“Comfort, comfort my people, says your God”

Who speaks? Who comforts? In a sense it is God who comforts, but at one remove. Or it is the prophet who comforts, his voice subsumed in that of God or vice versa, the prophet whose own identity is absorbed into the textual persona of First Isaiah and irreducible to it, not so much or only because of the obvious contextual and stylistic differences, but because of his own struggle to establish a separate textual identity, as is evident most clearly in the so-called servant songs. Is a new beginning or a renewal, a reversion to the old? Does it respond to  why the vision of Isaiah, as suggested by Jewish liturgical tradition and much modern commentary? Is it an initiation, equivalent to or paired with Isaiah 6, and, if so, what is the direction of the relationship? With Williamson, one may think of Deutero-Isaiah as primary, as the

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1 In the Jewish lectionary, Isaiah 1 is the Haftarah for the Sabbath before the 9th of Av, and Isaiah 40 for the Sabbath following it.
author of First Isaiah, the past constructed on the basis of the future. But apart from muddling literary and historical considerations, no bad thing in itself, one cannot avoid the immense caesura between chapters 39 and 40, no matter how much it has been retrojected into the text of First Isaiah. In the space between chapters 39 and 40, marked textually in the great Isaiah Scroll from Qumran, is the catastrophe. Chapter 40, and Deutero-Isaiah generally, is a post-catastrophe text. It is thus a work of mourning, and as such spectral. It speaks for the past in the future, the past as having a future, but only as past. The doubleness of the voice of Deutero-Isaiah, suggested by its very name, is compounded by the ambiguity of speaker and addressee. God comforts, but distances himself from comforting. The prophet speaks and comforts, his identity anonymous, diffused, disseminated with and as that of God.

is ambiguous, in that it refers to a change of mind or mood. To comfort is to induce a change, to leave behind the past, to forget. But God is precisely the one who cannot forget, as Deutero-Isaiah insistently reminds us (40.27, 49.15). It is because God cannot forget that we can forget, traverse the catastrophe, step beyond the abyss. God, however, is notoriously characterised by his changes of mind, denoted by the same verb . God regrets his creation of humanity in the Flood Story, with which the catastrophe in Deutero-Isaiah is compared (Isa.54.9). Here the verb signals a transformation in God, from judgement to compassion. But as such it is unstable, since it can always be reversed.

For the moment, though, we are comforted, a comfort doubled by the repetition as if we can have no end to the comforting. As the initial words, the title, they and argues that 40.1-11 was composed as a bridge between First and Second Isaiah, with the exception of 6b-8, which were added later.

Another notorious instance is God’s retraction of sovereignty from Saul (1 Sam 15.11, 35). The two meanings intersect in Hos.13.14.

Blenkinsopp (2000: 183), comments on the “emotional weight” of the repetition, and the frequency of the device in Deutero-Isaiah. Similarly, Westermann (1969: 6, 34), notes Deutero-Isaiah’s propensity for piling on “imperative on imperative,” as an expression of
launch Deutero-Isaiah as the book or enterprise of consolation, which is either equal to the fissure that precedes it, doubles it, or vastly exceeds it, as 54.8 suggests. Comfort, however, is a maternal function, cross-culturally and within the text of Deutero-Isaiah. As a comforter, God is a super-mother, as Isaiah 49 claims (49.15). God and prophet evoke between them an encompassing maternity, a womb within which Israel can be reborn. One may note, in passing, the correspondence between נַחֲלָה and נַחֲלָה, “compassion/womb,” and the euphony of guttural and nasal continuants that redirects our attention from the concept to the sound of consolation. But then why does God eschew, for the moment, the voice of comfort, as if he cannot commit himself to the poetic/prophetic venture?

The voice urges unnamed others to comfort: נַחֲלָה נַחֲלָה. They may be divine beings, comparable to the seraphim of Isaiah 6, or prophets, or even ordinary people, comforting each other. The indeterminacy introduces the passage as something vague, a urgency. Fokkelman (1981: 75) suggests that the doubling of נַחֲלָה is the “motor” that shapes the entire poem, and is the reflected in the doubling of punishment in v.2. Krinetzki (1972: 59-60) argues that there is an interchange of double and triple constructions: the former express the divine point of view, the latter the creaturely one. Many authors observe that the initial words introduce the major theme of Deutero-Isaiah cf. Elliger (1989: 13), Blenkinsopp (2000:179), Baltzer (2001: 49), who writes: “This sentence sums up everything that DtIsa has to proclaim.” Elliger (1989:10) suggests that an initial כָּלִים כָּלִים may have been suppressed to highlight the theme.


Many modern commentators opt for the first possibility, usually without question, first proposed by Cross (1953: 275-277). Blenkinsopp (2000: 180), however, adopts the second position, that it refers to a plurality of prophets, while Baltzer, (2001: 51), aprovingly cites Duhm’s suggestion that it is addressed to “everyone who is able to comfort.” Fokkelman (1981: 72-73) interestingly considers that the audience are the prophet’s disciples, as in 8.16-18, who are urged to comfort the wider community. Kratz (1994: 260) proposes that it is directed to members of the Golah elite, who are urged to lead the community back from exile. Albertz (2003: 373 n.7) thinks that Deutero-Isaiah is a group composition. Berges (1998: 381-383) proposes that the objects of the appeal are the watchmen of Jerusalem of 52.8 (and 62.6); the imperative is thus a framing device, deriving from what he identifies as the first Jerusalem redaction. It also corresponds to the “We” group in 1.9 and thereafter (257). See also Van Oorschot (1993: 115). Redaction critics tend to dismiss interpretations of the sequence as a call-vision or a
gesture outwards inviting and requiring a response, as if only through reciprocity, ultimately from us, can the poetic movement be accomplished. We are then the surrogate authors of the book, or at least responsible for its effectiveness.

The heart of Jerusalem is parallel to “my people” in v.1, as the object of speech and consolation, but are they the same or different? Is Jerusalem the destroyed city or its surviving inhabitants, wherever they might be? To speak to the heart may be an idiom for sexual seduction or reconciliation, as in Hos.2.16, and anticipate bridal imagery later in the book, but only through or as a result of completed mourning. Such implications are for the moment displaced, disavowed; the collective indistinct others are adduced, to speak to the heart, the affective centre, of the female subject. The imperative, which is also the prophetic imperative, sets the discourse in motion, while not yet impelling the prophet, as if the silence of the catastrophe cannot yet be broken. The voice(s) then address(es) the heart of the prophet, and perhaps of God, as well as Jerusalem, and, once again, we cannot be sure that these are separate entities.

scene in a heavenly council as resulting from secondary additions. The most inclusive view is that of Freedman (1997: 248-255), who holds that it refers to “all flesh” in v.5, who are urged to comfort “my people” and lead them back to their homeland, as in 49.22-23. Kiesow (1979: 26) warns against premature foreclosure of the question. Elliger (1989: 15-16) correctly notes the fluidity of the conception of Jerusalem in Deutero-Isaiah, which refers both to the place and its population. Goldingay (1997: 241) rejects the idea that it may refer to the exiles as implausible and unnecessary, since everywhere else Jerusalem refers to the locality or its population, and the audience may have been Jerusalemite. This, however, is to beg the question. As Goldingay himself says, the overt audience “includes both the Jerusalem community and that in Babylon” (242). For this reason, Kiesow (1979: 56) assumes a later redactional context. Milbank (1992: 64) interestingly proposes that because of the collapse of Judah, Zion is “nowhere and everywhere.” He elaborates that she is nowhere because she is present in the “nothingness, the negativity of suffering,” and everywhere since she is identified through “exile and self-exile.”

Geller (1984: 417) points out “the almost sexual connotation,” and suggests that it is reinforced by the feminine suffixes in the rest of the verse.
Before being a lover, Jerusalem is the mother, whose death is the ultimate loss. The maternal ambiance of comfort then consoles one for the death of the mother. Mother Jerusalem and Mother God are opposed, in that God gives life to the dead, or they cannot be distinguished. God maintains his (her) silence, in the wilderness recalled in v.3, while bidding others to speak on his behalf, and on that of Jerusalem.

The vision of Isaiah, in chapter 1, begins with an address, in the imperative, to the heavens and earth, שמים וארץ יתנብたり, “Hear, O heavens, and give ear, O earth.” Perhaps they may be intimated too by the plural imperative here. There heavens and earth witness human incapacity. Here they evoke creation, and the continuing creative impulse, despite the silence of God and prophet, and anticipate God’s rhetorical appeal to his creation of the universe in vs.12 ff.

The voices speak of the end of service (דבשא) and punishment or iniquity (שגיא), or perhaps their message is more general, and the access of comfort coincides with the end of tribulation. The incrementation, from “service” (דבשא), through the Janus-parallelism of שגיא, which may mean punishment or iniquity, to “all her sins” (חל הפשעים) recalls the condemnation of Jerusalem in the first part of the book, and is matched by the doubling of the penalty in the last clause. Correspondingly, one may expect the return to divine favour to equal or exceed the retribution. Double the sin = double the compensation. However, the sums are incalculable.

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12 Commentators differ whether 2b is the content of the call or justifies it. Elliger (1989: 6-7) denies that it can refer to the content, largely on the grounds of a structural parallel with vs.3-4. See also Freedman (1997: 236-237). For the alternative view, see Koole (1997: 56). Geller (1984: 416) suggests that “the phrase is an artful hinge.”
13 Dijkstra (1999: 240-245) argues that the double price is not a penalty, but the compensation that YHWH, as go’el, pays for Israel’s redemption. This seems to me to accord ill with the emphasis on Israel’s sins.
14 See also Stoebe (1984; 110).
all her sins? According to First Isaiah, it is death or deportation.\(^{15}\) What is double that? And what is the reparation that can equal or surpass it?

Chapter 40 is preoccupied with measure, for instance in the description of creation in 40.12-13. But the measure is imposed on that which is immeasurable. Similarly, the verse through the succession of parallel clauses asserts the reestablishment of cosmic order, the order of justice, which is also poetic order, over the incommensurability of the disaster.

The terms יָבוֹא יִבְאֵשׁ and יָכוֹן שלם may suggest cultic as well as ethical transgression,\(^{16}\) and indeed the two are interfused in the rhetoric of First Isaiah, especially chapter 1. That Jerusalem’s “iniquity” (יִשְׂרָאֵל) has been “accepted”(נשבה), in particular, has sacrificial connotations, since elsewhere the verb נשבה is used in connection with atonement (cf. Lev.1.4).\(^{17}\) The iniquity/punishment of Jerusalem conforms to and satisfies God’s will, and corresponds to its status as the symbolic capital of the world. If Jerusalem is equivalent to the people, and to the prophet as the representative of the people, never quite distinct from God, then its destruction, and divine self-destruction, succeeds where Lebanon and its wild beasts fail in 40.16, and anticipates the representative suffering of the prophet in chapter 53.\(^{18}\)

\[^{15}\text{Blenkinsopp (2000: 181) and Baltzer (2001: 53) suggest a correlation with Jerusalem’s double disaster, according to Isa.51.19. Baltzer notes also Babylon’s double bereavement in 47.9.}\]

\[^{16}\text{Elliger (1989:15) thinks that הַשְּׁבִית refers consistently in Deutero-Isaiah to moral guilt, conforming to the tradition, especially in Protestant scholarship, to ascribe a primarily ethical and anti-cultic stance to the prophets. However, there are pervasive metaphorical transfers between these realms, cf. e.g. 43.24, 53.5-6.}\]

\[^{17}\text{See, in particular, Geller (1984:417). Many commentators reject any cultic connotation, identifying the verb as הָשַׁבֵּל II, “pay, discharge,” and citing Lev.26.41, 43. However, it is improbable that the latter lack all ritual or cultic connotations. See also Stoebe (1984:106), who also assigns a sacred sense to חַבָּל.}\]

\[^{18}\text{For this reason Stoebe (1984:109), argues that the Prologue, in which v.2 is linked to vs.9-10, anticipates the “servant songs.”}\]
A voice calling, “In the wilderness open up the way of the Lord; make straight in the desert a paved road for our God. Every valley shall be lifted up, every mountain and hill laid low; the crooked shall be straight, and the rough places a dale. And the glory of the Lord shall be revealed, and all flesh shall see together, for the mouth of the Lord has spoken.”

The voice pauses, resumes, reports another voice, a herald of God. Whether it is one of the voices that is urged to comfort we do not know, and, if so, whether it is a divine or prophetic voice. The voice, at any rate, is detached from the prophet and from God, it is as yet an intimation. The voice, however, identifies with “us,” it displays a certain solidarity, in contrast to the distance implied by אֶלְהֶיךָ, “your God,” in v.1. Between the voice, the prophet and people there is community, under the dominion of God, who acknowledges that Israel is his people, יִשְָרֵאָל, “my people,” in v.1. יִשְָרֵאָל, “my people,” recollects the description of Israel as “my people,” unaware of their relationship with God, in 1.3, and their repudiation as “this people” in 6.8 and 8.6. Whereas in chapter 1 God’s paternal claim is unreciprocated by filial consciousness, and the people is “heavy with iniquity” (כָּלַם זְלוֹעַ) in v.4, here the voice crosses the gap through a movement of comfort, of maternal solicitude, irrespective of the children’s recognition, and the “iniquity” has been absolved.

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19 Again, opinions differ as to the identity of this voice. Elliger (1989:7) thinks that it belongs to one of the heavenly beings addressed in vs.1-2; this accounts for the contrast between “our God” and “your God.” Blenkinsopp (2000:181) considers it to be “a prophetic proclamation.” Berges (1998: 381) thinks that the phrase was secondarily introduced by the composers of Isa.40.6-8, so as to turn the prologue into a dialogue and thus create the rapport with Isaiah 6 (387). See also Kiesow (1979: 30) and van Oorschot (1993: 114-115).

A way in the wilderness – to us, especially if we are identified with Jerusalem – but it also of course our return to ourselves and to our God (םְעָלֹיָתָהּ), even to the acknowledgement of God as our God. There is thus a switching and overlapping of roles, since both of us are undertaking this journey, and for both the other is the destination, and for both it is a return from exile, in other words self-estrangement. God is returning to God, Israel to Israel.

The voice speaks of or for a way in the wilderness, recalling the Exodus tradition, but also the passage from silence to speech, death to life. We, however, are supposed to clear the path, make straight the highway. Or is it divine beings, or prophets? It suggests, nonetheless, a task to be undertaken by us (or/as divine beings, prophets), a preparation within us. In v.4 the implications are developed: every vale shall be raised up, every mountain and hill laid low. In chapter 2 it is God who raises and judges mountains, just as he weighs them in v.12. Mountains are paradigmatic of

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22 Milbank (1992:66) suggests that the way in the wilderness aligns the exiles with a nomadic order which systematically undoes the symbols of Babylonian imperialism.


24 Elliger (1989: 19) rejects any allegorical dimension to the way, and provides an abundance of examples of ancient Near Eastern processional routes. However, note Baltzer’s (2001: 55) stress on the ethical dimension of the passage, and Berges’s insistence that the “way of the Lord” is primarily ethical (1998: 382-83). On the basis of the parallelism, Kiesow (1979: 48) argues that הַמַּיְצָרָה is not dative but genitive. God does not necessarily use this road. See, however, van Oorschot (1993: 118-120). As Fokkelman (1981: 78) remarks, the question whether the images should be taken literally or symbolically is not productive, and suggests a fundamental misunderstanding of the nature of poetry.
primary creative elements. It is not clear whether our preliminary task is levelling mountains and filling valleys, but in any case our making straight the highway corresponds to the crooked becoming straight (יהושע) and the smoothing of the wrinkles (קרבת) into a plain. In chapter 2, the judgement against the mountains accompanies the day of the Lord, in which God terrifies the earth, and is the obverse of Zion’s exaltation and the establishment of universal peace. Here it eases the way of the exiles, and is a sign of reconciliation.

As in v.2, parallelism suggests poetic and cosmic order, which is at the same time a transformation. The alternation of high and low, rough and smooth, is familiar, simple, and may have political or social implications. It is, however, complicated by the circularity whereby the verse begins and ends with synonyms for valley (עמקו … שלמה), the metathesis of שקר, “crooked,” and בקע, “dale,” and the association of בקע with Jacob, and of יהושע with שער, “straight” or perhaps “even,” with the poetic term יeshurun (ישר) which we find also in Isa.44.2. The verse is enclosed too between compact lines, each with two stresses, round more protracted three stress ones. Between intimations of depth and height, divagation and directness, past and future, expansion and ellipsis, the verse sketches a complete world through which, presumably, the way of the Lord passes, and which is upside down because of it, or in anticipation of it. The fulfilment of chapter 2 leads us to expect an eschatological or perhaps apocalyptic context.

For what is revealed? The glory of the Lord, in tandem with all flesh seeing, and the mouth of the Lord speaking. Whether these phrases are equivalent or not is unclear; in particular, the syntactic function of כי in כְּצֵל בֵּית לְבָּרָא. Does all flesh see that the

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25 The motif is all pervasive. See, for example, Ps.90.2, Prov.8.24.
26 The parallelism is often noted cf. Koole (1997: 61).
27 Myskr is a hapax legomenon, whose meaning is relatively clear.
28 Sommers (1998: 251 n.54) summarizes the evidence. See also Baltzer (2001: 54).
29 On this, see Fokkelman (1981: 78), who adds the inversion of רכש ימשר with which seems much more doubtful to me.
mouth of the Lord has spoken, or because it has done so, or is the phrase just a formula of divine authentication? The disjointedness of the syntax and the indeterminacy of reference need not be prematurely foreclosed, e.g. by combining the first two phrases. Perhaps “all flesh” does see the glory of the Lord revealed, but it is also left inexplicit what exactly they do see, so that between the vision and the revelation there remains a certain difference. What is clear, nonetheless, is that what was formerly concealed has been exposed, that the topographical features of the previous verse, emphasized by the repeated “every,” have been collapsed into the totality of “all flesh,” sharing a single experience, and that this corresponds to divine speech. “Flesh” (בְּשָׂם) is frail, as the next verses tell us, yet it is capable of seeing. What effect does the sight have on the flesh? We do not as yet know, but there is nonetheless a transference or transposition between our verse and the previous one. “Seeing” is the crooked being made straight, the mountains diminished, the lowly exalted, and Jacob rectified.

“For the mouth of YHWH has spoken” obviously corresponds to “a voice calling”: the passage, like its central verse, is circular. The voice concludes by reflecting back on itself, withdrawing into itself, or withdrawing the world it evokes back into itself. In chapter 1, between the initial רְבָּד הַיָּהָה דָּבֶר, “for YHWH has spoken,” to which heaven and earth are summoned to listen, in v.2, and רְבָּד הַיָּהָה דָּבֶר, “for the mouth of YHWH has spoken,” in v.20, the world of First Isaiah is introduced in its dereliction, and with its choices between good and evil, survival and disaster. Here the identical phrase, רְבָּד הַיָּהָה דָּבֶר, summarizes the trajectory of Second Isaiah, from comfort to consolation. It may be a response to First Isaiah, a new word that revokes the old, or a recollection of it: the truth of First Isaiah is vindicated.

Brevard Childs has suggested a connection between Isa.40 and 28, for instance through the description of Samaria as being at the top of the נֵזָא תַּנְנִיהָ, “the valley of fat
things” (28.1). Equally close is the epithet  הַנֶּעָרָה מִשְׁפָּר, “the valley of vision,” attributed to Jerusalem in 22.1. There it satirically portrays Jerusalem’s failure of vision and impending fall. Here, the word מִשְׁפָּר, “valley,” may specifically evoke Jerusalem, which is raised above the mountains in 2.1, in its prophetic function.

“A voice says, ‘Cry.’” The same voice or different? Would its message be the same as in the previous five verses, or does it look forward to the rest of Deutero-Isaiah, or some other message, or is it entirely open? The imperative seems to be parallel to the injunction to comfort in v.1 and to open the way in v.3, as if this were a particular instance of comforting and opening the way. Why does the voice need an interlocutor to cry on its behalf? And what is the role and responsibility of that interlocutor? Here we come to a central issue of Deutero-Isaiah, as of prophetic literature generally. But we also come to a famous crux, whether we should read, “And I said” with IQIsa’ etc., or “And one said” with MT, whether the prophet is listening in to disembodied voices, or whether he is summoned on his own account. The first person, “And I said,” is simpler and more effective; it also enables a parallel with the opening of the second half of Deutero-Isaiah in 49.1-6. In that case, the prophet speaks on behalf of “all flesh” and its incapacity to speak. The other possibility suggests perhaps a celestial

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31 Childs (2001: 296, 300). Childs, like Seitz (1990: 242), emphasizes the parallel with הַנֶּעָרָה מִשְׁפָּר, “the fading flower,” but overlooks the additional correspondence with מִשְׁפָּר. See also the rather full discussion in Williamson (1994: 76-78), who does make this connection.

32 Freedman (1997: 244-246) provides an engaging discussion of the possibilities.

33 Some critics attribute vs.6-8 to a later redactional stratum e.g. Kratz (1993: 406-407), Labahn (1999a: 97-103), van Oorschot (1993: 114), arguing largely on the basis of the inconsistency of vs.6-8 with the other sections of the prologue.

34 Critics are divided on the issue cf. Baltzer (2001: 56). It should be noted that Melugin (1976: 84) considers the addressee to be also ambiguous. Fokkelman (1981:79 n.26) goes further and insists that it cannot be the prophet, because it does not accord with his “strong faith and glorious optimism.” This attributes an uncomplicated personality to the prophet, which I think would be difficult to sustain. A similar assumption, however, underlies redactional approaches.
hesitation, or an interplay of voices within the prophet or in God, and the divine as an internal voice of the prophet.

“What should I cry?” may refer to the content of the speech or to the inability to find an appropriate message. Correspondingly, “all flesh is grass” may be the message, culminating in “the word of our God lasts for ever,” or it may explicate the problem. At any rate, “What should I cry?” focuses on the speaker on the verge of speech, not knowing what to say or how to say it. The speaker identifies with “all flesh”: the prophet, as human, shares its transience. Or, as a divine voice, with the prophet listening in, it perhaps empathises with human mortality or, on the contrary, feels the insignificance of humans before God and the impossibility of any communication, as, for instance, in 40.15. The “comfort” of v.1 has apparently met with an inescapable objection. The grief of “my people” and “the heart of Jerusalem” is an example of the general human condition and its inconsolability. The pathos is emphasised by the continuation: "and all its hesed like the flower of the field."

_Hesed_ refers to the affective ties that bind human beings, and hence to the capacity for generosity and loyalty, the opposite of the lack of social solidarity for which Israel was condemned in First Isaiah, and of which v.2 reminds us. _Hesed_ exceeds justice; coupled most frequently with _'emet_, “truth,” it points to a truth about human commitment and human potential. Hesed is strikingly absent from most of First Isaiah, and only here is it used with reference to humanity. That even _hesed_ is evanescent indicates a despair, not

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35 Freedman (1997: 146), for instance, thinks that vs.6-8 logically precedes the other parts of the prologue, and the content of the message is to be found in vs.3-4. Kretzki (1972: 66) considers it to be the message, however. For a good account of the complexities of reading the passage, see Geller (1983: 215).

36 Geller (1983: 216) valuably defines _hesed_ as “a mixture of love and law beyond any narrow legalism.” However, he interprets our phrase negatively as referring to Israel’s infirm loyalty, like Hos.6.4. In the context of human mortality, a positive evaluation of its _hesed_ would make its passing more grievous. See further Baltzer (2001: 57 n.66) on proposals to translate _חסד_ as “strength” or “beauty.”

37 It only occurs in 16.5, in the context of the Oracles Against the Nations. Elsewhere in Deutero-Isaiah the referent is God (54.8, 10; 55.3).
over human evil, but goodness. It is not that it is not good enough, but that it is not durable. The comparison with the flower of the field is one of beauty as well as fragility. Beauty is an ethical quality; “flesh,” however, suggests physical desire, dependence, and intimacy. What do we really long for and grieve for? The lament has a long erotic history. With the introduction of hesed, a complex metaphorical transfer between ethics and aesthetics is intimated, typical of the prophets. The transfer, nonetheless, does not displace the corporeal loss; it focuses on the body as the site from which hesed arises, as well as beauty, and as that which preeminently dies.

However, “all flesh” sees the glory of the Lord, and/or that the mouth of the Lord has spoken. Will they survive the vision? What will it do to the flesh? Is there a disjunction between the sight and the rest of the body, between present and future? These questions are not easily answerable, but in the gap between v.5 and v.6 is invested the hope that “all flesh” may traverse it.

The images of grass and flower are highly conventional, and their iterability is emphasised by the repetition of ים הציר נמל ציון, “the grass withers, the flower fades,” in each of the next two verses. The repetition underwrites the truth of human mortality; it is a song that comes back to haunt us. But it is also there for the sake of the sequel:

המיתון נמל ציון, ירשר ומachers ביה ימותו ירשר
המיתון נמל ציון, ירשר ומachers עותק לולע

The grass withers, the flower fades/ for the spirit/wind of YHWH blows upon it;
The grass withers, the flower fades/ and the word of our God lasts forever.

38 The interfusion of death and eros is evident in the laments for Tammuz and in classical Pastoral. Westermann (1969: 24, 41-42 and throughout) rightly stresses the impress of the lament on Deutero-Isaiah.

39 Freedman (1997:138) regards v.5 as the centrepiece and climax of the whole poem, and v.6 as its logical beginning. In contrast, Labahn (1999a: 106-7) considers “for the mouth of YHWH has spoken” a Deuteronomistic supplement.
There is an obvious parallelism between the “spirit/wind of YHWH” and the “word of our God,” but are they equivalent or contrasted? The spirit/wind of YHWH (הרוח של יהוה) would perhaps be the same as the word, so that the message, anticipating Ecclesiastes, is that only the spirit, the wind, and the word are everlasting. Or, anticipating and reversing Paul, they are opposed, and the spirit kills, while the letter gives life. And this depends on a further, foundational, ambiguity: which word of our God lasts forever? How does it relate to the previous discourse, and all previous discourse, encapsulated in בִּרְכָּת יְהוָה רְאוּ, “for/that the mouth of YHWH has spoken” in v.5? Is this a new word, or the old word in new clothing? How secondary is Deutero-Isaiah?

The “spirit of YHWH” (רוח להוה) is associated with creation, for instance in Gen.1.2, as well as in 40.13. The spirit/wind here is responsible for the dessication of the grass and the death it figures. So the God of creation is the God of death, and the despair the prophet enunciates is inherent in the structure of creation. The voices of comfort in v.1, and that which instigates the opening of the way in v.3, are linked through repetition to a voice whose message to proclaim is foiled by the absence of any significant message, because of the transitoriness it itself mandates.

The verb בָּשָׂם, “blow,” is a byform of בָּשֹׁם and בָּשָׁה. Both of these occur in the immediate vicinity in Deutero-Isaiah, in contexts similar to ours and that suggest radical transformation. Both are correlated with terms for the animating spirit: נאם and חכמה.

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40 Görg (1998:150) argues that 40.1-11 was modelled on the priestly creation narrative, and that the mention of the רוח של יהוה, in particular, recalls Gen.1.2. Geller (1983: 217) interestingly suggests that ambiguity is bestowed on the phrase by its association with prophetic inspiration, and in particular the call vision.
41 KBL ad loc.
42 בָּשָׂם appears in 40.24, in the context of the uprooting and dessication of earthly potentates; in 42.14 נאם is part of a series of verbs depicting God’s laboured respiration, manifest in cosmic drought and a new Exodus.
moreover, partially duplicates "turn, return," paradigmatically associated in
the prophets with repentance and change. The wind that blows and brings death may
become that which gives life. Like רָמַת הַגּוֹיִם and רָמַת הָעַלְמָו are linked through
metathesis.\(^{43}\) As there, metathesis suggests the possibility of reversal. The wind dries the
glass, but it may also be responsible for its revival, for the restoration of חַיּוֹת and חַיּוֹת.
This is especially clear in the last verse of the section.

Before that, however, there is a little appendage, "Surely the
people is grass," which is conventionally regarded as a gloss. Against this, Görg has
argued that it communicates focus, paralleling "all flesh" in v.6.\(^{44}\) The repetition adds
plangency. It also recalls "my people," in v.1 (Freedman 1997: 248). The people may
be grass, evanescent, suffering, like all humanity, but they belong to God, a bond
emphasised by the substitution of "our God" for YHWH in v.8.\(^ {45}\) It also recalls the
context of comfort. The wind that blows is the wind, spirit and message of consolation; at
the very least, we cannot forget that the people who are but grass are the very same to
whom the whole address is delivered: "What can I cry?" is answered in the very saying.

In the last verse, the “word of our God” subsists despite the impermanence of
everything. Perhaps, however, one can read the Vav of הדָּבָר as a conjunction rather than
an adversative. The “word of our God” belongs to us, it speaks to us and in us. Then the
word of our God is the condition for our permanence; it becomes a metaphor for the grass
and flower. This brings us to the ambiguity of these images. Grass and flower fade, but
they may also flourish.

\(^{43}\) Krinetzki (1972: 69) notes the inversion without further comment; Fokkelman (1981:
80) also notes the connection formed through alliteration.

\(^{44}\) Görg (1998: 146). See also Freedman (1997: 248), and the sober discussion in Baltzer
(2001:57-58). The introduction of the clause by יָדָא, “Surely,” seems to me to be a clear
parallel with יָדָא יְהוָה יְהוָה and יָדָא דָּבָר, “my judgement is with YHWH,” in 49.4, in an
autobiographical passage that is widely regarded as corresponding to ours (cf. Stassen

\(^{45}\) Freedman (1997: 235-236) notes the parallel with the sequence YHWH/ ’elohenu in
v..3.
Goldingay, in a beautiful deconstructive reading of Deutero-Isaiah, has pointed out that the word can only survive in writing, that in itself, quoting Stephen Moore, it is the “most ephemeral of substances.”

I wonder whether the word can be so easily translated, whether, for instance, it is coterminous with our book of Isaiah. The focus on the mouth of YHWH, however we understand it, would suggest a process of cogitation, articulation and expression, which may be physical or psychic, but in any case is not fixed in a book. The word corresponds to the wind and perhaps also to hesed, as a series of immaterial entities which prove more durable than the solidity of flesh and all it represents. It thus encapsulates a fundamental motif of Deutero-Isaiah, and perhaps of prophetic writings generally, whereby the powerless are vindicated and power is illusory (Blenkinsopp 2000: 183).

In vs.3-5 the orientation is to the future, when all flesh sees the glory of YHWH, at the culmination of a way through a violently levelled landscape. Here in vs.6-8 the repetition evokes the seasons and rhythms of life and death. The repetition recalls that of וְשָׁמַע in v.1, and hence the theme of consolation. There comfort restores maternal care, both of God and the dead, bereaved, or captive heart of Jerusalem; it is both a recovery of the past and a new beginning. Here the rhythm of the seasons transcends and opens a possibility beyond the immediate human disaster. The maternal presence is inferred metonymically from the grass and flower; it is the fecund and inhuming earth, as well as the wind/spirit, which is the only feminine subject, and which is associated with the nurturing רוח of Gen.1.2. Both of these are ethereal, disembodied or implicit; the maternal comfort is entrusted to the wind, or in abeyance, germinating, in the earth.

On the one hand, Deutero-Isaiah asserts tirelessly that redemption is inherent in the structure and narrative of creation; on the other, it is unforeseen and unforeshadowed.

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47 For a discussion of its place in Deuteronomic traditions, see Labahn (1999a:106). Labahn is rather dismissive of its importance in prophetic writings.
There is no apparent way of bridging this contradiction, which it nonetheless attempts to convince us is no contradiction.\footnote{On this tension, see especially Willey (1997).} It is this that accounts for the spectrality, the doubleness of the vision, since that which is revealed, the glory of YHWH, the word of our God, is primordial and everlasting.

(9) On a high mountain go up, O herald of Zion; lift up your voice in strength, O herald of Jerusalem; lift up, do not be afraid; say to the cities of Judah, behold your God. (10) Behold, my Lord YHWH comes in power, and his arm rules for him; behold, his reward is with him, his recompense before him. (11) As a shepherd grazes his flock, with his right arm he gathers the lambs, and in his bosom he carries, he leads the nursing ewes.

So finally we, and he, come back home: that which is spoken to the heart of Jerusalem in v.2 is completed in the announcement of the herald, the way of YHWH in v.3 has reached its destination.\footnote{A number of scholars limit the Prologue to vs.1-8 e.g. Elliger (1989: 34). Others posit an especially close relationship between vs.1-2 and 9-11, and hence see the latter as being integral to the prologue. A detailed comparison is provided by Freedman (1997: 234-243) and Fokkelman (1981: 83ff). There are a variety of mediating positions e.g. Melugin (1976:84-85), Carr (1995: 62-63), Kratz (1993: 404-410).} One mountain, it seems, escapes the diminution of v.4, corresponding to the exaltation of Zion above all the mountains in 2.2. The mysterious voices have disappeared, as have the doubts of vs. 6-8,\footnote{Westermann (1969:43), however, suggests that the voice may be the same as in v.6. There is no evidence for this; Freedman (1997: 237) argues that here the message initiated in v.1 finally reaches its destination.} the prophet speaks for himself, and through the posited herald of Zion and Jerusalem.

But who is this herald? And why is she feminine? She is clearly a complement to the male herald (לָשָׁר) in 52.7, and thus cannot be identified in any simple sense with
Zion/Jerusalem.\textsuperscript{51} But she also cannot be separated from other female figures associated with Zion: the “daughter of Zion” of 1.9, the “inhabitant of Zion” (verige) of 12.6 etc, and hence the motif of Zion as the spouse of God.\textsuperscript{52} The “herald of Zion” may then be an aspect of Zion that is returning to itself, just as God is in v.3. But the voice of the prophet is also summoning, or claiming, a female counterpart to itself, as if it cannot speak, at least for the moment, except in this disguise.\textsuperscript{53} The prophet is an emissary, perhaps the emissary, from God to Zion, except that his voice is absorbed in that of the multitude of ewes whose ascent, as those who “go up” (גועי),\textsuperscript{54} completes the circular structure of vs.9-11. We began with an anonymous plurality of voices (גועי גועי), and so we end, as with the transition from male to female.

The herald of Zion/Jerusalem (גועי גועל) is presumably human as well as female, in contrast to the ambiguously divine voices in the first part of the passage; at any rate, she is not disembodied. The human quality of the voice is emphasized through the transposition of גועל to גועל.\textsuperscript{55} That which is flesh will communicate the advent of God. The voice anticipates and announces the vision that all flesh will see in v.5,\textsuperscript{56} and

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\textsuperscript{51} Most critics, nonetheless, make precisely this identification (Blenkinsopp 2000: 184, 185; Childs 2001: 301; Baltzer 2001: 61; Elliger 1989: 31, 35, are a representative sample). In contrast, McEvenue (1997: 218-221) considers the herald to be the prophetess, responsible for Deutero-Isaiah. As will become clear, my view is that the figure is ambiguous.

\textsuperscript{52} These are also frequently regarded as appositional. There is little reason, however, to reject the objective genitive, and in practice it makes little difference (cf. McEvenue 1997: 219; Landy 2002: 272--273)

\textsuperscript{53} In Landy (2002: 263-265), I argued that the “prophetess” of Isa.8.3 is a female complement of the prophet, as is the persona of the female singer in Isa.5.1. If McEvenue is right, there is no dissimulation; the prophet is female. However, he would have to account for the masculine gender used for the protagonist elsewhere in Deutero-Isaiah.

\textsuperscript{54} There is an evident wordplay between גועל, “nursing,” and גועל, “ascending.”

\textsuperscript{55} For the verbal connection, see Blenkinsopp (2000: 185) and Koole (1997: 70).

\textsuperscript{56} Some critics think that there is a contradiction between v.5 and vs.9-11, and hence attribute the latter to a later redactional layer cf. Kratz (1993: 404). However, van Oorschot (1991: 119 n.88) argues that we should not presuppose a chronological sequence to the passage. See also Freedman (1997: 255-257).
articulates the word which lasts for ever in v.8, especially if that word is in some sense the return of YHWH. הָרֹעַ, “herald,” mediates between the prior and ultimate condition of all flesh. But it also marks the transformation of flesh into word. Humans speak, and thus become more than flesh. At the same time they speak for and in the flesh, with the full vocal apparatus, at maximum volume, and with an excitement that cannot contain the news, which soars above the mountain and spreads from Zion/Jerusalem to the cities of Judah. The voice is permeated, however, with the divine imminence.

“Behold your God!” opens a space in the human voice for God to enter, for the supersession of the messenger by the content of the message, which is not a signifying discourse, but the subject of speech, that which the words signify. תִּרְנָא אָלָהוֹת, “Behold your God!” recollects, as some have noted, אָמַר אָלָהוֹת, “says your God,” in v.1. The structure of the passage is circular; we return to our initial point, just as God returns to Jerusalem. However, whereas in v.1 God speaks so as to displace the function of speaking and comforting onto unnamed others, while he himself remains enigmatically or ambivalently in the background, here God is no longer quoted in parentheses, no longer absents himself from the task of comforting, which is not a consequence of verbal communication, but of that which precedes and validates every communication, the presence of the speaker. Up to this point, God has been apprehended metonymically, through his word, spirit, way, and most of all through voices; now, he is divested of qualifying accoutrements.

The herald is hurrying towards Zion/Jerusalem, climbing up the high mountain, spurred on and imagined by the prophetic spectator, a figure of desire as well as of reunification. The herald מְשַׁרְאָה will become the inhabitant of Zion, and anticipates its repopulation, as the one who awaits her divine lover. The entrance of God into Zion is

57 For Carr (1995: 63), the prologue is divided into two parts: vs.1-8, which is concerned with authorization, and vs.9-11, which is the authorized message. However, the distinction is subverted by the identity of the message with the authorizing subject.
the culmination of the process. All three events, however, are one and the same. Zion, for instance, takes on the role of the herald, just as the latter restores to it its task of imparting Torah. The herald is absorbed in and becomes one with Zion, but also disappears, effaces herself, in her message; she is the vanishing intermediary, that which measures the distance between the entities whose loss and longing for each other has so far constituted the poem just before it collapses. But of course that collapse never happens.

It does not happen because two figures intervene: the warrior and the shepherd. The advent is deferred and elaborated through metaphors, which both intensify anticipation and take us to a different world or era. As several critics remark, v.10 derives from the divine warrior tradition, and hence from the context of YHWH’s paradigmatic victories over Canaan or chaos; the metaphor of the divine and royal shepherd likewise draws on ancient liturgical and narrative resources. We are returning to a poetic as well as ancestral home. Nostalgia risks disappointment, since home is not as it used to be. The figure of Zion/Jerusalem as lover, herald, and purveyor of Torah encounters that of the devastated city. As in v.2, to which v.9 corresponds, Jerusalem is addressed over and despite its desolation and death. The word, and even more the presence, of God, as in v.8, is that which gives life to the dead. The abandoned city awaits its population, its dead children represented by the survivors or their successors,

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59 Most critics assume that Zion is the subject of the address to the cities of Judah in the second half of the verse, and therefore identify it with the herald. It may be, as Brassey (2001: 184) remarks, included among the cities of Judah. Jerusalem and the cities of Judah are obviously complementary (cf.44.26), and one can easily imagine the function of the herald being transferred to Jerusalem. Holter (1996: 120) suggests that the cities of Judah are introduced here to announce the reversal of their devastation predicted in Isaiah’s commissioning scene in 6.11.

60 See especially Mettinger (1997: 150-151), who argues that it anticipates the acclamation of YHWH as king in 52.7, and the discussion of Mettinger in Brettler (1998: 106-108). Brettler points out that both warrior and shepherd are sub-metaphors of YHWH as king, though for some reason he does not think the metaphor of the shepherd is so in this instance (1998: 119).
who see in it an image of the irrecoverable past. The return is imminent, but we do not know to what we will return.

The images of vs.10-11 detain us, and add their own problems of interpretation and resolution. The divine warrior returns, as, for instance, in Ps.24, but where has he been? If he is returning from Babylon, his victory, which may subsequently be decoded as that of Cyrus, is the obverse of apparent defeat, the captivity of Zion and thus of God, and of the motif of impotence which recurs repeatedly in Deutero-Isaiah. He comes “in strength” from the scene of the disaster, for which he too is responsible. Hence the parallelism between the “hand of YHWH” in v.2 and his “arm” (וְרָשָׁה) in v.10. God then moves from the position of adversary to that of protagonist, or perhaps he destroys for the sake of restitution. The oscillation points not only to an ambivalence on the part of God, an ability to change sides, to the other meaning of מְנַשֵּׁה as “changing one’s mind,” but to the background of imperial domination against which the ideology of divine conquest is reasserted. Divine authorisation of Cyrus, to give the most proximate instance, will perpetuate Jerusalem’s servitude, and is the antithesis of the rhetoric of Israel’s independence and possession of the Promised Land.

He comes with his “reward” and the “recompense” for his labour (וָדַבֵּר אֲחַזָּה וּמְשָׁלְאָת מֶפְנִי), corresponding to the penalty Israel pays in v.2. The reward and recompense are perhaps Israel; the detail that his מְשָׁלְאָת, “labour,” is before him foreshadows the image of the flock in the next verse. If so, God has earned something, his people, among the foreign powers, and has experienced a servitude approximating theirs. Divine identification with and participation in Israel’s suffering, for instance in accounts of his parturition, accompanies the insistence on his power.

61 There is a minor problem of the pointing of וַדַּבֵּר which need not detain us here.
62 Farfan Navarro (1992: 188) points out that “hand” and “arm,” are not simply equivalent in Deutero-Isaiah. Nonetheless they do seem to be parallel here.
63 Stoebe (1984: 108-109) suggests that the reward may be Israel’s (and cf. Blenkinsopp 2000: 186). But the metaphor of the shepherd in the next verse makes it more probable that YHWH is the recipient.
In the last verse the metaphor of the victorious hero returning home is replaced by the pastoral one of the shepherd. The hero appears indirectly or implicitly, preceded by his attribute of strength ח嘈וים שלח ריו (חחוש שלח), and his governing arm וַלְּהָלֹם וַרְצִיו; virile aggrandizement is intensified in preparation for the arrival, with its intimations of sexual union. Here the metaphor is displaced as a simile – בַּרְצִיו, “like a shepherd” – so as to preempt premature identification. As with the simile of the “flower of the field” in v.6, it suggests a dialectic of identity and non-identity, it insists on its difference, perhaps as a prelude to the advent of God as creator in v.12.

Matters are complicated by the relationship of the figures of the warrior and the shepherd. They may form a composite metaphor; warrior and shepherd are both features of divine sovereignty, and hence presage the declaration that YHWH reigns in the parallel passage in 52.7. They may, however, be successive: YHWH is first imagined as a warrior and then as a shepherd, so as to substitute a peaceful, utopian paradigm for the immediate political context. The alternatives are not exclusive: the reader may or should integrate the metaphors in one comprehensive image, and perceive them as separate impressions or revisions.

The shepherd presides over a flock of nursing ewes and lambs, a proliferating maternal economy. He himself, with his capacious bosom, has a maternal function. The fecundity of Zion has been transferred to the children and to God himself. Various critics have perceived in these verses a recollection of Jacob’s return from Laban. Not only has the crooked been made straight; God identifies with the transformation and escape of Jacob. Jacob and God, and hence Zion and God, are united. Jacob’s

64 Brettler (1998: 118-119. Kiesow (1979: 33-34) finds the tension between vs.10 and 11 sufficiently acute to attribute them to different redactional strata.
65 Elliger (1989: 37-38), Baltzer (2001” 62), Zapff (2001: 231-232) are representative examples. Polliack (2002: 108-110) suggests that the hidden presence of Rachel in these verses. However, she overlooks the possible connection between Rachel’s name and the metaphor of the ewes, and strangely identifies Rachel with Zion.
miraculous multiplication of sheep, accomplished through the mounting (_EXTENSION) of the
rams (Gen.31.10) is transformed into their nursing (Gen.33.3) on the ascent to Zion.

God leads (_EXTENSION) the ewes; the verb לַהֲנָה is associated, in particular, with pasture
and with water. In Exod.15.13, the guidance is precisely to the divine pasture of Zion.
If, in Isa.51.18, mother Jerusalem has no one to guide (אניות) her among all the children,
now it is precisely her children, replications of her maternity, who are led. The ascent
may suggest a pilgrimage, a journey to a cosmic mountain; it may be metaphorical as
well as literal. But the guidance, like the carrying of the lambs in God’s bosom, takes us
back to the way of YHWH in v.3. The way replaces Zion as the site of communion. The
peaceful idyll on the way is imagined from the perspective of Zion, the prophet and
perhaps God, and is their meeting point. The journey may be interminably protracted,
indefinitely forestalling the destination. Or the journey, on which God cares for his flock,
is a moving Zion, Zion returning to itself.

The verse begins with a remarkable alliterative sequence: הָרַשָּׁת עָרְשָׁה יְרָעַת הָרֵזָה הָרוֹזָה, “As a shepherd grazes his flock, with his arm…” The sequence may suggest an
identification between shepherd and flock, and, more important, a sense of enclosure,
since the word for “flock” is encircled by those for “shepherd” and “shepherding.” The
maternal care elaborated in the rest of the verse is implicated in its inception. But the
containment is expansive; the arm (Extension) comes forth to gather in more lambs, a reach that
is presumably uncircumscribed (Zapff 2003: 362). The word רָעָת, “arm,” is recollected
from the previous verse, where it is a conventional figure for God’s domination. God’s
power, exercised over the nations, is preliminary to, or is exhausted in, his care for Israel.
The sideslip between vs.10 and 11, and between the two usages of רָעָת, “arm,” couples
them together, and ensures that the simile of v.11, the pastoral interlude whose illustrative

66 For the etymology of לַהֲנָה, see Koole (1997: 79), Elliger (1989: 38), and KBL.
range perhaps covers the whole sequence from v.1 on, is potentially disarming, and has unlimited consequences.

There is always the possibility of subversion, especially in the wider context. The word יִשְׂרָאֵל recurs, with the opposite meaning, in v.26: יִשְׂרָאֵל, ‘none is lacking.’ There the subject is the host of heaven, who may be associated with the nations and their gods. Israel, as God’s flock, is an exemplification of God’s universal care and dominion, just as in vs.6-7, its transitoriness as a “people” represents the plight of “all flesh.”

The question of the relationship of Isaiah 6 and 40 is misconceived, I think, in terms of verbal cross-reference, parallel call visions, or redactional bridging, simply because they are too different. For instance, while one may compile an impressive list of common terms, there is an even more impressive list of non-correspondences. Both chapters, moreover, have many other cognate texts, both within Isaiah and outside it. The real question is whether Isaiah 40 countermands Isaiah 6 as a key to the book. Isaiah 6, as the initiatory experience, is the centre from which the entire book emanates; at the same time, it nullifies it since the message is intended not to communicate, to forestall healing. Whether Isaiah 40 falls under the interdict and is thus a false promise of comfort is indeterminable. One could hope that it is beyond the temporal divide projected by the

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68 The most inclusive list of correspondences is provided by Zapff (2003: 359-362). Non-corresponding terms include, in the case of Isaiah 6, the vision, the Temple scene, the seraphim, the initiation ritual, the commission, and the metaphor of the tree. Many of the basic images of Isaiah 40, like the wilderness, the way of YHWH, and grass, do not occur in Isaiah 6.

69 We have already seen correlations with Isaiah 1, 2, and 28, as well as with the Exodus, the creation and Jacob narratives. Kratz (1993, 1994) has proposed Deutero-Isaiah, the conclusion of the Joseph narrative in Gen.50.21, and Jeremiah 50-51, as significant intertexts. Both Sommer (1998) and Willey (1997) have argued that Jeremiah is a stronger influence on Deutero-Isaiah than First Isaiah. The pervasive impact of Isaiah 6 throughout the book of Isaiah is a commonplace that needs little substantiation (cf. e.g. Williamson 1994: 30-56).
prophet’s “Until when, O Lord?” (6.11) and the catastrophe portended in 6.11-12, inaugurating the age of linguistic clarity and political justice and peace, and indeed it presents itself as such. Except that neither future is very secure; 6.13 holds forth the prospect of repeated destruction, while in 40.1-11 the advent is indefinitely postponed. Deutero- muddles through to Trito- and the perplexities and the partisan politics of the restoration. At the heart of Deutero-Isaiah, as Goldingay (1997: 232, 236) points out, is a mystery and a death. The word that lasts for ever is enigmatic indeed.

I have written extensively on Isaiah 6, which is why I have not focused on it in this essay. I have discussed the significance of the seraphim as hybrid creatures, in whom all orders of existence are represented; from the ineffable transcendence of God, and Isaiah’s sacrilegious vision, we pass through the seraphim’s declaration of the plenitude of divine glory, to the terror and transformation of the prophet, and thence to the commission, which makes his language radically incomprehensible to the listeners, whose faithful seeing and hearing is a corollary of fateful non-perception and cognition. I examined the wordplays in 6.10, in which each word may mean or connote its opposite: the glory (kabod) of YHWH is reflected or manifested in the heaviness (hakbed) of the ears; the roots for “gazing” (חָנָן) and “obscuring vision” (תָּלָת) are practically indistinguishable. I analysed the techniques for diverting our attention from the vision of God in the first section, for focusing on the prophet in the second, and the combination of the two in the third, where the concentration on the heart results in its vacuity. The glory of YHWH that fills the earth in v.3 is negated or perhaps fulfilled in the desolation.

70 The distinction between Deutero- and Trito-Isaiah has become increasingly blurred in recent scholarship and is altogether denied by some authors, such as Sommer (1998). For an interesting if highly speculative construction of the development of Deutero-Isaiah in relation to the party politics of the restoration and the rapprochement of the Isaianic and Deuteronomic schools, see Labahn (1999b). Labahn is a useful corrective to the somewhat simplistic views of Gottwald (1992); see also Newsom (1992) and Boer (1998).

71 Apart from my published articles (1999=2001, 2000), there is also an extended section of a chapter for my projected book on Isaiah.
of vs.11-12. The seraphim I saw as metaphors for the poetic process, for the book of Isaiah, the passage from vision to language, which may be destructive and creative. Finally, I was interested in the trajectory from male to female deities, YHWH to the goddess, concealed through simile and the tree (תָּל), which may or may not represent the golah community in its claim to autochthony.

There are powerful interconnections with our chapter. The holiness of YHWH Sebaoth, a term encompassing the entire cosmic realm, is infused into the service (קָדוֹשׁ) of Israel, which attracts to itself the fullness (כָּל) of divine glory. The comforters speak to the heart of Jerusalem, recalling and reversing the obtuseness of the heart in Isaiah 6. The glory is now revealed. The differences, however, are more significant. Both chapters are programmatic. Isaiah 6 is a vision, Isaiah 40 an audition. The voice is spectral, heavy with the voices of the past, speaking from the non-place, the desert, the grasses, the exile and death. Instead of seraphim, we have disembodied angelic or human voices; instead of the inset narrative, whose immense temporal and cosmic vistas converge on the prophet’s encounter, we have disconnected fragments, that strive to become whole. As with every work of mourning, we go back, but we also begin again. That is what is important, to begin again.

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72 קָדוֹשׁ recurs with reference to the heavenly host in 40.26.
73 Elliger (1989: 11, 12) stresses the auditory character of the report, which, he suggests, is closer to Zechariah than Isaiah or Micah.