Caus. pl. 1.13.4)
 For because of these reasons, then, there appears to be a certain incongruity.
 - (8) εὶ οὖν τί σε τούτων ἀρέσκει ... (Thuc. 1.128.7)
 If one of these things pleases you . . .
 - Note that the author's preference for the standard order in (7) causes τ_{15} to be separated from $\dot{\alpha}\lambda o \gamma i \alpha$, the noun it modifies; for the same reason, in (8)

indefinite τ_1 is separated from its modifier $\tau_0 \circ \tau_0 \circ \tau_0$ by σ_{ϵ} . For the accent on τ_1 , $\rightarrow 24.38 \ n.1$.

- 60.10 Postpositives frequently do not follow the first word (as in (9)), but the **first constituent** of a clause, which often consists of a prepositive and a mobile word (as in (10)). The first constituent is then treated as a single, indissoluble unit, effectively as a single word:
 - (9) οἱ δ' αὖ βάρβαροι οὐκ ἐδέχοντο. (Xen. An. 1.10.11)
 But the barbarians once more did not wait for them. The constituent οἱ βάρβαροι is broken up by the two postpositives δ'αὖ.
 - (10) τῶν δούλων $\underline{\delta'$ αὖ καὶ τῶν μετοίκων πλείστη ἐστὶν Ἀθήνησιν ἀκολασία. ([Xen.] $Ath.\ pol.\ 1.10$)

Then again, among slaves and immigrants the lack of restraint is greatest in Athens. Here, the constituent $\tau \tilde{\omega} \nu \delta o \dot{\nu} \lambda \omega \nu$ is treated as one, indissoluble unit, and the postpositives $\delta' \alpha \dot{\nu}$ follow it.

While postpositive particles (especially connective ones) often intervene between two members of the first constituent, indefinites and personal pronouns seldom do ($\alpha \nu$ also only very rarely):

- (11) ἡ γὰρ ἀνάγκη με πιέζει. (Ar. Nub. 437)
 For necessity presses me down. The connective particle γάρ breaks up the constituent ἡ ἀνάγκη (also cf. δ' αὖ in (9) above), but the personal pronoun με follows it.
- The placement of other postpositives (especially personal pronouns) is complicated by several conflicting tendencies:
 - First, such postpositives tend to cluster together after the first word or constituent of a sentence. As a result, words which syntactically go closely together may be widely separated (12).
 - Secondly, however, there is a tendency to distribute postpositives over the sentence, dividing up the sentence into more or less syntactically recognizable clauses and word groups (13):
 - (12) πολλά τε γάρ μιν καὶ μεγάλα τὰ ἐπαείροντα καὶ ἐποτρύνοντα ἦν. (Hdt. 1.204.2) For the reasons that impelled and encouraged him were many and great.
 - (13) καὶ οὐ μόνον ταῦτ' ἐστὶ τὰ ποιοῦντά με ἀγωνίζεσθαι τὸν ἀγῶνα τοῦτον. (Isae. 2.43)

 And these are not the only things which impel me to engage in this lawsuit.

 In (12), postpositive μιν, the object of the participles ἐπαείροντα καὶ ἐποτρύνοντα, appears in the first available position of the entire sentence (after other postpositives); in (13), by contrast, the participle phrase τὰ ποιοῦντα ... τοῦτον functions as a separate 'clause', as
 - Thirdly, it is possible for postpositive obligatory constituents with verbs to be placed after their verb:

can be seen from the fact that postpositive $\mu \varepsilon$ appears after the first constituent of that clause.

- (14) τούτου μὲν ἀφίημί σε. (Pl. Euthphr. 9c)
 From this point I absolve you. σε appears straight after the verb of which it is the object (instead of after μέν, which would also have been possible).
- Fourthly, postpositives may be placed **after the most salient word or constituent** of a sentence:
- (15) δοκοῦσι δὲ Ἀθηναῖοι καὶ τοῦτό μοι οὐκ ὀρθῶς βουλεύεσθαι, ὅτι ... ([Xen.] *Ath. pol.* 3.10)

 The Athenians seem to me to be wrong in this respect, too, that ...

60.12 The placement of αν:

- With optatives (potential construction) and secondary indicatives (counterfactual), čv is occasionally repeated, found first in second position of the sentence or clause, and then again more closely with the verb:
- (16) ἄστ' ἄν, εἰ σθένος | λάβοιμι, δηλώσαιμ' ἄν οἶ' αὐτοῖς φρονῶ. (Soph. El. 333-4)
 The result is that, if I could find the strength, I would make clear what are my feelings toward them.
- In subordinate clauses with ἄν and the subjunctive, ἄν usually directly follows the subordinator: ὃς ἄν, ὅστις ἄν (also ὅ τι ἄν), ὅπως ἄν, but connective particles may intervene (ὃς γὰρ ἄν, ὅ τι δ' ἄν, →60.9). However, several temporal conjunctions and the conditional conjunction εὶ occur in obligatory crasis with ἄν (ἐπεάν/ἐπάν, ἐπειδάν, ὅπαν, ὁπόταν, ἐάν/ἤν/ἄν), and in these cases connective particles do not intervene (ἐπειδὰν δέ, ὅταν γάρ).

The Placement of Prepositives

- 60.13 **Prepositive** words usually occupy the first position in the sentence, clause or word group (for example a noun phrase) over which they have scope.
 - (17) καὶ οὐδεὶς ἔτι ἄνευ Ἑλλήνων εἰς πόλεμον καθίσταται, οὔτε ὅταν ἀλλήλοις πολεμῶσιν οὔτε ὅταν οἱ Ἑλληνες αὐτοῖς ἀντιστρατεύωνται ἀλλὰ καὶ πρὸς τούτους ἐγνώκασι μεθ' Ἑλλήνων τοὺς πολέμους ποιεῖσθαι. (Xen. Cyr. 8.8.26)
 - And no one goes to war anymore without the help of Greeks, neither when they are at war with each other nor when the Greeks launch an expedition against them. But even against them they realize that they can conduct their wars only with the help of Greeks. The connective particles $\kappa \alpha i$ and $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\dot{\alpha}$ occur in the first position of the sentences which they connect, oɔ̃te... oɔ̃te... precede the temporal clauses which they negate, and both examples of ötav (= ŏte ăv) occupy the first position in the subordinate temporal clauses they introduce. All articles precede their nouns, and all prepositions precede the nouns which they modify. Adverbial καί has scope over the word group πρὸς τούτους.

- Sometimes, especially in poetry, **prepositions** are placed **after the noun phrase** they modify (**anastrophe**). When this happens, their accent recedes to the first syllable if possible ($\rightarrow 24.37$):
 - (18) λέγοιμ' ἄν οῖ' ἤκουσα τοῦ θεοῦ πάρα. (Soph. OT 95)
 I may as well tell you what I have heard from the god.

In Attic prose, this construction is limited to περί + genitive (e.g. τούτων πέρι about these things, τίνος πέρι; about what?)

The Ordering of Words in Noun Phrases

Head-Modifier versus Modifier-Head

60.15 Modifiers in a noun phrase may either follow or precede their head (for these terms, →26.16): ὁ ἀνὴρ οὖτος οτ οὖτος ὁ ἀνήρ that man; (ἡ) δικαία γυνή οτ (ἡ) γυνἡ (ἡ) δικαία the/a just woman; ὁ τῶν Ἀθηναῖων δῆμος οτ ὁ δῆμος (ὁ) τῶν Ἀθηναῖων the people of the Athenians, etc.

The differences between the orders modifier-head and head-modifier are by no means always clear. On the whole, however, head-modifier is the most common and 'neutral' order, while the order modifier-head is used to convey that the modifier contains particularly salient information (i.e. the modifier is emphasized). Modifiers can be salient if they are contrastive, unexpected or particularly informative.

- (19) ταφαὶ δὲ τοῖσι εὐδαίμοσι αὐτῶν εἰσὶ αΐδε· τρεῖς μὲν ἡμέρας προτιθεῖσι τὸν νεκρὸν. (Hdt. 5.8)
 - The burial rites of the more prosperous among them (the Thracians) are as follows: they lay out the corpse for three days. That funeral rites should include laying out the corpse for a certain number of days is not surprising; what is peculiar to the rites of the described Thracians is that they lay out the corpse for three $(\tau \rho \epsilon \tilde{\imath} \varsigma)$ days. The position of the modifier in front of the head noun suggests that this is the most important information within the noun phrase.
- (20) ἐπὶ δἡ ταύτην τὴν ψάμμον στέλλονται ἐς τὴν ἔρημον οἱ Ἰνδοί, ζευξάμενος ἕκαστος καμήλους τρεῖς ... αἱ γάρ σφι κάμηλοι ἵππων οὐκ ἥσσονες ἐς ταχυτῆτά εἰσι, χωρὶς δὲ ἄχθεα δυνατώτεραι πολλὸν φέρειν. (Hdt. 3.102.3) It is for this sand that the Indians set forth into the desert, each first yoking three camels. For their camels are as fast as horses, and much better able to carry loads besides. Since Herodotus goes on to explain why the Indians use camels instead of horses, it appears that καμήλους provides

- the most important and surprising information (a reader might wonder 'camels?!'); the fact that they yoke three $(\tau \rho \epsilon \tilde{\imath} \varsigma)$ camels is not treated as the more relevant piece of information.
- (21) ἀρτάβανε, ἐγὼ τὸ παραυτίκα μὲν οὐκ ἐσωφρόνεον εἴπας ἐς σὲ μάταια ἔπεα χρηστῆς εἴνεκα συμβουλῆς. (Hdt. 7.15.1)

 Artabanus, I was initially out of my mind when I said foolish words in reply to useful advice. μάταια and χρηστῆς are contrastive, and both precede their noun.
- Modifiers of considerable length (also called 'heavy modifiers') have a tendency to follow their head, even if they provide salient information:
 - (22) ἐπιγίνεταί σφι τέρεα ἔτι μέζονα τοῦ πρὶν γενομένου τέρεος. (Hdt. 8.37.2)

 Then there happened a miracle still greater than the miracle that had happened before.

Multiple Modifiers

- 60.17 If a head has **multiple modifiers**, they can either precede or follow the head, but it is also possible that some precede and others follow. The ordering is determined by the same pragmatic principle of saliency described above. Furthermore, multiple modifiers may be either **co-ordinated** or **juxtaposed**:
 - If co-ordinated, each modifier separately qualifies the head, and co-ordinating particles like καί, τε καί, etc. may (but do not have to) intervene between the modifiers; cf. Engl. *great and old books* or *great, old books*, i.e. 'books which are great and old':
 - (23) ὁ Σωκράτης ὁρῶν ... θεραπαίνας πολλὰς καὶ εὐειδεῖς ... (Xen. Mem. 3.11.4) Socrates, seeing many and good-looking maids, ... Co-ordination: Socrates sees many maids, all of whom are good-looking. The possibility that there were also less good-looking maids is not implied..
 - If juxtaposed, the first modifier qualifies both the head *and* the other modifiers, and co-ordinating conjunctions are always absent; cf. Engl. *great old books*, i.e. 'old books which are great':
 - (24) καὶ ἄμα ἐπιτήδεια πολλὰ εἶχον, ἄλευρα, οἶνον, κριθὰς <u>ἵπποις συμβεβλημένας</u> πολλάς. (Xen. An. 3.4.31)
 - They also had many provisions, flour, wine, and much barley stored as fodder for horses. Juxtaposition: the barley that had been stored as fodder for horses was a large amount (there may have been other kinds of barley, for example the kind usually sown to provide barley for the next harvest). For the attributive participle $\sigma \cup \mu \beta \in \beta \lambda \eta \mu \acute{e} \gamma \gamma \gamma \gamma$ without article, $\rightarrow 52.47$.

Hyperbaton

- 60.18 In the examples given so far, the noun phrases are **continuous**, in that no words other than postpositives intervene between the modifier and the head. However, many noun phrases are **discontinuous**, in that mobile words intervene between the modifier and the head. This phenomenon is called **hyperbaton**. Two types can be distinguished:
 - Hyperbaton with the **modifier preceding the head**; this type involves strong emphasis on the modifier:
 - (25) ἀλλ' οὐδὲν ἔχων δίκαιον εἰπεῖν ἐτέρων παρεμβολῆ πραγμάτων εἰς λήθην ὑμᾶς βούλεται τῆς κατηγορίας ἐμβαλεῖν. (Aeschin. 3.205)
 But since he has nothing just to say, he wishes, by the insertion of extraneous matters, to shock you into forgetting the charge.
 - (26) μή τοίνυν λέγετε ... ώς <u>ὑφ' ἑνὸς</u> τοιαῦτα πέπονθεν ή Ἑλλὰς <u>ἀνθρώπου</u>. (Dem. 18.158)
 - Do not say, then, that Greece has suffered such things because of *one* man.
 - Hyperbaton with the head preceding the modifier; this type does not involve emphasis: some additional information about the head is given, which is either predictable or not particularly relevant:
 - (27) εἰσῆλθεν ἀνὴρ Θρᾶξ ἵππον ἔχων λευκόν. (Xen. An. 7.3.26)
 There arrived a Thracian man with a white horse.
 - Alternatively, the head may be topical (\rightarrow 60.22), while the modifier adds new information.
 - (28) ἐσθῆτα δὲ φορέουσι οἱ ἱρέες λινέην μούνην. (Hdt. 2.37.3)
 The priests wear only linen clothes (or: 'As for their clothes, the priests only wear linen ones').
- 60.19 The most important syntactic restriction on hyperbaton is that at least one of the constituents interrupting a discontinuous noun phrase must be the constituent on which that noun phrase depends. For instance, in (25) ἐτέρων ... πραγμάτων is a modifier of παρεμβολῆ; in (27) ἵππον ... λευκόν is object of ἔχων; in (28) ἐσθῆτα ... λινέην μούνην is object of φορέουσι.

The Ordering of Constituents Within the Clause

Asserted and Presupposed Information

60.20 In English, constituent order is a syntactic phenomenon: whether a constituent is Subject (S), Object (O), Verb (V), etc. determines its position in the clause:

- (29) Johns likesy Julieo.
- (30) Julies hates John O.

In both sentences, the constituents could only be placed in the order given (assuming that John is doing the liking and Julie the hating), because the rules of English constituent order usually require the subject of a main clause to stand in front of the verb, and the object after it.

Greek constituent order, on the other hand, is **not primarily a syntactic phenomenon**. Instead, the ordering of constituents depends on their **information status**: a constituent's position in the clause is determined largely by how new and important the information which it adds to the context is (in English, information status is mostly expressed by intonation).

- 60.21 Not every part of a clause uttered in spoken or written communication is equally informative. In fact, successful communication depends on a speaker's ability to estimate the amount of relevant knowledge the addressee already possesses and to increase that knowledge by adding or linking new information to already-known information. Already-known information is called **presupposed**, added information **asserted**. The difference can be made clear by considering the following question/answer pairs:
 - (31) A: Whom did Claire kiss?
 - B: Claire kissed *JACOB*.

The presupposed information in B's answer is 'Claire kissed X'; as A asked whom Claire kissed, B can regard the information that Claire kissed someone as already known to the addressee. The asserted information is 'Jacob', as this part of the answer increases A's knowledge. Schematically:

Claire kissed $X_{PRESUPPOSED}[X = Jacob]_{ASSERTED}$.

In English, 'Jacob' receives a stress accent. Indeed, 'Jacob', uttered by itself, would be a sufficient answer to the question (and is in fact more common in real-life situations). Alternatively, a cleft construction may be used in English, i.e. 'It was Jacob whom Claire kissed.'

- (32) A: Who kissed Jacob?
 - B: CLAIRE kissed Jacob.

This is the mirror image of (31). Here, the presupposed information is 'X kissed Jacob', and the asserted information is 'Claire'. Schematically:

X kissed Jacob $_{PRESUPPOSED}$ X = Claire $_{ASSERTED}$.

In English, 'Claire' receives a stress accent, and would again be a sufficient (and common) answer uttered by itself (cf. also the cleft construction 'It was Claire who kissed Jacob.').

(33) A: What did Claire do?

B: Claire KISSED JACOB.

Here, the presupposed information is 'Claire did X', while the asserted information is that she 'kissed Jacob'. Schematically:

Claire did $X_{PRESUPPOSED}$ $X = kissed Jacob_{ASSERTED}$.

In contrast to (31) and (32), in the present clause the verb is included in the asserted information.

(34) A: What happened?

B: Claire kissed Jacob.

In this clause, all constituents belong to the asserted information, since A's question does not presuppose any knowledge about Claire and Jacob being involved in 'what happened' nor about the nature of their involvement.

Note that in running texts, it may be more difficult to separate the presupposed and asserted information, and speakers have more freedom in deciding whether to *present* information as already known or not.

Consequences for Greek Constituent Order: Focus and Topic

- 60.22 In Greek, certain elements with a particular information status are given special treatment in the ordering of constituents:
 - the asserted information of a clause, called the focus this focus may lie on
 a specific single constituent ('narrow focus'), or on a group of constituents
 including the verb ('broad focus');
 - certain parts of the presupposed information, called **topics**.

The following formulas summarize the strongest tendencies in the ordering of constituents in Greek (declarative) clauses. These formulas are explained in detail in the following sections. They should be regarded as tools which are useful in analysing a large number of Greek clauses, but do not represent absolute 'rules'.

Narrow-focus clause

(Contrastive/New Topic) Narrow Focus Verb (Given Topic) (Rest) The narrow focus immediately precedes the verb. Any contrastive or new topic precedes the focus; a given topic follows immediately after the verb, in turn followed by any other predictable information (rest).

Broad-focus clause

(Contrastive/ New Topic)	Broad Focus			(Rest)
	Broad Focus I (= Verb)	(Given Topic)	Broad Focus II (= Other Focal	_
			Constituents)	

The broad focus begins with the verb, followed by any other focal constituents; any contrastive or new topic precedes the focus construction; any given topic interrupts the broad focus construction (between verb and other constituents), any other predictable information (rest) comes last.

Focus Constructions: Broad and Narrow Focus

- The constituents of a clause which express asserted information are called the **focus** of that clause. The focus may either be:
 - a single constituent (narrow focus; cf. (31) and (32) above), or
 - include the verb and one or more other constituents (**broad focus**; cf. (33) and (34) above).

In the narrow-focus construction in Greek, the focal constituent directly precedes the verb (35). In the broad-focus construction, the verb opens the focal part of the clause, the other focal constituents follow it (36):

- (35) ΚΟ. ποῖ τοῦτον ἕλκεις; :: ΓΡ. Α. [εἰς ἐμαυτῆς] NARROW FOCUS [εἰσάγω] VERB. (Ar. Eccl. 1037)

 (Young girl:) Where are you dragging him off to? :: (First old woman:) I'm taking him to my place. The presupposed information in the answer is 'I am taking him to X': since the girl asked ποῖ τοῦτον ἕλκεις, the woman can regard the information that she is dragging the man in question somewhere as already known to the girl (to the extent that 'him' can be left unexpressed in the answer). The asserted information is limited to the single constituent εἰς ἐμαυτῆς; compare (31) and (32). The focus is a single constituent, and precedes the verb.
- (36) ΣΩ. οὖτος, τί ποιεῖς ἐτεόν, οὑπὶ τοῦ τέγους; | :: ΣΤ. ἀεροβατῶ καὶ περιφρονῶ τὸν ἥλιον ΒROAD FOCUS (Ar. Nub. 1502-3)
 (Socrates:) Hey there, what are you doing, you on the roof? :: (Strepsiades:) I walk the air and contemplate the Sun. The presupposed information is 'I do X': Socrates' question τί ποιεῖς shows that Strepsiades can presuppose that Socrates knows he is doing something. The asserted information comes in two clauses, the first of which consists of a verb (ἀεροβατῶ) only, and questions

of word order therefore do not arise. In the second, as in (33), the asserted information includes the verb and a noun; in this broad-focus construction, τὸν ἥλιον follows π εριφρον $\tilde{\omega}$.

- (37) [ἐπορευόμην μὲν ἐξ ᾿Ακαδημείας εὐθὺ Λυκείου τὴν ἔξω τείχους ὑπ' αὐτὸ τὸ $\overline{τεῖχος}_{BROAD\ FOCUS}$... καί με προσιόντα ὁ Ἱπποθάλης ἰδών, ὅΩ Σώκρατες, ἔφη, ποῖ δὴ πορεύῃ καὶ πόθεν; [Ἐξ ᾿Ακαδημείας] $_{NARROW\ FOCUS}$, ἦν δ' ἐγώ, πορεύομαι $_{VERB}$, εὐθὺ Λυκείου. ($Pl.\ Ly.\ 203a-b$)
 - I was making my way from the Academy straight to the Lyceum, by the road outside the wall, just under the wall... And when he saw me approaching, Hippothales said, 'Socrates, where are you going to, and from where?' 'I'm making my way from the Academy', I said, 'straight to the Lyceum.' The first sentence is the opening of the text; none of the information can be taken for granted, and a broad-focus construction is used, with the verb in initial position and all the other focal constituents following the verb. In the final sentence, the verb π opeúoµaı belongs to the presupposed information (compare π opeún in Hippothales' question), and therefore a narrow-focus construction is used, with èξ Ἀκαδημείας preceding the verb (εὐθὺ Λυκείου is best interpreted as a new clause or a tail (\rightarrow 60.35), with a pause in front of it).
- 60.24 Some types of expression which commonly serve as narrow focus may follow rather than precede their verb. This occurs particularly with:
 - cataphoric demonstrative pronouns (→29.28), which tend to appear at the end of their clause:
 - expressions marked by 'adverbial' $\kappa\alpha$ i (→59.56; this is sometimes called 'additive' focus):
 - (38) ὡς δὲ ὁ Γύγης ἀπίκετο, ἔλεγε VERB ἡ γυνἡ τάδε NARROW FOCUS ... (Hdt. 1.11.2)
 When Gyges came, the woman said the following: ... ἡ γυνή is a 'given topic', →60.26.
 - (39) ῷ ἄν τὸ ἕτερον παραγένηται ἐπακολουθεῖ _{VERB} . . . καὶ τὸ ἕτερον _{NARROW FOCUS}. (Pl. *Phd*. 60c)

When one of them comes to someone, the other one follows as well.

Topics

Most clauses are construed around a single constituent, which is called the **topic**. It is the entity 'about which' a statement is made, that is the entity with respect to which the addressee's knowledge is most increased. The topic belongs to the presupposed information. Depending on the kind of topic involved, it either occupies the first position of the clause, preceding the focus, or immediately follows the verb. All other presupposed information tends to occupy the, pragmatically unmarked, final position of the clause, called the 'Rest' position in the examples below.

Given Topics (Postverbal)

Topics are in many cases **given** (i.e. already known) from the preceding context. They often refer to the entity that is the most important participant in a longer stretch of the discourse – the so-called **discourse topic** – when that topic has already been 'active' for much or all of such a stretch. A given topic does not have to be overtly expressed, especially if it is the subject (→26.6–7); cf. (35)–(37), where the first-person subject is topic and left unexpressed.

If expressed, however, **given topics tend to follow the verb immediately**; in the broad-focus construction it therefore intervenes between the verb and the other focal constituents:

- (40) ... ἐπεθύμησε $_{BROAD}$ $_{FOCUS}$ ὁ Δαρεῖος $_{TOPIC}$ Τείσασθαι Σκύθας $_{BROAD}$ $_{FOCUS}$ $_{CONTINUED}$. (Hdt. 4.1.1)
 - Darius desired to punish the Scythians. In the passage before this sentence, Herodotus has narrated how Darius captured Babylon; he now turns to Darius' next exploit. Darius is the given topic, and follows the verb, while the verb and its complement form a broad-focus construction.
- (41) Τούτων μὲν εἵνεκα $_{FOCUS}$ οὐκ ἔπεμψε $_{VERB}$ Ξ έρξης $_{TOPIC}$ τοὺς αἰτήσοντας $_{REST}$. (Hdt. 7.133.2)

So that is why Xerxes did not send the men to make the request. Herodotus has said that Xerxes sent no heralds to Athens and Sparta, and then explains why he did not do so. The present sentence rounds off the explanation: Herodotus asserts that it was because of these reasons that Xerxes did not send heralds. $\Xi \acute{e} \rho \xi \eta_S$ is the given topic and appears after the verb; the rest of the sentence is construed according to a narrow-focus construction, with one focused constituent appearing in front of the verb. Note that $\tau o\dot{\upsilon}_S$ ait $\dot{\eta} \sigma o v \tau \alpha_S$ (referring to the heralds) occupies the 'rest' position, as it expresses entirely predictable, presupposed information.

Contrastive and New Topics (Clause-initial)

- In many other cases, a topic is placed **in the first position of the clause**, preceding the focus. Such topics are typically not 'given', i.e. not predictable topics already active in the preceding context. Clause-initial topics may generally be classed as either 'contrastive' or 'new'.
- Most often, clause-initial topics are **contrastive topics**, which single out as topic one entity in a discourse which prominently features more than one each would

be a feasible topic and the contrastive topic makes it clear who/what the clause is actually about:

- (42) στρουθὸν ΤΟΡΙΟ δὲ οὐδεὶς NARROW FOCUS Ελαβεν VERB. (Xen. An. 1.5.3)

 An ostrich, however, nobody managed to catch. This sentence is part of a passage in which Xenophon lists several animals encountered in a plain through which the army is marching, and then recounts how the soldiers hunted each of them. In this sentence, he discusses the ostrich, which is the contrastive topic. The fact that nobody could catch one is the asserted information, in a narrow-focus construction.
- (43) τόν μὲν ἡγεμόνα $_{\text{TOPIC}}$ παραδίδωσι Χειρισόφω $_{\text{BROAD}}$ $_{\text{FOCUS}}$, τοὺς δὲ οἰκέτας $_{\text{TOPIC}}$ καταλείπει τῷ κωμάρχω $_{\text{BROAD}}$ $_{\text{FOCUS}}$, πλὴν τοῦ υἱοῦ τοῦ ἄρτι ἡβάσκοντος· $_{\text{ΤΟΪΤΟV}}$ $_{\text{TOPIC}}$ δὲ $_{\text{Πλεισθένει}}$ $_{\text{Αμφιπολίτῃ}}$ $_{\text{NARROW}}$ $_{\text{FOCUS}}$ δἱδωσι $_{\text{VERB}}$ φυλάττειν $_{\text{REST}}$. (Xen. $_{\text{An}}$. 4.6.1)

The guide he handed over to Chirisophus, but the other members of the family he left for the village-chief, except for his son, who was just reaching puberty. Him he gave to Plisthenes of Amphipolis to guard. Xenophon is describing how he dealt with the family of one of the army's guides. Xenophon('he') is himself the given topic and left unexpressed. The various members of the family head their clauses as contrastive topics. In the first two clauses, we have broad-focus constructions: both the fact that Xenophon gave up his prisoners and the identity of the recipients are asserted. By the time we reach the final clause, a narrow-focus construction is used: the identity of the recipient, Plisthenes, is new and asserted, but every reader can expect a verb of 'giving' by now. Also, given the context and the verb $\delta i\delta \omega \sigma i$, the information contributed by $\phi u \lambda \dot{\alpha} \tau \tau \epsilon i v$ is largely predictable, and it hence appears in the rest-position.

The slot of contrastive topics may also be occupied by **verbs**; in such cases, the (narrow) focus follows the verb:

(44) οὖτος ὁ Κροῖσος βαρβάρων πρῶτος . . . τοὺς μὲν κατεστρέψατο Ἑλλήνων . . . , τοὺς δὲ φίλους προσεποιήσατο. κατεστρέψατο $_{\text{TOPIC}}$ μὲν ਿΙωνάς τε καὶ Αἰολέας καὶ Δωριέας τοὺς ἐν τῇ ᾿Ασίῃ $_{\text{FOCUS}}$, φίλους δὲ προσεποιήσατο $_{\text{TOPIC}}$ Λακεδαιμονίους $_{\text{FOCUS}}$. (Hdt. 1.6.2)

This Croesus was the first of the foreigners to have subjugated some of the Greeks, and made allies of others. He subjugated the Ionians, Aeolians and Dorians who live in Asia, and he made the Spartans his allies. After naming Croesus as the first to subjugate Greek peoples or ally himself to them, Herodotus elaborates on both these methods: each of the clauses is 'about' one of the methods mentioned in the previous sentence, and as such the relevant verb is topic in each case. The asserted information in both cases consists of the peoples to which the approach was applied, so the objects of the verb are focus. Note that the whole

phrase φίλους προσεποιήσατο here takes the position of the verb (= topic): the two words express a single idea and thus go closely together filling up a single 'slot'.

- In other cases, a clause-initial topic placed in the first position of the clause is not explicitly contrasted with one or more other topics in the surrounding discourse, and is thus not 'contrastive' in a strict sense. However, such topics still identify one entity (to the exclusion of others) as the one which the clause is about. Since such topics have typically not been 'active' in the immediately preceding context (contrast given topics), they may be called **new topics**; they are nevertheless treated as part of the presupposed information. Often, they activate an entity as discourse topic for a longer stretch of discourse:
 - (45) ἀφικνοῦνται εἰς Χάλυβας _{BROAD FOCUS}. οὖτοι _{TOPIC} ὁλίγοι _{NARROW FOCUS} τε ἡσαν _{VERB} καὶ ὑπήκοοι τῶν Μοσσυνοίκων _{FOCUS}, καὶ ὁ βίος _{TOPIC} ἡν τοῖς πλείστοις αὐτῶν ἀπὸ σιδηρείας _{BROAD FOCUS}. (Xen. An. 5.5.1)

 They came to the Chalybes. These people were few in number and subject to the Mossynoecians, and most of them gained their livelihood from ironworking. Xenophon describes a people which his army came across. When the Chalybes are named initially, they are focal material. With οὖτοι, they are then taken up as new topic (a single mention as focus is typically not enough to allow a participant given topic status) this is a very frequent use of the anaphoric (→29.30) pronoun. When Xenophon next 'zooms in' to their way of life, ὁ βίος is suitable for use as a new topic.
 - (46) καὶ τὸ θέρος ἐτελεύτα. Τοῦ δ' ἐπιγιγνομένου χειμῶνος SETTING ἡ νόσος TOPIC

 Τὸ δεὐτερον FOCUS ἐπέπεσε VERB Τοῖς Ἀθηναίοις REST. (Thuc. 3.86.4–87.1)

 And the summer came to an end. In the following winter, the plague struck the Athenians a second time. The clause (preceded by a setting, for which →60.32) begins with ἡ νόσος as topic. The plague has not been mentioned for some time (not since the first time it struck), but is 'reactivated' as discourse topic in this clause. The fact that it strikes for the second time is the asserted information (τὸ δεύτερον is focus), whereas the fact that it strikes the Athenians is predictable and unmarked.
- When new participants are introduced into a text for the very first time ('all-new'), they are often not suitable to be the topic of the clause in which they are introduced, as they do not easily allow themselves to be presented as 'presupposed' information. Normally, presentational sentences have a broad-focus construction: they start with the verb and then introduce the new participant as focal information:
 - (47) Άγησιλάω μὲν δὴ ... οὐδὲν ἐγένετο βαρύτερον ἐν τῇ στρατεία. ἦν δέ τις Ἀπολλοφάνης Κυζικηνός, ὃς καὶ Φαρναβάζω ἐτύγχανεν ἐκ παλαιοῦ ξένος ὧν καὶ Ἀγησιλάω κατ' ἐκεῖνον

τὸν χρόνον ἐξενώθη. οὖτος οὖν εἶπε πρὸς τὸν Ἁγησίλαον ὡς οἴοιτο συναγαγεῖν αὐτῷ ἄν εἰς λόγους περὶ φιλίας Φαρνάβαζον. (Xen. Hell. 4.1.28-9)

And nothing happened during the campaign which was more distressing to Agesilaus. Now there was a certain Apollophanes of Cyzicus, who, as it happened, was an old friend of Pharnabazus and at some point during that time had become a friend of Agesilaus as well. This man, then, said to Agesilaus that he thought he could get Pharnabazus to meet with him concerning friendly relations. Xenophon uses a presentational clause with a broad-focus construction to introduce Apollophanes, a new participant, into the narrative. Immediately after this introduction, Apollophanes is made the new topic of the next clause, with οὖτος; for this use of οὖτος, cf. (45) above.

Occasionally, however, the new participant is immediately promoted to the function of topic – i.e. presented as presupposed information – and then appears in the first position of the clause:

(48) τὸν δὲ οἶδα αὐτὸς πρῶτον ὑπάρξαντα ἀδίκων ἔργων ἐς τοὺς "Ελληνας, τοῦτον σημήνας προβήσομαι ἐς τὸ πρόσω τοῦ λόγου ... Κροῖσος ἦν Λυδὸς μὲν γένος, ... (Hdt. 1.5.3–6.1)

And the man I know to have started with unjust acts against the Greeks, that man I will single out and continue my story. Croesus was a Lydian by birth ... Herodotus here introduces Croesus into the narrative, but he is nonetheless given the function of topic on his first appearance. The choice of this construction, rather than $\tilde{\eta}\nu$ Κροῖσος may indicate that Herodotus supposes that his audience already knows Croesus.

The Periphery of the Clause: Settings, Themes and Tails

- 60.31 Often, a clause is preceded or followed by material which is, strictly speaking, outside the clause proper. Such material may be divided between:
 - in the so-called left-periphery of the clause (preceding the clause itself): settings
 (very common) and themes;
 - in the **right-periphery** of the clause (following the clause): **tails**.

Settings

Many Greek sentences start with one or more items of background information, which appear before the clause itself and which provide a setting for that clause or the entire following stretch of a text. Such **settings** detail the circumstances, place or time in which the following actions take place. Settings typically take the form of a circumstantial participle/genitive absolute, a temporal clause, or another kind of adverbial modifier:

- (49) ἐν δὲ τῷ ἐπιόντι χειμῶνι ΕΕΤΤΙΝΟ τὰ μὲν Ἀθηναίων καὶ Λακεδαιμονίων ἡσύχαζε διὰ τὴν ἐκεχειρίαν. (Thuc. 4.134.1)
 - The following winter, the affairs between the Athenians and the Spartans were calm, on account of the armistice. The adverbial modifier ἐν δὲ τῷ ἐπιόντι χειμῶνι is setting, preceding the topic τὰ μὲν . . . Λακεδαιμονίων.
- (50) επεί δε και οι άλλοι στρατιῶται συνῆλθον (SETTING, ἀνέστη πρῶτος μεν Χειρίσοφος ὁ Λακεδαιμόνιος. (Xen. An. 3.2.1)
 - When the other soldiers had come together as well, Chirisophus the Spartan stood up first. The subordinate temporal clause is the setting for the ensuing debate scene. Note that the word order within the setting-clause follows the same principles as those outlined above: (καί) οἱ ἄλλοι στρατιῶται is a narrow focus preceding its verb.
- (51) πράττοντος δὲ τοῦ Κύρου ταῦτα _{SETTING} θείως πως ἀφικνοῦνται ἀπὸ Ύρκανίων άγγελοι. (Xen. Cyr. 4.2.1)
 - While Cyrus was doing these things, messengers came from the Hyrcanians as if by divine intent. A setting in the form of a genitive absolute. Note again that the setting has its own internal principles of constituent ordering, with $\tau o \tilde{v}$ Κύρου following the verb form (as a given topic), and the predictable $\tau \alpha \tilde{\upsilon} \tau \alpha$ in rest position.

Themes

αὐτούς.

- 60.33 Many sentences establish a topic for a stretch of discourse by placing it in the left-periphery of a sentence. This happens especially when an entity has not been mentioned for a while. While such themes are not always easy to distinguish from contrastive/new topics, they are nonetheless different. In particular, themes form their own 'intonation unit' (i.e. there is a pause between them and the clause proper), and they precede the setting (while topics follow it; cf. (46) and (49)):
 - (52) Πρόξενος δὲ καὶ Μένων ΤΗΕΜΕ, ἐπείπερ εἰσὶν ὑμέτεροι μὲν εὐεργέται, ἡμέτεροι δὲ στρατηγοί _{SETTING}, πέμψατε αὐτοὺς δεῦρο. (Xen. An. 2.5.41) As for Proxenus and Meno: since they are your benefactors and our generals, you should send them here. Note that Πρόξενος καὶ Μένων precede the setting. The fact that they are not part of the clause proper can also be seen from the fact that there they are referred to again, by means of the anaphoric pronoun
 - (53) |οὐρέουσι | THEME |αί μὲν γυναῖκες | CONTRASTIVE TOPIC |ὀρθαί | FOCUS, |οί δὲ ἄνδρες CONTRASTIVE TOPIC κατήμενοι FOCUS. (Hdt. 2.35.3) As for the way that they (the Egyptians) urinate, the women do so standing,

the men sitting down. In this case the verb οὐρέουσι is theme, as is clear from

the position of $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$ (indicating that $\alpha \dot{\epsilon}$ starts the clause proper).

A common way to articulate a theme is with the preposition $\pi \epsilon \rho i + genitive$:

- (54) περὶ μὲν δἡ Φλειασίων _{ΤΗΕΜΕ}, ὡς καὶ πιστοὶ τοῖς φίλοις ἐγένοντο καὶ ἄλκιμοι ἐν τῷ πολέμῳ διετέλεσαν, καὶ ὡς πάντων σπανίζοντες διέμενον ἐν τῇ συμμαχίᾳ, εἴρηται. (Xen. Hell. 7.3.1)
 - About the Phliasians, it has been told how they both remained faithful to their friends and bravely carried on in the war, and how they were steadfast in their alliance, although they were in short supply of everything.
- The concept of themes is also helpful in explaining a frequent type of 'ungrammatical' sentence in Greek, the so-called **nominative absolute**. Such nominatives establish a theme, but are themselves outside the syntactic structure of the sentence. Often, the theme is expressed again later in the sentence in the form of a personal pronoun in the appropriate case:
 - (55) οἱ δὲ φίλοι, ἄν τις ἐπίστηται αὐτοῖς χρῆσθαι ὥστε ὡφελεῖσθαι ἀπ' αὐτῶν, τί φήσομεν αὐτοὺς εἶναι; (Xen. Oec.~1.14)
 - As for friends, if one knows how to make use of them in such a way that one derives profit from them, what shall we say they are? *Cf. also (52) above.*

Tails

- 60.35 Sometimes, a clause is followed by a separate intonation-unit (after a pause) which serves to clarify or elaborate (an element of) the clause, almost as an afterthought. Such expressions in the right-periphery of the clause are known as **tails**.
 - Tails are often similar to given topics, in that they identify a predictable entity as
 the one which the clause is about. Tails occur when a speaker realizes that nonexpression of the topic (i.e. leaving it out altogether) may be insufficient for the
 addressee to identify it:
 - (56) χαλεπὸν | θεῶν παρατρέψαι νόον | ἄνδρεσσιν ἐπιχθονίοις. (Bacch. 5.94-6)

 It is difficult to turn aside the purpose of the gods, for mortal men. Mortals are the entity with respect to whom the statement is valid; it is overtly expressed only at the end of the sentence (after a metrical break), almost as an afterthought.
 - (57) αὖται αἱ πᾶσαι . . . στρατηλασίαι μιῆς τῆσδε οὐκ ἄξιαι. τἱ γὰρ οὐκ ἤγαγε ἐκ τῆς ᾿Ασίης ἔθνος ἐπὶ τὴν Ἑλλάδα Ξέρξης; (Hdt. 7.21.1)
 All these expeditions cannot compare to this single one. For what nation did he not lead out of Asia against Greece, Xerxes? Xerxes, whose expedition to Greece is front and center in this part of Herodotus' work, is a predictable subject for ἤγαγε, and not expressed in the sentence until the very end, presumably after a pause (though this cannot be proven in prose texts).

- In other cases, tails are added to further clarify or elaborate an element which is already overtly expressed in the clause itself (this is syntactically speaking a form of apposition, →26.24):
- (58) ἐς σὲ δἡ βλέπω, | ὅπως τὸν αὐτόχειρα πατρώου φόνου | ξὺν τῆδ' ἀδελφῆ μἡ κατοκνήσεις κτανεῖν | Αἴγισθον. (Soph. El. 954-7)

 I look to you not to shrink from killing our father's murderer, Aegisthus, together with me your sister. Αἴγισθον clarifies the phrase τὸν αὐτόχειρα πατρώου φόνου; the name is added only at the very end of the sentence, after a metrical break. The explicit mention of the name (which is predictable, and therefore not necessary in itself) may have various effects, in this case probably a tone of scorn.

Overview of Clauses with a Periphery

60.36 We may again summarize the above discussion in a formula:

Clauses with a periphery

(Theme) (Setting) Clause (with focus, topic, etc.) (Tail) Any setting precedes the clause; any theme precedes the clause and (if present) the setting; any tail follows the clause.

Prolepsis

- 60.37 Topics of subordinate clauses which follow the matrix clause are sometimes syntactically integrated into that matrix clause. This is called **prolepsis**. The construction allows the speaker to treat the 'dislocated' constituent as the (given) topic of the subordinate clause, which otherwise contains strongly focal material.
 - (59) ώς δ' ἤκουσα <u>τοὺς ναύτας</u> ὅτι | σοὶ πάντες εἶεν συννεναυστοληκότες . . . (Soph. *Phil.* 549-50)
 - But when I heard that the sailors all belonged to your crew ... Lit. 'I heard about the sailors, that they all ...'. $v\alpha\dot{v}\tau\alpha\varsigma$ is the topic of the subordinate $\delta\tau$ -clause. Note that $\pi\dot{\alpha}v\tau\epsilon\varsigma$ is not 'displaced' along with $\tau\dot{\alpha}\dot{\nu}\varsigma$ va $\dot{\nu}\tau\alpha\varsigma$ and therefore emphasized.
 - (60) ἦλθε δὲ καὶ τοῖς Ἀθηναίοις εὐθὺς ἡ ἀγγελία τῶν πόλεων ὅτι ἀφεστᾶσι. (Thuc. 1.61.1)
 - The Athenians too, immediately received the news about the cities, that they had revolted (= 'the news that the cities had revolted'). Here, the subject of the subordinate clause appears as a genitive dependent on $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda\dot{\alpha}$.

In many ways, prolepsis is similar to the theme construction (\rightarrow 60.33-4), in that topic-like material is presented to the left of the clause in which it 'belongs' (so-called 'left-dislocation').

- 60.38 In some cases of prolepsis, the topic of the subordinate clause precedes the subordinate clause, but is not syntactically integrated with the matrix clause. This happens especially when the topic is the subject of the subordinate clause (and thus appears in the nominative):
 - (61) εἰσάγγελλε Τειρεσίας ὅτι | ζητεῖ νιν. (Eur. Bacch. 173-4)
 Announce that Tiresias is looking for him. Τειρεσίας is subject of ζητεῖ, but precedes the subordinate ὅτι-clause.

Four Sample Passages

Narrative: Lysias 12.5-12

Introduction and Text

61.1 Immediately after the Peloponnesian War, Athens was briefly ruled by an oppressive oligarchic regime known as the Thirty (404-403 BCE). One of the new regime's measures was to arrest and execute a number of metics (resident aliens) and to confiscate their assets, officially in order to suppress sedition, but presumably as a quick way for the cash-strapped government to gain access to funds. Among those arrested were the speechwriter Lysias and his brother Polemarchus, whose family was originally from Syracuse. Lysias escaped, but Polemarchus was executed on the orders of Eratosthenes, one of the Thirty. Later, under the restored democracy, Eratosthenes submitted to a public examination of his conduct in court (a procedure known as εὔθυναι) and Lysias took this opportunity to prosecute Eratosthenes in person but also effectively to indict the regime of the Thirty as a whole with the speech Against Eratosthenes. Hence, in the passage below, members of the Thirty other than Eratosthenes play a leading role. The speech is transmitted as the only speech delivered by Lysias himself in court (whether he actually did so is uncertain). The passage below is the beginning of the *narratio* of the speech; in it Lysias relates the events leading up to his own escape and Polemarchus' death.

τοιαῦτα λέγοντες οὐ τοιαῦτα ποιεῖν ἐτόλμων, ὡς ἐγὼ περὶ τῶν ἐμαυτοῦ πρῶτον εἰπὼν καὶ περὶ τῶν ὑμετέρων ἀναμνῆσαι πειράσομαι. Θέογνις γὰρ καὶ Πείσων ἔλεγον ἐν τοῖς τριάκοντα περὶ τῶν μετοίκων, ὡς εἶέν τινες τῆ πολιτεία ἀχθόμενοι καλλίστην οὖν εἶναι πρόφασιν τιμωρεῖσθαι μὲν δοκεῖν, τῷ δ᾽ ἔργῳ χρηματίζεσθαι· πάντως δὲ τὴν μὲν πόλιν πένεσθαι τὴν δ᾽ ἀρχὴν δεῖσθαι χρημάτων. καὶ τοὺς ἀκούοντας οὐ χαλεπῶς ἔπειθον· ἀποκτιννύναι μὲν γὰρ ἀνθρώπους περὶ οὐδενὸς ἡγοῦντο, λαμβάνειν δὲ χρήματα περὶ πολλοῦ ἐποιοῦντο. ἔδοξεν οὖν αὐτοῖς δέκα συλλαβεῖν, τούτων δὲ δύο πένητας, ἵνα αὐτοῖς ἡ πρὸς τοὺς ἄλλους ἀπολογία, ὡς οὐ χρημάτων ἕνεκα ταῦτα πέπρακται, ἀλλὰ συμφέροντα τῆ πολιτεία γεγένηται, ὥσπερ τι τῶν ἄλλων εὐλόγως πεποιηκότες. διαλαβόντες δὲ τὰς οἰκίας ἐβάδιζον· καὶ ἐμὲ μὲν ξένους ἑστιῶντα κατέλαβον, οὓς ἐξελάσαντες Πείσωνί με παραδιδόασιν· οἱ δὲ ἄλλοι εἰς

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τὸ ἐργαστήριον ἐλθόντες τὰ ἀνδράποδα ἀπεγράφοντο. ἐγὼ δὲ Πείσωνα μὲν ἠρώτων εὶ βούλοιτό με σῶσαι χρήματα λαβών· ὁ δ᾽ ἔφασκεν, εἰ πολλὰ εἴη. εἶπον οὖν ὅτι τάλαντον ἀργυρίου ἔτοιμος εἴην δοῦναι· ὁ δ᾽ ὡμολόγησε ταῦτα ποιήσειν. ἠπιστάμην μὲν οὖν ὅτι οὔτε θεοὺς οὔτ᾽ ἀνθρώπους νομίζει, ὅμως δ᾽ ἐκ τῶν παρόντων ἐδόκει μοι ἀναγκαιότατον εἶναι πίστιν παρ᾽ αὐτοῦ λαβεῖν. ἐπειδἡ δὲ ὤμοσεν, ἐξώλειαν ἑαυτῷ καὶ τοῖς παισὶν ἐπαρώμενος, λαβὼν τὸ τάλαντόν με σώσειν, εἰσελθὼν εἰς τὸ δωμάτιον τὴν κιβωτὸν ἀνοίγνυμι· Πείσων δ᾽ αἰσθόμενος εἰσέρχεται, καὶ ἰδὼν τὰ ἐνόντα καλεῖ τῶν ὑπηρετῶν δύο, καὶ τὰ ἐν τῇ κιβωτῷ λαβεῖν ἐκέλευσεν. ἐπεὶ δὲ οὐχ ὅσον ὡμολόγησεν εἶχεν, ὧ ἄνδρες δικασταί, ἀλλὰ τρία τάλαντα ἀργυρίου καὶ τετρακοσίους κυζικηνοὺς καὶ ἑκατὸν δαρεικοὺς καὶ φιάλας ἀργυρᾶς τέτταρας, ἐδεόμην αὐτοῦ ἐφόδιά μοι δοῦναι, ὁ δ᾽ ἀγαπήσειν με ἔφασκεν, εἰ τὸ σῶμα σώσω. ἐξιοῦσι δ᾽ ἐμοὶ καὶ Πείσωνι ἐπιτυγχάνει Μηλόβιός τε καὶ Μνησιθείδης ἐκ τοῦ ἐργαστηρίου ἀπιόντες.

They (the Thirty) had the nerve to make such claims and yet act in a very different fashion, as I will try to call to mind by speaking first about my own affairs, and then about yours. In a meeting of the Thirty, Theognis and Pison said about the metics, that there were some among them who were disgruntled with the regime; so that there was an excellent pretext to appear to exact punishment, but in reality to acquire funds; and, they added, the city was in any case without resources, and the government needed money. And they won over their audience without difficulty: for they thought nothing of killing men, but placed a premium on getting money. So they decided to arrest ten men, two of them poor, so that they would have as an excuse with regard to the others that these measures had not been taken for the sake of money, but that they were in the public interest - as if any of their other acts had been sensible! When they had divided up the houses, they were on their way. And they found me while I was entertaining guests, whom they drove out and then handed me over to Pison. The others went to the workshop and set about making a list of the slaves. I asked Pison if he was willing to let me live in exchange for money. He said that he was, if it was a lot. So I said that I was willing to give him a talent of silver; he agreed that he would do it. Now, I knew that he has no regard for either gods or men, yet it seemed to me, given the circumstances, to be absolutely necessary to extract an oath from him. After he had sworn, calling destruction on himself and his children, to let me live in exchange for the talent, I went into the bedroom and opened the money-chest. Pison noticed this and came in, and upon seeing the contents he called two of his slaves, and told them to take the contents of the chest. And, gentlemen of the jury, now that he had not the sum that we agreed, but three talents of silver and four hundred cyzicenes and a hundred darics and four silver cups, I entreated him to give me some travel money, but he said that I should be happy if I came off with my life. As Pison and I were coming out, Melobius and Mnesithides, who were on their way from the factory, met us.

Commentary

61.2 General Notes

The passage contains many elements which are characteristic of Greek narratives. In a typical narrative a speaker (the narrator) relates a series of events that occurred in the past, usually in a basic **chronological** order; once a narrative sequence begins, if no indications to the contrary are given, it may be assumed that the successive main clauses reflect the temporal sequence of events. The tenses used are **imperfects** (and pluperfects), **aorist indicatives** and **historical presents**. Stories are normally told in the **third or first person**; both occur here. Subordinate clauses and participle phrases may provide settings (\rightarrow 60.32) or express less important events. As a rule, shifts of scene or perspective in a story are indicated by the particle δi , while closely linked events within one scene are often connected by $\kappa \alpha i$.

Forensic speeches are **monological** texts (the speaker holds forth for a considerable time without interruptions), but they are addressed to a specific group, male Athenian citizens who served as jurors. The passage cited here shows several signs of the presence of the jurors, who (unlike the modern reader) heard the speech only once and whose attention the speaker needed to retain throughout. For example, Lysias clearly announces the beginning of the narrative (see n. on ώς . . . πειράσομαι, 1–2) so that the jurors do not lose sight of the overall flow of the text; he includes a sarcastic aside intended to raise a laugh (see n. on ὥσπερ τι τῶν ἄλλων εὐλόγως πεποιηκότες, 10–11), and addresses the jurors directly (ὧ ἄνδρες δικασταί, 21) to call their attention to a complicated calculation.

61.3 Detailed Notes

1 τοιαῦτα λέγοντες οὐ τοιαῦτα ποιεῖν ἐτόλμων: Lysias has just briefly described the rise of the Thirty, including their claims that they would rid Athens of unwelcome elements and turn the rest of the citizens to 'justice and virtue'. τοιαῦτα anaphorically refers to these claims ($\rightarrow 29.28$); τοιαῦτα (rather than ταῦτα) is dismissive: it suggests that Lysias does not have to bother about being precise, because the Thirty did not act in accordance with their words in the first place.

Imperfect ἐτόλμων, together with the present infinitive ποιεῖν, suggests continuous action and so conveys what Lysias sees as a defining characteristic of the rule of the Thirty. On the textual level, the imperfect also suggests that there is more to say about this point (compare the n. on ἔλεγον at 3–8 below); and the narrative indeed consists of several illustrations of the Thirty's hypocritical behaviour. This statement can thus be understood as a 'setting' against which the following narrative is to be evaluated.

1-2 ώς ... πειράσομαι: An announcement of the following narrative and an explicit signal that that narrative is to be taken as exemplifying the Thirty's

mendacious actions. The aspectual value of the aorist infinitive ἀναμνῆσαι dependent on π ειράσομαι suggest that the following story as a whole (the product of Lysias' act of 'calling to mind') will permit the jurors to conclude that the Thirty 'said one thing, but did quite another'.

 $2 \gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$: This particle often introduces entire narratives ($\rightarrow 59.14$), especially when preceded by a speaker's announcement of his intent to relate a story for a certain purpose. $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ then makes explicit that the narrative indeed serves that purpose (and thus serves as 'supporting' information to the announcement): in this case Lysias uses $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ to imply that his narrative will prove that the Thirty were lying scoundrels, precisely as he said he would.

3-8 ἔλεγον . . . καὶ . . . οὐ χαλεπῶς ἔπειθον . . . ἔδοξεν οὖν αὐτοῖς: The imperfects ἔλεγον and ἔπειθον refer to actions that reach their end-point before the next action occurs; there is no reason to suppose that Theognis' and Pison's speeches were interrupted, and the persuasion referred to by ἔπειθον was obviously successful (a 'conative' interpretation (→33.25) is ruled out by οὐ χαλεπῶς). Such imperfects, which refer to actions that are in themselves 'complete' and advance narrative time, nevertheless present those actions as the background to what follows, raising the question 'what happened next?' The local function of the imperfect to refer to 'incomplete' actions is expanded into a global, textual function: the information presented in the text segment as a whole is as yet 'incomplete' $(\rightarrow 33.51)$. As such, these imperfects raise suspense, suggesting that more important consequences will soon follow. And indeed, the discussion among the Thirty leads to a decision, expressed by the aorist ἔδοξεν, and marked by the particle οὖν, which indicates a transition to the main story line (\rightarrow 59.34). It is this decision which sets the rest of the action in motion. The sequence of two imperfects and an aorist thus conveys a sense of climax.

2–3 Θέογνις... καὶ Πείσων ἔλεγον ἐν τοῖς τριάκοντα περὶ τῶν μετοίκων, ὡς ...: Theognis and Pison are here introduced into the discourse, but since they were known members of the Thirty, they immediately appear as the topic of the sentence (followed by a broad-focus construction beginning with the verb), rather than being more elaborately introduced in a presentational sentence (\rightarrow 60.30). The content of their speech is presented in the ὡς-clause (indirect statement), but this clause is preceded by a theme/topic constituent (π ερὶ τῶν μετοίκων); this is similar to 'prolepsis', even if syntactically more firmly integrated into the matrix clause (ἔλεγον) by the preposition π ερί (for π ερί in 'left-dislocated' material, \rightarrow 60.33).

3-5 ἔλεγον ... ὡς εἶέν τινες ... καλλίστην οὖν εἶναι πρόφασιν ... πάντως δὲ τὴν μὲν πόλιν πένεσθαι τὴν δ' ἀρχὴν δεῖσθαι ...: The indirect statement begins with a ὡς-clause with oblique optative (εἶεν); the use of ὡς (rather than ὅτι) is suggestive of Theognis' and Pison's specious argumentation (\rightarrow 41.6), while the continuation of the report with accusative-and-infinitive constructions (the preferred

complement for verbs of opinion; $\rightarrow 51.19$ n.1) squarely ascribes the responsibility for what is said to them. The particles ($o\tilde{\nu}\nu$... $\delta\acute{\epsilon}$... $\mu\acute{\epsilon}\nu$... δ ') are embedded in the indirect statements, and articulate Theognis' and Pison's line of reasoning rather than that of Lysias.

6-8 ἀποκτιννύναι μὲν γὰρ ... ἡγοῦντο, λαμβάνειν δὲ ... ἐποιοῦντο: γάρ marks this sentence as explanatory of the preceding οὐ χαλεπῶς. The infinitives (together with their objects) are contrastive topics (→60.28; note μέν ... δέ); περὶ οὐδένος and περὶ πολλοῦ are narrow focus constituents (→60.23; for the idiom, →30.31 n.1). The present infinitives suggest multiple acts of 'killing' and 'seizing' (note ἀποκτίννυναι from athematic ἀποκτίννυμι, which exists alongside thematic ἀποκτείνω).

8–10 ἵνα ... ἢ ... ἀπολογία, ὡς ... πέπρακται, ἀλλὰ ... γεγένηται: Another indirect statement depends on ἀπολογία: again (see n. on ὡς 3–5 above), ὡς may be suggestive of the falseness of the Thirty's excuse. This may also underlie the retention of the subjunctive ἢ in the purpose clause, and the perfect indicatives πέπρακται/γεγένηται in the ὡς-clauses (rather than optatives), presenting the purpose and content of the excuse entirely from the perspective of the Thirty (and hence not that of Lysias): \rightarrow 41.13, 45.3 n.1.

10–11 ἄσπερ τι τῶν ἄλλων εὐλόγως πεποιηκότες: A sarcastic aside on the part of Lysias, indicated by ἄσπερ with a participle, meaning 'as if' (→52.43). Lysias scoffs at the fact that the Thirty suddenly feel the need to come up with excuses, even though they are responsible for carrying out other bad measures without further ado. For the 'responsibility' nuance of the perfect, →33.35.

11 διαλαβόντες ... ἐβάδιζον: The narrative shifts gears as we leave the meeting and start moving; Lysias will soon be involved in the action himself. From this point on the narrative generally consists of shorter clauses, and a greater use of preposed aorist participles (such as διαλαβόντες here; also ἐξελάσαντες 12, ἐλθόντες 13, εἰσελθών 19, αἰσθόμενος 19, ἰδών 20) to narrate events in a sequence (such aorist participles will have an anterior interpretation, describing an action preceding the action in matrix clauses).

After the sequence ἔλεγον ... ἔδοξεν (3–8), ἐβάδιζον starts off a new sequence of events. The imperfect again suggests that this is a preliminary (background) action which will lead up to more central events that take place at Lysias' house. As a corollary of this scene-shifting function, imperfects like ἐβάδιζον are often said to be 'immediative' (\rightarrow 33.52): the Thirty had divided the houses of the ten selected metics among themselves and were on their way without further ado.

11–15 καὶ ἐμὲ μὲν ... οἱ δὲ ἄλλοι ... ἐγὼ δὲ ... ὁ δ' ... εἶπον ... ὁ δ' ...: When the members of the Thirty (as well as our narrative) arrive at Lysias' house, there is an initial flurry of activity, with our attention moving back and forth between Lysias and the assailants, and between the house and the weapons factory (owned by Lysias' family) to which everyone but Pison and Lysias moves. After that, the

narrative zooms in on the interaction between Lysias and Pison. This is reflected in the constant shift of topic in these sentences; when attention has been directed to Lysias and Pison in 13, there is no recurrence of the emphatic pronoun $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}$, and first-person verb forms suffice. Pison is variously referred to by $\dot{\delta}$ $\delta\dot{\epsilon}$ (14, 15, 23, \rightarrow 28.28), by name (19), or with no explicit reference at all (18, 21; \rightarrow 26.7).

12 παραδιδόασιν: Lysias' transfer into Pison's custody is the first event which he highlights by means of the historical present (→33.54). Lysias uses the historical present in this speech to single out moments of particular significance for the story (see also ἐπιτυγχάνει 24), but also to mark those events which are particularly damning for Pison (and, by implication, the rest of the Thirty), such as the moment when Pison enters Lysias' bedroom to steal the contents of the money-chest (εἰσέρχεται 20, καλεῖ 20). The audience is invited to feel the effects of such moments with particular empathy, to re-live them with the participants in the story, as it were, for whom they were 'present'.

13 ἀπεγράφοντο: The imperfect in the context of two scenes that take place at different locations (note the shift from the ἐργαστήριον back to Lysias' house effected by ἐγὼ δέ) suggests that the negotiation between Lysias and Pison took place while the list of slaves was being drawn up by the other members of the Thirty in the factory. This is because the imperfect indicates that some people were drawing up a list, but not that they finished doing so before the shift of location in the narrative; hence a translation 'set about making a list' is appropriate. The completion of the list can be inferred from the final sentence of the passage, when two of the Thirty's members emerge 'from the factory' (ἐκ τοῦ ἐργαστηρίου 25) and the two scenes merge into one again.

14–15 ἡρώτων ... ἔφασκεν ... εἶπον οὖν ... ώμολόγησε: As with ἔλεγον above (3–8), there is no reason to assume that these speaking turns were interrupted, so the imperfects ἡρώτων and ἔφασκε must refer to completed actions. The imperfective aspect suggests, again, that these first steps in the negotiation lead up to more decisive events: when the eventual offer of one talent is made and accepted, we find aorists (εἶπον, ώμολόγησε). Again, the shift to the aorist is accompanied by the particle οὖν, indicating the transition to the more relevant point (see n. on οὖν 3–8 above).

14–15 εἰ βούλοιτό ... εἰ πολλὰ εἴη ... ὅτι ... ἔτοιμος εἴην ... ὁ δ' ὡμολόγησε ταῦτα ποιήσειν: In this quickly moving narrative, Lysias presents his conversation with Pison in indirect speech, which creates less of a sense of 'pause' than directly reported speeches do. The indirect statements and questions mostly have oblique optatives, presenting the whole from Lysias' current narratorial perspective (→41.13); ὡμολόγησε is construed with a future infinitive; the verb virtually always takes the infinitive, as it properly means 'to express the same opinion (as someone else)' (cf. ὅμοιος λόγος) and so takes the regular complement of verbs of opinion (→51.19).

16–19 ἠπιστάμην μὲν οὖν ... ὅμως δ' ... ἐδόκει ... ἐπειδὴ δὲ ἄμοσεν ... εἰσελθών ... ἀνοίγνυμι: μὲν οὖν ... δ' ... is transitional (→59.73): the μὲν οὖν-clause rounds off the dialogue which led to Pison's promise by offering Lysias' comment on what a promise of Pison is worth, the δέ-clause presents the new and relevant step of extracting an oath. The imperfects ἠπιστάμην and ἐδόκει briefly 'pause' the narrative progression to provide background information, namely Lysias' reasoning for extracting an oath from Pison. With ἐπειδὴ δὲ ἄμοσεν ... ἐπαρώμενος ... σώσειν, that oath has been provided, and we are back in the quick sequence of events. Lysias then imperceptibly changes the subject (from Pison to himself) after the long subordinate clause, as becomes clear only from first-person ἀνοίγνυμι.

16 **voµiζει**: this present is presumably to be interpreted as anchored in Lysias' current narratorial perspective rather than as 'retained' from his original speech; if so, this can be reflected in English by translating 'I knew that he has no regard for either gods or men' rather than by 'that he had no regard'. The effect is that Pison's moral deficiency is presented as a fixed character trait, which continues to be in force until the present day (\rightarrow 41.14).

18 λαβών is a predicative modifier of σώσειν rather than ἄμοσεν, that is, the sentence means 'he swore to take ... and save ...', rather than 'after taking ... he swore to save ...'.

19 The historical present ἀνοίγνυμι again marks a moment of particular significance: the money is now in play.

20 εἰσέρχεται ... καλεῖ: See 12 above.

21 ἐπεὶ δὲ ... εἶχεν: The imperfect in the temporal clause implies simultaneity (contrast αοrist ἄμοσεν 18).

23–24 ἐδεόμην ... ἔφασκεν: For the value of the imperfects, cf. 3–8 and 14–15 above. They leave unresolved tension as to whether Lysias actually will escape with his life; this tension is heightened by the 'retention' of the indicative σώσω in the indirect question: in contrast to the oblique optative, the indicative presents the speech from the perspective of the narrated world, when Lysias' future (would he live or die?) was still entirely open. In the remainder of the *narratio* (not included here), this tension will be repeatedly heightened and released.

24–25 ἐξιοῦσι δ' ... ἀπιόντες: The participle phrase ἐξιοῦσι δ' ἐμοὶ καὶ Πείσωνι (dative complement to ἐπιτυγχάνει) serves as the 'setting' to the ensuing sentence (\rightarrow 60.32). The word order in ἐπιτυγχάνει Μηλόβιός τε καὶ Μνησιθείδης is suggestive of 'presentational' sentences, which introduce new participants by means of a broad-focus construction (\rightarrow 60.30). ἐκ τοῦ ἐργαστηρίου ἀπιόντες appears in the 'rest'-position, adding circumstantial information of no particular pragmatic importance (\rightarrow 60.22).

ἐπιτυγχάνει: See 12 above.

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Description: Xenophon, Anabasis 1.5.1-4

Introduction and Text

The following passage comes from the early chapters of Xenophon's *Anabasis*, which tells of the expedition of a large mercenary army led by Cyrus (who hoped to seize the Persian throne from his brother Artaxerxes), as well as the army's flight from enemy territory after Cyrus' death in battle. The passage below details one stage in Cyrus' march towards the capital, and describes in some detail the country that he passes through.

έντεῦθεν έξελαύνει διὰ τῆς Ἀραβίας τὸν Εὐφράτην ποταμὸν ἐν δεξιᾳ ἔχων σταθμούς ἐρήμους πέντε παρασάγγας τριάκοντα καὶ πέντε. ἐν τούτω δὲ τῷ τόπω ἦν μὲν ἡ γῆ πεδίον ἄπαν ὁμαλὲς ὥσπερ θάλαττα, ἀψινθίου δὲ πλῆρες· εἰ δέ τι καὶ ἄλλο ἐνῆν ὕλης ἢ καλάμου, ἄπαντα ἦσαν εὐώδη ὥσπερ ἀρώματα. δένδρον δ' οὐδὲν ἐνῆν, θηρία δὲ παντοῖα, πλεῖστοι ὄνοι ἄγριοι, πολλαὶ δὲ στρουθοὶ αί μεγάλαι, ἐνῆσαν δὲ καὶ ἀτίδες καὶ δορκάδες. ταῦτα δὲ τὰ θηρία οἱ ἱππεῖς ἐνίοτε έδίωκον, καὶ οἱ μὲν ὄνοι, ἐπεί τις διώκοι, προδραμόντες ἕστασαν. πολύ γὰρ τῶν ἵππων ἔτρεχον θᾶττον, καὶ πάλιν, ἐπεὶ πλησιάζοιεν οἱ ἵπποι, ταὐτὸν ἐποίουν, καὶ οὐκ ἦν λαβεῖν, εἰ μἡ διαστάντες οἱ ἱππεῖς θηρῷεν διαδεχόμενοι. τὰ δὲ κρέα τῶν άλισκομένων ἦν παραπλήσια τοῖς ἐλαφείοις, ἁπαλώτερα δέ. στρουθὸν δὲ οὐδεὶς ἔλαβεν· οἱ δὲ διώξαντες τῶν ἱππέων ταχὺ ἐπαύοντο· πολὺ γὰρ ἀπέσπα φεύγουσα, τοῖς μὲν ποσὶ δρόμω, ταῖς δὲ πτέρυξιν αἴρουσα ὥσπερ ἱστίω χρωμένη. τὰς δὲ ἀτίδας, ἄν τις ταχὺ ἀνιστῆ, ἔστι λαμβάνειν πέτονται γὰρ βραχὺ ὥσπερ πέρδικες καὶ ταχὺ ἀπαγορεύουσι. τὰ δὲ κρέα αὐτῶν ἥδιστα ἦν. πορευόμενοι δὲ διὰ ταύτης τῆς χώρας ἀφικνοῦνται ἐπὶ τὸν Μάσκαν ποταμόν, τὸ εὖρος πλεθριαῖον.

From there, he marched through Arabia, keeping the river Euphrates on his right-hand side, for five day-marches through desert country, traversing thirty-five parasangs. In this region the ground was a plain, entirely flat like a sea, and full of wormwood; and if there was any other kind of shrub or reed, they were all fragrant like herbs. There was not a single tree, but there were animals of all kinds, mostly wild asses, but also many ostriches. There were also bustards and gazelles. The horsemen would occasionally hunt for these animals: as for the asses, each time that someone was chasing them, they would run ahead and then stop dead in their tracks (for they ran much faster than the horses); and again and again, whenever the horses were coming close, they would do the same, and it was not possible to catch them, except if the horsemen took up positions at intervals and hunted them in relays. The meat of the animals that were caught was much like venison, but more tender. As for the ostriches, no one succeeded at catching one of them. And the horsemen that had chased them soon gave up, because the animal would make them go a great distance when it ran from them, by running with its feet and hoisting its wings, using them like a sail. As for the bustards, if you make a quick jump on them, it is possible to catch them. For they can only fly a short distance,

like partridges, and soon tire out. Their meat was delicious. Travelling through this country, they arrived at the river Mascas, which is a plethrum in width.

Commentary

61.5 General Notes

In **descriptions**, the speaker/narrator expands in detail on a **geographical location**, a **custom**, an **object**, a **creature**, a **character**, etc. Unlike narratives, descriptions are **not organized chronologically**: rather, **different aspects** of the thing described are treated **in turn**. Descriptions may be set in the **present or the past**, but the flow of time is mostly irrelevant. When inserted into the larger structure of a narrative, as here, such descriptions in fact interrupt that flow – in other words, they put the question 'What happened next?' on hold.

All this can be seen most clearly from the use of **tenses**: in past descriptions, such as this one, the **imperfect** is used almost exclusively; similarly, descriptions of something in the present normally have **present indicatives** (the present and the imperfect have the same aspectual value, \rightarrow 33.22). The imperfect and present indicative are prevalent in descriptions because the speaker tends to describe permanent characteristics of a certain thing, or repeated habits and customs: the aspect of the present stem (expressing ongoing or repeated actions) is suitable for expressing such actions. The perfect aspect, referring to states, can also be suitable: hence, in past descriptions, the pluperfect also occurs, and in descriptions referring to the present, the perfect indicative is not uncommon.

Another aspect of the passage which is typical of descriptions is the way in which particles and word order structure the text. Unlike arguments and most dialogues (\rightarrow 61.8, 61.13), descriptions are usually relatively uncomplicated in design, as different features are described in turn. Accordingly, they normally have a small variety of connective particles: the text moves from topic to topic by means of the frequent use of the particle $\delta \dot{\epsilon}$, with an occasional elaboration introduced by $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$. Attitudinal particles are rare in descriptions. Word order, too, often helps to identify points where the text moves to another aspect or topic.

Like other long historiographical texts, Xenophon's *Anabasis* is strongly **monological**; it is not addressed to a specific group of addressees. Typical characteristics of dialogic texts, such as attitudinal particles (\rightarrow 59.3) and direct addresses by means of the vocative, are absent from the passage cited here. The most one can say is that the comparisons of the desert landscape and the ostrich's wings to the sea and sails, respectively, indicate that Xenophon had a Greek audience in mind, since most Greeks would have been more familiar with the sea and ships than with deserts and ostriches.

61.6 Detailed Notes

1-2 ἐντεῦθεν ... πέντε: The first sentence of the passage is still part of the main narrative: this is evident from the verb ἐξελαύνει, which can only be historical present (a use of the present indicative found predominantly in narrative).

The historical present, as often in Xenophon, 'punctuates' the narrative by highlighting the main episodes of Cyrus' march: in this way, the historical present segments the narrative into units corresponding to the various stages of the march $(\rightarrow 33.55)$.

The adverb ἐντεῦθεν serves as setting, followed immediately by a lengthy broadfocus construction (\rightarrow 60.23) which begins with the verb (ἐξελαύνει) and covers the location (Arabia), duration (five days) and geographical extent (thirty-five parasangs) of this stage of the march: this word order is typical for many marches in the *Anabasis*; it is not unlike 'presentational sentences' (\rightarrow 60.30 and 61.3, n. on 24–25).

2–6 ἐν τούτω ... δορκάδες: Xenophon now breaks off his narrative to give an extensive description of the country he has just mentioned in the previous sentence. The description falls into two parts: first, a purely 'geographical' description of the plant-life and the animals that populated the area, as they were found by the army (2–6); second, a digression on the repeated, mostly unsuccessful attempts by the army at hunting those animals for food (6–14). In the first section, all of the verbs ($\tilde{\eta}\nu$, 3; ἐν $\tilde{\eta}\nu$, 4; $\tilde{\eta}\sigma\alpha\nu$, 4; ἐν $\tilde{\eta}\nu$, 5; ἐν $\tilde{\eta}\sigma\alpha\nu$, 6) are imperfect forms of εἰμί be: Xenophon is simply listing all the plants and animals that could be found in the country.

2-3 ἐν τούτῳ δὲ τῷ τόπῳ: The pronoun τούτῳ is used anaphorically (\rightarrow 29.32) to refer to the location just mentioned, which is taken up and repeated as the setting (\rightarrow 60.32) for the entire following description. Using the particle δέ, Xenophon marks this off as a new, distinct section of the text.

3–6 ἦν μὲν ἡ γῆ πεδίον ... ἀψινθίου δὲ ... δένδρον δ' ... θηρία δέ: The position of the verb ἦν is a strong signal that a description begins here: ἦν is placed initially in the clause (μέν makes it clear that this clause starts with ἦν; the preceding words are a setting), which suggests that this is a 'presentational' sentence (\rightarrow 60.30): 'what there was' in the country is what this section will be about; but it turns out that ἦν is actually a linking verb with the words ἡ γῆ πεδίον: 'the ground was a plain'.

Xenophon goes on to mention several aspects of the country: its shape, the type of low growth that could be found, the lack of trees, and the animals that populate it. These individual aspects are enumerated by means of the particles $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu \ldots \delta \acute{\epsilon} \ldots \delta \acute{\epsilon} \ldots \delta \acute{\epsilon}$, and in each case the new, contrastive topic is placed initially in the clause, except in the case of $\acute{\epsilon} \nu \widetilde{\eta} \sigma \alpha \nu \delta \acute{\epsilon} \kappa \alpha i \, \acute{\epsilon} \omega \tau i \delta \epsilon_{\varsigma}$, where Xenophon opts for a presentational sentence.

4 ἄπαντα ἦσαν εὐώδη: The plural verb with a neuter plural subject emphasizes that each individual species of plant-life was fragrant (→27.2).

5-6 θηρία δὲ παντοῖα ... πλεῖστοι ... μεγάλαι: Because it follows a negated clause (δένδρον δ' οὐδὲν ἐνῆν), the particle δέ is here best translated by 'but', although this is a matter of translation into English rather than an actually different 'meaning' of δέ (which merely signals a shift of topic).

The whole phrase $\pi \lambda \epsilon i \sigma \tau o \ldots \mu \epsilon \gamma \dot{\alpha} \lambda \alpha i$ stands in apposition to the words $\theta \eta \rho i \alpha$ $\pi \alpha \nu \tau o i \alpha$. The apposition serves to further define and specify the general 'animals of all kinds' ($\rightarrow 26.24$).

In the configuration of στρουθοί αί μεγάλαι the adjective provides additional information necessary to identify the particular type of στρουθός meant – a στρουθός is a sparrow; only with the adjective μ εγάλη added does it mean 'ostrich' (\rightarrow 28.11 n.2).

6 ἐνῆσαν δὲ καὶ ἀτίδες: In the particle combination δὲ καί, the first particle is a connective particle (here simply to be translated 'and', or left untranslated), and καί is an adverbial particle of scope ('also'; \rightarrow 59.56).

6-14 ταῦτα δὲ τὰ θηρία ... ἥδιστα ἦν: The second section of Xenophon's description concerns the attempts at hunting the animals which he has just mentioned. As this section takes up the army and their actions, it is in some ways more integrated into the narrative than the preceding geographical description (this section resembles narrative more, although the organization of the text is still not chronological: the hunt is described animal by animal, which may not reflect the order they were actually hunted in). Again, imperfects proliferate (ἐδίωκον, 7; ἔστασαν, 7 (see n. below); ἔτρεχον, 8; ἐποίουν, 8; ἦν, 9; ἦν, 10; ἐπαύοντο, 11; ἀπέσπα, 11; ἦν, 14), although there is also a single aorist (ἔλαβεν, 11) and an interesting series of presents (13-14). Other than in the first section, these imperfects mostly express repeated actions, which is made clear by the temporal adverbs ἐνίοτε (6) and πάλιν (8) and the temporal clauses with iterative optatives (→47.10), ἐπεί τις διώκοι (7), ἐπεί πλησιάζοιεν (8).

After a brief introductory sentence ($\tau\alpha\tilde{u}\tau\alpha$... $\dot{\epsilon}\delta\dot{i}\omega\kappa\sigma\nu$, 6–7), Xenophon talks about each of the various animals that were hunted in turn. In each case, the animal in question comes first in its sentence ($\kappa\alpha\dot{i}$ oi $\mu\dot{\epsilon}\nu$ ŏvoi, 7; $\sigma\tau\rhoou\theta\dot{o}\nu$ δ $\dot{\epsilon}$, 10; $\tau\dot{\alpha}$ ς δ $\dot{\epsilon}$ $\dot{\omega}\tau\dot{i}\delta\alpha\varsigma$, 13), marking it as a contrastive topic or theme, and the sequence is segmented by $\mu\dot{\epsilon}\nu$... δ $\dot{\epsilon}$... δ $\dot{\epsilon}$. In the case of the two species of which some animals were actually caught, Xenophon also elaborates on the taste of the meat ($\tau\dot{\alpha}$ δ $\dot{\epsilon}$ $\kappa\rho\dot{\epsilon}\alpha$, 9 and 14).

6 ταῦτα δὲ τὰ θηρία: The anaphoric pronoun ταῦτα is again used to pick up an element from the preceding context and use it as basis for the following digression (compare τούτω above, 2). The particle δέ serves merely to mark the break between this section and the last.

 $7 \dots \hat{\epsilon} \delta \hat{\omega} \kappa \sigma v$, καὶ οἱ μὲν ὄνοι: Xenophon starts off the series of animals with καἱ ... μέν, where μέν anticipates the following instances of δέ, and καἱ is used because the whole sequence is part of the same 'item' as the verb ἐδίωκον. We may compare the force of καἱ here with that of 'and' in an English paraphrase: 'As for these animals, the horsemen at times chased them *and* the outcome was that ...:'

The first time the asses were mentioned (5), there was no article with \mathring{o} vol. From that first mention onwards, the asses are identifiable, and the article oi is therefore used here. Compare the use of $\tau \dot{\alpha}_{S}$ (13, but see the n. there).

7 ἐπεί τις διώκοι: The optative, in a temporal clause referring to a repeated or habitual action in the past, is highly suitable for descriptive passages such as this one. The aspect of the present optative yields a relative-tense interpretation (simultaneity, $\rightarrow 33.57$): 'each time that someone was chasing them, ...'. The subordinate clause follows the theme of μὲν ὄνοι ($\rightarrow 60.33$).

7 προδραμόντες ἔστασαν: The pluperfect ἔστασαν, as the past tense of perfect ἔστηκα, suggests the immediate and complete realization of the action of coming to a standstill (\rightarrow 33.53): the asses stopped dead in their tracks. At the same time, given the iterative optative δίωκοι (see above), ἔστασαν does refer to a repeated action. The order of participle and verb is significant: when a participle in the aorist precedes the main verb, this suggests a temporal sequence (\rightarrow 52.35–6): first, the asses run away, and then they stand still at a distance from the riders; compare the order of θηρῶεν διαδεχόμενοι below (9).

7-8 πολύ γὰρ... θᾶττον: γάρ here has its normal explanatory function, serving to explain how it was possible that the asses kept getting away from the horsemen.

8 καὶ πάλιν, ἐπεὶ πλησιάζοιεν οἱ ἵπποι, ταὐτὸν ἐποίουν: The repeated failure of the horsemen in the hunt is underlined by πάλιν and ταὐτόν, as well as by the imperfect ἐποίουν and the temporal clause with the optative. The connection with καί shows that this sentence should be seen as part of the same cycle of failed attempts (καὶ πάλιν is almost 'and again and again').

9 καὶ οὐκ ἦν λαβεῖν: The imperfect ἦν cannot (by virtue of the meaning of the verb 'to be') be interpreted as expressing a repeated action: rather, the imperfect (of an ongoing action) signals that it was consistently impossible to catch any of the asses; ἦν stands for ἐξῆν (of ἔξεστι it is possible).

9 εἰ μὴ διαστάντες οἱ ἱππεῖς θηρῷεν διαδεχόμενοι: This negative conditional clause ('unless') actually details how, in the end, the horsemen were able to catch some of the asses. The optative θ ηρῷεν is again used to express a repeated action in the past – the negative in such conditional clauses is slightly unusual, but here necessary to balance out the negative in the previous clause (οὐκ ἦν).

The ordering of participles around the main verb is again significant. Again, the aorist participle preceding the main verb (διαστάντες) suggests a temporal sequence: first they positioned themselves, then they hunted. The present participle following the main verb (διαδεχόμενοι), however, says something about the manner in which they executed their hunt.

9-10 τὰ δὲ κρέα τῶν άλισκομένων ἦν παραπλήσια τοῖς ἐλαφείοις, άπαλώτερα δέ: With the preceding conditional clause implying that some asses were actually caught, Xenophon goes on to talk about the meat of those that were (τῶν άλισκομένων, present participle referring to multiple asses). The new topic is set

apart by $\delta \acute{\epsilon}$; the second $\delta \acute{\epsilon}$ marks a contrast (without a preceding $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu$, which is not always required).

10-11 στρουθόν δὲ οὐδεὶς ἔλαβεν: The next animal species that Xenophon discusses is again introduced by putting it upfront in the sentence, connected by the particle δέ.

The aorist ἔλαβεν, in this passage dominated by imperfects, may seem slightly surprising, but is suitable because of the negative οὐδείς (no one completed the action of capturing an ostrich: the complete failure is presented, almost by way of retrospective summation, in the aorist). οὐδείς is the narrow focus of this sentence, immediately preceding the verb, and following the contrastive topic στρουθόν.

11 οί δὲ διώξαντες ... πολὺ γὰρ ἀπέσπα: Even though, at πολὺ γάρ, the subject changes here from the chasing horsemen to the ostrich (the subject of ἀπέσπα, in the singular because it refers to a typical ostrich in one of the army's attempts), the latter subject does not need to be separately expressed. This is common in Greek when the subject is still prominently 'on the mind' (a given topic), especially when there is no chance of confusion (as here).

13–14 τὰς δὲ ἀτίδας, ἄν ... ἀνιστῆ, ἔστι λαμβάνειν πέτονται ... ἀπαγορεύουσι: In his treatment of the last species of animal (again placed first in the sentence as theme, connected by δέ, and followed by a subordinate clause) Xenophon, who is also the author of a short treatise on hunting, suddenly shifts to the present tense and a conditional clause using ἄν (= ἐάν) + subjunctive (habitual use in the present, \rightarrow 49.13). These verbs cannot be historical present: rather, they express general truths, and as a result, this section reads much like a textbook on hunting.

It is likely that the article $\tau \acute{\alpha} s$ with $\mathring{\omega} \tau \acute{\epsilon} \delta \alpha \varsigma$ ought to be read as a generic article ($\rightarrow 28.6$; the rest of the section steers our interpretation this way), although readers who first come across it will naturally think that it is used to refer back to the bustards mentioned before.

14 τὰ δὲ κρέα αὐτῶν ἥδιστα ἦν: With the imperfect ἦν, we briefly return to the description in the past. ἦν expresses the taste of the meat as it was perceived by the hunters at the time.

15 πορευόμενοι δὲ διὰ ταύτης τῆς χώρας ἀφικνοῦνται ...: The country just described is taken up anaphorically by ταύτης τῆς χώρας, and the army's travel through it is presented as backdrop for the next phase of the narrative (the whole phrase πορευόμενοι δὲ διὰ ταύτης τῆς χώρας is setting). The verb ἀφικνοῦνται, historical present (and as such a definitive sign that the narrative has been resumed) is again the beginning of a broad-focus construction (cf. 1–2 above).

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Argument: Plato, Gorgias 484c-485a

Introduction and Text

61.7 The following passage is part of Callicles' great monologue (ῥῆσις) in Plato's *Gorgias*, which is a philosophical discussion presented like a play, with several speakers taking turns. In his monologue, Callicles proposes a radical alternative to Socrates' philosophical views: philosophical nit-picking only results in rules and laws which are intended to constrain the men with real abilities; in political life, in which every man should participate, there is no room for the philosopher's morality. In the present section he maintains that Socrates would also be of that opinion, if only he would give up philosophy. Philosophy, he argues, may be a useful part of the education of young men, but once a man becomes politically active, it will only blur his good judgement.

τὸ μὲν οὖν ἀληθὲς οὕτως ἔχει, γνώση δέ, ἀν ἐπὶ τὰ μείζω ἔλθης ἐάσας ἤδη φιλοσοφίαν. φιλοσοφία γάρ τοἱ ἐστιν, ὧ Σώκρατες, χαρίεν, ἄν τις αὐτοῦ μετρίως ἄψηται ἐν τῇ ἡλικία· ἐὰν δὲ περαιτέρω τοῦ δέοντος ἐνδιατρίψῃ, διαφθορὰ τῶν ἀνθρώπων. ἐὰν γὰρ καὶ πάνυ εὐφυἡς ἢ καὶ πόρρω τῆς ἡλικίας φιλοσοφῆ, ἀνάγκη πάντων ἄπειρον γεγονέναι ἐστὶν ὧν χρἡ ἔμπειρον εἶναι τὸν μέλλοντα καλὸν κἀγαθὸν καὶ εὐδόκιμον ἔσεσθαι ἄνδρα. καὶ γὰρ τῶν νόμων ἄπειροι γίγνονται τῶν κατὰ τὴν πόλιν, καὶ τῶν λόγων οἶς δεῖ χρώμενον ὁμιλεῖν ἐν τοῖς συμβολαίοις τοῖς ἀνθρώποις καὶ ἰδία καὶ δημοσία, καὶ τῶν ἡδονῶν τε καὶ ἐπιθυμιῶν τῶν ἀνθρωπείων, καὶ συλλήβδην τῶν ἡθῶν παντάπασιν ἄπειροι γίγνονται. ἐπειδὰν οὖν ἔλθωσιν εἴς τινα ἰδίαν ἤ πολιτικὴν πρᾶξιν, καταγέλαστοι γίγνονται, ὥσπερ γε οἷμαι οἱ πολιτικοί, ἐπειδὰν αὖ εἰς τὰς ὑμετέρας διατριβὰς ἔλθωσιν καὶ τοὺς λόγους, καταγέλαστοί εἰσιν. συμβαίνει γὰρ τὸ τοῦ Εὐριπίδου· λαμπρός τέ ἐστιν ἕκαστος ἐν τούτῳ, καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦτ' ἐπείγεται,

 νέμων τὸ πλεῖστον ἡμέρας τοὐτῳ μέρος,
 15

 ἵν' αὐτὸς αὐτοῦ τυγχάνει βέλτιστος ἄν·
 16

ὅπου δ' ἄν φαῦλος ή, ἐντεῦθεν φεύγει καὶ λοιδορεῖ τοῦτο, τὸ δ' ἕτερον ἐπαινεῖ, 17 εὐνοία τῆ ἑαυτοῦ, ἡγούμενος οὕτως αὐτὸς ἑαυτὸν ἐπαινεῖν. 18

This is the truth of the matter, and you will recognize it if you finally abandon philosophy and move on to the more important things. Mind you, Socrates, philosophy is a delightful thing, if one touches upon it in moderation at the right age; but if one wastes more time on it than one should, it destroys people. For even if one is very gifted by nature, but engages in philosophy beyond the appropriate time of life, he will inevitably turn out to be inexperienced in everything in which a man who intends to be admirable and good and well thought of should be experienced. For such people do not become experienced in the laws of the city; in

the arguments one must use in dealing with people on matters of both private and public business; in human pleasures and desires; and, in short, they do not become experienced whatsoever in all forms of human behaviour. So, when they venture into some private or political activity, they become ridiculous, precisely as, I suppose, politicians are ridiculous when they venture into those pastimes of yours and your discussions. For the upshot is Euripides' saying: 'each man shines' in this, and 'strives after this',

allotting the greatest part of the day to this, where he happens to be at his best;

But, whatever a man is inferior in, that he avoids and rails against, while he praises the other thing, out of goodwill towards himself, because he thinks that in this way he is praising himself.

Commentary

61.8 General Notes

In an **argumentative** passage like the present one, a speaker makes a **claim** which he brings to the attention of his addressee and which he **supports** in some way. Unlike narratives, but like descriptions, arguments are **not organized temporally**. The verbs in main clauses do not refer to successive events. Rather, the individual sentences contain a set of claims or proposals, for which other sentences offer **proofs**, **explanations**, **conclusions**, etc. The structure of many arguments is hierarchical: some proofs and explanations pertain to the main proposal, while other proofs and explanations in turn back up more central proofs and explanations. The internal organization of Callicles' argument is established clearly by the use of **particles**, as the overview of the main structure of Callicles' argument, given below, shows.

While Callicles' monologue is long, he never loses sight of the fact that he is engaged in a dialogue with Socrates. **Dialogic elements** in the passage include the interactional particle τοι and the vocative $\mathring{\omega}$ Σώκρατες (both accompany a *captatio benevolentiae*; see n. on φιλοσοφία . . . τοί ἐστιν, $\mathring{\omega}$ Σώκρατες, . . . ἐὰν δέ . . . , 2–3; also n. on ὥσπερ γε οἶμαι οἱ πολιτικοί, 11–12), and the use of the second-person verb γνώση (1, also \rightarrow 61.11); the use of the plural possessive pronoun ὑμετέρας (12) indicates that Callicles intends to address all philosophers via Socrates, so to speak.

61.9 The Overall Structure of Callicles' Argument

Introduction: τὸ μὲν οὖν ἀληθὲς οὕτως ἔχει, γνώση δέ, ... φιλοσοφίαν.

The first sentence rounds off the previous topic of Callicles' monologue and introduces the new one (see also below, on μὲν οὖν ... δέ ..., 1)

Main claim: φιλοσοφία γάρ . . . διαφθορά τῶν ἀνθρώπων.

The main claim is introduced by $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$. This particle often occurs after an announcement of a story or argument (see $\gamma v \acute{\omega} \sigma_{\Pi}$; see also the remarks on $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ in 61.3, line 2); it has its normal explanatory force to the extent that the following argument in its entirety contains the information which Socrates needs in order to realize that Callicles is right. Therefore, the scope of $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ is much wider than the sentence in which it occurs: it pertains to the entire passage which follows. It is difficult to find an adequate translation for $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ in such cases: often, it is sufficient simply to supply a colon (:) – 'You will recognize that I am right: . . .'.

Proof: ἐὰν γὰρ . . . ἔσεσθαι ἄνδρα.

This sentence provides proof for the main claim that over-indulging in philosophy leads to 'the destruction of men'; $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ has its normal explanatory force.

Clarification: καὶ γὰρ . . . ἄπειροι γίγνονται.

This sentence clarifies an aspect of the proof: it makes explicit what the things are in which 'a man who is to be admirable and good and well thought of should be experienced'. Again, $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ has its normal explanatory force. Observe that this clarification explains only something about the proof: the entire argument is hierarchically structured: the clarification presents the 'deepest level' of the argument.

Conclusion of the proof: ἐπειδὰν οὖν . . . καταγέλαστοί εἰσιν.

As often, the conclusion is introduced by ovv. The entire proof gives Callicles the opportunity to maintain that the 'destruction of men' who engage in philosophy consists in the fact that they 'become ridiculous'. The particle returns the argument back to a higher level of the text.

Proof: συμβαίνει γάρ . . . έαυτὸν ἐπαινεῖν.

In his summation, Callicles is careful to indulge Socrates by granting that, just as philosophers make bad politicians, politicians would be bad philosophers. He backs this statement up by quoting a couple of lines from Euripides, whom he apparently regards as an authority in this respect. $\gamma \alpha \rho$ performs its normal function.

Each of the main parts of the argument can be further divided into even smaller segments. Again, particles have an important role to play here, but demonstrative pronouns are important as well.

61.10 Detailed Notes

1 μὲν οὖν ... δέ ...: This succession of particles is very common in sentences which form a transition between two topics. In the particle combination μὲν οὖν, οὖν rounds off the previous topic, suggesting a transition to a (currently) more relevant point, while μέν looks forward to δέ, balancing or contrasting the two topics (\rightarrow 59.73). The fact that the first part of the sentence looks back at the previous section can also be seen from οὖτως 'like this', which is used anaphorically (compare anaphoric οὖτος; \rightarrow 29.32).

2-3 φιλοσοφία ... τοί ἐστιν, ὧ Σώκρατες, ... ἐἀν δέ ...: Callicles' main claim consists of two parts, the second of which contains the contention for which he will argue in the following. The first part is a preliminary concession to Socrates' point of view intended by Callicles to mollify his interlocutor (compare the captatio benevolentiae with which many speeches begin). This is shown by τοι, an interactional particle, which in this case has a concessive value: 'granted, philosophy is something delightful'; for neuter χαρίεν, →27.8. The δέ-clause builds a contrast with this preliminary point and the particle can therefore be translated by 'but'. Both conditional clauses have (contrasting) narrow focus constituents, μετρίως and περαιτέρω τοῦ δέοντος: these carry the main point. The vocative ὧ Σώκρατες fulfils a role similar to τοι, in that it clearly marks the fact that Callicles makes the point about philosophy being delightful to indulge Socrates (remember that τοι is originally a dative of the second-person personal pronoun).

4-5 ἐἀν γὰρ καὶ πάνυ εὐφυἡς ἦ καὶ πόρρω τῆς ἡλικίας φιλοσοφῆ: For γάρ, see above. Even though the two clauses under the scope of εἰ are co-ordinated by καί, they are (exceptionally) not semantically parallel. The second provides the real condition in case of which the main clause applies: 'If one engages in philosophy beyond the appropriate age, then it is necessary etc.' The first is rather concessive: 'this even holds for someone who is very gifted'. The first καί is adverbial and to be connected with πάνυ.

7-10 καὶ γὰρ τῶν νόμων ... καὶ τῶν λόγων ... καὶ τῶν ἡδονῶν τε καὶ ἐπιθυμιῶν ... καὶ συλλήβδην τῶν ἡθῶν: An enumeration consisting of four essential spheres of life in which philosophers turn out to be inexperienced. Each element is introduced by a connective καί. The first καί belongs to τῶν νόμων, but is separated from its noun phrase by γάρ, because of Wackernagel's Law ($\rightarrow 60.7$); on the force of γάρ, see above. τῶν νόμων is separated from its modifier τῶν κατὰ τὴν πόλιν in hyperbaton, as the modifier contains fairly predictable information ($\rightarrow 60.18$). The final element of the enumeration stands apart from the others, in that it summarizes the previous elements: συλλήβδην 'in short' shows this. The third part is itself subdivided in two by τε καί: this particle combination often suggests that the elements thus co-ordinated belong closely together.

11–12 ἄσπερ γε οἶμαι οἱ πολιτικοί, ἐπειδὰν αὖ: ἄσπερ γε 'precisely as' again introduces a point which is intended to appease Socrates or to forestall a possible objection on his part: Callicles grants that politicians perform badly when they in their turn (αὖ, signalling the exactly opposite scenario of the ἐπειδὰν οὖν-clause) engage in philosophy. (Of course, in his reasoning this is a rather gratuitous concession, because the real object of a man's life should be politics, and not philosophy.) Placed after the connective ἄσπερ, the scope-particle γ ε has scope over the entire clause. Its force is limitative: Callicles restricts the inability of politicians only to a scenario in which they engage in philosophy.

11 οἶμαι: After the confident assertions he has made so far (on which see below), Callicles clearly marks his present statement as a mere opinion by means of a paratactic οἷμαι 'I suppose': he probably does this because he does not claim to have any experience in philosophy; it is up to Socrates to judge the truth of what he is saying. This impression is reinforced by the (as usual) emphatic use of the second-person possessive pronoun in τὰς ὑμετέρας διατριβάς (\rightarrow 29.22), 'your pastimes', which marks philosophy as something that does not belong to Callicles but to Socrates and people like him.

13–14 τὸ τοῦ Εὐριπίδου· λαμπρός τε ... καί ...: τὸ τοῦ Εὐριπίδου 'the saying of Euripides' introduces a quotation from Antiope (a lost play), which then follows immediately, without a connective particle: asyndeton is regular after such announcements. The particle τε, of course, looks forward to καί, forging into a single idea the two statements that everybody performs splendidly at and (therefore) aims to do what he believes he does best. It is possible that the quotation is not exact, as often in Plato.

14–16 ἐν τούτω ... ἐπὶ τοῦτ' ... τούτω ... ἵν': As happens often, forms of the demonstrative pronoun οὖτος (rather than of ὅδε) refer cataphorically to a following relative clause (\rightarrow 29.32 n.1).

17 ὅπου δ' ... ἐντεῦθεν ... τοῦτο: ἐντεῦθεν and τοῦτο here refer anaphorically to the relative clause starting with ὅπου: this is a normal function of ἐντεῦθεν and forms of οὖτος (\rightarrow 8.2, 29.32).

16–17 ἵνα ... ὅπου δ' ἄν ... τὸ δ' ἔτερον: Both times δέ contrasts the previous clause with the present one; the definite noun phrase τὸ ἔτερον refers back to the ἵνα-clause. Observe the difference in mood between the two relative clauses: ἵνα is followed by an indicative, indicating that there is a fixed sphere of life in which each person happens to be at his best and which is in principle identifiable in each case. By contrast, ὅπου is followed by ἄν + subjunctive (indefinite) to indicate that there may be many other, not readily identifiable, things in which each person is inferior (\rightarrow 50.21).

61.11 **Argumentative Tone**

Not only is the structure of the passage characteristic of an argument. The tone, too, is typical of at least one kind of argument. Callicles only once weakens the force of one of his claims by means of οἶμαι 'I suppose' (see above, 11). The rest of the time, he strikes a very confident tone. For example, Callicles uses the impersonal ἀνάγκη ἐστίν 'it is inevitable' (5) to express what he thinks is a logical necessity. The impersonal verb δεῖ 'it is necessary' (8), fulfils a similar role: it indicates that there cannot, in Callicles' view, be a discussion about what kinds of things a good man should be experienced in. The future indicative γνώση 'you will realize' (1) is a further sign of confidence: by presenting Socrates' change of mind as a future fact, Callicles suggests that alternative views cannot really be

maintained once he has finished his exposition. To 'feel' the force of these features of Callicles' language, it is helpful to envisage possible alternatives: instead of 'it is inevitable' he might have said 'I think it is the case' and instead of 'you will realize', he might have said 'perhaps you will realize' ($\gamma voi\eta s$ dv, a potential optative). The result would be a more modestly proposed argument.

Perhaps the most important contribution to the confident tone is made by the use of indicatives in main clauses, which express what the speaker regards as facts. Almost all of these are in the present tense, and express timeless or habitual actions, things which are always the case (or so Callicles believes). Accordingly, the conditional and temporal clauses take the form of ἐἀν/ἐπειδάν + subjunctive. In accordance with this, Callicles talks about people in general (τις, 2; τῶν ἀνθρώπων, 4), or about classes of people (τὸν μέλλοντα ... ἄνδρα, 6; οἱ πολιτικοί, 11); these noun phrases have a generic article.

Callicles not only reinforces his point through grammatical means, but also through the use of expressive vocabulary. Thus, it is apparent that he has clear ideas about what occupations are suitable for an adult man: he refers to politics as τὰ μείζω 'the bigger things' (1) – note that the definite article implies that it is recognized by everybody that politics is more important than philosophy – while philosophy is called χαρίεν 'something delightful' (2) – note the somewhat condescending use of the neuter; later on it is referred to as αί ὑμέτεραι διατριβαί (12). Although this word is often used for 'discussions', there is more than a hint of its other meaning 'pastimes' here. Finally, 'engaging in philosophy' is referred to by the verb ἐνδιατρίβω 'waste one's time' (3). Instead, one should only 'touch upon it in moderation' (μετρίως ἄψηται, 3).

Finally, Plato often appears to make an effort to make his writing resemble spoken language. Spoken language is often a bit more 'sloppy', redundant and less grammatical than written language, but Plato's Greek is usually clear and easy to follow. In the present passage, the influence of spoken language is apparent in the repetition of ἄπειροι γίγνονται (7 and 10), which is triggered by the long sentence of which these words form the predicate: by the time Callicles gets to τῶν ἡθῶν, he foresees that his addressees may have forgotten by now that the genitive depends on ἄπειροι γίγνονται, and for this reason he repeats it. A further sign of the influence of spoken language is the transition from the singular τις 'someone' (2; it is the subject of ἄψηται, ἐνδιατρίψη, ἦ, φιλοσοφῆ and γεγονέναι), to the plurals ἄπειροι γίγνονται, ἔλθωσιν and καταγέλαστοι γίγνονται. The change is readily understandable, once we realize that τις stands for anybody who pursues philosophy beyond the right period of life, in other words, for an entire class of people. The co-ordination of two semantically non-equivalent εἰ-clauses noted in the comments above (4–5) may be a further colloquial feature.

Dialogue: Sophocles, Ajax 1120-41

Introduction and Text

61.12 In Sophocles' *Ajax*, the eponymous hero, having lost his mind and having tried unsuccessfully to kill the leaders of the Greek army before Troy as they lay asleep, commits suicide. Ajax's madness is the result of his losing a contest over the weapons of the slain Achilles: the contest, in the end, was decided by vote, and Odysseus was declared winner and given the splendid weaponry. The second part of the play is concerned with the burial of Ajax: in the scene below, Ajax' half-brother Teucer and his sworn enemy Menelaus engage in an angry discussion about this burial. Menelaus, whom Teucer holds personally responsible for Ajax' defeat in the deciding vote, denies Ajax a proper burial in light of the crimes he has committed. Teucer disputes this fervently, leading Menelaus to resort to outright insults.

ME.	ό τοξότης ἔοικεν οὐ σμικρόν φρονεῖν.	1120
TEY.	οὐ γὰρ βάναυσον τὴν τέχνην ἐκτησάμην.	1121
ME.	μέγ' ἄν τι κομπάσειας, ἀσπίδ' εἰ λάβοις.	1122
TEY.	κἄν ψιλὸς ἀρκέσαιμι σοί γ' ώπλισμένῳ.	1123
ME.	ή γλῶσσά σου τὸν θυμὸν ὡς δεινὸν τρέφει.	1124
TEY.	ξὺν τῷ δικαίῳ γὰρ μέγ' ἔξεστιν φρονεῖν.	1125
ME.	δίκαια γὰρ τόνδ' εὐτυχεῖν κτείναντά με;	1126
TEY.	κτείναντα; δεινόν γ' εἶπας, εἰ καὶ ζῆς θανών.	1127
ME.	θεὸς γὰρ ἐκσώζει με, τῷδε δ' οἴχομαι.	1128
TEY.	μή νυν ἀτίμα θεούς, θεοῖς σεσωμένος.	1129
ME.	έγὼ γὰρ ἄν ψέξαιμι δαιμόνων νόμους;	1130
TEY.	εὶ τοὺς θανόντας οὐκ ἐᾳς θάπτειν παρών.	1131
ME.	τούς γ' αὐτὸς αὐτοῦ πολεμίους οὐ γὰρ καλόν.	1132
TEY.	ἦ σοὶ γὰρ Αἴας πολέμιος προὔστη ποτέ;	1133
ME.	μισοῦντ' ἐμίσει· καὶ σὺ τοῦτ' ἠπίστασο.	1134
TEY.	κλέπτης γὰρ αὐτοῦ ψηφοποιὸς ηὑρέθης.	1135
ME.	ἐν τοῖς δικασταῖς κοὐκ ἐμοὶ τόδ' ἐσφάλη.	1136
TEY.	πόλλ' ἄν καλῶς λάθρα σὺ κλέψειας κακά.	1137
ME.	τοῦτ' εἰς ἀνίαν τοὔπος ἔρχεταί τινι.	1138
TEY.	οὐ μᾶλλον, ώς ἔοικεν, ἢ λυπήσομεν.	1139
ME.	ἕν σοι φράσω∙ τόνδ' ἐστὶν οὐχὶ θαπτέον.	1140
TEY.	άλλ' ἀντακούσῃ τοῦθ' ἕν, ὡς τεθάψεται.	1141

- M. The archer, it seems, has little modesty.
- T. Indeed not, for I did not acquire it as a lowly art.
- M. Your boast would be great indeed if you got a shield!
- T. Even unarmed, I would be a match for you with your weapons.

- M. How brash does your mouth make your heart!
- T. Yes, for when someone has justice on his side, he may be bold.
- M. Are you saying it was just for him to get away with murdering me?
- T. Murdering? You make quite a claim, if you still live having been killed.
- M. I live because a god is my saviour: as far as this man is concerned, I am gone.
- T. Well then, stop dishonouring the gods, if you are saved by them.
- M. You dare say that I would disparage the precepts of the gods?
- T. If you are here to forbid the burying of the dead.
- M. The dead who are my own enemies: for that is not good.
- T. So you state that Ajax ever stood up to you as an enemy?
- M. He hated me as I hated him: you, too, knew that.
- T. Yes, because you were found out to have robbed him in the voting.
- M. That misfortune befell him on account of the judges, not on account of me.
- T. You could put a good face on many a despicable act, as long as you did them in secret.
- M. Someone is going to regret saying that!
- T. No more, it seems, than I shall cause regret.
- M. I will tell you one thing: this man is not to be buried.
- T. But you will hear only this in reply, that he shall lie in his grave.

Commentary

61.13 General Notes

The text type is on the whole that of **argument**: both Menelaus and Teucer make a number of claims and seek to support them. However, this heated *stichomythia* (a form of dramatic dialogue in which characters speak in alternating lines), quickly degenerates into the kind of shouting match to which notions of a sustained and coherent text type are perhaps less relevant.

Rather, the text is interesting for our purposes particularly for its many **dialogic** elements: there are many **first- and second-person** verb forms and pronouns; the use of tenses alternates primarily between **presents**, **futures** and **aorists**; there is **variety in the use of moods** (the imperative is rare outside dialogue); there is a greater incidence of **interactional particles** than in other text types (and other particles are sometimes employed in different fashion, see especially the notes on $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ below); and finally, sentences generally do not have very complex syntax (that is to say, there is little stacking of subordinate clauses, circumstantial participles, etc.). With regard to syntax, this dialogue also contains examples of a feature

common to *stichomythia*, namely the 'borrowing' of one speaker's syntax by the other (see the nn. on 1131–2 below).

61.14 Detailed Notes

In addition to comments on the structure and coherence of the text, some attention in the notes below will be devoted to an analysis of Menelaus' and Teucer's rhetorical 'tactics', since the way the speakers organize their utterances cannot be seen independently from such considerations.

1120: A line dripping with sarcasm and disdain. ὁ τοξότης is an insult both because Menelaus uses the third person (he may direct this speech to the chorus, which is present on stage, and pretend to ignore Teucer, who is nevertheless clearly meant to hear it), and because it emphasizes Teucer's low status (archers fought at a greater distance from the enemy than shield-bearing hoplites, and were considered of lower rank as a consequence). With ἔοικεν οὐ σμικρὸν φρονεῖν, Menelaus is deliberately, sarcastically circumspect in his description of Teucer, saying that he 'seems' to be 'not modest': Teucer's speech preceding this passage in fact conveys his attitude towards Menelaus clearly enough. The double negative inherent in οὐ σμικρόν is called 'litotes', a form of euphemism, which suggests here that Teucer's behaviour should normally be modest.

1121: In dialogue, $\gamma \acute{\alpha} \rho$ often has a less obvious explanatory force than it would in monological arguments, narratives or descriptions, because it may be used by one speaker to connect his utterance to that of another. It is used to pick up an idea of the previous speaker, on which the current speaker elaborates. Its function is therefore really the same as in other contexts: it introduces a unit of text that elaborates the current line of discussion ($\rightarrow 59.14$). In many cases, such as here and in 1125, 1128, and 1135, it may be translated 'yes, for', 'indeed, because', etc. (here, Teucer uses the device to transform Menelaus' insult into a badge of honour).

Note the ordering of adjective, article and noun in βάναυσον τὴν τέχνην (predicative placement of the adjective, $\rightarrow 28.11-12$): Teucer is saying that archery, in his case, is not of low status at all (refuting the implication of Menelaus' τοξότης).

The aorist ἐκτησάμην, as often in non-narrative text, is used simply to observe that an action is completed (Teucer looks back at the time of his becoming an archer in retrospect, $\rightarrow 33.28$).

1122: The 'potential' conditional sentence (ε i + opt. in the protasis, opt. + $\check{\alpha}v$ in the apodosis, \rightarrow 49.8) is used by Menelaus to some rhetorical effect: he both underlines the extent to which Teucer is being brazen (the gist is: 'if you're this arrogant when you're not even of high status, what would you be like if you were?'), but also subtly points out that Teucer's acquiring a shield is only a remote possibility.

ἀσπίδ', the topic of the conditional clause εὶ λάβοις is taken out of its clause and preposed, a form of prolepsis (\rightarrow 60.37): the implied sense is more or less 'Your

boast would be great indeed with a shield, if you actually were to *get* one' (with $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \beta o_{15}$ focus of the subordinate clause).

1123: Teucer again retorts by taking up Menelaus' point and turning it on its head: even ($\kappa\alpha$ in $\kappa\alpha$) if he weren't to acquire a shield, he would still be able to take on Menelaus, regardless of status. He also adds the threat of violence: whereas shields and weapons up to this point have primarily been expressions of status, here Teucer suggests that they might actually use them.

The particle $\gamma \epsilon$ ($\sigma oi \gamma$) limits and focuses Teucer's boast on Menelaus specifically: 'you I can take any day, even without weapons' ($\rightarrow 59.53$).

1124: A contemptuous exclamation (with $\dot{\omega}_{S}$, $\rightarrow 38.47$; $\dot{\omega}_{S}$ is a prepositive, $\rightarrow 60.13$, which is here delayed until the word it goes with most closely, $\delta \epsilon \iota \nu \dot{\sigma} \nu$). Naturally, exclamations are usually not connected to the surrounding context by a particle (asyndeton, $\rightarrow 59.9$): a connective particle would be at odds with the *impromptu* character of an exclamation.

1125: Teucer takes up Menelaus' point (using the particle γάρ, see note on 1121), ignoring the sarcasm of his exclamation: he has good reason to be bold. With ξὐν τῷ δικαίω, Teucer here introduces, as new topic (\rightarrow 60.29), a crucial term into the dialogue (τ ò δίκαιον), and pivots the discussion to the question of whether Ajax should be buried (as 'justice' demands).

1126: Menelaus takes up the issue of justice (δίκαια is in topic position), but is unwilling to yield the point that it is on the side of Teucer and Ajax. In a rhetorical question, he presents his own, different view of what is just.

The question is introduced by $\gamma \dot{\alpha} p$: in yes/no questions, this particle may be used to interrogate the premises and/or hypotheses of the other speaker: 'are you saying that because ...?', 'do you mean to say that ...?' (again, the particle elaborates on the utterance of the previous speaker, cf. 1121 above). In rhetorical questions like the present example, this leads to the interpretation that the speaker *subverts* the premises of the other speaker (in other words, Menelaus is implying that for Teucer to say that, his concept of justice must be wrong). The particle functions similarly in 1130 and 1133.

Menelaus can use the pronoun $\tau \dot{o} \nu \delta'$ because the dead body of Ajax is actually lying on stage. We may imagine the actor pointing towards the corpse at this point ($\rightarrow 29.29$).

The conventional relative-tense interpretation of the aorist participle $\kappa \tau \epsilon i \nu \alpha \nu \tau \alpha$ ($\rightarrow 52.4$) collides, of course, with the fact that the 'dead person' is speaking. This is pointed out by Teucer (see note on 1127), after which Menelaus is forced to qualify it in 1128.

1127: κτείναντα is a direct citation of Menelaus' word in the previous line, picked up to question its validity. γ ' concentrates Teucer's point on the word δεινόν, the narrow focus of this sentence: we can do little more in translation than

provide emphasis. The aorist $\epsilon i\pi\alpha\varsigma$ (an alternative form to $\epsilon i\pi\epsilon\varsigma$; $\rightarrow 13.32$) is used simply because Menelaus' relevant utterance is completed.

καί is here a scope particle (\rightarrow 59.56), extending the applicability of the word ζ ῆς beyond what might be expected ('you actually (still) live, having died').

1128: For γάρ see the note on 1121; here it 'picks up' ζῆς. The present οἴχομαι here, as often, is resultative (it means 'be gone' rather than 'go away', \rightarrow 33.18); the present ἐκσώζει here (and elsewhere) works the same way ('a god has saved me' or 'is my saviour'). The particle δ' contrasts Ajax (again referred to by a form of ὅδε) with the god: no μέν precedes.

1129: Teucer latches on to Menelaus' comment about a god to again bring the topic of conversation back to the burial. His imperative $\mu\dot{\eta}$ $\dot{\alpha}\tau\dot{\iota}\mu\alpha$ is connected to the preceding context by means of the particle $\nu\nu\nu$ (\rightarrow 59.29), which expresses that the command flows naturally from what came before (the mention of a god).

The aspect of $\dot{\alpha}\tau\dot{\mu}\alpha$ (present imperative) is significant: Teucer suggests that Menelaus *has been* dishonouring the gods by not letting him bury Ajax, and that he should cease his opposition (\rightarrow 38.30); a translation 'stop dishonouring the gods' is better than 'don't dishonour the gods'.

1130: Menelaus seems not to grasp what Teucer is accusing him of, and objects in general to the notion that he could ever be disrespectful towards divine νόμοι. The potential optative αν ψέξαιμι is stronger than an indicative would be: Menelaus denies not only that he is disparaging divine precepts, but that he ever could (the rhetorical question implies οὖκ αν ψέξαιμι, a strong denial; →34.13). For the use of γάρ, see the note on 1126.

1131: Teucer here comes to the crux of his argument: burying Ajax is just. His contribution consists only of a subordinate clause, not a syntactically complete sentence. This is possible because he 'borrows' syntax from Menelaus: Teucer's conditional clause is latched onto the sentence which Menelaus has just spoken (as such it cannot be connected by a particle). The use of $\mathbf{où}\kappa$ instead of the expected $\mu\dot{\eta}$ ($\rightarrow 49.3$) indicates that Teucer presents this line as a statement rather than as a genuine condition.

The participle π αρών is probably added to place responsibility squarely with Menelaus: as a general of the army, and being present at the site of the corpse, he is personally responsible if the burial does not go through.

1132: Menelaus, too, borrows syntax from his opponent: the accusative τοὺς πολεμίους is object with θάπτειν from 1131, which does not need to be expressed again. By the use of the limitative particle γ ' (\rightarrow 59.53), Menelaus limits Teucer's general τοὺς θανόντας to the specific case of his own enemies: one can forbid burial when it concerns one's own πολέμιοι, since burying them is not a morally correct thing (οὐ γὰρ καλόν).

αὐτὸς αὐτοῦ is a set phrase, used in every person. Although it is impossible to be sure as to whether the second form should be αὐτοῦ rather than reflexive αὑτοῦ (for which $\rightarrow 29.11$), the phrase is well attested with a smooth breathing in the manuscripts of Greek tragic texts, and most recent editions indeed print αὐτοῦ.

1133: Teucer detects a hole in Menelaus' argument, and calls him out on it. For Menelaus' argument to hold water, Ajax must have been $\pi o \lambda \acute{\epsilon} \mu i o \varsigma$ (this word suggests actual violent conflict, rather than just emotional dislike) to Menelaus (note accented $\sigma o \ifmmode o \ifmmode$

The aorist $\pi \rho o \tilde{\sigma} \tau \eta$ (= $\pi \rho o - \tilde{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \eta$, $\rightarrow 11.52$) is regular with the indefinite $\pi o \tau \hat{\epsilon}$: Teucer asks whether a single occurrence of Ajax engaging in conflict with Menelaus ever took place.

1134: Menelaus has to retreat from the word πολέμιος, but tries to deflect Teucer's question by pointing out that he must have been all too aware that there was an abiding mutual hatred between the two men. The strength of that hatred is reinforced by the imperfect ἐμίσει (expressing an ongoing action in the past, \rightarrow 33.23) and by the doubling of forms of the verb μισέω (which underscores the reciprocity). καί should probably be read adverbially ('you too'). ἡπίστασο is imperfect rather than present, as Menelaus refers to the fact that Teucer was aware of Ajax's and Menelaus' mutual hatred while Ajax was alive.

1135: Teucer cannot now refrain from bringing up the proverbial elephant in the room, and, with $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ (see 1125 and 1128), provides the reason for Ajax' hatred of Menelaus: he is held responsible for Ajax' loss in the contest over the weapons of Achilles (decided, in the end, by a vote). Teucer here uses the word κλέπτης: an outright accusation that Menelaus kept Ajax from what was rightfully his. αὐτοῦ is an objective genitive ($\rightarrow 30.28$), signifying the person robbed (note that the verb κλέπτω governs an accusative of the person robbed). The adjective ψηφοποιός (which occurs only here in Greek literature; the meaning is uncertain, either 'casting a vote' or 'tampering with votes') is added in apposition ($\rightarrow 26.24$) as further elaboration of how exactly Menelaus was a κλέπτης.

1136: Menelaus deflects responsibility for Ajax' loss of the weapons to the panel of judges which held the vote: a more respectable version of the story than the vote-tampering which Teucer seems to suggest took place. The pronoun $\tau \delta \delta$ ' is used here because the affair surrounding Achilles' weapons is now prominent in Menelaus' mind ($\rightarrow 29.29$).

1137: Teucer denies that Menelaus did not cause Ajax' loss of Achilles' weapons. He ascribes to him the ability to 'put a fair face' on all kinds of criminal actions he commits without being noticed. The focus of the sentence is λ άθρ α . The use of the potential optative αν . . . κλέψειας (→34.13) gives the sentence a wider applicability than just the particular case under discussion: Teucer suggests that Menelaus is still ready to put this ability into action and has probably done so on several occasions in the past.

1138-9: In these lines, the conversation finally breaks down entirely: both speakers utter threats, although both do so in an indirect way. Menelaus formulates his threat in a general way, by saying τινι rather than σοι, and he distances himself from the responsibility for the threat by making Teucer's previous utterance the subject of ἔρχεται: not 'I will hit you', but 'what you just said will hit you'. Teucer weakens the strong force of the future indicative λυπήσομεν (which presents as a future fact what is actually a mere prediction; $\rightarrow 33.43$) by adding ώς ἔοικεν, 'it seems'. He also leaves out any mention of the person that will be hurt. It is difficult to say why such indirect threats are more sinister (in effect, more threatening) than direct threats, but presumably it is because by not taking responsibility for a threat one suggests that the potentially violent outcome is beyond one's control and therefore all the more dangerous.

τοῦτο . . . **τοὖπος** (= τὸ ἔπος by crasis, \rightarrow 1.43) refers an aphorically to Teucer's entire previous utterance. The present ἔρχεται is best interpreted as an action currently in progress: Menelaus is already losing control.

1140: Menelaus uses, in $\ddot{\imath}\nu$ σοι φράσω, a future indicative to announce a statement which immediately follows. Such announcements indicate that the following statement is of great importance and should be given special heed. Note, in this connection, the use of the pronoun σοι, which appeals directly to Teucer. The statement is appended without connective particles (asyndeton), which is regular when a statement provides the content of an announcement just made.

The impersonal expression ἐστίν ... θαπτέον (\rightarrow 37.3) is reminiscent of legal language: Menelaus speaks with all the authority of a king, who does not deign to address individual subjects. As in previous instances (1126, 1128), τόνδε refers to the body which is present on stage.

1141: The particle ἀλλ' (\rightarrow 59.11) conveys Teucer's rejection of Menelaus' order and its replacement by a diametrically opposed intention on his part; a translation 'no, on the contrary' is suitable.

ἀντακούση can be regarded as a passive of ἀντιλέγω refute, contradict; again, the clause announces an important statement, which here takes the form of a ώς-clause.

The future perfect $\tau \epsilon \theta \dot{\alpha} \psi \epsilon \tau \alpha i$ ($\rightarrow 33.46$) is an instance of one-upmanship by Teucer over Menelaus: not only will Ajax be buried, he will rest in a grave once and for all. The future perfect emphasizes the state which will result from burying him. Note how Teucer echoes Menelaus' order in that he, too, uses a passive formulation, excluding himself as the agent of the burying. Again, this may suggest that the act of burying Ajax is outside any individual's control, and thus inevitable.

Introduction

Full-scale bibliographies of work on Greek linguistics can be found both online and in print (see I–II below). Therefore the bibliography printed in this book can be brief: we have not aimed at exhaustiveness, but merely to give an indication of the intellectual and scholarly background to *CGCG*.

Sections I–II list some large-scale reference works and online sources with full(er) bibliographies, which may be consulted by anyone interested in following up individual topics in more detail. Also listed are a few other useful online sources. Sections III–IV list works in the fields of general and historical linguistics which have helped shape our approach to Greek grammar. Sections V–VII list those books and articles on ancient Greek whose influence is visible, we believe, in major parts of *CGCG*, or which helped form our ideas in other important ways.

Note 1: The focus in the bibliography below is, then, on linguistics and Greek grammar. Naturally, we have also relied much on the wealth of learning assembled in general dictionaries, notably Liddell–Scott–Jones, and specialized lexica, as well as in commentaries written on the works from which our examples are taken. These are not individually mentioned below.

Note 2: In the case of edited collections containing more than one relevant article/chapter, we have listed the volumes as a whole rather than the individual pieces in them.

List of Books, Articles and Online Sources

I Encyclopedias, Companions (with Full Bibliographies)

Bakker, E. J. (ed.) 2010. A Companion to the Ancient Greek Language. Malden: Blackwell.

Giannakis, G. K. (ed.) 2013. Encyclopedia of Ancient Greek Language and Linguistics. Leiden: Brill.

Meier-Brügger, M. 1992. Griechische Sprachwissenschaft, 2 vols. Berlin: De Gruyter.

II Online Sources

(Note: no full web addresses are given below, as these may change; the resources are in any case more easily found by way of a search engine.)

Online Bibliographies:

- A Bibliography of Ancient Greek Linguistics (by M. Buijs)
- Oxford Bibliographies Online: Ancient Greek Language (by S. Colvin)
- Linguistic Bibliographies Online (Brill): Ancient Greek (by M. Janse)

Text Databases and Search Tools:

- Perseus Digital Library
- Perseus Under PhiloLogic
- Thesaurus Linguae Graecae

Encyclopedias, Companions

Of the resources listed under section I above, Bakker 2010 and Giannakis 2013 have online versions, to which many institutions provide access.

III General Works on Language and Linguistics

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IV Historical Linguistics (Indo-European, Greek Historical Grammar, Etymology) and Greek Dialectology

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VI Greek: Phonology, Morphology, Accentuation, Word Formation

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- Also from section IV above: Beekes & van Beek 2010, Chantraine 1961, 1968–80, Rix 1976, Threatte 1980–96, and all works under V.

VII Greek: Syntax, Semantics, Pragmatics, Discourse

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635	50.8 (11)	4.43	49.5 (11)
853	26.19 (71)	5.18	33.43 (66)
1012	36.1 (1)	6.11	32.13 (22)
1012	51.12 (28)	6.12	49.27 (55)
1150-1	36.9 (18)	7.25	52.4 (9)
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20.102	35.19 (31)	62.25.1	49.13 (28)
21.34	33.57 (86)	62.55.1	28.13 (29)
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23.209	49.13 (30)	3.17	38.12 (28)
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421-3	59.68 (113)	519	52.10 (41)
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224	50.26 (59)	1410	34.14 (24)
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1052	36.3 (7)	757	33.65 (101)
1072-3	50.2 (2)	1262	38.48 (75)
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326	46.8 (15)	64	28.25 (36)
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539	52.13 (52)	1.8.1	59.15 (14)
675	32.13 (20)	1.10.1-2	33.54 (81)
733-4	38.9 (22)	1.11.2	60.24 (38)
816-17	59.14 (12)	1.11.4	48.4 (7)
1051-2	30.30 (56)	1.11.5	32.15 (32)
1116-19	59.68 (112)	1.16.1-2	33.30 (37)
1271	34.8 (11)	1.30.3	52.5 (13)
Orestes (Or.)		1.31.4	25.31
285-7	50.23 (50)	1.31.5	35.13 (18)
638-40	34.13 (23)	1.32.4	30.3 (3)
725	59.57 (95)	1.32.9	51.8 (7)
1098-1103	59.29 (44)	1.34.1	51.49 (119)
1105	30.19 (31)	1.36.2-3	59.27 (41)
1539-40	38.16 (33)	1.45.2	52.44 (123)
1578	49.4 (7)	1.50.1	51.31 (73)
1643-5	59.13 (7)	1.51.1	30.52 (96)
Phoenissae (Phoen.)		1.53.3	30.29 (53)
696	52.9 (31)	1.56.2	52.24 (68)
897-9	59.27 (42)	1.59.1	59.15 (15)
1109-20	59.16 (19)	1.60.5	41.8 (12)
1121-2	52.41 (113)	1.62.1	52.36 (100)
1174-6	51.36 (90)	1.71.3	28.27 (44)
1307-8	59.58 (97)	1.71.3	29.6 (11)
1415-17	59.44 (70)	1.78.3	52.24 (73)
Supplices (Supp.)		1.82.1	59.70 (115)
572	37.3 (6)	1.87.3	30.44 (82)
821	38.39 (65)	1.87.4	59.50 (81)
Troades (Tro.)		1.90.3	41.8 (14)
106	36.6 (13)	1.96.2	41.14 (27)
359-60	52.5 (15)	1.114.1-2	33.49 (73)
489-90	27.14 (27)	1.120.1	29.34 (88)
641-2	52.43 (121)	1.125.1	52.24 (69)
867	33.34 (44)	1.140.2	52.8 (28)
898	30.50 (93)	1.140.2	59.62 (101)
970	33.43 (64)	1.153.2	48.1 (1)
Fragments		1.157.2	51.3 (5)
fr. 360.34-5	29.47 (106)	1.157.3	51.29 (69)
fr. 941.3	30.10 (14)	1.162.2	40.9 (5)
fr. 953.42-3	50.10 (16)	1.172.2	51.25 (58)
fr. 88a	51.35 (85)	1.182.1	59.24 (39)

	1 (6)		21.1 (2)
1.189.1	57.1 (6)	5.2.2	31.1 (3)
1.204.2	60.11 (12)	5.3.1	49.9 (20)
2.2.4	29.9 (22)	5.4.1	52.49 (137)
2.13.3	36.11 (23)	5.8	60.15 (19)
2.22.1	52.47 (132)	5.23.3	38.37 (61)
2.22.4	52.27 (80)	5.26	59.21 (31)
2.35.3	60.33 (53)	5.36.2	28.10 (17)
2.36.2	35.8 (7)	5.56.1	56.3 (1)
2.37.3	60.18 (28)	5.67.1	51.36 (95)
2.37.5	51.22 (54)	5.92η.2	28.12 (24)
2.47.3	25.44	5.92η.4	30.53 (99)
2.65.5	50.21 (45)	5.99.1	30.51 (95)
2.113.3	52.9 (32)	6.9.1	43.3 (2)
2.126.2	51.21 (51)	6.12.3	38.27 (47)
2.149.1	32.10 (15)	6.61.2	30.29 (52)
3.21.3	51.10 (22)	6.77.3	33.65 (103)
3.25.5	49.10 (23)	6.77.3	52.33 (97)
3.26.3	41.23 (49) 35.8 (5)	6.106.3	33.51 (76)
3.34.5 3.36.1	27.8 (16)	6.115	52.11 (45)
	29.41 (102)	6.123.2	49.4 (9) 33.29 (35)
3.50.3 3.59.1–2	33.30 (38)	6.125.5 6.135.1	30.15 (23)
3.65.3	32.12 (18)	7.8–8a.2	33.28 (33)
3.74.3	51.15 (37)	7.15.1	60.15 (21)
3.75.1	30.9 (8)	7.21.1	60.35 (57)
3.75.1	51.15 (38)	7.46.1	57.2 (7)
3.82.2	32.6 (4)	7.47.1	38.2 (8)
3.82.3	33.31 (40)	7.54.2	52.27 (81)
3.102.3	60.15 (20)	7.104.5	38.38 (62)
3.113.2	52.23 (67)	7.119.2	35.8 (8)
3.134.5	51.47 (117)	7.130.1	30.41 (78)
3.151.2	33.14 (10)	7.133.2	60.26 (41)
3.152	33.40 (57)	7.135.2	34.13 (18)
3.152	59.23 (34)	7.139.5	52.40 (109)
4.1.1	60.26 (40)	7.168.1	30.50 (92)
4.32	40.9 (2)	7.177.1	52.24 (71)
4.76.5	52.8 (27)	7.191.2	36.11 (20)
4.126	38.37 (60)	7.217.2	36.13 (27)
4.126	59.17 (21)	7.225.2	
4.128.2	33.7 (6)	8.3.2-4.1	59.10 (5)
4.134.3	47.8 (14)	8.37.2	60.16 (22)
4.135.2	35.8 (6)	8.61.2	30.13 (19)
4.151.1	36.11 (22)	8.68α.1	38.2 (11)
4.160.3	33.7 (7)	8.76.2	45.3 (6)
4.184.3	57.1 (4)	8.77.2	33.56 (84)
4.189.3	51.10 (17)	8.101.2	51.8 (12)
4.201.2	33.65 (104)	8.119-20	59.14 (11)

Herodotus (Hdt.) (cont.)		Isocrates (Isoc.)	
8.128.3	51.30 (70)	[1].3	52.18 (59)
8.136.2	52.23 (66)	[1].14	29.15 (39)
9.16.5	41.10 (21)	[1].29	28.13 (28)
9.27.1	36.10 (19)	2.45 15.12 (30)	
9.48.3	59.12 (6)	2.45	49.17 (35)
9.67	30.39 (74)	3.57	29.22 (60)
9.71.3	51.29 (68)	4.69	49.22 (48)
9.76.1	52.5 (22)	4.142	46.5 (5)
9.101.1	29.29 (75)	4.168	28.16 (30)
9.111.2	38.30 (52)	5.11	36.8 (14)
		5.53	39.3 (4)
Hippocrates/Hippocration	Corpus (Hippoc.)	6.48	50.14 (28)
De mulierum affectibus (N		6.89	39.3 (3)
37.30	33.46 (71)	6.108	34.6 (8)
		7.15	44.5 (8)
Homer (Hom.)		7.64	51.44 (111)
Iliad (Il.)		8.95	51.45 (113)
1.183-4	28.26 (40)	8.122	51.44 (110)
Odyssey (Od.)		9.3	28.12 (25)
5.300	43.5 (11)	9.7	37.3 (10)
		9.34	49.18 (38)
Hyperides (Hyp.)		9.53	28.12 (22)
In Athenogenem (Ath.)		11.33	59.61 (100)
15.5-11	46.4 (1)	12.126	52.50 (140)
Epitaphius (Epit.)		12.201	59.75 (122)
4.27	36.1 (2)	14.19–20	59.23 (32)
		15.75	59.50 (80)
Inscriptions (Inscription		15.106	50.13 (23)
<i>IG I</i> ³ 259 col.III 24–5	, ,	16.2	29.22 (61)
$IG I^3 1405$	26.13 (40)	16.20	51.10 (20)
		16.31	29.23 (65)
Isaeus (Isae.)		16.41	32.14 (25)
2.1	36.8 (16)	17.37	42.5 (9)
2.8	29.7 (14)	18.14	49.4 (6)
2.10	40.14 (14)	18.44	46.5 (4)
2.43	60.11 (13)	19.2	52.40 (110)
5.12	34.21 (46)	19.24	30.12 (17)
5.43	28.1 (2)	20.19	49.8 (19)
6.5	50.6 (6)	21.9	33.34 (43)
6.6	10.7 (2)	21.11	49.19 (42)
8.19	51.35 (88)		
9.3	52.25 (75)	Lycurgus (Lycurg.)	
9.27	29.22 (62)	1.131	34.4 (4)
9.27	35.13 (15)		
10.11	51.8 (8)		

T ····· (T ···)		20.27	22.14 (20)
Lysias (Lys.)	E0 12 (20)	20.27	32.14 (28)
1.1	50.12 (20)	24.1	33.60 (92)
1.6	30.8 (6)	24.4	59.73 (120)
1.6	46.7 (12)	24.6	30.15 (25)
1.10	33.23 (22)	25.14	52.10 (37)
1.10	59.20 (29)	27.7	49.18 (39)
1.12	28.28 (46)	29.1	32.13 (24)
1.12	29.5 (8)	30.30	36.15 (31)
1.15	29.5 (6)	30.33	50.28 (61)
1.16	28.17 (31)	32.7	30.9 (11)
1.17	59.37 (55)	32.11	52.37 (102)
1.18	41.16 (36)	• <i>(</i>)	
1.20	41.6 (6)	Menander (Men.)	
1.22	51.8 (10)	Citharista (Cith.)	
1.24–5	33.54 (82)	63	37.3 (5)
1.27	59.32 (47)	Sententiae (Sent.)	
2.40	59.48 (73)	11	33.16 (15)
2.42-3	46.6 (7)	437	52.48 (135)
2.72	32.13 (21)		
3.4	49.4 (4)	Pindar (Pind.)	
3.12	28.28 (45)	Isthmian Odes (Isthm.)	
3.21	40.15 (18)	1.49	29.39 (100)
3.28	41.7 (8)	Nemean Odes (Nem.)	
3.31	59.56 (93)	11.1	59.37 (58)
6.1	52.19 (61)	Olympian Odes (Ol.)	
7.5	41.6 (7)	6.1-3	47.17 (40)
7.41	49.17 (34)	10.1-3	33.35 (48)
[8].9	49.10 (22)		
9.2	49.4 (5)	Plato (Pl.)	
9.21	49.8 (17)	Alcibiades (Alc.)	
12.5–12	61.1	1.119b	34.17 (39)
12.5-7	59.34 (53)	Apologia Socratis (Ap.)	
12.7	30.31 (58)	17a	26.15 (51)
12.12	30.27 (50)	17a	30.2 (2)
12.19	51.26 (61)	17 c-d	40.9 (6)
12.22	41.6 (5)	18c	29.30 (77)
12.25	59.19 (25)	18e	29.33 (87)
12.27	50.13 (24)	19c	30.12 (16)
12.70	51.12 (29)	20e-21a	38.30 (50)
12.74	40.12 (13)	21a	51.23 (57)
12.88	39.3 (5)	21b	29.7 (13)
13.16	34.16 (27)	21b	51.33 (80)
13.25	51.10 (21)	22b	52.26 (77)
13.45	41.20 (44)	22d	29.31 (82)
13.71	29.9 (24)	24b	52.43 (120)
13.93	30.22 (37)	24d-e	59.10 (3)
14.32-3	51.26 (62)	25d	38.30 (51)
16.7	29.33 (86)	26d	29.28 (71)
20.17	52.24 (70)	29b	29.38 (97)

Apologia Socratis (Ap.) (co	ont.)	2b-c	59.59 (98)
29c	49.26 (53)	4c	47.7 (5)
29d	27.14 (25)	4e	52.11 (43)
29d	47.12 (27)	9c	60.11 (14)
32d	29.18 (46)	12e	30.37 (69)
33c	52.15 (55)	15a-b	59.42 (64)
34a	34.19 (44)	Gorgias (Grg.)	
37a	51.49 (120)	449b	28.27 (43)
38e	52.10 (39)	449b-c	59.49 (76)
39a	34.10 (17)	453e	29.8 (19)
39c	59.66 (107)	456a	52.28 (85)
39e	30.39 (72)	458b	51.20 (50)
39e	47.12 (24)	462b	38.6 (15)
40c	49.10 (24)	462b	38.30 (48)
41d	56.4 (2)	462e	34.10 (16)
41e	47.8 (13)	467b	51.3 (4)
Charmides (Chrm.)		467b	59.66 (109)
153b	47.14 (36)	473d	32.9 (13)
159b	34.6 (7)	474b-c	59.33 (50)
171e	50.22 (48)	479c	46.9 (18)
174a	59.19 (26)	483b	28.9 (16)
Cratylus (Cra.)		484 c-485a	61.7
390b	42.3 (3)	490e	52.42 (119)
390b	52.49 (138)	491d	30.10 (13)
390e	50.11 (17)	492b-c	52.44 (124)
391b	59.60 (99)	494e	52.26 (78)
391e	38.13 (29)	497a	51.39 (100)
398b	41.18 (38)	498a	26.16 (55)
420c	33.25 (28)	509a	51.37 (96)
Crito (Cri.)		510c	33.45 (68)
46b	46.10 (19)	516e	34.16 (33)
49a	59.10 (4)	527b	37.2 (1)
54a	45.3 (1)	527c	37.3 (7)
Critias (Criti.)		Hippias maior (Hp. mai.)	
111c	33.2 (2)	282b	29.30 (80)
114a	60.1 (4)	Ion	
Euthydemus (Euthd.)		533c	29.17 (41)
275a-b	59.44 (68)	540b	26.27 (87)
275d	52.39 (106)	540b	26.27 (88)
276b	50.19 (41)	540e	49.10 (26)
276d	50.19 (42)	Laches (La.)	
276e	41.19 (40)	180e	27.5 (11)
279d	52.24 (72)	182d-e	59.69 (114)
295b	50.37 (75)	184a	47.12 (26)
295d	41.14 (26)	Leges (Leg.)	
299d	29.37 (94)	656d	51.18 (46)
Euthyphro (Euthphr.)	Section of the Contract	663e	59.49 (78)
2b	29.31 (83)	712a	51.41 (107)

730d	52.2 (5)	258b	33.61 (97)
768a	47.9 (16)	263b	29.20 (57)
800d	40.9 (4)	2030 276a	50.11 (19)
839b	51.12 (31)	Philebus (Phlb.)	30.11 (19)
888b	27.5 (12)	11e	32.7 (11)
Lysis (Ly.)	27.3 (12)	36c	38.15 (31)
203a-b	60.23 (37)	37d	51.21 (53)
203a-0 208c	35.14 (19)	41b	50.37 (79)
211d	33.21 (21)	43a	59.57 (94)
Meno (Men.)	33.21 (21)	52c	48.4 (9)
71d-e	26.13 (34)	53d	10.7 (4)
71d=c 72b	38.15 (31)	Politicus (Plt.)	10.7 (4)
82a	41.2 (1)	282b	33.36 (51)
82a	42.3 (1)	291d	30.14 (22)
93b	33.14 (12)	Parmenides (Prm.)	30.11 (22)
Menexenus (Menex.)	33.11 (12)	139d	32.14 (26)
241b	30.47 (88)	151a	29.11 (28)
241d	52.25 (76)	Protagoras (Prt.)	23.11 (20)
246a	51.11 (27)	309d	30.15 (26)
Phaedo (Phd.)	()	310a	33.33 (42)
57a	29.9 (25)	310b	35.17 (29)
59d	47.12 (29)	310e	30.8 (7)
59d-e	47.1 (2)	316b	30.26 (45)
60c	60.24 (39)	316b	52.31 (90)
61d-e	38.2 (6)	317d	38.33 (55)
67a	47.8 (11)	318d	50.15 (32)
68c	50.37 (74)	320b	59.34 (52)
69c	28.7 (12)	327b	29.26 (69)
76c	26.13 (33)	328d	30.31 (59)
77e	47.12 (28)	328d	33.7 (5)
87a	52.28 (84)	332b	59.33 (48)
92d	59.56 (91)	334d	30.53 (100)
93b-c	59.28 (43)	335c	48.4 (8)
102b	30.24 (42)	350c	49.10 (25)
115d	42.8 (17)	358a	30.40 (76)
117c	51.36 (89)	Respublica (Resp.)	
118a	12.50 n.2	327b	29.18 (52)
Phaedrus (Phdr.)		329e	30.41 (79)
227a	38.23 (37)	338c	33.45 (69)
227c	38.50 (77)	353d	59.13 (8)
232a	36.13 (25)	364a	27.8 (17)
238c	59.18 (22)	394a	51.13 (35)
245c	52.9 (33)	398e	37.2 (2)
249e	28.9 (15)	417b	35.13 (17)
257c	41.2 (2)	420e	49.6 (15)
257c	52.53 (144)	421b	37.3 (11)
257d	43.3 (3)	432b	27.9 (20)

Respublica (Resp.) (cont.)		441-2	59.44 (67)
444d	34.13 (19)	442	51.35 (86)
453b	30.14 (21)	521	42.3 (2)
459a	38.7 (19)	524-6	59.71 (117)
473c	51.33 (82)	554	38.50 (79)
487e	47.14 (33)	572	38.47 (73)
523b	38.12 (27)	661-2	35.30 (35)
531e	50.13 (27)	710–11	49.15 (31)
538c	59.55 (88)	755	34.16 (28)
583b	29.17 (44)	928-9	34.14 (26)
615c	42.7 (16)	1036-9	34.20 (45)
Sophista (Soph.)		1102-3	59.53 (86)
220b	59.63 (103)	1216-18	42.4 (5)
243d	10.7 (1)	1296	38.12 (26)
254e	10.7 (5)	Electra (El.)	
Symposium (Symp.)		80-1	38.17 (35)
178e	46.8 (17)	103-4	30.21 (32)
189d	32.15 (31)	333-4	60.12 (16)
196c	30.21 (35)	539-40	29.5 (10)
197d	30.22 (39)	893	30.17 (29)
213e	59.10(1)	950	21.2 n.1
220d	33.41 (61)	954–7	60.35 (58)
[Theages] (Thg.)		1056-7	47.8 (15)
127a	49.17 (36)	1106-7	29.38 (99)
Theaetetus (Tht.)		1171–2	46.6 (8)
142a	59.49 (77)	1179	38.50 (78)
146d	35.15 (22)	Oedipus Coloneus (OC)	
158a	48.2 (3)	66	29.7 (15)
198e	42.5 (11)	472–3	50.17 (37)
208e	47.12 (25)	642	34.2 (3)
Timaeus (Ti.)		726–7	59.66 (108)
24e	52.27 (82)	747–9	51.30 (72)
39d-e	45.3 (7)	810	32.14 (30)
		831	38.1 (1)
Sophocles (Soph.)		1130-4	59.23 (33)
Ajax (Aj.)	2414(25)	1143-4	51.8 (11)
550-1	34.14 (25)	1344–5	36.4 (10)
688-9	49.6 (13)	1645	52.21 (64)
1120-41	61.12	Oedipus Tyrannus (OT)	(0.1.1.(1.0)
1349–53	59.51 (83)	95	60.14 (18)
Antigone (Ant.)	12 1 (6)	103-4	47.14 (37)
37-8	42.4 (6)	112	38.10 (23)
63-4	51.16 (43)	142-3	30.34 (65)
89–90	49.19 (45)	341	29.12 (29)
155-8	29.29 (73)	360	38.7 (18)
192–3	52.53 (143)	406-7	38.36 (59)
233–4	49.24 (49)	449–51	50.14 (29)

	25 22 (25)		
457-8	35.30 (36)	Theognis (Thgn.)	22 24 (22)
557	29.8 (21)	665	33.31 (39)
747	43.4 (6)		
757–8	38.6 (16)	Thucydides (Thuc.)	20.10 (10)
775–7	47.15 (38)	1.1.1	28.10 (18)
809–13	59.49 (79)	1.1.1	32.8 (12)
1064	38.1 (3)	1.1.2	59.44 (66)
1074–5	44.7 (12)	1.6.3	32.10 (16)
1157	38.40 (67)	1.6.5	35.11 (11)
1217–18	34.18 (42)	1.18.2	52.41 (114)
1266–7	30.47 (87)	1.27.2	35.2 (2)
1469–70	29.6 (12)	1.31.1	35.2 (1)
1500	38.12 (25)	1.32.5	52.12 (47)
Philoctetes (Phil.)		1.36.3	38.35 (57)
28–9	38.10 (24)	1.40.2	52.40 (111)
56	42.5 (8)	1.45.3	51.42 (109)
70–1	5.1 (1)	1.46.1	30.50 (91)
103	34.13 (21)	1.48.3	29.26 (68)
103	34.9 (15)	1.49.3	47.10 (21)
108-9	38.21 (36)	1.49.7	46.7 (14)
426–7	10.7 (3)	1.50.5	36.1 (4)
486–7	34.7 (10)	1.51.2	29.31 (81)
509	50.29 (66)	1.55.1	33.60 (95)
549-50	60.37 (59)	1.61.1	60.37 (60)
785–6	26.28 (92)	1.62.4	51.36 (93)
914	48.5 (14)	1.63.1	42.8 (18)
981–2	49.19 (41)	1.78.4	50.38 (80)
993	26.13 (35)	1.82.4	38.26 (42)
1068	52.44 (125)	1.86.2	52.13 (51)
1322–3	49.13 (27)	1.87.4	41.9 (16)
1337–8	50.8 (12)	1.89.3	30.49 (89)
1399–1400	34.19 (43)	1.91.3	33.26 (30)
Trachiniae (Trach.)		1.95.5	60.8 (5)
40-1	42.7 (13)	1.97.2	35.17 (28)
305	29.29 (74)	1.99.3	45.3 (5)
400	50.2 (1)	1.103.1	49.26 (54)
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671	37.4 (12)	1.107.1	52.27 (79)
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1126	46.7 (10)	1.116.1	29.12 (33)
1245	38.16 (34)	1.126.1	45.3 (4)
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2.36.1	52.5 (20)	4.113.2	52.12 (48)
2.43.3-4	50.16 (33)	4.134.1	60.32 (49)
2.56.6	30.25 (44)	5.23.2	50.3 (4)
2.71.3	29.32 (85)	5.26.1	29.8 (17)
2.83.1	51.10 (19)	5.26.1	33.35 (46)
2.87.9	35.30 (33)	5.32.4	52.5 (19)
2.89.4	48.4 (12)	5.51.2	27.2 (1)
2.91.2	52.37 (101)	5.59.5	27.3 (7)
2.93.4	28.12 (26)	6.1.1	32.6 (6)
2.97.3	30.28 (51)	6.15.5	59.64 (104)
2.100.5	46.4 (3)	6.29.3	51.11 (26)
2.101.6	29.23 (63)	6.31.1	51.33 (83)
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3.18.1	47.7 (7)	6.84.1	38.26 (44)
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3.49.3	28.27 (41)	6.96.1	45.3 (3)
3.53.2	43.5 (9)	7.1.2	36.4 (8)
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1.2.6	33.55 (83)	1.8.26	26.16 (54)
1.2.7	33.55 (83)	1.8.27	52.8 (30)
1.2.7	47.10 (19)	1.9.1	26.3 (1)
1.2.10	26.8 (23)	1.9.3	33.15 (14)
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2.2.18	26.15 (49)	4.1.5	46.10 (20)
2.4.1	26.4 (10)	4.1.13	26.12 (30)
2.4.5	26.14 (46)	4.1.19	41.16 (37)
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2.4.16	41.5 (4)	4.2.11	26.26 (86)
2.5.3	26.4 (14)	4.3.9	57.1 (5)
2.5.3-4	52.28 (83)	4.3.23	52.3 (6)
2.5.12	50.25 (56)	4.4.1	30.16 (28)
2.5.16	45.4 (9)	4.5.10	41.13 (25)
2.5.22	52.33 (96)	4.5.22	30.25 (43)
2.5.34	26.26 (85)	4.5.33	26.18 (66)
2.5.38	26.9 (25)	4.6.1	29.7 (16)
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3.2.9	26.20 (74)	5.6.9	50.17 (36)
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3.2.15	36.5 (12)	5.6.17	33.61 (96)
3.2.17	33.2 (1)	5.7.34	26.12 (31)
3.2.24	52.8 (29)	5.8.6	26.28 (94)
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3.3.2	26.9 (24)	6.3.11	33.28 (31)
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3.3.9	36.8 (15)	6.5.26	26.25 (83)
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3.3.16	51.36 (92)	6.5.49	35.15 (23)
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3.4.13	26.8 (21)	7.1.16	41.16 (33)
3.4.17	26.8 (22)	7.1.17	26.18 (69)
3.4.18	47.1 (4)	7.1.21	51.12 (32)

7.1.22	26.7 (19)	3.2.15	26.19 (70)
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7.3.8	50.20 (44)	3.3.40	29.12 (32)
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7.3.26	60.18 (27)	4.1.5	28.7 (13)
7.6.12	29.10 (27)	4.2.1	60.32 (51)
7.6.14	50.34 (70)	4.2.3	42.11 (20)
7.6.23	34.17 (35)	4.2.4	41.20 (46)
7.6.23	50.26 (60)	4.2.11	50.28 (63)
7.6.42	26.18 (67)	4.2.23	45.3 (2)
7.6.44	41.9 (19)	4.2.40	28.25 (35)
7.7.1	35.13 (16)	4.3.3	51.26 (60)
7.7.12	52.45 (126)	4.3.10	41.7 (10)
7.7.53	26.7 (18)	4.5.21	42.8 (19)
7.8.11	26.15 (47)	4.5.23	32.6 (8)
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3.10	60.11 (15)	5.1.21	46.7 (11)
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1.5.11	38.25 (40)	7.2.5	30.37 (68)
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1.6.21	34.13 (20)	7.3.14	42.11 (21)
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2.1.11	40.12 (10)	8.2.16	51.27 (66)
2.1.17	29.51 (111)	8.4.26	60.1 (2)
2.2.8	51.32 (78)	8.5.26	28.18 (32)
2.2.24	30.3 (4)	8.6.22	59.14 (10)
2.4.9	42.11 (23)	8.7.10	31.1 (2)
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7.7	49.19 (44)	5.4.39	52.39 (107)
7.8	28.1 (1)	6.2.7	47.10 (20)
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1.1.8	29.51 (110)	6.4.15	50.12 (21)
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1.1.28	29.19 (55)	6.5.37	29.38 (95)
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1.6.14	59.53 (84)	7.1.8	49.19 (43)
1.6.35	51.3 (3)	7.1.11	26.3 (3)
1.7.8	29.20 (56)	7.1.22	47.1 (1)
2.1.6	35.17 (26)	7.1.34	41.10 (20)
2.3.2	50.24 (54)	7.1.34	41.19 (41)
2.3.11	50.24 (55)	7.2.9	33.53 (80)
2.3.26	30.40 (77)	7.3.1	60.33 (54)
2.3.30	35.14 (20)	7.3.11	59.47 (72)
2.3.34	29.17 (43)	7.4.2	51.41 (106)
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4.5.7	28.4 (5)	4.4.6	29.8 (20)
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As throughout the book, \rightarrow stands for 'see'.

Within entries, general references are given first, followed by more specific references, organized alphabetically (with Greek words following English words). However, references to Part I (Phonology/Morphology) are listed together before those to Parts II (Syntax) and/or Part III (Textual Coherence), if both occur: they are separated by three vertical bars |||. The same divider is used to set off, at the end of entries, references to further relevant entries, of the type 'also \rightarrow '.

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