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A CASE FOR THE TRADITIONAL TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION OF GENESIS 1:1 BASED UPON A MULTI-LEVELED LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of

The Southern Baptist Theological Seminary

In Partial Fulfillment
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Doctor of Philosophy

by

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APPROVAL SHEET

A CASE FOR THE TRADITIONAL TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION OF GENESIS 1:1 BASED UPON A MULTI-LEVELED LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

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Date 9/17/2010

To my God and Savior, Jesus Christ,
who lifted me up out of the pit of destruction
and set my feet upon a rock,
and to Sarah, my wife, my friend, my encourager,
without whom I could never have completed this project,
and to my parents, Bob, Kathie, and Jeanne, my mother-in-law,
who also made such sacrificial contributions for me on behalf of this project.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANF	The Ante-Nicene Fathers, ed. A Roberts and J. Donaldson (Buffalo: Christian Literature, 1885-96; reprint, Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1957)
BDAG	Bauer, W., F. W. Danker, W. F. Arndt, and F. W. Gingrich. <i>Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament and Other Early Christian Literature</i> . 3rd ed. Chicago 1999
BDB	F. Brown, S. R. Driver, and C. A. Briggs. <i>Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament</i> . Oxford, 1907
GKC	Gesenius' Hebrew Grammar. Edited by E. Kautzsch. Translated by A. E. Cowley. 2nd ed. Oxford, 1910
HALOT	Koehler, L., W. Baumgartner, and J. J. Stamm. <i>The Hebrew and Aramaic Lexicon of the Old Testament</i> . Translated and edited under the supervision of M. E. J. Richardson. 4 vols. Leiden, 1994-1999
IBHS	An Introduction to Biblical Hebrew Syntax. B. K. Waltke and M. O'Connor. Winona Lake, Indiana, 1990
Joüon	Joüon, P., and T. Muraoka, <i>A Grammar of Biblical Hebrew</i> . 2nd ed. Subsidia biblica 27. Rome, 2008
JPSV	Jewish Publication Society Version
LSJ	Liddell, H. G., R. Scott, H. S. Jones. <i>A Greek-English Lexicon</i> . 9th ed. with revised supplement. Oxford, 1996
NJPS	Tanakh: The Holy Scriptures: The New JPS Translation according to the Traditional Hebrew Text
NPNF2	A Select Library of the Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers of the Christian Church, 2nd series, ed. P. Schaff et al. (New York: Christian Literature, 1887-94; reprint, Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1957)
Sonc. Talm.	The Soncino Talmud, ed. I. Epstein. Limited Anniversary Edition. (London: The Soncino Press, 1978)

PREFACE

I could not have completed this project without the help of others. I am very thankful to my advisor, Russell Fuller, who turned me onto the issues surrounding the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1. They are linguistically oriented so as to play to my strengths, but they also relate to important issues in Christian theology. I was originally stuck in a year-long rut contemplating a dissertation on the Hebrew verb of being, which was drudgery in that it made no significant contributions to Evangelical thought. I would never have finished a project like this on the Hebrew verb of being.

I also want to thank my wife, Sarah, who has sacrificed so much for me during this process. She has lost her father, birthed four children (all boys), moved twice, and spent many nights without her husband. Amidst all of this, she always pushed me to continue my work even in the many moments when I doubted I could. I would not have finished this project without her unwavering support. God has truly blessed me with her.

Most importantly, I want to give all glory and praise for this work to my God and Savior, Jesus Christ. At the end of this road, I can look back and see the Hand of Providence as He has guided me through some difficult times, ensuring that this work would be completed. I can take no credit or praise; this work is His, and I am blessed to have been a part of it.

Joshua D. Wilson

St. Louis, Missouri

August 2010

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Context of the Issue

Genesis 1:1, בְּרֵאשִׁית בְּרָא אֱלֹהִים אֵת הַשְּׁמֵים וְאֵת הָאָרִץ: "In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth." Genesis 1:1 is one of the most well-known verses of the Bible because it starts with the beginning of all things. Since Genesis 1:1 narrates and describes the beginning of the creation event, its translation and interpretation have a strong influence upon a reader's epistemology, philosophy, and theology. The creation theologies of various scholars today display this influence especially with respect to their views on the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*.

The doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* has been the foundation of creation theology in the Christian church for many centuries, and Genesis 1:1 has been the cornerstone verse.³ Even in this modern era, scholars continue to use this passage as the first and main verse in their defense of the doctrine. In his *Systematic Theology* Grudem states,

The Bible clearly requires us to believe that God created the universe out of nothing. (Sometimes the Latin phrase *ex nihilo*, "out of nothing" is used; it is then said that the Bible teaches creation *ex nihilo*.) This means that before God began to create the universe, nothing else existed except God himself.

This is the implication of Genesis 1:1, which says, "In the beginning God

¹All biblical citations from the original languages, including the passages from the Apocrypha and Pseudepigripha, are provided by *BibleWorks 6.0*. [CD ROM] (2003).

²Unless specified, all translations are this author's own.

³Irenaeus (2nd cent.) is one of the earliest church fathers to use Gen 1:1 to argue that God created the world *ex nihilo*. See Irenaeus *Adversus haereses* 2.10.4. A case might be made that the Shepherd of Hermas (1st cent.) utilized Genesis 1:1 in this manner as well. See Shepherd of Hermas *Mandate* 1.1.1.

created the heavens and the earth."4

Also Feinberg, in his work *No One Like Him*, focuses extensively on Genesis 1:1 to express a similar sentiment. Consider this excerpt:

While it is not absolutely impossible that God created prior to Genesis 1, there is no evidence that this is so. Thus, if Gen 1:1 is the start of God's creative activity, it seems that this initial creative act was done *ex nihilo*. The verse says he created the heavens and the earth, a typical Hebrew way to refer to all there is. But if in the beginning God created everything, nothing could have existed before Gen 1:1 from which to make the heavens and the earth.⁵

However, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is not just important for a theology of creation. It is also important for theology proper as well. Without the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*, the potential exists that God is a lesser being than first perceived. Grudem goes on to state,

However, were we to deny creation out of nothing, we would have to say that some matter has always existed and that it is eternal like God. This idea would challenge God's independence, his sovereignty, and the fact that worship is due to him alone: if matter existed apart from God, then what inherent right would God have to rule over it and use it for his glory? And what confidence could we have that every aspect of the universe will ultimately fulfill God's purposes, if some parts of it were not created by him?⁶

Even Tertullian saw this dilemma many centuries earlier. He states,

For when [Hermogenes] denies that Matter was born or made, I find that, even on these terms, the title Lord is unsuitable to God in respect of Matter, because it must have been free, when by not having a beginning it had not an author. The fact of its past existence it owed to no one, so that it could be subject to no one.⁷

If the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is so important to the theology of God, and if Genesis 1:1 is so foundational to the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*, then a proper translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 are necessary and vital for a correct theological

⁴Wayne Grudem, *Systematic Theology: An Introduction to Biblical Doctrine* (Leicester, England: Inter-Varsity Press; Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House, 1994), 262–63.

⁵John S. Feinberg, *No One Like Him: The Doctrine of God*, Foundations of Evangelical Theology (Wheaton: Crossway Books, Good News Publishers, 2001), 554.

⁶Grudem, Systematic Theology, 264.

⁷Tertullian *Against Hermogenes* 3, trans. D. Holmes, ANF 3:479.

understanding of the Creator God.

For many centuries a traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 have led Christian and Jewish scholars to conclude that God created the world out of nothing. According to this tradition, Genesis 1:1 introduces God's first creative act with an independent main clause. Genesis 1:2 then describes this first creative act as being in an incomplete state. The rest of the Genesis narrative then describes how God shaped, molded, and added to that initial creation. The narrative then culminates with God's consummation of the complete and ordered universe. Since the Genesis narrative does not describe anything as being in existence before the initial creation other than God, many interpreters have logically concluded that God created the world from nothing. Although it is not explicitly stated, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is inherent in the Genesis 1 text. This is the logical and theological conclusion of the traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1.8 Again, the translation renders Genesis 1:1 as an independent main clause, and the interpretation makes Genesis 1:1 the first creative act. Within this last century, however, the traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 have been rigorously questioned.

The Dependent-Clause Translation

Many influences have caused a large number of modern scholars to argue that Genesis 1:1 should not be rendered with an independent main clause. First, nearly a thousand years ago, Rashi and Ibn Ezra, two Medieval Jewish scholars, argued that

⁸Many scholars of varying positions refer to this reading of the passage as the traditional translation and interpretation. See John Skinner, *A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on Genesis*, 2nd ed., The International Critical Commentary (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1951), 13; Kenneth A. Matthews, *Genesis 1–11:26*, The New American Commentary, vol. 1A (Nashville: Broadman and Holman Publishers, 1996), 141; Nahum M. Sarna, *Genesis*, in *The JPS Torah Commentary*, ed. Nahum M. Sarna and Chaim Potok (Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society, 1989), 5; Bruce K. Waltke, "The Creation Account in Genesis 1:1–3, Part III: The Initial Chaos Theory and the Precreation Chaos Theory," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 132, no. 527 (July 1975): 217. Westermann, however, contends that this interpretation is not traditional. See Claus Westermann, *Genesis 1–11: A Commentary*, trans. John J. Scullion (Minneapolis: Augsburg Publishing House, 1990), 95.

Genesis 1:1 should be understood as a dependent temporal clause.⁹ Their understanding of the passage, however, was not widely adopted. However, centuries later, when the Babylonian creation account *Enûma Elish* was first published (1875). 10 scholars noted the thematic similarities between it and the creation account in Genesis 1. They also noted that much like Rashi's and Ibn Ezra's reading of Genesis 1:1, the creation account of Enûma Elish also starts with a dependent temporal clause, "When on high "11 Later scholars concluded that the Babylonian creation account was the thematic and grammatical influence behind the Genesis creation narrative, and that like Enûma Elish, Genesis 1:1 should also begin with a dependent temporal clause. ¹² Furthermore, with the popularization and adoption of the compositional theories of the Pentateuch, scholars began to argue that the creation accounts in Genesis 1:1-2:4a and 2:4b-2:25 were the products of two sources, separated by hundreds of years. Genesis 2:4b-2:25 was the product of the earlier Yahwist source, and Genesis 1:1-2:4a was the product of the later Priestly source. 13 Again scholars noted that the earlier Yahwist account also starts with a dependent temporal clause in Genesis 2:4b, and they concluded that Genesis 1:1 should start in the same manner. 14 Thus, because of the thematically similar creation accounts of

⁹Rashi, Genesis, in Pentateuch: With Targum Onkelos, Haphtorah and Prayers for Sabbath and Rashi's Commentary, trans. M. Rosenbaum and A. M. Silbermann (London: Shapiro, Vallentine & Co., 1946), 2; Ibn Ezra, Genesis, vol. 1 of Ibn Ezra's Commentary on the Pentateuch, trans. H. Norman Strickman and Arthur M. Silver (New York: Menorah Publishing Company, Inc., 1998), 22.

¹⁰This is the date of the first published translation by George Smith. See Alexander Heidel, *The Babylonian Genesis: The Story of Creation*, 2nd ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1951), 2.

¹¹Heidel, Babylonian Genesis, 18.

¹²See E. A. Speiser, *Genesis*, The Anchor Bible (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1964), 9–10.

¹³See Hermann Gunkel, *Genesis*, trans. Mark E. Biddle, Mercer Library of Biblical Studies (Macon, GA: Mercer University Press, 1997), 1; Skinner, *Genesis*, 1–2; Speiser, *Genesis*, LIV; Westermann, *Genesis* 1–11, 18.

¹⁴See Skinner, *Genesis*, 14; Speiser, *Genesis*, 12.

the Yahwist and *Enûma Elish*, the divergent explanations of Rashi and Ibn Ezra, and the urging of sympathetic scholars, a few modern Bible translations changed the Genesis 1:1 text of previous editions from an independent main clause to a dependent temporal clause. The following traditions show this translational change:¹⁵

Protestant Translational Tradition

¹In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth. ²The earth was without form and void, and darkness was upon the face of the deep; and the Spirit of God was moving over the face of the waters. ³And God said, "Let there be light" (RSV - 1952)

¹In the beginning when God created the heavens and the earth, ²the earth was a formless void and darkness covered the face of the deep, while a wind from God swept over the face of the waters. ³Then God said, "Let there be light" (NRSV - 1989)

Jewish Translational Tradition

¹IN THE beginning God created the heaven and the earth. ²Now the earth was unformed and void, and darkness was upon the face of the deep; and the spirit of God hovered over the face of the waters. ³And God said: 'Let there be light.' (JPS - 1917)

¹When God began to create heaven and earth⁻²the earth being unformed and void, with darkness over the surface of the deep and a wind from God sweeping over the water⁻³God said, "Let there be light" (NJPS - 1985)

Catholic Translational Tradition

¹In the beginning God created heaven, and earth. ²And the earth was void and empty, and darkness was upon the face of the deep; and the spirit of God moved over the waters. ³And God said: Be light made. (DRA - 1899)¹⁶

¹⁵With respect to these translations, it is interesting to note that the change in the rendering of Gen 1:1 did not take place until after the 1960s. Rashi's and Ibn Ezra's alternate translations were in existence for a number of centuries; *Enûma Elish* was first published in 1875; Wellhausen's *Die Komposition des Hexateuch* was published in 1876. The early scholars of each version's tradition had access to these data prior to the publication of their translations, yet these influences are not reflected in the earlier translations. Furthermore, the 1917 JPS rendering of the first two words of Gen 1:1, all capital letters, seems to be a direct repudiation of the grammatical explanations of Rashi and Ibn Ezra.

¹⁶This is the Douay-Rheims American Edition (DRA). Unlike the later NAB, the DRA is translated mostly from the Vg rather than Hebrew and Greek manuscripts. See F. F. Bruce, *The English Bible: A History of Translations from the Earliest English Versions to the New English Bible*, new and revised ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1970), 113.

¹In the beginning, when God created the heavens and the earth, ²the earth was a formless wasteland, and darkness covered the abyss, while a mighty wind swept over the waters. ³Then God said, "Let there be light," (NAB - 1970)

This change in translation produces a change in interpretation. No longer is Genesis 1:1 the first act of creation. Rather, Genesis 1:1, along with 1:2, becomes a description of the context in which the first act of creation takes place: the creation of light in Genesis 1:3.¹⁷ According to this interpretation then, the elements of Genesis 1:2 were already present before God began creating. Thus, one can logically conclude that since these elements, which God utilized in his later work of creation, were in existence before God created, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is *not* inherent in the text.

The Summary-Statement Interpretation

Other scholars argue that Genesis 1:1 should remain an independent clause. However, rather than interpreting the verse as the first act of creation, they argue that it should be interpreted as an introductory summary or title of the entire creation narrative. In this proposal, the translation of Genesis 1:1 remains traditional, but the interpretation does not. Scholars of this summary-statement interpretation argue that a semantic discontinuity exists between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2.

These scholars explain this semantic discontinuity from two different, yet compatible, perspectives. One perspective focuses on the phrase אַת הַשְּׁמֵים וְאֵת הָאָרֶץ in Genesis 1:1. Scholars argue that because the phrase is always used in the Hebrew Bible as a merism describing the complete and ordered universe, and because Genesis 1:2 is a description of the earth in an incomplete and unordered state, then Genesis 1:2 cannot logically be a description of the product created in Genesis 1:1. Other scholars go so far

¹⁷For an early treatment of this view, see Skinner, *Genesis*.

¹⁸Franz Delitzsch was among the first modern scholars to argue this position. See Delitzsch, *A New Commentary on Genesis*, vol. 1, trans. Sophia Taylor (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1888), 72–81.

¹⁹Gunkel, Genesis, 103; S. R. Driver, The Book of Genesis, 2nd ed., Westminster

as to argue that the merismic phrase takes on a tertiary meaning that distinguishes it from the meaning of its two individual words.²⁰ Thus, a semantic discontinuity exists between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2, and only the summary-statement interpretation can solve the dilemma and maintain the integrity of the traditional translation.

The other perspective focuses on the description of the earth in Genesis 1:2. According to many of these same scholars, Genesis 1:2 is a description of a chaos that is contrary to creation. God cannot create something that is contrary to creation. Such a notion does not make sense; it is a logical contradiction.²¹ Because of this dilemma the chaotic scene of Genesis 1:2 cannot be a description of the product created in Genesis 1:1 either. Thus, again, a semantic discontinuity exists between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2, and again, only the summary-statement interpretation can solve this dilemma and maintain the integrity of the traditional translation.²²

Like the proponents of the dependent-clause translation, however, proponents of the summary-statement interpretation do not reckon Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of

Commentaries (London: Methuen & Co., 1904), 3.

²⁰Bruce K. Waltke, An Old Testament Theology: An Exegetical, Canonical, and Thematic Approach (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2007), 179. The TEV takes this view further and translates Gen 1:1 as "In the beginning, when God created the universe." Of course as a whole, the TEV renders Gen 1:1 with a dependent clause.

²¹Gunkel, *Genesis*, 103; Brevard S. Childs, *Myth and Reality in the Old Testament*, Studies in Biblical Theology (Chatham, England: W. & J. MacKay & Co Ltd, 1960; Naperville, IL: Alec R. Allenson, Inc., 1960), 42; Gerhard von Rad, *Genesis: A Commentary*, 2nd ed., rev., trans. John H. Marks, The Old Testament Library (London: SCM Press Ltd, 1963), 49.

²²The two perspectives are neither exclusive nor incompatible. Rather, they offer two different means for achieving the same goal: semantic discontinuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2. Since both perspectives are compatible, some scholars use both to argue for semantic discontinuity. See Gunkel, *Genesis*, 103; Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 217–21. However, others scholars are still able to achieve semantic discontinuity by arguing for one perspective and against the other. For example Young, in order to defend the summary-statement interpretation, argues that the phrase, "heavens and earth" in Gen 1:1 is a description of the complete and ordered universe. See Edward J. Young, "The Relation of the First Verse of Genesis One to Verses Two and Three," *Westminster Theological Journal* 21 (1958): 142. However, he argues against interpreting Gen 1:2 as a description of a chaos contrary to creation. See ibid., 144–45.

creation. According to this reading, the phrase "in the beginning" is not a reference to a specific point in time before creation, and it does not temporally precede Genesis 1:2. Rather, "in the beginning" is a description of the context in which all of creation takes place, and Genesis 1:2 is a description of the context prior to the first act of creation: the creation of light in Genesis 1:3. Speaking of Genesis 1:1, Waltke states, "If verse 1 is a summary, then 'in the beginning' must refer to the first six days of creation, not time prior to creation. The six days constitute 'the beginning.'" Commenting on Genesis 1:2, he states, "The negative state of the earth reflects a situation in which the earth is not producing life. Chronologically, this must describe the state of the earth prior to verse 1..." Thus again, light is interpreted as the first act of creation, and there is no explanation for the origin of the elements in Genesis 1:2. Since the elements of Genesis 1:2 were already in existence when God began to create, elements which God utilized in his work of creation, then the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is *not* inherent in the text.

Implications of Translation and Interpretation

The dependent-clause translation and the summary-statement interpretation of Genesis 1:1 can offer no explanation for the origin of the elements in Genesis 1:2. Thus, if the text does not say that God created them, then those same elements were already in existence before He created the world. Wenham states, "Theologically these different translations are of great consequence, for apart from #4[, the traditional translation and interpretation], the translations all presuppose the existence of chaotic pre-existent matter

²³Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 180 See also James Barr, "Was Everything That God Created Really Good?" in *God in the Fray: A Tribute to Walter Brueggeman*, ed. Tod Linafelt and Timothy K. Beal (Minneapolis: Fortress Press, 1998), 58.

²⁴Bruce K. Waltke, *Genesis: A Commentary* (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2001), 60. The two excerpts from Waltke further demonstrate the semantic discontinuity between Gen 1:1 and 1:2. Gen 1:2 temporally precedes the time frame of Gen 1:1. Thus, there is also a temporal discontinuity between the two verses.

²⁵For an early treatment of this interpretation, see Driver, *Genesis*; Gunkel, *Genesis*.

before the work of creation began."²⁶ Naturally then, this change in translation and interpretation causes most proponents of either view to reject the longstanding tradition that the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is an inherent feature of the Genesis 1 narrative.²⁷

Unfortunately, no verse is more central to the overall doctrine than Genesis 1:1, and consequently, no verse is more central to the theology of God. Without any explanation of the origin of the elements in Genesis 1:2, the dependent-clause translation and the summary-statement interpretation leave open the possibility that the coexistence of *eternal* matter with God is a theological concept inherent in the Genesis 1 narrative.²⁸ Brown aptly states,

The vigor with which both ancient and modern commentators have argued opposing positions betrays the fact that more than simply syntactical precision is at stake; there are also deep-seated theological conflicts over the way in which God is to be viewed in relation to the cosmos.²⁹

Once this center-piece verse has been removed, the foundation for the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* erodes quickly, and opposing scholars are free to reinterpret other creation passages³⁰ and create new theologies of creation and of God.³¹

²⁶Gordon J. Wenham, *Genesis 1–15*, Word Biblical Commentary, vol. 1 (Waco: Word Books, Publisher, 1987), 11.

²⁷The proponents of the dependent-clause translation who reject the idea that *creatio ex nihilo* is a logical and theological inference of the Genesis 1 narrative are the following: Skinner, *Genesis*, 15; Paul Humbert, "Trois Notes Sur Genese 1," *Norsk Teologisk Tidsskrift* 56 (1955): 88; Harry Orlinsky, foreword to *Genesis: The N. J. V. Translation* (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Harper Torch Books; Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, The Temple Library, 1966), xv; William P. Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology in the Hebrew and Greek Texts of Genesis* 1:1–2:3, Dissertation Series/Society of Biblical Literature, no. 132 (Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1993), 72. The proponents of the summary-statement interpretation who reject the idea that *creatio ex nihilo* is a logical and theological inference of the Genesis 1 narrative are the following: Delitzsch, *Genesis*, 79; Gunkel, *Genesis*, 104; Westermann, *Genesis* 1–11, 109; Barr, "Was Everything That God Created," 59–60; Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 180.

²⁸This does not mean that all proponents of either view believe such is inherent in the narrative.

²⁹Brown, Structure, Role, and Ideology, 62.

³⁰Consider for example Waltke, whose summary-statement interpretation of Gen 1:1 causes him to reinterpret other creation passages also foundational to the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*. With

Translation affects interpretation; interpretation affects theology. The translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 shape scholars' theologies of creation and, whether knowingly or unknowingly, their theologies of God. With these theological implications on the line and with the translations of modern Bibles at stake, a proper translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is vital. Scholars and readers of the Bible have been left with many unsettled questions: Is Genesis 1:1 a dependent clause or an independent main clause? Is Genesis 1:1 a summary of the creation narrative or a narration of the first creative act? Are the elements in Genesis 1:2 chaotic? A serious and new investigation of these issues is requisite.

Thesis

This dissertation argues that although Genesis 1:1 has been translated and interpreted in differing ways, the traditional translation and interpretation of the verse are more faithful to the principles of Classical-Hebrew linguistics.

Methodology

In order to prove the stated thesis, this dissertation utilizes multi-leveled linguistic analyses that follow a straightforward methodological order. In the dissertation as a whole, the linguistic analysis of Genesis 1:1's translation methodologically precedes the linguistic analysis of its interpretation. In the individual chapters, the linguistic

respect to John 1:1-3 and Heb 11:3 he states, "When the writer of Hebrews says, 'the universe was formed at God's command' (11:3), he must have excluded the dark abyss [Gen 1:2], for it existed apart from and before God's commands. John says, 'Through [the Word (Jesus Christ)] all things were made' (John 1:3), but are darkness and the abyss [Gen 1:2] ever conceptualized as 'made' in the Bible? The inspired author of Job represents the primeval sea as bursting forth from the womb of the earth and God as wrapping the sea in thick darkness (Job 38:8-9), but no clear biblical text testifies to the origins of chaos [Gen 1:2] or of the Serpent, nor to the reason for their existence." Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 180–81.

³¹Naturally, if such a foundational verse as Gen 1:1 requires retranslation and reinterpretation, then a reinterpretation of other creation passages and a modification of older theologies is a necessary outcome. However, considering the theological implications, this retranslation or reinterpretation of Gen 1:1 must withstand the utmost scrutiny before traditional interpreters and theologians can be expected to change their views.

analyses start at the most basic level of investigation: the lexical level, which methodologically precedes the grammatical level, which then methodologically precedes the syntactical level. Thus, Chapter 2 presents a brief, introductory history of the translation, interpretation, and theology of Genesis 1:1. Chapter 3 presents a multileveled linguistic analysis of the translation of Genesis 1:1. Chapter 4 presents a multileveled linguistic analysis of the interpretation of Genesis 1:1. Lastly, Chapter 5 concludes the dissertation.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORY OF INTERPRETATION

Introduction

This chapter examines the history of the translation, interpretation, and theology of Genesis 1:1 from the time of the Old Testament writings to the period of the Reformation. While this examination is by no means exhaustive, it does give the reader a sense of how "traditional" the traditional translation and interpretation are. It also gives the reader a sense of how the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* has been historically tied to Genesis 1:1. Even though many past scholars have dealt with the theological issues concerning the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*, this chapter has avoided any such discussions that do not proceed from a direct interpretation of the verse.

The Hebrew Old Testament

There are a plethora of Old Testament passages that deal with the creation of the world, and many can be interpreted to fit certain creation perspectives. However, only the passages which offer clues into the translation, interpretation, and theology of Genesis 1:1 are analyzed.

Psalm 104:5-9

Psalm 104:5-9 undoubtedly draws from a particular interpretation of Genesis 1:1. It states the following:

יְּסֵד־אָבֶץ עַל־מְכוֹנְיֶהָ בַּל־תִּמוֹט עוֹלָם וָעֶד: חְהוֹם כַּלְבִוּשׁ כִּפִּיתִוֹ עַל־דָּרִים יַצַמְדוּ־מָיִם: מוֹדּצְעָרָתְרָ יְנוּסְוּן מִן־קוֹל רַעַמְרָ יָחָפֵזְוּן: יַּצְלָוּ הָרִים יֵרְדַּוּ בְקָעִוֹת אֶל־מְלִוֹם זֶהַוּ יָסַׁדְתָּ לָהֶם: גֵבוּל־שֻׁמְתָּ בַּלּ-יִצְבֹרָוּן בַּל־יְשׁוּבוּוּן לְכַפְּוֹת הָאָרֶץ: גֵבוּל־שִׁמְתָּ בַּלּ-יִצְבֹרָוּן בַּל־יִשׁוּבוּוּן לְכַפְּוֹת הָאָרֶץ: ⁵He established the earth upon its foundations, it will not be moved forever.

⁶He has covered it with the deep like a garment, the waters were standing above the mountains. ¹

⁷From your rebuke they fled, from the voice of your thunder they ran away.

⁸The mountains went up, the valleys went down to the place you established for them.

⁹You have set a boundary that they will not pass over, they will not cover the earth again.

Psalm 104:5-6 describe the creation of the earth prior to its appearance from out of the deep and prior to the bounding of the waters in 104:7-9. The author's parallelism of מִלִּם and מַלִּם in 104:6 matches the parallelism of מֵלִם in Genesis 1:2, and the description of the waters standing over all the earth matches the description of the primordial watery state of the earth in Genesis 1:2. Psalm 104:7-9 then seem to be parallel to Genesis 1:9-10 where the earth first appears and the waters are bound up in the sea.

There are three important, interpretive implications with this passage. First, the parallelism in vocabulary and semantic content makes it likely that the author is drawing from the first chapter of Genesis and redescribing that creation event in his own poetic style and order.² Second, the author describes the creation of the earth as a separate and distinct event that is prior to the placement of the deep upon it and prior to its appearance out of the deep. Third, because the author claims that God placed the upon the earth after its creation,³ he most likely interpreted the elements in Genesis 1:2 as

The first clause of this verse has some grammatical difficulty because the pronominal suffix of the verb is masculine, but its alleged antecedent, אֶּבֶץ, is feminine. Hakham explains the dilemma as a case of attraction since the immediately preceding word לְבוּלִישׁ is masculine. See Amos Hakham, Psalm 101–150, vol. 3 of Psalms, The Koschitzky ed., The Bible with the Jerusalem Commentary (Jerusalem: Mosad Harav Kook, 2003), 38 n. 8b. Whatever the explanation, almost all modern translations agree that אֶבֶיץ is the antecedent of the pronominal suffix in 104:6.

²For a list of scholars that argue for a linkage between Gen 1 and Ps 104, see Leslie C. Allen, *Psalms 101–150*, World Biblical Commentary, vol. 21 (Waco: Word Books, Publisher, 1983), 30–31.

³Waltke, a proponent of the summary-statement interpretation, originally interpreted verse 6 of the passage to be a description of the flood of Noah. See Bruce K. Waltke, "The Creation Account in Genesis 1:1–3, Part V: The Theology of Genesis 1 - Continued," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 133, no. 529 (January 1976): 35. However, in his later commentary on Proverbs and in his recent theological work, Waltke has

parts of God's creation.⁴ Based on these observations, the biblical author seems to have interpreted Genesis 1:1 similarly to the traditional interpretation where the incomplete earth was one of God's first acts of creation.

Proverbs 8:22-26

Another important passage that looks back to Genesis 1:1 is Proverbs 8:22-26. The larger focus of the chapter is on wisdom, but the finer focus of this section is on wisdom's temporal placement in relationship to the creation of the world. It states the following:

22 הְנָנִי רֵאשִׁית דַּרְכָּוֹ אֶדֶם מִפְּעָלָיו מֵאָז: 23 מֵעוֹלָם נִפַּכְתִּי מֵרֹאשׁ מִקַּדְמֵי־אֶרֶץ: 24 בְּצִין־תְּהֹמְוֹת חוֹלָלְתִּי בְּאֵין מַעְיָנוֹת נִכְבַּדִּי־מָיִם: 25 בְּטֶרֵם הָרֵים הָטְבָּעוּ לִפְנֵי גְּכָעַוֹת חוֹלֵלְתִּי: 26 בִּדִילָא עֲשָׂה אֱרֵץ וְחוּצִוֹת וְרֹאשׁ עַפְּרָוֹת תַּבֵל:

Aside from the creation theme of the passage, keywords such as הַאשִׁית and indicate that the author is most likely drawing upon and expanding the literary concepts of Genesis 1:1ff.

In Proverbs 8:22, the word רֵאשִׁית, along with the semantically related words מַלְּבָּע, מֵעוֹלָם, מָאָז, מְנֵבְם in 8:22-23, quickly draws the mind of the reader back

²²The LORD possessed me at the beginning of his way, before his works of old. ²³From everlasting I have been established, from the beginning, from before the earth.

²⁴When there were no depths I was born, when there were no springs heavy with water.

²⁵Before the mountains were placed, before the hills I was born,

²⁶When He had not yet made the land and the fields and the first of the dust of the world.

corrected his original position and now acknowledges that verse 6 of this passage does refer to the state of the earth in Gen 1:2. See idem, *The Book of Proverbs: Chapters 1–15* (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 2004), 412; *An Old Testament Theology: An Exegetical, Canonical, and Thematic Approach* (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2007), 183.

⁴Hakham comments that 104:6 is an allusion to the first day of creation. See Hakham, *Psalms*, 38.

to the first word of Genesis 1:1, בְּרֵאשִׁית ⁵ The author of the proverb seems to expand upon his understanding of בְּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1, describing it as a time that *preceded* God's acts of creation in Genesis 1:1ff. Thus, the author has most likely interpreted in Genesis 1:1 to be a specific point in time that temporally preceded any act of creation.⁶

In Proverbs 8:23 there are two options for interpreting the word אֶּבֶיץ. It can either be the earth of Genesis 1:2 or merely the dry land named in Genesis 1:10. Proverbs 8:24-26, however, continue to describe wisdom's state of preexistence, which is set up in Proverbs 8:22-23, by giving a step-by-step process of the earth's creation that parallels the first chapter of Genesis. Proverbs 8:24-25 parallel the early watery and unformed state of the earth described in Genesis 1:2,7 and 8:26 parallels the appearance of the dry

⁵Garrett suggests that the manuscript evidence supports prefixing the preposition בראשית in Prov 8:22, thus strengthening the verse's parallel to Gen 1:1. See Duane Garrett, *Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Song of Songs*, The New American Commentary, vol. 14 (Nashville: Broadman Press, 2003), 108 n. 163.

⁶Again, this is contrary to the summary-statement interpretation. Waltke, a summary-statement proponent, writes, "If verse 1 is a summary, then 'in the beginning' must refer to the first six days of creation, not time prior to creation. The six days constitute 'the beginning." Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 180. Barr, another summary-statement proponent, also writes, "By option 3, [the summary-statement interpretation,] Gen 1:1 is a general statement of the total work of creation, prefixed to the entire detailed account. It does not tell of something that happened *before* the creation of light on the first day, but it is a summary of the entire creative activity from 1:3 up to 2:4a." James Barr, "Was Everything That God Created Really Good?" in *God in the Fray: A Tribute to Walter Brueggeman*, ed. Tod Linafelt and Timothy K. Beal (Minneapolis: Fortress Press, 1998), 58.

⁷Considering Waltke's interpretation of Genesis 1:1, his comments on this passage are most interesting. He states, "'Depths' (or floods, $t^eh\hat{o}m\hat{o}t$) may refer to the primeval abyss or to the present oceans and/or floods that reside below the earth. The reference to 'springs' in verset B favors the latter interpretation, but the parallel in 3:20 suggests the former. Perhaps no distinction is intended. The ocean floods or seas trace their origins back to the primeval depth or abyss ($t^eh\hat{o}m$) before it was split assunder (see 3:20). In Gen 1:1-3 the primeval depth was part of the earth before God's creative word intervened and transformed the chaos into the cosmos. Wisdom, however, preexisted this primordial depth and its remnants. Reymond denies this interpretation because according to him the idea that there was a time when the primeval deep did not exist is unparalleled in the Old Testament. Rather, he thinks, reference is made to 'springs,' as in Deut. 8:7. Each book of the Bible, however, should be allowed its own breath. The normal significance of 'depths' for the primordial body of water at the beginning of creation (Gen 1:2; Job 38:16; Pss. 33:7; 104:6; Prov 3:20) best suits this context featuring wisdom's existence prior to creation." Waltke, *Proverbs*, 412. Rabban Gamaliel also used this passage to argue, contrary to a philosopher's opinion, that God created the $t^eh\hat{o}m$ of Gen 1:2. See *Genesis Rabbah* 1.9.

and productive land described in Genesis 1:9-12. These findings suggest that the אֶּבֶץ in 8:23 should be understood as the earth of Genesis 1:2.

Another peculiarity of this passage is that the "works," מְּבְּעָרָי, described in 8:22 are in parallel with the "earth," in 8:23. The creation of the "earth," however, was not the only "work" which the LORD performed in Genesis 1. The author could have used some other term besides אָרֶי to be more encompassing of these "works." However, the focus of this section of the chapter is on the preexistence of wisdom. If Genesis 1:1 truly narrates the first act of creation, then the "earth" is one of the first "works" of creation. Furthermore, the first mention of existence in the Bible is of the "earth" in Genesis 1:2. Thus, the author of the proverb seems to draw from the creation language of Genesis 1:1-2 to show that wisdom preceded or preexisted the first of God's "works" and the first existence of the "earth" in Genesis 1:2.

There are two important implications concerning this analysis of the proverb. First, the author most likely interpreted בָּרֵאשׁית in Genesis 1:1, of which wisdom is a part, as a specific point in time. It is a *time when*, not a *time within which*. This point in time is prior to the act of creation and does not encompass it. Second, the author most likely interpreted this specific point in time to be temporally prior to Genesis 1:2. In Proverbs 8:22-26 the author describes this point in time as being before the watery, unformed state of the earth. Thus, if the author is linking the "not yet" state of Proverbs 8:24-26 with the earth, אָרֶץ, in Proverbs 8:23, then it would seem that he interpreted Genesis 1:2 as a description of an earth that was created in Genesis 1:1.

⁸This is Tsumura's description of the state of the earth in Gen 1:2. See David Toshio Tsumura, Creation and Destruction: A Reappraisal of the Choaskampf Theory in the Old Testament (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2005), 35.

The Septuagint

The Greek Translation of Genesis 1:1

After the final books of the Hebrew Bible had been completed, 70 Jewish scholars came together to translate the Hebrew text into Greek (285-247 BC).⁹ The end result began a long tradition of translating Genesis 1:1 as an independent main clause. The following is the LXX translation of the verse:

1 ἐν ἀρχῆ ἐποίησεν ὁ θεὸς τὸν οὐρανὸν καὶ τὴν γῆν

¹In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth.

There are two important aspects to this translation. First, the LXX scholars translate the initial בְּרֵאשִׁית of Genesis 1:1 as a grammatical absolute rather than as a grammatical construct with the verb בְּרָא Thus, the verse is rendered with an independent main clause. Second, the scholars do not translate the phrase אֵת הַשְּׁמֵיִם וְאֵּת as κόσμος, 10 which suggests that either they did not perceive the compound phrase to communicate this meaning, or they did not consider it important enough to be translated as such. 11

The Greek Apocrypha

There are only two references in the Greek Apocrypha that may offer insight into how the ancient Jewish writers may have interpreted Genesis 1:1-2. However, both

⁹Alfred Rahlfs, "History of the Septuagint Text," in *Septuaginta* (Stuttgart, Germany: Deutsche Bibelgesellschaft, 1979), LVI.

¹⁰ This finding does not apply to just Gen 1:1. Nowhere in the LXX is the word κόσμος ever used as a substitute for אֵת הַשְּׁמֵים וְאֵת הַאָּרֶץ. Furthermore, with the exception of the book of Wisdom, the term κόσμος is never used as an expression for the universe in the apocryphal books of the LXX either.

¹¹ This is contrary to the TEV which translates Gen 1:1 as "In the beginning, when God created the universe." There is no footnote suggesting an alternate reading of "heavens and earth." Proponents of the traditional interpretation argue that the "earth" in Gen 1:2 looks back to the "earth" of Gen 1:1. If the phrase אָת הַשְּׁמֵים וְאֵת הָאָרֶק is rendered as κόσμος in Greek or as "universe" in English, then the γῆ or the "earth" of Gen 1:2 do not refer back to anything and the temporal and semantic relationship between Gen 1:1 and 1:2 is severed on the basis of translation alone.

of the passages are only theological statements concerning creation, so any attempt to create a direct link between them and Genesis 1:1-2 is working methodologically backward. Much caution is needed. Quite possibly, neither of these passages refer back to Genesis 1:1-2; however, both mark some of the first extra-biblical instances of theological pronouncements regarding creation.¹²

Wisdom 11:17. The first reference, from Wisdom 11:17, is most likely the later of the two Apocryphal passages (*terminus post quem* 30 BC).¹³ It states the following:

ού γὰρ ἠπόρει ἡ παντοδύναμός σου χεὶρ καὶ κτίσασα τὸν κόσμον ἐξ ἀμόρφου ὕλης πιπέμψαι αὐτοῖς πλῆθος ἄρκων ἢ θρασεῖς λέοντας

For your all-powerful hand which created the world out of formless matter did not lack the means to send upon them an army of bears or brazen lions.¹⁴

This passage may refer to the earth in Genesis 1:2 as the unformed matter, ἀμόρφος ὕλη, from which God created the world. However, linking this passage to Genesis 1:1-2 is difficult. None of the vocabulary of the passage, including the verb κτίσασα, matches that of the LXX's translation of Genesis 1:1-2. At the least, the passage is only a passing reference to the creation of the world and offers no broader explanation of the author's theology or interpretation of Genesis 1:1-2. At the most, the author intended to link together the ἀμόρφου ὕλης of the passage to the elements in Genesis 1:2.

¹²Earlier in the chapter it is stated that passages not explicitly referencing Gen 1:1 would be avoided. This rule must be broken in this instance since these two references are sometimes used by scholars to argue for a particular interpretation of Gen 1:1.

¹³David Winston, *The Wisdom of Solomon*, The Anchor Bible 43 (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1979), 23. Winston does state that the book has been dated by others anywhere from 220 BC to 50 AD. See ibid.

¹⁴Ibid., 230.

¹⁵Some scholars do, however, link the Wisdom passage and Genesis passage together. See Origen *De principiis* 4.1.33; Augustine *De genesi ad litteram imperfectus liber* 3.10; Bruce K. Waltke, "The Creation Account in Genesis 1:1–3, Part III: The Initial Chaos Theory and the Pre-creation Chaos Theory," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 132, no. 527 (July 1975): 218.

However, even if a direct link exists between this passage and Genesis 1:1-2, it is still unknown whether the author interpreted the ἀμόρφου ὕλης to be preexistent or created. The passage only states that the world was made from it. Thus, the most that can be said about the passage is that it is the first extra-biblical, theological statement about the creation of the world from ἀμόρφος ὕλη. Highly speculative are any suggestions positing a link between this passage and Genesis 1:1-2 in order to demonstrate how some early Jews interpreted Genesis 1:1.

2 Maccabees 7:28. The second and older Apocryphal passage is from 2 Maccabees 7:28 (78-63 BC).¹⁷ It states the following:

άξιῶ σε τέκνον ἀναβλέψαντα εἰς τὸν οὐρανὸν καὶ τὴν γῆν καὶ τὰ ἐν αὐτοῖς πάντα ἰδόντα γνῶναι ὅτι οὐκ ἐξ ὄντων ἐποίησεν αὐτὰ ὁ θεός καὶ τὸ τῶν ἀνθρώπων γένος οὕτω γίνεται

I beseech thee, my son, look upon heaven and earth, and all that is therein, and consider that God made them of things that were not; and so was mankind made likewise.¹⁸

Unlike the Wisdom passage, there are parallels between the vocabulary of Genesis 1:1 and 2 Maccabees 7:28. First, the phrase τὸν οὐρανὸν καὶ τὴν γῆν is used just as it is in Genesis 1:1 of the LXX. Second, the Greek word for "made" in the passage is ἐποίησεν, just as it is in Genesis 1:1 of the LXX. These parallels do not prove that there is a direct

 $^{^{16}}$ Even though the early Greeks believed that the ἀμόρφος ὕλη was eternal, it is not proof that the Jewish speaker in Wisdom believed the same. Wis 9:1 suggests that the author did not believe the ἀμόρφος ὕλη was eternal. Furthermore, various church fathers believed Gen 1:2 was a description of the Greek ἀμόρφος ὕλη. They even used Wis 11:17 to argue their case, but they also believed that it was created by God in Gen 1:1. See Theophilus Ad Autoclytum libri tres 2.10; Origen De principiis 4.1.33-34; Ambrose Exameron libri sex 1.2.5; Augustine De genesi ad litteram imperfectus liber 3.10. The Medieval Jewish scholar Ramban also argued that Gen 1:1 describes creation out of nothing while Gen 1:2 describes the initial creation, stating that what the Jews called $tôh\hat{u}$, the Greeks called ὕλη. See Ramban, The Commentary of Nahmanides on Genesis Chapters 1–6, trans. Jacob Newman, Pretoria Oriental Series, vol. 4 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1960), 33.

¹⁷Jonathan A. Goldstein, *II Maccabees*, The Anchor Bible 41A (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1983), 83. This would be the time in which Maccabees was completed.

¹⁸This translation is from the AV Apocrypha, provided by *BibleWorks 6.0*. [CD ROM] (2003).

link between 2 Maccabees 7:28 and Genesis 1:1, but the vocabulary shows the passage has a better link to Genesis 1:1 than Wisdom 11:17.

The most important feature of this passage is that the Vulgate translates the phrase οὐκ ἐξ ὄντων as *ex nihilo*. Thus, the book of 2 Maccabees probably contains the first extra-biblical, Jewish reference to something resembling the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*. The speaker, a mother, may not have had Genesis 1:1 in mind when speaking these words, but it is probable that Genesis 1:1 had an influence in shaping her theology of creation since no other cosmogonies of that time had such an inherent notion.

The New Testament

Like the Old Testament passages, there are a plethora of verses in the New Testament that reflect on creation. Again, however, since this section of the dissertation focuses upon the history of the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1, only the passages which give clues to the translation and interpretation of the verse are analyzed.

John 1:1-3

The most notable use and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 in the New Testament is from John 1:1-3, which states,

¹ Έν ἀρχῆ ἦν ὁ λόγος, καὶ ὁ λόγος ἦν πρὸς τὸν θεόν, καὶ θεὸς ἦν ὁ λόγος. ²οὖτος ἦν ἐν ἀρχῆ πρὸς τὸν θεόν. ³πάντα δἰ αὐτοῦ ἐγένετο, καὶ χωρὶς αὐτοῦ ἐγένετο οὐδὲ ἕν. ὅ γέγονεν

¹In the beginning was the word, and the word was with God, and the word was God. ²He was in the beginning with God. ³All things came into being through him and without him nothing came into being which has come into being.

¹⁹ Of course there are scholars who disagree that the Greek phrase οὐκ ἐξ ὄντων implies creation ex nihilo. See Goldstein, II Maccabees, 307. The Greek phrase literally translated is not even rendered "out of nothing," but rather, "not from being." However, in his commentary on Genesis, Ibn Ezra, speaking of those who believe in creation out of nothing, writes the phrase in Hebrew as ', literally, "there is from there is not." If 2 Maccabees was originally written in Hebrew or written by a Hebrew speaker, the term מאין could be translated into Greek as οὐκ ἐξ ὄντων. Obviously this is not an argument that Ibn Ezra's term for creatio ex nihilo influenced the writer of Maccabees; it merely demonstrates how a Hebrew speaker could render such a phrase into Greek.

The creation language of the passage and the phrase Έν ἀρχῆ,²⁰ which also begins Genesis 1:1 in the LXX, demonstrate that John explains his theology of Christ, the λ όγος, against the backdrop of the creation narrative of Genesis 1:1ff. His assertion in John 1:3 is that π άντα, "all things," came into being through Christ, the λ όγος; this assertion is repeated in negative form in order to also show that nothing came into being without the λ όγος. According to John's statement, Christ, the λ όγος of creation, is preeminent over all because of His temporal precedence to and agency in creation.

Based upon the logic of his argument, John has most likely interpreted Genesis 1:1 as the first creative act. If John had interpreted Genesis 1:2 as a description of elements that temporally preceded God's first act of creation, then he would have contradicted himself. He could not have used the backdrop of Genesis 1:1 to argue for the preeminence of the $\lambda \acute{o} \gamma o \varsigma$ in this manner if He, the $\lambda \acute{o} \gamma o \varsigma$, had neither temporally preceded all things nor created all things (i.e., the elements in Gen 1:2).²¹ Thus, by analyzing John's theological argument, it is evident that he interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation temporally prior to Genesis 1:2. Otherwise his theological argument is meaningless.

Hebrew 11:3

Another passage which offers clues into the early Jewish/Christian interpretation of Genesis 1:1 comes from Hebrews 11:3. The passage states the following:

³Πίστει νοοῦμεν κατηρτίσθαι τοὺς αἰῶνας ῥήματι θεοῦ, εἰς τὸ μὴ ἐκ φαινομένων τὸ βλεπόμενον γεγονέναι.

³By faith we know that the worlds were framed by the word of God, so that what is seen has not come to be from things that are visible.

 $^{^{20}}$ John's Gospel and the LXX treat the initial בְּרֵאשִׁית of Gen 1:1 as a grammatical absolute.

²¹Again, both Waltke and Barr argue that Gen 1:2 temporally precedes the phrase "In the beginning." See Bruce K. Waltke, *Genesis: A Commentary* (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2001), 60; Barr, "Was Everything That God Created." 58.

From the context of the passage, in which reference is next made to Abel, Enoch, Noah and the acts of the Patriarchs (the narrative sequence of the book of Genesis), the author most likely looks back to the creation account in the first chapter of Genesis.

If the author does look back to Genesis 1, then he has most likely interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of creation. In Genesis 1:3ff, the universe is framed partly from the elements of Genesis 1:2 and partly from the spoken word of God.²² If the author had interpreted Genesis 1:2 to be a description of the state of the universe that preexisted creation, then the author's argument in Hebrews would have been meaningless since Genesis 1:2 is a part of what is visible.²³ However, if the author has interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation by the invisible spoken word of God, the author's argument then becomes meaningful since everything, including the elements of Genesis 1:2, would then have come from the invisible spoken word of God.²⁴

2 Peter 3:5

2 Peter 3:5 is also an important, yet difficult, passage for understanding the early Jewish/Christian interpretation of Genesis 1:1-2. It states,

⁵Λανθάνει γὰρ αὐτοὺς τοῦτο θέλοντας ὅτι οὐρανοὶ ἦσαν ἔκπαλαι καὶ γῆ ἐξ ὕδατος καὶ δἱ ὕδατος συνεστῶσα τῷ τοῦ θεοῦ λόγῳ,

²²For instance, light was created by God's spoken word, but the firmament was created out of the elements of Gen 1:2. A proponent of the traditional translation and interpretation would add that the elements of Gen 1:2 were also created by God's spoken word in 1:1.

 $^{^{23}}$ Some may object that in Gen 1:2 of the LXX, the earth is described as invisible, ἀόρατος. However, in the Hebrews passage the author does not use ἀόρατος nor its verbal opposite ὁράω. Rather, the author uses the word φαίνω to describe what is "visible." Furthermore, the LXX's rendering is only a description of the earth in Gen 1:2 and not a description of the waters or the deep. Most ancient commentators believed that the earth was described as ἀόρατος because it was covered by water and was in darkness, not because it had the property of invisibleness.

²⁴Some may also object that Gen 1:1 does not contain the phrase יְּלְהֵים, "And God said." However, the only other uses of בָּרָא, "create," in Gen 1 parallel and complete the meaning of נְיֹאכֶּר אֱלֹהִים (Gen 1:20 with 1:21 and Gen 1:26 with 1:27), and other ancient commentators believed that the act of creation in Gen 1:1 was one of God's spoken creations. (See *b. Rosh Hashanah* 32a and 2 Esd 6:38, or 4 Esd 6:38 in the Vg. These references are analyzed later in this chapter).

⁵For this escapes them willingly that by the word of God the heavens came to be long ago and the earth, which had consisted of and was held together by water. ²⁵

Revelation 3:14

The final passage that offers clues about the early Jewish/Christian interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is Revelation 3:14. This verse from the last book of the Bible states,

¹⁴Καὶ τῷ ἀγγέλῳ τῆς ἐν Λαοδικείᾳ ἐκκλησίας γράψον· Τάδε λέγει ὁ ἀμήν, ὁ μάρτυς ὁ πιστὸς καὶ ἀληθινός, ἡ ἀρχὴ τῆς κτίσεως τοῦ θεοῦ·

¹⁴And to the angel of the church in Laodicea write: These things speaks the Dependable, the faithful and true Witness, the Beginning of the creation of God

²⁵This translation is different from other Bible translations such as the ESV, NASB, NIV, etc. Many of these versions translate the verb συνίστημι as an indicative, meaning "formed." However, the verb is a perfect active participle modifying the word $\gamma \hat{\eta}$. Furthermore, the translation of "formed" for συνίστημι does not fit with the word's use anywhere else in the New Testament. See BDAG, s.v. "συνίστημι." In Col 1:17, another creation text, the ESV, NASB, and NIV translate the word as "hold together." The translation of συνίστημι offered in this chapter follows the suggestion of BDAG.

²⁶John Calvin, *Commentaries on the Catholic Epistles*, vol. 22 of *Calvin's Commentaries*, trans. and ed. John Owen (Edinburgh: Calvin Translation Society, n.d. Reprint, Grand Rapids: Baker Books, 1999), 417 n. 1.

²⁷Thomas R. Schreiner, *1, 2 Peter, Jude*, The New American Commentary, vol. 37 (Nashville: Broadman & Holman Publishers, 2003), 374; Peter H. Davids, *The Letters of 2 Peter and Jude* (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 2006), 267–68.

²⁸See Davids, 2 Peter, 269.

Other translations render the word $\dot{\alpha}\rho\chi\dot{\gamma}$ in this passage as "ruler."²⁹ However, nowhere in the New Testament is this word used to describe Christ as a ruler. Furthermore, John consistently uses $\dot{\alpha}\rho\chi\dot{\gamma}$ to describe Christ as being *from* the "beginning,"³⁰ and Revelation 21:6, an echo of Isaiah 44:6, also uses the word to identify Jesus as *the* "beginning."

In Revelation 3:14 and 21:6, John identifies Christ as the beginning of creation, the ἀρχὴ of Genesis 1:1.³¹ In order for John to identify the Christ as the ἀρχὴ or מַרְאָשִׁית of Genesis 1:1, both in these passages from Revelation and in those of John 1:1; 1:2; 1

John 1:1; 2:13, 14, he must have interpreted the מַרְאָשִׁית of Genesis 1:1 as a specific point in time.³² If the ἀρχὴ or מַרְאָשִׁית of Genesis 1:1 encompasses all of Genesis 1:3-2:3 as a time within which, then it makes Christ only a part of the beginning along with the rest of creation.³³ He is no longer the start of creation. Thus, these passages from Revelation demonstrate that John most likely interpreted Genesis 1:1 in a manner similar to that of the traditional interpretation where מַרְאָשִׁית refers to a specific point of time immediately preceding the first act of creation.

The Vulgate

The Latin translations of the Old Testament and the later Vulgate offer some of the first Christian renderings of Genesis 1:1 and provide important insights into the Christian and Jewish interpretation of the verse.

²⁹See the NIV and NAT.

³⁰Paul also uses ἀρχὴ in the same sense in Col 1:18.

³¹Again, the LXX renders the word ראשית in Gen 1:1 with the word מֹסְאַיֹת in Gen 1:1 with the word מֹסְאָיִת.

³²Beale interprets John's use of ἀρχὴ as the beginning of the new creation. See G. K. Beale, *The Book of Revelation: A Commentary on the Greek Text* (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans, 1999), 297–301. In either case, Gen 1:1 is clearly the context of both interpretations.

³³Again, summary-statement proponents argue that this is how the word בְּרֵאשִׁית should be understood in Gen 1:1, as a *time within which*. See Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 180 and Barr, "Was Everything That God Created," 58.

The Latin Translation of Genesis 1:1

Like the LXX, the Vulgate also contributes to a tradition of rendering Genesis

1:1 with an independent main clause. Consider the following translation:

¹In principio creavit Deus caelum et terram

¹In the beginning God created heaven and earth.

Like the translators of the LXX, the Latin translators do not render Genesis 1:1 as a dependent clause, but as an independent main clause. Furthermore, the translators also do not render the phrase *caelum et terram* with *orbem terrarum* or *universum*.³⁴

The Latin Apocrypha

The inclusion of 4 Esdras into the Vulgate (2 Esdras in modern versions) also has special significance. This later Apocryphal book has a Jewish origin and was originally composed in Hebrew or Aramaic.³⁵ It is dated to the last decade of the first century.³⁶ In 4 Esdr 6:38-40 it states,

³⁸et dixi: o Domine, loquens locutus es ab initio creaturae in primo die dicens: fiat caelum et terra, et tuum verbum opus perfecit. ³⁹et erat tunc spiritus volans, et tenebrae circumferebantur et silentium, sonus vocis hominis nondum erat abs te. ⁴⁰tunc dixisti de thesauris tuis proferri lumen quod luminis, ut apparerent tunc opera tua

³⁸I said, O Lord, you have indeed spoken from the beginning of creation; on the first day you said: "Let heaven and earth be made" and your word accomplished the work. ³⁹At that time a wind was blowing fiercely, darkness and silence were everywhere, and the sound of man's voice was not yet before you. ⁴⁰Then you directed a ray of light to go forth from your treasury so that your works could be seen.³⁷

This is the first extra-biblical, Jewish interpretation that explicitly states that Genesis 1:1 was the first act of creation on the first day.

³⁴Cf. footnote 11.

³⁵Jacob M. Myers, *I and II Esdras*, The Anchor Bible 42 (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1974), 115.

³⁶Ibid., 129.

Early Christian Works and Commentators

The Ante-Nicene Fathers

Although the New Testament contains no explicit statements about the creation of the world out of nothing, church fathers of the Ante-Nicene period began to argue in favor of the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* quite directly.

Justin Martyr. Justin Martyr (ca. 100-165)³⁸ is a peculiar example for this study. Some scholars argue that this early church father believed that the world was created from eternal formless matter.³⁹ His belief that the world was created with formless matter is not in dispute, but whether he believed this matter to be eternal is debatable. If Justin Martyr did believe in the eternality of formless matter, then his interpretation of Genesis 1:1 was probably not traditional. However, in at least three places in his works, Justin Martyr quotes directly from Genesis 1:1,⁴⁰ but his interpretation of 1:1 is not given in any of these places. They only contain his statements about the formless matter of Genesis 1:2, but none of them suggest that he believed it to

³⁷Ibid., 204.

³⁸Jules Lebreton, "St. Justin Martyr," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1910) [on-line]; accessed 9 December 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/108580c.htm; Internet.

³⁹Copan argues that one of Justin Martyr's theological statements concerning eternal preexistent matter comes from *Cohortatio ad Graecos* 29, 30. See Paul Copan, "Is *Creatio Ex Nihilo* a Post-Biblical Invention? An Examination of Gerhard May's Proposal," *Trinity Journal* 17 (1996): 82–83. However, this portion of the church father's work is a description of how Plato borrowed from Moses without the subtle insight needed to understand the prophet. Thus, the church father argues that Plato was deceived in his understanding. This portion does not prove Justin Martyr believed in the eternality of matter. Van Winden argues that the church father seemed to understand the words of Gen 1:1 to be a creation out of eternal formless matter in *Apologia Prima* 59. See J. C. M. van Winden, "The Early Christian Exegesis of 'Heaven and Earth' in Genesis 1,1," in *Romanitas et Christianitas*, W. den Boer *et al.* (Amsterdam: North-Holland Publishing Company, 1973), 372. Although Justin Martyr quotes Gen 1:1-3 in this section, he ultimately argues that God created the world out of the material in Gen 1:2, a material which he says is known as Erebus to the poets. There is no interpretation of Gen 1:1 in this section, and there is no statement as to whether the early church father believed in the eternality of matter.

⁴⁰See Justin Martyr Cohortatio ad Graecos 28; 30; Apologia Prima 59.

be eternal. Thus, his belief that the material in Genesis 1:2 was formless matter is not proof that he believed it to be eternal. Clearly other early church fathers had similar beliefs about Genesis 1:2, but they also argued that the formless matter of Genesis 1:2 was created in Genesis 1:1.⁴¹ Thus, they did not see it as eternal, so it is likely that Justin Martyr may not have as well.

Irenaeus. Irenaeus (d. *ca.* 200)⁴² is one of the first early Christians to provide explicit comments about the interpretation of Genesis 1:1. In one work he states, "He at first narrated the formation of the world in these words: 'In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth,' and all other things in succession; but neither gods nor angels [had any share in the work]."⁴³ When Irenaeus says, "all other things in succession," namely the things that are separate and distinct from heaven and earth, he understands Genesis 1:1 to be temporally prior to Genesis 1:2. In another section he writes,

Moses, then, they declare, by his mode of beginning the account of the creation, has at the commencement pointed out the mother of all things when he says, "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth;" for, as they maintain, by naming these four,—God, beginning, heaven, and earth,—he set forth their Tetrad. Indicating also its invisible and hidden nature he said, "Now the earth was invisible and unformed." They will have it, moreover, that he spoke of the second Tetrad, the offspring of the first, in this way—by naming an abyss and darkness, in which were also water and the Spirit moving upon the water. 44

Although Irenaeus cites the interpretation of the heterodoxic Marcosians, it is worth noting that even this group interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be temporally prior to Genesis 1:2.

⁴¹Cf. footnote 16. May also points out that Tatian, one of Justin Martyr's pupils, also argued that God created the formless matter *ex nihilo*. See Gerhard May, *Creatio Ex Nihilo*: *The Doctrine of 'Creatio Out of Nothing' in Early Christian Thought*, trans. A. S. Worrall (Edinburgh: T&T Clark, 1994), 148–9.

⁴²Albert Poncelet, "St. Irenaeus," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1910) [on-line]; accessed 10 December 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/08130b.htm; Internet.

⁴³Irenaeus *Against Heresies* 2.2.5, trans. A. Roberts and W. H. Rambaut, ANF 1:91.

⁴⁴Ibid., 1.18.1 (ANF 1:91).

Furthermore, this heterodoxic group also saw a semantic continuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2, with Genesis 1:2 being a description of the hidden and invisible nature of the earth in Genesis 1:1.

Theophilus of Antioch. Theophilus of Antioch (115-181)⁴⁵ is one of the first Christian scholars to link Genesis 1:1 to the concept of *creatio ex nihilo*. In his work *Theophilus to Autoclytus*, he states,

And first, they taught us with one consent that God made all things out of nothing; for nothing was coeval with God: but He being His own place, and wanting nothing, and existing before the ages, willed to make man by whom He might be known; for him, therefore, He prepared the world And Moses, who lived many years before Solomon, or, rather, the Word of God by him as by an instrument, says, "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth." First he named the "beginning," and "creation," then he thus introduced God; for not lightly and on slight occasion is it right to name God. For the divine wisdom foreknew that some would trifle and name a multitude of gods that do not exist. In order, therefore, that the living God might be known by His works, and that [it might be known that] by His Word God created the heavens and the earth, and all that is therein, he said, "In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth." Then having spoken of their creation, he explains to us: "And the earth was without form, and void, and darkness was upon the face of the deep; and the Spirit of God moved upon the water." This, sacred Scripture teaches at the outset, to show that matter, from which God made and fashioned the world, was in some manner created, being produced by God.⁴⁶

According to his explanation in this excerpt, Theophilus clearly understands Genesis 1:1 to be temporally prior to Genesis 1:2. In an earlier portion of the same chapter, Theophilus again makes the theological claim that God created the world *ex nihilo*, a claim that is influenced by his understanding of Genesis 1:1.⁴⁷

Clement of Alexandria. Clement of Alexandria (d. 215),⁴⁸ like Justin Martyr,

⁴⁵Marcus Dods, introductory note to *Theophilus of Antioch*, ANF 2:87.

⁴⁶Theophilus *Theophilus to Autoclytus* 2.10, trans. Marcus Dods, ANF 2:98.

⁴⁷May states that Theophilus and Tatian, almost at the same time, are the first church fathers to argue that the matter of the universe was created by God *ex nihilo*. See May, *Creatio Ex Nihilo*, 148. However, in the preceding excerpt, Theophilus states that it was taught to him by general consensus, which demonstrates that the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* preceded Theophilus and Tatian.

⁴⁸Francis Havey, "Clement of Alexandria," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1908) [on-line]; accessed 10 December 2008; available from

has been charged with believing in the eternality of matter.⁴⁹ However, his interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is similar to that of Theophilus, who believed that God, in Genesis 1:1, created the matter described in Genesis 1:2. Clement states,

Again the [Hebrew] philosophy knows the world of thought and the world of sense—the former archetypal, and the latter the image of that which is called the model; and assigns the former to the Monad, as being perceived by the mind, and the world of sense to the number six. For six is called by the Pythagoreans marriage, as being the genital number; and he places in the Monad the invisible heaven and the holy earth, and intellectual light. For "in the beginning," it is said, "God made the heaven and the earth; and the earth was invisible." And it is added, "And God said, Let there be light; and there was light." And in the material cosmogony He creates a solid heaven (and what is solid is capable of being perceived by sense), and a visible earth, and a light that is seen. ⁵⁰

In this excerpt Clement describes the creation of the heavens and the earth in Genesis 1:1 as being distinct from the creation of heaven and earth in the later portion of Genesis 1, the former creation being a part of the invisible archetype and the latter being part of the visible type. He also understands Genesis 1:2 to be a description of the "invisible" earth created in Genesis 1:1. Thus, he describes Genesis 1:1 as the first act of creation temporally prior to Genesis 1:2.

Tertullian. Tertullian (145-220)⁵¹ is one of the most important scholars of the early church. His work *Against Hermogenes* presents not only an interpretation of Genesis 1:1, but also a literary and grammatical analysis of the verse and its context. He states,

We, however, have but one God, and but one earth too, which in the beginning God made. The Scripture, which at its very outset proposes to run through the order thereof tells us as its first information that it was created; it next proceeds to set forth what sort of earth it was. In like manner with respect to the heaven, it informs us first of its creation—"In the beginning God made the heaven:" it then goes on to introduce its arrangement; how that God both separated "the water which was below

http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/04045a.htm; Internet.

⁴⁹Copan, "Is *Creatio Ex Nihilo* a Post-Biblical Invention?" 82, 92.

⁵⁰Clement *The Miscellanies* 5.14, ANF 2:466.

⁵¹A. Cleveland Coxe, introductory note to *Tertullian: Part First*, ANF 3:3.

the firmament from that which was above the firmament," and called the firmament heaven,—the very thing He had created in the beginning. Similarly it (afterwards) treats of man: "And God created man, in the image of God made He him." It next reveals how He made him: "And (the Lord) God formed man of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living soul." Now this is undoubtedly the correct and fitting mode for the narrative. First comes a prefatory statement, then follow the details in full; first the subject is named, then it is described. How absurd is the other view of the account, when even before he had premised any mention of his subject, i.e. Matter, without even giving us its name, he all on a sudden promulged its form and condition, describing to us its quality before mentioning its existence [(Gen 1:2)],—pointing out the figure of the thing formed, but concealing its name! But how much more credible is our opinion, which holds that Scripture has only subjoined the arrangement of the subject after it has first duly described its formation and mentioned its name! Indeed, how full and complete is the meaning of these words: "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth; but the earth was without form, and void,"—the very same earth, no doubt, which God made, and of which the Scripture had been speaking at that very moment. For that very "but[," autem,] inserted into the narrative like a clasp, (in its function) of a conjunctive particle, to connect the two sentences indissolubly together: "But the earth." This word carries back the mind to that earth of which mention had just been made, and binds the sense thereunto. Take away this "but," and the tie is loosened; so much so that the passage, "But the earth was without form, and void," may then seem to have been meant for any other earth.52

In an earlier portion of his work he also draws theological meaning from Genesis 1:1. He states,

Therefore, just as He shows us the original out of which He drew such things as were derived from a given source, so also with regard to those things of which He does not point out whence He produced them, He confirms (by that silence our assertion) that they were produced out of nothing. "In the beginning," then, "God made the heaven and the earth." ⁵³

Tertullian's interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is unmistakable. The verse temporally precedes Genesis 1:2; the earth that is created in Genesis 1:1 is the same earth that is described in Genesis 1:2. Thus for Tertullian, the grammatical link between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 is of vital importance. Tertullian's theology is also unmistakable. Since the first chapter of Genesis describes the sources from which things come, Genesis 1:1, by its silence concerning the sources of the heavens and the earth, describes a

⁵²Tertullian *Against Hermogenes* 26, trans. D. Holmes, ANF 3:491-2.

⁵³Ibid., 22 (ANF 3:490).

creation out of nothing.

Origen. Origen (185-253/4)⁵⁴ has been charged by a later church father with believing in the eternality of the universe.⁵⁵ However, in his work *De principiis* he writes,

And if this word "matter" should happen to occur in any other passage, it will never be found, in my opinion, to have the signification of which we are now in quest, unless perhaps in the book which is called the Wisdom of Solomon, a work which is certainly not esteemed authoritative by all. In that book, however, we find written as follows: "For thy almighty hand, that made the world out of shapeless matter, wanted not means to send among them a multitude of bears and fierce lions" [(11:17)]. Very many, indeed, are of opinion that the matter of which things are made is itself signified in the language used by Moses in the beginning of Genesis: "In the beginning God made heaven and earth; and the earth was invisible, and not arranged:", for by the words "invisible and not arranged" Moses would seem to mean nothing else than shapeless matter. But if this be truly matter, it is clear then that the original elements of bodies are not incapable of change. ⁵⁶

In this same section, Origen goes on to agree with the "very many" if they can assert that matter cannot exist without properties and cannot be "uncreated." Thus, he most likely interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be the creation property-filled matter.

Constitutions of the Holy Apostles. Constitutions of the Holy Apostles (4th cent.) was used as a guidance book for clergy and some laity.⁵⁷ It sheds light upon the early church's communal interpretation of Genesis 1:1, stating,

As, therefore, we believe Moses when he says, "In the beginning God made the heaven and the earth;" and we know that He did not want matter, but by His will alone brought those things into being which Christ was commanded to make; we

⁵⁴Ferdinand Prat, "Origen and Origenism," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1911) [on-line]; accessed 16 July 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/11306b.htm; Internet.

⁵⁵Coxe states that Methodius, argued against Origen's belief in the eternality of the universe. See A. Cleveland Coxe, ed., *Fragments*, ANF 6:381. Methodius, however, may have misinterpreted him because Origen, in *De principiis* 4.1.33-34, seems to argue that the matter of the universe was created.

⁵⁶Origen *De principiis* 4.1.33, trans. Frederick Crombie, ANF 4:379.

⁵⁷John Bertram Peterson, "Apostolic Constitutions," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1907) [on-line]; accessed 10 December 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/01636a.htm; Internet.

mean the heaven, the earth, the sea, the light, the night, the day, the luminaries, the stars, the fowls, the fishes, and four-footed beasts, the creeping things, the plants, and the herbs; so also will He raise all men up by His will, as not wanting any assistance.⁵⁸

This section suggests that Genesis 1:1 is a part, not the whole, of what God created. Furthermore, the order describing the creation begins with the heaven, the earth, the sea, the light, the night, and the day. This is the same order described in Genesis 1:1-3 if one takes the sea to mean the watery and of Genesis 1:2. This order suggests that this early manual exhorted clergy to teach Genesis 1:1 as the first act of creation.

Pseudo-Clementine literature. The last source of the Ante-Nicene period is *The Recognitions of Clement* in the Pseudo-Clementine writings (4th cent.). ⁵⁹ It states the following:

In the beginning, when God had made the heaven and the earth, as one house, the shadow which was cast by the mundane bodies involved in darkness those things which were enclosed in it. But when the will of God had introduced light, that darkness which had been caused by the shadows of bodies was straightway dispelled: then at length light is appointed for the day, darkness for the night. And now the water which was within the world, in the middle space of that first heaven and earth, congealed as if with frost, and solid as crystal, is distended, and the middle spaces of the heaven and earth are separated as by a firmament of this sort; and that firmament the Creator called heaven, so called by the name of that previously made: and so He divided into two portions that fabric of the universe, although it was but one house.⁶⁰

By referencing a previous heaven and earth, this passage clearly shows Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation that temporally precedes Genesis 1:2.

Conclusion. During the time of these early church fathers there is an explicit view that Genesis 1:1 is a narration of the first act of creation, the heavens and the earth,

⁵⁸Constitutions of the Holy Apostles 5.1.7, trans. D. Donaldson, ANF 7:441.

⁵⁹John Chapman, "Clementines," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1908) [on-line]; accessed 5 March 2009; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/04039b.htm; Internet.

⁶⁰The Recognitions of Clement 1.27, trans. Thomas Smith, ANF 8:84-85.

and Genesis 1:2 is a description of the earth's ensuing watery state. Although the earlier scholars of this view do not all state that God created the world from nothing, most of their interpretations show that everything in the first chapter of Genesis is described as being created. These interpretations led later scholars to the theological conclusion that since God created everything, even the material in Genesis 1:2, He created the world *ex nihilo*.

The Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers

During the periods before and after the Nicene creed, there were many heresies with which the church had to contend. The teachings of Arius caused the early church to convene the First Council of Nicaea in 325 and produce the Nicene creed, which defined the nature of Christ. Other deviant teachings denied the finite nature of the universe and affirmed the eternality of matter. In order to uphold the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* many early scholars turned to Genesis 1:1.

Athanasius. Athanasius (296-373),⁶² in his work *On the Incarnation of the Word*, states the following:

Thus do they vainly speculate. But the godly teaching and the faith according to Christ brands their foolish language as godlessness. For it knows that it was not spontaneously, because forethought is not absent; nor of existing matter, because God is not weak; but that out of nothing, and without its having any previous existence, God made the universe to exist through His word, as He says firstly through Moses: "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth;" secondly, in the most edifying book of the Shepherd [of Hermas (*Mandate* 1.1.1)], "First of all believe that God is one, which created and framed all things, and made them to exist out of nothing." 63

⁶¹H. Leclercq, "The First Council of Nicaea," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1911) [on-line]; accessed 16 July 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/11044a.htm; Internet.

⁶²C. Clifford, "St. Athanasius," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1907) [on-line]; accessed 16 July 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/02035a.htm; Internet.

⁶³Athanasius On the Incarnation of the Word 3, trans. Archibald Robertson, NPNF² 4:37.

Although he does not offer any explicit interpretation of Genesis 1:1, Athanasius does use the verse to argue for the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*. Thus, Athanasius most likely interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of creation that temporally preceded Genesis 1:2.

Gregory of Nyssa. In his work *On the Making of Man*, Gregory of Nyssa (d. 385/6)⁶⁴ writes the following:

[Heaven and earth], moreover, were first framed before other things, according to the Divine Wisdom, to be as it were a beginning of the whole machine, the great Moses indicating, I suppose, where he says that the heaven and the earth were made by God "in the beginning" that all things that are seen in the creation are the offspring of rest and motion, brought into being by the Divine will.⁶⁵

According to Gregory's interpretation, Genesis 1:1 narrates the first act of creation.

Basil the Great. Basil the Great (329-379),⁶⁶ in his work entitled *The Hexaemeron*, makes the following pronouncement in his first homily:

Perhaps these words "In the Beginning God created" signify the rapid and imperceptible moment of creation. The beginning, in effect, is indivisible and instantaneous. The beginning of the road is not yet the road, and that of the house is not yet the house; so the beginning of time is not yet time and not even the least particle of it. If some objector tell us that the beginning is a time, he ought then, as he knows well, to submit it to the division of time—a beginning, a middle and an end. Now it is ridiculous to imagine a beginning of a beginning. Further, if we divide the beginning into two, we make two instead of one, or rather make several, we really make infinity, for all that which is divided is divisible to the infinite. Thus then, if it is said, "In the beginning God created," it is to teach us that at the will of God the world arose in less than an instant, and it is to convey this meaning more clearly that other interpreters have said: "God made summarily" that is to say all at

⁶⁴Henri Leclercq, "St. Gregory of Nyssa," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1910) [on-line]; accessed 16 December 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/07016a.htm; Internet.

 $^{^{65}} Gregory$ of Nyssa On the Making of Man 1.2, trans. William Moore and Henry Wilson, NPNF 2 5:48.

⁶⁶Joseph McSorley, "St. Basil the Great," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1907) [on-line]; accessed 16 December 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/02330b.htm; Internet.

once and in a moment.67

In this excerpt, Basil clearly interprets the phrase "In the beginning" to be a reference to a starting point in time and strongly argues against interpreting it as a time within which creation happened. In the second homily of *The Hexaemeron*, Basil states,

"The earth," says Holy Scripture, "was invisible and unfinished." The heavens and the earth were created without distinction. How then is it that the heavens are perfect whilst the earth is still unformed and incomplete? In one word, what was the unfinished condition of the earth? And for what reason was it invisible? The fertility of the earth is its perfect finishing; growth of all kinds of plants, the upspringing of tall trees, both productive and sterile, flowers' sweet scents and fair colours, and all that which a little later, at the voice of God came forth from the earth to beautify her, their universal Mother. As nothing of all this yet existed, Scripture is right in calling the earth "without form." We could also say of the heavens that they were still imperfect and had not received their natural adornment, since at that time they did not shine with the glory of the sun and of the moon and were not crowned by the choirs of the stars. These bodies were not yet created. Thus you will not diverge from the truth in saying that the heavens also were "without form." 68

Since Basil interprets the phrase "In the beginning" as the starting point of creation in his first homily, it is only logical that in his second homily, he interprets Genesis 1:2 to be a description of the incomplete heavens and the earth after their creation in Genesis 1:1.

Ambrose of Milan. In his work *Hexameron*, Ambrose of Milan (340-397)⁶⁹ uses Genesis 1:1 to argue against the eternality of matter:

Under the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, Moses, a holy man, foresaw that these errors [theories of Greek philosophy] would appear among men and perhaps had already appeared. At the opening of his work he speaks thus: 'In the beginning God created heaven and earth.' He linked together the beginnings of things, the Creator of the world, and the creation of matter in order that you might understand that God existed before the beginning of all things.⁷⁰

⁶⁷Basil the Great *The Hexaemeron* 1.6, trans. Blomfield Jackson, NPNF² 8:55.

⁶⁸Ibid., 2.1 (NPNF² 8:59).

⁶⁹J. Loughlin, "St. Ambrose," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1907) [on-line]; accessed 16 July 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/01383c.htm; Internet.

⁷⁰Ambrose *Hexameron* 1.2.5, trans. John J. Savage, in *Saint Ambrose*, The Fathers of the Church, vol. 42 (New York: Fathers of the Church, Inc., 1961), 5.

Ambrose clearly links Genesis 1:1 to the creation of matter described in Genesis 1:2.

John Chrysostom. Chrysostom (347-407),⁷¹ in his *Homilies on Genesis*, uses Genesis 1:1 as a means to protect believers from the heterodoxy of eternally preexistent matter. He states,

At the same time he uprooted all the heresies springing up like weeds in the Church by his words, "In the beginning God made heaven and earth." Even if Mani accosts you saying matter preexisted, or Marcion, or Valentinus, or pagans, tell them directly: "In the beginning God made heaven and earth." But what if the person does not believe the Scriptures? Leave him to his own devices, like an utter madman; for what allowance can you make for a person who does not believe the creator of all things, who treats the truth as falsehood.⁷²

Although no explicit interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is in this excerpt, Chrysostom clearly sees theological importance in the verse. For him, it is a means for battling those heretics who argue that matter is eternally preexistent. It is doubtful then that Chrysostom would have interpreted Genesis 1:1 any other way than in the traditional manner since such an interpretation is not silent on the origin of the elements in Genesis 1:2.

Augustine. Augustine (354-430)⁷³ is one of the most influential thinkers of the early church period, being an ardent defender of the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*. However, he is also one of the most difficult interpreters of Genesis 1:1. He attempted an interpretation on the early sections of the book of Genesis in five different works.⁷⁴ Thus, it is difficult to know his final interpretation of Genesis 1:1. His works, however, shed

⁷¹C. Baur, "St. John Chrysostom," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1910) [on-line]; accessed 16 July 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/08452b.htm; Internet.

⁷²John Chrysostom *Homilies on Genesis* 2.10, trans. Robert C. Hill, in *St. John Chrysostom*, The Fathers of the Church, vol. 74 (Washington, DC: The Catholic University of America Press, 1985), 34.

⁷³John K. Ryan, introduction to *The Confessions of St. Augustine* (New York: Doubleday, Image Books, 1960), 18, 27.

⁷⁴Roland J. Teske, introduction to *Saint Augustine on Genesis*, The Church Fathers: A New Translation, vol. 84 (Washington, DC: The Catholic University of America Press, 1991), 3.

light on what other interpretations he thought were possible. In his earlier work, *Against the Manichees*, Augustine makes the following interpretations:

Hence, that unformed matter which God made from nothing was first called heaven and earth, and Scripture said, "In the beginning God made heaven and earth," not because it already was, but because it could be. For it said that heaven was made later. If we consider the seed of a tree, we say that the roots, trunk, branches, fruit and leaves are present there, not because they are already in the seed, but because they will come to be from it. In the same way Scripture said, "In the beginning God made heaven and earth," the seed, so to speak, of heaven and earth, since the matter of heaven and earth was still in a confused state. But because it was certain that heaven and earth would come to be from it, the matter itself was already called heaven and earth.⁷⁵

For when it said, "In the beginning God made heaven and earth," it did not say that he made all the green of the field and food. For we clearly read that he made all the green and food of the field on the third day. The words "In the beginning God made heaven and earth" do not belong to any of those seven days. For up to that point it is called by the name of heaven and earth the matter from which all things were made, or at least it first set forth by the name of heaven and earth the whole of creation, when it said, "In the beginning God created the heaven and earth." ⁷⁶

In these early writings it is clear that Augustine interprets Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of creation temporally prior to 1:2. Furthermore, as these writings reveal, Augustine's interpretation of Genesis 1:1-2 leads him to the conclusion that God created the world *ex nihilo*.⁷⁷ However, in the last line of the second excerpt it does appear that Augustine sees another possible interpretation that treats Genesis 1:1 as some kind of summary statement similar to the summary-statement interpretation.

In his incomplete work On the Literal Interpretation of Genesis: An Unfinished Book, Augustine writes,

We can ask whether Scripture called heaven and earth all the things which were already distinct and formed, or whether it first called by the name heaven and earth that formless matter of the universe which was changed into these formed and beautiful natures by God's ineffable command. Although we read in Scripture,

⁷⁵Augustine *Against the Manichees* 1.7, trans. Roland J. Teske, in *Saint Augustine on Genesis*, The Church Fathers: A New Translation, vol. 84 (Washington, DC: The Catholic University of America Press, 1991), 58-59.

⁷⁶Ibid., 2.3.4 (trans. Teske, 97).

⁷⁷Augustine states, "And, therefore, we correctly believe that God made all things from nothing." Ibid., 1.6.10 (trans. Teske, 57).

"You who made the world from formless matter," [(Wis 11:17)] still we cannot say that whatever sort of matter this was it was not made by him, from whom we confess and believe that all things are. Thus, the transformation and ordering of all the individual formed and distinct things is called the world, but its matter is called heaven and earth, like the seed of heaven and earth. This heaven and earth which were confused and mixed up were suited to receive forms from God their maker. What we have done up to this point concerning the words, "In the beginning God made heaven and earth," should be looked upon as a matter for ongoing inquiry, for none of these views could be affirmed without hesitation.⁷⁸

He further adds,

"But the earth was invisible and without form, and darkness was over the abyss, and the Spirit of God was borne over the water." The heretics who are opposed to the Old Testament usually stir up charges against this passage, saying, "How did God make heaven and earth in the beginning, if the earth already was?" They do not understand that this addition was made to explain the condition of the earth, of which Scripture says, "God made heaven and earth." Hence, we should take it this way: "In the beginning God made heaven and earth," but this earth which God made was invisible and without form until, by introducing distinctions, he brought it from confusion and established it in a certain order of reality. "

In the first excerpt Augustine does acknowledge that Genesis 1:1 could be interpreted as a summary or title of the passage; however, the passage from Wisdom 11:17 causes him to conclude that it should not be so interpreted. Although he does acknowledge that Genesis 1:1 is a difficult passage, Augustine, in the second excerpt, explicitly interprets Genesis 1:2 to be a description of the material created in Genesis 1:1.

After offering his interpretation of Genesis 1:1 in *On the Literal Interpretation* of Genesis: An Unfinished Book, Augustine takes up the issue again in *The Confessions*. He writes,

Because of these two, [heaven and earth,] the one formed from the very beginning and the other completely unformed, the first heaven, but the heaven of heaven, the second earth, but the earth invisible and without form, because of these two I meanwhile understand what your Scripture says, without mention of days, "In the beginning God made heaven and earth." For immediately it subjoins which earth it spoke of. Also, since it is recorded that on the second day the firmament was made and was called heaven, it indicates which heaven was previously spoken of as being

⁷⁸Augustine *On the Literal Interpretation of Genesis: An Unfinished Book* 3.10, trans. Roland J. Teske, in *Saint Augustine on Genesis*, The Fathers of the Church, vol. 84 (Washington, DC: The Catholic University of America Press, 1991), 150-1.

⁷⁹Ibid., 4.11 (trans. Teske, 151).

without days.80

In this section Augustine again presents his own interpretation of Genesis 1:1: the traditional interpretation.⁸¹ However, in this same work he describes and defends the validity of other interpretations that he does not necessarily espouse. He states,

They say: "Although these words are true, yet Moses was not considering the two things you name when by the revelation of the Spirit he said, 'In the beginning God made heaven and earth.' By the term 'heaven,' he did not mean that spiritual or intellectual creature which forever contemplates God's face, nor by the term 'earth' did he mean formless matter." What then? They say: "That man meant what we say. He stated this in those words." What is that? They answer: "By the terms 'heaven' and 'earth,' he first wanted to signify in an all-inclusive and brief manner, the whole visible world, so that afterwards by enumeration of days he could point out, in detail as it were, all the things which the Holy Spirit was pleased to announce in this manner. That rude and carnal people to which he spoke was made up of such men that he judged only the visible works of God should be set down for them." However, they agree that the invisible and unformed earth and the darksome deep, out of which, as is later shown, all these visible things were made and set in order during those various days, things which are known to all men, are not unfittingly interpreted as being that formless matter. ⁸²

There cannot be a better articulation of the summary-statement interpretation from the early church fathers. Even though he does not espouse the summary-statement interpretation nor agree with it, Augustine is nevertheless inclined to present it as an alternative and defend its legitimacy. He continues,

The proponents of these two opinions[—both opinions being similar to the summary-statement interpretation—]which we placed last whether of one or of the other, will respond, when they hear these things, and they will say: "We do not deny that this formless matter was made by God, from whom are all things exceedingly good, because, just as we have asserted that that is a greater good which is created and formed, so we admit that that is a lesser good which is made creable and formable, but yet a good. However, we say that Scripture has not recorded that God made this formlessness, just as it has not recorded many other things, like the

⁸⁰Augustine *The Confessions of St. Augustine* 12.13.16, trans. John K. Ryan, (New York: Doubleday, Image Books, 1960), 313-14.

⁸¹By the time of this writing Augustine had changed his interpretation of what the term "heaven and earth" represents. In earlier writings, the term "heaven and earth" refers to the unformed matter of the universe. In later writings, "heaven" refers to the highest, formed heavens, and only the "earth" refers to the unformed matter of the universe. This new interpretation of "heaven and earth" is repeated again in *The Literal Meaning of Genesis*, which is quoted next in this discussion.

⁸² Augustine The Confessions 12.17.24 (trans. Ryan, 318).

Cherubim and the Seraphim, and those which the Apostle distinctly names, Thrones, Dominations, Principalities, and Powers. 83

Finally, in his work *The Literal Meaning of Genesis*, Augustine offers his last full explanation of Genesis 1:1.⁸⁴ He states,

Thus, we must suppose that before the beginning of days, He wrought the work referred to in the words, *In the beginning God created heaven and earth*. And then by the expression "heaven" we must understand a spiritual created work already formed and perfected, which is, as it were, the heaven of this heaven which is the loftiest in the material world. On the second day God made the firmament, which He called heaven again. But by the expression, *earth without shape or form*, and by the dark abyss, is meant the imperfect material substance from which temporal things would be made, of which the first would be light.⁸⁵

Although Augustine does change his interpretation of the term "heaven and earth" in this work, he does not change his view that Genesis 1:1 narrates a particular act of creation that temporally precedes Genesis 1:2, nor does he change his view that Genesis 1:2 is a description of the material created in Genesis 1:1. ⁸⁶ However, he again reveals that there are some who hold to a summary-statement interpretation of the verse similar to that of modern scholars.

John of Damascus. Lastly, John of Damascus (676-749),⁸⁷ in his work *An Exact Exposition of the Orthodox Faith*, writes,

⁸³Ibid., 12.22.31 (trans. Ryan, 323).

⁸⁴Teske states that Augustine last deals with the interpretation of the early chapters of Genesis in book eleven of the *The City of God*. However, no information contributing to his interpretation of Gen 1:1 is in this source. See Teske, introduction to *Augustine on Genesis*, 3.

⁸⁵Augustine *The Literal Meaning of Genesis* 1.9.15, trans. John Hammond Taylor, Ancient Christian Writers no. 41 (New York: The Newman Press, 1982), 27. Of course in this passage, Augustine says that light was the first visible creation, but it was not the first act of creation. The designation of the first act of creation is still reserved for the heaven and the earth in Genesis 1:1.

⁸⁶This view of course is debated amongst scholars. See van Winden, "Early Christian Exegesis," 377–80. Van Winden does seem to agree that Augustine's interpretation of "heaven" is the same in *The Confessions* and *The Literal Meaning of Genesis*. See also ibid., 380.

⁸⁷John Bonaventure O'Connor, "St. John Damascene," in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1910) [on-line]; accessed 16 December 2008; available from http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/08459b.htm; Internet.

The earth is one of the four elements, dry, cold, heavy, motionless, brought into being by God, out of nothing on the first day. *For in the beginning*, he said, *God created the heaven and the earth*: but the seat and foundation of the earth no man has been able to declare.⁸⁸

In this excerpt John not only interprets Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation on the first day, he also uses the verse to make the theological pronouncement that God created heaven and earth *ex nihilo*.

Conclusion. These scholars, like those of the Ante-Nicene period, clearly interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be God's first act of creation. Based upon this interpretation, they also clearly perceived the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* to be a logical inference of the Genesis text. However, as Augustine has revealed, some scholars of the early church seemed to have also interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be a summary statement of the entire creation event. Nevertheless, the traditional interpretation was still almost universally held by the fathers of the early church.

Early Jewish Works and Commentators

The Targumim

The targumim, translational paraphrases of the Hebrew Old Testament, play an important role in understanding the Jewish translational and interpretive history of Genesis 1:1. The two most important are the *Tgs. Neofiti* (*ca.* 4th cent.)⁸⁹ and *Onqelos* (2nd cent.).⁹⁰ The following are their translations of Genesis 1:1-2:

Tg. Neof.

מלקדמין בחכמה ברא דה שכלל ית שמיא וית ארעא:

⁸⁸John of Damascus *An Exact Exposition of the Orthodox Faith* 2.10, trans. S. D. F. Salmond, NPNF² 9:28.

⁸⁹Martin McNamara, trans., *Targum Neofiti 1: Genesis*, The Aramaic Bible, vol. 1A (Collegeville, MN: The Liturgical Press, 1992), 45.

⁹⁰Bernard Grossfeld, trans., *The Targum Onqelos to Genesis*, The Aramaic Bible, vol. 6 (Wilmington, DE: Michael Glazier, Inc., 1988), 33.

וארעא הוות תהיא ובהיא וצדי מן בר נש ומן בעיר וריקנא מן כל פלחן צמחין ומן אילנין וחשוכא פריס על אפי תהומא ורוח דרחמין מן קדם ה הוה מנשבא על אפי מיא:19

From the beginning with wisdom the Memra of the Lord created and perfected the heavens and the earth.

And the earth was waste and unformed, desolate of man and beast, empty of plant cultivation and of trees, and darkness was spread over the surface of the waters. And the spirit of mercy from before God was blowing over the face of the waters. 92

Tg. Onq.

בקדמין ברא יי ית שמיא וית ארעא: וארעא הות צדיא וריקניא וחשוכא פריש על אפי תהומא ורוחא מן קדם יי מנשבא על אפי מיא:93

In ancient times the Lord created the heaven and the earth.

And the earth was desolate and empty, and darkness was on the face of the deep; and a wind from before the Lord was blowing on the face of the water.⁹⁴

These translational paraphrases offer some simple observations. First, both targumim translate Genesis 1:1 as an independent main clause. 95 Second, neither targum treats

⁹¹Bernard Grossfeld, "A Commentary on the Text of a New Palestinian Targum (Codex Neofiti I) on Genesis I-XXV." (Ph.D. diss., The Johns Hopkins University, 1969), 10, 14.

⁹²McNamara, Targum Neofiti, 55.

⁹³Moses Aberback and Bernard Grossfeld, trans., *Targum Onkelos to Genesis* (Hoboken, NJ: Ktav Publishing House, Inc., Center for Judaic Studies University of Denver, 1982), 20.

⁹⁴Ibid.

⁹⁵ In order to explain why the translators of the targumim did not render Gen 1:1 with a dependent temporal clause, Anderson argues, "A more banal grammatical explanation must be proposed. In postbiblical Hebrew, the asyndetic relative clause was no longer used. The presence of such clauses in biblical texts must have appeared as strikingly unusual. Other such asyndetic relative clauses were subject to significant midrashic elaboration." Gary Anderson, "The Interpretation of Genesis 1:1 in the Targums," *The Catholic Biblical Quarterly* 52 (1990): 22. The problem with Anderson's argument is that the evidences he uses do not support his claim. First, he cites Kugel's analysis of the midrashic elaboration of the asyndetic relative clause in Ps. 81:6 as proof that the clause type was misunderstood. But Kugel's analysis is unrelated to the asyndetic relative clause. In fact, the clause in Ps 81:6 is grammatically correct in the midrash. The midrashic elaboration that Kugel analyzes is focused upon explaining the extra letter included in Joseph's name. See James Kugel, "Two Introductions to Midrash," *Prooftexts* 3 (1983): 147–51. Second, Anderson cites how *B. Bathra* 14b-15a mishandles the asyndetic relative clause in Hosea 1:2; however, Hos 1:2 may not contain an asyndetic relative clause. See Chapter 3 of this dissertation and John

Genesis 1:2 as a description of chaos. Both targumim describe the earth in a state of emptiness more so than in a state of chaos. Third, the insertion of the word ישכלל in Tg. Neofiti suggests that the translator may have understood Genesis 1:1 to be a kind of summary statement. This translational paraphrase, then, is most likely the first explicit rendering of Genesis 1:1 that is favorable to the summary-statement interpretation. However, the inclusion of שכלל also suggests that the readers of both the Tg. Neofiti and the original Hebrew text may not have understood the phrase שכלל would not have been necessary. Would not have been necessary.

Tg. Ongelos most likely favors the traditional interpretation. ⁹⁸ If the early reader of this text did not perceive the phrase אָת הָּאָרֶץ in Genesis 1:1 to be a reference to the complete and ordered universe, and no description of chaos is pictured in Genesis 1:2, then an early reader would have had no reason for semantically separating Genesis 1:1 from 1:2 in Tg. Ongelos. Thus, the two targumim probably represent two different interpretations of Genesis 1:1.

The implications from the targumim present two important evidences in the history of the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1. First, the traditional

C. Collins, Genesis 1–4: A Linguistic, Literary, and Theological Commentary (Phillipsburg, NJ: P&R Publishing, 2006), 51 n. 49.

⁹⁶Anderson, "Interpretation of Genesis 1:1," 25.

⁹⁷One could argue that the phrase in Hebrew refers to the complete and ordered universe, but the phrase in Aramaic does not. Thus, the the translator used the word שכלל to carry this meaning over into the Aramaic translation. However, considering the cognate nature of the two languages, it does not seem likely that the commonly used phrase would have one meaning in Hebrew and a different meaning in Aramaic.

⁹⁸Grossfeld argues that the rendering of בַּרָאשִׁית for בַּרְאשִׁית implies that the translator meant to deny any order to creation since בַּקְדְמִין refers to a larger creation context, not a single point in time. See Bernard Grossfeld, *The Targum Onqelos*, 43 n. 1. This rendering would change the beginning of Gen 1:1 to a *time within which* rather than a *time when*, but the rendering does not deny a chronological sequence from Gen 1:1 to 1:2. As long as a *time within which* refers to time prior to Gen 1:2ff, then its interpretation may still be like that of the traditional interpretation.

translation was still the only means for translating Genesis 1:1. Second, the summary-statement interpretation seems to have been another possible means of interpreting Genesis 1:1 among the Jews of this period.

The Mishnah of the Babylonian Talmud

The Mishnah, which took shape in the period of the first and second century, reached its final form in the late second century.⁹⁹ Its tractate *Kelim* contains an interesting and implicit interpretation of Genesis 1:1. It states,

The laws of uncleanness can apply to what was created on the first day. There can be no uncleanness in what was created on the second day. To what was created on the third day the laws of uncleanness can apply. No uncleanness applies to what was created on the fourth day \dots 100

This passage applies the laws of uncleanness to the context of the days of creation in the first chapter of Genesis. It goes on to say how the law of uncleanness applies to what was created on the rest of the days of creation. The firmament and the heavens, created on the second day, cannot become unclean. The earth and vegetation, created on the third day, can become unclean. The sun, moon, and stars, created on the fourth day, cannot become unclean and neither can the fish of the sea and the birds of the air, created on the fifth day. The beast of the field and mankind, created on the sixth day, can become unclean. However, what was created on the first day can become unclean. It is doubtful that the author of this early Mishnaic tractate interpreted Genesis 1:3 to be the first and only act of creation on the first day since light, the first and only thing created in Genesis 1:3, cannot become unclean. The author most likely interpreted Genesis 1:1-2 to be a part of the

⁹⁹Jacob Neusner, introduction to *The Mishnah: A New Translation* (London: Yale University Press, 1988), xv.

¹⁰⁰Kelim 17:14. trans. Israel W. Slotki, in Seder Tohoroth, Sonc. Talm. 87.

¹⁰¹Slotki explains that earthen vessels can become unclean, thus the creation of the earth in Gen 1:1 and its description in 1:2 would explain why the law of uncleanness applies to the first day of creation. See Israel W. Slotki, trans., *Kelim*, in *Seder Tohoroth*, Sonc. Talm. 87 n. 11.

first day of creation in order to say that what was created on the first day can become unclean.

The Gemara of the Babylonian Talmud

Rosh Hashanah. The Gemara of the Babylonian Talmud, completed around AD 600,¹⁰² provides many other examples of how the early Jews interpreted Genesis 1:1. From the tractate *Rosh Hashanah* comes the following example:

To what do these ten kingship verses correspond? . . . R. Johanan said: To the ten Utterances by means of which the world was created. Which are they? The phrase 'and he said' occurs in the account of the creation only nine times?-The words 'in the beginning' are also an utterance, as it is written, By the word of the Lord the heavens were made. ¹⁰³

By including בְּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 among the ten utterances that God used to create the world, R. Johanan clearly understands Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation.

Ḥagigah. The tractate *Ḥagigah* also offers glimpses into the early Jewish interpretation of Genesis 1:1. It states,

Rab Judah further said that Rab said: Ten things were created the first day, and they are as follows: heaven and earth, *Tohu* [chaos], *Bohu* [desolation], light and darkness, wind and water, the measure of day and the measure of night. Heaven and earth for it is written: *In the beginning God created heaven and earth. Tohu* and *Bohu*, for it is written: *And the earth was* Tohu *and* Bohu. Light and darkness: darkness, for it is written: *And darkness was upon the face of the deep*; light for it is written: *And God said, Let there be light.* Wind and water, for it is written: *And the wind of God hovered over the face of the waters.* The measure of day and the measure of night, for it is written: *And there was evening and there was morning, one day.* ¹⁰⁴

In this passage Rab Judah, or at the least Rab, also understands the heavens and earth, along with the elements of Genesis 1:2, to be particular acts of creation in Genesis 1:1. Furthermore, in this passage, Genesis 1:1-3 is semantically, syntactically, and

¹⁰²Jacob Neusner, introduction to *Genesis Rabbah: The Judaic Commentary to the Book of Genesis*, vol. 1, Brown Judaic Studies, no. 104 (Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1985), ix.

¹⁰³Rosh Hashanah 32a, trans. Maurice Simon, in Seder Mo'ed, Sonc. Talm. 156.

¹⁰⁴ Hagigah 12a, trans. I. Abrahams, in Seder Mo'ed, Sonc. Talm. 63.

contextually linked together as a description of the first day of creation.

Later in this same tractate, another rabbi poses a question regarding the creation account. He states,

'And the earth was unformed and void'. Consider: [Scripture] began at first with heaven, why then does it proceed to relate [first] the work of the earth? - The school of R. Ishmael taught: It is like a human king who said to his servants: Come early to my door. He rose early and found women and men. Whom does he praise? The ones who are not accustomed to rise early but yet did rise early. 105

In this passage the question is over why the description of the earth comes next in Genesis 1:2 when Genesis 1:1 states that the heavens were created before the earth. Although an interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is not explicitly stated in this passage, the rabbi's understanding of it as the first act of creation is clearly the background of the question and answer.

Tamid. Finally, the tractate *Tamid* offers one final interpretation of Genesis 1:1 that is similar to those of the previous rabbis. It states,

He said to them: Were heavens created first or the earth? They replied: The heavens were created first, as it says. In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. He said to them: Was light created first, or darkness? They replied: This question cannot be solved. Why did they not reply that darkness was created first, since it is written, Now the earth was unformed and void and darkness, and after that, and God said, Let there be light, and there was light?¹⁰⁶

The questioner of this passage and the respondents both seem to treat Genesis 1:1-3 as a temporally sequenced account. The respondents do not appeal to Genesis 1:6-9 to support their conclusion that the heavens were created first. They rather appeal to Genesis 1:1 because the "heavens" are mentioned first in the verse. When the questioner asks whether light was created first or darkness, he demonstrates his agreement with their understanding of Genesis 1:1-3. The questioner could not have interpreted darkness as a part of the creation if he had not first assumed that the elements in Genesis 1:2 were

¹⁰⁵Ibid., 12b (Sonc. Talm. 68).

¹⁰⁶Tamid 32a, trans. Maurice Simon, in Seder Kodashim, Sonc. Talm. 27.

created as well. According to the questioner, the most logical order for the creation of light and darkness is to be found in the sequence of the narrative of Genesis 1:2-3. Darkness, which is in existence in Genesis 1:2, textually precedes the creation of light in Genesis 1:3. Thus, the questioner understands the text to be a temporally sequenced account that starts in Genesis 1:1. Furthermore, he views the elements in Genesis 1:2 to be created, not preexistent.

These passages from the Babylonian Talmud clearly demonstrate that the traditional interpretation was the most popular interpretation of Genesis 1:1 among many of the rabbis. No clear reference from the Babylonian Talmud assumes the rabbis interpreted the passage any other way.

The Midrashim

Genesis Rabbah. Like the Babylonian Talmud, the midrashim also offer insight into early Jewish interpretations of Genesis 1:1. *Genesis Rabbah*, one of the earlier midrashim, completed around the later fourth or early fifth century, ¹⁰⁸ contains many relevant passages that offer important, yet conflicting interpretations of Genesis 1:1. The first passage states,

Said Rab: Let him have nought of Thine abundant goodness. In human practice, when an earthly monarch builds a palace on a site of sewers, dunghills, and garbage, if one says, 'This palace is built on a site of sewers, dunghills, and garbage,' does he not discredit it? Thus, whoever comes to say that this world was created out of *tohu* and *bohu* and darkness, does he not indeed impair [God's glory]! R. Huna said in Bar Kappara's name: If the matter were not written, it would be impossible to say it, viz., GOD CREATED HEAVEN AND EARTH; out of what? Out of NOW THE EARTH WAS TOHU AND BOHU (I,2).¹⁰⁹

The modern translators of this passage seem to think that it was a refutation of those who

¹⁰⁷Rosenburg also makes this assessment. See A. J. Rosenburg, trans., *The Book of Genesis*, vol. 1 of *Mikraoth Gedoloth*, Books of the Bible (New York: The Judaica Press, 1993), 5.

¹⁰⁸Neusner, introduction to *Genesis Rabbah*, ix.

¹⁰⁹Genesis Rabbah 1.5, trans. H. Freedman and Maurice Simon, in *Midrash Rabbah* (London: The Soncino Press, 1939), 1:2.

did not hold to *creatio ex nihilo*.¹¹⁰ The first rabbi in this excerpt may be trying to make this refutation, but the second, R. Huna, seems to interpret Genesis 1:2 as temporally prior to Genesis 1:1, which suggests that some of the rabbis of the *Genesis Rabbah* may have understood Genesis 1:1 differently from those of the Babylonian Talmud.¹¹¹ Thus, this passage probably reflects a Jewish interpretation of Genesis 1:1 resembling the summary-statement interpretation.

The next passage presents Rabban Gamaliel's response to a philosopher's interpretation of Genesis 1:1-2. It states,

A philosopher asked Rabban Gamaliel, saying to him, "Your God was indeed a great artist, but he had good materials to help him." He said to him, "what are they?" He said to him, "Unformed [space], void, darkness, water, wind, and the deep." He said to him, "May the spirit of that man [you] burst! All of them are explicitly described as having been created by him [and not as pre-existent]. "Unformed space and void: 'I make peace and create evil' (Is. 45:7). "Darkness: 'I form light and create darkness (Is. 45:7). "Water: 'Praise him, you heavens of heavens, and you waters that are above the heavens (Ps 148:4). Why? For he commanded and they were created (Ps. 148:5). Wind: for lo, he who forms the mountains creates the wind" (Amos 4:13). The depths: When there were no depths, I was brought forth (Prov. 8:24)¹¹²

Gamaliel does not use Genesis 1:1 to prove that the elements in Genesis 1:2 were created. However, even though he does not use the term *creatio ex nihilo*, Gamaliel is

¹¹⁰Freedman and Simon state, "Here, however, [tohu and bohu] are regarded, together with darkness, as forms of matter which according to some who deny *creatio ex nihilo* was God's raw material in the creation of the world. The object of the Midrash here is to refute that view." See Freedman and Simon, *Midrash Rabbah*, 1:2 n. 5.

¹¹¹ This statement is not intended to suggest that the rabbis of the *Bab. Talm.* were a different group from those of the *Gen. Rab.* and other midrashim. The *Bab. Talm.* and the early midrashim drew from the same pools of rabbinic scholars, so overlap between these sources happened frequently. Nevertheless, no rabbi from the *Bab. Talm.* interpreted Gen 1:1 to be a summary statement or title of the creation narrative.

¹¹²Genesis Rabbah 1.9 (trans. Freedman and Simon, 1:8).

¹¹³There are a number of reasons why Gamaliel may have excluded Gen 1:1 from his argument. The opinion of this author is that since the philosopher did not include the earth in his list of materials, for that is an element in Gen 1:2, Gamaliel did not need to use Gen 1:1 because he was using texts that individually described the creation of the other elements in Gen 1:2. Had the philosopher mentioned the earth as one of the preexistent materials, Gen 1:1 would have been the perfect verse for Gamaliel to include in his argument. Gamaliel's response and the philosopher's exclusion of the earth from

obviously offended by the philosopher's assumption that raw materials existed with God prior to creation.

A third passage also reveals that rabbis of the Genesis Rabbah may have interpreted Genesis 1:1 differently from those of the Babylonian Talmud. The passage states,

Said he to him: 'If it stated, "In the beginning God created heaven and earth," we might have maintained that heaven and earth too are divine powers.' Thereupon he cited to him, for it is no empty thing from you (Deut. XXXII, 47), and if it is empty, it is so on your account, because you are unable to interpret it [rightly]. No: ETH THE HEAVENS is to include the sun and moon, the stars and planets; WE-ETH THE EARTH is to include trees, herbage, and the Garden of Eden.¹¹⁴

In this passage the rabbi, Ishmael, seems to interpret Genesis 1:1 as a title or summary of the creation narrative. This is peculiar considering that the school of Rabbi Ishmael seems to have interpreted Genesis 1:1 according to the traditional interpretation. However, R. Ishmael bases his summary interpretation on the use of the Hebrew direct object marker אַר. He does not argue that the phrase "heavens and earth" describes the complete and ordered universe.

Yet a fourth passage from the *Genesis Rabbah* again shows support for the traditional understanding of Genesis 1:1. It states,

NOW THE EARTH WAS TOHU E.V. 'UNFORMED', ... R. Judah b. R. Simon said: Compare this case to a king who bought two bondmaids, both on the same bill of sale and at the same price. One he commanded not to stir out from the palace, while for the other he decreed banishment. The latter sat bewildered and astonished. 'Both of us were bought on the same bill of sale, and at the same price,' she exclaimed, 'yet she does not stir from the palace while against me he has decreed banishment. How amazing!' Thus the earth sat bewildered and astonished, saying, 'The celestial and the terrestrial beings were created at the same time: why do the former live [eternally], whereas the latter are mortal?' Therefore, AND THE EARTH WAS TOHU AND BOHU (BEWILDERED AND ASTONISHED). 116

his list of preexistent materials suggests that the philosopher had misinterpreted Gen 1:1-2.

¹¹⁴ Genesis Rabbah 1.14 (trans. Freedman and Simon, 1:13).

¹¹⁵See the previous discussion on the passage from the tractate *Hagigah*.

¹¹⁶ Genesis Rabbah 2.2 (trans. Freedman and Simon, 1:15-16).

R. Judah seems to have interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation in which the heavens and the earth were created at the same time. ¹¹⁷ In the excerpt, this interpretation is the basis of his explanation for why Genesis 1:2 states that the earth was "TOHU" and "BOHU," or "bewildered" and "astonished."

A final passage from the Genesis Rabbah reveals the difference of opinion some rabbis had over the interpretation Genesis 1:1. It states,

R. Judah says, "The light was created first. The matter may be compared to the case of a king who wanted to build a palace. But the site was shaded. What did he do? He kindled lights and lanterns to know how to lay the foundations. Along these same lines, light was created first." R. Nehemiah says, "The world was created first [then the light]. The matter may be compared to the case of a king who built a palace and crowned it with light.¹¹⁸

In this excerpt, it seems as if R. Judah's interpretation of Genesis 1:1-3 implies that the earth in Genesis 1:1 was not created first. Thus, he probably did not see Genesis 1:1 as a particular act of creation, which means that he probably interpreted Genesis 1:2 as a description of preexistent materials. However, the excerpt also shows that R. Nehemiah probably did interpret Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of creation. Thus, the discussions of these and the other rabbis of the *Genesis Rabbah* demonstrate that there was considerable debate over the interpretation of Genesis 1:1.

Tanhuma. Another later midrash, *Tanhuma* (8th/9th cent.), ¹¹⁹ also offers evidence of the early Jewish interpretation of Genesis 1:1. It states the following:

¹¹⁷ There was a debate between the House of Shammai and the House of Hillel about whether the heavens or the earth were created first. This debate is recorded in the *Genesis Rabbah* (*Gen. Rab.* 1.15), the *Pal. Talm.* (y. Hag 17a), and the Bab. Talm. (b. Hag 12a). In this debate a third position is offered in which a rabbi (or one of the the sages) argues that the heavens and the earth were created at the same time. R. Judah seems to have taken this third position. Interestingly, the House of Shammai uses Gen 1:1 to argue that the heavens were created first. However, the House of Hillel uses Gen 1:2, where the verb is translated as a pluperfect, to refute the argument. (The refutation is not included in the account from the Bab. Talm.)

¹¹⁸Genesis Rabbah 3.1 (trans. Freedman and Simon, 1:27).

¹¹⁹Samuel Berman, introduction to *Midrash Tanhuma-Yelammedenu* (Hoboken, NJ: Ktav Publishing House, Inc., 1996), xii.

R. Isaac declared: A man first constructs the foundation of a palace and then erects the upper story upon it, but the Holy One, blessed be He, fashioned the upper spheres first and then created the earthly spheres, as it is said: *In the beginning God created the heaven*, and after: *and the earth*. ¹²⁰

In this passage R. Isaac clearly describes Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation. Furthermore, he does not treat the phrase אַת הַשָּׁמֵיִם וְאֵת הָאָבֶץ in Genesis 1:1 as a merism for the complete and ordered universe.

Pirqe Rabbi Eliezer. Lastly, the midrash *Pirqe Rabbi Eliezer* (8th/9th cent.)¹²¹ depicts more early Jewish interpretations of Genesis 1:1. It states,

Eight things were created on the first day, and they are as follows: heaven and earth, light and darkness, *tohu* and *bohu* [see verse 2], and wind and water, as it is stated: "and a wind of God was hovering over the water." And some say: also day and night as it is stated: "and it was evening and it was morning, one day.¹²²

The heavens and the earth of Genesis 1:1 are described as particular acts of creation, and the elements of Genesis 1:2 are not described as preexistent or eternal, but rather as elements created on the first day. Furthermore, the passage makes the verses of Genesis 1:1-3 to be grammatically and contextually linked together as the first day of creation.

There are no explicit statements from the Jewish scholars of the midrashim that the world was created *ex nihilo* or rather מָאַרָּן. However, if many of these early Jews interpreted Genesis 1:1 as a particular act of creation by God and believed that the elements of Genesis 1:2 were created as well, then there would be nothing else in the text that God did not already create. Their interpretations, being mostly traditional, explain why later Medieval Jewish scholars did embrace the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*.

¹²⁰ Tanḥuma 1.4, trans. Samuel Berman, in Midrash Tanhuma-Yelammedenu (Hoboken, NJ: Ktav Publishing House, Inc., 1996), 15.

¹²¹Dagmar Börner-Klein, introduction to *Pirke De-Rabbi Elieser*, Studia Judaica: Forschungen Zur Wissenschaft Des Judentums (Berlin: Walter De Gruyter, 2004), XXXIX.

¹²² Pirqe Rabbi Eliezer 3.9, trans. A. J. Rosenburg, *The Book of Genesis*, vol. 1 of *Mikraoth Gedoloth*, Books of the Bible (New York: Judaica Press, 1993), 5.

Conclusion. There are no explicit statements from the Jewish scholars of these midrashim that the world was created *ex nihilo*, or rather באין. However, if many of these early Jews interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be a particular act of creation by God and believed that the elements of Genesis 1:2 were created as well, then according to their interpretations, everything in the text of Genesis 1 was created and nothing was preexistent. These interpretations, being mostly traditional, explain why later, Medieval Jewish scholars embraced the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*. However, they also demonstrate that the summary-statement interpretation seemed to be another interpretive option.

The Medieval Jewish Scholars

By the Medieval period, many Jewish scholars were crafting commentaries of their own on the Pentateuch. Most of these commentaries followed a method of interpretation known as *peshat*: an interpretation of the plain meaning of the text. Some of these Jewish scholars had different notions about the grammar and syntax of Genesis 1:1-3 while others used the passage to explicitly argue for the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*.

Solomon ben Isaac. One of the earliest, Medieval Jewish scholars to offer his interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is Solomon ben Isaac (1040-1105), ¹²⁴ or Rashi. In his commentary on the Pentateuch he states,

If, however, you wish to explain [Genesis 1:1] in its plain sense, explain it thus: At the beginning of the Creation of heaven and earth when the earth was without form and void and there was darkness, God said, "Let there be light." The text does not intend to point out the order of the *acts* of Creation—to state that these (heaven and earth) were created first; for if it intended to point this out, it should have written

¹²³Lockshin argues that *peshat* was not a widely used method of exegesis prior to the Medieval period. See Martin I. Lockshin, trans., *Rabbi Samuel ben Meir's Commentary on Genesis: An Annotated Translation*, Jewish Studies, vol. 5 (Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press, 1989), 242 n. 1.

¹²⁴ Chaim Pearl, introduction to *Rashi: Commentaries on the Pentateuch*, The B'Nai B'Rith Jewish Heritage Classics (New York: W W Norton & Company Inc., 1970), 13.

ונו בראשונה ברא את השמים "At first God created etc." And for this reason: Because, wherever the word ראשית occurs in Scripture, it is in the construct state . . . Similarly here you must translate בראשית ברא אלהים as though it read בראשית אלהים, at the beginning of God's creating. 125

Rashi goes on to argue that the Hebrew of Hosea 1:2a demonstrates that a noun can be in construct with a verb. 126

Next in his commentary, Rashi argues against those who hold to the traditional understanding of Genesis 1:1 by stating,

Should you, however, insist that it does actually intend to point out that these (heaven and earth) were created first, and that the meaning is, "At the beginning of everything He created these, admitting therefore that the word בראשׁר is in the construct state and explaining the omission of a word signifying "everything" by saying that you have texts which are elliptical, omitting a word, as for example . . . (Isa. XLVI. 10) "Declaring from the beginning the end," and it does not explicitly state, "Declaring from the beginning of a thing the end of a thing"—if it is so (that you assert that this verse intends to point out that heaven and earth were created first), you should be astonished at yourself, because as a matter of fact the waters were created before heaven and earth, for, lo, it is written, (v.2) "The Spirit of God was hovering on the face of the waters," and Scripture had not yet disclosed when the creation of the waters took place—consequently you must learn from this that the creation of the waters preceded that of the earth Therefore you must needs admit that the text teaches nothing about the earlier or later sequence of the acts of Creation. 127

Although Rashi argues for a different grammatical understanding of the passage, his reason for explaining the passage as such is neither grammatical nor syntactical but rather contextual. However, his explanation of the passage is the first known example of Genesis 1:1 being treated as a dependent temporal clause.¹²⁸

¹²⁵Rashi, Genesis, in vol. 1 of Pentateuch: With Targum Onkelos, Haphtorah and Prayers for Sabbath and Rashi's Commentary, trans. M. Rosenbaum and A. M. Silbermann (London: Shapiro, Vallentine & Co., 1946), 2.

¹²⁶Ibid.

¹²⁷Ibid., 2-3.

¹²⁸Even though Rashi's translation of Gen 1:1 is different from earlier Jewish sources, he still seemed to regard the creation of heaven and earth to be an event that took place on the first day. His commentary states, "Thus it is explained in Gen. R. (6) יהי BE THERE AN EXPANSE—Let the expansion become fixed; for although the heavens were created on the first day, they were still in a fluid form, and they became solidified only on the second day at the dread command (lit., rebuke) of the Holy One, blessed be He, when he said 'Let the firmament be *stable*'. It is to this that allusion is made in what is

Abraham Ibn Ezra. Following the example of Rashi's grammatical explanation of Genesis 1:1, Abraham Ibn Ezra (1089-1164), ¹²⁹ in his commentary, also argues that Genesis 1:1 should be understood as a temporal clause. He writes,

I believe that *bereshit* is in the construct, as in *In the beginning of* (bereshit) *the reign of Jehoiakim* (Jeremiah 26:1). Don't ask, how can a word in the construct be connected to a verb in the perfect. This presents no problem, for we find that very case in the verse *When the Lord spoke at first with Hosea* (Hosea 1:2), and in the verse *the city where David encamped* (Isaiah 29:1).¹³⁰

After explaining Genesis 1:1 as a dependent clause, Ibn Ezra goes on to explain the verse's syntactical relationship to 1:2. He states,

The meaning of our verse is this: When the creation of the firmament and the dry land took place, the earth was uninhabited because it was covered with water. God created the earth in such a way that by the laws of nature it would be below the waters. Do not reject this interpretation because of the *vav* that is placed before the words *the earth* (*ve-ha-aretz*), for its meaning is identical to that of the Arabic *fa*. The *vav* placed before the word *mist* (*ed*) in *but there went up a mist* (ve-ed) [*sic*] from the earth (Gen. 2:6) is analogous.¹³¹

Thus, although Ibn Ezra shares Rashi's grammatical understanding of Genesis 1:1 as a dependent temporal clause, he differs with Rashi's view concerning the verse's syntactical relationship. Rashi syntactically joins Genesis 1:1 to 1:3; whereas, Ibn Ezra joins Genesis 1:1 to 1:2. Interestingly, in the second excerpt, Ibn Ezra interprets the phrase "heavens and earth" as a reference to the firmament and dry land created in Genesis 1:6-10 rather than as a reference to the whole of creation.

written in (Job XXVI. 11): 'The pillars of heaven were trembling' (i.e. they were unstable)—this was during the whole of the first day—and on the second (ibid.): 'they were astonished at His rebuke', like a man who stands immovable, amazed at the rebuke of the one who terrifies him." Ibid., 3-4.

¹²⁹Rosenburg, Genesis, 269.

¹³⁰Ibn Ezra, *Genesis*, vol. 1 of *Ibn Ezra's Commentary on the Pentateuch*, trans. H. Norman Strickman and Arthur M. Silver (New York: Menorah Publishing Company, Inc., 1998), 22. Unlike Rashi, Ibn Ezra does not deal with the crucial passage of Isa 46:10.

¹³¹Ibid., 30.

Samuel ben Meir. Samuel ben Meir (1085-1174),¹³² or Rashbam, Rashi's grandson, also argues in his commentary that Genesis 1:1 is a dependent clause. However, he recognizes how this treatment of the verse creates a complex problem for semantically relating Genesis 1:1 to 1:2. He states,

Some explain this verse as being similar to the phrase (Hos. 1.2), "The outset of God's speaking (*tehillat dibber*) to Hosea." In other words, they see the verse as meaning, "At the outset of God's creation of heaven and earth"-- i.e. *before* God had created heaven and earth-- then, "The earth was unformed and void with darkness over the surface of the waters." According to this interpretation, then, water was created first.

This interpretation is also folly. The text should not have read, "The earth was unformed and void," for the earth was not yet created. How can the text mention the earth even before the creation of the water, which preceded the earth?¹³³

In this excerpt, Rashbam argues against Rashi's understanding of Genesis 1:1 because he sees a tension in it: the earth is in existence before it is created.

In order to avoid this contradiction, Rashbam links 1:1 to 1:2 in the following manner:

[In other words, Moses said,] "Do you think that this world has forever existed in the way that you now see it, filled with all good things? That is not the case. Rather bereshit bara' 'elohim-- i.e. at the beginning of the creation of the heaven and the earth, when the uppermost heavens and the earth had already been created for some undetermined length of time-- The, 'THE EARTH' which already existed, 'WAS UNFORMED AND VOID'-- i.e. there was nothing in it.¹³⁴

Rashbam's interpretation of the passage demonstrates that the mention of the earth in Genesis 1:2 presents a contextual problem when Genesis 1:1 is rendered as a dependent temporal clause. Thus, he translates the passage with a dependent clause, but interprets Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of creation. His translation and interpretation seem incompatible.

¹³²Lockshin, Samuel ben Meir, 11.

¹³³Rashbam, *Rabbi Samuel ben Meir's Commentary on Genesis: An Annotated Translation*, trans. Martin I. Lockshin, Jewish Studies, vol. 5 (Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press, 1989), 29–30.

¹³⁴Ibid., 32.

Moses ben Naḥman. Although Rashi, Ibn Ezra, and Rashbam argued for a different grammatical treatment of Genesis 1:1, other Medieval scholars were opposed to their views. In his commentary on Genesis, Moses ben Naḥman (1194-1270), 135 or Ramban, argues a contrary understanding of Genesis 1:1:

The difficulty which led [Rashi] to give this explanation is, as he says, that 'if the object is to teach the order of creation, that these were created first, there should have been written bârîshônâh (first) for there is no rê'shîth in scripture which is not in the construct state". But, there is the verse [Isaiah 46:10] "Declaring the end from the beginning" (mê-rê'shîth), and if he constructs (the word mê-rê'shîth) with 'dâbhâr' (thing) understood, here too it can be constructed (with a word understood) in the same way. There is also "and he provided the first part rê'shîth for himself." Rashi also raised other objections.

Now listen to the explanation of [Genesis 1:1] in its simple sense, correct and clear. The Holy One b.b.H. created all that has been created from absolute nothingness. We have in our holy language no other term for 'the bringing forth of something from nothing' but $b\hat{a}r\hat{a}$ ' (to create). All that exists under the sun or above it was not made 'ex nihilo', as a first beginning, but He brought forth from the complete and absolute nought a very subtle substance devoid of real existence but which is a potency to produce, fitted to assume a shape and emerge from potentiality into reality. This, the primary substance, the Greeks call $[\S \lambda \eta]$. After the $[\S \lambda \eta]$, He did not create anything, but He formed and made from it, because from it He brought everything into existence and clothed things with forms and put them into shape.

Know that the heavens and all that is in them are one substance, and the earth and all that is in her is one substance, and the Holy One b.b.H. created these two from nought; and only these were created. And everything else was made from them. This substance which is called $[\mathring{v}\lambda\eta]$ is called in the holy tongue $t\hat{o}h\hat{u}$. 136

Ramban explicitly interprets Genesis 1:1 as the first and only act of creation that is done *ex nihilo*. Furthermore, he interprets verse 1:2 as a description of that first act in its "potentially" unformed state existing only as $\"{v}\lambda\eta$. Everything else that God created was formed from that initial $\~{v}\lambda\eta$.

Baḥya ben Asher ben Halawa. Baḥya ben Asher (d. 1340)¹³⁷ interprets

Genesis 1:1 like Ramban. In his commentary, which employs Kabbalistic exegesis, ¹³⁸ he

¹³⁵ Maurice Simon, introduction to *The Soncino Chumash: The Five Books of Moses with Haphtorah*, ed. A. Cohen (Hindhead, England: The Soncino Press, 1947), xii.

¹³⁶ Ramban, Genesis, 33.

¹³⁷ Kaufman Kohler and Philip Bloch, "Baḥya (Beḥai) ben Asher ben Halawa," in *The Jewish*

argues against Rashi stating,

However, the true meaning is that "in the beginning" is a distinct word. It is not the subject of a construct clause and it is to be read as if the verse was stating "at first." The cantillation supports this. The meaning of the pericope is that heaven and earth and all of their generations were created on the first day from complete nothingness and non-existence, as is denoted by verb "created" [bara], which refers to the creation of being from nought. ¹³⁹

Again, the rabbi sees Genesis 1:1 as the first act of creation. Later in his work, he even argues that his interpretation is just like that of Rabbi Nehemiah of the midrashim, whom he quotes as saying that the seed of all creation was placed in the earth on the first day of creation.¹⁴⁰

Conclusion. Although previous Jewish scholars argued over what the first act of creation was, it was not until the Medieval period that Jewish scholars began to explain Genesis 1:1 as a dependent clause. However, it was also during this period that Jewish scholars began to defend the traditional understanding of the verse in order to make an explicit argument for creation מֵאֵין, or ex nihilo.

The Reformation and the Reformers

During the period of the Reformation (1517-1648), a number of commentaries on Genesis were produced. Chief among the commentators are Luther and Calvin, who both viewed Genesis 1:1 in the same way as many of the early church fathers before them. In his commentary on Genesis, Calvin writes the following:

Encyclopedia, (New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1906) [on-line]; accessed 19 January 2009; available from http://www.jewishencyclopedia.com/view.jsp?letter=B&artid=133; Internet.

¹³⁸ Seth Brody, introduction to "R. Bahya Ben Asher of Saragossa Commentary on Genesis 1:1–2," in *Rabbi Ezra ben Solomon of Gerona: Commentary on the Song of Songs and Other Kabbalistic Commentaries*, trans. Seth Brody, Commentary Series (Kalamazoo: Western Michigan University, Medieval Institute Publications for TEAMS, 1999), 207.

¹³⁹Baḥya ben Asher, "R. Bahya Ben Asher of Saragossa Commentary on Genesis 1:1–2," in Brody, 211.

¹⁴⁰lbid., 211-12.

To expound the term "beginning," of Christ, is altogether frivolous. For Moses simply intends to assert that the world was not perfected at its very commencement, in the manner in which it is now seen, but that it was created an empty chaos of heaven and earth... There is no doubt that Moses gives the name of heaven and earth to that confused mass which he, shortly afterwards, (verse 2,) denominates *waters*. The reason of which is, that this matter was to be the seed of the whole world. Besides, this is the generally recognized division of the world. ¹⁴¹

Similarly, Luther writes,

The plain and simple meaning of what Moses (*here*) says is that all things that exist were created by God and that at the beginning of the first day there was created a shapeless lump, or mass, of earth with fog, or water. Later, during the remaining time of the first day, God put into it the light, so that the light of day was shining and the shapeless heaven and earth could be seen. This was not unlike a shapeless crude seed from which things can be generated and produced.¹⁴²

Like the church fathers before them, Luther and Calvin interpreted Genesis 1:1 to be the initial act of creation with Genesis 1:2 as a description of its formless state.

In addition to the commentaries, a number of Bible translations followed the past translations of Genesis 1:1. Tyndale's translation of Genesis 1:1 from the original Hebrew (1530)¹⁴³ translates the verse as, "In the begynnynge God created heaven and erth." The Geneva Bible (1560)¹⁴⁵ translates Genesis 1:1 as, "In the beginning God created the heauen and the earth." Finally, the King James Bible (1611) also translates it as, "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth." Like the ancient

¹⁴¹John Calvin, Commentaries on the First Book of Moses Called Genesis, vol. 1 of Calvin's Commentaries, trans. John King (Edinburgh: Calvin Translation Society, n.d. Reprint, Grand Rapids: Baker Books, 2003), 69–70.

¹⁴²Martin Luther, *Luther's Commentary on Genesis*, vol. 1, trans. J. Theodore Mueller (Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House, 1958), 9–10.

¹⁴³F. F. Bruce, The English Bible: A History of Translations from the Earliest English Versions to the New English Bible, new and revised ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1970), 41.

William Tyndale, William Tyndale's Five Books of Moses Called the Pentateuch, Being a Verbatim Reprint of the Edition of M.CCCCC.XXX (New York: Anson D. F. Randoph & Co., n.d.; London: Samuel Bagster & Sons, Limited, n.d.), 15. Accessed 7 July 2008. Available from http://books.google.com/books?id=4orlV4oYuwoC&printsec=frontcover&dq=tyndale&as_brr=1&source=gbs_book_other_versions_r&cad=3_0#PPA15,M1; Internet.

¹⁴⁵Bruce, *The English Bible*, 87.

¹⁴⁶The quotes of the Geneva Bible and King James Bible were taken from *BibleWorks 6.0*.

translations of the LXX, Vulgate, and targumim, all of these translations rendered Genesis 1:1 with an independent main clause.

Conclusion

This brief introduction to the history of the translation, interpretation, and theology of Genesis 1:1 demonstrates that the traditional translation and interpretation were the majority-held views of both Christian and Jewish interpreters. However, differing opinions did exist, especially among the Jews of the Medieval period. In this modern era the discussion over the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 has only intensified. No longer is the traditional translation and interpretation the dominant position amongst the majority of modern scholars. Furthermore, the discussion is much more multifaceted. Many scholars argue their understanding of the verse using a variety of lexical, grammatical, syntactical, stylistic, structural, theological, literary, and historical evidences. This dissertation does not address all of these evidences, but the following chapters do introduce and address the linguistic arguments related to the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1.

[CD ROM] (2003).

CHAPTER 3

THE TRANSLATION OF GENESIS 1:1

Introduction

In the modern debate over the proper translation of Genesis 1:1, the only real issue is whether or not the word בְּרֵאשִׁית is a grammatical absolute or construct. If is a grammatical construct, then it is in construct with the verb בְּרֵאשִׁית, and the sentence should be rendered with a dependent clause. Naturally, this is the argument of the dependent-clause translation. If בְּרֵאשִׁית is a grammatical absolute, then it is not in construct with בְּרָא, and the verse should be rendered with an independent main clause. This is the argument of the traditional translation. However, the debate is more technical than it first seems.

There are many different ways in which various proponents of each translation argue their case. Some use lexical and grammatical evidences. Some use theological and historical evidences. Some use evidences from the parallel ancient Near Eastern literature. All of the different types of evidence are valid areas of investigation, but the most weighty are those centered upon the linguistics of the text, such as the lexical, grammatical, and syntactical evidences. These linguistic evidences have methodological priority since they can determine what the text can or cannot actually say. For instance, if it is linguistically improbable for Genesis 1:1 to be rendered with the traditional

¹Lane also states, "The question whether verse 1 is a complete sentence or only a dependent clause is centered in the syntactical interpretation of the first word, $b = r \bar{e}(^2) \hat{s} \hat{u}$. If the noun $r \bar{e}(^2) \hat{s} \hat{u}$ is in the absolute state, verse 1 contains a complete thought and is an independent clause or sentence. If, on the other hand, it is in the construct state, verse 1 is not a complete thought and forms a temporal clause which must be completed by either verse 2 or 3." W. R. Lane, "The Initiation of Creation," *Vetus Testamentum* 13 (1963): 66.

translation, then even supporting theological evidences become less relevant. Thus, though the other areas of investigation are deserving of further study and analysis, this chapter will limit itself to the linguistic evidences involved in translating Genesis 1:1.

Even the linguistic evidences, however, have a proper methodological order. In this chapter the first analysis will start at the most basic level, the lexical level. The central issue at this level is whether the word אַשִּׁית has a lexically relative or absolute meaning. The next analysis will proceed to the grammatical level. The central issue at this level concerns the pointing of the first two words of Genesis 1:1. The final analysis will end at the syntactical level. The central issue at this level is how the clauses of Genesis 1:1-3 can relate to one another. In the end, this chapter will argue that the traditional translation is more faithful to the lexical, grammatical, and syntactical evidences.

The Lexical Level

As previously noted, at the lexical level the central debate is whether בְּרֵאשִׁית has an absolute or relative meaning. Many proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that the word מוא always has a relative meaning, and since it is always relative, it must be in the construct state with the verb בְּרָא However, many proponents of the traditional translation argue that in Genesis 1:1 the word מוא has an absolute meaning. Since it has an absolute meaning, it is in the absolute state and is not in construct with בְּרָא שׁיִת does not have an absolute meaning.

The Relative Meaning of בָּרֵאשִׁית

When proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that רֵאשִׁית has a

²Waltke is one of the few proponents of the traditional translation who argues that the word has a relative meaning. See Bruce K. Waltke, *Genesis: A Commentary* (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2001), 58 n. 12.

In order to defend the absolute rendering of בְּרֵאשִׁית as "In the beginning," many proponents of the traditional translation argue that in Genesis 1:1 the word has an absolute meaning.⁶ They often cite Isaiah 46:10a as evidence of this claim.⁷ It states the

³John Skinner, *A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on Genesis*, 2nd ed., The International Critical Commentary (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1951), 13 n. 1.

⁴Cuthbert A. Simpson and Walter Russel Bowie, *The Book of Genesis*, in vol. 1 of *The Interpreter's Bible*, ed. George Arthur Buttrick et al (New York: Abingdon Cokesbury Press, 1952), 466.

⁵Harry M. Orlinsky, "The Plain Meaning of Genesis 1:1–3," *Biblical Archaeologist* 46 (December 1983): 208.

⁶See N. H. Ridderbos, "Genesis i 1 und 2," in *Studies on the Book of Genesis*, ed. B. Gemser, Oudtestament Studiën 12 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1958), 218; Brevard S. Childs, *Myth and Reality in the Old Testament*, Studies in Biblical Theology (Chatham, England: W. & J. MacKay & Co Ltd, 1960; Naperville, IL: Alec R. Allenson, Inc., 1960), 40; Walther Eichrodt, "In the Beginning: A Contribution to the Interpretation of the First Word of the Bible," in *Israel's Prophetic Heritage: Essays in Honor of J. Muilenburg*, ed. B.W. Anderson and W. Harrelson (New York: Harper, 1962), 4; Gerhard F. Hasel, "Recent Translations of Genesis 1:1: A Critical Look," *The Bible Translator* 22, no. 4 (October 1971): 158; Claus Westermann, *Genesis 1–11: A Commentary*, trans. John J. Scullion (Minneapolis: Augsburg Publishing House, 1990), 98.

⁷König states, "Denn auch andere Adverbia stehen im absoluten Sinne, wie ich durch eine

following:

מַגָּיד מֵרֵאשִׁית אַחֲרִית וּמָקֶדֶם אֲשֶׁרֹ לֹא־נַעֲשְוּ

declaring from the beginning, the end, and from before, that which has not been done,

In this verse the word מֵרֵאשִׁית is in the absolute state and seems to be both lexically and grammatically comparable to the use of בְּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1. In addition, many modern bible translations render the word מֵרֵאשִׁית in Isaiah 46:10a as "from the beginning," not "from the beginning of." Thus, Isaiah 46:10a seems to demonstrate that the word can have an absolute meaning.

However, scholars of the dependent-clause translation argue that even though the occurrences of רֵאשִׁית in Isaiah 46:10a and Genesis 1:1 may appear to be grammatically parallel, מֵרֵאשִׁית in Isaiah 46:10a has a lexically relative meaning. Therefore, it cannot function as a lexical parallel to the alleged absolute meaning of in Genesis 1:1. Humbert states,

On constate donc qu'au sens proprement temporel le substantif *rēšīt* ne figure qu'une seule fois à l'état absolu: Es. 46:10. La posibilité théorique de construire absolument un *rēšīt* temporel existe donc, mais ce passage mérite d'être considéré de plus près. D'abord, guidés par un sûr instinct, les LXX y traduisent *mērēšīt* par ἀναγγέλλων πρότερον τὰ ἔσχατα, c'est à dire qu'ils entendaient *mērēšīt* adverbialement («d'avance») et, au fond, relativement (=d'avance par rapport à autre chose), et non point au sens vraiment absolu de «au commencement». Ensuite, dans le TM luimême, il y a un rapport de corrélation évidente entre *mērēšīt* et *aḥarīt* qui

eingehendere Untersuchung festgestellt habe. Man vergleiche nur $m\hat{e}r\hat{e}sch\hat{i}th$ (Jes. 46 $_{10}$) im absoluten Sinne = "von Uranfang an"." (For other adverbs, without the article, are in the absolute sense as I have found through a more thorough investigation. One need only compare $m\hat{e}r\hat{e}sch\hat{i}th$ [Isa 46:10] in the absolute sense = "From the very beginning.") Eduard König, Die Genesis (Gütersloh, Germany: Druck und Verlag von C. Bertelsmann, 1919), 130. Wenham also states, "Nor can it be shown that אור האיש האים may not have an absolute sense. It may well have an absolute sense in Isa 46:10, and the analogous expression in Prov 8:23 certainly refers to the beginning of all creation. The context of אור בראשית standing at the start of the account of world history makes an absolute sense highly appropriate here." Gordon J. Wenham, Genesis I-15, Word Biblical Commentary, vol. 1 (Waco: Word Books, Publisher, 1987), 12. See also Kenneth A. Matthews, Genesis I-11:26, The New American Commentary, vol. 1A (Nashville: Broadman and Holman Publishers, 1996), 137 n. 99, 138 n. 103.

⁸Cf. NASB, NIV, NJPS, NAV, NRSV.

 $^{^9}$ This is the only other passage in which the temporal use of רַאשִׁית is grammatically absolute.

undiquent terminus a quo et terminus ad quem d'un certain laps de temps (cp. aussi le couple $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$. . . $ahar\bar{\imath}t$ dans Job 8,7; 42,12; Eccl. 7,8), temps conçu de façon passablement concréte d'ailleurs vu le parallélisme de $ahar\bar{\imath}t$ avec $a\bar{s}er l\bar{o}$ 'na ' $as\bar{\imath}u$. Or qui dit corrélation dit relation, impicite à tout le moins : par conséquent le sens même de $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ dans Es. 46,10 est au fond relatif, même si la construction ne l'est pas et si $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ est à l'état absolu. Le passage Es. 46:10 ne peut donc pas être légitimement invoqué en faveur d'un sens temporel absolu de $ber\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ dans Gen 1,1 qui reste donc, finalement, sans exemple. 10

According to Humbert the word מֵרֵאשִׁית in Isaiah 46:10a still refers to the beginning of something; which makes it relative in meaning.¹¹

Thus, the strength of Humbert's argument is that because מֵרֵאשִׁית in Isaiah 46:10a has a relative meaning, there is no parallel evidence that בְּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 has an absolute meaning. Thus, based upon the weight of the evidence, the word has a relative meaning in Genesis 1:1 as well. If בְּרֵאשִׁית is lexically relative, then according to proponents of the dependent-clause translation, it should be rendered as "In the beginning of," and should be in construct with the verb בָּרָא then Genesis 1:1 should be rendered as a dependent clause. If this line of reasoning is sound, then the evidence as a whole seems to support the dependent-clause translation.

¹⁰ Paul Humbert, "Trois Notes Sur Genese 1," Norsk Teologisk Tidsskrift 56 (1955): 86–87. The translation is, "We note therefore that in the strictly temporal sense, the substantive $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ only appears one time in the absolute state: Isaiah. 46:10. The theoretic possibility of constructing a temporal $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ in an absolute manner exists therefore, but this passage merits closer consideration. First of all, guided by instinct, the LXX translate $m\bar{e}r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ by ἀναγγέλλων πρότερον τὰ ἔσχατα, that is to say that they understood $m\bar{e}r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ adverbially ['from before'] and, at the end, relatively [= from before in relation to another thing], and not at all in the absolute sense of "in the beginning." Then, in the MT itself, there is a correlation connection evident between $m\bar{e}r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ and $ahar\bar{\imath}t$ that indicates a terminus a quo and a terminus ad quem of a certain lapse of time [cf. also the pair $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$... $ahar\bar{\imath}t$ in Job 8:7; 42:12; Eccl. 7:8], time conceived in a fairly concrete fashion as seen elsewhere in parallelism to $ahar\bar{\imath}t$ with $a\bar{s}er$ lo' na' $as\hat{\imath}t$. Now what says correlation says relation, all the less implicit: consequently, the sense even of $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ in Isaiah 46:10 is relative in the end, even if the construction is not relative and even if $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ is in the absolute state. The passage Isaiah 46:10 cannot be therefore legitimately called upon in favor of the absolute temporal sense of $ber\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ in Genesis 1:1, which remains, therefore, without example." Lane goes so far as to argue that the translation "declaring the end from the beginning" in Isa 46:10a is inaccurate. See Lane, "Initiation of Creation," 67.

¹¹Even Ridderbos, a proponent of the traditional translation, grants Humbert this claim; however, he still argues that רֵאשִׁית has an absolute meaning in Gen 1:1. See Ridderbos, "Genesis i 1 und 2," 218.

However, there seems to be some faulty reasoning from proponents of both translational positions. Proponents of the traditional translation who argue that האשית in Genesis 1:1 has an absolute meaning, hoping to sustain their argument that the word is grammatically absolute, have done themselves a disservice. How can a word like ראשית, if it is rendered as "beginning," have an absolute meaning? How can it refer to a beginning that is unrelated to anything? The very nature of the word requires that it refer to the beginning of something. If it refers to the beginning of something then its meaning is relative to that something. A beginning that is unrelated to anything is the beginning of nothing, and it is thus not a beginning. On the other hand, proponents of the dependentclause translation, who argue that the relative meaning of ראשית requires the word to be in grammatical construct, have also done themselves a disservice because the evidence only demonstrates that ראשׁית has a relative meaning. It does not demonstrate that a relative meaning requires the word to be rendered as "the beginning of." In fact, the Isaiah 46:10a passage is still a strong parallel to Genesis 1:1 since the verse demonstrates that the word ראשית can be relative in meaning and grammatically absolute. In actuality, the word ראשית is one of several types of Hebrew relator nouns, and when its usage is compared to that of other relator nouns, the evidence will demonstrate that it is common for a word like רָאשִׁית to be lexically relative and grammatically absolute.

Defining and Identifying Relator Nouns

Before demonstrating that relator nouns can be lexically relative and grammatically absolute, one must first define what a relator noun is and identify examples of them. In an article dealing with adpositions, DeLancey describes relator nouns in the following manner:

Relator noun categories are frequently the topic of discussion, and sometimes extended controversy, as to whether they are nouns or adpositions. For all the confusions that they seem to engender, relator nouns are not an unfamiliar phenomenon to anyone, being easily recognized in such unexotic languages as French and English. Since each of these languages has a robust and thriving adposition category, relator nouns constitute a relatively marginal category, but a

number of them are quite frequent in occurrence and encode fairly basic concepts: à côté de, on top of, in front/back of, etc. Such constructions can be a source of new prepositions, e.g. English atop < on top of, beside < by side of. In languages which invest less in a lexical category of adpositions, relator nouns may constitute a substantial and important category. 12

In general, relator nouns are nouns that are semantically dependent upon other words to complete their meanings. They can also be grammatically dependent upon those words—usually by means of the preposition "of" in English or the construct state in Hebrew. This dependency explains why relator nouns, by nature, have a relative meaning.

Once relator nouns are defined, they are easy to identify. English words, such as front, back, middle, side, end, and beginning are all relator nouns because their meanings are relative to other words or concepts in a sentence. For instance, if the word "book" is lexically and grammatically related to these English relator nouns, then their meanings become relative to and dependent upon that word: the front of the book, the back of the book, the middle of the book, the side of the book, the end of the book, the beginning of the book. Without the word "book" these relator nouns would be empty of meaning: The front of what? The back of what? The middle of what? The side of what? The end of what? The beginning of what?

Relator nouns are easily identifiable in Hebrew as well. They include such words as בָּאָשִׁית, הוּץ, אָחוֹר, פָּנֶה, חוּץ, אָחוֹר, פָּנֶה. They exhibit the common traits of relator nouns in that they are also lexically relative to other words or concepts to complete their meanings. Again, because of their relative nature, these nouns are most commonly found in grammatical construct with other words. The

¹²Scott DeLancey, "Adpositions as a Non-Universal Category," in *Linguistic Diversity and Language Theories*, ed. Zymunt Frajzyngier, Adam Hodges, and David S. Rood, Studies in Language Companion Series 72 (Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2005), 190.

¹³This trait explains why proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that רָאשִׁית has a relative meaning and should be translated with the preposition "of," making it relative to the word בַּרָא.

¹⁴Although Hebrew relator nouns are usually in construct with the words to which they are semantically related, some are grammatically linked to their related words by the preposition ⁵. Cf. 2 Kgs

following analysis demonstrates these traits in the Hebrew relator nouns. 15

The relator nouns אָחוֹר and אָחוֹר. The relator nouns אָחוֹר and אָחוֹר describe spatial relationships between themselves and the things to which they are semantically related, referring to the front, פָּנָה, or the back, אָחוֹר, of the related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically and grammatically relative to such words as בַּיִת and הַבִּית, אַהֶּל, מִשְׁכַּן.

Exodus 26:12

And the leftover excess in the curtain of the tent, the half of the curtain that is left over, will run over the **back of** the tabernacle.

Exodus 26:9b

And you shall double over the sixth curtain to the opposite of the **front of** the tent.

Leviticus 4:6

וָטָבַל הַכֹּהֵן אֶת־אֵצָבָעוֹ בַּדָּם וְהַנָּה מִן־הַדָּם שָׁבַע פָּעָמִים ׁ לִפְנֵי יִהוָֹה אֵת־**פְּנֵי** פַּרְכֵת הַקְּדֵשׁ:

And the priest shall dip his finger into the blood, and seven times he shall sprinkle the **front of** the veil of the sanctuary before the LORD.

Ezekiel 41:21

The door frames of the temple and the **front of** the sanctuary were square, the appearance *of one being* like the appearance *of the other*.

Ezra 47:1a

ַנְיְשָׁבַנִי אֶל־פֶּחַח הַבַּיִת וְהִנָּה־מַיֵם יֹצְאִים מִתַּחַת מִפְתַּן הַבַּיִת` קָדִּימָה כִּי**־פְּגַי** הַבַּיִת קָדָים

^{23:13;} Ezek 10:3; Josh 15:21; Nah 2:10; 3:3.

¹⁵The following examples of relator nouns have been translated as literally as possible to bring out their relative meaings.

And he returned me to the opening of the temple, and behold, waters were coming out from under the threshold of the temple toward the east because the **front of** the temple was *facing* eastward.

In his description of relator nouns, DeLancey states that there is sometimes controversy over whether relator nouns should be categorized as prepositions. With respect to פָּנָה and פָּנָה, one may ask whether these words should also be categorized as prepositions. The question, however, would fail for two reasons. First, there are already lexically similar prepositions, יְפְנֵי and אַחֲבִי, that probably developed from these relator nouns. Second, although the relator nouns פָּנָה and הַּבָּנָה and לִּכְּנִי have very similar, almost interchangeable, meanings, the relator nouns can also be used in instances in which they do not need to be *grammatically* related to another word. The prepositions do not function in this manner.

The relator nouns בַּרְת and הַנְיָם. The relator nouns בְּיִת and הַנְיַם also describe spatial relationships between themselves and the things to which they are semantically related, referring to the outside, הוץ, or the inside, בַּיִם, of the related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically and grammatically relative to such things as פֿרֶכַת, אָיַר, מָחָנָה.

Exodus 33:7b¹⁷

ּוָהָיָהֹ כָּל־מְבַקֵּשׁ יְהוָּה יֵצֵא ֹ אֶל־אַהֶל מוֹעֵׁד אֲשֶׁר **מִחְוּץ** לַמְחֲנֶה:

And it will be that everyone who seeks the LORD shall come out to the tent of meeting, which is **outside of** the camp.

2 Chronicles 32:3¹⁸

¹⁶Cf. 2 Chr 13:13-14.

¹⁷For more examples of מְחֵנֶּה related to מְחֵנֶּה, see Exod 29:14; 33:7 (2x); Lev 4:12, 21; 6:4; 8:17; 9:11; 10:4, 5; 13:46; 14:3; 16:27; 17:3; 24:14, 23; Num 5:3, 4; 12:14, 15; 15:35, 36; 19:3, 9; 31:13, 19; Deut 23:11, 13.

¹⁸For more examples of עיר, see Gen 19:16; 24:11; Lev 14:40, 41, 45, 53; Num 35:5; 1 Kgs 21:13; 2 Chr 33:15.

וַיָּנַעִץ עִם־שָּׂרָיוֹ וְגִבּּרָָיו לְסָתּוֹם אֱת־מֵימֵי הָעֵיָנוֹת אֲשֶׁר מִ**קוּיץ** לַעֵיר וַיַּעִזְרְוּהוּ:

And he consulted with his princes and mighty men to shut up the waters of the springs which were **outside** of the city, and they helped him.

Exodus 26:35a¹⁹

וְשַׂמִתַּ אַת־הַשִּׁלְחַן**' מְחִוּץ** לַפַּרֹכֶת

And you shall place the table outside of the veil.

Exodus 26:33a²⁰

וָנַתַתָּה אֶת־הַפֶּרֹכֶת תַּחַת הַקּרַסִים וְהַבֵּאתַ שַׁמַה' מָבֵּית לַפַּרֹכֶת אֵת אַרוֹן הַעְדִוּת

And you shall place the curtain under the hooks, and you shall bring into there the ark of the testimony **inside of** the veil.

1 Kings 7:31a

וֹפִיהוּ **מִבֵּית** לַכֹּתֶרֶת וָמַעְלָה ׁ בָּאַמָּה

And its opening inside of the capital and above was a cubit.

As a relator noun, חוץ is not used as much as its counterpart הוץ. The preposition בְּיִם is more frequently used in its place because the relator noun and the preposition share a similar meaning. However, the relator nouns בִּיִת and בִּיִת and בִּיִת and instances in which they are not grammatically related to another word in the sentence. The preposition בְּ cannot function in this manner, which again demonstrates one main difference between relator nouns and prepositions. 22

 $^{^{19}}$ For more examples of קּרֹבֶת related to פָּרֹבֶת, see Exod 27:21; 40:22.

²⁰For more examples of בֵּית related to בָּרֹכֶת, see Lev 16:2, 12, 15; Num 18:7.

²¹The relator noun און does not share a similar lexical meaning with any preposition; hence, it is more frequently used than בית. Cf. Lev 17:3, where the preposition בְּ is used to refer to the inside of the מַחַנָּה; whereas, the relator noun און is used to refer to the outside of the מַחַנָּה.

 $^{^{22}}$ Cf. Ezek 7:15 where both the relator noun בָּיִת and the preposition בְּ refer to the inside of the עִיר, with the exception being that בָּיִת, as a relator noun, is not grammatically linked to עִיר, but בְּ, as a preposition, is.

The relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין. The relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין also describe spatial relationships between themselves and the things to which they are semantically related, referring to the left side, שְׁמֹאל, or the right side, יָמִין, of the related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically and grammatically relative to such things or people as עַיַּהְאֶל זי, הַיִּמַן, גִּלָּה, עִזְרָא, אִישׁ מּאַל.

2 Kings 23:8b

וְנָתַץ אֶת־בָּמְוֹת הַשְּׁעָרִים אֲשֶׁר־פֶּׁתַח שַׁעַר יְהוֹשֵׁעַ שַׂר־הָּנִּיר אֵשֶׁר־עַל**־שִׂמְאוּל** אֵישׁ בִּשַׁעַר הָעִיר:

And he pulled down the heights of the gates which were at the entrance of the gate of Joshua, the leader of the city, which is upon the **left side of** a man in the gate of the city.

Nehemiah 8:4²⁴

וַיַּעַמִּד אָצְלוֹ מַתִּתְּיָה וְשֶּׁמֵע וַעֲבָיָה וְאוּרִיָּה וְחִלְקִיָּה וּמַעֲשֵׂיָה עַל־**יְמִיגְוֹ וּמִשְּׁמֹאלוֹ** פְּדָיָה וּמִישָׁאֵל וּמַלְכִּיָּה וְחָשָׁם וְחַשְׁבַּדָּנָה זְכַרְיָה מְשֵׁלָם:

And at his side stood Mattithiah, Shema, Anaiah, Uriah, and Maaseiah on the **right side of** him and on the **left side of** him Pedaiah, Mishael, Malchijah, Hashum, Hashbaddanah, Zechariah, and Meshullam.

Zechariah 4:3²⁵

וּשְׁנֵיָם זֵיתִים עַלֵּיהָ אָחָד מִימִין הַגְּלֵה וְאָחָד עַל־שִׁמֹאלָה

And there were two olive trees beside it, one on the **right side of** the bowl and the other on the **left side of** it.

1 Chronicles 6:24

²³For more examples of ממאל and ימין referring to the leftside or rightside of a thing or person, see Gen 48:17; Exod 14:22, 29; Judg 3:15, 16, 21; 7:20; 20:16; 2 Sam 16:6; 20:9; 1 Kgs 2:19; 7:39; 22:19; 2 Chr 18:18; Ps 109:6, 31; Eccl10:2; Jer 22:24; Ezek 10:3; 39:3; Zech 3:1; 4:11; 11:17.

²⁴Although יְמִין are grammatically constructed to a pronoun, the antecedent of the pronoun is עָּוְרָא (cf. also 1 Chr 6:24; 2 Sam 2:21).

 $^{^{25}}$ This verse and the previous seem to show that the prepositions אָל and עַל are interchangeable in meaning when used with אָמֹץ and יָמִין.

וָאָחֵיו אָסֶּף הָעֹמֵד עַל־יָּמִיבָּוֹ אָסֶף בֶּן־בֵּרֵכְיָהוּ בֵּן־שִׁמְעֵא:

And his brother, Asaph, was standing by the **right side of** him, Asaph the son of Berechiah son of Shimea.

2 Samuel 2:21

וַיָּאמֶר לְוֹ אַבְנֵר נְטָה לְךָ עַל־יִמְינְדֶ אָוֹ עַל־שִׂמֹאלֶדְ וָאֲחֹז לְךָ אֶחָד מְהַנְּעַרִים

And Abner said to him, "Turn yourself to the **right side of** you or to the **left side of** you and I take one of the young men for you."

The words אָמֹאל and יְמִין do not always act as relator nouns. They can also refer to the actual left hand or the right hand of a person,²⁶ in which instances they are regular nouns. The previous verses, however, demonstrate that the nouns also act relationally, referring to the right side or left side of a thing or person.²⁷ Unlike prepositions, these relator nouns can also be used in sentences in which they are not grammatically related to another word.

The relator nouns אַחֲרִית and אַחֲרִית. The relator nouns אַחֲרִית and אַחֲרִית and אַחֲרִית and לפּגרים. The relator nouns אַחֲרִית and מפּגרים and the things to which they are semantically related, usually referring to the beginning, רֹאָשׁ, or the end אַחֲרִית, of the related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically and grammatically relative to such things as דָּבַר, שָׁנָה , הָאַשְׁמֹרֶת הַתִּיכוֹנָה, and הַ-.²8

Judges 7:19a

²⁶Cf. Gen 48:14; Judg 5:26; Pss 21:9; 26:10; 74:11; 89:14, 26; 138:7; 139:10; 144:11; Song of Sol 2:6; 8:3; Isa 48:13; Dan 12:7, but also cf. Gen 48:17; Judg 3:15, 21; 7:20; 20:16; 2 Sam 20:9; Ps 73:23; 121:5; Jer 22:24 Ezek 39:3 where the nouns מון are actually in construct with the word 7.

²⁷N.b. especially how the two relator nouns further define the less-specific relator noun אַצֶּל in Neh 8:4. Cf. also 1 Kgs 7:39 where the relator nouns further define the less-specific relator noun פָתַף.

²⁸For more examples of ראש ר referring to the beginning of something, see Exod 12:2; Num 10:10; 28:11; Lam 2:19. For more examples of אַחַרִית referring to the end of something see Gen 49:1; Num 23:10; 24:14; Deut 4:30; 32:20; Pss 37:38; 73:17; Prov 14:12; 16:25; Isa 2:2; 47:7; Jer 5:31; 23:20; Lam 1:9; Ezek 23:25; 38:16; Dan 8:19; 11:4; Hos 3:5; Amos 4:2; 9:1; Mic 4:1. N.b. especially Num 24:20; Job 8:7; 42:12, where אַחַרִית and רַאשִׁית occur together as an antonymic, relator noun pair.

וַיָּבָא גִּדְעוֹן וּמֵאָה־אִישׁ אֲשֶׁר־אִתוֹ בִּקְצֵה הַמַּחַבָּה רָאשׁ הָאַשְׁמְרֵת הַתִּיכוֹנָה

And Gideon, and the one hundred men with him, came into the outskirts of the camp at the **beginning of** the middle watch.

Ezekiel 40:1a

בְּעַשְׂרִים וְחָמֵשׁ שָׁנָה לְגָלוּתֵנוּ בְּרֹאשׁ הַשָּׁנָה בַּעַשְוֹר לַחֹׁדֵשׁ

In the twenty-fifth year of our exile, in the **beginning of** the year on the tenth day of the month.

Deuteronomy 11:12²⁹

אֶּבֶץ אֲשֶׁר־יְהוָה אֱלֹהֶיךָ דֹרֵשׁ אֹתָה תָּמִּיד עֵינֵי יְהוָה אֱלֹהֶיךָ בָּה מֵרִשִּׁית ׁ הַשְּׁנָּה וְעַד **אַחֲרֵית** שָׁנָה:

a land for which the LORD your God cares, the eyes of the LORD your God are continually upon it; from the beginning of the year until the **end of** the year.

Ecclesiastes 7:8³⁰

טָוֹב אַחַרִית דָּבֶר מֵרֵאשִׁיתִוֹ טָוֹב אֱרַדְ־רְוֹחַ מִגְּבַה־רְוֹחַ:

The **end of** a matter is better than the beginning of it, *and* patience of spirit is better than pride of spirit.

Amos 8:10

וְהָפַּכְתִּי חַגַּיכֶּם לְאָבֶל וְכָל־שִׁירֵיכֶם לְקִינָּה וְהַעֲלֵיתִי עַל־כָּל־מָתְנַיִם שָׁק וְעַל־כָּל־רָאשׁ קָרְחָה וְשַׂמְתִּיהָ כְּאֲבֶל יָחִיד **וְאַחֲרִיתָה** כִּיוֹם מָר:

And I will turn your festivals into mourning and all your songs to dirges, and I will put sack cloth upon all loins and baldness upon all heads, and I will make it as the mourning of an only *child*, and the **end of** it will be as a day of bitterness.

These verses demonstrate that temporal relator nouns are less restrictive in their lexical relationships than spatial relator nouns. For instance in Ecclesiastes 7:8, the

 $^{^{29}}$ N.b. the use of ראשית in this sentence.

 $^{^{30}}$ N.b. the use of רַאשִׁית in this sentence as well.

word to which אַחֲרִית is semantically and grammatically related, דָּבֶר, 31 does not have a specific meaning. Thus, the meaning to which אַחֲרִית is actually related is communicated in the context of the passage instead of by the word to which it is grammatically linked. 32 Also in Amos 8:10, the pronominal suffix הַ - of the relator noun אַחֲרִית seems to be an inclusive reference to the end of all the events described in Amos 8:8-10. Thus, even though אַחֲרִית is grammatically related to the suffix, it is semantically related to the series of events expressed in the context. 33 Since אַחֲרִית can be semantically related to a series of events, it seems plausible that רֵאשִׁית may function in a similar manner in Genesis 1:1.34

The relator noun רֵאשִׁית. The relator noun רֵאשִׁית also describes temporal relationships between itself and the things to which it is semantically related, usually referring to the beginning of the related word or concept. In can be lexically and grammatically relative to such things or people as שְׁנָה (Deut 11:12), אִיוֹב (Job 8:7; 42:12), אִיוֹב (Prov 4:7), דְּבֶּת (Prov 1:17), דְּבֶּת (Prov 8:22), חֲכְּמָה (Prov 17:14), בְּבֶּר (Eccl 7:8), מַמְלְכוּת (Jer 26:1; 27:1; 28:1; 49:34), and הַשְּׁאַת is a relator noun, and it most likely has a relative meaning, even in Genesis 1:1.

The semantic dependence of the words רְאשׁ , יָמִין , שְׁמֹאל , בַּיִת , חוּץ , אָחוֹר , פָּנֶה , רֹאשׁ , יָמִין , שְׁמֹאל , בַּיִת , חוּץ , אָחוֹר , אָחְוֹר , מָּנֶה is what makes them relator nouns, and all of the cited examples demonstrate this trait. In most contexts these relator nouns would be empty of meaning if

³¹The relator nouns רְאשִׁית, אַחֲרִית, and רֹאשׁ may be semantically and implicitly related to this word when no other concept is specified in the context of their passages (cf. Gen 1:1; Isa 41:4, 26; 46:10; 48:16).

 $^{^{32}}$ N.b. that the same applies to the relator noun רַאשִׁית.

³³Cf. also Isa 47:7; Jer 5:31.

³⁴That is, of course, without the pronominal suffix 7, -.

³⁵ יבאשִׁית is also paired with the relator noun אַחֲרִית in Job 42:12; Eccl 7:8; Isa 46:10.

they were not semantically related to another word or concept. For example, if the relator noun האשׁמֶרֶת הַּמִּיכוֹנָה, "beginning," is not semantically related to the phrase הָאֵשְׁמֹרֶת הַתִּיכוֹנָה, "the middle watch," in Judges 7:19a, then no reader would be able to determine what is the beginning of. However, the main question to be asked now is since relator nouns are lexically relative, do they always have to be in grammatical construct? In other words, do relator nouns always have to be translated with the preposition "of"?

Grammatically Absolute Relator Nouns

Although relator nouns in general are both lexically and grammatically relative to another word, or in the case of some temporal relator nouns another concept, they can also be lexically relative to another word or concept while functioning as a grammatical absolute. Even in English, relator nouns do not have to be grammatically linked to another word. The most notable English example is the use of the relator noun "end" at the conclusion of a story. No English speaker argues that because the word "end" is relative in meaning, the phrase "The End" must be relative in form as well and changed to "The End of." Furthermore, when reading the phrase "The End" at the completion of a book or movie, the English speaker does not ask, "The end of what?" The meaning to which the relator noun "end" is semantically related is implicit in context of the event. Thus, in English, relator nouns can be both lexically relative and grammatically absolute. Similarly, relators nouns in Hebrew can also be both lexically relative and grammatically absolute. In other words, these Hebrew relator nouns, even though they are relative, can stand alone and are not required to be rendered with the preposition "of."

The relator nouns אָחוֹר and אָחוֹר. The relator nouns אָחוֹר and קבָּה and אָחוֹר. The relator nouns אָחוֹר and can be relative in meaning and grammatically absolute, while still referring to the front, פָּנָה, or the back, אָחוֹר, of a related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically, but not grammatically, relative to such things or people as מגלת־ספָר.

2 Samuel 10:9a

וַיָּרָא יוֹאָב כֵּי־הָיִתָה אֱלָיוֹ פָּנֵי הַמִּלְחָמֶה מִ**פְּנִים וּמֵאַחִוֹר**

And Joab saw that the front of the battle was against him from the **front** and from the **back**.

1 Chronicles 19:10a

וַיַּרָא יוֹאָב כִּי־הָיִתָה פְנֵי־הַמִּלְחָמֶה אֵלָיו פָּנִים וְאָתִוֹר

And Joab saw that the front of the battle was against him **front** and **back**.

2 Chronicles 13:14a

וַיִּפְנַוּ יְהוּדָה וְהִנֵּה לָהֶם הַמִּלְחָמָה ׁ **פָּנִים וְאָחׁוֹר**

And Judah turned, and behold the battle was against him **front** and **back**.

Ezekiel 2:10a³⁶

וַיִּפְרָשׁ אוֹתָהּ לְפָנֵי וְהֵיא כְתוּבָה פָּנִים וְאָחָוֹר

And he spread it out before him, and it was inscribed *on* the **front** and the **back**. In 2 Chronicles 13:14 both nouns are clearly acting in the place of the prepositions אַחֲבֵי and לְּפְבֵי , which are also in relation to יְהוֹדָה in 13:13. However, even though the two nouns are relative in meaning to יְהוֹדָה they are grammatically absolute. In other words, they have a relative meaning, but are not rendered with the preposition "of."

The relator nouns בֵּיִת and בֵּיִת and בַּיִת and בַּיִת and בַּיִת and בַּיִת and בַּיִת and בַּיִת and בִּית and בִּית and בִּית and grammatically absolute, while still referring to the outside, הוץ, or the inside, בַּיִת, of a related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically, but not grammatically, relative to such things as אֵרוֹן and בַּיִת, and אֵרוֹן.

Deuteronomy 23:13-14a

וְיָד תִּהְיֶה לְדֶׁ מִחָּוּץ לַמַּחֲנֶה וְיָצֵאתָ שֶׁמָּה **חְוּץ:** וִיָּתֵד תִּהְיֵה לְדָ עַל־אֵזֵבֶך וְהַיָּה בִּשְׁבִתְּ**דְ חִוּיץ** וְחַפַּרְתָּה בָּה

 $^{^{36}}$ קנה and אָחוֹר are semantically relative to מְגַלַּת־סֵפֶּר in Ezek 2:9.

And there shall be a place for you outside of the camp, and you will go out to there on the outside, and there will be a spade for you among your tools, and it will be, when you sit down outside, that you will dig with it,

Genesis 19:16b-17a

וַיֹּצְאָהוּ וַיַּנְּחָהוּ מִחְוּץ לָעִיר: וַיִּהִי כְהוֹצִיאָם אֹתָם **הַחוּצְה** וַיֹּאמֶר הִמְּלֵט עַל־נַפְשֶּׁךְ

And they brought him out and put him outside of the city, and it came about, when they brought them to the **outside**, that one said, "Flee for your life,

Ezekiel 7:15³⁷

ָּהַחֶרֵב **בַּחֹּיץ** וְהַדֶּבֶר וְהָרָעָב **מִבָּיִת** אֲשֶׁר בַּשָּׁדָה בַּחֶרֵב יָמֹוּת וַאֲשֶׁר בָּעִּיר רָעֵב וְדֶבֶר יֹאכְלֶנּוּ:

The sword is on the **outside** and the plague and famine are on the **inside** so that in the field, one will die by the sword, and in the city another will be devoured by famine and plague.

Genesis 6:14b

קנים מַעשה אַת־הַמָּבָה וְכַפַּרְתַּ אֹתָה מְבָּיִת וֹמְחִוּץ בַּכְּפַר:

You will make the ark with cells, and you will cover it from the **inside** and the **out-side** with pitch.

Exodus 37:2a³⁸

וַיָּצַפָּהוּ זַהָב טָהָוֹר מְבַּיִת וּמְחָוֹץ

And he overlayed it with pure gold from the **inside** and the **outside**.

In Deuteronomy 23:13-14a the relator noun הויץ is used three times and has the exact same meaning in all three instances. However, in two of the instances the noun is grammatically absolute, but lexically relative to the word מַחֲבֶּה. are semantically, not grammatically, related to the word עיר. The

³⁷ and בית are both semantically related to the word עיר.

ארון and בית are semantically related to ארון in Exod 37:1.

 $^{^{39}}$ Cf. also the two uses of אוד in Gen 19:16b-17.

preposition בְּ is also semantically related to עִיר. Again, however, the preposition cannot be grammatically independent. Thus, the grammatically absolute and lexically relative is used in its place and is not translated with the preposition "of."

The relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין. The relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין can be relative in meaning and grammatically absolute, while still referring to the left side, with the right side, יָמִין, of a related word or concept. In the following examples they are lexically, but not grammatically, relative to such things and people as תֵּיכָל, מִוְבַחַ, and עֵשָׂהאֵל . עֵשָׂהאֵל.

2 Kings 12:10a

וַיִּקُח יְהוֹנָדָע הַכּּהֵן אֲרָוֹן אֶחֶׁד וַיִּקֹּב חָר בְּדַלְתֻּוֹ וַיִּתֵּן אֹתוֹ אֵצֶל הַמִּוְבֵּׁחַ **בִּיְמִין** בִּבוֹא־אֵישׁ בֵּית יִהֹוָה

And Jehoida the priest took a chest and bore a hole into its door and placed it on the side of the altar, on the **right side**, as one is coming into the house of the LORD.

2 Chronicles 3:17a

וָיָבֶּןם אֶת־הָעַמוּדִים עַל־פְּנֵי הַהֵּילָל אֶחֶד **מִיָּמִירְ** וְאֶחָד **מְהַשִּׂמְאוּל**

And he placed the pillars in front of the temple, one on the **right side** and one on the **left side**.

1 Chronicles 6:29

ּוּבְנֵיְ מְרָרֵי אֲחֵיהֶם עַל־הַשְּׂמְאוּל אֵיתָן בֶּן־קִישִׁי בֶּן־עַבְדָי בֶּן־מַלְּוּךְ:

And the sons of Merari, their brothers, were upon the **left side**, Ethan son of Kishi, son of Abdi, son of Malluch,

2 Samuel 2:19

ַנִיּרְדָּף עֲשָׂהאֵל אַחֲרֵי אַבְנֵרְ וְלְא־נָטָה לָּלֶּכֶת עַל־**הַיָּמִין** וְעַל־**הַשְּׂמֹאול** מֵאַחֲרֵי אַבְנֵר:

And Asahel pursued after Abner and he did not turn to go to the **right side** or the **left side** from *going* after Abner.

In 2 Kings 12:10a the relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין further define the less specific relator noun אָצֶל, just as they do in Nehemiah 8:4. However, in 2 Kings 12:10a the relator nouns

are grammatically absolute; whereas, in Nehemiah 8:4 they are in grammatical construct. Also in 2 Chronicles 3:17 the phrase in which the relator nouns שְׁמֹאל and are used is nearly identical to the phrase in Zechariah 4:3. However, in 2 Chronicles 3:17 the relator nouns are grammatically absolute; whereas, in Zechariah 4:3 they are in grammatical construct. Finally, in 1 Chronicles 6:29 the grammatically absolute relator noun שְׁמֹאל is semantically related to הֵימָן in 1 Chronicles 6:18, but in 1 Chronicles 6:24 its antonym יָמִין is in grammatical construct with the pronoun whose antecedent is also הֵימִין. Thus, rendering the relator nouns in 2 Kings 12:10a; 2 Chronicles 3:14; and 1 Chronicles 6:29 with the preposition "of" would be grammatically incorrect.

The relator nouns אַהָרִית and רֹאשׁ. The relator nouns אַהְרִית and ביא can be relative in meaning and grammatically absolute, while still referring to the beginning, of a related word or concept. However, the things to which they are semantically related are not always explicitly stated in the context of the passage.

Proverbs 8:23⁴²

ָמֵעוֹלָם נִפַּכְתִּי **מֵרֹאשׁ** מִקּדְמֵי־אָרֵץ:

From everlasting I have been established, from the **beginning**, from before the earth

Ecclesiastes 3:11b⁴³

גַם אַת־הַעֹלָם נָתַן בִּלְבָּם מִבִּלִּי אֵשֵׁר לֹא־יִמִצֶא הָאַדָּם אֵת־הַמַּעֲשֵׂה

 $^{^{40}}$ Cf. also 1 Kgs 7:39 where the relator nouns further define the less-specific relator noun פָתַף even though they are grammatically absolute.

⁴¹In all of the example passages in which a temporal איֹם is used in the absolute grammatical state, the LXX translates the word with the Greek equivalent ἀρχή.

אמש may be semantically related to מָפְּעָלִי in Prov 8:22. In general האש may be semantically related to such implicit concepts as תַּכְּלִיס, "everything," which is used to refer to all of creation in Jer 10:16. The text is not specific about the meaning to which הביל is semantically related; nevertheless, the meaning communicated by the verse as a whole is clear.

איש may be semantically related to the words בְּעַתוֹּ or הַכֹּל in Eccl 3:11a. In general ראש may be semantically related to such an implicit concept as דָּבָר, "thing or matter" (cf. Eccl 7:8).

אַשֶּׁר־עָשָׂה הָאֱלֹהָים **מֵרָאשׁ** וְעַד־סְוֹף:

Moreover, he has set eternity in their heart so that man will not find out the work which God does from **beginning** to end.

Isaiah 40:2144

בּלָוֹא תַדְעוּ הַלָּוֹא תִשְׁמַעוּ הַלָּוֹא הָגַּד מָרָאשׁ לְכָם הַלוֹא הַבְּינֹתָם מוֹסְדְוֹת הַאַרִץ:

Have you not known? Have you not heard? Has it not been declared to you from the **beginning**? Have you not understood from the foundations of the earth?

Isaiah 41:4⁴⁵

מִי־פַעַל וְעַשָּׁה לְרֵא הַדֹּרָוֹת מֶרָאשׁ אֲנֵי יָהוָה רָאשׁוֹן וְאֵת־אַחַרֹנִים אֲנִי־הִוּא:

Who has done and made *this*, calling the generations from the **beginning**? *It is* I, the LORD, the first and the last. I am He.

Isaiah 41:26a⁴⁶

מִי־הָגָיד מֵרֹאשׁ וְנַלָּעָה וּמִלְפָנִים וְנֹאמַר צַדִּיק

Who has declared it from the **beginning** that we might know and that we might say from former times, "You are righteous."

Isaiah 48:16⁴⁷

קָרְבָּוּ אַלַיִ שִׁמְעוּ־וֹאת לָא מֵרֹאשׁ בַּסֵתֶר דְּבַּרְתִּי מֵעֵת הֱיוֹתָה שָׁם אָנִי

Draw near to me, listen to this, *for* from the **beginning** I have not spoken in secret. From the time of its being there, I *am*.

מוֹסְדוֹת הָאָרֶץ may be semantically related to מוֹסְדוֹת הָאָרֶץ. In general מוֹסְדוֹת may be semantically related to such implicit concepts as הַכּל, "everything," or דָּבָר, "thing or matter."

⁴⁵The text gives no specifics about the thing to which אוֹם is semantically related; however, in general it may be semantically related to such implicit concepts as אָבָה, "time," הַכּּל, "everything," or דָּבָר, "thing or matter."

 $^{^{46}}$ ש may be semantically related to the events described in Isa 41:2, 3, and/or 25. In general may be semantically related to such an implicit concept as דְּבֶר , "thing or matter."

ראש may be semantically related to the events described in Isa 48:14. In general האש may be semantically related to such an implicit concept as דְּבֶר, "thing or matter."

declaring from the beginning, the **end**, and from before, that which has not been done,

Ecclesiastes 10:13⁴⁹

ָּתִחַלֵּת דְּבָרֵי־פֶּיהוּ סִכְלְוּת **וְאַחֲרֵית** פִּיהוּ הוֹלֵלְוּת רָעָה:

The beginning of the words of his mouth are folly and the **end** of the words of his mouth are evil madness.

These verses demonstrate that even temporal relator nouns can also be grammatically absolute even though they are lexically relative. However, even the meanings to which they are semantically related do not have to be explicitly stated in the verse; rather, the context of the passage as a whole supplies the general concept to which these nouns are semantically related.

The relator noun באשית. In Isaiah 46:10, the relator nouns אַהַרִית and בּאֹשִׁית are grammatically absolute, but semantically related to a meaning that is implicit in the passage. As Humbert notes, the meanings of the words are semantically related to an unspecified laps de temps (lapse of time). Like the English phrase "The End," where the meaning of the relator noun is relative to a meaning implicit in the context of the event, the relator nouns אַהַרִית and אַהַרִית are relative to a meaning implicit in the context of Isaiah 46:10a. This implicit relationship in meaning is not lost on Hebrew speakers. Ramban, a Medieval Jewish rabbi, states, "But there is the verse [Isa 46:10] 'Declaring the end from the beginning' (mê-rê'shîth), and if he constructs (the word mê-

 $^{^{48}}$ The text is not specific about the concept to which אַחֲרִית is semantically related. In general אַחֲרִית may be semantically related to דָּבָר, "thing or matter."

אַחַרית⁴⁹ seems to be semantically related to the word דָּבְרֵי. The parallelism suggests that דָּבְרֵי has been elided in the second colon.

⁵⁰Cf. Eccl 7:8 where the two relator nouns are in grammatical construct, but are still lexically relative to something that is unspecified.

rê'shîth) with dâbhâr (thing) understood, here too [in Gen 1:1] it can be constructed (with a word understood) in the same way."⁵¹ Thus, the passage of Isaiah 46:10a demonstrates that the noun בְּאשִׁית can be grammatically absolute and lexically relative to a meaning that is implicit in the context of the passage.⁵² It is a perfect parallel to the use of בַּאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1.

All of the other examples demonstrate two things concerning relator nouns as a whole. First, contrary to the views of some scholars, a relative meaning for a relator noun does not require a "relative" construction or translation—i.e. "in the beginning of." Relator nouns can be lexically relative, yet grammatically absolute.⁵³ This phenomenon is typical of relator nouns and is neither a lexical nor a grammatical anomaly. Second, with respect to temporal relator nouns, the words or concepts to which they are semantically related do not have to be explicitly stated in the context of the passage. Like the English phrase "The End," the context of a relator noun can supply the relational meaning implicitly. In the case of Genesis 1:1, the context tells the reader that the concept to which they are semantically related may be the universe, time, or the event of creation

⁵¹Jacob Newman, trans., *The Commentary of Nahmanides on Genesis Chapters 1–6*, Pretoria Oriental Series, vol. 4 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1960), 33. Rashi also understands Isa 46:10a in the same sense. See Rashi, *Genesis*, in *Pentateuch: With Targum Onkelos, Haphtorah and Prayers for Sabbath and Rashi's Commentary*, trans. M. Rosenbaum and A. M. Silbermann (London: Shapiro, Vallentine & Co., 1946), 2. Even the old Karaite scholars 'Ali ben Suleimân and Ibn Janâḥ contemplate the relative nature of מור באשים and the implicit meaning to which it is semantically related in Gen 1:1. See Solomon L. Skoss, "The Arabic Commentary of 'Ali ben Suleimān the Karaite on the Book of Genesis: Edited from Unique Manuscripts and Provided with Critical Notes and an Introduction" (Ph.D. diss., The Dropsie College for Hebrew and Cognate Learning, Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society's Press, 1928), 93 n. 1.2.

⁵²Wenham also seems to recognize the word's relationship to a meaning implicit in the context. He states, "In temporal phrases [רַאשִׁית] is most often used relatively, i.e., it specifies the beginning of a particular period, e.g., 'From the beginning of the year' (Deut 11:12) or 'At the beginning of the reign of' (Jer 26:1). More rarely, as [in Gen 1:1], it is used absolutely, with the period of time left unspecified; only the context shows precisely when is meant, e.g., Isa 46:10. 'Declaring the end from the beginning and from ancient times (מקרם) things not yet done' (cf. Prov 8:22)." Wenham, *Genesis*, 13–14.

⁵³Skinner states, "But [the traditional translation] is not in accordance with the usage of "ראשׁית." Skinner, *Genesis*, 13. The cited examples of relator nouns demonstrate this statement to be incorrect.

("In the beginning of all things," "In the beginning of time," or "In the beginning of the creation event"). It may be that the related concept is not specified because Genesis 1:1 describes, all at the same time, the beginning of the universe, time, and the creation event. Most readers of the traditional English translation of Genesis 1:1 understand the word "beginning" to be semantically related to such implicit concepts.

Possible Objections to the "Absolute" Rendering

This dissertation grants opposing scholars the argument that באשׁית has a relative meaning, even in Isaiah 46:10 and Genesis 1:1; however, there are some objections that must be addressed. Scholars of the dependent-clause translation also seem to argue that even if באשׁית in Genesis 1:1 is rendered "In the beginning," then it describes an absolute beginning and has an absolute meaning not a relative meaning. Skinner states,

In its temporal applications [רֵאשִׁית] is always defined by [a] gen[itive] or suf[fix] except in Is. 46^{10} , where the antithesis to אחרית inevitably suggests the intervening series of which [רֵאשִׁית] is the initial phase. It is therefore doubtful if [בָּרֵאשִׁית] could be used of an absolute beginning detached from its sequel, or of an indefinite past, like בַּתחלה or בַּתחלה (see Is. 1^{26} , Gn. 1^{33}).

Furthermore Humbert argues, "Placés devant l'alternative: sens absolu ou sens relative de $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{\imath}t$ dans Gen. 1,1, nous arrivons à la conclusion qu'en aucum des cas où ce sens est temporal il ne s'agit du commencement absolu." Even Lane states,

[Humbert's analysis that the temporal meaning of בְּרֵאשִׁית never implies the idea of an absolute beginning] leads logically to the conclusion that $r\bar{e}(')\tilde{s}\hat{\imath}t$ in Gen. i 1 does not have the meaning "the beginning" either. This conclusion is somewhat furthered by the fact that the opposite of $r\bar{e}(')\tilde{s}\hat{\imath}t$, 'aḥār $\hat{\imath}t$, is always used with a relative rather than an absolute meaning. It would seem, therefore, that neither $r\bar{e}(')\tilde{s}\hat{\imath}t$ nor 'aḥār $\hat{\imath}t$

⁵⁴Ibid., 12 n. 1.

⁵⁵Humbert, "Trois Notes," 87 The translation is, "Placed in front of the alternative: absolute *meaning* or relative meaning of $r\bar{e}\bar{s}\bar{n}$ in Genesis 1:1, we come to the conclusion that in none one of the cases in which the meaning is temporal is it dealing with an absolute beginning."

could be used to indicate the absolute beginning or absolute end.⁵⁶
On this point, whether the rendering "in the beginning" implies an absolute beginning, with an absolute meaning, the debate can become confusing because scholars do not necessarily define the term "absolute beginning."⁵⁷

The reasoning of Skinner and Humbert suggests that their possible explanation for "absolute beginning" has to do with the relator noun's inability to function alone, that is without relation to some word or concept to complete its meaning. Thus, an absolute beginning would be a beginning that is semantically unrelated to anything. Skinner may be arguing that in Isaiah 46:10 the pairing of אַחָרית with אַחָרית adds the necessary "sequel" to which בַּרְאשִׁית becomes related, which would keep it from becoming "absolute." Thus, בְּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 cannot be rendered as "In the beginning" because it does not have the necessary sequel with which to relate, making it an "absolute beginning" detached from any meaning.

The problem with this argumentation, whether it is Skinner's or not, is that in Isaiah 46:10, רֵאשִׁית does nothing to help to supply the meaning of מְבָּאשִׁית nor relate it to anything. Both are relator nouns that need to be semantically related to something in the sentence or the context to complete their meaning. Without a noun or concept with which to relate, the question in Isaiah 46:10 still arises, "The end and the beginning of what?" However, the meaning to which both אַחֲרִית are semantically related is implicitly supplied by the context of the passage. Skinner and Humbert would be right to argue, if this is the manner of their argument, that רַאשִׁית cannot be rendered "In the beginning" if it is detached from a semantic relationship to any other word or concept. This kind of absolute beginning would be a true antithesis to a relative beginning.

⁵⁶Lane, "Initiation of Creation," 67.

⁵⁷Westermann states, "The discussion has been bound up very much with the question of an absolute or construct state, of whether Gen 1:1 is speaking of an absolute beginning or not. One must be very cautious about using the words absolute and relative here" Westermann, *Genesis* 1–11, 96.

However, in the Isaiah 46:10 passage, the context of the verse supplies the answer to the question, "The end and the beginning of what?" The LORD declares from the beginning of an event, its end. The beginning and the end are grammatically absolute, the event or laps de temps is contextually implied. Thus, the Isaiah 46:10 passage demonstrates again, as do the uses of other temporal relator nouns, that מַּשִׁיִּת can be rendered grammatically absolute and can be relative in meaning to a contextually implied concept.

However, in a different objection Lane states, "rē(')šīt does not refer to the absolute beginning or to any other definite beginning; neither does 'aḥārît refer to any definite end." This excerpt and the one just cited suggest that he may define the term "absolute beginning" as a reference to the very first beginning of the universe, the cosmological first cause. If this explanation matches his thought, then he may be arguing one of two things. Either מַרְאשִׁית never refers to the "absolute beginning" of the world since it is never used to refer to such, or in order to refer to the "absolute beginning" of the world reward passed to refer to such, or in order to refer to the "absolute beginning" of the world reward passed to have an absolute or non-relative meaning, which as a relator noun it cannot.

The problem with the first argument, whether it is what Lane is arguing or not, is that it confuses the referent of a word with the sign. The temporal meaning of price always relates to the beginning of something, whether it is life, wisdom, creation, or anything else. The word באשׁית can be applied to any type of beginning as long as the referent has the qualities or properties of the sign. The word tree can be applied to any large plant with a wooden stem and branches as long as the referent has those properties

⁵⁸Lane, "Initiation of Creation," 67.

⁵⁹Murphy explains both concepts in his definition of the word referent, "referent. n. In theoretical linguistics, an objective thing itself. The referent is contrasted with the sign, which is the word used to denote an object or a concept of some sort. The referent may be either an animate, inanimate, or abstract noun. The words *car* and *automobile* are both signs used in the English language system to refer to a particular referent, a machine designed for transportation." Todd J. Murphy, *Pocket Dictionary for the Study of Biblical Hebrew* (Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press, 2003), s.v. "referent."

that are specific to trees . The same is true for the beginning of creation. As long as the "beginning" of the world has the properties of being a "beginning," namely being the start of something, then the temporal meaning of ראשׁית can be applied to the very beginning of creation. Furthermore, באשִׁית always refers to the beginning of a thing, and not the thing of which it is the beginning. Thus, ראַשִּׁית in Genesis 1:1 can refer to the cosmological first cause, the start of the world.

The problem with the second argument is that the absolute beginning of creation, the cosmological first cause, does not itself have an absolute meaning. It has a relative meaning. Even though, the cosmological first cause would be defined as the very first beginning, it is still the beginning of something. It is the beginning of the world. Thus, it makes no sense to argue that if מַאָּשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 refers to the very first beginning, the cosmological first cause, then it has an absolute meaning. Clearly even the cosmological first beginning is relative in meaning. Thus, מַאָשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 can refer to the cosmological first cause and still be relative in meaning. Again, Lane may not be arguing in this manner; nevertheless, if he is, the argument itself does not follow. If Skinner, Humbert, and Lane have some other definitions for the term "absolute beginning" or "absolute meaning" then, they do not define or communicate them.

Lexical Conclusion

The evidence suggests that the word בְּאשִׁית has a relative meaning in Genesis 1:1, not an absolute meaning. Even if בְּרֵאשִׁית refers to the beginning of the world, or the cosmological first cause of the world, its meaning is still relative to that event. As a relator noun, בַּאשִׁית is empty of meaning until it is semantically related to something in

 $^{^{60}}$ This is most likely Lane's argument if his definition of "absolute beginning" is the cosmological first cause. He states, "This conclusion is somewhat furthered by the fact that the opposite of $r\bar{e}(')\bar{s}\hat{\imath}t$, 'aḥār $\hat{\imath}t$, is always used with a relative rather than an absolute meaning. It would seem, therefore, that neither $r\bar{e}(')\bar{s}\hat{\imath}t$ nor 'aḥār $\hat{\imath}t$ could be used to indicate the absolute beginning or absolute end." Lane, "Initiation of Creation," 67.

the sentence or context, whether that thing is explicitly or implicitly stated. The evidence also suggests that even though אַמית has a relative meaning it can be used in the absolute state. It is common and normal for relator nouns to be used in a grammatically absolute manner, so scholars should not consider it odd that אַשִּית, with its relative meaning, can be grammatically absolute in Genesis 1:1. However, the lexical evidence can only prove that it is possible for בְּרֵאשִׁית to be in the absolute state. It cannot prove that it actually is in the construct state. Thus, further analysis is required at the grammatical and syntactical levels.

The Grammatical Level

At the grammatical level the central debate concerns the pointing of the Genesis 1:1 text, which is problematic for both translational positions. Proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that בְּרֵאשִׁית is in construct with אַדָּב, making the verse a dependent clause, but the pointing of the text sends mixed grammatical signals concerning the possibility of such a construction. If בְּרֵאשִׁית is in construct with אָבָּרָא then one would expect בְּרֵאשִׁית to be pointed as it is: with the vocal shewa. However, one would also expect בְּרָא to be pointed as an infinitive construct, בְּרָא rather than as a finite, perfect verb. Thus, the grammar of this translation seems awkward, but proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that such a construction is possible.

On the other hand, proponents of the traditional translation argue that בְּרֵאשִׁית is in the absolute state, making the verse an independent main clause, but the pointing of the text still sends mixed grammatical signals. If Genesis 1:1 is an independent main clause then one would expect בְּרָא to be pointed as it is: as a finite, perfect verb. However, if בַּרְאשִׁית is grammatically absolute and definite in meaning, 62 one would also

⁶¹The *rectum*, בָּרָא, of a construct chain makes the *regens*, בְּרָאשִׁית, definite; thus, the lack of the articular *gamets* is expected.

 $^{^{62}\}mathrm{As}$ a relator noun בְּרֵאשִׁית has to be semantically related to another word or concept. This

expect the word to be pointed with an articular *qamets*, בְּבֵאשִׁית, rather than with a vocal *shewa*.⁶³ Thus, the grammar of this translation seems awkward as well, but proponents of the traditional translation also argue that such a construction is possible.

The Dilemma of the Dependent Clause Translation

Again, the grammar of the dependent-clause translation seems especially awkward considering that in Genesis 5:1 the verb אָבָּר, functioning as the *rectum* of the noun בְּיוֹם, is pointed as an infinitive construct, אַבְּרֹא Why then is the verb not pointed in the same manner in Genesis 1:1 when it is the *rectum* of the noun בְּיִרֹא שִׁית? In order to show that such a construction is possible, proponents of the dependent-clause translation often cite other examples of nouns in grammatical construct with finite verbs. One of the most oft cited examples is from Hosea 1:2a, where the noun בְּרַבָּר It states,

תָּתִּלָּת דָּבֶּר־יְהוָה בְּהוֹשֻׁעַ וַיֹּאמֶר יְהוָה אֶל־הוֹשֵׁעַ לֵךְ קַח־לְךְּ אֲשֶׁת זְנוּנִים

When the LORD first spoke to Hosea, the LORD said to Hosea, "Go, get yourself a wife of whoredom," (NJPS)

The strength of this example is that the structure of the passage is very similar to Genesis 1:1, and the regens אַקְּהָ is nearly identical to רָאִשִׁית in meaning.⁶⁶ Furthermore, almost

relationship makes a relator noun definite in meaning, like the *nomen regens* of a construct chain. If the relator noun were indefinite in meaning it would not be related to anything and would hence be empty of meaning. Thus, if בְּרֵאשִׁית is a relator noun, it must be definite in meaning.

⁶³Since there is no morphological difference between the construct and absolute forms of באָשִׁית, one must use the pointing of the preposition בְּ to determine whether בְּרֵאשִׁית may be absolute or construct. (Cf. Neh 12:44 where the absolute form of בְאשִׁית is pointed with an articular *qamets*. Unfortunately this example can only be a morphological parallel to בַאשִׁית and not a lexical or grammatical parallel since it is not a temporal use of the word.)

 $^{^{64}\}mathrm{Cf.}$ also Gen 2:4 where the infinitive construct בִּיוֹם is the *rectum* of בִּיוֹם.

⁶⁵N.b. the construct form of the noun תחלת in this passage.

⁶⁶Both words seem to be virtually interchangeable. Cf. Prov 4:7 with 9:10; Jer 26:1 with Ezra 4:6; Isa 46:10 with Eccl 10:13.

all modern translations render Hosea 1:2a with a dependent temporal clause,⁶⁷ and some are nearly identical in structure to the dependent-clause translation of Genesis 1:1. For example the NIV renders Hosea 1:2a as "When the LORD began to speak through Hosea;" the NJPS renders Genesis 1:1 as "When God began to create heaven and earth." Thus, if מְּחַלֵּה can be in construct with the finite, perfect verb בְּרֵא שִׁית to be in construct with the finite, perfect verb בְּרֵא שִׁית to be in construct with the finite, perfect verb בְּרֵא in Genesis1:1.

In addition to the similarly structured passage of Hosea 1:2a, there are actually a great number of verses in which a noun is in construct with a finite verb. For instance the noun זְי is in construct with a finite verb in Exodus 4:13 and Lamentations 1:14. The noun זְי is in construct with a finite verb in Job 6:17; Jeremiah 6:15; 49:8; and 50:31. Finally, the noun יוֹם is in construct with a finite verb in Exodus 6:28; Leviticus 14:46; Numbers 3:1; Deuteronomy 4:15; 1 Samuel 25:15; Psalms 18:1; 56:10; 138:3; and Jeremiah 36:2. Many other examples will be cited in the syntactical section of this chapter when this specific grammatical construction is further analyzed. However, for now, the evidence clearly demonstrates that although the construction of a noun with a finite verb seems grammatically awkward, it is actually a common and natural occurrence in Biblical Hebrew. Thus, the grammatical evidence demonstrates that even though אַבְּרָא could be pointed as an infinitive construct, it is also possible for it to be pointed as a perfect, finite verb.

The Dilemma of the Traditional Translation

Again, the grammar of the traditional translation also seems somewhat

 $^{^{67}\}mathrm{Cf.}$ ESV, JPS, NASB, NIV, NKJV, NRSV, et al., but n.b. NAB, which seems to follow the rendering of the Vg.

⁶⁸In Gen 1:1 the NIV follows the traditional translation.

awkward. If בְּרֵאשִׁית is grammatically absolute and definite in meaning, then one would expect it to be pointed with an articular *qamets* rather than a vocal *shewa*. In order to show that the construction is not grammatically awkward, proponents of the traditional translation frequently use König's argument⁶⁹ that רַאשִׁית is a type of temporal noun that is often anarthrous when functioning as an adverbial expression of time, like אַלָּבָּם, רֵאשִׁית 70 Thus, if בְּרֵאשִׁית is functioning in this manner in Genesis 1:1, then it would not have to be pointed with the articular *qamets*. König's argument, however, should be rejected for two reasons. First, it is fraught with many problems and doesn't necessarily explain why these types of words are frequently anarthrous. Second, there is a better explanation for why בְּרֵאשִׁית is pointed with a vocal *shewa* that is more reflective of the evidence.

The complications of König's argument. As König argues, the word בְּרֵאשִׁית can certainly be classified as a temporal noun; however, many problems arise when he classifies it with other types of temporal nouns. First, temporal nouns like מוֹלְם and מוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and עוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and עוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and מוֹלְם and מוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and מִוֹלְם and מִוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and מוֹלְם and מוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and מוֹלְם and נוֹלְם are not lexically analogous to מִוֹלְם and עוֹלְם and נוֹלִם are not lexically analogous to מוֹלְם and נוֹלְם מוֹלְם מוֹלְם מוֹלְם מוֹלְם מוֹלְם מוֹלְם זוֹלִם מוֹלִם זוֹלְם זוֹלִם מוֹלִם זוֹלִם זוֹלָם זוֹלָם זוֹלָם זוֹלִם זוֹלִלָם זוֹלִם זוֹלִם זוֹלִם זוֹלָם זוֹלִם זוֹלִם זוֹלִם זוֹלָם זוֹלָם זוֹלָם זוֹלָם זוֹלִילָם זוֹלָם זוֹל

⁶⁹König, *Die Genesis*, 130 n. 1. Scholars who use König's argument are the following: Alexander Heidel, *The Babylonian Genesis: The Story of Creation*, 2nd ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1951), 92; Hasel, "Recent Translations," 158–59; Westermann, *Genesis 1–11*, 96; Bruce K. Waltke, "The Creation Account in Genesis 1:1–3, Part III: The Initial Chaos Theory and the Pre-creation Chaos Theory," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 132, no. 527 (July 1975): 223; Wenham, *Genesis*, 12; James Barr, "Was Everything That God Created Really Good?" in *God in the Fray: A Tribute to Walter Brueggeman*, ed. Tod Linafelt and Timothy K. Beal (Minneapolis: Fortress Press, 1998), 58; John C. Collins, *Genesis 1–4: A Linguistic, Literary, and Theological Commentary* (Phillipsburg, NJ: P&R Publishing, 2006), 51 n. 50.

 $^{^{70}}$ Cf. איל (Isa 40:21; 41:4, 26; 48:16; Prov 8:23, Eccl 3:11); קְּדֶם (Mic 5:1; Hab 1:12); עוֹלָם (Gen 3:22; 6:3, 4; Ps 90:2; Prov 8:23).

undefinable that it can refer to an indefinite period of past *or* future time. Thus, a possible explanation for why both מֵלֶם and עוֹלֶם can be both anarthrous and grammatically absolute is that they are lexically indefinite; an article would seem to imply a lexically definite meaning. Thus, these nouns cannot be used as examples to explain why a definite בְּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 can be both anarthrous and grammatically absolute.

König and the proponents of his argument might then counter that בַאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 also has a lexically indefinite meaning like that of קָּדֶם and קַּדָּם and its temporal uses, whether in construct or absolute (Isa 46:10), אַוֹּלֶם always has a definite meaning, מוֹלֶם and עוֹלֶם never do. Furthermore, as a relator noun, the meaning of is always semantically related to another word or concept, which makes the word naturally definite even if it is not grammatically related to another word. Anyone who might argue that בְאשִׁית has an indefinite meaning in Genesis 1:1 would have to argue that it has a non-relative meaning, which seems antithetical to the relator noun concept.

Second, proponents of the dependent-clause translation challenge König's argument. They counter that the examples with which he compares בְּרֵאשִׁית are all taken from poetic texts which do not frequently use definite articles. Brown states,

In addition, all the examples of related words used absolutely but without the article $(m\bar{e}r\bar{o})$ in Isa 40:21; 41:4, 26; 48:16; miqqedem in Isa 46:10; $m\bar{e}$ $\hat{o}l\bar{a}m$ in Isa 46:9) are culled from poetic texts, which by nature tend to "omit" the articles for nouns considered definite. Thus, on methodological grounds alone the comparison of poetic texts with Genesis 1 is problematic when used to argue for the absolute function of $b\bar{e}r\bar{e}$ $\hat{s}\hat{i}t$ in Gen 1:1. Indeed, the absence of the article still supports the interpretation of $b\bar{e}r\bar{e}$ $\hat{s}\hat{i}t$ as a construct.

⁷¹See BDB, s.v. "עוֹלִם".

 $^{^{72}}$ Even when it has the definite article, the word עוֹלָם has an indefinite meaning (cf. 1 Chr 16:36; Neh 9:5; Pss 41:14; 106:48).

⁷³Although most modern scholars do not make this argument for the traditional translation, this may have been the view of the targumic translators of Gen 1:1 and the LXX translators of Isa 46:10.

⁷⁴William P. Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology in the Hebrew and Greek Texts of Genesis 1:1–2:3*, Dissertation Series/Society of Biblical Literature, no. 132 (Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1993), 64. In order to counter this charge, Heidel suggests that the text of Gen 1 may itself be more poetic than prosaic.

Even though opponents raise this objection, proponents of König's argument rarely cite prose examples, even though they do exist and are a counter this challenge. However, if מוֹלְם and עוֹלְם are not semantically analogous to מְלֶבֶם and עוֹלְם, then there are no other prose examples with which to compare בְּאשִׁית. Isaiah 46:10 is a great parallel verse in which יב מוֹלְם is grammatically absolute, definite in meaning, and anarthrous, but a proponent of the dependent-clause translation can easily argue that the word would have a definite article if it were not in a poetic passage.

Third, since the temporal nouns רַאשׁית and בּאשׁים almost always refer to the beginning of something, they are much more comparable to the temporal relator noun הַּחְקַּהְ, which at times is semantically interchangeable with הְּחִלְּה, which at times is semantically interchangeable with הַּחְלָּה, which at times is semantically interchangeable with הַּחְלָּה, which at times is semantically interchangeable with הַּחְלָּה, which at times is semantically interchangeable with makes it a better methodological candidate for grammatical comparison. However, this is a problem for König and the proponents of his argument because even though הַּחְלָּה is often grammatically absolute, it always functions in this manner with the article, not without. Thus, according to this bit of evidence, the lexically comparable באשׁית should also have the article when it is grammatically absolute. The evidence as a whole demonstrates the weakness of König's argument, which makes the plausibility of the traditional translation weak as well. However, there is a better explanation for why a lexically definite and grammatically absolute articular gamets.

is a relator noun. The previous lexical discussion has already

See Heidel, *Babylonian Genesis*, 92 n. 41. However, no other proponents of the traditional translation seem to make this argument.

⁷⁵Cf. קְּדֶם Neh 12:46; עוֹלָם Gen 3:22; 6:4; 13:15; Exod 3:15; et al.

⁷⁶Cf. Prov 4:7 with 9:10; Jer 26:1 with Ezra 4:6; Isa 46:10 with Eccl 10:13.

⁷⁷Gen 13:3; 41:21; 43:18, 20; Judg 1:1; 20:18; 2 Sam 17:9; Neh 11:17; Isa 1:26; Dan 8:1; 9:21.

established that רֵאשִׁית is a relator noun. As shown earlier, the relator noun classification demonstrates that relator nouns, like רֵאשִׁית, can be grammatically absolute even though they are relative in meaning. This classification, however, can also explain why בְּרֵאשִׁית is pointed with a vocal *shewa* instead of an articular *qamets*.

Because relator nouns are relative in meaning to another word or concept, they are definite in meaning by nature. The following verses will demonstrate, however, that when they function as grammatical absolutes they can frequently be found with or without the article in passages of both prose and poetry. Consider the use of the relator nouns מבית and and another word or concept, they

Ezekiel 7:15

ָהַחָרֵב **בַּחוּץ** וְהַדֶּבֶר וְהָרָעָב **מִבָּיִת** אֲשֶׁר בַּשָּׂדָה בַּחֲרֵב יָמוּת וַאֲשֶׁר בַּעִּיר רָעֵב וָדֵבֵר יֹאכֵלֵנוּ:

The sword is on the **outside** and the plague and famine are on *the* **inside** so that in the field, one will die by the sword, and in the city another will be devoured by famine and plague.

Lamentations 1:20b⁷⁹

מַעֵי הַמַרְמָרוּ נֶהְפַּרָ לִבִּי בִּקְרָבִּי כֵּי מָרָוֹ מָרָיתִי **מְחִוּץ** שָׁכִּלָה־חֵרֶב **בַּבַּיִת** כַּמָּוֵת:

my organs are in turmoil, my heart is turned within me for I have certainly rebelled. On *the* **outside** the sword makes childless, on the **inside** it is like death.

In these verses בֵּת and הדין are paired together, like they are in other passages, ⁸⁰ and both are semantically related to the word עִיר. However, in both instances one relator noun is pointed with the article, but the other is not, even though both nouns are grammatically

⁷⁸This natural definiteness of relator nouns is similar to the natural definiteness of cardinal numbers. See GKC § 1341

⁷⁹There are a couple of reasons to translate the verse in this manner. First, Lam 1:19 suggests that the speaker of this passage is referring to the inside and the outside of a city during a siege, not the inside of a house. Second, the parallel language of Ezek 7:15 (cf. also Deut 32:25) matches the situation described in Lam 1:19-20 exactly. There are those who die by the sword outside of the city and those who perish of famine inside. Although Lam 2:21 does describe death by the sword in the streets, the more technical form הוצח is used in the passage rather than simply אות.

⁸⁰Gen 6:14; Exod 25:11; 37:2; 1 Kgs 7:9.

absolute and definite in meaning. Thus, the grammar of the passages demonstrates that a relator noun can be grammatically absolute and definite in meaning, but still be anarthrous.

Deuteronomy 23:13-14a⁸¹

וְיָד תִּהְיָה לְדֶׁ **מִחִּיץ** לֵפַחֲנֶה וְיָצֵאת שָׁפָה **חִּיץ:** ויָתֵד תִּהְיֵה לְדָ, עַל־אַזֶּבֶך וְהָיָה בִּשִׁבְתִּדְ חִפַּרְתָּה בָּה

And there shall be a place for you **outside** of the camp, and you will go out to there *on the* **outside**, and there will be a spade for you among your tools, and it will be when you sit down *on the* **outside**, you will dig with it,

In this example the relator noun אָחָהָ in the first clause of verse 13 is semantically and grammatically related to מַחֲבָּה and is clearly definite in meaning. However, in the latter half of verses 13 and 14, אוֹ is grammatically absolute, but still relative in meaning to However, in its grammatically absolute form, אָחָבָּה is anarthrous even though it is definite in meaning. Again, the evidence demonstrates that an anarthrous relator noun can be grammatically absolute and definite in meaning.

The relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין can also function in the same manner. Consider the following uses.

2 Samuel 2:21

וַיָּאמֶר לַוֹ אַבְנֵר נְטַהָ לְךָ עַל־יְמִינְדָ אַוֹ עַל־שְׂמֹאלֶרָ נֶאֶחַוֹ לְךָ אֶחָד מֵהַנְּעָרִים

And Abner said to him, "Turn yourself to the **right side** of you or to the **left side** of you and I will take one of the young men for you."

2 Samuel 2:19

ַוּיִרְדִּרְ עֲשָׂהאֵל אַחֲבֵי אַבְנַרְ וְלְא־נָטָה לָנֶּכֶת עַל־**הַיָּמִין** וְעַל־**הַשְּׂמֹאול** מֵאַחֲבֵי אַבְנַר:

And Asahel pursued after Abner and he did not turn to go to the **right side** or the **left side** from *going* after Abner

Numbers 20:17b

 $^{^{81}}$ The words "on the" are added to the translation to bring out the definiteness of the word דור.

בַרַך הַמֶּלֵךְ נַלֵּךְ לָאׁ נִטָּה יָמִין וּשְׂמֹאוֹל עֵד אֲשֵׁר־נַעַבְּר גִּבוּלֵךָ:

We will go the way of the king; we will not turn to *the* **right side** or *the* **left side** until we cross your territory.

Numbers 22:26

וַיָּוֹסֶף מַלְאַדְ־יְהוָה עַבָּוֹר וַיִּצֵמֹד בְּמָקוֹם צָּׁר אֲשֶׁר אֵין־דֶּרֶךְ לִנְטִוֹת יָמִין וּשְׂמְאוּל:

And the messenger of the LORD passed on further, and stood in the narrow place in which there is not a way to turn to *the* **right side** or *the* **left side**.

In these examples, the relator nouns יָמִין and יָמִין are used with the verb בְּטָה to describe turning from the path either to the right side or the left side of oneself (cf. 2 Sam 2:21). The Numbers passages, however, demonstrate that this word pair, when used in the same way with the same verb, can be grammatically absolute and definite in meaning even though both words are anarthrous.⁸²

1 Kings 7:39a

וַיָּתַן אֶת־הַמְּכֹנוֹת חָמֵשׁ עַל־כָּתָף הַבַּיִת מִיָּמִין וְחָמֵשׁ עַל־כַּתָף הַבַּיִת מְשִּׂמֹאלְוֹ

And he placed the stands, five on the side of the temple on *the* **right side** and five upon the side of the temple on its **left side**.

2 Chronicles 3:17a

וַיָּקֶם אֶת־הָעַמּוּדִים עַל־פְּנֵי הַהֵּילָל אֶחָד **מִיָּמִירְ** וְאֶחָד **מִהַשִּׂמְאוּל**

And he placed the pillars in front of the temple, one on *the* **right side** and one on the **left side**.

Finally, both of these examples demonstrate that even though יָמִין and יָמִין are used in exactly the same manner, שְׁמֹאל is grammatically definite and יָמִין is not. Both, however, are definite in meaning, which again suggests that relator nouns can be both

⁸²Num 20:17 and Deut 2:27 describe very similar happenings where the Israelites request a nation's permission to travel through their land, and they swear not to deviate to their left or to their right from the path. However, Num 20:17 uses the verb לַטָּל to describe not turning to one's left or right, and Deut 2:27 uses the verb סור These parallel verses suggest that the act of turning, or not turning, to one's left or right can be described by both verbs. The examples from 2 Samuel suggest that the relator nouns שַׁמֹאל when used either with סור סור מור מור שׁמֹאל when used either with מור מור מור מור שׁמֹאל are definite in meaning even though they are anarthrous.

grammatically absolute and definite in meaning, yet anarthrous in form.

In addition to these passages, there are a number of verses in which a definite and grammatically absolute relator noun can be either articulated or anarthrous. The relator nouns אחוֹר and פֿנה are always anarthrous when they are grammatically absolute (2 Sam 10:9; 1 Chr 19:10; 2 Chr 13:14; Ps 139:5; and Ezek 2:10). The relator nouns אורץ and בֵּיָת can be pointed with the article when they are grammatically absolute (Gen 9:22; 19:17; 24:31; 39:11; Exod 21:19; Lev 18:9; Deut 24:11; 25:5; Judg 12:9; 19:25; 2 Sam 13:18; 2 Kgs 4:3; 2 Kgs 10:24 Ezra 10:13 Job 31:32; Ps 41:7; Prov 22:13; 24:27 Song of Sol 8:1; Ezek 41:9, 17, 25; Hos 7:1), but there are other passages in which they are anarthrous (Gen 6:14; Exod 12:46; 25:11; 37:2; Lev 14:41; Deut 23:13, 14; 32:25; 1 Kgs 6:6, 15, 16; 7:9; Isa 33:7; Lam 1:20; Ezek 7:15; 40:5, 19; 46:2; 47:2). The relator nouns and ימין can also be pointed with an article when they are grammatically absolute (Gen 13:9; 2 Sam 2:19; 1 Chr 6:29; 2 Chr 3:17; Neh 12:31; Ezek 1:10), but mostly they are anarthrous (Gen 24:49; Num 20:17; 22:26; Deut 2:27; 5:32; 17:11, 20; 28:14; Josh 1:7; 17:7 19:27; 23:6; 1 Sam 6:12; 1 Kgs 7:39, 49; 2 Kgs 12:10; 22:2; 2 Chr 3:17; 4:6, 7, 8; 34:2; Job 23:9; 30:12; Ps 142:5; Prov 4:27; Isa 54:3). Finally, the temporal relator nouns אחרית and אחרית are almost always anarthrous when they are grammatically absolute (Ps 37:37; Prov 8:23; 23:18; 24:14; 24:20; Eccl 3:11; 10:13; Isa 40:21; 41:4, 26; 46:10; 48:16; Jer 29:11).83

The main reason that relator nouns can be anarthrous when they are grammatically absolute and definite in meaning is that they are in a state of flux. On the one hand, they are in an almost implicit grammatical construction with a related thing or

⁸³One could argue that in some cases, in which אַחֲרִית is grammatically absolute, it should be rendered as "future" rather than "end," which would mean that the word is not being used as a relator noun (cf. Ps 37:37; Prov 23:18; 24:14, 20; Jer 29:11). However, אַחֲרִית is often semantically related to a person and is used as a reference to the latter days of that person's life (Num 23:10; Job 8:7; 42:12; Prov 5:11; 19:20; Jer 17:11). Thus, in the cases where אַחֲרִית is grammatically absolute, but implicitly related to a person, it still functions as a relator noun even though it could be rendered as "future."

concept,⁸⁴ and on the other hand, they are grammatically absolute with a definite meaning. Because these nouns are lexically dependent on another word or concept to complete their meaning, like a noun in grammatical construct, one would expect grammatically absolute relator nouns to be anarthrous. However, because they have a definite meaning when they are grammatically absolute, one would also expect them to have the definite article. Thus, it is not surprising that absolute relator nouns can occur with or without the article. Thus, if the relator noun בְּרֵאשִׁית is grammatically absolute in Genesis 1:1, it does not have to be pointed with an articular *qamets*, even though it could be. Such is the nature of relator nouns in this grammatical state of flux.

Grammatical Conclusion

The grammatical evidence clearly demonstrates that בְּרֵאשִׁית can be both a grammatical absolute or construct, making both translations possible. Even though the grammar of the dependent-clause translation suggests that the first two words of Genesis 1:1 should be pointed as בְּרֵאשִׁית בְּרֹא , the grammatical evidence demonstrates that can be in construct with a perfect, finite verb like בְּרֵאשִׁית can be in construct with a perfect, finite verb like בְּרֵאשִׁית נפּרָא though the grammar of the traditional translation suggests that the first two words of Genesis 1:1 should also be pointed as בְּרֵאשִׁית בָּרָא שִׁית בָּרָא the grammatical evidence demonstrates that a relator noun like בְּרֵאשִׁית can either have the article or be anarthrous when it is definite in meaning and grammatically absolute. However, up to this point, the lexical and grammatical evidences only demonstrate that both the dependent-clause translation and the traditional translation are possible. The syntactical evidence, however, will demonstrate which translation is the more probable.

⁸⁴This is BDB's description of אַחֲרִית in Isa 46:10. It is absolute, but implicitly it is the end of a phase of history. See BDB, s.v. "אַחָרִית"

The Syntactical Level

Most scholars agree that lexical and grammatical arguments alone cannot solve the complex issue of translating Genesis 1:1; thus, many turn to the syntactical evidence to determine whether בְּרֵאשִׁית can be absolute or construct. With respect to the traditional translation, nearly every scholar agrees that it has no problematic syntactical issues. As an independent clause, Genesis 1:1 fits neatly into the syntactical structure of Genesis 1:1-3. However, there are syntactical complications when Genesis 1:1 is rendered with a dependent clause. Thus, the central debate at the syntactical level is whether the dependent-clause translation of Genesis 1:1 is syntactically probable or even possible.

Is Genesis 1:1 Subordinate to Genesis 1:2a or 1:3?

Before determining the syntactical probability of the dependent-clause translation, one must first determine which dependent-clause translation to analyze. If Genesis 1:1 is a dependent clause, it is subordinate to a main clause, but to which main clause? There are two options. Some proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that Genesis 1:1 is syntactically subordinate to the first clause of Genesis 1:2a. However, most argue that Genesis 1:1 is syntactically subordinate to Genesis 1:3, with Genesis 1:2 being a parenthetical sentence.⁸⁵

Genesis 1:2a as the main clause. Arguing that Genesis 1:1 is subordinate to Genesis 1:2a is the more difficult of the two options, which explains why so few scholars support this translation.⁸⁶ It has serious syntactical complications. On the one hand, Keil

⁸⁵Westermann only cites Hugo Grotius as a proponent of the former dependent-clause translation, but cites many others as proponents of the latter. See Westermann, *Genesis* 1–11, 95.

⁸⁶The Medieval Jewish scholar Ibn Ezra was the first to suggest that Gen 1:1 is subordinate to Gen 1:2a.

and Delitzsch argue that if Genesis 1:2a is the main clause, then it would have to start with the construction וְהְיִהָּה בְּאָרֶץ. Waltke argues that 1:2a would have to start with the construction הָּיְתָה הָאָרֶץ, like the main clauses in Jeremiah 26:1; 27:1; and 28:1. Results of the other hand, Ross and Wenham argue that the manner in which Genesis 1:2a actually begins, הְּיָתָה הָאָרֶץ הָיִתָּה, demonstrates that it is a circumstantial clause, which would make Genesis 1:2a a dependent clause and not the main clause of Genesis 1:1. Thus, the syntactical arguments suggest that the subordination of Genesis 1:1 to 1:2a is unlikely.

Other scholars, however, argue that the subordination of Genesis 1:1 to 1:2a is still possible. Both Skinner and Gross note that although Genesis 1:2a has the structure of a circumstantial clause, there is no absolute rule against a main clause having a similar structure when it is the apodosis of a temporal clause. Skinner cites Genesis 7:10; 22:1; and Leviticus 7:16b as examples of such a construction, and Gross cites Isaiah 6:1. However, at least two of the examples are not precise parallels, and the small sampling

⁸⁷C. F. Keil and F. Delitzsch, *The Pentateuch*, vol. 1 of *Biblical Commentary on the Old Testament*, trans. James Martin (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1872), 46. Many later commentators argue this same point. See H. C. Leupold, *Exposition of Genesis*, vol. 1 (Grand Rapids: Baker Book House, 1950), 45; Heidel, *Babylonian Genesis*, 94; Edward J. Young, "The Relation of the First Verse of Genesis One to Verses Two and Three," *Westminster Theological Journal* 21 (1958): 133 n. 1; U. Cassuto, *From Adam to Noah: A Commentary on Genesis I-VI 8*, vol. 1 of *A Commentary on the Book of Genesis*, trans. Israel Abrahams (Jerusalem: The Magnes Press, The Hebrew University, 1961), 19; Matthews, *Genesis*, 137 n. 98.

⁸⁸Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 222 See also Cassuto, *Genesis*, 19.

⁸⁹Wenham, Genesis, 12; Allen P. Ross, Creation and Blessing: A Guide to the Study and Exposition of the Book of Genesis (Grand Rapids: Baker Book House, 1988), 719.

⁹⁰Skinner, Genesis, 14–15 n. 1; Brown, Structure, Role, and Ideology, 72.

⁹¹In Skinner's example of Lev 7:16b, the syntactical relationship between the clauses is much more different than that of Gen 1:1-2. Gen 1:1-2 has a waw separating the two clauses; whereas, there is no waw separating the clauses in Lev 7:16b is that the clause in Tev 7:16b is that the clause in Green is an embedded genitive clause that is the rectum of the governing noun בְּיִּוֹם, which itself is part of the main clause. A waw would separate the main clause element דְּיִוֹם from the main clause verb יַאָּבֶל Concerning Gross's example of Isa 6:1, Brown states, "However, the example drawn from Isaiah does not resolve the issue, since the verb is "pronounless" (bišnat môt hammelek cuzziyyāhû wā²er²eh ²et ²ădonāy . . .), in contrast to the clause beginning with the subject in [Gen] 1:2." Brown, Structure, Role, and Ideology, 72. Isa 6:1 is actually a better example of the syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3.

of evidence suggest that the translation is still unlikely. Nevertheless, the syntactical analysis of this section is still applicable to this unlikely translational option.

Genesis 1:3 as the main clause. Scholars who argue that Genesis 1:1 is subordinate to Genesis 1:3 maintain that Genesis 1:2 is a parenthetical comment. The main argument is that the word order of Genesis 1:2 is typical of a parenthetical construction (subject-verb-object). Furthermore, Genesis 1:3 begins with the more appropriate waw-consecutive. The subordination of a dependent clause, especially a temporal clause, to a main clause that begins with a waw-consecutive is a natural feature of Biblical Hebrew, thus making the syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3 entirely probable.

Some scholars challenge the idea that Genesis 1:2 could be a parenthetical construction. Cassuto, a proponent of the traditional translation, argues that if Genesis 1:2 were a parenthetical clause, it would not contain the verb הָּיָה. Thus, since Genesis 1:2a is not parenthetical and since it is not the main clause of Genesis 1:1, the dependent-clause translation of Genesis 1:1 is impossible on syntactical grounds. However, Waltke, another proponent of the traditional translation argues that the copula הַּיָה is often

 $^{^{92}}$ The Medieval Jewish scholar Rashi was the first to argue this position. According to Westermann, Heinrich Ewald is one of the first modern commentators to make this argument. See Westermann, *Genesis* 1-11, 95.

⁹³Lane, "Initiation of Creation," 70–71; E. A. Speiser, *Genesis*, The Anchor Bible (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1964), 12; Harry Orlinsky, foreword to *Genesis: The N. J. V. Translation* (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Harper Torch Books; Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, The Temple Library, 1966), xv; Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology*, 73.

⁹⁴Brown stresses that parenthetical constructions are syntactically dependent and are usually introduced by an explanatory or parenthetical disjunctive *waw* (i.e., Gen 13:7; 29:16; Ruth 4:6-7; 1 Sam 1:9). See Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology*, 72–73.

⁹⁵Cassuto, *Genesis*, 19–20. Cassuto's argument is used by later scholars to argue against the dependent-clause translation. See Young, "Relation of the First Verse of Genesis," 134 n. 2; Hasel, "Recent Translations," 160; Victor P. Hamilton, *The Book of Genesis: Chapters 1–17*, The New International Commentary on the Old Testament (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1990), 117.

present in parenthetical clauses that, like Genesis 1:2, have the pattern waw + noun + verb (cf. Jonah 3:3; Zech 3:2-3).⁹⁶ Thus, even major proponents of the contrary traditional translation, such as Waltke and Westermann,⁹⁷ argue that the dependent-clause translation, in which Genesis 1:2 is a parenthetical comment, should not be rejected on syntactical grounds.

With respect to the dependent-clause translation in general, most modern scholars render Genesis 1:1 as a temporal clause and make syntactical comparisons with other types of temporal clauses. Orlinsky states,

Scholars have long recognized the fact that the first vowel in the first word in Hebrew, $b^e(reshith)$, in the place of expected ba(reshith)—indeed the very word itself (as distinct from $barishon\acute{a}h$)—points to the meaning "In the beginning of (God's creating . . .)," that is, "When God began (to create)." Secondly, when the story of creation is resumed later, in 2.4, it is again the temporal ("when") construction that is employed: "When the LORD God made earth and heaven." The best known parallel is the Babylonian account of the rise of Marduk and creation, *Enuma Elish*, and it likewise begins with the "when" sentence structure. ⁹⁸

Thus, it is not surprising that opponents of the dependent-clause translation, like Waltke and Westermann, would defend its syntactical viability. Since temporal clauses are frequently subordinate to their main clauses by means of a waw-consecutive, and since Genesis 1:2 can syntactically function as a parenthetical clause, there seems to be no syntactical issues with rendering Genesis 1:1 as a dependent temporal clause. However, the problem with comparing the syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3 with the syntactical relationship between a temporal clauses and a waw-consecutive clause is that if בְּרֵאשִׁיה is in construct with בְּרָא שִׁיה, then the construction does not create a simple temporal clause. Thus, from a methodological perspective, any syntactical

⁹⁶Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 225.

⁹⁷ Westermann, Genesis 1–11, 96.

⁹⁸Orlinsky, foreword to *Genesis*, xiv. The comparisons made in this citation attempt to demonstrate that the evidence from the parallel literature supports the dependent-clause translation. However, it is plain that Orlinsky treats a dependent Gen 1:1 as a temporal clause.

comparisons should be made with similar types of grammatical constructions, not with syntactically unrelated temporal clauses. However, before such comparisons can be made, one must determine what type of clause Genesis 1:1 is if בְּרֵאשִׁית is in construct with בָּרָא with בָּרָא.

The Clause Type of the Dependent Clause Translation

The discussion at the grammatical level in this chapter cites many example verses where nouns are in construct with verbs, and such grammatical constructions are clearly possible, but the construction is not simply the case of a noun governing a finite verb. Rather, it is the case of a noun governing an entire clause. Thus, in Genesis 1:1, מַרָּאָרֶייִם מַּלּהִים אֵת הַשְּׁמִיִם does not simply govern the verb בְּרֵאשִׁית. Such a construction cannot be classified as a simple temporal clause, but how then should it be classified? In the broadest sense Genesis 1:1 is a substantival clause, or rather a whole clause that is functioning as a single substantive. Concerning such clauses, Joüon states,

A nominal or verbal clause may form a unit which can be considered and treated as a substantive. Thus, "I know that you arrived" is equivalent to "I know (of) your arrival"; the clause that you arrived is a substantival clause equivalent to the substantival phrase your arrival, and just as the phrase is an object, that you arrived may be analysed as an object clause. Like a substantive, a substantival clause can function as the subject or predicate of a sentence, and as the complement of a preposition or genitive, and occur in apposition. But it is mainly as an object that it is commonly used. ⁹⁹

IBHS also states, "It is common for a clause to stand in a case frame usually occupied by a noun; such a dependent clause is called a *noun* clause or a constituent noun clause." Thus, rather than being temporal, the clause of Genesis 1:1 is a substantival clause.

⁹⁹Joüon § 157a.

 $^{^{100}}$ IBHS \S 38.8a. Instead of noun clause or constituent noun clause, this dissertation uses the term substantival clause.

There are, however, various types of substantival clauses. The three main types are the subject, object, and genitive clauses. Since the clause of Genesis 1:1 is in construct with the word בְּרֵאשִׁית, it is a genitive-type substantival clause. Joüon adds,

A clause, whether verbal or nominal forms a block which may, in some cases, be regarded as a substantive; it will therefore be possible to consider it as a genitive in relation to a preceding noun, which will act as its *nomen regens*. In fact the following are found used as *nomen regens* in this position: 1) mainly nouns which have become prepositions; 2) some nouns used in an almost prepositional fashion; 3) (rather rarely) pure substantives keeping their full nominal value.¹⁰¹

All the previous citations in the grammatical discussion where a noun is in construct with a verb are thus examples of this genitive-type substantival clause (herein after referred to as a genitive clause). Thus, if בְּרֵאשִׁית is in the construct state, then the rest of Genesis 1:1 is a genitive clause.

However, the genitive clause can be further divided into either relative or non-relative types. Thus, in most modern grammars, one can find examples of genitive clauses in sections dealing with the relative clause, sections dealing with the genitive case or construct state, and sections dealing with substantival clauses. However, regardless of the section of the specific grammar, all such examples are genitive clauses. Thus, if Genesis 1:1 is a genitive clause then any syntactical comparisons must be made with genitive clauses, not syntactically unrelated temporal clauses.

 $^{^{101} \}mathrm{Jo\ddot{u}on}$ § 129p.

 $^{^{102}}$ lbid., § 129p-q. Interestingly, Joüon classifies nouns that are constructed onto a clause in two ways: nouns with ordinary clauses and nouns with relative clauses. In almost all instances in which Joüon cites examples of nouns with ordinary clauses, one could argue that they are nouns with relative clauses. In fact, many such "ordinary clauses" are translated as relative clauses in the targumim, LXX, and Vg.

¹⁰³GKC § 155c-n; Joüon § 158 a-dc; *IBHS* § 19.6a-b.

¹⁰⁴GKC § 130d; Joüon § 129p-q; *IBHS* § 9.6a-e.

¹⁰⁵Joüon § 157a; *IBHS* § 38.8c.

A Syntactical Analysis of the Genitive Clause

In order to determine the syntactical viability of the dependent-clause translation, one must analyze the syntactical characteristics of genitive clauses. Fortunately, the Hebrew Old Testament has a large pool of evidence in which genitive clauses occur in both prose and poetry. Using this author's own searches in *BibleWorks 6* and the examples in Joüon and GKC, this author has found 210 examples of genitive clauses (see Appendix). However, unlike Genesis 1:1, some of these examples do not have the noun directly in construct with the verb, and some do not have a noun as the governing element—some are governed by a pronoun, preposition, or an implied *regens*. Nevertheless, since they are all clauses governed by a *regens*, they are all genitive clauses, and a simple analysis of them demonstrates that they have two main syntactical characteristics.

First syntactical characteristic. In nearly every one of the 210 examples, the genitive clause is not separated from the main clause by either a clause-level waw¹⁰⁷ or a soph passuq. The genitive clause functions as the rectum of a governing element; thus, it is not necessarily subordinate to the main clause, but is rather an embedded participant in it. For instance, in 1 Samuel 25:15b the genitive clause הַּהְהַלְּכְנוֹ אָתָּם בָּהְיוֹתֵנוּ בַּשְּׁדָּנוּ מְאוֹמָה כָּלֹ־יְמֵי is an embedded participant in the main clause יְמֵי הַלְּבְנוֹ מְאוֹמָה נִמְי בִּהְיוֹתֲנוּ נִמְי הַבְּלַבְנוֹ מְאוֹמָה נִמְי הַלְּבְנוֹ מִאוֹמָה נִמְי הַשְּׁבְּנוֹ מִמְי בִּחְיוֹתֵנוּ נוֹ a genitive clause, it is either embedded in the main clause of Genesis 1:2a or 1:3. However, Genesis 1:1 is separated from its main clause—whether that be Genesis 1:2a or 1:3—by both a clause-level waw

¹⁰⁶Although the list of these examples is not exhaustive, the pool of evidence is large enough to draw sound syntactical conclusions. Some of the examples from the grammars may be disputable (e.g., 1 Chr 17:13; 2 Chr 31:19; Neh 8:10), but most are not.

 $^{^{107}}$ Even though the clause-level *waw* acts as a conjunction, its main syntactical function is to distinguish one clause and its elements from another.

and a *soph passuq*, which suggests that it is not a genitive clause.

Second syntactical characteristic. In nearly every one of the 210 examples of genitive clauses, the regens that governs the genitive clause is not separated from its clause by either a clause-level waw or a soph passug because it is an active element in the main clause. The regens has a dual function. It is the governing element of the genitive clause, and it is also an active participant in the main clause in which the genitive clause is embedded. For instance, in Exodus 18:20b the noun 777 governs the genitive clause יֵלְכוּ בָּה. However, the governing noun יֵלְכוּ בָּה is also the direct object in the main clause, וָהוֹדַעִתָּ לָהֶם אֶת־הַדֶּרֶך, in which the genitive clause is embedded. Thus, the noun דֶּרֶך functions as both the direct object in the main clause and the governing noun of the genitive clause. If in Genesis 1:1 the noun בָּרֵאשִׁית governs the genitive clause בַּרָא אָלהִים אָת הַשָּׁמֵיִם וְאָת הַאָּרֵץ, then it participates in a different clause (herein after referred to as the participatory clause). However, the governing noun בָּרֵאשִׁית in Genesis 1:1 is separated from the participatory clause—whether that be Genesis 1:2a or 1:3—by both a waw and a soph passuq, which suggests that it does not govern the clause of Genesis 1:1, nor does it participate in the clause of Genesis 1:2a or 1:3. Thus, בָּרֵאשִׁית is probably not in construct with Genesis 1:1. However, there are a small number of exceptions to these syntactical characteristics that require examination.

Exceptions to the Syntactical Characteristics

Even though בְּרֵאשִׁית and the rest of Genesis 1:1 do not have the dominate, syntactical characteristics of a genitive clause and its *regens*, there are a few genitive clauses and their *regentes* that do not have these syntactical characteristics either. Of the 210 examples of genitive clauses, there are eleven in which the genitive clause and/or its *regens* seem to be separated from the participatory clause by either a clause-level *waw* or *soph passuq*, though not by both These exceptions are found in Numbers 23:3; 2

Chronicles 30:19; Job3:15; 7:2 (2x); Psalms 83:15 (2x); 138:3; 148:6; Jeremiah 14:18; and Hosea 1:2.

Genitive clauses separated from the *regens*. The genitive clause in Jeremiah 14:18¹⁰⁸ seems to be an example of a clause-level waw that separates the genitive clause from both its *regens* and the participatory clause. However, the sentence of Jeremiah 14:18b, פִּי־גַם־נָבִיא גַם־כֹּהֵן סָחֲרוּ אֶּל־אֶרֶץ וְלֹא יִדָעוּ, can be rendered in two ways, as either "For both prophet and priest peddle in the land which they do not know," or "For both prophet and priest peddle in the land, but they do not know." The intervention of the clause-level waw between the genitive clause and its *regens* suggests that the latter rendering is more appropriate, which would mean that there is no genitive clause in Jeremiah 14:18b.

However, both the modern and ancient translations are divided on how to render Jeremiah 14:18b. The NASB, NIV, NKJV, LXX, and Vulgate render the supposed genitive clause with a relative clause modifying the *regens* אָרֶץ. However, the ESV, NLT, NRSV, and the targumim render the sentence of 14:18b with two separate independent clauses. The most likely explanation for this discrepancy is that the former group of translations treat the last clause of 14:18b as a circumstantial clause rather than a genitive clause, which is also grammatically and syntactically possible. 113

¹⁰⁸GKC § 155h. However, GKC seems to suggest there should be no intervening waw.

¹⁰⁹This translation seems to render the passage with a genitive clause (cf. NASB, NIV, NKJV).

¹¹⁰This translation does not render the passage with a genitive clause (cf. ESV, NLT, NRSV).

¹¹¹The LXX and Vg mostly use a relative clause or participle to render a Hebrew genitive clause.

¹¹²The targumim also mostly use a relative clause to render a Hebrew genitive clause.

¹¹³Cf. Gen 16:1; 22:24; 24:29; Esth 2:21 where the translators of the LXX and Vg render the circumstantial clauses with a relative construction, but the targumim render it with a similar circumstantial clause. This is probably what each translation is doing with the last clause of Jer 14:18b.

However, whether or not the last clause in Jeremiah 14:18b is a separate independent clause, a circumstantial clause, or a genitive clause, there is no syntactical parallel between it and Genesis 1:1 because a clause-level waw does not separate the genitive clause of Genesis 1:1 from its regens בַּרֵאשִׁית.

Genitive clauses separated by a *soph passuq*. The genitive clauses in 2 Chronicles 30:19;¹¹⁴ Job 3:15;¹¹⁵ 7:2 (2x);¹¹⁶ and Psalm 83:15 (2x)¹¹⁷ are all examples in which the *soph passuq* separates the genitive clause and its *regens* from the participatory clause. One may argue that in each case the genitive clause and the *regens* are outside the bounds of the *soph passuq* because the sentence as a whole is too long. Genesis 1:1-3 would then be a perfectly matching example. However, the genitive clause and its *regens* can just as well be found at the end of long sentences in which the limits of the *soph passuq* stretch quite far (cf. 2 Kgs 8:6; 1 Chr 15:12; 2 Chr 31:19; Jer 2:6; 17:4; 52:12), and the verses of Job 3:15; 7:2; and Psalm 83:15 are short. Thus, sentence length may not be an adequate explanation for all of these examples since as a general rule, the Masoretes did not usually allow the *soph passuq* to separate the elements of a clause from the clause itself.

With respect to the poetic verses of Job 3:17, 7:2 and Psalm 83:15, the *soph* passuq seems to separate the genitive clauses and their regens from the participatory clause because they are part of a different poetic colon, not because the sentence is too long. Thus, they cannot be syntactical parallels to the prose verses of Genesis 1:1-3.

¹¹⁴GKC § 155n; Joüon § 129q.

¹¹⁵GKC § 155e; Joüon § 158b.

¹¹⁶GKC § 155g.

¹¹⁷Ibid.

¹¹⁸Even the preceding verse of Job 3:14 is not the main clause but is rather an extended phrase, like Job 3:15, of the main clause that starts in Job 3:13.

With respect to 2 Chronicles 30:19, sentence length does seem to be the only explanation for why the *soph passuq* separates the genitive clause and its *regens* from the participatory clause in 2 Chronicles 30:18.¹¹⁹ However, 2 Chronicles 30:19 would then be the only true parallel to Genesis 1:1-3. Only one parallel example out of 210 strongly suggests that Genesis 1:1 is not a genitive clause.

Genitive clauses separated by a clause-level waw. The genitive clauses in Numbers 23:3;¹²⁰ Psalm 138:3;¹²¹ Psalm 148:6;¹²² and Hosea 1:2¹²³ are all examples in which a clause-level waw separates the genitive clause and its *regens* from the participatory clause.¹²⁴ These examples are the closest syntactical parallels to Genesis

¹¹⁹Even the ESV, NIV, and NRSV have difficulty with this irregularity in that they move the *regens*, the direct object of the main clause, to the preceding verse of 31:18 even though in the Hebrew the *regens* is in 31:19.

¹²⁰GKC § 130d.

¹²¹Ibid.

¹²²This example is from this author's own research.

¹²³GKC § 130d; Joüon § 129p.

¹²⁴One could argue that the genitive clauses in Exod 6:28; 1 Sam 5:9; and 2 Chr 24:11 belong to this list of exceptions. The genitive clauses in these verses seem to show a genitive clause and its regens separated from the main clause by a waw. They even seem to show that the genitive clause rather than being embedded in the main clause can be an external dependent clause along with its regens. In fact, some English translations render the verses in either way. (In Exod 6:28, the ESV and NRSV render the regens as a participant in the succeeding waw-consecutive clause, and the NIV renders the genitive clause as if it were an unembedded dependent clause. In 1 Sam 5:9, the ESV, NASB, NIV, and NRSV render the genitive clause as if it were an unembedded dependent clause. Finally, in 2 Chr 24:11, the ESV and NRSV render the genitive clause as if it were an unembedded dependent clause. In these verses the meaning in the differing translations is the same as that of the Hebrew text, but the grammar is vastly different.) However, each regens in these clauses is preceded by the common verbal phrase ויה: The ייהי verbal phrase is actually a clause in and of itself, even when only a single determinate noun is its object. (Cf. Gen 26:32; Gen 39:11; Judg 6:25; 7:9; 2 Sam 7:4; 2 Kgs 19:35; 1 Chr 17:3. Cf. also the use of יוכנה in Isa 22:20; 23:15; Hos 1:5; Amos 8:9; Mic 5:9.) Thus, in Exod 6:28, 1 Sam 5:9, and 2 Chr 24:11, the regens in each verse, אָת, יוֹם, and אָחַרי, participates in the ייָה clause, and the genitive clause is also embedded in it. The functions of the embedded genitive clauses are not to be subordinate to the succeeding waw-consecutive clauses, but are to be more descriptive of their regens. (Cf. Gen 31:10; Exod 12:29, 41; 14:24; Num 7:1; Deut 27:2; Ruth 1:1; 1 Sam 3:2; 30:25.) The ייָהי clause is a complete clause in and of itself and is the participatory clause of the regens, not the succeeding waw-consecutive clause. Thus, Exod 6:28; 1 Sam 5:9; and 2 Chr 24:11 are not exceptions to the syntactical markers of the genitive clause and are not true

1:1, but even they are not without problems. In Psalm 148:6 the sentence אָלְבְּבֶוֹן וְלֹא could be rendered in two ways as either "The statute which he has given will not pass away" or as "He gave a statute, and it will not pass away." The former rendering could be a syntactical parallel to the dependent-clause translation of Genesis 1:1 in that the regens and its genitive clause are separated from the participatory clause by a clause-level waw. However, since the latter translation is also possible and the syntax is more regular, it is the more likely translation of the two. Furthermore, the LXX, Vulgate, and targumim all follow the latter rendering of the verse. These ancient translators did not usually miss translating the genitive clause; thus, they most likely recognized the intervening clause-level waw to be a marker of a separate independent clause.

As previously noted, the syntactical structure of Hosea 1:2 is a commonly used parallel to the syntactical structure of Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. First, in Hosea 1:2, the genitive clause and its *regens* are separated from the participatory clause by a *waw*-consecutive, just like Genesis 1:1 is separated from 1:3. Second, in both verses the verb of the genitive clause is in the perfect conjugation. Finally, in both verses, nouns of nearly identical semantic meaning, מְּחַלֶּה and הַחַלָּה, are the *regens*. However, in ancient translations and older codices the syntactical structure of Hosea 1:2 is much different from the many modern translations.

Current and ancient evidences suggest that in Hosea 1:2, the verb of the genitive clause, קבר, may actually be a noun. First, BDB suggests that קבר in Jeremiah

parallels to the syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. Even if, however, the waw-consecutive clause was the participatory clause of the regens, Gen 1:1 would still not be a viable syntactical parallel since it does not begin with the verbal phrase יַנְיִה.

¹²⁵ In this translation the clause וְלֹא יַעֲבוֹר is the participatory clause and the verb בְחֵן comprises the genitive clause. However, is seems as if the the ESV, NASB, NIV, NJPS, and NKJV have reversed the roles of each clause making the participatory clause the genitive clause and the genitive the participatory. The syntax does not allow such a construction; thus, the most likely explanation is that the translations are treating the clause in the verse.

5:13 is a noun, 126 which would take the form דָּבֶּר in Hosea 1:2, and Collins notes that functions as a noun in Rabbinic and Modern Hebrew. Second, in both the Leningrad and Aleppo Codices, a paragraph break separates the alleged genitive clause and its regens, אֲלָרְהוֹשֵׁעַ זְּהָרְיִהוָה בְּהוֹשֵׁעַ זְּהַרְיִהוָה בְּהוֹשֵׁעַ זְּהַרְיִהוָה בְּהוֹשֵׁעַ 128. This break creates such separation that the communities that produced these codices probably did not think that Hosea 1:2 contained a genitive clause, nor did they think that the two clauses were even related. Finally, both the LXX and the targumim render the word מַּבְּבֶר מָבָּר מִבְּבָּר could very well have been read by earlier Jews as a simple, clauseless introduction to the book. Thus, Hosea 1:2 may not even contain a genitive clause.

The examples from Psalm 138:3 and Numbers 23:3, however, appear to be true parallels to the syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. In Psalm 138:3 the genitive clause בְּלְּמֵלִי and its regens בְּיוֹם are clearly separated from the participatory clause, וַתַּעֲבֵנִי, by a waw-consecutive. However, not only is this example seemingly irregular for genitive clauses, it is irregular for most sentences that begin with the construction בַּיוֹם or בְּיוֹם. When these words begin a sentence they are rarely separated from their participatory clause, by a waw-consecutive. Nevertheless, there is no

¹²⁶BDB, s.v., "דָּבֶּר."

¹²⁷Collins, Genesis 1–4, 51.

¹²⁸ David Noel Freedman, Astrid B. Beck, and Bruce E. Zuckerman, eds., *The Leningrad Codex: A Facsimile Edition* (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company; Leiden: Brill Academic Publishers, 1998), 619; Moshe H. Goshen-Gottstein, ed., *The Aleppo Codex* (Jerusalem: The Magness Press for the Hebrew University Bible Project, 1976), שעש.

¹²⁹The presence of the gerund, *loquendi*, suggests that the word in the Hebrew text used by the translator was an infinitive rather than a finite verb. Of course it is entirely possible that the text did have a finite verb and that the translator, because of the genitive clause, rendered it as a gerund. However, the Vg almost always renders genitive clauses with a participle or relative clause, not a gerund.

ביום or ביום Interestingly the only other example this author could find in which the word ביום or ביום

denying the syntactical structure of Psalm 138:3. Thus, it closely parallels the syntactical structure of Genesis 1:1 and 1:3.

Numbers 23:3 acts the same way. The genitive clause מֵה־יַּרְאֵנִי and its regens are also separated from the participatory clause וְהָבֶּרְ by a waw-consecutive, making the syntactical structure of the verse a close parallel to the syntactical structure of Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. However, even though Psalm 138:3 and Numbers 23:3, and possibly Hosea 1:2, may be close syntactical parallels, the case that Genesis 1:1 is a genitive clause is less convincing when the evidence of these verses is placed in the overall context of the data.

Syntactical Conclusion

Substantival clauses in general and genitive clauses in particular are a unique type of clause in that they are actual participants in the clauses in which they are embedded. With respect to genitive clauses, even their *regentes* are active elements in the participatory clause. Thus, it not surprising that nearly all of the 210 examples of genitive clauses do not have a clause-level *waw* or a *soph passuq*, markers that usually separate elements of one clause from another, separating the genitive clause and its *regens* from the participatory clause. Thus, the evidence as a whole strongly suggests that Genesis 1:1 does not contain a genitive clause. Consider the following data: More than 97 percent of genitive clauses and their *regentes* are not separated from their participatory clauses by a *soph passuq*; Genesis 1:1 is.¹³¹ More than 98 percent of genitive clauses and their *regentes* are not separated from their participatory clauses by a clauses-level *waw*;

begins a sentence and is separated from its participatory clause by a *waw*-consecutive is in Gen 22:4. The Vg does not translate the *waw*-consecutive of this sentence, but the LXX and the targumim do.

¹³¹This figure also counts the five examples where the genitive clause is separated from the participatory clause to balance the poetic lines. Thus, there is only one prose example (less than 1 percent) that is comparable to Gen 1:1.

Genesis 1:1 is. 132 Exactly 100 percent of genitive clauses and their *regentes* are not separated from their participatory clauses by both a clause-level waw and a soph passuq; Genesis 1:1 is. Exactly 100 percent of genitive clauses and their *regentes* are not separated from their participatory clauses by a parenthetical clause; Genesis 1:1 is. 133 If Genesis 1:1 is a genitive clause, then it is unparalleled in that it has more syntactical separation from the participatory clause than any of the other 210 genitive clauses. 134 The intervening waw-consecutive, soph passuq, and parenthetical clause of Genesis 1:2 suggest that Genesis 1:1 is not a genitive clause and בְּרֵאשִׁית is not in construct with it. Thus, the syntactical evidence strongly suggests that Genesis 1:1 is an independent main clause, which means the traditional translation is much more congruent with the syntactical evidence.

Conclusion

Once בְּרֵאשִׁיה is identified as a relator noun, a better methodology can be established for collecting and analyzing the lexical and grammatical evidences. This chapter has shown that when בְּרֵאשִׁיה is compared with other types of relator nouns, the lexical evidence demonstrates that it can be grammatically absolute even though it is lexically relative. Furthermore, this chapter has shown that when בְּרֵאשִׁית is again compared with other types of relator nouns, the grammatical evidence demonstrates that it can be anarthrous even though it is grammatically absolute and definite in meaning. Thus, both the lexical and grammatical evidences suggest that בּרֵאשִׁית can be in the

¹³²This figure includes Num 23:3; Ps 138:3; and Hos 1:2.

¹³³This is of course treating Gen 1:3 as the participatory claues. This statistic does not apply if Gen 1:2 is the participatory clause.

¹³⁴If Gen 1:2 is the participatory clause, then there is no parenthetical clause separating the genitive clause from it. However, in the three examples in which a *waw* separates the genitive clause from the participatory clause, the *waw* is a *waw*-consecutive. Thus, if Gen 1:2 is the participatory clause, it is also without a syntactical example.

absolute state in Genesis 1:1. However, they also suggest that בְּרֵאשִׁית can be in the construct state. Thus, at the lexical and grammatical level both the dependent-clause translation and the traditional translation are equally probable.

Once Genesis 1:1 is defined as a genitive clause, a better methodology can be established for collecting and analyzing the syntactical evidence as well. This chapter has shown that when Genesis 1:1 is compared with other types of genitive clauses, the syntactical evidence demonstrates that it is most likely not a genitive clause. Thus, the syntactical evidence also suggests that בְּרֵאשִׁית is not in the construct state; rather, it is in the absolute state. Though the dependent-clause translation and the traditional translation are equally probable at the lexical and grammatical levels, they are not at the syntactical level. The evidence for the dependent-clause translation breaks down at the syntactical level. Thus, the traditional translation is more faithful to the lexical, grammatical, and syntactical evidences in particular and more faithful to the principles of Classical-Hebrew linguistics in general.

CHAPTER 4

THE INTERPRETATION OF GENESIS 1:1

Introduction

In the debate over the interpretation of Genesis 1:1, the major issue concerns the relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2. On the one hand, proponents of the summary-statement interpretation argue that there is no semantic continuity between the two verses. Genesis 1:1 is a title or a summary of the creation chapter. The narrative itself, they argue, does not start until Genesis 1:2, and the first act of creation does not take place until Genesis 1:3. Thus, Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 are almost as detached from one another as the title of a psalm from the psalm itself. On the other hand, proponents of the traditional interpretation argue that there is semantic continuity between the two verses. Genesis 1:1, they argue, narrates the first act of creation, the creation of the heavens and the earth. Genesis 1:2 then is a description of the earth created in 1:1. The narrative then continues with the second act of creation in Genesis 1:3. Thus, Genesis 1:1 shares a close semantic relationship with Genesis 1:2. Again, the central issue between the two interpretations is whether or not there is semantic continuity between 1:1 and 1:2.

Similarly to the discussion on the translation of Genesis 1:1, there are also many different levels at which various proponents of each interpretation argue their positions. Some use lexical evidences. Some use theological and historical evidences.

¹N.b. again that Waltke and Barr, summary-statement proponents, also argue that Gen 1:2 temporally *precedes* the time frame of Gen 1:1. Thus, there is also no temporal continuity between the two verses. See Bruce K. Waltke, *Genesis: A Commentary* (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2001), 60; James Barr, "Was Everything That God Created Really Good?" in *God in the Fray: A Tribute to Walter Brueggeman*, ed. Tod Linafelt and Timothy K. Beal (Minneapolis: Fortress Press, 1998), 58.

Some use evidences from the parallel ancient Near Eastern literature. All of these different types of evidence are valid areas of investigation, but again the most weighty are those focused upon the linguistics of the text, such as the lexical and syntactical evidences. These linguistic evidences have methodological priority since they can determine what the text can or cannot say. For instance, if the traditional interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is linguistically improbable, then even the overwhelming historical evidence loses much of its weight. Thus, though the other types of evidences are deserving of further study and analysis, this chapter will limit itself to only the linguistic evidences involved in interpreting Genesis 1:1.

The Lexical Level - אֶת הָאֶרֶץ

One of the strongest evidences favoring semantic continuity between Genesis
1:1 and 1:2 is the two occurrences of the word אָרֶץ at the end of 1:1 and the beginning of
1:2. The two identical words literally occur back-to-back in the text. Such close
proximity between these two identical words, strongly suggests that they correspond to
one another. Such a correspondence then suggests that the two verses correspond to one

another and share a semantic continuity. This is the plainest and simplest reading of the text. However, even though there seems to be a proximal correspondence between the two identical words, proponents of the summary-statement interpretation argue that the אֶרֶץ in Genesis 1:1 and the אֶרֶץ in Genesis 1:2 do not and cannot correspond to one another in meaning.

Because the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:1 occurs in the compound phrase אָרֶץ, אָרֶץ, summary-statement proponents raise two main objections against its correspondence in meaning to the אָרֶץ of 1:2. First, many argue that the phrase אַר אַר הָאָרֶץ is a merism, "[a] poetic technique by which a whole is referred to by either its two major parts or two extremities." Since the phrase is a merism, the אֶרֶץ of Genesis 1:1 cannot correspond to the אֶרֶץ of 1:2 because the אֶרֶץ of 1:1, being compounded with the word שָׁרֵיִם has a different meaning from the word אֶרֶץ in isolation. Waltke, a proponent of the summary-statement interpretation, explains this concept in the following manner:

Verse 1 is the prologue to the entire narrative. This understanding becomes apparent with a proper understanding of the expression "heaven and earth." Linguists refer to such a construction as a collocation or a syntagm: two or more words that when combined yield a tertiary meaning. Two parts hydrogen combined with one part oxygen produce "water," a very different substance than gases in isolation. *Butterfly* is quite different from *butter* and *fly*, and the "free and easy" (i.e., marked by informality and without restraint) is not the same as either word in isolation. Moreover, the frequently used biblical compound phrase "heaven and earth" is a merism, a statement of opposites, that elsewhere indicates the totality of the organized universe (i.e., "the cosmos").³

Since the word pair communicates a "tertiary meaning," then the meaning of the compounded אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:1 is as unrelated in meaning to the individual אֶבֶץ in 1:2 as the compounded "butter-" in butterfly is to the individual word "butter." Thus, even

²Todd J. Murphy, *Pocket Dictionary for the Study of Biblical Hebrew* (Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press, 2003), s.v., "merismus."

³Bruce K. Waltke, An Old Testament Theology: An Exegetical, Canonical, and Thematic Approach (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 2007), 179.

though the two words in Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 are identical and occur one right after the other, they do not have the same meaning and cannot correspond to one another.

Second, summary-statement proponents also argue that the phrase אֵת הַשְּׁמֵיִם refers to the "totality of the organized universe." Since the אֶבֶץ of Genesis 1:2 describes a universe that is incomplete and not yet organized, then it cannot correspond with the אֶבֶץ of Genesis 1:1 which, combined with אֶבֶץ describes a universe that is complete and organized. Consider the following quotes from Young and Waltke:

At the same time the word בְּאֶבֶרְ does not have precisely the same connotation which it bore in verse one. In the first verse it went with the word הַשְּׁמִים to form a combination which designates the well-ordered world and universe that we now know. In verse two, however, it depicts the earth as being in an uninhabitable condition.⁴

If this understanding [of אֲת הָאֶרֶץ], based on its extensive and unambiguous usage in the creation account itself and elsewhere, is allowed, then Genesis 1:2 cannot be construed as a circumstantial clause. Logic will not allow us to entertain the contradictory notions: God created the organized heavens and earth; the earth was unorganized.⁵

If it is impossible for the $\mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{\sc k}}\sc c}$ of Genesis 1:1 to correspond to the $\mbox{\sc k}\sc c$ of 1:2 in meaning, then the probability that there is semantic continuity between the two verses is less likely, which is favorable to the summary-statement interpretation.

These objections against the proximal correspondence of the two occurrences of the word אֶּבֶץ also raise ancillary questions. First, is the merism label appropriate for the compounded word pair אָבֶץ וְאַת הָאָבֶץ in Genesis 1:1? Aside from the characteristics that come with the merism label, are there any other lexical or contextual

⁴Edward J. Young, "The Interpretation of Genesis 1:2," Westminster Theological Journal 23 (1961): 168.

⁵Bruce K. Waltke, "The Creation Account in Genesis 1:1–3, Part III: The Initial Chaos Theory and the Pre-creation Chaos Theory," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 132, no. 527 (July 1975): 219.

⁶Oddly enough, Wenham, a proponent of the traditional interpretation, makes a similar argument when he states, "The very different contexts show that it is wrong to identify the sense of ארץ in v[erse] 1 with its sense in v[erse] 2 too precisely." Gordon J. Wenham, *Genesis 1–15*, Word Biblical Commentary, vol. 1 (Waco: Word Books, Publisher, 1987), 15.

indicators suggesting the ancient Hebrews understood the compounded form of the word אֶרֶץ to have such a distinctly different meaning from the word אֶרֶץ in isolation? Second, although it is clearly evident that the ancient Hebrews used the word pair אֶרֶץ שְׁמִיִּם to refer to the "organized universe," does the word pair always have this meaning? Are there any indicators which suggest that at times it communicates a different meaning? Answering these questions will help to determine the lexical validity of both the traditional and summary-statement interpretations, and considering the major theological implications of both, these issues demand continued investigation.

Is the Merism Label Appropriate for the Word Pair?

The characteristics of the merism. Although the label of merism is frequently applied to the compounded word pair אֶבֶיץ/שָׁמֵיִם in Genesis 1:1, knowing the characteristics of a merism is important for understanding the implications that come with the label. In his extensive study on the use of the merism in biblical Hebrew, Krašovec summarizes its typical characteristics in the following statement:

Firstly, merism is the art of expressing a totality by mentioning the parts, usually the two extremes, concerning a given idea, quality or quantity; consequently polar expression is the most usual form of merism. Secondly, merism is substitution for abstract words "all", "every", "always" etc. Thirdly, the mentioned parts have figurative or metaphorical sense; literal interpretation proves to be in many cases totally incongruous. Fourthly, merism should not be confounded with antithesis, for in contrast to merism in antithesis opposed extremes do not express the same aspects of the same idea in its totality, but opposite aspects of the same idea in their mutual exclusion.⁷

Since a merism is a rhetorical device that communicates the whole by naming the parts, it essentially communicates a tertiary⁸ meaning: a meaning that is distinct from the

⁷Jože Krašovec, "Merism - Polar Expression in Biblical Hebrew," *Biblica* 64 (1983): 232. Krašovec's fourth observed characteristic distinguishes the merism from any antithetic parallelism where the word pair would work in opposition instead of in unity. Thus, this characteristic does not further define what a merism is, but rather what it is not and cannot be.

⁸Again, this is the adjective that Waltke uses to describe the new meaning expressed by the word pair אָרֵץ/שְׁמֵיִם in compound. See Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 179.

meanings of the individual words that comprise the merism. Krašovec does not explicitly state that when a word pair is used in a merism, it takes on a tertiary meaning, but the concept is strongly implied in his observations. Other scholars who have studied or commented on the use of merisms in biblical Hebrew also implicitly describe this characteristic of a tertiary meaning. Honeyman states,

Merismus, which is a figure of speech akin in some respects to synecdoche, consists in detailing the individual members, or some of them—usually the first and last, or the more prominent—of a series, and thereby indicating either the genus of which those members are species or the abstract quality which characterises the genus and which the species have in common.⁹

Thus, the meaning of a merism is not expressed in the meanings of the individual species, but in the tertiary genus or its abstract quality to which the species belong. Finally, Watson, in his description of the merism, similarly states, "It is the total concept that is important; the components are not significant in isolation. Merismus, then, is an abbreviated way of expressing a totality." Thus, one of the major, and one could say implicit, characteristics of a merism is the tertiary meaning.

The concept of the tertiary meaning in a merism has two major implications for the meanings of the individual words that make up this rhetorical device. First, since a merism takes on a tertiary meaning, the meanings of the individual words then cannot together communicate what the tertiary meaning of the merism does. If the meanings of the individual words could together communicate the same idea that the tertiary meaning communicates, then there would be no need for a tertiary meaning. Second, since the meanings of the individual words cannot communicate the tertiary meaning of the merism, the meanings of the individual words in the merism must be displaced with an

⁹A. M. Honeyman, "Merismus in Biblical Hebrew," *Journal of Biblical Literature* 71 (1952): 13–14.

¹⁰Wilfred G. E. Watson, *Classical Hebrew Poetry: A Guide to Its Techniques*, Journal for the Study of the Old Testament Supplement Series 26 (Sheffield: JSOT Press, 1984), 321.

almost zero value in order to yield to the tertiary meaning expressed by the merism.¹¹ Without this displacement in the meanings of the individual words, there would be a semantic cacophony within the merism. These two implications can be observed in some of the known merisms of English and Hebrew.

In the English expression "the people come from near and far," the word pair near/far is properly used as a merism since it has all the merismic characteristics that Krašovec observes. First, "near and far" is an expression in which the word pair are two parts of a given idea. The individual words are opposite ends of a spatial spectrum, but together they express the totality of that spectrum. Second, the word pair is used to express the idea of "everywhere." Third, the meanings of the individual words in the word pair cannot together communicate the tertiary meaning of the merism; thus, the tertiary meaning expressed in their collocation displaces their individual meanings. The collocation of the word pair is not communicating the idea that the people come from only near and only far, even though the individual meanings of the words do communicate such a concept. Rather, whatever else is between the spatial spectrum of the near and the far is also included in the new, tertiary meaning that the word pair communicates as a merism. Thus, the expression "the people come from near and far" uses the tertiary concept of a merism to communicate the idea that the people came from everywhere.

In a Hebrew example, the word pair בְּיִלְה/יוֹם also functions as a frequent merism. First, the word pair is itself a polar expression and is often used to express the duration ("all the time") of an action within a usually undefined period of time. Second, the compound form of the word pair occurs in parallel with other, singular words that

¹¹This second implication is Krašovec's third observation of the merism.

¹²For the word pair in compound, see Exod 13:21; Lev 8:35; Josh 1:8; 1 Kgs 8:29, 59; 1 Chr 9:33; 2 Chr 6:20; 4:9; Neh 1:6; Ps 1:2. For the word pair in parallel bicola, see Pss 22:3; 42:9; 88:2 (cf. AV, RSV, et al. 88:1); 91:5; 121:6; Isa 21:8; Hos 4:5.

express the meaning of "all", "every", or "always."¹³ Third, since the meaning of the compounded word pair can be expressed in parallel with the meaning of other words that express the concept of "all", "every", or "always," the meanings of the individual words are displaced in order to express the tertiary idea of "continuously" or "all the time."

Again, the collocation of the words express the tertiary idea, not the individual meanings of the words themselves. ¹⁴ Thus, the merism in Nehemiah 1:6, which says, "I am praying before you today, day and night," אָנֹכִי מִתְפַּלֵּל לְפָנֶיךְ הַיּוֹם יוֹמֶם וְלַיְלֶהְ הַיּוֹם יוֹמֶם וֹלְיִלְהָ הַיּוֹם יוֹמֶם וֹלְיִלְהָ הַיּוֹם מֹמְם בּלֵיל לְפָנֶיךְ הַיּוֹם מֹמְלֵילְ Again, the individual meanings in the word pair בְּיִלְהֹר/וֹם are displaced since they together cannot communicate the same concept as the tertiary meaning of the merism.

As noted before, Waltke and other scholars of the summary-statement interpretation argue that the merism label, along with the implications of the tertiary meaning, should also be applied to the word pair אֶּבֶיץ/שָׁמֵיִם in Genesis 1:1. Indeed, many of Waltke's statements regarding the word pair are very similar to Krašovec's own observations. Consider the following excerpts:

Cyrus Gordon noted that pairs of antonyms often mean "everything" or "everyone." For example, in English, the expression "they came great and small" means that everybody came." The Hebrew language is filled with such antonymic pairs called merisms. For example, the psalmist says that the blessed man meditates in God's law "day and night," i.e., "all the time." So here, "the heavens and the earth" are antonyms to designate "everything," and more specifically "the organized universe, the cosmos." ¹⁶

Moreover, the frequently used biblical compound phrase "heaven and earth" is a merism, a statement of opposites, that elsewhere indicates the totality of the organized universe (i.e., "the cosmos"). Similarly, the merism "day and night"

¹³1 Sam 25:16; Ps 42:4; Isa 34:10; 60:11; Jer 14:17; Lam 2:18.

¹⁴Even though the compound phrase has these characteristics, it does not always have the same value or meaning as "continuously." In certain instances the parts of the phrase take on a literal meaning, in which case the phrase is not acting as a merism (cf. Gen 1:18; 8:22; Jer 33:20, 25).

¹⁵Cf. Isa 60:11.

¹⁶Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 218.

means "all the time," and "summer and winter" means "year round."¹⁷

These statements mirror Krašovec's first and second observations. Another of Waltke's statements matches Krašovec's third observation in which the meanings of the individual words in a merism are displaced. Consider the following excerpt:

A merism is a statement of opposites to indicate totality. For instance, "day and night" means "all the time." In such usage the words cannot be understood separately but must be taken as a unity. Just as the English expression "part and parcel" cannot be understood by studying *part* and *parcel* as independent terms, so the merism of the Hebrew words *heavens* (*šāmayim*) and *earth* (*'ereṣ*) cannot be understood by studying the words separately but only by studying the unit. As a unit this refers to the organized universe. ¹⁸

Again, the merism label implies first of all that the meanings of the individual words of the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שְׁמֵיֵם cannot communicate the meaning of the "organized universe," and second, their meanings must be displaced with a separate and distinct tertiary meaning. However, conflicting data from the Hebrew Old Testament suggests that when the word pair communicates the meaning of the "organized universe," the individual words of the word pair do not lose their individual meanings.

Conflicting data. There is no doubt that the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שֶׁמַיִּם does communicate the idea of the "organized universe." This is especially evident in Exodus 31:17b, which states,

פִּי־שֵׁשֶׁת יָמִים עָשָׂה יְהוָה אֶת־הַשָּׁמַיִם וְאֶת־הָאָָרֶץ וּבֵיוֹם הַשְּׁבִיעִּי שָׁבַת וַיִּנְּפַשׁ:

For in six days the LORD made the heavens and the earth, and on the seventh day he rested and was refreshed.

If the merism label is appropriate for this word pair, then in the contexts in which it functions as a merism, its individual words, אָּרֶץ and אָּבֶץ, should never be treated as if they have individual meanings because the individual meanings of words in a merism are

¹⁷Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 179.

¹⁸Waltke, *Genesis*, 59 n. 18.

displaced. Nevertheless, this is exactly what happens in some contexts.

There are at least two instances in the Hebrew Bible in which the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שְׁמַיִּם precedes a clause or colon in which one or both of the individual words and their meanings are treated individually. One instance is found in the passage of Psalm 115:14-16, 19 which states,

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14יֹסֵף יְהנָה עֲלֵיכֶם עֲׁלֵיכֶם וְעַל־בְּנֵיכֶם:
15בְּרוּכִים אֲשָּם לַיהנָה עֲשֵׂה שָׁמַיִם נָאָרֶץ:
16הַשָּׁמַיִם שָׁמִיִם לַיהנָה וְהָאָרֶץ נָתַן לִבְנֵי־אָדֶם:
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In 115:15 the compound form of the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שֶׁמֵיִם communicates the meaning of the "organized universe," just as it does in Exodus 31:17. In 115:16 the individual words of the word pair and their individual meanings are being used in contrasting parallelism to describe the individual realms of dominion that the LORD has assigned to Himself and to man. The parallel form of the word pair in 115:16 is not being used as a merism since the individual meanings of the words are retained for the purpose of contrast. However, the individual meanings of אֶרֶץ and אֶרֶץ in the bicola of 115:16 refer back to and treat שַׁמֵיִם and אַרֶץ in 115:15 as words with individual meanings. If the word pair in 115:15 is

¹⁴Let the LORD be the adder unto you, unto you and your sons.

¹⁵Be blessed of the LORD, the maker of the heavens and the earth.

¹⁶(For the heavens are the LORD's heavens, but the earth he has given to the sons of man.)

¹⁹For an Aramaic example of this phenomenon see Jer 10:11.

²⁰Again, Krašovec's fourth characteristic explains that word pairs cannot be merisms if they are being used in antithetic parallelism. See Jože Krašovec, "Merism," 232.

²¹Avishur refers to this textual phenomenon, in which identical word pairs are used together in two differing ways, as "[p]airs in syndetic parataxis[, or compound form,] and parallelism." Yitzhak Avishur, *Stylistic Studies of Word-Pairs in Biblical and Ancient Semitic Literatures*, Alter Orient und Altes Testament 210 (Neukirchen-Vluyn, Germany: Verlag Butzon & Bercker Kevelaer, 1984), 260. He states, "The simplest and clearest form of integration is the one that has two modes of pairing, where in the first one, the components are paired in syndetic parataxis followed by parallelism, (in succession and proximal one to the other or at times at specific spaced intervals), which have the pair components in parallel cola. This phenomenon occurs both in prose and poetry, with the prose evincing a congruent symmetry, rather than parallelism." Ibid. Along with Ps 115:15-16, he lists many other examples of word pairs acting in this manner.

being used as a merism to communicate the idea of the "organized universe," then it is quite anomalous for the very next verse to treat its individual members as if they had individual meanings. The strict application of the merism label cannot explain this anomaly.

The second instance occurs in the passage of Isaiah 45:18. The word pair אֶּרֶץ/שָׁמַיִּם acts in a similar manner to that of Psalm 115:15-16. In the Isaiah passage, however, the word pair is not in compound, but is in parallel bicola, another way in which the merism concept is communicated. Indeed, the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שָׁמַיִם is frequently used in both compound and parallel bicola to communicate the meaning of the "organized universe." The Isaiah passage states,

כֵּי כָה אָמַר־יְהוָה בּוֹרֵא הַשָּׁמַׁיִם הַוּא הָאֱלֹהִים יֹצֵר הָאָרֵץ וְעשָׁה הָוּא כְוֹנְנָה לֹא־תָהוּ בְרָאָה לָשֶׁבֶת יִצְרָה אַנִי יָהוָה וָאֵין עִוֹד:

For thus says the LORD,

"The one who created the Heavens, He is God
The one who formed the earth and made it, He established it
He did not create it formless
He formed it to be inhabited
I am the LORD, and there is no other."

²²In fact, the merismic studies of Krašovec, Honeyman, and Watson, all discuss and analyze the merism as a device of poetic parallelism. See Honeyman, "Merismus," 11–18; Jože Krašovec, "Merism," 231–39; Wilfred G. E. Watson, *Hebrew Poetry*, 321–24.

²³Gen 14:19, 22; Exod 31:17; Deut 4:26; 30:19; 31:28; 2 Kgs 19:15; 2 Chr 2:11; Pss 115:15; 121:2; 124:8; 134:3; Isa 37:16; 65:17; 66:22; Jer 32:17; Joel 4:16; Hag 2:21.

²⁴Ps 102:26; Prov 3:19; 1sa 44:24; 48:13; 51:13, 16; Jer 10:12; 51:15; Zech 12:1.

²⁵Waltke's argument focuses on the compound form of the word pair. He states, "In all its uses in the Old Testament, this phrase [אֲת הָּאֶרֶץ] functions as a compound referring to the organized universe." Waltke, *Genesis*, 59. However, the argument also extends to the uses of the word pair in parallel bicola since it also communicates the same meaning as the word pair in compound.

In this passage the word pair בּאֶרֶץ'שָׁלֵי, in parallel bicola, communicates the meaning of the "organized universe." However, both the pronominal suffixes in the second colon and the entirety of the third and fourth cola refer back to and treat the word אָרֶץ as a word with individual meaning. The context suggests that the word pair is not a merism. However, the meaning that the word pair communicates is the same as that of the compounded word pair in Exodus 31:17, which proponents of the summary-statement interpretation would argue *is* a merism. Thus, the use of the word pair in Isaiah 45:18 also seems to be anomalous to the strict application of the merism label.

Again, if the meanings of the individual words in a merism are displaced by the tertiary meaning, then the individual words should not be treated as words with individual meanings. The evidence from these two verses, however, suggest that the strict application of the merism label to the word pair מַּבְּיִלְישְׁמֵיִם cannot account for the entirety of the data. However, these verses are not the only problematic data for the merism argument. Again, the merism label also implies that the meanings of the individual words in the word pair cannot together communicate the meaning of "organized universe"—otherwise there would be no need for a tertiary meaning. However, a study of the individual words of the word pair suggests that their individual meanings actually can together communicate this "tertiary" meaning. ²⁶

The meaning communicated by the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שָׁמָיִם. Before any study of the individual words in the word pair אֵרֶץ/שָׁמַיִם can proceed, a more concrete picture

²⁶Waltke argues that since the word pair אָרֶץ'שָׁמִים creates a tertiary meaning, any study of its individual words is "erroneous." See Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 218; Waltke, Genesis, 59 n. 18; and Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 279. (In this last citation, Waltke does not explicitly state that study of the independent words is not possible; however, he does state that the tertiary meaning of the word pair is separate from the meanings of the individual words in isolation.) Again, if the meanings of the individual words cannot communicate what the word pair in collocation can, there really is no reason to study the words individually. However, a study of the individual words actually helps to explain how and why the word pair can communicate the meaning of "organized universe" even though it may not have some merismic characteristics.

of what the word pair actually communicate is necessary. Without a more literal understanding of this tertiary meaning, it is impossible to determine whether or not the individual words in the word pair can or cannot communicate it. As stated earlier, Waltke argues that the meaning communicated by the compounded form of the word pair is that of the "organized universe." However, the term "universe" is too abstract, and the modern reader's perception of the term is vastly different from that of the ancient's. Furthermore, with such an abstract, undefined meaning, there is no verifiable means of determining whether or not the individual words in the word pair can communicate it.

Two verses from the book of Exodus, however, can help create a more objective and controlled understanding of what the word pair does communicate when it is in compound or parallel bicola. Both are from the book of Exodus, and both use differing vocabulary to communicate the same idea of the "organized universe." The first, which has already been noted, is from Exodus 31:17. Again, it states,.

For in six days the LORD made the heavens and the earth, and on the seventh day he rested and was refreshed.

In this verse the compounded word pair אָרֶץ/שֶׁמָיִם is used to look back to and summarize the creation account in Genesis 1:1. The word pair clearly communicates the same meaning that summary-statement proponents would apply to the compounded word pair in Genesis 1:1. The second verse is the almost parallel passage of Exodus 20:11. It states,

For in six days the LORD made the heavens and the earth, the seas and all that is in them, and he rested on the seventh day.

In this verse the tripartite phrase אֶת־הַשָּׁמֵיִם וְאֶת־הָאָרֶץ אֶת־הַיָּם וְאֶת־כָּל־אֲשֶׁר־בָּם is also used to look back to and summarize the creation account in Genesis 1:1. It too communicates the same meaning that is communicated in Exodus 31:17. However, in Exodus 20:11 all the individual members of the tripartite phrase retain their individual

meanings and communicate the concept of the "organized universe" in a more literal manner.

In Exodus 20:11 the individual meanings of the words in the tripartite together describe the ancient Hebrews' conception of the "organized universe" as a set of containers and their contents. However, in Exodus 20:11 the meanings of the individual words אָרֶץ and שׁמֵיִם only refer to the containers of the "organized universe" and not the contents; whereas, the meaning of the compounded word pair אֶּרֶץ/שֶׁמֵיִם in Exodus 31:17 refers to both the containers and their contents. Thus, if the individual meanings of the word pair can communicate the meaning of "organized universe," they must include the concepts of both the containers and their contents individually.

The cosmological identities of the word אֶּבֶץ. In Exodus 20:11, the literal meaning of the word אֶבֶץ is used in the tripartite phrase to describe a cosmological container separate and distinct from its own contents and from the other cosmological containers of the שָׁבֵיִם and the בַּיָב and the בַּיָב this verse the cosmological range of the word אֶבֶץ is limited to the container of the "dry land", יַבְּשָׁה, which is in contradistinction to the container of the "sea", בַּיָב ' The בַיִנ is a container for such things as "fish", גַּזְ, and "sea"

²⁷The use of the tripartite phrase in Neh 9:6 demonstrates that the meanings of the words in the tripartite phrase of Exod 20:11 must be understood literally. Furthermore, it confirms the Hebrews' conception of the universe as a set of containers and their contents. The verse states,

אַתָּה־הָוּא יְהנָה לְבַדֶּדָ אַתְּ עֲשִׁיתָ אֵת־הַשָּׁמִים שְׁמֵי הַשָּׁמִים וְכָל־צְבָאָם הָאָרֶץ וְכָל־אֲשֶׁר עָלֶיהָ הַיַּמִּים וְכָל־אֲשֶׁר בָּהֶּם וְאַתָּה מְחַיֵּה אֶת־כַּלְם וּצְבֵא הַשָּׁמֵיִם לְדֵ מִשְׁתַחֲוִים:

You are He. You alone are LORD. You made the heavens, the heavens of the heavens and all their hosts, the earth and all that is upon it, the seas and all that is in them. You give life to all of them, and the host of the heavens worship you.

Unlike the word pair אֶרֶץ'שְׁמַיִּם, the tripartite phrase never communicates the concept of the whole of creation without the mention of the contents that fill the containers. If the tripartite phrase does not mention the contents, then the individual members of the phrase only refer to the literal containers (cf. Ps 135:6).

²⁸The phrase וְאֵת־כָּל־אֵשֶׁר־בָּם refers to the contents of these containers.

²⁹See also Ps 95:5; Jonah 1:9; and Hag 2:6 for other examples of this antithesis at the cosmological level. Ottoson adds, "Along with the bipartite division, there is also a tripartite division of the

monsters", אָרֶם, 30 while the אָרֶם, or אָרֶץ, is a container for "man", חַנִּין, and the "animal of the field", חַיֵּת הַשְּׂדֶה. Thus, the ancient Hebrews' conception of the world included distinctions between differing cosmological containers and distinctions between these containers and their contents. Consider the following verses:

Genesis 1:10a³¹

וַיִּקְרָא אֱלֹהֵים לַיַּבָּשָׁה אֶׁרֵץ וּלְמִקוֹה הַמַּיִם קָרֵא יַמִּים

And God called the dry land "earth", and the gathering of the waters He called "sea".

Genesis 1:22

וַיְבַרֶץ אֹתָם אֱלֹהָים לֵאמֹר פְּרֵוּ וּרְבֹוּ וּמִלְאָוּ אֶת־הַמַּיִם בַּיַּמִּׁים וְהָעִוֹף יָרֶב בָּאֱרֶץ:

And God blessed them saying, "Be fruitful, multiply, and fill the waters of the sea, but let the birds multiply on the earth."

Genesis 1:28

וַיְבֶרֶדְ אֹתָם אֱלֹהִים וַיֹּאמֶר לְטָּם אֱלֹהִים פְּרִוּ וּרְבֶוּ וּמִלְאָוּ אֶת־הָאָרֵץ וְכִבְשֵׁהָ וּרְדֵּוֹ בִּדְגַת הַיָּם וּבִצוֹף הַשְּׁמֵּיִם וּבְכֵל־חַיַּה הַרֹמֵשֵׁת עַל־הַאֵרִץ:

And God blessed them, and said to them, "Be fruitful and multiply; fill the earth and subdue it. Rule over the fish of the sea, the birds of the heavens, and every animal that creeps upon the earth

Genesis 9:2a

וּמוֹרַאֲכֶם וְחִתְּכֶם יִהְיֶּה עַל כָּל־חַיַּת הָאָָרֶץ וְעַל כָּל־עַוֹף הַשָּׁמָיָם בְּכֹל אֲשֶׁר תִּרְמְשׁ הָאֲדָמָה וִּבְכָל־דְּגֵי הַיָּם

But your fear and your terror will be upon every animal of the earth and upon every bird of the heavens, and in everything which will creep on the ground and in all the fish of the sea.

universe into heaven, earth, and sea (water) in the OT. In Gen 1:10, 'erets is defined as "the dry land," and forms the antithesis to the gathering together of the water, i.e., to the sea." Ottosson, "קרץ" ('erets)," in Theological Dictionary of the Old Testament, rev. ed., ed. G. Johannes Botterweck and Helmer Ringgren, trans. John T. Willis. 15 vols. (Grand Rapids; William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1978), 1:397.

³⁰Gen 1:21; Job 7:12; Ps 74:13; Isa 27:1; Ezek 32:2.

³¹Cf. Jonah 1:9; Ps 95:5.

Nehemiah 9:6

אַתָּה־הָוּא יְהנָה לְבַדֶּךָ אַתָּה עַשִּׁיתָ אֶת־הַשָּׁמֵיִם שְׁמֵי הַשְּׁמַיִם וְכָל־צְבָאָם הָאָׁרֶץ וְכָל־אֲשֶׁר עַלֵיה הַיַּמִים וְכָל־אֲשֵׁר בָּהֶם וְאַתָּה מְחַיֵּה אֵת־כַּלַם וּצְבֵא הַשְּׁמַיִם לְדֵ מִשְׁתַּחֵנִים:

You are He. You alone are LORD. You made the heavens, the heavens of the heavens and all their hosts, the earth and all that is upon it, the seas and all that is in them. You give life to all of them, and the host of the heavens bow down to you.

In nearly every cited passage there is both a clear distinction between the container of the אֶּבֶץ and the other cosmological containers and a clear distinction between the אֶבֶץ and its contents. Only in Genesis 1:10 is there no distinction between the container and the contents since in the context of the passage the contents are not yet created.

Even though the word אֶּבֶץ, in a limited sense, can refer to the container of the בָּבָשָׁר, in contradistinction to the container of the בֵי, it can also refer to a much larger cosmological container. The word אֶבֶץ also describes a cosmological container that encompasses all the realms, or containers, that are under the container of the בַּבָשָׁי. Thus, the cosmological range of the word אֶבֶץ can also encompass both the container of the בַּבְּשָׁרַ and the container of the בַּבְּשָׁרַ and the container of the בַּבָשָׁר. In this sense, the word אֶבֶץ functions very much like the English word "earth" when referring to Planet Earth. Consider the following verses:

Genesis 1:2

ּוָהָאָָרֶץ הָיְתָה תֹהוּ וָבַּהוּ וְחָשֶׁךְ עַל־פְּנֵיַ תְהָוֹם וְרַוּחַ אֱלֹהִים מְרַחֶפֶּת עַל־פְּנֵי הַמָּיִם:

Now the earth was formless and void with darkness upon the face of the deep and the Spirit of God hovering above the surface of the waters.

Psalm 104:5-6

ַנְעֶד: עָל־מְכוֹנְיָהָ בַּל־תְּמִוֹט עוֹלָם וָעֶד: 5 יָסֵד־אֶּרֶץ עַל־מְכוֹנְיָהָ בַּל־תְּמֹוֹט עוֹלָם נַעֶּקְדוּ־מָיִם: 6 הְּהוֹם בַּלְּבָוּשׁ בִּסִיתְוֹ עַל־הָרִים יַעֲקְדוּ־מָיִם:

⁵He established the earth upon its foundations, it will not be moved forever.

³²Harrison states, "While used in most of the senses of 'adāmâ 'ereş often indicated the earth as a planet rather than as soil or ground." Roland K. Harrison, "Earth," in *The International Standard Bible Encyclopedia*, rev. ed., ed. Geoffrey W. Bromiley. 4 vols. (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1988), 2:3. This description does not mean that the ancient Hebrews readers had the same conception of the planet as that of the modern reader. It simply means that their word for earth, אֶרֶץ, like the English word "earth," can encompass more than just terra firma.

⁶He has covered it with the deep like a garment, the waters were standing above the mountains.³³

Psalm 148:7³⁴

הַלְלָוּ אֶת־יֻהוָה מִן־הָאָרֶץ תַּנִּינִים וְכָל־תְּהֹמְוֹת:

Praise the LORD from the earth, you sea monsters and all depths.

Amos 9:6b

הַקֹּרֵא לְמֵי־הַיָּׁם וַיִּשִׁפָּכֵם עַל־פָּנֵי הָאָרֵץ יִהְוָה שִׁמְוֹ:

The One who calls the waters of the sea and pours them out upon the surface of the earth, the LORD is his name.

By describing both the בְּיָ and the מְּהָהֹם, "deep," as parts of the container of the אָבֶץ, these passages demonstrate this larger cosmological dimension of the word. Other studies on the ancient Hebrews' conception of the אֶבֶץ also recognize this larger, cosmological dimension of the word. For instance, Stadelmann states,

What we designate "the universe," they [the Hebrews] regarded as two separate entities:

The heavens are the heaven of the Lord, But the earth has he given to mankind.

By earth[, אֶּבֶץ,] here is to be understood everything under the heavens, including the seas:

Praise the Lord from the earth; Sea-monsters and all the deeps.³⁵

Janzen also states,

³³For an explanation of the difference in gender between the pronominal suffix and its antecedent, see Amos Hakham, *Psalm 101–150*, vol. 3 of *Psalms*, The Koschitzky ed., The Bible with the Jerusalem Commentary (Jerusalem: Mosad Harav Kook, 2003), 38 n. 8b. See also the previous discusion of this verse in Chapter 2 of this dissertation.

 $^{^{34}}$ The inclusion of the sea monsters, תָּנִין, (cf. Gen 1:21) as dwellers of the אֶרֶץ demonstrates that in a larger cosmological sense, the אֶרֶץ is a container for both the מיָם and its contents.

³⁵Luis I. J. Stadelmann, *The Hebrew Conception of the World*, Analecta Biblica 39 (Rome: Biblical Institute Press, 1970), 3. Stadelmann also states, "The earth was regarded as a vast plain, occupied partly by the sea, partly by continents studded with mountains, furrowed by rivers, and dotted with lakes." Ibid., 126.

Somewhat ambivalent in this structure [of the universe] is the place of the sea(s) or water(s), the deep, and the underworld. The seas can be spoken of as familiar reality, in which the fish and other water creatures swarm (Gen 1:20, 22, 26, etc.) and on which humans move in ships (Ps 104:25-26; 107:23; Prov 30:19; Ezek 27:9). As such, the sea forms part of the earth, i.e., the flat surface below juxtaposed to the heavens above.³⁶

Thus, when used to make cosmological references, the word אֶּבֶץ can have two meanings. It can refer to the cosmological container of only the יַבְּשָׁה, or it can refer to the larger container that encompasses both the יַבַּשְׁה and the בַיַ. Ottosson writes,

The Heb. 'erets combines the same nuances of meaning as the related words discussed above [in the etymology section]: "earth" in the cosmic sense as an antithesis to "heaven," "land" in antithesis to "sea," 37

Schmid also writes, "(a) 'ereş indicates (1) cosmologically: the earth (in contrast to heaven) and the dry land (in contrast to the waters)"³⁸

When the larger cosmological dimension of the word is communicated, the container of the אֶּבֶץ is no longer in contradistinction to the container of the sea, בְיָ, since the בִיְ is now a part of this larger container. Rather, the container of the אֶבֶץ is in contradistinction to the container of the שְׁמֵיִם. Thus, in a literal sense, the ביִשְׁמִיִם are a container for all the contents above, and the אֶבֶץ is a container for all the contents below. Rather than being a container for just man and beast, the אֶבֶץ is also a container for the fish, the sea monsters, and everything else that can be classified as under the בּיִשְׁמַיִבּי.

Again, the word אֶּבֶץ in Exodus 20:11 is used literally in a tripartite phrase that communicates the same meaning that the compounded word pair אֶּבֶץ/שֶׁמֵים communicates in Exodus 31:17. Since the word can also communicate the idea of the larger cosmological container that encompasses the contents of the בַּישָׁה and the בַּישָׁה then

³⁶W. Janzen, "Earth," in *The Anchor Bible Dictionary*, ed. David Noel Freedman. 6 vols. (New York: Doubleday, 1992), 2:246.

³⁷Ottosson, "אֶרֶץ" (*'erets*)," 1:393.

³⁸H. H. Schmid, "אֶרֶץ" 'eres earth, land," in *Theological Lexicon of the Old Testament*, ed. Ernst Jenni and Claus Westermann, trans. Mark E. Biddle. 3 vols. (Peabody, MA: Hendrickson Publishers, 1997), 1:173.

the tripartite phrase אֶּת־הַשָּׁמֵיִם וְאֶת־הָּיָּט וְאֶת־הָיָּט וְאֶת־הָּלָּרְאֲשֶׁר־בָּם could be replaced with the bipartite phrase אֶּת־הָשָּׁמֵיִם וְאֶת־הָּאָרֶץ וְאֶת־כָּל־אֲשֶׁר־בָּם. The two words of the bipartite phrase then would still retain their individual meanings, and the phrase would still communicate the same meaning as that of the compounded word pair in Exodus $31:17.^{39}$

However, even though the word אֶּרֶץ can describe the larger cosmological container that is in contradistinction to the שָׁמֵיִם, there is still a distinction between it and its contents, much like there is a distinction between the smaller container of the יַבְשָׁה and its contents. This distinction is shown in the following passages.

Deuteronomy 10:14

Behold, to the LORD your God belong the heaven and the heavens of the heavens, the earth and all that is in it.

Psalm 104:24⁴⁰

How great are your works, LORD. You made all of them in your wisdom; the earth is full of your possessions.

Psalm 148:741

Praise the LORD from the earth, you sea monsters and all depths.

Isaiah 34:1b

³⁹The bipartite phrases in Gen 2:1 and Jer 51:48 communicate the same meaning that the word pair in Exod 30:17 communicates; however, the words of the bipartite phrase retain their individual literal meanings.

⁴⁰The context of the chapter discusses the LORD's creation of the אָרֶץ, the larger cosmological container, and his dealings with it. The following verses, 25-26, talk about the מָם and its creatures making them apart of all the creatures of the אַרֵץ that are in the LORD's care (104:27-30).

The container of the אֶּרֶץ is depicted first, but its contents are distinctly described in verses 7-12.

הַשְׁמַע הַאָרֵץ וּמְלֹאָה תָּבֵל וְכַל־צֵאֵצַאֵיה:

Let the earth and all its fullness hear, the world and all its produce

Micah 1:2a

שָׁמְעוּ עַמֵּים כַּלָּם הַקְשִׁיבִי אֱרֵץ וּמְלֹאַהּ

Hear, nations, all of you. Listen, earth and its fullness.

In these passages the distinction between container and contents is maintained even when the word אָרֶץ refers to the larger cosmological container of all that is under the שַׁמַיִם.

The word אָרֶץ, however, can also express another cosmological meaning. There are other instances in the Hebrew Old Testament in which there is no distinction between the container and the contents of the אָרץ. In these instances the word אָרץ communicates the meaning of both.⁴²

Genesis 6:11

ותשַתת האַרץ לפני האַלהים ותּמַלא האַרץ חמס:

Now the earth was corrupt before God, and the earth was filled with violence.

Exodus 19:5b

והייתם לי סגלה מכל־הַעַמִּים כִּי־לִי כַּל־הַאַרִץ:

And you will be my possession from all the peoples, for the all the earth is mine.

Psalm 89:12

לַבַ שַׁמֵים אַף־לָבַ אַרִץ תָּבַל וֹמְלֹאָה אַתָּה יָסְדַתַּם:

The heavens are yours. Moreover the earth is yours, the world and its fullness. You have established them.

Psalm 115: 15-16

¹⁵בְּרוּכֵים אָתֶּם לַיהוָהָ עֹשֵׂה שָׁמַיִם וָאָרֶץ: ¹⁶הִשַּׁמִים שַׁמִים לִיהוָה וְהַאַּרִץ נַתַן לְבָנִי־אַדַם:

⁴²Cf. BDB, s.v. "אַרץ"," which has under definition 1.c., "earth=inhabitants of earth."

¹⁵Be blessed of the LORD, the maker of the heavens and the earth.

¹⁶(For the heavens are the LORD's heavens, but the earth he has given to the sons of man.)

Isaiah 54:5b

וָהֹיִיתֵם לִי סִגַלָּה מִכֶּל־הָעַמִּים כִּי־לָי כָּל־הָאָרֵץ:

And you will be my possession from all the peoples, for the all the earth is mine.

Other scholars also recognize this added cosmological dimension of the word.

Stadelmann states,

Since the concept of an external world seems to be a Greek abstraction, unknown, at all events, to the Semites, it is not surprising that the Bible does not distinguish container from contents, or, conversely, the living from its environment. Thus, for example, space never appears as an inert, lifeless receptacle; it is the sea where fish swim, the ground on which beasts tread, the land belonging to such and such people, the heavens where the winds are stored, the snow and hail are kept.⁴³

Schimd also states,

To be sure, the OT is not concerned with the earth as part of the cosmos so much as with that which fills the earth (${}^{9}ere$, $\hat{u}m^{e}l\bar{o}{}^{3}\bar{a}h$, Deut 33:16; Isa 34:1; Jer 8:16, etc.), its inhabitants (Isa 24:1, 5f., 17; Jer 25:29f.; Psa 33:14, etc.), peoples (Gen 18:18; 22:18; 26:4; Deut 28:10, etc.), kingdoms (Deut 28:25; 2 Kgs 19:15, etc.), and the like. Thus the term "earth" in some passages can indicate—as in other languages—both the earth and its inhabitants (Gen 6:11, etc.).

Thus, if the word אֶּבֶיץ can communicate the meaning of both container and contents, then by itself, it can refer to an entire half of all that is said to be created in Exodus 20:11, and as a consequence half of all that is said to be created in Exodus 31:17. In other words, can refer to one half of the "organized universe."

The cosmological identities of the word שָׁמֵים. Much like the word אֶּרֶץ, the word שְׁמֵיִם also communicates the idea of a cosmological container separate and distinct from its contents. In many passages the word is depicted as a container for the host of the heavens, בּוֹכְבִים, such as the sun, שֵׁמֵשׁ, moon בּוֹכְבִים, stars בּוֹלְבִים, and the

⁴³Stadelmann, Hebrew Conception, 2.

⁴⁴Schmid, "אֶרֶץ" 1:175.

angels/messengers, מֵלְאַכִים. Consider the following examples:

Nehemiah 9:6

אַתָּה־הָוּא יְהוָה לְבַדֶּדָ אַתַּה עָשִֿׁיתָ אֶת־הַשָּׁמֵיִם שְׁמֵי הַשְּׁמַיִם וְכָל־צְבָאָם הָאָׁרֶץ וְכָל־אֲשֶׁר עָלֵיהָ הַיַּמִים וְכָל־אֲשֶׁר בָּהֶם וְאַתָּה מְחֵיֵּה אֶת־כַּלְם וּצְבָא הַשָּׁמַיִם לְדֵ מִשְׁתַּחֵיִים:

You are He. You alone are LORD. You made the heavens, the heavens of the heavens and all their hosts, the earth and all that is upon it, the seas and all that is in them. You give life to all of them, and the host of the heavens worships you.

Psalm 33:6

בִּדְבַר יֳהוָה שָׁמַיִם נַעֲשָׂוּ וּבְרוּחַ פִּיו כָּל־צְבָאֶם:

By the word of the LORD were the heavens made and by the breath of His mouth all their hosts

Psalm 148:146

ַהַלְלוּ יָה הַלְלְוּ אֵת־יֵהוָה מִן־הַשָּׁמַיֵם הַׁלְלוּהוּ בַּמִּרוֹמֵים:

Praise the LORD! Praise the LORD from the heavens! Praise Him from the heights!

Isaiah 34:4

וְנָמַקּוּ כָּל־צְבָא הַשָּׁמַ֫יִם וְנָגָלוּ כַמֵּפֶר הַשָּׁמָיִם וְכָל־צְבָאָם יִבּׁוֹל כִּנְכַל עַלֶּה מִגֶּפֶן וּכְנֹבֶלֶת מתאנה:

All the host of the heavens will decay, and the heavens will be rolled up as a scroll. And all their hosts will droop as a drooping leaf from a vine as a drooping fig tree.

Isaiah 45:12

אָנֹכִי עָשֵׂיתִי אֶׁרֶץ וְאָדֶם עָלֶיָהָ בָרָאתִי אֲנִּי יָדֵי נָטְוּ שָׁמַׂיִם וִכָּל־צְבָאָם צְוֵיתִי:

⁴⁵For more uses of the phrase אֲבָא הַשָּׁמֵיִם and its relation to the sun, moon, stars, and angels, see Deut 4:19; 17:3; 1 Kgs 22:19; 2 Kgs 17:16; 21:3, 5; 23:4, 5; 2 Chr 18:18; 33:3, 5; Neh 9:6; Ps 33:6; Isa 34:4; 45:12; Jer 8:2; 19:13; 33:22; Dan 8:10; Zeph 1:5. See also Tsumura's article which includes all of these as the inhabitants of the heavens. David Toshio Tsumura, "שַׁמֵיִם", in New International Dictionary of Old Testament Theology and Exegesis, ed. Willem A. VanGemeren. 5 vols. (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1997), 4:162–63.

 $^{^{46}}$ The contents of the שָׁמַיָּם are described in verses 1-6 marking a clear distinction between container and contents.

I made the earth and I created man upon it. I, with my hand, stretched out the heavens and commanded all their hosts.

Jeremiah 2:12

יָהְוָה: שָׁמֵיִם עַל־זָאת וְשַׂעָרָוּ חָרְכְוּ מְאֻׁד נְאָם־יִהְוָה:

"Be desolate, heavens, concerning this. Bristle with horror and be wasted," declares the LORD.

In all of these passages there is a clear distinction between container and contents.

Now just as the word אֶרֶץ can refer to the smaller container of the 'dry land," יַבְּשָׁהַ, which is a part of the larger cosmological אָרֶץ, so too the word יַבְּשָׁהָ can refer to the smaller container of the "firmament," אָרֶץ, which also seems to be only a part of a larger cosmological שַׁמִים Unfortunately, since ancient Hebrews were incapable of interacting with the שִׁמִים there is not as much data regarding the details of its physical makeup. Most word studies, however, do agree that with the word שַׁמִיִּם there is some kind of semantic distinction between the realm of the בְּקִיעַ the phenomenological sky, which contains the sun, moon, and stars, and the realm of the בְּקִיעַ הָּכִוֹן שֶׁבֶּה, God's abode, for which contains the angels/messengers and anything else that is above the בְּקִיעַ the However, as Bartelmus has noted, when the word שַׁמִיב is used, it can be very difficult to distinguish which of the two realms is implied in the context of a passage. Nevertheless, in the Hebrew Old Testament the word Nevertheless, in the Hebrew Old Neverthe

⁴⁷This is the phrase that is most frequently used to refer to God's dwelling place. See 1 Kgs 8:39, 43, 49; 2 Chr 6:30, 33, 39. However, the phrase מְעוֹן קֹדֶשׁ can also refer to His dwelling place. See Deut 26:15; 2 Chr 30:27; Ps 68:5; Jer 25:30.

⁴⁸See BDB and *HALOT*, s.v. "שַׁמֵּיִם". See also Carmen Blacker and Michael Loewe, eds., Ancient Cosmologies (London: Allen and Unwin, 1975), 70; Bartelmus, "שַׁמָּיִם" (šāmayim)," in Theological Dictionary of the Old Testament, rev. ed., ed. G. Johannes Botterweck and Helmer Ringgren, trans. John T. Willis. 15 vols. (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1978), 15:223; Hermann J. Austel, "שַׁמִּיִם" (shāmayim) heaven, heavens, sky," in Theological Wordbook of the Old Testament, ed. R. Laird Harris, Gleason L. Archer, and Bruce K. Waltke. 2 vols. (Chicago: Moody Press, 1980), 2:2407; Tsumura, "שַׁמֵּיִיִם", 4:160.

⁴⁹Bartelmus, "מַיֵּכִי (šāmayim)." 226.

overall cosmological container, that encompasses both the containers of the רְקִיעַ and the הָקְרוֹן שֶׁבֶּח Again, this lexical phenomenon is much like the meaning of the word אָּבֶץ, which also encompasses both of the realms of the יָבָּשָׁה, and the יַבָּשָׁה, and the יַבָּשָׁה, thus, just as the אָבֶץ can be a container for all the contents that exist below the שְׁמֵיִם can be a container for all the contents that exist above the אָבֶץ, including the contents that exist above the בְקִיעַ However, these lexical similarities between the two words do not end here.

Just as there are instances in which there is no distinction between the container and the contents of the אֶּרֶץ, there are also instances in which there is no distinction between the container and the contents of the שַׁמַיִם. Consider the following verses:51

1 Chronicles 16:26

בי כַּל־אַלהֵי הַעַמִּים אַלִילִים וַיהוָה שַׁמֵים עַשַׂה:

For all the gods of the peoples are worthless, but the LORD made the heavens Psalm 8:4

בִּי־אֶרָאֵה שָׁמֶיךָ מַעֲשֵׂי אָצְבָּעֹתֵיךָ יָרֵחַ וְׁכוֹכָבִים אֲשֶׁר כּוֹנָנַתָּה:

When I see your heavens, the work of your fingers, the moon, and the stars which you established,

ישנים 150 N.b. that the word שַּׁמְיֵּבֶי encompasses both these realms in Ps 148:1-6. Other scholars also recognize this all-inclusive nature of the word. Stadelmann states, "All these luminaries are said to be located in the expanse of the 'firmament,' which seems to be included in the general concept of 'heaven.' The term *smym* (heaven) designates the space above the earth, including the atmosphere, the region of the clouds, the heavenly vault, the firmament, and that which exists above the firmament." Stadelmann, *Hebrew Conception*, 180. Reddish states, "Whereas the firmament referred specifically to the canopy covering the earth, heaven often had a broader meaning, referring to all that was above the earth, including the firmament." Mitchell G. Reddish, "Heaven," in *The Anchor Bible Dictionary*, ed. David Noel Freedman. 6 vols. (New York: Doubleday, 1992), 3:90. Finally Muller states, "The term heavens refers to all that is above the earth; the air and the clouds, the firmament, and the spaces above the firmament." R. A. Muller, "World," in *The International Standard Bible Encyclopedia*, rev. ed., ed. Geoffrey W. Bromiley. 4 vols. (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1988), 4:1113.

⁵¹Some of the examples most likely do refer to the smaller רֶקִיעַ, the דֶקִיעַ, rather than the larger, all-encompassing שָׁמֵיִם (cf. Ps 19:2), but such examples still demonstrate that the word שַׁמֵיִם does function like the word אָרֶץ in that it can refer to both container and its contents.

Psalm 19:2

הַשְּמַיִם מֶסַפָּרֵים כָּבִוֹד־אֵל וְמַעֲשֵׂה יַבִּיו מַגִּיד הַרַקִיעַ:

The heavens recount the glory of God, and the firmament declares the works of His hands.

Psalm 136:5

לעשה השמים בתבונה כי לעולם חסדו:

To the One who made the heavens with understanding, for his mercy is forever.

Psalm 115:16

ַבָּנִי־אָדֵם: שַׁמַיִם לַיהוָה וְהָאָׁרֶץ נָתַן לִבְנִי־אָדֵם:

(For the heavens are the LORD's heavens, but the earth he has given to the sons of man.)

In some of these passages the word אָמָיִם may only refer to the רָקִיעַ or the בְּקִיעָ, or the מְלֵּוֹן שֶׁבֶּת, or the מְלֵּוֹן שָׁבֶּת, or the מְלֵיִם or the מְלֵיִם, or the מִלְיִם, or the מִלְיִם, or the מִלְיִם, or the מִלְיִם, or the analysis or the larger and the container and the contents when referring to these smaller containers, it is logical to assume that it can have this meaning when referring to the larger cosmological container (cf. 1 Chr 16:26; Ps 115:16; Ps 136:5) especially considering that its normal antonym אֶבֶיץ functions in the same manner.

Therefore, just as the word אֶרֶיְעָ can refer to the container and the contents of all that is below the שָׁמֵיִם, it seems as if the word שְׁמִיִם can also refer to the container and the contents of all that is above the אֶרֶץ. Thus, the word שִׁמִיִם, by itself, can refer to the other half of all that is said to be created in Exodus 20:11, and as a consequence all that is said to be created in Exodus 31:17. In other words, it can refer to the other half of the "organized universe." If the individual words of the word pair can truly communicate these meanings, then the characteristic tertiary meaning is unnecessary. The individual meanings that can be applied to the words אָרֶיְץ and שִׁמִיִּים, when they are in compound or parallel bicola may together refer to the "organized universe." This understanding of the word pair makes better sense of the previously mentioned data that conflicts with the strict application of the merism label. It also makes better sense of the following data,

which also conflicts with the merism label.

More conflicting data. There are also at least two passages in which one individual word of the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שְׁמֵיִם seems to refer to the container and its contents, while the other seems to refer to just the container. In all of these passages, however, the meaning communicated by the clause or cola in which the word pair occurs is that of the "organized universe." In a sense, if the word pair is a merism, then these passages only contain half of it. The first is from Deuteronomy 10:14, which states, ... בוּן לִיהוַה אֵלהֹיך הַשִּׁמֵיִם וּשָׁמִיִם הַאַרִץ וְכַל־אַשֶּׁר־בַּהּ:

Behold, to the LORD our God belong the heavens and the heavens of the heavens, the earth and all that is in it.

In this verse the word שְׁמֵיִם refers to the cosmological container and its contents, but the word יְכֶל־אֲשֶׁר־בָּה only refers to the container. The phrase וְכֶל־אֲשֶׁר־בָּה refers to the contents of the אָרֶץ only refers to the container. The phrase אָרֶץ refers to the contents of the יְכֶל־אֲשֶׁר־בָּה is that of the "organized universe." However, it seems that in this verse only half of the merism is being used, while the other half is not acting like the other component of a merism. Nevertheless, the meaning communicated is the same as that of the compounded word pair in Exodus 31:17: the "organized universe." Unfortunately the strict application of the merism label cannot account for this anomalous piece of data, but according to the previous discussion, the data fits perfectly.

The second passage is from Isaiah 42:5,52 which also states,

כְּה־אָמֵׁר הָאֵל יְהוָה בּוֹרָא הַשָּׁמִים וְנָוֹטֵיהֶּם רֹקַע הָאָרֵץ וְצֶאֱצְאֶיָה נֹתֵן נְשָׁמָה לָעָם עָלֶיה וְרִוּחַ לַהֹלְכִים בָּהּ:

Thus says the God, the LORD,

⁵²See also Jer 10:12 and 51:15 where the next verses (10:13 and 51:16) seem to refer back to the individual words of the word pair.

who created the heavens and stretched them out, who spread out the earth and its offspring, who gives breath to the people upon it, and spirit to those who walk upon it.

In this passage the word מַלַיִילָּ also refers to the container and the contents; whereas, the word אָרֶץ סחוץ refers to the container, and the word אָרֶץ refers to its contents. Furthermore, the last two cola of the verse treat the word אָרֶץ as if it had an individual, literal meaning. Nevertheless, the meaning communicated by the individual word מַלְיִי וֹנְצָאֲנֶץ הָ is that of the "organized universe," the same meaning communicated by the compounded word pair in Exodus 31:17. These two passages further demonstrate that the strict application of the merism label to the word pair אֶרֶץ/שָׁבֵיִים cannot account for the entirety of the data. However, by recognizing that the individual words of the word pair can communicate the meaning of "organized universe," the entirety of the data can be accounted for and properly explained. Should then the merism label be dropped?

The verdict on the merism label. If the data from the Hebrew Old Testament shows that the individual words of the word pair מַּבְּיִץ/שָׁמִיִם can retain their individual meanings when they are in compound or parallel bicola, is the word pair then really a merism? Furthermore, if the data shows that the meanings of the individual words can together communicate the concept of the "organized universe," is the word pair then really a merism? The answer is both yes and no. On the one hand, the word pair פוֹלְישְׁמִיִּים is a polar expression that does indicate a totality, which is a common characteristic of merisms. On the other hand, as the evidence has shown, the individual words of the word pair אֶּבֶיְץ/שָׁמִיִם together make up the that totality. They are the most prominent parts of the whole because they are the two halves that comprise it. This phenomenon explains the conflicting data. Thus, in one sense the word pair is different from most merisms. This difference, however, should not disqualify the word pair from

being labeled as a merism, for nearly every study on the merism includes this word pair as an example. However, based upon the evidence and the uniqueness of this word pair, summary-statement proponents should not use the merism label to argue that the compounded אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:1 cannot correspond to the isolated אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:2. The close proximity of the two identical words suggests that they do correspond to one another, and whether they actually do or do not has nothing to do with the merism label.

Does the Word Pair Always Communicate this Meaning?

Though the preceding investigation demonstrates that the merism label cannot prevent traditional proponents from arguing that the אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:1 corresponds with the ץְּבֶץ of 1:2, the evidence still suggests that the word pair does refer to the "organized universe." Waltke even argues that the word pair has this meaning in all its uses. According to the traditional interpretation, the word pair cannot have this meaning because the ץֶבֶץ of Genesis 1:2, which refers back to the אֶבֶץ of Genesis 1:1, clearly does not describe a universe that is in any way organized or complete. The previous discussion, however, suggests that when the word pair occurs in collocation, it may have another meaning as well.

The previous study of the individual words אָרֶץ and אָרֶץ demonstrates that individually they can refer to either the container and its contents or to the larger cosmological container alone. The former explains how the individual meanings of the two words can together communicate the idea of the "organized universe." However, if

⁵³N.b. again Murphy's short definition which describes a merism as, "A poetic technique by which a whole is referred to by either its two major parts or two extremities. Thus, 'heavens and earth' refers to the entire cosmos, and 'mountains and valleys' refers to the total terrain." Murphy, *Pocket Dictionary*, s.v., "merismus.".

⁵⁴Waltke, *Genesis*, 59 "In *all* [(emphasis mine)] its uses in the Old Testament (cf. Gen. 2:1, 4; Deut. 3:24; Isa. 65:17; Jer. 23:24), this phrase functions as a compound referring to the organized universe." As noted earlier, Waltke limits his claim to the use of the word pair in compound. However, previous discussion showed that it can also extend to the word pair in parallel bicola.

the two words by themselves can refer to either the container or both the container and its contents, then it is possible that the two words maintain these same aspects even when they are in collocation. In other words, there should be examples where the word pair in compound or parallel bicola only refers to the containers and not to both the containers and the contents.

Not surprisingly, the word pair actually does act in this manner when it is in collocation, and there are three ways in which it does so. First, like the tripartite phrase in Exodus 20:11, the word pair אֶּבֶץ/שְׁמֵיִם can be used in a bipartite phrase where the meanings of the words אֶּבֶץ and אֶּבֶץ only refer to the all-encompassing cosmological containers, but not the contents. Consider the following examples:

Genesis 2:1

וַיְכַלָּוּ הַשָּׁמַיִם וְהָאָרֵץ וְכָל־צִבָאָם:

And God completed the heavens and the earth and all their hosts.

Jeremiah 51:48a

ּוְרִבְּנָוּ עַל־בָּבֶל שָׁמַיִם וָאָֹרֶץ וְכָל אֲשֶׁר בָּהֶם

Shout over Babylon, heavens and earth and all that is in them.

In these examples the word pair אֶּבֶץ/שְׁמֵיִם only refers to the cosmological containers. Thus, it does not communicate the same meaning that the word pair communicates in Exodus 31:17. Surprisingly, even Waltke agrees with this assessment in his comments on Genesis 2:1. He states,

1. **the heavens and the earth were completed.** The concluding summary statement [in Genesis 2:1] underscores that the creator has perfectly executed his will with regard to the first triad[, the first three days of creation]. **the vast array.** This refers to the second triad[, the second three days]. 55

The summary statement in 2:1 is a janus, functioning both as an inclusio (an envelope) with verse 1:1 and introducing the epilogue. Here "the heavens and the earth" refers to the first three days of creation that feature the essential spheres of the cosmos. "All their vast array" refers to the manifold forms of creation housed in

⁵⁵Waltke, Genesis, 67.

these spheres, such as luminaries in the heavens, birds in the sky, fish in the sea, and "creepy-crawlies," animals, and human beings on the land. 56

In these citations, Waltke acknowledges two things. First, he acknowledges that there is a distinction between container and contents; although, he uses the terms "spheres" and "inhabitants." Second, Waltke also acknowledges this distinction exists in Genesis 2:1 where the word pair אֶרֶץ/שָׁמֵיִם does not refer to the containers and the contents, the "organized universe," but to the containers alone. Thus, even Waltke applies a different meaning to the word pair in Genesis 2:1 than he applies to the word pair in Genesis 1:1.

Second, in Isaiah 45:12 the word pair is used in parallel bicola; however, the word pair only refers to the cosmological containers and not their contents.

Isaiah 45:12

אָנֹכִי עָשַׂיתִי אֶּׁרֶץ וְאָדָם עַלֶּיָהָ בָּרֵאתִי אַנִּי יָדִי נַטְוּ שָׁמַיִם וְכָל־צְבָאָם צְנֵיתִי:

I myself made the earth, and I created man upon it.

I with my hands stretched out the heavens, and commanded all their host.

Thus, again the word pair does *not* communicate the same meaning that is does in Psalm 102:26; Proverbs 3:19; Isaiah 44:24; 48:13; 51:13, 16; Jeremiah 10:12; 51:15; and Zechariah 12:1, where the word pair is used in parallel bicola to communicate the same meaning as the compounded word pair in Exodus 31:17. Rather, the word pair in Isaiah 45:12 communicates the same meaning as the compounded word pair in Genesis 2:1 and Jeremiah 51:48. It only refers to the containers of the שַׁמֵּיִב and the יַשְׁמֵּיִב and the

Third, in other instances in which the word pair אֶּרֶץ/שָׁמַיִם is governed by a preposition, the word pair again only refers to the containers and not the contents.

Consider the following examples:

2 Samuel 18:9b

⁵⁶Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 186.

⁵⁷Waltke refers to the "inhabitants in the second triad" in a subtitle. See ibid., 186.

וַיָּחַזַק רֹאשָׁוֹ בָאֵלָה וַיַּתַּן בֵּין הַשָּׁמַיִם וּבֵין הָאָָרֵץ וְהַפֶּּרֶד אֲשֶׁר־תַּחָתָיו עָבֶר:

And his head was held strong in the oak, and he was left between the heavens and the earth, while his mule which was under him passed on.

1 Kings 8:23b⁵⁸

וּאמַר יְהוָה אֱלֹהֵי יִשְׂרָאֵל אֵין־כָּמְוֹךָ אֱלֹהִים בַּשָׁמַיִם מִמַּׁעַל וְעַל־הָאָרֵץ מִתְּחַת

And he said, "LORD, God of Israel, there is no god like you in the heavens above and upon the earth beneath."

2 Chronicles 6:14⁵⁹

וַיֹּאמֵר יְהוֶה אֱלֹהֵי יִשְׂרָאֵל אֵין־כָּמְוֹדָ אֱלֹהִים בַּשָּׁמַיִם וּבָאָרֵץ

And he said, "LORD, God of Israel, there is no god like you in the heavens and the earth."

In the first example from 2 Samuel 18:9, the word pair is in compound and is governed by the same preposition, בֵּין. However, the individual words of the word pair clearly refer to only the cosmological containers of the heavens and the earth. The last two examples are from the parallel accounts of Solomon's prayer at the dedication ceremony of the temple. The phrase הַּשָּׁבֵין מְלֵּיִלְי מְלֶּיִלְי מְלֶּילֵי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְ מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלְי מִלְּיִלִי מִלְּיִלִים וּבְאָרֵיִי מִלְּיִלִים וּבְאָרִיִי מִלְּיִלִים וּבְאָרִיִי מִלְּיִלִים וּבְאָרִייִ מִּלְיִם וּבְאָרִיִים וּבְאָרִייִם וּבְאָרִיִים וּבְאָרִייִם וּבְאָרִייִם וּבְאָרִייִם וּבְאָרִייִם וּבְאָרִייִם וּבְאָרִייִם מוֹ 2 Chronicles 6:14. The only difference between the two is that the words of the phrase in 1 Kings 8:23 are governed by different prepositions and are not quite in compound. However, the word pair in 1 Kings 8:23 is governed by the same preposition, בְּ, and clearly refers to only the cosmological containers of the heavens and the earth, and not the contents. This suggests that the compounded word pair in the parallel account of 2 Chronicles 6:14 shares the same meaning with the longer phrase in 1 Kings 8:2, which again only refers to the containers. Thus, the compounded word pair

⁵⁸Cf. Deut 4:39; Josh 2:11.

⁵⁹Cf. Deut 3:24; 1 Chr 29:11; Ps 113:6.

Lexical Conclusion

Based upon the preceding analysis, summary-statement proponents cannot argue that it is impossible for the אֶּרֶץ of Genesis 1:1 to correspond to the אֶּרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 in meaning simply because the former occurs in compound with שַׁמַיִּם. Again, the close proximity of the two identical words strongly suggests that they do correspond to one another in meaning, just as they do in other similar verses. Brown aptly states,

The two products of creation have been commonly considered a merismus that constitutes the whole of creation, i.e., the cosmos, but no commentator I am aware of has ever offered such a rendering as a translation. The difficulty for such a rendering is that the first word of v 2, $h\bar{a}^2\bar{a}re\bar{s}$, clearly has some point of semantic continuity with the last word of v 1. Thus its occurrence in v 1 is not simply meant to function as one part of a merismus without independent meaning.⁶³

Again, in order for the summary-statement interpretation to be not only sustainable, but more probable than the traditional interpretation, the אֶּרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 must not be able to correspond to the אֵרֵץ of Genesis 1:1 in meaning. Nevertheless, the previous

⁶⁰See Dan 6:28 for an Aramaic example of this phenomenon.

⁶¹The examples from this discussion are also a continuation of the evidence against the strict application of the merism label.

⁶²Cf. again Ps 115:15-16.

⁶³William P. Brown, Structure, Role, and Ideology in the Hebrew and Greek Texts of Genesis 1:1–2:3, Dissertation Series/Society of Biblical Literature, no. 132 (Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1993), 102 n. 12. Later in the quote Brown does argue that the word pair refers to the totality of creation, but he is able to argue for a semantic continuity between the two verses because he favors the dependent-clause translation of Gen 1:1. In this translation, it is possible for the two verses to share a semantic relationship even when the word pair refers to the totality of creation.

discussion demonstrates that they can, which consequently suggests that the two verses share a semantic continuity.

According to the traditional interpretation, Genesis 1:1 does not describe the creation of the "organized universe;" rather, it describes the creation of something less. Since the word pair אָרֶץ' במו also refer to only the containers of the אָרֶץ' and אָרֶץ', the creation of such in Genesis 1:1 perfectly fits the traditional interpretation as well as the context of the passage and the larger narrative. The corresponding אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:2, whose syntactical construction is typically descriptive, specifies the state of the אָרֶץ in 1:1 as only a container. Furthermore, the following creation narrative describes the shaping and filling of both the אָרֶץ and the אָרֶץ', the all-encompassing cosmological containers. Again, the traditional interpretation is the plainest and simplest reading of the text, and it works with the proximal correspondence of the two occurrences of γ , not against it. However, summary-statement proponents have another means by which they argue against this correspondence of the two identical words.

The Lexical Level - תהו וֶבֹהוּ

As previously stated, one of the strongest arguments in favor of the traditional interpretation is the proximal correspondence between the אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:1 and the אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:2. The previous discussion demonstrates that the two identical words can correspond to one another in meaning even when the former is in compound with the

⁶⁴In the larger narrative of Genesis 1, the בְּקִיק created in Gen 1:6-8, which is given the name בְּשָׁמִים, and the יַבְּשָׁה, and the interpretation. Without the traditional interpretation there is no account of the origins of the larger cosmological containers of the שְׁמֵיִם and שְׁמֵיִם, which seems odd in the origins-oriented narrative. N.b. also the interpretation of Samuel David Luzzatto, the nineteenth-century Jewish scholar, who states, "The 'heaven' and 'earth' mentioned here [in Gen 1:1] are not exactly the same heaven and earth that are later specified on the second and third days. The 'heaven' mentioned here includes everything above the earth, while the heaven mentioned on the second day includes only that part of it known to man. The 'earth' mentioned here includes the land with the water, and the air above it, while the earth mentioned on the third day includes only the dry land." S. D. Luzzatto, The Book of Genesis: A Commentary by ShaDaL (S. D. Luzzatto), trans. Daniel A. Klein (Northvale, NJ: Jason Aronson Inc., 1998), 3.

word שַׁמֵּיִם. Again, this proximal correspondence between the two identical words also suggests that there is semantic correspondence between the two verses. This is the plainest and simplest reading of the text. However, many proponents of the summary-statement interpretation still separate any kind of semantic continuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 by also arguing that the אֶרֶץ of 1:1 cannot correspond to the אֶרֶץ of 1:2 in state.

Summary-statement proponents use the phrase אֶּרֶץ to argue that the אֶּרֶץ in Genesis 1:2 is actually in a chaotic state. Since the אֶּרֶץ of 1:2 is in a chaotic state, it cannot correspond to the created אֶרֶץ of 1:1 because chaos is contrary to creation.

Gunkel, a proponent of the summary-statement interpretation, argues, "The notion of a creation of Chaos is intrinsically contradictory and odd, for Chaos is the world before the Creation." Childs, another proponent, also states,

[S]ince the beginning of the Christian era careful exegetes have been perplexed regarding the manner in which verse 1 should be related to verse 2. Is the chaos conceived of as being before or after the creation? Does the chaos exist independently of God's creative activity? It is rather generally acknowledged that the suggestion of God's first creating a chaos is a logical contradiction and must be rejected. 66

Finally, Waltke states,

It is concluded, therefore, that though it is possible to take verse 2 as a circumstantial clause [to verse 1] on syntactical grounds, it is impossible to do so on philological grounds, and that it seems unlikely it should be so construed on theological grounds, for it makes God the Creator of disorder, darkness, and deep, a situation not tolerated in the perfect cosmos and never said to have been called into existence by the Word of God.⁶⁷

⁶⁵Hermann Gunkel, *Genesis*, trans. Mark E. Biddle, Mercer Library of Biblical Studies (Macon, GA: Mercer University Press, 1997), 103.

⁶⁶Brevard S. Childs, *Myth and Reality in the Old Testament*, Studies in Biblical Theology (Chatham, England: W. & J. MacKay & Co Ltd, 1960; Naperville, IL: Alec R. Allenson, Inc., 1960), 30.

⁶⁷Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 221. Although, Waltke does not directly call the phrase חֹהוֹ chaos in this article, he certainly describes it in the same manner as the modern understanding of chaos, namely as "disorder," and he refers to it as chaos in other publications. See *IBHS*, § 30.3a; Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 181 n. 16.

If it is impossible for the $\mbox{\%}$ of Genesis 1:1 to correspond to the $\mbox{\%}$ of 1:2 in state, then it is more likely that there is a semantic discontinuity between the two verses even if the two identical words can correspond to one another in meaning. What, however, is the rationale for arguing that the $\mbox{\%}$ in Genesis 1:2 is in a chaotic state? Answering this question will also help to determine the lexical validity of both interpretations, and again, the theological implications require this continued investigation.

Framing the Discussion and Giving it Context

Defining the term "chaos." Before examining the evidence of whether the γης is in a chaotic state in Genesis 1:2, the term "chaos" must first be defined. Most modern speakers understand the word "chaos" to mean some kind of disorder or confusion. The term "chaos," however, and the concepts associated with it are mostly Greek, and they can be quite different from the typical, modern understanding of the word. According to the LSJ, the Greek definition of the word χάος refers to the original state of the universe; space or the expanse of air; the nether abyss or infinite darkness; or any vast gulf or chasm. Some of these Greek definitions do overlap with other modern definitions of the word, but the actual modern understanding of it as a kind of disorder or confusion actually comes from its use by the later Roman poet Ovid. Thus, the meaning of the term "chaos" can vary from one person to the next, especially when cultural contexts are considered. Watson aptly states,

The difficulty [with using the term "chaos" to describe a Hebrew concept] is compounded by the fact that both Greek and modern European definitions (which, of course are anyway derivative upon the Greek) are very wide-ranging and

⁶⁸LSJ, s.v. "χάος."

⁶⁹Encyclopedia Britannica states, "The modern meaning of the word is derived from Ovid, who saw Chaos as the original disordered and formless mass, from which the maker of the Cosmos produced the ordered universe. This concept of Chaos also was applied to the interpretation of the creation story in Genesis 1 (to which it is not native) by the early church fathers." Encyclopedia Britannica, 15th ed., s.v. "Chaos."

inconsistent.70

With such a varying definition for the term "chaos," the main question then is how do proponents of the summary-statement interpretation define it?

The quotes from the introduction of this section suggest that summarystatement proponents seem to use at least two definitions of the term. Chaos can mean the early state of the world before creation, or it can mean disorder and confusion. The following excerpts, however, suggest that defining the term according to its usage by summary-statement proponents is much more complex. They state,

We can understand then why the state which is opposed to and precedes creation is called תהן.

[Gen 1:2] serves to picture through its chaos, the 'negative' side of the creation. The creation is not contrasted with a condition of nothingness, but rather with a chaos. This reality is not a creation of God, nor is it a dualistic principle of evil independent of God. Nevertheless, the OT writer struggles to contrast the creation, not with a background of empty neutrality, but with an active chaos standing in opposition to the will of God. It is a reality which continues to exist and continues to threaten his creation. The chaos is a reality rejected by God. It forms no part of the creation, but exists nevertheless as a threatening possibility.⁷²

The writer speaks out of the ordered universe of his experience in which with unerring regularity day follows night, season follows season, plants sprout and animals breed at their proper times, and water and land have their proper place. Verse 2 describes the opposite of this. It is chaos as opposed to "cosmos" (the Greek word for order). There is confusion, darkness, wetness, and wind.⁷³

The term $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ is common in the vocabulary of creation. Its function is to indicate

⁷⁰Rebecca S. Watson, *Chaos Uncreated: A Reassessment of the Theme of "Chaos" in the Hebrew Bible*, Beihefte zur Zeitschrift für die alttestamentlich Wissenschaft, Band 341 (Berlin: Walter De Gruyter, 2005), 13.

⁷¹Claus Westermann, *Genesis 1–11: A Commentary*, trans. John J. Scullion (Minneapolis: Augsburg Publishing House, 1990), 103.

⁷²Childs, Myth and Reality, 42.

⁷³John J. Scullion, *Genesis*, Old Testament Studies, vol. 6 (Collegeville, MN: The Liturgical Press, 1992), 16–17.

chaos in contrast to the order of creation.⁷⁴

formless and empty $[t\bar{o}h\hat{u} \ w\bar{a}\underline{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u}]$. This phrase is an *antonym* [(emphasis mine)] to the "heavens and the earth," signifying something uncreated or disordered (Jer 4:23-27). . . . Chronologically, this must describe the state of the earth prior to verse 1, as it would be a contradiction to represent the creation as formed cosmos and the earth as unformed.⁷⁵

The summary statement [in Genesis 1:1] entails that the chaos of verse 2 does not exist independently from God, but the text does not explain the connection between God and chaos. Rather, verse 2 supplies the context in order to interpret the significance of the creation—namely, Israel's covenant-keeping God overcomes the chaos to bring about his good pleasure. The chaos "is a reality rejected by God." . . . The inchoate dark abyss is not good because it resists life. It is a surd [evil] (i.e., irrational, such as wind or floods that destroy crops), not a theological good (such as a windmill that pumps water to nurture crops). The origin of the surd [evil] (i.e., God does not call the earth good until it is restrained by light and by land that foster human life) is as mysterious as the diabolical lying and murdering Serpent who incarnates moral evil in Genesis 3:1-5.... To answer the whence and why of both surd and social evils, appeal has been made to highly figurative texts such as Ezekiel 28 and Revelation 13, but these highly figurative texts do not provide a firm foundation for dogma. On the other hand, neither surd nor moral evil are presented as eternal, unlike God. Since the darkness and abyss [of Gen 1:2] will be eliminated in the new heaven and earth (Rev. 21-22), they are not eternal; their beginnings are cloaked in mystery. The absence of data is not an argument for eternal dualism. "Formless and empty" $(t\bar{o}h\hat{u} w\bar{a}b\bar{o}h\hat{u})$ indicate this negative, "not good," state of the earth. Accordingly, the creation narrative is a story of redemption, of triumph of light over darkness, of land and sky over water, both of which are essential for life.⁷⁶

Based upon these and the preceding quotations, there is no explicit, uniform definition of the term "chaos" from summary-statement proponents. However, a common thread does seem to weave through their arguments and explanations. The term "chaos," at the least, is the opposite of creation, the opposite of order. In other words, whatever is created is in the state of A, and whatever is chaotic is in the state of non-A. Chaos is a state that cannot be created because if it were, it would be both A and non-A at the same time and

⁷⁴A. H. Konkel, "בּה" in *New International Dictionary of Old Testament Theology and Exegesis*, ed. Willem A. VanGemeren. 5 vols. (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1997), 1:607.

⁷⁵Waltke, Genesis, 59–60.

⁷⁶Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 180–81.

in the same respect, a logical contradiction.⁷⁷ Thus, aside from the inappropriate and anachronistic application of the concept of chaos⁷⁸ to the Hebrew text of Genesis 1:2, the next question to be asked is what element(s) in Genesis 1:2 cause(s) scholars to argue that this definition of chaos is a proper description of the state of the אָרֶץ in Genesis 1:2?

Determining what makes the אֶּרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 a chaos. At the lexical level, many scholars of the summary-statement interpretation argue that it is the word pair that depicts the אֶּרֶץ as being in a state of chaos. Consider the following explanations:

The sound as well as the meaning of the pair of words [תֹהוֹ נְבֹהוֹ] is awe-inspiring; the earth according to its substratum was a desolate and dead mass, in a word chaos $(\chi \acute{\alpha} \circ \varsigma)$.

"Heb. $t\bar{o}h\bar{u}$ $w\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{o}h\bar{u}$ —an alliterative description of *chaos*, in which nothing can be distinguished or defined. $T\bar{o}h\bar{u}$ is a word which is difficult to express consistently in English: but it denotes mostly something *unsubstantial*, or (fig.) $unreal \dots$ "80

"Tohuwabohu" means the formless; the primeval waters over which darkness was superimposed characterizes the chaos materially as a watery primeval element, but at the same time gives a dimensional association: $t^eh\bar{o}m$ ("sea of chaos") is the cosmic abyss. 81

⁷⁷Waltke states, "To take Genesis 1:2, therefore, as a circumstantial clause presents the contradiction: He created... and the earth was uncreated." Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 220.

אָרָץ in Gen 1:2, scholars take a Greek word, with a modern meaning, which was first employed by a Roman poet, and apply it to an ancient Hebrew concept. Watson states, "The term 'chaos' derives from Greek cosmology, in which context it pertains to a world-view quite distinct from the Hebrew. From here, it entered the current of Western philosophy and literature from which Gunkel drew. However, the Old Testament itself lacks any overarching designation for the entities (dragons, the sea) classified by Gunkel as 'chaotic', or any corresponding philosophical conception, so it thus seems to represent a superimposition from one matrix to another." Rebecca S. Watson, *Chaos Uncreated*, 13. Many ancient Christian commentators, and even some modern commentators, likewise misapply the Greek concept of formless matter to the description of the page in Gen 1:2.

⁷⁹Delitzsch, *A New Commentary on Genesis*, vol. 1, trans. Sophia Taylor (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1888), 78.

⁸⁰S. R. Driver, *The Book of Genesis*, 2nd ed., Westminster Commentaries (London: Methuen & Co., 1904), 3–4.

⁸¹Gerhard von Rad, Genesis: A Commentary, 2nd ed., rev., trans. John H. Marks, The Old

'And the earth was waste and void' (wěhā'āreṣ hāyĕthāh thōhû wābhōhû). The verb 'was' is somewhat surprising since in a nominal clause it is superfluous. What we actually have is a nominal clause of circumstantial force used to specify a condition in its proper sphere of time: 'the earth having been chaos'.⁸²

It is therefore still legitimate to assume that the word pair $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ $w\bar{a}\underline{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ is ground semantically in the characteristic of menacing reality that can be represented by the term "chaos," albeit with reservations.⁸³

"Formless and empty" $(t\bar{o}h\hat{u}\ w\bar{a}\underline{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u})$ indicate this negative, "not good," state of the earth. ⁸⁴

Thus, based upon these explanations from summary-statement proponents, the word pair is clearly the main reason for arguing that Genesis 1:2 describes the אֶּרֶץ in a state of chaos.

Some proponents of the summary-statement interpretation do appeal to the other lexical elements in Genesis 1:2 to support the idea that the verse describes the אָּגֶרְץ in a state of chaos. For instance, Gunkel argues that the word הַּהוֹם in the second clause of Genesis 1:2 is etymologically related to the Babylonian *Tiâmat*, 85 the primordial sea

Testament Library (London: SCM Press Ltd, 1963), 47.

⁸² Childs, Myth and Reality, 32.

 $^{^{83}}$ Manfred Görg, "הה" ($t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$)," in *Theological Dictionary of the Old Testament*, rev. ed., ed. G. Johannes Botterweck and Helmer Ringgren, trans. John T. Willis. 15 vols. (Grand Rapids: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 2006), 15:571.

⁸⁴Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 181. Waltke clearly sees this phrase as a reference to chaos since in his own footnote to this excerpt he writes, "To capture both the negative denotation and connotation of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, 'chaos' is more apt than 'emptiness." Ibid., 181 n. 16. N.b. also in his grammar the translation of Gen 1:2a as "Now the earth *was* chaotic." *IBHS*, § 30.3a.

 $^{^{85}}$ Tsumura counters Gunkel's claim stating, "The earlier scholars who followed Gunkel usually held that the author of Genesis had borrowed the Babylonian proper name Tiamat and demythologized it. However, if the Hebrew $t\check{e}h\hat{o}m$ were an Akkadian loanword, there should be a closer phonetic similarity to $ti^2\bar{a}mat$. The expected Hébrew form would be something like *ti^3\times amat > ti\ti^3\times amat > ti\ti^3\time

Moreover, because the second consonant of Tiamat is /²/, a glottal stop, which often disappears in the intervocalic position, so that the resultant vowel cluster experiences so-called vowel *sandhi* in Akkadian as ti²āmtum > tiāmtum > tâmtum, it is very unlikely that a West Semitic speaker would represent the second consonant as a fricative [h]. In fact, there is no example of West Semitic borrowing Akkadian /²/ as /h/, except Akkadian *ilku* "duty" as *hlk*² (Aram.) with the word initial /h/. It is almost impossible to conclude that Akkadian *Tiamat* was borrowed by Hebrew as *těhôm* with the intervocalic /h/,

goddess of Enûma Elish who clashes with the god Marduk in a pre-creation theomachy. 86 Thus, Genesis 1:2 is a remnant description of the chaoskampf motif of Enûma Elish. 87 Westermann, another proponent of the summary-statement interpretation, argues that the word שִׁה in the second clause of Gen 1:2 refers to a much more sinister darkness that is more reflective of a pre-creation chaos. 88 He also argues that the phrase ווֹח וֹרְנַהְ אֲלֹהִים in the third clause of Gen 1:2 is best translated as "mighty wind" because it is also syntactically a part of the description of the chaos. 89 Although these elements in Genesis 1:2 might support the argument that the verse describes the אָרֶיץ in a state of chaos, it is the original attribution of this concept to the meaning of the phrase הוֹלְיִלְהְ in that drives this interpretation of the verse. Without identifying the word pair הוֹלְילִה as chaos, there is no need to interpret the words שִׁרְילָה חִלְּה חִים חִלְּה חִים חִלְּה חִיבְּי חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִילְיִי חִלְיִי חִלְּה חִלְּה חִלְּה חִבְּי חִילְיִי חִילְיִי חִילְי ח

for the latter also tends to disappear in Hebrew (e.g., /h/ in the definite article /ha-/in the intervocalic position)." David Toshio Tsumura, *Creation and Destruction: A Reappraisal of the Choaskampf Theory in the Old Testament* (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2005), 36–37. See also his continued discussion on the etymology and use of the root *thm. In this discussion he further argues that there is no etymological relationship between Genesis 1:2 and the *chaoskampf* motif. Ibid., 42-57.

⁸⁶For a more detailed explanation of the theomachy theme see John Walton, "Creation in Genesis 1:1–2:3 and the Ancient Near East: Order Out of Disorder After *Chaoskampf*," *Calvin Theological Journal* 43 (2008): 48–63.

⁸⁷Gunkel, Genesis, 105.

⁸⁸Westermann, Genesis 1–11, 104. See also Childs, Myth and Reality, 33.

⁸⁹Westermann, Genesis 1–11, 108. See also Childs, Myth and Reality, 32–35.

 $^{^{90}}$ Some scholars and translations render the word אור as "wind" rather than "S/spirit." For instance Waltke states, "The Hebrew phrase $\hat{ruah} \approx l\bar{b}h\hat{u}m$ grammatically can mean 'spirit of God,' 'wind from God,' or 'mighty wind,' but contextually it probably means 'wind from God' (see NRSV)." Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 182. Therefore, it is important to note that the word אור as "wind" is also an element of the natural phenomena of creation and order.

word pair is extremely sparse.⁹¹

The paucity of lexical data. There is little if any consensus on the etymology of the compound phrase אָרוֹר וְבָּהוֹר . On the one hand, Tsumura proposes that the compound phrase is etymologically related to a possible Ugaritic phrase tu-a-bi-[u(?)]. The proposed Ugaritic phrase is parallel to the Akkadian term nabalkutu, which he argues describes certain words like ersetu, earth, and $r\bar{e}mu$, womb, and may mean "to be unproductive," not "to turn over" or "upset" as he declares that some have suggested. However, on the other hand, Görg argues that Tsumura's proposal is based upon a problematic reading of tu-a-bi-[u(?)] which itself may not even "represent an actual Ugaritic word (or syntagm)." He instead proposes that the words אוֹר and אוֹר may be etymologically related to the Egyptian lexemes th3 and th3,94 which mean "to deviate" (th4) in Genesis 1:2 is etymologically related to these Egyptian lexemes then its most likely meaning is that of "unstable and unformed" (th4) th6 th6), which would make the compound phrase more descriptive of a chaotic state than an unproductive

⁹¹N.b. that at the comparative-literature level many scholars argue that Gen 1:2 contains remnants of the ancient Near Eastern *chaoskampf* motif. In this motif a creator god battles a watery chaos monster. After the monster's defeat, the creator god creates the world out of the monster's watery body. Thus, some summary-statement proponents argue that Gen 1:2 is a demythologized version of the *chaoskampf* motif, making Gen 1:2 a description of chaos. An analysis at the comparative-literature level is beyond the scope of this dissertation, but other scholars, such as Tsumura, Watson, and Walton convincingly argue that the *chaoskampf* motif has nothing to do with creation nor a creator god. Also, according to these scholars, the merging of the *chaoskampf* motif with creation in *Enûma Elish*, the first ancient Near Eastern document to be compared with the creation account of Genesis, is a late conflation of two different traditions. See these works: Tsumura, *Creation and Destruction*; Rebecca S. Watson, *Chaos Uncreated*; John Walton, "Creation in Genesis".

⁹²Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 15–22.

⁹³Görg, "הווי (tōhû)," 15:567.

⁹⁴Ibid., 15:567–68, 571.

⁹⁵Görg's German phrases and some of his explanations are taken from Brown's analysis of his argument. See Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology*, 74.

state. Tsumura, however, rejects Görg's proposal arguing that there is no evidence that the Egyptian lexemes even have a nominalized form, nor do they occur as a hendiadys in Egyptian. Furthermore, Brown wonders how Görg can "make the semantic jump from verbal bases that imply aimless *motion*" to a meaning that is related to condition,—the condition of Genesis 1:2—not direction or motion. Brown instead proposes abandoning the etymological route and argues that the word is a farrago describing the אָרֶץ in its early state as a "hodgepodge." Based upon, these varying arguments and the lack of data, the etymological derivation of the compound phrase may never be known.

Even with respect to the individual words אה and אם the etymology of either is still questionable. Görg states,

Attempts to find an etymology for $b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ among other Near Eastern languages have so far proved unsuccessful. Neither the name of the Sumerian deity Bau nor the figure of Baau mentioned by Philo of Byblos is semantically or etymologically relevant. 100

Furthermore, listing the many arguments for the etymological derivations of both and and Konkel likewise states.

The nom. thw[, a possible derivation of Tif[],] may be found in the Ugar. Baal cycle in the encounter with Mot the god of death (KTU, 1.5 i 15). In describing the insatiable appetite of Mot the text uses the metaphor of lb Tim thw (CTA, 5 1.15); Gibson interprets this as the "appetite of lions (in) the waste" (CML, 68). Translating thw as "in the desert" may be compared to Job 6:18, where the streams go up $batt\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, in the desert, or to Deut 32:10, where Yahweh finds Israel in the wilderness and $b^et\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, in the desert, though the Ugar. lacks the preposition. Like Mot, the Heb. compares Sheol to a devouring lion (Isa 5:14; Hab 2:5), and similarly uses the metaphor of the insatiable appetite of the lion for flesh (Deut 33:20; Hos 13:8). DeMoor translates the metaphor as the lion "craving live prey," a paraphrase that takes thw as related to the Arab. thw th

⁹⁶Görg, "ਜਜ (*tōhû*)," 15:571.

⁹⁷Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 14–15.

⁹⁸ Brown, Structure, Role, and Ideology, 74.

⁹⁹Ibid., 60, 74–75.

¹⁰⁰Görg, "הוֹה (tōhû)," 15:571.

meaning greed or desire (536-537). Gordon does not provide a translation (UT, 19.2536). . . . The nom. $b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ may also be compared to the Phoen. goddess Baau or to the Babylonian mother goddess bau (HALAT 107). The derivation of both $b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ and $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ is unknown [(emphasis mine)]. 101

Many etymological suggestions for the individual words and the compound phrase have been offered, examined, accepted, and rejected, and there is still no consensus.¹⁰²

The paucity of the etymological data has even caused some scholars to suggest other avenues for determining the word pair's meaning. Commenting on the word $\overline{\text{MF}}$, Youngblood states, "Since the word has no certain cognates in other languages, its meaning must be determined solely from its OT contexts." Brown also states, "One need not, however, take the etymological route, on which countless suggestions have been made. There are enough occurrences of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ in the Hebrew literature to connote "devastation" of some sort." Finally, Matthews states,

The etymology of the word $[b\bar{o}h\hat{u}]$ remains a mystery, and we are left with the meaning of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ to clarify the sense of the couplet.

Although the etymology is also unclear for $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, it occurs sufficiently in the Old Testament (twenty times) to indicate its meaning.¹⁰⁵

Thus, the actual consensus seems to be that the etymological evidence is too limited for determining the meaning of both the word pair as a whole and its individual words. At best the etymological evidence can only support what the context of the Hebrew Old Testament suggests.

¹⁰¹Konkel, "בהו", 1:606.

 $^{^{102}}$ For some of the more robust etymological discussions, n.b. the following works, which are by no means in agreement with one another: Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology*, 73–75; Tsumura, *Creation and Destruction*, 9–22; Görg, "וֹהֹה ($t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$)," 15:565–68.

¹⁰³Ronald F. Youngblood, "ITIFI (tōhû) confusion," in Theological Wordbook of the Old Testament, ed. R. Laird Harris, Gleason L. Archer, and Bruce K. Waltke. 2 vols. (Chicago: Moody Press, 1980), 2:964.

¹⁰⁴Brown, Structure, Role, and Ideology, 74.

¹⁰⁵Kenneth A. Matthews, *Genesis 1–11:26*, The New American Commentary, vol. 1A (Nashville: Broadman and Holman Publishers, 1996), 131.

However, even though scholars seem to have abandoned the etymological route because of the paucity of the data, the data from the Hebrew Old Testament is also quite sparse. By itself, the word pair אַרוּרוֹב occurs only three times in the entirety of the literature (Gen 1:2; Isa 34:11; Jer 4:23) with only Genesis 1:2 being descriptive of the creation event. To further complicate the issue, the second word of the word pair, אַרוֹר only occurs in these three instances. It does not occur anywhere else in the Hebrew Old Testament. Considering the rarity of אַרוֹר he actual means for determining the meaning of the word pair אַרוֹרוֹב seems to lie solely with the word אַרוֹרוֹב.

The word אֹהָה has challenges of its own as well. Aside from its three occurrences with אָבֹּה, the word אָבֹּה is only used 17 other times in the Hebrew Old Testament. However, its meaning within a given context is not so easy to ascertain. HALOT states, "The rendering of the Heb. sbst. [אַרָּהוֹן is not easy for it vacillates in meaning and the meanings are not able clearly to be segregated from one another." Even BDB makes the parenthetical note of "primary meaning difficult to seize." Furthermore, the word is only used in three instances as a descriptor of the creation event (Gen 1:2; Job 26:7?; Isa 45:18). Thus, even the data from the Hebrew Old Testament is extremely limited for determining the meaning of the word pair בּוֹהוֹל הַוֹּה wabōhû has not found a universally satisfactory explanation." Nevertheless, summary-statement proponents are somehow able to extract from the exiguous data the complicated and technical

¹⁰⁶Deut 32:10; 1 Sam 12:21 (2x); Job 6:18; 12:24; 26:7; Ps 107:70; Isa 24:10; 29:21; 40:17, 23; 41:29; 44:9; 45:18, 19; 49:4; 59:4.

¹⁰⁷HALOT, s.v. "חהר.".

¹⁰⁸BDB, s.v. "חהר."

¹⁰⁹In both Gen 1:2 and Isa 45:18, חהר is used to describe the word ארץ.

¹¹⁰Görg, "הרו" (*tōhû*)," 570.

definition of a chaos contrary to creation? The paucity of the data and the following analysis, however, suggest that the word pair requires a much simpler definition.

A Contextual and Thematic Analysis of the Word Pair

Proponents of both interpretations, the summary-statement and the traditional, frequently use the contexts of certain passage like Isaiah 34:11, Jeremiah 4:23, and Isaiah 45:18 to argue for a specific definition of the word pair אַהּוֹלְּהְוֹם and the word אַבּהּוֹלְהְּהַוֹּם and the word pair and the singular word is not limited to the context alone. The word pair used in Isaiah 34:11 and Jeremiah 4:23 also occurs within two judgment-themed oracles, as does the singular in Isaiah 24:10. These judgment-themed oracles against specific lands or city-states are common in the prophetic literature and are excellent sources of data for determining the meaning communicated by the word pair בּהּוֹלְתְּהַהֹּוֹ and the individual בּהּוֹלְתְּהַהֹּוֹ Thus, the following analysis will consider both the context and the theme of these passages.

A contextual analysis of Isaiah 34:11. Even though the word pair בַּהוּ/תֹהוּ occurs only three times, all of its occurrences describe the state of the word אֶבֶץ. Contextually, the word pair in Isaiah 34:11 is used to describe God's future judgment upon the land, or אֶבֶץ, of Edom. The verse states,

וִירִשׁוּהָ קָאַת וְקִפּׁוֹד וְיִנְשְׁוֹף וְעֹרֵב יִשְׁכְּנוּ־בָּה וְנָטֶה עָלֶיֶהָ קַוּדֹתְהוּ וְאַבְנִי־בְׂהוּ:

And the pelican and the porcupine shall possess it and the owl and the raven will dwell in it and he will stretch over it the line of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ and the stones of $b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$.

By itself, the verse only states that the pelican, porcupine, owl, and raven will inhabit the land, and the line of $\vec{h}\vec{h}$, $t\vec{o}h\hat{u}$, and the stones of $\vec{h}\vec{h}$, will be stretched over it. The verse alone offers no help in determining the meaning of the word pair.

¹¹¹ For other, more comprehensive analyses of the word pair בהול see also Roberto Ouro, "The Earth of Genesis 1:2: Abiotic or Chaotic? Part I," *Andrews University Seminary Studies* 35, no. 2 (Autumn 1998): 264–76; Tsumura, *Creation and Destruction*, 9–35.

The imagery in Isaiah 34:11, however, contributes to a larger picture (34:10b-15) describing a land devoid of human habitation and oversight. It is the desolation of the land of Edom as a result of God's judgment. The larger passage communicates this desolation in three ways. First, the usual inhabitants, such as humans and domesticated livestock, are absent from the land (34:10b, 12) Second, the land is reinhabited by undomesticated or wild animals (34:11a, 13b-15). Third, the land is overgrown with wild vegetation (34:13a). These three pictures describe a land that has been desolated by God's judgment and the word pair TAP/TAE contributes to this picture.

A thematic analysis of Isaiah 34:10b-15. The desolation described in Isaiah 34:11 is actually a common motif in other judgment-themed oracles. Such oracles also describe this desolation as a reinhabiting of a deserted land or city by wild animals. Consider the following verses:

Isaiah 13:20-22a¹¹⁵

²⁰ לְא־תֵשֵׁב לָנֶצַח וְלָא תִשְׁכָּן עַד־דַּוֹר וְדְוֹר וְלְא־יַהֵל שָׁם עֲרָבִּי וְרֹעֵים לֹא־יַרְבְּצוּ שֶׁם: ²¹ וְרָבְצוּ־שָׁם צִיִּים וּמָלְאִוּ בָתַּיהֶם אֹתִים וְשָׁכְנוּ שָׁם בְּנֵוֹת יַעֲבָּה וּשְׂעִירִים יְרַקְדוּ־שֶׁם: ²² וְעָנָהְ אִיִּים בְּאַלְמנוֹתָיו וְתַנָּים בְּהֵיכְלֵי עָנֶג

²² Hyenas will howl in its citadels and jackals in the exquisite temples.

²⁰ It, [Babylon,] will not be inhabited forever nor will it be settled from generation to generation. The Arab will not pitch his tent there, nor will shepherds lay down *flocks* there.

flocks there.

21 But the wild beasts will lie down there, and the owls will fill their houses, and the offspring of the ostrich will dwell there, and goats will leap there.

לווים describes chaos in Gen 1:2, states, "In a similar vein Isa 34:11 uses the image of beasts in the wilderness to describe baleful desolation; the phrase 'line of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ ' describes the desolate existence that Yahweh will impose on the land of Edom (cf. also v. 17)." Görg, "וּהָה ($t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$)," 15:569. Konkel, who also sees Gen 1:2 as a description of chaos, states, "Isaiah juxtaposes the two[, אוֹם מוּם חַבּה in the judgment against Edom (Isa 34:11) to describe the total depopulation and destruction of the land, so it is a waste fit only for desert animals." Konkel, "בּהוּר 1:606.

¹¹³ Though it is not common, the picture of wild vegetation is used in Zeph 2:9 to describe the desolation of Moab and Ammon as מְמִשֶׁק חַרוּל, "a possession of weeds."

¹¹⁴The desolation motif is further explained in a later section.

¹¹⁵Cf. Isa 14:23.

Jeremiah 49:33¹¹⁶

וָהַיָּתָה חַצוֹר לָמִעוֹן תַּנֵּיִם שָׁמַמָה עַד־עוֹלָם לְאֹ־יָשֶׁב שָׁם אִישׁ וַלְאֹ־יַגוּר בַּה בַּן־אַדַם:

And Hazor will become a habitation of jackals, a desolation forever; no man will live there nor will a son of man sojourn in it.

Zephaniah 2:13b-14

^{13b} נְיָשֵׂם אֶת־נִינְוֵה לִשְׁמָלָּה צִיָּה כְּמִּדְבָּר: ¹⁴וְרָבְצוּ בְתוֹכָהְ עֲדָרִים כָּל־חַיְתוֹ־גֹּוֹי גַם־קאַת גַם־קפֹּד בְּכַפְתֹּרֶיהָ יָלִינוּ קוֹל יְשׁוֹרֶר בַּחַלוֹן חָרֶב בַּפַּף כִּי אַרְזָה עֵרָה:

^{13b}And he will make Nineveh a desolation, a dryness like the wilderness. ¹⁴And all flocks of all the livestock of the nations; even the pelican and the porcupine will sleep in the tops of her pillars; a voice singing in her windows; desolation in the threshold, for he has laid bare the cedar work.

In these passages the language clearly communicates the idea that the land or city has been cleared of all its typical inhabitants and has been reinhabited with wild animals. Thus, the word pair בהולתה in Isaiah 34:11 contributes to the description of a desolation that is similarly described in the desolation motifs of Isaiah 13:20-21; Jeremiah 49:33; and Zephaniah 2:13b-14. None of these passages, however, describe the desolation as a chaos contrary to creation.

Is Isaiah 34:11 chaos contrary to creation? How then do scholars argue that the word pair בהוֹ/תֹה in Isaiah 34:11 describes a chaos contrary to creation? Görg argues,

In Isa. 34:11 the parallelism " $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ line" and " $b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ stones" symbolizes the desolation of Edom ordained by Yahweh. This metaphor can already indicate that the two nouns belong to a sphere that stands in opposition to the ordered world. Weights and measures have their meaning within the framework of ordered everyday life. For example, in Egypt they are the subject of regulations reflecting an "administrative professional ethics." A land becomes all the more chaotic when infected with unpredictable caprice. ¹¹⁷

Similarly, Waltke argues,

¹¹⁶Cf. Jer 51:27.

¹¹⁷Görg, "וּהֹה (*tōhû*)," 15:570.

In the immediate context of 34:11, Isaiah sees the destruction of Edom. As part of his evocative imagery, he implicitly likens Edom's destruction to the dismantling of a house to its precreated state. He predicts God's destruction on Edom: "And He shall stretch over it the line of desolation (אָה, "formlessness") and the stones of emptiness (אַה)." The line and stones (plummets) of the builder are employed here not for erecting a building but for dismantling it. Once again God's judgment results in the return of the object of His wrath to its original state. 118

Both of these scholars refer to the imagery reflected in the two substantives "line," זְּבָּ, and "stone," אָבֶן, as a basis for their interpretations of the passage.

Neither of these scholars' arguments, however, adequately explain how the word pair בהו/תהו describes a chaos contrary to creation. With respect to Görg's interpretation, it is difficult to determine how he can argue that use of the word pair and the two substantives, אבן and אבן, belong to a sphere that stands in opposition to the created world. This interpretation is not suggested by the context of the passage nor by the desolation motif of judgment-themed oracles. This explanation seems to be more of a statement than an actual argument. If it is an argument, it is a non sequitur. With respect to Waltke's argument, he does not even argue that the word pair בהו/חהו describes a chaos contrary to creation in Isaiah 34:11;¹¹⁹ rather, he argues that the two substantives קו and אָבֶן describe a dismantling of the land. However, the context of the verse and the theme of the oracle are more descriptive of an emptying of the land than a dismantling. Nevertheless, even if the passage uses the word pair בהוֹלתהו to describe the dismantling of the land back to a state similar to that of the אָרֵץ in Genesis 1:2, there is no evidence suggesting such a state describes a chaos contrary to creation. Furthermore, there is no evidence suggesting that such a state is "precreative." One could just as easily argue that Isaiah 34:11 describes the dismantling of the land of Edom back to an "initial-creative"

¹¹⁸Bruce K. Waltke, "The Creation Account in Genesis 1:1–3, Part II: The Restitution Theory," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 132, no. 526 (April 1975): 142. Waltke also refers to Edom in 1sa 34:11 as a "chaotic desolation." See Waltke, *Old Testament Theology*, 181 n. 16.

¹¹⁹ In the previously cited excerpt, Waltke's argument is against the views of the gap theory; nevertheless, he refers back to this argument in order to support his conclusion that in Isaiah 34:11, "חֹהוֹי denotes the antithesis of creation." See Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 220.

state. One's interpretation of Genesis 1:1-2 determines how one would perceive the alleged dismantled state of the land of Edom in Isaiah 34:11, but it doesn't prove what the definition of the word pair בהו/קה actually is.

Summary-statement proponents do not offer any valid reasons for why or how the word pair אַרָּאָרָּה describes a chaos contrary to creation in Isaiah 34:11. Although the theme of judgment in this oracle creates a negative picture of the consequences of God's judgment on the land of Edom, Isaiah 34:11 itself clearly parallels other passages using the desolation motif to describe a land desolate of its typical inhabitants. Tsumura aptly states, "Isa 34:11 simply means that 'the land will become a desolation and waste so that it can no more receive inhabitants.' From the context of the Isaiah passage it is rather difficult to see any direct connection with the Genesis creation story." If the word pair אַרָּאָרָא better describes the desolation of the land, אָרֶא, of Edom in Isaiah 34:11 than it describes a chaos contrary to creation, then it is logical to assume that the word pair describes the γ אָרֶא of Genesis 1:2 in the same manner.

A contextual analysis of Jeremiah 4:23. The word pair בהו/חה in Jeremiah 4:23 is also used to describe God's judgment upon the land, or אֶבֶץ, of Judah in another judgment-themed oracle. The verses states,

ָרָאִיתִי אֱת־הָאָָרִץ וָהְנֶּה־תְּהוּ וָבְּהוּ וְאֱל־הַשְּׁמֵיִם וְאֵין אוֹרֵם:

I saw the land, and behold, it was $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ and $b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, and I looked to the heavens and their light was not there.

By itself, the verse only describes the state of the אֶּרֶץ as אֶּרֶץ and the state of the מִּבְּיִם as without their light, אֵין אוֹרָם. The language of the oracle does bring to mind Genesis 1:2 in which the state of the אֵרֵץ is also a darkened תֹהוּ וָבֹהּוּ. וֹבֹהוּ

¹²⁰Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 32.

¹²¹ For a more detailed analysis of the literary parallels between Genesis 1 and Jeremiah 4, see Michael Fishbane, "Jeremiah IV 23–26 and Job III 3–13: A Recovered Use of the Creation Pattern," *Vetus Testamentum* 21 (April 1971): 151–53. For a counter to Fishbane's proposal see Tsumura, *Creation and*

Although the verse itself does not shed any light on the meaning of the word pair בהו/תהו, the context does. Both the אַרץ and the שַמִים are mentioned in 4:23; however, verses 4:24-26 focus more on the description of the אָרָא. Verse 4:24 describes an earthquake that shakes the mountains and the hills of the אָרץ, while verses 4:25-26 describe the אָרֵץ as devoid of human habitation. Both situations are a result of God's judgment upon the אֶרֵץ. Thus, verses 4:24-26 is a more detailed description of the in its state of ההו ובהו. The presence of the earthquake in 4:24 can certainly portray a picture of disorder or confusion, a chaos, but no other use of the word pair בהו/תהו word תהו parallels with any other descriptions of an earthquake. However, the judgment of an earthquake upon a land is used in other judgment themed oracles; 122 thus, it is most likely another motif of these types of oracles rather than a further description of the word pair בהר/ההר However, the contextual description of the land of Judah as devoid of normal habitation in verses 4:25-26 matches the contextual description of the land of Edom in Isaiah 34:10a-15, which again suggests that the word pair בהו/חהו in both passages helps to describe the אָרץ as a desolation or emptiness rather than as a chaos contrary to creation.

Tsumura argues that the context of Jeremiah 4:23-26 must also relate to 4:27-28 where God's speech concerning the land, אֶּבֶץ, and the heavens, שַׁמַיִּם, closely parallels what the prophet describes in 4:23-26. He states,

From a structural analysis of vv. 23-28 as a whole, it is noteworthy that the word pair "the earth" $(h\hat{a}^2\hat{a}res)$ and "the heavens" $(hass\hat{a}mayim)$ appears in this order both in the beginning (v. 23) and at the end (v. 28) of this section, thus functioning as an inclusio or a "frame" for the section. In other words, "(the earth is) $t\hat{o}h\hat{u}$ wab $\hat{o}h\hat{u}$ " "(the heavens) are without light" in v. 23 corresponding to "(the earth) will dry up" (*bl) // "(the heavens) will be dark" (*qdr) in v. 28. Here the phrase $t\hat{o}h\hat{u}$ wab $\hat{o}h\hat{u}$ corresponds to the verbal phrase "to dry up" and suggests the "aridness or unproductiveness" of the earth. This is in keeping with v. 27, which mentions that the "whole

Destruction, 28-30.

¹²²Isa 13:13; 24:1, 18-20; Jer 49:21; 50:46; 51:29; Ezek 27:28.

earth will become a desolation" (šěmâmâ tihyeh kol-hââres). 123

Thus, the continued, contextual description of the אֶרֶץ in 4:27-28 is that of a desolation, in 4:27-28 is that of a desolation, שְׁמָלֶה (4:27), devoid or empty of its typical inhabitants. This contextual description of the אָרֵץ in this judgment-themed oracle also fits perfectly with the desolation motif.

A thematic analysis of Jeremiah 4:23-28. The use of the desolation motif in Jeremiah in 4:23, 25-27 also parallels the use of the motif in other judgment-themed oracles. For instance, in the oracles against Judah in Isaiah 5, Babylon in Isaiah 13, and Egypt in Ezekiel 32, the motif is depicted in the following manner:

Isaiah 5:6, 9

וְאֲשִׁיתֵהוּ בָתָּה לָא יִזָּמֵר וְלָּא יֵעֲדֵׁר וְעָלֶה שָׁמִיר וְשָׁיִת וְעֵל הַעַבִים אֲצֵּוָּה מָהַמְטֵיר עַלֵיו מְטֵר:

I shall set it as a destruction, it will not be pruned and it will not be hoed, but thorns and thorn bushes will come up, and I will keep the clouds over it from raining a rain upon it.

בְּאָזָנֶי יְהוֶה צְבָאֵוֹת אָם־לֹא בָּתַּים רַבִּים לְשַׁמָּה יִהְיֹּוּ גִּדֹלֵים וָטוֹבֵים מֵאֵין יוֹשֵׁב:

In my ears the LORD of hosts *swears*, "Surely many houses will become desolate, great and good *houses* without inhabitant.

Isaiah 13:9, 20-22

הָנֵּהְ יוֹם־יְהוָה בָּא אַכְזָרֵי וְעֶבְרָה וַחֲרַוֹן אָף לָשִׂנִּם הָאָרֶץ לְשַׁפָּׂה וְחַטָּאֶיהָ יַשְׁמִיד מִמֶּנָּה:

Behold the day of the LORD comes as cruel, furious, and angry to make the land a desolation, and he will exterminate its sinners from it.

בּלְא־תַשַׁב לָנֶּצַח וְלָא תִשְׁכָּן עַד־דַּוֹר וָדְוֹר וְלְא־יַהֵל שָׁם עַרָבִּי וְרֹעֵים לֹא־יַרְבְּצוּ שֶׁם: 20 לְא־תַשַׁב לָנָּצַח וְלָא תִשְׁכָּן עַד־דַּוֹר וָדְוֹר וְלָא־יַהֵל שָׁם בְּנָוֹת יַעֲבָּה וּשְׂעִירֶים יְרַקְדוּ־שֶׁם: 21 וְרָבְצוּ שָׁם בְּנָוֹת יַעֲבָּה וּשְׂעִירֶים יְרַקְדוּ־שֶׁם: 22 וְעָנֶּה אִיִּים בְּאַלְמנוֹתִיו וְתַנִּים בְּהַיִּכְלֵי עָנֶג

²⁰It[, Babylon,] will not be inhabited forever nor will it be settled from generation to generation. The Arab will not pitch his tent there, nor will shepherd lie down *flocks*

¹²³Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 31.

there.

²¹But the wild beasts will lie down there, and the owls will fill their houses, and ostriches will dwell there, and goats will leap there.

²²Hyenas will howl in its citadels and jackals in the exquisite temples.

Ezekiel 32:15

בְּתִתִּי אֶת־אֶרֶץ מִצְרַיִם שְׁמָמָה וּנְשַׁמָּה אֶרֶץ מִמְּלֹאָה בְּהַכּוֹתֵי אֶת־כָּל־יָוֹשְׁבֵי בָה

When I make the land of Egypt a desolation and make the land desolate of its fullness when I smite all the inhabitants in it.

The parallel use of the desolation motif in these judgment-themed oracles, however, is not the only similarity between them and Jeremiah 4.

The judgment-themed oracles of Isaiah 5, 13, and Ezekiel 32 also use two other parallel motifs. The first is that of the earthquake upon the land, used in Jeremiah 4:24, which has already been discussed, and the second is that of the darkening of the heavens, used in Jeremiah 4:23, 28. The judgment oracle against Judah in Isaiah 5 uses the judgment motifs of the earthquake upon the land (5:25) and the darkening of the heavens (5:30). The judgment oracle against Babylon in Isaiah 13 also uses the motifs of the earthquake (13:13) and the darkening of the heavens (13:10). Finally, the oracle against Egypt in Ezekiel 32 also uses the motif of the darkening of the heavens (32:7-8), but not the motif of the earthquake. These parallels demonstrate that there are a variety of motifs the Israelite prophets used in other judgment-themed oracles, but it is the desolation motif that closely fits the use of the word pair בהולתה in both Jeremiah 4:26 and Isaiah 34:11.

Is Jeremiah 4:23 a chaos contrary to creation? How then do summary-statement proponents come to the conclusion that the word pair בהולתה describes a chaos

¹²⁴Cf. also Joel 2:10, 30-31; Amos 8:9.

contrary to creation in Jeremiah 4:23? Most seem to come to this conclusion based upon the literary parallels between Jeremiah 4:23-28 and Genesis 1. Görg states,

This idea [that the word pair $\overline{h}\overline{h}/\overline{h}\overline{h}$] stands in opposition to the created world] takes on cosmic dimensions in the vision in Jer 4:23: "I see the earth: behold— $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ $w\bar{a}\underline{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u}$." This statement parallels a vision of the heavens devoid of lights. Thus for the word pair $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ wa $\underline{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ we can claim the negative elements that are central to $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ by itself, the perilous, menacing phenomena of tracklessness and instability. . . . It is therefore still legitimate to assume that the word pair $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ wa $\bar{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ is ground semantically in the characteristic of menacing reality that can be represented by the term "chaos," albeit with reservations. In Jer. 4:23 we may note a cosmic orientation of the expression, which envisions a "chaotic" state of the "earth" like the primordial state described in Gen. 1:2. Although the two occurrences and their contexts are literarily independent, common allusions are recognizable. 125

Waltke states,

Whether the vision is intended as a metaphor of Judah's return to her precreative state, or an apocalyptic portrayal of cosmic destruction at the end time, need not be decided for our purposes. The point is that the judgment to come on the land [in Jer 4:23-26] takes the form of dismantling or undoing creation. But it obviously does not follow that the precreative state [of Genesis 1:2] itself is the result of God's fury. . . . Here, however, we should pause and note the meaning of the result of God's fury. these two passages [(Isa 34:11 and Jer 4:23)]. We may deduce that the compound rhyming expression indicates a state of material prior to creation. The Septuagint renders the compound in Jeremiah 4:23 appropriately by οὐθέν, "nothing." Indeed this appears to be essentially its meaning; not in the sense that material does not exist, but rather in the sense that an orderly arrangement, a creating, a cosmos, has not yet taken place. 126

Finally, Konkel states,

The other two occurrences of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ $w\bar{a}b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ are a description of the pre-creation chaos (Gen 1:2; Jer 4:23). It is not certain that the same cosmic type of judgment is meant in the case of Edom [in Isaiah 34:11]. It is clear, though, that Jeremiah depicts an universal and cosmic catastrophe. Jeremiah uses creation language to describe the judgment on the fruitful garden of creation as a reversal to pre-creation chaos. 127

¹²⁵Görg, "ההוי (*tōhû*)," 15:571.

¹²⁷Konkel, "בֿהּרּ" 1:607.

Like the arguments of the word pair's use in Isaiah 34:11, the common argument of all of these scholars is that the passage of Jeremiah 4:23-28 describes the dismantling of the ארץ of Judah back to a state similar to that of the ארץ in Genesis 1:2: the state of ארץ 128 It is a reversal of creation. How do these scholars, however, come to the conclusion that the resulting state of this reversal is a pre-creation chaos without first assuming that such is the state of the אָרֵץ in Genesis 1:2? There is nothing in the passage of Jeremiah 4:23-28 that suggests that the אָרֵץ of Judah has returned to a state of both pre-creation and chaos. Again, a proponent of the traditional interpretation could just as easily counter that Jeremiah 4:23-28 describes the dismantling of the אַרץ of Judah back to an "initial-creative" state rather than a "precreative" state. Furthermore, the preceding contextual and thematic analyses suggest that the state of the אָרֶץ of Judah in Jeremiah 4:23-28 is that of a desolation rather than a chaos contrary to creation. ¹³⁰ Again, just because the passage may describe the dismantling of the אָרֶץ of Judah back to a state similar to that of the ארץ in Genesis 1:2, it is not proof that the word pair בהו/תהו describes a chaos contrary to creation. Such argumentation is a non sequitur. However, since both Isaiah 34:11 and Jeremiah 4:23 use the word pair מהו/חהו and the desolation motif as a descriptor of the אָרץ of Edom and אָרץ of Judah, a brief analysis of the

¹²⁸Görg does refer to other, singular uses of אָדָ to argue that the word pair בהוֹ/תֹהוּ describes the אָדֶץ as a chaos contrary to creation in Jeremiah 4:23. However, the following sections of this chapter demonstrate that singular uses of אַדְּן do not have this meaning either.

¹²⁹ The preceding thematic analysis suggests that the language of Jeremiah 4:23-28 is more parallel to other judgment-themed oracles than to a reversal of the creation account in Genesis 1.

¹³⁰ Ouro states, "In brief, the expression $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ $w\bar{a}b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ refers to a 'desert-uninhabited' (Isa 34:I1; Jer 4:23) and 'arid or unproductive' (Jer 4:23) state. Neither text gives any linguistic or exegetical evidence to support the existence of a situation of mythic chaos." Ouro, "Abiotic or Chaotic, I," 275. Matthews also states, "Rather than a primordial 'chaos,' however, Jeremiah used the similar imagery of creation so as to announce that the 'land' ('eres) of Judah will become a 'desolate' place as was the 'earth' ('eres) before its creation, that is, a land lifeless without the blessing of God." Matthews, Genesis, 132. Finally, Tsumura states, "Thus, the Jeremiah passage refers to a destruction brought about by lack of water, not by the flood water. This is in keeping with my explanation, which takes $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ $w\bar{a}b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ as signifying 'aridness or unproductiveness' of the earth." Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 31.

desolation motif can offer a more detailed understanding of the word pair's meaning.

The Desolation Motif

The desolation motif is very common in many judgment-themed oracles against specific lands or city-states.¹³¹ It is used in the judgment oracles against Ammon in Jeremiah 49; Assyria in Zephaniah 2; Babylon in Isaiah 13, 14, 50, and 51; Damascus in Amos 1; Edom in Jeremiah 49 and Ezekiel 25; Egypt in Jeremiah 46 and Ezekiel 29, 30, and 32; Gaza in Amos 1; Hazor in Jeremiah 49; Moab in Jeremiah 48 and Zephaniah 2; Nineveh in Nahum 2; Philistia in Zephaniah 2 and Zechariah 9; Syria in Isaiah 17; and against Tyre in Isaiah 23 and Ezekiel 26.

Within these judgment-themed oracles, the desolation motif exhibits five common characteristics. First, it is always applied to a specific land or city-state. In other words, it is always a pronouncement against a specific geographical location. It is certainly true that the judgment oracle is against specific people groups, but the desolation motif is always applied to their land or city. Second, the desolation motif always communicates the understanding that the land or city will be emptied of its typical inhabitants.

Jeremiah 50:3 (against Babylon)

For from the north a nation has come upon her, and it will make her land a desolation, and there will be no inhabitant in her, and from man unto beast they will flee.

Jeremiah 51:2 (against Babylon)

ּןְשַׁלַּחָתִּי לְבָבֶל זָרִים וְזֵרֹּוּהָ וִיבֹקְקוּ אֶת־אַרְצָהָ כִּי־הָיִוּ עָלֶיָהָ מִּסְבֵיב בְּיִוֹם רָעָה:

¹³¹Although Tsumura does not unpack the significance of the desolation motif for understanding the meaning of the word pair בהו/תהן and the word , he does recognize its usage in certain passages such as Isa 34:11. See Tsumura, *Creation and Destruction*, 32.

And I will send to Babylon winnowers, and they will winnow her and empty her land, for they will be upon her from all around on the day of evil.

Jeremiah 51:62 (against Babylon)

וְאָמַרְתָּׁ יְהוָה אַתָּה דְבַּׁרְתָּ אֶל־הַמָּקוֹם הַזֶּה לְהַכְרִיתוֹ לְבִלְתִּי הֵיְוֹת־בּוֹ יוֹשֶׁב לְמֵאַדֵם וְעַד־בִּהַמָּה כִּי־שִׁמְמִוֹת עוֹלֶם תַּהָיֵה:

And say, "Lord, you yourself have said to this place that you will cut it off to be without an inhabitant in it, from man unto beast, for it will be a desolation forever.

Ezekiel 29:11 (against Egypt)

ַלָא תַעֲבָר־בָּה רֻגֶל אָדָָם וְרֶגֶל בְּהַמָּה לָא תַעֲבָר־בָּה וְלָא תַשֵּׁב אַרְבָּעִים שָׁנָה:

The foot of a man will not pass over it, nor will the hoof of a beast pass over it, and it will not be inhabited for forty years.

Ezekiel 32:15 (against Egypt)

בְּתִתִּי אֶת־אֶרֶץ מִצְרַיִם שְׁמָמָה וּנְשַׁמָּה אֶרֶץ מִמְּלֹאָה בְּהַכּוֹתִי אֶת־כָּל־יָוֹשְׁבֵי בָה וַיַדְעִוּ כִּי־אָנֵי יָהוָה:

When I make the land of Egypt a desolation, the land will be desolate of its fullness, when I strike all the inhabitants in it, and they will know that I am the LORD.

Third, in the desolation motif, the words שַׁמְהָה, שְׁמְהָה, or similar words with the root שמם are most commonly used as a descriptors of the desolation. 132

Isaiah 13:9 (against Babylon)

הָנָּהְ יוֹם־יְהנָה בָּא אַכְזָרֵי וְעֶבְרָה וַחֲרָוֹן אָף לְשִׂוּם הָאָרֶץ **לְשַׁמְּׁה** וְחַטְּאֶיהָ יַשָּׁמֵיד מִמֵּנָה:

Behold, the day of the LORD comes with cruelty, fury, and burning anger to make the land a desolation, and he will exterminate its sinners from it.

Jeremiah 46:19 (against Egypt)

ּכְלֵי גוֹלָה עֲשָׂי לָּךְ יוֹשֶׁבֶת בַּת־מִצְרָיִם כִּי־נֹף **לְשַׁמָּה** תִּהְיֶּה וְנִצְּתָה מֵאֵין יוֹשֵׁב:

 $^{^{132}}$ Cf. also Isa 17:9; Jer 48:9; 49:2, 13, 33; 50:3, 13; 51:29, 37, 62; Ezek 29:9, 12; 30:7; 32:15; Zeph 2:4, 9. Even Görg, who argues that Gen 1:2 describes a chaos, states, "The term semantically closest to [אַקּה] is probably [אַקָּה] in [Isa 24:12a] (cf. also Jer 4:27)." Görg, "אָהוֹ ($t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$)," 15:569. Tsumura also recognizes a semantic parallel between אָקָה and אַקָּה. See Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 25.

Make for yourselves vessels of exile, oh Daughter of Egypt, for Memphis will become a desolation, and it will be ruined without an inhabitant.

Jeremiah 51:43 (against Babylon)

Its cities have become a desolation, a dry, desert land, a land in which not any man will live in them and no son of man will pass through them.

Ezekiel 29:10 (against Egypt)

Therefore, behold! I am against you and against your streams, and I will make the land of Egypt a total waste and desolation from the tower of Syene unto the border of Cush.

Zephaniah 2:13 (against Assyria)

And he will stretch his hand against the north and he will cause Assyria to perish, and he will make Nineveh a desolation, dry as the wilderness.

Fourth, the desolation motif frequently uses a form of the verb אַיַי as an antonymic description. 133

Jeremiah 48:9 (against Moab)

Give wings to Moab, for she will surely fly away, and her cities will become desolate without an inhabitant in them.

Jeremiah 49:18 (against Edom)

"Like the overthrow of Sodom and Gomorrah and her inhabitants," says the Lord, "A man will not dwell there, and the son of a man will not sojourn in it."

¹³³Cf. also Isa 13:20 (שׁכּך); Jer 46:19; 49:33; 50:3; 51:29, 43, 62; Ezek 26:19, 20; 29:11; Zech 9:5.

Jeremiah 50:13a (against Babylon)

מַקַצַף יָהוָה לָא תַּשָּׁב וְהָיִתָה שִׁמְּה כַּלָּה

Because of the wrath of the LORD, she will not be inhabited, and she will become a complete desolation.

Jeremiah 51:37 (against Babylon)

וָהָיְתָה בָבֶל לְגַלָּיִם מְעוֹן־תַּנָּיָם שַׁמָּה וּשְׁרַקָה מֵאֵין יּוֹשֵׁב:

And Babylon will be a heap, a refuge of jackals, a desolation, and a hissing, without an inhabitant.

Zephaniah 2:5 (against Philistia)

הֹוֹי יְשְׁבֵּי חֶבֶל הַיָּם גַּוֹי כְּרַתִּים דְּבַר־יְהוָה עֲלֵיכֶׁם כְּנַעַן אֶרֶץ פְּלִשְׁהִּׁים וְהַאָּבַדְתִּיךְ מֵאֵין יּוֹשֵׁב:

Woe, oh inhabitants of the seacoast, nation of the Kerethites, the word of the LORD is against you, Canaan, land of the Philistines, for I will cause you to perish and be without an inhabitant.

Last, the desolation motif, in which a land or city-state is desolate of its normal inhabitants, is described in multiple ways: as a place empty of its typical inhabitants, as a place overrun with wild animals, as a place overgrown with wild vegetation, ¹³⁴ or as a place that is like a desert. ¹³⁵ In Isaiah 34:11 and Jeremiah 4:26, the word pair בהול הוא used in the desolation motif of these judgment-themed oracles, exhibits many of these same characteristics.

This understanding of the word pair is also reflected in the ancient translational paraphrases of the targumim. Consider again the treatment of the word pair בהוֹ/תֹהוֹ in Genesis 1:2 of *Tgs. Neofiti* and *Ongelos*:

Tg. Neof.

וארעא הוות תהיא ובהיא וצדי מן בר גש ומן בעיר וריקנא מן כל פלחן צמחין ומן אילנין וחשוכא פריס על אפי תהומא ורוח דרחמין מן קדם ה הוה

¹³⁴For references, see the previous contextual discussion on Isaiah 34:10b-15.

¹³⁵Cf. Jer 50:12, 51:43; Zeph 2:13.

מנשבא על אפי מיא:136

And the earth was waste and unformed, desolate of man and beast, empty of plant cultivation and of trees, and darkness was spread over the surface of the waters. And the spirit of mercy from before God was blowing over the face of the waters. 137

Tg. Onq.

וארעא הות צדיא וריקניא וחשוכא פריש על אפי תהומא ורוחא מן קדם יי מנשבא על אפי מיא:¹³⁸

And the earth was desolate and empty, and darkness was on the face of the deep; and a wind from before the Lord was blowing on the face of the water. 139

Clearly, these early Jewish translators understood the word pair in the same manner.

Thus, both contextually and thematically the word pair seems to describe a container desolate of its typical contents rather than a chaos contrary to creation. By itself the word also exhibits these same characteristics.

The Literal Sense of the Word 177

According to both BDB and *HALOT*, the word אחד seems to be used with two major senses. The first major sense is more literal in nature. This use of the word describes the conditions of a physical location. This is also the sense of the word when it is used with אחד in Genesis 1:2, Isaiah 34:11, and Jeremiah 4:26. The following section analyzes the other occurrences of the word אחד in this more literal sense. The second major sense in which the word is used is more figurative in nature. The figurative use of

¹³⁶Bernard Grossfeld, "A Commentary on the Text of a New Palestinian Targum (Codex Neofiti I) on Genesis I-XXV." (Ph.D. diss., The Johns Hopkins University, 1969), 10,14.

¹³⁷Martin McNamara, trans., *Targum Neofiti 1: Genesis*, The Aramaic Bible, vol. 1A (Collegeville, MN: The Liturgical Press, 1992), 55.

¹³⁸Moses Aberback and Bernard Grossfeld, trans., *Targum Onkelos to Genesis* (Hoboken, NJ: Ktav Publishing House, Inc., Center for Judaic Studies University of Denver, 1982), 20.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰BDB and *HALOT*, s.v. "תהו".

the word אהר will be analyzed in the next section.

Deuteronomy 32:10. Deuteronomy 32:10 uses the word הוֹה in a way that is consistent with the characteristics exhibited by the desolation motif. The verse states, יִמְצָאָהוּ בָּאָרֵץ מִדְבָּר וּבִתְהוּ יַלֵל יִשְׁמִן

He found him (Jacob/Israel) in a land of desert, in a howling $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ of wilderness. In this passage, the noun יְשִׁימוֹן, which is a descriptor of אָּהָרָּ, describes a desert-like location. In fact, as this verse indicates, the word is a synonym of מְּלְבָּרְ, which most often refers to the desert or wilderness. The word יְשִׁימוֹן is also used in other passages to describe a land that is both uninhabited and overrun by wild animals, which as the previous section demonstrates is also characteristic of the desolation motif. Consider these passages:

Psalm 107:4

They wandered in a desert, in a wilderness on the journey, *but* they found no habitable city.

Isaiah 43:20

The beast of the field, the jackals and the offspring of the ostrich, will glorify me, for waters in the desert, rivers in the wilderness to give water to my chosen people.

Again, the imagery of the word יְשִׁימוֹן is very similar to the descriptions of lands and city-states in the desolation motif. Thus, it is not surprising that the word modifies in Deuteronomy 32:10.

Isaiah 24:10. This passage occurs in a judgment-themed oracle against the whole earth. The passage as a whole has many of the previously mentioned motifs that

¹⁴¹Cf. Pss 78:40; 106:14; 107:4; Isa 43:19-20.

are common in judgment-themed oracles. It uses the motif of the earthquake (24:1b, 18b-20) and possibly the motif of the darkening of the heavens (24:23). Most importantly, however, it uses the desolation motif (24:1a, 3, 6b, 10-13). Isaiah 24:10 occurs in the desolation motif. The verse states,

נִשְׁבְּרָה קְרְיַת־תְּהוּ סָגַר כָּל־בַּיִת מִבְּוֹא:

The city of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ is broken, all the houses are closed up from entering. The verse by itself offers minimal evidence concerning its meaning, but the context of the passage and the theme offer more clarification.

Within the context and theme of the passage the word Th is used to describe a city that is empty of its typical inhabitants; it is a desolation. Verses 12 and 13 clearly describe the city in this way. They state,

יַפַּת־שֶׁעַר: שִׁ**מָּה** וּשְׁאִיָּה יָפַּת־שֶׁעַר: װְלְאָרָ בְּעִיר שַׁמָּה וּשְׁאָיָה יָבָּת־שֶׁעַר: הָאָרֵץ בְּתַּוֹךְ הָעַמֵּים כְּנַקְף זַּיִת כְּעוֹלֵלְתׁ אִם־כָּלָה בָצִיר: הָאָרֵץ בְּתַּוֹךְ הָעַמֵּים כְּנַקְף זַּיִת כְּעוֹלֵלְתׁ אִם־כָּלָה בָצִיר:

¹²Desolation is left in the city, and the gates are crushed and a ruin ¹³For thus it will be in the heart of the earth, in the midst of the people, like the shaking of an olive tree, like the gleaning when the grape harvest is complete.

The incomplete similes in this passage are clear. As a tree is bare of olives after it has been shaken, and a vineyard is bare of grapes after it has been harvested, so too is a city empty of its inhabitants after it has been desolated. Since Isaiah 24:10 occurs in a judgment-themed oracle is it not surprising that the word is used as a part of the desolation motif. Again, a simple contextual and thematic analysis demonstrates that the word in, by itself, is also used to describe a place that is desolate of its typical inhabitants.

Isaiah 45:18. Because Isaiah 45:18 is very similar to Genesis 1:2, in that both passages are used in creation contexts, it is extremely helpful in understanding the meaning of the word אָהוֹ in Genesis 1:2. The passage states,

כָּי כָה אֶמַר־יְּהוָה בּוֹרֵא הַשָּׁמַׁיִם הַוּא הָאֱלֹהִים

יצר הָאָרֶץ וְעֹשָׂה הַוּא כְוֹנְנֶּה לא־תִׁהוּ בְרָאָה לָשֶׁבֶת יִצְרָה אַנִי יָהֹוָה וָאֵין עִוֹד:

For thus says the LORD,

"The one who created the Heavens, He is God The one who formed the earth and made it, He established it He did not create it *to be tōhû*¹⁴² He formed it to be inhabited I am the LORD, and there is no other.

Within the passage itself it is clear that the word אָה is antonymically paired with אָרָץ.

אָרֶץ and both are a description of a physical location: the אָרֵץ.

Again, considering the use of אוֹה in the desolation motif in the passages of Isaiah 34:11; Jeremiah 4:23; and Isaiah 24:10, it is not surprising that in the only instance in which the word אוֹה occurs with an antonym, the antonym is a form of the verb יַשְׁב.

Again, the previous discussion demonstrates that the desolation motif frequently uses this

למפר 142 Waltke counters this translation by saying, "[T]he double accusative after verbs of making does not normally have this sense." Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 220. He argues that the normal sense of the third colon in Isa 45:18 should be "He did not create it a formless mass." Ibid. However, in the parallel bicola of the passage אוֹה is paired with the infinitive form (אַשֶּׁבְּח, which implies purpose and does not function as a double accusative in the bicola. If אַשְּׁבָּח, which implies purpose and does not function as a double accusative with the participial form (אַשֶּׁבְּח) of עַּיִּשֶׁבְּע which would then function as a double accusative in the bicola as well (cf. Exod 16:35). Thus, the rendering of א as "to be tōhû" seems to be implicit in the parallelism and grammatical context of the bicola. Tsumura also states, "It should be noted that $l\bar{o}^2$ -tōhû here is a resultative object, referring to the purpose of God's creative action. In other words, this verse explains that God did not create the earth so that it might stay desert-like, but to be inhabited. So this verse does not contradict Gen 1:2, where God created the earth to be productive and inhabited, though it 'was' still $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ wābōhû in the initial state." Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 26.

¹⁴³ Interestingly, Westermann and Waltke argue that the word אוֹה is this passage is the "direct opposite of creation" and "an antonym to 'create." Westermann, Genesis 1–11, 103; Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 181 n. 16. It is difficult to understand how Westermann and Waltke can come to this conclusion when the parallel structure of the passage clearly demonstrates that אָרָשָׁרָח is antithetically paired with בְּרָאָה, "he created it," is synonymously paired with יְצָרָה, "he formed it." There is nothing in the structure or the context of the passages that suggests that אָרָה, is antithetically parallel to בְּרָאָה Even Görg, another proponent of treating אַרָה מֹהוֹ (tōhû)," 15:569.

verb as an antonymic description of the desolation. 144 Tsumura states,

However, $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ here is contrasted with $l\bar{a}sebet$ in the parallelism and seems to refer rather to a place that has no habitation, like the term $sem\bar{a}m\hat{a}$ "desolation" (cf. Jer 4:27; Isa 24:12), $h\bar{a}r\bar{e}b$ "waste, desolate," and aeq careful a "deserted." There is nothing in this passage that would suggest a chaotic state of the earth "which is opposed to and precedes creation." Thus, the term $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ here too signifies "a desert-like place" and refers to "an uninhabited place."

Thus, the creation passage of Isaiah 45:18 is one of the strongest evidences supporting the argument that the word אָה, rather than describing a state of chaos, describes a state of desolation, empty of inhabitants. In other words the lexical data of Isaiah 45:18 suggests that whatever is inhabited is in a state of A and whatever is אָהָה, or desolate, is in a state of non-A. Thus, if a cosmological container like the אָהֶה is described as אַהָּה, it is uninhabited not chaotic. It is not a logical contradiction to argue that such a state could be created.

Other Evidences. There are three other passages that use the word אוֹה in a way that is similar to the desolation motif. They describe a desert land that is devoid of habitation. Consider the following verses:

Job 6:18

יַלְפַתוּ אָרְחַוֹת דַּרְכָּחַ יַעֲלוּ בַתַּהוּ וְיֹאבֶדוּ:

They turn themselves from the paths of their way; they go up into the $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, and they perish.

Job 12:24

מַסִיר לֵב רָאשׁיַ עַם־הָאָרָץ וַיַּתְעַׁם בְּתְהוּ לֹא־דֶרֶךְ:

He who takes away the understanding of the rulers of the people of the land, and causes them to wander in the $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ where there is no road.

Psalm 107:40

¹⁴⁴Again, cf. Isa 13:20 (שׁכוּ); Jer 46:19; 48:9; 49:18, 33; 50:3, 13; 51:29, 37, 43, 62; Ezek 26:19, 20; 29:11; Zeph 2:5; Zech 9:5.

¹⁴⁵Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 25.

שֹׁפֵּךְ בּוּז עַל־נְדִיבִים וַיַּתְעֵׁם בְּתָהוּ לֹא־דֶרֶךְ:

He who pours contempt upon the nobles, and causes them to wander in the $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ where there is no road.

In these passages the word אוד is not used to describe a land or a city, nor is it coupled with any other words that might describe a desert land or wilderness, nor is it used in any judgment-themed oracle against a land or a city. However, the phrase אַרֶּבֶּרְ in Job 12:24 and Psalm 107:40 and the description of wandering from the דָּבֶּרְ suggest that the word is descriptive of a wilderness in which no one travels. This meaning is consistent with the other literal uses of the word when it describes a desolation.

Most scholars who argue that The describes a chaos in Genesis 1:2 agree that its use in the preceding verses refers to some kind of desert wasteland. Görg, however, disagrees stating,

Clearly these words refer not to literal exile in a wasteland but to the disorientated bewilderment of those stripped of understanding by God. The prepositional compound appears with the article in Job 6:18, where a caravan that turns aside from its course (v. 18a) is described as wandering $batt\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ — again, the text does not refer to the wilderness simply as a geological phenomenon; this straying leads to death. 147

The problem with this analysis is that the literal sense of the word is being used to denote an abstract thought. This does not mean that the abstract thought of disoriented bewilderment should not be applied to the passage using the word in, but it is the literal meaning that defines the figurative idea expressed in these passages, not vice versa. Again, the most basic, literal meaning of the word in is that of a desolate place devoid of habitation. This fits its meaning in all of the passages in which it is used as a substantive and as a modifier describing certain geographical locations.

The Figurative Sense of the Word

Again, the second major sense in which the word ההו is used is more figurative

¹⁴⁶BDB, s.v., "חהר;" Youngblood, "חהר (tōhû) confusion," 2:964; Westermann, Genesis 1–

in nature. In such passages as 1 Samuel 12:21; Job 26:7; Isaiah 29:21; 40:17, 23; 41:29; 44:9; 45:19; 49:4; and 59:4, the word אָלָס has a meaning of "emptiness" or "nothingness" and is synonymously parallel with such terms as בְּלִי־מָה (nothing), בְּלִי־מָה (vanity), and בְּלִי־מָה (emptiness) in Job 26:7 and Isaiah 40:17 and 49:4. Delitzsch uses the more figurative definition of the word אָלָה to argue that it describes a chaos in Genesis 1:2. He states,

The chaos, as which the developing earth existed, embraced also the heaven which was developing with and for it. The substance of the אַנוּ is left undefined; תהו is the synonym of הָבֶל ,בְּלִימָה , אֶּכֶּס , אַיִן, and the like, and is therefore a purely negative notion. 150

The figurative uses of him can certainly portray a negative picture that may reach such an abstract level that it could be a description of a "chaos." However, there is little, if any, evidence to suggest that the figurative meaning of the word him should be applied to its usage in Genesis 1:2. The uses of the word pair him Genesis 1:2, Isaiah 34:11; and Jeremiah 4:23 describe a physical, geographical location much like the word him does in its more literal uses. There is no evidence to suggest that the word pair in Genesis 1:2 should take on the figurative meaning of him.

Furthermore, even though the figurative meaning of The creates a negative abstraction, as Delitzsch observes, there is no reason to assume that such an abstract meaning carries over into the literal meaning. It is much more likely that the literal meaning of The, describing a desolation without inhabitants, influences its figurative meaning, describing what is empty, vain, or worthless, since the literal meaning is drawn

^{11, 102;} Konkel, "בֹּהֹנּ" 1:607; Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 181 n. 16.

¹⁴⁷Görg, "ההר (tōhû)," 15:568.

¹⁴⁸*HALOT*, s.v., "תוֹהר."

¹⁴⁹ Westermann, Genesis 1–11, 103; Görg, "เมษา (tōhû)," 15:569.

¹⁵⁰ Delitzsch, Genesis, 78. Driver also seems to use the figurative sense of אהוו to argue for a meaning of chaos in Gen 1:2. See Driver, Genesis, 3-4.

from personal experience. Consider also the adjective ביק, a cognate of ביק which occurs in parallel with one of the figurative uses of ההו Like. Like ההו, the word מוס also has both a literal meaning, describing what is empty, and a figurative meaning, describing what is worthless or vain. No one would argue that the literal use of the word ביק in Genesis 37:24 is descriptive of a terrible, menacing pit, סח account of the figurative sense of the word בין in Judges 9:4; 2 Samuel 6:20; and Proverbs 12:11. The same should also apply to ההו There is no good reason to assume that the figurative meaning of ההו influences its literal meaning in Genesis 1:2 or any other passage in which it is used literally.

Other Arguments

Because of the interpretive and theological implications involved in defining the word pair בהוֹאַהוֹ as a chaos contrary to creation, many proponents of the traditional interpretation legitimately argue that the word pair describes the אֶרֶץ as being in a more neutral state. Even some proponents of the summary-statement interpretation are not convinced that the word pair in Genesis 1:2 describes the אֶרֶץ as a chaos contrary to creation. Young, for instance, states, "It would probably be wise to abandon the term 'chaos' as a designation of the conditions set forth in verse two. The three-fold statement of circumstances in itself seems to imply order." Tsumura also states,

¹⁵¹Westermann, Genesis 1–11, 103.

¹⁵²BDB, s.v., "ריק."

¹⁵³John H. Sailhamer, *Genesis*, vol. 2 of *The Expositor's Bible Commentary*, ed. Frank E. Gaebelein (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1990), 24–25; Mark F. Rooker, "Genesis 1:1–3: Creation or Re-Creation? Part 1," *Bibliotheca Sacra* 149 (1992): 320–22; Matthews, *Genesis*, 143–44; Ouro, "Abiotic or Chaotic, I," 276.

¹⁵⁴Edward J. Young, "The Relation of the First Verse of Genesis One to Verses Two and Three," *Westminster Theological Journal* 21 (1958): 145. Young's position is somewhat nuanced, but he does argue that Genesis 1:1 is a summary and not the first act of creation. See Young, "Relation of the First Verse of Genesis," 141–43; Young, "Interpretation of Genesis 1:2," 166–67. (N.b. especially his footnotes.) He also states, "It is true that the second verse of Genesis does not represent a continuation of

In conclusion, the phrase $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ $w\bar{a}b\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ in Gen 1:2, which is traditionally translated into English "without form and void" (RSV) or the like, simply means "emptiness" and refers to the earth, which was a desolate and empty place, "an unproductive and uninhabited place." As Westermann notes, "creation and the world are to be understood always from the viewpoint of or in the context of human experience." In other words, to communicate the subject of creation meaningfully to human beings, one must use the language and literary forms known to them. In order to give the background information to the audience in this verse, the author uses experiential language explaining the initial situation of the earth as "not yet." 155

Finally, Walton states,

Based on the above assessment of the beginning state as it is presented in Genesis, we are now in a position to compare it to what we find in the ancient world. In the ancient Near East the precosmic condition is neither an abstraction ("Chaos") nor a personified adversary. ¹⁵⁶

Waltke, however, argues that word him is frequently used in a negative sense, which should be considered in the case of Genesis 1:2. He states,

the narrative of verse one, but, as it were, a new beginning. Grammatically it is not to be construed with the preceding, but with what follows." Young, "Interpretation of Genesis 1:2," 166–67.

¹⁵⁵Tsumura, Creation and Destruction, 35. Unlike Young, Tsumura is much more nuanced. He expresses many views that are shared by summary-statement proponents. First, he seems to argue that the creation of light in Gen 1:3 was the first creative act. He states, "According to the discourse analysis of Gen 1:1-3, the first two verses constitute the SETTING for the EVENT that begins in v. 3, since the wayqtl (waw consecutive + imperf.), the narrative 'tense,' first appears in the phrase 'and God said' (wayyô²mer ²ĕlôhîm)." Ibid., 33-34. He also states, "Therefore, v. 2 is, as Perry notes, a 'prelude' to v. 3, where the first of God's creative actions begins with his utterantce 'let there be light!" Ibid., 35. Second, he seems to argue that Genesis 1:1 is a summary statement. See ibid., 34. Third, he argues that the word pair אַרץ/שׁמִים is a merism for the "universe." See ibid., 75. However, he also expresses views that are shared by proponents of the traditional interpretation. First, in arguing that the phrase $l\hat{o}^2$ -tôhû in Isa 45:18 is a resultative object, he seems to argue that the earth in Gen 1:2 was created. He states, "In other words, this verse explains that God did not create the earth so that it might stay desert-like, but to be inhabited. So this verse does not contradict Gen 1:2, where God created the earth to be productive and inhabited, though it 'was' still tôhû wâbôhû in the initial state." Ibid., 26. Second, he seems to argue that there is a semantic link between Gen 1:1 and 1:2. He states, "It is not necessary to posit that $h\hat{a}^2\hat{a}res$ has different meanings in v. 1 and v. 2.... However, a shift in focus from the totality of the universe ('heaven and earth') in v. 1 to the 'earth' in v. 2 does not necessarily result in a change of meaning for the term $h\hat{a}^2\hat{a}res$." Ibid., 69 n. 44. However, even though he may be quite nuanced, Tsumura's default position seems to be that of the summary-statement interpretation. He writes, "After the summary statement [emphasis mine] 'in the beginning God created the heavens and the earth' (v.1), in v.2a the author focuses not on the 'heavens' but on the 'earth' where the audience stands, and, in preparation for what is to come, presents the 'earth' as 'still' not being the earth that they all are famililar with." Ibid., 34. Tsumura never explicitly states that Gen 1:1 is the first act of creation, but he does explicitly state that it is a summary.

156 John H. Walton, *The Lost World of Genesis One* (Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press, 2009), 51–52 See also ibid., 45-46, where Walton states his support for the summary-statement interpretation.

David Toshio Tsumura says, "The phrase $[t\bar{o}h\hat{u}\ w\bar{a}\underline{b}\bar{o}h\hat{u}]$ in Gen 1:2 has nothing to do with chaos and simply means 'emptiness," which he defines as "an unproductive and uninhabited place." But he fails to note adequately that $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$ always connotes something terrible, eerie. Even in Job 26:7 it connotes a state that effects awe. To capture both the negative denotation and connotation of $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, "chaos" is more apt than emptiness." 157

Thus, according to Waltke's argument, it seems that the problem for those who do not recognize Genesis 1:2 to be a description of chaos is that they do not perceive just how negative a description $\exists h$, $t\bar{o}h\hat{u}$, can be. The problem with this argument, however, is that it injects more subjectivity into the debate than objectivity. Since scholars of either position argue that אהו either does or does not describe a chaos from the same passages, it seems odd to argue that one side does not view אהו negatively enough. Should not the context of each passage determine how negative the term should be viewed? While it is a possibility that the literal use of חהו describes something negative in Genesis 1:2 and other passages, there is *nothing* in the previous analysis of the evidence suggesting that is so negative that it describes a chaos contrary to creation. The bridge between what is negative and what is a chaos contrary to creation is simply not there. Furthermore, there is nothing in the previous analysis suggesting that God could not create the אֶרֶץ in this manner. Such an interpretation is neither a logical nor theological contradiction. A plain and simple reading of the contextual and thematic evidences clearly demonstrates that the word pair בהו/תהו in Genesis 1:2 describes the אַרץ as being in a state of desolation, empty of inhabitants.

Lexical Conclusion

Based upon the preceding analysis, summary-statement proponents cannot argue that it is logically contradictory for the אֶרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 to correspond to the אֶרֶץ of 1:1 in state simply because it is described as being הִּהֹוּ וְבֹהוּ. There is no evidence to suggest that the word pair describes a chaos contrary to creation. In fact the contextual

¹⁵⁷Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 181 n. 16.

and thematic evidences clearly demonstrate that the word pair describes a desolation empty of inhabitants. Again, the close proximity of the two identical words strongly suggests that they *do* correspond to one another in state. Thus, as previously suggested, in order for the summary-statement interpretation to be sustainable and more probable than the traditional interpretation, the two words must not be able to correspond to one another. Nevertheless, the previous discussion demonstrates that there is no reason they should not, which again, suggests that Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 semantically correspond to one another.

If Genesis 1:1 narrates the creation of only the cosmological containers of the שַּׁרֵישׁ and the אָרֶץ, then the description of the אָרֶץ in Genesis 1:2 as אַרָּץ as a desolation, empty of inhabitants. Such a description of the אֶרֶץ in Genesis 1:2 perfectly fits the traditional interpretation as well as the context of the passage and the larger narrative, which describes the shaping and filling of these larger cosmological containers. Again, the traditional interpretation is the plainest and simplest reading of the text, working with the proximal correspondence of the two occurrences of אָרֶץ, not against it. However, not only does the proximal correspondence of the two identical words suggest a semantic continuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2, the syntax does as well.

The Syntactical Level

If the proximal correspondence of the $\mbox{\sc y}$ in Genesis 1:1 to the $\mbox{\sc y}$ of 1:2 is the strongest bit of evidence favoring the traditional interpretation, then the syntactical relationship between the two verses is next. The syntactical structure of Genesis 1:2, in

¹⁵⁸ N.b. again the interpretation of the nineteenth-century Jewish scholar Samuel David Luzzatto who states, "Just as the desert is called *shemamah* and *yeshimon* ('wilderness'), so it is called *tohu* va-vohu. The meaning is that on the earth there were neither plants nor animals." Luzzatto, *Genesis*, 5.

which the word אֶדֶרְץ precedes the main verb, almost demands that the word looks back to and describes the אֶדֶרץ of Genesis 1:1. Again, such a syntactical structure strongly suggests that the two verses correspond to one another and share a semantic continuity. This is the plainest and simplest reading of the text. However, the debate over the interpretation of Genesis 1:1 rarely touches the syntactical level. As the previous sections demonstrate, much of the focus is at the lexical level. Any syntactical discussion concerning the relationships between the sentences and clauses of Genesis 1:1-3 focuses primarily on translation, not interpretation; nevertheless, some proponents of the summary-statement interpretation do address the syntactical issues related to their position.

Again, proponents of the summary-statement interpretation argue that Genesis 1:1 is a title or summary statement, with Genesis 1:2 being an introductory description of the world *before* the first act of creation in Genesis 1:3. Furthermore, they argue that Genesis 1:2 temporally precedes the time frame of Genesis 1:1. Thus, in the summary-statement interpretation, Genesis 1:2 must be syntactically related to Genesis 1:3 because there is neither semantic nor temporal continuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2. However, since the syntactical structure of Genesis 1:2 favors semantic continuity between it and 1:1, summary-statement proponents only argue that the syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:2 and 1:3 is at the least possible; they do not argue that the relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 is not possible on syntactical grounds.

The Manners in Which Genesis 1:2 May Relate to 1:3

The sentence structure at the beginning of Genesis 1:2 is waw + subject + verb,

¹⁵⁹Again, see Waltke, *Genesis*, 60; Barr, "Was Everything That God Created," 58.

¹⁶⁰Even though the focus of this chapter is on the interpretation of Genesis 1:1, much of the following discussion concerns the syntactical relationships of Genesis 1:2. They also play a decisive role in the interpretation of 1:1.

which is both semantically and syntactically significant considering that in Hebrew narrative, normal sentence structure is waw + verb + subject. Because of this structure, many summary-statement proponents argue that Genesis 1:2 is a circumstantial clause related not to Genesis 1:1, but to 1:3. Young states,

[Genesis 1:2] contains three circumstantial clauses, thus describing a three-fold set of circumstances or conditions which were in existence at a particular time. The particular time in which this three-fold condition was present is to be determined by the finite verb, with which these three clauses are to be construed.¹⁶³

It is true that the second verse of Genesis does not represent a continuation of the narrative of verse one, but, as it were, a new beginning. Grammatically it is not to be construed with the preceding, but with what follows. 164

Waltke also states,

The other view that also sees the chaotic state described in verse 2 as existing before the creation spoken of in the Bible, understands verse 1 as an independent clause and verse 2 as a circumstantial clause connected with verse 3. According to this view, verse 1 is a summary statement, or formal introduction, which is epexegeted in the rest of the narrative. It appears to this author that this is the only viewpoint that completely satisfies the demands of Hebrew grammar.¹⁶⁵

As discussed earlier, on lexical and logical grounds verse 2 cannot be construed as a circumstantial clause with verse 1. 166

Thus, according to the summary-statement interpretation, Genesis 1:1 is syntactically and

¹⁶¹The sentence of Genesis 1:2 is comprised of three distinct clauses. The last two clauses are circumstantial to the first, but the syntactical relationship of the verse as a whole to Genesis 1:1 or 1:3 only concerns the first clause. Thus, the following syntactical analysis only focuses on the first clause even though the discussion involves the verse as a whole.

¹⁶²Wenham and Ross also recognize Gen 1:2 as a circumstantial clause, but they do not specifically argue that it syntactically relates to Gen 1:3. Rather, they label Gen 1:2 as a circumstantial clause in order to argue against the syntactical possibility of the dependent-clause translation. See Wenham, Genesis, 12; Allen P. Ross, Creation and Blessing: A Guide to the Study and Exposition of the Book of Genesis (Grand Rapids: Baker Book House, 1988), 719.

¹⁶³Young, "Relation of the First Verse of Genesis," 140.

¹⁶⁴Young, "Interpretation of Genesis 1:2," 166–67.

¹⁶⁵Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 225–26.

¹⁶⁶lbid., 226. Waltke's lexical and logical grounds for arguing that Gen 1:2 cannot be construed with 1:1 are dealt with in the preceding lexical sections of this chapter.

semantically cut off from Genesis 1:2. If such is the case, however, in what manner then does the circumstantial clause of Genesis 1:2 relate to Genesis 1:3?

According to Andersen's detailed analysis of circumstantial clauses, ¹⁶⁷ there are two possible ways in which Genesis 1:2 could relate to 1:3. First, Genesis 1:2 could be an episode-initial circumstantial clause. Andersen explains this type of circumstantial clause in the following manner:

The body of an episode in narrative prose is likely to consist of a string of [wayyiqtol] clauses. (Predictive discourse correspondingly is built on chains of [weqatal] clauses.) Such a string is likely to be preceded by some marginal material, such as a time reference realized as adverb, noun phrase, prepositional phrase, infinitive phrase, or clause. Another way of opening an episode is to state a preliminary circumstance, and the usual way of doing this is by means of a circumstantial clause [(emphasis mine)]. 168

According to Andersen's explanation, this type of circumstantial clause has a more macro-syntactical function. It and its counterpart, the episode-final circumstantial clause, are frequently discussed as boundary markers of narrative episodes in studies focusing on discourse grammar.¹⁶⁹ These clauses have a more independent nature than typical circumstantial clauses. Thus, if Genesis 1:2 is an episode-initial circumstantial clause, it could relate to Genesis 1:3 as the inaugural boundary marker of the following narrative episode.¹⁷⁰

¹⁶⁷See Francis I. Andersen, *The Sentence in Biblical Hebrew*, Janua Linguarum Series Practica 231 (The Hague: Mouton, 1974), 77–91.

¹⁶⁸Ibid., 79.

¹⁶⁹ See also Thomas Oden Lambdin, *Introduction to Biblical Hebrew* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1971), § 132; Alviero Niccacci, *The Syntax of the Verb in Classical Hebrew Prose*, trans. W. G. E. Watson, Journal for the Study of the Old Testament Supplement Series 86 (Sheffield: Sheffield Academic Press, 1990), § 27; Katsuomi Shimasaki, *Focus Structure in Biblical Hebrew: A Study of Word Order and Information Structure* (Bethesda, MD: CDL Press, 2002), § 4.1.1.3; Roy L. Heller, *Narrative Structure and Discourse Constellations: An Analysis of Clause Function in Biblical Hebrew Prose*, Harvard Semitic Studies 55 (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns, 2004), 431ff. But see also Joüon § 159f; *IBHS* § 39.2.3c. Not all of these works, however, label such constructions as circumstantial clauses.

¹⁷⁰Andersen does see Genesis 1:2 as a possible construction of this type; however, he doubts its probability. See Andersen, *Sentence*, 79.

Second, according to Andersen, Genesis 1:2 could be a circumstantial clause functioning at a more inter-clausal level. This type of circumstantial clause, though it has the same construction as an episode-initial circumstantial clause, is typically subordinate to another clause. Although the clause at the surface appears to be grammatically independent, it expresses what Driver calls a "subordinate thought." Andersen also adds,

The best-known circumstantial clauses are those which come alongside the main thread of discourse. They generally report some coetaneous event or state, hence the name 'circumstantial'. For the same reason they are sometimes described as subordinate or 'adverbial', and not always distinguished from parenthetical information placed in apposition.¹⁷⁴

One of the main differences between this type of circumstantial clause and the episode-initial circumstantial clause is that the former "has a close relationship with adjacent clauses;" whereas, the latter is more closely related to the "discourse structure" or narrative episode as a whole. In the case of Genesis 1:2, the circumstantial clause could relate to Genesis 1:3 as a thought subordinate to the main verb אָמֵר Thus, Genesis 1:2 might possibly relate to Genesis 1:3 in one of these two manners. The following analysis, however, suggests that neither manner is probable.

¹⁷¹Andersen, Sentence, 85.

¹⁷²This is the typical classification of circumstantial clauses in most of the standard grammars. See GKC § 156; Joüon§ 159; Bill T. Arnold and John H. Choi, *A Guide to Biblical Hebrew Syntax* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003), § 5.2.11. See also Murphy who defines the circumstantial clause as "[a] subordinate clause that clarifies the context or describes the attendant circumstances of the main clause." Murphy, *Pocket Dictionary*, s.v. "Circumstantial Clause."

¹⁷³S. R. Driver, A Treatise on the Use of the Tenses in Hebrew and Some Other Syntactical Questions., 3rd ed. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1969), § 161.

¹⁷⁴Andersen, Sentence, 82.

¹⁷⁵Shimasaki, Focus Structure, 150.

¹⁷⁶ Ibid.

Genesis 1:2 as an episode-initial circumstantial clause. As previously

discussed, Genesis 1:2 could be an episode-initial circumstantial clause, in which case it would be syntactically related to Genesis 1:3. Like Genesis 1:2, when such clauses introduce a narrative episode, they are frequently followed by the first *waw*-consecutive clause of the narrative chain. Consider the following examples:

Genesis 3:1a

ּרָהַגָּ**תִשׁ הָיָה** עָלוּוּם מִכּּל חַיַּת הַשֶּׁלֶּה אֲשֶׁר עָשֶׂה יְהוֶה אֱלֹהֵים וַיֹּ**אמֶר** אֶל־הָאִשָּׁה

Now the snake was more crafty than all the beast of the field, which the LORD God had made, and he said to the woman,

Genesis 4:1a

ּ וְהָ**אָדָׁם יָדַע** אֶת־חַנָּה אִשְׁתִּוֹ וַתַּהַר וַתֵּלֶד אֶת־לֵּיִן

Now Adam knew Eve, and she conceived and bore Cain.

Genesis 21:1

ָנ**יהוָה פָּקד** אֶת־שָׂרָה כַּאֲשֶׁר אָמֶר וַיַ**עש** יְהוָה לְשָׂרָה כַּאֲשֶׁר דִּבֵּר:

Now the LORD visited Sarah just as he had said, and the Lord did for her just as he had spoken

Genesis 39:1a

וְיוֹסֶף הוּרָד מִצְרָיְמָה וַיִּקְבָּהוּ פּוֹטִיפַר סְרִיס פַּרְעֹה

Now Joseph had been brought down to Egypt, and Potiphar, an officer of Pharaoh, bought him

Ruth 4:1a

וּבֹעַז עָלָה הַשַּׁעַר וַיֵּנֶשֶׁב שָׁם

Now Boaz went up to the gate, and he sat there

1 Samuel 5:1

יפלשתים לקחו את ארון האלהים ויבאהו מאבן העזר אשדודה:

Now the Philistines took the ark of God, and they brought it from Ebenezer to Ashdod.

1 Chronicles 10:1a

וּפָּלְשָׁתֵּים נִלְחָמִוּ בִיִשְׂרָאֵל וַיַּנָס אֵישׁ־יִשְׂרָאֵל מְפָּנֵי פִּלְשָׁתִּׁים

Now the Philistines fought with Israel, and the men of Israel fled from before the Philistines.

Esther 4:1a

Now Mordecai knew all which had been done, and Mordecai tore his clothes If Genesis 1:1 is a syntactically separate title or summary, then Genesis 1:2 does fit the syntactical structure and placement of these episode-initial circumstantial clauses, and summary-statement proponents such as Jongeling and Waltke do suggest that there are parallels between Genesis 1:2 and other such episode-initial clauses.¹⁷⁷

An analysis of such circumstantial clauses marking the inception of a new episode at the head of a narrative chapter, however, suggests that such clauses display a certain characteristic that is missing from Genesis 1:2.¹⁷⁸ Because these clauses have the typical structure of *waw* + subject + verb, or at the least *waw* + noun + predicate, attention is shifted to the fronted subject because it plays an explicit role in the following narrative episode. Andersen refers to this as the introduction of a new *dramatis persona*.¹⁷⁹ Thus, the subject of the episode-initial circumstantial clause is almost always referenced again in the first *waw*-consecutive clause of the narrative chain and usually

¹⁷⁷ See Bastiaan Jongeling, "Some Remarks on the Beginning of Genesis I, 2," *Folia Orientalia* 21 (1980): 29–31; Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 226–28. Waltke argues that Genesis 1:2 is parallel with the episode-initial circumstantial clause of Genesis 3:1. Waltke, however, is more focused on the literary parallels between the two verses than the syntactic parallels, so he may not even see Genesis 1:2 as a marker of a new narrative episode. (He does, however, seem to acknowledge some kind of functional parallel between Genesis 1:2; 2:5-6; and 3:1.)

¹⁷⁸Not all narrative episodes start at the head of a chapter. However, distinguishing between changes in narrative episode can be subjective. Thus, for the purpose of objectivity, this section limits its analysis to the data pool of circumstantial clauses that occur at the head of narrative chapters.

¹⁷⁹Andersen, Sentence, 79.

plays a significant role in the following narrative episode. In most cases, the subject of the circumstantial clause is either named again (Gen 16:1; 21:1; 24:1; Exod 24:1; Judg 11:1; Ruth 2:1; 1 Sam 31:1; 1 Kgs 5:1; 7:1; 1 Chr 10:1; Est 4:1), Ist referenced again with a pronoun (Gen 32:2; 39:1; Josh 13:1; 1 Kgs 1:1; 11:1; 2 Kgs 4:1), Ist or is the subject of the main clause verb (Gen 3:1; Exod 3:1; Ruth 4:1; 1 Sam 5:1; 1 Kgs 10:1; 13:1; 20:1; 2 Kgs 3:1; 9:1; 11:1; 1 Chr 23:1; 2 Chr 9:1; 15:1) in the consecutively occurring waw-consecutive clause. In other instances the subject is renamed with an entirely different substantive (Judg 21:1; 2 Sam 16:1; 2 Kgs 8:1). Again, these are the characteristics of most episode-initial circumstantial clauses at the head of narrative chapters. With respect to Genesis 1:2, however, the fronted subject, Fig. is completely forgotten in the

¹⁸⁰ Other types of episode-initial circumstantial clauses beginning a narrative chapter can be classified into three main groups: those that introduce genealogies or lists (Gen 10:1; 36:1; Exod 1:1; Num 3:1; Josh 12:1; 14:1; Judg 3:1; 2 Sam 23:1; 1 Chr 3:1; 5:1; 7:1; 8:1; 9:1; 12:1; 27:1; Ezra 2:1; Neh 12:1); those that are fronted with a time-frame reference rather than the subject (1 Kgs 15:1; 2 Chr 23:1; Ezra 1:1; 7:1; Neh 9:1; Esth 9:1; Dan 2:1; 12:1); and those that introduce a new set of laws or instructions, which are not really the head of a narrative episode (Exod 21:1:1; 26:1; 29:1; Num 29:1; Deut 4:1; 6:1). Since Gen 1:2 does not fit any of these types, they are not valid parallels and need no further analysis. (Some of these types may not even be circumstantial clauses at all. Andersen refers to those clauses found in genealogical lists as pseudo-circumstantial clauses. Andersen, *Sentence*, 88.)

¹⁸¹In Ruth 2:1 the fronted element of the circumstantial clause is not the subject, but it is referenced again in the following *waw*-consecutive clause. The subject of the clause, however, is referenced in the discourse introduced by the *waw*-consecutive clause. In 1 Kgs 7:1 the fronted element is also not the subject; however, both the subject and the fronted element are named again in the following *waw*-consecutive clause.

¹⁸²Modern English translations make Gen 32:2 the first verse of chapter 32, which makes the verse a circumstantial marker of a new narrative episode at the head of a narrative chapter.

¹⁸³ In the circumstantial clause of Judg 21:1 the fronted element, אָישׁ יִשְׂרָאֵל, is renamed הָּעָם in the following waw-consecutive clause of the narrative sequence. (Judg 21:6-7 seems to confirm that the two substantives refer to one another.) In the circumstantial clause of 2 Sam 16:1 the fronted element, דָּוֹדְ, is renamed הַּמֶּלֶךְ in the following waw-consecutive clause. Lastly, in the circumstantial clause of 2 Kgs 8:1 the fronted element, אֱלִישָׁע הָּאֱלֹהִים in the following מַּמֶּלֶרְ is renamed אֵלִישָׁע הָאֶלֹהִים in the following clause.

¹⁸⁴ Exod 24:1 and 39:1 are two anomolous cases. In both verses the fronted element is not the subject. The subject of both circumstantial clauses is not even named, which seems exceptional for these kinds of constructions. However, in Exod 24:1 the fronted element is named again in the following *waw*-consecutive clause, while in Exod 39:1 the subject of the circumstantial clause is also the subject of the following *waw*-consecutive clause.

following *waw*-consecutive clause. In fact, it is almost forgotten in the rest of the narrative episode, which suggests that in all probability Genesis 1:2 is not this type of circumstantial clause.¹⁸⁵

There are, however, exceptions to this norm. Some episode-initial circumstantial clauses do not have the previously described characteristic. With respect to Genesis 4:1; 43:1; Numbers 32:1; Joshua 6:1; Ruth 2:1; 1 Samuel 3:1; 2 Kings 5:1; 8:1; and 10:1, the subjects of these circumstantial clauses are not referenced again, in the following *waw*-consecutive clause of the narrative chain. However, in 1 Samuel 3:1; 186 2 Kings 5:1; 8:1; and 10:1, 187 the subject is referenced in the next *waw*-consecutive clause, and in Numbers 32:1 and Joshua 6:1 the subject is referenced in the following non-*waw*-consecutive clause. These subjects are also referenced again at other points in the following narrative episode. Again, this is not the case with Genesis 1:2.

With respect to Genesis 4:1 and 43:1, however, the subject of the circumstantial clause, like Genesis 1:2, is not mentioned again in the following *waw*-consecutive clause, nor in the rest of the narrative episode. The subjects of these two verses, however, are introduced in the preceding episodes, so the reader has already been

אָרֶץ, in contradistinction to the sea, יָם, waltke also argues this point. See Waltke, Old Testament Theology, 180. The larger container of the אֶרֶץ in Gen 1:2, which is in contradistinction to the heavens, שָׁמִים, is only referenced again at the end of the narrative episode in Gen 2:1 and 2:4.

¹⁸⁶ The following waw-consecutive clause in the narrative of episode of 1 Sam 3:1 begins at 1 Sam 3:2 with the verb יְּהָה'. Most discourse-oriented grammars, however, do not recognize waw-consecutive clauses beginning with the verb לָהָה to be markers of mainline narrative commentary. According to this perspective then, the mainline waw-consecutive narrative would not begin until 1 Sam 3:4 with the verb יֵרְיִּקְרָא in which case the subject of the circumstantial clause of 1 Sam 3:1 would be referenced in the next waw-consecutive clause.

¹⁸⁷In 2 Kgs 10:1 the fronted element is not the subject; however, it is named again in the second *waw*-consecutive clause. The subject of the circumstantial clause, however, seems to be implied in the same clause as the fronted element (cf. ESV, NASB).

¹⁸⁸The subject of the circumstantial clause in Gen 4:1, אָדָם, is mentioned again in the narrative episode, but not until almost its conclusion at 4:25.

made aware of their existence before attention is shifted to them in the circumstantial construction. If Genesis 1:2 acts in a similar manner, then the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 would most likely refer back to the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:1, but again, proponents of the summary-statement interpretation argue that the two identical words cannot correspond to one another. However, even if they did correspond to one another, Genesis 1:2 would then most likely be syntactically related to 1:1, and 1:2 would no longer be an episode-initial circumstantial clause. In either instance, since the subject of Genesis 1:2 is not referenced again in the following waw-consecutive clause nor the following narrative, the evidence strongly suggests that 1:2 is not an episode-initial circumstantial clause. Thus, Genesis 1:2 does not syntactically relate to 1:3 in this manner.

Genesis 1:2 as an inter-clausal circumstantial clause. As previously discussed, Genesis 1:2 could be an inter-clausal circumstantial clause, in which case it may be syntactically related to Genesis 1:3 in a more dependent manner than the episode-initial circumstantial clause. Young seems to argue that it is possible for the two verses to syntactically relate to one another in this manner. He states,

The second possibility is to construe the three circumstantial clauses [of Genesis 1:2] with the verb ייאמֶר of verse three. We may then paraphrase, "At the time when God said, 'Let there be light', a three-fold condition was in existence, namely, etc.". On this construction we are not told how long this three-fold condition had been in existence, whether for years or merely moments. Nor is the creation of the three-fold condition explicitly stated. But we are now in a position to understand the relationship of verse one to what follows. 189

Young's argument makes the summary-statement interpretation syntactically possible, but the nature of this type of circumstantial clauses makes his argument doubtful. 190

Circumstantial clauses at the inter-clausal level do not precede, but rather follow the clauses to which they are syntactically related. Joüon states,

¹⁸⁹Young, "Relation of the First Verse of Genesis," 141.

¹⁹⁰Again, this is the typical circumstantial clause as defined by most standard grammars. See footnote 172.

The circumstantial clause can be understood in a broader or narrower sense. Here we shall be content to give the main general types of circumstantial clause, since certain categories, notably the circumstantial clause of time, have to be treated separately. *Most circumstantial clauses follow their main clause* (but see § f below), and the subject occupies the initial slot [(emphasis mine)]. ¹⁹¹

Furthermore, considering that some circumstantial clauses can be syntactically related to their main clauses in a paratactic, rather than hypotactic, construction, ¹⁹² the *waw* of the inter-clausal circumstantial clause seems to purposefully link it to the preceding clause rather than the following.

Young, however, knows that this is the dominate characteristic of circumstantial clauses. Thus, he counters that it is also possible for some to precede their main clauses. He states,

There are several examples in the Old Testament of circumstantial clauses which precede the verb with which they are to be construed, *e.g.*, Gen. 38:25; Num. 12:14; Josh. 2:18; 1 Sam. 9:11; 1 Kings 14:17; 2 Kings 2:23; 6:5, 26; 9:25; Job 1:16; Isa. 37:38. 193

These examples cited by Young are indeed instances in which the preceding clause is dependent in thought upon a following main clause verb. However, in all of Young's examples, with the exception of Numbers 12:14, 194 they are a special construction whose specifically marked syntax is used to denote simultaneous action between the preceding clause and the verb of the main clause. 195 The typical pattern for such constructions is the following: [(waw) + subject + participle] + [waw + subject + perfect verb]. Consider

¹⁹¹Joüon § 159a. Paragraph 159f, mentioned in this excerpt, describes a different type of clause and is discussed in the following section.

¹⁹²GKC § 156a; Joüon § 159b-c.

¹⁹³Young, "Relation of the First Verse of Genesis," 141 n. 15.

¹⁹⁴Young's citation of Numbers 12:14 is confusing since it does not even seem to be a circumstantial clause.

¹⁹⁵GKC § 116u-v.

¹⁹⁶In Josh 2:18 the verb of the main clause is imperfect. The construction, however, is still grammatically marked to denote future instantaneous action between the two clauses. See Joüon § 166i. In Josh 2:18 and 2 Kgs 6:5, the direct object is fronted instead of the subject of the main clause.

Young's examples:

Genesis 38:25a

הָוא מוּצָאת וָהִיא שָׁלְחָה אֵל־חָמִיהָ

While she was being brought out, she sent for her father-in-law

Joshua 2:18a

הַנָהָ אַנַחָנוּ בָאָרִץ אַת־תִּקוֹת חוּט הַשָּׁנִי הַזֵּה תִּקשׁרִי בַחַלּוֹן

Behold, when we come into the land, you will tie this scarlet cord of thread in the window

1 Samuel 9:11a

בָּמָה עֹלִים בְּמַעֲלֵה הָעִּיר וְהַמֶּה מָצְאָוּ נְעָרוֹת יֹצְאָוֹת לְשְׁאָב מָיָם

While they were going up the ascent of the city, they found young women coming out to draw water

1 Kings 14:17b

הַיא בָּאָה בְסַף־הַבַּיִת וְהַנַּעֵר מֵת:

When she came into the threshold of the house, the child died

2 Kings 2:23a

וָהָוֹא עֹלֵה בַדָּבֶךָ וּנָעַרִים קְטַנִּים יָצָאָוּ מִן־הָעִיר

Now while he was going on the way, small lads came out from the city

2 Kings 6:5a

וַיְהַי הָאֶחָד מַּפְּיל הַקּוֹרָה וְאֶת־הַבַּרְזֶל נְפַל אֶל־הַמְּיֵם

And it was that while one was felling the log, the iron axe head fell into the water

2 Kings 6:26a

וַיָהִי מֶלֶךְ יִשְׂרָאֵׁל עֹבֶר עַל־הַחֹמָה וְאִשָּׁה צָעֵקָה אֵלָיו

And it was while the king of Israel was passing by the wall, a woman cried out to him

2 Kings 9:25b

כִּי־זְכّר אָנִי וָאַתָּה אַת **רֹכְבִים** צְמָדִים אַחֲרֵי אַחְאָב אָבִּיו וַיְהוָה **בְּשָׂא** עַלָּיו אֵת־הַמַּשָּׂא הַזֵּה:

For remember how while you and I were riding together behind Ahab, his father, the Lord lifted up against him this oracle

Job 1:16a

עוֹד זֶה מִדְבָּר וְזֵה בָּא

While this one was speaking, another came

Isaiah 37:38a

וַיָהִי הוּא מֵשִׁתַּחֵוֹה בֵּית נָסְרֹךָ אֱלֹהָיו וַאַדְרַמֵּלֶךְ וְשַׂרְאָצֵר בָּנָיו הְכָּהוּ בַחֵּרֵב

And it was that while he was worshipping in the temple of Nisroch his god, Adrammelech and Sharezer, his sons, struck him with the sword

According to Joüon, in these special types of constructions, the action of the preceding clause is durative while the action of the main clause is instantaneous. However, the relationship between Genesis 1:2 and 1:3 clearly does not fit this syntactical structure, nor does it denote instantaneous action between the two clauses. Thus, Genesis 1:2 cannot relate to Genesis 1:3 in the manner described by Young. 198

There are thousands upon thousands of circumstantial clauses in the Hebrew Old Testament. Thus, even though Young's examples do not parallel the manner in which Genesis 1:2 might be syntactically related to Genesis 1:3, it seems likely that there should be at least some parallel examples of circumstantial clauses preceding their main clauses in the Hebrew Old Testament. However, the overwhelming syntactical feature of these circumstantial clauses is that they follow their main clauses, and even Young is hard

¹⁹⁷Joüon § 166f.

¹⁹⁸Unfortunately, Waltke cites Young's examples as syntactical evidence that circumstantial clauses can precede their main clause. See Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 227. (Waltke's citation incorrectly notes page 15 of Young's work *Studies in Genesis One*; the correct page number is 9.)

pressed to find any proper examples. This dominant syntactical feature of the circumstantial clause strongly suggests that if Genesis 1:2 is this type of clause, it is syntactically related to Genesis 1:1, not 1:3. Furthermore, the close proximity of the word אָרֶץ in Genesis 1:2 to the identical word אָרֶץ in 1:1, makes it even more likely that Genesis 1:2 is syntactically related to Genesis 1:1 instead of 1:3. There is, however, another possible way in which Genesis 1:2 could relate to 1:3.

Genesis 1:2 as a parenthetical construction. It is possible that Genesis 1:2, with its waw + subject + verb structure, is used in a parenthetical construction to supply background information relevant to the narrative. However, whether or not such a parenthetical construction is another type of circumstantial clause is difficult to determine. On the one hand, Lambdin's grammar, *Introduction to Hebrew*, and Joüon distinguish between circumstantial clauses and parenthetical constructions—Lambdin admits that the distinction is not easy. On the other hand Andersen categorizes such parenthetical constructions as circumstantial clauses. The difficulty with determining whether such constructions are circumstantial or not is that they seem to be more independent in nature. Rather than expressing a thought that is subordinate to the action of a main verb, they seem to express an independent thought that may or may not be germane to the narrative at hand. Joüon states, "Sometimes it is not easy to see whether a

¹⁹⁹ Many proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that Gen 1:2 is a parenthetical construction. See W. R. Lane, "The Initiation of Creation," *Vetus Testamentum* 13 (1963): 70–71; E. A. Speiser, *Genesis*, The Anchor Bible (Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1964), 12; Harry Orlinsky, foreword to *Genesis: The N. J. V. Translation* (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Harper Torch Books; Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, The Temple Library, 1966), xv; Brown, *Structure, Role, and Ideology*, 73. However, Orlinsky and Brown understand such clauses to be syntactically dependent.

²⁰⁰Joüon § 159f; Lambdin, *Introduction to Hebrew*, § 132b-c. Joüon does analyze these parenthetical constructions under the circumstantial heading, but it also makes a clear distinction between the two clause types.

²⁰¹Andersen, Sentence, 82.

given clause (especially participial) is purely circumstantial; it can form a sort of more or less independent parenthesis, or it can even be totally independent."²⁰²

The function of the clause, however, is more important than its taxonomy. Such parenthetical constructions, whether they should be considered circumstantial or not, can supply background information that is relevant to the narrative that follows rather than the narrative that precedes. Joüon states,

On the other hand, a nominal or verbal clause with Waw forms a sort of parenthesis and precedes the main clause, as in Gn 13.2 אַרָרֶם כָּבֶּד מָאֹד now Abram was very rich ..; 24.16 now the young girl was very beautiful..; Jn 3.3 now Nineveh was an enormous city; Gn 48.10 אָרָרָם כָּבְּדוֹּ מִינְּקֵוֹ מִשְּׁרָאֵל כָּבְּדוֹּ מִינְּקֵוֹ now the eyes of Israel were heavy because of old age; Josh 4.10 "whilst the priests .. stood (עַמְרָיִם) in the middle of the Jordan .. the people hurriedly crossed over (וְיַמַבְּרוֹ וְיַעֲבֹרוֹ)." This same type of clause is also found used in an independent fashion: 1 Kg 1.1 (at the very beginning of a narrative) now King David was old, advanced in age; Gn 37.3 now Israel loved Joseph more than any other son of his; Ex 19.18 now the mountain of Sinai was all smoking.²⁰³

Some of these cited examples are debatable,²⁰⁴ but others, such as Genesis 13:2; 37:3; and Jonah 3:3, do clearly supply background information relevant to the narrative that follows.²⁰⁵ The relationship, however, between the parenthetical construction and the following narrative is more semantic than syntactic. Thus, if Genesis 1:2 functions in this manner, then it is extremely likely that the verse could semantically relate to Genesis 1:3 without being syntactically dependent upon it like a typical circumstantial clause.²⁰⁶

²⁰²Joüon § 159a n. 1.

²⁰³Ibid., § 159f.

²⁰⁴Not all of these examples seem to supply background information that is relevant to the following narratives. Josh 4:10 seems to supply information that is relevant to the preceding narrative, so the translation offered in this excerpt seems to be incorrect (cf. ESV, NASB). Gen 24:16 and Exod 19:18 seem to supply background information, but neither seem to be relevant to the preceding or following narratives. 1 Kgs 1:1 is an episode-initial circumstantial clause, whose type has already been discussed.

²⁰⁵Lambdin also cites Gen 29:16 as a parenthetical construction. This verse also supplies background information that is relevant to the following narrative. See Lambdin, *Introduction to Hebrew*, § 132c.

²⁰⁶Jongeling does not distinguish between such parenthetical constructions and episode-initial circumstantial clauses; however, he does seem to argue that Genesis 1:2 does function in a more parenthetical manner in its relationship to Genesis 1:3. See Jongeling, "Remarks," 29–31.

It is doubtful, however, that if Genesis 1:2 relates to Genesis 1:3 in this manner, its subject, אָּבֶּדְץ, would not still relate to the אֶבֶּדְץ of Genesis 1:1. In these types of parenthetical constructions the subject tends to be introduced in the preceding narrative before it is brought to the forefront of the parenthetical construction, and this is indeed the case with all of Joüon's cited examples. Driver also states,

In consequence of the subject thus standing conspicuously in the foreground, the reader's attention is suddenly arrested, and directed pointedly to it: he is thus made aware that it is the writer's wish to lay special stress upon it as about to be contrasted, in respect of the predicate following, either with some *other* subject mentioned before, or else with the same subject under a *different* aspect (i.e. with a different predicate) previously mentioned or implied.²⁰⁷

Commenting on the construction of Genesis 1:2, Cassuto states,

Whenever the subject comes before the predicate, as here [in Gen 1:2], the intention of the Bible is to give emphasis to the subject and to tell us something new about it; see for instance, iii 1: *Now the serpent was cunning*, etc. (the serpent had not previously been mentioned by name, but was merely implied in the general term *beast of the field* - ii 19, 20). But in most cases, including our own, the subject has already been mentioned earlier, and the verse comes to focus the reader's attention on it; e.g. [Gen] iv 1, 18 (four times); vii 16, 19; x 8, 9, 13, 15, 24, 26; xi 12, 14; xiii 14; xviii 17, 18; xx 4; xxi 1; xxii 23; etc., etc. It is as though Scripture said: 'As for this subject, I have to tell you that this is what happened, or what he did, or what befell him'. Here, too, the meaning is: 'As for the earth alluded to in the first verse, I must tell you that at the beginning of its creation, it was without form or life,' etc.²⁰⁸

Since the focus of the narrative shifts from the consecutive sequences of the main verbs to the subject of the parenthetical construction, the subject needs a prior introduction in order to aid the reader in knowing that further information is being communicated about the previously introduced subject. If the subject has yet to be introduced into the preceding narrative, then the use of the parenthetical construction seems almost out of place and irrelevant.²⁰⁹ Thus, even though, Genesis 1:2 may relate to 1:3 in this manner,

²⁰⁷Driver, *Tenses*, § 157.

²⁰⁸U. Cassuto, From Adam to Noah: A Commentary on Genesis I-VI 8, vol. 1 of A Commentary on the Book of Genesis, trans. Israel Abrahams (Jerusalem: The Magnes Press, The Hebrew University, 1961), 21.

²⁰⁹One such example is Gen 13:7. The subjects of the parenthetical construction are not mentioned in the preceding narrative. Thus, the construction almost seems out of place in the microcosm of

the fronted subject of Genesis 1:2, אֶּרֶץ, needs a prior introduction to which it can point back. If Genesis 1:2 is this type of parenthetical construction, it is logical to assume that the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 points back to and corresponds to the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:1. This is especially so considering the proximal correspondence of the two identical words. 210

There are, however, exceptions to this norm. With respect to the parenthetical constructions in such verses as Genesis 13:7; Exodus 9:31-32; and Ruth 4:7, the fronted element is not introduced in the preceding narrative, and in the cases of Exodus 9:31-32 and Ruth 4:7, the parenthetical constructions do supply background information relevant to the narrative that follows. Thus, theoretically Genesis 1:2 could relate to Genesis 1:3 in this manner without the subject, אֶרֶץ, corresponding to the אֶרֶץ of Genesis 1:1. This arrangement, however, would be extremely odd. Since the subject in parenthetical constructions is usually introduced in the preceding narrative, for reasons already explained, it would be confusing to the reader if the אֶרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 actually did *not* correspond to the אֶרֶץ of Genesis 1:1. If Genesis 1:2 is a parenthetical construction,

the narrative. This is not to say that the construction actually is out of place. It only appears that way to a reader.

²¹⁰Even Jongeling, a summary-statement proponent, recognizes the characteristic of the parenthetical construction to look back to the preceding narrative. He states, "There is a connection [of Gen 1:2] with verse 1, but the copula does not make plain that 'the earth' of verse 1 is 'the waste earth' of verse 2 as some exegetes assert. . . . In my opinion Gen. I, 1 is a concise statement about the whole of God's work of creation, in which the expression 'the heaven and the earth' designates the visible reality. Verse 2 is an introductory remark which may be paraphrased as follows: 'Now the reader must not think that this work [in Gen 1:1] was done in a trice; no, the earth was inhospitable and uninhabitable ...'" Jongeling, "Remarks," 31. Interestingly, however, he does not perceive that the subject of verse 2, אַרִי, looks back to Genesis 1:1 even though earlier he recognizes that the subjects of other such constructions are generally mentioned in the preceding narratives.

²¹¹ Waltke does use the literary parallels of Gen 2:5-6, Gen 3:1, and the introductory portion of Enûma Elish to demonstrate that the circumstantial clause of Gen 1:2 can relate to Gen 1:3. See Waltke, "Creation Account, Part III," 226–27. While these parallels seem to be more literary than syntactical, Gen 2:5-6 can certainly function as a syntactical parallel to Gen 1:2 if both 2:5-6 and 1:2 are treated as parenthetical clauses. (The literary comparison with Gen 3:1 is not a syntactical parallel since Gen 3:1 is an episode-initial circumstantial clause.) Like Gen 1:2, Gen 2:5-6 do begin with the construction of waw + noun + verb. However, the fronted noun phrases of Gen 2:5-6 (מַשֶּׁהָ בְּלִּיעֲשֶׁב הַשְּׁדָה, כִּלֹ שִׁיהַ הַשְּׂדָה, כִל שִׁיהַ הַשְּׂדָה, which is possible for parenthetical clauses. Whereas, the fronted noun of Genesis 1:2, אָבֶרץ, does immediately occur in Gen 1:1, which again strongly suggests that the מַבְּרָי שֵׁב וּ strongly suggests that the בוֹב is the same מְבָּרְי שֵׁ of Gen 1:1. Later in the same article Waltke uses the examples of Jon 3:3; Zech

then the nature of such constructions strongly suggests that the אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:2 corresponds with the אֶבֶץ of Genesis 1:1 even if 1:2 supplies background information relevant to the following narrative. Again, both the syntax of the passage and the proximal correspondence of the two identical words bring Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 together into semantic and syntactic continuity. To argue the contrary is to argue against the straightforward syntax of the text.

A Plainer Syntactical Reading of the Text

There is plainer and simpler reading of the syntactical relationships between the aggregate clauses of Genesis 1:1-3. Genesis 1:1 introduces a normal narrative clause in which the mainline action carries over both temporally and sequentially into Genesis 1:3. The nominal clause of Genesis 1:2²¹⁴ breaks into this narrative sequence in order to supply the reader with background information.²¹⁵ This is the traditional syntactical reading of the passage that has been the norm for centuries.

^{3:2-3;} and Judg 8:11 to argue against rendering the הָּיָה of Gen 1:2 in its active, pluperfect sense. See ibid., 227-28. These three examples also have the specific construction of waw + subject + perfect verb, and all three are parenthetical clauses. Since the fronted nouns in these examples are introduced in the preceding narrative, and since their syntactical construction is identical to Gen 1:2, they seem to be better syntactical parallels to the verse than Gen 2:5-6.

²¹²If Gen 1:2 is a parenthetical construction, then it most likely supplies background information that is relevant to both the preceding and following narrative.

²¹³Collins argues that Gen 1:2 is syntactically related to Gen 1:1. However, he argues that both verses are not on the main storyline. They rather describe events that precede the main storyline. John C. Collins, *Genesis 1–4: A Linguistic, Literary, and Theological Commentary* (Phillipsburg, NJ: P&R Publishing, 2006), 51–55. In other words Gen 1:1 is the first act of creation, but it took place some time before the first day of creation. This view takes into consideration the narrative structure of the passage, and it is compatible with the traditional interpretation.

²¹⁴Childs labels Gen 1:2 as a nominal clause with circumstantial force. See Childs, *Myth and Reality*, 32.

²¹⁵According to this reading, one could identify Gen 1:2 as a parenthetical clause, as the previous section demonstrates. In this dissertation the only difference between treating Gen 1:2 as either a parenthetical clause or a nominal clause is for the most part a matter of nomenclature.

There are two reasons why this reading of the text is plainer and simpler than the summary-statement interpretation. First, there are a number of constructions that parallel the narrative structure and sequence that exists between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. In these parallel constructions, the introductory narrative clause begins with a temporal prepositional phrase that is followed by the mainline verb and then its subject. This introductory clause is then followed by a *waw*-consecutive clause that both sequentially and temporally continues the mainline action. Consider the following examples:

2 Kings 20:1a

In those days Hezekiah began to die, and Isaiah, son of Amoz, the prophet, came to him

2 Kings 24:1

In his days, Nebuchadnezzar, the king of Babylon came up, and he made Jehoiakim his servant for three years, but he turned and rebelled against him.

2 Chronicles 32:24

In those days Hezekiah began to die, and he prayed to the LORD, and He answered him with a sign which He gave to him.

Esther 9:11-12a

Jeremiah 39:2-3a

בּקעָיה הָבֶקעָה הָצָדְקּיָּהוּ בַּתֹדֶשׁ הָרְבִיעִי בְּתִשְׁעָה לַאַדְקּיָּהוּ בַּקֹנֶה הָרָבִיעִי בְּתִשְׁעָה

¹¹On that day the number of those killed in Susa came to the palace before the king. ¹²And the king said to Esther, the queen

יַנְיָבֹאוּ כָּל שָׁרֵי מֵלֵדְ־בָּבֶּל וַיֵּשְׁבָוּ בִּשַׁעַר הַתָּוָדְ

²In the eleventh year of Zedekiah, in the fourth month on the ninth of the month, the city was breached.

³And all the officials of the king of Babylon came, and they sat in the middle gate

Daniel 1:1

בִּשְׁנַת שָׁלוֹשׁ לְמַלְכָוּת יְהוֹיָקֵים מֶלֶדְ־יְהוּדָה בָּא נְבוּכַדְנָאצֵר מֶלֶדְ־בָּבֶל יִרוּשַׁלַם וַיַּצֵר עַלֵיהַ:

In the third year of the reign of Jehoiakim, king of Judah, Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, came to Jerusalem, and he besieged it.

In these examples, there is no interruption in the narrative sequence like there is in Genesis 1:1-3; nevertheless, they demonstrate the plain and simple syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3.

The second reason for this simpler reading of Genesis 1:1-3 is that the nominal clause of Genesis 1:2 interjects a natural disruption into the narrative sequence between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. Like other nominal clauses, the natural purpose of Genesis 1:2 is to break into the narrative sequence, arrest the reader's attention, and focus it on the fronted subject, the אָרֶץ. This interruption in the narrative is a signal to the reader that background information relevant to the narrative is being communicated. Furthermore, like most fronted subjects in a nominal clause, the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 looks back to a previously introduced referent: the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:1. Again, the nominal clause of Genesis 1:2 naturally interrupts the naturally structured narrative sequence between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. This is the plainest and simplest reading of the text.

A close parallel to the aggregate syntactical relationships of Genesis 1:1-3 is

²¹⁶This author uses the term "nominal clause" in the same manner as the Arab grammarians. According to Arab grammarians, a nominal clause is any clause in which the subject occupies the first position even if a verb is present in the predicate. Cf. GKC § 140f and Joüon § 153 n. 2. Thus, not all nominal clauses are verbless. Niccacci states, "The following definition [of the nominal/noun clause], which follows the model of Arabic grammarians, is better suited to Hebrew syntax than the generally accepted definition: a verbal clause tells us *what the subject does*, in other words, what the action is; a noun clause tells us *who the subject is.*" Niccacci, *Syntax of the Verb*, § 6.

ַּנְיוֹם הַהֹּוֹא נָתֵּן הַמֶּלֶךְ אֲחַשְׁוֵרוֹשׁ לְאֶסְתֵּר הַמַּלְבֶּה אֶת־בֵּית הָמָן צֹרֵר הַנְּיוֹם הַהֹּוֹא נָתָן הַמָּלֶךְ אֲחַשְׁוֵרוֹשׁ לְאָסְתֵּר הַמִּלְבָּה אֶת־בֵּית הָמָן בֹיְהוּדִּיִם וּמְרָדֲּכָי בָּא לִפְנֵי הַמֶּלֶךְ בִּי־הִגִּידָה אֶסְתֵּר מַה הוּא־לֵה: יַנְּיָסֵר הַמֶּלֶךְ אֶת־טַבַּעְתוֹ אֲשֶׁר הֶעֲבִיר מֵהָמָן וַיִּתְּנָה לְמָרְדֶּכָי וַתְּשֶׂם אֶסְתֵּר אֶת־מַרְדֶּכַי עַל־בֵּית הָמָן:

¹On that day King Ahasuerus gave to Esther, the queen, the house of Haman, the enemy of the Jews. Now Mordecai came before the King because Esther had declared what he was to her.

²And the king took his ring, which he had taken from Haman, and he gave it to Mordecai, and Esther placed Mordecai over the house of Haman.

In this parallel example, Esther 8:1a introduces a narrative clause in which the mainline action carries over both temporally and sequentially into Esther 8:2. The nominal clause of Esther 8:1b breaks into this narrative sequence in order to supply the reader with background information. Like Genesis 1:1, Esther 8:1a begins with a temporal prepositional phrase that is followed by the mainline perfect verb and then its subject. Like Genesis 1:2, Esther 8:1b interjects a nominal clause that disrupts the mainline action sequence. This interruption also shifts attention to the fronted subject, of the nominal clause. Although the fronted subject is not named in the immediately preceding clause of Esther 8:1a, it is a main participant in the preceding narrative. Thus, in this sense, the fronted subject also looks back to a prior introduction in the narrative. Like Genesis 1:3, Esther 8:2 begins with a waw-consecutive clause and resumes the narrative sequence. This plain and simple syntactical reading of the text makes Genesis 1:1 the first mainline action of the narrative. With respect to the interpretation, it makes Genesis 1:1 the first act of creation.

Syntactical Conclusion

The syntactical evidence suggests that Genesis 1:2 is best understood as a

 $^{^{217}}$ The fronted subject of the nominal clause, אֶרְדֶּכִי, is actually named in the preceding verse: Esth 7:10.

nominal clause that interrupts the narrative sequence between Genesis 1:1 and 1:3. This syntactical relationship is mostly attributed to the structure of Genesis 1:2 in which the fronted subject אָרֶץ looks back to the previously introduced אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:1. Since the אָרֶץ of Genesis 1:2 is in such close proximity to the preceding אָרֶץ of 1:1, there is no syntactical reason to assume that it does not correspond in meaning and state to the אָרֶץ of 1:1. Rather than pulling the two verses apart, the syntactical evidence clearly brings them together. Thus, as previously suggested, in order for the summary-statement interpretation to be more probable than the traditional interpretation, Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 cannot syntactically relate to one another. Proponents of the summary-statement interpretation argue against semantic continuity between the two verses at the lexical level, but at the syntactical level, summary-statement proponents must argue in spite of the syntactical evidence. Again, the traditional interpretation is the plainer and simpler reading of the text, working with the syntactical evidence, not against it.

Conclusion

The following discussion demonstrates that with respect to the text of Genesis 1:1-3, the summary-statement interpretation is a more difficult reading of the text while the traditional interpretation is plainer and simpler. With respect to the lexical data, the אָרֶץ in Genesis 1:1 and the consecutively occurring אָרֶץ in Genesis 1:2 seem to naturally correspond to one another, but summary-statement proponents argue that they cannot because they have differing meanings and states. This chapter has shown, however, that the two words can correspond to one another in meaning even if the former occurs in the compound phrase אַת הַאָּרֶץ וֹאַת הָאָרֶץ וֹאַת הַאָּרֶץ וֹאַת הַאָּרֶץ וֹאַת הַאָּרֶץ in Genesis 1:1. This chapter has also shown that the two words can correspond to one another in state even if the latter is described as being in a state of אֹה וֹבּה וֹבֹהוֹ in Genesis 1:2. If the two words can correspond to one another in meaning and state, then the plainer and simpler reading of the text, the traditional interpretation, treats them in this manner.

With respect to the syntactical data, the structure of Genesis 1:2 strongly suggests that it is syntactically related to Genesis 1:1, but summary-statement proponents argue that Genesis 1:2 is syntactically related to Genesis 1:3. This chapter has demonstrated, however, that such a syntactical relationship between Genesis 1:2 and 1:3 is difficult and contrary to the natural syntax of the passage. If the natural syntax of the passage suggests that Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 relate to one another, then the plainer and simpler reading of the text, the traditional interpretation, treats it in this manner. Overall the proximal correspondence of the two occurrences of אָרֶץ and the syntactical construction of Genesis 1:2 bring it and Genesis 1:1 together into semantic continuity. Thus, the traditional interpretation is more faithful to the lexical and syntactical evidences in particular and more faithful to the principles of Classical-Hebrew linguistics in general.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The Theological Implications

As noted in the first two chapters of this dissertation, the majority of scholars from both the Christian and Jewish traditions have long appraised the traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 as the truest reading of the text. According to this understanding of the passage, Genesis 1:1 describes the first act of creation, without any mention of previously existing elements. Because of this interpretation, many of these same scholars have also long appraised the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* as a logical and theological inference of the Genesis 1 narrative. However, as this dissertation has also noted, many more modern scholars identify Genesis 1:3 as the first act of creation, in which case there is no explanation for the origin of the elements of Genesis 1:2, which are present at and before the moment of first creation. Because of this interpretation, many of these same scholars do *not* recognize the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* as a logical and theological inference of the creation narrative, and rightly so. According to this understanding of the text, something is already present when God begins to create.

Such major doctrinal differences are clearly delineated by one's interpretation of Genesis 1:1, which determines whether God starts the act of creation in Genesis 1:1 or in Genesis 1:3. If God begins creating in Genesis 1:1, then nothing is described as being present at that initial creation, and therefore, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is a logical and theological inference of the narrative. If God begins creating in Genesis 1:3, then the elements of Genesis 1:2 are described as being present at that initial creation, and

therefore, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is not communicated in the narrative.

Orlinsky, a proponent of the dependent-clause translation apply states,

The implications of the new, correct rendering are clear. The Hebrew text tells us nothing about "creation out of nothing" (creatio ex nihilo), or about the beginning of time; it has nothing to say about the order of creation, so far as heaven, earth, darkness, deep, wind, or water are concerned. Indeed, the last four elements are not even described as having been created by God; the text merely asserts that these elements were present when God began to create the universe. What, then, constituted the first act of creation, if it wasn't any of heaven, earth, darkness, etc.? The text, once again gives us the answer directly, in verse 3: "(when God began to create the heaven and the earth . . .) God said, 'Let there be light'; and there was light." In other words, the first thing God did when he created the world was to create light. . . . Naturally, there are those who are upset by this old-new interpretation. "When did time begin?" they ask. "What existed in the beginning? Who created the darkness and the water and the deep? And is there no longer any beginning? And what happens to the theological concept of creatio ex nihilo?" And so on. Now every scholar or committee of scholars that assumes the responsibility of producing an authorized translation of the Bible for members of a religious group is aware of the difficulties that may arise as a consequence of the translation achieved for such "delicate" passages as Genesis 1.1-3. But the reply by the biblical scholar to such questions can only be: We know only what the Hebrew text of the Bible tells us. If the ancient Hebrew writer did not think about these things, or if he did, did not care to bother his readers with them, it is not for us to read into his text what he did not put into it; and anyone who does this is simply not being faithful to his biblical Hebraic source.1

Also Barr, a proponent of the summary-statement interpretation also states,

"Creation by separation" is a good term to describe the major thrust of the passage. The main emphasis is not on a process from nothing to something, from nonexistence to existence, but on a process from confusion to distinction, from chaos to order. Some of the things created do appear to be absolutely created, as if out of nothing, like the light; others seem to "emerge naturally," like plants, which the earth "brings forth"; others again seem to have been there from the beginning and simply to have been demarcated, like the land and sea. And the chaos of 1:2 seems to have been not just a negation of existence but to have been a source from which certain elements in the created world were drawn. . . . Second, we come back to the theme of creation out of nothing. We have seen that this is not the main theme of Genesis 1, and perhaps of any canonical Old Testament passage. In Genesis, some things, like light, are created out of nothing; others, like land and water, seem to be there already. If so, we may say that creation out of nothing is not a central affirmation of the passage.²

¹Harry Orlinsky, foreword to *Genesis: The N. J. V. Translation* (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Harper Torch Books; Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, The Temple Library, 1966), xv.

²James Barr, "Was Everything That God Created Really Good?" in *God in the Fray: A Tribute to Walter Brueggeman*, ed. Tod Linafelt and Timothy K. Beal (Minneapolis: Fortress Press, 1998), 59–60, 65.

Thus, because of the doctrinal issues at stake in this debate, this dissertation has challenged the linguistic validity of both the dependent-clause translation and the summary-statement interpretation. The preceding investigation suggests that the simplest and most faithful reading of the text reckons Genesis 1:1 to be the first act of creation, while the more difficult and improbable interpretation reckons Genesis 1:3 to be the first act of creation. Consider again the conclusions of the linguistic data.

The Dependent-Clause Translation

Again, proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue that the first word in Genesis 1:1, בְּרֵאשִׁית, is in construct with the verb בְּרָא . This grammatical construction creates a dependent clause, which most proponents argue is subordinate to the main clause of Genesis 1:3, Genesis 1:2 being an intervening parenthetical comment. Genesis 1:1-3 is thus rendered in the NJPS as, "When God began to create heaven and earth—the earth being unformed and void, with darkness over the surface of the deep and a wind from God sweeping over the water—God said, 'Let there be light'; and there was light." According to this translation, Genesis 1:1 is not the first act of creation; rather, it, along with Genesis 1:2, is a description of the context in which the first act of creation takes place, the creation of light in Genesis 1:3. There is no explanation of whence the elements in Genesis 1:2 came; the chapter does not state that God created them. Thus, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* cannot be a logical inference of the text with the dependent-clause translation.

As Chapter 3 has noted, the main reason proponents of the dependent-clause translation argue for this rendering is because the word בַאשִׁית, anarthrous in the text of Genesis 1:1, has a relative meaning, which frequently makes it grammatically dependent upon another word. However, this explanation is contrary to the linguistic evidences as a whole. First, according to the evidence at the lexical level, even though the word בְאשִׁית, as a relator noun, does have a relative meaning, the lexical evidence demonstrates that

such a meaning does not require it to be in construct with the verb בָּרָא. Relator nouns frequently occur in the absolute state. Second, according to evidence at the grammatical level, even though relator nouns like בַּאשׁית almost always have a determinate meaning, they do not always take a definite article when they are grammatically absolute. Finally, according to evidence at the syntactical level, if אַשִּׁית were in grammatical construct with אַבָּרָא, such a construction would not create a mere temporal clause, but a genitive clause. Genitive clauses, however, and the nouns that govern them are rarely separated from their main clauses by a clause-level waw, a soph passuq, or an entire verse like Genesis 1:2. The fact that Genesis 1:1 would be separated from Genesis 1:3 by all three suggests a syntactical impossibility. Thus, the linguistic evidences as a whole demonstrate that Genesis 1:1 is an independent main clause. If the verse is an independent main clause, then the dependent-clause translation and its interpretation should be rejected.

The Summary-Statement Interpretation

Again, proponents of the summary-statement interpretation agree that Genesis 1:1 is an independent main clause; however, they argue that Genesis 1:1 is a title or summary of the Genesis 1 creation narrative. According to this interpretation then, Genesis 1:1 is also not the first act of creation nor the beginning of the narrative account. Rather, the narrative account begins at Genesis 1:2, and the first act of creation, the creation of light, occurs at Genesis 1:3. Thus, this interpretation creates a semantic discontinuity between Genesis 1:1, the summary of the narrative, and 1:2, the beginning of the narrative. Genesis 1:2 provides the context in which creation takes place, but again, there is no explanation in the narrative for whence the elements of Genesis 1:2 came. Thus, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* cannot be a logical inference of the text

³Cf. NJPS.

with the summary-statement interpretation as well.

As Chapter 4 has noted, there are two main reasons why summary-statement proponents argue this interpretation. First, because the אֶרֶץ in Genesis 1:1 is used in the compound phrase אֶת הַשָּׁמֵיִם וְאֵת הַאָּבֵץ, it cannot correspond in meaning to the word אֶּרֶץ in Genesis 1:2. The compound phrase frequently refers to the organized universe, but Genesis 1:2 describes a universe that is incomplete and unorganized. Second, because the compound phrase אָרץ describes the state of the אָרץ in Genesis 1:2, it cannot correspond in state to the אֶרֶץ in Genesis 1:1. The compound phrase describes the אֶרֶץ as being in a state that is the opposite of something created, the state of non-A; whereas, the state of the אֶּרֶץ in Genesis 1:1 is created, the state of A. Creating a semantic discontinuity between the Genesis 1:1 and 1:2 maintains these lexical distinctions between the two proximal occurrences of אָרץ. However, these explanations are also contrary to the linguistic evidences as a whole. First, according to evidence at the lexical level, even though the compound phrase אֵת הַשָּׁמֵיִם וְאֵת הָאָרֶץ frequently refers to the organized universe, it can also refer to only the cosmological containers of both the שַׁמַיִּב and the אָרץ in Genesis 1:1. Second, there is also no lexical evidence to support the idea that the compound phrase תוהו ובהו describes the word אַרץ in Genesis 1:2 as being in a state contrary to creation. Rather, the phrase is used to describe the אָרֵץ as being in a state of desolation, empty of inhabitants. Thus, the description of the אָרֵץ as אַרֵץ actually substantiates the interpretation of Genesis 1:1 as the creation of only the containers of the שַׁמֵיִם and the אֵרֵץ.

Finally, according to the evidence at the syntactical level, there is little warrant for arguing that Genesis 1:2 is syntactically related to Genesis 1:3. First, circumstantial clauses of the same type of construction as Genesis 1:2a are almost always syntactically related to preceding clauses rather than to clauses that follow. Second, in parenthetical constructions, the fronted nouns, like the year.

are identified by previously introduced nouns of the same referent.⁴ This natural feature, along with the proximal correspondence between the אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:2 and the previously introduced אֶּבֶץ of Genesis 1:1, strongly suggests Genesis 1:2 is related to Genesis 1:1 both syntactically and semantically. Thus, the linguistic evidences as a whole allow for and suggest a semantic continuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2. If there is semantic continuity between the two verses, then the summary-statement interpretation is unlikely.

The Traditional Translation and Interpretation

The traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 are more faithful to the lexical, grammatical, and syntactical evidences in particular and more faithful to Classical-Hebrew linguistics in general. According to this reading of the text, Genesis 1:1 describes the first act of creation, the creation of the larger cosmological containers of the שַׁמֵים and the אֶבֶי and the אֶבֶי Genesis 1:2 is then descriptive of that initial creation, explaining that the larger cosmological yye created in Genesis 1:1 was in a state of desolation, or הוהו ובהו ובהו הוהו בובהו. Thus, the initial creation was still not yet in a complete state. This of course sets the tone for the rest of the narrative since the created world as a whole is never in a completed state until the end of the sixth day, hence the concluding statement of Genesis 2:1. Genesis 1:3 then describes the second act of creation, the creation of light.

According to this translation and interpretation, the elements in Genesis 1:2 are then a part of the initial creation in Genesis 1:1. Everything in the text is explicitly described as being created by God, and there is nothing in the text that is in existence when God begins creating. Again, Tertullian, the early church father, apply writes,

We, however, have but one God, and but one earth too, which in the beginning God made. The Scripture, which at its very outset proposes to run through the order thereof tells us as its first information that it was created; it next proceeds to set forth what sort of earth it was. In like manner with respect to the heaven, it informs

⁴This dissertation identifies Gen 1:2a as a nominal clause. Though the nomenclature is different from a parenthetical clause, both are very similar in function.

us first of its creation—"In the beginning God made the heaven:" it then goes on to introduce its arrangement; how that God both separated "the water which was below the firmament from that which was above the firmament," and called the firmament heaven,—the very thing He had created in the beginning. Similarly it (afterwards) treats of man: "And God created man, in the image of God made He him." It next reveals how He made him: "And (the Lord) God formed man of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living soul." Now this is undoubtedly the correct and fitting mode for the narrative. First comes a prefatory statement, then follow the details in full; first the subject is named, then it is described. How absurd is the other view of the account, when even before he had premised any mention of his subject, i.e. Matter, without even giving us its name, he all on a sudden promulged its form and condition, describing to us its quality before mentioning its existence [(Gen 1:2)],—pointing out the figure of the thing formed, but concealing its name! But how much more credible is our opinion, which holds that Scripture has only subjoined the arrangement of the subject after it has first duly described its formation and mentioned its name! Indeed, how full and complete is the meaning of these words: "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth; but the earth was without form, and void,"—the very same earth, no doubt, which God made, and of which the Scripture had been speaking at that very moment. For that very "but" [autem] inserted into the narrative like a clasp, (in its function) of a conjunctive particle, to connect the two sentences indissolubly together: "But the earth." This word carries back the mind to that earth of which mention had just been made, and binds the sense thereunto. Take away this "but," and the tie is loosened; so much so that the passage, "But the earth was without form, and void," may then seem to have been meant for any other earth.⁵

The traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 is the plainest and simplest reading of the passage, neatly fittingly the natural linguistics of the text. Because of this reading, the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo* is a logical and theological inference of the creation narrative. Traditional theologians are on a sure linguistic footing when arguing for it.

Amazingly, even though much has been written on the most important evidences of this singular text (the linguistic evidences), much more could be written concerning the literary, contextual, historical, and theological evidences as well. There is so much more that has been written on the subject of this singular verse. Commenting on his own investigation of Genesis 1:1, Augustine states,

Behold, O Lord my God, I beseech you, how many things we have written concerning these few words, how many! What strength of ours, what tracts of time

⁵Tertullian Against Hermogenes 26, trans. D. Holmes, ANF 3:491-2.

would suffice to treat all your books in this manner.⁶

Truer words cannot be uttered for such an important passage as the first verse of the Bible.

⁶Augustine *The Confessions* 12.32.43, trans. John K. Ryan, (New York: Doubleday, Image Books, 1960), 333.

APPENDIX

GENITIVE CLAUSES

The Compilation of the Data

The following is a list of various references that in total contain 210 genitive clauses. This list is compiled from the examples found by this author and from those presented in GKC and Jouon. They are the following: Genesis 15:13; 24:22; 39:4; 43:3; 49:27; Exodus 4:13; 6:28; 9:4; 15:17; 18:20; Leviticus 7:9, 35; 14:16, 46; 25:48; Numbers 3:1; 7:13; 23:3; Deuteronomy 4:15; 32:11 (2x), 17, 35; Joshua 7:21; 14:10; Judges 8:1; 20:15; 1 Samuel 5:9; 6:9; 17:4; 25:15; 26:14; 2 Samuel 12:22; 20:21; 22:1, 44; 1 Kings 13:2, 12; 2 Kings 3:8; 8:6; 1 Chronicles 9:22; 12:23; 15:12; 17:13; 18:8; 29:1, 3; 2 Chronicles 1:4; 15:11; 16:9; 18:23; 20:22; 24:11; 28:9; 29:27; 30:17, 19; 31:19; Ezra 1:5; Nehemiah 8:10; 13:23; Job 1:1; 3:3 (2x), 15; 6:17; 7:2 (2x); 9:26; 11:16; 13:28 (2x); 15:3 (2x); 18:21; 21:27; 24:19; 28:1; 29:2, 12, 16; 30:13; 31:12 (2x); 38:19, 24, 26; Psalms 4:8; 7:16; 11:4; 16:3, 4; 18:1, 3, 44; 25:12; 32:2, 8; 33:12; 34:9; 38:14; 42:2; 49:13, 14, 21; 51:10; 56:4, 10; 58:5, 9; 59:17; 65:5; 68:31; 71:18; 74:3; 78:6; 81:6; 83:15 (2x); 90:5, 15 (2x); 102:3; 104:9; 119:136; 125:1; 138:3; 141:9; 148:6; Proverbs 8:32; 17:14; 22:11; 26:17; 30:17 (2x); Ecclesiastes 10:5; Isaiah 6:6; 15:1, 7; 28:16; 29:1, 14; 38:5; 40:20 (2x); 41:2, 10, 24; 42:1, 16 (3x); 44:1, 2 (2x); 48:17; 51:1 (2x), 2, 7, 12; 53:7; 54:1 (2x), 5; 55:13; 56:2; 61:10, 11; 62:1; 63:19; 64:2; 65:1; 66:1; Jeremiah 2:6, 8, 11; 5:21; 6:15; 13:20; 14:18; 15:14; 17:4; 20:8; 23:9, 29; 32:18; 36:2; 48:36; 49:8; 50:31, 46; 52:12; Lamentations 1:10, 14, 21; 3:1; Ezekiel 13:3; 22:24; 25:7; Hosea 1:2; 4:14; 6:3; Micah 5:2; Habakkuk 1:6; 2:14; Zephaniah 2:1, 12; Zechariah 6:12; Malachi 2:16.

The Sources of the Data

The data has been compiled from this author's own research and the grammars of GKC and Joüon.¹ The following information displays the source locations from which the data has been collected.

Personal Research

These examples were found using the search features of *BibleWorks 6*.²
Leviticus 7:9; Job 24:19; Psalms 32:2; 38:14; 58:9; 74:3; 104:9; 148:6; Proverbs 17:14; Isaiah 15:1; 41:10; 44:1, 2; 51:2; Jeremiah 5:21; 17:4; 20:8; 32:18; Lamentations 3:1; Ezekiel 22:24; Zephaniah 2:1, 12.

GKC

These examples are divided according to the sections in which they are cited. Some examples are cited more than once in GKC, but the multiple citations are only counted once in the total list of genitive clauses.

GKC §130d. Genesis 39:4; Exodus 4:13; 6:28; 9:4; Leviticus 14:46; 25:48; Numbers 3:1; 23:3; Deuteronomy 4:15; 1 Samuel 5:9; 25:15; 2 Samuel 22:1; Job 6:17; 18:21; 29:2, 16; Psalms 16:3; 18:1; 56:9; 59:16; 65:4; 81:5; 90:15; 102:2; 138:3; Proverbs 8:32; Isaiah 29:1; Jeremiah 6:15; 36:2; 48:36; 49:8; 50:31; Lamentations 1:14; Hosea 1:2.

GKC §155d. Genesis 39:4; Judges 8:1; 20:15; 1 Samuel 6:9; 1 Kings 13:12; 2 Kings 3:8; 1 Chronicles 9:22; 12:22; 29:1, 3; 2 Chronicles 15:11; 18:23; 30:17; 31:19;

¹The examples from *IBHS* are not cited because they are all referenced in GKC.

²To get these findings, I simply searched for all examples in the Hebrew Bible in which a noun was in construct with a finite verb. Many examples overlap with the examples from the grammars; thus, these are the leftovers that were not cited. The complications of this type of search is that not all nouns that may be in construct with a verb are necessarily tagged in the software as being a grammatical construct.

Ezra 1:5; Nehemiah 13:23; Jeremiah 52:12.

GKC §155e. Genesis 15:13; Deuteronomy 32:17; 2 Samuel 20:21; Job 1:1; 3:15; 38:26; Psalm 11:4; 49:13; Proverbs 22:11; 26:17; Habakkuk 1:6; Zechariah 6:12.

GKC §155f. Genesis 49:27; Deuteronomy 32:17; 1 Samuel 6:9; 2 Chronicles 28:9; Job 3:3; 31:12; Psalm 16:4; 34:8; 68:30; 71:18; 78:6; Proverbs 30:17; Isaiah 28:16; 29:14; 38:5; 40:20; 51:12; 54:1; 55:13; 56:2; Lamentations 1:10; Ezekiel 25:7; Hosea 4:14.

GKC §155g. Deuteronomy 32:11; Job 7:2; 9:26; 11:16; Psalms 42:1; 49:12, 20; 58:4; 83:14; 90:5; 125:1; Isaiah 53:7; 61:10, 11; 62:1; Jeremiah 23:29; Hosea 6:3; Habakkuk 2:14.

GKC §155h. Exodus 15:17; Deuteronomy 32:17; Judges 8:1; Job 13:28; 28:1; Psalms 7:15; 25:12; 32:8; 33:12; 51:8; Ecclesiastes 10:5; Isaiah 6:6; 15:7; 42:16; 48:17; 64:3; Jeremiah 14:18; 23:9; 48:36; Lamentations 1:21.

GKC §155i. Exodus 18:20; Job 3:3; Psalms 18:2; 32:2; Isaiah 42:1; Jeremiah 2:6.

GKC §155k. Job 21:17; 38:19, 24; Isaiah 51:1.

GKC §155l. Leviticus 7:35; Deuteronomy 32:35; 2 Chronicles 20:22; 24:11; 29:27; Job 6:17; Psalms 4:8; 56:4, 10; Jeremiah 36:2; Micah 5:2.

GKC §155m. 1 Samuel 26:14; Isaiah 63:19.

Thus, this search is by no means exhaustive.

³No search criteria were used to find Isa 51:2; it was an unintended discovery.

GKC §155n. Genesis 39:4; Exodus 4:13; 9:4; 1 Chronicles 15:12; 29:3; 2 Chronicles 1:4; 16:9; 30:19; 31:19; Ezra 1:5; Nehemiah 8:10; Job 29:12, 16; 30:13; Psalms 65:5; 81:6; 119:136; 141:9; Proverbs 8:32; Isaiah 41:2, 24; 65:1; Jeremiah 2:8, 11; Lamentations 1:14; Ezekiel 13:3; Malachi 2:16.

Joüon

These examples are divided according to the sections in which they are cited. There is considerable overlap between the examples of this grammar and those of GKC, but the overlapping examples are only counted once in the total list of genitive clauses.

Joüon §129p. Genesis 1:1;⁴ 43:3; Exodus 6:28; Leviticus 14:16; 25:48; Joshua 14:10; 1 Samuel 25:15; 2 Samuel 12:22; 2 Kings 8:6; Job 29:2; Psalms 56:4; 102:3; Isaiah 29:1; Jeremiah 6:15; 50:46; Hosea 1:2.

Joüon §129q. Genesis 39:4; Exodus 4:13; 9:4; 2 Chronicles 30:19; Job 18:21; 29:16; Psalms 81:6; Jeremiah 2:8.

Joüon §158a. Genesis 49:27; Deuteronomy 32:17; 1 Samuel 6:9; Job 3:3; 31:12; Psalms 16:4; 34:9; 71:18; 78:6; Proverbs 30:17; Isaiah 51:12; 55:13; 56:2; Jeremiah 13:20; 15:14; Lamentations 1:10.

Joüon §158b. Genesis 24:22; Numbers 7:13; Joshua 7:21; 1 Samuel 17:4; 2 Samuel 20:21; 1 Kings 13:2; Job 1:1; 3:15; Isaiah 51:7; 54:5; 66:1; Zechariah 6:12.

Joüon §158c. Exodus 15:17; Judges 8:1; 2 Samuel 22:44; Psalms 18:44; 33:12; 90:15; Isaiah 42:16; 51:1.

⁴Jouon assumes that Genesis 1:1 is a genitive clause. However, since the verse is the focus of debate as to whether or not it is a genitive clause, it is not included in the final list of genitive clauses.

Joüon §158d. Genesis 39:4; 1 Chronicles 15:12; 17:13; 2 Chronicles 16:9; Nehemiah 8:10; Job 18:21; Proverbs 8:32; Isaiah 41:24; 54:1; 63:19; 65:1; Jeremiah 2:8, 11.

Joüon §158db. 1 Chronicles 18:8; Job 3:3; 15:3; Jeremiah 2:6; 23:9.

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ABSTRACT

A CASE FOR THE TRADITIONAL TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION OF GENESIS 1:1 BASED UPON A MULTI-LEVELED LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

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This dissertation examines the linguistic issues related to the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1. Chapter 1 introduces the necessity for this study, explaining the theological implications that pertain to the doctrine of *creatio ex nihilo*.

Chapter 2 offers a history of the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1. It covers most of the major historical eras, beginning with the period of the Old Testament and ending with the period of the Reformation.

Chapter 3 analyzes the three linguistic levels related to the translation of Genesis 1:1: the lexical, grammatical, and syntactical levels. The central issue of this chapter is whether the word בַּרֵאשִׁית is in the absolute or construct state.

Chapter 4 analyzes the two linguistic levels related to the interpretation of Genesis 1:1: the lexical (בֹּהוֹ and אַרֶץ/שָׁמֵיִם) and syntactical levels. The central issue of this chapter is whether or not there is semantic continuity between Genesis 1:1 and 1:2.

Chapter 5 summarizes the linguistic data related to both the translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1, explaining again the implications for *creatio ex nihilo*.

This dissertation contends that the traditional translation and interpretation of Genesis 1:1 are the most faithful to the principles of Classical-Hebrew linguistics.

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