Retaining and Transcending
The Classical Description of Ancient Hebrew Verse*

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This essay seeks to describe the prosodic regularities which define the way ancient Hebrew poetry works. Building on the description of ancient Hebrew verse offered by Harshav and Alter, a text model is advanced which identifies the shapes and sizes of the prosodic units that characterize ancient Hebrew verse. Regularities are described in terms of a prosodic hierarchy. The description is inscribed within the framework of the prosodic structure hypothesis of Selkirk and other linguists. The phenomenon of enjambment is explored. A rule governing the number of lines a poem normally has is stipulated. Three varieties of ancient Hebrew poetry are distinguished: common, qinah, and mashal. An excursus contains a proposed revision of O’Connor’s description of the syntactic constraints to which ancient Hebrew verse adhered.

A Brief History of Research from Lowth to the Present

A poem conveys a message in a finely wrought form. A hierarchy of repeated forms, an array of tropes, and a symphony of sound contribute to a poem’s semantic organization. Assimilation of the message a poem conveys is enhanced by awareness of poetic form.1


1 “As soon as you want to know how a poem works, as well as what it says, and why it is poignant or compelling, you will find yourself beginning to study it . . . Soon, it becomes almost second nature for you to notice sentences, tense-changes, speech acts, tonal variants, changes of agency, rhythms, rhymes, and other ingredients of internal and outer structure. . . . Exploring a poem under the broad headings given above will almost always lead you to a deeper understanding of the poem as a work of art, constructed in a dense and satisfying and surprising way” (Helen Vendler, Poems, Poets, Poetry: An Introduction and Anthology [Boston: Bedford Books, 1997] 127).

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That being so, a reader of ancient Hebrew poetry will eventually ask: What continuously operating principles of organization define how ancient Hebrew poetry works? What formal structures set poetry apart from narrative or speech as they otherwise occur in ancient Hebrew literature? Are there rules that govern the formation of a poetic line or composition, rules we do not fully understand, or have yet to be discovered?

Many and various attempts have been made to answer the above questions. Robert Lowth paved the way in his lectures on “the sacred poetry of the Hebrews,” and in a translation of Isaiah and commentary thereto. He

That as soon as we perceive that a verbal sequence has a sustained rhythm, that it is formally structured according to a continuously operating principle of organization [my italics], we know that we are in the presence of poetry and we respond to it accordingly” (Barbara Herrnstein Smith, Poetic Closure: A Study of How Poems End [Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968], 23; quoted in Robert Alter, The Art of Biblical Poetry [New York: Basic Books, 1985] 6).

noted that poetic texts in the Hebrew Bible consist of verses formed of two - or more rarely three - stichoi or “members.” He described parallelism across the members of a verse as the chief hallmark of ancient Hebrew poetry.
Lowth believed that ancient Hebrew verse instantiated metrical structures, but he deemed them irrecoverable given our ignorance of the pronunciation and stress rules of pre-Masoretic Hebrew. On the other hand, he favorably reviewed the metrical theory of Azariah de’ Rossi. De’ Rossi noted the proportions of 2:2 and 3:3 that recur in biblical poetry. He counted neither syllables nor words, but “thought” units that might consist of one, two, or sometimes three words. In his study of Isaiah, Lowth noted imperfections in the approach and its application by de’ Rossi, but endorsed the finding of recurring proportions, and gave examples of his own.5

Since Lowth, most have concurred that parallelism is the chief hallmark of ancient Hebrew poetry and not a few have tried to improve upon Lowth’s classification of its types. Many have sought to recover a meter corresponding to a perception of recurring proportions across the parts that make up a poetic line. But others have found the concept of parallelism, or of a bi- and sometimes tripartite line, or of meter, or of poetry, to be unhelpful in describing texts generally thought to be examples of ancient Hebrew verse.6

Disagreement has been sharp and shows no signs of abating. It might seem hard to identify even a minimal description of ancient Hebrew verse able to claim the assent of a majority of its students.

But perhaps we know more than we imagine about ancient Hebrew verse. In order to test the possibility that the classical description remains a valid point of departure for ongoing research, it will be helpful to examine and critique recent reformulations of it.


6 Challenges to the classical description include those mounted by Collins, Kugel, and O’Connor. See the next section. For a concise survey of other approaches and a bibliography, see the present writer’s “Meter in Ancient Hebrew Poetry: A History of Modern Research” at www.ancienthebrewpoetry.typepad.com.
Restatements of the Classical Description

The most trenchant restatement of the classical description known to the present writer is that of Benjamin Harshav [Hrushovski] as summarized by Robert Alter:

Hrushovski proposes a “semantic-syntactic-accentual rhythm” as the basis of biblical verse. “In most cases,” he observes, “there is an overlapping of several such heterogeneous parallelisms with a mutual reinforcement so that no single element - meaning, syntax, or stress - may be considered as purely dominant or as purely concomitant.” The result is what Hrushovski defines as a “free rhythm” . . . [nevertheless,] the freedom of the rhythm “is clearly confined within the limits of its poetics.” These limits are in part numerically demarcated, as Hrushovski [notes]: “[Since] by rule no two stresses are permitted to follow each other . . . each stress dominates a group of two, three, or four syllables; there are two, three, or four such groups in a verset; and two, three, or four parallel versets in a sentence.”

Mutually reinforcing parallelisms of meaning, syntax, and stress, as Harshav sees it, are the hallmark of ancient Hebrew poetry. These occur within a system of “twos, threes, and fours”: “stress-units” made up of two, three, or four syllables, “versets” made up of two, three, or four stress units, and “sentences” made up of two, three, or four versets. The rhythm of stresses is so strong, Harshav notes, that it sometimes serves as the sole support of parallelism across contiguous versets. A verset of two to four stress units is unfailingly followed by another verset of two to four stress units. Within and across the prosodic frames demarcated by stress parallelisms, a gamut of freely distributed sonic parallelisms also finds expression. As Harshav remarks elsewhere, the process of interaction of sounds and meanings encourages a selection and reemphasis of elements from both sides.

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Harshav’s description is not ideal in all details. The concept of a “sentence” is a slippery one. Alter is right to speak more neutrally of “two or three parallel versets constituting a poetic line.” Alter is also not amiss in doing without the possibility of a line made up of four versets. At issue is whether a tightly cohering group of four versets should be “parsed” as an aggregate of four versets formally on a par with groups of two and three versets found elsewhere, or as a unit made up of two parallel lines, each of which contains two parallel versets.

Deuteronomy 32:7-11 illustrates the problem. In the layout preserved in Codex Aleppo, three pesuqim (7, 9, and 11) appear as bipartite units, and two (8 and 10) as pairs of bipartite units:

7 Remember the days of yore,  
think on the years of generations past;  
ask your father, he will show you,  
your elders, they will tell you.

8 When Elyon gave allotments to the nations,  
when he divided the sons of man,  
he fixed the boundaries of the peoples

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9 Art of Biblical Poetry, 9.

10 According to Pieter van der Lugt (Rhetorical Criticism and the Poetry of the Book of Job [OTS 32; Leiden: Brill, 1995] 474-75, n. 3; Cantos and Strophes in Biblical Hebrew Poetry with Special Reference to the First Book of the Psalter [OTS 53; Leiden: Brill, 2006] 525, n. 13), Julius Ley was the first to conceive of the bipartite line as the fundamental building block of ancient Hebrew poetry, and to identify the tripartite line (‘dreigliedrige Langverse’) as a rare variation thereof (Leitfaden der Metrik der hebräischen Poesie [Halle: Verlag der Buchhandlung des Waisenhauses, 1887] 8-17). Before Ley, Lowth described “Parallel Triplets” and parallel couplets as “stanzas” made up of three and four stichoi, respectively; he conceived of the triplet as a short stanza, not a tripartite “sentence” (Isaiah, 13-17; 16-17).

in relation to the number of the sons of Israel;

9 for Yahweh’s portion is his people,
    Jacob his allotted parcel.

10 He found him in the desert land,
    in the emptiness of howling Jeshimon;
he encircled him, gave thought to him,
    watched him like the apple of his eye.

11 Like an eagle he would rouse his nest,
    over his fledglings he would hover,
he spread his wings, he took him,
    he bore him on his plumage.

It is not difficult to see that 32:7 and 11, like 8 and 10, are best parsed as pairs of bipartite lines. A pair of poetic lines constitutes a larger subdivision of the text, which we shall call, in agreement with Jan Fokkelman, a “strophe.” The situation seems to be the following: when two or three versets form a pasuq in the transmitted textual division, a poetic line, at least on the face of it, is delimited; when four or more versets form a biblical verse, a hierarchically superior subdivision of the text is delimited.

The formatting of poetry in BHS and the JPS Hebrew-English Tanakh is consistent with Alter’s refinement of Harshav’s description in most

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12 In Codex Aleppo’s layout, vv. 7 and 11 frame the core of a unit whose heart of hearts is v. 9, the one pasuq in the context to consist of a single bipartite poetic line. MT Deut 32:8-9, it should be pointed out, preserves a revision, albeit ancient, of an earlier text reflected in other witnesses. It seems likely that Deut 32:8 originally concluded with לְבָנָה (4QDtr) and 32:9 originally began with יְהֹוָה (reflected in G καὶ ἐγένεθη). For a discussion, see Jeffrey H. Tigay, Deuteronomy: The Traditional Hebrew Text with the New JPS Translation [and] Commentary (JPSTC; Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society, 1996) 302-303, 402-403, 513-18, 546-47. The revision preserved in MT stays within the bounds of the constraints ancient Hebrew poetry worked within. A historical setting for a series of ancient emendations at Gen 46:27; Exod 1:5; and Deut 32:8, 43 is hypothesized by Arie van der Kooij, “Ancient Emendations in MT,” in L’Ecrit et l’Esprit: Études d’histoire du text et de théologique biblique en hommage à Adrian Schenker (ed. Dieter Böhler, Innocent Himbaza, and Philippe Hugo; OBO 214; Fribourg/Göttingen: Academic Press / Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 2005) 152-159; 155-59.


14 Examples of 4 or more versets to a verse, see Num 24:9; Deut 32:36; 33:9, 21; 2 Sam 1:23, 26; Isa 1:3, 4, 6, 17; Obad 5; and Ps 27:1.
instances. Similar analyses underlie the formatting of Hebrew poetry of most modern translations of the Bible – for example, the NRSV, the Traduction Œcuménique de la Bible, La Biblia del Peregrino, La Sacra Bibbia della Conferenza Episcopale Italiana, and the Einheitsübersetzung der Heiligen Schrift. There seems to be more agreement about basic formal aspects of ancient Hebrew poetry than we sometimes realize.

Adele Berlin’s recent overview in the Jewish Study Bible emphasizes precisely those formal aspects of ancient Hebrew poetry about which there should be general agreement. Again we hear that parallelisms are the chief hallmark of ancient Hebrew poetry, with pride of place given to syntactic and semantic parallelisms. Again we are told that the basic structural unit of a poem is not a single “line” – what Harshav and Alter refer to as a “verset” – but a set of parallel “lines” two or three in number. Again we have a recognition of “balance” between parallel “lines,” though Berlin notes that no system of numerical demarcation – be it counting of syllables, stresses, syntactic units, or “thoughts” – has met with anything like general acceptance.

In an overview of his own, Alter reiterates the importance of parallelisms of meaning, syntax, and rhythmic stresses in biblical verse, by no means always in coordination with each other. He emphasizes that the parallelism between contiguous versets of a poetic line is sometimes limited to one of stresses. Innumerable scholars have emphasized the importance of stress parallelism. Harshav references Joachim Begrich, whose review of research in his day is still helpful and whose study of syntactic frames in the context

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of a theory of stress parallelisms anticipates the interest in syntax that characterizes the more recent work of Collins and O’Connor. Alter references John Bright, whose exposition of the Ley-Sievers system as employed in his generation remains the most lucid available in the English language. The work of George Buchanan Gray, Hans Wildberger, Luis Alonso Schökel, and Leslie Allen might also be singled out. All applied the stress-counting method to a large corpus of texts in a consistent manner.\(^19\)

Harshav, Alter, and Berlin refine and rework the classical description going back to Lowth. Harshav and Alter reclaim the method of primary stress analysis associated with the names of Julius Ley and Eduard Sievers.\(^20\) If they are right to do so, we may still pose the question: What about the work of those who reject the description of parallelism as the hallmark of ancient Hebrew poetry and forgo the search for prosodic regularities therein? Is the work of those who set the classical description aside nonetheless compatible with it?

Collins, Kugel, and O’Connor

Terence Collins’ description of line-forms in Hebrew poetry, as he remarks, “can be looked on as a system of measurement, determining what is a well formed verse-line and thus performing the same function as the more


familiar systems of meter.”21 But Collins did not complete the task of compiling a taxonomy of line-forms. The phrase-structure rules and transformation rules he formulates generate less than half of the lines in his corpus. Incomplete as Collins’ analysis is, it describes with a degree of precision a set of line-types that occur in very different proportions within one poem as opposed to another. The divergent proportions and any implications there from in terms of genre or style or history of prosody deserve further study.

A simple fact is worth noting: Collins’ analysis does not contradict the classical description. After all, there are multiple ways of determining what a well-formed line is. A taxonomy based on grammatical structures is one way. A system of measurement based on stress parallelisms might be another. Collins makes the same point:

[The Hebrew verse-line is far too complex and delicate a thing to respond to any one-track investigation. The line is made up different layers – grammatical structure, semantic structure, stress patterns, syllable counts, alliteration – and a full stylistic analysis can only be achieved when we have observed the functioning of each layer individually and then studied how collectively they interact and contribute in different ways to the overall effect of the line.22

James Kugel’s Idea of Biblical Poetry stands, on the theoretical plane, over against the classical description.23 His polemics are not without salutary components. Nevertheless, Alter’s critique of Kugel’s rejection of important features of the classical description, which I will not summarize here, is spot on.24 The value of Kugel’s work lies in the attention to detail in his exegesis. Kugel’s insights into the phenomenon of semantic parallelism, worked out independently and more systematically by Alter, represent a refinement of the classical description, not a challenge to it.

There is more agreement between Kugel’s idea of biblical poetry and the classical description than meets the eye. As Kugel states in Great Poems of the Bible:

24 Art of Biblical Poetry, xi, 4, 6, 8, 10, 18-19.
The poetry of the Bible . . . is characterized by an ideal sentence form that is repeated line after line. . . . the sentence form consists of two parts, A and B. . . . The parts are separated by a brief pause . . . and end in a full stop. . . . B is always a continuation of A.25

Strange to say, Kugel’s method of formatting a poem does nothing to highlight his analysis. Here is how he formats his translation of the opening lines of Psalm 104:

Bless the LORD, O my soul -- O Lord my God,
You are very great.
Clothed in glory and honor, You wrapped Yourself in light.
Then You put up the sky like a tent and covered it over with water.
The clouds You took as Your chariot and rode off on the wings of the wind.
The winds themselves You made messengers, and flames of fire Your servants.26

Formatting that reveals the “A continued by B” scheme might look like this:

Bless the LORD, O my soul --
O Lord my God,
You are very great.
Clothed in glory and honor,
You wrapped Yourself in light.
Then You put up the sky like a tent and covered it over with water.
The clouds You took as Your chariot and rode off on the wings of the wind.
The winds themselves You made messengers, and flames of fire Your servants.

M. O’Connor’s Hebrew Verse Structure is a monumental study.27 Frustrated by the antiquated and fuzzy categories of the classical description,

25 James L. Kugel, The Great Poems of the Bible: A Reader’s Companion with New Translations (New York: Free Press, 1999) 19. Kugel remarks that verb ellipsis is “just as important as parallelism” as a means for creating a feeling of connectedness between the A and B segments of a poetic line (21). The phenomena of ellipsis, enjambment, and chiasmus are part of the glue that holds a text together, but occur far less often than parallelisms occur. On the subject of ellipsis, see Cynthia L. Miller, “A Linguistic Approach to Ellipsis in Biblical Poetry: (Or, What to Do When Exegesis of What is There Depends on What Isn’t),” BBR 13 (2003) 251-70.

26 Great Poems, 26.

he chucks the description overboard and thus lightens his load as he sets sail
for more hospitable seas. At what he calls the line level, he develops an
alternative to more familiar systems of meter in the form of a system of
syntactic constraints. In addition, he develops an alternative to traditional
analyses of repetition, parallelism, ellipsis, and other phenomena in the form
of a classification using new terminology. O’Connor’s “line” corresponds to
what others call a “half-line,” “colon,” or “hemistich,” and what I call a
“verset.”

O’Connor’s search for principles of organization in the realm of syntax is
successful where Collins is not in describing parameters that define
wellformedness at one level of the textual hierarchy. It is nonetheless
probable that constraints at more than one level determine the way ancient
Hebrew verse is constructed. This follows from the fact that language in
general and poetry in particular instantiate redundant structures on multiple
levels simultaneously. These structures have metrical properties and conform
to a system of ranked constraints and preferences. To say so is merely to
repeat a widely held axiom of modern linguistics, one manifestation of which
is Optimality Theory. Language in general and poetry in particular display
iterative, constraint-governed patterns at the levels of phonology, prosodic
hierarchy, stress alignment, lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical stress,
morphology, syntax, sentence intonation, discourse grammar, and grouping
and closure preferences. At all these levels, it is our task to isolate patterns
peculiar to poetry in the context of those that occur in language more
generally.

The real question is to what degree a particular analysis of stress
parallelisms, or of syntax at the verset or line level, state matters as they are.
That one level of analysis does not rule out another should be obvious. It
follows that there is no a priori reason for thinking that O’Connor’s system
of syntactic constraints is incompatible with the analysis of semantic and
prosodic equivalences implied by the classical description.

O’Connor’s description of what he calls the tropes of repetition,
coloration, matching, and gapping clarifies and obscures at the same time. At
the most abstract level, his system, by no longer singling out parallelism as

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the chief hallmark of Hebrew verse, regresses vis-à-vis the classical description. Recent attention to a range of semantic, syntactic, morphological, and sonic parallelisms confirms that parallelism deserves pride of place in a description of ancient Hebrew poetry. Apposition, syndetic coordination, and hypotaxis sequences, not considered by O’Connor above his line level, also form series in parallelism, and reinforce other forms of parallelism. A more frequent use of apposition and a more sparing use of syndetic coordination and hypotaxis vis-à-vis prose is typical of ancient Hebrew verse.²⁹

O’Connor’s downgrading of the bicolon and tricolon to a “secondary” reality is also questionable.³⁰ If one is searching for a continuously operating principle of organization of ancient Hebrew verse, a line of two or three versets fits the definition extremely well.

On the other hand, O’Connor pays attention to rarely noticed features beyond parallelism that characterize ancient Hebrew verse. Examples include patterns of syntactic dependency (enjambment), patterns of construct and adjectival combinations, and the out workings of Panini’s law.³¹

I have argued that the classical description of ancient Hebrew poetry remains a valid point of departure for ongoing research in the field. As revised by Harshav and Alter, it deserves to be retained, not set aside. The way is now clear for a fresh attempt at retaining and transcending the description of ancient Hebrew poetry that goes back to Lowth, a task to which I now turn.


³⁰ Hebrew Verse Structure, 132-35.

³¹ 129-32, 409-20 (syntactic dependencies); 379-85 (construct and adjectival combinations); 98, 100-101 (Panini’s Law).
A New Description

If there is a part of the description of ancient Hebrew verse as set forth by Harshav and Alter that requires qualification, it is that which deals with patterns of stress parallelism. Alter’s overview makes an excellent starting point:

The rule is that there are never less than two stresses in a verset and never more than four and that no two stresses follow each other without an intervening unstressed syllable; and there are often asymmetrical combinations of 4+3 or 3+2.32

Alter is here restating a rule deemed well-established in the eyes of those trained in the system of Ley and Sievers, and applied, for example, to the poetry contained in Job by Gray, to that contained in Isa 1-39 by Wildberger, and to Pss 101-150 by Allen.33

The rule works remarkably well. That doesn’t mean it is beyond improvement. The assumption that no two stresses follow each other without at least one intervening syllable deserves re-examination. The rule abandons the patterns of stress retention reflected in MT insofar as it reduces two stresses to one where two stressed syllables in MT do follow each other without an intervening syllable. Added maggephim signal stress deletion:

| MT Isa 1:4 | Oh sinner nation! | Oh-nation sinful! |
| MT Isa 1:4 | Iniquity laden people | People-laden with-iniquity |
| MT Isa 1:5 | Why shall-you-be-hit again? | Why shall-you-be-hit-again? |
| MT Isa 1:7 | Your-cities consumed with-fire | Your-cities consumed-with-fire |
| MT Isa 1:21 | Justice dwells in-her | Justice dwells-in-her |

The “no two stresses in a row” rule looks like an overgeneralization. The received tradition’s frequent non-avoidance of two stresses in a row is

33 Gray, Job; Wildberger, Jesaja; Allen, Psalms 101-150.
retainable in almost all cases without creating a conflict with the rule as a whole.

It may further be suggested that 4:3 and 3:4 bipartite lines are better understood as tripartite lines of (2:2):3 and 3:(2:2) format. Notwithstanding the fact that in lines of this type, the main caesura falls between a unit of 4 and a unit of 3, it is remarkable that 4’s are consistently divisible into pairs of 2’s. If instead we found units of 4 that must be analyzed as combinations of 1 and 3, units of 4 on a par with units of 2 and 3 would have to be accepted. Such is not the case. Exceptions to the rule that 4’s are divisible into pairs of 2’s in the received text are rare to the point that one may ask whether they might be the result of inopportune scribal embellishment or faulty textual transmission.

If the rule is modified accordingly, it reads as follows:

There are never less than two stresses in a verset and never more than three.

This rule, taken together with Alter’s definition of a line as being composed of two or three versets, amounts to a refinement of Harshav’s system of “twos, threes, and fours.” Further analysis suggests the following “general rule”:

Ancient Hebrew poetry is confined within a system of “twos and threes”: two to three “stress units” make up a “verset”; two to three versets a poetic “line”; two to three lines a “strophe”; two to three strophes a “stanza”; two to three stanzas a “section”; and two to three sections a poem, or a more extensive section thereof.

The poetic line occupies the middlemost position in the hierarchy of the prosodic system canvassed by the general rule. Below it are the versets that make up the line and the stress units that make up the verset. Above it are the strophes, stanzas, and sections that make up a poem.34

The general rule may be restated in terms of a metrical grid and a set of rules that generate all known lines of ancient Hebrew verse. The results suggest the possibility of describing the line in terms of two minor and one major caesura if bipartite, and three minor, two major, and one super-major caesura if tripartite.35

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34 I borrow the terms “verset” and “line” from Harshav [Hrushovski] and Alter, and the terms “strophe” and “stanza” from Fokkelman, Reading Biblical Poetry, 37.

The levels of the prosodic hierarchy as defined in the general rule require further elucidation. I inscribe my discussion within the theoretical framework of the prosodic structure hypothesis formulated by Elisabeth Selkirk and other linguists. Translated into the terms of this hypothesis, a stress unit is equivalent to a “prosodic word,” a verset to a “phonological phrase,” a line to an “intonational phrase,” and a strophe to an “utterance.” These equivalences are discussed below.

The fundamental building block of ancient Hebrew verse is the prosodic word. There are also prosodic levels below the word which impact ancient Hebrew poetry’s rhythms and regularities. They are discussed further on.

The Prosodic Word

A prosodic word is a unit dominated by a single main stress whose dimensions are equivalent to an orthographic word to which free-standing prepositions and a few other short words may be cliticized. The concept of the prosodic word has proven to be of immense utility in the study of languages and verse around the world. Its existence is well-attested in Tiberian Biblical Hebrew (TBH). The phonological and syntactic combinations that play a role in the rules that determine the boundaries of

prosodic words in TBH have been studied by Elan Dresher. The rules that applied in ancient Hebrew must be inferred from the data in hand. As a first approximation, departures from the received tradition’s rules are best kept to a minimum, unless they follow from historically probable phonological changes posited on independent grounds. Elsewhere I present a set of reconstructed rules for ancient Hebrew.

Excursus on Tiberian Hebrew Phonology

Recorded aspects of Tiberian Hebrew phonology include primary and occasionally secondary stress assignment, prosody-driven vowel alteration, sandhi, rhythm rules, lenition, fortition, and deceleration markers below the word level; and pausal and contextual forms and intonational pauses and liaisons at higher levels. Medieval texts documenting reading traditions record understandings of vowel length and phonological structure. Anologues to many of these features undoubtedly existed in ancient Hebrew, and impacted the way ancient Hebrew poetry worked. Nonetheless, one must guard against relying on features like the lenition of stops that probably did not obtain in ancient Hebrew.


The Verset as a Phonological Phrase

A phonological phrase as understood in prosodic structure theory is marked off from its context by pitch accents, focus tones, phonological caesurae, and/or other closure phenomena. A phonological phrase is a prosodic, not a syntactic unit. Especially in verse, phonological and syntactic phrases do not necessarily align.

A verset as defined in the general rule is equivalent to a phonological phrase. Its parameters, ex hypothesi, are fixed at 2 to 3 prosodic words. Others identify versets of from 2 to 4 prosodic words, and bipartite lines of from 4 to 8 prosodic words. But once it is noticed that 4’s are divisible into 2’s, just as 6’s are divisible into 3’s or three 2’s, and 5’s into a 3 and a 2 in either order, it becomes clear that what 4’s, 5’s and 6’s have in common is that they are all expressible in terms of 2’s and 3’s. The conceptual basis for a system of “twos and threes” at the level of “phonological phrase” should now be clear.

A further basis for an analysis of ancient Hebrew verse into phonological phrases of two to three prosodic words is the prosodic parse preserved by means of the accent system of the MT. Long stretches of verse in MT present themselves as units subdivisible into 2 and sometimes 3 phonological phrases marked off as such by disjunctive accents and consisting of from 2 to 3 prosodic words (e.g., Prov 2; Lam 3; Pss 111-112; Job 5:8-27). To be sure, the unambiguous division of a line into three phonological phrases each of which consists of 2 to 3 prosodic words is rare. Examples include Ps 111:9; 147:1, 8; Prov 4:4; Job 8:6; 10:17; Lam 2:4a; Isa 26:2, 6; 50:4b; 8a; Joel 2:15.

3:(2:2) and (2:2):3 units in which a pair of phonological phrases is preceded or followed by a third illustrate the problem. The end of a verset as understood under the general rule is almost always marked by a disjunctive accent in MT, and the half-unit or major caesura within the unit marked with greater prominence than the caesura between the 2’s of the (2:2) subunit. For example:

Prov 2:20

That you may walk in the way of the good


41 E.g., Gray, Forms of Hebrew Poetry, 157-97.
and keep to the paths of the righteous

The prosodic parse preserved by the accents captures a regularity easily established by independent observation, namely, that tripartite structures are, virtually without exception, 1:(1:1) or (1:1):1 in structure. But attention to the accents is not sufficient to identify lines. Knowledge of the general rule is needed in order to lineate properly.  

The Line as an Intonational Phrase

An intonational phrase in prosodic structure theory is marked off from its environment by intonational boundary tones, pauses, final lengthening, and/or other phonological features. It contains one or more phonological phrases.

A line as defined above is equivalent to an intonational phrase. Its parameters are fixed, ex hypothesi, at from 2 to 3 phonological phrases. The outer boundaries of intonational phrases are often but not consistently marked in the MT by its subdivision of the text into pesuqim or by major subdivisions of same.

The Strophe as an Utterance

An utterance in prosodic structure theory is a still larger intonational unit. The utterance level of the prosodic hierarchy delimits self-contained unities of discourse. Utterances are closed by intonational full stops or similar. A strophe as defined above is equivalent to an utterance. Ex hypothesi, it consists of 2 to 3 intonational phrases.

Strophes are often identifiable with relative ease in ancient Hebrew verse. In poetry outside of Psalms, Proverbs, and Job, a pasuq or masoretic verse normally consists of an utterance as just defined. Gray spoke of these units as “sections” and observed that the parallelisms that occur across distichs and tristichs occur across sections as well. His remarks are based on an analysis of Lamentations 1-4 in which strophes of 2 to 3 lines are marked by pesuqim and/or by the acrostic scheme.

A number of text segments usually scanned as single poetic lines are scanned as pairs of lines under the general rule. The following sets of lines, 2
to 3 in number, each constitute a *pasuq* in MT and an utterance or strophe as defined above:

| 2:2 | הָמוּ נָגָי | קְשֶׁת יִחוֹנָת | נָוֶהָה לִשְׁמוֹעַ | נַעֲוֵיתִי מֵרְאוֹת | נַעֲוֵיתִי מֵרְאוֹת |
| 2:2 | מַמְלָכוֹת מַמְלָכוֹת | מִדַּם גִּבּוֹרִים | גִּבּוֹרִים מֵחֵלֶב | יְהוֹנָתָן קֶשֶׁת | שָׁאוּלְחֶ רֶב |
| 2:2 | בְּקוֹלוֹ נָתַן | לָא נָשָׁו אָחוֹר | נָשָׁו אָחוֹר | כְּצִירֵי מִשְּׁמֹעַ | מֵרְאוֹת נִבְהַלְתִּי |
| 2:2 | מָטוּ | לָא נָשָׁו אָחוֹר | נָשָׁו אָחוֹר | כְּצִירֵי מִשְּׁמֹעַ | מֵרְאוֹת נִבְהַלְתִּי |
| 2:3 | נָתַן אָרֶץ תָּמוּג | לָא נָשָׁו אָחוֹר | נָשָׁו אָחוֹר | כְּצִירֵי מִשְּׁמֹעַ | מֵרְאוֹת נִבְהַלְתִּי |
| 2:3 | מַמְלָכוֹת מַמְלָכוֹת | מִדַּם גִּבּוֹרִים | גִּבּוֹרִים מֵחֵלֶב | יְהוֹנָתָן קֶשֶׁת | שָׁאוּלְחֶ רֶב |

Ps 46:7 Nations rage, kingdoms topple; he gives forth his voice, the earth melts.

2 Sam 1:22 From blood of the slain, from fat of the mighty, the bow of Jonathan did not turn back, the sword of Saul did not return empty.

Isa 21:3 Therefore my loins are full with trembling, pangs seize me like a woman in travail; I am too distraught to hear, too frightened to see.

Beyond the Level of Strophe or Utterance

A unit consisting of two or three utterances, referred to as a stanza in the general rule, has no equivalent in prosodic structure theory. Stanzas also lack a firm foundation in the prosodic divisions preserved in MT. They are not as readily identifiable as strophes or sections. Nevertheless, the assumption that stanzas are composed of 2 to 3 strophes consistently yields acceptable results.

A unit consisting of 2 to 3 stanzas, referred to as a section in the general rule, also has no equivalent in prosodic structure theory. The outer
boundaries of a section are nevertheless clear in many instances. Occasionally, sections coincide with the division into open and closed paragraphs preserved in MT. Often, sections coincide with readily identifiable macrosemantic units.

The largest identifiable prosodic unit of all under the general rule is a unit consisting of one or more sections. It goes unnamed in prosodic structure theory even if its existence is not questioned. In ancient Hebrew verse, the largest prosodic unit, consisting of one or more sections or combinations of sections, is a poem or a cycle of poems. Sections often appear to be arranged in diptychs and triptychs.

The Frequency of Enjambment at the Line Level

Claims to the contrary notwithstanding, enjambment occurs frequently in ancient Hebrew verse. One third of the lines in the corpus studied by him, O’Connor remarks, exhibit enjambment. More than two thirds of the lines in Lamentations 1-5 are enjambed, with a single clause distributed over two or more versets, according to a landmark study by F. W. Dobbs-Allsopp.44 Under the general rule, enjambment recurs with greater regularity than usually thought. Pairs of enjambed lines occupying a pasuq are not unusual:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Passage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3:2</td>
<td>&quot;There is no soundness in my flesh on account of your fury; there is no wellness in my frame on account of my sin.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:7</td>
<td>&quot;I am not afraid of myriad folk&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ps 38:4
Ps 3:7

who around about
are arrayed against me.

Isa 2:4b  Nation shall not lift sword
against nation,
nor they shall learn
war anymore.

Isa 51:18  None leads her
of all the sons she bore,
none takes her hand
of all the sons she reared.

The division of single clauses into multipartite lines is not revolutionary.
Isa 51:18 is so divided by NRSV and NJPSV. Further examples:

Lam 4:10  The hands of tenderhearted women
boiled their children;
they became nourishment for them
in the breakup of my beloved people.

45 Division of text as in BHQ, NJPSV, and NRSV.
46 Division of text as in NJPSV. Here and elsewhere, stress retention and deletion patterns
preserved in MT are not a reliable guide to the delimitation of stress units in the underlying
text. Stress deletion occurs more often than seems to be required. Maqqephim deemed to
join primary stress units have been omitted.
47 Division of text as in NJPSV. MT Zeph 1:3 אֵין יְהוָה is omitted as an early
gloss. An equivalent is lacking in LXX and OL.
48 Division of text as in Allen, Psalms 101-150, 172.
Obad 12  Would that you had not looked with satisfaction
on the day of your brother,
on the day of his calamity.
Would that you had not rejoiced
over the people of Judah
on their day of ruin.
Would that you had not distended your mouth
on a day of distress.

Zeph 1:2-3  I will gather, gather up everything
from the face of the earth –
oracle of Yahweh –
I will gather up man and beast,
I will gather up the fowl of the sky
and the fish of the sea,
and cut off man
from the face of the earth –
oracle of Yahweh.

Ps 119:62-64  In the middle of the night
I rise to praise you
for your just decisions.
I am a friend
to all who fear you,
to those who keep your precepts.
With your favor, Yahweh,
the earth is filled:
teach me your laws.

Two-clause (2:2):3 and 3:(2:2) lines are common in Job, Proverbs, and elsewhere:

Job 3:19

Job 3:19  As one prisoners are at ease –
none hear
the taskmaster’s voice;
Small and great,  
there they are;  
the slave, free of his master.

Cant 1:13  
A bag of myrrh  
is my love to me,  
between my breasts he lodges.

Lam 5:17  
Wherever we became  
sick at heart;  
over this our eyes grew dim.

Prov 1:14  
Your lot you must throw in with us,  
a common purse  
there’ll be for all of us.

The main caesura in lines of this type falls between a unit of 4 and a unit of 3. The unit of 4 is consistently divisible into a pair of 2’s.

Prosodic Domains below the Word

An account of regularities in ancient Hebrew verse cannot afford to ignore prosodic domains below the prosodic word. Analysis indicates that a prosodic word is made up of one to three feet; a foot, of one to three syllables; a syllable, of one to three morae. The analysis holds for ancient Hebrew in general, not just its poetry. A theoretical framework for the study of prosodic domains at the foot level is offered by Bruce Hayes; at the syllable level, by Matthew Gordon; at the mora level, by Abigail Cohn.49

Syllables

Under the general rule, prosodic word counts factor into any judgment concerning the wellformedness of a verset. But syllable counts are also metrically diagnostic. Qinah verse illustrates the point. It is characterized by lines in which the second half is shorter than the first. A typical line is 3:2 in terms of prosodic words. A frequent substitution consists of a 3:3, 2:2, or 2:3

line in which the line’s second half is nonetheless shorter than the first in terms of syllable count. Qinah meter is adequately defined only if both prosodic word and syllable counts are considered. Qinah meter is described in more detail below.

If a system of twos and threes is evident at the word level and above, at a more elementary level, that of syllables, the rhythm is freer, though not without constraints: one to six syllables is the syllable count up to and including the syllable receiving the dominant stress in a prosodic word. This measure of the maximum length of a prosodic word is important in the establishment of a threshold for the decliticization of proclitics.\(^{50}\)

If one to six syllables make up a prosodic word, the number of syllables in a verset will hypothetically fall in a range that goes from two to eighteen in a system of two and threes (in a system of two, threes, and fours, a two to twenty-four range would obtain). The range is far narrower in fact. It has been customary to think in terms of averages. Analysis suggests that a prosodic word consists on average of between two and three syllables. On average, therefore, there will be between four to nine syllables to a verset. A statistical convergence in the range of four to nine syllables per verset is compatible with the findings of Freedman, Fokkelman, and Bartelt, to cite three major practitioners of the syllable counting method.\(^{51}\) Nevertheless, despite claims made for averages, it seems unlikely that this convergence is more than an epiphenomenon of other regularities in Hebrew verse structure.\(^{52}\)

50 Harm van Grol (De versbouw in het klassieke hebreuws: Fundamentele verkenningen, Deel 1: Metriek [diss., Catholic Theological University of Amsterdam: Amsterdam, 1986] 148-51, 240) also sets an upper limit of six syllables per stress unit. Stress units of more than five syllables up to and including the maximally stressed syllable are atypical. For a reconstruction of rules governing the formation of prosodic words in ancient Hebrew, see the present writer’s “Stress in Ancient Hebrew: A Tentative Reconstruction” at www.ancienthebrewpoetry.typepad.com.

51 David Noel Freedman, “Acrostics and Metrics in Hebrew Poetry,” HTR 65 (1972) 367-92; 392 (repr. in Pottery, Poetry, and Prophecy: Collected Essays on Hebrew Poetry (Winona Lake, Eisenbrauns, 1980) 51-76; 76 [six and a half to nine syllables per verset on average]; Jan Fokkelman, Reading Biblical Poetry, 47-8 [seven to nine syllables per verset on average, with 8 indicated as “the central norm figure of prosody”]; Andrew H. Bartelt, The Book around Immanuel: Style and Structure in Isaiah 2-12 (BJSUCSD 4; Winona Lake: Eisenbrauns, 1996) 247 [8 syllable norm for a verset].

52 For syllable count averages to be more than a byproduct of overall regularity, one has to assume that poets reworked their poems until calculations proved a normative syllable count average had been achieved. This is not a likely scenario. Nevertheless, to judge from Eusebius of Caesarea, according to whom “it is said” that Deut 32 and Ps 119 “are
Varieties of Ancient Hebrew Verse

Aggregate, not average syllable counts allow parameterization of varieties of ancient Hebrew poetry. Three meters or systems of constraint are identifiable.

In *common* meter - most extant ancient Hebrew verse is written in it - the length of versets and lines, with post-stress syllables not counted, is constrained as follows: a verset contains no less than 2 but no more than 10 syllables (absent the constraint, it might contain up to 18); a bipartite line, no less than 6 but no more than 18 syllables; a tripartite line, up to but no more than 24 syllables. Common meter is flexible but still constrained. Examples: Isa 1:2-20; 40:1-11; Zeph 1-3.

*Qinah* meter is more severely constrained. The “a” verset in a bipartite line normally contains 5 to 8 syllables, the “b” verset 3 to 7 syllables; in a tripartite line, each verset contains 3 to 5 syllables. Lines contain 9 to 14 syllables. Qinah poetry is dominated by lines with a shorter or syncopated second half, where “halves” or “half-lines” are defined as the text on either side of the major caesura (in a three verset line, the third or “c” verset constitutes the second half). Occasionally, halves are equal in length; rarely, the second half is longer than the first. A 3:2 line is typical, but syncopation may be achieved in more subtle ways. As a rule, lines with halves of equal length or a second half longer than the first by prosodic word count have a shorter second half in terms of syllables and/or absolute words. Compensation also occurs in reverse, such that lines with halves of equal length or a second half longer than the first by syllable count as a rule have a shorter second half in terms of prosodic words. Examples: Lam 1-4; Jon 2:3-10.

*Mashal* meter is dominated by lines with half-lines of approximately equal length, where “half-lines” are defined as the text on either side of the major caesura as above, and “approximately equal” is defined as plus or minus 3, or in some cases 2 syllables. Versets are characteristically 4 to 8 syllables in length. Examples: Prov 1:10-33; 2:1-22; 8:1-21; Pss 111-112.

Syllable counts reflect phonological length the parameters of which may reflect time worn convention rather than systematic counting. Judgments on the part of the individual poet were probably involved, but measurement of composed in what the Greeks call heroic meter,” that is, “hexameters consisting of sixteen syllables” (*Praep. ev.* XI, 5), the practice of counting the syllables of ancient Hebrew verse is at least as old as the comparative study of Greek and Hebrew poetry.
length may have been intuitive rather than analytical. Occasional outliers might thus be explained.

What the General Rule Does Not Require

The general rule does not require that a poem repeat itself measure for measure in exactly the same way. Many forced attempts have been made to identify a pattern such as 2:2, 3:3, or 3:2 as the dominant or exclusive one of a given poem. With the exception of qinah meter, this can only be accomplished by ad hoc promotion of secondary stresses to primary stresses and vice versa, unnatural divisions, and made to order textual emendation, or by establishing an unacceptably low threshold in terms of what qualifies as a dominant pattern in a given poem. Intermingling of 2:2’s, 3:3’s, 3:2’s, etc. is constitutive of the artistry of ancient Hebrew verse. Identifiable constellations of the permissible rhythmic patterns occur locally, not globally, within the framework of a given poem. Variation in the number of prosodic units (prosodic words, feet, syllables, or mora) within continuously repeated prosodic frames should not surprise. Earlier periods of several poetries are characterized by precisely such variation.53

Asymmetrical features counterpoint symmetrical features in ancient Hebrew verse. The twinned acrostic poems of Pss 111 and 112, for example, make use of a compositional technique whereby a letter of the alphabet

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according to a conventional order initiates a unit consisting without exception of 3 or (2:2) prosodic words. Units of 3 and (2:2), but approximately equal in terms of syllable count, are the compositions' building blocks. The variation adds pleasantness to what would otherwise be a monotonous sequence. Syntactically, an acrostic unit corresponds to a clause – except when it doesn’t. Prosodic and syntactic asymmetries across units of approximately equal phonological length make the poetry less tedious. Adjacent acrostic units combine to form lines and strophes in accordance with the general rule, but do so in unpredictable ways.\(^{54}\)

Regularities beyond the System of Twos and Threes: The Length Rule

Once the lines of a poem are correctly identified, a length rule, that is, a set of regularities involving aggregate numbers of lines, is discernible:

A poem, if it contains more than 10 lines, typically consists of 12, 18, 22, 28, or 36 lines, or combinations thereof. Among the Psalms, 14 lines is also a common length.

The rule delimits macro-units of poetry in terms of 12’s, 14’s, 18’s, 22’s, 28’s, and 36’s.\(^{55}\) Its validity cannot be demonstrated here. In conjunction

\(^{54}\) Pss 111-112 are composed in a kind of mashal meter in which half-lines of approximately equal syllabic length consist of 3 to 4 (not 2 to 4) prosodic words. See the writer’s “Psalms 111-112,” online at: [ancienthebrewpoetry.typepad.com](http://ancienthebrewpoetry.typepad.com).

with the general rule, the length rule unlocks the structure of poem after poem in ancient Hebrew literature.

Precursors of the Description Offered Here in the History of Research

The general rule and the “seven-storied hierarchy” Harshav discerned in ancient Hebrew verse are much alike. Harshav noted that each level of the hierarchy contains a group of units, usually 2 or 3, of the level below it, with the order of 2’s and 3’s, as stressed above, ever-changing and unpredictable. Another scholar who has paid attention to prosodic hierarchy is Vincent DeCaen. Harshav developed his insights on the basis of a keen understanding of poetry per se and in the context of a comprehensive literary theory. DeCaen develops his in the context of contemporary linguistics.56

The text model proposed here and Jan Fokkelman’s text model overlap to a large degree. At the line, strophe, and stanza levels, but not at the verset level, Fokkelman perceives a system of twos and threes to be instantiated in biblical poetry.57 Given the difference at the verset level, my analyses differ decisively from his.


(57) Fokkelman, Reading Biblical Poetry, 37, 45-46.)
Fundamental similarities are evident between the text model proposed here and Harm van Grol’s text model. But van Grol’s model envisions versets with four stress maxima, lines with from two to twelve stress maxima, single verset lines, single line strophes, and single strophe and four strophe stanzas. My text model diverges from his on all these points. The analytical results differ accordingly.

Excursus on O’Connor’s System of Syntactic Constraints

The “unit” in O’Connor’s system of syntactic constraints, what he refers to as a lexical word along with the particles dependent on it, is a syntactic unit, not a prosodic unit. I concur with O’Connor’s decision to treat compound prepositions and the like as dependencies of lexical words, not as self-standing syntactic units. The general rule formulated above impacts O’Connor’s system of constraints. If the general rule is valid, three of his six constraints require modification to accord with it:

2. A verset contains one to three [originally: four] constituents.
3. A verset contains one [originally: two] to three [originally: five] units.
4. A constituent contains one to three [originally: four] units.

There is no a priori way to decide between O’Connor’s constraints 2–4, and my modified versions of them, though the latter have elegance and symmetry in their favor. What matters is the degree to which a particular set of constraints can be shown to be instantiated by the data in hand.

Next Steps

The text model outlined above is the outcome of trial-and-error inductive analysis of a large portion of the corpus of ancient Hebrew poetry. The model works line after line and poem after poem with few or no necessary changes to the extant text. Often, previously proposed textual subdivisions based on rhetorical analysis, a hypothesis of textual or literary development, or delimitation markers in ancient manuscripts, find confirmation. Rarely, a

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59 O’Connor, Hebrew Verse Structure, 68.
60 The problems inherent in O’Connor’s original constraint 3, from the prosodic point of view, led William L. Holladay to suggest that compound and triconsonantal prepositions be counted as units in O’Connor’s syntactic system (“Hebrew Verse Structure Revisited (I): Which Words ‘Count?’” JBL 118 [1999] 19-32; 28). This is a category mistake, avoided by O’Connor, Hebrew Verse Structure, 298-99.
61 Constituents make up a clause. Units make up a constituent. For the original constraints and resulting division into versets, see O’Connor, Hebrew Verse Structure, 86-87, 317-18. Under the general rule, O’Connor’s 35 line types are reduced to 14, distributed in the shape of a bell curve in terms of frequency.
novel subdivision of a poem, or delimitation of the whole, is suggested. Discussions of examples appear elsewhere.  

The model is compatible with the phonology and stress patterns of ancient Hebrew insofar as we might reconstruct them. A sizeable corpus of ancient Hebrew inscriptions and texts beyond the Hebrew Bible from the First and Second Temple Periods is now available, such that diachronic and synchronic study of ancient Hebrew is on a firmer footing than before. As the language evolved, sound changes occurred and stress patterns changed, but the general rule and length rule are such that they did not necessarily obsolesce as a result. A reconstruction of the phonology of 6th century BCE Hebrew is offered elsewhere. Many unanswered questions remain, and probably always will. The reconstruction of ancient Hebrew phonology is nonetheless a necessary propaedeutic to serious investigation of regularities in ancient Hebrew verse. More reconstructive attempts are a desideratum.

The proposed text model is expressed within the framework of the prosodic structure hypothesis of contemporary linguistic theory. The discussion offered above is rudimentary. A fuller discussion appears elsewhere. Linguists currently apply a variety of formal approaches to poetry. More formal linguistic analyses of ancient Hebrew poetry are a desideratum.

The work of cross-linguistic comparison with Ugaritic, Aramaic, Phoenician, Punic, and Akkadian poetry, and with poetries farther removed, remains largely undone. The model promises to reveal conventions that governed other ancient Semitic poetries.


63 “In Search of Prosodic Domains.”

64 “In Search of Prosodic Domains.”

65 For preliminary observations, see the writer’s “Regularities in Ancient Hebrew Verse: An Overview,” ancienthebrewpoetry.typepad.com; and in reference to rule-constrained variation in verset and line length attested in other ancient poetries, fn. 53 above. Analyses of examples of Ugaritic and Aramaic poetry are in a preliminary stage of preparation. Analyses of examples from Ben Sira and Hodayot suggest that the general rule and the length rule were still operative in Hebrew poetry of the Hellenistic period.
Summary

This essay began with a question about continuously operating principles of organization in ancient Hebrew verse. A provisional answer was given, which may be summarized as follows.

Ancient Hebrew verse is characterized by a series of continuously repeated forms. The forms are prosodic units. The central form is termed a line. It consists of two to three parts. A part is termed a verset. A verset consists of two to three prosodic words. A set of lines, two to three, is termed a strophe. A verset ends in a pause, however minor. A line ends in a stronger pause or a full stop. A strophe usually ends in a full stop.

Prosodic, semantic, syntactic, morphological, and sonic parallelisms recur across versets, lines, and strophes. Prosodic parallelisms alone are obligatory: a verset of two to three prosodic words is unfailingly followed by another verset of two to three prosodic words, until a poem’s conclusion.

A prosodic hierarchy of twos and threes structures a poem. Two to three stress units form a verset, two to three versets a line, two to three lines a strophe, two to three strophes a stanza, and two to three stanzas a poem or section thereof. A poem, if it contains more than 10 lines, typically consists of 12, 18, 22, 28, or 36 lines, or combinations thereof. Among the Psalms, 14 lines is also a common length.

Three varieties of ancient Hebrew verse are identifiable, the common, the qinah, and the mashal. They are distinguishable from each other by the varying patterns of verset and line length they instantiate.