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# EXEGETICAL TOOLS GREEK PRIMER

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# Κοινή Greek

#### Origins of Koine Greek

- Greek belongs to the Indo-European (or Indo-Hittite) language group as one of its ten branches (two are extinct [Ruhlen, *Guide to the World's Languages*, 35]). Earlier Greek grammarians may have called the language group "Indo-Germanic" and may only mention the eight living languages or branches (e.g., Robertson, *New Short Grammar*, 5-6).
- Linear B spans from the thirteenth century BC to the 8th century BC.
- Koine Greek spans from about 300 BC to 330 AD.
- Byzantine Greek spans from 330-1453.
- Modern Greek spans from 1453-present (Robertson, 8).
- Koine evolved from Attic Greek, which itself descended from Ionic. Ionic is one of the three Greek dialects, the other two being Doric and Aeolic. Attic was the language of classical literary Greek.

#### Alphabet

- The Greek alphabet, like the Hebrew alphabet, was derived from the Phoenicians.
- Sophistication of Koine Greek
  - Older scholars, especially classical Greek scholars (e.g., scholars of Homer, Sophocles, Herodotus, Thucydides, Plato, Aristotle, etc.), tended to denigrate the Greek of the New Testament as unsophisticated. Some said it was a sort of "Holy Ghost language," unlike normal Koine Greek, and full of Semitisms (e.g., foreign perversions of the language).
  - However, at the beginning of the twentieth century, Adolf Deissmann published two works, Bible Studies and Light from the Ancient Near East. Both works studied Greek in comparison with newly discovered evidence of Koine Greek. He puts forth papyri, inscriptions on tombstones, letters, and various other inscriptions from the Koine period to show that the NT was actually written in the common language of the day and was not inferior Greek. He states that "the records of the world contemporary with the New Testament" "supply us with the right standard of criticism" (Light, 146). The New Testament is therefore written in the standard Koine Greek of its day and is in no way inferior to the Greek of any period (similarly, Robertson, 10-11).

#### Spread of Greek Language

 Attic Greek (and Hellenistic culture, with it) spread throughout the entire ancient world when Alexander the Great conquered virtually everything. By the time of the NT, Attic Greek had evolved into Koine Greek, which had become the common language of the ancient world.



Adolf Deissmann



Alexander the Great



# The Alphabet

Capital	Lower Case	Name	Pronunciation
A	α	Alpha	a (f <u>a</u> ther)
В	β	Beta	b
Γ	γ	Gamma	g
Δ	δ	Delta	d
Е	€	Epsilon	e (b <u>e</u> t)
Z	ζ	Zeta	Z
Н	η	Eta	a (g <u>a</u> te)
Θ	θ	Theta	th
I	L	lota	i (th <u>i</u> n)
K	κ	Карра	k
Λ	λ	Lambda	1
M	μ	Mu	m
N	ν	Nu	n
Ξ	ξ	Xi	x (ks)
O	0	Omicron	o (p <u>o</u> ridge)
П	π	Pi	р
P	ρ	Ro	r
Σ	σ (ς) <sup>1</sup>	Sigma	S
Т	τ	Tau	t
Y	υ	Upsilon	u (l <u>oot)</u>
Φ	ф	Phi	ph (f)
X	χ	Chi	ch (Ba <u>ch</u> )
Ψ	ψ	Psi	ps
Ω	ω	Omega	o (l <u>o</u> w)

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Sigma appears as  $\sigma,$  except at the end of a word, where it appears as  $\varsigma.$ 

# Diphthongs

αι	ai ( <u>ai</u> sle)
€L	long a ( <u>eig</u> ht)
οι	oi (t <u>oy</u> )
αυ	ow ( <u>ow</u> )
€υ	eu (f <u>eu</u> d)
ου	oo (l <u>ew</u> d)
υι	wee (q <u>uee</u> n)

# **Accents and Breathing Marks**

,	Smooth Breathing Mark
•	Rough Breathing Mark
,	Accute Accent
`	Grave Accent
^	Circumflex

## Punctuation

λόγος.	Period
λόγος,	Comma
λόγος;	Question Mark
λόγος·	Colon

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# 8 Noun Rules

The following 8 noun rules come from Mounce's *The Basics of Biblical Greek*, 344.

- 1. Stems ending in  $\alpha$  or  $\eta$  are in the 1st declension; stems ending in  $\alpha$  are in the 2nd declension; consonantal stems are 3rd declension.
- 2. Every neuter word has the same form in the nominative and the accusative.
- 3. Almost all neuter words end in  $\alpha$  in the nominative and accusative plural.
- 4. In the dative singular, the iota subscripts if possible (the iota can only subscript under a vowel, so it cannot subscript in the third declension).
- 5. Vowels often change their length ("ablaut")
- 6. In the genitive and dative, the masculine and neuter will always be identical.
- 7. The Square of Stops (see other notes).
- 8.  $\tau$  cannot stand at the end of a word and will drop off.

#### Cases



#### Nominative

- Nouns in the nominative case function as subjects or predicate nominatives (in "John is a man," "man" is a predicate nominative).
  - Examples
    - John 1:1: ὁ λόγος ἦν πρὸς τὸν θεόν. The nominative noun ὁ λόγος ("the word") functions as the subject of the sentence "the word was with God."

#### Accusative

- Nouns in the accusative case function as direct objects of verbs or as objects of prepositions.
  - Examples
    - John 1:1: ὁ λόγος ἦν πρὸς τὸν θεόν. The accusative τὸν θεόν functions as the object of the preposition πρὸς.
    - John 1:14: ἐθεασάμεθα τὴν δόξαν αὐτοῦ. The accusative τὴν δόξαν ("the glory") functions as the direct object of the verb ἐθεασάμεθα ("we beheld").
- Two accusatives may stand together, in which case one may be an object complement. For example, in the sentence "I painted the wall red," the direct object is "the wall" while "red" is an object complement.
  - Examples
    - Matt 22:43: πῶς οὖν Δαυὶδ ἐν πνεύματι καλεῖ αὐτὸν κύριον ("how then does David, in the Spirit, call him Lord?"). The accusative pronoun αὐτὸν is the direct object, while κύριον is the object complement.
    - Lev 13:10: καὶ αὕτη μετέβαλεν τρίχα λευκήν ("and [if] this [wound] turns the hair white").

#### Gentive

- Nouns in the genitive case function to express relationships to other nouns such as possession, source, and separation. The genitive is often translated with "of" in front of the noun. However, the word "of" is very ambiguous and can mean any variety of relationships. For beginning Greek, the translation "of" is good enough.
  - Examples
    - John 1:4: ἡ ζωὴ ἦν τὸ φῶς τῶν ἀνθρώπων ("the life was the light of men"). The genitive noun τῶν ἀνθρώπων may in this case be translated as "of men."

#### Dative

- Nouns in the dative case function to express relationships to other nouns or verbs such as location, instrumentality, or indirect object.
  - Examples
    - John 1:5: τὸ φῶς ἐν τῆ σκοτία φαίνει ("the light is shining in the darkness"). The noun τῆ σκοτία functions to express the location of the shining, "in the darkness."

#### Vocative

- The vocative is a case in Greek which signals direct address. In English, one may signal direct address with "O" (e.g., "O, Lord ...") or without "O" (e.g., "Lord, ...").
  - Examples
    - **Matthew 8:25:** κύριε, σῶσον, ἀπολλύμεθα ("Lord, save, we are perishing!"). The noun κύριε ("Lord") is in the vocative case, signaling direct address of the Lord.

#### **Nominative**



- **Subject:** The subject of the main verb of the sentence.
  - **Example:** δ λόγος ἦν πρὸς τὸν θεόν, "the word was with God" (John 1:1). The nominative noun ὁ λόγος ("the word") functions as the subject of the sentence.

#### • Predicate Nominative:

- <u>Definition</u>: A nominative noun that is equated with the subject. The predicate nominative may be a larger subset of which the subject is a part (e.g., "John is a man"), or it may be directly equivalent ("Jesus is God's Son").
- <u>Identification</u>: The PN is usually the known entity, which may be a relative pronoun, the articular noun, or a proper noun.
- Example: ὅς ἐστιν εἰκὼν τοῦ θεοῦ τοῦ ἀοράτου, "he is the image of the invisible God" (Col 1:15). The nominative εἰκὼν functions as the predicate nominative, virtually equating "he" with "image."
- Syntactical Equivalents: The predicate nominative can also appear as "εἰς + accusative." E.g., οὖτός ἐστιν ὁ λίθος . . . ὁ γενόμενος εἰς κεφαλὴν γωνίας, "this is the stone that has become the cornerstone." Here, the phrase εἰς κεφαλὴν γωνίας functions as a PN.

#### Nominative in Simple Apposition

- <u>Definition</u>: "An appositional construction involves (1) two adjacent substantives (2) in the same case, (3) which refer to the same person or thing, (4) and have the same syntactical relation to the rest of the clause" (Wallace, *Greek Grammar*, 48).
- <u>Example</u>: ὅς ἐστιν ἀρχή, πρωτότοκος ἐκ τῶν νεκρῶν, "he is the beginning, the firstborn from the dead" (Col 1:18).¹

#### Nominative Absolute

<u>Definition</u>: "The nominative absolute is the use of the nominative case in introductory material (such as titles, headings, salutations, and addresses), which are not to be construed as sentences" (Wallace, *Greek Grammar*, 49).

#### • Pendant Nominative

• <u>Definition</u>: "This nominative substantive is the logical rather than syntactical subject at the beginning of a sentence, followed by a sentence in which this subject is now replaced by a pronoun in the case required by the syntax" (Wallace, *Greek Grammar*, 51).

# Vocative



- The vocative is a case in Greek which signals direct address. In English, one may signal direct address with "O" (e.g., "O, Lord ...") or without "O" (e.g., "Lord, ...").
- The vocative forms in Greek are often easily recognizable from the context, but there are some rules to learn for its forms.
  - When vocatives are plural, the form is the same as the nominative plural (e.g.,  $\dot{\alpha}\delta\epsilon\lambda\phi\circ\dot{\iota}$ ).
  - For the singular first declension, the vocative form is the same as the nominative singular (e.g.,  $\mathring{\alpha}\delta\epsilon\lambda\phi\acute{\eta}$ ).
  - For the singular second declension, the vocative form generally ends in  $\epsilon$  (e.g.,  $\alpha \pi \acute{o} \sigma \tau o \lambda \epsilon$ ).
  - For the singular third declension, the vocative form is generally the word's stem (e.g.,  $\pi \acute{\alpha} \tau \epsilon \rho$ ).
- There are exceptions to these rules, but they are rare.
- The vocative occurs in the NT 564 times as a noun, 1 time as a participle, and 24 times as an adjective in the NT (Wallace says only 292 vocative noun occur, but a search with BibleWorks 8 shows 564).

#### **Examples**

- Matthew 8:25: κύριε, σῶσον, ἀπολλύμεθα ("Lord, save, we are perishing!")
- Luke 10:21: ἐξομολογοῦμαί σοι, πάτερ, κύριε τοῦ οὐρανοῦ καὶ τῆς γῆς ("I give thanks to you, Father, Lord of heaven and of earth")
- Acts 7:2: "Ανδρες ἀδελφοὶ καὶ πατέρες, ἀκούσατε ("Men, brothers, and fathers, listen")

## 1st and 2nd Declension Nouns



- If a noun's stem ends in  $\alpha$  or  $\eta$ , it is 1st declension (e.g.,  $\dot{\eta}$   $\gamma\rho\alpha\phi\dot{\eta}$ , stem:  $\gamma\rho\alpha\phi\eta$ -). First declension nouns are usually feminine.
- If the stem ends in o, it is second declension (e.g., ὁ λόγος, stem: λογο-; τό ἔργον, stem: εργο-). Second declension nouns are usually masculine and neuter.
- The endings for nouns (all 3 declensions) must be memorized, or translation will be impossible without the help of a parsing program.
- Case endings should be memorized on their own (without being attached to a word), or recognizing endings will become much harder later.
- There are some feminine second declension nouns, like  $\dot{\eta}$   $\dot{\delta}\delta\dot{\delta}\varsigma$ . These are declined like masculine second declension nouns, but any articles, adjectives, or other words modifying them will be feminine.
- There are some masculine first declension nouns, like ὁ προφήτης. The -ης ending signals 1st declension, by which pattern the nouns decline, although the gen sg ending will likely be  $\upsilon$  (προφήτου) rather than  $\varsigma$ . Other first declension masculine nouns include  $\nu$ εανίας,  $\mu$ αθητής, and Ήρ $\dot{\phi}$ δης.

#### 1st and 2nd Declension Case Endings

	2	1	2
	masc	fem	neut
nom sg	-ς	-	-ν
gen sg	<b>-</b> U	-ς	<b>-</b> υ
dat sg	-L	-L	-L
acc sg	-ν	-ν	-ν
nom pl	-l	-l	<u>-α</u>
gen pl	<u>-ω</u> ν	<u>-ω</u> ν	<u>-ω</u> ν
dat pl	-ις	-ις	-ις
acc pl	-υς	-ς	<u>-α</u>

<sup>\*</sup>An underlined vowel means the ending joins with the stem vowel, resulting in a contraction, e.g., for a "nom pl neuter,"  $o + \alpha => o\alpha$   $=> \alpha$ .

The resultant form is **not**  $\tilde{\epsilon} \rho \gamma o \alpha$ , but  $\tilde{\epsilon} \rho \gamma \alpha$ .

#### **Case Endings Attached to Nouns**

	2	1	2
	masc	fem	neut
nom sg	λόγος	γραφή	δῶρον
gen sg	λόγου	γραφῆς	δώρου
dat sg	λόγῳ	γραφῆ	δώρῳ
acc sg	λόγον	γραφήν	δῶρον
nom pl	λόγοι	γραφαί	δῶρα
gen pl	λόγων	γραφῶν	δώρων
dat pl	λόγοις	γραφαῖς	δώροις
acc pl	λόγους	γραφάς	δῶρα

# Case Endings Attached to Nouns w/ Article

	2	1	1	2
	masc	fem	fem*	neut
nom sg	δ λόγος	ἡ γραφή	ἡ ὥρα	τὸ δῶρον
gen sg	τοῦ λόγου	τῆς γραφῆς	τῆς ὥρας	τοῦ δώρου
dat sg	τῷ λόγῳ	τῆ γραφῆ	τῆ ὥρᾳ	τῷ δώρῳ
acc sg	τὸν λόγον	τὴν γραφήν	τὴν ὥραν	τὸ δῶρον
nom pl	οἱ λόγοι	αὶ γραφαί		τὰ δῶρα
gen pl	τῶν λόγων	τῶν γραφῶν		τῶν δώρων
dat pl	τοῖς λόγοις	ταῖς γραφαῖς		τοῖς δώροις
acc pl	τοὺς λόγους	τὰς γραφάς		τὰ δῶρα

<sup>\*</sup>Fem words with stems ending in  $\epsilon \alpha$ ,  $\iota \alpha$  (ἀλήθ $\epsilon \iota \alpha$ ), or  $\rho \alpha$  (ὥρα) will form the gen and dat sg with  $\alpha$ . Otherwise, the  $\alpha$  will shift to  $\eta$ . E.g.,  $\dot{\eta}$  δόξ $\alpha$ ,  $\tau \dot{\eta} \varsigma$  δόξης,  $\tau \dot{\eta}$  δόξη,  $\tau \dot{\eta} \nu$  δόξαν.

<sup>\*</sup>The  $\iota$  in the "dat sg" subscripts and the stem vowel in the second declension lengthens from  $\circ$  to  $\omega$ .

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•  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \zeta$  is an excellent word to learn the paradigm for, since it has both 1st and 3rd declensions (both less familiar than 2nd declension words, like  $\lambda \acute{o} \gamma o \varsigma$ ). For this reason, it is called a 3-1-3 adjective.

Memorizing this paradigm will greatly help with learning participles

and to remember the third declension endings. The masc and neut

stem for  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \zeta$  is  $\pi \alpha \nu \tau$ -. The stem for the feminine, 1st declension forms is  $\pi \alpha \sigma \alpha$ -. It can be used as an adjective in the attributive or predicate position (pred is more frequent), or substantivally.

πᾶσι(ν)

πάντας

dat pl

acc pl

πάσαις

πάσας

πᾶσι(ν)

πάντα

## **3rd Declension Nouns**

#### Third declension nouns:

- Stems end in a consonant.
- Drop -oς ending from genitive to derive stem (e.g., σάρξ, σαρκός, ἡ shows the stem is σαρκ-).
- Memorize the  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \zeta$ ,  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \sigma \alpha$ ,  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \nu$  paradigm. It is very important for learning participles.
- Example of stems:

dat pl

acc pl

σάρξ, ἡ, stem σαρκ-, flesh  $\dot{\epsilon}$ λπίς, ἡ, stem  $\dot{\epsilon}$ λπιδ-, hope χάρις, ἡ, stem χαριτ-, grace νύξ, ἡ, stem νυκτ-, night

• 3rd declension words can have various stem endings:  $\kappa$ -,  $\mu\alpha\tau$ -, and  $\nu$ - are three examples. Words with  $\mu\alpha\tau$ - stems are always neuter; neuters have identical endings in the nominative and accusative.

κ stem ματ stem ν stem

σαρξί(ν) ὀνόμασι(ν) τίσι(ν)

τίνας

σάρκας ὀνόματα

lexical form	ἡ σάρξ	το ὄνομα	τίς (m/f)	τίς (neut)						
stem	σαρκ-	ονοματ-	τιν-	τιν-				3rd decl	1st decl	3rd decl
					M/F Endings	Neut Endings		masc	fem	neut
nom sg	σάρξ	ὄνομα	τίς	τί	<b>-</b> Ç	-	nom sg	πᾶς	πᾶσα	πᾶν
gen sg	σαρκός	ὀνόματος	τίνος	τίνος	-0ζ	-Οζ	gen sg	παντός	πάσης	παντός
dat sg	σαρκί	ὀνόματι	τίνι	τίνι	-ı	-ı	dat sg	παντί	πάση	παντί
acc sg	σάρκα	ὄνομα	τίνα	τί	-α	-	acc sg	πάντα	πᾶσαν	πᾶν
nom pl	σάρκες	ὀνόματα	τίν∈ς	τίνα	<b>-</b> €ζ	-α	nom pl	πάντ∈ς	πᾶσαι	πάντα
gen pl	σαρκῶν	ὀνομάτων	τίνων	τίνων	<b>-</b> ων	-ων	gen pl	πάντων	πασῶν	πάντων

A common, but somewhat irregular verb is πίστις. Its stem is technically πιστι-, but the *iota* is replaced by an *epsilon* in some cases. The paradigm should simply be noted for recognition.

**-**σι(ν)

**-**ας

τίσι(ν)

τίνα

**-**σι(ν)

-α

# **Personal Pronouns**



Α. αὐτούς αὐτάς

αὐτά

- Pronouns replace nouns. Personal pronouns replace nouns that refer to persons.
- The following personal pronouns should be memorized for recognition. They are vital for reading Greek with any sense of fluidity.
- A pronoun always agrees with its antecedent in gender and number, but its case may differ depending on its function in the sentence. An example in English would be "Tom slept on his bed." Tom is the subject and therefore equivalent to the nominative case, whereas "his" is in the genitive case, since it signals possession.
- Since verb endings signals the subject sufficiently, a pronoun is generally not used in the nominative case except for emphasis.
- Third person pronouns follow a 2-1-2 pattern, although the nominative and accusative of the singular neuter omits the  $\nu$  on the ending.
- The pronoun αὐτός may function in three ways. First, it acts as a third person personal pronoun. Second, it may be used intensively to mean "it/him/her-self." This use of αὐτός will usually be found in the predicate position, although not exclusively (e.g., "the apostle himself" normally = αὐτὸς ὁ ἀπόστολος). Third, it may be used as an adjective, usually in the attributive position, to mean "same" (e.g., "the same apostle" normally = ὁ αὐτὸς ἀπόστολος).

First Person	Seco	nd	Person		Third Pe	erson		
<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>		
Ν. ἐγώ	ἡμ∈ῖς	N.	σύ	ὑμ∈ῖς		M.	F.	N.
G. μου (ἐμοῦ)	ήμῶν	G.	σου (σοῦ)	ὑμῶν	N.	αὐτός	αὐτή	αὐτό
D. μοι (ἐμοί)	ήμῖν	D.	σοι (σοί)	ὑμῖν	G.	αὐτοῦ	αὐτῆς	αὐτοῦ
<b>Α</b> . με (ἐμέ)	ἡμᾶς	A.	σ∈ (σέ)	ὑμᾶς	D.	αὐτῷ	αὐτῆ	αὐτῷ
					A.	αὐτόν	αὐτήν	αὐτό
	nd $\epsilon \mu \epsilon$ are emphatic for					<u>Plural</u>		
	emphatic form is genera or in contrastive senter	•				M.	F.	N.
• •	asis that is difficult to l		•		N.	αὐτοί	αὐταί	αὐτά
					G.	αὐτῶν	αὐτῶν	αὐτῶν
					D.	αὐτοῖς	αὐταῖς	αὐτοῖς

# **Relative Pronouns**



- A relative pronoun introduces a clause that usually modifies (provides additional information about) a noun.
- The paradigm follows a 2-1-2 pattern. The relative pronouns are almost exactly the endings of the 2-1-2 nouns. The exceptions are the neuter nominative and accusative singular, which are  $\delta$  rather than  $\delta \nu$ . This paradigm should be **memorized**.
- The case of the relative pronoun is determined by its function in the relative clause. So a relative pronoun that functions as a direct object will appear in the accusative case, even if its antecedent to which it refers is in the nominative case. An exception is called "attraction," which is when a relative pronoun is attracted to the case of its antecedent. One then might, for example, find a relative pronoun as a direct object occuring in the genitive case, if it refers back to a genitive noun. This occurs occasionally and one may save a lot of trouble if this exception is remembered.

#### **The Relative Pronoun**

	2	1	2
	masc	fem	neut
nom sg	ŏς	ή	ŏ
gen sg	οΰ	ἡς	οΰ
dat sg	<b>်</b> ့	ή	ယ့်
acc sg	ὄν	ήν	ŏ
nom pl	oί	αί	ά
gen pl	ὧν	ών	ώົν
dat pl	οἷς	αἷς	οἷς
acc pl	οὕς	άς	ά

• Notice the accent on the relative pronouns, which helps you distinguish it from the article in a few forms that might otherwise be confused.

**The Article** 

	masc	fem
nom sg	ò	ή
nom pl	οί	αί

**The Relative Pronoun** 

	masc	fem
nom sg	őς	ή
nom pl	οἵ	αἵ

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# **Demonstrative Pronouns**

- Demonstrative pronouns in Greek work similarly to those in English. The paradigms follow a 2-1-2 pattern and are easy to recognize. Memorize these forms so you can recognize them instantly while reading.
- Demonstrative pronouns always stand in the predicate position rather than the attributive position, just like πᾶς. The article always stands with the noun that the pronoun modifies. Hence, one might see οὖτος ὁ λόγος, but not ὁ οὖτος λόγος.

οὑτος, <i>ti</i>	his			έκεῖνος,	that		
	<u>Singular</u>				<u>Singular</u>		
	M.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
N.	οὑτος	αὕτη	τοῦτο	N.	ἐκεῖνος	ἐκείνη	ἐκεῖνο
G.	τούτου	ταύτης	τούτου	G.	ἐκείνου	ἐκείνης	ἐκείνου
D.	τούτω	ταύτη	τούτω	D.	ἐκείνῳ	ἐκείνῃ	ἐκείνῳ
A.	τοῦτον	ταύτην	τοῦτο	A.	ἐκεῖνον	ἐκείνην	ἐκεῖνο
	<u>Plural</u>				<u>Plural</u>		
	M.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
N.	οὑτοι	αὑται	ταῦτα	N.	ἐκεῖνοι	ἐκεῖναι	ἐκεῖνα
G.	τούτων	τούτων	τούτων	G.	ἐκείνων	ἐκείνων	ἐκείνων
D.	τούτοις	ταύταις	τούτοις	D.	ἐκείνοις	ἐκ€ίναις	ἐκείνοις
A.	τούτους	ταύτας	ταῦτα	A.	ἐκείνους	ἐκείνας	ἐκεῖνα



# **Reflexive Pronouns**

- The declensions for reflexive pronouns are the same as for  $α \mathring{v} τ \acute{o} \varsigma$  (2-1-2) pattern, except there is no nominative form.
- You should be able to recognize these forms.

έμαυτοῦ, <i>of myself</i> σεαι		σ∈αυτοῦ	σεαυτοῦ, <i>of yourself</i>			ἑαυτοῦ, <b>of himself/herself/itself</b>			
	<u>Singular</u>			<u>Singular</u>			<u>Singular</u>		
	M.	F.		M.	F.		M.	F.	N.
G.	<b>έ</b> μαυτοῦ	<b>έ</b> μαυτῆς	G.	σ∈αυτοῦ	σ∈αυτῆς	G.	ξαυτοῦ	έαυτῆς	ξαυτοῦ
D.	<b>ἐ</b> μαυτῷ	· έμαυτῆ	D.	σ∈αυτῷ	σ∈αυτῆ	D.	έαυτῷ	$\dot{\epsilon}$ αυτ $\hat{\eta}$	έαυτῷ
A.	<b>ἐ</b> μαυτόν	<b>έ</b> μαυτήν	A.	σ∈αυτόν	σεαυτήν	A.	έαυτόν	ξαυτήν	ξαυτό
	<u>Plural</u>			<u>Plural</u>			<u>Plural</u>		
G.	έαυτῶν	έαυτῶν	G.	έαυτῶν	έαυτῶν	G.	ξαυτῶν	έαυτῶν	ξαυτῶν
D.	έαυτοῖς	έαυταῖς	D.	έαυτοῖς	έαυταῖς	D.	έαυτοῖς	$ϵ$ αυτα $\hat{ι}$ ς	έαυτοῖς
A.	έαυτούς	έαυτα	A.	ξαυτούς	<b>έ</b> αυτάς	A.	ξαυτούς	ξαυτάς	ξαυτά



# Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns

- The interrogative pronoun  $\tau i \zeta$  ("who? which? what?") differs from the indefinite pronoun  $\tau i \zeta$  ("someone, something") *only* by the accent. The accent on the interrogative pronoun always falls on the penult (unless it is monosyllabic, in which case there is still an accent), while the accent on the indefinite pronoun always falls on the ultima (unless the form is monosyllabic, in which case there is no accent).
- Both pronouns can be used as independent nouns or as adjectives.
- These pronouns are what we call "two-termination adjectives," because the male and female forms are the same. All forms follow the third declension.

The Inte	The Interrogative Pronoun ( $ au$ $'$ $'$ $'$ $'$ $'$			The Indefinite Pronoun ( $ au$ ις)				
	<u>Singular</u>			<u>Singular</u>				
	M/F	N		M/F	N			
N.	τίς	τί	N.	τις	τι			
G.	τίνος	τίνος	G.	τινός	τινός			
D.	τίνι	τίνι	D.	τινί	τινί			
A.	τίνα	τί	A.	τινά	τι			
	<u>Plural</u>			<u>Plural</u>				
N.	τίν€ς	τίνα	N.	τινές	τινά			
G.	τίνων	τίνων	G.	τινῶν	τινῶν			
D.	τίσι (ν)	τίσι <i>(ν)</i>	D.	τισί(ν)	τισί (ν)			
A.	τίνας	τίνα	A.	τινάς	τινά			

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## The Article

- The lexical form of the article in Greek is δ (nominative, singular, masculine).
- The article in Greek has several functions and acts as more than simply to make a noun definite (see Wallace's Greek Grammar Beyond the Basics, 207-290). However, making a noun definite is one of its primary uses. Thus, ἡ γραφή means "the Scripture" rather than "a Scripture."
- Another case in which the article will sometimes be missing on a definite noun is when the noun follows a preposition. For example, in Col 1:2, Paul says "Grace to you, and peace ἀπὸ θεοῦ πατρὸς ἡμῶν." The noun "God" in this case is definite and should not be translated "a God."

#### The Greek Article

	masc	fem	neut
nom sg	ò	ή	τό
gen sg	τοῦ	τῆς	τοῦ
dat sg	τῷ	τῆ	τῷ
acc sg	τόν	τήν	τό
nom pl	οί	αί	τά
gen pl	τῶν	τῶν	τῶν
dat pl	τοῖς	ταῖς	τοῖς
acc pl	τούς	τάς	τά





- Adjectives function in three ways: (1) they modify nouns ("the *good* man"); (2) they act as substantives ("the *good* [things/people]); (3) they act as predicate adjectives ("the man is *good*"). If the adjective is an attributive adjective (the first use), it will fall in one of four attributive positions. If it is a predicate adjective, it will fall in one of three predicate positions. See the "Attributive and Predicate Positions" handout.
- Adjectives may be either masculine, feminine, or neuter.
  - If the adjective has distinct forms for all three genders (in the nominative singular), it is called a three-termination adjective. For example, καλός, καλή, καλόν.
  - If the adjective has the same ending for the masculine and feminine genders, and a different ending for the neuter gender, it is called a two-termination adjectives. Most of these adjectives are compounds. For example,  $\mathring{\alpha}\pi\iota\sigma\tau\circ\varsigma$  (masc & fem),  $\mathring{\alpha}\pi\iota\sigma\tau\circ\iota$  (neuter). It is important to know if an adjective is two-termination in order to identify the correct gender of the adjective in context and thereby to identify the noun it modifies.
- Adjectives use the same case endings as nouns (although there are irregular patterns for some adjectives as well). Many adjectives follow a 2-1-2 pattern, meaning the masculine and accusative follow the second declension, while the feminine follows the first declension. Some follow a 3-1-3 pattern, such as  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \zeta$ , which is an important adjective paradigm to memorize after one has memorized third declension noun patterns.
- [Advanced Info] Adjectives that end in -εος, -οος are generally contracted according to the rules. For example, the uncontracted form of "golden" would be χρύσεος, but the ending -εος contracts to -οῦς, with the circumflex accent to signal a contraction has occurred. Lexicons typically list the word in its contracted form, however, so you will learn it in its final form (χρυσοῦς).
- Irregular adjectives to recognize:  $\pi o \lambda \dot{\upsilon} \varsigma$  ("many") is a 2-1-2 adjective, but some forms have stem  $\pi o \lambda$  (nom and acc of masc and neut), while the rest of the forms have stem  $\pi o \lambda \lambda$ -.

άγαθός, ή, όν good

πᾶς,	πᾶσα,	πᾶν	all	(stem:	παντ-,	πασα-)	
------	-------	-----	-----	--------	--------	--------	--

	2nd decl	1st decl	2nd decl		3rd decl	1st decl	3rd decl
	masc	fem	neut		masc	fem	neut
nom sg	ἀγαθός	ἀγαθή	άγαθόν	nom sg	$\pi\hat{\alpha}\varsigma$	πᾶσα	πᾶν
gen sg	ἀγαθοῦ	$\mathring{\alpha}$ γ $\alpha$ θ $\mathring{\eta}$ ς $^1$	ἀγαθοῦ	gen sg	παντός	πάσης	παντός
dat sg	ἀγαθῷ	ἀγαθῆ	ἀγαθῷ	dat sg	παντί	πάση	παντί
acc sg	ἀγαθόν	ἀγαθήν	ἀγαθόν	acc sg	πάντα	πᾶσαν	πᾶν
	. ,				,		,
nom pl	ἀγαθοί	ἀγαθαί	ἀγαθά	nom pl	πάντ∈ς	πᾶσαι	πάντα
gen pl	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν	ἀγαθῶν	gen pl	πάντων	πασῶν	πάντων
dat pl	ἀγαθοῖς	ἀγαθαῖς	ἀγαθοῖς	dat pl	πᾶσι(ν)	πάσαις	πᾶσι(ν)
acc pl	ἀγαθούς	ἀγαθάς	ἀγαθά	acc pl	πάντας	πάσας	πάντα

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If the feminine form of the adjective ends in  $\epsilon \alpha$ ,  $\iota \alpha$ , or  $\rho \alpha$ , the singular forms will use  $\alpha$  for all the case endings (e.g., ἄγιαι, ἀγίων, ἀγίαις, ἀγίας).

# **Attributive and Predicate Positions**

- Why are these important? Knowing the attributive and predicate positions allows you to:
  - (1) easily identify adjectival constructions (including difficult ones, such as when prepositional phrases are used as adjectives).
  - (2) distinguish between adjectival phrases (the good man) and predicative phrases (the man is good), which use the same Greek words but in different orders.
- In the following charts, keep in mind that prepositional phrases and participles can act as adjectives and would stand in the same position.

# **Attributive (Adjectival) Positions**

Position	Greek Example	English Translation	Notes
1st Attr. Pos.	ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἄνθρωπος	the good man (lit., "the good man")	Adjective receives greater emphasis than the substantive
2nd Attr. Pos.	ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἀγαθός	the good man (lit., "the man the good" or "the man, the good one")	Equal emphasis on adjective and substantive (possibly slight emphasis on the latter)
3rd Attr. Pos.	ἄνθρωπος ὁ ἀγαθός	the good man (lit., "man the good")	Rare with adjectives, but more frequent with prepositional phrases or participles acting as an adjective
4th Attr. Pos.	ἄνθρωπος ἀγαθός ΟR ἀγαθὸς ἄνθρωπος	the (or "a") good man (lit., "good man" or "man good")	No article; either order is valid; can only distinguish from 3rd pred. pos. by context

# Predicate Positions (hint: article is always with the noun and no article with adjective)

Position	Greek Example	English Translation	Notes
1st Pred. Pos.	ἀγαθὸς ὁ ἄνθρωπος	the man is good (lit., "good is the man")	Adjective receives greater emphasis than the substantive; it is ok to translate literally to reflect this emphasis, e.g., "blessed are the peacemakers" (Matt 5:9).
2nd Pred. Pos.	δ ἄνθρωπος ἀγαθός	the man is good (lit., "the man is good")	Equal emphasis on adjective and substantive (possibly slight emphasis on the latter)
3rd Pred. Pos.	ἄνθρωπος ἀγαθός <b>OR</b> ἀγαθὸς ἄνθρωπος	the man is good (lit., "good man" or "man good")	No article; either order is valid; can only distinguish from 4th attr. pos. by context

# Verbal System



- The following terms must be understood if one wishes to understand any verbal system.
  - <u>Tense</u>: The form of the verb (e.g., present-tense form, aorist-tense form, etc.). Tense-forms correspond to a certain aspect (see below), but do not correspond exactly with time. For example, in Greek, many but not all present tense-forms occur in present time, and most but not all past tense-forms occur in past time. So when we refer to "tense," we're referring to the form of the verb, not necessarily to the time of its action.
  - <u>Voice</u>: The relationship between the agent of the verb and the action expressed. There are three voices in Greek: active, passive, and middle. With the active voice, the subject is performing the action. With the passive voice, the subject is being acted upon. The middle voice is difficult to translate into English, but typically it expresses the subject acting in his own interest.
  - <u>Mood</u>: The relationship between the verb and reality. In Greek, there are several moods. Indicative is used when the verb is true to reality. Other moods that reflect less correspondence between the verb and reality are the subjunctive, optative, and imperative.
  - <u>Person</u>: The perspective of the subject of the verb. The subject of any verb is either the first person ("I, we"), second person ("you"), or third person ("he, she, it, they,").
  - <u>Number</u>: The number of entities involved in the subject. Nouns are either singular or plural.
  - <u>Aspect</u>: The perspective from which the action of the verb is portrayed. Some parts of aspect theory in Koine Greek are still being debated by scholars.
- When **parsing** verbs, you will give tense, voice, mood, person, and number. Some grammars give a different order, but the more popular grammars give this order. So, for example,  $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda\nu\epsilon\nu$  should be parsed as "imperfect, active, indicative, 3rd person, singular" (or abbreviated, "impf, act, ind, 3rd, sg"). It is not common to give the aspect of a verb when parsing, but it is important exegetically, and should be considered mentally at least.



# Master Indicative Verb Chart Adapted from Mounce, *Basics of Biblical Greek*

Tense	Augment/ Reduplication	Tense Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	1 <sup>st</sup> Singular Form
Present Active	None	Present	None	0 /€	Primary Active	λύω
Present Middle/ Passive	None	Present	None	ο / ε	Primary Middle/ Passive	λύομαι
Imperfect Active	€	Present	None	0 /€	Secondary Active	ἔλυον
Imperfect Middle/ Passive	€	Present	None	ο / ε	Secondary Middle/ Passive	έλυόμην
Future Active	None	Future Active	σ	0 / €	Primary Active	λύσω
Future Middle	None	Future Active	σ	ο / ε	Primary Middle/ Passive	λύσομαι
1 <sup>st</sup> Future Passive	None	Aorist Passive	θησ	ο / ε	Primary Middle/ Passive	λυθήσομαι
1 <sup>st</sup> Aorist Active	ε	Aorist Active	σα	None	Secondary Active	ἔλυσα
2 <sup>nd</sup> Aorist Active	ε	Aorist Active	None	ο / ε	Secondary Active	<b>ἔλαβον</b>
1 <sup>st</sup> Aorist Middle	ε	Aorist Active	σα	None	Secondary Middle/ Passive	έλυσάμην
2 <sup>nd</sup> Aorist Middle	ε	Aorist Active	None	ο / ε	Secondary Middle/ Passive	έγενόμην
1 <sup>st</sup> Aorist Passive	E	Aorist Passive	θη	None	Secondary Active	έλύθην
1 <sup>st</sup> Perfect Active	λε	Perfect Active	κα	None	Primary Active	λέλυκα
Perfect Middle/ Passive	λε	Perfect Passive	None	None	Primary Middle/ Passive	λέλυμαι

# **Present Active Indicative**



#### **Formation of the Present Active Indicative:**

Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Primary Active Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $0/\varepsilon$  +  $\mu \varepsilon \nu$  (1 pl)

- Indicative mood describes something factual, asks a question, or states an opinion.
- The present-tense form expresses "imperfective aspect," which portrays the action as a process, with no focus on the beginning or the end of the action. The focus could thus be on the continual nature of the action (e.g., βλέπετε [Col 2:8]) or the fact that the action is in progress (e.g., ποιοῦσιν [Matt 12:2]).
- The tense stem is the building block of the verb and carries the essential meaning. Thus,  $\lambda v$  carries the meaning "to loose," while the personal endings describe the person (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and number (sg, pl) of those doing the action.
- "Primary" personal endings are used with present and future tense-forms. "Secondary" personal endings come later.
- "Active" is a voice, the alternatives being "passive" and "middle." With the active voice, the subject is the agent (the actor) of the action expressed by the verb.

#### Present Active Indicative (λύω)

	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λυ	o	_	λύ ω¹	I am loosing
2 sg	λυ	ε	ς	λύ εις <sup>2</sup>	You are loosing
3 sg	λυ	ε	L	λύ ει	He/she/it is loosing
1 pl	λυ	o	μεν	λύ ομεν	We are loosing
2 pl	λυ	ε	τε	λύ ετε	You all are loosing
3 pl	λυ	0	νσι	$λύ ουσι(ν)^3$	They are loosing

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Omicron lengthens to omega at the end of the word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The ending is actually  $\sigma\iota$ , but it is as if "metathesis" has occurred (the letters have switched places), so  $\lambda \acute{\upsilon} \epsilon \sigma \iota => \lambda \acute{\upsilon} \epsilon \iota \varsigma$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The  $\nu$  drops out and the connecting vowel o lengthens to ou to compensate for the loss (  $\lambda$ υονσι =>  $\lambda$ υοσι =>  $\lambda$ ύουσι).

# Present Passive and Middle Indicative



#### Formation of the Present Active Indicative:

Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Primary Passive Personal Endings  $\lambda v$  +  $o/\epsilon$  +  $\mu \epsilon \theta \alpha$  (1 pl)

- Indicative mood describes something factual, asks a question, or states an opinion.
- The present-tense form denotes "imperfective aspect," which displays the action as incomplete, with no focus on the beginning or the end of the action. The focus could thus be on the continual nature of the action (like βλέπετε [Col 2:8]) or the fact that the action is in progress (e.g., ποιοῦσιν [Matt 12:2]).
- The tense stem is the building block of the verb and carries the essential meaning. Thus, λυ- carries the meaning "to loose," while the personal endings describe the person (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and number (sg, pl) of those doing the action.
- "Passive" and "middle" are voices. Passive means the subject is being acted upon. Middle voice is difficult to describe in English, but it is typically an active sense and its meaning should be consulted in a lexicon.
- In the present tense, the passive and middle voice share the same conjugation. One must decide whether the same form is being used in the passive or middle voice based on the context.
- Verbs that appear in only a passive or middle form, but have an active meaning, are called "deponent" verbs. Two common examples are πορεύομαι ("I go") and ἔρχομαι ("I come").

#### Present Passive Indicative (λύω)

	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λυ	0	μαι	λύ ο μαι	I am being loosed
2 sg	λυ	€	σαι	λύ η¹	You are being loosed
3 sg	λυ	$\epsilon$	ται	λύ ∈ ται	He/she/it is being loosed
1 pl	λυ	0	μεθα	λυ ό μεθα	We are being loosed
2 pl	λυ	$\epsilon$	σθ€	λύ ε σθε	You are being loosed
3 pl	λυ	0	νται	λύ ο νται	They are being loosed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The form  $\lambda \nu \epsilon \sigma \alpha \iota$  contracts as follows. The  $\sigma$  drops out because it stands between two vowels not in the stem, leaving  $\lambda \nu \epsilon \alpha \iota$ . The vowels then contract, with  $\epsilon \alpha$  contracting to  $\eta$  and the *iota* subscripts, leaving  $\lambda \nu \eta$ . However, the ending  $\sigma \alpha \iota$  will show up later and should be memorized.

#### Present Middle/Deponent Indicative (ἔρχομαι)

	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ	0	μαι	ἔρχ ο μαι	I come
2 sg	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ	€	σαι	ἔρχ ῃ	You come
3 sg	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ	€	ται	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ ε ται	He/she/it comes
1 pl	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ	0	μ∈θα	ἐρχ ό μεθα	We come
2 pl	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ	€	σθ∈	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ ∈ σθ∈	You all come
3 pl	<b>ἔ</b> ρχ	0	νται	ἔρχ ο νται	They come

# Imperfect Active Indicative



#### Formation of the Imperfect Active Indicative:

Augment Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Secondary Active Personal Endings  $\epsilon$  +  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $o/\epsilon$  +  $\mu \epsilon \nu$  (1 pl)

- Indicative mood describes something factual, asks a question, or states an opinion.
- The imperfect tense-form, like the present tense-form expresses "imperfective aspect," which displays the action as incomplete, with no focus on the beginning or the end of the action.
- The imperfect uses the present tense stem.
- "Secondary" personal endings are used with past tense-forms. There are both active and passive secondary endings.
- The augment is a vowel prefixed to the stem. In Koine Greek it generally (if not always) indicates past time.
  - If the verb begins with a single vowel, it will lengthen. Vowels  $\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon$  lengthen to  $\eta$ ; o lengthens to  $\omega$ . Vowels  $\eta$ ,  $\iota$ ,  $\upsilon$ ,  $\omega$  lengthen but do not change to a different vowel. E.g.,  $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\pi\dot{\alpha}\omega => \dot{\eta}\gamma\dot{\alpha}\pi\omega\nu$ ;  $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\epsilon\dot{\iota}\rho\omega => \dot{\eta}\gamma\epsilon\dot{\iota}\rho\sigma\nu$ .
  - If the verb begins with a dipthong, lengthening still occurs:  $\alpha\iota$ ,  $\epsilon\iota => \eta$ ;  $\circ\iota => \omega$ ;  $\alpha\upsilon$ ,  $\epsilon\upsilon => \eta\upsilon$ . E.g.,  $\epsilon\dot{\upsilon}\chi\alpha\rho\iota\sigma\dot{\epsilon}\omega => \eta\dot{\upsilon}\chi\alpha\rho\iota\sigma\dot{\epsilon}\upsilon\upsilon$ .
  - If the verb is compound (prefixed by a preposition), the augment occurs between the preposition and verb.
     E.g., καταβαίνω => κατέβαινον.
    - With prepositions that end in a vowel (like κατα above), that vowel will usually drop out (one exception is περιπατέω => περιεπάτουν).
    - Prefix  $\dot{\epsilon}$ κ will change to  $\dot{\epsilon}\xi$  ( $\dot{\epsilon}$ κβάλλω =>  $\dot{\epsilon}\xi\dot{\epsilon}$ βαλλον).

#### Imperfect Active Indicative (λύω)

	Augment	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	λυ	0	ν	ἔλυον	I was loosing
2 sg	€	λυ	€	ς	ἔ λυ ∈ ς	You were loosing
3 sg	$\epsilon$	λυ	$\epsilon$	- (ν)	ἔ λυ ∈ (ν)	He/she/it was loosing
1 pl	€	λυ	0	μεν	έ λύ ο μεν	We were loosing
2 pl	€	λυ	€	τ€	ἐ λύ ε τε	You were loosing
3 pl	€	λυ	0	$ν$ $(σαν)^1$	ἔλυον	They were loosing

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The ending σαν shows up, e.g., in the 3rd person plural of  $\epsilon iμi$  in the imperfect indicative: ησαν.

# Imperfect Middle/Passive Indicative



#### Formation of the Imperfect Active Indicative:

Augment Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Secondary Middle/Passive Personal Endings  $\epsilon$  +  $\lambda v$  +  $o/\epsilon$  +  $\mu \eta \nu$  (1 sg)

- Indicative mood describes something factual, asks a question, or states an opinion.
- The imperfect tense-form, like the present tense-form expresses "imperfective aspect," which displays the action as incomplete, with no focus on the beginning or the end of the action.
- The imperfect uses the present tense stem.
- "Secondary" personal endings are used with past tense-forms. There are both active and passive secondary endings.
- The augment is a vowel prefixed to the stem. In Koine Greek it generally (if not always) indicates past time. For rules on augment lengthening, see the handout on the Imperfect Active Indicative.

#### Imperfect Middle/Passive Indicative ( $\lambda \dot{\nu} \omega$ )

	Augment	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	λυ	0	μην	έ λυ ό μην	I was being loosed
2 sg	€	λυ	€	υ <b>(σο)</b> ¹	έ λύ ο υ	You were being loosed
3 sg	€	λυ	€	το	ἐ λύ ∈ το	He/she/it was being loosed
1 pl	€	λυ	0	μεθα	έ λυ ό μεθα	We were being loosed
2 pl	€	λυ	€	σθ∈	ἐ λύ ∈ σθ∈	You were being loosed
3 pl	€	λυ	0	ντο	ἐ λύ ο ντο	They were being loosed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The original ending is  $\sigma$ o, but  $\sigma$  drops out since it is between two vowels not in the stem, and  $\epsilon$ o contracts to  $\sigma$ oυ ( $\epsilon$ λύ $\epsilon$ σο =>  $\epsilon$ λύ $\epsilon$ ο =>  $\epsilon$ λύ $\epsilon$ ου). Note that the connecting vowel is properly  $\epsilon$ , but it changes to  $\sigma$ o in the contraction.

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## **Contract Verbs**

- Contract verbs have stems ending in:  $\alpha$  (ἀγαπάω),  $\epsilon$  (εὐχαριστέω),  $\sigma$  (πληρόω).
- Contract verbs occur only in the present and imperfect tense-forms.
- The lexical form will show the contract vowel ( $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \alpha \omega$ ), but the contracted form will show in the text ( $\alpha \gamma \alpha \pi \omega$ ).
- There will almost always be a circumflex over the contracted vowels in the present indicative.
- The vowel before a tense formative will generally lengthen. E.g., τιμήσω, ἐτίμησα etc., not τιμάσω, ἐτίμασα, etc.

#### Rules of Contraction (memorize if possible; definitely learn to recognize)

```
ποιοῦμ∈ν
                                  <=
                                        ποιεομεν
      <= 0€
                    πληροῦτ∈
                                  <=
                                         πληροετε
     <= EE
                     ποι∈ἷτ∈
                                        ποιεετε
\in \iota
                                                                                 \alpha + \epsilon \iota \nu in present active infinitive is \hat{\alpha} \nu
                     άγαπῶμεν <= ἀγαπαομεν
    <= αo
(ı)
                                                                                 o + ειν in present active infinitive is οῦν
     <= αου
                     ἀγαπῶσι
                                  <=
                                         άγαπαουσι
ω
    <= αε
                    άγαπᾶτα
                                   <= ἀγαπαετε
                    ἀγαπᾶ
                                  <= \dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\pi\alpha\epsilon\iota
    <= α∈ι
```

• When  $\alpha$  and  $\epsilon$  meet, whichever letter comes first wins out and becomes long. So above, see  $\alpha\epsilon$  contracts to long  $\epsilon$ . Now see how  $\epsilon\alpha$  contracts to long  $\epsilon$ , which is  $\eta$ .

```
η <= εαι ποιη <= ποιηι <= ποιεαι<sup>2</sup> <= ποιεσαι<sup>1</sup>

οι <= οει πληροις <= πληροεις
πληροι <= πληροει
```

• If the contract vowel and the first vowel of a **diphthong** are the same, the redundant letter drops out.

```
ει <= εει</li>ου <= οου</li>
```

<= α∈ι

• If the contract vowel and the first vowel of a **diphthong** are different, they contract.

00 <= €00

¹This form is present middle/passive. This is the

# <sup>1</sup> This form is present middle/passive. This is the reason the 3rd person singular in the present middle/passive has two possible endings, σαι and η.

#### Present Active Indicative of τιμάω

1 sg	( τιμάω ) =>	τιμῶ
2 sg	( τιμάεις ) =>	τιμᾶς
3 sg	( τιμάει )     =>	τιμᾶ
1 pl	( τιμάομεν ) =>	τιμῶμεν
2 pl	( τιμάετε ) =>	τιμᾶτ∈
3 pl	( τιμάουσι <i>(ν)</i> ) =>	τιμῶσι <i>(ν)</i>

#### **Chart of Verb Contractions**

(left column is first letter, top row is second letter)

	α	€	η	0	ω	€L	ຸກ	ου	οι
α	α	α	α	ω	ω	ά	ά	ω	φ
$\epsilon$	η	$\epsilon$ ι	η	ου	ω	€L	Ŋ	ου	οι
0	ω	ου	ω	ου	ω	οι	οι	ου	οι

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The sigma drops out because it is between two vowels.

# **Square of Stops**

Sunday, July 15, 2012 2:39 PM



Labial +  $\sigma$  ->  $\psi$  ex:  $\beta\lambda\epsilon\pi$  +  $\sigma$  +  $\omega$  =  $\beta\lambda\epsilon\psi\omega$ Velar +  $\sigma$  ->  $\xi$  ex:  $\sigma\alpha\rho\kappa$  +  $\varsigma$  =  $\sigma\alpha\rho\xi$ Dental +  $\sigma$  ->  $\sigma$  ex:  $\pi\epsilon\iota\theta$  +  $\sigma$  +  $\omega$  =  $\pi\epsilon\iota\sigma\omega$ 

#### **Future Active Indicative**



#### Formation of the Future Active Indicative:

Future Active + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Primary Active Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\lambda v$  +  $\sigma$  +  $o/\epsilon$  +  $\mu \epsilon \nu$  (1 pl)

- Although other tense forms do not directly correlate with a specific time of action, the future tense *always* signals action in the future. There is little or no aspectual feature to the future tense form.
- "Primary" personal endings are used with present and future tense-forms. "Secondary" personal endings come later.
- Some verbs are deponent in some tense forms but not in others. E.g.,  $\epsilon \sigma \theta \iota \omega$  ("I am eating") in the future is deponent φάγομαι ("I will eat").
- While the future active tense stem of λύω is the same as the present tense stem (λυ-), but many verbs have different stems. E.g., the future active tense stem of κηρύσσω is κηρυκ-.
- The future tense can have a modal sense of possibility or duty. E.g., Matt 5:43, "you shall (ἀγαπήσεις) love your neighbor."
- The future tense is mostly limited to the indicative mood. There are some infinitives and participles, particularly in Luke's writings and Hebrews, but even these are rare. Even the future indicative is rarer than it could be, since the present participle may express an imminent action in the future, as it may also in Hebrew and Aramaic. E.g., "the Son of Man will come (ἔρχεται) at an hour you do not expect" (Luke 12:40).

#### Future Active Indicative (λύω)

	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λυ	σ	0	-	λύ σ ω	I will loose
2 sg	λυ	σ	€	ς	λύ σ εις	You will loose
3 sg	λυ	σ	$\epsilon$	ι	λύ σ ει	He/she/it will loose
1 pl	λυ	σ	0	μεν	λύ σ ομεν	We will loose
2 pl	λυ	σ	$\epsilon$	τ€	λύ σ ετε	You will loose
3 pl	λυ	σ	0	νσι	λύ σ ουσι(ν)	They will loose

- With contract verbs, the contract vowel lengthens before the tense formative. So instead of  $\alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\alpha\sigma\omega$ , we get  $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\pi\dot{\eta}\sigma\omega$ . So a long vowel before the tense formative that differs from the lexical stem of a verb signals that the word may be the future active indicative, although other tense forms exhibit this same lengthening.
- When the stem of a verb ends in a stop (remember the "Square of Stops"), the tense formative  $\sigma$  added to it results in a different consonant in place of the two letters. Labials ( $\pi$   $\beta$   $\phi$ ) plus  $\sigma$  results in  $\psi$ , velars ( $\kappa$   $\gamma$   $\chi$ ) plus  $\sigma$  results in  $\xi$ , and dentals ( $\tau$   $\delta$   $\theta$ ) plus  $\sigma$  results in  $\sigma$ . So rather than  $\beta\lambda\epsilon\pi\sigma\omega$ , we get  $\beta\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\psi\omega$ . Rather than  $\delta\iota\omega\kappa\sigma\omega$ , we get  $\delta\iota\dot{\omega}\xi\omega$ , and rather than  $\pi\epsilon\iota\theta\sigma\omega$ , we get  $\pi\epsilon\dot{\iota}\sigma\omega$ .

Labial +  $\sigma$  ->  $\psi$ Velar +  $\sigma$  ->  $\xi$ Dental +  $\sigma$  ->  $\sigma$ 

# **Future Middle Indicative**



#### Formation of the Future Middle Indicative:

Future Active + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Primary Passive Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon \quad + \quad \sigma \quad + \quad o/\epsilon \quad + \quad \mu \epsilon \theta \alpha \ (1 \ pl)$ 

- Although other tense forms do not directly correlate with a specific time of action, the future tense *always* signals action in the future. There is little or no aspectual feature to the future tense form.
- "Primary" personal endings are used with present and future tense-forms. "Secondary" personal endings come later.
- The future middle is distinct from both the future active and the future passive. The future middle uses the primary passive personal endings.

#### Future Middle Indicative (λύω)

	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λυ	σ	0	μαι	λύ σο μαι	I will loose for myself
2 sg	λυ	σ	€	σαι (η)	λύ σ η	You will loose for yourself
3 sg	λυ	σ	€	ται	λύ σ ε ται	He/she/it will loose for himself
1 pl	λυ	σ	0	μ∈θα	λυ σ ό μεθα	We will loose for ourselves
2 pl	λυ	σ	€	σθ€	λύ σ ∈ σθ∈	You will loose for yourselves
3 pl	λυ	σ	0	νται	λύ σ ο νται	They will loose for themselves

#### Future Deponent Indicative (πορεύομαι)

	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	πορευ	σ	0	μαι	πορεύ σ ομαι	I will go
2 sg	πορευ	σ	€	σαι (η)	πορεύ σ η	You will go
3 sg	πορευ	σ	$\epsilon$	ται	πορεύ σ ε ται	He/she/it will go
1 pl	πορευ	σ	0	μεθα	πορευ σ ό μεθα	We will go
2 pl	πορευ	σ	$\epsilon$	σθε	πορεύ σ ε σθε	You all will go
3 pl	πορευ	σ	0	νται	πορεύ σ ο νται	They will go

# **Future Passive Indicative**



#### Formation of the First Future Passive Indicative:

Aorist Passive + Tense Formative + Connecting + Primary Mid/Pass Tense Stem Vowel Personal Endings 
$$\lambda \upsilon$$
 +  $\theta \eta \sigma$  +  $o/\epsilon$  +  $\mu \alpha \iota$  (1 sg)

- The future passive indicative uses the agrist passive tense stem. It adds a sigma to the agrist passive tense formative.
- Beware not to confuse the aorist passive 3rd plural ending  $-\theta\eta\sigma\alpha\nu$  with the future passive tense formative  $\theta\eta\sigma$ . The ending  $-\theta\eta\sigma\alpha\nu$  cannot be future passive because it requires the o/ $\epsilon$  connecting vowel and it uses the primary middle/passive endings, whose 3rd plural ending is  $\nu\tau\alpha\iota$ .

#### First Future Passive Indicative (λύω)

	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λυ	θησ	0	μαι	λυ θήσ ο μαι	I will be loosed
2 sg	λυ	θησ	€	σαι (ῃ)	λυ θήσ η	You will be loosed
3 sg	λυ	θησ	€	ται	λυ θήσ ∈ ται	He/she/it will be loosed
1 pl	λυ	θησ	0	μ∈θα	λυ θησ ό μεθα	We will be loosed
2 pl	λυ	θησ	€	σθ€	λυ θήσ ε σθε	You will be loosed
3 pl	λυ	θησ	0	νται	λυ θήσ ο νται	They will be loosed

#### Formation of the Second Future Passive Indicative:

Aorist Passive + Tense Formative + Connecting + Primary Mid/Pass Tense Stem Vowel Personal Endings 
$$\alpha\pi\sigma\sigma\tau\alpha\lambda$$
 +  $\eta\sigma$  +  $\sigma$  +

• Some verbs lack the  $\theta$  in the future passive tense formative, e.g.,  $\mathring{\alpha}\pi o \sigma \tau \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \lambda \omega$ . The second aorist passive tense stem for this verb is  $\mathring{\alpha}\pi o \sigma \tau \alpha \lambda$ -, which is what is used to form the future passive.

# Second Future Passive Indicative (ἀποστέλλω)

	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	αποσταλ	ησ	0	μαι	ἀποσταλ ήσ ο μαι	I will be sent
2 sg	αποσταλ	ησ	€	σαι (η)	ἀποσταλ ήσ η	You will be sent
3 sg	αποσταλ	ησ	€	ται	ἀποσταλ ήσ ∈ ται	He/she/it will be sent
1 pl	αποσταλ	ησ	0	μεθα	ἀποσταλ ησ ό μ∈θα	We will be sent
2 pl	αποσταλ	ησ	€	σθ€	ἀποσταλ ήσ ∈ σθ∈	You will be sent
3 pl	αποσταλ	ησ	0	νται	ἀποσταλ ήσ ο νται	They will be sent

# **Liquid Verbs**



- Liquid verbs have stems that end in a liquid consonant:  $\lambda$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $\rho$ .
- Greek does not allow liquids to stand next to a sibilant (s sound) within a word.
  - The future active and middle of liquid verbs replaces the tense formative  $\sigma$  with an  $\epsilon$ . The *epsilon* then contracts with the connecting vowel. These future present and middle verbs are therefore conjugated the same as the present active and middle indicative contract verbs that end in  $-\epsilon \omega$ . The accents on the present active and liquid future active are different, but they are the same on the present middle and liquid future middle.
  - The first aorist active and middle of liquid verbs will lose the tense formative  $\sigma$ , but will keep the connecting vowel  $\alpha$  and make a stem change. E.g.,  $\mu \not\in \nu \omega$  ("I remain"),  $\xi \mu \in \nu \nu \alpha$  ("I remained").
- Some verbs have liquid stems in the future, but not the present, e.g.,  $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$  ("I say") and  $\acute{\epsilon} \rho \acute{\omega}$  ("I will say").
- Some present verb stems end in a liquid, but have a rist stems that do not, e.g.,  $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \acute{\alpha} \nu \omega$  a rist verb stem is  $\lambda \alpha \beta$ -.

# (Liquid) Future Active Indicative (κρίνω)

#### Singular Plural

- 1. κρινῶ κρινοῦμ€ν
- 2. κρινεῖς κρινεῖτε
- 3. κρινεῖ κρινοῦσι(ν)

# (Liquid) Future Middle Indicative (κρίνω)

Singular Plural

- 1. κρινοῦμαι κρινούμεθα
- **2**. κριν $\hat{\eta}$  κρινε $\hat{\iota}$ σθε
- 3. κρινεῖται κρινοῦνται

## (Liquid) First Aorist Active Indicative (κρίνω)

#### Singular Plural

- 1. ἔκρινα ἐκρίναμεν
- 2. ἔκρινας ἐκρίνατε
- 3.  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  κρινε (ν)  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  κριναν

## (Liquid) First Aorist Middle Indicative (κρίνω)

Singular Plural

- 1. ἐκρινάμην ἐκρινάμεθα
- 2. ἐκρίνω ἐκρίνασθε
- 3. ἐκρίνατο ἐκρίναντο

#### First Aorist Active and Middle Indicative



#### Formation of the First Aorist Active Indicative:

Augment + 1st Aorist Active + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Secondary Active
Tense Stem  $\epsilon$  +  $\lambda v$  +  $\sigma$  +  $\alpha$  +  $\varsigma$  (2 sg)

- There are two types of aorists, the first and the second aorist. They use different stems and connecting vowels. The type of aorist in which a verb shows up does not affect the meaning of the verb.
- The agrist tense form carries the perfective aspect. It presents an action as a complete (not completed) whole.
- The agrist tense form can portray an action in the past, present, or future. It is always presented as a complete action, as opposed to a progressive or imperfective action.
- The augment and tense formative are a good indicator of the first agrist. However, since the *sigma* drops out with some verbs, the *alpha* connecting vowel is the best indicator.
- The 1st sg ending  $\nu$  drops out, leaving the connecting vowel  $\alpha$  as the final letter. The 3rd sg conn. vowel is  $\epsilon$ , not  $\alpha$ .
- The square of stops holds for a rist stems (because of the *sigma* tense formative) as for the future (e.g.,  $\beta\lambda\epsilon\pi\omega = \delta\lambda\epsilon\psi\alpha$ ). With contract verbs, the contract vowel will lengthen before the tense formative (e.g.,  $\alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\alpha\omega = \delta\gamma\alpha\pi\alpha$ ).

#### First Aorist Active Indicative (λύω)

	Aug- ment	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	λυ	σ	α	ν	ἔ λυ σ α	I loosed
2 sg	€	λυ	σ	α	ς	ἔ λυ σ α ς	You loosed
3 sg	€	λυ	σ	α	<b>-</b> (ν)	$\tilde{\epsilon}$ $\lambda \upsilon \ \sigma \in (\nu)$	He/she/it loosed
1 pl	€	λυ	σ	α	μεν	έ λύ σ α μεν	We loosed
2 pl	€	λυ	σ	α	τ€	ἐ λύ σ α τ∈	You loosed
3 pl	E	λυ	σ	α	ν (σαν)	ἔ λυ σ α ν	They loosed

#### Formation of the First Aorist Middle Indicative:

Augment + 1st Aorist Active + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Secondary Mid/Passive Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\in \quad + \quad \lambda \upsilon \quad \quad + \quad \sigma \quad \quad + \quad \alpha \quad \quad + \quad \mu \eta \nu \ \text{(1 sg)}$ 

• The only difference from the agrist active is that the secondary middle/passive endings are used. Note also that the agrist middle form is different from the agrist passive form.

#### First Aorist Middle Indicative (λύω)

	Augment	Stem	Tense Formative	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	λυ	σ	α	μην	έ λυ σ ά μην	I loosed for myself
2 sg	€	λυ	σ	α	σο	έ λύ σ ω¹	You loosed for yourself
3 sg	€	λυ	σ	α	το	ἐ λύ σ α το	He/she/it loosed for himself
1 pl	€	λυ	σ	α	μεθα	έ λυ σ ά μεθα	We loosed for ourselves
2 pl	€	λυ	σ	α	$\sigma\theta\epsilon$	έ λύ σ α σθε	You loosed for yourselves
3 pl	€	λυ	σ	α	ντο	ἐ λύ σ α ντο	They loosed for themselves

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The 2nd sg ending σο is used, but rather than contracting to ου as in the imperfect, it lengthens to σω ( $\epsilon$ λυσασο =>  $\epsilon$ λυσαω).

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# Second Aorist Active and Middle Indicative

#### **Formation of the Second Aorist Active Indicative:**

Augment + Second Aor. Act. + Connecting Vowel + Secondary Active Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\epsilon$  +  $\beta\alpha\lambda$  +  $o/\epsilon$  +  $\varsigma$  (2 sg)

- The agrist tense form expresses perfective aspect and can present an action in the past, present, or future.
- The agrist tense form can portray an action in the past, present, or future. It is always presented as a complete action, as opposed to a progressive or imperfective action.
- The formation of the second agrist is the same as the formation of the imperfect *except* for the different tense stem.
  - Thus, a single letter can distinguish the 2nd agrist and imperfect. E.g.,  $\dot{\epsilon}\beta\acute{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\omega\mu\epsilon\nu$  (impf) and  $\dot{\epsilon}\beta\acute{\alpha}\lambda\omega\mu\epsilon\nu$  (2nd agr).
  - The 2nd agrist tense stem is *always* different from the present tense stem. It is often the simplification of a double consonant ( $\beta\alpha\lambda\lambda$  to  $\beta\alpha\lambda$ -) or a vowel change ( $\lambda\epsilon\iota\pi$  to  $\lambda\iota\pi$ -).
- Verbs only occur in either the first or second agrist, not both (there are a few exceptions).

#### Second Aorist Active Indicative (βάλλω)

	Augment	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	βαλ	0	ν	ἔ βαλ ο ν	I threw
2 sg	€	βαλ	€	ς	ἔ βαλ ∈ ς	You threw
3 sg	€	βαλ	E	<b>-</b> (ν)	ἔ βαλ ∈ (ν)	He/she/it threw
1 pl	€	βαλ	0	μεν	έ βάλ ο μεν	We threw
2 pl	€	βαλ	€	τ€	<i>ἐ</i> βάλ ε τε	You threw
3 pl	€	βαλ	€	ν (σαν)	βαλ ο ν	They threw

#### Formation of the Second Aorist Middle Indicative:

Augment + Second Aor. Act. + Connecting Vowel + Secondary Mid/Passive Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\epsilon + \gamma \epsilon \nu + o/\epsilon + \mu \eta \nu (1 \text{ sg})$ 

• The agrist middle form is different from the agrist passive form. The only difference between the active and middle is that different endings are used.

#### Second Aorist Middle/Deponent Indicative (γίνομαι)

	Augment	Stem	Connecting Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	γεν	0	μην	έ γεν ό μην	I became
2 sg	€	γεν	$\epsilon$	σο	έ γέν ου	You became
3 sg	E	γεν	$\epsilon$	το	έ γέν ε το	He/she/it became
1 pl	$\epsilon$	γ∈ν	0	μεθα	έ γεν ό μεθα	We became
2 pl	$\epsilon$	γ∈ν	€	σθ∈	έ γέν ε σθε	You became
3 pl	E	γ∈ν	0	ντο	έ γέν ο ντο	They became

#### **Aorist Passive Indicative**



#### Formation of the First Aorist Passive Indicative:

Augment + Aorist Passive + Tense Formative + Secondary Active

Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\epsilon$  +  $\lambda v$  +  $\theta \eta$  +  $\nu$  (1 sg)

- There is both a first and a second agrist passive. The first agrist passive is usually easily recognizable by the tense
  formative θη. There is no connecting vowel, so the endings are attached directly to the tense formative.
  - The actual letters added to the stem are  $\theta \epsilon$ , but in the indicative mood this is lengthened to  $\theta \eta$ .
- Although it is counter-intuitive, the agrist passive indicative uses the secondary active endings.
- The agrist passive form is given as the sixth principle part. The stem is usually the same as the present tense stem.
- If a stem ends in a "stop" (dental, labial, or velar), the "stop" will change due to its juxtaposition with  $\theta$ .
  - π and β change to φ (e.g.,  $\dot{\epsilon}$ βλ $\dot{\epsilon}$ φθην,  $\dot{\epsilon}$ λήμφθην)
  - κ and γ change to χ (e.g., ἐδιώχθην, ἤχθην)
  - τ, δ, ζ, and θ change to σ (e.g.,  $\epsilon \beta \alpha \pi \tau i \sigma \theta \eta \nu$ ,  $\epsilon \pi \epsilon i \sigma \theta \eta \nu$ )
- The 3rd plural ending is the alternate ending  $\sigma\alpha\nu$  rather than simply  $\nu$ .

#### First Aorist Passive Indicative (λύω)

	Augment	Stem	Tense Formative	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	$\epsilon$	λυ	θη	ν	έ λύ θη ν	I was loosed
2 sg	$\epsilon$	λυ	θη	ς	ἐ λύ θη ς	You were loosed
3 sg	E	λυ	θη	-	ἐ λύ θη	He/she/it was loosed
1 pl	€	λυ	θη	μ€ν	έ λύ θη μεν	We were loosed
2 pl	€	λυ	θη	τ∈	έ λύ θη τε	You were loosed
3 pl	€	λυ	θη	σαν	έ λύ θη σαν	They were loosed

#### Formation of the Second Aorist Passive Indicative (32x in NT):

Augment + Aorist Passive + Tense Formative + Secondary Active Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\in \quad + \quad \gamma \rho \alpha \varphi \quad + \quad \eta \quad \quad + \quad \nu \ (1 \, sg)$ 

• The second agrist passive tense stem may be (1) the same as the present tense stem, (2) the same as the agrist active tense stem, or (3) different from both. The form must be learned from a lexicon.

#### Second Aorist Passive Indicative (γράφω)

	Augment	Stem	Tense Formative	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	E	γραφ	η	ν	έ γράφ η ν	I was written
2 sg	€	γραφ	η	ς	έ γράφ η ς	You were written
3 sg	€	γραφ	η	-	έ γράφ η	He/she/it was written
1 pl	€	γραφ	η	μεν	έ γράφ η μεν	We were written
2 pl	E	γραφ	η	τ∈	ἐ γράφ η τ∈	You were written
3 pl	€	γραφ	η	σαν	έ γράφ η σαν	They were written

# **Perfect Active Indicative**



#### Formation of the Perfect Active Indicative:

Reduplication	+	Perfect Active	+	Tense	+	Connecting -	+	Secondary Active
		Tense Stem		Formative		Vowel		Personal Endings
λ + ϵ	+	λυ	+	κ	+	α .	+	μεν <b>(1 pl)</b>

- The aspect of the perfect tense-form is currently being debated by scholars. Traditionally, it has been treated as a combination of the perfective and imperfective aspects. The action is presented as either a complete action in the past with enduring effects until the present (•———) (e.g., "he has been raised," 1 Cor 15:4), or as an action with an enduring past that resulted in a present state (———•) (e.g., "I have fought the good fight," 2 Tim 4:7). Recent studies on verbal aspect have concluded that the perfect tense-form encodes either imperfective aspect or stative aspect, although the translation from both sides often ends up being stative in nature. Therefore, it is best to *tentatively* treat the perfect as encoding stative aspect.
- The perfect reduplicates the first letter of the stem.
  - If the stem begins in a single consonant, that consonant is reduplicated, followed by an  $\epsilon$ .
  - If the stem begins in an aspirate consonant ( $\phi \chi \theta$ ), it is reduplicated as its corresponding voiceless consonant ( $\pi \kappa \tau$ , respectively).
  - If the stem begins with two consonants, the verb will usually reduplicate a vowel (e.g.,  $\gamma$ ινώσκω, whose perfect active stem is  $\gamma \nu \omega$ , reduplicates  $\epsilon$  to form  $\tilde{\epsilon} \gamma \nu \omega \kappa \alpha$ ). If the second consonant is a  $\lambda$  or  $\rho$ , the verb will reduplicate normally (e.g.,  $\gamma \rho \alpha \phi \omega => \gamma \epsilon \gamma \rho \alpha \phi \alpha$ ).
  - If the stem begins in a vowel or diphthong, the vowel is lengthened (e.g.,  $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\pi\dot{\alpha}\omega => \dot{\eta}\gamma\dot{\alpha}\pi\eta\kappa\alpha$ ) . Diphthongs often do not reduplicate (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ ὑρίσκω =>  $\epsilon$ ὕρηκα).
  - A compound verb reduplicates the verbal part (e.g., ἐκβάλλω => ἐκβέβληκα).
- The perfect active is the fourth principle part listed in lexicons, while the perfect middle/passive is the fifth.
- Contract verbs lengthen their contract vowel in the active and passive voices.

## Perfect Active Indicative (λύω)

	Redup- lication	Stem	Tense Formative	Conn. Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λ€	λυ	κ	α	-	λέ λυ κα	I have loosed
2 sg	λε	λυ	κ	α	ς	λέ λυ κα ς	You have loosed
3 sg	λ€	λυ	κ	α	(ν)	$\lambda \dot{\epsilon}$ λυ κ $\epsilon$ (ν) <sup>1</sup>	He/she/it has loosed
1 pl	λε	λυ	κ	α	μ€ν	λε λύ κα μεν	We have loosed
2 pl	λε	λυ	κ	α	τ€	λε λύ κα τε	You all have loosed
3 pl	λ€	λυ	κ	α	νσι	λε λύ κα σι(ν) <sup>2</sup>	They have loosed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The tense formative + connecting vowel changes from  $\kappa\alpha$  to  $\kappa\epsilon$ , just as the first aorist 3rd sg changes from  $\sigma\alpha$  to  $\sigma\epsilon$  ( $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda\nu\sigma\epsilon(\nu)$ ).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The ending is actually  $\nu\sigma\iota$ , but the  $\nu$  drops out because of the  $\sigma$ . This form occurs 22 times in the NT. There is an alternate form  $\lambda\epsilon\lambda\nu\kappa\alpha\nu$  that appears 9 times.

# Perfect Middle/Passive Indicative



#### Formation of the Perfect Middle/Passive Indicative:

Reduplication + Perfect Passive + Primary Mid/Pass

Tense Stem Personal Endings  $\lambda + \epsilon + \lambda \upsilon + \mu \alpha \iota$  (1 pl)

- The verbal aspect is the same as the perfect active.
- The perfect middle/passive reduplicates according to the same rules as the perfect active.
- The perfect middle/passive is the fifth principle part listed in lexicons.
- Notice the second singular ending is the actual ending  $\sigma\alpha\iota$ ; it does not contract to  $\eta$ .
- Just as there is no connecting vowel here, neither is there a connecting vowel between the perfect middle/passive stem and the morphemes for the infinitive ( $\sigma\theta\alpha\iota$ ) and the participle ( $\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma\varsigma$ ).
- If the stem ends in a vowel, it will usually lengthen before the ending (e.g., μαρτυρέω => μεμαρτύρημαι).
- If the stem ends in a consonant, various changes occur to ease pronunciation. They are best learned by observation.

## Perfect Middle/Passive Indicative (λύω)

	Redup- lication	Stem	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	λε	λυ	μαι	λέ λυ μαι	I have been loosed
2 sg	λ€	λυ	σαι	λέ λυ σαι	You have been loosed
3 sg	λ€	λυ	ται	λέ λυ ται	He/she/it has been loosed
1 pl	λ€	λυ	μεθα	λε λύ μεθα	We have been loosed
2 pl	λ€	λυ	σθ€	λέ λυ σθ€	You all have been loosed
3 pl	λε	λυ	νται	λέ λυ νται	They have been loosed

# Pluperfect Active Indicative



#### **Formation of the Pluperfect Active Indicative:**

Augment + Reduplication + Pluperfect Act. + Tense + Connecting + Secondary Active Tense Stem Formative Vowel Personal Endings  $\epsilon$  +  $\lambda$  +  $\epsilon$  +  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\kappa$  +  $\epsilon \iota$  +  $\nu$  (1 sg)

- "The past perfect emphasizes completion in past time. It was like sticking a stake in the past and marking the completion up to that point" (Robertson, *New Short Grammar*, 304).
- The augment does not always occur in the NT.
- The pluperfect is rare in the NT

# Pluperfect Active Indicative (λύω)

	Aug- ment	Redup- lication		Tense Form.	Conn. Vowel	Personal Endings	Final Form	Translation
1 sg	€	λ€	λυ	К	€l	ν	<b>έλελύκειν</b>	I had loosed
2 sg	€	λ€	λυ	К	€l	ς	<i>ἐλ</i> ελύκεις	You had loosed
3 sg	€	λ€	λυ	К	€ℓ	-	<i>έλελ</i> ύκει	He/she/it had loosed
1 pl	$\epsilon$	λ€	λυ	κ	€ι	μεν	<b>έ</b> λελύκειμεν	We had loosed
2 pl	€	λ€	λυ	К	€l	τ€	<i>ἐλελύκειτε</i>	You all had loosed
3 pl	€	λ€	λυ	К	€l	σαν	<b>έ</b> λελύκεισαν	They had loosed

# δίδωμι ("to give")



- There are two classes of verbs. So far we have only learned -ω verbs. We must now learn -μι verbs. Most forms of  $-\mu\iota$  verbs are athematic, meaning they do not have a thematic connecting vowel (o/ $\epsilon$  or  $\omega/\eta$ ). The -μι verbs are the oldest class of verbs, and originally there were no - $\omega$  verbs. The first century AD is when - $\omega$ verbs began overtaking the -μι verbs. In Modern Greek, -μι verbs have virtually disappeared (Robertson, *New Short Grammar*, 285).
- Other athematic conjugations include all agrist passives (except the subjunctive), certain second agrists that lack the thematic vowel; all perfect/pluperfect middle/passives; a few second perfect/pluperfect verbs.
- The stem for  $\delta i \delta \omega \mu \iota$  is  $\delta o$ -. Its principal parts should be memorized: δίδωμι, δώσω, ἔδωκα, δέδωκα, δέδομαι, ἐδόθην.

Present Act	tive Indicative
-------------	-----------------

#### Singular Plural 1. δίδωμι δίδομεν 2. δίδως δίδοτε 3. $\delta(\delta\omega\sigma_1(\nu))$ $\delta(\delta\delta\alpha\sigma_1(\nu))$

• Appears 21x in NT. **Memorize**.

#### **Imperfect Active Indicative**

	Singular	Plural
1.	ἐδίδουν	<b>ἐδίδομεν</b>
2.	ἐδίδους	<i>ἐ</i> δίδοτ <i>ϵ</i>
2	<b>έ</b> δίδου	<i>ἐ</i> δίδοσαν

 Final o of the stem lengthens to
 Appears 87x in NT. Memorize. ου instead of ω. Appears 12x in NT.

#### **Aorist Active Indicative\***

	Singular	Plural
1.	<b>ἔ</b> δωκα	<b>ἐ</b> δώκαμεν
2.	<b>ἔ</b> δωκας	<b>ἐ</b> δώκατε
3.	ἔδωκε <i>(</i> ν)	ἔδωκαν

#### **Present Mid/Pass Indicative**

	Singular	Plural
1.	δίδομαι	διδόμ $\epsilon\theta\alpha$
2.	δίδοσαι	δίδοσθ∈
3.	δίδοται	δίδονται

# **Present Active Imperative**

2. δίδου δίδοτε 3. διδότω διδότωσαν

Singular Plural

• Only four occur in the NT (Luke 6:30, 38; 11:3; Eph 4:27). Only 2sg and 2pl appear.

## **Imperfect Mid/Pass Indicative**

	Jiligulai	Turai
1.	<b>έ</b> διδόμην	<i>ἐ</i> διδόμ <i>ϵ</i> θα
2.	ἐδίδοσο	<i>ἐδίδοσθε</i>

Singular Plural

3. ἐδίδοτο ἐδίδοντο

# **Aorist Middle Indicative**

Does not occur in NT.

#### **Future Active Indicative**

The future active indicative form is δώσω, which is entirely regular. The final o of the stem lengthens to  $\omega$  before the tense formative. The future active and middle forms are all formed from δώσω just as with λύω/λύσω

#### **Aorist/Future Passive Indicative**

The aor pass form is  $\dot{\epsilon}\delta\delta\theta\eta\nu$ . Its endings are regular and from this form are derived all of the aor and fut pass. Aor pass occurs in NT 33x; fut pass 16x.

#### **Aorist Active Subjunctive**

		Singular	Plural
	1.	δῶ	δῶμεν
	2.	δῷς	δῶτ∈
	3.	δῷ	δῶσι <i>(ν)</i>
•	Oc	curs 24x i	in NT.

#### **Present Active Subjunctive**

• Only occurs in Rev 3:9.

#### **Aorist Active Imperative**

Singular Plural **2**. δός δότ€ 3. δότω δότωσαν

 Occurs 31x in NT. The endings are the same as the pres act impv except for the 2sg form. The aor mid and aor pass impy do not occur in the NT.

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# More -μι Verbs

- Principal parts of τίθημι, "I put, place" (stem  $\theta \epsilon$ -): τίθημι, θήσω, ἔθηκα, τέθεικα, τέθειμαι, ἐτέθην.
- Principal parts of ἀφίημι, "I let go, leave, forgive" (stem αφε-): ἀφίημι, ἀφήσω, ἀφήκα, --, ἀφέωμαι, ἀφέθην.

# *ϵ*ἰμί ("to be")



- The verb  $\epsilon i \mu i$  (aka the copulative verb), as in most languages, is irregular and must be memorized. It is most common in the present active indicative and the imperfect active indicative, but also occurs occasionally as a present active participle and sometimes as a present active imperative.
- The present active participle paradigm follows a 3-1-3 pattern and is therefore not too hard to learn. However, there are notable differences, such as  $\mathring{\omega}\nu$  and  $\mathring{o}\nu$ , that must simply be memorized and recognized.
- Note that the present active participle has a smooth breathing mark and accent ( $\mathring{\omega}\nu$ ), not a rough breathing mark and accent ( $\mathring{\omega}\nu$ ). The latter is the genitive plural relative pronoun.

Present	Active In	dicative	Imperfe	ct Active	Indicative	Present	Active In	nperative
	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1.	€ἰμί	<b>ἐ</b> σμ <b>έ</b> ν	1.	ἤμην	ἦμ€ν	2.	ἴσθι	<b>ἔ</b> στ€
2.	$\epsilon$ î	<b>ἐ</b> στ <b>έ</b>	2.	ής	ἦτ∈	3.	<b>ἔ</b> στω	<b>ἔ</b> στωσαν
3	<sub>έστί (ν.)</sub>	$\epsilon i \sigma i (\nu)$	3	η̂ν	ἦσαν			

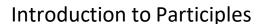
#### **Future Active Indicative**

	Singular	Plural
1.	ἔσομαι	<b>ἐσόμεθ</b> α
2.	<b>ἔ</b> σῃ	ἔσεσθε
3.	<b>ἔ</b> σται	<b>ἔ</b> σονται

<sup>\*</sup>The endings are the primary passive personal endings.

#### **Present Active Participle**

<u>Singular</u>		
M.	F.	N.
Ν. ὤν	οὖσα	őν
G. ὄντος	οὔσης	ὄντος
D. ὄντι	οὔση	ὄντι
Α. ὄντα	οὖσαν	őν
<u>Plural</u>		
M.	F.	N.
Ν. ὄντ∈ς	οὖσαι	ὄντα
G. ὄντων	οὐσῶν	ὄντων
D. οὖσι <i>(ν)</i>	οὔσαις	οὖυσι <b>(</b> ν
<b>Λ</b> ὄντα <i>ς</i>	οἴσας	Όντα





- Participles in English have both verbal and adjectival elements. The verbal element is expressed
  most clearly in adverbial participles, which modify verbs. The adjectival element is expressed
  most clearly in adjectival participles, which modify nouns or pronouns.

   <u>Adverbial participle</u>: **Taking** the test on Tuesday, the student hopes to pass.
   Adjectival participle: The student **taking** the test on Tuesday hopes to pass.
- Note how, in the examples above, we see that participles can take direct objects and other modifiers. Both the adverbial and the adjectival participle have "the test" as the direct object. The prepositional phrase "on Tuesday" also modifies the participle "taking."
- The typical -ing ending added to a verb to create a participle (e.g., eat + ing = eating) is actually an abbreviated form of speech. Each participle actually communicates something that is often implied, such as cause, a time element, concession ("even though"), etc. So one may say "he choked, eating his sandwich," but what one really means "he choked while/because he was eating his sandwich." This example demonstrates how an adverbial participle works. The participle gives additional information about (i.e., it modifies) the verb "choked."
- Greek participles are very similar to English participles.
- Adverbial participles are always anarthrous, meaning they do not have an article.
- However, adjectival participles do not always have an article. They can also be anarthrous.
   Adjectival participles always agree with the word they modify in case, number, and gender.
- Participles have 8 parts to their parsings: tense, voice, "participle," case, number, gender, lexical form, translation (e.g., "while he was going").
- Participles do not have subjects built into the word. One must discover the subject by
  determining which word the participle is modifying. E.g., in the sentence "while going to the
  store, Tom listened to music," we see that the participle "while going" modifies the main verb
  "listened." This means the subject of the verb "listened," which is Tom, is also the implied
  subject of the participle.



# Master Participle Chart Adapted from Mounce, *Basics of Biblical Greek*

Tense and Voice	Redup.	Tense Stem	Tense Formative or Connecting Vowel	Participle Morpheme	Nominative Plural Form	Nominative Singular Forms
Present Active	None	Present	0	ντ / ουσα	λύοντες	λύων λύουσα λῦον
Present Middle/ Passive	None	Present	0	μενο/ μενη	λυόμενοι	λυόμενος λυομένη λυόμενον
1 <sup>st</sup> Aorist Active	None	Aorist Active	σα	ντ / σα	λύσαντες	λύσας λύσασα λῦσαν
1 <sup>st</sup> Aorist Middle	None	Aorist Active	σα	μενο/ μενη	λυσάμενοι	λυσάμενος λυσαμένη λυσάμενον
1 <sup>st</sup> Aorist Passive	None	Aorist Passive	θε	ντ / ισα	λυθέντες	λυθείς λυθεῖσα λυθέν
1 <sup>st</sup> Perfect Active	λε	Perfect Active	к	οτ / υια	λελυκότες	λελυκώς λελυκυῖα λελυκός
Perfect Middle/ Passive	λε	Perfect Middle/ Passive	None	μενο/ μενη	λελυμένοι	λελυμένος λελυμένη λελυμένον
2 Aorist Active/ Middle		Aorist Active	Same as Present Active/ Middle	Same as Present Active/ Middle		

# **Present Tense Participles**



#### Formation of the Present Active Participle:

Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda v$  +  $v\tau/v v \alpha$  +  $\epsilon c$  (nom pl masc)

- Present tense stem is derived from the verbal root (e.g., root for  $\lambda \acute{\nu} \omega$  is  $\lambda \upsilon$ -, which happens to be the same as present tense stem  $\lambda \upsilon$ -). The present tense stem differs from the root more than the other tense stems, but since the present tense is used for the lexical form, it is easily recognized in context. For example,  $\beta \alpha \lambda$  is the root of  $\beta \acute{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$ , which has present tense stem  $\beta \alpha \lambda \lambda$ -; but since lexical form  $\beta \acute{\alpha} \lambda \lambda \omega$  is memorized, the present tense is easily identified. One must remember that the root is  $\beta \alpha \lambda$ -, which is used for the aorist and future tenses (see Mounce p. 167 for more).
- Participle morpheme is the easiest way to recognize a participle. These letters can appear in verbs that are not participles, but a great majority of the time it will be a participle.
- Present active participles follow a 3-1-3 pattern for declensions, which is the same as the  $\pi \hat{\alpha} \zeta$  paradigm (see Third Declension Nouns handout and video).

#### Formation of the Present Middle/Passive Participle:

Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda v$  + v + v + v (nom sg masc)

- Present Middle/Passive participles follow a 2-1-2 pattern for declensions. Review the First and Second Declension Nouns handout and video for more information on these declensions.
- The morpheme includes the connecting vowel for first and second declension nouns, and the case endings are the true endings.

Present Active (λύω)			ω)	Present Middle/Passive (λύω)			
	3	1	3		2	1	2
	M.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
nom sg	λύων	λύουσα	λῦον	nom sg	λυόμ∈νος	λυομένη	λυόμ∈νον
gen sg	λύοντος	λυούσης	λύοντος	gen sg	λυομ <i>έν</i> ου	λυομένης	λυομ <i>έν</i> ου
dat sg	λύοντι	λυούση	λύοντι	dat sg	λυομένω	λυομένη	λυομένω
acc sg	λύοντα	λύουσαν	λῦον	acc sg	λυόμ∈νον	λυομένην	λυόμ€νον
nom pl	λύοντες	λύουσαι	λύοντα	nom pl	λυόμ∈νοι	λυόμεναι	λυόμενα
gen pl	λυόντων	λυουσῶν	λυόντων	gen pl	λυομένων	λυομένων	λυομένων
dat pl	λύουσι <i>(ν)</i>	λυούσαις	λύουσι <i>(ν)</i>	dat pl	λυομένοις	λυομέναις	λυομένοις
acc pl	λύοντας	λυούσας	λύοντα	acc pl	λυομένους	λυομένας	λυόμ∈να

#### Present Active (ϵἰμί)

	M.	F.	N.
nom sg	űν	οὖσα	őν
gen sg	ὄντος	οὔσης	ὄντος
dat sg	ὄντι	οὔση	ὄντι
acc sg	ὄντα	οὖσαν	őν
nom pl	ὄντ∈ς	οὖσαι	ὄντα
gen pl	ὄντων	οὐσῶν	ὄντων
dat pl	οὖσι <i>(ν)</i>	οὔσαις	οὖυσι <i>(ν)</i>
acc pl	ὄντας	οὔσας	ὄντα

 The Present Active participle of εἰμί looks like the active participle morpheme with case endings (3-1-3 pattern). They always have a smooth breathing. There is no passive participle of εἰμί.

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# **Aorist Active and Middle Participles**

#### Formation of the First Aorist Active Participle:

First Aorist Stem + Tense Formative + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda v + \sigma \alpha + v \tau / \sigma \alpha + \epsilon \varsigma$  (nom pl masc)

- Because the morpheme is the same as the present active participle (except  $\sigma\alpha$ , which has the same ending as  $\sigma\omega\alpha$ ), aorist active participles also follow the 3-1-3 declensional pattern. The fact that it has verbal parts with nominal endings also helps you to recognize it as a participle.
- The tense formative plus participle morpheme is the best way to recognize this form. Notice the participle morpheme drops out in the nom sg masc/neut and dat pl masc/neut.
- To form the agrist active participle, make sure to remove the augment from the third principle part since the agrist in the indicative has an augment.
- The agrist participle expresses antecedent time (relative to the main verb) with perfective aspect. They can also be used substantively or adjectivally.

First Aorist Middle Participle (λύω)

λυσαμένων λυσαμένων λυσαμένων

λυσαμένοις λυσαμέναις λυσαμένοις

λυσαμένους λυσαμένας λυσάμενα

#### Formation of the First Aorist Middle Participle:

First Aorist Active Participle (λύω)

First Aorist Stem + Tense Formative + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda \upsilon + \sigma \alpha + \mu \epsilon \nu o / \mu \epsilon \nu \eta + \varsigma \text{ (nom sg masc)}$ 

• Because the morpheme is the same as the present middle/passive participle, aorist middle participles also follow the 2-1-2 declensional pattern.

#### 3 1 3 2 1 2 M. F. N. F. M. N. λύσασα nom sg λυσάμενος λυσαμένη λύσας λῦσαν λυσάμ€νον nom sg λύσαντος λυσάσης λύσαντος λυσαμένου λυσαμένης λυσαμένου gen sg gen sg λύσαντι λυσάση λύσαντι λυσαμένω λυσαμένη λυσαμένω dat sg dat sg λύσαντα λύσασαν λῦσαν λυσάμενον λυσαμένην λυσάμενον acc sg acc sg λύσαντες λύσασαι λύσαντα nom pl λυσάμενοι λυσάμεναι λυσάμενα nom pl

#### Formation of the Second Aorist Active Participle:

λυσάντων λυσασῶν λυσάντων

λύσασι(ν) λυσάσαις λύσασι(ν)

λύσαντας λυσάσας λύσαντα

gen pl

dat pl

acc pl

Second Aorist Stem + Connecting Vowel + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda \alpha \beta$  +  $\sigma$  +  $\tau / \sigma \alpha$  +  $\epsilon c$  (nom pl masc)

- This second agrist participle has the same form as the present participle, but with the second agrist stem.
- Forming the second aorist participle can be difficult because it is not easy to know how to drop the augment from the third principle part. One must learn each verb's second aorist stem (minus the augment) on its own. E.g., while εἶδον is the aor act ind 1st sg of βλέπω (or ὁράω), its aor ptc principle part is ἰδών (aor act ptc nom sg masc).

gen pl

dat pl

acc pl

#### Formation of the Second Aorist Middle Participle:

Second Aorist Stem + Connecting Vowel + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda \alpha \beta$  + 0 +  $\mu \epsilon \nu \sigma / \mu \epsilon \nu \tau$  +  $\varsigma$  (nom sg masc)

# **Aorist Passive Participles**



#### Formation of the First Aorist Passive Participle:

Aorist Passive Stem + Tense Formative + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\theta \varepsilon$  +  $\nu \tau / \iota \sigma \alpha$  +  $\varepsilon \varsigma$  (nom pl masc)

- The tense formative is the same here as for the agrist passive indicative, except it does not lengthen here to  $\theta \eta$  as in the indicative.
- Note the feminine participle morpheme is neither ovoa, as with the present active participles, nor oa, as with the 1st aorist active participles.
- The declensional endings follow the 3-1-3 pattern.

#### First Aorist Passive Participle (λύω)

3 1 3 M. F. N. λυθ∈ῖσα  $\lambda \upsilon \theta \acute{\epsilon} \nu^2$ N.  $\lambda \nu \theta \in i \varsigma^1$ G.  $\lambda \nu \theta \dot{\epsilon} \nu \tau \sigma \varsigma$ λυθείσης λυθέντος D. λυθέντι λυθ∈ίση λυθέντι λυθεῖσαν λυθέν **Α**. λυθέντα M. F. N. λυθεῖσαι λυθέντα Ν. λυθέντες G λυθέντων λυθεισών λυθέντων D.  $\lambda \nu \theta \in \hat{i} \sigma \iota(\nu) \lambda \nu \theta \in \hat{i} \sigma \alpha \iota \varsigma \lambda \nu \theta \in \hat{i} \sigma \iota(\nu)$ Α λυθέντας λυθείσας λυθέντα

#### Formation of the Second Aorist Passive Participle:

Aorist Passive Stem + Tense Formative + Participle Morpheme + Case Endings  $\gamma\rho\alpha\phi$  +  $\epsilon$  +  $\nu\tau/\iota\sigma\alpha$  +  $\epsilon\varsigma$  (nom pl masc)

• The only difference here is the tense formative, which drops the  $\theta$ , just as in the second agrist passive indicative.

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  The case ending is  $\varsigma$ , the  $\nu\tau$  drops out because of the  $\varsigma$ , and the  $\varepsilon$  lengthens to  $\varepsilon\iota$  to compensate for the loss. So also with the dat pl masc/neut.  $^2$  There is no case ending, and the  $\tau$  of the participal morpheme drops out because it cannot end a word.

# Subjunctive Mood



#### Formation of the Present Active Subjunctive:

Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Primary Active Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\omega/\eta$  +  $\mu \in \nu$  (1 pl)

- The subjunctive mood uses primary personal endings in all tenses, even in the aorist.
- The variable theme vowel includes long vowels  $\omega/\eta$ . This is the key to recognizing the subjunctive.
- The subjunctive mood is most often used after ἵνα and ἐάν. It can also be used as a hortatory subjunctive (e.g., πιστεύσωμεν εἰς τὸν κύριον, "let us believe in the Lord."
- No temporal difference between the present and agrist subjunctive, only an aspectual difference.

#### Formation of the Present Middle/Passive Subjunctive:

Present Tense Stem + Connecting Vowel + Primary Mid/Pass Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\omega/\eta$  +  $\mu \epsilon \theta \alpha$  (1 pl)

#### Present Active Subjunctive (λύω)

	Stem	CV	Personal Endings	Final Form
1 sg	λυ	ω	-	λύ ω
2 sg	λυ	η	ς	λύ ης
3 sg	λυ	η	ι	λύ η¹
1 pl	λυ	ω	μεν	λύ ω μεν
2 pl	λυ	η	τ€	λύ η τ∈
3 pl	λυ	ω	νσι	$λύ ω σι(ν)^2$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This form may also be the pres mid/pass subj 2nd sg or pres mid/pass ind 2nd sg. Context will decide.

#### Present Middle/Passive Subjunctive (λύω)

	Stem	CV	Personal Endings	Final Form
1 sg	λυ	ω	μαι	λύ ω μαι
2 sg	λυ	η	σαι	λύ η¹
3 sg	λυ	η	ται	λύ η ται
1 pl	λυ	ω	μεθα	λυ ώ μεθα
2 pl	λυ	η	σθ∈	λύ η σθ∈
3 pl	λυ	ω	νται	λύ ω νται

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See note one to the left.

#### **Formation of the Aorist Active Subjunctive:**

Aorist Active Tense Stem + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Primary Active Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\sigma$  +  $\omega/\eta$  +  $\mu \varepsilon \nu$  (1 pl)

- There is no augment, just as with the participle.
- The second agrist adds the same endings directly to the agrist stem (e.g.,  $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega => \lambda i \pi \omega$ ).

#### Formation of the Aorist Middle Subjunctive:

Aorist Active Tense Stem + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Primary Mid/Pass Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\sigma$  +  $\omega/\eta$  +  $\mu \epsilon \theta \alpha$  (1 pl)

#### Formation of the Aorist Passive Subjunctive:

Aorist Passive Tense Stem + Tense Formative + Connecting Vowel + Primary Active Personal Endings  $\lambda \upsilon$  +  $\theta \varepsilon$  +  $\omega/\eta$  +  $\mu \varepsilon \nu$  (1 pl)

• The ∈ of the tense formative contracts with the connecting vowel in each form, resulting in a circumflex accent over the long vowel in each form.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  The  $\nu$  drops out between two vowels.

# Infinitive Mood



- The infinitive has both verbal and noun qualities. It can therefore function in a sentence similarly to a verb or a noun.
  - If an infinitive functions as a noun, it can usually be translated by using "-ing." E.g., κακόν ἐστι τὸ ἀποθανεῖν can be translated "dying is bad."
  - Articular infinitives often occur after prepositions. The frequent construction " $\epsilon i \zeta + \tau \delta$  + infinitive" can express purpose ("in order that") or result ("so that"). See Wallace, *Greek Grammar Beyond the Basics*, 610-611, for other prepositional constructions.
  - If an article accompanies the infinitive, it will signal the case/function in the sentence. The article will always be neuter.
  - The infinitive is sometimes used for indirect discourse. E.g.,  $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda\epsilon\gamma$ ον οἱ ὂχλοι αὐτὸν εἶναι τὸν προφήτην, "the crowds were saying that he was the prophet."
- To parse, give tense, voice, mood.
- The subject of an infinitive, if there is one, will occur in the accusative case.
- There is only one infinitival form for  $\epsilon i \mu i$ , namely,  $\epsilon i \nu \alpha i$ .
- The tense of the infinitive does not signal time, only aspect.
- Infinitives are often used as the subject of impersonal verbs, such as ἔξεστιν and δεῖ. E.g. ἔδει δὲ αὐτὸν διέρχεσθαι διὰ τῆς Σαμαρείας (John 4:4), "now his passing through Samaria was necessary."

#### Present Infinitive (λύω)

Active	λύ€ιν	to be loosing
Middle	λύ∈σθαι	to loose for oneself
Passive	λύ∈σθαι	to be loosed

#### Aorist Infinitive (λύω)

Active	λῦσαι	to loose
Middle	λύσασθαι	to loose for oneself
Passive	λυθῆναι	to be loosed

The second agrist inf. uses the second agrist stem, e.g.,  $\lambda$ ιπέσθαι (agr mid inf of  $\lambda$ είπω.

# Imperative Mood



- The imperative mood appears in the present and agrist tense forms.
- Second agrist imperatives use the second agrist stem with the present imperative endings.
- Imperatives are negated with μή.

#### Present Active Imperative (λύω)

Sg	2 λῦ∈	loose
	3 λυέτω	let him loose

PI 2 λύετε loose

3 λυέτωσαν let them loose

# Aorist Active Imperative (λύω)

Sg 2 λῦσον loose

**P**| 2 λύσατ€

3 λυσάτω let him loose

3 λυσάτωσαν let them loose

#### Present Mid/Pass Imperative (λύω)

Sg 2 λύου loose for yourself

be loosed

3  $λυ \acute{\epsilon} σθω$  let him loose for himself

let him be loosed

Pl 2  $\lambda \dot{\nu} \epsilon \sigma \theta \epsilon$  loose for yourselves

be loosed

3  $λυ \acute{\epsilon} σθωσαν$  let them loose for themselves

let them be loosed

#### Aorist Middle Imperative (λύω)

Sg 2  $\lambda \hat{v} \sigma \alpha \iota$  loose for yourself

3 λυσάσθω let him loose for himself

Pl 2 λύσασθε loose for yourselves

3 λυσάσθωσαν let them loose for themselves

loose

#### Aorist Passive Imperative (λύω)

Sg 2 λύθητι be loosed

3 λυθήτω let him be loosed

PI 2 λύθητε be loosed

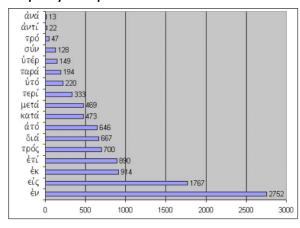
3 λυθήτωσαν let them be loosed



# **Prepositions**

- Prepositions generally modify verbs. For example, the prepositional phrase "into the store" might modify the verb "I go" to tell you where I am going (I am going *into the store*).
- To determine a preposition's meaning in context, first see which meanings are possible for the preposition given the
  case of the noun it governs. Then determine which of the meanings are possible in the context. Finally, discern one or
  more reasons why one of the meanings is most likely.
- Memorize those given in the list to the right. However, only the most common meanings are given. For a more
  exhaustive list of possible meanings and examples, see Wallace, Greek Grammar Beyond the Basics, 364-89. See also
  Murray Harris' Prepositions and Theology (Zondervan).

#### Frequency of Prepositions in the NT



\*Taken from Wallace, Greek Grammar Beyond the Basics, 357

#### **Common Meanings of Prepositions**

		<u> </u>
ἀπό	gen.	from, out of
ἄχρι	gen.	until, as far as
διά	acc.	on account of
	gen.	by; through
€ἰς	acc.	in, into; unto; for
ἐκ΄ ἐξ	gen.	out of; away from; from
ęν	dat.	in (spatial or temporal); by; with
ἐνώπιον	gen.	before
ἐπί	gen.	on; during; on the basis of
	dat.	on; during; on the basis of
	acc.	on; over a period of
<b>ἔ</b> ξω	gen.	outside [of]
<del></del> έως	gen.	as far as, until
κατά	acc.	according to
	gen.	against
μετά	acc.	after
	gen.	with
παρά	gen.	from (the side of); by
	dat.	near; with
	acc.	alongside; compared to; against
περί	acc.	around, near
	gen.	concerning
πρό	gen.	before (spatial, temporal, or rank)
πρός	acc.	to, toward
σύν	dat.	with
ὑπέρ	acc.	over, above; more than, beyond
	gen.	on behalf of
ὑπό	acc.	under (spatial or subordination)
	gen.	by or through (agency)