

ΔΗΜΗΤΡΗΣ ΘΑΝΑΣΟΥΛΑΣ

ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΑ ΣΤΗΝ ΠΡΑΞΗ

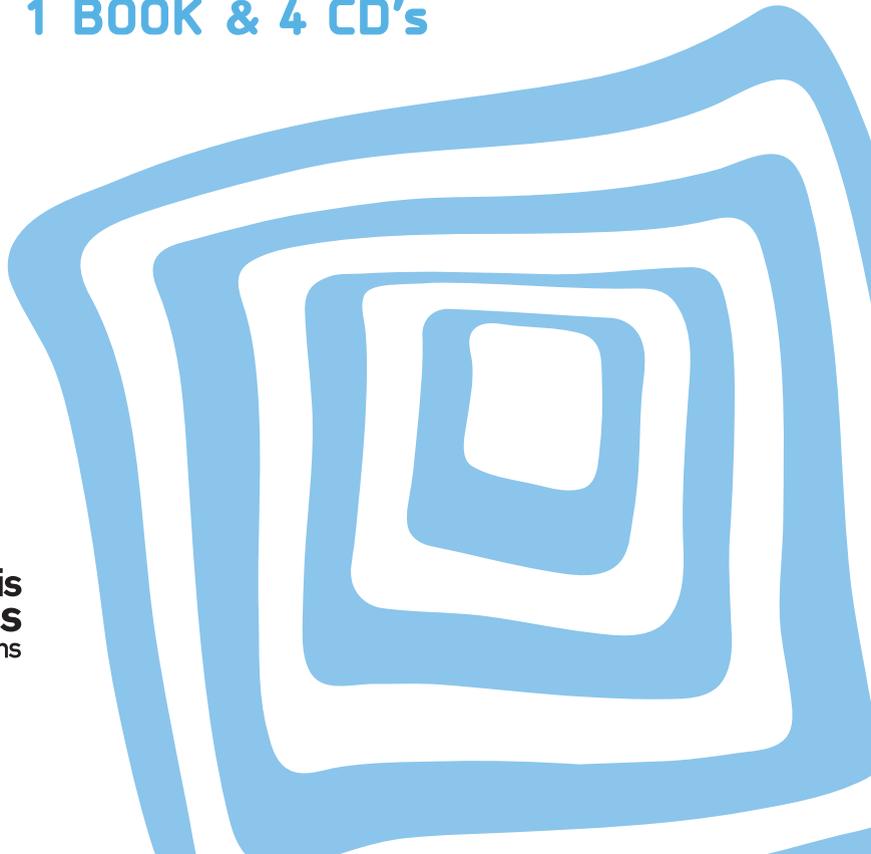
ΠΛΗΡΕΣ ΟΠΤΙΚΟΑΚΟΥΣΤΙΚΟ ΣΥΣΤΗΜΑ

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GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GREEK LANGUAGE

history and development

Modern Greek derives from the Koine via the local varieties that presumably arose during the Byzantine period and is the mother tongue of the inhabitants of Greece and of the Greek population of the island of Cyprus. Before the population exchange in 1923, there were Greek-speaking communities in Turkey (Pontus and Cappadocia). Greek is also the language of the Greek communities outside Greece, as in the United States, Canada and Australia. There are Greek-speaking enclaves in Calabria (southern Italy) and in Ukraine. Two main varieties of the language may be distinguished: the local dialects, which may differ from one another considerably, and the Standard Modern Greek (Greek: Koine Neohelleniki, “Common Modern Greek”).

MODERN GREEK ALPHABET					
Greek letters					
capital	lower case	combinations	name	equivalents	approximate pronunciation
Α	α, α*		álfá	a	bother
		αι		e	bed
		αϊ		ai	life
		αυ		av/af	lava**, waft
		αϋ		ai	life
Β	β		víta	v	van
Γ	γ		ghámma	gh before α, ο, ου, ω, and consonants other than γ, ξ, and χ; y before αι, ε, ει, η, ι, οι, υ, υι; n before γ, ξ, and χ	wit, yet, sing

		γκ		initial, g; medial, ng	go, finger
Δ	δ, δ *		dhélta	dh; d between v and p	then, wondrous
E	ε		épsilon	e	bet
		ει		i	even
		εϊ		eï	day
		ευ		ev/ef	revel, left
Z	ζ		zíta	z	zone
H	η		íta	i	fig
		ηυ		iv/if	even, leaf
Θ	θ, θ		thíta	th	thin
I	ι		ióta	i	even
K	κ		káppa	k	kin, cook
Λ	λ		lámbdha	l	lily
M	μ		mi	m	maim
		μπ		initial, b; medial, mb	bake, ambush
N	ν		ni	n	not
		ντ		initial, d; medial, nd	dog, fender
		ντζ		ntz	chintz
Ξ	ξ		xi	x	ax
O	ο		ómikron	o	saw
		οι		i	even
		οϊ		oi	boy
		ου		u	food
Π	π		pi	p	pin
P	ρ		ro	r	rose
Σ	σ		síigma	s	sand
T	τ		taf	t	tie
Υ	υ		ípsilon	i initially and between consonants	even
		υι		i	even
Φ	φ, φ		fí	f	fifty
X	χ		khi	kh	Ger. Buch
Ψ	ψ		psi	ps	perhaps
Ω	ω		oméga	o	bone

Consonants: β, γ, δ, ζ, θ, κ, λ, μ, ν, ξ, π, ρ, σ (-ς), τ, φ, χ, ψ, μπ, ντ, γκ

Vowels: α, ε, η, ι, ο, υ, ω, ου, αι, ει, οι, υι

local dialects

Of the local dialects, Tsakonian, spoken in certain mountain villages in eastern Peloponnese, is quite aberrant and shows evidence of descent from the ancient Doric Dialect (e.g., it often has an /a/ sound for the early Greek /ā/ that went to /ē/ in Attic, later to /i/). The Asia Minor dialects also display archaic features (e.g., Pontic /e/ for ancient /ē/ in certain words). It is not certain whether southern Italian Greek represents a survival from ancient times or was reimported there during the Byzantine period. Apart from these peripheral varieties, the modern dialects may be grouped for practical purposes as follows:

1. Peloponnesian, differing but slightly from the dialects of the Ionian isles, forms the basis of standard Demotic. It shows very few specifically local innovations in its phonology, although its verb morphology is less conservative than that of the island dialects.
2. Northern dialects, spoken on the mainland north of Attica, in northern Euboea, and on the islands of the northern Aegean, are characterized by their loss of unstressed /i/ and /u/ and the raising of unstressed /e/ and /o/ sounds to /i/ and /u/. Thus, standard *kotópulo* ‘chicken’ becomes *kutóplu*, *émine* ‘he stayed’ becomes *émni*. They also mark certain first and second person plural past tense verb forms with *-an* (*ímastan* ‘we were,’ Athenian *ímaste*) and use the accusative for indirect object pronouns where the southern dialects have the genitive (*na se pó* ‘let me tell you,’ standard *na su pó*).
3. Old Athenian was spoken in Athens itself until 1833, when Athens became the capital of the modern state, and in Aegina until early in the 20th century; a few elderly speakers still remain in Megara and in the Kími district of central Euboea. Its salient feature is the replacement of the Byzantine /ü/ sound (from ancient /ü/, /oi/) by /u/ rather than normal /i/; it changes the /k/ sound before the vowels /e/ and /i/ to /ts/ and fails to contract the vowels /i/ and /e/ to a /y/ sound before vowels (ancient *sykéa* becomes *sutséa* ‘fig tree,’ standard *sikyá*).
4. Cretan softens /k/ to a /č/ sound (as in church), /kh/ to /š/ (as in she) before /i/ and /e/, and /y/ to /ž/ (as the s in pleasure) – e.g., *če* ‘and,’ *šéri* ‘hand,’ *žéros* ‘old man,’ standard *ke*, *khéri*, *yéros*.
5. The southeastern dialects of Cyprus, Rhodes, Chios, and other islands in the area also soften /k/ to /č/, drop voiced fricative consonants between vowels,

and retain the ancient final -n (láin ‘oil,’ standard ládhi). They also retain the contrast between long and short consonants (fila ‘kiss [imperative]’ but filla ‘leaves’). As is done in Cretan and Old Athenian, they add gh to the suffix -ev- that occurs at the end of many verb stems (dhulévgho ‘I work,’ standard dhulévo).

standard modern greek

With the establishment of the new Greek state in 1830, the Peloponnesian dialect was adopted as the oral language, and this developed into the Demotic variety. The absence of a written form of Demotic, however, led to the creation of Katharevousa, a “pure,” rather artificially archaizing form that was intended to purge the language of foreign elements and to systematize its morphology (inevitably on the Classical Greek model). This Modern Greek “diglossia” continued well into the 20th century, with specific areas of use for the two varieties; e.g., Demotic became the vehicle for poetry, whereas Katharevousa remained the language of administration.

The diglossia problem was finally resolved in 1976, when Demotic was declared the official language of Greece. Meanwhile, the two varieties had naturally converged, and the emerging Standard Modern Greek Language can be well characterized as resulting from the merger of the Demotic variety with Katharevousa features. Thus, in the phonology, some clearly Demotic changes, under Katharevousa influence, either were suppressed or developed alternations or even contrasts. Thus, for the change of i to y before another vowel, is found jimnásio ‘high school’ (instead of the expected Demotic *jimnásyo), the alternants sxolyó and sxolíó ‘school,’ or the contrast yós ‘sun’ but íós ‘virus.’ The assimilation of a nasal to a fricative is confined to the morphology; e.g., the verbal form krinthik-e (third person-passive-singular aorist ‘he was judged’) is kríthike with nasal loss, while in a word such as pénthos ‘mourning’ the nasal is retained. Further, the historical tendency to differentiate gender by declension class (e.g., by restricting the declension -os to masculine) was inhibited, and numerous feminine nouns in -os are reintroduced into the language (e.g., odhós ‘street,’ leofóros ‘avenue’), some in parallel with Demotic alternants, as in jatrós or jatrína ‘doctor (feminine).’

The interaction between Demotic and Katharevousa is even stronger in the vocabulary. A Katharevousa form may be used in parallel with a Demotic form in a specialized role; for example, édhra (from the Ancient Greek word for ‘chair’

means ‘professorial chair,’ while the Demotic *karékla* remains in use for the article of furniture.

This manner of interaction causes the Greek speaker to experience these differences not as belonging to two different varieties of the language but rather as stylistic variations of one and the same system.

LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS

phonology

Modern Greek has five distinct vowel sounds (/i/, /e/, /a/, /o/, /u/) and the glide /y/, most of which are indicated in Greek orthography in more than one way. The consonant sounds are:

Voiceless stops	p	t	k	
Voiced stops	b	d	g	
Voiceless fricatives	f	th	s	kh
Voiced fricatives	v	dh	z	gh
Nasals	m	n		
Liquids	l		r	

Historically, /f th kh/ derive from ancient aspirated consonants, and the voiced fricatives /v dh gh/ from voiced stops /b d g/. Modern /b d g/ usually result from the voicing of /p t k/ after nasals; thus Ancient Greek *pentē* ‘five’ becomes *pénde*. They also occur at the beginning of words in place of ancient nasal + stop sequences (*boró* ‘I am able’ from *emporó*). Other important consonant cluster changes linking Ancient and Modern Greek include:

1. Ancient clusters, whether of stops or of aspirates, become fricative + stop; for example, *hepta* ‘seven’ becomes *eftá*, (*e*)*khthes* ‘yesterday’ becomes (*e*)*khtés*.
2. Double consonants are simplified except in the southeast, thus *thalassa* ‘sea’ becomes *thálasa*.
3. Nasals assimilate to the following fricatives; thus *nymphē* ‘bride’ becomes *níffi* and then (except in the southeast dialects) *nífi*.
4. The liquid /l/ may be replaced with /r/ before consonants; for example, *adelphos* ‘brother’ becomes *adherfós*.
5. Before a vowel, /i/ and /e/ change to /y/; thus *paidia* ‘boys’ becomes *pedhyá*, *mēlea* ‘apple tree’ becomes *milyá*. Except for the simplification of double consonants, these historical changes do not hold for words of Katharevousa origin. With the changes produced in the vocalic system in Koine, the ancient pitch

distinction was lost and stress became dynamic (as in English), its place being indicated orthographically by a uniform stress mark; but it remained confined to the three last syllables of a word (the trisyllabic, or window, constraint). Stress placement is largely predictable, depending for nominals on their declensional class marker (e.g., *ánthropos* ‘man’ versus *polítis* ‘citizen’ [-o versus -i class]), but for the verb on their tense (e.g., *katháriz-a* ‘I cleaned’ versus *katharíz-o* ‘I clean’ [past versus nonpast tense]).

Further stress shift may occur owing to the trisyllabic constraint, as in *máthi-ma* gives *mathímata* ‘lesson’ (nominative singular or plural), or as a morphological relic of an earlier long *ō*-vowel in the genitive plural—e.g., *mathímata* becomes *mathimáton* ‘lesson’ (nominative or genitive plural). The addition of clitics (words that are treated in pronunciation as forming a part of a neighbouring word and that are often unaccented or contracted) may provoke further stressing in the host + clitic unit if the trisyllabic constraint is violated, as in *máthi-ma*: but *máthi-ma-mu* becomes *máthi-má mu* ‘lesson’ becomes ‘my lesson.’ In some dialects, especially in the north, the tendency to a rhizotonic (stable) stressing extends to the verb, leading either to violations of the trisyllabic constraint or to an additional stress (as in the case of clitics)—e.g., *tarázumasti* or *tarázumásti* ‘we are shaken’ (standard *tarazómaste*).

morphology and syntax

Much of the inflectional apparatus of the ancient language is retained in Modern Greek. Nouns may be singular or plural—the dual is lost—and all dialects distinguish a nominative (subject) case and accusative (object) case. A noun modifying a second noun is expressed by the genitive case, except in the north, where a prepositional phrase is usually preferred. The indirect object is also expressed by the genitive case (or by the preposition *se* ‘to,’ which governs the accusative, as do all prepositions). Thus:

<i>o yatrós</i>	<i>ipe tin istoria</i>	<i>ston adherfó tis dhaskálas</i>
The doctor	told the story	to the brother of the teacher
(nominative)	(accusative)	(genitive)

The ancient categorization of nouns into masculine, feminine, and neuter survives intact, and adjectives agree in gender, number, and case with their nouns, as do the articles (*o* ‘the,’ *enas* ‘a’). In general, pronouns exhibit the same categories as nouns, but the relative pronoun *pu* is invariant, its relation to its own clause being expressed when necessary by a personal pronoun in the appropriate case:

i yinéka pu tin ídhe to korítsi ‘the woman pu her saw the girl’ (i.e., ‘the woman whom the girl saw’).

The verb is inflected for mood (indicative, subjunctive, imperative), aspect (perfective, imperfective), voice (active, passive), tense (present, past), and person (first, second, and third, singular and plural). The future is expressed by a particle *tha* (from earlier *thé[o] na* ‘[I] want to’) followed by a finite verb – e.g., *tha grápho* ‘I will write.’ Formally, the finite forms of the verb (those with personal endings) consist of a stem + (optionally) the perfective aspect marker (-s- in active, -th- in passive) + personal ending (indicating person, tense, mood, voice). Past forms are prefixed by *e-* (the “augment”), usually lost in mainland dialects when unstressed. There are also two nonfinite forms, an indeclinable present active participle in *-ondas* (*ghráfondas* ‘writing’), and a past passive one in *-ménos* (*kurazménos* ‘tired’).

Aspectual differences play a crucial role. Roughly, the perfective marker indicates completed, momentary action; its absence signifies an action viewed as incomplete, continuous, or repeated. Thus the imperfective imperative *ghráphe* might mean ‘start writing!’ or ‘write regularly!’ while *ghrápse* means rather ‘write down! (on a particular occasion).’ Compare also *tha ghrápho* ‘I’ll be writing’ but *tha ghrápo* ‘I’ll write (once).’ The difference is sometimes represented lexically in English: *ákuye* ‘he listened’ and *ákuse* ‘he heard.’ The passive forms are largely confined to certain verbs active in meaning like *érkhome* ‘I come,’ *fováme* ‘I am afraid,’ and reciprocal usages (*filyóndusan* ‘they were kissing’).

The most common form of derivation is by suffixation; derivation by prefixation is limited mainly to verbs. On the other hand, compound formation is rich. Three morphological types of compounds can be distinguished, as reflected also in their stressing – thus, stem + stem compounds – e.g., *palyófilos* ‘old friend’ (o is the compound vowel) or *khortofághos* ‘vegetarian’; stem + word compounds – e.g., *palyofilos* ‘lousy friend’ (compare *filos* ‘friend’); and the newly borrowed formation, word + word compounds – e.g., *pedhí thávma* as English ‘boy wonder.’ There is no infinitive; ancient constructions involving it are usually replaced by *na* (from ancient *hína* ‘so that’) + subjunctive. Thus *thélo na ghrápo* ‘I want to write,’ *borí na ghrápsi* ‘he can write.’ Subordinate statement is introduced by *óti* or *pos* (*léi óti févghi* ‘he says that he is leaving’). Unlike English, Greek (because of its inflectional system) shows flexible word order even in the simplest sentences. Further, as in Italian, the subject of a sentence may be omitted.

vocabulary

The vast majority of Demotic words are inherited from Ancient Greek, although quite often with changed meaning – e.g., *filó* ‘I kiss’ (originally ‘love’), *trógho* ‘I eat’ (from ‘nibble’), *kóri* ‘daughter’ (from ‘girl’). Many others represent unattested combinations of ancient roots and affixes; others enter Demotic via Katharévoussa: *musío* ‘museum,’ *stikhío* ‘element’ (but inherited *stikhyó* ‘ghost’), *ekteló* ‘I execute.’ In addition, there are more than 2,000 words in common use drawn from Italian and Turkish (accounting for about a third each), and from Latin, French, and, increasingly, English. The Latin, Italian, and Turkish elements (mostly nouns) acquire Greek inflections (from Italian *síghuros* ‘sure,’ *servitóros* ‘servant,’ from Turkish *zóri* ‘force,’ *khasápis* ‘butcher’), while more recent loans from French and English remain unintegrated (*spor* ‘sport,’ *bar* ‘bar,’ *asansér* ‘elevator,’ *futból* ‘football,’ *kompyúter* ‘computer,’ *ténis* ‘tennis’).

Pronunciation

With a view to guiding the learner on the correct pronunciation of whole words, as well as individual sounds within one-word boundaries, it is imperative to use a standard yardstick, that is the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). Look at the IPA symbols below corresponding to Greek consonants and vowels:

- α (άλφα) /ʌ/ ‘γάπη’ (love) as in ‘love’ /lʌv/
- β (βήτα) /v/ ‘βάζο’ (vase) as in ‘veil’ /veil/
- γ (γάμα) /w/ ‘γάμος’ (wedding / marriage) as in ‘wedding’ /wedɪŋ/
- δ (δέλτα) /ð/ ‘δέμα’ (parcel) as in ‘the’ /ðə/
- ε (έψιλον) /e/ ‘έρχομαι’ (come) as in ‘elf’ /elf/
- ζ (ζήτα) /z/ ‘ζωή’ (life) as in ‘zest’ /zest/
- η (ήτα) /i:/ ‘ήλιος’ (sun) as in ‘eel’ /i:l/
- θ (θήτα) /θ/ ‘θέλω’ (want) as in ‘theory’ /θiəri/
- ι (γιότα) /ɪ/ ‘ιερός’ (sacred) as in ‘lip’ /lɪp/
- κ (κάππα) /k/ ‘καλός’ (good / kind) as in ‘coat’ /kəʊt/
- λ (λάμδα) /l/ ‘λαός’ (people) as in ‘lie’ /lai/
- μ (μι) /m/ ‘μητέρα’ (mother) as in ‘mother’ /mʌðə/
- ν (νι) /n/ ‘νονά’ (godmother) as in ‘neck’ /nek/
- ξ (ξι) /ks/ ‘ξύλο’ (wood) as in ‘taxi’ /tæksɪ/
- ο (όμικρον) /ɔ:/ ‘όργανο’ (instrument) as in ‘awful’ /ɔ:fl/
- π (πι) /p/ ‘πάπια’ (duck) as in ‘pat’ /pæt/
- ρ (ρο) /r/ ‘ρολόι’ (watch / clock) as in ‘rain’ /rein/
- σ (σίγμα) /s/ ‘σχολείο’ (school) as in ‘school’ /sku:l/

- τ (ταυ) /t/ ‘ταβάνι’ (ceiling) as in ‘toast’ /təʊst/
- υ (ύψιλον) /i:/ ‘ύφος’ (style) as in ‘ceiling’ /si:lɪŋ/
- φ (φι) /f/ ‘φακός’ (lens / torch) as in ‘fake’ /feɪk/
- χ (χι) /h/ ‘χαλί’ (carpet) as in ‘hell’ /hel/
- ψ (ψι) /ps/ ‘ψάρι’ (fish) as in ‘corpse’ /kɔ:ps/
- ω (ωμέγα) /ɔ:/ ‘ώρα’ (hour) as in ‘horse’ /hɔ:s/

There are more IPA symbols that will help us render phonetic approximations of the Greek sounds. Look at the ones below:

- ʃ as in ‘shook’ /ʃʊk/ (found only in Greek dialects)
- tʃ as in ‘chain’ /tʃeɪn/ (found only in Greek dialects)
- ʒ as in ‘leisure’ /leʒə/ (found only in Greek dialects)
- dʒ as in ‘danger’ /deɪndʒə/ (rarely found in Greek) (Its equivalent in Greek is /tz/ as in ‘τζατζίκι’ /tʒatzi:ki/)
- j as in ‘yes’ /jes/ γελάω (smile)
- ŋ as in ‘singing’ /sɪŋɪŋ/ χρονιά (year)
- ɜ: as in ‘err’ /ɜ:/ (rarely found in Greek)
- ʊ as in ‘put’ πουλάω (sell)
- u: as in ‘rule’ πού; (where?)
- æ as in ‘axe’ (not found in Greek)
- eɪ as in ‘play’ χρέη (debts)
- aɪ as in ‘rye’ έχω φάει (I have eaten)
- aʊ as in ‘now’ (found only in Greek dialects)
- oɪ as in ‘toy’ σόι (kin)
- ɪə as in ‘ear’ ιερός (sacred)
- eə as in ‘where’ (not found in Greek)
- ʊə as in ‘pure’ (rarely found in Greek)

In Greek, there are clusters of vowels, called diphthongs, which closely approximate the English sounds given next to them.

- αι /ɜ:/ καταιγίδα storm
- οι, ει, υι /i:/ οιώνος omen, εισιτήριο ticket, υιός son
- ου /u:/ ούλο gum
- αυ /ʌv/ ογ /ʌf/ αυγό (also written αβγό) egg, αυτός he
- ευ /ef/ ορ /ev/ ευτυχία happiness, ευάλωτος vulnerable

Stress

Every Greek word of two or more syllables has stress on one of its vowels. The vowel that carries the stress is pronounced at a higher pitch and is slightly longer and louder; compare the English word ‘polish’, where the stress falls on the first vowel, with ‘police’, where the stress falls on the second.

The stress of a word may occur either on the last syllable, the last but one syllable, or the third syllable from the end: αγαπητός (likeable), ταχυδρόμος (postman), άγριος (wild). Among the words that inflect, only the adjectives retain the stress on the same syllable in all their inflected forms.

In some classes of nouns, the stress may move one or two syllables to the right, e.g. μάθημα (lesson), singular genitive μαθήματος, plural genitive μαθημάτων; δάσκαλος (teacher), sing genitive δασκάλου, pl. gen. δασκάλων; θάλασσα (sea), pl. gen. θαλασσών.

In some verbs, the stress may move to the left in past tenses: σπουδάζω (I am studying), imperfect σπούδαζα (I was studying). When the inflectional ending creates three unstressed syllables at the end of the verb form, the original stress moves one syllable to the right: δέχομαι (I accept), δεχόμαστε (we accept).

Intonation

The intonation associated with statements is similar to that of English. There are, however, differences in the intonation of questions.

The main intonation contours are as follows:

- In yes/no questions, the pitch of the voice rises and then slightly falls to a mid level at the end of the utterance:

1 2 3 2

1 Θα τον δεις τον Νίκο αύριο;

Will you see Nick tomorrow?

- An abrupt rise and fall conveys surprise:

2 3 2

2 Ήρθε κι ο Γιάννης;

So, John came too?

- To show surprise and ask for more information, the pitch rises and remains high at the end of the utterance:

3 3 4

3 Θα δεις αύριο τον Νίκο!;

What! You are going to see Nick tomorrow!?

- To express doubt the pitch falls at the end of an utterance and then immediately rises:

1 2 2 1 2

4 Ίσως να πάρει εκείνο το δάνειο.

(S)he may get that loan.

- A steady falling intonation at the end of the utterance indicates conclusion:

1 1 2 1

5 Και ζήσανε αυτοί καλά κι εμείς καλύτερα.

And they lived happily ever after.

The intonation peak (the word pronounced with the highest pitch) of a sentence normally falls on the last stressed word in the verb phrase because this word represents informationally the most important item:

6 Η Άννα θα φέρει μαζί της τον Νίκο.

Ann will be bringing Nick with her.

7 Η Άννα θα φύγει απόψε.

Ann will be leaving tonight.

The words τον Νίκο and απόψε are the most significant elements of these utterances in terms of information and carry the main stress of the utterance.

It is possible to place emphasis on one of the elements in a sentence when you want to express surprise or to convey contrast.

8 Τον Νίκο θα φέρει μαζί της η Άννα.

Nick is the person Ann will be bringing with her (not somebody else).

9 Η Άννα θα φέρει μαζί της τον Νίκο.

Ann will be bringing Nick (not somebody else).

Punctuation

Greek generally follows the same rules as English regarding punctuation. We first list the chief punctuation marks, then we confine ourselves to the main differences between Greek and English usage.

The chief punctuation marks are:

- full stop (UK) or period (USA) (τελεία): .
 - comma (κόμμα): ,
 - raised point (άνω τελεία): ´
 - colon (διπλή τελεία / άνω και κάτω τελεία): :
 - question mark (ερωτηματικό): ;
 - exclamation mark (θαυμαστικό): !
 - parentheses or brackets (παρενθέσεις): ()
- The full stop is used chiefly
- to indicate the end of a sentence
 - to indicate an abbreviation: π.χ. ‘e.g.’, p.X. ‘B.C.’
 - to indicate clock times: 13.55
 - to divide large numbers into groups of three figures; thus Greek 2.764.786 corresponds to British and US 2,764,786.

The comma is used to separate clauses or phrases within a sentence. It is also used to separate an integer from a decimal, where English uses the full stop; thus Greek 76,34 corresponds to British and American 76.34. In addition, the comma is written in the pronoun and determiner ό,τι (without a space after the comma) to distinguish it from the complementiser ότι.

The raised point corresponds to the English semicolon, i.e. to a break less significant than one indicated by a full stop, but more significant than one indicated by a comma.

The colon is used especially to introduce a list of items and direct speech.

The question mark looks the same as the English semicolon, which the foreign learner must be careful not to confuse. It is used at the end of a sentence expressing a direct question.

The exclamation mark is used at the end of a sentence expressing an exclamation or consisting of a vocative noun phrase, or a command or prohibition, e.g. Νίκο! Πήγαινε εκεί! ‘Nick! Go there!’

Parentheses are used to isolate a word or phrase that is interpolated into a phrase, clause or sentence.

Moreover, the hyphen (ενωτικό) is used to join words together (μια επίσκεψη-αστραπή ‘a quick visit’), while the dash (παύλα) is used, sometimes with a space either side, to separate phrases, e.g.:

- ▶ Η Γιάννα θα έρθει-ελπίζω!-αύριο.
Yianna will come-I hope!-tomorrow.

Quote marks (εισαγωγικά) are used to contain direct speech, as in:

- ▶ “Δυστυχώς,” της είπα, “ήρθες αργά.”

“Unfortunately,” I told her, “you’ve come too late.”

They are also used for titles and for quoting any piece of language word for word:

- ▶ οι “Τάιμς”

The Times

- ▶ ο λεγόμενος “τρίτος δρόμος”

the so-called ‘third way’

Finally, suspension points (αποσιωπητικά) are often used to indicate either an incomplete sentence or thought, or to lead up to a word or phrase that is intended to come as a surprise to the reader:

- ▶ Δεν θα ήταν καλύτερο να...;

Wouldn’t it be nice to...?

- ▶ Μακάρι να μπορούσα να φύγω...

I wish I could go away...

- ▶ Καθώς περίμενα το λεωφορείο, στάθηκε δίπλα μου η...Αντζελίνα Τζολί!

As I was waiting for the bus, next to me stood...Angelina Jolie!

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DIALOGUE | ΔΙΑΛΟΓΟΣ
 Introducing ourselves | Συστάσεις

- Κυρία Νικολάου: **Χαίρω πολύ. Ονομάζομαι** Δέσποινα Νικολάου.
 Κύριος Αποστόλου: Χαίρω πολύ, κυρία μου. **Το όνομά μου είναι** Γεώργιος Αποστόλου.
 Κυρία Νικολάου: Αυτός είναι ο σύζυγός μου, Ανδρέας Νικολάου.
 Κύριος Αποστόλου: **Χάρηκα.**
 Κύριος Νικολάου: Κι εγώ! Είστε ώρα εδώ;
 Κύριος Αποστόλου: Όχι. Περιμένω τη γυναίκα μου. Α, έρχεται! **Να σας συστήσω.** Ο κύριος και η κυρία Νικολάου, η κυρία Ντίνα Αποστόλου.
 Κυρία Αποστόλου: Χαίρω πολύ. Πώς είστε;
 Κύριος και
 Κυρία Νικολάου: Πολύ καλά, εσείς;
 Κυρία Αποστόλου: Μια χαρά! Ας πάμε όμως. Είναι αργά. Μας περιμένουν.
 Κύριος και
 Κυρία Αποστόλου: Σωστά! Πάμε!

The words and phrases in bold are used when introducing ourselves. There are some other ways, which can be found in the Table below. Study them carefully, along with their meaning and pronunciation.

WORD/PHRASE	MEANING	PRONUNCIATION
Χαίρομαι πάρα πολύ.	(I am very) pleased to meet you.	/herəmə pərə pəli/
Να συστηθώ.	Let me introduce myself.	/nə sistiθə/
Θα με θυμάστε.	You must remember me.	/θə mə θimastə/
Επιτρέψτε μου να σας συστήσω...	Allow me to introduce you to...	/epitrepstə mu nə sas sistisə/
Έχουμε γνωριστεί. Είμαι ο/η...	We have met before. I am...	/ehumə wɒrɪsti ɪme ɔ: i:
Πόσο χαίρομαι που σας γνωρίζω!	How pleased/glad I am to meet you/make your acquaintance!	/pɒsə herəmə pu sas wɒrɪzɔ/

Now, read through the following dialogue containing some of the phrases in the table.

- Άννα: Θα με θυμάστε. Είμαι η Άννα Βουλγαράκη, παλιά φοιτήτριά σας.
- Καθηγητής Παπαδόπουλος: Φυσικά! Πώς είστε;
- Άννα: Μια χαρά! Εσείς; Επιτρέψτε μου να σας συστήσω τον ξάδελφό μου, Νίκο.
- Καθηγητής Παπαδόπουλος: Χαίρομαι πάρα πολύ.
- Νίκος: Πόσο χαίρομαι που σας γνωρίζω! Να συστηθώ. Νίκος Αλεξόπουλος. Έχω ένα βιβλίο σας. Το διαβάζω με ενδιαφέρον.
- Καθηγητής Παπαδόπουλος: Να είστε καλά!

vocabulary | ρεξιθόγιο

Χαίρω πολύ /heɔ pɔli/ = I am glad/pleased to meet you / How do you do?

Ονομάζομαι /ɔnɔmlɔzɔmɔ/ = My name is... (*literally* I am called/named...)

Το όνομά μου είναι /tɔ ɔnɔml mɔ me / = My name is...

σύζυγος /sɪzɪwɔs/ = spouse (husband or wife)

χάρηκα /hɔrikɔ/ = (past tense of χαίρομαι) I am glad / pleased to meet you. (When introducing ourselves, it has the same meaning as Χαίρω πολύ).

Είστε ώρα εδώ; /iste ɔra eðɔ/ = Have you been here for long? Have you been waiting here for long?

περιμένω /perimeno/ = wait

γυναίκα /jɪnekɔ/ = wife / woman

έρχεται (third person singular of έρχομαι) /erhete/ = he/she is coming

Να σας συστήσω /nɔ sɔs sistisɔ/ = Let me introduce you to...

κύριος /ki: rɪɔs/ = Mr. / Sir

κυρία /kiri: ɔ/ = Mrs. / Madam

Πώς είστε; /pɔ: s iste / = How are you?

Πολύ καλά, εσείς; /pɔli kɔlɔ esi: s/ = Fine, thanks. How about you?

Μια χαρά! /mjɔ hɔrɔ/ = Fine! Great!

Ας πάμε / Πάμε /ɔs pɔme/ = Let's go.

Είναι αργά /ɪne ɔrɔɔ/ = It's late.

Μας περιμένουν /mɔs perimeno/ = They are waiting for us.

Σωστά /sɔstɔ/ = That's right / You're right.

παλιά (feminine of adj παλιός) /paliɹ/ = old / former
φοιτήτρια (fem. of n φοιτητής) /fiti: triɹ/ = university student
Φυσικά! /fisikɹ/ = Of course! / Sure!

έχω /ehɔ/ = have

διαβάζω /ðjɹɹɹɹɹ/ = read

με ενδιαφέρον /me enðjɹferɹn/ = with interest

Να είστε καλά! (salutation) /nɹ iste kɹɹɹ/ = I hope you are well / All the best!

GRAMMAR | ΓΡΑΜΜΑΤΙΚΗ

I the definite article | το οριστικό άρθρο (ο, η, το)

As we said earlier on, the Greek language has two numbers, Singular (Ενικός) and Plural (Πληθυντικός). Like English, it has a definite article used to define or specify a noun or proper name. Study the examples below:

- ο αστυνομικός the policeman (masculine gender, αρσενικό γένος)
- η γυναίκα the woman (feminine gender, θηλυκό γένος)
- το παιδί the child (neuter gender, ουδέτερο γένος)
- ο Γιάννης John
- η Μαρία Maria

NOTE/ΣΗΜΕΙΩΣΗ

Unlike English, Greek uses the definite article with proper names.

Take a look at some frequently used nouns in Greek. The definite article shows their gender:

NOUN	MEANING	PRONUNCIATION
ο καθηγητής	the teacher / the professor	/ɔ kɹθijitɹs/
ο μαθητής	the student	/ɔ mɹθitɹs/
ο πατέρας	the father	/ɔ pɹtɹɹɹs/
ο λογαριασμός	the bill / the account	/ɔ lɔwɹjɹsmɔs/
η καταιγίδα	the storm	/i: kɹtejidɹ/
η φασαρία	the noise	/i: fɹsɹriɹ/
η λύση	the solution	/i: li:si/

NOUN	MEANING	PRONUNCIATION
το σπίτι	the house / the home	/to spiti/
το δέντρο	the tree	/to dentro/
το ποτάμι	the river	/to potami/

It is important to note that the Greek language has an inflectional system, where-by nouns and verbs inflect or come in various forms. In Linguistics, we call de-clension the inflection of nouns, proper nouns, adjectives and articles, whereas the term inflection refers only to verbs. Here, we will use the word ‘inflection’ to refer to both categories. As far as nouns, proper nouns, adjectives and articles are concerned, there are four cases (πτώσεις): Nominative (ονομαστική), which de-notes the subject of a sentence or clause; genitive (γενική), which denotes pos-session; accusative (αιτιατική), which denotes the object of a sentence or clause; and vocative (κλητική), which is used for calling or addressing someone or some-thing.

INFLECTION OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE - ΚΛΙΣΗ ΟΡΙΣΤΙΚΟΥ ΑΡΘΡΟΥ			
CASES ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Nominative Ονομαστική	ο οι	η οι	το τα
Genitive Γενική	του των	της των	του των
Accusative Αιτιατική	τον τους	την τις	το τα
Vocative Κλητική	-	-	-

Examples | Παραδείγματα

- ▶ Ο μαθητής διαβάζει.
The student is reading / studying.
- ▶ Το βιβλίο του μαθητή.
The student's book.
- ▶ Θέλω τον μαθητή.
I want the student.
- ▶ Μαθητή (or μαθητά), συγχαρητήρια!
Student, congratulations!

- ▶ Οι μαθήτριες διαβάζουν.
The students are reading / studying.
- ▶ Τα βιβλία των μαθητριών.
The students' books.
- ▶ Ο αριθμός των βιβλίων είναι μεγάλος.
The number of books is big.

II nouns | τα ουσιαστικά

Nouns, too, have two numbers and three genders. For example:

ο πύργος the tower
 οι πύργοι the towers
 η κοπέλα the girl
 οι κοπέλες the girls
 το κρεβάτι the bed
 τα κρεβάτια the beds

Broadly speaking, singular endings are -ος or -ης, -α or -η and -ο or -ι, while plural endings are -οι or -ες, -ες and -α. There are exceptions to this rule, as we will see in later chapters, but for the time being these endings apply.

Let's consider the following table of nouns in both singular and plural:

SINGULAR ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	PLURAL ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ	MEANING ΣΗΜΑΣΙΑ
ο γιατρός	οι γιατροί	doctor
ο καθηγητής	οι καθηγητές	teacher / professor
η μητέρα	οι μητέρες	mother
η αρρώστια	οι αρρώστιες	illness / disease
η λύπη	οι λύπες	sorrow / sadness
το χαμόγελο	τα χαμόγελα	smile
το τυρί	τα τυριά	cheese
το λεωφορείο	τα λεωφορεία	bus
το τρένο	τα τρένα	train
το πλοίο	τα πλοία	boat / ship

Now, according to the rules above, it is easy to inflect these nouns. Take a look at the tables below:

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	ο γιατρός	οι γιατροί
Γενική	του γιατρού	των γιατρών
Αιτιατική	τον γιατρό	τους γιατρούς
Κλητική	γιατρέ	(γιατροί)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	ο καθηγητής	οι καθηγητές
Γενική	του καθηγητή	των καθηγητών
Αιτιατική	τον καθηγητή	τους καθηγητές
Κλητική	καθηγητά	(καθηγητές)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	η μητέρα	οι μητέρες
Γενική	της μητέρας	των μητέρων
Αιτιατική	την μητέρα	τις μητέρες
Κλητική	μητέρα	(μητέρες)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	η λύπη	οι λύπες
Γενική	της λύπης	-
Αιτιατική	την λύπη	τις λύπες
Κλητική	λύπη	-

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	το χαμόγελο	τα χαμόγελα
Γενική	του χαμόγελου	(των χαμόγελων)
Αιτιατική	το χαμόγελο	τα χαμόγελα
Κλητική	(χαμόγελο)	(χαμόγελα)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	το τυρί	τα τυριά
Γενική	του τυριού	των τυριών
Αιτιατική	το τυρί	τα τυριά
Κλητική	(τυρί)	(τυριά)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	το λεωφορείο	τα λεωφορεία
Γενική	του λεωφορείου	των λεωφορείων
Αιτιατική	το λεωφορείο	τα λεωφορεία
Κλητική	(λεωφορείο)	(λεωφορεία)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	το τρένο	τα τρένα
Γενική	του τρένου	των τρένων
Αιτιατική	το τρένο	τα τρένα
Κλητική	(τρένο)	(τρένα)

ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ	ΕΝΙΚΟΣ	ΠΛΗΘΥΝΤΙΚΟΣ
Ονομαστική	το πλοίο	τα πλοία
Γενική	του πλοίου	των πλοίων
Αιτιατική	το πλοίο	τα πλοία
Κλητική	(πλοίο)	(πλοία)