J. W. Wenham. *The Elements of New Testament Greek*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1970.

1. SENTENCES, CLAUSES AND PHRASES

A **sentence** is a group of words which makes complete sense. Clauses and phrases make sense, but not complete sense.

A **clause** is a group of words which has a finite verb (see Section 15), but is only part of a sentence, e.g. 'We do not know *where they have laid him*'.

A **phrase** is a group of words without a finite verb, e.g. 'under the fig-tree'.

2. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

Every sentence has two parts: the subject and the predicate. The **subject** names the person or thing uppermost in mind when the sentence is formed. The **predicate** makes an assertion about the subject.

Subject	Predicate
I	die
The glorious gospel	is sent into all the world

Or the predicate may take the form of a question, e.g. 'Must I die?', or a command, 'Go into the world'. In the latter case the subject is often 'understood', i.e. it is not expressed.

Subject	Predicate
I	must die
You (understood)	go into the world

3. PARTS OF SPEECH

By parts of speech we mean the various classes under which all words used in speaking and writing may be arranged. There are eight parts of speech:

(1) A **noun** is the name of anything (Latin *nomen*, 'name'), e.g. 'John', 'brother', 'love'.

1

(2) A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun (Latin *pro*, 'for'; *nomen*, 'name'), e.g. 'I', 'you', 'they', 'him', 'who'.

(3) An **adjective** is a word joined to a noun to qualify (that is, add something to) its meaning (Latin *adjectum*, 'a thing thrown to'), e.g. 'good', 'many'.

(4) A **verb** is a word by means of which we can make a statement, ask a question, or give a command about some person or thing (Latin *verbum*, 'word', so called as being the principal word in the sentence), e.g. 'I write', 'Do you see?', 'Depart'.

(5) An **adverb** is a word joined to a verb to qualify its meaning (Latin *ad*, 'to'), e.g. 'immediately', 'well', 'very'. (Adverbs sometimes qualify an adjective or another adverb: '*very* good', '*very* well'.)

(6) A **preposition** is a word joined to, and generally placed before, a noun (or pronoun) to show the relation of the person or thing denoted by the noun to something else (Latin *praepositum*, 'placed before'), e.g. 'of', 'with', 'by'.

(7) A **conjunction** is a word that joins together sentences, clauses or words (Latin *conjungo*, 'I join'), e.g. 'and', 'but', 'because'.

(8) An **interjection** is a word thrown into a sentence to express a feeling of the mind (Latin *interjicio*, 'I throw in'), e.g. 'Oh!', 'Alas!', 'Woe!'

The **article**, which is in fact a kind of adjective, is also sometimes classed as a separate part of speech. In English we have both the *definite article* ('the') and the *indefinite article* ('a'), but in Greek there is no indefinite article.

The first principle to be remembered in determining the parts of speech is that a word must be carefully examined with reference to the function which it performs in the sentence. In English many words having exactly the same form must be regarded as entirely different parts of speech, according to the place which they occupy in the sentence, and must be translated by wholly different words in Greek, according to their meaning.

Many words may be nouns or verbs, according to the place which they occupy in the sentence, e.g. 'judge', 'love', 'work', 'glory'.

Other words may be adjectives or verbs, e.g. 'clean', 'free'.

Others may be nouns, adjectives or verbs, e.g. 'last', 'stone'.

A more difficult example is 'that', which (as we shall see later) can be:

(1) A **demonstrative pronoun**: *That* is the man.

(2) A **demonstrative adjective**: Give me *that* book.

(3) A **relative pronoun**: This is the book *that* I want.

(4) A **conjunction**: He said *that* this was the book.

Try your hand at determining the parts of speech of the word 'that' in the following sentence: 'He said that that "that" that that man used was incorrect.'

Remembering then always to consider the word in connection with its sentence, the student should ask himself the following questions to help him find out what part of speech a word is:

(1) Is it the name of anything? If so, then it is a noun.

(2) Can a noun which is mentioned or thought of before be substituted for the word without altering the sense? Then it is a pronoun.

(3) Does it answer any of the questions: 'What kind?', 'How many?', 'Which?', with regard to some noun? Then is it an adjective.

(4) Does it make a statement, ask a question, or give a command? Then it is a verb.

(5) Does it answer the questions: 'How?', 'When?', 'Where?' Then it is an adverb. ('How?', 'When?' and 'Where?' are also themselves adverbs.)

(6) Does it stand before a noun or pronoun to show its relation to something else? Then it is a preposition. (Another test of a preposition is that it is a word which is not a verb but which can stand before 'him' and 'them', but not before 'he' or 'they'.)

(7) Does it join sentences, clauses or words? Then it is a conjunction.

Consider the following sentence: 'The man went quickly down the narrow street and did not stop, alas!'

THE	Adds something to the meaning of 'man', tells us which man it was, i.e. some man already known.	Therefore it is a kind of adjective. In this case of course the definite article.
MAN	Is the name of something.	Therefore it is a noun.
WENT	Makes a statement about the man.	Therefore it is a verb.

QUICKLY	Qualifies the verb 'went'; tells us how he went.	Therefore it is an adverb.
DOWN	Stands before the noun 'street', showing the relation between the street and the man's movement.	Therefore it is a preposition.
THE	See above.	
NARROW	Adds something to the meaning of 'street'.	Therefore an adjective.
STREET	The name of something.	Therefore a noun.
AND	Joins together two clauses.	Therefore a conjunction.
DID STOP	Make a statement about the man.	Therefore verbs.
NOT	Qualifies the verb 'did stop' because it tells us how he stopped, i.e. not at all.	Therefore an adverb.
ALAS	Expression of a feeling.	Therefore an interjection.

4. NOUNS

There are four kinds of nouns:

(1) A **proper noun** is the name appropriated to any particular person, place or thing (Latin *proprius*, 'belonging to a person'), e.g. 'John', 'Jerusalem', 'Passover'.

(2) A **common noun** is the name which all things of the same kind have in common (Latin *communis*, 'belonging to all'), e.g. 'brother', 'town', 'country'.

(3) A **collective noun** is the name of a number of persons or things forming one body, e.g. 'crowd', 'church', 'flock'.

(4) An **abstract noun** is the name of some quality, state or action considered apart from the person or thing in which it is embodied (Latin *abstractus*, 'withdrawn'), e.g. 'wisdom', 'peace', 'baptism'.

5. PRONOUNS

There are nine kinds of pronouns:

(1) **Personal pronouns**: 'I', 'you', 'we', 'they'.

(2) **Demonstrative pronouns**: 'this', 'that'.

(3) **Possessive pronouns**: 'mine', 'yours', 'ours', 'theirs'.

(4) **Interrogative pronouns**: 'who?', 'whose?', 'whom?', 'which?', 'what?'

(5) **Indefinite pronouns**: 'anyone', 'someone', 'something', 'a certain one', 'some'.

(6) **Reflexive pronouns** are used when a pronoun in the predicate and the subject of the sentence refer to the same person or thing, e.g. 'The man hates *himself*', 'It did it by *itself*'.

(7) **Emphasising pronouns** simply mark emphasis, e.g. 'You *yourselves* have heard', 'I saw the man *himself*'.

The **emphasising pronoun** and the word which it emphasises *both* belong to either subject or predicate, whereas the **reflexive pronoun** is always in the predicate and so is separated from the subject. The emphasising pronoun usually immediately follows the word emphasised, though there are sometimes words in between, as in 'John did it *himself*'. In this case 'himself' is still part of the subject.

(8) **Reciprocal pronoun**: 'one another'.

(9) **Relative pronouns** ('who', 'whom', 'whose', 'which', 'that') are used to connect a subordinate clause with the main clause in such sentences as: 'The Spirit *who* gives life is promised', 'He *whom* the Father promised is here', 'The words *that* I speak are life'. These pronouns refer (or 'relate') back to a noun or pronoun which is called the **antecedent**: '*The Spirit* who...', '*He* whom...', '*The words* that...'.

6. ADJECTIVES

A. There are six kinds of adjectives:

(1) **Adjectives of quality**, which answer the question 'What kind of?', e.g. '*narrow* street', '*good* men'.

(2) **Adjectives of quantity**, which answer the questions 'How many?', 'How much?', e.g. '*two* disciples', '*much* fruit', '*no* food'.

(3) **Demonstrative adjectives**, which answer the question 'Which?', e.g. '*these* women', '*that* house'.

(4) **Possessive adjectives**, which indicate possession, e.g. '*my* master', '*our* Father'.

(5) **Interrogative adjectives**, which ask questions, e.g. '*whose* image is this?'

(6) **The identical adjective**: 'same', e.g. 'The *same* men came back.'

B. There are three **degrees of comparison: positive, comparative** and **superlative**. The regular forms of comparison are:

| hard | harder | hardest |
| just | more just | most just |

An example of irregular comparison is:

| good | better | best |

The forms 'very hard', 'very just', 'very good' are called **elative superlatives**.

C. An adjective can be used either attributively or predicatively.

(1) **Attributive use**. In the phrase 'the blind beggar', the word 'blind' merely qualifies the word 'beggar'. That is to say, it defines him more exactly by mentioning one of his attributes. There is no complete sentence; nothing has yet been predicated of the man.

(2) **Predicative use**. 'The beggar is blind', however, predicates something of him. It constitutes a complete sentence.

7. VERBS

A. There are two kinds of verbs:

(1) **Transitive verbs** are so called because they denote an action which necessarily affects or passes over to some person or thing other than the subject of the verb (Latin *transire*, 'to pass over'), e.g. 'I throw', 'I take'. These statements are not complete; we ask immediately, 'What do you throw or take?' The name of the person or thing affected by the action must be supplied in order to make a complete sentence: 'I throw a ball', 'I take an apple'. The person or thing affected by the action of the verb is called the **direct object**.

(2) **Intransitive verbs** denote an action which does not affect any person or thing besides the subject of the verb, e.g. 'I remain', 'the sun shines'. These sentences are complete statements in themselves.

B. There are also **verbs of incomplete predication**. These verbs require another word to make a complete predicate. The commonest is

the verb 'to be'. 'He is' by itself is incomplete. A sentence can be completed by the addition of:

(*a*) a **predicative noun**: He is the shepherd;

(*b*) a **predicative pronoun**: He is mine;

(*c*) a **predicative adjective**: He is good.

The completing word or group of words is known as the **complement**.

Other verbs of incomplete predication, which can be either transitive or intransitive, include:

| Intransitive | become, seem, appear |
| Transitive | declare, choose, call, think, consider |

It is important to distinguish carefully between the object and the complement of a verb, because (as we shall see later) this will affect the case to be used. The complement always refers to the same person (or thing) as the subject, the object to someone (or something) different:[1]

e.g. God became man (complement).   I remain faithful (complement).
     God made man (object).   I chose faithful men (object).

The difference in case can sometimes be seen quite clearly even in English. We say:

I am *he* (complement: nominative case).
God made *him* (object: accusative case).

8. ADVERBS

A. There are five kinds of adverbs:

(1) **Adverbs of manner**, which answer the question 'How?', e.g. 'He thinks wisely, well, truly'.

(2) **Adverbs of time**, which answer the question 'When?', e.g. 'I went yesterday, later, afterwards'.

(3) **Adverbs of place**, which answer the question 'Where?', e.g. 'She goes here, there'.

(4) **Adverbs of degree**, which qualify an adjective or another adverb, e.g. '*quite* quick', '*very* slowly', '*almost* at once'. (Some adverbs of degree can also qualify a verb, e.g. 'I *quite* like it'.)

(5) **Interrogative adverbs**: 'How?', 'Why?', 'Where?', 'When?'

[1] Except of course in the case of the reflexive pronoun (p. 5).

B. Degrees of comparison are expressed thus:

(regular)	wisely	more wisely	most wisely
(irregular)	well	better	best

9. INFLECTION

Nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and some adverbs are capable of undergoing certain changes in form. The part of the word which contains the basic idea is known as the **stem**. The stem remains unchanged, but modifications of this basic idea are introduced by means of changes of form, which are known as **inflections**.

The study of the form of words is known as **morphology** (or *accidence*). The study of the arrangement of words in the sentence is known as **syntax**.

Inflection is important in English, but it is far more important in Greek. English has comparatively few inflections, whereas in the early stages of Greek the learning of the inflections is the student's main task.

Nouns, pronouns and (in Greek) adjectives may have inflections for number, gender, and for case (see Section 10).

(1) **Number**, e.g.

Singular:	heart,	church,	child,	I
Plural:	hearts,	churches,	children,	we

(2) **Gender.** In English we distinguish four genders: *masculine* (to denote males), *feminine* (to denote females), *neuter* (to denote things), *common* (for words which can denote either males or females, e.g. 'child'). Sometimes the feminine may be formed from a masculine stem by inflection, e.g. 'priestess' from 'priest'.

In Greek, gender has to do with the form of the words and has little to do with sex. There are *masculine, feminine* and *neuter* forms, but 'bread' is masculine, 'head' is feminine, and 'child' is neuter.

10. CASES

Case is the form or function of a word which shows its relation to some other word in the sentence. Five cases are to be distinguished: nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive and dative. In English, case inflection is usual only in the genitive. *'s* in such phrases as 'the apostle's brother' is a case ending, and 'apostle's' is an inflected form. A somewhat fuller inflection survives in the pronoun 'he' (nominative), 'him' (accusative), 'his' (genitive). In New Testament Greek all five case forms are still to be found.

But although English virtually has only two case *forms*, the five case *functions* are still to be distinguished.

(1) **Nominative**: (*a*) The *subject* of the verb is in the nominative case.

(*b*) The *complement* to an intransitive verb is in the nominative case.

Note. When one noun follows another to explain or describe it more fully, the two words are said to be **in apposition**, and are in the same case. Thus in 'John the Baptist was fasting', 'John' (the subject) and 'the Baptist' (in apposition to 'John') are both nominative.

(2) **Vocative** is the case of *address*, e.g. '*Master*, I am coming', '*O Lord*, save me'.

(3) **Accusative** is the case of the *direct object* of a transitive verb.

(4) **Genitive** is the case of *possession*, e.g. 'The *apostle's* brother', 'the brother *of the apostle*'. (This account of the accusative and genitive will need some modification when we come to study their uses in Greek.)

(5) **Dative** is the case of the *indirect object*. Consider the sentence: 'The owner gave him the donkey.' That which is directly affected by the action of the verb is the donkey; it was the donkey that the owner *gave*. So 'the donkey' is the direct object and is accusative. 'Him' is the person *to whom* or *for whom* it was given. This is the indirect object and is dative. It could equally well have been expressed: 'The owner gave the donkey *to him*.'

11. INFLECTION OF THE VERB

Greek verbs are set out according to this pattern:

I loose
Thou loosest (Modern English: You loose)
He looses
We loose
You loose
They loose

The first three are of course singular and the last three plural.

Person

'I' and 'we' denote that the person *who is speaking* is doing the action, and they are said to be in the **first person**.

'Thou' and 'you' denote that the person *spoken to* is doing the action, and they are said to be in the **second person**.

'He' (also 'she' and 'it') and 'they' denote that the person *spoken about* is doing the action, and they are said to be in the **third person**.

It will be observed that in the older English there were two inflected forms, 'loosest' and 'looses', whereas in modern English the separate forms for the second person singular have almost disappeared. In Greek there are usually six distinct forms.

Verbs which are not used in the first and second persons, but only in the third, are known as **impersonal verbs**, e.g. 'it is lawful', 'it is necessary'.

12. TENSE

Tense is concerned with two things:

(1) The time at which an action takes place.
(2) The state or nature of the action.
The English tenses may be set out as in Table 1 (opposite).

Except for the future tense, the tenses in Greek are concerned almost wholly with the nature and state of the action, and not with time.

It will be noticed that the English tense system is built up by the use of the verbs 'to be' and 'to have', which act as **auxiliary verbs**: 'I *was*

loving', 'I *had* loved'. In Greek the verb 'to be' is used, but only for the comparatively uncommon *periphrastic* tenses. (See Lesson 37.)

Table 1. *The English tenses*

	Past	Present	Future
		Time	
State Continuous	IMPERFECT I was loving I used to love	PRESENT CONTINUOUS I am loving	FUTURE CONTINUOUS I shall be loving
Simple	PAST SIMPLE I loved	PRESENT SIMPLE I love	FUTURE SIMPLE I shall love
Complete	PLUPERFECT I had loved	PERFECT I have loved	FUTURE PERFECT I shall have loved
Continuous-complete	PLUPERFECT CONTINUOUS I had been loving	PERFECT CONTINUOUS I have been loving	FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS I shall have been loving

13. VOICE

Voice is an inflection of the verb which denotes whether the subject does the action or is acted upon.

    Active: They loose the colt.
    Passive: The colt is loosed by them.

It will be observed that when a sentence in the active is put into the passive, the direct object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.

A complete table of tenses in the passive voice can of course be constructed to correspond with the table of active tenses in the previous section: 'I was being loved', 'I am being loved', etc.

14. MOOD

Mood is the form of the verb which indicates the *mode* or *manner* in which the action is to be regarded. There are four moods:

(1) The **indicative** makes a statement or asks a question: 'He goes', 'were you listening?'

(2) The **imperative** gives a command, entreaty or exhortation: 'Go', 'make haste', 'let him come'.

(3) The **subjunctive** expresses a thought or wish rather than an actual fact. It is the mood of doubtful assertion, e.g. 'God *save* the king', 'thy will *be done*', 'if I *were* you, I *would* not go', 'so that I *may* arrive', 'in order that I *might* succeed'.

> Contrast the Indicative: I *shall* be at home (certainty)
> with the Subjunctive: I *should* be at home (uncertainty).

(4) The **infinitive** expresses an action generally, i.e. without reference to a particular person or thing. It is normally prefaced by the word 'to', e.g. 'he wanted *to stay*'. Sometimes, however, 'to' is not found, e.g. 'he can *stay* (i.e. he is able *to stay*)', 'he saw me *come*'.

The infinitive is a **verbal noun**. As a verb it will have tense and voice, and it may have an object or a qualifying adverb, e.g. '*to love* (Present Infinitive Active) *animals* (object) *greatly* (adverb)'.

As a noun it can itself be the subject or object of another verb, e.g.

> As **subject**:   *To err* is human ('to err' is virtually equivalent to the noun 'error').
> As object: They desire *to live* (i.e. they desire 'survival').

'To err' and 'to live' are short **noun phrases**. Such phrases, which do the work of a noun, can be of any length, e.g. They desire *to live in the castle happily ever after*.

15. PARTICIPLES

Participles are **verbal adjectives**. Being verbs they have tense and voice and they may have an object. Being adjectives they can qualify nouns. There are two participles in English—the **Active Participle** ending in -*ing* and the **Passive Participle** which usually ends in -*ed*, e.g. 'loving', 'loved'.

Participles can be formed by the use of auxiliaries:

> e.g. having loved (Past Participle Active)
> having been loved (Past Participle Passive), etc.

The principal use of the participles in English is to form (with the help of auxiliary verbs) the continuous and complete tenses of the verb,

e.g. 'I am loving', 'I have loved'. Its simple adjectival use may be seen in an expression like 'his loving wife'. In Greek the participle has a wide range of uses which will be studied in due course.

The Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive make up the **finite verb**, while the Infinitive and Participle belong to the **verb infinite**.

16. SIMPLE, MULTIPLE AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

A **simple sentence** is a sentence which contains a single subject and a single predicate.

A **double** (or **multiple**) **sentence** is a sentence which contains two (or more) statements of equal value; that is to say, neither is subordinate to, or dependent upon, the other, e.g. 'he went out and he wept'. In this case 'he went out' and 'he wept' are of equal status and are said to be **co-ordinate**.

A **complex sentence** is a sentence which contains a **main clause** and a **subordinate clause** which is dependent upon it, e.g. 'he wept (main clause), because he had been faithless (subordinate clause)'.

There are three classes of subordinate clauses: **noun, adjective** and **adverb clauses**.

17. NOUN CLAUSES

Noun clauses are subordinate clauses which do the work of a noun in relation to some part of another clause:

e.g. **as subject**:	*That he is coming* is certain.
as object:	He said *that he was king*.
	He asked *how it happened*.
	He told him *that he must go*.
as complement:	My hope is *that you may succeed*.
in apposition to a noun:	I had no idea *that you would oppose me*.

With verbs of saying, what is said may either be given in **direct speech**, i.e. the very words of the speaker are recorded and put within inverted commas, e.g. 'He said, "I am going away"', or they may be given in **indirect speech**, in which case the meaning is preserved but the form of the words is altered, e.g. 'He told them *that he was going away*'.

The same principle applies to a whole range of *verbs of saying or thinking* and includes such verbs as 'to feel', 'to learn', 'to know', 'to see'.

The three examples of object clauses given above represent three types of indirect speech:

When a noun clause which is the object of a verb states a fact, it is called a **dependent** (or **indirect**) **statement**: 'He said *that he was king.*'

When it begins with an interrogatory word, it is called a **dependent** (or **indirect**) **question**: 'He asked *how it happened.*'

When it gives the words of a command, it is called a **dependent** (or **indirect**) **command**: 'He told him *that he must go.*'

18. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

Adjective clauses are subordinate clauses which do the work of an adjective in relation to some part of another clause.

They are introduced either by a relative pronoun or by a word which is equivalent to a relative pronoun, e.g. 'when', 'where' in such expressions as: 'the time *when* (at which) we meet', 'the town *where* (in which) I was born'.

19. ADVERB CLAUSES

Adverb clauses are subordinate clauses which do the work of an adverb in relation to some part of another clause.

There are eight classes:

(1) **Purpose** (often called **final**) **clauses**: 'He ran *that he might get home soon.*'

(2) **Time** (or **temporal**) **clauses**: 'He ran *when he reached the road.*'

(3) **Place** (or **local**) **clauses**: 'He ran *where the road was level.*'

(4) **Causal clauses**: 'He ran *because he was late.*'

(5) **Consequence** (or **consecutive**) **clauses**: 'He ran *so that* (i.e. with the result that) *he got home early.*'

(6) **Conditional clauses**: 'He ran *if he was late.*'

(7) **Concessive** (or **adversative**) **clauses**, which denote contrast: 'He ran *although he was early.*'

(8) **Comparative clauses**: 'He ran *faster than she could.*'

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20. PARSING

To parse a word completely is to say the following things about it.

If it is a **noun**, it is necessary to give its number, gender, case and part of speech: e.g. He gave it to the *women*.

women: plural, feminine, dative, noun.

If it is a **pronoun**, the person must be added and the kind of pronoun: e.g. He gave it to *them*.

them: third person, plural, feminine, dative, personal pronoun.

If it is a **verb**, it is necessary to give, person, number, tense, mood, voice and part of speech:

e.g. He *gave* it to the women.

gave: third person, singular, Past Simple, Indicative, Active of the verb 'to give'.

In the case of a **participle** which is a **verbal adjective**, gender and case will have to be given in addition to its characteristics as a verb. Thus:

λυων (luōn) 'loosing': singular, masculine, nominative of the Present Participle Active of the verb λυω, 'I loose'.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEST PAPER A

1. Set out the words of the following sentence in a vertical column and determine the part of speech of each, giving your reasons: 'Alas! You have never truly repented of your wicked sins because you are proud.'

2. Give examples of the four kinds of nouns.

3. Write two sentences illustrating the difference between the reflexive and the emphasising pronoun.

4. Explain the difference between the attributive and predicative uses of the adjective.

5. Explain the function of the four moods, illustrating by short sentences, using the verb 'to loose'.