

## LESSON 22 GUTTURAL VERBS

**V**ERBS WITH א, ה, ח, and ע as root consonants belong to a subset of the basic verb called *guttural* verbs. There are five types, identified according to the position of the guttural consonant. Some verbs with ר also share the characteristics of the guttural verbal roots, since ר does not double.

I-guttural (and I-ר)	פ-guttural	עבר	<i>cross over</i>
I-א	א"פ <sup>1</sup>	אמר	<i>say</i>
II-guttural (and II-ר)	ע-guttural	בער	<i>burn</i>
	ע"ר	ברך	<i>bless</i>
III-guttural	ל-guttural	שלח	<i>send</i>
III-א	ל"א	מצא	<i>find</i>

### 22.1 THE BASIC DIFFERENCES

Four characteristics of the gutturals (one of which they share with ר) cause the vowels of some forms to differ from those of the basic verb.

1. א, ה, ח, ע, ר *do not double* (geminate), so that *dageš forte* is absent when a guttural or ר occurs in a doubled radical (e.g., the middle radical in D, Dp, and Dt). This failure to geminate often causes the preceding vowel to lengthen, because a syllable is open, rather than being closed by *dageš forte*.
2. א, ה, ח, ע are followed by *hatef*-vowels instead of *šewa*.
  - a. I-guttural verbs often have a *hatef*-vowel after the first radical instead of *šewa* (vocal or silent)
  - b. II-guttural roots have *hatef*-vowels instead of vocal *šewa* after the second radical (i.e., before vocalic endings)
3. ה, ח, ע tend to occur with *a*-vowels, either full vowels or *patah furtivum*, so that *patah* may occur where the basic verb has *holem* or *sere*.
4. א does not close a syllable, so that verbs whose roots end in א tend to have long vowels after the second radical. Although ה (i.e., without *mappiq*) does not close a syllable, verbs that end in ה belong to their own type (below); verbs ending in ה- are strong, and considered III-guttural.

These characteristics cause most of the differences between guttural verbs and the basic verb. In this table, each pair of examples has the same parsing; the second example is the basic verb.

<sup>1</sup>The " " means that this is to be read as an abbreviation or symbol, not a word. Labels such as א"פ are read from right to left (*pe-'alef*); the other names are read left to right.

Guttural Verb	Basic Verb	Parsing	Nature of the Difference	Reason for the Difference
יַעֲמֹד	יִמְשַׁל	3ms N F	<i>no dageš forte;</i>	Since gutturals don't double, the syllable is open; this also affects roots I/II-ר in certain stems (below).
יִבְרַךְ	יִמְשַׁל	2ms D V	<i>long vowels instead of short</i>	
יִשְׁמַע	יִמְשַׁל	3ms Q F	<i>a-vowels (esp. patah) after the second radical</i>	Word-final gutturals tend to be preceded by an <i>a</i> -vowel.
יִשְׁמַע	יִמְשַׁל	3ms D F		
יִבְחֲרוּ	יִמְשַׁל	3cp Q P	<i>hatef-vowels instead of vocal šewa</i>	Gutturals have <i>hatef-vowels</i> where the basic verb has vocal <i>šewa</i>
יַעֲמִידוּ	יִמְשַׁל	2mp Q P		
יַעֲמִיד	יִמְשַׁל	3ms Q F	<i>hatef-vowels under the first radical instead of silent šewa in forms with prefixes (F, Pr)</i>	Initial guttural that closes the prefix syllable (i.e., where the first radical is followed by silent <i>šewa</i> in the basic verb) is often followed by the <i>hatef-vowel</i> that matches the prefix vowel.
יַחְדָּל	יִמְשַׁל	3ms Q F	<i>segol as prefix vowel instead of hireq</i>	Initial gutturals, especially ה, may have <i>segol</i> as a prefix vowel where the basic verb has <i>hireq</i> .
יִמְצְאוּ	יִמְשַׁל	1cs Q P	<i>long vowel after the second radical, no šewa before PGN ending; no dageš in ה of PGN ending</i>	III-א forms generally have a <i>long</i> vowel after the second radical of the verbal root. The ה of PGN endings lacks <i>dageš lene</i> since it is “preceded” by a vowel (final א is not considered consonantal).
יִמְצֵא	יִמְשַׁל	3ms Dp F		
יִצְמַח	יִמְשַׁל	2fs Q P	Missing final א	[Silent] א drops out of some III-א forms (usually noted in <i>Mp</i> ; Lesson 29).
יִצְמַח	יִמְשַׁל	1cs Q P		
יִבְּוּ	יִמְשַׁל	3ms Q Pr		

## 22.2 I-GUTTURAL ROOTS

These verbal roots differ from the basic verb wherever the first radical is followed by *šewa* (*qal* imperfect; *nifal* perfect and participle; all forms of *hifil* and *hofal*) or doubled (*nifal* imperfect, imperative, infinitive construct). The D-stems are not affected.

- 2mp and 2fp *qal* perfect have *hatef-patah* under the first radical (משל is for comparison).

יַעֲבַדְתֶּם *You served* 2mp Q P מְשַׁלְתֶּם

- Wherever the basic verb has silent *šewa* after the first radical, guttural roots have a *hatef-vowel*, with the corresponding full vowel under the prefix (משל is for comparison).

הֶעֱבִיד *He enslaved* 3ms H P הַמְשִׁיל  
אֶחְזֹק *I [will] seize* 1cs Q F אֶמְשַׁל

- Whenever the initial radical of the basic verb is doubled (*nifal* F, V, NC), the prefix vowel is long (*šere*). Since ר does not geminate, this also applies to verbs that are I-ר.

יֶעָזַב	<i>It will be forsaken</i>	3fs N F	תִּמְשַׁל
וַיֹּאכַל	<i>It was eaten</i>	3ms N Pr	וַיִּמְשַׁל

### 22.3 I-Ḥ ROOTS

This sub-set of the I-guttural roots, introduced in §6.2 (*q.v.*), contains only five verbs (אָמַר, אָכַל, אָבַר, אָבָה, אָפַה). They differ from other I-guttural verbs (above) only in Q F and Pr.

### 22.4 II-GUTTURAL ROOTS

These verbal roots differ from the basic verb wherever the second radical is doubled (all three D-stems), or followed by vocal *šewa* (all forms with vocal PGN suffixatives, in all stems except *hifil*). The forms of II-guttural verbs are not affected in *hifil*.

1. The D-stems follow one of two patterns:

- a. In some II-guttural roots the vowel after the first radical is *long* (*qameṣ* or *šere* in *piel*, *hitpael*; *holem* in *pual*), since that syllable is open.

בֵּרַךְ	<i>He blessed</i>	3ms D P	מִשַּׁל
בֵּרַךְ	<i>He was blessed</i>	3ms Dp P	מִשַּׁל
מְבָרַךְ	<i>Blessed</i>	Ms Dp Ptc	מִמְשַׁל

- b. Other II-guttural roots look just like the basic verb, but without *dageš forte*, so that the vowel after the first radical is *hireq* or *pataḥ* (*piel*, *hitpael*) or *qibbuṣ* (*pual*).<sup>2</sup>

בָּחַר	<i>He chose</i>	3ms D P	מִשַּׁל
נִבְחַרְנוּ	<i>We will be chosen</i>	1cp Dp F	נִמְשַׁל

2. With vocalic PGN suffixes, these roots have a *hatef*-vowel after the second radical instead of vocal *šewa* (all stems):

גָּאֲלוּ	<i>They redeemed.</i>	3cp Q P	מְשַׁלוּ
בְּחַרוּ	<i>Choose!</i>	2mp Q V	מְשַׁלוּ
הִגְאֲלוּ	<i>Redeem yourselves!</i>	2mp N V	הִמְשַׁלוּ

### 22.5 III-GUTTURAL ROOTS (III-ח/ע/ה ONLY)

These verbal roots differ from the basic verb mainly by having *pataḥ* after the second radical, or *pataḥ furtivum* after its vowel. *Mappiq* in the final ה of these roots means that the ה is a consonant, not a vowel letter (as it is in roots III-ה; below).

1. If a form has no ending or suffix, the vowel after the second radical is *pataḥ*, except in H (which will, nonetheless, have *pataḥ furtivum*):

יִבְרַח	<i>He flees</i>	3ms Q F	יִמְשַׁל
יִשְׁמִיעַ	<i>He causes ____ to hear</i>	3ms D F	יִמְשַׁל

<sup>2</sup>This is called *virtual doubling/gemination* because the Masoretes pointed the word with a short vowel (since the syllable would have been closed if the radical had been doubled)—the term is confusing, since nothing is in fact doubled.

רִישָׁמַע	He heard	3ms Q Pr	רִישָׁמַע
רִישָׁמִיעַ	He caused ___ to hear	3ms H Pr	רִישָׁמִיעַ

2. If the vowel after the second radical is written with a vowel letter, *pataḥ furtivum* is added (see also the last example in #1, above):

שָׁמַע	Heard	ms Qp Ptc	שָׁמַע
שָׁמִיעַ	He will cause ___ to hear	3ms H F	שָׁמִיעַ

3. 2fs P (all stems) has *pataḥ* after the third radical instead of silent *šewa*:

שָׁמַעְתְּ	You heard	2fs Q P	שָׁמַעְתְּ
הִשָּׁמַעְתְּ	You were caused to hear	2fs Hp P	הִשָּׁמַעְתְּ

## 22.6 III-š ROOTS

These forms differ from the basic verb because **š** cannot close a syllable; at the end of a syllable it becomes silent and the preceding vowel lengthens (if possible), usually to *qameṣ* or *šere*. Forms with vocalic endings (ִי -, יְ -, הָ -,), where **š** begins the final syllable, are like the basic verb.

1. The vowel after the second radical is long, and the PGN ending (ת) does not have *dageš lene*, because the **š** is silent (and therefore ignored).

מָצָא	He found	3ms Q P	מָצָא
מָצַאתְּ	You found	2ms Q P	מָצַאתְּ

The [silent] **š** may even be missing (the verbal root is צמא):

צָמַתְּ	You are thirsty (Ru 2.9)	2fs Q P	צָמַתְּ
---------	--------------------------	---------	---------

2. With the ending תִּנְה- (2/3fp F, Pr, V), the vowel after the second radical is *segol* (all stems):

תִּתְמַצְאֶנָּה	You/they [will] find your/themselves	2/3pf Dt F	תִּתְמַצְאֶנָּה
תִּתְמַצְאֶנָּה	You/they [will] find	2/3fp Q F	תִּתְמַצְאֶנָּה

**NB:** This is a great deal of information about guttural verbal roots, but the rules are given to demonstrate that the patterns are predictable and regular, given the presence of the gutturals.

## 22.7 THE MOST COMMON GUTTURAL ROOTS

This table lists all guttural roots with pointing that is affected by the presence of a guttural or ʔ that occur more than two hundred times in BH, listed by type. Verbs are listed according to the type of weakness that actually occurs (e.g., ירא does not occur in the D-stems, and so is listed as III-š, but not as II-ר; ירד does not occur in the D-stems, and so is not listed).

### I-š

אמר say, speak (> 5000x)

### III-š

בוא come, go [in], enter (2530x)

**אכל** *eat, devour, consume* (795x)

**אהב** *love* (205x)

**III-guttural**

**שמע** *hear, listen [to]; obey* (1136x)

**ידע** *know, understand; notice, recognize* (924x)

**לקח** *take, get, acquire* (964x)

**שלח** *send [away], let go; stretch out, reach, extend* (839x)

**ישע** *save, deliver, triumph* (205x)

**I-guttural (not I-א)**

**עשה** *do, make; act [perform a deed]* (2573x)

**ראה** *see* (1294x)

**עלה** *go up, ascend* (879x)

**עבר** *cross/pass over/through/by* (539x)

**עמד** *stand; stop* (519x)

**ענה** *answer; testify* (314x)

**II-guttural (or ר)**

**ברך**  *bless, worship (D)* (328x)

**יצא** *go out, leave, exit* (1055x)

**קרא** *call; name; invite; read* (730x)

**נשא** *lift up, carry, bear; forgive* (651x)

**מצא** *find, discover* (451x)

**ירא** *fear, be afraid [of]* (377x)

**מלא** *be[come] full* (250x)

**חטא** *sin, miss [a target]* (237x)

**עבד** *serve, be servant to* (289x)

**חזק** *be[come] strong (Q); seize, grab; hold (H)* (288x)

**חיה** *live, be alive* (281x)

**חטא** *sin, miss [a target]* (237x)

**אסף** *gather, collect* (203x)

**עזב** *leave, forsake, abandon* (212x)

**22.8 CONCEPTS**

doubling	I-guttural	II-guttural	III-guttural	mappiq
gemination	פ-guttural	ע-guttural	ל-guttural	“virtual doubling”

**22.9 VOCABULARY**

<i>sight, appearance</i>	<b>מְרֹאָה</b> .327	<i>length</i>	<b>אָרְךָ</b> .319
<i>south, Negev</i>	<b>נֶגֶב</b> .328	<i>turn, overturn, destroy</i>	<b>הִפְךָ</b> .320
<i>skin, leather</i>	<b>עוֹר</b> .329	<i>animal(s) [coll.]</i>	<b>חַיָּה</b> .321
<i>cloud(s)</i>	<b>עָנָן</b> .330	<i>wounded, slain, dead (adj.)</i>	<b>חָלַל</b> .322
<i>foot, step; time (i.e., once, three times); twice (dual)</i>	<b>פַּעַם</b> .331 <b>פַּעַמַיִם</b>	<i>male donkey/lass</i>	<b>חֲמוֹר</b> .323
<i>rest, sabbath</i>	<b>שַׁבָּת</b> .332	<i>on account of, for the sake of (prep.); because [of] (cj.)</i>	<b>לְעֵן</b> .324
<i>forget</i>	<b>שָׁכַח</b> .333	<i>vineyard</i>	<b>כַּרְם</b> .325
<i>regularly, continually, always (adv.); in construct chain, refers to something repeated/regular (תָּמִיד עֲלֶיהָ, perpetual offering)</i>	<b>תָּמִיד</b> .334	<i>sell</i>	<b>מָכַר</b> .326

**22.10 EXERCISES**

After studying the characteristics of the guttural verbs, please gloss these clauses, parsing the verbs.

- Jg 8.18; **איפה** *Where?* .1  
 איפה האנשים אשר התגתם
- Gn 37.5; חלם *dream*; Joseph .2  
 ויחלם יוסף חלום
- Joel 3.4; ירח *moon* .3  
 השמש יהפך לחשך ותירח לךם
- Gn 41.56 .4  
 ויחזק הרעב בארץ מצרים:
- 2 Ch 20.20; צלח *succeed, prosper*; Judah, Jerusalem .5  
 ויאמר שמעוני יהודה וישבי ירושלים  
 האמינו ביהוה אלהיכם ותאמנו  
 האמינו בנביאיו והצלוחו:
- Josh 1.2; קום *stand, rise* (2ms Q V; this form often introduces another imperative); Jordan .6  
 ועתה קום עבר אתה הירדן הנה אתה וכל העם הנה  
 אל-הארץ אשר אנכי נתן להם לבני ישראל:
- Ps 38.22 (יהוה and אלהי are vocative; each line is a clause) .7  
 אל-תעזבני יהוה  
 אלהי אל-תרחק ממני:
- Ps 143.8a, b (in reading poetry, “b ” refers to the second half (“ ”)of the second line (“b”) of a verse of poetry) .8  
 השמיעני בבקר חסדך כירבך בטחתי  
 ... כיראליך נשאתי נפשי:
- Lv 26.38 (each line is a clause) .9  
 ואברתם בגוים  
 ואכלה אתכם ארץ איביכם:
- Ex 6.6 .10  
 לכן אמר לבני-ישראל אני יהוה
- Gn 3.2; נחש *snake* .11  
 ותאמר האשה אל-הנחש מפרי עין-הגן נאכל:
- Ps 129.8; ברכה *blessing* .12  
 ולא אמרו העברים ברפת-יהוה אליכם  
 ברכנו אתכם בשם יהוה:
- Ex 32.30; חטא *sin* (v.) ; חטאה *sin* (n.), more commonly חטאת; the second line contains the quotation; Moses .13  
 ויאמר משה אל-העם  
 אתם חטאתם חטאה גדלה
- Pr 15.9; תועבה *abomination*; each line is a clause .14  
 תועבת יהוה דרך רשע  
 ומרהף צדקה יאהב:



- Jr 22.21 .15 ... כִּי לֹא־שָׁמַעַתְּ בְּקוֹלִי:
- Gn 27.34; צָעַק *cry out* [for help]; צָעָקָה ; צָעַק *cry* (n.); *bitter* (adj.); אָבִי is vocative; Esau .16 כְּשָׁמַעַ עָשׂוּ אֶת־דְּבָרֵי אָבִיו וַיִּצְעַק צָעָקָה גְּדֻלָּה וּמְרָה עַד־מָאֵד וַיֹּאמֶר לְאָבִיו בְּרַכְנִי גַם־אֲנִי אָבִי:
- 1 Kgs 3.3; הִלְךְ < Q NC לָלַכַת *by walking* (Q NC < לָלַכַת + ל); בִּמְהָ *high place, cultic center*; Solomon, David .17 וַיֵּאָהֵב שְׁלֹמֹה אֶת־יְהוָה לָלַכַת בְּחַקּוֹת הַיָּוֵד אָבִיו כִּי בְּבָמוֹת הוּא מְזַבֵּחַ וּמִקְטִיר:
- Jr 17.14; תְּהַלֵּלָהּ *praise* (n.) .18 רַפְּאֲנִי יְהוָה וְאַרְפָּא ... כִּי תִהְלֹתִי אֵתָהּ:
- Ex 12.46; עֲצָם *bone*; this is from the instructions about the Passover .19 בְּבַיִת אֶחָד יֵאָכֵל ... וְעֲצָם לֹא תִשְׁבְּרוּ־בוֹ:
- Mi 3.4; צָעַק *cry out* [for help]; יַעֲנֶה *he will answer* (3ms Q F < עָנָה) .20 אִזּוּ יִזְעַקוּ אֶל־יְהוָה וְלֹא יַעֲנֶה אוֹתָם וַיִּסְתַּר פָּנָיו מֵהֵם בְּעַת הַהִיא
- 2 Kg 24.2; גְּדוּדֵי *band, troop*; multiple national/ethnic names .21 וַיִּשְׁלַח יְהוָה בּוֹ אֶת־גְּדוּדֵי כַּשְׂדִּים וְאֶת־גְּדוּדֵי אַרְם וְאֶת גְּדוּדֵי מוֹאָב וְאֶת גְּדוּדֵי בְנֵי־עַמּוֹן וַיִּשְׁלַחֵם בִּיהוּדָה לְהֶאֱבִידוּ כְּדַבֵּר יְהוָה אֲשֶׁר דִּבֶּר בְּיַד עֲבָדָיו הַנְּבִיאִים:
- Dt 7.24a .22 וַנִּתֵּן מִלְכֵיהֶם בְּיָדָךְ וְהֶאֱבַדְתָּ אֶת־שָׁמַם מִתַּחַת הַשָּׁמַיִם

## 22.11 ENRICHMENT: VOCABULARY

A common standard for determining “fluency” in a language is a threshold vocabulary of about 1000 words. This seems to be the point at which most people can begin to communicate with native speakers with some degree of comfort. There are at least two effective ways to approach this goal; many students find that they work well in tandem.

1. Memorize *more vocabulary*, using, e.g., Mitchel (see Bibliography), which allows you to learn glosses for words that occur in descending frequency in BH. If you are learning new words *and* reading the text, you will find that the two often reinforce each other, as when you encounter a newly memorized word (or a closely related form) in the passage that you are reading.
2. Learn words *as they occur* in whatever text you are reading. Since, e.g., fifty of fifty-two occurrences of קַרְשׁ *plank* are in the book of Exodus (describing the Tabernacle), there is not much sense in learning to gloss this word unless you plan to read Exodus. But if you are going to read Exodus, then taking time to learn this word will be worth your while.

Continuing to strengthen your grasp of vocabulary (through memorization), and to see how it functions in a variety of contexts (through reading) will increase your ability to both read and understand the text.

## LESSON 23 BASIC TOOLS

**I**N ADDITION TO the *Hebrew Bible* itself, there are many tools designed to help you understand the biblical text. *Lexical aids* suggest glosses (lexicons and word lists), or discuss the use, distribution, and broader function of individual words (theological dictionaries and wordbooks). There are also *grammatical aids* (e.g., reference grammars), and guides to *textual criticism*, the *masora*, and other technical aspects of the biblical text. Most of these are discussed briefly in Appendix F (below). This Lesson focuses on the text of BHS and the major lexical tools.

### 23.1 BIBLIA HEBRAICA STUTTGARTENSIA (BHS)

Since its completion, BHS has been the basis for nearly every Bible translation, Hebrew-based commentary, and reference work on BH, whether in print and or electronic. *Biblia Hebraica Stuttgartensia (BHS)*, named for its place of publication, is the fourth “scholarly” edition of the Hebrew text. It began to appear in 1967 and was complete ten years later; several corrected versions have appeared since then. A fifth edition, to be known as *Biblia Hebraica Quinta* (5<sup>th</sup>) has been announced for release in the next decade.

<b>Prolegomena</b> .....	III
Foreword (in German, English, French, Spanish, Latin) .....	III
Part I. A history of this edition of the Hebrew Bible, explains the differences between it and its predecessor, referred to as either BH <sup>3</sup> [3 <sup>rd</sup> ed.] or BHK [“Kittel”, its editor].	
Part II. Explains the basis of the masora in <i>BHS</i> , and some of the masoretic notes and readings. The English version of this material is on pp. XI-XVIII.	
<i>Sigla et Compendia Apparatum</i> (List of Signs & Abbreviations) .....	XLIV
I. <i>Apparatus criticus</i> (The [Text-] Critical Apparatus) .....	XLIV
Sources .....	XLIV
An alphabetical list of abbreviations used in the textual apparatus (at the bottom of each page of the biblical text), with the documents to which they refer.	
Abbreviations .....	XLIX
An alphabetical list of abbreviated Latin expressions used in the textual apparatus, with the full Latin terms.	
II. <i>Apparatus masorae</i> (The Masoretic Apparatus) .....	L
An alphabetical list of abbreviations used in the textual apparatus to refer to masoretic materials.	
<i>Index Siglorum et Abbreviationum Masorae Parvae</i> (Index of Signs & Abbreviations of the <i>Masora Parva</i> ) .....	L
This lists the abbreviations in the margins of <i>BHS</i> in alphabetical [Hebrew] order; its Latin translations can be deciphered with the help of Kelley, <i>et al.</i> (1998).	
<i>Index Librorum Biblicorum</i> (Index of the Biblical Books) .....	[no page number]
A list of the biblical books in the order in which they are printed in <i>BHS</i> .	
<b>The Hebrew Bible</b> .....	1

The *canonical order* differs slightly from the EB, because English Bibles follow the general order of the Septuagint (pre-Christian, Greek translation of the Hebrew text), rather than the Hebrew Bible:

Ruth, Lamentations, Daniel, Esther, Ezra-Nehemiah, & Chronicles are among the Writings, rather than the historical and prophetic books.



Samuel, Kings, Ezra-Nehemiah, & Chronicles are each a single book, thus there is no new title page for the “second half”, although the chapter numbering begins anew with the “second book” in each pair.

Because the Latin titles are used, some will not look familiar (e.g., *Regum*/Kings, *Threni*/Lamentations). This lists the order, opening page numbers and Hebrew and Latin title of the books.

Although BHS claims to reproduce the text of the codex, the book of Chronicles precedes Psalms in the codex, rather than concluding the Bible, as it does in BHS.

## Text Pages

The name of the biblical book is listed at the top of each page (Hebrew on the right page, Latin on the left). Page numbers are on the upper inside corners; chapter/verse references on the upper outside corners.

There are four blocks of material on each page. In the center of each page is the biblical text itself. This reproduces the text of Codex Leningrad, which is considered the oldest representative of the best masoretic scribal tradition, manuscripts copied and corrected by the family of Ben Asher. This text therefore represents a single manuscript, and is therefore a single witness to the biblical text (much as Alexandrinus or Vaticanus is to the text of the GNT). The UBS and Nestle-Aland Greek New Testaments contain an *eclectic* text that represents a committee’s conclusions about the best reading for each verse, based on a comparison of many manuscripts, so that there is probably no single manuscript of the Greek NT with exactly the same text as the UBS/Nestle-Aland NT. *BHS* presents a single manuscript, and is thus no different in principle from a Greek NT that reproduces the text of only one manuscript, such as B (Codex Vaticanus).

In the outside margin are masoretic notes—*masora parva* [*mp*] or *masora marginalis*—which contains the Masorettes’ comments on anything that they thought worthy of note, often unusual or rare forms. Written in Hebrew and Aramaic, they refer to the words in the text with small circles over them. We will discuss some of these, and how to read them.

At the bottom of each page are two sets of footnotes. The first set, consisting of raised numbers followed by “Mm” and a number, refer you to Weil (1971) for further information about some of the notes in *mp*. The second set of footnotes records whatever variants the editor of that biblical book thought worthy of notice, along with suggested alternate readings that are unsupported by manuscript evidence.

Each verse is preceded by its number. In *prose* passages, the verse number is repeated on the *inner* margin of the line on which the verse begins (but not on the left page if the verse begins at the right margin). In *poetry*, most verses begin at the right margin of the page. There are many differences in verse numbering between the Hebrew and English texts, and quite a few differences in chapter divisions. You need to know which system a commentary or reference work is using, so that you can be sure that you are looking at the verse that the reference work is discussing.

## Some Marks in the Text

- ⋮ *sof pasûq*, “end of *pasûq*”, marks the end of nearly every “verse”, *not* the end of a sentence. The final masora (at the end of each biblical book) lists the number of *pasûqîm* in the book.
- Ⓞ/Ⓢ Scattered across the pages are solitary unpointed *samek* and *pe*, which mark textual breaks that were apparently based on content. These paragraphs, called פְּתוּחָה (“open”) or סְתוּמָה (“closed”) were separated by either *samek* or *pe*, to indicate whether the next section began on the same line (Ⓞ) or the on the next line (Ⓢ, i.e., “Leave the rest of this line open”). Because these have been collated from various reading traditions their occurrences in BHS are no longer consistent.

In the inner margin large *sameks* headed by a rotated *qames* mark the *s<sup>e</sup>darîm*, a system of dividing the text into units for weekly reading in the synagogues. Each is numbered (the small letter with a superscript dot under the *samek*). The final masora for each book also lists the total number of *s<sup>e</sup>darîm* in that book (except the Minor Prophets, which the rabbis considered one book).

*accents* Nearly every biblical word is marked with an accent that shows which syllable is accented, how the word should be sung (cantillated), and how closely it is related to the following word. Your copy of *BHS* should include a card marked *Tabula Accentum* that lists disjunctive and conjunctive accents from strongest to weakest. There are two lists because the accents have different musical value in Psalms, Job, and Proverbs (*Accentus poëtici*). See Lesson 27 and HBI §4.

## 23.2 LEXICA

As the term is commonly used today, “lexicon” refers to a bi-lingual dictionary that offers a set of glosses to render words from one language into another. As noted above (Lesson 2), however, these are *glosses*, not definitions. For discussions of a word’s function within the language as a whole, it is necessary to turn to a theological wordbook or dictionary, which usually discusses each word’s frequency, patterns of occurrence, and suggests nuances of function, as well as its relationship to any synonyms and antonyms.

### 23.2.1 LEXICONS

**BDB** Brown, Francis, S. R. Driver, & Charles A. Briggs. 1907. *A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament with an appendix containing the Biblical Aramaic*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Words are grouped according to putative root (e.g., nouns, adjectives, and prepositions follow the verbal root from which they supposedly developed; so-called “denominative” verbs follow the noun which was their “source”). The list of abbreviations is helpful; the list of *sigla*—“signs” (p. xix)—is crucial. In addition to its eighteenth-century linguistics, major twentieth-century archaeological and epigraphic finds were not available to the editors. [See the appendix on BDB.]

**HALOT** Köhler, L., and W. Baumgartner, eds. 2001. *Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament*. Study Edition. 2 vols. Leiden: E.J. Brill, 2000.

The most complete modern lexicon of BH. It generally follows the same classical approach as BDB, except that words are listed alphabetically rather than by root. The first edition was published in German, then published with both German and English. [Holladay (below) contains the English portion of this edition, without the etymological and cognate information, and fewer references.] The third edition contains a plethora of bibliographic references, supplemented by an extensive bibliography at the end of the second volume.

**DCH** Clines, David J.A., *et al.*, eds. *Dictionary of Classical Hebrew*. Vols. 1 - . Sheffield: University of Sheffield, 1991 -.

Projected to fill ten volumes, DCH covers all Hebrew (BH, seals, inscriptions, Ecclesiasticus, DSS) except rabbinic Hebrew. All words, including proper names, are listed alphabetically by actual spelling, which makes nouns and adjectives much easier to find. It includes no etymological or other cognate information, even when the suggested gloss depends on a cognate. It is essentially an analytical concordance, which lists, e.g., every subject, object, and preposition with which every verb occurs, as well as synonyms and antonyms. Ideal for this type of search, although a computerized database will yield the same results.

**HOLLADAY** Holladay, W. L. 1971 *A Concise Hebrew and Aramaic Lexicon of the OT*. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans.

An abridgement of an earlier edition of KBL (above), Holladay is more current than BDB (i.e., cognate and extra-biblical evidence), but does not have nearly as much information about usage, occurrences, collocations, &c. as BDB, *DCH*, or KBL. Words are listed alphabetically, rather than grouped by root, and so are easier to find than in BDB. Popular because it is easy to use, but diligent students will outgrow its resources fairly rapidly.

### 23.2.2 THEOLOGICAL DICTIONARIES

**TDOT** Botterweck, G. J., and H. Ringgren 1974 - *Theological Dictionary of the OT*. Vols. 1 – 5. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans.

A translation into English of a massive German work, appearing at the rate of one volume every 2-3 years. Copious information on etymology, usage, context, discussions of function, related terms, &c.

**NIDOTTE** van Gemeren, Willem, ed. 1997 *The New International Dictionary of OT Theology & Exegesis*. 5 vols. Grand Rapids: Zondervan.

Detailed studies of nearly every word (even words occurring only one or two times), essays on theological topics (e.g., “Theology of Retribution”), and an essay on the theology of every biblical book (e.g., “Theology of Samuel”). First volume includes essays on exegesis and theology (but not on the language itself).

**TWOT** Harris, R. L., G. L. Archer Jr., and B. K. Waltke, eds. 1980 *Theological Wordbook of the OT*. 2 vols. Chicago: Moody.

A solid, basic tool with brief essays. A handy quick reference with more semantic information than a lexicon, but much less than either TDOT or NIDOTTE.

### 23.3 THE CHALLENGES OF LEXICONS

If you don’t find what you are looking for in a few minutes, then you are looking in the wrong place, or have misidentified the form. Skip it and come back later, or ask your teacher (bring the lexicon for reference). Difficulty often arises from:

1. Confusing letters that look alike (especially  $\eta$  and  $\pi$ ,  $\psi$  and  $\omega$ );
2. Confusing letters that sound alike (especially  $\kappa$  and  $\nu$ ) when you say the word to yourself as you look for it;
3. Looking for a word that is written defectively (i.e., without a vowel letter) in your passage, but is listed in its “full” spelling in the lexicon (i.e., with the vowel letter);
4. Looking in the Aramaic section for a Hebrew word (especially words at the end of the alphabet, since the Aramaic section usually follows the listings for Hebrew);
5. Looking under the wrong “root” (for lexica arranged by “root”).
6. Having the wrong parsing.

## 23.3 VOCABULARY

<i>bone; essence</i> (i.e., the inmost part)	עֵצָם .343	<i>cult center</i> (trad., “high place”)	בְּמָה .335
<i>dust, dirt, soil</i>	עָפָר .344	<i>redeem, purchase as a kinsman-redeemer; redeemer</i> (Q Ptc.)	גָּאֵל .336 גָּאֵל
<i>fruit; descendants, offspring</i>	פְּרִי .345	<i>straight, upright; honest</i> (adj.)	יָשָׁר .337
<i>chariot(s); chariot force</i>	רֶכֶב .346	<i>put on, clothe</i> (oneself); <i>wear</i>	לָבַשׁ .338
<i>who, which, what</i> (with <i>dageš forte</i> in the following consonant); = אֲשֶׁר	שֶׁ .347	<i>tongue, language</i>	לָשׁוֹן .339
<i>pour</i> [out]; <i>shed</i> [blood]	שָׁפַךְ .348	<i>reject, refuse</i>	מָאָס .340
<i>lie, falsehood; deception</i>	שָׁקַר .349	<i>kingdom, realm; kingship, dominion, royal power/authority</i>	מַמְלָכָה .341 מַלְכוּת
<i>abomination</i> (something horrific)	תּוֹעֵבָה .350	[permanent] <i>river</i> ; both הַנְּהַר & הַנְּדוּל refer to Euphrates (rarely as פְּרַת הַנְּהַר (נְהַר))	נְהַר .342

## 23.4 EXERCISES: BHS

1. Please fill in the information missing from the following chart (not all biblical books are included):

Hebrew Title	Gloss the Hebrew Title	Latin Title	English Title	First Page
בראשית				1
ויקרא		Leviticus		
שמואל				
		Reges		
ירמיה				
		Micha		
תהלים				1087
משלי				
שיר השירים		Canticum		
איכה				
דברי הימים				

2. Please gloss these clauses, parsing the verbal forms, and using the lexicon where necessary.

Ps 19.10

a. יִרְאֵת יְהוָה טְהוֹרָה עוֹמֶדֶת לְעַד  
מִשְׁפָּטֵי־יְהוָה אֱמֶת צְדָקוֹ יַחֲדוּ:

Ho 8.1; the context suggests that עבר (*cross over/through*) signifies a trespass or transgression.

b. עָבְרוּ בְרִיתִי וְעַל־תּוֹרָתִי פָּשְׁעוּ:

Jr 51.62; לְבַלְתִּי הָיִית׃ *so that there would not be*

c. וְאָמַרְתָּ יְהוָה אַתָּה דִּבַּרְתָּ אֶל־הַמָּקוֹם הַזֶּה  
לְהַכְרִיתוֹ לְבַלְתִּי הָיִית־בּוֹ יוֹשֵׁב  
לְמַאֲדָם וְעַד־בְּהֵמָה כִּי־שָׁמְמוֹת עוֹלָם תִּהְיֶה:

Jos 24.9; וַיָּקָם (< קָם) *he rose*; Balak, Zippor, Moab, Balaam, Beor

d. וַיָּקָם בָּלָק בֶּן־צִפּוֹר מֶלֶךְ מוֹאָב וַיִּלְחָם בְּיִשְׂרָאֵל  
וַיִּשְׁלַח וַיִּקְרָא לְבַלְעָם בֶּן־בְּעוֹר לְקַלֵּל אֶתְכֶם:

1 Kgs 2.42; Shimei

e. וַיִּשְׁלַח הַמֶּלֶךְ וַיִּקְרָא לְשִׁמְעִי וַיֹּאמֶר אֵלָיו  
הֲלוֹא הִשְׁבַּעְתִּיךָ בְּיְהוָה

Gn 42.4; Benjamin, Joseph, Jacob; אֶסוֹן *trouble, disaster*

f. וְאֶת־בְּנֵימִן אָחִי יוֹסֵף לֹא־שָׁלַח יַעֲקֹב אֶת־אָחָיו  
כִּי אָמַר פֶּן־יִקְרָאנוּ אֶסוֹן:

Lv 1.5; Aaron

g. וְשַׁחַט אֶת־בֶּן הַבָּקָר לִפְנֵי יְהוָה  
וְהִקְרִיבוּ בְנֵי אֶהֱרָן הַכֹּהֲנִים אֶת־הַדָּם  
וְזָרְקוּ אֶת־הַדָּם עַל־הַמִּזְבֵּחַ  
סָבִיב אֲשֶׁר־פָּתַח אֵהָל מוֹעֵד:

Jr 36.4; מִגִּלָּה *scroll* (“something rolled up” < גָּלַל); Jeremiah, Baruch, Neraiah

h. וַיִּקְרָא יִרְמְיָהוּ אֶת־בְּרוּךְ בֶּן־נִרְיָה  
וַיִּכְתֹּב בְּרוּךְ מִפִּי יִרְמְיָהוּ אֵת כָּל־דְּבָרֵי יְהוָה  
אֲשֶׁר־דִּבֶּר אֵלָיו עַל־מִגְלַת־סֵפֶר:

Nu 27.1 ... 2; Zelophehad, Moses

i. וַתִּקְרַבְנָה בָּנוֹת צֶלְפַּחָד ... וַתַּעֲמִדְנָה לִפְנֵי מֹשֶׁה

1 Kgs 15.7; Abijam; Jeroboam; Judah

j. וַיִּתֵּר דְּבָרֵי אַבְיָם וְכָל־אֲשֶׁר עָשָׂה הַלְוֵאִיתִים  
כְּתוּבִים עַל־סֵפֶר דְּבָרֵי תִימִים לְמַלְכֵי יְהוּדָה  
וּמִלְחָמָה הָיְתָה בֵּין אַבְיָם וּבֵין יִרְבֵּעָם:



### 23.5 ENRICHMENT: USING THE LEXICON

The greatest danger in using a lexicon is failing to recognize that lexicons list *glosses*, not definitions, meanings, or descriptions. The lexicon often gives no more or less information than a mere word-list *when it comes to exegesis*; its great benefit is its topical or functional arrangement of the occurrences of the word(s), as well as identifying collocations in which they occur, such as a particular combination of a verbal root with certain subjects or prepositions.

The glosses suggested for the various stems often assume that, e.g., the *hifil* is the causative of the *qal*, or that the function of *any* stem in which a verb occurs is somehow related to its function in *qal*. This is often (but not always) true, and should *never* be assumed. Since lexica offer glosses instead of definitions, other tools, such as theological dictionaries and wordbooks, are often more helpful than a lexicon when determining the range of a word's function, and where within that range its use in a given passage lies.

The lexica will suggest this if the listing is exhaustive, by assigning each lemma to either a gloss or functional category. You will then need to examine the other passages listed under that gloss or function to be sure that they are related to passage that you are studying.

As an example, consider the verbal root בָּרַךְ, glossed as *kneel* (Q) or *bless* (D). Many contemporary translations of the Bible render the *piel* as “bless” when its object is human, but “praise” when the object is divine. Ps 103.1, for example, has traditionally been rendered as “*Bless* the LORD, O my soul” (KJV, NAS, ESV), but many contemporary translations read “*Praise* the LORD, O my soul”, apparently to avoid implying that anyone can somehow do something that will benefit YHWH. HALOT suggests that the function of בָּרַךְ is either to “endue with special power” when God is its subject, or “declare God to be the source of special power = bless” when it occurs with a human subject and divine object (HALOT, I:160). Discovering the word's function requires searching the biblical text, looking for patterns of usage, and, perhaps asking whether or not “bless” (in this case) is still the best basic gloss for this verbal root.

## LESSON 24 OTHER KINDS OF VERBAL ROOTS

THERE ARE TWO MAIN TYPES of verbal root in BH: those which “have three unchangeable root consonants” (Joüon-Muraoka 1991, §40c), and which are called “strong”, and those which lack one or more of their radicals in some forms, and may be called “weak” or “variable”.<sup>3</sup> Up to this point we have studied only the forms of verbs with strong roots, but we now turn to the other types.

Although it is tempting to think in terms of “regular” and “irregular” verbs, Hebrew verbs are more or less regular. Even the types of roots to which we now turn are fairly consistent. There are five main types of variable verbs in BH, named according to the position of the weak letter, using either Roman numerals or the letters of the traditional paradigm verb פִּעַל (“do, make”).

### 24.1 THE TYPES & EFFECT OF ROOT WEAKNESS

Name	Lexical Form	The Nature of the Variation (effect of the weakness)
<b>Initial Weak</b>	I-נ פ"ן	<b>נפל</b> <i>fall</i>
	I-ו/י פ"ו/י	<b>ישב</b> <i>sit, settle</i>
<b>Middle Weak (Hollow)</b>	II-ו/י ע"ו/י	<b>שיר</b> <i>sing</i>
	ע"ע geminate	<b>סבב</b> <i>surround</i>
<b>Final Weak</b>	III-ה ל"ה	<b>בנה</b> <i>build</i>

The nature and location of the different weaknesses means that not all forms of a weak verb are, in fact, weak (i.e., some forms look just like the basic verb). This chart shows which forms of each type vary from the strong verb.

Weakness	Qal	Nifal	D-stems	H-stems
I-נ I-ו/י	Weak in imperfect, preterite imperative, infinitive construct	Weak in perfect & participle	Strong in all forms	Weak in all forms
II-ו/י Geminate	Weak in nearly all forms		Replaced by <i>polet</i> , <i>polal</i> , <i>hitpolet</i>	
III-ה	Weak in preterite, jussive, infinitive construct, & all forms with PGN endings			

<sup>3</sup>English distinguishes strong from weak verbs by the form of their past tense. Verbs which add “-ed” to form the past are considered strong, since the form of the verbal root does not change (“look”, “looked”), whereas verbs that indicate the past in some other way (by changing a vowel (“run”, “ran”), or all or part of their form (“go”, “went”; “teach”, “taught”; “be”, “are”).

### 24.1.1 CONSISTENCY AMONG VERBAL FORMS

Each verbal stem is fairly consistent, using, for example, the same prefix vowel for each type of weakness. In addition, the III-ה verbs (for example) are weak in many forms, but their weakness is consistent across all stems and conjugations, and—which is especially important—does not affect any of the diagnostics that we learned for the basic verb, which means that they are fairly easy to recognize.

It is tempting to see the strong and weak forms as vastly different, but they are in fact quite closely tied to the forms of the strong verb (more strongly than, e.g., “be”, “was”, “are”, and “am”, or even and ).

1. The subject [PGN] affixes are the same in all verbal forms (e.g., נג- is always 1cp perfect, whether the stem is strong or weak).
2. The weaknesses of these verbal roots are only morphological—they only affect the *shape* of the verbal form. They do not affect the function or syntax of the stems or conjugations (i.e., the preterite delineates the narrative backbone, and the *hifil* is generally transitive).

### 24.2 III-ה VERBS

The final ה- of the lexical form of these verbal roots is a vowel letter, not a consonant. These verbs originally ended in ם, which thus “replaces” the final ה- before consonantal PGN endings and in Q passive participle. This weakness does not affect anything in front of the second radical of the verbal root, which means that their stem diagnostics are identical to those of the basic verb. These roots are also called ה"ל and “final ה”.

**N.B.** Verbal roots ending in ה- (ה with *mappiq*) are *not weak*, but III-guttural (above); *mappiq* shows that the final ה is a consonant, not a vowel letter (e.g., גבה, “be high”; ננה, “shine/be bright”).

#### 24.2.1 FORM

1. If there is *no PGN ending*
  - a) All forms except jussive, preterite, and infinitive construct end in ה. Each *conjugation* has a specific vowel before the final ה, regardless of the stem (on J, Pr, and NC, see below).

Ending	Conjugation	Example	Parsing	Where this Ending Occurs	
הַ -	perfect	בָּנָה	3ms Q P	3ms P only	
הֶ -	imperfect	יִבְנֶה	3ms Q F	1cs F, 2ms F, 3m/fs F, 1cp F only	all stems
	participle	מִבְּנֶה	ms H Ptc	ms Ptc only	
הּ -	imperative	בְּנֵה	ms Q V	2ms V only	
	infinitive absolute	הִבְנֵה	H NA	H & Hp NA	H & Hp only
הָ -	infinitive absolute	הִתְבְּנֵה	Dt NA	NA only	all stems except H & Hp
וְ-ת	infinitive construct	בְּנוֹת	Q NC	NC f.p. Ptc	all stems

- b) In the jussive and preterite of all stems, the final ה drops off forms without a PGN ending, and a “helping” vowel—usually *segol*—is added between the first and second radicals of the root.

	Perfect	Imperfect	Jussive	Preterite	
Q 3ms	בָּנָה	יִבְנֶה	יִבֵּן	וַיִּבֶן	and he built
1cp	נִגְלִינוּ	נִגְלֶה	נִגַּל	וַנִּגַּל	and we revealed
N 3ms	נִרְאָה	יִרְאֶה	[יִרְאֵ]א	וַיִּרְאֵ	and he appeared
D 3ms	צִוָּה	יִצְוֶה	יִצַּו	וַיִּצַּו	and he commanded
Dp 3ms	צִוָּה	יִצְוֶה	יִצַּו	וַיִּצַּו	and he was commanded
Dt 3ms	[הִתְכַּסֶּה]	יִתְכַּסֶּה	[יִתְכַּסֵּ]	וַיִּתְכַּסֵּ	and he hid [himself]
H 3ms	הִשָּׁקָה	יִשְׁקֶה	יִשְׁק	וַיִּשְׁק	and he poured out
Hp 3ms	הִגִּילָה	[וַיִּשְׁקֶה]	[וַיִּשְׁקֵן]	[וַיִּשְׁקֵן]	and it was poured out

c) In the *qal* passive (Qp) participle the final radical is ם instead of ה:

בָּנוּי	<i>built</i>	
גִּלְיוּי	<i>revealed</i>	ms Qp Ptc

2. If there is a *PGN* ending:

a) *Vocalic* PGN endings are added directly to the second radical of the root. This occurs with ם- and םׁ-, but not with the 3fs perfect ending (הׁ-, #3 below):

יִבְנוּ	<i>They will build</i>	3mp Q F
תִּבְנִי	<i>You (fs) will build</i>	2fs Q F
בְּנִי	<i>Build!</i>	2fs Q V
צִוּוּ	<i>Command!</i>	mp D V

b) With *consonantal* endings ם replaces the ה of the lexical form,<sup>4</sup> and comes between the verbal root and the ending. It is preceded by *hireq* or *şere* (in P), or *segol* (F, V).

בְּנִיתִי	<i>I built</i>	1cs Q P
הִשְׁקִיתִי	<i>You (ms) watered</i>	2ms H P
תִּבְנִינָה	<i>You/they (fp) will build</i>	2/3fp Q F

<sup>4</sup>As mentioned above, ם was the original final letter of the III-ה verbs.

3. In 3fs P (all stems), הַתְּ- is added to the second radical of the root:

בָּנְתָהּ	<i>She built</i>	3fs Q P
הִבְנִיתָהּ	<i>She was caused to build</i>	3fs Hp P
הִפְנִיתָהּ	<i>She caused to turn</i>	3fs H P

4. The infinitive construct in all stems is formed by replacing the final הַ with הִ- :

בְּנוֹת	<i>to build</i>	Q NC
הִבְנוֹת	<i>to be built</i>	N NC
הִפְנוֹת	<i>to cause to build</i>	H NC

5. The cohortative and imperfect look alike (i.e., cohortative הַ is not used), so that it can only be detected from the context.

נִבְנֶה	<i>Let us build!</i>	1cp Q C or
	<i>We shall build</i>	1cp Q F

6. III- הַ roots which are also I-עַ (עָשָׂה, עָנָה, עָלָה) have *hatef-patah* under the עַ and *patah* as prefix vowel in both Q and H. When this is combined with the loss of the final הַ in the preterite (#1b, above), some forms of *qal* and *hifil* look exactly alike, and can be distinguished only from the context. Many of these verbs are intransitive in *qal* (e.g., עָלָה), and so will *not* have a direct object (*He went up*), but will have one in H (*He took [X] up*).

עָשִׂיתֶם	<i>You (mp) made</i>	2mp Q P
תִּעְלֶיךָ	<i>You (mp) go up/ascend or You (mp) take [cause to go] up [requires an object]</i>	2mp Q F or 2mp H F
וַיַּעַל	<i>He went up (Q) or He [caused to go] took up (H) [requires an object]</i>	3ms Q Pr or 3ms H Pr
עֲנֵה	<i>Answer [ms]!</i>	2ms Q V

For a complete paradigm of the III-הַ verb, please see **Appendix D**.

### 24.3 THE VERB הָיָה (REVIEW)

The verb הָיָה (introduced in §15.2) is the most common verb in the Bible (more than 3500x). Its forms are rather unusual due to its final הַ- and medial יְ-. Since it is a III-הַ root, it follows the patterns described above, but whenever the *yod* ends a verbal form (in, e.g., 1cs, 2ms, 3ms, and 3fs preterite), it becomes a vowel letter and the form ends in long *hireq* (ִי-).



**24.3.1 FORMS OF הָיָה (ALL QAL)<sup>5</sup>**

P 1cs	הָיִיתִי	<i>I was</i>
3cp	הָיוּ	<i>They were</i>
F 3ms	יִהְיֶה	<i>He shall be</i>
3mp	יִהְיוּ	<i>They shall be</i>
Pr 3ms	וַיְהִי	<i>Now he/it was or Then there was a/some ...</i>
3mp	וַיְהִי	<i>They were</i>
J 3ms	יְהִי	<i>Let/May he/it be/happen</i>
NC	חַיִּית	<i>to be/[by] being</i>

**24.3.2 FUNCTION (CF. §15.2.2)**

Although הָיָה is often glossed “be” or “become”, its most common function in biblical narrative is to introduce a change of setting or circumstance—a shift of scene or focus—in a biblical narrative. The form most commonly used for this function is 3ms *qal* preterite (וַיְהִי), which functions as a discourse-level particle except when followed by a nominal subject.<sup>2</sup> In Ruth 1.1, for example, the first וַיְהִי is *introductory* and thus not represented in the translation, but the second is followed by a subject, (רָעַב) and therefore is predicate (and glossed in English). The circumstantial clause is formed with NC, as is frequent in BH:

וַיְהִי	[signals past reference]
בִּימֵי שְׁפָט הַשְּׁפָטִים	<i>In the days when the judges were judging,</i>
וַיְהִי רָעַב בְּאֶרֶץ	there was a famine in the land [וַיְהִי has a subject],
וַיֵּלֶךְ אִישׁ	and [so] a man went ... (Ru 1.1)

The circumstantial element can also be a nominal prepositional phrase, usually with a word of time or place:

וַיְהִי	[signals future reference]
בְּאַחֲרֵית הַיָּמִים	<i>at the end of the days</i>
הַר יְהוָה בֵּית־יְהוָה נִכּוֹן	the mountain of YHWH’s house [temple] will be established (Mi 4.1)

<sup>5</sup>הָיָה also occurs in *nifal*.

**24.4 FREQUENCY** This lists all III-ה verbal roots that occur *fifty times or more* in BH, in order of descending frequency.

היה	<i>be, become, happen</i>	c. 3500x	חנה	<i>camp, encamp</i>	143x
עשה	<i>do, make, act</i>	2573x	פנה	<i>turn (aside)</i>	134x
ראה	<i>see</i>	1294x	בכה	<i>weep</i>	114x
עלה	<i>go up, ascend</i>	879x	ידה	<i>throw (D); thank, praise (H)</i>	115x
נכה	<i>hit, wound, defeat</i>	504x	זנה	<i>fornicate</i>	95x
צוה	<i>command (D)</i>	494x	חרה	<i>be(come) angry, hot</i>	94x
בנה	<i>build</i>	373x	(II) ענה	<i>be humbled, humiliated (Q)</i>	79x
(I) ענה	<i>answer</i>	314x	שקה	<i>water, give to drink (H)</i>	79x
חיה	<i>live</i>	281x	חלה	<i>be(come) weak, sick</i>	77x
רבה	<i>increase, multiply</i>	226x	קנה	<i>acquire, get, buy</i>	78x
פלה	<i>cease, finish, end</i>	204x	חזה	<i>see</i>	72x
נטה	<i>stretch out, turn</i>	215x	פרה	<i>buy, ransom</i>	56x
שתה	<i>drink</i>	217x	אבה	<i>agree, accept</i>	54x
גלה	<i>reveal, uncover</i>	187x	(III) ירה	<i>teach, instruct (H)</i>	54x
(I) רעה	<i>feed, graze, tend</i>	171x	רצה	<i>be pleased with, like</i>	50x
כסה	<i>cover, conceal (D)</i>	157x	תעה	<i>wander (lost)</i>	50x

## 24.5 CONCEPTS

circumstantial    strong verb    weak verb

## 24.6 VOCABULARY

<i>answer, reply; respond</i>	(I) עָנָה	.359	<i>build</i>	בָּנָה	.351
<i>be humbled, afflicted; humble, afflict (D)</i>	(II) עָנָה	.360	<i>uncover, reveal</i>	(I) גָּלָה	.352
			<i>go into captivity/exile</i>	(II) גָּלָה	
<i>do, make; act</i>	עָשָׂה	.361	<i>live, be/stay alive</i>	חָיָה	.353
<i>command, order (D)</i>	צָוָה	.362	<i>cease, finish, end, complete (often with inf. const.)</i>	פָּלָה	.354
<i>see</i>	רָאָה	.363	<i>cover, conceal (D)</i>	כָּסָה	.355
<i>increase, multiply</i>	רָבָה	.364	<i>stretch out; turn</i>	נָטָה	.356
<i>feed, graze, tend; herd</i>	רָעָה	.365	<i>hit, wound, defeat (H)</i>	נָכָה	.357
<i>drink</i>	שָׁתָה	.366	<i>go up, ascend</i>	עָלָה	.358

## 24.7 EXERCISES

After you have studied the III-ה verb, please gloss these sentences, parsing all verbal forms.

1. Is 40.5 וַנִּגְלָה כְּבוֹד יְהוָה  
וּרְאוּ כָּל-בָּשָׂר יַחְדָּו כִּי פִי יְהוָה דִּבֶּר:
2. Jr 35.17 דִּבַּרְתִּי אֲלֵיהֶם וְלֹא שָׁמְעוּ  
וְאִקְרָא לָהֶם וְלֹא עָנוּ:
3. Jonah 1.10 וַיֹּאמְרוּ אֵלָיו מִה-זֹּאת עֲשִׂיתָ כִּי-יָדְעוּ הָאֲנָשִׁים  
כִּי-מִלְּפָנֶי יְהוָה הוּא בָרַח
4. Ps 30.11 [EV 30.10; גִּי = 1cs suffix]; *be*  
*gracious, show favour*; there are three  
imperatives in this v. שְׁמַע־יְהוָה וְחַנּוּנִי  
יְהוָה הִיחַ-עֲזָר לִי:
5. 2 Ch 19.6 רְאוּ מִה-אַתֶּם עֹשִׂים
6. Gn 13.1; Egypt; Abram, Lot; Negev וַיַּעַל אַבְרָם מִמִּצְרַיִם הוּא וְאַשְׁתּוֹ  
וְכָל-אֲשֶׁר-לוֹ וְלוֹט עִמּוֹ הַנִּגְבָּה:
7. Gn 1.3-4a; the *athnah* (the accent under  
the first occurrence of אֹר means “pause  
here”; see §27.3) וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים יְהִי אוֹר וַיְהִי-אוֹר:  
וַיֵּרָא אֱלֹהִים אֶת-הָאוֹר כִּי-טוֹב
8. Gn 1.9; *be gathered* (N) וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים יִקְוּ הַמַּיִם מִתַּחַת הַשָּׁמַיִם  
אֶל-מְקוֹם אֶחָד וְתִרְאָה הַיַּבְשָׁה וַיְהִי-כֵן:
9. Gn 2.18; לְבַד *only, alone*,  
here with 3ms suffix לֹא-טוֹב הָיִיתָ הָאָדָם לְבַדּוֹ
10. Gn 2.24 וַהֲיִו לְבָשָׂר אֶחָד
11. Gn 8.20; Noah וַיִּבֶן נֹחַ מִזְבֵּחַ לַיהוָה
12. Gn 20.12 וַתְּהִי-לִי לְאִשָּׁה
13. Ex 33.18 [גִּי = 1cs suffix] וַיֹּאמֶר הֲרֵאנִי נֹא אֶת-כְּבוֹדְךָ:

- Ex 32.4; **ישראל** is vocative;  
Egypt
14. **וַיֹּאמְרוּ אֵלֶּה אֱלֹהֵיךָ יִשְׂרָאֵל  
אֲשֶׁר הָעֵלֹף מֵאֶרֶץ מִצְרַיִם:**
- Dt 9.9
15. **לֶחֶם לֹא אָכַלְתִּי וּפְּמִים לֹא שָׁתִיתִי:**
- 1 Sa 4.9; **פְּלִשְׁתִּים** is vocative;  
Philistines, Hebrews
16. **הַתְּחִזְקוּ וְהִיוּ לְאֲנָשִׁים פְּלִשְׁתִּים פֶּן תַּעֲבְדוּ לְעִבְרִים  
כַּאֲשֶׁר עָבְדוּ לָכֶם וְהִיְתָם לְאֲנָשִׁים וְנִלְחַמְתֶּם:**
- 1 Sa 26.23
17. **וְלֹא אָבִיתִי לְשַׁלַּח נְדִי בְּמִשְׁיַח יְהוָה:**
- 1 Sa 14.35; Saul
18. **וַיְבִן שָׁאוּל מִזְבֵּחַ לַיהוָה**
- Ne 9.18; **נֶאֱצָה** *contempt,*  
*blasphemy;* Egypt
19. **וַיֹּאמְרוּ זֶה אֱלֹהֵיךָ אֲשֶׁר הָעֵלֹף מִמִּצְרַיִם  
וַיַּעֲשֵׂוּ נֶאֱצוֹת גְּדֹלוֹת:**
- Lv 18.8; **עֲרוּה** *nakedness* [The  
“nakedness” commandments  
occur in Lv 18.6-19.]
20. **עֲרֹנוֹת אִשְׁת־אָבִיךָ לֹא תִגְלֶה עֲרֹנוֹת אָבִיךָ הוּא:**

## 24.7 ENRICHMENT: NARRATIVE APERTURE

Circumstantial clauses or phrases, as discussed above, often signal narrative onset (or “aperture”), and thus can signal the author’s organization of the story (cf. the examples under in §24.3.2). The significance of this is that we need to beware the tendency to rearrange a text in order to suit our own purposes (i.e., the temptation to use the text merely to make our point). To take the first point of a sermon or exposition from the middle of the story (or poem), the second point from the beginning, and our final point from near the end is merely a way of announcing to others that we would have written the passage differently. It is, in other words, to subordinate our own interests to the interests and concerns of its author.

Our message—which purports to re-present the text to our readers or hearers—must serve the text; the text does not exist to serve our sermon.

Noting narrative aperture is one means of being sure that we are paying attention to the authors’ arrangement of the material, and that we are attempting to follow their lead rather than to replace it with our own. Since every aperture also means that the previous section has closed, identifying apertures enables us to note the “breaks” in the story that correspond to the paragraphs, &c. of stories in English. Since the chapter breaks in our modern Bibles were not original, we need to be careful not to assume their priority in the organization of the story, even though they may indicate a “shift” of perspective within a larger, more general topic (cf. §26.8).

Semantic markers of aperture are mainly words that signal a change of some type—especially shifts in time (chronology), place (location), and participants (characters). By the same token, continuity of characters across chapter breaks suggests that the break is ill-placed. In Gn 18 (see §26.7) and 44, for example, the main character in the first unit of the chapter is not identified by name, implying in each case that he is the same person identified as the subject of the preceding clause(s). This in turn implies that the stories now separated by the chapter break are a single story that should be read and studied as a whole.

## LESSON 25 “PRE-READING” BIBLICAL NARRATIVE, I

**W**HEN FACED WITH A PAGE of Hebrew narrative, don’t panic! This lesson describes and discusses some textual characteristics of biblical narrative that point the way through biblical stories. These “steps” are intended to help you “pre-read” the story, i.e., to prepare you to read it in Hebrew before studying it.

They provide an artificial, but helpful means of beginning to read, study, and understand the story. In themselves they do not guarantee that you will interpret the story correctly, nor do they provide an expository outline, although, used properly, they should both help avoid misinterpreting the story and suggest an approach to interpreting and explaining the passage.

### 25.1 PRETERITES

Preterites form the “backbone” of biblical narratives (§6.3), and tie it together, much as sticking to the past tense in English helps the reader or hearer keep track of what happened. Different types of connecting pieces of a story are called “cohesive devices”, just as “textual cohesion” or just “cohesion” refers to the way that a story “hangs together”. Pronouns are perhaps the most obvious cohesive devices, since, in order to understand “she said” we need to remember who “she” is. By referring back to someone already named the pronoun ties the event described by “she said” to an earlier portion of the story. Verbal conjugation—an example of what we might call *temporal reference*—can also be a cohesive device.

All of this suggests that a helpful first step in breaking the narrative into more manageable pieces is to locate its preterites. When they have been marked (circled, highlighted, &c.), they mark the beginning of many, if not most, of the main narrative clauses, outline the flow of the story, suggest its pacing, and reveal some of its content.

*Syntax.* Since preterites always open [come first in] their clause, marking the preterites indicates the opening boundary of many—sometimes most or all—of the main narrative clauses. The preterite clauses should be read as syntactical units, without reading “across” preterites (e.g., we should not “move” אַבְרָם *Abram*, the last word in Gn 12.7a, into the following preterite clause).<sup>6</sup>

Since the subject is often the second word in the preterite clause, marking the preterites also suggests where the subject of each clause can be found (this is, of course, a “rule” with frequent exceptions).

*Flow & Pace.* Preterites outline the story by their spacing and content (lexical function). You may notice that in many biblical narratives preterites tend to come in clusters, with relatively larger stretches of material between these clusters. They are sometimes spaced more evenly throughout the narrative. This spacing suggests that either there will be a great deal of quoted material, introduced by וַיֹּאמֶר, &c., or a large amount of descriptive material (background, &c.) introducing or supporting the chain of events (e.g., 1 Sam 3.1-3).

*Content.* The content (semantic function) of the preterites also suggests the nature of the story. In, e.g., Gn 12.1-9, the preterite that opens the discourse (וַיֹּאמֶר) introduces three verses of direct quotation (12.1-3), which is followed by a stretch of six preterites (4-6), five of which are verbs of motion or travel. The next two preterites (7a) introduce another, very brief, divine speech (7b), followed by six more preterites, two of which describe the act of building (7c, 8b), and two of which are again verbs of motion (8a, 9a). Simply noting this suggests that the narrative contained in these verses centers on a person or persons moving from one place to another. When you come to read the story, therefore, you expect to find information about this type of activity.

If, on the other hand, most or all of the preterites are verbs of speaking (e.g., Gn 17), you know that the “story” largely records a conversation, which in Scripture will tend to be one person telling another what to do (instruction, exhortation) or what he or she [the speaker] will do (prophecy, promise). In fact, in Gn 12.1-3, this is what we find. God tells Abram what to do (1), and then makes certain promises to him (2-3).

<sup>6</sup>This does not presume to answer the question of whether or not “Abram” might be more appropriately placed in the following clause in a particular translation.



This leads directly to a second aspect of narrative.

## 25.2 QUOTATION FORMULAE

A large part of the narrative burden of biblical stories is carried by direct quotations. Often, for example, after relating the details of Moses' or Joshua's instructions, the narrative will remark merely that "and he did so" (וַיַּעַשׂ כֵּן) (Jg 6.20; 1 Kg 20.25; Est 2.4; Is 20.2)) or "so they did what Moses [Joshua] had commanded", without describing their actions or repeating the instructions. This means that although the preterites may carry the narrative flow of the story, the quotations often provide much of its substance.

The second aspect of pre-reading a narrative is therefore to note where the quotations begin and end. They are introduced with a verb of speaking (אָמַר, דָּבַר, שָׂאָל, &c.) that is often followed by the subject and addressee (introduced by ל). This type of introductory syntagm ("YHWH said to Abram") is called an *introductory formula*, and makes it easy to locate the *aperture* or beginning of the quoted material. Recognizing where they end is not always quite so simple, since other clauses may come between the end of the quotation and the next preterite. For now, merely noting quotation formulae will alert you to the speeches in the passage.

In a narrative, many quotation formulae will already have been marked as preterites, but they also occur in other types of clauses (e.g., in Gn 12.12a2 וַיֹּאמְרוּ falls within Abram's speech). This means that it is not enough merely to check the marked preterites for verbs of speaking.

Quotation formulae also serve another purpose, however. When they occur in consecutive verses, they are more likely to signal a conversation, but, when *repeated* within a unified speech (i.e., not to indicate alternating speakers), they do not re-introduce the speaker (as though the reader had forgotten who was talking), but signal topical shifts within the speech. Here are three examples from the early chapters of Genesis.

In Genesis 1.3-26, the repeated quotation formula וַיֹּאמֶר signals the next divine creative activity. There was no one else to speak, so we must ask why the verb and its subject (וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים) are repeated. The formula initiates each divine act, and, at the end of that chapter, marks the topical division of the divine speech to the newly created man and woman (Gn 1.28-30):

Topic	Gloss	Quotation Formula	Ref.
The blessing of abundance & dominion	<i>God blessed them ... and God said to them, "...</i>	וַיְבָרֶךְ וַיֹּאמֶר לָהֶם ...	9.1
The provision of food	<i>And God said, "...</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים	9.8

In Genesis 9.1-17, the formulae reveal the organization of a long divine speech:

Topic	Gloss	Quotation Formula	Ref.
The command to fill the earth, provision of food, and institution of justice (the human aspects of the covenant)	<i>And God blessed Noah and his sons and said to them, "...</i>	וַיְבָרֶךְ אֱלֹהִים אֶת־נוֹחַ וְאֶת־בָּנָיו וַיֹּאמֶר לָהֶם	9.1
Divine covenant with all life	<i>And God said to Noah &amp; his sons with him [saying], "...</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים אֶל־נוֹחַ וְאֶל־בָּנָיו אַתּוֹ לֵאמֹר	9.8
The sign of the covenant	<i>And God said, "...</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים	9.12
Reiteration: sign & scope of covt.	<i>And God said to Noah, "...</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים אֶל־נֹחַ	9.17

Genesis 17 illustrates both points about quotation formulae, including the difference between an extended speech and conversation. The announcement of the covenantal sign of circumcision (Gn 17.3b-17) is divided into three sections by further quotative frames:

Topic	Gloss	Quotation Formula	Ref.
YHWH's rôle in establishing the covenant	<i>And God spoke with him [saying],</i> “... ”	וַיִּדְבֹר אֲתוֹ אֱלֹהִים לֵאמֹר	17.3b
Abraham's responsibility within the covenant (circumcision)	<i>And God said to Abraham, “... ”</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים אֶל-אַבְרָהָם	17.9
Sarah's rôle in the covenantal promise	<i>And God said to Abraham, “... ”</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים אֶל-אַבְרָהָם	17.15

This is followed by three preterites that describe Abraham's response (*He fell ... he laughed ... he said to himself ...* [17.17]), after which two further quotation formulae introduce the ensuing conversation between Abraham and YHWH:

Topic	Gloss	Quotation Formula	Ref.
Abraham asks about Ishmael	<i>And Abraham said to God,</i> “... ”	וַיֹּאמֶר אַבְרָהָם אֶל-הָאֱלֹהִים	17.18
God reassures him about Ishmael	<i>And God said, “... ”</i>	וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים	17.19

Finally, some of the gaps in the preterite chain (which we noted when we marked the preterites, §25.1) should now be filled by quotations. Just as the preterite chain suggests the pace of the story, quotation plays a large rôle in dramatic pacing by slowing and focussing a narrative. In a movie, montages (a series of relatively fast clips, usually without any dialogue) and slow motion are two means of controlling pace. Unlike a movie (which can show someone doing something as they speak), a written text can only mention one thing at a time. As we read a quotation, nothing else happens, which stops the flow of events. If a passage consists largely of blocks of quotation (cf., e.g., Gn 9.1-17; 17.3b-21), not much is going to “happen”, even if the passage is fairly lengthy. To invoke a false dichotomy—*what* is said (the content of the quotations) often overshadows *that* it is said (the narrated event).

### 25.3 וַיְהִי - CLAUSES

One rather special subset of preterites has already been mentioned, namely וַיְהִי—the 3ms Q Pr of היה (§15.2). This form has two primary syntagmatic functions, each of which is related to its function within the larger discourse.

1. *Circumstantial*. When *wayhî* is followed by either a temporal expression, either a nominal phrase or a verbal clause (e.g., וַיְהִי בַיּוֹם הַהוּא, preposition + infinitive construct), its clause is *circumstantial*. These usually indicate a change in the temporal or locative setting (cf. Gropp 1995, 202).
2. *Predicate*. When a subject follows *wayhî*, the clause introduces a person or object, or describes a change in the larger setting or circumstances of the story.

*Wayhî* occurs four times in Genesis 12.10-16. The first (10) and fourth (16b) are predicate, and introduce changes in the narrative situation, the second (11) and third (14) are circumstantial, introducing [events at] stages in Abram's journey to Egypt:

Ref.	wayh Clause	Gloss	Narrative Shift
12.10	וַיְהִי רָעָב בְּאֶרֶץ	<i>There was a famine</i> in the land	A change in situation, implying that the famine began after Abram was in the land (background information for what follows)
12.11	וַיְהִי הִקְרִיב לָבוֹא מִצְרַיִם	<i>When he was about to enter</i> Egypt, ...	The second “stage” of Abram’s journey to Egypt (cf. v. 10b)
12.14	וַיְהִי כְּבוֹא אַבְרָם מִצְרַיִם	<i>When Abram entered</i> Egypt, ...	The conclusion of Abram’s journey to Egypt
12.16	וַיְהִי לוֹ צֹאן וּבָקָר	<i>He had</i> flocks and herds, ...	A change in Abram’s circumstance because of Sarai

The beginning of 12.10 implies that when Abram had arrived and received the promise of God there was no famine in the land, just as the clause in 12.16 implies that he now had [significantly?] more than he had had before Pharaoh took Sarai.

More theoretically, when *wayhî* is *predicate* (as defined above), it is *morphologically* bound to (or cohesive with) the main storyline since it is a preterite, which suggests that *wayhî* clauses raise the description of a state or condition to the status of the narrative backbone, even though *they do not narrate a sequential or consequential event* (e.g., Gn 12.10).<sup>7</sup> In this case, its function is analogous to that of a preterite of a non-dynamic stative verb. Cf. the difference between, e.g., “Abram *was* very wealthy”, which describes a[n ongoing] state, and “Abram *became* [or *had become*] very wealthy”, which describes either the beginning of his wealth (“became”) or his prior arrival at a state of wealth (“had become”). There is thus the possibility that predicate *וַיְהִי* clauses may be inceptive: “A famine *came upon* the land” (cf. the prophetic formula, e.g., *וַיְהִי דְבַר יְהוָה אֶל־יֹנָה בֶן־אָמִתַּי*, “YHWH’s word *came* to Jonah ...” [Jon 1.1]).

In fact, since both types of *wayhî* clauses can signal a change in setting or circumstance (e.g., Gn 12.10), they reveal some of the discontinuities in the story that mark what can be called narrative “seams” or “boundaries”, or the onset of narrative “chunks” that begin conceptual units of the story.

Although we need to check our impressions of the function of *wayhî* against the relationship between the content of the *wayhî* clause and the rest of the discourse, this helps us look beyond the individual form to its literary context, and encourages us to avoid so-called “literal” renderings such as “and it happened/came to pass”.

The combination of preterites, quotations, and *wayhî*-clauses should give us a pretty good grasp of the story’s overall structure. Four more aspects to “pre-reading” a text remain (which we shall leave for a later time).<sup>8</sup>

## 25.4 THE PURPOSE OF TRANSLATION

Forcing ourselves to make decisions

Humility re versions—realizing the choices that have to be made

Realizing that TS is much more than assigning one gloss per word

<sup>7</sup>The exception to this “rule of non narration” is when *וַיְהִי* (and other forms of *hayah*) are followed by a *ל* showing a change in the subject’s status (“became”).

<sup>8</sup>They are disjunctive clauses, masoretic accents, narrative boundaries, clause-level particles.

## 25.4 VOCABULARY

teach, instruct (H)	יָרָה (III) .375	be willing, agree	אָבָה .367
ransom, buy (back)	פָּדָה .376	weep, mourn, wail	בָּכָה .368
turn (toward)	פָּנָה .377	fornicate, commit illicit sex	זָנָה .369
acquire, get, buy	קָנָה .378	see, observe, gaze [at]	חָזָה .370
be pleased with, like	רָצָה .379	be/become weak, sick, ill	חָלָה .371
pleasure, favour	רָצוֹן .380	camp, encamp	חָנָה .372
water, give a drink [to someone or something] (H)	שָׁקָה .381	be/become angry, hot	חָרָה .373
wander (lost)	תָּעָה .382	thank, praise (H)	יָרָה .374

## 25.5 EXERCISE

In the reading passage for the next class, please (1) mark (highlight, underline) the preterites; (2) quotation formulae; and (3) any occurrences of *wayhî* (and identify their function as either circumstantial or predicate).

## 25.6 ENRICHMENT: PARTICIPANT IDENTIFICATION (I)

Noting the preterites, quotation formulae, and *wayhî*-clauses in a biblical narrative helps us study the text more carefully, but other types of information in narrative also need to be recognized and accounted for. One that can be especially helpful in understanding the author's intention in a passage is *participant identification*. You have probably noticed that the biblical authors tend to identify the main characters (actors) in the story, either by name, or title, or both. In Genesis 16, for example, the use of appositional descriptors underlines the dysfunctionality of the triad of Sarai, Hagar, and Abram (to name them in the order in which they appear in the story).

**Genesis 16** begins with three disjunctive clauses (**16.1**) that set the stage for the story by identifying the major participants, Sarai and Hagar:

- 1a וְשָׂרַי אִשְׁתּוֹ אַבְרָם לֹא יָלְדָה לוֹ Now Sarai, Abram's wife, had not born [a child] to/for him,  
 1b וְלָהּ שִׁפְחָה מִצְרַיִת and she had an Egyptian maid,  
 1c וְשִׁמְהָ הָגָר: and her name was Hagar.

Sarai is identified by her relationship to Abram, and Hagar in relationship to her, as well as by her ethnicity. Abram is mentioned only to establish his relationship to Sarai—to “remind” readers that Sarai was his wife.

In **Gn 16.2**, Sarai is explicitly named as the subject of the leading preterite, but this is a necessary identification. Since two women were named in v. 1, the 3fs preterite וְתֹאמַר requires an explicit subject in order for the reader to know—as the quotation begins—which woman spoke to Abram. At the end of the verse, when Abram agrees/acquiesced to Sarai, both actors, already named at the beginning of the verse are again called by name. On the other hand, Sarai does not mention Hagar's name, referring to her merely as “my maid” (שִׁפְחָתִי).

- ... וְתֹאמַר שָׂרַי אֶל-אַבְרָם ... And Sarai said to Abram, “...  
 וַיִּשְׁמַע אַבְרָם לְקוֹל שָׂרַי: and Abram listened to Sarai's voice (16.2).

In **Gn 16.3**, both Sarai and Hagar are identified as fully as they were in v. 1, and Abram is named “in both directions”—Sarai as his wife, and he as her husband, probably to highlight the tangled relationships



that are being created:

וַתִּקַּח שָׂרַי אִשְׁת־אַבְרָם  
 אֶת־הַגֵּר הַמִּצְרִית שִׁפְחָתָהּ  
 וַתִּתֵּן אֹתָהּ לְאַבְרָם אִישָׁהּ לוֹ לְאִשָּׁה:  
 And *Sarai*, *Abram's wife*, took *Hagar*, the *Egyptian*,  
*her maid*, ...  
 and she gave her to *Abram her husband*, to be a wife  
 for him.

When the relationship between Hagar and Sarai deteriorates (16.4), the author places Sarai and Abram on the same level by introducing both of their quotations with both names:

... וַתֹּאמֶר שָׂרַי אֶל־אַבְרָם ...  
 ... וַיֹּאמֶר אַבְרָם אֶל־שָׂרַי ...  
 And *Sarai* said to *Abram*, "... (16.5)  
 and *Abram* said to *Sarai*, "... (16.6)

Throughout this brief conversation, Hagar is again demoted, not mentioned by name, but merely called “my/your maid”. At the end of the story, however, Hagar is named three times—always as the subject of the verb יָלַד (a preterite [15a], a perfect in a relative clause [15b], and an infinitive construct in a temporal clause within the final disjunctive clause [16]).

וַתֵּלֶד הַגֵּר לְאַבְרָם בֵּן  
 וַיִּקְרָא אַבְרָם שֵׁם־בְּנוֹ אֶשְׁרֵי־יִלְדָהּ הַגֵּר  
 וַאֲבָרָם בֶּן־שְׁמֹנִים שָׁנָה וָשֵׁשׁ שָׁנִים  
 בְּלִדְת־הַגֵּר אֶת־יִשְׁמָעֵאל לְאַבְרָם:  
 And *Hagar* bore *Abram* a son,  
 and *Abram* called the name of his son, whom *Hagar*  
 bore ... (16.15)  
 (now *Abram* was eighty-six years old when *Hagar* bore  
*Ishmael* to *Abram*). (16.16)

Although she is not called Abram’s “wife” after v. 3, at the end of the story she is no longer defined in terms of her relationship to Sarai, but in her own right as the mother of Ishmael, which implies some change in her standing within the home.



## LESSON 26 I-נ VERBS

**V**ERBAL ROOTS that begin with נ are weak whenever the first radical of a verbal form is followed by silent *šewa*, since the נ assimilates to the following consonant. Verbs I-נ are therefore weak throughout *hifil* and *hofal*, and in some forms of *nifal* (P, Ptc) and *qal* (F, Pr, V, NC). They are strong throughout all three D-stems, and in some conjugations of *nifal* (F, Pr, V, NC) and *qal* (P, NA, Ptc). This general pattern is the same as the I-י verb (below), so that some forms of these roots are exactly alike, and the lexical form can be determined only by knowing the vocabulary or from context, or both.

Stem	Weak Forms	Strong Forms
Q	F, Pr, V [NC,NA]	P, Ptc [NC, NA]
N	P, Ptc	F, Pr, V [NC,NA]
D, Dp, Dt	None	All forms
H, Hp	All forms	None

When the first radical of a verbal form is followed by silent *šewa* (e.g., ימשל), the initial נ assimilates to the following consonant and doubles it. Each of the following pair of forms has the same parsing; the second verb of each pair is I-נ.

Form	Root	Parsing	Gloss	Dage forte
נמשל	משל	3ms N P	<i>He was kept</i>	In ננש the initial –נ of ננש has assimilated to the נ; the –נ is the prefix of the <i>nifal</i> perfect.
ננש	ננש		<i>He approached</i>	
ימשל	משל	3ms Q F	<i>He keeps (will keep)</i>	In יפל the initial –נ of נפל has assimilated to the פ.
יפל	נפל		<i>He falls (will fall)</i>	
המשיל	משל	3ms H P	<i>He caused to keep</i>	In הציל the initial –נ of נצל has assimilated to the צ.
הציל	נצל		<i>He rescued</i>	

1. The primary clue that a verbal form is from a I-נ root is that there are only two radicals, the first of which is doubled (if there is any type of stem or subject prefix).
2. If the second radical of a I-נ root is a guttural or ר, the root is like the basic verb (נ does not assimilate).
3. I-נ roots that are also hollow (e.g., ניס) follow the rules of the hollow verbs (Lesson 28), not I-נ verbs.
4. Some forms of I-נ roots in Q look exactly like I-י forms (Lesson 30).

### 26.1 I-נ VERBAL ROOTS IN QAL

There are three main types of I-נ verb (creatively called Types I, II, and III). Type I occurs in all stems, Type II in Q of some verbal roots; Type III consists of only one verb (נתן). There is no distinction in the other stems (i.e., the differences between Types I, II, & III only appear in *qal*).

#### 26.1.1 TYPE I (Q F WITH *HOLEM*)

This is the most common type of I-נ verb; when the initial נ is followed by silent *šewa* it assimilates to the second radical and doubles it. Type I verbal forms from I-נ roots are therefore weak throughout the H-stems (*hifil*, *hofal*), in *qal* imperfect and preterite, and in *nifal* perfect and participle. This skeleton paradigm shows the forms of Type I verbs that are affected (*weak*):

	Type I	Q	N	H	Hp
P	3ms	נָפַל	נִפַּל	הִפִּיל	הִפֵּל
F	3ms	יִפַּל	יִנְפַּל	יִפִּיל	יִפֵּל
V	ms	נָפַל	הִנְפִּיל	הִפִּיל	---
	mp	נִפְּלוּ	הִנְפִּילוּ	הִפִּילוּ	---
NC		נָפַל	הִנְפִּיל	הִפִּיל	הִפֵּל
Ptc	ms	נֹפֵל	נֹפֵל	מִפִּיל	מִפֵּל

1. Shaded spaces mean that those forms are not weak (--- means that this form does not occur).
2. The prefix and its vowel are unaffected (except in Hp, where the prefix vowel is always *qibbus*).
3. The endings and vowels after the second radical are the same as those of the basic verb.

### 26.1.2 TYPE II (Q F WITH PATAH)

These verbs differ from Type I only in *qal* imperfect, preterite, imperative, and infinitive construct; all other forms are the same as Type I (above). The paradigm shows only the *weak* forms of this type of I-נ verb, using נגש and לקח, and lists Q forms only, since the other stems are the same as Type I (above).

Type II (Qal)	נגש	לקח
F	3ms יִגְשׁ <i>he approaches/ will approach</i>	יִקַּח <i>he takes/ will take</i>
	3mp יִגְשׂוּ <i>they approach/ will approach</i>	יִקַּחוּ <i>they take/ will take</i>
Pr	3ms וַיִּגַּשׁ <i>and he approached</i>	וַיִּקַּח <i>and he took</i>
	3mp וַיִּגְשׂוּ <i>and they approached</i>	וַיִּקַּחוּ <i>and they took</i>
V	ms גַּשׁ <i>Approach!</i>	קַח <i>Take!</i>
	mp גְּשׂוּ <i>Approach!</i>	קַחוּ <i>Take!</i>
NC	גִּשְׁתָּ [to] approach	קִחְתָּ [to] take

1. The root sign ( ) is used in studying Hebrew to show that we are discussing or describing forms from a particular verbal root.
2. *Qal* imperfect has *pataḥ* after the second radical.
3. In Q imperative and infinitive construct the initial נ drops off (apocopates).
4. A final ת- is added to Q NC, which has two *seghols* (two *patahs* in II- and III-guttural roots), and looks just like Q NC of some I-י verbs (below).
5. The forms of the verb לקח look just like the forms of a I-נ verb (Type II); any verbal form with קח- or -קח- is therefore a form of לקח. It is the only I-ל verb that does this. The medial ק loses *dageš forte* before *šewa*; cf. 3mp Q F (above).

### 26.1.3 TYPE III (נתן ONLY)

The most common I-נ verb (c. 2000x in BH), נתן, is the only verb of this type. In *nifal* (the only non-*qal* stem in which it occurs), it is like Type II (above). Its main difference from other verbs in *qal* is that the final ך assimilates to consonantal PGN endings:

Q P	1cs	נָתַתִּי	<i>I gave</i>
N P	2mp	נָתַתְּם	<i>You were given (put, set, made)</i>

The other forms of נתן look like Type II (above), except that its stem vowel is *šere*. In addition, Q NC lacks both ך's.

F	3ms	יָתַן	<i>He gives/will give</i>
	3mp	יָתְנוּ	<i>They [will] give</i>
Pr	1cs	נָתַתִּין	<i>I gave</i>
	3ms	נָתַתִּין	<i>He gave</i>
V	2ms	תֵּן	
		תִּנֵּה	<i>Give!</i>
	2mp	תִּנּוּ	
		תִּת	<i>to give</i>
NC	+1cs sfx	תִּתִּי	<i>my giving</i>
	+2ms sfx	תִּתְּךָ	<i>your giving</i>

A paradigm listing all forms of נתן that occur in BH follows the I-נ paradigm (Appendix E).

## 26.2 NIFAL OF I-נ VERBAL ROOTS

Like the strong verb (Lesson 18), I-נ verbal roots appear in two basic forms in *nifal*, with a doubled second radical (P, Ptc) or a doubled first radical (F, Pr, V):

			נַפַּל
P	3ms	נִפַּל	
F	3ms	יִנַּפַּל	
Pr	3ms	יִנַּפְּלִין	
V	ms	נַפַּלְ	
NC		נַפַּלְ	
Ptc	ms	נַפַּלְ	

1. In the perfect and participle, the initial -נ assimilates to the second radical. The -נ is the -נ prefix of the *nifal*.
2. In the other conjugations, the -נ of the *nifal* prefix assimilates to the initial -נ of the verbal root; these forms look just like the strong verb. The visible -נ- is the initial radical of the verbal root.

3. Unlike *qal*, the *nifal* of I-נ verbal roots appears in only one set of forms.

### 26.3 HIFIL & HOFAL (H, Hp) OF I-נ VERBAL ROOTS

Since the *nun* is assimilated in all forms of the *hifil* and *hofal*,<sup>9</sup> the initial –נ of I-נ verbal roots that occur only in the H-stems (e.g., נגד, נשג) never appears:

		נגד		נשג
		H	Hp	H
P	3ms	הִגִּיד	הִגֵּד	הִשִּׁיג
F	3ms	יִגִּיד	---	יִשִּׁיג
Pr	3ms	יִגִּיד	יִגֵּד	יִשִּׁיג
V	ms	הִגֵּד	---	---
NC		הִגִּיד	---	---
Ptc	ms	מִגִּיד	---	מִשִּׁיג

Forms marked with --- do not occur; Hp of נשג does not occur.

### 26.4 FREQUENCY This table lists all I-נ verbs that occur fifty times or more in BH.

נתן	<i>give</i>	1994x	נבא	<i>prophecy (N)</i>	115x
נכה	<i>hit, wound, defeat (H; once each in N, Dp)</i>	504x	נצב	<i>take one's stand/place (N, H)</i>	75x
נשא	<i>lift, carry, forgive</i>	651x	נבט	<i>look at, pay attention (once in D; therefore "always" בט-בט)</i>	70x
נפל	<i>fall</i>	433x	נצח	<i>lead (D)</i>	65x
נגד	<i>tell; declare, report, announce (H; always גד-גד)</i>	369x	נצר	<i>watch, guard</i>	63x
נטה	<i>stretch out; turn</i>	215x	נטע	<i>plant</i>	57x
נצל	<i>snatch, rescue, deliver (H)</i>	208x	נרח	<i>be scattered (N); scatter (H)</i>	51x
נגע	<i>touch; reach, come to</i>	150x	נכר	<i>recognize (H); a few times in N, D; therefore usually כר-כר</i>	50x
נסע	<i>depart, break camp</i>	146x	נשג	<i>overtake (H; always שג-שג)</i>	50x
נגש	<i>approach, come near</i>	125x			

<sup>9</sup>This assimilation always takes place because the first radical of every form in H and Hp is followed by silent *šewa*.

## 26.5 VOCABULARY

<i>depart, break camp, travel</i>	נָסַע .391	<i>prophecy</i> (N)	נָבֵא .383
<i>fall</i>	נָפַל .392	<i>look at, pay attention to</i> (H)	נָבַט .384
<i>take one's stand/place; be assigned</i> (N)	נָצַב .393	<i>tell; report, declare, announce</i> (H)	נָגַד .385
<i>lead</i> (D)	נָצַח .394	<i>touch; reach, come to</i>	נָגַע .386
		<i>blow, assault; plague</i>	נָגַע .386
<i>rescue, deliver; snatch</i> (all H)	נָצַל .395	<i>come near, approach</i>	נָגַשׁ .387
<i>watch, guard, keep, protect</i>	נָצַר .396	<i>be scattered</i> (st. vb.)	נָדַח .388
<i>lift, carry; forgive</i>	נָשָׂא .397	<i>plant</i>	נָטַע .389
<i>give</i>	נָתַן .398	<i>pretend</i> (N); <i>recognize</i> (H)	נָכַר .390

## 26.6 EXERCISES

After you have studied the I-נ verb, please gloss these texts, *and then* locate and identify (parse) all of the I-נ verbs in Genesis 11.27-13.14.

1. Gen 32.30; 2ms V with הָ, - ending; Jacob      וַיִּשְׁאַל יַעֲקֹב וַיֹּאמֶר הַגִּידָה נָא שְׁמֶךָ
2. Ex 17.2; *strive* רִיב; Moses      וַיִּרְבּוּ הָעַם עִם־מֹשֶׁה וַיֹּאמְרוּ תִגְדַּלְנוּ מִיָּמִים וּנְשַׁתָּה
3. 1 Sa 8.6; *but it was wrong* וַיִּרַע *(evil, wicked)*; 2ms V with הָ, - ending; *pray* פָּלַל; Samuel      וַיִּרַע הַדָּבָר בְּעֵינַי שְׁמוּאֵל כִּאֲשֶׁר אָמְרוּ תִגְדַּלְנוּ מֶלֶךְ לְשִׁפְטָנוּ וַיִּתְפַּלֵּל שְׁמוּאֵל אֶל־יְהוָה:
4. 1 Sa 14.43; Saul, Jonathan      וַיֹּאמֶר שָׂאוּל אֶל־יוֹנָתָן הַגִּידָה לִּי מַה עָשִׂיתָה וַיַּגִּיד־לוֹ יוֹנָתָן
5. Is 63.15; *dwelling* דָּבַל      הַבַּט מַשְׁמַיִם וּרְאֵה מִזְבֵּל קָדְשֶׁךָ
6. Jr 1.8; *fear, be afraid* יָרָא      אֶל־תִּירָא מִפְּנֵיהֶם כִּי־אַתָּה אֲנִי לְהַצִּילְךָ נְאֻם־יְהוָה:
7. Am 7.15 [2ms QV הִלֵּךְ]; the speaker is Amos      וַיִּקְחֵנִי יְהוָה מֵאַחֲרַי הַצֹּאֵן וַיֹּאמֶר אֵלַי יְהוָה לֵךְ הִנְבֵּא אֶל־עַמִּי יִשְׂרָאֵל:
8. Gen 3.6      וַתִּקַּח מִפְּרִיו וַתֹּאכַל וַתֵּתֵן גַּם־לְאִישָׁהּ עִמָּה וַיֹּאכַל:
9. Ps 56.14a [ET 15a]; this nomenclature means that the English and Hebrew texts are divided differently; in English this verse is Ps 56.15      כִּי הִצַּלְתָּ נַפְשִׁי מִמָּוֶת



- Ps 121.6; כַּה־ is a 2ms suffix .10 יוֹמָם הַשֶּׁמֶשׁ לֹא־יִכָּפֵה וַיְרַח בְּלַיְלָה:
- 1Kg 20.35 .11 וְאִישׁ אֶחָד מִבְּנֵי הַנְּבִיאִים אָמַר אֶל־רַעְהוּ בְּדַבַּר יְהוָה הַפִּינִי נָא וַיִּמָּאֵן הָאִישׁ לְהַכְתּוֹ:
- Gn 9.13; קִשֵּׁת *bow* (n.) .12 אֶת־קִשְׁתִּי נָתַתִּי בְּעֵגֹן וְהִיתָה לְאוֹת בְּרִית בֵּינִי וּבֵין הָאָרֶץ:
- Gn 34.16 .13 וְנָתַנּוּ אֶת־בְּנֹתֵינוּ לָכֶם וְאֶת־בְּנֹתֵיכֶם נִקַּח־לָנוּ וַיִּשְׁבְּנוּ אִתְּכֶם וְהָיוּנוּ לְעַם אֶחָד:
- Ex 20.7; שָׁוְא *vanity, in vain*; נִקָּה *acquit, leave unpunished* .14 לֹא תִשָּׂא אֶת־שֵׁם־יְהוָה אֱלֹהֶיךָ לְשׁוֹא כִּי לֹא יִנְקֶה יְהוָה אֶת אֲשֶׁר־יִשָּׂא אֶת־שְׁמוֹ לְשׁוֹא:
- Jos 3.6; Joshua .15 וַיֹּאמֶר יְהוֹשֻׁעַ אֶל־הַכֹּהֲנִים לֵאמֹר שָׂאוּ אֶת־אֲרוֹן הַבְּרִית וְעָבְרוּ לִפְנֵי הָעָם וַיִּשָּׂאוּ אֶת־אֲרוֹן הַבְּרִית וַיֵּלְכוּ לִפְנֵי הָעָם:
- Jg 4.7; מוֹשֵׁךְ *draw [pull] [out]*; הַמּוֹן *host, multitude; tumult, confusion*; Kishon, Sisera, Jabin .16 וּמִשְׁכַּתִּי אֵלַיךְ אֶל־נַחַל קִישׁוֹן אֶת־סִיסְרָא שַׁר־צָבָא זָבִין וְאֶת־רֶכְבוֹ וְאֶת־הַמּוֹנוֹ וְנִתְתִּיהוּ בְּיָדְךָ:
- 2 Kgs 19.7; שְׂמוּעָה *report, rumour*; וְשָׁב *return, go back* .17 הֲנִנִי נָתַן בּוֹ רוּחַ וְשָׁמַע שְׂמוּעָה וְשָׁב לְאַרְצוֹ וְהַפְּלִתִיו בְּחֶרֶב בְּאַרְצוֹ:
- Jr 1.9; נָתַתִּי may be performative (§10.9) .18 וַיִּשְׁלַח יְהוָה אֶת־יָדוֹ וַיַּגַּע עַל־פִּי וַיֹּאמֶר יְהוָה אֵלַי הִנֵּה נָתַתִּי דְבָרִי בְּפִיךָ:

## 26.7 ENRICHMENT: PARTICIPANT REFERENCE (II)

The narrator's choice of *participant reference* (how participants are described; see §25.6) often helps us understand the passage. In Genesis 18.1-5, this choice suggests that the chapter break is ill-placed. After the first two clauses, the narrator does not identify the subject of any of these clauses, nor does he identify the pronominal object אֵלָיו. The significance of this lack of identification again comes from the tendency of Hebrew narrative to identify participants (one of the functions of the passive stems is to *avoid* identifying the subject).

In fact, apart from “YHWH” (18.1a) the participants in these verses are identified only by pronouns and generic nouns (i.e., שְׁלֹשִׁים אַנְשִׁים; 18.2a):

וַיֵּרָא אֵלָיו יְהוָה	YHWH appeared to <i>him</i> ...
וְהוּא יֹשֵׁב פֶּתַח־הָאֹהֶל	now <i>he</i> was sitting at the entrance to the tent (18.1)
וַיִּשָׂא עֵינָיו וַיֵּרָא ... עָלָיו	and <i>he</i> looked up and <i>he</i> saw ... near <i>him</i> .
וַיֵּרָא וַיָּרַץ ... וַיִּשְׁתַּחוּ	and <i>he</i> saw and <i>he</i> ran ... and <i>he</i> bowed (18.2)
וַיֹּאמֶר	and <i>he</i> said, “... (18.3)

Only after the “three men” accept this unnamed person's offer of hospitality (18.4-5) does the author identify him as “Abraham” (18.6), and then, as if to confirm this identification, names “Abraham” as the subject of two of the next three narrative clauses:

וַיִּמְהַר אַבְרָהָם	And <i>Abraham</i> quickly ... (18.6)
וַיֹּאמֶר	and <i>he</i> said, “... (18.6b)
וַאֲלֵהֶבֶקֶר רָץ אַבְרָהָם	and [then?] to the herd ran <i>Abraham</i> (18.7a)

The point is that this repeated “non-identification” of the subject, followed by his repeated identification *by name* is that these verses—and the story that they open—were written as part of the preceding story: they do not record a meal isolated from the promises and commandments of Gn 17, but rather the meal that ratifies the covenant that had just been sealed by circumcision (17.23-27).<sup>10</sup> This contextual setting also explains the promises about Sarai's rôle in the covenant's fulfillment (18.9-15; cf. 17.15-16), and YHWH's musings about telling Abraham what he [YHWH] was about to do (18.17-19).

Because we read the biblical stories having heard them in sermons and Bible lessons, we often find it difficult to read them *as they were written*, so that in this case (for example), we already “know” that Abraham is the main participant in vv. 1-5, even though he is never identified (English versions tend to supply “Abraham” in these vv.). Paying close attention to the Hebrew text—especially in light of the normally explicit nature of Hebrew narrative—reveals the misleading nature of this chapter break, and encourages us to read the story *in light of* the covenantal statements of Gn 17.

<sup>10</sup>For another account of a covenant ratification followed by a meal between the parties, see Ex 24.4-11.

## LESSON 27 PRE-READING NARRATIVE, II

EVERY WORD in the biblical text is marked with an accent, added to the text by the Masoretes (scribes) to show logical relationships between words, to mark the accented syllable, and to show how the text was to be sung (cantillation). Although there are some twenty-seven accents, we will learn six, five disjunctive and one conjunctive.

### 27.1 DISJUNCTIVE CLAUSES

Also important when pre-reading biblical narrative is to note any disjunctive clauses. This has two aspects: (1) identifying clauses; and (2) identifying narrative disjunction.

A *clause* consists of a **topic** (the subject) and a **comment** about that topic (the predicate).<sup>11</sup> A sentence always consists of at least one clause, but a single clause can also be a sentence.<sup>12</sup> In BH, topics and comments can belong to several “classes” of words, and nearly anything that can be a topic can also be a comment (nearly all of these combinations occur in BH; this chart does not imply that any are more frequent or prominent than others):

Topic (word-classes)		Comment (word-classes)	
noun (generic)	נְבִיא	noun (generic)	מִלֶּךְ
noun (proper)	אַבְרָם	noun (proper)	דָּוִד
pronoun (independent)	אַתָּה	participle (predicate)	סֹפֵר
pronoun (suffixed to NC)	לְלִכְתֹּךָ	adjective (predicate)	רַע
pronoun (subject PGN affix)	כְּתַבְתָּן	infinitive construct	לִכְתּוֹ
participle (substantive)	הַכֹּתֵב	prepositional phrase (usually locative)	בְּבֵית
adjective (substantive)	הַגְּדוֹלִים	finite verb (perfect, imperfect, preterite, imperative)	יִשְׁכַּב
infinitive construct	לְהִיּוֹת		לָךְ

Clauses can also have other elements that relate primarily to the entire clause, rather than specifically to the topic or comment. For example, a prepositional phrase that tells us *where* something occurred may also tell us where the subject/topic was when it happened. It thus relates to the entire predication, rather than to one of its elements.

Backgrounded actions, activities, setting, and *irrealis* (i.e., what *didn't* happen) tend to occur in disjunctive clauses, but it is not primarily the verbal conjugation that determines the relative status or function of a clause. Instead, the disjunctive clause signals the reader that the clause is not on the line of the preterite. After noting this, we can address the separate question of what the clause's morphosyntax suggests about its status relative to the storyline. Disjunctive clauses have two primary functions:

1. They present information about a *parallel* activity or state, which either contrasts with or “reflects” that of the previous clause. The parallel clauses will often be chiasmic (i.e., the second clause reverses or inverts the word order of the first). After Naomi's second statement, the contrasting responses of her daughters-in-law are described in an on-line clause (“and Orpah kissed ...”) and a disjunctive clause (“but Ruth clung ...”). This example is Ru 1.14b (cf. 1 Sam 1.2b):

<sup>11</sup>I prefer “comment” since the term “predicate” seems to connote “verb” to many readers (verbs are only one of a number of potential grammatical forms that can function as a comment in BH).

<sup>12</sup>Another benefit of marking disjunctive accents is that the next word often begins a clause; they thus divide the text into clauses.

וְהִשָּׁק עֲרָפָהּ לְעַחְמוֹתָהּ and-she-kissed Orpah her-mother-in-law, [V-S-O]  
 וְרוּת דָּבְקָה בָּהּ but-Ruth she-clung to-her. [S-V-O]

On the other hand, the wives of Abram and Nahor are introduced in parallel clauses with no implied contrast, the first is asyndetic, and the second disjunctive (Gn 11.29b):

וְשֵׁם אִשְׁת־אַבְרָם שָׂרָי The-name-of the-wife-of-Abram [was] Sarai,  
 וְשֵׁם אִשְׁת־נְחוֹר מִלְכָּה and-the-name-of the-wife-of-Nahor [was] Milkah.

- Disjunctive clauses also present *parenthetic* information, which tends to be either flashback, information about setting, or other proleptic information that the reader will need in order to understand upcoming events in the narrative. For example, the Canaanite presence in the land, noted in a disjunctive clause (12.6) creates narrative tension with the preceding call (12.1) and the following promise (12.7):

וְהִנֵּנִי אִזְ בְּאֶרֶץ: Now-the-Canaanites [were] then in-the-land.

- This information is expanded in a later disjunctive clause that helps the reader understand why Abram and Lot could not stay together (Gn 13.7b):

וְהִנֵּנִי וְהַפְּרִיזִי אִזְ יֹשֵׁב בְּאֶרֶץ: Now-the-Canaanites and-the-Perizzites then lived in-the-land.

Gn 12 contains four disjunctive clauses. One lists Abram's age (4b), which becomes a touchstone for the refrain of barrenness and age throughout his search for an heir; the second (6b) creates the tension noted above. In 16a the author records that Abram was treated well for Sarai's sake, harking back to his prediction (13b), and is followed by a clause listing the nature of Pharaoh's beneficence. The final disjunctive clause (19b), in Pharaoh's rebuke, begins with *וְעַתָּה*, *therefore*, which is usually followed in BH by a volitional verbal form that announces a course of action growing out of the preceding material. *W<sup>e</sup>att* clauses are disjunctive by definition (*w*+non-verb), and usually mark the transition from argument to conclusion.

When we come to a disjunctive clause, therefore, we expect to find information that is *crucial* to the story, but we also know that it does *not* describe the next event in the narrative sequence.

## 27.2 CLAUSE-INITIAL PARTICLES

The final step of this pre-reading process is to mark any clause-leading particles (e.g., *כִּי*, *אֲשֶׁר*, *פִּי*, *לְמַעַן*, *פֶּן*, *אֲשֶׁר*, *אֲשֶׁר*, *כִּי*, *כִּי*, *כִּי*, *כִּי*). "Clause-leading" or "clause-initial" particles are function words that usually open a clause, in contrast with the conjunction *waw*, which functions at all syntagmatic levels, from phrase to discourse.<sup>13</sup> Having a basic idea of the function of these words, we can build our expectations about the progress of the narrative by noting the relationships that these particles signal between clauses and larger chunks of the narrative.

<sup>13</sup>This does not mean that these [or any] particles cannot have higher-level discourse function.

**27.3 MAJOR MASORETIC ACCENTS**

HBI §4

We will learn to recognize a few Masoretic accents, those that are most helpful when reading narrative (the accentual system changes slightly in the books of Psalms, Job, and Proverbs).

1. *Disjunctive* accents mean “pause after this word”. The pause may be large or small, depending on the relative strength of the accent. Nor does the accent’s function go beyond the next word (which is why every word is marked). This list of the major disjunctive accents, numbered according to the *Tabula Accentum* that came with your copy of the Hebrew Bible is numbered in the order of their approximate importance (although there is little difference between 5 and 6).<sup>14</sup>

- |    |                          |         |
|----|--------------------------|---------|
| 2. | ’ <i>atnah</i>           | מְלִי   |
| 3. | <i>s<sup>e</sup>gôlt</i> | מְלִיִּ |
| 5. | <i>z q f parva</i>       | מְלִיִּ |
| 6. | <i>z q f magna</i>       | מְלִיִּ |
| 7. | <i>l<sup>e</sup>bîa’</i> | מְלִיִּ |

That is, *’atnah* divides the verse into its two main sections (*not* in half), *segolta* divides those sections into their main sections, and so forth. Thus the Masoretes used these accents to divide verses into either semantic or syntactical units (or both). Furthermore, these disjunctive accents often precede preterites (and other clauses), reinforcing the first step. Just as preterites delineate the ebb and flow of the storyline, the major disjunctive accents suggest smaller units of textual organization that also help us “think through” the narrative.

Furthermore, we can read “between” the accents (parallel to reading “between” the preterites), since the material (words) between disjunctive accents should be read as a unit (even though those units are usually minimal syntagms). Although the accents are certainly not original, and although they are occasionally misleading (e.g., 1 Sam 3.3b), they have proved to be another obvious and helpful device for reading the text. [When we read the text aloud in class, we read from “accent to accent”.]

2. We will learn only one *conjunctive* accent: the *munah* binds a word closely to the following word, saying, in essence, “Don’t disconnect these two words—they belong together!” *Munah* often links, for example, words in a construct chain, or a noun with its adjective. Noting *munah* keeps us from dividing words that belong together.

**N.B.** Not every accent occurs in every verse (e.g., Gn 18.1 lacks *atnah*; many verses lack *zaqef*, *l<sup>e</sup>bîa’*); *munah* is often lacking.

**27.4 CONCEPTS**

accent(s)	comment	disjunctive accent
chiastic/chiasm	conjunctive accent	disjunctive clause
clause		parenthetic information

---

<sup>14</sup>I have not included *silluq* (#1), since it ends [nearly] every verse (and is often syntagmatically ill-placed), or *šalšelet* (#4), which is relatively rare.



## 27.5 VOCABULARY

sanctuary	מִקְדָּשׁ	.407	[a] blessing	בְּרָכָה	.399
dead (adj.)	מֵת	.408	breath, idol; vanity; Abel	הֶבֶל	.400
[a] witness	עֵד	.409	cry out [for help], shout (cf. זַעַק)	זַעַק	.401
reach, overtake (H)	נָשַׁג	.410	strange, foreign; illicit	זָר	.402
only, surely (often begins clause)	כִּךְ	.411	disgrace, reproach	חֲרָפָה	.403
cry out [for help], shout (cf. זַעַק)	זַעַק	.412	sin, miss [a mark]	חָטָא	.404
bird, insect [any flying thing]	עוֹף	.413	sin, error, fault; sin-offering	חַטָּאת	
bow, worship, do obeisance; show respect or honor (mainly Dt)	שָׁחָה	.414	Why?	מִדּוּעַ	.405
			sunrise, east	מִזְרָח	.406

**N.B.** Because of its initial sibilant, שָׁחָה never appears in BH as שָׁחָה, but only with the initial -שׁ and the ה of the prefix reversed: שְׁחָתָה (metathesized). If the form ends in *šureq* (חָ), the verb is singular, if in חָוּ or חָוּוּ (*waw* followed by *šureq*), it is plural. Since it is fairly frequent (172x), here is a skeleton paradigm:

	שָׁחָה	Dt
P	3ms	הִשְׁתַּחֲוּהוּ
	3cp	הִשְׁתַּחֲוּוּ
F	3ms	יִשְׁתַּחֲוֶה
	3mp	יִשְׁתַּחֲוּוּ
Pr	3ms	וַיִּשְׁתַּחֲוֶה
	3mp	וַיִּשְׁתַּחֲוּוּ
	3fp	תִּשְׁתַּחֲוֶינָהּ
V	mp	הִשְׁתַּחֲוּוּ
NC		הַשְׁתַּחֲוֹת*
Ptc	ms	מִשְׁתַּחֲוֶה

\**Waw* is pronounced *before* the *holem*: -wôt.

## 27.6 EXERCISES

These are based on the reading passage for this lesson. *Before reading the text*, please find and mark ...

- ... any *disjunctive clauses*, and identify their function in the story.
- ... any *clause-leading particles*, and identify their function (see HBI §3.3).
- ... the *major disjunctive accents*, and practice reading from accent to accent, first aloud, then as you read. How does their location help you determine the sense of the text?

## 27.7 ENRICHMENT: AN EXAMPLE OF PRE-READING

What is the result of pre-reading a passage of biblical narrative—i.e., of locating the preterites, quotation formulae, occurrences of וַיְהִי, major disjunctive accents, disjunctive clauses, clause-leading particles? In the following brief passage (Ru 2.1-7), the underlining and shading show introductory disjunctive clauses (vv. 1, 4), and the increasingly dialogical nature of the story (vv. 5-7), as well as the use of preterites within direct speech (v. 7; the servant’s description of Ruth). Note also the sequence of three preterites (v. 3). Another benefit of this exercise—especially for beginning readers—is that the passage no longer consists of either a single block of text or 105 individual concatenated words, but is made up of functional units, each consisting of two to four words:

וּלְנַעֲמִי מִיַּדַּע לְאִשָּׁהּ ॥ אִישׁ גִּבּוֹר חֵיל ॥ מִמִּשְׁפַּחַת אֱלִימֶלֶךְ ॥ וַשְּׂמוֹ בַעֲזוֹ: וַתֹּאמֶר רוּת  
הַמּוֹאֲבִיתָה אֶל־נַעֲמִי ॥ אֶלְכֶּה־נָּא הַשָּׂדֶה וְאֶלְקָטָה בַשִּׁבְלִים ॥ אַחֲרַי ॥ אֲשֶׁר אִמְצָא־חֵן בְּעֵינָיו ॥  
וַתֹּאמֶר לָהּ לְכִי בָתִּי: וַתֵּלֶךְ וַתָּבוֹא וַתִּלְקָט בַּשָּׂדֶה ॥ אַחֲרַי הַקְּצֹרִים ॥ וַיִּקֶר מִקֶּרֶהּ ॥ חֲלָקַת  
הַשָּׂדֶה לְבַעֲזוֹ ॥ אֲשֶׁר מִמִּשְׁפַּחַת אֱלִימֶלֶךְ: וַיְהִי־בַעֲזוֹ ॥ בָּא מִבֵּית־לַחֶם ॥ וַיֹּאמֶר לְקְצוֹרִים יְהוּה  
עִמָּכֶם ॥ וַיֹּאמְרוּ לוֹ וּבָרַכְךָ יְהוּה: וַיֹּאמֶר בַּעֲזוֹ לְנַעֲרוֹ ॥ הֲנֹצֵב עַל־הַקְּצוֹרִים ॥ לָמִי הֲנֹעֵרָה הַזֹּאת:  
וַיַּעַן ॥ הֲנֹעֵר הֲנֹצֵב עַל־הַקְּצוֹרִים וַיֹּאמֶר ॥ נַעֲרָה מוֹאֲבִיתָה הִיא ॥ הַשָּׂבָה עִם־נַעֲמִי מִשָּׂדֶה מוֹאֵב:  
וַתֹּאמֶר ॥ אֶלְקָטָה־נָּא וְאֶסְפְּתִי בְעִמְרִים ॥ אַחֲרַי הַקְּצוֹרִים ॥ וַתָּבוֹא וַתַּעֲמוֹד ॥ מֵאֵז הַבֶּקֶר וְעַד־  
עֶתָהּ ॥ זֶה שְׂבֵתָהּ הַבַּיִת מְעֻט:

Key

<u>Double underline</u>	preterite
<u>Single underline</u>	disjunctive clause
<u>Wavy double underline</u>	clause-initial particle
<u>Shaded</u>	quotation
॥	major disjunctive accent

Participant reference (in order of appearance)

Vv. | **Observations** (based on the table on the next page)

1-3	Boaz is described primarily in terms of his relationship to Naomi (1) and Elimelech (3) [and, implicitly, to Ruth]; these initial disjunctive clauses set the stage for the rest of the book.
3-5	The reapers are merely named—they are props, not actors.
6a	Boaz’s servant is described in enough detail to explain his rôle in the story, especially his ability to interact with and observe Ruth.
6b	In this chapter, Boaz’s servant gives far more detail about Ruth’s provenance than the narrator (N.B.: “She is <i>a</i> [sic] Moabite young woman, the one who returned ...”).

Other	Boaz	Ruth	Naomi	“Voice”	V.
	לְנַעֲמִי מִידָע לְאִשָּׁה אִישׁ גְּבוּר חֵיל כּוֹמְשֵׁפֶחַת אֱלִימָלֵךְ וְשִׁמוֹ בְּעַז		נַעֲמִי	author	1
		וַתֹּאמֶר רוּת הַמֹּאֲבִיָּה		author	2
	אֲשֶׁר אִמְצָא־חַן בְּעֵינָיו		Ruth		
			נַעֲמִי	author	
		לָהּ	וַתֹּאמֶר	author	
		לְכִי בְּתִי		Naomi	
		וַתֵּלֶךְ וַתָּבֹא		author	3
הַקְּצָרִים		וַתִּלְקַט		author	
		מִקֶּרֶה		author	
	בְּעַז אֲשֶׁר כּוֹמְשֵׁפֶחַת אֱלִימָלֵךְ			author	
	בְּעַז			author	4
לְקְצָרִים	וַיֹּאמֶר			author	
עִמָּכֶם			Boaz		
וַיֹּאמְרוּ	לוֹ			author	
לְנַעֲרוֹ	וַיֹּאמֶר בְּעַז			author	5
הַנָּצֵב עַל-הַקְּצָרִים		הַנַּעֲרָה הַזֹּאת		Boaz	
וַיַּעַן הַנַּעַר				author	6
הַנָּצֵב עַל-הַקְּצָרִים					
וַיֹּאמֶר		נַעֲרָה מֹאֲבִיָּה הִיא הַשֵּׁבָה עִם-נַעֲמִי כּוֹשֶׁרֶה מֹאֲב	נַעֲמִי	Boaz's servant	
		וַתֹּאמֶר וַתָּבֹא וַתַּעֲמֹד שְׁבֹתָהּ		Boaz's servant	7