

PHILIP S. PEEK
Ancient Greek II
A 21st-Century Approach



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Preface

Though the majority of Part II has been completed for a couple of years, the modules on word order caused a considerable delay. Most of what I wrote on word order I threw away. I hope that what remains proves helpful to students.

To the basic principles of Part I, reading not translating, identifying parts of speech, and parsing every word in a sentence has been added the principle of identifying clitics and full words. A clitic, as defined by modern linguists, is a word that cannot stand on its own but requires at least one additional word for the utterance to be complete. Because it requires an object for the utterance to be complete, a preposition is a clitic. Clitics are barred from standing in either first or last position. For example, the clitics $\dot{\eta}$ and $\tau \dot{\alpha}$ require an additional word for their utterance to be complete and, though they can occur in first position, are barred from standing in last position. This additional pillar has been added to assist students in learning how to read with intention and meaning.

I wish to thank again my Greek students, especially Abigail Petersen for her many suggestions and Ethan Riddell for his keen eye in spotting mistakes. I thank Frank Scheppers for his help on word order (any mistakes are mine alone) and James Patterson for his excellent contributions. For his online textbook, follow this link: readingmorphologically.com. I thank Alessandra Tosi and the editorial staff at Open Book Publishers, whose intelligence and kindness I hold close to my heart. Finally, I owe debt and gratitude to my parents, my wife Elaine and my children Zachary, Brandon, and Madeline without whose love and support this book would not exist.

For Teachers

Many of today's students view learning Ancient Greek, Latin, and the living languages as difficult. This perception is valid. At the same time, language is innate and mastery requires more diligence than intelligence. Thus this book series can be taught diligently over one or four semesters, as suits your curricular needs and standards. Note that students begin reading real Greek early in Part I of the series and that Part II offers extended selections that can be read in full or in part. Holding students accountable for reading, identifying parts of speech

and clitics, and parsing will result in their obtaining facility with the language and thereby increase the type two fun they enjoy.

For Students

If you can, read every word of the Ancient Greek and complete all the parsing and identifying clitics exercises. If you are unable to read every word of the Greek, read as much as you can and prioritize completion of all the parsing and identifying clitics exercises. The running vocabulary is present to minimize the time you spend looking up words. Care has been taken to offer you a range of connotative and denotative meanings where possible. Get in the habit of checking your understanding of each passage with the translation in the **Answer Key** without using it as a crutch. Working on Ancient Greek a little each day has better outcomes than cramming in one long session once a week. If you have questions, please contact me.

For Both

To report mistakes and to offer suggestions for improvement, contact me at peekps@bgsu.edu.

Abbreviations and Signs in the Textbook

< is derived from, e.g., οἴσω < φέρω

> is derived into or becomes, e.g., τεμ/ν/ω > τέμνω

acc. = accusative case

adj. = adjective

aor. = aorist tense

c. = circa

dat. = dative case

f. = feminine

fut. = future tense

gen. = genitive case

imp. = imperfect tense

imper. = imperative mood

ind. = indicative mood

indecl. = indeclinable

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inf. = infinitive
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intrans. = intransitive, marking a verb as not taking a direct object

mid. = middle voice

 \mathbf{n} . = noun

nom. = nominative case

opt. = optative mood

part. = participle

pass. = passive voice

perf. = perfect tense

pl. = plural

pluperf. = pluperfect tense

pres. = present tense

subj. = subjunctive mood

trans. = transitive, marking a verb as taking a direct object

voc. = vocative case

Signs in the Greek Texts

Nearly all of the Greek present in Part II is authentic. In a few spots, minor changes have been made and these passages are marked as adapted. In the texts you will encounter these signs.

[...] or {...}: square or wavy brackets enclose words that an editor thinks should be deleted or marked out of place.

<...>: pointy brackets enclose words etc. that an editor has added.

†: An obelus means that one or more of the words are corrupt. Typically, two obeli enclose the words, making them obelized.

Online Resources

Ancient Greek Lexicon

https://logeion.uchicago.edu/

Multi-Language Dictionary

https://www.wiktionary.org/

Vocabulary of the Top 550 Words

https://quizlet.com/latest

https://dashboard.blooket.com/my-sets

https://knowt.com/class/52ezaf/dashboard

Reading Morphologically by James Patterson

In each module you will find entries based on *Gareth Morgan's Lexis* by James F. Patterson.

Gareth Morgan's Lexis teaches students Ancient Greek by using a simplified morphophonemic approach to morphology and a reading approach to syntax. In these thirty entries, you are introduced to both these methods. The goal is to improve your understanding of word formation, your vocabulary, and your ability to read and understand Ancient Greek. A lot of the information in these entries you know already. But the presentation is different and empowering. It will improve your understanding of Ancient Greek and may improve your enjoyment of language in general.

The target dialect of this material is Ionic, spoken on the east coast of the Aegean Sea by authors like Herodotos and Hippokrates. An old form of Ionic also underlies Homeric Greek. Ionic is similar to Attic, the dialect most introductory Greek students learn first. Perhaps the most notable difference is that Ionic prefers not to contract vowels where Attic does. Differences in how the two dialects form words are noted below where relevant.

Read through the technical terms in the list below. If you do not understand something, keep reading. As you work through the *Reading Morphologically* entries, you will see examples of the phenomena present in the technical terms. For more, follow the link: readingmorphologically.com.

Technical Terms

Ablaut. Ablaut refers to a shift in vowel quality or quantity that marks morphological change, as in English "foot" (singular) but "feet" (plural). The shift may be between full grade ε and σ , lengthened grade η and σ , and zero-grade, or the absence of a vowel. One marker of the nominative singular of feminine and masculine nouns is a shift of a base's last vowel to lengthened grade, as in $\dot{\eta} \gamma \varepsilon \mu \dot{\sigma} v > \dot{\eta} \gamma \varepsilon \mu \dot{\omega} v$, leader. This is ablaut.

Alpha Privative. Alpha privative is an α that can be prefixed to a base, creating a word that negates, like "un-," "a-," and "-less" in English: ἄθεον (ἄ/θεο/ν), atheist, godless.

Aspiration refers to the rough breathing in the letters θ (τ), ϕ (π), χ (κ).

Assimilation occurs when one sound becomes more like another sound. For instance, when a labial stop (π, β, ϕ) is followed by a μ , the labial stop assimilates to the μ :

Base. Bases are those letters that make up the unmarked stem. $\beta \alpha /$ is the base that is used to create the marked forms $\beta \alpha / \omega I$ go and $\xi \beta \gamma I$ went.

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Borrowing. A borrowing is a word or word marker taken from another language. For instance, the English suffix /**ize** is borrowed from the Greek verb-making suffix / ζ /.

Cognate refers to two words that share a common ancestor. Ancient Greek oivov shares the same Proto-Indo-European (PIE) root as English "wine".

Consonant Clusters are groups of consonants not broken up by vowels, like the "nts" in the word "consonants." When they are difficult to pronounce, a sound may be inserted for euphony. Usually this is α (for instance *θυγάτρσι > θυγατράσι). However, if the consonant cluster is the combo of two liquids or nasals (namely μ , ρ , λ , or ν), the cluster is instead broken up by δ (for instance *ἄνρα > ἄνδρα).

Consonant Types

Dental Stops (because the tongue is pressed against the front teeth when making the sound): τ , δ , θ

Labial Stops (because the lips compress in making the sound): π , β , ϕ

Velar Stops (because the breath is held briefly on the roof of the mouth): κ, γ, χ

For more consonant types, see Merlin: μ , ρ , λ , ν

Derivative. A word or word marker that is created from another word. For instance, the noun λόγος *speech* is derived from the verb λέγω *I speak*.

Deverbal. The word deverbal refers to nouns and adjectives that are derived from verbs, like "baker" from "bake". Here are some ways to make nouns from verbs in Greek:

Sometimes if the verb has ϵ in the base, you can make a noun by flipping the ϵ to 0, like λ óyo ς speech, statement, from λ éy ω I speak.

/ματ/ can be added to a verb base to make a noun that indicates the result of a verb, like ποίημα (ποιε/ματ/) deed, product, from ποιε/ do, make.

 $/\sigma\iota$ / can be added to a verb base to make a noun that indicates the process of the verb, like ποίησις (ποιε/ $\sigma\iota$ /ς) creation, production, from ποιε/ do, make.

 $/\tau\alpha$ / can be added to a verb base to make indicate that a male agent performs the action of a verb, like **ποιητής** (**ποιε**/**τα**/**ς**) *maker*, from **ποιε**/ *do*, *make*.

Digamma \mathbf{F} is an archaic Greek letter that represented the consonant sound "w". After the letter dropped out of the Greek alphabet, the letter v, normally a vowel, came to stand also for the sound "w". So a word like $\mathbf{β}$ ασιλέ \mathbf{F} \mathbf{c} was spelled $\mathbf{β}$ ασιλε \mathbf{c} $\mathbf{c$

Intervocalic \mathbf{F} drops: $\mathbf{β}$ ασιλέ \mathbf{F} / \mathbf{N} > * $\mathbf{β}$ ασιλέ \mathbf{F} α > $\mathbf{β}$ ασιλέα.

F drops when it is the first letter of a base in Ionic and Attic but is present in archaic Greek and sometimes in Homeric: *Fέργον > ἔργον work (English "work" shares the same PIE root).

Base initial \mathbf{F} sometimes becomes a rough breathing: $\mathbf{F}\dot{\mathbf{v}}\delta\omega\rho > \ddot{\mathbf{v}}\delta\omega\rho$, water (English water shares the same PIE root).

Dissimulation occurs when one letter changes to become different from another. For example, $\theta(\theta\eta\mu\iota) > \tau(\theta\eta\mu\iota)$ by dissimulation. Likewise, dissimulation occurs in the pronunciation of "colonel".

The Double Dental Rule. When two dental stops (τ, δ, θ) are combined, σ is inserted between them. Then the dental stop before the σ drops. For instance, $\dot{\epsilon}/\pi\epsilon\iota\theta/\theta\dot{\eta}/\sigma\alpha\nu$ > *ἐπείθσθησαν > ἐπείσθησαν they were persuaded.

Euphony, or **ease of articulation**, explains why certain sounds change from syllables that are more difficult to pronounce to ones that are easier to pronounce. For instance, α is sometimes added to consonant clusters to make them easier to pronounce.

Geminate Reduction. Sometimes a cluster of two identical consonants, like $\sigma\sigma$, is reduced to one. This is called geminate reduction. For example, with bases that end in -ε σ /, the double sigma of the dative plural is reduced to one: $\ddot{\sigma}\rho\varepsilon\sigma/\sigma\iota > \ddot{\sigma}\rho\varepsilon\sigma\iota > \ddot{\sigma}\rho\varepsilon\sigma\iota$, to or for mountains.

Grassmann's Law observes that Ancient Greek does not permit aspiration on two consecutive syllables. When this occurs, in most cases the first aspirate de-aspirates: *φεφύλακα (φε/φυλακ/α) > πεφύλακα *I have guarded*.

The Lion Rule. Some masculine nouns and adjectives (especially participles) have bases or stems that end in $-ov\tau$ /, like $\lambda\acute{e}ov\tau$ / lion. These form the nominative singular by lengthening the o to ω by ablaut, and τ drops because it cannot end a Greek word. As a result, $\lambda\acute{e}ov\tau$ /L > $\lambda\acute{e}ov$.

Marker. A marker is a unit of inflection added to a base, like "/s" to make an English noun plural or "/ed" to make an English verb past tense. In linguistics, the technical term for "marker" is "morpheme".

Merlin is a mnemonic for remembering the letters μ , ρ , λ , ν , which sometimes follow specific rules of sound change that other consonants do not. The sounds that μ and ν represent are called nasals. The sounds that λ and ρ represent are called liquids.

When two Merlin consonants form a cluster, a δ may be inserted for ease of articulation. For instance, * $\alpha\nu\rho\alpha$ > $\alpha\nu\delta\rho\alpha$, man.

Verb bases that end in Merlin consonants form the future by adding $/\varepsilon$ / rather than the expected $/\sigma$ /. For instance, $\beta\alpha\lambda\dot{\varepsilon}\omega$ ($\beta\alpha\lambda/\varepsilon/\omega$), I will throw.

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Metathesis is a switching of quality or quantity. Quantitative metathesis occurs when two vowels change quantity: πόληος > πόλεως. Phonemic metathesis occurs when sounds switch place, like the nu and yod sounds in *μέλανια (μέλαν/Jα) > μέλαινα dark.

Reduplication occurs when an initial consonant repeats the first consonant of a base, like $\delta \iota / \delta o / (\delta i \delta \omega \mu \iota I \text{ give})$ to mark progressive aspect or $\lambda \epsilon / \lambda \upsilon / (\lambda \epsilon \lambda \upsilon \kappa \alpha I \text{ have freed})$ to mark perfect aspect. **Attic reduplication** occurs when the first syllable repeats: $\dot{o}\lambda / o\lambda / (\ddot{o}\lambda \omega \lambda \alpha I \text{ am destroyed})$.

Sigma σ

Intervocalic σ drops unless it is necessary for the word's form: $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\dot{\epsilon}\sigma/\dot{N} > *\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\alpha > \dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\dot{\epsilon}\alpha$ true.

Base-initial σ often drops, usually becoming a rough breathing: *σέπομαι > ἔπομαι I follow.

Sigma and Merlin Consonants (μ , ρ , λ , ν). In nouns and adjectives, Merlin consonants drop before σ , leaving a gap filled by stretching the previous vowel: $\tau o i \chi o / N \varsigma > \tau o i \chi o \nu \varsigma > \tau o i \chi o \nu \varsigma$ walls. In verbs, σ drops after Merlin consonants, again leaving a gap filled by stretching the previous vowel: $\mathbf{L}/\dot{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\varepsilon\lambda/\sigma/\alpha > \dot{\gamma}\gamma\gamma\varepsilon\lambda\lambda\alpha$ *I announced*.

Sigma, Spurious. Sometimes a sigma appears where you might not expect it to: $\dot{\epsilon}/\tau\epsilon\lambda\epsilon/\theta\eta/\sigma\alpha\nu > \dot{\epsilon}\tau\epsilon\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\theta\eta\sigma\alpha\nu$ they completed.

Verb Markers

Aspect Markers indicate whether a verb is progressive (emphasizing the duration of an action), is aorist (emphasizing the action regardless of duration) or is perfect (completed and still of consequence).

Time Markers indicate whether a verb happened in the past or will happen in the future. The past time is usually marked by a prefix ($\dot{\epsilon}$ / added to a base beginning with a consonant, or if a base begins with a vowel the lengthening of that vowel) and the use of past time personal markers (for instance, |ov|, $|\epsilon c|$, $|\epsilon c|$ etc. instead of $|\omega|$, $|\epsilon c|$, $|\epsilon c|$ etc.). The future is marked by $|\sigma|$ (not to be confused with the sigmatic aorist) or $|\epsilon|$ followed by not-past-time personal markers. A verb's time is present if there is no explicit past or future time marker added.

Personal Markers indicate whether a verb is first, second, or third person, singular or plural (I, we, you, he, she, it, they). Some markers, like $\langle ov, \rangle \langle e c, \rangle$, and $\langle e, \rangle$ are only used for past time verbs. Others, like $\langle \omega, \rangle \langle e c, \rangle \langle e c, \rangle$, and $\langle ov \sigma c, \rangle \langle e c,$

Progressive Aspect Markers include the zero marker $/\emptyset$, yod /J, nu (/v), /vv, /vv, /vv, /vv, /vv, a shift from zero-grade to basic (full) e-grade, reduplication with ι , and the inceptive or iterative $/\sigma \kappa$.

Vowel Gradation. See ablaut.

Vowel Lengthening. Vowels lengthen like so:

The vowels $\bar{\alpha}$, η , $\bar{\iota}$, $\bar{\upsilon}$, and ω are already long and cannot lengthen further.

Vowel Stretching. Vowel stretching occurs when a short vowel becomes long or a diphthong to account for the loss one or more letters. Vowels stretch like so:

Vowel stretching, called "compensatory lengthening" in standard grammars, differs from vowel lengthening both in cause and in form. For instance, vowels may lengthen by ablaut but stretch to compensate for the droppage of a consonant. While \mathbf{o} lengthens to \mathbf{o} , it stretches to \mathbf{o} v.

Vowels, Connecting. Connecting vowels connect bases with case or personal markers. See Vowels, Theme.

Vowels, Theme. Theme vowels are ϵ and o and can lengthen according to ablaut. An **athematic** verb formation means that no theme vowel is present. Another common connecting vowel is α , which is athematic in that it is not ϵ or o.

Word Endings. Greek words can only end in vowels and the consonants v, ρ , ς (ξ , ψ), and ι and v when representing the consonants "y" and "w." If a Greek word does not end in a vowel or in one of these consonants, then the consonant drops until a vowel or one of these consonants is reached.

Special Characters

/ marks the ends of bases and beginning of markers.

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N indicates that an α or ν will result: α follows a consonant and ν follows a vowel.

ø zero marker indicates that nothing is to be added.

L indicates that a vowel lengthens, as in $\dot{\eta} \gamma \epsilon \mu \dot{o} \nu / L > \dot{\eta} \gamma \epsilon \mu \dot{\omega} \nu$ leader.

J is called "yod" and is not part of the ancient Greek alphabet. It is a symbol used to represent the sound y. Sometimes it appears in Greek as iota, ι , but often it combines with an adjacent consonant to produce an unexpected sound, like ζ .

Yod J can serve as a progressive aspect marker. In this instance it is typically used to create verbs from nouns, indicating "being in the state" of whatever the noun means or "acting" as whatever the noun means. For instance, θαυμάζω I am amazed, derives from the noun $θα\~νμα$ amazement.

When **yod J** /y/ follows the dental stops τ or δ , the combination typically produced the sound ζ /zd/. For example, $\theta \alpha \nu \mu \alpha \tau$ /J/ > $\theta \alpha \nu \mu \alpha \zeta$ / be amazed, be in a state of amazement.

When **yod J**/**y**/ follows the velar stops κ or γ , the combination typically produced the sound $\sigma\sigma$: $\phi \nu \lambda \alpha \kappa / J / > \phi \nu \lambda \alpha \sigma \sigma / guard$, act as a guard. In Attic, $\sigma \sigma$ becomes $\tau \tau$, so Ionic $\phi \nu \lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = \phi \nu \lambda \dot{\alpha} \tau \tau \omega$ in Attic.

Yod J/y/ changes place with **nu** ν : $\beta \alpha / \nu / J/\omega > \beta \alpha i \nu \omega I$ go (nu suffix and yod with phonemic metathesis).

Yod J assimilates to λ : $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda/J/\omega > \dot{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda\lambda\omega$.