



Basics of Greek Grammar

10 Basic Necessities for Good Translation

1. Understanding the flow of thought in the sentence.
2. Understanding the Forms of nouns, verbs, pronouns, participles, etc.
3. Understanding the Principle Parts of Verbs.
4. Understanding the Basic Case and Tense Variations.
5. Understanding Etymology and the Contextual Influence on it.
6. Understanding Hermeneutics: the Principles of Correct Interpretation
7. Understanding the Process of Research Study involving Isagogics, Chronology, Doctrine, and Categories.
8. Understanding the context Doctrinally: The context will determine: Specific case functions, Specific tense functions, and Specific participle functions.
9. Understanding English vocabulary and idiom: One must know how to represent in English the same sentence structure, the same point of emphasis, the same tone of intensity, to rightly convey the accurate translation of the text.
10. Understanding of the Principles of Textual Criticism: both the Internal and the external.

The Definite Article

The meaning or translation of the definite article in its normal usage is rendered by the word, “the.”
Forms are Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Vowels

Given with their English equivalents:

1. α: a
2. ε: short e
3. η: long e but pronounced like “a” as in late
4. ο: short “o”
5. ι: i
6. υ: u
7. ω: long “o”

Of these vowels, ε and ο are always short; η and ω are always long; α, ι and υ may be long or short, only by observation will you be able to determine the tone quality of α, ι and υ.

Diphthongs

Two vowel sounds fused into one sound.

αι = ai as in aisle



αυ = au as in kraut

ει = ei as in height

οι = oi as in oil

ευ = eu as in feud

ηυ = approximately the same sound as ευ

υι = pronounced like whee

Breathing Marks

Every Greek word beginning with a vowel or a diphthong must have a breathing mark. There are two breathing marks in Greek: Smooth Breathing and Rough Breathing.

Accent Marks

There are three accent marks in Greek. It is not necessary to know the accent marks to read, translate, and interpret Greek. They do aid in the pronunciation. The accent stands over the vowel of the accented syllable and in a diphthong over the second vowel.

The last syllable of a word is called the ultima. The next to the last syllable is called the penult. The one before the penult is called the antepenult. In pronunciation, stress the accent, as in English.

Definitions and Distinctions

Verbs Have: Tense, Voice, Mood, Person and Number, and Etymology.

Verbs Are: Conjugated and Parsed. Conjugation means the listing of the Forms of Verbs as to Tense, Voice, or Mood with all 3 persons given in Sing, and Plural. Parsing means to determine the above factors for an existing single verb occurring in the text.

Nouns Have: Case, Gender, or Number. The case provides the function, number, and gender of the noun. The gender is Masculine, Feminine, or Neuter. The number is Singular or Plural.

Nouns Are: Declined or fall into a Declension.

Where Declension provides the form of a noun, Case provides the function of the noun.

The Case: The case has a Name: Nominative, Genitive, Ablative, Dative, Locative, or Instrumental.

The case has a Form: The forms united or listed is called a Declension.

The case has a Function: Each case contributes a function to the noun found in that case.

The Gender: It may be Masculine. It may be Feminine. It may be Neuter.

Verbs and Nouns Compared:

Conjugation gives the FORM of the verb. Declension gives the FORM of the noun.

Tense, Voice, and Mood give the Function of the Verb. Case, Gender, and Number give the Function of the Noun.

Nouns May Be: Articular: having the definite article with them. Anartharous: having no article with them.

Articular Nouns emphasize the Identity of the person or thing. Anartharous Nouns emphasize the



Quality of the person or thing.

The Four-Fold Navigational Fix of the Verb

Tense, Voice, Mood, and Etymology pinpoint the Bible interpretation of a Verb.

Verb Tenses

An expression of the action or time of the verb, kind of action.

Verb Present Tense:

Definition: The primary usage of the present tense is to show Linear or Continuous Action.

Types of the Present Tense:

Progressive Present: This use signifies Action in progress and can be illustrated by a line. Matt. 25:8.

Customary Present: This usage emphasizes that which habitually occurs, whether in past, present, or future. Heb 3:4.

Iterative Present: This is the usage of the present tense to show a thing that occurs at successive intervals, 1 Cor 15:31.

Special Uses of the Present:

The Aoristic Present: This shows point action in present time. The regular aorist act. indicative shows point action in past time. Acts 9:34.

The Futuristic Present: This is the use of the present in which something is stated as going on which is yet future, for the purpose of showing the Certainty of it. Matt. 26:2.

The Historical Present: This is the use of the present in which a past event is put into the present tense to add vividness to it. Example: A news commentator giving a running account of something that has already happened. Mark 14:17.

The Tential Present: The present tense is used to show action which is intended to be, or inclined to occur. John 10:32.

The Static Present: The use of the present to describe a condition which perpetually is existing. 2 Peter 3:4.

Verb Imperfect Tense:

The essential meaning of the Imperfect tense is Continuous action in Past Time.

Types of Regular Uses of the Imperfect Tense:

The Progressive Imperfect: this is the normal usage of the Imperfect of Action in Progress in Past Time. Mark 12:41.

The Customary Imperfect: Action regularly occurring in Past time. (Ticking of a clock) Luke 3:10.

Iterative Imperfect: Action reoccurring at successive intervals. (Chiming of a clock, on the hour) Luke 14:7.

Special Uses of the Imperfect:

The Tential Imperfect: The usage which emphasizes that the action did not attain to the end which was intended. Luke 1:59.



The Voluntative Imperfect: The usage which emphasizes the Desire for a completed action. Acts 25:22.

The Inceptive Imperfect: The usage of the Imperfect which denotes the Beginning of the continuous action. Luke 5:3.

Verb Aorist Tense

Definition: The Aorist Tense expresses Punctiliar or Point action as viewed by the one speaking.

Types of the Aorist Tense:

Regular Uses of the Aorist:

The Constantive Aorist: This pictures the action in its Entirety as a whole, in one point of time. John 2:20.

The Ingressive Aorist: Action pictured in its Beginning. 2 Cor. 8:9.

The Culminative Aorist: Action viewed from its entirety, but with emphasis on the Results of that action.

Special Uses of the Aorist:

The Gnostic Aorist: The tense which denotes a generally accepted fact so fixed in certainty that it is viewed as an actual happening. John 15:8.

The Epistolary Aorist: The use of the aorist which the author uses to describe some action that is present or future to him but past to those who will read it. Col. 4:8.

The Dramatic Aorist: The use of the aorist to designate a present reality with the Emphasis of a past event. John 13:31.

Verb Future Tense

Definition: The basic usage of the Future Tense is stating in the Future Tense and the Indicative Mood an occurrence of a Future event. It is the anticipation of an event in the future time. "... shall not see life." John 3:36.

Types of Future Tense:

The Predictive Future: The use of the Future to predict an event in the future. John 15:26.

The Progressive Future: This is the use of the Future tense with the verb that indicates Progress in future tense. Rom 6:2.

The Imperative Future: This is the use of the Future tense to express a command. Luke 1:13.

The Deliberative Future. This is the use of the Future tense to express Uncertainty. "To whom shall we go?" John 6:68.

The Gnostic Future. The use of the Future to express action that can be normally expected to happen under usual conditions. Gal 6:5.

Verb Perfect Tense

Definition: The perfect tense denotes One, Completed action: and secondly, Existing Results from that completed action. Completed action of the verb with present continuing effects. Eph. 2:8-9 "For by



grace are you saved . . .” (Present perfect).

Types of the Perfect Tense:

The Intensive Perfect: The major significance of the Perfect Tense is shown here with emphasis on the Existing Results. Rom 14:23.

The Consummative Perfect: The usage which emphasizes the Consummated process of the action of the verb. Acts 5:28.

The Iterative Perfect: This usage emphasizes that the process of the action was that of recurrent interval action. The process is the main idea here. John 1:18.

The Dramatic Perfect: This usage emphasizes the results of the action, but likewise calls attention to the vivid and realistic description of the fact, Matt 13:46.

Verb Pluperfect Tense

This is the tense which indicates the Perfect Indicative of past time, action being completed with results already in existence at some past point in time. “The children had washed their hands before they ate supper last night.” John 19:22. “...what I have written, I have written.”

Intensive Pluperfect: Emphasis on the existing results. Acts 1:10.

Consummative Pluperfect: Emphasis on action as a process completed. John 9:22.

Verb Voice

This relates the action of the verb to the subject of the sentence as to its involvement in the action.

Active Voice: The subject produces the action of the verb. Acts 16:31, “Believe on the Lord Jesus Christ and thou shalt be saved.” Believe is active - you must believe, you must initiate the action of believing by faith.

Passive Voice: The subject receives the action of the main verb. The voice of grace. Eph. 2:8 “By grace are ye saved.” When you believe (active voice), you receive salvation (passive voice).

Middle Voice: The subject is benefitted by the action of the main verb. John 15:16, “Ye have not chosen me, but I have chosen you.” (I have chosen you for my benefit). The action of the verb related to reality. Is this happening? The attitude of the speaker or writer towards reality. The four moods show the way an action is to be regarded - as a fact, command, wish, or potential action.

Indicative: Declarative, Interrogative, Cohortative, and Potential. Action which is reality or assumed reality. The mood of reality. It means the event actually occurred as indicated. This is a simple assertion or statement, or asks a simple question. This is the most commonly used mood. “In the beginning was the Word.” John 1:1.

Subjunctive: Hortatory, Prohibition, Deliberative, Emphatic Negation, Potential, and Probable F. Condition. Action which is Potential or Probable reality. Potential mood. It could happen potentially. John 14:31, “Let us be going.”

Imperative: Command, Prohibition, Entreaty, and Permission. Action which is Commanded or Commanded reality. The mood of command. “Keep on doing this in remembrance of me.” 1 Cor. 11:24. “Love your enemies.” Matt. 5:44.

Optative: Voluntative (wish), Potential (implied condition), and Deliberative (doubtful). Action desired



to happen, but remotely possible, or remote possible reality. Expresses a wish. 2 Thess. 3:5, “May the Lord guide your hearts.”

Etymology:

This is the true meaning of a word based on how it was used at the time in which it was written, depending upon its use historically. Etymology is related to isagogics or historical background.

Eph. 4:14. (English): “That we henceforth be no more children tossed to and fro and carried about with every wind of doctrine, by the sleight of men, and cunning craftiness, whereby they lie in wait to deceive.”

Eph. 4:14 (Greek, partial translation) “If you don’t know doctrine as a Christian, it’s like shooting craps with the devil, and the devil has loaded the dice so the odds are against you.”

Verb Moods

Definition of Mood: The action of the verb as it relates to reality.

Classifications of Moods:

1. Indicative Mood: Reality or Assumed Reality.
2. Declarative Indicative: Statement of simple fact. John 1:1.
3. Interrogative Indicative: Reality implied in a simple question. John 1:38.
4. Cohortative Indicative: The future indicative expresses a command. John 2:8.

Potential Indicative: Used in a claim of obligation, Acts 24:19. Used to express an impulse, Rom. 9:3. Used in certain forms of conditions (2nd class), Gal. 4:15; John 11:21.

Subjunctive Mood: Possible Reality.

Hortatory Subjunctive: used of first person plural to exhort them to join in on an action, Heb. 4:15.

Subjunctive of Prohibition: second person aor. subj. - prohibition to certain action, or negative entreaty, Matt 6:13.

Deliberative Subjunctive: rhetorical question, not expecting an answer of fact, 1 Cor. 11:22.

Subjunctive of Emphatic Negation: Subj. mood with οὐ μὴ. Very dogmatic no!

Potential Subjunctive: Subj. in dependent clauses which expresses Purpose, 1 Tim. 5:21.

Probable Future Condition: Subj. plus εἰν, third class condition.

Imperative Mood: Command or Entreaty, appeal of will to will.

Imperative of Command: One will makes a direct appeal to the will of another, Matt. 5:44.

Imperative of Prohibition: Expresses a negative command, John 6:20.

Imperative of Entreaty: Expresses force of urgency, Luke 17:5.

Imperative of Permission: Command conveying the consent of one will to another, 1 Cor. 7:15.

Optative Mood: Mood of Possibility.

The Voluntative Optative: Expression of a wish, 2 Thess. 3:5.



The Potential Optative: Used in a clause when a condition is implied (particle $\alpha\nu$ included), Acts 17:18.

The Deliberative Optative: Indirect rhetorical questions, doubtful attitude expressed, Luke 1:29.

Infinitives

Infinitives are verbal nouns.

As a Verb: As a verb, it has a subject expressed or understood, it may have an object, it is qualified by adverbs, and has tense and voice.

As a Noun: As a noun, it may stand as the subject or object of another verb. Its case is shown by the case of the article, for the infinitive itself cannot have inflections. The tense has its significance in the kind of action. The infinitive may be separated from its article by other words.

It's simple form $\lambda\acute{o}\epsilon\iota\nu$ Present Active Infinitive and is translated "to be losing."

Conjugation of Verbs

Conjugation: This is the word which means the listing of a set of verbal forms in the singular and plural for a given tense or mood. This involves the forms for the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons in Singular and Plural and with each mood having its own set.

Parsing: This means identifying a certain verb in the text as to tense, voice, mood, person and number.

The Relationship of the Tenses to Time:

Besides the context there is one grammatical help in determining the time of a tense. This is the contribution of the Mood meaning to the tense. For example: if you had

A Present Active Indicative, the time factor is usually "now."

An Imperfect Active Indicative, the time factor is past in time.

If you have Aorist Active Subjunctive, you have future in time.

An Aorist Imperative could be "Right now" or future in time.

Present Imperative would usually mean "do it now."

So the mood, whether Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, or Optative will give direction as to whether the kind of action is past, present or future in time.

Participles

Definition: The participle is a Verbal Adjective. It modifies a noun for example by setting forth a characteristic of the noun. As a verb it has tense and voice with emphasis on the "action" that is related to the noun.

Adjectival Participle:

Adjectival Participles: Ascriptive Adjective: Ascribes a quality, fact, or characteristic to the noun it modifies.

Restrictive: Distinguishes a noun from something else. Occurs with the Greek definite article. This is one factor which helps in recognizing an Adjectival Participle.

Adverbial Participles:



Telic Participle: This denotes the Purpose. Matt. 27:49.

Temporal Participle: This indicates a Time concept (when, after, while). Matt. 2:10.

Conditional Participle: “Used as the if clause in a Conditional sentence.” Acts 15:29.

Causal Part: Denotes the “grounds” for the action of the verb. John 4:45.

Concessive Part: It denotes a sense of Concession. Rom. 5:10.

Instrumental Part: It denotes the means by which the action of the verb was completed. Acts 16:16.

Modal Part: The manner in which the action of the verb is accomplished. Matt. 3:1.

Complementary Part: The participle may be used to complete the idea of action expressed in the main verb. Eph. 1:16.

Circumstantial Part; Denoting an attendant circumstance which completes the idea of the main verb. Mark 16:20.

Participle Used as an Imperative: Similar to the hortatory subj. mood. Participle used as an imperative. 1 Peter 3:1.

Tense of the Greek Participle:

Antecedent (previous) action relative to the main verb is usually found in the Aorist and Perfect tense. Exceptions: Matt. 22:1; Heb. 9:12; Acts 4:32.

Simultaneous action is ordinarily expressed by the Present tense (while). 1 Tim. 4:8.

Subsequent action relative to the main verb is regularly expressed by the Future tense. Heb. 3:5.

Pronouns

The Relative Pronoun: ος, meaning: Who, which, that.

The Interrogative Pronoun: τις, meaning: Who? What?

The Indefinite Pronoun: τις, meaning: someone, certain one, something.

The Indefinite Relative: οστις, meaning: who (whoever).

The Reciprocal Pronoun: αλληλων, meaning: each other, one another.

The Reflexive Pronoun: εμαυτου, 1st person: myself. σεαυτου, 2nd person: yourself. εαυτου, 3rd person: himself, etc.

The Possessive Pronoun: εμος, meaning: my.

The Demonstrative Pronoun: ουτος meaning: this. εκεινος, meaning: that.

The Negative Pronouns: ουδεις, meaning: no one, indicative. μηδεις, meaning: no one, subjunctive.

Pronouns are declined like a noun; they have case function, may be masculine, feminine, or neuter. May be indicative or subjunctive as to the Negative Pronoun. The above forms are the Nominative case and on some the Genitive case.

Declensions

Masculine (Omega, or omicron decl) 2, 3, Feminine (Alpha, or eta decl) 1, 3, Neuter (Omicron).



Conjugations

Omega Conjugation and Mi (me) Conjugation.

Infinitives

Verbal Infinitives: Purpose, Result, Time, Cause, Command.

Noun Infinitives (Substantial): Subject, Object, Indirect Object, Instrument, Apposition, Modifier.

Participles

Definition of Participle: A Participle is a Verbal Adjective which can show: A Verbal usage: Participle used as a Verb. Adjectival usage: Participle used as an Adjective or Noun. Participles share the characteristics both of verbs and adjectives.

Function of Participles: The Participle in general shows a Principle or rule of practice. If the Participle is Adverbial it shows a Principle of Action. If the Participle is Adjectival it shows a Characteristic of the Person or thing.

As a verb, a participle has: Tense form and meaning. Voice form and meaning. Possible meaning as a Modifier.

As an Adjective it has: Case meaning. Gender: either masculine, feminine, or neuter. May be used as a Substantive. May be used to Modify a noun or other adjective.

Its Voice Function: basically the same as the Voice function of a verb.

Tenses of the Participle: Kind of action--point, completed, continuous. Present, Aorist, Future, and Perfect.

The Time of the Participle: Antecedent (previous) to action of main verb: normally aor. & perf.

Simultaneous to the Action of the main verb: Present. Subsequent (after) the action of the main verb: Future.

Identifying the Participle: If it be Adjectival, it is accompanied by the definite article: ὁ. If Adverbial, it is not accompanied by the article: (-) part.

Kinds of Adjectival Participles: Ascriptive: ascribing a quality to the noun it is modifying. Restrictive: restricting the noun to its particular point in the participle.

Kinds of Adverbial Participles:

Telic: denotes Purpose.

Temporal: denotes Time.

Conditional: denotes a Condition Present.

Causal: contains Grounds for Action of Verb.

Concessive: denotes Concession.

Instrumental: denotes Means of Action of Verb.

Modal: denotes Manner of Action Performed.

Complementary: Finished the Action of the Verb.

Circumstantial: denotes Surroundings in which Action of Verb is Done.



Imperative: denotes Participle Expressing a Command.

Prepositions

Prepositions are adverbs specialized to define more clearly the meanings of cases, many of which come to be used in composition with verbs:

A preposition may stand alone. Like ἐκ in 1 Cor 7:7.

It may intensify the action of the verb. Like ἐκβάλλω in Gal 4:30

It may change the meaning of the verb and blend with it. Like ἀναγινώσκω in Matt 24:15. γινώσκω alone is “I know.” ἀνα added means “I read.”

Adverbs

Definition: Adverbs are words that help define or show relationship of time, place, manner, or degree.

Formation of the Adverb: Usually accomplished by substituting the σ of the Gen. Plural for the ν. Thus καλος (singular) becomes καλώς (plural).

Adverbs formed by putting a neuter word in the accusative: περαν.

Adverbs formed by combining the article and neuter adjective: το λοιπον.

Adverbs formed by adding suffix endings.

Degrees of the Adverb:

Positive Adverb: Stating a simple characteristic, normally suffix ως, or ω.

Comparative Adverb: Stating a characteristic of Comparison (smaller, larger, greater, etc.) with suffix endings: τερον and τερω, ον.

Superlative; Stating a characteristic that is ultimate (greatest, smallest, farthest, etc.) with suffix endings: τατα, τατω, ιστα.

Adverbs Used as Prefixes: αν meaning difficulty; δυσ meaning un or without, ευ meaning well or good.

Conditional Sentences or Clauses

Definition of Conditional Clauses (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th class conditions)

Academic Definition: Conditional sentences contain a subordinate clause which states a supposition and a principle clause which states the result of the fulfillment of this supposition.

The subordinate (if) clause is called the protasis. The principle clause (conclusion) is called the apodosis. Example: “If you study hard (if clause), you will get a good grade (conclusion clause).” Either clause may come first in the sentence.

First Class:

The first class condition affirms the reality of the condition. Fact. Assumed fact. Assumed fact for debater’s technique. Assumed to be true: Simple Condition. It is expressed by ει with the indicative mood in the protasis (if clause) and almost any mood or tense in the apodosis (main or fulfillment clause). “If we are disciples of the Lord, we shall be saved.”

This construction confirms the condition and is best translated, “Since we are disciples of the Lord, we shall be saved.” “If ye then be risen with Christ, seek those things which are above.” Col. 3:1 Assumed



to be true, “Since you were risen with Christ (aorist passive indicative). Examples: Gal. 5:18, Matt. 4:3, John 14:7, and John 15:8.

Second Class:

This condition is contrary to fact in both protasis and apodosis. The statement is assumed to be false. Luke 7:39 (if it’s true, but it’s not). May or may not have “an” in the apodosis. Will occur with past tenses, usually imperfect or aorist or a combination. This is the hardest conditional clause to understand. These English sentences illustrate it.

If I were you, I would not go. If you were older, you would understand. If this were Sunday, I would be at church. If he had left yesterday, he would be here today. I wish my father were here (but he is not).

Third Class:

This condition expresses possibility. May be true or false; a probability. This is the volitional clause, used with the subjunctive mood. The statement may be true or false depending upon the condition. In 1 John 1:9, maybe he will confess sin biblically (the believer) may be will not, but if he does, God cleanses, forgives, and removes all unrighteousness.

Fourth Class:

This conditional clause has very remote, if any, possibility. 1 Peter 3:14, 1 Cor. 14:10, 1 Cor. 15:37 (if it’s true, but it probably is not).

The form of the condition has only to do with the way the writer or speaker views the statement. What is stated as truth may actually be untrue. Peter said in Mark 14:31 that he would die before he would deny Christ...he regarded this statement as true, but it wasn’t.

Mixed conditions:

One clause belongs to one class condition and the other clause to another class condition. Luke 17:6

Implied condition:

The apodosis is expressed and the protasis is implied in the participle. 1 Tim. 4:4

Elliptical condition:

A conditional sentence from which one member has been entirely omitted and must be supplied from the context. Luke 13:9

Concessive conditions:

This is a regular simple condition with the addition of “kai.” The “if” clause would begin...even if, if also, although.

Noun Cases

Nominative:

Definition: The nominative case is basically the case of designation.

Types of variation with the Nominative Case.

Subject Nominative: The normal use of the nominative which identifies the subject of the sentence. John 3:35.



Predicate Nominative: The nominative occurring in the predicate position makes that noun that which the sentence is defining. 1 Thess. 2:20.

Nominative of Appellation: This is the putting of proper names in the nominative case as an apposition to another verb or noun. Luke 19:29.

The Independent Nominative: This is the use of the nominative case when an idea is expressed that has no verbal connecting in the sentence. Luke 21:6.

Nominative of Exclamation: When an idea of great distinctness is desired, the nominative case is used without a verb. Such as, “Water!!”

Genitive:

Definition: The genitive case is a case of description or definition.

Types of Variation within the genitive case.

Genitive of Description: the basic root meaning of the genitive is to describe. Mark 1:4.

Genitive of Possession: One of the most prevalent uses of the genitive is that the descriptive quality shows “ownership.” Luke 5:3.

Genitive of Relationship: This is the use of the genitive to show relationship of the noun to another in a marital relationship. Such as; a son, daughter, father, in which the noun does not appear, only its attending proper article. Acts 16:22.

Adverbial Genitive: The use of the genitive which gives local or temporal relations to the noun.

Genitive of Time: John 3:2. **Genitive of Place:** Luke 16:24. **Genitive of Reference:** Heb. 3:12.

The Genitive with Nouns of Action: Noun in genitive indicates the person, place, or thing to which the action is referred. Rom. 16:25. **The Subjective Genitive.** **The Objective Genitive.**

Genitive of Apposition: This is taking a noun with meaning of a general nature and putting it in the genitive and giving it a unique, specific meaning. John 2:31.

Partitive Genitive: A noun may be defined by indicating in the genitive the person, place or thing of which it is a part. Mark 6:23.

Genitive Absolute: A noun or participle in the genitive case not grammatically connected to the main sentence is called a Genitive Absolute. Matt. 9:33.

The Ablative Case:

Definition: The basic significance of the Ablative case is the point of departure. It emphasizes the concept of separation.

Types of variations of the Ablative Case:

The Ablative of Separation: This is the Ablative in its basic usage with no other associated ideas. Eph. 2:12.

The Ablative of Source: The noun modified by the Ablative owes its present characteristic to origination in the Ablative. Example: “Through the consolation (from) the Scriptures.” The noun, Consolation, owes its source and character to the Scriptures which has the Ablative form. Rom. 15:4.

Ablative of Means: The ablative of means is used when the means is related by implication of origin



or source. Acts 20:37.

The Ablative of Comparison: The noun in Ablative of Comparison emphasizes separation when two things are compared. Mark 12:28.

The Dative Case:

Definition: The Dative Case is the case of person interest.

Types of Variations of the Dative Case:

The Dative of Indirect Object. This is the basic root idea of the Dative. It indicates the one for whom or to whom the action of the verb is performed. Matt. 18:26.

The Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage: This is the use of the Dative which emphasizes that the action is to the advantage of the one receiving it. 2 Cor. 2:1.

The Dative of Possession: This is a further development of the first two phrases. Example: "He gave the book to me," The Dative of Possession emphasizes that it is now mine." No. 1 emphasizes the giving was in my interest; No. 2 that it is an advantage and No. 3 it is my property. Luke 4:16.

The Dative of Reference: The Dative of Reference is usually used in showing a diminished idea of Interest when things are referred to rather than people. Rom. 6:2.

The Locative Case:

Definition: The Locative Case designates a "point within limits set by the word and context." It is the case of position.

Types of Variation of the Locative Case:

The Locative of Place. John 21:8.

The Locative of Time. Matt. 20:19.

The Locative of Sphere. (Limits are logical rather than spatial) Heb. 5:11.

The Instrumental Case:

Definition: The function of the Instrumental Case, with its root idea is means.

Types of Instrumental Case.

The Instrumental of Means: The instrumental case is used to express the impersonal means. Personal means is expressed by the preposition ὑπό (hupo) with the ablative.) Matt. 8:16.

The Instrument of Cause: This is the use of the Instrumental case when the original cause is meant. "He was killed by the flood." Heb. 2:15.

The Instrumental of Method: This is the use of the instrumental case when the method of the action is emphasized. 1 Cor. 11:5

The Instrumental of Measure: This is the use of the Instrumental case which measures the extent of the action of the instrument. Acts 8:11.

The Instrumental of Association: This is the use of the Instrumental case in which a second party furnishes the means of Association. Mark 14:51.

The Accusative Case:



Definition: The root meaning of the accusative case embraces the ideas of the end, or direction, or limitation of motion or action.

Types of Variations of the Accusative Case:

The Accusative of Direct Object: It is used when a noun receives the action of the verb. Usually a transitive verb. “He sings songs.” John 8:46.

The Adverbial Accusative: This usage limits the action of the verb by a fact rather than a person or thing. It has three expressions: Of Measure, Luke 22:41; Of Manner (How), Matt. 10:8; Of Reference, Rom. 16:6.

The Cognate Accusative: When an accusative of Direct Object has within it the same idea as the action of the verb it is a Cognate Accusative. 2 Tim. 4:7.

The Double Accusative: This is used when a verb requires more than one object to complete its meaning. This usage is the Double Accusative. John 14:26.

The Accusative Absolute; This is the usage of the Accusative when as a noun with or without a participle it is set off from the main part of the sentence with no grammatical connection, Acts 26:3

The Accusative with Oaths: The oath, I adjure, is usually followed by two accusatives. Mark 5:7 (English prep. by understood).

Articles

Form:

Declined like a noun, having a form for each case, gender and number. Agrees with the noun it accompanies in case and gender, and number.

Function:

Basic Function; The Basic function of the Article is to point out “individual Identity.” The Presence of the Article emphasizes the Identity of the noun. The Absence emphasizes the quality of the noun.

Regular Uses of the Article:

To Denote Individuals--point out a particular person, place or thing; Matt 3:3.

To Denote Previous Reference--identifies a previously stated noun in its context when accompanying a repetition of that noun later, John 4:11.

With Abstract Nouns--the use of the Article with an abstract noun, such as truth, brings it from the general sense to the specific sense, Eph. 2:8.

Used with Proper Names--it is used with proper names to emphasize the “particular” person, Acts 19:13.

The Generic Use--this is used with a noun regarded as a classification of things, people, Matt. 8:20.

With Pronouns--the article will affect certain nouns such as .

Articles with an Expression--to identify individuality is desired, the article is then used, Luke 5:10.

Special Uses of the Article:

Nouns connected by καί. Article precedes first noun--makes both nouns the same. Article precedes



second noun--makes both nouns separate. 2 Peter 2:20.

As a Pronoun. Demonstrative--the article may have the full force of the demonstrative (those), Gal 5:24. Used with $\mu\epsilon\upsilon$ and $\delta\epsilon$ as alternate pronoun, Acts 17:32. Possessive Pronoun, Matt. 8:3. Relative pronoun -- repetition of the article with some word or phrase, used as mild relative.

With Subject in a Copulative sentence--the article distinguishes the subject from the predicate, John 1:1.

Position of the Article

Before the Adjective - Attributive Position. Matt. 12:43.

Absent before the Adjective - Predicate Position. 1 Cor. 5:6.

Article before both Noun and Article - distributes identity equally between the two. 1 John 10:11.

Participle with Article - Attributive, Quality of the Noun.

Participle without Article - Predicate, Temporal concept.

Infinitive with preposition - always has an article.

Infinitive with Article - helps sustain substantive force of infinitive.

Conjunctions

The following will consist of a listing of most of the Greek conjunctions expressed with their clauses and sentences, as to function and relationship established by the certain use of conjunctions and respective clauses.

Conjunctions with Relative Clauses:

$\omicron\varsigma$ or $\omicron\sigma\tau\iota\varsigma$ as Pronouns used as conjunctions.

$\epsilon\omega\varsigma$ or $\omega\varsigma$ as Adverbs used as conjunctions.

Relative Clauses and the Subjunctive Mood:

Most Probable Conditions, Relative Pronoun plus the particle, $\alpha\upsilon$ Matt. 5:19.

Voluntative Result Clauses: Expresses a result which the context shows is intended or contemplated. Heb. 8:3

Conjunctions and Causal Clauses:

$\gamma\alpha\rho$ plus two coordinate clauses. This usually shows cause and effect, or reason and conclusion.

Conjunctions with Causal Clauses, Subordinate type:

Subordinating conjunctions:

$\omicron\tau\iota$ because, since, for that

$\delta\iota\omicron\tau\iota$ on this account, that, because

$\kappa\alpha\theta\omicron\tau\iota$ so far as, according as, because that, because

$\epsilon\pi\epsilon\iota$ since, seeing that, because

$\epsilon\pi\epsilon\iota\delta\eta$ when now, after that, forasmuch as, seeing that



οθεν for which reason, wherefore, on which account

εφ' ω upon which

εφ οσον as long as

ανθ' ων for that, because, for this cause

ου χαριν for which cause

δια το ειναι plus the Articular Infinitive introducing a causal clause.

λυων in the Genitive Absolute, or in agreement with a word in the principal clause.

Relative Pronoun, ος used to introduce a Causal Clause.

Comparative Clauses:

Function of Comparative Clauses: the main function of Comparative clauses is to describe or emphasize.

Particles used to introduce Comparative Clauses:

ως as, like

καθως according to, just as, even as

καθο in so far as, according as

καθοτι so far as, according as

καθωσπερ just as, exactly as

καθαπερ according as, just as, even as

ωσει as though, as, like as, like

ωσπερ just as, even as

ωσπερει as, as it were

ωσαντως likewise, in like manner

οσος how many, as many as, how much, as much as

η or

ον τροπον as, even as, like as

Mood used with Comparative Clauses:

The indicative mood: Ye shall be perfect as your father is perfect.

The subjunctive mood: As we have opportunity, let us do good.

Clauses

The Grammatical Nature of the Clauses:

Substantive: subject or object of verb.

Adjective: modifier of a noun.



Adverb: acts as an adverb modifying another verb, adverb, or noun.

The Two Basic Categories of Clauses as to their Nature:

Paratactic, or coordinating

Hypotactic or subordinating

The Paratactic or Coordinating Clauses: types

Copulative: joining two clauses uniting their ideas in a coordinate way.

Adversative: expressing an antithesis, two clauses.

The Hypotactic or Subordinating Clauses:

Relative clause: an adjectival pronoun which describes the antecedent.

“Temporal clause: clause designed to limit the action of the verb in the main clause.

Local clause: clause introduced by a relative adverb of place (three local adverbs).

Comparative clause: clause introduces an analogous thought to emphasize the principle thought.

Final clause: (purpose) express the aim of the action of the main verb in the principle clause.

Consecutive clause: expresses the direction of the action toward a given desired result.

Causal clause: (paratactic or hypotactic) grounds for the action in the main clause.

Conditional clause: statement of supposition necessary to realizing a potential fact in a companion clause.

Wish clause: expressed desire or wish of writer.

Indirect discourse: indirect assertions, indirect questions, or indirect commands.

The infinitive: used in causal, temporal, sub-final, consecutive and declarative clauses.

The participle: adverbial, adjectival, or substantival.

Result clause: that which results from the action of the main verb.

The Paratactic or Coordinating Clauses Defined:

Copulative: clauses introduced by any of the following...

Te--kai: to things joined or connected by some inner bond whether logical or real.

Te: adds something having an inner connection.

Kai; adds something having an external connection.

Kai-kai: indicates that of two things no one takes place less than the other.

Kai gar: for also has the idea of extension).

Kai eyeneto kai: and it came to pass.

Kai eyeneto: used 50 times in Luke - and it came to pass.

De: and but, moreover.

Alla: but - 2 Cor. 7:11.



Te--de: te adds something to the previous sentence and de adds something contrary to the addition.

The adversative clause: clauses introduced by any of the following...

Ego de lego: but I say.

Alla: but.

Alla a: but, or.

Plen: besides - used to restrict, unfold, or expand.

Mentoi: however -idea of qualifying a concession.

Omos: idea of qualifying by setting an opposite position of reality.

Kai: sometimes.

The disjunctive clause:

η or

ητοι - η either, indeed.

ειτε - ειτε whether, or.

ουδε - ουδε neither, nor - negates things that are equal with each other from the main clause, inanimate.

ουτε - ουτε neither, nor - negates equal animate things.

μηδε - μηδε continues a negative or prohibition - but not, neither - separating different things.

μητε - μητε neither, nor - separating the same kind of things.

ουκ - ουδε doubting the negative for the sake of emphasis - not this, neither that.

μη - μηδε not, neither - with a common verb. I will sing not the music or the words.

ουδε - ουτε neither, not. Oute corresponds to ou of oude.

The inferential clause:

αρα corresponding

γαρ αρα explanatory or illative - (deduced consequences).

ουν transitional, continuative, or illative.

αρα ουν logical and formal connective.

ταγαρουν wherefore then, for which reason.

ανθ' ων for that, because.

διο conjunction - on which account, wherefore.

ωστε consecutive conjunction - so that.

ου χαριν for which cause.

δι ην αιτιαν for which cause, wherefore.



The Hypotactic Clauses:

The relative clause:

Definition: the true relative is an adjectival pronoun which describes the antecedent. It may be adjective, adverb, or substantive.

Kinds of relative clauses:

Adjective clause: directly limits or defines a substantive. John 15:20.

Causal clause: the grounds for the assertion in the main clause. Rom. 6:2.

Concessive clauses: has the idea of concession. James 4:13-14.

Simple condition: may be the protasis of a simple condition. Rom. 2:12.

Purpose clauses: may express the purpose. Matt. 21:41.

Categories of relative clauses: they may be either...

Definite: describes a particular individual.

Indefinite: pictures anyone in general without reference to any certain one.

The relative clause in specific functions:

The indefinite relative clause is sometimes accompanied with the subjunctive mood and “an” with the pronoun. Matt. 5:19. Used 122 times in the New Testament.

The definite relative clause is usually indicated by the indicative mood.

The negative “ou” is usually used with the definite relative and the indicative mood.

The negative “ma” is usually used with the indefinite relative and the subjunctive mood.

The temporal clause:

The function: the temporal clause is designed to limit the action of the verb in the principle clause by the introduction of a relation to time.

The relation to time limit: Antecedent time: prior limit to main verb action, indicated by $\pi\rho\iota\nu$.

Contemporaneous time: time limit may be continuance action, describes as parallel with main verb action, usually indicated by $\epsilon\omega\varsigma$ - while, or $\sigma\tau\epsilon, \omega\varsigma$ - when. Subsequent time: time limit may be described as the terminus of the action of the main verb, usually introduced by: $\epsilon\omega\varsigma$ until.

The kinds of temporal clauses: distinguished by their constructions.

Used with the indicative mood to indicate the temporal limitation is definite and real, or assumed real. Usually indicated by Greek terms which are translated when, whenever, while, until, since.

Used with the subjunctive mood to indicate the temporal limitation is an indefinite possibility. Indicated by whenever, until.

Used with the infinitive: coupled with $\pi\rho\iota\nu$ meaning “before.”

Used with the participle: regular adverbial participle is a temporal clause.

Temporal clauses are introduced by many conjunctions:

Those having the idea of when or while:



εν ω

εως

επειδη and επαν

εφ' οσον

ηνικα

οτε οταν

ως

The idea of until:

αφ' ου

αχρι

εως

μεχρι

πριν

Those coupled with the infinitive mostly forming idioms:

πριν, πριν η

προ του

εν τω

μετα το

εως του