

GREEK IN EIGHT DAYS!!!!

Greek Declensions, Tenses, Moods, and Other Mandatory Grammatical Fun!!

DAY ONE: ἄλφα βῆτα καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ (κ.τ.λ.=etc.)

The alphabet, pronunciation, and accents will keep us busy for the first day!

Α α	alpha	a (short: <i>drama</i> long: <i>father</i>)
Β β	beta	b
Γ γ	gamma	g (hard g: <i>get</i>)
Δ δ	delta	d
Ε ε	epsilon	e (always short: <i>get</i>)
Ζ ζ	zeta	z (zd as in <i>wisdom</i>) (double consonant)
Η η	eta	e (always long: <i>gate</i>)
Θ θ	theta	th (<i>theater</i>)
Ι ι	iota	i (short: <i>bit</i> long: <i>meet</i>)
Κ κ	kappa	k
Λ λ	lambda	l
Μ μ	mu	m
Ν ν	nu	n
Ξ ξ	xi	x (ks as in <i>tax, coax</i>) (double consonant)
Ο ο	omicron	o (always short as in <i>top, hot</i>)
Π π	pi	p
Ρ ρ	rho	r (always with rough breathing at beginning of word)
Σ σ	sigma	s (ς if last letter in a word)
Τ τ	tau	t
Υ υ	upsilon	u (short: <i>put</i> long: <i>boot</i>)
Φ φ	phi	ph (<i>pharmacy, philosophy</i>)
Χ χ	chi	ch (<i>character, stomach, backhand</i>)
Ψ ψ	psi	ps (<i>apse, upset, flaps</i>) (double consonant)
Ω ω	omega	o (always long: <i>total, Rome</i>)

Recommendation: divide up the alphabet into groups and sing it to the tune of a song you know! Also, did you notice that Zeta Eta Theta? I didn't even know Zeta was hungry.

Long and Short Vowels:

η ω always LONG

ε ο always SHORT

α, ι, υ either short or long

Diphthongs (δίφθογγος, ον with two sounds):

fun vocabulary item: διφθογγίζω write with a diphthong

αι	ai (<i>aisle</i>)
ει	ei (<i>neighbor, weight</i>)
οι	oi (<i>toil</i>)
υι	wi (<i>wit</i>)
αυ	au (<i>how</i>)

ευ	ε+υ (quick glide from one to the other)
ηυ	η+υ
ου	ου (<i>soup</i>)

Iota Subscript: (Make an iota of difference...become a lifetime iota subscriber!)
When the long vowels α, η, ω are combined with a short iota, the iota is written below the long vowel (except in the case of capitalized vowels-- α vs. Αι).

Gamma Combined with another Palatal:

when a gamma is directly followed by another palatal (κ, γ, χ, ξ), it gets nasalized and pronounced as *n* or *ng*. Examples: ἄγγελος, ἄγκυρα, λάρυγξ, Σφίγξ, Ὁξύρρυγχος

Breathing Marks (placed over initial vowels and diphthongs):

The rough breathing mark (᾿) gives us the *h* sound at the beginning of words. The smooth breathing mark (᾿̄) simply indicates the lack of an initial *h* sound and is not pronounced at all. The breathing mark appears to the left of capital letters but otherwise appears directly above initial vowels and over the second vowel of an initial diphthong.

Syllables:

A Greek word has as many syllables as it has vowels and diphthongs (αὐ-τό-νο-μος)

Classification of Consonants:

This will be very helpful to you at various points in your Greek career (i.e. the rest of your natural life!).

Labials	π	β	φ
Palatals	κ	γ	χ
Dentals	τ	δ	θ (mnemonic: "the dentals")

Double Consonants: ζ, ξ, ψ

A labial (π, β, φ) in combination with σ produces the double consonant ψ.

A palatal (κ, γ, χ) in combination with σ produces the double consonant ξ.

A BRIEF SUMMARY OF GREEK ACCENTING RULES

1. The **grave** accent (`): The least complicated and flexible of the accents
 - appears over short vowels, long vowels, and diphthongs
 - only appears on the ultima
 - only serves to replace an acute accent when another word directly follows.
e.g. ψυχὴ ἀγαθή
2. The **circumflex** accent (~): Moderately complicated and flexible
 - only appears on long vowels or diphthongs
 - appears on the ultima or the penult
 - can only appear on the penult when the ultima is short
e.g. δῶρον but δῶρου
3. The **acute** accent (´): The most complicated and flexible of the accents
 - appears over short vowels, long vowels, and diphthongs
 - appears on the ultima, penult, and antepenult

-- can only appear on the antepenult when the ultima is short. e.g., ἄνθρωπος but ἀνθρώπου

PERSISTENT AND RECESSIVE ACCENTING

Nouns and adjectives have given persistent accents which attempt to stay where they are, and only move when forced by the rules for accenting. Often the quantity of the ultima determines whether the accent must change or not, and so **remember to check the ultima**. See the above example of ἄνθρωπος in 3. Before moving to another syllable, the accent will prefer to change into a different type of accent. See the above example of δῶρον in 2. Verbs have recessive accents which always try to go back as far as possible while still respecting the rules for accenting.

PLACEMENT OF ACCENTS AND BREATHING MARKS

As with breathing marks, accents are only placed over vowels and diphthongs. In the case of diphthongs, the accents and breathing marks appear over the second vowel (e.g., οὐρανός, Ἀθηναῖοι). On occasion, a Greek word will have a word like οἰζύς where ο and ι are adjacent but not functioning as a diphthong. You can tell by the placement of the breathing mark (over first vowel) and by the mark of diaeresis (looks like an umlaut) that this is in fact a three-syllable word. Don't read anything into the fact that the sample word happens to mean "woe, misery"! Greek accents are fun!

Vowel Quantities:

Remember that α, ι, υ can be either short or long, while ε, ο are always short and η, ω are always long. Diphthongs are considered long for accenting with one exception:

--οι and αι are considered short for accenting if they are **the very last letters of a word** (and so they are still long if any letter comes after them).

Examples: ἄνθρωποι but ἀνθρώποις

NOTE: exception to the exception: in the optative mood, οι and αι are considered long for accenting (even though this is several days away in your Greek future, you can already see how useful accents can be distinguishing forms).

FUN GAME: Find your own name in Greek! Here is mine: εἰρήκασι (3rd pl. perfect active indicative "they have spoken"). Some names are easy like μέλισσα ("bee") but others will mysteriously appear before you (e.g., μέγαν masc. acc. sing. of adj. "great").

DAY TWO: The First and Second Declension Nouns, the Definite Articles and Adjectives!!

FIRST DECLENSION (FEMININE)

	Singular	(long α if stem ends in ε, ι, ρ)	Plural
Nom./Voc.	-η	-α	-αι
Gen.	-ης	-ας	-ῶν
Dat.	-ῃ	-α	-αῖς
Acc.	-ην	-αν	-ας

Note: there are some additional variations on the singular endings for the first-declension nouns but the plural endings are always the same: (say them with me!) αι, ῶν, αῖς, ας. Note as well that the acc. pl. -ας has a long alpha (cf. 3rd declension acc. pl. -ας with a short alpha).

Note: throughout Greek, the vocative plural is identical with the nominative plural (while the vocative singular occasionally differs from the nominative singular). I have only written out the vocative singular forms when they differ from the nominative.

Note: ALL Greek nouns ending in -η, -ης are feminine.

Note: I have put a circumflex on the gen. pl. ending because that is a fixed accent for all first declension nouns (reflects a contraction from -ᾶων or -ἔων to -ῶν).

Examples:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
τέχνη	τέχναι	χώρα	χώραι	ψυχή	ψυχάι
τέχνης	τεχνῶν	χώρας	χωρῶν	ψυχῆς	ψυχῶν
τέχνη	τέχναις	χώρα	χώραις	ψυχῇ	ψυχαῖς
τέχνην	τέχνας	χώραν	χώρας	ψυχῆν	ψυχάς

FIRST DECLENSION (MASCULINE)

	Singular	(long α if stem ends in ε, ι, ρ)	Plural
Nom.	-ης	-ας	-αι
Gen.	-ου	-ου	-ῶν
Dat.	-ῃ	-α	-αῖς
Acc.	-ην	-αν	-ας
Voc.	-α, -η	-α	-αι

In this variation on the first declension, nouns ending in -ης, -ου (or -ας, -ου) are **masculine**.

Note: the vocative singular is different from the nominative singular in this type of noun. Most of the time, this type of noun uses -α for the vocative sing. (short α in ης, ου nouns; long α in ας, ου nouns) but some words have -η. Contrast this with the feminine first-declension nouns ending in -η, -ης (or -α, -ας) where the nom. and voc. singular are always the same (and so not listed separately).

Examples:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
πολίτης	πολίται	ποιητής	ποιηταί	νεανίας	νεανίαι
πολίτου	πολιτῶν	ποιητοῦ	ποιητῶν	νεανίου	νεανιῶν
πολίτη	πολιταῖς	ποιητῇ	ποιηταῖς	νεανία	νεανίαῖς
πολίτην	πολίτας	ποιητῆν	ποιητάς	νεανίαν	νεανίας
πολίτα		ποιητά		νεανία	

Note: the nom. sing. and accus. plural are exactly the same for νεανίας. *quam gelidum!*

Final Variations on the First Declension Singular Forms!

Examples: θάλαττα, ης, ἡ sea μοῖρα, ας, ἡ fate

Nom. -α	θάλαττα	μοῖρα
Gen. -ης	θαλάττης	μοίρας
Dat. -ῆ	θαλάττῃ	μοίρα
Acc. -αν	θάλατταν	μοῖραν

Note: the alphas in the nom. and acc. for these words are short and so we have a mix of short and long vowels in the endings for this variation on the first declension. You could think of θάλαττα as an "eta sandwich" with short (alpha) bread. You can tell the alpha is short on the nom. and acc. by the accents. When at the Grammar Café, be sure to order a beverage as it is always fun to bring the latte to θαλάττῃ.

Accent Reminder: remember that the acute accent can only be on the antepenult if the ultima is short and similarly the circumflex can only be on the penult if the ultima is short. The general principle is that the accent can only appear on its furthest perch if the ultima is short. That final syllable is really the ultimate decider!

Note: I have not listed the plural forms because they are the same as all first declension plural endings: -αι, -ῶν, -αῖς, -ας.

Note: As always, you can identify the particular version of the first declension (as with any declension in Greek or Latin) by the nom. and gen. singular. This is why any self-respecting Greek lexicon will list both. As we'll see soon, the gen. sing. is also helpful to know as it provides an accurate glimpse of the root of the noun (spoiler alert: you need to know the gen. sing. for the third declension as the nom. is often misleading!).

SECOND DECLENSION (MOSTLY MASCULINE)

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	-ος	-οι
Gen.	-ου	-ων
Dat.	-ω	-οις
Acc.	-ον	-ους
Voc.	-ε	

Note: most nouns with these endings are masculine but there are a small number of feminine ones and the definite article will be the way to tell (and any adjectives agreeing with those nouns, of course). Examples of feminine nouns: ἡ ὁδός path; ἡ νῆσος island

Mnemonic Alert: the accusative plural can be thought of as the akousative!

Examples:

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom.	ἄνθρωπος	ἄνθρωποι	ἀδελφός	ἀδελφοί
Gen.	ἀνθρώπου	ἀνθρώπων	ἀδελφοῦ	ἀδελφῶν
Dat.	ἀνθρώπῳ	ἀνθρώποις	ἀδελφῷ	ἀδελφοῖς
Acc.	ἄνθρωπον	ἀνθρώπους	ἀδελφόν	ἀδελφούς
Voc.	ἄνθρωπε		ἄδελφε	

Note: The vocative for the second declension is -ε which should be a friendly form for Latin students (-e as in *Marce*).

Charming Accenting Quirk: the voc. sing. of ἀδελφός is irregular and an exception to the accenting rules. Charming, n'est-ce pas? The vocative plurals in second-declension nouns are always the same as the nom. plurals and so I have not listed them separately.

SECOND DECLENSION (NEUTER)

	Singular	Plural
Nom./Voc.	-ον	-α
Gen.	-ου	-ων
Dat.	-ω	-οις
Acc.	-ον	-α

Note: the genitive and dative endings are the same as for the 2nd declension masc./fem nouns. Fun Game: compare the endings of the second declension! that's the whole game!

Examples:

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom.	δῶρον	δῶρα	ἔργον	ἔργα
Gen.	δώρου	δώρων	ἔργου	ἔργων
Dat.	δώρω	δώροις	ἔργω	ἔργοις
Acc.	δῶρον	δῶρα	ἔργον	ἔργα

Note: the nom. and acc. for all Greek neuter words match in their endings. So, δῶρον is either nom. or acc. sing. (or voc.), and δῶρα is either nom. or acc. pl. (or voc.). The vocative is always the same as the nominative in second-declension neuter nouns and so I have not listed it separately.

Seriously Cool Grammatical Quirk: in a largely successful effort to be charming, Greek neuter plural subjects take *singular* verbs!!!

Accenting Note: for all first and second declension nouns, when a noun has an acute accent on the ultima in the nom. sing., the accent changes to a circumflex in the genitive and dative (both singular and plural). This is just a charming quirk of the language and a minor departure from the otherwise mostly consistent accenting rules you have already learned. You probably already noticed this bit of Greek awesomeness in the paradigms above but here again is an example of this pattern: ψυχή, ψυχῆς, ψυχῆ, ψυχῆν, ψυχαί, ψυχῶν, ψυχαῖς, ψυχάς. Here is another: ἀδελφός, ἀδελφοῦ, ἀδελφῶ, ἀδελφόν, κ.τ.λ. As you will see below, this same accenting shift in gen./dat. cases occurs also in the definite article.

BASIC CASE USES

You will be pleased to learn that many of the basic case uses you learned in Latin are the same in Greek. The subject goes into the nominative case while the direct object goes into the accusative (unless it is a verb that happens to govern a different case). The genitive is used commonly for possession--you can think of it as the genitOF (as the genitive corresponds to many uses of the English word "of"). The dative is used for the indirect object and more generally for reference just as it is in Latin. Since Greek doesn't have an ablative case, those uses (separation, accompaniment, etc.) are spread out over the Greek genitive and dative cases. As with Latin, certain types of verbs will govern particular cases. For instance, verbs of ruling, beginning, touching, grasping, remembering, and forgetting all take their objects in the genitive case. Verbs meaning to please, trust, benefit, advise all take the dative case. I will keep you apprised of the basic case uses as we go along

(particularly those that differ from Latin). In case you were worried, there are plenty of case uses to learn as you will see! As Grammar Detectives you are always on the case!

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ὁ	ἡ	τό
Gen.	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ
Dat.	τῷ	τῇ	τῷ
Acc.	τόν	τήν	τό
Nom. pl.	οἱ	αἱ	τά
Gen.	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν
Dat.	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς
Acc.	τούς	τάς	τά

First, take a moment to congratulate yourself on learning a language where the definite article declines and has gender! This is definitely *the* coolest part of *the* day...

Proclitic Alert: The masc. and fem. nom. (both sing. and pl.) are lacking both the initial τ common to the other forms and they are also lacking an accent. They are examples of a small class of words known as *proclitics*. Another common proclitic is the negating adverb οὐ, οὐκ, οὐχ. These are to be distinguished from the charming class of words known as *enclitics* (i.e. words which sometimes have an accent depending on the word preceding them) which we will tackle a bit later.

Accenting Note: as mentioned above, the gen. and dat. (both sing. and pl.) have a circumflex accent just as we saw with first and second declension nouns naturally accented with an accent on the ultima.

Iota Subscript Alert: note the **iota subscript in the dat. sing. forms!**

Mnemonic Fun: for music fans, you can think of the gen. pl. as a Greek tri-των. The dative singular sounds like "potato" and could be called the definite "starchicle."

USES OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE:

The definite article will most immediately be extremely helpful in telling you the gender of a noun (not always obvious from the noun forms themselves). You will soon feel grateful for the existence of the Greek definite article and you may even start to wonder why Latin doesn't have such a useful form. You will also be relieved to hear that the definite article has a wide array of uses and is generally more flexible than the English definite article ("the"). Don't stress too much about this right now as these uses will become more familiar to you over time, but I thought it would be helpful to give you a list of common uses for the definite article:

- for a particular individual and a generic class (only context can distinguish those uses).
- for abstract nouns (ἡ ἀρετή "excellence") or substantives (τὸ ἀγαθόν "the good")
- for proper names (ὁ Πλάτων, ὁ Σωκράτης)
- for the sense of a possessive adjective (ὁ λόγος his/her speech--depending on context) although Greek does have specific possessive adjectives as well (you will come to see that the Greeks seem to have a word for almost anything and everything! Greek has a charmingly immense vocabulary and includes the following: ἀποδενδρόμαι "be turned into a tree"; κακοδαιμονάω "be tormented by an evil genius/spirit" κ.τ.λ.).

Note: the definite article is often omitted for the name of a unique or very well known thing (e.g., ἐν ἀγορᾷ "in the marketplace"). More generally, you will come to see that the Greeks often felt free to include or omit the definite article. There are some instances where the presence or absence of an article really matters and is vital to the meaning, but often the article just seems to drift in and out of sentences like a nice summer breeze (i.e. pleasant but not always necessary).

In the examples below, take note of how similar the endings of the definite article are to the first and second declension noun endings. The definite article is particularly useful for nouns like ἡ ὁδός as most second declension nouns in -ος are masculine (as noted above).

Historical Note: As we'll see when reading brief selections from Homer in the last day or two, the definite article used to have a wider range of uses and could be used as a personal pronoun, demonstrative, or even a relative pronoun! *quam gelidum!*

Nom. sg.	ὁ λόγος	ἡ χώρα	ἡ ὁδός
Gen.	τοῦ λόγου	τῆς χώρας	τῆς ὁδοῦ
Dat.	τῷ λόγῳ	τῇ χώρᾳ	τῇ ὁδῷ
Acc.	τὸν λόγον	τὴν χώραν	τὴν ὁδόν
Voc. sg.	λόγε		ὀδέ
Nom./Voc. pl.	οἱ λόγοι	αἱ χώραι	αἱ ὁδοί
Gen.	τῶν λόγων	τῶν χωρῶν	τῶν ὁδῶν
Dat.	τοῖς λόγοις	ταῖς χωραῖς	ταῖς ὁδοῖς
Acc.	τούς λόγους	τάς χώρας	τάς ὁδοὺς

Note: the definite article does not have any vocative forms (I know--it's sad--I may write an article about it for the local grammar news--or should that be ν's?).

Reminder of who your friends are: the definite article is definitely your friend and will never lead you astray as to the gender of a given noun, and so even though you might be tempted to think that ὁδός is masculine based on the endings, the definite article makes it absolutely (even *definitively*) clear that the word is in fact feminine. No matter what charming noun forms you may encounter in the future, these definite article forms will always be the same.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

These adjectives use the same endings as the first and second declensions listed above and they modify nouns (or stand alone as substantives) just as you would expect. Note that the accenting quirk of the first declension nouns (-ῶν in gen. pl.) does not apply to the adjectives. However, the rule about first and second declension words naturally accented on the ultima (i.e. their accents shifting from acute to circumflex in the gen. and dat. sing. and pl.) *does still apply*.

A Good Example (see what I did there?):

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ἀγαθός	ἀγαθή	ἀγαθόν
Gen.	ἀγαθοῦ	ἀγαθῆς	ἀγαθοῦ
Dat.	ἀγαθῷ	ἀγαθῇ	ἀγαθῷ
Acc.	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθήν	ἀγαθόν
Voc.	ἀγαθέ		
Nom./Voc. pl.	ἀγαθοί	ἀγαθαί	ἀγαθά

Gen.	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν
Dat.	ἀγαθοῖς	ἀγαθαῖς	ἀγαθοῖς
Acc.	ἀγαθούς	ἀγαθάς	ἀγαθά

Note: the forms for the masc. acc. sg. and neut. pl. nom./acc. are all the same.

ATTRIBUTIVE AND PREDICATE POSITION

If there is a definite article directly in front of an adjective (which itself agrees with a noun), then that adjective is said to be in the *attributive position*. If there is no article directly in front of the adjective, then that adjective is said to be in the *predicate position*. If you have a noun (with or without an article) and an adjective in the attributive position, then that unit is a phrase and not a complete sentence (provided, of course, that they agree in case). Conversely, if you have a noun and an adjective agreeing in case but without an article in front of the adjective, that is a complete sentence. Such a sentence can be called a *nominal sentence* or an instance of the *predicate nominative* construction.

Examples:

ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἄνθρωπος	the good man (a phrase with the adj. in attributive position)
ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἀγαθός	the good man (a phrase with the adj. in attributive position)
ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἀγαθός	the good man (a phrase with the adj. in attributive position)
ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἀγαθός.	the man is good (a complete sentence with adj. in pred. pos.)
ἀγαθός ὁ ἄνθρωπος.	the man is good (a complete sentence with adj. in pred. pos.)

Note: the article before the noun is not critical and can be omitted. The article before the adjective is critical and makes the difference between the attributive and predicate position. Greek can also have a nominal sentence with two nouns. The one with the article is the subject and the other noun is the predicate. The Greeks can omit the article and if there is no article, then context would determine which is subject and which is predicate.

Two More Examples:

τὸ βιβλίον δῶρον.	the book is a gift (complete sentence)
τὸ βιβλίον τὸ ἀγαθόν	the good book (just a phrase, not a complete sentence)

Note: the article in front of the adjective confirms that the adjective directly modifies the noun. You could call that article "semantic glue" in that it is tying together the adjective and noun as a unit.

Usage Note: Greek occasionally equates two things that match in case but not in gender. Consider the following Greek proverb: βίος χαλεπὸν (life is a difficult thing).

Usage Note: Greek can put a variety of things into the attributive position beyond an adjective and the idea is to indicate a close connection among the words.

Here is an example of an adverb placed in between the article and noun:

οἱ τότε ἄνθρωποι "the men of then" (the people of that time)

Vocab: τότε adv. then (they used to sell τότε bags in the Grammar Cafe)

Here is an example of a possessive genitive placed in between an article and a noun:

τὸ τοῦ ἀνθρώπου βιβλίον the book of the man (= the man's book)

Here are two examples of a prepositional phrase in the attributive position:

ὁ ἐν ἀγορᾷ ἄνθρωπος the man in the marketplace

ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἐν ἀγορᾷ the man in the marketplace (lit. "the man, that is, the one in the marketplace")

The Greeks enjoy creating elaborate frames with multiple words in the attributive position. Consider this example from Plato:

τὰ γὰρ τῆς τῶν πολλῶν ψυχῆς ὄμματα "the eyes of the soul of the many"

Note how the outermost article belongs with the outermost noun and you start there and work your way into the middle of the phrase (and so τῆς goes with ψυχῆς and of course τῶν goes with πολλῶν). By the way, that last phrase is commonly used in the nominative case in English: the *hoi polloi* (which to Greek fans sounds like "the the many").

Fun Game: create your own elaborate Greek phrase consisting of a nested group of words and using the vocabulary you know thus far!

Common Use of the Adjective: the Substantive!

As Latin students and English speakers, you are already conversant with the idea of an adjective standing alone as a noun. Greek uses these quite frequently as well (as you probably noticed with the quotation from Plato above). Here are some examples:

οἱ ἀγαθοί the good men (or "the good ones" or "the good people")

ἡ ἀγαθή the good woman

τὰ κακά the bad things

A Bit of Colloquial Greek to Brighten Any Day...including today!

Many of the following come from lines in ancient comedy (esp. Menander) and you can find them in C. Luschnig's *Introduction to Ancient Greek* (very good Greek textbook):

χαῖρε (pl. χαίρετε) hello, greetings, farewell

καὶ σύ, χαῖρε greetings to you as well

τί νεώτερον; what's new? (lit. "what is newer/rather new?")

τί ἐστὶ καινόν; what's new? (cf. *quid novi?*)

οὐδὲν καινότερον nothing (newer)

πῶς ἔχεις; how are you? ἔχω + adv. = a state of being

τί πράττεις; how are you? (lit. "what are you doing?" cf. *quid agis?*)

καλῶς ἔχω I am well

κακῶς ἔχω I am now well; I am ill

πολλοστῶ χρόνῳ ὄρῳ σε. long time, no see

τί πάσχεις, ὦ φίλε; what's wrong, my friend? (lit. "what are you suffering, my friend?")

τί γὰρ ὁ Ζεὺς ποιεῖ; how's the weather? (lit. "for what is Zeus doing?")

ὔει ὁ θεὸς καὶ βροντᾷ. It's raining and thundering

λάμπει ὁ ἥλιος the sun is shining.

πηνίκα ἐστὶν τῆς ἡμέρας; what time of day is it?

μικρόν τι μετὰ μεσημβρίαν. a little after noon

μὰ Δία (exclamation) by Zeus!

HOW TO BE ON THE GREEK STREETS: present and imperfect of εἶμι
Greek often omits forms of the verb "to be" (as you have undoubtedly seen in other languages including English and Latin) but it is obviously useful to know this particular verb. As in any language I have ever encountered, this verb is irregular and so just learn it as it is. Technically, it is in the relatively small class of -μι verbs but it is really its own little

world. There is just one set of forms each for the present and imperfect as there isn't any real active or passive voice for the verb "to be." This verb is also mostly enclitic in the present tense (all but the 2nd sing.) which is why the accents look a bit surprising (we'll talk more about enclitics soon enough)...I wanted to introduce this to you so that you could write your own sentences, especially those predicate nominatives where you equate two things (e.g., Zoe is amazing).

	PRESENT indicative	IMPERFECT
1 sg.	εἰμί	ἦ/ ἦν
2	εἶ	ἦσθα
3	ἐστί(ν)	ἦν
1 pl.	ἐσμέν	ἦμεν
2	ἐστέ	ἦτε
3	εἰσί(ν)	ἦσαν
Present Infinitive: εἶναι		

Accenting Note: the accents on the imperfect are consistently a circumflex on the penult (and use this as a nice review of the requirements for a circumflex to appear there). As mentioned above, the present forms are enclitic (except for the 2nd sing.) and so rely on the accent of the preceding word. For the sake of the paradigm, I followed convention and put the acute accent on the ultima. Out there on the Greek streets, the forms will appear either without any accent or with an accent on the ultima (as in the chart).

Note: For now, don't worry about the enclitic accenting rules and just be ready to see these forms with or without an accent.

DAY THREE: Some Verbal Fun and a Few New Relatives to Meet!

Even though Greek has only known you briefly, today it will tell you many things about itself. It is time to contemplate the occasionally intense world of Greek verbs and we will start with the present, imperfect, and future tenses. The present and imperfect use the same stem and are called the present system and they are represented by the first principal part. The endings, however, are different and the imperfect uses syllabic or temporal augment to indicate past time. Greek has the perfect number of principal parts (6 as opposed to Latin's 4--I know you have been disappointed in your heart of hearts by how few there are in Latin!) and you will learn three of them today (on day 3...coincidence? for those curious, it absolutely is a coincidence!).

PRESENT ACTIVE INDICATIVE				
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	-ω	-ομεν	λύω	λύομεν
2	-εις	-ετε	λύεις	λύετε
3	-ει	-ουσι(ν)	λύει	λύουσι(ν)
present active infinitive: -ειν			λύειν	

Add the present stem directly to these endings and you have a present active indicative! This is the first of six glorious principal parts and it is used to indicate what both the present and imperfect tenses will look like.

The third plural ending has a movable ν that is used at the end of a sentence or if the next word begins with a vowel. The parentheses indicate that the ν is movable and only present in those situations. The ν at the end of the first-plural ending is NOT movable and so will always be present regardless of what follows that verb form. It is important to notice when a final ν is movable or not. They will appear in a number of verb tenses as you will see!

SYLLABIC AND TEMPORAL AUGMENTS

The augment will be used on all past tenses of the indicative mood and here are the two basic formats:

Syllabic Augment: If the verb begins with a consonant, then the augment is an epsilon added to the front of the verb (present λύω "I free" vs. imperfect ἔλυον "I was freeing").

Temporal Augment: If the verb begins with a vowel or diphthong, then the initial vowel lengthens:

α --> η	αι --> ραι
ε --> η	ει --> ρη
ο --> ω	οι --> ρω

present	imperfect	aoorist
ἄρχω I rule	ἤρχον I was ruling	ἤρξα I ruled
ἄγω I lead	ἤγον I was leading	ἤγαγον I led
ἐθέλω I wish	ἤθελον I was wishing	ἤθέλησα I wished

Exception: the imperfect of ἔχω (I have) is εἶχον (I used to have)

Note: the augment is only used on past indicative verb forms and you can have great fun learning and repeating the following chant (which can be set to many a melody): You Only Augment the Indicative! There are three other moods in Greek (subjunctive, optative, and imperative) and they use tense to convey aspect (basically how you view the action of the verb--whether as a simple action, a progressive/repeated action, or a completed action). Don't worry about that for now as that is so Day Five!

IMPERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVE (for repeated or habitual actions in the past)

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	-ον	-ομεν	ἔλυον	ἐλύομεν
2	-εσ	-ετε	ἔλυες	ἐλύετε
3	-ε(ν)	-ον	ἔλυε(ν)	ἔλυον

Notes: only the ν in the third singular is movable and so the final ν on the first sing., first plural, and third plural endings will always be present. Note also that the 1st sing. and 3rd pl. endings are identical. There is no infinitive for the imperfect tense.

Note: technically these are the theme vowel ε/ο plus the endings, but for now you can just treat them together as "endings." We will talk more about theme vowels on Day 5!!!

Note: you should think of -μεν and -τε (1st and 2nd plural active endings) as your friends as they show up frequently in the active (and even in some passive endings).

Here is an example of an imperfect active indicative that uses the temporal augment:

Singular	Plural
----------	--------

1	ἤγον	ἤγομεν
2	ἤγεσ	ἤγετε
3	ἤγε(ν)	ἤγον

Formula: augment + present stem + endings e.g., ε + λυ + ον = ἔλυον "I was freeing/destroying" or "I used to free/destroy."

FUTURE ACTIVE INDICATIVE

The future active indicative uses the second principal part (which usually features a sigma) and the same exact endings as the present active indicative! You will notice that the stem of the future often looks very similar to the present but with the presence of an exciting sigma. If the verb stem ends in a vowel, it is quite straightforward as you can see below with the example of λύσω. If the verb stem ends in a consonant, then things get a bit more charming and you need to know what kind of consonant you are dealing with and recall those principles from Day One:

A **labial** (π, β, φ) in combination with σ produces the double consonant ψ.

A **palatal** (κ, γ, χ) in combination with σ produces the double consonant ξ.

A **dental** (τ, δ, θ) will typically drop when preceded by a σ (the dental drop!) and the same is true for verbs whose stem ends with ζ (e.g., νομίζω, νομιῶ).

Examples:

	Vowel Stem	Labial Stem	Palatal Stem	Dental Stem
	λύω, λύσω free	πέμπω, πέμψω send	ἄγω, ἄξω lead	πείθω, πείσω persuade
1sg.	λύσω	πέμψω	ἄξω	πείσω
2	λύσεις	πέμψεις	ἄξεις	πείσεις
3	λύσει	πέμψει	ἄξει	πείσει
1pl.	λύσομεν	πέμψομεν	ἄξομεν	πείσομεν
2	λύσετε	πέμψετε	ἄξετε	πείσετε
3	λύσουσι(ν)	πέμψουσι(ν)	ἄξουσι(ν)	πείσουσι(ν)
Infinitive:	λύσειν	πέμψειν	ἄξειν	πείσειν

Note: The future active infinitive ending is the same as the present: -ειν.

FIRST AORIST ACTIVE INDICATIVE (sigmatic aorist)

The aorist indicative is the third principal part and is used for simple and often single past actions. There are two forms of the aorist tense and verbs generally have either a first aorist or a second aorist. There is NO difference in meaning between these two. When confronted with two charming ways to form an aorist, the Greeks made the sensible decision to use both of them! The first aorist typically has a sigma and is sometimes called the sigmatic aorist. The types of stems we saw in the future tense are unsurprisingly also important for the first aorist. Let's start with the endings and λύω as a sample as it is our favorite vowel stem.

	ENDINGS		VOWEL STEM!	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	-α	-αμεν	ἔλυσα	ἐλύσαμεν
2	-αs	-ατε	ἔλυσας	ἐλύσατε
3	-ε(ν)	-αν	ἔλυσε(ν)	ἔλυσαν

infinitive: -αι

Note: The ending for the first aorist active infinitive is **-αι** as in **λυσαι** "to free/destroy." Remember that **-οι** and **-αι** at the very end of a word is considered short (hence the circumflex on the penult!

Mnemonic Alert: when reviewing the first aorist endings, think "**α** for **α**orist" as most of the endings have an alpha prominently displayed.

Note: the process of forming the augment for the aorist tense is the same as it was for the imperfect.

CONSONANT STEMS!

The same categories we saw for the future are back for the aorist!

	Labial Stem	Palatal Stem	Dental Stem
	πέμπω	ἄρχω	πείθω
1 sg.	ἔπεμψα	ἤρξα	ἔπεισα
2	ἔπεμψας	ἤρξας	ἔπεισας
3	ἔπεμψε(ν)	ἤρξε(ν)	ἔπεισε(ν)
1 pl.	ἐπέμψαμεν	ἤρξαμεν	ἐπέισαμεν
2	ἐπέμψατε	ἤρξατε	ἐπέισατε
3	ἔπεμψαν	ἤρξαν	ἔπεισαν
infin.	πέμψαι	ἄρξαι	πεῖσαι

Note: as you know, the infinitive is a verbal noun and so has no mood. As you only augment indicative verbs, infinitives are NEVER augmented. That is why ἄρξαι does not begin with an eta.

LIQUID AND NASAL AORISTS!

For this final type of first aorist, the expected sigma disappears and the vowel in the aorist root is compensated for the loss of its friend. If that sounds overly dramatic, blame the linguists who call this process *compensatory lengthening*. For liquid roots, there is a further bit of drama in that one of the lambdas disappears along with the sigma and I often wonder if they ran off together! The vowel in the root typically lengthens from ε to ει or from α to η.

	LIQUID AORIST ἀγγέλλω announce	NASAL AORIST μένω remain, wait (for)
1 sg.	ἤγγειλα	ἔμεινα
2	ἤγγειλας	ἔμεινας
3	ἤγγειλε(ν)	ἔμεινε(ν)
1 pl.	ἤγγείλαμεν	ἔμείναμεν
2	ἤγγείλατε	ἔμείνατε
3	ἤγγειλαν	ἔμειναν
aor. act. infin.	ἀγγεῖλαι	μεῖναι

Note: remember that the infinitive is a verbal noun and so is not technically part

SECOND AORIST ACTIVE INDICATIVE (same endings as imperfect)

As mentioned above, the second aorist is used for simple or single actions in the past and does not differ in meaning from the first aorist (and most verbs have either a first or second aorist although a small number of verbs have both). This version of the aorist active indicative is distinguished by an (often shortened) aorist stem and the same endings you used for the imperfect.

The formula for constructing the second aorist active indicative is just as you would expect: augment + aorist stem + endings e.g., ε + λιπ + ον = ἔλιπον "I left"

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	-ον	-ομεν	ἔλιπον	ἐλίπομεν
2	-ες	-ετε	ἔλιπες	ἐλίπετε
3	-ε(ν)	-ον	ἔλιπε(ν)	ἔλιπον
	Infinitive: -εῖν (fixed accent)		λιπεῖν	

Note: as with the imperfect, you can clearly see the ε/ο theme vowel in the endings for the 2nd aorist. Technically, the endings are just -ν, -ς, --, -μεν, -τε, -ν but that is hard to chant, don't you think?! At this point, it is fine to combine the theme vowel and ending and think of them casually as the "endings."

DISTINGUISHING THE IMPERFECT AND SECOND AORIST

Given the overlap of forms in the imperfect and second aorist, it is obviously critical that you pay close attention to the stem. The stems for the first and third principal part can be quite similar and vary by just a letter or two, but they are never identical. For instance, consider the imperfect and aorist of λείπω ("leave"): ἔλειπον "I was leaving" vs. ἔλιπον "I left." Have I convinced you yet of the value of learning principal parts in Greek? When out on the Greek streets, you might be able to make educated guesses about this or that verb you meet, but you will be on much safer ground if you learn principal parts as you go along. Besides, it's fun! The imperfect and aorist are both past tenses but describe different types of action. The imperfect is for repeated or habitual past actions while the aorist describes a simple or single action. Consider the following English examples:

"I used to run alongside the cliff." (would use imperfect in Greek)

"One day I fell off that cliff." (presumably a one-time action and so aorist would be used)

You make these distinctions yourself every day as a native English speaker and as a Latin student (or really whenever you learn almost any language). They can be important distinctions. Unless you happen to be immortal, you probably won't find yourself uttering the following sentence: "I used to fall off the cliff."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ὅς	ἥ	ὅ
Gen.	οὗ	ἥς	οὔ
Dat.	ᾧ	ἣ	ᾧ
Acc.	ὃν	ἣν	ὄ
Nom. pl.	οἱ	αἱ	ἅ
Gen.	ᾧν	ᾧν	ᾧν
Dat.	οἷς	αἷς	οἷς
Acc.	οὓς	ἄς	ἅ

Formula: most forms resemble the definite article except that the initial τ is gone and there is a rough breathing at the front of EVERY form. The nom. masc. and fem. (both sing. and pl.) look much like the definite article but here you get both breathing marks AND accents (e.g., οἱ "the" vs. οἷ "who"; ἡ "the" vs. ἥ "who")

Circumflex Alert: note the circumflex accent on all gen. and dat. forms.

Matching Case Reminder: as always in Greek (as in Latin), the neuter nom. and acc. forms match.

Fun Game: draw arrows between the neut. nom. sing. and acc. and for another round of that same game, draw arrows connecting the neut. pl. nom. and acc. *quam gelidum!!*

Another Fun Game: write out the forms of the definite article right next to the forms of the relative pronoun and marvel at the similarities and differences. *mirabile visu*, right?!?

Usage: As Latin students, you are already familiar with how relative clauses work and Greek won't provide many surprises here. Remember that (as in Latin) the gender and the number of the relative pronoun match the antecedent but the case has NOTHING to do with the antecedent. The case of the relative pronoun is entirely dependent on how it functions within the relative clause. If it is the subject of the relative clause, then the relative pronoun will be in the nominative case. If the relative pronoun functions as the direct object in the relative clause, then it will unsurprisingly be in the accusative case, etc.

DAY FOUR: A Little Bit of This and That...Demonstratives PLUS the Third Declension!

Today we will start with the familiar category of demonstratives (this, that), and then after a brief visit with two-termination adjectives, we will start surveying the grammarscape of the wondrous third declension. The good news is that Greek only has three declensions and the bad news...well, there really isn't any bad news to report about Greek, of course!

DEMONSTRATIVES

As you know, demonstratives serve to point out or emphasize the word with which they agree. For something near (spatially or temporally) or just mentioned in a conversation, Greek tends to use οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο (cf. *hic, haec, hoc*) and it is translated as either "this" or "that" or "the latter" (when referring to the last thing mentioned). It generally refers to something that has already been mentioned. ἐκεῖνος, ἐκείνη, ἐκεῖνο means "that" or can mean "the former" when referring to something a bit more distant spatially, temporally or in the discourse (cf. *ille, illa, illud*). ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε means "this (here)" and as it can refer to something in the near future (or in close proximity), you can sometimes translate it as "the following." The demonstratives are quite easy to form and mostly use the now familiar first and second declension endings you have seen already in nouns and adjectives above. There are a few quirks and you should learn them immediately as these words are used quite frequently. Imagine a language without demonstratives---that would be hard to do! When memorizing these, I recommend going across the paradigm as that seems easier and you get reinforcement on how similar the masculine and neuter forms are. There are no vocative forms for any of the demonstratives.

	οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο this, that, the latter (cf. <i>hic, haec, hoc</i>)		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	οὗτος	αὕτη	τοῦτο
Gen.	τούτου	αὐτῆς	τούτου
Dat.	τούτῳ	αὐτῇ	τούτῳ
Acc.	τούτον	αὐτήν	τούτο
Nom. pl.	οὗτοι	αὗται	ταῦτα
Gen.	τούτων	τούτων	τούτων
Dat.	τούτοις	ταύταις	τούτοις
Acc.	τούτους	ταύτας	ταῦτα

Note: as you can see, the forms are mostly normal first and second declension endings with the exception of the neuter nom. and acc. singulars (which are lacking the expected final ν). There is a minor additional wrinkle in that there are a few unexpected diphthongs: the feminine forms mostly have $\alpha\upsilon$ except for the gen. plural in $\omicron\upsilon$, while the neuter forms mostly have $\omicron\upsilon$ except for the nom. and acc. plurals in $\alpha\upsilon$. The masculine forms are perfectly consistent in having $\omicron\upsilon$ throughout the singular and plural.

Note: the presence or absence of an initial τ on these forms matches that of the definite article. *quam gelidum!* Fun Game: write the definite article and these forms side by side!

Note: as usual, the neuter nom. and acc. forms are identical and so you might want to exercise your artistic creativity by drawing lines between the nom. and acc. singulars as well as the nom. and acc. plurals.

	ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο that, the former (cf. <i>ille, illa, illud</i>)		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ἐκεῖνος	ἐκεῖνη	ἐκεῖνο
Gen.	ἐκεῖνου	ἐκεῖνης	ἐκεῖνου
Dat.	ἐκεῖνω	ἐκεῖνῃ	ἐκεῖνω
Acc.	ἐκεῖνον	ἐκεῖνην	ἐκεῖνο
Nom. pl.	ἐκεῖνοι	ἐκεῖναι	ἐκεῖνα
Gen.	ἐκεῖνων	ἐκεῖνων	ἐκεῖνων
Dat.	ἐκεῖνοις	ἐκεῖναις	ἐκεῖνοις
Acc.	ἐκεῖνους	ἐκεῖνας	ἐκεῖνα

Note: as with the forms of οὗτος, the neuter nom. sing. and pl. are missing the final ν . Compare this missing final ν to the neuter sing. nom./acc. of the definite article and the relative pronoun (τό, ὅ). Otherwise, the forms have regular first and second declension endings just like the adjective ἀγαθός, ἀγαθή, ἀγαθόν.

Note: as with the forms of οὗτος, the gen. plural forms are the same in all three genders.

	ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε this		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ὅδε	ἥδε	τόδε
Gen.	τοῦδε	τῆσδε	τοῦδε
Dat.	τῷδε	τῇδε	τῷδε
Acc.	τόνδε	τήνδε	τόδε
Nom. pl.	οἶδε	αἶδε	τάδε
Gen.	τῶνδε	τῶνδε	τῶνδε
Dat.	τοῖσδε	ταῖσδε	τοῖσδε
Acc.	τούσδε	τάσδε	τάδε

Note: this demonstrative is quite straightforward as it has the exact same forms as the definite article plus the enclitic particle -δε. **How easy is *this*?**

Usage Note for the Demonstratives:

The demonstratives represent something of an exception to the way we distinguish attributive from predicate position. The demonstratives mostly appear in the predicate position and will precede the noun they are modifying. They do on rare occasions follow

the noun but don't worry about that for now. **Demonstratives will be translated, however, as if they were in the attributive position.** Here are a few examples:

ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἄνθρωπος that man

τόδε τὸ δῶρον this gift

οὗτος ὁ κύων this dog

All of these examples are phrases and not complete sentences. The demonstrative in each example is functioning like an attributive adjective even though it is technically in the predicate position. If you wanted to make a nominal sentence (predicate nominative) with a demonstrative, you could write something like this:

οὗτος ὁ κύων ἀγαθός ἐστιν. This dog is good. ἀγαθός is the predicate adjective and οὗτος ὁ κύων functions together as the subject.

Like any adjective, the demonstrative can be used alone as a substantive. Here is an example: λύομεν ἐκείνους. "We are freeing/destroying those people."

TWO-TERMINATION ADJECTIVES

You will see that starting on Day 4, there are a few adjectives in the vocabulary lists with only two nominative singular forms (-ος, -ον). These are known as two-termination adjectives and they have one set of forms for both the masculine and feminine, and another set of similar forms for the neuter. They use the second-declension forms you already know. These are not difficult but you need to be ready to see these adjectives modifying feminine nouns. Remember that an adjective must match its noun in gender, number, and case, but they need not have the same exact endings in terms of the same exact letters. Consider these examples:

ὁ ἄδικος ἄνθρωπος the unjust man (adj. ἄδικος, ον unjust)

ἡ ἀθάνατος ψυχή the immortal soul (adj. ἀθάνατος, ον immortal)

Note: Many of these adjectives begin with an alpha privative (cf. English *amoral*) and so you can use that as a way to recognize and recall them.

Example: ἄδικος, ἄδικον unjust

	Masc./Fem.	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ἄδικος	ἄδικον
Gen.	ἀδίκου	ἀδίκου
Dat.	ἀδίκῳ	ἀδίκῳ
Acc.	ἄδικον	ἄδικον
Voc.	ἄδικε	
Nom. pl.	ἄδικοι	ἄδικα
Gen.	ἀδίκων	ἀδίκων
Dat.	ἀδίκοις	ἀδίκοις
Acc.	ἀδίκους	ἄδικα

Note on Repeating Forms: as you undoubtedly noticed with the masculine and neuter forms for the regular adjective ἀγαθός, ἡ, ὄν, *the genitives and datives are the same.* As you can see above, the M-F forms have distinct nom. and acc. forms while the neuter nominatives and accusatives match each other as always. Be particularly wary of the form ending in -ον as it can be three possible forms (masc./fem. acc. sing., neut. nom. and acc. sing.).

THE THIRD DECLENSION!!!

It is hard to believe that we are already at the third and final declension for nouns and adjectives. The good news is that the third declension in Greek is definitely the most charming of the three declensions due to the large number of variations on the basic endings. I don't expect you to memorize instantly all of the following types of third-declension nouns and adjectives and so I have provided some of these paradigms as a handy reference for you to keep with you as you explore the Greek streets through the homework sentences. There is nothing conceptually challenging about the third declension and once you learn the basic set of endings, you won't have much trouble recognizing most of the forms.

Note on Gender in Third Declension Nouns: unlike most first and second declension nouns, the gender of third declension nouns is much more variable and unpredictable and so you should pay close attention to the definite article out there on the Greek streets and even here in the safer pages of this textbook. Always try to learn the gender of third declension nouns as part of your vocabulary-strengthening daily exercise.

Finding the Stem!

In all three declensions, the stem of the noun is found by taking the ending away from the GENITIVE SINGULAR. I have not emphasized this thus far since the nominatives and genitives have been so friendly and similar in the first two declensions. As you will see, the nominative singular in the third declension is often a bit different from the rest of the forms, and so it is not a reliable indicator of what the stem is. Despite the variability of the nominative singular, there are consistent patterns for third declension noun types and the following paradigms will provide a guide to many exciting words you will encounter in your lifetime of Greek reading!

BASIC THIRD DECLENSION ENDINGS

	Masc./Fem.	Neuter
Nom. sg.	--- (often ς)	---
Gen.	-ος	-ος
Dat.	-ι	-ι
Acc.	-α, -ν	---
Voc.	---	---
Nom./Voc. pl.	-εις	-α
Gen.	-ων	-ων
Dat.	-σι(ν)	-σι(ν)
Acc.	-ας (short α)	-α

Note: the nominative (and voc.) singulars are so variable that Greek textbooks often do not even give a single ending in the third declension chart for the masc./fem. nom. singular (and the vocative sing. is quite variable as well). The masc.-fem. nom. sing. ending is frequently a sigma but it sometimes combines with a palatal (κ , γ , χ) at the end of the stem and creates a final ξ (e.g., $\nu\lambda\xi$, $\nu\kappa\tau\acute{o}\varsigma$, η night--see day 5 vocab list). This is not so strange when you recall that ξ is really $\kappa\varsigma$ and so think of it as a disguised or undercover sigma (great idea for a movie!). Similarly, the double consonant ψ is $\pi\varsigma$ and so a nominative like $\kappa\lambda\acute{\omega}\psi$ is another instance where the nom. sing. ends in sigma but is a bit disguised by the way Greek combines $\pi\varsigma$ into ψ . Take note of all the exciting 3rd decl. nom. sing. forms as you read! Fun Game: what I just said! keep track of those nom. forms!

Note: the masc./fem. accusative singular is most commonly an α with consonant bases but in certain situations it is a ν . For those interested, if a dental comes after an unaccented iota or upsilon, then the dental drops and the ending becomes ν (e.g., for the word ὄρνις, ὄρνιθος the accusative is not *ὄρνιθα but rather ὄρνιν).

Another Fun Game: compare the Greek third declension endings with those of Latin.

Third declension nouns have vowel and consonant stems (referring to the final letter in the stem) and we will start with some vowel stems. I would advise that you start by learning these sample third declension nouns by chanting them aloud to another and together you will all notice the important and common sound changes as you go from one paradigm to the next. It is easy to get a bit lost in the linguistic details with the third declension but really you just need to be able to recognize those charming nouns out there on the Greek streets and that is much easier than knowing the exact reasons for a given quirky form. By all means, learn those details if that helps you but for many students, it is easiest to memorize the patterns and they will be reinforced naturally as your vocabulary develops.

THIRD DECLENSION VOWEL STEM (-ευσ)

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	βασιλεύς	βασιλεῖς/βασιλῆς
Gen.	βασιλέως	βασιλέων
Dat.	βασιλεῖ	βασιλεῦσι(ν)
Acc.	βασιλέα	βασιλέας
Voc.	βασιλεῦ	

Note: the genitive singular form was originally βασιλῆος and you will see this form soon in Homer. A charming linguistic process known as *quantitative metathesis* occurred whereby the quantity of vowels shifted and ηος changed to εως. The η shortened to ε and the ο lengthened to ω. *quam gelidum!*

Note: βασιλῆς was more common until the 4th century BCE but you will see both nom. pl. forms and there is no difference in their meaning.

Common Greek words that use this pattern: ἱερεύς (priest), ἵππεύς (horseman)

MORE THIRD DECLENSION VOWEL STEMS!

	πόλις, ἡ city		ἄστυ, τό town	
	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	πόλις	πόλεις	ἄστυ	ἄσθη
Gen.	πόλεως	πόλεων	ἄστεως	ἄστεων
Dat.	πόλει	πόλεσι(ν)	ἄστει	ἄστεσι(ν)
Acc.	πόλιν	πόλεις	ἄστυ	ἄσθη
Voc.	πόλι			

Note: note that the nom. and acc. pl. are the same (and so watch for the definite article or an adjective for clarification on the case).

Note: the accent on the genitive singulars appears to violate our cherished accenting rules but there is a reason! The Greeks are accenting these words as if they had their original genitive form with the short ultima (-ης). With the original short ultima, the natural accent on the antepenult for these words would be retained (as you can see in Homer who uses those original forms πόλῆος and ἄσθηος). The genitive plurals seem to be following the accenting of the gen. singulars (a kind of assimilation or attraction).

Note: on the nom./acc. plural form ἄσθη the η is a contraction of ε + α and so it is just a slightly disguised form of the familiar neuter plural ending -α. Undercover Alpha!

CONSONANT STEMS!

You will recall these types of consonants from our fun forays into the future and aorist tenses: labials (π, β, φ), palatals (κ, γ, χ), and the dentals (τ, δ, θ). Here are some examples of consonant stems and you should label them by type of consonant!

	thief (m.)	guard (m.)	goat (m/f.)	hope (f.)	ruler (m.)
Nom. sg.	κλώψ	φύλαξ	αἶξ	ἐλπίς	ἄρχων
Gen.	κλωπός	φύλακος	αἰγός	ἐλπίδος	ἄρχοντος
Dat.	κλωπί	φύλακι	αἰγί	ἐλπίδι	ἄρχοντι
Acc.	κλώπα	φύλακα	αἶγα	ἐλπίδα	ἄρχοντα
Voc.				ἐλπί	

Nom. pl.	κλώπες	φύλακες	αἶγες	ἐλπίδες	ἄρχοντες
Gen.	κλωπῶν	φυλάκων	αἰγῶν	ἐλπίδων	ἀρχόντων
Dat.	κλωπί(ν)	φύλαξι(ν)	αἰξι(ν)	ἐλπίσι(ν)	ἄρχουσι(ν)
Acc.	κλώπας	φύλακας	αἶγας	ἐλπίδας	ἄρχοντας

Note on the Shifting Accent in Gen. and Dat. (I know you are curious!): monosyllabic stems put their accents in the genitives and datives on the ultima (for both singular and plural). Again, this is not critical but it might help to know there is a method to the **μανία**. You can just check the gen. sing. to see how many syllables the stem has (and don't count the case ending -ος in your count).

Note on the dative plurals: the dative plural shows the same changes we saw in the future and aorist tenses when a sigma is added to various types of consonant stems. Those sigmas combine with the labials and palatals and create those charming double consonants ψ and ξ. Remember that dentals drop before sigmas and that is how you get ἐλπίς and ἐλπίσι(ν) (and not *ἐλπίδς or *ἐλπίδσι). In the case of ἄρχουσι, first of all be careful not to confuse this with a present 3rd pl. verb form (as always, context is an ἀγαθὸς φίλος)! To get to that charming diphthong ου, the dental unsurprisingly dropped before the -σι ending and in an extra twist, the ν dropped as well. Being left a little bereft, the lonely ο is compensated for the loss of its friends and is lengthened to the diphthong ου. It is another instance of *compensatory lengthening*.

Spoiler Alert: ἄρχων, ἄρχοντος is technically a substantive use of the present active ("the ruling one") participle and so we will return to this set of forms when we discuss participles on Day 7.

A FEW COMMON NEUTER THIRD DECLENSION NOUN TYPES!

	ὄνομα, τό, name, fame	γένος, τό, race, family, kind, class		
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom. sg.	ὄνομα	ὀνόματα	γένος	γένη
Gen.	ὀνόματος	ὀνομάτων	γένους	γενῶν
Dat.	ὀνόματι	ὀνόμασι(ν)	γένει	γένεσι(ν)
Acc.	ὄνομα	ὀνόματα	γένος	γένη

Fun Fact: Greek is pretty particular about which consonants can end a word and in fact there are only 3 that qualify as possible for the final letter: ν, ρ, ς. So, if you have a neuter dental noun such as ὄνομα or σώμα (body), the dental at the end of the stem and you are left with the short and snappy nom/acc sing. ending in -α.

Dropping Intervocalic Sigma Alert: the root of γένος can be glimpsed in the genitive (as is always the case with the third declension as you now know). Originally, the

root was **γενεσ-** and when the gen. sing. ending **-ος** was added to that stem, the *intervocalic sigma* drops as it often does in Greek. So, ***γένεσος** changes to **γένεος** and since Attic loves to contract wherever it can, **ε+ο** becomes **ου** (a common contraction we will see again soon!). That is how we end up with **γένους**. Similar transformations explain several of the forms in this word (e.g., dat. sing. ***γένεσι** » **γένει** after the sigma dropped). **Note:** the nom./acc. plural **γένη** is a product of the same contraction we saw above with **ἄσση** (**ε+α=η**).

A FAMILY OF THIRD DECLENSION NOUN TYPES

The following close-knit group of nouns all have moments of syncopation where an expected epsilon drops in the genitive singulars and in all the datives (sg. and pl.). Note also the dative plurals all end in **-ασι(ν)**. Isn't that **ασιμε?!** A delta goes missing in the nom. and voc. singular forms of **άνήρ** but otherwise it fits right in with these other words.

	mother	father	daughter	man
Nom. sg.	μήτηρ	πατήρ	θυγάτηρ	άνήρ
Gen.	μητρός	πατρός	θυγατρός	άνδρός
Dat.	μητρί	πατρί	θυγατρί	άνδρι
Acc.	μητέρα	πατέρα	θυγατέρα	άνδρα
Voc.	μήτερ	πάτερ	θύγατερ	άνερ
Nom. pl.	μητέρες	πατέρες	θυγατέρες	άνδρες
Gen.	μητέρων	πατέρων	θυγατέρων	άνδρων
Dat.	μητράσι(ν)	πατράσι(ν)	θυγατράσι(ν)	άνδράσι(ν)
Acc.	μητέρας	πατέρας	θυγατέρας	άνδρας

ONE LAST GROUP OF THIRD DECLENSION NOUN TYPES!

	woman (f.)	speaker (m.)	bird (m/f)	ox, cow (m/f)
Nom. sg.	γυνή	ρήτωρ	ὄρνις	βοῦς
Gen.	γυναικός	ρήτορος	ὄρνιθος	βοός
Dat.	γυναικί	ρήτορι	ὄρνιθι	βοί
Acc.	γυναῖκα	ρήτορα	ὄρνιν	βοῦν
Voc.	γύναι	ρήτορ	ὄρνι	βοῦ
Nom. pl.	γυναῖκες	ρήτορες	ὄρνιθες	βόες
Gen.	γυναικῶν	ρήτόρων	ὄρνιθων	βοῶν
Dat.	γυναιξί(ν)	ρήτορσι(ν)	ὄρνισι(ν)	βουσί(ν) [ep. βόεσσι]
Acc.	γυναῖκας	ρήτορας	ὄρνιθας	βοῦς

Digamma Alert: the original form of **βοῦς** had a digamma (**βόφος** cf. *bos, bovis*) and as a result that dative singular is *not* a diphthong. The diacritical over the iota indicates what we call *diairesis* (literally a "separation") and tells you to pronounce the two vowels separately (and to count them as two separate syllables for the purposes of scanning). The digamma dropped out of Greek early but you can see lingering evidence of it in Homer as we will see soon! You can also see it in Latin words such as *video* (**ἔφιδον--εἶδον--video**) or *vinum* (**φοῖνος--οἶνος--vinum--wine**).

Rare Focus on the Vocative: you can often see the bare root in 3rd declension vocatives (i.e. without any lengthening of vowels or pesky extra consonants).

A FEW SINGULAR THIRD DECLENSION NOUNS!

persuasion (f.) Zeus one M F N

Nom.	πειθῶ	Ζεὺς	εἷς	μία	ἓν
Gen.	πειθοῦς	Διός	ένός	μιᾶς	ένός
Dat.	πειθοῖ	Δί	ένί	μιᾶ	ένί
Acc.	πείθω	Δία	ένα	μίαν	έν
Voc.	πειθοῖ	Ζεῦ			

Singular Only Alert: these words are only attested in the singular mostly for obvious reasons. There is only one Zeus after all and the number 1 has only singular forms.

THIRD DECLENSION ADJECTIVES

You will probably be sad to learn that there are not nearly as many common variations for the third-declension adjective. You will learn three common types here and just rest assured that, as with the noun types above, there are many many examples of all of these (and so learn one and you know them all!). One of them is a kind of hybrid and uses first-declension endings in the feminine forms. The other two are two-termination and so have no separate feminine endings. Haven't I told you that Greek will always be your friend?!

	ἀληθής, ἔς true		εὐδαίμων, ον fortunate, happy	
	Masc./Fem.	Neuter	Masc./Fem.	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ἀληθής	ἀληθές	εὐδαίμων	εὐδαιμον
Gen.	ἀληθοῦς	ἀληθοῦς	εὐδαίμονος	εὐδαίμονος
Dat.	ἀληθεῖ	ἀληθεῖ	εὐδαίμονι	εὐδαίμονι
Acc.	ἀληθῆ	ἀληθές	εὐδαίμονα	εὐδαιμον
Voc.	ἀληθές	ἀληθές	εὐδαιμον	εὐδαιμον
Nom. pl.	ἀληθεῖς	ἀληθῆ	εὐδαίμονες	εὐδαίμονα
Gen.	ἀληθῶν	ἀληθῶν	εὐδαιμόνων	εὐδαιμόνων
Dat.	ἀληθέσι(ν)	ἀληθέσι(ν)	εὐδαίμοσι(ν)	εὐδαίμοσι(ν)
Acc.	ἀληθεῖς	ἀληθῆ	εὐδαίμονας	εὐδαίμονα

Overlapping noun/adj. Alert: there is an obviously related noun δαίμων, δαίμονος ὁ/ῆ "divine being" and it uses the exact same endings as the masc./fem. adjective.

Dative Plural Note: the ν in the root drops before the sigma in the ending (sense a pattern?) and that is why the dative plural is εὐδαίμοσι(ν).

Accenting Note: the accent on Greek adjectives is taken from the neuter nom. sing. but given the accenting rules, that sometimes is not possible (as you know, Greek words are never accented further back than the antepenult).

Intervocalic Sigma Alert: the genitive singular was originally ἀληθέσος but the intervocalic sigma dropped and εο contracted to the diphthong ου. There is a similar explanation for the acc. sing. M/F. The original form was ἀληθέσα and after the intervocalic sigma dropped, the vowels ε and α contracted and produced the η ending. We will do more with vowel contractions on day 7 with the awesome contract verbs!

Note: the nom. and acc. plural forms are identical both for the M/F and for the neuter.

THIRD TYPE OF THIRD-DECLENSION ADJECTIVES (note mix of declensions!)

	εὐρύς, εἶα, υ	broad, wide	
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	εὐρύς	εὐρεῖα	εὐρύ
Gen.	εὐρέος	εὐρείας	εὐρέος
Dat.	εὐρεῖ	εὐρεῖα	εὐρεῖ
Acc.	εὐρύν	εὐρεῖαν	εὐρύ
Voc.	εὐρύ	εὐρεῖα	εὐρύ

Nom. pl.	εὐρεῖς	εὐρεῖαι	εὐρέα
Gen.	εὐρέων	εὐρειῶν	εὐρέων
Dat.	εὐρέσι(ν)	εὐρείαις	εὐρέσι(ν)
Acc.	εὐρεῖς	εὐρείας	εὐρέα

TWO very COMMON and MILDLY IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES (that mix all 3 declensions)

	πολύς, πολλή, πολύ much; <i>pl.</i> many		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	πολύς	πολλή	πολύ
Gen.	πολλοῦ	πολλῆς	πολλοῦ
Dat.	πολλῶ	πολλῇ	πολλῶ
Acc.	πολύν	πολλήν	πολύ
Nom. pl.	πολλοί	πολλαί	πολλά
Gen.	πολλῶν	πολλῶν	πολλῶν
Dat.	πολλοῖς	πολλαῖς	πολλοῖς
Acc.	πολλούς	πολλάς	πολλά

Note: this adjective mixes second and third declension endings in the masculine and neuter singular but it uses first declension endings throughout the feminine. The plural forms are declined exactly like the ordinary adjective ἀγαθός, ἡ, ὄν.

Cultural Note: οἱ πολλοί is the origin of the common expression "the *hoi polloi*." It is a term used to describe the masses or the majority of people (usually pejorative in tone). As Greek students, you can see that it is a bit repetitive ("the the many") but obviously many people don't realize that *hoi* is itself the definite article. ah, when will the οἱ πολλοί ever learn?!

μέγας, μεγάλη, μέγα big, great

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	μέγας	μεγάλη	μέγα
Gen.	μεγάλου	μεγάλης	μεγάλου
Dat.	μεγάλῳ	μεγάλῃ	μεγάλῳ
Acc.	μέγαν	μεγάλην	μέγα
Voc.	μεγάλε		

Nom. pl.	μεγάλοι	μεγάλαι	μεγάλα
Gen.	μεγάλων	μεγάλων	μεγάλων
Dat.	μεγάλοις	μεγάλαις	μεγάλοις
Acc.	μεγάλους	μεγάλας	μεγάλα

Note: as with the previous adjective, the only charming variations come in the singular masculine and neuter forms (same forms that were a bit charming in πολύς, πολλή, πολύ above). The plurals are exactly like the plurals for ἀγαθός, ἡ, ὄν. The feminine forms all have regular first declension endings.

DAY FIVE: A Quick Trip to Subjunctive and Optative Land!!!

As you know from Latin, the indicative is the mood for describing what *was, is, and will be the case*. While you indicate with the indicative, the subjunctive and optative moods are used for what *would, could, may, might, should* be the case out there in the world. It is about the hypotheticals, the expression of hopes, fears, etc. The sign of the subjunctive is a

lengthened theme vowel (ε/ο --> η/ω). That means that the endings for the present and aorist active subjunctive will all have η or ω (remember that you can see the regular theme vowels very clearly in the imperfect and second aorist indicative). As a result, the subjunctive is very easy to form. Some of the iotas become iota subscripts but otherwise, they are very familiar endings. We will be dealing with the present and aorist subjunctive as those are by far the most common tenses you will see on the Greek streets. Similarly for the optative, we will focus on the present and aorist optative (as the future optative is rare and mostly used in a type of indirect statement). Latin grammar fans may be disappointed to learn that there is no imperfect subjunctive or optative in Greek. There is also no future subjunctive in Greek (or in Latin as you know). Some indicative and subjunctive verb forms will be identical and in those instances, you will rely on context to distinguish. The only difference between the present and aorist active subjunctive will be the stem and so pay very close attention to the stem and which principal part it comes from. As I said, you really only have to worry about either the present or aorist stem as those are the only tenses that occur with any frequency.

Here are the present and aorist active subjunctive forms for λύω. As I said above, note how the iota in the 2nd and 3rd person singular have become iota subscripts. The ου in the 3rd plural becomes an omega, and while that is not entirely obvious, the other forms are all clear and predictable. The subjunctive is really not difficult to form! You're welcome, Greek wants me to say to you. The first and second aorist subjunctive are formed in exactly the same way with the exact same endings and it is really just a matter of noticing whether the stem is present or aorist. Here are the present and aorist active subjunctive forms for λύω and the second aorist active subjunctive for λείπω (leave).

	present stem: λυ-	aorist stem: λυσ-	aorist stem: λιπ-
	Present Act. Subj.	1st Aorist Act. Subj.	2nd Aorist Act. Subj.
1 sg.	λύω	λύσω	λίπω
2	λύῃς	λύσῃς	λίπῃς
3	λύῃ	λύσῃ	λίπῃ
1 pl.	λύωμεν	λύσωμεν	λίπωμεν
2	λύητε	λύσητε	λίπητε
3	λύωσι(ν)	λύσωσι(ν)	λίπωσι(ν)

Tense and Aspect: Remember that you only augment the indicative and so the subjunctive will never have an augment (and neither will optatives, imperatives, infinitives, or participles). It makes sense as the subjunctive generally looks ahead to the future. Tense outside the indicative mood generally shows aspect and not time, and so it is a difference between progressive/repeated actions (present) and simple one-time actions (aorist).

THREE INDEPENDENT USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Reminder: tense shows aspect (simple vs. repeated) and not time in these uses.

1. Prohibitive: μή + 2nd person aorist subjunctive (stronger than an imperative)

μή εἴπῃς κακὰ περὶ τῶν μικρῶν κυνῶν Don't say bad things about small dogs!

2. Hortatory: aka the "Salad Subjunctive" as it is usually translated "let us..."

--1st person (usually pl. but can be sing.) expressing exhortation and is negated with μή

--can be either present or aorist

λέγωμεν ἀγαθὰ περὶ τῶν μικρῶν κυνῶν Let us say good things about small dogs.

3. Deliberative: 1st person present or aorist used in a question when deliberating about a course of action

νῦν γὰρ φέρωμεν τὰ δῶρα τῇ Ζωῆ; For should we bring gifts to Zoe now?

THE OPTATIVE: It's all you could wish for!!!

As Latin students, you are used to thinking of the optative as a use of the subjunctive. Greek makes the optative an entire mood and not just a subset of the subjunctive. Just as there are two independent uses for the optative (wish and potential) and we will briefly look at them below. Today we focus on the distinct uses of the subjunctive and optative but we will learn on Day 6 how purpose clauses use both moods with no distinction in meaning (the moods indicate a difference in sequence just as Latin does with tenses of the subjunctive). Forming the optative is a bit more involved than the subjunctive but not difficult and the optative has the advantage of looking pretty distinctive and stylishly different. We will focus on the present and aorist optative but will take a brief glance at the future optative (only used in a few specific contexts).

Formation of the Optative: to form the present and 2nd aorist (and future) optative for most types of verbs, take the appropriate stem and add the endings οἰμι, οἰς, οἰ, οἰμεν, οἰτε, οἰεν. We will see briefly below and more in depth on Day 7 another set of endings for the optative that are used for a few specific classes of verbs (including the verb "to be" and the present tense only of the charming contract verbs) for now luxuriate in this lovely set of forms and don't worry about that other set of endings. As you can see below in the sample verbs, the only differences from tense to tense in the optatives listed will be in the stem. Technically, the ο is a theme vowel while ι is the sign of the optative and -μι, -ς, --, -μεν, -τε, -εν are the endings. The 3rd singular "ending" (οἰ) is really the theme vowel and the sign of the optative put together as a diphthong (hence the double-dash for the third singular above). The first aorist optative has αἰ instead of οἰ but otherwise has the same endings. There are three alternative forms for the first aorist active optative that you need to know as they are very common (no difference in meaning from the regular forms). I have put them next to the regular forms.

Mnemonic Alert: Given that all the active present/future/2nd aorist optative endings have οἰ in them, you could think of the optative as the οἰptative!

	Present Optative	Future Opt	2nd Aorist Optative	1st Aorist Opt
1 sg.	λύοιμι	λύσοιμι	λίποιμι	λύσαιμι
2	λύοις	λύσοις	λίποις	λύσαις λύσειας
3	λύοι	λύσοι	λίποι	λύσαι λύσειε(ν)
1 pl.	λύοιμεν	λύσοιμεν	λίποιμεν	λύσαιμεν
2	λύοιτε	λύσοιτε	λίποιτε	λύσαιτε
3	λύοιεν	λύσοιεν	λίποιεν	λύσαιεν λύσειαν

Note: I listed the future active optative forms as they are quite straightforward but they are generally only used in a few specific situations (such as indirect statement).

Note: the first aorist optative uses αἰ and so you could call it the αἰptative!

Note: the alternative forms for the first aorist act. optative are very common.

Charming Accent Quirk in the Optative: οἰ and αἰ are considered long for accenting at the ends of words ONLY in the optative mood (and so you can consider this the exception to the usual exception about these two diphthongs at the end of words). In other words, all diphthongs are long in the optative no matter where they appear in a word. This explains the accents of λύοι, λύσοι, λύσαι, κ.τ.λ. This can be important as occasionally charming Greek forms are distinguished only by accent: e.g., λῦσαι "to free" (aor. act. infinitive) vs. λύσαι "if only she may free" (one of many possible translations for the 3rd singular aor. act. optative).

TWO INDEPENDENT USES OF THE OPTATIVE

1. Potential: it refers to future possibility and requires ἄν (and so remember it as the potential!). Translate with "would, could, may, might" and negate with οὐ/οὐκ, οὐχ.

νῦν γὰρ φέρομεν ἄν τὰ δῶρα τῇ Ζωῇ "We could bring gifts to Zoe now."

2. Wish: expresses a future wish and can be used alone or be introduced by εἴθε or εἰ γάρ. It is negated with μή.

εἴθε ἡ Ζωὴ τοῦ κόσμου ἄρχοι. "If only Zoe may rule the universe."

THE VERB "TO BE" in the SUBJUNCTIVE AND OPTATIVE!

	Subjunctive	Optative
1 sg.	ῶ	εἶην
2	ῆς	εἶης
3	ῆ	εἶη
1 pl.	ῶμεν	εἶμεν/ εἶημεν
2	ῆτε	εἶτε/ εἶητε
3	ῶσι(ν)	εἶεν/ εἶησαν

Fun Fact: the subjunctive forms are exactly the same as the regular active subjunctive endings you just learned above (fun game: write out the subjunctive endings and the verb "to be" in the subjunctive--that's it...that's the whole game! you're welcome!).

Equally Fun Fact: the optative forms for "to be" are exactly the same as one of the sets of active endings for the optative mood! We will see these forms again on Day 7 with the contract verbs.

SOME QUICK TIME AND SPACE CONSTRUCTIONS (similar to Latin!)

As with Latin, note the overlaps in time and space with these case uses.

Genitive of Time Within Which: cf. Latin *ablative of time within which*. Use "during" or "within" to translate this: e.g., τῆς ἡμέρας during the day.

Dative of Time When or Place Where: cf. Latin *ablative of time when or place where*. e.g., ταύτη τῇ ἡμέρᾳ on this day (can also appear with a preposition). The spatial dative takes a preposition such as ἐν: ἐν ἀγορᾷ in the marketplace.

Accusative of Extent of Time or Space: cf. same case uses in Latin!

E.g., δέκα ἔτη οἱ μικροὶ ἐπαίδευον τὸν δῆμον. The small dogs were educating the people for ten years.

QUICK SUMMARY OF BASIC CASE USES...

Nominative: subject of verb (or for anything modifying it such as a predicative adj/noun in a predicate nominative construction)

Genitive: possession; time within which; partitive (exactly like Latin partitive gen.); separation (just like the Latin abl. of separation); agent; comparison; genitive uses often correspond to the many uses in English of "of" and so you could call this case the GenitOF...

Dative: indirect object; means or instrument; manner; time when or place where; advantage or disadvantage (just like Latin!); possessor (just like Latin!); respect (cf. Latin abl. of respect); agent (with perfect pass.); degree of difference (cf. abl. of degree of diff.).

Accusative: direct object; subject of infinitive; respect (e.g., ἀγαθὸς νοῦν "good in respect to his mind"); extent or duration of time or space; adverbial use (e.g., πολὺ cf. *multum*)

Vocative: only used to address someone or something directly (often preceded by ὦ)

Note: as you can see, the genitive and dative have the most number of uses and so be especially careful to learn those for maximum safety on the Greek translating streets. As you have undoubtedly noticed, Greek doesn't have an ablative case and so most of its uses are spread over the Greek genitive and dative.

PRONOUNS!

I've always been very pro-noun myself and so I am happy we have reached this point where we can discuss pronouns (which of course stand by themselves *pro* nouns). The personal pronouns are very straightforward and I will just list them with little commentary. We will then look at the set of forms that amazingly serve as interrogative pronouns and adjectives as well as indefinite pronouns and adjectives (the indefinite ones are enclitic and so you don't have to rely only on context!). Learning the one set of τίς, τί forms allows you to express all those things! *mirabile auditu*, right?!

INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES!!!

The interrogative pronoun (*who? what?*) is a third-declension (two-termination) word in Greek: τίς, τί. I have written out the forms below and please be careful to learn the common alternate forms which look charmingly similar to the definite article. It turns out that the *same exact set of forms* is also used for the indefinite pronoun and adjective and the only difference is that the indefinite pronoun/adjective is enclitic and so may or may not have an accent (whereas the interrogative pronoun/adjective has consistent fixed accents). Even if the indefinite pronoun gets an accent (it depends on the preceding word), that accent will generally not be on the same syllable as it is for the interrogative forms.

Full Disclosure: that only helps for two-syllable forms as you will see but that is quite a bit of help since most of the forms have two syllables! As it turns out, the interrogative forms always have a fixed accent over that initial τί- syllable (even on the monosyllabic forms when another word follows it--τίς and τί will always look the same and the acute will never shift to a grave accent as is normal--you remember that! That is so Day One!). It is then a rare exception to the accenting rules but a really useful one! So, as you can see below, the interrogative forms look very distinctive and consistent. The indefinite forms often have no accent at all but if they do, it goes over the ultima (and so NOT on the same

syllable as most of the interrogative forms). This is a moment where accents are very helpful as they make forms clearly different. Let's look now at the forms as that will make this easier to grasp. Then we will go over examples of this important set of forms and their charming array of possible translations. At this point, you might wish to glance out the window and marvel to yourself (or aloud to your fellow Greek enthusiasts): *illa lingua Graeca!*

	Interrogative Pronoun/Adjective		Indefinite Pronoun/Adjective	
	Masc./Fem.	Neuter	Masc./Fem.	Neuter
Nom. sg.	τίς	τί	τίς	τι
Gen.	τίνος (τουῦ)	τίνος (τουῦ)	τινός (του)	τινός (του)
Dat.	τίνι (τῷ)	τίνι (τῷ)	τινί (τινι)	τινί (τινι)
Acc.	τίνα	τί	τινά	τι
Nom. pl.	τίνες	τίνα	τινές	τινά
Gen.	τίνων	τίνων	τινῶν	τινῶν
Dat.	τίσι(ν)	τίσι(ν)	τισί(ν)	τισί(ν)
Acc.	τίνας	τίνα	τινάς	τινά

Similar Form Alert: the gen. and dat. singular alternate forms in parentheses do look exactly like a few of the definite article forms (especially in the interrogative forms where the accent is always there--as mentioned above, the indefinite forms often don't have any accent and so will look a little different).

Note: There are a few charming enclitic accenting rules that eventually you will want to know thoroughly but for now, just be aware that enclitic words in Greek sometimes have an accent and other times don't. If this were Greek in 11 Days, I would go into more depth with that right now, but I will be happy to show you the full enclitic rules if you are curious!

When you encounter one of these charming forms out there on the Greek streets, you should be systematic and ask yourself these questions:

1) is this form interrogative or indefinite? The interrogative forms have fixed accents and they are used in questions (usually direct but sometimes indirect questions--see appendix for more!). The indefinite forms are frequently in general statements but they can be really used in almost any type of discursive context. Remember that if the form has no accent (or if a two-syllable form has an accent on the ultima), then that is unambiguously an indefinite form.

2) is this form a pronoun or an adjective? This is easy to determine. If the form is standing alone, then it is a pronoun (as all pronouns stand in for nouns, or act on behalf of nouns--hence the name!). If the form agrees with a noun, then it is an adjective. Of course, like any adjective, the indefinite adjective can stand alone as a substantive, but context will make this clear.

If you consistently ask yourself those two questions, then you will have no problems distinguishing one of these forms and its function in a sentence. Ready for some examples?! Here they are:

τίς εἶπε ταῦτα; "Who said these things?"

Explanation: τίς is interrogative as it is being used in a question and it has the fixed acute accent even though another word directly follows it. It is not agreeing with a noun and thus standing alone. Hence, τίς is an interrogative pronoun.

τίς ἀνὴρ εἶπε ταῦτα; "What man said these things?"

Explanation: τίς is interrogative but here is agreeing with the noun ἀνὴρ and so this is an interrogative adjective. Note again that the accent on τίς is fixed and it doesn't change to a grave accent even though another word directly follows.

τίνι ταῦτα ἔπεμψας; "To whom did you send these things?"

Explanation: τίνι is interrogative and is standing alone and so is an interrogative pronoun.

ἡ Ζωὴ τινα ἐν τῇ ἀγορᾷ εἶδεν. "Zoe saw someone in the marketplace."

Explanation: τινα has no accent and is enclitic. This automatically confirms this is an indefinite form. It is standing by itself and so it is an indefinite pronoun. By the way, enclitics are so called because they lean on the preceding word (ἐγκλίνω lean on).

λύει τις τούτους. "Someone frees these people."

Explanation: τις is enclitic and so is indefinite (and it is not being used in a question). It stands alone and so this is an indefinite pronoun.

πολίτης τις εἶπε ταῦτα. "Some citizen said these things."

Explanation: τις is enclitic and so it is indefinite. It is modifying the noun πολίτης and so this is an indefinite adjective.

Similarity to English Alert: we have a very similar overlap of forms in English.

Consider the following:

"What did you read?" ("what" is an interrogative pronoun)

"What book did you read?" ("what" is an interrogative adjective)

FIRST AND SECOND PERSON PERSONAL PRONOUNS

As an inflected language, Greek does not need personal pronouns as often or as much as English does. The subject is clear enough from the verb endings. However, the Greeks used them to emphasize subjects and of course used them much as we do in English for objects. The alternate enclitic forms in the singular are less emphatic than the regular forms.

	First Person	Second Person
Nom. sg.	ἐγώ	σύ
Gen.	ἐμοῦ (μου)	σοῦ (σου)
Dat.	ἐμοί (μοι)	σοί (σοι)
Acc.	ἐμέ (με)	σέ (σε)
Nom. pl.	ἡμεῖς	ὑμεῖς
Gen.	ἡμῶν	ὑμῶν
Dat.	ἡμῖν	ὑμῖν
Acc.	ἡμᾶς	ὑμᾶς

Mnemonic Alert for the 2nd pers. pl: ὑμεῖς is 2nd person as it begins with υ (sounds like "you"!).

HOW TO EXPRESS POSSESSION: the Greeks used either the genitives of the personal pronouns (in the sing. they typically used the less emphatic enclitic forms) or these possessive adjectives:

ἐμός, ἐμή, ἐμόν my

ἡμέτερος, ἡμετέρα, ἡμέτερον our

σός, σή, σόν your (referring to one person)

ὑμέτερος, ὑμετέρα, ὑμέτερον your (referring to more than one person)

For possession in the third person, use the genitive forms of αὐτός, αὐτή, αὐτό.

Example: τὸ αὐτοῦ βιβλίον = "the book of him" "his book"

Note: αὐτός, ἡ, ὁ is quite a versatile adjective and easy to form (declines exactly like ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο.

THREE USES OF αὐτός, αὐτή, αὐτό

1. **third-person personal pronoun** (him, her, them) **only** in the oblique cases (i.e. all cases except the nominative).

e.g., ἐπέμψαμεν αὐτῷ δῶρα we sent gifts to him

e.g., ἐπαιδεύσαμεν αὐτοὺς ἐν τῇ ἀγορᾷ we educated them in the marketplace.

2. **-self (emphatic use)** it emphasizes the word it agrees with and can do this either alone in the nominative or while standing in the predicate position:

e.g., ὁ κλώψ αὐτός the thief himself

e.g., ἐπέμψαμεν αὐτὸν τὸν Ὅμηρον εἰς τὴν νῆσον. We sent Homer himself onto the island.

3. "the same" (requires the form of αὐτός to be in the attributive position)

e.g., ὁ αὐτὸς κλώψ the same thief

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS!

These are pretty straightforward and combine personal pronouns with forms of αὐτός, ἡ, ὁ. Note the alternate contracted forms in parentheses as they are important! Watch out for the rough breathing on the third-person reflexives. Also be careful for the forms in the plural that are periphrastic (i.e. use more than one word). As you know from Latin, reflexive pronouns cannot appear in the nominative as the idea is for the pronoun to reflect back to the nominative (and so can't already be in the nominative). Students often confuse the emphatic "I myself saw the dog" with the reflexive "I saw myself in the mirror." That is of course the fault of English for using the same -self suffix for emphasis and for reflexives. Greek is friendly and charming and would never do that to you!

	1st pers. masc.	1st pers. fem.	2nd pers. masc.	2nd pers. fem.
Gen sg.	ἐμαυτοῦ	ἐμαυτῆς	σεαυτοῦ (σαυτοῦ)	σεαυτῆς (σαυτῆς)
Dat.	ἐμαυτῷ	ἐμαυτῇ	σεαυτῷ (σαυτῷ)	σεαυτῇ (σαυτῇ)
Acc.	ἐμαυτόν	ἐμαυτήν	σεαυτόν (σαυτόν)	σεαυτήν (σαυτήν)

As mentioned above, the plurals are periphrastic in the 1st and 2nd person and so they use the regular pronoun plus a matching form of αὐτός, ἡ, ὁ.

	first person plural reflexive		2nd person plural reflexive	
	M	F	M	F
Gen. pl.	ἡμῶν αὐτῶν	ἡμῶν αὐτῶν	ὕμῶν αὐτῶν	ὕμῶν αὐτῶν
Dat.	ἡμῖν αὐτοῖς	ἡμῖν αὐταῖς	ὕμῖν αὐτοῖς	ὕμῖν αὐταῖς
Acc.	ἡμᾶς αὐτούς	ἡμᾶς αὐτάς	ὕμᾶς αὐτούς	ὕμᾶς αὐτάς

The 3rd person reflexive pronoun generally uses the older pronoun form (which is common in Homer) *ἐ* and appends the appropriate form of αὐτός, ἡ, *ὄ*. There are alternate contracted forms where the *ἐ* disappears from view but you can still see its presence by the rough breathing (which distinguishes it from the ordinary αὐτός forms). There are neuter forms for the third person as well...yeah!

Third Person Reflexives

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter
Gen. sg.	ἐαυτοῦ (αὐτοῦ)	ἐαυτῆς (αὐτῆς)	ἐαυτοῦ (αὐτοῦ)
Dat.	ἐαυτῷ (αὐτῷ)	ἐαυτῇ (αὐτῇ)	ἐαυτῷ (αὐτῷ)
Acc.	ἐαυτόν (αὐτόν)	ἐαυτήν (αὐτήν)	ἐαυτό (αὐτό)
Gen. pl.	ἐαυτῶν (αὐτῶν)	ἐαυτῶν (αὐτῶν)	ἐαυτῶν (αὐτῶν)
Dat.	ἐαυτοῖς (αὐτοῖς)	ἐαυταῖς (αὐταῖς)	ἐαυτοῖς (αὐτοῖς)
Acc.	ἐαυτούς (αὐτούς)	ἐαυτάς (αὐτάς)	ἐαυτά (αὐτά)

DAY SIX: Purpose Clauses, Sequence of Moods, Middle and Passive Forms, Indirect Statement and the Incomparable Comparatives!

Purpose Clauses and the Sequence of Moods:

This is your first use of the subjunctive and optative moods in subordinate clauses. As you'll see, purpose clauses use both moods depending on the tense of the main verb in the sentence. Primary sequence clauses take the subjunctive while secondary sequence clauses take the optative (with a few charming exceptions). This is a good example of a construction where the subjunctive and optative moods convey the same idea and don't have any intrinsic difference in meaning. As Latin students, you are familiar with the importance of sequence and relating main clauses and subordinate clauses. Greek has something similar but whereas Latin has a sequence of tenses, *Greek has a sequence of moods*. As you can see below, the tense of the main clause is still important as it is in Latin. In Greek, the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause doesn't really matter as much as its mood. This system of a sequence of moods makes a lot of sense and is not difficult, just a bit unexpected for Latin students such as yourselves. I think it will be easier to understand with a charming chart and a few examples.

SEQUENCE OF MOODS!!!

Sequence	Main Verb	Subordinate Clause
Primary	primary tense	subjunctive
Secondary	secondary tense	optative

Primary tenses refer to present or future time and so include the present, future, and perfect tenses (and the very rare future perfect).

Secondary tenses refer to past time and so include the imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect.

Translation Note: for some constructions such as the purpose clause (see below), you will usually use "may" with the subjunctive and "might" with the optative. For others, the subjunctive and optative are not really translated differently but just mark a clause as being in primary or secondary sequence. As in Latin, you will find that some constructions will use the subjunctive or optative but be rendered much like an indicative. In short, there is not a single fixed translation for either the subjunctive or optative and it really depends on what sort of clause you are translating (and that is why subjunctives and optatives are generally not paired with translations in paradigms as there are too many charming choices to choose from!)

These Clauses Give Your Life Purpose!

Purpose clauses are introduced by *ὥς*, *ἵνα*, or *ὅπως* (with no difference of meaning) and the tense of the main verb determines what sequence you are in and so whether that purpose clause will use the subjunctive or optative.

Here are two examples:

ὁ ἄνθρωπος πέμπει δῶρα τοῖς θεοῖς ἵνα λύωσι τοὺς κακοὺς.

The man sends gifts to the gods in order that the gods may destroy the evil ones.

Explanation: *πέμπει* is present tense and since that is one of the primary tenses, this sentence is in primary sequence and the purpose clause (or really almost any subordinate or dependent clause) will be in the subjunctive mood.

ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἔπεμψε δῶρα τοῖς θεοῖς ἵνα λύοιεν τοὺς κακοὺς.

The man sent gifts to the gods in order that the gods might destroy the evil ones.

Explanation: *ἔπεμψε* is aorist tense and since that is one of the secondary tenses, this sentence is in secondary sequence and the purpose clause will use the optative mood.

Again, *the tense of the main verb determines the sequence of the sentence*. Although we often use "may" or "might" to distinguish the sequence in our translations, there is still no real difference in meaning in terms of how the subjunctive and optative are functioning to convey purpose.

Tense Outside Indicative Indicates Aspect: the tense of the subjunctive or optative generally indicates aspect and not time. The present subjunctive and optative indicates progressive or repeated aspect and so are used to suggest that the action is ongoing or habitual. The aorist subjunctive or optative indicate simple aspect and are so are used for simple actions that usually occur once. This difference of aspect can be subtle and is not generally rendered in translation. If the Greeks want to emphasize this difference, they can add adverbs to indicate how often the action takes place or whether the action is ongoing or one-time. The perfect subjunctive or optative is much less common and we won't deal with it here but just so you know, the perfect tense is used to emphasize that an action has just been completed. These three types of aspect (simple, repeated, and completed) are of course used outside of the subjunctive and optative and I will point them out as we encounter them. When you encounter an indicative verb out on the Greek streets, be aware that tense can really indicate either time or aspect but for the most part you should think of tense as indicating time in the indicative and aspect everywhere else. As you will see (and as you have seen in Latin), infinitives and participles can indicate relative time to

clarify the order of events when you have multiple actions being described, but don't worry about that for the moment.

CHARMING EXCEPTION TO THE SEQUENCE OF MOODS!

Occasionally the Greeks used the subjunctive in secondary sequence to convey a bit of (untranslatable) extra emphasis or vividness. This is called a *retained subjunctive*. It is reasonably common and so you should be aware of this little exception to the rules of sequence. Here is an example:

ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἔπεμψε δῶρα τοῖς θεοῖς ἵνα λύωσι τοὺς κακοὺς.

The man sent gifts to the gods in order that the gods might destroy the evil ones.

Note: This is secondary sequence with a retained subjunctive for a bit of extra emphasis or immediacy. That bit of extra emphasis is hard to render in translation but you can indicate this emphasis with a slightly more emphatic tone of voice when translating aloud. Of course, you should generally focus on your own awesomeness for recognizing a retained subjunctive and then render the subjunctive as if it were the expected optative in secondary sequence.

The MIDDLE AND PASSIVE VOICES!!!

The middle voice has occasioned unnecessary fear in the hearts of many a Greek student in the last few thousand years. Do not fear the middle voice and rest assured that soon you will wish to see it in other languages. You will one day tell your friends to adopt the linguistic "middle way" for real peace of mind). We don't have anything exactly like the middle voice in English and this has added to its reputation as something elusive or confusing. The middle voice in Greek is used to convey actions that bring some benefit or effect to the subject of the verb. It can resemble a reflexive in some situations in that the action of the verb returns somehow back to the subject but the middle is not simply a substitute for reflexives (Greek does have reflexive pronouns, don't worry!). In terms of its form and usage, the middle is an interesting combination of active and passive. **MEN**, they are similar to active verbs in that they can be transitive and take direct objects or they can be intransitive (meaning simply that they do not take a direct object). **ΔΕ**, the middle forms often look the same as passive forms and in fact, *the middle and the passive forms are identical in all but two tenses (future and aorist)*. This is cause for celebration as you can mostly just learn one set of forms and then just take note of how a given verb is being used in a given sentence and it should be clear from context whether it is middle or passive.

Greek sometimes uses the middle voice as a way to allow a special additional meaning or two to a verb...and so the middle voice can literally make Greek verbs more meaningful! On occasion, you can see the connection between the active and middle meanings of verbs but that won't always be obvious and so you just need to be ready to have a given verb mean something different in the middle. As an example of a verb with a clearly connect, λύω means "free, release" in the active voice and "ransom" in the middle voice. If you think about it, that is a clear connection. If you ransom, you "release with some benefit to oneself." You don't have to figure out the connections between the active and middle meanings of a typical verb as a lexicon will indicate whenever a verb has an unexpected meaning in the middle. Often you can just translate the middle voice as if it were an active and nothing dire will transpire (and I will point out many instances in the coming days where the middle meaning is clearly similar to or different from the active meaning(s)).

Here are a few more examples of verbs with different meanings in the active and middle voices:

ἄρχω means "rule" in the active and "begin" in the middle and there is not an obvious connection between those meanings

γράφω means "write" in the active and "indict" in the middle and perhaps you can see a connection there (you may prosecute someone with some hoped-for benefit to oneself, especially in the Greek system where individuals served as prosecutors and defenders and there were no professional lawyers).

φέρω means "bring, carry, bear" (among other things) in the active and "win" in the middle. This seems to me an example where you should just learn the meaning of the middle and not worry about connecting the meanings of the active and middle.

There are a number of smaller semantic twists and turns you will encounter with the middle voice. For instance, a verb can be transitive in the active but intransitive in the middle: e.g., παύω means "stop" in the active and takes a direct object but it means "cease" in the middle and doesn't take a direct object. Any self-respecting Greek lexicon will tell you these kinds of charming details and you are not expected to intuit or figure out that kind of thing. The idea of the middle voice conveying a different meaning from the active voice will become ordinary to you by, say, Day 7 or 8, if not earlier!

The Relationship Between the Middle and Passive: the passive voice will generally follow the active meaning (with the usual reversal that happens in the passive voice of any language: the subject receives the action in the passive and performs the action in the active voice). So, for instance, ἄρχομαι as a middle means "I begin" but as a passive, it means "I am ruled." Since the middle and passive usually look the same, you must very often rely on context and whether the verb takes a direct object since passive verbs never take direct objects in Greek.

MIDDLE-PASSIVE INDICATIVE ENDINGS (for primary tenses)

	Singular	Plural
1	-ομαι	-όμεθα
2	-ει/-η	-εσθε
3	-εται	-ονται

Infinitive: -εσθαι

These endings work for the present middle-passive and the future middle (just add these endings to the appropriate stem). The future passive uses a completely different stem and shares that stem, strangely enough, with the aorist passive--they both use the stem in the sixth and final principal part in case you are curious but more on that later).

Note: as you can see, the second-person singular has two endings that sound the same but are spelled differently. They are both common and have no difference in meaning and so learn them both! For those curious, the original ending was -εσαι and the intervocalic sigma dropped and you end up with ει/η.

	Present Middle-Passive		Future Middle	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	λύομαι	λύόμεθα	λύσομαι	λυσόμεθα
2	λύει/λύη	λύεσθε	λύσει/λύση	λύσεσθε
3	λύεται	λύονται	λύσεται	λύσονται

Infinitive: λύεσθαι λύσεσθαι

Note: watch out for the -ει/η ending as those are obviously the same for the basic 3rd singular active ending. Context will distinguish the active λύει "she frees" from the middle λύει "you are ransoming" or the passive λύει "you are being freed." *illa lingua graeca!!!*

MIDDLE-PASSIVE INDICATIVE ENDINGS (for secondary tenses)

Imperfect Middle-Passive		First Aorist Middle		2nd Aorist Middle		
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	-όμην	-όμεθα	-άμην	-άμεθα	-όμην	-όμεθα
2	-ου	-εσθε	-ω	-ασθε	-ου	-εσθε
3	-ετο	-οντο	-ατο	-αντο	-ετο	-οντο

Note: the 2nd person singular in the imperfect mid-pass. and the 2nd aorist middle originally had the form -εσο but in a sound change you may be able to predict by now, the intervocalic sigma dropped and the remaining vowels (εο) contracted to yield ου. This explains why the 2nd singular appears to change theme vowels from the expected ε to an interesting ο. As this diphthong was the result of sound changes and not original, it is called a *spurious diphthong* (great band name, right?!).

Theme Vowel Reminder: Remember that the usual sequence of theme vowels is ο, ε, ε in the singular endings and ο, ε, ο in the plural endings. You can see them most clearly in the imperfect active forms.

Overlapping Forms Alert: as is true in the active voice as well, the imperfect middle-passive and aorist middle endings are exactly the same. You can only distinguish them by the stem (present or aorist and so the stem from the first or third principal parts).

Another Intervocalic Sigma Drops: the first aorist middle looks very much like the other forms but with the substitution of α for the theme vowels ε and ο. The 2nd singular (often a charm generator in the middle and passive endings!) is another instance where the intervocalic sigma has dropped. The original ending was -ασο and when the sigma dropped, the remaining vowels (αο) contracted to yield the ending -ω.

Tricky Form Alert: that 2nd singular aorist middle ending in -ω looks initially like an active 1st singular form but remember that the aorist middle will be augmented and have an aorist stem. So, it is not an ambiguous form but students understandably confuse it for an active 1st singular until they have seen enough of those to keep both possibilities in mind.

	Imperfect Mid-Pass.	First Aorist Middle	Second Aorist Middle
1 sg.	ἐλειπόμην	ἐλυσάμην	ἐλιπόμην
2	ἐλείπου	ἐλύσω	ἐλίπου
3	ἐλείπετο	ἐλύσατο	ἐλίπετο
1 pl.	ἐλειπόμεθα	ἐλυσάμεθα	ἐλιπόμεθα
2	ἐλείπεσθε	ἐλύσασθε	ἐλίπεσθε
3	ἐλείποντο	ἐλύσαντο	ἐλίποντο
Infinitive:		λύσασθαι	λιπέσθαι

Note: Remember that the imperfect never has any infinitive (or subjunctive or optative or imperative for that matter).

Fixed Accenting Note: the second aorist has fixed accents for its infinitive: λιπεῖν, λιπέσθαι (it is consistently on the accenting right after the end of the stem). As you will see below, the aorist passive also has a fixed accent on the penult (λυθῆναι). It is also the case that Greek always accents the syllable before a final -ναι and that will determine how you accent perfect active infinitives (and that is in fact why the aorist passive infinitive has that accent).

FUTURE AND AORIST PASSIVE (6th principal part)

As mentioned above, the future and aorist passive both use the sixth principal part for their stem but the two sets of forms are otherwise clearly different. The aorist passive is augmented in the usual way for any past tenses of the indicative, and it has a distinct set of endings as you can see below. The future passive uses the 6th principal part with ησ after the stem and before the regular primary M-P endings. The future and aorist passive are not difficult to recognize or translate and I have given you the formulae here as well as the endings and a sample of each. You won't have to use these in the homework for today but they will be helpful on Day 8 when we sightread some Homer (in particular the aorist passive as it is a common tense you'll see frequently on the Homeric streets).

Formula for Aorist Passive: augment + 6th prin. part stem + endings (-ην, -ης, -η, -ημεν, -ητε, -ησαν). E.g., ἐ + λύθ + ην = ἐλύθην "I was freed" (a simple past expressed in the passive voice).

Formula for Future Passive: 6th prin. part stem + ησ + primary mid-pass. endings (-ομαι, -ει/-η, -εται, -ομεθα, -εσθε, -ονται). E.g., λυθ + ησ + ομαι = λυθήσομαι "I will be freed."

Note: technically, the stem is here λύ- and the sign of the aorist passive is θη/θε (with the long vowel θη used in the indicative and infinitive and the short vowel θε used for the subjunctive, optative, and participle) but for the sake of convenience here, you can think of λύθ as the stem (as otherwise the stem will look exactly like the present stem--linguistically true but not particularly helpful for you trying to learn Greek in 8 Days! Similarly, the endings for the aorist passive are really -ν, -ς, --, -μεν, -τε, -σαν which should seem like familiar secondary endings by now but the eta makes that set of endings more distinct and easier to chant to your friends at lunch (an important consideration, right?).

Overlapping Ending Alert: the endings of the aorist passive have some overlaps with active verb endings you have learned (cf. imperfect and aorist active endings) but the presence of θη before the endings is distinctively aorist passive (or even just the presence of the eta itself as a number of verbs don't use the theta in this tense).

	AORIST PASSIVE		FUTURE PASSIVE	
1 sg.	-ην	ἐλύθην	-ομαι	λυθήσομαι
2	-ης	ἐλύθης	-ει/-η	λυθήσει/λυθήση
3	-η	ἐλύθη	-εται	λυθήσεται
1 pl.	-ημεν	ἐλύθημεν	-ομεθα	λυθησόμεθα
2	-ητε	ἐλύθητε	-εσθε	λυθήσεσθε
3	-ησαν	ἐλύθησαν	-ονται	λυθήσονται
Infinitive	--ῆναι	λυθῆναι	-εσθαι	λυθήσεσθαι

Note: the 6th principal part stem very often but not always has a theta at the end of the root. Here are a few examples of verbs whose 6th principal part do not have a theta. This does not affect the meaning at all but I don't want you to rely too much on the presence of a theta in this principal part.

The aorist passive is very common and so here are some sample sets of forms! Enjoy!

	πέμπω send	γράφω write	βάλλω throw, hit	ἄγω lead
1 sg.	ἐπέμφθην	ἐγράφη	ἐβάλην	ἤχθην
2	ἐπέμφθης	ἐγράφης	ἐβάλης	ἤχθης
3	ἐπέμφθη	ἐγράφη	ἐβάλη	ἤχθη
1 pl.	ἐπέμφθημεν	ἐγράφημεν	ἐβάλημεν	ἤχθημεν
2	ἐπέμφθητε	ἐγράφητε	ἐβάλητε	ἤχθητε
3	ἐπέμφθησαν	ἐγράφησαν	ἐβάλησαν	ἤχθησαν
Infinitive	πεμφθῆναι	γραφήναι	βαλῆναι	ἄχθῆναι

Note: as always, the infinitive is not augmented and that is why the η gets "de-augmented" back down to the α in the root.

Note: the aorist passive of βάλλω loses one of its lambdas in the 6th principal part. This is a brief cautionary tale about why it is important to pay attention to principal parts. In the case of this verb, that one letter can make one λ of a difference!

MIDDLE and PASSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE ENDINGS!

These are blissfully easy to form as you will see below. The Greeks simply lengthened the theme vowels for the usual primary middle-passive endings and added the appropriate stem. As with the active forms above, we will focus only on the present and aorist tenses as those are the only commonly occurring tenses of the subjunctive. As always, it is important to pay attention to the stem of the verb! The aorist passive has its own set of easy forms (with one tiny oddity) which I will put below but we won't dwell on it today.

		Present Mid-Pass.	1st Aorist Middle	2nd Aorist Middle
1 sg.	-ωμαι	λύωμαι	λύσωμαι	λίπωμαι
2	-η	λύη	λύση	λίπη
3	-ηται	λύηται	λύσηται	λίπηται
1 pl.	-ώμεθα	λυώμεθα	λυσώμεθα	λιπώμεθα
2	-ησθε	λύησθε	λύσησθε	λίπησθε
3	-ωνται	λύωνται	λύσωνται	λίπωνται

Note: There are no augments on any aorist subjunctive forms because (as you know) you *only augment the indicative* (cue inspiring music courtesy of the Grammar Café).

Note: as was true in the active voice, the only difference between the present middle-passive and aorist middle subjunctive is the stem. The present and first aorist subjunctive can also look quite similar (depending on how similar the verb stem is) but they will not be identical (and often will look quite different as Greek helpfully has multiple stems for a number of its verbs--that may initially seem like a challenge but it is quite helpful in distinguishing these subjunctive forms...*illa lingua Graeca!!!*)

Aspect Reminder: The difference between the present and aorist subjunctive is one of aspect with the pres. tense showing repeated actions and the aorist tense indicating simple or one-time actions.

MIDDLE-PASSIVE OPTATIVE ENDINGS:

As you might expect, the present middle and passive optative endings look the same and I will only write out one set of forms (just as I did above for the present middle-passive subjunctive). I will put the present mid-pass., future middle and aorist middle optative forms below. The aorist passive subjunctive and optative share the same stem and so I saved them for last and directly juxtaposed them below. Remember that the middle and passive forms always look the same in all tenses except the future and aorist (true for all four moods because Greek is your friend!).

	Present M-P (and Fut. Mid.)	1st Aorist Mid.	2nd Aorist Middle
1 sg.	-οίμην	-αίμην	-οίμην
2	-οιο	-αιο	-οιο
3	-οιτο	-αιτο	-οιτο
1 pl.	-οίμεθα	-αίμεθα	οίμεθα
2	-οισθε	-αισθε	-οισθε
3	-οιντο	-αιντο	-οιντο

Yet another disappearance of the intervocalic sigma: in a move that must be familiar to you now, the original 2nd person singular endings -οισσο and -αισσο lose their intervocalic sigmas and become -οιο and -αιο.

Note: the α in the first aorist middle optative is a reliable indicator of the aorist tense, just as it was in the aorist active optative (and in most of the first aorist indicative forms as well).

More Evidence for the Importance of the Verb Stem: as was true with the subjunctive forms, the present and second aorist endings are identical and so they only differ in the stem (e.g., present λειποίμην vs. aorist λιποίμην).

Reminder: you will never augment aorist optatives because, as you all know by now, you *only augment the indicative!* (certainly a sentiment worthy of a τ-shirt to be sold in the Grammar Café).

Linguistic Note for Those Interested: Note that no vowel contractions then happened and so here, Greek is perfectly content to allow vowels to hang out next to diphthongs. Why, you ask? Good question! Attic Greek loves to encourage two adjacent short vowels to contract and thereby create a lovely diphthong (as we have seen in third declension nouns earlier). However, diphthongs next to short vowels do not contract because diphthongs are long and Greek prefers to contract two short vowels (think of the diphthong as too strong and autonomous to contract).

AORIST PASSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND OPTATIVE!

	Aorist Passive Subjunctive		Aorist Passive Optative	
1 sg.	-ῶ	λυθῶ	-εῖην	λυθείην
2	-ῆς	λυθῆς	-εῖης	λυθείης

3	-ῆ	λυθῆ	-εῖη	λυθείη
1 pl.	-ῶμεν	λυθῶμεν	-ειμεν/-ειημεν	λυθειῖμεν (λυθείημεν)
2	-ῆτε	λυθῆτε	-ειτε/-ειητε	λυθειῖτε (λυθείητε)
3	-ῶσι(ν)	λυθῶσι(ν)	-ειεν/-ειησαν	λυθειῖεν (λυθείησαν)

Note: in a delightfully charming twist of linguistic fate, the aorist passive subjunctive has endings that look just like the active subjunctive endings with the lengthened theme vowels. **Accenting Note for Those Interested (i.e. everyone!):** the circumflex accent is there because technically the short vowel version of the aorist passive stem collides with the lengthened theme vowel of the subjunctive. The circumflex commemorates the site of the collision (a common function of the circumflex as we will see on Day 7!).

Note: as mentioned above, there is a second set of endings for the optative and they are used in a few instances. The aorist passive optative is one of them! As you can see, there are alternate forms for the plurals with no difference in meaning.

Really Fun Fact: the endings -ειην, -ειης, -ειη/-ειημεν, -ειτε/-ειητε, -ειεν/-ειησαν just happen to be EXACTLY the same as the actual present optative forms of εἶμι "to be" (including the alternate forms in the plural!). *quam gelidum!!!*

ὑπό + the Genitive of Personal Agent

This construction corresponds to *a(b) + abl.* of personal agent in Latin. If you see ὑπό + gen. of personal agent, consider it a very reliable sign or hint that the verb is passive (like most prepositions in Greek, ὑπό can have other meanings but this is definitely a very common construction). Here is an example:

ὁ Πλάτων ἐπαιδεύετο ὑπὸ τοῦ Σωκράτους. Plato was being educated by Socrates.

Middle and Passive Deponents (could this language get any better?!)

Greek has deponent verbs just as Latin does although Greek manages to add an interesting twist by having both middle and passive deponents. As you undoubtedly recall, Latin deponent verbs *set aside* their active forms and look passive but they are still translated as actives. Given that Greek has both a middle and a passive voice, this charmingly opens up new grammatical vistas and so there are verbs that have only middle forms (called middle deponents) and other verbs that have only passive forms (called passive deponents). As you know, the middle and the passive look the same in all but two tenses (future and aorist) and so it will often be a bit challenging to tell whether you are dealing with a middle or a passive deponent. **But never fear, as that is the subject of the next paragraph!**

How to Distinguish Middle and Passive Deponents (and why it is not all that crucial!): You can always tell by looking at the principal parts of a given verb as they appear in any good Greek lexicon such as the small Liddell and Scott (I strongly recommend the little Liddell as it is known far and wide). The sixth principal part (as you know) of any normal Greek verb is the aorist passive indicative first singular. If this aorist passive form is missing in the list of principal parts, then you must have a middle deponent! That is the best way to determine whether you have a middle or passive deponent verb. The good news is that it doesn't really matter all that much since you will translate either type of deponent as an active verb in any case. If the verb is a middle deponent, then you just translate it as if it were active and resist the temptation to add some sort of "middle-ish" force (i.e. just treat it like any other ordinary deponent verb).

Note: both types of deponent verbs will lack the fourth principal part since that is reserved for the perfect active indicative (and so it never used in deponent verbs). There is no way to predict what verbs will turn out to be deponent in Greek and so you should just consider it part of the vocabulary and take note when a verb appears with only middle or passive forms.

The Fully Charming SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS!!!

Because Greek is that *gelida*, there are verbs that are called *semi-deponent verbs* where the verb will "go deponent" in a tense or two. You have undoubtedly seen this phenomenon in Latin with verbs such as *audeo, audēre, ausus sum*. A common Greek example is ἀκούω which goes deponent only in the future tense and so the first three principal parts for that verb are as follows: ἀκούω, ἀκούσομαι, ἤκουσα.

TWO TYPES OF INDIRECT STATEMENT

This is a nice and friendly little construction to end our day. It is safe to say that you use it every day (see what I did there?). There are three ways to do indirect statement in Greek and we will briefly look at two of them today (the third one uses participles and so we will look at them on Day 7 if we have a chance--otherwise, that information is in the appendix). These are not difficult, in part because the first one is very similar to English and the second one is very similar to the way Latin does indirect statement (and in fact we have both of these types in English even if we use one much more than the other).

1) MAIN VERB + ὅτι/ὡς + FINITE VERB

In this type that closely resembles indirect statement in English, you need to keep in mind the differences between primary and secondary tenses. ὅτι/ὡς (either is used with no difference in meaning) corresponds to the English word "that" as in "I told you that this would be easy."

--If the main verb is in a primary tense, then the verb in the indirect statement remains just as it was in the direct statement (same tense and mood) unless there needs to be a change of person.

--If the main verb is in a secondary tense, then original indicatives in the reported statement usually flip over to the optative (but preserve the same tense as appeared in the original direct statement).

This is a standard move for dependent clauses in Greek when the main verb is in a secondary (i.e. past) tense and compare our discussion of secondary sequence in purpose clauses back at the beginning of class today.

Note: Indirect statement is not exactly functioning in every way according to rules of sequence in that the indirect statement does not flip its verb automatically into the subjunctive as we saw with purpose clauses and so this similarity only applies to situations where the main verb is in a past tense.

Retained Indicative: on occasion, Greek will retain the original mood of the direct statement even when the main verb in the sentence is in a secondary tense. You may recall something similar with purpose clauses where you could retain the subjunctive and not go to the optative in a secondary sequence purpose clause. The effect in both situations is apparently the same and here adds a bit of extra vividness or emphasis to the reported statement. This difference can be subtle and is not generally rendered in translation.

How does Greek deal with reporting imperfect verbs in secondary sequence? Good question, as Greek doesn't have an imperfect optative and so it can't retain the original tense as it generally likes to do. In that situation, Greek will simply use a present optative, which makes sense since the present and imperfect share the same stem (and together constitute what we call the present system). Alternatively, Greek could retain the original imperfect indicative and avoid that whole oh-no-Greek-doesn't-have-an-imperfect-optative issue entirely!

Enter the Future Optative: the future optative is used to represent an original future indicative when the main verb is in a past time. This is the only somewhat common use of the future optative.

ὁ Σωκράτης λέγει ὅτι/ὡς μικροὶ κύνες παιδεύουσι τὸν δῆμον.
Socrates says that small dogs are educating the people (does that seem a bit *cynical*?)

ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπεν ὅτι/ὡς μικροὶ κύνες παιδεύοιεν τὸν δῆμον.
Socrates said that small dogs were educating the people.

ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπεν ὅτι/ὡς μικροὶ κύνες ἐπαίδευσαν τὸν δῆμον.
Socrates said that small dogs educated the people (RETAINED INDICATIVE)

ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπεν ὅτι/ὡς μικροὶ κύνες παιδεύοιεν τὸν δῆμον.
Socrates said that small dogs would educate the people. (Future Optative Alert!)

2) MAIN VERB + ACCUSATIVE/INFINITIVE (aka just how Latin does it!)
This type of indirect statement is very similar to the way Latin does indirect statement. You must supply "that" in your translation here just as you normally do with Latin. If the subject of the main verb and that of the infinitive are different, then Greek feels compelled (as does Latin and English) to express the subject of the indirect statement by putting that subject into the accusative case. The tense of the infinitive generally retains the tense of the verb in the original direct statement (just as we saw the optative do above). As Greek doesn't have an imperfect infinitive, it will unsurprisingly use the present infinitive to report an original imperfect verb.

In a charming twist (and departure from Latin), Greek doesn't feel the need to express the subject of the infinitive if it is the same as the main subject. So, when rendering into Greek "I think that I am good" you would not restate the subject "I" even though you would need to do so in English and Latin (isn't Greek concise and awesome?!). Any adjective describing that implied subject would go in the nominative for the simple reason that it is modifying the subject of the sentence. I put that first sentence in all bold as it is indeed a bold move on the part of Greek as it will seem odd initially to you that Greek can leave out that subject accusative. I think that I speak for all of us in saying that...

Aspect vs. Relative Time: Two Things the Tense of the Infinitive Can Convey: the tense of the infinitive can indicate either aspect or relative time. As you know, the aspect of the present is progressive or repeated while the aspect of the aorist is simple. A perfect infinitive would emphasize the completion of an action (remember the 3 types of aspect: simple, repeated, completed). Relative time is straightforwardly conveyed by tense: present tense for action simultaneous with main verb; future tense for action later than the main verb; aorist tense for action before the main verb.

Common verbs using this type of indirect statement: νομίζω and φημί (see appendix for the present system of φημί)

ὁ Σωκράτης νομίζει τοὺς μικροὺς κύνας παιδεύειν τὸν δῆμον.

Socrates believes/thinks that the small dogs are educating the people.

Note: in this sentence, the present infinitive is suggesting EITHER that small dogs are educating the people in an ongoing or repeated manner (aspect) OR that they are doing this educating at the same time as Socrates is thinking about it (relative time). Context will usually make it clear what the tense of the infinitive is doing in a given indirect statement.

ἡ Ζωὴ νομίζει εἶναι ἀγαθή. Zoe believes that she is good.

Note: here you have a verb that introduces accus./infinitive type of indirect statement and you can see the infinitive εἶναι ("to be"). There is no subject accusative because *Greek only expresses that when it is different from the main subject*.

Compare these two sentences that report predicate nominative statements notice the presence or absence of the subject accusative and the case of adjectives:

ὁ Σωκράτης νομίζει τοὺς μικροὺς κύνας εἶναι ἀγαθοὺς.

Socrates thinks that small dogs are good. (accus. subject and acc. adj. to agree with that subject)

ὁ Σωκράτης νομίζει ἀγαθὸς εἶναι.

Socrates believes that he (i.e. Socrates himself) is good. (nom. adj. because it agrees with the main subject and no subject acc. because it is all the same subject)

In the first sentence, Socrates is not thinking about himself and so the subject of the indirect statement needs to be explicitly stated. Conversely, in the second sentence, Socrates is indeed thinking about himself and so the writer does not include the subject accusative (there is only one person being discussed). As English speakers and Latin students, you will have to supply that subject as we never say things like "I think to be good" but rather "I think that I am good."

Overlapping English Construction Alert: we do have something very similar to the accus./infinitive construction in English but I think it to be less common. I believe Greek to be superior for making more use of this nifty construction. Do you think me to be right in this?

All the Forms of πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν (all, every; whole)

This is obviously an important word to know in any language and it will also give you a preview of some of the exciting participial forms. As it turns out, this adjective is declined exactly like an active first-aorist participle and so once you know one, you will know the other! πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν usually shows up in the predicate position and means "all." If it appears by itself (without an article) in the singular, it means "every." If it is put into the attributive position, the adjective means "whole" and stresses the unity or entirety of something.

E.g., πάντες οἱ μικροὶ κύνες "all the small dogs"; πᾶς κύων "every dog"; ἡ πᾶσα ἀγορά "the whole marketplace"

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	πᾶς	πᾶσα	πᾶν
Gen.	παντός	πάσης	παντός
Dat.	παντί	πάσῃ	παντί
Acc.	πάντα	πᾶσαν	πᾶν
Nom. pl.	πάντες	πᾶσαι	πάντα
Gen.	πάντων	πασῶν	πάντων
Dat.	πᾶσι(ν)	πάσαις	πᾶσι(ν)
Acc.	πάντας	πάσας	πάντα

Note: as you can see, this uses a mix of first and third declension endings. The feminine endings use that charming variation on the first declension where the singulars have eta in the nom./acc. and short alpha in the gen./dat. (the so-called "eta sandwich"--patent pending!).

That is *all* for today...

DAY SEVEN: Comparatives and Superlatives, the Perfect Active, Some Contract Verbs, and Participles!

A BRIEF GLANCE AT COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES:

What could be a better if not incomparable beginning to this day of Greek class?!

As with indirect statement, comparatives and superlatives in Greek are not difficult and have constructions similar to English and Latin. Isn't Greek the best? No language is better (see what I did there?).

FORMING THE COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE!

There are a few common ways to form a comparative adjective in Greek. First (and most commonly), the adjective gains a suffix -τερος, -τέρα, -τερον which is added to the base of the masculine form of any adjective formed with the first and second declension (such as δίκαιος, α, ον). You can call it the "comprterative" (patent pending mnemonic!). To get the base of the adjective, simply take off the -ος from the masc. nom. sing. and there you have it! This type of comparative adjective has the same endings as ἀγαθός, ή, όν and so just be on the lookout for the distinctive τερ near the end of the word!

Small Issue with the Vowel before the Suffix: Greek uses either ο or ω before the suffix and it is quite easy to determine which one is appropriate (and of course, the Greeks have this all figured out and so you need only worry about this when you are yourself writing Greek). You simply look back to the vowel in the final syllable of the base. If that syllable has a long vowel or diphthong (as in our sample base δικαί-), then you will see an ο before the suffix: δικαιοτέρος, δικαιοτέρα, δικαιοτέρον. If that syllable is short, then Greek will use an ω before the suffix: σοφώτερος, σοφωτέρα, σοφώτερον. **This is a consistent principle in that Greek likes to have a mix of short and long syllables in these comparatives, and so long stems get the short vowel ο while short stems get the long vowel ω.** pas de problème, n'est-ce pas? This doesn't affect the meaning at all and really is just a small difference of a vowel in the middle of comparative adjectives (and we'll see the same thing with superlatives below).

A Related Small Issue with the Quantity of Syllables: in determining whether to add an omicron or omega, you need to know that a syllable can be long naturally (with long vowels, diphthongs, and short vowels) or they can be long by position (a concept familiar to you from scanning Latin verse). So, if a short vowel is followed by two or more consonants or a double consonant (ζ, ξ, ψ), then that syllable is considered long for this issue of whether to add an omicron or omega before the -τερος, α, ον in comparative adjectives. E.g., ἐσθλός ("good") has no fewer than 3 consonants after that epsilon. Even though epsilons are naturally short, here the syllable would be considered long by position (i.e. the position of the epsilon before those three consonants) and so the comparative would be ἐσθλότερος, α, ον (long syllable at the end of the stem and so short vowel before the τερος, α, ον).

As mentioned above, there are a few other ways to form a comparative adjective. Here are some common types:

--Third declension adjectives ending in -ης, -ες form the comparative by adding -τερος, -τέρα, -τερον directly to the base ending in -ες. E.g., the positive degree adj. ἀληθής, ἀληθές ("true") becomes ἀληθέστερος, ἀληθεστέρα, ἀληθέστερον in the comparative degree.

--Third declension adjectives ending in -ων, -ον (εὐδαίμων, ον), similarly form the comparative by adding -τερος, -τέρα, -τερον directly to the base ending in -ον. So, εὐδαίμων, εὐδαιμον becomes εὐδαιμονέστερος, εὐδαιμονεστέρα, εὐδαιμονέστερον.

The above comparatives are easy to form and use simple first and second declension endings (and so no need to write out their forms here). I will write out the next common type of comparative as it is third declension and it has several common alternate endings: --If you have an adjective like ἡδύς, ἡδεῖα, ἡδύ ("sweet"), then the comparative is a two-termination 3rd declension adjective with the nom. singulars in -ιων, -ιον. There are also some first-second declension nouns ending in -ρος that also form their comparatives in -ιων, -ιον. For instance, αἰσχρός, ἄ, ὄν ("foul") has this as its comparative: αἰσχίων, αἴσχιον. Here is a sample of this type of comparative declined for you (and note the common alternate forms).

Comparative Adjective for ἡδύς, ἡδεῖα, ἡδύ sweet, pleasant:

	Masc./Fem.	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ἡδίων	ἡδιον
Gen.	ἡδίωνος	ἡδίωνος
Dat.	ἡδίονι	ἡδίονι
Acc.	ἡδίονα/ ἡδίω	ἡδιον
Voc.	ἡδιον	ἡδιον
Nom. pl.	ἡδίονες/ ἡδίους	ἡδίονα/ ἡδίω
Gen.	ἡδιόνων	ἡδιόνων
Dat.	ἡδίοσι(ν)	ἡδίοσι(ν)
Acc.	ἡδίονας/ ἡδίους	ἡδίονα/ ἡδίω

Note: watch out for the alternate endings as they can be a bit tricky to recognize. They are simple contractions of the regular endings but end up looking a bit similar to endings from the second declension (ἡδίους) or even a bit like verbs (ἡδίω). You need to know these forms well as there are a number of very common irregular adjectives that use these

exact forms for their comparative degree (see appendix for more on the irregular comparatives).

For instance, ἀγαθός, ἢ, ὄν ("good") has three common irregular comparatives:

ἀμείνων, ἄμεινον ("better" in ability or bravery)

βελτίων, βέλτιον ("better" in morals)

κρείττων, κρείττον ("better" in strength)

Note: all of these comparatives use the exact same forms as written above for ἡδίων, ἥδιον, including the same alternate forms (and so ἀμείνω, βελτίω, κρείττω, κ.τ.λ.).

Silver Lining Note: Those comparatives are only "irregular" in the sense that the comparatives don't use the same stem as the positive degree but they follow the ἡδίων, ἥδιον pattern literally to the letter.

SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVES! They're the best!

The superlatives are very easy to form and have many similar patterns as the comparatives. The most common way to form a superlative is to add -τατος, -τάτη, -τατον to the base of the adjective. As with comparatives, there will be either an omicron or an omega right after the base (and just before -τατος, -τάτη, -τατον) and the rule is exactly the same as it was for the comparison. A long syllable at the end of the base will then mix with the (short) epsilon while a short syllable at the end of the base will be put with an omega. The idea is to have a mix of long and short syllables (and so either long-short or short-long) and the same rules about long syllables (naturally long or long by position) apply (see above). So, δίκαιος, α, ον will have for its superlative δικαιοτάτος, η, ον because the syllable at the end of the base has a diphthong (αι). Conversely, σοφός, ἢ, ὄν will have for its superlative σοφώτατος, η, ον because the syllable at the end of the base is short (σόφ-). You can call this the "superlatative." Note that the superlative always has three terminations while the comparatives sometimes have three and other times two. Here are some more ways to form the superlative adjective:

--**For adjectives in -υς, -εῖα, -υ**, the superlative adds -ιστος, -ίστη, -ιστον to the base. So, the superlative for ἡδύς, ἡδεῖα, ἡδύ is ἡδιστος, ἡδίστη, ἡδιστον.

--**For first-second declension ending in -ρος**, the superlative is formed in the same way. So, αἰσχρός, ἄ, ὄν has for its superlative degree αἰσχιστος, αἰσχίστη, αἰσχιστον.

--**For third-declension adjectives ending in -ης, -ες**, the superlative will similarly add -τατος, -τάτη, -τατον directly to the base ending in -ες. So, the superlative for ἀληθής, -ες is ἀληθέστατος, ἀληθεστάτη, ἀληθέστατον.

--**For third-declension adjectives ending in -ων, -ον**, the superlative adds -τατος, -τάτη, -τατον directly to the base ending in -ον. So, the superlative for εὐδαίμων, εὐδαιμον ("fortunate") would be εὐδαιμονέστατος, εὐδαιμονεστάτη, εὐδαιμονέστατον.

Note: in all the types of superlatives mentioned in this paragraph, there is no omicron or omega placed after the end of the base.

MAKING COMPARISONS IN GREEK!

There are two ways to make comparisons in Greek:

1) Genitive of Comparison: the person or thing compared is put into the genitive case (without a preposition) cf. ablative of comparison

2) the person or thing compared is put after the word ἢ (which functions just like "than"). In this type of comparison, the two things compared are in the same case. ἢ functions here like the Latin *quam* (think of the Latin construction as the *quamparative*).

There is no difference of meaning in the two types of comparison and here is an example of how you can use either method of comparison and say the same thing:

ὁ Σωκράτης δικαιότερός ἐστιν ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου. Socrates is more just than that man. (this uses the genitive of comparison and you must add the word "than")

Enclitic Accenting Note for Those Interested (i.e. all of you!): δικαιότερός ἐστιν is accented like this because you have a word accented as far back as possible (acute on the antepenult or circumflex on penult) with an enclitic word directly following it. In that situation, the first word picks up a second acute accent on the ultima. That acute doesn't change to a grave as it normally would with another word following. This is because the enclitic is not an ordinary word and the shift to grave accent doesn't apply when the next word is an enclitic. This is one of the scenarios where the enclitic itself doesn't have an accent. Now you know some of the charming enclitic accenting rules!

ὁ Σωκράτης δικαιότερός ἐστιν ἢ ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἄνθρωπος. Socrates is more just than that man. (here the two things compared are in the same case and the thing compared has ἢ in front of it).

DATIVE OF DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE (cf. abl. of degree of diff.)

To express how much the two people or things differ, the Greeks put the clarifying word (often πολλῶ) into the dative case without a preposition. We call this the *dative of degree of difference* and it functions just like the ablative of degree of difference in Latin. Greek can also express this degree of difference with an adverbial accusative such as πολὺ (cf. English use of "much" in the phrase "much more")

ὁ Σωκράτης πολλῶ δικαιότερός ἐστιν ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου. Socrates is much more just than that man (literally "more just by much").

ὁ Σωκράτης πολὺ δικαιότερός ἐστιν ἢ ἐκεῖνος ὁ ἄνθρωπος. Socrates is much more just than that man.

PARTITIVE GENITIVE (aka genitive of the whole)

You have undoubtedly encountered this case use out there on the Latin streets (and also in English) and it functions in the same way here in Greek. When specifying a part of a group, the entire group is put into the genitive case. We use "of" in English as in the phrase "one of the students adopted a dachshund." The underlined part would be a partitive genitive in Greek or Latin. The partitive genitive is very common after superlatives as in the phrase "the best of times" or "the best of the Achaeans." It is also common after numbers (e.g., "five of us"). Some students find the term *partitive* a bit unintuitive since the whole group is put into the genitive and not just a part of the group. Some textbooks use the term *genitive of the whole* which suggests more clearly that the *whole group* is put into the genitive case. Here are several examples:

ὁ Σωκράτης πάντων τῶν πολιτῶν δικαιοτάτος ἐστιν. Socrates is the most just of all the citizens.

πολλοὶ τῶν ἀνθρώπων σοφοὶ εἰσιν. Many of the people are wise.

τινες τῶν ἀγαθῶν εἶπον ταῦτα. Some of the good people said these things.

πέντε τῶν στρατιωτῶν ἔλιπον τὴν πόλιν. Five of the soldiers left the city.

ADVERBS

The most common way to form adverbs is to take the genitive plural of an adjective and change the ending from **-ων** to **-ως** (and so this ending is much like the English adverbial suffix **-ly**). E.g., the adjective **δίκαιος** becomes the adverb **δικαίως**.

To form the comparative adverb, the Greeks simply used the neuter singular acc. from the comparative adjective. So, **δικαιότερον** is either the neuter acc. comparative adjective or the comparative adverb ("more justly").

To form the superlative adverb, the Greeks simply used the neuter acc. pl. of the superlative adjective. So, **δικαιότατα** is either a neuter plural superlative adjective ("most just [things]") or a superlative adverb ("most justly").

To make a superlative adverb even more emphatic, the Greeks put **ὡς** or **ὅτι** in front of it. E.g., **ὡς/ὅτι δικαιοτάτα** "as justly as possible." As you know, Latin does the same thing with *quam* + superlative (e.g., *quam celerrime*)

TRANSLATION NOTE FOR COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

When translating the comparative adjective/adverb you can render it in two ways (depending on context): "more just/justly" or "rather just/justly." Similarly for the superlatives, you can render them as "most just/justly" or as "very just/justly." The option to say "rather just/justly" or "very just/justly" is called the absolute translation of the comparative and superlative.

EXPRESSING COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES WITH ADVERBS

In addition to utilizing the comparative and superlative adjectives and adverbs, the Greeks also used **μᾶλλον** and **μάλιστα** with positive-degree adjectives/adverbs to convey these ideas:

μᾶλλον δίκαιος = more/rather just (and so = **δικαιότερος, α, ον**)

μᾶλλον δικαίως = more/rather justly (and so = **δικαιότερον**)

μάλιστα δίκαιος = most/very just (and so = **δικαιοτάτος, η, ον**)

μάλιστα δικαίως = most/very justly (and so = **δικαιοτάτα**)

PERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVE (Principal Part 4)

Believe it or not, you have now learned the four of the six principal parts for a typical Greek verb: 1 (present/imperfect), 2 (future), 3 (aorist act/mid.), and 6 (aorist/future passive). We will now briefly take a look at the perfect active indicative which is the fourth principal part. It is not considered a past tense and so is **never augmented**. The perfect is in fact considered a primary tense for matters of sequence. This tense is used to emphasize the completion of an action and/or a present state resulting from a completed action. It is usually translated (using our friend **λύω** as an example) "has freed" (**λέλυκε**) but can also be rendered as a present to represent a consistent state of mind in the wake of a completed action: **πέπειθα** "I trust, am confident" (perf. of **πείθω** "persuade"). Unlike Latin, Greek never uses the perfect tense as a secondary tense. The Greeks form the pluperfect with an augmented perfect stem (and a distinct set of pluperfect endings--see appendix if you are curious!) and that is of course a secondary tense. The Greeks don't use the pluperfect as often that Romans used theirs and you will notice on the Greek streets places where they use other past tenses instead of the expected pluperfect (e.g., past

contrary-to-fact conditionals use aorists but it is to be translated as "if...had freed, then...would have freed").

After today, you will know all the principal parts except for the often charming fifth principal part (see appendix for a brief overview). *quam gelidum!!!*

The perfect active indicative is not hard to form and uses almost exactly the same endings as the first aorist active indicative (only the 3rd plural is different). It is also a very distinctive looking principal part in that it has a reduplicated stem and often (but not always) a kappa at the end of the stem. Most verbs reduplicate their stem by repeating the first consonant and putting an ε in between the two identical consonants. If a verb happens to begin with a vowel, then that vowel is lengthened and that serves as the reduplication (e.g., ἤχα is the perfect of ἄγω;). There are distinct patterns for this tense and you will become accustomed to them as your vocabulary grows each day for the rest of your life.

Here are a few things to look for:

--the vowel in the stem often changes to ο (λείπω--> λέλοιπα; πείθω--> πέποιθα)

--the final (labial/palatal/dental) consonant in the stem can shift to its aspirated friend: πέμπω--> πέπομφα ἄγω-->ἤχα

--if a verb begins with two (or more) consonants, a sigma, a rho, or with a double consonant (ζ, ξ, ψ), then the Greeks use an epsilon at the front of the form (but this is a reduplication and just happens to look just like the syllabic augment):

ζητέω (seek--cf. common English adj. *zetetic*) --> ἐζήτηκα (note the kappa that helps distinguish it as a perfect; the aorist for this verb is ἐζήτησα)

ρίπτω--> ῥριφα (note that the rho is also doubled)

οικηνέω (dwell in a tent) --> ἐοικήνημαι (perf. middle "I have dwelled in a tent")

Perfect Mnemonic Alert: you can think of this distinctive kappa as the Special K (a cereal that the Perfect has eaten often at the Grammar Café).

As a brief review and as a way to see the similarities between the first aorist and perfect, I have written out the endings for both (followed by samples of the perfect act. indic.).

	1st AORIST ACTIVE INDICATIVE		PERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVE	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	-α	-αμεν	-α	-αμεν
2	-ας	-ατε	-ας	-ατε
3	-ε(ν)	-αν	-ε(ν)	-ασι(ν)
Infinitive	-αι	(λῦσαι)	-έναι	(λελυκέναι)

Note: as in the 1st aorist act. indic., every α is short in the perfect active indic. endings.

Note: as mentioned above, the 3rd plural endings are the only place where these endings differ.

SAMPLE PERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVES!

	λύω	παιδεύω	πέμπω	ἄγω	γίγνομαι	βλάπτω
1 sg.	λέλυκα	πεπαίδευκα	πέπομφα	ἤχα	γέγονα	βέβλαφα
2	λέλυκας	πεπαίδευκας	πέπομφας	ἤχας	γέγονας	βέβλαφας
3	λέλυκε(ν)	πεπαίδευκε(ν)	πέπομφε(ν)	ἤχε(ν)	γέγονε(ν)	βέβλαφε(ν)
1 pl.	λελύκαμεν	πεπαιδεύκαμεν	πεπόμφαμεν	ἤχαμεν	γεγόναμεν	βεβλάφαμεν
2	λελύκατε	πεπαιδεύκατε	πεπόμφατε	ἤχατε	γεγόνατε	βεβλάφατε
3	λελύκασι	πεπαιδεύκασι	πεπόμφασι	ἤχασι	γεγόνασι	βεβλάφασι

Infin. λευκέναι πεπαιδευκέναι πεπομφέναι ἤχέναι γεγονέναι βεβλαφέναι

Note: γέγονα is the perfect act. indicative from the deponent verb γίγνομαι. This is a charming verb in that it is one of the (small number of) Greek verbs that reduplicates its stem in both the present and perfect tense (cf. γινώσκω "know"---> ἔγνωκα). Note that the present stem reduplicates with an iota in between the consonants as opposed to the perfect which uses an epsilon. Sometimes one letter can make an iota of difference! You should write a thank-you letter to Iota (your choice which letter...).

A PERFECT VERB TO KNOW! (plus the pluperfect endings as a bonus!)
οἶδα is an irregular verb that only has forms in the perfect system (perfect and pluperfect) for the most part (there is a deponent future εἴσομαι that appears on occasion). The verb is related to the verb "to see" (aor. εἶδον) which makes sense to the Greeks as seeing and knowing are clearly linked for them (Aristotle declares sight to be the important of the senses). They are for us as well if you think about it. Do you see what I mean? This is a very common verb and so it is important for you to know all of its forms (see what I did there?). The perfect of this verb is rendered as a present and the pluperfect is rendered as an imperfect (a phenomenon that happens on occasion as with the verb δέδια/δέδοικα "fear"). For the sake of reference, I have written out the regular pluperfect endings as well along with a sample (pluperfect of λύω). As you undoubtedly remember from Latin, you translate the pluperfect with "had __-ed" (ἐλελύκη "had freed"). Note again that it has the same stem as the perfect but is augmented and has a special set of endings. Like the imperfect, the pluperfect has no infinitive. Just as the present and imperfect form the present system, the perfect and pluperfect form the perfect system.

	PERFECT	PLUPERFECT	REGULAR PLUPERFECT
1 sg.	οἶδα	ἤδη	-η ἐλελύκη
2	οἶσθα (οἶδας)	ἤδησθα	-ης ἐλελύκης
3	οἶδε(ν)	ἤδει(ν)	-η ἐλελύκη
1 pl.	ἴσμεν	ἤσμεν	-εμεν ἐλελύκεμεν
2	ἴστε	ἤστε	-ετε ἐλελύκετε
3	ἴσασι(ν)	ἤσαν	-εσαν ἐλελύκεσαν
Infinitive:	εἰδέναι		

Note: all of the pluperfect forms of οἶδα have an iota subscript.

CONTRACT VERBS (alpha and epsilon types)

There is a very charming group of verbs whose stems end in the vowels α, ε, and ο, and those vowels contract with the regular verb endings (well, really the theme vowels ε/ο right before the actual endings) but only do so in the present system (i.e. the present and imperfect tenses--and yes, that includes present subjunctive, optative, imperative, participles, and infinitives as well...woohoo!). As a kind of silver lining, the contract verbs are usually very easy and pleasantly predictable outside of the present system. The contractions themselves are also extremely consistent and so once you learn how to conjugate one alpha contract, you know them all, and that is also true for epsilon and omicron contract verbs too. These contractions happen in the Attic dialect (as Attic loves to contract whenever it can--you really need to personify the dialects as it makes all this even more fun!) but when you get the awesome opportunity to read some Homer and Herodotus, you will see these same verbs without the contractions. There is nothing

difficult conceptually about the contract verbs and they are not hard to recognize once you spend a bit of time with them on the Greek streets.

Extra Vocabulary Bonus: contract verbs often have familiar roots you have seen in common nouns: e.g., ἡ νίκη "victory" and the contract verb νικάω "conquer"; ἡ τιμή "honor" and the contract verb τιμάω "honor"; ὁ φίλος "friend" and the verb φιλέω "like" (as you like your friends, right?!).

There are really two ways to learn these types of verbs. You can learn the contractions for each type of contract verb (alpha, epsilon, and omicron). They are not difficult and the contractions do occur elsewhere such as the occasional "contract nouns" (e.g., νόος "mind" which shows up contracted in Attic as νοῦς). Alternatively, you can just memorize a sample verb of each type and rest assured that you will then know all the other contract verbs (as they really are incredibly predictable and consistent).

PRESENT INDICATIVE of τιμάω (honor) (SAME AS PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE)

In a wonderful twist of linguistic fate, the present indicative and subjunctive forms are exactly the same. I have put the uncontracted forms in parentheses so you can see what they look like without these charming vowel collisions (i.e. how they look outside the Attic dialect).

PRES. ACT. INDIC./SUBJUNCTIVE			PRES. MID.-PASS. INDIC./SUBJ.	
1 sg.	τιμῶ	(τιμάω)	τιμῶμαι	(τιμάομαι)
2	τιμᾶς	(τιμάεις)	τιμᾶ	(τιμάη/τιμάει)
3	τιμᾷ	(τιμάει)	τιμᾶται	(τιμάεται)
1 pl.	τιμῶμεν	(τιμάομεν)	τιμώμεθα	(τιμάομεθα)
2	τιμᾶτε	(τιμάετε)	τιμᾶσθε	(τιμάεσθε)
3	τιμῶσι(ν)	(τιμάουσι(ν))	τιμῶνται	(τιμάονται)
Infin.:	τιμᾶν	(τιμάειν)	τιμᾶσθαι	(τιμάεσθαι)

I am about to write the two straightforward contraction rules below but note first that there are only two possible results of contraction with this type: an alpha (sometimes with an iota subscript) or an omega.

1. α + any E sound (ε, ει, η, η) will yield a long α of some sort (and any iotas will drop to iota subscripts):

αε >> α
 αη >> α
 αει >> α
 αη >> α

2. α + any O sound (ο, οι, ου, ω) will yield an omega (and any iotas will drop to iota subscripts):

αο >> ω
 αω >> ω
 αου >> ω
 αοι >> ω

Note: the present indicative and subjunctive look the same because the contractions all yield the same combinations of either long alphas or omegas.

Note on the Charming Accents for Those Interested: for those curious about why these verbs *seem* to violate the accenting rules, you must consider how these verbs would be accented were they not contracted at all (and this is another reason I gave you the uncontracted forms in parentheses). These are the general principles:

--if the accent on the uncontracted forms cannot manage to skip over both contracting vowels/diphthongs in its familiar race to reach the antepenult, then the verb form receives a circumflex over the site of contraction (commemorating the collision of vowels, like the scene of a linguistic accident along Grammar road, as it were).

--if, however, the unaccented form happens to have a short ultima and so can gleefully skip over the site of contraction, then that verb form is just accented normally with an acute on the antepenult (remember that verbs generally want to have an accent on the antepenult). This only happens once in the present forms: 1st plural present mid-pass. indicative (or subjunctive) τιμώμεθα. You will see more of this in the imperfect indicative below. The accents on the uncontracted forms are completely normal (i.e. they follow the regular rules) and make sense with the regular accenting rules. It is only in Attic that you get these seemingly odd accents as things contract and the circumflex gets used to commemorate the site of contraction, κ.τ.λ.

IMPERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVE

1 sg.	ἐτίμων	(ἐτίμαον)
2	ἐτίμας	(ἐτίμαες)
3	ἐτίμα	(ἐτίμαε)

1 pl.	ἐτιμῶμεν	(ἐτιμάομεν)
2	ἐτιμᾶτε	(ἐτιμάετε)
3	ἐτίμων	(ἐτίμαον)

IMPERFECT MID-PASS. INDICATIVE

ἐτιμώμην	(ἐτιμάομην)
ἐτιμῶ	(ἐτιμάου)
ἐτιμᾶτο	(ἐτιμάετο)

ἐτιμώμεθα	(ἐτιμάομεθα)
ἐτιμᾶσθε	(ἐτιμάεσθε)
ἐτιμῶντο	(ἐτιμάοντο)

Accenting Note: You can see from the uncontracted forms in parentheses that when the accent manages to go back further than the colliding letters, then you will see an acute on the antepenult (it might be on the penult in the contracted forms such as ἐτίμα where the final alpha is long and so the accent can't go further back than the penult). Otherwise, the accent is a circumflex over the site of the collision. Of course, if the collision of vowels and diphthongs happens way back on the antepenult, then you would still get an acute on the antepenult, since *under no circumstances in Greek can the circumflex ever go back further than the penult*. The 1st plural mid-pass. ἐτιμώμεθα is a good example of that as you can see when you look at the uncontracted form in parentheses: ἐτιμάομεθα. Again, you don't really need to know these rules thoroughly to read Greek successfully but they undeniably *accentuate* the fun you have on a given day at the Grammar Café.

Serious Silver Lining with the Subjunctive and Optatives of alpha

contracts: as you know, the indicative and subjunctive forms for the alpha contracts are exactly the same. The optative mood is also quite easy since there is just ONE contraction that happens throughout the paradigms: α + οι >> ω. There are two sets of forms for the present active optative and both are common (with no difference in meaning).

	PRESENT ACTIVE OPTATIVE	
1 sg.	τιμῶμι	τιμῶην

	PRESENT MID-PASS. OPTATIVE	
	τιμώμην	

2	τιμῶς	τιμῶης	τιμῶο
3	τιμῶ	τιμῶη	τιμῶτο
1 pl.	τιμῶμεν	τιμῶημεν	τιμῶμεθα
2	τιμῶτε	τιμῶητε	τιμῶσθε
3	τιμῶεν	τιμῶησαν	τιμῶντο

EPSILON CONTRACT VERBS

These are a related group of common verbs whose stems end in epsilon. The Attic dialect (as you already know) loves contraction and so the epsilon contracts with the regular endings (again, really the theme vowel ε/ο before the actual endings) of the present and imperfect. I won't go into as much detail about these as the basic idea is the same. There are a few charming contraction rules with which you can generate and understand why all the forms look the way they do. The most important rules are as follows:

--ε +ο >> ου

--ε gets absorbed into any long vowel or diphthong

--iotas as usual drop down to iota subscripts

As usual, the rules for contraction apply to all forms in the present system and also applies to infinitives and our new friend the participle (see below!).

I will just write out the present and imperfect indicative forms (with the uncontracted forms in parentheses) and leave the subjunctive and optative forms for another ἡμέρα.

	PRESENT ACTIVE INDICATIVE	PRESENT M-P INDICATIVE
1 sg.	ποιῶ (ποιέω)	ποιούμαι (ποιέομαι)
2	ποιεῖς (ποιέεις)	ποιεῖ/ ποιῆ (ποιέει/ποιέη)
3	ποιεῖ (ποιέει)	ποιεῖται (ποιέεται)
1 pl.	ποιούμεν (ποιέομεν)	ποιούμεθα (ποιεόμεθα)
2	ποιεῖτε (ποιέετε)	ποιεῖσθε (ποιέεσθε)
3	ποιούσι(ν) (ποιέουσι(ν))	ποιούνται (ποιέονται)
Infinitive:	ποιεῖν (ποιέειν)	ποιεῖσθαι (ποιέεσθαι)

	IMPERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVE	IMPERFECT M-P INDICATIVE
1 sg.	ἐποίουν (ἐποιέον)	ἐποιούμην (ἐποιεόμην)
2	ἐποίεις (ἐποιέεις)	ἐποιού (ἐποιέου)
3	ἐποίει (ἐποιέει)	ἐποιεῖτο (ἐποιέετο)
1 pl.	ἐποιούμεν (ἐποιέομεν)	ἐποιούμεθα (ἐποιεόμεθα)
2	ἐποιεῖτε (ἐποιέετε)	ἐποιεῖσθε (ἐποιέεσθε)
3	ἐποίουν (ἐποιέον)	ἐποιούντο (ἐποιέοντο)

PARTICIPLES

You will be happy to know that participles work in Greek very much the way they do in Latin. You have a real advantage as Latin students when learning the Greek participles. For instance, Greek has a genitive absolute but it functions just like the Latin ablative absolute (cf. English and its nominative absolute). This being the case, remember that participles are essentially verbal adjectives and so they always have one foot in Verb Land and the other in Adjective Land. They have tense (present, future, aorist, perfect) and voice (active, middle, passive) just like verbs. They also have gender, number, and case just

like adjectives. Unlike Latin, Greek has a present passive participle and also a perfect active participle (both oddly missing in the Latin participial system as you know). Just as in Latin, Greek has no imperfect or pluperfect participles.

Tense in Participles!

The tense of a participle can show either aspect (simple, repeated, or completed) or relative time (relative, that is, to the main verb). We encountered tense as showing aspect back when we first learned about the subjunctive and optative. We talked about tense as showing relative time when discussing infinitives.

Relative Time in a Participle: the tense of a participle can tell you whether the action happened before the action of the main verb, at the same time as the main verb, and after the main verb. The aorist participle talks of an action that preceded the main verb. The present participle indicates an action simultaneous with the action of the main verb. The future participle indicates an action to take place after that of the main verb.

It is usually obvious from context whether the tense of a participle is indicating aspect or time relative to the main verb. You will become used to this ambiguity and you may even in time find it to be something *χαρίεν* (charming).

There are 3 common uses of the Greek participle: attributive, circumstantial, and supplementary. We will focus here on the first two uses but briefly mention the third type.

How to Form Participles!

Before going over the uses of the participle, let's look at the forms. They use endings you are already very familiar with: 3rd declension endings in the masculine and neuter forms and 1st declension endings in the feminine forms.

PRESENT ACTIVE PARTICIPLE

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	λύων	λύουσα	λύον
Gen.	λύοντος	λυούσης	λύοντος
Dat.	λύοντι	λυούση	λύοντι
Acc.	λύοντα	λύουσαν	λύον
Nom. pl.	λύοντες	λύουσαι	λύοντα
Gen.	λυόντων	λυουσῶν	λυόντων
Dat.	λύουσι(ν)	λυούσαις	λύουσι(ν)
Acc.	λύοντας	λυούσας	λύοντα

Note: the masculine forms are identical to the 3rd declension noun *γέρων*, *γέροντος* ó "old man."

Note: watch out for the dative plurals in the masculine and neuter forms as they could easily be thought to be verb forms with the *-ουσι* ending.

Accenting Quirk Alert: the fem. gen. pl. form is accented with a circumflex on the ultima (just like all first declension nouns). This is true for all feminine participles whose nom. sing. ends in short alpha. Note that the feminine sing. endings above use that variation on the first declension of short alpha in the nom. and acc. and eta in the gen. and dat. singular (the so-called eta sandwich which can be purchased at the Grammar Café).

Future and 2nd Aorist Active Participles

The future active and second aorist active participles decline just like the present active participles above and the only differences are in the stem. So, for instance, the future active participle in the masculine nom. sing. is λύσων (cf. pres. λύων) and the second aorist active masc. nom. sing. form is λιπών. There is an accenting quirk in the second aorist active participle in that the accenting is always on the syllable directly after the stem (and so can be either on the penult or ultima depending on the particular case ending). So, the singular for the masculine 2nd aor. act. participle is as follows: λιπών, λιπόντος, λιπόντι, λιπόντα.

Accenting Note: the accent on all participles is persistent and follows the masculine nominative singular.

First Aorist Active Participles

These participles are declined exactly like the adjective πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν (see above at the end of Day 6) but as these participles are very common and important, I will write them out here:

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	λύσας	λύσασα	λύσαν
Gen.	λύσαντος	λυσάσης	λύσαντος
Dat.	λύσαντι	λυσάση	λύσαντι
Acc.	λύσαντα	λύσασαν	λύσαν
Nom. pl.	λύσαντες	λύσασαι	λύσαντα
Gen.	λυσάντων	λυσάσων	λυσάντων
Dat.	λύσασι(ν)	λυσάσαις	λύσασι(ν)
Acc.	λύσαντας	λυσάσας	λύσαντα

Note: the masc. and neut. dative plurals have undergone some interesting linguistic changes very similar to that found in the present participle and also in the third declension noun γέρων. The original dative pl. form was *λύσαντσι and after the ντ dropped, the normally short alpha was lengthened to a long alpha. So, even though it is not as clear as our earlier examples (because the alpha looks the same when short or long), this is nonetheless another moment where compensatory lengthening happened.

Perfect Active Participles

These are not hard to form if you keep in mind that the usual nu in the masculine and neuter forms is not there but the endings are otherwise quite recognizable (perfect stem plus these modified endings). The neuter. sing. nom/acc. has -ος instead of the expected -ον...if you think about it, those forms will provide for you Enless Fun (patent-pending mnemonic!)! The feminine active participles use first declension endings but have -υι after the stem and before the endings.

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	λελυκώς	λελυκυῖα	λελυκός
Gen.	λελυκότος	λελυκυίας	λελυκότος
Dat.	λελυκότι	λελυκυῖα	λελυκότι
Acc.	λελυκότα	λελυκυῖαν	λελυκός
Nom. pl.	λελυκότες	λελυκυῖαι	λελυκότα

Gen.	λελυκότων	λελυκυῶν	λελυκότων
Dat.	λελυκόσι(ν)	λελυκυῖαις	λελυκόσι(ν)
Acc.	λελυκότας	λελυκυίας	λελυκότα

Fun Game Alert: compare the masculine forms with λύων, λύοντος, λύοντι, λύοντα, λύοντες, λύντων, λύουσι(ν), λύοντας. Say them aloud next to each other. That's the whole game! Enjoy!

Accent Note: the accent consistently goes on the syllable right after the end of the stem for the masculine and neuter while the feminine accents are all over the -υι infix (with the pretty unsurprising exception of the genitive plural).

Middle-Passive Participles!

These are even easier to form than the active participles (for the most part) and wonderfully consistent. The Greeks just added -όμενος, -ομένη, -όμενον to the stem and declined them like simple first-second declension adjectives. This works perfectly for the present middle-passive, future middle, and second-aorist middle participles! You undoubtedly recognize this sort of ending as it shows up in English words like "phenomenon" and you will now understand why "phenomena" is the correct plural form. Here are the present middle-passive participial forms for λύω and remember that you would just have to change the stem to create the future middle and second-aorist middle participles.

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	λυόμενος	λυομένη	λυόμενον
Gen.	λυομένου	λυομένης	λυομένου
Dat.	λυομένω	λυομένη	λυομένω
Acc.	λυόμενον	λυομένην	λυόμενον
Nom. pl.	λυόμενοι	λυόμεναι	λυόμενα
Gen.	λυομένων	λυομένων	λυομένων
Dat.	λυομένοις	λυομέναις	λυομένοις
Acc.	λυομένους	λυομένας	λυόμενα

Accenting Note for Those Interested! the feminine gen. plural will accent like the masculine and neuter gen. plural if the forms themselves are the same in all three genders.

The second aorist middle participles have the same endings but change their stem to the aorist. So, λιπόμενος, λιπομένη, λιπόμενον, κ.τ.λ.

The first aorist middle participle simply substitutes alpha for omicron and otherwise is declined exactly in the same way: λυσάμενος, λυσαμένη, λυσάμενον, κ.τ.λ.

Attributive Participles

Just as its name indicates, this is a use of the participle in the attributive position (meaning that there is a definite article before it). It functions as an ordinary adjective and is often best rendered with a relative clause in English. This is a very straightforward use of the participle and it should not pose any problems for you. You can find this construction in Latin and if you are curious, go to Allen and Greenough (AG 494) where they discuss the present and perfect participles as occasionally being attributives. They give this example

from Tacitus (*Ann.* 3.54): *aeger et flagrans animus* "his sick and passionate mind." In any case, back to Greek!

ὁ παιδύων ἄνθρωπος the educating man/ the man who educates
ὁ ἄρχων κύων the ruling dog/ the dog who rules

Like any adjective, the participle can stand alone as a substantive: ὁ ἄρχων archon (lit. "the ruling one" or "the one who rules").

Circumstantial Participles

The circumstantial uses of the participle are the most common types of participles in Latin and Greek. The Greek circumstantial participle has the same range of meanings that you can find in Latin and so you will add words such as "when," "since," "if," "although," "while" "after" (κ.τ.λ.) according to context and then you can translate the participle like a verb. Remember that those introductory words are important as they indicate that this is not a main verb but a circumstantial participial clause. As the name clearly indicates, the circumstantial participle conveys something of the circumstances surrounding the action of the sentence. Greek also has some helpful words that appear with participles and the Greeks use them if they want to make it absolutely clear which valence to add to the participle. I have included common ones in examples below (grouped by type). You will notice that the same sentence can be translated in a number of ways depending on context. Also note that the circumstantial participle is *not in the attributive position and so you shouldn't confuse it with the attributive participle*.

παιδύων τὸν δῆμον, ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπε πολλὰ περὶ ἀρετῆς.

When educating the people, Socrates said many things about excellence (temporal)

Since he was educating the people, Socrates said many things about excellence (causal)

Although educating the people, Socrates said many things about excellence (concessive)

If educating the people, Socrates said many things about excellence. (conditional)

Helpful Little Words (that can disambiguate circumstantial participles)

--καίπερ although --indicates a circumstantial participle is concessive

--ὅμως nevertheless --appears with the main verb and serves to indicate participle as concessive.

--ἄτε, οἷα, since, because --appears with participle and indicates participle is causal (and also represents writer's own opinion)

ὥς can be used to indicate purpose or cause

Note: ὥς with the future participle is another way to express purpose. The future participle alone can also express purpose and so ὥς serves to make it clear that the future participle is indeed being used for purpose (as opposed to future relative to the main verb).

Note: unlike ἄτε and οἷα, ὥς conveys the cause or purpose not of the author but rather of the grammatical subject of the sentence (or someone else prominently featured in the sentence). It can often be rendered as "on the grounds that" or "since (as they claim)..." the speaker is no longer vouching for the truth of the statement, but just reporting it.

The use of negatives with participles: In the continuing saga of when to use οὐ or μή in Greek, participles play an interesting role. Circumstantial participles use οὐ in all situations unless the participle is conditional (where the negative would be μή). Similarly, attributive participles generally use οὐ unless a general class of people is being described.

E.g., οἱ ἔχοντες καὶ οἱ μὴ ἔχοντες the ones who have and the ones who do not have (i.e. "the haves and have-nots").

Supplementary Participles

This is the final use of the participle and here the participle is supplementing the meaning of the main verb, and really providing the main action. Note that the case of the participle can make a difference in meaning:

E.g., παύω λέγων I stop speaking. (supplements the notion of stopping)

E.g., παύω τὸν ἄνθρωπον λέγοντα I stop the man from speaking (note the acc. case)

ACCUS./PARTICIPLE form of INDIRECT STATEMENT

The supplementary participle is also used to form the third and final type of indirect statement. It is a variation on the accus./infinitive type we saw earlier. Here you will see a main verb of knowing, showing, or perception and then you will see a subject accusative plus an accusative participle:

οἶδα τὴν Ζωὴν λύσασαν τὴν πόλιν I know that Zoe saved the city.

ὁ Σωκράτης ἀκούει τοὺς μικροὺς κύνας τὸν δῆμον παιδεύοντας.
Socrates hears that the small dogs are educating the people.

Note: you must be careful to distinguish the accusative that is the subject of the participle and an accusative that may be the object of the participle. You can tell here by the fact that the acc. pl. masc. participle agrees with τοὺς μικροὺς κύνας. This kind of ambiguity is also an occasional concern with the accus./infinitive type of indirect statement we saw earlier. Context usually makes it entirely clear which accusative is the subject and which is the object.

Supplementary Note: There are also several common verbs that take supplementary participles. Here are two:

E.g., τυγχάνω + suppl. part. = happen to be ...-ing

τυγχάνω ἀναγιγνώσκων τὰ τῆς Ζωῆς βιβλία. I happen to be reading the books of Zoe.

E.g., φθάνω + suppl. part. = I anticipate someone in ...-ing

ἔφθανον τοὺς ἀνθρώπους ὀρῶντες τὸν ἥλιον I used to anticipate the people in seeing the sun (i.e. I was the first to see the sun before the people).

DAY EIGHT: IMPERATIVES and SIGHTREADING for the rest of class!

IMPERATIVES

This is your fourth and final mood for Greek (except of course for happiness which is a constant mood present whenever you read Greek). Imperatives are very straightforward and familiar to you from Latin and English. Greek imperatives mostly work just like Latin ones but Greek actually makes frequent use of its third-person imperatives (whereas Latin would generally prefer to use a jussive subjunctive instead). Tense in the imperative shows *aspect only* and so the present imperative indicates repeated or progressive action, while the aorist indicates a one-time action. The rare perfect imperative is used to emphasize the completion of the act, but I won't list those forms because they are so

uncommon. There is no first-person imperative as you would just use the hortatory subjunctive in that situation. Let us proceed!

Imperatives are quite easy to form. Trust me! (do you see what I did there?) Just take the appropriate tense stem and add these endings. There will never be an augment on any imperative because, as you know, you *only augment the indicative!*

PRESENT ACT IMPERATIVE

2 sg.	-ε	παίδευε
3	-ετω	παιδευέτω
2 pl.	-ετε	παιδεύετε
3	-οντων	παιδευόντων

PRESENT MID-PASS IMPERATIVE

-ου	παιδεύου
-εσθω	παιδευέσθω
-εσθε	παιδεύεσθε
-εσθων	παιδευέσθων

Note: the second aorist act. imperative uses the same endings but of course has the aorist stem (and so I am not writing them out here).

Note: in both sets of imperatives, the second-plural imperative are the same as their indicative counterparts. You can only distinguish them by context.

FIRST AORIST ACT IMPERATIVE

2 sg.	-ον	λύσον
3	-ατω	λυσάτω
2 pl.	-ατε	λύσατε
3 pl.	-αντων	λυσάντων

FIRST AORIST MID. IMPERATIVE

-αι	λύσαι
-ασθω	λυσάσθω
-ασθε	λύσασθε
-ασθων	λυσάσθων

AORIST PASSIVE IMPERATIVE FROM λύω

Note: the aorist tense conveys simple aspect and you still translate this as a regular imperative looking ahead to the future (as is true of all imperatives--you can't order someone to do something in the past unless you are in the middle of a time-travel movie). This tense of the imperative is less common (as passive imperatives are generally not all that common) but you do see it with deponent verbs and it is worth knowing in any case!

2 sg.	λύθητι
3	λυθήτω

2 sg.	λύθητε
3	λυθέντων

It is imperative that you now turn to the readings for the day as we will spend the rest of the day reading and reinforcing all that you have learned in the past 8 days!!!

Remember that you have a lifetime subscription to the Greek Hotline! I am entirely serious about that!

APPENDIX of FASCINATING GRAMMAR I WISH WE COULD HAVE COVERED IN CLASS!!!

PRINCIPAL PART 5: PERFECT MIDDLE-PASSIVE

Would that we had had time in class to go over this intriguing principal part. If all verbs had stems ending in vowels, then we could have covered this principal in a few minutes easily. This principal part is notable for lacking the thematic vowel ο/ε and so the endings get attached directly to the stem. If the stem ends in a vowel, this poses no problem at all and this is a perfectly straightforward principal part. The charm enters the equation when a stem ends with a consonant and it collides with the endings without the nice theme vowel to act as a buffer. That said, these types of consonant stem verbs are nicely grouped into familiar categories such as labials, palatals, and dentals. There are a set of very nice patterns and so once you learn the paradigm for, say, a palatal stem, then you know them all. It is a bit like contract verbs in that there is an initially intimidating change in the middle of the word but the endings are usually pretty clear and so these forms end up much easier to recognize than to produce on your own. That doesn't mean that you should ignore these paradigms but I am simply reminding you that your main goal here is to read Greek and so your first job is to recognize forms (and the more intrepid among you can go that extra mile and memorize every paradigm including the consonant stems for the 5th principal part).

Let's start with the simple endings and an easy vowel stem (λύω):

	PERFECT MIDDLE-PASSIVE ENDINGS	SAMPLE VOWEL STEM
1 sg.	-μαι	λέλυμαι
2	-σαι	λέλυσαι
3	-ται	λέλυται
1 pl.	-μεθα	λελύμεθα
2	-σθε	λέλυσθε
3	-νται	λέλυνται
Infinitive:	-σθαι	λέλυσθαι

Intervocalic Sigma Alert: this is one of the places where the intervocalic sigma does NOT drop and so you get a rare chance to use the original 2nd sing. primary middle-passive ending -σαι. You may recall that usually

Silly Mnemonic Alert: when chanting the singular endings, it sounds like a beverage you can order at the Grammar Café: I will have a medium -μαι -σαι -ται. Or maybe I will bring the latté to θαλάττη as we imagined way back on Day 2...Remember these when you bring this mini-textbook to the beach. Greek in 8 Days is most definitely beach-readable!

PERFECT MIDDLE-PASSIVE: CONSONANT STEMS

These have a somewhat fierce reputation and they are a bit challenging here and there but remember that they fit into a reasonable number of distinct and very consistent patterns arranged by familiar consonant types (labials, palatals, and dentals are the most common). You do have to keep track of what type of consonant stem you are dealing with but there are several places in the Greek verbal system where that is helpful (futures, aorists, etc.) and so this is really nothing new. As mentioned above, the lack of theme vowel between

the end of the stem and the endings makes all of these consonantal collisions necessary. One silver lining for all these consonant stems is that the charming collisions occur near but not at the very end of the word. The actual endings of the verbs are usually still quite recognizable and so in the end, this tense is not all that fearsome but really just another charming corner of Greek grammar.

Just for the sake of review, here again are three of the most common consonant groupings you need to know:

Labials: π, β, φ, ψ (the double consonant ψ represents πς)

Palatals: κ, γ, χ, ξ (the double consonant ξ represents κς)

Dentals: τ, δ, θ (remember them as "the dentals" remember that dentals drop before sigma)

As with the contract verbs, you can learn the rules for the collisions (here of consonants while the contract verbs dealt in vowels) or you can just memorize a sample for each type. In the case of the perfect middle-passive consonant stems, I strongly recommend memorizing a sample verb for each type as the patterns will sink in as you see more examples. Here are samples for these three types (labial, palatal, dental):

	Labial	Palatal	Dental
1 sg.	γράφω	ἄγω	πείθω
2	γέγραμμαι	ἤγμαι	πέπεισμαι
3	γέγραψαι	ἤξαι	πέπεισαι
1 pl.	γεγράμμεθα	ἤγμεθα	πεπείσμεθα
2	γέγραφε	ἤχθε	πέπεισθε
3	γεγραμμένοι εἰσί	ἤγμένοι εἰσί	πεπεισμένοι εἰσί
Infinitive	γεγράφθαι	ἤχθαι	πεπεῖσθαι
Participle	γεγραμμένος, η, ον	ἤγμένος, η, ον	πεπεισμένος, η, ον

Note: because the 1st singular and plural endings begin with the same consonant, those forms end up looking very similar. It may be helpful for you to recall that the first person forms experience the same consonant collision and thus look quite similar: -μμ for labials, -γμ for palatals, and a cool metamorphosis for the dentals (they change into sigmas except for endings that already begin with a sigma--in that case, the dental just drops).

Note: the 2nd plurals and the infinitives also undergo the same transformations and so they will be similar to each other as you can see in the chart above. They are also quite distinctive in ending up with two aspirated consonants next to each other.

Note: the 2nd singular labial and palatals end up with the expected double consonants ψ and ξ respectively (because the stem consonant collides with the sigma in the ending).

Periphrastic 3rd Plural Alert: unlike vowel stems, consonant stems use a periphrastic construction for the 3rd plurals. It consists of the perfect mid-pass. participle (pl. of course) plus εἰσί (the 3rd plural present indicative of εἶμι).

Easy Participle Alert: As you can see, the participle has straightforward first and second declension endings and it follows the same pattern as the 1st singular and plural verb forms (for the simple reason that all of these have the stem colliding with μ). The

perfect middle-passive participle has a fixed accent on the penult. Given how easy the participles are to form, there is no need to write them all out here.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT INTERROGATIVES: the Π Words

As Latin students, you are familiar with the Q words (*quis, quid, qualis, quantus*) that are used to ask questions. In Greek, many of these interrogative words begin with the letter Π as you can see below. Now that you are students of both Latin and Greek, you will literally have to always mind your Π's and Q's! The indirect interrogatives are obviously similar to the direct interrogatives and in most cases, the indirect forms simply add an omicron to the front of the form. The indirect interrogatives can also be used as indefinite relative pronouns and adjectives which adds a generalizing feel to them (i.e. "whoever," "whatever," κ.τ.λ.). As a general rule, the direct interrogative forms become indefinite when written as enclitics. So, *πότε* is a direct interrogative meaning "when" and it introduces a question, while *ποτέ* is indefinite and means "at some time, ever." *ποῦ* means "where" and *που* means "somewhere." *πῶς* means "how" and *πως* means "somehow, in some way." *ποῖ* means "whither, to where" and *ποι* means "to some place." *πόθεν* means "from where" while *ποθεν* means "from somewhere." κ.τ.λ.

Here is the list of basic direct and indirect interrogatives:

DIRECT INTERROGATIVES

τίς, τί who? what?
 πόθεν whence? from where?
 ποῖος, ποία, ποῖον of what sort?
 πόσος, η, ον how much/many?
 πότερος, α, ον which (of two)?
 ποῖ to where? whither?
 πότε when?
 ποῦ where?
 πῶς how?

INDIRECT INTERROGATIVES

ὅστις, ἥτις, ὅτι whoever, whatever; who, what
 ὁπόθεν from wherever; from where
 ὁποῖος, α, ον of whatever sort; of what sort
 ὁπόσος, η, ον however much/many; how much/many
 ὁπότερος, α, ον whichever (of two); which (of two)
 ὅποι to wherever; to where
 ὁπότε whenever, when
 ὅπου wherever; where
 ὁπως however, how

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

Indirect questions are generally quite straightforward in Greek and occur when a question is reported and embedded in a larger sentence. The indirect question is usually introduced by an *indirect interrogative* and the clause itself simply has a finite verb (and Latin fans should note that Greek does NOT automatically flip the verb in the indirect question into the subjunctive--see next paragraph for details on how Greek handles this). Sometimes the indirect question is introduced by other words such as *εἰ* and *indirect alternative questions* are introduced by *πότερον...ἢ, εἴτε...εἴτε*, and *εἰ...εἴτε*. When introducing an indirect question, the interrogative pronoun *τίς, τί* is usually transformed into the corresponding form of *ὅστις, ἥτις, ὅτι* (see their forms below), although sometimes the charming Greeks simply retain the direct interrogative forms of *τίς, τί*. It won't provide any difficulties for you as long as you remember to expect either form to be the introductory word for an indirect question. Any negative used in the direct questions are retained in the indirect questions.

The mood of the verb in the indirect question depends on the tense of the main verb and follows the same rules we saw with indirect statement (the type with *λέγω ὡς/ὅτι* + conjugated verb). When the main verb is in a primary tense, then the original mood and tense of the direct question remain unchanged. When the verb is in a secondary

tense, then the mood commonly flips into the optative (as is common in secondary sequence) but the original mood and tense can on occasion be retained (a retained indicative or subjunctive). If the direct question had a past tense of the indicative with ἄν, that does not change in the indirect question regardless of the tense of the main verb. See Smyth 2663-2679 for more details on the indirect question, the indirect alternative question and the use of moods in these clauses.

Here are a few simple examples:

τίς λέγει ταῦτα; Who says these things? (original direct question)

ἔρωτῶ ὅστις λέγει ταῦτα. I am asking who says these things.
--indirect question with τίς changed to ὅστις as is normal)

ἔρώτησα ὅστις λέγοι ταῦτα I asked who was saying these things.
--indirect question with verb in the optative because the main verb is in a secondary tense. Note that the original present tense of the original question is retained even as the mood is changed to optative).

ἔρώτησα ὅστις λέγει ταῦτα. I asked who was saying these things.
--indirect question in secondary sequence with retained indicative. The retained indicative adds some untranslatable extra vividness and so when you encounter it, don't alter your translation be aware of and enjoy the nuance of extra vividness that this construction is conveying. This would be a good time to look out the nearest window into the sky and say aloud *illa lingua graeca!!!* It is important to take the time to appreciate the charms of Greek grammar as I may have said a few times during class...

INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

This charmer is simply a combination of the relative pronoun ὅς, ἣ, ὅ and the indefinite pronoun τις, τι. Each part declines normally and they are written together as a single word! *quam gelidum!* The accents are simple once you notice that they are done exactly like those of ordinary relative pronouns and the forms of τις, τι never receive any accents (except on the alternate forms). I have put the forms below partly because of the multiple alternate forms which deserve close attention as they are common and not always obvious. The singular alternate forms fittingly use the singular alternate forms of τις, τι (see Day 5, pp. 28-29) and so they are certainly not randomly formed. The gen. and dat. plural alternate forms have very recognizable endings. The neuter plural nom./acc. alternate forms are a bit tricky as they are not as predictable or recognizable as the others. The alternate forms are more common in verse than in prose.

The meaning of ὅστις, ἣτις, ὅ τι is "whoever, whatever, anyone who, anything which" and as mentioned above, these forms are also used to introduce indirect questions in Greek.

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom. sg.	ὅστις	ἣτις	ὅ τι
Gen.	οὗτινος (οῦτου)	ἥστινος	οὗτινος (οῦτου)
Dat.	ᾧτινι (οῦτω)	ἥτινι	ᾧτινι (οῦτω)
Acc.	ὄντινα	ἥντινα	ὄ τι
Nom. pl.	οἵτινες	αἵτινες	ἄτινα (ἄττα)

Gen.	ὤντινων (ὄτων)	ὤντινων	ὤντινων (ὄτων)
Dat.	οἴσισι(ν) (ὄτοις)	αἴσισι(ν)	οἴσισι(ν) (ὄτοις)
Acc.	οὔστινας	ἄστινας	ἄτινα (ἄττα)

Note: the neuter nom./acc. singular form ὄτι is written in most texts as two separate words to distinguish it from the conjunction ὅτι (that, because).

IRREGULAR COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

See pp. 43-44 above for ways of forming and using ordinary comparatives and superlatives. There are a number of common irregular comparative and superlative adjectives and most of them use the -ίων, -ιον endings (see p. 44 above for the paradigm) for the comparative and the -ιστος, η, ον endings for the superlative.

The common (positive-degree) adjective ἀγαθός, ἡ, ὄν has three irregular comparative and superlative adjectives and they have different connotations:

better	best	
ἀμείνων, ἄμεινον	ἄριστος, η, ον	(in ability or bravery)
βελτίων, βέλτιον	βέλτιστος, η, ον	(in morals)
κρείττων, κρεῖττον	κράτιστος, η, ον	(in strength)

The common (positive-degree) adjective κακός, η, ον ("bad,evil, cowardly") has two irregular comparative and superlative adjectives and they also have some differences in how they are used:

worse	worst	
κακίων, κάκιον	κάκιστος, η, ον	(in morals or courage)
χειρών, χειρόν	χείριστος, η, ον	(in morals or ability)

There is another common irregular comparative and superlative adjective related to the positive-degree adjective κακός, η, ον:

ἥττων, ἥττον	inferior, less, weaker	ἥκιστος, η, ον	least
--------------	------------------------	----------------	-------

Note: this also shows up commonly as an adverbial accusative (ἥκιστα) meaning "by no means" or "at least."

Here are several more adjectives which have irregular comparatives and superlatives that use these same combinations of endings:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
καλός, η, ον	καλλίων, κάλλιον	κάλλιστος, η, ον
μέγας, μεγάλη, μέγα	μείζων, μείζον	μέγιστος, η, ον
ὀλίγος, η, ον	ἐλάττων, ἔλαττον	ἐλάχιστος, η, ον
πολύς, πολλή, πολύ	πλείων/πλέων, πλεῖον/πλέον	πλεῖστος, η, ον
ῥάδιος, α, ον	ῥάων, ῥᾶον	ῥᾶστος, η, ον
ταχύς, ταχεῖα, ταχύ	θάττων, θᾶττον	τάχιστος, η, ον

Note: the comparative πλείων, πλεῖον has an alternative set of forms where ει is replaced by ε. These two sets of forms are otherwise formed identically.

Note on Comparative and Superlative Adverbs: adverbs related to these adjectives derive their comparative forms as usual from the neuter acc. singular of the comparative adjective and get their superlative adverbs from the neuter acc. plural of the superlative adjective. Here are a few examples:

ADVERBS WITH THREE DEGREES OF SEPARATION...

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
ἀληθῶς	ἀληθέστερον	ἀληθέστατα
ἡδέως	ἥδιον	ἥδιστα
κακῶς	κάκιον	κάκιστα
ῥαδίως	ῥᾶον	ῥᾶστα

RESULT CLAUSES

There are two types of result clauses: natural and actual. They are both introduced by ὥστε and the natural result clause takes the infinitive (and is negated by μή) while the actual result clause takes the indicative (and is negated by οὐ). This makes sense in that the actual result clause is for things that actually happen(ed) and so the indicative mood is appropriate as it is usually used to indicate what is, was, or will be the case. Remember that you *indicate with the indicative*. The natural result clause describes a general or natural tendency for something to happen and so doesn't get expressed with the rather tangible and concrete indicative mood.

ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπε πολλὰ ἀγαθὰ ὥστε ὁ Πλάτων τὰ καλὰ βιβλία περὶ τούτων τῶν ιδέων ἔγραψεν. (Actual Result Clause for actual tangible result and so takes indicative)
Socrates said many good things with the result that Plato wrote beautiful books about those ideas.

ὁ Σωκράτης εἶπε πολλὰ χαλεπὰ ὥστε τοὺς πολίτας αὐτὸν τιμᾶν.
Socrates said many difficult things with the result that the citizens did not (tend to) honor him. (Natural Result Clause for a general tendency or something that tended to happen).

CONDITIONALS

As Latin students, you are already familiar with the idea of conditionals and so I won't describe them in detail. There are 6 common conditionals in Greek and I like to group them into 3 friendly groups of two. Think of them like 3 families living on the same street (very near the Grammar Café). There are the Vivids (More and Less), the Generals (Present and Past) and the Contrarians (Present and Past). Here is how they are formed and traditionally rendered:

	Protasis	Apodosis	Translation
Future More Vivid	ἐάν + subjunctive	future indicative	if...does/ will do
Future Less Vivid	εἰ + optative	optative + ἄν	if...should/ would do
Present General	ἐάν + subjunctive	present indicative	if...does/ does
Past General	εἰ + optative	imperfect indicative	if...did/ did
Present Contrafactual	εἰ + imperfect indic.	imperfect indic. + ἄν	if...were/ would
Past Contrafactual	εἰ + aorist indicative	aorist indicative + ἄν	if...had/ would have

Observations: some of these conditionals above obviously have the same protasis and so it is important to note the apodosis in such instances so as to correctly identify and translate it. It is important to memorize these traditional translation formulae as they are not necessarily all that intuitive.

Contrafactual Note: the contrary-to-fact conditionals use only indicative even though they are speaking of actions that are not or were not possible. This use of the indicative mood is a bit surprising especially considering that Latin uses the subjunctive for contrafactual conditionals. Note that the contrafactuals (aka contrary-to-fact conditionals or the "unreal conditionals") are the only conditionals above that use only indicative forms. The particle **ἄν** is very important as its presence distinguishes a contrafactual conditional from a so-called simple conditional (one that just uses simple tenses of the indicative and has no special translation formula). In case you are wondering, **ἄν** is indeed the very same particle that you see used to make an optative express potential, or should we say, potential (patent-pending mnemonic!).

Fun Fact: the past contrafactual conditional is an instance where you would expect Greek to use the pluperfect given the translation formula but they choose the aorist instead (as they do in other instances as well). This is one reason you don't see the pluperfect in Greek nearly as much as you do in Latin.

Note on Mood and Tense: the tense of the subjunctive or optative in these conditionals only indicates aspect (repeated or simple) and it does not otherwise make any substantive difference. The tense of the indicative is much more important as this is the only thing that distinguishes the present from the past contrafactuals or the future more vivid from the present generals.

Note on Ways to Say If: Greek obviously has several ways to say "if" and it is important to be familiar with them as they can be helpful with moods. **ἐάν** only appears with the subjunctive mood and it is important to know that this charming word can be spelled in several ways: **ἐάν**, **ἦν**, **ἄν** (with a long alpha--this distinguishes it from the particle **ἄν** which has a short alpha). This is because **ἐάν** is really a contraction of **εἰ ἄν** and the other spellings seem to reflect different ways to contract those vowels. **εἰ** is much easier (no other ways to spell it) and is used only with the indicative and the optative. Would you want Greek to have fewer ways to say "if"? No! As if!?

Lyrics from Dachshund Fiddler on the Woof: If I *were* a dachshund, I *would* wag my tail and walk around and always have my way...(always playing at the Grammar Café).

MI Verbs

"These are some of **μ**i favorite verbs in Greek" --famous Greek pirate whose favorite particle was obviously **γάρ**...

This is a very charming and small but important and common group of verbs whose first principal part ends in **-μι** instead of the usual **-ω**. You may have noticed that we haven't talked about conjugations in Greek and that is because the vast majority of verbs are in the so-called omega class and have **-ω** as the first-singular active ending in several tenses. We have focused on that whole class of verbs because that is the most common type of verb you will encounter out there on the Greek streets. The only other class of verbs that could be called a "conjugation" are the verbs ending in **-μι**. There are a handful of irregular verbs ending in **-μι** and they have given this class of verbs a somewhat fierce reputation. There are also so-called "regular **-μι** verbs" like **δείκνυμι** which have much more consistent endings and can easily be mastered. The common but small group of irregular **-μι** verbs

are essential to know if you want to continue with Greek as they are used so frequently. You can find a handful of -μι verbs in just the first page or two of the *Iliad*, for instance.

The world of the irregular -μι verbs is complex and requires an unusual amount of memorization but they do have certain recurring similarities among themselves and they do almost seem a world unto themselves. Certain linguistic rules we have been following are inconsistently applied in this world (such as dropping the intervocalic sigma which sometimes happens with -μι verbs but sometimes does not). Part of what makes these verbs challenging is that they generally have two stems, a long-vowel stem and a short-vowel stem. You will be happy to learn that the short-vowel stem is used in most forms but the long-vowel stem is present in some common forms and so you need to know both. Furthermore, these verbs are mostly athematic and so they lack that helpful theme vowel ε/ο between the stem and ending. In a few instances, the generally athematic forms will temporarily "go thematic" for a few forms and then come back to their athematic senses, as it were. So, there is some inconsistency in how these verbs are formed and so you really need to spend some time with them.

Silver Lining: several of the tenses for these charmers are entirely normal and conjugated like normal -ω class verbs. For instance, the future of τίθημι is θήσω (note the common long-vowel stem θη-) and it is conjugated just like λύσω. So, the difficulties with the -μι verbs are contained to certain tenses. Generally the present, imperfect, and aorist indicative forms are challenging and have some unexpected linguistic twists and turns. The futures and perfects are generally quite straightforward (although the perfect of ἵστημι has a few interesting surprises in store for you!).

How to Master the MI Verbs: As with the contract verbs, you really have a choice about whether you want to learn all the linguistic details and reasons for why the forms look the way they do. In many cases, it is easier for most students simply to memorize the irregular forms and then move on. You will see this small but fierce and common class of verbs all the time and so the forms will eventually sink in, trust me! In what follows, you will get a sense for why these verbs have been called fierce and headstrong (they are the rebels on the Greek streets but really quite friendly once you get to know them).

The Good News is the Bad News: you will see these verbs a lot (both in their simple forms and in multiple compound versions) and so that will seem challenging at first but after a while the repetition will help you master this group of slightly unruly verbs.

We will briefly survey the following four famously charming -μι verbs:
δίδωμι, δώσω, ἔδωκα, δέδωκα, δέδομαι, ἐδόθην give, offer, grant, assign

τίθημι, θήσω, ἔθηκα, τέθηκα, τέθειμαι, ἐτέθην, put, place, set

ἵστημι, στήσω, ἔστησα (trans.) OR ἔστην (intrans.), ἔστηκα, ἔσταμαι, ἐστάθην make stand, set up, appoint, bring to a standstill, check; *intrans. and mid.* stand, stand still, halt
Note: the first three principal parts for ἵστημι are transitive (and so take a direct object) and the last three are intransitive. There are two aorists and one is transitive (ἔστησα) and the other is not (ἔστην).

ἵημι, -ήσω, -ῆκα, -εῖκα, -εῖμαι, -εῖθην, release, hurl, send

Note: the hyphens indicate that all forms outside of the present system appear only in compound verbs.

PRESENT ACTIVE INDICATIVE ENDINGS for MI Verbs

	endings	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἵστημι	ἵημι
1 sg	-μι	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἵστημι	ἵημι
2	-ς	δίδως	τίθης	ἵστης	ἴης/ἴεις
3	-σι(ν)	δίδωσι(ν)	τίθησι(ν)	ἵησι(ν)	ἴησι(ν)
1 pl.	-μεν	δίδομεν	τίθεμεν	ἵσταμεν	ἴεμεν
2	-τε	δίδοτε	τίθετε	ἵστατε	ἴετε
3	-ασι(ν)	διδόασι(ν)	τιθέασι(ν)	ιστάσι(ν)	ἰάσι(ν)
Infinitive:	-ναι	διδόναι	τιθέναι	ιστάναι	ἰέναι

Accenting Note: as always in Greek, the syllable before -ναι is accented. Fun fact! That explains why all those perfect active and aorist passive infinitives have that accent: λελυκέναι, λυθῆναι, κ.τ.λ.

Long and Short Stems: as you can see in these present forms above, there is a clear difference between the long vowel stems (διδω-, τιθη-, ἵστη-, ἴη-) and the short vowel stems (δίδο-, τιθε-, ἵστα-, ἴε-). The singular forms use the long vowel stems while the plurals use the long vowel stems. This is not particularly difficult but that sort of change of stem within the same tense has given the -μι verbs their somewhat fierce reputation...

Familiar Forms Note: there are some similarities with the more familiar and friendly -ω class verbs. As almost always, -μεν and -τε are your friends and consistently present. You have seen -ασι(ν) as a 3rd plural ending although admittedly it was in the perfect active and not the present. The sigma is a perfectly reasonable ending for 2nd person singular (think S for second person!).

Thematic Note: in a vintage -μι verb move, the 3rd plural forms for ἵστημι and ἴημι display contractions of the stem and endings while those of δίδωμι and τίθημι do not. Those forms are for whatever reason thematic and so the short vowel in the stem contracts with the endings, hence the different accents on those forms (cf. contract verbs). You can see something similar with the alternative 2nd singular form of ἴημι. It is somewhat surprisingly thematic and has a contraction of the short vowel stem ἴε- and the theme vowel ε, hence the ending -εῖς (with the circumflex commemorating the site of the collision of vowels just as we saw with contract verbs). It is particularly surprising that this form uses the short-vowel stem ἴε- as the singulars in the present otherwise use the long-vowel stem. These kinds of quirky inconsistencies which give -μι verbs that reputation I mentioned above. I think you can see that it is probably easier just to memorize the present tenses and not worry too much about why the forms look the way they do!

IMPERFECT ACTIVE INDICATIVES

	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἵστημι	ἵημι
1 sg.	ἔδιδουν	ἐτίθην	ἵστην	ἴην
2	ἔδιδους	ἐτίθεις	ἵστης	ἴεις
3	ἔδιδου	ἐτίθει	ἵστη	ἴει
1 pl.	ἔδιδομεν	ἐτίθεμεν	ἵσταμεν	ἴεμεν

2	ἐδίδοτε	ἐτίθετε	ἴστατε	ἴετε
3	ἐδίδοσαν	ἐτίθεσαν	ἴστασαν	ἴεσαν

Note: despite the fact that -μι verbs are generally classified as athematic verbs, we have here again some unexpected thematic forms: all 3 singular forms from δίδωμι as well as the 2nd and 3rd singulars of both τίθημι and ἴημι.

Note: only ἴστημι here follows the "rule" that the long vowel stem is to be used through the singular imperfect active indicative forms. In other instances where there are thematic forms as noted above, the contractions are in fact using the short-vowel stem (and so that "rule" has almost as many exception as faithful adherents!).

Note: the long-vowel stem for -μι verbs is only found in the singulars of the present and imperfect active indicative and you will notice that everywhere else they use the short-vowel stem. They clearly prefer the short-vowel stem as it even seeps into the world of the present/imperfect act. indicatives (as seen above). Of course, as these are -μι verbs, there are exceptions to this rule and the root aorist ἔστην is one (as we will see below).

Note: when a verb begins with iota, that iota gets lengthened in past tenses and is pronounced differently but the spelling will be the same (as a lengthened iota is just a long iota). You must be careful particularly with verbs like ἴστημι and ἴημι where the iota at the front of the stem will not look different when augmented.

In the case of ἴστημι, the 2nd singular and the first and second plural have the same endings in the present and imperfect active indicative. They then only differ by the quantity of the initial iota (a difference that can only be heard and not seen). You will have use context to determine which tense you have with these forms: ἴστης, ἴσταμεν, ἴστατε.

ἴημι is a bit tougher in that the initial iota is already long in the present stem and so there is no more lengthening to be done. This means that the first and second plural present and imperfect active indicatives are identical for this verb and can only be distinguished by context: ἴεμεν, ἴετε.

AORIST ACTIVE INDICATIVES

	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἴστημι	ἴστημι	ἴημι
1 sg.	ἔδωκα	ἔθηκα	ἔστησα	ἔστην	-ἦκα
2	ἔδωκας	ἔθηκας	ἔστησας	ἔστης	-ἦκας
3	ἔδωκε(ν)	ἔθηκε(ν)	ἔστησε(ν)	ἔστη	-ἦκε(ν)
1 pl.	ἔδομεν	ἔθεμεν	ἔστήσαμεν	ἔστημεν	-εἴμεν
2	ἔδοτε	ἔθετε	ἔστήσατε	ἔστητε	-εἴτε
3	ἔδοσαν	ἔθεσαν	ἔστησαν	ἔστησαν	-εἴσαν
Aor Act. Infin:	δοῦναι	θεῖναι	στήσαι	στήναι	-εῖναι

Aorist Stem Alert: δίδωμι and τίθημι lose their reduplicated stems in the aorist tense.

Disappearing Kappa Alert: there is a kappa in the singulars but NOT in the plurals of δίδωμι, τίθημι, and ἴημι. The presence of the kappa can be a bit confusing since you expect the presence of a kappa to indicate the perfect tense and not the aorist as it does

here. The fact that the odd kappa disappears in the plurals just makes me look out the window and say aloud: *illa lingua graeca!*

Two Aorist Alert: there are two aorists for ἴστημι, one a regular first aorist (conjugated exactly like the aorist of λύω), and the other a special and charming type of athematic aorist known as a root aorist where the stem vowel is long through the singular and plural. Some textbooks and grammars call this a 2nd aorist even though it has little in common with the 2nd aorist we learned a while back. See below for a few more root aorists.

Dashing Note: as you may recall, the dash indicates that those aorist forms of ἴημι only appear in compound verbs.

There is more we could say about the tenses we have seen so far but I think you can already get a sense of why some people cross the linguistic street when they see a -μι verb approaching on Translation Street. Don't be intimidated by the -μι verbs, though, as you will see them a lot in Greek and the admittedly quirky forms will sink in if you give them appropriate time and consideration.

Silver Lining Alert: The Middle-Passive forms for these verbs are MUCH easier!

PRESENT MIDDLE-PASSIVE INDICATIVE

The middle-passive forms for the present, imperfect, and aorist indicative are not nearly as tricky as the active forms above. The short vowel stems are used throughout the middle-passive forms for these verbs: διδο-, τίθε-, ἴστα-, ἰε-. There are a few unexpected forms such as the 2nd singular present mid-pass. forms below which do NOT drop the intervocalic sigma as we have seen so many times elsewhere. Greek here gets to keep its original 2nd singular primary mid-pass. ending -σαι and there are no contractions or dropped letters here.

	PRESENT MIDDLE-PASSIVE -MI VERB INDICATIVES			
	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἴστημι	ἴημι
1 sg.	δίδομαι	τίθεμαι	ἴσταμαι	ἴεμαι
2	δίδοσαι	τίθεσαι	ἴστασαι	ἴεσαι
3	δίδοται	τίθεται	ἴσταται	ἴεται
1 pl.	διδόμεθα	τιθέμεθα	ἰστάμεθα	ἰέμεθα
2	δίδοσθε	τίθεσθε	ἰστασθε	ἰεσθε
3	δίδονται	τίθενται	ἰστανται	ἰενται
Infinitive:	δίδοσθαι	τίθεσθαι	ἰστασθαι	ἰεσθαι

As you can see, those forms are pretty straightforward. You just add -μαι, -σαι, -ται, -μεθα, -σθε, -νται to the short-vowel version of the stems (which makes sense since there are generally no theme vowels present in -μι verbs--with some notable exceptions as we saw above). You may recall that the original 2nd personal mid-pass. ending with the theme vowel was -εσαι and the intervocalic sigma dropped leaving us with a contracted ending of -ει/-η. Here we don't have the theme vowel ε before the ending and even though there is a vowel at the end of the short-vowel stem for all four -μι verbs here, for some reason the intervocalic sigma decides to stay and not drop out. *quam gelidum!*

IMPERFECT MIDDLE-PASSIVE INDICATIVE

It may be helpful to contrast the regular thematic endings (i.e. theme vowel + endings) we saw in the -ω class verbs (used in imperfect and 2nd aorist) with the charming athematic endings (i.e. endings without a theme vowel) from our new friends the -μι verbs.

	Thematic Endings	Athematic Endings
1 sg.	-ομην	-μην
2	-ου	-σο
3	-ετο	-το
1 pl.	-ομεθα	-μεθα
2	-εσθε	-σθε
3	-οντο	-ντο

Intervocalic Sigma Note: recall that the original 2nd sing. mid-pass. thematic ending was -εσο but after the intervocalic sigma dropped and εο contracted, they ended up with ου (a contraction you now recognize as also happening in the epsilon contract verbs). You may not be surprised to learn that the intervocalic sigma does NOT drop in the imperfect middle-passive indicative forms below.

	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἵστημι	ἵημι
1 sg.	ἐδιδόμην	ἐτιθέμην	ἱστάμην	ἱέμην
2	ἐδίδοσο	ἐτίθεσο	ἱστασο	ἱεσο
3	ἐδίδοτο	ἐτίθετο	ἱστατο	ἱετο
1 pl.	ἐδιδόμεθα	ἐτιθέμεθα	ἱστάμεθα	ἱέμεθα
2	ἐδίδοσθε	ἐτίθεσθε	ἱστασθε	ἱεσθε
3	ἐδίδοντο	ἐτίθεντο	ἱσταντο	ἱεντο

Note: all four verbs consistently use the short-vowel stems in these forms. Remember that an initial iota only augments by lengthening and so it looks the same as an unaugmented one but would have been pronounced differently.

AORIST MIDDLE INDICATIVE

You will probably be sad to learn that the aorist middle indicative is only present for three of the -μι verbs we are focusing on. There is no extant aorist middle indicative for ἵστημι. I imagine you won't miss it as there are a few other forms to contend with!

	AORIST MIDDLE INDICATIVE of δίδωμι, τίθημι, ἵημι		
	δίδωμι	τίθημι	ἵημι
1 sg.	ἔδόμην	ἔθέμην	-εἶμην
2	ἔδου	ἔθου	-εἶσο
3	ἔδοτο	ἔθετο	-εἶτο
1 pl.	ἔδόμεθα	ἔθέμεθα	-εἶμεθα
2	ἔδοσθε	ἔθεσθε	-εἶσθε
3	ἔδοντο	ἔθεντο	-εἶντο
Infinitive:	δόσθαι	θέσθαι	-ἔσθαι

Note: the intervocalic sigma drops in two of the three 2nd singular forms above. The resulting contractions of the vowels give you ἔδου and ἔθου. Intriguingly, ἔσο retains the intervocalic sigma as often happens in -μι verb land.

FORMING PARTICIPLES for -MI VERBS

This is not difficult to do and you will use the short-vowel stem and add mostly the endings for a regular participle (minus the usual omicron you see in present, future and 2nd aorist -ω class verbs). The nom. singulars (particularly the masculine) look a bit quirky but just roll with it and rest assured that they are mostly quite easy to form.

Here is the present active for δίδωμι (and for the aorist active, you just take off the reduplication and so it would be δούς, δοῦσα, δόν).

	M	F	N
Nom. sg.	διδούς	διδούσα	διδόν
Gen.	διδόντος	διδούσης	διδόντος
Dat.	διδόντι	διδούση	διδόντι
Acc.	διδόντα	διδούσαν	διδόν
Nom. pl.	διδόντες	διδούσαι	διδόντα
Gen.	διδόντων	διδουσῶν	διδόντων
Dat.	διδούσι(ν)	διδούσαις	διδούσι(ν)
Acc.	διδόντας	διδούσας	διδόντα

The middle-passive present participle just combines the short-vowel stem διδο- and the regular endings -μενος, -μένη, -μενον and declines just like ἀγαθός, ἡ, ὄν. The aorist middle just drops the reduplication on the stem and so is δόμενος, δομένη, δόμενον.

Here is the present active participle of τίθημι (and for the aorist active, you just take off the reduplication and so it would be θείς, θεῖσα, θέν).

	M	F	N
Nom. sg.	τιθείς	τιθεῖσα	τιθέν
Gen.	τιθέντος	τιθείσης	τιθέντος
Dat.	τιθέντι	τιθείση	τιθέντι
Acc.	τιθέντα	τιθεῖσαν	τιθέν
Nom. pl.	τιθέντες	τιθεῖσαι	τιθέντα
Gen.	τιθέντων	τιθεισῶν	τιθέντων
Dat.	τιθεῖσι(ν)	τιθείσαις	τιθεῖσι(ν)
Acc.	τιθέντας	τιθείσας	τιθέντα

The middle-passive present participle just combines the short-vowel stem τιθε- and the regular endings -μενος, -μένη, -μενον and declines just like ἀγαθός, ἡ, ὄν. The aorist middle just drops the reduplication on the stem and so is θέμενος, θέμένη, θέμενον.

SERIOUS BONUS: ἵημι forms its present and 2nd aorist participle exactly like that of τίθημι: ἰείς, ἰεῖσα, ἰέν and so there is no need to write out the forms!

Here is the present active participle of ἵστημι (and for the aorist active, you just take off the reduplication and so it would be στάς, σταῖσα, στάν).

	M	F	N
Nom. sg.	ἰστάς	ἰσᾶσα	ἰσάν
Gen.	ἰσάντος	ἰστάσης	ἰσάντος
Dat.	ἰσάντι	ἰστάση	ἰσάντι
Acc.	ἰσάντα	ἰσᾶσαν	ἰσάν
Nom. pl.	ἰσάντες	ἰσᾶσαι	ἰσάντα
Gen.	ἰσάντων	ἰσασῶν	ἰσάντων
Dat.	ἰσᾶσι(ν)	ἰστάσαις	ἰσᾶσι(ν)
Acc.	ἰσάντας	ἰστάσας	ἰσάντα

The middle-passive present participle just combines the short-vowel stem ἰστα- and the regular endings -μενος, -μένη, -μενον and declines just like ἀγαθός, ἦ, ὄν. There is no aorist middle for this verb.

ANOTHER IRREGULAR MI VERB: GO, GREEK, GO!

Here is the present system for the irregular verb εἶμι "go, come." It is irregular and lives in its own world but has similarities to the other -μι verbs we have looked at. Note the alternate forms in the imperfect. Be sure not to confuse this verb with εἶμί "be, exist."

Fun Game: well, you know...(compare the forms of εἶμί and εἶμι). That's the whole game!

Note: the subjunctive and optative forms are quite easy (cf. *eo, ire*)

	PRESENT Indic	IMPERFECT	SUBJ.	OPT.
1 sg.	εἶμι	ἦα/ ἦειν	ἦω	ἦοιμι
2	εἶ	ἦισθα/ ἦεις	ἦης	ἦοις
3	εἶσι(ν)	ἦιν/ ἦει	ἦη	ἦοι
1 pl.	ἴμεν	ἦμεν	ἴωμεν	ἴοιμεν
2	ἴτε	ἦτε	ἴητε	ἴοιτε
3	ἴασι(ν)	ἦσαν/ ἦεσαν	ἴωσι(ν)	ἴοιεν
Infinitive:	ἰέναι			
Participle:	ἰών, ἰούσα, ἰόν			

Present Imperative for εἶμι: 2nd sing. ἴθι 3rd sing. ἴτω 2nd pl. ἴτε 3rd pl. ἰόντων

Compare the imper. for εἶμί: 2nd sing. ἴσθι 3rd sg. ἔστω 2nd pl. ἔστε 3rd pl. ἔστων

Extra Fun Form to Watch out For: ἴσθι is also the singular imperative for οἶδα...

PRESENT SYSTEM OF δείκνυμι (a "regular" -μι verb!)

This is the present and imperfect of one of the so-called regular -μι verbs that use many of the same endings as the more fierce verbs above but are considerably more regularized as you can see below. The present subjunctive and optative are entirely straightforward and just add the same endings as you saw with λύω with δεικνυ- as the stem (no need to even write those out!).

	PRESENT ACTIVE	PRESENT MIDDLE-PASSIVE
1 sg.	δείκνυμι	δείκνυμαι
2	δείκνυς	δείκνυσαι
3	δείκνυσι(ν)	δείκνυται

1 pl.	δείκνυμεν	δεικνύμεθα
2	δείκνυτε	δείκνυσθε
3	δείκνύασι(ν)	δείκνυνται
Infinitive:	δεικνύναι	δεικνυσθαι
participle	δείκνυς, δεικνῦσα, δεικνύν	δεικνύμενος, η, ον

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE OF δείκνυμι

	IMPERFECT ACTIVE	IMPERFECT MIDDLE-PASSIVE
1 sg.	ἔδεικνυν	ἔδεικνύμην
2	ἔδεικνυς	ἔδεικνυσο
3	ἔδεικνυ	ἔδεικνυτο
1 pl.	ἔδεικνυμεν	ἔδεικνύμεθα
2	ἔδεικνυτε	ἔδεικνυσθε
3	ἔδεικνυσαν	ἔδεικνυντο

Note: this is what it looks like when -μι verbs behave and there are a number of verbs that conjugate exactly like δείκνυμι and I think you will probably rejoice when you see them!

Note: the endings in the present are quite similar to the other -μι verbs we have seen and note that the intervocalic sigma does not drop in the imperfect middle-passive 2nd sing.

Note: the present active participle uses the same basic endings you are familiar with but there is no theme vowel (this is still a -μι verb after all) and so the -ντος, -ντι, -ντα, -ντες, -ντων, -σι, -ντας endings get attached directly to the stem δεικνυ-.

PRESENT SYSTEM OF φημί

While we are discussing -μι verbs, you may as well get a chance to see the present and imperfect active indicative forms of the common verb φημί (say, think) which is very often used to introduce indirect statement with accus./infinitive (like νομίζω).

Interestingly there are only active forms for this verb and additionally the present indicative is enclitic except for the 2nd singular (just like εἰμί "be").

	Present Indicative	Imperfect Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative	Imperative
1 sg.	φημί	ἔφην	φῶ	φαίην	
2	φῆς	ἔφης/ ἔφησθα	φῆς	φαίης	φάθι
3	φησί(ν)	ἔφη	φῆ	φαίη	φάτω
1 pl.	φαμέν	ἔφαμεν	φῶμεν	φαῖμεν	
2	φατέ	ἔφατε	φῆτε	φαίητε	φάτε
3	φασί(ν)	ἔφασαν	φῶσι(ν)	φαῖεν	φάντων
Infinitive φάναι					

Participle: φάς, φᾶσα, φάν (cf. declined like πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν and the participles for the -μι verbs such as ἴστημι: Nom. Sing. ἰστάς, ἰστᾶσα, ἰστάν)

Note: the plural present optatives have the following alternate forms: φαίημεν, φαίητε, φαίησαν.

ROOT AORIST INDICATIVE for βαίνω and γιγνώσκω

There are other root aorists scattered throughout the Greek verb landscape and a few occur in common verbs like βαίνω "walk, step, go on" and γιγνώσκω "come to know"

	Root Aorist of βαίνω	Root Aorist of γιγνώσκω
1 sg.	ἔβην	ἔγνων
2	ἔβης	ἔγnows
3	ἔβη	ἔγνω
1 pl.	ἔβημεν	ἔγνωμεν
2	ἔβητε	ἔγνωτε
3	ἔβησαν	ἔγνωσαν
Infin:	βῆναι	γνῶναι

OMICRON CONTRACT VERBS!

As promised, here is the present system for the third and final type of contract verbs. As with any contract verbs, there are two ways to learn them. You can memorize the rules for contraction or you can just memorize a sample omicron contract verb like δηλόω ("make clear, show, reveal") and feel confident that all other omicron contracts will be done exactly the same way! In the case of alpha and epsilon contract verbs, I recommend learning the contraction rules since they are not numerous and it is obviously ideal to know both the rules and a sample for each type of verb. The contraction rules for omicron contract verbs are not any more difficult than those for alpha and epsilon contracts but students typically find the omicron verbs a bit more difficult. Partly this is because many of the contracted endings end up similar (-οι shows up fairly often) and partly this is due to the fact that omicron contracts have three common types of contraction whereas the other types only use two. This can make omicron contracts seem a bit trickier at first but they are really quite friendly once you see them for a while. For now, I would recommend memorizing a sample verb such as δηλόω and don't worry too much about the contraction rules (unless you want to run down that exciting linguistic path!). As always, once you know one sample contract verb, you know all the others of that type too!

ACCENTING NOTE: As with other contract verbs, the accenting is based on the uncontracted forms and so if the accent happens to land on one of the colliding vowels or diphthongs, then that collision is commemorated with a circumflex when you write the contracted forms. If the accent manages to skip past the site of contraction, then there is no need for a circumflex and you will see an acute accent on the contracted form. I will put the uncontracted forms in parentheses so you can see what they look like and how they determine the accent in the contracted forms. For instance, δηλοῦτε has a circumflex in its contracted form because the uncontract form is δηλόομεν. The accent ends up on one of the colliding vowels and so you commemorate the site of the collision with a circumflex (unless a circumflex cannot go over such a syllable due to the quantity of the ultima). So, you end up with a circumflex on the penult.

SERIOUS SILVER LINING: Remember that *all contract verbs only contract in the present system* and they are otherwise very ordinary and predictable verbs. Remember also that Homer and Herodotus just leave the verbs uncontracted which is really much easier as you don't have to think about what happens to the accent when the vowels contract!

Contraction Rules for Omicron Contracts:

- ο + ε, ο, ου --->>> ου
- ο + η, ω --->>> ω
- ο + any diphthong with iota --->>> οι

PRESENT INDICATIVE for OMICRON CONTRACT VERB δηλόω

	ACTIVE	MIDDLE-PASSIVE
1 sg.	δηλῶ (δηλόω)	δηλοῦμαι (δηλόομαι)
2	δηλοῖς (δηλόεις)	δηλοῖ (δηλόει/η)
3	δηλοῖ (δηλόει)	δηλοῦται (δηλόεται)
1 pl	δηλοῦμεν (δηλόομεν)	δηλούμεθα (δηλοόμεθα)
2	δηλοῦτε (δηλόετε)	δηλοῦσθε (δηλόεσθε)
3	δηλοῦσι(ν) (δηλόουσι(ν))	δηλοῦνται (δηλόονται)
Infin:	δηλοῦν	δηλοῦσθαι

Note: the original ending of the active infinitive was -εεν and so the contraction is done with that ending and that yields -ου. By the way, the change from -εεν to -ειν gives us what linguists amusingly call the "spurious diphthong" (because it was not originally there and so in some way is false or not original).

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE for δηλόω

	Active	Middle-Passive
1 sg.	ἐδήλουν (ἐδήλοον)	ἐδηλούμην (ἐδηλοόμην)
2	ἐδήλους (ἐδήλοες)	ἐδηλοῦ (ἐδηλόου)
3	ἐδήλου (ἐδήλοε)	ἐδηλοῦτο (ἐδηλόετο)
1 pl.	ἐδηλοῦμεν (ἐδηλόομεν)	ἐδηλούμεθα (ἐδηλοόμεθα)
2	ἐδηλοῦτε (ἐδηλόετε)	ἐδηλοῦσθε (ἐδηλόεσθε)
3	ἐδήλουν (ἐδήλοον)	ἐδηλοῦντο (ἐδηλόοντο)

Note: the contractions are exactly the same here as they were for the present indicative forms. Note again that when an accent on an uncontracted form happens to get past the site of contraction, then you end up with an acute accent (e.g., 3rd pl. active). If the accent ends up on the site of contraction (e.g., 1st and 2nd plural active), then you see a circumflex on the contracted form.

Good News for Other Moods of Omicron Contracts: The other moods follow the exact same contraction rules and are easy to form. The present optative forms all feature the same contraction -οι and the present subjunctive forms all have -ω with the exception of the 2nd and 3rd person singular act. and the 2nd person mid-pass. which all end up with -οι: δηλοῖς, δηλοῖ, and δηλοῖ respectively. The participles are also quite easy and follow these rules and because of the consistency of the endings in both active and mid-pass., there are only a few contractions used throughout those paradigms as well. For instance, the present middle-passive participle for omicron contracts only uses one contraction -ου because all the forms have the same vowel (ο) colliding with the omicron at the end of the stem: δηλούμενος, δηλουμένη, δηλούμενον.

NUMBERS!!!

The Greeks originally used letters to represent numbers (alpha was 1, beta was 2, κ.τ.λ.). As you can see below, the numbers 1-4 are declinable (but not all have all 3 genders) while the other numbers are indeclinable and fixed.

- 1 εἷς, μία, ἓν (Gen. ἐνός, μιᾶς, ἐνός, Dat. ἐνί, μιᾶ, ἐνί, Acc. ἓνα, μίαν, ἓν)
- 2 δύο (Gen. δυοῖν, Dat. δυοῖν, Acc. δύο) (same for all 3 genders)

3 τρεῖς, τρία (Gen. τριῶν, Dat. τρισί(ν), Acc. τρεῖς, τρία)

4 τέτταρες, τέτταρα (Gen. τεττάρων, Dat. τέτταροι(ν), Acc. τέτταρας, τέτταρα)

Note: the numbers 3 and 4 are two-termination but their forms only differ in the nominative and accusative cases.

5 πέντε

6 ἕξ

7 ἑπτά

8 ὀκτώ

9 ἑννέα

10 δέκα

11 ἑνδεκα

12 δώδεκα

13 τρισκαίδεκα

FINAL NOTE: σπεῦδε βραδέως! (*festina lente*)--good advice for Greek students!

Thanks to all the students who have been patient (alpha)beta testers for Greek in 8 Days!

Remember that you have a lifetime subscription to the Greek and Latin Hotline! Please also let me know if you have feedback about this textbook (typos, things to include, requested readings in the workbook/reader, κ.τ.λ.).