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Jintae Kim,

NEW TESTAMENT GREEK

PLAIN AND SIMPLE

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Introduction

The approach of New Testament Greek Plain and Simple is to begin with the big picture,

to learn essential principles. Then proceed from the more common to the less common, from the more frequent to the less frequent. Students will learn to use "tools" and helps which open the language. Among these tools are the charts found in the "yellow" pages of this book and the Concise Greek-English Dictionary of New Testament Greek by Barclay M. Newman (New York:

Students will first learn the alphabet and diacritical marks. Next comes analysis of the Greek verb, how to identify its various facets, and how to render these into English. The Greek definite article will be used as the key to nouns, pronouns and adjectives. Little, indispensable nuisance

words, like prepositions, conjunctions and particles, must be easily recognized. Irregular verbs, which are really the more common verbs, are not postponed. Participles, a common phenomenon in the Greek New Treatment, are not set aside until near the end because of their complexity. It is better to attack that which is frequent from the get go. Common idioms, such as the genitive

absolute and the use of the article and/or prepositions with infinitive will be noted, but detailed analysis of syntactical/grammatical categories is tabled.

Memorization of extensive vocabulary and forms is deferred until students are more comfortable with the basic design of Greek forms and syntax. Ultimately vocabulary is best learned by reading and will be soon forgotten if the student does not continue to read the Greek New Testament. Many students discontinue using the Greek because they cannot easily get from a word in the text to the *Dictionary* and back again. If, on the other hand, students are able to identify

words with confidence and easily find their way from the word in the text to the Dictionary and back

again with understanding, they will go on to use New Testament Greek.

The use of A Reader's Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament and a Beginner's Guide for the Translation of New Testament Greek by Sakae Kubo (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1975)

will save much time. To use this work, students need to know how the word in the text might be derived from the root form (the first principal part, in the case of a verb; the nominative singular, in case of a noun; the nominative singular, masculine, in case of an adjective) as found in Kubo's

list or in the Dictionary. If one cannot do this, one might better just read a good translation.

No book in history has had a greater influence on the world than the Greek Testament. Christians believe it is God's final revelation and trustworthy in its communication. Many good translations of the Word have been made through the centuries, but nothing is more rewarding than

reading the original text for oneself. It is with great love for the Greek Testament that this book has been prepared as an introduction to the language the apostles utilized to convey the Good News.

So let's dig in! Έν άρχη ην ὁ λόγος....

United Bible Societies, 1972).

Harold Shelly, Ph.D. Alliance Seminary

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THE GREEK ALPHABET

The Greek alphabet (τὸ ἀλφάβητον) consists of twenty-four letters:

capitals	small	name		pronunciation	number 1
Ā	α	ἄλφα	alpha	a in father	1
В	β	βῆτα	bēta	b in baby	2
Γ	γ	γάμμα	gamma	g in girl ²	3
Δ	δ	δέλτα	delta	d in duck	4
\mathbf{E}	3	ἒ ψιλόν	epsilon	e in egg	5
Z	ζ	ζήτα	zēta	z in zoo	7
Н	η	ήτα	ēta	e in obey	8
Θ	θ	θήτα	<u>th</u> ēta	th in thin	9
I	ι	ίῶτα	iōta	i in slim	10
K	κ	κάππα	kappa	k in key	20
L	1	λάμβδα	lambda	l in love	30
M	μ	μῦ	mu	m in mud	40
N	ν	νΰ	nu	n in no	50
E	క్ష	ξî	xi	x in sox	60
O	0	ὃ μικρόν	omicron	o in dog	70
П	π	πί	pi	p in pet	80
P	ρ	<mark>ှ</mark> င််	rhō	r in road	100
Σ	σ, ς	σίγμα	sigma	s in see	200
T	τ	ταῦ	tau	t in top	300
Y	υ	ΰ ψιλόν	upsilon	Ger. ü, Fr. u	400
Φ	ф	φῖ	<u>ph</u> i	ph in photo	500
X	χ	χî	<u>ch</u> i	ch in ach, Bach	600
Y	y	ψî	<u>ps</u> i	ps in lips	700
Ω	ω	ὧ μέγα	ōmega	o in bone	800

EOTPOSTUPXYW

¹ Greek numbers were made from the letters of the alphabet with a marker, e.g. β' was 2, ιβ' was 12. Obsolete letters were retained as numbers: ζ' (stigma / σταυ) was 6; φ' (koppa), 90; β' (sampi), 900. One thousand was ,α

² Gamma with certain letters sounds like **n**, i.e., γγ, γκ, γξ, γχ, as in ring, rink, rinks, rinkhs (cf., anchor)

Oedipus or economy.

TRANSLITERATION

In transliteration the Greek letters are replaced by English letters, usually the first letter or two of the name, or as qualified by $\bar{}$, or $\underline{}$, e.g., \bar{e} , \underline{th} . One helpful way to determine the pronunciation of a Greek word is to put the word into English letters. Moreover, many English words have been borrowed from Greek.3

VOWELS, DIPHTHONGS AND DIACRITICAL MARKS

The Greek vowels are: α , ϵ , η , ι , o, v, ω .

A diphthong consists of two vowels sounded as one. The ten common Greek diphthongs and their sounds4 are:

aisle av / af Slavic / Africa αι αυ ah (hard) ά eight ev / ef ever / effort El u_3 ey (grey) n oil soup, move Ol ου oh (only) ω Louise, Fr. lui υι

does not affect the sound. There are two other diphthongs that are not common:

 α , η and ω are called "improper diphthongs." The iota subscript, though important in function,

ηυ

cave,

ωυ

cove

Note: the dieresis (") separates two adjacent vowels, e.g. coop, coop; Nairobi, naïve.

The accent marks are acute (^), circumflex (^) and grave (^). Rules for accenting are complex. At the outset, simply put the stress on the syllable with the accent mark.

which adds nothing. The punctuation marks are period (.), comma (,), question mark (;), and colon or semicolon (·) -- the "high point."

The breathing marks are rough ('), which adds the sound of an "h" to the vowel, and smooth (')

PARTS OF SPEECH

Students of New Testament Greek must be able to recognize the words they encounter in the

³ Some English words have come directly from Greek; others have come through Latin. Note that words

⁴ The suggested sounds for au and eu are modern Greek. The traditional, Latinized sounds are: for αυ the au in kraut or the ow in now; for εv , eh oo, the eu in feud, or the ou in you. For αv some use the word eye. For ηv the \hat{e} in \hat{f} ete (or the a in late) plus the oo in soon.

with an v are usually transliterated by u, sometimes by v, when in a diphthong, e.g. eulogy or evangel. Otherwise v usually becomes y. Words that were Latinized before entering the English language use the same scheme of transliteration, except for the following: k becomes c as in cryptic; at becomes ae as in aeon; ou becomes u as in music; et becomes i or e as in irenic or museum; ot becomes oe or e as in

Greek New Testament. In addition to the definition of words, students need to understand the nature and function of each part of speech as well as be able to translate the various aspects of the word into an English equivalent. It is important to develop a facility in the use of the Concise Greek-English Dictionary.⁵ Real textual analysis can begin when the student can identify substantive (noun, pronoun, adjective) and verb forms and knows the meanings of about 100 verbs, 15 prepositions, 15 adverbs and/or particles, and 15 conjunctions. In interpretation the context will always be the most important factor.

VERBS

A verb is a word that expresses action or state of being. Verbs can be recognized in the Dictionary by their endings $(\omega, \mu\alpha_1, \text{ or } \mu_1)$. In Greek the verb has tense, voice and mood and usually also person and number. The student must identify each of these facets of the verb along with the meaning.

TENSE

aoristic/simple, and accomplished/completed) and sequential relation or time of action (past, present, and future). Although tense may also indicate time of action, aspect or kind of action is more important than time of action in the Greek verb. Time, as past, present or future, appears only in the indicative mood; in other moods the sequential relation is relative to the context. The following chart illustrates the combination of aspect and time of action in the indicative mood, active voice.

In Greek the verb tense indicates aspect or kind of action (i.e., progressive/continuing,

TIME OF ACTION	ASPECT o	ASPECT or KIND OF ACTION (Found in all moods.)					
(Indicative mood only.)	Progressive/continuing (believing) ()	Aoristic/simple (believe) (●)	Accomplished/completed (believed)				
Past	IMPERFECT "was/were believing" ἐπίστευον	AORIST "believed" ἐπίστευσα	(pluperfect) "had believed"				
Present	PRESENT "am/are/is believing" πιστεύω	[aoristic present] "believe(s)"	PERFECT "have/has believed" πεπιστεύκα				
Future	[progressive future] "will be believing"	FUTURE "will believe" πιστεύσω	(future perfect) "will have believed"				

Most of the verbs in the "Reader" will be in one of the five tenses in capital letters in the chart. 6
Note: In the other moods (subjunctive, optative, imperative, infinitive and participle) tense indicates only kind of action. Action is usually simple (aorist tense) or continuing (present tense). Occasionally the perfect tense is used when the action is completed. On rare occasions the future is used to express what is going to be.

Sarclay M. Newman, A Concise Greek-English Dictionary of New Testament Greek (New York et al: United Bible Societies, 1971). All references are to this Dictionary unless otherwise noted.

⁶ The "Reader" is found in Ernest C. Colwell and Ernest W. Tune, A Beginner's Reader-Grammar for New Testament Greek (New York: Harper and Row, 1965 O.P.), 65-99.

VOICE

Greek has three voices: active, middle and passive.

In the active voice (the usual voice) the subject produces the action or state of being of the verb.

In the *middle* voice the subject acts on or for itself. It is involved in the action of the verb, either directly (s/he loosed herself/himself [using the reflexive pronoun in translation]) or indirectly (s/he herself/himself loosed the animal [using the intensive pronoun]). The true middle is not common; many verb forms that are middle in form are either active (deponent) or passive in function.

In the passive voice the subject is acted upon (by another).

A deponent verb is middle or passive in form but active in function. A deponent can be recognized by referring to the Greek-English Dictionary where the first form of the verb uses a middle or passive "I" ending $(-\mu\alpha i)$ rather than an active ending $(\omega / \mu i)$.

Forms: the agrist passive uses active personal endings; other passives use the same personal endings as the middle.

MOOD

In Greek, mood (or mode) refers to the manner in which an action is perceived by the writer or speaker, whether it is real (the indicative) or potential (the other moods).

The following table illustrates mood and aspect or kind of action (German: aktionsart).

KIND:	Progressive	Aoristic	Accomplished
MOOD:	DOING	DO / DID	DONE
<i>Indicative</i>			
(Past)	was/were doing	did	had done
(Present)	am/are/is doing	do	have/has done
(Future)	will be doing	will do	will have done
Subjunctive	should be doing	should do	
Optative	might be doing	might do	
Imperative	(must) be doing	(must) do	
Infinitive	to be doing	to do	to have done
Participle	(while) doing or (the one) doing	(after) having done or (the one) having done	(the one) having done
		[futuregoing to do]	

Indicative mood. The indicative mood indicates an ordinary objective statement, question, or state of being. What they do, did, or will do; what is, was, or will be.

Subjunctive mood. The subjunctive mood expresses a probability, that which they should do / be.

The most common deponent verbs are γίνομαι -- I become, ἔρχομαι -- I come, ἀποκρίνομαι -- I answer, and δύναμαι -- I am able to. Each is used more than 200 times in the New Testament.

Optative mood. The optative mood expresses a possibility, that which they might do / be.

Imperative mood. The imperative mood expresses a command, that which one must (or ought) do / be.

Note: The indicative, subjunctive, optative and imperative mood forms all add personal endings to the verb stem. These endings indicate person (first, second, or third), number (singular or plural), and voice (active, middle, or passive). (See Table A, page 14.)

Infinitive (mode). The infinitive is a verbal noun, that which one is to do or to be. Since its form has

verb characteristics (tense and voice), it is considered a mood (or mode). The infinitive does not have personal endings. The infinitive may function in any way a noun functions (subject, object/complement, apposition) or as an adverbial clause (purpose, result, time, cause and command). The infinitive may take a definite article.

Participle (mode). The participle is a verbal adjective, like doing, or being. As a verb (or verbal) it

periphrastic. The following illustrate what one might find:

has tense and voice. As an adjective it has number, gender and case and may take a definite article. The participle has five essential functions: 1. verbal adjective, 2. verbal noun, 3. adverbial or circumstantial modifier, 4.supplementary, and 5. as a

(As an adverb it tells: when, where, how, how much, why.) (Its case is usually

1. Verbal adjective: ὁ πιστευων ἀπόστολος ἀπῆλθεν, "The believing apostle went away."

(As an adjective it tells: which, what kind, how many, whose.)

nominative)

4. Supplementary: θεωροῦσιν τὸν Ἱησοῦν περιπατοῦντα ἐπὶ τῆς θαλάσσης, "They see Jesus [doing what?] walking on the sea." (The supplementary participle adds an additional thought.)

3. Adverbial or Circumstantial modifier: πιστέυων ἀπηλθεν, "[While] believing he went away."

5. Periphrastic: ὁ ἀπόστολος ἡν πιστεύων, (cf. ἐπίστευε), "The apostle was believing."
 (The periphrastic is part of the verb, usually with a from of εἰμί.)

Genitive Absolute. The genitive absolute is a special use of the circumstantial (adverbial) participle. It consists of a participle in the genitive case and a noun or pronoun in the genitive case, grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence.

Generally the "subject" of the genitive absolute is not the subject or object of the main verb, although the genitive absolute is logically related to that main verb. The genitive absolute usually occurs before the main verb of the sentence (or main verb of the clause to which it relates) and has a circumstantial (or adverbial) relationship to it. In translation, the noun or pronoun of the genitive absolute becomes the subject of the (new) adverbial clause; the participle becomes the verb or predicate. The kind of action derives from the participle itself; the time of action, from the main verb of the sentence.

Note the following example, translated two times to show the steps in translation of this idiom:

λαλούντος τού Παύλου ταύτα, έπεπεσεν τὸ πνεύμα ἐπὶ τοὺς ἀνθρώπους.

- (a) of [while] speaking of (the) Paul these [things], (s/he) fell the Spirit on the people.
- (b) While Paul was / is / will be speaking these things, the Spirit fell on the people.

IDENTIFICATION OF VERBS

It is most important that students be able to find a verb in a sentence, identify it parts -- tense, voice, mood/mode, person and number (or in the case of a participle, number, gender and case), Dictionary form, and basic definition -- and then provide a translation that takes all these aspects into account.⁸ See Translation Models: Guide for Literal Translation, page 21.

Students must look at suffixes, infixes, and prefixes. Charts are provided (Tables A and B, page 15) to guide in this process. The suffixes (Table A) indicate person, number, and voice; the infixes $(\sigma, \kappa, \sigma, \tau)$ or θ , Table B) indicate tense--kind of action (these are found in all moods); the ϵ prefix (or its equivalent) also indicates tense--time of action (this is found only in the indicative mood). Modification of the verb stem also indicates change in tense.

A verb may also have a prepositional prefix. This comes before the ϵ prefix if there is one. A verb that adds a prepositional prefix is called a *compound verb*. The compound verb must be identified with the preposition attached to the stem of the verb.

A verb may have a vowel or diphthong infix after the consonant infix, if any, and before the personal ending.

The student thus looks for: (5) prepositional prefix / (4) ϵ -prefix // stem // (3) consonant-infix (σ , κ , or θ) / (2) vowel-infix / (1) personal ending (e.g. $\dot{\alpha}\pi$ // ϵ // $\lambda \nu$ // σ / α / $\mu \epsilon \nu$: 5 / 4 // stem // 3 / 2 / 1). One should look for these starting with number one, the personal ending. Not all of these are found with every verb stem. There may be only a personal ending, or an ending indicating the mood. With practice the student can master this essential skill of verb identification.

The subjunctive mood uses the same person, number, and voice endings as the indicative mood (Table A); however, the vowel infix will always be long (i.e., η or ω). There is no ε prefix. (This is true of all the other moods except infinitive.) Certain conjunctions are signal words for the subjunctive mood, e.g. $\dot{\varepsilon}\alpha\nu$, $\dot{\nu}\alpha$, $\dot{\sigma}\tau\alpha\nu$, $\dot{\sigma}\pi\omega$, $\dot{\alpha}\nu$ (see page 13).

The *imperative* mood has endings that parallel the indicative endings in the second person plural, but otherwise have their own distinct endings. These endings need to be learned. See suffixes on Table A (page 15) and Table D (page 17).

The *infinitive mode* has its own endings. These endings, which always end in $\varepsilon \iota \nu$ or $\alpha \iota$, i.e., present: $\varepsilon \iota \nu$, $\varepsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$; a orist: $\sigma \alpha \iota$, $\sigma \alpha \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$, $\theta \eta \nu \alpha \iota$, must be learned. Note: $\varepsilon \iota \nu \alpha \iota$ -"to be".

⁹ For the optative mood similarly, but vowel infix is οι or αι.

⁸ The verb εἰμί, "I am", needs to be memorized since εἰμί deviates considerably from the usual pattern of verbs which are identified from the personal endings on Table A. These are found on Table D (page 17). Many irregular verbs can be found in the *Dictionary* (see note in "preface", paragraph 3).

The participle mode as a verbal adjective uses substantival endings; it is declined like an adjective. These endings must be mastered.

To identify a participle first isolate the number-gender-case suffix and then look for tense identifiers.

In the active voice and the aorist passive, the suffixes / endings parallel the endings of the participle of $\varepsilon i \mu i$: δv , $o \dot{v} \sigma \alpha$, δv (Table D, page 17). These endings will identify the number, gender, and case, and also assist in the identification of the voice.

In the middle and other passive participles there is a - $\mu\epsilon\nu$ - infix followed by endings (suffixes) that parallel the endings of the definite article and common adjectives like $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\theta\dot{\alpha}\varsigma$, $-\dot{\eta}$, $-\dot{\alpha}\nu$ (Declension: II A, I B, II B).

The tense of a participle is identified by the same tense signs or infixes used with the other moods, i.e., σ , κ , or θ , or a change in the verb stem itself (Table B, page 15).

VERB IDENTIFICATION IN SUMMARY:

1 1/1/17	VERD IDENTIFICATION IN SUMMART:								
Tense	Voice	Mood	Pers.	No.	Gen.	Case ¹⁰	1st Principal Part	Definition	Translation
pres.	act.	ind.	1	sg	m	nom.	$(\omega / - \mu \alpha \imath / \mu \imath)$	•	
impf.	midd.	subj.	2	pΪ	f	gen.	` ' ' '		
fut.	pass.	opt.	3	-	n	dat.			
aor.	(deponent)	impv.				acc.	۳		
pf.		inf.							
plpf.		part.							

Note: All verb forms in the *Dictionary* will be pres., act. (or deponent), ind., first person, sg., unless otherwise qualified. Imperatives will be second person, sg. Infinitives will be pres., act. Participles will be pres., act., sg., masc., nom. (*Dictionary*, iii). (Abbreviations above as in *Dictionary*.)

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS

Greek verbs have six (6) principal parts. From these six all forms are derived. 11

	present (imperfect)	future	aorist	perfect (pluperfect)
active	1. πιστεύω	2. πιστεύσω	3. ἐπίστευσα	4. πεπιστεύκα
middle				5. πεπιστεύμαι
passive			6. ἐπιστεύθην	

¹⁰ Remember: person and number with the indicative, subjunctive, optative, and imperative moods; number, gender and case with the participle; no person, number, gender or case with the infinitive.

In English a verb has three principal parts, e.g. go (present), went (past), gone (past participle). Greek verbs have six principle parts, i.e., present active, future active, aorist active, perfect active, perfect middle-passive and aorist passive. All of these will be first person singular, indicative. Also note the following: s/he writes -- γράφει, s/he wrote -- ἔγραψε, it is written -- γέγραπται, writer -- γραμματεύς, writing -- γραφή, written -- γραπτός, letter -- γράμμα (Dictionary, 38).

8

Verb forms are identified in the *Dictionary* following the system of the principal parts above. A semicolon (usually) separates forms belonging to a given principal part.

NOUNS

A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or action. The Dictionary form of a noun will be the whole nominative form, the genitive ending, followed by m or f or n, to indicate gender.

A noun may function as a subject, an object/complement, or in apposition to another noun. As a substantive (a noun or noun equivalent), it has number (singular or plural), gender (masculine, feminine or neuter), and case (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and vocative). The number, gender and case

or neuter), and case (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and vocative). The number, gender and of a noun is determined by its ending. A complete list of all the endings of a substantive is called a declension. See Table F (page 16).

Gender is indicated in the Dictionary by m, f, or n. Gender is grammatical, not necessarily biological. E.g., merchant is masculine, business is feminine, and market is neuter (Dictionary, 59); life is feminine, death is masculine, but the end is neuter; philadelphia, "brotherly love," is feminine.

Case has to do with the relation of a word to other words in a sentence. What is done in English by location in the sentence and by prepositions is done in Greek by the ending of the noun (Greek also uses prepositions). A brief explanation of the typical function of the cases follows:

(also subjective complement/ predicate nominative)
 Genitive¹² Possession or description, of or from

Direct address ("O")

the vocative is accompanied by the letter omega, "O."

1. Nominative

5. Vocative¹⁴

3. Dative¹³ Indirect object or interest, to, by, for, with, or in. [2x4w/in]

The subject or doer of the action

- 4. Accusative Direct object (objective complement) or extension/limitation

To identify the case of a noun compare its ending with the endings of the definite article Table (page 23). This works for nouns in the first and second declension—the majority of nouns. For a complete set of endings see "Declensions," Table F (page 23).

The genitive form may be two case functions, the genitive proper "of" (the case of description) and the ablative or ablatival genitive "from" (the case of separation).

The dative case form may include the dative proper (the case of interest), the locative or local dative (the case of location), and the instrumental or instrumental dative (the case of means or manner).

The vocative case is not nearly so common as the other cases. Often it uses the same form as the nominative. When it has its own form, it tends to be a shorter form of the nominative, e.g. υίε (from υίος); κύριε (from κύριος); πάτερ (from πατήρ), where the long e changed to the short e. Sometimes

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

The Greek definite article (\check{o} , $\check{\eta}$, $\check{\tau}\acute{o}$, the; this, that) has number, gender and case. The definite article is used with nouns, pronouns, adjectives, infinitives, participles, prepositional phrases; it is used as a pronoun and as an indicator of grammatical relationships. Since the article is used so frequently (nearly 20,000 times in the New Testament), and so many nouns, pronouns and adjectives are similar to it, it must be memorized, Table C (page 23).

A noun without an article (anarthrous) may be either indefinite or qualitative; a noun with an article may be definite or generic.

Additional notes on the article:

The article with δέ: the article with δέ can clarify the implied subject of a verb. E.g., εἰπεν, "she said" or "he said", but οἱ δέ εἰπεν "he said", and ἡ δέ εἰπεν "she said."

είπον, "I said" or "they said", but οἱ δέ εἶπεν "they said" (not "I said").

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οἱ \mu \epsilon \nu \dots οἱ \delta \epsilon \dots "some . . . others . . . " (Acts 17:32) ο \mu \epsilon \nu \dots ο \delta \epsilon \dots "the one . . . the other . . . "
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"Sharp's Rule": When two substantives are connected by καί and the article is before the first substantive, but not the second, the two are treated as a unit.

The "Onion" When two or more articles stand before two or more substantives the articles apply in reverse order. E.g.,

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τώ τοῦ έθνὸς παραπτώματι [τώ παραπτώματι (and) τοῦ έθνὸς] "by the transgression of the one" (Rom. 5:17).
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The Article with an Infinitive:

The article (and a preposition) before an infinitive may indicate certain adverbial relations. E.g.

Time		Purpos	se (or Result)	Caus	re
πρὸ τοῦ	before	πρὸς τὸ	in order to	διὰ τὸ	because
έn tῆ	while	είς τὸ	in order to		
•	after	τοῦ	in order to		
See also t	he conjunction:	πρίν (πρίν ἤ)	before		

PRONOUNS

The pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun. A pronoun may be personal, intensive, possessive, relative, interrogative, indefinite, indefinite relative, demonstrative, reflexive, or reciprocal. Generally the Dictionary identifies the kind of pronoun (or adjective).

To identify the case of a pronoun look at the ending of the word and compare it with the article or other declined words (or the declension lists in Table F, page 16.).

Certain pronouns such as $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}$ I, $\dot{\eta}\mu\epsilon\hat{\iota}\varsigma$ we, and $\sigma\dot{\upsilon}$, $\dot{\upsilon}\mu\epsilon\hat{\iota}\varsigma$ you (sg. and pl.), must be memorized (Table G, page 23). Others need to be recognized on sight.

ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a word that *modifies a noun*. It tells which, what kind, how many, whose. An adjective agrees with the word it modifies in number, gender and case. The adjective is declined using the same patterns as the noun. See the declension lists (Table F, page 23).

The three most common adjectives are πας, πασα, παν — every, each, all; πολύς, πολλή, πολύ — much, many, much; and μέεγας, μεγάλη, μέγα — large, great.

An adjective is identified in the *Dictionary* by the whole nominative singular masculine form, to which are added the feminine singular and neuter singular nominative endings. In comparisons, the comparative adjective usually has the ending $-\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma\zeta$, $-\eta$, $-\sigma\nu$; the superlative, $-\tau\alpha\tau\sigma\zeta$, $-\eta$, $-\sigma\nu$.

In function an adjective may be attributive, predicate, substantival or adverbial. For example:

- Attributive: ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἀπόστολος ἀπῆλθεν -- the good apostle (he) went away. [Which? What kind?]
- Predicate: ἀγαθὸς ὁ ἀπόστολος-- good the apostle, i.e., the apostle [is] good. ["is" implied]
- Substantive: ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἀπῆλθεν -- the good [man] went away. [Who? Whom?]
- Adverbial: ἀγαθὸν ἐποίησαν -- good they did, i.e., they did well. [How?]

PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions, little words in the *pre-position*, help substantives express case relations. Prepositions are identified in the *Dictionary* by "prep." Prepositional phrases are adverbial or adjectival in function. (Prepositions are also prefixed to verbs. These verbs are called compound verbs.)

Greek commonly uses fifteen prepositions. ¹⁶ Students need a working definition for each case with which the preposition and to be aware of possible changes in spelling before vowels (and certain consonants). The following chart provides basic definitions. For more definitions and spelling changes see the *Dictionary*. Note that a preposition may be used with one case or two cases or three cases. If a

¹⁶ Two other prepositions appear in the New Testament, but are not common: ἀντί (with gen.) for (22x), and ἀνά (with acc.) upwards (13x).

When the feminine ending is the same as the masculine, it is not repeated. In this case only the complete masculine form and the neuter singular ending will appear. When the feminine form is different from the masculine it is always in the first declension. Compare $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\dot{\eta}\varsigma$, $-\dot{\epsilon}\varsigma$, "true", with $\dot{\alpha}\lambda\eta\theta\iota\nu\dot{\alpha}\varsigma$, $\dot{\eta}$, $\dot{\alpha}\nu$, "real", Dictionary, page 7. Masculine and neuter forms of adjectives will always be in the same declension.

they will be genitive, dative and accusative. The following chart provides working definitions by case and certain spelling changes for these prepositions:

Prep.	Case	Definition	Spelling changes				
ἀπό	gen	from	ἀπ' ἀφ'	ὑπέρ	gen	for	
ἐκ	gen	out of	έξ		acc	beyond	
πρό	gen	before		ὑπό	gen	by	ὑπ' ὑφ'
ἐν	dat	in	έγ έλ' έμ' έ σ			under	
σῦν	dat	with	συγ συλ συμ συσ				
είς	acc	into		ἐπί	gen	on (over)	ἐπ' ἐφ'
					dat	on (at)	
διά	gen	through	δι'		acc	on (upon)	
	acc	because of		παρά	gen	from	παρ'
κατά	gen	against	κατ' καθ''		dat	with	
	acc	according to			acc	beside	
μετά	gen	with	μετ' μεθ'	πρός	gen	for	
	acc	after			dat	at	
περί	gen	about			acc	to	
	acc	around					

ADVERBS

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb or an adverbial phrase. It tells when, where, how, how much, why (time, place, manner, degree, comparison, negation). Adverbs are identified in the Dictionary by "adv." Other words or phrases may function as adverbs, e.g., a prepositional phrase, an adjective, a participle. Some so-called adverbs may actually be emphatic or interrogative particles. The line between a small adverb and a particle is fuzzy. Similarly, the distinction between a conjunction and a particle may not be clear. Adverbs sometimes function as conjunctions before clauses or as prepositions before substantives.

The following are some of the more common adverbs:

ἐκεῖ	there	ήδη	already	πῶς	how?, in what way?
έτί	still, yet, longer, more	καθώς	just as	τότε	then
οὐκέτι	no longer, no more	νῦν	now	ώδε	here
μηκέτι	no longer, no more	οὕτως	thus so	ယ်ဌ	as, when
εύθύς	immediately, at once	πάλιν	again	-	•

CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions join clauses, phrases and words. Conjunctions are identified in the *Dictionary* by "conj." They may be continuative (and), transitional (then), disjunctive (or), adversative (but), conditional (if), temporal (when), causal (for), inferential (therefore), purpose (in order that), result (so that), or emphatic (certainly).

The most common conjunctions, arranged in a more or less logical order, follow:

καί and, also, even δέ and, but άλλά but, rather τέ and, and so	εί if ἐάν if (subjunctive) εἴτε if, whether εἰ μή except, unless	γάρ for, since, then οὖν therefore, then διό therefore, for this reason
καί καί bothand τέτέ bothand η or	ἐάν μή except, unless (subj.) ἔως until, while, as far as ὅτε when	ότι that, because, "quote" ἴνα in order that, so that that (subjunct.) ἵνα μή lest (subjunct.)
	ὄταν whenever (subj.)	ώστε that, so that, therefore ὅπως that, in order that (subjunct.)

Note: δέ, γά, οὖν are postpositive, i.e., they never appear first in a clause.

PARTICLES

Particles are small words that are difficult to classify. Particles function as adverbs or conjunctions. A particle may indicate emphasis, e.g., µέν (indeed); continuation; contingency e.g., a[nor contrast.

Interjections like $i\delta \varepsilon$, $i\delta o \hat{v} = look! \ behold!$ and $\hat{w} = O!$ convey emotion.

The negative particles οὐ (οὐκ, οὐχ) and μή, no, not are usually adverbial in function.

Generally, où is used with the indicative mood, $\mu\eta$ with the other moods.

Oὐ μή together with a subjunctive verb imply emphatic negation.

In questions: οὐ anticipates a *positive* answer ("You do, don't you?"); μή anticipates a *negative* answer ("You don't, do you?").

BASIC STEPS IN TRANSLATION

I. Preparatory steps:

on the ultima.

- 1st Always read the passage in Greek first. Aloud!
- 2nd Look for words you recognize. This will provide some context.
- II. The actual translation process, clause by clause.
 - 1st Find the main verb. See what is happening (the stem of the verb) and how (tense, voice and mood), and who or what caused it (the subject in the verb suffix).
 - 2nd Look for a subject, in addition to and agreeing with the subject in the main verb.
 - 3rd Look for a complement (word or words used to complete the predicate).
 - a. Objective complement (direct object), usually accusative case.
 - b. Subjective complement (predicate noun or predicate adjective), usually nominative case
 - 4th Attach the modifiers (adjectival or adverbial) to the words modified. These modifiers are words phrases and clauses; they may modify the main verb, the subject, the complement or other modifiers.
 - 5th Tie things together with "button" words -- conjunctions and relative pronouns/adjectives.
 - 6th Put the words into everyday English word order.

ACCENTS

Although the authors of the New Testament certainly knew how to stress the syllable with the accent, accents are not found in the earliest manuscripts. Accents were added later. The rules for accenting are complex, but the following general principles may be helpful:

- 1. In Greek there are three accent marks, acute ', circumflex ^, and grave `.
- 2. Only the last three syllables -- antepenult (third from the end), penult (second last), and ultima (last syllable) - are accented. The acute accent may be on the last three syllables, the grave on the last two, and the grave only on the last.
- 3. A syllable is short if it contains a short vowel. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or diphthong. All diphthongs are long except oi and ai when they are the last two letters of a word.
- 4. The acute and grave accents are used on long or short vowels; the circumflex accent, only on long vowels
- 5. If the ultima is long, the antepenult may not be accented and the circumflex accent may be used only
- 6. A long penult before a short ultima, if accented, requires the circumflex accent.
- 7. A final acute accent, before other accented words, usually becomes a grave accent.
- 8. The accent on a verb is recessive, i.e., tending to recede (go back) to the antepenult.
- 9. The accent on a noun or substantive is *persistent*, i.e., tending to persist (or remain) on the same syllable as the nominative singular form as far as the general rules allow.
- 10. Proclitics and most enclitics are words that usually have no accent of their own.
 - a. A proclitic is accented with the word it *precedes*, i.e., the next word. Some common proclitics are oi, αi, ἐν, εἰς, ὡς, οὐ.
 - b. An enclitic is inclined to be accented with the word it *follows* or "inclines or leans back into" the word it follows.

The indefinite pronoun $\tau \iota \zeta$, $\tau \iota$ and person pronouns like $\mu \circ \upsilon$, $\mu \circ \iota$, $\mu \in are$ common enclitics.

IDENTIFICATION TABLES

The following pages consist of tables and some explanations that will help students of New Testament Greek identify words in the text. The first set of tables relate primarily to verb forms; the second set relate to substantives (nouns, pronouns, adjectives and participles). A complete list of all the forms of a verb is called a conjugation; the complete list of all forms of a substantive is called a declension.

THE VERB

Tables A and B¹ are used to identify verbs and verbals (infinitives and participles). This process is called *parsing*, from the verb *parse*, "to resolve into its elements . . . to analyze and describe grammatically" (Merriam-Webster).

Table A: Subject / Voice Identifiers* (person, number, voice suffixes)²

	Active Endings (and Aorist Passive)		Middle, Passive or Deponent Endings (except Aor Pass)	
IND/SUBJ/OPT		I he, she, it he, she, it he, she, it we I they or I you (sg) they (after θη) they or he, she, it you (pl) I ing also occur, b he, she, it	 Π μαι μεθα μην νται ντο σαι σθε το α, οι, σο, ω, ω 	
	υ, ω, ω			

I M P V	€ (θη)τι σον -τ€ -τω -τωσαν	you (sg) you (sg) you (sg) you (pl) he, she, it they	ου σαι -σθε -σθω -σθωσαν	you (sg) you (sg) you (pl) he, she, it they
I N F	ειν σαι κεναι θηναι σειν	pres / 2° Aor 1° Aor Pf Aor Pass Future Future Pass	εσθαι σασθαι σθαι σεσθαι θησεθαι	
P T C	Declension Ending similar to participle of ειμι: ων, ουσα, ον οντος ("being" - Table D)		Declension Ending similar to definite article after -μεν-: μενος, μενη, μενον μενου ("article" -Table C)	

¹ Tables A and B adapted from Ernest C. Colwell and Ernest A.Tune, A Beginner's Reader-Grammar for New Testament Greek (New York: Harper, 1965), 28-29.

²The notes at the bottom of Table A must not be disregarded.

^{*}The first note relates to to the hyphen which is in the place of a thematic vowel. The ω or η "in the hyphen location" usually indicates that the verb is subjunctive. The presence of ω or ω at the "hyphen location" usually indicates optative mood.

^{**}The second note is a reminder that a final v must be scrutinized very carefully.

The ν is ignored after ε or $\sigma\iota$. Here it is a so-called moveable ν , it is used for the sake of euphony; it just sounds better. A ν after $\varepsilon\iota$ ($\varepsilon\iota\nu$) suggests infinitive. A ν after an ω ($\omega\nu$) indicates participle.

Fable B: Tense Identifiers

This table relates to prefixes, infixes and sufffixes. These are indicators of tense and voice

• Dictionary form (ending) =>	except for personal	present
• € prefix with (Ind only) (See note 2.)	 no infix = σ infix = κ infix = 	impf / 2° aor (See note 1.) 1° aor pf act
• σ infix with (See note 3.)	 4. θη infix = 1. no prefix = 2. ε prefix = 3. θη infix (θησ) = 	fut 1° aor fut pass
 θη infix with (Ptc θ∈) 	1. ϵ prefix = 2. σ infix (θη σ) =	aor pass fut pass
 κ infix -also has an ε prefix begins with a consorteneed before the expected 	pf act	
 βεβ, γεγ, δεδ, κεκ, λελ, μεμ, πεπ, σεσ or τετ (redup.) with 	, 2. κ infix =	pf m/p pf act
• If a verb has a prep	ositional prefix, it con	nes before the

Notes:

 ϵ prefix or reduplication.

- 1. The imperfect tense uses the same *stem* as the present tense; the 2nd aorist tense has a different stem. In the indicative mood, the 2nd aorist uses the same endings as the imperfect; in other moods, the 2nd aorist uses the same endings as the present tense.
- 2. If an η is found in place of the ϵ prefix, look for the verb stem to begin with an α or ϵ . If an η is found immediately before a σ , κ or $\theta\eta$ infix, look for the verb stem to end with an α or ϵ . If an ω is found immediately before a σ , κ or $\theta\eta$ infix, look for the verb stem to end with an σ .
- 3. If a ξ is found in place of the σ , look for the verb stem to end in γ , κ , $\sigma\kappa$, $\sigma\sigma$ or χ . If a ψ is found in the place of the σ , look for the verb stem to end in π or ϕ . The addition of the σ infix can also cause a ζ to disappear from the end of a verb stem.

Table D (1&2). These tables concern the forms of the verb εἰμί, "I am." (Inf. - εἰναι - "to be")

Table D-1, Indicative, Subjunctive, Optative and Imperative forms of εἰμί.

	Pres Ind am/are/is	Impf Ind was/were	Fut Ind shall/will be	Subj should be	Opt might be	Impv must be
1 sg I 2 sg you 3 sg s/he, it	εἰμί εἰ ἐστί(ν)	ήμην ής / ήσθα ήν	ἔσομαι ἔση ἔσται	ៃ អ្នំ អ្នំ	ε ἴ ην εἴης εἴη	ἴ σθι ἔστω / ἤ τω
1 pl we 2 pl you 3 pl they	έσμέν έστέ εἰσί(ν)	ήμεν / ήμεθα ήτε ήσαν	έσόμεθα ἔσεσθε ἔσονται	ώμεν ήτε ώσι(ν)	εἴημεν εἴητε εἴησαν	ἔστε ἔστωσαν

Table D-2, the Participle (mode) of είμί. (Also the pattern for active participle. Cf., "-ing.")

	sing-masc	sing-fem	sing-neut	pl-masc	pl-fem	pl-neut
nominative	ὤν [-ς]	ούσα	ὄν [-ς]	ὄντες	ούσαι	ὄντα
genitive	ὄντος	ούσης	ὄντος	ὄντων	ουσῶν	ὄντων
dative	ὄντι	ούση	ὄντι	οὖσι (ν)	οὕσαις	οὖσι (ν)
accusative	ὄντα	ούσαν	ὄν [-ς]	ὄντας	οὔσας	ὄντα

Table E (1&2), Verb Conjugations.

Table E (E-1 & E-2) contains the verb same endings as Table A. On Table A endings are arranged alphabetically; on Table E they are arranged logically as they would be in a conjugation. This table, which refers to the indicative, subjunctive, optative and imperative moods, helps the student parse personal endings more systematically. As in Table A, endings are divided between "active" and "middle." A further division occurs between primary and secondary personal endings. Primary endings are used in the indicative mood with present, future and perfect tenses and in the subjunctive mood. Secondary endings are used with those tenses that are past time in the indicative mood and

therefore use an ε prefix or its equivalent. The optative mood, as a secondary contingent mood, uses the secondary endings. The imperative mood seems to have its own endings which have a faint resemblance to the secondary endings.

Table E-1: Verb Endings (Ind - primary & secondary, Subj - primary, Opt - secondary; and Impv.) 3

		Active (&	aorist passive)	Middle (deponent & passive)			
		Primary	Secondary	Imperative	Primary	Secondary	Imperative	
1 sg 2 sg 3 sg	l you s∕he, it	ω, -μι -ς ει, -σι	-ν, α, μι -ς ε(ν), #	ε, σον, -τι, -ς, θι -τω,	-μαι η, σαι -ται	-μην ου, σο, ο, ω -το	ου, σαι -σθω	
1 pl 2 pl 3 pl	we you they	-μεν -τε -σι(ν)	-μεν -τε -ν, σαν, εν	-τε -τωσαν	-μεθα -σθε -νται	-μεθα -σθε -ντο	− σθ ε − σθ ωσαν	

³Some less common forms such as ω in the secondary middle, 2 sg., and εν in the secondary active, 3 pl. are included for completeness. The symbol # is a "zero" or "null" ending; no person-number suffix is added.

Table E-2: Infinitive Endings including infixes. (Note: all infinitives end in ειν or αι..)

	Active (& aorist passive)	Middle (+ deponent & passive)
Present & 2 nd Aorist	ειν	εσθαι
Future	σειν	σεσθαι
1 st Aorist	σαι	σασθαι
Perfect	κεναι	σθαι
Aorist Passive	θηναι	
Future Passive		θησεσθαι

Steps in Verb Identification (1. Table A, 2. Table B, 3. definition, 4. translation)

Step One: Table A. Here ascertain probable person, number (gender, case), voice, and mood/

mode. The first step in verb identification is to match the ending of the verb--the suffix--with a suffix on **Table A** (or Table E). Take as many letters as possible from the ending of the verb form including the thematic vowel or diphthong [-]. The hyphen is used in Table A to note the presence

of a vowel or diphthong before a consonant in a personal ending. Endings on Table A (and E-1) indicates the person, number and voice of verbs in the indicative, subjunctive, optative and imperative moods. For the participle mode, the table points the student to other tables (D & C) to

determine number, gender, case (not person and number), and voice. For the **infinitive** mode, Table A (and E-2) will suggest tense and voice.

- or (2) to Table C -- the definite article -- (p.23) to determine the number, gender, case, and voice of the participle. If the ending of a participle is found on Table D (the participle of $\varepsilon i\mu i$), or is similar to these endings, the participle is active (or a rist passive). If the ending of a participle is like one of the endings on Table C (the definite article) and follows a - $\mu \varepsilon \nu$ - in fix, the participle form is middle.

In the participle section, Table A directs the student (1) to Tables D -- the participle forms of $\epsilon i \mu i$ -

Step Two: on to Table B. Here determine the tense of the verb. After all the factors (person, number, gender, voice and possible mode) have been gleaned from Table A (or Table E), as well as Table D or C for the participle, refer to Table B to determine the tense of the verb form.

⁴Table C, the definite article, and Table D, the participle of εἰμί, have several additions in brackets []. These additions are to help students recognize words that follow their patterns, but may differ in one, two or three gender and case endings. Note: when Table C is used as a pattern, the τ of the article is not part of the ending, e.g., -μενος, -μενον.

⁵The term "middle" refers to the middle form. Middle forms are used for all passive verbs except the aorist passive (the aorist passive uses active endings). Middle and passive forms may also be deponent. A deponent is a verb which is middle or passive in form, but active in function. Thus a middle form may be (1) a true middle, which is not common, or (2) a passive, or (3) a deponent. A

deponent verb is identified by the middle suffix/personal ending $\mu\alpha\iota$ in the first form of the verb in the Dictionary.

Using **Table B** the student looks (1) for prefixes, (2) for infixes, and (3) for changes in the stem of the verb. NB, the *Dictionary*⁶ must be used along with the table B.

• Present tense. The first possibility, when there is no infix or prefix or change in the stem of the

verb, is that the verb is present tense. In that case, the only difference between the verb as found in the *Dictionary* and the verb being parsed is the personal ending identified from Table A (or Table E). Remember, the *Dictionary* form of a verb is generally first person, singular "I" (i.e., ends in ω , or $\mu\alpha$, or μ).

If the verb is not present tense, one must look for *prefixes* and *infixes* and/or changes in the stem of the verb, i.e., a stem that is different from the stem of the present tense. Changes in the stem will be found in the *Dictionary*.

- **Prefix.** First look for an ε prefix or its equivalent (η or ω , see Table B, note 2). This prefix indicates that the verb is past time, which may be imperfect, agrist or pluperfect. If the stem is the same as the present and **no infix** ($\sigma / \kappa / \theta$) has been added, the verb is **imperfect**.
- The σ is used with the future and aorist (active and middle voice) tenses. The future tense does not add an ε prefix.

• Infix. There are three primary infixes, σ , κ , and θ .

o becomes ω.

- If a σ infix has been added to the stem of the verb with an ε prefix, or the stem is different from the present stem, the verb is probably **aorist**. NB, the aorist uses an ε prefix only in the indicative mood.
- The κ infix is used with the **perfect** and **pluperfect** tenses, active voice. These tenses also require reduplication (below). The **pluperfect** uses secondary endings and may also have an ε prefix.

• If there is a θ infix, the verb is likely aorist passive. The aorist passive tense uses the θ infix,

- usually $\theta \eta$, but $\theta \epsilon$ with the agrist passive participle.
- The future passive also uses the $\theta\eta$ infix as well as the σ infix, i.e., $-\theta\eta\sigma-$.
- Perfect middle and passive forms use no infixes; they add the person and number suffix directly to
- the stem. The perfect tense uses primary middle endings; the pluperfect uses secondary middle endings (See Table E).
- Reduplication. The perfect tense has its own type of prefix. This is called reduplication. It consists of the duplication of the initial consonant of the stem and an ε before the initial consonant of the verb stem, e.g., λv becomes $\lambda \varepsilon \lambda v$ -. If a verb begins with a double consonant such as θ [th], the reduplication take the form of $\tau \varepsilon \theta$ [teth]. Reduplication for two consonants like γv become $\varepsilon \gamma v$ -. If a verb begins with a vowel, the vowel is lengthened, i.e., initial α becomes η , ε becomes η ,

Notes for Table B. The notes at the bottom of Table B are important to understand in the process of parsing a verb.

• Note 1 describes the difference between present, agrist and imperfect tenses according to the stem

of the verb. The stem of a verb is what remains of the verb when all personal ending suffixes

⁶Newman, Barclay M. A Concise Greek-English Dictionary of the New Testament. London: United Bible Societies, 1971.

(letters added at the end of a word), infixes (letters inserted within a word), and prefixes (letters added at the beginning of a word) have been removed.

- Note 2 describes how an ε prefix might be "hiding" in a verb in the form of an η or an ω . It also explains that a stem vowel—the vowel at the end of the stem of a verb is lengthened before a consonant infix, that an ε or an α becomes an η , or an ω becomes an ω .
- Note 3 describes how the consonant σ might be hidden in ξ , or ψ .
- Note 4 describes the location of a prepositional prefix. The prepositional prefix will always precede any other tense prefix such as an ε or its equivalent or reduplication.

Irregular Verbs. Students must understand irregular verbs since many of the more common verbs in the Greek New Testament are irregular. Some verbs seem to defy analysis by the use of Table B. So, if all else fails, pick up the Dictionary and look up the word just as it is. The Dictionary should reveal all the pertinent information you need except for person and number (or gender, number and case for a participle). NB, unless otherwise identified, verbs in the Dictionary are present tense, active (or deponent) voice, indicative mood, first person, and singular number. These categories are

the first line on the "Parsing Guide" (below) under the name of the categories printed in *italics*. Note, however, that the imperative, infinite and participle modes do not have a first person singular. They are identified accordingly. Imperatives are present, active, second person singular. Infinitives are

Step Three, Definition. Locate the first form of the verb (usually present, active, indicative, 1st person, singular) and identify its basic definition from the Dictionary.

simply present, active. Participles are present, active, singular, masculine, nominative.

Step Four, Translation. Translate the verb according to all the data you have gathered using Table N.⁷ This table provides a guide for translating verbs as identified through the process described above. Of course, the final translation must fit the context.

All of the information gleaned from the tables following the above steps will find a place on the "Parsing Guide" which follows:

PARSING GUIDE

(dep.)

aor.

plpf.

pf.

impv.

inf.

ptc.

1st Definition & Translation Case 1° Prin. Part Mood Pers. No. Gen. Voice Tense ind. 1 sing. masc. nom. $(\omega / - \mu \alpha \imath / \mu \imath)$ act. pres. impf. midd. subj. 2 plur. fem. gen. opt. 3 neut. dat. fut. pass.

acc.

Table N. Now, finally, put it all together. Table N provides translation possibilities for the identified verbs. Having identified tense, voice and mood or mode, find the "box" that corresponds to the right categories of tense, voice and mood/mode. Add the correct person and number pronoun as necessary. Replace "blank" with the first one-word definition from the *Dictionary*. If the first

necessary. Replace "blank" with the first one-word definition from the *Dictionary*. If the first definition does not fit the context, try another definition.

⁷Information gathered from Tables A and B (and D or C, in the case of a participle), and the *Dictionary* will coincide with the categories on the "Parsing Guide" and Table N.

Table N: Translation Models (Guide for Literal Translation)

Tense ↓	Active/Deponent Voice (Middle 8)	Passive Voice
	Indicative	Mood
Present	am/are/is blanking blank(s) do/does blank	am/are/is being blanked [by] am/are/is blanked [by]
Imperfect	was/were blanking	was/were being blanked [by]
Future	shall/will blank	shall/will be blanked [by]
Aorist	blanked did blank	was/were blanked [by]
Perfect	have/has blanked	have/has been blanked [by]
Pluperfect	had blanked	had been blanked [by]
	Subjunctive Mood	(and Optative ⁹)
Present	should be blanking	should be being blanked [by] should be blanked [by]
Aorist	should blank	should be blanked [by]
	Imperative	e Mood
Present	(must) be blanking let be blanking	(must) be being blanked [by] let be being blanked [by]
Aorist	(must) blank let blank	(must) be blanked [by] let be blanked [by]
	Infini	iive
Present	to be blanking	to be being blanked [by]
Aorist	to blank	to be blanked [by]
Future	to be going to blank	to be going to be blanked [by]
	Particip	ole ¹⁰
Present	(while/the one[s]) blanking	(while/the one[s]) being blanked [by]
Aorist (& Perfect 11)	(after/the one[s]) having blanked	(after/the one[s]) having been blanked [by]

⁸ The middle voice is translated as the active voice, but with the addition of the appropriate intensive or reflexive pronoun. E.g. I myself blank or I blank myself.

Note: Since the middle voice and the optative mood are not common, their translation has been placed in footnotes (8 and 9 above).

⁹ Translate the optative mood as the subjunctive but use *might* instead of *should*.

Without a definite article the participle is translated while blanking (present tense) or after having blanked (aorist tense). With a definite article and when no noun is modified, one(s) or thing(s) is added to the definite article, e.g. the one blanking or the things blanking.

Perfect participles are generally translated as the aorist (without after) although sometimes they may be translated as the present (without while).

Note: The participle is quite complex. Footnote 10 seeks to explain how the context—the presence or absence of an article and/or a noun/substantive which the participle modifies—affects translation. When the participle has no article, it is usually adverbial. "While" or "after" are commonly used to introduce the adverbial participial clause or phrase. Again the context determines the best translation.

Table J: Contraction of Vowels

Verbs whose stems end in α , ϵ or 0 are called contract verbs. These vowels, which may be found in the *Dictionary*, change/adjust to the vowel or consonant which follow.

								······
STEM			SU	FFIX VOW	EL/DIPHTI	HONG		
VOWEL	- €	- €l	- 0	- ov	- ω	- η	<u>- η</u>	- Ol
α -	α	α	ω	ω	ω	α	α	ω
€ •	€l	ξl	ου	ου	ω	η	η	Ol
o -	ου	οι	ου	ου	ω	ω	OL	οι

- Before a vowel or diphthong, the stem vowel α , ϵ or 0 will contract with that vowel or diphthong suffix or infix. (Often the fact that a contraction has taken place is indicated by the circumflex accent in a verb ending.) The table above demonstrates how a stem vowel, i.e., α , ϵ or 0, joins to/contracts with the vowel or diphthong of a suffix or infix when the two meet.
- Before a consonant, the stem vowel will lengthen, i.e., α and ϵ become η ; o becomes ω .

SUBSTANTIVES

Tables F to M relate to the declension of substantives. (Remember: substantives are declined; verbs are conjugated.) Substantives include: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and participles.

Declension

A complete list of a substantive (a noun, pronoun, adjective or participle) in all its forms (number, gender and case) is called a *declension*. The variation or change of the form to indicate a different number, gender or case is called *inflection*.

There are three basic sets or patterns for declensions. These are usually called first, second and third declension. (They could be labeled "a," "o" and "consonant" declensions.) The third or consonant declension has three distinct patterns (III, IV, V, Table F below).

For a **noun**, the *Dictionary* provides (1) the whole *nominative* form, (2) the *genitive* ending, and (3) the *gender*. With this information, one can find the complete declension. By placing a noun in the correct column, according to the *nominative* and *genitive* endings and the *gender*, one can create the complete declension of any noun. E.g., the word $\lambda \delta \gamma \circ \zeta$, $-\circ \circ$, δ / m follows the pattern in column II A. Thus the complete declension of $\lambda \delta \gamma \circ \zeta$ would be: $\lambda \circ \gamma \circ \zeta$, $\lambda \circ \gamma \circ \varsigma \circ \zeta$, $\lambda \circ \gamma \circ \zeta$, $\lambda \circ$

For an **adjective** or **pronoun**, the *Dictionary* provides the *nominative singular* form of *each gender*. The masculine and neuter are always in the same declension; the feminine form is either in the "a"

declension or identical to the masculine form. E.g. άληθινός, -ή,- όν (II A, I B, II B); άληθής, -ές (V A, V B). Adjectives and pronouns usually include endings from more than one declension. E.g. \dot{o} , $\dot{\eta}$, τ \dot{o} and \dot{o} ς, $\ddot{\eta}$, \ddot{o} (II A, I B, II B); $\ddot{\alpha}$ γιος, $-\alpha$, -ov (II A, I A, II B); $\pi \hat{\alpha}$ ς, $\pi \hat{\alpha}$ σ α , $\pi \hat{\alpha} v$ (III A, I C, III

Table F: Declensions

			1 st / "	a" decl	ension		2 ^d / "o	" decl			3 rd / co	nsonant	declens	ion	
		ΙA	ΙB	I C	ID	ΙE	IΙΑ	ΠВ	III A	ШΒ	IV A	IV B	V A	VB	V C
	Nom	α	η	α	ας	ης	ος	ον	#/s	#	ευς	ις	ης	ες	05
S i	Gen	ας	ης	ης	ου	ου	ου	ου	05	oς	€ως	€ως	ους	ovs	ους
n	Dat	α	η	η	α	η	ω	3	l	L	€ι	€ι	€ι	€ι	€ι
g	Acc	αν	ην	αν	αν	ην	ΟV	ον	α /ν	#	€α	ιν	η	€ς	०ऽ
	Nom	αι	αι	αι	αι	αι	Oſ	α	€S	α	€ις	€lS	€ις	η	η
p	Gen	ων	ων	ων	ων	ων	ων	ων	ων	ων	€ων	εων	ων	ων	ων
1	Dat	αις	αις	αις	αις	αις	οις	οις	σι(ν	σι(ν)	ευσι(ν	εσι(ν)	εσι(ν	εσι(ν)	εσι(ν)
	Acc	ας	αs	ας	ας	as	ους	α	as	α	€ાઽ	€IS	€IS	η	η
ge	ender	f	f	f	m	m	m/f	n	m/f	n	m	f	m/f	n	n

Note: Vocative plural forms are the same as the nominative. Vocative singular forms may be the same as the nominative singular. Otherwise the vocative singular will be a shortened form of the nominative singular. This may take the form of dropping the final sigma and/or shortening the vowel of the nominative singular ending. E.g., θεός becomes θεέ; πατήρ, πατέρ; γυνή, γύναι; κύων, κύον.

Common Substantival Forms

Table C: the Definite Article "the" "this" "that" (Forms in [brackets] are for words similar to article.)

		singul	ar	plural		
	m f				f	n
Nom	ὁ [−ς]	ή	τό [-ν]	oi	αί	τά
Gen	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν
Dat	τῷ	τή	τῷ	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς
Acc	τόν	τήν	τό [-ν]	τούς	τάς	τά

Table L: Relative Pronoun "who" "which" "what" "that" etc

_	W	110	vrucr	ı wii	ui i	nai e	ic.	
		S	ingul	ar	plural			
		m	f	n	m	f	n	
	N	ŏς	ή	ő	οĭ	αΐ	ă	
	G	οů	ης	ဝပံ	ών	ών	ών	
	D	ជុំ	ก้	φ	οίς	αίς	οίς	
	Α	ŏν	ήν	ŏ	οὔς	ἄς	ά	

Table G: Personal Pronouns: **Table G-1** "I" "we" "vou"

	I	we	you (pl)	you (pl)
G	έγώ	ήμείς	σύ	ύμείς
	έμοῦ, μου	ήμῶν	σοῦ	ὑμῶν
	έμοῖ, μοι	ήμῖν	σοῖ	ὑμῖν
	έμέ, με	ήμᾶς	σε	ὑμᾶς

Table K:

	ne" "a"	'an'	
	m	f	n
N G D A	εἴς ἐνός ἐνί ἔνα	μία μι ά ς μι ά μίαν	ἔν ἐνός ἐνί ἔν

Table G-2 "he" "she" "it" "they"

			7,	I	
ιὐτός	αύτή	αύτό	αύτοί	αύταί	αύτά
ιὐτοῦ	αύτης	αύτοῦ	αύτῶν	αύτῶν	αύτῶν
ιὐτῷ	αύτη	αύτῷ	αύτοῖς	αύταις	αύτοῖς
ιὐτόν	αύτην	αύτό	αύτούς	αύτάς	αύτά
	ιὐτοῦ	ιύτοῦ αὐτῆς	ύτοῦ αύτῆς αύτοῦ	ιύτοῦ αύτῆς αύτοῦ αύτῶν	τύτοῦ αὐτῆς αὐτοῦ αὐτῶν αὐτῶν
	ιὐτῷ	ιὐτῷ αὐτῆ	ἀτῷ αὐτῆ αὐτῷ	ιὐτῷ αὐτῆ αὐτῷ αὐτοῖς	τὐτῷ αὐτῆ αὐτῷ αὐτοῖς αὐταις

(The remote demonstrative $\dot{\epsilon}$ ke $\hat{\iota}$ vo ζ , $-\eta$, -ov "that" "those" has the same endings.)

	this			these		
	m	<u>f</u>	n	<u> </u>	f	n
N G D A	οὖτος τούτου τούτ <mark>φ</mark> τοῦτον	αὔτη ταύτης ταύτη ταύτην	τούτο τούτου τούτω τούτο	ούτοι τούτων τούτοις τούτους	αύται τούτων ταύταις ταύτας	ταῦτα τούτων τούτοις ταῦτα

(Pattern of Aor Act Ptc endings: -σας, -σασα, -σαν.)

Table I: "every" "each" (plural "all"); "entire"

	singular			plural		
	m	f	n	m	f	n
G	πᾶς παντός παντί πάντα	πᾶσα πάσης πάση πᾶσαν	πᾶν παντός παντί πᾶν	πάντες πάντων πάσι(ν) πάντας	πάσαι πασών πάσαις πάσας	πάντα πάντων πᾶσι(ν) πάντα

"who?" "which?" "what?" "why?" (Without an accent or with the accent on the last syllable of a two syllable form, the word is "someone" "something" "anything.")

Table M: Interrogative Pronoun and Adjective

	sin	ıgular	plural		
	m/f	n	m/f	n	
N G D A	τίς τίνος τίνι τίνα	τί τίνος τίνι τί	τίνες τίνων τίσι(ν) τίνας	τίνα τίνων τίσι(ν) τίνα	