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GREEK is the only certain representative of the branch of I[ndo-]E[uropean] commonly known as Greek (also Hellenic); the status of ancient Macedonian as a possible immediate sister to Greek is unclear because of its limited attestation. Speakers of Greek have lived for approximately four thousand years in the southern part of the Balkan area in southeast Europe; they first arrived there, according to most accounts, in waves of migration from the northeast, early in the second millennium BCE. For general reference, see Meillet 1920, Palmer 1980, Joseph 1987. On Ancient Greek, consult Blass & Debrunner 1896, Smyth 1920, Schwyzer 1939, Schwyzer & Debrunner 1950. On Medieval and Modern Greek, see Thumb 1895, Costas 1936, Mirambel 1959, Householder et al. 1964, Browning 1983, Mackridge 1985, Joseph & Philippaki-Warburton 1987.

→ Horrocks 1997

The geographic spread of Greek has in all periods encompassed more territory than the southern Balkans, extending well beyond the modern political boundaries of Greece. In ancient times, Greek speakers colonized the entire eastern Mediterranean, with centers in southern Italy, Asia Minor, and Cyprus; later, conquests and trade expeditions placed Greek speakers throughout the Middle East, including Alexandria, and in the Black Sea area, including the Ukraine. In modern times, Greek has spread to North America, Britain, and Australia; in these areas, Greek-speaking communities form a modern 'Hellenic diaspora'. ~~In the late 1980s~~ there were close to ~~twelve~~ million speakers of Greek—nearly ~~ten~~ million in Greece itself. [*For details on varieties of Greek, see the Language List at the end of this article.*]

→ Holton, Mackridge & Philippaki-Warburton 1997, Horrocks 1997

→ At the close of the 20th century ~~thirteen~~ eleven

Though forming its own IE branch, Greek shares certain characteristics with Armenian, and more distantly with Indo-Iranian. These include such morphosyntactic features as an overt past-tense prefix (the 'augment', reconstructible as **e-*), and the negator **mē*; there are also some lexical parallels, especially with Armenian. More recently, in the past thousand years, Greek has come to share several structural features with the neighboring Balkan languages [*q.v.*]; these areal similarities, presumably resulting from language contact, constitute overlays on features which Greek shares with other IE languages through their common linguistic inheritance.

1. Periodization. Greek is attested virtually continuously, with very few significant breaks, from approximately 1400 BCE to the present. During this 3,500-year period, it occurs in several varieties—the result not only of diachronic differentiation, but also of dialect diversity at each stage in its development.

Four major periods of development can be recognized, defined partly by external political and historical factors, and partly by purely linguistic ones. These stages are

discussed below, together with an indication of the range of dialect differentiation and the type of attestation available for each period.

ANCIENT GREEK (ca. 1400–300 BCE) includes Mycenaean (ca. 1400–1200 BCE), the Greek of the Homeric epics (ca. 800 BCE), and that of the Classical period (ca. 600–300 BCE). Mycenaean is the earliest attested form of Greek; it was revealed through the efforts of Michael Ventris and John Chadwick in the early 1950s, when they deciphered the Linear B syllabic script of clay tablets found in the late 19th century at Minoan and Mycenaean sites in Crete and on the Greek mainland. It is indisputably an early variety of Greek, but seems not to be the direct ancestor of any later attested dialects; its exact place within the ancient dialect picture is still somewhat controversial. Homeric is the language of the *Iliad,* the *Odyssey*, and the *Homeric Hymns*; it is basically Ionic, but shows an admixture of other dialectal elements, most notably Aeolic. Moreover, it contains remarkable archaisms, including phraseological and thematic parallels with oral traditions found elsewhere in IE (e.g. in the *Rigveda*). [*See* Stylistic Reconstruction.] Classical Greek is known mainly in its Attic/Ionic variety, through the writings of philosophers such as Plato, historians such as Herodotus and Thucydides, playwrights such as Aeschylus, Euripides, Sophocles, and Aristophanes, and numerous other ancient authors. It also survives in thousands of inscriptions from Athens, the political and cultural center of ancient Greece. In fact, it presents a broad diversity of regional dialects. Besides Attic/Ionic, these include Aeolic (comprising Thessalian, Boeotian, and Lesbian), Arcado-Cyprian, and West Greek (Northwest Greek and Doric); these are known through a wealth of inscriptions, and through some literary works (e.g. Aeolic through the works of Sappho of Lesbos).

HELLENISTIC GREEK (ca. 300 BCE to 300 CE) comprises the Greek of the Septuagint and the New Testament, of the non-literary papyri, and of works by authors of historical, scientific, grammatical, religious, philosophical, and satirical material—including Polybius (2nd c. BCE), Dionysius Thrax (2nd c. BCE), Epictetus (early 2nd c. CE), and Lucian (late 2nd c. CE). Greek in this period underwent great expansion with the conquests of Alexander the Great. In a somewhat altered and relatively uniform variety—based mainly on the ancient Attic/Ionic dialect, and known as the KOINÉ (Ancient *hē koinḗ diálektos* 'the common dialect')—it came to be used as a lingua franca across the eastern Mediterranean and Middle East. This Koiné served as the basis for most of the dialects of Middle and Modern Greek.

MIDDLE GREEK (ca. 300–1650 CE) comprises Byzantine Greek (ca. 300–1100) and Medieval Greek (ca. CE 1100–1650). The geographic spread of Greek in this period shrank somewhat from its Hellenistic extent; but Asia Minor and the Black Sea area, including Constantinople (the center of Byzantine culture), remained strongly Greek-speaking, and pockets of Greek speakers continued elsewhere in the East. During the Medieval

period, Greek assumed most completely its current Balkan structural character, and the modern dialects began to take their characteristic forms. Religious and historical writings, mainly in a consciously archaizing variety of the language (see sec. 2 below), provide glimpses of colloquial Greek in this period; after the 12th century, colloquial Medieval Greek is the medium for a flourishing literature of poetry (e.g. by Theodoros Prodromos, mid-12th c.), romances (some translations of medieval European models, others of native Greek origin), histories (e.g. the *Chronicle of Morea*, ca. 1300), and drama (including several from the Cretan 'renaissance' of the 16th–17th centuries).

MODERN GREEK (ca. 1650 to the present) has witnessed few significant changes from the form of the language in the Medieval period, though at this stage the 'language question' (see sec. 2) has emerged most prominently. The modern standard language, as spoken in Athens and throughout urban Greece, is based historically on the southern dialect of the Peloponnesus (see sec. 4.1 for more on the modern dialects). Texts on all topics and in all genres are available, including such world-renowned literature as the works of Nikos Kazantzakis, Konstantine Kavafis, and the Nobel laureates George Seferis and Odysseus Elytis.

2. Diglossia. One facet of the social setting for Greek deserves special mention, since it has pervaded so much of Greek language use over the centuries; this is the degree to which a distinction between 'high' and 'low' varieties has been institutionalized. To be sure, similar distinctions are found in all speech communities; but what is striking about the Greek situation is its extent, and its culmination in what has been described as a classic instance of a DIGLOSSIC community.

In ancient times, a distinction between literary and colloquial is observable in the difference between the Greek of the great classical works, and that of informal inscriptions, e.g. many of those found in the Athenian *agorá* 'marketplace'. In postclassical times, a similar distinction emerges in comparison of literary works with the non-literary papyri of Hellenistic Egypt, which show numerous hypercorrections and outright mistakes in attempts to approximate Classical Attic style.

Later, many Byzantine and Medieval writers (especially those involved in more learned pursuits) wrote in a consciously archaizing variety, which emulated Classical Attic usage—even as the colloquial language, through natural processes of linguistic evolution from its Koiné basis, was developing along an entirely different path. Thus a well-developed stylistic rift emerged; it was maintained, partly in association with genre (e.g. colloquial love poetry vs. learned religious documents), and partly with situation (e.g. learned usage in formal contexts).

In the 1820s, when a Greek nation-state was founded after the war of liberation from Ottoman rule, Greek leaders wanted a national language as a symbol of unity. They faced the question of which variety of the language

to choose: the archaizing, puristic Greek (also called *katharévousa* 'purified'), which evoked a connection with the glory of ancient Greece; or the colloquial variety (also called 'Demotic', from Greek *dēmotikós* 'popular, of the people'), which emerged naturally from earlier spoken forms. This situation led to the politicization of the high vs. low distinction; the two main linguistic 'camps' became associated with different political stances (Katharevousa advocates being generally viewed as conservative, Demotic adherents as progressive); ultimately, there was functional polarization of the different varieties, resulting in true diglossia. The high variety took on most official and formalized functions during much of the 19th and 20th centuries, with more mundane functions left to the low variety. In this period, as a result, much linguistic, scholarly, and political discourse and energy focused on this 'language question': the debate over the merits and uses of the different varieties. ~~As of the 1980s, the official position favors Demotic Greek~~ the emerging standard language ~~is~~ basically Demotic, with an admixture of Katharevousa.

3. Writing systems. Several different writing systems have been used for Greek over the centuries: the Mycenaean Greek Linear B syllabic script; the somewhat similar syllabary of ancient Cyprian inscriptions; and even the Arabic and Hebrew alphabets, which were used occasionally by Greeks (e.g. in Asia Minor) in the Medieval period. However, the alphabetic system adapted by the Greeks from a North Semitic source (traditionally said to be Phoenician) is by far the most common and best known system for writing Greek. This alphabet provided a relatively close, one-to-one correspondence between graphemes and phonemes for Ancient Greek; however, some long vowel phonemes are not uniquely represented, and some consonant clusters have distinct graphemes. The fit is less good for Medieval and Modern Greek, in which some new oppositions are represented secondarily by digraphs. Distinctive marks for the three ancient pitch accents were introduced only in Hellenistic times by the Alexandrian grammarians, and a shift to a single stress accent in Middle Greek left the orthography richer than necessary; ~~a recent~~ official reform has replaced the threefold graphic accentual system with a single mark. The Greek alphabet, with its ancient and current phonetics, is given in Table 1; diphthongs, consonantal digraphs, and diacritics are shown in Table 2.

insert table 1

4. A panchronic view of structure. To outline the major structural features of Greek, it is most appropriate to focus on the Classical and Modern languages; in general, the changes which characterize the differences between these had begun by the Hellenistic period, though they were not complete generally until Middle Greek. Moreover, Medieval and Modern Greek differ minimally. This discussion therefore provides not only a structural sketch of Greek at these two widely separated

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After 1976, when the official language was declared to be Demotic Greek, H has come to be but elements

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periods, but also an indication of the major changes the language has undergone.

4.1. ***Phonology.*** The presentation of the alphabet above gives a good idea of the phonological systems of Cl.Gk. and Mod.Gk. respectively. At both stages, relatively balanced consonant and vowel systems are to be found.

In Cl.Gk. there was a set of voiced plain stops, voiceless plain stops, and voiceless aspirated stops (*b d g, p t k, pʰ tʰ kʰ*); a dental fricative *s* (with allophone [z] before voiced consonants), and a glottal fricative *h*; and the sonorants *r* (with a voiceless allophone initially), *l m n* (with the allophone [ŋ] before velars). The semivowels [j] and [w] occurred only as offglides in diphthongs—though both occurred in Mycenaean in other positions, and [w] occurs outside of Attic/Ionic in Classical times.

Mod.Gk. retains the voiceless plain stops as such; but early Post-Classical changes have ~~changed~~ voiced stops to voiced fricatives (*v ð γ*), and aspirated stops to voiceless fricatives (*f θ χ*). In addition, the modern language has voiced stops *b d g*, which resulted from earlier clusters of nasal + stop; e.g., ancient *entrépomai* 'I feel misgivings about' and *endúnō* 'I put on (clothes)' yielded, with regular vowel changes, modern *drépome* 'I feel ashamed' and *díno* 'I dress (someone)'. Another source of voiced stops is borrowings, e.g. *bakáli*s 'grocer' from Turkish *bakkal, dús* 'shower' from French *douche,* etc. In addition, [tˢ] and [dᶻ] were added in Middle Greek—mainly through sporadic affrications of earlier *k* and *t* before front vowels, but also through dialectal and foreign borrowings. Mod.Gk. retains the sonorants, though without the voiceless allophone of *r*; and [j] has reappeared, as a variant of unaccented *i* adjacent to vowels, and of *g* before front vowels. Finally, Mod.Gk. maintains earlier *s*, and *z* is now also a phoneme.

The vowels and diphthongs present a somewhat more complicated picture. Classical Attic/Ionic had the inventory shown in Table 3. Gaps in the short diphthong inventory (lacking [ej] or [ow]) were caused by the pre-Classical sound changes [ej] → [e:] and [ow] → [o:]. The long diphthongs were generally rare; relatively early in the Classical period, those with [j] lost their offglide, to merge with corresponding long monophthongs.

insert table 3

By contrast, Mod.Gk. has a simple five-vowel system, with the short monophthongs *i e a o u*. This system arose through the raising of [e:] to [i:], the loss of distinctive length, the unrounding (after the 10th century) of [y] to [i], and various developments with the diphthongs. The last included the monophthongization of [aj] to [e], and of [yj] and [oj] to [i] (through a stage of [y]), as well as the consonantalization of the offglide in [ew] and [aw] to [v] before voiced segments, and to [f] before voiceless ones. Mod.Gk. has some diphthong-like sequences of various origin, e.g. borrowings (e.g. *bói* 'stature' from Turkish) or optional stress-shifts (*vój θisa* 'I helped' from

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voíθisa); however, the analysis of these as distinctive diphthongs is controversial.

Phonologically, the ancient dialects differed from one another in several respects. One was the distribution of semivowels: [j] and especially [w] occurred more freely in Mycenaean, Doric, and Aeolic than in Attic/Ionic. More significant variation is found in the outcome of the Common Gk. labiovelar stops, which are found intact in Mycenaean; labial reflexes occur in Aeolic (mostly) while dental reflexes occur elsewhere (e.g. Lesbian *pémpe* 'five' versus Attic/Ionic *pénte,* from **penkʷe*). Clusters involving obstruents plus semivowels were treated variously, e.g. **t* + *j* → [tt] in Attic and Boeotian, but [ss] in Ionic, Arcadian, and most of Doric. Clusters of sonorant + **s* developed into geminates in Aeolic, but show compensatory lengthening elsewhere. Major dialectal differences are also found in the vowel system; thus Attic/Ionic raised and fronted Common Gk. **a:* to [æ:] and ultimately to [e:], and fronted **u(:)* to [y(:)].

As for the modern dialects, the mostly rural dialects in the north differ from the standard language primarily in deleting most unstressed high vowels and raising unstressed mid vowels. Palatalizations (especially [tʃ] for [k] before front vowels) characterize dialects of the southeast (including many of the Aegean islands and Cyprus), and of Crete.

The accentual system deserves special mention. Cl.Gk. had three distinctive pitch accents: high (known as 'acute'), low ('grave'), and contour ('circumflex'). The placement and type of accent were distinctive, as shown by such pairs as *oíkoi* 'at home' vs. *oîkoi* 'houses', and *timâ* 'two honors' vs. *tímā* '(you) honor!'. However, some aspects of accent placement and realization were predictable: thus circumflex accent could only appear on a long ultima—or, with a short ultima, on a long penultimate syllable. Moreover, accent placement in finite verb forms and certain declined forms of nouns was 'recessive': it occurred as far from the end of the word as possible, though it was limited to one of the last three syllables of a word, and was subject to mora-based restrictions (e.g. accent on the penultimate or ultima with a long ultima). Accordingly, if the length of the final syllable changed during inflection, accent placement in recessively accented forms also changed—e.g. *komízō* 'I provide for', with penultimate accent because of the long ultima, vs. *ekómisa* 'I provided for', with antepenultimate accent because of the short ultima.

Mod.Gk., by contrast, has only a single stress accent, the result of a late Hellenistic/early Middle Gk. change; however, the placement of the stress corresponds largely to the placement of the earlier high pitch (acute or circumflex accent) in a word. Since length distinctions were lost, the Mod.Gk. equivalent of the Three Mora Law is a 'three syllable law'. However, analogical levelings have led to stable stress in many paradigms that earlier had mobile accentuation. Mod.Gk. accent is still distinctive, as shown by such pairs as *kírios* 'master', *kiríos* 'chiefly'.

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4.2. *Morphology.* Greek has always been a generally fusional, inflectional language, marking most important grammatical distinctions with affixes that simultaneously encode several grammatical features (e.g. [-o:] for 1sg. non-past indicative active). In Middle Greek, many analytic formations arose to replace earlier synthetic ones (e.g., the future tense, 1st and 3rd person imperatives, or comparative and superlative adjectives); but even Mod.Gk. can be said to be basically of the same typological variety as the classical language. Greek has a relatively large number of inflectional categories, so that the overall set of distinct forms for a given nominal or verbal stem is extremely high; consequently, no attempt is made here to list the forms themselves (which are available in all standard grammars), and instead only the categories are given.

Several categories were relevant for the nominal system (nouns, adjectives, and pronouns). Cl.Gk. had five cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, vocative), three numbers (singular, dual, plural), and three gender classes (traditionally called masculine, feminine, and neuter). By contrast, Mod.Gk. has four cases (the dative in its indirect object function has given way to the genitive or to prepositional periphrasis, and in its prepositional object use to the accusative), two numbers (singular and plural), and the same three gender classes.

The realization of these categories in Cl.Gk. depended, for nouns and adjectives, on phonologically determined inflectional classes, with different inflections for consonant stems (including *i-* and *u*-stems), *o*-stems, and *a:*-stems. In Mod.Gk., the assignment of nominal inflectional classes is largely based on gender, not on phonological shape. Thus, whereas the Cl.Gk. masc. consonant stem noun *patḗr* 'father' and the fem. consonant stem *mḗtēr* 'mother' had similar inflectional patterns (e.g. acc. sg. *patér-a, mētér-a,* gen. sg. *patr-ós, mētr-ós*), in Mod.Gk. the patterns differ (e.g., nom. sg. *patéra-s, mitéra-Ø*, gen. sg. *patéra-Ø, mitéra-s*).

The verbal system of Cl.Gk. showed greater richness in morphological categories than did the nominal system. Three persons were inflectionally relevant, as were three numbers (singular, dual, and plural)—though the combination of 1st person and dual was not generally realized. Person and number markings served as a morphological indicator of finiteness, which was also marked by recessive accent (see sec. 4.1). The non-finite forms included several participles and infinitives—which differed according to the voice, aspect, and tense categories described below—as well as verbal adjectives denoting obligation and capability.

Within the category of voice, a three-way distinction was made among the active, the passive, and the 'middle', which indicated reflexive or subject-oriented actions (e.g. active *bouleúō* 'I take counsel' vs. middle *bouleúomai* 'I take counsel with myself, deliberate'). Passive voice was formally distinct from middle only in the future and simple past tenses. Cl.Gk. also had four verbal moods—indicative, subjunctive, imperative, and optative—all of

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which occurred in the various voice and temporal/aspectual categories.

Finally, Cl.Gk. is generally said to have had seven 'tenses': present, future, present perfect, pluperfect, future perfect, imperfect past, and simple past (the 'aorist'); these categories actually encoded not only purely temporal distinctions of present, past, and future, but also aspectual distinctions of continuous (imperfective), completed (perfective), and punctual action (aorist). Only the past time forms show the aspectual distinction in its entirety (imperfect, pluperfect, and aorist); but it is realized partially in the present and the future, and the non-finite forms also participate.

Mod.Gk. has most of the same categorial complexities, though its expression of the categories is often analytic rather than synthetic. The dual number has been lost outright; the system of non-finite forms has been considerably reduced, with loss of the infinitive—a Balkan feature—and only a few participles remaining. The distinctions in mood, voice, tense, and aspect generally remain, though the optative mood is expressed lexically rather than inflectionally, and many of the modern realizations differ from their ancient counterparts. The middle and passive formations are now identical in all tenses; and the subjunctive, future, and non-2nd person imperatives are all expressed analytically, or with prefixes and suffixes instead of only suffixes, depending on certain analytic assumptions (the existence of a formal category of subjunctive is somewhat controversial). Moreover, while the same tenses and aspects are found as in Cl.Gk., the modern perfect system continues a Middle Gk. innovative formation that arose after the loss of the ancient perfect in Hellenistic times; and the future continues a Middle Gk. periphrasis with the verb 'want' (another Balkan feature). Finally, the language has extended the continuous/punctual aspectual distinction into the future tense, and has created a conditional formation with the future marker and the formal past tense.

4.3. ***Syntax.*** The syntax of Greek can scarcely be treated in brief, but a few features are particularly salient. Cl.Gk. presented an elaborate system of verbal complementation. The non-finite verbal forms, i.e. infinitives and participles, were used as complements to matrix predicates, as were the finite forms, which in different combinations of tense and mood with various subordinating conjunctions signaled semantic distinctions which were often quite subtle. Complex restrictions on sequence of tense and mood played a role in the formation of subordinate clauses. By contrast, Mod.Gk. has only finite complementation, having gradually done away with the infinitive (see above). This Balkan feature is in keeping with other movements in the language toward analytic expression, e.g. prepositionally marked indirect objects.

Greek at all stages has allowed word order that is fairly free from a syntactic standpoint, though different orders had stylistic functions. Cl.Gk. had a well-developed system of pronominal and sentence-adverbial clitics in Mod.Gk., weak pronominal forms—possibly true affixes

(i.e. 'bound words')

at this stage—remain alongside the strong forms. Finally, at all stages after Homeric, the definite article could be used to substantivize any lexical or phrasal category, giving considerable flexibility of expression.

4.4. *Lexicon.* The Greek lexicon has always been a mix of inherited elements and borrowings. Some Mod.Gk. words are virtually unchanged (except in accentual realization) from Cl.Gk., e.g. *ánemos* 'wind'; others are still recognizably like their ancient sources despite shifts in pronunciation, morphology, and meaning, e.g. *γráfo* 'I write' (Cl.Gk. *gráphō*), *ánθropos* 'human being' (Cl.Gk. *ánthrōpos*).

Greek has always been receptive to borrowings—including those from earlier stages of Greek itself, in the form of learned terminology and conscious 'high' archaisms. In ancient times, borrowings from Anatolian and Semitic languages can be discerned—as well as presumed loans from apparently indigenous speech communities, the so-called 'Pre-Greeks' or 'Pelasgians', who lived in Greece before the coming of the Greek tribes proper. In Hellenistic times and into Middle Greek, Greek absorbed numerous loan words from Latin; in the Byzantine and early Medieval periods, some Slavic and Albanian words entered the language. In the late Medieval period, many Turkish words (and through Turkish, words of Arabic origin) took a place in the Greek lexicon, and several continue in use today. Mod.Gk. has seen numerous lexical contributions from French, especially in the early 20th century, and more recently from English. Except for the more recent loans from European languages, most borrowings have been assimilated morphologically, and to a lesser extent phonologically, to existing Greek patterns.

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TABLE 1. *The Greek Alphabet*

Capital/Small letter	Ancient Pronunciation/ Transliteration	Modern Pronunciation/ Transliteration
A/α	[a]/a	[a]/a
B/β	[b]/b	[v]/v
Γ/γ	[g]/g	[j] (__i,e)/y, j [γ] (elsewhere)/g(h), γ
Δ/δ	[d]/d	[ð]/d(h), δ
E/ε	[ɛ]/e	[ɛ]/e
Z/ζ	[zd]/z	[z]/z
H/η	[ɛ:]/e:, ē	[i]/i
Θ/θ	[t^h]/th	[θ]/th, θ
I/ι	[i]/i	[i]/i
K/κ	[k]/k, c	[k]/k
Λ/λ	[l]/l	[l]/l
M/μ	[m]/m	[m]/m
N/ν	[n]/n	[n]/n
Ξ/ξ	[ks]/x	[ks]/ ks, x (as in *fox*)
O/o	[o]/o	[o]/o
Π/π	[p]/p	[p]/p
P/ρ	[r]/r	[r]/r
Σ/σ (ς__#)	[s]/s	[s]/s
T/τ	[t]/t	[t]/t
Y/υ	[y]/y, u	[i]/i
Φ/φ	[p^h]/ph	[f]/f
X/χ	[k^h]/ch, kh	[x]/h, x
Ψ/ψ	[ps]/ps	[ps]/ps
Ω/ω	[ɔ:]/o:, ō	[o]/o

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TABLE 2. *Greek Diphthongs, Consonantal Digraphs, and Diacritics*
(— means symbol not used in the period.)

Symbol	Ancient Pronunciation/ Transliteration	Modern Pronunciation/ Transliteration
αι	[aj]/ai	[ε]/e
αυ	[aw]/au	[av](— + voice)/av [af](— − voice)/af
ει	[e:]/ei	[i]/i
ευ	[ew]/eu	[ev](— + voice)/ev [ef](— − voice)/ef
οι	[oj]/oi	[i]/i
ου	[o:]/ou	[u]/u
υι	[yj]/yi, ui	[i]/i
γ/—γ, χ, ξ	[ŋ]/n(—g, kh, ks)	[ŋ]/n(—g, h, ks)
γκ	[ŋk]/nk	[(ŋ)g] medially/(n)g [g] initially/g
μβ, μπ	[mb, mp]/mb, mp	[(m)b] medially/(m)b [b] initially/b
νδ, ντ	[nd, nt]/nd, nt	[(n)d] medially/(n)d [d] initially/d
τζ	——	[d^z]/dz
τσ	——	[t^s]/ts
‘	[h]/h	——
’	ø (= absence of h)	——
´	high pitch/ ´	primary stress/ ´
`	low pitch/ `	——
^, ¯	contour pitch/ ^, ¯	——

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TABLE 3. *Classical Attic/Ionic Greek Vowels and Diphthongs*

i i: y y: e e: o o: ɛ: ɔ: a a:	yj e:j ew e:w oj o:j aj a:j aw a:w

LANGUAGE LIST

Greek, Ancient: spoken and written in ancient times in Greece and in colonized areas from southern Italy to the Black Sea.

Greek, Hellenistic: used in Greece, and as the lingua franca of the Middle East, from the time of Alexander the Great. The variety known as the Koiné was the language of the New Testament.

Greek, Middle: the language of the Byzantine Empire and of medieval Greece, and the predecessor of Modern Greek.

Greek, Modern: around 11,500,000 speakers reported in 1986, with 9,960,000 in Greece, 500,000 in Cyprus, 20,000 in Italy, 5,000 to 8,000 in Turkey, 107,000 in Australia, 60,000 in Egypt, 459,000 in the United States, 344,000 in the USSR, and 104,000 in Canada. Also used in Corsica (France), Rumania, and Bulgaria. Also called Romaic or Neo-Hellenic.

Pontic: formerly spoken on the Black Sea coast of Turkey; now spoken near Athens, Greece, and in the United States and Canada. Speakers may still remain in Turkey. Speakers of Standard Greek cannot understand Pontic. Young people speak Standard Greek as their first language; but speakers in North America are reported to hold onto their language more zealously than those in Greece.

Tsakonian: 10,000 speakers reported in 1981, on the eastern coast of the Peloponnesos, Greece. Monolingual speakers were reported in 1927. Tsakonian is not inherently mutually intelligible with modern Greek.

Yevanic: possibly 50 speakers in 1971, in Israel and the United States. Also known as Judeo-Greek.

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L By the end of the 20th century, the total number of speakers approached 13,000,000, with some 11,000,000 in Greece and 600,000 in Cyprus.