
Hellênikê / ἑλληνική: an open-source introduction to ancient Greek

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1 Hellênikê / ἐλληνική: an open-source introduction to ancient Greek

Encounter a historical language and culture, and engage with how that language and culture continue to shape structures of power today.

This open-source textbook is one part of a project to develop a new two-semester introduction to ancient Greek at the College of the Holy Cross in 2022-2023. It is modeled on work by several members of our department over the past three years rethinking our introductory Latin courses. Like that project, our curriculum is based on these principles:

- the course emphasizes authentic examples of language, and is organized around a target text (in this textbook, Lysias, *Oration 1: On the Murder of Eratosthenes*). Instead of composing made-up Greek, we draw on the target text as much as possible.
- we follow modern principles of language pedagogy in presenting first those features of language (syntactic, morphological, lexical) that are frequent in Greek, are inherently complex, and are most different from English forms of expression and thought.
- we determine the sequence of content on the basis of computational analysis of the features needed to read authentic content.
- throughout the curriculum, we link the study of Greek to reflection on contemporary issues.

Like the Latin project before us, our work at Holy Cross is taking place through the college's Scholarship in Action program, and we gratefully acknowledge its support.

2 About this textbook

2.1 Organization

The textbook begins with a brief section of “Preliminaries” introducing the Greek alphabet and accent. This is followed by modules that we use as the basis for two to three weeks of our courses. We expect to cover modules 1-4 in the first semester of a two-semester, full-year course.

Each module has three sections:

1. *language*: introduction of new features of the Greek language
2. *ancient Greek in action*: reading or activities that ask students to relate content introduced in the language section of this module to some aspect of their life
3. *reading*: a minimally modified passage from the target text (in this edition, Lysias 1). This passage serves as the basis for assignments we include in the section of the “Practice” chapter for this module.

These chapters are followed by a chapter entitled “Practice,” with two groups of exercises for each module.

1. *Mastery* exercises (entitled “Mastering module X”) offer a selection of short practice exercises that could be used in class or assigned for practice outside of class time.
2. *Portfolio* exercises are a graduated trio of longer assignments for each module. The first assignment is a systematic test of content covered in the mastery exercises; the second assignment is an exercise reading and analyzing a passage of connected Greek; the third assignment is a guided composition in Greek.

After the “Practice” chapter, a “Language review” chapter summarizes the language section of each module. The summary includes paradigms, a list of vocabulary to memorize, and a list of technical terms new in this module. (Their first appearance in the text is highlighted **like this**.)

The final reference offers a more comprehensive set of paradigms, and two different English translations of Lysias 1.

The textbook has an accompanying youtube channel. The playlist here has short videos where students can listen while following the text of the reading selections for each module.

2.1.1 A note on vocabulary

The first modules of the course emphasize a small core vocabulary (fewer than 200 words). This vocabulary is characterized by its frequency across many corpora of Greek texts. The common practice of simply finding the most frequent terms in a *composite* list of Greek texts, however, effaces the differences in vocabulary from one corpus to another: common words in one corpus could be entirely absent from another corpus, but if one corpus is substantially larger than the other, its frequent terms could still appear to be “frequent” in a composite corpus. We therefore take instead the highest frequency lists of *individual* corpora, and look for overlapping items.

The resulting lexemes include:

- function words (prepositions, particles, conjunctions)
- the article and pronouns
- a small core of extremely common verbs, especially those which have a large number of compounds. In counting the frequency of a simplex verb like φέρω, we include occurrences of compounds such as ἐπιφέρω or ἐκφέρω.

Our “core vocabulary” list also includes a relatively small number of nouns, and fewer adjectives: these parts of speech vary more from one corpus to another.

As we get further into the course, we focus on a second tier of vocabulary: terms that are frequent in the target corpus and related or similar texts, but not necessarily in other Greek corpora. The goal is to have a large enough vocabulary to recognize 75-90% of the lexical items in the target text, excluding proper nouns and adjectives. For some target texts, a vocabulary of < 500 words may be adequate. This second vocabulary tier will include more verbs, a larger number of nouns, and some additional adjectives.

2.2 Versions and source

This text is work in progress built from the openly licensed markdown source in this github repository (<https://github.com/hellenike/textbook>).

You can also download a PDF of this version (<https://github.com/hellenike/textbook/raw/main/pdf/hellenike.pdf>).

2.2.1 Subsequent releases

Over the course of the 2022-2023 academic year, we plan to release the complete *Hellênikê/ἑλληνική* textbook in four packets, as follows:

- **packet 1** (including modules 1 and 2) in August 2022.
- **packet 2** (including modules 3 and 4) in October 2022.

- **packet 3** (with roughly the first half of the spring semester's materials) in January 2023.
- **packet 4** (complete first-year textbook) in March 2023.

3 Preliminaries

Since ancient Greek is a historical language, our knowledge of it depends on written sources. Before we can begin our study of the language, we need to understand the writing system we use to represent ancient Greek.

3.1 The Greek alphabet

3.1.1 Background

Greeks began experimenting with alphabetic writing in the eighth century BCE when they became familiar with the alphabets used to write Semitic languages like Phoenician and Aramaic. Several adaptations of these Semitic models were used in different parts of the Greek world, with different numbers of letters, and different sounds for some of the letters in each alphabet. In 403 BCE, Athens officially adopted the form of the alphabet used in Ionia. Over the next century, this script soon became the standard form throughout the Greek world, and is the ancestor of what we think of as “the” Greek alphabet.

The alphabetic system defined sounds for each symbol. Another important feature was that it defined a *sequence* for the letters, just as we have maintained in our descendant of the Greek alphabet: it begins with “a”, and is followed by “b”, “c” etc. You must learn the order of the letters in the Greek alphabet as well as their pronunciation so that you can use a dictionary and other reference works that are organized alphabetically.

The classical Greeks always read aloud. You should do the same. As soon as you begin learning the letters of the Greek alphabet, practice reading aloud to become comfortable pronouncing Greek words you have not seen before. As you progress, continue reading aloud to gain ease in doing so.

3.1.2 The basic letters

The following table presents the 24 letters of the classical Greek as they are normally printed in modern editions with an “upper case” and “lower case” form.

letter	name	pronunciation guide	practice Greek word
A α	alpha	drama (long, short)	άνήρ (“man”)

letter	name	pronunciation guide	practice Greek word
B β	beta	book	βιβλίον (“book”)
Γ γ	gamma	good (“hard g”)	γυνή (“woman”)
Δ δ	delta	day	δῶρον (“gift”)
E ε	epsilon	bet	ἔργον (“work, deed”)
Z ζ	zeta	wisdom	ζῷον (“animal”)
H η	eta	ate; wait	ἡμέρα (“day”)
Θ θ	theta	thick	θεός (“god”)
I ι	iota	hit (short); machine (long)	ἰχθύς (“fish”)
K κ	kappa	kind	καρπός (“fruit”)
Λ λ	lambda	language	λόγος (“word”)
M μ	mu	mother	μήτηρ (“mother”)
N ν	nu	night	νόμος (“law, custom”)
Ξ ξ	xi	hex (= ‘ks’)	ξένος (“guest, host, stranger”)
O ο	omicron	pot	ὄνομα (“name”)
Π π	pi	person	πατήρ (“father”)
P ρ	rho	rose	ρήτωρ (“orator”)
Σ σ, ς	sigma	say	σῶμα (“body”)
T τ	tau	take	τέκνον (“child”)
Υ υ	upsilon	put (short); cute (long)	ὕπνος (“sleep”)
Φ φ	phi	photo	φωνή (“voice”)
X χ	chi	chorus	χάρις (“grace, thanks, favor”)
Ψ ψ	psi	upset	ψυχή (“spirit, soul, life”)
Ω ω	omega	bone	ῥα (“season, hour”)

Note: lower case sigma has two forms: σ is used at the beginning or within a word; ς is used at the end of a word but is not pronounced differently.

3.1.3 Vowel length

Vowels can be long or short. As in a modern language like German, the long version of the vowel was literally held for a longer time than the short version. η and ω are always long; they correspond to the short vowels ε and \omicron respectively. Long and short versions of α , ι and υ were not distinguished in writing, but were pronounced differently.

3.1.4 Breathings

In addition to the letters listed above, if a word begins with a vowel or diphthong, a *breathing mark* is added to the initial vowel or diphthong (defined in the next section). There are two kinds of breathing marks:

- **smooth breathing** looks like this ‘ ’ and adds no sound to the vowel
- **rough breathing** looks like this ‘ ’ and adds an ‘h’ sound to the vowel (words beginning with a rho also have a rough breathing, making it an ‘rh’ sound)

3.1.5 Diphthongs

Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels that result in one syllable. English has them, too. In Greek, diphthongs are combinations of iota or upsilon with other vowels.

diphthong	pronunciation guide	model Greek word
$\alpha\iota$	aisle	$\alpha\iota\delta\acute{\omega}\varsigma$ (“sense of shame, respect”)
$\alpha\upsilon$	house, plow	$\alpha\upsilon\rho\iota\omicron\nu$ (“tomorrow”)
$\varepsilon\iota$	weigh	$\varepsilon\iota\rho\acute{\eta}\nu\eta$ (“peace”)
$\varepsilon\upsilon$	$\varepsilon + \upsilon$	$\varepsilon\upsilon$ (“well,” the adverb of “good”)
$\omicron\iota$	coin	$\omicron\iota\chi\acute{\iota}\alpha$ (“house, home”)
$\omicron\upsilon$	soup, boot	$\omicron\upsilon\rho\alpha\nu\acute{o}\varsigma$ (“sky”)
$\upsilon\iota$	wit	$\upsilon\iota\acute{o}\varsigma$ (“son”)

Accents and breathing marks are written over the second vowel of a diphthong.

3.1.6 Iota subscript

When iota combines with long alpha, eta, or omega, one modern convention is to write the iota beneath the vowel as an **iota subscript**, which looks like this: α, η, ω.

Iota subscript became an alternate way of spelling a final iota when the final iota began to be dropped in pronunciation. Some guides suggest pronouncing such combinations as a diphthong; in practice, modern scholars commonly pronounce these identically to α, η, and ω. But in writing, the iota subscript is essential and cannot be ignored.

3.1.7 Tips for reading

- read out loud (as the ancient Greeks did!) to practice recognizing and putting together letter forms and sounds.
- we can't precisely recover ancient pronunciation, but try to distinguish sounds that are spelled differently (e.g., ο/ω ε/η), and include accent in your pronunciation. Hear the difference between ἀστραπηβόλος, "one who throws lightning" (an adjective describing Zeus) and ἀστραπήβολος "one struck by lightning". It makes a difference! English similarly distinguishes otherwise identical words based on (stress) accent. How does the way you pronounce the following English words change their meaning? *cóntent/content, présent/present, óbject/object, ínslt/insult, pérmit/permit*

3.1.8 Other resources

See a youtube video showing you how to write ancient Greek.

3.2 Ancient Greek accents (τόνος)

Ancient Greek in the fifth and fourth centuries BCE was spoken with a pitch accent: that is, the pitch of your voice would rise or fall on different syllables. Later, this evolved into a stress accent: as in English or modern Greek, accented syllables came to be pronounced instead with extra stress. Ancient scholars worried about the "correct" pronunciation as pitch accent began to disappear, and devised a system of three accent marks to indicate the proper pitch for a syllable. Their word for these accents, τόνος, was also used to refer to systems of pitch in Greek music, and is the source of the English word "tone."

The **acute** accent indicated that your voice should rise on the accented syllable, and was called ὀξύτονον, the "sharp" or "high pitch". The **grave** accent indicated that the voice should fall. It was called the βαρύτονον, the "heavy" or "low pitch". The **circumflex** signaled that your voice should rise and then fall on a single syllable. Its name was the περισπόμενος τόνος, a pitch that is bent or wrapped around as it travels up and then down. On an alpha, they could look like this:

- acute: $\acute{\alpha}$
- grave: $\grave{\alpha}$
- circumflex: $\hat{\alpha}$

Because English speakers are accustomed to stress accents, we will pronounce any accented syllable, regardless of type of accent, with a stress accent. If you are comfortable speaking a language that uses pitch to distinguish meaning, feel free to add pitch to your pronunciation of ancient Greek!

3.2.1 Accented words

Every Greek sentence was a flow of higher and lower pitches, and every word had its own accent, except for a very small number of special cases. One group of small words that do not carry an accent or affect the accents of other words are called **proclitics**. These include some forms of the article (“the”), $\acute{\omicron}$, $\acute{\eta}$, $\acute{\omicron}\acute{\iota}$, $\acute{\alpha}\acute{\iota}$; a few prepositions like $\epsilon\acute{\iota}\varsigma$ (“into”), $\acute{\epsilon}\kappa$ (“out of”), $\acute{\epsilon}\nu$ (“in”), and some conjunctions like $\epsilon\acute{\iota}$ (“if”) and $\acute{\omega}\varsigma$ (“as, that, since”). There are also **enclitics**, short words that affect the accents of other words in a sentence but do not have their own accent. We’ll learn more about enclitics in Module 2.

3.2.2 General rules

Accents are always written over vowels. If a diphthong is accented, the accent is written over the second vowel of the diphthong (e.g., $\epsilon\acute{\upsilon}$, or Ἀθηναῖοι).

Accents appear on only the last three syllables of a word. Rather than refer to “the second syllable from the end,” for example, it’s traditional to use these names for the last three syllables:

- the **ultima** is the last syllable
- the **penult** is the penultimate, or next to last, syllable
- the **antepenult** is the one before the penult, or third from last

Each accent can appear only in certain positions depending on the length of the vowels in the word. Remember that η , and ω are always long, ϵ , and \omicron always short. α , ι , and υ may represent either long $\bar{\alpha}$, $\bar{\iota}$, $\bar{\upsilon}$ or short $\acute{\alpha}$, $\acute{\iota}$, $\acute{\upsilon}$. Diphthongs are long, except for final $-\alpha\iota$, $-\omicron\iota$ in some forms.

1. The grave accent appears only on the ultima.
2. The circumflex appears only on the ultima and penult.
3. The acute accent appears on ultima, penult and antepenult.

Let’s consider each individually.

3.2.3 The grave accent

A grave accent is really just a replacement for an acute accent. Within the context of a phrase or sentence, when a word with an acute accent on the ultima is followed directly by another accented word, its accent is changed from acute to grave. After a pause (indicated in our texts by a comma or period), the acute can remain unchange.

Consider the word αὐτήν (the pronoun “her with acute accent on the ultima) in these two sentences from Lysias 1.

1. ἀπώλεσεν αὐτήν. (“He killed her.”)
2. ἐκέλευον αὐτήν ἀπιέναι. (“I ordered her to leave.”)

αὐτήν is the last word of the first sentence: we’ll pause at the period, and the accent can remain unchanged. In sentence 2, however, αὐτήν is followed by the accented word ἀπιέναι (“leave”); we have to change its acute to grave for the preferred sound and rhythm to the whole sentence.

Notice that since the grave accent occurs only in the context of a sentence, when you encounter isolated examples of noun, adjective, or verb forms in this textbook, you will not see or use a grave accent!

3.2.4 The circumflex

The circumflex can only be used on long syllables (that is, over a long vowel or diphthong). It can appear on the penult only when the ultima is short.

Consider these examples from a pair of common Greek words. As we’ll see in Module 2, nouns and pronouns use different endings to show their function (a little like adding “s” to a noun to make it plural in English). Here are two forms of a noun meaning “divinity, god, goddess” (compare English words like “theology” and “theocracy”):

1. θεός
2. θεῶν

In both examples, the accent is on the ultima, but in the first example, the accent cannot be a circumflex, because the ultima is short. In the second form, the ultima is long and is accented with a circumflex.

The next pair of examples are a pronoun meaning “that person”.

1. ἐκεῖνος
2. ἐκεῖνη

Both forms are accented on the penult, and both forms have a long penult (the diphthong ει). In the first example, the ultima is short, so we can use a circumflex on the penult, but in the second example, the ultima is long, so a circumflex is not possible.

3.2.5 The acute accent

An acute accent can appear on any of the last three syllables. It only appears on the antepenult if the ultima is short. It can be used on the penult anytime the ultima is long, or when both the penult and ultima are short. These two patterns complement the use of the circumflex on the penult when the penult is long and the ultima short: taken together, these three patterns cover all instances of accent on the penult, as summarized in the following table, where syllables are marked as – for long, ˘ for short, and × for a syllable that can be either long or short.

Accent to use	Syllable length	Example
<i>Acute</i>	× –	ἀνθρώπου
<i>Acute</i>	˘ ˘	φόνος
<i>Circumflex</i>	– ˘	τοῦτο

3.2.6 Summary table

Accented syllable	Syllable length	Examples
<i>Acute on antepenult</i>	× × ˘	ἄνθρωπος
<i>Acute on penult</i>	× –	ἀνθρώπου
<i>Acute on penult</i>	˘ ˘	φόνος
<i>Circumflex on penult</i>	– ˘	τοῦτο
<i>Acute on ultima</i>	×	αὐτή, αὐτός
<i>Circumflex on ultima</i>	–	αὐτοῦ

4 Module 1: the Greek verb

4.1 Overview of module 1

4.1.1 Language: overview

Module 1 introduces these features of Greek:

- verbal units expressing a subject and action
- how to recognize finite verb forms and identify them with person, number, tense, mood, voice
- principal parts of Greek verbs
- the aorist and imperfect indicative tenses

4.1.2 Ancient Greek in action: overview

Different languages imagine the world and express thoughts about it differently. To narrate past events, for example, English does not have a single verb tense that correspond to the ideas expressed by the Greek imperfect tense. What does reading and translating involve when there are several choices and no one exact equivalent? Module 1 includes reflections of English speakers encountering a past tense in Spanish and Italian that is similar in its range of meaning to the Greek imperfect tense.

4.1.3 Reading: overview

In our reading in module 1, we meet Euphiletos, the speaker in Lysias, *Oration 1*. Euphiletos describes the early days of his marriage (to a wife who is never named). We will begin to consider and grapple with cultural as well as linguistic concepts and differences.

4.2 The Greek verb (τὸ ῥῆμα)

We will see several kinds of **verbal unit** that Greek uses to express a subject and action. In this module, we begin our study of Greek with the most important one: **finite verbs**.

No Greek sentence is complete without an explicit or implicit finite verb expressing the action of the sentence.

4.3 Verbal units

When people listen to their native language, we don't simply hear a stream of sound: we intuitively cluster meaningful units together. When we learn to read, we similarly learn how to recognize clusters of letters and words, to “chunk” the text into meaningful units.

As you learn how to read ancient Greek, we will emphasize this crucial skill. Rather than simply analyzing one word at a time reading left to right, you will learn how to see sentences and whole paragraphs as compositions of smaller pieces, each with a recognizable structure and meaning.

We will use the term **verbal unit** to refer to the most important underlying structure in Greek. A **verb** is a word that expresses an action or a state of being. (As [Schoolhouse Rock put it decades ago, “Verb: that’s what happening”](<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IrfZCvTe-Ko>).”) A verbal unit combines some form of a verb with a subject to express a complete idea.

Compared to English, Greek has an extremely rich system of verb forms to create different kinds of verbal units. In module 3, for example, we will learn how Greek can use participles to form verbal units quite different from anything in English.

The most important verbal unit in Greek, however, is the **finite verb**. Every sentence has at least one verbal unit expressed with a finite verb plus a subject, even if these are only implied. Subjects and verbs can be implied in English, too: if someone asks you “Coffee or tea?” they are implying “Would you like coffee or tea?” a sentence with a subject (“you”) and verb (“would like”).

The Greek grammatical term for a verb is ῥήμα, a word that can mean “a statement”: even if you leave out every other word, the finite verb constitutes a complete statement.

4.4 Finite Verb Forms

Finite verb forms have five properties: **person**, **number**, **tense**, **mood**, and **voice**. To properly identify a finite verb form, you must identify all five properties. Ancient Greek finite verb forms contain all of this information in the verb form itself. In English, we often need other words to convey some of this information, such as subject pronouns to convey the person and number, and auxiliary (or “helping”) verbs to express tense, mood, and voice.

4.4.1 Person

A verb's person expresses the subject of the verb in relation to the “speaker” of the sentence.

1. The first person (*I* or *we* in English) subject includes the speaker.
2. The second person (*you* in English) subject is the addressee(s) of the speaker.
3. The third person (*he, she, it, they* in English) subject is a person or thing separate from the speaker and addressee.

4.4.2 Number

Number combines with person in describing the subject of verb. It indicates when the subject is singular or plural. In English, for example, first person singular is *I* while first person plural is *we*.

Ancient Greek also has an additional, less common number known as the dual, when the subject is two persons, animals, body parts (e.g., eyes, hands), or things acting together. We will not see finite verbs in the dual in our readings this year.

4.4.3 Tense

The tense of a finite verb describes the time of the action and/or its **aspect**.

Over these two semesters of learning ancient Greek, we will consider six tenses, which are divided into “primary” and “secondary” tenses. The three “primary” tenses represent actions in the present or future; the three “secondary” tenses are all past tenses.

- Primary tenses: Present, Future, Perfect
- Secondary tenses: Imperfect, Aorist, Pluperfect

Multiple tenses for action in a particular “time” (such as the past) differ in **aspect**. **Aspect** emphasizes the type of action being represented, or how the action is being depicted. Aspects include *simple, ongoing or continuous* and *completed*. The tense of a finite verb can indicate both time and aspect, or, in some verb forms, aspect alone.

4.4.4 Mood

The mood of a verb indicates the function of the expression and the nature of the action in the speaker's conception. “Mood” and “mode” come from the same root in English: the “mood” of a verb is the “mode” in which the verb is operating.

Ancient Greek has four moods:

1. the **indicative**, used to express a statement or question of a factual nature (in the eyes of the speaker) in the past, present, or future.
2. the **imperative**, used to give a command
3. the **subjunctive**
4. the **optative**. The subjunctive and optative moods have many uses in subordinate clauses, and are also used to express potential or possible action.

4.4.5 Voice

Voice expresses the relationship between the action of the verb and the subject. English has two voices: **active**, in which the subject is performing the action of the verb (“I love”), and **passive**, in which the subject is receiving the action of the verb (“I am loved”).

Ancient Greek has active and passive voices that operate the same way. In addition, it has a third voice, the **middle**. In the middle voice, the subject performs the action of the verb with a particular interest or reference between the subject and the action of the verb, such as reflexive (“I love myself”), reciprocal (“we love each other”), initiating the action to be performed by another (“I got my hair cut” or “I am having my house painted”) or with a particular self-interest (“I love for my own reasons, in my own interests”).

Take some time to think about how the middle voice imagines actions with nuances different from the active. How does English express those ideas, if it does? In some uses (and for some verbs in all uses), the middle forms will have a meaning that is best represented by an active verb form in English. But paying attention to the ideas that the middle form represents is important for understanding ancient Greek modes of expression.

For some verb tenses, the middle and the passive share the same form. If you are identifying the form alone, you should identify it as “middle or passive.” In a sentence, however, you will consider other syntactic structures within the clause or sentence to determine whether that particular use is middle or is passive, in order to understand the clause or sentence correctly.

4.5 Principal parts of verbs

All verb forms in these many combinations of person, number, tense, mood and voice (as well as forms we will learn later, such as infinitives and participles), are formed using the verb's **principal parts**.

English verbs have a system of principal parts, too, although native speakers may not think about them that way. In English, the principal parts can include the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle: for example, play, played, played; swim, swam, swum; go, went, gone; do, did, done.

The standard number of principal parts for ancient Greek verbs is six, although for some verbs fewer principal parts, even only one or two, may exist. Some verbs may have alternative forms for one or more principal parts so that its principal parts are represented by more than six forms.

Learning the principal parts of verbs is important so that you will be able to create correct verb forms and so that you will be able to recognize verb forms in a text, both for what person, number, tense, voice, and mood they are and also what verb they come from. In a glossary or a lexicon Greek verbs are listed according to the **first principal part**, and so if you are looking a verb up you will need to be able to move from a verb form made from any principal part to its first principal part in order to find it in the lexicon.

4.5.1 Forms of principal parts

All principal parts of an Ancient Greek verb are finite verb forms in the first person singular.

Principal part	Form
first	first person singular present active indicative OR 1st person singular present middle indicative if active forms do not exist
second	first person singular future active indicative OR 1st person singular future middle indicative if active forms do not exist
third	first person singular aorist active indicative OR 1st person singular aorist middle indicative if active forms do not exist
fourth	first person singular perfect active indicative
fifth	first person singular perfect middle or passive indicative. (Middle and passive forms are identical in the perfect system.)
sixth	first person singular aorist passive indicative

4.5.2 Verb conjugations

Greek verbs are organized into two “conjugations,” a grouping where they share common endings. **Thematic** verbs include a vowel in their endings; **athematic** verbs do not. Thematic verbs are also called **-ω verbs** and athematic verbs may be called **-μι verbs** after the ending of the first principal part in the active voice.

4.5.3 Examples of principal parts

Principal parts are listed in order, 1–6. If a verb does not have a particular principal part, that absence is marked by —. Note that more than one form may exist for a principal part: those are indicated with “or”.

βαίνω, βήσομαι, ἔβην, βέβηκα, βέβαμαι, ἐβάθην go, walk, step

βάλλω, βαλέω, ἔβαλον, βέβληκα, βέβλημαι, ἐβλήθην throw, hit (by throwing), strike (by throwing), pelt

γίγνομαι, γενήσομαι, ἐγενόμην, γέγονα, γεγένημαι, — become, come to be, be born, be

δείκνυμι, δείξω, ἔδειξα δέδειχα, δέδειγμαι, ἐδείχθην show, demonstrate

δύναμαι, δυνήσομαι, —, —, δεδύναμαι, ἐδυνήθην be able, can, be capable, have the power

εἰμί, ἔσομαι, —, —, —, — be, exist

ἔρχομαι, ἐλεύσομαι, ἦλθον, ἐλήλυθα, —, — go, come

ἔχω, ἔξω or σχήσω, ἔσχον, ἔσχηκα, -έσχημαι, ἐσχέθην have, hold, possess; be able; be (in a particular state)

ἡγέομαι, ἡγήσομαι, ἡγησάμην, —, ἡγήμαι, ἡγήθην lead; think, consider, believe

κελεύω, κελεύσω, ἐκέλευσα, κεκέλευκα, κεκέλευσμαι, ἐκελεύσθην bid, order, command, exhort

λαμβάνω, λήψομαι, ἔλαβον, εἴληφα, εἴλημμαι, ἐλήφθην take, receive, catch, grasp

λέγω, λέξω, ἔλεξα or εἶπον, εἶρηκα, εἴρηκα, λέλεγμαι, ἐλέχθην say, speak, tell

ὁράω, ὄψομαι, εἶδον, ἑώρακα or ἑόρακα, ἑώραμαι or ὤμμαι, ὤφθην see, look, understand

ποιέω, ποιήσω, ἐποίησα, πεποίηκα, πεποίημαι, ἐποιήθην do, make, create, compose

πράττω, πράξω, ἔπραξα, πέπραχα or πέπραγα, πέπραγμαι, ἐπράχθην do, accomplish, make, act

τυγχάνω, τεύξομαι, ἔτυχον, τετύχηκα, —, — happen (happen to be, happen upon), obtain, get

4.5.4 Looking for patterns

As you learn principal parts, you should practice noticing patterns and then using those patterns to help you recognize, retrieve, use, and even take an educated guess at, a principal part. Here are some general patterns to start noticing, but you should work at discovering others that help you memorize, recall, and work with principal parts.

4.5.4.1 Endings

Since all the forms are first person singular, the ending reflects that person and number. The ending will indicate which conjugation the verb belongs to. In the first principal part, the endings -ω and -ομαι indicate the

thematic conjugation, while the endings -μι and -μαι (with some letter other than omicron before it) indicate the **athematic** conjugation.

For those principal parts that could be either active or middle (that is, the first, second, third principal parts), the ending will also indicate the voice: -ω or -μι (first and second principal parts), and -ον or -α (third principal part) are active, while -μαι (first and second) and -μην (third) are middle.

The fourth principal part is always active; you can expect the ending -α. The fifth principal part is always middle or passive; its ending is -μαι. The sixth principal part is always passive, and will end in -ην.

4.5.4.2 Prefixes

For the third and sixth principal parts, which are aorist (a secondary tense) you will see an **augment** prefixed to the verbal stem. The augment is an indication of a secondary tense in the indicative mood (all principal parts are in the indicative mood). The augment may appear as the addition of an ἐ- before a stem that begins with a consonant, or it may appear as the lengthening of the initial vowel if the stem begins with a vowel. (You'll learn more about the augment in the following section when you learn how to form the imperfect, another secondary tense.)

For the fourth and fifth principal parts, which are in the perfect tense, the stem will show **reduplication** as a sign of the perfect tense. The reduplication may appear as a repetition of the initial consonant of the verb stem. If the initial consonant is aspirated (θ, φ, χ), the reduplication is the corresponding non-aspirated consonant (τ, π, κ, respectively). If the stem starts with multiple consonants, the reduplication will be simply ἐ-. If the stem starts with a vowel, the reduplication will appear as a lengthened vowel.

4.5.4.3 Stem changes

As in English, very common verbs show more variety or irregularity in the verb stems of different principal parts. Compare ἔρχομαι (present) and ἦλθον (aorist) with “go” (present) and “went” (past) in English.

Some changes to verb stems appear with many more regular verbs:

- The future and/or aorist active stem (second and third principal parts) are often equivalent to adding a sigma to the first principal part stem, e.g., κελεύω, κελεύσω, ἐκέλευσα.
- A kappa is often part of the stem in the perfect active (fourth principal part), e.g., κεκέλευκα.
- The sixth principal part may have a theta at the end of its stem, e.g., ἐδυνήθην.

4.6 Formation of finite verbs: recessive accent

The accent on finite verb forms in ancient Greek is described as **recessive**, meaning that the accent recedes as far back from the end of the word as the possible, in accordance with the set of rules governing accentuation.

Review the general principles of accent in the preliminaries section. Can you see how they imply the following rules of thumb for placing accent on a recessive verb form?

1. The accent cannot recede further back than the antepenult. Therefore, the accent will reside on one of the last three syllables of a finite verb form, even if it has more than three syllables.
2. If the ultima is long, the accent can only recede to the penult and is an acute accent on the penult.
3. If the ultima is short (recall that final -αι and -οι are usually short):
 - a. if there are three or more syllables in the form, the accent will recede to the antepenult and be an acute accent on that syllable.
 - b. if there are two syllables, the accent will be on the penult. Since the ultima is short, when the penult is accented its form will depend on the quantity of the penult syllable: if it is short, the accent will be acute. If it is long, the accent will be a circumflex.

In addition, if a finite verb form is only one syllable and that syllable is long, it will carry a circumflex accent.

Tip: other situations with circumflex accents on finite verb forms

We will see that when vowels contract and two vowels combine to one sound, circumflex accents mark those contractions when possible under the rules for circumflex accents.

4.7 The aorist indicative

The form of a finite verb in ancient Greek expresses the **subject** as well as the **verb**: it is a complete verbal unit by itself. Example: the form ἐκέλευσε means “he or she ordered”; the form ἐκέλευσαν means “they ordered.” These are already complete sentences that do not need a separate word for “he,” “she” or “they.”

4.7.1 The indicative mood and narrating events in the past

As already described above, finite verbs have five properties: person, number, tense, mood, and voice.

The indicative is one of the four moods of the ancient Greek verb. It is the mode of verb used for narrating factual events, and for that reason is frequently seen in most texts.

Ancient Greek has more than one tense for narrating events in the past, but they differ in aspect — that is, how to think of or picture the action the verb is representing.

- the **aorist** tense expresses an action as single and simple, without indication of its completion or continuation
- the **imperfect** tense expresses an action as continuous, started, ongoing, habitual or in any way incomplete

The choice of verb tense, then, involves not only an indication that the events happened in the past, but other information about the event. Do you want to emphasize it as a single incident? Choose the aorist indicative if so. Or do you want to indicate that it happened over a length of time, was repeated or habitual, perhaps was started but not completed? The imperfect indicative will give you the means to add those shades of meaning.

4.7.2 Meaning of aorist indicative

The aorist indicate represents the action as “single,” “simple,” “distinct,” the equivalent of a snapshot of the action. The tense that is the closest to this idea in English is the “simple past,” the past tense formed in the active voice by adding *-ed* to the verb stem, or made by changes to the stem, with no other “helping” verbs. Examples of the “simple past” in the active voice: “He walked,” “she ran,” “they watched,” “She taught,” “they learned.”

To understand a verb form, you must take into account all five properties: person, number, tense, mood and voice. In the active voice, the subject performs the action. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action. The middle voice is, as the name indicates, in between active and passive, where the subject performs the action in some way for themselves.

The verb ἄρχω in the active voice, for example, means “to be first” and from that sense can mean “to rule”. In the passive voice, it means “to be ruled”. The middle voice means “to make yourself first” or “put yourself at the first position” of something, and therefore “to begin” something.

In the following examples, we’ll see how to form the aorist indicative of the verb δείκνυμι “to show” (an athematic verb) and κελεύω, “to command” (a thematic verb). In the third person plural of the aorist indicative, their meaning will be:

- Active: “they showed,” “they commanded”
- Middle: “they showed (for their own benefit),” “they commanded themselves”
- Passive: “they were shown,” “they were commanded”

4.7.3 Forming the aorist indicative

To form any finite verb, you first choose the principal part corresponding to the tense and voice you want to use, then apply an ending that indicates the person, number and mood. To learn the aorist indicative, you will need to learn the endings for person and number in all three voices of the indicative: active, middle, and passive. In this module, we will begin with the third person (“he,” “she,” “it,” “they”).

The aorist tense forms the active and middle voices from the *third* principal part; it forms the passive voice from the *sixth* principal part. As you learn the principal parts of verbs, you will notice that not all verbs appear in all three voices. If a verb does not have a sixth principal part, that implies that no passive forms are used. In

this module, you will encounter the verb γίγνομαι “to become”: in the aorist tense, it always and only uses the middle voice.

As you look at the third principal part, there are two different patterns of endings. These are referred to as **first** and **second aorists**. The different endings do not have different meanings except in rare cases when both exist for the same verb. That is, both first and second aorists, both sets of endings, represent the single action in the past, and you will accordingly translate each with the English simple past. Compare the two systems of past-tense formation in English: adding “-ed” to the verb stem (which are called “regular” or “weak” verbs) or a change in the verb stem (“irregular” or “strong” verbs): “I walked” (weak) vs. “I went” (strong). “I consumed” (weak) vs. “I ate” (strong).

You can recognize a verb that has a **first aorist** by a third principal ending in -α or -άμην. Verbs that have a **second aorist** have a third principal part that ends in -ον or -όμην. We will return to the second aorist forms later in this module.

4.7.3.1 Aorist active and middle indicative of first aorist verbs

Once you have identified a verb as a first aorist verb, you form other persons and numbers by the following process:

- (1) principal parts are always in a first person singular indicative: start by dropping the first singular ending from the third principal part, and remove any accent:

ἔδειξα -> ἐδειξ-

ἐκέλευσα -> ἐκελευσ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending for the person and number. In this module, you need to memorize the following endings for the *third person*, singular and plural.

Person and Number	Active ending	Middle ending
third singular	-ε or -εν	-ατο
third plural	-ον	-αντο

The third singular ending -ε is used when the following word begins with a consonant. At the end of a clause or sentence (marked by a punctuation mark such as a comma or period), or when followed by a word beginning with a vowel, the ending -εν. (The ancient grammarians called this “the suffixed nu,” νῦ ἐφελκυστικόν.)

- (3) Apply recessive accent.

4.7.3.2 Aorist Passive Indicative

In the the same way, the sixth principal parts can be used to form aorist passive forms.

- (1) Drop the first singular ending -ην from the sixth principal part and remove the accent:

ἐδείχθην -> ἐδείχθ-

ἐκέλεύθην -> ἐκέλευθ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending for the person and number:

Person and Number	Passive Ending
third singular	-η
third plural	-ησαν

- (3) Apply recessive accent.

4.7.3.3 Examples

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἔδειξε or ἔδειξεν	ἐδείξατο	ἐδείχθη
third plural	ἔδειξαν	ἐδείξαντο	ἐδείχθησαν

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἐκέλευσε or ἐκέλευσεν	ἐκελεύσατο	ἐκελεύθη
third plural	ἐκέλευσαν	ἐκελεύσαντο	ἐκελεύθησαν

4.7.4 Vocabulary to memorize

Learn these paradigm verbs: be able to produce the first, third and sixth principal parts (**emphasized like this** in the list) from memory.

- δείκνυμι, δείξω, ἔδειξα, δέδειχα, δέδειγμαι, ἐδείχθην, “to show”
- κελεύω, κελεύσω, ἐκέλευσα, κεκέλευκα, κεκέλευμαι, ἐκελεύσθην, “to order”

4.7.5 An important irregular verb

The verb δίδωμι “to give” is very common. Memorize its first, third and sixth principal parts.

- δίδωμι, δώσω, ἔδωκα, δέδωκα, δέδομαι, ἐδόθην, “to give”

In the aorist passive, its forms are exactly what you would expect, but it has some some irregular forms in the aorist active and middle. You must memorize the unpredictably irregular forms (highlighted with the “little star,” or ἀστερίσκος).

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἔδωκε	* ἔδοτο	ἐδόθη
third plural	* ἔδοσαν	* ἔδοντο	ἐδόθησαν

4.7.6 Compound verbs

English readily creates new vocabulary with “phrasal verbs.” These add a specific sense to a common verb by using the verb together with an additional word. Compare the change of meanings if you change “take” to the phrasal verb “take on,” “take in,” “take down,” or “take out.” Notice that the forms of the basic verb remain the same when you use them in phrasal verbs: since the past tense of “take” is “took,” you can say “she took on,” “they took in,” etc.

Greek has a similar capacity for building new vocabulary by creating **compound verbs**. Compound verbs add a prefixed word to each of the basic verb’s principal parts. As with English phrasal verbs, the new verb has a specific meaning, but follows the forms of the basic form. For example, the verb ἐπιδείκνυμι adds the prefix ἐπι- to the verb δείκνυμι “to show”, and gives it the sense “to demonstrate” or “prove.” (This is the verb Euphiletos will use to talk about proving his case in court.) In the third and sixth principal parts of δείκνυμι where the form starts with a vowel (ἔδειξα and ἐδείχθην), the ending vowel of ἐπι- is elided. Memorize the following two compound verbs: if you’ve already memorized the principal parts of the basic verbs, you’ve got two new vocabulary item for almost no additional effort!

- ἐπιδείκνυμι, ἐπιδείξω, ἐπέδειξα, ἐπιδέδειχα, ἐπιδέδειγμα, ἐπεδείχθην, “to demonstrate, prove”
- παραδίδωμι, παραδώσω, παρέδωκα, παραδέδωκα, παραδέδομαι, παρεδόθην, “to hand over, transmit, entrust (a thing to a person)”

4.8 The imperfect indicative

The imperfect indicative is another way of narrating factual events in the past. As we have seen, the aorist views an action as a single action completed in the past. The imperfect, by contrast, expresses an action that is incomplete, repeated, continuous or ongoing, habitual, or in some other way *not* viewed as single and complete. To express similar ideas, English uses additional “helping” verbs: “she was going,” “he started to go,” “they used to go.”

4.8.1 Forming the imperfect indicative of -ω or thematic verbs

You form all three voices of the imperfect tense from the *first* principal part. As with the aorist, you will drop the first-person ending, remove accents, and add the appropriate ending for the person and number you want.

Past tenses in the indicative mood are indicated by two features: their set of personal endings, and a prefix called the **augment** added to the front of the verb stem. Both the imperfect and the aorist are past tenses that will have augment.

Compare the first and third parts of verbs you already know. Since the third principal part is an aorist indicative form, it already shows you an augmented form. The third principal part (used for the aorist active and middle) shows the addition of an epsilon to the first principal part’s stem. If the stem begins with a consonant, you will see the epsilon in front of it. If the stem begins with a vowel, you will see that vowel lengthened. Either of these changes is called an **augment**.

The imperfect tense shows the same pattern, but uses the first principal part. Since the first principal part is a present tense form, you will need to add the augment to it in forming the imperfect. Often, you can look to the third principal part to see what it should be.

The complete process to form the imperfect tense then is:

- (1) start by removing the first person singular ending (-ω or -ομαι) and accent from the first principal part, and add the augment

κελεύω -> ἐκελευ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending. For this module, you should memorize the third person* endings for singular and plural. Note that in *all* person-number combinations of the imperfect indicative, the middle and passive have identical endings.

Person and Number	Active ending	Middle ending	Passive ending
third singular	-ε or -εν	-ετο	-ετο
third plural	-ον	-οντο	-οντο

- (3) Apply recessive accent.

Example of κελεύω “command”

Person and Number	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἐκέλευε or ἐκέλευεν	ἐκελεύετο	ἐκελεύετο
third plural	ἐκέλευον	ἐκελεύοντο	ἐκελεύοντο

Depending on the context, these third person imperfect indicative active verb forms could mean “she/he/it was commanding” or “he/she/it used to command” (third singular) or “they were commanding” (third plural), etc.

The imperfect indicative middle would add to the active sense that the subject was giving these commands for their own benefit or interests or to themselves.

The imperfect indicative passive means that the subject is now the one receiving the orders: “he/she/it was being commanded” or “they were being commanded,” etc.

4.8.2 Forming the imperfect indicative of -μι or athematic verbs like δείκνυμι

When we learned aorist forms, the third principal part of the verb δείκνυμι (“to show, demonstrate”), ἔδειξα, indicated that its forms were like that of any other first aorist. Since the imperfect is formed from the first principal part, we will notice that δείκνυμι belongs to the group of -μι verbs (or athematic verbs), rather than the -ω or thematic verbs. The meaning, usage, and formation of the imperfect indicative remains the same; the only difference is that -μι verbs use a slightly different set of endings.

As with -ω/thematic verbs, for the imperfect indicative of -μι/athematic verbs, all three voices use the first principal part, with the addition of an augment; like -ω/thematic verbs, the middle and passive voices of -μι/athematic verbs have identical forms in the imperfect.

- (1) start by removing the first person singular ending (-μι or -μαι) and accent from the first principal part, and add the augment

δείκνυμι -> ἐδεικνυ-

- (2) Add appropriate ending. In this module, you should memorize the third person endings for singular and plural. The key difference between the endings of thematic and athematic verbs is that the thematic or -ω verbs do not include the combining vowel.

Person and Number	Active ending	Middle ending
third singular	—	-το
third plural	-ν	-ντο

- (3) Apply recessive accent.

Example of δείκνυμι “show, demonstrate” (note that the upsilon is a long upsilon)

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle	Imperfect Passive
third singular	ἐδείκνυ	ἐδείκνυτο	ἐδείκνυτο
third plural	ἐδείκνυν	ἐδείκνυντο	ἐδείκνυντο

To repeat, the meaning and usage of these forms is the same. The range of meaning for the active forms could include “she/he/it was showing” or “he/she/it used to show” (3rd singular) or “they were showing” (3rd plural), etc.

The imperfect indicative middle would add to the active sense that the subject was showing for their own benefit or interests.

The imperfect indicative passive means that the subject is now the one receiving the action: “he/she it was being shown” or “they were being shown.”

4.8.3 Forming the imperfect of compound verbs

Review the third principal part of the the compound verbs ἐπιδείκνυμι: ἐπέδειξα. Notice that the augment is placed on the basic verb stem, and the prefix then added to it. You’ll follow the same process with the imperfect tense when you add a compound to the first principal part.

For the basic verb δείκνυμι, we dropped the ending and added the augment like this

δείκνυμι -> ἐδείκνυ-

For its compound ἐπι+δείκνυμι, we will follow the same process. Note that we have to drop the final vowel of ἐπι before the epsilon of the augment.

ἐπι+δείκνυμι -> ἐπ+εδείκνυ-

4.8.4 Imperfect of δίδωμι

As in the aorist active and middle, δίδωμι has some irregular verbs in the imperfect. First, refresh your memory of its principal parts:

- δίδωμι, δῶσω, ἔδωκα, δέδωκα, δέδομαι, ἐδόθην, “to give”

Notice that the only the first principle part begins with the stem διδ-. All the imperfect forms show this stem, with a normal-looking augment. This can help you recognize them even though the endings are irregular:

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle	Imperfect Passive
third singular	* ἐδίδου	ἐδίδοτο	ἐδίδοτο
third plural	ἐδίδοσαν	ἐδίδοντο	ἐδίδοντο

Notice that as in all verbs in the imperfect, middle and passive voice forms are identical. Notice, too, that while the stem is not what you might have expected, once you recognize that the endings are being added to an augment + stem of ἐ + διδ-, most of the endings are regular. Only the second singular active ending (highlighted here with the asterisk) looks irregular.

Compounds of δίδωμι will show exactly the same irregularities. Here are the imperfect forms of παραδίδωμι.

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle	Imperfect Passive
third singular	* παραδίδου	παραδίδοτο	παραδίδοτο
third plural	παραδίδοσαν	παραδίδοντο	παραδίδοντο

4.9 Clauses and coordination

A verbal unit containing a finite verb form is called a **clause**. A sentence consists of one or more clauses.

Ancient Greek normally connects, or **coordinates**, successive clauses and sentences explicitly. In many styles of English, starting every sentence by connecting it to the previous one could quickly seem excessive, but doing so is more the norm in many styles of ancient Greek prose and even poetry, and serves to concisely clarify the relation of clauses to each. The words that do this work in Greek are **conjunctions** and coordinating **particles**.

4.9.1 Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions join together parallel clauses (that is, a verbal unit expressed by a finite verb). (In module 4, we will look at **subordinating conjunctions**.) One of the most common coordinating conjunctions is *καί*. Like the English *and*, it joins together two things of the same kind. This could be a pair of nouns, like “peanut butter and jelly,” or whole sentences, “I ate the sandwich and I drank the milk.”

When joining a pair of nouns or short phrases, Lysias (like many prose authors) likes to put a *καί* before each of the items. The phrase ἐν δημοκρατίᾳ means “in a democracy”; ἐν ὀλιγαρχίᾳ means “in an oligarchy”. When Lysias joins them like this

καὶ ἐν δημοκρατίᾳ καὶ ἐν ὀλιγαρχίᾳ

he means, “*both* in a democracy, *and* in an oligarchy”.

καί is equally good for joining whole clauses.

ἔδοξέ μοι γῆμαι καὶ γυναῖκα ἡγαγόμεν εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν.

I decided to marry, **and** took a wife.

ἔδοξε and ἡγαγόμεν are both verbs in the aorist tense.

4.9.2 Coordinating particles

The use of small words that we call **particles** to add nuances of meaning is a characteristic and ubiquitous feature of ancient Greek. Many of these particles can coordinate parallel clauses, just like coordinating conjunctions, but are placed *after* the first word of the unit they introduce (whereas conjunctions are the first word of the new clause). One term for this placement is **postpositive** (meaning something like “placed after”).

The most common particle in Greek is *δέ*. It marks an item in a list, that normally begins with an item marked by the particle *μέν*. Here, the speaker Euphiletos lists two clauses: the first is what *he* did; the second is what his (unnamed) wife did.

ἐγὼ μὲν ἐγέλων (“I began to laugh”)

ἐκέινη δὲ προστίθησι τὴν θύραν (“She locks the door”)

We can join these in various ways in English: “I began to laugh, and she locks the door” would be perfectly idiomatic.

Euphiletos then uses *καί* to connect an additional clause to the second item:

ἐκέινη δὲ προστίθησι τὴν θύραν καὶ τὴν κλεῖν ἐφέλκεται (“She locks the door and takes the key”)

μέν and δέ beautifully outline that there are two thoughts here; καί continues the second thought. Perhaps we should make a stronger contrast in English between the first two items? We could also express this with, “I started to laugh, but she locks the door and takes the key.”

4.9.2.1 Aside on reading and translating

The verb ἐγέλων is a first singular active in the imperfect tense, so one possibility is to take it as meaning “I started to laugh.” The speaker uses the present tense for the wife’s actions, just as we might in English switch into the present tense in narrating past events, to emphasize a vivid moment: “I laughed, and BOOM! she locks the door!” One possibility for putting together μέν and δέ here could be, “I started to laugh, then she locks the door and takes the key”. There is no single “correct” translation. One of the delights of reading ancient Greek is the opportunity to see a range of meaning that no single translation can capture.

4.9.3 Vocabulary to memorize

These conjunctions *introduce* a clause:

- ἀλλά. Strong contrast with previous clause. (“but”)
- καί. Couples following clause with previous clauses. (“and”)

These particles are the *second* element of the new clause, or, as mentioned above, they are “postpositive”:

- γάρ. This clause explains the previous clause.
- οὖν. This clause draws a conclusion from the previous clause.
- τε. Couples this clause with the previous clause (similar to καί).
- μέν ... δέ The use of these particles together show a contrast of some sort along with a connection. A series of two or more clauses can be joined into a *list* using the particles μέν...δέ...<δέ...>; δέ can be repeated to join as many clauses as you like into a single list.

4.10 Adverbs

Words that modify or describe the action of a verb are called **adverbs**. Adverbs typically express ideas like *manner* (“she read the text *quickly*”), *time* (“*afterwards*, he took a nap”), or *place* (“they live *nearby*”). Adverbs can clarify and make vivid the meaning of a verb that might otherwise be bland. They can even completely change the sense of a clause. Changing “Documents were destroyed” to “Documents were deliberately destroyed” could be the difference between an accident and a crime. And adding the English adverb *not* to a sentence negates its meaning!

Here are a few examples of adverbs you will see in Lysias 1. Think about how they affect the meaning of a simple sentence.

4.10.1 Manner

The defendant, Euphiletos, addresses the jury, and says “You know this,” but he adds the adverb εὖ “well”. How different is, “You know this perfectly well”?

4.10.2 Time

The common adverb ἔπειτα “next, then” sets the sequence of events in a narrative. Euphiletos hears from a household servant how Eratosthenes approached her: “She told me *first*, how he approached her, and *then* (ἔπειτα) how she became the messenger from Eratosthenes to my (Euphiletos’) wife.” What difference does it make to specify that these two events happened successively?

Another common adverb expressing time is νῦν “now, at the present moment.” Euphiletos pointedly uses νῦν in his closing summary to the jury: “I am *now* (νῦν) at risk of my life because I obeyed the law.” The jury is about to vote on their decision, so νῦν succinctly but powerfully connects his risk to their decision. (Aren’t adverbs like “pointedly”, “succinctly” and “powerfully” helpful in talking about this?)

4.10.3 Place

In Euphiletos’ dramatic narrative of how he caught Eratosthenes in bed with his wife, the precise location of events is crucial. Euphiletos describes the arrangements in his house, where the women normally lived ἄνω “above” (that is, “upstairs”) and Euphiletos κάτω “downstairs”. Once the baby was born, they changed the arrangements so that his wife would not have to go down the stairs at night to wash up after caring for the baby. That makes it possible for Eratosthenes to sneak in to see Euphiletos’ wife. When Euphiletos finds out that Eratosthenes is ἐνδον (“inside, indoors,” so “in the house”), he looks to his neighbors for help, and finds some of them at home (again, ἐνδον, “in their houses”).

4.10.4 Negation with finite verb forms

English negates a finite verb with the word *not*. Ancient Greek has two main words to negate a finite verb form: οὐ and μή.

- οὐ: Indicative verbs in most clauses are negated with οὐ. Note that οὐ has a smooth breathing and no accent. If the word that follows οὐ in a sentence begins with a vowel also with a smooth breathing, οὐ becomes οὐκ. If the word following begins with a rough breathing, οὐ becomes οὐχ.

- μή: Some verbs in other moods or in certain types of clauses use μή instead. We will see examples of how to use μή in module 4.

4.10.5 Adverbial καί

We have already seen that the word καί can serve as a conjunction to join two clauses. Related to the root idea of “adding” things, καί can also be used as an adverb, meaning “too, also, even.” When an elderly woman reveals to Euphiletos his wife’s affair with Eratosthenes, she says, “Eratosthenes has destroyed not only your wife, but also (καί) many other women,” or “Eratosthenes has destroyed not only your wife, but many other women, too (καί).”

How can you distinguish the two uses of καί? How will you know if it is a conjunction or an adverb? Let’s look at the example sentence. There is a complete clause we have translated as “Eratosthenes has destroyed not only your wife,” then we have four Greek words: ἀλλὰ καὶ ἄλλας πολλὰς.

ἀλλὰ is the familiar conjunction: it introduces a new clause. ἄλλας πολλὰς means “many other women”, and is in a form we will learn in module 2 that marks it as the direct object of the verb; in this context, we don’t see an explicit verb, and can assume that the verb of the previous clause is understood: “He has destroyed your wife; [he has destroyed] many other women.” καὶ can’t be a conjunction because this clause is already connected to the previous clause by ἀλλὰ: “Eratosthenes has destroyed not only your wife, but many other women.” Adding καί strengthens the contrast between the two clauses: “Eratosthenes has destroyed not only your wife, but many other women, *too*” or “Eratosthenes has destroyed not only your wife, but *also* many other women.”

Remember that a clause will have a single finite verb (explicit or implicit), and will normally be connected to its context by a particle or conjunction. If you can correctly chunk a long stretch of text into verbal units, you’ll be able to see whether καί is joining clauses, or working as an adverb to modify the idea of the clause.

4.10.6 Vocabulary to memorize

Memorize the following adverbs:

- ἔπειτα “then, next”
- εὖ “well”
- καί “even, also”
- νῦν “now, at present”
- οὐ/μή “not”

4.11 Contract verbs

The thematic verbs we have been learning and using all have stems of the first principal part ending in a consonant. When the *first* principal part of a thematic (-ω) verb ends in a vowel, you form the imperfect tense with the same endings you have already learned, but the vowel of the ending contracts with the vowel of the stem to form a long vowel or a diphthong.

Note: Some verbs that do not have verb stems ending in a vowel in the first principal part do have a vowel at the end of their stem in the *second* principal part, which is used for the future active and middle. We will review these contractions for those forms when we learn the future tense forms.

4.11.1 Stems ending in -ε-

The first principal part of an “epsilon contract verb” will be listed in a lexicon or glossary with the first principal part ending in ε before the first person ending of -ω. The formation of the following five principal parts is so regular, that many textbooks or dictionaries will simply list the first principal part. Compare the principal parts of the following vocabulary to memorize.

- ἀδικέω, ἀδίκησω, ἠδίκησα, δεδίκηκα, δεδίκημαι, ἐδίκηθην “to do wrong, to harm or injure (a person)”
- δοκέω, δοκήσω, ἐδόκησα, δεδόκηκα, δεδόκημαι, ἐδοκήθην “to think, suppose; to seem, seem likely”
- ποιέω, ποιήσω, ἐποίησα, πεποίηκα, πεποίημαι, ἐποιήθην “to make, create”

The verb τιμωρέω means “to avenge, take vengeance on.” What do think its six principal parts are?

Recall that our imperfect active and middle/passive indicative personal endings for thematic verbs start with vowels, either an ε or an ο:

Person and Number	Active ending	Middle ending	Passive ending
3rd singular	-ε	-ετο	-ετο
3rd plural	-ον	-οντο	-οντο

The rules of contraction that you will need to learn for these endings (as we learn more endings, we will add others) are as follows:

- ε + ε = ει
- ε + ο = ου

The rule of accentuation that you will need for contractions is that if one of the vowels within the sequence would have been accented before the contraction, the contracted syllable, a diphthong, will be accented, and will be accented with a circumflex, if possible under the rules of accentuation for circumflex accents: that is, it

is a long syllable (which the diphthong is), the syllable is the penult or ultima, and if the penult that the ultima is short.

With that additional information, the process of forming the imperfect indicative follows the process already outlined:

- (1) start by removing the first person singular ending (-ω or -ομαι) and accent from the first principal part, and add the augment

ἀδικέω -> ἡδικε-

δοκέω -> ἔδοκε-

ποιέω -> ἔποιε-

- (2) Add appropriate ending and **contract the vowel at the end of the stem with the vowel at the beginning of the personal ending.**
- (3) Apply recessive accent, keeping in mind the contraction.

Example: Imperfect indicative of ἀδικέω

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle	Imperfect Passive
third singular	ἡδίκηι	ἡδικεῖτο	ἡδικεῖτο
third plural	ἡδίκουν	ἡδικοῦντο	ἡδικοῦντο

4.11.2 Stems ending in -α-

Verbs whose stem from the first principal part ends in α operate the same way, but the contractions resulting from the combination of α with the endings are different. The contractions you will need to know for the forms we have learned so far are:

- α + ε = α (long alpha, ᾱ)
- α + ο = ω

One important alpha contract verb is ὁράω “to see”.

- (1) start by removing the first person singular ending (-ω or -ομαι) and accent from the first principal part, and add the augment. ὁράω -> ὤρα-
- (2) Add the appropriate ending and **contract the vowel at the end of the stem with the vowel at the beginning of the personal ending.**

- (3) Apply recessive accent, keeping in mind the contraction.

Example: Imperfect indicative of ὁράω

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle and Passive
third singular	ὥρα	ὥρατο
third plural	ὥρων	ὥρώντο

4.12 The second aorist

A small group of verbs use a different set of endings to form the *active* and *middle* voices of the aorist indicative. You will be happy to learn that these second aorist endings are actually identical to the endings you have already learned for the imperfect active and middle of -ω verbs. We recognize that a verb has a “second aorist” set of endings for the aorist active and middle when the third principal part ends in -ον or -όμην.

Examples: ἦλθον (from ἔρχομαι), εἶπον (from λέγω), ἐγενόμην (from γίγνομαι), εἶδον (from ὁράω).

4.12.0.1 Active and middle of second aorist -ω verbs

Formation of the second aorist follows the same process as first aorist active and middle forms.

- (1) principal parts give an example form in the first singular indicative active of a representative tense: start by dropping the first singular ending -ον or -όμην and remove the accent from the third principal part:

ἦλθον -> ἦλθ-

εἶπον -> εἶπ-

ἐγενόμην -> ἐγεν-

εἶδον -> εἶδ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending.

Person and Number	Active ending	Middle ending
third singular	-ε	-ετο
third plural	-ον	-οντο

Notice that these endings are *identical to the endings of the imperfect indicative*. You will distinguish the imperfect from the aorist for these verbs by noticing which verb stem (which principal part) the ending is applied to. In the imperfect the ending is applied to the first principal part stem, and in the aorist the ending is applied to the third stem. Examples: ἤρχετο (imperfect) “She was going” vs. ἦλθε (aorist) “She went”; ἔλεγε “She was saying” vs. εἶπε “She said”; εἶδον “They saw” vs. ὥρων “They were seeing.”

Note that the first person singular active ending in the second aorist -ον is the same as that of the third personal plural active.

- (3) Apply recessive accent.

4.12.0.2 Examples

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἦλθε	ἤλθετο	no 6th principal part
third plural	ἦλθον	ἤλθοντο	no 6th principal part

The first principal part ἔρχομαι shows us that there is no active voice for the forms made from that principal part (“present system”), while ἦλθον shows us that the aorist indicative appears in the active voice using second aorist endings.

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	εἶπε	εἶπετο	ἐλέχθη
third plural	εἶπον	εἶποντο	ἐλέχθησαν

Since the aorist passive is formed from the sixth principal part, those forms follow the same formation regardless of whether the third principal part is a first aorist or second aorist.

4.13 Ancient Greek in action: the imperfect tense

As you’ve seen in this module, while the Greek imperfect and aorist tenses can both refer to events in the past, they express different ideas about how an event takes place in time. (This is sometimes called *grammatical aspect*).

The following two reading selections will be distributed in class. Each is a reflection by a native speaker of

English on the experience of seeing past events through a different language with an imperfect tense similar to that of ancient Greek. In Melisa Cahnmann-Taylor's poem, "Widowed NYC Teacher Studies Spanish in Mexico," images of the life experience of the title's widowed teacher are interleaved with her practice of the Spanish imperfect. Jhumpa Lahiri's autobiographical work *In Other Words* is an account of her remarkable decision, a decade after winning the Pulitzer Prize for her first novel, to master Italian by moving to Italy, and allowing herself to read and write only in Italian. The Italian imperfect tense is at the heart of this selection.

4.13.1 A. Melisa Cahnmann-Taylor, "Widowed NYC Teacher Studies Spanish in Mexico"

Melisa Cahnmann-Taylor, poem from *Imperfect Tense*, "Widowed NYC Teacher Studies Spanish in Mexico"

4.13.2 B. Jhumpa Lahiri, *In Other Words*

Jhumpa Lahiri, excerpt from *In Other Words*, "The Imperfect" (pp. 103-114)

4.14 Module 1 reading selection

Based on Lysias 1, sections 7-8: the early days of Euphiletos' marriage.

ἔδοξε Εὐφιλῆτι γῆμαι καὶ γυναῖκα ἡγάγετο εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν. παιδίον δὲ ἐγένετο αὐτῷ, καὶ ἐπίστευε ἤδη καὶ πάντα ἐκείνη παρέδωκε. ἐν μὲν οὖν τῷ πρώτῳ χρόνῳ, πασῶν ἦν βελτίστη. ἀλλὰ ἡ Εὐφιλῆτου μήτηρ ἐτελεύτησε, καὶ πάντων τῶν κακῶν αἰτία ἐγένετο.

Read along with this passage read out loud on the textbook youtube channel.

4.14.1 Reading in context

Beyond the challenge of deciphering syntax and vocabulary, practically any sentence of Greek you read will also raise questions that arise from the cultural and historical distance between us and the text. Reading this passage thoughtfully in Greek forces us to think about the institution of marriage in the classical Greek world.

The first sentence begins with *Euphiletos* making a decision to marry; he is also the grammatical subject of ἡγάγετο. The next sentence continues with the statement that a child was born *to him*. Beyond the grammatical construction, who is directing and significant in this marriage? Who is invisible?

Use your new knowledge of Greek verbs to identify the tenses of the verbs ἐπίστευε and παρέδωκε. Why does Lysias use different tenses for these two actions? Consider the sequence of actions here: first, παιδίον ἐγένετο, then ἐπίστευε, then παρέδωκε. How does Lysias represent the development of Euphiletos' marriage?

In the last sentence, ἀλλὰ introduces a strong contrast. Things were great at first, but then all of Euphiletos' troubles began. Again, only one name is mentioned. We're in a world where women play essential roles, but are invisible. This is Euphiletos' story, about Euphiletos' family and household.

5 Module 2: nouns and adjectives

5.1 Overview of module 2

5.1.1 Language: overview

Module 2 introduces these features of Greek:

- functions of nouns and how cases express these functions
- how to recognize noun forms and identify them with gender, case, and number
- parts of speech that work with nouns or in place of nouns: the article, adjectives, pronouns, and prepositions
- types of clauses

5.1.2 Ancient Greek in action: overview

Why do we use gender categories (masculine, feminine, neuter) to analyze grammatical forms? Our practice derives directly from ancient Greek grammarians, but they did not always agree on which genders or how many genders to apply to grammatical forms. Module 2 introduces us to some of the ways ancient Greeks thought about language and gender.

5.1.3 Practice, Reading, and Composition

We will continue with the story Euphiletos is telling in court about his marriage, and how he started to become suspicious about what was going on with his wife.

5.2 Nouns (τὸ ὄνομα) and adjectives (τὸ ἐπίθετον)

In this module, we'll learn first about another part of speech, nouns (ancient Greek ὀνόματα, the *names* for people and things) and their functions. We then will also learn other parts of speech that work with nouns in sentences: words that describe nouns like the article and adjectives (Greek ἐπίθετα, literally “add ons”), words that stand in for nouns, like pronouns and substantive adjectives, and how to create phrases with nouns using

prepositions (προθέσεις, words that are “placed in front”). We will also learn about types of clauses, with details about both nouns and verbs.

In English sentences, word order indicates the function of nouns. There is the old story illustrating the contrast between “Dog bites man” as commonplace but “Man bites dog” as newsworthy. The meaning of the sentence changes when the nouns are put in different positions. Ancient Greek would show us who is biting whom by the case of each noun: the form of the noun changes depending on whether it is acting as the subject (the one biting) or the object (the one being bitten). We will learn these functions for nouns, as well as others, and the changes in form that indicate these functions. Adjectives, we will see, also indicate their function through case endings.

5.3 Greek nouns

“Noun” is a part of speech. The ancient Greek word for noun is ὄνομα, which means “name.” Nouns name a person, animal, place, or thing (whether that “thing” is concrete or abstract).

In a clause or sentence, nouns can fulfill various functions. A noun might be the subject of the verb: the person, place, or thing doing the action the verb represents. A noun might be the object of the verb, the recipient of the verb’s action, or the indirect (or secondary) object of that action. A noun might further describe another noun, or be paired with a preposition to act adjectivally or adverbially. It may describe the means by which the action of the verb happens. Or it might name the addressee of the sentence.

In ancient Greek, the function of the noun is represented by its **case**, and the case is indicated by the ending attached to the noun’s stem. We have already seen that endings provide a great deal of information in a verb form, and the same is true for nouns. Identifying the case of a noun is key to understanding how it is functioning in that particular sentence.

5.3.1 Overview of nouns

All ancient Greek nouns have three properties: **gender**, **case**, and **number**.

- Every noun belongs to one of three grammatical **genders**. Although the grammatical genders are named **masculine**, **feminine**, and **neuter**, these are arbitrary linguistic categories, not biological gender. (We will see how ancient Greek grammarians thought about biological and grammatical gender in this module’s section on “Ancient Greek in Action.”) There is no particular reason that the noun for “law”, νόμος, is masculine, but the noun for “lawsuit”, δίκη, is feminine.
- **Case** indicates the function of a noun in a sentence. Cases are expressed and identified by endings. There are five cases: **nominative**, **genitive**, **dative**, **accusative**, **vocative**. In this module we will look at some of the most important functions indicated by the nominative, genitive, dative and accusative cases.

- Noun forms have the same three **numbers** as verb forms: singular, plural, and dual. Dual is a less common number used for two nouns considered a pair, such as eyes, hands, oxen yoked together, twin brothers. In our readings this year, we will see only one instance of the dual, and so we will not include the dual in the forms we will be learning.

5.3.1.1 Dictionary entry of nouns

The dictionary entry of a noun concisely encodes all the information you need to know in order to produce all of its cases and numbers. The first part tells you its nominative singular form, the second part is its genitive singular form, and the third part indirectly tells you its gender(s) by giving you the nominative singular form of the article. We'll learn all the forms of the article in the course of this module, but the nominative singular forms are *ὁ* for masculine, *ἡ* for feminine and *τό* for neuter.

5.3.1.1.1 Examples of dictionary entries The following vocabulary entries are included in the required vocabulary list for this module. Let's unpack their information more fully:

- *δίκη, δίκης, ἡ* “order, right, judgment, lawsuit”
- *νόμος, νόμου, ὁ* “law, custom”

The first noun has the meaning “order, right, judgment, lawsuit.” Its nominative singular form is *δίκη*; the genitive singular form is *δίκης*; all of its forms are feminine.

The second noun has the meaning “law, custom.” Its nominative singular form is *νόμος*; the genitive singular form is *νόμου*; all of its forms are masculine.

You'll also see this entry in the Module 2 vocabulary list:

- *ἄνθρωπος, ἀνθρώπου, ὁ or ἡ* “person, human being”

Listing the article as “*ὁ* or *ἡ*” means that the noun can be *either* grammatically masculine *or* grammatically feminine.

5.3.1.2 Declension

We use the term **declension** to refer to a group of nouns that share the same set of endings. In ancient Greek, there are three declensions of nouns which scholars of ancient Greek creatively refer to as the first, second and third declension. You can recognize the declension of a noun by looking at the gender and endings of its dictionary forms, the nominative and genitive singular.

5.3.1.2.1 The first declension First declension nouns may be either masculine or feminine.

Feminine nouns that have genitive singular forms ending in -ης or -ας belong to the first declension. Examples:

- δίκη, δίκης, ἡ “order, right, judgment, lawsuit”
- θύρα, θύρας, ἡ “door”

Masculine nouns that have genitive singular forms ending in -ου *and* nominative singular ending in -ης or -ας belong to the first declension. Example:

- πολίτης, πολίτου, ὁ “citizen”

5.3.1.2.2 The second declension Second declension nouns may be masculine, feminine or neuter.

Masculine or *feminine* nouns that have genitive singular forms ending in -ου *and* nominative singular ending in -ος belong to the second declension. Example:

- θάνατος, θανάτου, ὁ “death”
- ὁδός, ὁδοῦ, ἡ “way, road”

Neuter nouns that have genitive singular forms ending in -ου *and* nominative singular ending in -ον belong to the second declension. Example:

- παιδίον, παιδίου, τό “young child” or “young enslaved person”

5.3.1.2.3 The third declension Third declension nouns may be either masculine, feminine or neuter. The hallmark of the third declension is a genitive singular ending in -ος. Example:

- πράγμα, πράγματος, τό “deed, act, matter, thing”

5.4 The nominative case

The **nominative case** is a naming case. Its most frequent function is to indicate the subject of a finite verb.

The subject of a verb will match the person and number of the verb form: a *singular* noun in the nominative case will have a third person *singular* verb form, and a nominative *plural* noun acting as the subject will match a third person *plural* verb. We use the term **agreement** to refer to this matching of grammatical properties.

Consider these examples:

ἡ μήτηρ ἐτελεύτησε, “His mother died.”

ἡ μήτηρ is nominative, singular, and feminine, “his mother”. ἐτελεύτησε, “she died,” is from τελευτάω, τελευτήσω, ἐτελεύτησα, τετελεύτηκα, τετελεύτημαι, ἐτελευτήθην, “to die.” It is aorist, active and indicative; since it is in the third person singular, it *agrees* with the subject ἡ μήτηρ.

τὸ παιδίον ἐβόα, “The baby was crying.”

τὸ παιδίον, “the baby” is neuter nominative singular. ἐβόα, “It was crying,” is from βοάω, βοήσω, ἐβόησα, βεβόηκα, βεβόημαι, ἐβοήθην, “to shout, cry,” and is in the imperfect indicative active. Because it is third person singular, it agrees with the subject τὸ παιδίον.

ἐψόφουν αἱ θύραι, “The doors began to creak.”

αἱ θύραι, “the doors,” is feminine nominative *plural*. (We’ll see the plural forms of the article and noun in the following section of this module.) ψοφέω “to make a noise” is a regular epsilon contract verb, so this form is the imperfect indicative active. Since it is in the third person plural, it agrees with the subject αἱ θύραι. (Note that subjects can follow the verb in Greek: it is still clear from its nominative case form that it functions as the subject of ἐψόφουν.)

There is one important exception to **subject-verb agreement**: *neuter* nominative *plural* nouns acting as the subject normally take a third person *singular* verb form.

ταῦτα δίκαια ἦν, “These things were right.”

ταῦτα is the neuter nominative plural of a pronoun we’ll learn in this module (“this, these”). You’ve already learned that ἦν is an imperfect indicative active form of “to be.” It is third person singular: since ταῦτα is *neuter plural*, the singular verb agrees with the plural subject. (δίκαια is an adjective we’ll learn in this module, meaning “just, right.”)

5.5 The article

English has a definite article, “the” and an indefinite article, “a” or “an.” Ancient Greek has only one article, and its uses are both straightforward and subtle.

5.5.1 Some uses of the article

Like the English definite article, the ancient Greek article may modify its noun by making it definite or particular: ἡ οἰκία “the house.” If indicated by the context, the specificity that the article indicates can convey the idea of possession: ὁ ἀνὴρ ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας ἦλθεν, “The man went out of **his** house.”

Differently from English, the article may be used to denote a general class or an abstract idea. οἱ ἄνθρωποι can mean “people” or “humans” in general. ἡ δημοκρατία can mean the abstract idea “democracy.”

Also differently from English, the article is frequently used with a proper noun. The city of Athens is named αἱ Ἀθῆναι. (Like many cities, the name of Athens was grammatically plural: αἱ is the feminine nominative singular form of the article.) The murdered adulterer in Lysias 1 can be referred to as ὁ Ἐρατοσθένης, “Eratosthenes.”

The article has “noun-making” powers: the article can be used with another part of speech, such as infinitives, participles, adjectives, and even particles, to create nouns or “substantives.” For example, Greek can use the article with the adverb νῦν “now” to create a phrase like οἱ νῦν (“the now ones”) to mean “people of today”.

5.5.2 The article and attributive and predicate positions

Nouns can be modified in several ways, including by adjectives (“the small house”) and by other nouns (“the man’s house”). In ancient Greek, the article plays a crucial role in connecting these modifiers to the noun they modify.

When a modifying word or phrase is connected to the noun it describes by the article, we call that the **attributive** position. When the modifier is not connected to its noun by an article, we call that the **predicate** position. The terms “attributive” and “predicate” summarize the difference in meaning between the two positions. When a word or phrase is in attributive position, it functions as an *attribute* of the noun; that is, it describes or qualifies the noun within a noun phrase. The grammatical term *predicate* refers to the part of a clause that contains a verb and states something about the subject. Compare these examples in English:

The tall woman went to the market.

The adjective “tall” is in the *attributive* position, and is part of a noun phrase, “the tall woman.” The entire noun phrase is the subject of the sentence, but if we dropped the adjective, the sentence would still make sense (although we would have a less precise description of the subject): “The woman went to the market.”

The woman is tall.

Here, the adjective “tall” is in the *predicate* position. Together with the linking verb *is*, it makes a statement about the subject (“The woman”). The complete predicate “is tall” is an essential part of the sentence; dropping the adjective from the predicate completely alters the meaning of the sentence (“The woman is.”) We will look more closely at the meaning of the predicate position when we learn about adjectives.

5.5.3 The nominative and genitive forms of the article

In the following section, we’ll see how to describe one noun with a second noun using the genitive case. Memorize the nominative and genitive forms of the article so that you can recognize whether or not nouns in the genitive case are in attributive position.

Case	Masculine singular	Feminine singular	Neuter singular	Masculine plural	Feminine plural	Neuter plural
Nominative	ὁ	ἡ	τό	οἱ	αἱ	τά
Genitive	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν

5.6 The genitive case

The **genitive case** is used to relate one noun to another. (In fact, this is a characteristic feature of *all* the languages in the Indo-European family that includes ancient Greek.) While you may often find that nouns in the genitive case are translated with the English preposition “of,” it is important to understand the range of underlying ideas expressed by the genitive in ancient Greek.

5.6.1 Some general uses of the genitive

- *Possession*: the genitive case represents the possessor of the other noun. In these instances, it might be translated into English with the preposition “of” or with the possessive marker “s”. Example: ἡ τοῦ ἀνδρὸς οἰκία “the house of the man” or “the man’s house.” Possessive genitives are usually placed in attributive position.
- *Partitive genitive* or *Genitive of the whole*: the genitive expresses a group or a “whole” and the noun it is modifying is part of or one among that group. Example: ἡ βελτίστη γυνὴ πασῶν “the best wife of all.” The partitive genitive is generally in the predicate position.
- *Subjective genitive* or *objective genitive*: when a noun is related to a verb or expresses a verbal idea, the genitive can express either the subject or the object of that verbal idea. In English, phrases expressing this kind of idea are completely ambiguous out of context. For example, does the phrase “the fear of the Athenians,” mean that the Athenians are fearing someone? We would call this a **subjective genitive**, since here we are interpreting the meaning of “the Athenians” as the equivalent of the subject of the verb “to fear.” Or does the phrase mean that someone else fears the Athenians? We call this an **objective genitive**, since we are interpreting the meaning of “the Athenians” as equivalent to the direct object of the verb “to fear.” Only context can determine the sense. In Greek, however, we get an additional clue from the placement of the genitive:
 - **Subjective genitives**, where the genitive is the “doer” of the implied action, are usually in *attributive position*. Example: ἡ τοῦ παιδίου βοά “the cry of the baby” or “the baby’s cry.” The baby is doing the action of crying.

- **Objective genitives**, when the genitive represents the object of the implied action, are usually in the *predicate position*. Example: πάντων τῶν κακῶν ἡ αἰτία “the cause of all my problems.” The problems are what is being caused.

Later in this module, we will look at uses of the genitive case with prepositions, where it can express:

- *Motion away or separation*
- *Agent of passive verbs*

5.7 Forming nouns with case endings

Creating noun forms is similar to creating finite verb forms: (1) you find the stem from the dictionary entry, (2) add the proper ending, and (3) apply the appropriate accent. For finite verbs, you had to choose the appropriate principal part and find its stem. For nouns, you use the genitive singular form (the second word in a dictionary entry), and drop the genitive ending. It is essential to recognize the genitive endings confidently. (Note that many of the genitive endings look similar to the forms of the article you’ve just learned.)

5.7.1 Two worked examples

Example 1: παῖδιον, παιδίου, τό

If we wanted to have a sentence with the word “children” as its subject, we could put the noun παῖδιον in the nominative plural.

The case ending we will use depends both on the noun’s gender and what declension it belongs to. We can see from the dictionary listing above that this is a neuter noun with a genitive singular ending in -ου and a nominative singular ending in -ον. That tells us we’re working with a second declension noun.

Now we’re ready to go through the three steps to create a form. We can drop the -ου from the genitive singular and remove any accent to find the stem:

(1) παῖδιον → παιδι-

Next we need to find the correct ending for a masculine noun of the second declension. Here are the endings for the nominative and genitive forms of second declension neuters:

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ον	-α
Genitive	-ου	-ων

So step 2, apply the proper ending, looks like this:

(2) παιδι + α -> παιδια

Finally, we need to apply the appropriate accent. Recall that for finite verbs, the accent is normally recessive: it goes back as far from the end as accent rules allow. Nouns and adjectives follow a different principle: their accent is **persistent**. That is, it “tries” to stay on the same syllable at all times, unless the standard accent rules force it to change. Look at the nominative and genitive forms given in the dictionary entry to figure out what syllable the accent wants to persist on. Here, we can see that both nominative and genitive are accented with an acute on the penult. (If you’re extra sharp on your accent rules, you’ll notice that we have an acute both when the final syllable is long -ου and when it is short -ον, so the iota that the stem ends with must be short.)

(3) παιδια -> παιδία

Example 2: δῶρον, δώρου, τό

Let’s do the same thing with another second declension neuter noun, a noun meaning “gift.” Let’s put it in the nominative plural so we could have a sentence with the word “gifts” as its subject.

Find the stem:

(1) δῶρον -> δωρ-

Since δῶρον is also a neuter noun of the second declension, we’ll use the same ending as in the previous example.

(2) δωρ + α -> δωρα

Finally, we’ll apply the persistent accent. We can see that in both the nominative and genitive singular, the accent falls on the penult. In the nominative, we have to use a circumflex because we have a long penult + short ultima; in the genitive, the ultima is long, so we have to use a grave accent. The final alpha of the neuter plural ending is short, so we’ll use a circumflex here.

(3) δωρα -> δῶρα

5.8 Nominative and genitive case endings

The following tables summarize the nominative and genitive endings for the three Greek noun declensions, with an example of each.

5.8.1 First declension

Nouns of the first declension have one important exception to the expected position of the accent: the genitive plural ending of the first declension is *always* accented with a circumflex. (There is a historical reason for this apparent exception, which has to do with the linguistic development of these forms over time: the circumflex reflects a vowel contraction similar to those you have seen in contract verbs.)

Masculine and feminine nouns of the first declension have different endings in the nominative and genitive singular. The vowel of feminine singular forms varies between eta and alpha, but note that the plural endings are the same for all first declension masculines and feminines.

Endings for feminine first-declension nouns that end in $-\eta$ / $-\eta\varsigma$. **Example:** γνώμη, γνώμης, ἡ “judgment, opinion”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	$-\eta$	$-\alpha\iota$
Genitive	$-\eta\varsigma$	$-\omega\upsilon\upsilon$

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	γνώμη	γνώμαι
Genitive	γνώμης	γνωμῶν

Endings for feminine first-declension nouns that end in $-\alpha$ / $-\alpha\varsigma$. **Example:** θύρα, θύρας, ἡ “door”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	$-\alpha$	$-\alpha\iota$
Genitive	$-\alpha\varsigma$	$-\omega\upsilon\upsilon$

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	θύρα	θύραι
Genitive	θύρας	θυρῶν

Endings for feminine first-declension nouns that end in -ᾱ / ῃς. **Example:** θεραπαινά, θεραπαίνης, ἡ “female slave, servant”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ᾱ	-αι
Genitive	-ῃς	-ῶν

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	θεράπεινα	θεράπειναι
Genitive	θεραπαίνης	θεραπεινῶν

Endings for masculine first-declension nouns that end in -ης. **Example:** πολίτης, πολίτου, ὁ “citizen” (the iota is long).

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ης / -ᾱς	-αι
Genitive	-ου	-ῶν

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	πολίτης	πολίται
Genitive	πολίτου	πολιτῶν

5.8.2 Second declension

Endings for masculine or feminine second-declension nouns that end in -ος / -ου. **Example:** ἄνθρωπος, ἀνθρώπου, ὁ or ἡ “person, human being”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ος	-οι

Case	Singular	Plural
Genitive	-ου	-ων

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ἄνθρωπος	ἄνθρωποι
Genitive	ἀνθρώπου	ἀνθρώπων

Endings for neuter second-declension nouns that end in -ον / -ου. **Example:** παιδίον, παιδίου, τό “young child” or “young enslaved person”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ον	-ᾶ
Genitive	-ου	-ων

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	παιδίον	παιδιά
Genitive	παιδίου	παιδίων

5.8.3 Third declension

The third declension is sometimes called the “consonant declension” because most nouns in this declension have stems ending in a consonant. Because of linguistic changes to different kinds of stems, the basic endings summarized here appear in slightly different form in some patterns you will come to recognize over time. In particular, the relation between the nominative singular and genitive singular form may not appear obvious. Remember to use the genitive singular to find the stem for all other forms.

Note that the *genitive* singular ending in this declension, -ος, is the same as the masculine or feminine ending of the *nominative* singular form in the second declension. That reminds us that knowing what declension a noun belongs to, as well as what gender it is, is crucial for knowing what form the ending is indicating.

Take care as well with the neuter nominative plural ending in both the second and third declensions, -ᾶ, and one of the feminine nominative singular forms in the first declension, also -ᾶ.

Endings for masculine or feminine third-declension nouns. **Example:** μάρτυς, μάρτυρος, ὁ or ἡ, “witness”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ς or no ending	-ες
Genitive	-ος	-ων

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	μάρτυς	μάρτυρες
Genitive	μάρτυρος	μαρτύρων

Endings for neuter third-declension neuter nouns.. **Example:** πράγμα, πράγματος, τό “deed, act, matter, thing”

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-	-ᾶ
Genitive	-ος	-ων

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	πράγμα	πράγματα
Genitive	πράγματος	πραγμάτων

5.9 Persistent accent

5.9.0.1 Accents on nouns: persistent accent

You have been introduced to and have practiced the general rules for Greek accents and the rules for determining accents on verbs, which are *recessive* accents.

The same general rules for accents apply to nouns and adjectives, but nouns and adjectives carry what we call a **persistent accent**, which means that you must learn where the accent resides as you learn the word. Then, you apply the rules of accentuation as you decline the noun or adjective into its full range of cases.

Reminder of rules that you will apply in declining persistent accents:

- the accent will fall on one of the final three syllables
- the antepenult can be accented only with an acute accent and only when the ultima is short
- circumflex accents appear only on long vowels and diphthongs
- when the penult is accented, it will be accented with an acute if it is a short vowel or if the ultima is long. If the penult is long and the ultima is short and the penult is accented, it will be accented with a circumflex.

Some general rules and results of rules for persistent accents:

1. The position of the persistent accent is shown on the nominative form of adjectives and nominative/genitive forms of nouns. You must learn the position of the accent when you learn the word—there is no way of predicting it other than simply learning it along with the word. The “position” is the vowel that carries the accent in the nominative(/genitive) form(s). When you are studying your vocabulary, practice saying the word out loud with the accented syllable stressed so you can remember the accent along with the word.
2. The accent will stay on that syllable unless it is forced to move because of the rules above. One example of an accent on a noun or adjective that changes position is when the persistent accent starts on the antepenult in the nominative form. Remember, the antepenult can only carry an accent when the ultima is short, so when in other cases the ultima changes to long, the accent will have to move to the penult. For example, the nominative form ἄνθρωπος has the accent on the penult and its ultima is short, -ος. In the genitive, the ultima is -ου, a long syllable, so the accent shifts forward to the penult: ἀνθρώπου.
3. The accent may, however, change from one kind of accent to another while on the same syllable — again, observing the rules above. So when a noun starts with a persistent accent of a circumflex on the penult, that, too, will change form but not place depending on the quantity of the ending. For example the nominative form δῶρον has the penult accented. The omega is long while the ultima -ον is short, and so the accent must be a circumflex. In the genitive, the ultima becomes a long diphthong -ου, and so the accent must be an acute according to the rules: δῶρου.
4. If the penult has a short vowel and carries the persistent accent, the accent never changes place or form: ex. λόγος, λόγου, λόγῳ, λόγον, λόγοι, λόγων, λόγοις, λόγους.
5. When the ultima is accented, it will change from an acute in the nominative singular to a circumflex in the genitive and dative singular, then back to an acute in the accusative. This is a pattern you should learn as you learn your declensions, such as the article later in this module. You will see that the genitive plural and the dative plural carry a circumflex, as well. Ex. ἀγορά, ἀγορᾶς, ἀγορᾷ, ἀγοράν.
6. Remember that final -οι and final -αι on noun and adjective forms count as short when determining accents, even though they are diphthongs.

Practice and learn patterns of persistent accents so that as you learn vocabulary you can recognize what the persistent will do in each case in the singular and plural. In the “Practice” section in this module, you will find

demonstrations of these patterns as well as opportunities for practicing them.

5.10 Adjectives (τὸ ἐπίθετον)

“**Adjective**” is a part of speech that serves to describe or delineate nouns or pronoun. Like nouns, adjectives have gender, case, and number; adjectives will have the same gender, case and number as the noun they describe. We previously used the term **agreement** to refer to subjects and verbs matching in person and number; we also say that adjectives **agree** with the noun they modify when adjective and noun have the same gender, case and number. As when you identify a noun form, to identify the form of an adjective, you must indicate its gender, case and number.

5.10.1 Dictionary entry

The dictionary entry for an adjective lists all the nominative singular forms. The order of the nominative singular forms that dictionaries use is: masculine nominative singular, feminine nominative singular, and neuter nominative singular. For example, the vocabulary list for this unit includes this adjective entry:

- ἀγαθός, ἀγαθή, ἀγαθόν “good”

Reading dictionary definitions. Like “good” in English, there is a range of ways people or things can be ἀγαθός, ἀγαθή, ἀγαθόν. As you encounter this adjective in your readings, don’t stop by identifying it as “good”: ask yourself what nuances of meaning the context gives to this adjective.

5.10.2 First- and second-declension (or 2-1-2) adjectives

As with nouns, we group adjectives using the same patterns of endings into **declensions**, and as with nouns, we can determine the declension by looking at the dictionary entry. The endings for the three nominative singular forms ἀγαθός, ἀγαθή, ἀγαθόν should look familiar to you. Adjectives that follow this pattern use the same endings for the masculine forms as for second-declension nouns; the endings for the feminine forms are the same as for first-declension nouns; and the neuter forms use the forms of second-declension neuter nouns. This declension is therefore called the **first and second adjective declension**, since it uses the same endings as nouns of the first and second declensions, or the **2-1-2 adjective declension** since for the dictionary order of masculine-feminine-neuter, it uses 2nd declension / 1st declension / 2nd declension endings, respectively.

Let’s apply your knowledge of noun endings to analyze these examples of noun phrases in the nominative plural:

1. τὰ ἀγαθὰ παῖδια
2. οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἄνθρωποι

3. αἱ ἀγαθαὶ ἄνθρωποι

In the first example, the noun παιδία is neuter nominative plural, so we use the neuter nominative plural ending -α for the adjective.

The next two examples use the noun ἄνθρωπος, which can be masculine or feminine, but the distinct forms of the article make it clear that number two is masculine and number three feminine. We therefore use the masculine nominative plural ending -οι for the adjective in the noun phrase οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἄνθρωποι, and the feminine nominative plural ending -αι for the adjective in the phrase αἱ ἀγαθαὶ ἄνθρωποι, since, like the article, the adjective must **agree** with the noun in gender, case and number.

As the latter two examples clearly show, the agreement of noun and adjective does *not* mean that the case endings of the noun and verb will be the same! Adjectives of any declension pattern can describe nouns of any declension. Let's use the same 2-1-2 adjective to describe the genitive singular of the third declension noun τοῦ πράγματος ("deed, act, matter, thing"). Since the noun πρᾶγμα is neuter, we'll need to use the neuter genitive singular ending for the adjective. Check the agreement of this noun phrase:

- τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ πράγματος

πράγματος has the correct genitive singular ending for a neuter noun of the third declension; τοῦ is the correct form of the article for a neuter genitive singular; the ending -οῦ is the neuter genitive singular for second declension nouns and adjectives so the adjective form ἀγαθοῦ also agrees.

5.10.3 Two-ending adjectives of the second declension

Another common adjective declension uses the same endings for both masculine and feminine adjectives. Dictionary entries for this declension list only two forms: the first is masculine or feminine, and the second neuter, as in this example from your module 2 vocabulary list.

- ἔξαρνος, ἔξαρνον, "denying"

In this declension, all the endings are the same as second declension nouns. Again, let's apply your familiarity with noun endings to create noun phrases in the nominative plural:

1. τὰ ἔξαρνα παιδία (neuter nominative plural)
2. οἱ ἔξαρνοι πολῖται (masculine nominative plural)
3. αἱ ἔξαρναι θεράπαιναι (feminine nominative plural)

A note on English adjectives: Because English does not have endings for gender and case of nouns and even uses the same form of adjectives for both singular and plural, English lacks explicit rules about noun-adjective agreement. The adjective does not change form between *one green shoe* and *two green shoes*, an *old woman* or a group of *old men*. But note that English has interesting "ingrained" rules about the *order*

of adjectives when there is more than one. Most native speakers of English know these rules as just what “sounds right” or “sounds wrong.” “Old green shoes” obeys these rules while “green old shoes” does not. See more in the discussion this blog post for language rules English speakers know but don’t know we know.

English language learners are sometimes asked to learn these rules about adjective order explicitly. That is a good reminder of the way in which language rules are sometimes defined for non-native-speakers (as we all are for ancient Greek) in a way that complicates the sense of a language meant to communicate.

5.10.4 Adjective placement: attributive and predicate positions

In these examples of adjective-noun agreement, we have looked at adjectives in the **attributive** position. From your introduction to the article, remember that in the attributive position the adjective is connected to its noun by an article, and forms part of a noun phrase. The article can be repeated to create this position. Both of these sentences mean “The tall woman went to the market.”

- ἡ μεγάλη γυνή εἰς τὴν ἀγορὰν ἦλθον.
- ἡ γυνή ἡ μεγάλη εἰς τὴν ἀγορὰν ἦλθον.

Aside: describing indefinite nouns. How can we attach an attributive adjective to a noun if the noun is indefinite, and does not have an article? How could we indicate that “a woman” (γυνή by itself, no article) was tall? One possibility is γυνή ἡ μεγάλη “the tall woman.”

Adjectives can also be used in the **predicate** position, when the adjective is not joined to the article. Recall that the predicate position creates a sentence with a linking verb like “to be.” In the sentence

ἡ γυνή μεγάλη ἐστίν.

the adjective is in the predicate position, and means *The woman is tall*. It is especially important to pay attention to this, since Greek can omit third person forms of the verb “to be.” Another way to express the same idea is simply

ἡ γυνή μεγάλη.

This may look too short to be sentence – there’s no verb! But once you recognize that the adjective is in attributive position, you can understand the verb “to be,” and the sentence is straightforward. μεγάλη is feminine nominative singular, and agrees with the subject ἡ γυνή, but since μεγάλη is in attributive position, we have a complete clause, not a noun phrase.

5.10.5 Adjectives used as nouns, substantive adjectives

Adjectives, and indeed any kind of modifier, can be used with the article to function as nouns. A term for this use is **substantive adjectives**. English does this, too. In a sentence such as “Only the good die young,” we

understand “the good” to refer to “good persons,” a group that is abstract in nature. In the sentence “That’s all for the good,” we understand “the good” to refer to an abstract quality.

Ancient Greek tends to use substantive adjectives much more often than English does, though, and takes advantage of the gender and number of adjectives to express a wider variety of ideas about the understood noun. Because ancient Greek has that flexibility, to understand and translate it properly, you must supply a noun that reflects that gender and number:

- ὁ ἀγαθός, masculine singular, “the good man”; οἱ ἀγαθοί masculine plural “good men,” “the good men” or “the good people” (ancient Greek defaults to the masculine when describing a group of persons of mixed gender, whether possible or actual)
- ἡ ἀγαθή feminine singular, “the good woman”; αἱ ἀγαθαί feminine plural “the good women,” “good women”
- τὸ ἀγαθόν neuter singular, “the good thing” or “the good” as an abstract quality; τὰ ἀγαθὰ “good things,” “the good things,” “goods” or “the good”. Neuter plural substantives are especially flexible in meaning and thus can be used in a variety of contexts.

5.11 Demonstrative pronouns

Pronoun is a part of speech. Pronouns are used in place of and in reference to a noun: the Greek term for “pronoun” is ἀντωνυμία, literally “in place of a noun.” The noun that a pronoun replaces and refers to is called the pronoun’s **antecedent**.

Consider an example in English:

Teacher: “You shouldn’t make *promises* you can’t keep.

Peter: “But *those* are the best kind.”

In the second sentence, “those” is a pronoun that stands for “promises you can’t keep.” The noun “promises” is the antecedent.

Like nouns, pronouns in ancient Greek have grammatical gender, case, and number. The gender and number will **agree** with the antecedent; the case of a pronoun, like that of a noun, will tell you its function in a clause.

For example, when Euphiletos narrates his story to the jury, and says, “Eratosthenes seduced my wife,” he uses the feminine singular noun γυνή to refer to his wife. Euphiletos continues, “and he [Eratosthenes] *destroyed* that woman.” He expresses “that woman” with a form of the demonstrative pronoun ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο. γυνή is the antecedent: “that woman” is his wife. Since γυνή is feminine and singular, he uses a feminine singular form of ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο. Euphiletos uses the case ending that indicates “that woman” is the direct object of the verb “destroyed.” (As we’ll see later in this module, that function is shown by the **accusative** case.)

If the antecedent is implied or understood, rather than expressed, we understand a noun that matches the gender and number of the demonstrative pronoun: ἐκεῖνος “that man” (masculine nominative and singular), ταῦτα “these things” (neuter nominative and plural), τῇσδε “this (here) woman” (feminine, genitive and singular).

English divides demonstratives into two categories, “this” and “that.” Ancient Greek has *three* demonstrative pronouns. It is important to understand the conceptual meaning of each demonstrative since you cannot simply equate each Greek demonstrative with one English word.

Like adjectives, pronouns will be listed in lexica with the masculine, feminine and neuter of the nominative singular.

5.11.1 Meaning and forms of ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε

ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε points to something present and visible or immediate. It can often be translated with “this,” and is similar to the colloquial English phrase “this here” to describe someone or something.

Conceptually, the speaker is always present or involved with what is being pointed at. Within a text or narrative, ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε points *forward* to what comes *next*, similar in such a context to an English phrase like “the following.”

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ὅδε	ἥδε	τόδε	οἷδε	αἷδε	τάδε
Genitive	τοῦδε	τῇσδε	τοῦδε	τῶνδε	τῶνδε	τῶνδε

Note on the forms of ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε You can easily recognize the forms of the article in ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε. That’s because the forms in fact come from the article plus an enclitic particle -δε. The enclitic nature of -δε accounts for the unexpected accents (e.g., forms like οἷδε, which seem to be “breaking” the rule about circumflex accents on a long penult when the ultima is short).

5.11.2 Meaning and forms of οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο

οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο falls in between the other two demonstratives. It describes a noun as less immediate than ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε, but less remote than ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο. Conceptually, it points to something closer to the addressee than the speaker. In English translation, it might appear as “this” or “that,” depending on its context.

In contrast to ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε, when οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο refers to narrative or text, it looks *back*, and so points to “the preceding.” It points to something closer in text than ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο, and so means “the latter” in contrast to “the former” (for which ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο would be used).

οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο is the pronoun Euphiletos regularly uses when he turns to address the jury directly to comment on the legal process. In phrases like “concerning this case,” “cite the law,” “this crime,” οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο is his choice because he is talking to the jury about something that is close at hand for both of them – not just for him, the speaker, but for them, the addressee, as well.

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	οὗτος	αὕτη	τοῦτο	οὗτοι	αὗται	ταῦτα
Genitive	τούτου	ταύτης	τούτου	τούτων	τούτων	τούτων

Notes on the forms of οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο. Notice that the stem follows a pattern similar to the article: it starts with tau in most forms, but with a rough breathing instead in the same places that the article does.

- The masculine and neuter forms use second-declension endings and have the diphthong ου in the stem, while the feminine forms use first-declension endings with the diphthong αυ in the stem. The one exception in the feminine is the genitive plural, which is assimilated to the same form as the masculine and neuter genitive plural, τούτων.
- The neuter nominative plural form uses the αυ diphthong in phonetic assimilation with its ending -α.
- The neuter singular nominative and accusative are a different kind of second declension ending (-ο instead of -ον).
- The accent persists on the penult. Since all the forms have a long diphthong in the penult, the accent will be a circumflex when the ultima is short and an acute when the ultima is long.

5.11.3 Meaning and forms of ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο

ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο points to something further away than the other two demonstratives, conceptually not directly connected to the speaker or addressee. The use of ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο may have an intentionally distancing effect, as “that” can in English (“I would never do *that*!”)

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ἐκεῖνος	ἐκεῖνη	ἐκεῖνο	ἐκεῖνοι	ἐκεῖναι	ἐκεῖνα
Genitive	ἐκεῖνου	ἐκεῖνης	ἐκεῖνου	ἐκεῖνων	ἐκεῖνων	ἐκεῖνων

Notes on the forms of ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο.

- The masculine and neuter forms have second declension endings while the feminine forms have first declension endings.
- The neuter singular nominative uses a different kind of second declension ending (-ο instead of -ον).
- The persistent accent pattern is the accent on the penult, which is always long, so the accent will be a circumflex when the ultima is short and an acute when the ultima is long.

5.11.4 Demonstrative adjectives

In addition to standing alone as pronouns, the demonstrative pronouns can be used in a noun phrase together with the noun they describe, much like the English demonstratives “this” and “that:” “this person,” “that witness,” “those laws.” Because the Greek demonstratives are pronouns, rather than adjectives, however, they do **not** use the attributive position when they are part of a noun phrase. Since they point to something definite, the noun they agree with normally includes the article. Some examples:

- ἡδε ἡ ἡμέρα “this day” (meaning “this very day, this day now, today”)
- οὗτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος “this/that person” (e.g., when Euphiletos speaks to the jury, “the person we were just talking about”)
- περὶ τούτου τοῦ πράγματος “concerning this case”

Notice that when we use the demonstratives “this” or “that” in English, we do **not** use an article. An idiomatic translation in English, therefore, will not have an article, even though the Greek does. This is another reminder that translation is not a “one-to-one” substitution of words.

5.12 Direct and indirect objects

In addition to functioning as the **subject** of a verb, nouns can act as the **direct object** of the verb, or as the **indirect object** of the verb. In order for a verb to take an object, it must be a **transitive** verb, a verb that expresses an action that acts upon a recipient.

5.12.1 Direct object: function of the accusative case

The noun that receives the action of a verb in the active or middle voice is called the *direct object*. In ancient Greek, the **accusative** case is the most common way of expressing this role in a clause: the accusative case is enough to show that the verb’s action is done to it.

She closed *the door*.

The door is what is being closed, so in ancient Greek it goes into the accusative case: τὴν θύραν προσέβηκεν.

5.12.2 Indirect object: function of the dative case

Some verbs may express actions that also involve a secondary recipient, a person or thing that is affected by or benefits from the action: that noun is acting as the **indirect object**.

One verb that makes it easy to see the role of the indirect object, in both English and ancient Greek, is the verb “to give.” (Ancient Greek grammarians thought so, too: their name for the **dative** case was ἡ δοτική πτώσις, “the case connected with giving”.) In English, we can express the indirect object either by word order or with a preposition such as “to.”

“They gave gifts to her.” or “They gave her gifts.”

In both sentences “gifts” is the direct object of the verb “gave”: the gifts are what is being directly affected by the action of the verb. The indirect object in both sentences is “her”: as the recipient of the gifts, the action of giving affected her in a secondary or indirect way. English expresses that by putting the indirect object before the direct object in the sentence, or with the preposition “to.”

Can you think of other verbs in English that frequently have both a direct and an indirect object expressed with this syntax?

In Ancient Greek, the indirect object is expressed with the dative case. Word order can be used for other kinds of emphasis.

πάντα τὰ ἑμαυτοῦ ἐκείνῃ παρέδωκα Lysias 1.6: “I gave over all of my things *to her*.”

5.13 Forms of the dative and accusative cases

The following tables summarize the endings for the three Greek noun declensions for the dative and accusative cases, with an example noun illustrating each pattern in nominative, genitive, dative and accusative.

The case endings you are learning for dative and accusative cases will show up again in many other forms, including the adjectives we will study in this module. Taking the time to memorize them thoroughly will pay off repeatedly.

Look for patterns in these endings that can help you recognize the case endings:

- Note that for a neuter noun or adjective in any declension, the accusative singular form will always be the same as the nominative singular form, and the accusative plural forms will always be the same as the nominative plural form.

- Note that the dative plural ending of third declension nouns will have a “moveable nu” placed on the ending if the next word in the sentence starts with a vowel or if it is the last word in a sentence. In paradigms, therefore, you will see both options, without and with the nu on the end.

5.13.1 First declension

Endings for feminine first-declension nouns that end in -ῆ / -ῆς. **Example:** γνώμη, γνώμης, ἡ “judgment, opinion”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ῇ	-αῖς
Accusative	-ῆν	-ας

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	γνώμη	γνώμαι
Genitive	γνώμης	γνώμων
Dative	γνώμῃ	γνώμαις
Accusative	γνώμην	γνώμας

Endings for feminine first-declension nouns that end in -ᾱ / -ᾱς. **Example:** θύρα, θύρας, ἡ “door”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ᾱ	-αῖς
Accusative	-αν	-ας

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	θύρα	θύραι
Genitive	θύρας	θυρῶν
Dative	θύρᾳ	θύραις
Accusative	θύραν	θύρας

Endings for feminine first-declension nouns that end in -ᾱ / ῆς. **Example:** θεραπαινά, θεραπαίνης, ἡ “female slave, servant”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ῇ	-αῖς
Accusative	-ᾱν	-ᾱς

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	θεράπεινα	θεράπειναι
Genitive	θεραπαίνης	θεραπεινῶν
Dative	θεραπαίνῃ	θεραπαίνοις
Accusative	θεράπειναν	θεραπαίνας

Endings for masculine first-declension nouns that end in -ης / -ου. **Example:** πολίτης, πολίτου, ὁ “citizen” (the iota is long).

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ῇ	-αῖς
Accusative	-ῆν	-ᾱς

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	πολίτης	πολίται
Genitive	πολίτου	πολιτῶν
Dative	πολίτῃ	πολίταις
Accusative	πολίτην	πολίτᾱς

5.13.2 Second declension

Endings for masculine or feminine second-declension nouns that end in -ος / -ου. **Example:** ἄνθρωπος, ἀνθρώπου, ὁ or ἡ “person, human being”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ῳ	-οις
Accusative	-ον	-ους

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ἄνθρωπος	ἄνθρωποι
Genitive	ἀνθρώπου	ἀνθρώπων
Dative	ἀνθρώπῳ	ἀνθρώποις
Accusative	ἄνθρωπον	ἀνθρώπους

Endings for neuter second-declension nouns that end in -ον / -ου. **Example:** παιδίον, παιδίου, τό “young child” or “young enslaved person”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ῳ	-οις
Accusative	-ον	-α

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	παιδίον	παιδιά
Genitive	παιδίου	παιδίων
Dative	παιδίῳ	παιδίοις
Accusative	παιδίον	παιδιά

5.13.3 Third declension

As with the nominative and genitive cases, the underlying consonant stems of third-declension nouns can sometimes result in slight variations in the combined stem + ending. Notice for example for the noun *μάρτυς* that in the dative plural, the final rho of the stem has elided with the initial sigma of the ending.

Endings for masculine or feminine third-declension nouns. **Example:** *μάρτυς*, *μάρτυρος*, *ὁ* or *ή*, “witness”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ι	-σι or -σιν
Accusative	-ᾶ	-ᾶς

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	<i>μάρτυς</i>	<i>μάρτυρες</i>
Genitive	<i>μάρτυρος</i>	<i>μαρτύρων</i>
Dative	<i>μάρτυρι</i>	<i>μάρτυρσι</i> or <i>μάρτυρσιν</i>
Accusative	<i>μάρτυρᾶ</i>	<i>μάρτυρᾶς</i>

Endings for neuter third-declension neuter nouns.. **Example:** *πράγμα*, *πράγματος*, *τό* “deed, act, matter, thing”

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	-ι	-σι or -σιν
Accusative	-	-ᾶ

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	<i>πράγμα</i>	<i>πράγματα</i>
Genitive	<i>πράγματος</i>	<i>πραγμάτων</i>
Dative	<i>πράγματι</i>	<i>πράγμασι</i> or <i>πράγμασιν</i>
Accusative	<i>πράγμα</i>	<i>πράγματα</i>

5.14 The article: complete declension

The table below lists all forms of the article. Note that almost all the new dative and accusative forms look like regular first and second declension endings applied to a stem of τ-. The only exception is the neuter accusative singular τό – which, like all neuter accusatives, is identical to the neuter nominative form of the same number.

Case	Masculine singular	Feminine singular	Neuter singular	Masculine plural	Feminine plural	Neuter plural
Nominative	ὁ	ἡ	τό	οἱ	αἱ	τά
Genitive	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν
Dative	τῷ	τῇ	τῷ	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς
Accusative	τόν	τήν	τό	τούς	τάς	τά

5.15 Prepositions (ἡ πρόθεσις)

Preposition is a part of speech, like noun or verb or adjective, in both English and ancient Greek. Its ancient Greek name is πρόθεσις, which means “put before,” which is generally the placement of a preposition in relation to the noun it governs. (“Preposition” comes from Latin that also means “put before.”) Prepositions carry a fixed accent that you should learn as you learn the word.

A preposition is used to create a relationship between a noun and another word. A preposition and a noun create a **prepositional phrase**. That prepositional phrase may act *adjectivally* to modify another noun or *adverbially* to modify a predicate. Compare the uses of the prepositional phrase “on the beach” in these two English sentences:

The women on the beach were playing. (describes which women, adjectival)

The women were playing on the beach. (describes where they were playing, adverbial)

The nouns in a prepositional phrase in ancient Greek will be in the genitive, dative, or accusative case. We have already learned that noun cases in Greek have particular functions. These functions broadly determine which of the cases will be the object of a particular preposition. For example, the genitive conveys motion away from, the dative is used for a stationary position, and the accusative for motion toward or into. That relationship of case and function is apparent also with some prepositions that take more than one case of noun: which case is used shades the meaning of the preposition, sometimes subtly, sometimes substantially.

Therefore, it is important as you learn prepositions as vocabulary that you also learn which case(s) of noun each takes as its object, and how the case of the object affects the meaning of the preposition. Preposition usage in English is highly idiomatic, and so the practice of translation requires, as always, a good understanding of what the Greek is expressing and how English expresses that same idea, rather than a single equivalence of word to word.

5.15.0.1 Frequently used prepositions that take only one case

Preposition	case of noun object	English near-equivalents
ἀπό	+ genitive	away from, from
εἰς	+ accusative	into, to, toward, in regard to
ἐκ, ἐξ	+ genitive	out of, from
ἐν	+ dative	in, on, among, within
σύν	+ dative	with

Note that the prepositions εἰς, ἐκ/ἐξ, and ἐν are proclitics, so they do not carry an accent or affect the accent of other words in a sentence.

5.15.0.2 Frequently used prepositions that take more than one case

Preposition	case of noun object	English near-equivalents
ἐπί	+ genitive	near, at, upon
ἐπί	+ dative	at, on, upon, in addition to
ἐπί	+ accusative	to, onto, up to, toward; against
—	—	—
κατά	+ genitive	down from, against
κατά	+ accusative	down to, down along, in accordance with
—	—	—
μετά	+ genitive	among, with
μετά	+ accusative	after
—	—	—

Preposition	case of noun object	English near-equivalents
παρά	+ genitive	from the side of
παρά	+ dative	at the side of, next to, beside
παρά	+ accusative	to the side of, beside, beyond, contrary to
—	—	—
περί	+ genitive	around, about
περί	+ dative	around, about
περί	+ accusative	around, concerning
—	—	—
πρός	+ genitive	from
πρός	+ dative	near, beside; in addition to
πρός	+ accusative	to, toward, against; regarding
—	—	—
ὑπό	+ genitive	from under; by (personal agent, see below)
ὑπό	+ dative	under (stationary), at the hands of
ὑπό	+ accusative	under (motion toward)

5.15.1 Compound Verbs

In the previous module, you saw how Greek can create new vocabulary by adding prefixes to basic verbs. These prefixes are drawn from the prepositions, and the resulting compound verb will have a more specific meaning that reflects the idea of the preposition. For example, ἔρχομαι “to go” → εἰσέρχομαι “to go into, enter,” or δίδωμι “to give” → παραδίδωμι “to hand over, entrust to someone”.

5.15.2 Agent: a use of the preposition ὑπό + genitive

We have seen that the subject of a passive verb is the recipient of the action expressed by that verb: for example, “he is caught.” To express who is the agent of the action of the passive verb, English uses the preposition “by”: “he is caught by her husband.” Ancient Greek expresses the personal agent of a passive verb with the preposition ὑπό plus a noun in the genitive. You can remember the three “P’s” of personal agent: **p**assive verb, **p**reposition ὑπό, and **p**erson in the genitive case.

Example:

ἡ ἐμὴ γυνὴ ὑπὸ τούτου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου ὤφθη, “My wife was seen by that man.”

The verb is aorist passive: “my wife was seen.” The phrase ὑπὸ τούτου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου expresses the agent who did the seeing: “by that man.”

5.16 Types of clauses

Recall that every instance of a finite verb identifies a clause. When we have chunked together the words in a clause, the case of nouns will tell us how they function in the clause (subject, direct or indirect object, etc.). Looking at the verb of a clause together with the main nouns (if any), we can think about the verbal action in the clause in one of three categories: **transitive**, **intransitive** or **linking**.

5.16.1 Transitive verb clauses

A transitive verb is one that can take a direct object if the verb is in the active or middle voice. The most common case for the direct object is the accusative. The following sentence has a transitive verb:

οὗτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος τὴν ἐμὴν γυναῖκα εἶδε, “That man saw my wife.”

εἶδε is aorist active. The subject is “that man:” οὗτος ὁ ἄνθρωπος is nominative. The person he saw is the direct object: τὴν ἐμὴν γυναῖκα is accusative.

Transitive verbs can also have a passive form. As you have just seen, the agent of passive verbs can be expressed with ὑπό + genitive.

The following sentence expresses essentially the same idea:

ἡ ἐμὴ γυνὴ ὑπὸ τούτου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου ὤφθη, “My wife was seen by that man.”

Here, the verb is aorist passive. The grammatical subject is the nominative noun phrase ἡ ἐμὴ γυνή, “my wife.” The agent is expressed by the phrase ὑπὸ τούτου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου, “by that man.”

In Lysias 1, Euphiletos chooses the second, passive-voice example in addressing the jury. What difference do you think it makes to present the “equivalent” idea in the passive rather than active voice?

5.16.2 Intransitive verb clauses

An **intransitive** can not take a direct object; like any other clause, its subject will be in the nominative case.

ἦκε ἀπροσδοκῆτως ἐξ ἀγροῦ, “He returned unexpectedly from the field.”

5.16.3 Linking-verb clauses

The clause contains a **linking verb** (whether expressed or implied) referring to a state of being (such as εἶμι, “to be”, or γίγνομαι “to become”). Unlike transitive verbs, linking verbs join the nominative subject with a **predicate** that is also in the nominative case. As we have already seen, the predicate will be in the **predicate position**, as in the example

ἡ γυνή μεγάλη ἐστίν, “The woman is tall.”

Remember that in ancient Greek, when the linking verb is in the third person, “to be” can be omitted and understood from context. It would be equally idiomatic to say

ἡ γυνή μεγάλη.

This is a complete sentence meaning “The woman is tall,” or “The woman was tall,” depending on context.

You’ve seen that Greek does not need to include an explicit subject where English would use a pronoun like “she”. Consider this sequence of three linking clauses from Euphiletos’ description of the early days of his marriage:

πασῶν ἦν βελτίστη:

καὶ γὰρ οἰκονόμος δεινὴ

καὶ φειδωλὸς ἀγαθὴ

The first clause has an explicit imperfect tense form of the linking verb “to be,” ἦν, and we infer from the context that his wife is the subject (“she”). The nominative-case predicate is the adjective βελτίστη, “best”. It is feminine and singular in agreement with the understood subject “she.” πασῶν is a partitive genitive: the whole clause means “She was the best of all wives.”

Aside. It’s clear from the case endings that this is the only way we can put these three words together: the meaning does not depend on word order. Euphiletos strongly underscores πασῶν by making it the first word of this short sentence: “She was the best of all wives,” or “She was the best wife in the world!”

We see from the particle γὰρ that the second clause is going to explain the previous sentence, and the paired καί-s that join the second and third clauses set up a “both-and” explanation. We’re left with a very short clause: οἰκονόμος δεινὴ. This nominative-case expression is the predicate: the linking verb is omitted, and with it the understood subject! We have to understand “She was...”; οἰκονόμος δεινὴ means “a great housekeeper” (the adjective δεινός, δεινὴ, δεινόν has approximately the sense of colloquial New England “wicked good”). We have a complete sentence: “She was a great housekeeper.”

The third clause also has just a brief nominative-case predicate, φειδωλὸς ἀγαθὴ; here, too, we have to understand an implied linking verb with an implied subject.

Putting the three clauses together, we could translate, “She was the best wife in the world: she was a great housekeeper, and a good penny-pincher.”

5.17 Adjectives: full declensions

5.17.1 First- and second-declension (or 2-1-2) adjectives

The following table illustrates the full declensions of 2-1-2 adjectives. Notice that the new dative and accusative endings are the same ones you already know from the noun forms you have learned.

Case	Masculine singular	Feminine singular	Neuter singular	Masculine plural	Feminine plural	Neuter plural
Nominative	ἀγαθός	ἀγαθή	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθοί	ἀγαθαί	ἀγαθά
Genitive	ἀγαθοῦ	ἀγαθῆς	ἀγαθοῦ	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν
Dative	ἀγαθῷ	ἀγαθῇ	ἀγαθῷ	ἀγαθοῖς	ἀγαθαῖς	ἀγαθοῖς
Accusative	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθήν	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθούς	ἀγαθάς	ἀγαθά

5.17.2 First- and third-declension (or 3-1-3) adjectives

Other adjectives are called “first and third declension” adjectives because the feminine forms belong to the first declension while the masculine and neuter belong to the third declension. As we have already seen with verb principal parts, the more common an adjective is, the more likely it is to be “irregular” in its forms. The most common irregular adjective in our readings this year will be the adjective *πᾶς*, *πᾶσα*, *πᾶν*, and its compound form *ἅπας*, *ἅπασα*, *ἅπαν*. The English equivalents, depending on the particular use in context, include “all,” “every” and “whole.” That is, both adjectives indicate a completeness or entirety, and *ἅπας*, *ἅπασα*, *ἅπαν* emphasizes that quality even more. They decline the same way, although note the difference in persistent accent between the two.

Declension of *πᾶς*, *πᾶσα*, *πᾶν*

Case	Masculine singular	Feminine singular	Neuter singular	Masculine plural	Feminine plural	Neuter plural
Nominative	πᾶς	πᾶσα	πᾶν	πάντες	πᾶσαι	πάντα
Genitive	παντός	πάσης	παντός	πάντων	πασῶν	πάντων
Dative	παντί	πάσῃ	παντί	πᾶσι or πᾶσιν	πάσαις	πᾶσι or πᾶσιν
Accusative	πάντα	πᾶσαν	πᾶν	πάντας	πάσας	πάντα

We will see further examples of the 3-1-3 declension pattern in the next module when we learn about participles,

a kind of adjective made from verb stems.

5.18 Full declension of demonstrative pronouns

The dative and accusative cases of the demonstrative pronouns are easy to recognize.

Declension of ὅδε, ἥδε, τόδε

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ὅδε	ἥδε	τόδε	οἷδε	αἷδε	τάδε
Genitive	τοῦδε	τῆσδε	τοῦδε	τῶνδε	τῶνδε	τῶνδε
Dative	τῷδε	τῇδε	τῷδε	τοῖσδε	ταῖσδε	τοῖσδε
Accusative	τόνδε	τήνδε	τόδε	τούσδε	τάσδε	τάδε

Declension of οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	οὗτος	αὕτη	τοῦτο	οὗτοι	αὗται	ταῦτα
Genitive	τούτου	ταύτης	τούτου	τούτων	τούτων	τούτων
Dative	τούτῳ	ταύτῃ	τούτῳ	τούτοις	ταύταις	τούτοις
Accusative	τούτον	ταύτην	τοῦτο	τούτους	ταύτας	ταῦτα

Declension of ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ἐκεῖνος	ἐκεῖνη	ἐκεῖνο	ἐκεῖνοι	ἐκεῖναι	ἐκεῖνα
Genitive	ἐκεῖνου	ἐκεῖνης	ἐκεῖνου	ἐκεῖνων	ἐκεῖνων	ἐκεῖνων
Dative	ἐκεῖνῳ	ἐκεῖνῃ	ἐκεῖνῳ	ἐκεῖνοῖς	ἐκεῖναις	ἐκεῖνοῖς

Case	Singular				Plural	
Accusative	ἐκεῖνον	ἐκεῖνην	ἐκεῖνο	ἐκεῖνους	ἐκεῖνας	ἐκεῖνα

5.19 Ancient Greek in action: gender identity and language

As you've seen in this module, we group ancient Greek nouns, adjectives and pronouns in categories called "gender." What does it mean to say that δῶρον is neuter, γνώμη feminine or λόγος masculine?

In this [article entitled "Gender Diversity in Greek and Latin](<https://medium.com/ad-meliora/gender-diversity-in-greek-and-latin-grammar-ten-ancient-discussions-df371fe19af8>)", Classics scholar and teacher Tom Hendrickson looks at grammatical gender in Greek and Latin (which is also traditionally analyzed as having the three genders masculine, feminine and neuter). While Hendrickson's survey of how ten ancient authors discuss grammatical gender underscores the continuity of thinking about language in gendered terms from antiquity to today, the varied concepts of language and gender in those sources also provoke us to think about our own understanding of language and gender.

5.20 Module 2 reading selection

Based on Lysias 1.9–1.12: the house of Euphiletos, and the beginning of his discoveries that all was not what he thought.

τὸ τοῦ Εὐφιλῆτου οἰκίδιον διπλοῦν ἦν, καὶ ἴσα τὰ ἄνω τοῖς κάτω κατὰ τὴν γυναικωνίτιν καὶ κατὰ τὴν ἀνδρωνίτιν εἶχεν. ἐπειδὴ δὲ τὸ παιδίον ἐγένετο αὐτοῖς, ἡ μήτηρ αὐτὸ ἐθήλαζεν, ἀλλὰ οὐκ ᾔθελε κατὰ τῆς κλίμακος καταβαίνειν.

ἐν οὖν ἐκείνῳ τῷ χρόνῳ, ὁ μὲν Εὐφίλητος ἄνω διητάτο, αἱ δὲ γυναῖκες κάτω.

καὶ ταῦτα πολὺν χρόνον οὕτως ἐγίγνετο, καὶ ὁ Εὐφίλητος οὐδέποτε ὑπώπτευσεν, ἀλλ' ἡλιθίως διέκειτο.

ἐν δὲ τῇ ἡμέρᾳ τῇδε, ἦκε μὲν ἀπροσδοκῆτως ἐξ ἀγροῦ, μετὰ δὲ τὸ δεῖπνον τὸ παιδίον ἐβόα καὶ ἐδυσκόλαιεν. τὸ δὲ παιδίον ὑπὸ τῆς θεραπαίνης ἐπίτηδες ἐλύπειτο. ὁ γὰρ ἄνθρωπος ἔνδον ἦν. ὕστερον γὰρ ὁ Εὐφίλητος ἅπαντα ἐπύθετο.

Read along with this passage read out loud on the textbook youtube channel.

5.20.1 Reading in context

Euphiletos' narrative takes us into the interior of his family's dwelling. It had two stories, and two distinct areas called the ἀνδρωνίτις and the γυναικωνίτις. His text implies that the normal location of the γυναικωνίτις would be upstairs, and the ἀνδρωνίτις downstairs, but the two areas have been swapped so that Euphiletos' wife will not need to use the stairs at night as she cares for their new infant.

Why should this matter? In the last paragraph of this selection, Euphiletos discovers that “the man” (the one Euphiletos has killed, Eratosthenes) was inside. Evidently, this is the sort of thing that can happen when the γυναῖκωνίτις is on the ground floor.

What kind of physical control over women’s lives did a Greek house like Euphiletos’ impose? Who could take part in what activities in the γυναῖκωνίτις or the ἀνδρωνίτις?

6 Module 3: participles

Practice, reading and composition based on Lysias 1, sections 16-19: an elderly woman reveals to Euphiletos that his wife is having an affair with Eratosthenes.

6.1 Overview of module 3

6.1.1 Language

Module 3 introduces these features of Greek:

- the **participle** is a verbal unit that expresses a subordinate verbal idea, similar to a subordinate clause in English.
- the aorist and present tenses of the participle view verbal actions similarly to the finite forms of the aorist and imperfect tenses
- participles in the **attributive position** describe a substantive, similar to an English relative clause
- a few verbs like ἄρχω and τυγχάνω take a **supplementary participle** to complete the sense of the verb
- the subordinate verbal idea of **circumstantial participle** can express a wide range of attendant circumstances (time, causation, condition, concession...) using a noun or pronoun in the clause as its subject
- you can add an additional noun plus circumstantial participle to a clause by putting the noun in the genitive case (the “**genitive absolute**”)

6.1.2 Making Connections

- Reading the Second Amendment

6.1.3 Practice, Reading, and Composition

- TBA

6.2 Participles (ἡ μετοχή)

This unit focuses on a second kind of verbal unit, the **participle**. The rich and flexible use of the participle is one of the most distinct features of the Greek language.

6.3 Participles: introduction

In Module 1, we looked at an essential kind of verbal unit, the clause. Recall that every clause has a finite verb (expressed or implied), and that explicit subjects of finite verbs are in the nominative case.

A second essential kind of verbal unit in Greek is the **participle**. Participles may have exactly the same kinds of objects or predicates as finite verb forms, depending on whether the verb transitive, intransitive, or a linking verb. The relation of the participle to the subject of the verbal action is expressed differently, however. The participle is always linked to a noun or pronoun in the clause; this noun or pronoun functions as the subject of the participle's action.

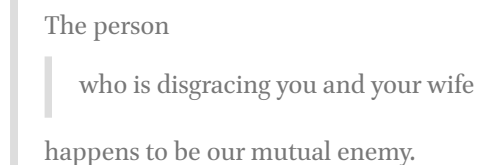
This means that participles can never stand alone as a verbal unit: they express an additional verbal idea, attached to another word in the clause. In English, we most commonly express this kind of dependent verbal unit using a **subordinate clause** – that is, a clause with its own finite verb form, but one that cannot stand by itself as a complete sentence. Consider this English sentence from Caroline Falkner's translation of Lysias 1:

“The person who is disgracing you and your wife happens to be our mutual enemy.”

We have two finite verbs (“is disgracing” and “happens to be”), and therefore two clauses. The clause “The person happens to be our mutual enemy” is a perfectly coherent English sentence, but the clause “who is disgracing you and your wife” is not.

In module 4, we'll see that, like English, Greek can express subordinate ideas like this using subordinate clauses, but even more frequently Greek prefers a participle. In this passage, for example, Lysias uses a participle to express the verbal idea in Falkner's phrase “who is disgracing you and your wife.”

To clarify this subordinate structure, we will regular format texts using indentation to show subordinated constructions.



The person
 who is disgracing you and your wife
happens to be our mutual enemy.

Although English has some verb forms we refer to as “participles,” the most important difference conceptual difference between them and Greek participles is that Greek participles express a verbal unit comparable to an English subordinate clause.

☞ This means you will normally use an English subordinate clause to express the meaning of a Greek verbal unit with a participle.

6.3.1 Identifying and forming participles

Like finite verb forms, the form of participles indicate the tense and voice of the verbal action. Like adjectives, they agree in gender, case and number with a substantive functioning as the subject of the verbal action. This is why the ancient Greek grammatical term for “participle,” is μετοχή, literally “a sharing:” participles share some of the properties of a finite verb (tense, voice), and some of the properties of an adjective (gender, case, number). When you fully identify the form of a participle therefore you should give its **tense, voice, gender, case and number**.

In this module, we will use two tenses of the participle: the **aorist participle**, and the **present participle**. They differ in meaning in much the same way that the aspect of the aorist and the imperfect tense of finite verbs differ: the aorist participle views the verbal action as a single, completed whole; the present participle, like the finite forms of the imperfect tense, sees the action as repeated, habitual, incomplete or in some other way *not* a single, whole action.

We’ll first see how to form the aorist and present participles in all three voices, then will turn to two kinds of verbal unit: the **attributive participle** to describe or identify a particular noun or pronoun, and the **circumstantial participle** to qualify the action of the finite verb with a subordinate verbal idea.

6.4 First aorist participles

You form participles using the same principal parts familiar to you from finite verb forms. To form the aorist tense in the active or middle voice, we use the third principal part; to form the aorist tense in the passive voice, we use the sixth principal part. To form the present participle in all three voices, we use the first principal part, just as we do to form all three voices of the imperfect indicative.

You will be happy to discover that participles use the same endings as adjectives you have already learned. Like adjectives (and other substantives), participles have *persistent* accent.

6.4.1 Formation of participles

You have learned that finite verb forms add an augment to the beginning of the form for tenses referring to past time. Recall that the first principal part does *not* include an augment, while the third and sixth principal parts *do*, so when you form the imperfect tense, you need to add an augment to the first principal part’s stem.

Augments are *only used in finite forms*, so when we form the aorist participles from the third principal part (active and middle voices) and sixth principal part (passive voice), the first step is to *remove* the augment and accent, and drop the first singular ending.

Participles have persistent accent, like substantives, so when you learn you learn how to form the participle for each tense/voice combination, note what syllable its accent persists on.

6.4.2 Active voice of first aorists: a 3-1-3 declension

We use the third principal part for aorist active forms. Taking *κελεύω* as an example, we would form the aorist active participle in these four steps:

1. Remove the augment and accent
2. For masculine and neuter forms, create a *third-declension* stem with nominative singular/genitive singular ending *-ας, -αντος* (masculine) or *-αν, -αντος* (neuter); for feminine forms, create a *first-declension* stem with nominative singular/genitive singular ending *-ασα, -άσης*
3. As usual, find the stem from the genitive singular, and add the regular ending from the third declension (for masculine, neuter) or first declension (for feminine) to match the gender, case and number of the participle's subject.
4. Apply the appropriate accent. The accent of the aorist active and middle participles tries to persist on the *antepenult*.

Notice the parallel to the formation of finite verb forms: the stem tells you the *tense and voice*; for finite verbs, the ending shows the person, number and mood, while for participles, the ending shows gender, case and number.

Here is a complete declension of the aorist active participle of *κελεύω*.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελεύσᾱς	κελεύσασα	κέλευσαν
Genitive singular	κελεύσαντος	κελευσάσης	κελεύσαντος
Dative singular	κελεύσαντι	κελευσάσῃ	κελεύσαντι
Accusative singular	κελεύσαντα	κελεύσασαν	κέλευσαν
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελεύσαντες	κελεύσασαι	κελεύσαντα
Genitive plural	κελευσάντων	κελευσασών	κελευσάντων

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Dative plural	κελεύσασσι, κελεύσασιν	κελευσάσαις	κελεύσασσι, κελεύσασιν
Accusative plural	κελεύσαντας	κελεύσασας	κελεύσαντα

6.4.2.1 An example

We'll devote much of this module to looking at how participles are used, but let's walk through one concrete example.

The clause εἶδε Ἐρατοσθένη ("He saw Eratosthenes") is a complete sentence. The verb form is third person singular aorist indicative active ("he saw"), and the direct object ("Eratosthenes") is in the masculine accusative singular. Let's modify this sentence to add a subordinate idea, that Eratosthenes did these things. In English, we could do that with a subordinate clause:

He saw Eratosthenes,
who did these things.

In Greek, our main clause will be εἶδε Ἐρατοσθένη. We'll express the subordinate idea with a participle from πράττω.

To form the participle, we'll take the third principal part, and remove accent and augment

(1) ἔπραξα -> πραξ-

We'll be using a masculine form to agree with Eratosthenes, so we'll form its third-declension pattern:

(2) πραξ- -> πραξας, πραξαντος

We will take the stem from the genitive singular form, and add the third-declension ending for masculine, accusative, singular :

(3) πραξαντος -> πραξαντ- + α

Finally, we'll apply the accent. The accent of the aorist active participle tries to persist on the *antepenult*.

(4) πραξαντ + α -> πράξαντα

We want to attach the participle to Eratosthenes because he will be the subject of the subordinate verbal unit. We'll look in detail at how to attach participles to nouns, but for this example let's just put it in attributive

position after the article: τὸν πράξαντα. Just like finite verb forms, participles can have direct objects, so we'll include the direct object “these things” within the attributive phrase: τὸν ταῦτα πράξαντα. Here's our complete sentence:

εἶδε ἐρατοσθένη

τὸν ταῦτα πράξαντα.

The first verbal unit is an independent clause with the finite verb εἶδε; the second verbal unit is a participial expression. The subject of εἶδε is third singular (implied “he, she, it”). The subject of πράξαντα is ἐρατοσθένη (agreement in gender, case, number). Together these two verbal units express the equivalent of the two English clauses, “He saw Eratosthenes, who did these things.”

6.4.3 Middle voice of first aorists: a 2-1-2 declension

Follow a similar process to form the aorist middle participle:

1. Remove the augment and accent
2. For all three genders, extend the stem with -αμεν-
3. Add regular ending from second third (masculine, neuter) or first (feminine) declension to match the gender, case and number of the participle's subject.
4. Apply the appropriate accent by trying to persist on the antepenult.

Here is a complete declension of the aorist middle participle of κελεύω.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευσάμενος	κελευσαμένη	κελευσάμενον
Genitive singular	κελευσαμένου	κελευσαμένης	κελευσαμένου
Dative singular	κελευσαμένῳ	κελευσαμένῃ	κελευσαμένῳ
Accusative singular	κελευσάμενον	κελευσαμένην	κελευσάμενος
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελευσάμενοι	κελευσάμεναι	κελευσάμενα
Genitive plural	κελευσαμένων	κελευσαμένων	κελευσαμένων
Dative plural	κελευσαμένοις	κελευσαμέναις	κελευσαμένοις
Accusative plural	κελευσαμένους	κελευσαμένας	κελευσάμενα

6.4.4 Passive voice: a 3-1-3 declension

The aorist passive participle, like the finite forms of the aorist passive tense, is formed from the sixth principal part. It uses third-declension endings for the masculine and neuter forms, and first-declension endings for feminine forms. Compare the patterns of nominative/genitive singular in -εἰς/-έντος, -εῖσα/-εΐσης, -έν/-έντος with the aorist active pattern -ας/-αντος, -ασα/άσης, -αν/-αντος.

The accent of the aorist passive participle is persistent on the first syllable of the ending.

1. Remove the augment and accent
2. For masculine and neuter forms, create a *third-declension* stem with nominative singular/genitive singular ending -εἰς, -έντος (masculine) or -έν, -έντος (neuter); for feminine forms, create a *first-declension* stem with nominative singular/genitive singular ending -εῖσα, -εΐσης
3. Add regular ending from second third (masculine, neuter) or first (feminine) declension to match the gender, case and number of the participle's subject.
4. Apply the appropriate accent to the first syllable of the ending.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευσθεῖς	κελευσθεισα	κελευσθέν
Genitive singular	κελευσθέντος	κελευσθείσης	κελευσθέντος
Dative singular	κελευσθέντι	κελευσθείσῃ	κελευσθέντι
Accusative singular	κελευσθέντα	κελευσθείσαν	κελευσθέν
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελευσθέντες	κελευσθείσαι	κελευσθέντα
Genitive plural	κελευσθέντων	κελευσθεισῶν	κελευσθέντων
Dative plural	κελευσθεῖσι, κελευσθείσιν	κελευσθείσαις	κελευσθεῖσι, κελευσθείσιν
Accusative plural	κελευσθέντας	κελεύσασας	κελευσθείσας

6.5 Present participles of -ω (thematic) verbs

6.5.1 The present active participle: a 3-1-3 declension

The present participle creates a subordinate verbal unit that views the action similarly to the aspect of the finite forms of the imperfect tense. Like the imperfect tense, it uses the first principal part to construct its forms.

It uses third-declension endings for the masculine and neuter forms, and first-declension endings for feminine forms. Compare the present active participle's pattern of nominative/genitive singular in -εἰς/-έντος, -εῖσα/-είσης, -έν/-έντος with the aorist active pattern -ας/-αντος, -ασα/άσης, -αν/-αντος.

Like the aorist active, the accent of the present active participle tries to persist on the *antepenult*.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελεύων	κελεύουσα	κελεύον
Genitive singular	κελεύοντος	κελευούσης	κελεύοντος
Dative singular	κελεύοντι	κελευούσῃ	κελεύοντι
Accusative singular	κελεύοντα	κελεύουσιν	κελεύον
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελεύοντες	κελεύουσαι	κελεύοντα
Genitive plural	κελευόντων	κελευουσών	κελευόντων
Dative plural	κελεύουσι	κελευούσαις	κελεύουσι
Accusative plural	κελεύοντας	κελευούσας	κελεύοντα

6.5.2 The present middle and passive participles: a 2-1-2 declension

Like finite verb forms built on the first principal part, the middle and passive forms of the present participle are identical. They use second-declension endings for the masculine and neuter forms, and first-declension endings for feminine forms. Compare the present active participle's pattern of nominative singular in -όμενος, ομένη, -όμενον with the aorist middle pattern -άμενος, -αμένη, -άμενον.

Like the aorist middle, the accent of the present middle and passive participles tries to persist on the *antepenult*.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευόμενος	κελευομένη	κελευόμενον
Genitive singular	κελευομένου	κελευομένης	κελευομένου
Dative singular	κελευομένῳ	κελευομένη	κελευομένῳ

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Accusative singular	κελεύόμενον	κελευομένην	κελεύόμενον
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελεύόμενοι	κελευόμεναι	κελεύόμενα
Genitive plural	κελευομένων	κελευομένων	κελευομένων
Dative plural	κελευομένοις	κελευομέναις	κελευομένοις
Accusative plural	κελευομένους	κελευομένας	κελεύόμενος

6.6 Second aorist participles

You have seen that some verbs use a second aorist for the active and middle voices. You can recognize these verbs from the ending of their third principal part: -ον for verbs that include an active voice (like ἔλαβον from λαμβάνω), or -όμην for verbs that have a middle but no active voice (like ἐγενόμην from γίγνομαι).

Recall that these verbs use the same endings for finite verbs as the imperfect tense. Analogously, when you form the active and middle voice participles of second aorist verbs, you use the same endings as the present participle.

6.6.1 Second aorist active

In the active voice, participles of second aorist verbs have persistent accent on the first syllable of the ending.

Here is a complete paradigm of the aorist active participle for λαμβάνω.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	λαβών	λαβοῦσα	λαβόν
Genitive singular	λαβόντος	λαβούσης	λαβόντος
Dative singular	λαβόντι	λαβούσῃ	λαβόντι
Accusative singular	λαβόντα	λαβοῦσαν	λαβόν
Plural			
Nominative plural	λαβόντες	λαβοῦσαι	λαβόντα
Genitive plural	λαβόντων	λαβουσῶν	λαβόντων

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Dative plural	λαβοῦσι	λαβούσαις	λαβοῦσι
Accusative plural	λαβόντας	λαβούσας	λαβόντα

6.6.2 Second aorist middle

In the middle voice, participles of second aorist verbs have persistent accent on antepenult.

Here is a complete paradigm of the aorist middle participle for γίγνομαι.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	γενόμενος	γενομένη	γενόμενον
Genitive singular	γενομένου	γενομένης	γενομένου
Dative singular	γενομένῳ	γενομένη	γενομένῳ
Accusative singular	γενόμενον	γενομένην	γενόμενον
Plural			
Nominative plural	γενόμενοι	γενόμεναι	γενόμενα
Genitive plural	γενομένων	γενομένων	γενομένων
Dative plural	γενομένοις	γενομέναις	γενομένοις
Accusative plural	γενομένους	γενομένας	γενόμενος

6.7 Participles: attributive participles

Participles expressing a subordinate verbal idea may be added to a clause in two ways, which we call the **attributive** and the **circumstantial** use of the participle. In either use, the participle will always agree in gender, case and number with the noun or pronoun that serves as the subject of the verbal unit.

The syntax of the attributive participle is identical to the syntax for adjectives in attributive position. The attributive form with repeated article is probably more common with participles. οἱ ἄνθρωποι οἱ ταῦτα πράξαντες is a good way to refer to “the people who did these things.”

The attributive participle makes the link between the participle and its substantive definite and specific: the

participle describes or identifies the substantive it agrees with. In English, we can use relative clauses to express the same kind of identification. When the elderly messenger suggests to Euphiletos that he question “the servant girl” (τὴν θεράπαιναν), she uses an attributive participle to further specify who she means - “you know, the one who regularly goes to the market place.” In Greek, that is τὴν θεράπαιναν τὴν εἰς ἀγορὰν βαδίζουσαν.

6.7.1 Time and participial verbal units

As with finite verbs, the tense of participles expresses both time and aspect. Lysias’ phrase τὴν θεράπαιναν τὴν εἰς ἀγορὰν βαδίζουσαν uses the present active participle of βαδίζω, “to walk,” and so identifies the servant girl who repeatedly or regularly goes to the market.

As an indication of time, the participle is relative to the finite verb of the clause it depends on. If you wanted to point out the woman who walked to the market once on a particular occasion, you could choose the aorist tense. ἡ ἄνθρωπος ἡ εἰς ἀγορὰν βαδίσασα would identify the person as the one who went to market; since the action is now complete, it must have been completed *before* the time of the clause’s finite verb.

6.7.2 Substantive use

You’re aware that adjectives can be used together with the article as substantives. οἱ ἀγαθοί is a perfectly good concise way to say, “good people,” equivalent to οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἄνθρωποι or οἱ ἄνθρωποι οἱ ἀγαθοί. Notice that this is essentially the attributive expression omitting the implied noun.

Attributive participles are used substantively in exactly the same way. Lysias could use an attributive participle to appeal to the jury with an argument that “People who do things of this sort”: οἱ ἄνθρωποι οἱ τὰ τοιαῦτα πράττοντες. (τὰ τοιαῦτα is neuter accusative plural, “things of this sort.”) But in fact he prefers the briefer substantive use: οἱ τὰ τοιαῦτα πράττοντες, “[people] who do things of this sort.”

Note that Lysias uses a present-tense participle to identify this general class of people. You could use an aorist participle if you wanted to refer to specifically to “The people who did this,” (οἱ ταῦτα πράξαντες).

6.8 Participles: circumstantial participles

6.8.1 Subordinated verbal ideas in English

English loves to use subordinate clauses as a way to describe the circumstances around the action of a clause. Consider these examples from Caroline Falkner’s translation of Lysias 1.

The circumstance might primarily be about time.

When my mother died, her passing proved to be the cause of all my problems.

By keeping watch for the times when our slave girl went to market and by propositioning her, he corrupted her.

The first example refers to a single, specific event; the second refers to the habitual practice of the slave girl. Both use the English conjunction “when.”

We can also use subordinate clauses to add descriptive detail, like this example:

I have a modest, two storey house, which has equal space for the women’s and men’s quarters on the upper and lower floors.

We can use subordinate clauses to express causation (“because...”)

The infant was being deliberately provoked by our slave girl into behaving like this because that individual was in the house.

We can use subordinate clauses to offer a contrast (“although”):

I noticed though, gentlemen, that her face was made up, although her brother had died not thirty days earlier.

You could easily extend this list, but these examples are enough to make a remarkable point: in each of these passages, Falkner is translating a Greek participle.

6.8.2 Syntax and meaning of circumstantial participles

When participles are *not* tied directly to a noun by being placed in attributive position, they express an attendant circumstance of any kind. Like attributive participles, they will agree with a noun or pronoun in the sentence that functions as the subject of the its verbal idea, but the meaning of the participle’s verbal unit will apply to the clause’s verbal action rather than more narrowly defining the noun.

6.8.3 A short example

Let’s look first at a minimal example. When Euphiletos tells his wife to go take care of their baby, she puts him off by saying: “You tried to grab her (the slave girl) before.” She shows that he didn’t actually succeed by using the imperfect tense (εἶλκες); the direct object (“her”) is a pronoun we’ll learn in the next unit (αὐτήν); πρότερον is an adverb, “before”, and the main clause is then πρότερον δὲ εἶλκες αὐτήν. She adds to that clause a present participle of the verb μεθύω, “to be drunk”: πρότερον δὲ μεθύων εἶλκες αὐτήν. What does it mean?

μεθύων is maculine, nominative, singular so it agrees with the subject of the verb (“you,” implied in the verb form). It’s present tense so it describes an event that was ongoing or not complete at the time of the main verb εἶλxes. We could take it simply as temporal: “while you were drunk,” and the adverb πρότερον makes this the most natural immediate interpretation. But could it also be causal? “Earlier, you tried to grab her *because* you were drunk”?

The syntax of the circumstantial participle is open to either interpretation. In fact, one reason a Greek author might choose to use a participle to express a subordinate verbal idea is precisely it that might simultaneously imply more than one kind of circumstance. It’s not wrong to read this passage as “Earlier, you tried to grab her when you were drunk (and by the way, that’s why you lacked the judgment to restrain yourself).” That’s an intolerably awkward English translation, but it is good to remind ourselves how much could be contained in the single word of a participle.

6.8.4 A typical pattern: fast narrative

One pattern that Greek particular favors for narrating events that are happening in rapid succession is to use a series of one or more aorist participles with an aorist finite verb. Consider these examples from Euphiletos’ narrative of when he and his friends caught Eratosthenes in bed with Euphiletos’ wife.

ὥσαντες δὲ τὴν θύραν τοῦ δωματίου αὐτὸν εἶδον

ὥσαντες is an aorist active participle (from the verb ὠθέω, “thrust, push back”); since it’s nominative plural, it’s agreeing with the implied subject of the aorist verb εἶδον. The action of the aorist participle was complete before the one-time event (“they saw him”). The implication is that the two events happened back to back: “They burst open the door of the room, and they saw him!”

In this passage, Lysias appends a present participle:

ὥσαντες δὲ τὴν θύραν τοῦ δωματίου αὐτὸν ἔτι εἶδον κατακείμενον παρὰ τῇ γυναικί.

κατακείμενον agrees with αὐτὸν; as the adverb ἔτι, “still,” shows, the force of this verbal unit is that at the moment they saw him, he was still in the bed lying next to Euphiletos’ wife. It is typical for Greek to use one or more aorist participles in sequence *before* the finite verb for the narrative action, and to follow the verb with present participles setting the scene.

ὥσαντες δὲ τὴν θύραν τοῦ δωματίου

αὐτὸν ἔτι εἶδον

κατακείμενον παρὰ τῇ γυναικί.

6.8.5 A more complex example

Let's consider part of the argument that Euphiletos makes to the jury at the end of his speech. People who comment unjust acts, he claims, make their listeners angry at people who are acting justly.

The verb is a present tense form we'll learn later on, παρασκευάζουσι, but it means "prepare, contrive." The Greek idiom Lysias uses is that "people rouse the anger of their listeners," using the accusative direct object ὀργὰς ("anger, emotion") with an indirect object (the listeners). He uses the preposition κατὰ with the genitive to show who they are angry with: people rouse the anger of their listeners *against* people who are doing the right thing. (It is a timeless message.)

For the subject, the indirect object and the object of the preposition κατὰ, Lysias uses attributive participles. The people who do unjust things are οἱ τὰ ἄδικοι πράττοντες (nominative); the listeners are τοῖς ἀκούουσι (dative); the object of the preposition is τῶν τὰ δίκαια πραττόντων (genitive). The expressive result is

οἱ τὰ ἄδικοι πράττοντες ὀργὰς τοῖς ἀκούουσι κατὰ τῶν τὰ δίκαια πραττόντων παρασκευάζουσι.

But Lysias adds one further participle, a simple circumstantial participle in the masculine nominative plural: ψευδόμενοι, from the verb ψεύδομαι, "to lie."

οἱ τὰ ἄδικοι πράττοντες ψευδόμενοι ὀργὰς τοῖς ἀκούουσι κατὰ τῶν τὰ δίκαια πραττόντων παρασκευάζουσι

The circumstance that is the background of this complex action is therefore that the subject (people who do unjust things) are lying. Lysias places the circumstantial participle next to the subject. The circumstance suggests that this is *how* unjust people manage to rouse their listeners' anger against just people: by lying.

6.8.6 The genitive absolute

The participle offers a concise way to express complex verbal ideas, that can be flexibly arranged in a clause to achieve a variety of effects. The one limitation is that a participle must be in agreement with a noun in the clause. But what if you want to add a subordinate verbal idea about circumstances that don't have a direct connection to something in the clause? Consider this selection from Falkner's translation of Lysias 1:

After some time had passed, an old woman came up to me.

We have a subordinate clause introduced with "After". The subject of the subordinate idea is "time." But the word "time" appears nowhere in the main clause, "An old woman came up to me." Here, too, Falkner's translation actually expresses an idea Lysias conveys with a participle.

Greek allows you to add a noun + participle combination to a clause even when the noun that the participle agrees with does not appear in the clause. In this situation, the noun goes in the genitive case. The participle of course agrees with the noun, so it, too, will be in the genitive case. The phrase that Falkner translates, "After

some time had passed” is χρόνου διαγενομένου. χρόνου is indefinite: there is no article, just “a period of time.” διαγενομένου is the aorist middle participle of διαγίγνομαι, a compound of γίγνομαι that adds to the root sense of “happen, come about” the nuance of a thoroughness or duration (as often with compounds in δια-). The tense is aorist: a period of time passed or elapsed prior to the action of the main verb.

This construction is called the **genitive absolute**. The noun is “absolute” in the grammatical sense that it stands by itself, and is otherwise not grammatically connected to the rest of the sentence. Otherwise, it is no different from any other circumstantial participle.

6.9 Supplementary participles

Some Greek verbs convey only a partial or incomplete idea that can be completed using a participle. They include verbs like “to begin”. “He began” is a grammatically complete sentence, but it begs the question: what did he begin doing? We could complete that idea in English with a phrase like “He began to speak” or “He began speaking.”

The Greek verb ἄρχομαι (in the middle voice) is similar. ἤρξατο, “He began,” is semantically still incomplete: what did he begin? Greek can complete the idea with a participle, attached to the subject of the verb (and therefore in the nominative case). For a masculine subject, we could add a masculine nominative singular participle: ἤρξατο λέγων clarifies, “He began to speak.” (It would be natural to use a present participle, since the idea of “beginning to speak” implies that the speaking is not yet completed.)

We call this use of the participle **supplementary participles** since they supplement the idea of the clause’s finite verb. Unlike the attributive or circumstantial use of the participle, the supplementary participle does not express the equivalent of an English clause, but serves to complete the idea of a small number of verbs. The combination of finite verb form + supplementary participle normally equates to a single verbal expression in English like “He began to speak.”

At first glance, a sentence like ἤρξατο λέγων might resemble a circumstantial participle: after all, λέγων is *not* in the attributive position. You can distinguish the supplementary usage only by taking account of the finite verb of the clause.

Three verbs that Lysias likes to use with supplementary participles are:

- ἄρχομαι. “To begin (to do something).”
- παύω. In the middle voice, παύομαι works just like ἄρχομαι: “to stop (doing something).” ἐπαύσατο λέγων = “He stopped speaking.” In the active voice, the verb is transitive, and can take a supplementary participle agreeing with the direct object: “to stop (someone from doing something).” ἔπαυσε τὸν ἄνθρωπον λέγοντα = “He stopped the person from speaking.”
- τυγχάνω. “To happen (to do something), (to do something by chance).” ἐχθρὸς ὢν τῷ Εὐφιλῆτῳ ἐτύχχανε = “He happened to be an enemy of Euphiletos.”

6.10 Participles: εἰμί

The only participle of the irregular verb εἰμί, “to be,” has present active forms. Its forms look like the regular endings of the present active participle.

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	ὢν	οὔσα	ὄν
Genitive singular	όντος	ούσης	όντος
Dative singular	όντι	ούσῃ	όντι
Accusative singular	όντα	ούσαν	όν
Plural			
Nominative	όντες	ούσαι	όντα
Genitive	όντων	ουσών	όντων
Dative	οὔσιν	ούσαις	οὔσιν
Accusative	όντας	ούσας	όντα

6.11 Present participles: contract verbs

As you already know from finite verb forms, some verbs have a first principal part with a stem ending in a vowel. As a result, when you add an ending to the first principal part of verbs like ποιέω (stem ποιε-) or ὀράω (ὀρα-), the stem contracts with endings beginning with a vowel.

This is true for participles as well. For active participles in -ων, -ουσα, ον, the stem vowel will contract with -ω-, -ο- and -ου-. For middle or passive participles in -όμενος, -ομένη, -όμενον, the stem will always contract with -ο-.

6.11.1 Stems ending in -ε-

The possible contractions are:

- ε + -ω- -> ω
- ε + -ου- -> ου
- ε + -ο- -> ου

You can figure out the accent in the same way as for finite verbs: identify the syllable that would receive the accent on the *unaccented* form, do the contraction, then add the accent on the syllable you previously identified. For example, you could form the masculine nominative singular of the present active participle of ποιέω as follows:

1. ποιε + ων : accent would fall on -ε- (ποιέων)
2. ε + ω == ω, so the form is ποιων ; the epsilon is now part of the contraction, so we'll put the accent on the contract -> ποιῶν.

The active participle of ποιέω therefore will be ποιῶν, ποιούσα, ποιούν. The passive participle will be ποιούμενος, ποιουμένη, ποιούμενον.

6.11.2 Stems ending in -α-

- α + -ω- -> ω
- α + -ου- -> ω
- α + -ο- -> ω

The active participle of ὀράω therefore will be ὀρῶν, ὀρώσα, ὀρών. The passive participle will be ὀρώμενος, ὀρωμένη, ὀρώμενον.

6.12 Present participles: -μι (athematic) verbs

6.13 Ancient Greek in action: reading the Second Amendment to the United States Constitution

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

The preceding sentence is the complete text of the Second Amendment to the United States Constitution. It has two verbal units: a main clause, and a subordinate verbal idea expressed with a participle.

This sentence is a tragic illustration that syntax matters. The Founding Fathers used an absolute participle in imitation of Latin and Greek style. Unlike a subordinate clause with a conjunction giving it an explicit meaning ("because", "when", "if"...), the meaning of the participial expression is open ended.

Draw up a list of every possible relation you can think between the participial phrase and the main clause. How would you decide what the authors of the Second Amendment had in mind?

6.14 Module 3: reading

6.14.1 Chunking more complex sentences

- this display indents by level of subordination:

πάντων τῶν κακῶν

ἀποθανοῦσα

αἰτία μοι γεγένηται

- start by reading down the left-most (principal) elements:

πάντων τῶν κακῶν ... αἰτία μοι γεγένηται

Then proceed in one level, and work on each subordinate construction.

When you're done, reread it like a printed text:

πάντων τῶν κακῶν ἀποθανοῦσα αἰτία μοι γεγένηται

Another example...

ἡ ἐμὴ γυνή

ὑπὸ τούτου τοῦ ἀνθρώπου ὀφθεῖσα,

χρόνῳ διαφθείρεται

7 Module 4: subordinate clauses

7.1 Overview of module 4

7.1.1 Language

Module 4 introduces

- several types of dependent clauses, some using the indicative mood and some using the optative in secondary sequence
- morphology of the optative mood, all three voices in the present and aorist tenses for the third singular and third plural persons
- the optative in subordinate clauses after past tense verbs
- third-person pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative and indefinite pronouns

7.1.2 Making Connections

- TBA

7.1.3 Practice, Reading, and Composition

- TBA

7.2 Subordinate clauses and the optative mood (ἡ εὐκτική ἔγκλισις)

In this module, we will learn another kind of relationship between clauses as we study structures of dependent or subordinate clauses. Along with that, we will introduce another mood of ancient Greek verbs, the optative mood. The optative mood has many uses, and we will start learning in this module how it is used in some types of subordinate clauses that are introduced by subordinating conjunctions.

7.3 Simple indicative clauses

Another possible way of structuring sentences involves making one clause (or multiple clauses) *dependent* on another clause.

We recognize a clause as “independent” if it can stand on its own as a sentence, even if it is connected by coordination with other independent clauses, as we have practiced in earlier modules.

A dependent clause further explains or defines the independent clause that it is attached to. It is recognized by the fact that as it is structured in this sentence, it cannot stand on its own because it does not express a complete thought. The dependent clause does have defined boundaries separating it from the independent or “main” clause, so that it is clear which words belong to which clause. Recognizing those boundaries is important to correctly reading and understanding a sentence with multiple clauses.

One common type of dependent clause is structured by a relative adverb or a relative pronoun. The word “relative” indicates that the word establishes and shows a *relationship* between the action expressed in the dependent clause and that expressed in the independent clause.

Relative adverbs, such as “when, after, since, because” in English, show and define a temporal or causal relationship between the action of the relative adverbial (dependent) clause and the action of the main clause.

- “When our child was born, I was already trusting my wife.”
- “After my mother died, all my problems started.”

One ancient Greek relative adverb is *ἐπειδή* which can mean “when,” “after” or “since.” Notice its resemblance to the adverb you have already learned, *ἔπειτα* “then, next.” This type of relative clauses uses finite verbs in the indicative mood.

Relative pronouns, “who, which, that,” are used to create a dependent clause using the indicative that further describes or defines a noun in the main clause. In section 7.5 and 7.6, we will introduce the relative pronoun in ancient Greek and learn in more detail how they form relative clauses.

7.4 The pronoun αὐτός as the third-person pronoun

The designation “personal” for personal pronouns is connected to the idea of “person” as a feature of verbs: that is, first person, second person, and third person, just as we use those terms for verbs. For these pronouns, gender and number have a relationship with person. First person (“I” in the singular and “we” in the plural) and second person (“you”) personal pronouns, which we will learn in a later module, are understood to have grammatical gender corresponding to embodied gender of the person or persons they are referring to.

Third person pronouns (“he, she, it” in singular, “they” in plural) in ancient Greek have different forms in the singular of grammatical gender depending on the gender (grammatical or embodied) of the person or thing

referred to. That is, grammatical gender of nouns will be reflected in the grammatical gender of the pronoun that refers to it.

Pronouns are among the words in English that still have cases. We have a “subjective” case of pronouns that is like the nominative: I, we, he, she. The “objective” case of pronouns is used for objects of verbs or objects of prepositions, and so that is what we will use for the “oblique” cases (a category covering the genitive, dative, and accusative cases) in ancient Greek: me, us, him, her, them. In English, we no longer have distinctions for the second person in cases, just as with number: “you” is used in all cases and numbers. In the third person, “it” is also used for both the subjective and objective cases.

7.4.1 Forms of personal pronoun for third person, singular and plural

The personal pronoun for the third person is αὐτός, αὐτή, αὐτό. It has masculine, feminine, and neuter forms. Compare English pronouns “he, she, it.” It declines with regular second declension endings in the masculine and neuter (with the exception of the neuter singular nominative and accusative αὐτό) and with first declension endings in the feminine. The persistent accent is on the ultima and follows that pattern, having an acute on the nominative and accusative forms and a circumflex on the genitive and dative forms.

The nominative forms are not used as personal pronouns, to mean simply “he, she, it, they.” Recall that ancient Greek does not need a nominative pronoun since the verb form contains that information about the person and number of the subject. (This pronoun has two other uses that we will learn later for which the nominative is used.) So the following introduces only those cases and forms that are used for the pronoun in the oblique cases “him, her, it, them.”

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masc	Fem	Neut	Masc	Fem	Neut
Genitive	αὐτοῦ	αὐτῆς	αὐτοῦ	αὐτῶν	αὐτῶν	αὐτῶν
Dative	αὐτῷ	αὐτῇ	αὐτῷ	αὐτοῖς	αὐταῖς	αὐτοῖς
Accusative	αὐτόν	αὐτήν	αὐτό	αὐτούς	αὐτάς	αὐτά

7.5 The relative pronoun

The relative pronoun is used to create dependent clauses that further describe or define a noun or pronoun in a sentence. The relative pronoun in English is *who*, *which*, or *that*. When the relative pronoun refers to a person or persons, translate it with forms of *who* and notice that this pronoun is inflected in English:

- *who* is the “subjective” case in English, corresponding to the nominative

- *whose* is the possessive genitive
- and *whom* is the objective case, used with prepositions in English and as the object of the verb, corresponding to other uses of the genitive, and uses of the dative and the accusative.

Declension of ὅς, ἥ, ὅ

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masc	Fem	Neut	Masc	Fem	Neut
Nominative	ὅς	ἥ	ὅ	οἱ	αἱ	ἃ
Genitive	οὗ	ἥς	οὗ	ῶν	ῶν	ῶν
Dative	ᾧ	ἡ	ᾧ	οἷς	αἰς	οἷς
Accusative	ὃν	ἥν	ὅ	οὓς	ἅς	ἃ

Notes on the forms of ὅς, ἥ, ὅ

- the forms of the relative pronoun are similar to those of the article, *without* the initial tau that the article has in most forms and with a **rough breathing on all forms**. Note the difference in the masculine nominative singular ὅς from the article ὁ. With forms of the relative pronoun like ἥ, οἱ, and αἱ, the only difference between the article and the relative pronoun is the accent on the relative pronoun form.
- the accent pattern is also like that of the article, and like a persistent accent on the ultima: acute on nominative and accusative forms and circumflex on genitive and dative forms.

7.6 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are dependent clauses, connected to an independent clause in a sentence. Basic relative clauses use finite verbs in the indicative mood.

The relative clause begins with a relative pronoun, which refers to a noun or pronoun in the independent clause, its *antecedent*. Because the relative clause is modifying that noun or pronoun, the form of the relative pronoun matches the antecedent in **gender** and **number**. Because the relative clause is its own verbal unit, with its own subject and verb, the **case** of the relative pronoun is determined by its function in its own clause.

7.6.1 Examples of relative clauses

Identify the relative pronoun in the following sentences. What is its antecedent? What are the boundaries of the relative clause (where does it begin and where does it end)? What form of the relative pronoun would be used in ancient Greek (what is the gender, case, and number)?

- The woman who goes to the market brought messages to my wife.
- The house that I own has two floors.
- The husband narrated to the jurors the events which occurred.

For practice, compose in English your own sentences with relative clauses. Can you find ways to use relative pronouns in all four ancient Greek cases?

7.7 The Optative Mood: Overview

You were introduced to the indicative mood in Module 1 and have been using it ever since. In this module, you will learn how to form verbs in the optative mood. The Greek name for the mood is *ἐὐκτική*, “expressing a wish,” which is one of the functions of the optative when it is used as the main verb of a sentence. Verbs in the optative mood are used both in subordinate clauses (we will learn a few of them in this module) and in certain independent clauses (which you will learn about in future modules).

Recall that ancient Greek verbs have four moods:

1. the indicative mood (which we have been working with) that is used to make factual statements;
2. the imperative mood, used to give commands, which we will meet in later modules, and
3. and 4. the subjunctive and optative moods, which are used for potential or possible action in a variety of expressions.

In some types of subordinate clauses, the verb would be in the subjunctive or the optative mood depending on whether the main clause is in a primary (present/future/perfect) or secondary tense (imperfect/aorist/pluperfect). Since we have been working with indicative verbs only in the secondary tenses of the imperfect and aorist, we will introduce the optative mood first.

7.7.1 Important things to know about the optative:

- The meaning of the optative mood and therefore the way we translate an optative verb form is entirely dependent on its context, its use in that particular clause. You must always first identify the type of “verbal chunk” an optative verb belongs to before you can decide how to translate it. Therefore, we will not give translations to optative forms in the explanation of how to form them.
- The “tense” of a verb in the optative mood represents the *aspect* of the action, not the *time*. A present optative expresses ongoing or continuous action, not necessarily action in the present time. An aorist optative expresses a single action, not necessarily action in the past.
- Forming these verbs requires adding a new set of endings onto the same principal part stems that you have already learned.

7.7.2 Forming the present optative of thematic (and non-contracted) verbs and athematic verbs like δείκνυμι

- (1) start by removing the first person singular ending (-ω or -ομαι / -μι or -μαι) and accent from the first principal part

κελεύω -> κελευ-

δείκνυμι -> δεικνυ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending. For this module, memorize *third person* endings for singular and plural. Note that in all person-number combinations of the present optative, the middle and passive have identical endings.

Number	Active	Middle/Passive
3rd singular	-οι	-οιτο
3rd plural	-οιεν	-οιντο

- (3) Apply recessive accent. Note that the final -οι in the optative form counts as *long* for accentuation (in contrast to the final -οι in the second declension masculine or feminine nominative plural, which counts as short for purposes of accentuation).

Example of κελεύω “command”

Person and Number	Active	Middle	Passive
3rd singular	κελεύοι	κελεύοιτο	κελεύοιτο
3rd plural	κελεύοιεν	κελεύοιντο	κελεύοιντο

7.7.3 Forming the aorist optative of thematic verbs and athematic verbs like δείκνυμι

Just as you learned to do for the aorist indicative active and middle, for the aorist optative active and middle you will use the third principal part.

For the aorist optative passive, you will use the sixth principal part, as you did for the aorist passive indicative.

As with the indicative, you will only distinguish between “first” and “second” aorists with the third principal part and the forms created from it. A reminder: you can recognize a first aorist by a third principal ending in -α or -άμην. Verbs that have a second aorist have a third principal part that ends in -ον or -όμην.

Recall that principal parts are all 1st person indicative mood verb forms. The third and sixth principal parts, as aorist indicative forms, carry the augment that is one indication of a past tense in the indicative. Optative forms *never* carry an augment, so in forming aorist optative verb forms, you must **remove the augment** from the principal part. When the augment is an epsilon that has been added as a prefix, it is simple to remove it. When the augment is a lengthening of a vowel that begins the stem, you can often look to the first principal part to see what the unaugmented form is. Irregular verbs will, as we have come to expect, offer more variety between first and third principal parts stems, and so we need to use more caution in thinking about what the unaugmented stem will be.

7.7.3.1 First aorist optative

- (1a) for the active and middle, start by removing the first person singular ending (-α or -άμην), the augment, and the accent from the third principal part:

ἐκέλευσα -> κελευσ-

ἔδειξα -> δειξ-

ἡγησάμην -> ἡγησ- (compare the first principal part ἡγέομαι, which also begins with an eta)

- (1b) for the aorist passive, start by removing the first person singular ending (-ην), the augment, and the accent from the sixth principal part:

ἐκελεύσθην -> κελευσθ-

ἐδείχθην -> δειχθ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending. For this module, memorize *third person* endings for singular and plural. Note that there are two possible endings in both active forms and in the third person plural passive forms.

	Active	Middle	Passive
3rd singular	-αι or -ειε/-ειεν	-αιτο	-εΐη
3rd plural	-αιεν or -ειαν	-αιντο	-εΐσαν or -εΐεν

- (3) Apply recessive accent. Note that the final -αι in the optative form counts as *long* for accentuation (in contrast to the final -αι in the first declension feminine or masculine nominative plural, which counts as short for purposes of accentuation).

Example of first aorist optative from δείκνυμι “show”

Person and Number	Active	Middle	Passive
3rd singular	δείξαι or δείξειε or δείξειεν	δείξαιτο	δειχθείη
3rd plural	δείξαιεν or δείξειαν	δείξαιντο	δειχθείησαν or δειχθείεν

7.7.3.2 Second aorist optative

- (1a) for the active and middle, start by removing the first person singular ending (-ον or -όμην), augment, and accent from the third principal part:

ἔβαλον -> βαλ-

ἦλθον -> ἔλθ-

ἐγενόμην -> γεν-

- (1b) for the aorist passive, start by removing the first person singular ending (-ην), augment, and accent from the sixth principal part:

ἐβλήθην -> βλήθ-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending. For this module, memorize *third person* endings for singular and plural. Note that the second aorist active and middle endings are the same as those of the present active and middle optative. Therefore, it is the difference in the *stem* that will indicate that these are aorist forms. (Recall that we had to notice the same difference with the second aorist indicative compared to the imperfect indicative in the active and middle voices.)

	Active	Middle	Passive
3rd singular	-οι	-οιτο	-είη
3rd plural	-οιεν	-οιντο	-είησαν or -εῖεν

- (3) Apply recessive accent. This final -οι in the optative form counts as *long* for accentuation, as it did in the present endings.

Example of second aorist optative from βάλλω “throw”

Person and Number	Active	Middle	Passive
3rd singular	βάλοι	βάλοιτο	βληθείη
3rd plural	βάλοιεν	βάλοιντο	βληθείσαν or βληθείεν

7.8 Sequence of Moods: Overview

The term “Sequence of Moods” describes the relationship between the tense/mood of a sentence’s main verb and the mood of the verb in a subordinate clause.

The sequence is called either “Primary” or “Secondary.” Primary tenses of verbs are those that express action in the present or future, while secondary tenses are those that express action in the past. The subjunctive mood is associated with the primary tenses. The optative mood is associated with the secondary tenses.

Sequence	Tense of the main verb	Mood of the verb in subordinate clause
Primary	Present, Future, or Perfect	Subjunctive
Secondary	Imperfect, Aorist, or Pluperfect	Optative

We have been using verbs in the imperfect and aorist tenses. Therefore, we will be looking at how subordinate clauses operate in secondary sequence and use the optative. As we add the primary tenses in future modules, we will also add the subjunctive mood and subordinate clauses in primary sequence.

7.9 Purpose clauses

A purpose clause is a subordinate clause. As we have seen before, “clause” means it has its own subject and verb. “Subordinate” means that it is dependent on the main clause of the sentence and does not stand alone. Simple indicative dependent clauses, such as relative adverb and relative pronoun clauses, were introduced as dependent clauses earlier in this module. The terms “dependent” and “subordinate” are interchangeable for our purposes. As the name indicates, *purpose* clauses explain the reason(s) behind the main action: why, or for what purpose, the action of the main clause was done. The verb of a purpose clause in ancient Greek is never in the indicative mood.

Identify the purpose expressed in these English sentences:

- He told them everything so that they would understand.
- So that she wouldn’t have to climb stairs, she slept on the first floor of the house.

- The students practiced their Greek forms daily to learn them better.
- We live in order to love.

The structure of a purpose clause in ancient Greek has the following features:

- it is introduced by a specific subordinating conjunction: ἵνα, ὥς, or ὅπως
- if the verb in the purpose clause is negated, it is negated by μή
- the verb within the purpose clause will be in the subjunctive or the optative mood, according to the sequence of moods. The optative is used when that verb is in a secondary (or past) tense: since we have been practicing with the secondary tenses of the imperfect and aorist indicative, we will practice in this module with purpose clauses that use the optative mood. Later, we will add the subjunctive mood and see their use in purpose clauses that are governed by clauses whose verb is in a primary tense like the present or future.

7.9.1 Practice with purpose clauses

In the reading for Module 2, the house and living arrangements of Euphiletos were described in simplified prose. In the original speech, purpose clauses explain a bit more. They are modified here to use the optative forms. Let's return to that passage and see why the usual arrangements were flipped, as we practice purpose clauses, as well as simple indicative subordinate clauses, and participles, too.

In each of the following sections, identify the boundaries of each clause and copy each clause onto a separate line. Underline connecting words; circle finite verbs and identify the form of the verb in each clause. Which clauses are subordinate? Which are purpose clauses?

ἐπειδὴ δὲ τὸ παιδίον ἐγένετο αὐτοῖς, ἡ μήτηρ αὐτὸ ἐθήλαζεν: ἵνα δὲ μή κινδυνεύοι κατὰ τῆς κλίμακος καταβαίνουσα, ὁ μὲν Εὐφίλητος ἄνω διητάτο, αἱ δὲ γυναῖκες κάτω. (modified from Lysias 1.9)

προϊόντος δὲ τοῦ χρόνου, ἦκε μὲν ἀπροσδοκῆτως ἐξ ἀγροῦ, μετὰ δὲ τὸ δεῖπνον τὸ παιδίον ἐβόα καὶ ἐδυσκόλαιεν ὑπὸ τῆς θεραπαίνης ἐπίτηδες λυπούμενον, ἵνα ταῦτα ποιοί. ὁ γὰρ ἄνθρωπος ἔνδον ἦν. (modified from Lysias 1.11)

7.10 Interrogative and indefinite pronouns

Now we add two more types of pronouns to those pronouns you have already learned, demonstrative pronouns, personal pronouns for the third person, and relative pronouns. As you have learned with those examples, these pronouns, **interrogative pronouns** and **indefinite pronouns**, take the place of nouns or modify nouns adjectivally. You will see that these pronouns in ancient Greek resemble one another, and so paying attention to accentuation is especially important in distinguishing them and understanding the clause in which they appear.

7.10.1 Interrogative pronoun

Interrogative pronouns are so named because they are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns in English are *who?*, *which?*, and *what?*.

Who goes there?

Whom did she see?

Which do they want?

What did he do?

We have already seen in that these English words are used as relative pronouns as well, and so the context of their use—whether in a question or a relative clause—indicates the type of pronoun. Ancient Greek has different pronouns for these uses.

As we saw with the relative pronoun, the English pronoun *who* as an interrogative is also inflected: *who* is nominative, *whose* is the possessive genitive, and *whom* is the objective case, used with prepositions in English and as the object of the verb, corresponding to other uses of the genitive, and uses of the dative and the accusative.

Like *which* and *what* in English, the interrogative pronoun in ancient Greek can also be used as an interrogative adjectives, modifying a noun.

Which friend did she see?

What crime did he commit?

In ancient Greek the interrogative pronoun and adjective is τίς, τί. It belongs to the third declension, and it has one set of forms for the masculine and feminine, and another for the neuter. τίς, the masculine and feminine form, corresponds to “who, whose, whom?” The neuter τί corresponds to English “What?” and can also be used as “why?”.

Declension of τίς, τί

Case	Singular		Plural	
	Masculine & Feminine	Neuter	Masculine & Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	τίς	τί	τίνες	τίνα
Genitive	τίνος or τοῦ	τίνος or τοῦ	τίνων	τίνων
Dative	τίνι or τῷ	τίνι or τῷ	τίσι or τίσιν	τίσι or τίσιν
Accusative	τίνα	τί	τίνας	τίνα

Notes of the forms of τίς, τί

- The acute accent on these forms **always** remains acute, even when the rules of accentuation in a sentence say that it should become grave. We can compare that raised tone of the acute to the raised tone in asking a question in American English.
- More than one form exists in the genitive singular and dative singular, and the second form will have to be distinguished from the article in context.
- The dative plural τίσι will have a nu-moveable added when the next word begins with a vowel.

7.10.2 Indefinite pronoun

Indefinite pronouns are used in place of or to refer to persons or things that are unspecified, unknown, or uncertain. In English, indefinite pronouns include *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, *someone*, *somebody*, and *something*.

He talks to **anyone**.

Someone came into the room.

She did not see **anything**.

In ancient Greek the indefinite pronoun is τις, τι. Like the interrogative pronoun, it belongs to the third declension, and it has one set of forms for the masculine and feminine, and another for the neuter. The difference between the forms of two pronouns in ancient Greek **lies in the accent alone**.

The indefinite pronoun can also be used as an adjective, equivalent to English *some* or *any* or [a] *certain*.

He was talking to **some** friends.

Any books left behind were removed.

“a certain elderly person approaches me” (from Lysias 1.15: προσέρχεται μοί τις πρεσβύτες ἄνθρωπος)

Declension of τις, τι

Case	Singular		Plural	
	Masc. & Fem.	Neuter	Masc. & Fem.	Neuter
Nominative	τις	τι	τινες	τινα
Genitive	τινος or του	τινος or του	τινων	τινων
Dative	τινι or τῷ	τινι or τῷ	τισι or τισιν	τισι or τισιν
Accusative	τινα	τι	τινας	τινα

Notes of the forms of τις, τι

- These forms are **enclitic**. See the following section for more on accent rules for enclitics. Accent is what distinguishes the interrogative form from the indefinite. According to the rules of accentuation, if the two-syllable forms are accented in a sentence, the accent will be on the ultima. That will continue to help to distinguish them from the interrogative forms, which are accented on the penult.
- More than one form exists in the genitive singular and dative singular, and the second form will have to be distinguished from the article in context. These forms are also enclitic.
- The dative plural τισι will have a nu-moveable added when the next word begins with a vowel.

7.11 Enclitics

There are two classes of words in ancient Greek that do not carry accents.

You have already encountered some examples of the class of words called **proclitics**, such as the forms of the article ὁ, ἡ, οἱ, αἱ, the negating word οὐ and the prepositions εἰς, ἐκ/ἐξ, and ἐν. (There will be a few more in future modules.) Proclitics do not carry an accent of their own, and do not affect the accent of other words in a sentence. Proclitics may be used as the first word in a clause.

Enclitics do interact with the accent of the word that precedes them in a sentence: their name signifies their “leaning on” the word they follow. Enclitics cannot be the first word in a clause since they need a word ahead of them to lean on. Enclitics are generally listed without an accent in paradigms and in glossaries or lexica. Enclitic words are frequently one syllable but may be two syllables. An enclitic you have already encountered in Module 1 is the conjunction τε, and now you can add the indefinite pronoun and adjective above.

7.11.1 Enclitic accent rules

1. A word accented on the ultima, with an acute or circumflex, retains that accent when followed by an enclitic word. The acute does not change to grave because the enclitic is “added on” to the word in terms of pronunciation. The enclitic remains unaccented.
2. A word accented on the antepenult with an acute or a word accented on the penult with a circumflex will have an acute accent added to the ultima. That is the circumstance when you will see two accents on the same word. The enclitic remains unaccented.
3. A word accented with an acute on the penult will not have any accent changes when followed by an enclitic. A one-syllable enclitic following such a word will remain unaccented. A two-syllable enclitic following a word accented on the penult with an acute will be accented on its own ultima. That is one circumstance in which you will see an enclitic accented.
4. A proclitic followed by an enclitic will receive an acute accent. An enclitic followed by another enclitic in a sentence will also receive that enclitic’s accent on its ultima, which will remain acute.

7.11.2 Practice recognizing enclitics

Looking through the following passage (Lysias 1.6–7), identify which words are enclitics and how they have affected the accents of the preceding words. Which of the rules above are involved in each example you identify? Which words without accents are proclitics rather than enclitics?

ἐγὼ γάρ, ὦ Ἀθηναῖοι, ἐπειδὴ ἔδοξε μοι γῆμαι καὶ γυναῖκα ἡγαγόμεν εἰς τὴν οἰκίαν, τὸν μὲν ἄλλον χρόνον οὕτω διεκείμεν ὥστε μήτε λυπεῖν μήτε λῖαν ἐπ' ἐκείνη εἶναι ὅ τι ἂν ἐθέλῃ ποιεῖν, ἐφύλαττόν τε ὡς οἶόν τε ἦν, καὶ προσεῖχον τὸν νοῦν ὥσπερ εἰκὸς ἦν. ἐπειδὴ δέ μοι παιδίον γίγνεται, ἐπίστευον ἤδη καὶ πάντα τὰ ἑμαυτοῦ ἐκείνῃ παρέδωκα, ἡγούμενος ταύτην οἰκειότητα μεγίστην εἶναι: ἐν μὲν οὖν τῷ πρώτῳ χρόνῳ, ὦ Ἀθηναῖοι, πασῶν ἦν βελτίστη: καὶ γὰρ οἰκονόμος δεινὴ καὶ φειδωλὸς ἀγαθὴ καὶ ἀκριβῶς πάντα διοικοῦσα: ἐπειδὴ δέ μοι ἡ μήτηρ ἐτελεύτησε, πάντων τῶν κακῶν ἀποθανοῦσα αἰτία μοι γεγένηται.

7.12 Indirect statement and indirect question using the optative

Here we add two more types of subordinate clauses that can use the optative. In future modules we will learn other ways that ancient Greek can structure this type of expression, and we limit our focus here to these types of subordinate clauses.

The term **indirect** in **indirect statement** and **indirect question** indicates that that the statement or question is being reported as having been said or asked (or thought, or any other way in which speech is used by human beings). So instead of a direct statement (“She left the house.”) or a direct question (“Why did she leave the house?”) or a direct quotation (He asked, “Why did she leave the house?”), indirect statement reports that the statement was made: “She said that she left the house,” and indirect question reports that a question was asked: “He asked why she left the house.” Indirect questions can also follow verbs of speech that are not directly expressing the asking, such as “He *knew* why she left the house.”

In those examples, we can see that in English indirect statement and indirect question are also structured as subordinate clauses governed by a verb related to speech (say, tell, ask, think, believe, etc.) and introduced by a conjunction like “that” or an interrogative word like “why.”

7.12.1 Indirect Statement as a subordinate clause

One way that ancient Greek expresses indirect statement has the following structure:

- a subordinate clause beginning with the conjunction ὅτι or ὥς. (Note that these conjunctions have several uses.)
- the clause uses a finite verb that retains the tense and voice of the direct statement. If the verb governing the subordinate clause of indirect statement is in a secondary (past) tense, then the mood of the finite verb in the subordinate clause *may* be changed to the optative of the same tense and voice.

We can see an example of direct quotation in this example from Lysias 1.16. Euphiletos, our speaker, quotes directly the speech of his informant:

ὁ γὰρ ἀνὴρ ὁ ὑβρίζων εἰς σέ καὶ τὴν σὴν γυναῖκα ἐχθρὸς ὢν ἡμῖν τυγχάνει.

If he were to use indirect speech instead, he could do so like this, maintaining the verb form in the finite clause, and changing the pronoun references:

ἡ ἀνθρωπος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ ἀνὴρ ὁ ὑβρίζων εἰς ἐμέ καὶ τὴν ἐμὴν γυναῖκα ἐχθρὸς ὢν αὐταῖς τυγχάνει.

Or the finite verb in the subordinate clause after the aorist verb εἶπε may be changed to the optative of the same tense and voice:

ἡ ἀνθρωπος εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ ἀνὴρ ὁ ὑβρίζων εἰς ἐμέ καὶ τὴν ἐμὴν γυναῖκα ἐχθρὸς ὢν αὐταῖς τυγχάνοι.

Notice that the subordinate clause structure allows the statement to maintain the structure of the direct statement.

7.12.2 Indirect Question as a subordinate clause

The structure of indirect question in ancient Greek is similar: a subordinate clause using a finite verb.

- for indirect question, the subordinate clause is introduced by an interrogative pronoun (such as τίς, τί) or adverb (like the English equivalents *where*, *when*, *how*)
- the finite verb in the subordinate clause retains the tense and voice of the direct question. If the verb governing the subordinate clause of indirect question is in a secondary (past) tense, then the mood of the finite verb in the subordinate clause may be changed to the optative of the same tense and voice.

Example (modified from Lysias 1.14): εἶρετο τί αἱ θύραι νύκτωρ ψοφοῖεν. “He asked why the doors were making a noise in the night.”

In this example the question is reported indirectly and the verb has changed to the optative. From the context, we can reconstruct that his original question, asked the following morning, was τί αἱ θύραι νύκτωρ ἐψόφουν; Since there is no imperfect optative, when the optative is used to replace an imperfect indicative, the present is used. The present optative has the same *aspect* as the imperfect indicative.

8 Module 5: indirect speech

8.1 Overview of module 5

8.1.1 Language

Main areas of focus are:

- morphology of 3rd declension nouns and adjectives, and some other common irregular adjectives
- forms of common athematic, irregular verbs: εἰμί, εἶμι, and φημί
- forms and uses of infinitives
- the three syntactical structures of indirect speech: subordinate clauses, accusative + infinitive, and supplementary participle

8.1.2 Practice, Reading, and Composition

Reading selection based on Lysias 1.19–20.

8.2 Indirect speech

- the infinitive
- indirect speech with infinitive
- indirect speech with participle

8.3 Additional Third-Declension Noun Patterns

Two very common nouns in ancient Greek are the words ἀνὴρ, ἀνδρός, ὁ ('man, husband') and πόλις, πολέως, ἡ ('city-state, polis'), both belonging to the third declension. Learn their declensions and accent patterns.

Case	άνήρ, ἀνδρός, ὁ	πόλις, πόλεως, ἡ
Nominative sing.	άνήρ	πόλις
Genitive	ἀνδρός	πόλεως
Dative	ἀνδρί	πόλει
Accusative	ἄνδρα	πόλιν

Nominative pl.	ἄνδρες	πόλεις
Genitive	ἀνδρῶν	πόλεων
Dative	ἀνδράσι	πόλεσι
Accusative	ἄνδρας	πόλεις

8.3.1 Notes on forms

Declined in a manner similar to *άνήρ, ἀνδρός, ὁ* are the common nouns *πατήρ, πατρός, ὁ* ('father, ancestor'), *μήτηρ, μητρός, ἡ* ('mother'), and *θυγάτηρ, θυγατρός, ἡ* ('daughter').

What is happening with the accent in the genitive singular and genitive plural of *πόλις*? An earlier form of the genitive singular was *πόλῃος*, which underwent "quantitative metathesis" of its vowels, but the accent remained where it was. The genitive plural just copied that ("assimilation").

8.4 Further Adjective Declensions

8.4.1 Third Declension Adjectives in -ής, -ές

The adjectives *ἀληθής, ἀληθές* ('true') and *ψευδής, ψευδές* ('false') follow a common third declension adjective pattern to learn, where the epsilon at the end of the stem contracts with the vowels of the case ending. These belong to the "consonant" declension because the noun stem used to end with a sigma, which in the historical development of Greek, drops out between vowels ("loss of intervocalic sigma"). The first form is both masculine and feminine singular, the second is the neuter singular.

8.4.1.1 Learn the declension of *ἀληθής, ἀληθές*:

Case	M/F Singular	N Singular	M/F Plural	N Plural
Nominative	ἀληθής	ἀληθές	ἀληθεῖς	ἀληθῆ
Genitive	ἀληθοῦς	ἀληθοῦς	ἀληθῶν	ἀληθῶν
Dative	ἀληθεῖ	ἀληθεῖ	ἀληθέσι	ἀληθέσι
Accusative	ἀληθῆ	ἀληθές	ἀληθεῖς	ἀληθῆ

8.4.2 Common slightly irregular 2-1-2 adjectives

Learn also the following three very common adjectives and their only slightly irregular declensions (they are mostly 2-1-2). Irregular forms are **emphasized** like this for your attention.

ἄλλος, ἄλλη, ἄλλο *another, other*; with the article, *the rest*. Declines as a regular 2-1-2 adjective except for the neuter singular nominative and accusative, which is **ἄλλο** rather than the expected ἄλλον. Note that the accent on the penult distinguishes the neuter nominative/accusative plural **ἄλλα** from the conjunction ἀλλά ('but').

μέγας, μεγάλη, μέγα *big, large, great*. Note the irregular forms in the masculine and neuter nominative and accusative. Otherwise a 2-1-2 declension pattern with a persistent accent on the penult.

Case	M Singular	F Singular	N Singular	M Plural	F Plural	N Plural
Nominative	μέγας	μεγάλη	μέγα	μεγάλοι	μεγάλαι	μεγάλα
Genitive	μεγάλου	μεγάλης	μεγάλου	μεγάλων	μεγάλων	μεγάλων
Dative	μεγάλῳ	μεγάλῃ	μεγάλῳ	μεγάλοις	μεγάλαις	μεγάλοις
Accusative	μέγαν	μεγάλην	μέγα	μεγάλους	μεγάλας	μεγάλα

πολύς, πολλή, πολύ *much, many*. Irregular forms also in the masculine and neuter nominative and accusative. Otherwise a 2-1-2 declension pattern with a persistent accent on the ultima.

Case	M Singular	F Singular	N Singular	M Plural	F Plural	N Plural
Nominative	πολύς	πολλή	πολύ	πολλοί	πολλαί	πολλά
Genitive	πολλοῦ	πολλῆς	πολλοῦ	πολλῶν	πολλῶν	πολλῶν
Dative	πολλῷ	πολλῇ	πολλῷ	πολλοῖς	πολλαῖς	πολλοῖς
Accusative	πολύν	πολλήν	πολύ	πολλούς	πολλάς	πολλά

8.5 The common irregular athematic verb εἰμί, εἶμι, φημί

You have already been introduced in Module 1 to the verb εἰμί “be, exist” and its 3rd person imperfect indicative, ἦν ‘she/he/it was’. We now add to that with other forms as well as learn forms of two other common and irregular athematic verbs, εἶμι “will go” and φημί “speak, say”

8.5.1 Principal parts and English equivalents:

εἰμί, ἔσομαι, —, —, —, — *be, exist* Note: enclitic in the present indicative

εἶμι, —, —, —, —, — (*will*) *go, come*

φημί, φήσω, ἔφησα, —, —, — *say, assert, affirm* Note: enclitic in the present indicative, active voice only in all tenses/moods

8.5.2 Forms to learn now

εἰμί

Present Indicative Active

Third singular (or)

Third plural (or)

Imperfect Indicative Active

Third singular

Third plural

Present Optative Active

Third singular

Third plural or

Present active participle ὢν, οὖσα, ὄν

Present active infinitive εἶναι

Notes on forms or usage

- Enclitic forms (present indicative of εἰμί and φημί) are shown with the accent on the ultima for two-syllable forms, which is how they would be accented if they ever are. But you will often see them without an accent.
- The present indicative forms may have a nu-moveable, which is shown in parentheses. — Two distinct forms exist for the third plural present optative. — When you see the accented forms ἔσσι(ν), it is asserting existence, similar to English “There is,” “There exists,” or even “It is possible.” It will often come at the beginning of the clause.

εἰμί

Present Indicative Active

Third singular (or)

Third plural (or)

Imperfect Indicative Active

Third singular

Third plural or

Present Optative Active

Third singular

Third plural

Present active participle ἰών, ἰούσα, ἰόν

Present active infinitive ἵεναι

Notes on forms or usage

- εἰμί has a future sense to its present indicative forms in Attic Greek prose. Its forms are used for the future of ἔρχομαι in Attic prose instead of those derived from ἐλεύσομαι (the second principal part of ἔρχομαι).

φημί

Present Indicative Active

Third singular (or)

Third plural (or)

Imperfect Indicative Active

Third singular

Third plural

Present Optative Active

Third singular

Third plural or

Present active participle φάς, φᾶσα, φάν

in Attic Greek, borrowed from a related verb: φάσκων, φάσκουσα, φάσκον

Present active infinitive φάναι

Notes on forms or usage

- The 3rd principal part of φημί, ἔφησα, is a regular first aorist, but only active forms are made from it. The imperfect is more commonly used than the aorist. Distinguish the present active participle φάς, φᾶσα, φάν from the aorist active, φήσας, φήσασα, φήσαν.
- φημί can mean “say yes, say so” and its negative οὐ φημί means “say no, deny, refuse” rather than “not say.”

8.6 Infinitives in ancient Greek

Infinitives are a verbal form which do not limit person and number as finite verb forms do. They also do not have mood as finite verb forms do. Like other verbal forms, infinitives are formed using a verb's principal parts.

Infinitives have **tense** and **voice**.

- **Tense:** In ancient Greek the tenses for the infinitive include the present, the future, the aorist, and the perfect. We will learn the present and aorist tenses in this module. In some uses, tense represents aspect rather than time: the present represents an ongoing, continuous, or repeated aspect, and the aorist, the single or simple aspect. In other uses, tense does indicate something about the time of the action. As you learn different uses, learn these distinctions.

- **Voice:** there are infinitives forms for all three voices: active, middle, and passive.

To fully identify an infinitive, identify its tense, voice, that it is an infinitive, and what verb it comes from. For example, ποιεῖν (appears in Lysias 1.6 and Lysias 1.33) would be identified as: present active infinitive from ποιέω.

8.6.1 Forming present infinitives

Find the stem from the first principal part by removing the personal ending, and add the appropriate infinitive ending and accent.

EXAMPLES

8.6.1.1 Thematic verbs

Present active infinitive of κελεύω —> κελεύειν Present middle/passive infinitive of κελεύω —> κελεύεσθαι

Present middle infinitive from γίγνομαι —> γίγνεσθαι

8.6.1.2 Thematic contract verbs

The short vowel at the end of the stem contracts with the vowel of the infinitive ending

- Epsilon-contract verbs: $\epsilon + \epsilon i = \epsilon i$; $\epsilon + \epsilon = \epsilon i$ Present active infinitive of ποιέω —> ποιεῖν Present middle/passive infinitive of ποιέω —> ποιεῖσθαι
- Alpha-contract verbs: $\alpha + \epsilon i$ normally = α but in this case α (long); $\alpha + \epsilon = \alpha$ (long) Present active infinitive of ὁράω —> ὁράν Present middle/passive infinitive of ὁράω —> ὁρᾶσθαι

8.6.1.3 Athematic verbs

Present active infinitive of δείκνυμι —> δεικνύναι Present middle/passive infinitive of δείκνυμι —> δεικνυσθαι

Present middle infinitive from δύναμαι —> δύνασθαι

8.6.1.4 Irregular verbs

Learn also the present active infinitives of these common irregular verbs εἰμί —> εἶναι εἶμι —> ἰέναι φημί —> φάναι

8.6.2 Forming Aorist infinitives

Like the indicative, optative, and participle forms we have been working with, the third principal part is used to form the aorist infinitive in the active and middle voices and the sixth principal part is used to form the aorist passive infinitive. For the third principal part, we must continue to distinguish between first and second aorists. Recall that only the indicative is augmented, so like the participle and optative forms, the third and sixth principal parts must be removed in forming the infinitive.

8.6.2.1 Forming first aorist infinitives of thematic verbs and athematic verbs like δείκνυμι

Remove the augment and the personal ending from the appropriate principal part and add the infinitive ending. The accent of the aorist active and middle will be persistent on the last syllable of the verb stem, and final -αι counts as short. The accent of the aorist passive infinitive is always on the eta of the infinitive ending.

8.6.2.2 Forming second aorist infinitives

Remove the augment and the personal ending from the appropriate principal part and add the infinitive ending. The accent for the active and middle second aorist are on the first syllable of the infinitive ending, which will also help distinguish these from the present infinitives of the same verb. The accent of the aorist passive infinitive is always on the eta of the infinitive ending.

EXAMPLES

8.6.2.3 First aorist active and middle infinitives

ἐκέλευσα, unaugmented stem κελευσ- → κελεύσαι (active); κελεύσασθαι (middle) ἔδειξα, unaugmented stem δειξ- → δειξαί (active); δειξασθαι (middle) ἐποίησα, unaugmented stem ποιησ- → ποιῆσαι (active); ποιήσασθαι (middle)

8.6.2.4 Second aorist active and middle infinitives

ἔλαβον, unaugmented stem λαβ- → λαβεῖν (active); λαβέσθαι (middle) εἶδον, unaugmented stem ἰδ- → ἰδεῖν (active); ἰδέσθαι (middle) ἐγενόμην, unaugmented stem γεν- → γενέσθαι (middle)

8.6.2.5 Aorist passive infinitives

ἐκελεύσθην, unaugmented stem κελευσθ- → κελευσθῆναι ἐποιήθην, unaugmented stem ποιηθ- → ποιηθῆναι ἐλήφθην, unaugmented stem ληφθ- → ληφθῆναι

8.6.3 Some uses of the infinitive

To start, we will learn two common uses of the infinitive: the complementary infinitive and the articular infinitive. There will be further uses to learn in this and future modules.

8.6.3.1 Complementary infinitive

The complementary infinitive completes the meaning of verbs expressing wishing, wanting, commanding, requesting, expecting, choosing, and being capable. The negative for these types of infinitives is μή.

Verbs we have already learned that can employ a complementary infinitive include δύναμαι, ἔχω (which means ‘be able’ when used with an infinitive), and κελεύω.

Examples:

- οὐκ ἐδύνατο λέγειν ‘he was not able to speak’
- ἐδύνατο μὴ λέγειν ‘he was able not to speak’
- εἶχον ταῦτα πράττειν ‘they were able to do these things’
- ἡ θεράπεινα ἐκελεύσθη ἔρχεσθαι εἰς ἀγοράν ‘the enslaved woman was ordered to go (to keep going) to the marketplace’

Learn these two new verbs that use complementary infinitives: βούλομαι, βουλήσομαι, —, —, βεβούλημαι, ἐβουλήθην want, desire, wish ἐθέλω, ἐθέλῃσω, ἠθέλησα, ἠθέληκα, —, — be willing, wish

Examples:

- ἐβούλοντο ταῦτα πράττειν ‘they wanted to be doing these things, they used to want to do these things’
- ἠθέλον ταῦτα πράττειν ‘they were willing to do these things, they wished to be doing these things’

8.6.3.2 Articular Infinitive

When the infinitive is used as a noun, a neuter singular article may be used with it to emphasize its substantive nature and to show its case. The article must be used if the infinitive is being used in the genitive or dative case to make that case clear, or if the infinitive is used as the object of a preposition. In clauses where the infinitive is nominative or accusative, the article may be used or not. The use of the infinitive as a noun often corresponds to the gerund in English, a verbal noun that uses the -ing form of the verb (don’t confuse it with a participle). The tense of the articular infinitive shows aspect only. The negative is μή.

Examples:

- τὸ ταῦτα πράττειν κακὸν ἦν. ‘Doing these things was bad.’ Notice that although the infinitive is used as a substantive whose function is the subject of the clause, it still has “verbal” properties such as taking its own object. Notice that that object goes into attributive position.

- τὸ ταῦτα μὴ πράττειν κάκιον ἦν ‘Not doing these things was worse’ or ‘To not do these things was worse.’
- πρὸς τῷ ταῦτα πράττειν, ἄλλα ἔπραττεν. ‘In addition to doing these things, he was doing other things.’

8.7 Three Structures of Indirect Speech

As we have already seen in Module 4, indirect speech (also called ‘indirect statement’ or ‘indirect discourse’) is way of representing some kind of verbal activity—speaking, asking, thinking, hearing, any representation of words in speech or thought. We began learning the construction of indirect speech in ancient Greek as a subordinate clause introduced by ὅτι or ὥς, which is similar to the English use of a subordinate clause introduced by that. We will now review that construction and add two other ways ancient Greek constructs indirect speech: by using an infinitive or by using a participle. Which construction is used depends on the type of verb introducing the indirect speech and on idiom, which also means that native speakers/writers may change these up. Some verbs may take two or even all three of these constructions, so the rules of which verbs introduce which construction are not hard and fast.

8.7.1 Verbs that introduce indirect speech

Some verbs that introduce indirect speech that we have been working with:

- δείκνυμι, δείξω, ἔδειξα δέδειχα, δέδειγμαι, ἐδείχθην show, demonstrate
- ἡγέομαι, ἡγήσομαι, ἡγησάμην, —, ἡγῆμαι, ἡγήθην think, consider, believe
- λέγω, λέξω, ἔλεξα or εἶπον, εἶρηκα, λέλεγμαι, ἐλέχθην say, speak, tell
- ὁράω, ὄψομαι, εἶδον, ἑώρακα or ἐόρακα, ἑώραμαι or ὤμμαι, ὤφθην see, look, understand
- φημί, φήσω, ἔφησα, —, —, — say, assert, affirm

Now add:

- ἀκούω, ἀκούσομαι, ἤκουσα, ἀκήκοα, —, ἠκούσθην hear, listen to
- νομίζω, νομιῶ, ἐνόμισα, νενόμικα, νενόμισμαι, ἐνομίσθην think, believe

8.7.2 1. Indirect Speech as Subordinate Clause

Verbs of saying, such as λέγω, are generally followed by a clause introduced by ὅτι or ὥς (“that”) with a finite verb. εἶπον and λέγω in the active use this construction, while λέγω is the passive (e.g., “it was said”) may take construction #2 below, with an infinitive. The verb ἀκούω may take this construction or #3 below, with a participle. In the subordinate clause introduced by ὅτι or ὥς, the same tense and mood of the direct statement is retained. This makes it easy to know what tense the verb in the original statement was! English makes the tense of the verb in the indirect statement relative to the tense of the verb of speaking, so, for example, a past

tense verb in the original statement in English is shifted to further in the past when the verb of speaking is put in the past.

8.7.2.1 Examples

- αὕτη λέγει ὅτι ὁ Ἐρατοσθένης ταῦτα ἔπραττεν. ‘This woman says that Eratosthenes was doing these things.’
- αὕτη εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Ἐρατοσθένης ταῦτα ἔπραττεν. ‘This woman said that Eratosthenes had been doing these things.’

If the verb of speaking is in a secondary tense (imperfect, aorist, pluperfect), the mood of the verb(s) in the indirect statement is/are often changed from the indicative to the optative of the same tense. Since there is no imperfect optative, the present optative is used to replace an imperfect indicative. The translation into English remains the same.

- αὕτη εἶπεν ὅτι ὁ Ἐρατοσθένης ταῦτα πράττει. ‘This woman said that Eratosthenes had been doing these things.’

8.7.3 2. Indirect Speech using an Infinitive, with subject accusative

The verb of saying φημί and also verbs of thinking or believing, such as νομίζω and ἡγέομαι, often represent the original direct statement as a subject accusative plus an infinitive of the same tense as the original verb in the direct speech. In this type of indirect speech, the tense of the infinitive shows time as well as aspect. If the original verb was in the imperfect, the present infinitive can be used to replace it in indirect statement.

8.7.3.1 Examples

- νομίζει Ἐρατοσθένη τοῦτο πράττειν. ‘He thinks that Eratosthenes is doing this.’
- νομίζει Ἐρατοσθένη τοῦτο πράξει. ‘He thinks that Eratosthenes did this.’

The same tense of the infinitive is used after a past tense verb of thinking in Greek, because it represents the tense of the original statement, but in English the same changes to the tense occur as we saw above:

- ἐνόμισεν Ἐρατοσθένη τοῦτο πράττειν. ‘He thought that Eratosthenes was doing this.’
- ἐνόμισεν Ἐρατοσθένη τοῦτο πράξει. ‘He thought that Eratosthenes had done this.’

If the subject of the infinitive is the same as the subject of the introductory verb, often no separate subject is expressed:

- νομίζει τοῦτο πράττειν. ‘He thinks that he (=the same person) is doing this.’

If a predicate adjective is used in the indirect statement, it is nominative:

- ἐνόμισεν ἀγαθὸς εἶναι. 'He thought that he was good.'

8.7.4 3. Indirect Speech using a Participle (a type of supplementary participle)

Verbs of sense perception (such as seeing and hearing), knowing, and showing often take a supplementary participle to express indirect speech. This category includes verbs such as δείκνυμι, ὁράω, and ἀκούω. The tense of the participle retains the tense of the original statement, with the present participle used for an original imperfect verb.

If the subject of the indirect speech is different from the subject of the introductory verb, then it is expressed usually as a subject accusative with which the participle agrees in gender, case, and number. If the subject of the indirect speech is the same as the subject of the introductory verb, the participle is in the nominative and the subject is not generally repeated.

8.7.4.1 Examples

- ἐδείκνυ Ἐρατοσθένη ταῦτα πράττοντα. 'He was showing that Eratosthenes was doing these things.'
- ἐδείκνυ Ἐρατοσθένη ταῦτα πράξαντα. 'He was showing that Eratosthenes had done these things.'
- οἱ μάρτυρες ἔδειξαν ἀκούοντες. 'The witnesses demonstrated that they were listening.'

The verb ἀκούω takes a genitive object for the person heard, and an accusative for things heard:

- ὁ ἀνὴρ ἤκουσε τῆς γυναικός. 'The husband heard his wife.'
- ὁ ἀνὴρ ὕστερον πάντα ἤκουσε. 'The husband heard everything later.'

So a participle can modify the genitive object to represent what was being heard directly:

- ὁ ἀνὴρ ἤκουσε τῆς γυναικός τινι λεγούσης. 'The husband heard his wife speaking to someone.'
- ὁ ἀνὴρ ἤκουσε τῆς γυναικός ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας ἐρχομένης. 'The husband heard his wife going out of the house.'

Or the participle can represent indirect speech, with an accusative + participle:

- ὁ ἀνὴρ ἤκουσε τὴν γυναῖκα τινι λέγουσαν. 'The husband heard that his wife was speaking to someone.'
- ὁ ἀνὴρ ἤκουσε τὴν γυναῖκα ἐκ τῆς οἰκίας ἐλθοῦσαν. 'The husband heard that his wife had gone out of the house.'

8.8 Ancient Greek in action: TBA

9 Module 6: conditions

9.1 Overview of module 6

9.1.1 Language

9.1.2 Making Connections

9.1.3 Practice, Reading, and Composition

9.2 Conditions

In this module, we look at *conditions* – “if..then” statements that can be presented as factual, hypothetical or even contrary to fact. Since Greek draws on the indicative, subjunctive and optative moods to express these ideas, we’ll learn some new forms.

9.3 Simple conditions

9.3.1 Structure of conditions

Conditions are sentences with (at least) two clauses: a main clause, like any other sentence, and a subordinate clause. In English, the subordinate clause is introduced by the conjunction “if”; the corresponding Greek conjunction is *ἐἰ*. English can include or omit an introductory “then” to introduce the main clause. “*If* the plaintiff proves his case, the jury will convict the defendant” and “*If* the plaintiff proves his case, *then* the jury will convict the defendant” are both possible. Greek does not mark the main clause with any special word: it’s just a regular sentence (like “The jury will convict the defendant.”)

We borrow from Greek two grammatical terms for these clauses. The clause that is “set out” as the hypothesis (the “if” clause) is called the *protasis* (πρότασις), and the resulting main clause (the “then” clause) is called the *apodosis* (ἀπόδοσις).

As in English, *ἤ* *protasis* may either precede or follow the *apodosis*.

9.3.2 Simple conditions about present or past time

Simple conditions use the *indicative* mood in both clauses. They present the statement as a straightforward factual relation: when the protasis is true, the apodosis is also true. You choose the tense as you would for any other indicative statement (e.g., for past time, the aorist will refer to a single, contained event, the imperfect to a repeated or ongoing action).

In all forms of conditions, the regular negative adverb οὐ is used in the apodosis. In the protasis, the normal negative adverb is μή.

9.3.3 Introducing the present indicative

At this point, we will add a further tense of the indicative to your repertoire.

9.3.3.1 Formation of the present indicative

Like the imperfect tense, all three voices of the present are built on the stem of the first principal part. Like *all* forms built on the first principal part (finite forms, participles, infinitives), the present indicative has identical endings for the middle and passive voices. The present indicative endings are illustrated here for the verb γράφω :

Person/number	Active	Middle	Passive
3.s	γράφει	γράφεται	γράφεται
3.pl	γράφουσι	γράφονται	γράφονται

9.3.3.2 Meaning of the present indicative

The *present indicative* refers to events that are happening at the time of the statement. It does not distinguish aspect the way that our contrast of imperfect and aorist does for past-time narrative, and might, in different contexts, correspond to an English simple present (“they write”), progressive present (“they are writing”) or emphatic present (“they do write”).

9.3.4 Examples of simple conditions

Aorist indicative in both protasis and apodosis:

εἰ ἐγράψαντο Εὐφίλητον φόνου, οἱ δικασταὶ δίκην ἐδίκασαν αὐτοῖς.

“If they charged Euphiletos with murder, then the jurors decided the case between them.”

Present indicative in both protasis and apodosis:

εἰ γράφονται Εὐφίλητον φόνου, οἱ δικασταὶ δίκην δικάζουσιν αὐτοῖς.

“If they charge Euphilos with murder, then the jurors decide the case between them.”

9.4 Generalizing conditions: present and past time

Greek can use a special form of the protasis to emphasize that a condition refers not just to a specific incident, but is generally true. Examples in English are, “If (ever, whenever) there was a charge of murder, the case was heard in the Areopagus” (past time), or “If (ever, whenever) there is a charge of murder, the case is heard in the Areopagus” (present time).

The apodosis has exactly the form you would expect: the imperfect indicative if the statement is about past time, the present indicative if it is about present.

To mark the conditional statement as generalizing, Greek does *not* use the indicative mood in the protasis, however. Instead, it uses the optative mood when generalizing about the past, and the subjunctive mood when generalizing about the present. Choose the tense of either mood as you would for any other optative construction: aorist for single, completed actions, versus present tense for ongoing, repeated actions.

The complete formula for marking a protasis as generalizing is summarized here:

Time	Protasis	Apodosis
Past	εἰ + optative	imperfect indicative
Present	ἐάν (= εἰ + ἄν) + subjunctive	present indicative

ἄν is a particle that we will see in other conditional constructions. Most frequently, it contracts with a preceding εἰ, and is written as ἐάν.

9.4.0.1 Formation of the present and aorist subjunctive

The present and aorist tenses of subjunctive mood are formed on the stems of the same principal parts as all other forms of the Greek verb: first part for all voices of the present, third part for aorist active and middle,

and sixth part for aorist passive. The endings of the subjunctive mood are characterized by long vowels (η, ω) in their base. You'll be happy to learn that the subjunctive uses the same endings for both present and aorist tenses: you can distinguish the tense by the principal part it is formed on.

The third person endings of the subjunctive are:

Person/number	Active	Middle	Passive
3.s	-ῆ	-ῆται	-ῆται
3.pl	-ωσι	-ωνται	-ωνται

Compare the present tense of the indicative, subjunctive and optative moods in the third person singular of all three voices. Notice that

- all forms are built on the same stem
- middle and passive voices use the same endings
- the vowel joining ending to stem makes the subjunctive and optative moods easily distinguishable from the indicative

Tense + Voice	Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
Present Active	ἄρχει	ἄρχῃ	ἄρχοι
Present Middle	ἄρχεται	ἄρχῃται	ἄρχοιτο
Present Passive	ἄρχεται	ἄρχῃται	ἄρχοιτο

Similarly, compare the aorist tense of the three moods in the third person. Notice that:

- only indicative forms have the augment
- the accent of the aorist subjunctive passive is not recessive!

Historically, the aorist passive forms are actually a contraction of the ending's long vowel with the regular stem -θε-, e.g., ἄρχθε + η. Like other forms including contractions, the accent remains on the syllable it would have fallen on in an uncontracted form, e.g., ἄρχθῆη > ἄρχθῆ.

Tense + Voice	Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
Aorist Active	ἤρξε	ἄρξῃ	ἄρξαι or ἄρξειε
Aorist Middle	ἤρξατο	ἄρξῃται	ἄρξαιτο

Tense + Voice	Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
Aorist Passive	ἦρχθη	ἀρχθῇ	ἀρχθείη

9.4.0.2 Examples of generalizing conditions

Past general, here with aorist optative in the protasis:

εἰ οἱ γραψάμενοι γράψαιτο φόνου, τοῦ φόνου ἐδικάζετο ἐν Ἀρείου πάγῳ.

“If the plaintiffs ever presented a charge of murder, the murder case was heard in the Areopagus.”

Present general:

ἐὰν οἱ γραψάμενοι γράψωνται φόνου, τοῦ φόνου δικάζεται ἐν Ἀρείου πάγῳ.

“If the plaintiffs ever present a charge of murder, the murder case is heard in the Areopagus.”

9.5 Contrafactual conditions

Simple and generalizing conditional statements about past or present time both state that something is true. *Contrary to fact* or *contrafactual* statements instead assert that the protasis is *not* true; the apodosis states what *would* or *would have* occurred if the protasis been true. Here are examples in English.

Present time: “If they thought his speech was interesting, they would pay attention”. In fact, they find his speech boring, and are not paying attention.

Past time: “If the jury thought he was innocent, they would not have convicted him.” In fact, the jury though he was guilty, and they *did* convict him.

Greek makes contrafactual statements with the indicative mood, but marks them as untrue by including the particle ἄν in the apodosis. Normally, for present contrafactual conditions, the tense of both protasis and apodosis is imperfect; for past contrafactual conditions, aorist, as summarized here:

Time	Protasis	Apodosis
Present	εἰ + imperfect indicative	imperfect indicative + ἄν
Past	εἰ + aorist indicative	aorist indicative + ἄν

9.5.1 Examples of contrafactual conditions

εἰ μὴ ἐνόμιζον αὐτὸν αἴτιον εἶναι, οἱ γραψάμενοι οὐκ ἂν ἐγράφοντο αὐτόν.

“If they did not think he was guilty, the plaintiffs would not be suing him in court.” (In fact, they think he *is* guilty, and they are suing him.)

εἰ μὴ ἐμοίχευσεν ὁ Ἐρατοσθένης τὴν γυναῖκα, οὐκ ἂν ἀπέκτεινε αὐτὸν ὁ Εὐφίλητος.

“If Eratosthenes had not committed adultery with the woman, Euphiletos would not have killed him.” (In fact, Eratosthenes *did* commit adultery with the woman, and we know what happened as a result.)

9.6 Future conditions

Whether we are talking about present or past time, Greek can characterize conditions as either factual (simple, generalizing) or contrafactual, but conditional statements about the future are different: who can say what is a *fact* in the future?

Instead, Greek presents conditional statements as either *more vivid* or *less vivid*. More vivid statements are confident claims: if the hypothesized “if” clause actually happens, then the apodosis states what will happen, and it’s entirely possible that the “if” clause will take place. Less vivid statements, on the other, are more sceptical: *maybe* this will happen.

In some ways, the forms of future conditions parallel conditional statements about present and past time. More vivid statements, like factual claims, use the indicative mood in the apodosis; less vivid statements, like contrafactual conditions, mark the apodosis with ἄν (although the future less vivid apodosis uses the optative rather than indicative mood). Like generalizing conditions, future conditions use subjunctive and indicative moods in the protasis. (In the summary below, note in particular that the more vivid condition resembles a present general condition but with a future tense in the apodosis.) As in other conditions, the tense of the subjunctive and optative verbs expresses aspect, with present tense for ongoing or repeated action and aorist tense for single, completed action.

Here is the general formula:

Condition	Protasis	Apodosis
More vivid	ἐάν + subjunctive	future indicative
Less vivid	εἰ + optative	optative + ἄν

9.6.1 Introduction to the future indicative

To express vivid statements about the future, we use the future indicative. Its formation is straightforward:

- use the same endings as you use for the present indicative
- for the active and middle voice, use the stem from the second principal part
- for the passive voice, use the stem from sixth principal part, extended with -ησ-

Compare the present and future indicative tenses of ἄρχω in the third person.

Third singular

Voice	Present	Future
Active	ἄρχει	ἄρξει
Middle	ἄρχεται	ἄρξεται
Passive	ἄρχεται	ἀρχθήσεται

Third plural

Voice	Present	Future
Active	ἄρχουσι	ἄρξουσι
Middle	ἄρχονται	ἄρξονται
Passive	ἄρχονται	ἀρχθήσονται

9.6.2 Examples of future conditions

Future more vivid:

ἐὰν οἱ γραψάμενοι γράψωνται φόνου, τοῦ φόνου δικασθήσεται ἐν Ἀρείου πάγῳ.

“If the plaintiffs present a charge of murder, the murder case will be heard in the Areopagus.”

Future less vivid (with aorist optative in both clauses):

εἰ οἱ γραψάμενοι γράψαιντο φόνου, τοῦ φόνου δικασθείη ἐν Ἀρείου πάγῳ.

“If the plaintiffs present a charge of murder, the murder case will be heard in the Areopagus (but I’m not sure how likely that is)”

9.7 The perfect system: participles

9.7.1 Reviewing principal parts

So far, we have worked with the following principal parts of the Greek verb:

First	Second	Third	Sixth
present and imperfect, all voices	future active and middle	aoist active and middle	future passive, aorist passive

We will now add the final tense system, called the *perfect tense*. It uses the fourth principal part for the active voice, and the fifth principal part for the middle and passive voices.

To find the stem of the perfect active, drop *-α* from the fourth part. To find the stem of the perfect middle and passive, drop *-μαι* from the fifth part. For *κελεύω*, for example we get:

- perfect active: *κεκέλευκα* -> *κεκελευκ-*
- perfect middle and passive: *κεκέλευμαι* -> *κεκελευ-*

As you review (and memorize) the fourth and fifth parts of verbs you have already learned, you will see a typical pattern called *reduplication*. Compared to the other principal parts, the stem of the fourth and fifth normal shows a repetition of the initial sound. Verbs beginning with a simple consonant repeat the consonant followed by *-ε-*, e.g., the fourth and fifth parts of *κελεύω* are *κεκέλευκα*, *κεκέλευμαι*. Note also that the fourth part normally adds a *-κ-* to the stem we see in the first principal part.

When the verb stem begins with a vowel, the vowel is extended, like augment, e.g., the fourth and fifth parts of *ἄρχω* are *ἤρξα*, *ἤργμαι*.

9.7.2 Meaning

The perfect tense combines aspects of the aorist and present. It refers to events that have been completed in the past, but in contrast to the aorist tense, the perfect emphasizes the ongoing effect or impact of the action. Consider the following example from section 24 of *Lysias 1*. Euphiletos recounts in first person what “we who first entered the room” saw, and then what the ones who came after them saw, in indirect statement with two participles, *κατακείμενον* (present tense) and *ἑστηκότα* (perfect tense).

οἱ μὲν πρῶτοι εἰσιόντες ἔτι εἶδομεν αὐτὸν κατακείμενον παρὰ τῇ γυναικί, οἱ δ' ὕστερον ἐν τῇ κλίνῃ γυμνὸν ἑστηκότα.

“We who first entered that room saw him still lying next to my wife; those who followed saw him standing naked on the bed.”

The first indirect statement uses the present participle *κατακείμενον* because the first group saw him while he was still lying down. The second participle *ἑστηκότα* is an intransitive form meaning “to stand up.” It’s in the perfect tense because Eratosthenes has now stood up – and is still standing there on the bed where they see him.

9.7.3 Formation of the perfect participle

We will begin with the perfect participle. You can use it anywhere you would use the present, future or aorist participle to express the unique aspect of the perfect tense, a completed action with ongoing effect.

The active participle is a 3-1-3 pattern, with third-declension endings for masculine and neuter, and first-declension endings for feminine. Its accent persists on the ending, as seen in this paradigm from *γράφω*, with fourth and fifth parts *γέγραφα*, *γέγραμμαι*.

Singular:

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	γεγραφώς	γεγραφυῖα	γεγραφός
Genitive	γεγραφότος	γεγραφυῖας	γεγραφότος
Dative	γεγραφότι	γεγραφυῖα	γεγραφότι
Accusative	γεγραφότα	γεγραφυῖαν	γεγραφότα

Plural:

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	γεγραφότες	γεγραφυῖαι	γεγραφότα
Genitive	γεγραφότων	γεγραφυῶν	γεγραφότων
Dative	γεγραφόσι	γεγραφυῖαις	γεγραφόσι
Accusative	γεγραφότας	γεγραφυῖας	γεγραφότας

Note the accent of the feminine genitive plural

The middle and passive participles follow a 2-1-2 pattern, with second-declension endings for masculine and

neuter, and first-declension endings for the feminine. The endings for middle and passive voice are identical, and look like the endings of the present middle and passive participles, except that there is no vowel before the *-μεν-* base of the ending.

Singular:

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	γεγραμμένος	γεγραμμένη	γεγραμμένον
Genitive	γεγραμμένου	γεγραμμένης	γεγραμμένου
Dative	γεγραμμένῳ	γεγραμμένῃ	γεγραμμένῳ
Accusative	γεγραμμένον	γεγραμμένην	γεγραμμένον

Plural:

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	γεγραμμένοι	γεγραμμέναι	γεγραμμένοι
Genitive	γεγραμμένων	γεγραμμένων	γεγραμμένων
Dative	γεγραμμένοις	γεγραμμέναις	γεγραμμένοις
Accusative	γεγραμμένους	γεγραμμένας	γεγραμμένους

Note that the accent persists on the penult: this can help you quickly distinguish the perfect middle and passive from the present middle and passive participles.

9.8 τίθημι

9.9 Ancient Greek in action: TBA

10 Module 7: first and second persons

10.1 Overview of module 7

10.1.1 Language

10.1.2 Making Connections

10.1.3 Practice, Reading, and Composition

10.2 The first and second persons

Yup, there are three of them.

10.3 Ancient Greek in action: ...

11 Module 8: Reading Greek

11.1 Overview of module 8

In module 8, we focus on reading unaltered, continuous passages of our target text, Lysias, *Oration 1*. We summarize strategies for reading that we have introduced in the modules leading up to this one, and introduce some less frequent verbs.

11.1.1 Language

- strategies for reading
- the verbal adjective
- the athematic second aorist

11.1.2 Making Connections

11.1.3 Practice, Reading, and Composition

11.2 Reading Greek

11.3 Ancient Greek in action: ...

12 Language summary and review

12.1 Preliminaries: language summary and review

12.1.1 Summary of the writing system

12.1.1.1 New terms

- diphthong
- iota subscript
- rough breathing, smooth breathing
- acute accent, grave accent, circumflex accent
- enclitic, proclitic
- ultima, penult, antepenult

12.1.1.2 The alphabet

- The classical Greek alphabet has 24 letters in a fixed sequence.
- With a few exceptions, each word in a Greek text has an accent.
- Each of the three possible accents can appear only in certain positions depending on the length of the vowels in the word.

12.1.1.3 Possible position of accents

Syllables in the following table are marked as – for long, ˘ for short, and × for a syllable that can be either long or short.

Accented syllable	Syllable length	Examples
<i>Acute on antepenult</i>	× × ˘	ἄνθρωπος
<i>Acute on penult</i>	×	ἄνθρώπου
<i>Acute on penult</i>	˘	φόνος

Accented syllable	Syllable length	Examples
<i>Circumflex on penult</i>	– ◡	τοῦτο
<i>Acute on ultima</i>	×	αὐτή, αὐτός
<i>Circumflex on ultima</i>	–	αὐτοῦ

12.2 Module 1: language summary and review

12.2.1 Module 1: vocabulary

Links are to the standard scholarly reference lexicon for ancient Greek by Liddell-Scott-Jones.

12.2.1.1 Conjunctions and connecting particles

- ἀλλά
- γάρ
- καί
- μέν...δέ...δέ
- οὖν
- τε

12.2.1.2 Adverbs

- ἔπειτα “then, next”
- εὖ “well”
- καί “even, also”
- νῦν “now, at present”
- οὐ/μή “not”

12.2.1.3 Verbs

For this module, memorize the first, third and sixth principal parts of each verb.

- βάλλω, βαλέω, ἔβαλον, βέβληκα, βέβλημαι, ἐβλήθην throw, *hit (by throwing), strike (by throwing), pelt*
- γίγνομαι, γενήσομαι, ἐγενόμην, γέγονα, γεγένημαι, — become, come to be, be born, be
- δείκνυμι, δείξω, ἔδειξα δέδειχα, δέδειγμαι, ἐδείχθην show, demonstrate

- δοκέω. *to think, suppose, have or form an opinion, decide*. Especially in the latter sense, it is frequently used impersonally in the third person singular, *it seems best (to someone)* and therefore *(someone) decided*. Example: ἔδοξέ μοι, “I decided”. (μοι is a pronoun meaning “to me”.)
- δύναμαι, δυνήσομαι, —, —, δεδύναμαι, ἐδυνήθην be able, can, be capable, have the power
- εἰμί, ἔσομαι, —, —, —, — be, exist.
- ἔρχομαι, ἐλεύσομαι, ἦλθον, ἐλήλυθα, —, — go, come
- ἔχω, ἔξω or σχήσω, ἔσχον, ἔσχηκα, -έσχημαι, ἐσχέθην have, hold, possess; be able; be (in a particular state)
- ἡγέομαι, ἡγήσομαι, ἡγησάμην, —, ἡγήμαι, ἡγήθην lead; think, consider, believe
- κελεύω, κελεύσω, ἐκέλευσα, κεκέλευκα, κεκέλευσμαι, ἐκελεύσθην bid, order, command, exhort
- λαμβάνω, λήψομαι, ἔλαβον, εἴληφα, εἵλημμαι, ἐλήφθην take, receive, catch, grasp
- λέγω, λέξω, ἔλεξα or εἶπον, εἴρηκα, εἴρηκα, λέλεγμαι, ἐλέχθην say, speak, tell
- ὁράω, ὄψομαι, εἶδον, ἑώρακα or ἐώρακα, ἑώραμαι or ὤμμαι, ὤφθην see, look, understand
- ποιέω, ποιήσω, ἐποίησα, πεποίηκα, πεποίημαι, ἐποιήθην do, make, create, compose
- πράττω, πράξω, ἔπραξα, πέπραχα or πέπραγα, πέπραγμαι, ἐπράχθην do, accomplish, make, act
- τελευτάω, τελευτήσω, ἐτελεύτησα, τετελεύτηκα, τετέλευτημαι, ἐτελευτήθην *bring to an end or come to an end, die*.
- τυγχάνω, τεύξομαι, ἔτυχον, τετύχηκα, —, — *happen (happen to be, happen upon), obtain, get*

12.2.1.4 Irregular forms to learn

- ἦν third-person singular imperfect indicative active of εἰμί, “she/he/it was”

12.2.2 Irregular forms: aorist of δίδωμι

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἔδωκε	* ἔδοτο	ἐδόθη
third plural	* ἔδοσαν	* ἔδοντο	ἐδόθησαν

12.2.3 Irregular forms: imperfect of δίδωμι

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle	Imperfect Passive
third singular	* ἐδίδου	ἐδίδοτο	ἐδίδοτο
third plural	ἐδίδοσαν	ἐδίδοντο	ἐδίδοντο

12.2.4 Module 1: summary of forms and grammar

12.2.4.1 New terms in this module

- verbal unit
- finite verb
- person, number, tense, mood, voice
- aspect
- voice: active, passive, middle
- moods: indicative, imperative, subjunctive, optative
- principal parts
- thematic, or -ω, verbs
- athematic, or -μι, verbs
- augment
- reduplication
- recessive accent
- subject, verb
- tenses: aorist, imperfect
- first aorist, second aorist
- compound verb
- clause
- coordination: coordinating conjunctions, particles
- postpositive
- adverb

12.2.4.2 Forming the aorist and imperfect

To form the **aorist indicative** in **active or middle** forms

- use the *third* principal part
- find the stem by dropping α/άμην from “first” aorists, or σν/όμην from “second” aorists

To form the **aorist indicative** in **passive** forms

- use the *sixth* principal part
- find the stem by dropping ην

To form the **imperfect indicative** in all three voices:

- use the *first principal part*
- find the stem by dropping ω/ομαι or νυμι/νυμαι

12.2.5 Models: aorist of δείκνμι

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἔδειξε or ἔδειξεν	ἐδείξατο	ἐδείχθη
third plural	ἔδειξαν	ἐδείξαντο	ἐδείχθησαν

12.2.6 Models: imperfect of δείκνμι

Person and Number	Imperfect Active	Imperfect Middle	Imperfect Passive
third singular	ἐδείκνυ	ἐδείκνυτο	ἐδείκνυτο
third plural	ἐδείκνυν	ἐδείκνυντο	ἐδείκνυντο

12.2.7 Models: aorist of κελεύω

	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἐκέλευσε or ἐκέλευσεν	ἐκελεύσατο	ἐκελεύθη
third plural	ἐκέλευσαν	ἐκελεύσαντο	ἐκελεύθησαν

12.2.8 Models: imperfect of κελεύω

Person and Number	Active	Middle	Passive
third singular	ἐκέλευε or ἐκέλευεν	ἐκελεύετο	ἐκελεύετο
third plural	ἐκέλευον	ἐκελεύοντο	ἐκελεύοντο

12.3 Module 2: language summary and review

12.3.1 Vocabulary

12.3.1.1 Nouns

- ἀγορά, ἀγοράς, ἡ “assembly, market, forum”
- ἀγρός, ἀγροῦ, ὁ “field, land, farm”
- ἄνθρωπος, ἀνθρώπου, ὁ or ἡ “person, human being”
- γνώμη, γνώμης, ἡ “judgment, opinion”
- δίκη, δίκης, ἡ “order, right, judgment, lawsuit”
- ζημία, ζημίας, ἡ “penalty”
- θάνατος, θανάτου, ὁ “death”
- θεραπαινά, θεραπαινίδος, ἡ “female slave, servant”
- θύρα, θύρας, ἡ “door”
- μάρτυς, μάρτυρος, ὁ or ἡ, “witness”
- νόμος, νόμου, ὁ “law, custom”
- οἰκία, οἰκίας, ἡ “house, dwelling”
- παῖδιον, παιδίου, τό “young child” or “young enslaved person”
- πολίτης, πολίτου, ὁ “citizen”
- πρᾶγμα, πράγματος, τό “deed, act, matter, thing”
- τιμωρία, τιμωρίας, ἡ “vengeance, retribution, penalty”
- χρόνος, χρόνου, ὁ “time”

12.3.1.2 An irregular noun

The irregular noun γυνή, γυναικός, ἡ “woman, wife” declines as follows:

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	γυνή	γυναῖκες
Genitive	γυναικός	γυναικῶν
Dative	γυναικί	γυναίξιν
Accusative	γυναῖκα	γυναῖκας
Vocative	γύναι	γυναῖκες

12.3.1.3 Adjectives

- ἀγαθός, ἀγαθή, ἀγαθόν “good”
- δίκαιος, δίκαια, δίκαιον “just, lawful, right”
- ἕξαρκος, ον, “denying”
- φίλος, φίλη, φίλον “beloved, dear”

12.3.1.4 An irregular adjective

The irregular adjective πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν, “all, every, each” declines as follows:

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masc	Fem	Neut	Masc	Fem	Neut
Nominative	πᾶς	πᾶσα	πᾶν	πάντες	πᾶσαι	πάντα
Genitive	παντός	πάσης	παντός	πάντων	πασῶν	πάντων
Dative	παντί	πάσῃ	παντί	πᾶσι or πᾶσιν	πάσαις	πᾶσι or πᾶσιν
Accusative	πάντα	πᾶσαν	πᾶν	πάντας	πάσας	πάντα

12.3.1.5 Demonstrative pronouns and adjectives

- ὅδε, ἧδε, τόδε “this, this here”; in connected prose refers to what is about to be said, “the following”
- οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο “this, that”; in connected prose, refers what was just said, “the preceding”; in a list, “the latter”
- ἐκεῖνος, ἐκεῖνη, ἐκεῖνο “that”; in a list, “the former”

12.3.2 Module 2: summary of forms and grammar

12.3.2.1 New terms in this module

- gender, case
- nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative
- declension
- subject-verb agreement
- article
- attributive position, predicate position
- preposition

- direct, indirect object
- transitive verb
- substantive adjective
- pronoun, demonstrative pronoun, antecedent
- direct object, indirect object
- transitive, intransitive and linking clauses
- linking verb

12.3.2.2 Dictionary entries

- the dictionary entry for a noun gives its nominative singular form, genitive singular form, and indicates its gender with the article

12.3.2.3 The article

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masc	Fem	Neut	Masc	Fem	Neut
Nominative	ὁ	ἡ	τό	οἱ	αἱ	τά
Genitive	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν
Dative	τῷ	τῇ	τῷ	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς
Accusative	τόν	τήν	τό	τούς	τάς	τά

12.3.2.4 Models: first-declension nouns

Case and number	-η / -ης	α / -ας	-α / -ης
Nominative singular	γνώμη	οἰκία	θεράπεινα
Genitive singular	γνώμης	οἰκίας	θεραπαίνης
Dative singular	γνώμῃ	οἰκίᾳ	θεραπαίνῃ
Accusative singular	γνώμην	οἰκίαν	θεράπειναν
Nominative plural	γνώμαι	οἰκίαι	θεράπειναι
Genitive plural	γνωμῶν	οἰκιῶν	θεραπεινῶν

Case and number	-η / -ης	α / -ας	-α / -ης
Dative plural	γνώμαις	οἰκίαις	θεραπαίλαις
Accusative plural	γνώμας	οἰκίας	θεραπαίνας

12.3.2.5 Models: second-declension nouns

Case and number	Masculine	Neuter
Nominative singular	ἄνθρωπος	παιδίον
Genitive singular	ἀνθρώπου	παιδίου
Dative singular	ἀνθρώπῳ	παιδίῳ
Accusative singular	ἄνθρωπον	παιδίον
Vocative singular	ἄνθρωπε	παιδίον
Nominative plural	ἄνθρωποι	παιδιά
Genitive plural	ἀνθρώπων	παιδίων
Dative plural	ἀνθρώποις	παιδίοις
Accusative plural	ἀνθρώπους	παιδιά

12.3.2.6 Models: third-declension nouns

Case and number	Neuter	Feminine
Nominative singular	πράγμα	γυναικωνίτις
Genitive singular	πράγματος	γυναικωνίτιδος
Dative singular	πράγματι	γυναικωνίτιδι
Accusative singular	πράγμα	γυναικωνίτιν
Nominative plural	πράγματα	γυναικωνίτιδες
Genitive plural	πραγμάτων	γυναικωνιτίδων
Dative plural	πράγμασι or πράγμασιν	γυναικωνίτισι or γυναικωνίτισιν
Accusative plural	πράγματα	γυναικωνίτιδας

12.3.2.7 Models: “first and second” declension adjectives

Case	Singular			Plural		
	Masc	Fem	Neut	Masc	Fem	Neut
Nominative	ἀγαθός	ἀγαθή	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθοί	ἀγαθαί	ἀγαθά
Genitive	ἀγαθοῦ	ἀγαθῆς	ἀγαθοῦ	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν
Dative	ἀγαθῷ	ἀγαθῇ	ἀγαθῷ	ἀγαθοῖς	ἀγαθαῖς	ἀγαθοῖς
Accusative	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθήν	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθοὺς	ἀγαθάς	ἀγαθά

12.4 Module 3: language summary and review

12.4.1 Module 3: vocabulary

12.4.2 Module 3: summary of forms and grammar

12.4.2.1 Models: participles of first aorist verbs

Aorist passive:

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευσθεῖς	κελευσθεῖσα	κελευσθέν
Genitive singular	κελευσθέντος	κελευσθείσης	κελευσθέντος
Dative singular	κελευσθέντι	κελευσθείσῃ	κελευσθέντι
Accusative singular	κελευσθέντα	κελευσθείσαν	κελευσθέν
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελευσθέντες	κελευσθείσαι	κελευσθέντα
Genitive plural	κελευσθέντων	κελευσθεισῶν	κελευσθέντων
Dative plural	κελευσθείσι, κελευσθείσιν	κελευσθείσαις	κελευσθείσι, κελευσθείσιν
Accusative plural	κελευσθέντας	κελεύσασας	κελευσθείσας

Aorist middle:

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευσάμενος	κελευσαμένη	κελευσάμενον
Genitive singular	κελευσαμένου	κελευσαμένης	κελευσαμένου
Dative singular	κελευσαμένῳ	κελευσαμένῃ	κελευσαμένῳ
Accusative singular	κελευσάμενον	κελευσαμένην	κελευσάμενος
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελευσάμενοι	κελευσάμεναι	κελευσάμενα
Genitive plural	κελευσαμένων	κελευσαμένων	κελευσαμένων
Dative plural	κελευσαμένοις	κελευσαμέναις	κελευσαμένοις
Accusative plural	κελευσαμένους	κελευσαμένας	κελευσάμενα

Aorist passive:

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευσθείς	κελευσθεῖσα	κελευσθέν
Genitive singular	κελευσθέντος	κελευσθείσης	κελευσθέντος
Dative singular	κελευσθέντι	κελευσθείσῃ	κελευσθέντι
Accusative singular	κελευσθέντα	κελευσθεῖσαν	κελευσθέν
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελευσθέντες	κελευσθεῖσαι	κελευσθέντα
Genitive plural	κελευσθέντων	κελευσθεισῶν	κελευσθέντων
Dative plural	κελευσθεῖσι, κελευσθεῖσιν	κελευσθεῖσαις	κελευσθεῖσι, κελευσθεῖσιν
Accusative plural	κελευσθέντας	κελεύσασας	κελευσθείσας

12.4.2.2 Models: present participles

Present active:

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελεύων	κελεύουσα	κελεύον
Genitive singular	κελεύοντος	κελευούσης	κελεύοντος
Dative singular	κελεύοντι	κελευούσῃ	κελεύοντι
Accusative singular	κελεύοντα	κελεύουσιν	κελεύον
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελεύοντες	κελεύουσαι	κελεύοντα
Genitive plural	κελευόντων	κελευουσῶν	κελευόντων
Dative plural	κελεύουσι	κελευούσαις	κελεύουσι
Accusative plural	κελεύοντας	κελευούσας	κελεύοντα

Present middle:

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελυόμενος	κελυομένη	κελυόμενον
Genitive singular	κελυομένου	κελυομένης	κελυομένου
Dative singular	κελυομένῳ	κελυομένῃ	κελυομένῳ
Accusative singular	κελυόμενον	κελυομένην	κελυόμενον
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελυόμενοι	κελυόμεναι	κελυόμενα
Genitive plural	κελυομένων	κελυομένων	κελυομένων
Dative plural	κελυομένοις	κελυομέναις	κελυομένοις
Accusative plural	κελυομένους	κελυομένας	κελυόμενος

Present passive:

Case, number	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular			
Nominative singular	κελευόμενος	κελευομένη	κελευόμενον
Genitive singular	κελευομένου	κελευομένης	κελευομένου
Dative singular	κελευομένῳ	κελευομένῃ	κελευομένῳ
Accusative singular	κελευόμενον	κελευομένην	κελευόμενον
Plural			
Nominative plural	κελευόμενοι	κελευόμεναι	κελευόμενα
Genitive plural	κελευομένων	κελευομένων	κελευομένων
Dative plural	κελευομένοις	κελευομέναις	κελευομένοις
Accusative plural	κελευομένους	κελευομένας	κελευόμενος

12.5 Module 4: language summary and review

Vocabulary

ἐπειδὴ when, since, after

ὅς, ἥ, ὃ (relative pronoun) who, which, that

12.5.1 Vocabulary

12.5.1.1 Nouns

ἀνὴρ, ἀνδρός, ὁ man, husband

πόλις, πόλεως, ἡ city-state, polis

12.5.1.2 Pronouns

αὐτός, αὐτή, αὐτό 3rd person personal pronoun in oblique cases: him, her, it, them

ὅς, ἥ, ὃ relative pronoun: who, which, that

τίς, τί interrogative pronoun and adjective: who, what, why, which

τις, τι indefinite pronoun and adjective: someone, somebody, anyone, anybody, something, anything; some, any, a certain

12.5.1.3 Adjectives

ἀληθής, ἀληθές true

ἄλλος, ἄλλη, ἄλλο another, other; with the article, the rest

μέγας, μεγάλη, μέγα big, large, great

πολύς, πολλή, πολύ much, many

ψευδής, ψευδές false

12.5.1.4 Verbs

ἀκούω, ἀκούσομαι, ἤκουσα, ἀκήκοα, —, ἤκούσθην *hear, listen to*

βούλομαι, βουλήσομαι, —, —, βεβούλημαι, ἐβουλήθην *want, desire, wish*

ἐθέλω, ἐθελήσω, ἠθέλησα, ἠθέληχα, —, — *be willing, wish*

εἰμί, ἔσομαι, —, —, —, — *be, exist*

εἶμι, —, —, —, —, — *(will) go, come*

νομίζω, νομιῶ, ἐνόμισα, νενόμικα, νενόμισμαι, ἐνομίσθην *think, believe*

φημί, φήσω, ἔφησα, —, —, — *say, assert, affirm*

12.6 Module 6 vocabulary

In module 6, we especially emphasize common vocabulary that has applications to legal contents.

12.6.1 Legal accusations

12.6.2 Bring a suit

Noun:

- γραφή, γραφῆς, ἡ, generically, “drawing, painting, or anything represented by lines”. In a lawsuit, γραφή is a “formal accusation”, or “bill of indictment in a public prosecution”

Verbs:

- γράφω, γράψω, ἔγραψα, γέγραφα, γέγραμμαι, ἐγράφθην : “to draw, write”. In a legal context, the middle voice γράφομαι means “indict” someone. The person is a direct object in the accusative: “to indict someone”; you can even include γραφήν or δίκας (see below) as a second direct object, “bring an indictment against someone”. The charge can be given with a genitive object, e.g., γράφομαι φόνου, “charge someone with murder.” The people bringing the suit (in the court, the prosecutors) can be referred to οἱ γραψάμενοι.

12.6.3 The trial

Nouns:

- δίκη, δίκης, ἡ: In the abstract, “right, justice”; concretely in a legal context, “a judgment, a lawsuit, or legal proceeding.” With λαμβάνω: λαμβάνω δίκην “take punishment, vengeance; impose or exact a penalty, punish” (with παρά + genitive to express “from a person”).
- δικάζω (regular): “to judge”. Can be used with direct object δίκην, “give a judgment on a legal case.”
- δικαστής, οὗ, ὁ: Etymologically, a person who does the verb δικάζω; “juror.”

12.6.4 Other vocabulary

Nouns:

- ζημία, ζημίας, ἡ “penalty”; use a genitive noun to express what the penalty is for. With ἐπιτίθημι (see below), “impose a penalty (on someone: include a person in the dative)”
- πόλις, πόλεως, ἡ “city state”; also “the community, citizen body of a city.”
- τιμωρία, τιμωρίας, ἡ “vengeance”; λαμβάνω τιμωρίας, “take vengeance”
- χρῆμα, χρήματος, τό, “a thing” that someone needs; plural, “goods, property, moneys”

An adjective:

- ἴδιος, ἰδία, ἴδιον: “private, personal” (as opposed to “public, civic”). (Possible opposites include δημόσιος, δημοσία, δημόσιον “belonging to the people, or the state,” and κοινός, κοινή, κοινόν, “common, shared.”)

Verbs:

- κείμαι, κείσομαι, -, -, - “to lie down, be laid down”. Functions as the passive for past tenses of τίθημι (some that has previously been “placed” now “lies in place”).
- τίθημι, θήσω, ἔθηκα, τέθηκα, τέθειμαι, ἐτέθη: “set, put, place”. Frequent in compounds with more specific senses, e.g., ἐπιτίθημι “place on, impose;” in a legal context, ἐπιτίθημι δίκην or ζημίαν “impose a penalty.”

13 Reference

13.1 Translation of Lysias 1 by Caroline Falkner

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[1] I would be very grateful, gentlemen, if you, the jurymen in this case, judged me as you would judge yourselves, were you to go through the same sort of experience. For I am well aware that if you employed the same standards for others as you do for your own behaviour, there is not a single one of you who would not be furious at what has happened. In fact, all of you would consider the penalties light for those who practise such things.

[2] And these feelings would be acknowledged not just by you but by the whole of Greece. For in the case of this crime alone both democracy and oligarchy offer the same redress to their weakest members as to their most powerful. The result is that the least individual has the same opportunity as the greatest. In the same way, gentlemen, all humanity considers this kind of violation to be the most outrageous of acts.

[3] I believe, then, that all of you have the same opinion about the severity of the punishment, and that no one considers the matter to be so frivolous that he supposes that those guilty of such acts should be pardoned or deserve light penalties.

[4] I believe, gentlemen, that what I have to demonstrate is this: that Eratosthenes seduced my wife and corrupted her, that he brought shame on my children and insulted me by entering my house, that there was no cause for enmity between him and me apart from this, and that I did not commit this deed for money, to make myself rich instead of poor, nor for any other advantage except revenge, as the law allows.

[5] I shall, then, reveal the whole story to you from the beginning, omitting nothing, but telling the truth. For I believe my only chance of survival lies in my telling you everything that has taken place.

[6] Now, Athenians, when I decided to get married and brought a wife into my house, for some time I did not wish to impose on her or let her be too free to do whatever she wanted. I used to keep an eye on her as far as I could, and give her a suitable amount of attention. But from the time my son was born I began to have more confidence in her, and I gave her full responsibility for my house, as I believed this to be the best type of domestic arrangement.

[7] Well, in the beginning, Athenians, she was the best of all wives, for she was clever and frugal in her running of the house, and carefully supervised every aspect of its management. But when my mother died, her passing proved to be the cause of all my problems.

[8] It was at her funeral, which my wife attended, that she was seen by this man and was eventually seduced. You see, by keeping watch for the times when our slave girl went to market and by propositioning her, he corrupted her.

[9] First of all then, gentlemen, for I must also explain such details to you, I have a modest, two storey house, which has equal space for the women's and men's quarters on the upper and lower floors. When our child was born its mother nursed it, and, so that she would not risk a fall on her way downstairs whenever the baby needed bathing, I took to living on the upper level while the women lived downstairs.

[10] From that time, then, it became such a regular arrangement that my wife would often go downstairs to sleep with the child to nurse it and to stop it crying. This was the way we lived for quite a while, and I never had any cause for concern, but carried on in the foolish belief that my wife was the most proper woman in the city.

[11] Time passed, gentlemen, and I came home unexpectedly from the farm. After dinner the child started to cry and become restless. It was being deliberately provoked by our slave girl into behaving like this because that individual was in the house; I found out all about this later.

[12] So, I told my wife to go away and nurse the child to stop it crying. To begin with, she did not want to go, claiming that she was glad to see me home after so long. When I got annoyed and ordered her to leave she said, "Yes, so you can have a go at the young slave here. You made a grab at her before when you were drunk."

[13] I laughed, and she got up, closed the door as she left, pretending it was a joke, and drew the bolt across. Thinking there was nothing serious in this, and not suspecting a thing, I happily settled down to sleep as I had come back from my farm work.

[14] About dawn my wife returned and opened the door. When I asked why the doors had made a noise in the night, she claimed that the lamp near the baby had gone out, and so she had gone to get a light from the neighbours. I said nothing, as I believed this was the truth. I noticed though, gentlemen, that her face was made up, although her brother had died not thirty days earlier. Still, I said nothing at all about it, and I left without a word.

[15] Later, gentlemen, after some time had passed during which I remained quite ignorant of the terrible way I was being treated, an old woman came up to me. She had been sent in secret by a woman with whom that individual was having an affair, as I later heard. The woman was angry, thinking herself badly treated because he no longer visited her as he had, and so she waited until she found out the cause.

[16] Well, the old woman, who had been watching for me near my house, came up to me and said, "Euphiletos, do not suppose that I have approached you from any desire to interfere in your business. The person who is disgracing you and your wife happens to be our mutual enemy. If you catch your slave, the one who goes to

market for you and waits on you, and if you torture her, you will find out everything. It is,” she said, “Eratosthenes from the deme of Oea who is responsible for this; he has not only seduced your wife but many other women, too. It’s his specialty.”

[17] So saying, gentlemen, she went away, while I was immediately confused as everything began to come back to me. I was full of suspicion as I reflected on how I was locked in my room, and I remembered that on that night the inner and outer doors made a noise — this had never happened before — and I thought my wife was wearing make up. Every detail came to my mind, and I was full of suspicion.

[18] I went home and told the slave- girl to come with me to the market. I took her to a friend’s home, and said that I knew about everything that was going on in my house. “So you,” I said, “ can have your choice, either to be beaten and thrown into the mill and suffer endless torture, or to confess the whole truth, receive no punishment, but instead be pardoned by me for the wrongs you have done. Tell me no lies, but speak the whole truth.”

[19] She denied it at first, and told me to do what I liked because, she said, she knew nothing. Yet when I mentioned the name of Eratosthenes to her, and said that he was the one visiting my wife, she panicked, because she imagined that I knew every detail of the whole affair. Right then she fell at my knees, and, getting me to promise that she would come to no harm, she confessed first how he approached her after the funeral, [20] then how she ended up carrying his messages, how my wife in time was won over, how he entered the house, and how, during the Thesmophoria when I was at the farm, my wife had gone to the temple with that man’s mother. She explained everything else that happened as well.

[21] When she had revealed the full story, I said, “Make sure, then, no one else finds out about this; otherwise, our agreement will be worth nothing. I expect you to show me them in the act. For I do not need words, but clear evidence whether that is really what is going on.”

[22] She agreed to do this. After our conversation four or five days passed, ...<1> as I shall bring convincing evidence to show you. First, I want to explain the events of the last day. Sostratus is my friend, and is well disposed towards me. I met him at sunset as he was coming home from his farm. Realising that none of his family would be at home at that time to welcome him on his return, I invited him to have dinner with me.

[23] We came to my house, went upstairs and had dinner. After he had had a good meal, he left, and I went to bed. Eratosthenes came in, gentlemen, and the girl woke me immediately and informed me that he was inside. I told her to mind the door, and went downstairs, leaving without making a sound. I went around to different neighbours, and found that some were not at home and others were out of town. Gathering the largest group I could find of those who were at home, I made my way back to the house.

[24] We took torches from the nearest inn, and entered — the door was open because the girl had seen to it. We pushed open the door of the bedroom, and those of us who were the first to enter saw him still lying next to my wife; the ones coming in later saw him standing naked on the bed.

[25] I struck him, gentlemen, and knocked him down. Then I twisted him round and tied his hands behind his

back. I asked him why he was disgracing my house by entering it. He confessed that he was in the wrong, and he begged and entreated me not to kill him, but to agree to a financial settlement.

[26] I said to him, “Your executioner is not I, but the law of the city, whose violation you thought less important than your pleasures. It was your choice to commit an offence like this against my wife and my children, rather than to obey the laws and behave properly.”

[27] This, gentlemen, is the reason why he met the fate the laws allow for those who commit such crimes. He was not snatched from the street, nor was he a suppliant at my hearth, as these people claim. For how could anyone, who was struck in the bedroom and immediately fell down and had his hands tied, get away when there were so many people inside? He had no weapon, no club, or anything else to defend himself against those who had come in.

[28] In fact, gentlemen, I believe that you, too, appreciate that people who commit crimes do not admit when their enemies are speaking the truth, but make up lies and invent stories to make their listeners angry at those who are acting within their rights. So, first, read out the law.

LAW (the law is read)

[29] He did not argue, gentlemen, but confessed that he was in the wrong; he begged and pleaded not to be killed, and was ready to pay money in recompense. I did not agree with his offer; I considered that the law of the city was the greater authority, and I exacted that penalty you considered the most just, and that you ordained against those who practise such crimes. Now bring forward the witnesses of these events.

WITNESSES (the witnesses give their evidence)

[30] Please read out, also, the law that is on the pillar of the Areopagus.

LAW (the law is read)

You hear, gentlemen, that the court of the Areopagus itself, which, from the time of our ancestors down to ours, has been granted the right to judge cases of homicide, has explicitly decreed that a man should not be found guilty of murder if he catches an adulterer in the act with his wife and takes the vengeance I did.

[31] Moreover, the lawgiver so strongly believed this to be the right course of action in the case of married women that he imposed the same penalty even in the case of mistresses, who are worth less than wives. Yet it is clear that, had he any better form of redress than this for married women, he would have introduced it. As it was, he could not discover a more powerful deterrent than this in their case, and he decided that the same penalty should apply even in the case of mistresses. Please read this law, too.

LAW (the law is read)

[32] You hear, gentlemen, that it lays down that if anyone rapes a free man or child, he owes double the damages. If he rapes a woman, in those cases that carry the penalty of death, he is liable at the same rate. Thus, gentlemen, rapists are thought to deserve a lighter penalty than seducers, because the law condemned the latter to death, but assigned double the amount of the damages to the former.

[33] The assumption is that those who achieve their aims by force are hated by those they have violated, while seducers so corrupt the souls of their victims that they make other men's wives more intimate with them than they are with their husbands. They make the whole house theirs, and it becomes unclear to which father the children belong, the husband or the seducer. Because of this the lawmaker assigned death as the penalty for seducers.

[34] So then, gentlemen, not only do the laws acquit me of doing wrong, but they also require me to exact this punishment. It is for you to decide whether they should maintain their authority or become worthless.

[35] I believe that all states make laws with this intention that in those instances where we are uncertain, we find out what we ought to do by consulting them. Well then, the laws recommend that in cases of this nature we exact this kind of penalty from wrongdoers.

[36] I expect you to come to the same conclusion. Otherwise, you will create such a safe haven for seducers that you will find thieves claiming to be seducers in complete confidence that, if they put forward this excuse for themselves, and claim that this is why they are entering other people's homes, no one will lay a finger on them. Everyone will know that the laws on adultery must be renounced, and that what they have to fear is your vote, because it is the supreme authority in the state.

[37] Consider carefully, gentlemen; they charge me with telling my slave on the day in question to go after the young man. I think I would have been within my rights, gentlemen, to try to catch him in any way I could in the act of corrupting my wife.

[38] You see, if, after our conversation, I had told the girl to go after him, and no act was committed, I would have done wrong. But if, when he already achieved all his objectives and made repeated visits to my house, I tried to catch him in any way I could, I would consider my actions perfectly reasonable.

[39] See how they are lying about this, too, as you will easily conclude from the following evidence. As I have already stated, gentlemen, I met my close friend Sostratos coming from the farm at about sunset, and I dined with him. After he had had a good meal, he left for home.

[40] Yet think about this first, gentlemen; if I was laying a trap for Eratosthenes on that night, was it more of an advantage for me to dine at someone else's house or to bring someone home with me? Had I done the latter, that man would have been less likely to risk entering my house. Second, does it seem reasonable to you that I would see my fellow diner off and remain alone and unaccompanied, or that I would ask him to stay and join me in exacting punishment from the seducer?

[41] Lastly, gentlemen, do you not think that I would have called on my friends in the daytime and asked them to gather at the home of a friend who lived very close by, rather than run around at night as soon as I found out, without knowing whom I might catch at home and who was out? I even went to Harmodius' house and to somebody else's and found they were not in town, for I had no idea. Others I discovered were not at home, and I made my way with those I could find.

[42] Yet, if I really knew what was going to happen, do you not think I would have got slaves ready and summoned my friends in order to provide myself with the greatest possible protection when I went in (for how did I know whether the man was armed as well?), and the greatest number of witnesses when I took my revenge? As it was, I did not know what would happen that night, and I took what people I could. Now please bring forward the witnesses of these events.

WITNESSES (the witnesses give their evidence)

[43] You have heard the witnesses, gentlemen. Reflect on this matter carefully among yourselves, and ask yourselves whether there was ever any cause for enmity between me and Eratosthenes except for this. You will surely find none.

[44] For he did not blackmail me by bringing a false charge against me, or try to have me banished from the city, or bring any private actions against me, or know of any crime whose discovery I feared so as to make me eager to do away with him. Nor, if I did the job myself, was it in the expectation of gain from any source. Some men, it is true, do plot to kill one another for such reasons.

[45] Yet so far from any insults, drunken quarrels or any other difference between us, I had never set eyes on the man before that night. What then would be my point in running a risk like this, unless I had not suffered the greatest of wrongs at his hands?

[46] Lastly, would I have summoned witnesses and committed the sacrilege myself, when, if I were ready to kill him illegally, I had the chance to let none of them in on my plan?

[47] I believe then, gentlemen, that I exacted this penalty not for personal reasons, but on behalf of the whole city. For when the perpetrators of deeds like this see the kinds of rewards their crimes bring, they will be less inclined to do wrong to others, if they understand that you, too, hold the same opinion.

[48] Otherwise, it is far better to wipe out our existing laws, and to introduce others that will exact penalties from those who take care of their own wives, while they create a powerful immunity for those who wish to do these women wrong.

[49] Surely that would be a much fairer course of action than laying traps for citizens through laws that encourage a man who catches an adulterer to do whatever he wants, while making trials riskier affairs for the victims than for those who break the law and dishonour other men's wives.

[50] As it is, I am now in danger of losing my life, my property and everything else because I obeyed the laws of the city.

13.2 Translation of Lysias 1 by W.R.M. Lamb

This translation is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike 3.0 United States License.
Lysias. Lysias with an English translation by W.R.M. Lamb, M.A. (Cambridge, MA, Harvard University Press; London, William Heinemann Ltd. 1930).

1 I should be only too pleased, sirs, to have you so disposed towards me in judging this case as you would be to yourselves, if you found yourselves in my plight. For I am sure that, if you had the same feelings about others as about yourselves, not one of you but would be indignant at what has been done; you would all regard the penalties appointed for those who resort to such practices as too mild. 2 And these feelings would be found, not only among you, but in the whole of Greece: for in the case of this crime alone, under both democracy and oligarchy, the same requital is accorded to the weakest against the strongest, so that the lowest gets the same treatment as the highest.[*] Thus you see, sirs, how all men abominate this outrage.

3 Well, I conceive that, in regard to the severity of the penalty, you are all of the same mind, and that not one of you is so easygoing as to think it right that men who are guilty of such acts should obtain pardon, or to presume that slight penalties suffice for their deserts.

4 But I take it, sirs, that what I have to show is that Eratosthenes had an intrigue with my wife, and not only corrupted her but inflicted disgrace upon my children and an outrage on myself by entering my house; that this was the one and only enmity between him and me; that I have not acted thus for the sake of money, so as to raise myself from poverty to wealth; and that all I seek to gain is the requital accorded by our laws.

5 I shall therefore set forth to you the whole of my story from the beginning; I shall omit nothing, but will tell the truth. For I consider that my own sole deliverance rests on my telling you, if I am able, the whole of what has occurred.

Narr 6 When I, Athenians, decided to marry, and brought a wife into my house, for some time I was disposed neither to vex her nor to leave her too free to do just as she pleased; I kept a watch on her as far as possible, with such observation of her as was reasonable. But when a child was born to me, thence-forward I began to trust her, and placed all my affairs in her hands, presuming that we were now in perfect intimacy. 7 It is true that in the early days, Athenians, she was the most excellent of wives; she was a clever, frugal housekeeper, and kept everything in the nicest order. But as soon as I lost my mother, her death became the cause of all my troubles.

8 For it was in attending her funeral that my wife was seen by this man, who in time corrupted her. He looked out for the servant-girl who went to market, and so paid addresses to her mistress by which he wrought her ruin.

9 Now in the first place I must tell you, sirs (for I am obliged to give you these particulars), my dwelling is on two floors, the upper being equal in space to the lower, with the women's quarters above and the men's below. When the child was born to us, its mother suckled it; and in order that, each time that it had to be washed, she might avoid the risk of descending by the stairs, I used to live above, and the women below.

10 By this time it had become such an habitual thing that my wife would often leave me and go down to sleep with the child, so as to be able to give it the breast and stop its crying. Things went on in this way for a long

time, and I never suspected, but was simple-minded enough to suppose that my own was the chastest wife in the city.

11 Time went on, sirs; I came home unexpectedly from the country, and after dinner the child started crying in a peevish way, as the servant-girl was annoying it on purpose to make it so behave; for the man was in the house—

12 I learnt it all later. So I bade my wife go and give the child her breast, to stop its howling. At first she refused, as though delighted to see me home again after so long; but when I began to be angry and bade her go, —Yes, so that you, she said, may have a try here at the little maid. Once before, too, when you were drunk, you pulled her about.

13 At that I laughed, while she got up, went out of the room, and closed the door, feigning to make fun, and she took the key away with her. I, without giving a thought to the matter, or having any suspicion, went to sleep in all content after my return from the country.

14 Towards daytime she came and opened the door. I asked why the doors made a noise in the night; she told me that the child's lamp had gone out, and she had lit it again at our neighbor's. I was silent and believed it was so. But it struck me, sirs, that she had powdered her face,[*] though her brother had died not thirty days before; even so, however, I made no remark on the fact, but left the house in silence.

15 After this, sirs, an interval occurred in which I was left quite unaware of my own injuries; I was then accosted by a certain old female, who was secretly sent by a woman with whom that man was having an intrigue, as I heard later. This woman was angry with him and felt herself wronged, because he no longer visited her so regularly, and she was keeping a watch on him until she should discover what was the cause.

16 So the old creature accosted me where she was on the look-out, near my house, and said,—Euphiletus, do not think it is from any meddlesomeness that I have approached you; for the man who is working both your and your wife's dishonor happens to be our enemy. If, therefore, you take the servant-girl who goes to market and waits on you, and torture her, you will learn all. It is, she said, Eratosthenes of Oë who is doing this; he has debauched not only your wife, but many others besides; he makes an art of it.

17 With these words, sirs, she took herself off; I was at once perturbed; all that had happened came into my mind, and I was filled with suspicion,—reflecting first how I was shut up in my chamber, and then remembering how on that night the inner and outer doors made a noise, which had never occurred before, and how it struck me that my wife had put on powder. All these things came into my mind, and I was filled with suspicion.

18 Returning home, I bade the servant-girl follow me to the market, and taking her to the house of an intimate friend, I told her I was fully informed of what was going on in my house: So it is open to you, I said, to choose as you please between two things,—either to be whipped and thrown into a mill, and to be irrevocably immersed in that sort of misery, or else to speak out the whole truth and, instead of suffering any harm, obtain my pardon for your transgressions. Tell no lies, but speak the whole truth.

19 The girl at first denied it, and bade me do what I pleased, for she knew nothing; but when I mentioned

Eratosthenes to her, and said that he was the man who visited my wife, she was dismayed, supposing that I had exact knowledge of everything. At once she threw herself down at my knees, and having got my pledge that she should suffer no harm,

20 she accused him, first, of approaching her after the funeral, and then told how at last she became his messenger; how my wife in time was persuaded, and by what means she procured his entrances, and how at the Thesmophoria[*], while I was in the country, she went off to the temple with his mother. And the girl gave an exact account of everything else that had occurred.

21 When her tale was all told, I said, —Well now, see that nobody in the world gets knowledge of this; otherwise, nothing in your arrangement with me will hold good. And I require that you show me their guilt in the very act; I want no words, but manifestation of the fact, if it really is so. She agreed to do this.

22 Then came an interval of four or five days — as I shall bring strong evidence to show. But first I wish to relate what took place on the last day. I had an intimate friend named Sostratus. After sunset I met him coming from the country. As I knew that, arriving at that hour, he would find none of his circle at home, I invited him to dine with me; we came to my house, mounted to the upper room, and had dinner.

23 When he had made a good meal, he left me and departed; then I went to bed. Eratosthenes, sirs, entered, and the maid-servant roused me at once, and told me that he was in the house. Bidding her look after the door, I descended and went out in silence; I called on one friend and another, and found some of them at home, while others were out of town.

24 I took with me as many as I could among those who were there, and so came along. Then we got torches from the nearest shop, and went in; the door was open, as the girl had it in readiness. We pushed open the door of the bedroom, and the first of us to enter were in time to see him lying down by my wife; those who followed saw him standing naked on the bed.

25 I gave him a blow, sirs, which knocked him down, and pulling round his two hands behind his back, and tying them, I asked him why he had the insolence to enter my house. He admitted his guilt; then he besought and implored me not to kill him, but to exact a sum of money.

26 To this I replied, It is not I who am going to kill you, but our city's law, which you have transgressed and regarded as of less account than your pleasures, choosing rather to commit this foul offence against my wife and my children than to obey the laws like a decent person.

Proof 27 Thus it was, sirs, that this man incurred the fate that the laws ordain for those who do such things; he had not been dragged in there from the street, nor had he taken refuge at my hearth, [*] as these people say. For how could it be so, when it was in the bedroom that he was struck and fell down then and there, and I pinioned his arms, and so many persons were in the house that he could not make his escape, as he had neither steel nor wood nor anything else with which he might have beaten off those who had entered? 28 But, sirs, I think you know as well as I that those whose acts are against justice do not acknowledge that their enemies speak the truth, but lie themselves and use other such devices to foment anger in their hearers against those whose

acts are just. So, first read the law.

29 Law

He did not dispute it, sirs: he acknowledged his guilt, and besought and implored that he might not be killed, and was ready to pay compensation in money. But I would not agree to his estimate, as I held that our city's law should have higher authority; and I obtained that satisfaction which you deemed most just when you imposed it on those who adopt such courses. Now, let my witnesses come forward in support of these statements. 30

Witnesses

Read out also, please, that law from the pillar in the Areopagus. Law

You hear, sirs, how the Court of the Areopagus itself, to which has been assigned, in our own as in our fathers' time, the trial of suits for murder, has expressly stated that whoever takes this vengeance on an adulterer caught in the act with his spouse shall not be convicted of murder. 31 And so strongly was the lawgiver convinced of the justice of this in the case of wedded wives, that he even applied the same penalty in the case of mistresses, who are of less account. Now surely it is clear that, if he had had any heavier punishment than this for the case of married women, he would have imposed it. But in fact, as he was unable to devise a severer one for this case, he ordained that it should be the same for that of mistresses also. Please read this law besides.

32 Law

You hear, sirs, how it directs that, if anyone forcibly debauches a free adult or child, he shall be liable to double[*] damages; while if he so debauches a woman, in one of the cases where it is permitted to kill him, he is subject to the same rule. Thus the lawgiver, sirs, considered that those who use force deserve a less penalty than those who use persuasion; for the latter he condemned to death, whereas for the former he doubled the damages, 33 considering that those who achieve their ends by force are hated by the persons forced; while those who used persuasion corrupted thereby their victims' souls, thus making the wives of others more closely attached to themselves than to their husbands, and got the whole house into their hands, and caused uncertainty as to whose the children really were, the husbands' or the adulterers'. In view of all this the author of the law made death their penalty.

34 Wherefore I, sirs, not only stand acquitted of wrongdoing by the laws, but am also directed by them to take this satisfaction: it is for you to decide whether they are to be valid or of no account.

35 For to my thinking every city makes its laws in order that on any matter which perplexes us we may resort to them and inquire what we have to do. And so it is they who, in cases like the present, exhort the wronged parties to obtain this kind of satisfaction.

36 I call upon you to support their opinion: otherwise, you will be giving adulterers such licence that you will encourage thieves as well to call themselves adulterers; since they will feel assured that, if they plead this reason in their defence, and allege that they enter other men's houses for this purpose, nobody will touch them. For everyone will know that the laws on adultery are to be given the go-by, and that it is your vote that one has to fear, because this has supreme authority over all the city's affairs.

37 Do but consider, sirs, what they say: they accuse me of ordering the maid-servant on that day to go and fetch the young man. Now I, sirs, could have held myself justified in using any possible means to catch the corrupter of my wife. 38 For if I had bidden the girl fetch him, when words alone had been spoken and no act had been committed, I should have been in the wrong: but if, when once he had compassed all his ends, and had frequently entered my house, I had then used any possible means to catch him, I should have considered myself quite in order.

39 And observe how on this point also they are lying: you will perceive it easily in this way. As I told you, sirs, before, Sostratus was a friend of mine, on intimate terms with me; he met me as he came from the country about sunset, and had dinner with me, and when he had made a good meal he left me and departed. Now in the first place, sirs, you must bear this in mind:

40 if on that night I had designs on Eratosthenes, which was more to my advantage, —to go and take my dinner elsewhere, or to bring in my guest to dinner with me? For in the latter case that man would have been less likely to venture on entering my house. And in the second place, do you suppose that I should have let my dinner guest go and leave me there alone and unsupported, and not rather have bidden him stay, in order that he might stand by me in taking vengeance upon the adulterer?

41 Then again, sirs, do you not think that I should have sent word to my intimate acquaintances in the daytime, and bidden them assemble at the house of one of my friends living nearest to me, rather than have waited till the moment of making my discovery to run round in the night, without knowing whom I should find at home, and who were away? Thus I called on Harmodius, and one other, who were not in town —of this I was not aware—and others, I found, were not in; but those whom I could I took along with me.

42 Yet if I had foreknown this, do you not think that I should have called up servants and passed the word to my friends, in order that I might have gone in myself with all possible safety, —for how could I tell whether he too had some weapon? —and so I might have had as many witnesses as possible with me when I took my vengeance? But as in fact I knew nothing of what was to befall on that night, I took with me those whom I could. Now let my witnesses come forward in support of all this.

Concl 43 Witnesses

You have heard the witnesses, sirs; and consider this affair further in your own minds, asking yourselves whether any enmity has ever arisen before this between me and Eratosthenes. 44 I say you will discover none. For he had neither subjected me to slanderous impeachment, nor attempted to expel me from the city, nor brought any private suit against me, nor was he privy to any wrongdoing which I was so afraid of being divulged that I was intent on his destruction, nor, should I accomplish this, had I any hope of getting money from anywhere: for there are people who plot each other's death for such purposes.

45 So far, indeed, from either abuse or a drunken brawl or any other quarrel having occurred between us, I had never even seen the man before that night. For what object, then, should I run so grave a risk, unless I had received from him the greatest of injuries?

46 Why, again, did I choose to summon witnesses for my wicked act, when it was open to me, if I was thus criminally intent on his destruction, to have none of them privy to it?

47 I therefore, sirs, do not regard this requital as having been exacted in my own private interest, but in that of the whole city. For those who behave in that way, when they see the sort of reward that is in store for such transgressions, will be less inclined to trespass against their neighbors, if they see that you also take the same view. 48 Otherwise it were better far to erase our established laws, and ordain others which will inflict the penalties on men who keep watch on their own wives, and will allow full immunity to those who would debauch them.

49 This would be a far more just way than to let the citizens be entrapped by the laws; these may bid a man, on catching an adulterer, to deal with him in whatever way he pleases, but the trials are found to be more dangerous to the wronged parties than to those who, in defiance of the laws, dishonor the wives of others.

50 For I am now risking the loss of life, property and all else that I have, because I obeyed the city's laws.

14 Postscript

- studying Greek beyond this course or textbook