[xxv] A PERSONAL WORD TO THE TEACHER AND STUDENT

The aim of this grammar is to introduce the student to the structure of the Greek Language in the briefest possible time. Notice that structure and Greek language are being emphasized. It is the Language itself and not a grammar about that language that the student who wishes to learn to read Greek needs to confront. For that reason, the grammar itself is suppressed wherever possible. And, if modern linguistics is correct in its fundamental affirmations, the one needful thing in learning a new language is familiarity with its grammatical structure. Such familiarity need not be explicit; the Learner needs to “know” the structure and structure signals only in the sense that he is able, immediately and without deliberation, to respond to them.

More recent methods of grammatical analysis and language teaching bear directly upon a chronic condition I have mused as a teacher of Greek. Although in almost daily touch with some Greek text for twenty-five years, I find that each time I teach beginning Greek from a traditional grammar, it is necessary for me to recommit portions of that grammar to memory. There seems to be little correlation between my ability to read and understand a Greek text and the ability, say, to reproduce nominal and verbal paradigms by heart. I was puzzled by this discrepancy in myself, and by the fact that students who appeared to be able to handle a Greek text with facility often did poorly on examinations over Greek “grammar.” The reverse condition has also frequently caught my attention: students who appear to know the “grammar” are not always able to read a Greek text with correlative ease. In the case of the former, the difficulty may have been that the students merely lacked the technical language with which to make their functional knowledge explicit. Yet I took it to be the case that more often than not those same students aspired to a working knowledge of the language and not to a grammarian’s portfolio. In the case of the latter, knowledge of the “grammar” did not appear to guarantee knowledge of the language. It then occurred to me that traditional grammar might be something apart from the ability to read Greek, in fact, might be an impediment to such ability.

[xxvi] It was with some reluctance that I undertook to reassess the status of traditional Greek grammar. A modest acquaintance with modern linguistics was enough to convince me that a revolution had taken place in the study and learning of language no less than in the study and knowledge of mathematics.

I have endeavored to indicate the implications of linguistics for the study of Greek in the Introduction (§§001-020). There the reader will find some of the basic insights afforded by linguistics as I see them in relation to Greek. I have endeavored to express them without the use of technical language and probably inadequately, by the rigorous stands of leading contemporary linguists. For those who wish to see linguistics in action, a few of the many books which may be consulted are listed in the Table of Abbreviations under modern Literature. I should like to emphasize the importance of reading actual grammars rather than, or in addition to, linguistic theory.

These brief remarks invite some further practical advice about the character and organization of the grammar itself.

The first admonition concerns frame of mind. Students who have learned the grammar of some language in a traditional mode will be tempted in the earlier stages, to assume that they are not learning grammar. They will feel uneasy that they cannot reproduce third declension paradigms or know what grammar is. They have to be convinced that they can learn a language and learn it well, without first having learned traditional grammar by rote memorization. The watershed comes after the first weeks: on the other side of the divide, the skeptics become fresh converts with all the passion normally attaching thereto. By this time they have discovered that they do indeed know the system of morphological variables, and know it with an assurance not normally attained after months, if not years, of study. They will also have discovered that they can read Greek, an achievement they did not anticipate until months later.

The first admonition, therefore, is: have faith.
The grammar is constructed, in broad outline, as follows:

(1) The student is introduced to the sight and sound of the language by reading actual texts (the student is urged to have a Greek text open before him as he proceeds). He is urged to make as much of the sight and sound of the language as his instincts allow, e.g. the meanings of cognate words, the structure of sentences.

(2) The student is then taught the system of morphological variables systematically, with a minimum amount of rote memorization. He learns to recognize the forms of nouns, pronouns, verbs and the like in actual texts. He is not asked to reproduce paradigms, except for the few models he must fix in mind for reference.

(3) After approximately twelve weeks (31 lessons), the student begins to read actual but selected texts. He learns the commonly recurring structures of the language and acquires vocabulary in context. By the time he has completed the Short Syntax (Lessons 31-62), he will have sufficient facility to read Greek texts of moderate difficulty at sight. There will be blanks, of course, but he will have learned to fill them in by analogy (grammatical blanks) or context (lexical blanks), or by turning to the grammar and lexicon for help. The aim of the program is to achieve moderate reading proficiency at sight in one year of study or less. This aim is based on the assumption that most students, especially theological students, begin the study of Greek relatively late in their academic programs.

While the grammar is programmed to be completed in slightly more than one semester (24 weeks, 3 hours per week), it is conceived as a beginning-intermediate grammar. An explanation of this conception is in order, since the actual text of the grammar may create some confusion in view of the stated purpose.

Most beginning lesson grammars are used for a year, at most two, and then discarded in favor of an intermediate or advanced grammar. The inefficiency involved in learning to use second and third grammars can be avoided, in part, by incorporating a second level grammar into the first. The present grammar serves as a beginning lesson grammar, but the material is treated exhaustively at many points, especially in connection with morphology, so that the text may also be used subsequently for reference. The difference between the two types of material is indicated in the text by marking the intermediate (and advanced) material, in the Nominal and Verbal Systems, with \( \downarrow \uparrow \) to indicate which sections may be skipped by the beginner. Several rather lengthy systematic discussions are included by clearly marked: for reading and reference only. Such sections, e.g. Introduction to the Nominal System (§§100-115), are designed to provide adequate background and rationale for what the student is learning. The student is not asked, however, to learn the content of these sections. In addition, the grammar is supplied with several appendices which both teacher and student will find useful at all levels of study. These, too, are included only for reference.

Exercises and directions for practice will appear separately as a workbook. The exercises belong integrally to the program of study represented by the lesson grammar. With a little experience, the teacher will be able to devise his own exercises, making use of those texts with which he wishes the student to be acquainted.

This personal note might well conclude with the axioms that the author has endeavored (sometimes vainly!) to keep constantly before him in both teaching Greek and writing this grammar:

(1) Since the object of the study of Greek is the use of the language rather than its mortification, the student is advised to devote his time to a mastery of the language rather than to a mastery of the grammar.

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1. The rate at which lessons are assigned will of course vary. The important thing is to keep the pace and not be deterred by the temptation to master every morphological detail.
2. The selected texts on which this grammar is based are recommended for reading purposes: The Syntax is illustrated with words and sentences drawn from this body of material. Of course, other selections of moderate difficulty would serve equally well.
3. The recommended rate of progress is optional. The teacher and student may find a slightly slower (or even quicker) pace more comfortable.
(2) The student (and teacher!) should keep a Greek text before him at all times. All learning should take place with an actual text in view.

(3) The grammar and lexicon are reference works to be consulted repeatedly rather than memorized. Keep them constantly at hand, but always above or to the right of the Greek text.

(4) Few things need be learned by rote memorization; where memorization is necessary, the data must be absolutely mastered.

(5) The student is advised to take every conceivable shortcut in reading the signals of the language: explicit, full grammatical knowledge is no substitute for native response where reading ability and comprehension are concerned.

(6) The student is urged to believe in the linguistic “signposts,” like those on a complicated Interstate, and to trust his own reading of the markers. There will be fewer traffic jams and slowups if the student allows himself to be guided by the markers he sees and leaves a blank here, makes a guess there.

(7) A wrong turn is no disgrace: if the student misreads a sign, the teacher will direct the way back to the highway, provided the student has not already discovered his error. A wrong turn is better than an idle wait on the shoulder studying the map.

Some indication of how this grammar was constructed may be helpful to the user. This work, like most others, has its strengths and weaknesses, and it does no harm to have some notion of them in advance.

The lexical stock represented in Bauer has served as the basis for the morphology (the treatment of the nominal and verbal systems). A complete and exhaustive compilation of the data was made for the purpose. Part of the raw results of that compilation may be found in Appendices II and III, which may prove of some benefit to both student and instructor. The morphology attempts to be exhaustive wherever possible. However, there appeared to be no good reason to duplicate the advanced materials found in Bl-D. Frequency counts in the New Testament are derived from Bruce Metzger’s Lexical Aids.

The Syntax rests, to a large degree, on a fresh analysis of a selected body of texts. In defining a body of texts for the purpose of the Syntax, it seemed wise to make a selection that would introduce students to the contours of the New Testament as well as to the rudiments of Greek. This double function accounts for the character of the selection (the list may be found pp. xxif.).

In accordance with the aims of descriptive analysis, it was determined to proceed empirically insofar as possible. Although the body of selected texts was relatively small, the hand manipulation of 2,000 sentences, although parsed on cards, proved to be slow and highly inefficient. Nevertheless, segments of the Syntax reflect the effort to read the grammatical signals occurring in a specific compendium of actual Greek sentences without prejudice. When time and strength ran out, it was necessary to fall back on the more conventional use of Lexicon and concordance. As a consequence, the grammatical tradition reasserts itself at certain points in the Syntax. The user will doubtless be able to discern which sections represent original analysis, and which traditional categories. In my own defense, I can only say that I finally decided it the better part of wisdom to publish the fruit of ten years of labor rather than wait upon additional years of work. Such a compromise, now that the first complete edition is appearing, seems fairly modest in retrospect, the present sense of relief at having come to a preliminary conclusion does not relieve the necessity of pushing on to further editions, based on further compilations of data.

It had been my original intention to draw far more on texts outside the New Testament and Apostolic Fathers than has in fact been the case. If it proves possible to reduce a significant number of Greek sentences to a code that can be manipulated by a computer, it will be easily possible to work with a much larger body of data. In that case, the preface of the title (Hellenistic Greek) will come to fulfillment; as it stands, it is more promise than achievement.
There is, of course, a great risk in attempting a new organization of Greek grammar, based on a fresh compilation of data. Those who are gracious enough to share the risk will hopefully make suggestions for improvement, note errors of all proportions, and contribute materially to the further editions which will hopefully follow.

The numbering system devised for this Grammar requires comment. It is basically a three digits system (§§001-999) with the possibility of infinitive expansion: each major section has been assigned unused numbers, and indefinite subdivision is possible. In addition to the convenience in numbering the first edition, the system will permit subsequent editions to retain the same span of numbers for the same sections (e.g. Nominal Word clusters will always be treated in §§680-799). Sections may be added or deleted without having to renumber the entire Grammar.

The rational underlyng the system is simple. Introductory paragraphs are indicted by 0 prefixed to a three digit number (e.g. §0335). Paragraphs that are subsidiary to a preceding paragraph or paragraphs, or which constitute notes or advanced materials, are indicated by numbers suffixed to the three basic digits before the point (e.g. §§3360, 3371). In addition, sections may be further divided by numbers following the point (e.g. §401.1, §4080.3). A note to a subsection is indicated by a second number following the point (e.g. §929.70).

A Fellowship awarded by the American Council of Learned Societies made it possible to bring this first complete edition to a conclusion prior to taking up the next stage of the work; computer and parsing code will occupy me during the balance of the Fellowship period as I collect data for a further edition.

To Lola LaRue, Carol Durant, and Joann Armour, who typed dauntlessly through one version after another, go my undying thanks. Joann Armour produced the final copy for the camera with unusual skill.

Robert W. Funk
Missoula, Montana
18 July, 1973

CORRECTED EDITION

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Many promising suggestions have been made for a revised edition. While it was not possible to undertake a revision at this time, eventually a thoroughly revised and augmented edition will be issued, together with an abbreviated student edition. Meanwhile, the patrons of this grammar are invited to share further in its improvement.

Robert W. Funk
Missoula, Montana
24 May 1977
INTRODUCTION

How We Understand Sentences

001. We understand sentences because we know (in the sense of, are able to respond to) (1) structure signals and the way they function, and (2) the meaning of words. Words fall for the most part into these two categories: (1) structure-signaling words, (2) major vocabulary.

A sharp division cannot be drawn between structure-signaling words and major vocabulary. Words in the lexical stock fall on a spectrum, some veering more towards mere signaling function and therefore lexically empty, and some specializing in meaning.

A look at the Greek lexicon is instructive in this regard. Bauer’s entry s.v. ἰδίος indicates that this word is lexically full. ἰδίος means messenger, of which there are two types: (1) human, (2) supernatural (= angels, an English loan-word). There is virtually no discussion of the grammar of ἰδίος. By contrast, ἵνα is primarily a structure-signaling word. Bauer stipulates that ἵνα has two “meanings”: (1) to denote purpose, aim, or goal, (2) to indicate something other than purpose. The vagueness of the word definition is a clue to the lexical problem. Bauer is forced to organize the long entry as a grammar of ἵνα, in relation to the two “meanings” mentioned above. Under the first he treats ἵνα as a conjunction used to introduce purpose (final) clauses; these are divided up in accordance with the tense and mood of the verb which precedes and follows. Under the second “meaning” he treats other constructions for which a ἵνα-clause may substitute. It is thus clear that ἵνα does not “mean” in the lexical sense, but in the grammatical sense. What it “means” are the structures in Greek [2] that it signals. In some cases it may rightly be translated that, in order that, but it “means” -- in those same cases -- a grammatical structure (a final clause), the corresponding form of which in English is introduced by in order that.

Every word participates in structure in some way, and most structure-signaling words have some minimal lexical meaning. For practical purposes, however, vocabulary can be thought of in terms of the two basic categories (Gleason: 97 and n. 8).

002. It must not be supposed that structure signals are confined to words. Some structure signals are less than words (in English the plural ending -s [-es], for example, is a structure signal), some are greater than a single word (e.g. either ... or). Only in the case of function words is the structure signal coextensive with the word, and even then there are composite function words and there is often correlation with some other signal (e.g. both ... and; cf. the discussion of ἵνα in §001).

The structure signals or grammatical devices of English and Greek may be conveniently divided into five categories (Schwab: 3):

(1) function words, such as the, may, and, which signal word classes, phrase structure, sentence structure;
(2) inflections (morphological variables), such as the plural ending -s and the verbal suffix -ed, which signal number, tense, etc.;
(3) derivational forms, such as -ly, -ness, which often, but not always, signal word classes (e.g. glad, gladly, gladness);
(4) word order (word constellation), which serves to mark off the limits and internal relations of word groups;
(5) intonation (e.g. a falling pitch contour marks You don't believe me.\ as an assertion in spoken English, as distinguished from a rising pitch contour, You don't believe me?/ which signals a question). Intonation is represented in the [3] written language partially and imperfectly as punctuation (cf. the period and question mark).

It should not be supposed, either, that major vocabulary is confined to words. Put up, for example, is a different lexical item than simple put, as the sentence, She put up preserves, indicates. Put up with is still another lexical item, as Winston Churchill observed when he protested: 'The rule, a preposition should not be used to end a sentence, is a piece of nonsense, up with which I will not put.'

Learning a Language is Learning the Structure Signals

003. It is commonly supposed that the major task in learning a new language is learning the lexical meanings of words. This is not fact the case. The more important as well as the more difficult task is learning the grammatical structures and structure signals (Gleason: 98).

The basic significance of grammatical structures and structure signals in relation to major vocabulary is illustrated by the following text, which has been stripped of all major vocabulary.

In his ____ ____,[Socrates] was ____-ed in the ____ ____ of his ____ and was ____-ed with ____ the ____. ____ he ____-ed the ____ ____ ____ of ____ and ____-ing. He ____-ed the ____ with whom he ____ in ____ about the ____ ____ of ____. He was a ____ of ____ ____ and
Extract from Robert W. Funk, A Beginning-Intermediate Grammar of Hellenistic Greek².

____ ____ of ____. He was ____ ____ to ____ and ____. In ____ he was ____-ed by a ____ ____ and ____ on the ____ of ____-ing ____ ____ and of ____-ing the ____. He was ____-ed to ____. He ____-ed to ____. ____ ____ after his ____ he ____ the ____.

The structure of sentences and word groups is clearly discernible, although the major lexical items have been omitted, with the [4] exception of the subject of the paragraph, Socrates. For example, the sentence beginning in line 2 He ____-ed the ____ is evidently composed of the “subject” he, a verb in the past tense (indicated by the morpheme -ed), and an “object” (the ____); the object is then expanded by a relative clause, with whom ... similarly, the native speaker of English knows that the sentence beginning in line 3 is that type of sentence in which the “subject” is identified. Taking He was a ____ as a sentence frame, any number of predicate nouns might be found to fit:

- He was a philosopher.
- He was a Greek.
- He was a father.

The predicate, however, is expanded by a prepositional phrase initiated by of. We therefore have this frame: He was a ____ of ______. One might also fill in this frame at random:

- He was a philosopher of great wisdom
- He was a Greek of great renown

The choice of vocabulary is of course limited by the frame, i.e. by the grammatical structure. Given the frame, the speaker of English knows that certain possibilities are “ungrammatical”:

- He was a good
- He was a very
- He was a philosopher of extremely wisdom

This is to say that the native user of English instinctively knows which vocabulary items are possible choices for each slot.

The grammatical frame of reference is the system within which major vocabulary can be distributed in accordance with rules governing the filling of particular slots or the structure of phrases and the structure of the sentence. Violation of these rules produces phrases and sentences that are grammatically unacceptable or nonsensical.

The prior requirement for the use of a language is knowledge of the grammatical system, i.e. of the grammatical structures and structure signals. This means, with reference to the emasculated text given above, that one must be able to [5] “read” the grammatical frame of reference before he can make any intelligent use of major vocabulary. This appears to be proved by the way we actually learn to read and understand languages. We know that a reader can make some sense of a text even when he doesn’t know all the major vocabulary, but that he can make no sense of a text for which the structure signals are missing or jumbled. He was a ____ of great wisdom makes some sense, even when the reader does not know the meaning of the word philosopher, represented here by a blank. But the reader can do little with a sentence like xWas philosopher of Socrates great a wisdom because the structure signals are jumbled. he might put a question mark at the end because he knows questions are often introduced by the verb (in contrast to assertions).

In reading a language we already know, we are often compelled by limited vocabulary to leave certain blanks in the text. We either fill them in by the general sense of the text, or by looking them up in a dictionary. Suppose one wishes to read the paragraph about Socrates but does not know all the words. Twenty-two vocabulary items are omitted in this version:

In his __(1)__ life, [Socrates] was __(2)__-ed in the __(3)__ philosophy of his time and was __(4)__-ed with Archelaus the __(5)__. Later he developed the __(6)__ method of inquiry and __(7)__-ing. He __(8)__-ed the people with whom he came in __(9)__ about the right __(10)__ of life. He was a man of __(11)__ physique and great powers of __(12)__. He was __(13)__ indifferent to comfort and __(14)__. In 399 B.C. he was tried by a popular __(15)__, on the charge of introducing strange __(16)__ and of __(17)__-ing the youth. He was __(18)__-ed to death. He __(19)__-ed to escape. __(20)__ days after his __(21)__ he drank the __(22)__.

Although many of the words are missing, it is still possible to gain certain information from the text and guess at still more. If, however, twenty-two words like in, was, and, the, a, he were omitted instead of major vocabulary, how much [6] more difficult it would be to make sense of the whole! Consequently, while we can get along in a language with a limited vocabulary, we cannot get along without knowledge of grammatical structure.
In his early life, [Socrates] was interested in the scientific philosophy of his time and was associated with Archelaus the physicist. Later he developed the famous Socratic method of inquiry and teaching. He questioned the people with whom he came in contact about the right conduct of life. He was a man of strong physique and great powers of endurance. He was completely indifferent to comfort and luxury. In 399 B.C. he was tried by a popular jury on the charge of introducing strange gods and of corrupting the youth. He was condemned to death. He refused to escape. Thirty days after his condemnation he drank the hemlock.

004. The role played by structure signals in the grammatical system of a language can be exemplified in yet another way, namely by means of nonsense language. Nonsense language is created by employing lexically empty major vocabulary within the framework of the grammatical devices or structure signals of the language. In the often cited English nonsense sentence (Fries: 71)

(i) Woggles ugged diggles

the signals -s, -ed, -s, in that sequence, indicate that the first and third words are “thing” words and plural, that the middle term is an “action” word referring to past time. The syntactical relations among the three are also indicated by the sequence: Woggles must be the “subject” of the verb, ugged, and diggles the “object.” On the basis of the structure signals of English and without knowledge of the lexical meaning of a single word, it is possible to construct other “grammatically correct” sentences with these same terms:

(ii) Woggles ugg diggles
(iii) A woggle uggs a diggle
(iv) Woggles will ugg diggles
(v) Diggles have been ugged by woggles
(vi) The woggles which ugged diggles were ugging woggles

In our nonsense language use has been made of only two “thing” words and one “action” word, plus the structural items of standard English. We could enlarge the scope of our language by creating one new word:

(vii) Woggles are fabothful

Our knowledge of English tells us that the morpheme -ful identifies the new word as a descriptive word; this is confirmed by its position after are in the sentence. On this basis we can now create an additional sentence:

(viii) Woggles ugg fabothfully

and then expand it:

(ix) The fabothful woggles ugged diggles fabothfully.

(ix) shows that fabothful may “modify” a “thing” word, and fabothfully an “action” word.

If we add the English structure word and to our repertoire, it is possible to introduce other structures, e.g.

(x) Woggles and diggles have been ugged

in which two “subjects” are linked to a single verb. And may also link two sentences:

(xi) Woggles ugg diggles and diggles ugg woggles

Nonsense sentences (i) - (xi) contain at least four sentence structures basic to English:

[8] (a) Woggles ugg fabothfully (viii)
English nonsense sentences demonstrate that grammatical structure in some important respects is independent of the lexical meaning of major vocabulary items. One does not learn the meaningful arrangement of words by learning major vocabulary. *Teacher the students harassed the* contains standard English vocabulary but is only a jumble of words. It is this important fact that justifies the assertion that in learning a language the prior and more important task is learning the structures and structure signals.

005.1 In the nonsense sentence, *Woggles hugged diggles, -ed, and -s are morphological variables* providing clues to the structure of the sentence. They are called morphological variables because they have to do with the change in the form of words in contrast to some other possible form (*woggles* is shown by *-s* to be plural, in contrast to the singular form *woggle*, without *-s*).

005.2 In the modern printed Greek text the discrete items on the page are (for the most part) words, e.g. πάλιν, ἀντίκειται, ἐκλάλησεν. Some of these never vary in form, e.g. πάλιν, σοῦ, ἔν. Others vary in form in accordance with their function within the structure of the word cluster or sentence, e.g. αὕτοις, ἐκλάλησεν. Morphological variables occurring in words therefore indicate word relationships and participate, along with other features of the language, in the larger structure or system known as grammar.

005.3 The signals ἔ----σεν (ἐκλάλησεν, Jn 8:12) indicate that the word in question is a verb, that it refers to past time, that the “subject” is singular and acting rather than being acted upon. On this basis one can readily identify the following: ἔ-πίω-σεν (Jn 8:20), ἔ-ποιή-σεν (Jn 8:40), ἔ-τυφλω-σεν (1 Jn 2:11). The signals τοῦ ----ος (τοῦ ἀγάμου. Jn 8:12) suggest that the word in question is a “thing” word, that it is singular in number, and that it stands in a “genitive” (i.e. “of,” see §112.1) relation to some other word or word group in the sentence. Cf. τοῦ ἀνθρώπου (Jn 8:28), τοῦ θεοῦ (Jn 8:40), τοῦ ἑαυτοῦ (Jn 8:59).

005.4 The Greek sentence, like the English sentence, exhibits certain structure signals in the form of morphological variables that the competent reader of Greek is able to “read” at a glance. In the sentence

(1) ἦ σκοτία ἐτύφλωσεν τοὺς ὄφθαλμοις αὐτοῦ 1 Jn 2:11

the signals ἦ ----α and τοὺς ----οίς indicate that the items in question are “thing” words, in the first instance singular, in the second plural. The signals ἔ----σεν indicate the word in question is a verb, with reference to past time. ἦ ----α indicates, furthermore, that the first word group is “subject,” τοὺς ----οίς that the third word group is “object,” of the verb. The signal -ος, as part of the last word, indicates that this word stands in a “genitive” relation to some other item in the sentence.

005.5 The reader will grasp (1) as a whole consisting of three parts, probably of this order:

ή σκοτία / ἐτύφλωσεν / τοὺς ὄφθαλμοις αὐτοῦ.

[10] He will be led to grasp the first and third word clusters as units because of the sequence of morphological variables, ἦ ----α go together as feminine article (*the*) and feminine noun, nominative singular. τοὺς ----οίς go together as masculine article and masculine noun, accusative plural. He also knows that nominal word clusters commonly embrace a “modifying genitive,” so that αὐτοῦ is taken with the preceding cluster.

005.6 Position (word order) also plays a role in seizing word groups, e.g. the words in the first and third clusters occur together and in some acceptable order: the position of article (*ἡ*, τοῦς) and noun (*σκοτία*, ὄφθαλμοις) in

- 8 -
relation to each other is fixed — the article always precedes; the genitive ὁνομάτο (pronoun), however, may also come between or before article and noun (and occasionally may be separated from its word group). Word order plays a significant but quite different role in Greek sentence structure than in English.

006.1 There are other structure signals in Greek, as in English, in addition to the morphological variable and word order. Another group of signals consists of words, some of which are fixed in form (indeclinables), and some of which vary in form (inflected). This category is called function words (cf. §002). In the case of inflected function words, the morphological variable(s) and the word as a whole, as signals of different orders, converge.

006.2 Questions in Greek are often signaled by interrogation words. In the sentence

(2) ποῦ ἐστιν ὁ πατὴρ σου;  
Where is your father?

ποῦ is an interrogative adverb corresponding to English where?. It is fixed in form. On the other hand, τίς is an interrogative pronoun adjective that is inflected. In the sentence

[11]

(3) τίς ἐστιν ἡ μήτηρ μου;  
Mk 3:33  
Who is my mother?

τίς not only signals a question, but its role in the structure of the sentence is indicated by its case form (nominative); it is “subject” of the verb ἐστιν.

006.3 Some function words typically signal subordinate clauses (included dependent sentences).

(4) τῷ ὡς λέγω ἵνα ὑμεῖς σωθῆτε  
Jn 5:34  
I say these things in order that you may be saved.

In (4) ἵνα indicates that a final (purpose) clause is being joined to the main sentence. Similarly, εἴ regularly introduces a subordinate clause which serves as the protasis (if clause) of a conditional sentence:

(5) εἴ ἐμὲ ἰδεῖτε, καὶ τὸν πατέρα μου ὃν ἰδεῖτε  
Jn 8:19  
If you had known me, you would have known my father also

Such function words as ἵνα and εἴ are known as subordinators.

006.4 Another subclass of function words is known as conjunctions. They are employed to connect or relate sentence elements of the same or similar order. They may be single words, as in

(6) ἐπίστευσαν αὐτός καὶ ἡ οἰκία ὅλη  
Jn 4:53  
He and his whole house believed

where καὶ links two subjects with a single verb; its grammatical function therefore corresponds to and in the translation. καὶ is thus an essential clue in the structure of (6).

Two such conjunctions may be correlated:

(7) οὔτε ἐμὲ ἰδεῖτε οὔτε τὸν πατέρα μου  
You know neither me nor my father

[12] οὔτε ... οὔτε links two objects to a single verb and thus corresponds to neither ... nor in the translation.

006.5 ἵνα, εἴ, καί, οὔτε are fixed in form, but not all function words in these subclasses are indeclinable.

007.1 Derivational forms are of assistance in assigning words to word classes. The word sad in English is an adjective, as illustrated by the sentence, that face is sad, to which the phrase, that sad face, is related. By adding the suffix -ly sad is turned into an adverb: sadly. The suffix -ness transforms the same word into a noun: sadness. The class membership of derivational forms is grammatically significant. The native user of English knows that the
sentence *that face is sadly*, or the phrase *that sadly face*, is grammatically unacceptable. The matter can be rectified by adding or inserting an adjective:

That face is sadly wrinkled.
That sadly wrinkled face.

Or again, *sadness* fits certain sentence frames that *sad* and *sadly* do not. for example we may say

He had a profound sense of sadness

but not

*He had a profound sense of sad
*He had a profound sense of sadly
*That sadness face.

The derivational pattern of *sad, sadly, sadness* is sufficiently common in English as to suggest other analogous sets:

glad, gladly, gladness
mad, madly, madness
bad, badly, badness

On the basis of the derivational forms the class membership of these terms is immediately evident to the speaker of English, [13] in practice if not formally.

007.2 Derivational forms are also of use in identifying the class membership of words in Greek. A pattern not unlike that illustrated in §007.1 is exemplified by

δίκαιος  righteous (adjective)
δίκαιοςσύνη  righteousness (noun)
δίκαιός  justly (adverb)

Other nouns may be developed from the same stem:

δίκαιώμα  righteous act
δίκαιωσις  justification

-σύνη, -μα, -σις are noun suffixes, just as -ός is an adverb suffix.

007.3 On the basis of these derivational suffixes, the following words can be identified as nouns:

έλπιςσύνη  charity
όνομα  name
πνεύμα  spirit
γνώσις  knowledge

And the following can be identified as adverbs:

ύληθός  truly
ταχέως  quickly

The examples of nouns and adverbs listed above do not necessarily follow the pattern of δίκαιος in other respects.

008. The structure-signaling devices of Greek form a coherent and finite system. Because the system is coherent, the structure signals of any phrase, sentence or series of sentences are to be read as a constellation of signals pointing to one grammatical structure or set of structures, in distinction from other possible structures or set of structures. If the [14] structure is “grammatical,” the signals will converge in pointing to that structure. That is only to say that
“grammaticality” and coherence of the structure-signaling system are one and the same thing. It goes without saying that no grammatical system is perfect, i.e. free of ambiguity. Because the grammatical system is finite it can be learned without having to learn all possible Greek sentences. The potential output of Greek sentences is infinite, but the grammatical system is sufficiently restricted so that many men, women and children — not all of whom were bright or linguistically gifted — were able to learn to read and speak Greek.

The Aims of Descriptive Grammar

009. A descriptive grammar must achieve two things: 1) it must develop a classification of words and other elements; 2) it must state the grammatical relations that obtain among these elements (Gleason: 138)

These two aims of descriptive grammar may be modestly elaborated, with particular reference to the shape of the present grammar. the balance of the introduction will thus be an immediate introduction to and sketch of the content of the grammar.

The Classification of Words and Other Elements

010.1 The classification of words and other elements must be based on structural, i.e. grammatical, features. Meaning-based classification is not very helpful for two reasons: a) definitions of parts of speech based on meaning tend to be ambiguous; b) such definitions do not conform to the grammatical features of a language (Gleason: 115ff.; Fries: 65-86, 87f., 202ff.). If classification is derived from structure, however, there are two sets of criteria which may be used, and these do not always coincide: 1) One set of criteria may be derived from the words themselves, i.e. from morphological criteria; 2) Another may be derived from the ways a word may be used in a sentence. The ideal would be to achieve a classification that would integrate these two sets as fully as possible.

010.2 Classification by definition may not be feasible in any case. It is difficult to achieve definitions that account for all the phenomena. One may circumvent definition by making use of a set of characteristics that circumscribes a category or class of words (the method of C. C. Fries). In the case of extremely small classes, like negatives, personal pronouns, and the like, one may classify by listing all, or nearly all, the examples. In the case of large classes, one may classify by comparison, i.e. by inquiring, presumably of someone with native response, whether a certain item belongs to one class or another. Native users of a language undoubtedly learn to classify words in just this way. Such a method would only approximate the requirements of a grammar, but it may well have considerable pedagogical value (Gleason: 118ff.).

011.1 Words and other elements in Greek have been customarily classified in relation to traditional “parts of speech,” e.g. noun adjective, verb, etc. One of the respects in which this grammar remains conventional is in its use of “parts of speech.” The road to a purely descriptive analysis of the “parts of speech” in Greek appears to be long. Yet some preliminary steps can be taken in that direction. While conventional terminology is retained, some significant modifications have been introduced. It is therefore necessary to state at the outset what is meant by “parts of speech,” to indicate how the labels are used in this grammar. It is also necessary to stipulate that there are points at which strict usage breaks down; this failure poses problems for the theoretician, but it does not constitute a major impediment for the beginner, nor, for that matter, for the first stages of descriptive analysis.

011.2 The “parts of speech” as employed in this grammar are based in the first instance on purely morphological considerations. The basic groups are distinguished by means of criteria relative to an inflectional system. This procedure yields three fundamental divisions:

I. Words belonging to the nominal system
II. Words belonging to the verbal system
III. Words fixed in form, i.e. uninflected

The breakdown of these larger categories has proceeded, moreover, along morphological lines, insofar as possible. Certain inflectional patterns are readily isolable within the first and second categories, while other subgroups are more or less arbitrary. In division III, it will be necessary to invoke other than morphological criteria. As a consequence, “parts of speech” refer first of all to morphological distinctions, and secondly to grammatical distinctions. It will be necessary finally to integrate these two sets of data (§010.1).
Where, for example, the term “noun” is used, it is to be understood as denoting a word that belongs to a particular inflectional system, in this case the nominal system. “Adjectives” and “pronouns” also belong to the nominal system, but they can be distinguished from each other and from nouns on purely morphological grounds. That is not to say that each is distinguishable in a given sentence on this basis; distinctions depend upon referring specific items to the inflectional system as a whole.

“Parts of speech” are particularly useful, as a consequence, in helping the student to come to terms with the morphological aspects of the language. This aspect constitutes a serious hurdle for most beginners. Once the inflectional systems and patterns have been grasped, it is then possible to employ “parts of speech” in grammatical descriptions. For example, to say that a “noun” characteristically appears as the head term in word clusters occurring as the “subject” in sentences, is to say that a word belonging to a certain inflectional system and pattern commonly occurs as the head term in such clusters. It is not to say that “nouns” are normally “subjects,” or that “nouns” are the names of persons, places, or things.

Even so, the lines among these major divisions and among the subdivisions are by no means entirely clear. There is a certain amount of duplication and many areas of gray. It will be helpful, consequently, to set out the categories and define them as closely as possible, while maintaining a certain reservation with respect to their precision.

I. Words Belonging to the Nominal System

012.1 Nouns. Formally, nouns have one gender (though they may be used in more than one gender, or fluctuate in gender), and are inflected for four cases, and normally two numbers (singular and plural). A noun is a word that belongs to one of three declensions presented in §§130-2-3. Unfortunately, there is a group of so-called nouns that are only partially declined or indeclinable (consisting largely of foreign proper names taken into Greek). Here we fall back, in part, on the traditional definition of a noun: these words are to be taken to be nouns because they are “like” Greek nouns, i.e. they name something. But they are “like” nouns in a more important respect: they occur in those structures in which nouns appear.

012.2 Pronouns. While pronouns also belong to the nominal system, they are restricted in person and/or number and/or gender and/or case. As a consequence, they manifest declension patterns that are comparable to those of adjectives, only restricted (§§256-2580).

012.3 Adjectives. Adjectives differ formally from nouns in that they are inflected for three genders (masculine and feminine [18] may be identical in form) rather than one. This makes it possible for the relation of adjective as “modifier” to any noun as head term to be signaled by agreement in gender, number and case. In other respects adjectives follow the inflectional patterns of nouns (§§220-2451).

012.4 Pronominal adjectives. Pronominal adjectives are declined like adjectives, but appear exclusively or also in structures in which adjectives do not appear. Since this group belongs morphologically with adjectives, its isolation depends entirely on syntactical criteria (§§259-274).

II. Words Belonging to the Verbal System

013.1 Verbs. Finite verbs are formally distinguished by personal endings. They are also marked by morphological variables that specify tense, mood, voice. They have tense and voice in common with infinitives and participles, but not mood and personal endings, which the latter lack. Verbs follow the inflectional patterns treated in §§300-496.

013.2 Infinitives. The infinitive is a “verbal noun” in a fixed case, yet it exhibits “tense” (§§0309ff.) and voice like finite verbs (§§464-4662).

013.3 Participles. The participle is a “verbal adjective.” It is declined like an adjective, yet it also manifests the morphological markers of “tense” (§§0309ff.) and voice like finites verbs (§§246-250; 0467-469). Though participles must be considered under both the nominal and verbal systems, for convenience they are listed here only under the verbal system.

013.4 The assumption here, as in the case of the nominal system, is that words belonging to these groups can be identified formally, on morphological grounds, without recourse to function [19] in the sentence or lexical meaning. The sole exception thus far is pronominal adjectives (§012.4), which belong formally to the category of adjectives.
III. Words Fixed in Form (Uninflected)

014.1 Words fixed in form are sometimes collected together under the general rubric of “adverbs” or “particles.” Distinctions cannot easily be made on a formal basis. Yet there are some natural groups which can be isolated on the basis of form in combination with the structures in which they characteristically appear.

014.2 Adverbs. The adverb is characterized by a fixed case form (often obscured) and/or certain suffixes (also fixed in form). Some adverbs are also subject to comparison (positive, comparative, superlative), in which case they are not, strictly speaking, uninflected. The adverb is further distinguishable from the preposition (to which it is closely related) in that the adverb does not “govern a case.”

014.3 Prepositions. The preposition is an adverb which has come to “govern a case,” i.e. it is used with a case that is thought to depend upon the preposition. Prepositions are conventionally divided into “proper” and “improper” prepositions, depending upon whether or not they can also be joined with a verb to form a compound word. The proper preposition can be so employed, the “improper” preposition cannot.

014.4 Particles. The remaining words fixed in form may be termed particles for want of a better term. Particles include negatives, sequence words (conjunctions, sentence connectors, subordinators), modalizers and nuance words.

014.5 It is obvious that the breakdown of division III depends more on grammatical than on morphological criteria. Subdivisions will therefore require justification in the syntax (Part III).

Syntactic Relations

015.1 The second step in a descriptive grammar is to state the grammatical relations that obtain between and among words and other elements in the language (§009), as classified on a morphological or other basis (§§010-014).

As illustrated in §003, the native user of a language knows what possibilities are open to him in filling an empty slot in a given sentence frame. This knowledge suggests that word classes coincide in some important respect with other grammatical features. It appears, for example, that sentences in Greek, as in English, most often consist of “subject” and “predicate,” and that the “subject” is correlated to a greater or lesser degree with the word class nouns, while the “predicate” is closely related to the word class verbs. An extensive statement of the relations between these features proves to be a very complicated matter. It is made no less complicated by the fact that various word classes require subdivision into smaller classes, and many words belong to more than one class.

015.2 For the purposes of this grammar a less than exhaustive statement of the relations between and among word classes and other grammatical devices is quite satisfactory. Some restriction is, in fact, necessary. Preoccupation with the marginal features of Greek, which would be required in an exhaustive grammar, only misleads where the beginner is struggling to form something like native responses to the bread-and-butter features of the language.

016.1 Open and restricted word classes. The simplest sentence [21] pattern consists of noun and finite verb qualification in §504):

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\
\gamma\nu\nu\nu & / & \dot{\alpha}p\epsilon\theta\alpha\nu\nu & a \text{ woman} / \text{ died} \\
\end{array}
\]

We may use a slash (/) to mark off the noun from the verb and thus the “subject” from the “predicate,” and designate the former 1 and the latter 2 (a kind of shorthand to enable us to speak more efficiently of the sentence parts, without having to give a full description each time.)

If it is now asked what may stand as element 1 in a sentence of this type, a tentative reply would be: only a noun or some other item in the nominal system. This implies that a finite verb cannot function as “subject.” The reverse is also true; only a finite verb or some other item from the verbal system may appear as item 2. Such a generalization does not tell us much specifically about the grammar of Greek, but it does indicate that the “subject” [1] and “predicate” [2] of the sentence are correlated, in some important respects, with the two major word classes represented by the nominal and verbal systems, respectively.
016.2 The generalization that some item from the nominal system must stand as element 1 in the sentence appears to be confirmed by substituting grammatically acceptable words for γυνη in sentence (1):

(2) ἄνήρ / ἀπέθανεν  
1  a man / died  
2

tὸ παιδίον / ἀπέθανεν  
1  the child / died  
2

ἡ θυγάτηρ σου / ἀπέθανεν  
1  your daughter / died  
2

Ἀβραὰμ / ἀπέθανεν  
1  Abraham / died  
2

[22] ἀπέθανεν / οἱ προφῆται  
1  the prophets / died  
2

Element 1 in every case is a noun or a word group “headed” by a noun. Words like ἄνήρ, παιδίον, Ἀβραὰμ belong to the word class, nouns, which is virtually numberless. It is therefore an open or unrestricted word class.

016.3 One might go so far as to say that any noun may substitute for γυνη in sentence (1):

(3) δένδρον / ἀπέθανεν  
1  a tree / died  
2

(4) βιβλίον / ἀπέθανεν  
1  a scroll / died  
2

(5) ὁ ἱερός / ἀπέθανεν  
1  a house / died  
2

So long as we are concerned solely with grammar, sentences (4), (5) are quite acceptable. It may be difficult to imagine the circumstances under which they might be spoken or written, but they belong, nevertheless, to the potential of the language since they conform to the grammatical system.

016.4 For the verb in sentence (1) various acceptable substitutions are likewise easily possible:

(6) γυνη / μένει  
1  a woman / abides  
2

μένουσιν / οἱ προφῆται  
1  the prophets / endure  
2

(7) ὁ παῖς / ζητεῖ  
1  the child / lives  
2

ζητεῖ / ἡ θυγάτηρ σου  
1  your daughter / lives  
2

[23] Words like ἀπέθανεν, μένει, ζητεῖ belong to the word class, verbs, which is also virtually numberless. Verbs and nouns therefore comprise open or unrestricted word classes.

016.5 Verbs and nouns (together with adjectives, adverbs, and infinitives and participles, which are made from verbs) constitute the bulk of the major vocabulary in Greek. Words belonging to these classes may be freely created, change meaning, and die in the history of the language. It is therefore impossible to specify by listing what nouns
may appear as element 1 in the sentence, or what verb may appear as element 2. We must be satisfied to say that a sentence like (1) is comprised of a nominal element as “subject” and a verbal element as “predicate.”

016.6 These large open or unrestricted word classes are quite distinct from other smaller word classes, the items of which function primarily as structure signals and can be specified by listing.

017.1 The Greek negative adverbs are illustrative of a very small, closed word class.

(8) γονὴ / ὁκι ἀπέθανεν a woman / did not die

A second negative adverb is μὴ. To this word class we may arbitrarily give the designation N. ὁκι and μὴ may be distinguished from all other adverbs by virtue of the grammatical constructions into which they may enter that other adverbs may not. Cf. §§613-617.

017.2 It was stipulated in §016.1 that the “subject” of a sentence like (1) must be a nominal item. The personal pronouns belong to the nominal system and so may appear as element 1 in the sentence. Yet they constitute a closed or restricted word [24] class, the members of which can be listed.

(9) ᾠτή / ἀπέθνησεν she / was dying

In (9) ᾠτή is a pronoun specifying that the “subject” of the verb is feminine and singular (=she). Apart from some context in which this sentence appears, it would be impossible to specify further what is meant by ᾠτή. It is for this reason that pronouns are sometimes defined as substitutes for nouns. In one context (Lk 8:42), the antecedent of ᾠτή is ἥθυκη, daughter. ᾠτή is therefore also a sequence word in that it indicates the continuity of the subject matter in contexts where it is inappropriate to express the noun in each sentence or phrase where it is called for. As a consequence, the personal pronouns belong more to the structure-signaling elements of the language than to its major vocabulary.

017.3 On the basis of §017.1-2 one may generalize: closed or restricted word classes belong more intimately to that class of words called function words (§§001, 002, 006) than to major vocabulary, since they participate more directly in the grammatical system. Conversely, the major vocabulary of the language is made up primarily of open-ended word classes.

018. It is impossible to speak of the grammar of Greek without speaking of more than morphology and words. A morphological variable or a word belongs to a grammatical system that transcends the isolated morpheme or word. The reach of the system is stratified. For example, one may speak of the grammar of the phrase

(10) ἥθυκηπηρ σου your daughter

in which the head term, ἥθυκηπηρ, is “modified” by the article ἥ and the genitive of the personal pronoun, σου (lit. the daughter of you).

[25] The phrase (10) also belongs, of course, to a sentence, such as

(11) ἥθυκηπηρ σου / ἤῃ your daughter / lives

in which the phrase (10) appears as the “subject” of the verb, ἤῃ. We then have a “complete” sentence with “subject” and “predicate.”

The reach of the system extends even beyond the sentence. If we take a sequence of sentences such as

(12) ἥθυκηπηρ σου / ὁκι ἀπέθανεν. ᾠτή / ἤῃ

Your daughter / did not die. She / lives.
it can be observed that the “subject” of the second sentence, ὁ Πέτρος, functions to link the “subject” of the second sentence with the “subject” of the first.

In speaking of grammatical system it is thus necessary to speak of it with respect to overlapping and interrelated levels: the structure of the phrase can be learned in isolation but it must also be learned in the context of the sentence; sentence structure can be learned in isolation, but it, too, must ultimately be referred to sequences of sentences and the construction of such larger units as the paragraph.

019.1 The question confronted by the learner of a language, and antecedently the grammarian who teaches him, is how best to take hold of a new language. Aside from becoming initially acquainted with a system of morphological variables that may vary considerably from that employed in his own native language (e.g. Greek in relation to English), the beginner is advised — according to most modern linguists — to endeavor to seize the language at its most immediately workable level, namely the sentence. One learns to use a language (beyond the halting use of single words [26] coupled with sign language) by comprehending sentences. With a few model sentences in hand, the novice is in a position to make some use of a language, however pressed he may be to make himself articulate. A knowledge of morphology, major vocabulary and even phrase structure does not necessarily make a language usable apart from some acquaintance with sentence structure.

019.2 If the sentence is assigned a certain priority for practical, pedagogical reasons, that priority is supported to a large degree by the requirements of descriptive grammar. Word classes, for example, can finally be sorted out only in the context of the sentence. And it is necessary to work with the sentence (and the sequence of sentences) in mapping out the complex network of relationships between and among constructions. In short, the sentence provides a more viable focus for descriptive grammar than the word or phrase, and yet primary attention to the sentence does not require that attention to the sentence be diverted from word classification and phrase structure. The sentence is the point of departure, moreover, for the consideration of sentence-transcending structures and devices.

020.1 The Greek language, like English, functions largely with a set of commonly recurring sentence structures. These structures are used over and over again, with modification and expansion, of course. The constituent elements of the sentence consist largely of commonly recurring phrase structures. The structure of sentences and phrases is surprisingly monotonous. It would be even more monotonous were it not possible to include some sentences within the framework of other sentences (subordination), and to link and connect sentences and parts of sentences by various devices (coordination). Nevertheless, subordinated or included sentences reflect the same basic sentence patterns, modified or transformed in accordance with regular rules so as to make grammatical inclusion possible. Greek thus makes highly repetitive use of a relatively small set of grammatical [27] structures, which are modified and varied within the limits of these structures.

020.2 A commonly recurring sentence pattern in Greek consists of subject, transitive verb, and direct object.

\[(13) \quad \text{o}i\text{de}n / \ \text{o} \text{P}\text{et}\text{r}o\text{s} / \ \tau\text{o}n \ \text{e}n\text{r}\text{h}r\text{o}p\text{os} \quad \text{Peter} / \ \text{knows} / \ \text{the man}\]

The subject is set off by slashes and designated 1, the verb is designated 2, as above (§016.1); a slash (/) may also be used to mark off other elements in the sentence, and 4 designates the direct object.

\[(14) \quad \text{e}i\text{de}n / \ \text{o} \text{L}\text{o} \text{o} / \ \tau\text{o}n \ \text{e}n\text{r}\text{h}r\text{o}p\text{os} \quad \text{The people} / \ \text{saw} / \ \text{the man}\]

in that it also consists of subject, transitive verb, and direct object.

020.3 Sentences may be said to be enate (Gleason: 199ff.) if they have identical structures. Sentences (13) and (14) are fully enate, i.e. they correspond grammatically item for item as well as in structure. If enation is restricted to structure, sentences may be enate even though they do not correspond item for item. For example,

\[(15) \quad \text{o}i\text{de}a / \ \text{e}\text{r}o / \ \tau\text{o}n \ \text{e}n\text{r}\text{h}r\text{o}p\text{os} \quad \text{I} / \ \text{know} / \ \text{the man}\]

is enate to (13) and (14) in structure, although a noun phrase has been replaced by a personal pronoun (ερώ). However, the personal pronoun subject does not normally appear in Greek:
[28] In (16) the subject is signaled solely by the personal ending attached to the verb. Yet (16) remains structurally identical to (15). Further, the object may be represented by a personal pronoun rather than by a noun phrase:

(17) \( \text{o}d\dot{a} / \alpha\nu\tau\dot{ov} \)  

I / know / him

The structure of (17) remains identical with that of (13) - (17) although all items but one have been modified.

**020.4** The direct object (4) in sentences (13) - (17) is either a word or a noun phrase. For this type of object may be substituted an included sentence or clause without altering the structure:

(18) \( \text{o}d\dot{a} / \tau\dot{i} \lambda\acute{e}g\dot{e}i\zeta \)  

I / know / what you mean

Let \( S \) stand for an included sentence, to which is attached a raised 4 to indicate that the included sentence appears in the structure of object. (18) may be resolved into two sentences:

(18a) \( \text{o}d\dot{a} / (4) \)  

I / know / (4)

(18b) \( \tau\dot{i} / 2-1 \)  

what / do / you / mean?

The sentence (18b) is included in (18a) without internal modification, although in (18) the direct question of (18b) has become an indirect question.

**020.5** The included sentence, however, may be incorporated into the larger structure by means of some modification. In that case it becomes an included dependent sentence:

(19) \( \text{o}d\dot{a} / \varepsilon\acute{i}\dot{d}\dot{ov} / \dot{d} \dot{e} \dot{p} \dot{h} \dot{i} \dot{h} \dot{e} \dot{s} e \nu \) \( \text{Π\acute{a}l\acute{l}\acute{o}z} \)  

The capital \( S \) is changed to a small s to indicate that the included sentence is dependent. Unlike \( S^4 \) in (18) s\(^4\) in (19) may not stand as an independent sentence when divorced from its larger context. Rather, (19) is composed of two sentences, one of which has been modified:

(19a) \( \text{o}d\dot{a} / \varepsilon\acute{i}\dot{d}\dot{ov} / (4) \)  

The crowd / saw / (4)

(19b) \( \text{Π\acute{a}l\acute{l}\acute{o}z} / \dot{e} \dot{p} \dot{o} \dot{h} \dot{i} \dot{h} \dot{e} \dot{s} e \nu \)  

Paul / did / (4)

The object of (19b) in independent form, would be a noun phase, pronoun, or other included sentence; when incorporated into (19a) as the object, the object of \( \dot{e} \dot{p} \dot{o} \dot{h} \dot{i} \dot{h} \dot{e} \dot{s} e \nu \) becomes a relative pronoun, which is a grammatical device for joining two sentences.

**020.6** The structure of (19) is identical with the structures of (13) - (18), i.e. subject, transitive verb, direct object. It may also be observed that the structures of \( S^4 \) in (18) and \( s^4 \) in (19) are also identical: in (18) \( \tau\dot{i} \) is the object of...
λέγεται, so that the structure may be schematically represented as 4/2-1 — the same elements as found in (13) - (17).

\( s^4 \) in (19) may be analyzed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
4 & \quad 2 & \quad 1 \\
\text{δο} & \quad \text{ἐποίησεν} & \quad \text{Παῦλος}
\end{align*}
\]

Once again, the structural elements are identical.

**020.7** The sentence structure of (13) is thus utilized in a [30] variety of other sentences, including the included sentences of (18) and (19). All these sentences are enate because they reflect the same basic grammatical structure. Among the commonly recurring sentence patterns in Greek, this type of sentence appears most often. A good grasp of its structure and varieties will go a long way towards the ability to read the structure signals in Greek.