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Randall Buth: The Hebrew Verb in Current Discussions	91
Ralph Bruce Terry: Some Aspects of the Discourse Structure of the Book of James	106
Keir L. Hansford: The Underlying Poetic Structure of 1 John	126

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THE HEBREW VERB IN CURRENT DISCUSSIONS

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1. Introduction¹

Exegetes, translators and consultants for the Old Testament are called upon to make many translation decisions regarding the tense-aspect-mode reference of a particular verb or clause in Hebrew. This should be an easy task, and usually is, since Hebrew is a language with a continuous history of over three thousand years and with a history of grammatical analysis and description of one thousand years.

Unfortunately, most beginning Hebrew students find the subject confusing, and the situation is not made easier for linguists entering the domain of Hebrew studies either. Traditional grammars do not use categories from cross-linguistic studies and they have not heard of discourse grammar. On top of that, the rules that are given in beginning grammars do not adequately cover the textual data. About the only thing that a beginning student is sure of is that the Hebrew verb system is definitely non-Indo-European. Some students have doubts that such a system as described in some grammars could exist. In actual practice, by extensive reading of the Hebrew Bible, a student eventually weans himself from the grammar rules he has learned. Where does that leave us, and what should we suggest for the translator and consultant in Africa?

The purpose of this paper is three-fold:

 To present a cursory survey of current views of the Hebrew verb, including terminology and analyses used in pedagogical grammars and in scholarly discussions. This will help us understand why some translations may differ, and it will help us evaluate discussions in commentaries. It may keep us from pursuing nonviable descriptions.

¹This paper was adapted for publication from a lecture presented at the Summer Institute of Linguistics Old Testament Seminar held in Nairobi in May, 1988.

- 2. To give a historical background to the infamous 'consecutive' verb system. In this system a verb refers to the opposite of its simple or regular tense/aspect/mode signification. Such a system may appear self-contradictory. A logical explanation of such a development adds credibility and trust that the system exists and is correctly understood. It also prevents one from proposing implausible meanings that would erroneously fuse the simple tense and the 'opposite tense' into a mistaken macro-meaning.
- 3. To present an integrated linguistic framework for discussing the Hebrew verb. This has value for its own sake in evaluating translations, but it also provides a foundation for further discussions of discourse functions of the Hebrew verb. If one is learning Hebrew, I hope that this will provide a beginning basis within consistent and linguistically well-defined parameters.

This purpose may seem ambitious for a short article, but the rudiments of the verb system are really simple and should be capable of a simple and quick description. It should be possible to complete a useful and helpful overview for a sophisticated audience. Since prefaces in English Bibles still mention that 'the consecution of tenses remains problematic,' it is in order, then, to examine what is going on.

2. The temporal theory

For many centuries the Hebrew verb was defined as a past tense, and the prefix verb was called a future. More recently, this has been described as the suffix verb 'roughly corresponding to the past' and the prefix verb 'roughly corresponding to the present-future' (Blau 1976:45). Exceptions were admitted but were not allowed to bother one. This is still a good approach to Hebrew, even if incomplete. The main exceptions include the prefix verb being used for a past habitual-imperfective and suffix verbs being used for present states, decisive future so-called prophetic perfects, and performatives:

Gn 2:6 Prefix for past habitual:

ואד יעלה מן-הארץ

wě 'ēd ya'āleh min-hā āreṣ 'and a mist used to go up from the earth'

passim Suffix for mental states and present statives:

ידעתי כי

yāda tî kî 'I know that...'

Zep 3:15 Suffix for decisive future:

מסיר יהוה . . . מומ

hēsîr YHWH . . . pinnâ 'YHWH (will) remove . . . he (will) turn aside'

Gn 17:5 Suffix for performative or decisive future:

כי אב המון גוים נתתיד

kî ab-hămôn gôyim nětattîkā 'for a father of many nations I (will/hereby) make you'

Because of systematic exceptions like the above, many scholars tried to describe the Hebrew verb in nontemporal terms. In extreme cases you can hear statements which imply that Hebrew has no sense of time at all. For example, McFall (1982:176) says: 'Every tense... in the English language is required to translate [each of] the five Hebrew verb forms.' Siedl (1971:7) says:

Every investigation of a 'tense-system' in Semitic languages will need to proceed from the fact that the Semitic tense (Zeitwort) is simply not a tense (Zeitwort).²

3. Aspect theory

In the 1800's the aspect theory became widespread among European Semitists and is still the most common description found in grammar books. Basically, the suffix verb is called the *perfect* verb and the prefix verb is the *imperfect*. Naturally, various authors use slightly different terminology (such as Rundgren 1961). A similar, influential book in English was Driver's A treatise on the use of tenses in Hebrew (1874). He accepted Ewald's view that aspect was the basic opposition in the Hebrew verb and he even tried to explain the waw hahippûk prefix verb ('waw of making opposite' alias 'waw consecutive') as a development of the imperfect aspect rather than as simply semantically equivalent to the suffix verb. Most grammar books today teach an aspect theory but reject Driver's equation of the simple prefix verb with the waw hahippûk prefix verb.

²Jede Untersuchung des "Tempussystems" in semitischen Sprachen wird von der Tatsache ausgehen müssen, daß das semitische Zeitwort zunächst eben kein <u>Zeit</u>wort ist.'

Unfortunately, the aspect approach does not cover all of the data either. Many examples of suffix verbs must be viewed as somewhat incomplete. Prefix verbs in the future are usually not expressing continuity, will be doing, but are complete will do. In poetry some prefix verbs are very much complete. A strictly aspectual approach overlooks the strong correlations with basic time distinctions. For some linguists this may seem to be a fight over words because we are accustomed to talk about tense-aspects and many of us would recognize that a language may fuse or mix the categories. We may define the verbs with a semantic mapping that is not limited to one parameter.

Ruth 1:6 Perfective group (waw hahippûk prefix)

ותקם היא וכלתיה ותשב משדי מואב

wattāqom hî ' wěkallōtêhā wattāšob miśšědê mô'āb 'and she arose, and her daughters-in-law, and she returned from the plain of Moab'

The nuance in 1:6 is not she returned (completely) but she returned (next past event in the story). She only began her return. A language with a real aspect system, like Greek, frequently mixes pasts and past-imperfects in narrative. One sees this often in the LXX where both Greek imperfects (past-imperfectives) and aorists (pasts) are used to translate Hebrew perfectives.³ (The frequency depends on the stylistic fidelity to Greek of the particular translator.) Just as one can say that Hebrew verbs do not function like European tenses, we must also state that they are not like European aspects either.

4. Other models

Other labels and distinctions have been given from time to time. Most recently Zuber (1986:27) has argued that the suffix group marks Indicative Mood and the prefix group marks Modal/Future Mood. Some comments on his proposal are in order:

1. This is simplistic—as though a different traditional label solves the problem.

³E.g. Gen 37:28 ויעברו אנשים wayya abrû ănāšîm (perfective form, incomplete situation!) LXX καὶ παρεπορεύοντο ἄνθρωποι (imperfect). The men were only in the process of passing by.

- 2. The name is not without problems since the modal/future (prefix) can also be used of indicative repetitious events in the past. It is indicative in terms of having actually happened and in terms of surface structure of some languages, such as Greek, where iterative past sequences are described with the imperfect indicative verb. Also, suffix verbs can be used for nonindicative events.
- 3. A better terminology might be definite versus indefinite, since the terms themselves would require definition and thus might not be misunderstood. By definition, the definite tense-aspect would normally be used for the past, while the indefinite tense-aspect would cover the future, potential, and habitual past. However, definite is a zero-meaning word for verbs and needs a definition related to tense, aspect, and mood in order to be useful. Consequently, it is often best to use a term that is specific to the morphological class as a name and then proceed to define that. Thus, one can talk unambiguously of suffix verbs, prefix verbs, waw hahippûk (sequential) prefix verbs, and waw hahippûk suffix verbs. These are terms that any Hebraist can transparently understand.

5. None of the above

Other studies try to avoid an Indo-European bias but in so doing, produce an impossible, nonhuman system. For example, in his Cambridge dissertation McFall (1982), while surveying theories up to 1954, claims that the Hebrew verb is **not related to tense or aspect** but pictures events as 'more definite' versus 'more imaginative.' One of the Greenberg 'universals' is that verbs with inflections always have a tense-aspect-mood signification (1966:112, no. 30). McFall would be acceptable if he did not divorce tense and aspect from the definition of his terms. *Definite* is an adequate term as long as it is not defined metaphysically or emotionally.

6. All of the above

Before going on to the sequential verb forms, we can summarize with an inclusive statement. Very simply put, Hebrew uses a two-way opposition for the whole continuum of event references. (The actual verb system uses a four-way division, which will be discussed later.) All the distinctions of time, completion, repetition, and potentiality are fused and divided into a two-way split. Any description needs to include all of the

above and can name the system with any label as long as it is fully defined. In 1885–89 Bennett published a series of studies on the Hebrew verb in narrative, as opposed to poetry, and concluded that there was less than two percent deviance from a temporal interpretation of verbs.⁴

Thus, it is mainly in poetry that tense-aspect-mood becomes problematic. An additional problem is that Hebrew poetry sometimes purposely plays with the *tense-aspects* for poetic effect. Rather than multiply aspects for each composition, a person needs to recognize how the verb system works in narrative and then be prepared for deviances in poetry. (Cf. Buth 1984, 1986.) Like any human language, Hebrew is able to make time and aspect distinctions. Reports to the contrary can be ignored.⁵

⁴Zuber (1986:29) says: 'In a comparative study of two contemporary grammars, which had adopted the Aspect-theory, he [Bennett] analyzed over 30,000 finite verbs in the Hebrew Bible for time reference. He used the following opposition: past tense versus future-present subjunctive. For the one side his result was almost unbelievably positive: the suffix verb showed a deviance of 0.566 percent and the converted prefix [waw hahippûk prefix] showed only a 0.005 percent deviance. The deviance with the other side was greater: for prefix verbs 0.2 percent were 'difficult' and 0.13 percent were 'impossible' while the converted suffix verbs were found with 3.75 percent 'difficult' and 4.3 percent 'impossible'. The total deviance was 1.85 percent, which is a very convincing result, 'In der Auseinandersetzung mit zwei zeitgenössischen Lehrbüchern, die auf die Aspekt-theorie eingeschwenkt waren, hat er über 30000 finite Verbvorkommen der hebräischen Bibel auf ihren Zeitbezug hin analysiert. Dabei geht er von folgender Opposition aus: recto = past tense vs obliquo = future, present, subjective. Für die eine Seite ist sein Resultat fast unglaublich positiv; für suff kann er eine Abweichungsquote von 0,566%, für c-pref sogar eine solche von nur 0,005% nachweisen. Etwas zahlreicher sind die Abweichunger auf der obliquo-Seite: bei pref sind es 0,2% "schwierig" und 0,13% "unmöglich", bei c-suff jedoch 3,75% "schwierig" und 4,3 "unmöglich". Im Total gibt das eine Abweichung von 1.85%, was immer noch ein überzeugendes Resultat

⁵A very brief mention of several other studies of the last thirty years from a variety of viewpoints provides further background. Sperber (1966) seems to think that the prefix and suffix verbs can be used for any tense aspect and are therefore two ways of saying the same thing. But that would leave Hebrew without any verb system. Rundgren (1961) developed a system in which the suffix verb was marked and denoted a stative situation while the prefix verb was unmarked and denoted active, continuing events. Kustár (1972) calls the suffix verb determining and the prefix verb determined and says that the choice between the two is a judgement made by the speaker/author. Michel (1960) says that the suffix verb is used for actions which are important and absolute while the prefix verb regards an action as relative and determined by other actions. Meyer (1964, 1966) considers the prefix yaqtul a genuine narrative past tense and that the suffix verb took over this function. The prefix became a durative present future. Müller (1983) sees a proto-Hebrew aspectual distinction between short and long prefix verbs and suggests that these developed into a past versus present-future temporal distinction in early Hebrew. Gordon (1965) and Segert (1982) distinguish between Ugaritic prose texts and literary-poetic texts. In prose the verbs are mainly temporal, while in poetry they are mainly aspectual. Since poetry tends toward archaic usage the aspectual distinctions are seen as older

7. Derivational versus inflectional morphology

The categories of word formation in the verb morphology should be discussed briefly. Hebrew can build additional vocabulary from basic lexemes in four basic ways. Broadly speaking, there are **simple** patterns (active and passive [Qal/Niph'al]), **causative** patterns (active and passive [Hiph'il/Hoph'al]), a **reciprocal** pattern ([Hitpa'el]), and **intensive-factative** patterns (active and passive [Pi'el/Pu'al]). These were, and are, active, productive processes in Hebrew but they must be distinguished from the tense-aspect inflections.

Many discussions of meanings of Hebrew verbs treat these lexiconforming patterns as though they were predictable and unrestricted. The actual meaning of any word, however, is fixed by usage and context, not etymology or generative process. More importantly, one cannot assume that a particular formation of a certain verb stem was ever accepted or used in the language. And if the word was developed and accepted, one cannot predict what it actually meant. The lexicon is full of verbs whose meaning does not correspond to projections from simple roots. This needs to be mentioned because one finds these patterns of word formation frequently abused by commentators. In the case of rare words one is forced to use an etymological analysis to help discover the meaning. However, the beginning student should be careful of using studies where the verbs are routinely being pulled apart to give the 'real' meaning.

A few examples of very common words will illustrate the point. Higgîd הביד is from the causative pattern and means 'to tell, report, make known'. It may have developed from a concept of putting information in front of a person. A common preposition neged נגד means 'before, against'. However, the simple verb, the intensive verb and reciprocal verb are not attested in biblical Hebrew. From a later period, Mishnaic Hebrew, we find the intensive stem with a meaning 'he hit, beat' (probably borrowed from Aramaic), and from a still later period in the Middle Ages we find this intensive stem meaning 'to contradict'. Another common word, a Niph'al, is nilḥam גלחים, probably preserving a reciprocal word formation process meaning 'to fight'. The simple verb lāḥam is used

and more basic to both Ugaritic and Hebrew. Gross (1976) points out that the short prefix verb almost always occurs at the beginning of a clause, while the longer prefix verbs occur within a clause and may be taken as imperfectives. For Old Canaanite, Moran (1950; 1961) and Rainey (1973; 1975) have called *yaqtul* a preterite tense and a jussive while *yaqtulu* is a present-future and past iterative.

in poetry with two meanings: 'to eat bread' and 'to fight'. In Mishnaic Hebrew the Hiph'il hilhîm הלחם has the meaning 'to fuse one material to another'. In a stem related to 'hand' yiddâ ידה, an intensive formation means 'to throw' while the causative hôdâ הודה means 'to thank' with one preposition and 'to confess to something' with others. The reciprocal formation hitwaddâ התודה specifically means 'to confess' (a fault).

Most of us have enough common sense to recognize abuses of false etymologizing in exegesis. I mention this here because Hebrew is often taught without emphasizing the restrictions on word formation processes, as though one can simply learn roots and create derived words at will. This misconception is reinforced by the practice of Hebrew dictionaries (and Arabic, Aramaic, and other Semitic languages) in which verbs are grouped under the heading of the basic root. (This could be compared to listing reduce, deduce, and induce in English under duce, a verb that does not exist. We will leave derivational morphology and return to questions dealing with the inflectional tense-aspect systems.

8. The sequential verb forms

The sequential verb forms have brought the most grief to students and have not been adequately explained in grammars. The reason is three-fold: (1) a full explanation needs a larger linguistic framework, including pragmatics and discourse grammar; (2) the forms of the system need to be explained diachronically, not synchronically; and (3) the explanations sometimes given are simply wrong.

We can start with a *simply wrong* explanation, since it is commonly taught in grammar books and is part of the rationale for the name waw consecutive. This simply wrong explanation is an inductive tense-aspect theory that says that the special sequential forms in Hebrew do not carry any tense-aspect of their own but *induce* or conduct the tense-aspect from a preceding verb. Many languages of the world have such systems. Luwo from Sudan, one that I work with and one that even has u as its connecting tense marker (a real waw consecutive if ever there was one), is such a language. Hebrew is not.

For over a hundred years some students have been taught that a simple verb sets the *aspect* and that the consecutive verbs carry that aspect until the chain is broken. First of all, the alleged *consecutive* forms do not need a head verb from which they form a chain. They themselves

are their own head verb. In other words they are not neutral, inductive, tense-aspect forms. Thus, a clause with a past verb or a circumstantial verbless nominal clause can be followed by a waw hahippûk (sequential) suffix verb with future meaning. Compare Judges 13:3:

את עקרה ולא ילדת והרית וילדת בן

'att-'ăqārâ (verbless) wělô' yāladt (past suffix) wěhārît wěyāladt bēn (future sequential suffixes)

'You are barren and have not given birth'

'And you will conceive and will give birth'

Waw hahippûk prefix verbs (sequential perfective-past tense) can also follow anything and still unambiguously designate the past tense. Compare Gen 2:7, following prefix verbs, a dependent suffix verb, a verbless clause, a prefix verb and waw hahippûk suffix (past habitual here):

Gen 2:5-7

וכל עשב השדה טרם יצמח כי לא המטיר יהוה אלהים על הארץ ואדם אין לעבד את האדמה ואד יעלה מן הארץ והשקה את כל פני האדמה ויצר יהוה אלהים את האדם עפר מן האדמה

wěkol-ceseb hassādeh terem yismāh kî lō himtir YHWH elohîm al-hā āres we ādām ayin (verbless) la ābod et-hā ādāmâ we ēd ya āleh min-hā āres wehisa et-kol-pēnē hā ādāmâ wayyīser YHWH elohîm et-hā ādām āmā wayyīser YHWH elohîm et-hā ādām āmā and all grass of the field before it was sprouting for YHWH God had not rained on the earth and man (there was) not to work the ground and mist used to go up from the earth and used to water all the surface of the ground and YHWH God formed (seq.) the Man dust from the ground

This is a good example of the sequential past tense carrying its own tense-aspect designation. It is also a good example of the use of a sequential verb for the foregrounded main-line event in the midst of a plethora of background clauses.

Secondly, sequential verbs can also begin whole books.⁶ Finally, from a viewpoint of language economy and development, one must ask why there are two consecutive forms if the tense is induced from a head construction? Two different consecutive forms exist depending on which time sphere one is progressing along, such as the sequential prefix which is only past-perfective, never past habitual. That should tell us that something other than tense-aspect induction is going on. Explanations like an inductive tense for the sequential verbs were probably developed because no rationale was readily available for having two past perfectives identical in tense-aspect and two future imperfectives identical in tense-aspect in the language.

A more helpful approach is to recognize that the sequential verb forms are independent tense-aspects in their own right. This is one point of consensus among those who try to give a historical-linguistic explanation for the existence of the sequential forms. The pragmatic reason(s) for their existence will be discussed below.

9. A consensus from historical linguistics

Synchronically, the forms look as though the introductory and converts the tense-aspect into its opposite. This is the origin of the Hebrew name waw hahippûk, the waw of making opposite. (Of course, the waw is pronounced differently in the sequential prefix forms and a few morphological differences exist between some forms of the simple verb and the sequential verb.) The scholarly consensus involves recognizing the accidental nature of the synchronic anomaly.

Diachronically, it appears that the following has happened:

1. A prefix *yaqtulu⁷ was used for the present-future while a prefix *yaqtul was used as a narrative past and jussive.

⁶Some have argued that a book-beginning waw hahippûk must link the book to the preceding book in the canon. This is off-the-wall since the books were individual units and were circulated as such in the ancient period before codexes. The vayehi in Ruth is a tense designation but is not a neutral consecutive referring to some previous simple verb. In the Hebrew canon Ruth follows Song of Solomon, not Judges, and was originally a complete, separate work.

⁷Not a *yaqattal form. Rainey (1975:423) is adamant: 'We do not believe that the geminated form of the G stem [yaqattal-RJB] ever existed in any NWS dialect at any documented stage of this language family!' I side with Rainey although the main point is that

- 2. The vowel ending of *yaqtulu dropped off when the final short vowels of the old case system dropped. This removed the distinction between *yaqtulu and *yaqtul in most morphological configurations, though not in all.
- 3. The old vowel of the waw was preserved with the narrative form to produce the characteristic vocalization of the sequential prefix forms. The sequential suffix forms were apparently formed by analogy to the prefix.⁸ (Phoenician may have examples of a sequential suffix form, so this development may be quite early.) Evidence for the two separate proto-Hebrew prefix forms comes from internal distinctions in Hebrew as well as comparison of forms in Akkadian, Arabic, Aramaic, Phoenician, Ugaritic and El-Amarna Canaanite glosses.⁹

10. Pragmatics

The Hebrew verb system makes good sense to anyone who has a pragmatic component in his grammar and recognizes the ability of a language to grammaticize a distinction like Thematic Continuity versus Discontinuity in narrative. This is what Hebrew has done. The waw hahippûk verb, the mainline of narrative, normally marks an event¹⁰ as the next event in the story. In the infrequent instances where the event is not

¹⁰Event here means any predication whether stative or dynamic. Sequential statives tend to refer to the entrance into the particular state.

a leveling of two prefix forms has occurred in Hebrew. Exactly what the proto-forms were is interesting but not important for translators.

⁸McFall (1982), who does not believe in tense-aspect distinctions in Hebrew, tried to show that the accentual shifts in first and second person sequential suffix verbs were phonologically conditioned and were not emic. His explanations fail on several counts; the most telling to a linguist is that the shifts to word-final accent do not work on verbs in identical phonological environments that do not have the conjunction and.

E.g. in Hebrew, the existence of two prefix forms is preserved in the Hiph'il verb where the prefix sequential forms use a יפעיל yap $\bar{e}l$ instead of a יפעיל yap il. Also, verbs with y or w in the second or third letter of the root preserve alternate forms for the sequential verb, e.g. yáqom 'he arose' versus yaqúm 'he will arise'. The word and which is used with the se-quential prefix verbs also preserves the original a vowel by doubling the following consonant: waCC. Normal phonological rules reduce the vowel of the word *wa 'and' to a shva (centralized half-vowel): w^eCV . In Akkadian there is a distinction between iparnas (future) and iprus (past). In Arabic the past negative uses the short jussive form of the verb: lam yaktub 'he did not write' versus yaktubu 'he writes'. This negative construction preserves the old prefix past tense.

temporally sequential, it marks the verb pragmatically as a mainline verb as though it were the next event in the story.

Along these pragmatic lines one should be aware of word order distinctions and poetic genre. Kutscher (1982) went so far as to call the configuration of a noun plus suffix verb a pluperfect tense. See Jonah 1:5:

ויזעקו איש אל אלהיו ויטלו את הכלים . . . ויונה ירד אל ירכתי הספינה וישכב וירדם.

wayyiz ăqû 'îš 'el-'ĕlōhāyw wayyāṭilû et-hakkēlîm . . . wĕyônâ yārad 'el-yarkĕtê hassĕpînâ wayyiškab wayyērādam.

and they cried out, each to his god, and they threw out the cargo . . . and Jonah had gone down to the depths of the ship and laid down and fell asleep.

While such a word order does not unambiguously mark pluperfect tense, it breaks up the main event line of the story and is the method an author can choose to mark an event as **not** the next event in the story but, rather, as a Discontinuity in the story. Thus this is the construction normally used to refer to independent pluperfect clauses, but it is also used for clauses which are simultaneous or which begin some pragmatic unit marking (e.g. paragraph or episode).

The order noun plus suffix-verb is normal in Hebrew narrative for clauses that do not use the sequential verbs.¹¹ In fact, clause initial suffix verbs for **perfective** aspect do not occur in the narrative framework of Hebrew stories but only within quoted material.¹² That is why it is so

 $^{1^{17}}$ The normal uses of X + qatal in narrative are as comparative Topic (usually simultaneous, often with contrastive Focus), time Discontinuity (temporally nonsequential, with minor topicalization of noun), Unit boundary (sometimes temporally sequential), and Dramatic Pause (temporally sequential). (See Buth: Forthcoming a and b.)

¹²A sentence-initial suffix verb like at Esther 9:2 is a feature of late biblical Hebrew. The book of Qohelet is full of examples of the suffix verb with simple waw 'and', though it is not narrative. Rare narrative examples like Gen 15:6 may be a special use of imperfectivity (cf. Gen 2:25, Judges 3:23), while Gen 37:3 is probably describing a repeated action. Judges 16:18 may be imperfective or textually corrupt. Another factor to be integrated is the use of an infinitive absolute in narrative. It is found in Phoenician, El Amarna Canaanite, and

misleading when a widely used and otherwise reputable grammar book gives an example like $b\bar{a}$, $b\bar$

Poetic genre brings special problems because the limited, distinctive, morphosyntactic classes in the Hebrew verb are sometimes used for poetic effect. Beauty is allowed to override semantics. We cannot dwell on this topic here but I will give you the first example of this in the Psalms: 'Why have the nations raged (suffix past-perfective) and the peoples mutter/plan emptiness (prefix present-imperfective)? Why are the kings of the earth taking their stand (prefix present-imperfective) and the princes have assembled together (suffix past-perfective)?' The verbs form an a-b-b-a pattern with their tense-aspects. Idiomatic translations (including the LXX here) use the same tense for the four verbs in this verse because the verbs do not signal real-world differences but poetic pattern.¹³

11. Conclusion

Hebrew has four verb forms which reflect two separate parameters: tense-aspect and thematic continuity. (There are also participles, infinitives and imperative-volitionals which we have not discussed.) There are sequential forms for thematic continuity and simple forms for discontinuities of text. There are verb forms for definite events ¹⁴ (that is, past or perfective or decisive or contrary to fact) versus verb forms for indefinite events (future or imperfective or potential or repetitive). These four forms (suffix and sequential prefix [definite, past-perfectives] and prefix and sequential suffix [indefinite, future-imperfectives] are used to categorize human communication. They refer to the whole complexity of tense-aspect-mood reference as a dichotomy and add pragmatic structure to discourse with another dichotomy.

infrequently in Hebrew. Cf. Esther 9:1b where a Subject pronoun stands with the infinitive absolute, uniquely for Hebrew narrative.

¹³Many other patterns are attested in Hebrew poetry. As might be expected, there are also many cases *in between*, where a weak tense-aspect distinction can be perceived and where pressure from poetic form is also observable. Hebrew poetry challenges our skills as exegetes. There is also a problem with archaisms in poetry.

¹⁴Event refers to an abstract predicate, either dynamic or stative.

Tense-Aspect-Mood

	Definite Past-perfective	Indefinite Future-imperfective
Thematic Continuity	Seq. Prefix Wayyiqtol	Seq. Suffix Weqatal
Dis- continuity	Suffix [X] <i>Qatál</i>	Prefix [X] <i>Yiqtól</i>

Diagram of Hebrew Verb Categories

'Qatál is normally used for whole, completed events in the past though also for situations (including mental states) that have validity in the present. In narrative, agtál is used with Subject-Verb word order for events which do not advance the time reference of the story . . . and in boundaries of units ... Vavviatol is used for the same semantic distinctions as aatál but differs pragmatically and is used for thematic, time-advancing events of a narrative. Diachronically, it is a remnant from a West-Semitic past tense *yaqtul (parallel to Akkadian iprus). Yiatól, the descendent of West-Semitic *vaatulu. generally serves as a present-future tense and as a habitual aspect in the past. Rarely, it can refer to an event in the past as a single, complete whole, either as an archaic *yaqtul verb or as a 'historic present'. Veqataltí serves as a present-future tense and past habitual aspect in theme advancing clauses. Ootél, the participle, may be thought of as a verbal adjective, often describing a noun as the doer of certain actions (habitual). In many lexical items it may function as a present tense. This second use expanded diachronically to produce the present-future of Mishnaic Hebrew.' (Buth 1984:76-77)

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SOME ASPECTS OF THE DISCOURSE STRUCTURE OF THE BOOK OF JAMES

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1. Introduction

The book of James is rather notorious among New Testament scholars when it comes to understanding its discourse structure. James does not follow a linear progression from one idea to another, but rather, it presents a collection of exhortations which Nida et al. (1983:116) have described as related by a 'stream of consciousness'. While the structure within the sections seems to be fairly straightforward, the relationships between the sections are not very obvious. So in an attempt to discover the structural relationships in the book, as well as to put Longacre's methodology of text analysis to the test, his techniques of studying discourse were applied to the Greek text of James.

Although Longacre's methodology involves many aspects, including several kinds of charting (the results of which are not presented here), the following techniques were used to obtain much of the data found in this article: The text was searched for information that might shed light on the rhetorical situation in which it was produced; van Dijk's method of yielding a macrostructure was applied to the text; the text was searched for markers that might indicate the boundaries of major segments; the text was segmented hierarchically down to the level of the colon to discover relationships between segments of text; quotations and introducers of quotations were studied, as well as chiastic relationships; and a search was made for ten different kinds of markers of peak material. The most interesting results of the study are presented in this article.

First, background information regarding the author and reader is presented, followed by a brief explanation of the Greek text that was used.

Next, the results of studying the segmentation of James is presented: I suggest that James can be understood as a collection of eighteen sections that are lexically related. The rest of the analysis is based on this division of the text. Next, brief sections appear on quote formulas and chiasmus in James. The final section is a discussion of the charting of areas of turbulence in order to discover peak material that might be the hortatory equivalent to a narrative climax.

2. The author and readers of James

Tradition has identified the author of this book as James (or Jacob, the Hebrew form of the name), the brother of the Lord, referred to in Mt 13:55; Mk 6:3; Jn 7:5; Acts 1:14, 12:17, 21:18; I Cor 15:7; Gal 1:19, 2:9 and 12 (Tasker 1957:21-27). There is little reason to doubt this identification, although it should be stressed that the text itself does not specify such. The writer simply identifies himself as 'James, a slave of God and of the Lord Jesus Christ' (1:1). From the book it is obvious that he was a Christian man who was concerned with right behavior.

The writer was knowledgeable about Jewish wisdom literature and wrote in that tradition. He emphasized the importance of wisdom, the proper use of wealth, and the right use of the tongue, all of which are themes of Hebrew wisdom literature, such as Proverbs and Ecclesiastes in the Old Testament and Ben Sirach in the Apocrypha. Parallels to this literature include the following: Prv 2:6 (Jas 1:5); 3:34 (quoted in 4:6); 10:12 (5:20); 11:18 (3:18); 27:1 (4:13-14); Eccl 7:9 (1:19); Sirach 2:22 (1:20), 23 (1:2-3), 26 (1:5); 4:4 (2:15-16), 10 (1:27), 22 (2:1), 26 (5:16); 5:11 (1:19); 15:11 (1:13); 48:3 (5:17). The great number of parallels with Ben Sirach does not necessarily imply that James had read the work of Joshua Ben Sira. Although it is certainly possible, it may simply be that both draw from the same store of Jewish wisdom that circulated in oral form.

But not only was the writer familiar with Jewish wisdom literature, he was also grounded in the teaching of Jesus. Guthrie (1970:743) lists fourteen topical parallels between the book of James and the Sermon on the Mount: Mt 5:5 (Jas 4:10), 7 (2:13), 9 (3:18), 10-12 (1:2), 12 (5:10), 19 (2:10), 22 (1:20), 33-37 (5:12), 48 (1:4); Mt 6:19 (5:2ff.), 24 (4:4); Mt 7:1-5 (4:11-12), 7ff. (1:5), 24ff. (1:22). Of these, the passages in Mt 5:33-37 (Jas 5:12), 7:7ff (1:5), and 7:24ff (1:22) also show verbal parallels. In addition, there are five other places in Matthew where Jesus'

teaching is paralleled in James: Mt 12:36-37 (Jas 3:2ff.); 21:21-22 (1:6); 22:39 (2:8); 23:8-12 (3:1); and 24:33 (5:9) (Guthrie 1970:744). The second, third, and fifth of these show verbal parallels.

The author was also familiar with the Old Testament. James 2:8 contains a quotation from Lv 19:18. James 2:11 contains quotations from Ex 20:13-14 and/or Dt 5:17-18. James 2:23 quotes from Gn 15:6. And Jas 4:6 quotes from Prv 3:34. All of these quotations are in the form and word order of the Septuagint translation, with the exception of a spelling variation, de instead of kai in one place, and the replacement of 'Lord' with 'God'. In Prv 3:34 the passage could be translated another way into Greek, and so the similarity with the Septuagint indicates that the author did not make his own translation from the Hebrew.

The author wrote in what has been described as good Greek (Tasker 1957:29), surpassed in the New Testament only by Hebrews (Turner 1976:115). Some have suggested that the book has many of the characteristics of a Stoic-Cynic diatribe: It begins with a paradox and has short questions and answers, rhetorical questions, ironical questions, short diatribe formulas (e.g. 'know this', 'you see then', 'behold', etc.), examples from famous men, hexameter verse, and a dialogue with an imaginary objector. All of these features, however, are found in other types of literature as well (Turner 1976:114-15). In addition, the book shows Semitic influence. Turner spends three pages (1976:117-119) discussing the Aramaisms, Hebraisms, and Semitisms found in the book, including asyndeton, much use of the articular infinitive, use of the anarthrous participle as a substitute for a noun, use of the genitive of quality, the position of pas, and parataxis, among others.

The book was composed as an encyclic letter, although it does not end as Greek letters normally end. It does follow a modified formula for beginning a Greek letter: writer, addressee, and greeting, but the thanksgiving that is usually found in Greek letters is missing. It is worth noting that Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and Ben Sirach all begin by identifying the author. The book may fit the wisdom literature pattern with modification toward the letter form.

It is addressed to the twelve tribes in the Dispersion. Although such language could be used of Jews throughout the Roman Empire and beyond, the book seems to assume that the readers are Christians (see 2:1, 7). Paul and Peter use similar language to refer to all Christians, not just Jewish Christians (cf. Rom 2:28-29 with Rom 11:13 and 1 Pt 1:1

with 1 Pt 4:3-4). Certainly the admonitions that James gives apply to Gentiles as well as Jews. It is perhaps quoted by Clement and Hermas in the second century A.D. (Guthrie 1970: 738). Both of these writers were Gentiles living in Rome. However, there is evidence that the letter was originally addressed primarily to Jewish Christians. In Jas 2:2 the writer speaks of the Christian assembly as a synagogue. In 5:14 he describes the church leaders as elders, a term that originated in a Jewish context. The churches addressed would have been established churches and not new mission churches because they had elders (cf. Acts 14:23). Most of them would have been outside Palestine, both because that is implied by the term Dispersion and because the letter is written in Greek. Interestingly enough, however, the letter seems to have been preserved primarily in Palestine because it was from there that Origen first wrote about it in the third century, and it was there that Jerome included it in his translation of the Latin Vulgate (Tasker 1957:17-18). The sins warned against are not idolatry and fornication, such as those that Gentiles had to be warned against (cf. Acts 15:29); rather they were sins of the tongue and wealth. sins that plague people who have believed in God for some time. Perhaps this is why it has been meaningful to the Christians of all ages.

3. The textual basis for the study

The text used for the analysis in this article is the third edition of the United Bible Societies' (UBS) The Greek New Testament, (Aland et al. 1975). No textual variants were taken into consideration for this study, but the text was assumed to approximate that written by James. The punctuation of the third edition exists in two forms: an earlier punctuation of 1975, also used in the Fribergs' Analytical Greek New Testament (1981), and the punctuation of the corrected third edition, which has been modified 'to conform to the text of the Nestle-Aland 26th edition, since this latter text more closely reflects the tradition of punctuation of the Greek New Testament text' (Aland et al. 1983:x).

The focus of text analysis is on the gap between higher level macrosegments and lower level structures, such as the sentence. Instead of choosing the sentence as the lower level unit for this analysis, the Greek colon was chosen, marked as to ending in *The Greek New Testament* by either a colon (a raised dot), a period, or a question mark. The editors of *The Greek New Testament* have also marked a sentence with a closing period or question mark. Many of the sentences contain only one colon, but several contain more. Linguistically, a case can be made that the unit punctuated as a colon is actually a sentence, and the multicolon sentence is actually a paragraph. It is so analyzed in the following discussion, but the term *colon* has been kept rather than *sentence* to avoid confusion.

The revised punctuation is less well suited for such an analysis. The corrected edition changes several of the raised dots to commas, thus making even longer colons with the result that the colons, as presented, are linguistic paragraphs. In one case (2:19), a question mark has been changed to a raised dot. In only one case (3:6) has a raised dot been inserted. After careful consideration and comparison, I have followed the punctuation of the earlier third edition with its generally shorter colons. Perhaps a case can be made that even some of the colons, as marked, contain two or more linguistic sentences, but I decided not to redefine the colons that are marked.

As they stand, the colons often show a distinctive surface structure. While many colons begin without any conjunctions or interjections at all, there is a difference between the kinds of conjunctions and interjections that begin a colon and those that are found between clauses within a colon. For example, the following conjunctions and interjections are found only at the beginning of a colon in the book of James: gar, ei, hoti ei, idou, oun, and dio. Medially, one finds such conjunctions as hoti (without ei), hina, and hotan. The conjunction de is not distinctive in this regard; it is found at least twenty-two times initially and twelve times medially. The conjunction kai, on the other hand, is used almost exclusively in medial locations. Kai and its contractions are found only five times colon initially but sixty-five times colon medially. It is the conjunction of choice in James to join coordinate clauses within a colon. Thus this distribution of conjunctions, produced by the original punctuation of the third edition, is an argument for its value in a linguistic analysis.

4. Macrosegmentation

Although there are several places where most scholars have agreed that a new segment begins, there is not uniform agreement on how the text is to be divided as a whole. This study presents two methods of arriving at the macrosegmentation of the text. First, since James has been extensively studied by others, the results of several scholars' research have been collated and a minimum number of textual divisions has been arrived at,

based on agreement between them. Second, the natural divisions of the text which occur between lexical chains have been noted.

Table 1 presents a summary of macrosegmentation in James. It contains two kinds of information based on the two methodologies outlined above. The first charts the results of others' studies. The suggested major blocks, sections, and paragraphs are listed for the UBS Greek New Testament, the RSV, NIV, NEB, the Translator's New Testament, and works by Dibelius (1975), Reicke (1964), Davids (1982), and Hymes (1986). In the leftmost column of table 1 is a list of the forty-three places in James where these studies suggest that either a block, section, or paragraph begins. The next column shows those places where vocatives occur in the initial verses listed. Under the subcolumns for blocks, sections, and paragraphs labeled Minim. ('minimum') are given the number of sources that gave a particular verse as beginning either a block, section, or paragraph. Total possible sources for a particular verse are 2 for blocks, 7 for sections, and 7 for paragraphs. Where the number is the maximum, thus showing total agreement among the sources, a line has been drawn across the top of that row to divide the text into a minimum agreed upon number of blocks, sections and paragraphs. This results in three major blocks, eight sections, and fourteen paragraphs. These are minimum divisions; all sources indicate that the text should be further subdivided. They disagree, however, as to where those divisions occur. The rightmost column gives the themes of the verses that follow the suggested beginnings.

The second kind of information found in table 1 shows the results of a study of linking words forming 'chains' of words in James. These 'chains' have often been noted in studies on James (Turner 1976:116), but their significance for defining sections has been overlooked. To conduct this study, a copy of the Greek book of James was marked to indicate 'links', that is, words which occur more than once in a passage and thus serve to tie the sections together (i.e. provide cohesion) in the surface structure. These linking words are shown in tables 2-4. The reader should realize that although the tables are presented in English, the links are based upon Greek so that words with the same Greek roots, such as justified and righteousness, are listed as links. This study was begun in order to look for links between sections, but it soon became apparent that it had intrasegmental value rather than intersegmental value. To be sure, the links went across boundaries that had been suggested by others, but there were boundaries across which no link went. By noting these boundaries, the

text was divided into eighteen sections. These linkage sections have been labeled A to R and are presented in table 1 under the subcolumn Link of the Sections column. On the basis of a notional feature of theme and surface features of a beginning vocative, a beginning rhetorical question, and a switch in person of addressee from plural to singular to plural, the sections were further subdivided into major paragraphs, which have been indicated in the subcolumn Link of the Paragraph column. The major paragraph of 4:1–10 has been further subdivided into secondary paragraphs, indicated in table 1 by lines halfway across the column. Lastly, the sections were classified as to long or short, using an arbitrary scale of more than three major paragraphs and/or ten verses in length versus less than four major paragraphs and/or ten verses in length, respectively. Using this guide, the first five sections are short, the next four are long, and the final nine are short.

Some note needs to be made of a few places where this method of determining sections may seem to cause some problems. Although all the sources placed a section break at 1:2, the association of rejoice with joy does not allow a linking boundary at this place. Again, six out of seven sources began a new section at 4:1. The links of jealousy and the contrast between peace and war seemed to rule that out. Next, although the word heart appears in both 5:5 and 5:8 and the word earth in 5:7, 5:12, and 5:18, it was decided that these words were incidental and not thematic in establishing links. Lastly, Hymes (1986:97) has been followed in making 5:9 a separate section against all other sources. Even though a link of patience could have been established across it, (1) it has no link with the immediately preceding or following verses, (2) it begins with a vocative, and (3) it discusses a different theme than its context. Therefore it has been taken as a separate section.

Finally, it was noted that although there were boundaries across which no link existed, the linking words would be repeated in other parts of the book. A chart was drawn up (table 5) listing the sections versus the linking words and concepts. An X was marked in any column in which a word or topic was found in the appropriate concept row. A search was thus made for a pattern that might exist between the linked sections, but no such pattern was found. However, when the sections were listed clockwise around a circle (see p. 118) and lines were drawn between sections that shared linking words and topics, it became apparent that rather than

Verse	Vocatives	Bloc Link M		Section . Link M		Paragraphs Link Minim.	Themes
1:1 2 5 9 12 13	my brothers	S H O R T	2	A B C	7 7 1 2 3	7 7 3 6 6 1	address endurance wisdom poor-rich endurance
16 19 22 23	my b. broth. my b. broth.			D	2 5 1		endurance God's gifts anger doer-hearer doer-hearer
26 2:1 5 8 12 13	my brothers my b. broth.	L O N G	2	E F	7	6 7 6 4 2 1	pure religion partiality poor-rich partiality do-judge judgment
14 18 20 21 24 25	my brothers			G	7	7 6 1 1 1	faith-works faith-works faith-works faith-works faith-works faith-works
3:1 3 5b 6 7	my brothers		1	H	7	7 1 1 4 1	tongue tongue tongue tongue tongue
9 13 17 4:1 4	adulteresses		1	I	7 6	2 7 1 7 3	tonguewisdomwisdomfightingsworld friends
7 11 13 5:1 7 9 10 12 13 17 19	brothers you who say you rich brothers brothers brothers my brothers	S H O R T	2 1 1	J K L M N O P Q	4 7 6 7 1 1 3 3		repentance criticizing Lord willing rich endurance grumbling endurance swearing prayer prayer repentance

Table 1. Sections and paragraphs in James

Section	Verses	Linking words
Α	1:1, 2	rejoice—joy
	1:3, 4	endurance—endurance
	1:4, 5	lacking—lack
	1:5, 6	ask—ask
	1:6, 6	doubting—doubting
В	1:9, 10	humble—humility
	1:10, 11	the rich—the rich
	1:10, 11	flower—flower
	1:10, 11	grass—grass
C	1:12, 13, 14	trial—tempted—tempted—tempt—tempted
	1:14, 15	desires—desire
	1:15, 15	sin—sin
D	1:17, 17	every—every
	1:17, 17	giving—gift
	1:17, 25	perfect—perfect
	1:18, 21, 22, 23	word—word—word
	1:19, 19	slow—slow
	1:19, 20	wrath—wrath
	1:22, 23, 25	doer—doer—doing
	1:22, 23, 25	hearer—hearer
	1:23, 24	observing—observes
E	1:26, 27	religious—religion—religion
F	2:1, 9	partiality—be partial
	2:2, 3	clothes—clothes
	2:2, 3	shining—shining
	2:2, 3, 5, 6	poor-poor-poor-poor
	2:3, 3	say—say
	2:3, 3	you—you
	2:3, 3	sit—sit
	2:4, 4	judge—judges
	2:5, 6	rich—rich
	2:5, 8	kingdom—royal
	2:6, 7	you—you
	2:9, 10, 11	law—law—law
	2:9, 11	transgressors—transgressor
	2:11, 11	commit adultery—commit adultery
	2:11, 11	commit murder—commit murder
	2:12, 13, 13	judged—judgment—judgment
	2:13, 13, 13	without mercy—mercy—mercy

Table 2. Linking words for James 1:1-2:13

Section	Verses	Linking words
G	2:14, 16	what the profit—what the profit
	2:14, 17, 18,	faith—faith—faith—faith—faith—
	19, 20, 22,	believe—believe—faith—faith—faith—
	23, 24, 26	believed—faith—faith
	2:14, 17, 18,	works—works—works—works—
	20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26	works—works—works—works—works—works—
	2:17, 26, 26	dead—dead—dead
	2:18, 18, 18	I—me—my
	2:18, 18, 18	youyou
	2:18, 18	show—show
	2:21, 23	Abraham—Abraham
	2:21, 23, 24, 25	justified—righteousness—justified—justified
Н	3:1, 2	many-much
	3:2, 2	stumble—stumble
	3:2, 3	to bridle—bit
	3:3, 3, 6	whole body—whole body
	3:3, 4	turn—turn
	3:5, 6, 6	the tongue—the tongue—the tongue
	3:5, 6	fire—fire
	3:6, 6	set on fire—set on fire
	3:7, 7	nature/kind—nature/kind
	3:7, 7, 8	tamed—tamed—tame
	3:7, 8, 9 3:9 10	human—men—men bless—blessing
	3:9, 10 3:9, 10	curse—cursing
	3:11, 12	sweet—sweet
	3:12, 12	fig tree—figs
I	3:13, 13, 15, 17	wise—wisdom—wisdom
	3:14, 16; 4:2	jealousy—jealousy—are jealous
	3:14, 16	selfish ambition—selfish ambition
	3:17, 18	fruits—fruit
	3:18, 18	peace—peace
	4:1, 2	wars—war
	4:1, 2	fightings—fight
	4:1, 3	pleasures—pleasures
	4:2, 3, 3	ask—ask—ask
	4:4, 4	friendship of the world—friend of the world
	4:4, 4	hatred of God—enemy of God
	4:6, 6 4:6, 10	gives grace—gives grace humble—humble
	4:8, 8	draw near—draw near
	٠.0, ٥	diam iivai — diam iivai

Table 3. Linking words for James 2:14-4:17

Section	Verses	Linking words
J	4:11, 11, 11	criticize—criticizing—criticizes
	4:11, 11, 11	brothers-brother-brother
	4:11, 11, 11,	judging—judges—judge—
	11, 12, 12	judge—judge—judging
	4:11, 11, 11, 11	law—law—law
K	4:13, 14	tomorrow—tomorrow
	4:13, 15, 17, 17	do-do-do-do
	4:14, 15	life—live
	4:16, 16	boast—boasting
L	5:1, 2	rich—riches
	5:3, 3	tarnishedpoison
	5:3, 5	days—day
M	5:7, 7, 8	be patient—being patient—be patient
	5:7, 8	advent of the Lord—advent of the Lord
N	5:9, 9	judged—judge
О	5:10, 11	Lord—Lord—Lord
	5:11, 11	enduring—endurance
P	5:12, 12	yes—yes
	5:12, 12	nono
Q	5:13, 14, 15,	pray—pray—prayer—
	16, 17, 17, 18	pray—prayer—prayed—prayed
	5:14, 15	the Lord—the Lord
	5:15, 16	sins—sins
	5:16, 16	one another—one another
	5:17, 17	rain—rain
R	5:19, 20	errs—error
	5:19, 20	turns—turning
	5:20, 20	sinner—sins

Table 4. Linking words for James 5:1-5:20

a pattern emerging between a few of the sections, these intersectional links ultimately connected all the sections in a spider web fashion. For this reason these intersectional links will be referred to as 'webs'. For example, sec. A has 'webs' with secs. C, D, F, G, H, I, and Q; sec. B with D, F, K, I, J, L, and O, and so forth (cf. table 6). The resulting 'webs' hold the book together. Note that sec. I has a dozen ties with other sections. This seems to make it some sort of thematic peak.

-			
1.	in	ked	sections

Webbing words and concepts	A	В	c	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	o	P	Q	R
blessing			X	X				X							X			
boasting		X									X							
crying									X			X						
destroy		X								X								
doing/works				X		X	X		X									
endurance		X		X											X			
faith	X					X	X										X	
friends							X		X									
from God				X					X									
heart					X				X			X	X					
humility		X							X									
judgment						X		X		X				X		X		
meekness				X					X									
murder						X			X			X						
patience													X		X			
perfect	X			X				X										
poor		X				X												
prayer	X								X								X	
proving		X		X														
repentance									X									X
rich		X				X						X						
save				X			X			X							X	
speaking				X		X		X		X	X			X		X		
temptation	X		X															
tongue					X			X										
two-souled	X								X									
wisdom	X								X									

Table 5. Webbing relationships in James

5. Microsegmentation in James

The segmentation of James can be further extended by dividing the sections into paragraphs. Only major paragraphs are indicated in table 1, but it is possible to analyze the text so that paragraphs are found within paragraphs. The theory used in such an analysis is that of Longacre, who holds that discourse and paragraph can be recursive structures (1983b:4). For most of these minor paragraphs the analysis is based on referential role within the notional structure, while the macrosegments and colons

are based primarily on surface features. To be sure, surface marking devices of paragraphs, such as vocatives and switch in verb person, occur at the beginning of the paragraphs as analyzed, but for the most part, an analysis of paragraph structure is dependent on notional relationships.

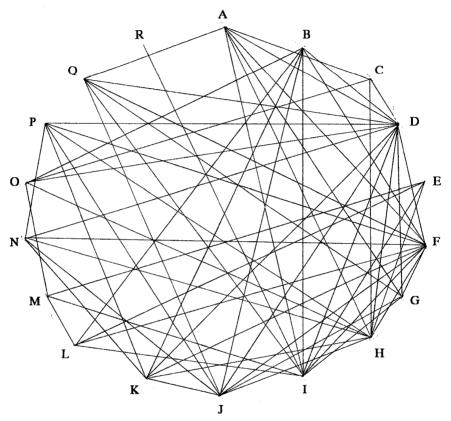


Table 6. Webbing structures in James

In this analysis of James a discourse can contain up to four levels of embedded paragraphs. The shortest discourse sections in James occur at the beginning and end of the book. The final discourse is a single colon containing a single verb in the independent clause. Most of the discourses at the beginning and the end make but a single point. By way of contrast the four central discourses (from 2:1-4:10) contain two to four points each and have complicated embedding. The first three discourses contain only right branching paragraphs. Toward the end, discourses K and O are primarily left branching paragraphs. As table 1 shows, paragraph beginnings are often marked by the presence of vocatives. However, vocatives also occur elsewhere, usually in peak material, as noted in sec. 9. Another marking device for paragraph beginnings is a switch in verb person (found in 2:18 and 24).

6. The macrostructure for the book of James

Since James is a series of exhortations regarding different topics, the overall macrostructure cannot be summarized as a single sentence. Rather, it is a combination of the key ideas found in the individual macrostructures of the several sections and major paragraphs. The minor macrostructures given in this section have been isolated by following a variation of van Dijk's suggestions for deriving a macrostructure (1977: 144-146). They are followed by a suggested extended macrostructure for the whole book.

Section and paragraph macrostructures:

- A 1:3 proving $\{\text{of your faith}\}^1$ works endurance
 - 5 if anyone lacks wisdom, let him ask God in faith, and it will be given
- B 10 let the rich boast in his humiliation
- C 13 let no one say when he is tempted, 'I am tempted from God'
- D 17 every good gift is from the Father
 - 19 let everyone be {quick to hear, slow to speak,} slow to anger
 - 22 be doers of the word {and not just hearers}
- E 27 {clean} religion is to visit orphans and widows, to keep oneself unspotted
- F 2:1 do not hold the faith with prejudice
- G 26 faith without works is dead
- H 3:8 the tongue [is] evil
- I 13 let the wise show his works {by good behavior} in meekness of wisdom
 - 4:1, 7 {wars from within; therefore} submit to God
- J 11 do not criticize one another
- K 15 you [ought] to say, 'If the Lord wills'
- L 5:1 rich, weep {howling} at your coming misery
- M 7 be patient until the coming of the Lord

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{Braces}$ { } indicate less central concepts. Brackets [] indicate words added for translation purposes.

- N 9 do not grumble {that you may not be judged}
- O 11 blessed [are] those who endure
- P 12 do not swear; {let your yes be yes and [your] no [be] no}
- Q 16 {confess sins to one another and} pray for one another
- R 20 the one who turns a sinner from the error of his way saves his soul

Proposed macrostructure:

Brothers, show the true wisdom of submitting in faith to God (who gives good gifts, including wisdom, and not temptations) rather than trusting in self or in riches so that you will not be judged by him. This wisdom is shown by patient endurance in good words and works. The good words include using the normally evil tongue for singing, praying, confessing sins, weeping, submitting to the Lord's will, and turning the sinner to God, rather than for be-ing angry, being prejudiced, criticizing, grumbling, swearing, boasting, and being false. The good works of clean religion involve doing what God's word says, helping the weak, and keeping oneself from sin.

7. Quote formulas in James

Thirteen quotations occur in the book of James (1:13; 2:2 [tris], 8, 11 [bis], 18, 22; 4:5, 6, 13, 15). In every case but one, the quotation is introduced by a form of $leg\bar{o}$ 'to say'. In 2:8 the quotation is in apposition to the noun *Scripture* without the use of $leg\bar{o}$. In 2:2 the past of $leg\bar{o}$ is used to introduce two quotations joined by \bar{e} 'or'. In only one passage is the quote also introduced by *hoti* 'that' (1:13). The quotation is direct, as is apparent from the use of the first person singular verb affix.

Two of the quotations seem to be indirect quotations even though they are introduced by the same quotation formulas as the other quotations that are direct. In Jas 2:18 we read: 'But someone will say you have faith and I have works.' If the words following 'say' are put in quotation marks (as in the RSV, NEB, and NIV), there is referential incoherence: In the first part of the verse, you refers to James and I refers to the opponent, while in the last part of the verse, you refers to the opponent and I to James. It is possible to solve this by extending the quote through the end of 18 (as in the NASV); but this produces the same kind of switch reference problem between 18 and 19 (where there is no grammatical device to indicate such switch reference). It seems better to accept this as an example of indirect quotation. In this way I always refers to James in

the passage and you to his opponent. In the same way, Jas 4:5 seems to be an indirect quotation, summarizing an Old Testament idea. There is no passage in the Old Testament containing exactly this quotation.

8. Chiasmus in James

The book of James is not usually cited for its examples of chiasmus, but several cases do exist. The theme of endurance is arranged chiastically in secs. A and B around sec. B. In the same way, secs. M and O have the similar theme of patience surrounding sec. N.

There are at least two cases of lexical chiasmus in the book. Jas 3:7 uses the words *nature*, *tame*, *tame*, and *nature* in an ABBA form, and in 5:19-20 a similar structure is found using *wander*, *turn*, *turn*, and *wander*.

Also there are two cases of structural chiasmus on the clause level. Jas 2:14-16 has the structure: 'what profit is it,' conditional statement, declaration, conditional statement, and 'what profit is it.' The longest chiastic passage covers 2:20-26. Verse 20 contains a statement about faith apart from works. Verse 21 asks: 'Was not Abraham justified by works?' Verses 22 and 23 state: 'You see that' faith is completed by works and that Abraham's faith was reckoned as righteousness. Verse 24 states: 'You see that' a man is justified by works and not by faith alone. Verse 25 asks: 'Was not Rahab justified by works?' And finally, 26 contains a statement about faith apart from works. Interestingly, 20-23 use the second person singular, and 24-26 use the second person plural.

9. Turbulence and peak in James

Longacre has stated that peak is essentially 'a zone of turbulence in regard to the flow of the discourse' (1983a:25). Ten kinds of turbulence that may constitute a peak or peaks were noted in James. These features, listed below, are displayed in table 6, showing where they are found in the eighteen linked discourses of James (labeled A through R).

- (1) One section containing lists is found (3:15, 17).
- (2) The longest clause occurs in 3:17. (It is nineteen words long in a book in which the clauses average five words in length.)
- (3) There is a passage composed of short independent clauses (4:7-10).
 (4) The verbs of that same passage are almost entirely agrist imperatives
- (4) The verbs of that same passage are almost entirely agrist imperatives (4:7-10).
- (5) There are six passages containing the interjection *idou* 'behold' (3:4, 5b; 5:4, 7b, 9b, 11).

- (6) There are four places where vocatives that do not mark paragraph beginnings are found (3:10b, 12; 4:8b, 8c).
- (7) Six paragraphs begin with questions (2:14, 20; 3:13; 4:1, 4; 5:13).
 (8) There is a case of switching from second person plural to singular to plural (2:20, 24).
- (9) One section has a greater percentage of VS² word order than SV word order (5:10-11; the sections that have equal percentages [50%-50%] are 1:16-25; 4:1-3; 5:7-9, 12-18).
- (10) Two sections have a greater percentage of OV word order than have a VO word order (3:1-12; 5:10-11).

Discou	rse	Ref	List	Long	Short	Imp	Inj	Voc	?	SgPl	VS%	OV%
Short .	Α	1:1-8									29	31
	В	9-11									33	25
	C	12-15									14	33
	D	16-25									x 50	35
	\mathbf{E}	26-27						•			0	43
Long	F	2:1-13									19	22
	G	14-26							X	X	32	42
	H	3:1-12					X	X			13	X 52
	I ¹ I ² I ³	13-18	X	X					X		25	33
	I_2	4:1-4							X		x 50	*3
		5-7							X		13	36
	I ⁴	8-10			X	X		X			25	16
Short	J	11-12									11	20
	K	13-17									29	44
•	L	5:1-6					X				10	33
]	M	7-8					X				x 50	0
	N	9					X				x 50	*
	O	10-11					X				X 67	X 80
	P	12									x 50	0
	Q	13-18							X		x 50	27
	R	19-20									20	0

Table 6 Areas of turbulence in the book of James

Seven of the ten kinds of turbulence that were noted fall in sec. I, indicating that it forms some kind of peak in James. It is one of the 'long'

²V means verb, S = subject, and O = object. Other abbreviations here and in table 6 are: Ref = reference, Imp = imperative, Inj = interjection, Voc = vocative, SgPl = singularplural, % = percent.

³There are no VO or OV clauses in these sections.

discourses of James, where long is defined as a discourse of more than ten verses. Discourse I contains four major paragraphs: 3:13-18; 4:1-3, 4-6, and 7-10. In table 6 these are labeled I1, I2, I3, and I4. Since all the turbulence does not fall in one paragraph, these have been distinguished in that section. But it is important to remember that they are all part of the same discourse. This discourse has several feature that distinguish it as a peak. In James, 3:15 has the only occurrence of a periphrastic participle in an independent clause. It serves to introduce a three-item list. A nine-item list follows in 17. These are the only lists in the book. A definite peak occurs in Jas 4:7-10 where a series of short independent clauses exist using ten aorist imperative verbs and three future indicatives. It can be seen in table 6 that turbulence begins in secs. G and H.

There is another zone of turbulence that covers secs. L-Q and has a word-order restructuring peak in discourse O (5:10-11). At this point the usual order of SV and VO are abandoned in favor of VS and OV. Two of the six OVS clauses in the book occur in these two verses. However, in one of the sentences the subject is a vocative subject, which is regularly postpositioned after the verb, and in the other the object is a predicate adjective, which regularly occurs before the verb. The postpositioning of the subject in this latter clause would seem to emphasize the adjective, which is describing an attribute of God. Thus it would seem that the OVS word order is serving other purposes than to mark the peak here. The occurrence of the words above all in sec. P (5:12) should also be noted, although this overt semantic marker is toward the end of the zone of minor turbulence.

The conclusion seems to be that the major zone of turbulence in sec. I marks the thematic climax of the book. This agrees with the fact noted earlier from table 5 that sec. I has more 'webs' to other sections than any other section. In a book that is more like the Old Testament wisdom books of Proverbs and Ecclesiastes than any other New Testament book, the major peak occurs in a discourse that begins with a discussion of wisdom. The wisdom from God is contrasted with earthly wisdom, which is shown by jealousy and which leads to fighting and friendship with the world. For this reason, in the last paragraph of this section James calls on his readers to repent and draw near to God in humility. Table 6 summarizes the results of the study.

10. Summary

In this article the application of Longacre's methodology of text analysis has been shown to be of value in discovering structural relationships in a discourse that has previously defied attempts to understand them. Two significant discoveries about the structure of the book of James have been made.

First, the book is marked by a fairly complex macrostructure that maps onto eighteen sections which are lexically linked. These sections are tied together by the use of lexical chains. Their boundaries are defined by a lack of lexical chaining between adjoining sections. The first five sections are relatively brief and contain a chiasmus of the topic of endurance around a section on the poor and rich. This is followed by four longer sections, each of which is at least four major paragraphs in length. Finally, the book concludes with nine brief sections, including a chiasmus of the topic of endurance around a section on using the tongue for grumbling. All eighteen sections are lexically linked together in a 'webbing' relationship between nonadjacent sections.

Second, the last longer section (3:13-4:10) contains at least seven types of peak material and seems to function as a kind of 'hortatory climax.' Of note within it is the final paragraph (4:7-10) that contains ten imperative verbs, underscoring the hortatory nature of the book. The whole section has more 'webs' to other sections than any other section, indicating that it is thematically significant. Of special interest is the fact that within this book, which has ties to the Old Testament wisdom literature, the theme of the first paragraph in this climactic section is the wisdom that comes down from God.

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THE UNDERLYING POETIC STRUCTURE OF 1 JOHN

Keir L. Hansford

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1. Introduction¹

Many commentators have attempted to discover the structure of the first epistle of John, and most seem to admit there is a problem in seeing how the author originally laid it out. For example, Westcott says:

It is extremely difficult to determine with certainty the structure of the Epistle. No single arrangement is able to take account of the complex development of thought which it offers, and of the many connexions which exist between its different parts. (1966:xlvi)

Wilder (1957) saw in the epistle a cumulative movement of thought and succession of themes, linked together more by fundamental insights than by conscious composition. He found it to be a special form of hortatory style, familiar in the religious discourse of the age, marked by personal appeal, contrasts of right and wrong, and truth and falsehoods.

Bruce, however, says:

It is plain to the observant reader that we have here passages in homiletic style interspersed with epigrammatic theses, often grouped in antithetic pairs. (1979:29)

Marshall (1978:22-26) lists the views of several other commentators, each with a differing analysis of the contents of the epistle and then offers his own, but in each case the analysis offered is based on the logical rather than formal structure.

¹I wish to thank Dr. Don Carson for his oral comments on the first draft of this paper and my colleagues Paul Dancy and Pam Bendor-Samuel for their written comments on the second draft. Any remaining errors are entirely mine.

Longacre maintains, in common with many others, that 1 John fits into the genre of a hortatory discourse. He sets out his own analysis of the epistle on that hypothesis. He says:

The basic schema in a hortatory discourse is: problem, command, motivation. In 1 John, the schema is repetitive and recursive and runs through component sentences of the text instead of determining three major sections. (1983:3)

Sherman and Tuggy take a similar view:

Hortatory schema present a 'problem' which we call 'intended change', a 'command' which we call an 'appeal', together with a 'basis' for the appeal. This basis can be 'motivational', 'trust', 'axiomatic', 'warning', etc. (1990:iv)

However, the problem with all these analyses is that their proponents focus on the semantic arguments of the epistle and are reluctant to seek a solution from the structure of the Greek text. Those who have suggested a structural key have generally been severely criticized. For example, Sibinga (Marshall 1978:27) proposed that the epistle be divided into three sections roughly equal in length by counting syllables. Although on the surface this seems very unlikely, I believe that it stumbles upon the possibility (which I shall argue is a fact) that there are definite structural divisions in the text that are no accident and which bear a close but not rigid approximation to the semantic boundaries.

One modern commentator, Lenski, has made an interesting observation that provides a further clue. He says:

This letter is built like an inverted pyramid or cone. The basic apex is laid down in 1:1-4; then the upward broadening begins. Starting with 1:5-10, the base rises and expands and continues in everwidening circles as one new pertinent thought joins the preceding thought. One block is not laid beside the other so that joints are made. There are really no joints, not even where the new thoughts are introduced. The line of thought simply spirals in rising, widening circles until all is complete. Keeping from idols (5:21) is only the brief final touch . . . I have never found the like in all literature. No poetical composition approaches this in structure . . . (1966:366)

This approach is interesting because he sees both repetition of thought and additional ideas being added. Furthermore, he makes comparisons with poetical structure, maintaining that 1 John is unique.

I believe, however, that two of the commentators who have offered the clearest way into solving some of the mysteries of this unique epistle are Bultmann and Brown. Bultmann (1927:138-58) purported to see and to reconstruct an original poem from which John is said to have composed the epistle, and this, he argued, explained many lines containing parallel thoughts. Brown took note of Bultmann's work when he wrote:

I find in 1 John the same quasi-poetry that was visible in the GJohn discourses of Jesus . . . By this I mean no more than that one can divide his Greek into sense lines of relatively similar length which match each other in rough rhythm . . . Bultmann thought that the antitheses in 1 John came from a poetic source, and so in his commentary only the putative source material is presented as poetry. . . . In my judgment, while the antitheses may be a clearer type of poetry (and occasionally clearer poetry appears in certain lines of the GJohn discourses too), the rhythmic pattern of what I have dubbed quasi-poetry runs through most of 1 John. (1982:128-29)

Additional support for seeing an underlying poetical-type structure comes from the translators of the Jerusalem Bible (JB), who have decided to lay out the whole epistle as a poem. Other modern translations (NEB, NIV) have only acknowledged parallelisms in 2:12–14. Without actually accepting the line breaks as they make them in the JB, I argue in this article that, in fact, the whole of the epistle was constructed out of parallelisms and that by cutting up the text into columns and lines, which will be explained in due course, every part of the text can be shown to have a parallel somewhere in the rest of the epistle, usually close at hand.

In appendix 1 these parallel statements are not only set in vertical columns but in groups, which I call strophes because of the underlying poetical nature of the structure of the epistle. There are eighteen such strophes, which vary in length from twenty-seven to fourteen clauses, but the average is twenty-two clauses, counting verbs that are expressed or implied and counting relative clauses (except those with verbs that are participles). This is only a rough counting method. However, as additional evidence for these groupings, I have endeavored to show at the beginning of each strophe that the author has used a set of key words, moving to a different but overlapping set in the next strophe. In addition to this, the boundaries of the strophes are, in many cases, marked by a key word or phrase at the beginning that is the same or very similar to the end of the strophe, thus setting up a simple chiastic pattern. This does not occur in

all cases, but repetition of a pattern from one strophe to the next suggests that these boundaries were intentional. Other parallelisms will be shown to be links between one strophe and the next. Among the key words are those that carry the theological arguments forward to refute the heretics, who are described as Antichrists and who have been identified by some scholars as followers of Cerinthus or other proto-Gnostics.

A further consequence of dividing the text into parallel thoughts is the revelation that some couplets form a chiastic structure based upon the reversal of the order of noun and verb. This will be displayed in the Greek text in appendix 1 by crossed linking-lines. For the same reason the English has been rendered more literal and made to follow the Greek word order except for adjectives and minor exceptions. The English text follows the Greek in each strophe for easy comparison. Appendix 2 proposes the original layout of chap. 1 if the analysis in appendix 1 is correct.

2. The genre of 1 John

Much has been written on the pros and cons of John the Apostle being the author of the Gospel of John and the three epistles of that name. The assumption in this article is that he is the author of both the Gospel and the epistles traditionally ascribed to him.

The main objection that 1 John is prima facie a letter is as follows: While it is clearly addressed to people and is from a person who is clearly well known to the readers, the fact that the sender and recipients are not identified (in contrast to 2 and 3 John) is a clue that this 'letter' is of a different genre. It is, of course, true that Polycarp in his writings referred to this text as an epistle of John. Is it perhaps in the form of a tractate letter that is meant for a wider audience and discoursing on a particular subject? Whether this is so or not, the real question is what is the original structure? It has been suggested by some that the whole epistle is a sermon or summary of a lifetime of sermons and that John intended it to be read aloud. The crux of the problem, assuming it is correct that the author wrote much of 1 John in poetic parallelisms, is whether he intended to write a poetic letter, a poetic sermon, or a poem. That 1 John was not simply a letter to a few friends seems clear from the general contents, in which he appears to address the problem of the Cerinthian form of Gnosticism without actually naming the perpetrator of the heresy condemned. It is a letter to be read aloud to a wider audience than just one church, like the epistles of James and Peter and the one written to the Hebrews. Without actually trying to answer these questions outright my argument is that this epistle is highly structured and that parallelism and chiasmus (which are generally recognized as common components of Hebraic poetry) are found in abundance in this work of John.

To deal with the analysis, the text has been divided into three columns. The first column (by far the least filled) lists those components that seem to identify the document as a letter. However, although the surface form is such, I suggest that the primary significance of the writer's words is to establish his authority as an eye-witness of the ministry of Our Lord and therefore his apostleship, which then authenticates the rest of the message. The same, of course, could be said about the opening lines of Paul's epistles, but the emphasis in 1 John is stronger. The author is bringing all his apostolic authority to bear against the heresy that is damaging the churches under his oversight.

3. Poetry in other parts of the Bible

Wonderly (1987:206) has noted that about one third of the entire Old Testament was written in Hebrew as poetry and that the New Testament also contains a number of passages that are poetic in style.

Before attempting to analyze 1 John, some of the poetic features in the Old Testament that may be relevant to the argument will be identified. Little needs repeating here concerning the well-recognized features of metaphor, simile, and personification, all of which are common in the Psalms, Proverbs, and in many passages in the prophets. Of more relevance to this case is the pattern of parallelism, found especially in the Psalms. The Psalms have been well-documented, and a summary of the different kinds of parallelism can be found in Guthrie and Motyer (1970:44-46) and Douglas (1962, s.v. Poetry in the Old Testament). Briefly, the patterns are:

- (1) Rhythm of thought, that is, the parallelism of thought. There are three basic types in the Psalms, along with a fourth set of elaborations on the three basic types, as follows:
 - (a) Synonymous or identical (A/A), where the second line (stychos) of a couplet (distych) says the same thing in identical or variant

words, such as Ps. 55:4, 5, and Ps. 59:1, 2. Of this basic type the following are variants:

- (i) Emblematic (A¹/A²), where one line makes a metaphorical statement and the second translates it literally, such as Ps. 103:13
- (ii) Climatic, where each subsequent line repeats part of the previous line, such as Ps. 92:9
- (b) Synthetic or accumulative (A/B/C/D etc.), where each line leads to the next in progression of thought, such as Ps. 23
- (c) Antithetical or contrasted (A/Z), where the second line says something opposed to or in contrast with the previous line, such as Ps. 1:6a, b. Variants of this type include contrastive statements separated by other lines, such as Ps. 1:1, 6.
- (d) This fourth type is perhaps a general heading that might be called 'Elaborate', since it covers many variants of the basic types in a, b, and c. The following are just two examples:
 - (i) Chiastic (A/B/B/A), such as Ps. 30:8-10
 - (ii) Triple (A/A/B/B/A/A), such as Ps. 24:7-8, which pattern is repeated in 9-10
- (2) Rhythm of sound, that is, there are three or four strong beats in each line and an equal or greater number of unstressed beats. This need not detain the analysis here because 1 John was written in Greek and no attempt is being made to analyze its metric structure, if indeed there is any.

This second feature of the Psalms is only apparent to those who know Hebrew.

Another writer, whose work may be significant but who has not been given sufficient recognition, is Bailey. He pointed out the many instances of poetic structure (1983:44-75) in passages in both the Old and New Testaments and proposed four basic types of structure, one of which has seven subtypes. A chiastic structure with a climax in the center is common to most of these, whether applied to prose or poetry.

Of the seven subtypes that Bailey proposes, most occur in the New Testament. One is **step parallelism** in Luke 6:20-26 and in the parabolic ballad of Luke 6:32-36. Bailey also finds chiastic parallels in the parables as recorded by Luke. All of this suggests that comments by Blaiklock (Douglas 1962, s.v. *Poetry in the New Testament*) and Martin (1964:47) are far too cautious in recognizing poetical passages in the New Testament. Bailey's thesis that there are many poetic passages in the New Testament (hitherto unacknowledged by most scholars but which I accept as valid) is an encouragement in seeking to uncover the poetic structure of 1 John. In doing so I have attempted to show that it is a special example of antithetical and chiastic parallelism.

4. Towards a definition of poetry

Space forbids the attempt to define poetry and arguing as to whether 1 John might fit any known Greek form of poetic literature, as well as citing Aristotle's Poetics (Cooke 1932). I suggest, however, that the definition or description made by Shklovsy (cited by Hawkes) be accepted. Hawks says:

According to Shklovsy the essential function of the poetic art is to counteract the process of habituation encouraged by routine everyday modes of perception... The aim of poetry is to reverse that process, to defamiliarize that with which we are overly familiar, to 'creatively deform' the usual, the normal, and to inculcate a new, child-like, non-jaded vision in us. (1977:62)

Hawkes (ibid:80-81) also cites Jakobson and Halle (1956:96-96):

The principle of similarity underlies poetry; the metrical parallelism of lines, or the phonic equivalence of rhyming words prompts the question of semantic similarity and contrast . . . Prose, on the contrary, is forwarded essentially by contiguity.

If one compares 2 and 3 John with 1 John, an immediate difference is seen. The shorter epistles are unarguably prose, but the longer epistle is very different, not only in its length and its strong didactic content but also in its semantic structure, which has been the subject of scholarly study for a long period of time. After a brief examination in sec. 5 of the use of metaphor and personification in 1 John, the focus turns to the formal structure of the text in order to show how deliberate it is.

5. Some poetic features of 1 John

It is worth remembering that John, as author of the Gospel and of 1 John, consistently used certain poetic features we have become very used to and scarcely recognize as such. These very usages set him apart from the other gospel writers as being somehow more 'mystic'. In some cases he has repeated phrases from the Gospel of John in 1 John, such as:

Gospel of John	1:4	God is light	1 John	1:5
	3:19	walk in darkness		1:6
	14:17	live in him		4:13
	16:33	victory over the world		5:4

However, some metaphors in 1 John clearly are not found in the Gospel, so perhaps these can be used as some evidence of poetic usage that was added by John himself, such as:

1 John 2:1 advocate with the Father

2:27 anointing that you have received

4:8 God is love.

The following is both metaphor and personification:

4:18 perfect love casts out fear

These features alone, however, do not prove that 1 John is a poem, and therefore the structure of 1 John must be considered in detail.

6. The structure of 1 John

The main argument of this article is that 1 John is a document whose structure is highly organized. The method of unwrapping the mystery of this puzzling package is to divide the text into three columns. As noted in sec. 1, the first column basically identifies the author and consolidates his apostolic authority. The main content is displayed in the other columns.²

²The headings and examples of the contents of columns 2 and 3 are as follows:

Column 2: Human action and Jesus' ministry on earth

1:8 If we say we have no sin, (conditional subordinate clause)

2:10 He who loves his brother (subject and qualifier clause)

3:2 He was revealed (main clause)

4:10 (God) sent his son (main clause)

Column 3: God's reaction and judgment on the content of column 2

we deceive ourselves . . . (main clause) dwells in the light (predicate) that our sins he might bear

(subordinate purpose clause)
a propitiation for our sins

(qualifier phrase)

Deciding which column a part of a sentence should be assigned to is sometimes very difficult. In such cases the assigning is based on the hypothesis that the author intended to write parallelisms. When the easy parts have been linked in couplets, the remainder is not hard to link.

It should be noted that linkage is vertical and never diagonal across columns. I suggest that dividing sentence parts, normally no longer than a clause, into columns provides the clue, whereas the comparison of complete sentences leads to some frustration. It is not the sentences that are parallel but the clauses and phrases.

A further benefit of linking couplets is the distinguishing of groups, or stropkes, that may be linked by a theme word or phrase rather than by a clause. This type of linkage is indicated in the introductions to strophes. The justification for each linkage of couplets is the same as that used to analyze the Psalms, and exactly the same types of parallelism are found exemplified.³ The linkage is displayed in both Greek and English texts.

Every strophe reveals an individual patterning. This fact might lead some to object that the patterning is unconscious and therefore unstructured. Yet the same objection could be made of the Psalms. Chiastic parallels (cf. i under d, p. 131) are found in 2:24. In fact this kind of patterning where the 'outer' couplet embeds other couplets, such as 3:5.2/3:8.2b, is common and is used to lead the argument forward. The coupling of couplets, common in the Psalms, is seen in 2:11.3, while another pattern of the Psalms, the linking of one line with a couplet, is exemplified in 3:22.2b-c/3:24.2a.

Judging from the inability thus far of commentators to agree on the semantic or logical divisions in the scheme of the total argument—with equal disagreement among the various translations—some readers will no doubt disagree with this analysis. However, note that this type of analysis produces a structure closely matching that of Stott (1964:55) in which he has seven main groups comprising a total of nineteen subgroups.

 $^{^{3}}$ Cf. p. 131. It would take too much space in this article to specify the exact type of linkage in each couplet. Suffice it here to identify a few examples. Reference numbers of the verse parts refer to chapter, verse, column, and line, so 1:2.1a means chap. 1, v. 2, column 1, and line a within that column:

a. Synonymous parallels, e.g. 1:2.1a/1:3.1a

b. Synthetic parallels, e.g. 1:1.3a/1:2.3b

c. Antithetical parallels, e.g. 1:6.2b/1:7.2

d. Elaborate parallels are revealed in 1:6-10

Some difficulties occur, however. For example, the answer to whether en toutō 'in this' in 3:10 is anaphoric or cataphoric will decide whether the second half of 3:10 belongs to strophe 9 or strophe 10. On the other hand it can be argued that to maintain the balance of approximate equality of length of the strophes it is part of 9, functioning logically as a transition between strophes 9 and 10. Another transitional section occurs in 4:19-4:21, bridging strophes 14 and 15; but to balance the length of strophes it is assigned to strophe 15.

A further consequence of laying out the text in couplets was pointed out to me by Dr. André Wilson, retired consultant with United Bible Societies, who showed me some of the chiastic structures formed by the reversal of the order of noun and verb in the second line of some couplets. This feature seems to occur deliberately at points throughout the epistle. Some of the occurrences of this feature have been indicated in the Greek, as well as the reordering of the English word order to bring out the same thing. I believe however that more work remains to be done here by Greek scholars to mark all the instances with accuracy, bearing in mind what the normal word order is in each case. That John was making a deliberate poetical chiasmus in each case may well go a long way in explaining some unnatural word order.

7. Exegetical consequences of this analysis of 1 John

Bruce says:

What we should emphasize above everything else is that the study of these poetical forms, whatever its limitations may be, and into whatever other fields it may lead us, is primarily important because of such help as it can give us in understanding the text of Scripture better. (1970:47)

This being the case, I would tentatively offer this analysis as revealing insights into the following parts of the text:

- 1:1.3a What was from the beginning is now explained by 1:2.3b, namely that it refers, not to the beginning of Jesus' ministry but to time before the creation of the world. (Note that there is no column 2 in the first five verses.)
- 2:1.3b Jesus Christ the righteous now links with 2:2.3b for our sins. This confirms the doctrine from elsewhere in Scripture (e.g. Heb. 9:14) that only a righteous sacrifice was sufficient to take away sins.

- 2:1.3a advocate with the Father is now linked with 2:2.3a he the propitiation is, showing that the work of advocacy relates to pleading with the Father that the propitiation is sufficient.
- 2:8.3a which is true in him and in you is now connected with 2:10.3b cause of offence in him is not. The answer to the question What is true in him and you? is that there is no cause of offence in Jesus or in the believer because the true light already shines.
- 2:15.3 the Father's love is now joined with 2:16.3a is not of the Father, adding strength to the interpretation that it is subjective.
- 3:9.2b his seed in him dwells is linked with 3:9.2a, and this adds weight to the interpretation that God has put his seed/likeness in the Christian.
- 4:12.2a has always been a puzzle as to why such a statement occurs here. Linked with 4:10.2a not that we loved God by the process of linking up all the other more obvious parallels and leaving these two in parallel leads to the answer that no one naturally loves a God who is invisible.
- 4:12.3b The part his love in us is perfected and the word perfect, which occurs three times in strophe 14, are linked now to 4:11.3 if God so loved us. This adds support to the interpretation, otherwise established on grammatical and semantic grounds, that John is not referring so much to sanctification as to the completion of God's acts of love toward us, evidenced by our love for one another.
- 5:3.3 For this is the love of God, now linked with 5:2.3 we love the children of God, supports the otherwise semantically argued view that God is, in this case, objective.

An interesting diversion, but still on the subject of exegesis, is the possibility of whether v. 7, found in the KJV and the Textus Receptus (TR) but rejected by modern scholars as dubious on textual grounds, could have fitted into the poetic parallelism of strophe 16. The answer seems to be that it could be fitted into it as in the display on p. 12.

Whether one adds these extra lines or, as most scholars do, delete them as having dubious textual support, 5:6-5:9 are difficult to arrange in the three columns previously suggested since they are not so much grounds-conclusion as bold statements of doctrine; it is not easy to decide whether because there are three witnessing in the now widely accepted version of the text is God's comment on the statement and the Spirit is the one witnessing or, as in the TR and KJV, a part of the doctrinal statement there are three that bear witness in heaven. On the basis of the comparative poetic structures, only the disputed version is more plausible and makes a

very regular pattern, which 5:8 in the widely accepted version does not. Under the reorganization that results from adding the disputed verses, however, and the Spirit is the one witnessing has to be connected to the couplet 5:9.2 and 5:11.2.

```
This
is the one who came by water and blood,
Jesus Christ,
not by water only but by water and blood.

And the Spirit is the one witnessing,

because the Spirit is truth.

For there are three
that bear witness in heaven,
the Father, the Word, and the Holy Spirit,
and the three are one.

And there are three
that bear witness on earth,
the Spirit and the water and the blood,
and these three agree in one.

If the witness of men we receive,
the witness of God greater is, . . .
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Whatever the merits of the arguments against the disputed lines, it does seem as though the now widely accepted text neither gets rid of the nagging question that something is missing nor reads well as it stands.

8. Conclusion

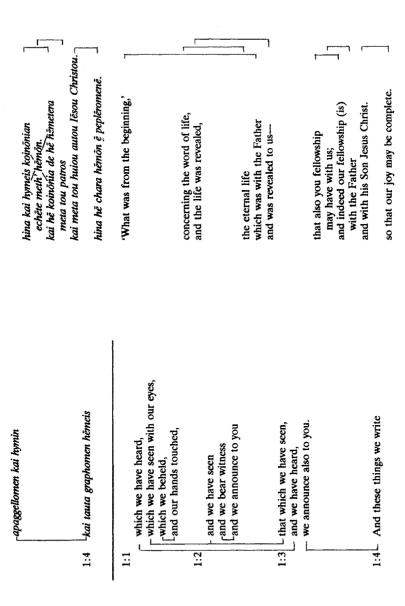
I have argued that the form of 1 John is a highly structured text, probably a homily or sermon, with poetic parallelisms and chiastic structures that the writer deliberately created to make his message more pleasurable and memorable for all time. The consequence for us is that, by unraveling the structure in this way, it can be more easily understood. Moreover, not only can it support the exegesis already argued on other grounds by some Greek scholars but also, perhaps, it can add something to the body of literary studies that has helped to unfold the Scriptures in more meaningful ways.

Appendix 1

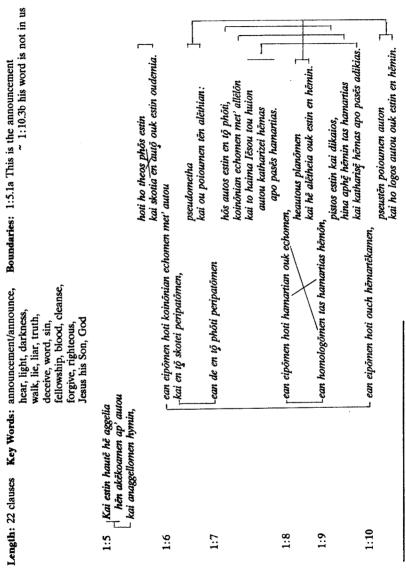
Strophe 1

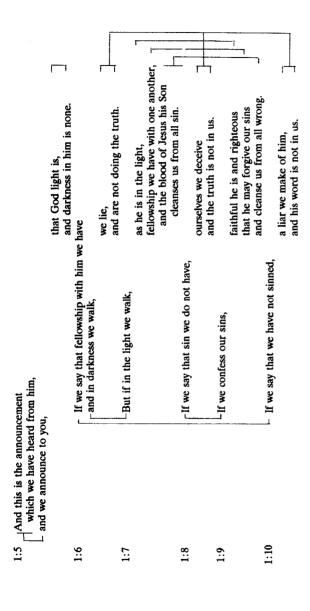
cellowship, Father, Other features: 1:4-5 form the center of a chiastic structure in which vv. 3 argument and the similarity of length of all the strophes in and 6 have the theme of fellowship in common, and v. 1.3b 1:1.3a What was from the beginning "1:3.3e ... and with his Son Jesus Christ is echoed in 10.3b his word. While this argues for strophes 1 and 2 being one unit, other considerations of the logical Length: 20 clauses Key Words: hear, see, witness, Boundaries: 1:1.1a which we have heard ~ 1:3.1b . . . and we have heard God's reaction and judgment kai ephanerothė hėmin kai hē zōē ephanerothē, hētis ēn pros ton patera, peri tou logou tês zões, the text argue against it. Ho ēn ap' archēs, tēn zōēn aiōnion Human Action/Jesus' ministry word, life, eternal, Son Jesus Christ - ho heorakamen tois opthalmois hēmon, -kai hai cheires hēmon epsēlaphēsan announce. Ref. Authority of the Apostle rkai manyroumen kai apaggellomen hymin rho etheasametha -kai heōrakamen 1:3 - ho heōrakamen -ho akēkoamen, – kai akēkoamen 1:1

Formal characteristics (length, key words, boundaries, and other features) defining internal coherence are described at the beginning of each strophe.



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Strophe	



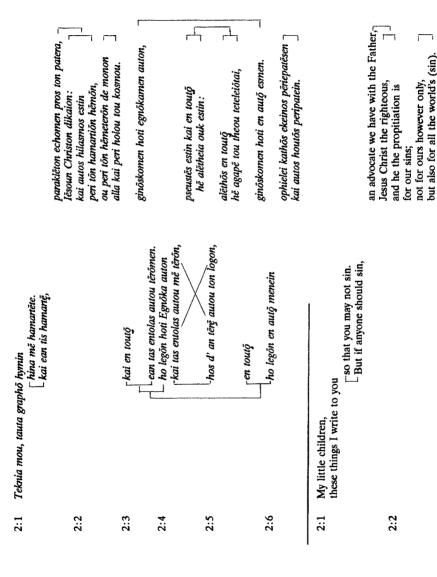


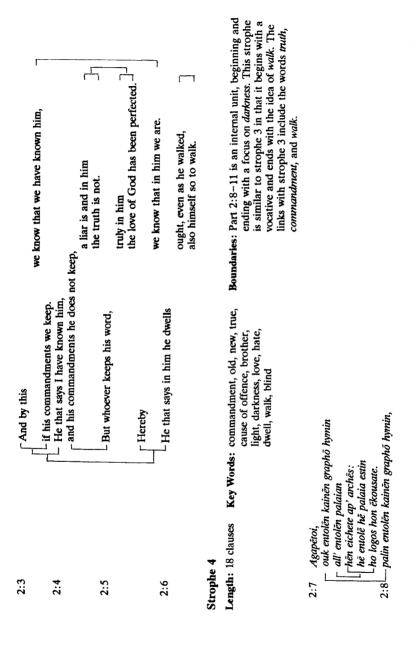
Boundaries: Strophes 2 and 3 are almost chiastic mirror images with walk lesus Christ, Father, word, love, perfect, dwell, walk, keep, liar, truth, truly, commandments, Key Words: sin, righteous, world, know, Length: 19 clauses

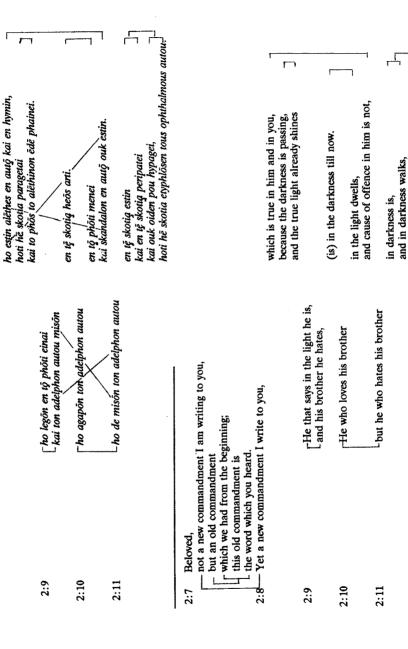
Strophe 3

advocate, propitiation

for not saying that 1:5-2:6 is one section are the insertion of of v. 2, and sin in 1:10.2 matched by sin in 2:1.2. The reasons 2:5.3a, the whole of 1:9 matched in thought by 2:1.2b to end in both 1:6.2b and 2:6.3c, truth in 1:8.3b matched by truly in the vocative in 2:1 and the approximate consistency of the size of the strophes throughout the Epistle.



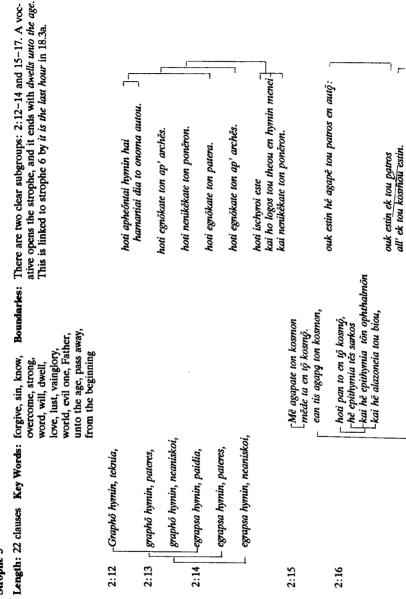


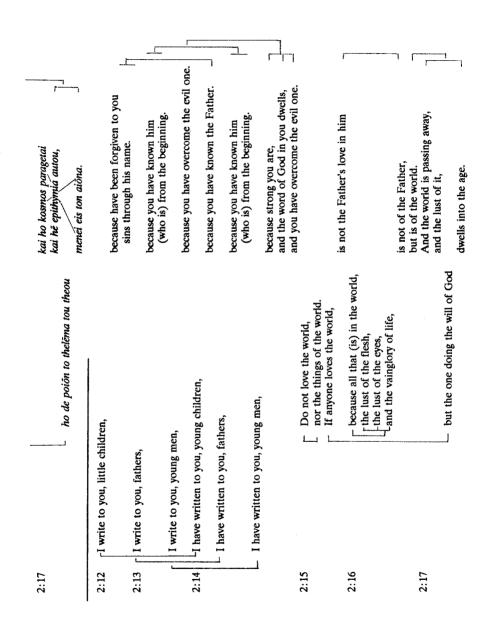


because the darkness has blinded his eyes.

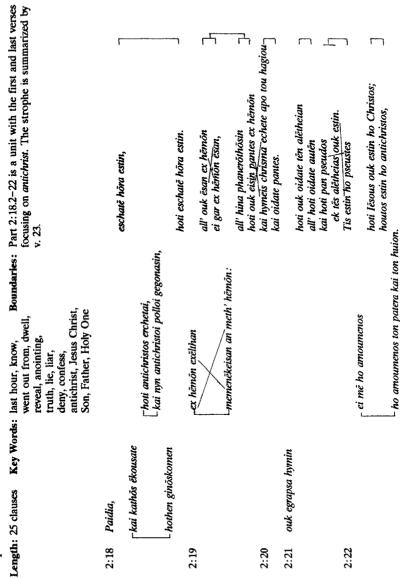
and does not know where he goes





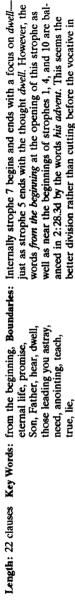


9	
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2:23		pas ho amoumenos ton huion		. (
		ho homologôn ton huion	oude ton patera echei.	
			kai ton patera echei.	٦
2:18	Little children,		7. 2	
	cand as you have heard		ine last nour it is,	
		that antichrist is coming,		
	whence we know		î	
			that the last hour it is.	٦
2:19		From us they went out		
			but they were not of us, for if of us they were	Г
		Lthey would have dwelled with us,	•	
			but that it might be revealed	7
2:20			that they were not all of us. And you an anointing have from the Holy One.	ر Fan(
			and you all know.	,
2:21	I did not write to you			
			because you do not know the truth but because you know it.	г
			and because/that every lie	
			of the truth is not.	
2:22			Who is the liar except	
		the one who denies	•	
			that Jesus is the Christ? This is the antichrist,	<u></u>
		the one denying the Father and the Son.	on.	
2:23		Whoever denies the Son		
			the Father does not have;	Γ
		Lthe one confessing the Son		
			also the Father has.	٦

Strophe 7



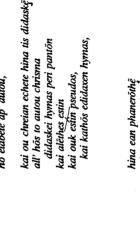
confidence, ashamed reveal, advent, true, lie,

28.1. See also remarks on the division of strophe 8.

ean en hymin meinē en hymin menetō. shymeis ho ekousate ap' arches -ho ap' archés ekousate,

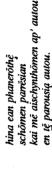
Lhēn autos epēggeilato hymin, rkai hautē estin hē epaggelia 2:25

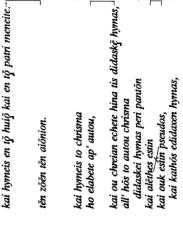




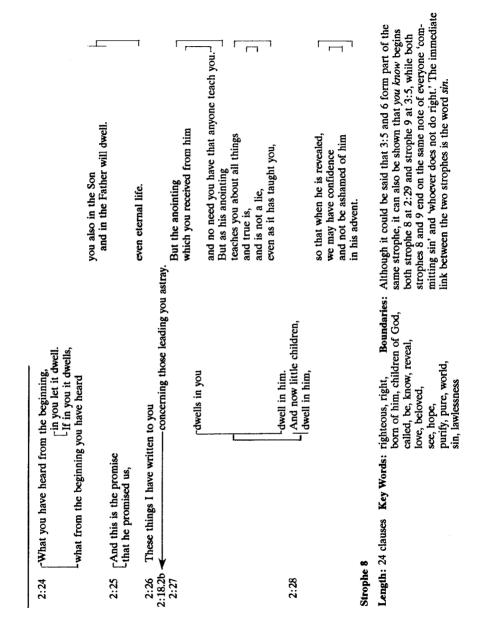
-menete en autō. rKai nyn, teknia, -menete en autô

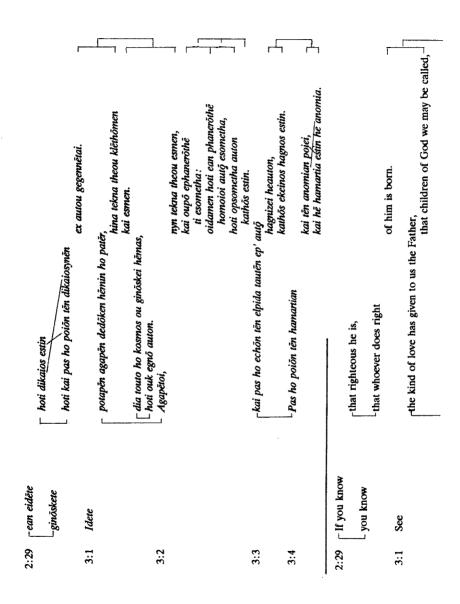
2:28

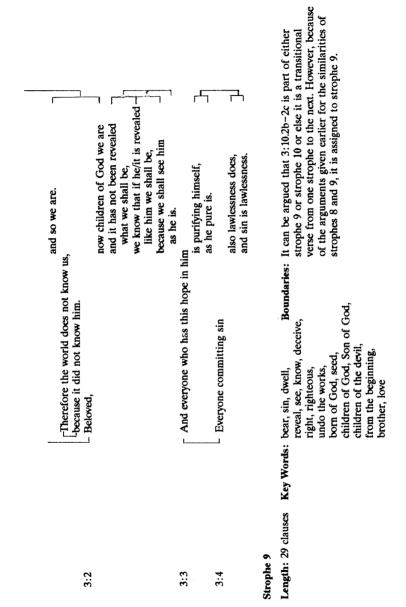


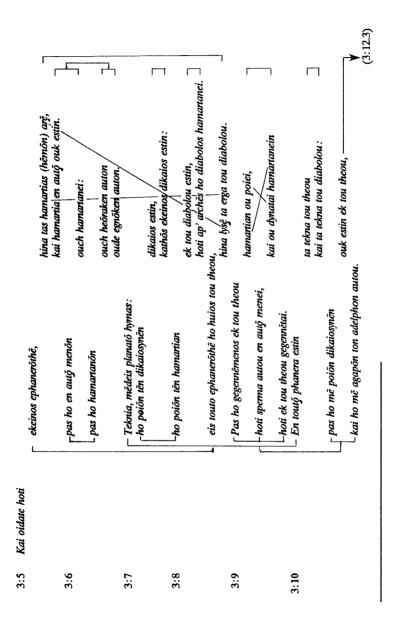


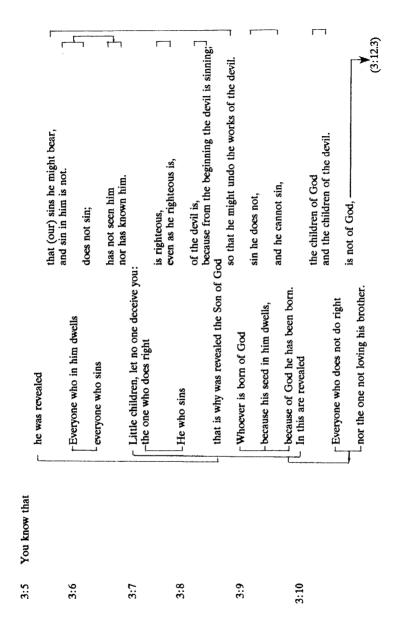
-menei en hymin









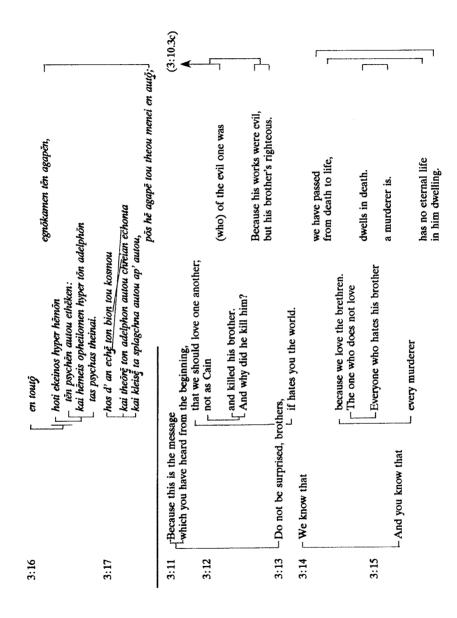


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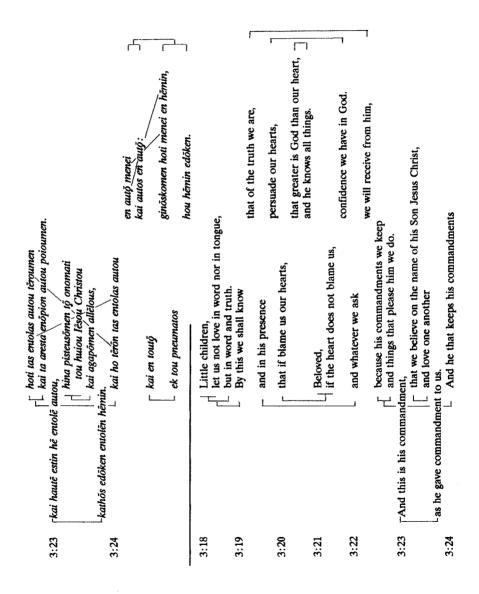
(3:10.3c)

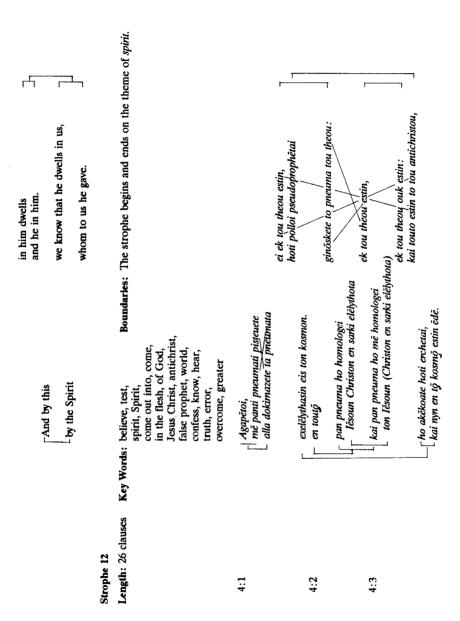
en autō menousan.

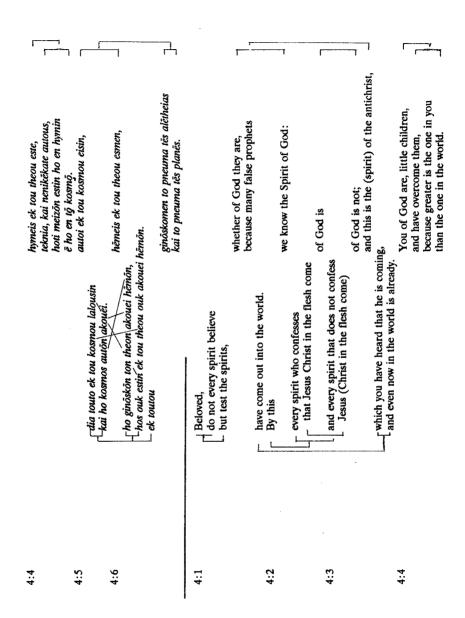
Boundaries: The theme of love opens the strophe in 3:11.2a ta de tou adelphou autou dikaia. hoti ta erga autou ponēra ēn ek tou thanatou eis ten zoen, and closes it in v. 17.3. ouk echei zōen aionion anthropotoktonos estin, menei en to thanato ek tou pončrou čn metabebekamen Fkai esphaxen ton adelphon autou: -pas ho mison ton adelphon autou kai chārin tinos esphaxen auton; ay down, close heart/vital organs, - hoti agapômen tous adelphous: - ei misei hymas ho kosmos. hina agapomen allelous, ife (psychē), means of life (bios), eternal life, pas anthropotoktonos brother, world, dwell Key Words: from the beginning, murderer, righteous, evil, evil one, pass, r ou kathôs Kaïn death, life (zõē), r ho mē agapon love, hate, kill, need, behalf, ⊥ Hoti hautē estin hē aggelia mē thaumazete, adelphoi, then ekousate ap' arches, 3:14 r hēmeis oidamen hoti kai oidate hoti Length: 27 clauses Strophe 10 3:13 3:11 3:12 3:15

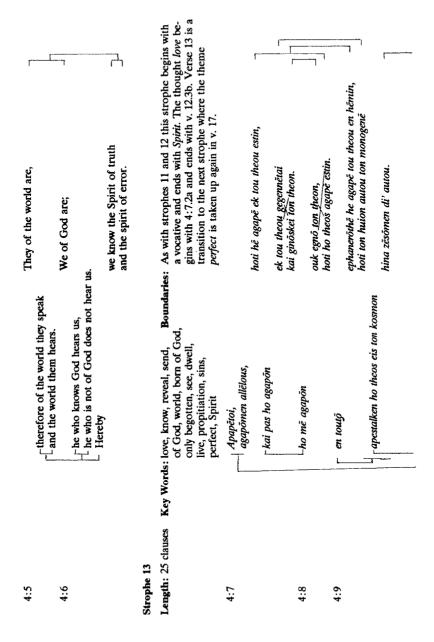


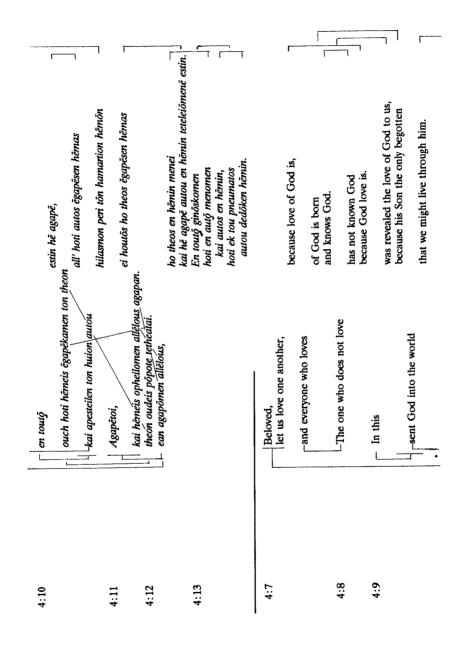
3:16 3:17 Strophe 11 Length: 24 clauses 3:18	Decause he on our behalf Lead of the brethren	ses it. stituting ocalive also
3:20	hoti ean kataginõskē hēmōn hē kardia, hoti meizon estin ho theos tēs kardias hēmôn	
3:21	kat groske panta. Agapētoi, ean hē katagināskē	
3:22	kai ho ean aitômen lambanomen ap' autou,	

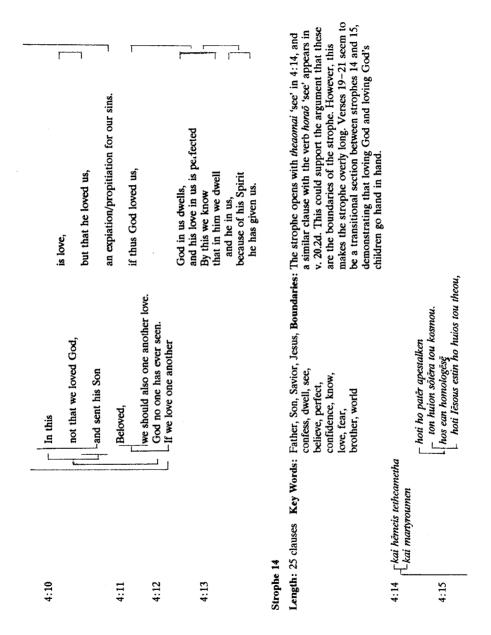


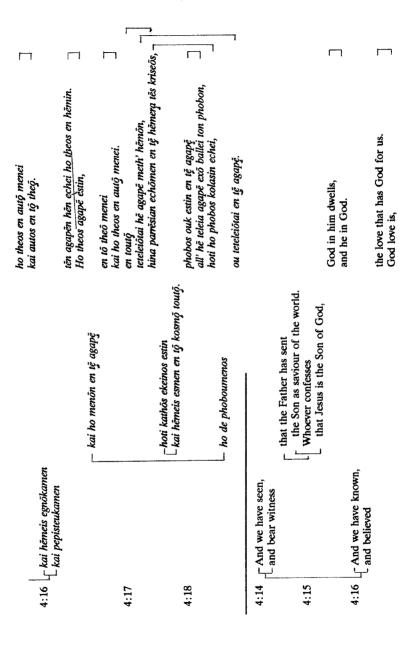


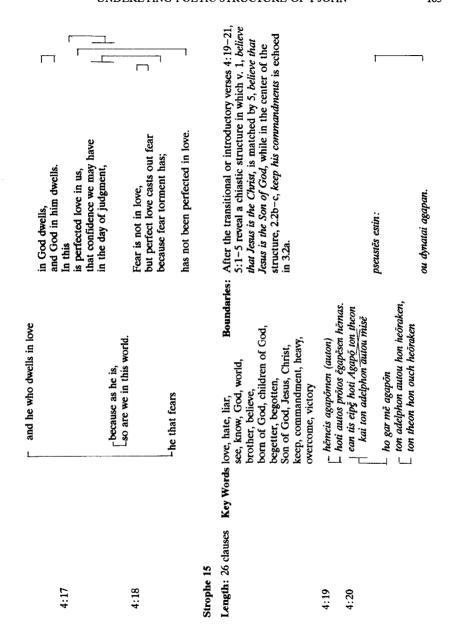


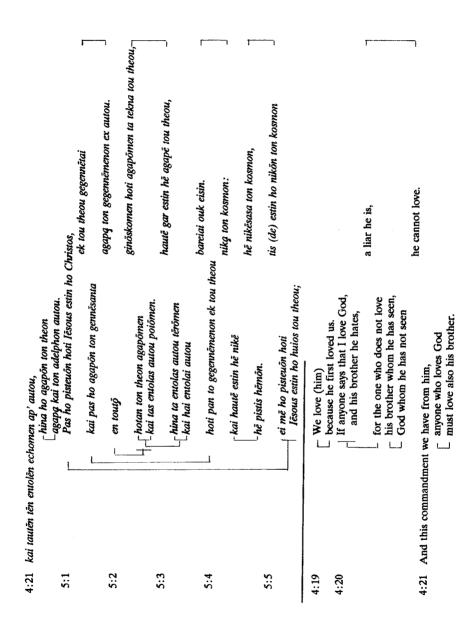


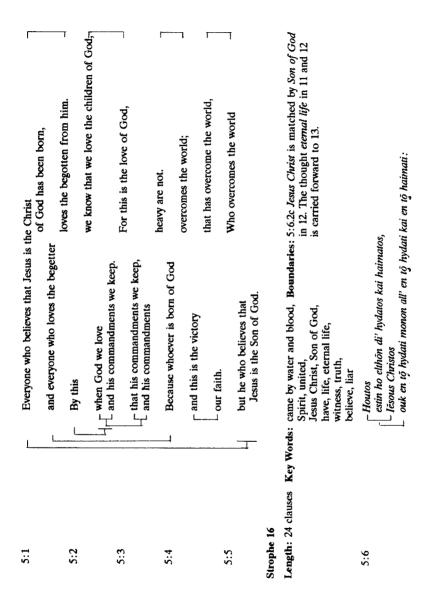




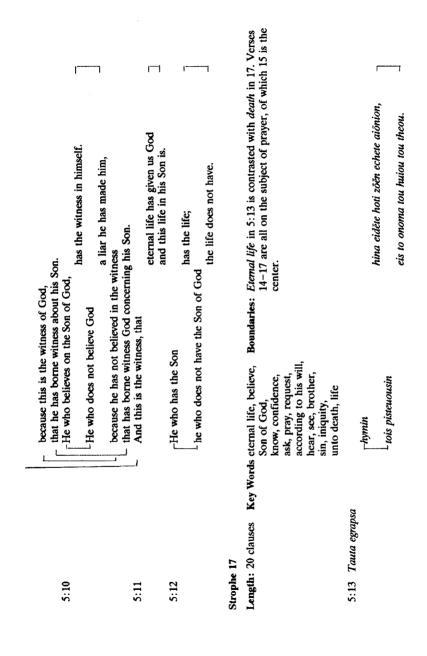




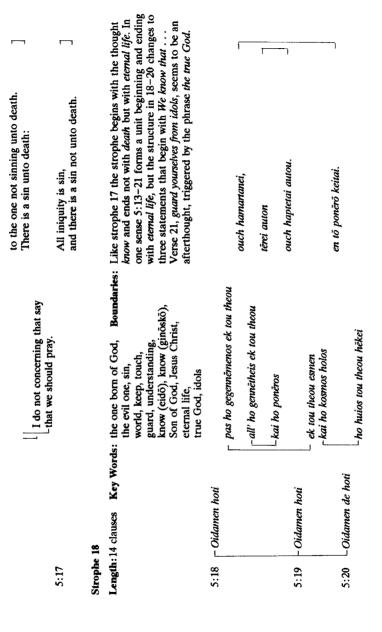




		- 1		Γ	7	ر. ا				7
	hoti to pneuma estin hë alëtheia. hoti treis eisin hoi maryrountes,	kai hoi treis eis to en eisin. comen.	hē maryria tou theou meizon estin: u.	echei tēn martyrian en heautō,	pseustên pepoiêken auton, tiou autou.	hoti zõ ê n aiônion edőken hēmin ho theos, kai hautê hē zõē en tộ huiç autou estin.	echei tến zoến: tên zoến ouk echei.	y blood.	because the spirit is the truth, because there are three witnessing, d,	and the three are united. the witness of God greater is,
- kai to pneuma estin to martyroun,	- to pneuma kai to hydēr kai to haima,	kai I ei tën martyrian tôn anthrôpôn lambanomen.	hoti hautë estin hë martyria tou theou hoti memartyrëken peri tou huiou autou.	ho më pisteuön toj theg	hoti ou pepisteuken eis tên martyrian hên memartyēken hot sees peri tou huiou autou.	Ao echōn ton huion	ho më echón ton huion tou theou	This is the one who came by water and blood, L Jesus Christ, not by water only but by water and by blood. And the Spirit is the one witnessing.	the Spirit and the water and the blood,	If the witness of men we receive,
	5: <i>7</i> 5:8	5:9	5:10		5:11	5:12		5:6	5: <i>7</i> 5:8	5:9

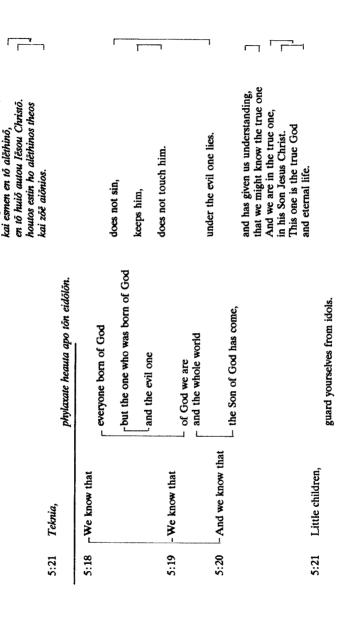


-	г		r	7 [ternal	<u>با د</u>	Í		٦	Γ	7
kai hautē estin hē parrēsia hēn echomen pros auton hoti	akouei hēmōn.	oidamen hoti echomen ta aitēmata anonta	hamartian mē pros thanaton,	kai dôsei autō zōēn, tois hamatañousin mê pros thanaton. estin hamartia pros thanaton:	pasa adikia hamari <u>a e</u> stin, kai estin hamariia ou pros thanaton.		that you may know that life you have eternal	in the name of the Son of God. And this is the confidence which we have towards him that	III, he hears us	ile ilegis us.	we know we have the requests	a sin not unto death,	and he will give him life,
and the state of t	cui ii unomentu kuu to tuesemu autou kai ean oidamen hoti akouei hēmõn ho em nifessesho	oidan ha giekamen ap' autou. Ean tis ide ton adelphon autou hamantanonta	- aitēsei	. ou peri ekcinēs leeō	hina erōsētē.	These things I have written	to those believing		if we anything ask according to his will,	^L And if we know that he hears us, rewhatever we request,	which we asked from him.	⊢ he shall ask.	
5:14	5:15	5:16			5:17	5:13		5:14		5:15	5:16		



hina ginőskömen ton alethinon,

kai dedōken hēmin dianoian



Appendix 2

Chapter 1 as it might have been originally laid out if the analysis displayed in appendix 1 is correct:

- 1:1 Ho ēn ap' arches ho akēkoamen ho heōrakamen tois opthalmois hēmōn ho etheasametha kai hai cheires hēmōn epsēlaphēsan peri tou logou tēs zōēs.
- 1:2 kai hē zõe ephanerõthē kai heõrakamen kai martyroumen kai apaggellomen hymin tēn zõen aiŏnion hētis en pros ton patera kai ephanerõthe hēmin.
- 1:3 ho heõrakamen
 kai akēkoamen
 apaggellomen kai hymin
 hina kai hymeis koinõnian
 echēte meth' hēmõn
 kai hē koinõnia de hē hēmetera
 meta tou patros
 kai meta tou huiou
 autou lēsou Christou.
- 1:4 kai tauta graphomen hēmeis hina hē chara hēmōn ē peplēromenē.

- 1:5 Kai estin hautē hē aggelia hēn akēkoamen ap' autou kai anaggellomen hymin hoti ho theos phōs estin kai skotia en autō ouk estin oudemia.
- 1:6 ean eipōmen hoti koinōnian echomen met' autou kai en tō skotei peripatōmen pseudometha kai ou poioumen tēn alēthian.
- 1:7 ean de en tō phōti peripatōmen hōs autos estin en tō phōti koinōnian echomen met' allēlōn. kai to haima Iēsou tou huion autou katharizei hēmas apo pasēs hamartias.
- 1:8 ean eipômen hoti hamartian ouk echomen heautous planômen kai hē alētheia ouk estin en hēmin.
- 1:9 ean homologōmen tas hamartias hēmōn pistos estin kai dikaios hina aphē hēmin tas hamartias kai katharisē hēmas apo pasēs adikias.
- 1:10 ean eipōmen hoti ouch hēmanēkamen pseustēn poioumen auton kai ho logos autou ouk estin en hēmin.

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