

CHAPTER 3

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Lexis Reading 1: Verbs (Present Progressive Active Indicative) and Nouns (Nominative and Accusative, Feminine and Masculine)

8. Introduction to Word Formation

Ancient Greek is a highly inflected language. **Inflection** means that markers added to words determine how those words function in sentences. English once used to be highly inflected, but now word order determines how words function in a sentence. Still, some remnants of inflection remain. Consider “who,” “whose,” and “whom,” “book” and “books,” and “dance,” “dances,” “dancing,” and “danced.” The underlined letters are inflectional **markers** that change the word’s number from singular to plural, time from present to past, function in a sentence from subject to object, and so on.

When markers are removed from a word, what remains is the **base**. The base simply carries the meaning of the word.⁶ We mark bases by ending them with a forward slash, /, as in “who/,” “book/,” and “dance/.” This means that markers have not yet been added. Most Ancient Greek bases need some marker in order to function in a sentence. The complete word (a base with its marker or markers) is called the **final form**.

Final forms have a base and usually one marker or more. They may also have additional elements that add further meaning to the definition of the base, or change what type of word it is, for instance from a verb to a noun. Elements added to the beginning of a word are called **prefixes**. Elements added to the end of a word are called **suffixes**. Consider the English word “investigation”:

in/ is a prefix meaning “in, into”
vestiga/ is a verb base that means “track, search, explore”
/tion is an abstract noun suffix meaning “the state of being or doing [base]”

Thus, an investigation is the act of searching into something.

⁶ For those who already know about word formation, in the context of verbs “base” usually refers to the **root** (all markers removed). In the context of nouns and adjectives, “base” usually refers to the **stem** (only case markers removed). For the sake of pedagogical expediency, this book prefers the term “base,” as it avoids unnecessary complexities in these first chapters. The distinction between root and stem will eventually be made clear.

Consider a second example, “perceives”:

per/ is a prefix meaning “completely, thoroughly”

ceive/ is a verb base meaning “grasp”

/s is a marker that indicates that this verb is third person singular

Thus, “perceives” should mean that the subject of the verb thoroughly grasps the situation at hand.

I have just **segmented** the words “investigation” and “perceives.” That is, I have broken them into the constituent parts that form these words, and I explained what each of these units means or does. Segmentation is a practice with which you want to become accustomed right away. This book expects you to segment most every word you encounter. The more you think about Greek in terms of segmentation, the more intuitive the language will become, and the easier it will be to interpret complex words.

9. Introduction to Verbs and the Present Progressive Active Indicative

Verbs (*ῥήματα* in Greek) are words that describe actions or states of being, as in “go, run, dance, sing, stand, be, exist.” Verbs have six grammatical characteristics:

person: who does the action

number: how many people or things do the action

time: when the action occurs

aspect: whether, for instance, the action is continuous or momentary

voice: whether the person does the action or is affected by the action

mood: roughly, to what degree the speaker thinks the action is real or not

If you have studied a language before, you will have heard the term **tense**. Tense refers to the confluence of both time and aspect. However, a Greek verb form may have aspect but no time or vice versa. Therefore, in this book we speak of time and aspect as distinct categories and avoid the term “tense” entirely.

Person and Number. English requires that we state the subject of a verb explicitly. In the sentence, “Herodotus goes to Egypt,” Herodotus is the **subject**. This means that Herodotus performs the action of the verb.

When no explicit subject is used, English uses a **pronoun**. A pronoun is a noun that stands in on behalf of (pro-) another noun. For instance, the noun “Herodotus” in the sentence “Herodotus goes to Egypt” may be replaced by the pronoun “he,” as in “he goes to Egypt.” English pronouns are organized by person and number like this:

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I	we
2nd Person	you	you ⁷
3rd Person	she, he, it	they

⁷ The second person singular pronoun in English once was “thou.” By the 19th century, the second person plural “you” had been generalized across the second person and was used also for the singular. Depending on what region you are from, the second person plural pronoun may be marked as plural by means of “y’all,” “y’ones,” “yous,” and so forth. However, like other languages, including older forms of English, Greek distinguishes the second person singular from the second person plural both in its pronoun (*σύ* singular : *ὑμεῖς* plural) and in its personal marker (/ɛɪs singular : /ɛtɛ plural).

Person indicates whether the subject of the verb is the speaker (**1st person**), the addressee (**2nd person**), or a third party (**3rd person**). Number indicates whether one person (**singular**) or multiple people (**plural**) do the action of the verb.

Time. Greek verbs may occur at one of three times: past, present, or future. Unless there is an explicit time marker to indicate past or future, the verb's time is **present**. All verbs in this chapter are present.

Aspect. All verbs in this chapter are **progressive** in aspect. This means either that the action is continuous or incomplete—after all, the present never stops—or the emphasis is on the progress of an action as distinct from the event itself. To jump ahead momentarily, compare “I search” to “I discover.” Both verbs are present in time, but searching is a progress and is therefore progressive in aspect whereas discovery is the conclusion or result of searching and is therefore perfect in aspect.

Voice. Voice refers to whether the subject of a verb does the action, in which case the verb is **active** (“the dog walks”), or receives the action, in which case the verb is **passive** (“the dog is walked”). All verbs in this chapter are active.

Mood. Mood refers to the perceived reality of a statement from the perspective of the speaker. All verbs in this chapter are **indicative**. This means that the statement is considered a simple fact.

Again, all verbs in this lesson are present, progressive, active, and indicative. There are three ways to translate a verb in the present progressive active indicative:

“He calls the thief.”
“He is calling the thief.”
“He does call the thief.”

You will regularly be asked to **parse** verbs. When you parse a verb, you identify its six grammatical characteristics: person, number, time, aspect, mood, and voice. In the sentences above, the verbs “calls,” “is calling,” and “does call” are all parsed as follows: 3rd person singular present progressive active indicative.

Forming Greek Verbs

To form verbs in Greek, we begin with the base. To indicate progressive aspect, we add a **progressive aspect marker** (abbreviated **PAM**) to the end of a base:

BASE/PAM/

Greek has a number of PAMs. In this lesson, we introduce one PAM: \emptyset , which we call a **zero-marker**. To indicate progressive aspect for the verbs in this lesson, simply add this zero-marker. For instance, adding \emptyset to the base $\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/$, “call,” gives it progressive aspect:

$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\emptyset/$

A base combined with its PAM is called the **progressive stem**. As the PAM we use in this lesson is a zero-marker, there is no difference between the base and the progressive stem. But the distinction between base and stem will be useful later, so let’s start using the term stem now.

Person and number. To produce the final form of a Greek verb, we must also add a **personal marker** to the end of the stem. In Greek, the personal marker indicates both person and number, so Greek does not need to state the subject explicitly. When translating, if the subject of a verb is not stated explicitly, you must supply the correct English pronoun.

These are the personal markers we add to the progressive stem:

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	/ω I	/ομεν we
2nd Person	/εις you	/ετε you
3rd Person	/ει she, he, it	/οντι they

We are now ready to produce the final forms of verbs in the present progressive active indicative:

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\phi/\omega > \kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\omega$ I call	$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\phi/\omega\mu\nu > \kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\omega\mu\nu$ we call
2nd Person	$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\phi/\epsilon\iota\varsigma > \kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon\iota\varsigma$ you call	$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\phi/\epsilon\tau\epsilon > \kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon\tau\epsilon$ you call
3rd Person	$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\phi/\epsilon\iota > \kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon\iota$ she/he/it calls	$\kappa\alpha\lambda\epsilon/\phi/\omega\sigma\iota > \kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\omega\sigma\iota$ they call

Accentuation. The accentuation of a Greek verb is **recessive**. This meaning that the verb receives an acute accent on the earliest possible syllable—it recedes as far back from the end of the word as it can. The farthest back the accent can go is the third to last syllable unless the last syllable has a long vowel or diphthong in it, in which case the accent falls on the second to last syllable:

$\kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\omega\sigma\iota$ (-*ι* is short)

when broken into syllables: $\kappa\alpha - \lambda\acute{\epsilon} - \omega\sigma\iota$

$\kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\omega$ (-*ω* is long)

when broken into syllables: $\kappa\alpha - \lambda\acute{\epsilon} - \omega$

Coincidentally, in the present progressive active indicative of all verbs, an acute accent is placed on the last syllable of the verb's stem:

$\kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}/\phi/\omega\sigma\iota$

$\kappa\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}/\phi/\omega$

Because the accentuation of verbs is fluid, verb bases are listed without accents in the vocabulary lists and lexicon.

In summary, to form the present progressive active indicative of the verbs in this lesson, use this chart:

BASE	Aspect Marker	Personal Marker
	\emptyset	$/\omega$ $/\omega\mu\nu$ $/\epsilon\iota\varsigma$ $/\epsilon\tau\epsilon$ $/\epsilon\iota$ $/\omega\sigma\iota$

Translating. Again, unless the Greek includes an expressed subject of a verb (for instance, $\Xi\acute{e}ρ\xi\eta\varsigma\ k\alpha\lambda\acute{e}\epsilon\iota$, “Xerxes calls”), you must supply the correct personal pronoun from the personal ending (e.g. $k\alpha\lambda\acute{e}\epsilon\iota$, “she/he/it calls”). There are three available translations of a verb in the present progressive active indicative:

$k\alpha\lambda\acute{e}o\mu\epsilon\nu$	“we call”
	“we are calling”
	“we do call”

Prepositional Prefixes

Greek verbs are often prefixed with a word that adjusts or qualifies the meaning of the base. **Prefix** means that the word is attached (fixed) to the front (pre-) of the base. For instance, “understand,” “outshine,” and “overlook” are prefixed verbs in English. These prefixes tend also to be **prepositions**, or words that clarify the meaning of a noun in relation to the sentence in which it appears, as in “I stand under an umbrella,” or “I look over the documents.” In English **compounds** (that is, words constructed with prefixes, such as “understand”), the original meaning of the prepositional prefix is frequently lost. However, in Greek it often retains the original meaning of the preposition, or is at least more intuitive than it is in English. For instance, *κατα/λν/*, literally “loosen down,” comes to mean “untie” something that is hanging up, or “put down” a tyrant king.

Important prepositional prefixes for this chapter are:

ἀνα/ up (*ἀν/* before a vowel)

κατα/ down (*κατ/* before a vowel)

ἀπο/ away (*ἀπ/* before a vowel)

ἐκ/ or *ἐξ/* out, from (*ἐκ/* before a consonant, *ἐξ/* before a vowel)

ὑπερ/ above

ἐπι/ on (*ἐπ/* before a vowel)

The meanings of these prefixes will often change depending on the context, mostly intuitively but sometimes not. Vocabulary lists and notes will define them when they are truly unintuitive. Otherwise, be ready to play with their meanings depending on the verbs they accompany and contexts in which they are used.

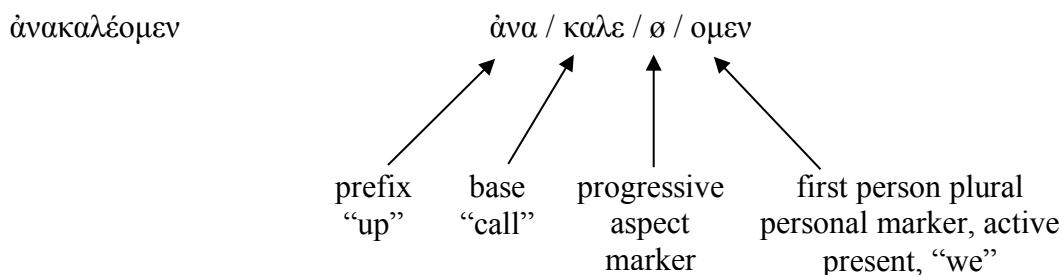
Movable Nu

When any word ends in *-σι* or a verb ends with the marker */ε*, so-called **movable nu** may be added if the next word begins with a vowel, as in *λέγονται ἀνδρες*. This is for **euphony**, or ease of pronunciation. It avoids an uncomfortable pronunciation of two consecutive vowels, as in “an uncomfortable” rather than “a uncomfortable.”

10. Segmentation and Composition: Verbs

This book emphasizes two analytic skills. The first is **segmentation**, or dividing words into their constituent parts (bases, markers, prefixes, and so forth). By identifying markers, you can identify a word's syntax, or function in the sentence. This alone allows you to produce a nearly complete sentence, as in "the ____ s ____ ed the ____ s." Once you have identified markers, the base, which carries the meaning of a word, but markers sometimes obscure, should be clear. The base tells you how to fill in the blanks in incomplete sentences like the one above.

Segment every word you encounter like this:



Then, translate the word: "we call up," "we are calling up," or "we do call up."

When segmenting, it is best to start from the back and front of a word and work inward. The base should be what remains after you correctly identify all the markers and prefixes attached to it. This will help avoid the problem of jumping to conclusions and incorrectly identifying bases (for instance, the base of *ἐλήλυθα* is not *λυ/* but rather *ἐλυθ/*).

Exercise 1. On a separate piece of paper, segment and then translate the following verbs.

1. *φέρω*

6. *καλέει*

11. *ἄγετε*

2. *ἔχει*

7. *ἔχεις*

12. *καταδέουσι*

3. *λέγω*

8. *φέρομεν*

13. *οἰκοδομέω*

4. *καταλύει*

9. *ἀπάγουσι*

14. *ξυρέετε*

5. *ρέει*

10. *ἀκούω*

15. *ἀνακαλέουσι*

This book also teaches you **composition**, or creating final forms of words and writing complete sentences in Greek. To compose final forms, add the correct markers to bases and adjust for whatever sound changes occur when bases and markers are combined. When composing final forms of verbs, produce all persons (1st, 2nd, and 3rd) and numbers (singular and plural) in a chart like this:

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	<i>καλέω</i>	<i>καλέομεν</i>
2nd Person	<i>καλέεις</i>	<i>καλέετε</i>
3rd Person	<i>καλέει</i>	<i>καλέονται</i>

Producing the final forms of verbs in charts like this is called **conjugating**.

Exercise 2. On a separate piece of paper, conjugate the following bases. Be sure to accentuate each final form correctly. Then translate each form in your conjugation.

1. *λεγ/*

2. *έχ/*

3. *φέρ/*

4. *ἀκον/*

5. *ἀγ/*

6. *λυ/*

11. Introduction to Nouns

Nouns (*ὄνοματα*, “names,” in Greek) are words that identify people, places, and things. Greek nouns have three characteristics: **gender**, **number**, and **case**.

Gender. Every noun has a gender: **feminine**, **masculine**, or **neuter** (the traditional order of their listing is: masculine, feminine, and neuter). Gender is first and foremost a grammatical, not a biological, characteristic. As such, it is different than the English use of “she,” “he,” and “it,” which denote humans (“she, he”) and non-human things (“it”). While intuitively *μήτηρ*, “mother,” is a feminine noun and *πατήρ*, “father,” is a masculine noun, non-human nouns (things, places) may belong to any gender, and their gender cannot be determined from their meaning. For instance, *ἀνδρηίη*, “manliness,” is a feminine noun. The diminutive suffix *-ιον*, equivalent to English -y or -ie attached to a proper name (e.g. Davey, Jamie), makes that name grammatically neuter, as in *Χαρίτιον*, “Gracie,” a woman, *Σωκρατίδιον*, “Socratidy,” the philosopher Socrates, a man, and *πατρίδιον*, “daddy,” also a man. These names are endearing, not condescending. While they refer to people, the nouns themselves are neuter. Thus again, gender is first and foremost a grammatical, not a biological, characteristic.

With some exceptions (for instance, *ἡ ἄνθρωπος*, “a female person”; *ὁ ἄνθρωπος*, “a male person”), the gender of a noun is fixed as either feminine, masculine, or neuter. Therefore, you must learn not only the meaning but also the gender of every noun you encounter.

Number. Nouns can be **singular** (just one) or **plural** (more than one). Greek once had a **dual** number used for couples like body parts (e.g. eyes), double doors, the number two, and so forth. The dual is rare, so we say nothing more about it until the opportune time later in this book.

Case. Nouns may serve a number of different functions in a sentence. Consider the sentence, “he loves him.” “He” functions as the **subject** of the verb (the one loving), and “him” functions as the **direct object** (the one receiving the love). Therefore, “he” and “him” belong to two different syntactic categories, where **syntax** is the technical term that means function in a sentence.

English sometimes marks syntactic function by changing the noun’s form, like Greek does. Consider the grammatically incorrect sentence, “he loves he.” To indicate that the second “he” is the direct object, we change its form to “him.” Put another way, by

adding the ending /m to “he” (*hem > him) we change the syntax of the noun from subject to direct object.

The term **case** refers to the general syntactic category a noun serves in a sentence. The subject of a sentence is in the **nominative** case, and the direct object is in the **accusative** case. Thus, in the sentence, “he loves him,” “he” is nominative and functions as the subject of the verb, and “him” is accusative and functions as the direct object. For future reference, this is the language you will use when identifying case and syntax of a noun, e.g. “‘he’ is the nominative subject” and “‘him’ is the accusative direct object.”

Distinct inflectional endings that mark a noun’s case are generally rare in English. Instead, English relies heavily on word order, at least when marking the subject and the direct object of a verb. For instance, “Alexander rides the horse” and “the horse rides Alexander” mean very different things. However, most nouns in Greek have an explicit case marker. While word order matters in Greek, it does not matter for the distinction between subject and direct object. Instead, case markers tell us how each noun functions in the sentence. As a result, unlike in English the subject may come anywhere in a Greek sentence.

PIE had eight cases. Greek has five. In the development of Greek, some PIE cases collapsed into others with the result that most Greek cases express an array of syntactic functions. Partly for this reason, we cannot speak simply of “the direct object case.” Rather, direct object is one function of the accusative case.

Our treatment of Greek nouns begins with the nominative and accusative. We will introduce the other cases later, one-by-one. In the meantime, here is a brief description of all five cases so that you know what to expect.

Nominative. The nominative case is used mainly for the subject of a verb.

Genitive. The genitive case typically indicates source but has a number of other functions. In most instances, the correct translation of a noun in the genitive begins with “of,” as in “some of the soldiers,” “fear of the gods,” “the justice of Zeus,” and “a building made of stone.” So for the time being let’s call the genitive “the ‘of’ case.”

Dative. The dative case has a number of unrelated uses, but the default use is to indicate an **indirect object**, or the person/thing indirectly affected by an action,

as in “he read the inscription to me.” Unless there is a reason to do otherwise, the correct translation of a dative noun uses the English preposition “to” or “for.”

Accusative. Like the genitive and dative, the accusative case serves several functions. Unless there is a reason to think otherwise, presume that it indicates the direct object of a verb.

Vocative. The vocative case is used exclusively for direct address, as in “Hey Xerxes, why do you underestimate the Spartans?”

Exercise. Identify the case and, to the best of your ability, function of the underlined words in the sentences below.

- 1 Bob built a house for his friend.
- 2 Sally gave Bob's shoes to Ralph.
- 3 O sister, to whom have you given my shoes?
- 4 They gave me one of the shoes.
- 5 The shoebox is full of gifts for the children.

12. The Nominative Singular, Feminine and Masculine

In this lesson we learn how to form the nominative singular of feminine and masculine nouns and adjectives. **Adjectives** are words that describe nouns, as in “the smooth stone.” Case markers for nouns and adjectives are the same, so while the words we learn in this lesson are exclusively nouns, adjectives form in exactly the same way.

The accentuation of nouns and adjectives is **persistent**. This means that the base has a natural accent that will stay where it is unless it is forced to move for reasons we will discuss later. Thus, noun and adjective bases include accents in the vocabulary lists and lexicon.

There are two markers for feminine and masculine nouns and adjectives in the nominative singular:

- (1) For bases that end in *-a/*, *-v/*, or *-ρ/*, the nominative singular marker is */Lϕ*.

The notation */Lϕ* stands for “lengthen (L) and add nothing (ϕ),” where what is lengthened is the last vowel of the base. Short vowels lengthen as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &> \eta \\ \epsilon &> \eta \\ \iota &> \bar{\iota} \\ \omega &> \omega \\ \upsilon &> \bar{\upsilon} \end{aligned}$$

Remember that printed texts do not use the long mark $\bar{\cdot}$, so short *ι* and *υ* and long *ι* and *υ* will look the same. Long vowels like ω (omega, or “big o”) are already long and cannot lengthen further. Thus:

<i>κεφαλά/Lϕ</i> > <i>κεφαλή</i>	head
<i>θυγάτερ/Lϕ</i> > <i>θυγάτηρ</i>	daughter
<i>πατέρ/Lϕ</i> > <i>πατήρ</i>	father
<i>ἡγεμόν/Lϕ</i> > <i>ἡγεμών</i>	leader
<i>φώρ/Lϕ</i> > <i>φώρ</i>	thief

(2) For bases that end in any other letter, the nominative singular marker is /s.

$\ddot{\alpha}\nu\theta\rho\omega\pi o/s > \ddot{\alpha}\nu\theta\rho\omega\pi\sigma$	person
$\lambda\acute{o}yo/s > \lambda\acute{o}y\sigma$	statement
$\beta a\sigma i\lambda\acute{e}\mathfrak{f}/s > \beta a\sigma i\lambda\acute{e}\mathfrak{v}\sigma$	king

Recall that the letter digamma (\mathfrak{f}) dropped out of the alphabet and that v stands in for /w/. Thus $\beta a\sigma i\lambda\acute{e}\mathfrak{f}s$ is spelled $\beta a\sigma i\lambda\acute{e}\mathfrak{v}\sigma$.

Note what happens when the following consonants collide:

labial stops (π , β , ϕ) + σ are written ψ (/ps/):

$\kappa\lambda\acute{o}\pi/s > \kappa\lambda\acute{o}\psi$	thief
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velar stops (κ , γ , χ) + σ are written ξ (/ks/):

$\mu\acute{a}\sigma\tau i\gamma/s > \mu\acute{a}\sigma\tau i\xi$	whip
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dental stops (τ , δ , θ) always drop before σ :

$\gamma\acute{e}\lambda\omega\tau/s > \gamma\acute{e}\lambda\omega\sigma$	laughter
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The droppage of dental stops before σ is so common in Greek that you should take particular note of it now.

Gender. Every noun has an inherent gender. Bases that end in -a/ are usually feminine. Bases that end in -o/ and have -s as its nominative singular marker are usually masculine. Bases that end in other letters may be feminine, masculine, or neuter. Be sure to learn the gender of each noun base along with its meaning.

(3) Some nouns whose bases end in *-a/* refer to typically male occupations or behaviors and are therefore masculine in gender, such as:

<i>ποιητά/</i>	maker, creator
<i>κλέπτα/</i>	thief
<i>ψεύστα/</i>	liar

That these nominal bases end in *-ta/* is not a coincidence. These nouns are **deverbal**, which means that they derive from verbs. The *-ta/* suffix indicates the male agent of that verb.

As expected, the last vowel of the base lengthens to mark the nominative singular:

<i>ποιητά/L</i> > * <i>ποιητή</i>	maker, creator ⁸
<i>κλέπτα/L</i> > * <i>κλέπτη</i>	thief
<i>ψεύστα/L</i> > * <i>ψεύστη</i>	liar

However, these masculine nouns look feminine—recall that bases that end in *-a/* are usually feminine. Greek speakers therefore hypercorrected them. **Hypercorrection** refers to the erroneous over-application of perceived rules of grammar, as in “I droved the car” instead of “I drove the car.” Because nouns like *ἀδελφεό/s*, “brother,” are biologically masculine, Greek speakers presumed that *-s* marked the masculine gender and added it to these nouns to mark them explicitly as biologically masculine. As a result, masculine noun bases that end in *-a/* use */Ls* (lengthen and add */s*) to form the nominative singular:

<i>ποιητά/Ls</i> > * <i>ποιητή</i> > <i>ποιητής</i>	maker, creator
<i>κλέπτα/Ls</i> > * <i>κλέπτη</i> > <i>κλέπτης</i>	thief
<i>ψεύστα/Ls</i> > * <i>ψεύστη</i> > <i>ψεύστης</i>	liar

In short, this subset forms its nominative singular using both markers (1) and (2).

⁸ Words that have * before them are hypothetical or expected but do not actually exist.

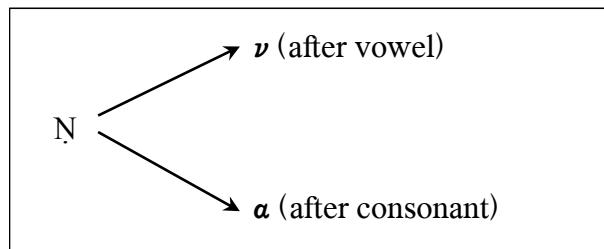
Exercise. Produce the nominative singular of the following nouns. The words $\dot{\eta}$ and $\dot{\sigma}$ following the bases mean “the” in the nominative singular and are used here and elsewhere to identify gender: $\dot{\eta}$ is feminine; $\dot{\sigma}$ is masculine. For future reference, $\tau\acute{o}$ is neuter.

1. $\dot{\alpha}\delta\epsilon\lambda\phi\epsilon\acute{o}/$, $\dot{\sigma}$	9. $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\epsilon\acute{ia}/$, $\dot{\eta}$
2. $\kappa\lambda\acute{e}\pi\tau\alpha/$, $\dot{\sigma}$	10. $\dot{\alpha}\nu\acute{e}\rho/$, $\dot{\sigma}$
3. $\beta\alpha\sigma\iota\lambda\acute{e}\mathfrak{f}/$, $\dot{\sigma}$	11. $\iota\rho\acute{e}\mathfrak{f}/$, $\dot{\sigma}$
4. $\kappa\epsilon\phi\alpha\lambda\acute{a}/$, $\dot{\eta}$	12. $\lambda\acute{o}\gamma\sigma/$, $\dot{\sigma}$
5. $\mu\acute{\eta}\tau\epsilon\rho/$, $\dot{\eta}$	13. $\pi\sigma\iota\eta\tau\acute{a}/$, $\dot{\sigma}$
6. $\mathfrak{o}\acute{\iota}\kappa\sigma/$, $\dot{\sigma}$	14. $\pi\alpha\acute{i}\delta/$, $\dot{\sigma}$
7. $\pi\alpha\tau\acute{e}\rho/$, $\dot{\sigma}$	15. $\pi\lambda\sigma\acute{u}\tau\sigma/$, $\dot{\sigma}$
8. $\phi\upsilon\lambda\alpha\kappa\acute{o}/$, $\dot{\sigma}$	16. $\chi\epsilon\iota\mu\acute{u}\nu/$, $\dot{\sigma}$

13. The Accusative Singular, Feminine and Masculine

There is a single marker of the feminine and masculine accusative singular: /N. The symbol N represents vocalic nu, a sound. It is not a letter in the Greek alphabet. So while we use it in our segmentation, it will not appear in a Greek text.

After a vowel, N is written (and pronounced) *v*. After a consonant, N is written (and pronounced) *a*.



Thus:

<i>ἄνθρωπο/Ν</i> > <i>ἄνθρωπον</i>	person
<i>φυλακό/Ν</i> > <i>φυλακόν</i>	guard
<i>κεφαλά/Ν</i> > <i>κεφαλήν</i>	head

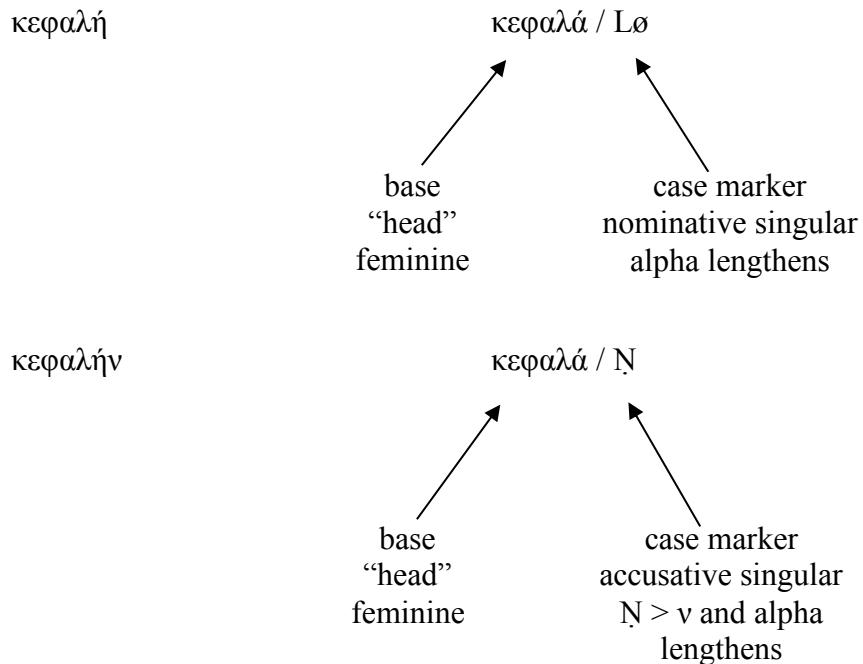
Bases that end in *-a/* lengthen to *-η/* throughout the singular. Thus, *κεφαλά/Ν* > *κεφαλήν*.

<i>νύκτ/Ν</i> > <i>νύκτα</i>	night
<i>πατέρ/Ν</i> > <i>πατέρα</i>	father
<i>βασιλέ_f/Ν</i> > * <i>βασιλέ_fα</i> > <i>βασιλέα</i>	king
<i>ἱρέ_f/Ν</i> > * <i>ἱρέ_fα</i> > <i>ἱρέα</i>	priest

Digamma /w/ is a consonant. Thus, *-f/Ν* > *-fa*. When digamma is **intervocalic**—that is, when it is between two vowels—it drops. Thus, **βασιλέ_fα* > *βασιλέα* and **ἱρέ_fα* > *ἱρέα*. As we will see, the same droppage occurs when σ is intervocalic.

14. Segmentation and Composition: Nouns (and Adjectives)

When analyzing the final form of a noun (or adjective), segment it. Cut the case marker off of the base, identify the case and syntactic function of the marker, define the base, and if applicable explain any sound changes that occurred to produce the final form. For example:



When composing final forms of nouns (and adjectives), use a chart like this:

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	κεφαλά / L∅ > κεφαλή	
Genitive		
Dative		
Accusative	κεφαλά / N > κεφαλήν	

Producing final forms of nouns (and adjectives) in charts like this is called **declining**. Forms that we have not yet learned (the genitive singular, the dative singular, and the plural of all cases) are darkened so that you know what to expect and how to order the forms that you know. The vocative case is fairly rare and, in any case, easy both to recognize and to form. Thus, charts in this book do not include it except when necessary.

Exercise. Produce the nominative and accusative singular forms of the following nouns:

1. *ἱρές*/, ὁ
2. *ἀληθεία*/, ἡ
3. *μήτερ*/, ἡ
4. *λόγο*/, ὁ
5. *θυγατέρ*/, ἡ
6. *ἔκδυσι*/, ὁ
7. *φώρ*/, ὁ
8. *ταμία*/, ὁ
9. *πυραμίδ*/, ἡ
10. *νέκυ*/, ὁ

15. The Definite Article (“The”)

The Greek **definite article**, “the,” is mostly predictable:

Feminine

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ἀ/λ ϕ > ἡ	
Genitive		
Dative		
Accusative	τά/Ν > τήν	

Masculine

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ὁ	
Genitive		
Dative		
Accusative	τό/Ν > τόν	

The definite article is an **adjective**. Adjectives modify nouns and agree with the nouns they modify in case, number, and gender. However, because the markers used to make final forms of nouns and adjectives differ depending on what letters end the bases, the endings of adjectives may not *look* like the endings of the nouns they modify. For instance: *τὸν ἀδελφεόν* (“the brother”) but *τὸν φῶρα* (“the thief”).

From this point forward, when declining nouns (that is, putting final forms in charts), include the definite article, e.g. ὁ βασιλεύς, τὸν βασιλέα. In addition to practicing morphology, this will help you remember the gender of that noun.

Greek does not have an **indefinite article** (“a, an”). When the definite article (“the”) is absent, you may either translate the noun as is or supply an indefinite article:

ἡ κεφαλή: “the head”
ὁ φῶρ: “the thief”

κεφαλή: “head” or “a head”
φῶρ: “thief” or “a thief”

Lexis Reading 1

Verbs (Present Progressive Active Indicative) and Nouns (Nominative and Accusative, Feminine and Masculine)

Vocabulary. For some, the greatest roadblock to learning a foreign language is vocabulary. The sheer quantity of core vocabulary that must be acquired in order to read without interruption is intimidating, but it is necessary to learn. Each reading exercise in this book begins with a list of new vocabulary introduced in it. Items on these lists are organized alphabetically by base. Thus, a prefixed verb like *ἀνακαλέει* is listed under *κ* for *καλε*/, not *α* for *ἀνα*/.

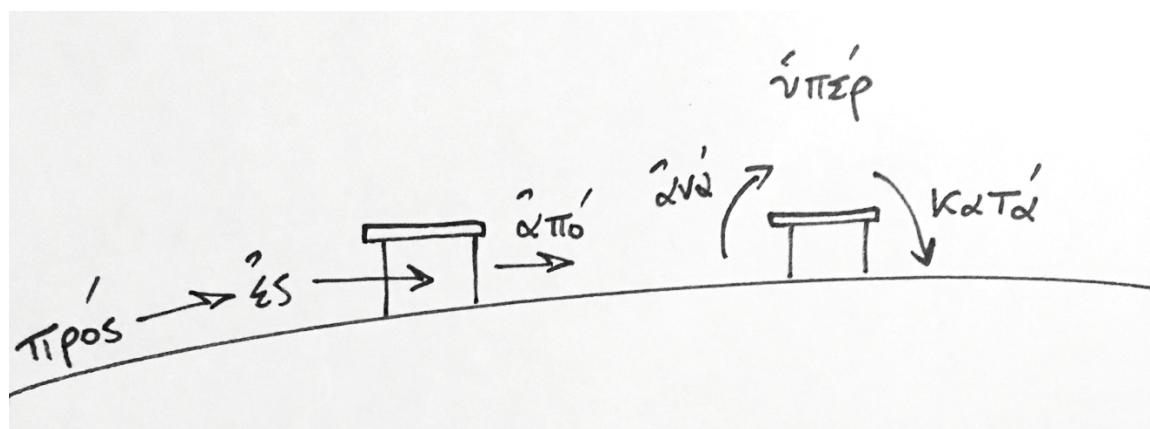
These vocabulary lists provide the bare essentials for translation, nothing more. They are here to help alleviate the frustration of constantly flipping between the reading at hand and the lexicon in the back of the book. Many words have a wider semantic range than a single English word can capture, and sometimes a word's meaning requires discussion. So do not rely on these lists as the be-all-end-all of learning Greek vocabulary.

Preparing Sentences. Always begin by reading a sentence out loud in Greek from left to right. As you read, do your best to identify parts of speech, familiar bases, markers, and so forth. You are unlikely to understand a Greek sentence accurately and completely the first time you read it. This is not the point of this exercise. Instead, familiarize yourself with the whole sentence before you start to dissect it.

In order to translate a Greek sentence, you must know the syntax of each word. That is, you must know how each word functions in the sentence—for instance, that a noun is a subject or direct object. Markers help you determine a word's function. Thus, if a noun has a nominative case marker, it is likely the subject of the verb. After you have read the sentence aloud, segment each word. Markers will help you determine each word's function in the sentence, and the base will tell you its meaning. Only once you have assessed each word in the sentence should you attempt a polished translation. It may take several tries before you have successfully translated a sentence.

Lastly, do not write out translations. Get in the habit of reading *and* translating Greek aloud. Take notes on a separate sheet of paper. Never write notes in the text itself.

ἀγ/	lead, drive	λῦκο/, ὁ	wolf
ἀδελφεό/, ὁ	brother	μεθυ/	get drunk
ἀκον/ (ἀκοφ/)	hear	μήτερ/, ἡ	mother
ἀληθεία/, ἡ	truth	νέκυ/	corpse
ἀνδριάντ/, ὁ	statue	ξυρε/	shave
ἀνέρ/, ὁ	man	οἶκο/, ὁ	house
βασιλέψ/, ὁ	king	οἰκοδομε/	build, construct
γραφ/	write	οἶνο/, ὁ	wine
δε/	bind	ὄνο/, ὁ	donkey
διώρυχ/, ἡ	trench, canal	οὐ, οὐκ	no, not
ἔκδυσι/, ἡ	exit	οὐτε ... οὐτε ...	neither ... nor ...
ἐσ	to, into	παιδ/, ἡ or ὁ	child, slave
ἔσοδο/, ἡ	entrance	παρηϊδ/, ἡ	cheek
ἐχ/	have, hold	πατέρ/, ὁ	father
ἡκ/	arrive	πλούτο/, ὁ	wealth
θησαυρό/, ὁ	treasury	πρός	to, toward
θυγάτερ/, ἡ	daughter	πυραμίδ/, ἡ	cake, pyramid
ἱρέψ/, ὁ	priest	ῥε/	flow
καί	and	ταμία/, ὁ	housekeeper
καλε/	call	ἔπι/τελε/	complete, finish
κεφαλά/, ἡ	head	φερ/	bear, carry
λεγ/	speak, say	φυλακό/, ὁ	guard
λόγο/, ὁ	statement, argument	φώρ/, ὁ	thief
λυ/	loosen, release	χειμών/, ὁ	winter



1 ὁ ταμίης ἔχει θησαυρόν

2 καταδέουσι τὸν ἱρέα κατα/δε/

3 οὐ λέγω τὴν ἀληθείην

4 ἀκούω τὸν λόγον καὶ γράφω

5 οἰκοδομέω οἶκον

6 ὁ βασιλεὺς ἔχει πλοῦτον

7 καταλύει τὸν νέκυν ὁ ἀδελφεός κατα/λυ/

8 ὁ θησαυρὸς ἔσοδον οὐκ ἔχει

9 ὁ θησαυρὸς οὔτε ἔσοδον οὔτε ἔκδυσιν ἔχει

10 ξυρέει ὁ φὼρ τὴν παρηΐδα

11 ῥέει ὁ οἶνος καὶ τὸν φυλακὸν ὑπερμεθύει

12 ὁ ἀνὴρ ἐπιτελέει τὸν οἶκον ἐπι/τελε/

13 καλέονται τὸν ἀνδριάντα “χειμῶνα”

14 ἀνακαλέει ὁ πατὴρ τὸν παῖδα ἀνα/καλε/

15 τὴν κεφαλὴν πρὸς τὴν μητέρα φέρει

16 ἄγουσι τὴν μητέρα πρὸς τὸν βασιλέα

17 τὸν ὄνον ἄγει πρὸς τὸν φυλακόν

18 ἡ διώρυξ ἀπέχει ἀπ/εχ/

19 ἀπάγει ὁ λύκος τὸν ἱρέα ἐς τὴν πυραμίδα ἀπ/αγ/