In the Beginning was “The Word”... John 1:1a

Ελληνικ (Greek) in Plain English

Instructor
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Greek in Plain English

“Greek in Plain English” is an introduction to the original language of the New Testament.

Incorporating modern linguistic theories and fun memory exercises students will be exposed to the Greek language quickly and begin reading passages from the Bible within the first few weeks. Using non-technical language the class will explore the grammar and vocabulary of the Greek New Testament.

With a student friendly lexicon, the class will explore the 100 most commonly used words in the New Testament and learn how to do word studies using the Greek text. The class will also look at the many study aids available today and how to use them to gain a deeper understanding of God’s word.

By the completion of the class students will be able to read the New Testament in the original Greek using a Greek-English interlinear Bible. They will also have learned the meaning of basic grammatical terms that are heard in sermons and found in commentaries and bible studies.

Greek in Plain English is an easy way for anyone to get a better understanding of the New Testament. It is also a good introduction for those students who wish to continue a more traditional study of first year Biblical Greek.
I. Description of the Course

“Greek In Plain English” is an introduction to the original language of the New Testament.

Incorporating modern linguistic theories and fun memory exercises students will be exposed to the Greek language quickly and begin reading passages from the Bible within the first few weeks. Using non-technical language the class will explore the grammar and vocabulary of the Greek New Testament.

II. Goals for the Course

1. By the completion of the class students will be able to read the New Testament in the original Greek using a Greek-English interlinear Bible.
2. Learn the meaning of basic grammatical terms that are heard in sermons and found in commentaries and bible studies.
3. Study the most commonly used Greek words in the New Testament and learn how to do word studies using the Greek text.
4. Learn about the many study aids available today and how to use them to gain a deeper understanding of God's word.

III. Textbooks for Greek In Plain English

**Texts required for Greek In Plain English:**

A Greek-English Interlinear New Testament

For the interlinear, any English translation will do although most students should use one that they are already familiar with. It is recommended that students do not use an interlinear that was published more than 60 years ago. Also, students are to **completely avoid** any Greek-English interlinear containing the New World Translation.

**Recommended Texts:**

Metzger, Bruce M., *Lexical Aids for Students of New Testament Greek.*
Silzer, Peter James & Finley, Thomas John. *How Biblical languages Work*
Mounce, William D., *Basics of Biblical Greek Text & Workbook*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>NT Reading</th>
<th>Class Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Class Intro/History of Biblical Greek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>The Alphabet and pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Eph 2:8-10</td>
<td>An Introduction to Nouns &amp; Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mk 1:9-11</td>
<td>Nouns &amp; Pronouns cont.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Rv 4:8</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1 Jn 5: 14-17</td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Phl 4:4-7</td>
<td>An Introduction to Verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1Jn 2:12-14</td>
<td>Verbs cont.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>2Pt 1:16-17</td>
<td>Participles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Eph 4:22-24</td>
<td>Infinitives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Eph 1:3-14</td>
<td>Clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Mt 7:9-13</td>
<td>Words &amp; Their Meanings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Jn 3:35-36</td>
<td>How to do a “word study”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Act 2:1-4</td>
<td>How to choose and use study aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>2Tm 3:14-17</td>
<td>Review and suggestions for future study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Brief History of the Greek Language
Greek in Plain English

Introduction

The word “Greek” is not a Greek word at all. It is the Old Latin word that the Romans used for those people living in the area of Southern Italy, the *Graeci*. The Greek peoples referred to themselves as the *Hellenes* and their language as *Glossa Hellenika*. This name came from a very important figure in Greek mythology, Helena the daughter of Zeus. Helena's incredible beauty was the cause of the Trojan war in which she also helped Greece to prevail.¹

In order to understand the Greek language better it is helpful to look at its origins. Since our focus is on learning the style of Greek used in the New Testament it is also helpful to see how our study fits into the overall development of the Greek language.

Language families

All languages can be grouped into language families. These groupings represent certain similarities and historical trajectories between different languages. While there is great diversity within language families (modern English verses modern Farsi) all languages within a particular family share some common grammatical traits and vocabulary. For most of us, American English is our birth language. Since we are learning Greek, and it falls within the same language family as English, we will be helped by some of the commonalities between the two languages.

Greek is a member of the Indo-European language family. Greek comes from the Hellenic group within this family. As it relates to modern English, they are both Indo-European languages but they are from different groups within the larger language family. Even though modern English borrows many words form other languages it is within the Germanic group.

¹ A very good discussion of the history of Greek can be found in *Greek Grammer* by Smyth, pgs 1-4b
The Roots of the Greek Language Tree

The earliest known examples of Greek are Linear A and B dating from around 1300 B.C. These scripts are somewhere between a hieroglyphic picture and a linear alphabet. Linear A has yet to be deciphered but Linear B was translated in 1952.²

As the Greek language developed it moved from these picture like characters to an alphabetic system.

The Phoenician Influence

In the early history of the Mediterranean the Phoenicians were expert sailors and businessmen. They had developed an alphabetic based language that would allow them to trade with various people groups throughout the near east. The Greeks borrowed most of these letters to form their own unique alphabet.

² For a complete discussion of Linear A & B see Leonard R. Palmer, The Greek Language
Classical Greek

Gradually the Greek language developed into different dialects such as Aeolic, Attic, Doric and Ionic. These variations of the language were primarily local. There were many geographical boundaries in the world of the ancient Greeks, many of which were insurmountable. They developed self contained city states with separate social, political and language features. If your family came from an area that spoke Doric you probably would not be able to understand someone from an area that spoke Aeolic. At this point in its development Greek was not a single unified language but rather a collection of closely related, but different, forms.

For a brief time the Ionic dialect became a common language for literature. This was the form of Greek used by Homer in the Iliad and the Odyssey. It was not pure Ionic though because it contained some forms of Aeolic and Doric. Unlike later Hellenistic Greek, and modern English, Homeric Greek did not have the article (the word “the”). The use of Ionic was overshadowed though by the Attic dialect which was the form of Greek used in the politically dominate area of Athens. When Phillip of Macedonia united all the city states of Greece, Attic gradually became the dominate form of the language. This period of time is called the “Golden Age” of classical Greek.

Hellenistic Greek

In about 350 B.C. Alexander the Great completed his conquest of the world. As he did the type of Attic Greek spoken by him and his soldiers became the dominate language for all of the territories. Because of the political dominance of Greece, the Greek language became the dominate language in the West until around A.D 330.

This form of the Greek language borrowed some words from the surrounding semitic languages and the early forms of Latin and developed its own consistent grammar and vocabulary. During this period there were two forms of Greek in use. Attic Greek was a primarily written form of Greek that was the “correct” form of the language used by intellectuals, artists and writers. It was used to imitate the golden period of the Greek language from the classical period.

The other type of Greek from this period is called Koine after the Greek word for “common”. This was the common language of the day used by the man on the street. This was the language of the New Testament. Up until about one hundred years ago the Greek of the New Testament was not understood in its historical context. Because there were many words and grammatical usages that differed from Classical Greek it was assumed to be a different form of Classical Greek. Many well meaning biblical scholars referred to it as “Holy Ghost Greek”. They assumed that God had created this special form of Greek to write the New Testament. In the 1940's and 50's many archaeologists around the Mediterranean and Near East began to find examples of the same kind of Greek that was in the New Testament. These archaeological finds were on scraps of papyrus and potsherds and contained family inscriptions and business records. It became obvious that the Greek of the New Testament was not some special divine language but rather the type of Greek used in everyday living. The New Testament was not written in the educated, artificial Attic form of Greek but in Koine, the common language of the people.
Byzantine Greek

As Greek died out and was replaced by Latin as the dominate language of the West it remained actively in use in the east. In A.D. 330 the rise of Constantinople as a political center strengthened the use of Greek in the East. During this time and through the middle ages the two forms of Greek *Attic* and *Koine* influenced each other although they never combined into one complete language. *Attic* was still thought of as the traditional language of high Greek culture and *Koine* continued as the language of commerce and social interaction. Eventually they settled into a division of written language (*Attic*) and spoken language (*Koine*). Both forms of Greek during this time are generally referred to as Byzantine or Medieval and were in use until the fall of Constantinople in 1453.

The Modern Period

With the Turkish invasion of Byzantium in 1453 many of the intellectuals in the East fled to the West. This provided Western Scholars with access to Greek manuscripts that they had not had for hundreds of years. With the Renaissance in the West study of the Greek language was revived.³

From *The Rise of the Ottoman empire* in 1435 until around the time of the Greek Revolution in 1821 the Greek language continued to be in two divisions, written and spoken. This is still the case in the modern period.

Today in Modern Greek there are two forms of the language used. The official Greek language is called *kathareuousa* (the “pure language”) it is used in parliament and the Greek Orthodox Church. The common spoken and written form of Greek is called *demotik*. Both of these forms use the same alphabet and pronunciation. Although descendant from it, Modern Greek differs from *Koine* Greek in pronunciation and grammar.⁴

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³ This also had a tremendous impact on the transmission of the New Testament into English. At the time of the Reformation in the West, the New Testament was in Latin. The scholarly study of Greek in the West in the 16th and 17th centuries allowed the Reformers to more easily determine both the textual transmission of the NT as well as create more accurate English translations.

⁴ Although it is a weak analogy, you can think of the difference between *Koine* and Modern Greek as how the English of Chaucer sounds to our ears today.
The Koine Greek Alphabet
Greek in Plain English

Remember the sound of the letter is in its name!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uppercase</th>
<th>Lowercase</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>alpha</td>
<td>A as in <em>father</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>beta</td>
<td>B as in <em>bet</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Γ</td>
<td>γ</td>
<td>gamma</td>
<td>G as in <em>go</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ</td>
<td>δ</td>
<td>delta</td>
<td>D as in <em>dog</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>ε</td>
<td>epsilon</td>
<td>E as in <em>net</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>ζ</td>
<td>zeta</td>
<td>Z as in <em>zoo</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>η</td>
<td>eta</td>
<td>A as in <em>fame</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Θ</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>theta</td>
<td>Th as in <em>thee</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>ι</td>
<td>ioda</td>
<td>I as in <em>tip</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>κ</td>
<td>kappa</td>
<td>K as in <em>kitten</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Λ</td>
<td>λ</td>
<td>lambda</td>
<td>L as in <em>love</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>μ</td>
<td>mu</td>
<td>M as in <em>man</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>ν</td>
<td>nu</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>ξ</td>
<td>xzi</td>
<td>X as in <em>exit</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ο</td>
<td>ο</td>
<td>omicron</td>
<td>O as in <em>hot</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Π</td>
<td>π</td>
<td>pi</td>
<td>P as in <em>pillow</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ρ</td>
<td>ρ</td>
<td>rho</td>
<td>R as in <em>run</em></td>
</tr>
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<td>σ, ζ</td>
<td>sigma</td>
<td>S as in <em>sand</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Τ</td>
<td>τ</td>
<td>tau</td>
<td>T as in <em>top</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Υ</td>
<td>υ</td>
<td>upsilon</td>
<td>Oo as in <em>boot</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Φ</td>
<td>φ</td>
<td>phi</td>
<td>F as in <em>father</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Χ</td>
<td>χ</td>
<td>chi</td>
<td>Ch as in <em>Bach</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ψ</td>
<td>ψ</td>
<td>psi</td>
<td>Ps as in <em>oops</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ω</td>
<td>ω</td>
<td>omega</td>
<td>O as in <em>no</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note:
sigma has two forms:

\[ \varsigma \] is only used as the last letter of a word.
\[ \sigma \] is used at all other times.

A few notes about pronouncing Greek:

\[ \beta \delta \varepsilon \kappa \lambda \mu \nu \omicron \pi \varsigma \varsigma \tau \] are pronounced just like the corresponding English letters

\[ \upsilon \] can be pronounced in different ways like \( i \) as tip or sometimes like the \( y \) in Yoda or even like the \( ee \) in tree

\[ \gamma \] by itself is like the English \( g \) but when it is followed by \( \gamma \kappa \chi \xi \) it is pronounced like \( n \)

Dipthongs:

\[ \alpha i \] like aisle
\[ \epsilon i \] like eight or height
\[ \omicron i \] like oil
\[ \alpha u \] like sauerkraut
\[ \omega u \] like soup
\[ \upsilon i \] like suite
\[ \epsilon u \] like feud

Breathing Marks:

Greek has two breathing marks: \( \dot{\iota} \) and \( \dot{\epsilon} \) they are placed over the first vowel of the word.

\( \dot{\iota} \) is a rough breathing and adds an “h” sound to the word. Words beginning in \( \upsilon \) always have a rough breathing.

\( \dot{\epsilon} \) is a smooth breathing and is not pronounced. In other words, you say the word just as it looks with no additional “h” sound.
Accents:

Greek has three accents: \( \acute{\text{c}} \) \( \breve{\text{c}} \) \( \grave{\text{c}} \)

Greek words use accents like English to show which syllable gets emphasis

Punctuation

Greek has four punctuation marks:

\( \alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\eta \) comma

\( \alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\pi \) period

\( \alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\eta \) semicolon

\( \alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\eta \) question mark
Introducing Nouns
Greek in Plain English

Introduction

All languages use some method for telling the reader the function of words in a sentence. That is, which word is the subject, the verb and who or what is receiving the action. New Testament Greek and English differ in the way that function is designated. It is important to understand the difference in order to recognize the function of words in New Testament Greek.

The Forms of Function

There are two ways to show the function of words in language. The first is by word order. Languages that do this are called non-inflected languages. For example:

Tom hit the ball
The ball hit Tom.

Both of these sentences use the same words. By re-rearranging the order of the words we move from a great play to a painful accident. This is how English shows the function of words in a sentence. As native English speakers we understand this because it is how we are used to seeing and hearing our language. In Star Wars, Yoda takes on an eccentric personality through his misuse of standard English word order, “go you must” instead of the expected “you must go”.

English is called an S-V-O language because its normal word order is subject-verb-object. Not all languages that use word order to show function use similar patters. The difference between where English places adjectives and how Spanish does this is a good example. The “white house” verses “casa blanca”.

The other way to show the function of a word is to change its form as it changes its function. Languages that do this are called inflected languages. Most of the time the whole word is not changed only a small suffix is added to the word to designate its function.

For example, doing this to our sample sentence might look like this:

Tom-s hit-v the ball-do

In this case “s” has been added to Tom because it is the subject, “v” to hit because it is the verb and “do” to ball because it is the direct object. With these function markers in place word order no longer matters:

Tom-s hit-v the ball-do
hit-v Tom-s the ball-do
the ball-do Tom-s hit-v
All of these sentences mean the same thing because we know that because Tom has an “s” it is always the subject no matter where it is placed. The Greek in the New Testament is an inflected language. It uses the forms of the words to show their functions.

The Cases

For nouns, pronouns, and adjectives their functions are called “cases”

In NT Greek there are five cases:

- Nominative
- Genitive
- Dative
- Accusative
- Vocative

Each case has a different function within the sentence:

Nominative  This is the case for the subject and the predicate nominative. The predicate nominative is a word that says something about the subject as in the sentence *God is love*. *God* is the subject and would be in the nominative case. *Love* is the predicate nominative and would also be in the nominative case.

Genitive   This is the case showing possession. *Tom’s hat*

Dative    This is the case of the indirect object. *I teach Greek to the students*

Accusative  This is the case of the direct object. *Tom hit the ball*

Vocative   This is the case of direct address. *Brothers, let us learn Greek!*

Along with case, all nouns, pronouns and adjective have gender and number. These are the same in Greek as in English.

Gender    Masculine, Feminine or Neuter

Number    Singular or Plural
Pronouns
Greek in Plain English

In New Testament Greek, as in English, a pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun. In this case the pronoun “he” replaces “Tom”.

Tom went to the store and he bought some milk.

Greek pronouns must always agree with the noun they are replacing in gender, number and case. Tom is masculine, singular and the subject so we would never say:

Tom went to the store and she bought some milk.

or

Tom went to the store and they bought some milk.

This is important because it makes a big difference in how a NT passage is understood depending on which noun a pronoun is replacing. For example, Mt 16:18 and Eph 2:8.

New Testament Greek Pronouns

First & Second person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>εγώ (I)</td>
<td>ημει (we)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>συ (you)</td>
<td>ιμει (you all)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third person

3rd person  αυτο

The 3rd person pronoun in Greek is a little different from the 1st and 2nd person. Since it can mean “he”, “she” or “it” it has three different forms:

αυτο he  αυτη she  αυτο it
The 3rd person pronoun also has three different functions:

1 as a regular pronoun

ο μαθητή αυτο γραφει

the disciple he wrote

2 as a way of intensifying another noun

αυτο ο μαθητη

the disciple himself

3 as a way of showing that something is identical “the same”

Εν αυτη τι ωρα προσηλθαν τινε Φαρισαιοι (Lk 13:31)

In the same hour some Pharisees came

Demonstrative pronouns (“this” & “that”)

Demonstrative pronouns, “this” and “that” can be thought of as showing relative space – near = “this”, far = “that”. Since pronouns have to agree in gender with the noun they are replacing there are masculine, feminine and neuter forms for each of these types of pronouns

Near - “this”

ουτο masc αυτη fem τουτο neuter

A Special Note about τουτο:

In New Testament Greek the neuter pronoun τουτο sometimes replaces a group of words or an entire idea instead of a single noun. This is important because sometimes there is no neuter noun for it to replace like in Eph 2:8.

Far - “that”

εκεινο masc εκεινη fem εκεινο neuter

Relative pronouns (“who” or “which”)

Relative pronouns have to agree in gender with the noun they are replacing so there are masculine, feminine and neuter forms for each of these types of pronouns

ο masc η fem ο neuter
Adjectives
Greek in Plain English

Adjectives are words that give us more information about a noun or a pronoun.

Types of Adjectives

In both English and Greek adjectives have two functions.

Adjectival

These are like regular adjectives

There are two types of regular adjectives:

the “good” dog – attributive adjective

the dog is “good” - predicate adjective (notice the use of the verb “to be”)

Substantival

The adjective stands by itself like a noun

the “Good”, the Bad and the Ugly

Agreement

In English we can use the same adjective to describe different genders:

a “cute” girl       a “cute” boy       a “cute” kitten

In English we can use the same adjective for singular or plural words:

a “red” ball       apples are “red”

In Greek adjectives are like chameleons. They take on the gender, number and case of the noun or pronoun that they are modifying. For example:

ο ἀγαθὸς ἀνθρώπος  masculine – singular - nominative
the good     man

η ἀγαθὴ γυνὴ    feminine – singular - nominative
the good     woman
το ἀγαθὸν προβατὸν neuter – singular - nominative
the good sheep

When an adjective is acting substantivally its gender and number are determined by what it stands for and its case is determined by its function in the sentence (subject = nominative, dir obj = accusative):

ο ἀγαθὸς εστίν.... masculine – singular
the good man is.....

ἡ ἀγαθαί εἰσί.... feminine – plural
the good women are.....

Rules for the use of the article with adjectives

*Absolute*

*The AAA rule* – The **A**djective with the **A**rticle is **A**tributive
(when it is modifying a noun or pronoun)

*Most of the time*

When the adjective has an article and there is no noun or pronoun being modified it will most likely be substantival.

*context, context, context*

An adjective without the article can be either, attributive, predicate or substantival. Context will tell you its function.
Prepositions
Greek in Plain English

Prepositions are words that describe the relationship between two words. For example:

The glass is on the table

The dog is under the porch

Here, “on” and “under” tell us the relationship between the glass and the table and the dog and the porch.

The object of a preposition is the word that follows the preposition. In the example above “table” is the object of the preposition “on” and “porch” is the object of the preposition “under”.

Greek Prepositions

In English, prepositions have single meanings, “with” always means “with”. It never means “after”. In Greek, prepositions can have multiple meanings depending on the case of their objects. For example:

διά, “through” with an object in the genitive case

or

“because” with an object in the accusative case

Unlike other parts of speech in Greek, the form of a preposition will never change. διά, will always remain διά, no matter what case its object is in.
## Chart of the Greek Prepositions by Case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Dative</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>αντι</td>
<td>instead of, for</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>απο</td>
<td>away from</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>εκ</td>
<td>from, out of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>προ</td>
<td>before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>εν</td>
<td>in, on, among</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>συν</td>
<td>with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ανα</td>
<td>upwards, up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ει</td>
<td>into, in, among</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>προς</td>
<td>to, towards, with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>δια</td>
<td>through</td>
<td></td>
<td>on account of, because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>κατα</td>
<td>down from, against</td>
<td></td>
<td>according to, throughout, during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μετα</td>
<td>with</td>
<td></td>
<td>after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>περι</td>
<td>concerning, about</td>
<td></td>
<td>around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>υπο</td>
<td>by</td>
<td></td>
<td>under</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>υπερ</td>
<td>in behalf of</td>
<td></td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>επι</td>
<td>over, on, at the time of</td>
<td>on the basis of, at</td>
<td>on, to, against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>παρα</td>
<td>from</td>
<td>beside, in the presence of</td>
<td>alongside of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verbs
Greek in Plain English

Introduction

Greek verbs are packed with information. A single Greek verb can be translated as a whole sentence in English:

εξέλευσομαι
I will go out.

Each Greek verb contains information about the action of that verb. All of this information can be summarized into five categories:

Person Who is doing the action?
Number How many people are involved doing the action?
Tense/Time What kind of action is taking place, and when is it occurring?
Voice Is the subject doing or receiving the action?
Mood How is the action related to reality?

Some of these categories are similar to English others are not. It is important to known the information in each of the categories in order to fully understand what the author was trying to say.

Form

In English the form of a verb changes to tell us when the action occurs:

the verb “eat” will change its form based on the time when I do the action

present “eat”
past “ate”
future “will eat” (here English adds a helping word instead of changing the form)
The form of a Greek verb will look different depending on the content of each of the five categories:

The verb “to love” in Greek is \(\alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\alpha\omega\). This one verb can take many different forms depending on its person, number, tense, voice and mood:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td>(\alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\alpha\omega)</td>
<td>I love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past</td>
<td>(\eta\gamma\alpha\pi\eta\sigma\alpha)</td>
<td>I have loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>(\alpha\gamma\alpha\pi\eta\sigma\omega)</td>
<td>I will love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In fact it is possible for a single verb to have more than 132 different forms, not including participle and infinitive forms. Fortunately, Greek is a very regular language and its forms all follow certain patterns. Most verbs will develop their forms in the same way. The ones that are radically different do not occur that often in the NT so it is easy to memorize them.

### Parts of the Verb

#### Person

Greek verbs can be one of three persons, 1\(^{st}\), 2\(^{nd}\) or 3\(^{rd}\)

- 1\(^{st}\) person: the person speaking “I” or “we”
- 2\(^{nd}\) person: the person being spoken to “you”
- 3\(^{rd}\) person: everyone else “he” “she” “it” “they”

Unlike English, Greek has both a singular and plural form for the second person. It is important to recognize this to know whether an NT author is speaking to us individually or a group.

A verb will always agree with its subject in person. If there is a 3\(^{rd}\) person verb then look for a noun or pronoun in the nominative. This will probably be the subject.

Verbs do not have gender. So you must use context to determine if a 3\(^{rd}\) person verb is “he” “she” or “it”.

#### Number

Greek verbs can be either singular, one person or thing, or plural, more than one. A verb will always agree with its subject in number.
Tense

In English we normally use the word “tense” to refer to the time that the verbal action occurs. If you are doing something now the verb is in the present tense. If you did something yesterday then the verb is in the past tense.

In Greek “tense” means not only time but also aspect. It is very important to understand this distinction. It is foundational for understanding the meaning of Greek verbs.

Time

This is the same as in English, past, present or future. In Greek, the only time a verb will have a time component is when it is in the indicative mood.

Aspect

Aspect tells us what type of action the verb is describing. We can look at this idea in English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>type of action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I ate dinner last night</td>
<td>a single event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was eating dinner last night</td>
<td>continuous process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have already eaten dinner</td>
<td>completed action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Greek there are three aspects:

- Process: This is the aspect of continuous action, the verb is describing an ongoing process.
- Event: This is the aspect of undefined action. Something happens, a single event. This is not the same as English “punctiliar” action which describes an action occurring at a single point of time. In Greek, this aspect tells you nothing about the action other than it happened.
- Perfect: This is the aspect of completed action which has effects that continuing into the present.

There are six tenses in the NT:

- Present: It shows process, or continuous action. In the indicative mood it is normally present time.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>It shows <em>process, or continuous action</em>. In the indicative mood it is normally past time. This tense does not occur in the subjunctive, imperfect or optative moods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>It shows <em>event, or undefined action</em>. In the indicative mood it is normally past time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>It shows <em>event, or undefined action</em>. In the indicative mood it is future time. This tense does not occur in the subjunctive, imperfect or optative moods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>It shows <em>completed action with results carrying into the present</em>. In the indicative mood it is past time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>It shows <em>completed action with results in the past</em>. In the indicative mood it is past time. This tense does not occur in the subjunctive, imperfect or optative moods.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Augment and Reduplication

One of the specific ways that Greek shows past time and completed action is through an addition to the form of the verb. This is similar to the way English adds “ed” to a word to show past time.

Augment  This is an ε that is added to the front of a verb and it denotes past time. Since the indicative is the only mood that shows time, it is the only mood where the augment is used. In the indicative mood it is used with the imperfect, aorist and pluperfect tenses.

Reduplication  The beginning consonant of the verb is doubled and then separated with an ε. Reduplication shows completed action so it is found in all the moods in the perfect and pluperfect tenses.

Because the pluperfect tense shows past time action with results completed in the past it takes both an augment and reduplication.

Voice

Voice tells us about the relationship between the subject and the action of the verb. Greek has three voices:

Active  the subject is doing the action of the verb

Middle  the subject is participating in both the doing and receiving of the action. This is a very different idea because English does not have a middle voice. While we might think that it is purely reflexive, the subject doing the action to himself, the middle voice in Greek has many nuances other than just reflexive

Passive  the subject receives the action of the verb

Mood

Mood tells us the speaker's attitude about the relationship between the action of the verb and reality. There are four moods in the NT:

Indicative  The action of the verb is a reality.

Imperative  The action of the verb is a command and not yet a reality.

Subjunctive  The action of the verb is possible or probable but it is not yet a reality.

Optative  The speaker wishes that the action of the verb would happen but it is not yet a reality.
Since the indicative mood is the only one where the action is a reality it is the only mood with “time” and aspect. All of the other moods have only aspect.

The indicative mood is the most frequent in the NT with 15,618 out of 16,000 occurrences. The subjunctive is second with 1,858 occurrences, the imperative at 1,631 and the optative with 68.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense Occurrences by Mood in the NT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We recognize participles in English as “ing” words:

The man, **standing** in the front of the class, is the Greek teacher.

After **lecturing**, the teacher sent us home.

In Greek participles are similar to English. They are verbal-adjectives. In the examples above the participle “standing” is telling us about the noun “teacher” so it is functioning like an adjective. The participle “lecturing” is telling us about the verb “sent” so it has a verbal characteristic.

**Form**

A participle can be built on any verb. Since it has a verbal characteristic it will have tense and voice. Because it also has an adjectival characteristic it will have case, number and gender:

\[ \lambda\upsilon\omega \nu \]  
present tense, active voice, nominative, singular, masculine

Because participles have parts of both verbal and adjectival forms it can be tricky to recognize them. This single participle, based on the verb \( \lambda\upsilon\omega \), can have 180 different forms. Again, as with verbs, Greek is a very regular language and the forms of the participle follow a basic set of rules for their formation. Most students find that with a little practice the forms can be fairly easy to recognize.

**Tense**

Participles occur in three tenses:

- **Present**  
  continuous action - process

- **Aorist**  
  undefined action - event

- **Perfect**  
  completed action

Because participles are not part of the indicative mood they do not have “time” only aspect. They do however show “relative time”. This means that the action of the participle occurs in relationship to the main verb:

Present participle's action occurs at the same time as the main verb.

Aorist and perfect participle's action occurs before the time of the main verb.
Voice

Participles can be either active, middle or passive voice. The voice will have the same function as voice in verbs

Case

Because participles are verbal-adjectives they have case. The case of the participle must agree with the noun or pronoun that it is modifying. If its is modifying the subject then it would be in the nominative case.

Number

Participles must agree in number with the words they modify.

Gender

Participles must agree in gender with the words they modify.

Function

Participles fall into two main groups:

Adverbial participles

Adverbial participles modify a verb. As stated above the time of the participle is relative to that of the verb:

Present - action occurs at the same time as the verb.

Aorist & Perfect - action occurs before the time of the verb.

Following is a chart showing the type of action that results from the combination of present and aorist participles and verbs based on NT occurrences:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Tense of the verb</strong></th>
<th><strong>Tense of the participle</strong></th>
<th><strong>Resulting type of action</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Present continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Simple past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Past continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Past perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Past continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Past perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Future continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Perfect continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td>Past perfect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Periphrastic construction

Sometimes Greek uses a participle together with a form of \( \varepsilon \iota \mu \iota \), \((to be)\) as a verbal function in a sentence.

Following is a chart showing the type of action that results from the periphrastic forms of participles and the verb \( \varepsilon \iota \mu \iota \), \((to be)\) based on NT occurrences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense of ( \varepsilon \iota \mu \iota )</th>
<th>Tense of the participle</th>
<th>Tense equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Imperfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjectival Participles

Because participles are verbal-adjectives, besides having a verbal function, they can have an adjectival function. There are two ways this occurs:

**Attributive**

A participle functions like an adjective. It is attributing something to a noun or a pronoun. The participle must agree with the noun or pronoun in case number and gender.

**Substantival**

Here the participle stands on its own and functions like a noun. Its case is based on its function in the sentence and its gender and number by the noun it is replacing.
Infinitives
Greek in Plain English

Infinitives are verbal-nouns. In English we can recognize infinitives because they usually are preceded by “to”:

*To learn* Greek is my greatest goal.

**Form**

In Greek, like English, infinitives are verbal-nouns. Unlike verbs and participles the form of the infinitive in Greek is very simple.

An infinitive can be built on any verb. Since it has a verbal characteristic it will have tense and voice. Even though they are part noun they do not have case, gender or number. Infinitives are *indeclineable*. The only change in form for an infinitive is based on tense or voice.

**Tense**

Infinitives occur in three tenses:

- **Present** continuous action - process
- **Aorist** undefined action - event
- **Perfect** completed action

Because infinitives are not part of the indicative mood they do not have “time”, only aspect.

**Voice**

Infinitives can be either active, middle or passive voice. The voice will have the same function as voice in verbs.

**Function**

There are five ways that infinitives are used in the NT:

**Substantive**

Because infinitives are verbal-nouns they can perform any function that a noun can. Most of the time when an infinitive is functioning as a substantive it will have the article. The article will always be neuter, singular and its case will be determined by the infinitive's function in the sentence.
To learn is good.

Complementary

An infinitive is often used to complete the meaning of a verb. For example the verb “necessary” needs more information to tell us what is “necessary”. The infinitive does this.

It is necessary to pray.

Infinitives with Prepositions

This construction is used to show result, purpose or time. The infinitive will always have the article and it will always come after the preposition. Forms found in the NT are as follows:

- \( \delta \iota \alpha \varsigma \) (accusative) + infinitive = result
- \( \varepsilon \iota \zeta \) (accusative) + infinitive = purpose
- \( \pi \rho \rho \varsigma \) (accusative) + infinitive = purpose
- \( \pi \rho \theta \) (genitive) + infinitive = time (before)
- \( \varepsilon \upsilon \) (dative) + infinitive = time (while)
- \( \mu \epsilon \tau \alpha \) (accusative) + infinitive = time (after)

Purpose

Along with its construction using a preposition, infinitives can show purpose in two other ways:

With the article in the genitive case.

Alone with no article. (context will help here)

Result

An infinitive that follows the word \( \omega \delta \tau \) will indicate the result of some action.
Clauses
Greek in Plain English

With the exception of some short commands like “Go!” or “Stop!”, words never stand alone. The way language communicates is by putting individual words together, by function, in groups to express meaning.

First, words are grouped in phrases. These are named by the main components such as nouns, verbs, adjectives or prepositional phrases. A group of phrases comprise a clause and a clause or group of clauses makes up a sentence.

The basic structure of NT Greek is the clause. There are two types of clauses:

**Independent Clauses**
A group of phrases that can stand alone with a complete meaning. We frequently refer to independent clauses as sentences.

**Dependent Clauses**
A group of phrases that can not stand alone and do not have a complete meaning. It is dependent on the main clause. There are several different types of dependent clauses in NT Greek: Causal, Comparative, Content, Local, Purpose, Relative, Result, Temporal. Dependent clauses are introduced by some sort of grammatical marker like a conjunction or relative pronoun (ινα οτι ως).

**Conditional Sentences**
These are another type of word grouping that is common in the NT. They are composed of two clauses The “if” clause (protasis) and the “then” clause (apodasis). The apodasis or “then” section is an independent clause. The protasis or “if” section is a dependent clause.

There are four different types of conditional sentences in the NT:

**First class conditions - Simple**
In this conditional sentence the protasis, “if”, is assumed to be true for the sake of argument. In reality it may or may not be true. These can be recognized by the use of ει with the indicative mood in the protasis. The apodasis can use any mood or tense. This is a very frequent type of conditional sentence in the NT. It occurs about 300 times.

Ex. Gal 5:18, Mt 12:27
Second class conditions – Contrary-to-fact

In this conditional sentence the protasis, “if”, is assumed to be false for the sake of argument. In reality it may or may not be false. These can be recognized by the use of ει usually with the aorist or imperfect tense in the indicative mood in the protasis. The apodasis has οὐ with a secondary tense in the indicative mood. There are about 50 of these in the NT.

Ex. Jn 5:46, Lk 7:39

Third class conditions – more-probable future

In this conditional sentence the protasis, “if”, is uncertain but likely to be fulfilled. These can be recognized by the use of ἐν or ἐνπερ followed by the subjunctive mood in any tense in the protasis. The apodasis can use any mood or tense. This is a very frequent type of conditional sentence in the NT. It occurs about 300 times.

Ex. Mt 9:21, 1 Jn 1:9

Fourth class conditions – less-probable future

In this conditional sentence the protasis, “if”, is possible but unlikely to be fulfilled. These can be recognized by the use of εἰ followed by the optative mood in the protasis. The apodasis has οὐ followed with the optative mood. This is least frequent type of conditional sentence in the NT. In fact some scholars say that there are no true fourth class conditions in the NT. Others scholars say it occurs, but never in a complete form.

Ex. 1 Pt 3:14
Words & Their Meanings
Greek in Plain English

It is not enough to only learn the individual forms of Greek words. It is also not enough to only know the grammar of the Koine language. Without knowing individual words and their meanings you will not be able to understand what the NT author is trying to say.

But, the answer is not to just memorize vocabulary words, although this is a necessary step in learning NT Greek. You must understand how words work by themselves and together in order to grasp what NT Greek is trying to communicate.

Word Meanings

Words can refer to actual objects in the real world. Words like *disciple*, *Jerusalem* or *rock* all refer to a person, place or thing. This is the *denotative* meaning of a word.

Words can also convey values or attributes. The word *test* can have a positive meaning to a student who has been studying and a negative meaning to one who has not. This is the *connotative* meaning of a word.

Words that have similar denotations or connotations can be grouped together:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>δουλος</td>
<td>slave</td>
<td>Mt 10:24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>διακονος</td>
<td>servant</td>
<td>Rm 13:4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>πας</td>
<td>servant</td>
<td>Mt 8:6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>οικονομος</td>
<td>steward</td>
<td>Lk 12:42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most words have more than one meaning. For example, in English the word has many meanings:

- to run a race
- to run a business
- to run out of milk
- the car will not run
- the pantyhose have a run in them

The way we determine which meaning is correct is to look at the context of the sentence or clause where the word appears. Many people make the mistake in NT Greek of thinking that all of the meanings of a word can apply, at least in part, in all uses of a word. This is wrong and should be avoided at all times. We would not do this in English so why do it in Greek? Let context always be your guide.
The Relationship of Words

In Greek, like most languages, all words are related in some manner to other words. Linguists have created categories of how words relate.

**Homonyms** - Words that are spelled and pronounced the same but have different meanings.

εἰ  “you (singl) are”
εἰ  “if”

**Homophones** - Words that have the same pronunciation but have different spellings and meanings. *(there are very few of these in NT Greek mostly because we are not completely sure of how the words sounded in the Koine period)*

ημων  “to us”
υμων  “to you (plural)”

**Hyponyms** - Words that refer to more specific forms of a generic idea

λαλεω  “to speak”  the generic idea
κερυσσω  “to proclaim”
καλεω  “to call”
aiteω  “to ask”
μαρτυρεω  “to testify”

**Synonyms** - Words that have similar meanings in some contexts. In other words, the meanings are so close that they can be interchanged without changing the meaning within the context of a sentence.

βλεπω  “to see”
οραω  “to see”
eιδον  “to see”

Not all synonyms are equal because they may have different connotations. For example in English “plump” and “obese” may both mean overweight but “obese” has a very negative connotation. Also, there is some overlap between the use of hyponyms and synonyms.
Antonyms - Words that have opposite meanings. Antonyms can be classed in groups by their usage:

mutually exclusive (either x or y)

ζωή "life"
θανάτος "death"

scalar (x as compared to y)

μεγας "large"
μικρος "small"

relational (x related to y)

γονευς "parent"
τεκνον "child"
How to Study the NT Now That You Know Some Greek
Greek in Plain English

1. Use your Greek interlinear to find the Greek word behind the English translation and then look up the Greek word in a Lexicon. Pay careful attention to the different meanings for the word and use the one that fits the context the best.

Example: μονογενής in Jn 3:16

Definition - 1. One of a kind, unique 2. Only child

2. Use an exhaustive concordance to find the Greek word behind the English translation in your Bible and then look up the Greek word in a Lexicon. Be careful to find all the translations of the Greek word in English. If you only go by the English word you may miss some occurrences.

Example: κόσμος in Jn 3:16

Strongs # 2889 - This same word also occurs as “adorning” and “universe” in some English translations.

3. Use a Parsing guide to find out the grammar behind the Greek word in a particular verse in your interlinear. Use your class notes to find out the function of the word in the verse.

Example: ἐγέρσαι in Jn 3:16

ἐγέρσαι 3rd person, singular, aorist, active, indicative:

3rd person, singular  he, she or it, so it is referring to a noun or pronoun that agrees with the verb (in this case the singular Θεός)

Aorist  The action is undefined or event type

Active voice  The subject (Θεός) is doing the action

Indicative mood  The action happened in the past from the point of view of the author
Semitisms in NT Greek
Greek in Plain English

All of the authors of the NT were Jews. *(note: this is a controversial statement to some who believe that Luke was a Gentile. They base this on his name being excluded from those listed in Col 4: 7-11.)* Because of this, they probably spoke Aramaic or a form of Hebrew as their native language.

When they wrote the NT they used Koine Greek which was the common language of the day. Even though the NT authors wrote in Greek some of their Semitic language patterns still showed through. Following is a short list of the most common Semitisms in the NT:

**Word order**

Placing the verb first in a sentence or clause. This would be the common word order of Hebrew and not Greek. Lk 1:51-55, 1Tm 3:16

**Asyndeton**

Not using a conjunction where one is commonly used. Greek only uses this for dramatic effect not as a common usage. This is very common in the Gospel of John, Jn 5:3

**Excessive use of ΚΑΙ**

Frequent use of a conjunction where Greek does not. The use of Ṽaw to connect or introduce phrases is common in Hebrew. This can explain the constant use of ΚΑΙ in Mark.

**Redundant prepositions**

Semitic languages repeat the preposition before each noun in a series that it governs. This sounds really redundant in Greek. Mk 3:7-8

**“Saying”**

Hebrew does not use indirect speech. The Greek word ἀρν̣ετο̣ν corresponds to the normal Hebrew word that introduces quotations *amar or lemor*. So in Greek this Semitism looks like: “And they said to him *saying.....*” Mt 23:1-2, 28:18, Lk 14:3, 24:6-7

**Use of ἑγενέσθαι**

This corresponds to the very common Hebrew form for “and it came to pass”. Lk 2:1, 6, 15, 46.
Study Aids
Greek in Plain English

Exhaustive Concordance
This is a list of all the occurrences of a word in the Bible. These concordances are produced for different English translations, (KJV, NKJV, NAS, NIV) so find the one that matches your Bible. An Exhaustive concordance will have a Greek and Hebrew Lexicon in the back and it will match the English words to the original Greek or Hebrew word.

Ex. Strongs Exhaustive Concordance of the Bible - James Strong

Parsing Guide
This is a list of the parsing for the major words in the NT by verse. Use it to look up the grammatical structure of the words you are studying.

Ex. Parsing Guide to the Greek NT – Nathan Han

Lexicon
This will give you the different meanings of the Greek words as well where they occur in the NT. A dictionary will only give you the definition of the word.

Ex. Thayer's Greek English Lexicon of the NT – Joseph Thayer

A Greek English Lexicon of the NT and Other Early Christian Literature – Fredrerick William Danker ed. (BDAG)

A Readers Greek English Lexicon of the NT – Sakae Kubo

Word Studies & Guides
These books give more information then a lexicon. They usually include the origins and usages of words and how the word occurs in other forms.

Commentaries
These can be devotional or technical in style. The technical ones are better for study. They will include the Greek words (either in Greek or transliteration) and talk about the context, grammatical and cultural meanings.

All of these study aids can also be found in digital and web based versions. Use the form that works best for you. Good digital study aids are Accordance for MAC and Bibleworks or Logos for Windows.
The Article
Greek in Plain English

All languages have ways of “pointing something out” or drawing attention to something. English distinguishes between the specific and the general with the “definite article” (*the*) and the indefinite article (*a*).

*the* book as opposed to *a* book

The Greek Article

One of the most used words in the Greek New Testament is the article. It occurs almost 20,000 time or about once in every seven words.

A long time ago the Greek article was a demonstrative pronoun but it gradually evolved into an independently functioning grammatical unit.

In New Testament Greek, unlike English, there is no indefinite article. Because of this we do not call it “definite”. In Greek it is just the article.

Greek uses the article with nouns, adjective, participles and other places we might not use it in English. The article is not used with the vocative case.

Function

The Greek article has different functions:

*Conceptualize*  
It can turn almost any word into a noun. “meek” (adjective) becomes “the meek” (noun)

*Identify*  
It is used to identify something. Frequently words like God, ὁ Θεός and love, ἡ ἀγάπη have the article in Greek.

*Definitize*  
To make something definite (this is close to the use in English). ἰδοὺ, ὁ ἀνθρωπὸς Behold, *the* man! Jn 19:5

*Personal Pronoun*  
Sometimes the article stands alone and is used like a third person pronoun. ὁ δὲ εἶπεν αὐτοῖς but *he* said to them Jn 4:32

Special Functions

There are two grammatical structures that use the Greek article in a special way. Because these are in some theological significant New Testament passages they are frequently talked about in sermons and Bible studies.
Following are two very brief discussions of these special uses of the article.

**Colwell's Rule**

In 1933, E.C. Colwell published a paper in the Journal of Biblical Literature about a special use of the Greek article in the New Testament. Since then this use of the article has become known as “Colwell's Rule”.

Basically, Colwell's Rule is as follows:

Usually, a noun (in the nominative case) that is saying something about the subject and comes before the verb will not have the article. This noun cannot be translated as indefinite but should be translated as definite.

\[ \text{καὶ Θεὸς ἦν ὁ λόγος} \] the word was **God** Jn 1:1

In this verse Θεὸς is saying something about the subject ὁ λόγος and it comes before the verb ἦν and does not have the article. So it should not be translated as indefinite “a god”.

**Granville Sharp's Rule**

Granville Sharp, a somewhat self-taught Greek scholar, found that the article could show a special relationship between nouns when it connected them in a certain manner.

The Granville Sharp Rule is as follows:

In the particular construction **article-noun-kai-noun** there is a special relationship between the two nouns

A. When the two nouns are personal or plural there is a close connection between the two but they are not the same.

\[ \text{τοῦ δὲ ποιμενᾶς καὶ διδάσκαλους} \] **the but pastors and teachers**

and some as pastors and teachers – Eph 4:11

In this passage, because of the Granville Sharp construction (article-noun-kai-noun), pastors and teachers are in a group set apart from the other groups in the verse. While they are not the same, because they are plural nouns, they comprise a special group of gifted men that God has given to the church. In this verse “teachers” comes last and is a sub-set of “pastors”. In other words all pastors are teachers but not all teachers need to be pastors.

B. When the nouns are not personal and not plural, the second noun is the same person as the first noun.

\[ \text{τοῦ μεγάλου θεοῦ καὶ σωτῆρος ἡμῶν Ἰησοῦ Χριστοῦ} \]
the great God and savior our Jesus Christ

our great God and Savior, Jesus Christ - Titus 2:13

Here, Jesus is not just savior but also God. The words God and savior are in a Granville Sharp construction (article-noun-καί-noun) and neither personal or plural so they are the same person.