

**THE ELEMENTS OF  
NEW TESTAMENT GREEK**



# THE ELEMENTS OF NEW TESTAMENT GREEK

A METHOD OF STUDYING THE GREEK  
NEW TESTAMENT WITH EXERCISES

*By*

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## PREFACE

THIS book is intended principally for those who wish to take up the study of Greek after they have left school with a view to reading the Greek Testament. Generally speaking, it is concerned only with such words and forms as are found in New Testament Greek. The words used in the exercises are those which occur frequently in the Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles: they are collected in vocabularies at the end of the book, and it is believed that, if these vocabularies are carefully committed to memory, the student will find himself supplied with such words as are necessary to enable him to read these portions of the New Testament with ease and rapidity.

The author attaches great importance to the accurate knowledge of the meanings of the most common words as an aid to the thorough and rapid acquirement of a language. Fortunately the words used in the Gospels and in the Acts are comparatively few, and this fact together with the simplicity of their style makes these books in many respects very suitable first reading books even for those who do not intend to limit their study of the Greek language to the New Testament.

The most common irregular verbs are gradually introduced into the exercises and are also collected in a table at the end of the book. The sentences in the later exercises are taken almost verbatim from the Greek Testament. The verbs in  $\mu$  are not introduced until the end of the book and the

author therefore recommends that the Greek Testament itself should not be studied until these verbs have been mastered and all the Greek into English exercises in the book have been written out. Those who wish to become proficient in the subject should also write out all the English into Greek exercises.

In no study is the saying of Bacon that writing maketh an exact man so thoroughly exemplified as in the study of languages.

The order in which the forms and constructions treated in the exercises are placed, with the exception of the verbs in  $\mu$ , is determined by the principle that those are treated first which occur most frequently.

Syntax is only treated so far as to enable examples to be given of the use of the Subjunctive and Infinitive moods and of the Participle. The author ventures to refer those who desire further information on this subject to his *Short Syntax of New Testament Greek* published by the Cambridge University Press, to which reference is occasionally made in footnotes in this book.

The Introduction to that book on the subject of English Grammar is reprinted here immediately after the table of contents, and the author would urge that it should be studied at the beginning by those to whom its contents are partially unfamiliar.

It is hoped that a student who has been carefully through this book will be able to read the easier portions of the New Testament with the aid of a dictionary. As however the subject-matter of the New Testament is already so familiar to most people in an English translation, such a power does not really imply much knowledge of Greek. Those who wish to gain an intelligent knowledge of the language should

study some easy Greek author whose meaning is not already familiar to them. Such may be found in any of the many elementary editions of Xenophon or Lucian which are published<sup>1</sup>, or even in Plato's Apology of Socrates studied with or without the help of a translation. The latter book is so interesting and important in its contents and so perfect and yet so simple in its style that it should be studied in the original language by all those who have the opportunity. Translations of Lucian and of Plato's Apology are published in a convenient form by the Oxford University Press.

If these books are thought to be too difficult the writings of the Apostolic Fathers, especially the Epistle of St Clement and the Shepherd of Hermas, may be recommended. These latter books are however not published in a form adapted for beginners, and the author has therefore attempted to meet this need by publishing selections from them and from other Christian authors of the first two centuries with notes at the end of the "Syntax" referred to above.

In conclusion he wishes to record his obligation to Messrs Bradley and Horswell for their "New Testament Word Lists," which were of great service in preparing the exercises in this book, and to his father for the care with which he looked over the proofs. The text of the Greek New Testament recommended is that published by the Bible Society.

H. P. V. NUNN.

*November 6, 1913.*

<sup>1</sup> See the "Elementary Classics" series published by Macmillan.

## PREFACE TO THE EIGHTH EDITION

**S**OME additional matter has been added in an appendix to this edition to which reference is made at the appropriate places in the text. Other small changes and corrections have been made. The author wishes to acknowledge the help received from the late Mr H. Scott, from the Rev. Erle Homer Merriman, from Mr Lawson, from Dr Howard and from the Rev. J. Wenham which enabled him to make these changes and corrections.

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## CHARACTERISTIC LETTERS OF THE TENSES IN THE REGULAR VERB AND SOME REMARKS ON ITS FORMS

*The matter on this page is inserted here for convenience of reference, but should not be used until the tenses of the regular verb are being learned*

**FUTURE ACTIVE.** Characteristic letter  $\sigma$  inserted before the endings of the Present Active. No Subjunctive.

**FUTURE MIDDLE.** Characteristic letter  $\sigma$  inserted before the endings of the Present Passive. No Subjunctive.

**FUTURE PASSIVE.** Characteristic letters  $\theta\eta\sigma$  inserted before the endings of the Present Passive. No Subjunctive.

**1ST AORIST ACTIVE.** Characteristic letters generally  $\sigma a$ .  
Subjunctive formed by putting  $\sigma$  before the endings of the Present Subjunctive Active.

**1ST AORIST MIDDLE.** Characteristic letters generally  $\sigma a$ .  
Subjunctive formed by putting  $\sigma$  before the endings of the Present Subjunctive Passive.

**1ST AORIST PASSIVE.** Characteristic letters  $\theta\eta\theta\epsilon$ .  
Subjunctive formed by putting  $\theta$  before the endings of the Present Subjunctive ACTIVE.

**2ND AORIST ACTIVE.** Endings in the Indicative mood same as endings of the Imperfect Active, in other moods same as those of the Present Active, but added to the VERBAL STEM and not to the Present stem. (Note differences in accent in Inf. and Part.)

**2ND AORIST MIDDLE.** Endings in the Indicative mood same as those of the Imperfect Passive, in other moods same as those of the Present Passive, but added to the VERBAL STEM and not to the Present stem.

**2ND AORIST PASSIVE.** Characteristic letters  $\eta$  or  $\epsilon$ .  
Subjunctive formed by adding endings of Present Subjunctive ACTIVE to the VERBAL STEM and not to the Present stem.

1ST PERFECT AND PLUPERFECT ACTIVE. Characteristic letter  $\kappa$ .

Reduplication in all moods. Subjunctive and Optative formed by putting  $\kappa$  before endings of Present Subjunctive and Optative Active.

2ND PERFECT AND PLUPERFECT PASSIVE. Reduplication in all moods. Subjunctive and Optative formed by using the corresponding mood of  $\epsilon\lambda\upsilon\alpha\iota$  with the Perfect Passive Participle.

Past tenses have the augment in the INDICATIVE mood only.

The Perfect is not a past tense in Greek. If it has an augment it is because the first letters of the form are of such a nature that they cannot be reduplicated.

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR

### 1. PARTS OF SPEECH

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

The names of the parts of speech are as follows :

Noun. Pronoun. Adjective.

Verb. Adverb.

Preposition. Conjunction. Interjection.

The Article, definite and indefinite, is also sometimes classed as a separate part of speech.

A NOUN is the name of anything. (Latin *nomen*, name.)

Examples : John, boy, sweetness.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun. (Latin *pro*, for : *nomen*, name.)

Examples : I, you, they, who, that.

AN ADJECTIVE is a word joined to a noun to limit its application. (Latin *adjectum*, a thing thrown to.)

Examples : Good, many.

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*, a word, so called as being the principal word in the sentence.)

Examples : I run, we see.

AN ADVERB is a word joined to a verb, adjective or other adverb to qualify its meaning.

Examples : Slowly, very, there.

A PREPOSITION is a word joined with, and generally placed before a noun or its equivalent<sup>1</sup>, so that the preposition together with the noun forms a phrase equivalent to an adverb or adjective. (Latin *praepositum*, placed before.)

Examples : At, with, by.

A CONJUNCTION is a word that joins together sentences, clauses or words. (Latin *conjungo*, I join.)

Examples : And, but, for.

<sup>1</sup> See page xxvii.

**AN INTERJECTION** is a word thrown into a sentence to express a feeling of the mind. (Latin *interjicio*, I throw in.)

Examples: Hallo, ha.

The **DEFINITE ARTICLE** *The* and the **INDEFINITE ARTICLE** *a* are always joined with nouns like adjectives.

## 2. PARSING

As this book is intended for older students it has not been thought necessary to adopt the method of deriving the reason for the names of the different parts of speech from examples.

This is excellently done in a little book called *How to tell the Parts of Speech*, by the Rev. E. A. Abbott, published by Seeley, which the student who is altogether unacquainted with this subject is advised to get.

A few rules and examples are however given which may be of assistance in determining the parts of speech.

The first principle to be remembered is that no word should ever be parsed without careful reference to the function which it performs in the sentence where it occurs.

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 Latin and Greek, according as their meaning varies.

For example the word *that* may be (1) A demonstrative Pronoun. (2) A demonstrative Adjective. (3) A relative Pronoun. (4) A Conjunction<sup>1</sup>.

(1) That is the man. (2) Give me that book. (3) This is the book that I want. (4) He said that this was the book. (4) He came that he might find the book.

Again, the word *considering* may be (1) A verbal noun. (2) A participle.

(1) Considering is slow work. (2) He went away considering the matter.

Many words may be nouns or verbs, according to the place which they occupy in the sentence.

<sup>1</sup> Consider the meaning of the word *that* in the following sentence, *He said that that that that man said was false.*

Some such words are : Bite, fly, rose, scale and sign.

Other words may be adjectives or nouns, such as : Base, last, stout, spring, kind.

Other words may be adjectives or verbs, such as : Lean, clean, blunt, idle, free.

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

- (1) Is it the name of anything?

Then it is a **noun**.

- (2) Can a noun which is mentioned or thought of before be substituted for the word without altering the meaning of the sentence?

Then it is a **pronoun**.

- (3) Does it answer any of the questions : *What kind? How many? How much? Which? Whose? In what order?* with regard to some noun?

Then it is 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**.

Note. The words *How? When? and Where?* are themselves adverbs.

- (6) Does it stand before a noun or its equivalent making with it a phrase which is equivalent to an adverb or adjective?

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**.

The words in the following sentence are parsed as an example.  
*The man went quickly down the street and did not turn to his right hand or to his left.*

THE	Limits the application of the word <i>man</i> . Tells us which man it was, i.e. some man already known.	Therefore it is that kind of adjective to which the name Definite Article is given.
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 <i>went</i> , tells us how he went.	Therefore it is an adverb.
DOWN	Stands before the noun <i>street</i> , making with it a phrase equivalent to an adverb because it qualifies the verb <i>went</i> , telling us where he went.	Therefore it is a preposition.
THE STREET	See above. Is the name of something.	Therefore it is a noun.
AND	Joins together two clauses.	Therefore it is a conjunction.
DID TURN	Makes a statement about the man.	Therefore it is a verb.
NOT	Qualifies the verb <i>did turn</i> because it tells us how he did turn, i.e. not at all.	Therefore it is an adverb.
TO HIS	See <i>down</i> above. The noun <i>man's</i> can be substituted for this. But it also qualifies the noun <i>hand</i> , telling whose hand it is.	Therefore it is a pronoun.
RIGHT	Qualifies the noun <i>hand</i> , telling us which hand it is.	Therefore it is an adjective as well.
HAND	Is the name of something.	Such words are called Pronominal adjectives.
OR	Joins together the two clauses <i>did not turn to his right hand</i> and ( <i>did not turn</i> ) <i>to his left</i> .	Therefore it is an adjective.
TO HIS LEFT	See above. See above. See above.	Therefore it is a noun.
		Therefore it is a conjunction.



### 3. NOUNS

There are four kinds of nouns :

(1) **Proper Nouns.** A Proper noun is the name appropriated to any particular person, place or thing (Latin *proprius*, belonging to a person).

Examples : John, Mary, London, England.

(2) **Common Nouns.** A Common noun is the name which all things of the same kind have in common (Latin *communis*, belonging to all).

Examples : Boy, girl, town, country.

(3) **Collective Nouns.** A Collective noun is the name of a number of persons or things forming one body.

Examples : Committee, jury, army.

(4) **Abstract Nouns.** 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).

Examples : Goodness, whiteness, purity, servitude, running, walking.

### Number, Gender, Case

**Number.** Nouns are inflected or changed in form to show whether they are singular or plural in number.

A noun in the **Singular number** is the name of a single person or thing, unless it is a Collective noun (see above).

A noun in the **Plural number** is the name of more than one person or thing.

<b>Examples:</b>	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
	Horse	horses
	Man	men
	Ox	oxen.

**Gender.** In English all names of men or male animals are in the **Masculine gender**, all names of women or female animals are in the **Feminine gender**, all names of things without life are in the **Neuter gender**. Nouns used to denote persons of either sex such as *parent, sovereign*, are said to be of **Common gender**.

In Latin and Greek, although all names of men and male animals are **Masculine**, and all names of women or female animals are **Feminine**, names of things without life may be **Masculine** or **Feminine** in gender

as well as Neuter. The gender of a noun is generally determined by the ending of the Nominative Singular.

**Case.** Nearly all traces of case-endings have disappeared from English nouns. The only surviving ending is that of the Possessive or Genitive case which is formed by adding 's to the end of a noun in the singular and s' to the end of the noun in the Plural.

Example	Nominative	Possessive Singular	Possessive Plural
	horse	horse's	horses'

#### 4. ADJECTIVES

In English, adjectives are never inflected, but have the same ending whether they qualify singular or plural, masculine or feminine nouns.

In Latin and Greek they are inflected to show gender, number, and case.

#### 5. VERBS

Verbs are of two kinds—Transitive and Intransitive.

(a) **Transitive Verbs.** 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).

Examples: 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 of the verb must be supplied in order to make a complete sentence—I *throw a ball*, I *take an apple*. The name of the person or thing which is affected by the action of the verb is called the **direct object**.

A transitive verb is one which must have a direct object expressed in order to make a complete sentence.

**Intransitive Verbs.** Intransitive verbs are so called because they denote an action which does not affect or pass over to any person or thing besides the subject of the verb.

Examples: I *stand*, The sun *shines*. These sentences are complete statements in themselves.

(b) **Active Voice.** A verb is said to be in the Active voice when its subject is spoken of as acting or doing something (Latin *ago*, I act).

**Passive Voice.** A verb is said to be in the Passive voice when its subject is spoken of as suffering or being acted upon (Latin *patior*, I suffer).

Examples: Active, I love, I was hearing.

Passive, I am loved, I was being heard.

N.B. Only Transitive verbs can have a Passive voice.

There are certain verbs such as *I fall*, *I slip*, etc. which do not speak of the subject as acting; these are however regarded as Active verbs because they are Intransitive.

(c) **Deponent Verbs.** In Latin and Greek there are many verbs which are called Deponent verbs. These are verbs which have the form of Passive verbs, but which are Active in meaning.

They are called *Deponent* because they have *laid aside* (Latin *depono*) a passive sense and assumed an active.

Examples: *patior*, I suffer. ἀποκρίνομαι, I answer.

(d) **The English Passive voice** of any verb is formed by using the proper tenses of the verb *to be* with the PASSIVE PARTICIPLE (which usually ends in *ed*) of the verb of which we desire to form the Passive voice.

Present simple Active	I love.
Present simple Passive	I am loved.
Past simple Active	I loved.
Past simple Passive	I was loved.
Future simple Active	I shall love.
Future simple Passive	I shall be loved.

This formation must be carefully distinguished from the use of the same Auxiliary verb *to be* with the ACTIVE PARTICIPLE which forms the Continuous Active tenses of the verb.

Present continuous Active	I am loving.
Past continuous Active	I was loving.
Future continuous Active	I shall be loving.

The student should be able to tell readily what voice, tense, and person any English verb is in; unless he can do this he cannot possibly translate from another language with accuracy.

It is good practice to go through the tenses of an English verb, first in the Active, and then in the Passive.

(e) **Auxiliary Verbs.** Auxiliary verbs are verbs which are used as aids (Latin *auxilia*) to enable other verbs to form moods and tenses, which cannot be expressed within the compass of one word.

Examples : I SHALL go. I WOULD HAVE gone. I SHALL HAVE BEEN sent.

In English the use of these verbs is very common, no tense in the Active Voice except the Past can be formed without them, and they are used in every tense of the Passive voice.

In Latin and Greek they are rarely used. The only verb used in these languages as an auxiliary verb is the verb *to be*.

**Impersonal Verbs.** Impersonal verbs are verbs which are not used in the first and second persons, but only in the third.

Examples : It rains, it snows.

### **The Copulative Verb, Verbs of Incomplete Predication.**

The verb *to be* has two meanings :

- (1) It is used in the sense of *to exist* as in the sentence *God is*.
- (2) It is used to join together two nouns or noun equivalents which denote the same person or thing when the person or thing denoted by the one is said to be identical with the person or thing denoted by the other.

Examples : William was Duke of Normandy. I am the governor. This is he.

As the nouns or noun equivalents joined together by the verb *to be* denote the same person or thing, they must always be in the same case. It is grammatically incorrect to say *I am him*, *It is me*, because *him* and *me* are in the Accusative case, and *I* and *it* are in the Nominative case.

It is necessary to observe this rule very carefully in Latin and Greek where the Nominative and Accusative cases generally have different forms.

This rule is sometimes stated as follows :

**"The verb 'to be' takes the same case after it as before it."**

The verb *to be* may also join together a noun or a noun equivalent and an adjective, making a sentence which asserts that the quality

denoted by the adjective is an attribute of the person or thing denoted by the noun or noun equivalent. This adjective always agrees with the noun in number, gender and case, in such languages as Latin and Greek.

Examples : The king is proud. He is good. To err is human.

From its power of joining nouns to other nouns or adjectives the verb *to be* is called the **Copulative Verb**. (Latin *copulo*, I link.)

It is also called a verb of **Incomplete Predication** because it does not make sense when it stands by itself (except when used in the sense of *to exist*), but requires to be followed by a noun or an adjective which is called the **Complement**, because it fills up the sense (Latin *compleo*, I fill up).

There are other verbs of Incomplete Predication besides the verb *to be*, some Intransitive and some Transitive.

Such verbs are : Intransitive—become, seem, appear, etc.

Transitive—make, declare, choose, think, consider, etc.

When a verb of Incomplete Predication is Intransitive, or Transitive and in the Passive voice, the Complement refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the sentence, and must therefore be in the Nominative case.

Examples : Peter became an Apostle.

This place seems healthy.

He is called our king.

But when a verb of Incomplete Predication is Transitive and in the Active voice, the Complement refers to the same person or thing as the object of the sentence, and is therefore in the Accusative case.

Examples : They made him captain.

We choose you king.

You consider me happy.

This principle is obviously of great importance in Greek and Latin.

#### (f) Person and Number.

The **First Person** of the verb is used when the speaker is speaking of himself.

The **Second Person** is used when the speaker is speaking to another person or thing.

The **Third Person** is used when the speaker is speaking of another person or thing.

Examples : 1st person, I love. 2nd person, You love. 3rd person, He loves.

The use of the **Singular Number** denotes that only one person or thing is being spoken about.

The use of the **Plural Number** denotes that more than one person or thing is being spoken about.

**Rule.** The verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person.

**Note.** The Plural of the second person *You* is almost always used in modern English instead of the second person Singular, even where only one person is being spoken to.

But in Latin and Greek the Singular is always used when one person is being spoken to.

(g) **Tense.** Tenses are forms which verbs assume to show at what time the action of the verb is represented as taking place.

The times when the action may take place are (i) Past, (ii) Present, (iii) Future.

The tenses in English have further subdivisions to show whether the action is represented as being (1) continuous or in progress, (2) indefinite or simple, (3) perfect or completed.

Below is a table of the Tenses of an English verb in the Indicative Mood with the corresponding tenses of a Greek and Latin verb, given, where possible, with the names by which the tenses are generally called in Latin and Greek Grammars.

It will be seen that there are more tense-forms in English than in Latin and Greek.

The Latin and Greek Present stands both for the English Present Continuous and Present Simple, and the Latin and Greek Future for the English Future Continuous and Future Simple.

The Latin Perfect has two meanings, one of which corresponds to the English Past Simple, and the other to the English Present Perfect or Perfect, as it is generally called.

STATE	TIME		
	Past	Present	Future
Continuous	I was loving I used to love Amabam (Im- perfect) <i>ἐφίλου</i>	I am loving Amo <i>φιλῶ</i>	I shall be loving Amabo <i>φιλήσω</i>
Simple	I loved Amavi (Perfect) <i>ἐφίλησα</i> (Aorist)	I love Amo <i>φιλῶ</i>	I shall love Amabo <i>φιλήσω</i>
Perfect	I had loved Amaveram (Pluperfect) <i>ἐπεφίληκει</i>	I have loved Amavi (Perfect) <i>πεφίληκα</i>	I shall have loved Amavero <i>πεφιλήσομαι</i>
Perfect Continuous	I had been loving None	I have been loving None	I shall have been loving None

(h) **Moods.** Moods are forms which verbs assume to show the way in which the action denoted by the verb is to be regarded, i.e. if it is a statement or fact, a command, a wish, or a thought.

The **Indicative Mood** generally makes a statement, or asks a question.

Examples: He goes. We shall run. Were you listening?

The **Imperative Mood** gives a command.

Examples: Go. Come. Make haste.

The **Subjunctive Mood** expresses a thought or wish rather than an actual fact.

The uses of the Subjunctive Mood are so various, and its use in English is so different from its use in Latin and Greek, that it is impossible to bring it under any more exact definition.

The student is warned against connecting any particular English meaning with the Latin and Greek Subjunctive, or with the Greek Optative such as *that I might love, I should, or would, love.*

Practice, and the observance of seemingly arbitrary rules, will alone enable him to use these moods correctly.

The use of tenses formed with *may, might, should, would, etc.* in English is a most unreliable guide to the use of the Subjunctive and Optative in Latin and Greek.

(1) **Participles.** Participles are verbal adjectives resembling verbs in that they can have subjects and objects, tenses and voices, and resembling adjectives in that they can qualify nouns.

There are two Participles in English—the Active Participle ending in *ing*, and the Passive Participle ending generally in *ed* or *d*.

Examples: *Loving, Loved.*

There is also a Past Active Participle formed with the auxiliary *having* and the Passive Participle.

Example: *Having loved.*

The Past Passive Participle is formed with the auxiliary verbs *having been* and the Passive Participle.

Example: *Having been loved.*

The Present Participle Passive is *being loved*.

There is no Past Participle Active in Latin except in the case of Deponent verbs, nor is there any Present Participle Passive. Both however are found in Greek.

As the verbal noun or Gerund in English ends in *ing* as well as the Active Participle care must be taken to distinguish them.

If the word is a Participle, it can always be replaced by such a clause beginning with a Conjunction or a Relative.

When it is a verb-noun it cannot be replaced by a clause.

Examples: (1) Skating is a fine exercise.

Here *skating* is a verb-noun and the subject of the sentence.

(2) I like to see the boys skating.

Here *skating* can be replaced by the clause *when they are skating*, and is therefore a Participle.

(3) There is a dancing bear.

Here *dancing* can be replaced by the Relative clause *that is dancing*. Therefore it is a Participle.

Participles are also used with auxiliary verbs to form certain tenses of the verb as shown above.