taken in conjunction with the numbercase suffix, the two together constituting the ending for a noun: $\kappa \nu \rho \iota \sigma$, root (word stem); and $-\sigma \sigma$, ending.

- **E3.37** In summary: as a rough working rule of thumb it could be said that the stem is that part of a word which does not change in a given flexion, and the ending is the part of the word form that changes or inflects in that given flexion.
- E3.38 The morphology of declined words is straightforward, and is covered adequately in Appendix D. The morphology of verbs is considerably more complex, and needs further explanation and summary here.

E4. THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE GREEK VERB

E4.0 MORPH SLOTS OF THE VERB

- **E4.01** Each form of a verb is constructed upon the basis of that verb's lexal (which is, or is derived from, the root), to which are added the other morphs that are required in order to indicate each relevant detail of information about it every time when it is being used.
- **E4.02** A Greek verb may have a preposition prefixed to it. A verb without a prefixed preposition is called a *simplex* verb (i.e., "single lexal" verb, or, "simple lexal" verb); a verb which has a prefixed preposition is known as a *complex* verb or a *compound* verb (i.e., "combined lexals" verb).
- **E4.03** A simplex verb contains a minimum of three morphs and (usually) a maximum of five morphs; a compound verb thus has a minimum of four morphs and (usually) a maximum of six morphs.
- **E4.04** The three morphs always to be found in a verb form are: the lexal, the aspect morph, and the ending. The ending will be: the *pronoun*, if the verb is indicative, subjunctive, optative or imperative mode; the *infinitive morph*, if it is infinitive mode; or the *numbercase morph*, if it is a participle. A compound verb will have a fourth morph: the prefixed *preposition*.
- **E4.05** These four morphs always occur in the fixed order: preposition, lexal, aspect, ending. Each position where a morph can occur is called a *slot*, and these four morphs thus can be described as providing four slots for verb information. Each of these four slots will be filled by one particular morph out of a range of alternatives a particular preposition (out of those available), a particular lexal, a particular aspect morph, a particular ending. Each of them is thus like a selection switch it selects for that slot a particular meaning out of the range of alternatives available.⁴² These four morph slots are *framework morph slots*: they provide the basic framework for the structure of the verb: they need to contain a morph, and if they do not, the absence of a morph is itself significant.
- **E4.06** In between the four framework morph slots there are five other slots, four of which are like simple on/off switches for these slots there is no range of alternatives. Rather, there is only one morph which can be placed into a given slot, and if that morph is present it switches the verb to have that particular meaning. These five are *optional morph slots* they may or may not contain a morph. They are, in order: past time, reduplication, passive voice, future time, and specifier (whose function will be described in #E4.8). In the nature of the case, because of their respective meanings, these five morphs cannot all be used at the same time in a word. In fact, in normal use only one or perhaps two of these five morphs will be present simultaneously, though some rare forms could extend this to three of the five.
- **E4.07** The order for the nine slots (with framework slots in italics, and optional slots in standard type) is: *Preposition*, past, reduplication, *lexal*, passive, future, *aspect*, specifier, *ending*.⁴³

E4.08 The information jointly supplied by the morphs which occupy these slots will define the six variables for a particular form of a verb: the basic lexical meaning of the verb, and the person, number, tense (time and aspect), mode and voice of the verb in the given usage. To state each of these variables for a particular verb form is to *parse* it, and the five elements of grammatical information should be stated first in the order given here, followed by the lexical form and the meaning of the word. It will be noted that the first two grammatical variables mentioned (person and number) locate the form within its flexion, and the next three (tense, mode and voice) identify the flexion in question.⁴⁴ Thus $\lambda\nu\sigma\omega\mu\epsilon\theta\alpha$ is parsed as: 1st person plural, aorist subjunctive middle of $\lambda\nu\omega$, "I loose". Note that in regard to tense, the important factor for the Greeks was not so much the *time* when the action was placed by the verb, but the *type of action* that it was, that is, its aspect, and therefore it is wise for the student to draw attention to this by putting both of these in brackets after the name of the tense. Thus for $\epsilon\lambda\nu\epsilon\tau\epsilon$: 2nd person plural, imperfect (past time, durative aspect), indicative active of $\lambda\nu\omega$, "I loose".

E4.09 In parsing a participle, the information given will be: case, number, gender, tense (aspect), voice, followed by the fact that it is a participle and the lexical form and meaning of the word. Thus $\lambda\nu\rho\mu\acute{e}\nu\sigma\iota\varsigma$ is parsed as: dative plural masculine/neuter of the present (durative) middle/passive participle of $\lambda\acute{\nu}\omega$, "I loose"; $\theta\acute{e}\nu\tau\sigma\varsigma$ is parsed as: genitive singular masculine/neuter of the aorist (punctiliar) active participle of $\tau i\theta\eta\mu\iota$, "I place".

E4.1 SLOT 1: THE PREPOSITION

- **E4.11** There are eighteen prepositions and a small number of other words which can fill this slot. These prepositions are the eighteen in #8.7. There can be two prepositions prefixed together to a verb (for example, σvv -ανά-κειμαι, "I recline at table together with others"). A double preposition before a verb is treated as a single morph (#E4.16).⁴⁵
- **E4.12** Large numbers of New Testament verbs are always simplex, but on the other hand compound verbs are common. The simplex form is not found in the New Testament for some verbs (most notably - $\beta\alpha$ iνω, - β i β άζω, -iημι, -τείνω, -τέμνω, -τρέπω, -τρίβω, -χέω, and -χύννω. (The hyphen in front of these forms is used to indicate that in the New Testament they always have a prefixed preposition.)
- **E4.13** A particular verb may be found with a large variety of prepositional prefixes: in the New Testament, $\lambda \alpha \mu \beta \acute{\alpha} \nu \omega$ is used in 13 different compounds with prepositions, Ε μω and φ ε μω are each used in 14 compounds, Ε μω and ε μω in 15 compounds, ε μω in 16 compounds, ε μω in 17 compounds, ε μω in 18 compounds, and ε μω in 19 compounds. Writers were free to coin new words by prefixing prepositions to verbs in new combinations, and numbers of such neologisms occur for the first time in Greek literature in the pages of the New Testament.
- **E4.14** Some nouns, adjectives and adverbs are capable of being prefixed to appropriate verbs like prepositions: for example, $\delta\chi\lambda o\varsigma$ in $\delta\chi\lambda o\pi oi\epsilon\omega$, "I gather together a crowd"; $\zeta\omega\eta$ in $\zeta\omega o\pi oi\epsilon\omega$, "I make alive"; $\kappa\alpha\kappa\delta\varsigma$ in $\kappa\alpha\kappa\delta\lambda o\gamma\epsilon\omega$, "I speak evil of"; $\epsilon\dot{v}$ in $\epsilon\dot{v}\alpha\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda i\zeta\omega$, "I announce good news"; and so on. These prefixes can be compounded together with a preposition, as for example in $\sigma v\nu\epsilon\zeta\omega o\pi oi\eta\sigma\epsilon\nu$ (Ephesians 2:5 and Colossians 2:13) notice that in such a compound the augment comes after the preposition and in front of the other prefix being added. As these non-prepositional prefixes usually function as part of the lexal of the particular word (that is, taking preposition, augment and reduplication in front of them), they are to be regarded as included within the lexal (Slot 4). However, where a non-prepositional prefix takes an augment after it, this prefix is to be viewed as filling Slot 1. Example: $\epsilon\dot{v}\alpha\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda i\zeta\omega$ ($\epsilon\dot{v} + \dot{\alpha}\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda i\zeta\omega$), a arist $\epsilon\dot{v}\eta\gamma\gamma\epsilon\lambda\iota\sigma$.
- **E4.15** Both prepositions and also these other less common prefixes have *lexical* as distinct from *grammatical* meaning, so that a compound word contains two (or, as the case may be, three) lexals.

The prefixed lexal interacts with the verb lexal to produce the lexical meaning of the compound – sometimes this is a recognizable combination of the lexal meanings, and sometimes it is a new meaning quite distinct from that of its components.

- **E4.16** As two prepositions prefixed to a verb do not retain their separate and distinct meaning but fuse together in meaning (in combination with the meaning of the verb's lexical morph), it is therefore appropriate (and most convenient) for two prefixed prepositions to be viewed as and treated as a single, combined prefix in Slot 1 (though separately noted in analysis of the verb).
- **E4.17** Sometimes a preposition is so closely viewed as an integral part of a particular verb that its origin as a preposition is lost and it is treated as being a section of the verb's lexical morph. In consequence the augment is put in front of the erstwhile preposition: for example, $\dot{\epsilon}\kappa\dot{\alpha}\theta\eta\tau$ o (Luke 18:35 and other passages), from $\kappa\dot{\alpha}\theta\eta\mu\alpha$, "I sit"; $\dot{\eta}\phi\iota\epsilon\nu$ (Mark 1:34) from $\dot{\alpha}\phi\dot{\eta}\eta\mu$, "I allow".
- **E4.18** On the other hand, sometimes a verb which begins with preposition-like phonemes is treated as a compound verb even though the phonemes are in fact really part of the verb's lexical morph. Thus throughout the New Testament and in $koin\bar{e}$ Greek generally $\delta\iota\alpha\kappa ov\dot{e}\omega$ is always treated as a compound verb (and augmented as if it were one, as in $\delta\iota\eta\kappa\dot{o}v\epsilon\iota$, Mark 1:31, etc.), although strictly speaking it is not.
- **E4.19** For prepositional allomorphs in front of a vowel, see #8.79; #E3.22.

E4.2 SLOT 2: PAST TIME

- **E4.21** There is only one morpheme which can fill this slot, and when it is present in a verb form it indicates that the action of that verb refers to past time. This morpheme, which is known as the past time morph or augment, is only found in the indicative flexions of a verb, because only the indicative mode can contain indications of time (except the rare future participles/infinitive).
- **E4.22** The three tenses which are augmented are the imperfect, the aorist, and the pluperfect; but the pluperfect may be found without the augment as it can indicate its identity (and its past time) in another way (see #E4.81).
- **E4.23** The augment has a number of allomorphs, as set out here.
- **E4.24** Where a verb commences with a consonant, it indicates past time by adding the prefix ε -, called the *syllabic augment*. This is the Syllabic Augment Rule.
- **E4.25** Where a verb commences with a short vowel (including a vowel in a short diphthong), the augment for that verb consists of a process morph (called the *temporal augment*), which is: the lengthening of that short vowel to the corresponding long vowel:

The vowel: α ε o $\alpha \iota$ $\alpha \upsilon$ $o\iota$ lengthens to: η η ω η $\eta \upsilon$ ω

This is the Short Vowel Augment Rule, or the Temporal Augment Rule.

- **E4.26** A verb has a zero morph augment where it commences with a long vowel $(\eta_{-}, \iota_{-}, \upsilon_{-}, \text{ or } \omega_{-})$ or long diphthong $(\varepsilon\iota_{-}, \varepsilon\upsilon_{-}, \text{ or } o\upsilon_{-}; \text{ though some examples are found of verbs in } \varepsilon\upsilon_{-} \text{ lengthening to } \eta\upsilon_{-}).$
- **E4.27** Some verbs which could have been expected to conform to the appropriate rule (from those which have just been set out) do not do so but take, instead, a double augment: both an affix and the process augment.⁴⁷ There are not many verbs which do this, but many of those that do are very common ones. Thus: $\alpha \gamma \omega$ reduplicates its first syllable and then takes the temporal augment, producing the form $\gamma \gamma \alpha \gamma \sigma v$ as its aorist. Similarly the suppletive aorist of $\phi \epsilon \rho \omega$, with root $\epsilon \gamma \kappa$.

(which has come from $\dot{\epsilon}\nu\kappa$ - see #E2.77) produces the form $\dot{\eta}\nu\epsilon\gamma\kappa\sigma\nu$. $\dot{\alpha}\nu\dot{\alpha}\dot{\gamma}\omega$ has the form $\dot{\alpha}\nu\dot{\epsilon}\omega\xi\alpha$ as an aorist (as well as some other variants). $\theta\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\omega$ and $\delta\dot{\nu}\nu\alpha\mu\alpha\iota$ take first the syllabic augment and then the temporal augment to give the imperfect forms $\dot{\eta}\theta\epsilon\lambda\sigma\nu$ and $\dot{\eta}\delta\nu\nu\dot{\alpha}\mu\eta\nu$ respectively; some others also follow this pattern. (See also #4.6.)

E4.3 SLOT 3: REDUPLICATION

- **E4.31** There is only one morpheme which can fill Slot 3, and when it is present this morpheme indicates that the verb is perfective aspect. Because reduplication is an aspect morph, this morph is retained in all modes of a verb; contrast the past time morph, which can appear only in the indicative. Reduplication is a combination of process morph and affix. In its basic form it consists of this process: double the first consonant, and then separate these two consonants by $-\varepsilon$. But there are complications which derive from the phonemic characteristics of the first phoneme or phonemes of the verb.
- **E4.32** Where a verb commences with the semi-vowel ρ -, the verb reduplicates with $\dot{\epsilon}\rho$ instead of $\rho\epsilon$. Example: $\dot{\rho}i\pi\tau\omega \rightarrow \dot{\epsilon}\rho\rho\iota\phi\alpha$.
- **E4.33** Where a verb commences with a single aspirated consonant or with an aspirated consonant followed by a liquid, then (in accordance with #E2.82) the verb will be reduplicated with the unaspirated voiceless equivalent of that initial consonant, followed by the letter -ε-. Examples: $\phi o \rho \epsilon \omega \rightarrow \pi \epsilon \phi \delta \rho \eta \kappa \alpha$; $\chi \rho i \omega \rightarrow \kappa \epsilon \chi \rho i \kappa \alpha$; $\theta \lambda i \beta \omega \rightarrow \tau \epsilon \theta \lambda i \phi \alpha$; $\theta \nu i \delta \kappa \omega \rightarrow \tau \epsilon \theta \nu i \delta \kappa \alpha$.
- **E4.34** Where a verb commences with any single consonant other than an aspirate or ρ -, or where it commences with a stop consonant followed by a liquid, then that initial consonant is reduplicated with the phoneme -ε-. (This is the basic reduplication pattern.) Examples: $\lambda \acute{\nu}\omega \rightarrow \lambda \acute{\epsilon}\lambda \nu \kappa \alpha$; $\nu \iota \kappa \acute{\alpha}\omega \rightarrow \nu \epsilon \nu \iota \kappa \eta \kappa \alpha$; $\pi \nu \acute{\epsilon}\omega \rightarrow \pi \acute{\epsilon}\pi \nu \epsilon \nu \kappa \alpha$.
- **E4.35** Where a verb commences with two consonants the second of which is not a liquid, or with a double consonant, the reduplication takes the form of the syllabic augment, $-\varepsilon$ (which, being an aspect morph when functioning as reduplication, is retained in all modes of the perfect). Examples: $\pi\tau\alpha i\omega \rightarrow \varepsilon\pi\tau\alpha i\kappa\alpha$; $\sigma\kappa\alpha \tau\omega \rightarrow \varepsilon\sigma\kappa\alpha\phi\alpha$; $\sigma\kappa\alpha\tau\omega \rightarrow \varepsilon\sigma\alpha\omega\phi\alpha$; $\sigma\kappa\alpha\tau\omega \rightarrow \varepsilon\sigma\alpha\omega\phi\alpha$; $\sigma\kappa\alpha\tau\omega \rightarrow \varepsilon\sigma\alpha\omega\phi\alpha$; $\sigma\kappa\alpha\omega\omega$
- **E4.36** Where a verb commences with a short vowel or a short diphthong ($\alpha\iota$ -, $\alpha\upsilon$ -, $o\iota$ -), the reduplication takes the form of the temporal augment (which, being an aspect morph when functioning as reduplication, is retained in all modes of the perfect). Examples: $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\pi\dot{\iota}\zeta\omega \rightarrow \ddot{\eta}\lambda\pi\iota\kappa\alpha$; $\alpha\dot{\iota}\dot{\tau}\dot{\epsilon}\omega \rightarrow \ddot{\eta}\dot{\tau}\eta\kappa\alpha$; $\alpha\dot{\upsilon}\dot{\xi}\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega \rightarrow \eta\ddot{\upsilon}\xi\eta\kappa\alpha$; $o\dot{\iota}\kappa\delta\delta\omega\mu\dot{\epsilon}\omega \rightarrow \dot{\omega}\kappa\delta\delta\dot{\omega}\eta\kappa\alpha$.
- **E4.37** When a verb commences with a long vowel (including ι and υ -) or a long diphthong ($\varepsilon\iota$ -, $\varepsilon\upsilon$ -, $\varepsilon\upsilon$ -, $\varepsilon\upsilon$ -), the verb has the zero morph for perfect reduplication morph. Examples: $\dot{\upsilon}\sigma\tau\varepsilon\rho\dot{\varepsilon}\omega \rightarrow \dot{\upsilon}\sigma\tau\dot{\varepsilon}\rho\eta\kappa\alpha$; $\dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\upsilon}\rho\dot{\iota}\sigma\kappa\omega \rightarrow \dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\upsilon}\rho\eta\kappa\alpha$; $\dot{\iota}\dot{\alpha}\rho\mu\alpha\iota \rightarrow \dot{\iota}\alpha\mu\alpha\iota$; $\dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\xi}\upsilon\upsilon\theta\dot{\varepsilon}\nu\dot{\epsilon}\omega \rightarrow \dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\xi}\upsilon\upsilon\theta\dot{\varepsilon}\nu\eta\mu\alpha\iota$.
- **E4.38** There are verbs with morphemic allomorphs as reduplication which are exceptions to the above general statements. There are three main groups of these. One group of New Testament verbs which commence with a short vowel take *syllabic reduplication*. This is also referred to as "Attic reduplication" (though, like the Attic Future [#C8.85] this feature is "found also in other dialects and even in Homer"). Syllabic reduplication consists of reduplicating the initial vowel and first consonant of the lexal, while still lengthening the original initial vowel with the temporal augment (in accordance with #E4.36). These verbs retain their syllabic reduplication, including the temporal augment, in their non-indicative modes. There are six verbs (two of them suppletive verbs) which have this syllabic reduplication in the perfect tense. The occurrences of syllabic reduplication in the New Testament (with the page number of the listing of occurrences in Clapp and the Fribergs, Vol 1) are:

ἀκούω	hear	(√ακο <i>F</i>)	ἀκήκοα		(10 occurrences; p.58)
ἐγείρω	raise up	$(\sqrt{\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\epsilon\rho})$	ἐγήγερκα	ἐγήγερμαι	(11 occurrences; p.570)
<i>ὲ</i> λαύνω	drive	$(\sqrt{\dot{\epsilon}}\lambda\alpha)$	<i>ἐλήλακα</i>		(John 6:19 only)
ἔρχομαι	come/go	$(\sqrt{\dot{\epsilon}}\lambda[v])$	<i>ἐλήλυθα</i>		(28 occurrences; p.904)
ἀπόλλυμι	destroy	(√ <i>ò</i> λα)	<i>ὀλῶλα</i>		(7 occurrences; p.184)
φέρω	carry/bring	$(\sqrt{\dot{\epsilon}}v[\varepsilon]\kappa)$	ἐνήνοχα		(Hebrews 11:17 only)

These three New Testament verbs also take syllabic reduplication, but there are no instances of their perfect tenses in the New Testament:

ἐλέγκω	correct	(√ἐλεν)	ἐλήλεγμαι	
ὄμνυμι	vow	(√ <i>ỏμο</i>)	<i>ὀμώμοκα</i>	
ὀρύσσω	dig	$(\sqrt{0\pi v \gamma})$	ὀρώρυχα	ὀρώρυγμαι

E4.39 The two other groups of verbs with irregularities in forming their perfect tenses are: (a) Two verbs commencing with a short vowel take both the temporal augment and the syllabic augment as their reduplication. Thus: $\dot{\alpha}voi\gamma\omega \rightarrow \dot{\alpha}v\dot{\epsilon}\omega\gamma\alpha$; $\dot{\delta}\rho\dot{\alpha}\omega \rightarrow \dot{\epsilon}\dot{\omega}\rho\alpha\kappa\alpha$ (sometimes also $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\delta}\rho\alpha\kappa\alpha$ occurs; never " $\ddot{\omega}\rho\alpha\kappa\alpha$ "). (b) Certain verbs take -o- as their central vowel in the perfect (either in addition to or in place of reduplication), usually using it to replace another vowel; and some others take -α-. See complete list, #C8.6.

E4.4 SLOT 4: THE LEXAL

- **E4.41** This slot will be filled in every verb form. There are one thousand morphemes in the New Testament which can fill this slot; that is to say, there are one thousand verbs used in the New Testament (#10.18; #C9.3) and this is the slot for the verb's lexical morph or *lexal*.
- **E4.42** Each verb's lexal is capable of having a number of different allomorphs as determined by phonemic (and other) factors: for example, $\lambda\alpha\lambda\varepsilon$ has the allomorph $\lambda\alpha\lambda\eta$ when it occurs in front of a suffix commencing with a consonant. (These are covered in #E2.) Some verbs have individual lexal allomorphs in particular flexions: for example, $\beta\alpha\lambda$ (the lexal of $\beta\alpha\lambda\lambda\omega$) has, by metathesis (#C2.96), $\beta\lambda\alpha$ in the perfect flexion, and this then becomes $\beta\lambda\eta$ by the Short Vowel Lengthening Rule (#E2.31). These allomorphs will be noted when encountered.
- **E4.43** Second and third conjugation verbs (and some first conjugation verb lexals) take *infixes* affixes inserted into this slot. These infixes are *durative morphs*, and may be either inserted *within* the lexal, or are attached to the beginning or the end of the lexal, within the lexal slot.
- **E4.44** Some durative infixes are added, within the lexal slot, to the beginning of the lexal. Fourteen New Testament verbs form their present/imperfect tenses by taking a durative morph which is known as the *durative reduplication*. This is formed in the same manner as the perfective reduplication, but using -i- rather than $-\varepsilon$ as the reduplication vowel. Examples:

stem δo -; present indicative active, $\delta i \delta \omega \mu \iota$; imperfect (past durative), $\dot{\epsilon} \delta i \delta o \nu \nu$;

stem $\theta \varepsilon$ -; present indicative active, $\tau i\theta \eta \mu \iota$ (not " $\theta i\theta \mu \eta \iota$ "; #E2.82);

stem $\sigma\tau\alpha$ -; present indicative active, $i\sigma\tau\eta\mu\iota$ (not " $\sigma i\sigma\tau\eta\mu\iota$ "); imperfect, $i\sigma\tau\eta\nu$.

- **E4.45** A durative infix may be inserted within the lexal itself: for example, the $-\iota$ of $\sigma\eta\mu\alpha\dot{\nu}\omega$, "I indicate", the lexal of which is $\sigma\eta\mu\alpha\nu$ (#E3.17)
- **E4.46** Some durative infixes are added, within the lexal slot, to the end of the lexal: for example, the $-\sigma\kappa$ of $\alpha\rho\epsilon\sigma\kappa\omega$, "I please", the lexal of which is $\alpha\rho\epsilon$ -.
- **E4.47** Certain verbs add both an internal infix, that is, within the lexal, and also a infix at the end of the lexal morph: for example, the -v- and $-\alpha v$ of $\mu\alpha\nu\theta\dot{\alpha}\nu\omega$, "I learn", the lexal of which is $\mu\alpha\theta$ -. These two insertions are part of the one morph, a durative infix. A single morph which has two parts to it like this has the technical name of a discontinuous morph.

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E4.48 Each verb of the three Conjugations which takes a durative morph infix will be found listed by Conjugation in #C2.1–C2.5; #C3.1–C3.4; and #C5.1–C5.7.

E4.5 SLOT 5: PASSIVE VOICE

- **E4.51** There is only one morpheme which can fill this slot, and when it is present in a verb form it indicates that the verb is passive voice.
- **E4.52** Furthermore, when the following slot is not filled by a future morph, the presence of a passive morph also indicates that the verb form is agrist. That is, the passive morph is inherently agrist, but is "switched" to future passive if followed by the future morph.
- **E4.53** This morpheme is represented by these allomorphs:

VERB CATEGORY	IN THE PARTICIPLE, SUBJUNCTIVE & OPTATIVE	IN OTHER MODES
Verbs with direct flexion passives (#C4.4):	-ε-	-η-
All other verbs, all Conjugations:	-θε-	-θη-

E4.54 In the subjunctive of all verbs, the $-\varepsilon$ - of the passive morph is contracted with the subjunctive vowel (the lengthened neutral morph) which follows it. This contraction is marked by a circumflex.

E4.6 SLOT 6: FUTURE TIME

E4.61 There is only one morpheme which can fill this slot, and when it is present in a verb form it indicates that the action of the verb refers to future time.

E4.62 This morpheme is represented by these allomorphs:

VERB CATEGORY:	ALLOMORPH
After a liquid:	- <i>E</i> -
In certain specific verbs in $-\iota \zeta$ - (#C8.88):	- <i>E</i> -
In the two direct-flexion futures (#C4.2):	Ø
In all other circumstances, all Conjugations	: - <i>σ</i> -

- **E4.63** The future morph always collocates with the neutral morph; that is, it always takes the neutral morph after it. For practical purposes this means the same as saying that the future morph must have the equivalent present tense endings after it. (**Note especially** that $-\sigma$ followed in a verb form by a vowel other than the neutral morph would not be the future morph but the punctiliar morph of the aorist see #E4.77. **Note also** that in numbers of irregular verbs the future stem will differ from the present stem, in particular where the present contains a durative morph.)
- **E4.64** In those word forms in which the future morph is $-\varepsilon$ -, this always contracts with the neutral morph which follows it.

E4.7 SLOT 7: ASPECT

- **E4.71** This slot will be filled in every verb form, with these exceptions:
 - (a) in the perfect and pluperfect middle/passive of all Conjugations;
 - (b) in Third Conjugation verbs in the durative (present and imperfect) and the third agrist;
 - (c) in the agrist passive indicative (as this follows the paradigm of the third agrist).

These all thus have the zero morph in the aspect slot.

E4.72 There are three morphemes which can fill this slot: the neutral morph, the punctiliar morph, and the perfective active morph. The aspect morph slot is thus a three-way switch, which has the positions "neutral", "punctiliar", and "perfective active".

- **E4.73** Each Greek verb possesses a "basic" aspect which is already inherent in its lexal and which can therefore be referred to as its *inherent aspect*. When the aspect "switch" is in the neutral position, the inherent aspect of the verb's lexal is allowed to flow through into the meaning of the verb form, unmodified or "unswitched" by the aspect morph. That is, the neutral morph has a *neutral* affect on the nature of the verb a durative lexal plus the neutral morph leaves the aspect of the verb still durative, a punctiliar lexal plus the neutral morph leaves the aspect of the verb still punctiliar. When the aspect "switch" is in the *punctiliar* position (that is, when there is a punctiliar morph in the aspect slot), then the aspect of the verb is "switched" to punctiliar (that is to say, the action of the verb stated as completed, or viewed in its entirety). When the aspect "switch" is in the *perfective* position (that is, when there is a perfective morph in the aspect slot), the aspect of the verb is "switched" to perfective (that is, the action of the verb is seen as completed and its effects continuing to the writer's time, or as initiating a new state of affairs that is continuing).
- **E4.74** The perfective morph is only used in the active voice, and thus it indicates voice as well as aspect: that is to say, it is the perfective *active* morph, a multimorph (#E3.27). In the middle/passive flexion this slot is empty (that is, has a zero morph: #E4.71) and perfective aspect is indicated by perfective reduplication alone (#E4.31).
- **E4.75** There is no durative morph for use in Slot 7. For verbs which are Second or Third Conjugation and thus inherently punctiliar, a durative infix will be inserted into the lexal slot itself when a durative form is required (#E4.43). (There are a small number of Second and Third Conjugation verbs which do not take such a durative infix: #C2.6-#C2.8; #C3.3, #C3.7.)

E4.76 The neutral morpheme has these allomorphs:

CIRCUMSTANCES	ALLOMORPH
Form final, or before upsilon or a nasal:	- <i>O</i> -
In the indicative, before a morph commencing with $-\varepsilon$ -:	Ø
In the optative:	- <i>O</i> -
In other circumstances:	<i>-⊱</i> -
For the subjunctive, -o- lengthens to - ω - and - ε - to - η	

E4.77 The punctiliar morpheme has these allomorphs:

CIRCUMSTANCES	BEFORE: A CONSONANT	A VOWEL
Lexals with $-\varepsilon$ - plus a liquid (see below):	-ι.α-	-1.Ø-
Lexals with a liquid that does not come after $-\varepsilon$:	-α-	Ø
In δ ίδωμι, τίθημι, and -ἵημι:	- <i>κ</i> α-	- <i>K</i> -
For all other lexals:	-σα-	- <i>σ</i> -

[The apparent adding (above) of $-\iota$ - to lexals with $-\varepsilon$ - plus a liquid is in fact the occurrence of compensatory lengthening upon the loss of the sigma of the full punctiliar morph (see #E2.43).]

E4.78 The perfective active morpheme has these allomorphs:

CIRCUMSTANCES BEFO	RE:	INFINITIVE	A CONSONANT	A VOWEL
Lexals with labial or palatal stem:		Aspiration + ε	Aspiration + α	Aspiration
Direct flexion perfects (#C4.3):		-E-	-α-	Ō
For all other lexals:		- <i>KE</i> -	- <i>Κ</i> α-	-K-

(For labial or palatal plus - κ - becoming the equivalent aspirate, see #E2.61, E2.62.)

E4.79 The subjunctive is a process morph, the lengthening of the neutral morph. But the neutral morph does not occur in the agrist forms of first conjugation verbs. In the formation of their subjunctive mode the neutral morph is therefore first inserted, so that it *can* be lengthened. Thus the punctiliar morph and the (lengthened) neutral morph will occur together in the aspect slot for the agrist subjunctive active and middle flexions. Similarly, the neutral morph occurs in the passive

aorist subjunctive, where it contracts with the $-\varepsilon$ - of the passive morph $-\theta \varepsilon$ -, the contraction being marked by the circumflex accent.

E4.8 SLOT 8: THE SPECIFIER

- **E4.81** Certain other information may need to be specified about a verb, and if so it will be specified here, which is, as it were, the "last chance" to insert any other information before the ending of the word is added.
- E4.82 The information which can be specified here is that the verb form is one of the following:
- **E4.83 Pluperfect tense active:** insert $-\varepsilon\iota$. (As *this* specifies the pluperfect tense, the augment in Slot 2 is not absolutely essential for the purpose of indicating past time for a pluperfect active form, and Greek writers often chose to omit it.)
- **E4.84** A perfect active participle: insert -υια

 $-vi\alpha$ - in feminine gender flexion

 $-o\zeta$ in nominative singular masc/neuter

 $-o\tau$ - otherwise.

- **E4.85** An active participle other than the perfect: insert $-\nu\tau$, which becomes $-\iota$ in front of $-\varsigma$ or $-\sigma$, by phonemic modification (see #E2.42). (The aorist passive participle also uses this specifier, as it switches the voice to passive by inserting the passive morph into the form.)
- **E4.86** A middle participle: insert $-\mu \varepsilon v$. (The future passive participle also uses this specifier, as it forms the future passive by inserting the passive morph into the future middle forms.)
- **E4.87** Middle voice of the imperative or infinitive mode: insert $-\sigma\theta$. (This specifier has been lost from the second person singular imperative forms, where the ending $-\sigma o$ appears to have dislodged it, $-\sigma\theta\sigma o$ not being easy to pronounce.)
- **E4.88 Optative mode:** insert $-i\eta$ in the agrist passive, -i- otherwise, forming a diphthong with whichever vowel precedes it in the word.
- **E4.89** Each of these specifier morphs is mutually exclusive by their nature, only one of them will be used in any given word. Each of them thus functions as an "on/off switch", and when the particular morph is present it "switches" the word form to the particular tense, mode and voice specified.

E4.9 SLOT 9: THE ENDING

- **E4.91** This slot will be filled in every verb form. (If the slot is not overtly filled, the form will be considered to have a zero morph.)
- **E4.92** The slot will be filled with one of three possible endings:

For the participle: the numbercase morph;

For the infinitive: the infinitive morph;

For all other modes: the pronoun morph.

- **E4.93** The numbercase morph used in any given form will be the appropriate morph from the participle declension paradigms, #D5.
- **E4.94** The infinitive morpheme has three allomorphs:

When added to the neutral morph: $-\sigma \varepsilon \nu$ (which then loses its $-\sigma$ - by syncopation, and the $-\varepsilon$ contracts with the vowel preceding it);

When added to any other vowel: $-v\alpha\iota$:

When added to a consonant $-\alpha \iota$.

For detailed rules, see #C6.14.

E4.95 The pronoun morph has the range of forms and allomorphs as set out in the paradigms of Appendix C. Pronouns normally also indicate voice, and some pronoun morphs indicate past time or non-past time as well (see *multimorphs*, #E3.27).

E5. MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE GREEK VERB FORM

- **E5.1** The identifying of the morphs of any given form of a Greek verb is called *morphological analysis* or *morphologizing*. It enables the reader to obtain the information-input of each morph and thus, by interrelating the meanings from all the morphs, to understand the total significance of the word.
- **E5.2** The most helpful way of understanding the process of morphological analysis is to work one's way through a number of examples to verify for oneself what is being done. The following list (#E5.6) of more than 50 examples provides an opportunity for this.
- **E5.3** Phonemic modification which has affected the morphology needs to be "unscrambled" for example, where there has been amalgamation, when $-\iota$ has gone subscript, when contraction or elision has occurred. This is indicated in these examples, as required, by placing the contracted or elided vowel(s) in brackets.
- **E5.4** Where there is morphemic lengthening (that is, lengthening which is a process morph, and conveys meaning), then in the case of the subjunctive the neutral morph as lengthened is given in the aspect slot column, and in other cases the letter L is placed in the column of the slot for which the lengthening indicates grammatical meaning (that is to say, is "morphemically significant").
- **E5.5** The first one of these examples is the only New Testament seven-morph verb which I have been able to find, and I believe it is the only one in the New Testament. It occurs (in some manuscripts only) in Mark 15:10. (If you come across any other seven-morph verbs, I would be glad to learn of them.) The other examples are given in New Testament order.
- **E5.6** Work your way through the following examples. First of all, use a piece of paper to cover up the page except for the "reference" and "verb form" columns, and on this piece of paper do your own analysis of the verb forms into the nine morphological slots. Then uncover the page and check your work against the worked examples.

			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
REF	ERENCE	VERB FORM	PREP	PAST	RDUP	LEXAL	PASS	FUT	ASPCT	SPEC	END
Mk	15:10	παρεδεδώκεισαν	$\pi \alpha \rho(\alpha)$	ϵ	$\delta arepsilon$	$\delta \omega$			$\kappa(\alpha)$	ει	$\sigma \alpha v$
Mt	5:17	καταλύσαι	κατα			λυ			$\sigma(\alpha)$		$\alpha \iota$
Mt	5:32	<i>ἀπολελυμένην</i>	$\dot{lpha}\pi o$		$\lambda \varepsilon$	λυ			Ø	μεν	ηv
Mt	5:33	<i>ἀποδώσεις</i>	$\dot{lpha}\pi o$			$\delta\omega$		σ	$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$	·	iς
Mt	7:7	άνοιγήσετε	$\dot{\alpha}v(\alpha)$			οιγ	η	σ	$\boldsymbol{arepsilon}$		auarepsilon
Mt	7:22	ἐξεβάλομεν	ἐξ	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		$\beta \alpha \lambda$			0		μεν
Mt	17:11	<i>ἀποκαταστήσει</i>	άποκα	au lpha		στη		σ	$\boldsymbol{arepsilon}$		i
Mt	17:22	παραδίδοσθαι	$\pi \alpha \rho \alpha$			διδο			Ø	$\sigma\theta$	$\alpha \iota$
Mt	18:28	ἀπόδος	$\dot{lpha}\pi o$			δo			Ø		5
Mk	3:11	προσέπιπτον	$\pi \rho o \sigma$	$\boldsymbol{arepsilon}$		$\pi \iota \pi \tau$			0		v
Mk	4:34	<i>ἐπέλυεν</i>	$\dot{\epsilon}\pi(\iota)$	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		λυ			(ε)		εv
Mk	8:3	<i>ἐκλυθήσονται</i>	ἐκ			λυ	$\theta\eta$	σ	0		νται
Mk	8:6	παρέθηκαν	$\pi\alpha\rho(\alpha)$	$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$		$ heta\eta$			κα		ν
Mk	8:7	παρατιθέναι	$\pi \alpha \rho \alpha$			$ au\iota hetaarepsilon$			Ø		ναι
Mk	8:9	ἀπέλυσεν	$\dot{\alpha}\pi(o)$	$\boldsymbol{arepsilon}$		λυ			$\sigma(\alpha)$		εv
Mk		έστηκότων			έ	στη			$\kappa(\alpha)$	$o\tau$	ων
Mk	9:6	<i>ἤδει</i>		L	Ė	ιδ			(α)	$\varepsilon\iota$	Ø

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
REFERENCE	VERB FORM	PREP	PAST	RDUP	LEXAL	PASS	FUT		SPEC	END
Mk 9:42	βέβληται			etaarepsilon	$eta\lambda\eta$			Ø		ται
Mk 10:7	καταλείψει	κατα			$\lambda arepsilon \iota \pi$		σ	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		ι
Mk 10:21	<i>ἠγάπησεν</i>		L		$\dot{lpha}\gammalpha\pi\eta$			$\sigma(\alpha)$		εv
Mk 10:33	παραδοθήσεται	παρα			δo	$ heta\eta$	σ	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		$ au lpha \iota$
Mk 10:33	κατακρινοῦσιν	κατα			κριν		(ε)	ov		$\sigma i v$
Mk 10:34	<i>ἐμπαίξουσιν</i>	ἐμ			$\pi \alpha \iota \zeta$		σ	ου		$\sigma i v$
Mk 10:48	ἐπετίμων	ἐπ(ι)	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		τιμ (α)			<i>(o)</i>		v
Mk 12:4	ἀπέστειλεν	$\dot{\alpha}\pi(o)$	$\boldsymbol{arepsilon}$		στε.λ			ι.($\sigma \alpha$)		εv
Mk 12:25	ἀνάστωσιν	$\dot{\alpha}v\alpha$			$\sigma \tau(\alpha)$			ω		$\sigma i v$
Mk 12:33	$\dot{\alpha}\gamma \alpha\pi\hat{\alpha}v$				$\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\pi(\alpha)$			(ε)		$(\varepsilon)v$
Mk 12:36	$\theta\hat{\omega}$				$\theta(\varepsilon)$			ω		Ø
Mk 14:58	καταλύσω	κατα			λυ		σ	0		L
Lk 1:38	γένοιτο				γεν			0	ι	το
Lk 9:12	καταλύσωσιν	κατα			λυ			$\sigma(\alpha)/\omega$		$\sigma \iota v$
Lk 14:14	άνταποδοθήσεται	άνταπο	0		δo	$\theta\eta$	σ	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		$ au lpha \iota$
Lk 22:68	ἀποκριθῆτε	$\dot{\alpha}\pi o$			κρι	$\theta(\varepsilon)$		η		auarepsilon
Lk 23:18	ἀπόλυσον	$\dot{lpha}\pi o$			λυ			$\sigma(\alpha)$		ov
Jn 14:28	<i>ἠγάπατε</i>		L		$\dot{\alpha}\gamma\alpha\pi(\alpha)$			(ε)		auarepsilon
Jn 15:13	$\dot{ heta}\hat{\eta}$				$\theta(\varepsilon)$			η		ı
Jn 19:26	παρεστώτα	$\pi\alpha\rho(\alpha)$	ϵ		$\sigma \tau(\alpha)$			(o)τ		α
Ac 3:13	<i>ἀπολύειν</i>	$\dot{\alpha}\pi o$			λυ			(ε)		(ε)v
Ac 5:8	ἀπέδοσθε	$\dot{\alpha}\pi(o)$	$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$		δo			Ø		$\sigma \theta \varepsilon$
Ac 5:36	διελύθησαν	$\delta\iota(\alpha)$	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		λυ	$\theta\eta$		Ø		$\sigma \alpha v$
Ac 8:7	παραλελυμένοι	παρα		$\lambda arepsilon$	λυ			Ø	μεν	oi
Ac 15:26	παραδεδωκόσι	παρα		$\delta arepsilon$	$\delta \omega$			$\kappa(\alpha)$	$O(\tau)$	$\sigma\iota$
Ac 15:30	ἀποθέντες	$\dot{\alpha}\pi o$			heta arepsilon			Ø	$v\tau$	$\varepsilon\varsigma$
Ac 16:36	ἀπέσταλκαν	$\dot{\alpha}\pi(o)$		ε	$\sigma \tau \alpha \lambda$			κα		ν
Ac 16:36	$\dot{lpha}\pi$ ολυ $ heta$ ητ $arepsilon$	$\dot{\alpha}\pi o$			λυ	$\theta(\varepsilon)$		η		auarepsilon
Ac 26:32	ἀπολελύσθαι	$\dot{\alpha}\pi o$		$\lambda arepsilon$	λυ			Ø	$\sigma \theta$	$\alpha \iota$
Ac 26:32	ἐπεκέκλητο	$\dot{\varepsilon}\pi(\iota)$	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$	$\kappa \varepsilon$	κλη			Ø		τo
Ac 28:25	<i>ἀπελύοντο</i>	$\dot{\alpha}\pi(o)$	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		λυ			0		ντο
1 Cor 7:3	<i>ἀποδιδότω</i>	$\dot{lpha}\pi o$			$\delta\iota\delta o$			Ø		$ au\omega$
2 Cor 5:1	καταλυθῆ	κατα			λυ	$\theta(\varepsilon)$		η		ι
2 Cor 7:15	ἀναμιμνησκομένο	υ ἀνα			μιμνησκ	c		0	μεν	ov
Gal 2:18	κατέλυσα	κατ(α)	$oldsymbol{arepsilon}$		λυ			$\sigma \alpha$		Ø
Eph 1:6	<i>ἠγαπημέν</i> ῳ			L	$\dot{lpha}\gammalpha\pi\eta$			Ø	μεν	$\boldsymbol{\omega}$
Heb 3:5	λαληθησομένων				λαλη	$\theta\eta$	σ	0	$\mu \varepsilon v$	ωv
1 Pet 4:19	παρατιθέσθωσαν	$\pi \alpha \rho \alpha$			$ au\iota hetaarepsilon$			Ø	$\sigma\theta$	ωσαν
1 Jn 4:10	ἠγαπήκαμεν	•		L	άγαπη			κα		$\mu \varepsilon v$
Jude 2	πληθυνθείη				π λη θ υν	$\theta \varepsilon$		Ø	ιη	Ø

E6. ACCENTS

E6.1 GENERAL PRINCIPLES

E6.11 A brief acquaintance with the basic principles of accentuation can enable the student to profit from time to time from the information which accents provide. A fuller treatment than given here is not needed at Beginners/Intermediate level, but will be found in any advanced Greek grammar.

- **E6.12** The accent was not intended to mark stress or emphasis (unlike in English), but tone. The acute accent (') marked a rising tone, the grave accent (') a falling tone, and the circumflex ($^{\uparrow}$, $^{\uparrow}$, or $^{\sim}$) a rising and then falling tone (a combination of acute and grave).
- **E6.13** Under normal circumstances, every Greek word carries an accent, except for clitics (#E6.3), which function as part of an adjoining word.
- **E6.14** The position of an accent is determined in relation to the end of a word. Whereabouts on a word that an accent can stand will depend upon whether the last vowel of the word is short or long. Short vowels (including diphthongs) are: α , ι , and υ (when short); $\alpha\iota$ and $o\iota$ when final (except in the optative); ε and o (always). Long vowels are α , ι , and υ (when long); η , ω , and the other diphthongs.
- **E6.15** No accent can be placed earlier in a word than the third-last syllable if the last syllable is short, or the second-last syllable if the last vowel is long.
- **E6.16** A circumflex can stand only on a diphthong or a long vowel (thus a circumflex indicates that the vowel over which it is placed is long); an acute or grave can stand on any vowel or diphthong, long or short.
- **E6.17** When the last vowel of a word is short and the second last vowel is long, the latter, if accented, must carry a circumflex. Thus: $\lambda \hat{v}\varepsilon$, $\mathring{\omega}\delta\varepsilon$, $\lambda \hat{v}\sigma\alpha$, $\alpha \mathring{i}\rho\varepsilon$, $\mathring{\eta}\rho\alpha v$, $\lambda \hat{v}\sigma\sigma v$; but $\mathring{\omega}\rho\alpha$, $\mathring{\alpha}\rho\alpha\zeta$, $\mathring{\omega}v\varepsilon$.

E6.2 ACCENT AND POSITION

When the accent falls on: E6.21 The last vowel, E6.22 Short 2nd last vowel, E6.23 Long 2nd last vowel, E6.24 The third last vowel,	If last vowel is long: it may be ^ or '(`) it must be ' it must be ' (syllable cannot have it) Exception: πόλεως πόλεων.	If last vowel is short: it must be ^ or '(') it must be ' it must be ^ (#E6.17) it must be '
--	--	--

- **E6.25** When the acute (') falls on the last syllable of a word, if that word is followed by another accented word without any punctuation intervening, the acute changes to the grave ('). Thus: $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \omega \ \gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho \ \acute{\nu} \mu \imath \nu \ (L5/B1)$, but $\epsilon \imath \mu \dot{\nu} \ \gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$. (L8/B3); and: $\tau \dot{\nu} \nu \ \nu \dot{\nu} \mu \nu \nu \ (L4/B18)$, but $\tau \dot{\nu} \nu \ \pi \sigma \tau \varepsilon$ (see #E6.32; L4/B13). Exception: interrogative $\tau i \varsigma$, τi ("who, what") does not change its acute to a grave. The only time a grave accent is *written* is when it replaces an acute in accordance with this rule; but a grave accent is *regarded as notionally present* upon every vowel which does not bear another accent.
- **E6.26** When contraction occurs, if the first of the contracting vowels carried an acute, then this 'combines with the notional 'on the second of the contracting vowels to form '(that is, ', a circumflex) on the contracted vowel. Thus $\lambda\alpha\lambda\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon\tau\epsilon$ contracts to $\lambda\alpha\lambda\epsilon\acute{\epsilon}\tau\epsilon$, and $\kappa\rho\imath\nu\acute{\epsilon}\omega$ contracts to $\kappa\rho\imath\nu\acute{\omega}$ (the future active only distinguishable by this accent from $\kappa\rho\imath\nu\omega$, the present active).
- **E6.27** Nouns and adjectives have *constant accents*: in all the various cases the accent remains upon the same syllable as in the nominative singular, unless it is pulled towards the end of the word by a long vowel or affected by contraction. Thus: ανθρωπος, ανθρωπον, but ανθρώπων (because of #Ε6.23, #Ε6.24); καρδία, καρδία, but καρδιῶν (contraction of καρδιάων, in accordance with #Ε6.26).
- **E6.28** Verbs have *regressive accents*: the accent goes back as early in the word as the rules allow. Thus $\lambda \dot{\nu}\omega$, ἐλύομεν, ἔλυον, ἀπόλυσον, ἄπαγε. But the accent cannot go back beyond an augment or reduplication: ἢλθον and ἐξῆλθον (not "ἔξηλθον"); ἦρκεν and ἐπῆκεν, not "ἔπηρκεν"). Exceptions to the regressive accent rule: the infinitive, participle, imperative.

E6.3 CLITICS

E6.31 Some words are *clitics*, a term meaning they "lean on" another word. They are of two kinds: the *enclitic*, which "leans on" the word which it follows; and the *proclitic*, a *clitic* which is $\pi\rho o$, "in front of", the word with which it is associated.

E6.32 An enclitic is pronounced as if it were a part of the word which precedes it (with the consequence that an acute on the final vowel of that preceding word does not become a grave under #E6.25), and which throws its accent back on to that word if it can (so that that preceding word may in consequence have two accents).

E6.33 Enclitics are:

- (a) The singular of the oblique cases of the first and second person pronouns, $\mu\varepsilon$, μov , μot , and $\sigma\varepsilon$, σov , σot (#D6.3).
- (b) The indefinite pronoun $\tau \iota \zeta$, $\tau \iota$ in all its forms (#D6.6).

(c) The indefinite adverbs (#7.23): $\pi o \tau \dot{\epsilon}$, $\pi o \dot{\nu}$, $\pi o \theta \dot{\epsilon} v$, $\pi \dot{\omega} \varsigma$.

(d) The particles $\gamma \varepsilon$, "at least", $\tau \varepsilon$, "and/both", and $\tau o \iota$, "truly".

- (e) The present indicative flexion of $\varepsilon i\mu i$, "I am" (#1.95), except for the 2nd person singular, εi .
- (f) The present indicative flexion of $\phi \eta \mu i$, "I say" (#7.64), except for the second person singular, $\phi \hat{\eta} \zeta$ (which does not occur in the New Testament).

E6.34 The "throwing back" of the accent of the enclitic operates in this way:

(a) If the last syllable of the preceding word carries an acute, this does not change to a grave (#E6.32), and the enclitic's accent disappears. Thus: Ἐγώ εἰμι (L4/B12); ὁ ἀγαπητός μου (L4/B19).

(b) If the last syllable of the preceding word carries a circumflex, the enclitic's accent disappears. Thus: ἐξ ὑμῶν τινες (L4/B8), ὁ παῖς μου (L4/B19).

- (c) If the second-last syllable of the preceding word carries an acute, a monosyllabic enclitic's accent disappears. Thus: ἡ πίστις σου (L4/B21), ὀπίσω μου (L6/B4). (If the enclitic has two syllables, it retains its accent on its second syllable.)
- (d) If the second-last syllable of the preceding word carries a circumflex, the enclitic's acute is thrown back onto the last syllable of that word. Thus: σῶσόν με (L4/B1), πνεῦμά ἐστιν (L4/B8).
- (e) If the third-last syllable of the preceding word carries an acute, the enclitic's acute is thrown back onto the last syllable of that word. Thus: πιστεύετέ μοι (L4/B9), σέσωκέν σε (L4/B21).
- **E6.35** A *proclitic* is a monosyllabic word without an accent of its own, which is closely associated with the word which follows it (that is, it *collocates* with what follows it).

E6.36 Proclitics are:

- (a) The personal gender nominative forms of the article: \dot{o} , $\dot{\eta}$, $o\dot{i}$, $\alpha\dot{i}$.
- (b) The three monosyllabic prepositions commencing with epsilon: $\dot{\varepsilon}\kappa/\dot{\varepsilon}\xi$, $\dot{\varepsilon}i\zeta$, $\dot{\varepsilon}v$.
- (c) The conjunctions εi , "if", and $\omega \zeta$, "as, when".
 - (d) The negative adverb $o\dot{v}$, $o\dot{v}\kappa$, $o\dot{v}\chi$.
- **E6.37** All these proclitics commence with a vowel.
- **E6.38** A proclitic is accented when (and only when) it is followed by an enclitic. Thus: $\varepsilon \tilde{i} \tau \iota \zeta$ (L5/B5; L6/B4).
- **E6.39** When a clitic is emphatic it will be accented. Thus: \dot{o} προφήτης εἶ σύ; Οὔ. (L3/B30.)