English Review for Greek
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I. Parts of Speech
  A. Traditional classifications
  All words have been classified into eight categories called **parts of speech.**
  1. Noun
     A noun is the **name of a person** (EG 1), **place** (EG 2), **thing** (EG 3), or **idea/quality** (EG 4).
       EG 1: *John* wrote.
       EG 2: John wrote in *Boston.*
       EG 3: John wrote *poems* in Boston.
       EG 4: John wrote poems about *truth* and *kindness* in Boston.
  2. Pronoun
     A pronoun is a **word which takes the place of a noun,** which enables the speaker/writer to avoid repeating nouns.
       EG 5: John wrote in Boston. *He* loved the city, and *it* loved *him.*
  3. Verb
     A verb is a **word which expresses action** (EG 6) **or being/state** (EG 7).
       EG 6: Wyatt Earp *killed* the bandits, and they *fell* to the ground.
       EG 7: Wyatt Earp *is* now dead.
  4. Adjective
     An adjective is a **word which tells something more about a noun** (and, occasionally, a pronoun).
       EG 8: John wrote *beautiful* poems in *lovely* Boston.
  5. Adverb
     An adverb is a word which tells something more about a verb (EG 9), **an adjective** (EG 10), **or another adverb** (EG 11).
       EG 9: John wrote beautiful poems *quickly.*
       EG 10: John wrote *quite* beautiful poems quickly.
       EG 11: John wrote quite beautiful poems *very* quickly.
  6. Preposition
     A preposition is a word which shows the relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and another noun (or pronoun) in a sentence (EG 12), or, between a noun (or pronoun) and a verb in a sentence (EG 13).
       EG 12: The man *in* Boston will send you the information.
       EG 13: John wrote poems *in* Boston.
  7. Conjunction
     A conjunction is a word which connects words (EG 14) or groups

of words (EG 15).

      EG 14: John *and* Bob live in Boston.

      EG 15: John wrote poems, *but* he could not make a living at it.

8. Interjection

    An **interjection** is a **word which expresses strong feelings** and is simply an emotive outburst, not intending to convey cognitive content.

      EG 16: *Oh!*

Note: Another way of looking at all of this is that parts of speech name or describe different types of things. Nouns name or describe persons, things, etc., verbs activities, adjectives qualities of persons, things, etc., adverbs qualities of activites, and so on.[1]

B. Further Analysis and Classification

It is also proper to observe that larger units of speech, i.e., **groups of words, may be the equivalent of individual words, and, therefore, be the equivalent of a part of speech.**

1. Infinitives

    An infinitive is a form of the verb which, in English, is headed by "to" (and, thus, looks like a prepositional phrase [see B 2, next]).

      EG 17: *To love* (present infinitive)

      EG 18: *To have loved* (perfect infinitive)

    An infinitive may be the equivalent of a noun. Consider the following examples (EGs 19 and 20). Each contains an infinitive which **describes an activity as if it were a thing or concept** (= a noun).

      EG 19: *To succeed* brings satisfaction.

      EG 20: I love *to play.*

    In these examples, the infinitives, *to succeed* and *to play*, are the equivalent of nouns which are an activity, not something static.

2. Phrases

    A **group of words which does <u>not</u> have a** (non-infinitive) **verb** is called a **phrase.**[2] There are several types of phrases, but the most important for this discussion is the **prepositional phrase**, i.e., a group of words headed by a preposition (cf. I.A.6. above).

    a. **A phrase may be the equivalent of an adjective.** Consider the following examples, the first of which (EG 21) contains a simple adjective, and the second of which (EG 22) contains a prepositional phrase which is the equivalent of the adjective.

      EG 21: The *blonde* girl came to town.

      EG 22: The girl *with the blond hair* came to town.

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[1] What is named can often be determined only by seeing the relationship between words in a sentence.

[2] There are exceptions to this rule, but it is a good general principle.

b. **A phrase may be the equivalent of an adverb.** The next two
examples contain, respectively, a simple adverb (EG 23) and a prepositional
phrase (EG 24) which is the equivalent of the adverb.

  EG 23: John wrote poems *early*.

  EG 24: John wrote poems *before sunrise*.[3]

3. Clauses

a. Clauses Proper

A group of words which has a (non-infinitive) **verb** is called a
clause.[4] Clauses which do not make complete sense when standing
by themselves--called "dependent clauses"--are of concern to us
here.[5] In both of the examples which follow, the italicized words
comprise dependent clauses.

  EG 25: John, *who wrote these poems*, lives in Boston.

  EG 26: John wrote poems, *while he lived in Boston*.

i. **A clause may be the equivalent of an adjective.** Consider the
following examples, the first of which (EG 27) contains a simple adjective,
and the second of which (EG 28) contains a dependent clause which
is the equivalent of the adjective.

  EG 27: The *blonde* girl came to town.

  EG 28: The girl *who had blond hair* came to town.

Clauses which are the equivalent of adjectives are usually
introduced by a relative pronoun.[6]

ii. **A clause may be the equivalent of an adverb.** The next two
examples contain, respectively, an adverb (EG 29) and a dependent
clause (EG 30) which is the equivalent of a simple adverb.

  EG 29: John wrote poems *early*.

  EG 30: John wrote poems *before the sun had arisen*.

Clauses which are the equivalent of adverbs are usually introduced
by a subordinating conjunction.[7]

Note also that EG 28 above is the equivalent of EG 22 further above,
while EG 30 above is the equivalent of EG 24 further above.

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[3]It is possible for a prepositional phrase to be the equivalent of a noun, but such cases do not concern us in our
preparation for Greek.

[4]See footnote two.

[5]If a clause makes complete sense by itself, by contrast, it is called an "independent clause" and is the equivalent of a
simple sentence, but such clauses are not our concern here.

[6]Normal relative pronouns are *who, whose, whom, which, that,* and *what* .

[7]Common subordinating conjunctions are *after, when, while, because, if, though, for, until, that* and *where*.

b. Shorthand for Clauses

   i. Participles

Participles can be understood as part adjective and part verb, and in many ways they are, for they do refer to some one or some thing in a sentence, and (as we shall see) they are, at times, the equivalent of an adjective. It is, perhaps, better to see them in a different light, however. **Participles are essentially shorthand for a dependent clause.**[8]

a. The participle with the prepositional phrase in EG 31 (next) is the equivalent of a dependent clause introduced by a relative pronoun, such as the one contained in EG 32 (below).

      EG 31: The boy *running with the flag* fell and stabbed himself.

      EG 32: The boy *who was running with the flag* fell and stabbed himself.

Both of these structures (the participial phrase and the dependent clause) **are, in turn, the equivalent of an adjective** (they tell which boy fell and sustained injury).[9]

b. The participle with prepositional phrase modifier in EG 33 (next) is the equivalent of a dependent clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction, such as the ones contained in EGs 34 and 35.

      EG 33: *Running with the flag*, the boy fell and stabbed himself.

      EG 34: *While he was running with the flag*, the boy fell and stabbed himself.

      EG 35: *Because he was running with the flag*, the boy fell and stabbed himself.

All of these structures (the participle with prepositional phrase and the dependent clauses) **are, in turn, the equivalent of an adverb,** (they tell something more about the circumstances under which the boy fell and sustained injury).[10]

  ii. Infinitives

Infinitives are often described as part noun and part verb, and they can well be understood this way in certain contexts (cf. I.B.1.above). In other contexts, however, it is helpful to understand **infinitives**

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[8]It is possible for a participle to be the equivalent of a noun (in English, this is called a *gerund*), but such cases do not concern us in our preparation for Greek.

[9]Note that a participial phrase could be used as the equivalent of the dependent clause introduced by a relative pronoun in EG 28: The girl *having blond hair* came to town.

[10]Note that a participial phrase could be used as the equivalent of the dependent clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction in EG 30: "John wrote poems *eating breakfast.*"

as shorthand for a dependent clause (as was the participle).

  a. The infinitive in EG 36 (next) is the equivalent of a dependent

    clause introduced by a relative pronoun, such as the one contained

      in EG 37 (below).

        EG 36: John has work *to do*.

        EG 37: John has work *which he must do*.

      Both of these structures (the infinitive and the dependent

      clause) **are themselves the equivalent of an adjective,**

      because they tell something more about the work.

  b. The infinitive in EG 38 (next) is the equivalent of a dependent

    clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction, such as the one

    contained in EG 39 (below).

        EG 38: John came *to fish*.

        EG 39: John came *(so) that he might fish*.

      Both of these structures (the infinitive and the dependent

      clause) **are themselves the equivalent of an adverb,** because

      they tell more about the circumstances surrounding John's coming

      (in this case, its purpose).

Note: Understanding participles and infinitives as shorthand
equivalents for larger groups of words such as clauses helps
us to grasp the insight that all linguistic utterances (whether
written or oral) are essentially shorthand. What we see on the
page or hear in conversation is only a piece of what a writer or speaker
is attempting to express. He expects us, from the context and from our
prior experience, to be able to "fill in the blanks" of his shorthand, for
only then are we able to interpret the complete "longhand" which
actually expresses his complete thought. It is this process of filling in
the shorthand which so often leads to a breakdown in communication.

II. A Sentence and its Parts

A. Basic Concepts

A sentence is **a group of words which expresses a complete**
thought. It consists of **a subject and a predicate.** To deal with a
sentence and its parts is to deal with **relationships**--relationships between
the concepts conveyed by words--not with the type of thing being named or
described by words (cf. **Note**, page 2, above).

1. The subject is what the speaker/writer is talking about. It is who or
what is being described, or who or what is doing activity.

    EG 40: *People* are smart; *they* wrote letters.

2. The predicate is what the speaker is saying about the subject. It details

the nature of the subject, or what the subject is doing.

EG 41: People *are smart*; they *wrote letters*.

B. Further Explication

1. Essential Parts

a. Subject

The basic component of the subject is the subject itself. In EG 40 above, that is the word "people" in the first clause and "they" in the second. A subject may, however, be multiple or "compound".

EG 42: *He* and *I* wrote letters.

A subject is usually a noun or a pronoun (cf. EG 40 above).

It may also be a noun equivalent. Thus, an infinitive may function as a subject.

In EG 19 above, *to succeed* is the subject of the verb "brings".

b. Predicate

i. The main component of the predicate is the **verb**. Thus, in EG 42 above, the word "wrote" is the heart of the predicate and is sometimes called the "simple predicate".

ii. Many predicates, however, also contain a **direct object**. A direct object is **the receiver of the action denoted by the verb**. Or, one may say that the direct object is "that which is acted upon by the verb".

EG 43: People wrote *letters*.

EG 44: People saw *them*.

A direct object is usually a noun (EG 43) or a pronoun (EG 44).

It may also be a noun equivalent. Thus, an infinitive may function as a direct object.

In EG 20 above, *to play* is the direct object of the verb "love".

iii. Predicates may also contain an **indirect object**. The indirect object is **the personal recipient of some thing which is given over** by a verb denoting an act of either communication or transference.

EG 45: People <u>wrote</u> *prisoners* letters and <u>sent</u> *them* gifts.

In this example, *prisoners* and *them* are indirect objects, while "letters" and "gifts" are the direct object.

2. Additional Parts

In addition to the basic elements of the subject and predicate which we have detailed above (II.B.1.), sentences may--and usually do--contain other elements called **modifiers**. Modifiers are **words or groups of words which tell something more about, and thereby limit, various parts of the subject and predicate of a sentence**. It is important to understand that modifiers are of two basic types--either adjectival or adverbial. Adjectival modifiers tell something more about-- and thereby limit--nouns or pronouns in the sentence, which themselves are

functioning as subject, direct object, etc. Adverbial modifiers tell something more about--and thereby limit--a verb or other modifiers in the sentence.

a. We have already met **single word** adjectival and adverbial **modifiers** in adjectives and adverbs themselves (cf. I.A.4. and I.A.5. above). But other single words may function as modifiers as well. Chief among these are nouns and pronouns in a form which indicates that some one or some thing is in possession of some other person or thing.

  EG 46: John sank *Bob's* ship and *my* ship.

Such possession may take the form of a thing having a characteristic.

  EG 47: The *box's* weight crushed the handcart.

Nouns and pronouns indicating possession are the equivalent of an adjective and, therefore, function as adjectival modifiers.

b. We have also met **groups of words** which are the equivalent of adjectives and adverbs and which function, therefore, **as** adjectival and adverbial **modifiers**, as well. Chief among these are phrases and clauses. We may note here explicitly (as the reader may have surmised already) that a phrase or a clause may function as an adjectival or adverbial modifier, even when no single word equivalent (adjective or adverb) can be found. (Such equivalents were possible in EGs 21-24, and 27-30 above). Consider the following examples.

  EG 48: The man *in Boston* will send you the information

In EG 48, the phrase *in Boston* functions as an adjectival modifier, telling which man will send the information. (Note that something like "The *Bostonian* [man]" is not the equivalent of "The man in Boston", because a Bostonian may well be residing elsewhere.)

  EG 49: John wrote poems *in Boston.*

In EG 49, *in Boston* functions as an adverbial modifier, telling where the writing took place. There is no adverb which is equivalent.

  EG 50: John, *who wrote these poems*, lives in Boston.

  EG 51: John wrote poems *while he lived in Boston.*

The dependent clause in EG 50 functions as an adjectival modifier, because it further describes (or defines) who did the writing of the poems. By contrast, the dependent clause in EG 51 functions as an adverbial modifier, because it further describes the circumstances surrounding the writing of the poems namely, the time. In neither case is a one word equivalent possible. Note: It is important to remember that participles and infinitives are themselves equivalent to clauses and so function as modifiers, either adjectival or adverbial.

**It is impossible to overestimate the importance of under-
standing the rôle of modifiers in a sentence. Modifiers may be**

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a single word or a group of words (a phrase or a clause). In addition, such modifiers may be either adjectival or adverbial.
The following grouped examples--which have already been used above (EGs 21-24 and 28,30) but in slightly separated contexts -- illustrate these truths well. The first three examples (EGs 52-54) comprise a word (an adjective), a phrase, and a clause respectively, and all are adjectival. The second three examples (EGs 55-57) also comprise a word (an adverb), a phrase, and a clause respectively, but all of these are adverbial.

EG 52: The *blonde* girl came to town.

EG 53: The girl *with the blonde hair* came to town

EG 54: The girl *who had blonde hair* came to town

EG 55: John wrote poems *early*.

EG 56: John wrote poems *before sunrise*

EG 57: John wrote poems *before the sun had arisen.*

III. Further Analysis of Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs
    A. Nouns and Pronouns
        Noun and pronoun (as well as adjective) forms can be analyzed according to the following three categories:
        1. Gender
            a. **Gender relates**, in physical terms, **to sex**, and it does so also grammatically in English. Thus, for English speakers, *men, fathers, boys, uncles,* etc., are masculine grammatically.

EG 58: My *father* took *his* car to golf.
By contrast, *women, mothers, girls, aunts,* etc., are feminine grammatically.

EG 59: My *mother* took *her* car to shop.
And things which are not sexually differentiated physically are neuter.

EG 60: The *car* has lost *its* wheel.
            b. **In many** other **languages--and Greek may be included here-- words are distinguished by gender grammatically in a way that bears no relationship to physical sexual differentiation.**
Thus, in Greek, *foot* and *finger* are masculine, *hand* and *head* are feminine, and *body* and *face* are neuter. As a result, the gender of each noun must be memorized, for it cannot be deduced from "real life".[11]
    2. Number
        Nouns have **number** in that they are either **singular** or **plural**. Thus,

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[11]It may be noted that this phenomenon is not unknown in English. Consider the following example: "That *ship* is beautiful; *she* has trim sails."

boy is singular in number, while *boys* is plural in number. English forms plurals in a number of ways, often by adding *s* or *es*, but also by other means (e.g., by changing the word internally [cf. *goose- geese*] or by doing nothing [cf. *sheep- sheep*]). Greek will have other means of expressing number.

3. Case

    a. **In English, the function of words in a sentence**--i.e., the relationship between the concepts they convey--**is normally indicated by word order.** Thus, in the two examples which follow (EGs 61-62), the word standing to the left of the verb (or, in oral form, "coming before the verb") is the subject of the sentence (cf. II.B.1.a. above).

        EG 61: *John* killed Jim.

        EG 62: *Jim* killed John.

    By contrast, in these same sentences, the word standing to the right of the verb (orally, "coming after the verb") expresses the direct object of the verbal action (cf. II.B.1.b.ii. above).

        EG 63: John killed *Jim.*

        EG 64: Jim killed *John.*

    Note that the forms of the nouns *Jim* or *John* remained the same, no matter whether they were functioning as the subject or the direct object of the verb.

    b. In many (other) languages, by contrast, the **function of words in a sentence is indicated, not by word order, but by the form of the words.** Thus, if EGs 61 and 62 were put into Greek, the words for *John* and *Jim* would have a different form, depending upon whether they were functioning as the subject or the object of the verb. (Usually this is done by a different ending or termination to the word.) This phenomenon is not unknown in English and we may illustrate this point in a basic way. Note the forms of the masculine singular personal pronoun in the following three examples (EGs 65-67), especially that a different form is used when the pronoun expresses the subject of the sentence (EG 65), the object of the verbal activity (EG 66), and possession (as a modifier) of something in the sentence (EG 67).

        EG 65: *He* saw the people.

        EG 66: The people saw *him.*

        EG 67: The people saw *his* ship.

    In these sentences, it must be observed that *he, him,* and *his* are not three different words but simply three forms of the same word (the masculine singular personal pronoun)--or, **the same word in three different cases**--with each form being used to express a particular function of the pronoun in the sentence. To use standard terminology,

we may say that the word *he* (EG 65) is a **nominative case** form of the personal pronoun (masculine singular), and that when this form appears, i.e., "when the pronoun is in this case", it functions as the **subject of the verb**. The form *him* (EG 66), by contrast, is the **accusative case** form of the same personal pronoun, and this form is used to express the **object of the verb**. Finally, the form *his* (EG 67) is the **genitive case** form of this personal pronoun, and it is used to allow the pronoun to function as a **modifier, expressing possession**. Greek has these same cases, plus a fourth case, the **dative case**, which is used to express the **indirect object of a verb** of communication or transference. Thus, there are for Greek nouns, pronouns, and adjectives different forms to express each of the four major functions nouns or pronouns have in a sentence: nominative for subject (cf. II.B.1.a. above), accusative for direct object (cf. II.B.1.b.ii. above), dative for indirect object (cf. II.B.1.b.iii. above), and genitive to provide modification in the form of possession (cf. II.B.2.a. above).

B. Verbs

  1. Generally, verb forms may be analyzed according to the following five categories.[12]

    a. Person

      The **person** of a verb **tells whether the subject doing the acting is the speaker/writer** (*I*, *we*), **the person(s) being addressed** (*you*), or **some other third party** (*he*, *she*, *it*, *they*). Here Greek and English are very similar.

    b. Number

      Verb forms have **number** in that, like nouns and pronouns, they are **singular** or **plural**. This is the difference between *I* and *we*, and between *he* and *they*(cf. a. immediately above).

    c. Tense

      The **tense** of a verb is the **time frame of the activity it conveys**. For example, verb forms which convey activity in the future are called **future tense**.

        EG 68: We *will see* you next year.

      It is important to note, however, that the tense system of two languages rarely coincides perfectly. Two areas usually exhibit some difference.

      i. Various languages express tense with differing degrees of efficiency. Thus, in English we need several words to express the fact that an

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[12]Forms of verbs such as participles and infinitives (sometimes called "verbals") have some verbal and some noun/pronoun/ adjective characteristics.

activity will take place in the future (cf. EG 68 above). Greek uses a single, special form.

ii. A given tense will not convey the same range of possible meanings when two languages are compared. Thus, in English, the perfect tense may denote, either a state which exists in the present resulting from a past activity (EG 69 next), or past action which continues into the present (EG 70 below).

EG 69: I *have arrived* (i.e., I came and <u>I am now here</u>).

EG 70: I *have lived* here for many years (i.e., I still do).

In Greek, the perfect tense may be used to express the thought of EG 69 but not the thought of EG 70.

It is safe to say that, in both English and Greek, there will be special forms to express activity which takes place in <u>present</u> time, in the <u>future</u>, and in the <u>past</u>. The two languages are very different in this area, however, and it is one of the challenges of learning Greek to learn the nuances of the tense structure.[13]

d. Mood

It is easier to describe than to define mood, though, to attempt a definition, the **mood** of a verb may be said to be the **degree of the probability of the activity it conveys.**

i. Thus, verb forms may state facts or ask questions about facts, and the ones which do this we call **indicative** mood.[14]

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[13]It is proper, but somewhat risky in this basic introduction, to introduce the matter of **aspect** into the discussion. Aspect, in both English and Greek, **relates to the <u>type of action</u> which the verbal form conveys.** Thus, e.g., a given verb may convey action which is ongoing (cf. "I *am finishing* it right now.") or a state (cf. "I *have arrived*; you may begin the party!", [i.e., "I am in a state of being here]"). Note that both convey action in present time.

In English, aspect may be conveyed by a particular form of a given tense, such as the **progressive form**, which uses the present participle to convey **ongoing action** (cf. "present progressive" ["I *am finishing* it"], "past progressive" ["I *was finishing* it"], and "future progressive ["I *will be finishing* it"]). It is important to note, however, that in English, a separate system of "tenses" may, at times, be used to convey aspect: the **perfect tenses**. These convey **completed action**, the present perfect conveying completed action in present time (cf. "I *have finished* it"), the future perfect conveying completed action in the future (cf. "I *will have finished* it"), and the past (plu-) perfect conveying completed action in the past (cf. "I *had finished* it"). <u>Note that, despite their designation as "tenses", these perfect forms do not really convey a separate category of time.</u>

In Greek, the method of conveying aspect differs greatly from that of English. In addition, the conception of aspect is quite different, and that in very important ways. Indeed, while aspect is a factor in both English and Greek, it is a matter of utmost importance in Greek and the key to the interpretation of many NT passages.

[14]A peculiarity in English may be observed here. In English, all questions require a helping verb in their formation. This is not a problem when a helping verb is used in the equivalent statement.

EG 71: I *am finishing* my paper right now.[15]

    ii. Verb forms may also give a command, and these we say are in the **imperative** mood.

        EG 75: *Give* me the money!

        Note that the probability of the activity of the verb in EG 75 taking place is lower than the probability of the fulfillment of the verbal action in EG 71 above.

    iii. The **subjunctive** mood in English expresses a number of things, especially wishes (EG 76 next), conditions contrary to fact (EG 77 below) and proposals/motions (EG 78 below).

        EG 76: God *bless* you.

        EG 77: If I *were* you, I would do as he says.[16]

        EG 78: I move that he *write* the President on our behalf.

        Note the low probability (in the case of EG 77 it is non-existent!) of such statements.

    Greek has the same moods which we have detailed here. The indicative and imperative are used in very much the same way, but the **subjunctive** is quite different, conveying, generally, an **activity in the future which has some reasonable probability of fulfillment**. Greek also has a fourth mood, the **optative** mood, which it reserves for **future activity about which there is a lower probability of fulfillment** (mere possibility).

  e. Voice

    The **voice** of a verb **conveys the relationship between the subject of the verbal action and the action itself.**

    i. An **active voice** verb has the **subject** as the **agent of the activity described by the verb**, i.e., the subject is doing the acting and/or is responsible for it.

EG 72: He *was making* the pie. *Was* he *making* the pie?

EG 73: He *did make* the pie. *Did* he *make* the pie?

However, while we may use a simple form of the verb in a statement, it is impossible to do so in a question. In a question, we must use an emphatic form, employing a form of the verb "do". Consider the next example.

EG 74: He *made* the pie. *Did* he *make* the pie?

It is simply not possible in English to say, in place of the formation in EG 74, "*Made* he the pie yesterday"! (NB: The difference between the various formations in EGs 72-74 is aspect not tense. Note that all are in the past. See footnote 13.)

[15]Note that, while this statement may be false, it is the intention of the speaker/ writer to convey that it is true.

[16]Most people do not realize that the subjunctive is "proper" in such contrary to fact conditional sentences, thinking that the more common or "normal" indicative is used. Thus, they tend to change "were" to "was" in such a sentence, because, when we use the indicative mood, we do not say, e.g., "I *were* there yesterday."

EG 79: John *slew* the dragon.

EG 80: John *watched* the game.

In these two examples, John is both the subject of the sentence and the one responsible for the activity of slaying and watching.

ii. **A passive voice** verb has a subject, but that **subject is not the agent of the activity described; rather, it is acted upon.**

EG: 81: The dragon *was slain* by John.

EG: 82: The game *was watched* by John.

In grammatical terms, the subject of the sentence in EG 81 is "dragon", while the subject of the sentence in EG 82 is "game". But in both sentences, "John" is the <u>agent</u> of the activity, and his agency is expressed through a prepositional phrase introduced by the word *by*.

iii. **Greek** also has a third voice, the **middle voice.** This will be described in full in due course; here we need only say that it is a form which is **active,** with the **additional nuance** that the activity of the verb is done **"for the benefit of"** or **"in the interest of"** the subject of the sentence.

2. It is also helpful to make the distinction between **transitive** and **intransitive** verb forms.

a. Transitive

A transitive verb transfers or carries its activity over to a direct object. In the following sentence (EG 83), the verb is transitive.

EG 83: The enemy *attacked* the camp.

Note that such a transference of the action to a direct object need not actually be expressed.

The word *scored* is transitive in the next sentence (EG 84), with the direct object implied.

EG 84: I *scored* [the goal].

Note also that the verbal activity need not be physical, with an overt transference of the action to the object, for the verb to be transitive.

EG 85: I *saw* the horses.

In this example, the verb *saw* is transitive, yet eyeballs are not striking objects; in fact, no physical movement need be involved.

b. Intransitive

i. Basics

An intransitive verb does not and cannot carry its action over to a direct object. It is complete in itself. In general, two types are common, those which convey motion (EG 86) and those which convey condition (EG 87).

EG 86: The birds *flew* northward.

EG 87: I *am* a student.

It should be noted that many verbs which are intransitive do not appear so at first sight. The following common verbs in the following basic examples sentence (EGs 88-92) are all intransitive

EG 88: The soup *tastes* salty.

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EG 89: I *feel* hot today.

EG 90: He *seems* dubious about the idea.

EG 91: He *became* President after the election.

EG 92: She *appears* prepared for the test.

ii. Further notes

a. An intransitive verb never takes a direct object. On the contrary,

any noun, pronoun, or adjective which follows an intransitive verb

is normally either a **predicate noun or pronoun** naming the

same person as the subject (EG 93 next), or a **predicate**

adjective, modifying the subject (EG 94 below)

EG 93: *I* was the *leader* yesterday.

EG 94: *I* was *cold* yesterday.

In EG 93, *I* and *leader* are identical, while in EG 94, the adjective *cold*

modifies the subject, *I*.[17]

b. Nouns, pronouns, and adjectives which are **predicate nouns,**

pronouns, and adjectives are in the <u>nominative</u> case.

EG 95: The leaders are *you* and *I*.

In this example, *I* must be used, not "me", for the form "me" is

accusative and is used for a direct object, not for a predicate

pronoun, which requires the nominative.

c. The same verb may be transitive or intransitive in different contexts.

EG 96: He *flew* over the Rockies.

EG 97: He *flew* 747s for United Airlines.

The verb *flew* in EG 96 is intransitive; in EG 97, it is transitive. Note

that when a verb is used both transitively and intransitively, its

meaning changes slightly. (Thus, in EG 97, *flew* really means "to pilot

in flight", not "to traverse in the air", as in EG 96).

3. Principal parts of verbs

a. Basic concept

All verbs in a given language have **principal parts,** which may

be defined as **the basic forms of a verb which one must know to**

make all other forms which may be made.

i. **English verbs have three principal parts.** These are the

present tense, indicative active (cf. *throw*), the simple past tense,

indicative active (cf. *threw*), and the past participle (cf. *thrown*).

With these three forms, one can make all other forms of the verb

which may be needed, if the "rules" are known and followed. Thus,

e.g., the **first principal part** (*throw*), gives us the present

indicative active (cf. "I *throw* hard when I pitch"), the present

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[17]This predicate adjective construction is the only way an adjective may modify a pronoun, in normal usage.

active participle (cf. "*Throwing* quickly, he got the runner at first"), the present active infinitive (cf. "*To throw* is good exercise"), the present and past progressive forms (cf. "I *am throwing* right now"; "I *was throwing* when you called"), the future indicative active ("I *will throw* tomorrow"), etc. The **second principal part** gives the simple past tense, indicative active only (cf. "I *threw* yesterday in the bullpen"). The **third principal part** is used to form the indicative active of the present perfect (cf. "I *have thrown* and am warmed up"), the past (plu-) perfect (cf. I *had thrown* before I got the call from the bullpen"), and the future perfect (cf. I *will have thrown* by the time you get there this afternoon"). It is also used for all passive voice forms of every tense (cf. The ball *is being thrown*; the ball *was being thrown*; the ball *was thrown*; the ball *will be thrown*, etc.).

    ii. **Greek verbs have**, not three, but **six principal parts.** As may be supposed, different rules for making the various verb forms from the principal parts exist, and these will be learned in due course.

It is impossible to overestimate the importance of principal parts for the mastery of any language.

b. Regular and Irregular Verbs

    i. **Regular verbs are those whose second and succeeding principal parts can be made predictably from the first principal part.** In English, these are verbs which add "d" or "ed" to the first principal part form to make the simple past tense (indicative active) (cf. *love--loved; watch--watched*). Such verbs use a form identical to this second principal part form for the third principal part (cf. *loved* [I have *loved* her well]; *watched* [I have *watched* that pitcher before]). Greek also has regular verbs, but they will form their various principal parts according to rules which will have to be learned.

    ii. **Irregular verbs are those whose second and succeeding principal parts cannot be formed predictably from the first principal part.** In such cases, no key letter(s) appear(s) in the simple past tense form of the indicative active, which form is always the key to regularity/irregularity.[18] The example verb we have been using, *to throw*, is irregular, for the second principal part, the simple past tense (indicative active), *threw*, is not predictable from the first principal part, *throw*. Furthermore, the

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[18] It is an oversimplification to say that an irregular verb has an unpredicatable basic past tense form, while a regular verb has a predictable basic past tense form, but, in fact, it is a good generalization of the situation.

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third principal part, *thrown*, is not predictable from the second or the first principal parts. Greek has irregular verbs, as does English. Also as in English, in Greek the simple past tense (indicative active) form is the key to the detection of irregularity.

iii. What is the **relative frequency** of regular and irregular verbs? The situation is similar in many languages: **most verbs in sheer number are regular, but most of the commonly used verbs are irregular.** Consider the examples (in English) below.

> EG 98: *walk--walked--walked*
>
> EG 99: *chant--chanted--chanted*
>
> EG 100: *pave--paved--paved*
>
> EG 101: *stretch--stretched--stretched*

The four verbs in EGs 98-101 are regular, but, with the exception of *walk* in EG 98, the others are relatively infrequent in occurrence.

> EG 102: *take--took--taken*
>
> EG 103: *eat--ate--eaten*
>
> EG 104: *drink--drank--drunk*
>
> EG 105: *speak--spoke--spoken*

All of the verbs in EGs 102-105 are irregular, and it may be noted that all of them are very frequent, denoting actions basic to human life.